



Matrix Calculations: Inner Products & Orthogonality

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Outline

Inner products and orthogonality

Orthogonalisation

Application: computational linguistics

Wrapping up





Length of a vector

- Each vector $\mathbf{v} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ has a **length** (aka. **norm**), written as $\|\mathbf{v}\|$
- This $\|\mathbf{v}\|$ is a non-negative real number: $\|\mathbf{v}\| \in \mathbb{R}, \|\mathbf{v}\| \geq 0$
- Some special cases:
 - $n = 1$: so $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}$, with $\|\mathbf{v}\| = |\mathbf{v}|$
 - $n = 2$: so $\mathbf{v} = (x_1, x_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and with Pythagoras:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 \quad \text{and thus} \quad \|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$$

- $n = 3$: so $\mathbf{v} = (x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ and also with Pythagoras:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 \quad \text{and thus} \quad \|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2}$$

- In general, for $\mathbf{v} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$$



Distance between points

- Assume now we have two vectors $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, written as:

$$\mathbf{v} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \quad \mathbf{w} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)$$

- What is the **distance** between the endpoints?
 - commonly written as $d(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w})$
 - again, $d(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w})$ is a non-negative real

- For $n = 2$,

$$d(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}) = \sqrt{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2} = \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\| = \|\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{v}\|$$

- This will be used also for other n , so:

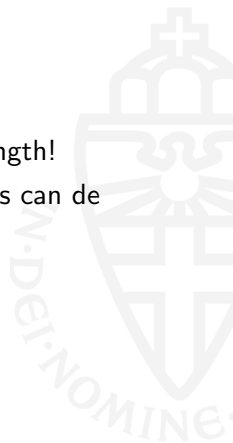
$$d(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|$$





Length is fundamental

- Distance can be obtained from length of vectors
- Interestingly, also **angles** can be obtained from length!
- Both length of vectors and angles between vectors can be derived from the notion of **inner product**





Inner product definition

Definition

For vectors $\mathbf{v} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $\mathbf{w} = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ define their **inner product** as the real number:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle &= x_1 y_1 + \dots + x_n y_n \\ &= \sum_{1 \leq i \leq n} x_i y_i\end{aligned}$$

Note: Length $\|\mathbf{v}\|$ can be expressed via inner product:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle, \quad \text{so} \quad \|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}.$$



Inner products via matrix transpose

Recall matrix transposition

For an $m \times n$ matrix A , the **transpose** A^T is the $n \times m$ matrix A obtained by mirroring in the diagonal:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ & \vdots & \\ a_{m1} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}^T = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{m1} \\ & \vdots & \\ a_{1n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}$$

The inner product of $\mathbf{v} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$, $\mathbf{w} = (y_1, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is then a matrix product:

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = x_1 y_1 + \cdots + x_n y_n = (x_1 \cdots x_n) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = \mathbf{v}^T \cdot \mathbf{w}.$$



Properties of the inner product

- ① The inner product is **symmetric** in \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} :

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$$

- ② It is **linear** in \mathbf{v} :

$$\langle \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{v}', \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}', \mathbf{w} \rangle$$

$$\langle a\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = a\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$$

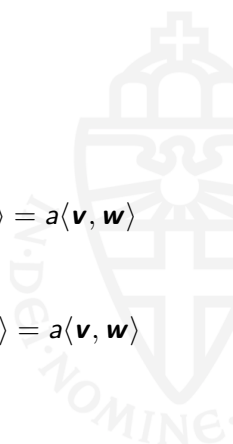
...and hence also in \mathbf{w} (by symmetry):

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{w}' \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}' \rangle$$

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, a\mathbf{w} \rangle = a\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$$

- ③ And it is **positive definite**:

$$\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0} \implies \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle > 0$$

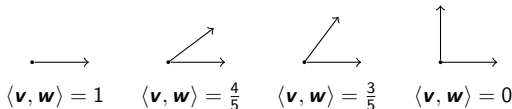




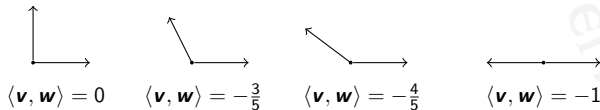
Inner products and angles, part I

For $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{w} = (1, 0)$, $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = 1$.

As we start to rotate \mathbf{w} , $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$ goes down until 0:



...and then goes to -1 :



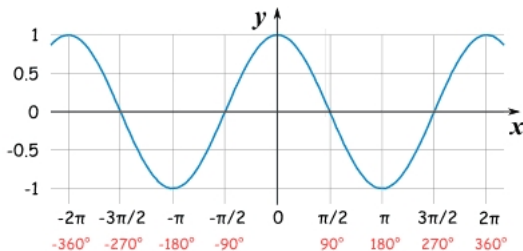
...then down to 0 again, then to 1, then repeats...





Cosine

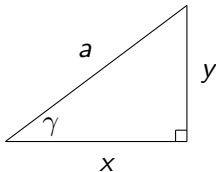
After a bit of staring, we see that $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$ depends on the **cosine of the angle** between \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} :



Let's prove it!



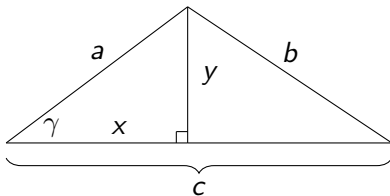
Recall: definition of cosine



$$\cos(\gamma) = \frac{x}{a} \quad \Rightarrow \quad x = a \cos(\gamma)$$



The cosine rule



Claim: $\cos(\gamma) = \frac{a^2 + b^2 - c^2}{2ab}$

Proof: We have three equations to play with:

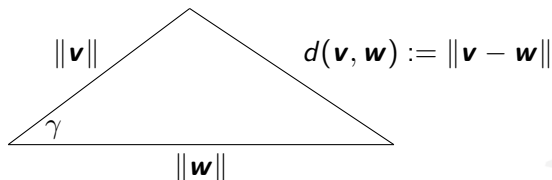
$$x^2 + y^2 = a^2 \quad (c - x)^2 + y^2 = b^2 \quad x = a \cos(\gamma)$$

...lets do the math. ☺



Inner products and angles, part II

Translating this to something about vectors:



gives:

$$\cos(\gamma) = \frac{\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|^2}{2\|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|}$$

Let's clean this up...





Inner products and angles, part II

Starting from the cosine rule:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \cos(\gamma) &= \frac{\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|^2}{2\|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|} \\
 &= \frac{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 + y_1^2 + \dots + y_n^2 - (x_1 - y_1)^2 - \dots - (x_n - y_n)^2}{2\|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|} \\
 &= \frac{2x_1y_1 + \dots + 2x_ny_n}{2\|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|} \\
 &= \frac{x_1y_1 + \dots + x_ny_n}{\|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|} \\
 &= \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|}
 \end{aligned}$$

remember this: $\cos(\gamma) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{v}\| \|\mathbf{w}\|}$

Thus, **angles** between vectors are expressible via the inner product (since $\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}$).



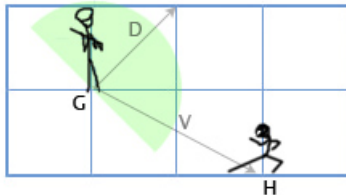
Linear algebra in gaming, part I

- Linear algebra plays an important role in game visualisation
- Here: simple illustration, borrowed from blog.wolfire.com
(More precisely: <http://blog.wolfire.com/2009/07/linear-algebra-for-game-developers-part-2>)
- Recall: cosine **cos** function is positive on angles between -90 and $+90$ degrees.



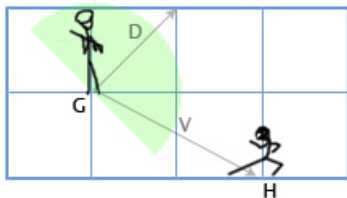
Linear algebra in gaming, part II

- Consider a **guard G** and **hiding ninja H** in:



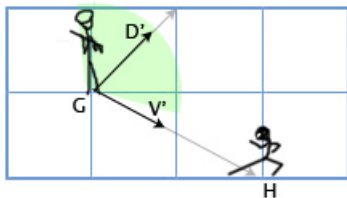
- The **guard** is at position $(1, 1)$, facing in direction $D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, with a 180 degree field of view
- The **ninja** is at $(3, 0)$. **Is he in sight?**

Linear algebra in gaming, part III



- The vector from \mathbf{G} to \mathbf{H} is: $\mathbf{V} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$
- The angle γ between \mathbf{D} and \mathbf{V} must be between -90 and $+90$
- Hence we must have: $\cos(\gamma) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{V} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{D}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{V}\|} \geq 0$
- Since $\|\mathbf{D}\| \geq 0$ and $\|\mathbf{V}\| \geq 0$, it suffices to have: $\langle \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{V} \rangle \geq 0$
- Well, $\langle \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{V} \rangle = 1 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot -1 = 1$. Hence \mathbf{H} is within sight!

Linear algebra in gaming, part IV



- Now what if the guard's field of view is 60 degrees?
- Inbetween -30 and $+30$ degrees we have $\cos(\gamma) \geq \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{3} \sim 0.87$
- The cosine of the actual angle γ between \mathbf{D} and \mathbf{V} is:

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(\gamma) &= \frac{\langle \mathbf{D}, \mathbf{V} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{D}\| \cdot \|\mathbf{V}\|} = \frac{1 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot -1}{\sqrt{1^2 + 1^2} \cdot \sqrt{2^2 + (-1)^2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{5}} \sim 0.31 < 0.87 \end{aligned}$$

- **H is now out of view!** (the angle $\gamma = \cos^{-1}(0.31) = 72$ degr.)



Orthogonality

Definition

Two vectors \mathbf{v} , \mathbf{w} are called **orthogonal** if $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = 0$. This is written as $\mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{w}$.

Explanation: orthogonality means that the cosine of the angle between the two vectors is 0; hence they are perpendicular.

Example

Which vectors $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$ are orthogonal to $(1, 1)$?

Examples, are $(1, -1)$ or $(-1, 1)$, or more generally $(x, -x)$.

This follows from an easy computation:

$$\langle (x, y), (1, 1) \rangle = 0 \iff x + y = 0 \iff y = -x.$$

Pythagoras law, via inner products

Theorem

For *orthogonal* vectors \mathbf{v} , \mathbf{w} ,

$$\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

Proof: If $\mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{w}$, that is, $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = 0$, then:

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|^2 &= \langle \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w} \rangle + \langle -\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle - \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle - \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle - 0 - 0 + \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{w} \rangle \\ &= \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2\end{aligned}$$





Orthogonality and independence

Lemma

Call a set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ of **non-zero** vectors *orthogonal* if they are pairwise orthogonal.

- 1 such an orthogonal collection consists of independent vectors
- 2 independent vectors need not be orthogonal.


Proof: The second point is easy: $(1, 1)$ and $(1, 0)$ are independent, but not orthogonal



Orthogonality and independence (cntd)

(Orthogonality \implies Independence): assume $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ is orthogonal and $a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{v}_n = \mathbf{0}$. Then for each $i \leq n$:

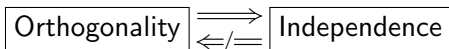
$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \langle \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle \\ &= \langle a_1\mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + a_n\mathbf{v}_n, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle \\ &= \langle a_1\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle + \dots + \langle a_n\mathbf{v}_n, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle \\ &= a_1\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle + \dots + a_n\langle \mathbf{v}_n, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle \\ &= a_i\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle \quad \text{since } \langle \mathbf{v}_j, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0 \text{ for } j \neq i \end{aligned}$$

But since $\mathbf{v}_i \neq \mathbf{0}$ we have $\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle \neq 0$, and thus $a_i = 0$. This holds for each i , so $a_1 = \dots = a_n = 0$, and we have proven independence. 

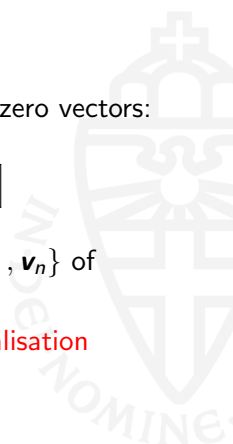


From independence to orthogonality

- We have seen that, for a set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ of non-zero vectors:



- But we can **transform** an independent set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ of vectors into an orthogonal set $\{\mathbf{v}'_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}'_n\}$.
- This procedure is called **Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation**





Making vectors orthogonal

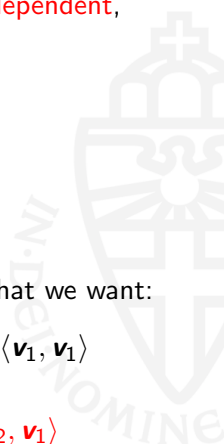
- Suppose we have two vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$ which are **independent**, but not **orthogonal**
- Then \mathbf{v}_2 has a “bit of \mathbf{v}_1 ” in it:

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = \lambda \mathbf{v}_1 + \underbrace{\dots\dots\dots}_{\text{stuff that is orthogonal to } \mathbf{v}_1}$$

- So lets take it out! Let $\mathbf{v}'_2 := \mathbf{v}_2 - \lambda \mathbf{v}_1$
- The only thing we need to do is find λ . Here's what we want:

$$0 = \langle \mathbf{v}'_2, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}_2 - \lambda \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle - \lambda \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle$$

$$\implies \lambda = \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle} \implies \mathbf{v}'_2 = \mathbf{v}_2 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_1$$





Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation: the idea

Start with an independent set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ of vectors.

Make them orthogonal one at a time:

$$\begin{aligned}\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} &\Rightarrow \{\mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} \\ &\Rightarrow \{\mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} \\ &\quad \dots \\ &\Rightarrow \{\mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}'_n\}\end{aligned}$$

...where each \mathbf{v}'_i depends only on \mathbf{v}_i and $\mathbf{v}'_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}'_{i-1}$, i.e. the **orthogonal vectors** we have made already.



Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation, part I

- 1 Starting point: independent set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ of vectors
- 2 Take $\mathbf{v}'_1 = \mathbf{v}_1$
- 3 Take $\mathbf{v}'_2 = \mathbf{v}_2 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}'_1$

This gives an orthogonal vector:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \mathbf{v}'_2, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle &= \langle \mathbf{v}_2 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle - \langle \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle - \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle} \langle \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle - \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$





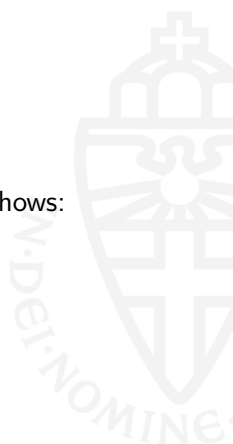
Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation, part II

4 Set $\mathbf{v}'_i = \mathbf{v}_i - \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}'_1 - \dots - \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}'_{i-1} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}'_{i-1}, \mathbf{v}'_{i-1} \rangle} \mathbf{v}'_{i-1}$

By essentially the same reasoning as before one shows:

$$\langle \mathbf{v}'_i, \mathbf{v}'_j \rangle = 0, \quad \text{for all } j < i.$$

5 Result: orthogonal set $\{\mathbf{v}'_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}'_n\}$.





Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation: example I

- Take $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1, -1)$ and $\mathbf{v}_2 = (2, 1)$ in \mathbb{R}^2 .
- Clearly not orthogonal! $\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle = 1$
- Lets fix that. Let $\mathbf{v}'_1 := \mathbf{v}_1$ and:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{v}'_2 &= \mathbf{v}_2 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}'_1 \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{3}{2} \\ \frac{3}{2} \end{pmatrix}\end{aligned}$$

- Bam! $\langle \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_2 \rangle = 0$





Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation: example II

- Take in \mathbb{R}^4 , $\mathbf{v}_1 = (0, 1, 2, 1)$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = (0, 1, 3, 1)$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = (1, 1, 1, 0)$
- $\mathbf{v}'_1 = \mathbf{v}_1 = (0, 1, 2, 1)$; then $\langle \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle = 1 \cdot 1 + 2 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot 1 = 6$.

- $$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{v}'_2 &= \mathbf{v}_2 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}'_1 \\ &= (0, 1, 3, 1) - \frac{1 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 2 + 1 \cdot 1}{6} (0, 1, 2, 1) \\ &= (0, 1, 3, 1) - \frac{8}{6} (0, 1, 2, 1) = (0, -\frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, -\frac{1}{3})\end{aligned}$$

We prefer to take: $\mathbf{v}'_2 = (0, -1, 1, -1)$; then $\langle \mathbf{v}'_2, \mathbf{v}'_2 \rangle = 3$.

- $$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{v}'_3 &= \mathbf{v}_3 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_3, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}'_1, \mathbf{v}'_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}'_1 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_3, \mathbf{v}'_2 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}'_2, \mathbf{v}'_2 \rangle} \mathbf{v}'_2 \\ &= \dots = (1, \frac{1}{2}, 0, -\frac{1}{2})\end{aligned}$$

We can change it into $\mathbf{v}'_3 = (2, 1, 0, -1)$, for convenience.



Orthogonal and orthonormal bases

Definition

A basis $B = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ of a vector space with an inner product is called:

- 1 **orthogonal** if B is an orthogonal set: $\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_j \rangle = 0$ if $i \neq j$
- 2 **orthonormal** if it is orthogonal and $\|\mathbf{v}_i\| = 1$, for each i

Example

The standard basis $(1, 0, \dots, 0), (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, (0, \dots, 0, 1)$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

By Gram-Schmidt each basis can be made orthogonal (first), and then orthonormal by replacing \mathbf{v}_i by $\frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}_i\|} \mathbf{v}_i$.



Computational linguistics

Computational linguistics = teaching computers to read

- **Example:** I have two words, and I want a program that tells me how “similar” the two words are, e.g.

nice + kind \Rightarrow 95% similar
dog + cat \Rightarrow 61% similar
dog + xylophone \Rightarrow 0.1% similar

- **Applications:** thesaurus, smart web search, translation, ...
- **Dumb solution:** ask a whole bunch of people to rate similarity and make a big database
- **Smart solution:** use *distributional semantics*



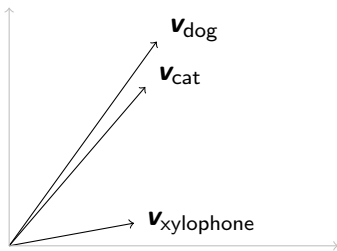
Meaning vectors

“You shall know a word by the company it keeps.”
– J. R. Firth

- Pick about 500-1000 words (\mathbf{v}_{cat} , \mathbf{v}_{boy} , $\mathbf{v}_{\text{sandwich}}$...) to act as “basis vectors”
- Build up a **meaning vector** for each word, e.g. “dog”, by scanning a **whole lot of text**
- Every time “dog” occurs within, say 200 words of a basis vector, add that basis vector. Soon we’ll have:

$$\mathbf{v}_{\text{dog}} = 2308198 \cdot \mathbf{v}_{\text{cat}} + 4291 \cdot \mathbf{v}_{\text{boy}} + 4 \cdot \mathbf{v}_{\text{sandwich}} + \dots$$

- Similar words cluster together:



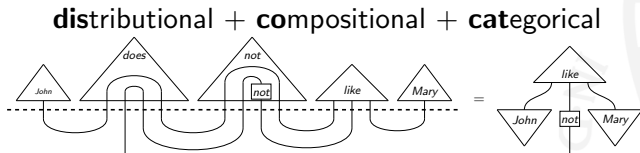
- ...while dissimilar words drift apart. We can measure this by:

$$\frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_{\text{dog}}, \mathbf{v}_{\text{cat}} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{v}_{\text{dog}}\| \|\mathbf{v}_{\text{cat}}\|} = 0.953 \quad \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_{\text{dog}}, \mathbf{v}_{\text{xylophone}} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{v}_{\text{dog}}\| \|\mathbf{v}_{\text{xylophone}}\|} = 0.001$$

- Search engines do something very similar. Learn more in the course on **Information Retrieval**.

Distributional Semantics

- This works very well, but also has weaknesses (e.g. meanings of whole sentences, ambiguous words)
- This can be improved by incorporating other kinds of semantics:

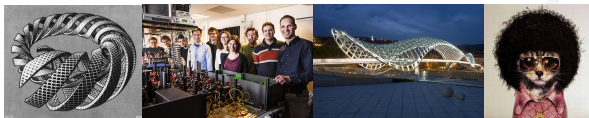


= **DisCoCat**



About linear algebra

- Linear algebra forms a coherent body of mathematics ...
- involving elementary algebraic and geometric notions
 - systems of equations and their solutions
 - vector spaces with bases and linear maps
 - matrices and their operations (product, inverse, determinant)
 - inner products and distance
- ... together with various **calculational techniques**
 - the most important/basic ones you learned in this course
 - they are used all over the place: mathematics, physics, engineering, linguistics...





About the exam, part I

- Closed book; no calculator / smart phone / ... allowed
- Questions are in line with exercises from assignments
- In principle, slides contain all necessary material
 - LNBS is background material
 - wikipedia also explains a lot
- Theorems, propositions, lemmas:
 - are needed to understand the theory
 - are needed to answer the questions
 - their proofs are not required for the exam (but do help understanding)
 - need *not* be reproducible literally
 - but help you to understand questions





About the exam, part II

Calculation rules (or formulas) must be **known by heart** for:

- 1 solving (non)homogeneous equations, echelon normal form
- 2 linearity, independence, matrix-vector multiplication, kernel & image
- 3 matrix multiplication & inverse, change-of-basis matrices
- 4 eigenvalues, eigenvectors and determinants
- 5 inner products, distance, length, angle, orthogonality, Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation

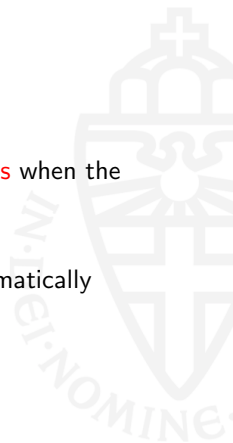
5 will be on the exam. Sample problems/solutions available on the website (see exercise page). Do these!

No final werkcollege. For questions: email your TA or ask at the vrageuur.



About the exam, part III

- Questions are formulated in English
 - you may choose to answer in Dutch or English (no other languages!)
- Give intermediate calculation results
 - just giving the outcome (say: 68) yields **no points** when the answer should be 67
- Write legibly, and explain what you are doing
 - giving explanations forces **yourself** to think systematically
 - mitigates calculation mistakes
- Perform checks yourself, whenever possible, e.g.
 - solutions of equations
 - inverses of matrices,
 - orthogonality of vectors, etc.





Finally ...

Practice, practice, practice!

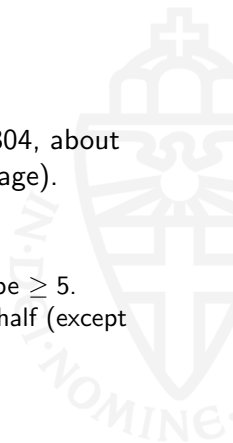
(so that you can rely on skills, not on luck)





Some practical issues (Spring 2016)

- Exam: Monday, April 4, 12:30–15:30 in HAL 2.
- **Vragenuur**: Friday April 1, 13:45-15.30 in HG00.304, about course material & old exam (will appear on webpage).
- How we compute the final grade g for the course
 - Your exam grade e , which should be ≥ 5 ,
 - Your average assignment grade a , which should be ≥ 5 .
 - We compute $e + \frac{a}{10}$ and round it to the nearest half (except 5.5).

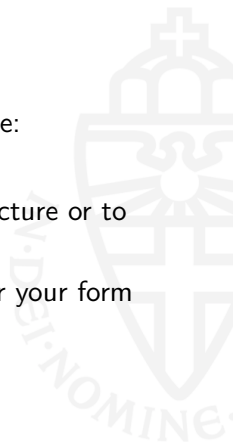




Some more practical issues (Spring 2016)

Students who do the exam for the **third** (or more) time:

- You should register 1 week before the exam.
- Bring your filled-in registration form (after this lecture or to my office: Mercator 1, 03.02) and I will sign it.
- Next, go to the student desk of FNWI and deliver your form





Final request

- Fill out the **enquete** form for *Matrixrekenen*, IPC017, when invited to do so.
- Any constructive feedback is highly appreciated.

And good luck with the preparation & exam itself!

Start now!

