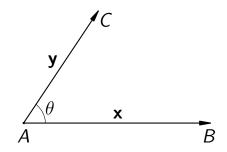
MATH 304 Linear Algebra

Lecture 24: Orthogonal complement. Orthogonal projection.

### **Euclidean structure**

Euclidean structure in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  includes:

- length of a vector:  $|\mathbf{x}|$ ,
- angle between vectors:  $\theta$ ,
- dot product:  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = |\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}| \cos \theta$ .



## Length and distance

Definition. The **length** of a vector  $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is  $\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}.$ 

The **distance** between vectors/points  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  is  $\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\|$ .

Properties of length: $\|\mathbf{x}\| \ge 0$ ,  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0$  only if  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  (positivity) $\|r\mathbf{x}\| = |r| \|\mathbf{x}\|$  (homogeneity) $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \le \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|$  (triangle inequality)

### Scalar product

Definition. The scalar product of vectors  $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n)$  is  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \dots + x_ny_n$ .

Properties of scalar product:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}, & \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \quad \text{only if } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} & (\text{positivity}) \\ \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{x} & (\text{symmetry}) \\ (\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{z} & (\text{distributive law}) \\ (r\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{y} = r(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}) & (\text{homogeneity}) \end{array}$$

In particular,  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$  is a **bilinear** function (i.e., it is both a linear function of  $\mathbf{x}$  and a linear function of  $\mathbf{y}$ ).

# Angle

Cauchy-Schwarz inequality:  $|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \le ||\mathbf{x}|| ||\mathbf{y}||$ .

By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality, for any nonzero vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}}{\|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|}$$
 for a unique  $0 \le \theta \le \pi$ .

 $\theta$  is called the **angle** between the vectors **x** and **y**. The vectors **x** and **y** are said to be **orthogonal** (denoted **x**  $\perp$  **y**) if **x**  $\cdot$  **y** = 0 (i.e., if  $\theta = 90^{\circ}$ ).

## Orthogonality

Definition 1. Vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are said to be orthogonal (denoted  $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ ) if  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$ .

Definition 2. A vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be orthogonal to a nonempty set  $Y \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  (denoted  $\mathbf{x} \perp Y$ ) if  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$  for any  $\mathbf{y} \in Y$ .

Definition 3. Nonempty sets  $X, Y \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  are said to be **orthogonal** (denoted  $X \perp Y$ ) if  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$ for any  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in Y$ . **Proposition 1** If  $X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are orthogonal sets then either they are disjoint or  $X \cap Y = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ .

 $\textit{Proof:} \quad \mathbf{v} \in X \cap Y \implies \mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{v} \implies \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0} \implies \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}.$ 

**Proposition 2** Let V be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and S be a spanning set for V. Then for any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$\mathbf{x} \perp S \implies \mathbf{x} \perp V.$$

*Proof:* Any  $\mathbf{v} \in V$  is represented as  $\mathbf{v} = a_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + a_k \mathbf{v}_k$ , where  $\mathbf{v}_i \in S$  and  $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$ . If  $\mathbf{x} \perp S$  then

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{v} = a_1(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1) + \cdots + a_k(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{v}_k) = 0 \implies \mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{v}_k$$

*Example.* The vector  $\mathbf{v} = (1, 1, 1)$  is orthogonal to the plane spanned by vectors  $\mathbf{w}_1 = (2, -3, 1)$  and  $\mathbf{w}_2 = (0, 1, -1)$  (because  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}_1 = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}_2 = 0$ ).

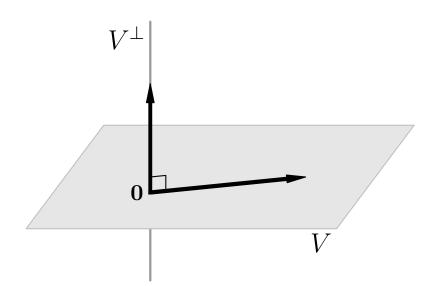
## **Orthogonal complement**

Definition. Let  $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ . The **orthogonal** complement of *S*, denoted  $S^{\perp}$ , is the set of all vectors  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  that are orthogonal to *S*. That is,  $S^{\perp}$  is the largest subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  orthogonal to *S*.

**Theorem 1**  $S^{\perp}$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Note that  $S \subset (S^{\perp})^{\perp}$ , hence  $\operatorname{Span}(S) \subset (S^{\perp})^{\perp}$ . **Theorem 2**  $(S^{\perp})^{\perp} = \operatorname{Span}(S)$ . In particular, for any subspace V we have  $(V^{\perp})^{\perp} = V$ .

*Example.* Consider a line  $L = \{(x, 0, 0) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ and a plane  $\Pi = \{(0, y, z) \mid y, z \in \mathbb{R}\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Then  $L^{\perp} = \Pi$  and  $\Pi^{\perp} = L$ .



### **Fundamental subspaces**

Definition. Given an  $m \times n$  matrix A, let  $N(A) = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \},$  $R(A) = \{ \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \mathbf{b} = A\mathbf{x} \text{ for some } \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \}.$ 

R(A) is the range of a linear mapping  $L : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $L(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$ . N(A) is the kernel of L.

Also, N(A) is the nullspace of the matrix A while R(A) is the column space of A. The row space of A is  $R(A^{T})$ .

The subspaces  $N(A), R(A^T) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $R(A), N(A^T) \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  are **fundamental subspaces** associated to the matrix A.

**Theorem**  $N(A) = R(A^T)^{\perp}$ ,  $N(A^T) = R(A)^{\perp}$ . That is, the nullspace of a matrix is the orthogonal complement of its row space.

*Proof:* The equality  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  means that the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  is orthogonal to rows of the matrix A. Therefore  $N(A) = S^{\perp}$ , where S is the set of rows of A. It remains to note that  $S^{\perp} = \operatorname{Span}(S)^{\perp} = R(A^{\top})^{\perp}$ .

**Corollary** Let V be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then dim  $V + \dim V^{\perp} = n$ .

*Proof:* Pick a basis  $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k$  for V. Let A be the  $k \times n$  matrix whose rows are vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k$ . Then  $V = R(A^T)$ , hence  $V^{\perp} = N(A)$ . Consequently, dim V and dim  $V^{\perp}$  are rank and nullity of A. Therefore dim  $V + \dim V^{\perp}$  equals the number of columns of A, which is n.

**Problem.** Let V be the plane spanned by vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1 = (1, 1, 0)$  and  $\mathbf{v}_2 = (0, 1, 1)$ . Find  $V^{\perp}$ .

The orthogonal complement to V is the same as the orthogonal complement of the set  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$ . A vector  $\mathbf{u} = (x, y, z)$  belongs to the latter if and only if

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 = 0 \\ \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = 0 \end{cases} \iff \begin{cases} x + y = 0 \\ y + z = 0 \end{cases}$$

Alternatively, the subspace V is the row space of the matrix

$$egin{array}{ccc} A = egin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 0 \ 0 & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 ,

hence  $V^{\perp}$  is the nullspace of A.

The general solution of the system (or, equivalently, the general element of the nullspace of A) is (t, -t, t) = t(1, -1, 1),  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Thus  $V^{\perp}$  is the straight line spanned by the vector (1, -1, 1).

# **Orthogonal projection**

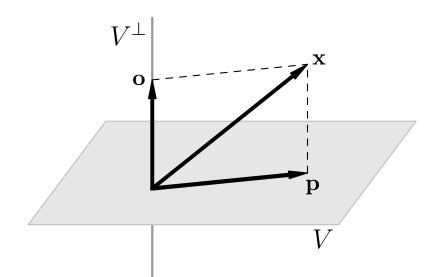
**Theorem 1** Let V be a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then any vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is uniquely represented as  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{o}$ , where  $\mathbf{p} \in V$  and  $\mathbf{o} \in V^{\perp}$ .

*Idea of the proof:* Let  $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k$  be a basis for V and  $\mathbf{w}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{w}_m$  be a basis for  $V^{\perp}$ . Then  $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{w}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{w}_m$  is a basis for  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

In the above expansion,  $\mathbf{p}$  is called the **orthogonal projection** of the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  onto the subspace V.

**Theorem 2**  $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{v}\| > \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}\|$  for any  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{p}$  in V.

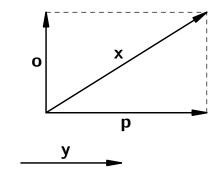
Thus 
$$\|\mathbf{o}\| = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}\| = \min_{\mathbf{v} \in V} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{v}\|$$
 is the **distance** from the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  to the subspace  $V$ .



### Orthogonal projection onto a vector

Let 
$$\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
, with  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ .

Then there exists a unique decomposition  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{o}$ such that  $\mathbf{p}$  is parallel to  $\mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{o}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{y}$ .



 $\mathbf{p} =$ orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto  $\mathbf{y}$ 

#### Orthogonal projection onto a vector

Let  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , with  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$ . Then there exists a unique decomposition  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{o}$  such that  $\mathbf{p}$  is parallel to  $\mathbf{y}$  and  $\mathbf{o}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{y}$ .

We have  $\mathbf{p} = \alpha \mathbf{y}$  for some  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$0 = \mathbf{o} \cdot \mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{x} - \alpha \mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} - \alpha \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{y}$$

$$\implies \alpha = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{y}} \implies \mathbf{p} = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{y}} \mathbf{y}$$

**Problem.** Find the distance from the point  $\mathbf{x} = (3, 1)$  to the line spanned by  $\mathbf{y} = (2, -1)$ .

Consider the decomposition  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{o}$ , where  $\mathbf{p}$  is parallel to  $\mathbf{y}$  while  $\mathbf{o} \perp \mathbf{y}$ . The required distance is the length of the orthogonal component  $\mathbf{o}$ .

$$\mathbf{p} = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{y}} \mathbf{y} = \frac{5}{5} (2, -1) = (2, -1),$$
  
$$\mathbf{o} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p} = (3, 1) - (2, -1) = (1, 2), \quad ||\mathbf{o}|| = \sqrt{5}.$$

**Problem.** Find the point on the line y = -x that is closest to the point (3, 4).

The required point is the projection **p** of  $\mathbf{v} = (3, 4)$  on the vector  $\mathbf{w} = (1, -1)$  spanning the line y = -x.

$$\mathbf{p} = rac{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}}{\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{w}} \, \mathbf{w} = rac{-1}{2} \left( 1, -1 
ight) = \left( -rac{1}{2}, rac{1}{2} 
ight)$$