

PRE2 - CLASS 4

We have seen last time that an orthogonal matrix is a square matrix U such that:

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

It means that the inverse of $U^{-1} = U^T$

Example:

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

is orthogonal $U^{-1} = U^T = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$, \quad U^{-1} = U^T = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

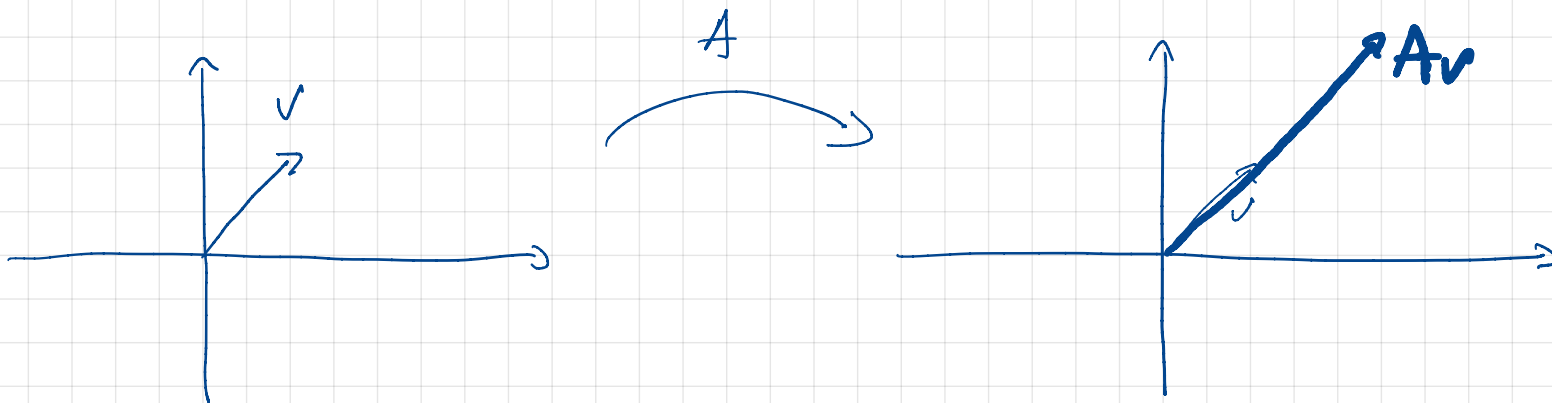
EIGENVALUES / EIGENVECTORS, MATRIX REDUCTION

DEFINITION: An eigenvector v of a $n \times n$ matrix is a non-zero vector such that, $\exists \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ called eigenvalue such that

$$Av = \lambda v$$

GEOMETRICAL INTERPRETATION:

A a 2×2 matrix, v eigenvector of A ; ie $Av = \lambda v$ say $\lambda > 1$



Examples: Find eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & (0) \\ (0) & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & (0) \\ (0) & \lambda_2 \end{pmatrix}$

If $I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & (0) \\ & \ddots & \\ (0) & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, then any vector x satisfies $Ix = x$, so any vector is eigenvector associated to the eigenvalue 1.

$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ are eigenvectors: CORRECT but actually any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is eigenvector.

$D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & (0) \\ & \ddots & \\ (0) & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow D e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & (0) \\ & \ddots & \\ (0) & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda_1 e_1$

e_1 is eigenvector associated to λ_1 .

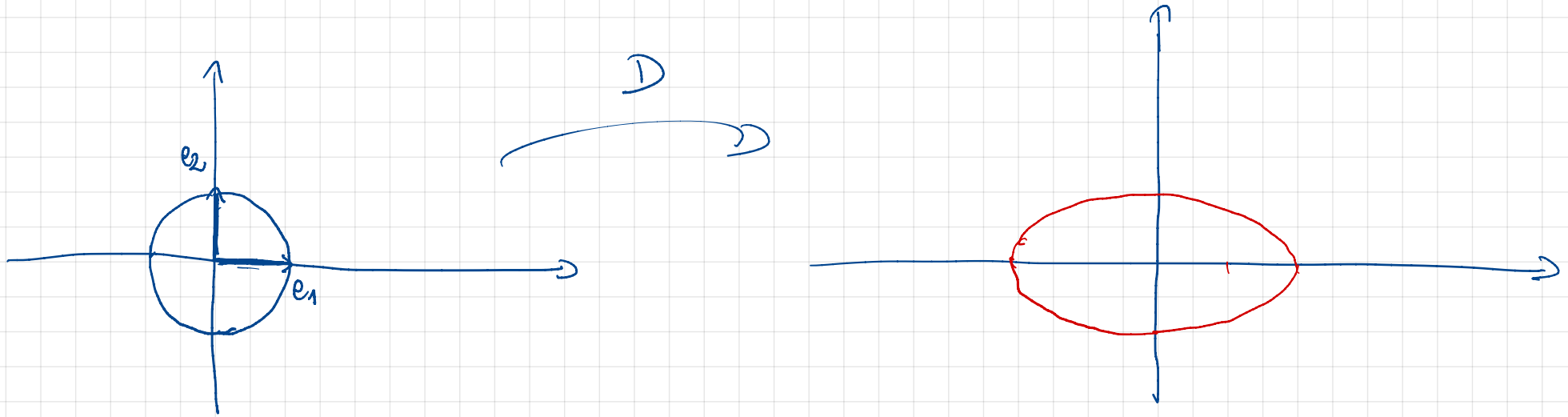
$e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ is eigenvector associated to λ_2

\vdots

$e_m = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\hspace{10em}} \lambda_m$

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In \mathbb{R}^2 , how is the unit circle $\left\{ x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \mid x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1 \right\}$ transformed via D ?



The circle is transformed into the red ellipsoid.

$$\text{Let } y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = Ax \text{ with } x \in \text{Unit circle (ie } x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1) \\ = \begin{pmatrix} 2x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow x_1 = \frac{y_1}{2}, x_2 = y_2$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1^2 + x_2^2 &= 1 \\ \Leftrightarrow \underbrace{\frac{y_1^2}{4} + y_2^2}_{\text{Equation of an ellipsoid}} &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Equation of an ellipsoid.

Given $D = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & (0) \\ & \ddots & \\ (0) & & d_n \end{pmatrix}$, $D^k = \underbrace{DD \dots D}_{k \text{ times}} = \begin{pmatrix} d_1^k & & (0) \\ & \ddots & \\ (0) & & d_n^k \end{pmatrix}$

$$D^2 = \begin{pmatrix} d_1^2 & & (0) \\ & \ddots & \\ (0) & & d_n^2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & d \\ c & b \end{pmatrix}$$

~~$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} a^2 & d^2 \\ c^2 & b^2 \end{pmatrix}$$~~

If we have a $n \times n$ matrix A with n linearly independent eigenvectors

$$\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\},$$

$$Av_i = \lambda_i v_i$$

λ_i : eigenvalue associated to v_i

$\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

$V = [v_1, \dots, v_n]$, then we have

$$AV = VD \quad (*)$$

where $D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \\ & & & & (0) \\ & & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & (0) \\ & & & & & & & \ddots \\ & & & & & & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$

(*) is true: Indeed:

$$AV = A \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} Av_1 \\ Av_2 \\ \vdots \\ Av_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 v_1 \\ \lambda_2 v_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n v_n \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{matrix} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda_n \end{matrix} = VD$$



$$VD \neq DV$$

multiplies
the columns by d_i

multiplies the
rows by d_i .

V is composed of n linearly independent vectors, $\Rightarrow \text{span}(v_1, \dots, v_n) = \mathbb{R}^n$
 $\Rightarrow \text{rank}(V) = n$
 $\Rightarrow V$ is an invertible matrix

$$AV = VD \Leftrightarrow AVV^{-1} = VD V^{-1}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow A = \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{Diagonal}}}{VD V^{-1}}$$

We say that the
matrix A is diagonalizable.

EXERCISE: Let $(\lambda_i, v_i)_{1 \leq i \leq n}$ be pairs of eigenvalues, eigenvectors of a matrix A with $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ are linearly independent.

Identify eigenvalues and eigenvectors of A^2, \dots, A^k $k \in \mathbb{N}$

Are they diagonalizable?

POSITIVE - DEFINITE MATRICES

DEFINITION: A $n \times n$ matrix A is **positive definite** if

A is symmetric and if:

1) $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x^T A x \geq 0$ (positive)

2) $x^T A x = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$ (definite)

Remark: we can have the same definition with negative definite.

A $n \times n$ matrix is **positive semi-definite** if it is symmetric and positive.

DEFINITION: (GRAM MATRIX) If A is a $m \times n$ matrix, then
 $A^T A$ is its Gram matrix.

The Gram matrix is always positive semi-definite.

PROOF: 1/ Let's prove that $A^T A$ is symmetric.

we need to prove that $(A^T A)^T = A^T A$

it is easy since $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$

$\Rightarrow (A^T A)^T = A^T (A^T)^T = A^T A \Rightarrow A^T A$ is symmetric

2/ Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we need to show that $x^T (A^T A) x \geq 0$

$$x^T A^T A x = (Ax)^T (Ax) \geq 0$$

\Leftarrow Given y a vector $y^T y = \sum y_i^2 \geq 0$ $y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$

EXERCICE : $\text{rank}(A^T A) = \text{rank}(A)$

THEOREM: (Spectral Theorem)

If A is a symmetric $n \times n$ matrix, then A is orthogonally diagonalizable, which means that A has n eigenvectors which are pairwise orthogonal and independent.

Hence, a symmetric matrix can be diagonalized as

$$A = V D V^T \text{ with } V \text{ orthogonal.}$$

and D is diagonal made of n eigenvalues of A

EXERCICE : If A is symmetric positive definite matrix, show that all eigenvalues of A are strictly positive.

POLAR DECOMPOSITION

Given a $n \times n$ matrix A , we consider the Gram matrix $A^T A$ which is symmetric and positive semi-definite.

According to the spectral theorem, $\exists V$ orthogonal and D diagonal (composed of eigenvalues of $A^T A$) such that:

$$A^T A = V D V^T \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & (0) \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ (0) & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

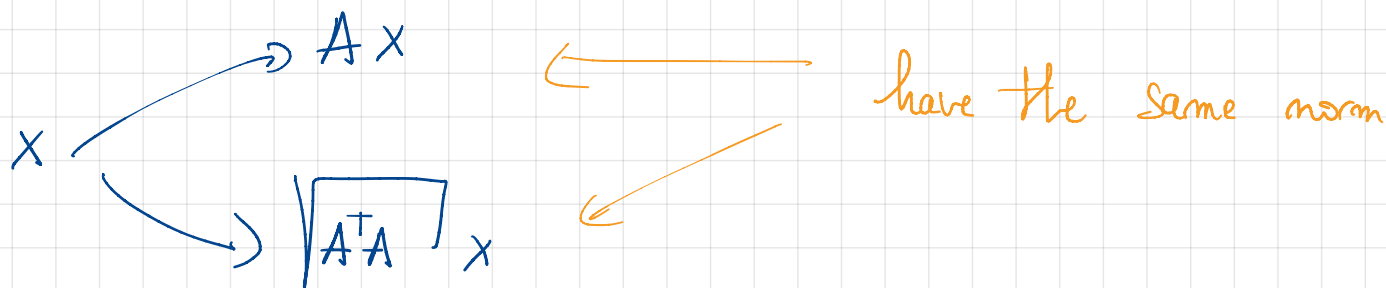
Since $A^T A$ is positive semi-definite, $\lambda_i \geq 0$

We define $D^{1/2} := \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{\lambda_1} & & & (0) \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ (0) & & & \sqrt{\lambda_n} \end{pmatrix} \quad [D^{1/2} D^{1/2} = D]$

I define $\sqrt{A^T A} := V D^{1/2} V^T$ $\left[\sqrt{A^T A} \sqrt{A^T A} = V D^{1/2} V^T V D^{1/2} V^T = V \underbrace{D^{1/2} D^{1/2}}_I V^T = V D V^T = A^T A \right]$

The matrix $\sqrt{A^T A}$ is simpler to understand than A because it is symmetric and positive semi-definite, yet it transforms the space nearly in the same way.

INDEED: Let $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then $\|Ax\|^2 = (Ax)^T Ax = x^T A^T A x$
 $= x^T (\sqrt{A^T A})^T \sqrt{A^T A} x$
 $= \|\sqrt{A^T A} x\|^2$



Hence there is a norm preserving transformation (ie orthogonal matrix) to go from Ax to $\sqrt{A^T A}x$

$$Ax = R \sqrt{A^T A} x \quad R \text{ is orthogonal}$$

It turns out that R does not depend on x . (From the POLAR DECOMPOSITION THEOREM)

THEOREM: (POLAR DECOMPOSITION)

For any $n \times n$ matrix A , there exists an orthogonal matrix R such that

$$A = R \sqrt{A^T A}$$

TRACE and MATRIX NORMS

Given a $n \times n$ matrix A , $\text{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$ $A = (a_{ij})_{i,j}$.



$$\cdot \text{Tr}(AB) = \text{Tr}(BA)$$

$$\cdot \text{Tr}(A+B) = \text{Tr}(A) + \text{Tr}(B)$$

$$\left[\text{Tr}(I) = n \right]$$

Consequence: let A is a $n \times n$ diagonalizable matrix

$$\text{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \quad \text{with } \lambda_i \text{ eigenvalues of } A.$$

PROOF:

$$A = V D V^{-1}$$

$$\text{Tr}(A) = \text{Tr}(V D V^{-1}) = \text{Tr}(V^{-1} V D) = \text{Tr}(I D) = \text{Tr}(D)$$

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_i \text{ eigenvalues of } A$$

$$\text{Tr}(D) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$$

Example of application: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 3 \\ 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is symmetric

$\text{Tr}(A) = 3 = \lambda_1 + \lambda_2$ where λ_1 and λ_2 are eigenvalues of A .

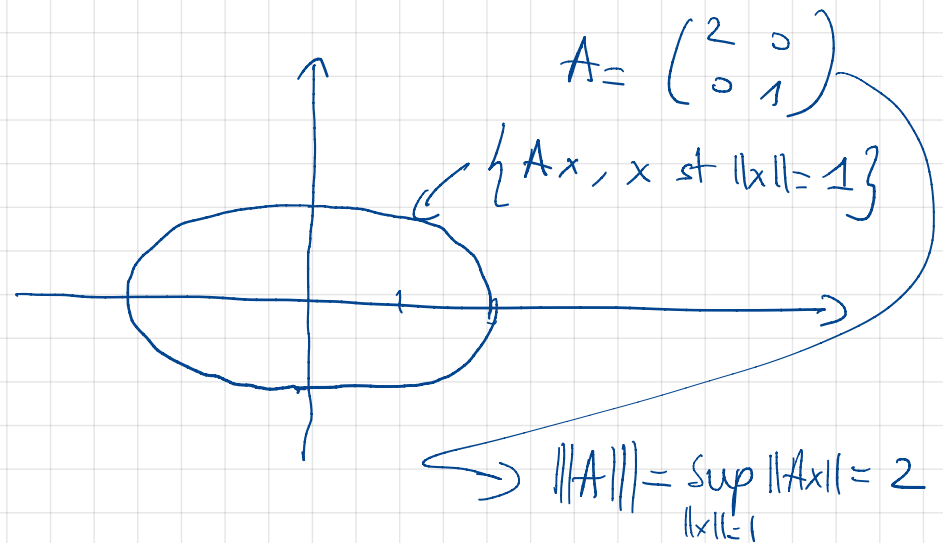
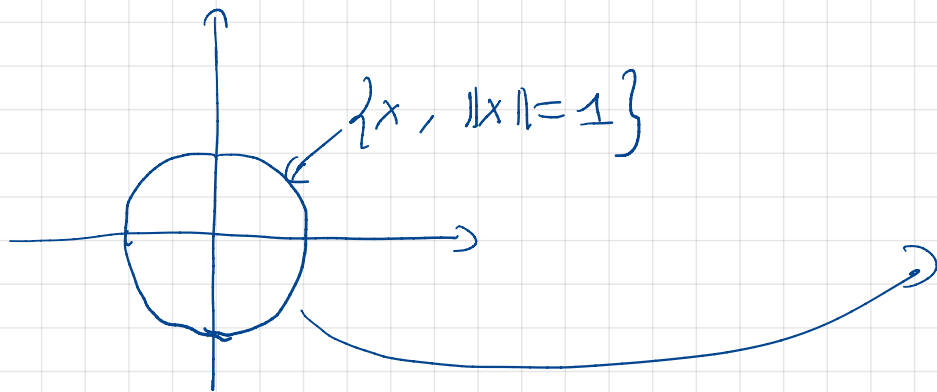
Matrix norms: We can define norms on the set of matrices.

$$\|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{i,j} |a_{ij}|$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \dots & 1 \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ x & \dots & x \end{pmatrix}$$

Given a norm $\|\cdot\|$ defined on vectors of \mathbb{R}^n (any norm), we can define a norm on matrices as:

$$\| \| A \| \| = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{\|Ax\|}{\|x\|} = \sup_{\|x\|=1} \|Ax\|$$



$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\ker(A) = \mathbb{R}^3$ $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$, $Ax = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, all $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$ belong $\ker(A)$.

A 3×3 invertible matrix, $\ker(A) = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$