

Vv417 Lecture 21

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November 19, 2019

- In \mathbb{R}^n , we often use the standard basis

$$\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$$

in which vectors are orthonormal, and it is known as an **orthonormal** basis.

- In an inner product space \mathcal{V} , it is also desirable to have an **orthonormal** basis.

Definition

Let $\mathcal{S} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$ be a set of nonzero vectors in an inner product space. If

$$\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_j \rangle = 0 \quad \text{for } i \neq j,$$

then \mathcal{S} is said to be an **orthogonal set** of vectors.

Theorem

An **orthogonal set** of nonzero vectors is **linearly independent**.

- If \mathcal{B} is an orthogonal set that spans \mathcal{V} , then \mathcal{B} is an orthogonal basis for \mathcal{V} .

Definition

An **orthonormal set** of vectors is an orthogonal set of **unit** vectors.

- The set $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ will be orthonormal **if and only if**

$$\langle \mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{u}_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Exercise

Consider $\mathcal{C}[-\pi, \pi]$ with inner product $\langle f, g \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x)g(x) dx$, is the set

$$\mathcal{S} = \{1, \cos x, \cos 2x, \dots, \cos nx\}$$

an orthogonal set of vectors? Is it orthonormal?

Solution

- We need to check use the given inner product whether they are orthogonal.

Solution

- We need to check the inner products between vectors in \mathcal{S} , we have

$$\langle 1, \cos kx \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos kx \, dx = 0 \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

$$\langle \cos jx, \cos kx \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos jx \cos kx \, dx = 0 \quad \text{for } j \neq k$$

- We need to check the length of the vectors, we have

$$\langle \cos kx, \cos kx \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos^2 kx \, dx = 1 \quad \text{for } k = 1, 2, \dots, n$$

- However, the length of the function 1 under this inner product is not 1.

$$\|1\|^2 = \langle 1, 1 \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} 1 \, dx = 2$$

- Therefore \mathcal{S} is an orthogonal set, but **not orthonormal.**

Parseval's Formula

If $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis for an inner product space \mathcal{V} , then

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i^2 \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i \mathbf{u}_i$$

Q: The above is easy to show but what does it mean to inner product in general

Q: Given that $\{1/\sqrt{2}, \cos 2x\}$ is an orthonormal set in $\mathcal{C}[-\pi, \pi]$ with

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x)g(x) dx$$

How to compute the value of the following without finding an antiderivative?

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^4 x dx$$

Definition

An $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{Q} is said to be an orthogonal matrix if the column vectors of \mathbf{Q} form an orthonormal set in \mathbb{R}^n .

Theorem

An $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{Q} is orthogonal if and only if

$$\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I}$$

And \mathbf{Q} is invertible and $\mathbf{Q}^{-1} = \mathbf{Q}^T$.

Proof

- By definition an $n \times n$ matrix \mathbf{Q} is orthogonal if and only if

$$\mathbf{c}_i^T \mathbf{c}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

where \mathbf{c}_i and \mathbf{c}_j are i th and j th column of \mathbf{Q} .

Proof

- Since $\mathbf{c}_i^T \mathbf{c}_j$ is the (i, j) element of $\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Q}$. thus \mathbf{Q} is orthogonal if and only if

$$\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I}$$

Exercise

Show for any fixed θ , the matrix is orthogonal

$$\mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

- Consider the product,

$$\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Q} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & \sin \theta \\ -\sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{I}$$

- So \mathbf{Q} is orthogonal.

- In \mathbb{R}^n , inner products are preserved under orthonormal change of variables

$$\langle \mathbf{Qx}, \mathbf{Qy} \rangle = (\mathbf{Qy})^T \mathbf{Qx} = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Qx} = \mathbf{y}^T \mathbf{x} = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$$

- In particular, if $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$, then

$$\|\mathbf{Qx}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \implies \|\mathbf{Qx}\| = \|\mathbf{x}\|$$

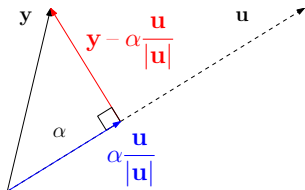
- So multiplication by an orthogonal matrix preserves the lengths of vectors.

Properties of Orthogonal Matrices

If \mathbf{Q} is an $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix, then

1. $\mathbf{Q}^T \mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{I}$
2. $\mathbf{Q}^T = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}$
3. $\langle \mathbf{Qx}, \mathbf{Qy} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$
4. $\|\mathbf{Qx}\| = \|\mathbf{x}\|$
5. $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{Q}^T = \mathbf{I}$ and thus the rows of \mathbf{Q} form an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n .

- In \mathbb{R}^n , we often want to decompose a vector \mathbf{y} into two vector components, **parallel** and **orthogonal** to a vector \mathbf{u} .



Q: How to find the two vectors in \mathbb{R}^n ? What if it is an inner product space?

Definition

For non-zero \mathbf{y} and \mathbf{u} in an inner product space, the **vector projection** of \mathbf{y} onto \mathbf{u}

$$\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{y} = \|\mathbf{y}\| \cos \theta \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|} = \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|} \left(\frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{u}\|} \right) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle} \mathbf{u}$$

The vector $(\mathbf{y} - \text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{y})$ is called the **vector component** of \mathbf{y} orthogonal to \mathbf{u} .

Definition

A vector \mathbf{x} in an inner product \mathcal{V} is said to be **orthogonal to a subspace** \mathcal{W} of \mathcal{V} if \mathbf{x} is orthogonal to all the vectors \mathbf{v} in \mathcal{W} , that is,

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0 \quad \text{for all vectors } \mathbf{v} \text{ in } \mathcal{W}.$$

- It is clear if $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_m\}$ is a basis of \mathcal{W} , then \mathbf{x} is orthogonal to \mathcal{W}
if and only if \mathbf{x} is orthogonal to all the vectors in \mathcal{B} .

Theorem

For a vector \mathbf{x} in \mathcal{V} and a subspace \mathcal{W} of \mathcal{V} , we can write

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^{\parallel} + \mathbf{x}^{\perp}$$

where \mathbf{x}^{\parallel} is in \mathcal{W} and \mathbf{x}^{\perp} is orthogonal to \mathcal{W} , and this representation is **unique**.

Proof

- Let $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{V}$ and $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m\}$ be an orthogonal basis of \mathcal{W} , then

$$\mathbf{x}^{\parallel} = \alpha_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \alpha_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + \alpha_m \mathbf{u}_m$$

is in \mathcal{W} , we need to show there is a set of α_i 's such that

$$\mathbf{x}^{\perp} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{\parallel}$$

is orthogonal to \mathcal{W} , that is,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle \mathbf{x}^{\perp}, \mathbf{u}_i \rangle &= 0 \quad \text{for } i = 1, 2, \dots, m \\ \langle \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{\parallel}, \mathbf{u}_i \rangle &= 0 \\ \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_i \rangle - \langle \mathbf{x}^{\parallel}, \mathbf{u}_i \rangle &= 0 \\ \implies \alpha_i &= \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u}_i \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{u}_i \rangle}\end{aligned}$$

- This shows it is always possible to find such α_i 's. □

Definition

The vector \mathbf{x}^\parallel is called the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{x} onto \mathcal{W} , denoted by

$$\mathbf{x}^\parallel = \text{proj}_{\mathcal{W}}(\mathbf{x})$$

- The transformation $T(\mathbf{x}) = \text{proj}_{\mathcal{W}}(\mathbf{x})$ is linear.

Formula for the orthogonal projection

If \mathcal{W} is a subspace of \mathcal{V} with an orthonormal basis $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m\}$, then

$$\mathbf{x}^\parallel = \text{proj}_{\mathcal{W}}(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{x} \rangle \mathbf{u}_1 + \langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{x} \rangle \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + \langle \mathbf{u}_m, \mathbf{x} \rangle \mathbf{u}_m \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x} \text{ in } \mathcal{V}.$$

Exercise

Given $\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$. Find orthogonal projection of \mathbf{x} onto $\text{col}(\mathbf{A})$.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solution

- Note the two columns happen to be orthogonal but not orthonormal, hence

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}^{\parallel} &= \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{x} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_1 \rangle} \mathbf{u}_1 + \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{x} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_2 \rangle} \mathbf{u}_2 \\ &= \frac{(\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x})}{(\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1)} \mathbf{u}_1 + \frac{(\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{x})}{(\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2)} \mathbf{u}_2 \\ &= \frac{12}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{4}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \\ 2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Exercise

For an inner product space \mathcal{V} , consider the orthogonal projection

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = \text{proj}_{\mathcal{W}}(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{where } \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{V}$$

onto a subspace \mathcal{W} of \mathcal{V} . Describe how the range and kernel of T relate to \mathcal{W} .

Solution

- First of all, both the range and kernel are subspace of \mathcal{V} , and the range is a subspace of \mathcal{W} , since if $\mathcal{S} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$ is an orthogonal basis of \mathcal{W} , then

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{x} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_1 \rangle} \mathbf{u}_1 + \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{x} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_2 \rangle} \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}_n, \mathbf{x} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{u}_n, \mathbf{u}_n \rangle} \mathbf{u}_n$$

- The kernel is a subspace of \mathcal{V} such that

$$T(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0} \implies \langle \mathbf{x}^*, \mathbf{u}_j \rangle = 0 \quad \text{for } j = 1, 2, \dots, n.$$

- So the kernel is a vector space in which all vectors in it is orthogonal to \mathcal{W} .

Q: Given an $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} and

$$\mathbf{x} \in \text{null}(\mathbf{A})$$

is there a vector in the row space of \mathbf{A} that is orthogonal to \mathbf{x} ?

Q: Given an $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} and

$$\mathbf{x} \in \text{null}(\mathbf{A})$$

is there any vector in the row space of \mathbf{A} that is parallel to \mathbf{x} ?

Definition

Two subspaces \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} of an inner product space \mathcal{V} are said to be orthogonal if $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$ for every $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$ and every $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{Y}$. If \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} are orthogonal, we write

$$\mathcal{X} \perp \mathcal{Y}$$

- Therefore, we have the following according to this definition and notation

$$\text{null}(\mathbf{A}) \perp \text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)$$

Definition

Consider a subspace \mathcal{W} of an inner product space \mathcal{V} . The **orthogonal complement** \mathcal{W}^\perp of \mathcal{W} is the set of all vectors $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{V}$ that are orthogonal to all vectors in \mathcal{W} :

$$\mathcal{W}^\perp = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{V} : \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0, \text{ for all } \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{W}\}$$

- Note that \mathcal{W}^\perp is the kernel of the orthogonal projection onto \mathcal{W} .

Properties of the orthogonal complement

Consider a subspace \mathcal{W} of an inner product space \mathcal{V} .

1. The orthogonal complement \mathcal{W}^\perp of \mathcal{W} is a subspace of \mathcal{V} .
2. The intersection of \mathcal{W}^\perp and \mathcal{W} consists of the zero vector alone:

$$\mathcal{W}^\perp \cap \mathcal{W} = \{\mathbf{0}\}.$$

3. $\dim \mathcal{W} + \dim \mathcal{W}^\perp = n$
4. $(\mathcal{W}^\perp)^\perp = \mathcal{W}$

Proof

1. Let $T(\mathbf{x}) = \text{proj}_{\mathcal{W}}(\mathbf{x})$, then $\mathcal{W}^\perp = \text{kernel}(T)$. Thus it is a vector space.
2. If a vector \mathbf{x} is in \mathcal{W} as well as \mathcal{W}^\perp , then \mathbf{x} is orthogonal to itself

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0 \implies \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

Q: Suppose $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^2$ and let

$$\mathcal{X} = \text{span}(\mathbf{e}_1) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{Y} = \text{span}(\mathbf{e}_2)$$

are \mathcal{X} and \mathcal{Y} orthogonal complement of each other?

Q: What if $\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, where $n \geq 3$?

Fundamental Subspaces Theorem

If \mathbf{A} is an $m \times n$ matrix, then

$$\text{null}(\mathbf{A}) = \left(\text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T) \right)^\perp \quad \text{and} \quad \text{null}(\mathbf{A}^T) = \left(\text{col}(\mathbf{A}) \right)^\perp$$

Proof

- We know that

$$\text{null}(\mathbf{A}) \perp \text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T) \implies \text{null}(\mathbf{A}) \subset \left(\text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)\right)^\perp$$

- Let $\mathbf{x} \in \left(\text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)\right)^\perp$, then \mathbf{x} must be orthogonal to each row of \mathbf{A} ,

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0} &\implies \mathbf{x} \in \text{null}(\mathbf{A}) \implies \left(\text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)\right)^\perp \subset \text{null}(\mathbf{A}) \\ &\implies \left(\text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)\right)^\perp = \text{null}(\mathbf{A})\end{aligned}$$

- Let $\mathbf{B}^T = \mathbf{A}$, then

$$\left(\text{col}(\mathbf{B})\right)^\perp = \text{null}(\mathbf{B}^T) \implies \left(\text{col}(\mathbf{A})\right)^\perp = \text{null}(\mathbf{A}^T) \quad \square$$

- Similarly things can be said about the kernel and range of a linear map.

Definition

Suppose \mathcal{U} and \mathcal{V} are subspaces of an inner product space \mathcal{W} and each $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{W}$ can be written **uniquely** as a sum

$$\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \quad \text{where } \mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{U} \text{ and } \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{V},$$

then \mathcal{W} is called the **direct sum** of \mathcal{U} and \mathcal{V} , and we write

$$\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{U} \oplus \mathcal{V}$$

Q What is the difference between the sum $\mathcal{U} + \mathcal{V}$ and the direct sum of $\mathcal{U} \oplus \mathcal{V}$?

Theorem

If \mathcal{S} is a subspace of \mathcal{W} , then

$$\mathcal{W} = \mathcal{S} \oplus \mathcal{S}^\perp$$

Q: How do the four fundamental spaces of \mathbf{A} relate to each other?

- Recall the row space and the column space have the same dimension.

$$\dim(\text{col}(\mathbf{A})) = \dim(\text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)) = \text{rank}(\mathbf{A})$$

- Actually, \mathbf{A} can be used to establish a one-to-one correspondence between

$$\text{col}(\mathbf{A}) \quad \text{and} \quad \text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)$$

- We can treat an $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} as a linear transformation from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^m :

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbf{Ax} \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

- Since $\text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)$ and $\text{null}(\mathbf{A})$ are orthogonal complements in \mathbb{R}^n ,

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T) \oplus \text{null}(\mathbf{A})$$

- Each vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be written as a sum

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &= \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z} \quad \text{where} \quad \mathbf{y} \in \text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T) \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{z} \in \text{null}(\mathbf{A}) \\ \mathbf{Ax} &= \mathbf{Ay} + \mathbf{Az} = \mathbf{Ay} \end{aligned}$$

- Therefore

$$\text{col}(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{Ax} \mid \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\} = \{\mathbf{Ay} \mid \mathbf{y} \in \text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)\}$$

- Thus, if we restrict the domain of \mathbf{A} to $\text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)$, then

\mathbf{A} maps $\text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)$ onto $\text{col}(\mathbf{A})$

- Furthermore, the mapping is one-to-one. If \mathbf{x}_1 and $\mathbf{x}_2 \in \text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)$,

$$\mathbf{Ax}_1 = \mathbf{Ax}_2 \implies \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2) = \mathbf{0} \implies (\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2) \in \text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T) \cap \text{null}(\mathbf{A})$$

- Since $\text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T) \cap \text{null}(\mathbf{A}) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$, it follows that

$$\mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_2$$

- So every $m \times n$ matrix \mathbf{A} is invertible when viewed as a linear transformation

$$T_{\mathbf{A}} : \text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T) \rightarrow \text{col}(\mathbf{A})$$

and the matrix \mathbf{A}^+ corresponds to $T_{\mathbf{A}}^{-1}$ is known as the pseudoinverse of \mathbf{A} .

- For example, consider the following matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- This matrix is clearly not invertible since it is not even a square matrix, so the corresponding matrix transformation is not invertible.
- However, it is also clear that,

$$\text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T) = \text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2\} \quad \text{and} \quad \text{null}(\mathbf{A}) = \text{span}\{\mathbf{e}_3\}$$

- So if we restrict ourselves to $\mathbf{y} \in \text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T)$, that is, \mathbf{y} must be of $\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, then

$$T_{\mathbf{A}} : \text{col}(\mathbf{A}^T) \rightarrow \text{col}(\mathbf{A})$$

is an invertible linear transformation, and must have an inverse.

- We will come back to this and find the pseudoinverse towards the end!

- I will leave it to you to add the following to the vector/dual spaces figure.

