

LDL^T & Cholesky

This amounts to an LU decomposition of a **positive-definite, symmetric** matrix that's 2x as fast to compute!

Thm: A positive-definite symmetric matrix S can be uniquely decomposed as
 $S = LDL^T$ and $S = L_1 L_1^T$ ← Cholesky

where:

D : diagonal w/ positive diagonal entries

L : lower-**unit** triangular

L_1 : lower-triangular with positive diagonal entries.

Proof: [supplement]

NB: Any such L_1 has full column rank so $S = L_1 L_1^T$ is necessarily positive-definite & symmetric (last time).

NB: Let $U = DL^T$.

(scales the rows of L^T by the diagonal entries of D)

then U is upper- Δ with positive diagonal entries

\Rightarrow in REF, so $S = LU$ is the LU decomposition!

This tells us how to compute an LDL^T decomposition.

Procedure to compute $S = LDL^T$:

Let S be a symmetric matrix.

(1) Compute the LU decomposition $S = LU$.

→ If you have to do a row swap then **stop**:
 S is not positive-definite.

→ If the diagonal entries of U are not all positive then **stop**: S is not positive-definite.

(2) Let $D =$ the matrix of diagonal entries of U
(set the off-diagonal entries = 0). Then
 $S = LDL^T$.

NB: An LDL^T decomposition can be computed in $\sim \frac{1}{3}n^3$
flops (as opposed to $\frac{2}{3}n^3$ for LU). This
requires a slightly more clever algorithm. See
the **supplement** - it's also faster by hand!

NB: This is still an LU decomposition - lets you
solve $Sx = b$ quickly.

NB: $S = QDQ^T$ and $S = LDL^T$ are both "diagonalizations"
in the sense of quadratic forms (later).

Eg: Find the LDL^T decomposition of

$$S = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 9 & -1 \\ -2 & -1 & 14 \end{pmatrix}$$

2-column method:

L

U

$$\begin{pmatrix} & & \\ & & \\ & & \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 9 & -1 \\ -2 & -1 & 14 \end{pmatrix}$$

$R_2 \leftarrow 2R_1$
 $R_3 \leftarrow R_1$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ 2 & & \\ -1 & & \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 3 & 12 \end{pmatrix}$$

$R_3 \leftarrow 3R_2$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

So $S = LDL^T$ for

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Check:

$$DL^T = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = U \quad \checkmark$$

Cholesky from LDL^T:

If S is positive-definite then $S = LDL^T$ where D is diagonal with **positive** diagonal entries.

$$\text{If } D = \begin{pmatrix} d_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & d_n \end{pmatrix} \text{ set } \sqrt{D} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{d_1} & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \sqrt{d_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

Then $\sqrt{D} \cdot \sqrt{D} = D$ and $\sqrt{D}^T = \sqrt{D}$, so

$$LDL^T = L\sqrt{D}\sqrt{D}L^T = (L\sqrt{D})(L\sqrt{D})^T$$

So just set

$$L_1 = L\sqrt{D} \rightarrow S = L_1 L_1^T$$

Strang:

" $S = AA^T$ is how a positive-definite symmetric matrix is **put together**."

$S = L_1 L_1^T$ is how you **pull it apart**"

$$\text{Eg: } \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & -2 \\ 4 & 9 & -1 \\ -2 & -1 & 14 \end{pmatrix} = L_1 L_1^T \text{ for}$$

$$L_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{1} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 2\sqrt{2} & 1 & 0 \\ -\sqrt{2} & 3 & \sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

Quadratic Optimization

This is an important application of the spectral theorem and positive-definiteness. Also, SVD + QO + ϵ -stats = PCA.

It is the simplest case of **quadratic programming**, which is a big subfield of optimization. (So is **least squares**.)

For an example application, see the Wikipedia page for **support-vector machine**, an important tool in machine learning that reduces to a quadratic optimization problem. (There are tons of other applications.)

Def: An **optimization problem** means finding extremal values (minimum & maximum) of a function $f(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ subject to some constraint on (x_1, \dots, x_n) .

In quadratic optimization, we consider quadratic functions.

Def: A **quadratic form** in n variables is a function $q(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \text{sum of terms of the form } a_{ij} x_i x_j$

Eg: $q(x_1, x_2) = \frac{5}{2}x_1^2 + \frac{5}{2}x_2^2 - x_1x_2$

Non-eg: $q(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_1 + x_2$ is **not** a quadratic form: x_1, x_2 are linear terms.

NB: Thinking of $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ as a vector,
 $q(cx) = q(cx_1, \dots, cx_n) = \sum^1 a_{ij} (cx_i)(cx_j)$
 $= \sum^1 c^2 a_{ij} x_i x_j = c^2 q(x)$

$$q(cx) = c^2 q(x)$$

In quadratic optimization, the **constraint** on $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ is usually $\|x\| = 1$, i.e. $x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 = 1$.

Quadratic Optimization Problem:

Given a quadratic form $q(x)$, find the minimum & maximum values of $q(x)$ subject to $\|x\| = 1$.

Eg: $q(x_1, x_2) = 3x_1^2 - 2x_2^2$

Maximum:

$$\begin{aligned} q(x_1, x_2) &= 3x_1^2 - 2x_2^2 \leq 3x_1^2 + 3x_2^2 \\ &= 3(x_1^2 + x_2^2) = 3\|x\|^2 = 3 \end{aligned}$$

So the maximum value is **3**; it is achieved at $(x_1, x_2) = \pm(1, 0)$: $q(\pm 1, 0) = 3$.

Minimum:

$$\begin{aligned}q(x_1, x_2) &= 3x_1^2 - 2x_2^2 \geq -2x_1^2 - 2x_2^2 \\ &= -2(x_1^2 + x_2^2) = -2\|x\|^2 = -2\end{aligned}$$

So the minimum value is -2 ; it is achieved at $(x_1, x_2) = \pm(0, 1)$: $q(0, \pm 1) = -2$.

This example is easy because $q(x_1, x_2) = 3x_1^2 - 2x_2^2$ involves only squares of the coordinates: there is no **cross-term** x_1x_2 .

Def: A quadratic form is **diagonal** if it has the form $q(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \text{sum of terms of the form } \lambda_i x_i^2$.

Terms of the form $a_{ij}x_i x_j$ ($i \neq j$) are **cross-terms**.

Quadratic Optimization of Diagonal Forms:

Let $q(x) = \sum_i \lambda_i x_i^2$. Order the x_i so that

$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$. Then

- The **maximum** value of $q(x)$ is λ_1 .
- The **minimum** value of $q(x)$ is λ_n .

(subject to $\|x\|=1$).

NB: the λ_i could be negative.

Strategy: To solve a quadratic optimization problem, we want to **diagonalize** it to get rid of the **cross terms**.

To do this, we use symmetric matrices!

Fact: Every quadratic form can be written

$$q(x) = x^T S x$$

for a symmetric matrix S .

Eg: $S = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\hookrightarrow x^T S x = (x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 \\ 2x_1 + 4x_2 + 5x_3 \\ 3x_1 + 5x_2 + 6x_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= x_1^2 + 2x_1x_2 + 3x_1x_3$$

$$+ 2x_2x_1 + 4x_2^2 + 5x_2x_3$$

$$+ 3x_3x_1 + 5x_3x_2 + 6x_3^2$$

$$= x_1^2 + 4x_2^2 + 6x_3^2 + 4x_1x_2 + 6x_1x_3 + 10x_2x_3$$

NB: The (1,2) and (2,1) entries contribute to the x_1x_2 coefficient.

Given q , how to get S ?

The x_i^2 coefficients go on the diagonal, and half of the $x_i x_j$ coefficient goes in the (i,j) and (j,i) entries.

$$q(x_1, x_2, x_3) = a_{11}x_1^2 + a_{22}x_2^2 + a_{33}x_3^2 \\ + a_{12}x_1x_2 + a_{13}x_1x_3 + a_{23}x_2x_3$$

$$\leadsto S = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12}/2 & a_{13}/2 \\ a_{12}/2 & a_{22} & a_{23}/2 \\ a_{13}/2 & a_{23}/2 & a_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

NB: q is diagonal $\iff S$ is diagonal: the a_{ij} are the coefficients of the cross-terms.

$$x^T \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} x = \lambda_1 x_1^2 + \lambda_2 x_2^2 + \dots + \lambda_n x_n^2$$

How does this help quadratic optimization?

Orthogonally diagonalize!

$$q(x) = x^T S x$$

Find a diagonal matrix D and orthogonal matrix Q such that $S = Q D Q^T$

$$\leadsto q(x) = x^T Q D Q^T x$$

Let $x = Qy$: this is a change of variables

$$q(x) = q(Qy) = (Qy)^T Q D Q^T (Qy) \\ = y^T \overset{I_n}{Q^T Q} D \overset{I_n}{Q^T Q} y = y^T D y$$

This is now diagonal!

NB: Q is orthogonal $\Rightarrow \|x\| = \|Qy\| = \|y\|$

$$\text{So } \|x\|=1 \Leftrightarrow \|y\|=1$$

Eg: Find the minimum & maximum of

$$q(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2}x_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}x_2^2 - 5x_1x_2 \leftarrow \text{Cross term } \text{☹}$$

subject to $\|x\|=1$.

$$q(x) = x^T \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & -5/2 \\ -5/2 & 1/2 \end{pmatrix} x \rightsquigarrow S = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -5 \\ -5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Orthogonally diagonalize: $S = QDQ^T$ for

$$Q = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Set $x = Qy$:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -y_1 + y_2 \\ y_1 + y_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{cases} x_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(-y_1 + y_2) \\ x_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(y_1 + y_2) \end{cases} \text{ is a linear change of variables}$$

$$\text{Then } q(x) = y^T \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} y = 3y_1^2 - 2y_2^2.$$

Check:

$$\begin{aligned}q(x) &= q\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(-y_1+y_2), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(y_1+y_2)\right) \\&= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}(-y_1+y_2)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}(y_1+y_2)^2 - 5 \cdot \frac{1}{2}(-y_1+y_2)(y_1+y_2) \\&= \frac{1}{4}y_1^2 + \frac{1}{4}y_2^2 - \frac{1}{2}y_1y_2 + \frac{1}{4}y_1^2 + \frac{1}{4}y_2^2 + \frac{1}{2}y_1y_2 \\&\quad + \frac{5}{2}y_1^2 - \frac{5}{2}y_2^2 \\&= \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{5}{2}\right)y_1^2 + \left(\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4} - \frac{5}{2}\right)y_2^2 = 3y_1^2 - 2y_2^2\end{aligned}$$

The **maximum value** of q subject to $\|x\| = \|y\| = 1$ is **3**, achieved at

$$y = (\pm 1, 0) \rightsquigarrow x = Qy = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

The **minimum value** of q subject to $\|x\| = \|y\| = 1$ is **-2**, achieved at

$$y = (0, \pm 1) \rightsquigarrow x = Qy = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

NB: The minimum value is the smallest diagonal entry of $D \rightsquigarrow$ **smallest eigenvalue**.

$Q \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \pm 1 \end{pmatrix}$ is \pm the last column of Q

\rightsquigarrow is a **unit eigenvector** for that eigenvalue.

Likewise for the largest eigenvalue.

Quadratic Optimization:

To find the minimum/maximum of a quadratic form $q(x)$ subject to $\|x\|=1$:

(1) Write $q(x) = x^T S x$ for a symmetric matrix S

(2) Orthogonally diagonalize $S = Q D Q^T$ for

$$Q = \begin{pmatrix} | & & | \\ u_1 & \dots & u_n \\ | & & | \end{pmatrix} \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \dots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

eigenvectors eigenvalues

Order the eigenvalues so $\lambda_1 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$

(3) The maximum value of $q(x)$ is the largest eigenvalue λ_1 .

It is achieved for $x =$ any unit λ_1 -eigenvector

The minimum value of $q(x)$ is the smallest eigenvalue λ_n .

It is achieved for $x =$ any unit λ_n -eigenvector.

NB: If $\text{GM}(\lambda_i) = 1$ then the only unit λ_i -eigenvectors are $\pm u_i$. (only 2 unit vectors are on any line)

NB: $x = Q y$ diagonalizes q :
 $q(x) = \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n^2$

