# Math Intro

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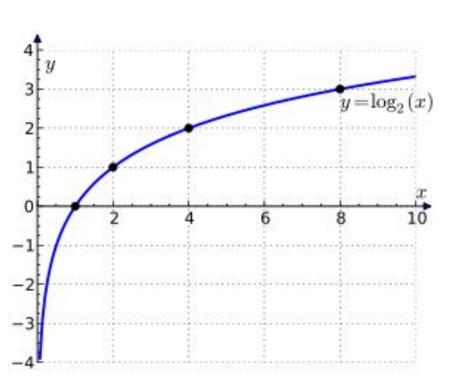
That's really what mathematics is, it's seeing the connections between...different ideas. Ideas that look different but are nevertheless somehow connected.

- Gil Strang

# Logarithms

Log rules:





### Logarithms

- Generally:  $(0, \infty) \Rightarrow (-\infty, \infty)$
- (0,1) ⇒ negative
- (1,∞) ⇒ positive
- Opposite of Exponentiation

# L<sub>p</sub> Norms

$$||x||_1 = \sum_{i=0}^n |x_i|$$

$$||x||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^n x_i^2}$$

$$||x||_{\infty} = \lim_{p \to \infty} (\sum_{i=0}^{n} x_i^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

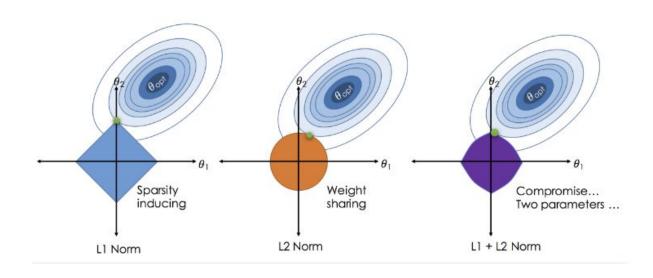
np.linalg.norm(x-y)

# L<sub>p</sub> Norms

$$||x||_1 = \sum_{i=0}^n |x_i|$$

$$||x||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=0}^n x_i^2}$$

$$||x||_{\infty} = \lim_{p \to \infty} (\sum_{i=0}^{n} x_i^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$



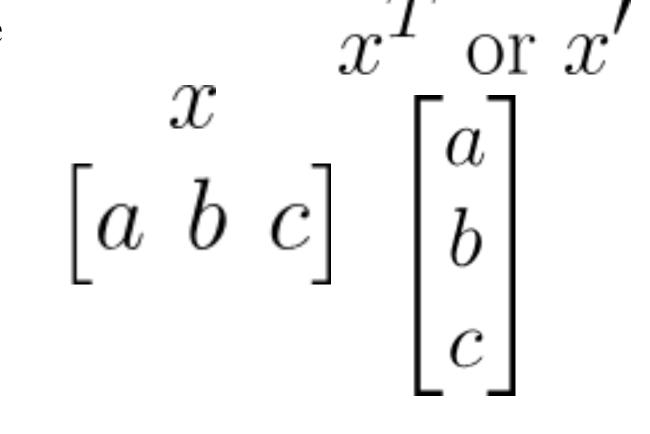
# L<sub>p</sub> Norms

• Lp norms measure the **size** of an object

### Lp Norms

Distance = size of vector going from **a** to **b** 

Transpose



### **Dot Product**

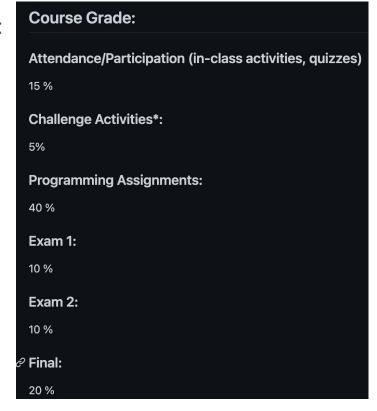
$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{vmatrix} x \\ y \end{vmatrix} = ax + by$$

### **Dot Product**

 Dot products are the sum of all the element wise multiplications of two vectors

### **Linear Combinations**

#### Example:



#### **Linear Combinations**

Generally:

$$\mathbf{w}^{\mathbf{T}}\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=0} w_i * x_i = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}$$

#### **Linear Combinations**

- Linear Combinations take a weight vector w and dot it with our variable vector x
- This gives us a new composite value that uses weights (w) to combine the variables in x
- Linear Combinations you might know:
  - Linear Regression
  - Principal Components

#### **Matrices and Vectors**

- Data as a Matrix/Vector (it's an excel spreadsheet)
- Matrix Algebra

#### **Matrices and Vectors**

- Vectors are arrays of numbers that can represent a point, or a line from the origin
- Matrices are collections of vectors and have both rows and columns
  - Data frames are like matrices
  - Correlation matrices

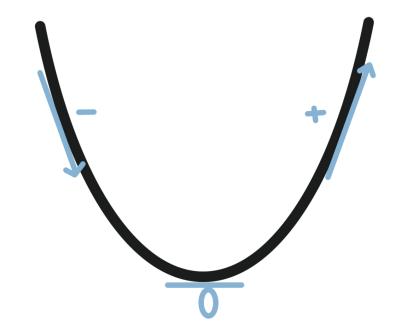
# One Hot Encoding

$\lceil apple \rceil$		[1]	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \end{bmatrix}$
carrot	,	0	1	0	1
celery	$\rightarrow$	0	0	1	0
carrot		0	0	0	0

### One Hot Encoding

- One Hot Encoding is like dummy variables
- To convert to One Hot Encoding you create a vector with length n
  - o **n** is the number of different elements you can have (e.g. words, categories)
- If a variable is the nth option, it has a 1 for the nth element of the vector and
   0's everywhere else
- One Hot Encoding is sparse

### Derivatives



Derivatives tell you the "instantaneous rate of change" As you change a variable, how does the output change?

#### Derivatives

- Derivatives tell us the rate of change of a function
- Derivatives are 0 are minima, maxima, and saddle points
- Derivatives are positive when the function is increasing
- Derivatives are negative when the function is decreasing

#### The Chain-Rule

$$f(x) = cos(x)$$
$$g(x) = x^{2}$$
$$f(g(x)) = cos(x^{2})$$

If we want to know how changing x affects f(g(x)) we first need to think about how changing x affects g(x) then how changing g(x) affects f(g(x))

$$\frac{\partial f(g(x))}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial g} \frac{\partial g}{\partial x}$$

#### The Chain Rule

 To calculate the derivative of composite functions, we need to think about how changing the variable changes the inner part, then how changing the inner part changes the outer part Partial Derivatives

$$f(x,y) = x^2 + xy + y^2$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x + 2y$$
  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x + y$ 

For a function of with multiple variables, how does the *function change* when you change a *single* variable

#### Partial Derivatives

• Partial Derivatives tell us how a multivariable function changes with respect to a *single* variable (holding all other variables constant)

# Gradient

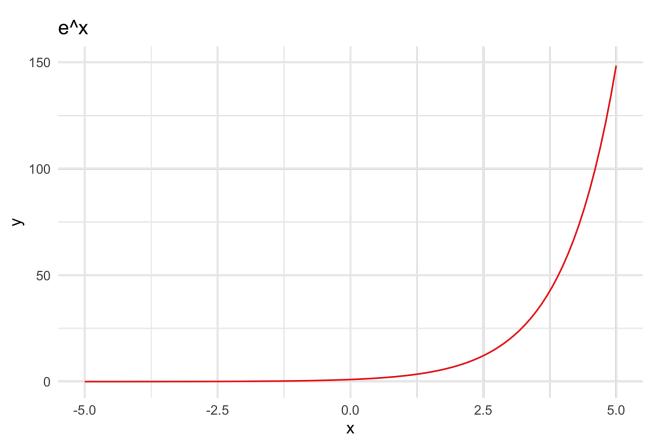
$$f(x,y) = x^2 + xy + y^2$$

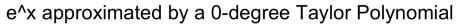
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x + 2y \qquad \qquad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x + y$$

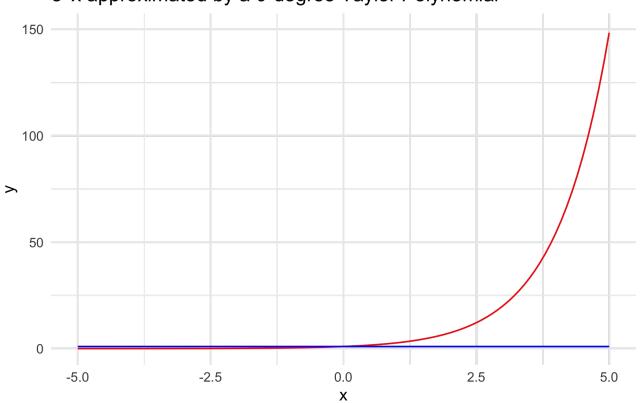
$$\nabla f(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

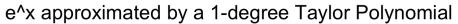
#### Gradient

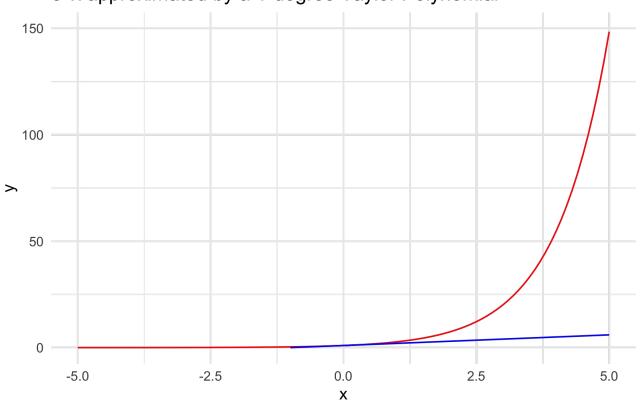
- A Gradient is a vector of partial derivatives
- it tell us how a multivariable function changes with respect to a each variable (holding all other variables constant)

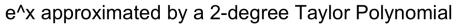


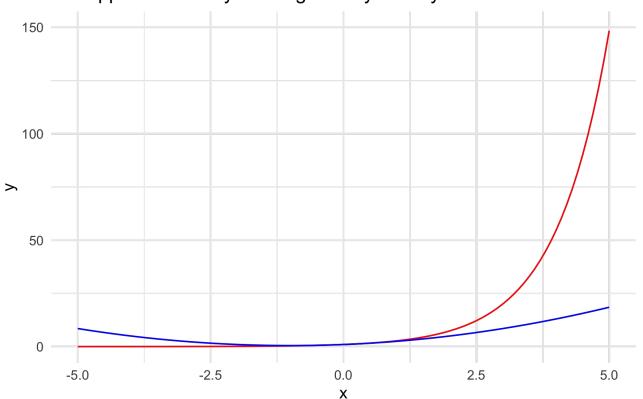




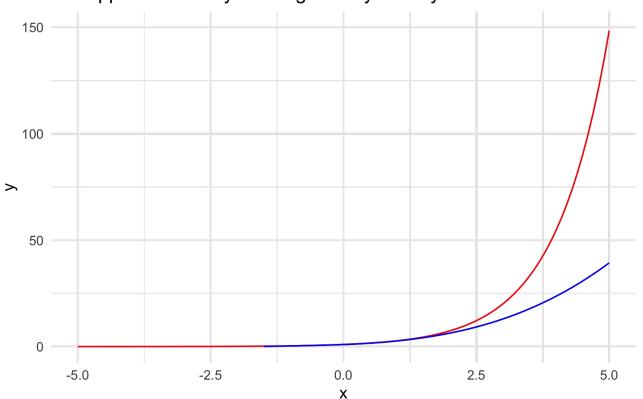


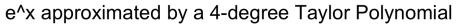


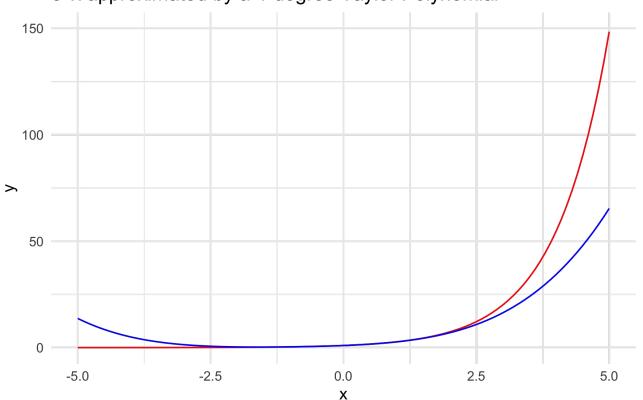


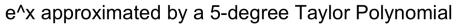


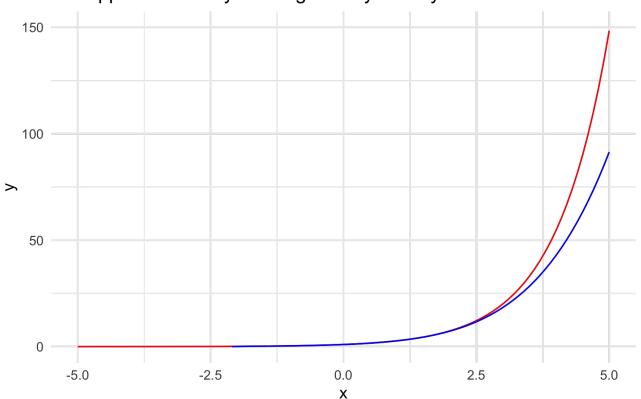


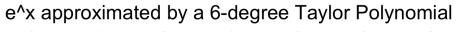


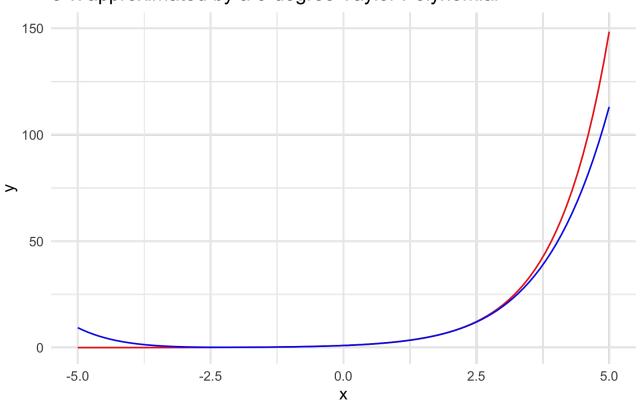












### **Taylor Series**

Is there a simpler function that approximates f(x)?
 Yes!

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{n}(a)}{n!} (x-a)^{n} = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^{2} + \dots + \frac{f^{\infty}(a)}{\infty!} (x-a)^{\infty}$$

### Taylor Series

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n = f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{f^{\infty}(a)}{\infty!} (x-a)^{\infty}$$

$$\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n = \underbrace{f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1} (x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!} (x-a)^2}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x))} + \underbrace{\int_{\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x))} + \underbrace{\int_{\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x))} + \underbrace{\int_{\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x))} + \underbrace{\int_{\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x))} + \underbrace{\int_{\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x))} + \underbrace{\int_{\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x))} + \underbrace{\int_{\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x))} + \underbrace{\int_{\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x))} + \underbrace{\int_{\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x))} + \underbrace{\int_{\infty}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(a)}{n!} (x-a)^n}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x)}_{\text{use just this for approximation } f(x)}_{\text{use just this for approximation of } f(x)}_{\text{use just this for approximation } f(x)}_{\text{use just this for$$

### Taylor Series

- Taylor Series are ways to **re-write a function** using its derivatives
- A Taylor Series is the sum of an **infinite** number of terms
- We can use just a few of these terms if we want an approximation of the function

#### Entropy

$$H(p) = -\sum_{i}^{N} p_i \, \log(p_i)$$
 Measure of surprise

#### Cross-Entropy

$$H(p,q) = -\sum_i^N p_i \; log(q_i)$$
 Measure of surprise for events with probability p, if you believe the events have probability q

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i) \cdot (\log p(x_i) - \log q(x_i))$$

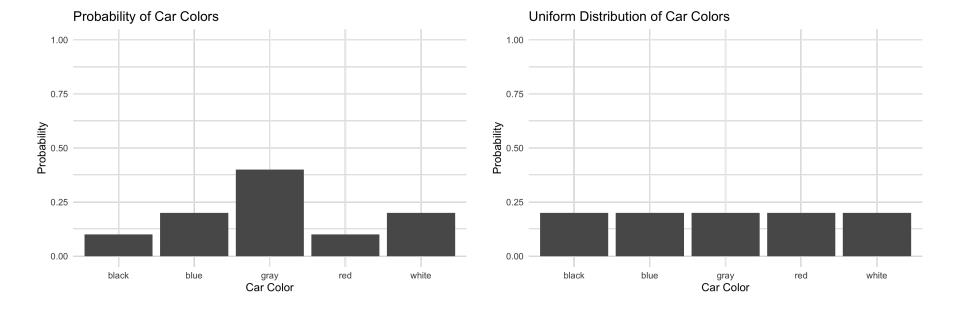
A similarity metric between two distributions  $\mathbf{p}$  and  $\mathbf{q}$ .

How much information is lost when we use  $\mathbf{q}$  to approximate  $\mathbf{p}$ .

How much more surprised I expect to be if I have incorrect information.

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i) \cdot (log \ p(x_i) - log \ q(x_i))$$

	black	blue	gray	red	white
p(x)	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.2
q(x)	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2

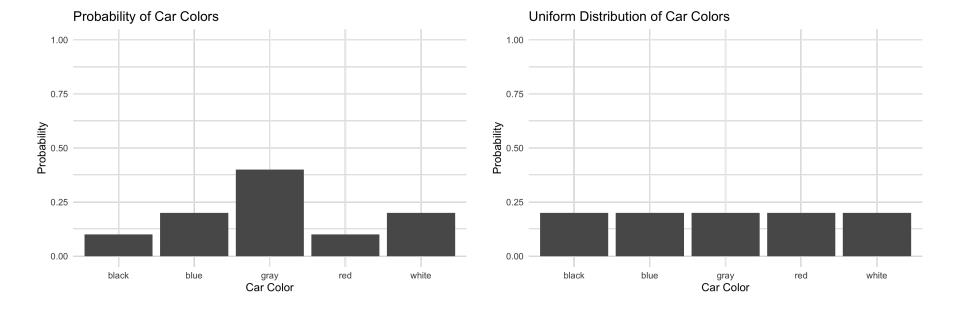


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$$D_{KL}(p||q) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} p(x_i) \cdot (log \ p(x_i) - log \ q(x_i))$$

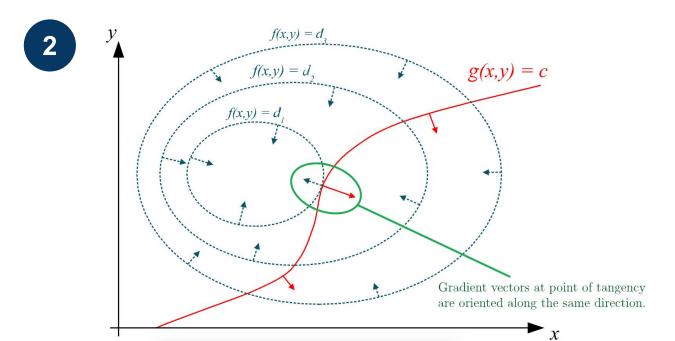
	black	blue	gray	red	white
p(x)	0.1	0.2	0.4	0.1	0.2
q(x)	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2



• KL Divergences is a **non-symmetric** similarity metric that measures the similarity between two distributions

Optimize f(x, y) subject to g(x, y) = c

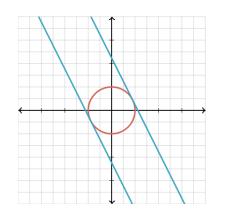
Optimize f(x, y) subject to g(x, y) = c



Lagrangians and Constrained Optimization Optimize f(x,y) subject to g(x,y)=c

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \lambda \nabla g(x_0, y_0)$$

Optimize f(x,y) subject to g(x,y) = c

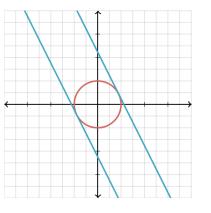


$$f(x,y) = 2x + y$$

$$g(x,y) = x^2 + y^2 = 1$$

$$\nabla f(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} 2x + y \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} 2x + y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \nabla g(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} x^2 + y^2 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} x^2 + y^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x \\ 2y \end{bmatrix}$$

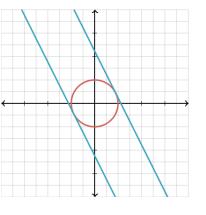
Optimize f(x, y) subject to g(x, y) = c



$$a(x, y) = x^2 + y^2 = 1$$

$$\nabla f(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} 2x + y \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} 2x + y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \nabla g(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} x^2 + y^2 \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} x^2 + y^2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x \\ 2y \end{bmatrix}$$

Optimize f(x,y) subject to g(x,y) = c



$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \lambda \nabla g(x_0, y_0)$$

$$f(x, y) = 2x + y$$

$$g(x, y_0) = x + y$$

$$f(x,y) = 2x + y g(x,y) = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} 2x + y\right] = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \end{bmatrix} \nabla g(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & 2 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \nabla g(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_0 \begin{bmatrix} 2x_0 \\ 2y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Optimize 
$$f(x,y)$$
 subject to  $g(x,y) = c$ 

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \lambda \nabla g(x_0, y_0)$$

$$f(x, y) = 2x + y$$

$$g(x_0, y_0)$$

$$\nabla f(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} 2x + y \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} 2x + y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda_0 \begin{bmatrix} 2x_0 \\ 2y_0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Optimize 
$$f(x, y)$$
 subject to  $g(x, y) = c$ 

4 
$$\mathcal{L}(xy) = f(xy) - \lambda g(xy) - c$$

$$\mathcal{L}(xy) = 2x + y - \lambda x^2 + y^2 - 1$$
For example

Optimize 
$$f(x, y)$$
 subject to  $g(x, y) = c$ 

4 
$$\mathcal{L}(xy) = f(xy) - \lambda g(xy) - c$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = 0 - (g(x,y) - c) = -g(x,y) + c$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = -g(x,y) + c$$

Optimize 
$$f(x, y)$$
 subject to  $g(x, y) = c$ 

$$\mathcal{L}(xy) = f(xy) - \lambda g(xy) - c$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = 0 - (g(x,y) - c) = -g(x,y) + c$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = -g(x,y) + c = 0$$

Optimize 
$$f(x, y)$$
 subject to  $g(x, y) = c$ 

4 
$$\mathcal{L}(x y \lambda) = f(x y) - \lambda g(x y) - c$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = 0 - (g(x, y) - c) = -g(x, y) + c$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} = -g(x,y) + c = 0 \text{ when } g(x,y) = c$$

Optimize 
$$f(x, y)$$
 subject to  $g(x, y) = c$ 

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} f(x, y) - \lambda(g(x, y) - c)$$

$$f_x(x,y) - \lambda g_x(x,y)$$

Optimize 
$$f(x, y)$$
 subject to  $g(x, y) = c$ 

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} f(x, y) - \lambda(g(x, y) - c)$$

$$f_x(x,y) - \lambda g_x(x,y) = 0$$

Optimize 
$$f(x, y)$$
 subject to  $g(x, y) = c$ 

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{v}} f(x,y) - \lambda(g(x,y) - c)$$

$$f_x(x,y) - \lambda g_x(x,y) = 0$$

$$f_x(x,y) = \lambda g_x(x,y)$$

Optimize 
$$f(x, y)$$
 subject to  $g(x, y) = c$ 

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial y} f(x, y) - \lambda (g(x, y) - c)$$

$$f_y(x, y) - \lambda g_y(x, y) = 0$$

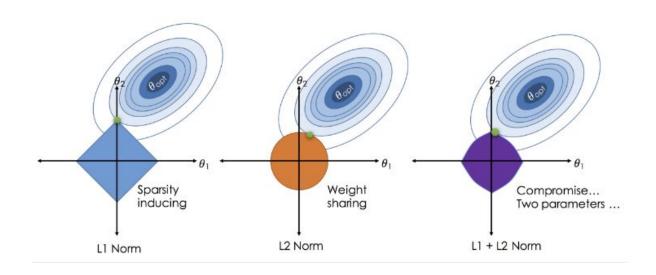
$$f_y(x, y) = \lambda g_y(x, y)$$

Optimize 
$$f(x, y)$$
 subject to  $g(x, y) = c$ 

4 
$$\mathcal{L}(x|y|\lambda) = f(x|y) - \lambda g(x|y) - c$$

$$\nabla \mathcal{L} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \lambda} \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Optimize f(x, y) subject to g(x, y) = c



### Lagrangians

- Lagrangians (and Lagrangian Multipliers) are a way to do constrained optimization
- Constrained Optimization is finding the min (or max) of a function within some boundary
- Because we know that the optima of a function (with constraints) occur at places where the two functions (function and constraint) are tangent, we can find where their gradients are parallel and that will be an optima!
- Lagrangians are a clever way of solving for these points by shoving them all into an equation and setting the gradient to 0
- The variable  $\lambda$  is called a Lagrangian Multiplier and represents the scaling factor between the two gradients
  - Can be interpreted as how much your function will change as you change your constraint