Notation Crib Sheet

10-301/601 Introduction to Machine Learning Matthew R. Gormley

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Any proper introduction to machine learning will rely heavily on linear algebra, calculus, probability, statistics, geometry, and computer science. Consistent notation eases the adoption of these subfields. Here, we summarize the notation of this course.

1 Scalars, Vectors, Matrices

We write **scalars** as either lowercase letters $x, y, z, \alpha, \beta, \gamma$ or uppercase Latin letters N, M, T. The latter are typically used to indicate a **count** (e.g. number of examples, features, timesteps) and are often accompanied by a corresponding **index** n, m, t (e.g. current example, feature, timestep). **Vectors** are bold lowercase letters $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M]^T$ and are typically assumed to be *column* vectors—hence the transposed row vector in this example. When handwritten, a vector is indicated by an over-arrow $\vec{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M]^T$. **Matrices** are bold uppercase letters:

$$\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} U_{11} & U_{12} & \dots & U_{1m} \\ U_{21} & U_{22} & & & \\ \vdots & & \ddots & \vdots \\ U_{n1} & & \dots & U_{nm} \end{bmatrix}$$

As in the examples above, subscripts are used as **indices** into structured objects such as vectors or matrices.

2 Sets

We represent **sets** by caligraphic uppercase letters $\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{D}$. We often index a set by **labels** in parenthesized superscripts $\mathcal{S} = \{s^{(1)}, s^{(2)}, \dots, s^{(S)}\}$, where

 $S = |\mathcal{S}|$. We denote the same set as $\mathcal{S} = \{s^{(s)}\}_{s=1}^{S}$. This shorthand is convenient when defining a set of **training examples**:

$$\mathcal{D} = \{ (\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), (\mathbf{x}^{(2)}, y^{(2)}), \dots, (\mathbf{x}^{(N)}, y^{(N)}) \}$$

is equivalent to $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, y^{(n)})\}_{n=1}^{N}$.

3 Functions and Derivatives

Suppose we have a function f(x). We write its **partial derivative** with respect to x as $\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x}$ or $\frac{df(x)}{dx}$. We also denote its first derivative as f'(x), its second derivative as f''(x), and so on. For a multivariate function $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, \ldots, x_M)$, we write its **gradient** with respect to \mathbf{x} as $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})$ and may omit the subscript, i.e. $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$, when it is clear from context—it might not be for a gradient such as $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$.

We describe the **type of a function** as $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ if its domain is \mathcal{X} and its range is \mathcal{Y} . For example, the function $f(x_1, x_2, x_3) = (x_1 x_2)^2 + x_3 - 7$ has type $f: \mathbb{R}^3 \to \mathbb{R}$.

4 Random Variables

Random variables are also uppercase Latin letters X, Y, Z, but their use is typically apparent from context. When a random variable X_i and a scalar x_i are upper/lower-case versions of each other, we typically mean that the scalar is a **value** taken by the random variable.

When possible, we reserve Greek letters for parameters θ , ϕ or hyperparameters α , β , γ .

For a random variable X, we write $X \sim \text{Gaussian}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ to indicate that X follows a 1D Gaussian distribution with mean μ and variance σ^2 . We

¹Note that a more careful notation system would always use $\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x}$ for partial derivatives, since $\frac{\mathrm{d}f(x)}{\mathrm{d}x}$ is typically reserved for total derivatives. However, only partial derivatives make an appearance herein.

write $x \sim \text{Gaussian}(\mu, \sigma^2)$ to say that x is a value **sampled** from the same distribution.

A conditional probability distribution over random variable X given Y and Z is written P(X|Y,Z) and its probability mass function (pmf) or probability density function (pdf) is p(x|y,z). If the probability distribution has parameters α, β , we can write its pmf/pdf in at least three equivalent ways: (1) Statisticians prefer $p(x|y,z;\alpha,\beta)$ to clearly demarcate the parameters. (2) Graphical models experts prefer $p(x|y,z,\alpha,\beta)$ since said parameters are really just additional random variables. (3) Typographers save ink by writing $p_{\alpha,\beta}(x|y,z)$. To refer to this pmf/pdf as a function over possible values of a we would elide it as in $p_{\alpha,\beta}(\cdot|y,z)$. Using our \sim notation from above, we could then write that X follows the distribution $X \sim p_{\alpha,\beta}(\cdot|y,z)$ and x is a sample from it $x \sim p_{\alpha,\beta}(\cdot|y,z)$.

The **expectation** of a random variable X is $\mathbb{E}[X]$. When dealing with random quantities for which the generating distribution might not be clear we can denote it in the expectation. For example, $\mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\alpha,\beta}(\cdot|y,z)}[f(x,y,z)]$ is the expectation of f(x,y,z) for some function f where x is sampled from the distribution $p_{\alpha,\beta}(\cdot|y,z)$ and y and z are constant for the evaluation of this expectation.

5 Notation Cheat Sheet

The table below lists additional common conventions we follow:

Notation	Description
\overline{N}	number of training examples
M	number of feature types
K	number of classes
n or i	current training example
m	current feature type
k	current class
$\mathbb Z$	set of integers
\mathbb{R}	set of reals
\mathbb{R}^M	set of real-valued vectors of length M
$\{0,1\}^{M}$	set of binary vectors of length M

- \mathbf{x} feature vector (input) where $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_M]^T$; typically $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^M$ or $\mathbf{x} \in \{0, 1\}^M$
- y label / regressand (output); for classification $y \in \{1, 2, ..., K\}$; for binary classification $y \in \{0, 1\}$ or $y \in \{+1, -1\}$; for regression, $y \in \mathbb{R}$
- $\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}$ the *i*th feature vector in the training data
- $y^{(i)}$ the *i*th true output in the training data
- $x_m^{(i)}$ the mth feature of the ith feature vector
- $(\boldsymbol{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$ the *i*th training example (feature vector, true output)
 - \mathcal{D} set of training examples; for supervised learning $\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}, y^{(n)})\}_{n=1}^{N}$; for unsupervised learning $\mathcal{D} = \{\boldsymbol{x}^{(n)}\}_{n=1}^{N}$
 - **X** design matrix; the *i*th row contains to the features of the *i*th training example $\mathbf{x}^{(i)}$; i.e the *i*th row contains $x_1^{(i)}, \ldots, x_M^{(i)}$
- X_1, \ldots, X_M random variables corresponding to feature vector \mathbf{x} ; (note: we generally avoid defining a vector-valued random variable $\mathbf{X} = [X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_M]^T$ so that \mathbf{X} is not overloaded with the design matrix)
 - Y random variable corresponding to predicted class y
- $P(Y = y | \mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$ probability of random variable Y taking value y given that random variable X takes value x
 - $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ shorthand for $P(Y = y|\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x})$
 - $oldsymbol{ heta}$ model parameters
 - w model parameters (but less frequently used here)
 - $\ell(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ log-likelihood of the data; depending on context, this might alternatively be the log-conditional likelihood or log-marginal likelihood
 - $J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ objective function
 - $J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ example *i*'s contribution to the objective function; typically $J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$
 - $\nabla J(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ gradient of the objective function with respect to model parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$
 - $\nabla J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ gradient of $J^{(i)}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ with respect to model parameters $\boldsymbol{\theta}$

$\hat{\mathcal{H}}$ \hat{y} $\ell(\hat{y}, y)$ $p^*(\mathbf{x}, y)$	
Z_1,\ldots,Z_C \mathbf{y} Y_1,\ldots,Y_C	Values of unknown variables (latent) random variables (latent) corresponding to z predicted structure (output) for structured prediction random variables corresponding to predicted structure y