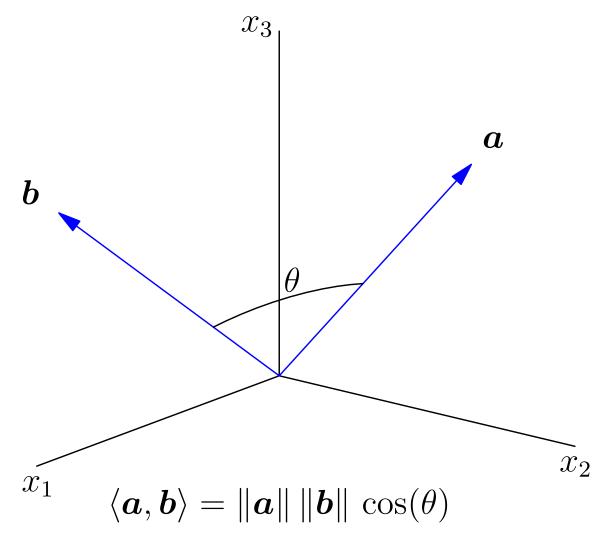
## **Advanced Machine Learning**

# Inner Product Spaces

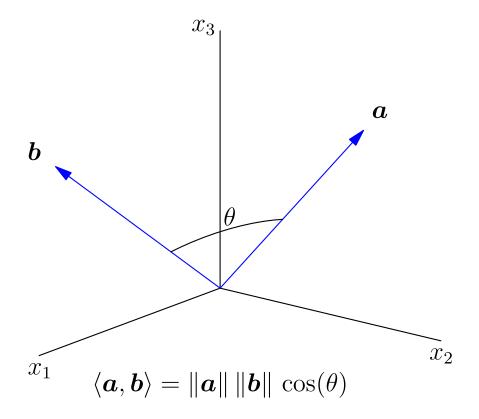


Inner products, operators

## **Outline**

#### 1. Inner Products

### 2. Operators



We have looked at vector space

- Recall that vector spaces don't just apply to normal vectors  $(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , but to matrices, functions, sequences, random variables, . . .
- Proper distances or metrics,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ , allow us to construct ideas about geometry of the vector space
- ullet Norms,  $\|x\|$ , that allow us to reason about the size of vector
- Norm induce a distance,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$

- We have looked at vector space (closed sets where we can add elements and multiply them by a scalar)
- Recall that vector spaces don't just apply to normal vectors  $(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , but to matrices, functions, sequences, random variables, . . .
- Proper distances or metrics,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ , allow us to construct ideas about geometry of the vector space
- ullet Norms,  $\|x\|$ , that allow us to reason about the size of vector
- Norm induce a distance,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$

- We have looked at vector space (closed sets where we can add elements and multiply them by a scalar)
- Recall that vector spaces don't just apply to normal vectors  $(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , but to matrices, functions, sequences, random variables, . . .
- Proper distances or metrics,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ , allow us to construct ideas about geometry of the vector space
- ullet Norms,  $\|x\|$ , that allow us to reason about the size of vector
- Norm induce a distance,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$

- We have looked at vector space (closed sets where we can add elements and multiply them by a scalar)
- Recall that vector spaces don't just apply to normal vectors  $(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , but to matrices, functions, sequences, random variables, . . .
- Proper distances or metrics,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ , allow us to construct ideas about geometry of the vector space
- ullet Norms,  $\|x\|$ , that allow us to reason about the size of vector
- Norm induce a distance,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$

- We have looked at vector space (closed sets where we can add elements and multiply them by a scalar)
- Recall that vector spaces don't just apply to normal vectors  $(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , but to matrices, functions, sequences, random variables, . . .
- Proper distances or metrics,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ , allow us to construct ideas about geometry of the vector space
- ullet Norms,  $\|x\|$ , that allow us to reason about the size of vector
- Norm induce a distance,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$

- We have looked at vector space (closed sets where we can add elements and multiply them by a scalar)
- Recall that vector spaces don't just apply to normal vectors  $(\mathbb{R}^n)$ , but to matrices, functions, sequences, random variables, . . .
- Proper distances or metrics,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y})$ , allow us to construct ideas about geometry of the vector space
- ullet Norms,  $\|x\|$ , that allow us to reason about the size of vector
- Norm induce a distance,  $d(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \|\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{y}\|$

- We will often consider objects with an inner product
- For vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$

$$\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \boldsymbol{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

For functions

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f(x)g(x) dx$$

$$\langle \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \rangle = \text{Tr} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{B} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} B_{ij}$$

- We will often consider objects with an inner product
- For vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$

$$\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \boldsymbol{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

For functions

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f(x)g(x) dx$$

$$\langle \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \rangle = \text{Tr} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{B} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} B_{ij}$$

- We will often consider objects with an inner product
- For vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$

$$\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \boldsymbol{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

For functions

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f(x)g(x) dx$$

$$\langle \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \rangle = \text{Tr} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{B} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} B_{ij}$$

- We will often consider objects with an inner product
- For vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$

$$\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \boldsymbol{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

For functions

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f(x)g(x) dx$$

$$\langle \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \rangle = \text{Tr} \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{B} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} B_{ij}$$

- 1.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{V}$
- 2.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$
- 3.  $\langle \alpha \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \alpha \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle$
- 4.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{z} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle + \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z} \rangle$
- 5.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle$
- We can show that  $\|x\|=\sqrt{\langle x,x\rangle}$  satisfies the axioms of a norm, so that an inner-product space is a normed space
- The norm associated with the inner-product for vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (i.e.  $\langle x,y \rangle = x^{\mathsf{T}}y$ ) is the Euclidean norm  $\|x\| = \sqrt{x^{\mathsf{T}}x}$

- 1.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{V}$
- 2.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$
- 3.  $\langle \alpha \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \alpha \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle$
- 4.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{z} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle + \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z} \rangle$
- 5.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle$
- We can show that  $\|x\|=\sqrt{\langle x,x\rangle}$  satisfies the axioms of a norm, so that an inner-product space is a normed space
- The norm associated with the inner-product for vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (i.e.  $\langle m{x}, m{y} \rangle = m{x}^\mathsf{T} m{y}$ ) is the Euclidean norm  $\| m{x} \| = \sqrt{m{x}^\mathsf{T} m{x}}$

- 1.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{V}$
- 2.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$
- 3.  $\langle \alpha \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \alpha \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle$
- 4.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{z} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle + \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z} \rangle$
- 5.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle$
- We can show that  $\|x\|=\sqrt{\langle x,x\rangle}$  satisfies the axioms of a norm, so that an inner-product space is a normed space
- The norm associated with the inner-product for vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (i.e.  $\langle m{x}, m{y} \rangle = m{x}^\mathsf{T} m{y}$ ) is the Euclidean norm  $\|m{x}\| = \sqrt{m{x}^\mathsf{T} m{x}}$

- 1.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{V}$
- 2.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$
- 3.  $\langle \alpha \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \alpha \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle$
- 4.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{z} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle + \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z} \rangle$
- 5.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle$
- We can show that  $\|x\|=\sqrt{\langle x,x\rangle}$  satisfies the axioms of a norm, so that an inner-product space is a normed space
- The norm associated with the inner-product for vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (i.e.  $\langle m{x}, m{y} \rangle = m{x}^\mathsf{T} m{y}$ ) is the Euclidean norm  $\| m{x} \| = \sqrt{m{x}^\mathsf{T} m{x}}$

1. 
$$\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle \geq 0$$
 for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{V}$ 

- 2.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$
- 3.  $\langle \alpha \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \alpha \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle$
- 4.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{z} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle + \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z} \rangle$
- 5.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle$
- We can show that  $\|x\|=\sqrt{\langle x,x\rangle}$  satisfies the axioms of a norm, so that an inner-product space is a normed space
- The norm associated with the inner-product for vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (i.e.  $\langle x,y \rangle = x^{\mathsf{T}}y$ ) is the Euclidean norm  $\|x\| = \sqrt{x^{\mathsf{T}}x}$

- 1.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{V}$
- 2.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$
- 3.  $\langle \alpha \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \alpha \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle$
- 4.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{z} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle + \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z} \rangle$
- 5.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle$
- We can show that  $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$  satisfies the axioms of a norm, so that an inner-product space is a normed space
- The norm associated with the inner-product for vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (i.e.  $\langle m{x}, m{y} \rangle = m{x}^\mathsf{T} m{y}$ ) is the Euclidean norm  $\|m{x}\| = \sqrt{m{x}^\mathsf{T} m{x}}$

1. 
$$\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle \geq 0$$
 for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{V}$ 

- 2.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{0}$
- 3.  $\langle \alpha \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \alpha \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle$
- 4.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{z} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle + \langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{z} \rangle$
- 5.  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{y}, \boldsymbol{x} \rangle$
- We can show that  $\|x\|=\sqrt{\langle x,x\rangle}$  satisfies the axioms of a norm, so that an inner-product space is a normed space
- The norm associated with the inner-product for vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (i.e.  $\langle {m x}, {m y} 
  angle = {m x}^{\mathsf T} {m y}$ ) is the Euclidean norm  $\|{m x}\| = \sqrt{{m x}^{\mathsf T} {m x}}$

# **Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality**

 One of the most important results of inner-product spaces, known as the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality is that

$$\left\langle oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{y}
ight
angle ^{2}\leq\left\langle oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{x}
ight
angle \left\langle oldsymbol{y},oldsymbol{y}
ight
angle =\|oldsymbol{x}\|^{2}\|oldsymbol{y}\|^{2}$$

Or

$$|\langle oldsymbol{x}, oldsymbol{y}
angle| \leq \|oldsymbol{x}\| \|oldsymbol{y}\|$$

This is a very general result so for example

$$\left| \int f(x)g(x) dx \right| \le \sqrt{\left( \int f^2(x) dx \right) \left( \int g^2(x) dx \right)}$$

## **Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality**

 One of the most important results of inner-product spaces, known as the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality is that

$$\left\langle oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{y}
ight
angle ^{2}\leq\left\langle oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{x}
ight
angle \left\langle oldsymbol{y},oldsymbol{y}
ight
angle =\|oldsymbol{x}\|^{2}\|oldsymbol{y}\|^{2}$$

Or

$$|\langle oldsymbol{x}, oldsymbol{y}
angle| \leq \|oldsymbol{x}\| \|oldsymbol{y}\|$$

This is a very general result so for example

$$\left| \int f(x)g(x) dx \right| \le \sqrt{\left( \int f^2(x) dx \right) \left( \int g^2(x) dx \right)}$$

# **Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality**

 One of the most important results of inner-product spaces, known as the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality is that

$$\left\langle oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{y}
ight
angle ^{2}\leq\left\langle oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{x}
ight
angle \left\langle oldsymbol{y},oldsymbol{y}
ight
angle =\|oldsymbol{x}\|^{2}\|oldsymbol{y}\|^{2}$$

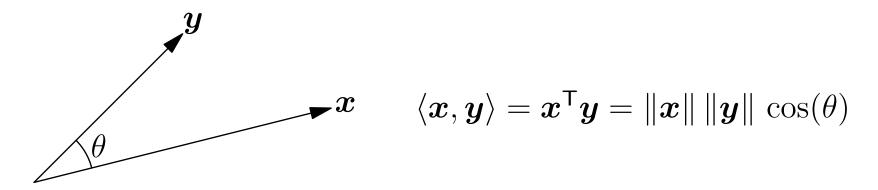
Or

$$|\langle oldsymbol{x}, oldsymbol{y}
angle| \leq \|oldsymbol{x}\| \|oldsymbol{y}\|$$

This is a very general result so for example

$$\left| \int f(x)g(x) dx \right| \le \sqrt{\left( \int f^2(x) dx \right) \left( \int g^2(x) dx \right)}$$

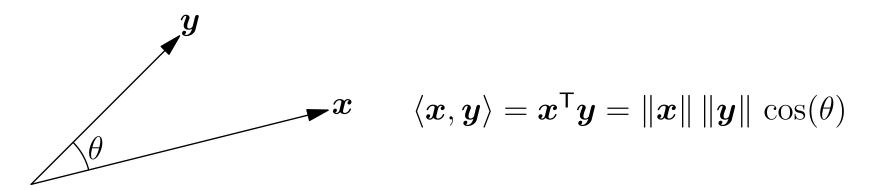
 A natural interpretation of the inner product is in providing a measure of the angle between vectors



- Vectors are orthogonal if  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = 0$
- We can extend this idea to functions

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f(x)g(x)dx = ||f(x)|| ||g(x)|| \cos(\theta)$$

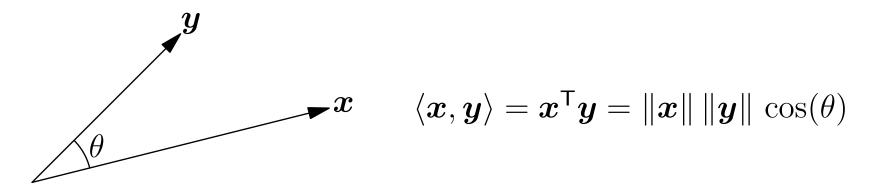
 A natural interpretation of the inner product is in providing a measure of the angle between vectors



- Vectors are orthogonal if  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = 0$
- We can extend this idea to functions

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f(x)g(x)dx = ||f(x)|| ||g(x)|| \cos(\theta)$$

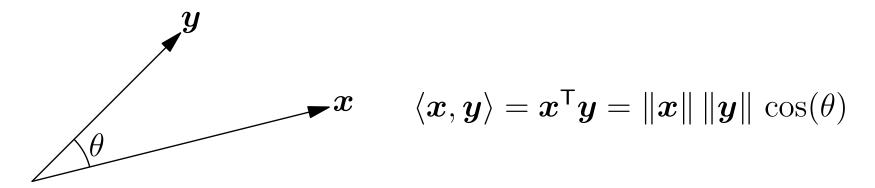
 A natural interpretation of the inner product is in providing a measure of the angle between vectors



- Vectors are orthogonal if  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = 0$
- We can extend this idea to functions

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f(x)g(x)dx = ||f(x)|| ||g(x)|| \cos(\theta)$$

 A natural interpretation of the inner product is in providing a measure of the angle between vectors



- Vectors are orthogonal if  $\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = 0$
- We can extend this idea to functions

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_{x \in \mathcal{I}} f(x)g(x)dx = ||f(x)|| ||g(x)|| \cos(\theta)$$

- Any set of vectors  $\{ m{b}_i | i=1,... \}$  that span the space can be used as a basis or coordinate system
- The simplest and most useful case is when the vectors are orthogonal and normalised (i.e.  $||b_i|| = 1$ )
- ullet In  $\mathbb{R}^3$  we could use  $m{b}_1=egin{pmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{pmatrix}$  ,  $m{b}_2=egin{pmatrix}0\\1\\0\end{pmatrix}$  ,  $m{b}_3=egin{pmatrix}0\\0\\1\end{pmatrix}$
- This is not unique as we can rotate our basis vectors
- ullet For an orthogonal basis we can write any vector as  $\hat{x} = egin{pmatrix} x^ op b_1 \ x^ op b_2 \ x^ op b_3 \end{pmatrix}$

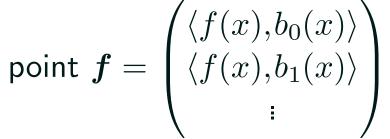
- Any set of vectors  $\{ m{b}_i | i=1,... \}$  that span the space can be used as a basis or coordinate system
- The simplest and most useful case is when the vectors are orthogonal and normalised (i.e.  $||b_i|| = 1$ )
- ullet In  $\mathbb{R}^3$  we could use  $m{b}_1=egin{pmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{pmatrix}$  ,  $m{b}_2=egin{pmatrix}0\\1\\0\end{pmatrix}$  ,  $m{b}_3=egin{pmatrix}0\\0\\1\end{pmatrix}$
- This is not unique as we can rotate our basis vectors
- ullet For an orthogonal basis we can write any vector as  $\hat{x} = egin{pmatrix} x^ op b_1 \ x^ op b_2 \ x^ op b_3 \end{pmatrix}$

- Any set of vectors  $\{ m{b}_i | i=1,... \}$  that span the space can be used as a basis or coordinate system
- The simplest and most useful case is when the vectors are orthogonal and normalised (i.e.  $||b_i|| = 1$ )
- ullet In  $\mathbb{R}^3$  we could use  $m{b}_1=egin{pmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{pmatrix}$  ,  $m{b}_2=egin{pmatrix}0\\1\\0\end{pmatrix}$  ,  $m{b}_3=egin{pmatrix}0\\0\\1\end{pmatrix}$
- This is not unique as we can rotate our basis vectors
- ullet For an orthogonal basis we can write any vector as  $\hat{m{x}} = egin{pmatrix} m{x}^\intercal m{b_1} \ m{x}^\intercal m{b_2} \ m{x}^\intercal m{b_3} \end{pmatrix}$

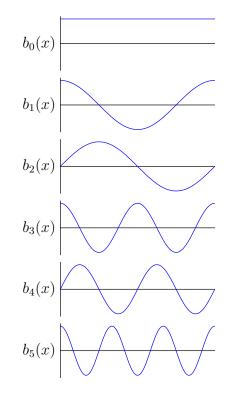
- Any set of vectors  $\{ m{b}_i | i=1,... \}$  that span the space can be used as a basis or coordinate system
- The simplest and most useful case is when the vectors are orthogonal and normalised (i.e.  $||b_i|| = 1$ )
- ullet In  $\mathbb{R}^3$  we could use  $m{b}_1=egin{pmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{pmatrix}$  ,  $m{b}_2=egin{pmatrix}0\\1\\0\end{pmatrix}$  ,  $m{b}_3=egin{pmatrix}0\\0\\1\end{pmatrix}$
- This is not unique as we can rotate our basis vectors
- ullet For an orthogonal basis we can write any vector as  $\hat{x} = egin{pmatrix} x^\intercal b_1 \ x^\intercal b_2 \ x^\intercal b_3 \end{pmatrix}$

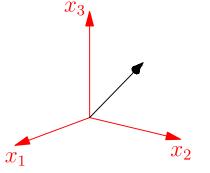
- Any set of vectors  $\{ m{b}_i | i=1,... \}$  that span the space can be used as a basis or coordinate system
- The simplest and most useful case is when the vectors are orthogonal and normalised (i.e.  $||b_i|| = 1$ )
- ullet In  $\mathbb{R}^3$  we could use  $m{b}_1=egin{pmatrix}1\\0\\0\end{pmatrix}$  ,  $m{b}_2=egin{pmatrix}0\\1\\0\end{pmatrix}$  ,  $m{b}_3=egin{pmatrix}0\\0\\1\end{pmatrix}$
- This is not unique as we can rotate our basis vectors
- ullet For an orthogonal basis we can write any vector as  $\hat{x} = egin{pmatrix} x^{ o}b_1 \ x^{ o}b_2 \ x^{ o}b_3 \end{pmatrix}$

- For functions we can use any ortho-normal set of functions as a basis
- The most familiar are the Fourier functions  $\sin(n\theta)$  and  $\cos(n\theta)$
- Any function in  $C(0,2\pi)$  can be represented by a

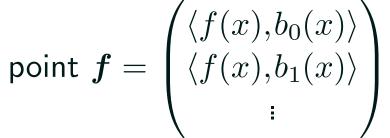


- There might be an infinite number of components
- This is analogous to points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (for large n)

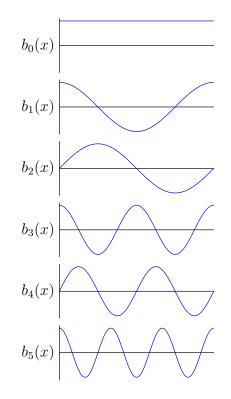


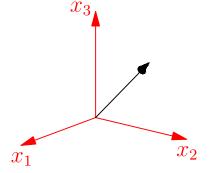


- For functions we can use any ortho-normal set of functions as a basis
- The most familiar are the Fourier functions  $\sin(n\theta)$  and  $\cos(n\theta)$
- Any function in  $C(0,2\pi)$  can be represented by a



- There might be an infinite number of components
- This is analogous to points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (for large n)



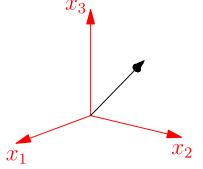


- For functions we can use any ortho-normal set of functions as a basis
- The most familiar are the Fourier functions  $\sin(n\theta)$  and  $\cos(n\theta)$
- $b_{0}(x)$   $b_{1}(x)$   $b_{2}(x)$   $b_{3}(x)$   $b_{4}(x)$   $b_{5}(x)$
- ullet Any function in  $C(0,2\pi)$  can be represented by a

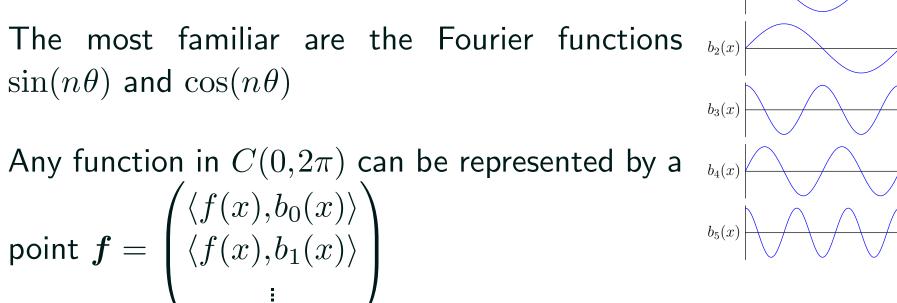
point 
$$\boldsymbol{f} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle f(x), b_0(x) \rangle \\ \langle f(x), b_1(x) \rangle \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}$$



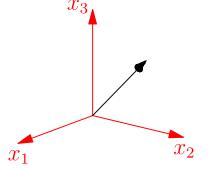




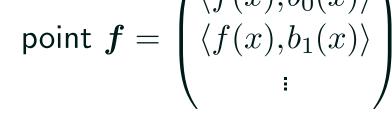
- For functions we can use any ortho-normal set of functions as a basis
- The most familiar are the Fourier functions  $\sin(n\theta)$  and  $\cos(n\theta)$
- Any function in  $C(0,2\pi)$  can be represented by a



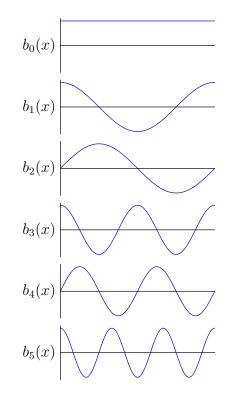
- There might be an infinite number of components
- This is analogous to points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (for large n)

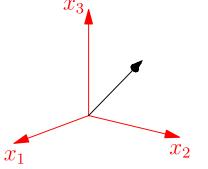


- For functions we can use any ortho-normal set of functions as a basis
- The most familiar are the Fourier functions  $\sin(n\theta)$  and  $\cos(n\theta)$
- Any function in  $C(0,2\pi)$  can be represented by a point  $\boldsymbol{f} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle f(x), b_0(x) \rangle \\ \langle f(x), b_1(x) \rangle \end{pmatrix}$



- There might be an infinite number of components
- This is analogous to points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (for large n)





- We have gone to these lengths as we want to show that many properties of vectors are shared by other objects (matrices, functions, etc.)
- The notions of distance (geometry), norms (size of vectors) and inner products (angles between vectors) provides a very rich set of concepts
- Vectors form the backbone of objects we will use repeated in machine learning
- The next piece of the jigsaw is to understand how we can transform these objects

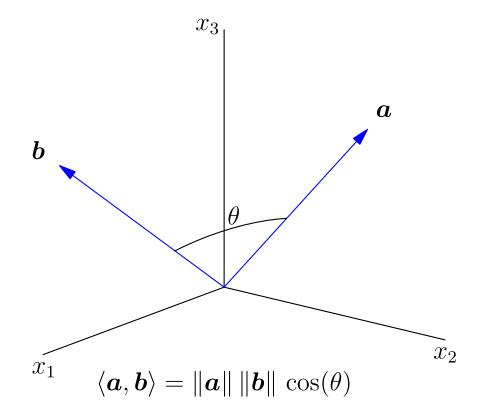
- We have gone to these lengths as we want to show that many properties of vectors are shared by other objects (matrices, functions, etc.)
- The notions of distance (geometry), norms (size of vectors) and inner products (angles between vectors) provides a very rich set of concepts
- Vectors form the backbone of objects we will use repeated in machine learning
- The next piece of the jigsaw is to understand how we can transform these objects

- We have gone to these lengths as we want to show that many properties of vectors are shared by other objects (matrices, functions, etc.)
- The notions of distance (geometry), norms (size of vectors) and inner products (angles between vectors) provides a very rich set of concepts
- Vectors form the backbone of objects we will use repeated in machine learning
- The next piece of the jigsaw is to understand how we can transform these objects

- We have gone to these lengths as we want to show that many properties of vectors are shared by other objects (matrices, functions, etc.)
- The notions of distance (geometry), norms (size of vectors) and inner products (angles between vectors) provides a very rich set of concepts
- Vectors form the backbone of objects we will use repeated in machine learning
- The next piece of the jigsaw is to understand how we can transform these objects

#### **Outline**

- 1. Inner Products
- 2. Operators



- In machine learning we are interested in transforming our input vectors into some output predictions
- ullet To accomplish this we will apply some mapping or operators on the vector  $\mathcal{T}:\mathcal{V} 
  ightarrow \mathcal{V}'$
- ullet This says that  ${\mathcal T}$  maps some object  $m x \in {\mathcal V}$  to an object  $m y = {\mathcal T}[m x]$  in a new vector space  ${\mathcal V}'$
- This new vector space may or may not be the same as the original vector space
- Our objects may be any object in a vector space such as a function

- In machine learning we are interested in transforming our input vectors into some output predictions
- ullet To accomplish this we will apply some mapping or operators on the vector  $\mathcal{T}:\mathcal{V} 
  ightarrow \mathcal{V}'$
- ullet This says that  ${\mathcal T}$  maps some object  $m x \in {\mathcal V}$  to an object  $m y = {\mathcal T}[m x]$  in a new vector space  ${\mathcal V}'$
- This new vector space may or may not be the same as the original vector space
- Our objects may be any object in a vector space such as a function

- In machine learning we are interested in transforming our input vectors into some output predictions
- ullet To accomplish this we will apply some mapping or operators on the vector  $\mathcal{T}:\mathcal{V} 
  ightarrow \mathcal{V}'$
- ullet This says that  ${\mathcal T}$  maps some object  $m x \in {\mathcal V}$  to an object  $m y = {\mathcal T}[m x]$  in a new vector space  ${\mathcal V}'$
- This new vector space may or may not be the same as the original vector space
- Our objects may be any object in a vector space such as a function

- In machine learning we are interested in transforming our input vectors into some output predictions
- ullet To accomplish this we will apply some mapping or operators on the vector  $\mathcal{T}:\mathcal{V} 
  ightarrow \mathcal{V}'$
- ullet This says that  ${\mathcal T}$  maps some object  $m x \in {\mathcal V}$  to an object  $m y = {\mathcal T}[m x]$  in a new vector space  ${\mathcal V}'$
- This new vector space may or may not be the same as the original vector space
- Our objects may be any object in a vector space such as a function

- In machine learning we are interested in transforming our input vectors into some output predictions
- ullet To accomplish this we will apply some mapping or operators on the vector  $\mathcal{T}:\mathcal{V} 
  ightarrow \mathcal{V}'$
- ullet This says that  ${\mathcal T}$  maps some object  $m x \in {\mathcal V}$  to an object  $m y = {\mathcal T}[m x]$  in a new vector space  ${\mathcal V}'$
- This new vector space may or may not be the same as the original vector space
- Our objects may be any object in a vector space such as a function

#### **Linear Operators**

- Operators are in general very complicated, but a particular nice set of operators are linear operators
- ullet  $\mathcal T$  is a linear operator if

1. 
$$\mathcal{T}[a\mathbf{x}] = a\mathcal{T}[\mathbf{x}]$$

2. 
$$T[x + y] = T[x] + T[y]$$

ullet For normal vectors  $(oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$  the most general linear operation is

$$\mathcal{T}[x] = \mathbf{M}x$$

where M is a matrix

#### **Linear Operators**

- Operators are in general very complicated, but a particular nice set of operators are linear operators
- ullet  $\mathcal{T}$  is a linear operator if
  - 1.  $\mathcal{T}[a\mathbf{x}] = a\mathcal{T}[\mathbf{x}]$
  - 2.  $\mathcal{T}[x+y] = \mathcal{T}[x] + \mathcal{T}[y]$
- ullet For normal vectors  $(oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$  the most general linear operation is

$$\mathcal{T}[x] = \mathbf{M}x$$

where M is a matrix

#### **Linear Operators**

- Operators are in general very complicated, but a particular nice set of operators are linear operators
- ullet  $\mathcal{T}$  is a linear operator if
  - 1.  $\mathcal{T}[a\mathbf{x}] = a\mathcal{T}[\mathbf{x}]$
  - 2. T[x + y] = T[x] + T[y]
- ullet For normal vectors  $(oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$  the most general linear operation is

$$\mathcal{T}[x] = \mathbf{M}x$$

where M is a matrix

### Matrix multiplication

• For an  $\ell \times m$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  and an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  we can compute the  $(\ell \times n)$  product,  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}$ , such that

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} A_{ik} B_{kj} \qquad \left( \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right)$$

ullet Treating the vector  $oldsymbol{x}$  as a n imes 1 matrix then

$$oldsymbol{y} = \mathbf{A} oldsymbol{x} \qquad \Rightarrow \quad y_i = \sum_j M_{ij} x_j \qquad \left( \boxed{\phantom{a}} \right) \left( \boxed{\phantom{a}} \right) \left( \boxed{\phantom{a}} \right)$$

Using the same matrix notation we can define the inner product as

$$\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \boldsymbol{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \qquad \longleftarrow \qquad \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$$

### Matrix multiplication

• For an  $\ell \times m$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  and an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  we can compute the  $(\ell \times n)$  product,  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}$ , such that

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} A_{ik} B_{kj} \qquad \left( \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right)$$

ullet Treating the vector  $oldsymbol{x}$  as a n imes 1 matrix then

$$oldsymbol{y} = \mathbf{A} oldsymbol{x} \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad y_i = \sum_j M_{ij} x_j \qquad \left( \boxed{\phantom{A}} \right) \left( \boxed{\phantom{A}} \right) = \left( \boxed{\phantom{A}} \right)$$

Using the same matrix notation we can define the inner product as

$$\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \boldsymbol{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \qquad \longleftarrow \qquad \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc \bigcirc$$

### Matrix multiplication

• For an  $\ell \times m$  matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  and an  $m \times n$  matrix  $\mathbf{B}$  we can compute the  $(\ell \times n)$  product,  $\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{B}$ , such that

$$C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} A_{ik} B_{kj} \qquad \left( \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right) \left( \begin{array}{c} \\ \\ \end{array} \right)$$

ullet Treating the vector  $oldsymbol{x}$  as a n imes 1 matrix then

$$oldsymbol{y} = \mathbf{A} oldsymbol{x} \qquad \Rightarrow \quad y_i = \sum_j M_{ij} x_j \qquad \left( \boxed{\phantom{a}} \right) \left( \boxed{\phantom{a}} \right) \left( \boxed{\phantom{a}} \right)$$

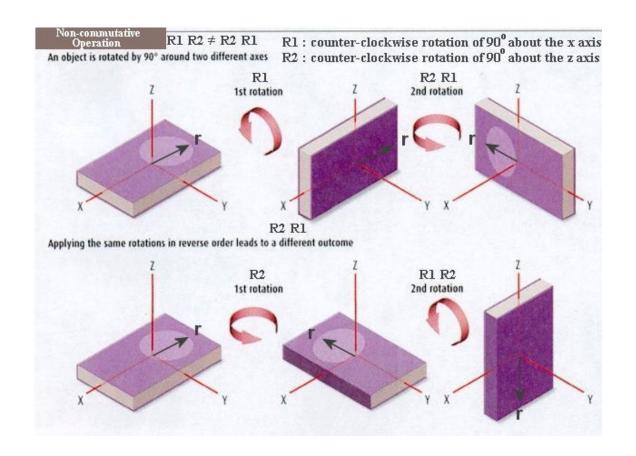
Using the same matrix notation we can define the inner product as

$$\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle = \boldsymbol{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \qquad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

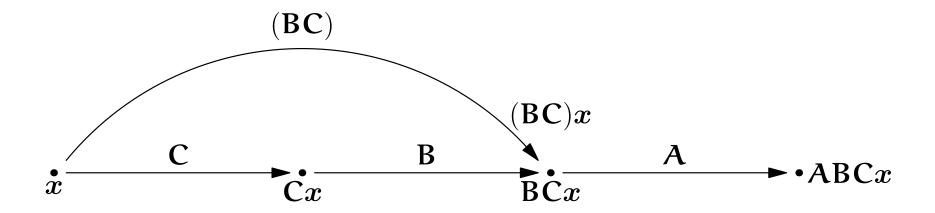


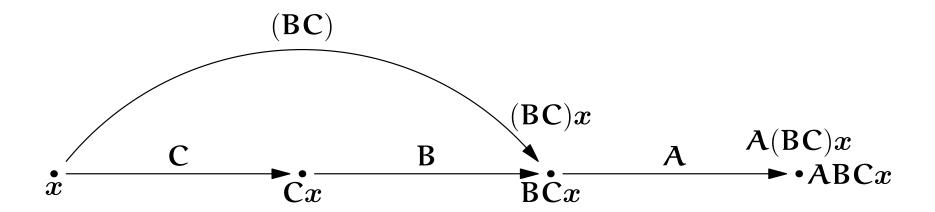
 $oldsymbol{\dot{x}}$ 

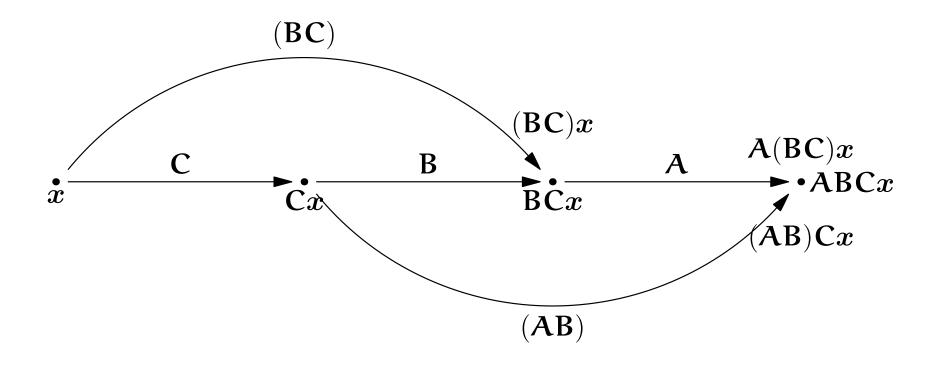


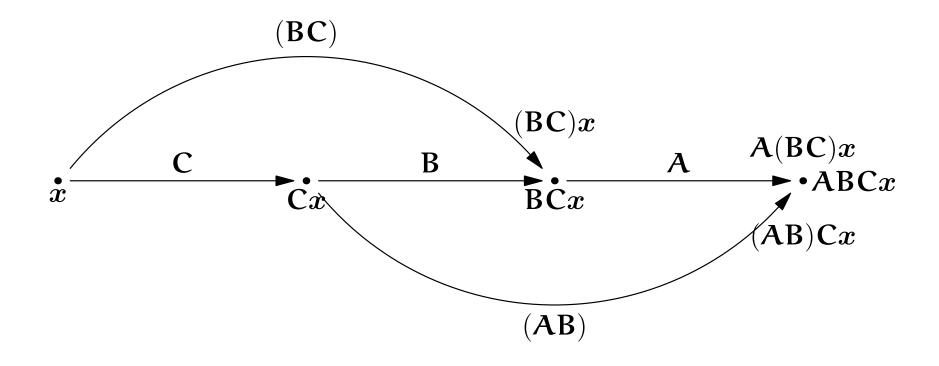




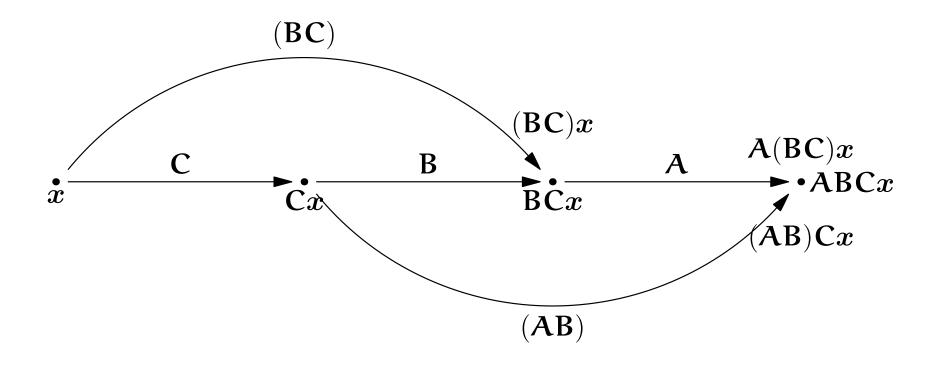








ullet For all  $oldsymbol{x}$  we have  $oldsymbol{A}(Boldsymbol{C})oldsymbol{x}=(AB)oldsymbol{C}oldsymbol{x}$ 



- ullet For all  $oldsymbol{x}$  we have  $oldsymbol{A}(BC)oldsymbol{x}=(AB)Coldsymbol{x}$
- This implies A(BC) = (AB)C

#### **Kernels**

• The equivalent of a matrix for functions (i.e. a linear operator) is known as a kernel K(x,y)

$$g(x) = \mathcal{T}[f] = \int_{y \in \mathcal{I}} K(x, y) f(y) dy$$

Our domain does not need to be one dimensional, e.g.

$$g(\boldsymbol{x}) = \mathcal{T}[f] = \int_{\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathcal{I}} K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) f(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{y}$$

We shall soon see examples of high-dimensional kernels

#### **Kernels**

• The equivalent of a matrix for functions (i.e. a linear operator) is known as a kernel K(x,y)

$$g(x) = \mathcal{T}[f] = \int_{y \in \mathcal{I}} K(x, y) f(y) dy$$

Our domain does not need to be one dimensional, e.g.

$$g(\boldsymbol{x}) = \mathcal{T}[f] = \int_{\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathcal{I}} K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) f(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{y}$$

We shall soon see examples of high-dimensional kernels

#### **Kernels**

• The equivalent of a matrix for functions (i.e. a linear operator) is known as a kernel K(x,y)

$$g(x) = \mathcal{T}[f] = \int_{y \in \mathcal{I}} K(x, y) f(y) dy$$

Our domain does not need to be one dimensional, e.g.

$$g(\boldsymbol{x}) = \mathcal{T}[f] = \int_{\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathcal{I}} K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) f(\boldsymbol{y}) d\boldsymbol{y}$$

We shall soon see examples of high-dimensional kernels

- Kernels are used heavily in machine learning
- In kernel methods such as SVM, SVR, Kernel-PCA
- They are also used in Gaussian Processes
- In all these cases we consider symmetric, positive semi-definite kernels
- Sometimes they can be interpreted as covariance between random functions

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \mathbb{E}_{f \sim \mathcal{P}} [(f(\boldsymbol{x}) - \mu(\boldsymbol{x})) (f(\boldsymbol{y}) - \mu(\boldsymbol{y}))]$$

- Kernels are used heavily in machine learning
- In kernel methods such as SVM, SVR, Kernel-PCA
- They are also used in Gaussian Processes
- In all these cases we consider symmetric, positive semi-definite kernels
- Sometimes they can be interpreted as covariance between random functions

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \mathbb{E}_{f \sim \mathcal{P}} [(f(\boldsymbol{x}) - \mu(\boldsymbol{x})) (f(\boldsymbol{y}) - \mu(\boldsymbol{y}))]$$

- Kernels are used heavily in machine learning
- In kernel methods such as SVM, SVR, Kernel-PCA
- They are also used in Gaussian Processes
- In all these cases we consider symmetric, positive semi-definite kernels
- Sometimes they can be interpreted as covariance between random functions

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \mathbb{E}_{f \sim \mathcal{P}} [(f(\boldsymbol{x}) - \mu(\boldsymbol{x})) (f(\boldsymbol{y}) - \mu(\boldsymbol{y}))]$$

- Kernels are used heavily in machine learning
- In kernel methods such as SVM, SVR, Kernel-PCA
- They are also used in Gaussian Processes
- In all these cases we consider symmetric, positive semi-definite kernels
- Sometimes they can be interpreted as covariance between random functions

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \mathbb{E}_{f \sim \mathcal{P}} [(f(\boldsymbol{x}) - \mu(\boldsymbol{x})) (f(\boldsymbol{y}) - \mu(\boldsymbol{y}))]$$

# Kernels in Machine Learning

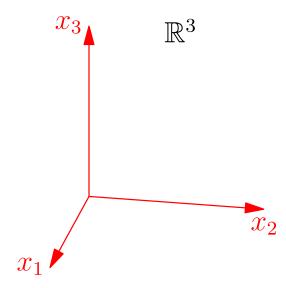
- Kernels are used heavily in machine learning
- In kernel methods such as SVM, SVR, Kernel-PCA
- They are also used in Gaussian Processes
- In all these cases we consider symmetric, positive semi-definite kernels
- Sometimes they can be interpreted as covariance between random functions

$$K(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \mathbb{E}_{f \sim \mathcal{P}} \left[ \left( f(\boldsymbol{x}) - \mu(\boldsymbol{x}) \right) \left( f(\boldsymbol{y}) - \mu(\boldsymbol{y}) \right) \right]$$

- In general a linear operator will map vectors between different vector spaces
- E.g.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$

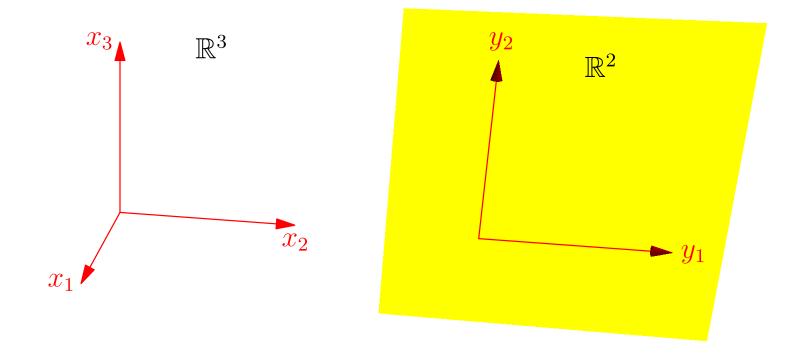
 In general a linear operator will map vectors between different vector spaces

• E.g.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ 



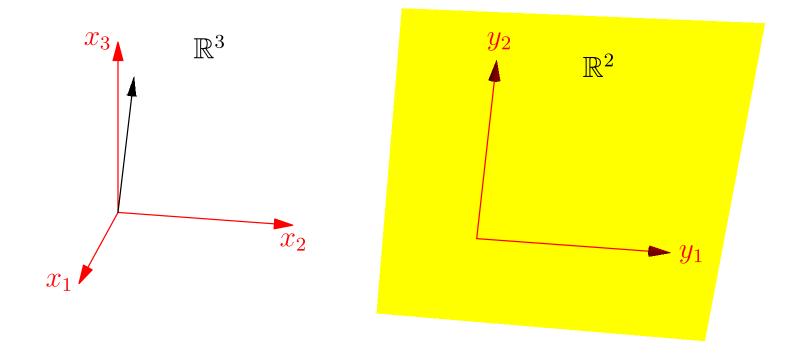
 In general a linear operator will map vectors between different vector spaces

• E.g.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ 

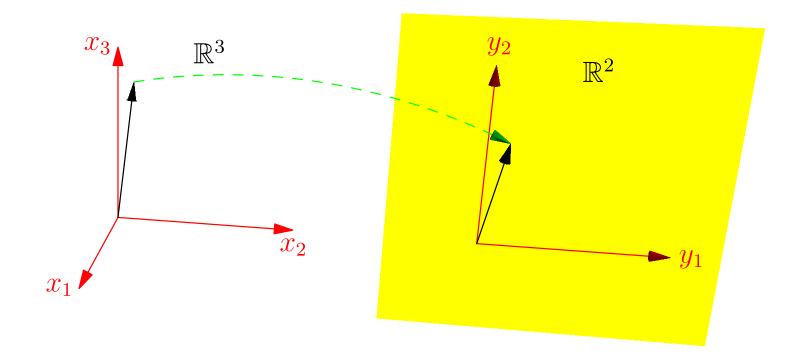


 In general a linear operator will map vectors between different vector spaces

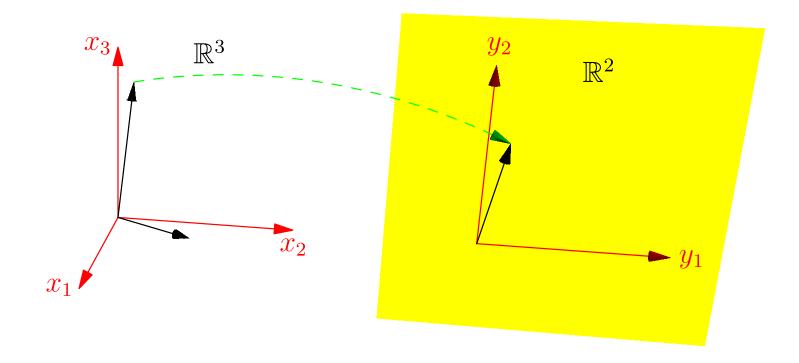
• E.g.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$ 



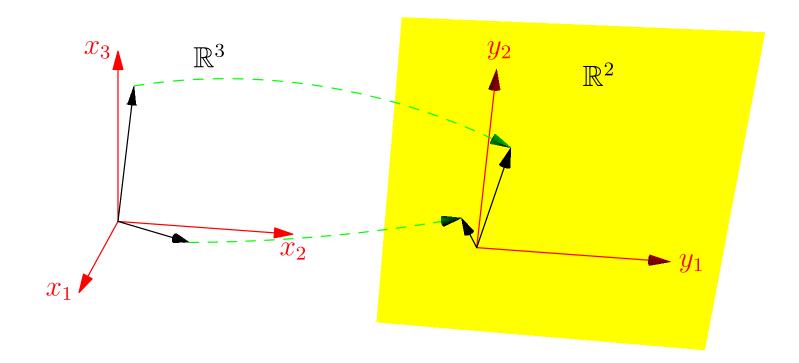
- In general a linear operator will map vectors between different vector spaces
- E.g.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$



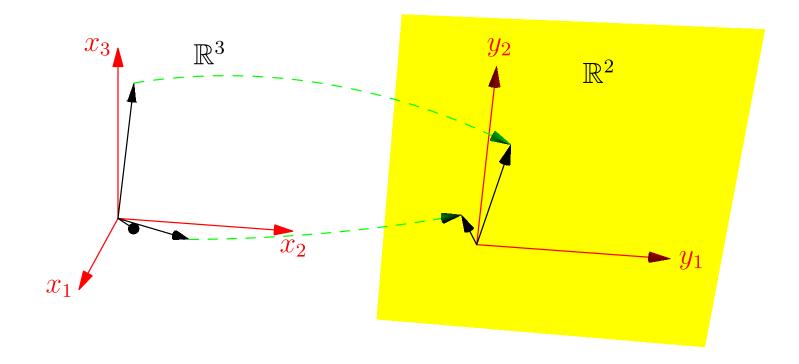
- In general a linear operator will map vectors between different vector spaces
- E.g.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$



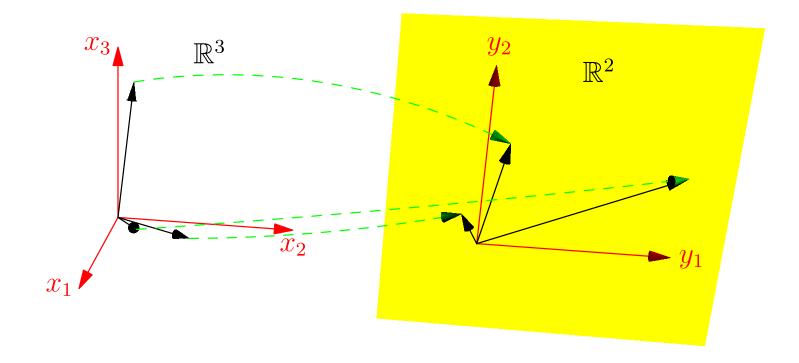
- In general a linear operator will map vectors between different vector spaces
- E.g.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$



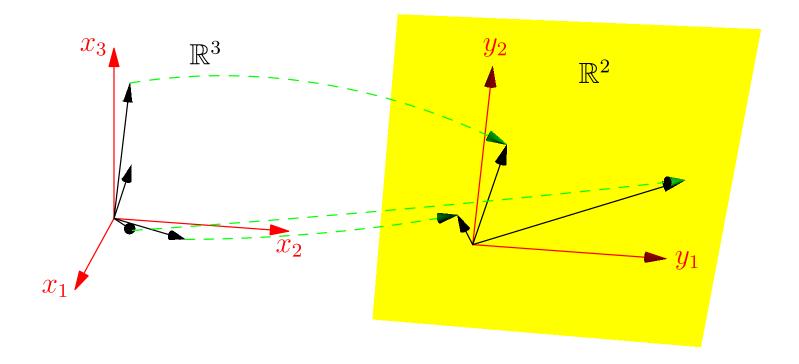
- In general a linear operator will map vectors between different vector spaces
- E.g.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$



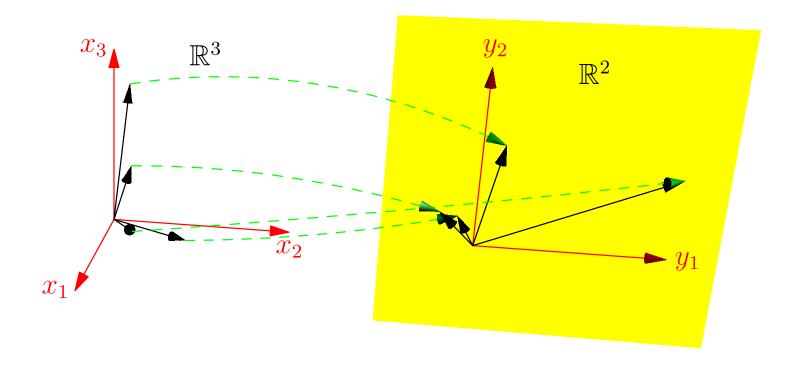
- In general a linear operator will map vectors between different vector spaces
- E.g.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$



- In general a linear operator will map vectors between different vector spaces
- E.g.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$



- In general a linear operator will map vectors between different vector spaces
- E.g.  $\mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}^2$



- We will spend a lot of time on operators that map from a vector space onto itself  $\mathcal{T}: \mathcal{V} \to \mathcal{V}$
- ullet For vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such linear operators are represented by square matrices
- When there is a one-to-one mapping then we have a unique inverse
- We will study such mappings in detail in the next lecture

- We will spend a lot of time on operators that map from a vector space onto itself  $\mathcal{T}:\mathcal{V}\to\mathcal{V}$
- ullet For vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such linear operators are represented by square matrices
- When there is a one-to-one mapping then we have a unique inverse
- We will study such mappings in detail in the next lecture

- We will spend a lot of time on operators that map from a vector space onto itself  $\mathcal{T}: \mathcal{V} \to \mathcal{V}$
- ullet For vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such linear operators are represented by square matrices
- When there is a one-to-one mapping then we have a unique inverse
- We will study such mappings in detail in the next lecture

- We will spend a lot of time on operators that map from a vector space onto itself  $\mathcal{T}:\mathcal{V}\to\mathcal{V}$
- ullet For vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such linear operators are represented by square matrices
- When there is a one-to-one mapping then we have a unique inverse
- We will study such mappings in detail in the next lecture

- We haven't covered much machine learning as such
- But mathematics is the language of machine learning and you have to get used to it
- Mathematics is like programming, if you don't understand the syntax and you can't write it down then its meaningless
- We've taken a high level view of inner product spaces and operator, this will pay us back later as we look at kernel methods

- We haven't covered much machine learning as such—sorry
- But mathematics is the language of machine learning and you have to get used to it
- Mathematics is like programming, if you don't understand the syntax and you can't write it down then its meaningless
- We've taken a high level view of inner product spaces and operator, this will pay us back later as we look at kernel methods

- We haven't covered much machine learning as such—sorry
- But mathematics is the language of machine learning and you have to get used to it
- Mathematics is like programming, if you don't understand the syntax and you can't write it down then its meaningless
- We've taken a high level view of inner product spaces and operator, this will pay us back later as we look at kernel methods

- We haven't covered much machine learning as such—sorry
- But mathematics is the language of machine learning and you have to get used to it
- Mathematics is like programming, if you don't understand the syntax and you can't write it down then its meaningless
- We've taken a high level view of inner product spaces and operator, this will pay us back later as we look at kernel methods

- We haven't covered much machine learning as such—sorry
- But mathematics is the language of machine learning and you have to get used to it
- Mathematics is like programming, if you don't understand the syntax and you can't write it down then its meaningless
- We've taken a high level view of inner product spaces and operator, this will pay us back later as we look at kernel methods