LEARNING FROM DATA

Fall 2021

Review Session 1

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Aim: This note is to review some basic mathematical knowledge on linear algebra, calculus and probability. We hope it can assist you in your future coursework.

1 Linear Algebra

1.1 Inner Product and trace

Definition 1. (Inner product). A function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: \mathbb{V} \times \mathbb{V} \to \mathbb{F}$ is an inner product if it satisfies [\[1\]](#page-4-0):

- Linearity: $\langle \alpha v + \beta w, x \rangle = \alpha \langle v, x \rangle + \beta \langle w, x \rangle;$
- Conjugate symmetry: $\langle v, w \rangle = \langle \overline{\langle w, v \rangle};$
- Positive definiteness: $\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$, with the equality iff $v = 0$.

The most common one is the canonical inner product on \mathbb{R}^n . It says for vectors $\boldsymbol{x} \triangleq [x_1, \ldots, x_n]^T$ and $\boldsymbol{y} \triangleq [y_1, \dots, y_n]^{\mathrm{T}}$, we have

$$
\langle \boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \rangle \triangleq x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \cdots x_ny_n = \sum_{i=1}^n x_iy_i = \boldsymbol{x}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{y}.
$$

Example 1: (Orthogonal Vectors) Vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is orthogonal to $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ when $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$. **Example 2:** (Unit Vector) Vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is of unit length when $\langle x, x \rangle = 1$.

Example 3: (Orthogonal Matrix) The matrix $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is said to be **orthogonal** if

$$
\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{Q}^{\mathrm{T}}=\mathbf{Q}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{Q}=I
$$

which implies that each column of **Q** has unit length and orthogonal to each other.

Definition 2. (Trace). For $M \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, trace(M) = $\sum_{n=1}^{\infty}$ $\sum_{i=1}$ **M**_{ii}, where **M**_{ii} is the diagonal terms of matrix **M**. Theorem 1. For any matrices A, B of compatible size,

$$
trace(AB) = trace(BA).
$$

1.2 Vector Norms

A norm on a vector space V gives a way of measuring lengths of vectors. Formally:

Definition 3. (Vector norm). A norm on a real vector space V is a function $|| \cdot || : \mathbb{V} \to \mathbb{R}$ that is:

- Nonnegatively homogeneous: $||\alpha x|| = |\alpha| ||x||$ for all vectors $x \in V$, scalars $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$;
- Positive definite: $||x|| \ge 0$, and $||x|| = 0$ iff $x = 0$;
- Subadditive: $|| \cdot ||$ satisfies the triangle inequality $||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$, for all $x, y \in V$.

One very important family of norms are the ℓ^p norms. If we take $\mathbb{V} = \mathbb{R}^n$, and $p \in [1, \infty)$, for vector $\boldsymbol{x} \triangleq [x_1, \ldots, x_n]^{\mathrm{T}}$, we have

$$
||\boldsymbol{x}||_p = \left(\sum_i |\boldsymbol{x}_i|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.\tag{1}
$$

The most frequent used one is the ℓ^2 norm or the "Euclidean norm",

$$
||\boldsymbol{x}||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \boldsymbol{x}_i^2} = \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}}
$$

which coincides with our usually way of measuring lengths. Two other cases are of almost equal importance: $p = 1$, and $p \to \infty$. Setting $p = 1$ in [\(1\)](#page-1-0), we obtain $||\mathbf{x}||_1 = \sum_i |\mathbf{x}_i|$.

Finally, as p becomes larger, the expression in [\(1\)](#page-1-0) accentuates the largest $|x_i|$ among x entries. In another words, as $p \to \infty$, $||\mathbf{x}||_p \to \max_i |\mathbf{x}_i|$. Thus, we can extend the definition of the ℓ^p norm to $p = \infty$ by defining

$$
||\boldsymbol{x}||_{\infty} = \max_{i} |\boldsymbol{x}_i|.
$$

2 Calculus

2.1 Derivatives

Scalar b, vectors x, w, y and matrix A , we have :

$$
\bullet \frac{\partial(\mathbf{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x} + b)}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{w}
$$

$$
\bullet \frac{\partial(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + b)}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{A}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}
$$

$$
\bullet \frac{\partial(\mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{y})}{\partial \mathbf{A}} = -\mathbf{A}^{-\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{A}^{-\mathrm{T}}
$$

For more derivative calculation, please refer to the Matrix Cookbook[\[2\]](#page-4-1).

3 Probability

3.1 Basic Properties

For events E_1 and E_2 , if they are disjoint, i.e. $E_1 \cap E_2 = \emptyset$, then $\mathbb{P}(E_1 \cup E_2) = \mathbb{P}(E_1) + \mathbb{P}(E_2)$

Definition 4. (Conditional probability) For events A and B, and $\mathbb{P}(A) > 0$,

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

We can define the conditional expectation as

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[Y|X=x\right] \triangleq \sum_{y \in \mathcal{Y}} y \cdot p\left(Y=y|X=x\right)
$$

Definition 5. (Covariance) For two random variables X and Y , the covariance is defined by

$$
\mathrm{Cov}\left[X,Y\right]=\mathbb{E}\left[XY\right]-\mathbb{E}\left[X\right]\mathbb{E}\left[Y\right]
$$

When the covariance of X and Y is 0, we call them **uncorrelated variables**.

Definition 6. (Independent) For two random variables, when the joint pdf can be written as the product of two RVs' pdf

$$
f(x,y) = f_X(x) f_Y(y),
$$

we call them independent.

Theorem 2. We have:

 \circ (Multiplication Rule) For events A and B,

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

 \circ (Total probability rule) B_1, B_2, \ldots, B_k form a partition of $\Omega, \forall i \neq j, B_i \cap B_j = \emptyset, \cup_{i=1}^k B_i = \Omega$, we have:

$$
\mathbb{P}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \mathbb{P}(B_i)\mathbb{P}(A|B_i);
$$

◦ (Bayes Rule)

$$
\mathbb{P}(B_1|A) = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A \cap B_1)}{\mathbb{P}(A)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A|B_1)\mathbb{P}(B_1)}{\mathbb{P}(A)} = \frac{\mathbb{P}(A|B_1)\mathbb{P}(B_1)}{\sum_{i=1}^k \mathbb{P}(A|B_i)\mathbb{P}(B_i)}.
$$

3.2 Gaussian Distribution

3.2.1 Normal Distribution

• If random variable $X \in \mathbb{R}$, $X \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2)$, where $\mu \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\sigma \in \mathbb{R}$, then the density function of it is:

$$
p(x; \mu, \sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma})^2}
$$

• $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu$; $\text{var}(X) = \sigma^2$.

3.2.2 Multivariate Gaussian Distribution

• If random variable $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$, where $\boldsymbol{\mu} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\boldsymbol{\Sigma} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is symmetric and positive semi-definite (PSD), then the density function of it is:

$$
p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{n/2} |\boldsymbol{\Sigma}|^{1/2}} \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)
$$

• $\mathbb{E}[X] = \mu; \text{ cov}(X) = \Sigma.$

Figure 1: Multivariate Gaussian's p.d.f

References

- [1] Strang, Gilbert, et al. Introduction to linear algebra. Vol. 3. Wellesley, MA: Wellesley-Cambridge Press, 1993.
- [2] The Matrix Cookbook http://matrixcookbook.com