Mathematics for Machine Learning

— Linear Algebra

Projections & Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization

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Credits for the resource

- The slides are based on the textbooks:
 - Marc Peter Deisenroth, A. Aldo Faisal, and Cheng Soon Ong: Mathematics for Machine Learning. Cambridge University Press. 2020.
 - Howard Anton, Chris Rorres, Anton Kaul: Elementary Linear Algebra. Wiley. 2019.
- We could partially refer to the monograph: Francesco Orabona: A Modern Introduction to Online Learning. https://arxiv.org/abs/1912.13213

Outline

- Orthogonal Projections
- ② Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization
- Rotations

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- Orthogonal Projections

Rotations

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- High-dimensional data is often hard to analyze or visualize.
- Sometimes, only a few dimensions contain most information.
- We might try to project the original high-dimensional data onto a lower-dimensional space and work on it.
- Note: When we compress or visualize high-dimensional data, we will lose information.

Examples (dimensionality reduction)

Principal Component Analysis (PCA)

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- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Deep Neural Networks

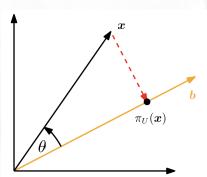
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- Classification

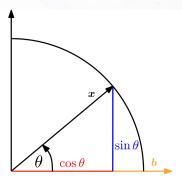
Examples (dimensionality reduction)

- Principal Component Analysis (PCA)
- Deep Neural Networks
- Classification
- Linear Regression

Projection from 2D to 1D



(a) Projection of $x \in \mathbb{R}^2$ onto a subspace U with basis vector \boldsymbol{b} .



(b) Projection of a two-dimensional vector \boldsymbol{x} with $\|\boldsymbol{x}\|=1$ onto a one-dimensional subspace spanned by \boldsymbol{b} .

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Let V be a vector space and $U \subseteq V$ be a subspace of V. A linear mapping $\pi: V \to U$ is called a projection if $\pi^2 = \pi \circ \pi = \pi$.

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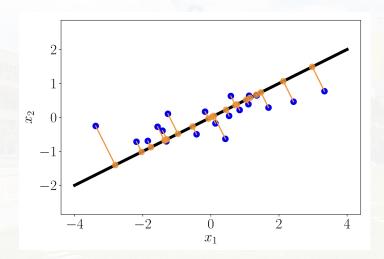
 Recall that linear mappings can be expressed by transformation matrices.

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Let V be a vector space and $U \subseteq V$ be a subspace of V. A linear mapping $\pi: V \to U$ is called a projection if $\pi^2 = \pi \circ \pi = \pi$.

- Recall that linear mappings can be expressed by transformation matrices.
- The projection matrices P_{π} exhibit the property that $P_{\pi}^2 = P_{\pi}$.



- $\pi_U(\mathbf{x})$: closest to \mathbf{x} on U.
 - $\|\mathbf{x} \pi_U(\mathbf{x})\|$ is minimal.

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Since
$$\pi_U(\mathbf{b}) = \lambda \mathbf{b}$$
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$$\Leftrightarrow \ \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{b} \rangle - \lambda \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{b} \rangle = 0 \ \Leftrightarrow \ \lambda = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{b} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{b} \rangle} = \frac{\langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{b}\|^2}$$

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• Finding the projection $\pi_U(\mathbf{x}) \in U$:

$$\pi_U(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda \mathbf{b} = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{b} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{b}\|^2} \mathbf{b} = \frac{\mathbf{b}^\top \mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|^2} \mathbf{b}.$$

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Note that $\|\pi_U(\mathbf{x})\| = \|\lambda \mathbf{b}\| = |\lambda| \|\mathbf{b}\|$.

• If we use the dot product as the inner product and let θ be the angle between ${\bf x}$ and ${\bf b}$:

$$\|\pi_U(\mathbf{x})\| = \frac{|\mathbf{b}^\top \mathbf{x}|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|^2} \|\mathbf{b}\| = |\cos \theta| \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \frac{\|\mathbf{b}\|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|^2} = |\cos \theta| \|\mathbf{x}\|.$$

- Finding the projection matrix ${m P}_{\pi}$:
 - Recall: projection is a linear mapping.

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 - Exercise: Find $\pi_U(a\mathbf{x} + b\mathbf{y})$.

- Finding the projection matrix P_{π} :
 - Recall: projection is a linear mapping.
 - Exercise: Find $\pi_U(a\mathbf{x} + b\mathbf{y})$.
 - With the dot product as the inner product,

$$\|\pi_U(\mathbf{x})\| = \lambda \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}\lambda = \mathbf{b} \frac{\mathbf{b}^{\top} \mathbf{x}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|^2} = \frac{\mathbf{b}\mathbf{b}^{\top}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|^2} \mathbf{x}.$$

So,

$$P_{\pi} = rac{\mathbf{b}\mathbf{b}^{ op}}{\|\mathbf{b}\|^2}.$$

Note: bb^{\top} is a symmetric matrix (why?).

Example

$$oldsymbol{P}_{\pi} = rac{\mathbf{b}\mathbf{b}^{ op}}{\mathbf{b}^{ op}\mathbf{b}}$$

$$P_{\pi} = rac{\mathbf{b}\mathbf{b}^{ op}}{\mathbf{b}^{ op}\mathbf{b}} = rac{1}{9} \left[egin{array}{c} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{array} \right] \left[egin{array}{c} 1 & 2 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

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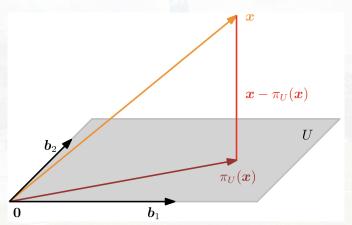
$$\mathbf{P}_{\pi} = \frac{\mathbf{b}\mathbf{b}^{\top}}{\mathbf{b}^{\top}\mathbf{b}} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\2 \end{bmatrix} [1 \ 2 \ 2] = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \ 2 \ 2\\4 \ 4 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\pi_{U}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{P}_{\pi}\mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \ 2 \ 2\\4 \ 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{bmatrix} 5\\10\\10 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Orthogonal projections of $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ onto $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ with $\dim(U) = m \ge 1$.



- Any projection can be represented as a linear combination of the basis vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_m$ of U.
 - $\pi_U(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \mathbf{b}_i$.
- Find the coordinates $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_m$:

$$\pi_U(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i \mathbf{b}_i = \mathbf{B} \lambda$$

for
$$\mathbf{B} = [\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_m] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$$
, $\mathbf{\lambda} = [\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m]^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

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 (closest to \mathbf{x} on U)

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Note: $(\mathbf{x} - \pi_U(\mathbf{x})) \perp \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_m\}$ (: minimum distance)

$$\langle \mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{x} - \pi_U(\mathbf{x}) \rangle = \mathbf{b}_1^\top (\mathbf{x} - \pi_U(\mathbf{x})) = 0$$

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$$\langle \mathbf{b}_m, \mathbf{x} - \pi_U(\mathbf{x}) \rangle = \mathbf{b}_m^{\top}(\mathbf{x} - \pi_U(\mathbf{x})) = 0$$

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$$\mathbf{b}_1^{\top}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{B}\lambda) = 0$$

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Since

$$\mathbf{b}_1^{\top}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = 0$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{b}_{m}^{\top}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{B}\lambda) = 0$$

We have

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{b}_m^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{B}\lambda) = \mathbf{0} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{B}\lambda) = \mathbf{0}$$
$$\Leftrightarrow \quad \mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{B}\lambda = \mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}$$

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Note: $B^{T}B$ is invertible

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$$\vdots \\ \mathbf{b}_{m}^{\top}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = 0$$

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$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_1^\top \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{b}_m^\top \end{bmatrix} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \mathbf{0} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \boldsymbol{B}^\top (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \mathbf{0}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{B} \lambda = \mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}$$

Note: $\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{B}$ is invertible $\Rightarrow \lambda = (\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{x}$.

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$$\bullet \ \pi_U(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{B})^{-1} \mathbf{B}^\top \mathbf{x}$$

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Note: $B^{\top}B$ is invertible $\Rightarrow \lambda = (B^{\top}B)^{-1}B^{\top}x$.

• $\pi_U(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{x} \Rightarrow \text{Projection matrix } \mathbf{P}_{\pi} = \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{\top}.$

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Why $\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{B}$ is invertible?

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Fact

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$$\operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}) = \operatorname{rank}(\mathbf{A}) \text{ for any } \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}.$$

- Claim: $null(\mathbf{A}) = null(\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A})$.
- (\Rightarrow) : Ax = 0

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- Claim: $null(A) = null(A^T A)$.

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Why $\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{B}$ is invertible?

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- $(\Leftarrow): \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x})^{\top} (\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}\|^2 = 0$

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- Claim: $null(\mathbf{A}) = null(\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A})$.
- (\Rightarrow) : $Ax = 0 \Longrightarrow A^{\top}Ax = 0$.
- (\Leftarrow) : $\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})^{\top}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|^2 = \mathbf{0} \Longrightarrow \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$
- $rank(\mathbf{A}) = rank(\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A})$ (: the Dimension Theorem).

Example

Example

For a subspace
$$U = \operatorname{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^3 \text{ and } \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3.$$

Find

- ullet the coordinates λ of ${\bf x}$ in terms of U
- the projection point $\pi_U(\mathbf{x})$
- the projection matrix P_{π} .

Derive *B* =

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$$\boldsymbol{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

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$$\boldsymbol{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

• Compute $B^{\top}B$ and $B^{\top}x$:

$$\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{B} = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right] \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{array} \right] = \left[\begin{array}{ccc} 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{array} \right],$$

- First, we find that the spanning set of *U* is a basis (check its linear independence!).
- Derive $\boldsymbol{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$.
- Compute $\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{B}$ and $\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{x}$:

$$\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{B} = \left[egin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right] \left[egin{array}{ccc} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{array} \right] = \left[egin{array}{ccc} 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{array} \right],$$

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$$\mathbf{B}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} = \left[egin{array}{ccc} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right] \left[egin{array}{c} 6 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{array} \right] = \left[egin{array}{c} 6 \\ 0 \end{array} \right].$$

• Then, solve $\mathbf{B}^{\top} \mathbf{B} \lambda = \mathbf{B}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$ to find λ :

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 3 & 3 \\ 5 & 5 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} \lambda_1 \\ \lambda_2 \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 6 \\ 0 \end{array}\right]$$

So
$$\lambda = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

• The projection of **x**:

$$\pi_U(\mathsf{x}) = oldsymbol{B} oldsymbol{\lambda} = \left[egin{array}{c} \mathsf{5} \ \mathsf{2} \ -1 \end{array}
ight].$$

• The projection error:

$$\|\mathbf{x} - \pi_U(\mathbf{x})\| = \|[6 \ 0 \ 0]^\top\| - \|[5 \ 2 \ -1]^\top\| = \|[1 \ -2 \ 1]^\top\|$$

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$$\|\mathbf{x} - \pi_U(\mathbf{x})\| = \|[6 \ 0 \ 0]^\top\| - \|[5 \ 2 \ -1]^\top\| = \|[1 \ -2 \ 1]^\top\| = \sqrt{6}.$$

• Finally, the projection matrix:

 P_{π}

• The projection error:

$$\|\mathbf{x} - \pi_U(\mathbf{x})\| = \|[6 \ 0 \ 0]^\top\| - \|[5 \ 2 \ -1]^\top\| = \|[1 \ -2 \ 1]^\top\| = \sqrt{6}.$$

Finally, the projection matrix:

$$m{P}_{\pi} = m{B} (m{B}^{ op} m{B})^{-1} m{B}^{ op} = rac{1}{6} \left[egin{array}{cccc} 5 & 2 & -1 \ 2 & 2 & 2 \ -1 & 2 & 5 \end{array}
ight].$$

What if
$$B = (\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_m)$$
 is orthonormal?

$$\bullet \ \pi_U(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{x}$$

What if
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•
$$\pi_U(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{B}(\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{x} \Rightarrow \pi_U(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{x}.$$

• $\therefore \mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{I}.$

• Coordinates:
$$\lambda = (\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{B})^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{B}^{\top}\mathbf{x}$$
.

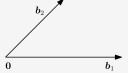
Outline

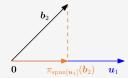
- Orthogonal Projections
- ② Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization
- 3 Rotations

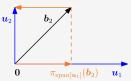
Illustration of Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization

• **Goal:** Transform any basis $(\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_n)$ of an *n*-dimensional vector space V into an orthogonal/orthonormal basis of V.

$$\mathbf{u}_{1} := \mathbf{b}_{1}
\mathbf{u}_{k} := \mathbf{b}_{k} - \pi_{\text{span}(\{\mathbf{u}_{1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_{k-1}\})}(\mathbf{b}_{k}), \quad k = 2, \dots, n.$$







(a) Original non-orthogonal (b) First new basis vector (c) Orthogonal basis vectors \boldsymbol{u}_1 basis vectors $\boldsymbol{b}_1, \boldsymbol{b}_2$. $\boldsymbol{u}_1 = \boldsymbol{b}_1$ and projection of \boldsymbol{b}_2 and $\boldsymbol{u}_2 = \boldsymbol{b}_2 - \pi_{\mathrm{span}[\boldsymbol{u}_1]}(\boldsymbol{b}_2)$. onto the subspace spanned by \boldsymbol{u}_1 .

Example

Example

Consider a basis
$$(\mathbf{b}_1, \mathbf{b}_2)$$
 of \mathbb{R}^2 , where $\mathbf{b}_1 = \left[\begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 0 \end{array} \right]$, $\mathbf{b}_2 = \left[\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ 1 \end{array} \right]$.

Apply the Gram-Schmidt method to construct an orthonormal basis $(\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2)$ of \mathbb{R}^2 (assuming the dot product as the inner product).

$$\mathbf{u}_1 := \mathbf{b}_1 = \left[\begin{array}{c} 2 \\ 0 \end{array} \right],$$

 $\mathbf{u}_2 := \mathbf{b}_2 - \pi_{\mathsf{span}(\mathbf{u}_1)}(\mathbf{b}_2)$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}_1 &:= & \mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \mathbf{u}_2 &:= & \mathbf{b}_2 - \pi_{\mathsf{span}(\mathbf{u}_1)}(\mathbf{b}_2) = \mathbf{b}_2 - \frac{\mathbf{u}_1 \mathbf{u}_1^\top}{\|\mathbf{u}_1\|^2} \mathbf{b}_2 \\ &= & \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

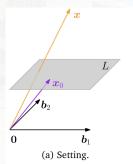
$$\mathbf{u}_{1} := \mathbf{b}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix},$$

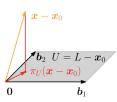
$$\mathbf{u}_{2} := \mathbf{b}_{2} - \pi_{\mathsf{span}(\mathbf{u}_{1})}(\mathbf{b}_{2}) = \mathbf{b}_{2} - \frac{\mathbf{u}_{1}\mathbf{u}_{1}}{\|\mathbf{u}_{1}\|^{2}}\mathbf{b}_{2}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

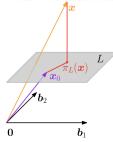
Projection onto Affine Spaces

- Given an affine space $L = \mathbf{x}_0 + U$.
 - U is a low-dimensional subspace of V.
- $\pi_L(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}_0 + \pi_U(\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}_0)$





(b) Reduce problem to projection π_U onto vector subspace.



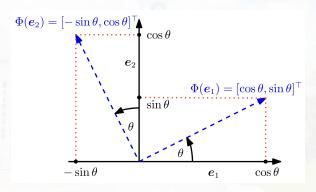
(c) Add support point back in to get affine projection π_L .

ML Math - Linear Algebra Rotations

Outline

- Orthogonal Projections
- Rotations

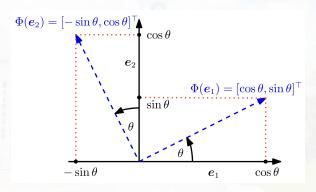
Rotataions in \mathbb{R}^2 as An Example



- Standard basis $\mathbf{e} = \{\mathbf{e}_1 = [1 \quad 0]^\top, \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = [0 \quad 1]^\top\}.$
- $\mathbf{R}(\theta) = [\Phi(\mathbf{e}_1) \quad \Phi(\mathbf{e}_2)]$



Rotataions in \mathbb{R}^2 as An Example



- Standard basis $\mathbf{e} = \{\mathbf{e}_1 = [1 \quad 0]^\top, \quad \mathbf{e}_2 = [0 \quad 1]^\top\}.$
- $\mathbf{R}(\theta) = [\Phi(\mathbf{e}_1) \quad \Phi(\mathbf{e}_2)] = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$.

Discussions