

P Let $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be any subspace. Recall that $W^{\perp} = \{ w \in \mathbb{R}^n : w \bullet v = 0 \text{ for all } v \in W \}.$ We showed last time that $W \cap W^{\perp} = \{0\}$ and $\dim W + \dim W^{\perp} = n$. **Theorem.** Let $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then there is a unique vector $\operatorname{proj}_W(y) \in W$ such that $y - \operatorname{proj}_W(y) \in W^{\perp}$. eas to We call $\operatorname{proj}_W(y)$ the *orthogonal projection* of y onto W. (Cimp To compute $\operatorname{proj}_W(y)$, find an orthogonal basis u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_p for W; then $\operatorname{proj}_W(y) = \frac{y \bullet u_1}{u_1 \bullet u_2} u_1 + \frac{y \bullet u_2}{u_2 \bullet u_2} u_2 + \dots + \frac{y \bullet u_p}{u_1 \bullet u_2} u_p.$ (u: · u) = (+) an orthog basis for W di zi (r) wiorq the difference $\gamma - proj_{w}(y) \in W$ Note: if I f W then project)= y, if y f w then project)=0



Properties of orthogonal projections
We have
$$\operatorname{proj}_W(y) = y$$
 if and only if $y \in W$, and $\operatorname{proj}_W(y) = 0$ if and only if $y \in W^{\perp}$.
Recall $||v|| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$. (Assach def of length)
Then $||y - \operatorname{proj}_W(y)|| < ||y - v||$ for all $v \in W$ with $v \neq \operatorname{proj}_W(y)$.
Then $||y - \operatorname{proj}_W(y)|| < ||y - v||$ for all $v \in W$ with $v \neq \operatorname{proj}_W(y)$.
Then $||y - \operatorname{proj}_W(y)|| < ||y - v||$ for all $v \in W$ with $v \neq \operatorname{proj}_W(y)$.
Then $||y - \operatorname{proj}_W(y)|| < ||y - v||$ for all $v \in W$ with $v \neq \operatorname{proj}_W(y)$.
(the vector in W theat is closert to y)
 $dist(y, y) \stackrel{def}{=} ||y - v|| > ||y - \operatorname{proj}_W(y)|| = dist(y, \operatorname{proj}_W(y))$
 $(v \in W)$ $if v \neq \operatorname{proj}_W(y)$

a sequence of formular that converts a basis for w to an orthogonal basis Gram-Schmidt process. Let $W \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ with basis x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_p . Define $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_p \in W$ inductively by the following formulas: O $v_1 = x_1$. $v_2 = x_2 - \frac{x_2 \bullet v_1}{v_1 \bullet v_1} v_1.$ U Ī $v_3 = x_3 - \frac{x_3 \bullet v_1}{v_1 \bullet v_1} v_1 - \frac{x_3 \bullet v_2}{v_2 \bullet v_2} v_2.$ 0 $v_p = x_p - \frac{x_p \bullet v_1}{v_1 \bullet v_1} v_1 - \frac{x_p \bullet v_2}{v_2 \bullet v_2} v_2 - \frac{x_p \bullet v_3}{v_2 \bullet v_2} v_3 - \dots - \frac{x_p \bullet v_{p-1}}{v_{p-1} \bullet v_{p-1}} v_{p-1}.$ For each i, the vectors v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_i are an orthogonal basis for the subspace $\mathbb{R}\operatorname{-span}\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_i\} = \mathbb{R}\operatorname{-span}\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_i\}$ The full list of vectors v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_p is an orthogonal basis for W. Why this works: Viti = Xiti - proj w; (Xiti) where ~ will be in wit, hence will be orthogonal to vi, ... vi

Example. Let
$$W = \operatorname{Nul}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \{w \in \mathbb{R}^{4} : w_{1} + w_{2} + w_{3} + w_{4} = 0\}.$$

A basis for W is given by $\mathbf{y}_{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{4} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x}_{5} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 0$





= a certain kind of approximate solution to a linear system

2 Least-squares problems

least-squares solution

Many linear systems Ax = b that arise in applications are *overdetermined* (meaning they have more equations than variables, so the matrix A has more rows than columns) and often inconsistent (meaning they have no exact solution $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$).

There may be no input vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that Ax = b. When no exact solution is available, the next best thing to provide is an input vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that Ax is as "close" to the vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ as possible.

goal: find x such that Ax is Close to b

What is a good definition of an approximate solution to Ax=b? (inprecise) - + a vector × that makes A× as close to b as possible + more precisely, a vector × that mater the distance ||Ax-b|| 93 mall 95 passible (from Ax to b) (orecise) There is more than one way to quantify how close two vectors are to each other. One common method is to use the distance function we have already seen: define the *distance* between vectors $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ to be

$$||u - v|| = \sqrt{(u - v)} \bullet (u - v) = \sqrt{(u_1 - v_1)^2 + (u_2 - v_2)^2 + \dots + (u_n - v_n)^2}.$$

Two vectors are close if their distance in this sense is small. The distance function $\|\cdot\|$ is called the *Euclidean distance* or L^2 -distance. In two and three dimensions, this distance is the usual way that we measure distance between points in space.

Definition. If A is an $m \times n$ matrix and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$, then a *least-squares solution* to the linear system Ax = b is a vector $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ with $||b - As|| \le ||b - Ax||$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

So a least-squares solution to Ax = b is a vector $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ that minimizes ||b - As||.

 $(|v|)^{2} = b_{1}^{2} + v_{2}^{2} + ... + v_{n}^{2}$

A vector that minimizes ||b - As|| will also minimize $||b - As||^2$, which is the sum of the squares of the entries in the vector b - As. Hence "least-squares."

Least-squares problems (that is, problems requiring us to find a least-squares solution to some linear system) arise frequently in engineering and statistics.

Being able to solve such problems is an important application of the material covered in this course. Goal today: describe the general solution to least-squares problems.

Here are the key points:

- If Ax = b is a consistent linear system then every least-squares solution is also an exact solution.
- There may be more than one least-squares solution to a given linear system Ax = b. (just like $e \times act$ solution)
- However, in contrast to exact solutions, there is always at least one least-squares solution even if Ax = b is inconsistent.

The last fact is not obvious from the definition of a least-squares solution.





Solving least-squares problems in general.

Fix an $m \times n$ matrix A and a vector $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$

A least-squares solution $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ to Ax = b is **defined to be** a vector such that ||As - b|| is as small as possible.

= If $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ then we necessarily have $As \in \operatorname{Col} A$.

As mentioned earlier, if $v \in \operatorname{Col} A$ minimizes ||v-b|| then $v = \operatorname{proj}_{\operatorname{Col} A}(b)$. Therefore:

Lemma. The least-squares solutions to Ax = b are precisely those $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

 $As = \operatorname{proj}_{\operatorname{Col} A}(b).$

when system is Picture of a least-squares solution to Ax=6 (inconsistent) because priver Alb) ECOIA, this is always a consistent we can find × with Ax = proj can (b) equation and any such x is a LS solution to Ax=b +Az As = projecia(b) Ax Col A no vector Ax is equal to b so best we can do is find × such that Ax = proj(a(b)) as then $A \times is as close to b$

Using this lemma, we can prove something even more explicit:

Theorem. The least-squares solutions to Ax = b are the exact solutions to

$$A^{\top}Ax = A^{\top}b.$$

inportant

This new linear system is always consistent so its set of solutions is nonempty.

Proof. Let
$$\hat{b} = \operatorname{proj}_{ColA}(b)$$

Since $b - \hat{b} \in (ColA)^{\perp} = \operatorname{Nul}A^{\top}$, we have $A^{\top}(b - \hat{b}) = 0$ and $A^{\top}\hat{b} = A^{\top}b$.
Thus, if $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies $As = \hat{b}$ then $A^{\top}As = A^{\top}\hat{b} = A^{\top}b$.
Thus, if $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies $As = \hat{b}$ then $A^{\top}As = A^{\top}\hat{b} = A^{\top}b$.
Thus, if $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies $As = \hat{b}$ then $A^{\top}As = A^{\top}\hat{b} = A^{\top}b$.
Thus, if $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies $As = \hat{b}$ then $A^{\top}As = A^{\top}\hat{b} = A^{\top}b$.
Thus, if $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies $As = \hat{b}$ then $A^{\top}As = A^{\top}\hat{b} = A^{\top}b$.
Thus, if $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies $As = \hat{b}$ then $A^{\top}As = A^{\top}\hat{b} = A^{\top}b$.
Thus, if $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies $As = \hat{b}$ then $A^{\top}As = A^{\top}\hat{b} = A^{\top}b$.
Signafice $A^{\top}As = A^{\top}b$.





In this case $A^{\top}Ax = A^{\top}b$ has a unique solution $s = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ which is also the unique least-squares solution to Ax = b. Note that $As \neq b$ as

$$||As - b|| = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} 4\\4\\3 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 2\\0\\11 \end{bmatrix} \right\| = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} 2\\4\\-8 \end{bmatrix} \right\| = \sqrt{4 + 16 + 64} = \sqrt{84}.$$

Geometrically, we interpret the least-squares solution as meaning that

$$As = \left[\begin{array}{c} 4\\4\\3 \end{array} \right]$$

is the point in the plane spanned by the columns of A in \mathbb{R}^3 that is closest to b.



unique exact sol to Ax=b for all b a A existing

A linear system Ax = b has a unique solution for every $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ if and only if the matrix A is invertible. The following theorem describes, analogously, when Ax = b has a unique least-squares solution.

Theorem. Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. The following are then equivalent:

(a) Ax = b has a unique least-squares solution for each $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

(b) The columns of A are linearly independent.

 $(c) A^{\top}A$ is invertible.

When these properties hold, the unique least-squares solution to Ax = b is $s = (A^{\top}A)^{-1}A^{\top}b$, which is the unique exact solution to $A^{\top}Ax = A^{\top}b$.

Remark. The product $(A^{\top}A)^{-1}A^{\top}b$ is rarely computed for a large linear system. It is more efficient to find s by solving the system $A^{\top}Ax = A^{\top}b$ via row reduction.

[ATA ATL]

Easy to compute a least-squares solution to Ax = b if columns of A are orthogonal: