DSC 1408 Representation Learning

Lecture 04 | Part 1

The Spectral Theorem

Eigenvectors

Let A be an $n \times n$ matrix. An eigenvector of A with eigenvalue λ is a nonzero vector \vec{v} such that $A\vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v}$.

Eigenvectors (of Linear Transformations)

Let \vec{f} be a linear transformation. An eigenvector of \vec{f} with eigenvalue λ is a nonzero vector \vec{v} such that $f(\vec{v}) = \lambda \vec{v}$.

Importance

We will see why eigenvectors are important in the next part.

For now: what are they?

Geometric Interpretation

Mhen \vec{f} is applied to one of its eigenvectors, \vec{f} simply scales it.

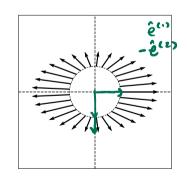
Possibly by a negative amount.

Draw as many (linearly independent) eigenvectors as you can:

$$A\hat{e}^{(i)} = 5\hat{e}^{(i)}$$

$$A(3\hat{e}^{(i)}) = 3A\hat{e}^{(i)} = 3(5\hat{e}^{(i)})$$

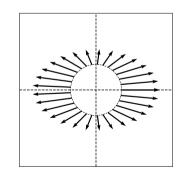
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} = 5\begin{pmatrix} 3\hat{e}^{(i)} \\ 4\vec{\sigma} = 5\vec{g} \end{pmatrix}$$



Draw as many (linearly independent) eigenvectors as you can:

ê⁽¹⁾ w/ e-value: 5
e⁽²⁾ w/ e-value: Z

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$



Finding Eigenvectors

- We typically compute the eigenvectors of a matrix with a computer.
- But it can help our understanding to find them "graphically".

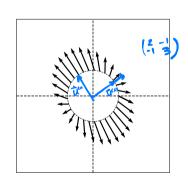
Procedure

Given a matrix A (or transformation \vec{f}), to find an eigenvector "graphically".

- **1**. Think about (or draw) the output of \vec{f} for a handful of unit vector inputs.
 - Linear transformations are continuous so you can "interpolate".
- **2**. Find place(s) where the input vector and the output vector are parallel.

Draw as many (linearly independent) eigenvectors as you can:

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



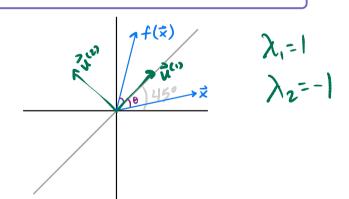
Consider the linear transformation which mirrors its input over the line of 45°. Give two orthogonal eigenvectors of the transformation.

$$\vec{u}^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \lambda_1 = 1$$

$$\vec{v}^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \lambda_2 = -1$$

$$f(\vec{u}^{(2)}) = 1\vec{u}^{(2)}$$

Consider the linear transformation which mirrors its input over the line of 45°. Give two orthogonal eigenvectors of the transformation.



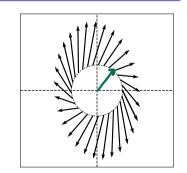
Alternate Procedure: Guess and Check

- 1. Guess a vector \vec{x} .
- 2. Check that $\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = \lambda \vec{x}$.

Draw as many (linearly independent) eigenvectors as you can:



$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 5 \\ -10 & 12 \end{pmatrix}$$



Caution!

- ► Not all matrices have even one eigenvector!¹
- When does a matrix have multiple (linearly independent) eigenvectors?

¹That is, with a *real-valued* eigenvalue.

Symmetric Matrices

Recall: a matrix A is **symmetric** if $A^T = A$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^{T} = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$$

The Spectral Theorem²

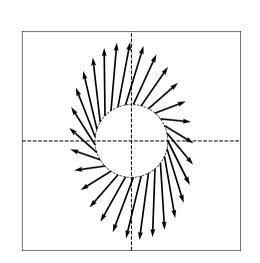
► **Theorem**: Let A be an n × n symmetric matrix. Then there exist n eigenvectors of A which are all mutually orthogonal.

²for symmetric matrices

What?

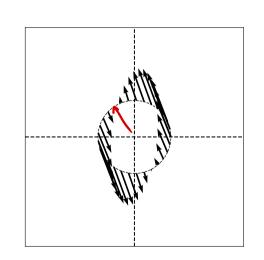
- What does the spectral theorem mean?
- What is an eigenvector, really?
- Why are they useful?

Example Linear Transformation



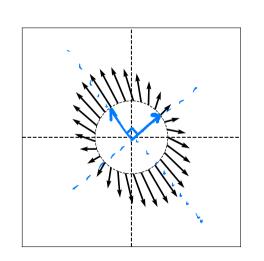
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 5 \\ -10 & 12 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example Linear Transformation

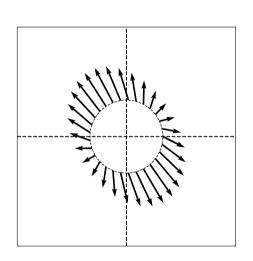


$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ -5 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

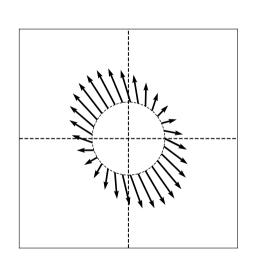
Example Symmetric Linear Transformation



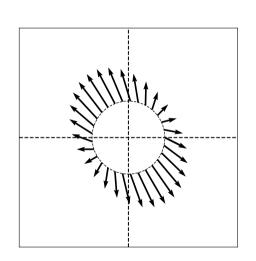
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$



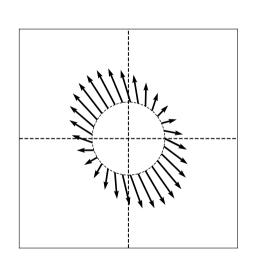
Symmetric linear transformations have axes of symmetry.



The axes of symmetry are **orthogonal** to one another.



The action of \vec{f} along an axis of symmetry is simply to scale its input.



The size of this scaling can be different for each axis.

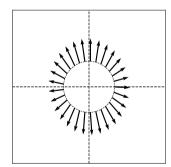
Main Idea

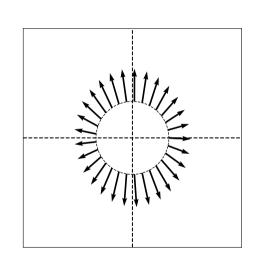
The **eigenvectors** of a symmetric linear transformation (matrix) are its axes of symmetry. The **eigenvalues** describe how much each axis of symmetry is scaled.

Diagonal Matrices

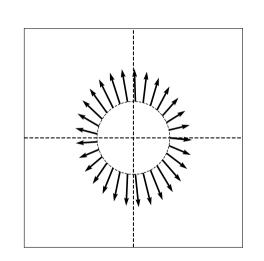
► If A is diagonal, its eigenvectors are simply the standard basis vectors.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

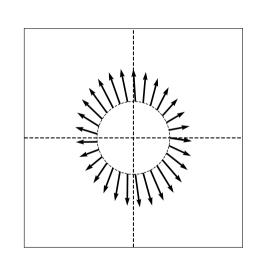




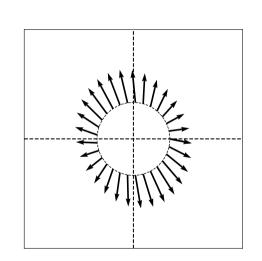
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.1 \\ -0.1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



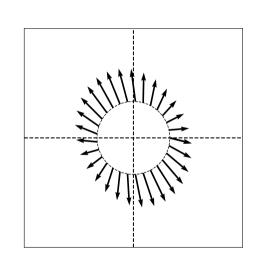
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.2 \\ -0.2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



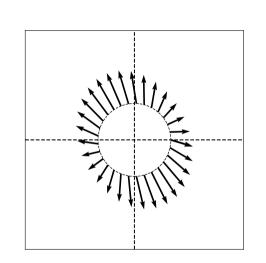
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.3 \\ -0.3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



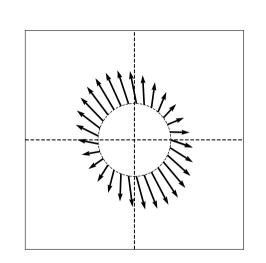
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.4 \\ -0.4 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



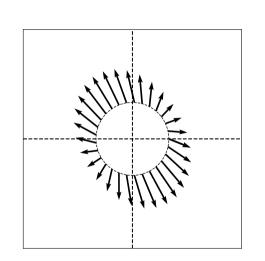
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.5 \\ -0.5 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



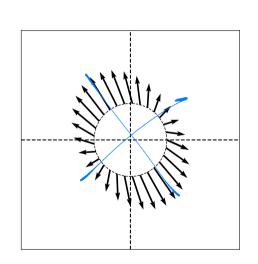
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.6 \\ -0.6 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.7 \\ -0.7 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.8 \\ -0.8 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



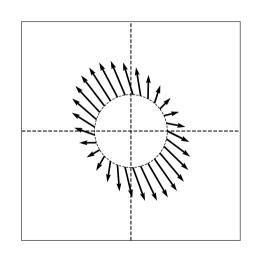
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.9 \\ -0.9 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Non-Diagonal Symmetric Matrices

- When a symmetric matrix is not diagonal, its eigenvectors are not the standard basis vectors.
- But they can be used to form an orthonormal basis!

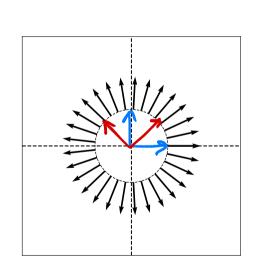
The Spectral Theorem³

Theorem: Let A be an n x n symmetric matrix. Then there exist n eigenvectors of A which are all mutually orthogonal.



³for symmetric matrices

What about total symmetry?

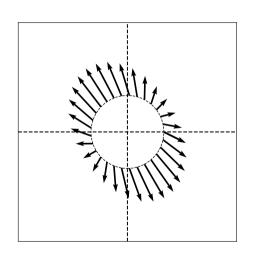


$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 6 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = 3 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Every vector is an eigenvector.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Computing Eigenvectors





DSC 1408 Representation Learning

Lecture 04 | Part 2

Why are eigenvectors useful?

Din.

OK, but why are eigenvectors⁴ useful?

- 1. Eigenvectors are nice "building blocks" (basis vectors).
- 2. Eigenvectors are maximizers (or minimizers).
- 3. Eigenvectors are equilibria.

⁴of symmetric matrices

Vector Decomposition

We can always "decompose" a vector \vec{x} in terms of the basis vectors.

With respect to the standard basis:

$$\vec{x} = a_1 \hat{e}^{(1)} + a_2 \hat{e}^{(2)} + ... + a_d \hat{e}^{(d)}$$

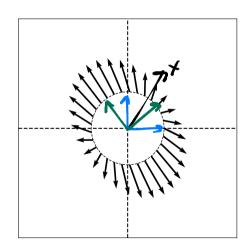
Eigendecomposition

If A is a symmetric matrix, we can pick d of its eigenvectors $\hat{u}^{(1)}, ..., \hat{u}^{(d)}$ to form an orthonormal basis.

- Any vector \vec{x} can be written in terms of this basis.
- ► This is called its **eigendecomposition**:

$$\vec{x} = b_1 \hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2 \hat{u}^{(2)} + ... + b_d \hat{u}^{(d)}$$

Eigendecomposition



Compare working in the standard basis decomposition:

$$A\vec{x} = A(a_1\hat{e}^{(1)} + a_2\hat{e}^{(2)} + \dots + a_d\hat{e}^{(d)})$$
$$= a_1A\hat{e}^{(1)} + a_2A\hat{e}^{(2)} + \dots + a_dA\hat{e}^{(d)}$$

► To working with the eigendecomposition:

$$A\vec{x} = A(b_1\hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2\hat{u}^{(2)} + \dots + b_d\hat{u}^{(d)})$$

$$= b_1A\hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2A\hat{u}^{(2)} + \dots + b_dA\hat{u}^{(d)})$$

$$= \lambda_1b_1\hat{u}^{(1)} + \lambda_2b_2\hat{u}^{(2)} + \dots + \lambda_db_d\hat{u}^{(d)}$$

Main Idea

If A is a symmetrix matrix, an eigenbasis formed from its eigenvectors is an especially natural basis.

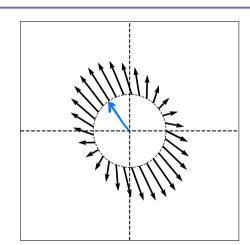
Eigenvectors as Optimizers

Eigenvectors are the solutions to certain common optimization problems involving matrices / linear transformations.

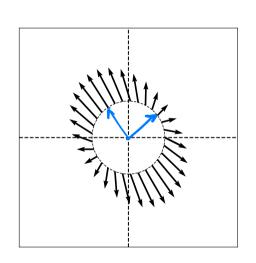
Exercise

Draw a unit vector \vec{x} such that $||A\vec{x}||$ is largest.





Observation #1



- $\vec{f}(\vec{x})$ is longest along the "main" axis of symmetry.
 - In the direction of the eigenvector with largest eigenvalue.

Main Idea

To maximize $||A\vec{x}|| = ||\vec{f}(\vec{x})||$ over unit vectors, pick \vec{x} to be an eigenvector of \vec{f} with the largest eigenvalue (in abs. value).

Main Idea

To **minimize** $\|\vec{f}(\vec{x})\|$ over unit vectors, pick \vec{x} to be an eigenvector of \vec{f} with the smallest eigenvalue (in abs. value).

Proof

Show that the maximizer of $||A\vec{x}||^2$ s.t., $||\vec{x}|| = 1$ is the top eigenvector of A.

Top eigenvector of A.

$$A\vec{x} = A\left(b_1\hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2\hat{u}^{(2)}\right)$$

$$= b_1A\hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2A\hat{u}^{(2)}$$

$$= b_1A\hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2A\hat{u}^{(2)}$$

$$= b_1\lambda_1\hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2\lambda_2\hat{u}^{(2)}$$

$$= b_1\lambda_1\hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2\lambda_2\hat{u}^{(2)}$$

$$= b_1\lambda_1\hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2\lambda_2\hat{u}^{(2)}$$

$$= b_1\lambda_1\hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2\lambda_2\hat{u}^{(2)}$$

 $\|A\vec{x}\|^2 = (b_1\lambda_1\hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2\lambda_2\hat{u}^{(2)}) \cdot (b_1\lambda_1\hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2\lambda_2\hat{u}^{(2)})$ = b222 + b222 fo max, pick b=1 b2=0

Corollary

To maximize $\vec{x} \cdot A\vec{x}$ over unit vectors, pick \vec{x} to be top eigenvector of A.

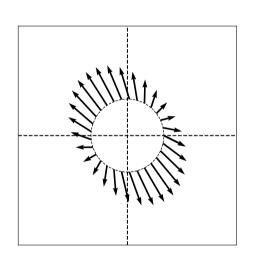
Example

Maximize
$$4x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 + 3x_1x_2$$
 subject to $x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$

$$(x. x2) \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1.5 \\ 1.5 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = 4x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 + 5x_1x_2$$

$$A \qquad \stackrel{?}{\approx}$$

Observation #2



- $\vec{f}(\vec{x})$ rotates \vec{x} towards the "top" eigenvector \vec{v} .
- $ightharpoonup \vec{v}$ is an equilibrium.

The Power Method

- Method for computing the top eigenvector/value of A.
- ► Initialize $\vec{x}^{(0)}$ randomly
- Repeat until convergence:
 - Set $\vec{x}^{(i+1)} = A\vec{x}^{(i)} / ||A\vec{x}^{(i)}||$