計算科学における情報圧縮

Information Compression in Computational Science **2020.10.15**

#3:情報圧縮の数理1 (線形代数の復習)

Review of linear algebra

理学系研究科 物理学専攻 大久保 毅 Department of Physics, **Tsuyoshi Okubo**

Outline

- Matrix and linear map (cont.)
 - Relation between matrices and linear maps
 - Important properties and operations for matrices
 - Relation to simultaneous linear equations
- Eigenvalue problem and diagonalization
- Singular value decomposition (SVD)
- Generalized inverse matrix

Matrix and linear map

Matrix (行列)

Matrix: "Table" of (complex) numbers in a rectangular form

$$M \times N$$
 matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \cdots & A_{1,N} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \cdots & A_{2,N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{M1} & A_{M2} & \cdots & A_{M,N} \end{pmatrix}$$

Product of matrices: C = AB

$$A_{ij} \in \mathbb{C}(\text{ or }\mathbb{R})$$

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} A_{ik} B_{kj} \qquad B: K \times N \\ C: M \times N$$

In general: $XY \neq YX$

*We also know addition, multiplication of scalar.

 $A: M \times K$

Identity matrix (単位行列)

Identity matrix:

$$I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Product:

$$IA = A$$

$$A: N \times M$$

$$BI = B$$

$$B:K\times N$$

* Element of the identity matrix: $I_{ij} = \delta_{ij}$ (Kronecker delta)

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & (i=j) \\ 0 & (i \neq j) \end{cases}$$

Transpose, complex conjugate and adjoint

Transpose: (転置)

$$A^t \qquad (A^t)_{ij} = A_{ji}$$

Complex conjugate: A^* $(A^*)_{ij} = A^*_{ij}$ (複素共役)

$$A^* \qquad (A^*)_{ij} = A^*_{ij}$$

Adjoint: (随伴)

$$A^{\dagger} = (A^t)^* = (A^*)^t$$

or

$$(A^{\dagger})_{ij} = A^*_{ji}$$

Hermitian conjugate:

(エルミート共役)

("Dagger" is convention in physics)

Multiplication to coordinate vector

$$A: M \times N \qquad \overrightarrow{v} \in \mathbb{C}^{N} \quad \overrightarrow{v}' \in \mathbb{C}^{M}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \cdots & A_{1,N} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \cdots & A_{2,N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{M1} & A_{M2} & \cdots & A_{M,N} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_{1} \\ v_{2} \\ \vdots \\ v_{N} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} v'_{1} \\ v'_{2} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ v'_{M} \end{pmatrix}$$

M × N matrix transforms a N-dimensional coordinate vector to a M-dimensional coordinate vector.



General linear map

Map:
$$f: \mathbb{V} \to \mathbb{V}'$$

$$f(\vec{v}) = \vec{v}' \qquad (\vec{v} \in \mathbb{V}, \vec{v}' \in \mathbb{V}')$$

Linear map:

$$f(\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = f(\vec{x}) + f(\vec{y})$$

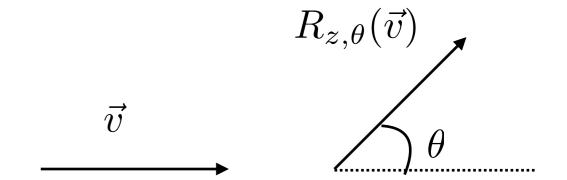
$$f(c\vec{x}) = cf(\vec{x})$$

$$(\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{V}, c \in \mathbb{C})$$

Examples:

Rotation (e.g. θ rotation around z-axis)

$$R_{z,\theta}:\mathbb{C}^3\to\mathbb{C}^3$$



Hamiltonian operator

$$\mathcal{H}:\mathbb{V} o\mathbb{V}$$



Matrix representation of linear map

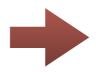
By using a basis, we can represent a linear map in a matrix.

$$f: \mathbb{V} \to \mathbb{V}'$$

$$\mathbb{V}: \dim \mathbb{V} = N$$

Basis

$$\{\vec{e}_1,\vec{e}_2,\cdots,\vec{e}_N\}$$



$$\mathbb{V}' : \dim \mathbb{V}' = M$$

$$\{\vec{e'}_1, \vec{e'}_2, \cdots, \vec{e'}_M\}$$

$$\{\vec{e'}_1, \vec{e'}_2, \cdots, \vec{e'}_M\}$$

Transformation of basis vectors:

$$f(\vec{e}_j) = f_{1j}\vec{e'}_1 + f_{2j}\vec{e'}_2 + \dots + f_{Mj}\vec{e'}_M$$



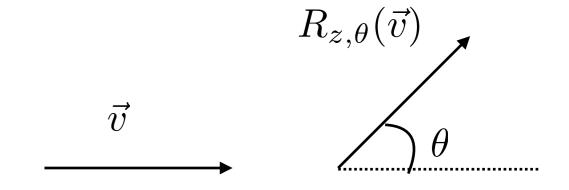
$$f: \mathbb{V} \to \mathbb{V}'$$

Examples of matrix

Rotation (e.g. θ rotation around z-axis)

$$R_{z,\theta}:\mathbb{C}^3\to\mathbb{C}^3$$

$$R_{z,\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta & 0 \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Hamiltonian operator

$$\mathcal{H}:\mathbb{V} o\mathbb{V}$$

Matrix element:
$$H_{\alpha,\beta;\alpha',\beta'} \equiv \langle \alpha\beta | \mathcal{H} | \alpha'\beta' \rangle$$
 (行列要素)

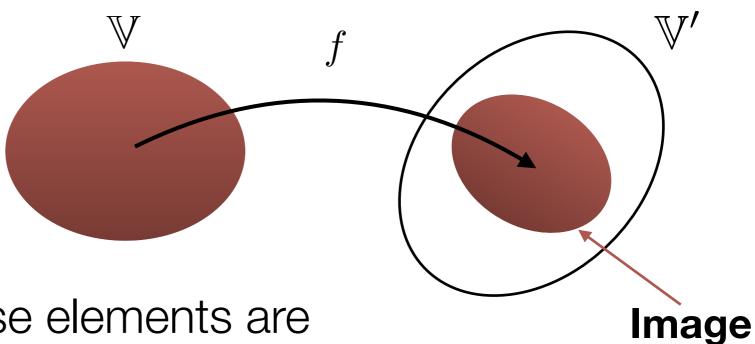
* In this notation, basis should be orthonormal.

Image of a map

$$f: \mathbb{V} \to \mathbb{V}'$$

Image of f:

(像)



Vector subspace whose elements are mapped from $\ensuremath{\mathbb{V}}$ by f .

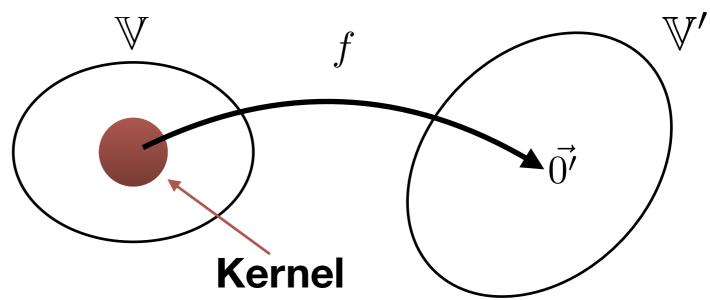
$$\operatorname{img}(f) = \{ \vec{v}' | \vec{v} \in \mathbb{V}, \vec{v}' = f(\vec{v}) \}$$

Kernel of a map

$$f: \mathbb{V} \to \mathbb{V}'$$

Kernel of f:

(核)



Vector subspace whose elements are mapped into zero vector by f .

$$\ker(f) = \{\vec{v} | \vec{v} \in \mathbb{V}, f(\vec{v}) = \vec{0}'\}$$

Theorem:

$$\dim(V) = \dim(\ker(f)) + \dim(\operatorname{img}(f))$$

Rank of matrix

Rank (ランク or 階数)of a matrix A:

$$rank(A) \equiv dim(img(A))$$

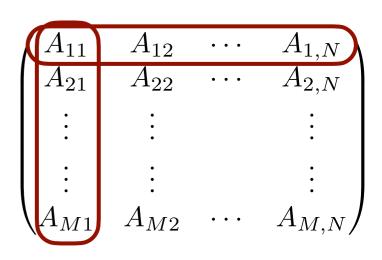
Rank is identical with

Maximum # of linearly independent column vectors (列ベクトル) in *A*Maximum # of linearly independent row vectors (行ベクトル) in *A*



$$\operatorname{rank}(A) \leq \min(M,N)$$

for a $N \times M$ matrix A.



Regular matrix and its inverse matrix

A square matrix A is a **regular matrix** (正則) if a matrix X satisfying

$$AX = XA = I$$

exists. The matrix X is called inverse matrix (逆行列) of A and it is written as $X = A^{-1}$

Properties:

 A^{-1} is unique.

$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

 $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$

A is a regular matrix $\operatorname{rank}(A) = N$



Can we consider an "inverse matrix" of a non-regular matrix (including a rectangular matrix)?



Simultaneous linear equation

Simultaneous linear equation (連立一次方程式)

can be represented by a matrix and a vector as

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$$
 $A: M \times N, \vec{x} \in \mathbb{C}^N, \vec{b} \in \mathbb{C}^M$

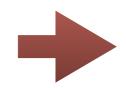
If A is a square matrix (N=M), and it has a inverse matrix (rank(A) = N), we can solve the equation as

$$\vec{x} = A^{-1}\vec{b}$$

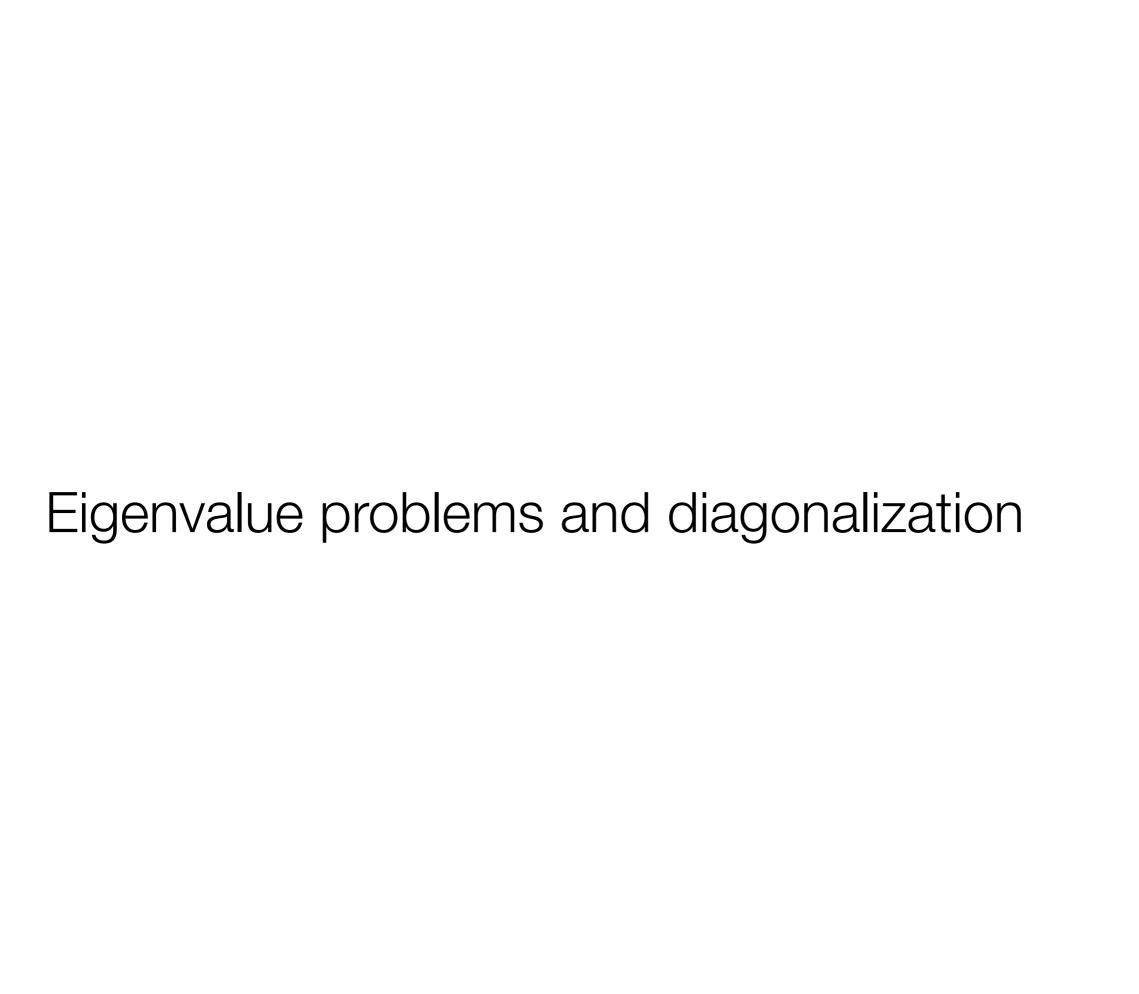
N > M: Underdetermined problem (劣決定問題)

N < M: Overdetermined problem (優決定問題)

How can we find a "solution" when A does not have the "inverse"?



It is related to the topic "sparse modeling". (Especially for underdetermined problems.)



Eigenvalue and Eigenvector

For a square matrix A

$$A\vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v}$$

 $\vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$:eigenvector (固有ベクトル)

 $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$:eigenvalue (固有値)

Properties:

If \vec{v} is an eigenvector, $c\vec{v}$ is also an eigenvector.

Eigenspace (固有空間):

The set of eigenvectors corresponds an eigenvalue λ .

Eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are linearly independent.

Right and left eigenvectors

In general, left eigenvectors can be different from the right eigenvectors.

$$A\vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v}$$
$$(\vec{u}^*)^t A = \lambda (\vec{u}^*)^t$$

 \vec{v} : Right eigenvector

 $(\vec{u}^*)^t$:Left eigenvector

Properties:

Set of eigenvalues are identical between the right and the left eigenvectors.

A left eigenvector and a right eigenvector are orthogonal when they correspond to different eigenvalues.

$$\vec{u}_i^* \cdot \vec{v}_j = 0 \qquad (\lambda_i \neq \lambda_j)$$

Diagonalization

Diagonalizaiton(対角化):

$$A: N \times N$$

$$P^{-1}AP = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 & & \\ & \alpha_2 & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \alpha_N \end{pmatrix}$$

A can be diagonalized.



A has N linearly independent eigenvectors.

$$\alpha_{i} = \lambda_{i}$$

$$P = (\vec{v}_{1}, \vec{v}_{2}, \cdots, \vec{v}_{N})$$

$$(P^{-1})^{t} = (\vec{u}_{1}^{*}, \vec{u}_{2}^{*}, \cdots, \vec{u}_{N}^{*})$$

Normalization: $\vec{u}_i^* \cdot \vec{v}_i = 1$

Meaning of diagonalization

General transform using a regular matrix: $P^{-1}AP$

It is a transform of the basis:

$$\{\vec{e}_1,\vec{e}_2,\cdots,\vec{e}_N\} \rightarrow \{P\vec{e}_1,P\vec{e}_2,\cdots,P\vec{e}_N\}$$

Diagonalization:

By using eigenvectors as a basis, we can obtain a simple linear map represented by a diagonal matrix.

$$A \to P^{-1}AP$$

* The determinant of A is invariant under this transformation:

$$\det(P^{-1}AP) = \det(P^{-1})\det(A)\det(P^{-1}) = \det(A)\det(P^{-1}P) = \det(A)$$



$$\det(A) = \prod^{N} \lambda_i$$

(This relation is true even if A cannot be diagonalized)

Unitary matrix

Unitary matrix (ユニタリ行列): $U^{\dagger} = U^{-1}$

Real Orthogonal matrix(実直交行列): $P^t = P^{-1}, (P_{ij} \in \mathbb{R})$

When we consider a unitary matrix as a set of vectors:

$$U = (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \cdots, \vec{v}_N)$$

it is a orthonormal basis: $\vec{v}_i^* \cdot \vec{v}_j = \delta_{i,j}$

The linear map represented by a unitary matrix (unitary transformation) does not change

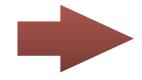
- the norm of a vector $\|U\vec{v}\| = \|\vec{v}\|$
- "distance" between two vectors

$$||U\vec{v}_1 - U\vec{v}_2|| = ||\vec{v}_1 - \vec{v}_2||$$



Normal matrix

Normal matrix(正規行列): $A^{\dagger}A = AA^{\dagger}$



We can always diagonalize it by a unitary matrix

$$U^{\dagger} = U^{-1}$$

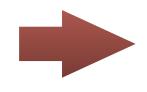
as
$$U^\dagger A U = egin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & & \\ & & \ddots & & \\ & & & \lambda_N \end{pmatrix} \qquad \lambda_i \in \mathbb{C}$$

Its eigenvalues could be complex. (even if A is a real matrix)

Hermitian matrix and its eigenvalue

Hermitian matrix(エルミート行列): $A^{\dagger}=A$

Real symmetric matrix(実対称行列): $A^t = A, \quad (A_{ij} \in \mathbb{R})$



It is a special normal matrix. $A^{\dagger}A = AA^{\dagger} = AA$ Its eigenvalues are real.

We can always diagonalize it by a unitary matrix

$$U^{\dagger}AU = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_N \end{pmatrix} \qquad \lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$$

Hermitian (or real symmetric) matrices often appear in physics.

Generalization of diagonalization

- Eigenvalue problems and diagonalizations are defined for a square matrix.
- · Even if A is a square matrix, it may not be diagonalized.



- Is it possible to transform all square matrixes into diagonal forms by generalizing the diagonalization?
- Is it possible to generalize it to a rectangular matrices?

Yes. The singular value decomposition

(特異值分解) is an generalization of the diagonalization.

(We can also consider a decomposition of a tensor.)

Singular value decomposition

Diagonalization

Diagonalizaiton(対角化):
$$A: N \times N \qquad P^{-1}AP = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_N \end{pmatrix}$$
 (Square matrix)
$$A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v} \qquad P = (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \cdots, \vec{v}_N) \\ (\vec{u}^*)^t A = \lambda(\vec{u}^*)^t \qquad (P^{-1})^t = (\vec{u}_1^*, \vec{u}_2^*, \cdots, \vec{u}_N^*)$$

- Eigenvalue problems and diagonalizations are defined for a square matrix.
- Even if A is a square matrix, it may not be diagonalized.
 - Normal or Hermitian matrices are always diagonalized by a unitary matrix

Spectral decomposition

(For a normal matrix A_i)

Spectral decomposition (スペクトル分解)

$$A = U \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_N \end{pmatrix} U^{\dagger}$$

$$\vec{u}_{i}\vec{u}_{i}^{\dagger} = \begin{pmatrix} u_{1}u_{1}^{*} & u_{1}u_{2}^{*} & \cdots & u_{1}u_{N}^{*} \\ u_{2}u_{1}^{*} & u_{2}u_{2}^{*} & \cdots & u_{2}u_{N}^{*} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ u_{N}u_{1}^{*} & u_{N}u_{2}^{*} & \cdots & u_{N}u_{N}^{*} \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} i=1 \\ N \\ (i=1) \\ i=1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i \underline{u}_i \underline{u}_i^{\dagger}$$

$$\left(= \sum_{i=1}^{N} \lambda_i |u_i\rangle\langle u_i|\right)$$

Matrix decomposition into a sum of projectors onto its eigen subspaces.

Projector:

$$P^2 = P$$

Singular value decomposition (SVD)

Singular value decomposition (特異値分解)

$$A: M \times N$$
 $A_{ij} \in \mathbf{C}$

$$\Sigma = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\sum_{r \times r}}{0_{(M-r) \times r}} & 0_{r \times (N-r)} \\ 0_{(M-r) \times r} & 0_{(M-r) \times N-r} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = U \sum V^{\dagger}$$
 $U: M \times M$
 $V: N \times N$
Unitary
Unitary
Unitary

$$0_{r\times(N-r)} \\ 0_{(M-r)\times N-r}$$

$$\Sigma_{r \times r} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \sigma_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \end{pmatrix}$$

Diagonal matrix with non-negative real elements

$$\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \cdots \ge \sigma_r > 0$$

Singular values

1. Any matrices can be decomposed as SVD: $A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger}$

$$A:M\times N \longrightarrow A^{\dagger}A:N\times N$$

* $A^{\dagger}A$ is a Hermitian matrix.

$$(A^{\dagger}A)^{\dagger} = A^{\dagger}A \quad \blacksquare$$

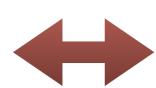
It can be diagonalized by a unitary matrix \boldsymbol{V} .

$$V^\dagger(A^\dagger A)V = ext{diag}\{\lambda_1,\lambda_2,\cdots,\lambda_N\}$$
 $V = (\vec{v}_1,\vec{v}_2,\cdots,\vec{v}_N)$ $\vec{v}_i: ext{eigenvector}$

* $A^{\dagger}A$ is a positive semi-definite matrix.

(半正定值、準正定值)

$$\vec{x}^* \cdot (A^\dagger A \vec{x}) = ||A \vec{x}||^2 \ge 0$$



Its eigenvalues are non-negative

$$\lambda_1 \ge \lambda_2 \ge \dots \ge \lambda_N \ge 0$$

1. Any matrices can be decomposed as SVD: $A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger}$

$$V^{\dagger}(A^{\dagger}A)V = \operatorname{diag}\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \cdots, \lambda_N\}$$

$$V = (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \cdots, \vec{v}_N)$$

$$(||A\vec{v}_i||^2 = \lambda_i)$$

Suppose $\lambda_1 \ge \lambda_2 \ge \cdots \ge \lambda_r > 0 = \lambda_{r+1} = \cdots = \lambda_N$ (There are r positive eigenvalues.)

Make new orthonormal basis $U=(\vec{u}_1,\vec{u}_2,\cdots,\vec{u}_M)$ in \mathbb{C}^M

For
$$(i=1,2,\ldots,r)$$
 $\sigma_i=\sqrt{\lambda_i}, \vec{u}_i=\frac{1}{\sigma_i}A\vec{v}$

For $(i=r+1,\ldots,M)$ Any orthonormal basis orthogonal to \vec{u}_i $(i=1,2,\ldots,r)$

$$\vec{u}_i^* \cdot (A\vec{v}_j) = \sigma_i \delta_{ij} \quad (i=1,\ldots,M; j=1,\ldots,N)$$
 (For simplicity, we set $\sigma_i=0$ for $i>r$.)

1. Any matrices can be decomposed as SVD: $A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger}$ We can perform same "proof" by using AA^{\dagger} .



 $U=(\vec{u}_1,\vec{u}_2,\cdots,\vec{u}_M)$ is the unitary matrix which diagonalize AA^{\dagger} as

$$U^{\dagger}(AA^{\dagger})U = \operatorname{diag}\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r, 0, \dots, 0\}$$

$$M - r$$

In summary,

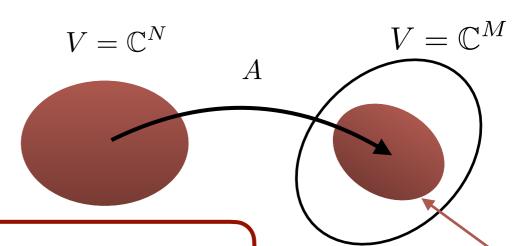
- A matrix A can be decomposed as SVD: $A = U \Sigma V^{\dagger}$
- Singular values are related to the eigenvalues of $A^\dagger A$ and AA^\dagger as $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$
- V and U are eigenvectors of $A^\dagger A$ and AA^\dagger ,respectively.

$$A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger}$$

2. # of positive singular values is identical with the rank.

$$A: M \times N \longrightarrow A: \mathbb{C}^N \to \mathbb{C}^M$$

 $rank(A) \equiv dim(img(A))$



Image

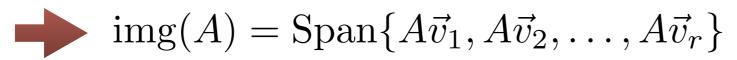
Remember

The orthonormal basis $\{\vec{v}_1,\vec{v}_2,\ldots,\vec{v}_N\}$ satisfies

$$(A\vec{v}_i)^* \cdot (A\vec{v}_j) = \lambda_i \delta_{ij}$$

Here, $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_r > 0 = \lambda_{r+1} = \cdots = \lambda_N$ and $\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$

$$\forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{C}^N, \vec{x} = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i \vec{v}_i$$
 $A\vec{x} = \sum_{i=1}^N C_i (A\vec{v}_i) = \sum_{i=1}^r C_i (A\vec{v}_i)$





$$A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger}$$

3. Singular vectors

$$A:M\times N$$
 $U=(\vec{u}_1,\vec{u}_2,\cdots,\vec{u}_M)$, $V=(\vec{v}_1,\vec{v}_2,\cdots,\vec{v}_N)$

For
$$i=1,2,\ldots,r$$

$$A\vec{v}_i=\sigma_i\vec{u}_i \ , \ A^\dagger\vec{u}_i=\sigma_i\vec{v}_i$$

 \vec{v}_i : right singular vector

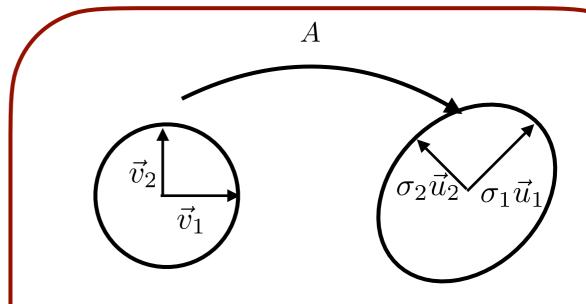
 \vec{u}_i : left singular vector

Relation to image and kernel:

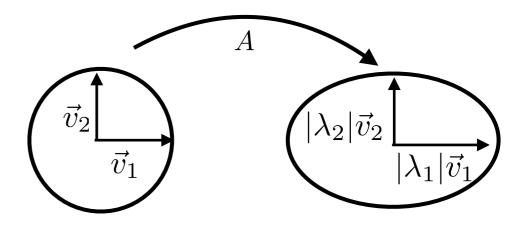
$$img(A) = Span{\{\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_r\}}$$

 $ker(A) = Span{\{\vec{v}_{r+1}, \vec{v}_{r+2}, \dots, \vec{v}_N\}}$

$$\operatorname{img}(A^{\dagger}) = \operatorname{Span}\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_r\}$$
$$\ker(A^{\dagger}) = \operatorname{Span}\{\vec{u}_{r+1}, \vec{u}_{r+2}, \dots, \vec{u}_M\}$$



cf. Hermitian matrix



Properties of SVD 4 (optional) $A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger}$

$$A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger}$$

4. Min-max theorem (Courant-Fischer theorem)

A:N imes N , Hermitian matrix

Suppose its eigenvalues are $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_N$.

$$\lambda_k = \min_{\mathbf{S}: \dim(\mathbf{S}) \le k-1} \max_{\vec{x} \in \mathbf{S}^{\perp}: ||\vec{x}|| = 1} \vec{x}^* \cdot A\vec{x}$$

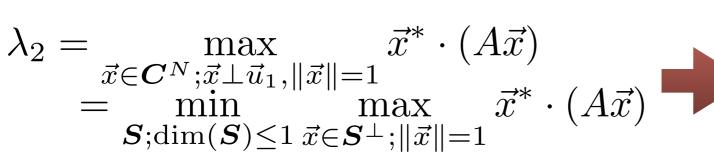
$$\mathbf{S}^{\perp} = \{\vec{x}: \vec{x}^* \cdot \vec{y} = 0, \vec{y} \in \mathbf{S}\}$$

Orthonormal complement (直交補空間)

We can prove this by considering vector subspace spanned by eigenvectors. (see references)

Intuitive examples:

$$\lambda_1 = \max_{\vec{x} \in \mathbf{C}^N; ||\vec{x}|| = 1} \vec{x}^* \cdot (A\vec{x})$$



$\vec{x} = \vec{u}_1$

Maximum appears for the eigenvector.

$$A\vec{u}_i = \lambda_i \vec{u}_i$$



$$\vec{x} = \vec{u}_2$$

Properties of SVD 4 (optional) $A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger}$

$$A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger}$$

4. Min-max theorem (Courant-Fischer theorem)

$$A: M \times N$$

Suppose its singular values are $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \cdots$

$$\sigma_k = \min_{\mathbf{S}; \dim(\mathbf{S}) \le k-1} \max_{\vec{x} \in \mathbf{S}^{\perp}; ||\vec{x}|| = 1} ||A\vec{x}||$$

By setting k=1,

$$\sigma_1 = \max_{\vec{x} \in \mathbf{C}^N, \|\vec{x}\| = 1} \|A\vec{x}\|$$

which means

$$||A\vec{x}|| \le \sigma_1 ||\vec{x}||$$

for
$$\vec{x} \in \mathbf{C}^N$$

We can easily prove this by using

$$A^{\dagger}A$$
: Hermitian

$$A^{\dagger}A\vec{v}_i = \lambda_i$$

$$\sigma_i = \sqrt{\lambda_i}$$

Properties of SVD 5 (optional)

$$A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger}$$

5. Singular values for multiplication and addition

 $\sigma_i(A)$: singular value of matrix A (for $i > \operatorname{rank}(A)$, we set $\sigma_i = 0$)

*Following properties can be proven by using min-max theorem.

Multiplication: $A: M \times L, B: L \times N$

$$\sigma_k(AB) \le \sigma_1(A)\sigma_k(B) \qquad (k = 1, 2, \dots)$$

$$(\sigma_k(AB) \le \sigma_k(A)\sigma_1(B))$$



 $rank(AB) \le min(rank(A), rank(B))$

Addition: $A, B: M \times N$

$$\sigma_{k+j-1}(A+B) \le \sigma_k(A) + \sigma_j(B) \qquad (k, j = 1, 2, \dots)$$

$$(\sigma_{k+j-1}(A+B) \le \sigma_j(A) + \sigma_k(B))$$



If $rank(B) \le r$,

$$\sigma_{k+r}(A+B) \le \sigma_k(A)$$

Libraries for SVD

There are **LAPACK** routines for SVD.

DGESDD, ZGESDD

DGESVD, ZGESVD

(For dense matrices)

*Linear Algebra PACKage

At *netlib.org* (reference implementations)

+

A lot of vender implementations

- Intel MKL
- Apple Accelerate Framework
- Fujitsu SSLII
- ..

numpy and **scipy** modules in python have routines for SVD.

numpy.linalg.svd

scipy.linalg.svd

scipy.sparse.linalg.svds

(For dense matrices)

(For sparse matrices or calculation of partial singular values)

Computation cost

For a $M \times N$ matrix $(M \le N)$: Full SVD: $O(NM^2)$

Partial SVD: O(NMk)

k: # of singular valuesto be calculated

Generalized inverse matrix

Regular matrix and its inverse matrix

A square matrix A is a **regular matrix** (正則) if a matrix X satisfying

$$AX = XA = I$$

exists. The matrix X is called inverse matrix (逆行列) of A and it is written as $X = A^{-1}$

Properties:

 A^{-1} is unique.

$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

 $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$

A is a regular matrix $\operatorname{rank}(A) = N$



Can we consider an "inverse matrix" of a non-regular matrix (including a rectangular matrix)?

Generalized inverse matrix

Generalized inverse matrix(一般化逆行列):

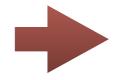
For $A:M\times N$, a matrix $A^-:N\times M$ satisfying

$$AA^{-}A = A$$

is called generalized inverse matrix.

Properties:

- Generalized inverse matrix is not unique.
 - At least one generalized matrix exists.
- If A is a regular matrix, $A^- = A^{-1}$



A- is a generalization of inverse matrix.

Moore-Penrose pseudo inverse

Moore-Penrose pseudo inverse matrix(擬似逆行列):

For $A: M \times N$, a matrix $A^+: N \times M$ satisfying

(1)
$$AA^{+}A = A$$

(1)
$$AA^{+}A = A$$
 (2) $A^{+}AA^{+} = A^{+}$

(3)
$$(AA^+)^{\dagger} = AA^+$$

(3)
$$(AA^+)^{\dagger} = AA^+$$
 (4) $(A^+A)^{\dagger} = A^+A$

is called (Moore-Penrose) pseudo inverse matrix.

Relation to SVD

 Pseudo inverse is unique and calculated from SVD.

$$A = U\Sigma V^{\dagger} = U \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{r\times r} & 0_{r\times(N-r)} \\ 0_{(M-r)\times r} & 0_{(M-r)\times N-r} \end{pmatrix} V^{\dagger}$$

$$A^{+} = V \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{r\times r}^{-1} & 0_{r\times(M-r)} \\ 0_{(N-r)\times r} & 0_{(N-r)\times M-r} \end{pmatrix} U^{\dagger}$$

$$\begin{split} A^+A &= V \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{r\times r}^{-1} & 0_{r\times (M-r)} \\ 0_{(N-r)\times r} & 0_{(N-r)\times M-r} \end{pmatrix} U^\dagger U \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{r\times r} & 0_{r\times (N-r)} \\ 0_{(M-r)\times r} & 0_{(M-r)\times N-r} \end{pmatrix} V^\dagger \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^r \vec{v}_i \vec{v}_i^\dagger (= \sum_{i=1}^r |v_i\rangle\langle v_i|) & A^+\!A \text{ is a projector onto img}(A^\dagger). \\ &(AA^+ \text{ is a projector onto img}(A).) \end{split}$$

Simultaneous linear equation

Simultaneous linear equation(連立一次方程式)

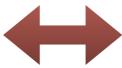
$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$$
 $A: M \times N, \vec{x} \in \mathbb{C}^N, \vec{b} \in \mathbb{C}^M$

Image

Two situations:

(1) There are solutions. $\vec{b} \in \operatorname{img}(A)$



$$\vec{b} \in \mathrm{img}(A)$$

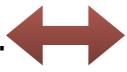


$$\operatorname{rank}(A) = N$$

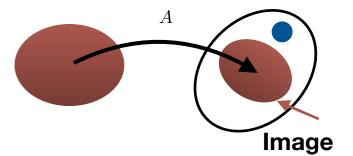
(ii) There are infinite solutions (underdetermined).

 $\operatorname{rank}(A) < N$ (We can add any vector $A\vec{y} = \vec{0}$.)

(2) There is no solution. $\vec{b} \not\in \operatorname{img}(A)$



$$\vec{b} \not\in \mathrm{img}(A)$$



(overdetermined)

Pseudo inverse and simultaneous linear equation

Simultaneous linear equation $A\vec{x}=\vec{b}$ $A:M imes N, \vec{x}\in\mathbb{C}^N, \vec{b}\in\mathbb{C}^M$

(1) There are solutions. $\vec{b} \in \text{img}(A)$



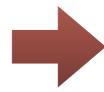
$$\vec{b} \in \mathrm{img}(A)$$

A vector defined by the pseudo inverse as

$$\vec{x}' \equiv A^+ \vec{b}$$

is one of the solutions.

Because $\vec{b} \in \mathrm{img}(A)$,there exists $\vec{v}: A\vec{v} = \vec{b}$.



$$A\vec{x}' = AA^{+}\vec{b} = AA^{+}A\vec{v} = A\vec{v} = \vec{b}$$

• \vec{x}' has the smallest norm $||\vec{x}'||$ among the solutions.

$$\|\vec{x}\| \ge \|A^+ A \vec{x}\| = \|A^+ \vec{b}\| = \|\vec{x}'\|$$

 $\therefore A^+A$ is a projector.

The pseudo inverse gives us the smallest norm solution.

Pseudo inverse and simultaneous linear equation

Simultaneous linear equation $A\vec{x}=\vec{b}$ $A:M imes N, \vec{x}\in\mathbb{C}^N, \vec{b}\in\mathbb{C}^M$

- (2) There is no solution. $\vec{b} \not\in \operatorname{img}(A)$
 - A vector defined by the pseudo inverse as

$$\vec{x}' \equiv A^+ \vec{b}$$
 minimizes the "distance" $||\vec{b} - A\vec{x}||$.
$$\vec{y} = A\vec{c} \in \operatorname{img}(A), \vec{c} \in \mathbb{C}^N$$

$$||\vec{y} - \vec{b}||^2 = ||\vec{y} - AA^+ \vec{b} - (I - AA^+)\vec{b}||^2$$

$$\operatorname{img}(A) \quad \operatorname{img}(A)^{\perp}$$

$$= ||\vec{y} - AA^+ \vec{b}||^2 + ||\vec{b} - AA^+ \vec{b}||^2$$

$$> ||\vec{b} - AA^+ \vec{b}||^2 = ||\vec{b} - A\vec{x}'||^2$$

The pseudo inverse gives us approximate "least square solution".

Example of Least square solution problem

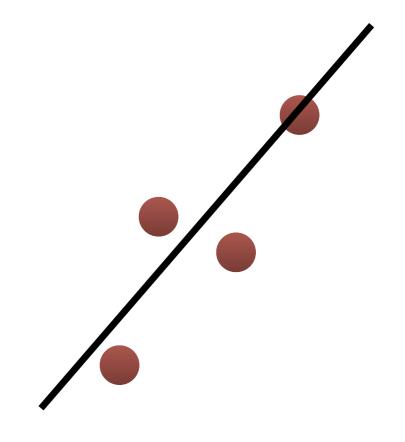
Fitting of a line to data points

$$y = ax + b$$

Data poins:

$$(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), (x_4, y_4)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & 1 \\ x_3 & 1 \\ x_4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$$

Least square fitting(最小二乗法)



$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = A^+ \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Next week

1st: Huge data in modern physics (Today)

2nd: Information compression in modern physics

(+review of linear algebra)

3rd: Review of linear algebra (+ singular value decomposition)

4th: Singular value decomposition and low rank approximation

5th: Basics of sparse modeling

6th: Basics of Krylov subspace methods

7th: Information compression in materials science

8th: Accelerating data analysis: Application of sparse modeling

9th: Data compression: Application of Krylov subspace method

10th: Entanglement of information and matrix product states

11th: Application of MPS to eigenvalue problems

12th: Tensor network representation

13th: Information compression by tensor network renormalization