



# Numerical Methods

## Course # PHY 203

Chapter #: 6: Least-Square Approximation

Lecture # 9.1: Orthonormality

Prepared by

Abu Mohammad Khan





- In other words, the transformation matrix,  $A$ , is a square matrix:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & \cdots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix} \quad \underline{\underline{n \times n}}$$

- If  $\det A \neq 0$ , then there exists only one unique solution:

$$x = A^{-1}b.$$

- However, if we have a linear system where there are more equations to be satisfied than the number of variables, then how do we solve them. We call such a system an over-determined system.
- In such an over-determined system  $x = A^{-1}b$  can not give any solution because the matrix  $A$  is not invertible (because it is no longer a square matrix).
- For an overdetermined system, the matrix  $A$  is now a  $m \times n$  matrix.  $\leftarrow [m > n]$
- Here  $m$  is the number of rows which is also same as the number of equations to be satisfied.
- And  $n$  is the number of columns, which is also the number of unknown variables in the system.



- Least-square approximation method is a way to find an approximate solution of an over-determined system where the transformation matrix  $A$  is no longer invertible.
- In an overdetermined system, we have the following matrix equations:

$$\boxed{m > n} \quad \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}}_{m \times n} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}}_{n \times 1} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{pmatrix}}_{m \times 1}$$

$\Leftrightarrow \boxed{A X = b}$   
 $m \times n \quad \downarrow \quad \downarrow$   
 $n \times 1 \quad m \times 1$

- Let's denote the  $m \times n$  matrix by  $Q$  instead of  $A$ .
- The first column of the matrix  $Q$  is  $q_1$  and it is given by

$$q_1 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ a_{21} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m1} \end{pmatrix},$$

which is a  $m \times 1$  column matrix.



- Similarly, we write the other column matrices:

$$q_2 = \begin{pmatrix} a_{12} \\ a_{22} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m2} \end{pmatrix}, \dots, q_n = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1n} \\ a_{2n} \\ \vdots \\ a_{mn} \end{pmatrix}.$$

- So, we can express the matrix  $Q$  as

$$Q = (q_1 \quad q_2 \quad \dots \quad q_n) \Leftrightarrow Q = (q_1 | q_2 | \dots | q_n)$$

- Now we have a very important Theorem:

- Theorem:** Let  $Q$  be an  $m \times n$  matrix. The columns of  $Q$  form an orthonormal set if and only if

$$Q^T Q = I_n. \quad I_n \equiv I_{n \times n} \text{ matrix}$$

- To understand the Theorem, we need to understand two concepts: one is the Orthogonality and the other is Unit vector (or norm one vector).

$$Q^T \rightarrow n \times m \Rightarrow Q^T Q = (n \times m)(m \times n) = n \times n \text{ square matrix}$$

- **Orthogonality:** Let  $\vec{x}$  and  $\vec{y}$  are two vectors in  $n$ -dimensional Euclidean vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . That is:  $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- In matrix form, we identify an  $n$ -dimensional vector as an  $n \times 1$  column matrix.
- So, the inner product between any two vectors is expressed as

$$\underbrace{(1 \times n)} \underbrace{(n \times 1)} = \underbrace{(1 \times 1)} = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \equiv x^T y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = \text{number}$$

$$x = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$x^T = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & x_2 & \dots & x_n \end{pmatrix}$$

which is known as the scalar or dot product in three dimensions.

- The inner product with itself is called the  $l_2$ -norm, or simply norm of the vector is given by:

$$|\vec{x}| = \sqrt{x^T x} = \sqrt{\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x}}$$

which is known as the absolute value or magnitude in three dimensions.

- If  $\theta$  is the angle between any two vectors, then we write:

$$\underbrace{x^T y}_{(1 \times n) (n \times 1)} = \underbrace{|\vec{x}|}_{(1 \times 1)} \underbrace{|\vec{y}|}_{(1 \times 1)} \cos \theta \equiv \underbrace{xy}_{(1 \times 1) (1 \times 1)} \cos \theta$$



- Two vectors,  $\vec{x}$  and  $\vec{y}$ , are orthogonal if

$$\underline{x^T y = 0 \Rightarrow \theta = 90^\circ.}$$

- That is, they lie at right angles in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . In three dimensions, we say that these two vector are perpendicular to each other.

- Let consider a set of  $n$  vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :  $S = \{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n\}$ .

- The set  $S$  is called the orthogonal set if

$$\underline{x_i^T x_j = 0 \quad \forall i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n \text{ with } i \neq j.}$$

$$\boxed{\vec{x}_i \cdot \vec{x}_j = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j}$$

- Example: The set,  $S = \{\hat{i}, \hat{j}, \hat{k}\}$ , is an orthogonal set of vectors in three dimensions because

$$\underline{\hat{i} \cdot \hat{j} = 0.} = \underline{\hat{j} \cdot \hat{k} = 0 = \hat{k} \cdot \hat{i}}$$

- In matrix form, we can write the following:

$$\underline{\hat{i} = (1 \ 0 \ 0)^T, \text{ and } \hat{j} = (0 \ 1 \ 0)^T.}$$

$$\& \underline{\hat{k} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = (0 \ 0 \ 1)^T}$$



- On the other hand, in addition to orthogonality, we also have  $x_i^T x_i = 1$ , for each  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$

We say that the vectors  $x_i$  has norm unity.

$$\boxed{\vec{x}_i \cdot \vec{x}_i = 1 = |\vec{x}_i|}$$

- In other words, these are all unit vectors.
- The set of vectors in which every pair of vectors are orthogonal, and each vector has norm one, we say that the set is an orthonormal set.

- Mathematically, we write the orthonormal set as

$$S = \{x_i \mid x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, x_i^T x_j = \delta_{ij}, i, j = 1, 2, \dots, n\}.$$

- Here the Kronecker delta  $\delta_{ij}$  is defined as

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases} \rightarrow \begin{matrix} \text{norm} = 1 \\ \Rightarrow \text{orthogonal} \end{matrix}$$

$l_2$ -norm is one  
vectors are norm 1 vectors

- The above concept will be necessary and very useful when in the next lecture, we discuss the QR-decomposition of an  $m \times n$  matrix to solve a linear system.





- Example: The following set is orthonormal

$$S = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (2, 1)^T, \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (1, -2)^T \right\} \Rightarrow \text{is orthonormal.}$$

- Let  $u = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (2, 1)^T$  and  $v = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} (1, -2)^T$ .

- We easily see that:

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = u^T u = \left( \frac{1}{5} \right) (2^2 + 1^2) = 1.$$

$$(2 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 2^2 + 1^2 = 5$$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} = v^T v = \left( \frac{1}{5} \right) (1^2 + (-2)^2) = 1. \Rightarrow (1 \ -2) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = 1^2 + (-2)^2 = 5$$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \text{and } u^T v = \frac{1}{5} (2 \times 1 - 1 \times 2) = 0. \quad (2 \ 1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = 1 \times 2 - 1 \times 2 = 0$$

- Therefore,  $S$  is an orthonormal set in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , and hence form a basis in two-dimensional vector space.

