

計算科学における情報圧縮

Information Compression in Computational Science

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**#3:Review of linear algebra
+ singular value decomposition**

理学系研究科 大久保 毅

Graduate School of Science, **Tsuyoshi Okubo**

Outline

- Matrix and linear map (cont.)
- 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 × 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: $C = AB$ $A_{ij} \in \mathbb{C} \text{ (or } \mathbb{R} \text{)}$

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^K A_{ik} B_{kj}$$

$$A : M \times K$$

$$B : K \times N$$

$$C : M \times N$$

In general: $XY \neq YX$

*We also know addition, multiplication of scalar.

Identity matrix (単位行列)

Identity matrix:

$N \times N$ matrix
(Square 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)

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

Complex conjugate:
(複素共役)

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

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

$$\begin{array}{ccc} A : M \times N & \vec{v} \in \mathbb{C}^N & \vec{v}' \in \mathbb{C}^M \\ \begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} & \cdots & A_{1,N} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} & \cdots & A_{2,N} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ A_{M1} & A_{M2} & \cdots & A_{M,N} \end{pmatrix} & \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_N \end{pmatrix} & = \begin{pmatrix} v'_1 \\ v'_2 \\ \vdots \\ v'_M \end{pmatrix} \end{array}$$

$M \times N$ matrix **transforms** a N -dimensional coordinate vector to a M -dimensional coordinate vector.

$M \times N$ matrix  **Linear map:** $\mathbb{C}^N \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^M$
1 to 1 (線形写像)

General linear map

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

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

Linear map:

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

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

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

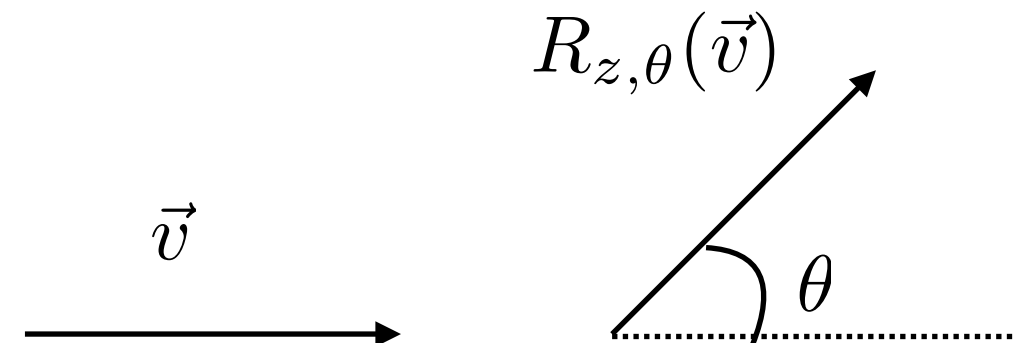
Examples:

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

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

Hamiltonian operator

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



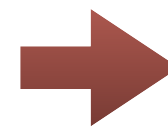
$$|\Psi\rangle \quad \rightarrow \quad \mathcal{H}|\Psi\rangle$$

Matrix representation of linear map

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

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

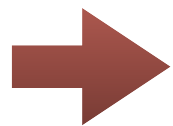
Vector space $\mathbb{V} : \dim \mathbb{V} = N$
Basis $\{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_N\}$



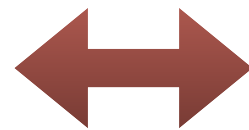
$\mathbb{V}' : \dim \mathbb{V}' = M$
 $\{\vec{e}'_1, \vec{e}'_2, \dots, \vec{e}'_M\}$

Transformation of basis vectors:

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



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



1 to 1

(if we fix basis)

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

Examples of matrix

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

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

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



Hamiltonian operator

$$\mathcal{H} : \mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{V} \quad \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} H_{0,0;0,0} & H_{0,0;0,1} & H_{0,0;1,0} & H_{0,0;1,1} \\ H_{0,1;0,0} & H_{0,1;0,1} & H_{0,1;1,0} & H_{0,1;1,1} \\ H_{1,0;0,0} & H_{1,0;0,1} & H_{1,0;1,0} & H_{1,0;1,1} \\ H_{1,1;0,0} & H_{1,1;0,1} & H_{1,1;1,0} & H_{1,1;1,1} \end{pmatrix}$$

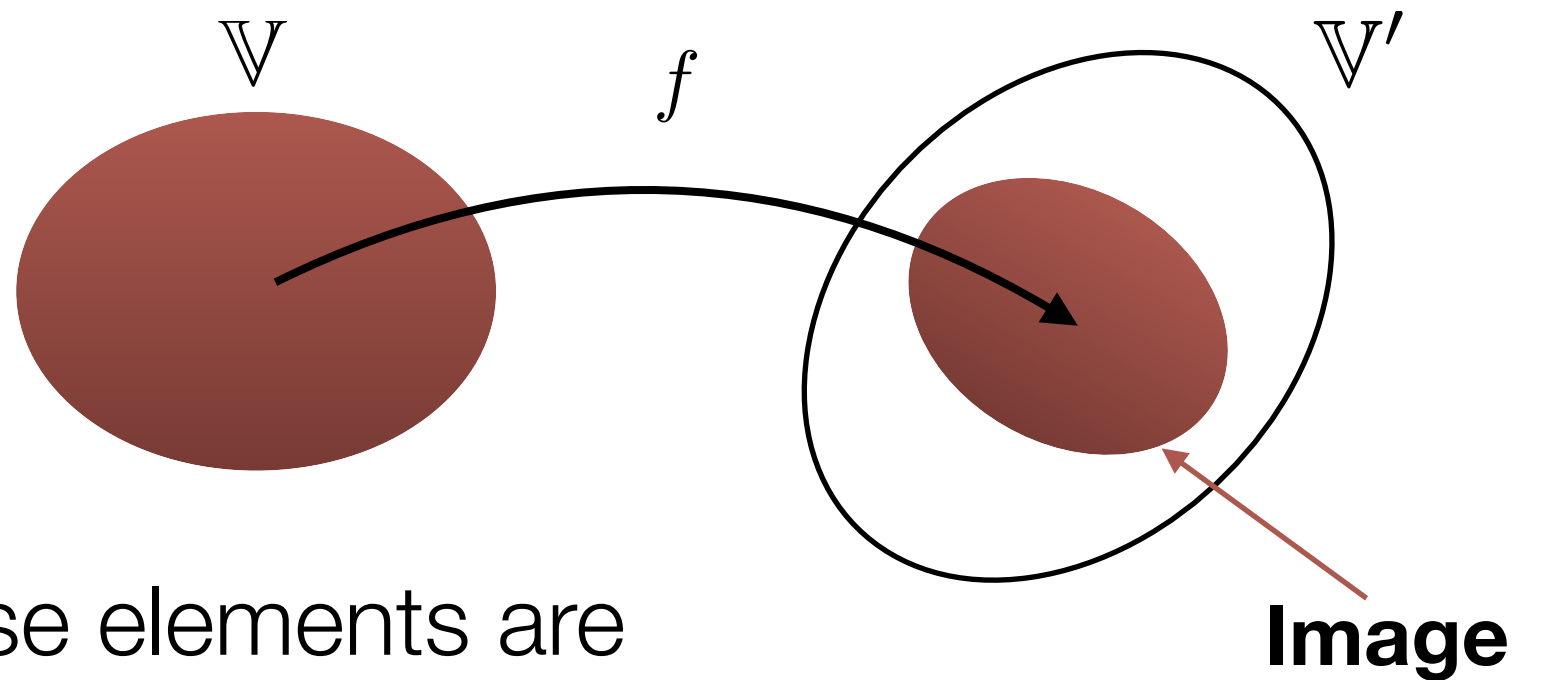
Matrix element: $H_{\alpha,\beta;\alpha',\beta'} \equiv \langle \alpha\beta | \mathcal{H} | \alpha'\beta' \rangle$
(行列要素)

* In this notation, **basis should be orthonormal.**

Image of a map

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

Image of f :
(像)



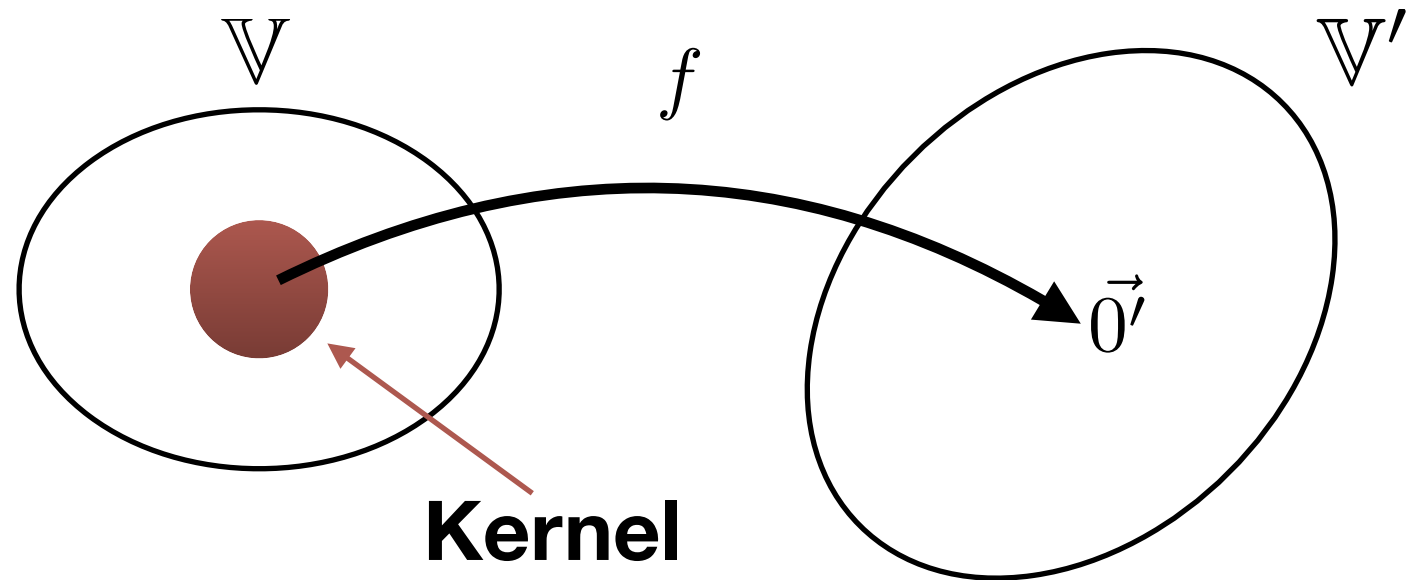
Vector subspace whose elements are mapped from \mathbb{V} by f .

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

Kernel of a map

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

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:

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

Rank of matrix

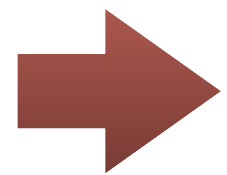
Rank (ランク or 階数) of a matrix A :

$$\text{rank}(A) \equiv \dim(\text{img}(A))$$

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



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

for a $N \times M$ matrix A .

A_{11}	A_{12}	\cdots	$A_{1,N}$
A_{21}	A_{22}	\cdots	$A_{2,N}$
\vdots	\vdots		\vdots
\vdots	\vdots		\vdots
A_{M1}	A_{M2}	\cdots	$A_{M,N}$

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 $\longleftrightarrow \text{rank}(A) = N$

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

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

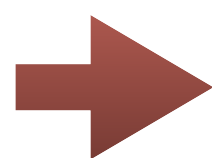
If A is a **square matrix** ($N=M$), and it **has a inverse matrix** ($\text{rank}(A) = N$), we can solve the equation as

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

$N > M$: 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 problems and diagonalization

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.

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

Diagonalization

Diagonalization (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.

**necessary
and
sufficient**

$$\alpha_i = \lambda_i$$

$$P = (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_N)$$

$$(P^{-1})^t = (\vec{u}_1^*, \vec{u}_2^*, \dots, \vec{u}_N^*)$$

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

Meaning of diagonalization

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

It is a transform of the basis:

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

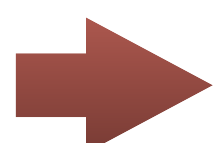
Diagonalization:

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

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

* The determinant of A is invariant under this transformation:

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

 $\det(A) = \prod_i^N \lambda_i$ (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:

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

it is an 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

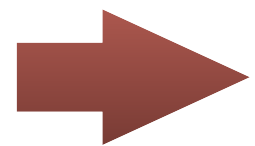
$$\|U\vec{v}\| = \|\vec{v}\|$$

- "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

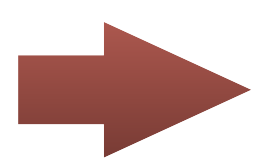
$$U^\dagger A U = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_N \end{pmatrix} \quad \lambda_i \in \mathbb{C}$$

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) : $A^t = A$, $(A_{ij} \in \mathbb{R})$



It is a special **normal matrix**. $A^\dagger A = AA^\dagger = AA$

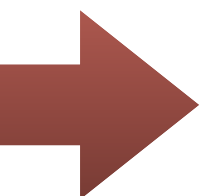
Its eigenvalues are **real**.

We can **always diagonalize it** by a unitary matrix

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

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**
(特異値分解) is an generalization of the diagonalization.

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

Singular value decomposition

Diagonalization

Diagonalization (対角化) :

$$A : N \times N \quad P^{-1}AP = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_N \end{pmatrix}$$

(Square matrix)

$$A\vec{v} = \lambda\vec{v} \qquad P = (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_N)$$
$$(\vec{u}^*)^t A = \lambda(\vec{u}^*)^t \qquad (P^{-1})^t = (\vec{u}_1^*, \vec{u}_2^*, \dots, \vec{u}_N^*)$$

- 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 ,)

Spectral decomposition (スペクトル分解)

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

Note:

$$\vec{u}_i \vec{u}_i^\dagger = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 u_1^* & u_1 u_2^* & \cdots & u_1 u_N^* \\ u_2 u_1^* & u_2 u_2^* & \cdots & u_2 u_N^* \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ u_N u_1^* & u_N u_2^* & \cdots & u_N u_N^* \end{pmatrix}$$

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

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

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)

$$A : M \times N$$

$$A_{ij} \in \mathbf{C}$$

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

$$U : M \times M$$

Unitary

$$V : N \times N$$

Unitary

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

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

Diagonal matrix with
non-negative real elements

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

Singular values

Properties of SVD 1

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.

$$(A^\dagger A)^\dagger = A^\dagger A \longrightarrow$$

It can be diagonalized by
a **unitary matrix** V .

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

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

\vec{v}_i : eigenvector

* $A^\dagger A$ is a **positive semi-definite** matrix.
(半正定値、準正定値)

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

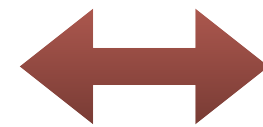
Its eigenvalues are
non-negative

$$\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_N \geq 0$$

Properties of SVD 1

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

$$V^\dagger (A^\dagger A) V = \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_N\}$$
$$V = (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_N)$$



$$(A\vec{v}_i)^* \cdot (A\vec{v}_j) = \lambda_i \delta_{ij}$$
$$(\|A\vec{v}_i\|^2 = \lambda_i)$$

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

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

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

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

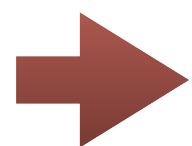
$$\vec{u}_i^* \cdot (A\vec{v}_j) = \sigma_i \delta_{ij} \quad (i = 1, \dots, M; j = 1, \dots, N)$$

(For simplicity, we set $\sigma_i = 0$ for $i > r$.)

Properties of SVD 1

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

We can perform same "proof" by using AA^\dagger .



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

$$U^\dagger(AA^\dagger)U = \text{diag}\{\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_r, \underbrace{0, \dots, 0}_{M-r}\}$$

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.

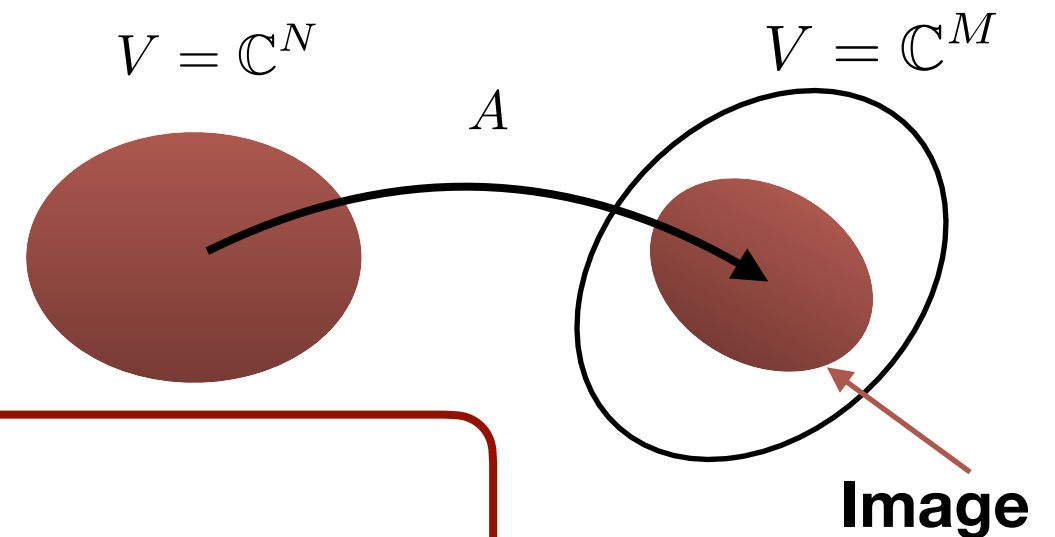
Properties of SVD 2

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

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

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

$$\text{rank}(A) \equiv \dim(\text{img}(A))$$



Remember

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

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

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

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

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

$$\longrightarrow \dim(\text{img}(A)) = r = \# \text{ of positive singular values}$$

Properties of SVD 3

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

3. Singular vectors

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

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

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

\vec{v}_i : right singular vector

\vec{u}_i : left singular vector

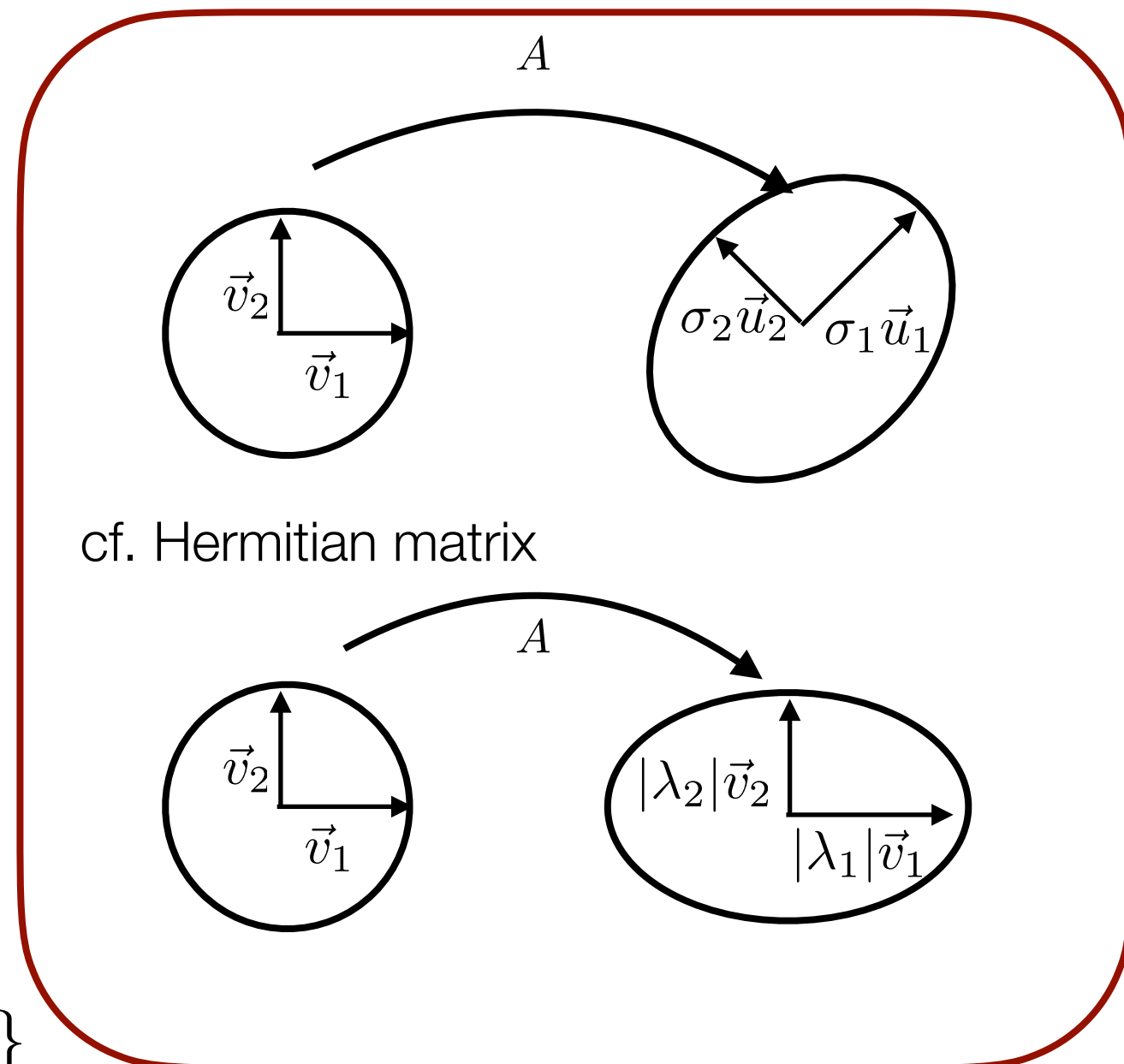
Relation to image and kernel:

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

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

$$\text{img}(A^\dagger) = \text{Span}\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_r\}$$

$$\text{ker}(A^\dagger) = \text{Span}\{\vec{u}_{r+1}, \vec{u}_{r+2}, \dots, \vec{u}_M\}$$



Properties of SVD 4 (optional)

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

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

$A : N \times N$, Hermitian matrix

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

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

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

Orthonormal complement (直交補空間)

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

Intuitive examples:

Maximum appears for the eigenvector.

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda_2 &= \max_{\vec{x} \in \mathbf{C}^N; \vec{x} \perp \vec{u}_1, \|\vec{x}\|=1} \vec{x}^* \cdot (A\vec{x}) \\ &= \min_{\mathbf{S}; \dim(\mathbf{S}) \leq 1} \max_{\vec{x} \in \mathbf{S}^\perp; \|\vec{x}\|=1} \vec{x}^* \cdot (A\vec{x}) \end{aligned}$$

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

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

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

$$A : M \times N$$

Suppose its singular values are $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots$.

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

By setting $k=1$,

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

which means

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

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 $i > \text{rank}(A)$, we set $\sigma_i = 0$)

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

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

$$\sigma_k(AB) \leq \sigma_1(A)\sigma_k(B) \quad (k = 1, 2, \dots)$$

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

➡ $\text{rank}(AB) \leq \min(\text{rank}(A), \text{rank}(B))$

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

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

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

➡ If $\text{rank}(B) \leq r$,

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

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 vendor 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 ($M \leq N$):

Full SVD: $O(NM^2)$

Partial SVD: $O(NMk)$

k : # of singular values
to 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 $\longleftrightarrow \text{rank}(A) = N$

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

$$(1) \quad AA^+A = A \qquad (2) \quad A^+AA^+ = A^+$$

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

is called (Moore-Penrose) **pseudo inverse matrix**.

Relation to SVD

- Pseudo inverse is **unique** and **calculated from SVD**.

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

$$\begin{aligned} A^+A &= V \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{r \times r}^{-1} & 0_{r \times (M-r)} \\ 0_{(N-r) \times r} & 0_{(N-r) \times (M-r)} \end{pmatrix} U^{\dagger}U \begin{pmatrix} \Sigma_{r \times r} & 0_{r \times (N-r)} \\ 0_{(M-r) \times r} & 0_{(M-r) \times (N-r)} \end{pmatrix} V^{\dagger} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^r \vec{v}_i \vec{v}_i^{\dagger} (= \sum_{i=1}^r |v_i\rangle \langle v_i|) \end{aligned}$$

**A^+A is a projector onto $\text{img}(A^{\dagger})$.
(AA^+ is a projector onto $\text{img}(A)$.)**

Simultaneous linear equation

Simultaneous linear equation (連立一次方程式)

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

$\vec{b} : \bullet$

Two situations:

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

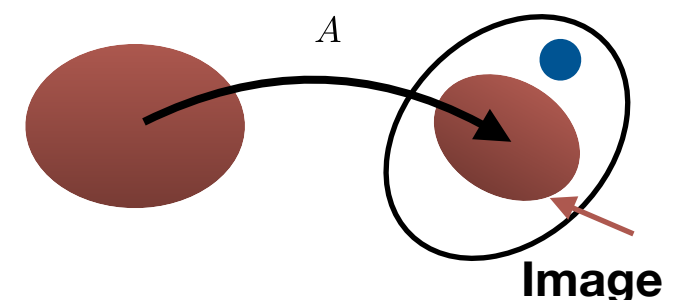
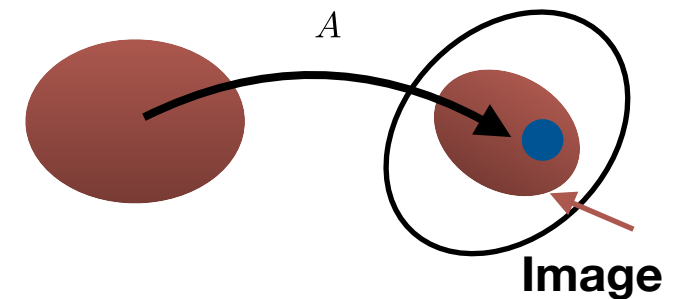
(i) There is the unique solution.

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

(ii) There are **infinite** solutions (**underdetermined**).

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

(2) There is no solution. $\longleftrightarrow \vec{b} \notin \text{img}(A)$
(**overdetermined**)



Pseudo inverse and simultaneous linear equation

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

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

- A vector defined by the pseudo inverse as

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

is **one of the solutions**.

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

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

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

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

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

The pseudo inverse gives us the **smallest norm solution.**

Pseudo inverse and simultaneous linear equation

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

(2) There is **no solution**. $\longleftrightarrow \vec{b} \notin \text{img}(A)$

- A vector defined by the pseudo inverse as

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

minimizes the "distance" $\|\vec{b} - A\vec{x}\|$.

$$\vec{y} = A\vec{c} \in \text{img}(A), \vec{c} \in \mathbb{C}^N$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|\vec{y} - \vec{b}\|^2 &= \underbrace{\|\vec{y} - AA^+\vec{b}\|}_{\substack{\cup \\ \text{img}(A)}}^2 + \underbrace{\|(I - AA^+)\vec{b}\|}_{\substack{\cup \\ \text{img}(A)^\perp}}^2 \\ &= \|\vec{y} - AA^+\vec{b}\|^2 + \|\vec{b} - AA^+\vec{b}\|^2 \\ &\geq \|\vec{b} - AA^+\vec{b}\|^2 = \|\vec{b} - A\vec{x}'\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

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

Example of Least square solution problem

Fitting of a line to data points

$$y = ax + b$$

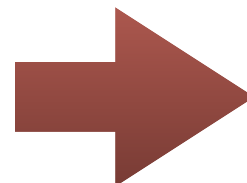
Data points:

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

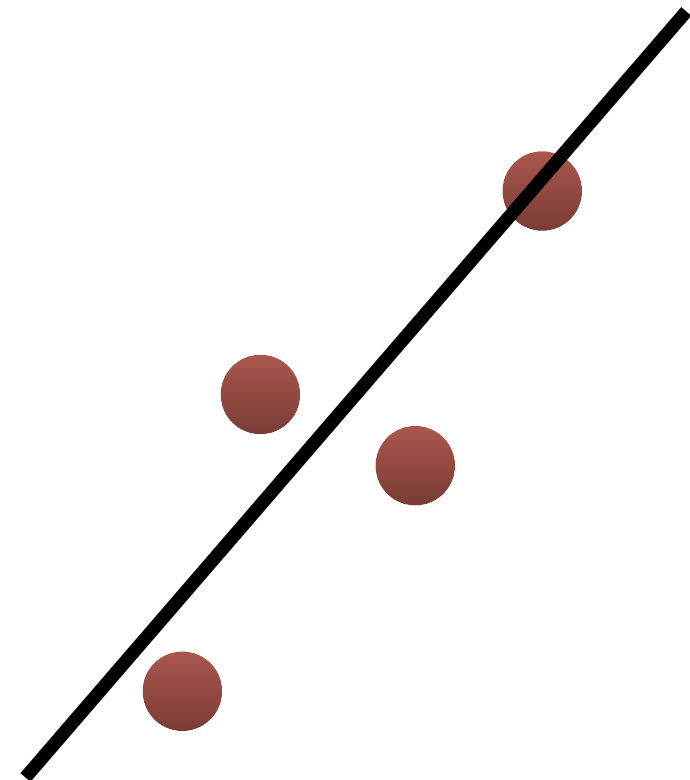
$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & 1 \\ x_3 & 1 \\ x_4 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \\ y_4 \end{pmatrix}$$

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

Least square fitting (最小二乘法)



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



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