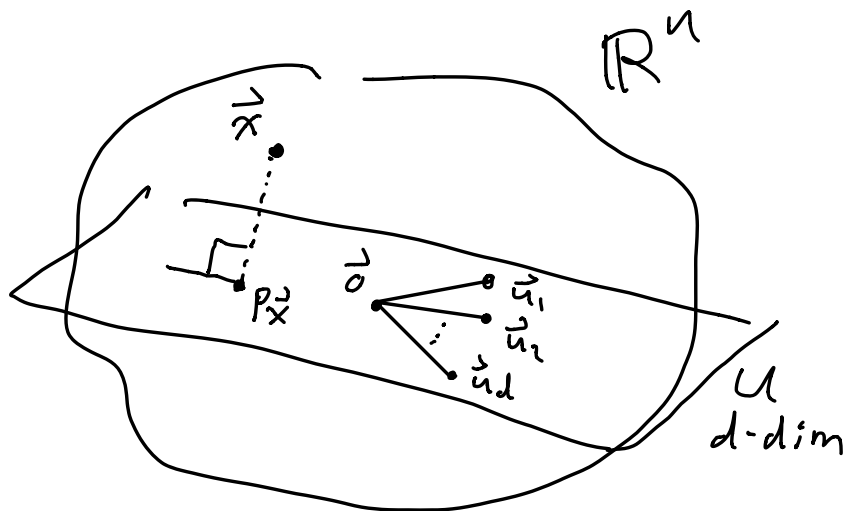


HW5 due Mon before class,
Quiz 5 beginning of Tues class.
Next Wed: Review
Next Thurs: No class
Next Fri: Final Project due.

Review: Let $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ be a d -dim
subspace of n -dim space:



Goal: For any point $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, find the
closest point $P_{\vec{x}}$ in the subspace.

Method: Define $n \times d$ matrix



$$A = n \left\{ \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \vec{u}_1 & \vec{u}_2 & \dots & \vec{u}_d \end{pmatrix}}_d \right.$$

Note that

- $C(A) = U$.
- Columns $\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_d$ are independent.

Then I claim that the projection matrix is given by

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

Proof: Since $P\vec{x}$ is in U , we can write $\boxed{P\vec{x} = A\vec{y}}$ for some $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

[Every point in $U = C(A)$ has the form $A(\text{some vector})$.]

Also we know that vector $P\vec{x} - \vec{x}$ is \perp to U , i.e., is \perp to every column of A . There is a quick way

to say this :

$$A^T (P\vec{x} - \vec{x}) = \vec{0}$$

" $P\vec{x} - \vec{x}$ is \perp to every row of A^T ,
i.e., to every column of A "

Combining the two boxed formulas gives

$$A^T (P\vec{x} - \vec{x}) = \vec{0}$$

$$A^T (A\vec{y} - \vec{x}) = \vec{0}$$

$$A^T A\vec{y} - A^T \vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

$$A^T A\vec{y} = A^T \vec{x}$$

$$\vec{y} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \vec{x}$$

$$A\vec{y} = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \vec{x}$$

$$P\vec{x} = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \vec{x}$$

Since this true for any \vec{x} , we have

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



Special Case: Project onto line $t\vec{a}$.

$$\text{line} = \mathcal{L}(\vec{a}).$$

$$P = \vec{a} \underbrace{(\vec{a}^T \vec{a})^{-1}}_{\text{scalar}} \vec{a}^T$$
$$= \frac{1}{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a}} \vec{a} \vec{a}^T$$

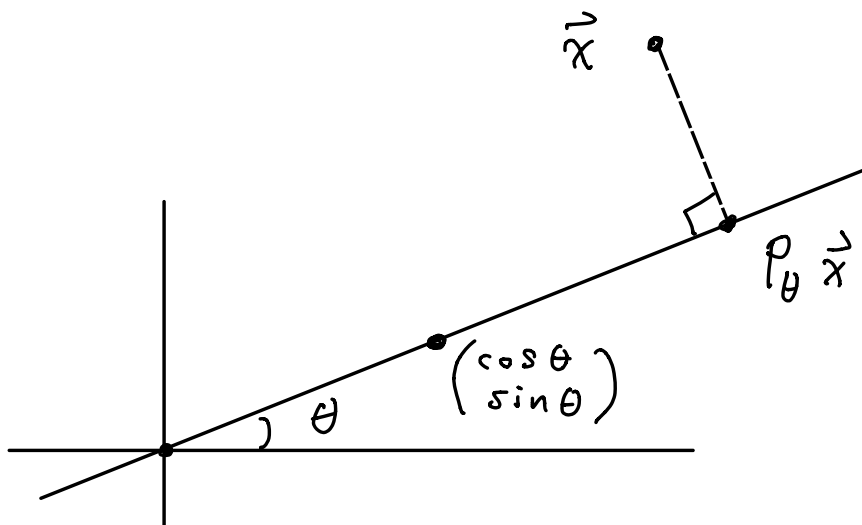
$$\boxed{\vec{a}^T \vec{a} = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{a}}$$

scalar

IF $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{a} = \|\vec{a}\|^2 = 1$, then the projection matrix is just

$$P = \vec{a} \vec{a}^T.$$

Example: Project onto line in \mathbb{R}^2 with angle θ from the x-axis:



Since $\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{pmatrix}$ has length 1:

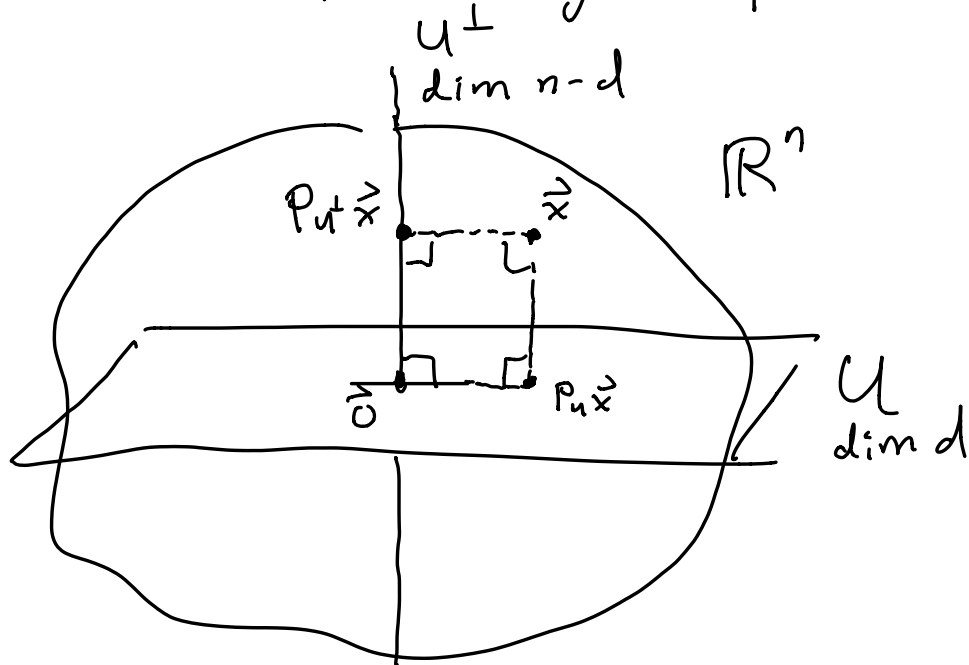
$$P_{\theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} \cos^2 \theta & \cos \theta \sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \sin \theta & \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix}.$$

see HW5.3



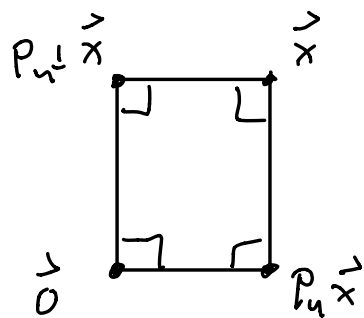
One more property of projections.

Consider complementary subspaces:



What is the relationship between the projection matrices P_U & P_{U^\perp} ?

For any \vec{x} we have a rectangle:



$$P_U \vec{x} + P_{U^\perp} \vec{x} = \vec{x}$$

$$(P_U + P_{U^\perp}) \vec{x} = \vec{x}$$

Since this is true for any \vec{x} , we conclude that

$$P_U + P_{U^\perp} = I \quad \text{identity matrix.}$$

This can be a useful trick.

Example: Let $U = \text{plane } r \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + s \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$,

so that $U^\perp = \text{line } t \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

$$P_{U^\perp} = \frac{1}{\| (1, -2, 1) \|^2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} (1 \ -2 \ 1)$$

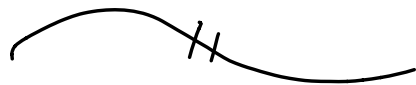
$$= \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ -2 & 4 & -2 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}P_u &= I - P_{u^\perp} \\&= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & \\ & 1 & \\ & & 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 & -1 \\ -2 & 4 & -2 \\ -1 & -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\&= \frac{1}{6} \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & 5 \end{pmatrix}.\end{aligned}$$

Note: It is more work to use the formula

$$P_u = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \right]^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$



Back to Least Squares:

Find the best fit line $y = a + bx$
for data points

$$(x, y) = (x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n).$$

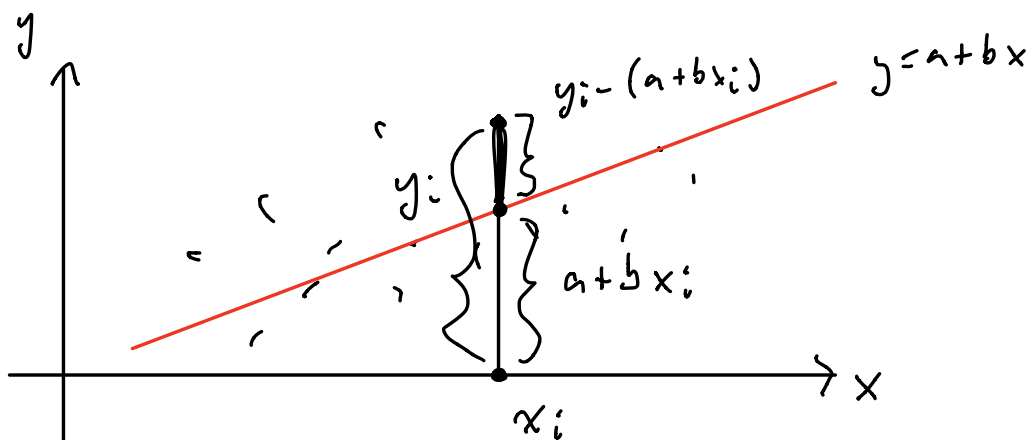
If the points were on the line, we would have

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$X^T \vec{a} = \vec{y}$$

Want to minimize (squared) distance

$$\|X\vec{a} - \vec{y}\|^2 = (a+bx_1 - y_1)^2 + \dots + (a+bx_n - y_n)^2$$



So $\|X\vec{a} - \vec{y}\|^2 =$ sum of the squares of the vertical errors.

Solution: The "Normal Equations"

$$X^T X \vec{a} = X^T \vec{y}.$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ x_1 & \dots & x_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \dots & 1 \\ x_1 & \dots & x_n \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} n & \sum x \\ \sum x & \sum x^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sum y \\ \sum xy \end{pmatrix}.$$

You may have seen this before!

We can use the same method to fit many kinds of models to data:

$$y = a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots + a_n x_n + b \quad (\text{hyperplane})$$

$$y = a + bx + cx^2 \quad (\text{parabola})$$

etc.

See HW 5.1.



Major Applications of Linear Algebra:

(1) Least Squares Approximation ✓

(2) Diagonalization ?

Now: Diagonalization.

Many applications of linear algebra involve powers of a square matrix.

Example: Suppose that a sequence of vectors $\vec{x}_0, \vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2, \dots$

follows a "linear recurrence":

$$\vec{x}_{n+1} = A \vec{x}_n,$$

so that

$$\vec{x}_1 = A \vec{x}_0$$

$$\vec{x}_2 = A \vec{x}_1 = AA \vec{x}_0 = A^2 \vec{x}_0$$

$$\vec{x}_3 = A \vec{x}_2 = AA^2 \vec{x}_0 = A^3 \vec{x}_0$$

⋮

$$\vec{x}_n = A^n \vec{x}_0.$$

But it is hard to compute the powers of a matrix!

$$\text{e.g. } A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A^2 = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

⋮

$$A^5 = \begin{pmatrix} 8 & 5 \\ 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

⋮

$$A^{10} = \begin{pmatrix} 89 & 55 \\ 55 & 34 \end{pmatrix}$$

⋮

$$A^n = \begin{pmatrix} ? & ? \\ ? & ? \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{Is there a formula?}$$

Yes, there is a formula. But in order to find it we first need to "diagonalize" the matrix A .

Definition: Given square matrix A , we say that $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ is an eigenvalue of A if there exists some nonzero vector $\vec{u} \neq \vec{0}$ such that:

$$A \vec{u} = \lambda \vec{u}$$

In this case we say that \vec{u} is an eigenvector of A . ///

How does this help with our analysis of the powers A^n ?

IF $A \vec{u} = \lambda \vec{u}$ then

$$\begin{aligned} A^2 \vec{u} &= A A \vec{u} \\ &= A \lambda \vec{u} \\ &= \lambda A \vec{u} = \lambda \lambda \vec{u} = \lambda^2 \vec{u} \\ &\text{etc.} \end{aligned}$$

$$\left(A^n \vec{u} \right) = \left(\lambda^n \vec{u} \right)$$

power of matrix
HARD

power of scalar
EASY

Back to the recurrence

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{x}_n &= A \vec{x}_{n-1} \\ &\vdots \\ &= A^n \vec{x}_0.\end{aligned}$$

Suppose we can express the initial condition vector \vec{x}_0 in terms of eigenvectors of A :

$$\vec{x}_0 = a_1 \vec{u}_1 + a_2 \vec{u}_2 + \dots + a_d \vec{u}_d$$

where $A\vec{u}_i = \lambda_i \vec{u}_i$ for some scalars λ_i .

Then it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{x}_n &= A^n \vec{x}_0 \\ &= A^n (a_1 \vec{u}_1 + \dots + a_d \vec{u}_d) \\ &= a_1 A^n \vec{u}_1 + \dots + a_d A^n \vec{u}_d \\ &= a_1 \lambda_1^n \vec{u}_1 + \dots + a_d \lambda_d^n \vec{u}_d\end{aligned}$$

Everything here is easy to compute!
So we call this a SOLUTION.

H

Example: In year n , there are x_n bears living in the valley & y_n bears living on the mountain. Suppose that year-to-year migration follows the following pattern:



To be precise:

$$\begin{cases} x_{n+1} = 0.4x_n + 0.2y_n \\ y_{n+1} = 0.6x_n + 0.8y_n \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_{n+1} \\ y_{n+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.4 & 0.2 \\ 0.6 & 0.8 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_n \\ y_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

If we begin with $x_0 = 100$, $y_0 = 0$,
find explicit formulas for

$$x_n \text{ \& } y_n .$$

Next Time : The Method.

Right Now : The Answer.

$$x_n = 25 + 75(0.2)^n$$

$$y_n = 75 - 75(0.2)^n .$$

Note : As $n \rightarrow \infty$, $(0.2)^n \rightarrow 0$,
so that

$$x_n \rightarrow 25$$

$$y_n \rightarrow 75$$

Equilibrium :

25 bears in the valley

75 bears on the mountain.