UVA CS 4501 - 001 / 6501 - 007

Introduction to Machine Learning and Data Mining

Lecture 2:

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8/28/14

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Last Lecture Recap

- Course Logistics
- My background
- ☐ Basics of machine learning & Application
- Application and History of MLDM

BASICS OF MACHINE LEARNING

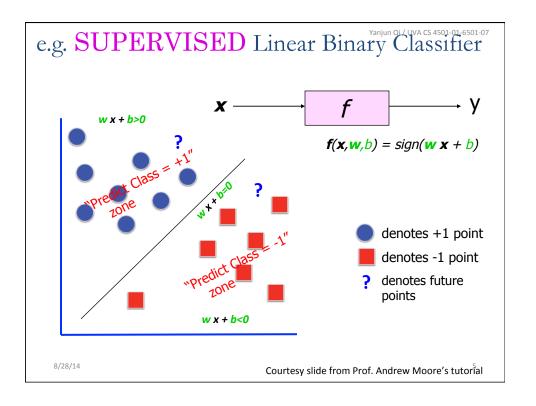
- "The goal of machine learning is to build computer systems that can learn and adapt from their experience." - Tom Dietterich
- "Experience" in the form of available data examples (also called as instances, samples)
- Available examples are described with properties (data points in feature space X)

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- Find function to map input space X to output space Y
- So that the difference between y and f(x)of each example x is small.

e.g. I believe that this book is not at all helpful since it does not explain thoroughly the material . it just provides Output Y: {1 / Yes , -1 / No } the reader with tables and e.g. Is this a positive product review calculations that sometimes are not easily understood ... Input X: e.g. a piece of English text 8/28/14



Basic Concepts

• Training (i.e. learning parameters | **W**, **b**|)



- Training set includes
 - available examples $x_1, ..., x_L$
 - available corresponding labels $y_1, ..., y_L$
- Find (**w**,b) by minimizing loss (i.e. difference between y and f(x) on availableexamples in training set)

$$(\mathbf{W}, b) = \underset{\mathbf{W}, b}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \ell(f(x_i), y_i)$$

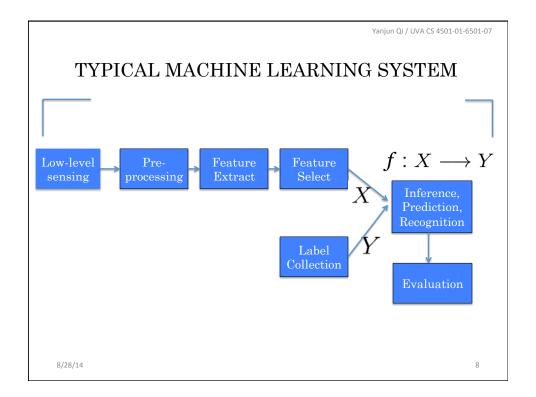
Basic Concepts

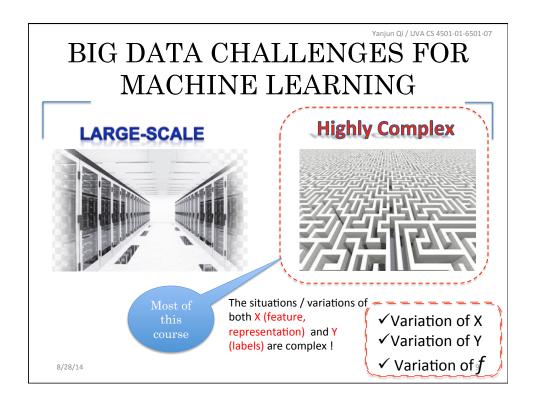
- Testing (i.e. evaluating performance on "future" points)
 - Difference between true y_2 and the predicted $f(x_2)$ on a set of testing examples (i.e. *testing set*)
 - Key: example $x_{?}$ not in the training set

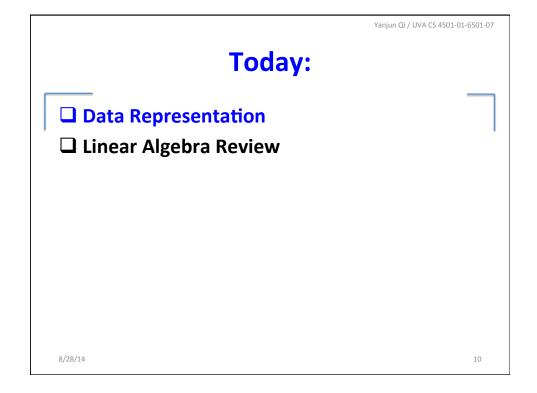
KEY

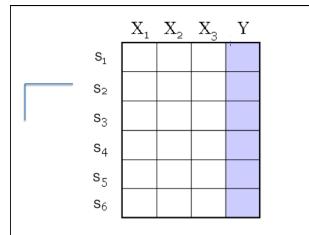
 Generalisation: learn function / hypothesis from past data in order to "explain", "predict", "model" or "control" new data examples

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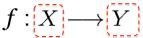








A Dataset

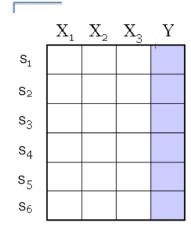


- Data/points/instances/examples/samples/records: [rows]
- Features/attributes/dimensions/independent variables/covariates/ predictors/regressors: [columns, except the last]
- Target/outcome/response/label/dependent variable: special column to be predicted [last column]

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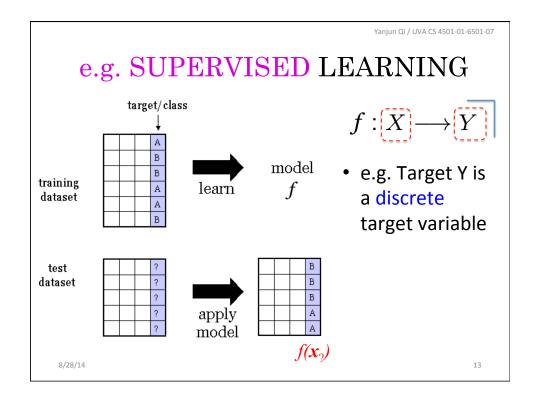
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Main Types of Columns



- Continuous: a real number, for example, age or height
- Discrete: a symbol, like "Good" or "Bad"

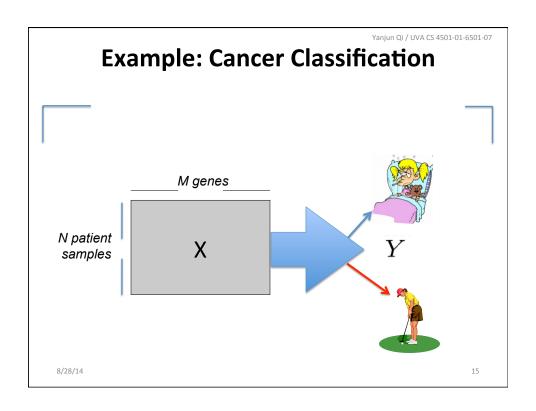
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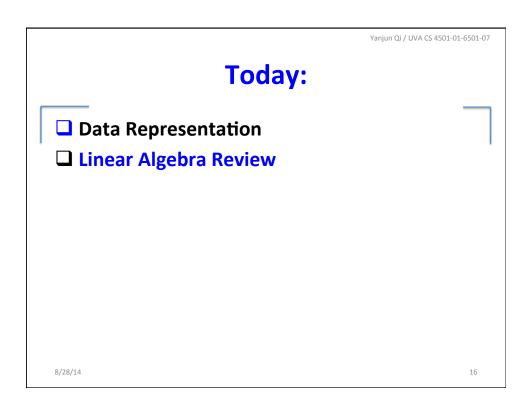


Example: Cancer Classification

- Application: automatic disease detection
- Importance: this is modern/future medical diagnosis.
- Prediction goal: Based on past patients, predict whether a new patient have the disease or not
- Data: Past patients with and without the disease
- Target: Cancer or no-cancer
- Features: Concentrations of various genes in your blood --- real values

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DEFINITIONS - SCALAR

- ◆ a scalar is a number
 - (denoted with regular type: 1 or 22)

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DEFINITIONS - VECTOR

- ◆Vector: a single row or column of numbers
 - denoted with **bold small letters**
 - row vector

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

column vector

$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\3\\4\\5 \end{bmatrix}$$

DEFINITIONS - VECTOR

- Vector in Rⁿ is an ordered set of n real numbers.
 - e.g. $\mathbf{v} = (1,6,3,4)$ is in \mathbb{R}^4
 - A column vector: -
 - A row vector: (1 6 3 4)

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DEFINITIONS - MATRIX

◆A matrix is an array of numbers

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \end{bmatrix}$$

- ◆Denoted with a **bold Capital letter**
- ◆ All matrices have an order (or dimension): that is, the number of rows × the number of columns. So, A is 2 by 3 or (2 × 3).
- lack A square matrix is a matrix that has the same number of rows and columns $(n \times n)$

DEFINITIONS - MATRIX

- m-by-n matrix in R^{mxn} with m rows and n columns, each entry filled with a (typically) real number:
- e.g. 3*3 matrix $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 8 \\ 4 & 78 & 6 \\ 9 & 3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$

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Special matrices

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & c \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{diagonal} \quad \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ 0 & d & e \\ 0 & 0 & f \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{upper-triangular}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b & 0 & 0 \\ c & d & e & 0 \\ 0 & f & g & h \\ 0 & 0 & i & j \end{pmatrix} \text{ tri-diagonal } \begin{pmatrix} a & 0 & 0 \\ b & c & 0 \\ d & e & f \end{pmatrix} \text{ lower-triangular }$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 I (identity matrix)

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Special matrices: Symmetric Matrices

$$A=A^T (a_{ij}=a_{ji})$$

e.g.: $\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 & -3 \\ 5 & 7 & 2 \\ -3 & 2 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$

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MATRIX OPERATIONS

- 1) Transposition
- 2) Addition and Subtraction



- 3) Multiplication
- 4) Norm (of vector)
- 5) Matrix Inversion
- 6) Matrix Rank
- 7) Matrix calculus

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(1) Transpose

Transpose: You can think of it as

– "flipping" the rows and columns

e.g.
$$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} a & b \end{pmatrix}$$

• $(A^T)^T = A$

$$\begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{pmatrix}$$

• $(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$

(2) Matrix Addition/Subtraction

- Matrix addition/subtraction
 - Matrices must be of same size.

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(2) Matrix Addition/Subtraction An Example

If we have

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 8 & 11 \\ 9 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

then we can calculate **C** = **A** + **B** by

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 8 & 11 \\ 9 & 12 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 12 \\ 11 & 15 \\ 14 & 18 \end{bmatrix}$$

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(2) Matrix Addition/Subtraction An Example

• Similarly, if we have

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 8 & 11 \\ 9 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

then we can calculate C = A - B by

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 10 \\ 8 & 11 \\ 9 & 12 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -6 & -8 \\ -5 & -7 \\ -4 & -6 \end{bmatrix}$$

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OPERATION on MATRIX

- 1) Transposition
- 2) Addition and Subtraction
- 3) Multiplication
- 4) Norm (of vector)
- 5) Matrix Inversion
- 6) Matrix Rank
- 7) Matrix calculus

(3) Products of Matrices

- We write the multiplication of two matrices A and B as AB
- This is referred to either as
 - pre-multiplying B by A or
 - post-multiplying A by B
- So for matrix multiplication AB, A is referred to as the premultiplier and B is referred to as the postmultiplier

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(3) Products of Matrices

 $\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & . & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & . & a_{2n} \\ . & . & . & . & . & . \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & . & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & . & b_{1p} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & . & b_{2p} \\ . & . & . & . & . & . \\ b_{q1} & b_{q2} & . & b_{qp} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & . & c_{1p} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & . & c_{2p} \\ . & . & . & . & c_{mp} \end{bmatrix}$

Condition: n = q $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{\text{NV}} a_{ik} b_{kj} \qquad AB \neq BA$

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(3) Products of Matrices

- In order to multiply matrices, they must be conformable (the number of columns in the premultiplier must equal the number of rows in postmultiplier)
- Note that
 - an $(m \times n) \times (n \times p) = (m \times p)$
 - an (m x n) x (p x n) = cannot be done
 - a (1 x n) x (n x 1) = a scalar (1 x 1)

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Products of Matrices

• If we have $A_{(3x2)}$ and $B_{(2x3)}$ then

$$\boldsymbol{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} x \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} \\ b_{31} & b_{32} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} \\ c_{31} & c_{32} \end{bmatrix} = \boldsymbol{C}$$

where

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$$\begin{split} c_{11} &= a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} + a_{13}b_{31} \\ c_{12} &= a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} + a_{13}b_{32} \\ c_{21} &= a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} + a_{23}b_{31} \\ c_{22} &= a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} + a_{23}b_{32} \\ c_{31} &= a_{31}b_{11} + a_{32}b_{21} + a_{33}b_{31} \end{split}$$

test

 $c_{32} = a_{31}b_{12} + a_{32}b_{22} + a_{33}b_{32}$

Matrix Multiplication An Example

• If we have $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$

then $\mathbf{AB} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 & 7 \\ 2 & 5 & 8 \\ 3 & 6 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} \\ c_{31} & c_{32} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 30 & 66 \\ 36 & 81 \\ 42 & 96 \end{bmatrix}$

where $c_{11} = a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} + a_{13}b_{31} = 1(1) + 4(2) + 7(3) = 30$ $c_{12} = a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} + a_{13}b_{32} = 1(4) + 4(5) + 7(6) = 66$ $c_{21} = a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} + a_{23}b_{31} = 2(1) + 5(2) + 8(3) = 36$ $c_{22} = a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} + a_{23}b_{32} = 2(4) + 5(5) + 8(6) = 81$ $c_{31} = a_{31}b_{11} + a_{32}b_{21} + a_{33}b_{31} = 3(1) + 6(2) + 9(3) = 42$ $c_{32} = a_{31}b_{12} + a_{32}b_{22} + a_{33}b_{32} = 3(4) + 6(5) + 9(6) = 96$

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Some Properties of Matrix Multiplication

- Note that
 - Even if conformable, AB does not necessarily equal BA (i.e., matrix multiplication is not commutative)
 - Matrix multiplication can be extended beyond two matrices
 - matrix multiplication is associative, i.e.,
 A(BC) = (AB)C

Some Properties of Matrix Multiplication

- ◆Multiplication and transposition (AB)^T = B^TA^T
- ◆Multiplication with Identity Matrix

$$AI = IA = A$$
, where $I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & . & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & . & 0 \\ ... & ... & ... & ... \\ 0 & 0 & . & 1 \end{bmatrix}$

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Special Uses for Matrix Multiplication

Products of Scalars & Matrices → Example, If we have

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad b = 3.5$$

then we can calculate bA by

bA =
$$3.5\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \\ 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.5 & 7.0 \\ 10.5 & 14.0 \\ 17.5 & 21.0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note that bA = Ab if b is a scalar

Special Uses for Matrix Multiplication

- Dot (or Inner) Product of two Vectors
 - Premultiplication of a column vector a by conformable row vector b yields a single value called the dot product or inner product - If

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$

then ab gives us

ab =
$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} = 3(5) + 4(2) + 6(8) = 71$$

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which is the sum of products of elements in similar positions for the two vectors

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Special Uses for Matrix Multiplication

- Outer Product of two Vectors
 - Postmultiplication of a column vector a by conformable row vector b yields a matrix containing the products of each pair of elements from the two matrices (called the outer product) - If

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$

then **ba** gives us

ba =
$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$$
 $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$ = $\begin{bmatrix} 15 & 20 & 30 \\ 6 & 8 & 12 \\ 24 & 32 & 48 \end{bmatrix}$

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Special Uses for Matrix Multiplication

- Sum the Squared Elements of a Vector
 - Premultiply a column vector a by its transpose
 If

 $\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}$

then premultiplication by a row vector \mathbf{a}^{T}

$$\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} = \left[\begin{array}{cccc} 5 & 2 & 8 \end{array} \right]$$

will yield the sum of the squared values of elements for **a**, i.e.

 $\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} = 5^2 + 2^2 + 8^2 = 93$

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Special Uses for Matrix Multiplication

- Postmultiply a row vector **a** by its transpose
- – If $a = [7 \ 10 \ 1]$

then postmultiplication by a column vector \mathbf{a}^T

$$\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 10 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

will yield the sum of the squared values of elements for **a**, i.e.

a
$$\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 10 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 10 & 1 \\ 10 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = 7^2 + 10^2 + 1^2 = 150$$

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MATRIX OPERATIONS

- 1) Transposition
- 2) Addition and Subtraction
- 3) Multiplication
- 4) Norm (of vector)
- 5) Matrix Inversion
- 6) Matrix Rank
- 7) Matrix calculus

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(4) Vector norms

A norm of a vector ||x|| is informally a measure of the "length" of the vector.

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

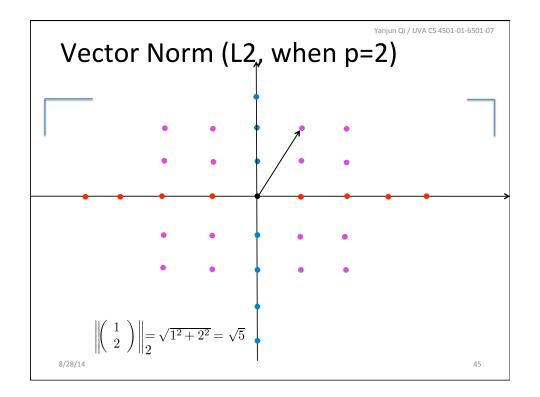
- Common norms: L₁, L₂ (Euclidean)

$$||x||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i| \qquad ||x||_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

L_{infinity}

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

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Orthogonal & Orthonormal

Inner Product defined between

column vector
$$\mathbf{x}$$
 and \mathbf{y} , as
$$\mathbf{x} \bullet \mathbf{y} = x^T y \in \mathbb{R} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \cdots & x_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i.$$

If $u \cdot v = 0$, $||u||_2! = 0$, $||v||_2! = 0$ \rightarrow u and v are orthogonal

If
$$u \cdot v = 0$$
, $||u||_2 = 1$, $||v||_2 = 1$
 $\rightarrow u$ and v are orthonormal

Orthogonal matrices

• Notation:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & . & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & . & a_{2n} \\ ... & ... & ... & ... \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & . & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}, \qquad u_1^T = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & ... & a_{1n} \\ u_2^T & = \begin{bmatrix} a_{21} & a_{22} & ... & a_{2n} \\ ... & ... & ... & ... \\ u_m^T & = \begin{bmatrix} a_{m1} & a_{m2} & ... & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} u_1^T \\ u_2^T \\ ... \\ u_m^T \end{bmatrix}$$

• A is orthogonal if:

 u_j . $u_k = 0$, for every $j \neq k$ (u_j is perpendicular to u_k)

Example:
$$\begin{bmatrix} cos(\theta) & -sin(\theta) \\ sin(\theta) & cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix}$$

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Orthonormal matrices

- A is orthonormal if:
 - (1) u_k . $u_k = 1$ or $||u_k|| = 1$, for every k
 - (2) u_j . $u_k = 0$, for every $j \neq k$ (u_j is perpendicular to u_k)
 - Note that if A is orthonormal, it easy to find its inverse:

$$AA^{T} = A^{T}A = I$$
 (i.e., $A^{-1} = A^{T}$)

Property: ||Av|| = ||v|| (does not change the magnitude of v)

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MATRIX OPERATIONS

- 1) Transposition
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(5) Inverse of a Matrix

- The inverse of a matrix **A** is commonly denoted by **A**⁻¹ or inv **A**.
- The inverse of an $n \times n$ matrix **A** is the matrix \mathbf{A}^{-1} such that $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A}$
- The matrix inverse is analogous to a scalar reciprocal
- A matrix which has an inverse is called nonsingular

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(5) Inverse of a Matrix

- For some *n* x *n* matrix **A**, an inverse matrix **A**⁻¹ may not exist.
- A matrix which does not have an inverse is singular.
- An inverse of $n \times n$ matrix **A** exists iff $|\mathbf{A}| \neq 0$

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THE DETERMINANT OF A MATRIX

- ◆The determinant of a matrix A is denoted by |A| (or det(A)).
- ◆Determinants exist only for square matrices.

$$|A| = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{12}a_{21}$$

THE DETERMINANT OF A MATRIX

 2×2

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix}, \quad det(A) = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} \end{bmatrix} = a_{11}a_{22} - a_{21}a_{12}$$

 3×3

$$\begin{vmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} = a_{11} \begin{vmatrix} a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} - a_{21} \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{32} & a_{33} \end{vmatrix} + a_{31} \begin{vmatrix} a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{22} & a_{23} \end{vmatrix}$$

n x n

$$det(A) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} (-1)^{j+k} a_{jk} det(A_{jk}), \text{ for any } k: 1 \le k \le m$$

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THE DETERMINANT OF A MATRIX

$$det(AB) = det(A)det(B)$$

$$det(A+B) \neq det(A) + det(B)$$

diagonal matrix: If A =

If
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & . & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & . & 0 \\ . & . & . & . \\ . & . & . & . \\ 0 & 0 & . & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix}$$
, then $det(A) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}$

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HOW TO FIND INVERSE MATRIXES? An example,

$$\oint \text{If} \atop \oint A = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and } |A| \neq 0$$

$$A^{-1} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$$

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Matrix Inverse

• The inverse A^{-1} of a matrix A has the property:

$$AA^{-1}=A^{-1}A=I$$

- A^{-1} exists only if $det(A) \neq 0$
- Terminology
 - Singular matrix: A-1 does not exist
 - Ill-conditioned matrix: A is close to being singular

PROPERTIES OF INVERSE **MATRICES**

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

$$(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$$

$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

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Inverse of special matrix

- For diagonal matrices $\mathbf{D}^{-1} = \operatorname{diag}\{d_1^{-1}, \dots, d_n^{-1}\}$
- For orthonormal matrices $A^{-1} = A^{\mathsf{T}}$
 - a square matrix with real entries whose columns and rows are orthogonal unit vectors (i.e., orthonormal vectors)

Pseudo-inverse

• The pseudo-inverse A⁺ of a matrix A (could be non-square, e.g., m x n) is given by:

$$A^{+} = (A^{T} A)^{-1} A^{T}$$

• It can be shown that:

$$A^{+}A = I$$
 (provided that $(A^{T}A)^{-1}$ exists)

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- 5) Matrix Inversion
- 6) Matrix Rank
- 7) Matrix calculus

(6) Rank: Linear independence

A set of vectors is linearly independent if none of them can be written as a linear combination of the others.

$$x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad x_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x3 = -2x1 + x2$$

→ NOT linearly independent

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(6) Rank: Linear independence

 Alternative definition: Vectors v₁,...,v_k are $\overline{\text{linearly independent if } c_1 v_1 + ... + c_k v_k = 0$ linearly independent implies $c_1 = \dots = c_k = 0$ $\begin{pmatrix} | & | & | & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \\ | & | & | & | \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} | & | & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \\ | & | & | \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

e.g. 9. $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u \\ v \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ (u,v)=(0,0), i.e. the columns are linearly independent.

(6) Rank of a Matrix

- rank(A) (the rank of a m-by-n matrix A) is
 - = The maximal number of linearly independent columns
 - =The maximal number of linearly independent rows

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 4 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
Pank-2
Rank-2
Rank-2

- If A is n by m, then
 - $\operatorname{rank}(A) <= \min(m,n)$
 - If n=rank(A), then A has full row rank
 - If m=rank(A), then A has full column rank

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(6) Rank of a Matrix

• Equal to the dimension of the largest square sub-matrix of *A* that has a non-zero determinant

Example:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 5 & 2 & 14 \\ 3 & 9 & 6 & 21 \\ 8 & 10 & 7 & 28 \\ 1 & 2 & 9 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$
 has rank 3

$$det(A) = 0$$
, but $det\begin{pmatrix} 4 & 5 & 2 \\ 3 & 9 & 6 \\ 8 & 10 & 7 \end{pmatrix} = 63 \neq 0$

(6) Rank and singular matrices

If A is nxn, rank(A) = n iff A is nonsingular (i.e., invertible).

If A is nxn, rank(A) = n iff $det(A) \neq 0$ (full rank).

If A is nxn, rank(A) < n iff A is singular

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MATRIX OPERATIONS

- 1) Transposition
- 2) Addition and Subtraction
- 3) Multiplication
- 4) Norm (of vector)
- 5) Matrix Inversion
- 6) Matrix Rank
- 7) Matrix calculus

(7) Matrix Calculus: Types of Matrix Derivatives

	Scalar	Vector	Matrix
Scalar	$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x}$	$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{y}}{\mathrm{d}x} = \left[\frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x}\right]$	$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{Y}}{\mathrm{d}x} = \left[\frac{\partial y_{ij}}{\partial x}\right]$
Vector	$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}} = \left[\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_j}\right]$	$\frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{y}}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}} = \left[\frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x_j}\right]$	
Matrix	$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{X}} = \left[\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_{ji}}\right]$		

By Thomas Minka. Old and New Matrix Algebra Useful for Statistics

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For Examples

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

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

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

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

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{B} \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{B}^T) \mathbf{x}$$

Today Recap

Data Representation
Linear Algebra Review

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References

- □ http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~zkolter/course/15-884/ linalg-review.pdf (please read)
- ☐ Prof. James J. Cochran's tutorial slides "Matrix Algebra Primer II"
- http://www.cs.cmu.edu/~aarti/Class/10701/recitation/LinearAlgebra Matlab Review.ppt
- ☐ Prof. Alexander Gray's slides
- ☐ Prof. George Bebis' slides

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