

# Linear Systems

## Orthogonality

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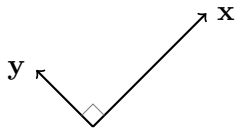
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## References

- ▶ S Boyd, Applied Linear Algebra: Chapters 5.
- ▶ G Strang, Linear Algebra: Chapters 3.

# Orthogonality

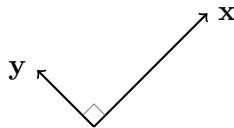
- ▶ Two vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are orthogonal if  $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = 0$ .



- ▶ If we have a set of non-zero vectors  $\mathcal{V} = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r\}$ , we say this a set of mutually orthogonal vectors, if and only if,  $\mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{v}_j = 0$ ,  $1 \leq i, j \leq r$  and  $i \neq j$ .  $\mathcal{V}$  is also a linearly independent set of vectors.
- ▶ When the length of the vectors is 1, it is called an **orthonormal** set of vectors.
- ▶ A set of orthonormal vectors  $V$  also form an **orthonormal basis** of the subspace  $\text{span}(\mathcal{V})$ .

# Orthogonality

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- ▶ A set of orthonormal vectors  $V$  also form an **orthonormal basis** of the subspace  $\text{span}(\mathcal{V})$ .

Is  $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$  an orthonormal set?. If no, how will you make it one?

## Orthogonal Subspaces

- ▶ Two subspaces  $\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W}$  are orthogonal if every vector in one subspace is orthogonal to every vector in the other subspace.

$$\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w} = 0, \quad \forall \mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{V} \text{ and } \forall \mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{W}$$

Both subspaces  $\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W}$  are from the same space, e.g.  $\mathbb{R}^n$

- ▶ Consider two subspaces  $\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ , such that  $\mathcal{V} + \mathcal{W} = \mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $\mathcal{W}$  are orthogonal subspaces, then  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $\mathcal{W}$  are **orthogonal complements** of each other.

$$\mathcal{W} \perp \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathcal{V}^\perp = \mathcal{W} \text{ or } \mathcal{W}^\perp = \mathcal{V}; \quad (\mathcal{V}^\perp)^\perp = \mathcal{V}$$

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$$\mathcal{V} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}^T, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}^T \right\} \text{ and } \mathcal{W} = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}^T \right\}. \text{ Is } \mathcal{V}^\perp = \mathcal{W}? \text{ If we add } \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}^T \text{ to } \mathcal{W}, \text{ is } \mathcal{V}^\perp = \mathcal{W} \text{ still true?}$$

# Relationship between the Four Fundamental Spaces

- ▶  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A}), \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^T) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$  are orthogonal complements.

$$\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A}) \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^T)$$

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- ▶  $\dim \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A}) + \dim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^T) = m \implies \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A}) + \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^T) = \mathbb{R}^m$
- ▶  $\dim \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A}^T) + \dim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = n \implies \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A}^T) + \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}) = \mathbb{R}^n$

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$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & -4 & 1 & -1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & -4 & -2 & -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

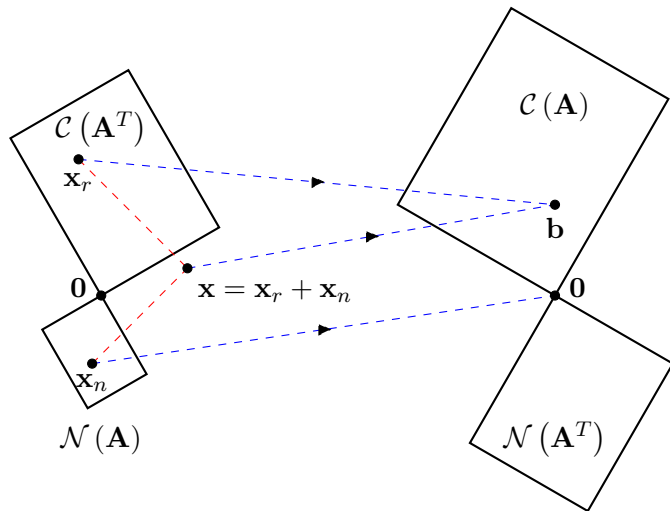
$$\mathbf{E} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{E}_1 \\ \mathbf{E}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & 2 & 1 & 0 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{R}_1 \\ \mathbf{R}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & -1 & -4 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 & -5 \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Is  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A}) \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^T)$ ?
- Is  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A}^T) \perp \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$ ?
- What is  $\dim \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A})$ ,  $\dim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A}^T)$ ,  $\dim \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A}^T)$ ,  $\dim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{A})$ ?



# Relationship between the Four Fundamental Spaces



- ▶  $\mathbf{x}_r$  and  $\mathbf{x}_n$  are the components of  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  in the row space and nullspace of  $A$ .

- ▶ **Nullspace**  $\mathcal{N}(A)$  is mapped to  $0$ .

$$A\mathbf{x}_n = 0$$

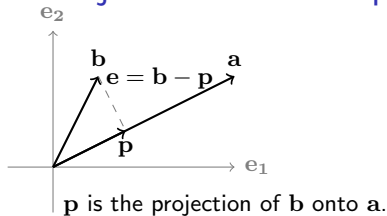
- ▶ **Row space**  $\mathcal{C}(A^T)$  is mapped to the **column space**  $\mathcal{C}(A)$ .

$$A\mathbf{x}_r = A(\mathbf{x}_r + \mathbf{x}_n) = A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$$

- ▶ The mapping from the **row space** to the **column space** is invertible, i.e. every  $\mathbf{x}_r$  is mapped to a unique element in  $\mathcal{C}(A)$

- ▶ What sort of mapping does  $A^T$  do?

# Orthogonal Projection onto Subspaces



$\mathbf{P} = \frac{\mathbf{a}\mathbf{a}^T}{\mathbf{a}^T\mathbf{a}}$  is the projection matrix onto the line  $\mathbf{a}$ .

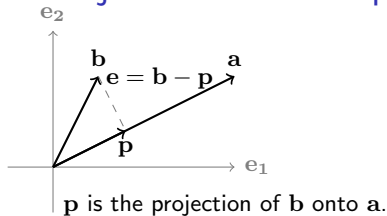
$\|\mathbf{e}\|$  is the distance of the point  $\mathbf{b}$  from the line along  $\mathbf{a}$ . This distance is shortest when,  $\mathbf{e} \perp \mathbf{a}$ .

$$\mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{b} - \alpha\mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} - \alpha \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a} = 0$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} \implies \mathbf{p} = \frac{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}$$

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$\mathbf{P} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}}$  is the projection matrix onto the line  $\mathbf{a}$ .

Find the orthogonal projection matrix associated  $\mathbf{a}$ , and find the projection of  $\mathbf{b}$  on to  $\text{span}(\{\mathbf{a}\})$ .

•  $\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}; \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

•  $\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}; \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$

•  $\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}; \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -4 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}$

## Orthogonal Projection onto Subspaces

- ▶ We can also project vectors onto other subspaces, which is the generalization of the projection to a 1 dimensional subspace, i.e. the line.
- ▶ Consider a vector  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and a subspace  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  spanned by the orthonormal basis  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r\}$ .

$\mathbf{b}_{\mathcal{S}}$  – the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{b}$  onto  $\mathcal{S}$  is given by the following,

$$\mathbf{b}_{\mathcal{S}} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T \mathbf{b}; \quad \mathbf{U} = [\mathbf{u}_1 \quad \mathbf{u}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{u}_r]$$

$$\text{Projection matrix } \mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^T$$

- ▶ A projection matrix is **idempotent**, i.e.  $\mathbf{P}^2 = \mathbf{P}$ . What does this mean in terms of projecting a vector on to a subspace?

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Find the orthogonal projection matrix associated  $\mathcal{U} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ , and find the projection

of  $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$  on to  $\text{span}(\mathcal{U})$ .

## Orthogonal Projection onto Subspaces

- ▶ Consider two matrices  $\mathbf{U}_1, \mathbf{U}_2$  whose columns form an orthonormal basis of the subspace  $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{U}_1) = \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{U}_2)$ .
- ▶ The projection matrix onto the subspace  $\mathcal{S}$ ,  $\mathbf{U}_1 \mathbf{U}_1^T = \mathbf{U}_2 \mathbf{U}_2^T$ . We get the same projection matrix irrespective of which orthonormal basis one uses.

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Let  $\mathbf{U}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{U}_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ . Find the corresponding projection matrices.

## Orthogonal Projection onto Subspaces

- ▶ Two subspaces  $\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathcal{V}$  are said to be **complementary subspaces** of  $\mathcal{V}$ , when

$$\mathcal{X} + \mathcal{Y} = \mathcal{V} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{X} \cap \mathcal{Y} = \mathbf{0}$$

- ▶ When two subspaces  $\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$  are complementary, then any vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  can be uniquely represented as  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$ , where  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathcal{V}$  and  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathcal{W}$  and  $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$  are the components of  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $\mathcal{V}$  and  $\mathcal{W}$  respectively.
- ▶ When  $\mathcal{V} \perp \mathcal{W}$ , then  $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w} = 0$ ;  $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$  are orthogonal components.
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- ▶ If  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}$  is the orthogonal projection matrix onto  $\mathcal{S}$ , then what is the projection matrix onto  $\mathcal{S}^\perp$ ?

Let  $\mathbf{u} = [1 \ 1]^T$ . Find out the projection matrices  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{u}}$  and  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{u}^\perp}$ ? Verify that

$$\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{u}^\perp} = \frac{\mathbf{u}^\perp (\mathbf{u}^\perp)^T}{(\mathbf{u}^\perp)^T \mathbf{u}^\perp}.$$

## Orthogonal Projection onto Subspaces

- ▶ An orthogonal projection matrix  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}$  onto a subspace  $\mathcal{S}$  represents a linear mapping,  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}} : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ . What are the four fundamental subspaces of  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}$ ?

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$$\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}) = \mathcal{S}; \quad \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}) = \mathcal{S}^{\perp}$$

$$\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}^T) = \mathcal{S}^{\perp}; \quad \mathcal{C}(\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}^T) = \mathcal{S}$$

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Let  $\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{-2}{\sqrt{6}} \end{bmatrix}$ . Find the orthogonal projection matrix  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{U}}$  onto  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{U})$ . Describe the four fundamental subspaces of  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{U}}$ .

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Let  $\mathbf{U} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{-2}{\sqrt{6}} \end{bmatrix}$ . Find the orthogonal projection matrix  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{U}}$  onto  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{U})$ . Describe the four fundamental subspaces of  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{U}}$ .

Now find  $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{U}^{\perp}}$  and describe its four fundamental subspaces.

## Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization

- ▶ Given a linearly independent set of vectors  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n\}$ , where  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , how can we find an orthonormal basis  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$  for  $\text{span}(\mathcal{B})$ ?  $\longrightarrow$  **Gram-Schmidt Algorithm**
- ▶ Its an iterative procedure that can also detect if a given set  $\mathcal{B}$  is linearly dependent.

**Data:**  $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{i=1}^n$

**Result:** Return an orthonormal basis  $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}_{i=1}^n$  if the set  $\mathcal{B}$  is linearly independent, else return nothing.

**for**  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  **do**

1.  $\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_i = \mathbf{x}_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} (\mathbf{u}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i) \mathbf{u}_j \longrightarrow$  **(Orthogonalization step);**
2. **If**  $\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_i = 0$  **then return;**
3.  $\mathbf{u}_i = \tilde{\mathbf{q}}_i / \|\tilde{\mathbf{q}}_i\| \longrightarrow$  **(Normalization step);**

**end**

**return**  $\{\mathbf{u}_i\}_{i=1}^n$ ;

## Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization

- The algorithm can also be conveniently represented in a matrix form.

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

$$\text{Let } \mathbf{U}_1 = 0_{m \times 1} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{U}_i = [\mathbf{u}_1 \quad \mathbf{u}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{u}_{i-1}] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times (i-1)}$$

$$\mathbf{U}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{x}_i \\ \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{x}_i \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{u}_{i-1}^T \mathbf{x}_i \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{U}_i \mathbf{U}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i = \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} (\mathbf{u}_j^T \mathbf{x}_i) \mathbf{u}_j$$

$$\mathbf{u}_i = \frac{(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{U}_i \mathbf{U}_i^T) \mathbf{x}_i}{\|(\mathbf{I} - \mathbf{U}_i \mathbf{U}_i^T) \mathbf{x}_i\|}$$



# QR Decomposition

- ▶ Gram-Schmidt procedure leads us to another form of matrix decomposition – **QR decomposition**.
- ▶ Given a matrix  $\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{a}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , whose columns form a linearly independent set. Gram-Schmidt algorithm produces an orthonormal basis  $\{\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots, \mathbf{q}_n\}$  for  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A})$ .

$$\mathbf{q}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{a}_1}{r_1} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{q}_i = \frac{\mathbf{a}_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} (\mathbf{q}_j^T \mathbf{a}_i) \mathbf{q}_j}{r_i}$$

where,  $r_1 = \|\mathbf{a}_1\|$  and  $r_i = \left\| \mathbf{a}_i - \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} (\mathbf{q}_j^T \mathbf{a}_i) \mathbf{q}_j \right\|$ .

$$\mathbf{a}_1 = r_1 \mathbf{q}_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{a}_i = r_i \mathbf{q}_i + \sum_{j=1}^{i-1} (\mathbf{q}_j^T \mathbf{a}_i) \mathbf{q}_j$$

$$\mathbf{A} = [\mathbf{a}_1 \ \mathbf{a}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{a}_n] = [\mathbf{q}_1 \ \mathbf{q}_2 \ \dots \ \mathbf{q}_n] \begin{bmatrix} r_1 & \mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_2 & \mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_3 & \dots & \mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{a}_n \\ 0 & r_2 & \mathbf{q}_2^T \mathbf{a}_3 & \dots & \mathbf{q}_2^T \mathbf{a}_n \\ 0 & 0 & r_3 & \dots & \mathbf{q}_3^T \mathbf{a}_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots & r_n \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{R}$$

## QR Decomposition

Find the **QR** factorization for the following, if possible.

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ -4 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 & -7 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & -5 \\ -4 & 1 & 0 & -16 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

# QR Decomposition

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{QR}; \quad \mathbf{A}, \mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}, \quad \mathbf{R} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

- ▶ The columns of  $\mathbf{Q}$  form an orthonormal basis for  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A})$ , and  $\mathbf{R}$  is upper-triangular.
- ▶ Similar to  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{LU}$ ,  $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{QR}$  can be used for used to solve  $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$ .

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{QRx} = \mathbf{b} \implies \mathbf{Rx} = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{b}$$

## QR Decomposition

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$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{QRx} = \mathbf{b} \implies \mathbf{Rx} = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{b}$$

Solve the following through  $\mathbf{LU}$  and  $\mathbf{QR}$  factorization.

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \\ -4 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -2 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{b}$$