

Statistical Natural Language Processing

Mathematical background: a refresher

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Summer Semester 2020

Some practical remarks

(recap)

- Course web page: <https://snlp2020.github.io>
- Please complete Assignment 0
- Assignment 1 will be released on Monday
 - Do not forget to update add yourself to <https://github.com/snlp2020/snlp/blob/master/assignments-match.txt> if you want to be assigned to a random team
- The first quiz is also ready (on Moodle)

Today's lecture

- Some concepts from linear algebra
- A (very) short refresher on
 - Derivatives: we are interested in maximizing/minimizing (objective) functions (mainly in machine learning)
 - Integrals: mainly for probability theory

This is only a high-level, informal introduction/refresher.

Linear algebra

Linear algebra is the field of mathematics that studies *vectors* and *matrices*.

- A vector is an ordered sequence of numbers

$$\mathbf{v} = (6, 17)$$

- A matrix is a rectangular arrangement of numbers

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

- A well-known application of linear algebra is solving a set of linear equations

$$\begin{array}{rcl} 2x_1 & + & x_2 = 6 \\ x_1 & + & 4x_2 = 17 \end{array} \iff \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 17 \end{bmatrix}$$

Why study linear algebra?

Consider an application counting words in a document

the	and	of	to	in	...
121	106	91	83	43	...

Why study linear algebra?

Consider an application counting words in a document

	the	and	of	to	in	...
(121	106	91	83	43	...)

Why study linear algebra?

Consider an application counting words in multiple documents

	the	and	of	to	in	...
document ₁	121	106	91	83	43	...
document ₂	142	136	86	91	69	...
document ₃	107	94	41	47	33	...
...

You should already be seeing vectors and matrices here.

Why study linear algebra?

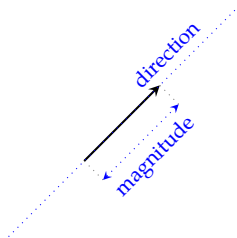
- Insights from linear algebra are helpful in understanding many NLP methods
- In machine learning, we typically represent input, output, parameters as vectors or matrices (or tensors)
- It makes notation concise and manageable
- In programming, many machine learning libraries make use of vectors and matrices explicitly
- In programming, vector-matrix operations correspond to loops
- ‘Vectorized’ operations may run much faster on GPUs, and on modern CPUs

Vectors

- A vector is an ordered list of numbers
 $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n),$
- The vector of n real numbers is said to be in *vector space* \mathbb{R}^n ($\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$)
- In this course we will only work with vectors in \mathbb{R}^n
- Typical notation for vectors:

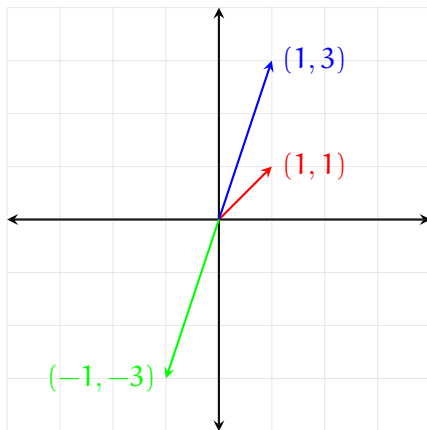
$$\mathbf{v} = \vec{v} = (v_1, v_2, v_3) = \langle v_1, v_2, v_3 \rangle = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Vectors are (geometric) objects with a magnitude and a direction



Geometric interpretation of vectors

- Vectors (in a linear space) are represented with arrows from the origin
- The endpoint of the vector $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$ correspond to the Cartesian coordinates defined by v_1, v_2
- The intuitions often (!) generalize to higher dimensional spaces



Vector norms

- The *norm* of a vector is an indication of its size (magnitude)
- The norm of a vector is the distance from its tail to its tip
- Norms are related to distance measures
- Vector norms are particularly important for understanding some machine learning techniques

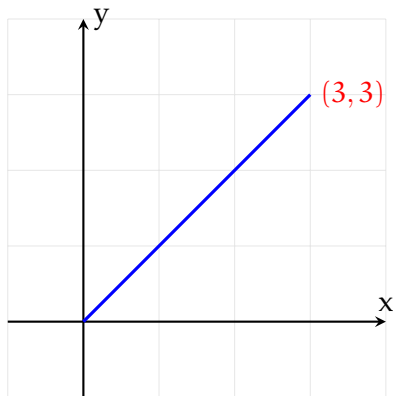
L2 norm

- Euclidean norm, or L2 (or L_2) norm is the most commonly used norm
- For $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$,

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2}$$

$$\|(3, 3)\|_2 = \sqrt{3^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{18}$$

- L2 norm is often written without a subscript: $\|\mathbf{v}\|$



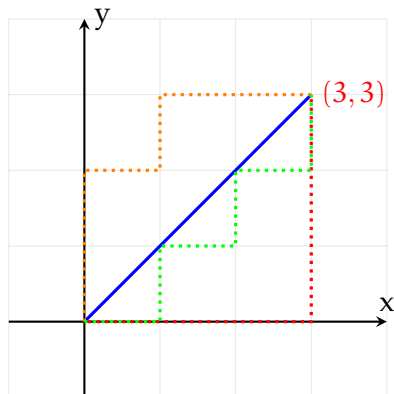
L1 norm

- Another norm we will often encounter is the L1 norm

$$\|v\|_1 = |v_1| + |v_2|$$

$$\|(3, 3)\|_1 = |3| + |3| = 6$$

- L1 norm is related to Manhattan distance



L_p norm

In general, L_p norm, is defined as

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

L_p norm

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$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |v_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

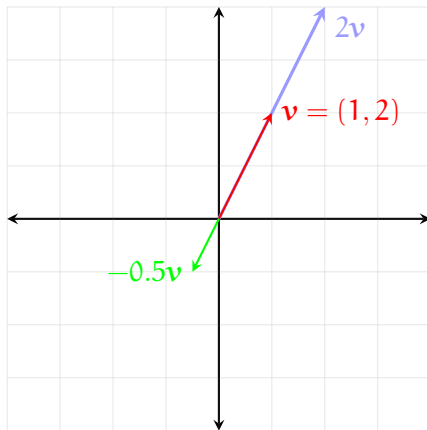
We will only work with than L1 and L2 norms, but you may also see L_0 and L_∞ norms in related literature

Multiplying a vector with a scalar

- For a vector $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$ and a scalar α ,

$$\alpha \mathbf{v} = (\alpha v_1, \alpha v_2)$$

- multiplying with a scalar 'scales' the vector



Vector addition and subtraction

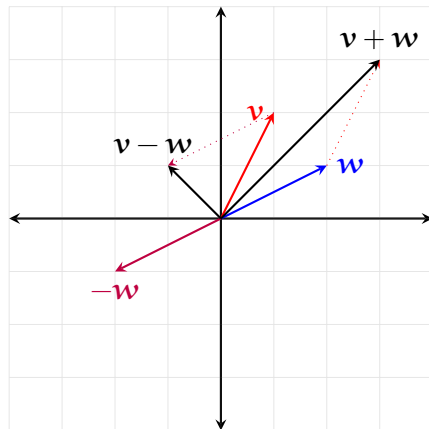
For vectors $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$ and $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2)$

- $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = (v_1 + w_1, v_2 + w_2)$

$$(1, 2) + (2, 1) = (3, 3)$$

- $\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v} + (-\mathbf{w})$

$$(1, 2) - (2, 1) = (-1, 1)$$



Dot (inner) product

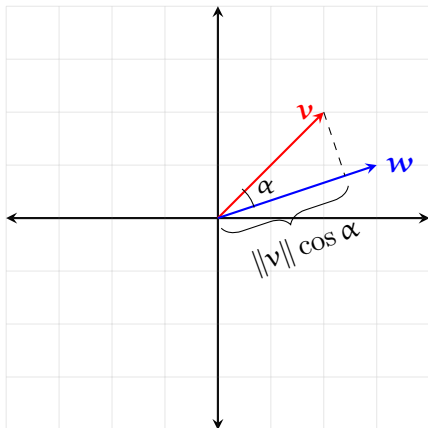
- For vectors $\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2)$,

$$\mathbf{w}\mathbf{v} = w_1v_1 + w_2v_2$$

or,

$$\mathbf{w}\mathbf{v} = \|\mathbf{w}\|\|\mathbf{v}\| \cos \alpha$$

- The *dot product* of two orthogonal vectors is 0
- $\mathbf{w}\mathbf{w} = \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$
- Dot product may be used as a similarity measure between two vectors



Cosine similarity

- The cosine of the angle between two vectors

$$\cos \alpha = \frac{\mathbf{v}\mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$

is often used as another similarity metric, called *cosine similarity*

- The cosine similarity is related to the dot product, but ignores the magnitudes of the vectors
- For unit vectors (vectors of length 1) cosine similarity is equal to the dot product
- The cosine similarity is bounded in range $[-1, +1]$

Matrices

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & a_{1,3} & \dots & a_{1,m} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & a_{2,3} & \dots & a_{2,m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n,1} & a_{n,2} & a_{n,3} & \dots & a_{n,m} \end{bmatrix}$$

- We can think of matrices as collection of row or column vectors
- A matrix with n rows and m columns is in $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$
- Most operations in linear algebra also generalize to more than 2-D objects
- A *tensor* can be thought of a generalization of vectors and matrices to multiple dimensions

Matrices

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Transpose of a matrix

Transpose of a $n \times m$ matrix is an $m \times n$ matrix whose rows are the columns of the original matrix.

Transpose of a matrix \mathbf{A} is denoted with \mathbf{A}^T .

$$\text{If } \mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \\ e & f \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{A}^T = \begin{bmatrix} a & c & e \\ b & d & f \end{bmatrix}.$$

Multiplying a matrix with a scalar

Similar to vectors, each element is multiplied by the scalar.

$$2 \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \times 2 & 2 \times 1 \\ 2 \times 1 & 2 \times 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 \\ 2 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Matrix addition and subtraction

Each element is added to (or subtracted from) the corresponding element

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note:

- Matrix addition and subtraction are defined on matrices of the same dimensions

Matrix multiplication

- if \mathbf{A} is a $n \times k$ matrix, and \mathbf{B} is a $k \times m$ matrix, their product \mathbf{C} is a $n \times m$ matrix
- Elements of \mathbf{C} , $c_{i,j}$, are defined as

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{\ell=0}^k a_{i\ell} b_{\ell j}$$

- Note: $c_{i,j}$ is the dot product of the i^{th} row of \mathbf{A} and the j^{th} column of \mathbf{B}

Matrix multiplication

(demonstration)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nk} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1m} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{km} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_{11} = a_{11}b_{11} + a_{12}b_{21} + \dots + a_{1k}b_{k1}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix multiplication

(demonstration)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nk} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1m} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{km} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_{12} = a_{11}b_{12} + a_{12}b_{22} + \dots + a_{1k}b_{k2}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix multiplication

(demonstration)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nk} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1m} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{km} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_{1m} = a_{11}b_{1m} + a_{12}b_{2m} + \dots + a_{1k}b_{km}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix multiplication

(demonstration)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nk} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1m} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{km} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_{21} = a_{21}b_{11} + a_{22}b_{21} + \dots + a_{2k}b_{k1}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix multiplication

(demonstration)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nk} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1m} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{km} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_{22} = a_{21}b_{12} + a_{22}b_{22} + \dots + a_{2k}b_{k2}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix multiplication

(demonstration)

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$$c_{2m} = a_{21}b_{1m} + a_{22}b_{2m} + \dots + a_{2k}b_{km}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix multiplication

(demonstration)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nk} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1m} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{km} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_{n1} = a_{n1}b_{11} + a_{n2}b_{21} + \dots + a_{nk}b_{k1}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix multiplication

(demonstration)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nk} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1m} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{km} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_{n2} = a_{n1}b_{12} + a_{n2}b_{22} + \dots + a_{nk}b_{k2}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix multiplication

(demonstration)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nk} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1m} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{km} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_{nm} = a_{n1}b_{1m} + a_{n2}b_{2m} + \dots + a_{nk}b_{km}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

Matrix multiplication

(demonstration)

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2k} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nk} \end{pmatrix} \times \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & b_{12} & \dots & b_{1m} \\ b_{21} & b_{22} & \dots & b_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{k1} & b_{k2} & \dots & b_{km} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$c_{ij} = a_{i1}b_{1j} + a_{i2}b_{2j} + \dots + a_{ik}b_{kj}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \dots & c_{1m} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \dots & c_{2m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{n1} & c_{n2} & \dots & c_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

Dot product as matrix multiplication

In machine learning literature, the *dot product* of two vectors is often written as

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{v}$$

For example, $\mathbf{w} = (2, 2)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (2, -2)$,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Dot product as matrix multiplication

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For example, $\mathbf{w} = (2, 2)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (2, -2)$,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \times 2 + 2 \times -2 = 4 - 4 = 0$$

- This is a 1×1 matrix, but matrices and vectors with single entries are often treated as scalars

Outer product

The *outer product* of two column vectors is defined as

$$\mathbf{vw}^T$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \times [1 \ 2 \ 3] =$$

Outer product

The *outer product* of two column vectors is defined as

$$\mathbf{vw}^T$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \times [1 \ 2 \ 3] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 2 & 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note:

- The result is a matrix
- The vectors do not have to be the same length

Identity matrix

- A square matrix in which all the elements of the principal diagonal are one and all other elements are zero is called *identity matrix* (**I**)

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

- Multiplying a matrix with the identity matrix has no affect

$$\mathbf{IA} = \mathbf{A}$$

Matrix multiplication as transformation

- Multiplying a vector with a matrix transforms the vector
- Result is another vector (possibly in a different vector space)
- Many operations on vectors can be expressed with multiplying with a matrix (linear transformations)

Transformation examples

identity

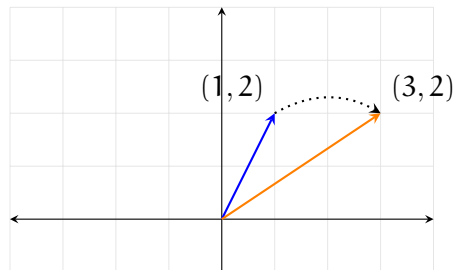
- Identity transformation maps a vector to itself
- In two dimensions:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

Transformation examples

stretch along the x axis

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$



Transformation examples

rotation

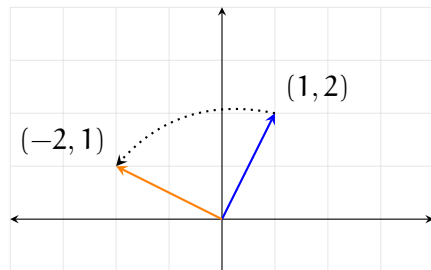
$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \times \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Transformation examples

rotation

$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Linear maps or linear functions

- A linear function has the properties:
 - $f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{y})$ (additivity)
 - $f(a\mathbf{x}) = af(\mathbf{x})$ (homogeneity)or more generally,
 - $f(a\mathbf{x} + b\mathbf{y}) = af(\mathbf{x}) + bf(\mathbf{y})$
- A linear function can be expressed by matrix multiplication

Q: Is $f(x) = 2x + 1$ a linear function?

Matrix-vector representation of a set of linear equations

Our earlier example set of linear equations

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 + x_2 &= 6 \\ x_1 + 4x_2 &= 17 \end{aligned}$$

can be written as:

$$\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 4 \end{bmatrix}}_W \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}}_x = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 17 \end{bmatrix}}_b$$

One can solve the above equation using *Gaussian elimination* (we will not cover it today).

Inverse of a matrix

Inverse of a square matrix \mathbf{W} is denoted \mathbf{W}^{-1} , and defined as

$$\mathbf{W}\mathbf{W}^{-1} = \mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{I}$$

The inverse can be used to solve equation in our previous example:

$$\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{I}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{b}$$

Determinant of a matrix

$$\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = ad - bc$$

The above formula generalizes to higher dimensional matrices through a recursive definition, but you are unlikely to calculate it by hand. Some properties:

- A matrix is invertible if it has a non-zero determinant
- A system of linear equations has a unique solution if the coefficient matrix has a non-zero determinant
- Geometric interpretation of determinant is the (signed) change in the volume of a unit (hyper)cube caused by the transformation defined by the matrix

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors of a matrix

An *eigenvector*, \mathbf{v} and corresponding *eigenvalue*, λ , of a matrix \mathbf{A} are defined as

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

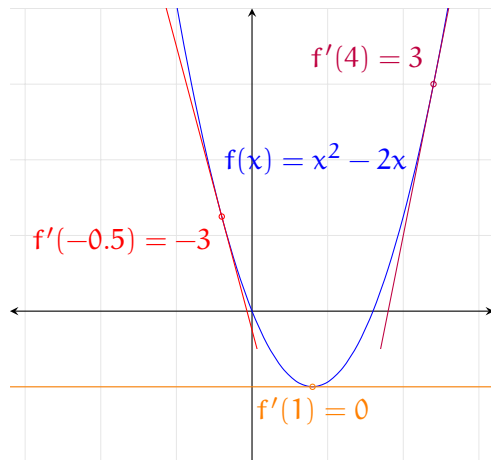
- Eigenvalues and eigenvectors have many applications from communication theory to quantum mechanics
- A better known example (and close to home) is Google's PageRank algorithm
- We will return to them while discussing PCA and SVD

Derivatives

- Derivative of a function $f(x)$ is another function $f'(x)$ indicating the rate of change in $f(x)$
- Alternatively: $\frac{df}{dx}(x)$, $\frac{df(x)}{dx}$
- Example from physics: velocity is the derivative of the position
- Our main interest:
 - the points where the derivative is 0 are the stationary points (maxima, minima, saddle points)
 - the derivative evaluated at other points indicate the direction and steepness of the curve defined by the function

Finding minima and maxima of a function

- Many machine learning problems are set up as optimization problems:
 - Define an error function
 - Finding the parameters minimizing the error
- We search for $f'(x) = 0$
- The value of $f'(x)$ on other points tell us which direction to go (and how fast)



Partial derivatives and gradient

- In ML, we are often interested in (error) functions of many variables
- A partial derivative is derivative of a multivariate function with respect to a single variable, noted $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$
- A very useful quantity, called *gradient*, is the vector of partial derivatives with respect to each variable

$$\nabla f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \right)$$

- Gradient points to the direction of the steepest change
- Example: if $f(x, y) = x^3 + yx$

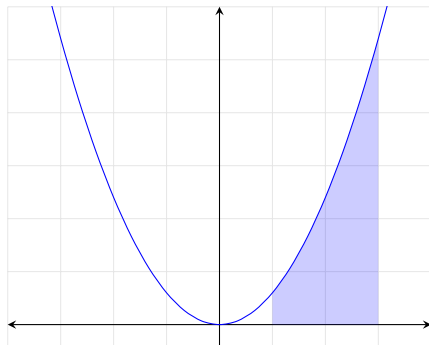
$$\nabla f(x, y) = (3x^2 + y, x)$$

Integrals

- Integral is the reverse of the derivative (anti-derivative)
- The indefinite integral of $f(x)$ is noted $F(x) = \int f(x) dx$
- We are often interested in definite integrals

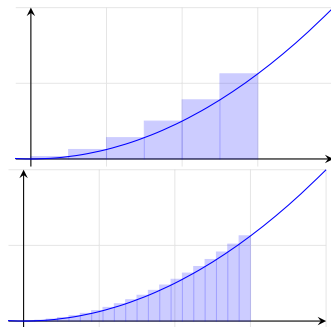
$$\int_a^b f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a).$$

- Integral gives the area under the curve



Numeric integrals & infinite sums

- When integration is not possible with analytic methods, we resort to numeric integration
- This also shows that integration is 'infinite summation'



Summary & next week

- Some understanding of linear algebra and calculus is important for understanding many methods in NLP (and ML)
- See bibliography at the end of the slides if you need a 'more complete' refresher/introduction
- Do not forget the weekly quiz!

Mon Probability theory

Wed Information theory

Further reading

- A classic reference book in the field is Strang (2009)
- Shifrin and Adams (2011) and Farin and Hansford (2014) are textbooks with a more practical/graphical orientation.
- Cherney, Denton, and Waldron (2013) and Beezer (2014) are two textbooks that are freely available.
- A well-known (also available online) textbook for calculus is Strang (1991)
- Form more alternatives, see
<http://www.openculture.com/free-math-textbooks>



Beezer, Robert A. (2014). *A First Course in Linear Algebra*. version 3.40. Congruent Press. ISBN: 9780984417551. URL: <http://linear.ups.edu/>.



Cherney, David, Tom Denton, and Andrew Waldron (2013). *Linear algebra*. math.ucdavis.edu. URL: <https://www.math.ucdavis.edu/~linear/>.



Farin, Gerald E. and Dianne Hansford (2014). *Practical linear algebra: a geometry toolbox*. Third edition. CRC Press. ISBN: 978-1-4665-7958-3.



Shifrin, Theodore and Malcolm R Adams (2011). *Linear Algebra. A Geometric Approach*. 2nd. W. H. Freeman. ISBN: 978-1-4292-1521-3.

Further reading (cont.)



Strang, Gilbert (1991). "Calculus". In: *Wellesley-Cambridge press*. URL:

<https://ocw.mit.edu/resources/res-18-001-calculus-online-textbook-spring-2005/textbook/>.



Strang, Gilbert (2009). *Introduction to Linear Algebra, Fourth Edition*. 4th ed. Wellesley Cambridge Press. ISBN: 9780980232714.