

• Def  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is called (real symmetric) positive definite if



①  $A = A^T$  (thus all eigenvalues are real)

②  $\underline{\vec{x}^T A \vec{x}} > 0$  for any nonzero  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Example:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$  is positive definite because

$$(x \ y) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = (x \ y) \begin{pmatrix} 2x - y \\ -x + 2y \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= x(2x - y) + y(-x + 2y)$$

$$= 2x^2 - 2xy + 2y^2$$

$$= x^2 + (x^2 - 2xy + y^2) + y^2$$

$$= x^2 + (x - y)^2 + y^2 > 0 \text{ if } \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} \neq \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}.$$

• Def  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is called positive semi-definite if

①  $A = A^T$  (thus all eigenvalues are real)

②  $\vec{x}^T A \vec{x} \geq 0$  for any nonzero  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

• If  $A = V D V^{-1}$  where  $D$  is diagonal, then

$A = V D V^{-1}$  is also called eigen-decomposition.

because  $\begin{cases} \text{① diagonal entries in } D \text{ are eigenvalues} \\ \text{② cols of } V \text{ are eigen-vectors.} \end{cases}$

• Theorem A real symmetric  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is positive definite if and only if all eigenvalues of  $A$  are positive.

Proof:  $A = A^T \Rightarrow$ 

- eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$  are real.
- $A$  has  $n$  orthonormal eigenvectors  
(Apply Gram-Schmit to eigenvectors for each eigenspace)

Let  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  consist of  $n$  orthonormal eigenvectors

Then  $A = V D V^{-1}$  and  $V^{-1} = V^T$   
 $= V D V^T$   $V^T V = I$

For any  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{x}^T A \vec{x} &= \vec{x}^T V D V^{-1} \vec{x} \\ (AB)^T &= B^T A^T &= \vec{x}^T \underbrace{V} D V^T \vec{x} & \vec{y} = \boxed{V^T} \vec{x} \\ (V^T \vec{x})^T &= \vec{x}^T V &= (V^T \vec{x})^T D (V^T \vec{x}) \end{aligned}$$

Change of variable  $\vec{y} = V^T \vec{x} \Leftrightarrow \vec{x} = V \vec{y}$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \vec{y}^T D \vec{y} \\ &= [y_1 \ y_2 \ y_3] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 + \lambda_3 y_3^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\lambda_1 y_1^2 + \lambda_2 y_2^2 + \lambda_3 y_3^2 > 0, \text{ for any } y_1, y_2, y_3 \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \lambda_1 > 0 \\ \lambda_2 > 0 \\ \lambda_3 > 0 \end{cases}$$

Set  $\vec{x} = \vec{v}_1$ , then  $\vec{y} = V^T \vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\boxed{=}$$

$$\vec{v}_1^T A \vec{v}_1 = (1 \ 0 \ 0) \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & \\ & & \lambda_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda_1$$

Example:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Find 3 orthonormal eigenvectors of  $A$ .

Sol:  $|A - \lambda I| = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -\lambda & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix}$

$$= -\lambda(\lambda^2 - 1) - (-\lambda - 1) + (1 + \lambda)$$

$$= -\lambda(\lambda + 1)(\lambda - 1) + (\lambda + 1) + (\lambda + 1)$$

$$= (\lambda + 1)[- \lambda(\lambda - 1) + 1 + 1]$$

$$= (\lambda + 1)[- \lambda^2 + \lambda + 2]$$

$$= -(\lambda + 1)^2(\lambda - 2)$$

$\lambda_1 = -1, \lambda_2 = 2$

① Plug in  $\lambda_1 = -1$  into  $(A - \lambda I)\vec{v} = \vec{0}$

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[ \begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} v_2 = s \\ v_3 = t \end{array} \right\} \Rightarrow v_1 = -s - t \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -s - t \\ s \\ t \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= s \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{u}_1 \quad \vec{u}_2$$

$\Rightarrow$  Eigen-space is  $\text{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

But two basis eigen-vectors are not orthogonal.

Apply Gram-Schmidt Procedure:

$$\vec{v}_1 = \vec{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v}_2 &= \vec{u}_2 - \frac{\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{u}_2 \rangle}{\|\vec{v}_1\|^2} \vec{v}_1 \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Verify  $A\vec{v}_2 = (-1)\vec{v}_2$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

② Plug in  $\lambda = 2$  into  $(A - \lambda I)\vec{v} = \vec{0}$   
to find  $\vec{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

So we get orthogonal eigenvectors

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \vec{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and orthonormal eigenvectors:

$$\vec{w}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{w}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}} \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \\ -\frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \\ \sqrt{\frac{3}{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{w}_3 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Use  $V = [\vec{w}_1 \ \vec{w}_2 \ \vec{w}_3]$   $D = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

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

and  $V^{-1} = V^T$

$$\begin{matrix} V & V^T \\ \boxed{\begin{matrix} \text{---} \\ \text{---} \\ \text{---} \end{matrix}} & \boxed{\begin{matrix} | \\ | \\ | \end{matrix}} \end{matrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$V^T V = \boxed{\begin{matrix} \text{---} \\ \text{---} \\ \text{---} \end{matrix}} \boxed{\begin{matrix} | \\ | \\ | \end{matrix}} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow V^{-1} = V^T \Rightarrow V V^T = I$$

## Chapter 7 Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

- SVD is defined for any matrix, but we only focus on square ones.
- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  may not have a diagonalization like  $A = V D V^{-1}$ , but  $A$  always has Singular Value Decomposition  $A = U \Sigma V^T$

where  $\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n \end{pmatrix}$  is diagonal with  $\sigma_i \geq 0$

and  $\begin{cases} U \text{ has orthonormal cols thus } U^T = U^{-1} \\ V \text{ has orthonormal cols thus } V^T = V^{-1} \end{cases}$

- $\sigma_i$  are called singular values of  $A$   
Cds of  $U$  are left singular vectors of  $A$   
Cds of  $V$  are right singular vectors of  $A$ .

Remark: ① eigenvalues of  $A$  can be complex but singular values of  $A$  are always real non-negative.

② Left singular vectors are always orthonormal.

③ Right singular vectors are always orthonormal.

- SVD is defined/computed as the following:

①  $A^T A$  is real symmetric and positive semi-definite

$$(A^T A)^T = A^T (A^T)^T = A^T A \quad \vec{x}^T A^T A \vec{x} = (A \vec{x})^T (A \vec{x}) = \|A \vec{x}\|^2 \geq 0$$

So its eigenvalues  $\lambda_i(A^T A) \geq 0$ .

The singular value of  $A$ , denoted as  $\sigma_i(A)$ ,

is computed/defined by  $\sigma_i(A) = \sqrt{\lambda_i(A^T A)}$ .

It can also be computed by  $\sqrt{\lambda(A A^T)}$ , which is always the same even if  $A A^T \neq A^T A$ .

② Cols of  $U$  are orthonormal eigenvectors of  $A A^T$ .

③ Cols of  $V$  are orthonormal eigenvectors of  $A^T A$ .

④ Match order:  $A \vec{v}_i = \sigma_i \vec{u}_i \Leftrightarrow A V = U \Sigma \Leftrightarrow A = U \Sigma V^T$ .

Example:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ , Find its SVD.

$$\textcircled{1} \quad A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda(A^T A) = 9, 4, 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma(A) = 3, 2, 0$$

② Corresponding eigenvectors of  $A^T A$  are

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ already orthogonal.}$$

If one eigen-space is 2-dim, need Gram-Schmit.

Orthonormal eigenvectors  $\left( \frac{\vec{v}_i}{\|\vec{v}_i\|} \right)$ :

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$V = \begin{pmatrix} 2/\sqrt{5} & -1/\sqrt{5} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{5} & 2/\sqrt{5} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad AA^T = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 4 & 0 \\ 4 & 5 & -2 \\ 0 & -2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\lambda(AA^T) = 9, 4, 0$$

$$\text{eigenvectors: } \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ -5 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{orthonormal eigen-vectors } \frac{1}{3\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{4}{3\sqrt{5}} & \frac{-1}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{-2}{3} \\ \frac{5}{3\sqrt{5}} & 0 & \frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{-2}{3\sqrt{5}} & \frac{-2}{\sqrt{5}} & \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = U \Sigma V^T$$

$$\Rightarrow A^T A = (U \Sigma V^T)^T$$

$$U \Sigma V^T$$

$$= V \Sigma U^T U \Sigma V^T$$

$$= V \Sigma^2 V^T$$

$$A = \underbrace{U}_{AA^T} \begin{pmatrix} 3 & & \\ & 2 & \\ & & 0 \end{pmatrix} \underbrace{V^T}_{A^T A}$$

It is a convention to order  $\sigma_i : \sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \sigma_3 \geq \dots$



- We will not discuss why  $A$  is equal to  $U\Sigma V^T$
- Instead, assume  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ , then

$$AA^T = U\Sigma V^T (U\Sigma V^T)^T$$

$$= U\Sigma V^T V \Sigma U^T$$

$$V^T V = I$$

$$= U\Sigma \Sigma U^T$$

$$= U \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n^2 \end{pmatrix} U^T$$

$$= U \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n^2 \end{pmatrix} U^{-1}$$

This is the eigen-decomposition of  $AA^T$

$\Rightarrow$   $\begin{cases} \text{eigenvalues of } AA^T \text{ are } \sigma_i^2 \\ \text{eigenvectors of } AA^T \text{ are cols of } U \end{cases}$

Similarly,  $A^T A = (U\Sigma V^T)^T U\Sigma V^T$

$$= V \Sigma U^T U \Sigma V^T$$

$$= V \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n^2 \end{pmatrix} V^{-1}$$

$\Rightarrow$   $\begin{cases} \text{eigenvalues of } A^T A \text{ are } \sigma_i^2 \\ \text{eigenvectors of } A^T A \text{ are cols of } V. \end{cases}$

Ex (True or false):

$A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is real symmetric  $\Leftrightarrow$  there are  $V$  and diagonal  $D$   
s.t.  $A = V D V^T$

True: " $\Rightarrow$ " Let  $V$  consist of real orthonormal eigenvectors

$$\Rightarrow A = V D V^{-1} = V D V^T$$

$$" \Leftarrow " \quad A = V D V^T \Rightarrow A^T = A \quad \begin{aligned} & (V D V^T)^T \\ & = (V^T)^T D^T V^T \\ & = V D V^T \end{aligned}$$

Remark: If  $A$  is positive semi-definite, then there

are  $V$  and  $D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$  with  $\lambda_i \geq 0$  s.t.

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

which is also the SVD of  $A$ .

$$\begin{aligned} A^T A &= (V D V^T)^T V D V^T \\ &= V D V^T V D V^T \\ &= V \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1^2 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n^2 \end{pmatrix} V^T \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \sigma_i(A) = \sqrt{\lambda_i^2} = \lambda_i \\ \text{left singular vectors of } A \text{ are cols of } V. \end{cases}$$

$$A A^T = V \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1^2 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n^2 \end{pmatrix} V^T$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \sigma_i(A) = \sqrt{\lambda_i^2} = \lambda_i \\ \text{right singular vectors of } A \text{ are cols of } V. \end{cases}$$

