

§3.3. Least Squares

Least squares soln to $ax=b$ is $\hat{x} = \frac{a^T b}{a^T a}$.

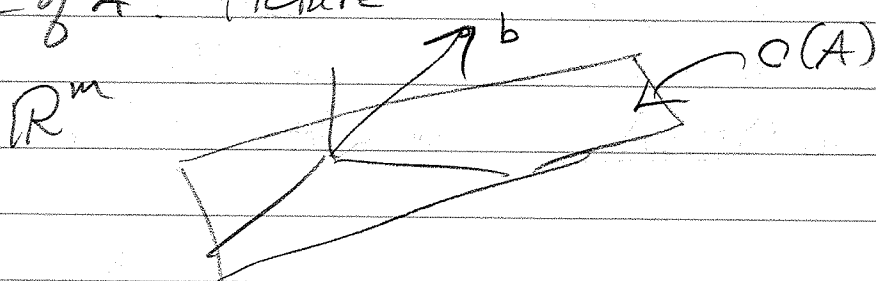
error $e = x - \hat{x}a$ is \perp to b .

Let's do in several variables now.

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix — this really is especially interesting when $m > n$, since
 $A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$

So the range of $A = \{y; y = Ax \text{ for some } x\}$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m , and the range is at most n -dimensional.

We use the notation column space ^{(C(A))} for the range of A . Picture



So if $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$, the closest point in $C(A)$ is $A\hat{x}$ where \hat{x} (there may be more than one) is chosen so that

$$\min_x \|Ax - b\| = \|A\hat{x} - b\|$$

Again,

$$e = (b - A\hat{x}) \text{ is } \perp C(A)$$

Formula

$$Pb = p = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T b.$$

(yesterday, when projecting on the line determined by \underline{a} , we had

$$Pb = p = \frac{aa^T}{a^T a} b.$$

Notice we write it differently here).

3.3-2

Let's review geometry.

a) if v is \perp to $C(A)$ then v is in the left nullspace, or $N(A^T)$. So if

$$b = A\hat{x} \quad (\hat{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n)$$

is best solution, then

$$A^T(b - A\hat{x}) = 0$$

$$\boxed{A^T b = A^T A \hat{x}}$$

$$\text{Then } \hat{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$$

$$p = A\hat{x} = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$$

Note $(A^T A)^{-1}$ will usually exist even if A^{-1} does not. What we need is that the row space of A have dimension n , which is usually less than m . A is to have maximum rank (see p 163). In other words, if $Ax = 0$ only when $x = 0$, then

$$(A^T A)^{-1}$$

exists.

$A^T A$ is symmetric (and square). And if

$A^T A x = 0$, then

$$x^T A^T A x = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \|Ax\|^2 = 0$$

Properties of P : $P = P^T$, $P^2 = P$

$$(P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T)$$

Note that if P satisfies $P^2 = P$, $P = P^T$, then

Pb is in the column space of P : if c is any vector, then

$$(b - Pb)^T P c = 0$$

since

$$\begin{aligned}
 & 3.3-3 \quad \swarrow \text{Symm.} \\
 (b-Pb)^T P c &= b^T (I-P)^T P c \\
 &= b^T \underbrace{(P - P^2)}_{=0} c = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

So $b^T P b$ is 1 to $\mathcal{C}(A)$

P 165 - Simplifies if A is invertible: $P = I$

Fitting data to a line

Suppose we have at times t_1, \dots, t_m data b_1, \dots, b_m , and we want to choose C and D so that the line

$$Ct + D$$

is the best fit. This gives the matrix "equation"

$$\begin{array}{l}
 m \times 2 \rightarrow \\
 A \rightarrow
 \end{array}
 \begin{bmatrix}
 1 & t_1 \\
 1 & t_2 \\
 \vdots & \vdots \\
 1 & t_m
 \end{bmatrix}
 \begin{bmatrix}
 C \\
 D
 \end{bmatrix}
 =
 \begin{bmatrix}
 b_1 \\
 \vdots \\
 b_m
 \end{bmatrix}
 ; \quad Ax = b$$

If $m > 2$, we can only hope for best fit. So $x = \begin{bmatrix} C \\ D \end{bmatrix}$ and best value is to take

$$p = \underbrace{A}_{(m \times 2)} \underbrace{(A^T A)^{-1}}_{(2 \times 2)} \underbrace{A^T}_{(2 \times m)} \underbrace{b}_{m \times 1} \rightarrow 2 \times 1 \text{ matrix}$$

pd 70 #6 $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ -2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ $A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -8 \\ -8 & 18 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\text{So } p = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ -2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 & -8 \\ -8 & 18 \end{bmatrix}^{-1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -2 \\ 1 & -1 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

$b - pb$ is
in left
nullspace

3.4 1

Orthogonal bases, Gram-Schmidt

3.4

Def of orthonormal (ON) (Generalization of e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n)
 Can convert any basis to an ON basis (Gram-Schmidt)

Def An orthogonal matrix Q is a square matrix with orthonormal columns (so they form a basis). Key property:

$$Q^T = Q^{-1}$$

(serves as a definition too)

Ex: rotation, permutation matrix (think!) Ex: rotation
 Check: $\|Qx\| = \|x\|$ (for projection, $\|Px\| \leq \|x\|$)

Why convenient? Let g_1, \dots, g_n be an ON basis.

Then if x is a vector, $x = \sum c_j g_j$. And

$$c_j = (x, g_j)$$

(so it depends only on g_j , not the other basis vectors)

$$Q^T Q = I, \quad Q Q^T \text{ is not } I. \quad \left(= \frac{g_i^T g_j}{g_i^T g_i} \right) \text{ (Pythagoras)}$$

Least squares (so now Q is $m \times n$ with $m > n$)

$$p = A \hat{x} = A (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b,$$

we get

$$p = \underbrace{Q Q^T}_{\text{Proj matrix}} b$$

G-S process: Let b_1, \dots, b_n be a basis.

wlog, assume $\|b_j\| = 1$ for all j . Then let

Strang: leave g_2, g_3, \dots etc.

(Δ operation)

$$g_1' = b_1$$

$$g_2' = b_2 - (g_1, b_2) g_1, \quad g_2 = g_2' / \|g_2'\|$$

$$g_3' = b_3 - (g_1, b_3) g_1 - (g_2, b_3) g_2; \quad g_3 = g_3' / \|g_3'\|$$

3.4-2

Factorization \downarrow columns Q R \downarrow invertible

$$A = [a_1 \ a_2 \ \dots \ a_n] = [q_1 \ q_2 \ \dots \ q_n] \begin{bmatrix} q_1^T a_1 & q_1^T a_2 & \dots & q_1^T a_n \\ q_2^T a_1 & q_2^T a_2 & \dots & q_2^T a_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ q_n^T a_1 & q_n^T a_2 & \dots & q_n^T a_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Earlier, $A = LU$, but here the columns of Q are orthogonal.

Also, the determinant is the product of the diagonal entries of R . orthog expansion

$$a_j = (q_1^T a_j) q_1 + (q_2^T a_j) q_2 + \dots + (q_n^T a_j) q_n$$

(this is $Q \times (\text{col } j \text{ of } R)$)

$$(q_n^T a_j) q_n = a_j - (q_1^T a_j) q_1 - \dots - (q_{n-1}^T a_j) q_{n-1}$$

Least squares simplifies a lot. We had

$$P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$$

But now we have Q instead of A , Q is $m \times n$, $m > n$, S we had before

$$A^T A = R^T Q^T Q R = R^T R$$

and $A^T A \hat{x} = b$ becomes

$$R^T R \hat{x} = A^T b = R^T Q^T b \quad \text{or}$$

$$R \hat{x} = Q^T b$$

↑
triangular so easier!

P186#9 q_1, q_2, q_3 ON, what linear combination of q_1, q_2 closest to q_3 ? $0 q_1 + 0 q_2$

#12 $\left(\begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - c \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right) = 0$

$$0 = 4 - c + c \cdot 1 = 4 - 2c, \text{ so } c = 2,$$

Check $\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \perp \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \checkmark$

3.4' Application: Fourier Series

Two infinite-dimensional vector spaces, one of which is of interest

1. Hilbert space: (x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) (only many)

such that $\sum x_n^2 < \infty$

Ex $(1, 1/2, 1/3, \dots)$

$$\|x\| = (\sum x_j^2)^{1/2}$$

$$x \cdot y = \sum x_j y_j$$

2. $L^2[a, b]$ Say $a=0, b=2\pi$

$$L^2[a, b] = f(x) : \int_a^b (f(x))^2 < \infty$$

Take $a=0, b=2\pi$. Then any continuous function is in L^2 . But $1/x$ or $1/(2\pi-x)$ is NOT in L^2 .

$$(f, g) = \int f(x)g(x) dx$$

$$\|f\| = (\int f(x)^2 dx)^{1/2} \quad (\text{like } \mathbb{R}^n!)$$

Ex $\sin x$ is \perp 1 and $\cos x$ on $(0, 2\pi)$

$$\|\sin x\|^2 = \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 x dx = \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{1 - \cos 2x}{2} dx$$

$$= \pi$$

So $\|\sin x\| = \sqrt{\pi}$

Remark $\cos nx, \sin mx$ are all orthogonal.

$$\cos m x \cos n x = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(m+n)x + \cos(m-n)x], \sin m x \sin n x = \frac{1}{2} [\cos(n-m)x - \cos(m+n)x]$$

3. Let's do polynomials, on $[-1, 1]$ (formulas better there)

Try $1, x, x^2$ (we could go on),

1 is \perp x : $\int_{-1}^1 1 \cdot x dx = 0$

1 is NOT \perp x^2 : $\int_{-1}^1 1 \cdot x^2 dx > 0$ ($= 2/3$)

So we have

$$ATA = \begin{bmatrix} (1,1) & (1,x) & (1,x^2) \\ (x,1) & (x,x) & (x,x^2) \\ (x^2,1) & (x^2,x) & (x^2,x^2) \end{bmatrix}$$

So 1 , and x are \perp

$$\sin m x \cos n x = \frac{1}{2} (\sin(m+n)x + \sin(m-n)x)$$

Now for x^2 replace by

$$g_3 = x^2 - \frac{(x^2, 1)}{(1, 1)} \cdot 1 - \frac{(x^2, x)}{(x, x)} x$$

check that $g_3 \perp 1, x$

Study Item 5 p 165, (for hw 21, 25)

P187#22. Find best ftn $b \sin x$ to approximate $\cos x$. Ans has to be zero (explain), but we see from calculus!

$$\begin{aligned} & \int_0^{2\pi} (b \sin x - \cos x)^2 dx \\ &= b^2 \int_0^{2\pi} \sin^2 x dx + 2b \int_0^{2\pi} \sin x \cos x dx + \int_0^{2\pi} \cos^2 x dx \\ &= \pi b^2 - 0 + \pi \quad \text{Min when } b=0 \end{aligned}$$

#25 Min

$$F = \int (x^2 - (C+Dx))^2 dx \quad (\text{fn of } C, D),$$

MA261 - set $\partial F / \partial C = \partial F / \partial D = 0$

End of ch 3

Ch 4 Determinant (of a square matrix)

I consider this review.

Always awkward to introduce. We follow book.

3 Key properties - it is a $\#$ assigned to a square matrix
 $|A|$ or $\det(A)$

① $\det I = 1$

② \det changes sign with row exchange

③ \det is linear w.r to 1st row (2nd row too)

Ex Two equal rows gives $|A| = 0$; row of 0's also

Ex add a multiple of one row to another
doesn't change $|A|$.

($a \neq 0$) Ex $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c - \frac{c}{a}a & d - \frac{c}{a}b \end{vmatrix} = \begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ 0 & d - \frac{c}{a}b \end{vmatrix}$

$= \rightarrow \begin{vmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & b - \frac{c}{a}b \end{vmatrix} \rightarrow a \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & d - \frac{c}{a}b \end{vmatrix}$

$\rightarrow a (d - \frac{cb}{a}) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{vmatrix} !$

Ex $|A| = 0 \iff A$ is sing; if A is Δ $\det A$
is product of diagonal elements. This shows

$$|A| = |A^T|$$

Key nontrivial fact (property 3):

$$|AB| = |A||B|$$

proof (1) p 205 is too slick! We'll go over both