MATH2111 Tutorial 12 & 13

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1 Inner Product, Length, and Orthogonality

- 1. **Definition (Inner Product)**. If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , then the number $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}$ is called the inner product (or dot product) of \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} , and often it is written as $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ (or $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$).
- 2. **Theorem**. Let \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} , and \mathbf{w} be vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , and let c be a scalar. Then
 - (a) $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$
 - (b) $(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$
 - (c) $(c\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = c(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot (c\mathbf{v})$
 - (d) $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} \ge 0$, and $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{0}$
- 3. **Definition**. The norm (or length) of \mathbf{v} is the nonnegative scalar $\|\mathbf{v}\|$ defined by

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

therefore we have $\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}$.

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

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

- 5. **Definition**. Two vectors **u** and **v** in \mathbb{R}^n are orthogonal (to each other) if $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$.
- 6. **Theorem** (**The Pythagorean Theorem**). Two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are orthogonal if and only if $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$.
- 7. **Definition**.
 - (a) If a vector \mathbf{z} is orthogonal to every vector in a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n , then \mathbf{z} is said to be orthogonal to W.
 - (b) The set of all vectors \mathbf{z} that are orthogonal to W is called the orthogonal complement of W and is denoted by W^{\perp} and read as "W perpendicular" or simply "W perpendicular".
- 8. Theorem.
 - (a) A vector \mathbf{x} is in W^{\perp} if and only if \mathbf{x} is orthogonal to every vector in a set that spans W.
 - (b) W^{\perp} is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

- 9. **Theorem**. 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 :
 - (a) $(\operatorname{Row} A)^{\perp} = \operatorname{Nul} A$
 - (b) $(\operatorname{Col} A)^{\perp} = \operatorname{Nul} A^{\top}$

2 Orthogonal Sets

- 1. **Definition**.
 - (a) A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n is said to be an orthogonal set if each pair of distinct vectors from the set is orthogonal. i.e. $\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_i = 0$ whenever $i \neq j$
 - (b) An orthogenal basis for a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n is a basis for W that is also an orthogonal set.
- 2. **Theorem**. 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.
- 3. **Theorem**. 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,

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

- 4. **Definition**. A set $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is an orthonormal set if it is an orthogonal set of unit vectors. If W is the subspace spanned by such a set, then $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is an orthonormal basis for W.
- 5. **Theorem**. An $m \times n$ matrix U has orthonormal columns if and only if $U^T U = I$.
- 6. **Theorem**. Let *U* be an $m \times n$ matrix with orthonormal columns, and let **x** and **y** be in \mathbb{R}^n . Then
 - (a) $||U\mathbf{x}|| = ||\mathbf{x}||$
 - (b) $(U\mathbf{x}) \cdot (U\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$
 - (c) $(U\mathbf{x}) \cdot (U\mathbf{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$

3 Orthogonal Projections

1. Theorem (Orthogonal Projection). The orthogonal projection of y onto u can be found by

$$\operatorname{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$$

2. **Theorem** (The Orthogonal Decomposition Theorem). Let W be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Then each \mathbf{y} in \mathbb{R}^n can be written uniquely in the form

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

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

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

and $z = y - \operatorname{proj}_W y$.

3. **Theorem** (The Best Approximation Theorem). Let W be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbf{y} be any vector in \mathbb{R}^n . Then $\operatorname{proj}_W \mathbf{y}$ is the closest point in W to \mathbf{y} , in the sense that

$$\|\mathbf{y} - \operatorname{proj}_W \mathbf{y}\| < \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{v}\|$$

for all v in W distinct from $proj_W y$.

4. **Theorem**. 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
$$U = [\mathbf{u}_1 \ \mathbf{u}_2 \ \cdots \ \mathbf{u}_p]$$
, then

$$\operatorname{proj}_{W} \mathbf{v} = UU^{T}\mathbf{v}$$

for all **y** in \mathbb{R}^n .

4 The Gram-Schmidt Process

1. **Theorem (The Gram-Schmidt Process)**. Given a basis $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_p\}$ for a nonzero subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n , define

$$\mathbf{v}_{1} = \mathbf{x}_{1}$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{2} = \mathbf{x}_{2} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{2} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}}{\mathbf{v}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}} \mathbf{v}_{1}$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{3} = \mathbf{x}_{3} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{3} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}}{\mathbf{v}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}} \mathbf{v}_{1} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{3} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}}{\mathbf{v}_{2} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}} \mathbf{v}_{2}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{p} = \mathbf{x}_{p} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{p} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}}{\mathbf{v}_{1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{1}} \mathbf{v}_{1} - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{p} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}}{\mathbf{v}_{2} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{2}} \mathbf{v}_{2} - \dots - \frac{\mathbf{x}_{p} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{p-1}}{\mathbf{v}_{p-1} \cdot \mathbf{v}_{p-1}} \mathbf{v}_{p-1}$$

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

$$\operatorname{Span} \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\} = \operatorname{Span} \{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k\}$$

for $1 \le k \le p$.

2. Theorem (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.

5 Least-Squares Problems

1. **Definition**. If A is a $m \times n$ matrix 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 **x** in \mathbb{R}^n .

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

- 3. **Theorem**. Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. The following statements are logically equivalent:
 - (a) The equation $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ has a unique least-squares solution for each \mathbf{b} in \mathbb{R}^m .
 - (b) The columns of A are linearly indpendent.
 - (c) The matrix $A^T A$ is invertible.

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

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

4. **Theorem**. 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

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

6 Applications to Linear Models

1. Definition (Least-Squares Lines).

Given experimental data $(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$, the least-squares line is the line $y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x$ that minimizes the sum of the squares of the residuals. And $\hat{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \end{bmatrix}$ is the least-square solution of

$$X\beta = \mathbf{y}$$

where

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

2. Definition (Least-Squares Fitting Curves).

Given experimental data $(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_n, y_n)$, the least-squares fitting curve is the curve $y = \beta_0 f_0(x) + \beta_1 f_1(x) + \cdots + \beta_k f_k(x)$ that minimizes the sum of the squares of the residuals, where

 f_0, \ldots, f_k are known functions and $\hat{\beta} = \begin{bmatrix} \beta_0 \\ \beta_1 \\ \vdots \\ \beta_k \end{bmatrix}$ is the least-square solution of

$$X\beta = \mathbf{v}$$

where

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} f_0(x_1) & f_1(x_1) & \cdots & f_k(x_1) \\ f_0(x_2) & f_1(x_2) & \cdots & f_k(x_2) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ f_0(x_n) & f_1(x_n) & \cdots & f_k(x_n) \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

4

7 Diagonalization of Symmetric Matrices

- 1. **Definition (Symmetric Matrix)**. A symmetric matrix is a square matrix A such that $A^T = A$.
- 2. **Theorem**. If A is symmetric, then any two eigenvectors from different eigenspaces are orthogonal.
- 3. **Definition**. 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

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

4. Theorem (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 equals the multiplicity of 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.
- 5. **Theorem**. An $n \times n$ matrix A is orthogonally diagonalizable if and only if A is a symmetric matrix.