Random Matrices and Machine Learning

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Reminders: the sample covariance matrix model

Spectral analysis

Statistical Inference

Application to machine learning: spectral clustering

Outline

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The SCM model:

• $X_n = (X_{ij}) = [x_1, \dots, x_n] \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times n}$ (or $\mathbb{R}^{N \times n}$) with i.i.d. zero mean unit variance entries and

$$\Sigma_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} [\boldsymbol{s}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{s}_n] = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} [R_N^{1/2} \boldsymbol{x}_1, \cdots, R_N^{1/2} \boldsymbol{x}_n]$$

with $R_N \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times N} \succeq 0$, so that

$$n\mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{s}_1\boldsymbol{s}_1^*=R_N^{1/2}\mathbb{E}\boldsymbol{x}_1\boldsymbol{x}_1^*R_N^{1/2}=R_N$$

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the matrix

$$\hat{R}_N = \frac{1}{n} R_N^{1/2} X_n X_n^* R_N^{1/2} = \Sigma_n \Sigma_n^* = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \boldsymbol{s}_i \boldsymbol{s}_i^*$$

is the sample covariance matrix.

Further notations:

• for $\lambda_1(A) \ge \ldots \lambda_N(A)$ the eigenvalues of Hermitian (symmetric) A:

$$\begin{split} L_N &\equiv \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_{\lambda_i(\hat{R}_N)} \quad \text{(random)} \\ L_N^R &\equiv \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \delta_{\lambda_i(R_N)} \quad \text{(deterministic)} \end{split}$$

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- $\blacktriangleright \ L^R_N \to L^R_\infty \text{ in distribution}.$

Theorem (Limiting spectral distribution) For $z \in \mathbb{C}^+ = \{w \in \mathbb{C}, \Im[w] > 0\}$, as $n, N \to \infty$, $q_n(z) \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} t(z)$

where t(z) is the unique solution in \mathbb{C}^+ of

$$t(z) = \int \frac{L_{\infty}^{R}(du)}{-z(1 + uct(z)) + (1 - c)u}$$

As a consequence,

$$L_N \xrightarrow{a.s.} \mathcal{F}$$

with \mathcal{F} the unique probability measure such that $t(z) = \int (t-z)^{-1} \mathcal{F}(dt)$.

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Figure: In red, limiting density for c = .1, c = .3, c = .6. In blue, 3 population eigenvalues of R_N , each of equal multiplicity.

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Remark. $t(z), \tilde{t}(z)$ are linked by $czt(z) = 1 - c + z\tilde{t}(z)$ (from $\tilde{\mathcal{F}} = (1 - c)\delta_0 + c\mathcal{F}$).

Proof. Starting from the result (inverted on both sides):

$$\frac{1}{\tilde{t}(z)} = -z + c \int \frac{u L_{\infty}^R(du)}{1 + u \tilde{t}(z)}$$

multiply by $\tilde{t}(z) \ (\neq 0)$ to get

$$1 = -z\tilde{t}(z) + c\left(1 - \int \frac{L_{\infty}^{R}(du)}{1 + u\tilde{t}(z)}\right)$$

so that, using $czt(z)=1-c+z\tilde{t}(z)\text{,}$

$$t(z) = -\frac{1}{z} \int \frac{L_{\infty}^{R}(du)}{1 + u\tilde{t}(z)} = \int \frac{L_{\infty}^{R}(du)}{-z - zu\tilde{t}(z)}$$

and finally, again with $czt(z)=1-c+z\tilde{t}(z)\text{,}$

$$t(z) = \int \frac{L_{\infty}^{R}(du)}{-z(1 + uct(z)) + (1 - c)u}$$

Both results are thus equivalent.

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Spectral analysis General result

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- from $\Sigma_n \Sigma_n^*$, estimate eigenvectors $u_1(R_N), \ldots, u_N(R_N)$?

Outline

Spectral analysis General results

Proposition (Condition on density measure)

For g_{μ} Stieltjes transform of μ with real support and finite mass. Assume

$$\frac{1}{\pi}\lim_{y\downarrow 0}\Im\left[g_{\mu}(x_{0}+\imath y)\right]\equiv I(x_{0}) \text{ exists}$$

for all $x \in \mathcal{V}(x_0)$. Then μ has a density in x_0 equal to $I(x_0)$. **Proof**. See course notes.

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Beyond the spectrum: Most importantly, this is a required first step to:

- create a strong link between R_N and $\Sigma_n \Sigma_n^*$
- provide new statistical inference tools on R_N (eigenvalues and eigenvectors).

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Two fundamental identities: for all $z_1, z_2 \in \mathbb{C} \setminus \mathbb{R}$,

$$(\star) \quad \left(\tilde{t}(z_1) - \tilde{t}(z_2)\right) \left(1 - c \int \frac{\tilde{t}(z_1)\tilde{t}(z_2)u^2 L_{\infty}^R(du)}{(1 + u\tilde{t}(z_1))(1 + u\tilde{t}(z_2))}\right) = (z_1 - z_2)\tilde{t}(z_1)\tilde{t}(z_2)$$

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Elements of proof.

▶ follows immediately from the "scalar resolvent identity": $a^{-1} - b^{-1} = a^{-1}b^{-1}(b-a)$ (remember the matrix form $A^{-1} - B^{-1} = A^{-1}(B-A)B^{-1}$).

▶ applied to the scalar inverse $\tilde{t}(z) = (-z + c \int u/(1 + u\tilde{t}(z))L_{\infty}^{R}(du))^{-1}$.

Important corollary: taking $z_1 = z \in \mathbb{C}^+$ and $z_2 = \overline{z}$ in (\star) ,

$$2\imath\Im[\tilde{t}(\boldsymbol{z})]\left(1-c|\tilde{t}(\boldsymbol{z})|^2\int\frac{u^2L_{\infty}^R(du)}{|1+u\tilde{t}(\boldsymbol{z})|^2}\right)=2\imath\Im[\boldsymbol{z}]|\tilde{t}(\boldsymbol{z})|^2$$

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$$2i\Im[\tilde{t}(z)]\left(1-c|\tilde{t}(z)|^2 \int \frac{u^2 L_{\infty}^R(du)}{|1+u\tilde{t}(z)|^2}\right) = 2i\Im[z]|\tilde{t}(z)|^2$$

so that, since $\Im[z] > 0$ and $\Im[\tilde{t}(z)] > 0$ (Stieltjes transform of real supported measure),

$$(\star\star\star)\quad\forall z\in\mathbb{C}^+,\quad 1-c|\tilde{t}(z)|^2\int\frac{u^2L_\infty^R(du)}{|1+u\tilde{t}(z)|^2}>0.$$

Theorem (Existence of a density) For all $x \in \mathbb{R} \setminus \{0\}$,

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For $z_0 \in \mathbb{C}^+$ fixed, from (******),

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- ▶ in particular, the restriction to $\mathbb{R}^* \setminus \{\tilde{t} \in \mathbb{R}, -1/\tilde{t} \in \text{supp}(L^R_\infty)\}$ of this "extension" defines

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- elsewhere, x(t) may not be increasing (otherwise, it would have an increasing local inverse satisfying t(x) equation: but this is not a proof!)

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Conversely, for $\tilde{t}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^* \setminus {\{\tilde{t}, -1/\tilde{t} \in \operatorname{supp}(L_\infty^R)\}}$ such that $x'(\tilde{t}_0) > 0$, $x(\tilde{t}_0) \notin \operatorname{supp}(\mathcal{F}).$



Figure: $x(\tilde{t})$ for $\tilde{t} \in \mathbb{R}$, R_N diagonal with 3 masses in 1, 3, 10, c = 1/10. Support supp (\mathcal{F}) underlined on y-axis.



Figure: $x(\tilde{t})$ for $\tilde{t} \in \mathbb{R}$, R_N diagonal with 3 masses in 1, 3, 5, c = 1/10. Support $supp(\mathcal{F})$ underlined on y-axis.

Proof. [1. Existence] Of course $0 \neq \tilde{t}^{\circ}(x_0) = \lim_{y \downarrow 0} \tilde{t}(x_0 + \imath y)$ with

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By dominated convergence, as $y \downarrow 0$,

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• As $\tilde{t}'(x_0) > 0$, by local inverse, $x'(\tilde{t}(x_0)) > 0$.

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This is a contradiction, and thus:

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Remark: In fact, not always! e.g., estimate $\frac{1}{N} \operatorname{tr}(R_N^{-1})$ from \hat{R}_N when n < N ?

Going further...

What if we want to estimate f(1), f(3)? : in $L_{\infty}^{R} = \frac{1}{3}\delta_{1} + \frac{1}{3}\delta_{3} + \frac{1}{3}\delta_{5}$



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Figure: Subsets of $\lambda_1^R \leq \lambda_2^R \leq \lambda_3^R$ (hatched region) for which detectability condition over $L_\infty^R = \frac{1}{3}(\delta_{\lambda_1^R} + \delta_{\lambda_2^R} + \delta_{\lambda_3^R})$ is satisfied, c = 1/10.

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and we are fully in the domain of limiting observables!

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Intermediary (but fundamental) result:

Theorem ("No eigenvalue outside the support") Assume that $\mathbb{E}[|X_{ij}|^4]<\infty$ and

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we conclude:

$$G(f) - \frac{1}{2\pi\imath} \oint_{\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{F}}} f\left(-\frac{1}{\tilde{g}_n(z)}\right) zg_n(z) \frac{\tilde{g}'_n(z)}{\tilde{g}_n(z)} dz \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0.$$

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• if f(w) "simple", we can use residue calculus!

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By integration by parts, this is, with probability 1:

$$G(f) = -\frac{1}{2\pi i} \oint_{\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{F}}} \frac{n}{N} \frac{1}{\tilde{g}_n(z)} dz + o(1).$$

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Expand $\tilde{g}_n(z)$ as a rational function: the poles inside $\mathcal{C}_{\mathcal{F}}$ are such that $\tilde{g}_n(z) = 0$.

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Let $\Lambda \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ diagonal and $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, the eigenvalues of $\Lambda - aa^*$ are either eigenvalues of Λ or the roots of $1 = a^*(\Lambda - xI_n)^{-1}a$.

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Let \boldsymbol{x} not an eigenvalue of $\boldsymbol{\Lambda},$ then by Sylverster's identity,

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are the roots x_j of $1 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i (\lambda_i - x)^{-1}$, or equivalently of $0 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\lambda_i - x)^{-1} = \tilde{g}_n(x)$.

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Position of the roots? By Weyl's interlacing lemma, the λ_i 's are interlaced with the roots x_i of $0 = g_n(x)$.

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And we conclude, with probability 1,

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only works if spectrum is "disjoint"!

▶ This all depends on *c*! Remember...

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or can't we ??? (see lab session)

Outline

Application to machine learning: spectral clustering

Reminders on spectral clustering From Gaussian Mixtures to Real Data

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- ▶ $x_i =$ "pixels of images" ?
- ▶ x_i = "smart features" ? (HOG, SURF, neural-net type [VGG, ResNet, etc.])

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where

$$K = \{\kappa(x_i, x_j)\}_{i,j=1}^n \quad \text{and} \quad D = \operatorname{diag}(\{\sum_{j=1}^n K_{ij}\}_{i=1}^n) \text{ (degrees of the "graph" } K).$$

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We will see this will be a problem in large dimensions!

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Refinement: implies also

$$D^{-\frac{1}{2}}KD^{-\frac{1}{2}}(D^{\frac{1}{2}}j_a) = D^{\frac{1}{2}}j_a$$

more stable in practice.

From theory to practice: not at all what was expected!!



Figure: 4 dominant eigenvectors of $L = D^{-\frac{1}{2}}KD^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ (red); MNIST data (0, 1, 2).

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Figure: 4 dominant eigenvectors of $L = D^{-\frac{1}{2}} K D^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ (red), asymptotic approximation \hat{L} (black); MNIST data (0, 1, 2).

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Figure: 4 dominant eigenvectors of $L = D^{-\frac{1}{2}} K D^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ (red), asymptotic approximation \hat{L} (black) vs. Gaussian theory $(1\sigma \text{ et } 2\sigma)$ (blue); MNIST data (0, 1, 2).

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Conclusion: non-trivial conditions:

$$\|\mu_1 - \mu_2\| = O(1), \quad \operatorname{tr}(C_1 - C_2) = O(\sqrt{p})$$

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• asymptotic non-triviality conditions: for $\mu^{\circ} = \sum_{a=1}^{k} \frac{n_a}{n} \mu_a$ and $C^{\circ} = \sum_{a=1}^{k} \frac{n_a}{n} C_a$

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$$\max_{i,j} \left| \left[\frac{1}{p} X X^{\mathsf{T}} \right]_{ij} - [I_p]_{ij} \right| \xrightarrow{\text{a.s.}} 0 \quad \mathsf{but} \quad \frac{1}{p} X X^{\mathsf{T}} \not \to I_p !!$$

Key idea: Taylor expansion of K_{ij} around $f(\tau_p)$!

In image: Kernel $K_{ij} = \exp(-\frac{1}{2p}||x_i - x_j||^2)$ and second eigenvector v_2 $(x_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\pm \mu, I_p), \ \mu = (2, 0, \dots, 0)^{\mathsf{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^p).$

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The Taylor expansion: For simplicity, consider the simpler case (with $\|\mu_i\| = O(1)$)

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 $= O_{\|\cdot\|}(1) + O_{\|\cdot\|}(p^{-\frac{1}{2}})$

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Back to $D^{-\frac{1}{2}}KD^{-\frac{1}{2}}$: can be studied similarly, just more painful!

Main result: comparison to simulations



Figure: Eigenvalues of $L = D^{-\frac{1}{2}}KD^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ versus Taylor expansion \hat{L} , k = 3, p = 2048, n = 512, $c_1 = c_2 = 1/4$, $c_3 = 1/2$, $[\mu_a]_j = 4\delta_{aj}$, $C_a = (1 + 2(a - 1)/\sqrt{p})I_p$, $f(x) = \exp(-x/2)$ (Gaussian kernel).



Figure: Eigenvalues of L (red) and (equivalent Gaussian model) \hat{L} (white), MNIST data, p = 784, n = 192.



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Figure: Leading four eigenvectors of $D^{-\frac{1}{2}}KD^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ for MNIST data (red) and theoretical findings (blue).



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Figure: 2D representation of eigenvectors of L, for the MNIST dataset. Theoretical means and 1and 2-standard deviations in **blue**. Class 1 in **red**, Class 2 in **black**, Class 3 in green.



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- **Key remark**: what is the shape of this "optimal" f(t) ???

Outline

Application to machine learning: spectral clustering Reminders on spectral clustering From Gaussian Mixtures to Real Data

Notion of Concentrated Vectors

Observation: RMT seems to predict ML performances for real data even under Gaussian assumptions!

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Given a normed space $(E, \|\cdot\|_E)$ and $q \in \mathbb{R}$, a random vector $z \in E$ is q-exponentially concentrated if for any 1-Lipschitz function¹ $\mathcal{F} : \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$, there exists C, c > 0 s.t.

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"Concentrated vectors are stable through Lipschitz maps."

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GAN data: An Example of Concentrated Vectors



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Generated image = $\mathcal{G}(Gaussian)$ (with \mathcal{G} Lipschitz!)

GAN data: An Example of Concentrated Vectors



Figure: Images generated by the BigGAN model [Brock et al, ICLR'19].

New assumption: k concentrated random vector classes,

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GAN images!

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only means (but this is huge!) that ML algorithms treat GAN data as if Gaussian



CNN representations correspond to the one before last layer.

GAN Images













Random matrix theory explains the inner working of practical ML algorithms

Random matrix theory explains the inner working of practical ML algorithms and this is provably valid for real data!