

# Subspaces

## Computational Intelligence, Lecture 2

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# DOT PRODUCT AND VECTOR NORM

Given two vectors  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \dots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \dots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}$  their *dot product* is:

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \dots + x_ny_n = \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y} \quad (1)$$

A *2-norm* (also called Euclidean norm) of a vector is defined as:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{x}} = \sqrt{x_1x_1 + x_2x_2 + \dots + x_nx_n} \quad (2)$$

# MINIMIZING A SQUARE ROOT

In this course we will often have to find minimum of a square root of a function. We can make the following helpful observation:

## Square of a positive-definite function

If a function  $f(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$  and  $f(\mathbf{x}^*) \leq f(\mathbf{x})$  for all  $\mathbf{x}$ , then  $(f(\mathbf{x}^*))^2 \leq (f(\mathbf{x}))^2$ . Illustration on the next slide.

So, instead of finding minimum of the function  $f(\mathbf{x})$  we can find minimum of the function  $f^2(\mathbf{x})$ ; both minimums will correspond to the same value of the argument  $\mathbf{x}^*$ .

So, if our function takes the form  $f(x) = \sqrt{g(x)}$ , instead of minimizing it, we can minimize  $g(x)$  directly.

# SQUARE OF POSITIVE X

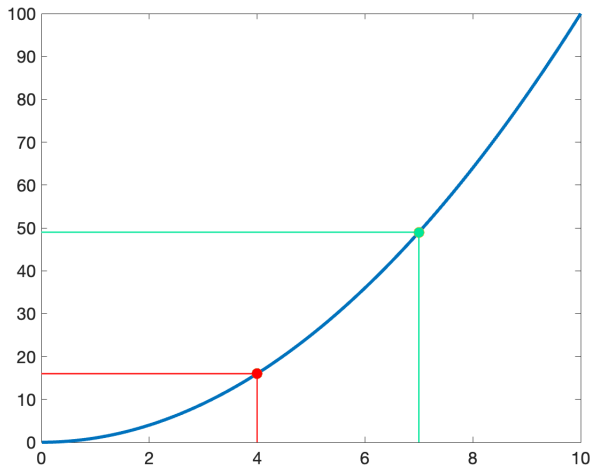


Figure 1: Graph of  $f(x \geq 0) = x^2$ ; Since the function is monotonic, larger argument implies larger output.

# LEAST SQUARES AT A GLANCE (1)

Consider the following problem: find  $\mathbf{x}$  that minimizes  $\|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}\|_2$ . This is the *least squares problem*.

- The value  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}$  is called residual.
- Least squares problem is about finding *least residual solution*.

Note that  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}\|_2 = \sqrt{(\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y})^\top (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y})}$ ; as we showed earlier, we can minimize the function  $g(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y})^\top (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y})$  to find the same optimal value of  $\mathbf{x}$ .

# LEAST SQUARES AT A GLANCE (2)

We find extremum of  $g(\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y})^\top (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y})$ :

$$\frac{d}{d\mathbf{x}} \left( (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y})^\top (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}) \right) = 0 \quad (3)$$

$$(\mathbf{A}^\top (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}))^\top + (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y})^\top \mathbf{A} = 0 \quad (4)$$

$$2\mathbf{A}^\top (\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}) = 0 \quad (5)$$

$$\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{y} \quad (6)$$

$$\mathbf{x} = (\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{y} \quad (7)$$

Thus we can define a *pseudoinverse*:

$$\mathbf{A}^+ = (\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A})^{-1} \mathbf{A}^\top \quad (8)$$

Thus the least residual solution to  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$  is written as:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^+ \mathbf{y} \tag{9}$$

We already showed that it is the least-residual solution, later we will prove that it is also the *smallest norm* solution (out of all solutions with the same residual).

Let matrix  $\mathbf{M}$  be orthonormal (not necessarily square), meaning  $\mathbf{M}^\top \mathbf{M} = \mathbf{I}$ . Its pseudoinverse can be simplified:

$$\mathbf{M}^+ = (\mathbf{M}^\top \mathbf{M})^{-1} \mathbf{M}^\top = \mathbf{M}^\top \quad (10)$$

Then least squares solution to the equation  $\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$  can be found as:

$$\mathbf{x}_{LS} = \mathbf{M}^\top \mathbf{y} \quad (11)$$

If  $\mathbf{M}$  is orthonormal and square, then  $\mathbf{M}^\top = \mathbf{M}^{-1}$ .



Given an equation  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$  and least squares solution  $\mathbf{x}_{LS} = \mathbf{A}^+\mathbf{y}$ , let us compute the residual  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{Ax}_{LS}$ . We substitute the solution:

$$\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{AA}^+\mathbf{y} \quad (12)$$

We observe that:

- The residual can be found as  $\mathbf{e} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{AA}^+)\mathbf{y}$ .
- The closest  $\mathbf{Ax}$  can get to  $\mathbf{y}$  is  $\mathbf{y}^* = \mathbf{AA}^+\mathbf{y}$ .
- Later we will find that  $\mathbf{AA}^+\mathbf{y}$  is a *projection* of  $\mathbf{y}$  onto a *column space* of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

# FOUR FUNDAMENTAL SUBSPACES

One of the key ideas in Linear Algebra is that every linear operator has four fundamental subspaces:

- Null space
- Row space
- Column space
- Left null space

Our goal is to understand them. The usefulness of this concept is enormous.

# NULL SPACE

## Definition

Consider the following task: find all solutions to the system of equations  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

It can be re-formulated as follows: find all elements of the *null space* of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

### Definition 1

*Null space* of  $\mathbf{A}$  is the set of all vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  that  $\mathbf{A}$  maps to  $\mathbf{0}$

We will denote null space as  $\text{null}(\mathbf{A})$ . Null space of an operator is sometimes called *kernel* and denoted as  $\text{ker}(\mathbf{A})$ .

# NULL SPACE

## Calculation

We can find all solutions of the system of equations  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{0}$  by using functions that generate an *orthonormal basis* in the null space of  $\mathbf{A}$ . In MATLAB we can use the function `null`, in Python/Scipy - `null_space`:

- `N = null(A).`

- `N = scipy.linalg.null_space(A).`

# NULL SPACE PROJECTION

## Local coordinates

Let  $\mathbf{N}$  be the orthonormal basis in the null space of matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ . Then, if a vector  $\mathbf{x}$  lies in the null space of  $\mathbf{A}$ , it can be represented as:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{N}\mathbf{z} \tag{13}$$

where  $\mathbf{z}$  are coordinates of  $\mathbf{x}$  in the basis  $\mathbf{N}$ .

However, there are vectors which not only are not lying in the null space of  $\mathbf{A}$ , but the closest vector to them in the null space is the zero vector.

# CLOSEST ELEMENT FROM A LINEAR SUBSPACE

$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . Its null space has orthonormal basis  $\mathbf{N} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

■  $\begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = -2\mathbf{N}$ ,  $\begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 10\mathbf{N}$ , - both are in the null space.

■ for  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  the closest vector in the null space is  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

■ for  $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$  the closest vector in the null space is  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ .

# ORTHOGONALITY, DEFINITION (1)

## Definition

Any two vectors,  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ , whose dot product is zero are said to be *orthogonal* to each other.

## Definition

Vector  $\mathbf{y}$ , whose dot product with any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L}$  is zero is orthogonal to the subspace  $\mathcal{L}$

## Definition (equivalent, see Appendix A)

If for a vector  $\mathbf{y}$ , the closest vector to it from a linear subspace  $\mathcal{L}$  is zero vector,  $\mathbf{y}$  is called orthogonal to the subspace  $\mathcal{L}$ .

## ORTHOGONALITY, DEFINITION (2)

### Definition

The space of all vectors  $\mathbf{y}$ , orthogonal to a linear subspace  $\mathcal{L}$  is called *orthogonal complement* of  $\mathcal{L}$  and is denoted as  $\mathcal{L}^\perp$ .

### Definition (equivalent)

The space of all vectors  $\mathbf{y}$ , such that  $\text{dot}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = 0, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L}$  is called *orthogonal complement* of  $\mathcal{L}$ .

Therefore  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L}$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{L}^\perp$  implies  $\text{dot}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}) = 0$ .



Let  $\mathbf{L}$  be an orthonormal basis in a linear subspace  $\mathcal{L}$ . Take vector  $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}$ , where  $\mathbf{x}$  lies in the subspace  $\mathcal{L}$ , and  $\mathbf{y}$  lies in the subspace  $\mathcal{L}^\perp$ .

## Definition

We call such vector  $\mathbf{x}$  an *orthogonal projection* of  $\mathbf{a}$  onto subspace  $\mathcal{L}$ , and such vector  $\mathbf{y}$  an orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{a}$  onto subspace  $\mathcal{L}^\perp$ .

Orthogonal projection maps a vector to the element in the subspace closest to that vector. Orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{a}$  onto  $\mathcal{L}$  can be found as:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^+ \mathbf{a} \quad (14)$$

Since  $\mathbf{L}$  is orthonormal, this is the same as  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{a}$

Since  $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}$ , and  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^+\mathbf{a}$ , we can write:

$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^+\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{y} \quad (15)$$

from which it follows that the projection of  $\mathbf{a}$  onto  $\mathcal{L}^\perp$  can be found as:

$$\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^+)\mathbf{a} \quad (16)$$

where  $\mathbf{I}$  is an identity matrix. Since  $\mathbf{L}$  is orthonormal, this is the same as  $\mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^\top)\mathbf{a}$

## Definition

Let  $\mathcal{N}$  be null space of  $\mathbf{A}$ . Then orthogonal complement  $\mathcal{N}^\perp$  is called *row space* of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

Row space of  $\mathbf{A}$  is the space of all smallest-norm solutions of  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y}$ , for  $\forall \mathbf{y}$ . We will denote row space as  $\text{row}(\mathbf{A})$ .

# VECTORS IN NULL AND ROW SPACES

Given vector  $\mathbf{x}$ , matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  and its null space basis  $\mathbf{N}$ , we check if  $\mathbf{x}$  is in the null space of  $\mathbf{A}$ . The simplest way is to check if  $\mathbf{Ax} = 0$ . But sometimes we may want to avoid computing  $\mathbf{Ax}$ , for example if the number of elements of  $\mathbf{A}$  is much larger than the number of elements of  $\mathbf{N}$ .

If  $\mathbf{x}$  is in the null space of  $\mathbf{A}$ , it will have zero projection onto the row space of  $\mathbf{A}$ . This gives us the condition we can check:

$$(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{NN}^\top)\mathbf{x} = 0 \quad (17)$$

By the same logic, condition for being in the row space is as follows:

$$\mathbf{NN}^\top \mathbf{x} = 0 \quad (18)$$

Given a matrix  $\mathbf{A}$  find all linear combinations of its columns:  
 $\mathcal{C} = \{\mathbf{y} : \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{Ax}, \forall \mathbf{x}\}.$

It can be re-formulated as follows: find all elements of the *column space* of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

## Definition - column space

*Column space* of  $\mathbf{A}$  is the set of all outputs of the matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , for all possible inputs.

We will denote column space as  $\text{col}(\mathbf{A})$ . It is often called an *image* of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

The problem of finding orthonormal basis in the column space of a matrix is often called *orthonormalization* of that matrix. Hence in MATLAB and Python/Scipy the function that does it is called `orth`:

- `C = orth(A).`

- `C = scipy.linalg.orth(A).`

Let  $\mathbf{A}$  be a square matrix, a map from  $\mathbb{X} = \mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{Y} = \mathbb{R}^n$ . Notice that if it has a non-trivial null space, it follows that multiple unique inputs are being mapped by it to the same output:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{y} &= \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_r = \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}_r + \mathbf{x}_n), \\ \mathbf{x}_r &\in \text{row}(\mathbf{A}) \\ \forall \mathbf{x}_n &\in \text{null}(\mathbf{A})\end{aligned}\tag{19}$$

In fact, if null space of  $\mathbf{A}$  has  $k$  dimensions, it implies that an  $k$ -dimensional subspace of  $\mathbb{X}$  is mapped to a single element of  $\mathbb{Y}$ .

It follows that in this case the dimensionality of the column space could not exceed  $n - k$ .

Given vector  $\mathbf{y}$  and matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , let us find  $\mathbf{y}_c$  - projection of  $\mathbf{y}$  onto the column space of  $\mathbf{A}$ .

Since  $\mathbf{y}_c \in \text{col}(\mathbf{A})$ , we can find such  $\mathbf{x}$  that  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}_c$ ; so, the problem is to minimize the residual  $e = \|\mathbf{y}_c - \mathbf{y}\|$  or equivalently  $e = \|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}\|$ , which is least squares problem:  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^+\mathbf{y}$ . So:

$$\mathbf{y}_c = \mathbf{AA}^+\mathbf{y} \in \text{col}(\mathbf{A}) \quad (20)$$

Remember that computing the pseudoinverse is based on SVD decomposition, same as finding a basis in the null space or the column space, so in terms of computational expense, all projections we discussed are similar.



Similarly we can define a projector onto the row space. Given vector  $\mathbf{x}$  and matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , let us find projector of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto the row space of  $\mathbf{A}$ :

$$\mathbf{x}_r = \mathbf{A}^+ \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \in \text{row}(\mathbf{A}) \quad (21)$$

You can think of this in the following terms: first we find output  $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$ , then we find the smallest norm vector that produces this same output; this vector 1) has the same row space projection (because output is the same), 2) has zero null space projection. Hence it is the row space projector of  $\mathbf{x}$ .

Notice that we implicitly used the fact that columns of  $\mathbf{A}^+$  lie in the row space of  $\mathbf{A}$ . We will prove this fact later. Additionally, we will prove that row space of  $\mathbf{A}$  is equivalent to the column space of  $\mathbf{A}^\top$ .

The subspace, orthogonal to the column space is called *left null space*.

## Definition

Space of all vectors  $\mathbf{y}$  orthogonal to the columns of  $\mathbf{A}$  is called *left null space*:  $\mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{A} = 0$

You can think of left null space as a space of vectors that not only cannot be produced (as an output) by the operator  $\mathbf{A}$ , but the closest vector to them that can be produced is the zero vector.

Notice that  $\mathbf{y}^\top \mathbf{A} = 0$  implies  $\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{y} = 0$ , meaning that left null space of  $\mathbf{A}$  is equivalent to the null space of  $\mathbf{A}^\top$ .

If we want to project vector  $\mathbf{y}$  onto the left null space of  $\mathbf{A}$ , we project it onto the column space, and subtract the result from  $\mathbf{y}$ :

$$\mathbf{y}_l = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^+) \mathbf{y} \in \text{left null}(\mathbf{A}) \quad (22)$$

If  $\mathbf{C}$  is an orthonormal basis in the column space of  $\mathbf{A}$ , the projection can be found the following way:

$$\mathbf{y}_l = (\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{C}\mathbf{C}^\top) \mathbf{y} \in \text{left null}(\mathbf{A}) \quad (23)$$

- Minimum Norm Solutions, Math 484: Nonlinear Programming, Mikhail Lavrov
- Orthogonality, Math 484: Nonlinear Programming, Mikhail Lavrov
- Data Driven Science & Engineering. Machine Learning, Dynamical Systems, and Control, Steven L. Brunton, J. Nathan Kutz, chapter Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

- Matrix  $\mathbf{M}$  is orthonormal and square, prove that  $\mathbf{M}^\top = \mathbf{M}^{-1}$ .
- Find minimum of  $\|\mathbf{Ax} - \mathbf{y}\|_2$  when columns of  $\mathbf{A}$  are not linearly independent.
- Given an equation  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{y}$  with a square matrix  $\mathbf{A}$ , prove that: either that equation has an exact solution for any  $\mathbf{y}$  or a related homogeneous equation  $\mathbf{Ax} = 0$  has a non-trivial solution.

Lecture slides are available via Github, links are on Moodle:

[github.com/SergeiSa/Computational-Intelligence-2025](https://github.com/SergeiSa/Computational-Intelligence-2025)



We have two definitions of orthogonality of a vector and a subspace:

- 1 Vector  $\mathbf{y}$ , whose dot product with any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{L}$  is orthogonal to the subspace  $\mathcal{L}$
- 2 If for a vector  $\mathbf{y}$ , the closest vector to it from a linear subspace  $\mathcal{L}$  is zero vector,  $\mathbf{y}$  is called orthogonal to the subspace  $\mathcal{L}$ .

Let us prove their equivalence. First we show that 1) implies 2). Let  $\mathbf{L}$  be orthonormal basis in  $\mathcal{L}$ . To find the closest element  $\mathbf{y}^*$  of  $\mathcal{L}$  to  $\mathbf{y}$ , we need to solve the least squares problem  $\mathbf{L}\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y}$ , and multiply the solution by  $\mathbf{L}$ :

$$\mathbf{z}_{LS} = \mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0} \quad (24)$$

$$\mathbf{y}^* = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{z}_{LS} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0} \quad (25)$$

Second, let us prove that 2) implies 1). Given that  $\mathbf{y}^* = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{z}_{LS} = \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$  we need to prove that  $\mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$ . We start by multiplying the last equation by  $\mathbf{L}^\top$ :

$$\mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0} \tag{26}$$

$$\mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{L}\mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0} \tag{27}$$

$$\mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{since } \mathbf{L}^\top \mathbf{L} = \mathbf{I}. \quad \square \tag{28}$$