## Lecture 6-1

Continuing from last time, let A be an  $m \times n$  complex matrix and A<sup>\*</sup> its conjugate transpose. We saw last time that the  $n \times n$  matrix  $B = A^*A$  is Hermitian and positive semidefinite, whence there is an orthonormal basis  $u_1, \ldots, u_n$  of  $\mathbb{C}^n$  consisting of eigenvectors of B, say with respective eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ , where the  $\lambda_i$  are real and nonnegative; assume that these are arranged so that  $\lambda_i \neq 0$  exactly for  $i \leq r$  for some index r (possibly 0). Write  $Au_i = v_i \in \mathbb{C}^m$ ; then  $A^*v_i = \lambda_i u_i$ . Since A and  $A^*$  are adjoints of each other we have  $(Au_i, v_i) = (v_i, v_i) = (u_i, A^*v_i) = \lambda_i$  and  $(Au_i, v_j) = (u_i, A^*v_j) = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ , where  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  is the Hermitian inner product, whence the  $v_i$  are orthogonal vectors spanning the column space (or range) C of A. We have  $(v_i, v_i) = \lambda_i$ , whence  $v_i = 0$  if and only if i > r. Since the nonzero  $v_i$  form a basis of  $C \subset \mathbb{C}^m$  we have  $r \leq m$ . Now replace the  $v_i$  equal to 0, namely those for which i > r, by an orthonormal basis, now denoted  $v_{r+1}, \ldots, v_m$ , of the orthogonal complement  $C^{\perp}$  of C in  $\mathbb{C}^m$ . The upshot is that the triple matrix product  $V\Sigma W$  equals A, where W is the unitary  $n \times n$  matrix sending  $u_i$  to the *i*-th unit coordinate vector  $e_i, \Sigma$  is the "diagonal"  $m \times n$  matrix sending  $e_i$  to  $\sqrt{\lambda_i}e_i$  for  $i \leq m$ , and V is the unitary  $m \times m$  matrix sending  $\sqrt{\lambda_i} e_i$  to  $v_i$  for  $i \leq r$  and  $e_j$  to  $v_j$  for j > r. Along the way we see that the nonzero  $\lambda_i$ , which are by definition the square roots of the nonzero eigenvalues of  $B = A^*A$ , are also the square roots of the nonzero eigenvalues of  $AA^*$ , occurring with the same multiplicity for  $AA^*$  as for  $A^*A$ , and that the eigenvectors  $v_i$  of  $AA^*$  are orthogonal. The orthonormal basis  $u_1, \ldots, u_n$  of eigenvectors of B (and thus the matrix W) is not unique, but once it has been chosen it determines the first r columns of the matrix V; its remaining columns (if any) simply fill it out to a unitary  $m \times m$  matrix in an arbitrary fashion. The diagonal entries of  $\Sigma$  are uniquely determined up to reordering. How does the polar decomposition A = UP that we saw in the last lecture fit into this picture? The matrix P sends each eigenvector  $u_i$  to  $\sqrt{\lambda_i u_i}$ ; the matrix U sends  $\sqrt{\lambda_i u_i}$  for  $i \leq r$  to  $v_i$ . If the set  $u_1, \ldots, u_r$  is extended arbitrarily to a basis  $u_1, \ldots, u_r, w_{r+1}, \ldots, w_n$ of  $\mathbb{C}^n$  (e.g. by taking  $w_j = u_j$  for j > r) then U may be extended to a linear map from  $\mathbb{C}^n$  to  $\mathbb{C}^m$  by defining it arbitrarily on the  $w_i$ .

The remainder of the course will be entirely devoted to review. We began the course with criteria on the second-order partials at a critical point  $\vec{a}$  of a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  to have a local minimum, a local maximum, or a saddle point at  $\vec{a}$ . We defined the Hessian matrix H of f at  $\vec{a}$  by decreeing that its ij-th entry  $h_{ij}$  is the second-order partial  $f_{ij}(\vec{a})$  of f at  $\vec{a}$  with respect to the *i*-th and *j*-th variables (in either order; this is a symmetric matrix). The matrix H is positive definite if and only if  $v^T H v > 0$  for all nonzero vectors  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (by definition), or if and only if all eigenvalues of H are positive, or if and only if all square submatrices of H consisting of the entries in its first *i* rows and columns have positive determinant. Much more recently we learned that any Hessian matrix, or more generally any real  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix A, admits an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors, each with real eigenvalue. In general such a matrix need not be either positive or negative definite, but it always has a well-defined signature (p,q), where p and q are the largest dimensions of subspaces P, Q of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $v^T A v > 0$  for all nonzero  $v \in P, w^T A w < 0$  for all nonzero  $w \in Q$ . The rank of A is then p + q. The same results hold if A is replaced by an  $n \times n$  complex Hermitian matrix (one with  $\overline{A}^T = A$ ).

We learned the definition of differentiability for a function  $\vec{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  at a point  $\vec{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ already last quarter, but it certainly bears repeating. Making full use of the language of linear algebra, we can say that  $\vec{f}$  is differentiable at  $\vec{a}$  if and only if there is an  $m \times n$ matrix A such that  $\lim_{\vec{h}\to\vec{0}} \frac{||\vec{f}(\vec{a}+\vec{h})-\vec{f}(\vec{a})-A\vec{h}||}{||\vec{h}||} = 0$ ; if so then the matrix A is uniquely determined and equals the Jacobian matrix J of  $\vec{f} = (f_1, \ldots, f_n)$  at  $\vec{a}$ , whose ij-th entry  $a_{ij}$  is  $\partial f_i/\partial x_j(\vec{a})$ . The existence of J is not enough to force differentiability of  $\vec{f}$  at  $\vec{a}$  in general. For example, the function f defined by  $f(x,y) = \frac{x^3+y^3}{x^2+y^2}$  for  $(x,y) \neq (0,0)$  and f(0,0) = 0 fails to be differentiable at (0,0); its x- and y-partials both exist and are equal to 1 at this point, but  $\frac{f(h,k)-h-k}{\sqrt{h^2+k^2}}$  fails to have the limit 0 (or any limit) as  $(h,k) \to (0,0)$ . If the partials of the  $f_i$  exist in a neighborhood of  $\vec{a}$  and are continuous at  $\vec{a}$ , then  $\vec{f}$  is differentiable there. If the second-order partials  $\partial^2 f_i/\partial x_j \partial x_k$  exist at  $\vec{a}$  and are continuous there, then the mixed partials  $\partial^2 f_i/\partial x_j \partial x_k$  and  $\partial^2 f_i/\partial x_k \partial x_j$  are equal at  $\vec{a}$ . If the differentiable function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is restricted to a level set of some differentiable function  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ , then the criterion for f to have a critical point at some point  $\vec{a}$  in this level set is that either  $\nabla f(\vec{a}) = \lambda \nabla g(\vec{a})$  or  $\nabla g(\vec{a}) = \vec{0}$ . In the former case I have said that there is no second derivative test for the local nature of a critical point. Actually this was a white lie; see the Wikipedia article on Hessian matrices to learn about a determinantal criterion for testing critical points of functions on level sets individually, involving something called the "bordered Hessian matrix". You won't need to know anything about this for the final.