

# Orthogonality of the Four Subspaces

Rohit Budhiraja, IITK

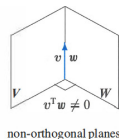
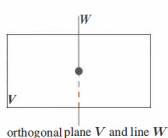
Applied Linear Algebra for Wireless Communications

# Recap and agenda for today's class

- Discussed the following in last lecture
  - Linear independence, column and row spaces
- Discuss the concept of orthogonal subspaces, and projection today
  - Chapter 4.1 and 4.2 of the book

# Orthogonal subspaces (1)

- Recall two vectors  $\mathbf{v}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  are orthogonal when  $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w} = 0$
- Two subspaces  $\mathbf{V}$  and  $\mathbf{W}$  of a vector space are orthogonal if
  - $\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w} = 0$  for all  $\mathbf{v}$  in  $\mathbf{V}$  and  $\mathbf{w}$  in  $\mathbf{W}$



- Orthogonality is impossible when  $\dim \mathbf{V} + \dim \mathbf{W} > \dim (\text{whole space})$
- Every vector  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $N(A)$  is perpendicular to every row of  $A$ , because  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} \text{row 1} \\ \vdots \\ \text{row } m \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

← (row 1) ·  $\mathbf{x}$  is zero

← (row  $m$ ) ·  $\mathbf{x}$  is zero

## Orthogonal subspaces (2)

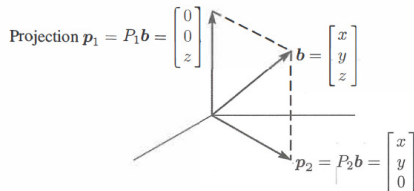
- Nullspace  $N(A)$  and the row space  $C(A^T)$  are orthogonal subspaces of  $\mathbf{R}^n$
- Every vector  $\mathbf{y}$  in  $N(A^T)$  is perpendicular to every column of  $A$

$$C(A) \perp N(A^T) \qquad A^T \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} (\text{column } 1)^T \\ \vdots \\ (\text{column } n)^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} y \\ \vdots \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Left nullspace  $N(A^T)$  and the column space  $C(A)$  are orthogonal in  $\mathbf{R}^m$
- **Orthogonal complement** of a subspace  $\mathbf{V}$ 
  - Contains every vector that is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{V}$ , and denoted as  $V^\perp$
- Nullspace is the orthogonal complement of the row space
- Left nullspace is the orthogonal complement of the column space

# Projections (1)

- What are the projections of  $\mathbf{b} = (x, y, z)$  onto the  $z$  axis and the  $xy$  plane?



- What matrices  $P_1$  and  $P_2$  produce those projections onto a line and a plane

Onto the  $z$  axis :  $P_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$     Onto the  $xy$  axis :  $P_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$

## Projections (2)

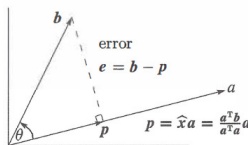
- Projections on  $z$  axis and  $xv$  plane are given respectively as

$$\mathbf{p}_1 = P_1 \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ z \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{p}_2 = P_2 \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The vectors give  $\mathbf{p}_1 + \mathbf{p}_2 = \mathbf{b}$ . Matrices give  $P_1 + P_2 = \mathbf{I}$
- More than just orthogonal, line and plane are orthogonal complements
  - Their dimensions add to  $1 + 2 = 3$
- Every vector  $\mathbf{b}$  in the whole space is the sum of its parts in the two subspaces

# Projection Onto a Line (1)

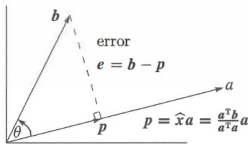
- To project any  $\mathbf{b}$  onto a line



- A line goes through the origin in the direction of  $\mathbf{a} = (a_1, \dots, a_m)$
- Along that line, we want the point  $\mathbf{p}$  closest to  $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$
- Projection  $\mathbf{p}$  is a multiple of  $\mathbf{a}$  i.e.,  $\mathbf{p} = \hat{x}\mathbf{a}$ , which we need to calculate
- Line from  $\mathbf{b}$  to  $\mathbf{p}$  is orthogonal to the vector  $\mathbf{a}$ 
  - This is the dotted line marked  $\mathbf{e} = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{b} - \hat{x}\mathbf{a}$

# Projection Onto a Line (2)

- To project any  $\mathbf{b}$  onto a line



$$\mathbf{a}^T (\mathbf{b} - \hat{x}\mathbf{a}) = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} - \hat{x} \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a} = 0$$

$$\hat{x} = \frac{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}}$$

$$\mathbf{p} = \hat{x}\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}\hat{x} = \frac{\mathbf{a}\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} = \mathbf{P}\mathbf{b}$$

- Here  $\mathbf{P} = \frac{\mathbf{a}\mathbf{a}^T}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}}$  is the projection matrix



# Projection Onto a Subspace (1)

- Project  $\mathbf{b}$  to a space spanned by  $n$  line. ind. vectors  $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n$  in  $\mathbf{R}^m$ 
  - Find the combination  $\mathbf{p} = \hat{x}_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + \dots + \hat{x}_n \mathbf{a}_n$  closest to a given vector  $\mathbf{b}$
- If  $A = [\mathbf{a}_1 \dots, \mathbf{a}_n]$  then  $\mathbf{p} = A\hat{\mathbf{x}}$  where  $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = (\hat{x}_1, \dots, \hat{x}_n)$
- Error vector  $(\mathbf{b} - A\hat{\mathbf{x}})$  now should be orthogonal to each vector  $\mathbf{a}_n$

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{a}_1^T (\mathbf{b} - A\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = 0 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_n^T (\mathbf{b} - A\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = 0 \end{array} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{bmatrix} -\mathbf{a}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ -\mathbf{a}_n^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b} - A\hat{\mathbf{x}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- We accordingly have

$$\begin{aligned} A^T (\mathbf{b} - A\hat{\mathbf{x}}) &= \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow A^T A \hat{\mathbf{x}} = A^T \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{p} = A\hat{\mathbf{x}} &= A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \mathbf{p} = P\mathbf{b} \text{ where } P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T \end{aligned}$$

## Example of projection calculation (1)

- If  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  then calculate  $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ ,  $\mathbf{p}$  and  $P$
- We have

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } A^T \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Recall that we have  $A^T A \hat{\mathbf{x}} = A^T \mathbf{b}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 \\ 3 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}_1 \\ \hat{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ gives } \hat{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}_1 \\ \hat{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Example of projection calculation (2)

- We have  $p = \hat{x}_1 \mathbf{a}_1 + \hat{x}_2 \mathbf{a}_2$

$$\mathbf{p} = 5 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} - 3 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{The error is } \mathbf{e} = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{p} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

- We can calculate

$$(A^T A)^{-1} = \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -3 \\ -5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{which gives } P = \frac{1}{6} \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \\ -1 & 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Some facts about projection matrix $P$

- Matrix  $P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$  is deceptively
- If we try to split  $(A^T A)^{-1}$  into  $A^{-1}$  times  $(A^T)^{-1}$
- If you make that mistake, and then  $P = A A^{-1} (A^T)^{-1} A^T = I$ 
  - This is wrong because matrix  $A$  is rectangular, and it has no inverse
- $A^T A$  is invertible if and only if  $A$  has linearly independent columns