# MATH 311

Topics in Applied Mathematics

Lecture 17:
Orthogonal complement.
Orthogonal projection.

#### Scalar product in $\mathbb{R}^n$

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  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n$ .

Properties of scalar product:

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} \geq 0$$
,  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0$  only if  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$  (positivity)  
 $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{x}$  (symmetry)  
 $(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{z}$  (distributive law)  
 $(r\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{y} = r(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y})$  (homogeneity)

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  $\mathbf{y}$ ).

#### **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  $\mathbf{y} \in Y$ .

Examples in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . • The line x = y = 0 is orthogonal to the line y = z = 0.

Indeed, if  $\mathbf{v} = (0, 0, z)$  and  $\mathbf{w} = (x, 0, 0)$  then  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = 0$ .

• The line x = y = 0 is orthogonal to the plane z = 0.

Indeed, if  $\mathbf{v} = (0, 0, z)$  and  $\mathbf{w} = (x, y, 0)$  then  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = 0$ .

• The line x = y = 0 is not orthogonal to the plane z = 1.

The vector  $\mathbf{v} = (0,0,1)$  belongs to both the line and the plane, and  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 1 \neq 0$ .

• The plane z = 0 is not orthogonal to the plane y = 0.

The vector  $\mathbf{v} = (1, 0, 0)$  belongs to both planes and  $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 1 \neq 0$ .

**Proposition 1** If  $X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are orthogonal sets then either they are disjoint or  $X \cap Y = \{0\}$ .

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

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

*Proof:* Any 
$$\mathbf{v} \in V$$
 is represented as  $\mathbf{v} = a_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + a_k \mathbf{v}_k$ ,

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

where  $\mathbf{v}_i \in S$  and  $a_i \in \mathbb{R}$ . If  $\mathbf{x} \perp S$  then

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

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  $\mathrm{Span}(S) \subset (S^{\perp})^{\perp}$ .

**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  $S^{\perp} = \operatorname{Span}(S)^{\perp} = R(A^{T})^{\perp}$ .

**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  $V = R(A^T)$  and  $V^{\perp} = N(A)$ . 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.

# **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  $\mathbf{o} \in V^{\perp}$ .

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

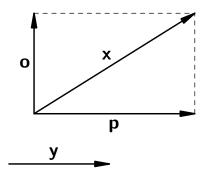
**Theorem 2**  $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{v}\| > \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}\|$  for any  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{p}$  in V.

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

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We have 
$$\mathbf{p} = \alpha \mathbf{y}$$
 for some  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then 
$$0 = \mathbf{o} \cdot \mathbf{y} = (\mathbf{x} - \alpha \mathbf{y}) \cdot \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} - \alpha \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{y}.$$

$$\implies \alpha = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{y}} \implies \left[ \mathbf{p} = \frac{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}}{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{y}} \mathbf{y} \right]$$

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

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

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

(i) Find the orthogonal projection of the vector  $\mathbf{x} = (4, 0, -1)$  onto the plane  $\Pi$ .

(ii) Find the distance from  $\mathbf{x}$  to  $\Pi$ .

We have  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{o}$ , where  $\mathbf{p} \in \Pi$  and  $\mathbf{o} \perp \Pi$ . Then the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto  $\Pi$  is  $\mathbf{p}$  and the distance from  $\mathbf{x}$  to  $\Pi$  is  $\|\mathbf{o}\|$ .

We have  $\mathbf{p} = \alpha \mathbf{v}_1 + \beta \mathbf{v}_2$  for some  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $\mathbf{o} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{x} - \alpha \mathbf{v}_1 - \beta \mathbf{v}_2$ .

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{o} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 = 0 \\ \mathbf{o} \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = 0 \end{cases} \iff \begin{cases} \alpha(\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1) + \beta(\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \alpha(\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2) + \beta(\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbf{x} = (4,0,-1), \quad \mathbf{v}_1 = (1,1,0), \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = (0,1,1)$$

$$\begin{cases} \alpha(\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1) + \beta(\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 \\ \alpha(\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2) + \beta(\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 \end{cases}$$

$$\iff \begin{cases} 2\alpha + \beta = 4 \\ \alpha + 2\beta = -1 \end{cases} \iff \begin{cases} \alpha = 3 \\ \beta = -2 \end{cases}$$

$$\alpha + 2\beta = -1$$
  $\beta = -2$   
 $\mathbf{p} = 3\mathbf{v}_1 - 2\mathbf{v}_2 = (3, 1, -2)$ 

$$\mathbf{p} = 3\mathbf{v}_1 - 2\mathbf{v}_2 = (3, 1, -2)$$
 $\mathbf{o} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p} = (1, -1, 1)$ 

 $\|\mathbf{o}\| = \sqrt{3}$