

Lecture 05 | Part 1

**Matrix** 

# **Matrices?**

I thought this week was supposed to be about linear algebra... Where are the matrices?

# **Matrices?**

- I thought this week was supposed to be about linear algebra... Where are the matrices?
- What is a matrix, anyways?

# What is a matrix?

 $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix}$ 

# **Recall: Linear Transformations**

- A **transformation**  $\vec{f}(\vec{x})$  is a function which takes a vector as input and returns a vector of the same dimensionality.
- A transformation  $\vec{f}$  is **linear** if

$$\vec{f}(\alpha \vec{u} + \beta \vec{v}) = \alpha \vec{f}(\vec{u}) + \beta \vec{f}(\vec{v})$$

# **Recall: Linear Transformations**

• Key consequence of **linearity**: to compute  $\vec{f}(\vec{x})$ , only need to know what  $\vec{f}$  does to basis vectors.

### Example:

$$\vec{x} = 3\hat{e}^{(1)} - 4\hat{e}^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) = -\hat{e}^{(1)} + 3\hat{e}^{(2)}$$
$$\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) = 2\hat{e}^{(1)}$$
$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) =$$

# Matrices

- ▶ **Idea**: Since  $\vec{f}$  is defined by what it does to basis, place  $\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)})$ ,  $\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)})$ , ... into a table as columns
- This is the matrix representing<sup>2</sup>  $\vec{f}$

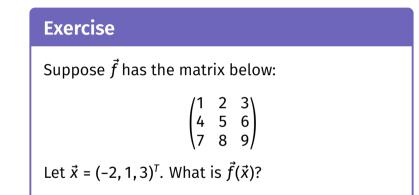
$$\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) = -\hat{e}^{(1)} + 3\hat{e}^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} -1\\3 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 2\\3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) = 2\hat{e}^{(1)} = \begin{pmatrix} 2\\0 \end{pmatrix}$$

<sup>2</sup>with respect to the standard basis  $\hat{e}^{(1)}, \hat{e}^{(2)}$ 

#### Exercise

Write the matrix representing  $\vec{f}$  with respect to the standard basis, given:

$$\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) = (1, 4, 7)^{T}$$
$$\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) = (2, 5, 7)^{T}$$
$$\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(3)}) = (3, 6, 9)^{T}$$



#### Main Idea

A square  $(n \times n)$  matrix can be interpreted as a compact representation of a linear transformation  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ .

# What is matrix multiplication?

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \\ \end{pmatrix}$$

## A low-level definition

$$(A\vec{x})_i = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_j$$

## A low-level interpretation

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 & 9 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = -2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 7 \end{pmatrix} + 1 \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix} + 3 \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

# In general...

$$\begin{pmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \vec{a}^{(1)} & \vec{a}^{(2)} & \vec{a}^{(3)} \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \vec{a}^{(1)} + x_2 \vec{a}^{(2)} + x_3 \vec{a}^{(3)}$$

# **Matrix Multiplication**

$$\vec{x} = x_1 \hat{e}^{(1)} + x_2 \hat{e}^{(2)} + x_3 \hat{e}^{(3)} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)^T$$
  
$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = x_1 \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) + x_2 \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) + x_3 \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(3)})$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) & \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) & \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(3)}) \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \end{pmatrix}$$
$$A\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) & \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) & \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(3)}) \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= x_1 \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) + x_2 \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) + x_3 \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(3)})$$

# **Matrix Multiplication**

Matrix A represents a linear transformation f
With respect to the standard basis
If we use a different basis, the matrix changes!

• Matrix multiplication  $A\vec{x}$  evaluates  $\vec{f}(\vec{x})$ 

# What are they, *really*?

Matrices are sometimes just tables of numbers.

But they often have a deeper meaning.

#### Main Idea

A square  $(n \times n)$  matrix can be interpreted as a compact representation of a linear transformation  $\vec{f} : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ .

What's more, if A represents  $\vec{f}$ , then  $A\vec{x} = \vec{f}(\vec{x})$ ; that is, multiplying by A is the same as evaluating  $\vec{f}$ .

# Example

$$\vec{x} = 3\hat{e}^{(1)} - 4\hat{e}^{(2)} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \end{pmatrix} \qquad A =$$
  
$$\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) = -\hat{e}^{(1)} + 3\hat{e}^{(2)}$$
  
$$\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) = 2\hat{e}^{(1)}$$
  
$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = \qquad A\vec{x} =$$

## Note

• All of this works because we assumed  $\vec{f}$  is **linear**.

• If it isn't, evaluating  $\vec{f}$  isn't so simple.

## Note

All of this works because we assumed  $\vec{f}$  is **linear**.

- If it isn't, evaluating  $\vec{f}$  isn't so simple.
- Linear algebra = simple!

# **Matrices in Other Bases**

The matrix of a linear transformation wrt the standard basis:

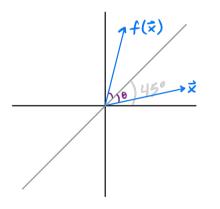
$$\begin{pmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) & \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) & \cdots & \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(d)}) \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \end{pmatrix}$$

▶ With respect to basis *U*:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ [\vec{f}(\hat{u}^{(1)})]_{\mathcal{U}} & [\vec{f}(\hat{u}^{(2)})]_{\mathcal{U}} & \cdots & [\vec{f}(\hat{u}^{(d)})]_{\mathcal{U}} \\ \downarrow & \downarrow & \downarrow \end{pmatrix}$$

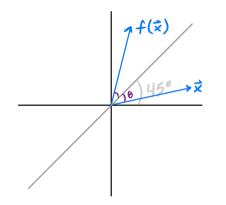
# **Matrices in Other Bases**

• Consider the transformation  $\vec{f}$  which "mirrors" a vector over the line of 45°.



What is its matrix in the standard basis?

## **Matrices in Other Bases**



- Let  $\hat{u}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1, 1)^T$  Let  $\hat{u}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1, 1)^T$  What is  $[\vec{f}(\hat{u}^{(1)})]_{\mathcal{U}}$ ?
- $\vdash [\vec{f}(\hat{u}^{(2)})]_{\prime\prime}?$
- What is the matrix?

Representation Learning

Lecture 05 | Part 2

The Spectral Theorem

# Eigenvectors

Let A be an n × n matrix. An eigenvector of A with eigenvalue λ is a nonzero vector v such that Av = λv.

# 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  $f(\vec{v}) = \lambda \vec{v}$ .

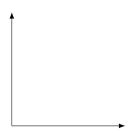
## Importance

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

# **Geometric Interpretation**

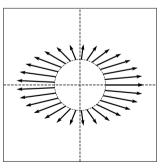
When  $\vec{f}$  is applied to one of its eigenvectors,  $\vec{f}$  simply scales it.

Possibly by a negative amount.



### Exercise

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



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

# **Finding Eigenvectors**

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

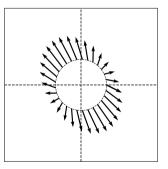
# Procedure

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.

### Exercise

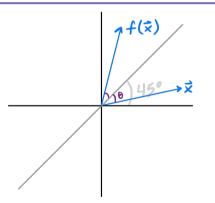
# Draw as many (linearly independent) eigenvectors as you can:



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

#### Exercise

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



### Alternate Procedure: Guess and Check

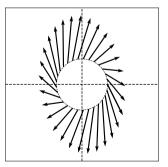
1. Guess a vector  $\vec{x}$ .

2. Check that  $\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = \lambda \vec{x}$ .

#### Exercise

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!<sup>3</sup>

When does a matrix have multiple (linearly independent) eigenvectors?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>That is, with a *real-valued* eigenvalue.

### **Symmetric Matrices**

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

# The Spectral Theorem<sup>4</sup>

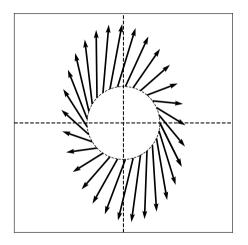
Theorem: Let A be an n × n symmetric matrix. Then there exist n eigenvectors of A which are all mutually orthogonal.

<sup>4</sup>for symmetric matrices

## What?

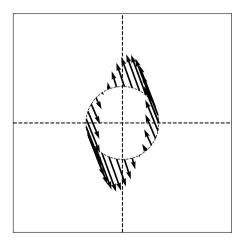
- What does the spectral theorem mean?
- What is an eigenvector, really?
- Why are they useful?

#### **Example Linear Transformation**



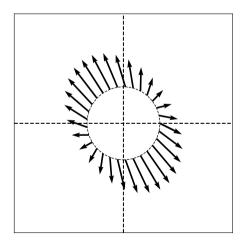
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 5 \\ -10 & 12 \end{pmatrix}$$

#### **Example Linear Transformation**

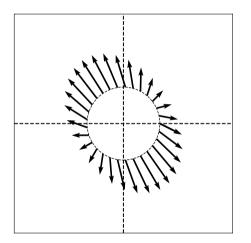


$$A = \begin{pmatrix} -2 & -1 \\ -5 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

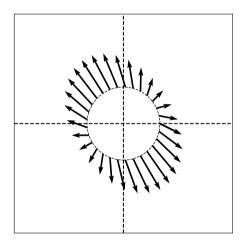
#### Example Symmetric Linear Transformation



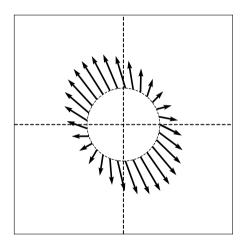
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$



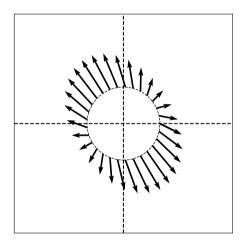
 Symmetric linear transformations have axes of symmetry.



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



The action of f along an axis of symmetry is simply to scale its input.



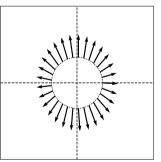
 The size of this scaling can be different for each axis.

#### Main Idea

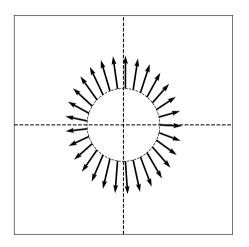
The **eigenvectors** of a symmetric linear transformation (matrix) are its axes of symmetry. The **eigenvalues** describe how much each axis of symmetry is scaled.

# **Diagonal Matrices**

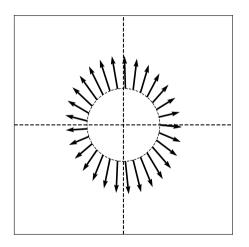
If A is diagonal, its eigenvectors are simply the standard basis vectors.



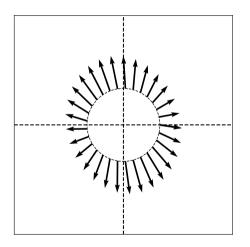




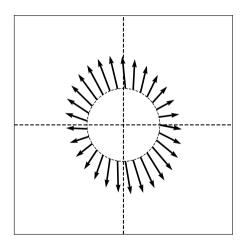
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.1 \\ -0.1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



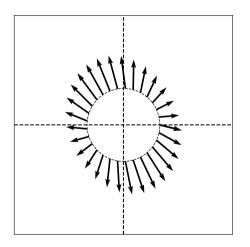
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.2 \\ -0.2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



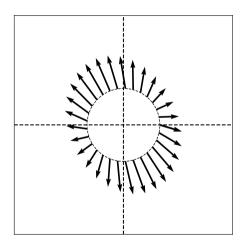
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.3 \\ -0.3 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



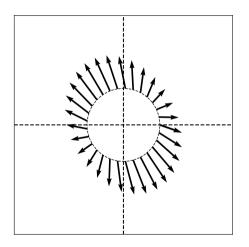
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.4 \\ -0.4 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



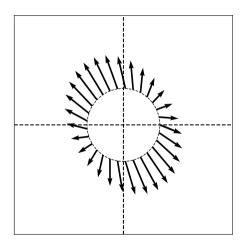
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.5 \\ -0.5 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



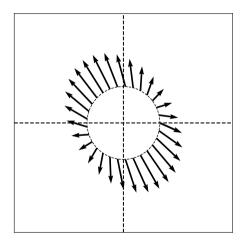
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.6 \\ -0.6 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



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



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



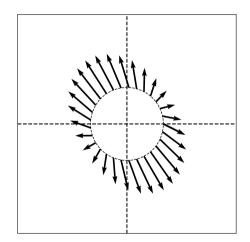
$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -0.9 \\ -0.9 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

# 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!

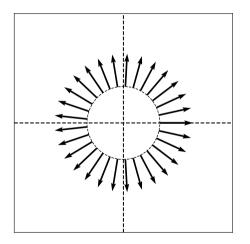
## **The Spectral Theorem**<sup>5</sup>

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



<sup>5</sup>for symmetric matrices

#### What about total symmetry?



 Every vector is an eigenvector.

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

## **Computing Eigenvectors**

