

Formulaire

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PRESENTATION

This short document is an informal memo for Epitech students.

1 QUANTIFIERS

In order to write some mathematical expressions, **quantifiers** are often used :

— [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quantifier_\(logic\)](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quantifier_(logic))

— [https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quantification_\(logique\)](https://fr.wikipedia.org/wiki/Quantification_(logique))

For instance :

$$\exists x \in \mathbb{R}, x^2 = 4 \quad (1)$$

means : "There exists a real number x , such that $x^2 = 4$ ".

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, -x^2 \leq 0 \quad (2)$$

means : "For all real number x , $-x^2 \leq 0$ "

2 ALGORITHMIC COMPLEXITY

Let n be the size of the problem (number of samples in the dataset, number of dimensions, number of integers to sort, ...), and \mathcal{A} an algorithm that processes the problem.

Definition 1. Polynomial time complexity

We say that the algorithm \mathcal{A} has **polynomial** time-complexity if the number of elementary operations $N(n)$ (sums, products, accessing an element in an array, etc.) required for \mathcal{A} to terminate is smaller than a polynomial function of n . Formally, there exists a fixed integer or float k , and a real number A , such that :

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, N(n) \leq A \times n^k \quad (3)$$

The **Landau notation** is often used : $N(n) = \mathcal{O}(n^k)$.

Example : sorting a list of size n .

Definition 2. Exponential complexity

We say that \mathcal{A} has an **exponential** complexity if there exists $k > 1$, and $B \in \mathbb{R}$, such that

$$\forall n \in \mathbb{N}, N(n) \leq B \times k^n \quad (4)$$

Similarly, we would write $N(n) = \mathcal{O}(k^n)$.

Example : enumerating the subsets of a set of size n .

3 DISTANCES

Here are some common distances in \mathbb{R}^2 and \mathbb{R}^3 .

3.1 Distances in two dimensions

We consider two points a_1 and a_2 in the 2D space \mathbb{R}^2 with coordinates (x_1, y_1) , and (x_2, y_2) , respectively. Some common distances between a_1 and a_2 are :

L2 distance :

$$d(a_1, a_2) = \|a_1 - a_2\|_2 = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2} \quad (5)$$

L1 distance :

$$d(a_1, a_2) = \|a_1 - a_2\|_1 = |x_1 - x_2| + |y_1 - y_2| \quad (6)$$

L ∞ distance :

$$d(a_1, a_2) = \|a_1 - a_2\|_\infty = \max(|x_1 - x_2|, |y_1 - y_2|) \quad (7)$$

weighted L1 distance :

let α_1 and α_2 be real, strictly non-negative numbers ($\in \mathbb{R}_+^*$).

$$d(a_1, a_2) = \alpha_1 |x_1 - x_2| + \alpha_2 |y_1 - y_2| \quad (8)$$

3.2 Distances in three dimensions

We consider two points a_1 and a_2 in the 3D space \mathbb{R}^3 with coordinates (x_1, y_1, z_1) , and (x_2, y_2, z_2) , respectively. Some common distances between a_1 and a_2 are :

L2 distance :

$$d(a_1, a_2) = \|a_1 - a_2\|_2 = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2 + (z_1 - z_2)^2} \quad (9)$$

L1 distance :

$$d(a_1, a_2) = \|a_1 - a_2\|_1 = |x_1 - x_2| + |y_1 - y_2| + |z_1 - z_2| \quad (10)$$

L ∞ distance :

$$d(a_1, a_2) = \|a_1 - a_2\|_\infty = \max(|x_1 - x_2|, |y_1 - y_2|, |z_1 - z_2|) \quad (11)$$

weighted L1 :

let α_1, α_2 and α_3 be real, strictly non-negative numbers ($\in \mathbb{R}_+^*$).

$$d(a_1, a_2) = \alpha_1|x_1 - x_2| + \alpha_2|y_1 - y_2| + \alpha_3|z_1 - z_2| \quad (12)$$

3.3 Distances in d dimensions

$a_1 = (x_1, \dots, x_p)$ and $a_2 = (y_1, \dots, y_p)$ are now p -dimensional **vectors**.

L2 distance :

$$d(a_1, a_2) = \|a_1 - a_2\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^p (x_k - y_k)^2} \quad (13)$$

L1 distance :

$$d(a_1, a_2) = \|a_1 - a_2\|_1 = \sum_{k=1}^p |x_k - y_k| \quad (14)$$

L ∞ distance :

$$d(a_1, a_2) = \|a_1 - a_2\|_\infty = \max(x_1, \dots, x_n) \quad (15)$$

weighted L1 distance :

$$\sum_{k=1}^p \alpha_k |x_k - y_k| \quad (16)$$

with the $\alpha_k, k \in [1, p]$ being p real, strictly non-negative numbers.

4 LIKELIHOOD / VRAISEMBLANCE

We define the **likelihood** of a **parametric model**.

- Observations : (x_1, \dots, x_n)
- Model : p (for instance a normal law)
- Parameters : θ (for instance (μ, σ) , the mean and the standard deviation of the normal law).

The likelihood writes :

$$L(\theta) = p(x_1, \dots, x_n | \theta) \quad (17)$$

5 DERIVATIVE / DÉRIVÉE

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a real.

If it exists, the **derivative** of f in x is defined by :

$$f'(x) = \lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h} \quad (18)$$

Examples :

If $g : x \mapsto 3x$, then the derivative exists and $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, g'(x) = 3$

If $h : x \mapsto x^2$, then the derivative exists and $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}, h'(x) = 2x$.

If $h : x \mapsto |x|$, then the derivative exists only if $x \neq 0$.

6 EXPECTED VALUE / ÉSPÉRANCE

Let Z be a real random variable (https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Random_variable).

If it is correctly defined, the **expected value** of Z is defined in the following way.

— If Z is a discrete random variable, that takes the values $\{z_i, i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ with probability $P(Z = z_i)$.

$$E[Z] = \sum_{i=1}^{+\infty} z_i P(Z = z_i) \quad (19)$$

— If Z is a continuous random variable with density p :

$$E[Z] = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} zp(z)dz \quad (20)$$

Note that not all random variables do have an expected value.

6.1 Examples

6.1.1 Constant random variable

If Z is a constant random variable : $Z = \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ with probability 1, $E[Z] = \alpha$.

6.1.2 Dice game

Z represents the outcome of a dice throw :

If the dice is unbiased :

$$E[Z] = \frac{1}{6}[1 + 2 + 3 + 4 + 5 + 6] = 3.5 \quad (21)$$

If the dice is cheated, for instance :

$$E[Z] = \frac{1}{100}(1 + 2 + 3 + 4) + \frac{48}{100}(5 + 6) = 5.38 \quad (22)$$

7 ENTROPY

Definition 3. Shannon entropy

The **Shannon entropy** of a discrete random variable X that takes the values x_i with probability p_i is given by :

$$H(X) = - \sum_{i=1}^n p_i \log(p_i) \quad (23)$$

Examples :

- Entropy of certain distribution $H = 0$.
- Entropy of uniform distribution with n values :

$$\begin{aligned} H &= - \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \log \frac{1}{n} \\ &= -n \times \frac{1}{n} \times \log \frac{1}{n} \\ &= \log n \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

8 BINARY DECOMPOSITION ALGORITHM

Result: Integer n in binary form

```
L ← liste vide [];
r ← 0;
while n > 0 do
    r ← n%2;
    L ← L + [r];
    n ← (n - r)/2;
end
L ← reversed(L);
return L
```

Algorithm 1: Binary decomposition of integer n

9 DESIGN MATRIX FOR MACHINE LEARNING

In machine learning, we often work with a dataset D_n of n samples, each sample being a vector with d **features**, hence in \mathbb{R}^d . One sample x might be written as a line vector, like so :

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \dots \\ x_i \\ \dots \\ x_d \end{pmatrix} \quad (25)$$

This vector can also be transposed, and written as a line vector :

$$x^T = (x_1, \dots, x_d) \quad (26)$$

The full dataset, with n samples $x_i, i \in [1, n]$ is often stored in the **design matrix** $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$.

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} x_1^T \\ \dots \\ x_i^T \\ \dots \\ x_n^T \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11}, \dots, x_{1j}, \dots, x_{1d} \\ \dots \\ x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ij}, \dots, x_{id} \\ \dots \\ x_{n1}, \dots, x_{nj}, \dots, x_{nd} \end{pmatrix} \quad (27)$$