

CS4641 Spring 2025 Linear Algebra Revisit

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Basic / Prerequisites

- Probability
 - distributions, densities, marginalization, conditioning
- Statistics
 - mean, variance, maximum likelihood estimation
- Linear Algebra and Optimization
 - vector, matrix, multiplication, inversion, eigen-value decomposition
- Coding skills

Machine Learning for Apartment Hunting



- Suppose you are to move to Atlanta
- And you want to find the most reasonably priced apartment satisfying your needs:

monthly rent = θ_1 (living area) + θ_2 (# bedroom)

Living area (ft ²)	# bedroom	Monthly rent (\$)
230	1	900
506	2	1800
433	2	1500
190	1	800
150	1	?
270	1.5	?

Linear Regression Model

• Assume y is a linear function of x (features) plus noise ϵ monthly rent = θ_1 (living area) + θ_2 (# bedroom) $y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_n x_n + \epsilon$

where ϵ is an error model as Gaussian $N(0, \sigma^2)$ Probability

• Let
$$\theta = (\theta_0, \theta_1, ..., \theta_n)^T$$
, and augment data by one dimension
Linear algebra $x \leftarrow (1, x)^T$
Then $y = \theta^T x + \epsilon$
Linear algebra $x \leftarrow (1, x)^T$
 $y = \theta_0$
 $y = \theta_0$
 $y = \theta_0$

Probabilistic Interpretation

• Assume y is a linear in x plus noise ϵ $y = \theta^{\mathsf{T}} x + \epsilon$

• Assume
$$\epsilon$$
 follows a Gaussian $N(0, \sigma)$
 $p(y^i | x^i; \theta) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y^i - \theta^T x^i)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$

• By independence assumption, likelihood





is

$$L(\theta) = \prod_{i}^{m} p(y^{i}|x^{i};\theta) = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}}\right)^{m} \exp\left(-\frac{\sum_{i}^{m} (y^{i} - \theta^{\top}x^{i})^{2}}{2\sigma^{2}}\right)$$
Probability

Probabilistic Interpretation

• Hence the log-likelihood is:

$$\log L(\theta) = m \log \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma}} - \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i}^{m} (y^i - \theta^T x^i)^2$$

• Least Mean Square (LMS)

$$LMS: \quad \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i}^{m} (y^i - \theta^T x^i)^2$$

 How to make it work in real data?
 Algorithms Programming

Revisit of Linear Algebra

- Basics
- Dot and Vector Products
- Identity, Diagonal and Orthogonal Matrices
- Trace
- Norms
- Inverse of a matrix
- Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors
- Singular Value Decomposition
- Matrix Calculus

Linear Algebra Basics - I

• Linear algebra provides a way of compactly representing and operating on sets of linear equations

 $4x_1 - 5x_2 = -13 \qquad -2x_1 + 3x_2 = 9$ can be written in the form of Ax = b $A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} b = \begin{bmatrix} -13 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$

- $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ denotes a matrix with m rows and n columns, where elements belong to real numbers.
- $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ denotes a vector with n real entries. By convention an n dimensional vector is often thought as a matrix with n rows and 1 column.

Linear Algebra Basics - II

- Transpose of a matrix results from flipping the rows and columns. Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, transpose is $A^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$
- For each element of the matrix, the transpose can be written as $A^{T}_{ij} = A_{ji}$
- The following properties of the transposes are easily verified

 $(A^{\mathsf{T}})^{\mathsf{T}} = A$ $(AB)^{\mathsf{T}} = B^{\mathsf{T}}A^{\mathsf{T}}$ $(A+B)^{\mathsf{T}} = A^{\mathsf{T}} + B^{\mathsf{T}}$

• A square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is symmetric if $A = A^{\mathsf{T}}$ and it is anti-symmetric if $A = -A^{\mathsf{T}}$. Thus each matrix can be written as a sum of symmetric and anti-symmetric matrices. $C = \frac{1}{2}(C + C^{\mathsf{T}}) + \frac{1}{2}(C - C^{\mathsf{T}})$

Vector and Matrix Multiplication - I

- The product of two matrices $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ is given by $C \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$, where $C_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} A_{ik} B_{kj}$
- Given two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the term $x^\top y$ (also $x \cdot y$) is called the *inner* product or dot product of the vectors, and is a real number given by $\sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$. For example,

$$x^{\mathsf{T}}y = [x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3] \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^3 x_i y_i$$

• Given two vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^n, y \in \mathbb{R}^m$, the term xy^{T} is called the *outer product* of the vectors, and is a matrix given by $(x_iy_j)^{\mathsf{T}} = x_iy_j$. For example,

Vector and Matrix Multiplication - II

$$xy^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & y_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1y_1 & x_1y_2 & x_1y_3 \\ x_2y_1 & x_2y_2 & x_2y_3 \\ x_3y_1 & x_3y_2 & x_3y_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

• The dot product also has a geometrical interpretation, for vectors in $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^2$ with angle θ between them

$$x \cdot y = |x||y| \cos\theta$$

which leads to use of dot product for testing orthogonality, getting the Euclidean norm of a vector, and scalar projections.

Norms - I

- Norm of a vector ||x|| is informally a measure of the "length" of a vector
- More formally, a norm is any function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies
 - For all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x) \ge 0$ (non-negativity)
 - f(x) = 0 is and only if x = 0 (definiteness)
 - For $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$, f(tx) = |t|f(x) (homogeneity)
 - For all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x + y) \le f(x) + f(y)$ (triangle inequality)

Norms - II

- Common norms used in machine learning are
 - ℓ_2 norm: $||x||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$
 - ℓ_1 norm: $||x||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$
 - ℓ_{∞} norm: $||x||_{\infty} = \max_{i} |x_{i}|$
- All norms presented so far are examples of the family of ℓ_p norms, which are parameterized by a real number $p \ge 1$:

$$||x||_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

• Norms can be defined for matrices, such as the Frobenius norm.

$$||A||_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij}^2} = \sqrt{\operatorname{tr}(A^{\top}A)}$$

Trace of a Matrix

• The trace of a matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, denoted as tr(A), is the sum of the diagonal elements in the matrix

$$\operatorname{tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ii}$$

- The trace has the following properties
 - For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $tr(A) = trA^{\top}$
 - For $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, tr(A + B) = tr(A) + tr(B)
 - For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $tr(tA) = t \cdot tr(A)$
 - For A, B, C such that ABC is a square matrix tr(ABC) = tr(BCA) = tr(CAB)
- The trace of a matrix helps us easily compute norms and eigenvalues of matrices as we will see later

Identity, Diagonal and Orthogonal Matrices

- The identity matrix, denoted by $I \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a square matrix with ones on the diagonal and zeros everywhere else
- A diagonal matrix is matrix where all non-diagonal matrices are 0 . This is typically denoted as $D = diag(d_1, d_2, d_3, ..., d_n)$
- Two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are orthogonal if x, y = 0. A square matrix $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is orthogonal if all its columns are orthogonal to each other and are normalized
- It follows from orthogonality and normality that
 - $U^{\top}U = I = UU^{\top}$
 - $||Ux||_2 = ||x||_2$

Inverse of a Matrix

- The inverse of a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is denoted A^{-1} and is the unique matrix such that $A^{-1}A = I = AA^{-1}$
- For some square matrices A⁻¹ may not exist, and we say that A is singular or non-invertible. In order for A to have an inverse, A must be full rank.
- For non-square matrices the inverse, denoted by A^+ , is given by $A^+ = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T$ called the *pseudo inverse*

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors - I

• Given a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ we say that $\lambda \in \mathbb{C}$ is an eigenvalue of A and $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ is an eigenvector if

$$Ax = \lambda x, x \neq 0$$

- Intuitively this means that upon multiplying the matrix A with a vector x , we get the same vector, but scaled by a parameter λ
- Geometrically, we are transforming the matrix A from its original orthonormal basis/co-ordinates to a new set of orthonormal basis x with magnitude as λ

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors - II

- All the eigenvectors can be written together as $AX = X\Lambda$ where the diagonals of X are the eigenvectors of A, and Λ is a diagonal matrix whose elements are eigenvalues of A
- If the eigenvectors of A are invertible, then $A = X\Lambda X^{-1}$
- There are several properties of eigenvalues and eigenvectors
 - $\operatorname{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i$
 - $|A| = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$
 - Rank of *A* is the number of non-zero eigenvalues of *A*
 - If A is non-singular then $\frac{1}{\lambda_i}$ are the eigenvalues of A^{-1}
 - The eigenvalues of a diagonal matrix are the diagonal elements of the matrix itself!

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors - III

- For a symmetric matrix A, it can be shown that eigenvalues are real and the eigenvectors are orthonormal. Thus it can be represented as $U\Lambda U^{T}$
- Considering quadratic form of A ,

$$x^{ op}Ax = x^{ op}U\Lambda U^{ op}x = y^{ op}\Lambda y = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i y_i^2$$
 (where $y = U^{ op}x$)

• Since y_i^2 is always positive the sign of the expression always depends on λ_i . If $\lambda_i > 0$ then the matrix A is positive definite, if $\lambda_i \ge 0$ then the matrix A is positive semidefinite

Singular Value Decomposition

- Singular value decomposition, known as SVD, is a factorization of a real matrix with applications in calculating pseudo-inverse, rank, solving linear equations, and many others.
- For a matrix $M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ assume $n \le m$
 - $M = U\Sigma V^{\top}$ where $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}, V^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, \Sigma \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
 - The *m* columns of *U*, and the *n* columns of *V* are called the left and right singular vectors of *M*. The diagonal elements of Σ , Σ_{ii} are known as the singular values of *M*.
 - Let v be the i^{th} column of V, and u be the i^{th} column of U, and σ be the i^{th} diagonal element of Σ

$$Mv = \sigma u$$
 and $M^{\mathsf{T}}u = \sigma v$

Singular Value Decomposition - II

- Singular value decomposition is related to eigenvalue decomposition
 - Suppose $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 u & x_2 u \dots & x_m u \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
 - Then covariance matrix is $C = \frac{1}{m}XX^{T}$
 - Starting from singular vector pair

•
$$M^{\top}u = \sigma v$$

 $\Rightarrow MM^{\top}u = \sigma Mv$
 $\Rightarrow MM^{\top}u = \sigma^{2}u$
 $\Rightarrow Cu = \lambda u$

Matrix Calculus

• For a vector $x, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$, let $f(x) = b^{\mathsf{T}}x$, then $\nabla_x b^{\mathsf{T}}x$ is equal to b

•
$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_k} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i = b_k$$

• Now for a quadratic function, $f(x) = x^{T}Ax$, with $A \in \mathbb{S}^{n}$, $\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_{k}} = 2Ax$

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial xk} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^n A_{ij} x_i x_j$$
$$= \sum_{i \neq k} A_{ik} x_i + \sum_{j \neq k} A_{kj} x_j + 2A_{kk} x_k$$
$$= 2 \sum_{i=1}^n A_{ki} x_i$$

• Let $f(X) = X^{-1}$, then $\partial(X^{-1}) = -X^{-1}(\partial X)X^{-1}$

References for self study

Resources for review of material

- Linear Algebra Review and Reference by Zico Kotler
- Matrix Cookbook by KB Peterson

Back to Apartment Hunting

• Given m data points, find θ that minimizes the mean square error





Optimization for LMS

• Define $X = (x^1, x^2, \dots x^m), y = (y^1, y^2, \dots, y^m)^T$, gradient becomes



Gradient descent

$$\hat{\theta}^{t+1} \leftarrow \hat{\theta}^{t} + \frac{\alpha}{m} \sum_{i}^{m} \left(y^{i} - \hat{\theta}^{t^{\mathsf{T}}} x^{i} \right) x^{i}$$
Optimization

Registration

• Friday is the registration deadline.

• If you decide to drop the course, please do so ASAP so that other people on the waitlist have time to register!

• See you next week!

