Cosines and Projections onto Lines; Projections and Least Squares (投影和最小二乘)

Lecture 14 and 15

Dept. of Math., SUSTech

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Projections and Least Squares

- Introduction
- Projection onto a Line
- Projection Matrix of Rank 1
- Least-Squares Problems with Several Variables
- Least-Squares Fitting of Data
- 6 Homework Assignment 14 and 15

Projection

To find a point p on a subspace that is closest to a given point b, a perpendicular line from b to S meets the subspace at p. Questions:

- Does this projection actually arise in practical applications?
- If we have a basis for the subspace S, is there a formula for the projection p?

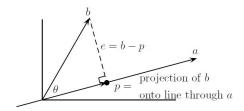
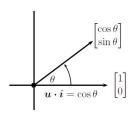


Figure 3.5: The projection p is the point (on the line through a) closest to b.

Inner Products and Cosines

Suppose the vectors $a=(a_1,a_2)$ and $b=(b_1,b_2)$ make angles α and β with the x-axis.



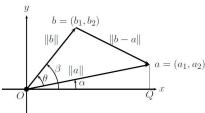


Figure 3.6: The cosine of the angle $\theta = \beta - \alpha$ using inner products.

Cosine Formula:
$$\cos \theta = \cos(\beta - \alpha) = \frac{a_1b_1 + a_2b_2}{||a||||b||}$$
.

The Cosine Formula

The numerator in this formula is exactly the inner product of a and b. It gives the relationship between a^Tb and $\cos\theta$. The cosine of the angle between any nonzero vectors a and b is

Cosine of
$$\theta$$
 $\cos \theta = \frac{a^T b}{||a||||b||}$.

Remarks:

- This formula is dimensionally correct; if we double the length of b, then both numerator and denominator are doubled, and the cosine is unchanged. Reversing the sign of b, on the other hand, reverses the sign of $\cos\theta$ —and changes the angle by 180° .
- There is another law of trigonometry(Law of Cosines) that leads directly to the same result.

Projection onto a Line

The line from b to the closest point $p = \hat{x}a$ is perpendicular to the vector a.

Proposition

The projection of the vector b onto the line in the direction of a is

$$p = \hat{x}a = \frac{a^T b}{a^T a}a.$$

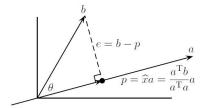


Figure 3.7: The projection p of b onto a, with $\cos \theta = \frac{Op}{Ob} = \frac{a^{\mathsf{T}}b}{\|a\| \|b\|}$.

Schwarz Inequality

Schwarz Inequality is the most important inequality in mathematics.

All vectors a and b satisfy the **Schwarz Inequality**, which is $|\cos \theta| \le 1$ in \mathbb{R}^n :

$$|a^Tb| \le ||a|| ||b||.$$

Remarks:

- The Schwarz inequality is the same as $|\cos \theta| \le 1$.
- Equality holds if and only if b is a multiple of a.
- The name of Cauchy is also attached to this inequality, and the Russians refer to it as the Cauchy-Schwarz-Buniakowsky inequality!
 Mathematical historians seen to agree that Buniakowsky's claim is genuine.

Projection Matrix of Rank 1

The projection of b onto the line through a lies at $p=a(a^Tb/a^Ta)$. That is our formula $p=\hat{x}a$, but it is written with a slight twist: The vector is put before the number $\hat{x}=a^Tb/a^Ta$.

Projection onto a line is carried out by a projection matrix P, and written in this new order we can see what it is. P is the matrix that multiplies b and produces p:

$$P = \frac{aa^T}{a^Ta}.$$

That is a column times a row–a square matrix–divided by the number a^Ta .

It is also useful to note that the line from b to the closest point $p = \hat{x}a$ is perpendicular to the vector a.

Examples

1. Project b = (1,2,3) onto the line through a = (1,1,1) to get \hat{x} and p:

$$\hat{x} = \frac{a^T b}{a^T a} = \frac{6}{3} = 2.$$

The projection is $p = \hat{x}a = (2, 2, 2)$.

2. The matrix that projects onto the line through a = (1,1,1) is

$$P = \frac{aa^{T}}{a^{T}a} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3}\\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3}\\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{3} \end{bmatrix}$$

Projection matrix

The matrix has two properties that we will see as typical of projections:

- 1. P is a symmetric matrix.
- 2. Its square is itself: $P^2 = P$.

Example

Projection onto the " θ -direction" in the *x*-*y* plane. The line goes through $a = (\cos \theta, \sin \theta)$ and the matrix is symmetric with $P^2 = P$:

$$P = \frac{aa^{T}}{a^{T}a} = \frac{\begin{bmatrix} c \\ s \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c & s \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} c & s \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c \\ s \end{bmatrix}} = \begin{bmatrix} c^{2} & cs \\ cs & s^{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Project onto the " θ -direction" in the x-y plane

In the above example, c is $\cos\theta$, s is $\sin\theta$, and $c^2+s^2=1$ in the denominator. This matrix was discovered in Section 2.6 on linear transformation.

To repeat: P is the matrix that multiplies b and produces p.

Transposes from Inner Products

Definition

The transpose A^T can be defined by the following property: The inner product of Ax with y equals the inner product of x with A^Ty . Formally, this simply means that

$$(Ax)^T y = x^T A^T y = x^T (A^T y).$$

The definition gives us another (better) way to verify that formula $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$. Use the above equation twice:

Move A then move B
$$(ABx)^Ty = (Bx)^T(A^Ty) = x^T(B^TA^Ty).$$

The transposes turn up in reverse order on the right side, just as the inverses do in the formula $(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$.

Normal Equations

Now we are ready for the serious step, to project b onto a subspace–rather than just onto a line. When Ax = b is inconsistent, its least-squares solution minimizes $||Ax - b||^2$, and normal equations are

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

 A^TA is invertible exactly when the columns of A are linearly independent! Then, the best estimate \hat{x} is

$$\hat{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b.$$

The projection of *b* onto the column space is the nearest point $A\hat{x}$:

$$p = A\hat{x} = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T b.$$

Example

Example

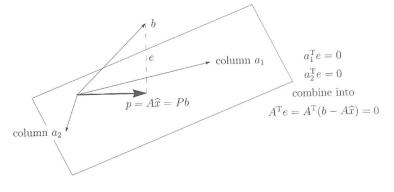


Figure 3.8: Projection onto the column space of a 3 by 2 matrix.

Example

Example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad b = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \begin{array}{l} Ax = b \text{ has no solution} \\ A^{T}A\widehat{x} = A^{T}b \text{ gives the best } x. \end{array}$$

$$Ax = b$$
 has no solution
 $A^{T}A\hat{x} = A^{T}b$ gives the best x

Remarks

Remarks:

- If b is in the column space of A-it is a combination b = Ax of the columns. Then the projection of b is still b: Pb = b.
- If b is perpendicular to every column of A, so $A^Tb = 0$. In this case b projects to the zero vector: Pb = 0.
- If A is square and invertible, the column space is the whole space. Every vector projects to itself: Pb = b.
- Suppose *A* has only one column, containing *a*. Then we return to the earlier formula:

$$\hat{x} = \frac{a^T b}{a^T a}.$$

The Cross-Product Matrix of A^TA

The matrix A^TA is certainly symmetric, the key question is the invertibility of it, and fortunately

Proposition

 $A^{T}A$ has the same nullspace as A.

If A has independent columns and only 0 is in its nullspace. The same is true for A^TA :

Proposition

If A has independent columns, then A^TA is square, symmetric, and invertible.

Projection Matrices

Projection matrix

$$P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T.$$

Remarks:

- The projection matrix $P = A(A^TA)^{-1}A^T$ has two basic properties: (i) It equals its square: $P^2 = P$.
 - (ii) It equals its transpose: $P^T = P$.
- Conversely, any symmetric matrix with $P^2 = P$ represents a projection.
- We deduce from $P^2 = P$ and $P^T = P$ that Pb is the projection of b onto the column space of P.
- The error vector b-Pb is orthogonal to the column space. For any vector Pc in the column space, the inner product is zero.

The Problem

Suppose we do a series of experiments, and expect the output b to be a linear function of the input t. We look for a straight line b = C + Dt. For example:

- At different times we measure the distance to a satellite on its way to Mars. In this case t is the time and b is the distance. Unless the motor was left on or gravity is strong, the satellite should move with nearly constant velocity v: b = b₀ + vt.
- 2. We vary the load on a structure, and measure the movement it produces. In this experiment t is the load and b is the reading from the strain gauge. Unless the load is so great that the material becomes plastic, a linear relation b = C + Dt is normal in the theory of elasticity.

Question

3. The cost of producing t books like this one is nearly linear, b = C + Dt, with editing and typesetting in C and then printing and binding in D. C is the set up cost and D is the cost for each additional book.

How to compute C and D? If there is no experimental error, then two measurements of b will determine the line b = C + Dt. But if there is error, we must be prepared to "average" the experiments and find an optimal line.

Example

Example

Three measurements b_1, b_2, b_3 are marked on Figure 3.9a:

$$b = 1$$
 at $t = -1$, $b = 1$ at $t = 1$, $b = 3$ at $t = 2$.

Note that the values t = -1, 1, 2 are not required to be equally spaced. The first step is to write the equations that would hold if a line could go through all three points. Then every C + Dt would agree exactly with b:

$$Ax = b \text{ is } \left\{ \begin{array}{ccc} C & - & D & = 1 \\ C & + & D & = 1 & \text{or } \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} C \\ D \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}. \right.$$

Solution

If those equations Ax = b could be solved, there would be no errors. They can't be solved because the points are not on a line. Therefore they are solved by least-squares:

$$A^{T}A\hat{x} = A^{T}b$$
 is $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 2 \\ 2 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{C} \\ \hat{D} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$.

The best solution is $\hat{C} = \frac{9}{7}, \hat{D} = \frac{4}{7}$ and the best line is

$$\frac{9}{7} + \frac{4}{7}t.$$

See the following figure for more details.

Figure 3.9

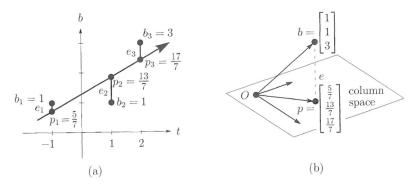


Figure 3.9: Straight-line approximation matches the projection p of b.

Note the beautiful connections between the two figures.

Conclusions

- The line $\frac{9}{7} + \frac{4}{7}t$ has heights $\frac{5}{7}, \frac{13}{7}, \frac{17}{7}$ at the measurements times -1, 1, 2. Those points do lie on a line.
- Subtracting p from b, the errors are $e = (\frac{2}{7}, -\frac{6}{7}, \frac{4}{7})$. Those are the vertical errors in Figure 3.9b. It is orthogonal to both columns of A.

Least-Squares Fitting of Data

We can quickly summarize the equations for fitting by a straight line.

The first column of A contains 1s, and the second column contains the times t_i . Therefore A^TA contains the sum of the 1s and the t_i and the t_i^2 :

Theorem

The measurements b_1, b_2, \dots, b_m are given at distinct points t_1, t_2, \dots, t_m . Then the straight line $\hat{C} + \hat{D}t$ which minimizes E^2 comes from least-squares:

$$A^{T}A\begin{bmatrix} \hat{C} \\ \hat{D} \end{bmatrix} = A^{T}b \text{ or } \begin{bmatrix} m & \sum t_{i} \\ \sum t_{i} & \sum t_{i}^{2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{C} \\ \hat{D} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sum b_{i} \\ \sum t_{i}b_{i} \end{bmatrix}$$

Weighted Least Squares

If the observations are not trusted to the same degree, we need to minimize the weighted sum of least squares:

Theorem

The least squares solution to WAx = Wb is \hat{x}_W , and the weighted normal equations:

$$(A^T W^T WA)\hat{x}_W = A^T W^T Wb.$$

- Weighted average, Variance, Covariance matrix, etc.
- For any invertible matrix *W*, we can define a new inner product and length as follows:

$$(x,y)_W = (Wy)^T (Wx)$$
 and $||x||_W = ||Wx||$.

Homework Assignment 14 and 15

3.2: 3, 11, 14, 17, 20, 21, 24.

3.3: 3, 6, 12, 13, 15, 19, 24.