

Linear algebra: Review

Equation of a 2D line

Implicit form

Paramteric form of 2D Line

Matplotlib

```
In [13]: # Plot a line  $ax + by + c = 0$ 
# a, b, c = 2.5, -1, -5 # pick numbers by hand

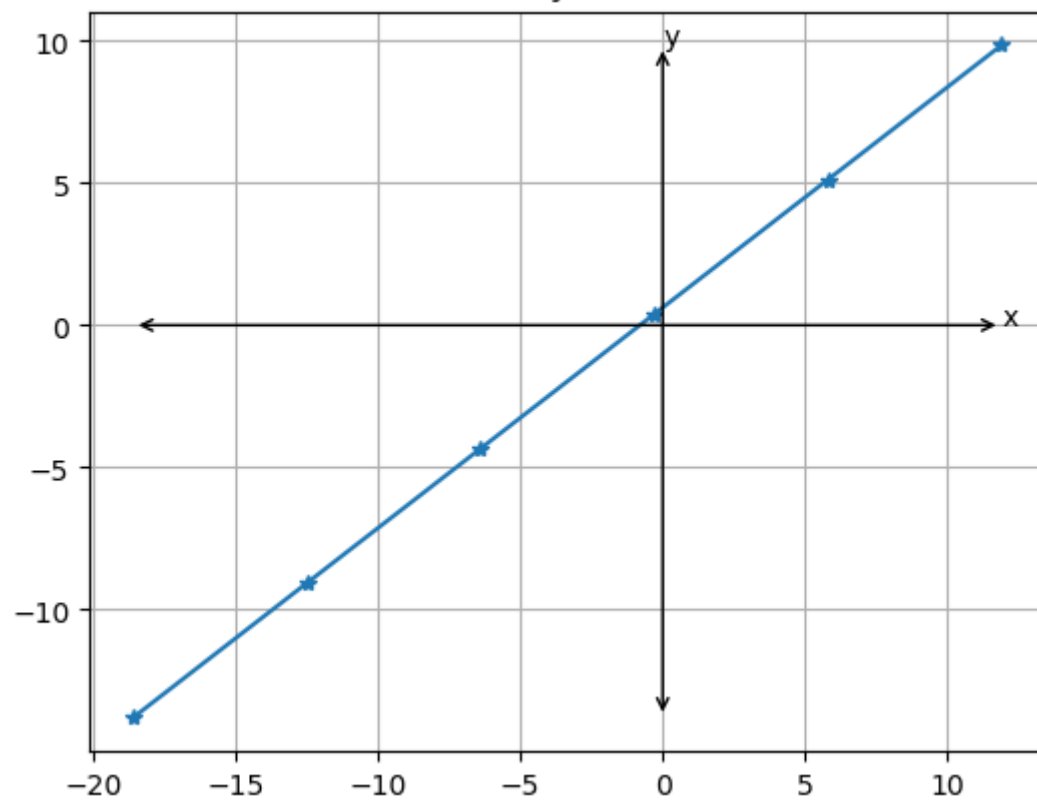
# pick a, b, c at random
import random
scale = 10
a, b, c = [scale*(random.random()-0.5) for _ in range(3)] # random numbers

# Generate some sample points on a line
x, y = points_on_line(a, b, c, scale=scale)

# Plot the points
fig, ax = plt.subplots()
stylizeax(ax, (min(x), max(x), min(y), max(y)))
ax.plot(x, y, '*-') # the line
ax.set_title(f'{a:.1f}x{b:+.1f}y{c:+.1f} = 0') # print the equation
```

```
Out[13]: Text(0.5, 1.0, '2.8x-3.7y+2.3 = 0')
```

$$2.8x - 3.7y + 2.3 = 0$$



Vectors

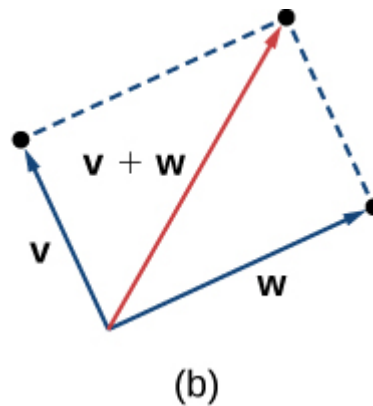
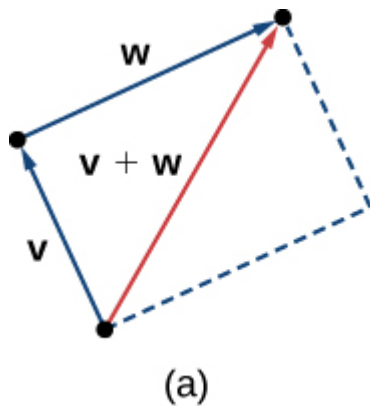
n-D vector

Vector addition

Vector addition is element-wise addition

$$\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 + w_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n + w_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Geometrically the resulting vector can be obtained by triangle law or the parallelogram law.



Reference: [\[1\]](#)

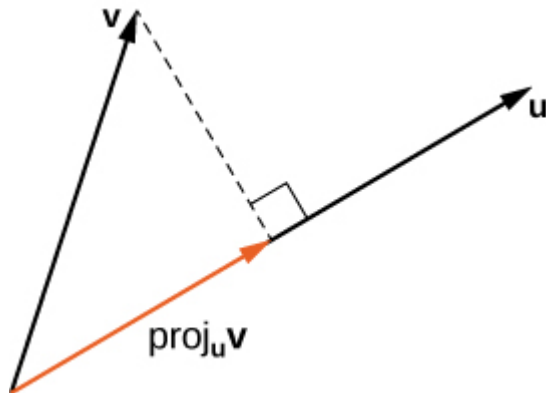
Dot product of vectors

Dot product of two vectors is a scalar given by sum of element-wise product.

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix} = v_1 u_1 + v_2 u_2 + \cdots + v_n u_n$$

Geometrically, dot product is closely related to the projection. Projection of vector \mathbf{v} on \mathbf{u} is the dot product of \mathbf{v} with the direction of \mathbf{u}

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{u}}$$



Dot product of vector with itself gives the square of the magnitude $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$.

Reference: [\[2\]](#)

Matrices

Transpose of a Matrix

Tranpose of a column vector

Matrix-vector product

Matrix-matrix product

Identity matrix

$$\mathbf{I}_n = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Square matrix

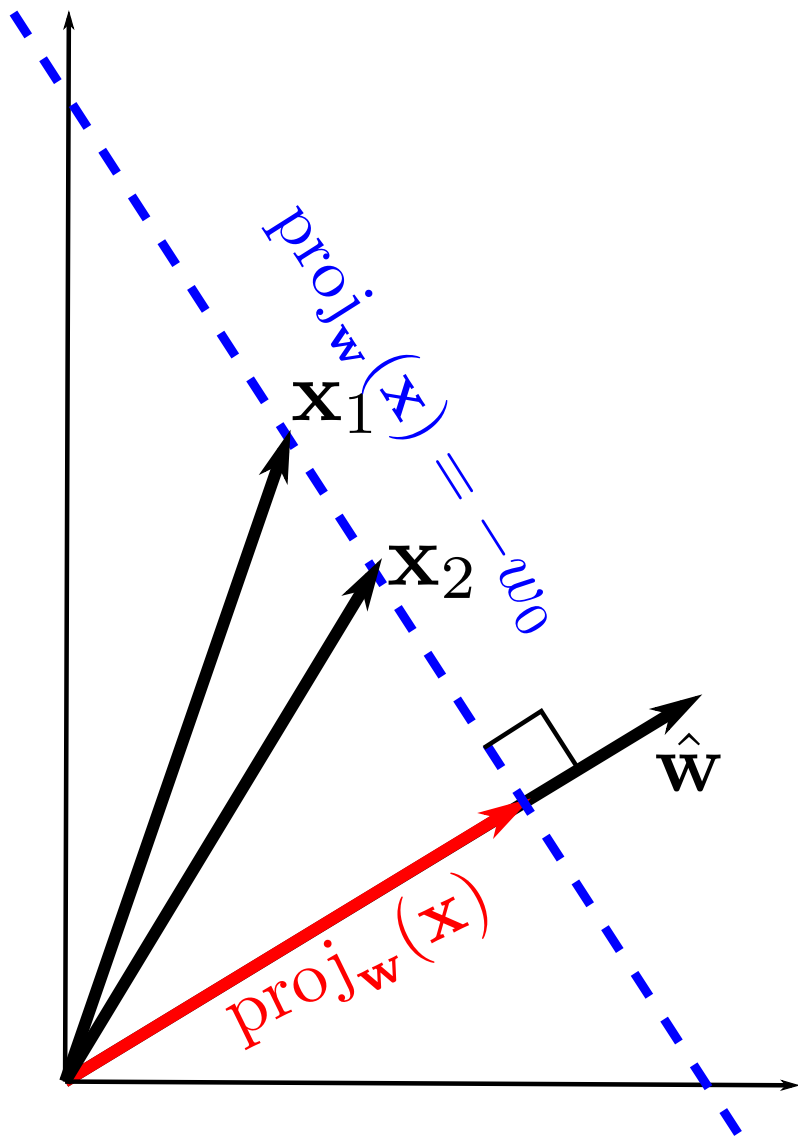
A square matrix is a matrix with number of rows equal to the number of columns.

Inverse of a square matrix

A matrix \mathbf{V}^{-1} is called the inverse of a square matrix \mathbf{V} if $\mathbf{V}^{-1}\mathbf{V} = \mathbf{V}^{-1} = \mathbf{I}_n$. The inverse of a square matrix exists only when it is singular i.e the determinant of the matrix is non-zero $\det(\mathbf{V}) \neq 0$.

Using vectors for 2D line
notation

Geometric interpretaion



In [14]: `import numpy as np` # a vector algebra library

```
a = np.array([0, 1, 2, 3]) # a vector
print("a=", a)
b = np.array([4, 5, 6, 7]) # another vector
print("b=", b)
C = np.array([[0, 1, 2, 3],
              [4, 5, 6, 7]]) # A matrix
print("C=", C)
D = np.zeros((2, 4)) # a 2x4 matrix of zeros
print("D=", D)
E = np.random.rand(2,5) # Random 2x5 matrix of numbers between 0 and 1
print("E=", E)
```

```
a= [0 1 2 3]
b= [4 5 6 7]
C= [[0 1 2 3]
     [4 5 6 7]]
D= [[0. 0. 0. 0.]
     [0. 0. 0. 0.]]
E= [[0.24267745 0.34908614 0.31547851 0.15059988 0.17537179]
     [0.60868919 0.31716426 0.10530595 0.53841394 0.49799488]]
```

```
In [15]: print("a*0.1 = ", a * 0.1) # element-wise multiplication
print("C*0.2 = ", C * 0.2) # element-wise multiplication
print("a*b = ", a * b) # element-wise multiplication (Note: different
print("a*b*0.2 = ", a * b * 0.2) # element-wise multiplication
print("C @ a = ", C @ a) # matrix-vector product
print("C.T = ", C.T) # matrix transpose
print("C.T @ D = ", C.T @ D) # matrix-matrix product
print("a * C = ", a * C) # so called broadcasting; numpy specific
```

```
a*0.1 = [0.  0.1 0.2 0.3]
C*0.2 = [[0.  0.2 0.4 0.6]
 [0.8 1.  1.2 1.4]]
a*b = [ 0  5 12 21]
a*b*0.2 = [0.  1.  2.4 4.2]
C @ a = [14 38]
C.T = [[0 4]
 [1 5]
 [2 6]
 [3 7]]
C.T @ D = [[0. 0. 0. 0.]
 [0. 0. 0. 0.]
 [0. 0. 0. 0.]
 [0. 0. 0. 0.]]
a * C = [[ 0  1  4  9]
 [ 0  5 12 21]]
```

Numpy: General Broadcasting Rules

When operating on two arrays, NumPy compares their shapes element-wise. It starts with the trailing (i.e. rightmost) dimension and works its way left. Two dimensions are compatible when

1. they are equal, or
2. one of them is 1.

Otherwise a `ValueError` is raised

Ref: <https://numpy.org/doc/stable/user/basics.broadcasting.html>

In the following example, both the A and B arrays have axes with length one that are expanded to a larger size during the broadcast operation:

```
A      (4d array):  8 x 1 x 6 x 1
B      (3d array):   7 x 1 x 5
Result (4d array):  8 x 7 x 6 x 5
```

```
In [16]: A = np.random.rand(8, 1, 6, 1)
          B = np.random.rand(7, 1, 5)
          (A * B).shape # Returns the shape of the multi dimensional array
```

```
Out[16]: (8, 7, 6, 5)
```

Here are some more examples:

```
A      (2d array): 5 x 4
B      (1d array): 1
Result (2d array): ?
```

```
A      (2d array): 5 x 4
B      (1d array): 4
Result (2d array): ?
```

```
A      (3d array): 15 x 3 x 5
B      (3d array): 15 x 1 x 5
Result (3d array):
```

```
A      (3d array): 15 x 3 x 5
B      (2d array): 3 x 5
Result (3d array): ?
```

```
A      (3d array): 15 x 3 x 5
B      (2d array): 3 x 1
Result (3d array): ?
```

Linear regression: review

Let's take the simple linear regression example from STS332 textbook (uploaded on brightspace; page 300; Table 6-1).

"As an illustration, consider the data in Table 6-1. In this table, y is the salt concentration (milligrams/liter) found in surface streams in a particular watershed and x is the percentage of the watershed area consisting of paved roads."

In [19]: %%writefile saltconcentration.tsv

<i>#Observation</i>	<i>SaltConcentration</i>	<i>RoadwayArea</i>
1	3.8	0.19
2	5.9	0.15
3	14.1	0.57
4	10.4	0.4
5	14.6	0.7
6	14.5	0.67
7	15.1	0.63
8	11.9	0.47
9	15.5	0.75
10	9.3	0.6
11	15.6	0.78
12	20.8	0.81
13	14.6	0.78
14	16.6	0.69
15	25.6	1.3
16	20.9	1.05
17	29.9	1.52
18	19.6	1.06
19	31.3	1.74
20	32.7	1.62

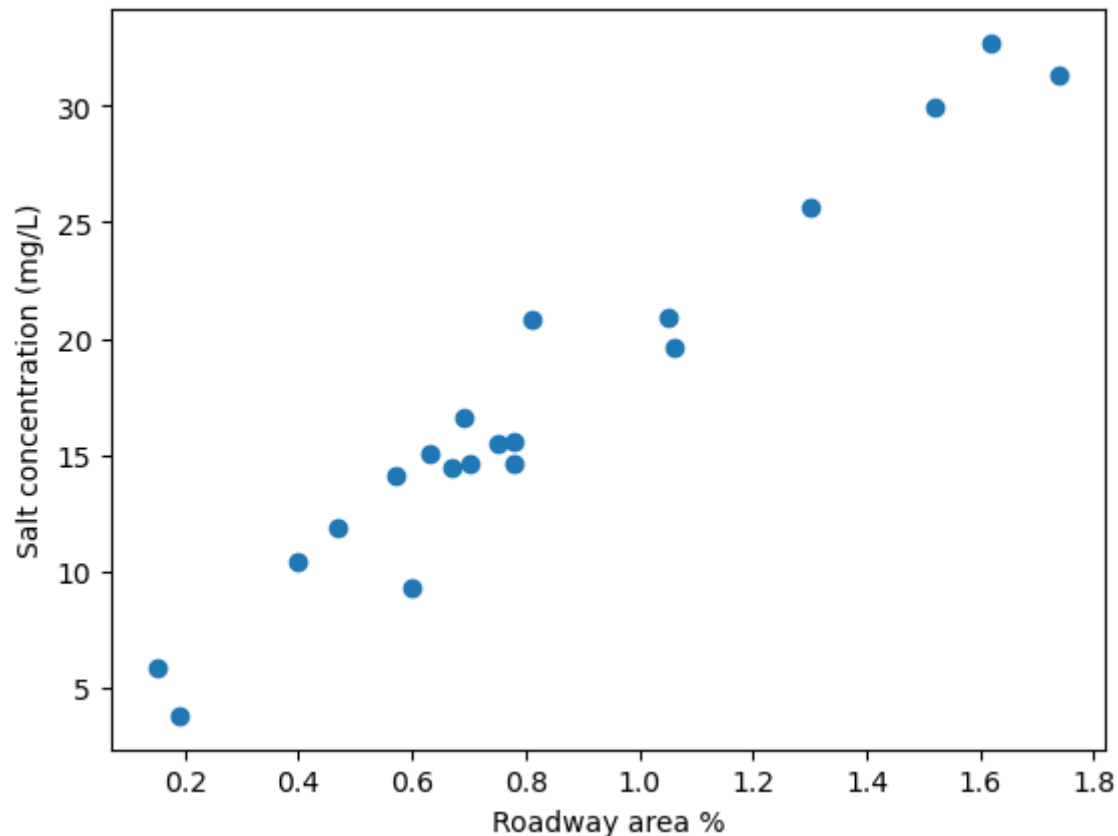
Writing saltconcentration.tsv

```
In [20]: # numpy can import text files separated by separator like tab or comma  
salt_concentration_data = np.loadtxt("saltconcentration.tsv")  
salt_concentration_data
```

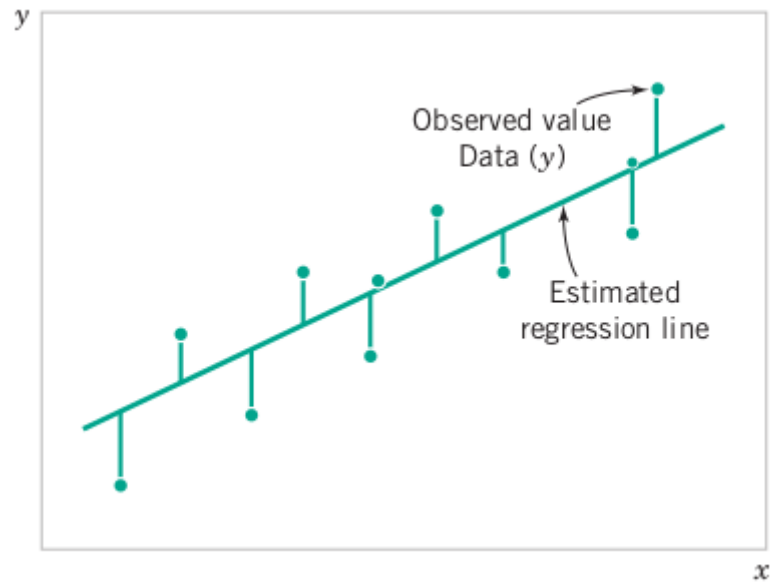
```
Out[20]: array([[ 1.  ,  3.8 ,  0.19],  
                [ 2.  ,  5.9 ,  0.15],  
                [ 3.  , 14.1 ,  0.57],  
                [ 4.  , 10.4 ,  0.4 ],  
                [ 5.  , 14.6 ,  0.7 ],  
                [ 6.  , 14.5 ,  0.67],  
                [ 7.  , 15.1 ,  0.63],  
                [ 8.  , 11.9 ,  0.47],  
                [ 9.  , 15.5 ,  0.75],  
                [10.  ,  9.3 ,  0.6 ],  
                [11.  , 15.6 ,  0.78],  
                [12.  , 20.8 ,  0.81],  
                [13.  , 14.6 ,  0.78],  
                [14.  , 16.6 ,  0.69],  
                [15.  , 25.6 ,  1.3 ],  
                [16.  , 20.9 ,  1.05],  
                [17.  , 29.9 ,  1.52],  
                [18.  , 19.6 ,  1.06],  
                [19.  , 31.3 ,  1.74],  
                [20.  , 32.7 ,  1.62]])
```

```
In [21]: # Plot the points
fig, ax = plt.subplots()
# Scatter plot using matplotlib
ax.scatter(salt_concentration_data[:, 2], salt_concentration_data[:, 1])
ax.set_xlabel(r"Roadway area %")
ax.set_ylabel(r"Salt concentration (mg/L)")
```

```
Out[21]: Text(0, 0.5, 'Salt concentration (mg/L)')
```



Least squares regression



Vectorization of Least square regression

Two rules of vector derivatives

There are two conventions in vector derivatives:

1. Gradient convention
2. Jacobian convention

Gradient convention

Jacobian convention

Derivative of a linear function

Derivative of a quadratic function

Back to Least square regression

```
In [46]: n = salt_concentration_data.shape[0]
bfx = salt_concentration_data[:, 2:3]
bfy = salt_concentration_data[:, 1:2]
bfX = np.hstack((bfx, np.ones((bfx.shape[0], 1))))
bfX
```

```
Out[46]: array([[0.19, 1.  ],
                [0.15, 1.  ],
                [0.57, 1.  ],
                [0.4 , 1.  ],
                [0.7 , 1.  ],
                [0.67, 1.  ],
                [0.63, 1.  ],
                [0.47, 1.  ],
                [0.75, 1.  ],
                [0.6 , 1.  ],
                [0.78, 1.  ],
                [0.81, 1.  ],
                [0.78, 1.  ],
                [0.69, 1.  ],
                [1.3 , 1.  ],
                [1.05, 1.  ],
                [1.52, 1.  ],
                [1.06, 1.  ],
                [1.74, 1.  ],
                [1.62, 1.  ]])
```

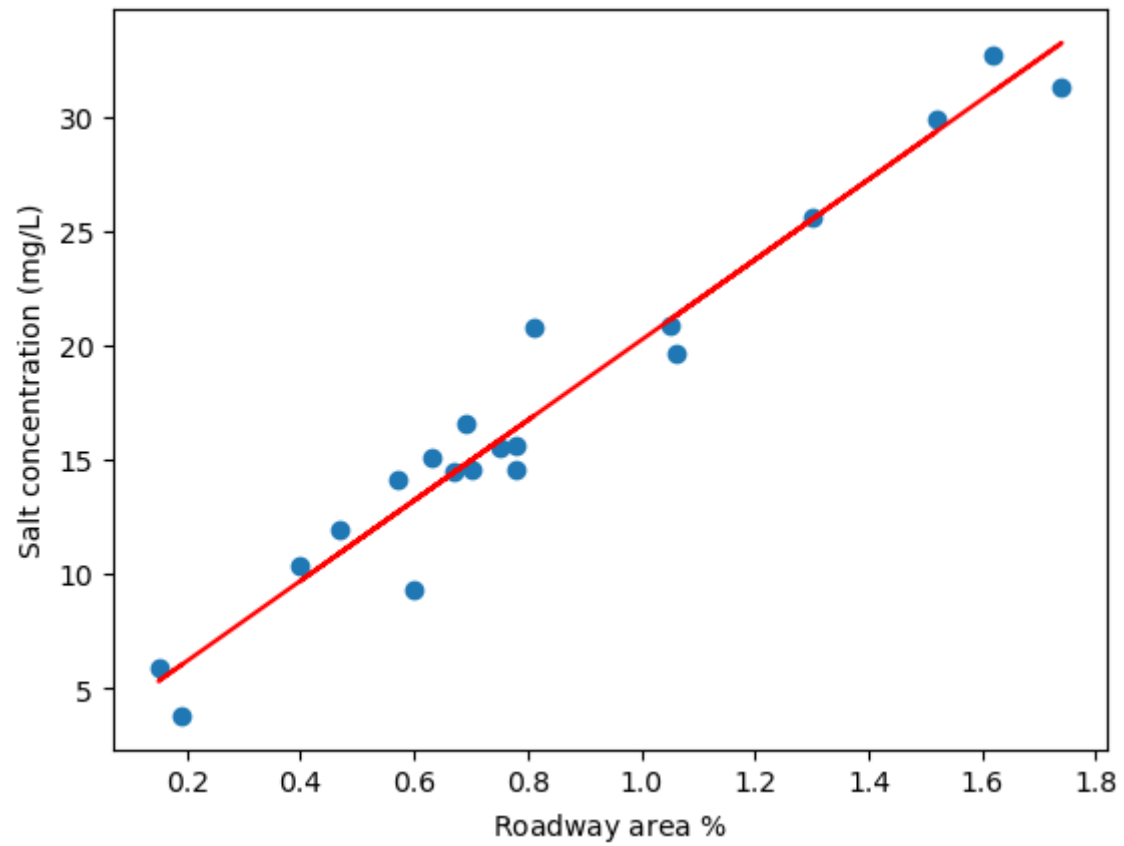
```
In [47]: bfm = np.linalg.inv(bfX.T @ bfX) @ bfX.T @ bfy
print(bfm)
bfm, *_ = np.linalg.lstsq(bfX, bfy, rcond=None)
print(bfm)
```

```
[[17.5466671 ]
 [ 2.67654631]]
[[17.5466671 ]
 [ 2.67654631]]
```

```
In [48]: m = bfm.flatten()[0]
c = bfm.flatten()[1]

# Plot the points
fig, ax = plt.subplots()
ax.scatter(salt_concentration_data[:, 2], salt_concentration_data[:, 1])
ax.set_xlabel(r"Roadway area $\%$")
ax.set_ylabel(r"Salt concentration (mg/L)")
x = salt_concentration_data[:, 2]
y = m * x + c
# Plot the points
ax.plot(x, y, 'r-') # the line
```

```
Out[48]: [<matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0x7fbf437f67c0>]
```



Exercise 1

Derive the equations for least square linear regression when the equation of line is $\hat{\mathbf{w}}^\top \mathbf{x} + w_0 = 0$ instead of $y = mx + c$.

Hint: Convert the least square problem into equation of the form $\mathbf{v}^* = \arg \min_{\mathbf{v}} \|\mathbf{L}\mathbf{v}\|^2$ such that $\mathbf{v}^\top \mathbf{v} = 1$. Solve by finding null space of \mathbf{L} . \mathbf{v} lies in the nullspace of \mathbf{L} . The nullspace of \mathbf{L} is the last eigenvector (corresponding to the smallest eigenvalue) of $\mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{L}$.

The error $e(x_i, y_i) = (y - (mx + c))^2$ can be visualized as distance of observed point from the fit line parallel to y-axis. Draw the visual for the errors of the form:

$e(\mathbf{x}_i) = (\hat{\mathbf{w}}^\top \mathbf{x}_i + w_0 - 0)^2$. You do not need to use matplotlib. You can draw by hand or editing software.

