

Linear Algebra

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Linear Algebra

- Vectors, matrices
- System of linear equations
- Eigenanalysis
- Singular value Decomposition
- Other matrix decompositions
- Tensors Fundamentals
- BLAS.



Vectors



A *vector* of dimension *n* is an 1D array of numbers:

$$\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_n]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

- x_1, \ldots, x_n : *n* vector coordinates.
- Vector inner product:

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = \sum_{k=1}^n x_k y_k$$



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Vectors

Geometrical vector interpretation:

- a point in a Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n .
- Polar, spherical vector representation in R², R³: magnitude |x| and direction angle(s).

2.5 1.5 0.5 -0.5 0.5 1.5 2.5 3.5 0 2 3 -0.5

Cartecian vector $x = [4,2]^T$ representation.





Matrices and tensors

A matrix A is a $n \times m$ table (2D array) of numbers:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{ij} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \dots \mathbf{a}_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_{11} & \alpha_{12} & \cdots & \alpha_{1m} \\ \alpha_{21} & \alpha_{22} & \cdots & \alpha_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \alpha_{n1} & \alpha_{n2} & \cdots & \alpha_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\mathbf{a}_j, j = 1, \dots, m$: matrix columns.
- *k*-th order *tensor*: A k-D array of numbers $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times \cdots \times n_k}$.



Matrix Properties



• The multiplication of *inverse matrix* A^{-1} of a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ with matrix A is the identity $n \times n$ matrix I:

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}.$$

- It exists, if matrix determinant $det(\mathbf{A}) \neq 0$.
- Inverse matrix properties:

 $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}.$

- A square matrix that is not invertible is called singular.
- A is singular, if its rank is less than n.



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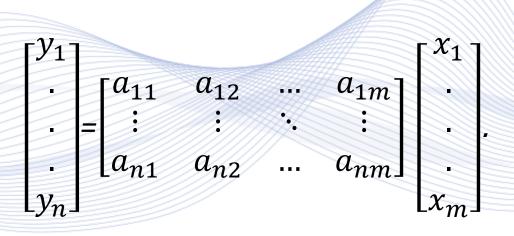


System of linear equations

System of linear equations

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}.$$

- Unknown vector: $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$.
- *m* equations:







System of linear equations

System of linear equations

 $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}.$

• If m = n and A^{-1} exists, the solution is:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{y}.$$

- If m > n, the system is **over-determined**.
 - Possibly no solution.
- If m < n, the system is **under-determined**.
 - Possibly multiple solutions.

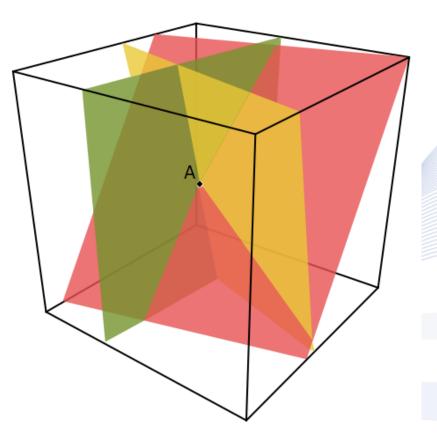




System of linear equations

Linear system of three variables:

- Each equation determines a plane in space \mathbb{R}^3 .
- Their intersection point is the solution of the system.







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VML

Eigenanalysis

- Eigenvectors and eigenvalues of a matrix are important as they provide fundamental information about a matrix.
- They allow easy determination as to whether a matrix is positive definite or not.
- Also allow determination as to whether a matrix is invertible and how sensitive to numerical errors the inverse will be.





Eigenanalysis

If A is an $n \times n$ matrix, its eigenvalue λ and eigenvector v satisfy:

$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v}=\lambda\mathbf{v}.$

Equivalently, they form a solution of the homogeneous linear equation system:

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}_n)\mathbf{v} = 0,$$

where I_n is a unitary $n \times n$ matrix.





Spectral Theorem

Information Analysis Lab

Matrix A is *guaranteed* to be invertible, if $\lambda_i \neq 0$ for all i = 1, ..., n.

This is equivalent to matrix determinant being not equal to 0: $det(\mathbf{A}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \neq 0.$

 In practical Machine Learning and Computer Vision applications, matrices are estimated from sample data.

Therefore may be *ill-conditioned*, if one or more of the eigenvalues are close to zero.



Positive definite matrices

Positive definite matrix definition: $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{C} \mathbf{x} > 0, \qquad \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$

for symmetric matrices C.

• Eigenvalues of a positive definite matrix are positive:

 $\lambda_i > 0, i = 1, \dots, n.$

Determinant of a positive definite matrix:

 $\det(\mathbf{C}) = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i > 0.$





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15

10

10

20

30

36

-10

matrix

Singular Value Decomposition

SingularValueDecomposition(SVD) deals with:

- Systems of equations whose matrices are singular or numerically very close to singular.
- Solving most Linear Least-Squares (LLS) problems.
- Providing low rank
 approximations.

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60

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Singular Value Decomposition

Any $n \times m$ matrix **A** can be decomposed into:

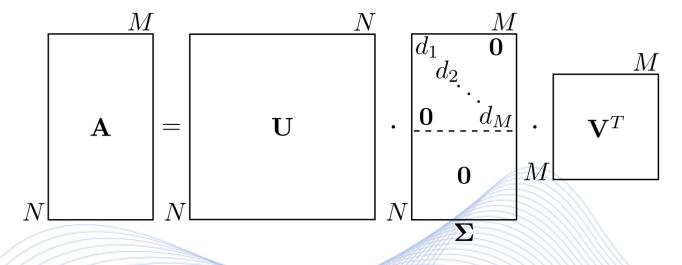
 $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T,$

- **U** ($n \times n$ orthogonal) unitary matrix,
- Σ ($n \times m$ diagonal) matrix and
- \mathbf{V}^T ($m \times m$ orthogonal) unitary matrix.
- Singular values of A are the $r = \min(n, m)$ $\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r$ diagonal elements of Σ .





Singular Value Decomposition



Singular Value Matrix Decomposition.





Cholesky decomposition

 $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{N} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{L} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{L} \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{L} \end{bmatrix} \cdot$

Cholesky matrix decomposition.



Cholesky decomposition



Cholesky matrix decomposition is mainly used for the numerical solution of linear equations Ax = b, when A is **Symmetric Positive Definite** (**SPD**) matrix.

• We first compute the matrix L as described above. Then, we solve the equation:

$$\mathbf{L}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{b},$$

where $y = L^T x$, using forward substitution and, finally, we solve:

$$\mathbf{L}^T \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b},$$



CUR Matrix Decomposition



- In **CUR matrix approximation**, the multiplication of three matrices $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times c}$, $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times r}$, $\mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times n}$ closely approximate a given matrix \mathbf{A} , by minimizing the approximation error $\|\mathbf{A} \mathbf{CUR}\|_F$.
- A CUR approximation can be used as low-rank approximation.





CUR Matrix Decomposition

 $\mathbf{A} \approx \mathbf{C} \cdot \mathbf{U} \cdot \mathbf{M}$ $\mathbf{A} \approx \mathbf{N}$

CUR matrix approximation.



Non-negative matrix factorization



- Data matrix **X** is an $n \times N$ matrix containing N data vectors $\mathbf{X} = [\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, ..., \mathbf{x}_N].$
- It can be decomposed in a product of $n \times p$ and $p \times N$ matrices F and H, respectively: X = FH.
- p is smaller than N and n.
- All elements of matrices **F**, **H** should be positive: $f_{ij} \ge 0$,



Non-negative matrix factorization VML



NMF image decomposition.





Other matrix decompositions

Some other matrix decompositions are:

- **Polar decomposition**, applicable to a square, complex matrix A: A = UP or A = P'U.
- Mostow decomposition, applicable to a square, complex, non-singular matrix A: $A = Ue^{iM}e^{S}$.
- Sinkhorn normal form, applicable to a square, real matrix A with strictly positive elements $A = D_1SD_2$.

There are many more matrix decompositions.





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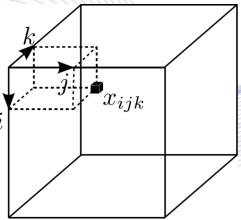


- A *tensor* is a multidimensional array of numerical values, whose elements are identified using multiple indices.
- The order (degree) of a tensor is equal to the dimensionality of its array.
- Tensors can be considered to be a generalization of scalars, vectors and matrices.
 - A scalar $x \in \mathbb{R}$ is a 0th order tensor, a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1}$ is a 1st order tensor and a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2}$ is a 2nd order tensor.





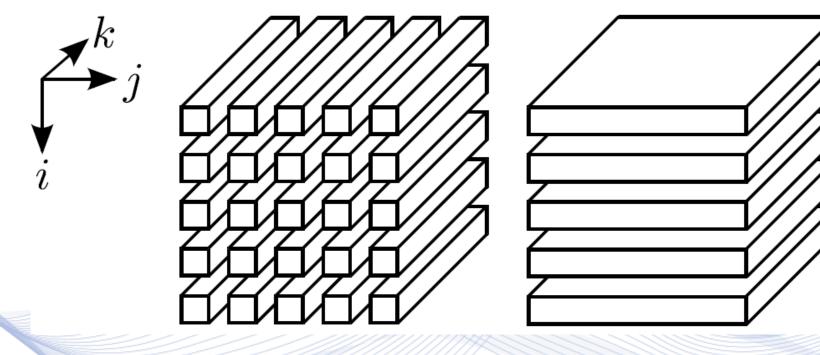
- Color images and grayscale videos can be represented as 3D matrices (3rd order tensors), while color videos can be represented as 4D matrices (4th order tensors).
- In social media, tensors can be used to represent hypergraphs and multigraphs.





3rd order tensor.





Tube fibers $X_{(:jk)}$ of 3rd order tensor.

Horizontal slices $X_{(i::)}$ of a 3rd order tensor.





• The Frobenius norm of a *k*-th order $n_1 \times n_2 \times \cdots \times n_k$ tensor $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1 \times n_2 \times \cdots \times n_k}$ is defined as:

$$\|\mathbf{X}\|_{F} \triangleq \sqrt{\sum_{i_{1}=1}^{n_{1}} \sum_{i_{2}=1}^{n_{2}} \dots \sum_{i_{k}=1}^{n_{k}} X_{i_{1}i_{2}\dots i_{k}}^{2}}.$$

It can be used to measure the distance between tensors X and Y:

$$d(X - Y) = \|\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i_1=1}^{n_1} \sum_{i_2=1}^{n_2} \dots \sum_{i_k=1}^{n_k} (X_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_k} - Y_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_k})^2}.$$





• The *inner product* $z \triangleq \langle \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} \rangle$ of the k-th order $n_1 \times n_2 \times \cdots \times n_k$ tensors \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} is a scalar value define as:

$$z \triangleq \sum_{i_1=1}^{n_1} \sum_{i_2=1}^{n_2} \dots \sum_{i_k=1}^{n_k} X_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_k} Y_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_k}.$$

• The inner product $\mathbf{Z} \triangleq \langle \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} \rangle_{p,q}$ of a k-th order tensor \mathbf{X} and a *l*-th order tensor \mathbf{Y} ($n_p = m_q = U$) is a (k + l - 1)-th order $n_1 \times n_2 \times \cdots \times n_{p-1} \times n_{p+1} \times \cdots \times n_K \times m_1 \times m_2 \times \cdots \times m_{q-1} \times m_{q+1} \times \cdots \times m_l$ tensor:

$$z_{i_1i_2\dots i_{p-1}i_{p+1}\dots i_k j_1 j_2\dots j_{q-1}j_{q+1}\dots j_l} \triangleq \sum_{u=1}^{\infty} x_{i_1i_2\dots i_{p-1}ui_{p+1}\dots i_k} y_{i_1i_2\dots j_{q-1}\dots uj_{q+1}\dots i_k}$$



- The m-mode $\mathbf{Z} \triangleq \mathbf{X} \times_m \mathbf{Y}$ product of k-th order tensor \mathbf{X} and a $m \times n_m$ matrix \mathbf{Y} is a k-th order $n_1 \times n_2 \times \cdots \times n_{M-1} \times m \times n_{m+1} \times \cdots \times n_k$ tensor defined as: $\mathbf{Z} = \langle \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y} \rangle_{m,2}$.
- The outer product Z ≜ x ⊗ y of a m dimensional vector x with a n-dimensional vector y is a m × n matrix, given by:

$$z_{ij} = x_i y_j$$





• The outer product $Z \triangleq x \otimes Y$ of a m-dimensional vector x and a k – th order tensor Y, is a (k + 1) – th order tensor, defined by multiplying all the elements of Y with each element of x:

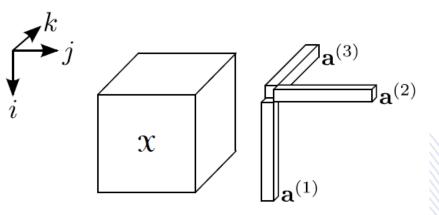
 $z_{ij_ij_2\dots j_k} = x_i y_{j_1j_2\dots j_k}.$

• The outer product $\mathbf{Z} \triangleq \mathbf{X} \otimes \mathbf{Y}$ of a k – th order tensor \mathbf{X} and a l – th order tensor \mathbf{Y} is a (k + l) – th order $n_1 \times n_2 \times \cdots \times n_k \times m_1 \times m_2 \times \cdots \times m_l$ tensor:

 $Z_{i_l i_2 \dots i_k j_l j_2 \dots j_l} = X_{i_1 i_2 \dots i_k} Y_{j_l j_2 \dots j_l}$







Rank 1 tensor.





• The rank of a tensor r(X) is the smallest integer r, which indicates the number of the rank-one tensors, whose sum generates X:

$$\mathbf{X} = \sum_{i=1}^r \mathbf{B}_i$$
 ,

- \mathbf{B}_i , i = 1,2, ..., r are the rank-one tensors.
- This is a rank r decomposition of tensor X.
- The two main types of tensor decomposition are PARAFAC and Tucker decomposition.

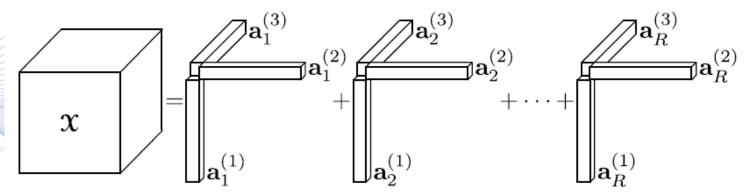




Parallel Factor Analysis (**PARAFAC**) decomposes a k – th order tensor into a sum of R rank-one tensors each composed of k linear components:

$$\mathbf{X} = \sum_{r=1}^{K} \lambda_r \mathbf{a}_r^{(1)} \times \mathbf{a}_r^{(2)} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{a}_r^{(k)}, \qquad \mathbf{a}_r^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1}, \mathbf{a}_r^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_2}, \dots, \mathbf{a}_r^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_k}.$$

• λ_r is a factor scaling the contribution of the r –th rank-one tensor.

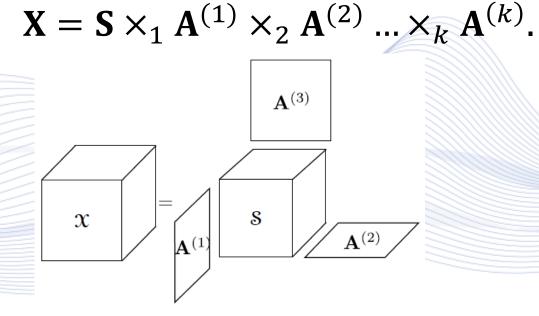




PARAFAC tensor decomposition.



Tucker decomposition decomposes a k-th order tensor into mode products of a core tensor $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_1 \times m_2 \times \cdots m_k}$ and k matrices $\mathbf{A}^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_i \times m_i}$, i = 1, ..., k, each of them corresponding to a mode of \mathbf{X} :



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Tucker tensor decomposition.



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Basic Linear Algebra Subprograms (BLAS) Library



- BLAS has three routine sets ("levels").
- They correspond to both the chronological order of definition and publication, as well as the degree of algorithm complexity.







Thank you very much for your attention!

More material in http://icarus.csd.auth.gr/cvml-web-lecture-series/

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