

# Just Enough Spectral Theory for Machine Learning

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# Notations (Important)

□ A vector is by default a column

■ For vectors  $x$  and  $y$ , their inner (or dot) product,  $\langle x, y \rangle = x^T y$

□  $\langle x + z, y \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \langle z, y \rangle = x^T y + z^T y$

■ Beware: some texts use row vectors and  $\langle x, y \rangle = xy^T$

□ For a matrix an example is a row

■ An example (or datapoint) is a row  $x_i$  while each feature is a columns

□ Features are like fixed columns in a spreadsheet

■ For matrices  $X$  and  $Y$ ,  $\langle X, Y \rangle = XY^T$  or  $\sum_i (x_i y_i^T)$

■ Beware: some texts use column for examples and let  $\langle X, Y \rangle = X^T Y$

□ So it's  $x^T x$ ,  $x^T M x$ , but  $XX^T$  and  $Q\Lambda Q^T$

# What about outer product?

- The outer product of two vectors is a matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c & d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ac & ad \\ bc & bd \end{pmatrix}$$

- The outer product (or Kronecker product) of two matrices is a **tensor**
- We don't deal with outer products yet

# Python call for inner product

- Inner products are performed with `np. dot ()`
  - When called on two arrays, the arrays are **automatically** oriented to perform inner product
    - Note that `[[ 1 ], [ 1 ]]` is a  $1 \times 2$  matrix
  - When called on an array `x` and a matrix `X`, the array is **automatically** read as a row for `np. dot (x, X)`, and column for `np. dot (X, x)` to perform inner product
  - When called on two matrices, make sure that the matrices are oriented correctly, or you will get  $X^T X$  when you want  $XX^T$
  - Impossible to get outer product with `np. dot ()`
- If you write `x*y` or `X*Y`, what you get is an element-wise multiplication

# Eigenvectors and eigenvalues

- Only concerned with square matrices
  - Most matrices we consider are furthermore **symmetric** (and of only **real** values)
- A **eigenvector** for a square matrix  $M$  is vector  $u$  where  $Mu = \lambda u$ 
  - $u$  is **invariant** under transformation  $M$
  - The scaling factor  $\lambda$  is called a **eigenvalue**

# Eigendecomposition

- A eigendecomposition of matrix  $M$  is

$$M = Q\Lambda Q^{-1}$$

where  $\Lambda$  is **diagonal**, and  $Q$  contains (not necessarily orthogonal) **eigenvectors** of  $M$

- Any **normal**  $M$  can be eigendecomposed
- **The set of eigenvalues for  $M$  is unique**
- **There can be different eigenvectors of the same eigenvalue (hence not unique)**
  - **For **real symmetric**  $M$ , eigenvectors that correspond to distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal**
- For an orthogonal matrix  $Q$ ,  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$
- **Only consider real symmetric  $M \Rightarrow M = Q\Lambda Q^T$**

# Eigenspace

- The **eigenspace** of a matrix  $M$  is the set of all the vectors  $u$  that fulfills  $Mu = \lambda u$ 
  - The **rank** of  $M$  is its number of non-zero  $\lambda$
  - Any feature vector  $v_k$  in  $M$  can be written as a linear combination of the eigenspace, i.e.  $v_k = \sum_j \langle v_k, u_j \rangle u_j$
  - Any eigenvector  $u_k$  of  $M$  can be written as a linear combination of the feature vectors  $v_i$  in  $M$ , by solving the system of equations  $v_i = \sum_j \langle v_i, u_j \rangle u_j$  to obtain  $u_k$  entirely in terms of  $v_i$
- A **eigenbasis** of a  $n \times n$  matrix  $M$  is a set of  $n$  **orthogonal** eigenvectors of  $M$  (including those with zero eigenvalues)

# Rayleigh Quotient

- Consider an  $n \times n$  real symmetric  $M$
- $M = Q\Lambda Q^T$ , where  $\Lambda$  is diagonal, and  $Q$  is the eigenbasis of  $M$

- Denote the eigenvalues  $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n$ .

- Then, for all unit vector  $u$

Min-max  
Theorem

$$\max_{\|u\|=1} \frac{u^T M u}{u^T u} = \lambda_1$$

Similarly,  $\lambda_n$  is the  
minimum of the  
Rayleigh Quotient

- And for all orthogonal matrix  $P$  and  $k \leq n$

Minimax  
Principle

$$\max_{P \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}, P^T P = I} \text{tr}(P^T M P) = \lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_k$$

Similarly,  $\min_{P \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}, P^T P = I} \text{tr}(P^T M P) = \lambda_{n-k+1} + \dots + \lambda_n$



# Eigendecomposition applications

- Matrix inverse
- Matrix approximation
- Matrix factorization
  - Multidimensional Scaling
- Minimization or maximization through the Rayleigh Quotient
  - PCA
    - Max of covariance matrix
  - Spectral clustering
    - Min of graph Laplacian

# Singular Value Decomposition

- Any matrix can be singular value decomposed
- $M = U\Sigma V^*$ 
  - $M$  is  $m \times n$  matrix
  - $U$  is an  $m \times m$  unitary (orthogonal) matrix
  - $\Sigma$  is an  $m \times n$  diagonal matrix
  - $V$  is an  $n \times n$  unitary matrix

□ For a real  $M$ ,  $V^* = V^T$  (and  $U = U^T$ ) hence  
$$M = U\Sigma V^T$$

# SVD applications

- Solving linear equations
- Linear regression
- Pseudoinverse
- Kabsch algorithm
- Matrix approximation
- As a eigendecomposition (see next slide)

# SVD and eigendecomposition

- SVD is a eigendecomposition but not of  $M$ 
  - Given an SVD of  $M = U\Sigma V^*$
  - Then, clearly
    - $M^*M = V\Sigma^*U^*U\Sigma V^* = V(\Sigma^*\Sigma)V^*$
    - $MM^* = U\Sigma V^*V\Sigma^*U^* = U(\Sigma^*\Sigma)U^*$
  - Hence  $V$  is the eigenbasis of  $M^*M$  and  $U$  is the eigenbasis of  $MM^*$  respectively
  - That is,  $U$  and  $V$  are **eigenbases of the squared matrices of  $M$** 
    - However the eigenbasis of  $M^*M$  and  $MM^*$  are in general not the eigenbasis of  $M$