# Statistical Natural Language Processing Mathematical background: a refresher

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# Some practical remarks

(recap)

- Course web page: http://sfs.uni-tuebingen.de/~ccoltekin/courses/snlp
- Please complete Assignment 0
- Assignment 1 will be released this week

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- Please complete Assignment 0
- Assignment 1 will be released this week
- Reminder: there are Easter eggs (in the version presented in the class)

## Today's lecture

- Some concepts from linear algebra
- A (very) short refresher on
  - Derivatives: we are interested in maximizing/minimizing (objective) functions (mainly in machine learning)
  - Integrals: mainly for probability theory

This is only a high-level, informal introduction/refresher.

# Linear algebra

*Linear algebra* is the field of mathematics that studies *vectors* and *matrices*.

• A vector is an ordered sequence of numbers

$$v = (6, 17)$$

A matrix is a rectangular arrangement of numbers

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

 A well-known application of linear algebra is solving a set of linear equations

$$2x_1 + x_2 = 6 \\ x_1 + 4x_2 = 17$$
  $\iff$  
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

Consider an application counting words in a document

 the	and	of	to	in	•••
121	106	91	83	43	

Consider an application counting words in a document

	the	and	of	to	in	•••	
(	121	106	91	83	43		)

Consider an application counting words in multiple documents

	the	and	of	to	in	•••
document <sub>1</sub>	121	106	91	83	43	
document <sub>2</sub>	142	136	86	91	69	
document <sub>3</sub>	107	94	41	47	33	
	•••	•••	•••	•••	•••	

You should already be seeing vectors and matrices here.

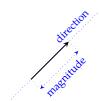
- Insights from linear algebra are helpful in understanding many NLP methods
- In machine learning, we typically represent input, output, parameters as vectors or matrices
- It makes notation concise and manageable
- In programming, many machine learning libraries make use of vectors and matrices explicitly
- In programming, vector-matrix operations correspond to loops
- 'Vectorized' operations may run much faster on GPUs, and on modern CPUs

### **Vectors**

- A vector is an ordered list of numbers  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots v_n)$ ,
- The vector of n real numbers is said to be in *vector space*  $\mathbb{R}^n$  ( $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ )
- In this course we will only work with vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- Typical notation for vectors:

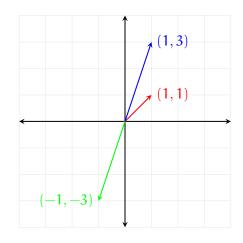
$$\mathbf{v} = \vec{\mathbf{v}} = (\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3) = \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3 \rangle = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \mathbf{v}_2 \\ \mathbf{v}_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Vectors are (geometric) objects with a magnitude and a direction



# Geometric interpretation of vectors

- Vectors (in a linear space) are represented with arrows from the origin
- The endpoint of the vector  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$  correspond to the Cartesian coordinates defined by  $v_1, v_2$
- The intuitions often (!) generalize to higher dimensional spaces



#### Vector norms

- The *norm* of a vector is an indication of its size (magnitude)
- The norm of a vector is the distance from its tail to its tip
- Norms are related to distance measures
- Vector norms are particularly important for understanding some machine learning techniques

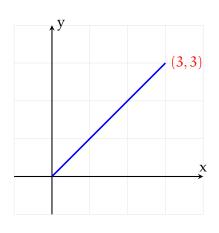
#### L2 norm

- Euclidean norm, or L2 (or L<sub>2</sub>) norm is the most commonly used norm
- For  $v = (v_1, v_2)$ ,

$$\left\| \nu \right\|_2 = \sqrt{\nu_1^2 + \nu_2^2}$$

$$\|(3,3)\|_2 = \sqrt{3^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{18}$$

• L2 norm is often written without a subscript:  $\|v\|$ 

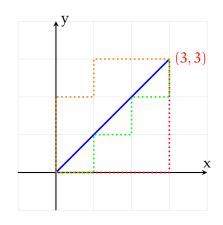


#### L1 norm

 Another norm we will often encounter is the L1 norm

$$\|v\|_1 = |v_1| + |v_2|$$
  
 $\|(3,3)\|_1 = |3| + |3| = 6$ 

 L1 norm is related to Manhattan distance



### L<sub>P</sub> norm

In general, L<sub>P</sub> norm, is defined as

$$\left\|v\right\|_{p} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |v_{i}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

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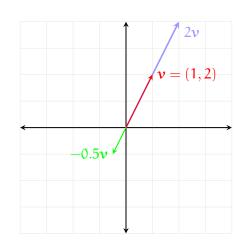
We will only work with than L1 and L2 norms, but  $L_0$  and  $L_\infty$  are also common

# Multiplying a vector with a scalar

• For a vector  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$  and a scalar  $\mathbf{a}$ ,

$$\mathbf{a}\mathbf{v} = (\mathbf{a}\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{a}\mathbf{v}_2)$$

 multiplying with a scalar 'scales' the vector



### Vector addition and subtraction

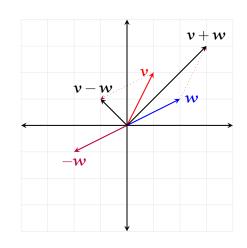
For vectors 
$$\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$$
 and  $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2)$ 

• 
$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = (v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2)$$

$$(1,2) + (2,1) = (3,3)$$

• 
$$v - w = v + (-w)$$

$$(1,2) - (2,1) = (-1,1)$$



# Dot product

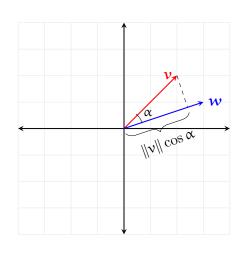
• For vectors  $w = (w_1, w_2)$ and  $v = (v_1, v_2)$ ,

$$\boldsymbol{wv} = w_1 v_1 + w_2 v_2$$

or,

$$wv = ||w|| ||v|| \cos \alpha$$

- The *dot product* of two orthogonal vectors is 0
- $ww = ||w||^2$
- Dot product may be used as a similarity measure between two vectors



# Cosine similarity

The cosine of the angle between two vectors

$$\cos\alpha = \frac{vw}{\|v\|\|w\|}$$

is often used as another similarity metric, called *cosine similarity* 

- The cosine similarity is related to the dot product, but ignores the magnitudes of the vectors
- For unit vectors (vectors of length 1) cosine similarity is equal to the dot product
- The cosine similarity is bounded in range [-1, +1]

#### **Matrices**

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} & \dots & a_{1,m} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} & \dots & a_{2,m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n,1} & a_{n,2} & a_{n,3} & \dots & a_{n,m} \end{bmatrix}$$

- We can think of matrices as collection of row or column vectors
- A matrix with n rows and m columns is in  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$
- Most operations in linear algebra also generalize to more than 2-D objects
- A tensor can be thought of a generalization of matrices to multiple dimensions.

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# Transpose of a matrix

Transpose of a  $n \times m$  matrix is an  $m \times n$  matrix whose rows are the columns of the original matrix.

Transpose of a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  is denoted with  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}}$ .

If 
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \\ e & f \end{bmatrix}$$
,  $\mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} a & c & e \\ b & d & f \end{bmatrix}$ .

## Multiplying a matrix with a scalar

Similar to vectors, each element is multiplied by the scalar.

$$2\begin{bmatrix}2&1\\1&4\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}2\times2&2\times1\\2\times1&2\times4\end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix}4&2\\2&8\end{bmatrix}$$

#### Matrix addition and subtraction

Each element is added to (or subtracted from) the corresponding element

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Note:

 Matrix addition and subtraction are defined on matrices of the same dimension

- if **A** is a  $n \times k$  matrix, and **B** is a  $k \times m$  matrix, their product **C** is a  $n \times m$  matrix
- Elements of C,  $c_{i,j}$ , are defined as

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{\ell=0}^k a_{i\ell} b_{\ell j}$$

• Note:  $c_{i,j}$  is the dot product of the  $i^{th}$  row of A and the  $j^{th}$  column of B

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nk} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1m} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{km} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_{11} = a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} + \dots + a_{1k}b_{k1}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$c_{12} = a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} + \dots + a_{1k}b_{k2}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$c_{1m} = a_{11}b_{1m} + a_{12}b_{2m} + \dots a_{1k}b_{km}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$c_{2m} = a_{21}b_{1m} + a_{22}b_{2m} + \dots + a_{2k}b_{km}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$c_{n2} = a_{n1}b_{12} + a_{n2}b_{22} + \dots + a_{nk}b_{k2}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

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$$c_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \dots + a_{ik}b_{kj}$$

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## Dot product as matrix multiplication

In machine learning literature, the *dot product* of two vectors is often written as

$$w^{\mathsf{T}}v$$

For example, w = (2, 2) and v = (2, -2),

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \times 2 + 2 \times -2 = 4 - 4 = 0$$

<sup>\*</sup> This notation is somewhat sloppy, since the result of matrix multiplication is not a scalar.

## Outer product

The outer product of two column vectors is defined as

 $vw^T$ 

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} =$$

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 $vw^T$ 

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

#### Note:

- The result is a matrix
- The vectors do not have to be the same length

## Identity matrix

 A square matrix in which all the elements of the principal diagonal are ones and all other elements are zeros, is called identity matrix and often denoted I

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

 Multiplying a matrix with the identity matrix does not change the original matrix

$$IA = A$$

## Matrix multiplication as transformation

- Multiplying a vector with a matrix transforms the vector
- Result is another vector (possibly in a different vector space)
- Many operations on vectors can be expressed with multiplying with a matrix (linear transformations)

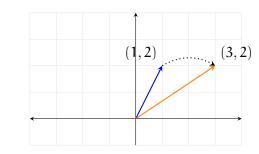
identity

- Identity transformation maps a vector to itself
- In two dimensions:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

stretch along the x axis

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$



rotation

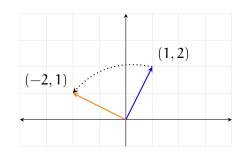
$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos\theta & -\sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

rotation

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



# Matrix-vector representation of a set of linear equations

Our earlier example set of linear equations

$$2x_1 + x_2 = 6$$
  
 $x_1 + 4x_2 = 17$ 

can be written as:

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}}_{W} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}}_{x} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 17 \end{bmatrix}}_{h}$$

One can solve the above equation using *Gaussian elimination* (we will not cover it today).

### Inverse of a matrix

Inverse of a square matrix W is defined denoted  $W^{-1}$ , and defined as

$$WW^{-1} = W^{-1}W = I$$

The inverse can be used to solve equation in our previous example:

$$Wx = b$$

$$W^{-1}Wx = W^{-1}b$$

$$Ix = W^{-1}b$$

$$x = W^{-1}b$$

#### Determinant of a matrix

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

The above formula generalizes to higher dimensional matrices through a recursive definition, but you are unlikely to calculate it by hand. Some properties:

- A matrix is invertible if it has a non-zero determinant
- A system of linear equations has a unique solution if the coefficient matrix has a non-zero determinant
- Geometric interpretation of determinant is the (signed) changed in the volume of a unit (hyper)cube caused by the transformation defined by the matrix

## Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a matrix

An *eigenvector*, v and corresponding *eigenvalue*,  $\lambda$ , of a matrix A are defined as

$$Av = \lambda v$$

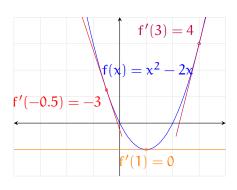
- Eigenvalues an eigenvectors have many applications from communication theory to quantum mechanics
- A better known example (and close to home) is Google's PageRank algorithm
- We will return to them while discussing PCA and SVD (and maybe more topics/concepts)

### Derivatives

- Derivative of a function f(x) is another function f'(x) indicating the rate of change in f(x)
- Alternatively:  $\frac{df}{dx}(x)$ ,  $\frac{df(x)}{dx}$
- Example from physics: velocity is the derivative of the position
- Our main interest:
  - the points where the derivative is 0 are the stationary points (maxima / minima / saddle points)
  - the derivative evaluated at other points indicate the direction and steepness of the curve

## Finding minima and maxima of a function

- Many machine learning problems are set up as optimization problems:
  - Define an error function
  - Learning involves finding the minimum error
- We search for f'(x) = 0
- The value of f'(x) on other points tell us which direction to go (and how fast)



## Partial derivatives and gradient

- In ML, we are often interested in (error) functions of many variables
- A partial derivative is derivative of a multi-variate function with respect to a single variable, noted  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$
- A very useful quantity, called *gradient*, is the vector of partial derivatives with respect to each variable

$$\nabla f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}\right)$$

- Gradient points to the direction of the steepest change
- Example: if  $f(x, y) = x^3 + yx$

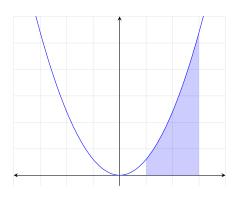
$$\nabla f(x, y) = (3x^2 + y, x)$$

## **Integrals**

- Integral is the reverse of the derivative (anti-derivative)
- The indefinite integral of f(x) is noted  $F(x) = \int f(x)dx$
- We are often interested in definite integrals

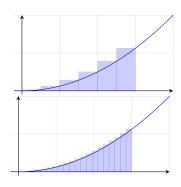
$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

 Integral gives the area under the curve



## Numeric integrals & infinite sums

- When integration is not possible with analytic methods, we resort to numeric integration
- This also shows that integration is 'infinite summation'



## Summary & next week

- Some understanding of linear algebra and calculus is important for understanding many methods in NLP (and ML)
- See bibliography at the end of the slides if you need a 'more complete' refresher/introduction

Wed Python tutorial (continued)

Fri We will do a similar excursion to probability theory

## Further reading

- A classic reference book in the field is strang2009
- **shifrin2011** and **farin2014** are textbooks with a more practical/graphical orientation.
- cherney2013; beezer2014 are two textbooks that are freely available.
- A well-known (also available online) textbook for calculus is strang1991
- Form more alternatives, see http://www.openculture.com/free-math-textbooks