

Recap:

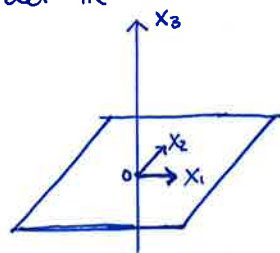
Two vectors are orthogonal if $\langle u, v \rangle = u^T v = 0$ (basically perpendicular).

Definition: Two subspaces U and W of vector space V are orthogonal, if for $\forall u \in U$ and $\forall w \in W$, we have $\langle u, w \rangle = 0$.

Definition: Orthogonal complement of subspace M of vector space V contains every vector orthogonal to M . This subspace is usually denoted by M^\perp .

Remark: $\dim M + \dim M^\perp = \dim V$.

Example: Consider \mathbb{R}^3



\mathbb{R}^3

line & plane - orthogonal subspace

orthogonal complement of each other.

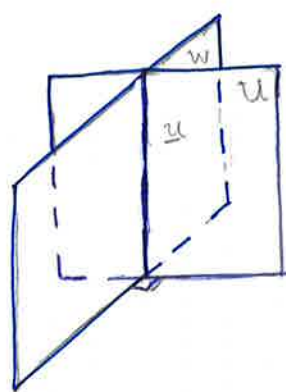
Example:

- Not orthogonal subspace!

$$u \neq 0$$

$$u \in U \text{ \& } u \in W$$

$$\langle \overset{U}{u}, \overset{W}{u} \rangle \neq 0$$



\mathbb{R}^3

Note: if vector u belongs to 2 orthogonal subspaces, this vector is necessarily a zero vector, $u = 0$.

Because we should have $\langle u, u \rangle = u^T u = 0 \Rightarrow u = 0$.



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Linear Mapping

definition: let's consider 2 vector spaces V and W . A function

$L: V \rightarrow W$ is called a linear mapping, if:

(1) For any $\underline{v} \in V$ and $\underline{v}' \in V$

$$L(\underline{v} + \underline{v}') = L(\underline{v}) + L(\underline{v}')$$

(2) For any $\underline{v} \in V$ and any scalar α

$$L(\alpha \underline{v}) = \alpha \cdot L(\underline{v}).$$

Example: Let's consider matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$. We can define linear mapping L_A as follows:

$$L_A(\underline{v}) = A\underline{v}, \quad L_A: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

Is L_A a linear mapping? Yes!

$$(1) \quad \forall \underline{v}, \underline{v}' \in \mathbb{R}^m \quad L_A(\underline{v} + \underline{v}') = A(\underline{v} + \underline{v}') = A\underline{v} + A\underline{v}' = L_A(\underline{v}) + L_A(\underline{v}')$$

$$(2) \quad \forall \underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \forall \alpha \text{ - scalar}$$

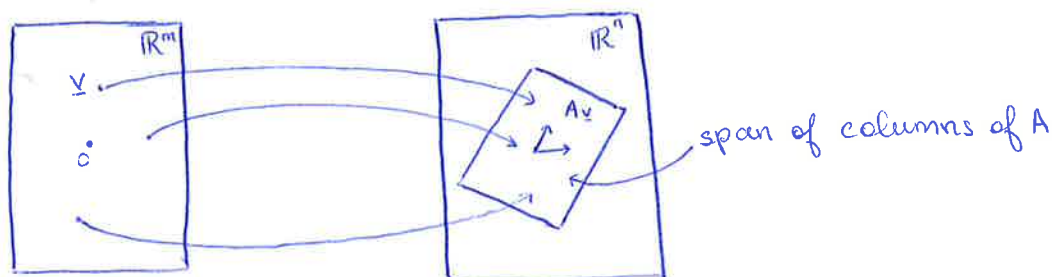
$$L_A(\alpha \underline{v}) = A(\alpha \underline{v}) = \alpha \cdot A\underline{v} = \alpha L_A(\underline{v}). \quad \square$$

Let's consider matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$, $A: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.

Let's consider vector $\underline{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

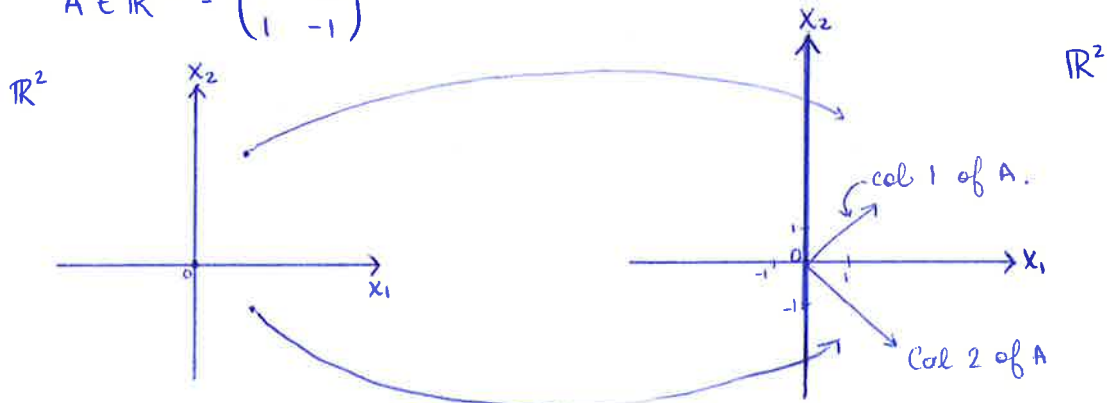
$$A\underline{v} = v_1 \times \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n1} \end{pmatrix} + v_2 \times \begin{pmatrix} a_{12} \\ \vdots \\ a_{n2} \end{pmatrix} + \dots + v_m \begin{pmatrix} a_{1m} \\ \vdots \\ a_{nm} \end{pmatrix}$$

linear combination of columns of A

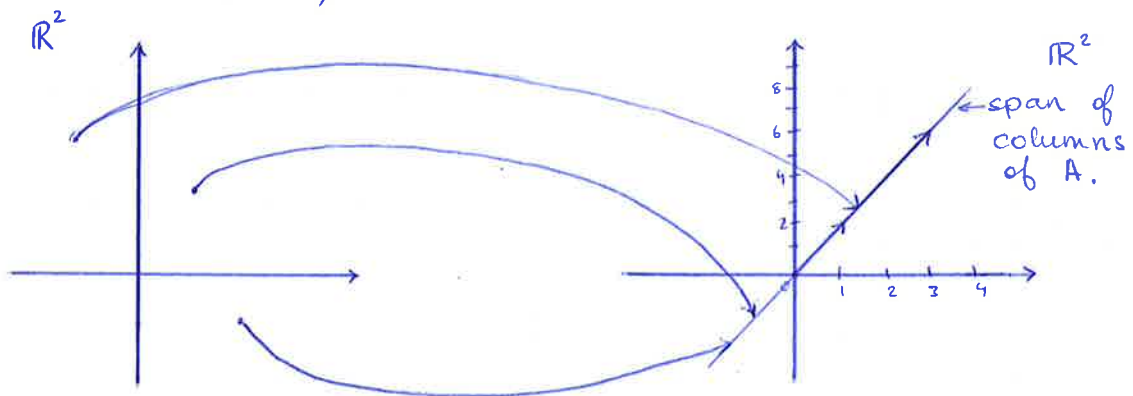


Example

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{2,2} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$



Example: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$



Note: In order for solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ to exist;
 \mathbf{b} should belong to a span of columns of
 matrix A .

★ Definition: The span of columns of matrix A is called
 a column space of A , denoted by $C(A)$.

$$C(A) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$



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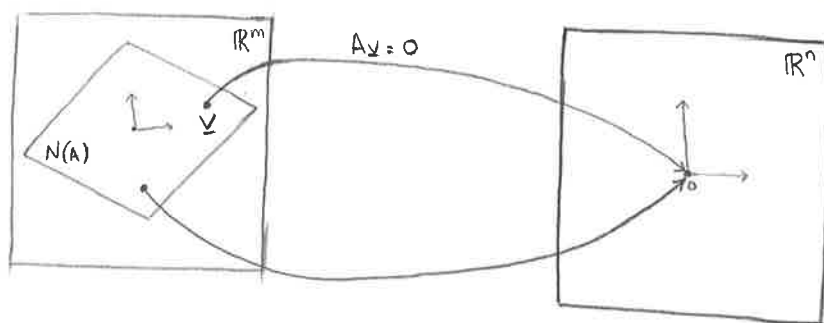
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Definition:

Lets consider Matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n, m}$, $A: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$.

The null space of A is defined as $N(A) = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid Av = \underline{0}\}$,
 $N(A) \subset \mathbb{R}^m$.



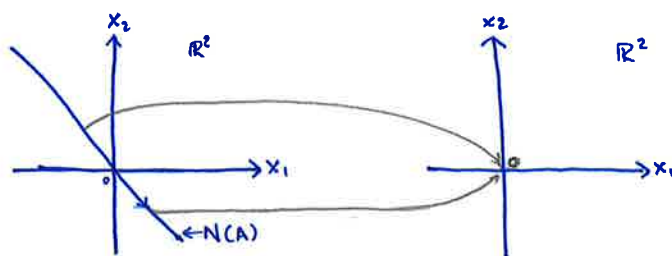
Example: $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 3 \\ 2 & 6 \end{pmatrix}$

What is $N(A)$ - ?

We should find all solutions of $Ax = \underline{0}$, this will give us $N(A)$.

$$\begin{cases} x_1 + 3x_2 \\ 2x_1 + 6x_2 \end{cases} \quad \begin{cases} x_1 + 3x_2 = 0 \\ 0 = 0 \end{cases} \rightarrow \text{line} - \alpha \times \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ for all possible } \alpha.$$

$$x_1 = -3x_2, \quad x_2 = \alpha \rightarrow \alpha \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \alpha \begin{pmatrix} -6 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \\ = -3\alpha.$$



Theorem: The nullspace, $N(A)$, of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m .

Proof: let's assume that $\underline{x}, \underline{x}' \in N(A)$ and α is arbitrary scalar.

$$A(\underline{x} + \underline{x}') = A\underline{x} + A\underline{x}' = \underline{0} + \underline{0} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow (\underline{x} + \underline{x}') \in N(A)$$

$$A(\alpha \underline{x}) = \alpha(A\underline{x}) = \alpha \times \underline{0} = \underline{0} \Rightarrow \alpha \underline{x} \in N(A) \quad \square$$

Theorem: The column space, $C(A)$ of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

Proof: In Homework.

Definition: The row space of matrix A is a span of rows of A .
Clearly, $R(A) = C(A^T)$, $R(A) \subset \mathbb{R}^m$

Definition: The left nullspace of A is defined as $N(A^T)$.
 $N(A^T) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$.

Theorem: $R(A)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^m .

Proof: same as for $C(A)$ but for A^T .

Theorem: $N(A^T)$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

Proof: as for $N(A)$ but replace A with A^T

Theorem: $R(A)$ and $N(A)$ are orthogonal subspaces in \mathbb{R}^m for $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$.

Proof: Let's consider $\forall \underline{x} \in N(A)$, $A\underline{x} = \underline{0}$

$$A\underline{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \text{row 1 of } A \rightarrow \\ \vdots \\ \text{row } n \text{ of } A \rightarrow \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \downarrow \\ \underline{x} \\ \downarrow \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle \text{row 1 of } A, \underline{x} \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle \text{row } n \text{ of } A, \underline{x} \rangle \end{pmatrix} \stackrel{\substack{\underline{x} \in N(A) \\ \Rightarrow}}{=} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$\Rightarrow \underline{x}$ is orthogonal to every row of A .

\underline{x} is orthogonal to every linear combination of rows of A .

$\therefore \underline{x}$ is orthogonal to $R(A)$.

In fact what we just showed, is that $N(A)$ & $R(A)$ are orthogonal complements.



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Theorem: $N(A^T)$ & $C(A) = R(A^T)$ are orthogonal complements in \mathbb{R}^n

Proof: similar to previous one.

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$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m} : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

Row rank of A = column rank of A = rank A = $\dim(R(A)) = \dim(C(A))$.

$$N(A) : Ax = 0 \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^m.$$

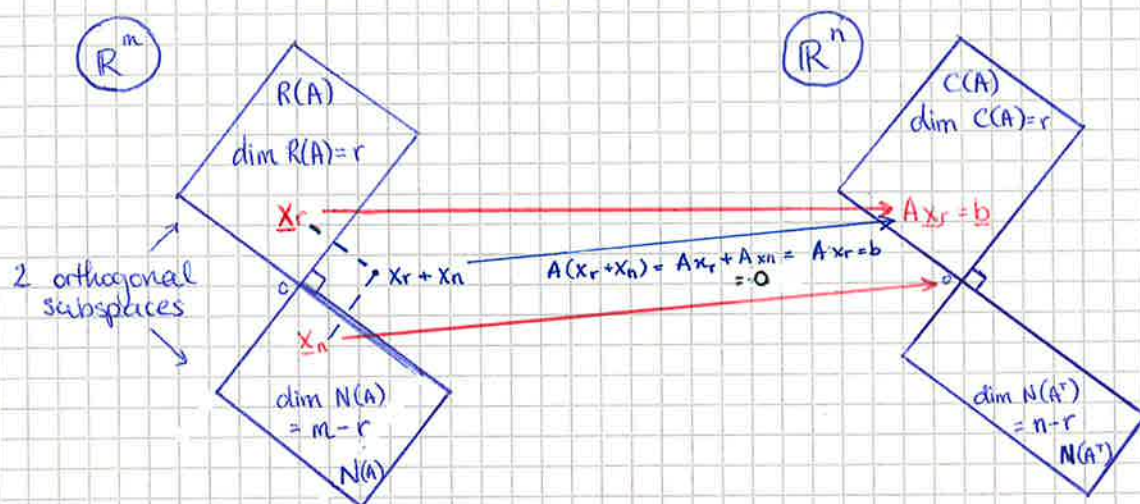
$$C(A) : Ax = \text{linear combinations of columns of } A \\ = v_1 \times \text{col } 1 A + \dots + v_n \times \text{col } n A \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Theorem: $N(A)$ is an orthogonal complement of $R(A)$ in \mathbb{R}^m ,
 $\dim N(A) + \underbrace{\dim R(A)}_{= \text{rank } A} = m$

Theorem: $N(A^T)$ is an orthogonal complement of $R(A^T) = C(A)$ in \mathbb{R}^n ,
 $\dim N(A^T) + \underbrace{\dim C(A)}_{= \text{rank } A} = n$

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Let's consider $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$, $A: \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$, $\text{rank } A = r$



Lemma: For any vector b in $C(A)$, there exists one and only one vector $x_r \in R(A)$ such that $Ax_r = b$.

Proof: Let's assume that x_r and x_r' are in the row space, $R(A)$. Let's also assume $Ax_r = Ax_r'$.

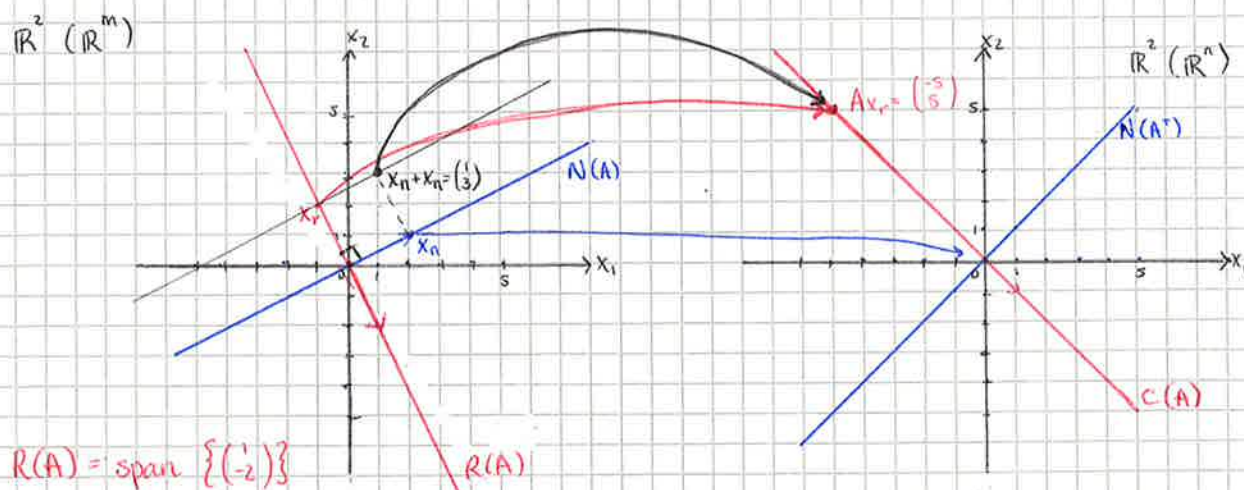
we have $\underbrace{x_r}_{\in R(A)} - \underbrace{x_r'}_{\in R(A)} \in R(A)$

But also we have $Ax_r - Ax_r' = A(\underbrace{x_r - x_r'}_{\in N(A)}) = 0$

It means that $(x_r - x_r')$ is in $R(A)$ and $N(A)$, but they are orthogonal subspaces, therefore $x_r - x_r' = 0 \Rightarrow x_r = x_r'$.

Example:

Let's consider $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{2,2}$



Row space: $\text{Rank } A = 1 \Rightarrow \dim R(A) = 1$

$$R(A) = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Null space: $\dim N(A) = 2 - 1 = 1$

\downarrow \uparrow
 "n" $\dim R(A)$

$$A_{\underline{x}} = \underline{0}$$

$$\begin{cases} x_1 - 2x_2 = 0 \\ -x_1 + 2x_2 = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x_1 - 2x_2 = 0 \\ 0 = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow x_1 = 2x_2 - \text{line.}$$

Column space: $\dim C(A) = \dim R(A) = \underline{1}$

$$C(A) = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

left Null space: $\dim N(A^T) = 2 - 1 = 1$

Consider $x_r = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$, $Ax_r = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$

$$X_n = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow AX_n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

definition: Vectors q_1, \dots, q_m are orthogonal if:

$$\langle q_i, q_j \rangle = q_i^T q_j = 0 \quad \text{if } i \neq j$$

definition: Vectors q_1, \dots, q_m are orthonormal if:

$$\langle q_i, q_j \rangle = q_i^T q_j = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1, & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

If the columns of matrix are orthonormal vectors, then this matrix is usually denoted by Q .

In this case, we have $Q^T Q = I$

If Q is not a square matrix then $Q Q^T$ is not necessarily I .

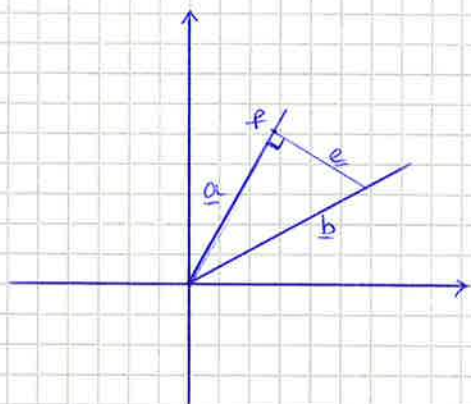
Warning: Confusing

definition: A square matrix is called orthogonal (if its columns are orthonormal vectors)

If $Q^T Q = I$. In this case, since it is a square matrix $Q Q^T = I$.

Projection on the line

Lets assume we have a line given by vector $\underline{a} = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and vector $\underline{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. We want to find vector \underline{p} belonging to the line, closest to vector \underline{b} . In other words, we are looking for \underline{p} which is orthogonal projection of \underline{b} onto the line given by \underline{a} .



p is proportional to a ,
 $p = \hat{x} a$, \hat{x} is some scalar

lets define vector $e = b - p$
 $= b - \hat{x} a$
 (error vector)

e is orthogonal to the line,
 therefore $\langle a, e \rangle = 0$.

$$\langle a, e \rangle = a^T (b - \hat{x} a) = a^T b - \hat{x} a^T a = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{x} = \frac{a^T b}{a^T a}$$

$$\Rightarrow p = \hat{x} a = a \hat{x} = a \frac{a^T b}{a^T a}$$

$$= \frac{a a^T}{a^T a} \times b$$

$$P \in \mathbb{R}^{n,n}$$

(projection matrix)

Example

Lets consider $a = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^3$.

$$P = \frac{a a^T}{a^T a} = \left\langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, (1 \ 2 \ 2) \right\rangle \times \frac{1}{9}$$

$$= \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{lets take } b = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, p = P b = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 10 \\ 10 \end{pmatrix}$$

Note: $P^2 = P$

Note: $(I - P)$ - projection onto subspace orthogonal to the line given by a .

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Gram-Schmidt process.

Given linear independent vectors $\underline{a}, \underline{b}, \underline{c}, \dots$, we first find orthogonal vectors $\underline{a}', \underline{b}', \underline{c}', \dots$ which span the same subspace as $\underline{a}, \underline{b}, \underline{c}, \dots$, and then we normalise them,

$$q_1 = \frac{\underline{a}'}{\|\underline{a}'\|}, \quad q_2 = \frac{\underline{b}'}{\|\underline{b}'\|}, \quad q_3 = \frac{\underline{c}'}{\|\underline{c}'\|}, \dots$$

So, Gram-Schmidt process allows us to construct an orthogonal basis of $\text{span}\{\underline{a}, \underline{b}, \underline{c}, \dots\}$

① Choose $\underline{a}' = \underline{a}$.

② It is likely that \underline{b} is not orthogonal to \underline{a}' , so we need to subtract its projection on the line defined by \underline{a}' :

$$\underline{b}' = \underline{b} - \frac{\underline{a}'^T \underline{b}}{\underline{a}'^T \underline{a}'} \underline{a}'$$

③ \underline{c}' is likely not orthogonal to \underline{a}' and \underline{b}' .

Again, subtract its projections

$$\underline{c}' = \underline{c} - \frac{\underline{a}'^T \underline{c}}{\underline{a}'^T \underline{a}'} \underline{a}' - \frac{\underline{b}'^T \underline{c}}{\underline{b}'^T \underline{b}'} \underline{b}'$$

and so on...

and finally normalise. $q_1, q_2, q_3 \dots$

Example

$$\underline{a} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \underline{b} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \underline{c} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -3 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{find } \underline{a}', \underline{b}', \underline{c}', q_1, q_2, q_3$$

$$\textcircled{1} \quad \underline{a}' = \underline{a} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\textcircled{2} \quad \underline{b}' = \underline{b} - \frac{\underline{a}'^T \underline{b}}{\underline{a}'^T \underline{a}'} \underline{a}' = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{\langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \rangle}{\langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \rangle} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(\text{quick check: } \langle \underline{a}', \underline{b}' \rangle = \langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \rangle = 0)$$

$$\textcircled{3} \quad \underline{c}' = \underline{c} - \frac{\underline{a}'^T \underline{c}}{\underline{a}'^T \underline{a}'} \underline{a}' - \frac{\underline{b}'^T \underline{c}}{\underline{b}'^T \underline{b}'} \underline{b}' = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\langle \underline{a}', \underline{c}' \rangle = 0, \quad \langle \underline{b}', \underline{c}' \rangle = 0.$$

Finally normalise:

$$q_1 = \frac{\underline{a}'}{\|\underline{a}'\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}; \quad q_2 = \frac{\underline{b}'}{\|\underline{b}'\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \quad q_3 = \frac{\underline{c}'}{\|\underline{c}'\|} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Projection onto subspace

Assume we have linearly independent vectors $\underline{a}_1, \dots, \underline{a}_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

We want to project vector $\underline{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ onto subspace spanned by $\underline{a}_1, \dots, \underline{a}_m$.

Subspace consists of all linear combinations

$$x_1 \underline{a}_1 + \dots + x_m \underline{a}_m = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} | & & | \\ \underline{a}_1 & \dots & \underline{a}_m \\ | & & | \end{pmatrix}}_{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{pmatrix}}_{\in \mathbb{R}^m}$$

We are looking for projection p of \underline{b} onto this subspace.

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We can define $\underline{e} = \underline{b} - A\hat{x}$, \underline{e} should be orthogonal to all a_1, \dots, a_m .

$$\begin{aligned} \langle a_1, e \rangle &= a_1^T \cdot (\underline{b} - A\hat{x}) = 0 \\ &\vdots \\ \langle a_m, e \rangle &= a_m^T \cdot (\underline{b} - A\hat{x}) = 0 \end{aligned} \Rightarrow \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} -a_1^T \rightarrow \\ \vdots \\ -a_m^T \rightarrow \end{pmatrix}}_{A^T} (\underline{b} - A\hat{x}) = 0$$

$$\therefore A^T(\underline{b} - A\hat{x}) = 0$$

$$A^T \underline{b} - A^T A \hat{x} = 0$$

Theorem: A has linearly independent columns.

Then $\underbrace{A^T A}_{\substack{\text{square} \\ \text{symmetric} \\ \text{invertible}}}$ is invertible

Proof: later

$$\hat{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \underline{b}$$

$$\underline{p} = A\hat{x} = \underbrace{A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T}_{P} \underline{b} \quad \text{- projection vector.}$$

P - projection matrix

x ————— MIDTERM ————— x

