

# Machine Learning with Python

## MTH786U/P 2023/24

### Lecture 7: Review for mid-term

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# LINEAR ALGEBRA

# Matrices and Vectors

Matrix:  $\mathbf{X} = \begin{pmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1d} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2d} \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ x_{s1} & x_{s2} & \dots & x_{sd} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times d}$



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You need to pay attention to the dimensions!

$$s \times \underbrace{d}_{\text{red circle}} \times 1 \rightarrow s \times 1$$



# Matrices and Vectors

The row times column rule can be written as

$$\mathbf{X} \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{y} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \sum_{j=1}^d x_{ij} w_j = y_i \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, s\}$$



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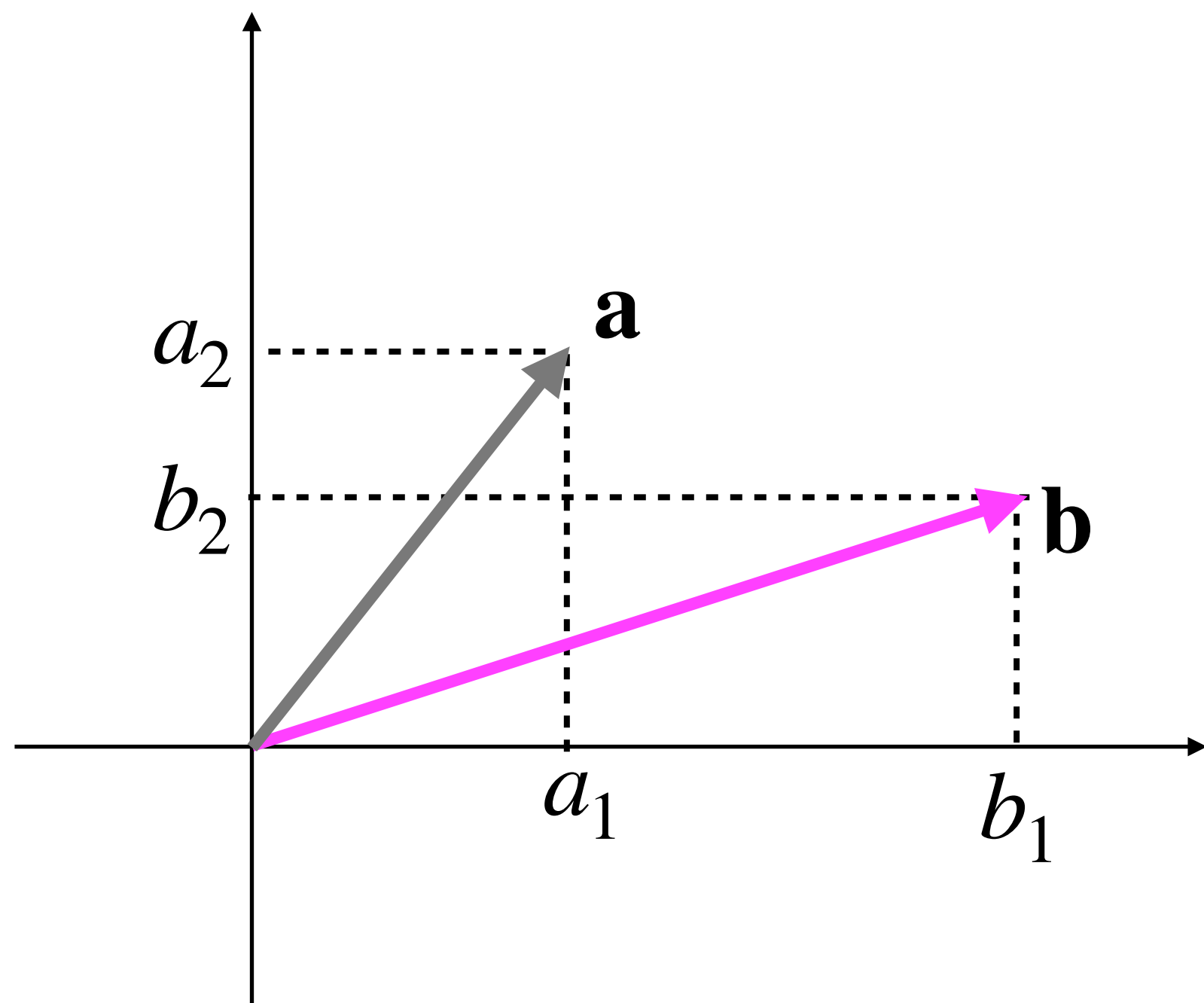
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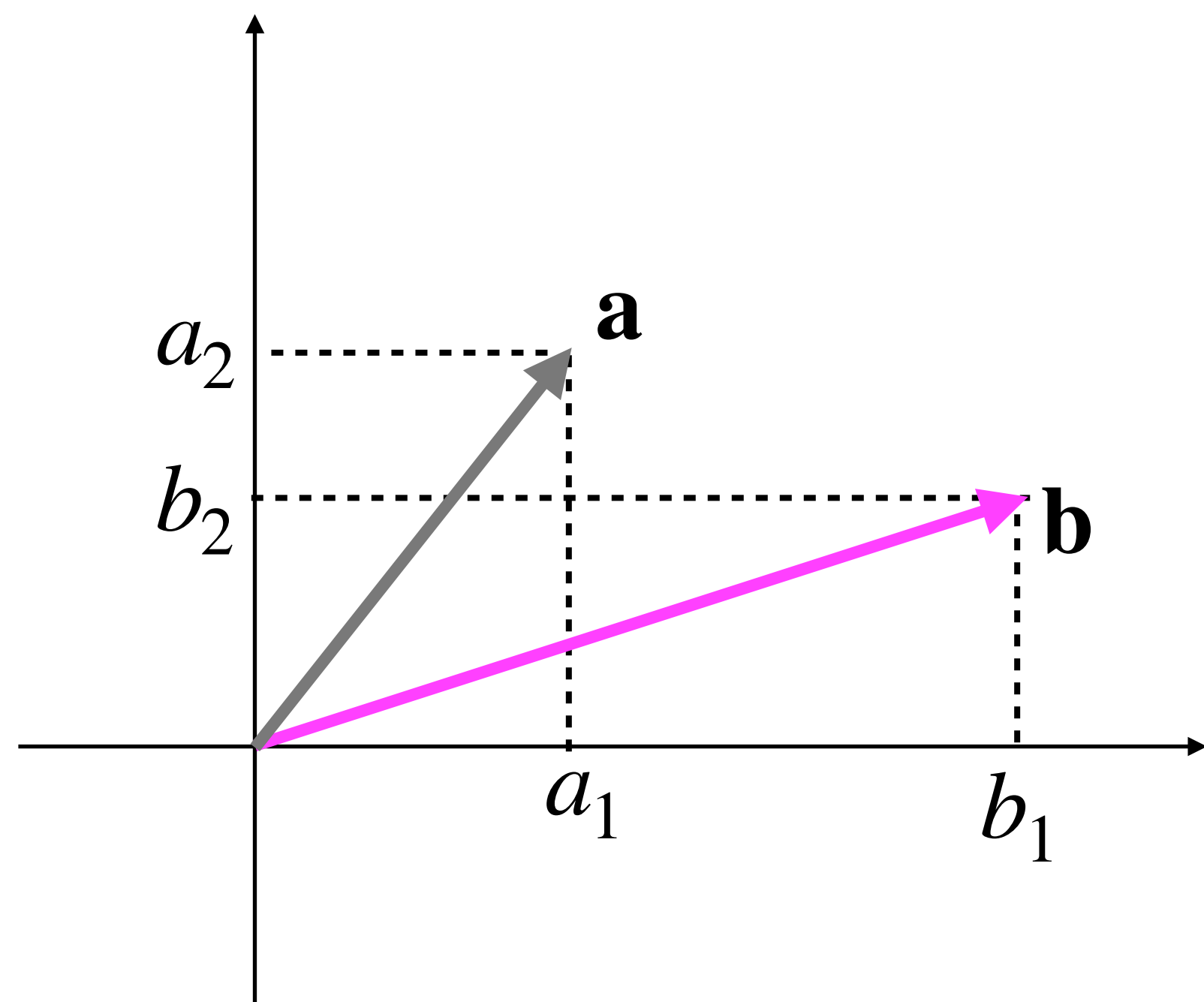
$$\rightarrow \sum_{j=1}^3 x_{ij} w_j$$

# Inner/dot/scalar product

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 1}$$



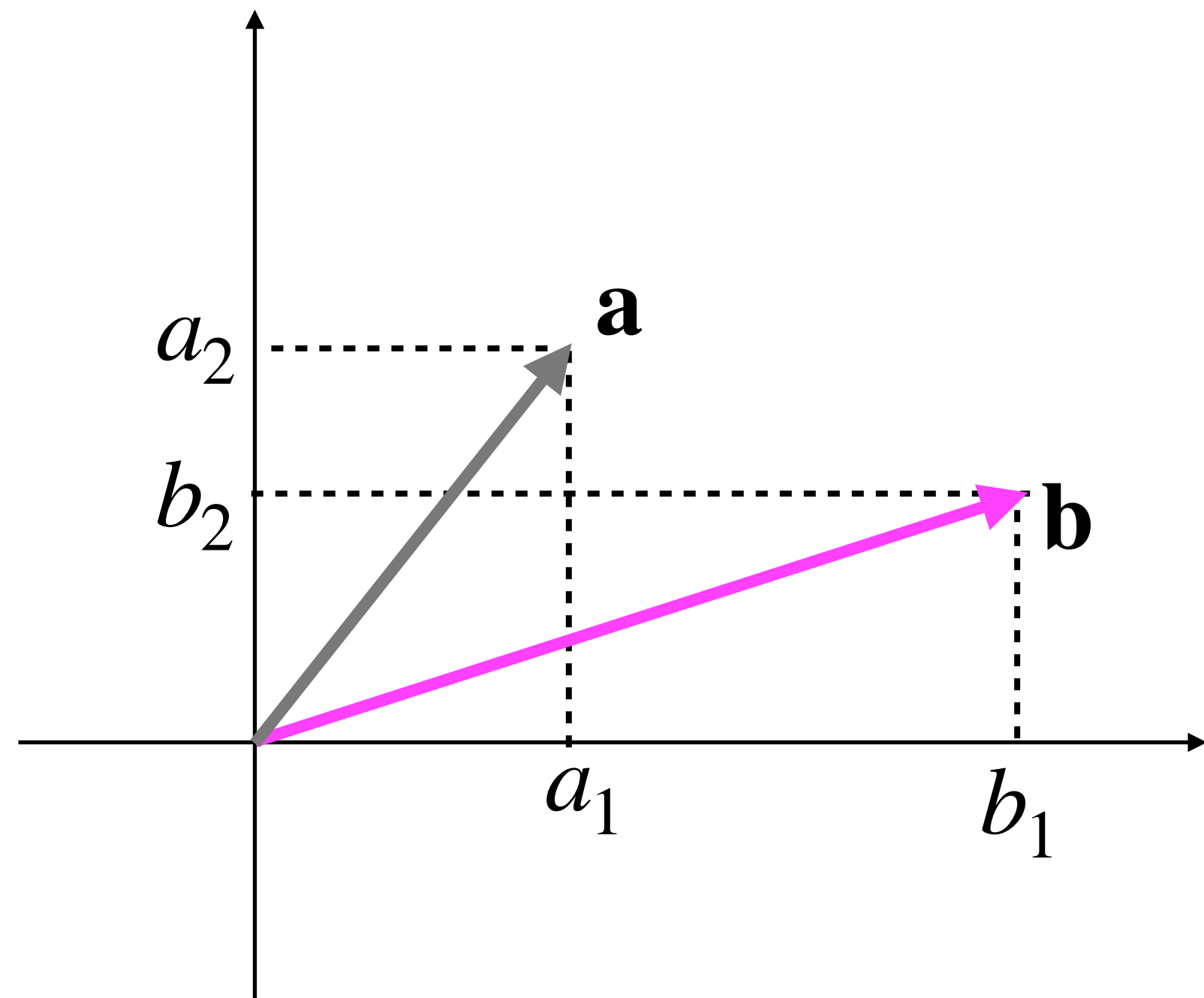
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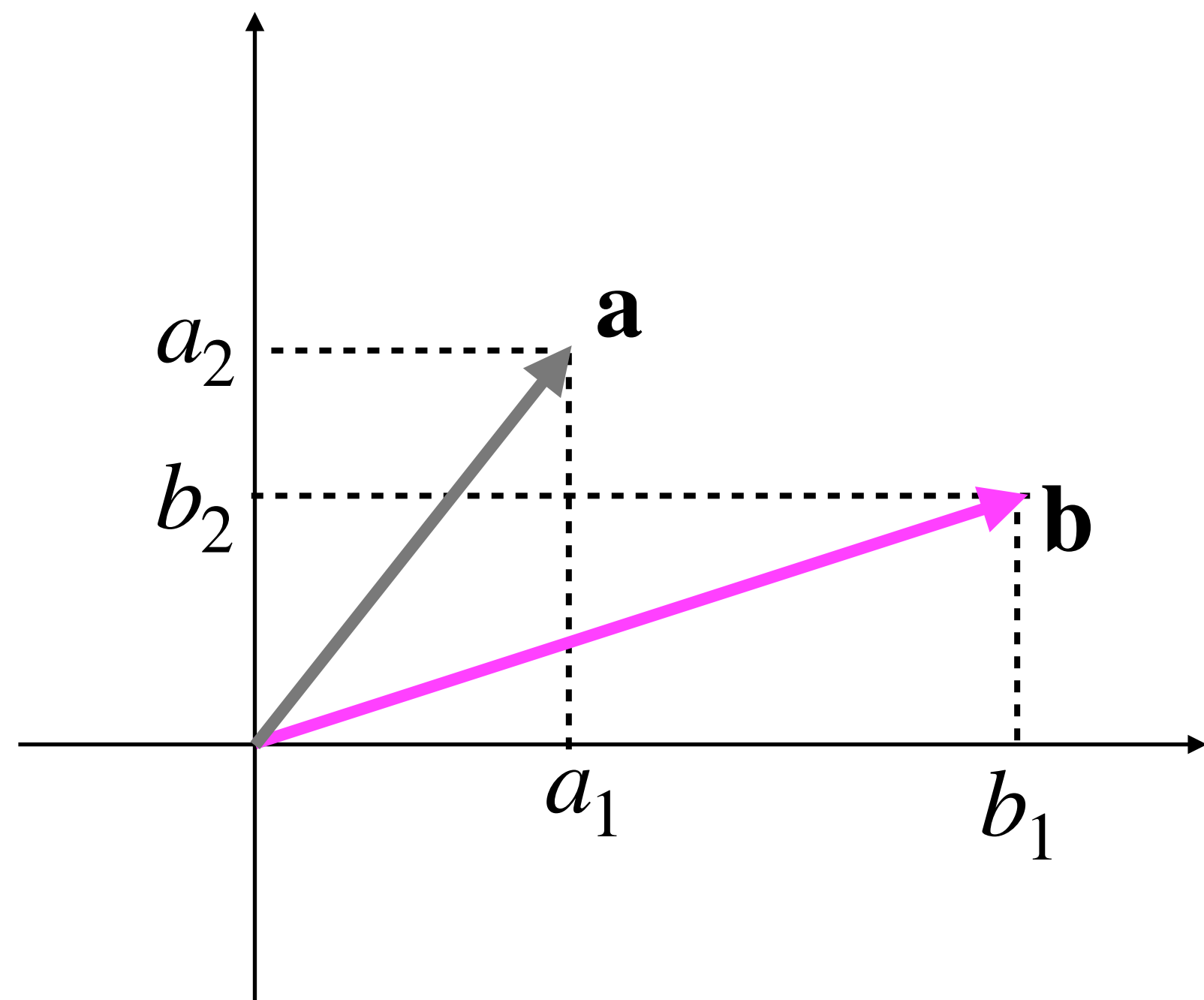


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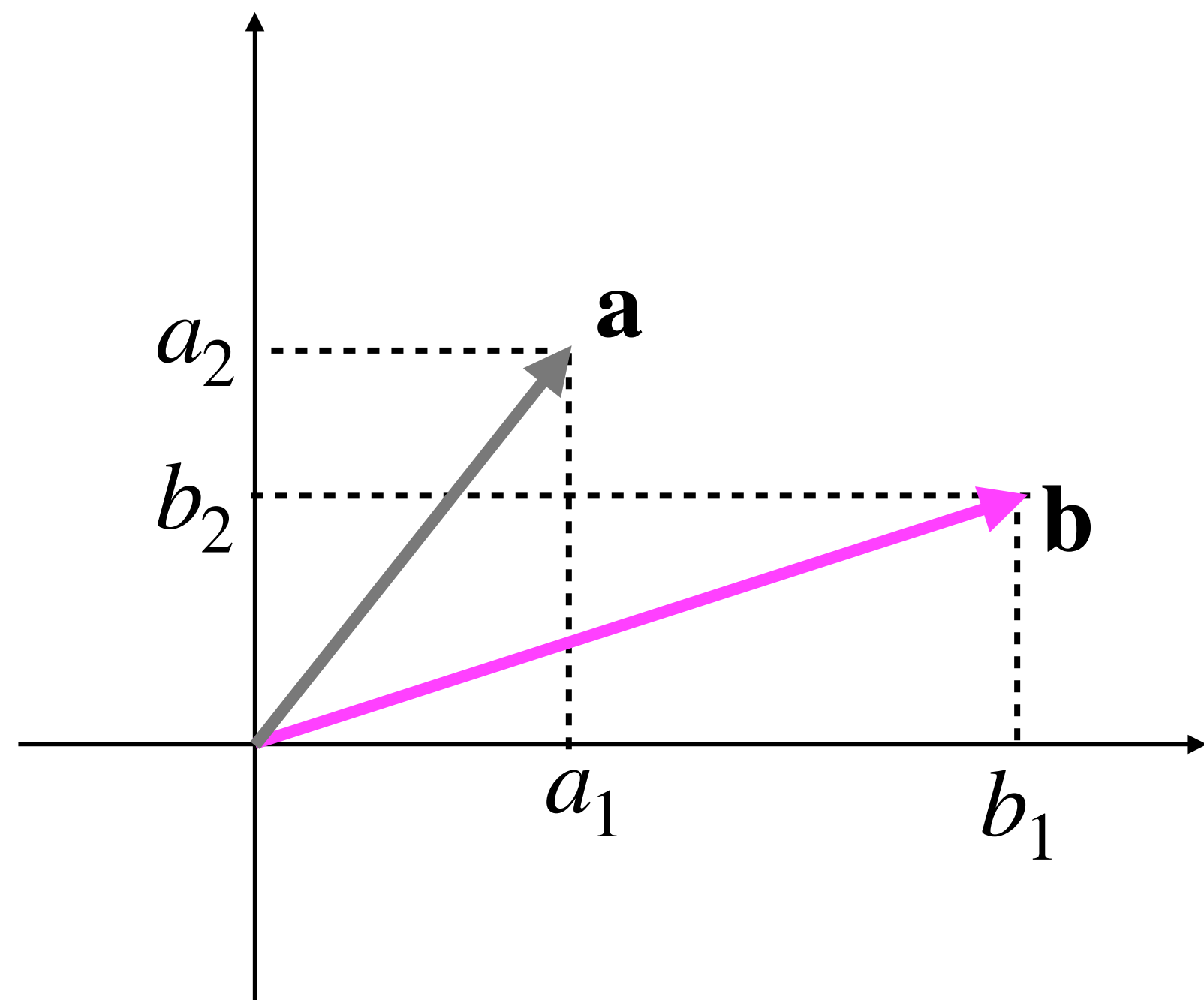
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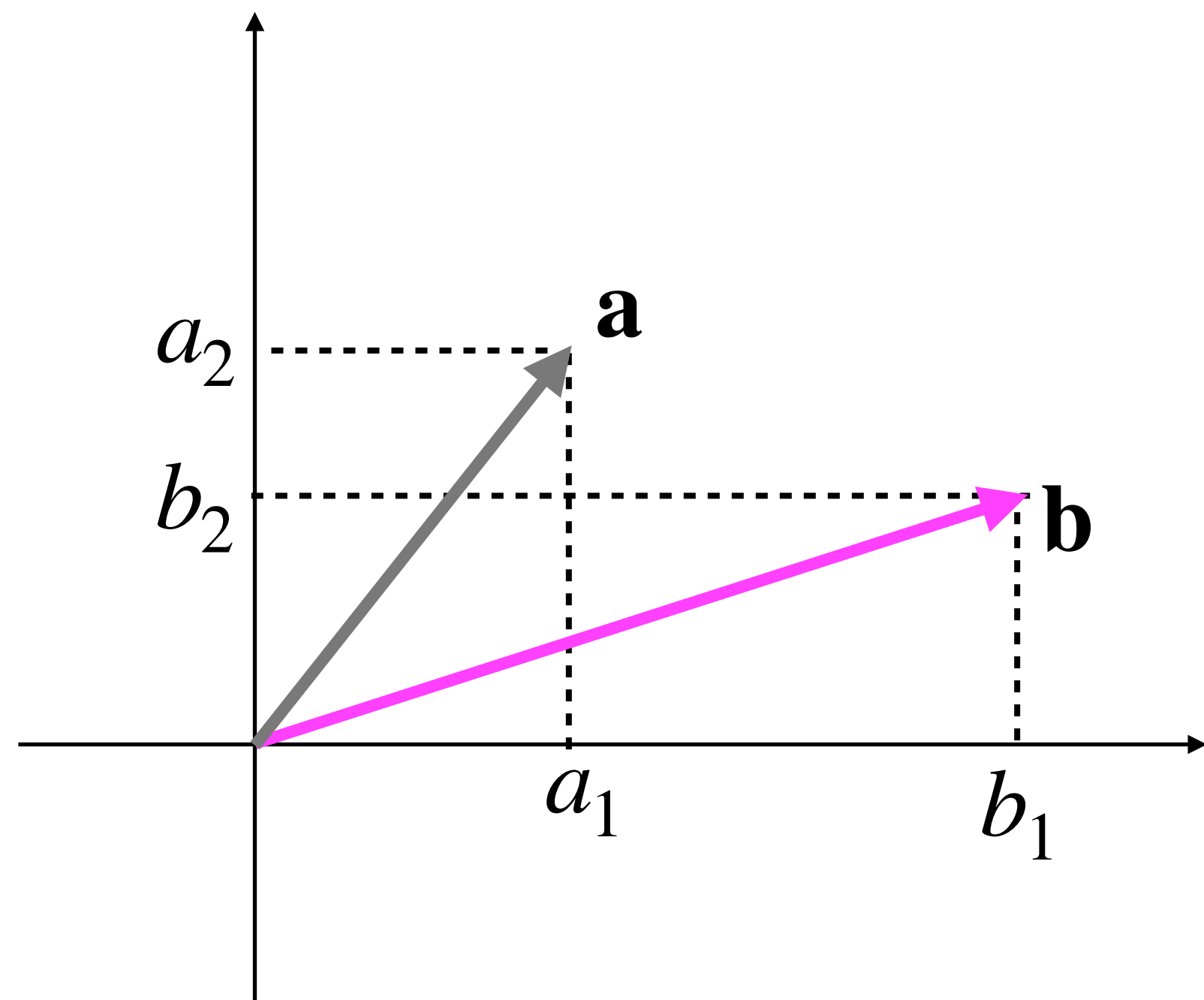
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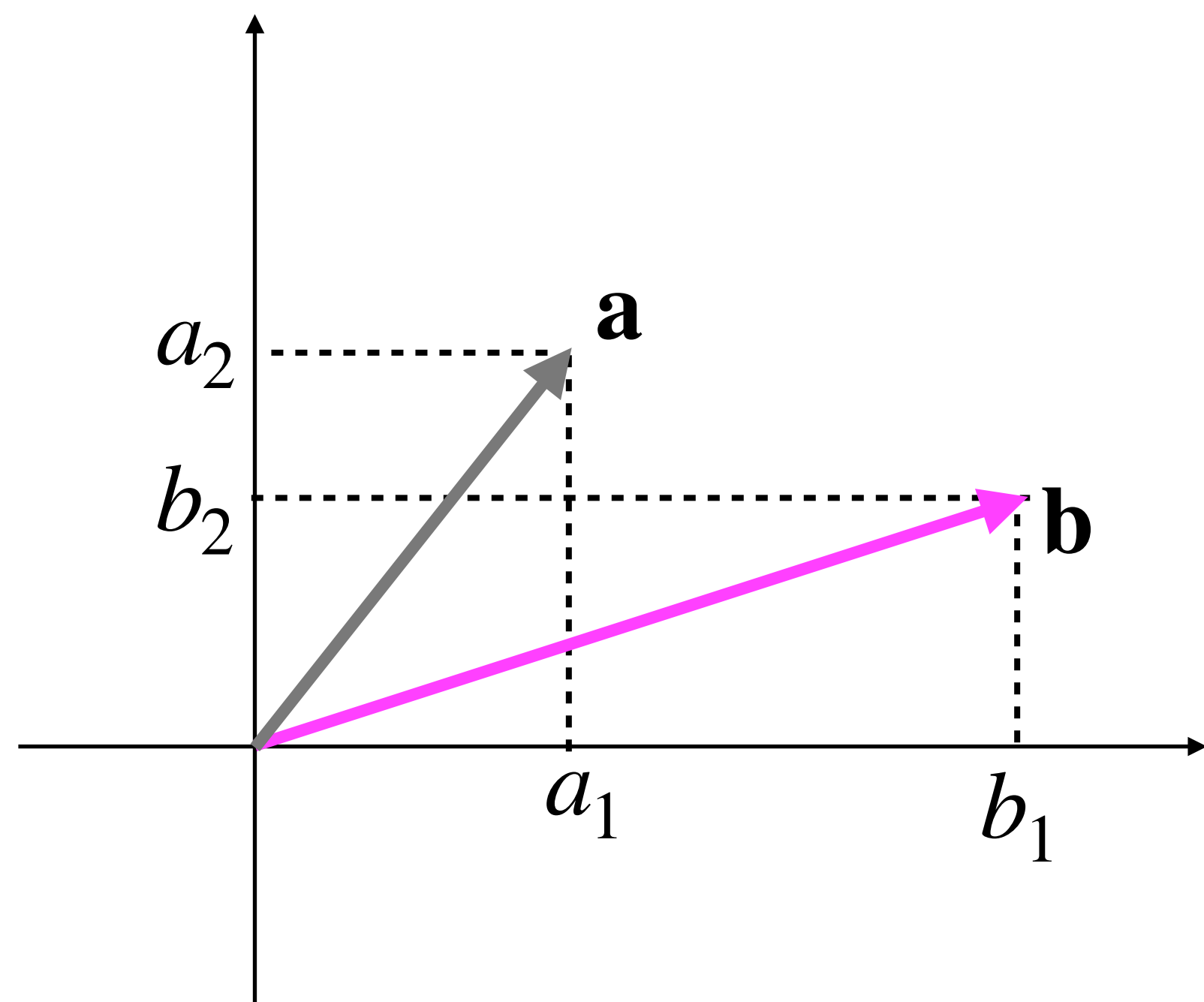


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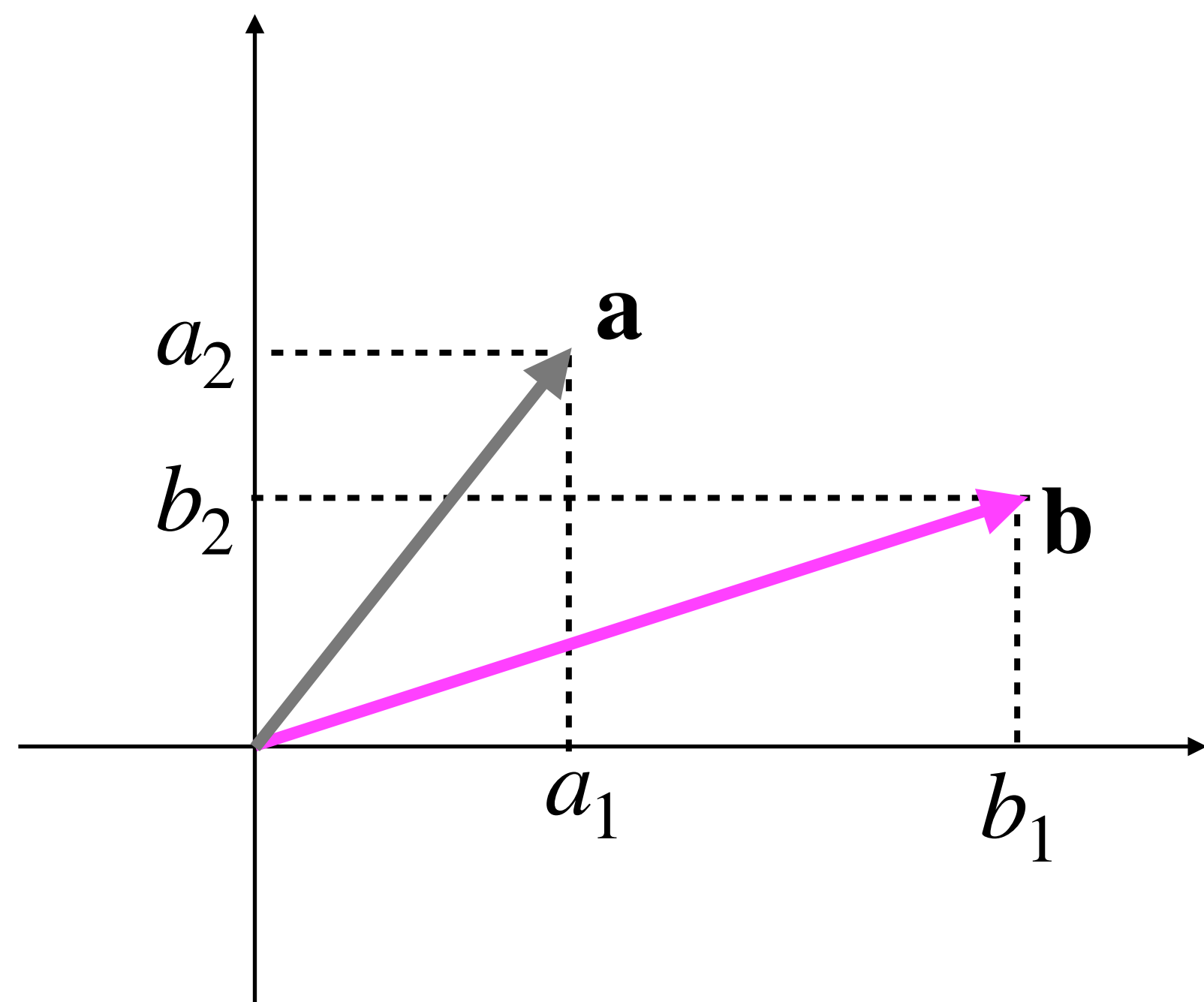
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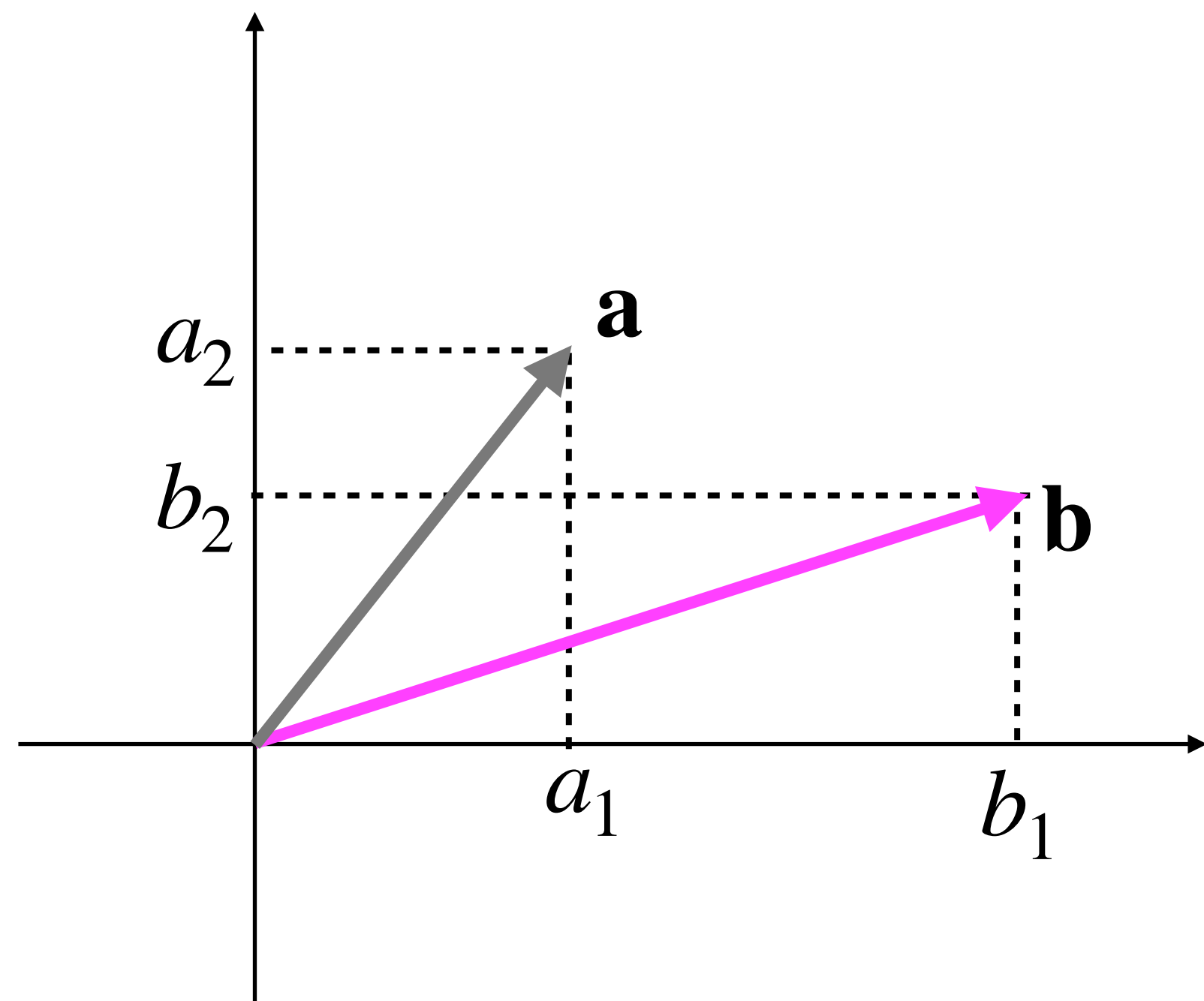
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Norm:

$$\|\mathbf{a}\| := \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{a} \rangle} := \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^d a_j^2}$$



# Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Given a squared matrix  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  a vector  $\mathbf{w}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times 1}$  that satisfies this equation

$$\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}_i = \lambda_i\mathbf{w}_i$$



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It is called **eigenvector** of the matrix and lambda is the correspondent **eigenvalue**

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Hence the goal is find solutions of this so-called **characteristic equation**

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Symmetric matrices lead to  $d$  real solutions and orthogonal eigenvectors!



(i) Find eigenvalues, eigenvectors and eigenvalue decomposition of matrix  $A$ .

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$



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The eigenvalues of matrix  $A$  can be found by solving  $\det(A - \lambda I) = 0$ . In our case one has

$$\det(A - \lambda I) = \det \begin{pmatrix} 3 - \lambda & 4 \\ 0 & 5 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = (3 - \lambda)(5 - \lambda) = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_{1,2} = 3, 5.$$

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Corresponding eigenvectors can be found by solving  $Au = \lambda u$  for the values of  $\lambda$  found above.

$$Au^{(1)} = 3u^{(1)} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} 3u_1^{(1)} + 4u_2^{(1)} = 3u_1^{(1)} \\ 5u_2^{(1)} = 3u_2^{(1)} \end{cases} \Rightarrow u^{(1)} = (1, 0)^T.$$

$$Au^{(2)} = 5u^{(2)} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} 3u_1^{(2)} + 4u_2^{(2)} = 5u_1^{(2)} \\ 5u_2^{(2)} = 5u_2^{(2)} \end{cases} \Rightarrow u^{(2)} = (2, 1)^T.$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & 4 \\ 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1^{(1)} \\ u_1^{(2)} \end{pmatrix} = \lambda_1 \begin{pmatrix} u_1^{(1)} \\ u_1^{(2)} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3u_1^{(1)} \\ 3u_1^{(2)} \end{pmatrix}$$

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As we will see soon, in most cases we will work with **data matrices** that are rarely squared. So how can we decompose such matrices?

Given a  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times d}$  the transpose is  $\mathbf{X}^T \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times s}$  hence  $\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$



# Singular value decomposition (SVD)

It can be shown that for any matrix  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times d}$  there exist  $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_{\min(s,d)}$  vectors  $\mathbf{U}_i$  ( $i \in [0,s]$ ) and vectors  $\mathbf{V}_j$  ( $j \in [1,d]$ ) such that





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# Singular value decomposition (SVD)

It can be shown that for any matrix  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times d}$  there exist  $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_{\min(s,d)}$  vectors  $\mathbf{U}_i$  ( $i \in [0,s]$ ) and vectors  $\mathbf{V}_j$  ( $j \in [1,d]$ ) such that

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$\sigma_i$  are called **singular values**



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We then define  $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  such that  $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V}_i = \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{V}_i$



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Each  $\mathbf{V}_i$  is an eigenvector of  $\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}$  correspondent to the eigenvalue  $\sigma_i^2$



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We then define  $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times s}$  such that of  $\mathbf{XX}^T \mathbf{U}_i = \sigma_i^2 \mathbf{U}_i$

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# Singular value decomposition (SVD)

Summarizing

$$\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X} \mathbf{V} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{V}$$

$$\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{U} = \sigma^2 \mathbf{U}$$

Also

$$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^T$$

(c) Consider the following matrix  $\mathbf{B} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$  compute its singular values.



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$$\sigma_{1,2}^2 = \frac{7 \pm \sqrt{13}}{2}$$

Compute the left and right singular vectors of the matrix  $\mathbf{B}$ .

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Notice the dimension of this vector!

To compute the left singular vectors we can use

$$\mathbf{U}_2 = \sigma_2^{-1} \mathbf{B} \mathbf{V}_2$$

$$\mathbf{U}_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2}{7 - \sqrt{13}}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b \\ b \frac{\sqrt{13} - 3}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= b \sqrt{\frac{2}{7 - \sqrt{13}}} \begin{pmatrix} 4 - \sqrt{13} \\ \frac{\sqrt{13} - 1}{2} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Important note:

- 1) The matrix  $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^T$  is a 3x3 matrix with another eigenvalue equal to zero
- 2) the associate vector needs to be orthogonal to the others, hence

$$\mathbf{U}_3 = (0,0,d)^T$$



for data points  $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)})$  with  $x^{(1)} = -c$  and  $y^{(1)} = 2$ ,  $(x^{(2)}, y^{(2)})$  with  $x^{(2)} = 0$  and  $y^{(2)} = 2$ , and  $(x^{(3)}, y^{(3)})$  with  $x^{(3)} = c$  and  $y^{(3)} = 2$ , for some constant  $c > 0$ .

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3. Repeat the previous exercise, but this time assume you make an error in your measurement. The new, perturbed measurements  $\mathbf{y}_\delta$  read  $y_\delta^{(1)} = 2 + \varepsilon$ ,  $y_\delta^{(2)} = 2 + \varepsilon$  and  $y_\delta^{(3)} = 2 - \varepsilon$ .



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$$\begin{aligned} \|\hat{w} - \hat{w}_\delta\| &= \sqrt{\left(2 - \left(2 + \frac{\epsilon}{3}\right)\right)^2 + \left(0 - \frac{\epsilon}{c}\right)^2} = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon^2}{9} + \frac{\epsilon^2}{c^2}} = \frac{\epsilon\sqrt{9 + c^2}}{3c} \\ &= \frac{\epsilon}{c} \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{c}{3}\right)^2} > \frac{\epsilon}{c}. \end{aligned}$$

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The error in reconstruction is dominated by the ratio  $\epsilon/c$ . If  $c \ll \epsilon$  the error can get potentially very large compared to the data error  $\delta = \|y - y_\delta\| = \epsilon\sqrt{3}$ , which does not depend on  $c$ . Suppose  $\epsilon = 1/100$  and  $c = 1/1000$ , then  $\delta \approx 0.01732$  but  $\epsilon/c = 10$ . Hence, the data error  $\delta$  is amplified by a factor larger than 577 in the reconstruction.

for data points  $(x^{(1)}, y^{(1)})$  with  $x^{(1)} = 1 - c$  and  $y^{(1)} = 1$ ,  $(x^{(2)}, y^{(2)})$  with  $x^{(2)} = 1 + c$  and  $y^{(2)} = 1$  for some constant  $c > 0$ .

1. Derive the normal equation for this problem.

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 - c \\ 1 & 1 + c \end{pmatrix} \quad X^T = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 - c & 1 + c \end{pmatrix} \quad y = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



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$$X^T X v_i = \sigma_i^2 v_i$$

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$$\begin{cases} \sigma_1 = \sqrt{c^2 + 2 + \sqrt{c^4 + 4}}, \\ \sigma_2 = \sqrt{c^2 + 2 - \sqrt{c^4 + 4}} \end{cases}$$

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$$\|v^{(j)}\|^2 = \gamma^2 + \frac{(\sigma_j - 2)^2}{4} \gamma^2 = 1 \quad \rightarrow \quad \gamma^2 = \frac{4}{4 + (\sigma_j^2 - 2)^2}$$

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$$\mathbf{v}^{(j)} = \left( \gamma, \frac{\sigma_j^2 - 2}{2} \gamma \right)^\top$$

$$\mathbf{v}^{(j)} = \left( \frac{2}{\sqrt{4 + (\sigma_j^2 - 2)^2}}, \frac{\sigma_j^2 - 2}{\sqrt{4 + (\sigma_j^2 - 2)^2}} \right)^\top$$

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4. Repeat the previous exercise, but this time assume you make an error in your measurement. Consider two cases of the new, perturbed measurements

- $y_\delta$  reads  $y_\delta^{(1)} = 1 - \varepsilon, y_\delta^{(2)} = 1 + \varepsilon$ .
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Repeating the previous exercise with the perturbed data  $y_\delta = (1 - \varepsilon \quad 1 + \varepsilon)^\top$  yields the normal equation

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 + 2c^2 \end{pmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_\delta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 - c & 1 + c \end{pmatrix} y_\delta \\ = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 + 2c\varepsilon \end{pmatrix},$$

with the solution

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_\delta = \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \frac{\varepsilon}{c} \\ \frac{\varepsilon}{c} \end{pmatrix}.$$



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For the perturbed data  $y_\delta = (1 + \varepsilon \quad 1 + \varepsilon)^\top$  the normal equation takes the form

$$\begin{aligned} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 + 2c^2 \end{pmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{w}}_\delta &= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 - c & 1 + c \end{pmatrix} y_\delta \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 2 + 2\varepsilon \\ 2 + 2\varepsilon \end{pmatrix}, \end{aligned}$$

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# CALCULUS



# Calculus

Assume we have a function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)$

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The gradient is defined as

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} f(\mathbf{x}) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} f(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_d} f(\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix}$$

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It is a vector that indicates the direction of fastest increase of the function

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Then

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$\Rightarrow$

$$\nabla f(x) = 2 \begin{pmatrix} x_1x_2^2 - yx_2 \\ x_1^2x_2 - x_1y \end{pmatrix}$$

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Example:  $f(x_1, \dots, x_d) = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$





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# Reminder

A function  $f: C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  over a convex set  $C$  is called *convex* if

$$f(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) \leq \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y)$$

is satisfied for all  $x, y \in C$  and  $\lambda \in [0,1]$ .





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This definition assumes any property of the function  $f$



# Reminder

A twice differentiable function  $f: C \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  over a convex set  $C$  is called *convex* if

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For a function of  $n$  variables the condition is on the Hessian which should be positive semi-definite

5. Verify that the function  $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  with  $g(x) := \frac{1}{2}x^2$  is convex.



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$$\frac{d}{dx} \left( \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right) = x$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \left( \frac{1}{2}x^2 \right) = 1 \geq 0$$



(c) Discuss the convex properties of the function  $f(x) = ax^2$  where  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ .





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# PROBABILITY & STATISTICS



# Probability & statistics

Assume we have a random variable  $X$  with a finite no. of outcomes  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_s$  and probabilities  $\rho_1 = P(X = x_1), \rho_2 = P(X = x_2), \dots, \rho_s = P(X = x_s)$ . The expectation of  $X$  is defined as

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It is simply a weighted average!

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$$\Rightarrow \mathbb{E}_x[x_i] = \sum_{i=1}^3 x_i \rho_i = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{11}{30} + \frac{1}{12} = \frac{19}{20} = 0.95$$

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Assume we have an absolutely continuous random variable  $X$  with probability density function  $\rho$ . The expectation of  $X$  is defined as

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Example: uniform random variable  $X$  in  $[a, b]$  with  $\rho(x) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & x \in [a, b] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$





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Its square-root

$$\sigma_x := \sqrt{\text{Var}_x[x]} \quad \text{is known as standard deviation}$$

# Probability & statistics

Two random variables  $X$  and  $Y$  are independent if their joint PDF factors, i.e.

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The collection of random variables is independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) if in addition we have

$$\rho_{X_1} = \rho_{X_2} = \dots = \rho_{X_n}$$

# Reminder

The expectation value is also known as the first moment of the distribution

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And the expectation value of  $x^2$  is known as the second moment

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# Reminder

PDFs are defined in such a way that

$$\int_a^b \rho(x) dx = 1$$



For a uniform (and absolutely continuous) random variable  $X$  in  $[0, 1]$  compute the expectation of  $f(X)$  for

$$f(x) := \begin{cases} -\log(x) & x \in [0, 1/5] \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases},$$



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## Furthermore

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1. Let  $X$  be a random variable with expectation  $\mu$  and variance  $\sigma^2$ . Show that the variance of  $aX + b$ , where  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , is

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- (a) Consider the following probability density function of a (continuous) random variable  $x$ :  $p(x|\alpha) = Ax^{-\alpha}$  for  $x \geq 1$  where  $A \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . Compute the value  $A$  as function of  $\alpha$  and discuss where it is defined.

Since the PDF need to be normalized and the variable is continuous we can write

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In this case  $A = 1 - \alpha$



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(b) By definition the expectation value is

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[x] &= \int x p(x|\alpha) dx = (\alpha - 1) \int_1^{\infty} x^{1-\alpha} dx \\ &= (\alpha - 1) \frac{1}{2 - \alpha} x^{2-\alpha} \Big|_1^{\infty}\end{aligned}\tag{24}$$

It can be easily seen how for any  $\alpha \leq 2$  the expectation value is divergent. For  $\alpha > 2$  we get  $\mathbb{E}[x] = \frac{\alpha-1}{\alpha-2}$

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By definition the second moment of the distribution reads

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{E}[x^2] &= \int x^2 p(x|\alpha) dx = (\alpha - 1) \int_1^\infty x^{2-\alpha} dx \\ &= (\alpha - 1) \frac{1}{3 - \alpha} x^{3-\alpha} \Big|_1^\infty\end{aligned}$$

It can be easily seen how for any  $\alpha \leq 3$  the second moment is divergent. For  $\alpha > 3$  we get  $\mathbb{E}[x^2] = \frac{\alpha-1}{\alpha-3}$