## **Basic Maths for Non-mathematicians**

#### Peleg Bar Sapir

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \sum_{k=1}^{N} f(x_{k}) \Delta x$$

$$(AB)^{\top} = B^{\top} A^{\top} \qquad \mathbb{R}^{n} \xrightarrow{T} \mathbb{R}^{m}$$

$$\vec{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \hat{e}_{i}$$

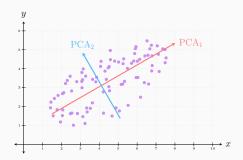
$$\frac{df}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \to 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x} \qquad A = Q^{\Lambda} Q^{-1}$$

$$\operatorname{Rot}(\theta) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos(\theta) & -\sin(\theta) \\ \sin(\theta) & \cos(\theta) \end{bmatrix} \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx = F(b) - F(a)$$

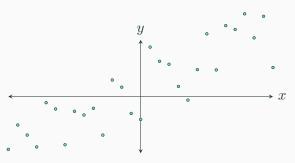
$$T(\alpha \vec{u} + \beta \vec{v}) = \alpha T(\vec{u}) + \beta T(\vec{v}) \quad \langle \hat{e}_{i}, \hat{e}_{j} \rangle = \delta_{ij}$$



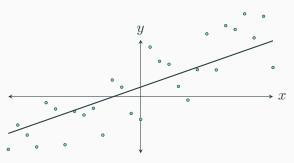
# Chapter 7: Some Real-World Uses of Linear Algebra



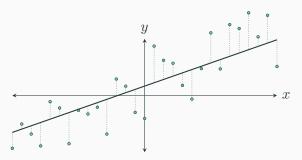
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A good approximation is the line f(x) = ax + b for which the sum of the distances from the line to each point  $(x_i, y_i)$  is minimal, i.e.

$$S = \min \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ f(x_i) - y_i \right] \right).$$

We can collect all the y values of our measurement points to a vector:

$$\vec{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix},$$

and similarly collect all the y = f(x) values of the line:

$$\vec{f} = \begin{pmatrix} f(x_1) \\ f(x_2) \\ \vdots \\ f(x_n) \end{pmatrix}.$$

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The sum  $s = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [f(x_i) - y_i]$  then becomes:

$$s = \sum_{i=1}^{n} [f(x_i) - y_i]$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} [\vec{f}_i - \vec{y}_i].$$

However, s is a bit problematic, as some elements  $\vec{f_i}-\vec{y_i}$  can be negative. Instead, we can minimize the following expression:

$$s^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \vec{f}_i - \vec{y}_i \right]^2.$$

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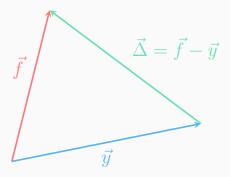
...and the expression

$$s^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \left[ \vec{f}_i - \vec{y}_i \right]^2$$

is exactly the square norm of the vector

$$\vec{\Delta} = \begin{pmatrix} f_1 - y_1 \\ f_2 - y_2 \\ \vdots \\ f_n - y_n \end{pmatrix} = \vec{f} - \vec{y}.$$

Drawing the a 2-dimentional scheme of the vectors  $\vec{v}, \vec{f}$  and their difference  $\vec{\Delta} = \vec{f} - \vec{v}$ :



The norm of the vector  $\vec{\Delta}=\vec{f}-\vec{y}$  is minimal when  $\vec{f}\perp\vec{\Delta}$ , i.e. when

$$\vec{f} \cdot \vec{\Delta} = \vec{f} \cdot \left( \vec{f} - \vec{y} \right) = 0.$$

Let's find what condition on  $\vec{f}$  yields this.

First, we note that the vector  $\vec{f}$  can be written as a matrix-vector product:

$$\vec{f} = \begin{pmatrix} f(x_1) \\ f(x_2) \\ \vdots \\ f(x_n) \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ax_1 + b \\ ax_2 + b \\ \vdots \\ ax_n + b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 & 1 \\ x_2 & 1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}.$$

Thus, the condition 
$$\vec{f}\cdot\left(\vec{f}-\vec{y}\right)=0$$
 becomes 
$$A\vec{v}\cdot(A\vec{v}-\vec{y})=0.$$

Some algebra:

$$A\vec{v} \cdot (A\vec{v} - \vec{y}) = 0.$$

Some algebra:

$$A\vec{v}\cdot A\vec{v} - A\vec{v}\cdot \vec{y} = 0.$$

Some algebra:

$$A\vec{v}\cdot A\vec{v} = A\vec{v}\cdot \vec{y}.$$

Some algebra:

$$A\vec{v} \cdot A\vec{v} = A\vec{v} \cdot \vec{y}.$$

Since  $A\vec{v}$  is a vector, it can be dotted with either itself or  $\vec{y}$ . However, we can consider  $A\vec{v}$  as an  $n\times 1$  matrix, and to keep the product defined we transpose it, i.e.

$$(A\vec{v})^{\top} \cdot A\vec{v} = (A\vec{v})^{\top} \cdot \vec{y}.$$

This doesn't change the truthness of the equation.

Expanding the transposed product  $(A\vec{v})^{\top}$  yields

$$\vec{v}^{\top} A^{\top} A \vec{v} = \vec{v}^{\top} A^{\top} \vec{y},$$

where  $\vec{v}^{\top}$  is a row vector.

We can remove  $\vec{v}^\top$  from both sides, leaving us with

$$A^{\top}A\vec{v} = A^{\top}\vec{y}.$$

This linear system is surprisingly easy to solve!

### **Example**

Let's look at 6 points:

$$p_1 = (-2, -7.3)$$

$$p_2 = (-1, -3.9)$$

$$p_3 = (0, -1.2)$$

$$p_4 = (1, 2.4)$$

$$p_5 = (2, 4.7)$$

$$p_6 = (3, 7.7)$$

#### **Example**

The linear system we need to solve is thus

$$\left(\begin{smallmatrix} -2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{smallmatrix}\right)\left(\begin{smallmatrix} -2 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 \end{smallmatrix}\right)\left(\begin{smallmatrix} a \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ b \\ 0 \end{smallmatrix}\right) = \left(\begin{smallmatrix} -2 & -1 & 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{smallmatrix}\right)\left(\begin{smallmatrix} -7,3 \\ -3,9 \\ -1.2 \\ 2.4 \\ 4.7 \\ 7.7 \end{smallmatrix}\right).$$

Multiplying both matrix-matrix products yields

$$\begin{pmatrix} 19 & 3 \\ 3 & 6 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 53.4 & 2.4 \end{pmatrix},$$

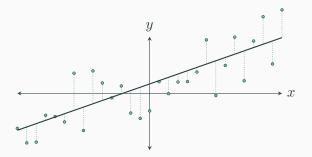
which when solved for a and b yields

$$a = 2.98$$
  $b = -1.09$ .

How can we quantify the "goodness" of fit between the proposed approximation and out data points?

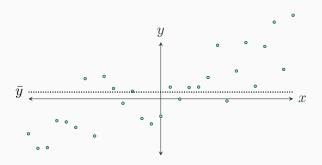
We can first look at the average difference between  $y_i$  and the linear approximation (the **variance** in the y-values in respect to the line):

$$\sigma_{\text{line}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} [f(x_i) - y_i]^2.e$$



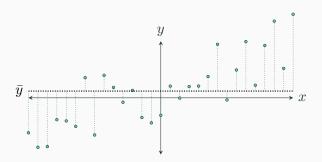
Then we look at the average y value of our data points:

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i.e$$



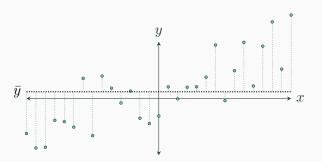
We can calculate the total distance of out data points to  $\bar{y}$ :

$$SE_{\bar{y}} = (y_1 - \bar{y})^2 + (y_2 - \bar{y})^2 + \dots + (y_n - \bar{y})^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 .e^{-y_i}$$



The average of  $SE_{\bar{y}}$  is the variance in the y-values:

$$\sigma_y = \frac{1}{n} SE_{\bar{y}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \bar{y})^2 .e$$



The ratio of the two variances

$$\rho = \frac{\sigma_{\mathsf{line}}}{\sigma_{\bar{y}}}$$

is a measurement of what percentage of the total variation is **NOT** described by the linear approximaion. It is in the range

$$0 \le \rho \le 1$$
.

Thus,

$$r^2 \equiv 1 - \rho = 1 - \frac{\sigma_{\text{line}}}{\sigma_{\bar{y}}}$$

describes how much of the total variation is described by the linear approximation.

An  $r^2$  close to 1 means that  $\rho$  is close to 0, i.e. the variation of  $y_i$  from the line,  $\sigma_{\rm line}$ , is small compared to the total variance of the points.

#### **Example**

The average y value of the points in the previous example is

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{6}(-7.3 - 3.9 - 1.2 + 2.4 + 4.7 + 7.7) = \frac{2.4}{6} = 0.4.$$

Their total variance is thus

$$\sigma_{\bar{y}} = \frac{1}{6} \left[ (-7.3 - 0.4)^2 + (-3.9 - 0.4)^2 + (-1.2 - 0.4)^2 + (2.4 - 0.4)^2 + (4.7 - 0.4)^2 + (7.7 - 0.4)^2 \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \left[ 59.29 + 18.49 + 2.56 + 4 + 18.49 + 53.29 \right]$$

$$= 26.02.$$

#### **Example**

The linear approximation was calculated as f(x)=2.98x-1.09, and so the variance to the linear approximation is

$$\sigma_{\text{line}} = \frac{1}{6} \left[ (-7.05 + 7.3)^2 + (-4.07 + 3.9)^2 + (-1.09 + 1.2)^2 + (1.89 - 2.4)^2 + (4.87 - 4.7)^2 + (7.85 - 7.7)^2 \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \left[ 0.06 + 0.03 + 0.01 + 0.26 + 0.03 + 0.02 \right]$$

$$= 0.0692.$$

#### **Example**

Thus,

$$r^2 = 1 - \frac{\sigma_{\text{line}}}{\sigma_{\bar{y}}} = 1 - \frac{0.0692}{26.02} = 1 - 0.0027 = 0.9973,$$

which means that the linear approximation given by the least squares method for this set of points is an exceptionally good approximation.