

LA FORMULA LIST
V3 & V4

Norm / Length

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots, x_n)$$

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Unit - 3

Inner Product

$$\rightarrow \mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$$

$$\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

$$\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} \text{ (or) } \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} \quad (\text{or}) \quad \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n \\ \hookrightarrow \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{x}$$

Orthogonal Vectors

$\rightarrow \mathbf{x}$ & \mathbf{y} are orthogonal when $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$

$\begin{cases} \text{zero is the only vector orthogonal to itself} \\ \text{zero is the only vector orthogonal to every vector} \end{cases}$

$\rightarrow \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = 0$ at 90°

\rightarrow If non-zero vectors v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n are mutually orthogonal, then they are linearly independent but convex need not be true

$$\sum c_i (v_i^T v_i) = 0 \Rightarrow \text{Then } c_i = 0$$

Orthonormal Vectors

\rightarrow 2 vectors are orthonormal if dot product = 0 & each vector is unit length

Orthogonal Subspaces

\rightarrow 2 subspaces V & W of same \mathbb{R}^n are orthogonal if $v^T w = 0$ for all $v \in V$ & $w \in W$

Line can be orthogonal to another line

Plane can be orthogonal to another line

but plane can't be orthogonal to another plane

Fundamental Theorem of orthogonality

\rightarrow Row Space is orthogonal to null space

Column Space is orthogonal to left null space

Orthogonal Component

\rightarrow For a vector v of \mathbb{R}^n , the space of all vectors orthogonal to v is orthogonal complement (v^\perp)

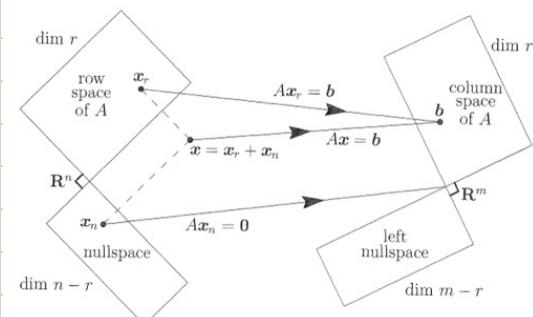
\rightarrow From fundamental theory of orthogonality, $N(A) = (C(A^T))^\perp$

$N(A^T) \leftrightarrow$ Orthogonal component of $C(A^T)$ (Row space)

$N(A^T) \leftrightarrow$ Orthogonal component of $C(A)$ (Column space)

Note: Let some plane be $az + by + cz = 0$,

Then vector \perp^{th} to plane is (a, b, c)



cosine of θ

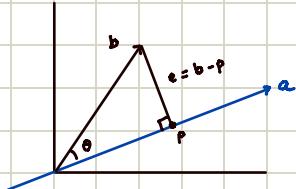
$$\rightarrow \cos\theta = \frac{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\|}$$

$$\cos\theta = \cos\beta \cos\alpha + \sin\beta \sin\alpha = \frac{a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2}{\|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\|}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Law of cosines } \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{b}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{a}\|^2 - 2 \|\mathbf{b}\| \|\mathbf{a}\| \cos\theta$$

$$\text{If } \theta = 90^\circ, \quad \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{a}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{b}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{a}\|^2$$

Projection onto a line



point p is the projection of b onto subspace

p must be multiple of a

i.e. $p = \hat{x}a$

$$\text{So, } p \perp a \Rightarrow \hat{x}a \perp a$$

$$e \perp a$$

$$b - p \perp a$$

$$b - \hat{x}a \perp a \Rightarrow a^T(b - \hat{x}a) = 0$$

$$a^T b - \hat{x}a^T a = 0$$

$$\boxed{\hat{x} = \frac{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}}}$$

$$\& \cos\theta = \frac{\|p\|}{\|b\|} \text{ or } \frac{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\|}$$

Schwarz - Inequality

$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow a_0 \|\mathbf{e}\|^2 &= \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{p}\|^2 \\ &= \left\| \mathbf{b} - \frac{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} \cdot \mathbf{a} \right\|^2 = \|\mathbf{b}\|^2 + \left(\frac{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} \right)^2 \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a} - 2 \frac{(\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b})^2}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} \\ &= \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{b} + \frac{(\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b})^2}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} - 2 \frac{(\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b})^2}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} \\ &= \frac{(\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{b})(\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}) - (\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b})^2}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} \geq 0 \\ \Rightarrow (\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{b})(\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}) &\geq (\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b})^2 \Rightarrow |\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}| \leq \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \end{aligned}$$

\rightarrow The equality holds true iff \vec{b} is a multiple of \vec{a}

Projection Matrix

$$\rightarrow P = \frac{\mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}}$$

$$P\mathbf{b} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{a} \frac{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} = \mathbf{a} \hat{x} = \mathbf{p}$$

To project \mathbf{b} onto \mathbf{a} , multiply by projection matrix P : $\mathbf{p} = P\mathbf{b}$

$\rightarrow P$ is symmetric matrix

$$P^n = P \text{ for } n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\text{rank}(P) = 1$$

$$\text{tr}(P) = 1$$

Transpose from inner products

$$\rightarrow (\mathbf{Ax})^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^T (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y})$$

$$(\mathbf{ABx})^T \mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{Bx})^T (\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}^T (\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{y})$$

Projections & least squares

→ Failure of Gaussian elimination with multiple eq's & one variable

$$a_1 x = b_1$$

$a_2 x = b_2 \Rightarrow$ system solvable if b is multiple of a

$$a_3 x = b_3$$

If system is inconsistent, then we choose a value of x which minimizes an avg. error E in m equations

$$\text{sum of squares} \Rightarrow E^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m (b_i - a_i x_i)^2$$

If there is exact soln, $E=0$

$$\text{so min error at } \frac{dE^2}{dx} = 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^m 2(b_i - a_i x_i) a_i = 2 \sum_{i=1}^m a_i^2 x - 2 \sum_{i=1}^m a_i b_i = 0 \Rightarrow \sum_{i=1}^m a_i^2 x = \sum_{i=1}^m a_i b_i$$

$$a^T a (\hat{x}) = a^T b \Rightarrow \hat{x} = \frac{a^T b}{a^T a}$$

Least squares - Multiple Variables

→ Consider an inconsistent system of linear equations

$$A_{m \times n} x_{n \times 1} = b_{m \times 1}$$

Since b lies outside $C(A)$ & we project it onto $C(A)$ to get p in $C(A)$ closest to b

System reduced to $A \hat{x} = p$

$$A^T A \hat{x} = A^T b \Rightarrow \text{Normal Equation}$$

→ When $Ax=b$ is inconsistent, least squares solution minimizes to $A^T \hat{x} = A^T b$

→ When $A^T A$ is invertible exactly when columns of A are linearly independent, $\hat{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$
Projection of b onto column space $p = A \hat{x} = A (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$

Orthogonal bases

→ Basis consisting of mutually orthogonal vectors

Orthonormal basis

→ Basis consisting of unit length, mutually orthogonal vectors

Orthogonal matrix

→ Matrix with orthonormal columns is called Q ($m \geq n$)

→ If $m=n$, matrix is orthogonal

Properties of Q

1) If Q has orthonormal columns, then $Q^T Q = I$ $\begin{bmatrix} -q_1^T & \dots \\ -q_2^T & \dots \\ \vdots & \ddots \\ -q_n^T & \dots \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ q_1 & q_2 & \dots & q_n \\ 1 & 1 & \dots & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I$

2) If an orthogonal matrix is square matrix with orthonormal columns

$$Q^T = Q^{-1}$$

3) If Q is a tall matrix Q^T = left inverse of $Q \Rightarrow Q^T Q = I$

4) Multiplication by any Q preserves length
 $\|x\| = \|Qx\|$

5) Q preserves inner products and angles

$$(Qx)^T (Qy) = x^T Q^T Qy = x^T y$$

b) If q_1, q_2, \dots, q_n are orthonormal bases of \mathbb{R}^n , then any vector b in \mathbb{R}^n can be expressed as

$$b = x_1 q_1 + x_2 q_2 + \dots + x_n q_n$$

$$q_1^T b = x_1 q_1^T q_1 \Rightarrow x_1 = \frac{q_1^T b}{q_1^T q_1} = q_1^T b$$

$$x_2 = q_2^T b \text{ and so on}$$

$$b = (q_1^T b) q_1 + q_2^T b q_2 + \dots$$

$$= x_1 q_1 + x_2 q_2 + \dots$$

$$b = Qx \Rightarrow x = Q^{-1} b$$

$$x = Q^T b \quad (Q^{-1} = Q^T)$$

Cram - Schmidt Orthogonalization

→ Gram - Schmidt process orthonormalizes a set of vectors in an inner product space (Euclidian space)

→ Procedure :

i) Given 3 linearly independent vectors a, b, c in some vector space

ii) Normalize the first vector

$$q_1 = \frac{a}{\|a\|} \quad (q_1 \text{ has unit length})$$

iii) Remove component of b in direction of q_1 and normalize

$$B = b - (q_1^T b) q_1$$

$$q_2 = \frac{B}{\|B\|}$$

iv) Remove components of c in direction of q_1, q_2 and normalize

$$C = c - (q_1^T c) q_1 - (q_2^T c) q_2$$

$$q_3 = \frac{C}{\|C\|}$$

QR Factorization

→ If $A_{m \times n}$ is a matrix with linearly independent columns, then $A_{m \times n} = Q_{m \times n} R_{m \times n}$

$$\text{If } A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ a & b & c \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

↓
Matrix w
orthonormal
vectors

↓
Upper Triangular
& invertible matrix

$$\text{Then, } a = (q_1^T a) q_1$$

$$b = (q_1^T b) q_1 + (q_2^T b) q_2$$

$$c = (q_1^T c) q_1 + (q_2^T c) q_2 + (q_3^T c) q_3$$

$$\text{and, } A_{m \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ q_1 & q_2 & q_3 \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} q_1^T a & q_1^T b & q_1^T c \\ 0 & q_2^T b & q_2^T c \\ 0 & 0 & q_3^T c \end{bmatrix}$$

↓ ↓ ↓
 $Q_{m \times n}$ $R_{m \times n}$

Eigen Values and Eigen Vectors

→ Till now we used some matrix A & multiply to matrix x to get matrix b $(Ax = b)$

→ Now we replace A with some scalar number λ $(\lambda x = b)$

→ Solution for $Ax = \lambda x$

$$\text{Then } (\lambda - \lambda I)x = 0$$

x : nullspace of $A - \lambda I$

$A - \lambda I$ must be singular

eigen value
eigen vector
of A

Properties

i) Eigen values of A are roots of characteristic eqn $(\det(A - \lambda I) = 0)$

ii) Determinant of matrix is product of eigen values

iii) Trace of matrix is sum of eigen values

iv) $A^k : \lambda_i^k$

v) $A^{-1} : \frac{1}{\lambda_i}$

vi) $A^T = A$

vii) If any eigen value is zero, then A is singular

viii) If $Av = \lambda v$

$$\text{Then } A(cv) = c(Av) = c\lambda v = \lambda(cv)$$

ix) The diagonal elements are eigen values for upper triangular, lower triangular, diagonal matrix
 $\lambda_i = a_{ii}$

→ Direct formula to find eigen values,

$$\text{for } 2 \times 2 \text{ matrix, } \lambda^2 - \text{tr}(A)\lambda + \det(A) = 0$$

$$\text{for } 3 \times 3 \text{ matrix, } \lambda^3 - \text{tr}(A)\lambda^2 + \min \det(A)\lambda - \det(A) = 0$$

$$\min \det(A) \Rightarrow \text{ex: } \begin{bmatrix} 8 & -6 & 2 \\ -6 & 7 & -4 \\ 2 & -4 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow (7 \times 3 - (-4 \times -4)) + ((8 \times 3) - (2 \times 2)) + ((8 \times 7) - (-6 \times -6)) = 45$$

Cayley - Hamilton Theorem

→ Every square matrix A satisfies the characteristic equation

Replace λ with A in polynomial, solve for A^{-1}

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0$$

Diagonalization of a matrix

→ Suppose $n \times n$ matrix A has n linearly independant eigen vectors

If these eigen vectors are columns of a matrix S , then $S^{-1}AS$ is a diagonal matrix Λ

S : Eigenvector matrix

Λ : Eigenvalue matrix

$$AS = A \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ z_1 & z_2 & \dots & z_n \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ \lambda_1 z_1 & \lambda_2 z_2 & \dots & \lambda_n z_n \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ z_1 & z_2 & \dots & z_n \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Note: if $A = S\Lambda S^{-1}$
 Then $A^k = S\Lambda^k S^{-1}$

$$\rightarrow AS = S\Lambda$$

$$S^{-1}AS = \Lambda \quad (\text{or}) \quad A = S\Lambda S^{-1}$$

→ Any matrix with distinct eigen values can be diagonalized
 Diagonalizing matrix S isn't unique

Order of eigenvectors in S & eigenvalues in Λ is automatically same

Quadratic Forms

- Let q be a real polynomial in variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n such that every term in q has degree 2
 $q(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i x_i^2 + \sum_{i < j} d_{ij} x_i x_j$ where $c_i, d_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}$
 ↳ Quadratic form
- If there aren't any cross-product terms ($x_i x_j$) (or all $d_{ij}=0$) then q is called diagonal
- $2 \times 2 \Rightarrow a_{11}x_1^2 + 2a_{12}x_1 x_2 + a_{22}x_2^2$
 $3 \times 3 \Rightarrow a_{11}x_1^2 + a_{22}x_2^2 + a_{33}x_3^2 + 2a_{12}x_1 x_2 + 2a_{23}x_2 x_3 + 2a_{31}x_3 x_1$

Positive Definiteness

- If a quadratic form of a matrix, the function f is allowed to vanish at $(0,0)$
 When $f(x,y)$ is strictly rve at all other points it is called positive definite
- Matrix is strictly positive definite if
- All eigen values > 0
 - All subdeterminants > 0
 - All pivots > 0
 - $x^T A x > 0$

- For quadratic form, $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$ is positive definite iff $a > 0$ and $ac > b^2$
 $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$ is negative definite iff $a < 0$ and $ac < b^2$
 $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$ is positive semi-definite iff $a > 0$ and $ac = b^2$
 $ax^2 + 2bxy + cy^2$ is negative semi-definite iff $a < 0$ and $ac = b^2$

Singular Value Decomposition

- Any non-zero matrix A can be factored into

$$A = U \Sigma V^T$$

orthogonal ↴ ↴ orthogonal
Eigen Values (Diagonal)

$U \rightarrow m \times m$ orthogonal matrix with eigen vectors of AA^T as columns

$\Sigma \rightarrow m \times n$ diagonal matrix with singular values of A as diagonal elements

$V \rightarrow n \times n$ orthogonal matrix with eigen vectors of $A^T A$ as columns

Steps

a) Short Matrix ($m < n$)

- Find AA^T
- Find eigen values of AA^T
- Find eigen vectors u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m
- Normalise \hat{u}_i
- Find singular values $\sigma_1 = \sqrt{\lambda_1}, \sigma_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_2}, \dots$
 where $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \dots > \lambda_m$
 and form Σ with same order as A
- $v_i = \frac{u_i^T A}{\sigma_i}$ or $v_i^T = \frac{u_i^T A}{\sigma_i}$. Find v_1, v_2, \dots
- Find v_3 by orthogonality $v_1 \perp v_3$ & $v_2 \perp v_3$
- Write $A = U \Sigma V^T$

b) Long Matrix ($m > n$)

- Find $A^T A$
- Find eigen values of $A^T A$
- Find eigen vectors u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n
- Normalise \hat{u}_i
- Find singular values $\sigma_1 = \sqrt{\lambda_1}, \sigma_2 = \sqrt{\lambda_2}, \dots$
 where $\lambda_1 > \lambda_2 > \dots > \lambda_m$
 and form Σ with same order as A
- $u_i = \frac{A v_i}{\sigma_i}$. Find u_1, u_2, \dots
- Find u_3 by orthogonality $u_1 \perp u_3$ & $u_2 \perp u_3$
- Write $A = U \Sigma V^T$

Pseudo-Inverse

- If A is a matrix, then pseudoinverse A^+ is a generalization of the inverse (Follows SVD)
- It satisfies $AA^+A = A$
- $A^+AA^+ = A^+$
- $(AA^+)^T = AA^+$
- $(A^+A)^T = A^+A$

Steps

- Compute $A = U\Sigma V^T$
- Take reciprocals of non-zero values in Σ ex: $(3, 2, 0) \rightarrow (\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{2}, 0)$
- Compute $A^+ = V\Sigma U^T$

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

- Statistical procedure that uses an orthogonal transformation to convert a set of observations of possibly correlated variables into a set of values of linearly uncorrelated variables called principal components

Steps

- Start with data matrix X
- Subtract mean from each row $\bar{x} = x - \text{mean}(x)$
- $\bar{x} = U\Sigma V^T$
- Columns of V are principal directions (principal components)
- Squares of singular values σ_i^2 give variance for each component
- $Z = U^T \bar{x}$ ⇒ Coordinates in new principal component space

Image Processing

- Grayscale Images - 2×2 Matrix

Color Images - 3×3 Matrix

- 3×3 Averaging (blur) filter:

$$K = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \text{Filter computes average of a pixel \& its 8 neighbours}$$

(Only for interior pixels)

ex:

$\begin{bmatrix} 52 & 55 & 61 & 59 & 79 \\ 62 & 59 & 55 & 104 & 94 \\ 63 & 65 & 66 & 113 & 144 \\ 64 & 70 & 70 & 126 & 154 \\ 69 & 73 & 74 & 139 & 161 \end{bmatrix}$	\longrightarrow	$\begin{bmatrix} 52 & 55 & 61 & 59 & 79 \\ 62 & 63 & 75 & 94 & 94 \\ 63 & 68 & 81 & 110 & 144 \\ 64 & 74 & 91 & 121 & 154 \\ 69 & 73 & 74 & 139 & 161 \end{bmatrix}$
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$\frac{(59 + 55 + 104 + 65 + 66 + 113 + 70 + 70 + 126)}{9} = 81$

- Sharpening Kernel (Laplace variant)

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 5 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Minimising Multivariable function

→ Energy is a positive definite quadratic function & derivative of a quadratic is linear & we set these derivatives to 0 which makes us reach point of minima

Steps

- Convert A & b into P (quadratic form) with $\frac{1}{2}x^T Ax - x^T b$
- Now perform partial differentiation wrt all the variables in x
- Using these equations find solution / critical points
(You can only get solution when A is positive definite)

Backpropagation

→ Algorithm to train neural networks by adjusting weights based on error in predictions

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

→ Optimizing algorithm that updates the parameters by following negative gradient direction to minimize the loss function

Steps

- Given x, w, b
- Calculate $y = w^T x + b$
- Compute $\hat{y} = \sigma(y)$ (Sigmoid function) $= \frac{1}{1+e^{-y}}$ by substituting y
- Compute Loss $L(\hat{y}, t) = \frac{1}{2} (\hat{y} - t)^2$ (t will be given)
- Calculate $\frac{\partial L}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \hat{y}} \cdot \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial w} = (\hat{y} - t) \cdot (\sigma(y)(1 - \sigma(y))) \cdot x = (\hat{y} - t) \cdot \hat{y}(1 - \hat{y}) \cdot x$
- Finally update weights $w_{\text{new}} = w_{\text{old}} - \eta \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{\text{old}}}$

x : input vector

w : initial weights

b : bias

t : true label

η : learning rate

~~PI = 370~~

~~f(x)~~ - 396

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