# Analytic Geometry in $\mathbb{R}^n$

Geometric Algorithms
Lecture 21

# Introduction

### Recap Problem

Let A be a  $4 \times 4$  matrix with eigenvalues 3 and -2 where dim(Nul(A + 2I)) = 3.

True or False: A must be diagonalizable.

#### Answer: True

The set of eigenvectors we get from the diagonalization procedure is of size 4, which means there is an eigenbasis of  $\mathbb{R}^4$  for A.

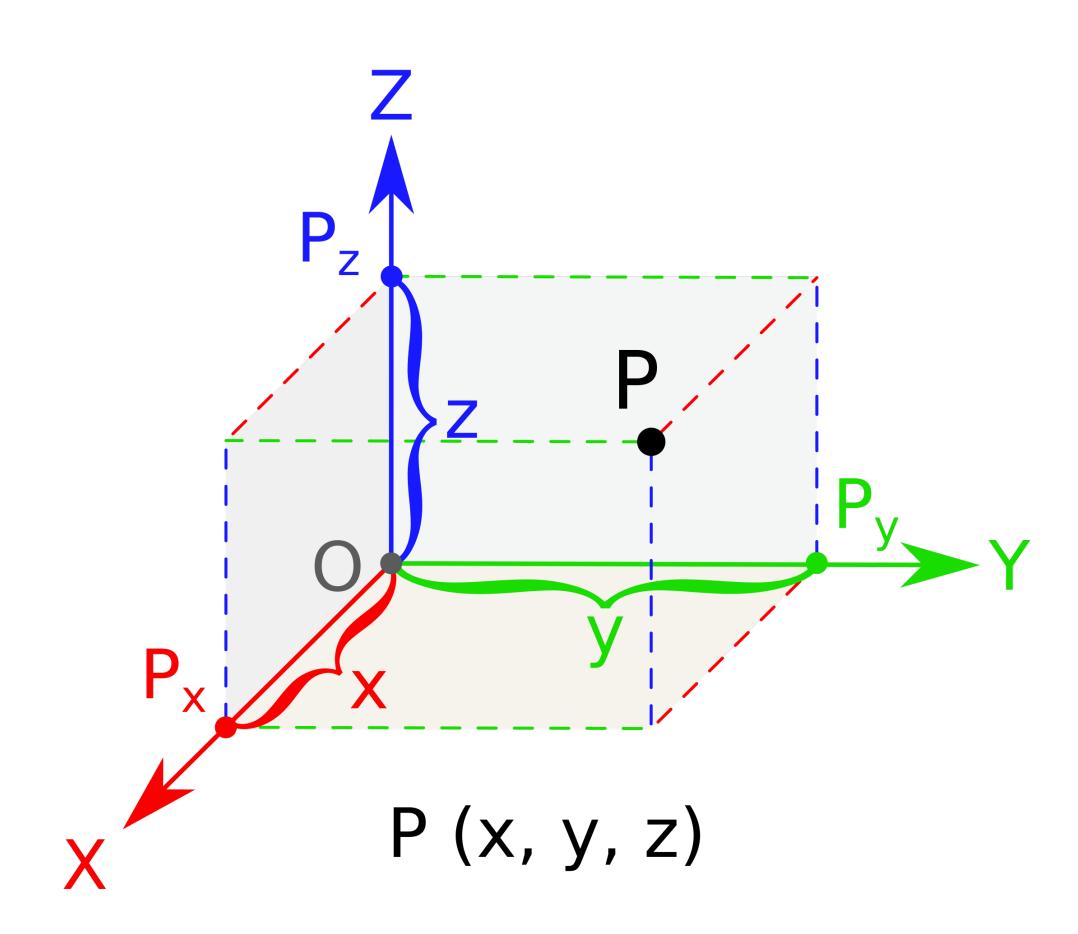
### Objectives

- 1. Recall what we learned in algebra class.
- 2. Connect the familiar notions of lengths, distances, and angles to inner products.
- 3. Begin discussing the fundamental concept of orthogonality.

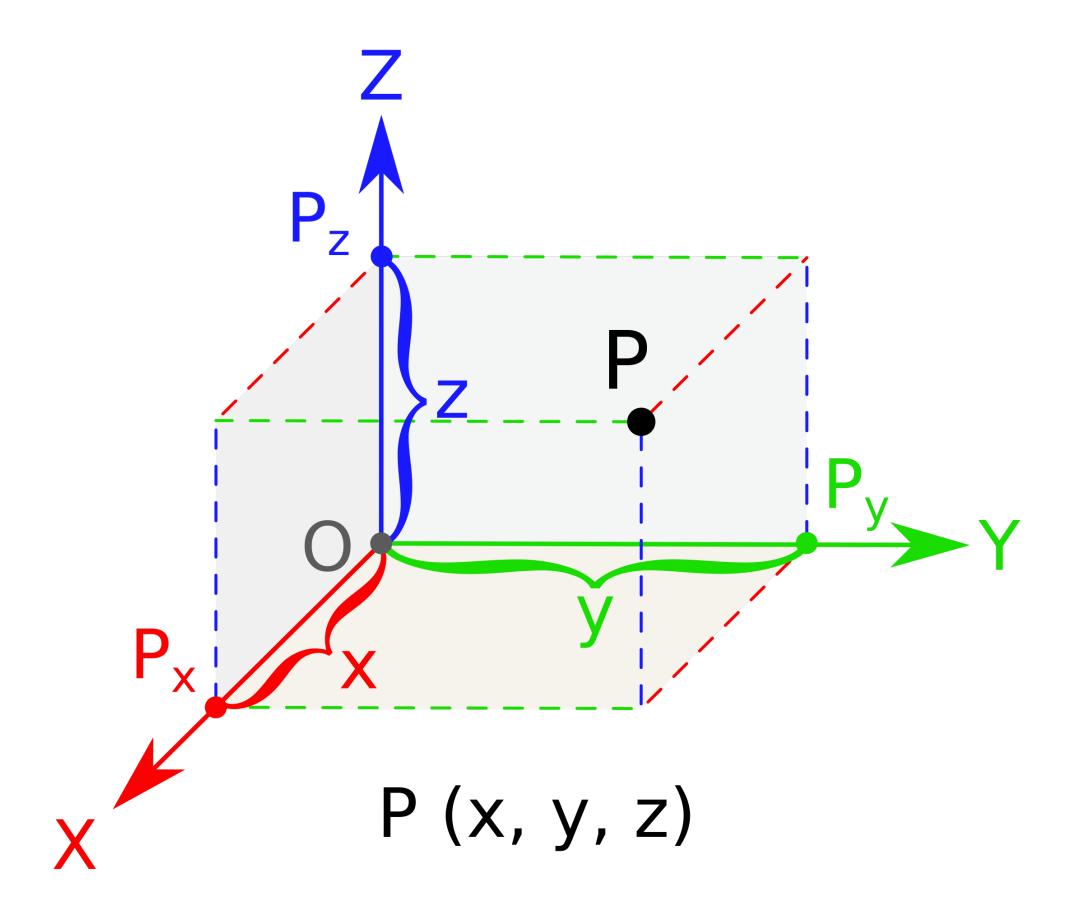
### Keywords

inner product
norm
orthogonal

# Motivation

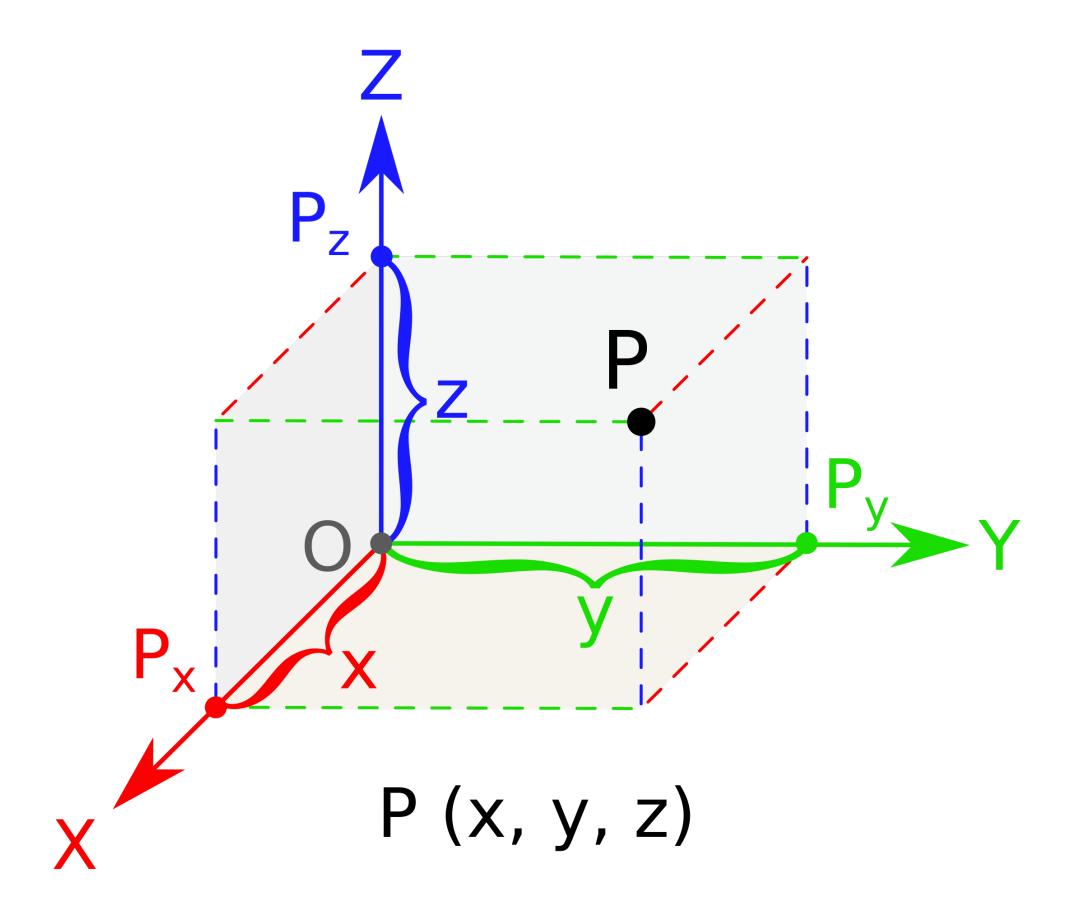


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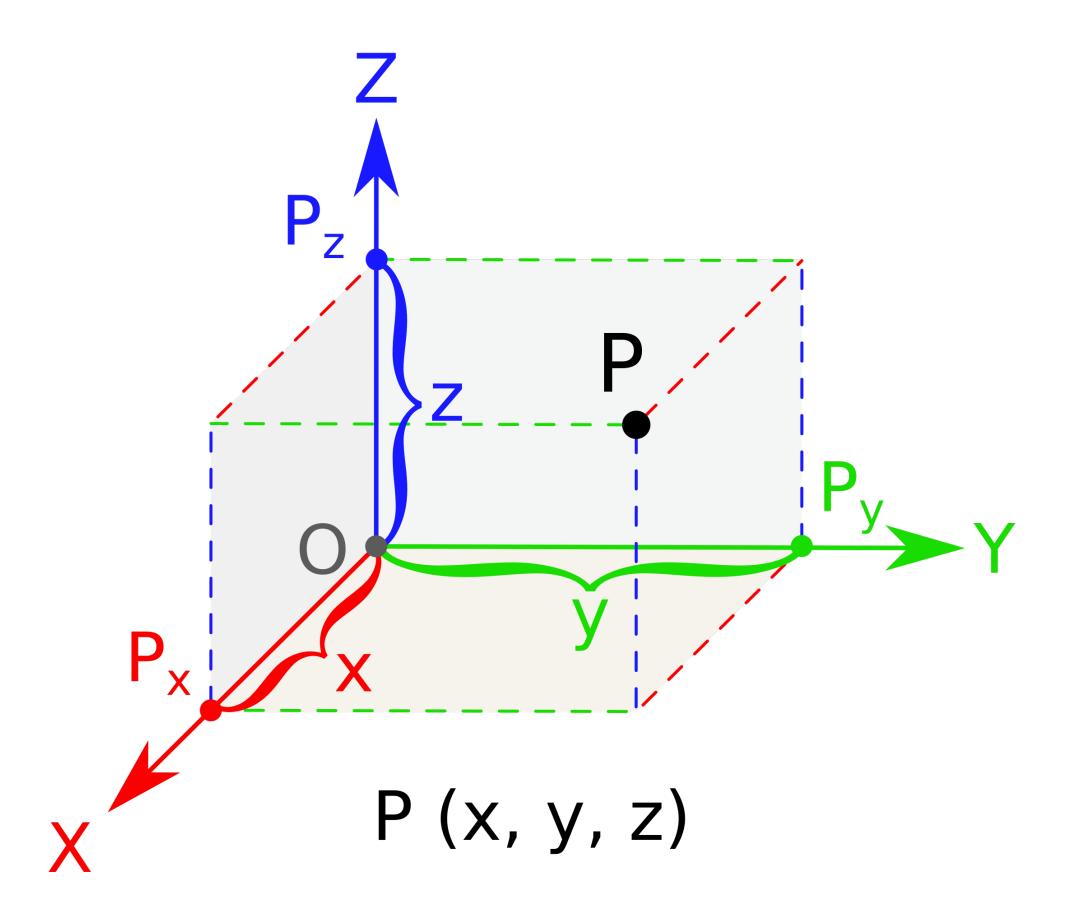
We're interested in <u>equations</u> about lines, curves, shapes, angles, etc.



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The fundamental concepts are:

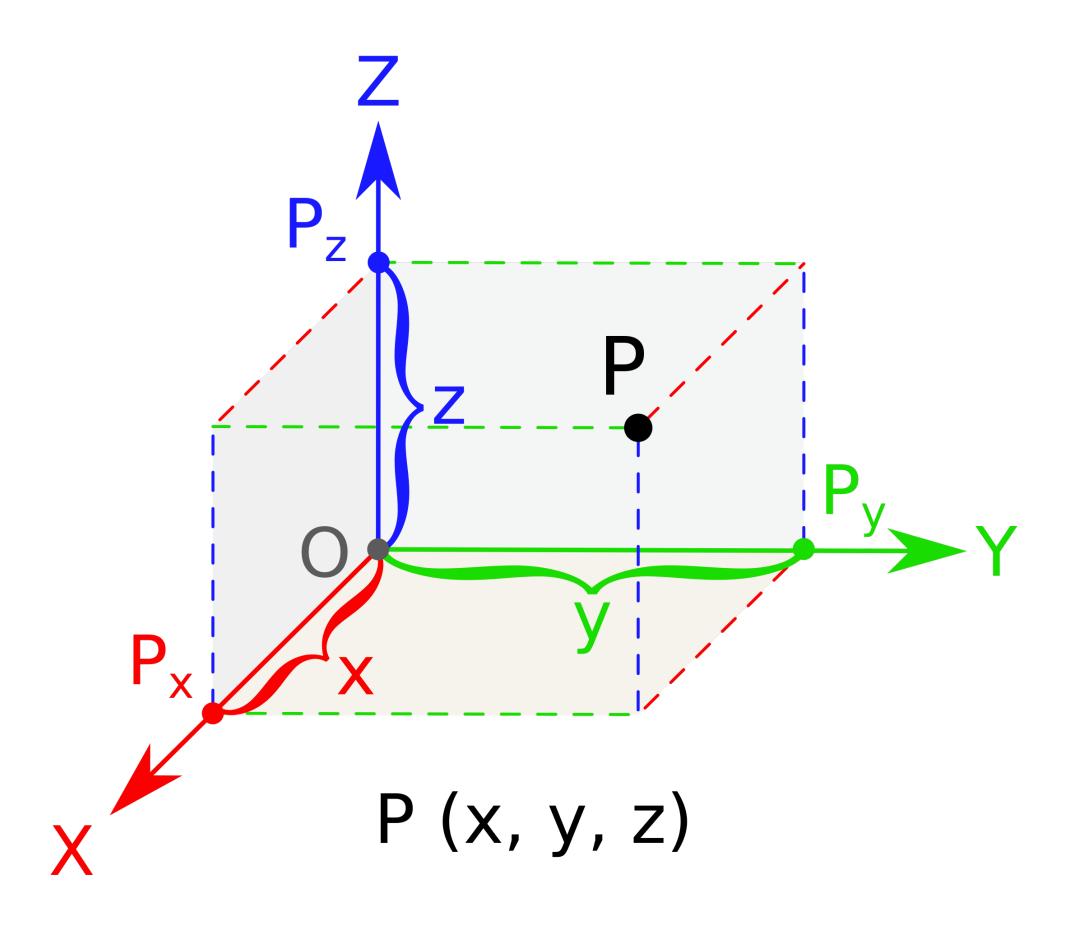


Analytic geometry is the study of space using a <u>coordinate system</u>.

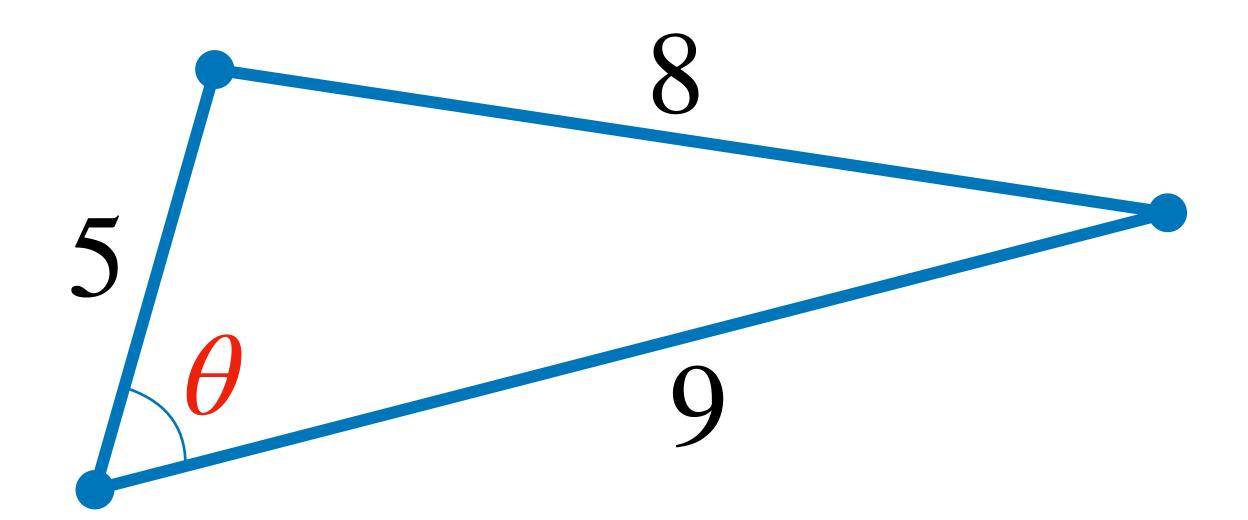
We're interested in <u>equations</u> about lines, curves, shapes, angles, etc.

The fundamental concepts are:

- » distance
- » position
- » area
- » angle

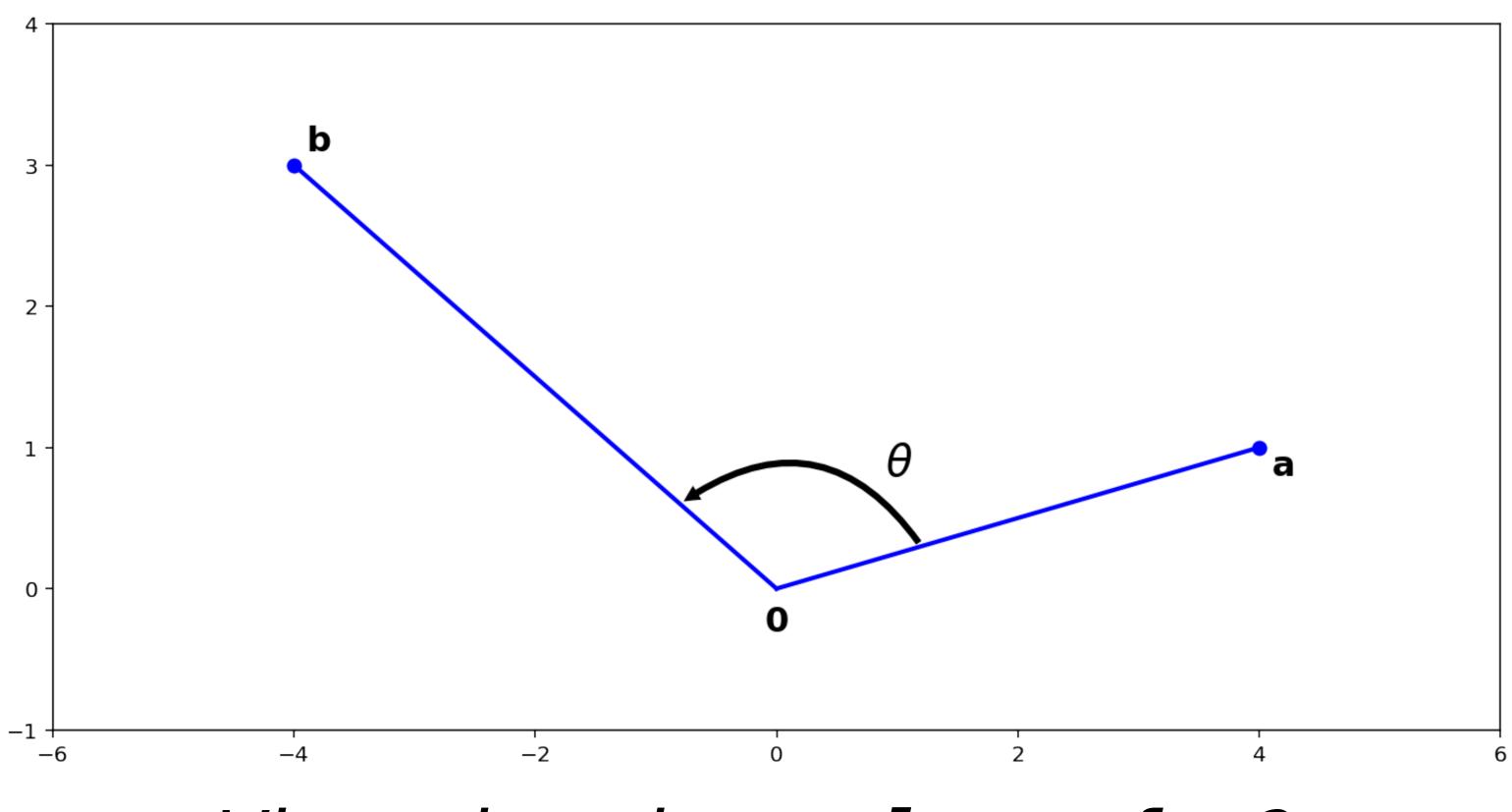


### A Potentially Familiar Example



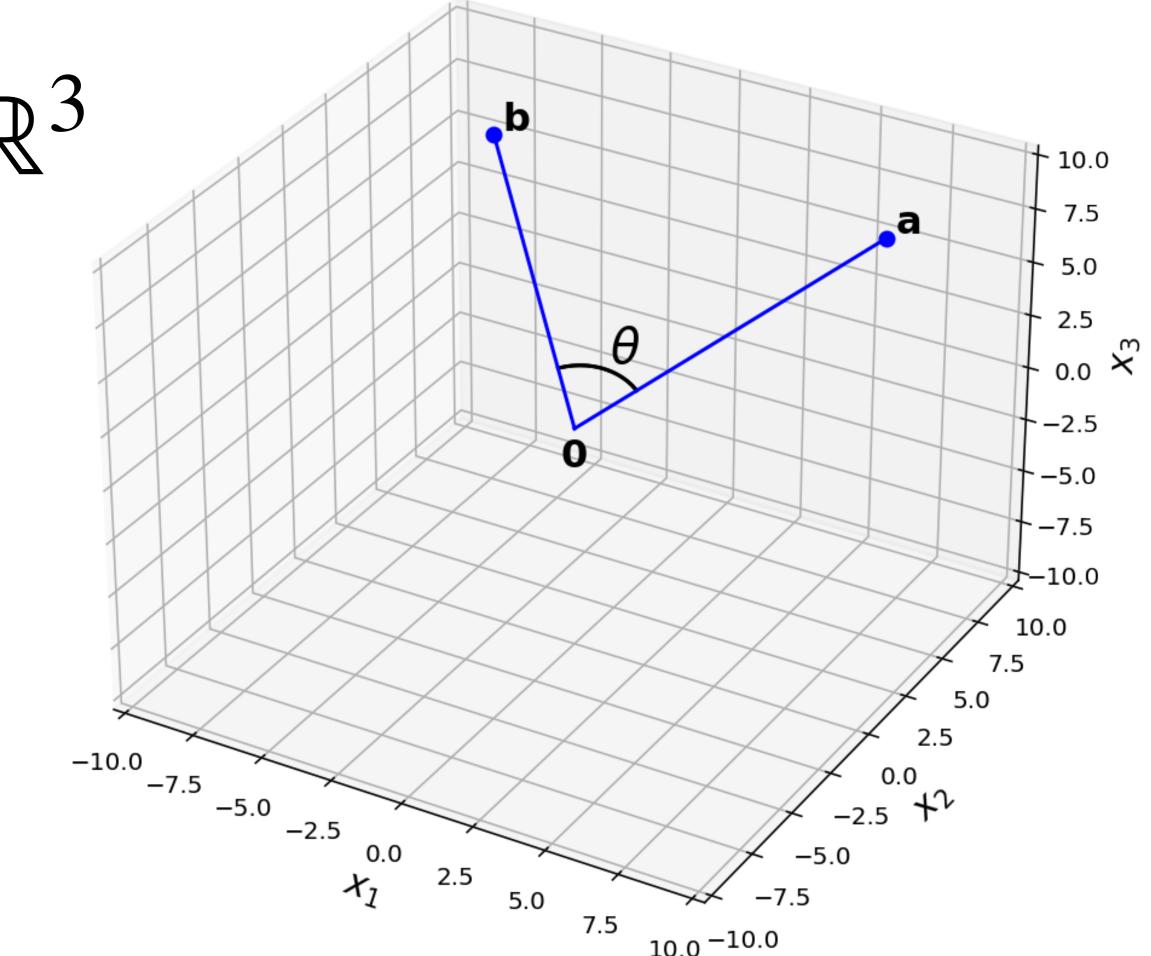
What is the value of  $\theta$ ?

# Angles in $\mathbb{R}^2$



What is the value of  $\theta$ ?

Angles in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ 



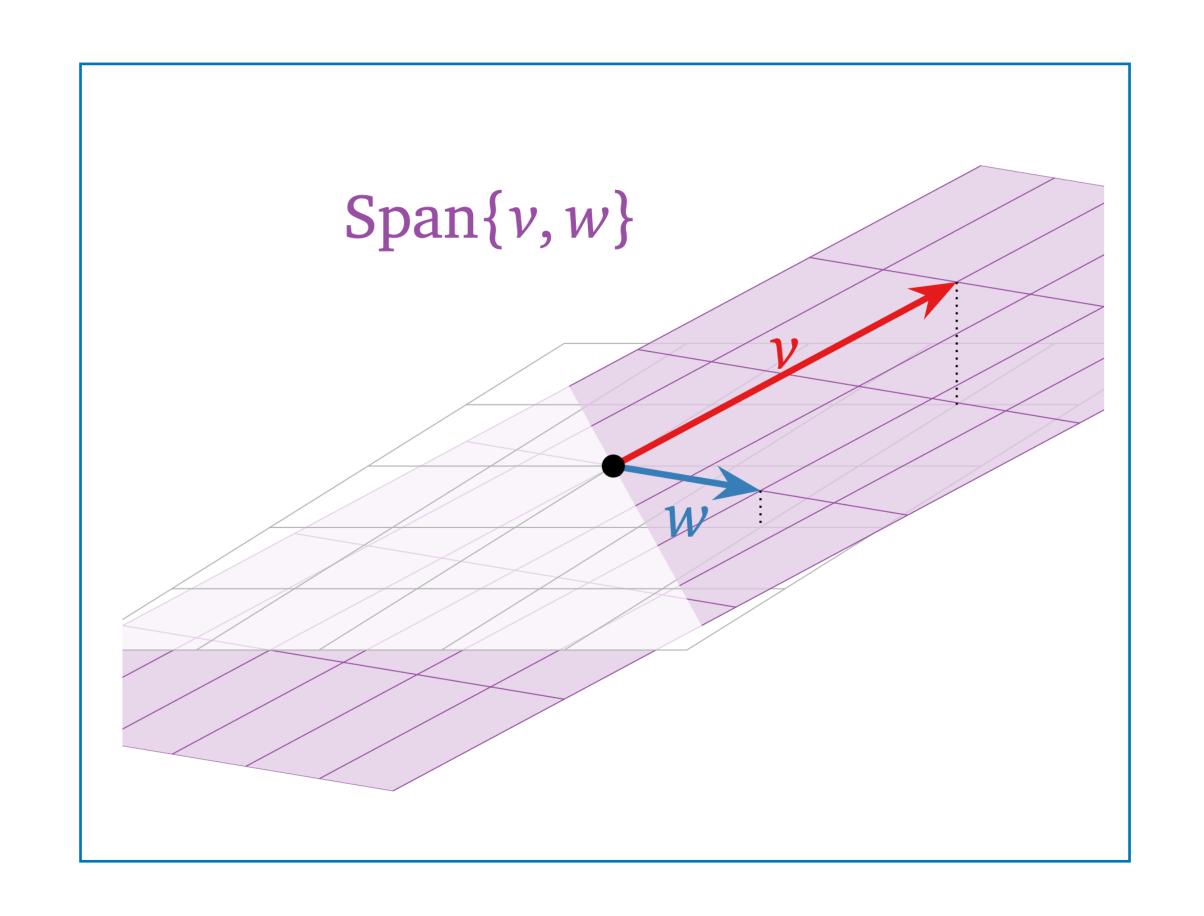
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### The First Key Idea

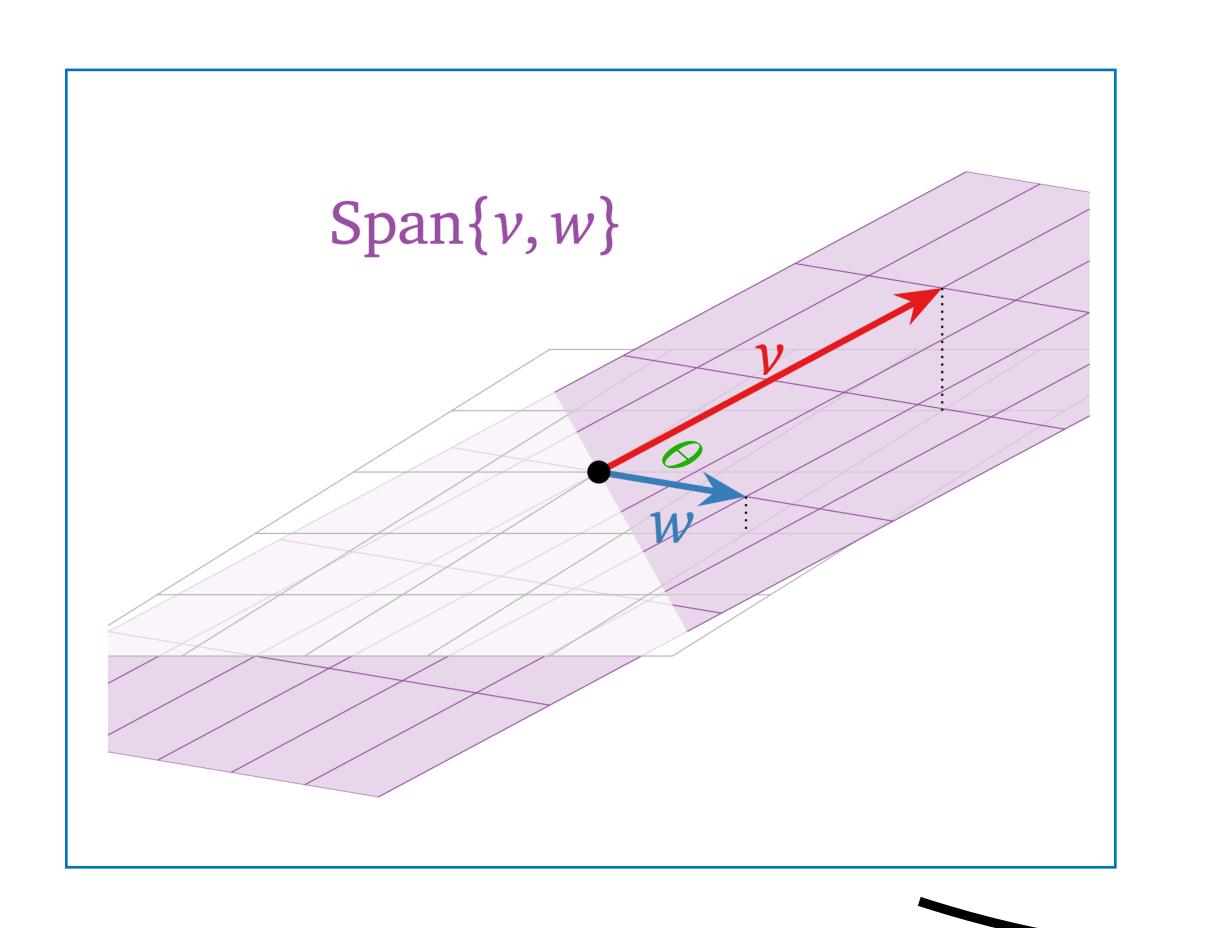
Angles make sense in *any* dimension.

Any pair of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  span a (2D) plane.

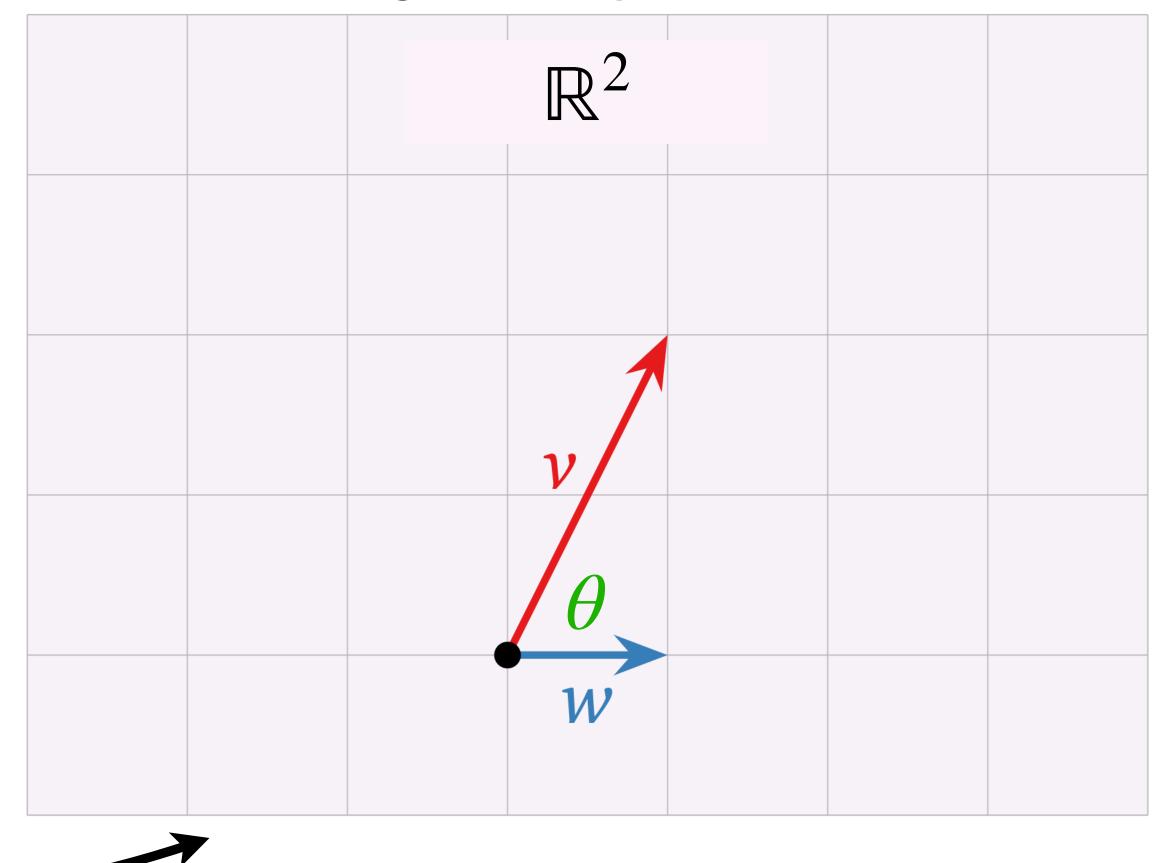
(We could formalize this via change of bases)



#### The Picture



We can do "normal" analytic geometry here



change of basis from  $span\{v,w\}$  to  $\mathbb{R}^2$ 

#### A Fundamental Question

Doing this change of basis every time we want to do geometry is a lot of work...

Can we do it directly using ideas we've been learning?

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 & u_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \end{bmatrix} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + u_3 v_3 + u_4 v_4$$

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**Definition.** The **inner product** of two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}$$

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**Definition (Advanced).** An **inner product space** is a vector space with an inner product function.

Inner product spaces (like  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) are places where you can do analytic geometry.

#### The Fundamental Question

How do we do analytic geometry, given we have an inner product?

## Inner Products

### Recall: Inner Products (Again)

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 & u_4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \\ v_4 \end{bmatrix} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + u_3 v_3 + u_4 v_4$$

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### Example

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \\ 1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0.5 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Algebraic Properties of Inner Products

- $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$  (symmetry)

- $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}) + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w})$  linearity in the first argument
- $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} \ge 0$  (nonnegativity)
- $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} = 0$

### Verifying Additivity

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

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

### Homogeneity in the Right Argument

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, c\mathbf{u} \rangle = c \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$$

Verify:

#### An Aside: What is this linear transformation?

$$\begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix} \mapsto \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Let's find the matrix for this transformation:

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Therefore  $\langle v,v \rangle$  is always nonnegative.

**Question.** What happens when we scale a vector to make it longer?

$$\langle c\mathbf{v}, c\mathbf{v} \rangle = c^2 \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = c^2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} v_i^2$$

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If c > 0 then  $\langle c\mathbf{v}, c\mathbf{v} \rangle > \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ .

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If c > 0 then  $\langle c\mathbf{v}, c\mathbf{v} \rangle > \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ .

Increasing the length of a vector increases its inner product with itself.

This means  $\langle \mathbf{v},\mathbf{v}\rangle$  is capturing some notion of magnitude.

## The Fundamental Question

How does this all connect back to distances and angles?

## Question

$$\bullet u \cdot v = v \cdot u$$

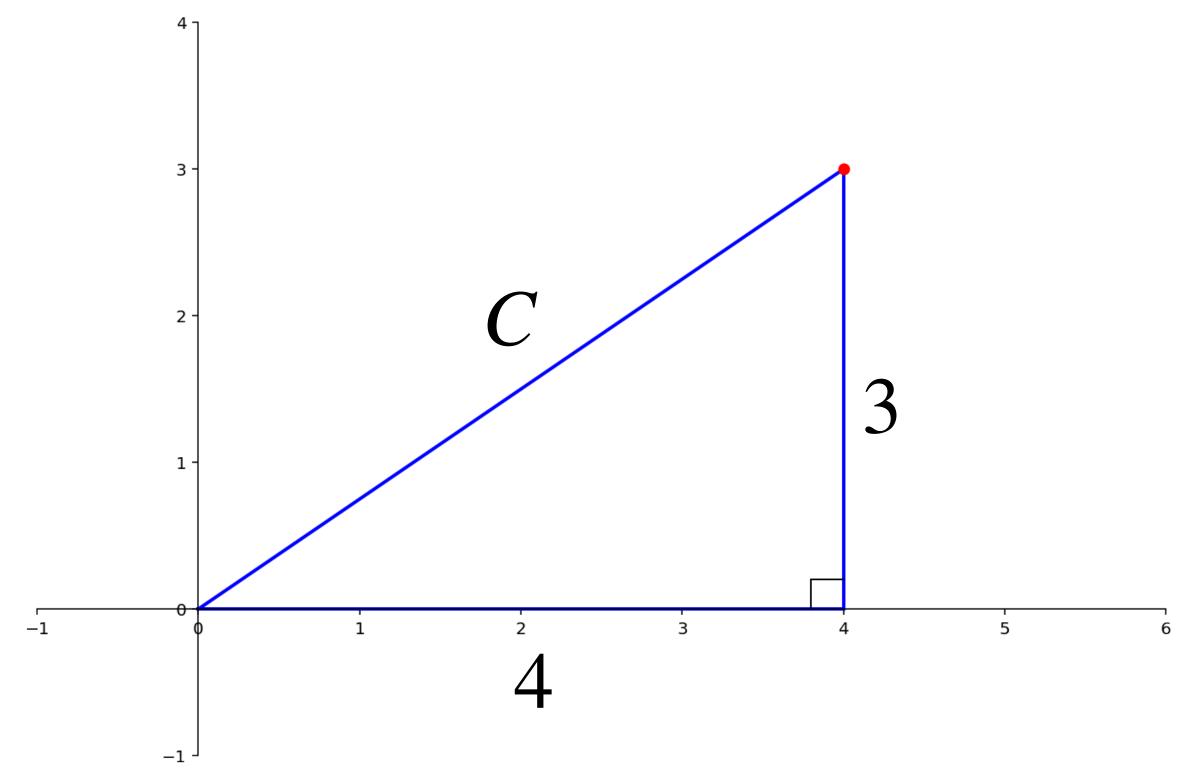
$$\bullet (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = (\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}) + (\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w})$$

Simplify the expression  $\langle u+v,u-v\rangle$  using the properties of inner products.

# Answer: $\langle u, u \rangle - \langle v, v \rangle$

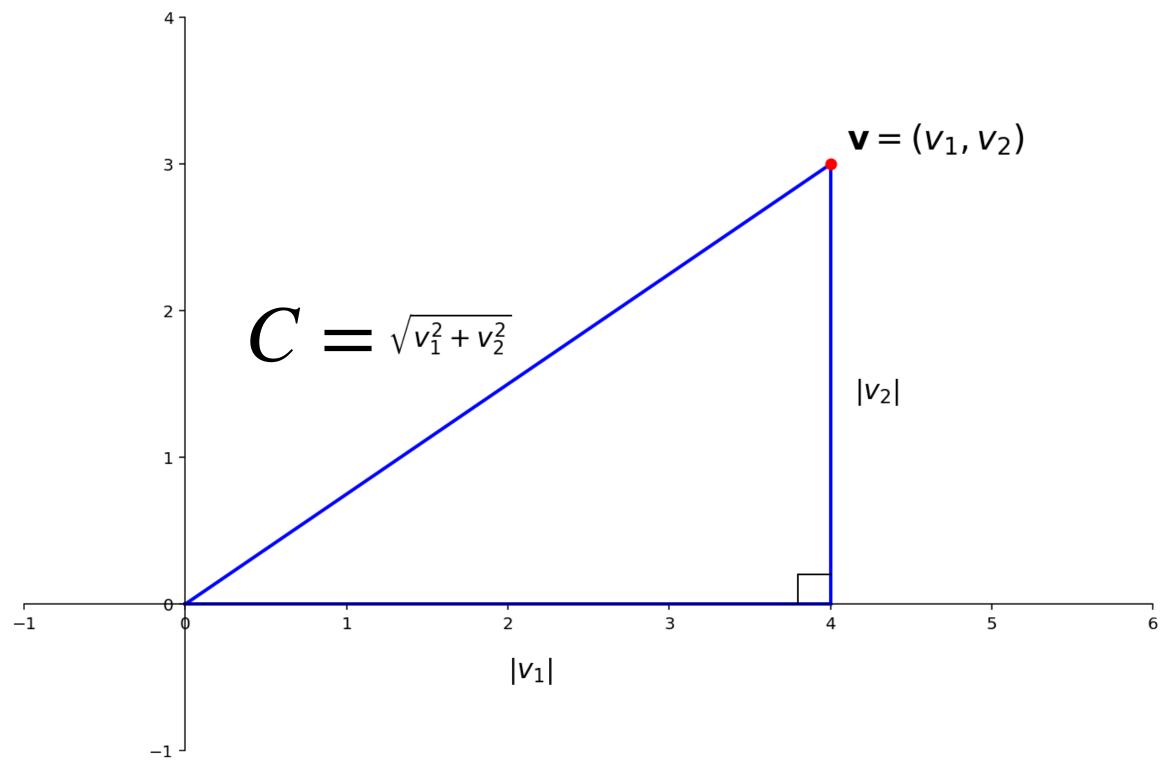
# Norms (Lengths/Distances)

## **Another Potentially Familiar Question**



How long is the side C?

## Pythagorean Theorem

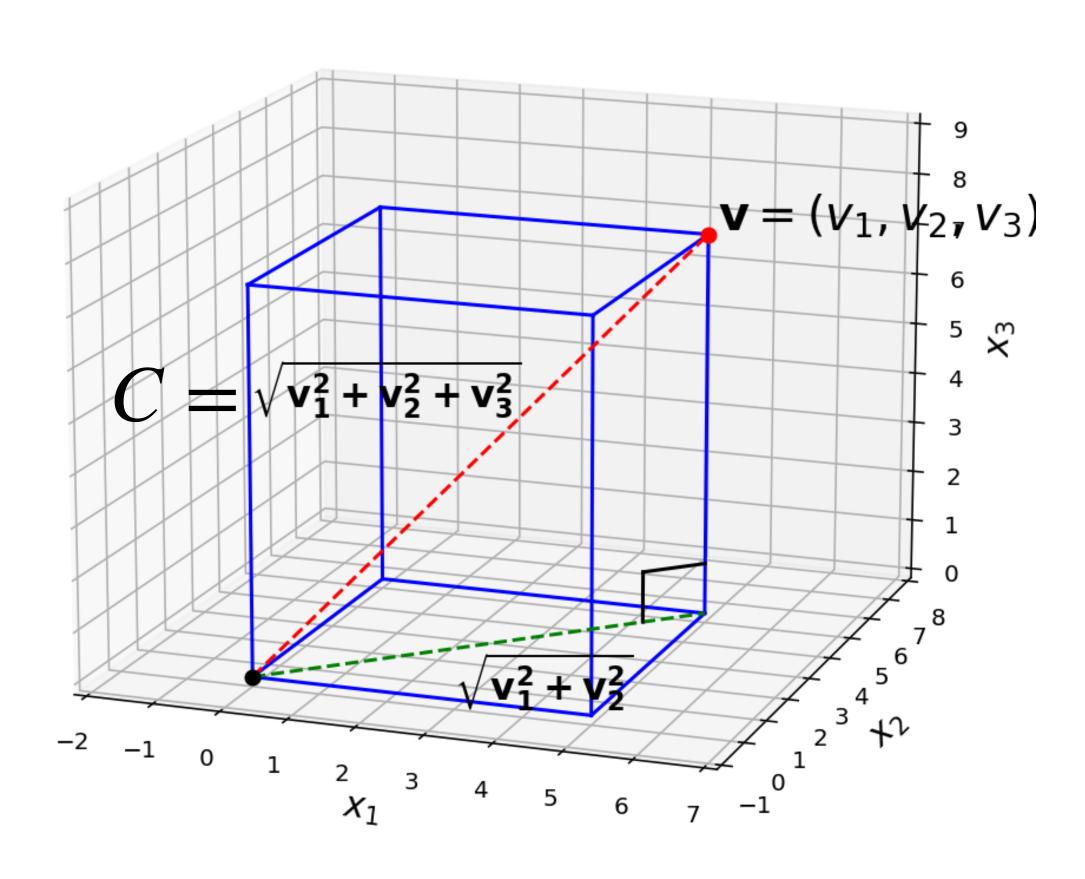


**Theorem (Pythagoras).** For a right triangle, the square of the length of the hypotenuse is the sum of the squares of the lengths of the remaining to sides.

## This still works in $\mathbb{R}^3$

Theorem (Pythagoras).  $C = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + v_3^2}$ 

Verify:



#### Norm

**Definition.** The  $(\mathcal{E}^2)$  norm of a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2}$$

The norm of a vector is the square root of the sum of the squares of its entries.

#### Norms and Inner Products

**Definition.** The  $\ell^2$  norm of a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is

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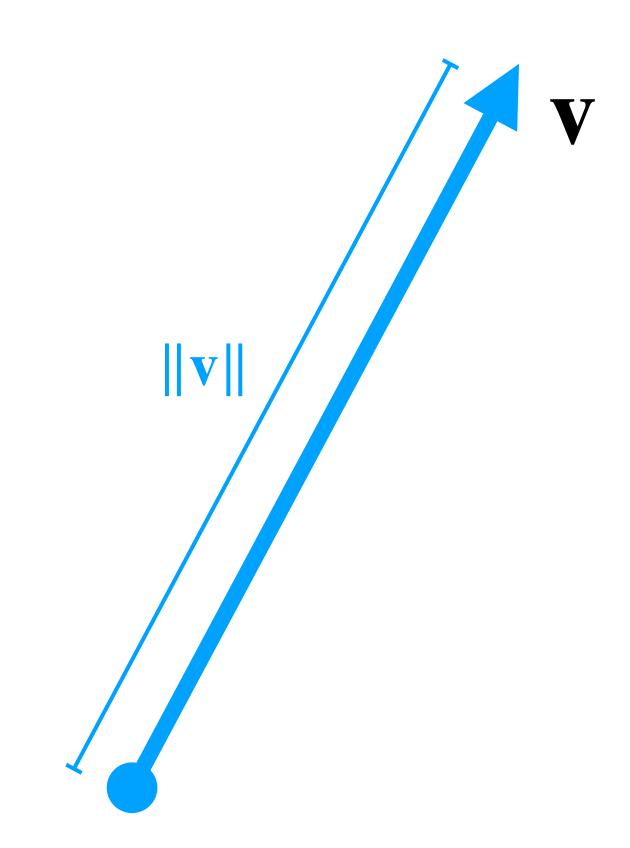
The norm of a vector is the square root of the inner product with itself.

It's important that  $\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{v}$  is nonnegative.

#### Norms and Distance

Norms give us a notion of length.

In  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and  $\mathbb{R}^3$  this is our existing notion of length.

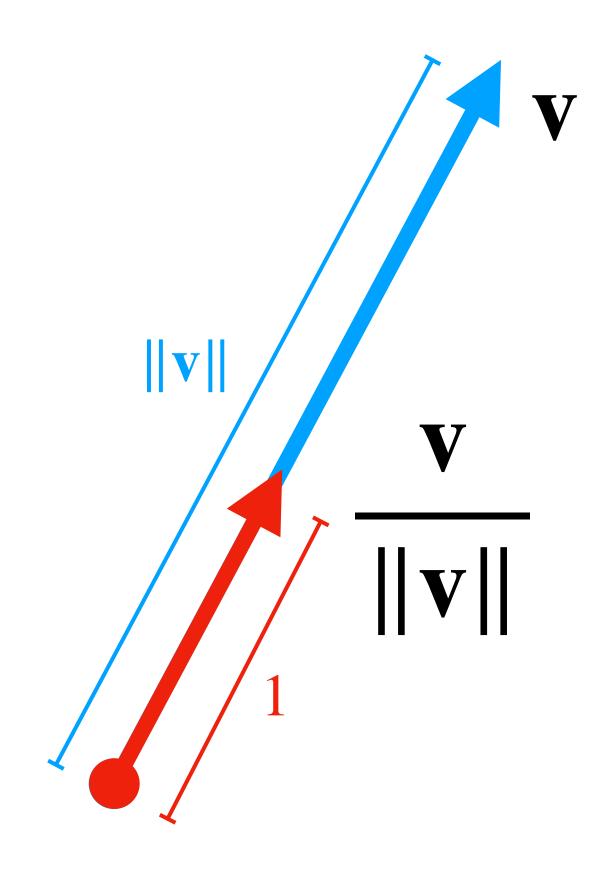


## $\ell^2$ Normalization

**Definition.** A unit vector is a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  such that ||v|| = 1.

We often *normalize* vectors if we only care about their direction:

$$\mathbf{v} \mapsto \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|}$$



## How To: Normalizing Vectors

**Question.** Find the unit vector which points in the same direction as **u**.

**Solution.** Compute  $\|\mathbf{u}\|$ . The unit vector is then

## Example

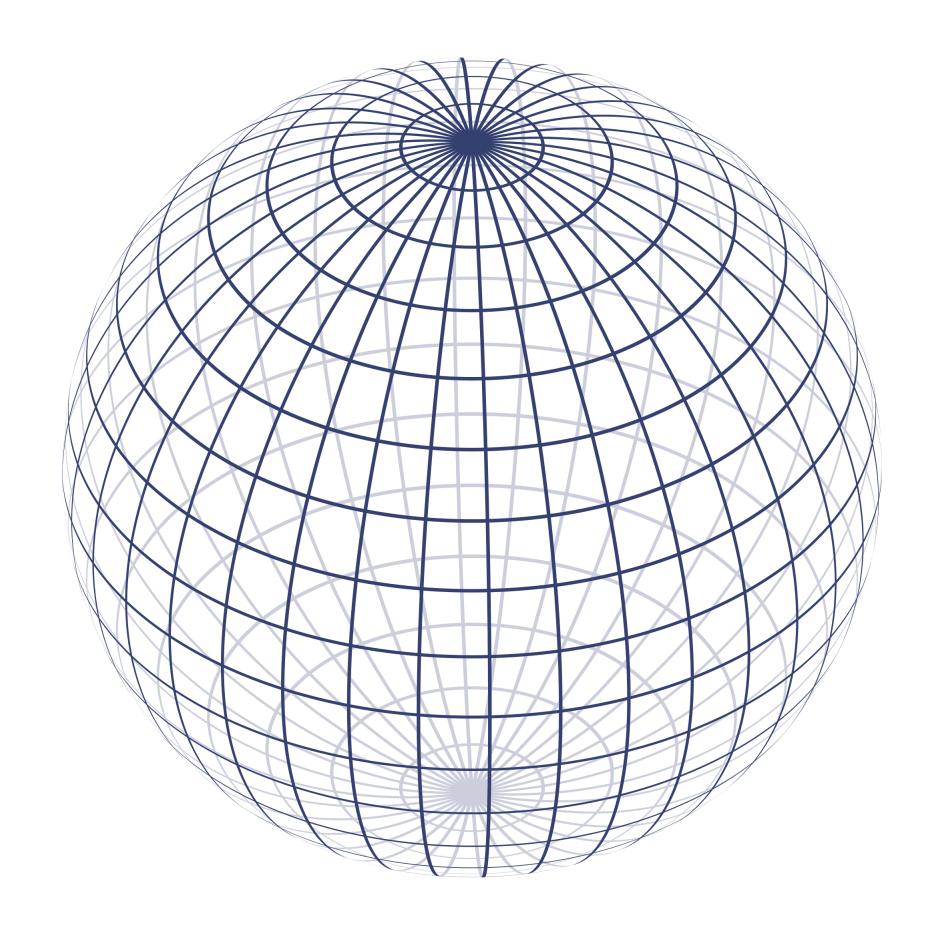
**EXAMPLE**Find the unit vector in the same direction as  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ 

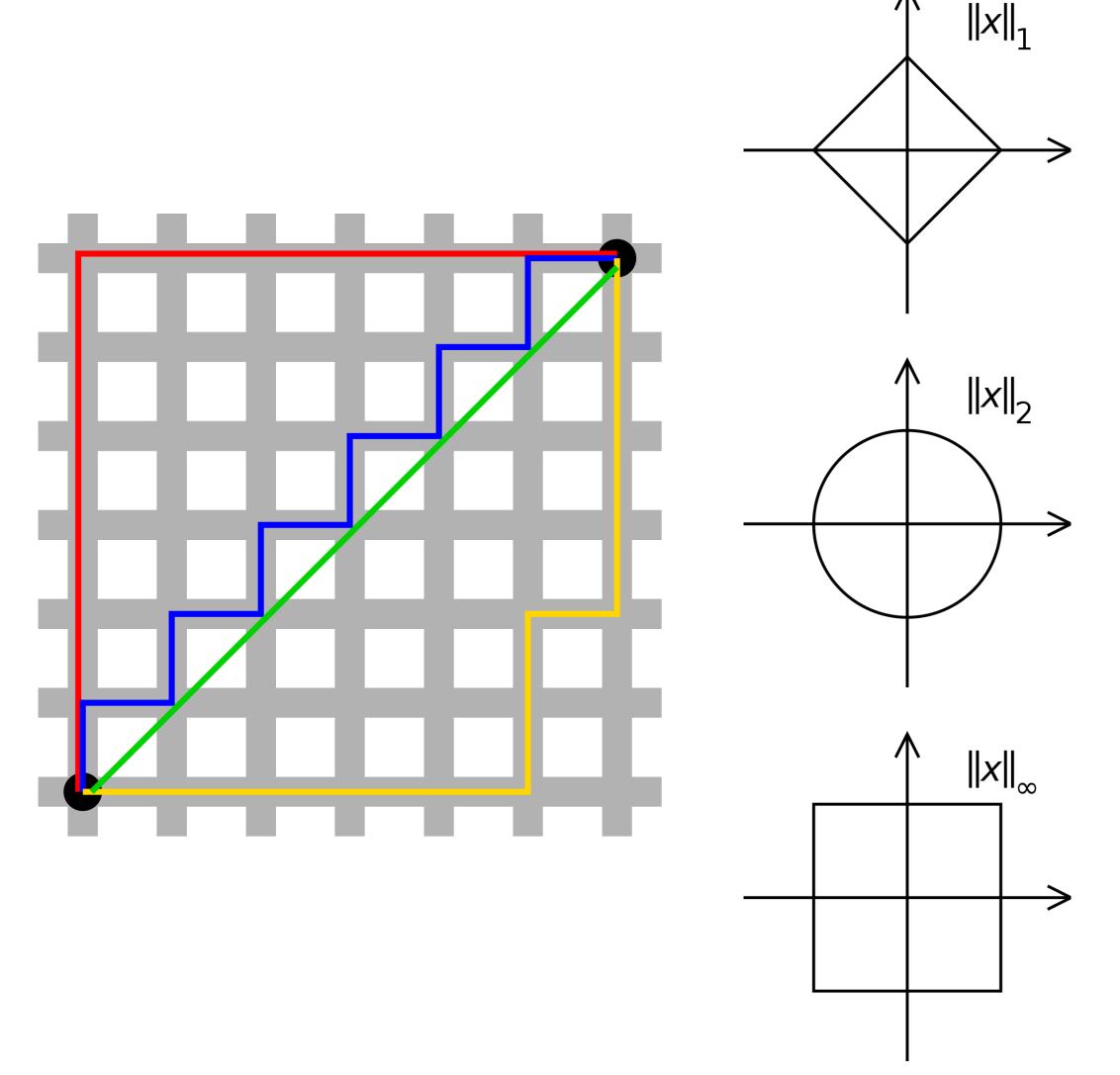
## The Unit Sphere

**Definition.** The unit n-sphere is the collection of all unit vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

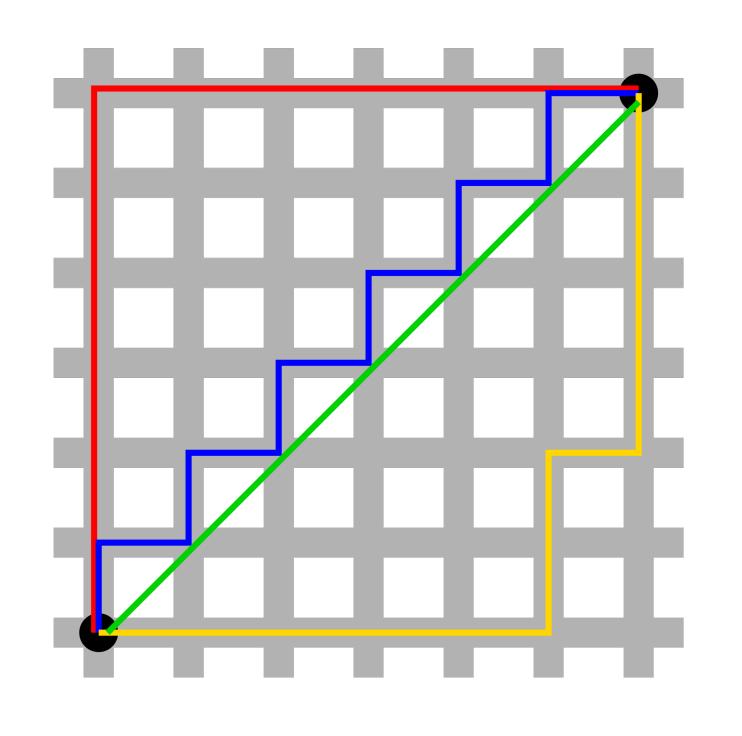
Vector norms allow us to talk about spheres in higher dimensions.

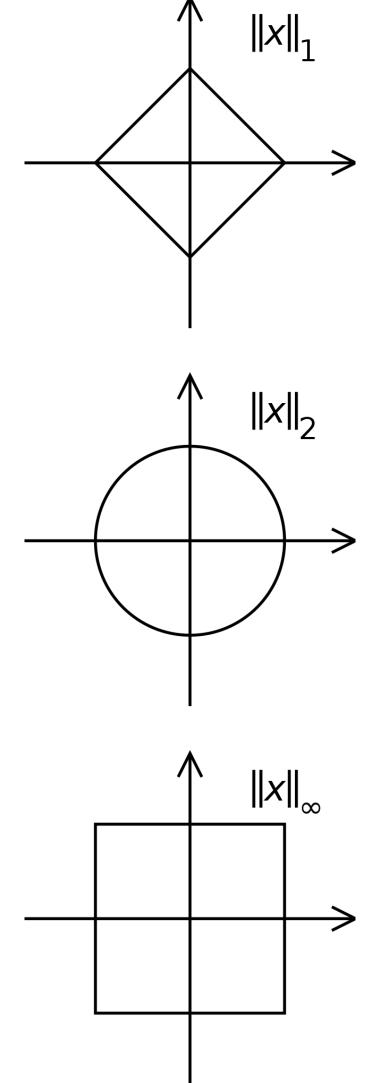
A sphere is a collection of points equidistant from a center point.





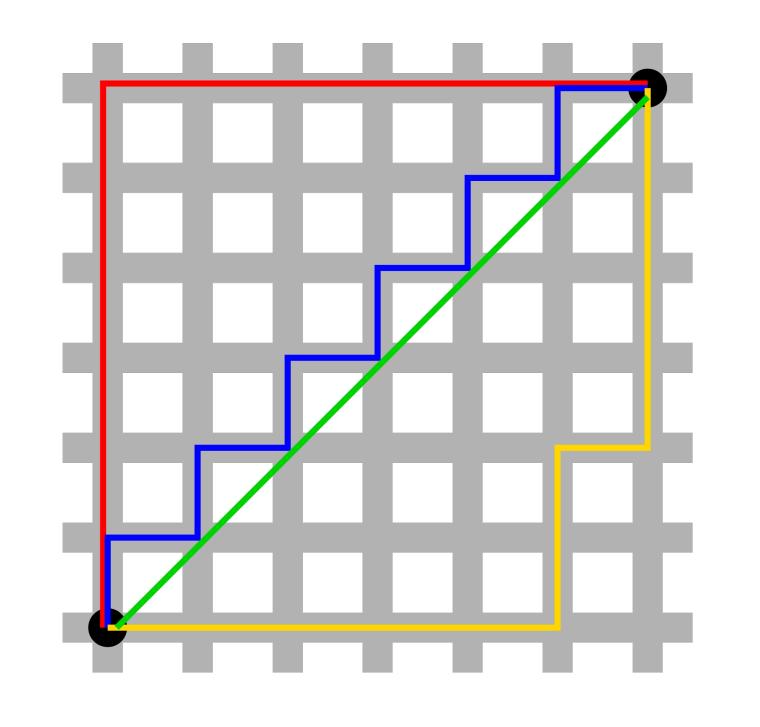
Why are we talking about norms and inner products so generally?

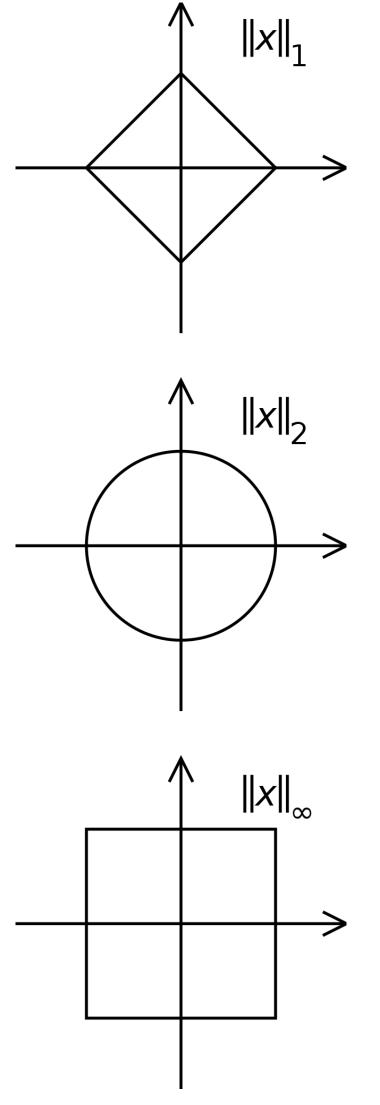




Why are we talking about norms and inner products so generally?

Because there are other inner products and norms.

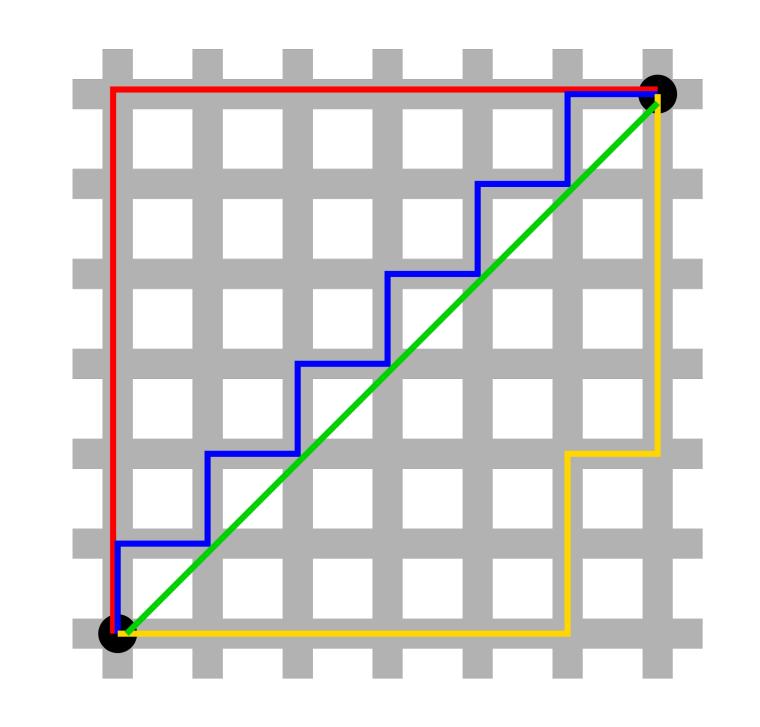


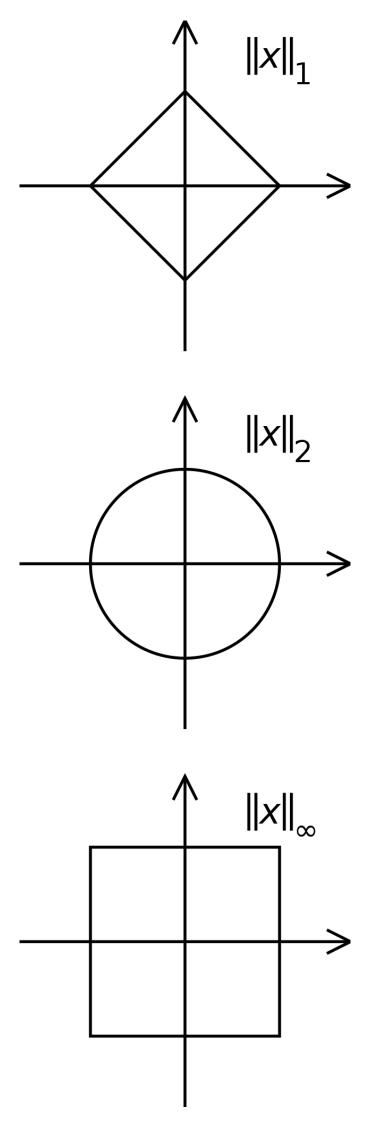


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e.g., Manhattan distance



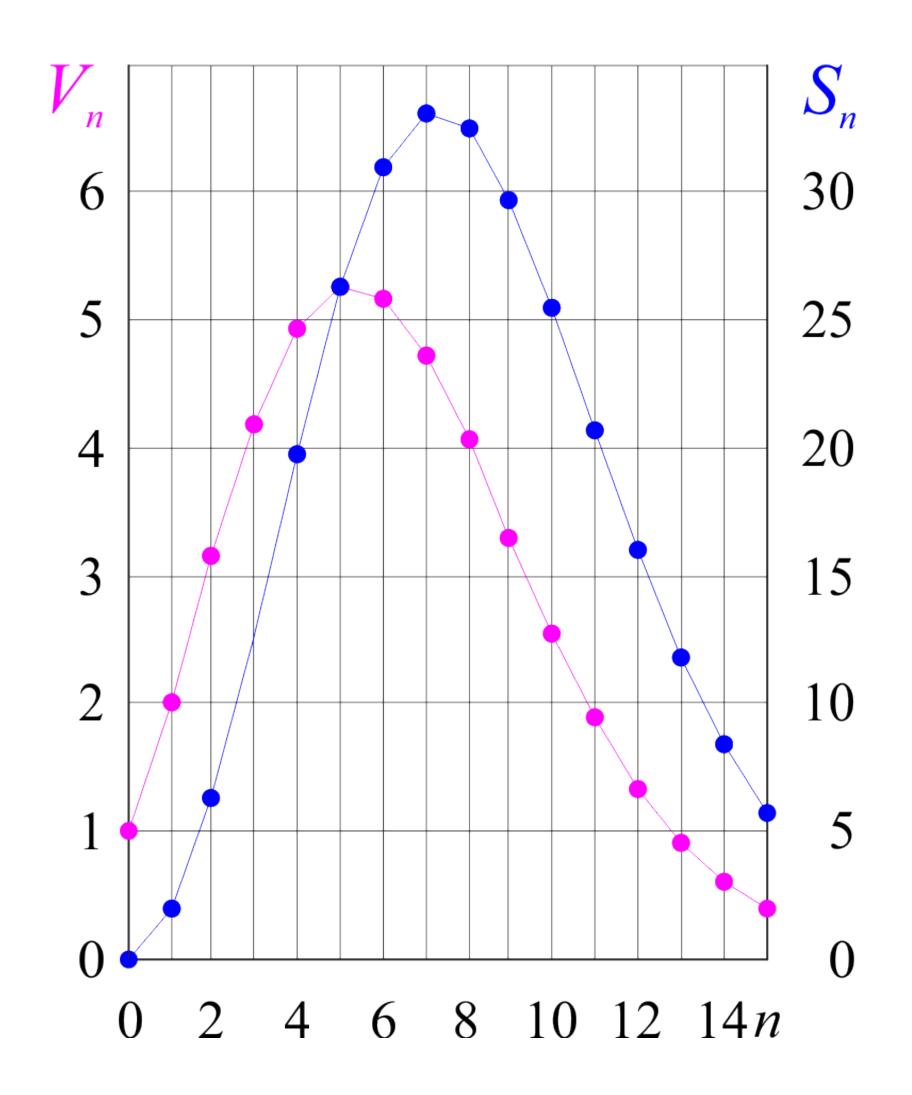


#### Another Aside: Surface Area and Volume

With a bit of calculus, we can calculate the surface area and volume of the unit *n*-sphere.

And the result is bizarre...

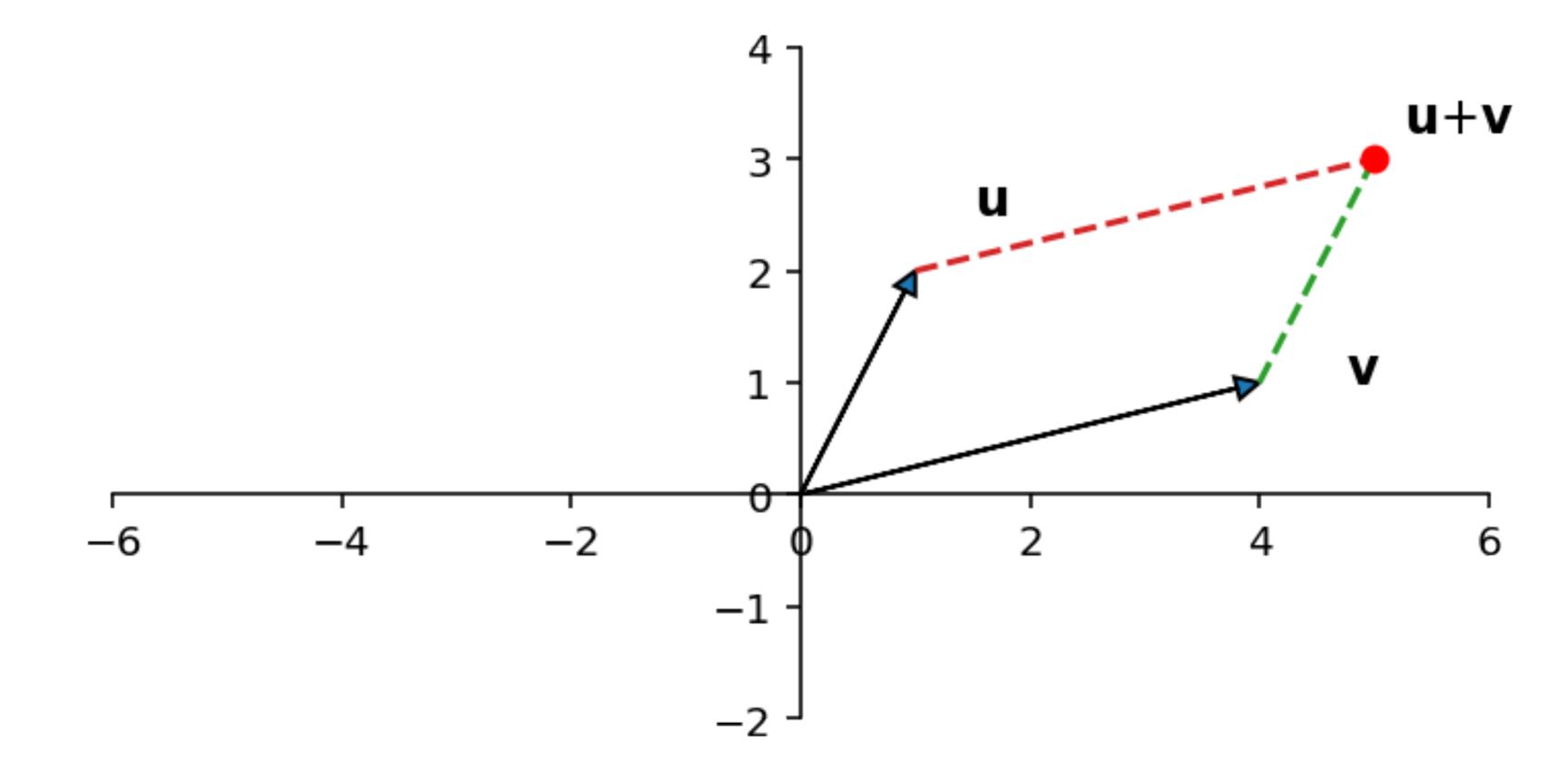
the infinite dimensional unit sphere has no volume or surface area...

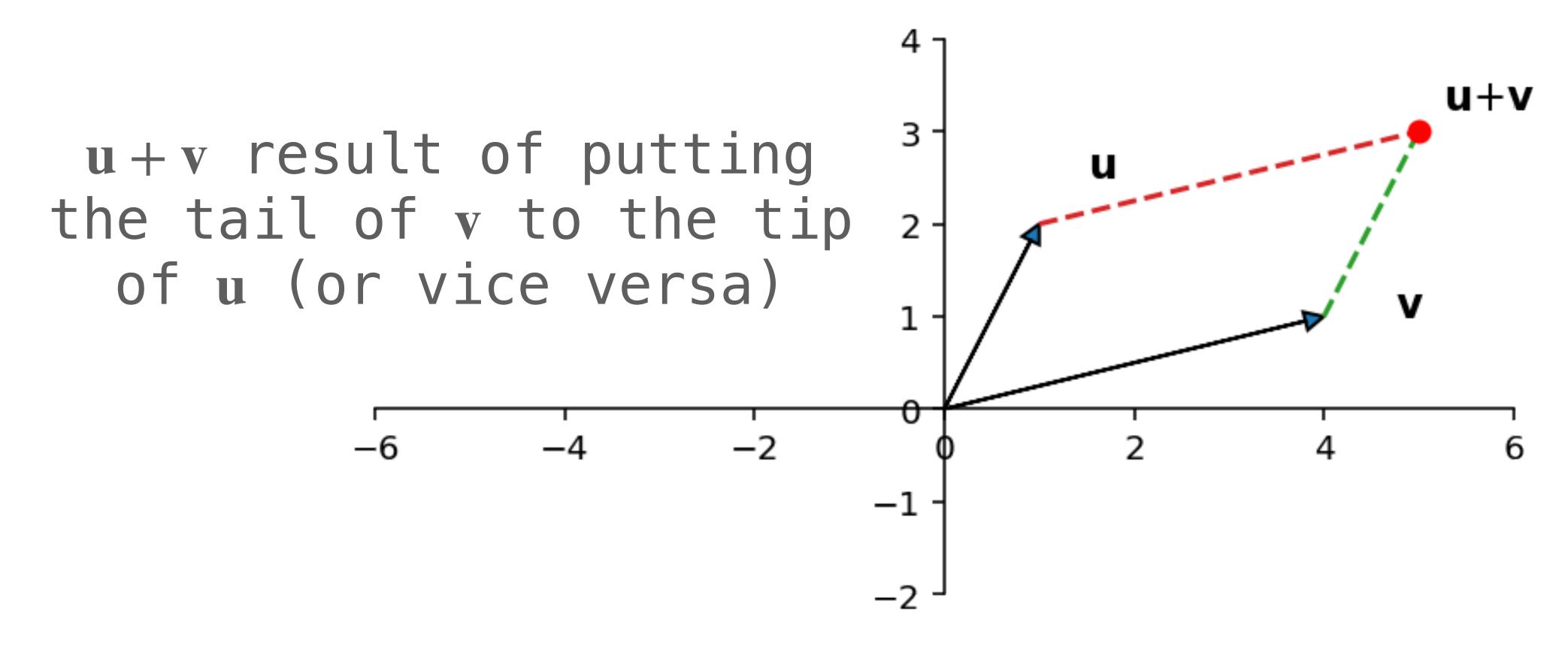


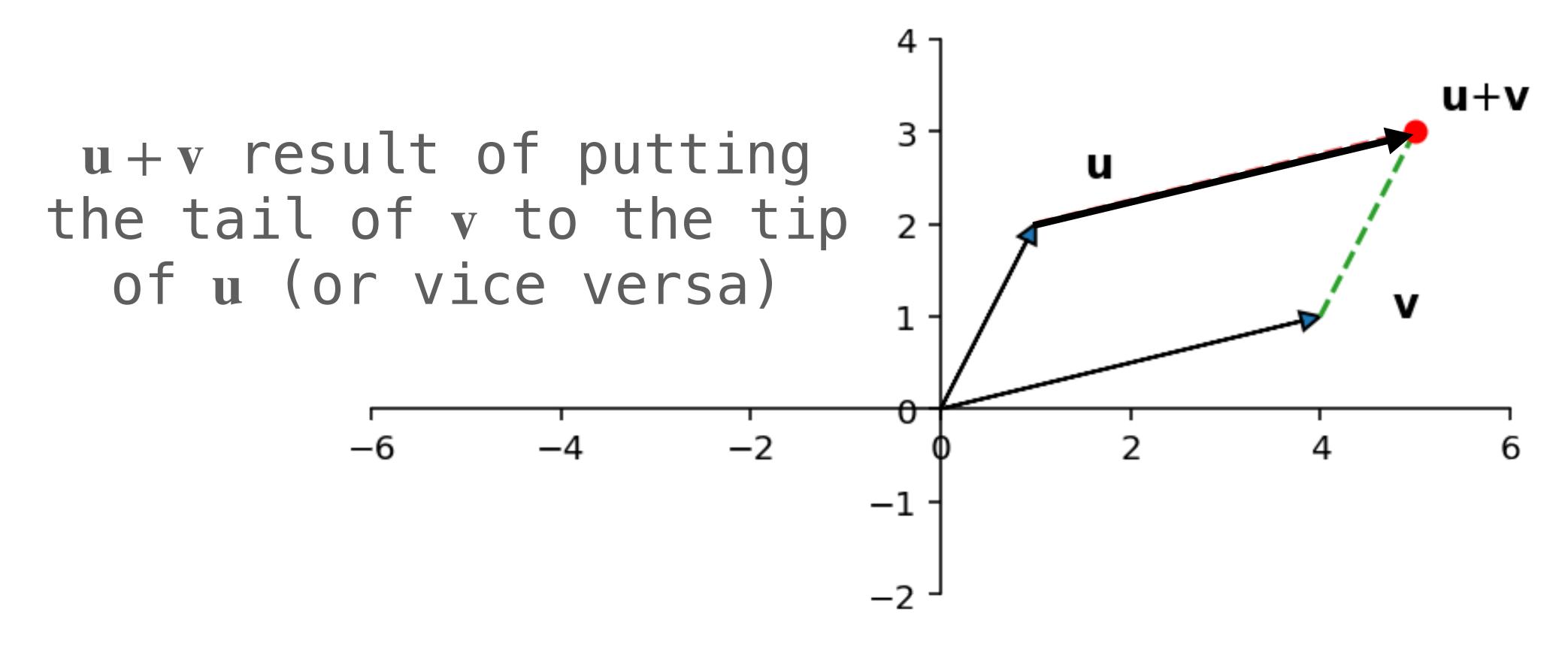
# moving on...

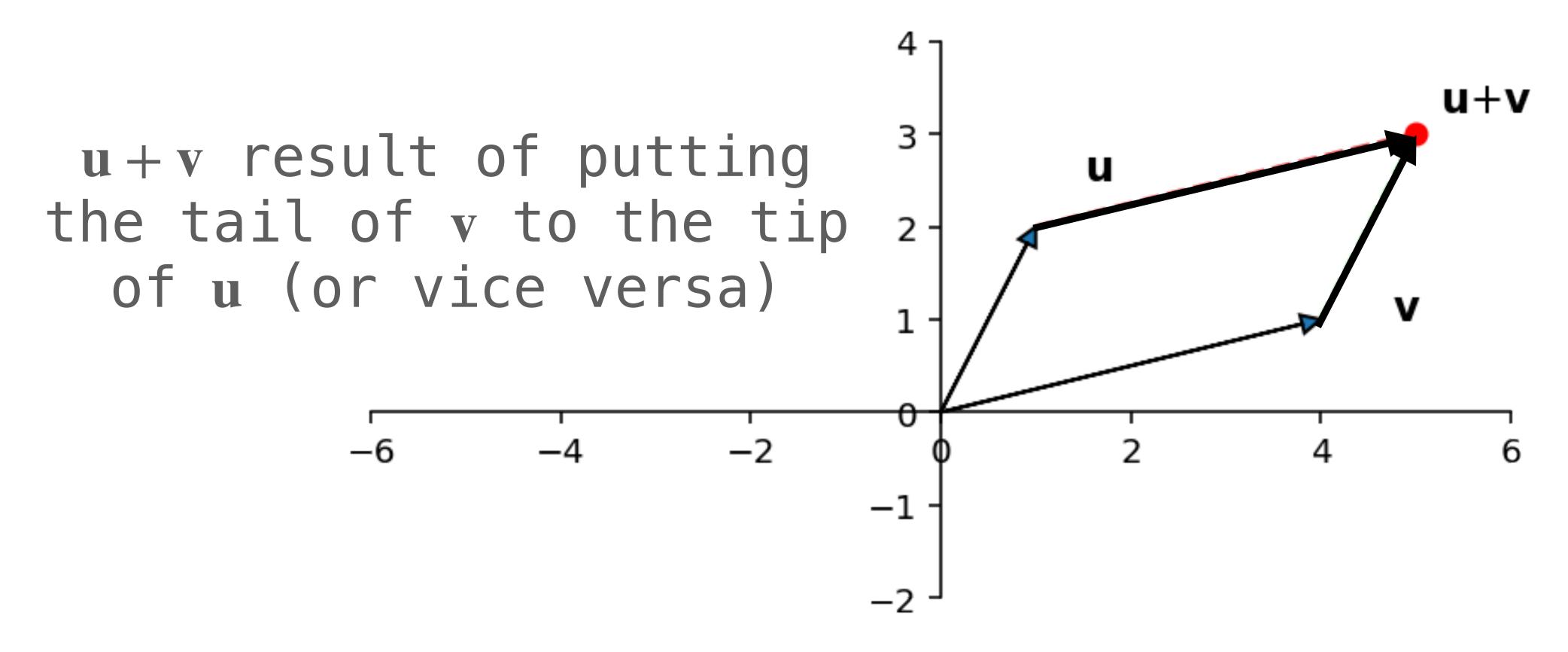
#### Distance

If we know how to calculate lengths of vectors, we know how to calculate distances.



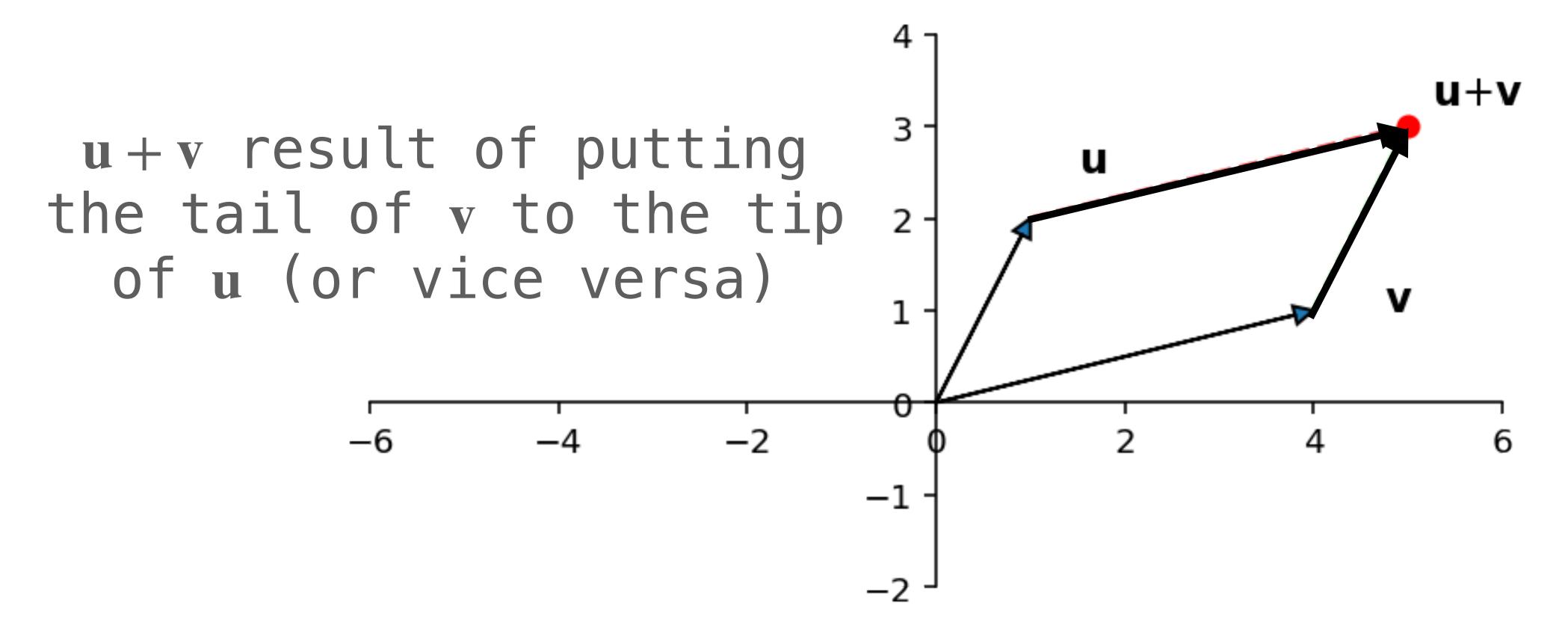




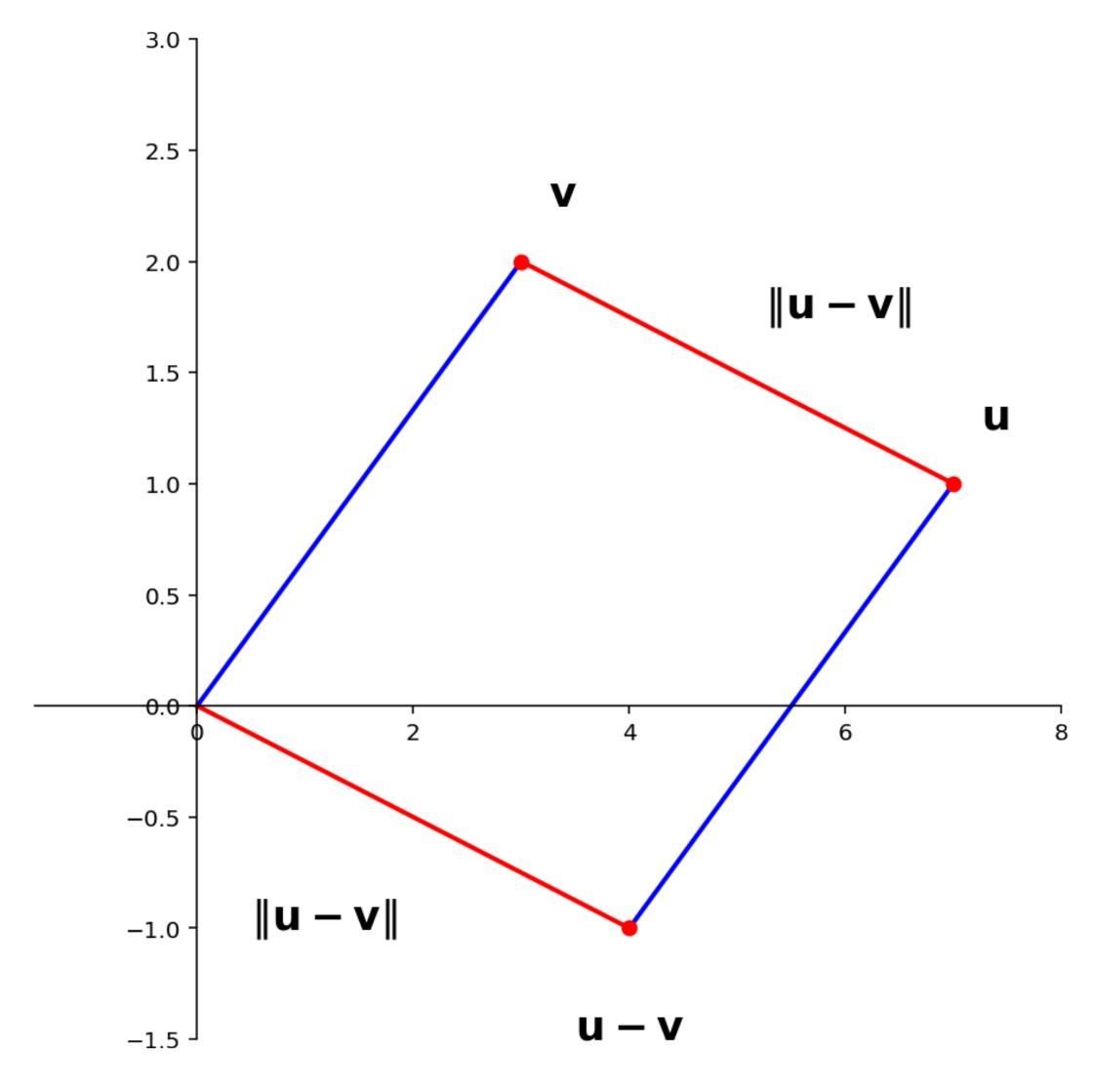


tip-to-tail rule:

The distance between  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$  is the length of  $\mathbf{v}$ 



# Distance (Pictorially)



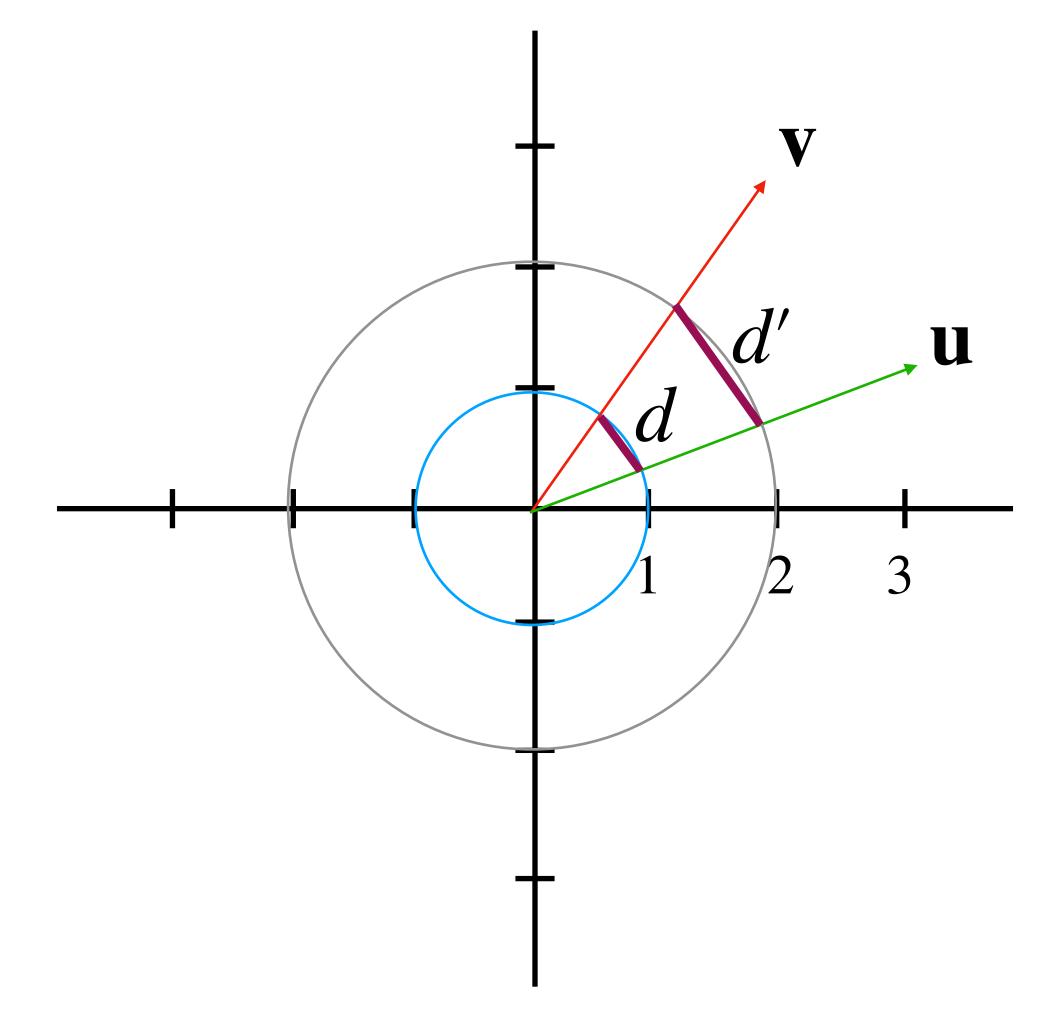
# Distance (Algebraically)

**Definition.** The distance between two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is given by

$$dist(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|$$

e.g., 
$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ 

### Question



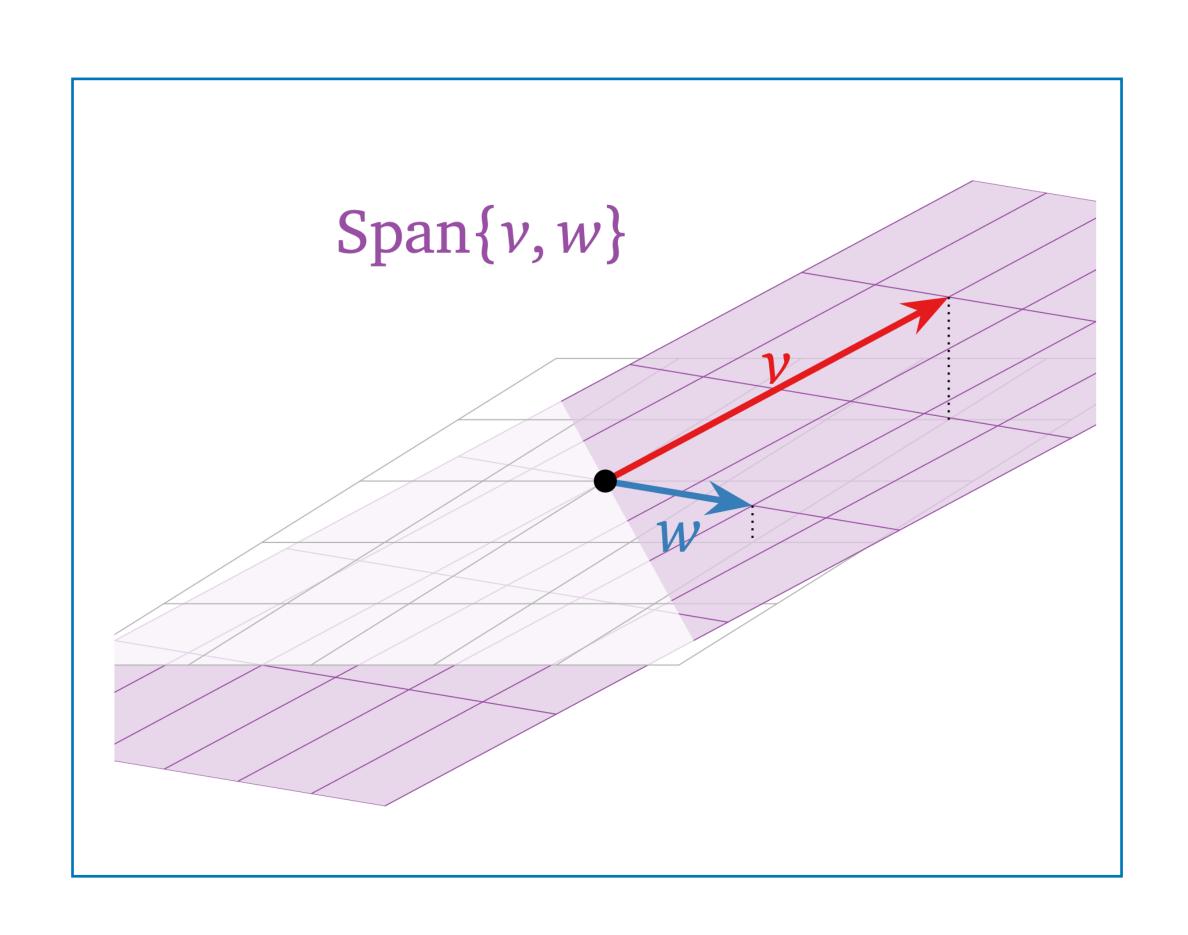
Find an expression for the distance d. Challenge. Find an expression for d'.

## Answer

# Angles

# Again, Angles still make sense

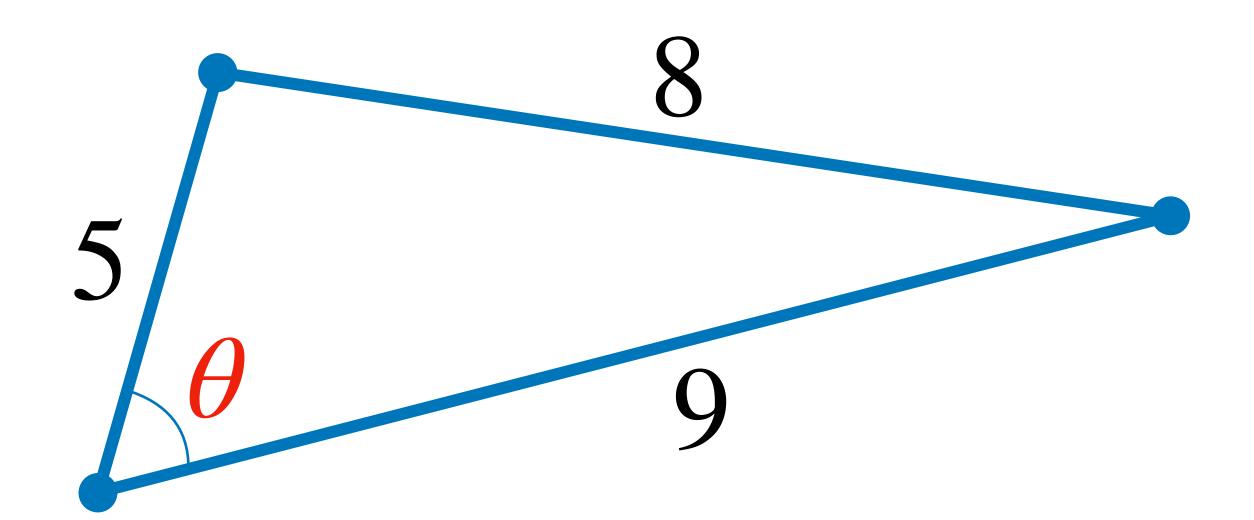
Any pair of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  span a (2D) plane.



### Fundamental Question

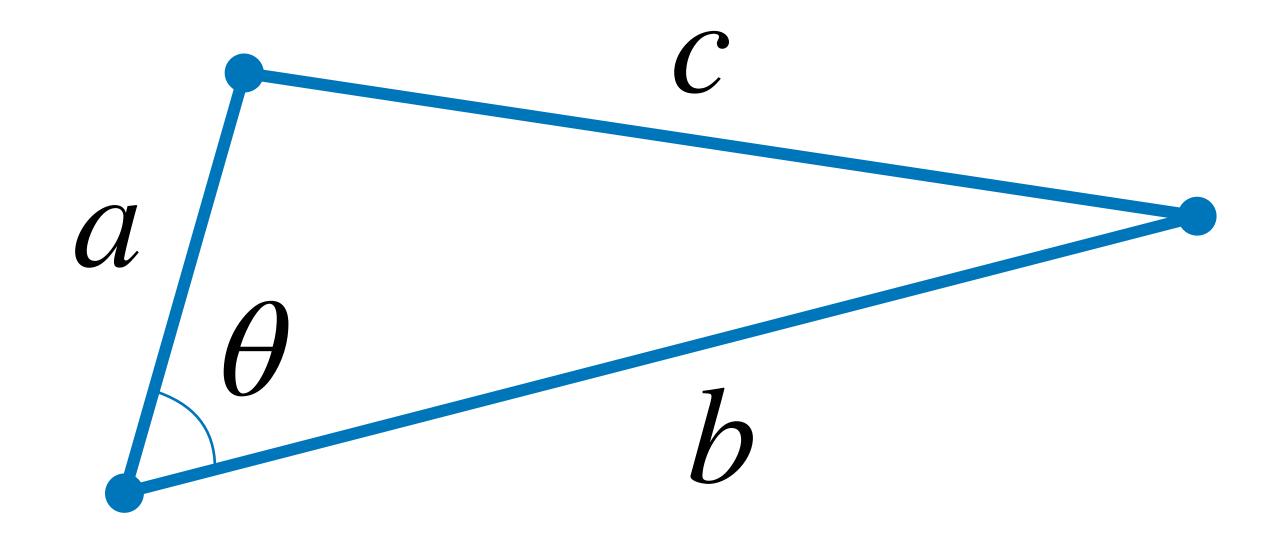
How do we determine the angle between any two vectors?

# Recall: A Potentially Familiar Example



What is the value of  $\theta$ ?

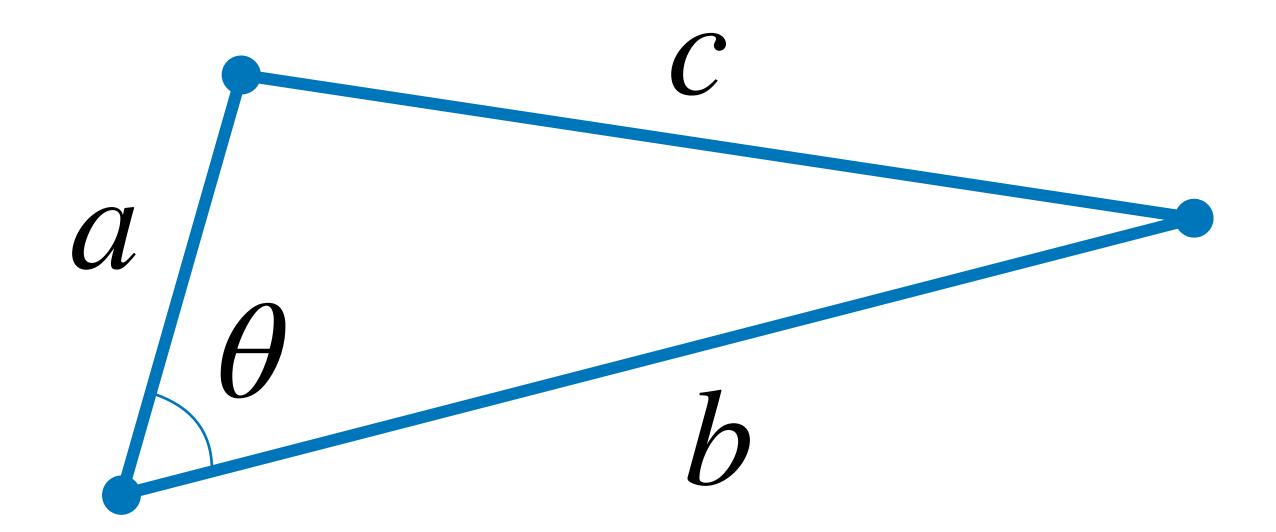
### Law of Cosines



#### Theorem.

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos\theta$$

#### Law of Cosines

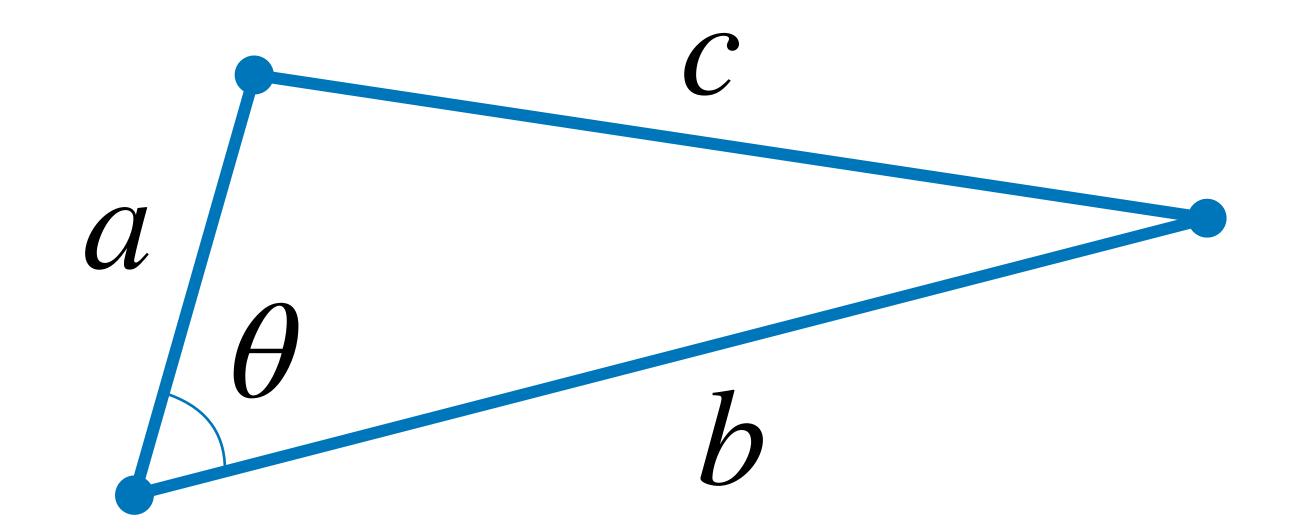


Theorem.

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos\theta$$

Generalized the Pythagorean Theorem

#### Law of Cosines



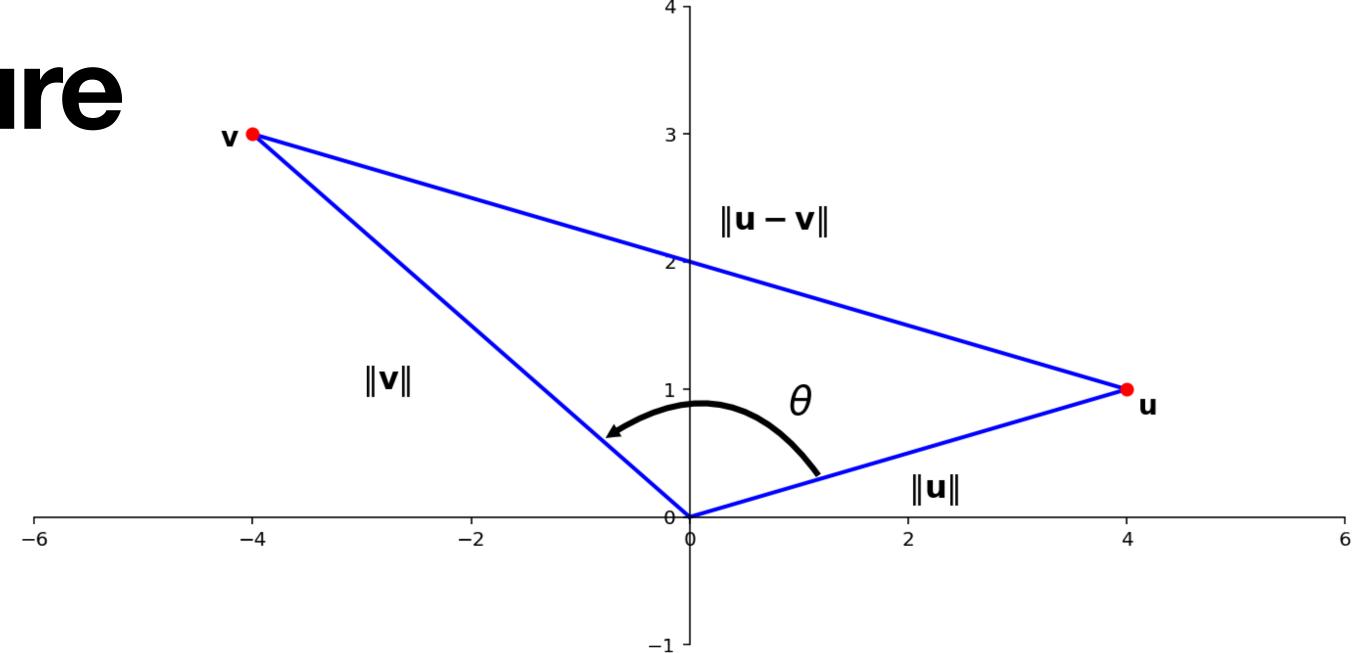
Theorem.

0 exactly when  $\theta = 90^{\circ}$ 

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos\theta$$

Generalized the Pythagorean Theorem

### The Picture



In more "vector"-y terms:

$$\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|\cos\theta$$

# Isolating $\theta$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{c^2 - a^2 - b^2}{2ab} \qquad \theta = \cos^{-1} \left( \frac{c^2 - a^2 - b^2}{2ab} \right)$$

We might remember these equations...

# Isolating $\theta$

$$\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2\|\mathbf{u}\|\|\mathbf{v}\|\cos\theta$$

Let's isolate  $\theta$  in this equation:

#### Cosines and Unit Vectors

**Theorem.** For vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with an angle  $\theta$  between them,

$$\cos \theta = \left\langle \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|}, \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \right\rangle$$

The cosine of the angle between two vectors is the inner product of their  $\ell^2$  normalizations.

# How To: Angles

**Question.** Find the angle between the two vectors **u** and **v**.

**Solution.** Compute 
$$\cos^{-1}\left(\frac{u}{\|u\|}\cdot\frac{v}{\|v\|}\right)$$
 (with a calculator).

## Example

Find the angle between the vectors

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ -7 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ -2 \\ 4 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Compute ||u|| and ||v||.

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{1^2 + 3^2 + (-7)^2 + (-2)^2} = 7.93$$
  
 $\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{8^2 + (-2)^2 + 4^2 + 6^2} = 10.95$ 

Normalize the vectors.

$$\frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.13 \\ 0.38 \\ -0.88 \\ -0.25 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.73 \\ -0.18 \\ 0.36 \\ 0.54 \end{bmatrix}$$

Find their inner product.

$$\left\langle \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|}, \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \right\rangle = (0.13 \cdot 0.73) + (0.38 \cdot -0.18) + (-0.88 \cdot 0.36) + (-0.25 \cdot 0.54)$$
$$= -0.44$$

Compute the angle.

$$\theta = \cos^{-1}(-0.44) = 116^{\circ}$$

# A Conceptual Question

Why cosine? Why not sine?

Because  $\cos 90^{\circ} = 0$ .

This means its an indicator of perpendicularity.

# Orthogonality (Perpendicularity)

## A Simpler Fundamental Question

How do we determine if angle between any two vectors is 90°?

**Definition (Informal).** Two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are **orthogonal** if then angle between them is  $90^{\circ}$ .

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Orthogonal and perpendicular are the same thing. But it doesn't connect back to inner products.

(and it's difficult to compute with)

### Recall: Cosines and Unit Vectors

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$$\cos \theta = \left\langle \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|}, \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \right\rangle$$

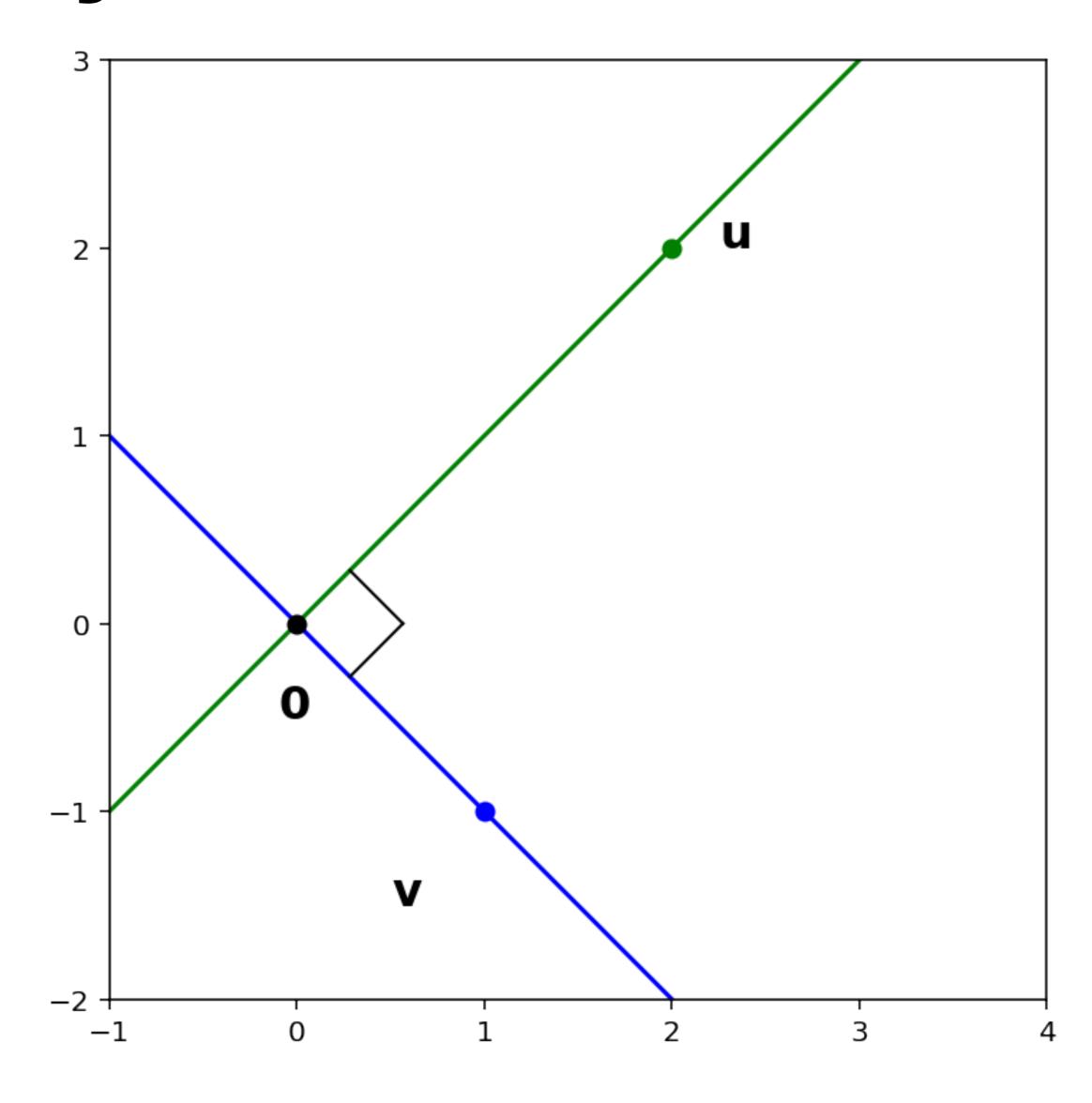
The cosine of the angle between two vectors is the inner product of their  $\ell^2$  normalizations.

**Definition (Actual).** Vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are orthogonal if  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$ .

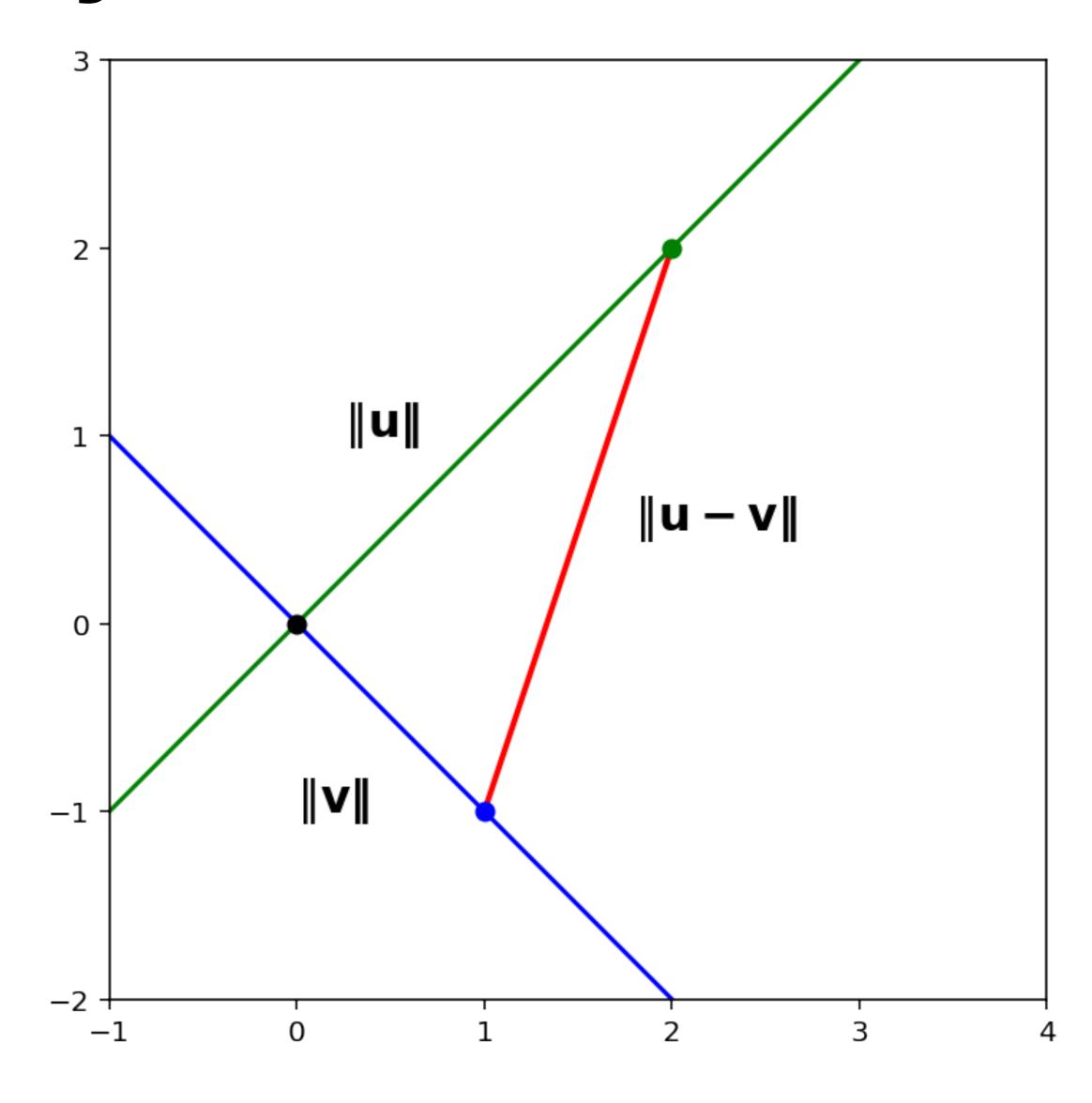
This definition gives an easy computational way to determine orthogonality.

Example.

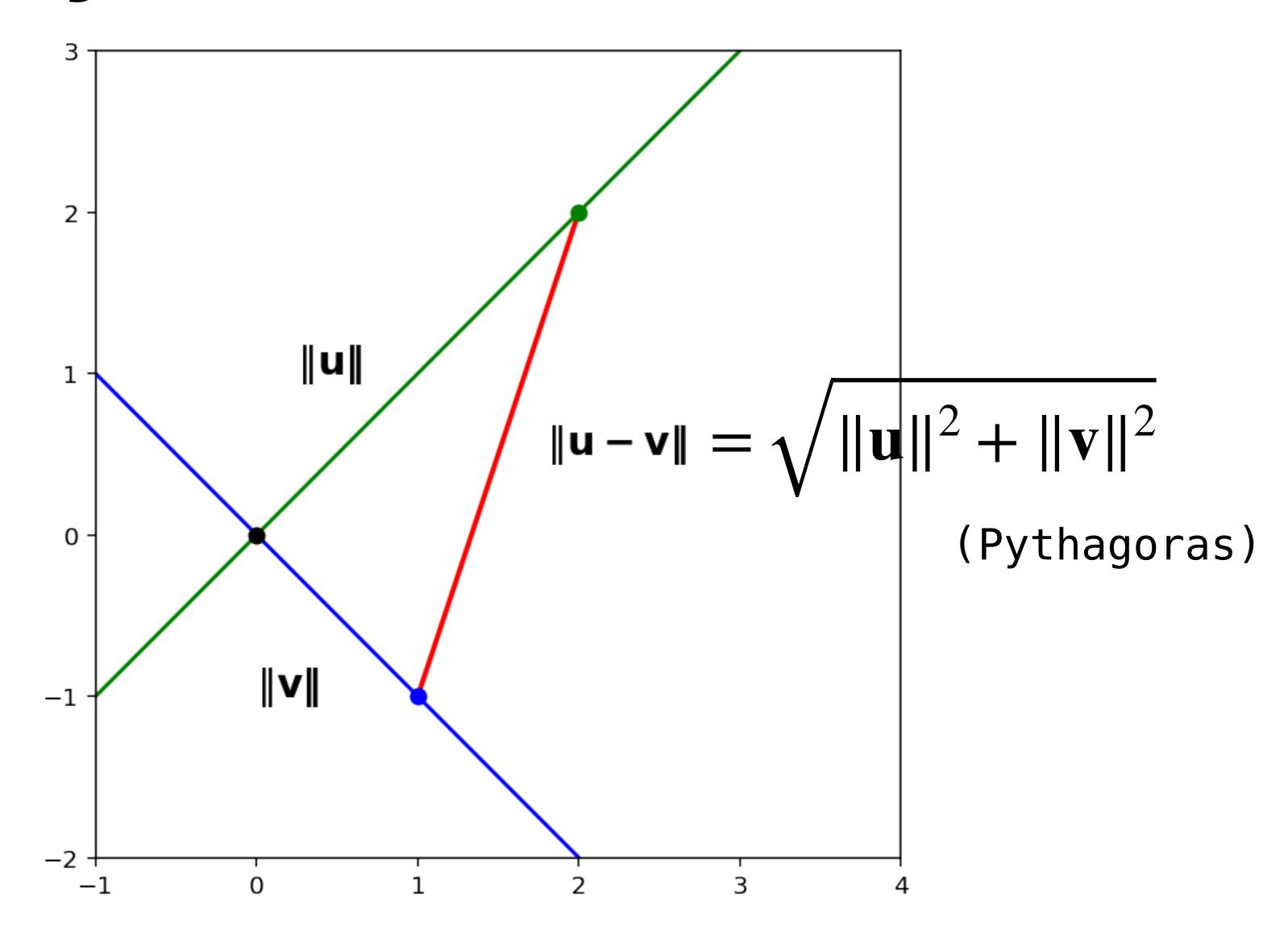
# Derivation by Picture



# Derivation by Picture



# Derivation by Picture



# Derivation by Algebra

u and v are orthogonal exactly when

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

Let's simplify this a bit:

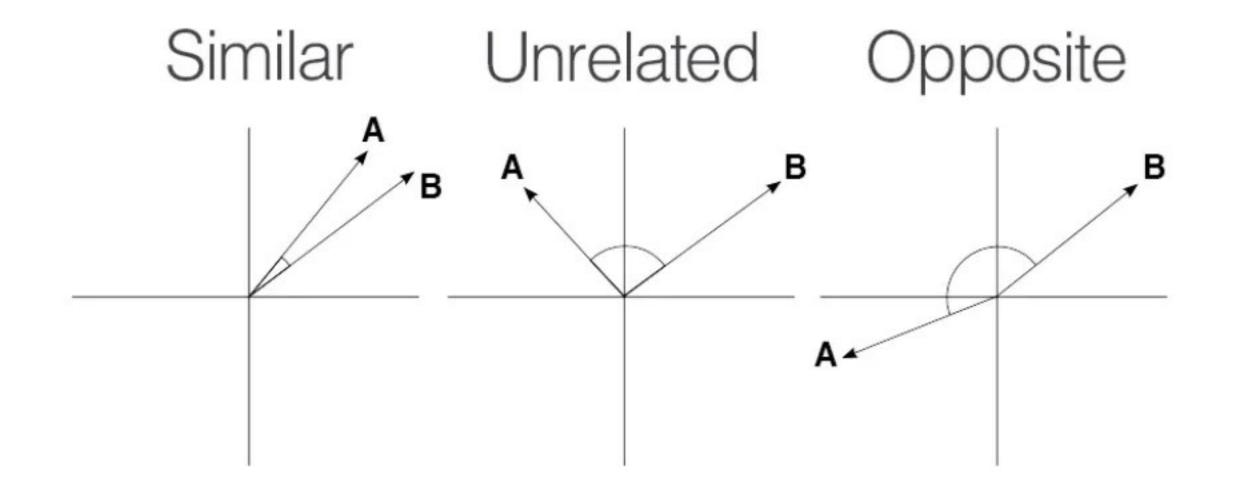
# How To: Orthogonality

Question. Determine if u and v are perpendicular.

**Solution.** Determine if  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$ . If yes, then they are perpendicular. If no, then they are not.

# Application: Cosine Similarity

# High Level



Data points are <u>very big vectors</u>.

Similar vectors "point in nearly the same direction."

## Example: Netflix Users

$$\mathsf{user}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 10 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathsf{user}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 5 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathsf{user}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 0 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{array}{c} \mathsf{comedy} \\ \mathsf{drama} \\ \mathsf{horror} \\ \mathsf{romance} \end{array}$$

A Netflix user might be represented as a vectors whose *i*th entry is the number of movies they've watched in a particular genre.

Who are more likely to share similar interests in movies?

# Cosine Similarity

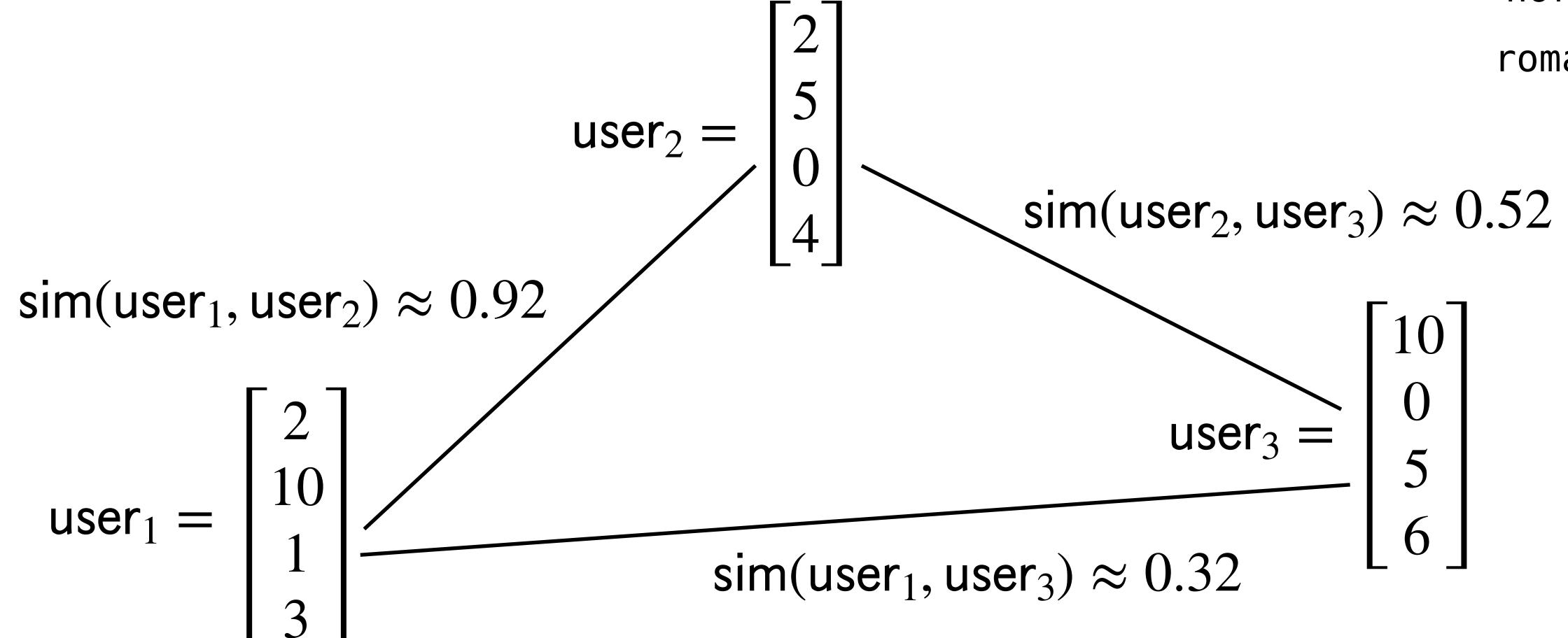
**Definition.** The **cosine similarity** of two vectors is the cosine of the angle between them.

If its close to 0, then two Netflix users watch very different movies.

If its close to 1, then two Netflix users watch very similar movies.

# Example: Netflix Users

comedy
drama
horror
romance



# Other Examples

- Document similarity
  - Documents → word count vectors
  - Similar documents should use similar words
- Word2Vec
  - Words → vector somehow
  - This underlies modern natural language processing (NLP)

# Summary

We can talk about <u>distances</u> and <u>angles</u> in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Every basic geometric concept connects to <u>inner</u> <u>products</u>.

Once we can talk about distances and angles we can talk about <u>similarity</u>.