

Linear Algebra

Lecture slides for Chapter 2 of *Deep Learning*

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About this chapter

- Not a comprehensive survey of all of linear algebra
- Focused on the subset most relevant to deep learning
- Larger subset: e.g., ***Linear Algebra* by Georgi Shilov**

Scalars

- A scalar is a single number
- Integers, real numbers, rational numbers, etc.
- We denote it with italic font:

a, n, x

Vectors

- A vector is a 1-D array of numbers:

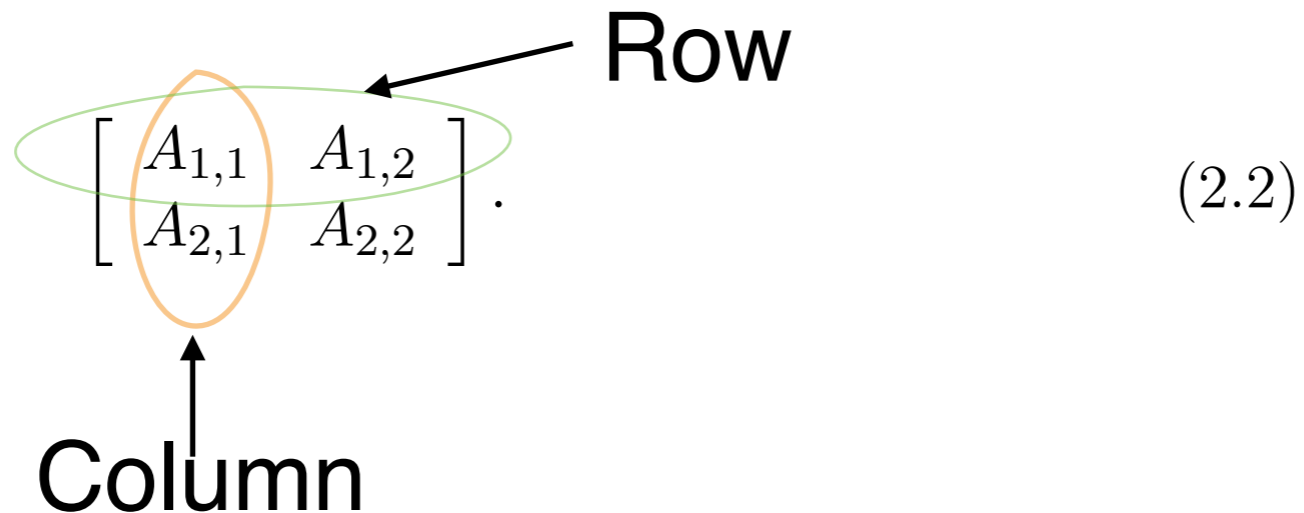
$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.1)$$

- Can be real, binary, integer, etc.
- Example notation for type and size:

$$\mathbb{R}^n$$

Matrices

- A matrix is a 2-D array of numbers:



The diagram shows a 2x2 matrix $\begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} \\ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} \end{bmatrix}$. A green oval encircles the top row, with an arrow pointing to it from the word "Row". An orange oval encircles the first column, with an arrow pointing to it from the word "Column".

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} \\ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} \end{bmatrix}. \quad (2.2)$$

- Example notation for type and shape:

$$\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

Tensors

- A tensor is an array of numbers, that may have
 - zero dimensions, and be a scalar
 - one dimension, and be a vector
 - two dimensions, and be a matrix
 - or more dimensions.

Matrix Transpose

$$(\mathbf{A}^\top)_{i,j} = A_{j,i}. \quad (2.3)$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{1,2} \\ A_{2,1} & A_{2,2} \\ A_{3,1} & A_{3,2} \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \mathbf{A}^\top = \begin{bmatrix} A_{1,1} & A_{2,1} & A_{3,1} \\ A_{1,2} & A_{2,2} & A_{3,2} \end{bmatrix}$$

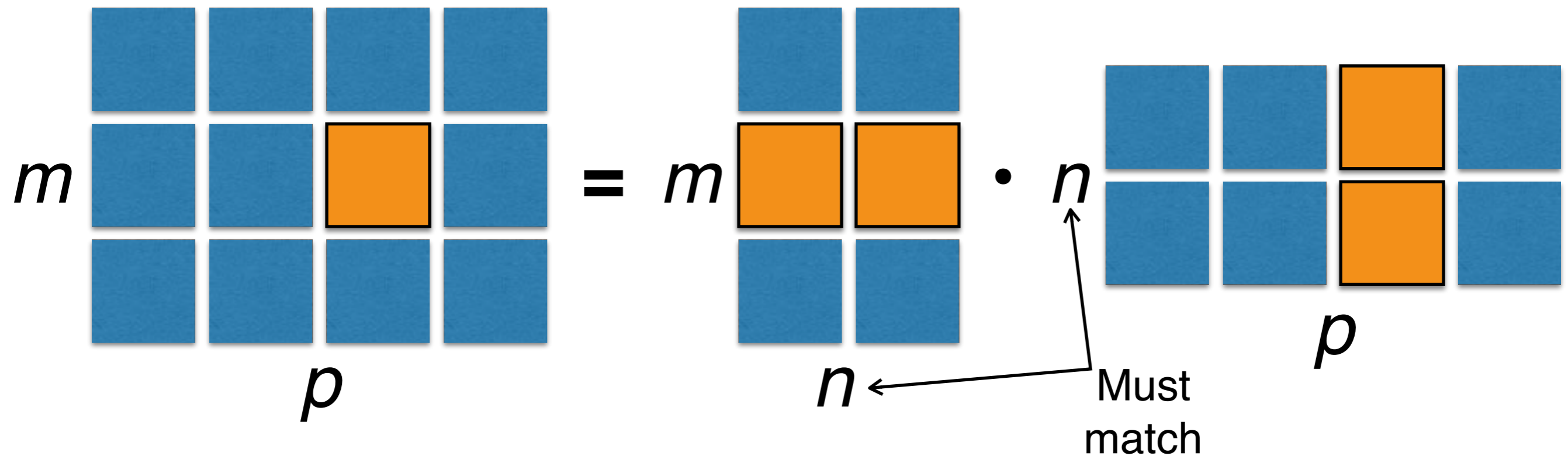
Figure 2.1: The transpose of the matrix can be thought of as a mirror image across the main diagonal.

$$(\mathbf{AB})^\top = \mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{A}^\top. \quad (2.9)$$

Matrix (Dot) Product

$$C = AB. \tag{2.4}$$

$$C_{i,j} = \sum_k A_{i,k} B_{k,j}. \tag{2.5}$$



Identity Matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure 2.2: *Example identity matrix: This is \mathbf{I}_3 .*

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{I}_n \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}. \tag{2.20}$$

Systems of Equations

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b} \tag{2.11}$$

expands to

$$\mathbf{A}_{1,:}\mathbf{x} = b_1 \tag{2.12}$$

$$\mathbf{A}_{2,:}\mathbf{x} = b_2 \tag{2.13}$$

$$\dots \tag{2.14}$$

$$\mathbf{A}_{m,:}\mathbf{x} = b_m \tag{2.15}$$

Solving Systems of Equations

- A linear system of equations can have:
 - No solution
 - Many solutions
 - Exactly one solution: this means multiplication by the matrix is an invertible function

Matrix Inversion

- Matrix inverse:

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{I}_n. \quad (2.21)$$

- Solving a system using an inverse:

$$\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \quad (2.22)$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{b} \quad (2.23)$$

$$\mathbf{I}_n \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{b} \quad (2.24)$$

- Numerically unstable, but useful for abstract analysis

Invertibility

- Matrix can't be inverted if...
 - More rows than columns
 - More columns than rows
 - Redundant rows/columns (“linearly dependent”, “low rank”)

Norms

- Functions that measure how “large” a vector is
- Similar to a distance between zero and the point represented by the vector
 - $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$
 - $f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{y})$ (the *triangle inequality*)
 - $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, f(\alpha \mathbf{x}) = |\alpha|f(\mathbf{x})$

Norms

- L^p norm

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \left(\sum_i |x_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

- Most popular norm: L2 norm, $p=2$

- L1 norm, $p=1$: $\|\mathbf{x}\|_1 = \sum_i |x_i|$. (2.31)

- Max norm, infinite p : $\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = \max_i |x_i|$. (2.32)

Special Matrices and Vectors

- Unit vector:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = 1. \quad (2.36)$$

- Symmetric Matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^\top. \quad (2.35)$$

- Orthogonal matrix:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A} &= \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^\top = \mathbf{I}. \\ \mathbf{A}^{-1} &= \mathbf{A}^\top \end{aligned} \quad (2.37)$$

Trace

$$\text{Tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_i \mathbf{A}_{i,i}. \quad (2.48)$$

$$\text{Tr}(\mathbf{ABC}) = \text{Tr}(\mathbf{CAB}) = \text{Tr}(\mathbf{BCA}) \quad (2.51)$$

Learning linear algebra

- Do a lot of practice problems
- Start out with lots of summation signs and indexing into individual entries
- Eventually you will be able to mostly use matrix and vector product notation quickly and easily

Linear Algebra - Part II

Projection, Eigendecomposition, SVD

Punit Shah

(Adapted from Sargur Srihari's **slides**)

Brief Review from Part 1

- ▶ Symmetric Matrix:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^T$$

- ▶ Orthogonal Matrix:

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^T = \mathbf{I} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{A}^{-1} = \mathbf{A}^T$$

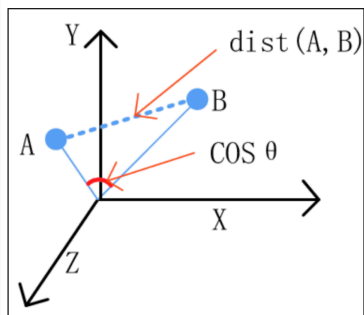
- ▶ L2 Norm:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_i x_i^2}$$

Angle Between Vectors

- ▶ Dot product of two vectors can be written in terms of their L2 norms and the angle θ between them.

$$\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = \|\mathbf{a}\|_2 \|\mathbf{b}\|_2 \cos(\theta)$$



Cosine Similarity

- ▶ Cosine between two vectors is a measure of their similarity:

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\|}$$

- ▶ **Orthogonal Vectors:** Two vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are orthogonal to each other if $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$.

Vector Projection

- ▶ Given two vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} , let $\hat{\mathbf{b}} = \frac{\mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|}$ be the unit vector in the direction of \mathbf{b} .
- ▶ Then $\mathbf{a}_1 = a_1 \hat{\mathbf{b}}$ is the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{a} onto a straight line parallel to \mathbf{b} , where

$$a_1 = \|\mathbf{a}\| \cos(\theta) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{b}} = \mathbf{a} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{b}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|}$$

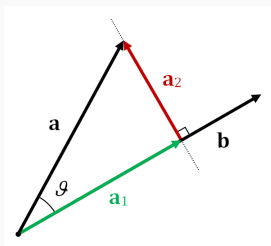


Image taken from [wikipedia](#).

Diagonal Matrix

- ▶ Diagonal matrix has mostly zeros with non-zero entries only in the diagonal, e.g. identity matrix.
- ▶ A square diagonal matrix with diagonal elements given by entries of vector \mathbf{v} is denoted:

$$\text{diag}(\mathbf{v})$$

- ▶ Multiplying vector \mathbf{x} by a diagonal matrix is efficient:

$$\text{diag}(\mathbf{v})\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v} \odot \mathbf{x}$$

- ▶ Inverting a square diagonal matrix is efficient:

$$\text{diag}(\mathbf{v})^{-1} = \text{diag}\left(\left[\frac{1}{v_1}, \dots, \frac{1}{v_n}\right]^T\right)$$

Zero Determinant

If $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 0$, then:

- ▶ \mathbf{A} is linearly dependent.
- ▶ $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ has no solution or infinitely many solutions.
- ▶ $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$ has a non-zero solution.

Matrix Decomposition

- ▶ We can decompose an integer into its prime factors, e.g.
 $12 = 2 \times 2 \times 3$.
- ▶ Similarly, matrices can be decomposed into factors to learn universal properties:

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{V}\text{diag}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})\mathbf{V}^{-1}$$

Eigenvectors

- ▶ An eigenvector of a square matrix \mathbf{A} is a nonzero vector \mathbf{v} such that multiplication by \mathbf{A} only changes the scale of \mathbf{v} .

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{v} = \lambda\mathbf{v}$$

- ▶ The scalar λ is known as the **eigenvalue**.
- ▶ If \mathbf{v} is an eigenvector of \mathbf{A} , so is any rescaled vector $s\mathbf{v}$. Moreover, $s\mathbf{v}$ still has the same eigenvalue. Thus, we constrain the eigenvector to be of unit length:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$$