

Recitation 4

Alex Dong

CDS, NYU

Fall 2020

- ▶ Norms measure distances!
- ▶ Think about all the “natural” properties of distance that make sense.
 - ▶ distance = 0 means at the same point
 - ▶ distance is always non-negative
 - ▶ distance follows triangle inequality (at least in Euclidean space)

Shorthand way to remember what the properties do.

Definition (Norm)

A norm $\|\cdot\|$ on V verifies the following points:

1. *Triangular inequality*: $\|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$ “Euclidean space”
2. *Homogeneity*: $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \times \|v\|$ “farther actually means farther”
3. *Positive definiteness*: if $\|v\| = 0 \implies v = 0$. “Non-negative”

Definition (Inner product)

Let V be a vector space. An inner product on V is a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ from $V \times V$ to \mathbb{R} that verifies the following points:

1. *Symmetry*: $\langle u, v \rangle = \langle v, u \rangle$ for all $u, v \in V$.
2. *Linearity*: $\langle u + v, w \rangle = \langle u, w \rangle + \langle v, w \rangle$ and $\langle \alpha v, w \rangle = \alpha \langle v, w \rangle$ for all $u, v, w \in V$ and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$.
3. *Positive definiteness*: $\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$ with equality if and only if $v = 0$.

- Definition of inner product does not reveal it's purpose.
- **In this class, we always use the Euclidean inner product.**
 - $\langle u, v \rangle = u^T v$
- (!!) Inner products are (indirectly) used for a notion of angles.
- $\cos(\theta) = \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|u\| \|v\|}$

Inner Products in Machine Learning (&)

- ▶ Inner products can be used as a measure of similarity
- ▶ Kernel Tricks (&) - Increase Data Complexity
 - ▶ Sometimes you have to calculate $x_{old}^T x_{new}$, equivalently $\langle x_{old}, x_{new} \rangle$
 - ▶ You can replace the inner product with a inner product in a higher dimensional space
 - ▶ Instead of calculating $\langle x_{old}, x_{new} \rangle$, define a function K and calculate $\langle K(x_{old}), K(x_{new}) \rangle$
 - ▶ If you pick “the right” higher dimensional space, your data can be a lot easier to work with

⁰(&) denotes extra material not covered in this course

Questions 1: Norms and Inner Products

1. Which of the following functions are inner products for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^3$?
 - i. $f(x, y) = x_1y_2 + x_2y_3 + x_3y_1$
 - ii. $f(x, y) = x_1^2y_1^2 + x_2^2y_2^2 + x_3^2y_3^2$
 - iii. $f(x, y) = x_1y_1 + x_3y_3$
2. For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, prove that

$$\|Ax\| \leq \|x\| \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n A_{i,j}^2}$$

Solutions 1: Norms and Inner Products

1. Which of the following functions are inner products for $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^3$?

Solution

i. $f(x, y) = x_1y_2 + x_2y_3 + x_3y_1$ *False*

Consider $u = [1, 0, 0]^T$ and $v = [0, 1, 0]^T$.

$\langle u, v \rangle = 1$, but $\langle v, u \rangle = 0$. (Not symmetric)

ii. $f(x, y) = x_1^2y_1^2 + x_2^2y_2^2 + x_3^2y_3^2$ *False*

Consider $v = [1, 0, 0]^T$.

$\langle 2v, v \rangle = 4$, but $2\langle v, v \rangle = 2$. (Not linear)

iii. $f(x, y) = x_1y_1 + x_3y_3$ *False*

Consider $v = [0, 1, 0]^T$.

$\langle v, v \rangle = 0$, but $v \neq 0$. (Not positive definite)

Solutions 1: Norms and Inner Products

2. For $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, prove that

$$\|Ax\| \leq \|x\| \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n A_{i,j}^2}$$

Solution

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} - & \mathbf{a}_1^T & - \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ - & \mathbf{a}_m^T & - \end{bmatrix}$ and $x = \begin{bmatrix} | \\ | \\ x \\ | \\ | \end{bmatrix}$. Observe that $Ax = \begin{bmatrix} \langle \mathbf{a}_1, x \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle \mathbf{a}_m, x \rangle \end{bmatrix}$.

Now,

$$\|Ax\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^m |\langle \mathbf{a}_i, x \rangle|^2 \quad \text{by definition of norm}$$

$$\|Ax\|^2 \leq \sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{a}_i\|^2 \|x\|^2 \quad \text{by Cauchy-Schwarz}$$

$$\|Ax\| \leq (\sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{a}_i\|^2 \|x\|^2)^{.5}$$

$$\|Ax\| \leq \|x\| (\sum_{i=1}^m \|\mathbf{a}_i\|^2)^{.5}$$

$$\|Ax\| \leq \|x\| (\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n A_{i,j}^2)^{.5} \quad \text{by definition of } \mathbf{a}_i$$

Orthogonality

- ▶ Angles can be used as a measure of similarity
- ▶ Vectors u, v are orthogonal if and only if $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$
- ▶ Vectors are orthogonal \implies vectors are as dissimilar as possible
- ▶ Orthogonal coordinate systems are nice because we can view each coordinate “independently” (we will prove later).
- ▶ Gram-Schmidt Process (Lec 5) allows us to change any basis into an orthonormal basis.

Orthogonal Projections

- ▶ Projections form an important part of linear algebra.
 - ▶ We can view the action of a matrix and how it affects a certain subspace
 - ▶ We can simplify our data by picking the subspace “closest” to the data (PCA, Lec 7)
 - ▶ We can find the best-fit line/plane/subspace (Linear regression, Lec 9)
- ▶ *Orthogonal* projections are a special kind of projection
 - ▶ They preserve the original vector components (in the orthogonal basis)

Questions: Orthogonality

1. Let v_1, \dots, v_k be a list of non-zero orthogonal vectors. Show that v_1, \dots, v_k are linearly independent.
2. Let U be the subspace of \mathbb{R}^n with orthonormal basis u_1, \dots, u_k .
 - i. Prove that the orthogonal projection of $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ onto U can be expressed as $P_U = \sum_{i=1}^k \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i$. (Use the fact that the orthonormal basis for a subspace of \mathbb{R} can be extended to obtain an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R})
 - ii. Prove that $\|P_U(v)\| \leq \|v\|$
 - iii. Prove that $v - P_U(v)$ is orthogonal to $P_U(v)$

Solutions: Orthogonality

Solution

1. Let v_1, \dots, v_k be a list of non-zero orthogonal vectors. Show that v_1, \dots, v_k are linearly independent.

Let $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$ s.t. $\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i v_i = \vec{0}$.

Consider $\langle \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i v_i, \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_j v_j \rangle$.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \langle \vec{0}, \vec{0} \rangle \\ &= \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i v_i, \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_j v_j \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2 \langle v_i, v_i \rangle, \sum_{i \neq j} \alpha_i \alpha_j \langle v_i, v_j \rangle \\ 0 &= \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2 \quad \text{by orthonormality of } v_i, v_j \end{aligned}$$

So $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k = 0$.

Solutions: Orthogonality

Solution

Let U be the subspace of \mathbb{R}^n with orthonormal basis u_1, \dots, u_k .

2i. Prove that the orthogonal projection of $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ onto U can be expressed as

$$P_U(v) = \sum_{i=1}^k \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i.$$

Let u_{k+1}, \dots, u_n be an orthonormal basis extension for u_1, \dots, u_k .

Then $u_1, \dots, u_k, u_{k+1}, \dots, u_n$ form an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n .

Now, let $v = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i u_i$ where $\alpha_i = \langle v, u_i \rangle$ and let $x \in U$, where $x = \sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j u_j$.

We want to find $\arg \min_{x \in U} \|v - x\|$.

$$\begin{aligned} \|v - x\| &= \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i u_i - \sum_{j=1}^k \beta_j u_j \right\| \\ &= \left\| \sum_{j=1}^k (\alpha_j - \beta_j) u_j - \sum_{i=k+1}^n \alpha_i u_i \right\| \\ &= \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^k (\alpha_j - \beta_j)^2 + \sum_{i=k+1}^n \alpha_i^2} \quad \text{by orthonormality} \end{aligned}$$

$\|v - x\|$ is minimized when $\alpha_i = \beta_i \quad \forall i \in \{1, \dots, k\}$

This implies that $\beta_i = \langle v, u_i \rangle$.

So $\|P_U(v)\| = \arg \min_{x \in U} \|v - x\| = \sum_{i=1}^k \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i$.

Solutions: Orthogonality

Solution

Let U be the subspace of \mathbb{R}^n with orthonormal basis u_1, \dots, u_k .

2ii. Prove that $P_U(v) \leq \|v\|$

$$P_U(v) = \sum_{i=1}^k \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i \text{ from 2i}$$

$$\|P_U(v)\|^2 = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^k \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i \right\|^2$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^k \|\langle v, u_i \rangle u_i\|^2 \quad \text{by Pythagorean Theorem}$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^n \|\langle v, u_i \rangle u_i\|^2 \quad \text{add extra components}$$

$$= \left\| \sum_{i=1}^n \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i \right\|^2 \quad \text{Pythagorean Theorem}$$
$$= \|v\|^2$$

So $P_U(v) \leq \|v\|$

Solutions: Orthogonality

Solution

Let U be the subspace of \mathbb{R}^n with orthonormal basis u_1, \dots, u_k .

2iii. Prove that $v - P_U(v)$ is orthogonal to $P_U(v)$

$$P_U(v) = \sum_{i=1}^k \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i \quad \text{from 2i}$$

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i \quad \text{since } u_1, \dots, u_n \text{ is a orthonormal basis.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} v - P_U(v) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i - \sum_{i=1}^k \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i \\ &= \sum_{i=k+1}^n \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle v - P_U(v), v \rangle &= \left\langle \left(\sum_{i=k+1}^n \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i \right), \left(\sum_{i=1}^k \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i \right) \right\rangle \\ &= 0 \quad u_i \text{ are pairwise orthogonal.} \end{aligned}$$

Questions: Orthogonal Complements

Let S, U be subspaces of a vector space V .

Prove the following statement:

$$1. S \subset U \implies S^\perp \supset U^\perp$$

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$. Assume the Euclidean inner product.

$$2. (!) \text{ Prove that } \text{Im}(A^T) = \text{Ker}(A)^\perp.$$

(Hint: \implies is easy. Use (1) for \Longleftarrow)

Solutions: Orthogonal Complements

$$1. S \subset U \implies S^\perp \supset U^\perp$$

Solution

Let $x \in U^\perp$, and $z \in S$.

Since $z \in S$ and $S \subset U$, then $z \in U$.

Now, since $x \in U^\perp$ and $z \in U$, then $\langle x, z \rangle = 0$.

So $x \in S^\perp$.

Solutions: Orthogonal Complements

2. Prove that $\text{Im}(A^T) = \text{Ker}(A)^\perp$.

Solution

\implies

Let $x \in \text{Im}(A^T)$. Then $\exists y$ s.t $x = A^T y$. We show $x \in \text{Ker}(A)^\perp$.

Let $v \in \text{Ker}(A)$. Then $Av = 0$.

Consider $\langle x, v \rangle$.

$$\langle x, v \rangle = x^T v = y^T A v = \langle y, A v \rangle = \langle y, 0 \rangle = 0 \text{ Then } x \in \text{Ker}(A)^\perp.$$

\Longleftarrow

We use 1. to show $\text{Im}(A^T)^\perp \subset \text{Ker}(A)$ instead.

Let $x \in \text{Im}(A^T)^\perp$.

Consider Ax . We show $\langle x, A^T y \rangle = 0$ for all $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Since $x \in \text{Im}(A^T)^\perp$, then $\forall y \in \text{Im}(A^T)$, $\langle x, y \rangle = x^T y = 0$.

Consider $\|Ax\|$.

$$\|Ax\| = x^T A^T Ax = x(A^T Ax).$$

Since $A^T Ax \in \text{Im}(A^T)$, then $\|Ax\| = 0$, so $Ax = 0$.

Now, by 1, we can conclude that $\text{Ker}(A)^\perp \subset \text{Im}(A^T)$.

Appendix starts after here

Idempotence

Lets take a step back.

- ▶ P_S is an *orthogonal* projection $\iff P_S = VV^T$
 - ▶ V has orthonormal columns that form a basis for S .
- ▶ There is a more general definition of a projection - known as *idempotence*.

Definition (Idempotence)

An matrix P is idempotent when $P^2 = P$.

An idempotent matrix is also called a *projection* or *projection matrix*.

Questions: Orthogonal Projections vs Idempotence

Definition (Idempotence)

An matrix P is idempotent when $P^2 = P$.

1. Show that $X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T$ is idempotent.
2. Show that all orthogonal projections are idempotent.
3. Give an example of an idempotent matrix that is not an orthogonal projection.
(Hint: Show that your matrix does not minimize the distance to subspace it projects onto.)

Solutions: Orthogonal Projections vs Idempotence

Solution

1. Show that $X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T$ is idempotent.

$$\begin{aligned} P^2 &= (X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T)(X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T) \\ &= X(X^T X)^{-1} (X^T X) (X^T X)^{-1} X^T \\ &= X(X^T X)^{-1} X^T \end{aligned}$$

2. Show that all orthogonal projections are idempotent.

Let P be an orthogonal projection.

Recall that all orthogonal projections take the form VV^T , where $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ has orthonormal columns.

Note that $V^T V = I_k$, the identity matrix in $\mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$.

Then $P^2 = (VV^T)(VV^T) = V(V^T V)V^T = V I_k V^T = VV^T = P$

Solutions: Orthogonal Projections vs Idempotence

Solution

3. Give an example of an idempotent matrix that is not an orthogonal projection.

Consider the matrix $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

It's easy to see $A^2 = A$, and $\text{Im}(A) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \mid x \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$

Consider the vector $v = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

The closest vector in $\text{Im}(A)$ is $v_{\text{Im}(A)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, but $Av = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Note: Rigorously speaking, we need to prove that $v_{\text{Im}(A)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is the closest vector in $\text{Im}(A)$. We can do this by constructing an orthogonal projection onto $\text{Im}(A)$, which is found by setting $V = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, and calculating

$$VV^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$