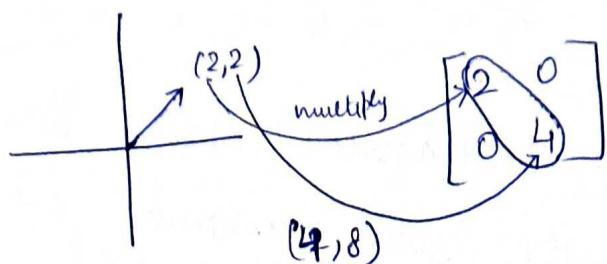


## Some Special Matrices

(11)

1. Diagonal Matrix: A diagonal Matrix where the entries outside the main diagonal are all zero; the main diagonal is from the top left to the bottom right of the square matrix.
  - a. Powers: The  $n$ th power of a diagonal matrix (where  $n$  is a non-negative integer) can be obtained by raising each diagonal element to the power of  $n$ .
  - b. Eigenvalues: The eigenvalues of a diagonal matrix are just the value on the diagonal. The corresponding <sup>eigen</sup> vectors are the standard basis vectors.
  - c. Multiplication by a vector: When a diagonal matrix multiplies a vector, it scales each component of the vector by the corresponding element on the diagonal.
  - d. Matrix Multiplication: The product of two diagonal matrices is just the diagonal matrix with the corresponding elements on the diagonals multiplied.



$$\text{d} \quad \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} c & 0 \\ 0 & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} ac & 0 \\ 0 & bd \end{bmatrix}$$

## 2. Orthogonal Matrix

An orthogonal matrix is a square matrix whose columns and rows are orthogonal unit vectors (i.e., orthonormal vectors), meaning that they are all of unit length and are at right angles to each other.

Perfect rotation, no scaling or shearing

a. Inverse Equals Transpose: The transpose of an orthogonal matrix equals its inverse i.e.  $A^T = A^{-1}$ . This property makes calculation with orthogonal matrices computationally efficient.

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

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Orthogonal}} \begin{array}{l} ab + cd = 0 \\ a^2 + c^2 = 1 \\ b^2 + d^2 = 1 \end{array}$$

$$ab + cd = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\sqrt{a^2 + c^2} = 1 \quad \sqrt{b^2 + d^2} = 1$$

$\hookrightarrow$  Orthogonal  $\rightarrow \theta$

$0 \rightarrow 30^\circ$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \times \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \times \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} = 0$$

$$\sqrt{\left(\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{4} + \frac{1}{4}} = \sqrt{\frac{4}{4}} = 1$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \text{also orthogonal.}$$

Identity  
Matrix

### 3. Symmetric Matrix

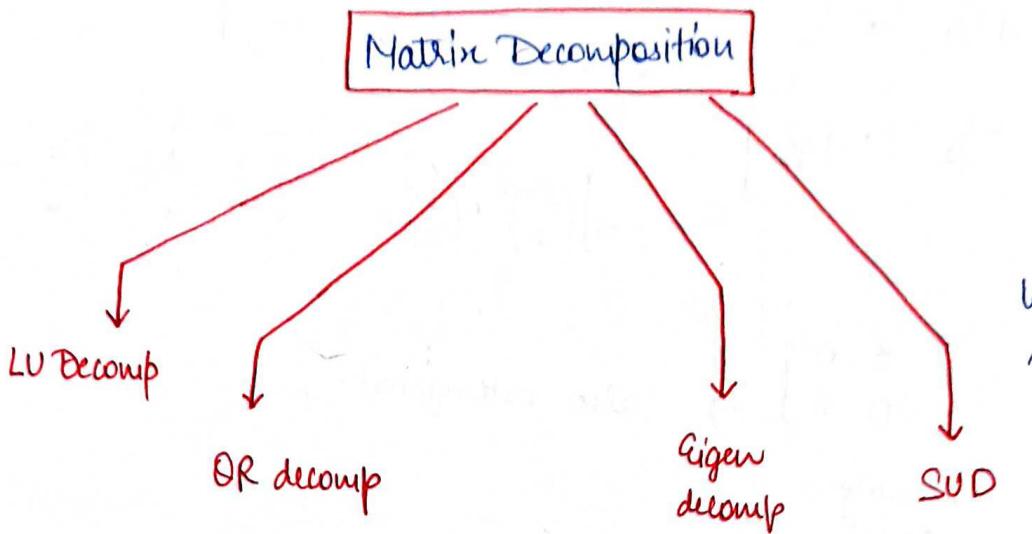
A symmetric matrix is a type of square matrix that is equal to its own transpose. In other words, if you swap its rows with columns, you get the same matrix.

- a. Real Eigenvalue: The eigenvalues of a real symmetric matrix are always, real, not complex.
- b. Orthogonal Eigenvectors: for a real symmetric matrix, the eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are always always orthogonal to each other. If one eigenvalues are

$$A = A^T$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ c & b \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Transpose}} \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ c & b \end{bmatrix}$$

# Matrix Decomposition

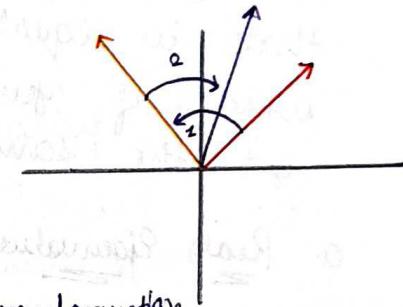


Matrix Decomposition → before study (Matrix Composition)

## Matrix Composition

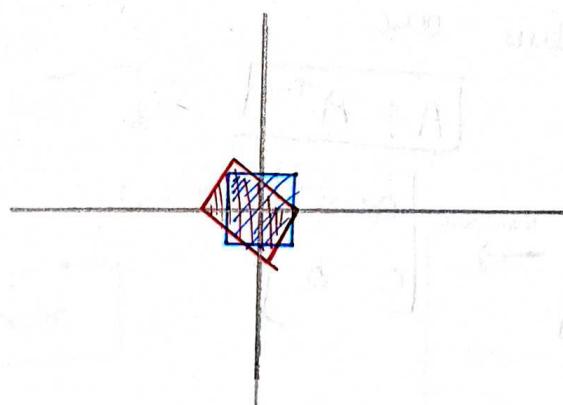
$$(a) \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \quad (b) \begin{bmatrix} e & f \\ g & h \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} k & l \\ m & n \end{bmatrix}$$

$\uparrow L \quad \leftarrow R$

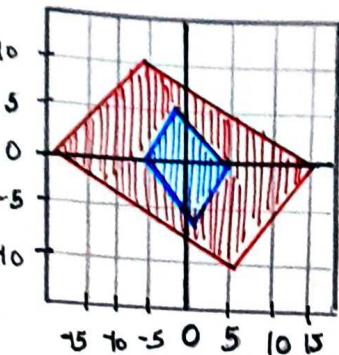


When we perform transformation  
on this then result is  
equal to the result of putting  
transformation b and then a

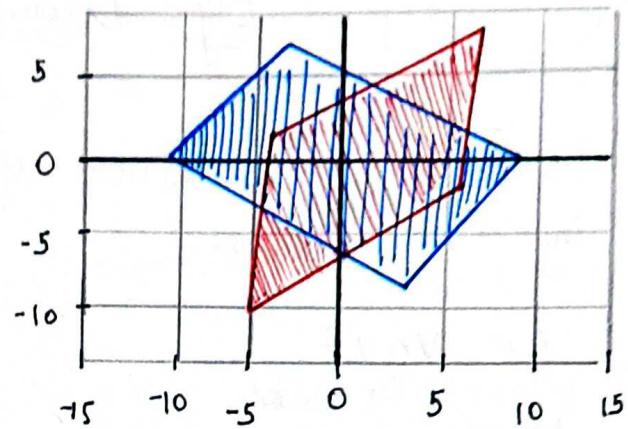
3 matrices  $\rightarrow$   
 $A \xleftarrow{L} B \xleftarrow{R} C$



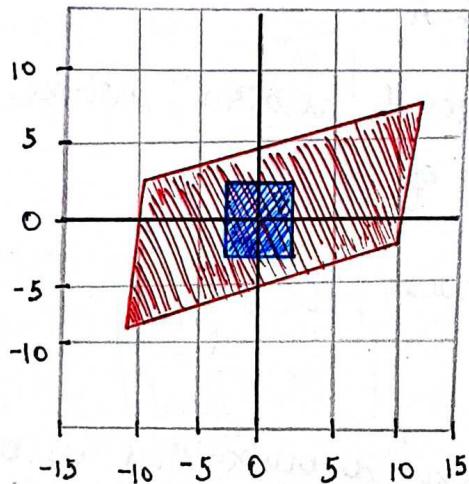
Transform #1 (C)



Transformation #2

 $C \rightarrow B$ 

Transformation #3

 $B \rightarrow A$ 

Combined Transformation

$A \begin{smallmatrix} / \\ \backslash \end{smallmatrix} B \begin{smallmatrix} / \\ \backslash \end{smallmatrix} C = D \rightarrow$  Composition  
combine and make  $D$

$D = A \begin{smallmatrix} / \\ \backslash \end{smallmatrix} B \begin{smallmatrix} / \\ \backslash \end{smallmatrix} C \rightarrow$  Decomposition

↳ convert into single individual

## Eigen Decomposition

The eigen decomposition of a matrix  $A$  is given by the equation:

$$A = V \Lambda V^{-1}$$

where:

•  $V$  is a matrix whose columns are the

eigen vectors of  $A$

•  $\Lambda$  is a diagonal matrix whose entries are the eigenvalues of  $A$

•  $V^{-1}$  is the inverse of  $V$

Assuming

1. Square matrix: Eigen decomposition is only defined for square matrices

2. Diagonalizability: For a  $n \times n$  matrix it should have  $n$  linearly independent eigen vectors.

$$A = V \Lambda V^{-1}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Eigen values}} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \lambda_2 \\ \text{Eigen values} \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Eigen vectors}} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Eigen Vectors

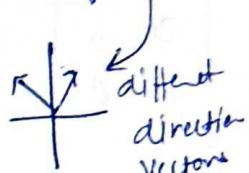
$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$$

↑                      ↑                      ↓

decomposition

Diagonalizability  $\rightarrow$   $n \times n$   $\rightarrow$   $n$  linearly independent eigen vectors

↓  
(2x2)                      ↓  
                    (2)



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

↓

for 2 EigenValue

→

$$A\vec{v}_1 = \lambda\vec{v}_1$$

$$A\vec{v}_2 = \lambda\vec{v}_2$$

Matrix form

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \vec{v}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

↓

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$V = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} A\vec{v}_1 &= \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 \\ A\vec{v}_2 &= \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 \end{aligned} \quad \xrightarrow{\text{Matrix form}} \quad \boxed{AV = V\Lambda}$$

Proof

$$A\vec{v}_1 = \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_1 \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$2 \times 2 \quad 2 \times 1$

$$\begin{bmatrix} ax_1 & bx_1 \\ cx_1 & dx_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 x_1 \\ \lambda_1 y_1 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{aligned} ax_1 + bx_1 &= \lambda_1 x_1 \\ cx_1 + dy_1 &= \lambda_1 y_1 \end{aligned}$$

$$A\vec{v}_2 = \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2$$

follow  
same steps above

$$\begin{aligned} ax_2 + bx_2 &= \lambda_2 x_2 \\ cx_2 + dy_2 &= \lambda_2 y_2 \end{aligned}$$

$$AV = V\Lambda \rightarrow \text{matrix form}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 \\ y_1 & y_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} ax_1 + by_1 \\ cx_1 + dy_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} ax_2 + by_2 \\ cx_2 + dy_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 x_1 \\ \lambda_1 y_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_2 x_2 \\ \lambda_2 y_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$ax_1 + by_1 = \lambda_1 x_1$$

$$cx_1 + dy_1 = \lambda_1 y_1$$

$$ax_2 + by_2 = \lambda_2 x_2$$

$$cx_2 + dy_2 = \lambda_2 y_2$$

Hence Proved

$$\begin{bmatrix} A\vec{v}_1 = \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 \\ A\vec{v}_2 = \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{Matrix form}} \boxed{AV = V\Lambda}$$

(15)

$$A \vec{v}_1 = \lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 \rightarrow AV = V\Lambda$$

$$A \vec{v}_2 = \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2$$

Multiply both side ( $V^{-1}$ )

$A = V\Lambda V^{-1}$

eigen vectors  
 eigen values

eigen decomposition

## Eigen Decomposition of symmetric Matrix

$$A \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ c & b \end{bmatrix} \text{ (symmetric)}$$

$A = V\Lambda V^{-1}$

spectral  
decomposition

eigen  
vector

$V \rightarrow \text{orthogonal}$

$\Lambda \rightarrow \text{diagonal}$

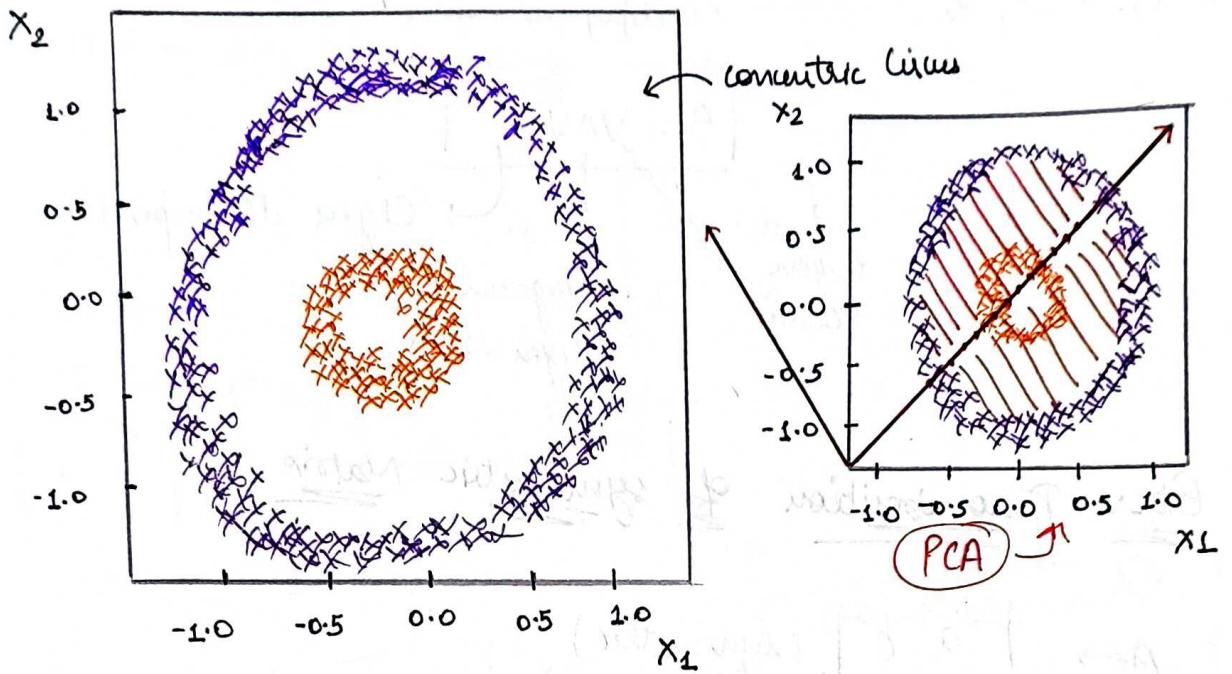
$$A = V\Lambda V^{-1}$$

↗ rotate      ↗ scaling      ↗ rotate

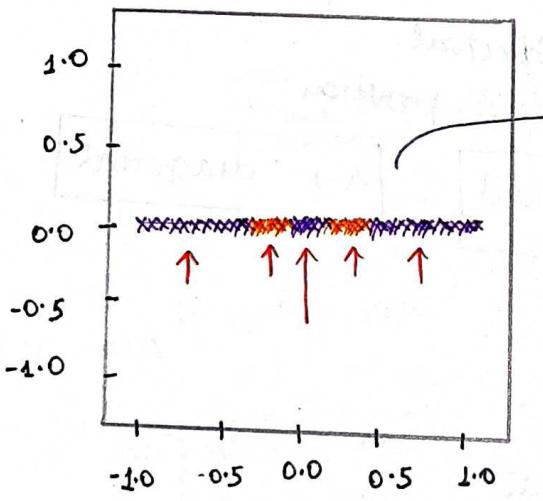
## Advantage of Eigen Decomposition

- ML  $\rightarrow$  PCA
- Physics
- Signal theory
- quantum theory

## Kernel PCA



Original Data



Data after PCA in 1D

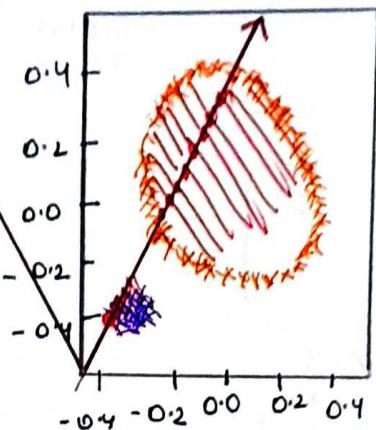
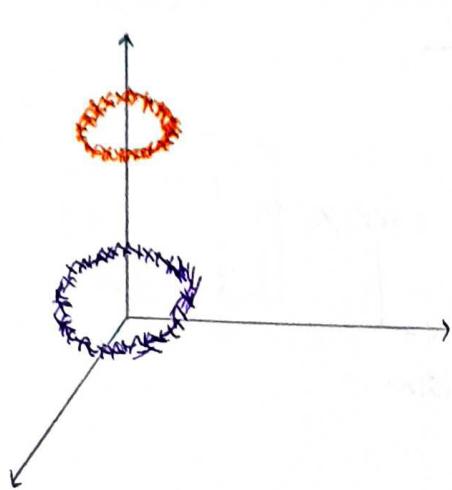
Here's not make difference  
betn two category in 1D  
and 2D data convert into  
1D data.

PCA fails

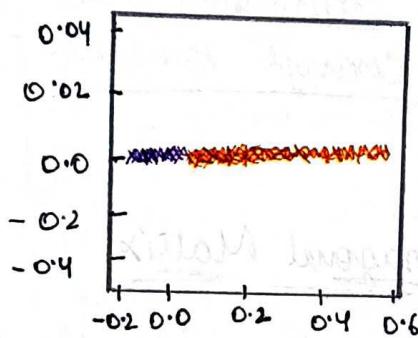
Kernel PCA use for this

Kernel → Data → higher dim → lower dim

2D → 3D → 2D → 1D



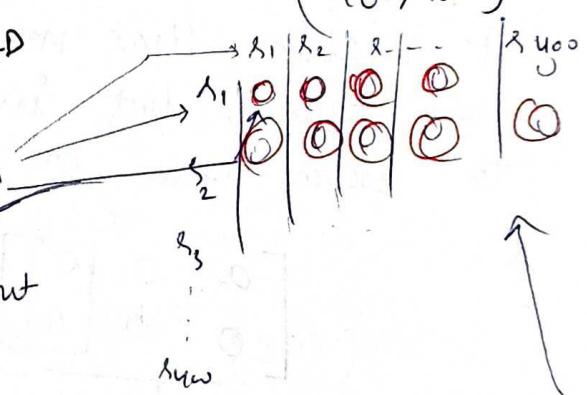
Data after kernel PCA in 2D



$$\text{Kernel} = e^{-(\gamma \alpha \cdot \beta + \gamma \beta^2)}$$

$(100, 2) \rightarrow$   
Kernel

$(400, 400)$



- \* Find the euclidean distance b/w
- \* distance square and then put in kernel

Q → if Number ↑↑ then similarity ↑↑  
if Number ↓↓ then similarity ↓↓

$[400 \times 400]$

↳ symmetric →

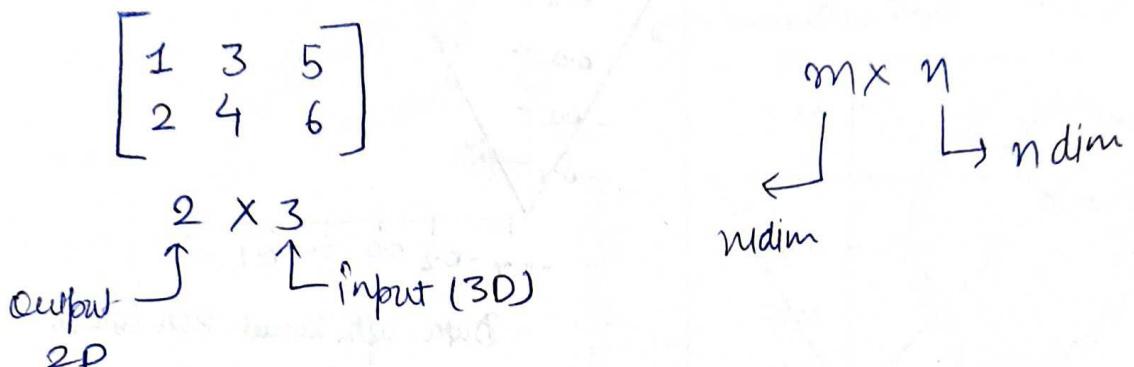
400 dim matrix →

eigen decomposition

400 eigen vectors

best 2^n extract

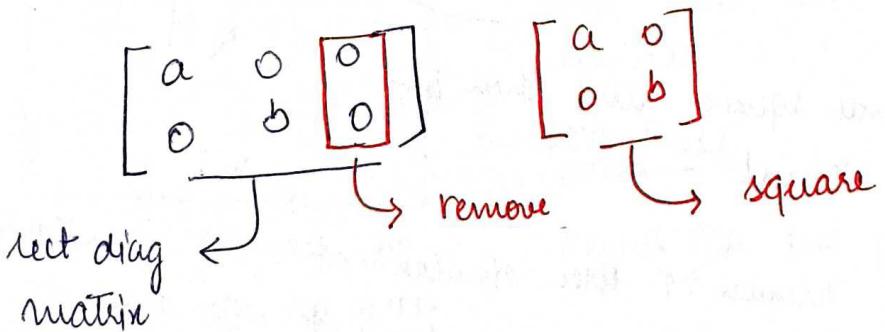
## Non-Square Matrix



\* Square Matrix not change dimension but Non Square Matrix can change Dimension.

## Rectangular Diagonal Matrix

A matrix that would be diagonal if it were square, but instead is rectangular due to extra rows or columns of zeros.

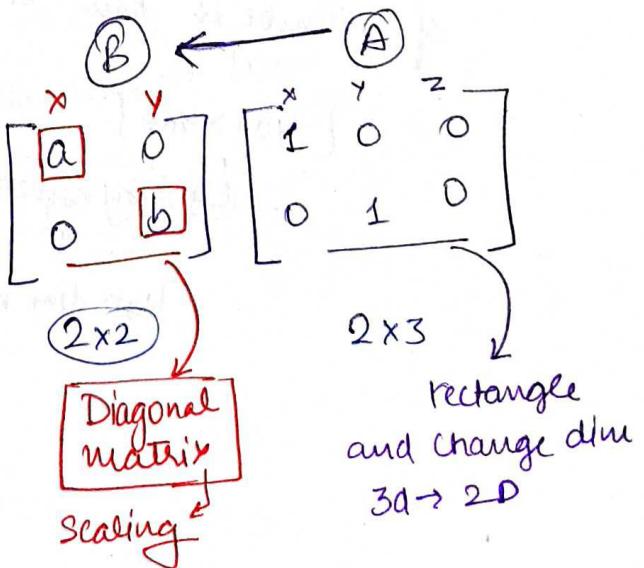


## 2 Transformation

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow$$

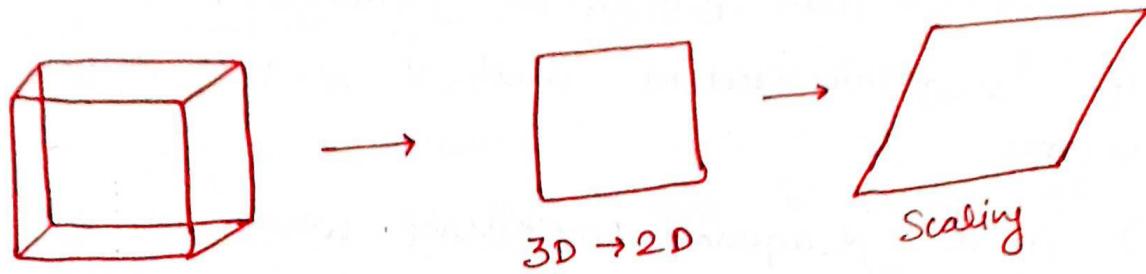
2x3

$x \xrightarrow{\text{scale}} a$   
 $y \xrightarrow{\text{scale}} b$



Rectangular diagonal  $\rightarrow$  Linear Transformation

(F)



2:

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2} \xrightarrow{\text{Linear transformation}} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 3}$$

*we cannot do this*

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2} \xleftarrow{\text{A}} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2} \xrightarrow{\text{Scale}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2}$$

*2D  $\rightarrow$  3D*

$$(2 \times 3) \xrightarrow{\text{Totally opposite}} (3 \times 2)$$

What is SVD?

$\hookrightarrow$  Singular value decomp

SVD is matrix decomposition/factorization method that decomposes a matrix into three other matrices. Given a matrix A, the singular value decomposition of A is usually written as:

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

$\checkmark$  where  $A = V\Lambda V^{-1}$   
only square matrix

$\hookrightarrow$  A could be any matrix but A is definite not in

Here:

- $U$  and  $V$  are orthogonal matrices.  $U$  is the left singular vectors and  $V$  is the right singular vectors.
- $\Sigma$  is a diagonal containing what we call the singular values.

### Application of SVD

1. Machine Learning and Data Science: SVD is used in Principal component Analysis (PCA), a technique for dimensionality reduction. This is helpful when dealing with high-dimensional data. It's also used in various recommendation system, for example in collaborative filtering which is used in Netflix movie recommendation.
2. Natural Language Processing (NLP): SVD is used in Latent Semantic Analysis (LSA), a technique for extracting the underlying meaning (semantic information) from textual data. LSA uses SVD to reduce the dimensionality of a term-document matrix, which helps identify relationships between terms and documents.
3. Computer Vision: In computer vision, SVD is used in image compression. By keeping only the largest singular values and corresponding singular vectors, we can ~~represent~~ represent an image using less data without losing too much information.

4. Signal Processing: SVD is used to separate useful signals from noise. This is useful in applications like mobile communication and audio signal processing. (18)

5. Numerical Linear Algebra: SVD is used for matrix inversion and solving system of linear equations. It is often a numerically stable way to solve ill-conditioned systems.

6. Psychometrics: In psychometrics and education, SVD is used in the construction and scoring of psychological and educational test, where it is often important to extract underlying latent traits.

7. Bioinformatics: SVD and related techniques are often used to analyze gene expression data, where it is important to identify the underlying patterns of gene activity.

8. Quantum Computing: SVD is also used in quantum state tomography to understand the state of a quantum system.

## SVD The Equation

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

Orthogonal      Orthogonal      Rectangular      Diagonal

any matrix      definite

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

$(m \times n)$        $(m \times m)$        $(m \times n)$

$\boxed{(m \times n)}$

$\boxed{m \times n}$

## SVD Relationship with Eigen Decomposition

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

$(m \times n)$

non-square

$$A = V \Lambda V^{-1}$$

↓  
Symmetric

we can make non-square  
square matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{(2 \times 3)} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{3 \times 2}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}_{2 \times 2}$$

Symmetric  
Square matrix

$$AA^T = U\Sigma V^T (U\Sigma V^T)^T$$

$$AA^T = U\Sigma V^T V \Sigma^T U^T \quad (\because VV^T = I^T, V^T = V^{-1})$$

$$= U\Sigma \Sigma^T U^T$$

$$\boxed{AA^T = UXV^T}$$

where  $X = \Sigma \Sigma^T$   
 ↴ symmetric

$$\begin{aligned} \text{if } A^T A &= (U\Sigma V^T)^T U\Sigma V^T \\ &= V\Sigma^T U^T U\Sigma V^T \\ &= V\Sigma^T \Sigma V^T \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{A^T A = VYV^T}$$

where  $Y = \Sigma^T \Sigma$

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

$$\begin{aligned} AA^T &= UXU^T \xrightarrow{\text{eigen value}} X = \Sigma \Sigma^T \\ A^T A &= VYV^T \xrightarrow{\text{eigen value}} Y = \Sigma^T \Sigma \end{aligned}$$

both eqn represent eigen decomposition

Symmetric

$U \rightarrow$  matrix where cols contain eigenvectors of  $AA^T$

$V \rightarrow$  matrix whose cols contain eigenvectors of  $A^T A$

$A \rightarrow U$  (singular vector)  
 left

$A \rightarrow V$  (singular vector)  
 right

$$X = \Sigma \Sigma^T$$

$$Y = \Sigma^T \Sigma$$

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

$$(2 \times 3) \quad (2 \times 2) \quad (2 \times 3) \quad (3 \times 3)$$

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 & 0 \\ 0 & b^2 \end{bmatrix} = a^2 b^2$$

↳ eigenvalue  $AAT$

$$Y = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = a^2 b^2$$

↳ eigenvalue  $ATA$

$$X, Y \rightarrow a^2 b^2$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} AAT^T \\ ATA \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow a, b \rightarrow SVD$$

↳ singular value

$$\sqrt{a^2}, \sqrt{b^2}$$

$$\underbrace{a, b}_{\text{SVD eqn}}$$

$\sqrt{\text{eigenvalue}}$

$$A = U \Sigma V^T \leftarrow \text{right singular vector } (ATA)$$

↑  
left  
singular  
vector  
 $(AAT)$

$$(a, b) \rightarrow \sqrt{a^2} \sqrt{b^2}$$

$\sqrt{\text{eigenvalue}}$

$\downarrow_{ATA \ AAT}$

# Geometric Intuition

$$A = U \Sigma V^T \rightarrow \text{geometric intuition}$$

↑

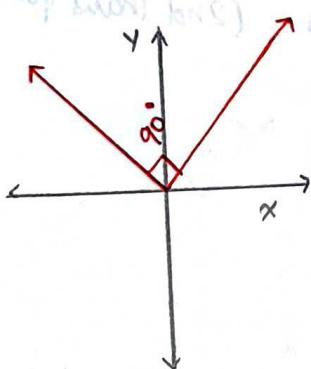
matrix  
( $m \times n$ )

$$A = V \Lambda V^{-1}$$

Orthogonal      diagonal

$L \quad R$

Symmetric

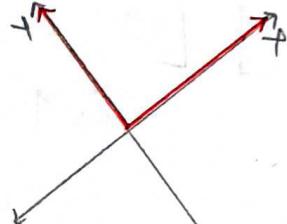


$\Lambda$  → means

$V \rightarrow$  Again

become

90°



stretch of changing the size or magnitude  
but change the size.

size change

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

↓

matrix

( $2 \times 3$ )

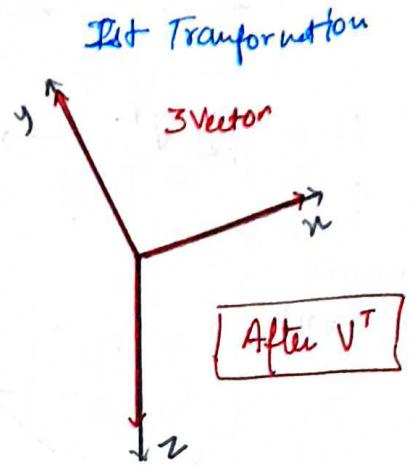
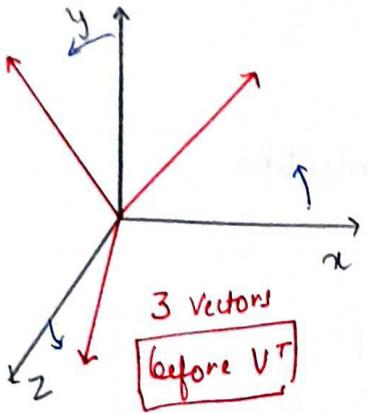
input (3D)

Output  
(2D)

$V \rightarrow$  [ATA]  
Orthogonal      3x3  
3 Dim.

$$\therefore A = 2 \times 3 \\ A^T A = 3 \times 3$$

$\sqrt{\Lambda}$   
Antirotate or Anticlockwise  
rotate.



$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad : a, b \text{ some value}$$

$\downarrow$  break down

$\Sigma_1$

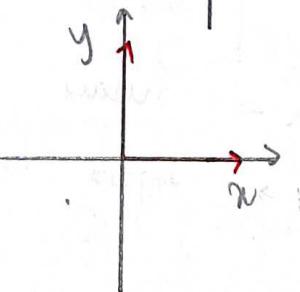
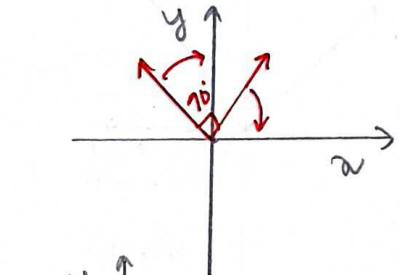
$$\begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{Reduce The dimension} \\ \text{in 2D (2nd Transformation)} \end{array}$$

$\Sigma_2 \uparrow$

$\Sigma_1 \uparrow$

Stretch the graph

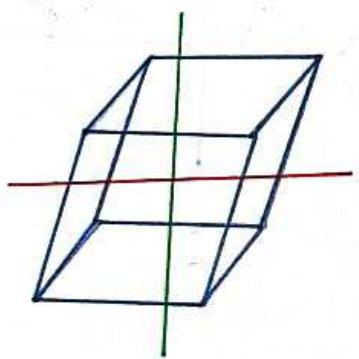
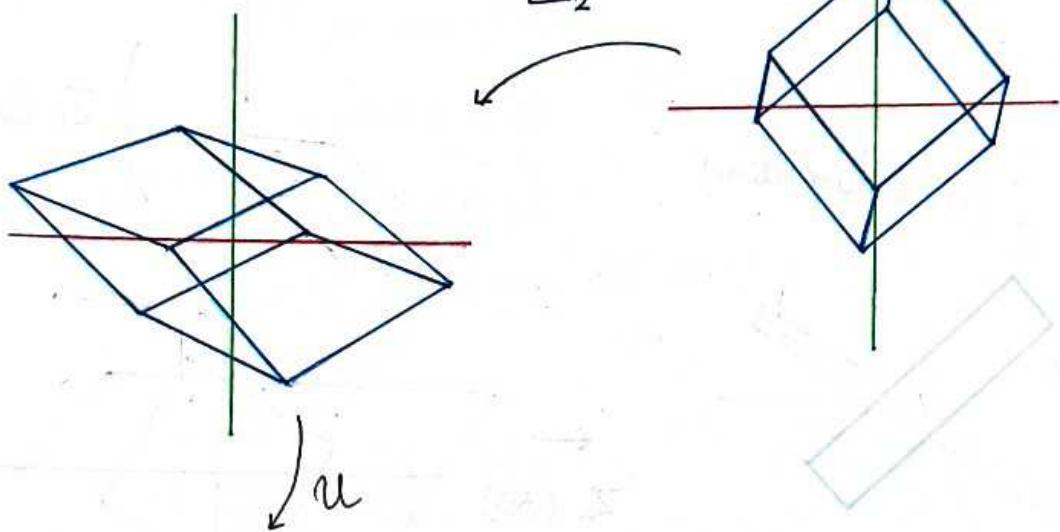
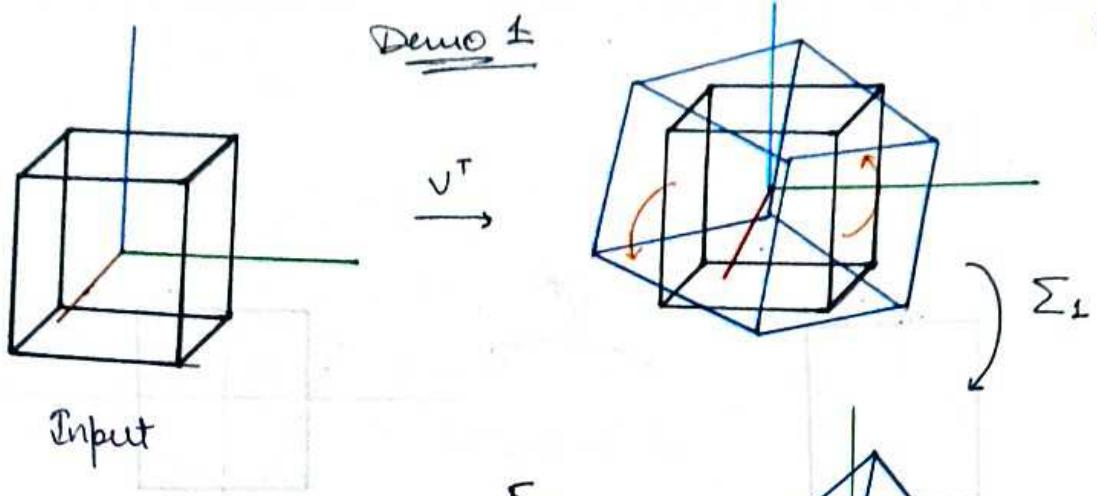
Create orthogonal vectors and  
draw the position of vector  
in 2D.



Step 1:-  $A \rightarrow$  anticlockwise rotation input space  
( $m \times n$ )

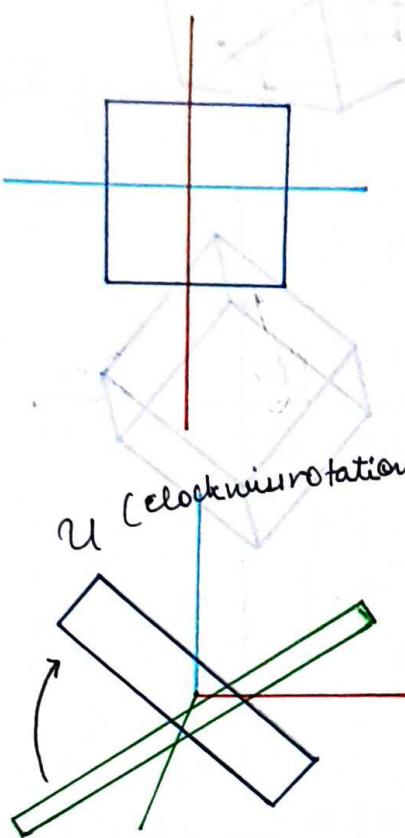
Step 2:- Dimension reduction ( $n > m$ ), Dimension increase ( $m > n$ )  
Shrink stretch

Step 3:- Rotation clockwise (vectors rotate)

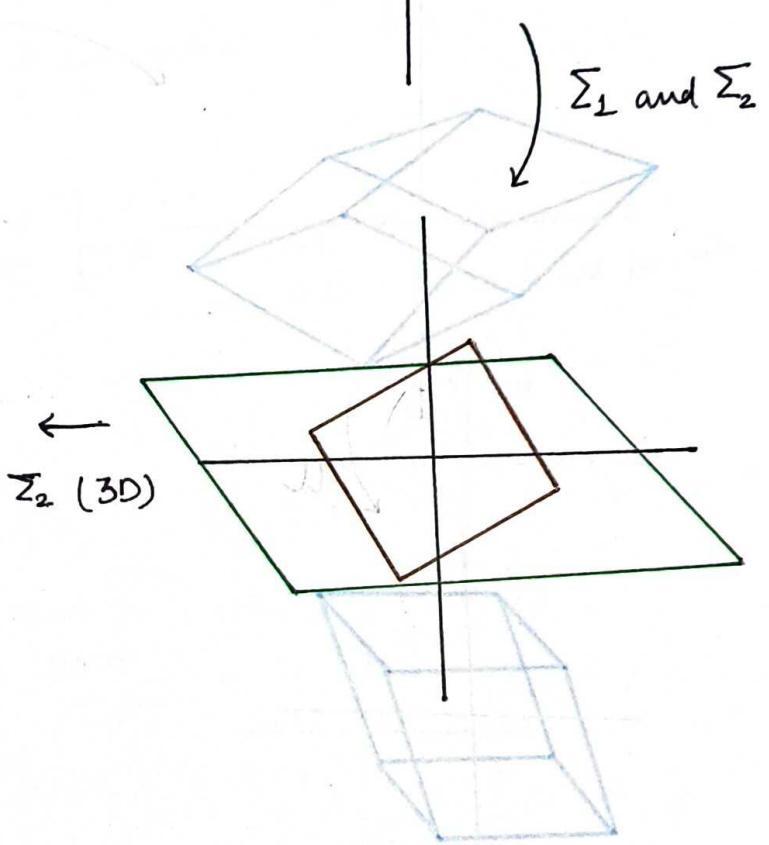


Demo 2

( $3 \times 2$ ) matrix



$V^T$



## How to calculate SVD

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

? How to calculate?  
Use eigen decomposition

$$\rightarrow AA^T = U \Sigma U^T$$

$\downarrow \text{Sqrt} \rightarrow \Sigma$

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

\* But this method is numerically unstable.

Use:- ~~np.linalg.svd(A)~~  
 $\rightarrow U, \Sigma, V^T$  (give all values)

## SVD in PCA

PCA  $\rightarrow$  Principal component extract  
 $\downarrow$  eigen decomposition  
 $\downarrow$  SVD

cgpa | iq | result  
 $\downarrow$   
 $\rightarrow$  covariance matrix ( $3 \times 3$ )  $\rightarrow$  eigen decomposition

$\rightarrow$  SVD is faster than eigen Decomposition  
 SVD for larger Dataset.  
 SVD use in Sklearn

Iris

| SL | SW | PL | PW |
|----|----|----|----|
| +  | +  | +  | +  |

$$\boxed{X = (150, 4)}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \text{cov} \rightarrow (4, 4)$$

1) mean center all the cols ( $x_c$ )

$$2) \frac{x_c^T x_c}{n-1} = \text{cov matrix}$$

Square of eigenvector

$$x_c = U \Sigma V^T \rightarrow \text{SVD}$$

eigen vector

$$\boxed{x_c^T x_c = V \Lambda V^T} \rightarrow \text{eigen decomposition}$$

→ eigen vectors of  $x_c^T x_c \rightarrow$  covariance

\* In SVD we can calculate eigen vector, and eigen value without finding covariance matrix.

1. Incremental PCA

2. Randomised PCA