

ORTHOGONALITY AND LEAST-SQUARES [CHAP. 6]

14-1

Inner products and Norms

- Inner product or dot product of 2 vectors u and v in \mathbb{R}^n :

$$u \cdot v = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$$

✎ Calculate $u \cdot v$ when $u = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ $v = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$

- If u and v are vectors in \mathbb{R}^n then we can regard u and v as $n \times 1$ matrices. The transpose u^T is a $1 \times n$ matrix, and the matrix product $u^T v$ is a 1×1 matrix = a scalar.

- Then note that $u \cdot v = v \cdot u = u^T v = v^T u$

14-2

Text: 6.1-3 – LSO

14-2

Length of a vector in \mathbb{R}^n

Euclidean norm of a vector u is $\|u\| = \sqrt{u \cdot u}$, i.e.,

$$\|u\| = (u \cdot u)^{1/2} = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2}$$

- This is the **length** of vector u
- If we identify v with a geometric point in the plane, then $\|v\|$ is the standard notion of the length of the line segment from 0 to v .
- This follows from the Pythagorean Theorem applied to a triangle..
- A vector of length one is often called a **unit vector**
- The process of dividing a vector by its length to create a vector of unit length (a unit vector) is called **normalizing**

✎ Normalize $v = [1; -2; 2; 0]$. [Matlab notation used]

14-3

Text: 6.1-3 – LSO

14-3

Important properties

- For any scalar α , the length of αv is $|\alpha|$ times the length of v :

$$\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|v\|$$

- The length of the sum of any two vectors does not exceed the sum of the lengths of the vectors (**Triangle inequality**)

$$\|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$$

- The Cauchy-Schwartz inequality :

$$|u \cdot v| \leq \|u\| \|v\|$$

14-4

Text: 6.1-3 – LSO


14-4

Distance in \mathbb{R}^n

Definition: The distance between u and v , two vectors in \mathbb{R}^n is the length of the vector $u - v$

➤ Written as $\text{dist}(u, v)$ or $d(u, v)$

$$d(u, v) = \|u - v\|$$

 Distance between $u = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $v = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$

➤ See illustration in Example 4 of [text](#).

14-5

Text: 6.1-3 – LSO

14-5

Orthogonality

1. Two vectors u and v are orthogonal if $u \cdot v = 0$.

Common notation: $u \perp v$

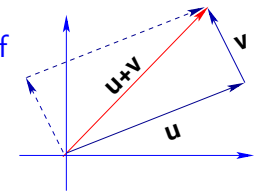
2. A system of vectors $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is **orthogonal** if $v_i \cdot v_j = 0$ for $i \neq j$.

Pythagoras theorem:

$$u \perp v \Leftrightarrow \|u + v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2$$

That is, two vectors u and v are orthogonal if and only if

$$\|u + v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2$$



14-6

Text: 6.1-3 – LSO

14-6

Orthogonal systems (continued)

 Show that the following system is orthogonal

$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad v_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$


Theorem: If $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_p\}$ is an orthogonal set of nonzero vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , then S is linearly independent. Hence S is a basis of $\text{span}(S)$.

Definition: An orthogonal basis of a subspace W is a basis of W that is also an orthogonal set.

14-7


Text: 6.1-3 – LSO

14-7

 Let $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_p\}$ be an orthogonal basis of a subspace W . Then a vector x in W is a linear combination of the v_i 's:

$$x = \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2 + \dots + \alpha_p v_p$$

How can you get the α_i 's? [Hint: Compute the inner product of x with each v_i .]

 Read Section 6.2 of [text](#) – specifically the paragraph on orthogonal projection (p. 342) for a geometric interpretation.

➤ We say that a system of vectors $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_p\}$ is **orthonormal** if it is orthogonal and in addition each v_i has unit length, i.e., $\|v_i\| = 1$.

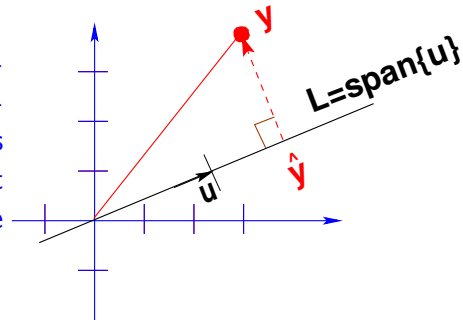
14-8

Text: 6.1-3 – LSO

14-8

A brief introduction to least-squares

- Consider the following problem: find a member of the subspace $L = \text{span}\{u\}$ that is closest to a vector y that does not belong to L . How would you solve this geometrically?



- The solution \hat{y} is best approximation of y from L

Answer: The line joining y to the best approximation \hat{y} should be orthogonal to u :

$$y - \hat{y} \perp u$$

14-9

Text: 6.1-3 – LS0

14-9

- Since Write \hat{u} is in L , we can write $\hat{u} = \alpha u$.

- Expand the orthogonality condition: $u \cdot y - u \cdot (\alpha u) = 0 \rightarrow$

$$\alpha = \frac{u \cdot y}{u \cdot u}$$

- Solve the problem when $u = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $y = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$ and provide a geometric illustration.

- See Example 3 in Section 6.2 of *text*.

14-10

Text: 6.1-3 – LS0

14-10

Least-Squares systems – Background

- Recall orthogonality: $x \perp y$ if $x \cdot y = 0$
- Equivalently $x \perp y$ if $y^T x = 0$ or $x^T y = 0$
- A zero vector is trivially orthogonal to any vector.

- A vector x is orthogonal to a subspace S if:

$$x \perp y \text{ for all } y \in S$$

- If $A = [a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n]$ is a basis of S then

$$x \perp S \iff A^T x = 0 \iff x^T A = 0$$

14-11

Text: 6.5-6 – LS

14-11

- The space of all vectors orthogonal to S is a subspace.

Notation: S^\perp

- Two subspaces S_1, S_2 are orthogonal to each other when

$$x \perp y \text{ for all } x \text{ in } S_1, \text{ for all } y \text{ in } S_2$$

14-12

Text: 6.5-6 – LS

14-12

 Show that

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Nul}(A) &\perp \text{Col}(A^T) \quad \text{and} \\ \text{Nul}(A^T) &\perp \text{Col}(A) \end{aligned}$$

► Indeed: $Ax = 0$ means $(A^T)^T x = 0$. So if $x \in \text{Nul}(A)$, it is \perp to the columns of A^T , i.e., to the range of A^T . Second result: replace A by A^T .

 Find the subspace of all vectors that are orthogonal to $\text{span}\{v_1, v_2\}$ where

$$[v_1, v_2] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

14-13

Text: 6.5-6 – LS

14-13

Least-Squares systems

Problem: Given: an $m \times n$ matrix and a right-hand side b in \mathbb{R}^m , find $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ which minimizes:

$$\|b - Ax\|$$

Assumption: $m > n$ and $\text{rank}(A) = n$ (' A is of full rank')

 Find equivalent conditions to this assumption

Theorem If A has full rank then $A^T A$ is invertible.

Proof We need to prove: $A^T Ax = 0$ implies $x = 0$. Assume $A^T Ax = 0$. Then $x^T A^T Ax = 0$ – i.e., $(Ax)^T Ax = 0$, or $\|Ax\|^2 = 0$. This means $Ax = 0$. But since the columns of A are independent x must be zero. QED.

14-14

Text: 6.5-6 – LS

14-14

Theorem Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix of rank n . Then x^* is the solution of the least-squares problem $\min \|b - Ax\|$

if and only if $b - Ax^* \perp \text{Col}(A)$

if and only if $A^T(b - Ax^*) = 0$

if and only if $A^T Ax^* = A^T b$

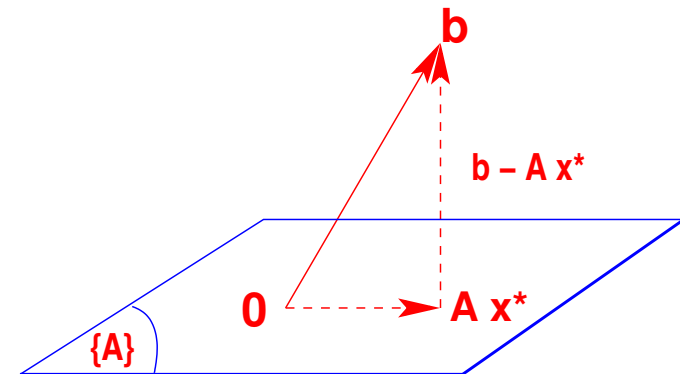
Proof See text.

14-15

Text: 6.5-6 – LS

14-15

Illustration of theorem: x^* is the best approximation to the vector b from the subspace $\text{span}\{A\}$ if and only if $b - Ax^*$ is \perp to the whole subspace $\text{span}\{A\}$. This in turn is equivalent to $A^T(b - Ax^*) = 0$ ► $A^T Ax = A^T b$. Note: $\text{span}\{A\} = \text{Col}(A)$ = column space of A



14-16

Text: 6.5-6 – LS

14-16

Normal equations

- The system

$$A^T A x = A^T b$$

is called the system of **normal equations** for the matrix A and rhs b

- Its solution is the solution of the least-squares problem $\min \|b - Ax\|$

✎ Find the least solution by solving the normal equations when:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -2 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad b = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 4 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

14-17

Text: 6.5-6 – LS

14-17

Application: Linear data fitting

- Experimental data (not accurate) provides measurements y_1, \dots, y_m of an unknown linear function ϕ at points t_1, \dots, t_m . Problem: find the 'best' possible approximation to ϕ .

- Must find:

$$\phi(t) = \beta_0 + \beta_1 t \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \phi(t_j) \approx y_j, j = 1, \dots, m$$

- Question: Close in what sense?

- Least-squares approximation sense: Find ϕ such that

$$|\phi(t_1) - y_1|^2 + |\phi(t_2) - y_2|^2 + \dots + |\phi(t_m) - y_m|^2 = \text{Min}$$

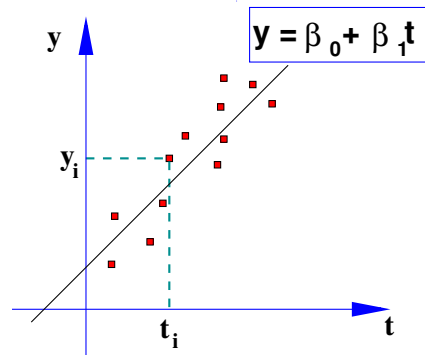
14-18

Text: 6.5-6 – LS

14-18

- We want to find best fit in least-squares sense for the equations

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_0 + \beta_1 t_1 &= y_1 \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 t_2 &= y_2 \\ \vdots &= \vdots \\ \beta_0 + \beta_1 t_m &= y_m \end{aligned}$$



- Using matrix notation this means: find 'best' approximation to vector y from linear combinations of vectors f_1, f_2 , where

$$y = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix}, \quad f_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad f_2 = \begin{pmatrix} t_1 \\ t_2 \\ \vdots \\ t_m \end{pmatrix}$$

14-19

Text: 6.5-6 – LS

14-19

- Define

$$F = [f_1, f_2], \quad x = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- We want to find x such $\|Fx - y\|$ is minimum.

- Least-squares linear system. F is $m \times 2$.

The vector x_* minimizes $\|y - Fx\|$ if and only if it is the solution of the **normal equations**:

$$F^T F x = F^T y$$

14-20

Text: 6.5-6 – LS

14-20