INFR10086 Machine Learning (MLG)

Semester 2, 2023/4

Analytic Geometry

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Definition 1. A vector is an element in \mathbb{R}^d that consists of d coordinates. For a vector x, we write its d coordinates as (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_d) .

Definition 2. The multiplication of a vector x by a scalar $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and the addition of two vectors u and v are defined as

•
$$ax = (ax_1, ax_2, \ldots, ax_d)$$

•
$$u + v = (u_1 + v_1, \dots, u_d + v_d)$$

• The notation u - v is a more convenient way of writing u + (-1)v.

Definition 3. The dot product between two vectors u and v is defined as

$$u^{\top}v = u_1v_1 + \dots + u_dv_d = \sum_{i=1}^d u_iv_i.$$
 (1)

Example 1. The dot product satisfies the following properties.

- bilinearity
 - $(au)^{\top}v = a(u^{\top}v) = u^{\top}(av)$ for any two vectors u and v and a scalar $a \in \mathbb{R}$.
 - $(u+v)^{\top}w = u^{\top}w + v^{\top}w$ for any three vectors u, v, and w.
 - $-w^{\top}(u+v) = w^{\top}u + w^{\top}v$ for any three vectors u, v, and w.
- commutativity
 - $u^{\top}v = v^{\top}u$ for any two vectors u and v.
- These properties defines a inner product. We can show that dot product satisfies all the above properties and, hence, is an inner product.
- The inner product of u and v is written as $\langle u, v \rangle$. The notation $u^{\top}v$ is only for the dot product.
- The proofs of these properties are left as exercises.

Definition 4. The ℓ_2 norm of a vector v is defined as

$$|v||_2 = \sqrt{v^\top v} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + \dots + v_d^2}.$$
 (2)

• There are other norms. For example, the ℓ_1 norm $||v||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^d |v_i|$.

Example 2. In a two-dimensional space, a vector $x = (x_1, x_2)$ has an ℓ_2 norm $||x||_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$. Intuitively, the ℓ_2 norm is the length of a vector, and this is true even in *d*-dimensional spaces.

Example 3. The ℓ_2 norm satisfies the following properties

- nonnegativity
 - $||u|| \ge 0$ for any vector u.
- ||au|| = |a|||u|| for any scalar $a \in \mathbb{R}$ and a vector u
- ||u|| = 0 only if the vector u is 0.
- triangle inequality
 - $\|u\| + \|v\| \ge \|u + v\|$ for any two vectors u and v.
- These properties defines a norm, so the subscript 2 is intentionally left out. We can show that the ℓ_2 norm satisfies the above properties and, hence, is a norm.
- In fact, if we have an inner product, we can show that $\sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$ is a norm. We can conveniently write $||x|| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$.
- The proofs of these properties are left as exercises.

Example 4. Show that

$$|u+v||_2^2 = ||u||_2^2 + 2u^{\top}v + ||v||_2^2.$$

(3)

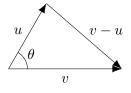
$$\begin{aligned} \|u+v\|_{2}^{2} &= (u+v)^{\top}(u+v) & \text{definition of } \ell_{2} \text{ norm} \end{aligned} \tag{4} \\ &= (u+v)^{\top}u + (u+v)^{\top}v & \text{bilinearity} \\ &= u^{\top}u + v^{\top}u + u^{\top}v + v^{\top}v & \text{bilinearity} \\ &= \|u\|_{2}^{2} + 2u^{\top}v + \|v\|_{2}^{2} & \text{commutativity and definition of } \ell_{2} \text{ norm} \end{aligned} \tag{5}$$

Example 5. Show that $v/||v||_2$ has an ℓ_2 norm of 1 for any vector $v \neq 0$.

$$\left\|\frac{v}{\|v\|_2}\right\|_2 = \frac{1}{\|v\|_2} \|v\|_2 = 1.$$
(8)

Example 6. If two vectors u and v have an angle θ between them, show that

$$\cos \theta = \frac{u^{\top} v}{\|u\|_2 \|v\|_2}.$$
(9)



Based on the law of cosine (the figure above), we have

$$\|v - u\|_{2}^{2} = \|u\|_{2}^{2} + \|v\|_{2}^{2} - 2\|u\|_{2}\|v\|_{2}\cos\theta.$$
(10)

We can expand the left hand side into

$$\|v - u\|_{2}^{2} = \|v\|_{2}^{2} - 2u^{\top}v + \|u\|_{2}^{2}.$$
(11)

By comparing the two equations, we have the desired result.

Example 7. Show that

$$|\langle u, v \rangle| \le ||u|| ||v||. \tag{12}$$

This is known as the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality.

• The strategy of the proof is to complete the square.

$$||u||^{2}||v||^{2} - (\langle u, v \rangle)^{2} = ||u||^{2} \left(||v||^{2} - \frac{(\langle u, v \rangle)(\langle u, v \rangle)}{||u||^{2}} \right)$$
(13)

$$= \|u\|^{2} \left[\|v\|^{2} - 2\left\langle \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|u\|^{2}} u, v \right\rangle + \left\langle \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|u\|^{2}} u, \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|u\|^{2}} u \right\rangle \right]$$
(14)

$$= \|u\|^2 \left\| v - \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|u\|^2} u \right\|^2 \ge 0 \tag{15}$$

• The proof might seem ingenious, but there is actually a geometric interpretation that we will see later.

Example 8. Show that

$$-1 \le \frac{u^{\top} v}{\|u\|_2 \|v\|_2} \le 1 \tag{16}$$

when both u and v are not 0.

• By Cauchy–Schwarz, $(u^{\top}v)^2 \leq ||u||_2^2 ||v||_2^2$ implies

$$\left(\frac{u^{\top}v}{\|u\|_{2}\|v\|_{2}}\right)^{2} \le 1.$$
(17)

Definition 5. A line is a set of points $\{x : x = u + tv \text{ for } t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ for any vector u and vector $v \neq 0$.

• Think of a line as shooting a ray along the direction of v from the point u.

Example 9. In two dimensions, a line consists of points (x, y) that satisfies

$$\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix} + t \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$
 (18)

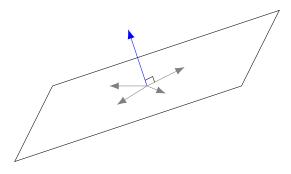
If we write

$$y = u_2 + tv_2 = u_2 + \frac{x - u_1}{v_1}v_2 = \underbrace{\frac{v_2}{v_1}}_{a}x + \underbrace{\left(u_2 - \frac{v_2}{v_1}\right)}_{b},\tag{19}$$

we have y = ax + b, the familiar way of writing a line in 2D.

Definition 6. A plane is a set of points $\{x : v^{\top}(x-u) = 0\}$ for any vector u and vector $v \neq 0$.

The vector v is the normal vector perpendicular to the plane, and u is a shift from the origin.



Example 10. In three dimensions, a plane consists of points (x, y, z) that satisfies

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix}^\top \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} = 0.$$
 (20)

If we write

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{pmatrix}^{\top} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ u_3 \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{v_1}_a x + \underbrace{v_2}_b y + \underbrace{v_3}_c z + \underbrace{(-v_1u_1 - v_2u_2 - v_3u_3)}_d = 0,$$
(21)

we get ax+by+cz+d = 0, the familiar way of writing a plane in 3D. Note that $(a, b, c) = (v_1, v_2, v_3)$ is the normal vector.

Example 11. Show that points that satisfies $y = w^{\top}x + b$, where $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$, forms a plane.

We can rewrite $y = w^{\top}x + b$ as

$$\begin{pmatrix} w \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}^{\top} \left(\begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ b \end{pmatrix} \right) = 0.$$
(22)

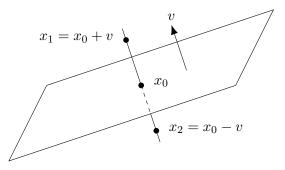
The points $(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ form a plane, with a normal vector $(w, -1) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$ and a shift $(0, b) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$.

Example 12. Show that u is on the plane $\{x : v^{\top}(x-u) = 0\}$.

The point u is on the plane because $v^{\top}(u-u) = 0$.

Example 13. Show that points $\{x : v^{\top}(x-u) > 0\}$ and $\{x : v^{\top}(x-u) < 0\}$ belong to two sides of the plane $\{x : v^{\top}(x-u) = 0\}$.

• To get to either side of the plane, we first start from a point x_0 on the plane and move along the line parallel the normal vector v.

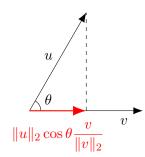


The fact that x_0 is on the plane means that $v^{\top}(x_0 - u) = 0$. The new point $x_0 + tv$ would satisfy

$$v^{\top}((x_0 + tv) - u) = v^{\top}(x_0 - u) + t \|v\|_2^2 = t \|v\|_2^2.$$
(23)

The above expression is positive if t > 0. All points with t > 0 are on one side of the plane and, by the above, satisfy $\{x : v^{\top}(x-u) > 0\}$. Similarly, all points with t < 0 are on the other side of the plane, satisfying $\{x : v^{\top}(x-u) < 0\}$. • Points are one side of a plane constitute a halfspace.

Definition 7. The vector $||u||_2 \cos \theta \frac{v}{||v||_2}$ is a projection of u on v, where u and v has an angle θ .



Projection is the act of casting a shadow. It's not hard to see that $|||u||_2 \cos \theta$ is the length of u projected on v. To give it a direction, we multiply $||u||_2 \cos \theta$ by $v/||v||_2$. Note that $v/||v||_2$ offers a direction and has an ℓ_2 norm of 1.

Example 14. The projection of u on v is $\frac{u^{\top}v}{\|v\|_2} \frac{v}{\|v\|_2}.$ (24)

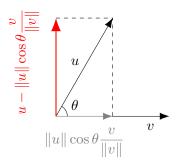
$$\|u\|_{2}\cos\theta\frac{v}{\|v\|_{2}} = \|u\|_{2}\frac{u^{\top}v}{\|u\|_{2}\|v\|_{2}}\frac{v}{\|v\|_{2}}\frac{v}{\|v\|_{2}} = \frac{u^{\top}v}{\|v\|}\frac{v}{\|v\|}$$
(25)

Example 15. The vector

$$u - \frac{u^{\top}v}{\|v\|_2} \frac{v}{\|v\|_2}$$
(26)

is perpendicular to the projection of u on v.

• Intuitively, we have the figure below.



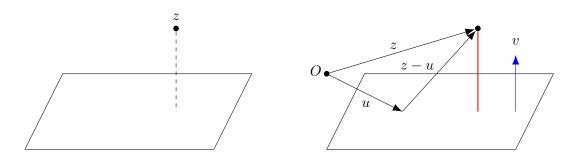
We can verify this algebraically.

$$\left(\frac{u^{\top}v}{\|v\|_2}\frac{v}{\|v\|_2}\right)^{\top} \left(u - \frac{u^{\top}v}{\|v\|_2}\frac{v}{\|v\|_2}\right) = \left(\frac{u^{\top}v}{\|v\|_2}\right)^2 - \left(\frac{u^{\top}v}{\|v\|_2}\right)^2 = 0$$
(27)

• The perpendicular part is the term that appears in the proof of Cauchy–Schwarz. In other words, the proof Cauchy–Schwarz requires that the perpendicular part has a non-zero norm, and this is true as any norm of a vector is non-zero.

Example 16. The distance between a point z and a plane $\{x : v^{\top}(x-u) = 0\}$ is $\frac{|v^{\top}(z-u)|}{\|v\|_2}.$ (28)

• The strategy is to project z - u on the normal vector v. Note the shift u.



• The projection of z - u on v is

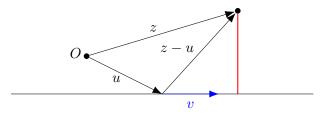
$$\frac{v^{\top}(z-u)}{\|v\|_2} \frac{v}{\|v\|_2}.$$
(29)

The norm of this vector is

$$\frac{|v^{\top}(z-u)|}{\|v\|_2}.$$
(30)

Example 17. The distance between a point z and a line $\{x : x = u + tv \text{ for any } t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is $\left\| (z - u) - \frac{v^{\top}(z - u)}{\|v\|_2} \frac{v}{\|v\|_2} \right\|_2.$ (31)

• The strategy is to project z - u on the line, i.e., the vector v, and to get the perpendicular part.



• The perpendicular part after the projection is

$$(z-u) - \frac{v^{\top}(z-u)}{\|v\|_2} \frac{v}{\|v\|_2}.$$
(32)

The distance is the length of that vector, i.e.,

$$\left\| (z-u) - \frac{v^{\top}(z-u)}{\|v\|_2} \frac{v}{\|v\|_2} \right\|_2.$$
(33)