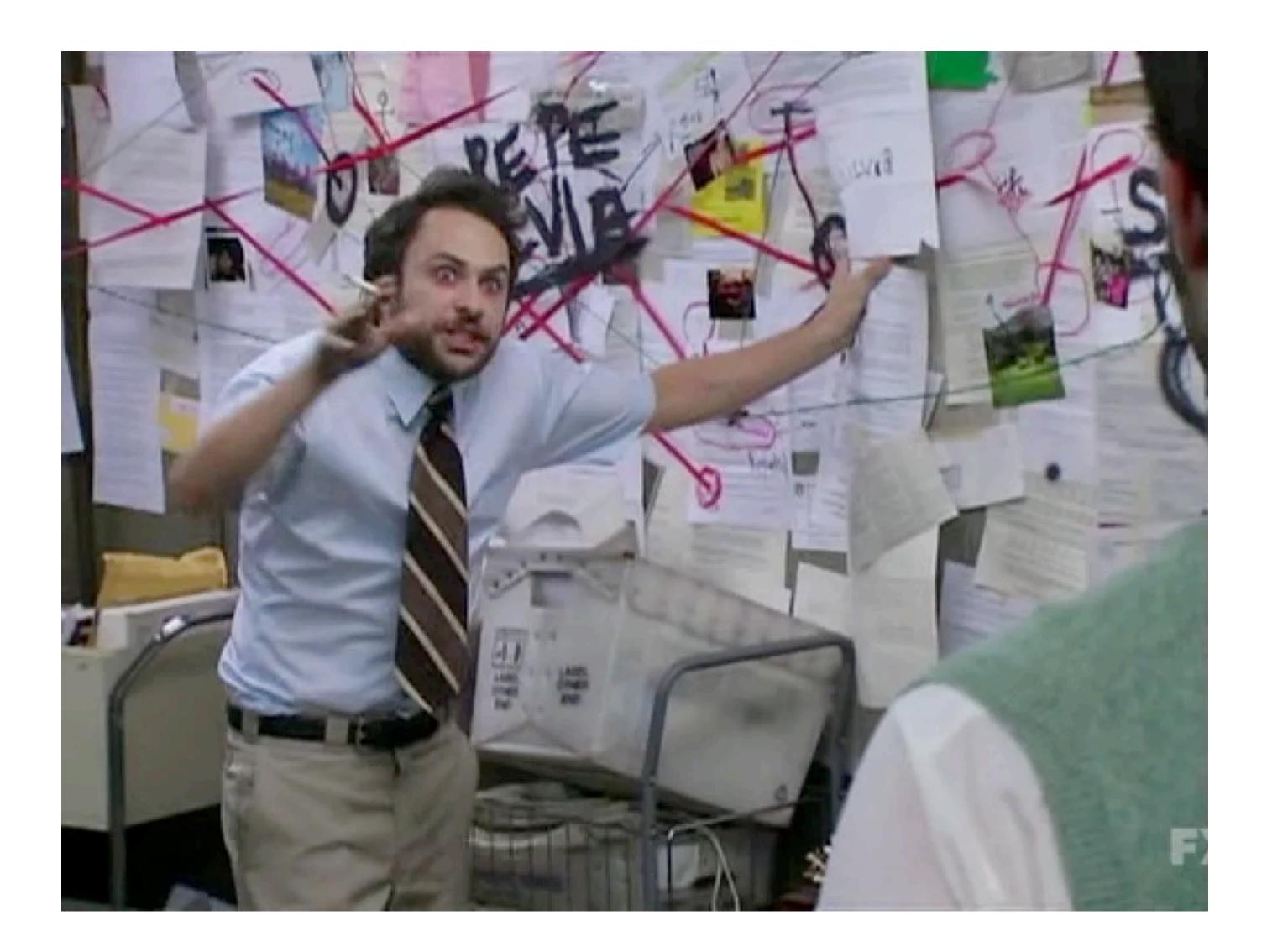
Math for ML Finale: Course Overview

By: Samuel Deng

Lesson Overview



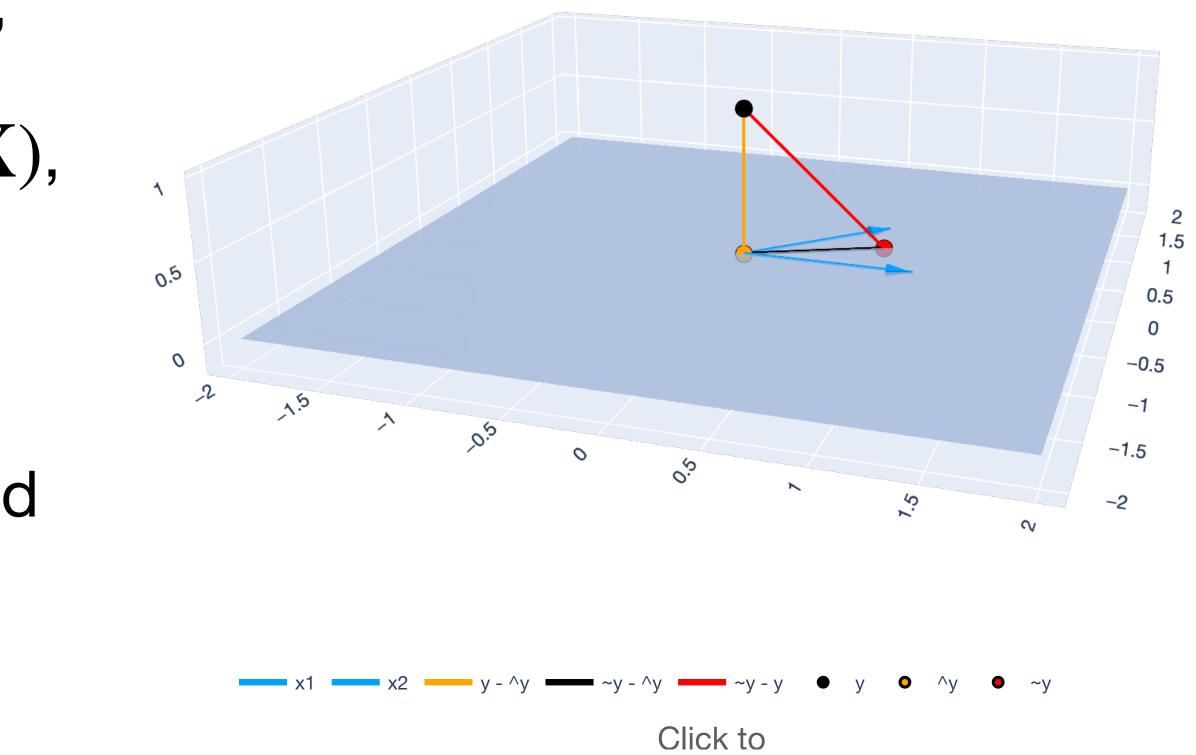
Week 1.1 Vectors, matrices, and least squares regression

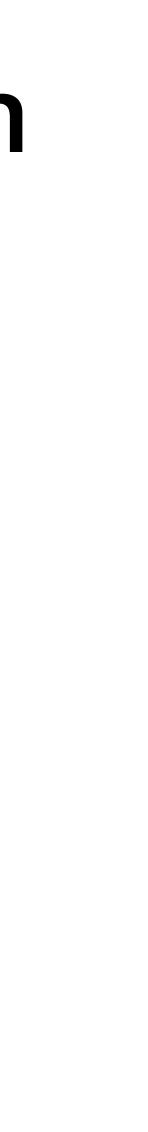
Vectors, matrices, and least squares regression Big Picture: Least Squares

Through linear independence, span, and rank, which allowed us to get $(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}$ from rank $(\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X}) = \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{X})$, we got our first OLS theorem:

Theorem (OLS solution). If $n \ge d$ and rank(\mathbf{X}) = d, then:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}.$$





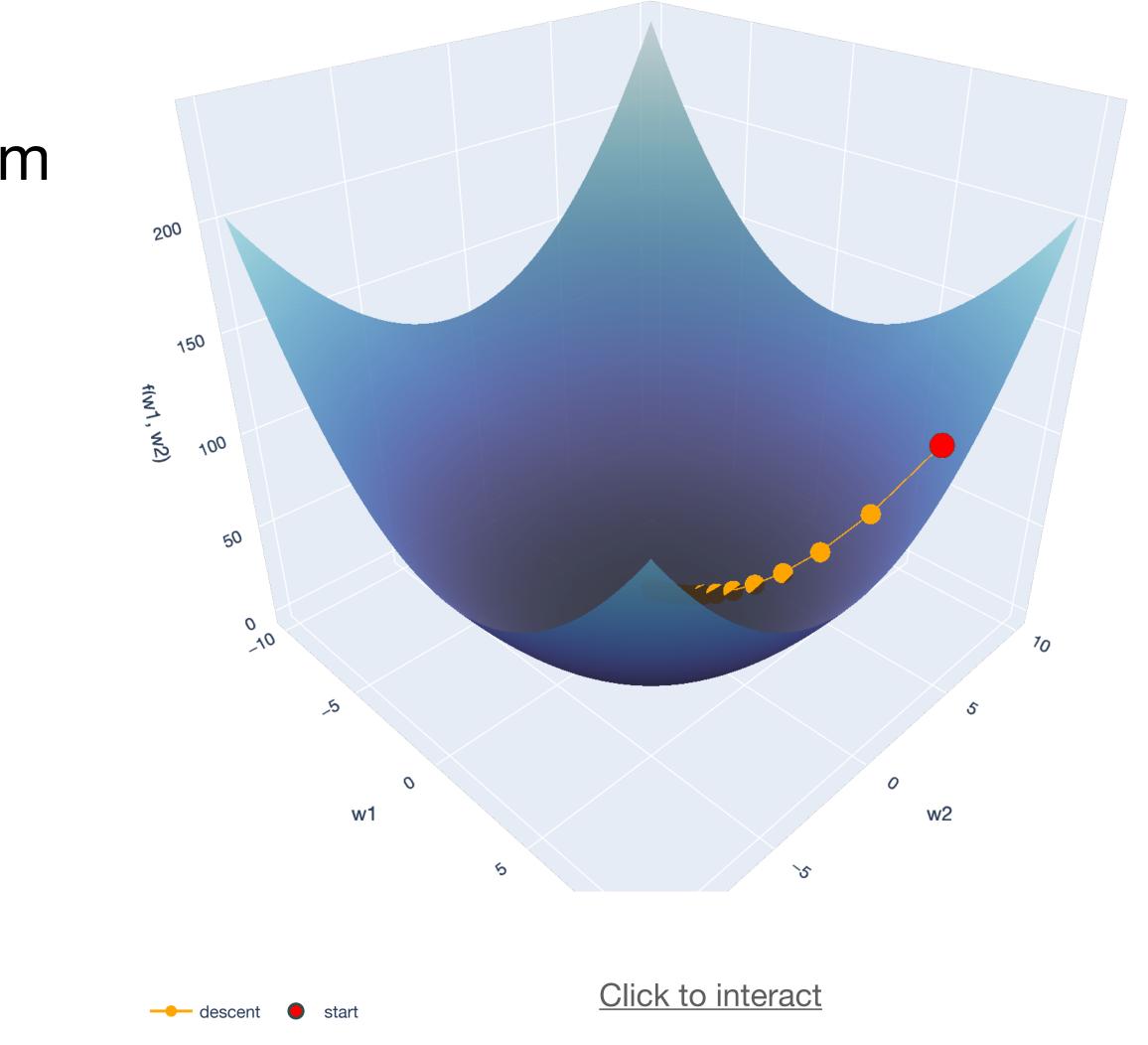
Vectors, matrices, and least squares regression Big Picture: Gradient Descent

Through using **norm** to rewrite the sum of squared residual errors,

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i})^{2}$$

we got a function that measures how "badly" each w does:

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$





Week 1.2 Bases, subspaces, and orthogonality

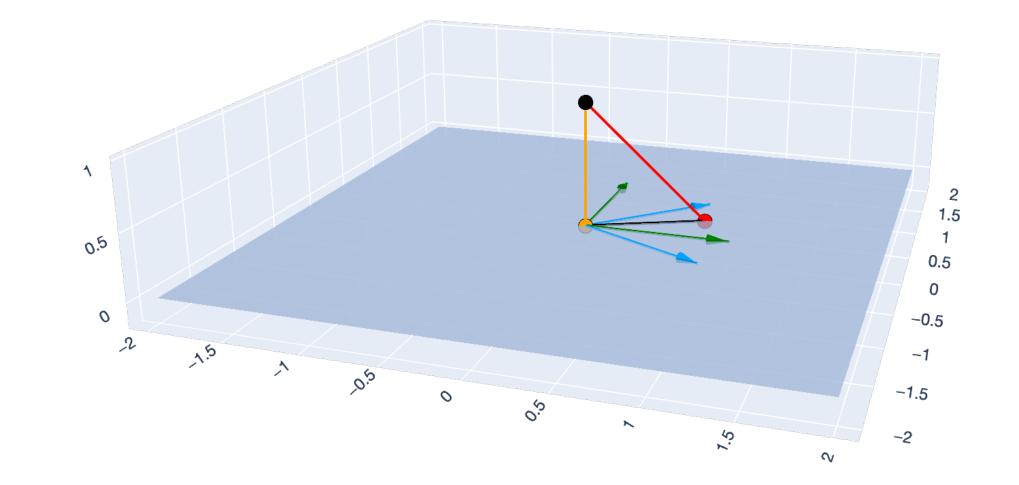
Bases, subspaces, and orthogonality **Big Picture: Least Squares**

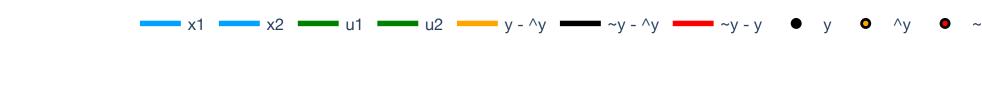
We formally defined subspace, a basis, the columnspace, and an orthogonal basis. This filled in the gaps to get **Theorem** (invertibility of $\boldsymbol{X}^{\top}\boldsymbol{X}$) and Theorem (Pythagorean Theorem).

Using our new notion of orthogonality, we simplified the OLS solution.

Theorem (OLS solution with ONB). If $n \ge d$ and rank(**X**) = d and **U** $\in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ an ONB:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}.$$





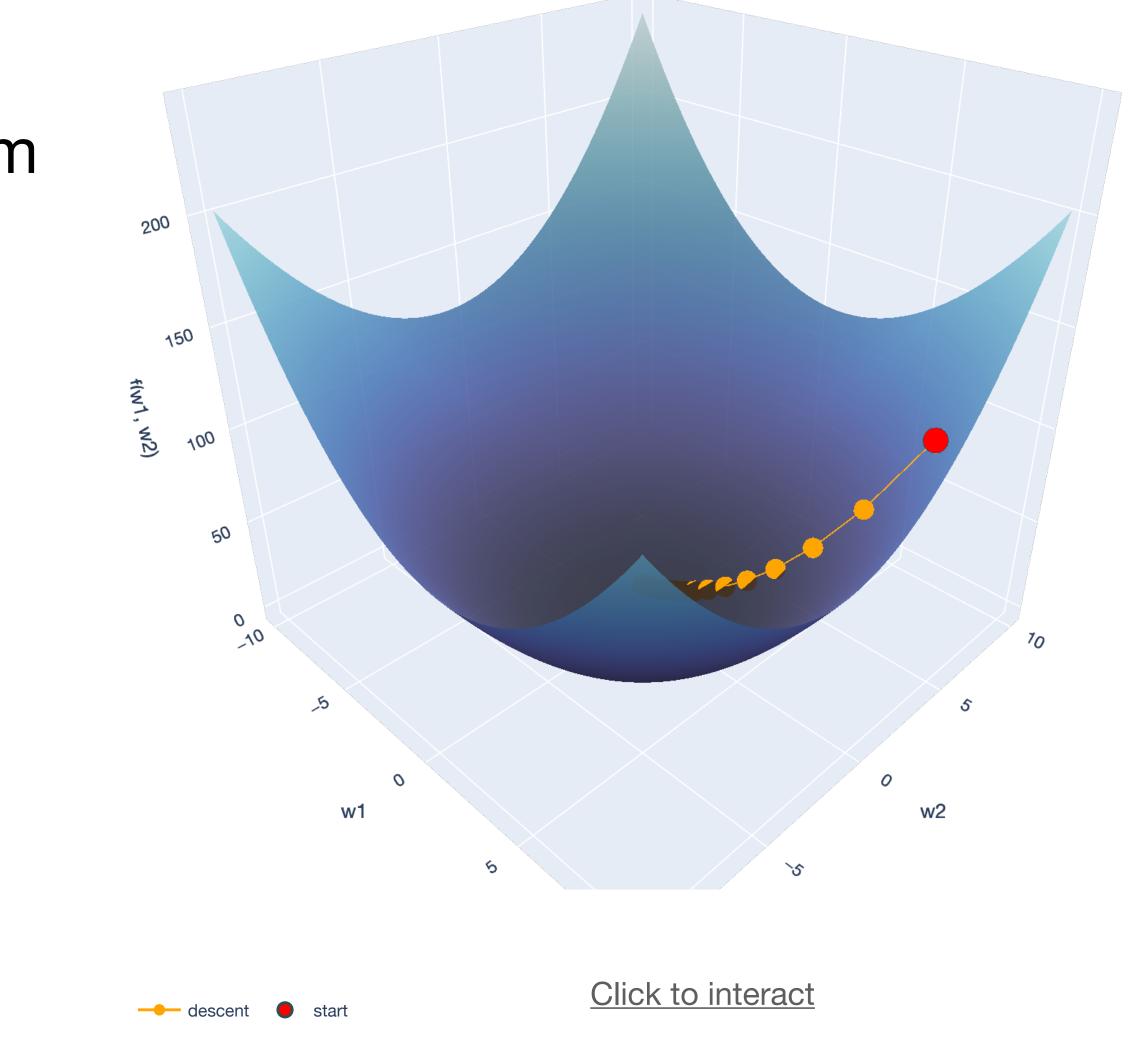
Bases, subspaces, and orthogonality Big Picture: Gradient Descent

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we got a function that measures how "badly" each w does:

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$





Week 2.1 Singular Value Decomposition

Singular Value Decomposition Big Picture: Least Squares

We formally defined **orthogonal complements**, and **projection matrices** to solve the best-fitting 1D subspace problem. This led to SVD, and the decomposition:

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

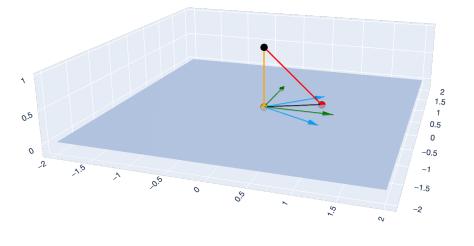
The SVD defined the **pseudoinverse** which gave us a unifying solution for OLS when $n \ge d$ or d > n.

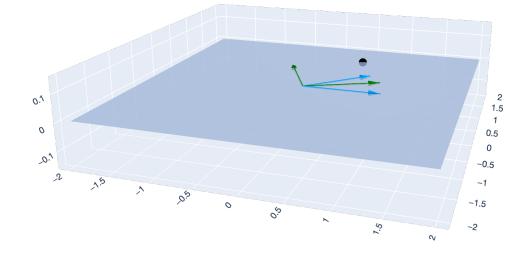
Theorem (OLS solution with pseudoinverse). Let $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$ have pseudoinverse $\mathbf{X}^+ \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$. Then:

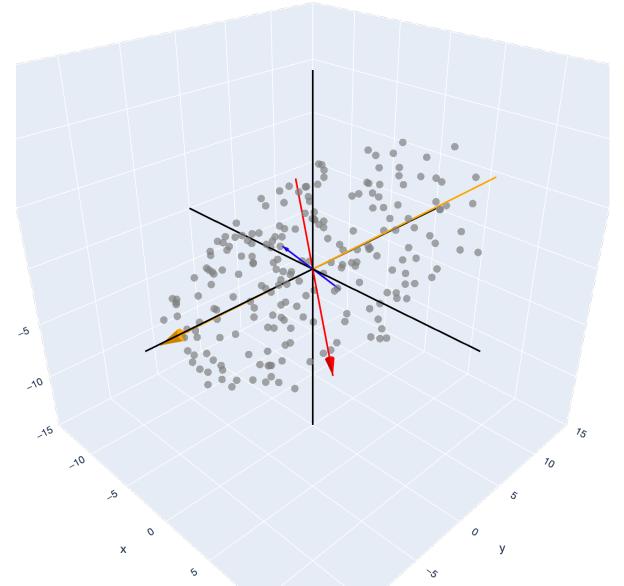
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{X}^+ \mathbf{y}.$$

If $n \ge d$, then $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ minimizes $\|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$.

If d > n, then $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$ is the exact solution $\mathbf{X}\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{y}$ with min. norm.







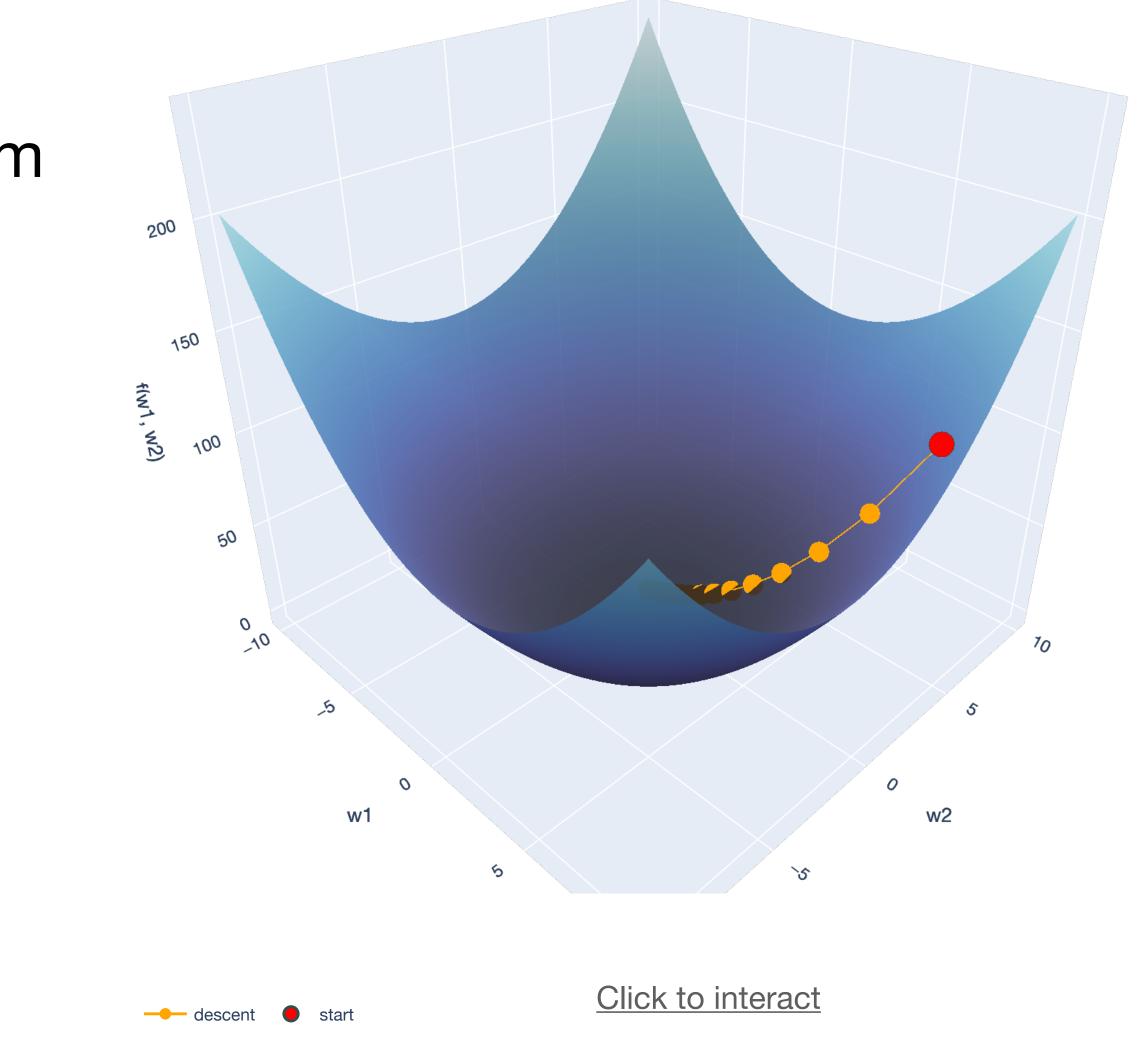
Singular Value Decomposition Big Picture: Gradient Descent

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$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i})^{2}$$

we got a function that measures how "badly" each w does:

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$





Week 2.2 Eigendecomposition and PSD Matrices

Eigendecomposition and PSD Matrices Big Picture: Least Squares

We defined eigenvectors and eigenvalues of square matrices. When a square matrix is diagonalizable, it has an eigendecomposition:

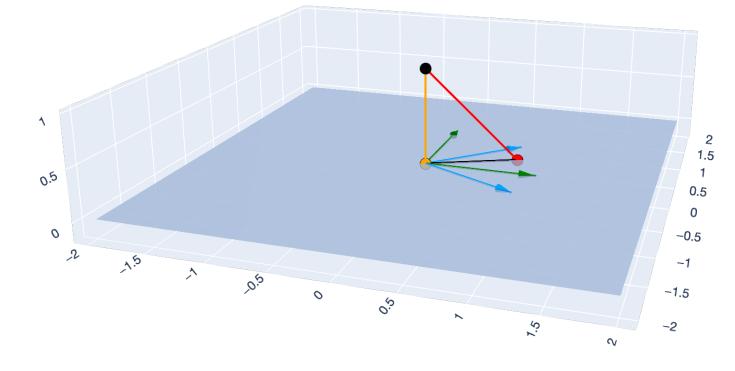
$\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Lambda} \mathbf{V}^{\mathsf{T}}$

The spectral theorem tells us that symmetric matrices are diagonalizable.

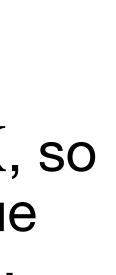
One example of a symmetric matrix is $\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X}$, so we did a rudimentary eigenvector/eigenvalue analysis of $(\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}$ in the error model:

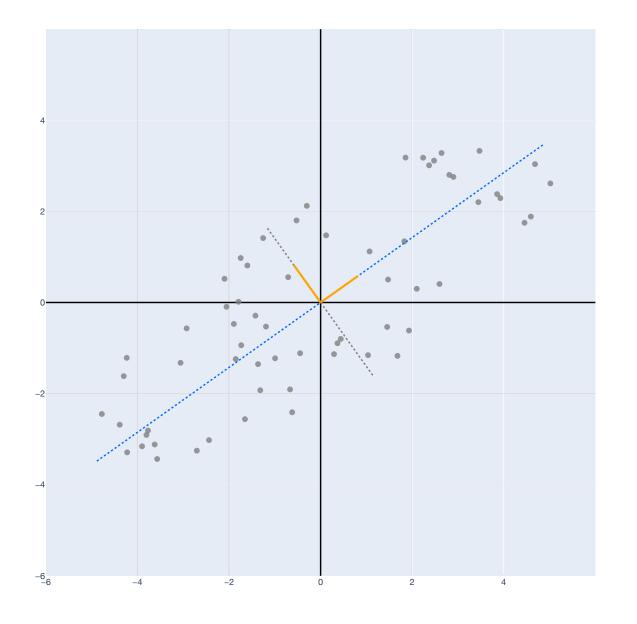
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}^* + \epsilon.$$











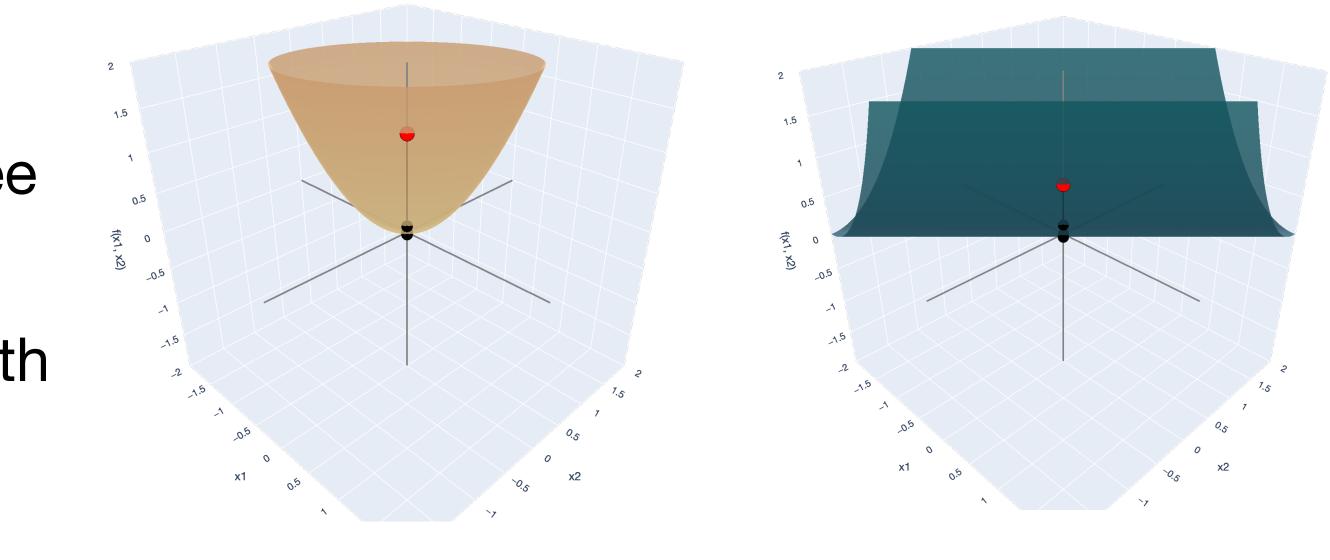
Eigendecomposition and PSD Matrices Big Picture: Gradient Descent

We also defined an important class of square, symmetric matrices, **positive semidefinite (PSD) matrices**, with three equivalent definitions.

PSD matrices are always associated with functions called **quadratic forms**

$$f(\mathbf{x}) := \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x},$$

which look "bowl" or "envelope" shaped. Just graphically, these functions look ripe for gradient descent.



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Week 3.1 Differentiation and vector calculus

Differentiation and vector calculus Big Picture: Least Squares

We defined the **directional**, **partial**, and **total derivatives** in multivariable calculus and established that, for \mathscr{C}^1 functions, it's safe to assume these coincide: the **gradient** and **Jacobian** tell us all derivative information.

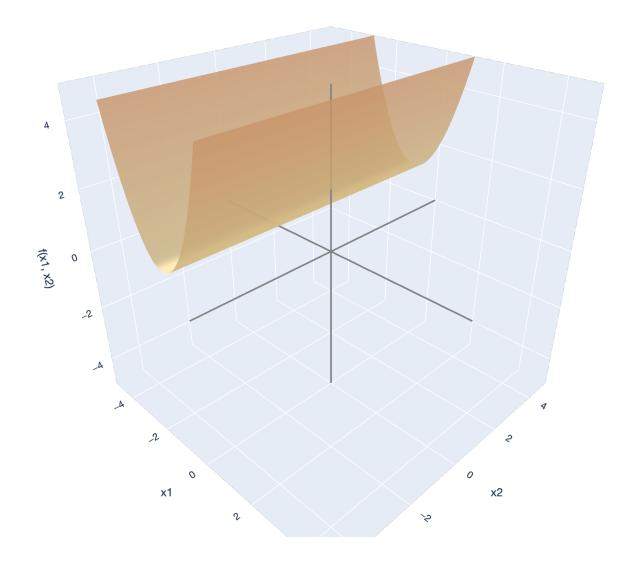
Using *analogy* to single variable calculus optimization, we treated

$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$

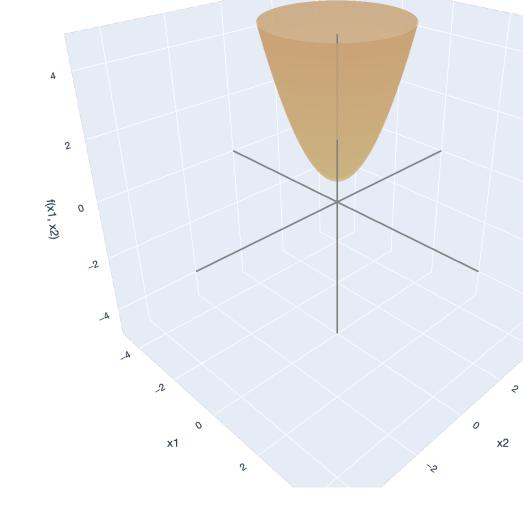
as a function to optimize and proved the same theorem, from a calculus/optimization perspective.

Theorem (OLS solution). If $n \ge d$ and $rank(\mathbf{X}) = d$, then:

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}.$$



x1-axis x2-axis f(x1, x2)-axis



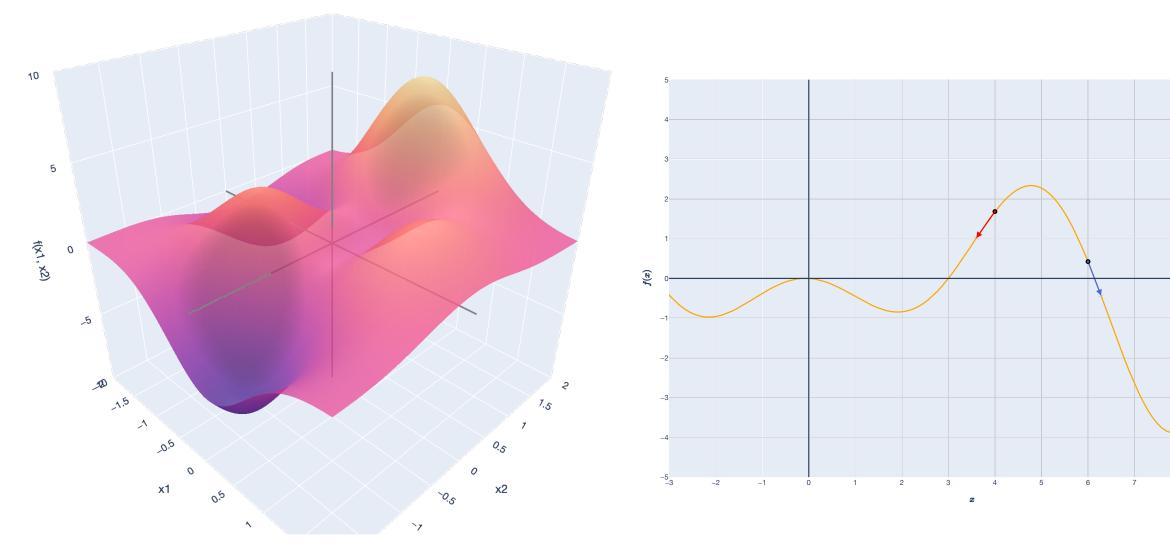
x1-axis x2-axis f(x1, x2)-axis



Differentiation and vector calculus Big Picture: Gradient Descent

The gradient points in the direction of steepest ascent. This lets us write out the algorithm for gradient descent:

$$\mathbf{w}_t \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_{t-1} - \eta \,\nabla f(\mathbf{w}_{t-1}).$$



x1-axis x2-axis f(x1, x2)-axis



Week 3.2 Linearization and Taylor series

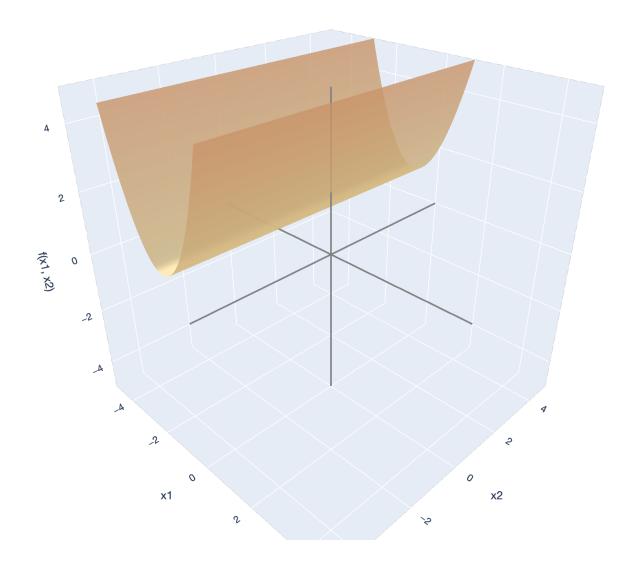
Linearization and Taylor series Big Picture: Least Squares

We discussed **linearization**, a main motivation for the techniques of multivariable calculus:

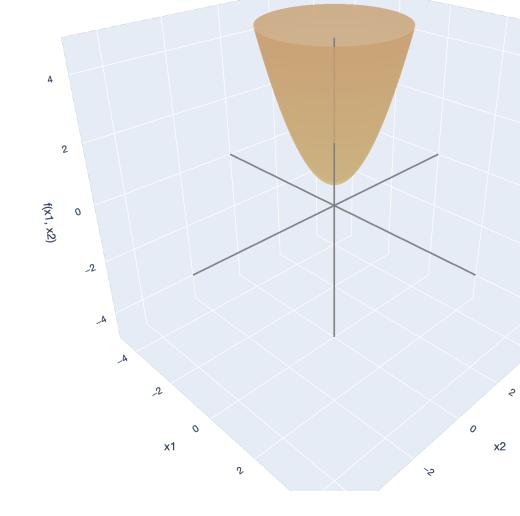
$$f(\mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)$$

This is a "part" of the **Taylor series** of a function. We quantified the approximation error of a Taylor series through **Taylor's Theorem**(s).

The error term in the first-order Taylor expansion was given by the Hessian, which is always a symmetric matrix for \mathscr{C}^2 functions.



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x1-axis x2-axis f(x1, x2)-axis

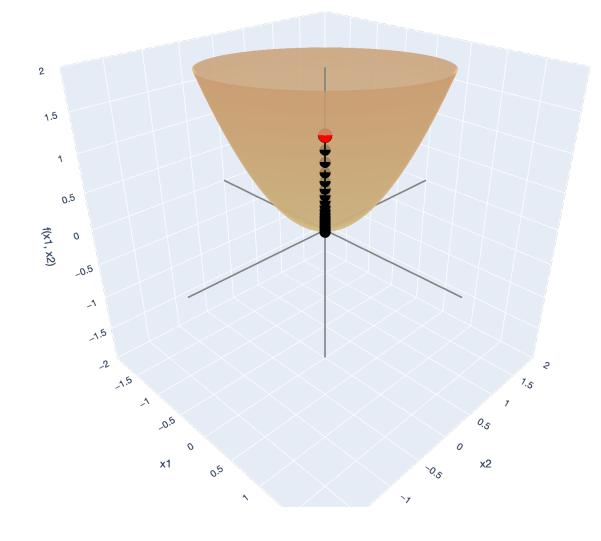


Linearization and Taylor series Big Picture: Gradient Descent

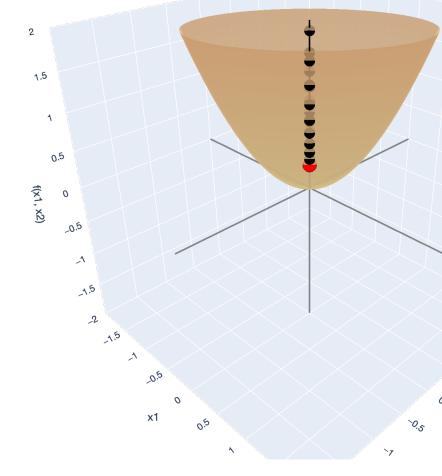
The Taylor series, particularly Lagrange's form of Taylor's Theorem and requiring smoothness on the Hessian allowed us to analyze the first-order Taylor approximation go get our first GD theorem:

Theorem (GD makes the function value smaller). For \mathscr{C}^2 , β -smooth functions, GD with $\eta = \frac{1}{\beta}$ has the property:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_t) \le f(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) - \frac{1}{2\beta} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{t-1})\|^2.$$







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Week 4.1 **Optimization and the Lagrangian**

Optimization and the Lagrangian Big Picture: Least Squares

Formally defined optimization problems:

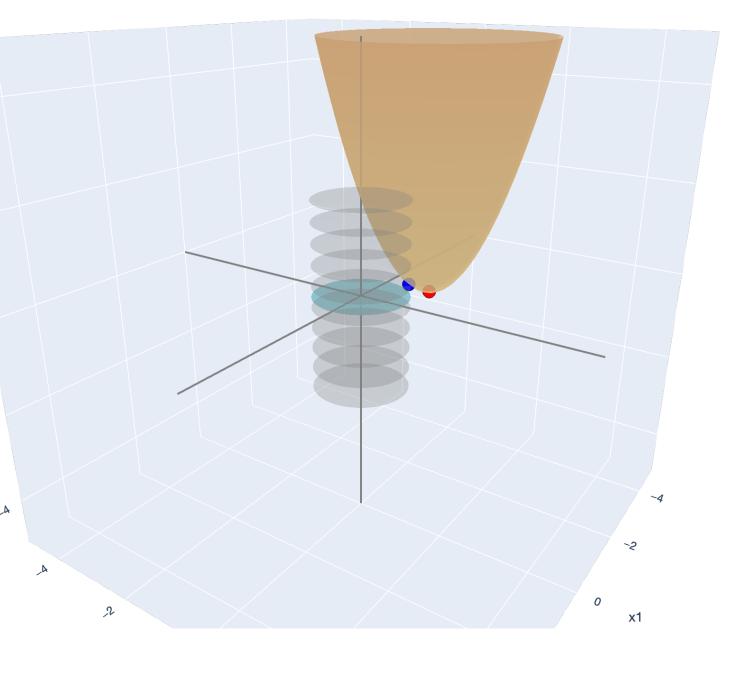
 $\begin{array}{ll} \underset{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d}{\text{minimize}} & f(\mathbf{x}) \\ \text{subject to} & \mathbf{x} \in \mathscr{C} \end{array}$

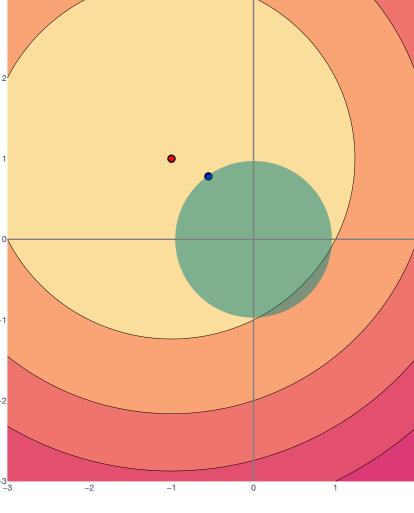
Developed the necessary conditions for unconstrained local minima, which filled in the gaps with our optimization-based OLS proof in Week 3.1.

Defined the Lagrangian $L(\mathbf{x}, \lambda)$, which helped us solve constrained optimization problems by "unconstraining them."

Two constrained problems related to OLS:

- 1. Least norm solution. $\hat{w} = X^+y$.
- 2. Ridge regression. $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X} + \gamma \mathbf{I})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}$

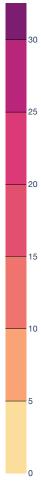




unconstrained min.
constrained min.

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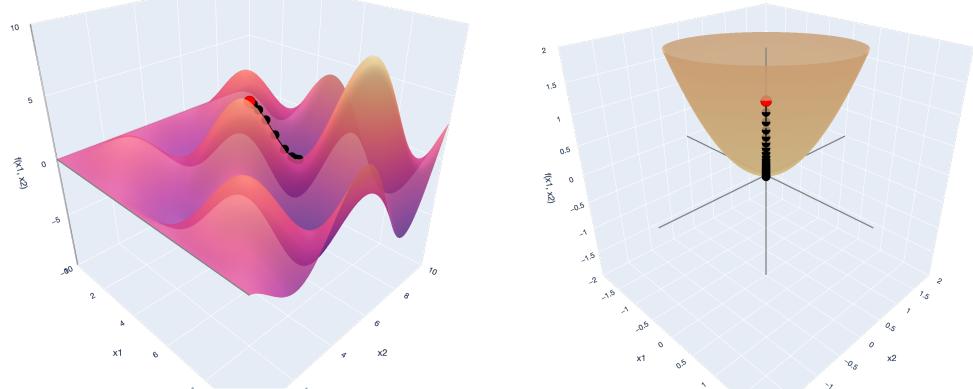


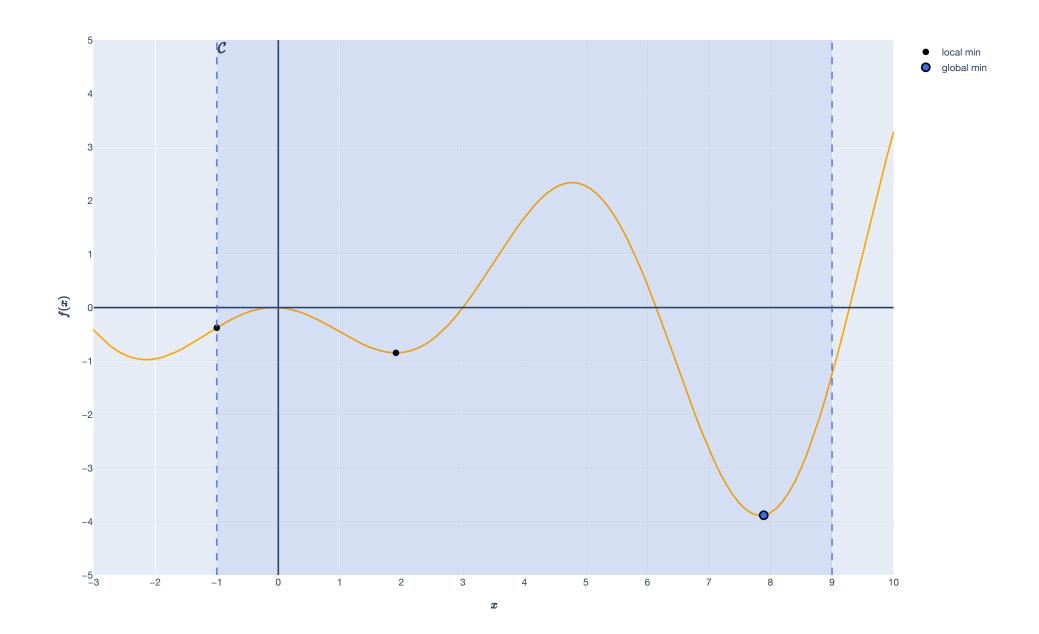


Optimization and the Lagrangian Big Picture: Gradient Descent

Classified the types of minima we can hope for in an optimization problem: **unconstrained local minima, constrained local minima**, and **global minima**.

We want **global minima** but GD can only get us to local minima.





Week 4.2 Basics of convex optimization

Basics of convex optimization Big Picture: Least Squares

We defined **convexity** of functions and sets. Convex functions are defined by:

 $f(\alpha \mathbf{x} + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{y}) \le \alpha f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \alpha)f(\mathbf{y}).$

If the function is differentiable:

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})^{\top} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) \,.$$

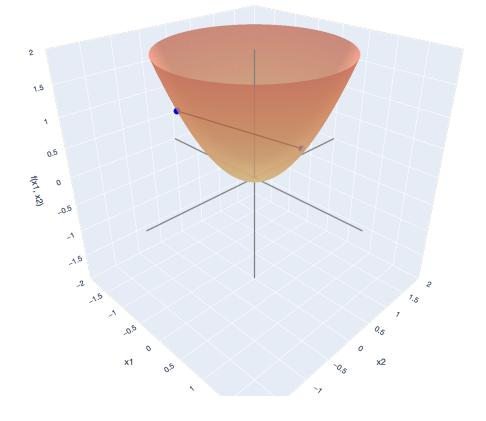
If the function is twice-differentiable:

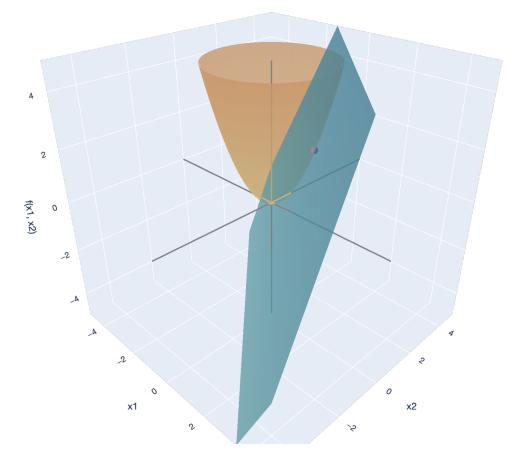
 $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})$ is positive semidefinite.

The key property we proved is that for **convex functions, all local minima are global minima.**

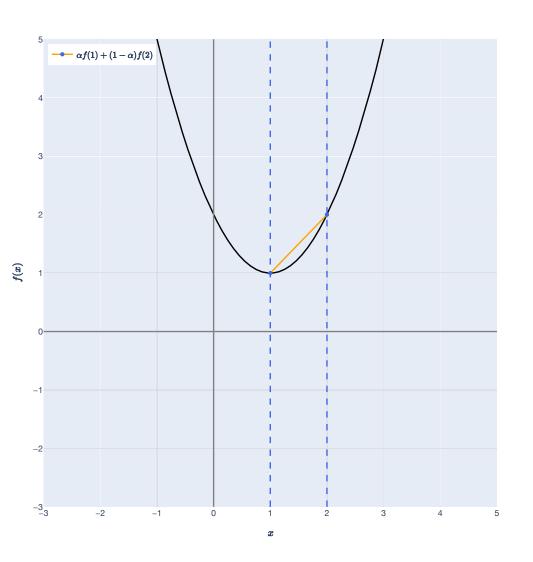
We verified that the OLS objective is convex:

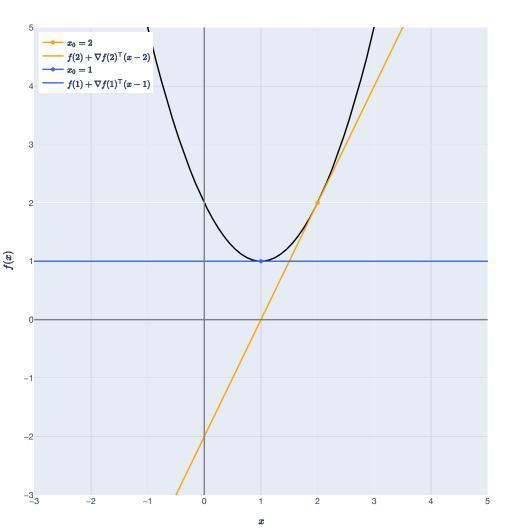
$$f(\mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 \text{ is convex.}$$





x1-axis f(x1, x2)-axis $\alpha f(x) + (1 - \alpha)f(y)$





Basics of convex optimization Big Picture: Gradient Descent

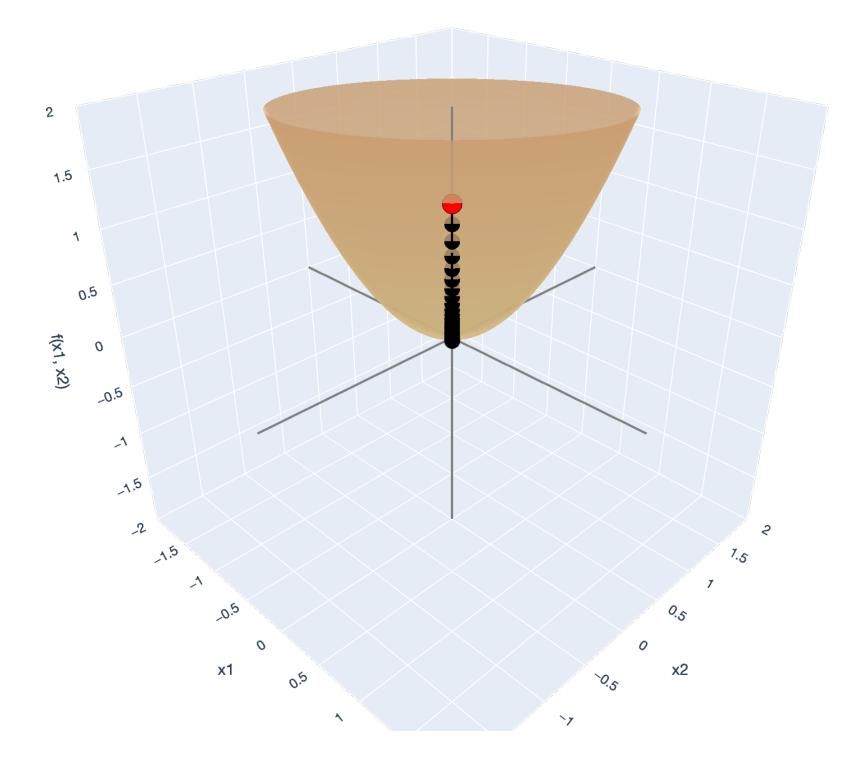
Assured that for **convex** functions, **all local minima are global minima**, we proved a *global* convergence theorem for GD:

Theorem (GD for smooth, convex functions). For \mathscr{C}^2 , β -smooth, convex functions, GD with $\eta = \frac{1}{\beta}$ and initial point $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$ satisfies:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_T) - f(\mathbf{x}^*) \le \frac{\beta}{2T} \left(\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_T - \mathbf{x}^*\|^2 \right)$$

As a corollary, we were able to unite the two stories of our course and **apply GD to OLS** to get:

$$\|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}_{T} - \mathbf{y}\|^{2} - \|\mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}^{*} - \mathbf{y}\|^{2} \le \frac{\beta}{2T} \left(\|\mathbf{w}_{0} - \mathbf{w}^{*}\|^{2} - \|\mathbf{w}_{T} - \mathbf{w}^{*}\|^{2}\right).$$





Week 5.1 Probability Theory, Models, and Data

Probability Theory, Models, and Data Big Picture: Least Squares

Defined the basic probability primitives: probability spaces and random variables.

Random variables come with a **CDF** and a **PMF/PDF**. Two important summary statistics are **expectation** and **variance**.

Random vectors are easy generalizations, but their "variance" is a **covariance matrix**.

This framework allowed us to define the random error model:

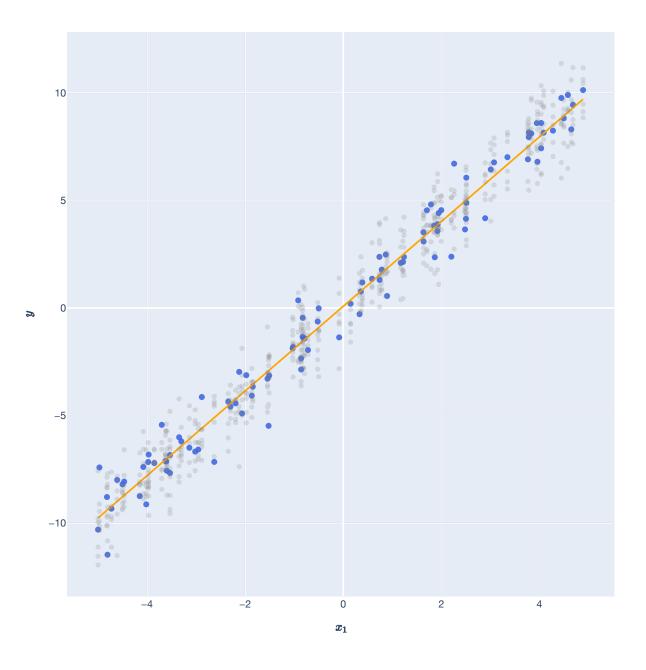
$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{w}^* + \epsilon$$
, where $\mathbb{E}[\epsilon] = 0$ and ϵ_i are independent of each other and \mathbf{X} .

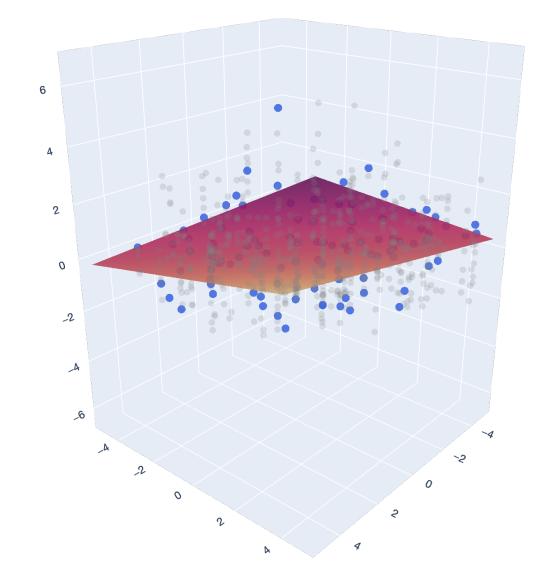
Under this framework, we get statistical properties for OLS.

 $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\top}\mathbf{y}$ has the following statistical properties:

Expectation: $\mathbb{E}[\hat{\mathbf{w}} \mid \mathbf{X}] = \mathbf{w}^*$.

Variance: Var $[\hat{\mathbf{w}} \mid \mathbf{X}] = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\sigma^2$.







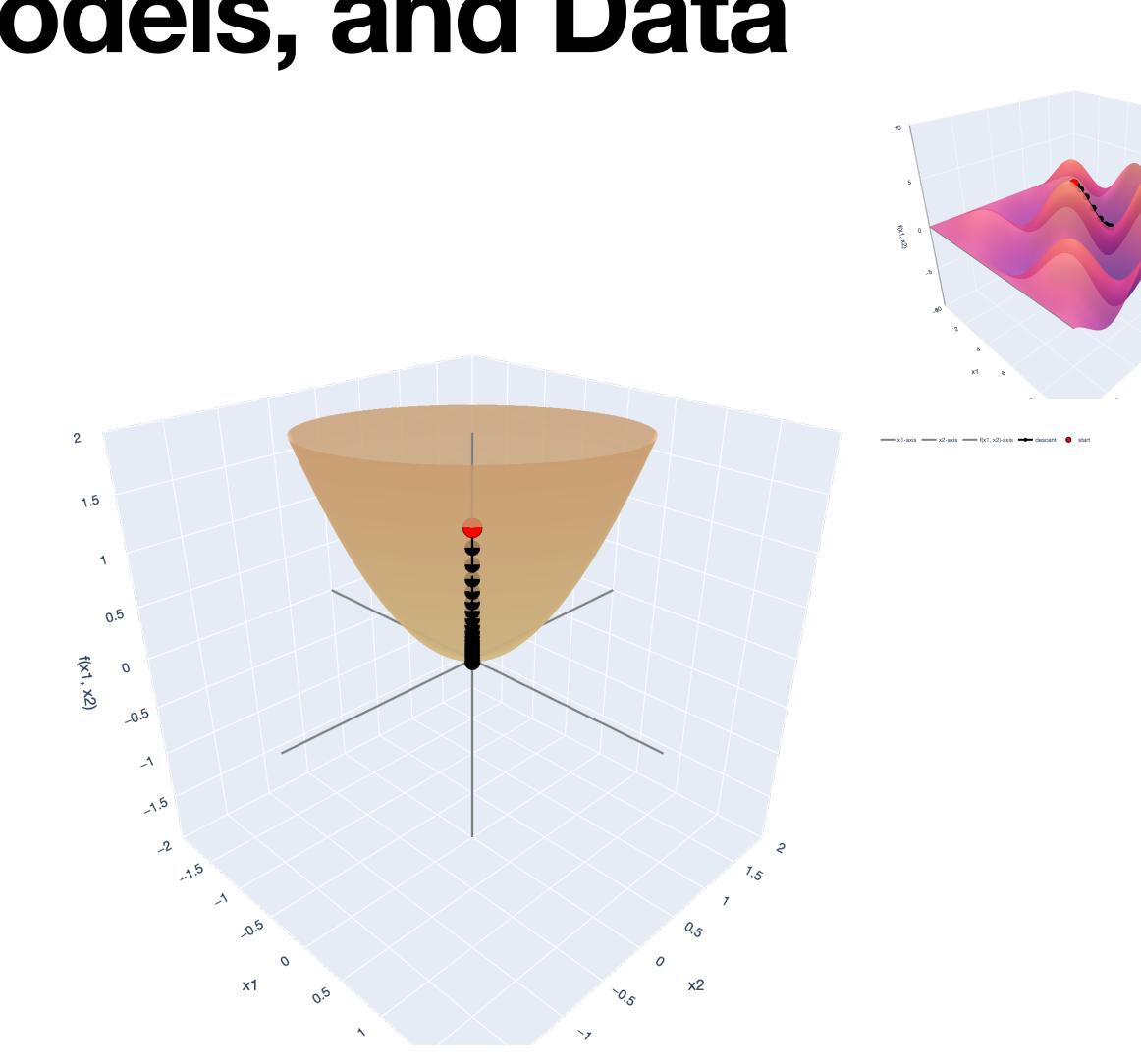
Probability Theory, Models, and Data Big Picture: Gradient Descent

Random variables come with a **CDF** and a **PMF/PDF**. Multiple random variables come with joint, marginal, and conditional distributions.

The conditional expectation of a random variable can be thought of as a "best guess" at a random variable given the information of an event or another random variable.

 $\mathbb{E}[X \mid A]$, for $A \subseteq \Omega$.

 $\mathbb{E}[X \mid Y]$, for $Y : \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$.





Week 5.2 Law of large numbers and statistical estimators

Law of large numbers and statistical estimators Big Picture: Least Squares

We established the aim of statistics as "inverse" probability theory. Of central importance is the **sample average** of i.i.d. random variables:

$$\overline{X}_n := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$$

Chebyshev's inequality proved the (Weak) Law of Large Numbers:

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} \mathbb{P}\left(\overline{X}_n - \mu < \epsilon \right) = 1,$$

which says that sample means approach true means.

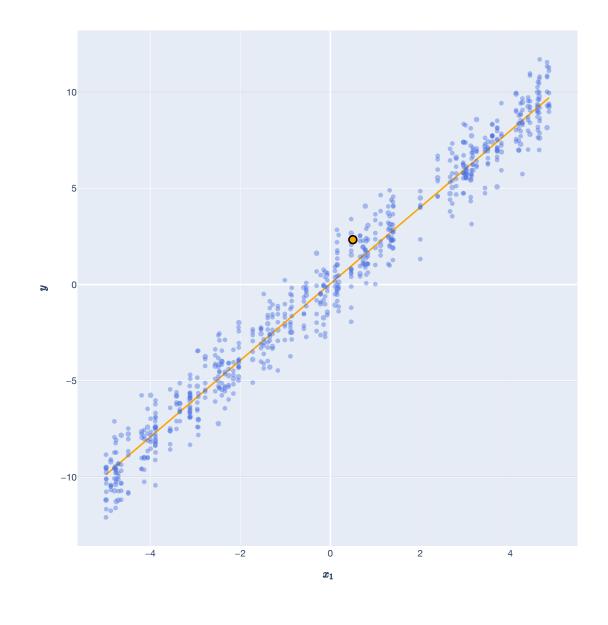
The sample average is a **statistical estimator** of the mean. Statistical estimators have **bias** and **variance** which are associated through the **bias-variance decomposition** of **mean-squared error**:

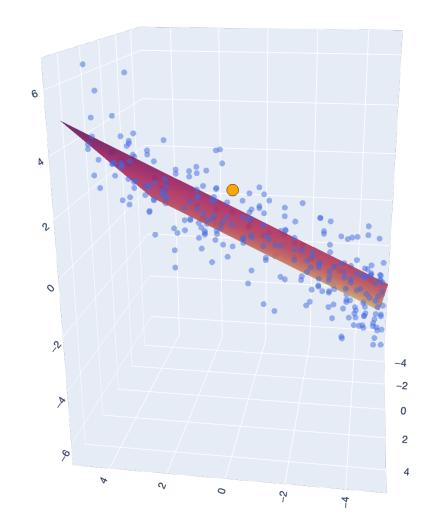
$$\mathbb{E}[(\hat{\theta}_n - \theta)^2] = \text{Bias}^2(\hat{\theta}_n) + \text{Var}(\hat{\theta}_n)$$

The Gauss-Markov Theorem stated that OLS was the lowest variance, *unbiased* linear estimator.

We finally got an expression for the **risk of OLS**:

$$R(\hat{\mathbf{w}}) = \mathbb{E}[(\hat{\mathbf{w}}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_0 - y_0)^2] = \sigma^2 + \frac{\sigma^2 d}{n}$$







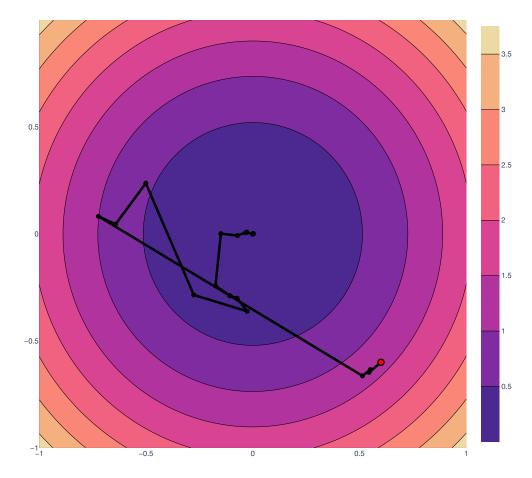
Law of large numbers and statistical estimators **Big Picture: Gradient Descent**

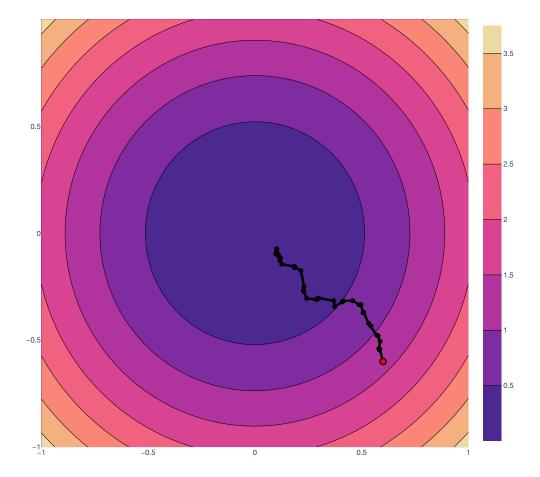
We closed the story of gradient descent with stochastic gradient descent (SGD) where, instead of taking the gradient over all the samples $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)$, we used an unbiased statistical estimator of the gradient:

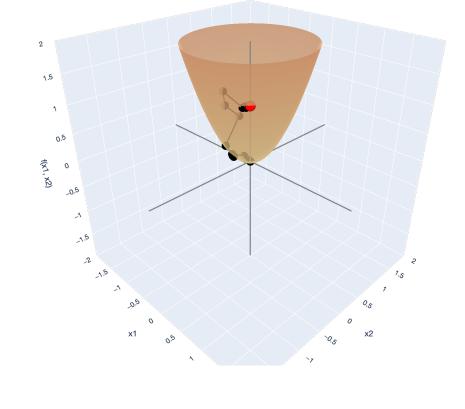
Estimand:
$$\nabla f(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_{i} - y_{i})^{2}.$$

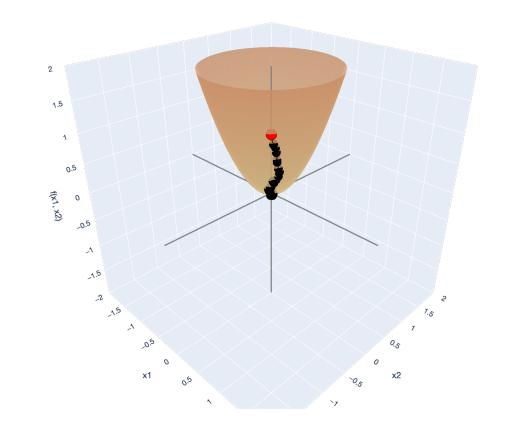
Estimator: Sample a single example *i* uniformly from $1, \ldots, n$ and take the gradient:

$$\widehat{\nabla f(\mathbf{w})} = \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} (\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_i - y_i)^2.$$









x1-axis x2-axis f(x1, x2)-axis descent



Week 6.1 Central Limit Theorem, Distributions, and MLE

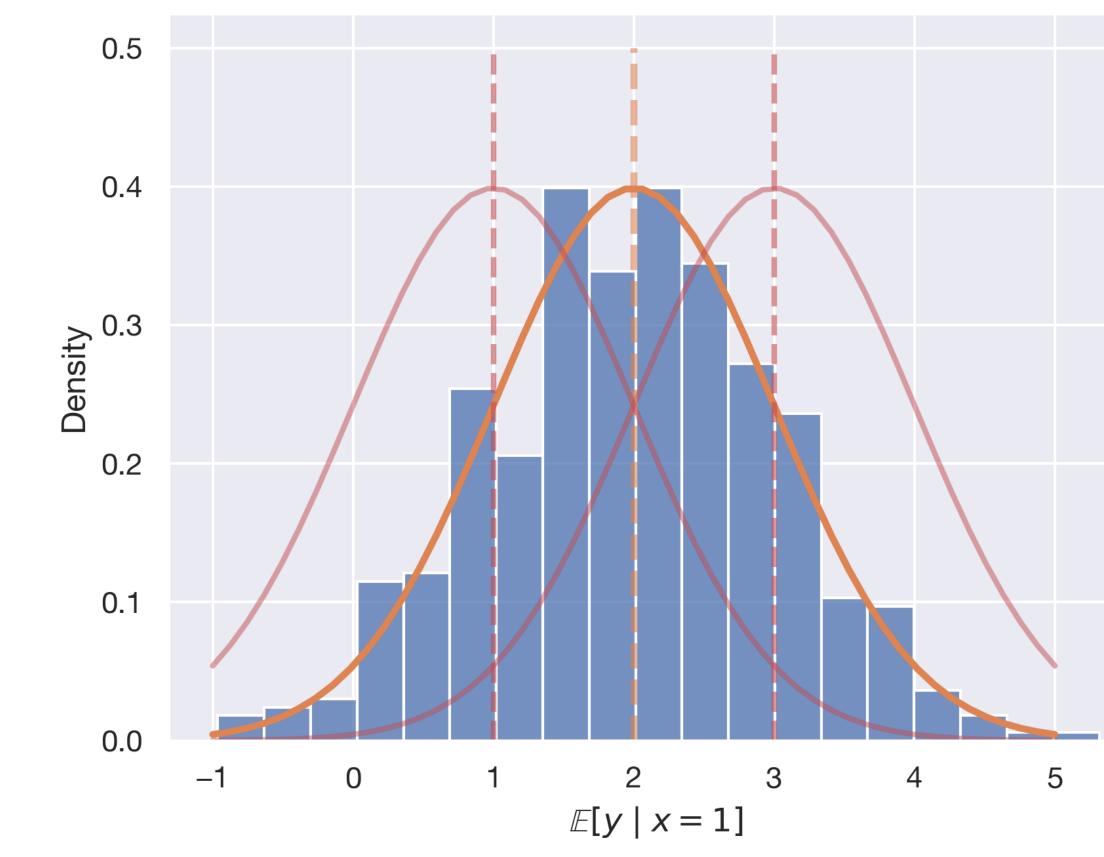
Central Limit Theorem, Distributions, and MLE Big Picture: Least Squares

We introduced the **Gaussian distribution**, and we motivated its importance by proving the **Central Limit Theorem**. The Gaussian distribution is just one of many "named distributions" that conveniently model common phenomena well.

When we have a guess at a **parametrized model** or **statistical model** generating our i.i.d. data $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \ldots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)$, an alternative perspective on our problem of finding a good model is **maximum likelihood estimation (MLE).**

This let us prove that, under the Gaussian error model, maximizing the likelihood for the conditional distribution $y \mid \mathbf{x}$ again gives us back the **OLS** estimator:

 $\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{MLE} = \arg \max L_n(\mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}$





Week 6.2 Multivariate Gaussian Distribution

Multivariate Gaussian Distribution Big Picture: Least Squares

We found that, under the Gaussian error model, the distribution of the OLS estimator *itself* is **multivariate Normal/Gaussian**.

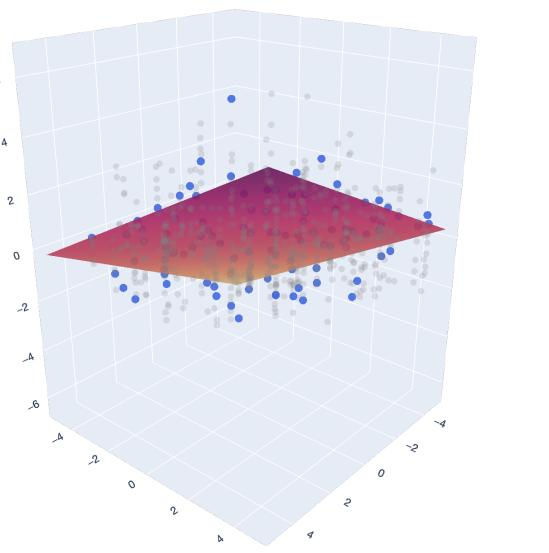
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} \sim N(\mathbf{w}^*, \sigma^2 (\mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X})^{-1})$$

This motivated our study for the MVN distribution, which had a couple of key properties:

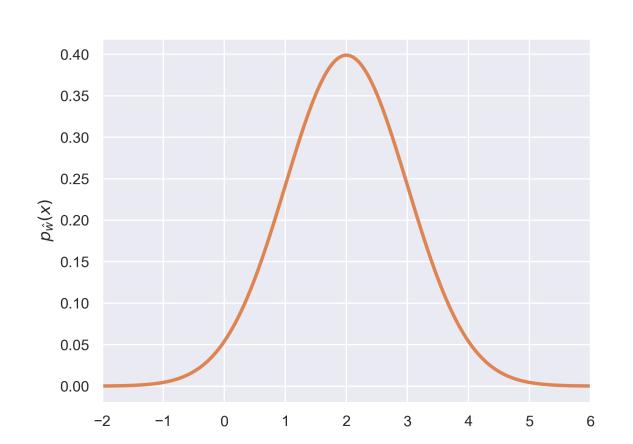
1. Factorization under diagonal covariance.

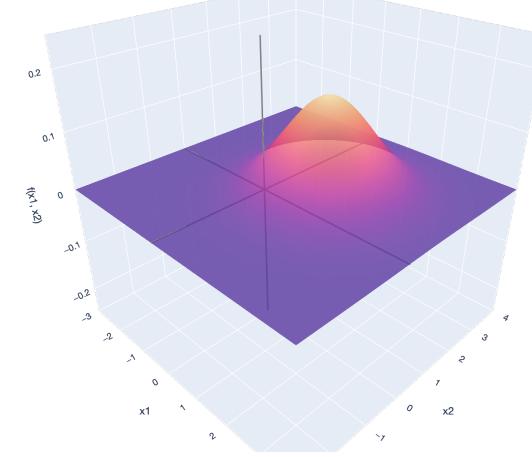
2. Ellipsoidal geometry from eigendecomposition.

3. Affine transformations bridge standard MVN and general MVN.



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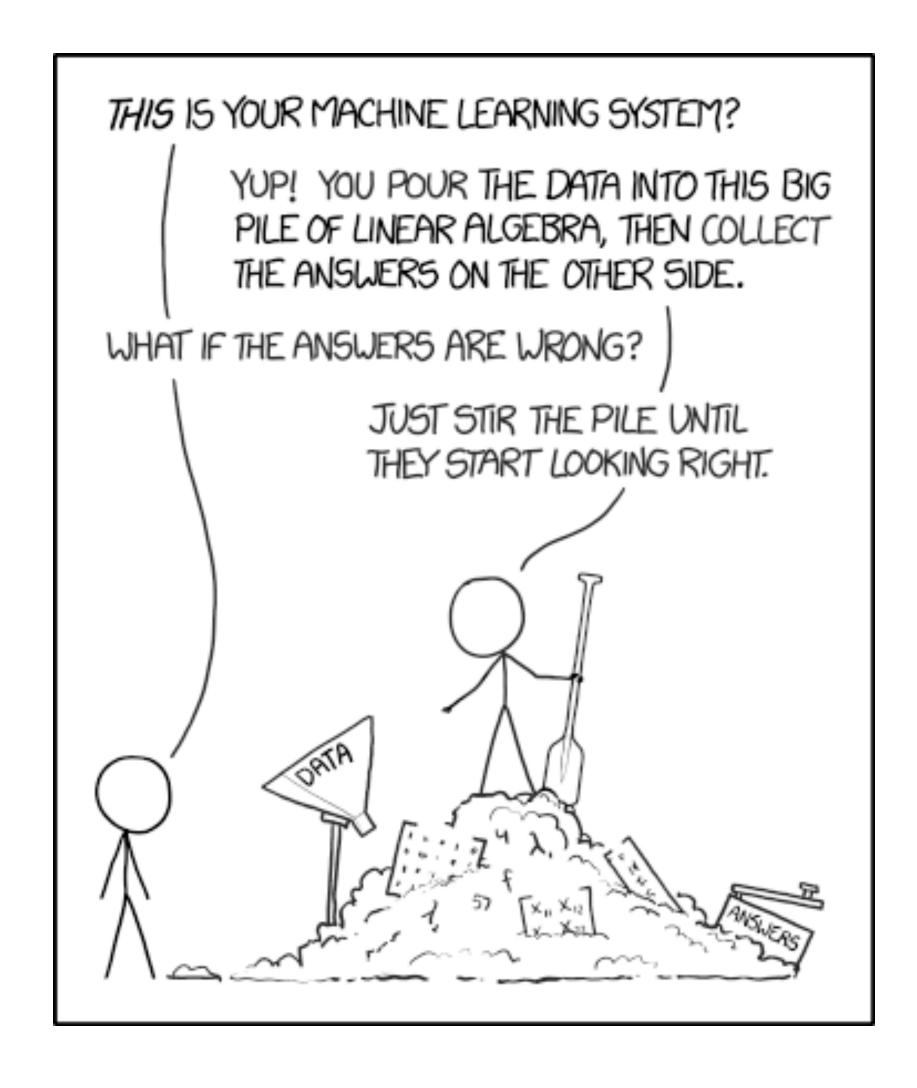


What about the rest of ML? OLS and GD as a "Home Base"

What about the rest of ML? OLS and GD as a "Home Base"

$\hat{\mathbf{w}} = (\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{X})^{-1}\mathbf{X}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}$

$\mathbf{w}_t \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_{t-1} - \eta \,\nabla f(\mathbf{w}_{t-1})$



Extension 1: Nonlinear Models Feature transformations

Nonlinear Models Feature Transformations

Now, consider the following nonlinear function, $\phi : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$

$$\phi(x_1, x_2) = (x_1^2, x_1x_2, x_2^2).$$

Because $\phi(\cdot, \cdot)$ takes inputs in \mathbb{R}^2 , we can feed it each row (sample) in our data matrix. This allows us to "transform" our data matrix to a new data matrix, $\mathbf{X}' \in \mathbb{R}^{5\times 3}$ by applying $\phi(\cdot, \cdot)$ row by row. By doing so, we are constructing 3 new features from the d = 2 old features.

Problem 4(e) [4 points] Find the transformed data matrix $\mathbf{X}' \in \mathbb{R}^{5\times 3}$ obtained by applying $\phi(\cdot, \cdot)$ to each of the 5 rows. Find $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ by least squares regression on \mathbf{X}' and the original \mathbf{y} . Also compute the sum of squared residuals error of your solution, $\operatorname{err}(\mathbf{w})$ (you should find that, now, $\operatorname{err}(\mathbf{w}) = 0$). You may use numpy or any other

It turns out that the true relationship between y_i and $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, x_{i2})$ for the data in (14) is actually:

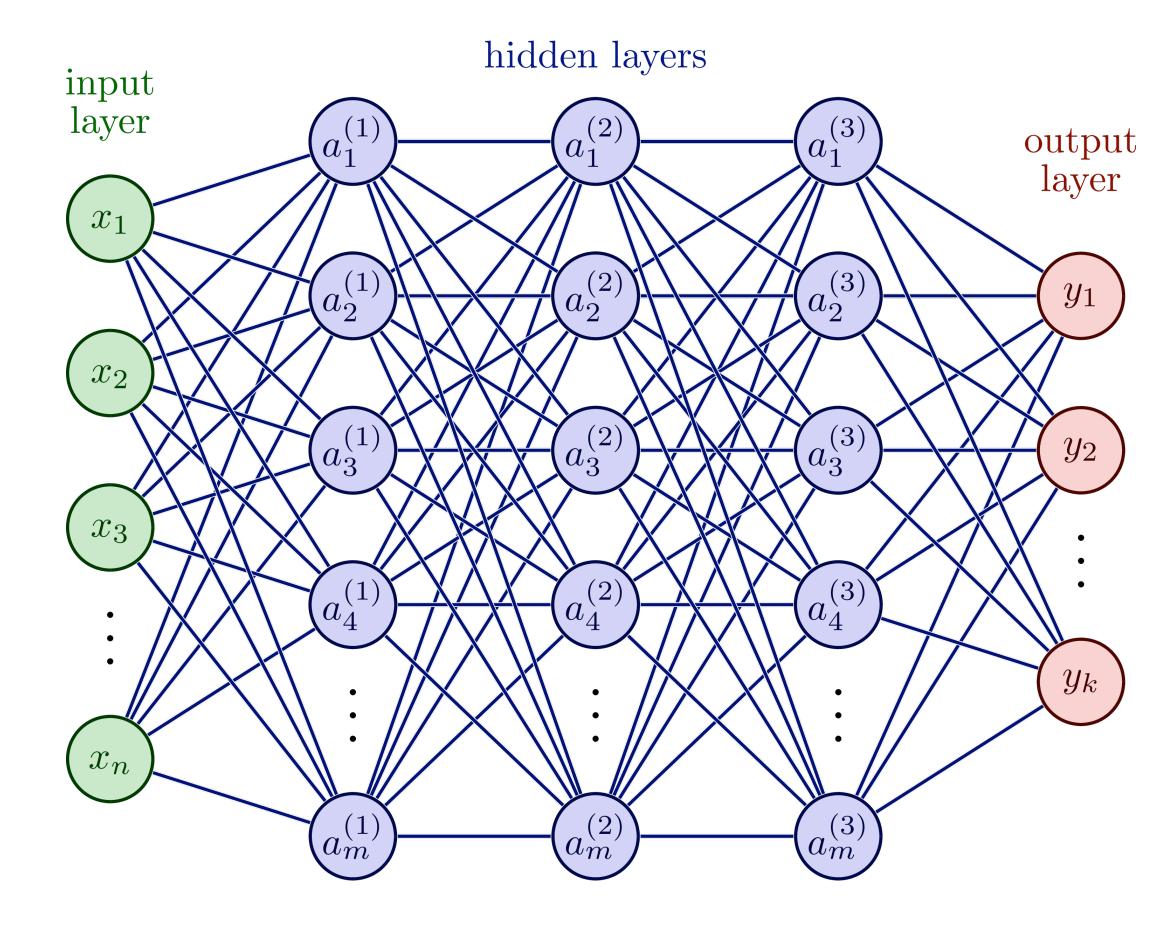
$$y_i = x_{i1}^2 + 2x_{i1}x_{i2} - x_{i2}^2$$
 for all $i \in [n]$. (16)

By finding the feature transformation $\phi(\cdot, \cdot)$ above, we turned a problem with a nonlinear relationship into a problem where a linear model is again useful (and, in fact, perfectly fits \mathbf{X}'). We are back in our ideal scenario in Equation (12), but there now exists some $\mathbf{w}^* \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that

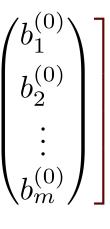
$$y_i = (\mathbf{w}^*)^\top \phi(\mathbf{x}_i).$$



Nonlinear Models Neural Networks



$$\begin{array}{c} a_{1}^{(0)} & w_{1,1} \\ w_{1,2} \\ a_{2}^{(0)} \\ w_{1,3} \\ a_{2}^{(0)} \\ w_{1,3} \\ a_{2}^{(1)} \\ w_{1,4} \\ a_{3}^{(1)} \\ a_{3}^{(0)} \\ w_{1,n} \\ a_{3}^{(1)} \\ a_{4}^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m}^{(1)} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m}^{($$



Extension 2: Loss Functions Beyond squared loss

Loss Functions Beyond Squared Loss

Extension 3: Algorithms Beyond gradient descent

Algorithms Beyond Gradient Descent

Extension 4: Learning Theory Other issues in generalization

Learning Theory Other issues in generalization

Thank you for listening! Hope you enjoyed the class :)

