

5. Orthogonal Matrices and Subspaces

- Orthogonal vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y}

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = 0 \\ \bar{\mathbf{x}}^T \mathbf{y} = 0 \end{array} \right\} \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Pythagoras Law of right triangles: } \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2 \\ \text{Law of cosines: } \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\|\cos\theta \end{array} \right.$$

- Orthogonal basis for a subspace
 - Standard basis is orthogonal (even orthonormal) in \mathbf{R}^n
 - Hadamard matrices H_n containing orthogonal bases of \mathbf{R}^n
 - Are those orthogonal matrices?
 - Every subspace of \mathbf{R}^n has an orthogonal basis: Gram-Schmidt idea
 - Two independent vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} in the plane: $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{c} = 0$

- Orthogonal subspace R (row space) and N (null space)
 - $Ax=0$: The row space of A is orthogonal to the nullspace of A
 - $A^T y=0$: The column space of A is orthogonal to the nullspace of A^T
- Tall thin matrices Q with orthonormal columns: $Q^T Q = I$

$$\mathbf{Q}_1 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{Q}_2 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{Q}_3 = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & -1 \\ 2 & -1 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{Q}_i \mathbf{Q}_i^T = \mathbf{I}?$$

$\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{Q}^T \rightarrow$ projection matrix : $\mathbf{P}^2 = \mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}^T \rightarrow$ "least squares"

$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{b}$ is the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{b} onto the column space of \mathbf{P}

- Orthogonal matrices are square with orthonormal columns: $\mathbf{Q}^T = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}$

$$\mathbf{Q} \text{ is square} \rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I} \\ \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{Q}^T = \mathbf{I} \end{cases} \rightarrow \mathbf{Q}^{-1} = \mathbf{Q}^T$$

$$\mathbf{Q}_{\text{rotate}} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{Q}_{\text{reflect}} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & -\cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Householder reflections: } \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{H}_n = \mathbf{I} - 2\mathbf{u}\mathbf{u}^T = \mathbf{I} - \frac{2}{n} \mathbf{ones}(n, n) \xrightarrow{\mathbf{u} \perp \mathbf{w}} \begin{cases} \mathbf{H}_n \mathbf{u} = -\mathbf{u} \\ \mathbf{H}_n \mathbf{w} = +\mathbf{w} \end{cases}$$

eigenvalues of \mathbf{H}_n are -1 (once) and $+1$ ($n-1$ times)

All reflection matrices have eigenvalues -1 and 1

- Orthogonal basis = orthogonal axes in \mathbf{R}^n

$$\mathbf{v} = c_1 \mathbf{q}_1 + \dots + c_n \mathbf{q}_n \rightarrow c_i = \mathbf{q}_i^T \mathbf{v}$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{c} \rightarrow \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{c}$$

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- Examples
 - Rotations
 - Reflections
 - Hadamard matrices
 - Haar wavelets
 - Discrete Fourier Transform (DFT)
 - Complex inner product

6. Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- $Ax = (\text{eigenvalue}) \text{ times } x$
- $A^2x = (\text{eigenvalue})^2 \text{ times } x$

matrix \mathbf{A} (real), \mathbf{S} (symmetric), \mathbf{Q} (orthogonal)

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i = \text{trace of matrix}$$

$$\prod \lambda_i = \text{determinant of matrix}$$

eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} are orthogonal iff $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T$

\mathbf{S} : real eigenvalues, orthogonal eigenvectors

- Write over vectors as combination of eigenvectors
- Similar matrix $B=M^{-1}AM$ has the same eigenvalues of A
 - Compute eigenvalues of large matrices
 - Make B gradually into a triangular matrix
 - Gradually show up on the main diagonal

- Diagonalizing a Matrix

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{X}\Lambda \rightarrow \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}\Lambda\mathbf{X}^{-1}$$

$$\mathbf{A}^k \mathbf{v} = ?$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{c} \rightarrow \underbrace{\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{v}}_{c_i} \rightarrow \underbrace{\Lambda^k \mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{v}}_{c_i \lambda_i^k} \rightarrow \underbrace{\mathbf{X}\Lambda\mathbf{X}^{-1}\mathbf{v}}_{\sum c_i \lambda_i^k x_i}$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 3 \\ 2 & 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10 & \\ & 5 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{5} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.8 & 0.3 \\ 0.2 & 0.7 \end{bmatrix}}_{\text{Markov matrix}} \xrightarrow{\lambda=1, \frac{1}{2}} \mathbf{A}^k \mathbf{v} = c_1 (1)^k x_1 + c_2 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^k x_2$$

- Nondiagonalizable matrices: GM < AM

- GM(Gometric Multiplicity): independent eigenvectors
- AM(Algebraic Multiplicity): repetition of eigenvalues

7. Symmetric Positive Definite Matrices

- Test
 - All eigenvalues of S are positive
 - Energy $x^T S x$ is positive for $x \neq 0$
 - All pivots are positive
 - $S = A^T A$ with independent columns of A
 - All leading determinants are positive
- Second derivative matrix is positive definite @ a minimum point
- Semidefinite allows zero eigenvalues/energy/pivots/determinants

- The graph of $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{x} = 1$ is an ellipse, with its axes pointing along the eigenvectors of \mathbf{S}

$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{Q} \Lambda \mathbf{Q}^T$: principal axis theorem

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^T (\mathbf{Q} \Lambda \mathbf{Q}^T) \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{Q}) \Lambda (\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{x})$$

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{S} \mathbf{x} = [x \quad y] \mathbf{Q} \Lambda \mathbf{Q}^T \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = [X \quad Y] \Lambda \begin{bmatrix} X \\ Y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{S} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 4 \\ 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & \\ & 1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$5x^2 + 8xy + 5y^2 = 1 \rightarrow 9 \left(\frac{x+y}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 + 1 \left(\frac{x-y}{\sqrt{2}} \right)^2 = 1 \rightarrow 9X^2 + Y^2 = 1$$