

Mathematics for Machine Learning

— Linear Algebra: Eigenvalues, Eigenvectors, Eigenspaces, Cholesky Decomposition & Diagonalization

Joseph Chuang-Chieh Lin

Department of Computer Science & Information Engineering,
Tamkang University

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Credits for the resource

- The slides are based on the textbooks:
 - *Marc Peter Deisenroth, A. Aldo Faisal, and Cheng Soon Ong: Mathematics for Machine Learning. Cambridge University Press. 2020.*
 - *Howard Anton, Chris Rorres, Anton Kaul: Elementary Linear Algebra. Wiley. 2019.*
- We could partially refer to the monograph:
Francesco Orabona: A Modern Introduction to Online Learning.
<https://arxiv.org/abs/1912.13213>

- Matrix decomposition or matrix factorization.

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- Tree matrix decompositions will be introduced.

Outline

- 1 Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors
- 2 Cholesky Decomposition
- 3 Eigendecomposition & Diagonalization

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Characteristic Polynomial

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For $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and a square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$,

$$\begin{aligned} p_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda) &:= \det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \\ &= (-1)^n (\lambda - \lambda_1) \cdots (\lambda - \lambda_n) \\ &= c_0 + c_1 \lambda + \cdots + c_{n-1} \lambda^{n-1} + (-1)^n \lambda^n, \end{aligned}$$

for $c_0, \dots, c_{n-1} \in \mathbb{R}$, is called the **characteristic polynomial** of \mathbf{A} .

Note that

- $c_0 = \det(\mathbf{A})$.
- $c_{n-1} = (-1)^{n-1} \text{tr}(\mathbf{A})$.

back

Eigenvalue Equation

Eigenvalues & Eigenvectors

Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a square matrix. Then

- $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ is an **eigenvalue** of \mathbf{A} and
- $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$ is the corresponding **eigenvector** of A

if $\mathbf{Ax} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$.

Equivalent statements:

- λ is an eigenvalue of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.
- There exists an $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$ with $\mathbf{Ax} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$ (i.e., $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}_n)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$) that can be solved non-trivially (i.e., $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$).
- $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}_n) < n$.
- $\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda\mathbf{I}_n) = 0$.

Remark

Eigenvectors are NOT unique.

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Suppose \mathbf{x} is an eigenvector of \mathbf{A} w.r.t. eigenvalue λ , then for any $c \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$

$$\mathbf{A}(c\mathbf{x}) = c\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = c\lambda\mathbf{x} = \lambda(c\mathbf{x}).$$

Theorems (or Definitions)

Theorem

$\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ is an eigenvalue of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ if and only if λ is a root of the characteristic polynomial $p_{\mathbf{A}}(\lambda)$ of \mathbf{A} .

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Algebraic Multiplicity

Let a square matrix \mathbf{A} have an eigenvalue λ_i . The **algebraic multiplicity** of λ_i is the number of times the root appears in the characteristic polynomial.

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Eigenspace

For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, the set of all eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} associated with the eigenvalue λ spans the **eigenspace** of \mathbf{A} (denoted by E_{λ}).

The set of all eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} is called the **eigenspectrum** (or spectrum) of \mathbf{A} .

The Case of the Identity Matrix

The Case of the Identity Matrix

For $I_n \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$,

- what is $p_I(\lambda)$?
- What are its eigenvalues and the associated eigenvectors?
- What are the eigenspaces?

Useful Properties (1/4)

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$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Ax} = \lambda \mathbf{x} &\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{Ax} - \lambda \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \\ &\Leftrightarrow (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \\ &\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{x} \in \ker(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}).\end{aligned}$$

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- Symmetric, positive definite matrices always have positive, real eigenvalues.

Useful Properties (2/4)

Theorem (4.13)

The eigenvectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$ of a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with n distinct eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are linearly independent.

Theorem (4.14)

Given a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, we can always obtain a symmetric, positive semidefinite matrix $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ by defining

$$\mathbf{S} := \mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A}.$$

If $\text{rank}(\mathbf{A}) = n$, then $\mathbf{S} := \mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A}$ is symmetric, positive definite.

Useful Properties (3/4)

Theorem

If \mathbf{A} is symmetric, then eigenvectors to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.

Proof.

- Assume that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$ and $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{w} = \mu\mathbf{w}$ for two eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$ corresponding to eigenvalues λ and μ such that $\lambda \neq \mu$.
- $$\begin{aligned}\lambda\langle\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}\rangle &= \langle\lambda\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w}\rangle = \langle\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}\rangle = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v})^\top \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v}^\top \mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{w} = \langle\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{w}\rangle \\ &= \langle\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{w}\rangle = \langle\mathbf{v}, \mu\mathbf{w}\rangle = \mu\langle\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}\rangle.\end{aligned}$$

The equalities hold only if $\langle\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}\rangle = 0$.



Useful Properties (4/4)

Theorem (4.15; Spectral Theorem)

If $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is symmetric, then there exists an orthonormal basis, consisting of eigenvectors of A , of the corresponding vector space V , and each eigenvalue is real.

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Theorem (4.16)

For a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we have $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$, where λ_i 's are the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} .

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For a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we have $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$, where λ_i 's are the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} .

Theorem (4.17)

For a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we have $\text{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$, where λ_i 's are the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} recall?.

A Practical Example

- Google uses the eigenvector corresponding to the maximal eigenvalue of a matrix \mathbf{A} to determine the rank of a page for search.
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- Websites are represented as a huge directed graph (pages: vertices; links: edges).
- Compute the weight (importance) $x_i \geq 0$ for a website a_i and get \mathbf{x} .
 - The number of pages pointing to a_i .
- A transition matrix \mathbf{A} (prob.): modeling the navigation behavior of a user.
- **Goal:** $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{Ax}, \mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{x}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^*$

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- **Goal:** $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{Ax}, \mathbf{A}^2\mathbf{x}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^* \Rightarrow \mathbf{Ax}^* = \mathbf{x}^* \Rightarrow$ Turning to probabilities (normalization).

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Cholesky Decomposition

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A symmetric, positive definite matrix \mathbf{A} can be factorized into a product $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^\top$, where \mathbf{L} is a lower-triangular matrix with positive diagonal elements.

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{red triangle} \\ \text{red triangle} \\ \text{red triangle} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{green triangle} \\ \text{green triangle} \\ \text{green triangle} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example of Cholesky Factorization

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & a_{31} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{32} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^T = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ l_{21} & l_{22} & 0 \\ l_{31} & l_{32} & l_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} l_{11} & l_{21} & l_{31} \\ 0 & l_{22} & l_{32} \\ 0 & 0 & l_{33} \end{bmatrix}.$$

We have

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} l_{11}^2 & l_{21}l_{11} & l_{31}l_{11} \\ l_{21}l_{11} & l_{21}^2 + l_{22}^2 & l_{31}l_{21} + l_{32}l_{22} \\ l_{31}l_{11} & l_{31}l_{21} + l_{32}l_{22} & l_{31}^2 + l_{32}^2 + l_{33}^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Finally, solve l_{11}, \dots, l_{33} .

Motivations of Using Cholesky Decomposition

- Symmetric positive definite matrices require frequent manipulation.
 - E.g., Covariance matrix of a multivariate Gaussian variable.
 - The Cholesky factorization of the covariance matrix allows us to **generate samples from a Gaussian distribution**.
- Computing gradients in deep stochastic models such as variational auto-encoder (VAE).

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- Computing gradients in deep stochastic models such as variational auto-encoder (VAE).
- Compute determinants efficiently.
 - $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \det(\mathbf{L}) \det(\mathbf{L}^\top) = \det(\mathbf{L})^2$.
 - Note: $\det(\mathbf{L})$ can be computed efficiently (\because triangular).

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$$\mathbf{D} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & c_n \end{bmatrix}.$$

- **Question:** What are the determinant, cubic, and inverse of \mathbf{D} ?

Similarity

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Two matrices \mathbf{A} and $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ are **similar** if there exists an invertible matrix $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ such that $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{S}^{-1}\mathbf{B}\mathbf{S}$.

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A matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is **diagonalizable** if it is *similar* to a *diagonal* matrix..

- $\exists \mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, such that $\mathbf{D} = \mathbf{P}^{-1}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P}$.

Eigenvectors & Diagonalization

- Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ be a set of scalars.
- Let $\mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_n$ be a set of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n .
- Let $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a diagonal matrix with diagonal entries $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$.

We can show that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{D}.$$

if and only if $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ are the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} and $\mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_n$ are the corresponding eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} .

Proof of the Claim

We can see that

$$\mathbf{AP} = \mathbf{A}[\mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_n] = [\mathbf{Ap}_1, \dots, \mathbf{Ap}_n],$$

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Proof of the Claim

We can see that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{P} = \mathbf{A}[\mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_n] = [\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}_n],$$

and

$$\mathbf{P}\mathbf{D} = [\mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_n] \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} = [\lambda_1 \mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \lambda_n \mathbf{p}_n].$$

Thus,

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}_1 = \lambda_1 \mathbf{p}_1$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}_n = \lambda_n \mathbf{p}_n$$

Therefore, the columns of \mathbf{P} are eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} .

Eigendecomposition

Theorem [Eigendecomposition]

A square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ can be factored into

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{P}^{-1},$$

where $\mathbf{P} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and \mathbf{D} is a diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A}

if and only if

the eigenvectors of \mathbf{A} form a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

Put it concisely

Theorem

For a square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, the following statements are equivalent:

- \mathbf{A} is diagonalizable.
- \mathbf{A} has n linearly independent eigenvectors.

Remark

The spectral theorem tells us that:

We can find an orthonormal basis of the corresponding vector space consisting of eigenvectors of a symmetric matrix $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.

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Theorem

A symmetric matrix $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ can be always diagonalized.

Example

Compute the eigendecomposition of $\mathbf{A} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -2 \\ -2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$.

- 1 Compute the eigenvalues and eigenvectors.

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Set $\lambda_1 = \frac{7}{2}, \lambda_2 = \frac{3}{2}$.

- 2 Solving $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}_1 = \frac{7}{2}\mathbf{p}_1$ and $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{p}_2 = \frac{3}{2}\mathbf{p}_2$.

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$$\mathbf{p}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{p}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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④ Construct \mathbf{P} : $\implies \mathbf{P} = [\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2] = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

★ Note that $\{\mathbf{p}_1, \mathbf{p}_2\}$ forms an **orthonormal basis**

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Finally we obtain $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{P}^{-1}$.

Remark On the Efficiency

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- $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \det(\mathbf{PDP}^{-1})$

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

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- $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \det(\mathbf{P}\mathbf{D}\mathbf{P}^{-1}) = \det(\mathbf{P})\det(\mathbf{D})\det(\mathbf{P}^{-1}) = \det(\mathbf{D}) = \prod_i d_{ii}.$

Discussions