Linear algebra and applications



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Linear algebra and applications

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Outline

1 Special matrices and applications

Linear algebra and applications

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How to read this handout

- 1 the note is used with lecture in EE205 (you cannot master this topic just by reading this note) class activities include
 - graphical concepts, math derivation of details/steps in between
 - computer codes to illustrate examples
- 2 always read 'textbooks' after lecture
- 3 pay attention to the symbol <a>s; you should be able to prove such <a>s result
- each chapter has a list of references; find more formal details/proofs from in-text citations
- almost all results in this note can be Googled; readers are encouraged to 'stimulate neurons' in your brain by proving results without seeking help from the Internet first
- 6 typos and mistakes can be reported to jitkomut@gmail.com



Special matrices and applications

Linear algebra and applications

Jitkomut Songsiri Special matrices and applications

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Special matrices

- orthogonal matrix
- projection matrix
- permutation matrix
- symmetric matrix
- positive definite matrix

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Orthogonal matrix

a real matrix $U \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ is called **orthogonal** if

$$UU^T = U^T U = I$$

properties: 🔊

- an orthogonal matrix is special case of unitary for real matrices
- \blacksquare an orthogonal matrix is always invertible and $U^{-1}=U^T$
- \blacksquare columns vectors of U are mutually orthogonal
- \blacksquare norm is preserved under an orthogonal transformation: $\|Ux\|_2^2 = \|x\|_2^2$ example:

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

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Applications

1 rotation: in \mathbf{R}^3 , rotate a vector x by the angle θ around the z-axis

$$w = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0\\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0\\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x\\ y\\ z \end{bmatrix} \triangleq U \begin{bmatrix} x\\ y\\ z \end{bmatrix}$$

where U is orthogonal

- 2 eigenvectors of symmetric matrices are orthogonal (more detail later)
- $\mathbf{3}$ Q in QR decomposition is orthogonal
- orthogonal matrices are used to whiten the data (transform correlated random vector to uncorrelated random vector)
- **5** discrete Fourier transform (DFT): y = Wx where W is unitary (equivalence of orthogonal matrix in complex)

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Unitary matrix

a *complex* matrix $U \in \mathbf{C}^{n \times n}$ is called **unitary** if

$$U^*U = UU^* = I, \qquad (U^* \triangleq \bar{U}^T)$$

example: let $z = e^{-i2\pi/3}$

$$U = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1\\ 1 & z & z^2\\ 1 & z^2 & z^4 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1\\ 1 & e^{-i2\pi/3} & e^{-i4\pi/3}\\ 1 & e^{-i4\pi/3} & e^{-i8\pi/3} \end{bmatrix}$$

facts: 🔊

- \blacksquare a unitary matrix is always invertible and $U^{-1}=U^{\ast}$
- \blacksquare columns vectors of U are mutually orthogonal
- 2-norm is preserved under a unitary transformation: $||Ux||_2^2 = (Ux)^*(Ux) = ||x||_2^2$

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Example: Discrete Fourier transform (DFT)

DFT of the length-N time-domain sequence x[n] is defined by

$$X[k] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} x[n] e^{-i2\pi k n/N}, \quad 0 \le k \le N-1$$

define $z = e^{-\mathrm{i}2\pi/N}$, we can write the DFT in a matrix form as

$$\begin{bmatrix} X[0] \\ X[1] \\ X[2] \\ \vdots \\ X[N-1] \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ 1 & z^1 & z^2 & \cdots & z^{N-1} \\ 1 & z^2 & z^4 & \cdots & z^{2(N-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & z^{N-1} & z^{2(N-1)} & \cdots & z^{(N-1)(N-1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x[0] \\ x[1] \\ x[2] \\ \vdots \\ x[N-1] \end{bmatrix}$$

or X = Dx where D is called the DFT matrix and is unitary (: $x = D^*X$)

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Unitary property of DFT

the columns of DFT matrix are of the form:

$$\phi_k = (1/\sqrt{N}) \begin{bmatrix} 1 & e^{-i2\pi k/N} & e^{-i2\pi k \cdot 2/N} & \cdots & e^{-i2\pi k(N-1)/N} \end{bmatrix}^T$$

use $\langle \phi_l, \phi_k \rangle = \phi_k^* \phi_l$ and apply the sum of geometric series:

$$\langle \phi_l, \phi_k \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} e^{i2\pi(k-l)n/N} = \frac{1}{N} \cdot \frac{1 - e^{i2\pi(k-l)}}{1 - e^{i2\pi(k-l)/N}}$$

the columns of DFT matrix are therefore orthogonal

$$\langle \phi_l, \phi_k \rangle = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{for } k = l + rN, \quad r = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ 0, & \text{for } k \neq l \end{cases}$$

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Projection matrix

 $P \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ is said to be a **projection** matrix if $P^2 = P$ (aka idempotent)

- \blacksquare P is a linear transformation from \mathbf{R}^n to a subspace of \mathbf{R}^n , denoted as S
- \blacksquare columns of P are the projections of standard basis vectors and S is the range of P
- if P is applied twice on a vector in S, it gives the same vector

examples: identity and

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 & 1/2 \\ 1/2 & 1/2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -6 \\ 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}, I - X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T \text{ (in regression)}$$

properties: 👒

- \blacksquare eigenvalues of P are all equal to $0 \mbox{ or } 1$
- I P is also idempotent
- if $P \neq I$, then P is singular

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Orthogonal projection matrix

a matrix $P \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}$ is called an orthogonal projection matrix if

$$P^2 = P = P^T$$

properties:

•
$$P$$
 is bounded, *i.e.*, $||Px|| \le ||x||$

$$||Px||_2^2 = x^T P^T P x = x^T P^2 x = x^T P x \le ||Px|| ||x||$$

• if P is an orthogonal projection onto a line spanned by a unit vector u,

$$P = uu^T$$

(we see that rank(P) = 1 as the dimension of a line is 1)

• another example: $P = X(X^TX)^{-1}X^T$ for any matrix X - (in regression)

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Permutation

a **permutation** matrix P is a square matrix that has exactly one entry of 1 in each row and each column and has zero elsewhere

[0	1	0		Γ0	1	0
1	0	0	,	0	0	1
0	$egin{array}{c} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array}$	1		1	0	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

facts: 🔊

- \blacksquare P is obtained by interchanging any two rows (or columns) of an identity matrix
- PA results in permuting rows in A, and AP gives permuting columns in A
- $P^T P = I$, so $P^{-1} = P^T$ (simple)
- the modulus of all eigenvalues of P is one, i.e., $|\lambda_i(P)|=1$
- a multiplication of P with vectors or matrix has no flop count (just swap rows/columns)

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Linear function

given $w \in \mathbf{R}^n$ and let $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$ be a vector variable

a linear function $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ is given by

$$f(x) = w^T x = w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + \dots + w_n x_n$$

(review its linear properties, *i.e.*, superposition)

an affine function is a linear function plus a constant: $f(x) = w^T x + b$

•
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = w_i$$
 gives the rate of change of f in x_i direction

• the set $\{x \mid w^T x + b = \text{ constant }\}$ is a hyperplane in \mathbf{R}^n with the normal vector w

linear functions are used in linear regression model and linear classifier

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Energy form

given a (real) square matrix A, an energy form is a quadratic function of vector x:

$$f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}, \quad f(x) = x^T A x = \sum_i \sum_j a_{ij} x_i x_j$$

• $x^T A x$ is the same as the energy form using $(A + A^T)/2$ as the coefficient because

$$x^T A x = (x^T A x)^T = \frac{x^T (A + A^T) x}{2}$$

• using $A = \frac{A+A^T}{2} + \frac{A-A^T}{2}$, we can later on assume that an energy form requires only the symmetric part of A

• reverse question: given an energy form, can you determine what A is ?

$$x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 + 3x_3^2 - x_1x_2 + 2x_2x_3 \triangleq x^T A x$$

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Energy form and completing the square

recall how to complete the square:

$$x_1^2 + 3x_2^2 + 14x_1x_2 = (x_1 + 7x_2)^2 - 46x_2^2$$

given these matrices, expand the energy form and complete the square

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 6 \\ 6 & 13 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 6 \\ 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}, \quad C = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 6 \\ 6 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $x^T A x =$ $x^T B x =$ $x^T C x =$

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Quadratic function

given $P \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times n}, q \in \mathbf{R}^n, r \in \mathbf{R}$, a quadratic function $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ is of the form $f(x) = (1/2)x^T P x + q^T x + r$

 x^TPx is aka an energy form (due to the quadratic form that appears in the energy/power of some physical variables)

electrical power
$$=i^2R,\,\,$$
 kinetic energy $=\,\,\,rac{1}{2}mv^2,\,\,$ energy stored in spring $=\,\,rac{1}{2}kx^2$

■ the contour shape of *f* depends on the property of *P* (positive definite, indefinite, magnitude of eigenvalues, direction of eigenvectors) – as we will learn shortly

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Symmetric matrix

definition: a (real) square matrix A is said to be symmetric if $A = A^T$ notation: $A \in \mathbf{S}^n$

examples:

$$\begin{bmatrix} X & Y \\ Y^T & Z \end{bmatrix}$$
 with symmetric $X, Z, \quad A = \mathbf{E}[XX^T]$ (correlation matrix)

Solution States Sta

- for any (rectangular) matrix A, AA^T and A^TA are always symmetric
- $\hfill \hfill \hfill A$ is symmetric and invertible, then A^{-1} is symmetric
- if A is invertible, then AA^T and A^TA are also invertible

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Properties of symmetric matrix

spectral theorem: if A is a real symmetric matrix then the following statements hold

- **1** all eigenvalues of A are real
- **2** all eigenvectors of A are orthogonal
- $\mathbf{3}$ A admits a decomposition

$$A = UDU^T$$

where $U^T U = U U^T = I$ (U is unitary) and a diagonal D contains $\lambda(A)$

4 for any x, we have

$$\lambda_{\min}(A) \|x\|_2^2 \leq x^T A x \leq \lambda_{\max}(A) \|x\|_2^2$$

the first (and second) inequalities are tight when x is the eigenvector corresponding to λ_{\min} (and λ_{\max} respectively)

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Proofs

1 assume $Ax = \lambda x$ and λ, x could be complex, denote $x^* = \bar{x}^T$

$$\begin{aligned} (x^*Ax)^* &= x^*A^*x = x^*Ax = x^*\lambda x = \lambda x^*x \\ &= (x^*\lambda x)^* = \bar{\lambda}x^*x \end{aligned}$$

since $x^*x
eq 0$, we must have $\lambda = ar{\lambda}$

2 assume $Ax_1 = \lambda_1 x_1$ and $Ax_2 = \lambda_2 x_2$ (now all (λ_i, x_i) are real)

$$\begin{aligned} x_2^T A x_1 &= x_2^T \lambda_1 x_1 = \lambda_1 x_2^T x_1 \\ &= x_1^T A x_2 = x_1^T \lambda_2 x_2 = \lambda_2 x_1^T x_2 \end{aligned}$$

equating two terms give $(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) x_2^T x_1 = 0$

for simple case, we can assume that λ_i 's are distinct, so $x_2^T x_1 = 0$ $(x_2 \perp x_1)$

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Exercises

- **1** for $x, y \in \mathbf{R}^n$, are xy^T, xx^T, yx^T symmetric?
- **2** for a diagonal matrix D, is $D + xx^T$ symmetric?
- 3 if A, B are symmetric, so is A + B?
- 4 how many distinct entries in a symmetric matrix of size n?
- **5** if A is symmetric and B is rectangular, is BAB^T symmetric?
- 6 if A is symmetric and invertible, is A^{-1} symmetric?
- 7 find conditions on A, B, C, D so that the block matrix: $\begin{bmatrix} A & B \\ C & D \end{bmatrix}$ is symmetric

Positive definite matrix

definition: a symmetric matrix A is **positive semidefinite**, written as $A \succeq 0$ if

$$x^T A x \ge 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathbf{R}^n$$

and is said to be **positive definite**, written as $A \succ 0$ if

 $x^T A x > 0$, for all *nonzero* $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$

* the curly \succeq symbol is used with matrices (to differentiate it from \ge for scalars) example: $A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \succeq 0$ and $A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \succ 0$ because

$$x^{T}A_{1}x = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1} & x_{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_{1} \\ x_{2} \end{bmatrix} = x_{1}^{2} + x_{2}^{2} - 2x_{1}x_{2} = (x_{1} - x_{2})^{2} \ge 0$$
$$x^{T}A_{2}x = (x_{1} - x_{2})^{2} + x_{2}^{2} > 0, \quad \forall x \neq 0$$

exercise: 🗞 check positive semidefiniteness of matrices on page 16, and the semidefiniteness of matrices on page 16, and the semidefiniteness of the

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How to test if $A \succeq 0$?

Theorem: $A \succeq 0$ if and only if all eigenvalues of A are non-negative $(A \succ 0 \text{ if and only if } \lambda(A) > 0)$

Sylvester's criterion: if every principal minor of A (including det A) is non-negative then $A \succeq 0$ proof in Horn Theorem 7.2.5

example 1:
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \succ 0$$
 because

• eigenvalues of A are 0.38 and 2.61 (real and positive)

• the principle minors are 1 and $\begin{vmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{vmatrix} = 1$ (all positive) xample 2: $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{vmatrix} \succeq 0$ because eigenvalues of A are 0 and 3

example 2:
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \succeq 0$$
 because eigenvalues of A are 0 and 3

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Properties of positive definite matrix

- **1** if $A \succeq 0$ then all the diagonal terms of A are nonnegative
- **2** if $A \succeq 0$ then all the leading blocks of A are positive semidefinite
- **3** if $A \succeq 0$ then $BAB^T \succeq 0$ for any B

🖾 (exercise)

4 if $A \succeq 0$ and $B \succeq 0$, then so is A + B

Gram matrix

for an $m \times n$ matrix A with columns a_1, \ldots, a_n , the product $G = A^T A$ is called the Gram matrix Gram matrix is positive semidefinite

Jørgen Pedersen Gram



$$G = A^{T}A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1}^{T}a_{1} & a_{1}^{T}a_{2} & \cdots & a_{1}^{T}a_{n} \\ a_{2}^{T}a_{1} & a_{2}^{T}a_{2} & \cdots & a_{2}^{T}a_{n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n}^{T}a_{1} & a_{n}^{T}a_{2} & \cdots & a_{n}^{T}a_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$
$$x^{T}Gx = x^{T}A^{T}Ax = \|Ax\|^{2} \ge 0, \ \forall x$$

- if A has zero nullspace then $Ax = 0 \leftrightarrow x = 0$; this implies that $A^TA \succ 0$
- let X be a data matrix, partitioned in N rows as x_k^T 's; we typically encounter $G = \frac{X^T X}{N} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^N x_k x_k^T$ as the sample covariance matrix

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Exercises

1 check if each of the following is positive definite

$$A_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 \\ 4 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, \quad A_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & 2 \\ 0 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

2 is a diagonal matrix always positive semidefinite?

3 for
$$x \in \mathbf{R}^n$$
 and I is the identify

1 is $I + xx^T$ positive semidefinite?

- **2** is $I xx^T$ positive semidefinite?
- **3** is xx^T positive semidefinite?

4 find conditions on a, b, c so that

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & a & b \\ a & 1 & -1 \\ b & -1 & c \end{bmatrix}$$

is positive definite

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 $\mathbf{A} \equiv \mathbf{A} \equiv \mathbf{A} \equiv \mathbf{A} \equiv \mathbf{A} \equiv \mathbf{A} \otimes \mathbf{A}$

generate each of these matrices randomly and check its properties

- 1 orthogonal: check determinant and eigenvalues
- 2 orthogonal projection: check eigenvalues
- 3 permutation: check the eigenvalues, its inverse and transpose
- **4** symmetric: check eigenvalues and eigenvectors
- 5 positive definite: check eigenvalues, eigenvalues of leading diagonal blocks,

relate what you numerically found to the properties of these matrices

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 G. Strang, *Linear Algebra and Learning from Data*, Wellesley-Cambridge Press, 2019