CSO507 Deep Learning

Overview of Linear Algebra

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Scalars

- A scalar is a single number
- It can be real, integer, etc.
- Typically it will be denoted using <u>lowercase italics</u>: a, x, n
- Example:
 - Let $s \in \mathbb{R}$ be the slope of the line
 - Let $n \in \mathbb{N}$ be the number of units

Vectors

- It is an array of numbers (e.g., scalars) and arranged in order
- Typically it will be denoted using <u>lowercase bold</u> font: x
- $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$

- Need to specify what kind of numbers are stored
 - If each element is in \mathbb{R} then the vector lies in \mathbb{R}^n (Cartesian product n times)
- Identify points in space, each element giving the coordinate along different axis
- A set of elements, x_1, x_2, x_3 can be specified as x_S where S = 1,3,5
- x_{-2} is a vector containing all elements except x_2

Matrices

- A matrix is a 2D array of numbers: $X = [x_{i,j}] = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1,1} & x_{1,2} & \dots & x_{1,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_{m,1} & x_{m,2} & \dots & x_{m,n} \end{bmatrix}$
- Example notation for type and shape: $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
- *n*-dimensional vector can be represented as n rows and 1 column: $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_n \end{bmatrix}$

Tensors

- A tensor is an array of numbers that may have
 - Zero dimensions, and be a scalar

```
>>> torch.tensor(3.14159)
tensor(3.1416)
```

One dimension, and be a vector

```
>>> torch.tensor([0, 1])
tensor([ 0, 1])
```

Two dimensions, and be a matrix

Or, more dimensions

Matrix Transpose

• Rows and columns are interchanged that is $X^T = [X_{i,j}]^T = [X_{j,i}]$

• For example,
$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1,1} & x_{1,2} & x_{1,3} \\ x_{2,1} & x_{2,2} & x_{2,3} \end{bmatrix}$$
 $\mathbf{X}^T = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1,1} & x_{2,1} \\ x_{1,2} & x_{2,2} \\ x_{1,3} & x_{2,3} \end{bmatrix}$

- Mirror image of matrix across the main diagonal
- For scalars, $a = a^T$
- $\bullet \quad (AB)^T = B^T A^T$

Matrix Manipulation

- Matrix addition: $C = A + B \implies C_{i,j} = A_{i,j} + B_{i,j}$
- Matrix multiplication: $C = A \times B \implies C_{i,j} = \sum_{k} A_{i,k} \times B_{k,j}$
- Multiplication and addition are associative:
 - (AB)C = A(BC)
 - A + (B + C) = (A + B) + C
- Multiplication is distributive
 - $A \times (B + C) = AB + AC$
- Multiplication is **not** commutative
 - $-AB \neq BA$

Matrix Product

- Let us assume $Z = X \times Y$, where $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$
- Number of columns in *X* should be equal to number of rows in *Y*
- $\bullet \quad Z_{i,j} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} X_{i,k} \times Y_{k,j}$

Identity Matrix

• All elements are 0 except for diagonal elements which are 1

• Example:
$$I_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, I_n x = x$

Systems of Equations

• Consider following equations:

$$-4x_1 - 5x_2 = -13$$

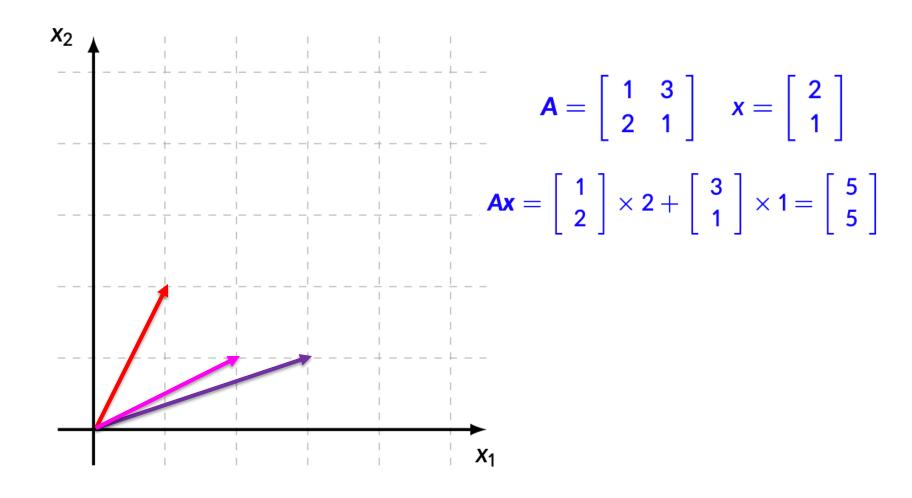
$$- 2x_1 + 3x_2 = 9$$

• Can be expressed in the form Ax = b

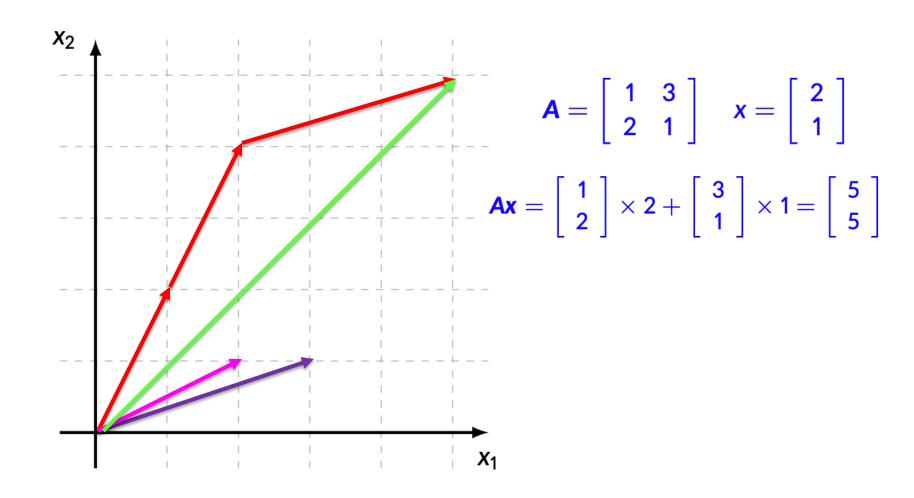
$$-A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -5 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix}, b = \begin{pmatrix} -13 \\ 9 \end{pmatrix}$$

- A linear system of equations may have
 - No solution
 - Many solutions
 - Exactly one solution
 - This means multiplication by the matrix is an invertible function

Linear Transformation



Linear Transformation



Matrix Inversion

- $A^{-1} \times A = I_n$
- Solving a system of equations using inverse
 - -Ax=b
 - $-A^{-1}Ax = A^{-1}b$
 - $-I_nx=A^{-1}b$
 - $x = A^{-1}b$
- Numerically unstable, but useful for abstract analysis
- Matrix cannot be inverted if
 - More rows than columns
 - More columns than rows
 - Redundant rows/columns
 - ("linearly dependent", "low rank")

Linear Independence

- Column can be thought of as specifying direction from origin
- Each element of x specify how far we should move in each of these direction i.e., $Ax = \sum x_i A_{:,i}$
- Formally, this is a linear combination of the set of vectors
- Span of set of vectors is the set of all points obtainable by linear combination of the original vectors
- What does Ax = b represent?
 - Testing whether b is in span of column of A
 - Span is known as column space or range of A

Linear Independence

- A set of vectors is linearly independent if no vectors in the set is a linear combination of of other vectors
 - No new points will be added if linear combination of vectors are added in the set
- Suppose column space is \mathbb{R}^m
 - Need to have exactly *m* linearly independent column
 - No set of *m* dimensional vectors can have more than *m* mutually linearly independent column
- A square matrix with linearly dependent columns is known as singular
- A matrix to have inverse
 - Ax = b has at most one solution for each value of b
- Is it possible to solve Ax = b if A is not square but singular
 - Yes but matrix inversion method cannot be used

Norms

• Measure the size of vector. It is defined as

$$L^p = ||\mathbf{x}||_p = \left(\sum_i |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p} \quad p \in \mathbb{R}, p \geq 1$$

• Intuitive meaning: distance of x from the origin

• Norm is any function *f* that satisfies

$$- f(x) = 0 \implies x = 0$$

-
$$f(x + y) \le f(x) + f(y) \Longrightarrow Triangle Inequality$$

$$- \ \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, f(\alpha x) = \alpha f(x)$$

Norms

- L^2 norm is known as Euclidean norm
 - It is often denoted as $\|x\|$ instead of $\|x\|_2$
 - Squared L^2 norm can be determined by x^Tx
- Derivative of the squared L^2 norm depend only on the corresponding element

$$\frac{\partial(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{i}} = \frac{\partial(x_{1}^{2} + \ldots + x_{m}^{2})}{\partial x_{i}}$$

• Derivative of L^2 depend on entire vector

$$\frac{\partial \sqrt{(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x})}}{\partial x_{i}} = \frac{\partial \sqrt{(x_{1}^{2} + \ldots + x_{m}^{2})}}{\partial x_{i}}$$

• Square L^2 norm is undesirable as it increases very slowly at the origin

Norms

- Need to identify elements that are zero and elements that are non-zero but small
 - Need a function that grow at the same rate in all locations
 - $-L^1$ can be used to differentiate zero and non-zero elements

$$L^1 = \|\mathbf{x}\| = \sum_i |x_i|$$

• L^{∞} (max norm) - Absolute value of the elements with the largest magnitude in the vector

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} = \max_{i} |\mathbf{x}_{i}|$$

Frobenius norm

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i,j} A_{i,j}^2}$$

- This is analogous to L^2 norm of vector

Special Matrices

- Diagonal matrices Non-zero diagonal elements and rests are zero
 - $D_{i,j} = 0, i \neq j$
 - Identity matrix
 - diag(v) vectors using diagonal elements
 - diag(v)x x_i is scaled by v_i
 - Inversion is easy $\operatorname{diag}(\mathbf{v})^{-1} = \operatorname{diag}([1/\mathbf{v}_1, 1/\mathbf{v}_2, \dots, 1/\mathbf{v}_n]^T)$
- Are the diagonal matrices need to be square?
 - No
 - Dx Scaling each element of x
 - Concatenate some zero if *D* is taller
 - Discard some last elements if *D* is wider
- Symmetric matrix Arises when the entries are generated by a function of two arguments that does not depend on order

Special Vectors & Matrices

- Unit vector A vector with unit norm $||x||_2 = 1$
- For vectors \underline{x} and \underline{y} , if $x^T y = 0$
 - Norm of x or y is zero
 - -x and y are at 90°
- In \mathbb{R}^n , at most *n* vectors may be mutually orthogonal with non-zero norm
- Vectors orthogonal and have unit norm is known as orthonormal
- Orthogonal matrix Square matrix, rows are mutually orthonormal, columns are mutually orthonormal
 - $-A^TA = AA^T = I \Longrightarrow A^T = A^{-1}$
 - Orthonormal matrices are of interest as inverse computation is easy