

\* circle theorem

Let  $A$  be an  $n \times n$  matrix  
 $x$  is an eigenvector of  $A$  with corresponding eigenvalue  $\lambda$  i.e.  $Ax = \lambda x$

Let  $x_i$  be the largest entry of  $x$  in absolute magnitude. Now consider the  $i$ -th entry of  $Ax$

$$(Ax)_i = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_j = \lambda x_i$$

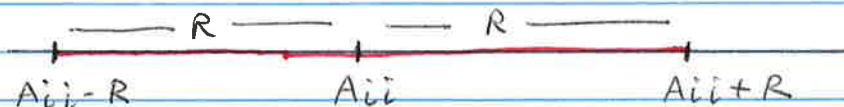
$$\sum_{j \neq i} A_{ij} x_j + A_{ii} x_i = \lambda x_i$$

$$\sum_{j \neq i} A_{ij} x_j = (\lambda - A_{ii}) x_i$$

$$|\lambda - A_{ii}| = \left| \frac{1}{x_i} \sum_{j \neq i} A_{ij} x_j \right| \leq \sum_{j \neq i} |A_{ij}| \underbrace{\left| \frac{x_j}{x_i} \right|}_{\leq 1 \text{ by definition of } x_i} \leq \sum_{j \neq i} |A_{ij}|$$

$$\text{Therefore, } |\lambda - A_{ii}| \leq \sum_{j \neq i} |A_{ij}|$$

$$R = \sum_{j \neq i} |A_{ij}|$$



The eigenvalue  $\lambda$  is in the region  $[A_{ii} - R, A_{ii} + R]$

Gerschgorin circle theorem

Every eigenvalue of  $A$  lies within at least one of the circles centered at  $A_{ii}$  with radius  $R_i = \sum_{j \neq i} |A_{ij}|$

Example Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 100 & -1 & 3 \\ -1 & 40 & -2 \\ 3 & -2 & 10 \end{bmatrix}$

$$A_{11} = 100 ; R_1 = |-1| + |3| = 4$$

$$A_{22} = 40 ; R_2 = |-1| + |-2| = 3$$

$$A_{33} = 10 ; R_3 = |3| + |-2| = 5$$



Minimum eigenvalue  $\geq 5$

Maximum eigenvalue  $\leq 104$

The eigenvalues of  $A$  lie in the red regions

Note, we can apply the circle theorem to show that the matrix which solves the linear system for splines is invertible.

Proof The Gerschgorin disks are shown below



The minimum eigenvalue is at least 1.

$A$  does not contain a zero eigenvalue

$\Rightarrow A$  is invertible

- Least squares - In interpolation, we require the interpolant to exactly pass through the given data.
- In practice, observed data is prone to measurement error.
  - In least squares, we relax the requirement of exactly passing through data points.

Data  $(t_1, y_1) (t_2, y_2) \dots (t_n, y_n)$

Let's say we want "to fit" a line  $p(t) = a + bt$  to the data

we define the following error function.

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - p(t_i)]^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - (a + bt_i)]^2$$

Least squares error

$$E = \left\| \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} a+bt_1 \\ a+bt_2 \\ \vdots \\ a+bt_n \end{pmatrix} \right\|_2^2 = \left\| \vec{y} - \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_1 \\ 1 & t_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & t_n \end{pmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}}_{\vec{x}} \right\|_2^2 = \| \vec{y} - A \vec{x} \|_2^2$$

(Here on, we drop the  $\rightarrow$  for ease)



## Two cases

①  $E = 0$

⇒ This happens only if all data points lie on the same line

⇒ This is less likely to happen if one collects real data

②  $E \neq 0$

The goal is to make  $y$  close to  $Ax$  as small as possible

$$\text{Range}(A) = \{Ax; x \in \mathbb{R}^n\} \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

With that, our aim is to find a vector in  $\text{Range}(A)$  that is closest to  $y$

Best approximation theorem

Let  $W$  be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $\hat{y}$  be orthogonal projection of  $y$  onto  $W$ . Then  $\hat{y}$  is the closest point in  $W$  to  $y$ . Formally,  
 $\|y - \hat{y}\| \leq \|y - z\|$  for all  $z \in W$

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

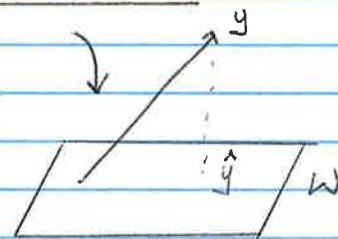
$$\begin{aligned} \|y - z\|^2 &= \|y - \hat{y} + \hat{y} - z\|^2 \\ &= (y - \hat{y} + \hat{y} - z)^T (y - \hat{y} + \hat{y} - z) \\ &= (y - \hat{y})^T (y - \hat{y}) + (\hat{y} - z)^T (\hat{y} - z) \\ &\quad + 2(y - \hat{y})^T (\hat{y} - z) \\ &= \|y - \hat{y}\|^2 + \|\hat{y} - z\|^2 + 2(y - \hat{y})^T (\hat{y} - z) \\ &> \|y - \hat{y}\|^2 \text{ for all } z \neq \hat{y} \end{aligned}$$

Note  
 $\|z\|^2 = \langle z, z \rangle = z^T z$   
Standard inner product

lies in  $W$

Remark

This is a very important result and holds in the general setting where  $W$  is a subspace of an inner product space



Note: By definition of orthogonal projection,  $y - \hat{y} \perp p \in W$

Let's apply best approximation theorem to least squares

⇒ To find  $\hat{y}$ , we need to project  $y$  orthogonally onto  $\text{Range}(A)$ .

Note  $y - \hat{y} \perp z \quad z \in \text{Range}(A)$

$$\begin{array}{l} \therefore y - \hat{y} \perp a_1 \\ y - \hat{y} \perp a_2 \\ \vdots \\ y - \hat{y} \perp a_n \end{array} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{array}{l} a_1^T (y - \hat{y}) = 0 \\ a_2^T (y - \hat{y}) = 0 \\ \vdots \\ a_n^T (y - \hat{y}) = 0 \end{array}$$

compactly, we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} -a_1^T - \\ -a_2^T - \\ \vdots - \\ -a_n^T - \end{pmatrix} (y - \hat{y}) = 0$$

$$A^T y = A^T \hat{y} \quad \text{Note } \hat{y} \in \text{Range}(A) \therefore \hat{y} = Ax \text{ for some } x$$

$$A^T y = A^T A x$$

$$\boxed{A^T A x = A^T y} \quad \text{Normal equations}$$

What if we want to fit  $(t_1, y_1) (t_2, y_2) \dots (t_n, y_n)$  to  $p(t) = at + bt^2 + ct^3$ ?

$$\Rightarrow A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & t_1 & t_1^2 \\ 1 & t_2 & t_2^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & t_n & t_n^2 \end{pmatrix} \quad x = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \\ c \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{solve } A^T A x = A^T y$$

The only thing that changes is  $A$ . Essentially, we still have a linear system.

Exercise Fit  $(t_1, y_1) (t_2, y_2) \dots (t_n, y_n)$  to  $y = ae^{-t} + b$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} e^{-t_1} & 1 \\ e^{-t_2} & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ e^{-t_n} & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad x = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

Note we can generalize least squares to spaces of functions

Example Let  $P_1 = 1$ ,  $P_2 = x$  and  $P_3 = x^2$ .

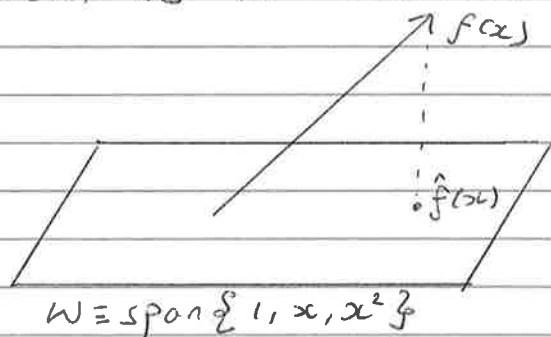
$$W = \{ c_1 P_1 + c_2 P_2 + c_3 P_3; c_1, c_2, c_3 \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

Note  $W$  is closed under addition and scalar multiplication.

Exercise Is  $P(x) = -2 + 5x + 3x^2$  in  $W$ ?

Yes!  $c_1 = -2$  and  $c_2 = 5$  and  $c_3 = 3$

Now let's ask the following question. What is the "nearest" element of  $W$  closest to  $f(x) = \sin(x)$ ?



Using best approximation theorem,  $\hat{f} \equiv$  orthogonal projection of  $f$  onto  $W$ .

Let's define some inner product (E.g.  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x)g(x)dx$ )

Recall orthogonality relation:  $f - \hat{f} \perp z \quad z \in W$

$$f - \hat{f} \perp P_1 = 0 \implies \langle f - \hat{f}, P_1 \rangle = 0$$

$$f - \hat{f} \perp P_2 = 0 \implies \langle f - \hat{f}, P_2 \rangle = 0$$

$$f - \hat{f} \perp P_3 = 0 \implies \langle f - \hat{f}, P_3 \rangle = 0$$