

TMA 4115 Matematikk 3

Lecture 27 for MBIOT5, MTKJ, MTNANO

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Least square solutions

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix and $\vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$. A vector $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called **least square solution** of $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ if

$$\|\vec{b} - A\vec{y}\| \leq \|\vec{b} - A\vec{x}\|, \quad \text{for all } \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Note: A vector \vec{y} is a least square solution if and only if

- ▶ $A\vec{y} = \text{proj}_{\text{Col}(A)}(\vec{b})$
- ▶ It solves the **normal equation** $A^T A \vec{x} = A^T \vec{b}$

For every linear system there is a least square solution. If the system is inconsistent a least square solution is the best approximate solution we can get.

Revisiting example 21.9

22.7 Example, (Spring 2011 Problem 5)

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 5 & -3 \\ -1 & -1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$. Find the nearest point in $\text{Col}(A)$ to \vec{b} .

Avoid Gram-Schmidt and compute a least square solution \vec{y} to $A\vec{x} = \vec{b}$ the nearest point is then $A\vec{y}$. Try to solve the normal equation $A^T A\vec{x} = A^T \vec{b}$. However, we obtain

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 6 & 12 & -6 \\ 6 & 11 & 7 & -1 \\ 12 & 7 & 29 & -17 \\ -6 & -1 & -17 & 11 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Can we simplify the problem so that we do not need $A^T A$?

Revisiting example 21.9

Idea: The column space $\text{Col}(A)$ is important not the matrix A !
Use the method with an easier matrix B with $\text{Col}(B) = \text{Col}(A)$.

In 21.9 we saw that $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ is a basis of $\text{Col}(A)$. Thus

we set $B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ and compute with B :

$$B^T B = \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 6 \\ 6 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, B^T \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solving $B^T B \vec{x} = B^T \vec{b}$ yields the least square solution $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$

Revisiting example 21.9

Now the nearest point to \vec{b} in $\text{Col}(A) = \text{Col}(B)$ is

$$B \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 5 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

as before!

Remark We can compute nearest points in a subspace by solving least square problems.

This avoids Gram-Schmidt, which will in general be quite a messy computation.

An observation

In setting up the normal equation we computed matrices of the form $A^T A$. Here are some examples:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 17 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 17 \\ 17 & 81 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 6 & 6 & 12 & -6 \\ 6 & 11 & 7 & -1 \\ 12 & 7 & 29 & -17 \\ -6 & -1 & -17 & 11 \end{bmatrix}$$

These matrices have an interesting structure:

Taking their transpose we get back the same matrix!¹

We call these special matrices **symmetric** and will now investigate their properties.

¹Note that the rules for the transpose imply $(A^T A)^T = A^T (A^T)^T = A^T A$.

23.13 Definition

A quadratic form $Q(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T A \vec{x}$ is called

- ▶ **positive definite**, if $Q(\vec{x}) > 0$, $\forall \vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$,
- ▶ **negative definite**, if $Q(\vec{x}) < 0$, $\forall \vec{x} \neq \vec{0}$,
- ▶ **indefinite**, if $Q(\vec{x})$ assumes both negative and positive values.

These properties are quite important in applications for quadratic forms. We shall discuss one after the next theorem.

23.14 Theorem

Let A be a symmetric matrix and $Q(\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T A \vec{x}$ be the associated quadratic form. Then Q is

- ▶ positive definite, if all eigenvalues of A are positive
- ▶ negative definite, if all eigenvalues of A are negative
- ▶ indefinite, if there are positive and negative eigenvalues

Application (in Calculus) Recall from calculus that for a (sufficiently) differentiable function $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ we know: If $f'(x) = 0$ and $f''(x) \neq 0$ then

if $f''(x) < 0$ we have a local maximum at x

if $f''(x) > 0$ we have a local minimum at x

Let now $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a (sufficiently) differentiable function. It turns out that a similar criterion holds in this case, but we need symmetric matrices!

Example in two dimensions

In calculus you learn how to compute for $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the derivatives $f'(\vec{x})$ and $f''(\vec{x})$.

Furthermore, $f''(\vec{x})$ is determined by the **Hessian**

$$Hf(\vec{x}) = \left[\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(\vec{x}) \right]_{1 \leq i, j \leq n}$$

Example Consider the function $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, (x, y) \mapsto \cos(x) \sin(y)$. Then the Hessian computes as:

$$Hf \left(\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \right) = - \begin{bmatrix} \cos(x) \sin(y) & \sin(x) \cos(y) \\ \sin(x) \cos(y) & \cos(x) \sin(y) \end{bmatrix}$$

It is a symmetric matrix².

Study maxima and minima via the Hessian!

²This is no coincidence, by Schwartz law the Hessian of each sufficiently differentiable function will be symmetric!

Example in two dimensions

The generalized criterion is: If $f'(\vec{x}) = \vec{0}$ and the Hessian $Hf(\vec{x})$ is

- ▶ positive definite, then f has a local minimum at \vec{x} ,
- ▶ negative definite, then f has a local maximum at \vec{x} ,
- ▶ indefinite, then f has a saddle point at \vec{x} ,

Using this technique one can compute the critical points of for example $f(x, y) = \cos(x) \sin(y)$

The graph of $\cos(x) \sin(y)$:

