

# Topics in Natural Language Processing

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# Linear Algebra Basics – Vector, Matrix, Tensor

- Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . The set of all ordered  $n$ -tuples  $(c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n)$ , where each component  $c_i \in \mathbb{R}$ , forms the **vector space**  $\mathbb{R}^n$  over (the field)  $\mathbb{R}$ . We call each of these  $n$ -tuples in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  a **vector** in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We will use bold lowercase letters to denote vectors, i.e.,  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . We use the term **scalar** to refer to an **element** of the field  $\mathbb{R}$ —that is, one of the **components** of a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
- An  $m \times n$  **matrix** is a rectangular array of scalars arranged in  $m$  rows and  $n$  columns, with each entry taken from  $\mathbb{R}$ . We use uppercase bold letters to denote matrices, e.g.,  $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ . The scalar entry in row  $i$  and column  $j$  is denoted by  $A_{[i,j]}$ . The  $i$ -th row and the  $j$ -th column—each of which can be interpreted as a vector—are denoted by  $\mathbf{A}_{[i,*]}$  and  $\mathbf{A}_{[*],j}$ , respectively.
- A **tensor** is a multidimensional array of scalars that generalizes the concepts of scalars (order 0), vectors (order 1), and matrices (order 2). A tensor of order  $k$  has  $k$  indices and can be represented as an element of  $\mathbb{R}^{d_1 \times d_2 \times \dots \times d_k}$ , where each  $d_i \in \mathbb{N}$  specifies the size along the  $i$ -th mode. We typically denote tensors by boldface uppercase calligraphic letters, e.g.,  $\mathcal{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_1 \times \dots \times d_k}$ .

## Linear Algebra Basics – Vector, Matrix, Tensor (cont'd)

- Let  $\mathbf{v} = (1, 2, 3)$  and  $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ .
- We can use Python's NumPy package to represent tensors using the `ndarray` class, which provides a general-purpose implementation of  $n$ -dimensional arrays (note that Python indexes from 0):

```
import numpy as np

v = np.array([1,2,3])
A = np.array([[1,2,3],[4,5,6]])

print(f"Type of v: {type(v)}, Type of A: {type(A)}")
print(f"Shape of v: {v.shape}, Shape of A: {A.shape}")
print(f"v[0]: {v[0]}    A[1]: {A[1]} A[1,2]: {A[1][2]}")
```

```
Type of v: <class 'numpy.ndarray'>, Type of A: <class 'numpy.ndarray'>
Shape of v: (3,), Shape of A: (2, 3)
v[0]: 1    A[1]: [4 5 6]    A[1,2]: 6
```

# Linear Algebra Basics – Operations on Two Vectors

- Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$  and  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$  be two vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :
  - Their **sum** is defined componentwise:  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = (u_1 + v_1, \dots, u_n + v_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  
e.g.:  $(1, 2, 3) + (2, 3, 4) = (3, 5, 7)$ ;
  - Similarly, their **difference** is defined componentwise:  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = (u_1 - v_1, \dots, u_n - v_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  
e.g.:  $(1, 2, 3) - (4, 5, 6) = (-3, -3, -3)$ .

```
import numpy as np

u = np.array([1,2,3])
v = np.array([4,5,6])

add = u + v
sub = u - v

print(f"u + v = {add}\nu - v = {sub}")
```

```
u + v = [5 7 9]
u - v = [-3 -3 -3]
```

# Linear Algebra Basics – Scalar Multiplication

- Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$ .  $\mathbf{u}$  can be multiplied with a scalar  $k$ :
  - The **scalar multiplication** of  $\mathbf{u}$  with  $k$  is defined componentwise:  $k\mathbf{u} = (ku_1, \dots, ku_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , e.g.:  $2 \cdot (1, 2, 3) = (2, 4, 6)$ .

```
import numpy as np

k = 2
u = np.array([1, 2, 3])

mult = k * u

print(f"ku = {mult}")
```

```
ku = [2 4 6]
```

- NumPy uses **broadcasting** to extend operands of different shapes so that elementwise operations can be performed without explicit looping. In the case of scalar multiplication, the scalar is implicitly promoted to the shape of the vector, and each component is multiplied accordingly, making the operation fast.

# Linear Algebra Basics – Colinearity

- Let  $n \in \mathbb{N}$  and  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$  and  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$  be two vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :
  - The two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are said to be **colinear** iff  $\exists a \in \mathbb{R}$  if there exists a scalar  $a \neq 0$  such that we can multiply  $\mathbf{v}$  with  $a$  and get  $\mathbf{u}$  (i.e.,  $\mathbf{u} = a\mathbf{v}$ ),  
e.g.:  $(1, 2, 3) = 0.5 \cdot (2, 4, 6)$
  - If  $a > 0$ , both vectors point in the same direction; If  $a < 0$ , both vectors point in opposite directions.

```
import numpy as np

def check_colinear(u: np.ndarray, v: np.ndarray) -> float | None:
    try:
        a = u[0] / v[0]
        return a if np.allclose(u, a * v) else None
    except:
        return None

print(check_colinear(np.array([1, 2, 3]), np.array([2, 4, 6])))
```

0.5

# Linear Algebra Basics – Dot Product

- Let  $d \in \mathbb{N}$ . Let  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_d)$  and  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_d)$ . The **dot product** between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  (denoted as  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ ) is defined as  $\sum_{i=1}^d u_i v_i$ ,  
e.g.:  $(1, 2, 3) \cdot (4, 5, 6) = 1 \cdot 4 + 2 \cdot 5 + 3 \cdot 6 = 4 + 10 + 18 = 32$

```
import numpy as np

u = np.array([1,2,3])
v = np.array([4,5,6])

dotp = np.dot(u, v)

print(f"Dot product of u and v: {dotp}")
```

```
Dot product of u and v: 32
```

# Linear Algebra Basics – Norm

- The **norm** of a vector  $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$ , denoted  $\|\mathbf{u}\|$ , is defined as  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2}$ ; It measures the magnitude of the vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .  
e.g.:  $\|(3, 4)\| = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} = \sqrt{9 + 16} = \sqrt{25} = 5$
- In essence, this is a generalization of the Pythagorean theorem to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . In dimensions  $d = 2$  or  $d = 3$ , it has a geometric interpretation: it gives the distance from the origin to the point  $(u_1, \dots, u_n)$  that defines the vector  $\mathbf{u}$ . According to the Pythagorean theorem, the length of the hypotenuse is the square root of the sum of the squares of the side lengths. Similarly, the norm squares each component of the vector, adds them together, and takes the square root to compute the total length.

```
import numpy as np

u = np.array([3,4]); norm = np.linalg.norm(u)
print(f"Norm of u: {norm}")
```

```
Norm of u: 5.0
```



# Linear Algebra Basics – Normalized Vector

- For a vector  $\mathbf{u}$ , the **normalized vector** is  $\frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|}$ , i.e., the vector itself divided by its norm,  
e.g.:  $\frac{(3,4)}{\|(3,4)\|} = \frac{(3,4)}{5} = (\frac{3}{5}, \frac{4}{5}) = (0.6, 0.8)$
- That is, the normalized vector of  $\mathbf{u}$  has the same direction as  $\mathbf{u}$  but a norm of 1.

```
import numpy as np

u = np.array([3, 4])
normalized = u / np.linalg.norm(u)

print(f"Normalized vector u: {normalized}")
```

```
Normalized vector u: [0.6 0.8]
```