Basics of Linear Algebra

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Random Vector

A d dimensional random vector X is represented as :

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix} = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_d]^t$$

Joint pdf

$$\begin{split} P(X_1 X_2 X_3 ... X_d) & \epsilon A)] = \int_A f_X(x_1, x_2, x_3, ... x_d) dx_1 dx_2 dx_3 ... dx_d \\ & = \int_A f_X(x_1) dx_1 \int_A f_X x_2) dx_2 \int_A f_X(x_3) dx_3 ... \int_A f_X(x_d) dx_d, \\ & \text{if } x_1, x_2, x_3 ... \text{ are independent} \end{split}$$

Mean vector and Covariance matrix

Mean vector

$$E[\vec{X}] = \begin{bmatrix} E[\vec{X}_1] \\ E[\vec{X}_2] \\ \vdots \\ E[\vec{X}_d] \end{bmatrix}$$

Covariance matrix

$$Cov(\vec{X}) = E[(\vec{X} - E[\vec{X}])(\vec{X} - E[\vec{X}])^{t}]$$

$$Cov[\vec{X}] = \begin{bmatrix} Cov[X_{1}X_{1}] & Cov[X_{1}X_{2}] & \dots & Cov[X_{1}X_{d}] \\ Cov[X_{2}X_{1}] & Cov[X_{2}X_{2}] & \dots & Cov[X_{2}X_{d}] \\ \vdots & & & & \\ Cov[X_{d}X_{1}] & Cov[X_{d}X_{2}] & \dots & Cov[X_{d}X_{d}] \end{bmatrix}$$

- $\vec{Y} = A\vec{X} + B \implies E[\vec{Y}] = AE[\vec{X}] + \vec{B}$
- $Cov(\vec{Y}) = ACov(\vec{X})A^t$
- Covariance is estimated from the data as:

$$Cov(X_1, X_2) = E[(X_1 - \mu_X 1)(X_2 - \mu_X 2)]$$
 (1)

$$= \frac{1}{N_1 - 1} \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} (x_1 i - \mu x_1)^2$$

(The denominator term is N_1-1 because N^{th} value is deterministic if μ_x and N_1-1 values are known.)

Properties of vectors

d dimensional vector x is represented as :

$$\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \end{bmatrix} = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_d]^t$$

Euclidean distance with respect to origin :

$$\|\vec{x}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_d^2}$$

Cauchy Shwartz Inequality :

$$\|\vec{x} + \vec{y}\| \le \|\vec{x}\| + \|\vec{y}\|$$
 (Proof: Triangle law of vector addition) $\|\vec{x}^t \vec{y}\| \le \|\vec{x}\| \|\vec{y}\|$

Proof : $\vec{x}^t \vec{y}$ is the inner product which is equal to $\|\vec{x}\| \|\vec{y}\| \cos\theta$ and $\cos\theta \leq 1$.

▶ Difference between 2 vectors :

$$\vec{x_1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
, $\vec{x_2} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \vec{e} = (\vec{x_1} - \vec{x_2}) = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\|\vec{e}\| = 2\sqrt{2}$

► Inner Product :

$$\vec{x}^t \vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 a_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (Scalar)

Cosine Similarity :

$$\cos\theta = \frac{\vec{x_1}^t \vec{x_2}}{\|\vec{x_1}\| \|\vec{x_2}\|}$$

But we cannot simply use it everywhere. The cosine similarity between *This is a PR class* and *This is not a PR class* is very high. (Converting each sentence to a binary vector denoting if a word is present in the sentence or not, we get the vectors as $[1\ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\ 1]$ and $[1\ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1]$, having cosine sim. $=\frac{5}{\sqrt{30}}\approx 1$)

Hence problem: The cosine similarity showed that the sentences are highly similar but we can see that semantically they are completely opposite. Solution: We consider word co-occuring probability.

Outer Product :

$$\vec{x}\vec{y}^t = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_1b_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1b_1 & a_1b_2 \\ a_2b_1 & a_2b_2 \end{bmatrix}$$
 (Not scalar)

 $ightharpoonup \vec{x}^t M \vec{x}$ is scalar $(\because \vec{x}_{1 \times n}^t \ M_{n \times n} \ \vec{x}_{n \times 1})$

Notice that it is a quadratic equation. Imagine it by putting M=[1], so $\vec{x}^t\vec{x}=s$ (some scalar). Now if $\vec{x}=\begin{bmatrix}x_1\\x_2\end{bmatrix}$ then using inner product property, $\vec{x}^t\vec{x}=x_1^2+x_2^2=s$ which is quadratic.

Definition of a Determinant

Determinant of a 2D Matrix

In the case of a 2×2 matrix, the formula for computing the determinant is

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\implies |A| = a \times d - c \times b$$

Determinants of a 2D matrix express volumes of 2-dimensional parallelepipeds as shown in the figure below.

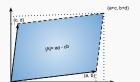


Figure 1: The volume of a 2D parallelepiped given by the 2D matrix *A*.

Properties of matrix operations

- A(BC) = (AB)c.
- A(B+C) = AB + AC
- ► AB ≠ BA
- $(AB)^t = B^t A^t$
- $|ABC| = |A| \times |B| \times |C|$
- ► $|A + B| \neq |A| + |B|$
- $|AB| = |BA| = |A| \times |B|$
- When the rank of n-dimensional matrix A is less than n (say n-1). Then the determinant of the matrix |A| will give the volume of the parallelepiped in n-1 dimension.

$$|J| = r$$

$$\therefore \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-(x^2 + y^2)} dxdy = \int_{0}^{+\infty} \int_{0}^{2\pi} re^{-(r^2)} d\theta dr$$

$$= \int_{0}^{+\infty} re^{-(r^2)} dr \int_{0}^{2\pi} d\theta$$

$$= 2\pi \int_{0}^{+\infty} re^{-(r^2)} dr$$

$$= \pi$$

Gradient of a function with respect to a vector :

$$\nabla f(\vec{x}) = \frac{\partial f(\vec{x})}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(\vec{x})}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f(\vec{x})}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(\vec{x})}{\partial x_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

Here $f(\vec{x})$ is scalar while \vec{x} is a vector. Note that scalar to vector differentiation is a vector.

Example:
$$f(\vec{x}) = 2x_1^2 x_2 + 3x_1 x_2^3 - 5x_1 + 2x_2 + 6$$
 and $\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\implies \nabla f(\vec{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 4x_1 x_2 + 3x_2^3 - 5 \\ 2x_1^2 + 9x_1 x_2^2 + 2 \end{bmatrix}$

▶ Jacobian (matrix of derivatives) : It is used when we change variables, say from d dimensional \vec{x} to n dimensional \vec{y}

Determinants

$$y_1 = f_1(x_1, x_2, ..., x_d)$$

 $y_2 = f_2(x_1, x_2, ..., x_d)$
 $y_n = f_n(x_1, x_2, ..., x_d)$

$$\text{Jacobian} = \mathbf{J} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla^t f_1(\vec{x}) \\ \nabla^t f_2(\vec{x}) \\ \vdots \\ \nabla^t f_n(\vec{x}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_d} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

Basically, the result of the previous property got transposed and became a row of the jacobian matrix for each of the n functions.

Jacobian Matrix

- Jacobian matrix is the matrix of all first-order partial derivatives of a vector-valued function.
- Let $x = f_1(u, v), y = f_2(u, v)$ and consider the following the integration

$$\int \int_{R} f(x,y) dxdy = \int \int_{\bar{R}} f(f_{1}(u,v), f_{2}(u,v)) \left| \frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)} \right| dudv$$

▶ where, $\left|\frac{\partial(x,y)}{\partial(u,v)}\right| = \left|\begin{array}{cc} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y} \end{array}\right|$ is called as the Jacobian matrix.

Jacobian: example

Solve:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = I$$

Solution:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-y^2} dy = I^2$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy = I^2$$

$$Let \qquad x^2 + y^2 = r^2$$

$$\implies \qquad x = r \cos\theta, y = r \sin\theta$$

$$\begin{vmatrix} \cos\theta & -r \sin\theta \\ \sin\theta & r \cos\theta \end{vmatrix} = J \qquad \therefore \text{ The Jacobian matrix}$$

► Eigenvalue and Eigenvector $A\vec{e} = \lambda \vec{e}$, where λ is the eigenvalue and \vec{e} is the eigenvector.

Are eigenvectors unique? : No, we can multiply any eigenvector with a scalar and that scaled vector will also be an eigenvector.

Are eigenvalues unique? : No, the characteristic equation $(|A-\lambda I|=0)$ whose roots are the eigenvalues, can have repeated roots.

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 The multiplicity of eigenvalue is 3 but still we can

get linearly independent eigenvectors [0 0 1], [1 0 0], [0 1 0] for this matrix.

^{**}Read more properties of eigenvalue eigenvectors yourself**

Calculate the eigenvalues and eigenvectors for the matrix A:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 6 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We get $\lambda = 0$, 3, -4 on solving

$$|A - \lambda I| = 0 \implies \begin{vmatrix} 1 - \lambda & 2 & 1 \\ 6 & -1 - \lambda & 0 \\ -1 & -2 & -1 - \lambda \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

Now, to find the eigenvectors, let us first take $\lambda=0$ and put in

$$A\vec{e} = \lambda \vec{e} \implies A\vec{e} = 0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix}
1 & 2 & 1 \\
6 & -1 & 0 \\
-1 & -2 & -1
\end{bmatrix}
\begin{bmatrix}
x \\
y \\
z
\end{bmatrix} = 0 \implies 6x - y = 0$$

$$-x - 2y - z = 0$$

Solving we get x = c, y = 6c, z = -13c where c can take any value and hence multiple eigenvectors.

Similarly find eigenvectors for $\lambda = 3$ and -4

Eigenvalue decomposition (EVD)

Consider a matrix of size d. There can be several vectors $\vec{e_i}$ satisfying the following

$$Aec{e_1}=\lambda_1ec{e_1}$$
 $Aec{e_2}=\lambda_2ec{e_2}$ \vdots $Aec{e_d}=\lambda_dec{e_d}$ In matrix form, $AX=X\Lambda$

A can also be written as

$$A = X\Lambda X^{-1}$$
 where,

EVD contd ...

$$X = [\vec{e_1} \ \vec{e_2} \ \cdots \ \vec{e_d}]$$

$$\Lambda = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & \vec{e_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Every column in matrix X represents an Eigenvectors (direction).
- ➤ The magnitude of diagonal values represent the strength of the corresponding Eigen direction.
- ▶ If A is symmetric positive definite i.e., $X^{-1} = X^t$.

$$\hat{A} = X\Lambda X^{-1}$$
 then,

- 1. Eigenvectors are orthogonal
- 2. Eigenvalues are positive

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

If the matrix A is not a square matrix, it can be decomposed as

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

where U and V matrices contain left and right singular vectors

$$AA^{t} = U\Sigma V^{t} (U\Sigma V^{t})^{t}$$
$$= U\Sigma V^{t} V\Sigma U^{t}$$
$$= U\Sigma^{2} V^{t}$$

- \triangleright U,V are unitary matrices and Σ is a diagonal matrix.
- ► U and V matrices also contain Eigenvectors of AA^t and A^tA respectively.
- Orthogonality is guaranteed in SVD as opposed to EVD.