Machine Learning CSE 6363 (Fall 2016)

Lecture 8 Linear Algebra Review

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- Vector-Vector Products
 - Inner product or dot product

$$x^T y \in \mathbb{R} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

Outer product

$$xy^{T} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1} \\ x_{2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{m} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_{1} & y_{2} & \cdots & y_{n} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_{1}y_{1} & x_{1}y_{2} & \cdots & x_{1}y_{n} \\ x_{2}y_{1} & x_{2}y_{2} & \cdots & x_{2}y_{n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{m}y_{1} & x_{m}y_{2} & \cdots & x_{m}y_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

• Identity matrix $I_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$

• Diagonal matrix
$$D_{ij} = \begin{cases} d_i & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

• Transpose $(A^T)^T = A$ $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$ $(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$

- Symmetric matrix $A = A^T$
- Trace $\operatorname{tr} A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} A_{ii}$

For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\operatorname{tr} A = \operatorname{tr} A^T$.

For $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\operatorname{tr}(A + B) = \operatorname{tr}A + \operatorname{tr}B$.

For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$, $\operatorname{tr}(tA) = t \operatorname{tr} A$.

For A, B such that AB is square, trAB = trBA.

For A, B, C such that ABC is square, trABC = trBCA = trCAB, and so on for the product of more matrices.

$$||x||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

- 1. For all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x) \geq 0$ (non-negativity).
- 2. f(x) = 0 if and only if x = 0 (definiteness).
- 3. For all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $t \in \mathbb{R}$, f(tx) = |t|f(x) (homogeneity).
- 4. For all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(x+y) \leq f(x) + f(y)$ (triangle inequality)

$$||x||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$$

$$||x||_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p} ||A||_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij}^2} = \sqrt{\operatorname{tr}(A^T A)}$$

 $||x||_{\infty} = \max_{i} |x_i|$

• Inverse: invertible or non-singular

$$A^{-1}A = I = AA^{-1}$$
$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$
$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$
$$(A^{-1})^{T} = (A^{T})^{-1}.$$

Orthogonal matrix

Two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are **orthogonal** if $x^T y = 0$.

$$U^T U = I = U U^T$$
$$||Ux||_2 = ||x||_2$$

Quadratic form

$$x^{T} A x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} (Ax)_{i} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_{j} \right) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_{i} x_{j}$$

$$x^{T}Ax = (x^{T}Ax)^{T} = x^{T}A^{T}x = x^{T}\left(\frac{1}{2}A + \frac{1}{2}A^{T}\right)x$$

i.e., only the symmetric part of A contributes to the quadratic form. For this reason, we often implicitly assume that the matrices appearing in a quadratic form are symmetric.

• Positive definite, positive semidefinite, negative definite

One important property of positive definite and negative definite matrices is that they are always full rank, and hence, invertible.

- Gram matrix
 - Positive semidefinite $G = A^T A$
- Eigenvectors and eigenvalues $Ax = \lambda x$, $x \neq 0$
- The trace of a A is equal to the sum of its eigenvalues,

$$\mathrm{tr} A = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i.$$

• The determinant of A is equal to the product of its eigenvalues,

$$|A| = \prod_{i=1}^n \lambda_i.$$

- The rank of A is equal to the number of non-zero eigenvalues of A.
- If A is non-singular then $1/\lambda_i$ is an eigenvalue of A^{-1} with associated eigenvector x_i , i.e., $A^{-1}x_i = (1/\lambda_i)x_i$.
- The eigenvalues of a diagonal matrix $D = \text{diag}(d_1, \dots d_n)$ are just the diagonal entries Fall $2016 \dots d_n$.

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• Derivatives of matrix

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{a}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{a}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{b}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{a} \mathbf{b}^T$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{b}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{b} \mathbf{a}^T$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{b}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{a}}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T$$

Derivatives of trace

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{X} \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A}^{T}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{A}^{T} \mathbf{B}^{T}$$

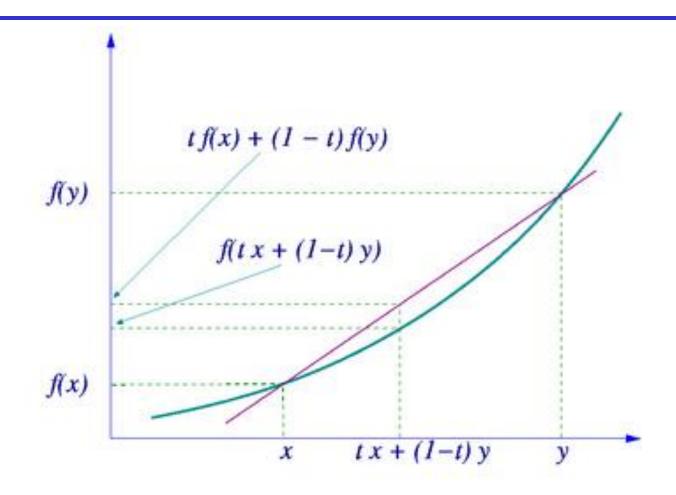
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{B} \mathbf{A}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{X}^{T} \mathbf{A}) = \mathbf{A}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{X}} \operatorname{Tr}(\mathbf{A} \mathbf{X}^{T}) = \mathbf{A}$$

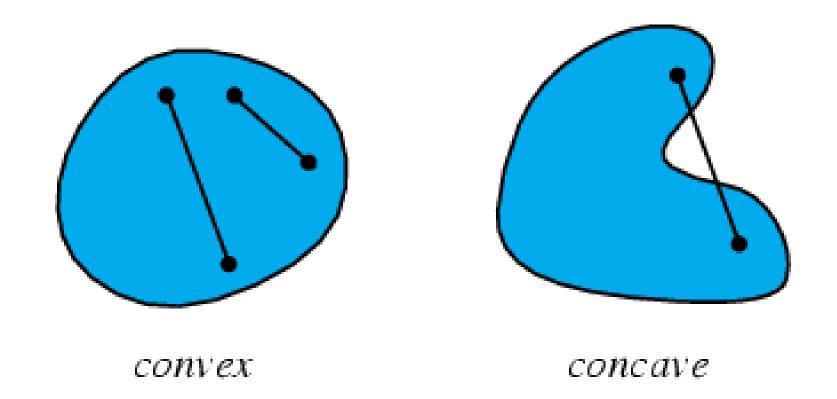
Exercise

Convex Function



$$f(t x + (1-t) y) \le t f(x) + (1-t) f(y)$$
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Convex Set



Region above a convex function is a convex set.

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Programming

- Objective function to be minimized/maximized.
- Constraints to be satisfied.

Example

Objective function

$$z = x_1 + x_2$$
 $4x_1 - x_2 \le 8$
 $2x_1 + x_2 \le 10$
 $5x_1 - 2x_2 \ge -2$
 $x_1, x_2 \ge 0$

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Convex Programming

- Convex optimization function
- Convex feasible region
- Why is it so important???
 - Global optimum can be found in polynomial time.
 - Many practical problems are convex
 - Non-convex problems can be relaxed to convex ones.

Quadratic Programming

• QP Problem:

$$Ax \le b$$

$$Gx = h$$

$$J = \frac{1}{2}x^{T}Hx + f^{T}x \to \min$$

- Matlab Optimization Toolbox: QUADPROG
- Same feasibility issues as for LP