

Orthogonality

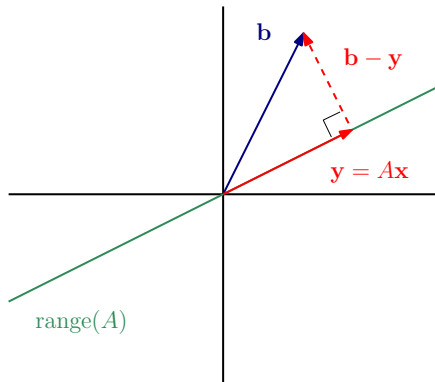
Orthogonality

Normal Equation Revisited

Alternate perspective on the “normal equation”:

$$A^T(\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0} \iff \underbrace{\mathbf{z}^T(\mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x})}_{\text{residual} = \mathbf{r}} = 0 \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{z} \in \mathcal{R}(A),$$

i.e., \mathbf{x} solves the normal equation if and only if the residual is orthogonal to the range of A .



Orthogonal Vectors

Recall that the angle θ between two vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ satisfies

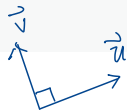
$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} &= \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta \\ \parallel \\ \vec{u}^T \vec{v} \end{aligned}$$

$$\cos(\theta) = \frac{\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 \|\mathbf{v}\|_2}.$$

If $\theta = \pm \pi/2$,

$\cos(\theta) = 0$, so

$$\vec{u}^T \vec{v} = 0$$



Definition 1

- Two vectors $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are **orthogonal** if $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v} = 0$.
- Vectors $\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots, \mathbf{q}_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are **orthogonal** if $\mathbf{q}_i^T \mathbf{q}_j = 0$ for all $i \neq j$.
- Vectors $\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots, \mathbf{q}_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are **orthonormal** if $\mathbf{q}_i^T \mathbf{q}_j = \delta_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 0, & i \neq j \\ 1, & i = j \end{cases}$

i.e., pairwise orthogonal

Notation. (Kronecker delta function)

$$\delta_{i,j} = \begin{cases} 1, & i = j \\ 0, & i \neq j \end{cases}$$

perpendicularity

unit length

$$\vec{q}_i^T \vec{q}_i = 1 = \|\vec{q}_i\|_2^2 \Rightarrow \|\vec{q}_i\|_2 = 1$$

i.e., \vec{q}_i is unit.

Matrices with Orthogonal Columns

Let $Q = [\mathbf{q}_1 \mid \mathbf{q}_2 \mid \cdots \mid \mathbf{q}_k] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$. Note that

Note: (i,j) -entry of $Q^T Q = \vec{q}_i^T \vec{q}_j$

$$Q^T Q = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1^T \\ \mathbf{q}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{q}_k^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{q}_k \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{q}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{q}_1^T \mathbf{q}_k \\ \mathbf{q}_2^T \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_2^T \mathbf{q}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{q}_2^T \mathbf{q}_k \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{q}_k^T \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_k^T \mathbf{q}_2 & \cdots & \mathbf{q}_k^T \mathbf{q}_k \end{bmatrix}.$$

Therefore,

$\vec{q}_i^T \vec{q}_j = 0 \Leftrightarrow$ all off-diagonal terms are 0's.

- $\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_k$ are orthogonal. $\Leftrightarrow Q^T Q$ is a $k \times k$ diagonal matrix.
- $\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_k$ are orthonormal. $\Leftrightarrow Q^T Q$ is the $k \times k$ identity matrix.

because $\vec{q}_i^T \vec{q}_i = 1$.

Matrices with Orthonormal Columns

$$\vec{q}_i^T \vec{q}_j = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

Theorem 2

Let $Q = [\mathbf{q}_1 \mid \mathbf{q}_2 \mid \cdots \mid \mathbf{q}_k] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}$ and suppose that $\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_k$ are orthonormal. Then

- 1 $Q^T Q = I \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}$;
- 2 $\|Q\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^k$; (2-norm preservation)
- 3 $\|Q\|_2 = 1$. (exercise; recall the def'n of matrix p-norm & use ②)

Proof of ②

$$\|Q\vec{x}\|_2^2 = (Q\vec{x})^T (Q\vec{x}) = \vec{x}^T \underbrace{Q^T Q}_{=I}_{\text{by ①}} \vec{x} = \vec{x}^T \vec{x} = \|\vec{x}\|_2^2$$

Orthogonal Matrices

Definition 3

We say that $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is an **orthogonal matrix** if $Q^T Q = I \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$.

Square matrix

The columns of Q are orthonormal.

- A square matrix with orthogonal columns is not, in general, an orthogonal matrix!

e.g.

$$\cdot I = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- P permutation matrix.

\vec{r}_1
↓

\vec{r}_2
↓

$$\cdot R_\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{r}_1^T \vec{r}_2 = \cos \theta (-\sin \theta)$$

$$+ \sin \theta \cdot \cos \theta = 0$$

$$\|\vec{r}_1\|_2^2 = \cos^2 \theta + \sin^2 \theta = 1$$

$$\|\vec{r}_2\|_2^2 = \sin^2 \theta + \cos^2 \theta = 1$$

Properties of Orthogonal Matrices

$$Q^T Q = I$$

Theorem 4

Let $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be orthogonal. Then

- 1 $Q^{-1} = Q^T$;
- 2 Q^T is also an orthogonal matrix;
- 3 $\kappa_2(Q) = 1$; the best that we can hope for!
- 4 For any $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\|AQ\|_2 = \|A\|_2$;
- 5 if $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is another orthogonal matrix, then PQ is also orthogonal.

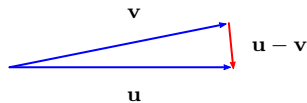
$$(PQ)^T(PQ) = Q^T \underbrace{P^T P}_I Q = Q^T Q = I$$

Why Do We Like Orthogonal Vectors?

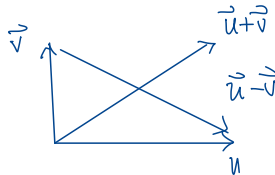
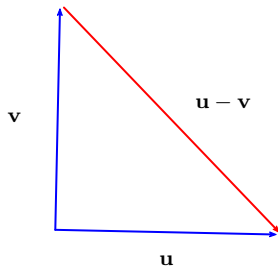
- If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are orthogonal, then

$$\|\mathbf{u} \pm \mathbf{v}\|_2^2 = \|\vec{u}\|_2^2 + \|\vec{v}\|_2^2 \pm 2\vec{u}^T\vec{v} \quad (\text{Pythagorean theorem})$$

- Without orthogonality, it is possible that $\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|_2$ is much smaller than $\|\mathbf{u}\|_2$ and $\|\mathbf{v}\|_2$.
- The addition and subtraction of orthogonal vectors are guaranteed to be well-conditioned.



Catastrophic cancellation.

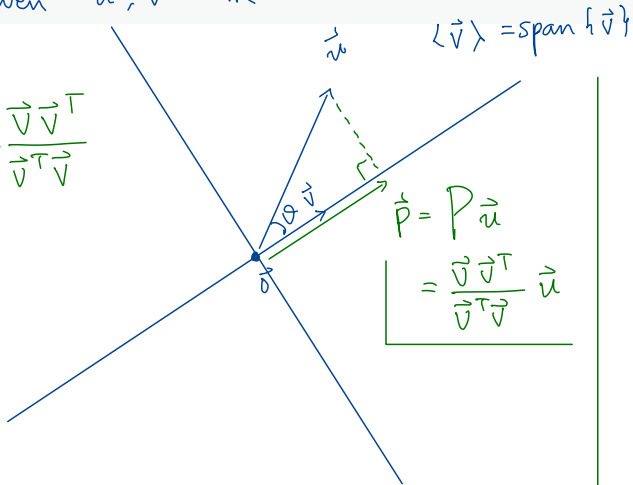


Appendix: Projection and Reflection

(Review of Linear Algebra)

Given $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$P = \frac{\vec{v} \vec{v}^T}{\vec{v}^T \vec{v}}$$



$\langle \vec{v} \rangle^\perp = \text{orthogonal complement of } \langle \vec{v} \rangle$.

Today: $\|\cdot\|$ for $\|\cdot\|_2$

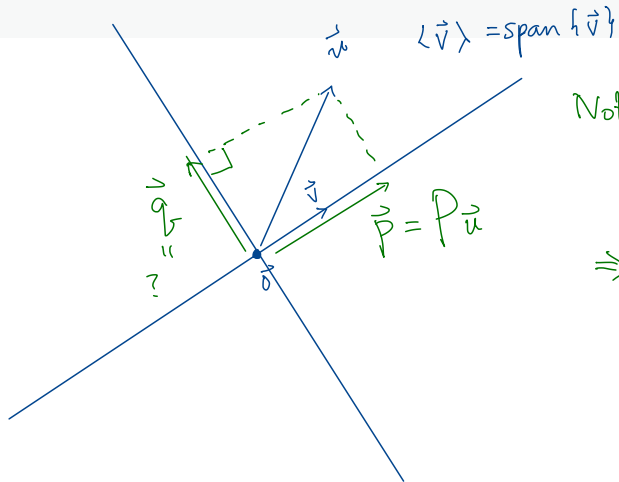
- $\|\vec{p}\| = \|\vec{u}\| \cos \theta$.
- $\vec{p} = \|\vec{p}\|$ (unit vector in the dir. of \vec{v})

$$= \|\vec{p}\| \frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|}$$

$$= \frac{\|\vec{u}\| \cos \theta \|\vec{v}\|}{\|\vec{v}\|} \frac{\vec{v}}{\|\vec{v}\|}$$

$$= \frac{\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta}{\|\vec{v}\|^2} \vec{v}$$

$$= \frac{\vec{u}^T \vec{v}}{\vec{v}^T \vec{v}} \vec{v} = \vec{v} \frac{\vec{v}^T \vec{u}}{\vec{v}^T \vec{v}} = P \vec{u}$$



$$\langle \vec{v} \rangle = \text{span} \{ \vec{v} \}$$

Note that

$$\vec{p} + \vec{q} = \vec{u}$$

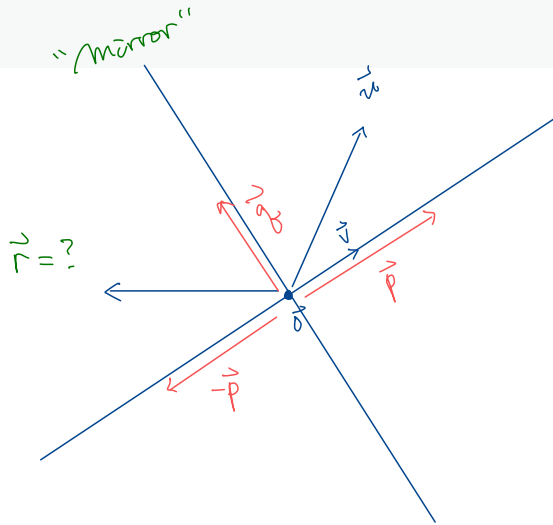
$$\Rightarrow \vec{q} = \vec{u} - \vec{p}$$

$$= \vec{u} - P\vec{u}$$

$$= \underbrace{(\mathbf{I} - P)}_{!!} \vec{u}$$

\mathcal{Q}

$\langle \vec{v} \rangle^\perp = \text{orthogonal complement of } \langle \vec{v} \rangle.$



$$\langle \vec{v} \rangle = \text{span} \{ \vec{v} \}$$

$$\vec{r} = \vec{q} + (-\vec{p})$$

$$= (\mathbb{I} - P)\vec{u} - P\vec{u}$$

$$= \underbrace{(\mathbb{I} - 2P)}_{\substack{\parallel \\ \mathbb{R}}} \vec{u}$$

$\langle \vec{v} \rangle^\perp = \text{orthogonal complement of } \langle \vec{v} \rangle.$

Projection and Reflection Operators

Let $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ be nonzero vectors.

- Projection of \mathbf{u} onto $\langle \mathbf{v} \rangle = \text{span}(\mathbf{v})$:

$$\frac{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}} \mathbf{v} = \underbrace{\left(\frac{\mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T}{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}} \right)}_{=: P} \mathbf{u} =: P \mathbf{u}.$$

- Projection of \mathbf{u} onto $\langle \mathbf{v} \rangle^\perp$, the orthogonal complement of $\langle \mathbf{v} \rangle$:

$$\mathbf{u} - \frac{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}} \mathbf{v} = \left(I - \frac{\mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T}{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}} \right) \mathbf{u} =: (I - P) \mathbf{u}.$$

- Reflection of \mathbf{u} across $\langle \mathbf{v} \rangle^\perp$:

$$\mathbf{u} - 2 \frac{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}} \mathbf{v} = \left(I - 2 \frac{\mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T}{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}} \right) \mathbf{u} =: (I - 2P) \mathbf{u}.$$

Projection and Reflection Operators (cont')

Summary: for given $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, a nonzero vector, let

$$P = \frac{\mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}^T}{\mathbf{v}^T\mathbf{v}} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}.$$

Then the following matrices carry out geometric transformations

- Projection onto $\langle \mathbf{v} \rangle$: P
- Projection onto $\langle \mathbf{v} \rangle^\perp$: $I - P$
- Reflection across $\langle \mathbf{v} \rangle^\perp$: $I - 2P$

Note. If \mathbf{v} were a unit vector, the definition of P simplifies to $P = \mathbf{v}\mathbf{v}^T$.