

# DSC 140B

## Representation Learning

Lecture 04 | Part 1

**News**

# News

- ▶ Quiz 02 tonight.
- ▶ See Campuswire post re: Peter Chi's study on data science education.
  - ▶ **You get a \$10 gift card to the bookstore.**

▷ Waitlist

Live QA

## Exercise

Are you planning on taking the quiz tonight?

True = Yes

False = No

# *DSC 140B*

## *Representation Learning*

Lecture 04 | Part 2

### **The Spectral Theorem**

# Eigenvectors

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

# Eigenvectors (of Linear Transformations)

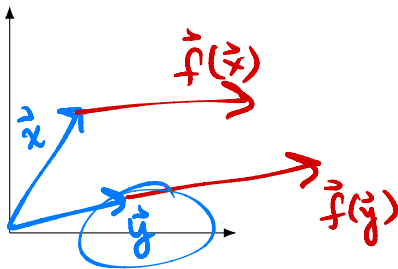
- Let  $\vec{f}$  be a linear transformation. An **eigenvector** of  $\vec{f}$  with **eigenvalue**  $\lambda$  is a nonzero vector  $\vec{v}$  such that  $\vec{f}(\vec{v}) = \lambda\vec{v}$ .

# Importance

- ▶ We will see why eigenvectors are important in the next part.
- ▶ For now: what are they?

# Geometric Interpretation

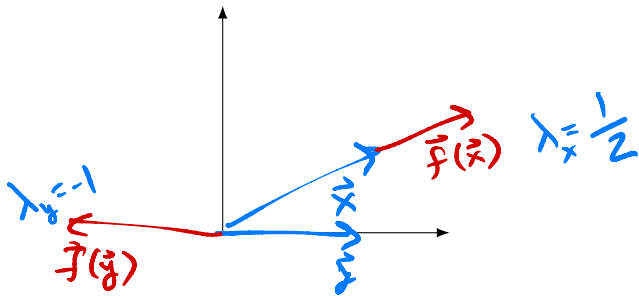
- Recall:  $\vec{v}$  is an **eigenvector** if  $\vec{f}(\vec{v}) = \lambda \vec{v}$ .
- Meaning: when  $\vec{f}$  is applied to one of its eigenvectors,  $\vec{f}$  simply scales it.





# Geometric Interpretation

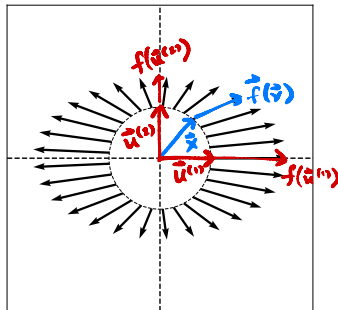
- ▶ The **eigenvalue**,  $\lambda$ , tells us how much the eigenvector is scaled.
  - ▶ If  $\lambda > 1$ , the eigenvector is stretched.
  - ▶ If  $0 < \lambda < 1$ , the eigenvector is shrunk.
  - ▶ If  $\lambda < 0$ , the eigenvector is flipped and scaled.



## Exercise

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

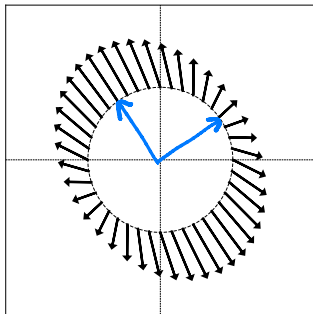
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$



## Exercise

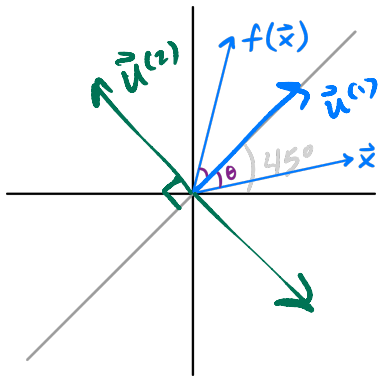
Draw as many (linearly independent) eigenvectors as you can.

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



## Exercise

Consider the linear transformation which mirrors its input over the line of  $45^\circ$ . Give two orthogonal eigenvectors of the transformation.



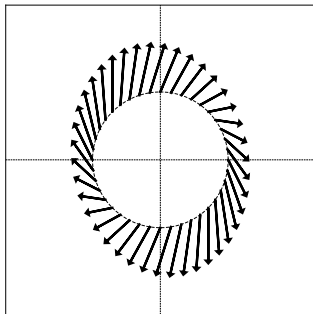
$$\begin{aligned} \vec{f}(\vec{u}^{(1)}) &= \vec{u}^{(1)} & \lambda_1 &= 1 \\ \vec{f}(\vec{u}^{(2)}) &= -\vec{u}^{(2)} & \lambda_2 &= -1 \end{aligned}$$

## Exercise

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

*None*

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



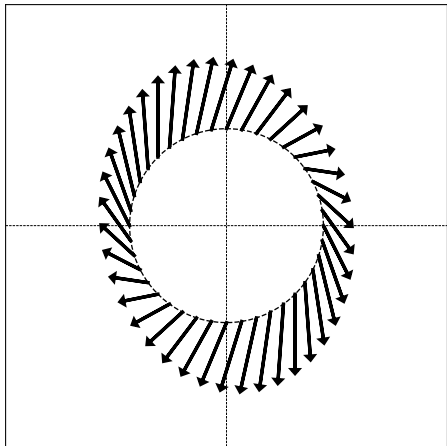
## Caution!

- ▶ Not all matrices have even one eigenvector!<sup>1</sup>
- ▶ When does a matrix have multiple (linearly independent) eigenvectors?

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<sup>1</sup>That is, with a *real-valued* eigenvalue.

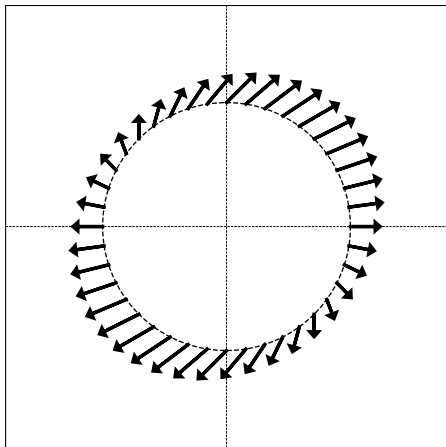
# Example Linear Transformation



*Name*

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

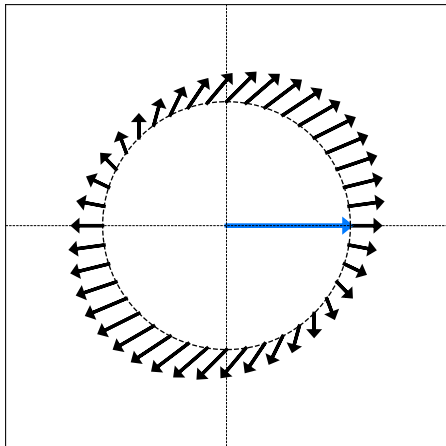
# Example Linear Transformation



$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



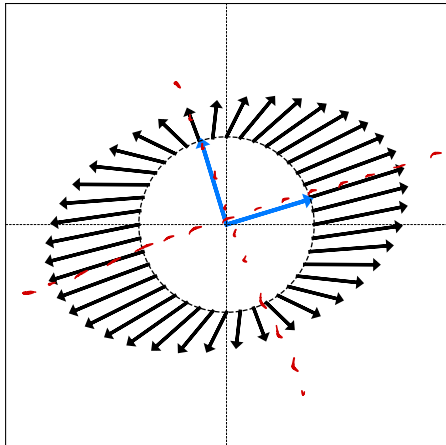
# Example Linear Transformation



$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

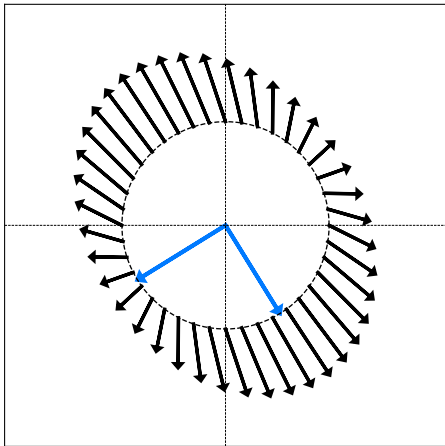
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Example **Symmetric** Linear Transformation



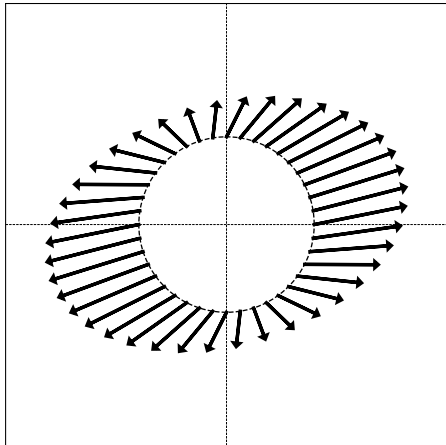
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Example **Symmetric** Linear Transformation



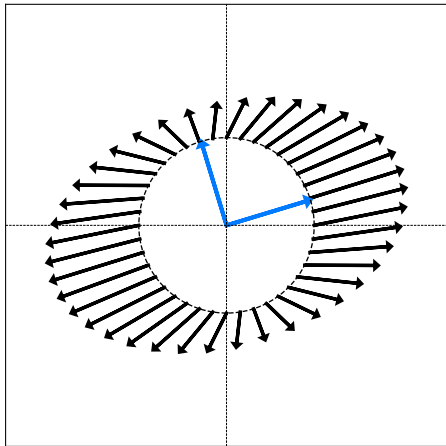
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Example **Symmetric** Linear Transformation



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

# Example **Symmetric** Linear Transformation



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

# Observation

- ▶ It seems that there is something special about **symmetric** matrices...

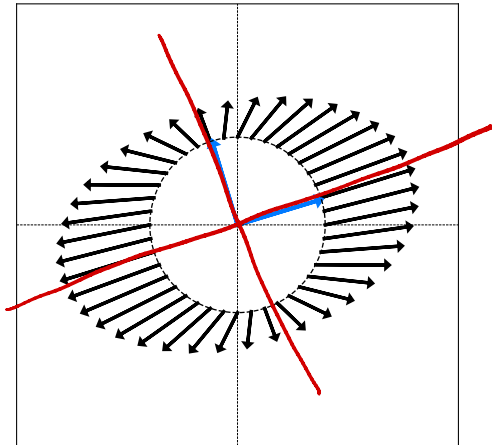
# Symmetric Matrices

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

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 5 \\ 3 & 5 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ▶ A linear transformation  $\vec{f}$  is **symmetric** if its matrix representation is symmetric.

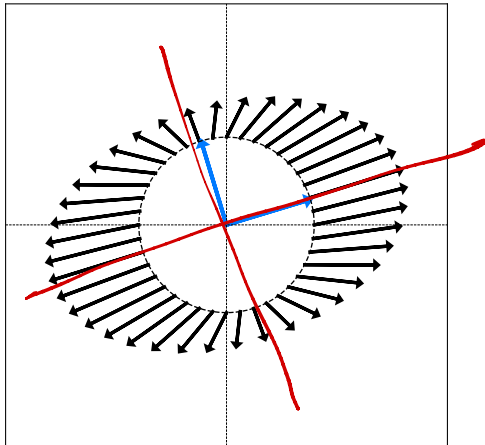
# Observation #1



- Symmetric linear transformations have **axes of symmetry**.
  - One for each dimension.

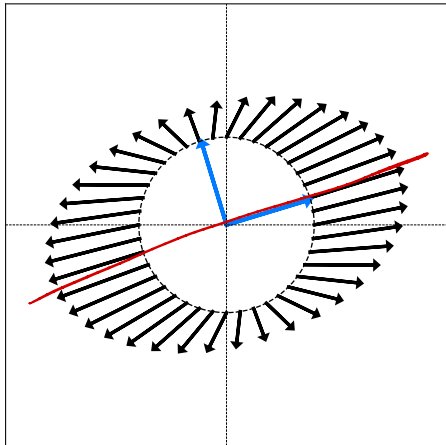


## Observation #2



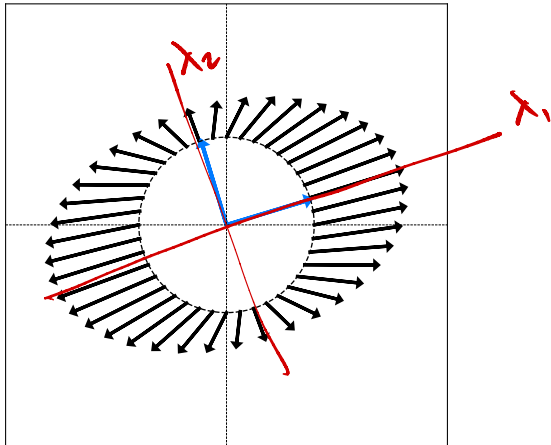
- The axes of symmetry are **orthogonal** to one another.

## Observation #3



- ▶ The action of  $\vec{f}$  along an axis of symmetry is simply to **scale** its input.
- ▶ That is, the **eigenvectors** point along the axes of symmetry.

## Observation #4



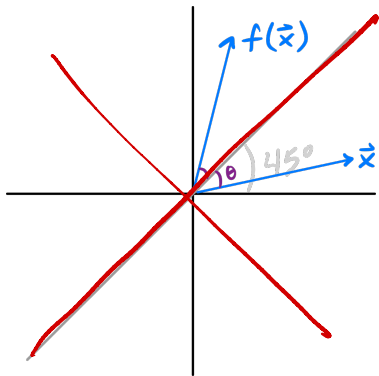
- The size of this scaling can be different for each axis.

## 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.

## Exercise

Consider the linear transformation which mirrors its input over the line of  $45^\circ$ . Give two orthogonal eigenvectors of the transformation.



## How many?

- ▶ The symmetric  $2 \times 2$  matrices we saw all had 2 orthogonal eigenvectors.
- ▶ Does a  $3 \times 3$  symmetric matrix have 3 orthogonal eigenvectors?
- ▶ What about  $n \times n$  symmetric matrices?

# The Spectral Theorem<sup>2</sup>

## Theorem

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  **symmetric** matrix. Then you can always find  $n$  eigenvectors of  $A$  which are all mutually orthogonal.

---

<sup>2</sup>for symmetric matrices

## Careful!

- ▶ The spectral theorem *does not* say that an  $n \times n$  matrix has  $n$  eigenvectors!



Live Q&A

## Exercise

Consider the  $2 \times 2$  identity matrix. How many (unit) eigenvectors does it have?

A. 0

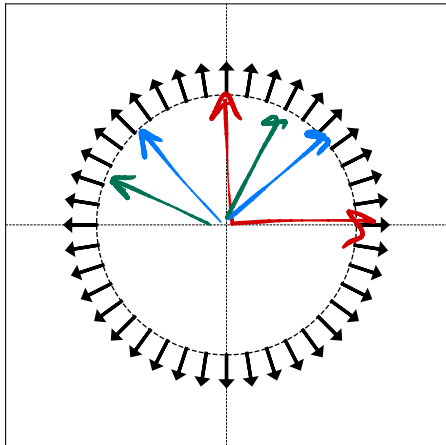
B. 1

C. 2

D.  $\infty$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Solution



- ▶ Infinitely many!
- ▶ *Every* (nonzero) vector is an eigenvector with eigenvalue 1.

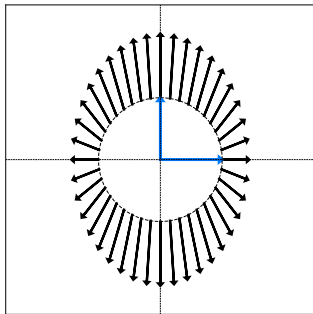
# Solution

- ▶ It would be incorrect to say that the identity matrix has just 2 orthogonal eigenvectors.
- ▶ Instead, the spectral theorem says: “You can find 2 different orthogonal eigenvectors of  $I$ .”
- ▶ There are infinitely-many ways to do this!
  - ▶  $(1, 0)^T$  and  $(0, 1)^T$
  - ▶  $(1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2})^T$  and  $(-1/\sqrt{2}, 1/\sqrt{2})^T$
  - ▶ etc.

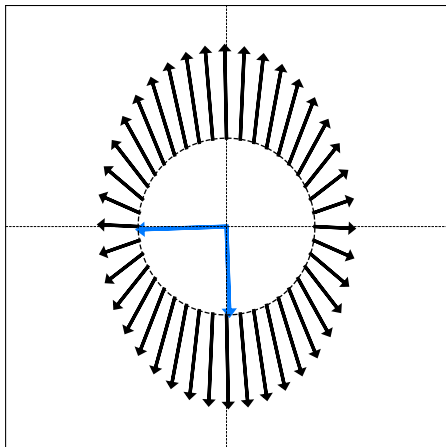
# Diagonal Matrices

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

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

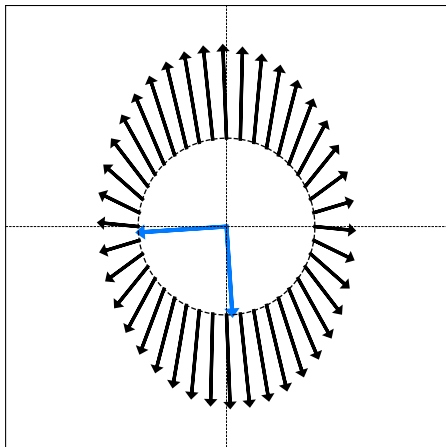


# Off-diagonal elements



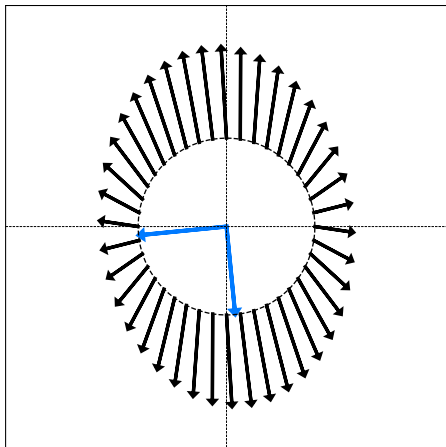
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.1 \\ -0.1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Off-diagonal elements



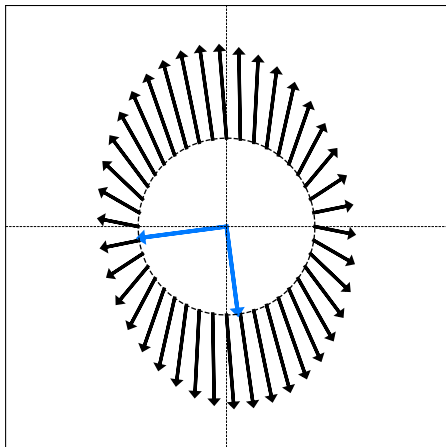
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.2 \\ -0.2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Off-diagonal elements



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

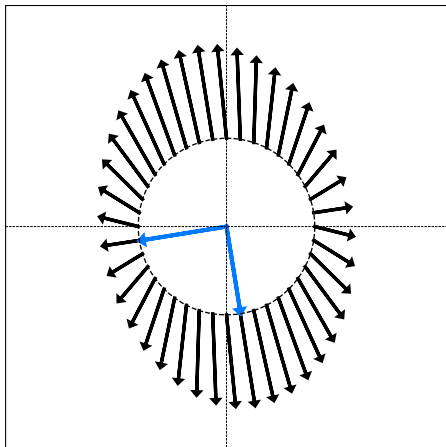
# Off-diagonal elements



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

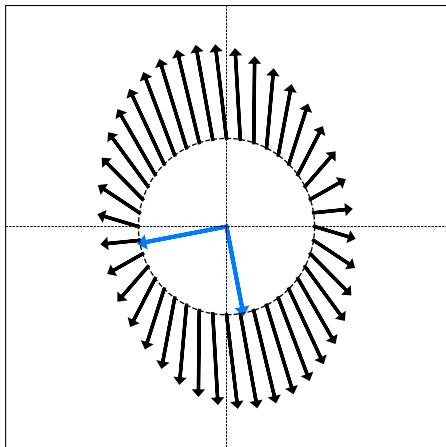


# Off-diagonal elements



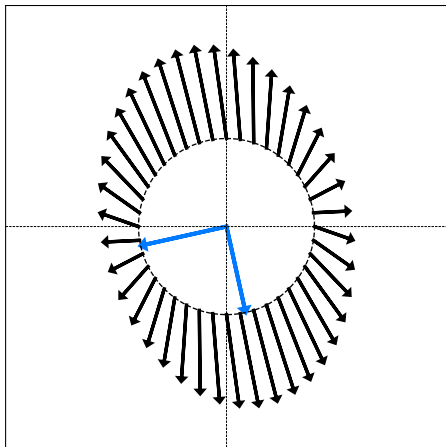
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.5 \\ -0.5 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Off-diagonal elements



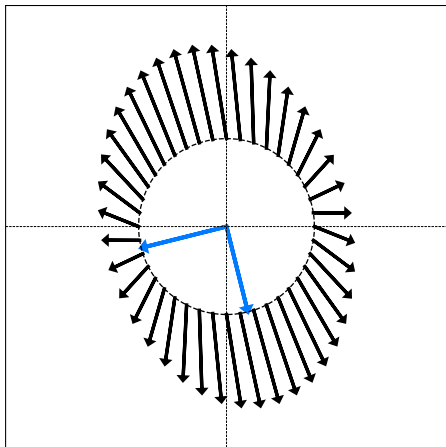
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.6 \\ -0.6 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Off-diagonal elements



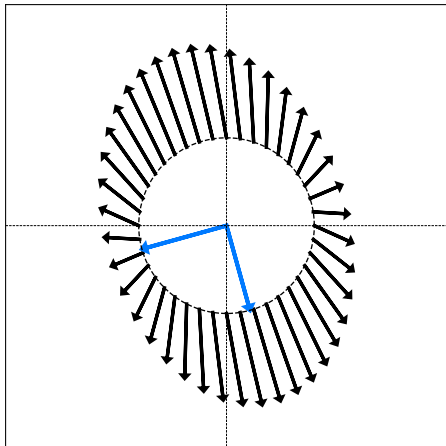
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.7 \\ -0.7 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Off-diagonal elements



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

# Off-diagonal elements



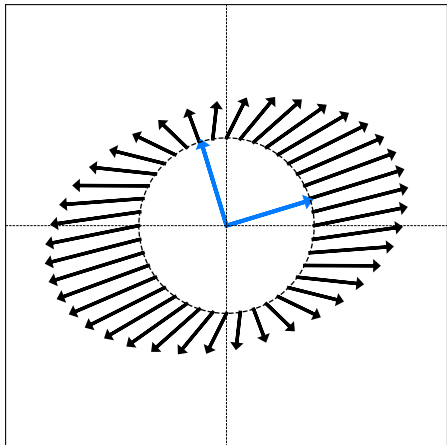
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.9 \\ -0.9 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Non-Diagonal Symmetric Matrices

- ▶ When a symmetric matrix is not diagonal, its eigenvectors are not the standard basis vectors.
- ▶ But they are still orthogonal!

# Computing Eigenvectors

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



Use `np.linalg.eigh`<sup>a</sup>:

```
>> A = np.array([[2, -1], [-1, 3]])  
>> np.linalg.eigh(A)  
(array([1.38196601, 3.61803399]),  
 array([[ -0.85065081, -0.52573111],  
        [ -0.52573111,  0.85065081]]))
```

---

<sup>a</sup>if the input is *symmetric*

# DSC 140B

## Representation Learning

Lecture 04 | Part 3

**Why are eigenvectors useful?**



# OK, but why are eigenvectors<sup>3</sup> useful?

1. Eigenvectors are natural **basis vectors**.
2. Eigenvectors are **equilibria**.
3. Eigenvectors are **maximizers** (or minimizers).

---

<sup>3</sup>of symmetric matrices

# OK, but why are eigenvectors<sup>3</sup> useful?

1. Eigenvectors are natural **basis vectors**.
2. Eigenvectors are **equilibria**.
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---

<sup>3</sup>of symmetric matrices

# Recall: Spectral Theorem

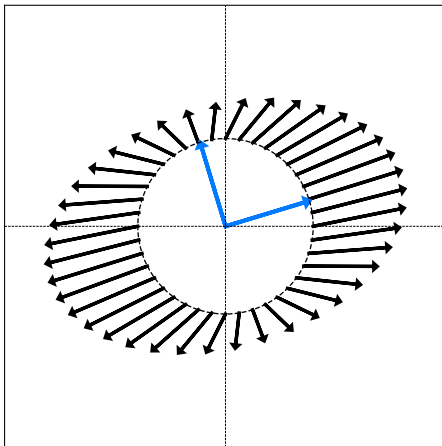
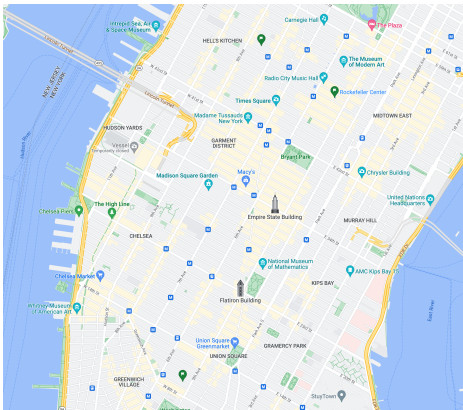
## Theorem

Let  $A$  be a symmetric  $d \times d$  matrix. Then you can find  $d$  orthonormal eigenvectors  $\hat{u}^{(1)}, \dots, \hat{u}^{(d)}$  of  $A$ .

- In other words, you can make an orthonormal basis out of eigenvectors of  $A$ .



# “Nice” Bases




# Using the Eigenbasis

- ▶ When we work in the **eigenbasis** of  $A$ , many things become simpler.

# Example

- ▶ Consider the symmetric matrix  $A$ .
- ▶ If we change basis,  $A$  changes.
- ▶ What does it look like if we change to the eigenbasis of  $A$ ?

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$


Handwritten blue arrows and labels below the matrix  $A$  indicate the columns are mapped to eigenvectors:

- A blue arrow points from the first column (4, 2, 1) to the label  $f(\hat{e}^{(1)})$ .
- A blue arrow points from the second column (2, 3, 2) to the label  $f(\hat{e}^{(2)})$ .
- A blue arrow points from the third column (1, 2, 4) to the label  $f(\hat{e}^{(3)})$ .

# Example

- ▶ Consider the symmetric matrix  $A$ .
- ▶ If we change basis,  $A$  changes.
- ▶ What does it look like if we change to the eigenbasis of  $A$ ?

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{eigenbasis}} [A]_{\mathcal{U}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ▶ It becomes diagonal!

# Example

- ▶ Evaluating the linear transformation becomes easier, too.
- ▶ Suppose  $\vec{x} = (3, 2, 1)^T$ . Before:

$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \times 3 + 2 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 \\ 2 \times 3 + 3 \times 2 + 2 \times 1 \\ 1 \times 3 + 2 \times 2 + 4 \times 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 17 \\ 14 \\ 11 \end{pmatrix}$$



# Example

- In the eigenbasis,  $\vec{x}$ 's coordinates are:

$$[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{U}} = (0, \sqrt{2}, 2\sqrt{3})^T$$

- So:

$$[A]_{\mathcal{U}}[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{U}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 7 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \sqrt{2} \\ 2\sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 3\sqrt{2} \\ 14\sqrt{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

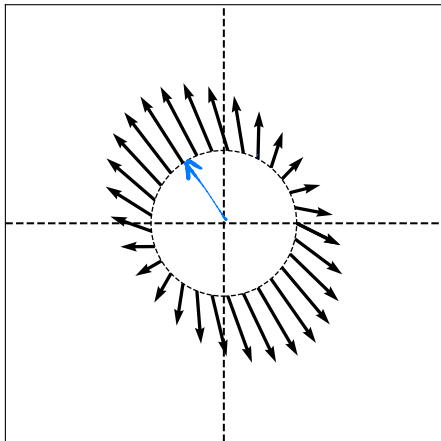
# OK, but why are eigenvectors<sup>4</sup> useful?

1. Eigenvectors are natural **basis vectors**.
2. Eigenvectors are **equilibria**.
3. Eigenvectors are **maximizers** (or minimizers).

---

<sup>4</sup>of symmetric matrices

# Eigenvectors are Equilibria



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

# Use Case: The Power Method

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

# OK, but why are eigenvectors<sup>5</sup> useful?

1. Eigenvectors are natural **basis vectors**.
2. Eigenvectors are **equilibria**.
3. Eigenvectors are **maximizers** (or minimizers).

---

<sup>5</sup>of symmetric matrices

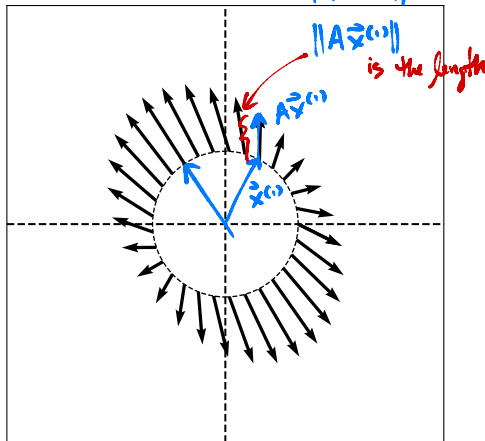
# Eigenvectors as Optimizers

- ▶ Eigenvectors are the solutions to certain common optimization problems involving matrices / linear transformations.
- ▶ This might be **the** most important reason why eigenvectors are useful in **data science**.

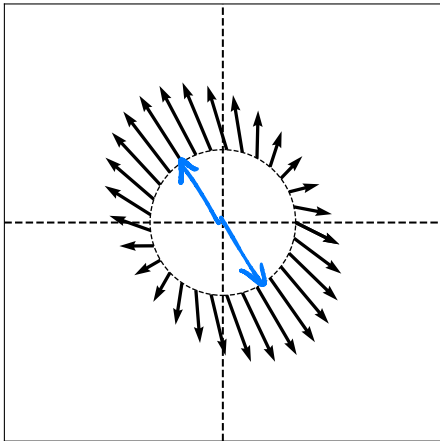
## Exercise

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

$\|f(\vec{x})\|$



# Observation #1

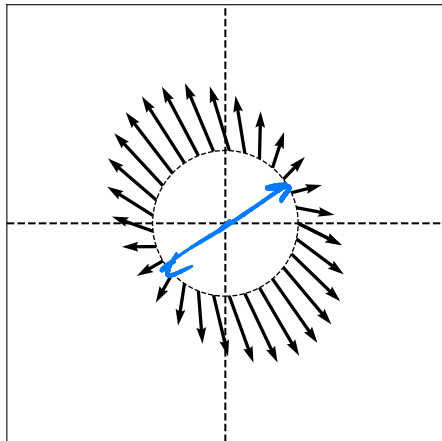


- ▶  $\vec{f}(\vec{x})$  is longest along the “main” axis of symmetry.
  - ▶ In the direction of the eigenvector with largest eigenvalue.

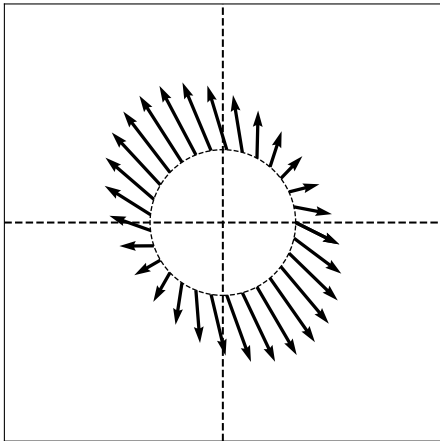


## Exercise

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



## Observation #2



- ▶  $\vec{f}(\vec{x})$  is smallest along the “minor” axis of symmetry.
  - ▶ In the direction of the eigenvector with smallest eigenvalue.

## Main Idea

Suppose  $A$  is a symmetric matrix.

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

To minimize  $\|A\vec{x}\|$ , pick  $\vec{x}$  to be a bottom eigenvector. That is, an eigenvector with the smallest eigenvalue (in abs. value).

## Main Idea

Suppose  $\vec{f}$  is a symmetric linear transformation.

To maximize  $\|\vec{f}(\vec{x})\|$  over unit vectors, pick  $\vec{x}$  to be a top eigenvector of  $\vec{f}$ .

To minimize  $\|\vec{f}(\vec{x})\|$  over unit vectors, pick  $\vec{x}$  to be a bottom eigenvector.

## Also true...

- $\vec{x} \cdot A\vec{x}$  is called a **quadratic form**.

### Theorem

Let  $A$  be a symmetric matrix.

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

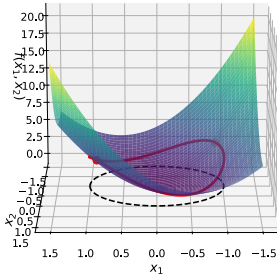
To minimize  $\vec{x} \cdot A\vec{x}$  over unit vectors, pick  $\vec{x}$  to be a bottom eigenvector of  $A$ .

## **By the way...**

- ▶ We'll walk you through the proofs in the homework.

# Example

- **Problem:** Maximize  $f(x_1, x_2) = 4x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 + 3x_1x_2$   
subject to  $x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$



# Solution

- ▶ **Problem:** Maximize  $f(x_1, x_2) = 4x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 + 3x_1x_2$   
subject to  $x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$

- ▶ You can write  $f(x_1, x_2)$  as  $f(\vec{x}) = \vec{x} \cdot A\vec{x}$  where

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 4 & 1.5 \\ 1.5 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ▶ Top eigenvector of  $A$  is approximately:  
 $(0.88, 0.47)^T$
- ▶ Solution: maximized at  $x_1 = 0.88, x_2 = 0.47$



## Next time...

- ▶ Change of basis matrices, diagonalization.
- ▶ Dimensionality reduction (**actual ML!**)