

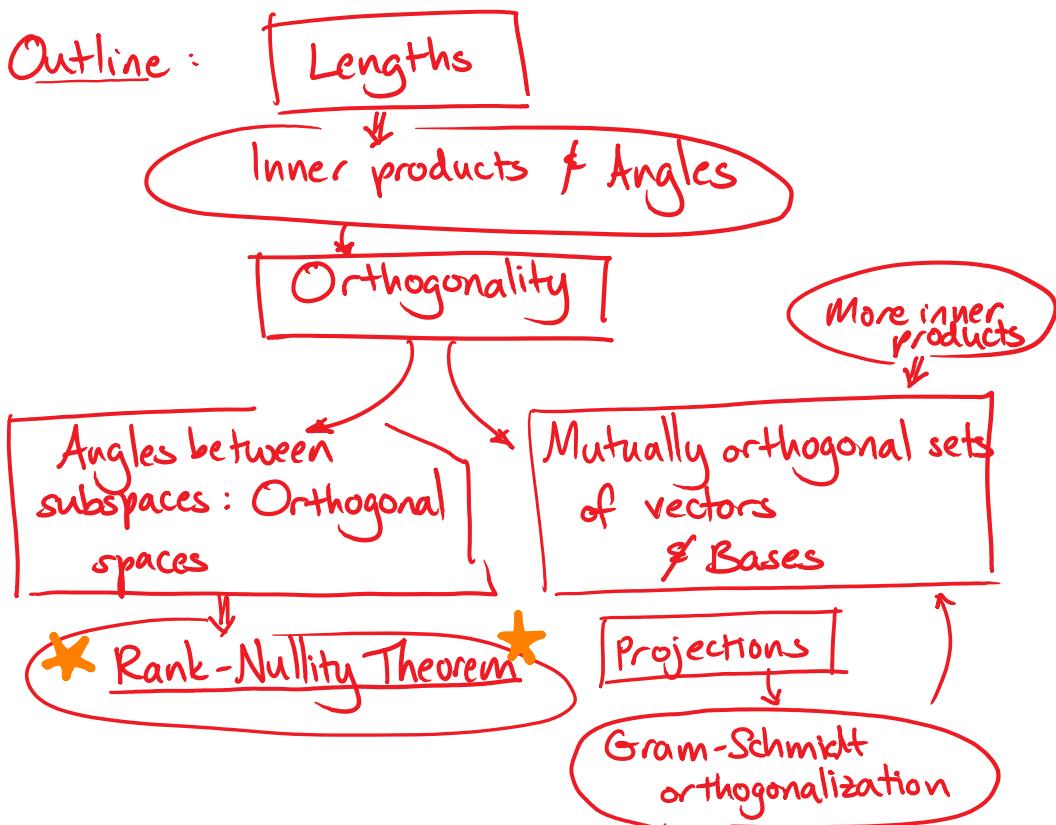
Lecture 8: Orthogonality

Reading:

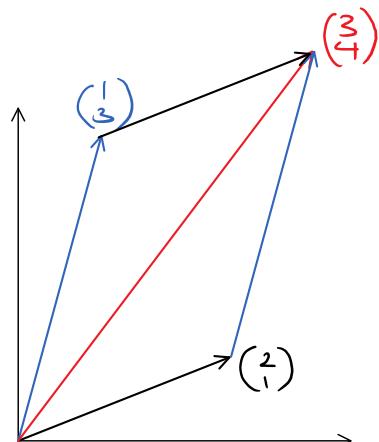
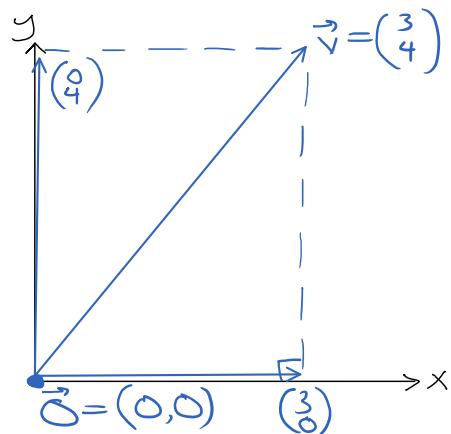


5

Outline:



VECTORS



LENGTHS

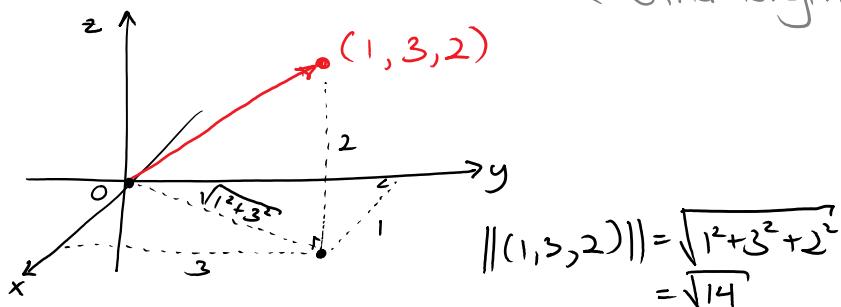
- The length of a vector $\vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ (or \mathbb{C}^n) is
- $$\|v\| = \sqrt{|v_1|^2 + \dots + |v_n|^2}$$

Example:

(*Note: We will define)

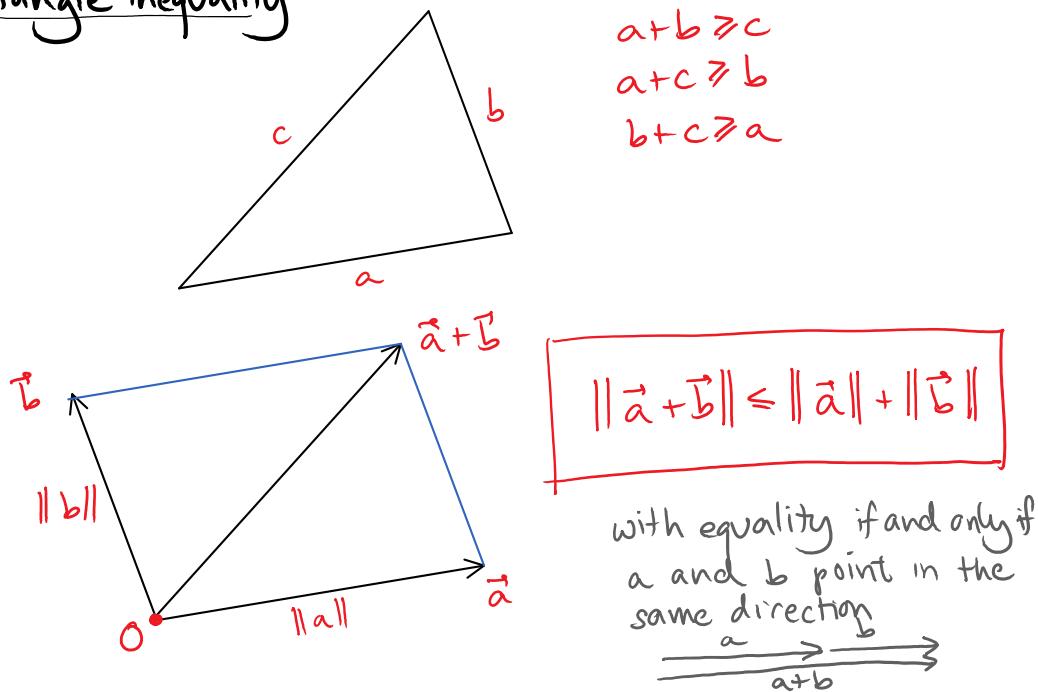
Example:

(*Note: We will define other lengths later.)



- For $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\|v\|^2 = v^T v = (\underbrace{\quad}_v^T) (\underbrace{\quad}_v)$
- Scaling: $\|\alpha \cdot \vec{v}\| = |\alpha| \cdot \|\vec{v}\|$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{v}{\|v\|}$ is a unit vector
- For $v \in \mathbb{C}^n$, $\|v\|^2 = \bar{v}^T v$,
e.g. $\|(1, i)\|^2 = 1^2 + |i|^2 = 2$

Triangle inequality:



INNER PRODUCTS & ANGLES

- The inner product of two vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is

$$\boxed{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = u^T v}$$

$$\boxed{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = u^T v = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i} \in \mathbb{R}$$

For two complex vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{C}^n$,

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \sum_i \bar{u}_i v_i \in \mathbb{C}$$

(Other notation: dot product, scalar product, $\langle u | v \rangle$, (u, v) .)

Observe: * $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = (\vec{v} \cdot \vec{u})^*$ ← complex conjugate

$$* \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = \|\vec{u}\|^2$$

* It is "bilinear":

$$\vec{u} \cdot (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w} \quad (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \cdot \vec{w} = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}$$

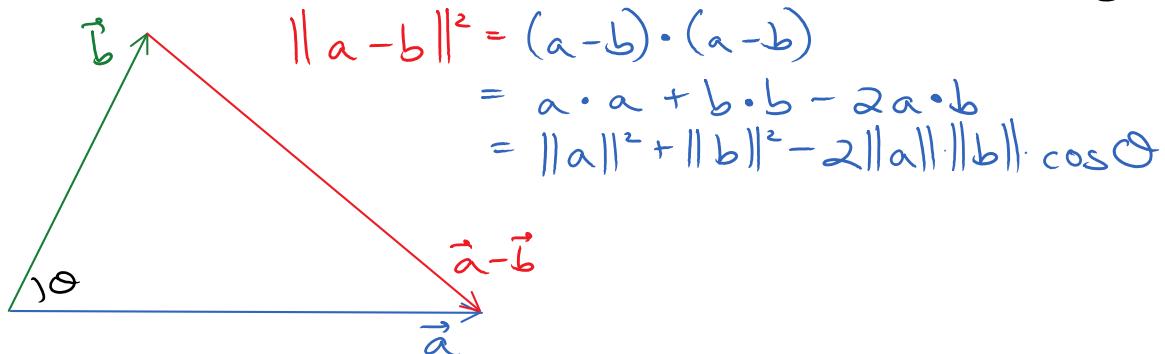
$$\vec{u} \cdot (\alpha \vec{v}) = \alpha (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}) \quad (\alpha \vec{u}) \cdot \vec{v} = \alpha^* (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v})$$

- The angle between $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \neq \vec{0}$ is

$$\cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|} \right) \in [0, \pi]$$

They are **orthogonal** if $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$ (angle = $\pi/2$)
AKA perpendicular, $\vec{u} \perp \vec{v}$

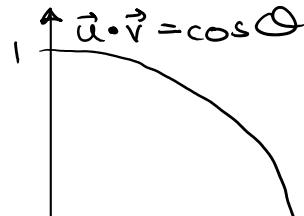
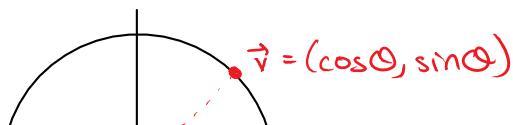
Observe: This definition agrees with what we know from geometry:

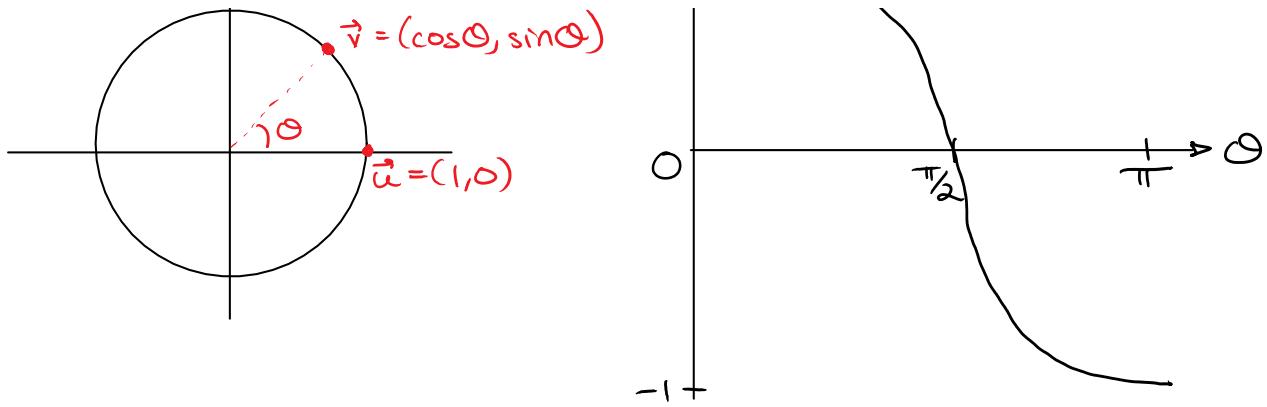


- Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:**

$$|\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}| \leq \|\vec{u}\| \cdot \|\vec{v}\|$$

Example:

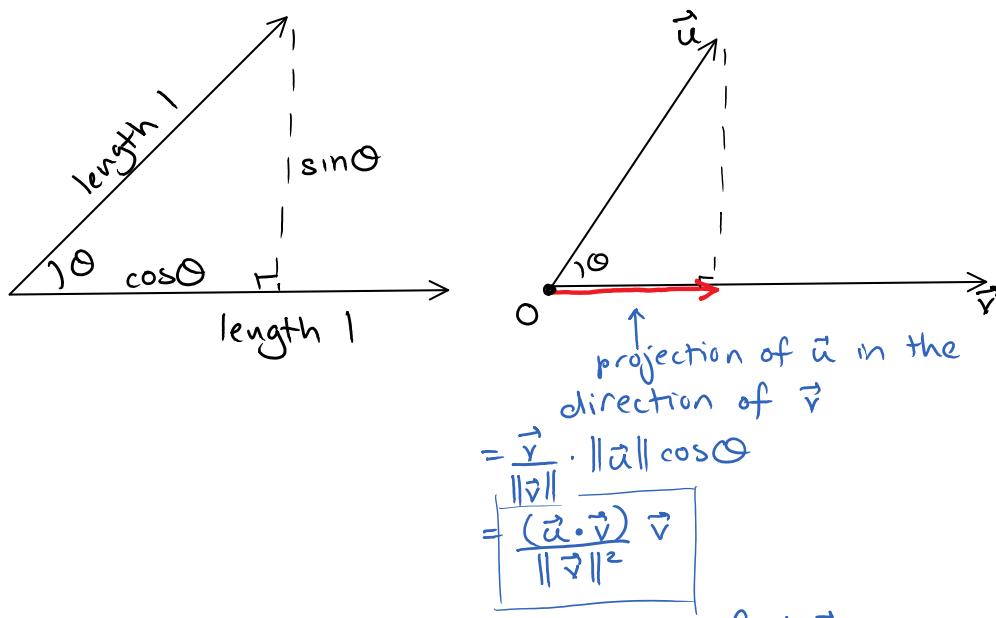




$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\| \cdot \|\vec{v}\|$ if they point
in the same direction

$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = -\|\vec{u}\| \cdot \|\vec{v}\|$ if they point in opposite directions
otherwise, $|\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}| < \|\vec{u}\| \cdot \|\vec{v}\|$ strictly

Observe: The magnitude $|\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}|$ measures the "overlap" between \vec{u} and \vec{v} :



— the projection is 0 if $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$, or $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$

\Rightarrow If $\|\vec{v}\| = 1$,

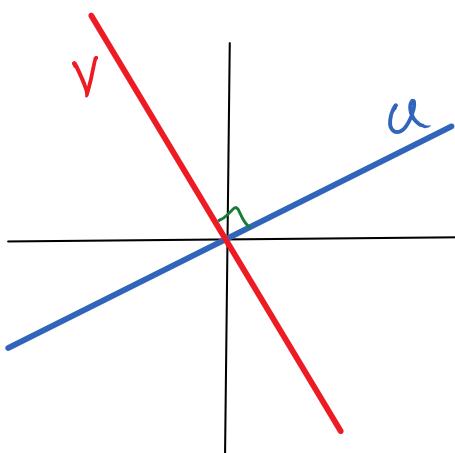
projection of \vec{u} in the direction of \vec{v}
 $= (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}) \vec{v}$

Orthogonal vectors

$$\vec{u} \perp \vec{v} \iff \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$$

\vec{u} and \vec{v} are orthogonal

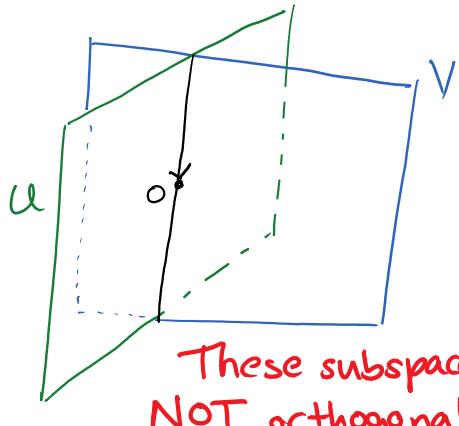
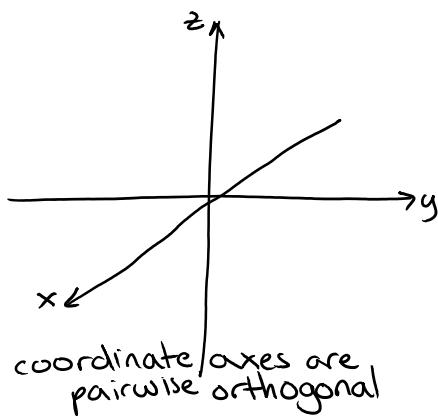
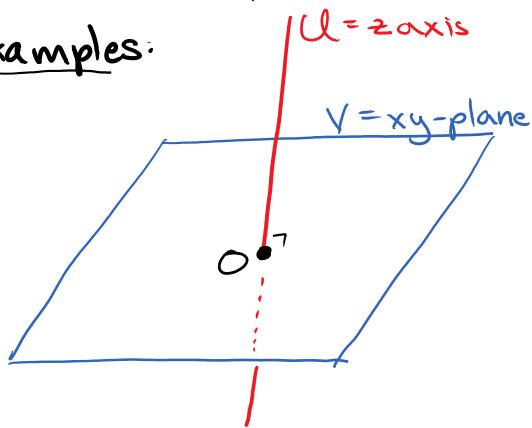
ORTHOGONAL SUBSPACES



subspaces
 $U \perp V$

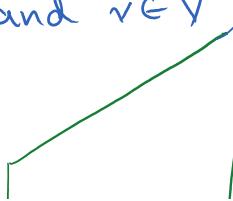
\Updownarrow
Every vector in U
is orthogonal to
every vector in V .

Examples:

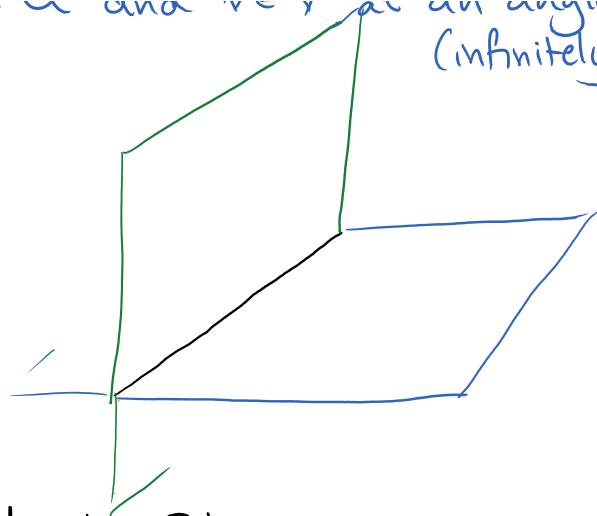


—because they intersect nontrivially
for $u \in U \cap V$, u makes angle 0 with itself

In fact, for any angle θ , there are vectors $u \in U$ and $v \in V$ at an angle θ to each other.
(infinitely many angles!)



no two angles are the same - it's continuous.
 (infinitely many angles!)



Example: In \mathbb{R}^4

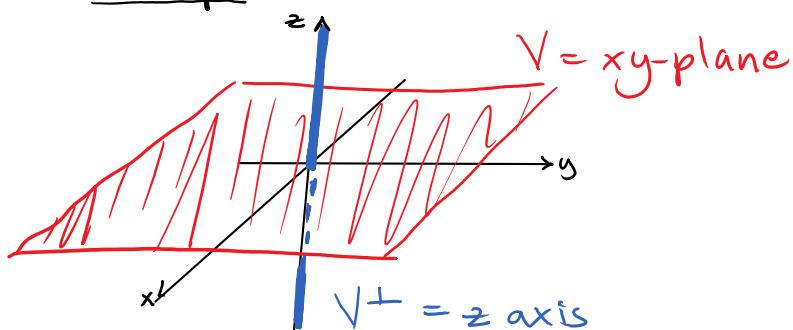
$$\text{Span}\left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right) \perp \text{Span}\left(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

Definition: For a subspace V ,

$$V^\perp = \{ \text{all vectors orthogonal to } V \}$$

"orthogonal complement of V ", " V perp"

Example:



- $V \cap V^\perp = \{\vec{0}\}$
- $(V^\perp)^\perp = V$
- x and z axes are orthogonal, but not complements

Theorem: (Orthogonal complementary subspaces)

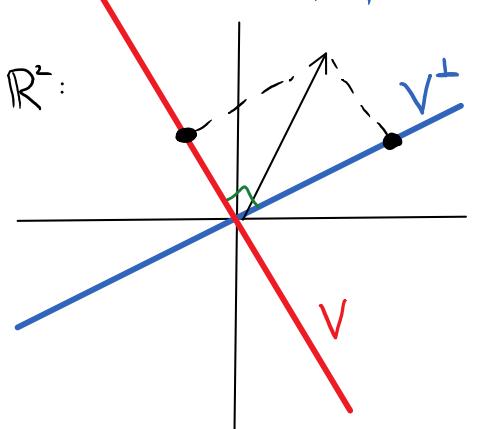
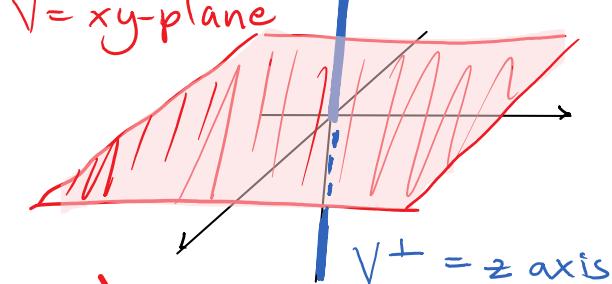
Let V be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Then,

- $\dim(V^\perp) = n - \dim(V)$
- $\text{Span}(V \cup V^\perp) = \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\bullet \text{Span}(V \cup V^\perp) = \mathbb{R}^n$$

Example: $3 = 2 + 1$

$V = xy\text{-plane}$



This means that any vector can be split

$$(a, b, c) = (a, b, 0) + (0, 0, c)$$

\Downarrow \Downarrow
 V V^\perp

Exercise: Prove that this decomposition is unique.

Proof of the theorem:

Let $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_d$ be a basis for V .

Claim: \vec{u} is orthogonal to all vectors in V

\Updownarrow
 \vec{u} is orthogonal to each $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_d$.

Why?

If $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_1 = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_2 = \dots = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_d = 0$,

then $\vec{u} \cdot (c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_d \vec{v}_d) = \sum_j c_j (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_j) = 0$

$\Rightarrow \vec{u}$ is orthogonal to anything in $\text{Span}\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_d\} = V$. \checkmark

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} V^\perp &= \{\vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \vec{u} \text{ is orthogonal to all vectors in } V\} \\ &= \{\vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_1 = 0, \dots, \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_d = 0\} \end{aligned}$$

$$= \{ \vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_1 = 0, \dots, \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_d = 0 \}$$

d equations

independent equations since

$\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_d$ are linearly indep. (basis)

\Rightarrow n-d free variables

\Rightarrow (n-d)-dimensional solution set ✓

Next, to show $\text{Span}(V \cup V^\perp) = \mathbb{R}^n$, let

$\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_{n-d}$
be a basis for V^\perp .

Consider the vectors

$$\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_d, \vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_{n-d}.$$

Claim: These vectors are linearly independent.

Why?

No nontrivial combinations of the basis vectors for V alone, or for V^\perp alone, can equal 0.

If a nontrivial combination of all the basis vectors

$$\left(\begin{smallmatrix} \text{comb. of basis} \\ \text{for } V \end{smallmatrix} \right) + \left(\begin{smallmatrix} \text{comb. of} \\ \text{basis for } V^\perp \end{smallmatrix} \right) = 0,$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\begin{smallmatrix} \text{comb. of basis} \\ \text{for } V \end{smallmatrix} \right) = -\left(\begin{smallmatrix} \text{comb. of} \\ \text{basis for } V^\perp \end{smallmatrix} \right)$$

⇒ contradicts $V \cap V^\perp = \{\vec{0}\}$. ✓

But n linearly independent vectors in a space of dimension n must be a basis, spanning everything. □

How to find V^\perp :

Start with a basis for V .

$$\Rightarrow V^\perp = \{ \text{all vectors } \perp \text{ to } V \}$$

$$= \{ \text{all vectors } \perp \text{ to all basis elements} \}$$

(i.e. $b_i \cdot v = 0$ for each basis elt. b_i)

(all vectors \perp to v are zero)

(i.e. $b_i \cdot v = 0$ for each basis elt. b_i)

Let $A = \left(\begin{array}{c} \text{rows } a \\ \hline \text{basis for } V \end{array} \right) \Rightarrow R(A^T) = V$
 $N(A) = V^\perp$

Lecture 8: Rank-Nullity Theorem

RANK - NULLITY THEOREM

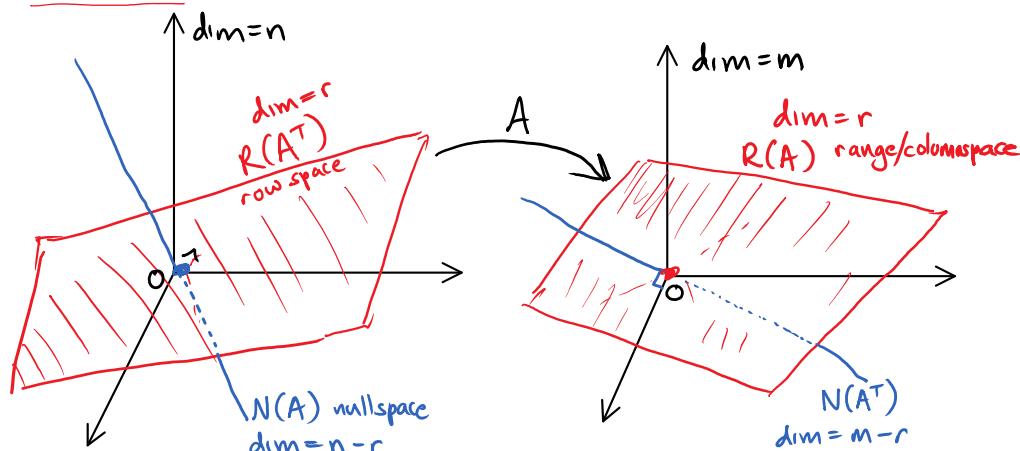
Definition: The rank of a matrix A is
 $\text{rank}(A) = \dim R(A)$,
the dimension of the range.

Rank-Nullity Theorem:

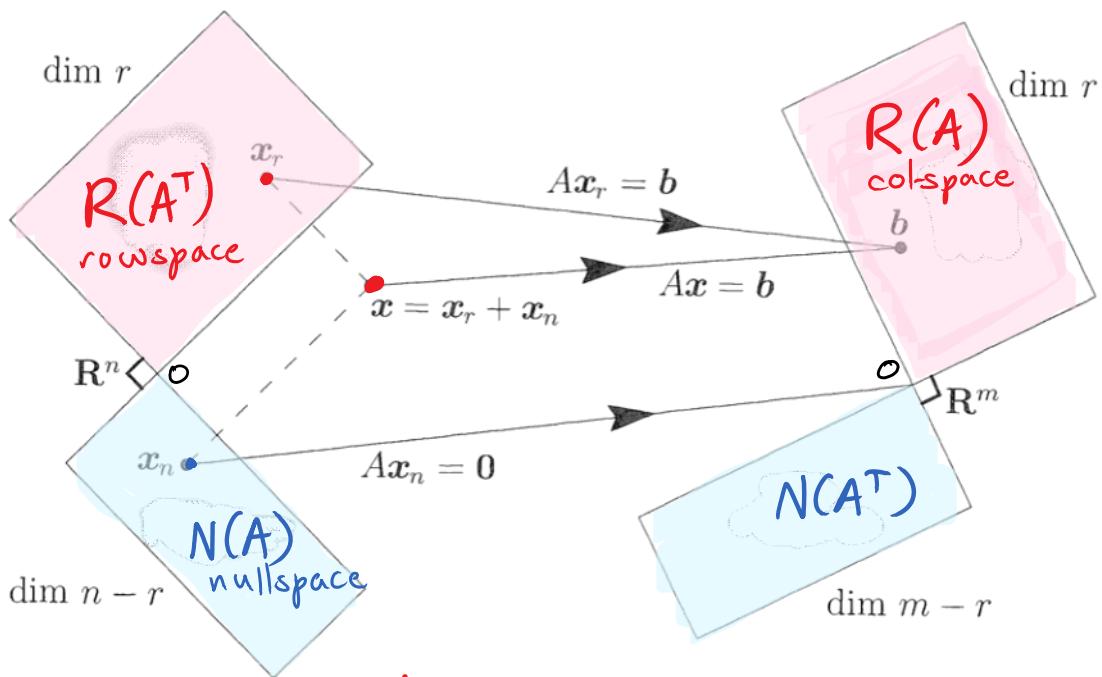
Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. Then

- $\dim R(A^T) = \dim R(A)$
- $\dim N(A) = n - \dim R(A)$
- $\dim N(A^T) = m - \dim R(A)$.

Intuition:



$\boxed{\dim R(A^T) = \dim R(A)}$	$\boxed{\dim N(A) + \dim R(A^T) = \text{total dimension } n}$	$\boxed{\dim R(A) + \dim N(A^T) = \text{total dimension } m}$
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$$N(A) = R(A^T)^\perp$$

$$N(A^T) = R(A)^\perp$$

Corollary: A is invertible $\Leftrightarrow m = n = \text{rank}(A)$.
"full rank"

Example:

Problem: Give a basis for $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_n = 0\}$.

Answer:

$$V = N((1 \ 1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1))$$

"A"

$$\text{rank}(A) = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \dim N(A) = n - \text{rank}(A) \quad [\text{Rank-Nullity}] \\ = n - 1$$

\Rightarrow Any linearly independent set of $n-1$ elements of V is a basis for V .

For example,

$$\{\vec{e}_1 - \vec{e}_n, \vec{e}_2 - \vec{e}_n, \vec{e}_3 - \vec{e}_n, \dots, \vec{e}_{n-1} - \vec{e}_n\} \text{ is a basis. } \checkmark$$

Proof of the Rank-Nullity Theorem:

i) Claim: For any $m \times n$ matrix A ,

$$\boxed{N(A) = R(A^T)^\perp} \quad (\Rightarrow \dim N(A) = n - \dim R(A^T))$$

Given for any $m \times n$ matrix A

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} N(A) &= R(A^T)^\perp \\ N(A^T) &= R(A)^\perp \end{aligned}} \quad \left(\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} \dim N(A) &= n - \dim R(A^T) \\ \dim N(A^T) &= m - \dim R(A) \end{aligned} \right)$$

Proof: Let $\mathcal{U} = R(A^T)$.

$$A = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \text{rows} \\ \text{span } \mathcal{U} \end{pmatrix}}$$

For $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $A\vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} (\text{row } 1) \cdot \vec{x} \\ \vdots \\ (\text{row } m) \cdot \vec{x} \end{pmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^m$

Hence $A\vec{x} = \vec{0} \iff \text{for all } j, (\text{row}_j) \cdot \vec{x} = 0$
 $\iff \vec{x} \perp \mathcal{U} = \text{span}\{\text{row}_1, \dots, \text{row}_m\}$.

Thus $\underset{\text{nullspace}}{N(A)} = \underset{\text{rowspace}}{R(A^T)^\perp}$. ✓

To see that $\underset{\text{left nullspace}}{N(A^T)} = \underset{\text{columnspace}}{R(A)^\perp}$, repeat the argument with A^T . \square

2) Claim: $\dim R(A) = \dim R(A^T)$.

Proof #1 (works over \mathbb{R} or \mathbb{C}):

Let $\vec{r}_1, \dots, \vec{r}_d$ be a basis for the rowspace $R(A^T)$.

We claim that $A\vec{r}_1, \dots, A\vec{r}_d$ are linearly independent.

Why?

$$\begin{aligned} \text{If } c_1 A\vec{r}_1 + \dots + c_d A\vec{r}_d &= \vec{0} \\ \Rightarrow A(\sum c_j \vec{r}_j) &= \vec{0} \\ \Rightarrow \sum c_j \vec{r}_j &\in N(A) \end{aligned}$$

But this \rightarrow is also in $R(A^T)$.

To be in $N(A) \cap R(A^T)$, it must be $\vec{0}$, implying (by lin. indep.) that all $c_j = 0$.

Hence $A\vec{r}_1, \dots, A\vec{r}_d$ are independent, too. ✓

Therefore $\dim R(A) \geq \dim R(A^T)$.

Repeating the argument with A^T gives the opposite inequality, $\dim R(A^T) \geq \dim R(A)$. Hence they are equal. \square

Proof #2 (works in general):

Inequality, $\dim R(A) \geq \dim R(A^T)$. Hence they are equal. \square

Proof #2 (works in general):

The above proof doesn't work over finite fields.

For example, if $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ over \mathbb{F}_2 ,
 $N(A) = R(A^T) = \{\vec{0}, (1)\}$.

However $\dim R(A) = \dim R(A^T)$ is still true.

Proof using Gaussian elimination:

$$\begin{array}{c|ccccc} & & n & & \\ \text{m} & A & \xrightarrow{\text{G.E.}} & m & & \\ & & & & n & \\ & & & & & U \end{array}$$

Let $d = \#$ of pivot columns.

Since those rows span $R(A^T) = R(U^T)$, $d = \dim R(A^T)$.

Since the corresponding columns in A span $R(A)$
 (see Lecture: Subspaces of a matrix), $d = \dim R(A)$. \checkmark

Also, # free variables = $n - d = \dim N(A)$. \checkmark

\square

Example:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 0 & 4 \\ 2 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow[-1]{-4} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & -8 & -8 \\ 0 & -5 & -5 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow[-2]{-2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$R(A) = \text{Span} \{(1, 4, 2), (2, 0, -1)\} \perp N(A^T) = \text{Span}((4, -5, 8))$$

$$R(A^T) = \text{Span} \{(1, 2, 3), (0, 1, 1)\} \perp N(A) = \text{Span}((1, 1, -1))$$

$$\text{rank}(A) = \dim R(A) = \dim R(A^T) = 2$$

$$\dim N(A) + \dim R(A^T) = 3$$

$$\dim N(A^T) + \dim R(A) = 3$$

Example:

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

discretized 2nd derivative on the circle

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & -2 & 1 \\ & & & 1 & -2 \\ n & , & , & , & \end{pmatrix}$$

Recall: $N(A) = \text{Span}((1, 1, \dots, 1))$

$$A = A^T \Rightarrow N(A^T) = N(A)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow R(A) &= N(A^T)^\perp && \text{n-1 dimensional} \\ &= \left\{ \text{all } \vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \vec{b} \cdot (1, 1, \dots, 1) = 0 \right\} \\ &= \left\{ \text{all } \vec{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid b_1 + b_2 + \dots + b_n = 0 \right\} \end{aligned}$$

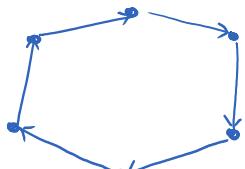
Hence, $\boxed{\begin{array}{l} Ax = b \text{ has a solution} \\ \Updownarrow \\ b_1 + \dots + b_n = 0 \end{array}}$

This is much easier than using Gaussian elimination to find a basis for $R(A)$. (Essentially because $N(A^T)$ is low-dimensional.)

This example is actually very important; similar matrices arise frequently in applications.

Note that $A = -E_G E_G^T$, where G is the cycle graph

and E_G is the incidence matrix.



We proved $N(E_G^T) = \text{Span}((1, 1, \dots, 1))$, which

gives an alternate proof that $N(A) = \text{Span}((1, \dots, 1))$.

Exercise:

Give the *dimensions* of the four fundamental subspaces (columnspace, rowspace, nullspace, left nullspace) of the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 500 & 5 & 6 & 3 & 0 \\ 200 & 2 & 8 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 500 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

A

Space	Dimension
$R(A)$	
$R(A^T)$	
$N(A)$	
$N(A^T)$	

Answer:

Notice that A is 6×5

$$\Rightarrow \dim N(A) = 5 - \text{Rank}(A)$$

$$\dim N(A^T) = 6 - \text{Rank}(A).$$

To find $\text{Rank}(A)$, notice that

row and column operations do not change the rank!
(Why not?)

$$\begin{pmatrix} 500 & 5 & 6 & 3 & 0 \\ 200 & 2 & 8 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 500 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 4 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 500 & 5 & 6 & 3 & 0 \\ 200 & 2 & 8 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 500 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \xrightarrow{\quad} \begin{pmatrix} 500 & 5 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 200 & 2 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 500 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\quad} \begin{pmatrix} 500 & 5 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 200 & 2 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 500 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \\ \xrightarrow{\quad} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 500 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \xrightarrow{\quad} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 5 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix} \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Rank}(A) = \dim R(A) = \dim R(A^T) = 4$$

$$\dim N(A) = 5 - \text{Rank}(A) = 1$$

$$\dim N(A^T) = 6 - \text{Rank}(A) = 2.$$

To do: Understand better how $R(A^T)$ is mapped onto $R(A)$.

To do: Understand better how $R(A^T)$ is mapped onto $R(A)$.
(Singular-value decomposition)