

Linear Algebra for Machine Learning

Moritz Wolter

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High-Performance Computing and Analytics Lab, University of Bonn

Overview

Introduction

Essential operations

Linear curve fitting

Regularization

Introduction

Motivating linear algebra

Même le feu est régi par les nombres.

Fourier¹ studied the transmission of heat using tools that would later be called an eigenvector-basis. Why would he say something like this?

¹Jean Baptiste Joseph Fourier (1768-1830)

Matrices

 $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ is a real-valued Matrix with m rows and n columns.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}, a_{ij} \in \mathbb{R}.$$
 (1)

3

Essential operations

Addition

Two matrices $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ and $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ can be added by adding their elements.

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & a_{12} + b_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ a_{21} + b_{21} & a_{22} + b_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} + b_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & a_{m2} + b_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} + b_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$
(2)

4

Multiplication

Multiplying $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ by $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,p}$ produces $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,p}$,

$$\mathbf{AB} = \mathbf{C}.\tag{3}$$

To compute ${\bf C}$ the elements in the rows of ${\bf A}$ are multiplied with the column elements of ${\bf C}$ and the products added,

$$c_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} \cdot b_{jk}. \tag{4}$$

Linear Algebra for Machine Learning —Essential operations

Multiplying $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m_{th}}$ by $B \in \mathbb{R}^{m_{th}}$ produces $C \in AB - C$.

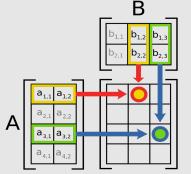
To compute C the denents in the rous of A and the column elements of C and the products add $Ca = \sum_{j=1}^{m_{th}} a_{ij} \cdot b_{jk}.$

Multiplication

-Multiplication

Define on the board:

- Dot product $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + \cdots + a_n b_n$ for two vectors $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- Row times column view [Str+09]:



The identity matrix

$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & 1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{5}$$

☐The identity matrix

 $\mathbf{I} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ (5)

Demonstrate multiplication with the inverse by hand.

$$\begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (6)

Matrix inverse

The inverse Matrix \mathbf{A}^{-1} undoes the effects of \mathbf{A} , or in mathematical notation,

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}.\tag{7}$$

The process of computing the inverse is called Gaussian elimination.

The inverse Matrix \mathbf{A}^{-1} undoes the effects of \mathbf{A} , or in mathematical notation,

 $\Delta \Delta^{-1} = 1$

The process of computing the inverse is called Gaussian elimination.

Matrix inverse

└─Matrix inverse

Example on the board:

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 1 & 3 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \tag{8}$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & -\frac{1}{2} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix} \tag{9}$$

Test the result:

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{6} & \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 0 \cdot -\frac{1}{6} & 2 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot \frac{1}{3} \\ 1 \cdot \frac{1}{2} + 3 \cdot -\frac{1}{6} & 0 \cdot 0 + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{3} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
(10)

(7)

The Transpose

The transpose operation flips matrices along the diagonal, for example, in \mathbb{R}^2 ,

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$$
 (11)

Motivation of the determinant

- The determinant contains lots of information about a matrix in a single number.
- When a matrix has a zero determinant, a column is a linear combination of other columns. Its inverse does not exist.
- We require determinants to find eigenvalues by hand.

Computing determinants in two or three dimensions

The two-dimensional case:

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} \cdot a_{22} - a_{12} \cdot a_{21}$$
 (12)

(13)

Computing the determinant of a three-dimensional matrix.

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{21} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{31} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{22} & a_{23} \end{vmatrix}$$

$$(14)$$

Linear Algebra for Machine Learning —Essential operations

Computing determinants in two or three dimensions

Works for any row or column, as long as we respect the sign pattern. Example computation on the board:

$$\begin{vmatrix} -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} = -1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} - 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{vmatrix} + 1 \cdot \begin{vmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{vmatrix}$$
 (15)
$$= (-1) \cdot ((-1) \cdot (-1) - 0 \cdot 1)) -$$
 (16)
$$(0 \cdot (-1) - 0 \cdot 0) + 0 \cdot 1 - (-1) \cdot 0$$
 (17)
$$= -1$$
 (18)

Determinants in n-dimensions

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{vmatrix} + a_{21} \begin{vmatrix} a_{21} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{vmatrix}$$

Linear Algebra for Machine Learning

—Essential operations

Determinants in n-dimensions

(19)

Draw the sign pattern on the board:

The determinant can be expanded along any column as long as the sign pattern is respected.

Summary

- We saw some of the most important operations in linear algebra.
- Let's use these to do something useful next.

Linear curve fitting

What is the best line connecting measurements?



Problem Formulation

A line has the form f(a) = da + c, with $c, a, d \in \mathbb{R}$. In matrix language, we could ask for every point to be on the line,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & a_1 \\ 1 & a_2 \\ 1 & a_3 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & a_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ \vdots \\ p_n \end{pmatrix}. \tag{20}$$

We can treat polynomials as vectors, too! The coordinates populate the matrix rows in $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_p \times 2}$, and the coefficients appear in $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, with the points we would like to model in $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_p}$. The problem now appears in matrix form and can be solved using linear algebra!

The Pseudoinverse [Str+09; DFO20]

The inverse exists for square or n by n matrices. Nonsquare \mathbf{A} such as the one we just saw, require the pseudoinverse,

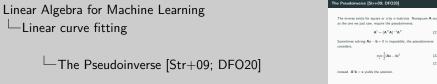
$$\mathbf{A}^{\dagger} = (\mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^{T}. \tag{21}$$

Sometimes solving $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b} = 0$ is impossible, the pseudoinverse considers,

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}|^2 \tag{22}$$

(23)

instead. $\mathbf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{x}$ yields the solution.



 $\min_{\mathbf{a}} \frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}|^2$

At the optimum we expect,

$$0 = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}|^{2}$$
$$= \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^{T} (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})$$

$$= \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})^{\mathsf{T}}$$

$$= \mathbf{A}^T (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})$$

$$= \mathbf{A}^{T} (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b})$$
$$= \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{b}$$

$$= \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$$
$$\mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{h} = \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$$

 $(\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{x}$

(28)

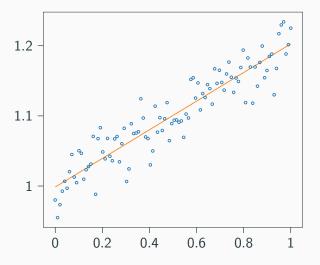
(29)

(30)

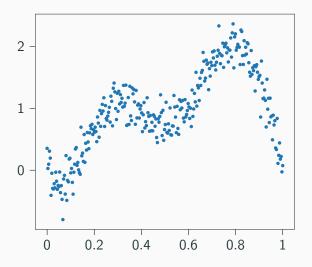
(31)

Sometimes solving
$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} = 0$$
 is implossible. One the board, derive:
$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}|^2 \tag{24}$$

Linear regression



What about harder problems?



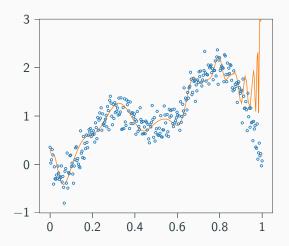
Fitting higher order polynomials

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix}
1 & a_1^1 & a_1^2 & \dots & a_1^m \\
1 & a_2^1 & a_2^2 & \dots & a_2^m \\
1 & a_3^1 & a_3^2 & \dots & a_3^m \\
\vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\
1 & a_n^1 & a_n^2 & \dots & a_n^m
\end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{A}}
\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix}
c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_m
\end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{x}} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix}
p_1 \\ p_2 \\ \vdots \\ p_n
\end{pmatrix}}_{\mathbf{b}}.$$
(32)

As we saw for the linear regression $\mathbf{A}^{\dagger}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{x}$ gives us the coefficients.

Overfitting

The figure below depicts the solution for a polynomial of 7th degree, that is m = 7.



Summary

- We saw how linear algebra lets us fit polynomials to curves.
- For the 7th-degree polynomial the noise took over! What now?

Regularization

Motivation

- Is there a way to fix the previous example?
- To do so we start with a rather peculiar observation.

Eigenvalues and Eigen-Vectors

Multiply matrix **A** with vectors $\mathbf{x_1}$ and $\mathbf{x_2}$,

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \tag{33}$$

we observe

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 8 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \tag{34}$$

Vector $\mathbf{x_1}$ has not changed! Vector $\mathbf{x_2}$ was multiplied by two. In other words,

$$Ax_1 = 1x_1, Ax_2 = 2x_2$$
 (35)

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Eigenvectors turn multiplication with a matrix into multiplication with a number,

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda \mathbf{x}.\tag{36}$$

Subtracting λx leads to,

$$(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = 0 \tag{37}$$

The interesting solutions are those were $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$, which means

$$\det(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I}) = 0 \tag{38}$$

Linear Algebra for Machine Learning —Regularization

—Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Eigenvelocs and Eigenvectors $Eigenvectors turn multiplication with a matrix into multiplication with a number, <math display="block"> \mathbf{A} = \lambda \mathbf{x} \qquad (38)$ Subtracting $\lambda \mathbf{t}$ leads to, $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{J}) \mathbf{c} = 0 \qquad (37)$ The interesting solutions are those series $\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{0}$, which misses $\mathbf{det}(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{J}) = 0 \qquad (33)$

On the board, compute the eigenvalues and vectors for the initial example.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 4 \\ 0 & 2 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = (1 - \lambda) * (2 - \lambda) - 0 * 4 = 0 \quad (39)$$

$$\rightarrow \lambda_1 = 1, \lambda_2 = 2. \quad (40)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 - 1 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 - 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 = 0 \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} p \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ for } p \in \mathbb{R} \quad (41)$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 - 2 & 4 \\ 0 & 2 - 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 4 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 = 0 \rightarrow \mathbf{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} q \\ \frac{1}{4}q \end{pmatrix} \text{ for } q \in \mathbb{R} \quad (42)$$

Determinant not useful numerically, software packages use QR-Method.

Eigenvalue-Decomposition [Str+09]

Eigenvalues let us look into the heart of a square system-matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$.

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{S} \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & \\ & \lambda_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{S}^{-1} = \mathbf{S} \wedge \mathbf{S}^{-1}, \tag{43}$$

with $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{C}^{n,n}$ and $\Lambda \in \mathbb{C}^{n,n}$.

Singular-Value-Decomposition [Str+09]

What about a non-square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$? Idea:

$$\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n^2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{V}^{-1}, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} = \mathbf{U} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1^2 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_m^2 \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{U}^{-1}.$$

$$(44)$$

Using the eigenvectors of the $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T$ we construct,

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T, \tag{45}$$

with $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$, $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,m}$, $\Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ and $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$. Σ 's diagonal is filled with the square root $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$'s eigenvalues.

Singular values and matrix inversion [GK65]

The singular value matrix is a zero-padded diagonal matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T = \mathbf{U} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_n \end{pmatrix} \mathbf{V}^T. \tag{46}$$

Inverting the sigmas and transposing yields the pseudoinverse

$$\mathbf{A}^{\dagger} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{\dagger} \mathbf{U}^{T} = \mathbf{V} \begin{pmatrix} \sigma_{1}^{-1} & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_{n}^{-1} \\ \hline & 0 \end{pmatrix}^{T} \mathbf{U}^{T}. \tag{47}$$

Regularization via Singular Value Filtering

Originally we had a problem computing $\mathbf{A}^\dagger \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{x}$. To solve it, we compute,

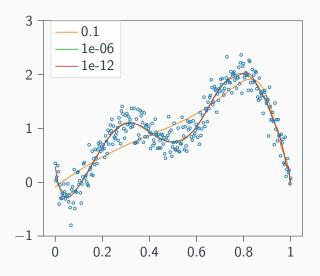
$$\mathbf{x}_{reg} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i \frac{\mathbf{u}_i^T b}{\sigma_i} \mathbf{v_i}$$
 (48)

The filter factors are computed using $f_i = \sigma_i^2/(\sigma_i^2 + \epsilon)$. Singular values $\sigma_i < \epsilon$ are filtered. Expressing equation 48 using matrix notation:

$$\mathbf{x}_{reg} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{F} \mathbf{\Sigma}^{\dagger} \mathbf{U}^{T} \mathbf{b}_{noise} \tag{49}$$

with $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$, $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,m}$, $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$, diagonal $\mathbf{F} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,m}$, $\Sigma^{\dagger} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$ and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{n,1}$. \mathbf{F} has the f_i in its diagonal.

Regularized solution



Conclusion

- True scientists know what linear can do for them!
- Think about matrix shapes. If you are solving a problem, rule out all formulations where the shapes don't work.
- Regularization using the SVD is also known as Tikhonov regularization.

Literature

References

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- [Str+09] Gilbert Strang, Gilbert Strang, Gilbert Strang, and Gilbert Strang. Introduction to linear algebra. Vol. 4. Wellesley-Cambridge Press Wellesley, MA, 2009.