

# مبانی یادگیری ماشین

## Intro to Machine Learning

بابک نجار اعرابی

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موضوع این جلسه

مروری بر روش های بهینه سازی

جلسه دوم

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$$1+4 = \underline{\quad\quad} \quad 2+1 = \underline{\quad\quad}$$

$$2+4 = \underline{\quad\quad} \quad 6+3 = \underline{\quad\quad} \quad 5+0 = \underline{\quad\quad}$$

# A very short review of **Basic Math** you need

$$\begin{array}{r} + 5 \\ 5 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 1 \\ 3 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 7 \\ 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 4 \\ 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 1 \\ 5 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 3 \\ 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 6 \\ 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 8 \\ 0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 9 \\ 1 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{r} + 0 \\ 6 \\ \hline \end{array}$$



# Gradient

In **vector calculus**, the **gradient** of a **scalar-valued differentiable function**  $f$  of **several variables** is the **vector field** (or **vector-valued function**)  $\nabla f$  whose value at a point  $p$  gives the direction and the rate of fastest increase.

When a coordinate system is used in which the basis vectors are not functions of position, the gradient is given by the **vector**<sup>[a]</sup> whose components are the **partial derivatives** of  $f$  at  $p$ .<sup>[2]</sup> That is, for  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , its gradient  $\nabla f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined at the point  $p = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$  in  $n$ -dimensional space as the vector<sup>[b]</sup>

$$\nabla f(p) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(p) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(p) \end{bmatrix}.$$

# Hessian

Suppose  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a function taking as input a vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and outputting a scalar  $f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$ . If all second-order **partial derivatives** of  $f$  exist, then the Hessian matrix  $\mathbf{H}$  of  $f$  is a square  $n \times n$  matrix, usually defined and arranged as

$$\mathbf{H}_f = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

That is, the entry of the  $i$ th row and the  $j$ th column is

$$(\mathbf{H}_f)_{i,j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}.$$



# Hessian cont.

- If furthermore the second partial derivatives are all continuous, the Hessian matrix is a symmetric matrix by the symmetry of second derivatives.

# Jacobian

Suppose  $\mathbf{f}: \mathbf{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{R}^m$  is a function such that each of its first-order partial derivatives exists on  $\mathbf{R}^n$ . This function takes a point  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n$  as input and produces the vector  $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbf{R}^m$  as output. Then the Jacobian matrix of  $\mathbf{f}$ , denoted  $\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{f}} \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ , is defined such that its  $(i,j)^{\text{th}}$  entry is  $\frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}$ , or explicitly

$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{f}} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla^T f_1 \\ \vdots \\ \nabla^T f_m \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$



# Jacobian cont.

The Hessian matrix of a function  $f$  is the transpose of the **Jacobian matrix** of the **gradient** of the function  $f$ ; that is:  $\mathbf{H}(f(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{J}(\nabla f(\mathbf{x}))^T$ .





# Positive (semi)Definite Matrix

An  $n \times n$  symmetric real matrix  $M$  is said to be **positive-definite** if  $\mathbf{x}^\top M \mathbf{x} > 0$  for all non-zero  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Formally,

$$M \text{ positive-definite} \iff \mathbf{x}^\top M \mathbf{x} > 0 \text{ for all } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$$

An  $n \times n$  symmetric real matrix  $M$  is said to be **positive-semidefinite** or **non-negative-definite** if  $\mathbf{x}^\top M \mathbf{x} \geq 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Formally,

$$M \text{ positive semi-definite} \iff \mathbf{x}^\top M \mathbf{x} \geq 0 \text{ for all } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$



# Negative (semi)Definite Matrix

An  $n \times n$  symmetric real matrix  $M$  is said to be **negative-definite** if  $\mathbf{x}^\top M \mathbf{x} < 0$  for all non-zero  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Formally,

$$M \text{ negative-definite} \iff \mathbf{x}^\top M \mathbf{x} < 0 \text{ for all } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$$

An  $n \times n$  symmetric real matrix  $M$  is said to be **negative-semidefinite** or **non-positive-definite** if  $\mathbf{x}^\top M \mathbf{x} \leq 0$  for all  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Formally,

$$M \text{ negative semi-definite} \iff \mathbf{x}^\top M \mathbf{x} \leq 0 \text{ for all } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$



# Linear (or Vector) Space

A vector space over a field  $F$  is a non-empty set  $V$  together with a binary operation and a binary function that satisfy the eight axioms listed below. In this context, the elements of  $V$  are commonly called *vectors*, and the elements of  $F$  are called *scalars*.<sup>[2]</sup>

- The binary operation, called *vector addition* or simply *addition* assigns to any two vectors  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  in  $V$  a third vector in  $V$  which is commonly written as  $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$ , and called the *sum* of these two vectors.
- The binary function, called *scalar multiplication*, assigns to any scalar  $a$  in  $F$  and any vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $V$  another vector in  $V$ , which is denoted  $a\mathbf{v}$ .<sup>[nb 2]</sup>

To have a vector space, the eight following axioms must be satisfied for every  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  in  $V$ , and  $a$  and  $b$  in  $F$ .<sup>[3]</sup>

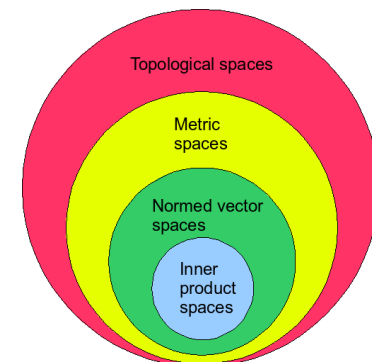


# Linear (or Vector) Space cont.

Axiom	Statement
Associativity of vector addition	$\mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w}$
Commutativity of vector addition	$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$
Identity element of vector addition	There exists an element $\mathbf{0} \in V$ , called the <i>zero vector</i> , such that $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{v}$ for all $\mathbf{v} \in V$ .
Inverse elements of vector addition	For every $\mathbf{v} \in V$ , there exists an element $-\mathbf{v} \in V$ , called the <i>additive inverse</i> of $\mathbf{v}$ , such that $\mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{0}$ .
Compatibility of scalar multiplication with field multiplication	$a(b\mathbf{v}) = (ab)\mathbf{v}$ <sup>[nb 3]</sup>
Identity element of scalar multiplication	$1\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}$ , where 1 denotes the <i>multiplicative identity</i> in $F$ .
Distributivity of scalar multiplication with respect to vector addition	$a(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = a\mathbf{u} + a\mathbf{v}$
Distributivity of scalar multiplication with respect to field addition	$(a + b)\mathbf{v} = a\mathbf{v} + b\mathbf{v}$

# Basis and Dimension of a Linear Space ++

- Linear combination
- Linear independence (of a set of vectors)
- Linear subspace
- Linear span (of a subset of vector space)
- Basis: A subset of a vector space is a basis if its elements are linearly independent and span the vector space
- Dimension
- Orthogonal Basis, Orthonormal Basis
- Generator set of vector space (or spanning set)
- Inner product, Norm, and Metric/Distance





# Null Space & Nullity



# Direct Sum

# Taylor Expansion

The Taylor series of a real or complex-valued function  $f(x)$ , that is infinitely differentiable at a real or complex number  $a$ , is the power series

$$f(a) + \frac{f'(a)}{1!}(x-a) + \frac{f''(a)}{2!}(x-a)^2 + \frac{f'''(a)}{3!}(x-a)^3 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(a)}{n!}(x-a)^n$$

- Maclaurin Expansion

$$f(0) + \frac{f'(0)}{1!}x + \frac{f''(0)}{2!}x^2 + \frac{f'''(0)}{3!}x^3 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^{(n)}(0)}{n!}x^n$$



# Multivariate Taylor Expansion

$$\begin{aligned} T(x_1, \dots, x_d) &= \sum_{n_1=0}^{\infty} \cdots \sum_{n_d=0}^{\infty} \frac{(x_1 - a_1)^{n_1} \cdots (x_d - a_d)^{n_d}}{n_1! \cdots n_d!} \left( \frac{\partial^{n_1 + \cdots + n_d} f}{\partial x_1^{n_1} \cdots \partial x_d^{n_d}} \right) (a_1, \dots, a_d) \\ &= f(a_1, \dots, a_d) + \sum_{j=1}^d \frac{\partial f(a_1, \dots, a_d)}{\partial x_j} (x_j - a_j) + \frac{1}{2!} \sum_{j=1}^d \sum_{k=1}^d \frac{\partial^2 f(a_1, \dots, a_d)}{\partial x_j \partial x_k} (x_j - a_j)(x_k - a_k) \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{3!} \sum_{j=1}^d \sum_{k=1}^d \sum_{l=1}^d \frac{\partial^3 f(a_1, \dots, a_d)}{\partial x_j \partial x_k \partial x_l} (x_j - a_j)(x_k - a_k)(x_l - a_l) + \cdots \end{aligned}$$

For example, for a function  $f(x, y)$  that depends on two variables,  $x$  and  $y$ , the Taylor series to second order about the point  $(a, b)$  is

$$f(a, b) + (x - a)f_x(a, b) + (y - b)f_y(a, b) + \frac{1}{2!} \left( (x - a)^2 f_{xx}(a, b) + 2(x - a)(y - b)f_{xy}(a, b) + (y - b)^2 f_{yy}(a, b) \right)$$

where the subscripts denote the respective **partial derivatives**.



# Multivariate Taylor Expansion cont.

A second-order Taylor series expansion of a scalar-valued function of more than one variable can be written compactly as

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{a}) + (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})^\top Df(\mathbf{a}) + \frac{1}{2!} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})^\top \{D^2 f(\mathbf{a})\} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) + \cdots,$$

where  $Df(\mathbf{a})$  is the [gradient](#) of  $f$  evaluated at  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{a}$  and  $D^2 f(\mathbf{a})$  is the [Hessian matrix](#). Applying the [multi-index notation](#) the Taylor series for several variables becomes

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{|\alpha| \geq 0} \frac{(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})^\alpha}{\alpha!} (\partial^\alpha f)(\mathbf{a}),$$

which is to be understood as a still more abbreviated [multi-index](#) version of the first equation of this paragraph, with a full analogy to the single variable case.



# Eigen Value and Eigen Vector



# Convex Set



# Convex Function



# Feasible Solution



# Convex Optimization: Definition