



Some NLA practice

Daniil Merkulov

Numerical Linear Algebra. Skoltech

Lectures 7-8 recap

Matrix decompositions and linear systems

In a least-squares, or linear regression, problem, we have measurements $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and seek a vector $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $X\theta$ is close to y . Closeness is defined as the sum of the squared differences:

$$\sum_{i=1}^m (x_i^\top \theta - y_i)^2$$

is convex

$$\|X\theta - y\|_2^2 \rightarrow \min_{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$

$$X\theta^* = y$$

$$\begin{array}{l} Ax = b \\ \theta_0, \theta_1 \end{array}$$

Linear least squares.

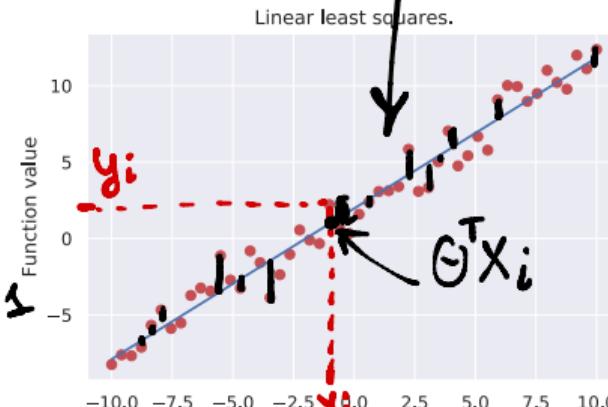
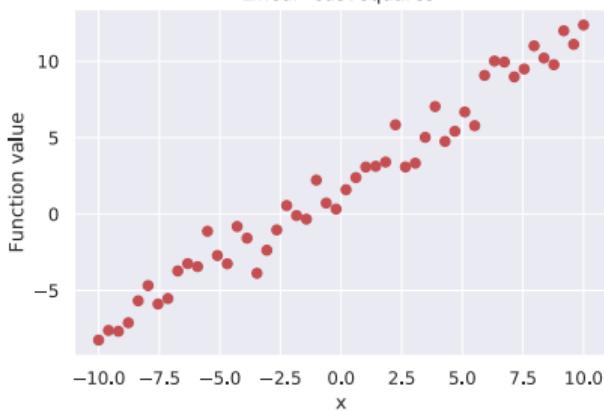


Figure 1: Illustration of linear system aka least squares

$$\begin{aligned} X\theta &= y \\ \Rightarrow \theta &= X^{-1}y \end{aligned}$$

Matrix decompositions and linear systems. Approaches

$m > n$

Moore–Penrose inverse

If the matrix X is relatively small, we can write down and calculate exact solution:

+

$$\theta^* = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top y = X^\dagger y,$$

$$\begin{aligned} Ax &= b \\ \text{m} \times n &\quad n \times 1 & m \times 1 \\ A^\top A x &= A^\top b \\ \text{n} \times n && \\ x^+ &= (A^\top A)^{-1} A^\top b \\ & \quad \text{---} \\ & \quad A^\dagger \end{aligned}$$

Matrix decompositions and linear systems. Approaches

Moore–Penrose inverse

If the matrix X is relatively small, we can write down and calculate exact solution:

$$\theta^* = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top y = X^\dagger y,$$

where X^\dagger is called pseudo-inverse matrix. However, this approach squares the condition number of the problem, which could be an obstacle in case of ill-conditioned huge scale problem.

Matrix decompositions and linear systems. Approaches

Moore–Penrose inverse

If the matrix X is relatively small, we can write down and calculate exact solution:

$$\theta^* = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top y = X^\dagger y,$$

where X^\dagger is called pseudo-inverse matrix. However, this approach squares the condition number of the problem, which could be an obstacle in case of ill-conditioned huge scale problem.

QR decomposition

For any matrix $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ there exists QR decomposition:

$$\begin{aligned} X\theta &= y \\ \textcircled{Q} R\theta &= y \quad | Q^\top \\ R\theta &= Q^\top y \\ b \end{aligned}$$

$$X = Q \cdot R, \quad m > n$$

$m \cdot n$ $n \times n$ (faster)

new linear system is much easier to solve

Matrix decompositions and linear systems. Approaches

Moore–Penrose inverse

If the matrix X is relatively small, we can write down and calculate exact solution:

$$\theta^* = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top y = X^\dagger y,$$

where X^\dagger is called pseudo-inverse matrix. However, this approach squares the condition number of the problem, which could be an obstacle in case of ill-conditioned huge scale problem.

QR decomposition

For any matrix $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ there exists QR decomposition:

$$X = Q \cdot R,$$

where Q is an orthogonal matrix (its columns are orthogonal unit vectors) meaning $Q^\top Q = QQ^\top = I$ and R is an upper triangular matrix. It is important to notice, that since $Q^{-1} = Q^\top$, we have:

$$QR\theta = y \quad \longrightarrow \quad R\theta = Q^\top y$$

Now, process of finding theta consists of two steps:

1. Find the QR decomposition of X .

Matrix decompositions and linear systems. Approaches

Moore–Penrose inverse

If the matrix X is relatively small, we can write down and calculate exact solution:

$$\theta^* = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top y = X^\dagger y,$$

where X^\dagger is called pseudo-inverse matrix. However, this approach squares the condition number of the problem, which could be an obstacle in case of ill-conditioned huge scale problem.

QR decomposition

For any matrix $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ there exists QR decomposition:

$$X = Q \cdot R,$$

where Q is an orthogonal matrix (its columns are orthogonal unit vectors) meaning $Q^\top Q = QQ^\top = I$ and R is an upper triangular matrix. It is important to notice, that since $Q^{-1} = Q^\top$, we have:

$$QR\theta = y \quad \longrightarrow \quad R\theta = Q^\top y$$

Now, process of finding theta consists of two steps:

1. Find the QR decomposition of X .
2. Solve triangular system $R\theta = Q^\top y$, which is triangular and, therefore, easy to solve.

Matrix decompositions and linear systems. Approaches

= LU in SPD case

Cholesky decomposition

For any positive definite matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ there exists Cholesky decomposition:

$$X^T X = A = L^T \cdot L,$$

where L is an lower triangular matrix. We have:

$$L^T L \theta = y \rightarrow L^T z_\theta = y$$

Now, process of finding theta consists of two steps:

1. Find the Cholesky decomposition of $X^T X$.

$$X \theta = y$$

$$\underbrace{X^T X \theta}_{A} = \underbrace{y}_{b}$$

$$A \theta = b$$

Note, that in this case the error still proportional to the squared condition number.

why $A X$
 $\forall y \in \mathbb{R}^n: \underbrace{y^T X^T X y}_{P^T P > 0} > 0$
 $P \neq 0$

for any $X \rightarrow A = X^T X$
is SPD $n \times n$

Matrix decompositions and linear systems. Approaches

$$A = LU$$



Cholesky decomposition

For any positive definite matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ there exists Cholesky decomposition:

$$X^T X = A = L^T \cdot L,$$

if A is SPD

$$\underline{A = L L^T}$$

where L is an lower triangular matrix. We have:

$$\boxed{L^T L \theta = y} \rightarrow \boxed{L^T z_\theta = y}$$

Now, process of finding theta consists of two steps:

1. Find the Cholesky decomposition of $X^T X$.
2. Find the $z_\theta = L\theta$ by solving triangular system $L^T z_\theta = y$

we solve

$$\Rightarrow z_\theta$$

$$\underline{L\theta = z}$$

Note, that in this case the error still proportional to the squared condition number.

Matrix decompositions and linear systems. Approaches

Cholesky decomposition

For any positive definite matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ there exists Cholesky decomposition:

$$X^\top X = A = L^\top \cdot L,$$

where L is an lower triangular matrix. We have:

$$L^\top L\theta = y \quad \longrightarrow \quad L^\top z_\theta = y$$

Now, process of finding theta consists of two steps:

1. Find the Cholesky decomposition of $X^\top X$.
2. Find the $z_\theta = L\theta$ by solving triangular system $L^\top z_\theta = y$
3. Find the θ by solving triangular system $L\theta = z_\theta$

Note, that in this case the error stil proportional to the squared condition number.

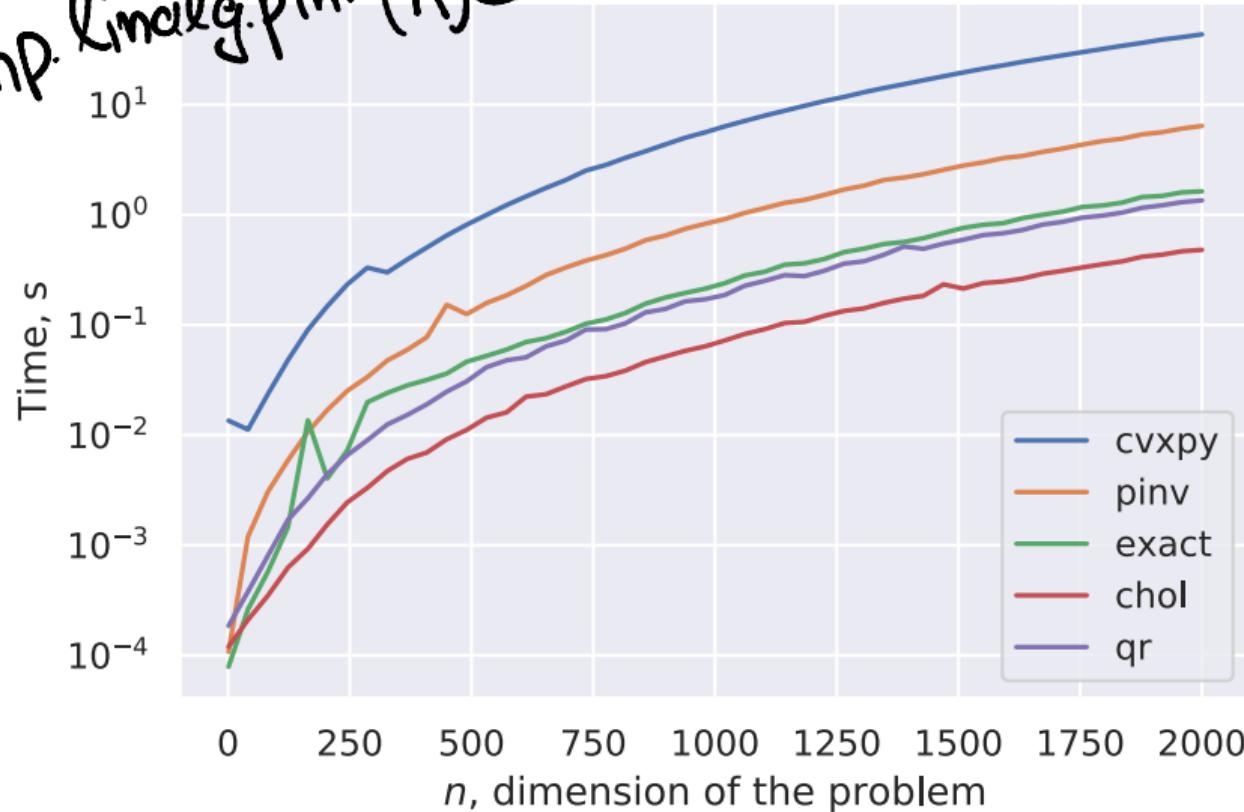
Matrix decompositions and linear systems. Approaches

$$Ax = b$$

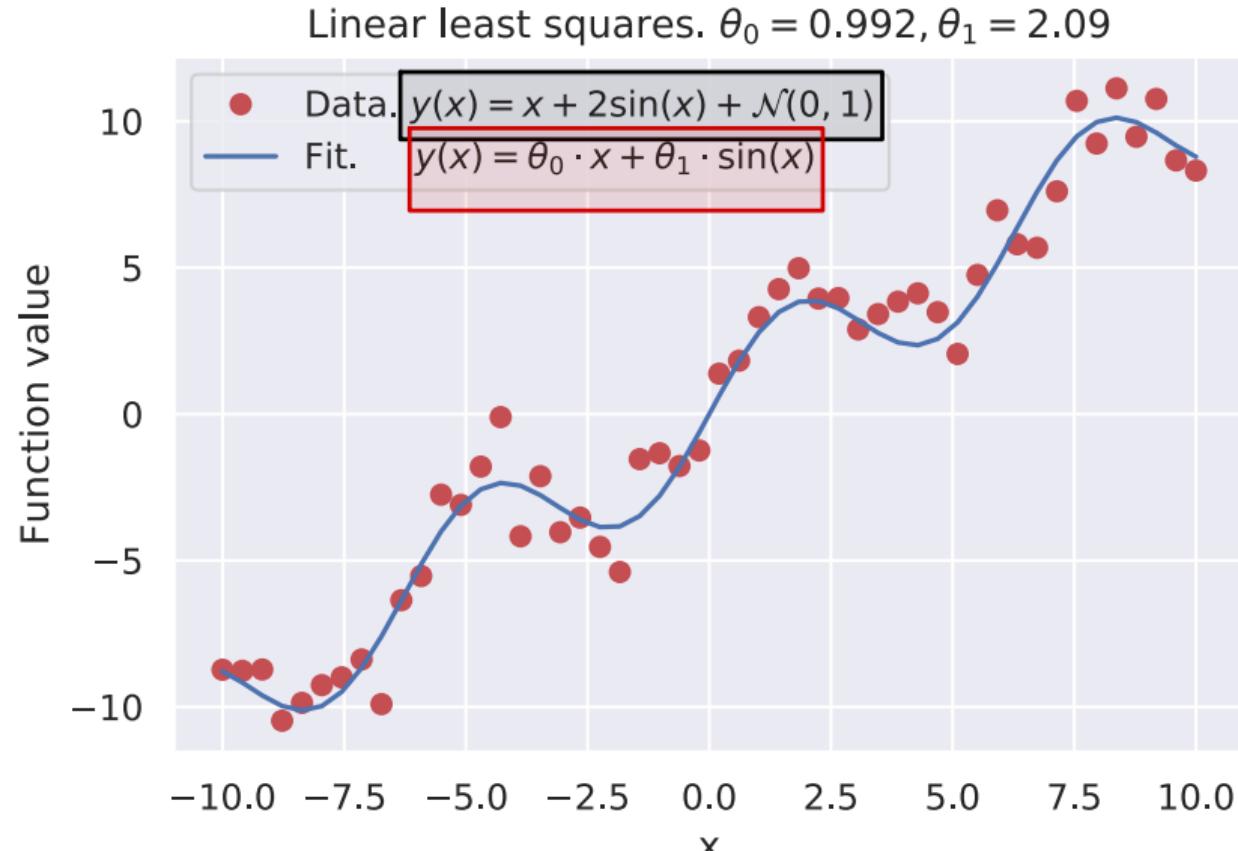
$X = \text{jnp. linalg.pinv}(A) b$

Random square linear system

$$A^T A x = A^T b$$



Matrix decompositions and linear systems. Non-linear data



Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .

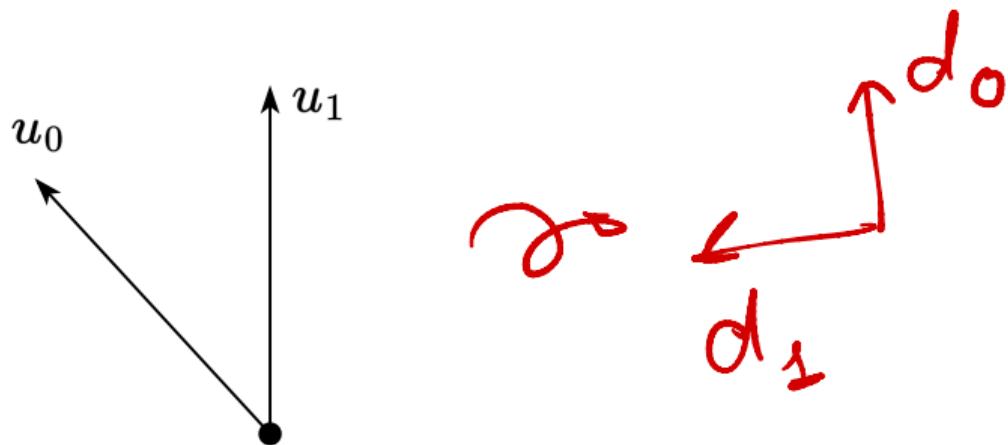


Figure 4: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .

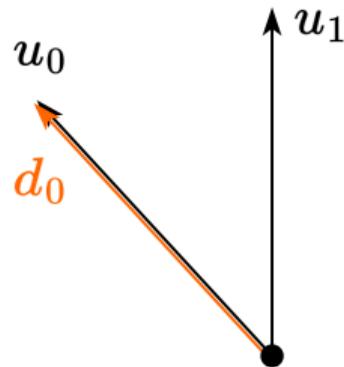


Figure 5: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .

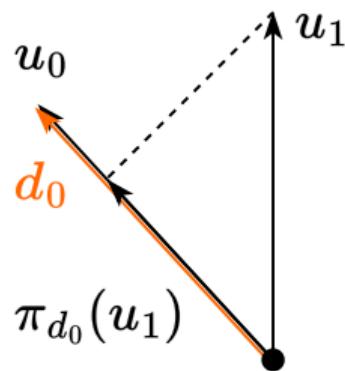


Figure 6: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .

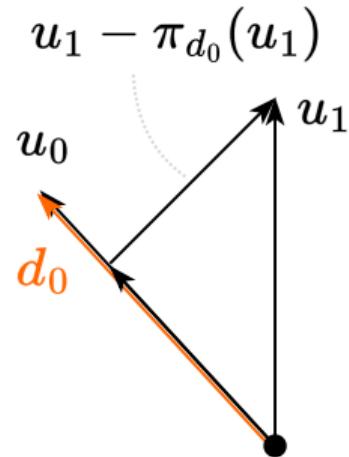


Figure 7: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .

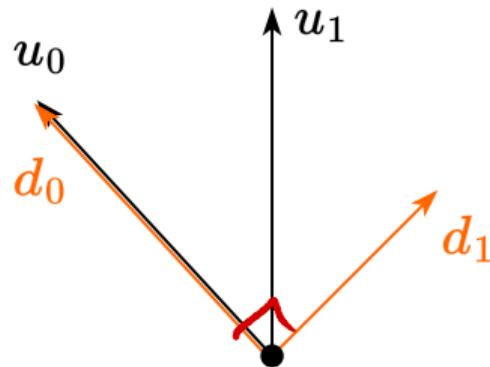
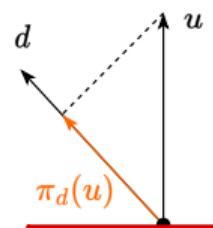
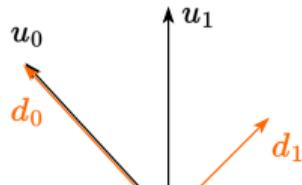


Figure 8: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .



$$\pi_d(u) = \frac{\langle d, u \rangle}{\|d\|_2^2} d$$

~~α~~ β

$x \sin \alpha$

$\|x\| \cos \alpha$

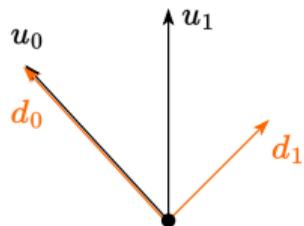
$\cos \alpha = \frac{\langle a, b \rangle}{\|a\| \cdot \|b\|}$

$\frac{d}{\|d\|} \cdot (\|d\| \cdot \cos \alpha) = \frac{d}{\|d\|} \cdot \|d\| \cdot \frac{\langle d, u \rangle}{\|d\| \cdot \|d\|}$

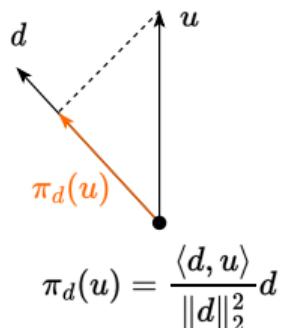
Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .



$$d_0 = u_0$$

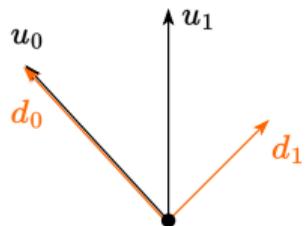


$$\pi_d(u) = \frac{\langle d, u \rangle}{\|d\|_2^2} d$$

Gram–Schmidt process

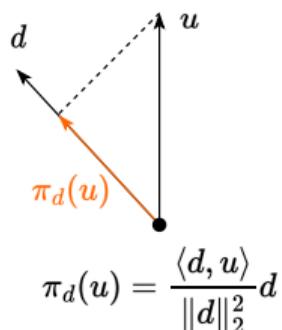
Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .



$$d_0 = u_0$$

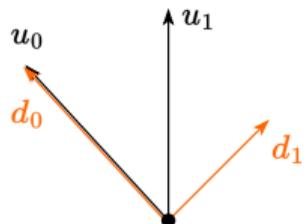
$$d_1 = u_1 - \pi_{d_0}(u_1)$$



Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

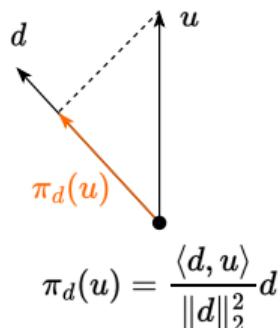
Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .



$$d_0 = u_0$$

$$d_1 = u_1 - \pi_{d_0}(u_1)$$

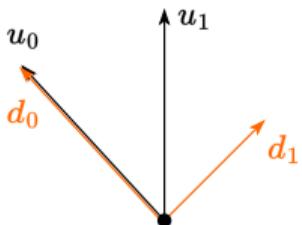
$$d_2 = u_2 - \pi_{d_0}(u_2) - \pi_{d_1}(u_2)$$



Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .

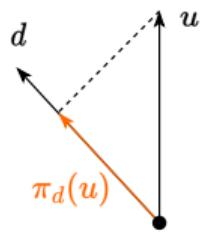


$$d_0 = u_0$$

$$d_1 = u_1 - \pi_{d_0}(u_1)$$

$$d_2 = u_2 - \pi_{d_0}(u_2) - \pi_{d_1}(u_2)$$

⋮

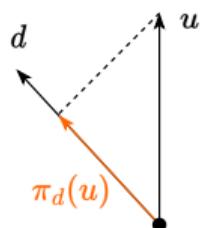
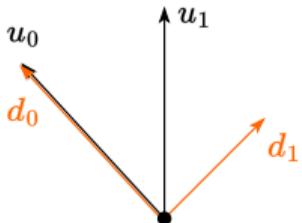


$$\pi_d(u) = \frac{\langle d, u \rangle}{\|d\|_2^2} d$$

Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .



$$\pi_d(u) = \frac{\langle d, u \rangle}{\|d\|_2^2} d$$

$$d_0 = u_0$$

$$d_1 = u_1 - \pi_{d_0}(u_1)$$

$$d_2 = u_2 - \pi_{d_0}(u_2) - \pi_{d_1}(u_2)$$

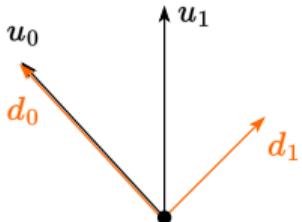
⋮

$$d_k = u_k - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \pi_{d_i}(u_k)$$

Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .



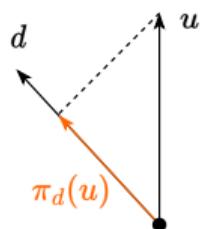
$$d_0 = u_0$$

$$d_1 = u_1 - \pi_{d_0}(u_1)$$

$$d_2 = u_2 - \pi_{d_0}(u_2) - \pi_{d_1}(u_2)$$

⋮

$$d_k = u_k - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \pi_{d_i}(u_k)$$

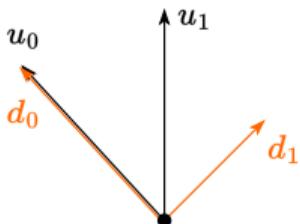


$$\pi_d(u) = \frac{\langle d, u \rangle}{\|d\|_2^2} d$$

Gram–Schmidt process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \dots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0, \dots, d_{n-1} .



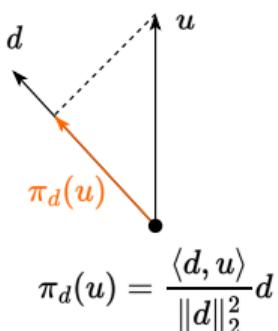
$$d_0 = u_0$$

$$d_1 = u_1 - \pi_{d_0}(u_1)$$

$$d_2 = u_2 - \pi_{d_0}(u_2) - \pi_{d_1}(u_2)$$

⋮

$$d_k = u_k - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \pi_{d_i}(u_k)$$



$$d_k = u_k + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \beta_{ik} d_i$$

$$\beta_{ik} = -\frac{\langle d_i, u_k \rangle}{\langle d_i, d_i \rangle}$$

(1)

Here's how you can structure the final slide to illustrate the **Gram–Schmidt process** in matrix form via QR decomposition:

Gram–Schmidt process in Matrix Form via QR Decomposition

Step-by-step process in matrix notation:

- Given a matrix A with columns u_0, u_1, \dots, u_{n-1} , the goal is to decompose A into:

$$A = QR$$

where:

Gram–Schmidt process in Matrix Form via QR Decomposition

Step-by-step process in matrix notation:

- Given a matrix A with columns u_0, u_1, \dots, u_{n-1} , the goal is to decompose A into:

$$A = QR$$

where:

- Q : an orthogonal matrix whose columns are the orthonormal vectors q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{n-1} .

Gram–Schmidt process in Matrix Form via QR Decomposition

Step-by-step process in matrix notation:

- Given a matrix A with columns u_0, u_1, \dots, u_{n-1} , the goal is to decompose A into:

$$A = QR$$

where:

- Q : an orthogonal matrix whose columns are the orthonormal vectors q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{n-1} .
- R : an upper triangular matrix.

Gram–Schmidt process in Matrix Form via QR Decomposition

Step-by-step process in matrix notation:

- Given a matrix A with columns u_0, u_1, \dots, u_{n-1} , the goal is to decompose A into:

$$A = QR$$

where:

- Q : an orthogonal matrix whose columns are the orthonormal vectors q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{n-1} .
- R : an upper triangular matrix.

Gram–Schmidt process in Matrix Form via QR Decomposition

Step-by-step process in matrix notation:

- Given a matrix A with columns u_0, u_1, \dots, u_{n-1} , the goal is to decompose A into:

$$A = QR$$

where:

- Q : an orthogonal matrix whose columns are the orthonormal vectors q_0, q_1, \dots, q_{n-1} .
- R : an upper triangular matrix.

Illustration:

Gram–Schmidt \approx QR decomp.

$$v_k = u_k - \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \langle u_k, q_i \rangle q_i \quad q_k = \frac{v_k}{\|v_k\|} \quad R_{ij} = \langle u_j, q_i \rangle \quad \text{for } i \leq j$$

For $A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ u_0 & u_1 & \cdots & u_{n-1} \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow Q = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ q_0 & q_1 & \cdots & q_{n-1} \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}, \quad R = \begin{bmatrix} r_{00} & r_{01} & \cdots & r_{0(n-1)} \\ 0 & r_{11} & \cdots & r_{1(n-1)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & r_{(n-1)(n-1)} \end{bmatrix}$

QR decomposition

GS is cool
but not very practical (instability issue)

↓
QR

there is
stable modification
of GS

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \text{green vertical bars} \\ m \times m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{orange triangle} \\ m \times n \end{bmatrix}$$

Q is unitary



FASTEST

$$m \geq n$$

R



Givens rotations +

Householder reflections

$$\begin{bmatrix} \text{orange rectangle} \\ m \times n \end{bmatrix}$$

R

Schur form

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \text{green vertical bars} \\ \text{green vertical bars} \\ \text{green vertical bars} \\ \text{green vertical bars} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n} U \quad T \quad \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n} \quad \begin{bmatrix} \text{green horizontal bars} \\ \text{green horizontal bars} \\ \text{green horizontal bars} \\ \text{green horizontal bars} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n} U^*$$

Schur

- ▶ U is unitary
- ▶ $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are eigenvalues
- ▶ columns of U are Schur vectors

Figure 10: Decomposition

QR algorithm

- The QR algorithm was independently proposed in 1961 by Kublanovskaya and Francis.

QR algorithm

- The QR algorithm was independently proposed in 1961 by Kublanovskaya and Francis.
- Do not **mix** QR algorithm and QR decomposition!

QR algorithm

- The QR algorithm was independently proposed in 1961 by Kublanovskaya and Francis.
- **Do not mix QR algorithm and QR decomposition!**
- QR decomposition is the representation of a matrix, whereas QR algorithm uses QR decomposition to compute the eigenvalues!

SVD

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \text{green vertical bars} \\ Q \text{ is left unitary} \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n} \begin{bmatrix} \text{orange triangle} \\ R \end{bmatrix}_{n \times n} \quad m \geq n$$

QR

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \text{green vertical bars} \\ Q \text{ is unitary} \end{bmatrix}_{m \times m} \begin{bmatrix} \text{orange rectangle} \\ R \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n} \quad m < n$$

Singular value decomposition

Suppose $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with rank $A = r$. Then A can be factored as

$m < n$

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

The diagram illustrates the SVD factorization for the case where $m < n$. It shows a gray rectangle labeled A with dimensions $m \times n$ being equal to the product of three matrices: U , Σ , and V^T . The U matrix is highlighted with a red border and has dimensions $m \times m$. The Σ matrix is a rectangular matrix with dimensions $m \times n$, featuring a diagonal line of red zeros. The V^T matrix is highlighted with a blue border and has dimensions $n \times n$. Above the diagram, a blue arrow points from the equation $A = U\Sigma V^T$ to the Σ matrix, with the handwritten word "unitary" written next to it.

$$UU^T = I$$

$$U^T U = I$$

Singular value decomposition

Suppose $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with rank $A = r$. Then A can be factored as

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

where $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ satisfies $U^T U = I$, $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ satisfies $V^T V = I$, and Σ is a matrix with non-zero elements on the main diagonal $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, such that

Singular value decomposition

Suppose $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with rank $A = r$. Then A can be factored as

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

$$\sigma = \sqrt{\lambda}$$
$$\sigma(A) = \sqrt{\lambda(A^T A)}$$

where $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ satisfies $U^T U = I$, $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ satisfies $V^T V = I$, and Σ is a matrix with non-zero elements on the main diagonal $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, such that

$$x^* x = 1$$

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > 0.$$

$$\sigma(27) = 27$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -27 \\ 1 \times 1 \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{-1}_{1 \times 1} \cdot \underbrace{27}_{1 \times 1} \cdot \underbrace{1}_{1 \times 1}$$

$x = i$
 $x^* = -i$

$x^* x = 1$

Singular value decomposition

Suppose $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with rank $A = r$. Then A can be factored as

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

$$\tilde{A}_r = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i \cdot u_i \cdot v_i^T$$

$$\|\tilde{A}_r\|_2 = \|A\|_2$$

where $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ satisfies $U^T U = I$, $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ satisfies $V^T V = I$, and Σ is a matrix with non-zero elements on the main diagonal $\Sigma = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_r) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, such that

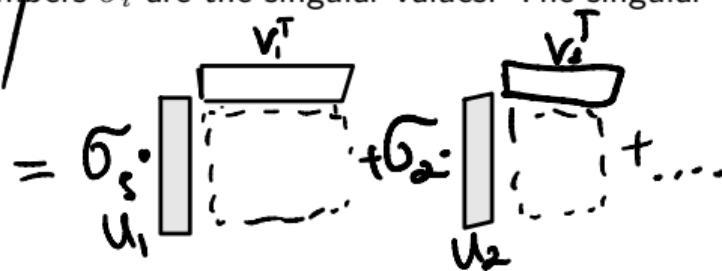
$$= \sigma_{\max}$$

$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r > 0.$$

$$\sigma_r = \sigma_{\min}$$

This factorization is called the **singular value decomposition (SVD)** of A . The columns of U are called left singular vectors of A , the columns of V are right singular vectors, and the numbers σ_i are the singular values. The singular value decomposition can be written as

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^r \sigma_i u_i v_i^T,$$



where $u_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$ are the left singular vectors, and $v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are the right singular vectors.

Singular value decomposition

$S^n_{++} : A \in \mathbb{R}^m$
 $A \succ 0$

i Question

Suppose, matrix $A \in \mathbb{S}_{++}^n$. What can we say about the connection between its eigenvalues and singular values?

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad m > n$$

$A^T A$ - full rank } square
 AA^T - singular } symmetric
 (semi)
 positive definite

$$S^n_+ : A \Sigma^0$$

$$\lambda(A^T A) =$$

SPECTRAL DECOMP:

$$A^T A = Q \cdot \Lambda \cdot Q^T$$

$$U = \sum U \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$$

Singular value decomposition

$$A^* A = Q \Lambda Q^*$$

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

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

$$V \Sigma^T U^* \cdot U \Sigma V^* = V \underbrace{\Sigma \cdot \Sigma}_{I} V^* = V \Sigma^2 V^*$$

i Question

Suppose, matrix $A \in \mathbb{S}_{++}^n$. What can we say about the connection between its eigenvalues and singular values?

i Question

How do the singular values of a matrix relate to its eigenvalues, especially for a symmetric matrix?

$$\sigma(A) = \sqrt{\lambda(A^* A)}$$

$$Q \Lambda Q^* = V \Sigma^2 V^*$$

$$\lambda(A^* A) = \sigma^2(A)$$

Skeleton decomposition

Simple, yet very interesting decomposition is Skeleton decomposition, which can be written in two forms:

$$A = UV^T \quad A = \hat{C}\hat{A}^{-1}\hat{R}$$

Skeleton decomposition

Simple, yet very interesting decomposition is Skeleton decomposition, which can be written in two forms:

$$A = UV^T \quad A = \hat{C}\hat{A}^{-1}\hat{R}$$

The latter expression refers to the fun fact: you can randomly choose r linearly independent columns of a matrix and any r linearly independent rows of a matrix and store only them with the ability to reconstruct the whole matrix exactly.

Skeleton decomposition

Simple, yet very interesting decomposition is Skeleton decomposition, which can be written in two forms:

$$A = UV^T \quad A = \hat{C}\hat{A}^{-1}\hat{R}$$

The latter expression refers to the fun fact: you can randomly choose r linearly independent columns of a matrix and any r linearly independent rows of a matrix and store only them with the ability to reconstruct the whole matrix exactly.

Use cases for Skeleton decomposition are:

- Model reduction, data compression, and speedup of computations in numerical analysis: given rank- r matrix with $r \ll n, m$ one needs to store $\mathcal{O}((n + m)r) \ll nm$ elements.

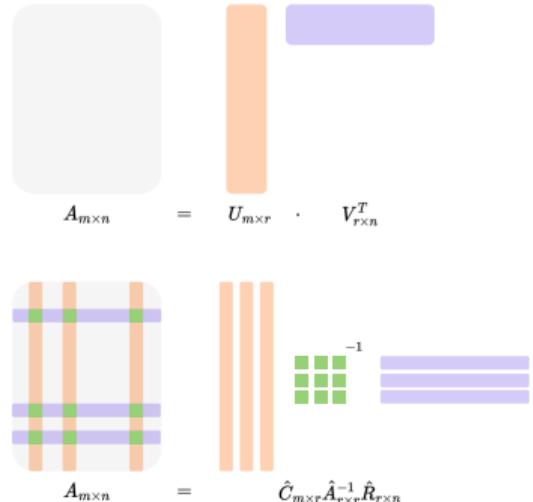


Figure 12: Illustration of Skeleton decomposition

Skeleton decomposition

Simple, yet very interesting decomposition is Skeleton decomposition, which can be written in two forms:

$$A = UV^T \quad A = \hat{C}\hat{A}^{-1}\hat{R}$$

The latter expression refers to the fun fact: you can randomly choose r linearly independent columns of a matrix and any r linearly independent rows of a matrix and store only them with the ability to reconstruct the whole matrix exactly.

Use cases for Skeleton decomposition are:

- Model reduction, data compression, and speedup of computations in numerical analysis: given rank- r matrix with $r \ll n, m$ one needs to store $\mathcal{O}((n + m)r) \ll nm$ elements.
- Feature extraction in machine learning, where it is also known as matrix factorization

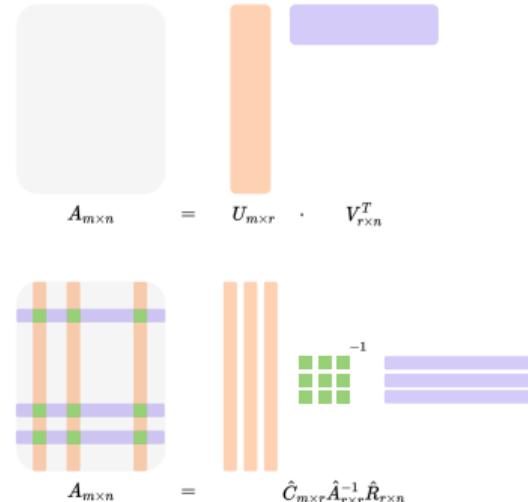


Figure 12: Illustration of Skeleton decomposition

Skeleton decomposition

Simple, yet very interesting decomposition is Skeleton decomposition, which can be written in two forms:

$$A = UV^T \quad A = \hat{C}\hat{A}^{-1}\hat{R}$$

The latter expression refers to the fun fact: you can randomly choose r linearly independent columns of a matrix and any r linearly independent rows of a matrix and store only them with the ability to reconstruct the whole matrix exactly.

Use cases for Skeleton decomposition are:

- Model reduction, data compression, and speedup of computations in numerical analysis: given rank- r matrix with $r \ll n, m$ one needs to store $\mathcal{O}((n + m)r) \ll nm$ elements.
- Feature extraction in machine learning, where it is also known as matrix factorization
- All applications where SVD applies, since Skeleton decomposition can be transformed into truncated SVD form.

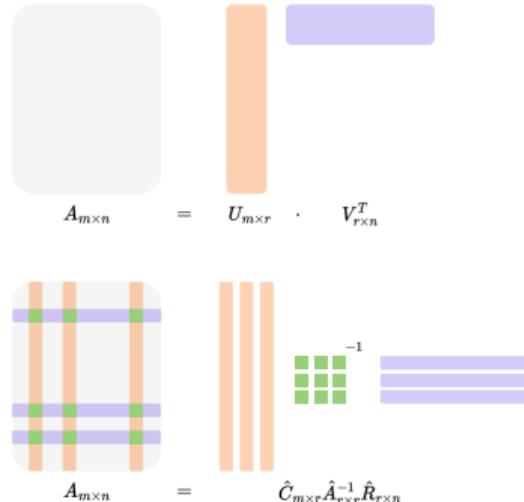


Figure 12: Illustration of Skeleton decomposition

Canonical tensor decomposition

One can consider the generalization of Skeleton decomposition to the higher order data structure, like tensors, which implies representing the tensor as a sum of r primitive tensors.

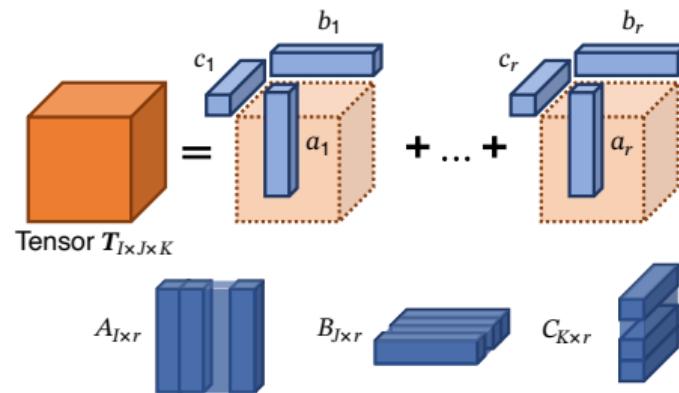


Figure 13: Illustration of Canonical Polyadic decomposition

Example

Note, that there are many tensor decompositions: Canonical, Tucker, Tensor Train (TT), Tensor Ring (TR), and others. In the tensor case, we do not have a straightforward definition of *rank* for all types of decompositions. For example, for TT decomposition rank is not a scalar, but a vector.

Problems

Example. Simple yet important idea on matrix computations.

Suppose, you have the following expression

$$b = A_1 A_2 A_3 x,$$

where the $A_1, A_2, A_3 \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ - random square dense matrices and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ - vector. You need to compute b.

Which one way is the best to do it?

1. $A_1 A_2 A_3 x$ (from left to right)

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) : \mathbb{R}^n &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ f(y) &= \frac{1}{2} y^T A^T A y - b^T y \\ A &= \frac{1}{2} y^T y - b^T x \\ y &= Ax \end{aligned}$$

Check the simple  code snippet after all.

Example. Simple yet important idea on matrix computations.

Suppose, you have the following expression

$$b = A_1 A_2 A_3 x,$$

where the $A_1, A_2, A_3 \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ - random square dense matrices and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ - vector. You need to compute b.

Which one way is the best to do it?

1. $A_1 A_2 A_3 x$ (from left to right)
2. $(A_1 (A_2 (A_3 x)))$ (from right to left)

Check the simple  code snippet after all.

Example. Simple yet important idea on matrix computations.

Suppose, you have the following expression

$$b = A_1 A_2 A_3 x,$$

where the $A_1, A_2, A_3 \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ - random square dense matrices and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ - vector. You need to compute b.

Which one way is the best to do it?

1. $A_1 A_2 A_3 x$ (from left to right)
2. $(A_1 (A_2 (A_3 x)))$ (from right to left)
3. It does not matter

Check the simple  code snippet after all.

Example. Simple yet important idea on matrix computations.

Suppose, you have the following expression

$$b = A_1 A_2 A_3 x,$$

where the $A_1, A_2, A_3 \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 3}$ - random square dense matrices and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ - vector. You need to compute b.

Which one way is the best to do it?

1. $A_1 A_2 A_3 x$ (from left to right)
2. $(A_1 (A_2 (A_3 x)))$ (from right to left)
3. It does not matter
4. The results of the first two options will not be the same.

Check the simple  code snippet after all.

Problem 1

Find SVD of the following matrix:

Solution

1.

$$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{pmatrix} = 1 + 4 + 9 = 14 = \lambda(A^T A) = \sqrt{\lambda(A^T A)} = \sqrt{14}$$

2. We need to find eigenvectors of

$$\text{eig}(A^T A) = 1$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = U \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{14} & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}^{1/2}$$

$$\lambda(A A^T) = A A^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \quad (14, 0, 0)$$

2. We need to find an eigenvalue

Problem 1

Find SVD of the following matrix:

Eigen vectors
of $AA^T = \tilde{A}$

$$\tilde{A}l = \lambda l$$

1. calculate λ using:

$$\det(\tilde{A} - \lambda I) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow (14, 0, 0)$$

$$2. \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \end{pmatrix} = 14 \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = U \sum V^T = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} & & \\ & \frac{2}{\sqrt{14}} & \\ & & \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{14} \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot 1$$

$$\text{solving} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} e_1 \\ e_2 \\ e_3 \end{pmatrix} l$$

Problem 1

Find SVD of the following matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Any vector e : $Ae = \lambda e$
will be an eigenvector,
but typically we choose
 $\|e\|_2 = 1$

Problem 1

Find SVD of the following matrix:

Another r SVD form

$$\begin{matrix} n \\ \text{A} \\ m \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} n \\ \text{U} \\ m \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} \Sigma \\ \text{V}^T \end{matrix}$$

$$\sqrt{14} \quad 1$$

$$\left(\begin{array}{c} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{14}} \\ \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}} \end{array} \right)$$

$$r = n$$

Problem 2

Find SVD of the following matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} | & | & | \end{pmatrix}_2 \Sigma_2 \begin{pmatrix} V_1^T \\ V_2^T \end{pmatrix}$$

AA^T
 3×3

3×2

$A^T A$
 2×2

calculate eigenvectors

calculate
 $\sigma(A) = \sqrt{\lambda(A^T A)}$
eigenvectors

Problem 3

Find R matrix in QR decomposition for matrix $A = ab^T$, where $a = [1, 2, 1, 2, 1, 2, 1]$, $b = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9]$

$$A = Q R^T$$

Diagram illustrating the decomposition:

- A is a 7×9 matrix.
- Q is a 7×7 orthogonal matrix.
- R is a 7×9 upper triangular matrix.
- a is a 7×1 column vector.
- b^T is a 9×1 column vector.

SVD of ab^T :

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

where:

- U is a 7×7 orthogonal matrix.
- Σ is a 7×7 diagonal matrix with singular values.
- V is a 9×9 orthogonal matrix.

SVD of A :

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

$7 \times 7 \quad 7 \times 7 \quad 7 \times 9$

$$Q = U V$$

$$R = \Sigma V^T ?$$

Problem

$$u = \left(\begin{array}{ccc} \frac{a}{\|a\|} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)$$

$$a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \|a\| = \sqrt{14}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{14}} & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}} & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Problem

$$A = a b^T = \frac{a}{\|a\|} \cdot \frac{\|a\| \cdot \|b\| \cdot b^T}{\|b\|} =$$

$$= \frac{a}{\|a\|} \cdot \underbrace{\|a\| \cdot b^T}_{R}$$

Q R