

Linear Algebra and Random Processes

Orthogonality

Sivakumar Balasubramanian

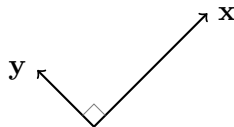
Department of Bioengineering
Christian Medical College, Bagayam
Vellore 632002

References

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

Orthogonality

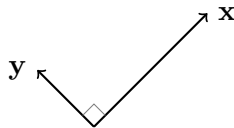
- ▶ Two vectors $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are orthogonal if $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = 0$.



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

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 \mathcal{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.

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

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.

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

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

Relationship between the Four Fundamental Spaces

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

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

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

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

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

Relationship between the Four Fundamental Spaces

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

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

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

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

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

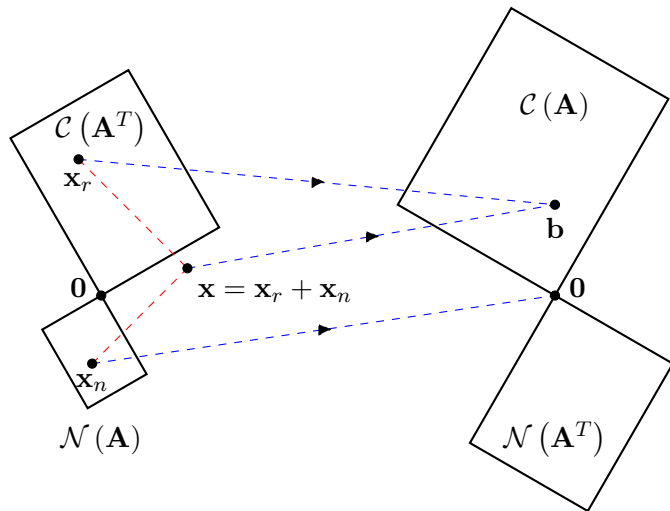
$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 2 & -4 & 1 & -1 & -2 \\ -1 & 2 & 1 & 1 & 2 \\ 2 & -4 & -2 & -2 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

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

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

- 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 \mathbf{A} .

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

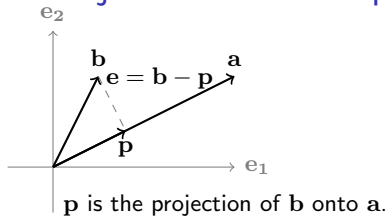
$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_n = \mathbf{0}$$

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

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

- ▶ 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 $\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{A})$
- ▶ What sort of mapping does \mathbf{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} .

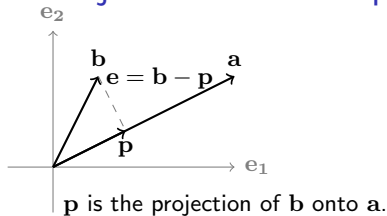
$\|\mathbf{e}\|$ is the distance of the point \mathbf{b} from the line along \mathbf{a} . This distance is shortest when, $\mathbf{e} \perp \mathbf{a}$.

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

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

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

Orthogonal Projection onto Subspaces



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

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

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

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

$\mathbf{P} = \frac{\mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}}$ 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?

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?

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.

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.

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

$$\mathcal{V} + \mathcal{W} = \mathcal{U} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{V} \cap \mathcal{W} = \{\mathbf{0}\}$$

- ▶ 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.
- ▶ If $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}$ is the orthogonal projection matrix onto \mathcal{S} , then what is the projection matrix onto \mathcal{S}^\perp ?

Orthogonal Projection onto Subspaces

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

$$\mathcal{V} + \mathcal{W} = \mathcal{U} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{V} \cap \mathcal{W} = \{\mathbf{0}\}$$

- ▶ 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.
- ▶ 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 $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}$?

$$\mathcal{C}(\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}) =$$

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 $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}$?

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

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 $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}$?

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

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

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 $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}$?

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

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

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 $\mathbf{P}_{\mathbf{U}}$.

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 $\mathbf{P}_{\mathcal{S}}$?

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

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

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

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

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

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \implies \mathbf{R}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{Q}^T\mathbf{b}$$

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 $\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b}$.

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

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

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