#### Just Enough Spectral Theory Ng Yen Kaow

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#### Notations (Important)

- □ A vector is by default a column
  - For vectors x and y, their inner (or dot) product,  $\langle x, y \rangle = x^{\top} y$

$$\Box \quad \langle x + z, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \langle z, y \rangle = x^{\mathsf{T}}y + z^{\mathsf{T}}y$$

Beware: some texts use row vectors and  $\langle x, y \rangle = xy^{\top}$ 

#### □ For a matrix an example is a row

An example (or datapoint) is a row x<sub>i</sub> while each feature is a columns

Features are like fixed columns in a spreadsheet

- For matrices X and Y,  $\langle X, Y \rangle = XY^{\top}$  or  $\sum_{i} (x_{i}y_{i}^{\top})$
- Beware: some texts use column for examples and let  $\langle X, Y \rangle = X^{\top}Y$

#### □ So it's $x^{\top}x$ , $x^{\top}Mx$ , but $XX^{\top}$ and $Q\Lambda Q^{\top}$

#### Outer product

- □ The outer product of two vectors *x* and *y* is a matrix *M* where the  $M_{ij} = x_i y_j$ e.g.  $\binom{a}{b}(c \ d) = \binom{ac \ ad}{bc \ bd}$
- The outer product (or Kronecker product) of two matrices is a tensor
  - We don't deal with tensors yet
- Common uses of outer products

$$xx^{\top} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1x_1 & x_1x_2 & \dots \\ x_2x_1 & x_2x_2 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$
  
Denote matrix of all ones,  $\mathbf{11}^{\top} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ 

#### More notations

- Conventions
  - $x_i$  from a matrix is by default a row vector
  - $x_i$  from a vector is a scalar
  - $x_{ij}$  from a matrix is a scalar
  - $x, u_i$  (all other vectors) are by default column vectors
- Common expansions

$$\begin{aligned} xy^{\top} &= \sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i} & (XY)_{ij} &= \sum_{k} x_{ik} y_{kj} \\ (x^{\top}y)_{ij} &= x_{i} y_{j} & (XY^{\top})_{ij} &= x_{i} y_{j}^{\top} &= \sum_{k} x_{ik} y_{jk} \\ x^{\top}My &= \sum_{ij} m_{ij} x_{i} y_{j} & (X^{\top}Y)_{ij} &= \sum_{k} x_{ki} y_{kj} \\ X^{\top}X &= \sum_{i} x_{i}^{\top} x_{i} & \text{(used in kernel PCA)} \end{aligned}$$

#### Python call for inner product

- □ Inner products are performed with np. dot()
  - When called on two arrays, the arrays are automatically oriented to perform inner product
     Note that [[1], [1]] is a 1 × 2 matrix
  - When called on an array x and a matrix X, the array is automatically read as a row for np. dot (x, X), and column for np. dot (X, x) to perform inner product
  - When called on two matrices, make sure that the matrices are oriented correctly, or you will get X<sup>T</sup>X when you want XX<sup>T</sup>
  - Impossible to get outer product with np. dot ()
- If you write x\*y or X\*Y, what you get is an element-wise multiplication

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# Eigenvectors and eigenvalues Only concerned with square matrices Most matrices we consider are furthermore symmetric and of only real values

- □ A eigenvector for a square matrix *M* is vector *u* where  $Mu = \lambda u$ 
  - *u* is invariant under transformation *M*
  - The scaling factor  $\lambda$  is a eigenvalue
  - Use u to denote a column vector even when multiple  $u_i$  are collected into a matrix  $U = [u_1 \ \dots \ u_k]$

#### $Mu = \lambda u$ is a system of equations

- □ An equation such as  $Mu = \lambda u$  actually states *n* linear equations, namely  $\forall i, \sum_j m_i u_j = \lambda u_i$ 
  - For example

$$\begin{pmatrix} m_{11} & m_{12} \\ m_{21} & m_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

states the two equations

 $m_{11}u_1 + m_{12}u_2 = \lambda u_1$  $m_{21}u_1 + m_{22}u_2 = \lambda u_2$ 

- This is important when manipulating equation by multiplying with other matrix/vector
  - For example when  $Mu = \lambda u$  is multiplied from the left by  $u^{\mathsf{T}}$ , the resultant  $u^{\mathsf{T}}Mu = \lambda u^{\mathsf{T}}u$  becomes only one equation, that is,  $\sum_{ij} u_i m_{ij} u_j = \lambda \sum_{ij} u_i u_j$

#### Eigendecomposition

### □ A eigendecomposition of matrix *M* is $M = Q\Lambda Q^{-1}$

where  $\Lambda$  is diagonal, and Q contains (not necessarily orthogonal) eigenvectors of M

- Any normal *M* can be eigendecomposed
- The set of eigenvalues for M is unique
- There can be different eigenvectors of the same eigenvalue (hence not unique)
  - For real symmetric M, eigenvectors that correspond to distinct eigenvalues are (chosen to be) orthogonal

#### Orthogonal eigendecomposition

- □ For real symmetric *M*, can choose *Q* to be orthogonal matrix (proof omitted)
- □ For square matrix Q, the following are equivalent (proof next slide)
  - 1. *Q* is an orthogonal matrix
  - $2. \quad Q^{\top}Q = I$
  - 3.  $QQ^{\top} = I$
  - Corollary.  $Q^{\top}Q = I \Rightarrow Q^{\top}QQ^{-1} = Q^{-1}$

$$\Rightarrow Q^{\top} = Q^{-1}$$

■ By default the eigendecomposition of real symmetric matrix *M* is  $M = Q\Lambda Q^{\top}$ 

#### Orthogonal matrix property

 $\Box$  For square matrix Q, the following are equivalent

1. *Q* is orthogonal matrix

$$2. \quad Q^{\top}Q = I$$

3. 
$$QQ^{\top} = I$$

2⇔1 Let  $u_i$  be the column vectors of A

$$Q^{\top}Q = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & \dots & u_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1u_1 & \dots & u_1u_n \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_nu_1 & \dots & u_nu_n \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1u_1 & \dots & u_1u_n \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ u_nu_1 & \dots & u_nu_n \end{bmatrix} = I \text{ implies } u_iu_j = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j$$

#### Eigenspace

- □ The eigenspace of a matrix *M* is the set of all the vectors *u* that fulfills  $Mu = \lambda u$ 
  - The rank of *M* is its number of non-zero  $\lambda$
- □ A eigenbasis of a  $n \times n$  matrix *M* is a set of *n* orthogonal eigenvectors of *M* (including those with zero eigenvalues)
  - Any datapoint  $x_i$  in M can be written as a linear combination of the eigenbasis,  $x_i = \sum_j \langle x_i, u_j \rangle u_j$
  - Any eigenvector  $u_i$  for M can be written as a linear combination of the datapoints  $x_i$ , by solving the system of equations  $x_i = \sum_j \langle x_i, u_j \rangle u_j$

#### Rayleigh Quotient

- $\Box \ \frac{u^{\top} M u}{u^{\top} u}$  is called the **Rayleigh quotient**
- □ Let  $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n$  where  $\lambda_1 \ge \lambda_2 \ge ... \ge \lambda_n$  be the eigenvalues of *M*
- □ **Min-max Theorem** (simplified)
  - Maximum of the Rayleigh quotient,  $\max_{\|u\|=1} \frac{u^{\top} M u}{u^{\top} u} = \lambda_1$
  - Minimum of the Rayleigh quotient,  $\min_{\|u\|=1} \frac{u^{\top} M u}{u^{\top} u} = \lambda_n$

#### Proof of min-max theorem

#### **Find stationary points of** $\frac{u^T M u}{u^T u}$

- □ Letting u' = cu does not change  $\frac{u^T M u}{u^T u} \left( = \frac{u'^T M u'}{u'^T u'} \right)$ 
  - Hence consider only unit *u*
  - Maximize  $u^{\top}Mu$  subject to  $u^{\top}u = 1$
- □ Use Lagrangian to add  $u^{\mathsf{T}}u = 1$  constraint  $\mathcal{L}(u, \lambda) = u^{\mathsf{T}}Mu + \lambda(u^{\mathsf{T}}u - 1)$  Matrix differentiation\*  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial u} = u^{\mathsf{T}}(M + M^{\mathsf{T}}) + 2\lambda u^{\mathsf{T}} = 0$   $\frac{\partial x^{\mathsf{T}}Mx}{\partial x} = x^{\mathsf{T}}(M + M^{\mathsf{T}})$   $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = u^{\mathsf{T}}u - 1 = 0$   $\frac{\partial x^{\mathsf{T}}x}{\partial x} = 2x^{\mathsf{T}}$   $u^{\mathsf{T}}(M + M^{\mathsf{T}}) = -2\lambda u^{\mathsf{T}} \Rightarrow (M + M^{\mathsf{T}})u = -2\lambda u$ Since *M* is symmetric,  $2Mu = -2\lambda u$ 
  - $\Rightarrow Mu = \tilde{\lambda}u$  where  $\tilde{\lambda} = -2\lambda$

#### **Stationary points are solutions of** $Mu = \tilde{\lambda}u$

#### Eigendecomposition applications

- Matrix inverse
- Matrix approximation
- Matrix factorization
  - Multidimensional Scaling
- Minimizing/maximizing Rayleigh Quotient
  - PCA
    - Max of covariance matrix
  - Spectral clustering
    - Min of graph Laplacian

#### Singular Value Decomposition

- Any matrix can be singular value decomposed
- $\Box M = USV^*$ 
  - *M* is  $m \times n$  matrix
  - U is an  $m \times m$  unitary matrix

For unitary matrix  $U, UU^* = U^*U = I$ 

- S is an  $m \times n$  diagonal matrix
- V is an  $n \times n$  unitary matrix

□ For a real M,  $V^* = V^{\top}$  (and  $U = U^{\top}$ ) hence  $M = USV^{\top}$ 

## SVD applications Solving linear equations Linear regression

- Pseudoinverse
- Kabsch algorithm
- Matrix approximation
- As a eigendecomposition (see next slide)

#### SVD and eigendecomposition

- □ SVD of matrix *M* simultaneously performs a eigendecomposition of  $M^{\top}M$  and  $MM^{\top}$ 
  - $M^{\top}M$  and  $MM^{\top}$  are important matrices (next slide)
  - Given SVD of  $M = USV^{T}$ , since V and U are unitary
    - $\square \quad M^{\top}M = VS^{\top}U^{\top}USV^{\top} = V(S^{\top}S)V^{\top} = VS^{2}V^{\top}$
    - $\square MM^{\top} = USV^{\top}VS^{\top}U^{\top} = U(S^{\top}S)U^{\top} = US^{2}U^{\top}$
    - $\Rightarrow$  V is the eigenbasis of  $M^{\top}M$  and U is the eigenbasis of  $MM^{\top}$  respectively
    - $\Rightarrow M^{\top}M$  and  $MM^{\top}$  have the same eigenvalues, namely  $S^2$

#### **Special Matrices**

- Three types of matrices lead to many results
  - Covariance  $(A^{\top}A$  for column centered A)  $\Rightarrow$  Principal Component Analysis
  - Gramian ( $AA^{T}$  for column centered A)
    - $\Rightarrow$  Multidimensional Scaling
    - $\Rightarrow$  Kernel Method
  - Graph Laplacian (AA<sup>⊤</sup> for incidence matrix A)
     ⇒ Spectral Clustering