National University of Singapore MA2001 Linear Algebra

MATLAB Worksheet 5

Dot Product, Orthogonal Sets and Least Squares Solutions

A. Dot Product and Norm

Let $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ be vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . Their **dot product** is defined by

$$\boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} = u_1 v_1 + \dots + u_n v_n = \begin{pmatrix} u_1 & \dots & u_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

If both \boldsymbol{u} and \boldsymbol{v} are defined as row vectors, then $\boldsymbol{u} \cdot \boldsymbol{v} = \boldsymbol{u} \boldsymbol{v}^{\mathrm{T}}$.

If both u and v are defined as column vectors, then $u \cdot v = u^{\mathrm{T}}v$.

For example, let $\mathbf{u} = (1, 2, 3, 4, 5)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (1, 0, 1, -1, 2)$.

```
>> u = [1 2 3 4 5]; v = [1 0 1 -1 2];
>> u * v'
ans = 10
```

Alternatively, MATLAB provides a command dot for dot product, regardless whether the vectors are defined as row or column vectors.

```
>> dot(u, v)
ans = 10
>> dot(u', v)
ans = 10
>> dot(u, v')
ans = 10
>> dot(u', v')
ans = 10
```

The **norm** of a vector $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ in \mathbb{R}^n is defined by

$$\|\boldsymbol{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + \dots + v_n^2} = \sqrt{\boldsymbol{v} \cdot \boldsymbol{v}}.$$

Using the vectors \boldsymbol{u} and \boldsymbol{v} above, their norms can be evaluated using the $\boxed{\mathtt{sqrt}}$ and $\boxed{\mathtt{dot}}$ commands. We shall use the default format in MALTAB.

```
>> format short
>> sqrt(dot(u, u))
ans = 7.4162
>> sqrt(dot(v, v))
ans = 2.6458
```

Alternatively, in MATLAB norm can be used to find the norm of a vector.

```
>> norm(u) ans = 7.4162
```

Note that the norm of a vector is usually irrational (because of the square root), and the output is in floating-point. We can use sym to define a vector as symbolic object, and use norm to get the exact value of the norm. For example,

```
>> u = sym([1 2 3 4 5])

u = [1, 2, 3, 4, 5]

>> norm(u)

ans = 55^(1/2)
```

B. Orthogonal Sets

A set of vectors $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n is said to be an **orthogonal** set if

$$\mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_j = 0$$
 for all $i \neq j$.

View each vector as a row vector and consider $\boldsymbol{A} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{v}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{v}_k \end{pmatrix}$. Then $\boldsymbol{A}^{\mathrm{T}} = \begin{pmatrix} \boldsymbol{v}_1^{\mathrm{T}} & \cdots & \boldsymbol{v}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \end{pmatrix}$

and

$$m{A}m{A}^{\mathrm{T}} = egin{pmatrix} m{v}_1m{v}_1^{\mathrm{T}} & \cdots & m{v}_1m{v}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \ dots & \ddots & dots \ m{v}_km{v}_1^{\mathrm{T}} & \cdots & m{v}_km{v}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \end{pmatrix} = egin{pmatrix} m{v}_1\cdotm{v}_1 & \cdots & m{v}_1\cdotm{v}_k \ dots & \ddots & dots \ m{v}_k\cdotm{v}_1 & \cdots & m{v}_k\cdotm{v}_k \end{pmatrix}.$$

Hence, to determine whether the set $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ is orthogonal, we can use MATLAB to check whether AA^T is a diagonal matrix.

For example, consider a set of vectors

$$\{(1, 1, 1, 1), (1, 0, -1, 0), (1, -1, 1, -1)\}$$

in \mathbb{R}^4 .

(i) Define the matrix C whose rows are the given vectors.

(ii) Evaluate CC^{T} .

Since CC^{T} is a diagonal matrix, the set of vectors $\{(1, 1, 1, 1), (1, 0, -1, 0), (1, -1, 1, -1)\}$ is an orthogonal set.

A set of vectors $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n is said to be an **orthonormal** set if

$$\mathbf{v}_i \cdot \mathbf{v}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

View each vector as a row vector and consider $m{A} = egin{pmatrix} m{v}_1 \\ \vdots \\ m{v}_k \end{pmatrix}$.

Hence, to determine whether the set $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_k\}$ is orthonormal, we can use MATLAB to check whether $AA^T = I_k$, the identity matrix of order k.

For example, consider a set of vectors

$$\left\{(\cos\frac{\pi}{3},0,\sin\frac{\pi}{3},0),(0,1,0,0),(\sin\frac{\pi}{3},0,-\cos\frac{\pi}{3},0)\right\}$$

in \mathbb{R}^4 .

(i) Define the matrix D whose rows are the given vectors.

$$>> D = [\cos(pi/3) \ 0 \ \sin(pi/3) \ 0; \ 0 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0; \ \sin(pi/3) \ 0 \ -\cos(pi/3) \ 0];$$

(ii) Evaluate DD^{T} .

Since $\mathbf{D}\mathbf{D}^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{I}_3$, the given set of vectors $\left\{ \left(\cos \frac{\pi}{3}, 0, \sin \frac{\pi}{3}, 0\right), \left(0, 1, 0, 0\right), \left(\sin \frac{\pi}{3}, 0, -\cos \frac{\pi}{3}, 0\right) \right\}$ is an orthonormal set.

C. Orthonormal Bases

If V = span(S), and S is an orthonormal set, then S is linearly independent, and S is called an **orthonormal basis** for V.

In MATLAB, orth can be used to get an **orthonormal basis** for the column space of a matrix.

Suppose V = span(S), where $S = \{(1, 1, 1, 1), (1, 1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 1, 0)\}.$

(i) Define matrix $\boldsymbol{E} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ whose columns are the vectors in the spanning

set S. By definition, V = span(S) is the column space of the matrix E.

$$>>$$
 E = [1 1 0; 1 1 1; 1 0 1; 1 0 0];

It might be easier to input in MATLAB the vectors of S as rows of a matrix and then take the transpose, as shown below.

(ii) Use the command $\boxed{\text{orth}}$ to get an orthonormal basis for the column space of E, i.e., for V.

The columns of the resulting matrix give an orthonormal basis for the vector space V:

```
\{(-0.4835, -0.6635, -0.4835, -0.3035), (0.7071, 0, -0.7071, 0), (-0.1273, 0.5565, -0.1273, -0.8111)\}
```

Important note:

The (classical) Gram-Schmidt process in the textbook (Theorem 5.2.19) is numerically unstable. The MATLAB command orth above uses a modified Gram-Schmidt process¹ to generate an orthonormal basis which is generally different from the classical process.

In order to get the exact form of the orthonormal basis, we can use **sym** to define the matrix as **symbolic** object. By dealing with symbolic objects, there is no longer numerical error. In this case, **orth** uses the classical Gram-Schmidt process to generate the orthonormal basis.

Again, suppose V = span(S), where $S = \{(1, 1, 1, 1), (1, 1, 0, 0), (0, 1, 1, 0)\}.$

(i) Define matrix \boldsymbol{E} whose columns are the vectors in S as an symbolic object.

```
>> E = sym([1 1 0; 1 1 1; 1 0 1; 1 0 0]);

E = [1, 1, 0]

[1, 1, 1]

[1, 0, 1]

[1, 0, 0]
```

(ii) Use orth to get an orthonormal basis for the column space of E, i.e., for V.

```
>> orth(E)

ans = [1/2, 1/2, -1/2]

[1/2, 1/2, 1/2]

[1/2, -1/2, 1/2]

[1/2, -1/2, -1/2]
```

¹Your may refer to the session **Numerical Stability** on Gram-Schmidt process in WIKIPEDIA: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Gram-Schmidt_process.

The columns of the resulting matrix give an orthonormal basis for the vector space V.

$$\left\{ \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\right), \left(\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\right), \left(-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\right) \right\}$$

The command orth also allows us to generate an orthogonal basis (i.e. the vectors need not be of norm 1) in symbolic form by "skipping the normalization" in Gram-Schmidt process:

```
>> orth(E, 'skipnormalization')
ans = [1, 1/2, -1/2]
       [1, 1/2, 1/2]
       [1, -1/2, 1/2]
       [1, -1/2, -1/2]
```

D. Least Squares Solutions

When a linear system Ax = b is inconsistent, we can find its **least squares** solutions, which are the "best approximation" in place of an exact solution for the system.

Recall that the least squares solution can be found by solving the following linear system

$$\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}.$$

For example, consider the linear system

$$\begin{cases} x + 2y + z = 1 \\ x + 2y + 2z = 1 \\ 2x + 4y + z = 3 \end{cases}$$

We input the system to MATLAB as an augmented matrix [A b]:

The RREF shows the system is inconsistent.

We proceed to solve the system $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$:

This system is consistent and has infinitely many solutions.

Observe that the 2nd column of the reduced row-echelon form is a pivot column. Set $x_2 = s$ to be arbitrary parameter, and solve the other variables:

$$x_1 = \frac{18}{11} - 2s$$
, $x_3 = \frac{-4}{11}$.

This gives us the least squares solutions for the original system Ax = b:

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{18}{11} - 2s \\ s \\ \frac{-4}{11} \end{pmatrix}.$$

E. Projections

In this section, we show how to use least squares solutions to find the **projection** p of a given vector v onto a vector space V. Recall that p is defined to be the unique vector such that v - p is orthogonal to every vector in V.

Let's take $V = \text{span}\{(1, 1, 2), (2, 2, 4), (1, 2, 1)\}$ and $\boldsymbol{v} = (1, 1, 3)$. To find the projection \boldsymbol{p} of \boldsymbol{v} onto V, we use the spanning vectors (written in column form) of V to

form the matrix $\mathbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$, and let $\mathbf{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$ which is the vector \mathbf{v} in column

form. Note that the column space of \boldsymbol{A} is precisely V.

Recall that the projection of a vector \boldsymbol{b} onto the column space of a matrix \boldsymbol{A} is given by $\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x}_0$ where \boldsymbol{x}_0 is a least squares solution of the system $\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{b}$.

Note that our A and b are the examples from the previous section, and we have found the least squares solutions of the system Ax = b, given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{18}{11} - 2s \\ s \\ \frac{-4}{11} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Take x_0 to be any particular least squares solution (say we let s=0):

$$oldsymbol{x}_0 = egin{pmatrix} rac{18}{11} \ 0 \ rac{-4}{11} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Input this solution in MATLAB:

$$>> x0=[18/11 0 -4/11];$$

Then the required projection p can be computed as Ax_0 .

F. Practices

Use MATLAB to solve Questions 5.1, 5.2, 5.6, 5.10, 5.11(a), 5.12, 5.13, 5.14, 5.15, 5.17, 5.22, 5.24, 5.25, 5.26, 5.27(a) in the textbook Exercise 5.