## Analytic Geometry

**DEF** (Dot Product) The dot product between two vectors u **DEF** (Distance between a point and a line) The distance beand v is defined as

$$u^{\top}v = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \ldots + u_nv_n = \sum_{i=1}^n u_iv_i$$

**DEF** (Bilinearity) The dot product is bilinear, i.e. for any vectors u, v, w and scalar a,

$$au^{\top}v = au^{\top}v = u^{\top}av$$
$$u + v^{\top}w = u^{\top}w + v^{\top}w$$
$$w^{\top}u + v = w^{\top}u + w^{\top}v$$

**DEF** (Commutativity) The dot product is commutative, i.e.  $u^{\top}v = v^{\top}u$ 

**DEF** (Inner Product) The inner product between two vectors u and v is defined as

$$\langle u, v \rangle$$

Dot product is a special case of inner product.

**DEF** ( $\ell_2$  Norm) The  $\ell_2$  norm of a vector v is defined as

$$\|v\|_2 = \sqrt{v^\top v} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \ldots + v_n^2}$$

Also called the Euclidean norm.

**DEF** ( $\ell_2$  properties) For all vectors u, v and scalar a,

- The  $\ell_2$  norm is non-negative, i.e.  $||v||_2 \ge 0$ .
- $||au||_2 = |a| ||u||_2$  for any scalar a.
- $||u||_2$  is zero if and only if u is the zero vector.
- The triangle inequality holds, i.e.  $||u+v||_2 \le ||u||_2 +$
- $||x y||_2 = ||y x||_2$ , also called symmetry.  $||u + v||_2^2 = ||u||_2^2 + 2u^\top v + ||v||_2^2$
- $\cos \theta = \frac{u^{\top}v}{\|u\|_2\|v\|_2}$  (can be proved using the law of cosines)

**THM** (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality) For any vectors u, v, the following inequality holds:

$$|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq ||u||_2 ||v||_2$$

**DEF** (*Line*) A line is a set of points

$$\{x: x = u + tv \text{ for some } t \in \mathbb{R}\}$$

where u is a point on the line and  $v \neq 0$  is the direction vector.

**DEF** (*Plane*) A plane is a set of points

$$\{x: v^{\top}x - u = 0\}$$

where v is the normal vector to the plane and u is the shift from the origin.

**DEF** (*Projection*) The vector  $||u||_2 \cos \theta \frac{v}{||v||_2}$  is a projection of

**DEF** (Distance between a point and a plane) The distance between a point z and a plane  $v^{\top}x - u = 0$  is given by

$$\frac{|v^{\top}z - u|}{\|v\|_2}$$

tween a point z and a line x = u + tv is given by

$$\left\|z - u - \frac{z - u^{\top}v}{\left\|v\right\|_{2}^{2}}v\right\|_{2}$$

**DEF** (Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)) The SVD of a matrix X is  $U\Sigma V^T$ , where  $U^{\top}U = I, V^{\top}V = I$  and  $\Sigma$  is a diagonal matrix:

$$\Sigma = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \sigma_n \end{bmatrix}$$

and  $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \ldots \geq \sigma_n \geq 0$ .

**THM** (*Eckart-Young Theorem*) Let  $\Sigma_k = \text{diag}(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_k, 0, \dots, 0)$ where  $k \leq d$ . The matrix  $U\Sigma_k V^T$  is the optimal solution to the following problem:

$$\min_{\hat{\mathbf{x}}} \left\| X - \hat{X} \right\|_{F} \text{ s.t. } \operatorname{rank}(\hat{X}) \le k$$

The matrices  $Z = U\Sigma_k$  and  $W = V^T$  are the optimal solution

$$\min_{Z,W} ||X - ZW||_F$$
 s.t.  $Z \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}, W \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}$ 

### Calculus

**DEF** (*Derivative*) The derivative of a function  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  at  $x_0$  is defined as:

$$(D_x f)(x_0) = \left(\frac{d}{dx}f\right)(x_0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + h) - f(x_0)}{h}$$

**DEF** (Directional Derivative) The directional derivative of a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  along the direction v at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is defined

$$(D_v f)(x_0) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_0 + hv) - f(x_0)}{h}$$

**DEF** (Partial Derivative) The partial derivative is a directional derivative along the direction of coordinate axes. For a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ , the partial derivative with respect to the *i*-th coordinate is denoted as:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_i + h, \dots, x_d) - f(x_1, \dots, x_i, \dots, x_d)}{h}$$

**DEF** (Gradient) The gradient of a function is the vector consisting of all partial derivatives denoted by  $\nabla f$  or  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ . For a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ ,

**EX** (Gradient Identities)

- Given a function  $f(a) = b^{\top} a$ ,  $(\nabla f)(a) = b$  Given a function  $f(a) = \|a\|_2^2$ ,  $(\nabla f)(a) = 2a$

**EX** (*Hessian*) The Hessian of a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is the matrix of second partial derivatives:

$$\nabla^2 f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 x_d} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 x_d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

**EX** (Hessian Example) Given a function  $f(x,y) = x^2 - y^2$ , the Hessian is:x:

$$\nabla^2 f = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

The 2 indicates that it looks like a cup along the x-axis and the -2 indicates that it looks like an upside-down cup along the y-axis.

### Optimisation

**DEF** (*Minimum*) The minimum of a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is written as  $\min_x f(x)$ , and has the property that  $\min_x f(x) \le f(y)$  for all  $y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ . The value  $x^*$  such that  $f(x^*) = \min_x f(x)$  is called the minimizer.

**DEF** (*Convexity*) A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is convex if for any  $0 \le \alpha \le 1$ , we have

$$f(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y) \le \alpha f(x) + (1 - \alpha)f(y)$$

In general,

$$f(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i x_i) \le \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i f(x_i)$$

**DEF** (*Concavity*) A function f is concave if -f is convex.

**THM** (First Order Condition (Convexity)) If f is convex then, •  $f(x) \ge f(y) + \nabla f(y)^{\top} (x - y)$ 

**DEF** (*Positive Semidefinite*) A matrix A is positive semidefinite if for all vectors  $v \neq 0$  we have  $v^{\top} A v \geq 0$ . Also written as  $A \succeq 0$ .

**THM** (Convex Function Implies Positive Semidefinite Hessian) If f is convex, then  $\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0$ .

**DEF** (*Positive Definite*) A matrix A is positive definite if for all vectors  $v \neq 0$  we have  $v^{\top} A v > 0$ . Also written as  $A \succ 0$ .

**DEF** (Affine) A function f is affine if f(x) = Ax + b for some matrix A and vector b.

**THM** (Affine Transform Preservation) If f is convex, then g(x) = f(Ax + b) is also convex.

**THM** (Non-negative Weighted Sum) If  $f_1, f_2, ..., f_k$  are convex functions, then  $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i f_i(x)$  is convex for all  $\beta_i \geq 0$ .

**EX** (Gradient of Quadratic Form)  $\nabla_x(x^{\top}Ax) = (A + A^{\top})x$ 

**DEF** (Strictly Convex) A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is called strictly if for  $0 \le \alpha \le y$  we have

$$f(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y) < \alpha f(x) + (1 - \alpha)f(y)$$

for any  $x \neq y$ .

**DEF** (First Order Condition (Strict Convexity)) If f is strictly convex then,

• 
$$f(x) > f(y) + \nabla f(y)^{\top} (x - y)$$

**THM** (*Unique Minimizer*) If f is strictly convex, then f has a unique minimizer.

**THM** (Jensen's Inequality) If a function f is convex,

$$f(\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p}[x]) \le \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p}[f(x)]$$

**DEF** (Subgradient) A subgradient at x is a vector g that satisfies

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + g^{\top}(y - x)$$

for any y, and the set of subgradients at x is denoted as  $\partial f(x)$ .  $\nabla f(x) \in \partial f(x)$  if f is differentiable at x. In other words subgradients are tangents that are below the function.

**EX** (Constrained Optimisation Problem) An example of a constrained optimisation problem is

$$\min_{x} x^2 \text{ s.t. } -2.5 \le x \le -0.5$$

**DEF** (Feasible Solution) A feasible solution is a point that satisfies all the constraints.

 ${f DEF}$  (Lagrangian) If you have an optimisation problem of the form

$$\min_{x} f(x)$$
 s.t.  $h(x) \le 0$ 

the Lagrangian is defined as

$$f(x) + \lambda h(x)$$

for some  $\lambda \geq 0$  (Lagrange multiplier).

**ALG** (Solving the Lagrangian)

- Solve  $g(\lambda) = \min_{x} [f(x) + \lambda h(x)]$
- Find  $\hat{\lambda}$  such that  $\min_x [f(x) + \hat{\lambda}h(x)]$  gives a feasible solution
- Suppose  $\hat{x}$  is the solution to the above, and  $x^* = \arg\min_{x:h(x)\leq 0} f(x)$  (the optimal solution), then

$$f(\hat{x}) = f(\hat{x}) + \hat{\lambda}h(\hat{x}) \le f(x^*) + \hat{\lambda}h(x^*) \le f(x^*)$$

# **Probability**

**DEF** ( Gaussian Distribution ) We write  $x \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$  to denote that x is a random variable with mean  $\mu$  and covariance  $\Sigma$ . It means that the probability density function of x is given by

$$p(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi^{d/2}|\Sigma|^{1/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(x-\mu)\right)$$

**DEF** (Statistical Independence) Two variables x and y are independent if

$$p(x,y) = p(x)p(y)$$

Equivalently,

$$p(x|y) = p(x)$$

. The independence of x and y is denoted by  $x \perp y$ . **DEF** (Statistical Independence [general]) If  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\} \perp$  $\{y_1,\ldots,y_m\}$  then

$$p(x_1,\cdots,x_n,y_1,\cdots,y_m)=p(x_1,\cdots,x_n)p(y_1,\cdots,y_m)$$

**EX** (Factorisation of a joint distribution) Suppose  $x \in \mathcal{X}, y \in \mathcal{X}$  $\mathcal{Y}, z \in \mathcal{Z}$ . If  $\{x, y\} \perp z$  then

$$p(x, y, z) = p(x, y)p(z)$$

The original joint distribution (of size  $|\mathcal{X}| \times |\mathcal{Y}| \times |\mathcal{Z}|$ ) can be factorised into two distributions of size  $|\mathcal{X}| \times |\mathcal{Y}|$  and  $|\mathcal{Z}|$ . **DEF** (Mutual Independence) A set of variables  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ are mutually independent if

$$p(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i)$$

**DEF** (Pairwise Independence) A set of variables  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$ are pairwise independent if

$$p(x_i, x_j) = p(x_i)p(x_j)$$

for all  $i \neq j$ .

**THM** (Mutual Independence implies Pairwise Independence) If a set of variables  $\{x_1, \ldots, x_n\}$  are mutually independent, then they are pairwise independent. Converse is not true! **DEF** (Conditional Independence) The variables x and y are conditionally independent given z if

$$p(x, y|z) = p(x|z)p(y|z)$$

This is denoted by  $x \perp y|z$ .

**DEF** (Marginilisation) The marginal distribution of x is obtained by summing out all other variables.

$$p(x) = \sum_{y} p(x, y)$$
 
$$p(x|z) = \sum_{y} p(x, y|z)$$
 
$$p(x, y|z) = p(x|z)p(y|z)$$

**DEF** (Bayes Rule) Bayes rule is a way to invert conditional probabilities.

$$p(x|y) = \frac{p(y|x)p(x)}{p(y)}$$

**DEF** (Chain Rule) Any joint distribution can be factorised into a product of conditional distributions.

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = p(x_1)p(x_2|x_1)p(x_3|x_1,x_2)\cdots p(x_n|x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1})$$

**DEF** ((directed) Graph Representation) A directed graph is a set of nodes connected by edges. Each vertex is a random

variable and each edge represents a direct dependency. It is directed and acyclic (DAG). A distribution factorises according to the graph if

$$p(x_1,\ldots,x_n) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(x_i|\text{parents}(x_i))$$

**DEF** (Graph structures)

• Chain  $x \perp z | y$ 

$$x \longrightarrow y \longrightarrow z$$

• Common cause  $x \perp z | y$ 

$$x$$
  $y$   $z$ 

• v-structure  $x \perp z$  but  $x \not\perp z|y$ 

$$x \longrightarrow y \longrightarrow z$$

## Training

**DEF** (Loss Function) Given a predicted output  $\hat{y}$  and observed output y, the loss function measures how close the model's prediction is

**DEF** (Zero-One Loss)  $L(y, \hat{y}) = \mathbb{I}_{\{y \neq \hat{y}\}}$ 

**DEF** (Mean Squared Error (MSE))  $L(y, \hat{y}) = (y - \hat{y})^2$ 

**DEF** (Hinge Loss)  $L(y, \hat{y}) = \max(0, 1 - y \cdot \hat{y})$ 

**DEF** (Gradient Descent) The gradient descent algorithm is given by

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta \nabla f(x_t)$$

where  $\eta$  is the learning rate/step size.

**DEF** (Convergence) Given  $\epsilon > 0$ , we say that an algorithm converges to a point  $x^*$  if

$$f(x_t) - f(x^*) < \epsilon$$

**DEF** (Convergence Rate) The convergence rate of an algorithm is the rate at which the algorithm converges to the optimal point. There are three types of convergence rates:

• Sublinear:  $f(x_t) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{c}{t^2} \ (\epsilon = O(\frac{1}{t^2}), t = O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}))$ 

• Linear:  $f(x_t) - f(x^*) \le cr^t \ (\epsilon = O(r^t), t = O(\log \frac{1}{\epsilon}))$ 

• Quadratic:  $f(x_t) - f(x^*) < cr^{2^t}$ 

ALG (Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)) Sample a random point  $x_t, y_t$  from the dataset and compute the gradient at that point. Repeat until solution is satisfactory.

**ALG** (Mini-batch Gradient Descent) Sample a mini-batch of points  $x_t, y_t$  from the dataset and compute the gradient at that point. Repeat until solution is satisfactory.

**DEF** (Training) The act of minimising the loss function by adjusting the model's parameters is known as training.

#### Regression

**DEF** (Regression) The learning of relationships between input variables x and a numerical output y

**DEF** (Feature Transformation) We call  $\phi$  a feature transformation. It transforms the input space X into a new space Z.

 $p(x_1,\ldots,x_n)=p(x_1)p(x_2|x_1)p(x_3|x_1,x_2)\cdots p(x_n|x_1,\ldots,x_{n-1})$  **DEF** (Linear Regression) Given a dataset S  $\{(\phi(x_1), y_1), \dots, (\phi(x_n), y_n)\}$ , minimise the MSE loss function

$$L = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$$

where  $\hat{y}_i = w^T \phi(x_i)$  **DEF** (Closed-form Solution) The closed-form solution to linear regression is given by

$$w = (\Phi \Phi^T)^{-1} \Phi y$$

**DEF** (*Probalistic Interpretation*) The probabilistic interpretation of linear regression is that

$$y = w^T \phi(x) + \epsilon_i$$

where  $\epsilon_i \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  which implies  $y_i \sim \mathcal{N}(w^T \phi(x_i), 1)$ . So the log likelihood (L) of the data is

$$L = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[ \frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} (y_i - w^T \phi(x_i))^2 \right]$$