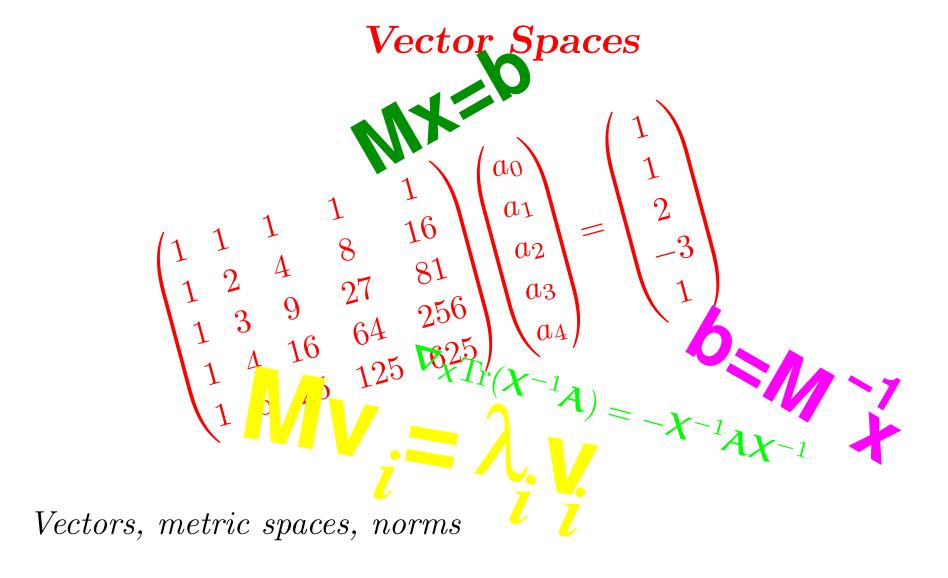
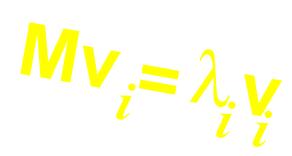
## **Advanced Machine Learning**

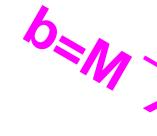


#### **Outline**

MX=b

- 1. Vector Spaces
- 2. Metrics (distances)
- 3. Norms





- The language of machine learning is mathematics
- Sometimes we draw pretty pictures to explain the mathematics
- Much of the mathematics we will use involves vectors, matrices and functions
- You need to master the language of mathematics, otherwise you won't understand the algorithms
- I'm going to spend this lecture and the next revising the mathematics you need to know

- The language of machine learning is mathematics
- Sometimes we draw pretty pictures to explain the mathematics
- Much of the mathematics we will use involves vectors, matrices and functions
- You need to master the language of mathematics, otherwise you won't understand the algorithms
- I'm going to spend this lecture and the next revising the mathematics you need to know

- The language of machine learning is mathematics
- Sometimes we draw pretty pictures to explain the mathematics
- Much of the mathematics we will use involves vectors, matrices and functions
- You need to master the language of mathematics, otherwise you won't understand the algorithms
- I'm going to spend this lecture and the next revising the mathematics you need to know

- The language of machine learning is mathematics
- Sometimes we draw pretty pictures to explain the mathematics
- Much of the mathematics we will use involves vectors, matrices and functions
- You need to master the language of mathematics, otherwise you won't understand the algorithms
- I'm going to spend this lecture and the next revising the mathematics you need to know

- The language of machine learning is mathematics
- Sometimes we draw pretty pictures to explain the mathematics
- Much of the mathematics we will use involves vectors, matrices and functions
- You need to master the language of mathematics, otherwise you won't understand the algorithms
- I'm going to spend this lecture and the next revising the mathematics you need to know

- The language of machine learning is mathematics
- Sometimes we draw pretty pictures to explain the mathematics
- Much of the mathematics we will use involves vectors, matrices and functions
- You need to master the language of mathematics, otherwise you won't understand the algorithms
- I'm going to spend this lecture and the next revising the mathematics you need to know (but I'm going use a slightly posher language than you are probably used to)

- Vector spaces involve fields (numbers)
- These are quantities we can add together (a + b) and multiply together  $(a \times b)$

- Vector spaces involve fields (numbers)—aka scalars
- These are quantities we can add together (a + b) and multiply together  $(a \times b)$

- Vector spaces involve fields (numbers)—aka scalars
- These are quantities we can add together (a + b) and multiply together  $(a \times b)$

- Vector spaces involve fields (numbers)—aka scalars
- These are quantities we can add together (a + b) and multiply together  $(a \times b)$
- ullet Formally they form an Abelian group under addition with an identity 0

- Vector spaces involve fields (numbers)—aka scalars
- These are quantities we can add together (a + b) and multiply together  $(a \times b)$
- ullet Formally they form an Abelian group under addition with an identity 0 and excluding 0 an Abelian group under multiplication

- Vector spaces involve fields (numbers)—aka scalars
- These are quantities we can add together (a+b) and multiply together  $(a \times b)$
- ullet Formally they form an Abelian group under addition with an identity 0 and excluding 0 an Abelian group under multiplication and they are distributive

$$a \times (b+c) = a \times b + a \times c$$

- Vector spaces involve fields (numbers)—aka scalars
- These are quantities we can add together (a+b) and multiply together  $(a \times b)$
- ullet Formally they form an Abelian group under addition with an identity 0 and excluding 0 an Abelian group under multiplication and they are distributive

$$a \times (b+c) = a \times b + a \times c$$

Although this sounds rather daunting don't panic

- Vector spaces involve fields (numbers)—aka scalars
- These are quantities we can add together (a+b) and multiply together  $(a \times b)$
- ullet Formally they form an Abelian group under addition with an identity 0 and excluding 0 an Abelian group under multiplication and they are distributive

$$a \times (b+c) = a \times b + a \times c$$

 Although this sounds rather daunting don't panic. They behave like numbers.

- Vector spaces involve fields (numbers)—aka scalars
- These are quantities we can add together (a+b) and multiply together  $(a \times b)$
- ullet Formally they form an Abelian group under addition with an identity 0 and excluding 0 an Abelian group under multiplication and they are distributive

$$a \times (b+c) = a \times b + a \times c$$

 Although this sounds rather daunting don't panic. They behave like numbers. The field might be integers, rational numbers, reals, complex numbers or something a bit more exotic

- Vector spaces involve fields (numbers)—aka scalars
- These are quantities we can add together (a+b) and multiply together  $(a \times b)$
- ullet Formally they form an Abelian group under addition with an identity 0 and excluding 0 an Abelian group under multiplication and they are distributive

$$a \times (b+c) = a \times b + a \times c$$

 Although this sounds rather daunting don't panic. They behave like numbers. The field might be integers, rational numbers, reals, complex numbers or something a bit more exotic—but we will almost always consider reals

- We often work with objects with many components (features)
- To help handle this we will use vector notation

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \qquad \text{All our vectors are column vectors by default}$$
 
$$\bullet \text{ We treat them as } n \times 1 \text{ matrix}$$

- We represent vectors by bold symbols

- We write row vectors as transposes of column vectors

$$\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

- We often work with objects with many components (features)
- To help handle this we will use vector notation

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \qquad \text{All our vectors are column vectors by default}$$
 
$$\bullet \text{ We treat them as } n \times 1 \text{ matrix}$$

- We represent vectors by bold symbols

- We write row vectors as transposes of column vectors

$$\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

- We often work with objects with many components (features)
- To help handle this we will use vector notation

$$m{x} = egin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$
 • All our vectors are column vectors by default

- We represent vectors by bold symbols

- We write row vectors as transposes of column vectors

$$\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

- We often work with objects with many components (features)
- To help handle this we will use vector notation

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \qquad \text{All our vectors are column vectors by default}$$
 
$$\bullet \text{ We represent vectors by bold symbols}$$

- We represent vectors by bold symbols

- We write row vectors as transposes of column vectors

$$\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

- We often work with objects with many components (features)
- To help handle this we will use vector notation

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \qquad \text{ All our vectors are column vectors by default}$$
 
$$\bullet \text{ We treat them as } n \times 1 \text{ matrix}$$

- We represent vectors by bold symbols

- We write row vectors as transposes of column vectors

$$\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

- We often work with objects with many components (features)
- To help handle this we will use vector notation

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \qquad \text{All our vectors are column vectors by default}$$
 
$$\bullet \text{ We represent vectors by bold symbols}$$

- We represent vectors by bold symbols

- We write row vectors as transposes of column vectors

$$\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

- We often work with objects with many components (features)
- To help handle this we will use vector notation

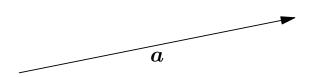
$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \qquad \text{All our vectors are column vectors by default}$$
 
$$\bullet \text{ We treat them as } n \times 1 \text{ matrix}$$

- We represent vectors by bold symbols

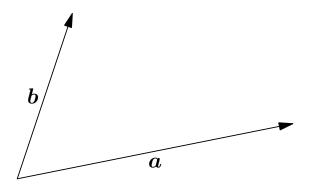
- We write row vectors as transposes of column vectors

$$\boldsymbol{y}^{\mathsf{T}} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$$

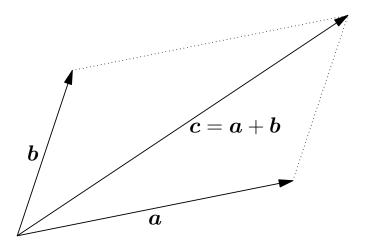
• The basic vector operations are adding



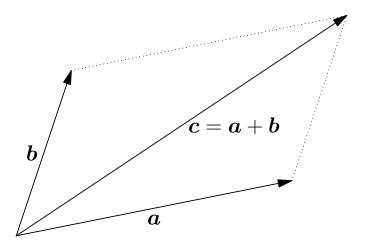
• The basic vector operations are adding



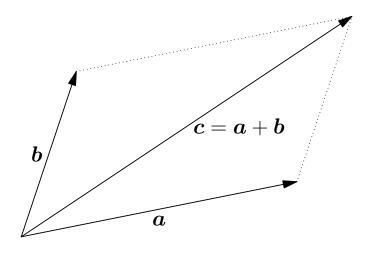
• The basic vector operations are adding

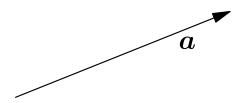


• The basic vector operations are adding

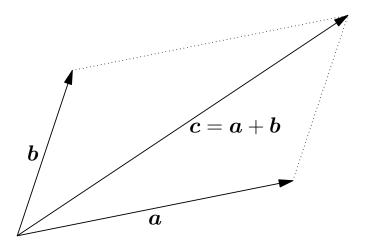


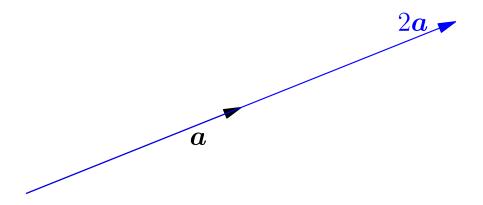
• The basic vector operations are adding





• The basic vector operations are adding





ullet A vector space,  $\mathcal V$ , is a set of vectors which satisfies

```
1. if \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{V} then a\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{V} and \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{V} (closure)

2. \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} (commutativity of addition)

3. (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) (associativity of addition)

4. \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v} (existence of additive identity 0)

5. 1\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} (existence of multiplicative identity 1)

6. a(b\mathbf{v}) = (ab)\mathbf{v} (distributive properties)

7. a(\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = a\mathbf{v} + a\mathbf{w}

8. (a + b)\mathbf{v} = a\mathbf{v} + b\mathbf{v}

(You don't need to remember these)
```

ullet A vector space,  $\mathcal{V}$ , is a set of vectors which satisfies

```
1. if v, w \in \mathcal{V} then av \in \mathcal{V} and v + w \in \mathcal{V} (closure)

2. v + w = w + v (commutativity of addition)

3. (u + v) + w = u + (v + w) (associativity of addition)

4. v + 0 = v (existence of additive identity 0)

5. 1v = v (existence of multiplicative identity 1)

6. a(bv) = (ab)v (distributive properties)

7. a(v + w) = av + aw

8. (a + b)v = av + bv

(You don't need to remember these)
```

ullet A vector space,  $\mathcal{V}$ , is a set of vectors which satisfies

```
1. if v, w \in \mathcal{V} then av \in \mathcal{V} and v + w \in \mathcal{V} (closure)
2. v + w = w + v (commutativity of addition)
3. (u + v) + w = u + (v + w) (associativity of addition)
4. v + 0 = v (existence of additive identity 0)
5. 1v = v (existence of multiplicative identity 1)
6. a(bv) = (ab)v (distributive properties)
7. a(v + w) = av + aw
8. (a + b)v = av + bv
(You don't need to remember these)
```

ullet A vector space,  $\mathcal{V}$ , is a set of vectors which satisfies

```
1. if v, w \in \mathcal{V} then av \in \mathcal{V} and v + w \in \mathcal{V} (closure)
2. v + w = w + v (commutativity of addition)
3. (u + v) + w = u + (v + w) (associativity of addition)
4. v + 0 = v (existence of additive identity 0)
5. 1v = v (existence of multiplicative identity 1)
6. a(bv) = (ab)v (distributive properties)
7. a(v + w) = av + aw
8. (a + b)v = av + bv
(You don't need to remember these)
```

ullet A vector space,  $\mathcal{V}$ , is a set of vectors which satisfies

```
1. if v, w \in \mathcal{V} then av \in \mathcal{V} and v + w \in \mathcal{V} (closure)

2. v + w = w + v (commutativity of addition)

3. (u + v) + w = u + (v + w) (associativity of addition)

4. v + 0 = v (existence of additive identity 0)

5. 1v = v (existence of multiplicative identity 1)

6. a(bv) = (ab)v (distributive properties)

7. a(v + w) = av + aw

8. (a + b)v = av + bv

(You don't need to remember these)
```

# **Vector Space**

ullet A vector space,  $\mathcal{V}$ , is a set of vectors which satisfies

```
1. if v, w \in \mathcal{V} then av \in \mathcal{V} and v + w \in \mathcal{V} (closure)

2. v + w = w + v (commutativity of addition)

3. (u + v) + w = u + (v + w) (associativity of addition)

4. v + 0 = v (existence of additive identity 0)

5. 1v = v (existence of multiplicative identity 1)

6. a(bv) = (ab)v (distributive properties)

7. a(v + w) = av + aw

8. (a + b)v = av + bv

(You don't need to remember these)
```

• Just from these properties we can deduce other properties

# **Vector Space**

ullet A vector space,  $\mathcal{V}$ , is a set of vectors which satisfies

```
1. if \boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{V} then a\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathcal{V} and \boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathcal{V} (closure)

2. \boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w} = \boldsymbol{w} + \boldsymbol{v} (commutativity of addition)

3. (\boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{v}) + \boldsymbol{w} = \boldsymbol{u} + (\boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w}) (associativity of addition)

4. \boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{0} = \boldsymbol{v} (existence of additive identity 0)

5. 1\boldsymbol{v} = \boldsymbol{v} (existence of multiplicative identity 1)

6. a(b\boldsymbol{v}) = (ab)\boldsymbol{v} (distributive properties)

7. a(\boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w}) = a\boldsymbol{v} + a\boldsymbol{w}

8. (a + b)\boldsymbol{v} = a\boldsymbol{v} + b\boldsymbol{v}
```

(You don't need to remember these)

• Just from these properties we can deduce other properties

## **Vector Space**

ullet A vector space,  $\mathcal{V}$ , is a set of vectors which satisfies

```
1. if v, w \in \mathcal{V} then av \in \mathcal{V} and v + w \in \mathcal{V} (closure)

2. v + w = w + v (commutativity of addition)

3. (u + v) + w = u + (v + w) (associativity of addition)

4. v + 0 = v (existence of additive identity 0)

5. 1v = v (existence of multiplicative identity 1)

6. a(bv) = (ab)v (distributive properties)

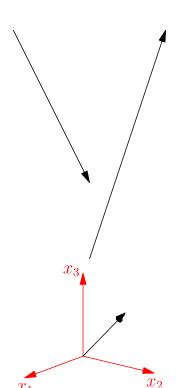
7. a(v + w) = av + aw

8. (a + b)v = av + bv

(You don't need to remember these)
```

• Just from these properties we can deduce other properties

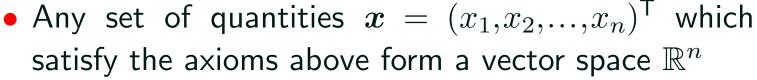
- When we first learn about vectors we think of them arrows in 3-D space
- If we centre them all at the origin then there is a oneto-one correspondence between vectors and points in space



- ullet We call this vector space  $\mathbb{R}^3$
- Any set of quantities  $\boldsymbol{x}=(x_1,x_2,...,x_n)^\mathsf{T}$  which satisfy the axioms above form a vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$

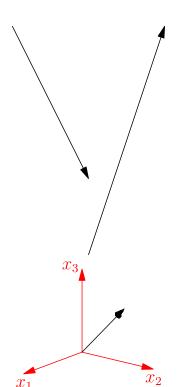
- When we first learn about vectors we think of them arrows in 3-D space
- If we centre them all at the origin then there is a oneto-one correspondence between vectors and points in space





 $x_3$   $x_1$   $x_2$ 

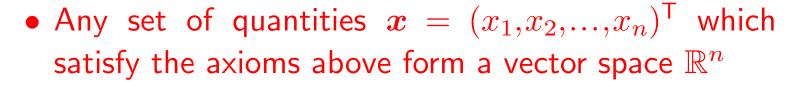
- When we first learn about vectors we think of them arrows in 3-D space
- If we centre them all at the origin then there is a oneto-one correspondence between vectors and points in space

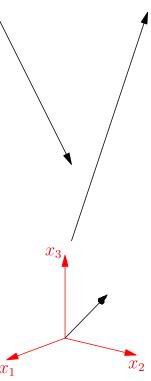


- ullet We call this vector space  $\mathbb{R}^3$
- Any set of quantities  $\boldsymbol{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)^\mathsf{T}$  which satisfy the axioms above form a vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$

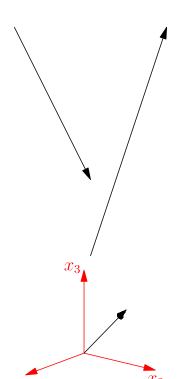
- When we first learn about vectors we think of them arrows in 3-D space
- If we centre them all at the origin then there is a oneto-one correspondence between vectors and points in space



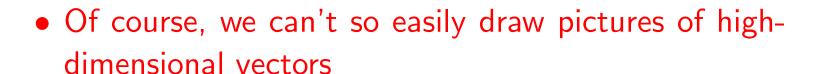




- When we first learn about vectors we think of them arrows in 3-D space
- If we centre them all at the origin then there is a oneto-one correspondence between vectors and points in space



- ullet We call this vector space  $\mathbb{R}^3$
- Any set of quantities  $\boldsymbol{x} = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_n)^\mathsf{T}$  which satisfy the axioms above form a vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$



- Vectors (i.e.  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) are not the only object that form vector spaces
- Matrices satisfy all the conditions of a vector space
- Infinite sequences form a vector space
- Functions form a vector space
  - $\star$  Let C(a,b) be the set of functions defined on the interval [a,b]
  - Note that if  $f(x), g(x) \in C(a,b)$  then  $af(x) \in C(a,b)$  and  $f(x) + g(x) \in C(a,b)$
- Bounded vectors don't form a vector space

- Vectors (i.e.  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) are not the only object that form vector spaces
- Matrices satisfy all the conditions of a vector space
- Infinite sequences form a vector space
- Functions form a vector space
  - $\star$  Let C(a,b) be the set of functions defined on the interval [a,b]
  - Note that if  $f(x), g(x) \in C(a,b)$  then  $af(x) \in C(a,b)$  and  $f(x) + g(x) \in C(a,b)$
- Bounded vectors don't form a vector space

- Vectors (i.e.  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) are not the only object that form vector spaces
- Matrices satisfy all the conditions of a vector space
- Infinite sequences form a vector space
- Functions form a vector space
  - $\star$  Let C(a,b) be the set of functions defined on the interval [a,b]
  - Note that if  $f(x), g(x) \in C(a,b)$  then  $af(x) \in C(a,b)$  and  $f(x) + g(x) \in C(a,b)$
- Bounded vectors don't form a vector space

- Vectors (i.e.  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) are not the only object that form vector spaces
- Matrices satisfy all the conditions of a vector space
- Infinite sequences form a vector space
- Functions form a vector space
  - $\star$  Let C(a,b) be the set of functions defined on the interval [a,b]
  - Note that if  $f(x), g(x) \in C(a,b)$  then  $af(x) \in C(a,b)$  and  $f(x) + g(x) \in C(a,b)$
- Bounded vectors don't form a vector space

- Vectors (i.e.  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) are not the only object that form vector spaces
- Matrices satisfy all the conditions of a vector space
- Infinite sequences form a vector space
- Functions form a vector space
  - $\star$  Let C(a,b) be the set of functions defined on the interval [a,b]
  - $\star$  Note that if  $f(x),g(x)\in C(a,b)$  then  $af(x)\in C(a,b)$  and  $f(x)+g(x)\in C(a,b)$
- Bounded vectors don't form a vector space

- Vectors (i.e.  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) are not the only object that form vector spaces
- Matrices satisfy all the conditions of a vector space
- Infinite sequences form a vector space
- Functions form a vector space
  - $\star$  Let C(a,b) be the set of functions defined on the interval [a,b]
  - Note that if  $f(x), g(x) \in C(a,b)$  then  $af(x) \in C(a,b)$  and  $f(x) + g(x) \in C(a,b)$
- Bounded vectors don't form a vector space

#### **Outline**

MX=b

- 1. Vector Spaces
- 2. Metrics (distances)
- 3. Norms





- Vector spaces become more interesting if we have a notion of distance
- We say d(x,y) is a **proper distance** or **metric** if

```
1. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \geq 0 (non-negativity)

2. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0 iff \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{y} (identity of indiscernibles)

3. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = d(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) (symmetry)

4. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \leq d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) + d(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{y}) (triangular inequality)
```

- There are typically many possible distances (e.g. Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, etc.)
- Often one or more condition isn't satisfied then we have a pseudo-metric

- Vector spaces become more interesting if we have a notion of distance
- We say d(x,y) is a **proper distance** or **metric** if

```
1. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \geq 0 (non-negativity)

2. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0 iff \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{y} (identity of indiscernibles)

3. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = d(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) (symmetry)

4. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \leq d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) + d(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{y}) (triangular inequality)
```

- There are typically many possible distances (e.g. Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, etc.)
- Often one or more condition isn't satisfied then we have a pseudo-metric

- Vector spaces become more interesting if we have a notion of distance
- We say  $d(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$  is a **proper distance** or **metric** if

```
1. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \geq 0 (non-negativity)

2. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0 iff \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{y} (identity of indiscernibles)

3. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = d(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) (symmetry)

4. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \leq d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) + d(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{y}) (triangular inequality)
```

- There are typically many possible distances (e.g. Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, etc.)
- Often one or more condition isn't satisfied then we have a pseudo-metric

- Vector spaces become more interesting if we have a notion of distance
- We say  $d(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$  is a **proper distance** or **metric** if

```
1. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \geq 0 (non-negativity)

2. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0 iff \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{y} (identity of indiscernibles)

3. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = d(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) (symmetry)

4. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \leq d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) + d(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{y}) (triangular inequality)
```

- There are typically many possible distances (e.g. Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, etc.)
- Often one or more condition isn't satisfied then we have a pseudo-metric

- Vector spaces become more interesting if we have a notion of distance
- We say  $d(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$  is a **proper distance** or **metric** if

```
1. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \geq 0 (non-negativity)

2. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0 iff \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{y} (identity of indiscernibles)

3. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = d(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) (symmetry)

4. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \leq d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) + d(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{y}) (triangular inequality)
```

- There are typically many possible distances (e.g. Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, etc.)
- Often one or more condition isn't satisfied then we have a pseudo-metric

- Vector spaces become more interesting if we have a notion of distance
- We say  $d(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$  is a **proper distance** or **metric** if

```
1. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \geq 0 (non-negativity)

2. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0 iff \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{y} (identity of indiscernibles)

3. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = d(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) (symmetry)

4. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \leq d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) + d(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{y}) (triangular inequality)
```

- There are typically many possible distances (e.g. Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, etc.)
- Often one or more condition isn't satisfied then we have a pseudo-metric

- Vector spaces become more interesting if we have a notion of distance
- We say  $d(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{y})$  is a **proper distance** or **metric** if

```
1. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \geq 0 (non-negativity)

2. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = 0 iff \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{y} (identity of indiscernibles)

3. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = d(\boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x}) (symmetry)

4. d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) \leq d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z}) + d(\boldsymbol{z}, \boldsymbol{y}) (triangular inequality)
```

- There are typically many possible distances (e.g. Euclidean distance, Manhattan distance, etc.)
- Often one or more condition isn't satisfied then we have a pseudo-metric

 A function defines a mapping from one vector space to another (although the spaces might be the same),

 A function defines a mapping from one vector space to another (although the spaces might be the same), e.g.

$$f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$

 A function defines a mapping from one vector space to another (although the spaces might be the same), e.g.

$$f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$

(f maps the reals onto reals, i.e. f(x) takes a real x and gives you a new real number y = f(x))

 A function defines a mapping from one vector space to another (although the spaces might be the same), e.g.

$$f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$

(f maps the reals onto reals, i.e. f(x) takes a real x and gives you a new real number y = f(x))

• We are often interested in functions that behave nicely

 A function defines a mapping from one vector space to another (although the spaces might be the same), e.g.

$$f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$

(f maps the reals onto reals, i.e. f(x) takes a real x and gives you a new real number y=f(x))

- We are often interested in functions that behave nicely
- E.g. They are continuous

$$d(f(x), f(y)) \le Kd(x, y)$$

- This is known a **Lipschitz condition** and the function is said to be K-Lipschitz
- Note that such functions cannot have any jumps (i.e. they are continuous)
- ullet The size of K measures the limit on the amplifying effect of the function

$$d(f(x), f(y)) \le Kd(x, y)$$

- This is known a Lipschitz condition and the function is said to be K-Lipschitz
- Note that such functions cannot have any jumps (i.e. they are continuous)
- ullet The size of K measures the limit on the amplifying effect of the function

$$d(f(x), f(y)) \le Kd(x, y)$$

- This is known a **Lipschitz condition** and the function is said to be K-Lipschitz
- Note that such functions cannot have any jumps (i.e. they are continuous)
- ullet The size of K measures the limit on the amplifying effect of the function

$$d(f(x), f(y)) \le Kd(x, y)$$

- This is known a **Lipschitz condition** and the function is said to be K-Lipschitz
- Note that such functions cannot have any jumps (i.e. they are continuous)
- The size of K measures the limit on the amplifying effect of the function

- ullet An interesting class of function are those for which K < 1
- These are said to be contractive mappings
- A famous theorem that applies to contractive mappings is the Banach fixed-point theorem which says there exists a unique fixed point such that f(x)=x
- This is used for example in showing that various algorithms will converge

- ullet An interesting class of function are those for which K < 1
- These are said to be contractive mappings
- A famous theorem that applies to contractive mappings is the Banach fixed-point theorem which says there exists a unique fixed point such that f(x)=x
- This is used for example in showing that various algorithms will converge

- ullet An interesting class of function are those for which K < 1
- These are said to be contractive mappings
- A famous theorem that applies to contractive mappings is the Banach fixed-point theorem which says there exists a unique fixed point such that f(x) = x
- This is used for example in showing that various algorithms will converge

- ullet An interesting class of function are those for which K < 1
- These are said to be contractive mappings
- A famous theorem that applies to contractive mappings is the Banach fixed-point theorem which says there exists a unique fixed point such that f(x)=x
- This is used for example in showing that various algorithms will converge

#### **Outline**

MX=b

- 1. Vector Spaces
- 2. Metrics (distances)
- 3. Norms





- Vector spaces are even more interesting with a notion of length
- Norms provide some measure of the size of a vector
- ullet To formalise this we define the **norm** of an object  $oldsymbol{v}$  as  $\|oldsymbol{v}\|$  satisfying

1. 
$$\|v\| > 0$$
 if  $v \neq 0$  (non-negativity)  
2.  $\|av\| = a\|v\|$  (linearity)  
3.  $\|u+v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$  (triangular inequality)

- When some criteria aren't satisfied we have a pseudo-norms
- Norms provide a metric  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$  (they are metric spaces)

- Vector spaces are even more interesting with a notion of length
- Norms provide some measure of the size of a vector
- ullet To formalise this we define the **norm** of an object  $oldsymbol{v}$  as  $\|oldsymbol{v}\|$  satisfying

1. 
$$\|v\| > 0$$
 if  $v \neq 0$  (non-negativity)  
2.  $\|av\| = a\|v\|$  (linearity)  
3.  $\|u+v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$  (triangular inequality)

- When some criteria aren't satisfied we have a pseudo-norms
- Norms provide a metric  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$  (they are metric spaces)

- Vector spaces are even more interesting with a notion of length
- Norms provide some measure of the size of a vector
- ullet To formalise this we define the **norm** of an object  $oldsymbol{v}$  as  $\|oldsymbol{v}\|$  satisfying

```
1. \|v\| > 0 if v \neq 0 (non-negativity)
2. \|av\| = a\|v\| (linearity)
3. \|u+v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\| (triangular inequality)
```

- When some criteria aren't satisfied we have a pseudo-norms
- Norms provide a metric  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$  (they are metric spaces)

- Vector spaces are even more interesting with a notion of length
- Norms provide some measure of the size of a vector
- ullet To formalise this we define the **norm** of an object  $oldsymbol{v}$  as  $\|oldsymbol{v}\|$  satisfying
  - 1.  $\|v\| > 0$  if  $v \neq 0$  (non-negativity) 2.  $\|av\| = a\|v\|$  (linearity) 3.  $\|u+v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$  (triangular inequality)
- When some criteria aren't satisfied we have a pseudo-norms
- Norms provide a metric  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$  (they are metric spaces)

- Vector spaces are even more interesting with a notion of length
- Norms provide some measure of the size of a vector
- ullet To formalise this we define the **norm** of an object  $oldsymbol{v}$  as  $\|oldsymbol{v}\|$  satisfying

```
1. \|\boldsymbol{v}\| > 0 if \boldsymbol{v} \neq \boldsymbol{0} (non-negativity)

2. \|a\boldsymbol{v}\| = a\|\boldsymbol{v}\| (linearity)

3. \|\boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{v}\| \leq \|\boldsymbol{u}\| + \|\boldsymbol{v}\| (triangular inequality)
```

- When some criteria aren't satisfied we have a pseudo-norms
- Norms provide a metric  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$  (they are metric spaces)

- Vector spaces are even more interesting with a notion of length
- Norms provide some measure of the size of a vector
- ullet To formalise this we define the **norm** of an object  $oldsymbol{v}$  as  $\|oldsymbol{v}\|$  satisfying

1. 
$$\|v\| > 0$$
 if  $v \neq 0$  (non-negativity)  
2.  $\|av\| = a\|v\|$  (linearity)  
3.  $\|u+v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$  (triangular inequality)

- When some criteria aren't satisfied we have a pseudo-norms
- Norms provide a metric  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$  (they are metric spaces)

- Vector spaces are even more interesting with a notion of length
- Norms provide some measure of the size of a vector
- ullet To formalise this we define the **norm** of an object  $oldsymbol{v}$  as  $\|oldsymbol{v}\|$  satisfying

1. 
$$\|v\| > 0$$
 if  $v \neq 0$  (non-negativity)  
2.  $\|av\| = a\|v\|$  (linearity)  
3.  $\|u+v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$  (triangular inequality)

- When some criteria aren't satisfied we have a pseudo-norms
- Norms provide a metric  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$  (they are metric spaces)

• The familiar vector norm is the (Euclidean) two norm

$$\|\boldsymbol{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$$

• Other norms exist, such as the p-norm ( $p \ge 1$ )

$$\|\boldsymbol{v}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|^p\right)^{1/p}$$

• Special cases include the 1-norm and the infinite norm

$$\|v\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|$$
  $\|v\|_{\infty} = \max_i |v_i|$ 

• The 0-norm is a pseudo-norm as it does not satisfy condition 2

The familiar vector norm is the (Euclidean) two norm

$$\|\boldsymbol{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$$

• Other norms exist, such as the p-norm  $(p \ge 1)$ 

$$\|oldsymbol{v}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|^p
ight)^{1/p}$$

• Special cases include the 1-norm and the infinite norm

$$\|v\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|$$
  $\|v\|_{\infty} = \max_i |v_i|$ 

• The 0-norm is a pseudo-norm as it does not satisfy condition 2

The familiar vector norm is the (Euclidean) two norm

$$\|\boldsymbol{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$$

• Other norms exist, such as the p-norm ( $p \ge 1$ )

$$\|oldsymbol{v}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|^p
ight)^{1/p}$$

• Special cases include the 1-norm and the infinite norm

$$\|v\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|$$
  $\|v\|_{\infty} = \max_i |v_i|$ 

• The 0-norm is a pseudo-norm as it does not satisfy condition 2

The familiar vector norm is the (Euclidean) two norm

$$\|\boldsymbol{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$$

• Other norms exist, such as the p-norm ( $p \ge 1$ )

$$\|\boldsymbol{v}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|^p\right)^{1/p}$$

• Special cases include the 1-norm and the infinite norm

$$\|v\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|$$
  $\|v\|_{\infty} = \max_i |v_i|$ 

• The 0-norm is a pseudo-norm as it does not satisfy condition 2

The familiar vector norm is the (Euclidean) two norm

$$\|\boldsymbol{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$$

• Other norms exist, such as the p-norm  $(p \ge 1)$ 

$$\|\boldsymbol{v}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|^p\right)^{1/p}$$

Special cases include the 1-norm and the infinite norm

$$\|v\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|$$
  $\|v\|_{\infty} = \max_i |v_i|$ 

• The 0-norm is a pseudo-norm as it does not satisfy condition 2

- We can define norms for other objects
- The norm of a matrix encodes how large the mapping is
- The Frobenius norm is defined by

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |A_{ij}|^2}$$

- Many other norms exist including 1-norm, max-norm, etc.
- For square matrices, some, but not all, norms satisfy the inequality

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}\| \times \|\mathbf{B}\|$$

- We can define norms for other objects
- The norm of a matrix encodes how large the mapping is
- The Frobenius norm is defined by

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |A_{ij}|^2}$$

- Many other norms exist including 1-norm, max-norm, etc.
- For square matrices, some, but not all, norms satisfy the inequality

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}\| \times \|\mathbf{B}\|$$

- We can define norms for other objects
- The norm of a matrix encodes how large the mapping is
- The Frobenius norm is defined by

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |A_{ij}|^2}$$

- Many other norms exist including 1-norm, max-norm, etc.
- For square matrices, some, but not all, norms satisfy the inequality

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}\| \times \|\mathbf{B}\|$$

- We can define norms for other objects
- The norm of a matrix encodes how large the mapping is
- The Frobenius norm is defined by

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |A_{ij}|^2}$$

- Many other norms exist including 1-norm, max-norm, etc.
- For square matrices, some, but not all, norms satisfy the inequality

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}\| \times \|\mathbf{B}\|$$

- We can define norms for other objects
- The norm of a matrix encodes how large the mapping is
- The Frobenius norm is defined by

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |A_{ij}|^2}$$

- Many other norms exist including 1-norm, max-norm, etc.
- For square matrices, some, but not all, norms satisfy the inequality

$$\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}\| \leq \|\mathbf{A}\| \times \|\mathbf{B}\|$$

A vector and matrix norm are said to be compatible if

$$\|\mathbf{M}\boldsymbol{v}\|_b \leq \|\mathbf{M}\|_a \times \|\boldsymbol{v}\|_b$$

- Norms provide quick ways to bound the maximum growth of a vector under a mapping induced by the matrix
- We will see that a measure of the sensitivity of a mapping is in terms of the ratio of its maximum effect to its minimum effect on a vector
- ullet This is known as the **conditioning**, given by  $\|\mathbf{M}\| imes \|\mathbf{M}^{-1}\|$

A vector and matrix norm are said to be compatible if

$$\|\mathbf{M}\boldsymbol{v}\|_b \leq \|\mathbf{M}\|_a \times \|\boldsymbol{v}\|_b$$

- Norms provide quick ways to bound the maximum growth of a vector under a mapping induced by the matrix
- We will see that a measure of the sensitivity of a mapping is in terms of the ratio of its maximum effect to its minimum effect on a vector
- ullet This is known as the **conditioning**, given by  $\|\mathbf{M}\| imes \|\mathbf{M}^{-1}\|$

A vector and matrix norm are said to be compatible if

$$\|\mathbf{M}\boldsymbol{v}\|_b \leq \|\mathbf{M}\|_a \times \|\boldsymbol{v}\|_b$$

- Norms provide quick ways to bound the maximum growth of a vector under a mapping induced by the matrix
- We will see that a measure of the sensitivity of a mapping is in terms of the ratio of its maximum effect to its minimum effect on a vector
- ullet This is known as the **conditioning**, given by  $\|\mathbf{M}\| imes \|\mathbf{M}^{-1}\|$

A vector and matrix norm are said to be compatible if

$$\|\mathbf{M}\boldsymbol{v}\|_b \leq \|\mathbf{M}\|_a \times \|\boldsymbol{v}\|_b$$

- Norms provide quick ways to bound the maximum growth of a vector under a mapping induced by the matrix
- We will see that a measure of the sensitivity of a mapping is in terms of the ratio of its maximum effect to its minimum effect on a vector
- This is known as the **conditioning**, given by  $\|\mathbf{M}\| \times \|\mathbf{M}^{-1}\|$

- ullet Deep learning involves multiply the input (which we can think of as a vector x) by many layers
- In CNNs we have convolutional layers and dense layers
- The effect of applying these layers can be represented by a matrix multiplication  $m{x}_n = \mathbf{L}_n m{x}_{n-1}$
- ullet We also do other things like applying ReLU's or pooling that changes the magnitude,  $oldsymbol{x}_n$ , of our representation
- If you are developing new architectures you want  $\|m{x}_n\|$  neither to blow up or vanish
- ullet This can be controlled by carefully choosing  $\|\mathbf{L}_n\|$

- ullet Deep learning involves multiply the input (which we can think of as a vector x) by many layers
- In CNNs we have convolutional layers and dense layers
- The effect of applying these layers can be represented by a matrix multiplication  $m{x}_n = \mathbf{L}_n m{x}_{n-1}$
- ullet We also do other things like applying ReLU's or pooling that changes the magnitude,  $oldsymbol{x}_n$ , of our representation
- If you are developing new architectures you want  $\|m{x}_n\|$  neither to blow up or vanish
- ullet This can be controlled by carefully choosing  $\|\mathbf{L}_n\|$

- ullet Deep learning involves multiply the input (which we can think of as a vector  $oldsymbol{x}$ ) by many layers
- In CNNs we have convolutional layers and dense layers
- ullet The effect of applying these layers can be represented by a matrix multiplication  $oldsymbol{x}_n = \mathbf{L}_n oldsymbol{x}_{n-1}$
- ullet We also do other things like applying ReLU's or pooling that changes the magnitude,  $oldsymbol{x}_n$ , of our representation
- If you are developing new architectures you want  $\|m{x}_n\|$  neither to blow up or vanish
- ullet This can be controlled by carefully choosing  $\|\mathbf{L}_n\|$

- ullet Deep learning involves multiply the input (which we can think of as a vector x) by many layers
- In CNNs we have convolutional layers and dense layers
- The effect of applying these layers can be represented by a matrix multiplication  $m{x}_n = \mathbf{L}_n m{x}_{n-1}$
- ullet We also do other things like applying ReLU's or pooling that changes the magnitude,  $oldsymbol{x}_n$ , of our representation
- If you are developing new architectures you want  $\|m{x}_n\|$  neither to blow up or vanish
- ullet This can be controlled by carefully choosing  $\|\mathbf{L}_n\|$

- ullet Deep learning involves multiply the input (which we can think of as a vector x) by many layers
- In CNNs we have convolutional layers and dense layers
- The effect of applying these layers can be represented by a matrix multiplication  $m{x}_n = \mathbf{L}_n m{x}_{n-1}$
- ullet We also do other things like applying ReLU's or pooling that changes the magnitude,  $oldsymbol{x}_n$ , of our representation
- ullet If you are developing new architectures you want  $\|oldsymbol{x}_n\|$  neither to blow up or vanish
- ullet This can be controlled by carefully choosing  $\|\mathbf{L}_n\|$

- ullet Deep learning involves multiply the input (which we can think of as a vector  $oldsymbol{x}$ ) by many layers
- In CNNs we have convolutional layers and dense layers
- The effect of applying these layers can be represented by a matrix multiplication  $m{x}_n = \mathbf{L}_n m{x}_{n-1}$
- ullet We also do other things like applying ReLU's or pooling that changes the magnitude,  $oldsymbol{x}_n$ , of our representation
- If you are developing new architectures you want  $\|m{x}_n\|$  neither to blow up or vanish
- ullet This can be controlled by carefully choosing  $\|\mathbf{L}_n\|$

ullet Functions can also have norms, for example, if f(x) is defined in some interval  ${\mathcal I}$ 

$$||f||_{L_2} = \sqrt{\int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f^2(x) \, \mathrm{d}x}$$

- The  $L_2$  vector space is the set of function where  $\|f\|_{L_2} < \infty$
- The  $L_1$ -norm is given by  $||f||_{L_1} = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} |f(x)| dx$
- The infinite-norm is given by  $||f||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathcal{I}} |f(x)|$

• Functions can also have norms, for example, if f(x) is defined in some interval  $\mathcal I$ 

$$||f||_{L_2} = \sqrt{\int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f^2(x) \, \mathrm{d}x}$$

- The  $L_2$  vector space is the set of function where  $\|f\|_{L_2} < \infty$
- The  $L_1$ -norm is given by  $||f||_{L_1} = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} |f(x)| dx$
- The infinite-norm is given by  $||f||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathcal{I}} |f(x)|$

• Functions can also have norms, for example, if f(x) is defined in some interval  $\mathcal I$ 

$$||f||_{L_2} = \sqrt{\int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f^2(x) \, \mathrm{d}x}$$

- The  $L_2$  vector space is the set of function where  $\|f\|_{L_2} < \infty$
- The  $L_1$ -norm is given by  $||f||_{L_1} = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} |f(x)| dx$
- The infinite-norm is given by  $||f||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathcal{I}} |f(x)|$

• Functions can also have norms, for example, if f(x) is defined in some interval  $\mathcal I$ 

$$||f||_{L_2} = \sqrt{\int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f^2(x) \, \mathrm{d}x}$$

- The  $L_2$  vector space is the set of function where  $\|f\|_{L_2} < \infty$
- The  $L_1$ -norm is given by  $||f||_{L_1} = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} |f(x)| dx$
- The infinite-norm is given by  $||f||_{\infty} = \max_{x \in \mathcal{I}} |f(x)|$

- Vector spaces with a distance (metric spaces) and vector spaces with a norm (normed vector spaces) are interesting objects
- They allow you to define a topology (open/closed sets, etc.)
- You can build up ideas about connectedness, continuity, contractive maps, fixed-point theorems, . . .
- For the most part we are going to consider an even more powerful vector space that has an inner-product defined

- Vector spaces with a distance (metric spaces) and vector spaces with a norm (normed vector spaces) are interesting objects
- They allow you to define a topology (open/closed sets, etc.)
- You can build up ideas about connectedness, continuity, contractive maps, fixed-point theorems, . . .
- For the most part we are going to consider an even more powerful vector space that has an inner-product defined

- Vector spaces with a distance (metric spaces) and vector spaces with a norm (normed vector spaces) are interesting objects
- They allow you to define a topology (open/closed sets, etc.)
- You can build up ideas about connectedness, continuity, contractive maps, fixed-point theorems, . . .
- For the most part we are going to consider an even more powerful vector space that has an inner-product defined

- Vector spaces with a distance (metric spaces) and vector spaces with a norm (normed vector spaces) are interesting objects
- They allow you to define a topology (open/closed sets, etc.)
- You can build up ideas about connectedness, continuity, contractive maps, fixed-point theorems, . . .
- For the most part we are going to consider an even more powerful vector space that has an inner-product defined