

EE16B — Midterm 2 Review

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Overview

PCA

Discretization

SVD Theorem

Any matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ can be decomposed into the product of three matrices

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

$$U : m \times m$$

$$\Sigma : m \times n$$

$$V^T : n \times n$$

Such that U, V are unitary matrices and Σ only has nonnegative values along its main diagonal.

SVD: Compact Form

We can also express the SVD as

$$\begin{aligned}A &= \mathcal{U}S\mathcal{V}^T \\ \mathcal{U} &: m \times r \\ S &: r \times r \\ \mathcal{V}^T &: r \times n\end{aligned}$$

where r is the rank of A . The compact form matrices maintain properties of the original matrices, but have entries removed whenever they correspond to zero singular values.

SVD: Outer Product Form

Lastly, we can express

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i \vec{u}_i \vec{v}_i^T$$

where \vec{u}_i, \vec{v}_i are the columns of U, V , respectively, and σ_i are corresponding diagonal entry of the matrix Σ

Computing SVD with $A^T A$

$$\begin{aligned} A^T A &= U \Sigma V^T V \Sigma^T U^T \\ &= U \Sigma^2 U^T \end{aligned}$$

This is an eigen decomposition since Σ^2 is diagonal and $U^{-1} = U^T$. Thus solving for the eigenvalues and eigenvectors of $A^T A$ give $\lambda_i = \sigma_i^2$ with eigenvectors which correspond to the right singular vectors. We need to sort by decreasing σ_i .

Side note: $\Sigma^T \Sigma$ is not actually equal to Σ^2 , but the former product yields a matrix with singular values squared on the diagonal entries, hence we call it Σ^2

Computing SVD with $A^T A$

Given a right singular vector \vec{v}_i which we found from the previous part, we can apply it

$$\begin{aligned} A\vec{v}_i &= \left(\sum_{k=1}^r \sigma_k \vec{u}_k \vec{v}_k^T \right) \vec{v}_i \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^r \sigma_k \vec{u}_k \vec{v}_k^T \vec{v}_i \\ &= \sigma_i \vec{u}_i \\ \vec{u}_i &= \frac{1}{\sigma_i} A\vec{v}_i \end{aligned}$$

Computing SVD with AA^T

Similar calculations yield $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$ of AA^T with eigenvectors as left singular vectors, and $\vec{v}_i = \frac{1}{\sigma_i} A^T \vec{u}_i$

Intepretation of SVD

- ▶ Unitary matrices act as rotation in a given space. A diagonal matrix stretches in a given coordinate space.
- ▶ SVD visualization (open in browser)

Intepretation of SVD

For a product $A\vec{x}$, we can decompose every vector \vec{x} into a linear combination of right singular vectors

$$\vec{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \vec{v}_i$$

Thus, we can see exactly which parts of \vec{x} affect the output.

Compression of Low-Rank Matrices

- ▶ Suppose I had a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with $m, n \gg \text{rank}(A)$. How could I more efficiently store A and compute products like $A\vec{x}$?
- ▶ With the SVD, we only have to save r set of two vectors and a scalar, which saves us a lot of space if the rank is small with respect to the matrix. Also, less computation is carried out if we represent the matrix as the outer product form.

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PCA

PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction tool. Given data $\vec{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$, we can create a mapping $T : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d'}$, $d' < d$ such that the variance in the dataset is still captured

PCA — Computation

1. Store data row-major in $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$
2. De-mean A
3. Take SVD: $A = U\Sigma V^T$
4. Create $V_{d'} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d'}$ from vectors of V corresponding to d' greatest singular values
5. To project data into the representative subspace:
$$T(x) := V_{d'}^T x$$

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PCA: computation

The mapping T can then be expressed as

$$T(\vec{x}) = V_k^T \vec{x}$$

If we apply this transformation onto the entire dataset (which has row vectors), we can say

$$T(A) = B = AV_k$$

where $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$

PCA: computation

If we were to show the projected vectors in the original space, we can multiply back with the projection vectors

$$A' = BV_k^T$$

Overview

PCA

Discretization

Discretization: Q1

Note: this section follows hw8 q1 almost exactly. Suppose we have a scalar system

$$\frac{d}{dt}x(t) = \alpha x + \vec{\beta}^T \vec{u}(t)$$

and we apply a constant input \vec{u}_n for times $t \in [nT, (n+1)T)$ for some $T > 0$. Given $x(nT)$ solve the differential equation

Discretization: Q1 Sol

From $t = nT$ to $t = (n + 1)T$, $\vec{\beta}^T \vec{u}$ is a constant scalar. Thus, we can solve this like a normal differential equation. Let

$x = x' - \frac{\vec{\beta}^T \vec{u}}{\alpha}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dt}x(t) &= \alpha(x' - \frac{\vec{\beta}^T \vec{u}}{\alpha}) + \vec{\beta}^T \vec{u}(t) \\ &= \alpha x'\end{aligned}$$

$$x' = Ae^{\alpha(x-nT)}$$

$$x + \frac{\vec{\beta}^T \vec{u}}{\alpha} = Ae^{\alpha(x-nT)}$$

$$x = Ae^{\alpha(x-nT)} - \frac{\vec{\beta}^T \vec{u}}{\alpha}$$

At which point we can use our initial condition to get

$$x(nT) = A - \frac{\vec{\beta}^T \vec{u}}{\alpha}$$

Discretization: Q2

Using the differential equation derived from question 1, create a discrete-time system to model the continuous time. In other words, if $x[n] = x(nT)$, $\vec{u}[n] = \vec{u}(nT)$, find a relation such that

$$x[n+1] = A_d x[n] + B_d \vec{u}[n]$$

Discretization: Q2 Sol

We can solve the previous solution for $x((n+1)T)$

$$x((n+1)T) = \left(x(nT) + \frac{\vec{\beta}^T \vec{u}(nT)}{\alpha} \right) e^{\alpha((n+1)T - nT)} - \frac{\vec{\beta}^T \vec{u}(nT)}{\alpha}$$
$$x[n+1] = e^{\alpha T} x[n] + \frac{e^{\alpha T} - 1}{\alpha} \vec{\beta}^T \vec{u}[n]$$

We see that $A_d = e^{\alpha T}$, $B_d = ((e^{\alpha T} - 1)/\alpha) \vec{\beta}^T$

Discretization: Q3

Instead of a scalar, we instead have a diagonal matrix A such that

$$\frac{d}{dt}\vec{x} = A\vec{x} + B\vec{u}$$

Discretize this system in the same way as Q2.

Discretization: Q3 Sol

Expanding the original system out line-by-line gives

$$\frac{d}{dt}x_i = a_i x_i + b_i \vec{u}_i$$

where x_i is the i th variable of \vec{x} , a_i is the diagonal entry of A , and b_i is the row of B .

Discretization: Generic Matrix

Math not shown, but we can perform a change of basis from our original space to our diagonal space, and then apply the results of the previous part.