

L15: $\mathcal{R}(A)$, $\mathcal{N}(A)$ and their relations

1. $\mathcal{R}(A)$

(1) A subspace of C^m : $\mathcal{R}(A)$

$y = Ax$ with $A \in C^{m \times n}$ is a linear transformation (LT) from $x \in C^n$ to $y \in C^m$. The range of this LT

$$\mathcal{R}(A) = \{Ax : x \in C^n\}$$

is closed under LCs and hence is a LS in C^m with $\dim[\mathcal{R}(A)] = \text{rank}(A)$. $\mathcal{R}(A)$ is the span of the columns of A also denoted as $\mathcal{C}(A)$, $\mathcal{S}(A)$ or $L(A)$ for a LS from A .

Ex1: In linear regression $y = X\beta + \epsilon$ with $E(\epsilon) = 0$, $E(y) = X\beta$. We can say now, $E(y)$ is a LT of unknown β and lies in a known space $\mathcal{R}(A)$ with dimension $\text{rank}(A)$.

(2) $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(AA^-)$

$\subset$: $y \in \mathcal{R}(A) \implies y = Ax = AA^-(Ax)$ for some $x \implies y \in \mathcal{R}(AA^-)$.

$\supset$: $y \in \mathcal{R}(AA^-) \implies y = AA^-x = A(A^-x)$ for some $x \implies y \in \mathcal{R}(A)$.

Comment: $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(AA^-) = \mathcal{R}(AA^+)$. Properties of AA^- and AA^+ .

(3) $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(AA^*)$

Pf: Note that $\mathcal{R}(AB) \subset \mathcal{R}(A)$ since $y \in \mathcal{R}(AB) \implies y = ABx = A(Bx) \in \mathcal{R}(A)$. So $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(AA^+A) = \mathcal{R}(AA^*(A^+)^*) \subset \mathcal{R}(AA^*) \subset \mathcal{R}(A)$.

(4) $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}((A^+)^*)$

This can be proved by either the method in (2) or in (3).

(5) Summary

$\mathcal{R}(A) = \{y = Ax : x\} = \mathcal{C}(A) = \mathcal{S}(A) = L(A)$ is a subspace in C^m . The member of this space y is determined by its structure $y = Ax$.

$\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(AA^*) = \mathcal{R}(AA^-) = \mathcal{R}((A^*)^+)$.

Ex2: $\mathcal{R}(A^*) = \mathcal{R}((A^{**})^+) = \mathcal{R}(A^+)$. $\mathcal{R}(A^+) = \mathcal{R}(A^+(A^+)^+) = \mathcal{R}(A^+A)$.

So $\mathcal{R}(A^*) = \mathcal{R}(A^+) = \mathcal{R}(A^+A)$.

2. $\mathcal{N}(A)$

(1) A subspace of C^n : $\mathcal{N}(A)$

For LT $y = f(x) = Ax$, the Kernel, $\text{Kernel}(f) = \{x : f(x) = 0\}$, is also called the null of space of A ,

$$\mathcal{N}(A) = \{x \in C^n : Ax = 0\}.$$

$\mathcal{N}(A)$ is a subspace of C^n with $\dim[\mathcal{N}(A)] = n - \text{rank}(A)$.

Proof If $u, v \in \mathcal{N}(A)$, then $Au = 0$ and $Av = 0$. Hence $A(\alpha u + \beta v) = \alpha Au + \beta Av = 0$. thus $\alpha u + \beta v \in \mathcal{N}(A)$.

Ex3: The collection of all solutions to the equation $Ax = 0$ form a linear space in C^n , $\mathcal{N}(A)$.

(2) $\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{N}(A^-A)$.

$\subset$: $x \in \mathcal{N}(A) \implies Ax = 0 \implies A^-Ax = 0 \implies x \in \mathcal{N}(A^-A)$.

$\supset$: $x \in \mathcal{N}(A^-A) \implies A^-Ax = 0 \implies Ax = AA^-Ax = 0 \implies x \in \mathcal{N}(A)$.

Comment: $\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{N}(A^-A) = \mathcal{N}(A^+A)$. Properties of A^-A and A^+A .

(3) $\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{N}(A^*A)$

Proof Note that $\mathcal{N}(A) \subset \mathcal{N}(BA)$ since $Ax = 0 \implies BAx = 0$.

So $\mathcal{N}(A) \subset \mathcal{N}(A^*A) \subset \mathcal{N}((A^+)^*A^*A) = \mathcal{N}(A)$.

(4) $\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{N}((A^+)^*)$

This can be proved by either the method in (2) or the method in (3).

(5) Summary

$\mathcal{N}(A) = \{x : Ax = 0\}$ is a subspace of C^n . Its member x is determined by its property $Ax = 0$.

$$\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{N}(A^*A) = \mathcal{N}(A^-A) = \mathcal{N}(A^+A) = \mathcal{N}((A^+)^*).$$

$$\mathbf{Ex4:} \mathcal{N}(A^*) = \mathcal{N}((A^{**})^+) = \mathcal{N}(A^+) \quad \mathcal{N}(A^+) = \mathcal{N}((A^+)^+A^+) = \mathcal{N}(AA^+).$$

3. Cross expressions

(1) Lemma I

If D is idempotent, i.e., $D^2 = D$, then $\mathcal{R}(D) = \mathcal{N}(I - D)$.

Proof: $\subset$: $y \in \mathcal{R}(D) \implies y = Dx \implies (I - D)y = Dx - D^2x = 0 \implies y \in \mathcal{N}(I - D)$.

$\supset$: $x \in \mathcal{N}(I - D) \implies (I - D)x = 0 \implies x = Dx \in \mathcal{R}(D)$.

(2) Lemma II

If $D^2 = D$, then $\mathcal{N}(D) = \mathcal{R}(I - D)$.

Proof: If $D^2 = D$, then $(I - D)^2 = (I - D)(I - D) = I - D - D + D^2 = I - D$.

By (1), $\mathcal{R}(I - D) = \mathcal{N}(I - (I - D)) = \mathcal{N}(D)$. Thus $\mathcal{N}(D) = \mathcal{R}(I - D)$.

(3) $\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{N}(\cdot)$

$$\mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(AA^-) = \mathcal{N}(I_m - AA^-) \quad \mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{R}(AA^+) = \mathcal{N}(I_m - AA^+).$$

(4) $\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{R}(\cdot)$

$$\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{N}(A^-A) = \mathcal{R}(I_n - A^-A) \quad \mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{N}(A^+A) = \mathcal{R}(I_n - A^+A).$$

Ex5: $\mathcal{R}(A^*) = \mathcal{R}(A^+) = \mathcal{R}(A^+A) = \mathcal{N}(I_n - A^+A)$.

$$\mathcal{N}(A^*) = \mathcal{N}(A^+) = \mathcal{N}(AA^+) = \mathcal{R}(I_m - AA^+).$$

Comment: The collection of all solutions to $Ax = 0$ is

$$\mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{N}(A^+A) = \mathcal{R}(I - A^+A) = \mathcal{R}(B)$$

where the columns of $B \in C^{m \times r}$ form a basis of $\mathcal{R}(I - A^+A)$ and $r = n - \text{rank}(A)$.

Ex6: Consider $Ax = 0$ where $A = (1, 2)$.

$$A = (1, 2) \implies A^+ = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \implies A^+A = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \implies I - A^+A = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$\mathcal{R} \left[\frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \mathcal{R} \left[\begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right] = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} h : h \in C \right\} \text{ gives all solutions.}$$

L16: Orthogonal complements, projections and projectin matrices

1. Orthogonal complement $\mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$

(1) Inner product, norm and angle

For $x, y \in C^m$, $\langle x, y \rangle = y^*x = \sum_i x_i \bar{y}_i$ is Frobenius inner product of x and y . With induced norm $\|x\| = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$, the angle formed by x and y is $\theta \in [0, \pi]$ such that $\cos(\theta) = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \cdot \|y\|}$. So x and y perpendicular $\iff x \perp y \iff \langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

(2) $\mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$

The collection of all z perpendicular to $\mathcal{R}(A)$ is the orthogonal complement of $\mathcal{R}(A)$ denoted as $\mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$

$$\mathcal{R}^\perp(A) = \{z \in C^m : z \perp \mathcal{R}(A)\} = \{z \in C^m : \langle z, y \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } y \in \mathcal{R}(A)\}.$$

(3) $\mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$ is a subspace of C^m .

Proof If $u, v \in \mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$, then $\langle u, y \rangle = 0$ and $\langle v, y \rangle = 0$ for all $y \in \mathcal{R}(A)$.

So $\langle \alpha u + \beta v, y \rangle = \alpha \langle u, y \rangle + \beta \langle v, y \rangle = 0$. Thus $\alpha u + \beta v \in \mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$.

Therefore $\mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$ is a subspace of C^m .

(4) $\mathcal{R}^\perp(A) = \mathcal{N}(A^*)$.

$$\begin{aligned} \textbf{Proof } z \in \mathcal{R}^\perp(A) &\iff z \perp \mathcal{R}(A) \iff z \perp y \text{ for all } y \in \mathcal{R}(A) \\ &\iff z \perp Ax \text{ for all } x \in C^n \iff \langle z, Ax \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } x \\ &\iff x^* A^* z = 0 \text{ for all } x \iff A^* z = 0 \iff z \in \mathcal{N}(A^*). \end{aligned}$$

(5) $\mathcal{R}^\perp(A) = \mathcal{N}(A^*) = \mathcal{N}(A^+) = \mathcal{N}(AA^+) = \mathcal{R}(I - AA^+)$.

Ex1: $\mathcal{R}^\perp(A^*) = \mathcal{N}(A)$; $\mathcal{R}^\perp(A^+) = \mathcal{N}((A^+)^*) = \mathcal{N}(A)$

So $\mathcal{R}^\perp(A^*) = \mathcal{R}^\perp(A^+) = \mathcal{N}(A) = \mathcal{N}(A^+ A) = \mathcal{R}(I - A^+ A)$.

2. Orthogonal complement $\mathcal{N}^\perp(A)$

(1) Definition of $\mathcal{N}^\perp(A)$

The orthogonal complement of $\mathcal{N}(A)$ is

$$\mathcal{N}^\perp(A) = \{z \in C^n : z \perp \mathcal{N}(A)\} = \{z \in C^n : z \perp x \text{ for all } x \in \mathcal{N}(A)\}.$$

(2) $\mathcal{N}^\perp(A) = \mathcal{R}^\perp(I - A^+ A)$

$$\begin{aligned} \textbf{Proof } \mathcal{N}^\perp(A) &= \{z \in C^n : z \perp \mathcal{N}(A)\} \\ &= \{z \in C^n : z \perp \mathcal{R}(I - A^+ A)\} = \mathcal{R}^\perp(I - A^+ A). \end{aligned}$$

(3) $\mathcal{N}^\perp(A) = \mathcal{R}(A^*)$

Proof $\mathcal{N}^\perp(A) = \mathcal{R}^\perp(I - A^+ A) = \mathcal{N}(I - A^+ A) = \mathcal{R}(A^+ A) = \mathcal{R}(A^*)$.

(4) $\mathcal{N}^\perp(A) = \mathcal{R}^\perp(I - A^+ A) = \mathcal{N}(I - A^+ A) = \mathcal{R}(A^+ A)$

Ex2: $\mathcal{N}^\perp(A^*) = \mathcal{R}(A)$; $\mathcal{N}^\perp(A^+) = \mathcal{R}((A^+)^*) = \mathcal{R}(A)$

So $\mathcal{N}^\perp(A^*) = \mathcal{N}^\perp(A^+) = \mathcal{R}(A) = \mathcal{N}(I - AA^+) = \mathcal{R}^\perp(I - AA^+)$.

Ex3: Show that Ax and $(I - AA^+)y$ are perpendicular.

(i) Direct computation:

$$\langle Ax, (I - AA^+)y \rangle = [(I - AA^+)y]^* Ax = y^* (I - AA^+) Ax = y^* (A - A) x = 0.$$

(ii) By concepts:

$Ax \in \mathcal{R}(A)$ and $(I - AA^+)y \in \mathcal{R}(I - AA^+) = \mathcal{N}(AA^+) = \mathcal{N}(A^*) = \mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$.
So $Ax \perp (I - AA^+)y$.

3. Projections and projection matrices

(1) Pythagorean theorem

If $x \perp y$, then $\|x \pm y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2$.

Proof $\|x \pm y\|^2 = \langle x \pm y, x \pm y \rangle = \langle x, x \rangle \pm \langle x, y \rangle \pm \langle y, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle$
 $= \|x\|^2 \pm 0 \pm 0 + \|y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2$.

(2) Projection

S is a subspace in C^k , for $y \in C^k$ there exists a unique $\hat{y} \in S$ such that

$$\|y - \hat{y}\|^2 \leq \|y - z\|^2 \text{ for all } z \in S.$$

This $\hat{y}$ is the projection of y onto S denoted as $\pi(y|S)$.

Thus $\pi(y|\mathcal{R}(A))$, $\pi(y|\mathcal{R}^\perp(A))$, $\pi(x|\mathcal{N}(A))$ and $\pi(x|\mathcal{N}^\perp(A))$ are all defined.

(3) Lemma

If $\hat{y} \in S$ and $y - \hat{y} \in S^\perp$, then $\hat{y} = \pi(y|S)$.

Proof $\hat{y} \in S$. For $z \in S$, with $y - \hat{y} \in S^\perp$ and $\hat{y} - z \in S$, $(y - \hat{y}) \perp (\hat{y} - z)$.

By Pythagorean theorem

$$\|y - z\|^2 = \|(y - \hat{y}) + (\hat{y} - z)\|^2 = \|y - \hat{y}\|^2 + \|\hat{y} - z\|^2 \geq \|y - \hat{y}\|^2.$$

So $\hat{y} = \pi(y|S)$.

(4) $\pi(y|\mathcal{R}(A)) = AA^+y$. AA^+ is the projection matrix onto $\mathcal{R}(AA^+) = \mathcal{R}(A)$.

Proof $AA^+y \in \mathcal{R}(AA^+) = \mathcal{R}(A)$.

$$y - AA^+y = (I - AA^+)y \in \mathcal{R}(I - AA^+) = \mathcal{N}(AA^+) = \mathcal{N}(A^+) = \mathcal{R}^\perp(A).$$

By Lemma in (3), $\pi(y|\mathcal{R}(A)) = AA^+y$.

Comment: AA^+ is called the projection matrix onto $\mathcal{R}(AA^+) = \mathcal{R}(A)$.

(5) Projections onto other spaces

$$\pi(y|\mathcal{R}^\perp(A)) = \pi(y|\mathcal{R}(I - AA^+)) = (I - AA^+)y.$$

$I - AA^+$ is the projection matrix onto $\mathcal{R}(I - AA^+) = \mathcal{R}^\perp(A)$.

$$\pi(x|\mathcal{N}(A)) = \pi(x|\mathcal{R}(I - A^+A)) = (I - A^+A)x.$$

$I - A^+A$ is the projection matrix onto $\mathcal{R}(I - A^+A) = \mathcal{N}(A)$.

$$\pi(x|\mathcal{N}^\perp(A)) = \pi(x|\mathcal{R}(A^+A)) = A^+Ax.$$

A^+A is the projection matrix onto $\mathcal{R}(A^+A) = \mathcal{N}^\perp(A)$.

Comment: For given $x_0 \in C^n$ and $A \in C^{m \times n}$, the collection of all solutions to $Ax = 0$ is $\mathcal{N}(A)$. Among all solutions, the one with minimum distance to x_0 is $\pi(x_0|\mathcal{N}(A))$.

$$\pi(x_0|\mathcal{N}(A)) = \pi(x_0|\mathcal{R}(I - A^+A)) = (I - A^+A)x_0.$$

Ex4: With $A = (1, 2)$ and $x_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$A = (1, 2) \implies A^+ = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \implies A^+A = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{pmatrix} \implies I - A^+A = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$(I - A^+A)x_0 = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 4 & -2 \\ -2 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{5} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$