Roadmap

- Linear Algebra:
 - Vectors, matrix, eigenvectors
- **Dimensionality Reduction**
- Manifold Learning
- Laplacian Eigenmaps

 I Networks / Deep Learning

 BF Networks
- Neural Networks / Deep Learning
- RBF Networks, Neural Networks, Gradient Descent, Backpropagation

Convolutional Networks - RAN Transformers Ing models Autoencoders Variation AE, Deep Generative Modely: CAN, Piffun

Why eigenvectors?

- ► We will cover Laplacian Eigenmaps in much fifty will greater detail.
 - For now: why do eigenvectors appear here?
 - What are eigenvectors?
 - How are they useful?

Why is linear algebra important in ML?

: Coptimization. V

DSC 1408 Representation Learning

Lecture 03 | Part 1

Coordinate Vectors

Coordinate Vectors

We can write a vector $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ as a coordinate vector:

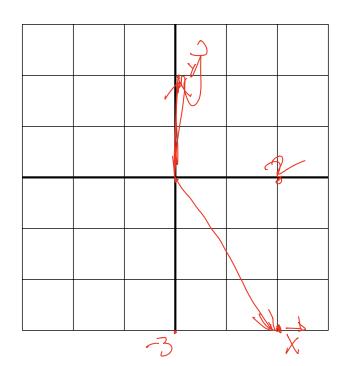
$$\vec{X} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \end{pmatrix}$$

Example

$$\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

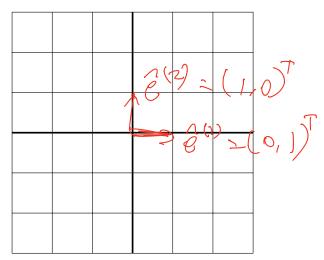
$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\dot{\ell} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$



Standard Basis

- Writing a vector in coordinate form requires choosing a basis.
- ► The "default" is the **standard basis**: $\hat{e}^{(1)}, ..., \hat{e}^{(d)}$.

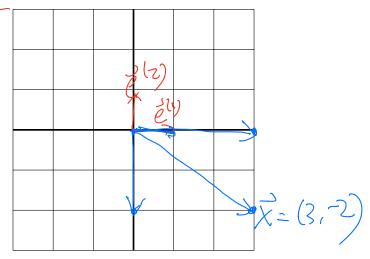


Standard Basis

When we write $\vec{x} = (x_1, ..., x_d)^T$, we mean that $\vec{x} = x_1 \hat{e}^{(1)} + x_2 \hat{e}^{(2)} + ... x_d \hat{e}^{(d)}$.

Example:
$$\vec{x} = (3, -2)^T$$

$$\chi = 32^{(1)} - 22^{(2)}$$



Standard Basis Coordinates

► In coordinate form:

$$\hat{e}^{(i)} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

where the 1 appears in the *i*th place.

Exercise

Let
$$\vec{x} = (3, 7, 2, -5)^T$$
. What is $\vec{x} \cdot \hat{e}^{(4)}$?



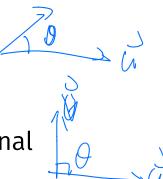
Recall: the Dot Product

► The **dot product** of \vec{u} and \vec{v} is defined as:

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = ||\vec{u}|| ||\vec{v}|| \cos \theta$$

where θ is the angle between \vec{u} and \vec{v} .

 $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$ if and only if \vec{u} and \vec{v} are orthogonal



Dot Product (Coordinate Form)

► In terms of coordinate vectors:

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{u}^T \vec{v}$$

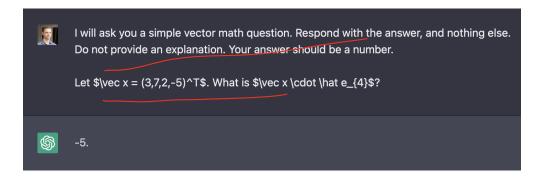
$$= (u_1 \quad u_2 \quad \cdots \quad u_d) \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \cdots \\ v_d \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= (u_1 \quad u_2 \quad \cdots \quad u_d) \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \cdots \\ v_d \end{pmatrix}$$

This definition assumes the standard basis.

Example

What does ChatGPT say?

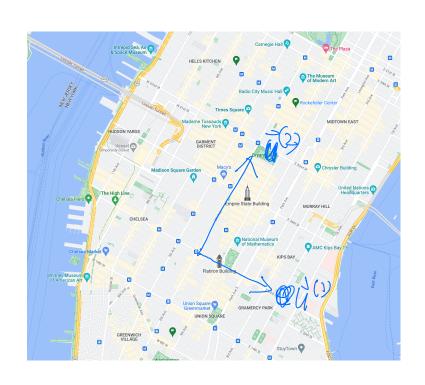




Other Bases

- ► The standard basis is not the **only** basis.
- > Sometimes more convenient to use another.

Example



Orthonormal Bases

- Orthonormal bases are particularly nice.
- ightharpoonup A set of vectors $\hat{u}^{(1)}, ..., \hat{u}^{(d)}$ forms an **orthonomal basis** 11 for R^d if:
 - They are mutually orthogonal: $\hat{u}^{(i)} \cdot \hat{u}^{(j)} = 0$. They are all unit vectors: $\|\hat{u}^{(i)}\| = 1$.

Example

$$\hat{u}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \hat{u}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Coordinate Vectors

- A vector's coordinates depend on the basis used.
- If we are using the basis $\mathcal{U} = \{\hat{u}^{(1)}, \hat{u}^{(2)}\}\$, then $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2)^T$ means $\vec{x} = x_1 \hat{u}^{(1)} + x_2 \hat{u}^{(2)}$.
- We will write $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{U}} = (x_1, ..., x_d)^T$ to denote that the coordinates are with respect to the basis \mathcal{U} .

$$[x]_{u}$$

Let
$$\hat{u}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1,1)^T$$
 and $\hat{u}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1,1)^T$. Suppose $[\vec{X}]_{\mathcal{U}} = (3,-4)^T$. What is $\vec{X} \cdot \hat{u}^{(1)}$?

Let
$$\hat{u}^{(1)} \neq \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1)$$
 $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{U}} \neq (3, -4)^{T}$.

$$[\vec{x}]_{u} = (3, -4)^{t}. \text{ What is } \vec{x} \cdot \hat{u}^{(t)}?$$

$$\vec{x} = 3 \hat{u}^{(t)} - 4 \hat{u}^{(2)} = 1$$

$$\vec{x} \cdot \vec{u}^{(t)} = (3\vec{u}^{(t)} - 4\vec{u}^{(2)}). \vec{u}^{(t)} = 3\vec{u}^{(t)} - 4\vec{u}^{(t)}$$

= 3.1-4.0 = 7./

Let
$$\hat{u}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1, 1)^T$$
 at $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{U}} = (3, -4)^T$. What

What did ChatGPT say?



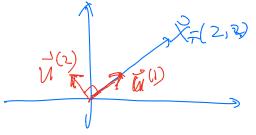


-0.5. (Note: This answer assumes that ${\c x}\$ mathcal{U}\$ represents the coordinate vector of \$\vec x\$ with respect to the basis \$\mathcal{U}\$, and that \$\bu{1}\$ and \$\bu{2}\$ are orthonormal basis vectors.) The dot product between \$\vec x\$ and \$\bu{1}\$ represents the projection of \$\vec x\$ onto the direction of \$\bu{1}\$. In this case, \$\bu{1}\$\$ is a unit vector, so the dot product gives the signed length of the projection of \$\vec x\$ onto the direction of \$\bu{1}\\$. The result of -0.5 indicates that the projection of \$\vec x\\$ onto the direction of \$\bu{1}\$ is in the opposite direction of \$\bu{1}\$, and the magnitude of the projection is 0.5 times the length of \$\bu{1}\\$. Note that the negative sign indicates that the projection is in the opposite direction of \$\bu{1}\\$. The dot product can be used to determine the alignment or misalignment of vectors, and is a useful tool in various applications, such as in physics, engineering, and computer graphics. It is important to understand how to compute and interpret dot products in the context of vector projections and geometric relationships between vectors. Therefore, the result of -0.5 indicates that \$\vec x\$ is projected onto the opposite direction of \$\bu{1}\\$ with a magnitude of 0.5 times the length of \$\bu{1}\$. Keep practicing vector math problems to further strengthen your understanding of dot products and their applications!

Exercise

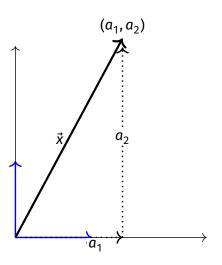
Consider
$$\vec{x} = (2, 2)^T$$
 and let $\hat{u}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1, 1)^T$ and $\hat{u}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1, 1)^T$. What is $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{U}}$?

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(-1,1)^{7}$$
. What is $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{U}}$

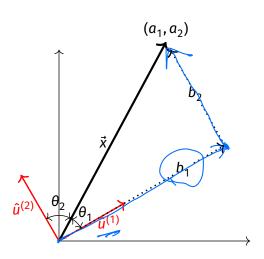


 $\chi = (2,2)$

- ► How do we compute the coordinates of a vector in a new basis, \mathcal{U} ?
- Some trigonometry is involved.
- Key Fact: $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = ||\vec{a}|| ||\vec{b}|| \cos \theta$

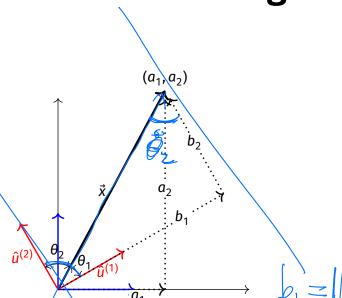


- Suppose we know $\vec{x} = (a_1, a_2)^T$ w.r.t. standard basis.
- Then $\vec{x} = a_1 \hat{e}^{(1)} + a_2 \hat{e}^{(2)}$



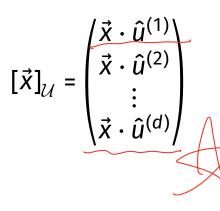
- Want to write: $\vec{x} = b_1 \hat{u}^{(1)} + b_2 \hat{u}^{(2)}$
- Need to find b_1 and b_2 .





- **Exercise:** Solve for b_1 , writing the answer as a dot product.
 - Hint: $\cos \theta =$ adjacent/hypotenuse

- Let $\mathcal{U} = {\hat{u}^{(1)}, ..., \hat{u}^{(d)}}$ be an orthonormal basis.
- The coordinates of \vec{x} w.r.t. \mathcal{U} are:



Exercise

Suppose $\vec{x} = (2, 1)^T$ and let $\hat{u}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1, 1)^T$ and $\hat{u}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1, 1)^T$. What is $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{U}}$?

Exercise

Let $\vec{x} = (-1, 4)^T$ and suppose:

$$\hat{u}^{(1)} \cdot \hat{e}^{(1)} = 3$$
 $\hat{u}^{(2)} \cdot \hat{e}^{(1)} = -1$ $\hat{u}^{(1)} \cdot \hat{e}^{(2)} = -2$ $\hat{u}^{(2)} \cdot \hat{e}^{(2)} = 5$

What is $[\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{U}}$?

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Lecture 03 | Part 2

Functions of a Vector

Functions of a Vector

- In ML, we often work with functions of a vector: $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^{d'}$.
- Example: a prediction function, $H(\vec{x})$.
- Functions of a vector can return:
 - ightharpoonup a number: $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^1$
 - ▶ a vector \vec{f} : $\mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^{d'}$
 - something else?

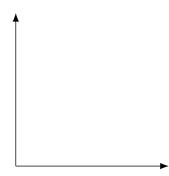
Transformations

A transformation \vec{f} is a function that takes in a vector, and returns a vector of the same dimensionality.

► That is, $\vec{f} : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^d$.

Visualizing Transformations

- A transformation is a vector field.
 - Assigns a vector to each point in space.
 - Example: $\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = (3x_1, x_2)^T$



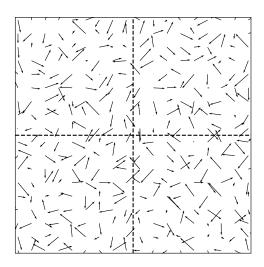
Example

$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = (3x_1, x_2)^T$$

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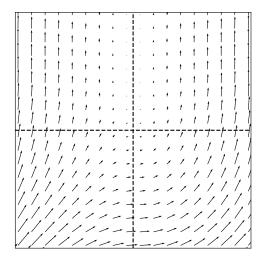
Arbitrary Transformations

Arbitrary transformations can be quite complex.



Arbitrary Transformations

Arbitrary transformations can be quite complex.



Linear Transformations

Luckily, we often¹ work with simpler, linear transformations.

► A transformation *f* is linear if:

$$\vec{f}(\alpha \vec{x} + \beta \vec{y}) = \alpha \vec{f}(\vec{x}) + \beta \vec{f}(\vec{y})$$

¹Sometimes, just to make the math tractable!

Checking Linearity

- ► To check if a transformation is linear, use the definition.
- **Example:** $\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = (x_2, -x_1)^T$

Exercise

Let $\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = (x_1 + 3, x_2)$. Is \vec{f} a linear transformation?

Implications of Linearity

ightharpoonup Suppose \vec{f} is a linear transformation. Then:

$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = \vec{f}(x_1 \hat{e}^{(1)} + x_2 \hat{e}^{(2)})$$
$$= x_1 \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) + x_2 \vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)})$$

▶ I.e., \vec{f} is **totally determined** by what it does to the basis vectors.

The Complexity of Arbitrary Transformations

- Suppose f is an arbitrary transformation.
- ► I tell you $\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) = (2, 1)^T$ and $\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) = (-3, 0)^T$.
- ► I tell you $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2)^T$.
- ▶ What is $\vec{f}(\vec{x})$?

The Simplicity of Linear Transformations

- ► Suppose *f* is a **linear** transformation.
- ► I tell you $\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) = (2, 1)^T$ and $\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) = (-3, 0)^T$.
- ► I tell you $\vec{x} = (x_1, x_2)^T$.
- ▶ What is $\vec{f}(\vec{x})$?

Exercise

- Suppose f is a linear transformation.
- ► I tell you $\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)}) = (2,1)^T$ and $\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)}) = (-3,0)^T$. ► I tell you $\vec{x} = (3,-4)^T$.
- ▶ What is $\vec{f}(\vec{x})$?

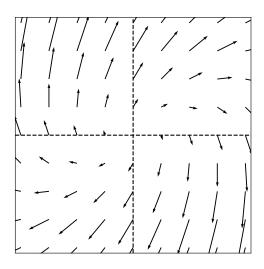
Key Fact

- Linear functions are determined **entirely** by what they do on the basis vectors.
- ▶ I.e., to tell you what f does, I only need to tell you $\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(1)})$ and $\vec{f}(\hat{e}^{(2)})$.
- This makes the math easy!



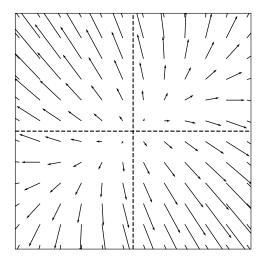
Example Linear Transformation

$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = (x_1 + 3x_2, -3x_1 + 5x_2)^T$$



Another Example Linear Transformation

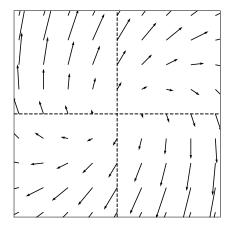
$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = (2x_1 - x_2, -x_1 + 3x_2)^T$$

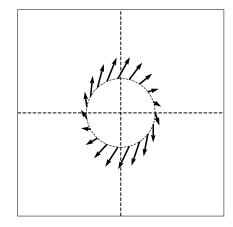


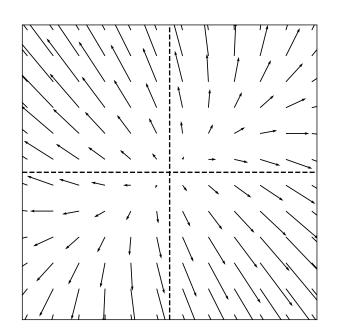
Note

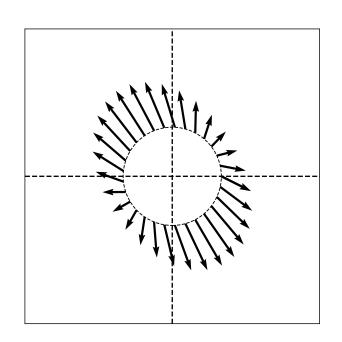
▶ Because of linearity, along any given direction \vec{f} changes only in scale.

$$\vec{f}(\lambda \hat{x}) = \lambda \vec{f}(\hat{x})$$









Linear Transformations and Bases

► We have been writing transformations in coordinate form. For example:

$$\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = (x_1 + x_2, x_1 - x_2)^T$$

- ► To do so, we assumed the **standard basis**.
- If we use a different basis, the formula for \vec{f} changes.

Example

- Suppose that in the standard basis, $\vec{f}(\vec{x}) = (x_1 + x_2, x_1 x_2)^T$.
- ► Let $\hat{u}^{(1)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (1, 1)^T$ and $\hat{u}^{(2)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (-1, 1)^T$.
- $\blacktriangleright \text{ Write } [\vec{x}]_{\mathcal{U}} = (z_1, z_2)^T.$
- Mhat is $[\vec{f}(\vec{x})]_{\mathcal{U}}$ in terms of z_1 and z_2 ?