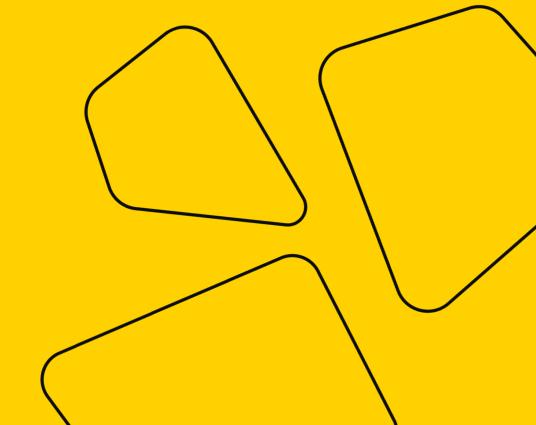


Math Refresher for DS

Lecture 4



Last Time

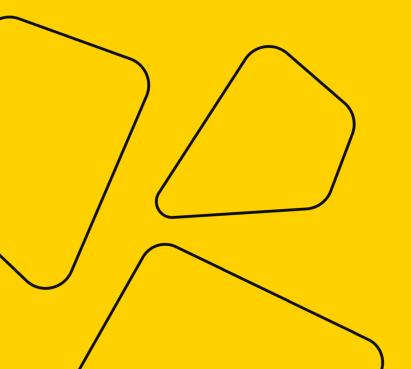


- More on matrices
 - Rank
 - Determinant
 - Row / Column space
- Solving SLE



Today

- Matrix decompositions
- Eigenvalues & eigenvectors



Matrix Decomposition

Factorization

$$21 = 3 \times 7$$



Matrix Decomposition

Factorization

$$21 = 3 \times 7$$

• Matrix factorization: represent a matrix as a product of matrices with specific properties.



LU-Decomposition



LU Decomposition

- $A n \times n$ matrix.
- Represent A as a product of two matrices:

$$A = LU$$
, where

$$L = \begin{pmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ l_{n1} & l_{n2} & \cdots & l_{nn} \end{pmatrix}, \qquad U = \begin{pmatrix} u_{11} & u_{12} & \cdots & u_{1n} \\ 0 & u_{22} & \cdots & u_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & u_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$



Reminder: Gaussian Elimination

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 & -1 \\ 6 & -6 & 7 \\ 3 & -4 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Elementary row operations:

an upper triangular matrix.

Key idea: elementary row operations can be represented as matrix operations!



Elementary Matrices

- Elementary row operations can be represented as matrix operations.
- We'll use elementary matrices like

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Elementary Matrices

- Elementary row operations can be represented as matrix operations.
- We'll use elementary matrices like

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

• Let's take a close look at our Gaussian elimination example.



$$(2)' = (2) + 2 \cdot (1)$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 & -1 \\ 6 & -6 & 7 \\ 3 & -4 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 5 \\ 3 & -4 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$M_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 & -1 \\ 6 & -2 & 5 \\ 3 & -4 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = M_1 A$$



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$$(2)' = (2) + 2 \cdot (1) \qquad (3)' = (3) + (1)$$

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$$M_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 5 \\ 0 & -2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = M_2 M_1 A$$



$$(2)' = (2) + 2 \cdot (1) \qquad (3)' = (3) + (1)$$

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$$(2)' = (2) + 2 \cdot (1)$$

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$$M_3 = \begin{pmatrix} -3 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -2 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix} = M_3 M_2 M_1 A$$



$$(2)' = (2) + 2 \cdot (1) \qquad (3)' = (3) + (1) \qquad (3)' = (3) - (2)$$

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$$M_3M_2M_1A = U$$



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$$M_3 M_2 M_1 A = U \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{A} = (M_3 M_2 M_1)^{-1} U$$



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• Solving SLE with different bs:



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$$Ax = b \iff (LU)x = b$$



Solving SLE with different bs:

$$Ax = b \Leftrightarrow (LU)x = b$$

Let $Ux = y$. Then



Solving SLE with different bs:

$$Ax = b \Leftrightarrow (LU)x = b$$

Let $Ux = y$. Then

(1)
$$Ly = b \iff$$

$$\rightarrow y^*$$

(2)
$$Ux = y^* \Leftrightarrow$$

$$\rightarrow x^*$$
 - solution to the original system.



Solving SLE with different bs:

$$Ax = b \Leftrightarrow (LU)x = b$$
Let $Ux = y$. Then
$$l_{11}y_1 = b_1$$

$$l_{21}y_1 + l_{22}y_2 = b_2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$l_{n1}y_1 + l_{n2}y_2 + \dots + l_{nn}y_n = b_n$$

(2)
$$Ux = y^* \Leftrightarrow$$

 $\rightarrow x^*$ – solution to the original system.



Solving SLE with different bs:

$$Ax = b \Leftrightarrow (LU)x = b$$
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$$l_{11}y_1 = b_1$$

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$$\vdots$$

$$l_{n1}y_1 + l_{n2}y_2 + \dots + l_{nn}y_n = b_n$$

$$u_{11}x_1+u_{12}x_2+\cdots+u_{1n}x_n=y_1^*$$
 (2) $Ux=y^*\Leftrightarrow u_{22}x_2+\cdots+u_{1n}x_n=y_2^*$
$$\vdots \\ u_{nn}x_n=y_n^*$$
 $\to x^*-\text{solution to the original system}.$



Eigenvalues Eigenvectors

- Matrix A = some linear transformation.
- A changes vectors in V:

$$Ax = x'$$



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$$Ax = x'$$

• For some vector $v \neq 0$ it might happen so that

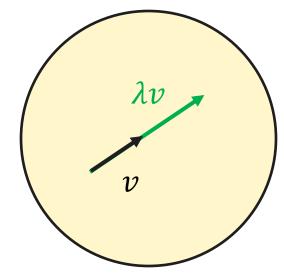
 $Av = \lambda v$, λ – some number.



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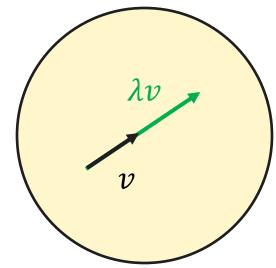
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- Matrix A = some linear transformation.
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$$Av = \lambda v$$
, λ – some number.

 λ – eigenvalue, v – corresponding eigenvector

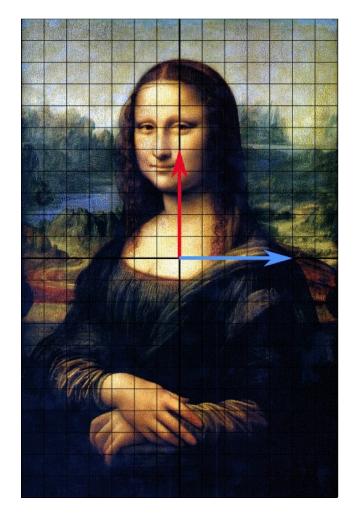


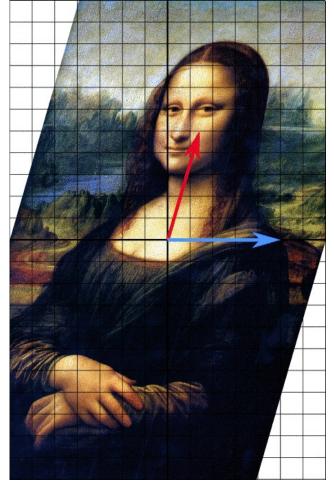
Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

eigenvector = a vector that stays on its line after applying A and only gets stretched by λ .



Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues









Consider rotation in 3D.

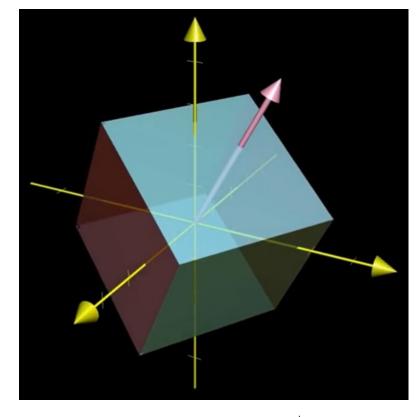


Image source: http://andrewmacthoughts.blogspot.com/2019/
05/visualizing-linear-algebra-eigenvectors.html



- Consider rotation in 3D.
- Eigenvector = axis of the rotation.

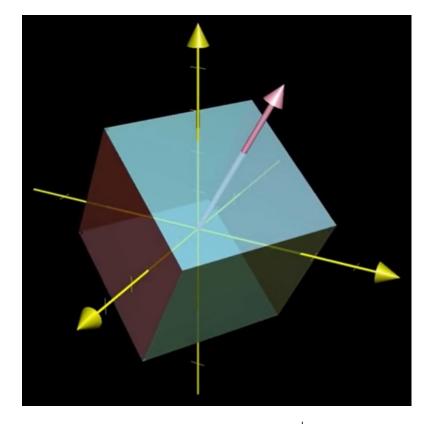


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- Consider rotation in 3D.
- Eigenvector = axis of the rotation.
- Corresponding eigenvalue is 1 (rotation doesn't change lengths)

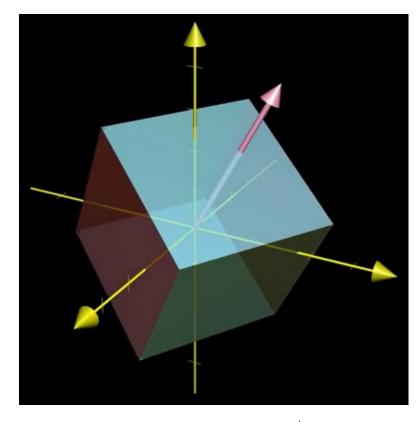


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• Consider a transformation $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.



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- Basis vector $e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector with $\lambda_1 = 3$ (see first column of A).



- Consider a transformation $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.
- Basis vector $e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is an eigenvector with $\lambda_1 = 3$ (see first column of A).
- Vector $v = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is also an eigenvector! Indeed:

$$Av = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \lambda_2 = 2.$$



• Let v be an eigenvector of A with the corresponding eigenvalue λ .



- Let v be an eigenvector of A with the corresponding eigenvalue λ .
- Note that $\forall \alpha \neq 0$, $\alpha \in R$ vector (αv) is also an eigenvector of A.



- Let v be an eigenvector of A with the corresponding eigenvalue λ .
- Note that $\forall \alpha \neq 0$, $\alpha \in R$ vector (αv) is also an eigenvector of A. Indeed,

$$A(\alpha v) = \alpha(Av) = \alpha \lambda v = \lambda(\alpha v)$$



- If v is an eigenvector, αv as well.
- Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ – eigenvector with $\lambda = 3$.



- If v is an eigenvector, αv as well.
- Example:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $e_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ – eigenvector with $\lambda = 3$.

$$e'_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
 as well! Indeed: $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 30 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 3 \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$



Finding Eigenvalues Eigenvectors

• If v is an eigenvector with the corresponding eigenvalue λ , then

$$Av = \lambda v$$



• If v is an eigenvector with the corresponding eigenvalue λ , then

$$Av = \lambda v$$

$$Av - \lambda v = 0$$

• If v is an eigenvector with the corresponding eigenvalue λ , then

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$$(A - \lambda E)v = 0$$



• If v is an eigenvector with the corresponding eigenvalue λ , then

$$Av = \lambda v$$

$$Av - \lambda v = 0$$

$$(A - \lambda E)v = 0$$

Since $v \neq 0$, this is only possible if and only if

$$\det(A - \lambda E) = 0$$



• $v \neq 0$ is an eigenvector with the corresponding eigenvalue $\lambda \Leftrightarrow$

$$\det(A - \lambda E) = 0 -$$
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$$\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k\}$$
 – spectrum of A .

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Characteristic polynomial:

$$\det(A - \lambda E) = \begin{vmatrix} 3 - \lambda & 1 \\ 0 & 2 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (3 - \lambda)(2 - \lambda) = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 = 3$$
, $\lambda_2 = 2$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \lambda_1 = 3, \qquad \lambda_2 = 2$$
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$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \lambda_1 = 3, \qquad \lambda_2 = 2$$
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$$\begin{bmatrix} 3-2 & 1 \\ 0 & 2-2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



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$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 3$$
, $v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\dim E_{\lambda_1} = 1$

$$\lambda_2 = 2$$
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$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\lambda_{1,2} = \lambda = 1$$



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$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda = 1$$
, $v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\dim E_{\lambda} = 2$



$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Characteristic polynomial:

$$\det(A - \lambda E) = \begin{vmatrix} -\lambda & 1 \\ 0 & -\lambda \end{vmatrix} = \lambda^2 = 0$$

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Algebraic multiplicity = 2

$$E_{\lambda} = \{ v \in V \mid Av = \lambda v \} = span\{v_1\}, \quad \dim E_{\lambda} = 1$$

Geometric multiplicity = 1

λ – degenerate eigenvalue



• $A - n \times n$ matrix, $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k$ - eigenvalues.

$$o$$
 det $A = \lambda_1 \cdot ... \cdot \lambda_k$



• $A - n \times n$ matrix, $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k$ - eigenvalues.

$$det A = \lambda_1 \cdot ... \cdot \lambda_k$$

$$tr A = a_{11} + a_{22} + \dots + a_{nn} = \lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_k$$



• $A - n \times n$ matrix, $\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_k$ - eigenvalues.

(1). A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow \lambda_i \neq 0, i = 1, ... k$:

Indeed, A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow 0 \neq \det A = \lambda_1 \cdot ... \cdot \lambda_k$



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Indeed, A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow 0 \neq \det A = \lambda_1 \cdot ... \cdot \lambda_k$

(2). A^{-1} has eigenvalues $\frac{1}{\lambda_1}, \dots, \frac{1}{\lambda_k}$.

(Eigenvectors of A and A^{-1} are the same:

$$Av_i = \lambda_i v_i \iff v_i = \lambda_i A^{-1} v_i \iff \frac{1}{\lambda_i} v_i = A^{-1} v_i$$





Eigenbasis

• $A - n \times n$ matrix.

• Suppose that A has n linearly independent eigenvectors v_1, \dots, v_n .

$$\{v_1, ..., v_n\}$$
 – eigenbasis.



• $A-n\times n$ matrix, v_1,\ldots,v_n - linearly independent eigenvectors, $\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_n$ - corresponding eigenvalues.



- $A-n\times n$ matrix, v_1,\ldots,v_n linearly independent eigenvectors, $\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_n$ corresponding eigenvalues.
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$$= \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = \Lambda - \text{a diagonal matrix}.$$



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 $[A]_V = \Lambda -$ a diagonal matrix with $d_{ii} = \lambda_i$

 $A = V\Lambda V^{-1}$ – eigendecomposition of A.



Matrix Diagonalization



Diagonalizable Matrix

- $A n \times n$ matrix
- $v_1, ..., v_n$ linearly independent eigenvectors
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Diagonalization of A: $\Lambda = V^{-1}AV$



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$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$



Diagonalizable Matrix

- But now all matrices have n linearly independent eigenvectors.
- Example (see beginning of the lecture):

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \lambda_{1,2} = \lambda = 0, \qquad v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



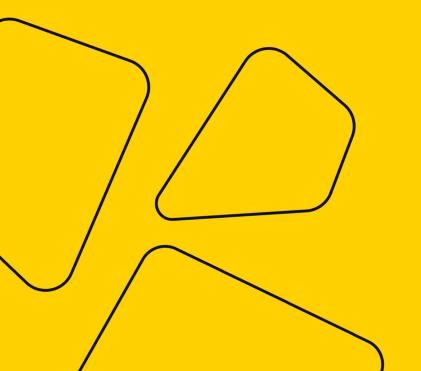
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So, when is a matrix diagonalizable?

The Spectral Theorem



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 - 2. A has n linearly independent eigenvectors $v_1, ..., v_n$;
 - $v_1, ..., v_n$ are orthogonal (we can chose orthonormal).



Orthogonal Matrices

• $A - n \times n$ matrix

• A is orthogonal if its columns are mutually orthonormal:

$$A^T A = A A^T = E$$



Orthogonal Matrices

- Suppose that A is orthogonal.
- Orthogonal vectors are linearly independent → A is a full rank matrix. So, A has an inverse!

A is orthogonal
$$\Leftrightarrow$$

$$A^{T}A = AA^{T} = E \Leftrightarrow$$

$$A^{-1} = A^{T}$$



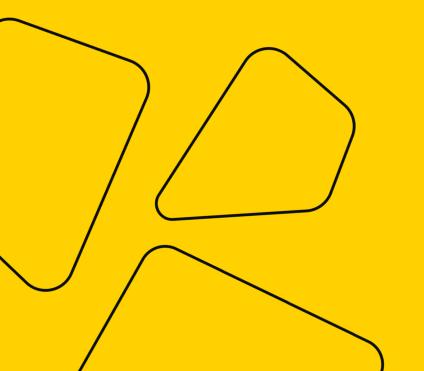
The Spectral Theorem

In other words, if *A* is a real symmetric matrix, *A* is **orthogonally diagonalizable**:

$$\Lambda = V^{-1}AV = V^TAV$$

where Λ is a diagonal matrix and V is an orthogonal matrix.





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$$\Lambda^n = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^n & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2^n & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_m^n \end{bmatrix}$$



Principle Component Analysis

• Principle Component Analysis (PCA) - a powerful statistical tool for analyzing data based on eigendecomposition.



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- Suppose you have a dataset with n observations and m features:

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- Suppose that this subspace has an orthonormal basis $B = [b^1 \mid ... \mid b^p]$. Then

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- Suppose that this subspace has an orthonormal basis $B = [b^1 \mid ... \mid b^p]$. Then

$$X_{proj} = B^T X$$

How to find B?

Turns out we should project on the p eigenvectors of the data covariance matrix that correspond to p largest eigenvalues!



- (*Probability Theory*) Covariance between two random variables = measure of the joint variability.
- We have a dataset X:

$$\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x^1} \mid ... \mid \mathbf{x^n}], \quad \mathbf{x^j} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1j} \\ x_{2j} \\ \vdots \\ x_{mj} \end{bmatrix}$$
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(Statistics) Sample covariance matrix: $S = \frac{1}{n-1}XX^T$

 s_{ij} , $i \neq j$ – sample covariance between features i and j, s_{ii} - sample variance of feature i.



should center it first.

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$$\frac{1}{n-1}XX^T = S = V\Lambda V^{-1} = V\Lambda V^T$$

 $V = [v_1 \mid ... \mid v_m]$ - eigenvectors of S, Λ - diagonal matrix with λ_i .



• Let's order eigenvalues and eigenvectors so that $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_m$.

$$S = V\Lambda V^{-1} = V\Lambda V^{T}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S_{11}} & S_{12} & \cdots & S_{1m} \\ S_{21} & \mathbf{S_{22}} & \cdots & S_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ S_{n1} & S_{n2} & \cdots & \mathbf{S_{mm}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} & \cdots & v_{1m} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} & \cdots & v_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ v_{n1} & v_{n2} & \cdots & v_{mm} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\lambda_1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \boldsymbol{\lambda_2} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \boldsymbol{\lambda_m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} & \cdots & v_{1m} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} & \cdots & v_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ v_{n1} & v_{n2} & \cdots & v_{mm} \end{bmatrix}^T$$



• Let's order eigenvalues and eigenvectors so that $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_m$.

$$S = V\Lambda V^{-1} = V\Lambda V^{T}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{S_{11}} & S_{12} & \cdots & S_{1m} \\ S_{21} & \mathbf{S_{22}} & \cdots & S_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ S_{n1} & S_{n2} & \cdots & \mathbf{S_{mm}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} & \cdots & v_{1m} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} & \cdots & v_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ v_{n1} & v_{n2} & \cdots & v_{mm} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\lambda_1} & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \boldsymbol{\lambda_2} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \boldsymbol{\lambda_m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_{11} & v_{12} & \cdots & v_{1m} \\ v_{21} & v_{22} & \cdots & v_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ v_{n1} & v_{n2} & \cdots & v_{mm} \end{bmatrix}^T$$

Total variance of the data $T = tr(S) = s_{11} + \cdots + s_{nn}$



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Orthogonal eigenvectors $v_1, ..., v_n$ – principal components of the data



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Orthogonal eigenvectors $v_1, ..., v_n$ – principal components of the data

Direction of v_i describes λ_i out of the total variance T.



To Sum Up

- Eigenvalues and eigenvectors
- Matrix factorization
 - LU
 - Eigendecomposition
 - Diagonalization

