

What is Machine Learning?

→ ML is a study of algorithms that improve automatically through experience.

Experience = Old data! (Training Data)

→ We look for patterns.

→ ML is a subset of AI that works by looking at prior examples.

* Machine Learning problems are of two types

① **Regression Problem:** 'Where does this data fit?' is the type of questions we ask here.

② **Classification Problem:** What type of data is this? → We ask a binary question.

→ (Image Recognition)

* **Supervised Learning:** Data comes in pairs such as with one input & one output. This input data is given to the algorithm to check whether it is correct. (We teach the algorithm ourselves).

→ (Separating two speakers from an audio clip)

* **Unsupervised Learning:** Here, we don't have an output rather the algorithm looks for the pattern in the data. The output is the pattern itself.

* **Deep Learning (Representation Learning):** We're trying to learn representation of my data.

* **Learning Theory:** Principles! (More on that later)

* **Reinforcement Learning:** Agent learns optimal behaviour through interactions with its environment.

* First ML was written by Arthur Samuel for playing checkers!

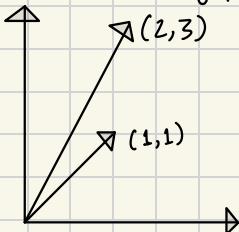
* $AI \neq ML \rightarrow$ Helps AI

→ Algorithms that work similarly to a cognitive level of humans.

* Rank, Column Space, Null Space & Nullity

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Input Output



Column Span: Span of column vectors.

(Where can this matrix take us?)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a + 2b \\ 3a + 6b \end{pmatrix} = a + 2b \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{Column Space}}$$

Or,

We are basically how its column can be mixed in different ways.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

$\text{Columns: } \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$

These are the columns & these are linearly independent.

$$\text{Col}(A) = \mathbb{R}^2$$

*Rank: Number of linearly independent columns.

* Null Space: Find null space of $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} x + 2y \\ 3(x + 2y) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

now, $x + 2y = 0$
 $x = -2y$

so input vectors become $\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2y \\ y \end{pmatrix}$
 $\therefore \text{Null Space: } \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = y \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

Rank \rightarrow Column Space

Nullity \rightarrow Null Space

Rank + Nullity = # of columns.

Ex: $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2(x+2y+3z) \\ x+2y+3z \end{pmatrix} = 0$

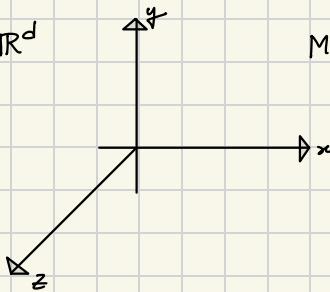
$$\Rightarrow x+2y+3z=0$$

$$\Rightarrow x = -2y - 3z \quad \text{no, input vector}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -2y-3z \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2y \\ y \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -3z \\ 0 \\ z \end{pmatrix} \\ = y \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + z \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\therefore \text{Null}(A) = n\text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

*Prerequisite 1 → Vectors

$v \in \mathbb{R}^d$



Matrix: Grid of numbers with $m \times n$ dimensions.

Identity Matrix: $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ Only 1s in the primary diagonal.

Transpose: Row \leftrightarrow Column

Trace: $\sum_i A_{ii}$ (Sum of the primary diagonal)

Inner product: $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ where $\sum_{i=1}^d x_i y_i \rightarrow$ scalar. $\langle x^T y \rangle$ {Order doesn't matter}

Cross product: we multiply two vectors & get a new vector which is perpendicular to the plane of the initial two vectors.

Outer product: $x \in \mathbb{R}^d, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$ $xy^T \neq yx^T$ {Order Matters?}

$$d \begin{array}{c} + \\ \vdash \\ + \end{array} P = \begin{pmatrix} & & \\ & \circ & \\ & & \end{pmatrix}$$

We create a matrix out of two vectors

A rank-1 matrix is made from one row vector & column vector.

≤ 2 Rank-1 matrix = Rank-2 Matrix

$\leq k$ Rank-1; = Rank- k matrix

*Increasing ranks means taking linearly independent matrices.

*Matrix-Vector Operations

→ Matrices are column vectors.

$$m \begin{pmatrix} \text{---} \\ \text{---} \\ \text{---} \\ \text{---} \end{pmatrix} \quad | \quad n$$

A

x

$$\boxed{A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \text{ & } x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}}$$

$$Ax \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times 1}$$

$$(m \times n) \times (n \times k) = (m \times k)$$

Why do we need linear algebra for machine learning?

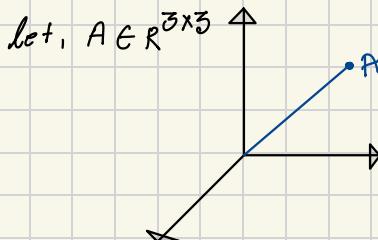
- Representing data.
- Covariance Matrices. ($S \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$)
- For calculus. (Gradients can be vectors, Hessians are matrices no is Jacobian).
- Kernel Methods.

* Geometric Interpretation

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

$$Ax \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$



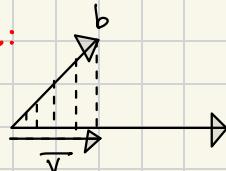
But if we take different vectors & run them through f , it's gonna give a different output.

If A is full-rank then every output will be unique for these scenario.

What happens if A is not full rank or a rank deficient matrix?

It means a subspace exists & 1 to 1 mapping is still possible but within that subspace?

* Projection:



$$\text{Projection on } V = C(V) = \left(\frac{VV^T}{V^TV} \right) b$$

*Eigen Vectors & Eigen Values

A full rank 3×3 matrix will have 3 eigenvectors & if the matrix is symmetric, those eigenvectors will be perpendicular.

Eigenvalue = Ratio of the Input & Output vector.

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$$

Spectrum: Collection of eigen values.

Spectral Theorem: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$, $A = A^T$ have Real Valued Eigenvalues
Orthonormal eigenvectors.

Hessians, Covariance Matrix, Kernel

***Quadratic Forms:** $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ & $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$; Quadratic form: $x^T A x$

Holds for any squared matrix (we assume it is symmetric as well)

***Definiteness:** $x^T A x > 0 \forall x \neq 0 \rightarrow A$ is positive definite.

$\geq 0 \forall x \neq 0 \rightarrow A$ is positive semi definite.

$< 0 \quad \text{||} \quad \rightarrow A$ is negative definite.

$\leq 0 \quad \text{||} \quad \rightarrow A$ is negative semi definite.

$>, < 0 \quad \text{||} \quad \rightarrow$ Indefinite

*Decomposing Matrices

① Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

→ Can be done on any matrix.

$A = USV^T$ $U, V \rightarrow$ Orthonormal matrices $S \rightarrow$ Diagonal Matrix, D

② Eigen Value Decomposition (EVD)

$$A = UDU^{-1}$$

	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
SVD	V^T Rotation Scaling along the axes		U Rotation
EVD	U^{-1} Rotation Scaling along the axes		U (Rotation if Eigen values are complex)

*Matrix Calculus

$f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ { f is a function that takes real valued inputs & outputs real values}

$f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ {Vector inputs, scalar outputs} Loss / funcⁿ

→ 1st Derivative → Gradient \mathbb{R}^d

→ 2nd Derivative → $\mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ Hessian (Also Symmetric)

$f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^D$ {Vector inputs, Vector Outputs}

→ 1st Derivative → Jacobian $d \times p$

→ 2nd Derivative → Higher Order Tensors

Gradient is written like $\nabla_x f(x)$

$$\nabla_x f(x) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(x) \end{array} \right)$$

→ Direction of steepest ascent

Basically gradient tells us to move to a place where the function yields the maximum amount of value.

$$\nabla_A f(A) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\delta f}{\delta a_{11}}(A) & \dots \\ \dots & \frac{\delta f}{\delta a_{mn}}(A) \end{pmatrix}$$

* Probability Theory

Sample space = Set of all outcomes. Ω

Favourable Outcome = Outcomes we want

Event $A \subseteq \Omega$

Conditional Probability, let B be any event such that $P(B) \neq 0$

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} A \perp B \text{ if and only if } P(A \cap B) = P(A)P(B) \\ A \perp B \text{ if and only if } P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A)P(B)}{P(B)} = P(A) \end{array} \right.$$

→ Independence

* Random Variables: Outcomes to real values.

$\omega_0 = HHTHTTHTTT$

* Random Variable is actually a function * We assign probabilities to events *

Suppose, we roll 2 fair dice

$$\Omega = \left\{ \begin{array}{cccc} 1,4 & 2,4 & 3,4 & 4,4 \\ 1,3 & 2,3 & 3,3 & 4,3 \\ 1,2 & 2,2 & 3,2 & 4,2 \\ 1,1 & 2,1 & 3,1 & 4,1 \end{array} \right\} \quad P(\Omega) = \frac{1}{16}$$

↗ the random variable yields a collection of that are Disjoint & Exhaustive. Disjoint → Events don't overlap

Exhaustive → Cover the entire sample space.

Z is a function of Ω

$$Z = f(\Omega)$$

$$Z : \Omega \rightarrow \{2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8\}$$

RV maps entire outcome.

But, Z can be any function

$$\text{like here } Z(\omega) = \omega_1 + \omega_2$$

$$\text{or it could be } Z(\omega) = \omega_1 \times \omega_2$$

Here, ω_1 & ω_2 are randoms

Matrix Calculus

Approximate $f'(x)$ by finite differences

$$FD = \frac{f(x+\epsilon) - f(x)}{\epsilon}$$

$$MD = \frac{f(x+\epsilon) - f(x-\epsilon)}{2\epsilon} ; \epsilon = h$$

* Linearization

Calculus is all about some complicated curved surface that is locally linear.

$$\frac{\delta y}{\delta x} = f'(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta y = \underbrace{f'(x)}_m \underbrace{\delta x}_{(x-x_0)}$$

$$* f(x) - f(x_0) \approx f'(x_0)(x-x_0)$$

* Matrix Calculation

① Elementwise product $x.*y$ or $x \odot y$ {Also called broadcasting}

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} * \begin{pmatrix} 10 \\ 11 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 20 \\ 33 \end{pmatrix}$$

Trace of A = $\text{Tr}(A)$ = Sum of the diagonal

Confusion arises $x^T x$ or $x^T A x$

$$* \frac{d}{d(\text{scalar})} (\text{vector}) = (\text{vector})$$

$$\underline{\underline{\text{Ex:}}} \quad \bar{a} = \begin{bmatrix} x^2 \\ x^3 \\ x^5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \frac{\delta}{\delta x} \bar{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 2x \\ 3x^2 \\ 5x^4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$* \frac{d(\text{scalar})}{d(\text{vector})} = \text{vector}$$

$$f(x_1, y, z) = xyz^2 = x_1 x_2 x_3^2$$

$$\frac{\delta f}{\delta \bar{x}} = \left(\frac{\delta f}{\delta x_1} \quad \frac{\delta f}{\delta x_2} \quad \frac{\delta f}{\delta x_3} \right)^T$$

$$* \frac{d}{d(\text{vector})} (\text{vector}) = \text{Matrix} = 2\text{nd Order Tensor}$$

$$\bar{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \bar{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\frac{\delta \bar{a}}{\delta \bar{b}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\delta a_1}{\delta b_1} & \frac{\delta a_1}{\delta b_2} \\ \frac{\delta a_2}{\delta b_1} & \frac{\delta a_2}{\delta b_2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$* \frac{\delta}{\delta \bar{x}} (\bar{x} \cdot \bar{a}) = \frac{\delta}{\delta x} (\bar{x}^T \bar{a}) = \frac{\delta}{\delta \bar{x}} (\bar{a}^T \bar{x}) = \bar{a}$$

(Dot product of vector)

$$\bar{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \bar{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \bar{x} \cdot \bar{a} = a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + a_3 x_3$$

$$\therefore \frac{\delta}{\delta \bar{x}} (\bar{a} \cdot \bar{x}) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{\delta}{\delta x_1} (\bar{x} \cdot \bar{a}) \\ \frac{\delta}{\delta x_2} (\bar{x} \cdot \bar{a}) \\ \frac{\delta}{\delta x_3} (\bar{x} \cdot \bar{a}) \end{array} \right) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

* Matrices with respect to a vector

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta \bar{x}} (AB) = \frac{\delta A}{\delta \bar{x}} B + A \frac{\delta B}{\delta \bar{x}} \rightarrow \text{kind of like chain rule but not really. Order of the matrices matter.}$$

* $\bar{x}^T \bar{A} \bar{x} \rightarrow \text{Quadratic form}$

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta \bar{x}} (\bar{x}^T \bar{A} \bar{x}) = (\bar{A} + \bar{A}^T) \bar{x}$$

$$= \underbrace{2 \bar{A} \bar{x}}$$

For symmetric matrices

$$\rightarrow \bar{A} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix} \quad \bar{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\bar{x}^T \bar{A} \bar{x} = (x_1, x_2) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 a_{11} + x_2 a_{12} \\ x_1 a_{21} + x_2 a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= x_1^2 a_{11} + x_1 x_2 a_{12} + x_1 x_2 a_{21} + x_2^2 a_{22}$$

$$\therefore \frac{\delta}{\delta \bar{x}} \bar{x}^T \bar{A} \bar{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\delta}{\delta x_1} \bar{x}^T \bar{A} \bar{x} \\ \frac{\delta}{\delta x_2} \bar{x}^T \bar{A} \bar{x} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2x_1 a_{11} + x_2 a_{12} + x_2 a_{21} + 0 \\ 0 + x_1 a_{12} + x_1 a_{21} + 2x_2 a_{22} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 2x_1 a_{11} + x_2 (a_{12} + a_{21}) \\ x_1 (a_{12} + a_{21}) + 2x_2 a_{22} \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 2a_{11} & a_{12} + a_{21} \\ a_{12} + a_{21} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}}_{\bar{A} + \bar{A}^T} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

* Maximisation = Minimisation of $-f(x)$

$$x^* = \arg \min f(x)$$