# Random Matrices: Invertibility, Structure, and Applications

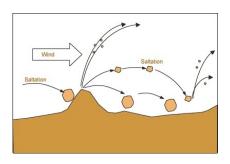
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#### Chaos and Order

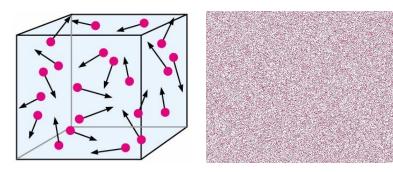
Many complex systems that occur in nature and society exhibit chaos on the **microscopic** level and order on the **macroscopic** level.





#### Chaos and Order

#### Gas molecules:

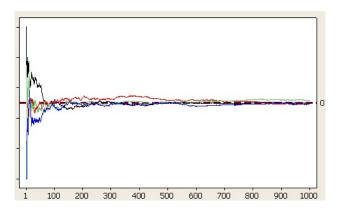


**Statistical mechanics**: randomness at the microscopic level averages out at the macroscopic level.

- Microscopic: independent random variables  $X_1, X_2, \dots$
- **Macroscopic:** function  $f(X_1, ..., X_n)$  where n is large.
- Example: Bernoulli r.v's  $X_i = \pm 1$  with probabilities  $\frac{1}{2}$ . At each game, gain \$1 or lose \$1 independently. Macroscopic quantity: average gain

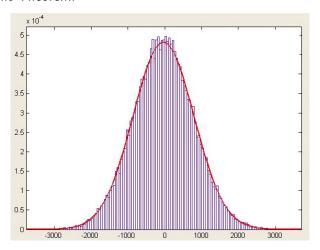
$$f(X_1,\ldots,X_n)=\frac{X_1+\cdots+X_n}{n}.$$

**Limit theorems** describe the macroscopic picture as  $n \to \infty$ . Law of Large Numbers:



$$\frac{X_1+\cdots+X_n}{n}\to 0\quad \text{almost surely}$$

#### Central Limit Theorem:



$$X_1 + \cdots + X_n \approx N(0, \sqrt{n})$$
 in distribution

- Microscopic: independent random variables  $X_1, X_2, ...$
- Macroscopic: function  $f(X_1, ..., X_n)$ .
- Functions may be **more complex** than the sum  $X_1 + \cdots + X_n$ .
- Example: random matrix theory.

## Random Matrix Theory

• Microscopic: independent random variables  $X_{ij}$ , arranged in a matrix

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & \cdots & X_{1n} \\ X_{21} & X_{22} & \cdots & X_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ X_{n1} & X_{n2} & \cdots & X_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

• **Macroscopic:** the eigenvalues of *H* 

$$\lambda_1(H),\ldots,\lambda_n(H).$$

## Random Matrix Theory

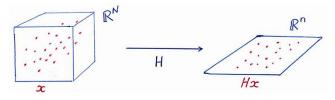
One can make H symmetric by placing independent rv's above the diagonal and reflecting:

$$X_{ij} = X_{ji}$$

This is a Wigner random matrix:

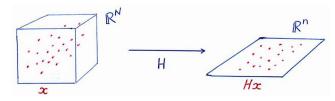
$$H = \begin{pmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & \cdots & X_{1n} \\ X_{12} & X_{22} & \cdots & X_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ X_{1n} & X_{2n} & \cdots & X_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

- Computer Science, Information Theory (1990's+): random matrices provide a mechanism for **dimension reduction**.
- Data points  $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$  (high dimension) need to be mapped into  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (low dimension) while preserving the essential information in the data.

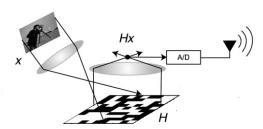


• Use a random linear transformation, given by an  $n \times N$  random matrix H with independent entries.

**Johnson-Lindenstrauss Lemma '84:** Given m data points in  $\mathbb{R}^N$ , one can reduce the dimension to  $n \sim \log m$  while approximately preserving all pairwise distances between the points.



Compressed Sensing (2004+): allows one to exactly **recover the data**  $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$  from its random measurement  $Hx \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , provided the data x has "low information content", i.e. x is a **sparse** vector. In polynomial time.



 Numerical Analysis [Von Neumann et al. 40's]: analysis of algorithms for solving large linear equations

$$Ax = b$$
.

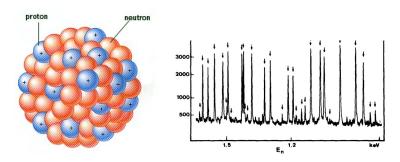
- Use a **random matrix** A to test the quality (speed and accuracy) of a linear solver.
- Here one models a "typical" input A of an algorithm as a random input. Average analysis of algorithms.
- Many algorithms perform better when A is well conditioned, i.e. the condition number

$$\kappa(A) = \|A\| \|A^{-1}\|$$

is not too large.

• Question: Are random matrices well conditioned?

Physics: Excitation spectrum of heavy nuclei, e.g. U<sub>238</sub>. Excitation spectrum = the energy levels for which a neutron will bounce off the nucleus (scattering resonances).



 Protons and neutrons in the nucleus of U<sub>238</sub> interact with each other in a complicated way. The Hamiltonian is too complex. Its spectrum is difficult to compute either theoretically or by simulation.

• Wigner 50's: One models the complicated Hamiltonian as an  $n \times n$  symmetric random matrix

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} X_{11} & X_{12} & \cdots & X_{1n} \\ X_{12} & X_{22} & \cdots & X_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ X_{1n} & X_{2n} & \cdots & X_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

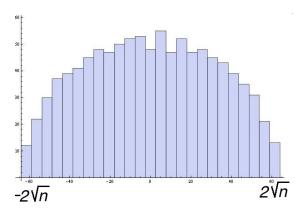
• The excitation spectrum = the eigenvalues

$$\lambda_1(H),\ldots,\lambda_n(H).$$

The distribution of the eigenvalues now becomes computable.
 So, what is it?

#### Semicircle Law

The **histogram** of the eigenvalues of a  $1000 \times 1000$  symmetric matrix with independent N(0,1) entries:



Benedek Valkó's course on random matrices http://www.math.wisc.edu/~valko/courses/833/833.html

After rescaling...

#### Semicircle Law

**Semicircle law [Wigner '55]:** Let H be a symmetric random matrix with N(0,1) entries. Then the eigenvalue histogram of  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}H$  (i.e. the "empirical spectral distribution") converges to the semi-circle supported in [-2,2].

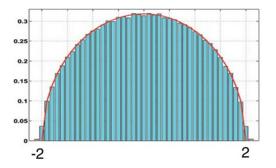
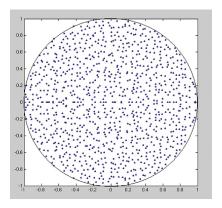


Image by Alan Edelman, MIT open courseware 18.996 / 16.399 Random Matrix Theory and Its Applications

#### Circular Law

**Circular law [Mehta '67]:** Let H be a random matrix with all independent N(0,1) entries. Then the empirical spectral distribution of  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}H$  converges to the uniform measure on the unit disc in  $\mathbb{C}$ .



# Universality

- The limit laws of random matrix theory (semicircle, circular) are **the** same for different distributions of entries  $X_{ij}$ , e.g. normal N(0,1), Bernoulli  $\pm 1$  etc.
- Microscopic laws may be different (and even unknown), but macroscopic picture is the same. Importance: one can replace the unknown distribution by normal.





• The same phenomenon as in the Central Limit Theorem:

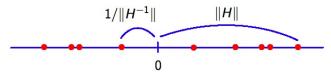
$$X_1 + \cdots + X_n \approx N(0, \sqrt{n}).$$

The same limit **regardless of the distribution** of  $X_i$ .

• For semicircle law, universality was proved by [Pastur'73], see [Bai-Silverstein'10]. For circular law, universality was established by [Girko'84, Edelman'97, Bai'97, Götze-Tikhomirov'07, Pan-Zhou'07, Tao-Vu'07-08].

#### Local Regime

- The limit laws are **global**; they state something for the **bulk** of the eigenvalues (say, for 10% or 1% of eigenvalues).
- Where are individual eigenvalues? Local regime.
  There is extensive recent work, with many questions answered [Tao-Vu'05+, Rudelson-V'07+, V, L. Erdös-Schlein-Yau'08+].
- Why local regime? The eigenvalue **nearest** 0 determines the **invertibility** properties of *H*. The eigenvalue farthest from 0 determines the operator norm of *H*:



- If there is an eigenvalue at 0, then *H* is **singular**. Otherwise *H* has **full rank**.
- The limit laws do not preclude one eigenvalue to stick to 0 almost surely.

## Invertibility

Invertibility Problem: Are random matrices H likely singular or full rank?

- Answer: likely to have full rank.
- 1. For  $n \times n$  matrices with all independent entries.

**Conjecture** [P. Erdös]: For Bernoulli matrices with  $\pm 1$  entries,

$$\mathbb{P}\{H \text{ is singular}\} = \left(\frac{1}{2} + o(1)\right)^n$$

 $\approx \mathbb{P}\{\text{two rows or two columns of } H \text{ are equal up to a sign}\}.$ 

- Best known result:  $\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + o(1)\right)^n$  [Bourgain-Wood-Vu'10].
- For **general distributions** of entries, one still has [Rudelson-V'08]:

$$\mathbb{P}\{H \text{ is singular}\} \leq \exp(-cn).$$

## Invertibility

• 2. For **symmetric matrices**, the invertibility conjecture is the same. For **Bernoulli** symmetric matrices with  $\pm 1$  entries,

$$\mathbb{P}\{H \text{ is singular}\} = \left(\frac{1}{2} + o(1)\right)^n?$$

• Best known result [V'11]:

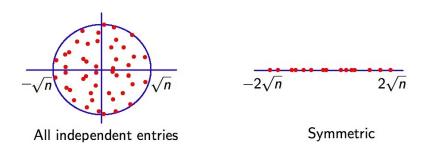
$$\mathbb{P}\{H \text{ is singular}\} \leq \exp(-n^c).$$

This also holds for **general** distributions of entries.

#### Delocalization

More general phenomenon:

The spectrum of a random matrix H is **delocalized**.

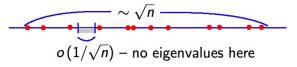


- 1. Eigenvalues of H do not stick to any particular point. The probability that the spectrum hits a particular point is  $\exp(-cn)$  for matrices H with all independent entries [Rudelson-V'08].
- Similarly for symmetric matrices  $H: \exp(-n^c)$  [V'11].

22 / 37

#### Delocalization

- 2. Moreover, the eigenvalues of H do not stick to small intervals.
- The specturm of a symmetric random matrix misses any fixed interval smaller than the average eigenvalue gap (which is  $1/\sqrt{n}$ ). [Erdös-Schlein-Yau, Tao-Vu, V'11].



• In particular, eigenvalues are **separated from** 0 by  $1/\sqrt{n}$ . So

$$||H^{-1}|| = O(\sqrt{n}), \qquad ||H|| = O(\sqrt{n}).$$

• Therefore **the condition number is linear** in *n*:

$$\kappa(H) = ||H|||H^{-1}|| = O(n).$$

Same if H has all independent entries [Rudelson-V'08].

 Thus: Random matrices are well conditioned. This addresses a problem of Von Neumann et al. 40's.

• Statistics: Principal Component Analysis (PCA): determine the axes along which most correlation occurs. This is the covariance structure of the distribution.



- We sample a few **data points**  $X_1, \ldots, X_N \in \mathbb{R}^n$  independently from the distribution. We organize them as an  $N \times n$  random matrix H with **independent rows.** Warning: not independent **entries**!
- Compute the  $n \times n$  matrix  $H^T H$ , the Wishart random matrix. Its eigenvectors are the **principal components**.

Problem: How many sample points N = N(n) are needed to estimate the covariance structure of a distribution in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ?



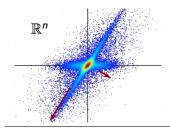
A different look at the Wishart matrix:

$$\Sigma_N = \frac{1}{N} H^T H = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i X_i^T$$

This is the sample covariance matrix,  $n \times n$  symmetric random matrix.

• Our hope:  $\Sigma_N$  is a good estimate for the population covariance matrix

$$\Sigma = \mathbb{E} X_i X_i^T$$
.



Sample and population covariance matrices:

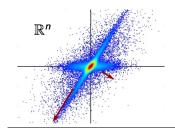
$$\Sigma_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i X_i^T, \qquad \Sigma = \mathbb{E} X_i X_i^T.$$

- Key:  $\Sigma_N$  is a sum of independent random matrices  $X_i X_i^T$ .
- Law of Large Numbers in higher dimensions implies:

$$\Sigma_N \to \Sigma$$
 as  $N \to \infty$ ,  $n$  fixed.

- But we need a **small** sample size N!
- What is the smallest sample size N = N(n) so that  $\Sigma_N \approx \Sigma$ ?
- $N \ge n$  is needed (for the full rank).<sup>1</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>For structured data, one can have  $N \ll n$ , see e.g. [Levina-V/10],  $n \rightarrow 0$ 



Sample and population covariance matrices:

$$\Sigma_N = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N X_i X_i^T, \qquad \Sigma = \mathbb{E} X_i X_i^T.$$

- Use quantitative form of Law of Large Numbers classical deviation inequalities for sums of independent random variables (Khinchine, Bernstein, Chernoff, . . . )
- For matrices, one uses non-commutative versions of deviation inequalities. One obtains (for general distributions!) that

$$N = O(n \log n)$$

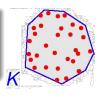
suffices for  $\Sigma_N \approx \Sigma$  in the operator norm. [Rudelson'99]

- $N = O(n \log n)$  sample points always suffice.
- In general, log n oversampling is needed (for very discrete distributions).



Problem [Kannan-Lovasz-Simonovits'97]:

N = O(n) sample points should suffice for covariance estimation of the uniform distribution in an arbitrary convex set K in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .



Important for **volume estimation** of K.

**Theorem** [Adamczak-Litvak-Pajor-Tomczak'09]: (UofA)

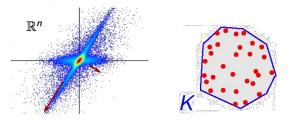
The KLS Conjecture is true.

Conjecture [V'10]: N = O(n) suffices for **most** distributions.



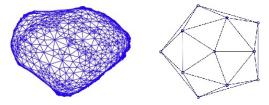
Theorem [Srivastava-V'11]: N = O(n) sample points suffice for covariance estimation for all distributions satisfying mild **regularity** assumptions.

In particular, this holds for **convex sets**, yielding an alternative approach to KLS problem.



Regularity assumption:  $2 + \varepsilon$  moments of k-dimensional marginals outside the ball of radius  $O(\sqrt{k})$ .

- The new method: randomizing the spectral sparsifier of [Batson-Spielman-Srivastava'08].
- Spectral sparsification is a deterministic method that allows one to approximate a given dense graph by a sparse graph:



Daniel Spielman FOCS'07 tutorial on spectral graph theory

 Randomization makes the spectral sparsifier appear as a natural method in Random Matrix Theory.

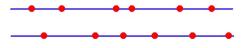
• Goal: Control the whole **spectrum** of the Wishart matrix

$$W = \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i X_i^T,$$

i.e. the left and right **spectral edges**:



- Method: Add  $X_i X_i^T$  one at a time, and keep track how the spectrum of W evolves.
- Eigenvalues interlace (Cauchy interlacing theorem):



$$W = \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i X_i^T \qquad N = 1, 2, \dots$$

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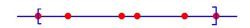
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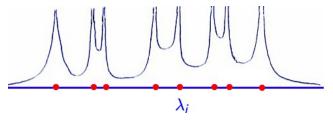
- Difficulty: The spectral edges (the extreme eigenvalues) are not controlled by interlacing, they are free on one side. They are difficult to compute.
- Solution: **Soften** the spectral edges:

## Covariance Estimation via Stieltjes Transform

• **Stieltjes Transform** of the spectrum of *W* is the function

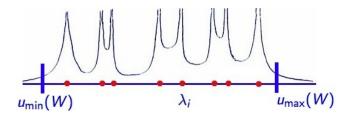
$$m_W(u) = \operatorname{trace}(uI - W)^{-1} = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{u - \lambda_i} \qquad u \in \mathbb{R}.$$

• Ignoring the sign,  $m_W(u)$  looks like this:



• Physical interpretation: Put unit electric charges at points  $\lambda_i$ . The electric potential measured at u equals  $m_W(u)$ .

# Covariance Estimation via Stieltjes Transform

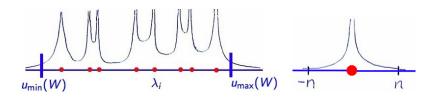


• Find the leftmost/rightmost locations  $u_{\min}(W)$ ,  $u_{\max}(W)$  where the electric **potential** is some fixed **constant**:

$$m_W(u) = \phi$$
 (say,  $\phi = 1000$ ).

• These locations are **soft** proxies of the **spectral edges**. They "harden" as  $\phi \to \infty$ .

# Covariance Estimation via Stieltjes Transform



- Key: As opposed to the usual spectral edges, the soft edges  $u_{\min}(W)$ ,  $u_{\max}(W)$  are computable.
- Why? They are determined by the Stieltjes transform of  $W = \sum_{i=1}^{N} X_i X_i^T$ , which can be **recomputed** by adding one term at a time. (Sherman-Morrison formula).<sup>2</sup>
- One shows that the proxies increase by  $1 \pm o(1)$  at every step.
- After N steps, they are  $\approx N \pm n$ . QED.

#### References

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