## Crash Course: Linear Algebra for Machine Learning

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# Purpose

Overview of the important linear algebra concepts required for machine learning.

NOT: A proper introduction to Linear Algebra. See: 3brown1blue, MATH1(3|4)6, MATH2(3|4)5

# Part 1: Establishing the basics

### **Table of Contents**

- Vectors and Matrices
- Norms
- Dot Product
- Matrix Operations
- Transpose and Inverse
- Linear Independence
- Rank
- Determinants
- Eigenvalues



#### Thinking in more dimensions



#### The Curse of Dimensionality



#### Scalars, Vectors, Matrices

- Scalars are single values.  $\mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}$ 
  - Could be from natural numbers, quotients, real numbers.
  - For the most of this lecture, we will use the real numbers.
- Vectors are ordered arrays of values.  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 
  - Indices numbered 1 to n.
  - Column-wise notation, can consider as n by 1 matrix.
- Matrices are 2-D arrays of values.
  - Has height and width height comes first in notation.
  - Not necessarily square.

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 5\\3\\2 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3 \qquad x_1 = 5, x_3 = 2$$
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 3\\-4 & 1\\8 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 2} \qquad A_{1,2} = 3$$

#### Intuition on Vectors

- Interpretation 1: Points in n-dimensional space.
  - Example: word2vec



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- Interpretation 2: Linear movement in n-dimensional space
  - Example: word2vec





t-SNE visualizations of word embeddings. Left: Number Region; Right: Jobs Region. From Turian *et al.* (2010), see complete image.





#### Addition on Vectors

- Add element-wise.
- Can only add vectors of equal dimensions.
- Associative and commutative.
- Same with matrices.







#### Norms

- Many different types, serve as a "measure of distance" for vectors.
- Must satisfy the following conditions:

• 
$$f(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0 \Rightarrow \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$$

• 
$$f(\boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{y}) \leq f(\boldsymbol{x}) + f(\boldsymbol{y})$$
 (the triangle inequality)

• 
$$\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, f(\alpha x) = |\alpha| f(x)$$

$$||oldsymbol{x}||_p = \left(\sum_i |x_i|^p
ight)^{rac{1}{p}}$$



#### **Dot Product**

- Takes 2 vectors of the same dimension, returns a scalar.
- A measure of the "alignment" between two vectors, scaled by the lengths.
- Two vectors with dot product zero are **orthogonal** to each other.



#### Intuition on Matrices

• Interpretation 1: Ordered collection of vectors (vector of vectors).

• Interpretation 2: Linear transformations on vectors.



### Matrix Multiplication

- Multiplying (m, n) matrix with (n, p) matrix yields (m, p) matrix.
- Associative, but not commutative!
- Satisfies the distributive property.
- Identity Matrix, I



#### Matrices as linear functions on vectors

- Multiplying a m x n matrix into a n x 1 vector yields a m x 1 vector.
- We can think of this as a linear function from n-dimensional to m-dimensional space.



$$egin{aligned} f(\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{v}) &= f(\mathbf{u}) + f(\mathbf{v}) \ f(c\mathbf{u}) &= cf(\mathbf{u}) \end{aligned}$$



#### Transpose

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 & 7 & 8 \\ 9 & 10 & 11 & 12 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 5 & 9 \\ 2 & 6 & 10 \\ 3 & 7 & 11 \\ 4 & 8 & 12 \end{bmatrix}^{\mathrm{T}}$$

The transpose of a matrix product has a simple form:

$$(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{B})^{\top} = \boldsymbol{B}^{\top}\boldsymbol{A}^{\top}.$$



#### Inverse of a Matrix

- Not all matrices are invertible.
  - All invertible matrices are square (dimensional), but not all square matrices are invertible.
  - Square matrices which are not invertible are called **singular**.
  - Singular matrices have determinant 0, which we will not cover.
- Finding inverses is computationally expensive: usually O(n^3)

 $AA^{-1} = A^{-1}A = I$ 

#### Solving systems of linear equations

$$oldsymbol{A}oldsymbol{x} = oldsymbol{b}$$
 $oldsymbol{A}^{-1}oldsymbol{A}oldsymbol{x} = oldsymbol{A}^{-1}oldsymbol{b}$  $oldsymbol{I}_noldsymbol{x} = oldsymbol{A}^{-1}oldsymbol{b}$ 



#### **Special Matrices**

• Diagonal Matrices

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Orthogonal Matrices
  - Orthonormal vectors

$$\boldsymbol{A}^{\top}\boldsymbol{A} = \boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{A}^{\top} = \boldsymbol{I}.$$

$$\boldsymbol{A}^{-1} = \boldsymbol{A}^{\top},$$

• Symmetric Matrices

$$\boldsymbol{A} = \boldsymbol{A}^{\top}.$$

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#### **Eigenvectors**, **Eigenvalues**

An eigenvector of a square matrix A is a nonzero vector v such that multiplication by A alters only the scale of v:

$$Av = \lambda v. \tag{2.39}$$

The scalar  $\lambda$  is known as the **eigenvalue** corresponding to this eigenvector. (One can also find a **left eigenvector** such that  $\boldsymbol{v}^{\top} \boldsymbol{A} = \lambda \boldsymbol{v}^{\top}$ , but we are usually concerned with right eigenvectors.)

- All scaled eigenvectors are still eigenvectors.
- N by N matrix always has N complex eigenvalues, up to multiplicity
- Symmetric matrices always have N real eigenvalues









# Part 2: Applications to ML

### **Table of Contents**

- Eigendecomposition
- Singular Value Decomposition
- Principal Component Analysis

If time permits,

- Linear Regression
- Support Vector Machines



### Eigendecomposition

- In the same way that composites can be decomposed into primes, matrices can be decomposed. A must be an n by n matrix.
- Suppose A has n linearly independent eigenvectors, each with an associated eigenvalue.

$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{V} &= (\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n) \ \lambda &= (\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n) \ egin{aligned} oldsymbol{A} &= oldsymbol{V} \mathrm{diag}(oldsymbol{\lambda}) oldsymbol{V}^{-1}. \end{aligned}$$

### Eigendecomposition

- If A is symmetric, there are great properties on the for the eigendecomposition.
- All the eigenvectors are orthonormal, so Q is orthogonal.
- All the eigenvalues are now real.

$$\mathbf{Q} = (\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n)$$
  
 $\mathbf{\Lambda} = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$   
 $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{\Lambda}\mathbf{Q}^{ op},$ 



Figure 2.3: An example of the effect of eigenvectors and eigenvalues. Here, we have a matrix  $\boldsymbol{A}$  with two orthonormal eigenvectors,  $\boldsymbol{v}^{(1)}$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda_1$  and  $\boldsymbol{v}^{(2)}$  with eigenvalue  $\lambda_2$ . (Left)We plot the set of all unit vectors  $\boldsymbol{u} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  as a unit circle. (Right)We plot the set of all points  $\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{u}$ . By observing the way that  $\boldsymbol{A}$  distorts the unit circle, we can see that it scales space in direction  $\boldsymbol{v}^{(i)}$  by  $\lambda_i$ .

### Useful facts from deriving the Eigenvalues

- A matrix is singular if and only if some eigenvalue is 0
  - The determinant is the product of the eigenvalues
- If any two eigenvectors share the same eigenvalue, then any vector on the span of the eigenvectors is also an eigenvector, with the same eigenvalue.
  - Therefore, even if the eigenvalues are not unique, we can choose a orthogonal set of eigenvectors.
- By convention, we usually sort the eigenvalues from largest to smallest.



### **Singular Value Decomposition**

- SVD is another way to factorize matrices.
  - Doesn't need the matrix to be a square.
- Every real matrix has a singular value decomposition.

$$\boldsymbol{A} = \boldsymbol{U} \boldsymbol{D} \boldsymbol{V}^{\top} \,. \tag{2.43}$$

Suppose that A is an  $m \times n$  matrix. Then U is defined to be an  $m \times m$  matrix, D to be an  $m \times n$  matrix, and V to be an  $n \times n$  matrix.



#### Illustration of SVD dimensions and sparseness



#### Singular Value Decomposition, part 2

#### $oldsymbol{A} = oldsymbol{U}oldsymbol{D}oldsymbol{V}^ op$ .

- U, V are both orthogonal.
- The diagonal values in D are known as the singular values of A.
  - $\circ$  These are the square roots of the eigenvalues of A<sup>T</sup> \* A.
- Columns of U are the left singular vectors, columns of V are the right singular vectors.

We can actually interpret the singular value decomposition of A in terms of the eigendecomposition of functions of A. The left-singular vectors of A are the eigenvectors of  $AA^{\top}$ . The right-singular vectors of A are the eigenvectors of  $A^{\top}A$ . The nonzero singular values of A are the square roots of the eigenvalues of  $A^{\top}A$ . The same is true for  $AA^{\top}$ .

#### **Covariance matrix**

$$\mathbf{X}_{X_i X_j} = \mathrm{cov}[X_i, X_j] = \mathrm{E}[(X_i - \mathrm{E}[X_i])(X_j - \mathrm{E}[X_j])]$$

- If each Xi is independent, then the covariance matrix is diagonal.
- Positive Semidefinite: all the eigenvalues are non-negative.
- Covariance matrix written in terms of input data, n by p:

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{X} / (n-1)$$







#### **Principal Component Analysis**



#### **Principal Component Analysis**



### **Principal Component Analysis**

- Powerful dimensionality reduction technique.
  - Want to find principal components: low dimensional orthogonal vectors which capture as much variance from the high dimensional data as possible.
  - Want some transform matrix T, which takes high dimensional data and produces low dimensional output.
- Consider input data X, which is n by p matrix.
  - Want eigenvalues and eigenvectors of the **covariance matrix**, ordered by size of eigenvalue.
  - $^{\circ}$  SVD on X:  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{W}^T$

• Then, 
$$\mathbf{T} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{W}$$
  
=  $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}\mathbf{W}^T\mathbf{W}$   
=  $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{\Sigma}$ 

### Principal Component Analysis (Eigenfaces)

What each principal component looks like





### Principal Component Analysis (Eigenfaces pt. 2)

What only the top N principal components looks like



# Part 3: Extra Stuff

#### Measures

- Trace
- Determinant



### **Other Decompositions**

- LU decomposition
- QR decomposition
- Cholesky decomposition



#### Pseudo-inverse

- Not all matrices have inverses
  - singular matrix
  - non-square matrix
- Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse is the "closest thing"

