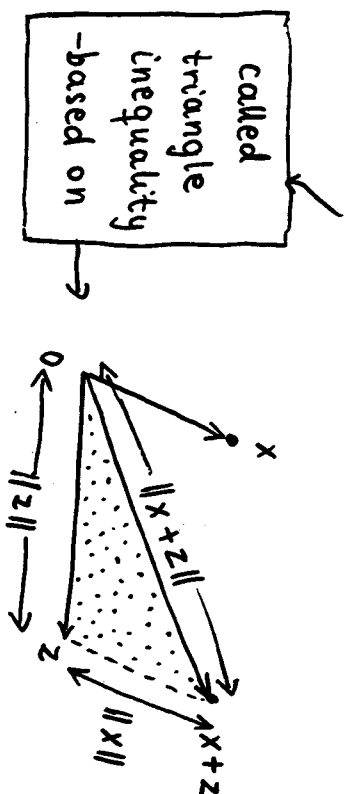


Revision of norms & orthogonal matricesFor $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ $\|x\|$ = a measure of the "length of x "

many definitions possible - all satisfying:

(6.1) Norm axioms $\forall x, z \in \mathbb{R}^n, \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}$:chosen so $\|x\|$
behaves like lengthAxiom I: $\|x\| > 0$ Axiom II: $[\|x\| = 0] \Leftrightarrow [x = 0]$ Axiom III: $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|x\|$ Axiom IV: $\|x+z\| \leq \|x\| + \|z\|$ Examples of norms on \mathbb{R}^n

1. $\|x\|_1 \triangleq \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$

2. $\|x\|_2 \triangleq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{1/2}$

Euclidean
norm

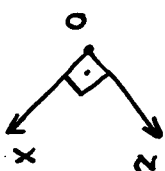
3. $\|x\|_\infty \triangleq \max \{|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|\}$

In this lecture always: $\|x\| = \|x\|_2$

So: $\|x\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$

$$= (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = x^T x$$

$\Rightarrow \|x\| = (x^T x)^{1/2}$

Orthogonal vectors: $\text{In } \mathbb{R}^2$: $x \perp z$

orthogonal

 $\text{In } \mathbb{R}^n$?

$$(6.2) \quad [x \perp z] \Leftrightarrow \text{by def.} \quad [\|x+z\| = \|x-z\|]$$

equivalently:

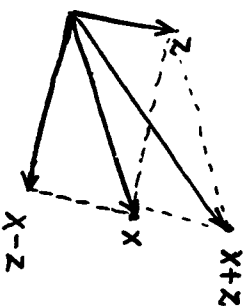
$$(6.3) \quad [x \perp z] \Leftrightarrow [x^T z = 0]$$

by def.

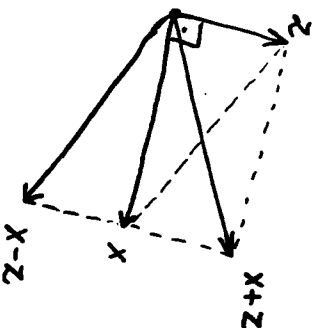
why this definition?

because it is a key property of orthogonality in \mathbb{R}^2

$x \neq z$



$$\|x+z\| \neq \|x-z\|$$



$$\|x+z\| = \|x-z\|$$

Equivalence of (6.2) & (6.3):

$$\|x+z\| = \|x-z\| \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad (6.2)$$

$$\|x+z\|^2 = \|x-z\|^2$$

\Leftrightarrow

$$(x+z)^T (x+z) = (x-z)^T (x-z)$$

$\| \quad \|$

$$x^T x + z^T x + x^T z + z^T z = x^T x - z^T x - x^T z + z^T z$$

$x^T z$

$x^T z$

\Leftrightarrow

$$2x^T z = -2x^T z$$

\Leftrightarrow

$$x^T z = 0 \quad \leftarrow (6.3).$$

QED.

(6.4) Definitions

① $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is called normalized iff $\|x\| = 1$

② $x, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are called orthonormal iff:

$$(a) \quad x \perp z$$

$$(b) \quad \|x\| = \|z\| = 1$$



③ $x^1, x^2, \dots, x^k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are called orthonormal

iff:

- (a) $x^i \perp x^j, \forall i, j (i \neq j)$
 (b) $\|x^i\| = 1, \forall i$

e.g. the standard basis vectors for \mathbb{R}^3 :

$$e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, e_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Orthogonal matrices

(6.5)

very important for
numerical algorithms

$P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is called orthogonal iff:

its columns are orthonormal.

Some properties of $\perp P$: (6.6)

① $P^T P = P P^T = I \quad [\Rightarrow P^T = P^{-1}]$

② $\|Px\| = \|x\|$

because $\|Px\|^2 = (Px)^T Px = x^T \underbrace{P^T P}_I Px = x^T x = \|x\|^2$

The Cauchy - Schwartz inequality

For $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$(6.7) \quad |x^T y| \leq \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2$$

equality only when x & y
point in the same direction

$$\Rightarrow x^T y \leq \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2$$

Proof:

Obvious if $x=y=0$, so, say $x \neq y$.

Minimize $\|x + \alpha y\|^2$ with respect to $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.

Since $\|x + \alpha y\|^2 = (x + \alpha y)^T (x + \alpha y)$

$$= \|x\|^2 + 2\alpha x^T y + \alpha^2 \|y\|^2$$

the minimizing α is:

$$\hat{\alpha} = -\frac{x^T y}{\|y\|^2}, \text{ and then}$$

$$\|x + \hat{\alpha} y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 - \frac{(x^T y)^2}{\|y\|^2} \leftarrow$$

so it is ≥ 0

$$\Rightarrow (x^T y)^2 \leq \|x\|^2 \|y\|^2$$

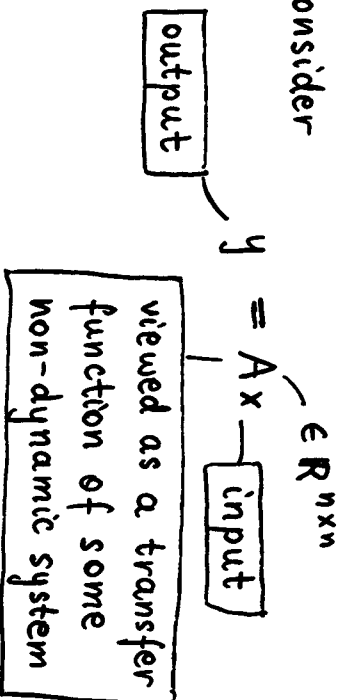
$$\Rightarrow |x^T y| \leq \|x\| \|y\|$$

QED

Linear least-squared error problems:

(formulation + background leading to)
(Moore-Penrose pseudo-inverse)

Consider



A control problem:

Given a desired output $y_d \in \mathbb{R}^n$

what makes $Ax \cong y_d$

as near as possible

If $\exists A^{-1} \Rightarrow$ required $x = A^{-1}y_d$

$\{Ax = y_d\}$

exactly

But what if $A \neq$ square? (\Rightarrow when $\nexists A^{-1}$)?

In general:

suitable x can be found by solving:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|y_d - Ax\|$$

distance of Ax from y_d

An obvious approach:

$$\min \|\dots\| \iff \min \|\dots\|^2$$

so: take $V(x) = \|y_d - Ax\|^2$

$$(y_d - Ax)^T (y_d - Ax)$$

$$\Rightarrow V(x) = \underbrace{\|y_d\|^2}_a + \underbrace{(-2A^T y_d)^T x}_b + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} x^T [2A^T A] x}_c$$

But does $C^T = C$?

$$C^T = (2A^T A)^T = 2A^T (A^T)^T = C$$

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

A

YES

Is $C > 0$?

$$x^T C x = 2x^T A^T A x = 2\|Ax\|^2 > 0, \forall x \neq 0$$

iff:

$$Ax \neq 0, \forall x \neq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow C > 0 \text{ iff } Ax \neq 0, \forall x \neq 0$$

So, suppose $Ax \neq 0, \forall x \neq 0$

$$\text{Then } V(x) = \|y_d - Ax\|^2$$

||

a case of our standard quadratic

$$\Rightarrow \hat{x} = -C^{-1}b = \underbrace{(A^T A)^{-1} A^T y_d}$$

looks nice but ...?

Difficulty 1: not always true that

$$Ax \neq 0, \forall x \neq 0$$

Difficulty 2: evaluating $A^T A$ very susceptible to errors caused by finite precision computing. \Rightarrow a better minimization method is desirable.
— based on orthogonal matrices.

↓

A geometrical interpretationSet of all possible outputs = $\{Ax : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$ general case
A not square

$$\stackrel{\Delta}{=} \mathcal{R}[A] \subset \mathbb{R}^m$$

the range of A

Computation of Ax

$$\text{we know: } (Ax)_i = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} x_k$$

Also:

column formula

row formula

$$Ax = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{*k} x_k$$

||

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} a_{1*} x \\ \vdots \\ a_{m*} x \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{*1} \\ \vdots \\ a_{*n} \end{bmatrix}$$

column 1 of A

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{1*} \\ \vdots \\ a_{m*} \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow \text{row 1 of A}$$

So:

$$\mathcal{R}[A] = \{Ax : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

$$= \left\{ \sum_{k=1}^n a_{*k} x_k : x_k \in \mathbb{R}, \forall k \right\}$$

$\Rightarrow \mathcal{R}[A] =$ set of all linear combinations

of a_{*1}, \dots, a_{*n}

$$= \mathcal{L}[a_{*1}, \dots, a_{*n}]$$

← the linear space spanned by the columns of A

Ideally would like an $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ to exist such that $y_d = Ax$ which happens iff

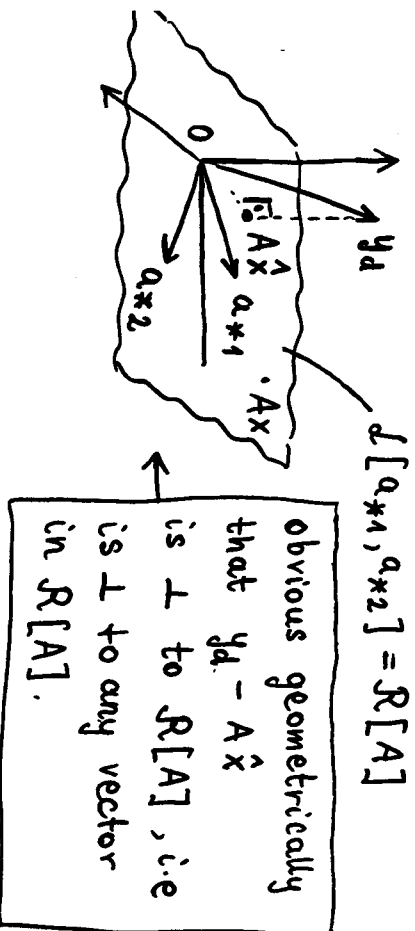
$y_d = a$ possible system output, i.e. iff

$y_d \in \mathcal{R}[A]$ - set of all possible outputs

↓ then

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|y_d - Ax\|^2 = 0$$

Example: ($m=3, n=2$)



↓

Actually, for a linear subspace like the range of A , the set of all vectors which are orthogonal to every vector in $\mathcal{R}[A]$ is called the orthogonal complement of the range of A , denoted $\perp \mathcal{R}[A]$

Symbolically:

$$\perp \mathcal{R}[A] = \{z \in \mathbb{R}^n : z^T y = 0, \forall y \in \mathcal{R}[A]\}$$

Hence the fact that

$$(y_d - Ax) \perp \mathcal{R}[A]$$

can be expressed more neatly by:

$$(y_d - Ax) \in \perp \mathcal{R}[A]$$

Algebraic proof that:

\hat{x} minimizes $\|y_d - Ax\|^2$ on \mathbb{R}^n

if $(y_d - A\hat{x}) \perp \mathcal{R}[A]$ (even if $y_d \in \mathcal{R}[A]$)

$$\|y_d - Ax\|^2 = \|y_d - A(\hat{x} + x - \hat{x})\|^2$$

$$= \|(y_d - A\hat{x}) - A(x - \hat{x})\|^2$$

$$= \|y_d - A\hat{x}\|^2 - 2 \underbrace{(y_d - A\hat{x})^T A(x - \hat{x})}_{\substack{\in \mathbb{R}^n \\ \geq 0}} + \underbrace{\|A(x - \hat{x})\|^2}_{\geq 0}$$

$$\geq \|y_d - A\hat{x}\|^2, \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad = 0$$

$\Rightarrow \hat{x}$ is a global minimizer if

$$(y_d - A\hat{x}) \perp \mathcal{R}[A].$$

QED