

## §6.6 Applications to Linear Models

### \* Least-squares Lines

least-squares line is the line  $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$  that minimize  $\|x\vec{\beta} - \vec{y}\|$ .

where

$$X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

It is equivalent to find the least-squares solution for equation  $X\vec{\beta} = \vec{y}$ .

### \* The General Linear Model

Fit data by curves that have the general form

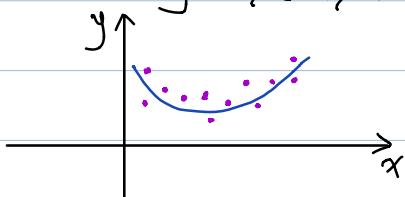
$$y = \beta_0 f_0(x) + \beta_1 f_1(x) + \cdots + \beta_k f_k(x)$$

where  $f_0, \dots, f_k$  are known functions and  $\beta_0, \dots, \beta_k$  are parameters that must be determined.

Example: In ecology, a parabolic curve that opens downward is used to model the net primary production of nutrients in a plant. Given  $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ , describe the linear model that produces a "least-squares fit" of the data by equation

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2.$$

Solution:



Suppose the actual values of the parameters are  $\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$ . Then the coordinates of the first data point  $(x_1, y_1)$  satisfy an equation of the form

$$y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_1^2 + \varepsilon_1$$

where  $\varepsilon_1$  is the residual error between the observed value  $y_1$  and the predicted  $y$ -value  $\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_1^2$ .

Similarly, we can get the following equations

$$y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_1^2 + \varepsilon_1$$

$$y_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_2 + \beta_2 x_2^2 + \varepsilon_2$$

$$y_3 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_3 + \beta_2 x_3^2 + \varepsilon_3$$

⋮

$$y_n = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_n + \beta_2 x_n^2 + \varepsilon_n$$

In matrix form, we have

$$\vec{y} = \vec{x}\vec{\beta} + \vec{\varepsilon}$$

where  $\vec{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 \\ \dots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 \end{pmatrix}$ ,  $\vec{\varepsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$

Exercise: Given the data  $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$  that comes from a company's total costs. The equation of the form

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x + \beta_2 x^2 + \beta_3 x^3$$

is an appropriate model to fit the data.

Describe the linear model that gives a least-squares fit of the data.

Solution:  $\vec{y} = X\beta + \varepsilon$ , where

$$\vec{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad X = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 & x_1^3 \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 & x_2^3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n & x_n^2 & x_n^3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{\beta} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \beta_3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{\varepsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Example: In geography, local models of terrain are constructed from data  $(u_1, v_1, y_1), \dots, (u_n, v_n, y_n)$ , where  $u_j, v_j$  and  $y_j$  are latitude, longitude, and altitude, respectively. Describe the linear model based on

$$y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 u + \beta_2 v$$

that gives a least-squares fit to such data.

The solution is called the least-squares plane.

Solution: We expect the data to satisfy the following equations:

$$y_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 u_1 + \beta_2 v_1 + \varepsilon_1$$

$$y_2 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 u_2 + \beta_2 v_2 + \varepsilon_2$$

$\vdots$

$$y_n = \beta_0 + \beta_1 u_n + \beta_2 v_n + \varepsilon_n$$

The matrix form is

$$\vec{y} = X\vec{\beta}, \text{ where}$$

$$\vec{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad x = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & u_1 & v_1 \\ 1 & u_2 & v_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & u_n & v_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \beta_2 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_n \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{\varepsilon} = \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1 \\ \varepsilon_2 \\ \vdots \\ \varepsilon_n \end{pmatrix}$$

## § 7.1 Diagonalization of Symmetric Matrices

Def: A symmetric matrix is a matrix  $A$  such that  $A^T = A$ .

Example:

$$\text{Symmetric } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 5 & 8 \\ 0 & 8 & -7 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} a & b & c \\ b & d & e \\ c & e & f \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Nonsymmetric: } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -3 \\ 3 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -4 & 0 \\ -6 & 1 & -4 \\ 0 & -6 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 4 & 3 & 2 \\ 4 & 3 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 2 & 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example: If possible, diagonalize the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 6 & -2 & -1 \\ -2 & 6 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Solution: } \det(A - \lambda I) = \begin{vmatrix} 6-\lambda & -2 & -1 \\ -2 & 6-\lambda & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 5-\lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= - \begin{vmatrix} -1 & -1 & 5-\lambda \\ -2 & 6-\lambda & -1 \\ 6-\lambda & -2 & -1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & \lambda-5 \\ -2 & 6-\lambda & -1 \\ 6-\lambda & -2 & -1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 1 & \lambda-5 \\ 0 & 8-\lambda & 2\lambda-11 \\ 0 & \lambda-8 & (\lambda-5)(\lambda-6)-1 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{vmatrix} 8-\lambda & 2\lambda-11 \\ \lambda-8 & \lambda^2-11\lambda+29 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (8-\lambda) \begin{vmatrix} 1 & 2\lambda-11 \\ -1 & \lambda^2-11\lambda+29 \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= (8-\lambda) [\lambda^2 - 11\lambda + 29 + 2\lambda - 11]$$

$$= (8-\lambda) [\lambda^2 - 9\lambda + 18]$$

$$= (8-\lambda)(\lambda-3)(\lambda-6)$$

Hence the eigenvalues are  $\lambda_1 = 8$ ,  $\lambda_2 = 3$ ,  $\lambda_3 = 6$

For  $\lambda_1 = 8$ , solve  $\begin{pmatrix} 6-8 & -2 & -1 \\ -2 & 6-8 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & 5-8 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -2 & -2 & -1 \\ -2 & -2 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} -2 & -2 & -1 & 0 \\ -2 & -2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & -1 & -3 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -5 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} x_1 + x_2 + 3x_3 = 0 \\ -5x_3 = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

$$x_1 = -x_2$$

$$x_3 = 0$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -x_2 \\ x_2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = x_2 \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Let } \vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{u}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{For } \lambda_2 = 6, \text{ we can get } \vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{u}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{For } \lambda_3 = 3, \quad \vec{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{u}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Let } P = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ 0 & \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{pmatrix}, \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 6 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{Then } A = PDP^{-1}$$

Remark: In this example,  $P^T P = I$ . Actually

$$P^T P = \left( \begin{array}{ccc|ccc} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 & \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{array} \right)$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

**Thm:** If  $A$  is symmetric, then any two eigenvectors from different eigenspaces are orthogonal.

**Proof:** Let  $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2$  be eigenvectors that correspond to distinct eigenvalues, say,  $\lambda_1$  and  $\lambda_2$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned}\lambda_1 \vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_2 &= A \vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_2 \\&= (A \vec{v}_1)^T \vec{v}_2 \\&= \vec{v}_1^T A^T \vec{v}_2 \\&= \vec{v}_1^T A \vec{v}_2 \\&= \vec{v}_1^T \lambda_2 \vec{v}_2 \\&= \lambda_2 \vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_2\end{aligned}$$

Hence  $(\lambda_1 - \lambda_2) \vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_2 = 0$ .

But  $\lambda_1 - \lambda_2 \neq 0$ , so  $\vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_2 = 0$ .

**Def:** An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is said to be orthogonally diagonalizable if there are an orthogonal matrix  $P$  (with  $P^{-1} = P^T$ ) and a diagonal matrix  $D$  such that

$$A = PDP^{-1} = PD P^T$$

**Remark:** If  $A$  is orthogonally diagonalizable, then

$$A^T = (PDP^T)^T = (P^T)^T D^T P^T = PDP^T = A$$

that is,  $A$  is symmetric.

**Thm:** An  $n \times n$  matrix  $A$  is orthogonally diagonalizable if and only if  $A$  is a symmetric matrix.

Example: Orthogonally diagonalize the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -2 & 4 \\ -2 & 6 & 2 \\ 4 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix},$$

whose characteristic equation is

$$0 = -\lambda^3 + 12\lambda^2 - 21\lambda - 98 = -(\lambda-7)^2(\lambda+2).$$

Solution: The usual calculations produce bases for the eigenspaces:

$$\lambda=7: \vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix};$$

$$\lambda=-2, \vec{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{u}_1 = \frac{\vec{v}_1}{\|\vec{v}_1\|} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v}_2' = \vec{v}_2 - (\vec{v}_2 \cdot \vec{u}_1) \cdot \vec{u}_1$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \left( -\frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} + 0 + 0 \right) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{4} \\ 0 \\ \frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{4} \\ 1 \\ \frac{1}{4} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{u}_2 = \frac{\vec{v}_2'}{\|\vec{v}_2'\|} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} \\ \frac{4}{\sqrt{18}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{u}_3 = \frac{\vec{v}_3'}{\|\vec{v}_3'\|} = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{2}{3} \\ -\frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P = [\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \vec{u}_3] = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} & -\frac{2}{3} \\ 0 & \frac{4}{\sqrt{18}} & -\frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{18}} & \frac{2}{3} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$D = \begin{pmatrix} 7 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then  $P$  orthogonally diagonalizes  $A$ , and  $A = PDP^T$ .

### Thm: The Spectral Theorem for Symmetric Matrices

An  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix  $A$  has the following properties:

- a)  $A$  has  $n$  real eigenvalues, counting multiplicities
- b) The dimension of the eigenspace for each eigenvalue  $\lambda$  equals the multiplicity of  $\lambda$  as a root of the characteristic equation
- c) The eigenspaces are mutually orthogonal, in

the sense that eigenvectors corresponding to different eigenvalues are orthogonal.

d) A is orthogonally diagonalizable.

### \* Spectral Decomposition

When A is symmetric, it is orthogonally diagonalizable.

$$A = PDP^T$$

$$= [\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_n] \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \vec{u}_1 \\ \vec{u}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{u}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= [\lambda_1 \vec{u}_1, \lambda_2 \vec{u}_2, \dots, \lambda_n \vec{u}_n] \begin{pmatrix} \vec{u}_1 \\ \vec{u}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{u}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \lambda_1 \vec{u}_1 \vec{u}_1^T + \lambda_2 \vec{u}_2 \vec{u}_2^T + \cdots + \lambda_n \vec{u}_n \vec{u}_n^T$$

Def:  $A = \lambda_1 \vec{u}_1 \vec{u}_1^T + \lambda_2 \vec{u}_2 \vec{u}_2^T + \cdots + \lambda_n \vec{u}_n \vec{u}_n^T$  is called a spectral decomposition of A.

Ex: Show that if A is orthogonally diagonalizable, then so is  $A^2$ .

Solution: If A is orthogonally diagonalizable, then A is symmetric. That is,  $A^T = A$ .

$$\text{Hence } (A^2)^T = (A \cdot A)^T = A^T \cdot A^T = A \cdot A = A^2$$

$A^2$  is symmetric. Therefore,  $A^2$  is orthogonally diagonalizable.