## Chapter 6 Orthogonality and Least Squares

#### **David Robinson**

## Inner Product, Length, and Orthogonality

#### Theorem 1

Let  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$  be vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and let c be a scalar. Then

- 1.  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$
- 2.  $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$
- 3.  $(c\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = c(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = u \cdot (c\mathbf{v})$
- 4.  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} \ge 0$ , and  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} = 0$

#### The Length of a Vector

The length (or norm) of  $\mathbf{v}$  is the nonnegative scalar  $\|\mathbf{v}\|$  defined by

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}, \text{ and } \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

### Distance in $\mathbb{R}^n$

For **u** and **v** in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the **distance between u and v**, written as  $dist(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ , is the length of the vector  $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$ .

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

#### **Orthogonal Vectors**

Two vectors **u** and **v** in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are **orthogonal** (to each other) if  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ .

#### Theorem 2 — The Pythagorean Theorem

Two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are orthogonal if and only if  $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$ .

#### Theorem 3

Let *A* be an  $m \times n$  matrix. The orthogonal complement of the row space of *A* is the null space of *A*, and the orthogonal complement of the column space of *A* is the null space of  $A^T$ 

$$(\operatorname{Row} A)^{\perp} = \operatorname{Nul} A$$
 and  $(\operatorname{Col} A)^{\perp} = \operatorname{Nul} A^{T}$ 

### **Key Points**

- 1.  $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}^T \times \mathbf{v}$
- 2. A unit vector in the direction of a vector can be determined by dividing that vector by its length.
- 3.  $||c\mathbf{v}||$  is not always equal to  $c||\mathbf{v}||$ . Since length is always positive, the value of  $||c\mathbf{v}||$  is positive for all values of c. However,  $c||\mathbf{v}||$  is negative if c is negative.
- 4. The determinant of an orthogonal matrix is  $\pm 1$ .

## **Orthogonal Sets**

#### **Theorem 4**

If  $S = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$  is an orthogonal set of nonzero vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then S is linearly independent and hence is a basis for the subspace spanned by S.

#### **Orthogonal Basis**

An **orthogonal basis** for a subspace W of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a basis for W that is also an orthogonal set.

#### **Theorem 5**

Let  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$  be an orthogonal basis for a subspace W of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . For each  $\mathbf{y}$  in W, the weights in the linear combination are

$$\mathbf{y} = c_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \dots + c_p \mathbf{u}_p$$
 given by  $c_j = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}{\mathbf{u}_j \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}$   $(j = 1, \dots, p)$ 

#### Theorem 6

An  $m \times n$  matrix U has orthonormal columns if and only if  $U^T U = I$ .

#### Theorem 7

Let *U* be an  $m \times n$  matrix with orthonormal columns, and let **x** and **y** be in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then

- 1.  $||U\mathbf{x}|| = ||\mathbf{x}||$
- 2.  $(U\mathbf{x}) \cdot (U\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$
- 3.  $(U\mathbf{x}) \cdot (U\mathbf{y}) = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$

### **Key Points**

- 1. A set of vectors is orthogonal if each pair of distinct vectors from the set is orthogonal.
- 2. The vector  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  is the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{y}$  onto  $\mathbf{u}$ .

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \left(\frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}}\right) \mathbf{u}$$

3. y can be written s the sum of a vector in Span{u} and a vector orthogonal to u.

$$y = \hat{y} + z$$

- 4. An orthonormal set is an orthogonal set where all of the vectors are unit vectors.
- 5. If A is a matrix with orthonormal columns, then  $||A\mathbf{x}|| = ||\mathbf{x}||$ .
- 6. If U is an orthogonal matrix,  $U^T = U^{-1}$ .
- 7. A matrix with orthogonal columns is an orthonormal matrix if the matrix is also square.
- 8. If U is a  $m \times n$  matrix with orthonormal columns, **x** is in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $||U\mathbf{x}|| = (U\mathbf{x})^T(U\mathbf{x})$

## **Orthogonal Projections**

#### Theorem 8 — The Orthogonal Decomposition Theorem

Let W be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then each y in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  can be written uniquely in the form

$$y = \hat{y} + z$$

where  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  is in W and  $\mathbf{z}$  is in  $W^{\perp}$ . In fact, if  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$  is any orthogonal basis of W, then

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_1}{\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1 + \dots + \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_p}{\mathbf{u}_p \cdot \mathbf{u}_p} \mathbf{u}_p$$

and  $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{\hat{y}}$ 

#### Theorem 9 — The Best Approximation Theorem

Let W be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , let  $\mathbf{y}$  be any vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and let  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  be the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{y}$  onto W. Then  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  is the closest point in W to  $\mathbf{y}$ , in the sense that

$$||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{\hat{y}}|| < ||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{v}||$$

for all  $\mathbf{v}$  in W distinct from  $\mathbf{\hat{y}}$ .

#### Theorem 10

If  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$  is an orthonormal basis for a subspace W of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$$\operatorname{proj}_{w} \mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_{1})\mathbf{u}_{1} + (\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_{2})\mathbf{u}_{2} + \cdots + (\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_{p})\mathbf{u}_{p}$$

If 
$$U = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{u}_p \end{bmatrix}$$
, then

$$\operatorname{proj}_{W} \mathbf{y} = UU^{T} \mathbf{y} \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{y} \text{ in } \mathbb{R}^{n}$$

### **Key Points**

1. If  $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2$  are orthogonal but  $\mathbf{u}_3$  is not orthogonal to  $\mathbf{u}_1$  or  $\mathbf{u}_2$ , a nonzero vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  that is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{u}_1$  and  $\mathbf{u}_2$  can be constructed through  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u}_3 - \hat{\mathbf{u}}_3$ .

### **The Gram-Schmidt Process**

#### Theorem 11 — The Gram-Schmidt Process

Given a basis  $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_p\}$  for a nonzero subspace W of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , define

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_{1} &= \mathbf{x}_{1} \\ \mathbf{v}_{2} &= \mathbf{x}_{2} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{2} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}}{\mathbf{v}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}} \mathbf{v}_{1} \\ \mathbf{v}_{3} &= \mathbf{x}_{3} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{3} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}}{\mathbf{v}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}} \mathbf{v}_{1} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{3} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}}{\mathbf{v}_{2} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}} \mathbf{v}_{2} \\ &\vdots \\ \mathbf{v}_{p} &= \mathbf{x}_{p} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{p} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}}{\mathbf{v}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}} \mathbf{v}_{1} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{p} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}}{\mathbf{v}_{2} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}} \mathbf{v}_{2} - \cdots \frac{\mathbf{x}_{p} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{p-1}}{\mathbf{v}_{p-1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{p-1}} \mathbf{v}_{p-1} \end{aligned}$$

Then  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_p\}$  is an orthogonal basis for W. In addition

$$\operatorname{Span}\{\mathbf{v}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{v}_k\} = \operatorname{Span}\{\mathbf{x}_1,\ldots,\mathbf{x}_k\} \quad \text{for } 1 \le k \le p$$

#### Theorem 12 — The QR Factorization

If A is an  $m \times n$  matrix with linearly independent columns, then A can be factored as A = QR, where Q is an  $m \times n$  matrix whose columns form an orthonormal basis for Col A and R is an  $n \times n$  upper triangular invertible matrix with positive entries on its diagonal.

## **Least-Squares Problems**

If A is  $m \times n$  and **b** is in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , a **least-squares solution** of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is an  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  such that

$$\|\mathbf{b} - A\hat{\mathbf{x}}\| \le \|\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}\|$$

for all  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathbf{R}^n$ .

#### Theorem 13

The set of least-squares solutions of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  coincides with the nonempty set of solutions of the normal equations  $A^T A \mathbf{x} = A^T \mathbf{b}$ .

#### Theorem 14

Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix. The following statements are logically equivalent:

- 1. The equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a unique least-squares solution for each  $\mathbf{b}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .
- 2. The columns of *A* are linearly independent.
- 3. The matrix  $A^{T}A$  is invertible.

When these statements are true, the least-squares solution  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  is given by

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

#### Theorem 15

Given an  $m \times n$  matrix A with linearly independent columns, let A = QR be a QR factorization of A. Then, for each  $\mathbf{b}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ , the equation  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  has a unique least-squares solution, given by

$$\mathbf{\hat{x}} = R^{-1}O^T\mathbf{b}$$

### **Key Points**

- 1. The least-squares error is the distance from **b** to  $A\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ ,  $\|\mathbf{b} A\hat{\mathbf{x}}\|$ .
- 2. If *A* is an orthogonal set, the weights that form the orthogonal projection of **b** onto Col *A*,  $\frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}{\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}$ , form the least-squares solution of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ .
- 3. If **b** is in the column space of *A*, then every solution of A**x** = **b** is a least-squares solution.
- 4. A least-squares solution of  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is a list of weights that, when applied to the columns of A, produces the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{b}$  onto Col A.

## **Machine Learning and Linear Models**

To find the equation  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$  of the least-squares line that best fits data points  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ , find the least-squares solution of  $X\beta = \mathbf{y}$ , where the design matrix X, the parameter vector  $\beta$ , and observation vector  $\mathbf{y}$  are

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \beta = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\beta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \mathbf{y}$$

## **Inner Product Spaces**

An **inner product** on a vector space V is a function that, to each pair of vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  in V, associates a real number  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  and satisfies the following axioms, for all  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$ , and  $\mathbf{w}$  in V and all scalars c:

- 1.  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$
- 2.  $\langle \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$
- 3.  $\langle c\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = c \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$
- 4.  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle \ge 0$  and  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$

A vector space with an inner product is called an **inner product space**.

Theorem 16 — The Cauchy-Shwarz Inequality

For all  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$  in V,

$$|\langle u,v\rangle| \leq \|u\|\,\|v\|$$

Theorem 17 — The Triangle Inequality

For all  $\mathbf{u}$ ,  $\mathbf{v}$  in V,

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

### **Key Points**

- 1.  $\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q} \rangle = \mathbf{p}(t_1)\mathbf{q}(t_1) + \cdots + \mathbf{p}(t_n)\mathbf{q}(t_n)$
- 2. The orthogonal projection of a polynomial in an inner product space is

$$\boldsymbol{\hat{q}} = \frac{\langle q, p_1 \rangle}{\langle p_1, p_1 \rangle} \boldsymbol{p}_1 + \dots + \frac{\langle q, p_n \rangle}{\langle p_n, p_n \rangle} \boldsymbol{p}_n$$

# **Applications of Inner Product Spaces**

Let  $C[0,2\pi]$  be a space with the inner product  $\langle f,g\rangle=\int_0^{2\pi}f(t)g(t)dt$ . The function which approximates as closely as desired for any function in  $C[0,2\pi]$  is

$$\frac{a_0}{2} + a_1 \cos t + \dots + a_n \cos nt + b_1 \sin t + \dots + b_n \sin nt$$

where 
$$\frac{a_0}{2} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(t) dt$$
,  $a_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(t) \cos kt dt$ , and  $b_k = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} f(t) \sin kt dt$