

- introduzir noção de comprimento;
- introduzir noção de ângulo
- complemento ortogonal;
- projeções;
- mínimos quadrados.



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Norma em \mathbb{R}^2 ou \mathbb{R}^3

Norma (comprimento) de $\mathbf{v} = (x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2$:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}.$$

Norma (comprimento) de $\mathbf{v} = (x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3$:

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}.$$



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Lei dos Cossenos:

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

$$\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (u_i - v_i)^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i + \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2$$

$$= \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$$

 $\cos \theta = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} u_i v_i}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|}$



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Definição (produto interno em \mathbb{R}^2 ou \mathbb{R}^3)

Prod. interno (ou escalar) em \mathbb{R}^2 ou \mathbb{R}^3 : $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \sum u_i v_i$.

$$\langle u, v \rangle = u \cdot v = u^T v$$

$$\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle}$$

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



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Propriedades do PI Canônico em \mathbb{R}^2 ou \mathbb{R}^3

simetria

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle \quad \forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ ou } \mathbb{R}^3$$

bilinearidade

$$\begin{split} \langle \alpha \mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{v} \rangle &= \alpha \, \langle \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{v} \rangle \\ \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \ \forall \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ ou } \mathbb{R}^3 \end{split}$$

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \alpha \mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle = \alpha \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle + \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle$$

 $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \ \forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ ou } \mathbb{R}^3$

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle > 0 \ \forall \mathbf{0} \neq \mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ ou } \mathbb{R}^3$$



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$$\langle \alpha \mathbf{u}_1 + \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \alpha \langle \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{v} \rangle$$
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Definição (produto interno)

Espaço com PI é um espaço vetorial V munido de uma função $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \to \mathbb{R}$ que satisfaz às propriedades:

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

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Produto interno canônico de \mathbb{R}^n

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

Outro produto interno em \mathbb{R}^2

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{u}^T \begin{bmatrix} 7 & 2 \\ 2 & 7 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{v}$$



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$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = 7u_1^2 + 4u_1u_2 + 7u_2^2$$

$$2ab \ge -a^2 - b^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle \ge 5u_1^2 + 5u_2^2 > 0$$



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Bilinear, simétrico.

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Mais Exemplos

■ Produto interno em um espaço de funções

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \int_{-1}^{1} \mathbf{u}(t) \mathbf{v}(t) dt$$



Norma de um Espaço com PI

Definição (norma)

Se $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ é espaço com produto interno, define-se, para $\mathbf{v} \in V$.

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}.$$

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \le \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \quad \forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V.$$



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Teorema (Desigualdade de Cauchy-Schwarz)

Se $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ é espaço com produto interno e $\| \cdot \|$ é definida como acima, vale a desigualdade

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \quad \forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V.$$



Prova de Cauchy-Schwarz

$$0 \le \|\mathbf{u} + t\mathbf{v}\|^2 = \langle \mathbf{u} + t\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} + t\mathbf{v} \rangle$$

$$= \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + 2t \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + t^2 \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$$

$$= \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + 2t \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + t^2 \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \quad \forall t \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$-\frac{b^2-4ac}{4a}\geq 0$$

Como a > 0, temos $b^2 \le 4ac$, i.e., $(2 \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle)^2 < 4 \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$. Portanto, $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|$.



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Temos $at^2 + bt + c \ge 0 \ \forall t$. Minimizando, obtemos

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Temos $at^2 + bt + c > 0 \ \forall t$. Minimizando, obtemos

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Como a > 0, temos $b^2 \le 4ac$, i.e., $(2 \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle)^2 \le 4 \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$. Portanto, $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|$.



- ||0|| = 0
- $\|\mathbf{v}\| > 0 \quad \forall \ \mathbf{0} \neq \mathbf{v} \in V$
- $\|\alpha \mathbf{v}\| = |\alpha| \|\mathbf{v}\| \quad \forall \ \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \quad \forall \ \mathbf{v} \in V$
- $\| \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \| \le \| \mathbf{u} \| + \| \mathbf{v} \| \quad \forall \ \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$

$$\|u+v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + 2 \, \langle u,v \rangle + \|v\|^2 \leq \|u\|^2 + 2\|u\|\|v\| + \|v\|^2.$$



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$$\|u+v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + 2 \, \langle u,v \rangle + \|v\|^2 \leq \|u\|^2 + 2\|u\|\|v\| + \|v\|^2.$$



- $\| \mathbf{0} \| = 0$
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Propriedades da norma:

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De fato.

$$\| \boldsymbol{u} + \boldsymbol{v} \|^2 = \| \boldsymbol{u} \|^2 + 2 \, \langle \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle + \| \boldsymbol{v} \|^2 \leq \| \boldsymbol{u} \|^2 + 2 \| \boldsymbol{u} \| \| \boldsymbol{v} \| + \| \boldsymbol{v} \|^2.$$



Cauchy-Schwarz
$$\Rightarrow \left| \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|} \right| \leq 1$$

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

Diz-se que \mathbf{u} e \mathbf{v} são ortogonais se $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$.



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Definição (ângulo entre vetores)

$$\cos heta = rac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}
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Observação

0 é ortogonal a qualquer vetor.



Definição (vetor unitário)

$$\hat{\mathbf{v}}$$
 é dito unitário se $\|\hat{\mathbf{v}}\| = 1$.

Se v é não-nulo, $\hat{\mathbf{v}} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \mathbf{v}$ é unitário.

 $\{\mathbf{v}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{v}_p\}$ é ortogonal se $\langle\mathbf{v}_i,\mathbf{v}_i\rangle=0 \ \forall i\neq j$.



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Definição (conjunto ortonormal)

Um conjunto ortonormal é um conjunto ortogonal de vetores unitários.



Observação (conjunto ortonormal)

$$\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$$
 é ortonormal s.s.s. $\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij} \ \forall i, j$.



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Um conjunto ortogonal de vetores não nulos é sempre LI.



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Corolário

Um conjunto ortonormal é sempre LI.



Prova (do teorema)

$$\sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{v}_{i} = \mathbf{0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{v}_{i}, \mathbf{v}_{j} \right\rangle = \left\langle \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{v}_{j} \right\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_{i} \left\langle \mathbf{v}_{i}, \mathbf{v}_{j} \right\rangle = \alpha_{j} \|\mathbf{v}_{j}\|^{2} = \mathbf{0} \quad \forall j$$

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A partir de uma base qualquer $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$ de um subespaço H, queremos construir uma base ortogonal $\{\mathbf{u}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{u}_p\}$ para este subspaço.

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathbf{u}_1 & = & \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \mathbf{u}_2 & = & \mathbf{v}_2 + \alpha \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \mathbf{u}_3 & = & \mathbf{v}_3 + \beta \mathbf{v}_1 + \gamma \mathbf{v}_2 \\ \vdots & = & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_p & = & \mathbf{v}_p + \dots \end{array}$$

Desta forma, $\langle \mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle \quad \forall k$.



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Podemos exigir que:

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Como $\langle \mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle$, podemos reescrever:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \mathbf{u}_1 & = & \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \mathbf{u}_2 & = & \mathbf{v}_2 + \tilde{\alpha} \mathbf{u}_1 \\ \mathbf{u}_3 & = & \mathbf{v}_3 + \tilde{\beta} \mathbf{u}_1 + \tilde{\gamma} \mathbf{u}_2 \\ \vdots & = & \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_p & = & \mathbf{v}_p + \dots \end{array}$$



Como $\langle \mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k \rangle$, podemos reescrever:

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Como calcular $\tilde{\alpha}, \tilde{\beta}, \tilde{\gamma}, \dots$? Ortogonalidade!



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$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}_2 &= \mathbf{v}_2 + \tilde{\alpha} \mathbf{u}_1 \\ \langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_1 \rangle &= 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{u}_1 \rangle + \tilde{\alpha} \langle \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_1 \rangle = 0 \\ \Rightarrow \quad \tilde{\alpha} &= -\frac{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{u}_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_1 \rangle}$$

$$\mathbf{u}_3 &= \mathbf{v}_3 + \tilde{\beta} \mathbf{u}_1 + \tilde{\gamma} \mathbf{u}_2$$



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Assim.

$$\begin{array}{lll} u_1 & = & \textbf{v}_1 \\ u_2 & = & \textbf{v}_2 - \frac{\langle \textbf{v}_2, \textbf{u}_1 \rangle}{\langle \textbf{u}_1, \textbf{u}_1 \rangle} \textbf{u}_1 \\ \\ u_3 & = & \textbf{v}_3 - \frac{\langle \textbf{v}_3, \textbf{u}_1 \rangle}{\langle \textbf{u}_1, \textbf{u}_1 \rangle} \textbf{u}_1 - \frac{\langle \textbf{v}_3, \textbf{u}_2 \rangle}{\langle \textbf{u}_2, \textbf{u}_2 \rangle} \textbf{u}_2 \\ \\ \vdots & = & \vdots \\ \\ u_{\rho} & = & \textbf{v}_{\rho} - \frac{\langle \textbf{v}_{\rho}, \textbf{u}_1 \rangle}{\langle \textbf{u}_1, \textbf{u}_1 \rangle} \textbf{u}_1 - \frac{\langle \textbf{v}_{\rho}, \textbf{u}_2 \rangle}{\langle \textbf{u}_2, \textbf{u}_2 \rangle} \textbf{u}_2 \dots - \frac{\langle \textbf{v}_{\rho}, \textbf{u}_{\rho-1} \rangle}{\langle \textbf{u}_{\rho-1}, \textbf{u}_{\rho-1} \rangle} \textbf{u}_{\rho-1} \end{array}$$



Definição (complemento ortogonal)

 $H \subset V$ subespaço vetorial. O complemento ortogonal de H, denotado H[⊥], é o conjunto dos vetores de V ortogonais a todos os vetores de H.

$$H^{\perp} = \{ \mathbf{v} \in V \mid \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = 0 \ \forall \mathbf{u} \in H \}.$$

- Se $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ é base de H, então

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Lema

Sejam
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 base ortogonal de H e $\beta = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p, \mathbf{u}_{p+1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ uma extensão de β_H a uma base ortogonal de V . Então $\beta_{H^{\perp}} = \{\mathbf{u}_{p+1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ é base de H^{\perp} .

Se
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 com dim $(V) = n$ e dim $(H) = p$, então dim $(H^{\perp}) = n - p$.

$$(H^{\perp})^{\perp} = H$$



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Sejam $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$,

$$\mathbb{R}^n \ni \mathbf{v} \in \operatorname{Nuc}(A) \text{ e}$$

 $\mathbb{R}^n \ni \mathbf{y} = A^T \mathbf{x} \in \operatorname{Im}(A^T).$

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{v}^T A^T \mathbf{x} = (A \mathbf{v})^T \mathbf{x} = \langle A \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0.$$



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$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{v}^T A^T \mathbf{x} = (A \mathbf{v})^T \mathbf{x} = \langle A \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0.$$



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$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$
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Qualquer vetor de Nuc(A) é ortogonal a qualquer vetor de $\operatorname{Im}(A^T)$. Além disso, $\operatorname{dim}(\operatorname{Nuc}(A)) + \operatorname{dim}(\operatorname{Im}(A^T)) = n$.



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$$\mathbf{v} \in H^{\perp} \iff \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}_i = \mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{v} = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, m$$

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Base para H[⊥]

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V espaço vetorial, dim(V) = n

$$H \subset V$$
 subespaço vetorial, $\dim(H) = p$

$$\gamma = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$$
 base ortogonal de H

$$\beta = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p, \mathbf{u}_{p+1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$$
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$$\delta = \{\mathbf{u}_{p+1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$$
 é base ortogonal de H^{\perp} .



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Observação

 $\delta = \{\mathbf{u}_{p+1}, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ é base ortogonal de H^{\perp} .



Teorema (de Pitágoras)

Sejam $\mathbf{v}_H \in H$ e $\mathbf{v}_{H^{\perp}} \in H^{\perp}$. Então

$$\|\mathbf{v}_H + \mathbf{v}_{H^{\perp}}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{v}_H\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}_{H^{\perp}}\|^2.$$

$$\|\mathbf{v}_{H} + \mathbf{v}_{H^{\perp}}\|^{2}$$

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Teorema

Dado $\mathbf{v} \in V$, existe uma única decomposição $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}_H + \mathbf{v}_{H^{\perp}}$.

Existência:
$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \mathbf{u}_i = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \alpha_i \mathbf{u}_i + \sum_{i=p+1}^{n} \alpha_i \mathbf{u}_i$$

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Definição (projeção ortogonal)

Projeção ortogonal sobre H:

$$P_H: V \rightarrow H$$

 $\mathbf{v} \mapsto \mathbf{v}_H \text{ tal que } \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v}_H + \mathbf{v}_{H^{\perp}}$

$$P_{\mu +} = I - P_{\mu}$$



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Observação

Fica claro da definição que $\mathbf{v} = P_H \mathbf{v} + P_{H^{\perp}} \mathbf{v} \ \forall \mathbf{v} \in V$.

Portanto,
$$P_H + P_{H^{\perp}} = I e$$

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Propriedades da Projeção Ortogonal

 \blacksquare P_H é linear

$$Arr P_H \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{v} \in H^\perp$$
, ou seja, $N(P_H) = H^\perp$

$$P_H v = v \Leftrightarrow v \in H$$

■ A imagem de
$$P_H$$
 é $Im(P_H) = H$

$$P_{H}^{2} = P_{H}$$

$$P_H^T = P_H$$



- \blacksquare P_H é linear
- ho P_H **v** = **0** \Leftrightarrow **v** \in H^{\perp} , ou seja, $N(P_H) = H^{\perp}$
- $\blacksquare P_H \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{v} \in H$
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$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u}_{i} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{u}_{i}, \mathbf{u}_{i} \rangle} \mathbf{u}_{i}$$

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Lema

Seja
$$H = \langle \hat{\mathbf{u}}_1, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{u}}_p \rangle$$
, onde $\{\hat{\mathbf{u}}_1, \dots, \hat{\mathbf{u}}_p\}$ é ortonormal.

Defina
$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbf{u}}_1 & \cdots & \hat{\mathbf{u}}_p \end{bmatrix}$$
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$$P_H = QQ^T$$
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$$Q_{m \times n}$$
 é ortogonal s.s.s. $Q^T Q = I_{n \times n}$



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Definição (matriz ortogonal)

Uma matriz é ortogonal se suas colunas são ortonormais.



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Observação

$$Q_{m \times n}$$
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$$H = \left\langle \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\rangle$$
 e $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Calcule $P_H \mathbf{v}$ e $P_{H^{\perp}} \mathbf{v}$.

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$$= \frac{2}{14} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\2\\3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/7\\2/7\\3/7 \end{bmatrix}.$$



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Exemplo 1 - cont.

$$P_{H^{\perp}}\mathbf{v} = (I - P_H)\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1/7 \\ 2/7 \\ 3/7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 13/7 \\ -2/7 \\ -3/7 \end{bmatrix}.$$



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	Kcal/g	gord. (%)
arroz	2.5	3
carne	3.1	21

$$\begin{cases} arroz + carne = 150 \\ 2.50 arroz + 3.10 carne = 450 \\ 0.03 arroz + 0.21 carne = 25 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} & 1 & & 1 & 150 \\ 2.50 & 3.10 & 450 \\ 0.03 & 0.21 & 25 \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & 1 & 150 \\ 0 & 0.60 & 75 \\ 0 & & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$



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Não tem solução!



No entanto, tomando-se 38 g de arroz e 113 g de carne,

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 2.50 & 3.10 \\ 0.03 & 0.21 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 38 \\ 113 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 151 \\ 445.3 \\ 24.87 \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} 150 \\ 450 \\ 25 \end{bmatrix}.$$



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DESENHO



Mínimos Quadrados

 $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ (ou, equiv., $\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$) pode não ter solução,

minimizar
$$\|\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}\|$$
 (ou, equiv., $\|\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}\|^2$).



 $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ (ou, equiv., $\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$) pode não ter solução, mas sempre é possível

$$\text{minimizar} \ \| \boldsymbol{b} - A\boldsymbol{x} \| \ (\text{ou, equiv., } \| \boldsymbol{b} - A\boldsymbol{x} \|^2).$$

Definição (mínimos quadrados)

A solução no sentido de mínimos quadrados do sistema $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ é aguela que minimiza (o guadrado d)o resíduo associado a \mathbf{x} , onde o resíduo é dado por $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}$.



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Dado $\mathbf{b} \notin H$, encontrar $\mathbf{v}_H \in H$ mais próximo de \mathbf{b} .

Podemos decompor $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b}_H + \mathbf{b}_{H^{\perp}}$, de forma que

$$\|\mathbf{v}_H - \mathbf{b}\|^2 = \|\underbrace{\mathbf{v}_H - \mathbf{b}_H}_{\in H} - \mathbf{b}_{H^{\perp}}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{v}_H - \mathbf{b}_H\|^2 + \|\mathbf{b}_{H^{\perp}}\|^2.$$



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$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}\| = \min_{\mathbf{y} \in \operatorname{Im}(A)} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{y}\|$$

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} = P_{\mathrm{Im}(A)}\mathbf{b}$$



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$$Ax = y = P_{Im(A)}b$$



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Mínimos Quadrados



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