

Math 2270-1

Notes of 11/1/19

6.2 Orthogonal Sets

- Recall: two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are **orthogonal** if
 $\sum u_i v_i = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \bullet \mathbf{v} = 0.$

- A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ from \mathbb{R}^n is an **orthogonal set** if each pair of distinct vectors from that set is orthogonal, i.e.,

$$i \neq j \implies \mathbf{u}_i \bullet \mathbf{u}_j = 0.$$

- Examples:

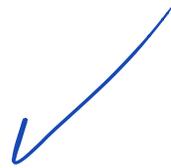
– The standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

$$\{e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n\} \quad e_i = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 1 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \leftarrow i\text{-th}$$

– The set $\{\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{0}\}$.

– Example 1, textbook, the set

$$S = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ -2 \\ 7/2 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$



- **Theorem 4**, p. 340, textbook. If

$$S = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$$

is an orthogonal set of **nonzero** vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , then S is linearly independent. (Hence S is a basis of $\text{span}(S)$.)

$$Z = \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i \mathbf{u}_i = \mathbf{0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha_k = 0 \quad k=1, \dots, p$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{u}_k \cdot Z &= \mathbf{u}_k \cdot \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i \mathbf{u}_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^p \alpha_i \mathbf{u}_k \cdot \mathbf{u}_i \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a \cdot (b+c) &= a \cdot b + a \cdot c \\ (ka) \cdot b &= k(a \cdot b) \end{aligned}$$

$$= \alpha_k \underbrace{\mathbf{u}_k \cdot \mathbf{u}_k}_{\neq 0} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha_k = 0 \quad k=1, \dots, p$$

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\mathbf{u}_k \cdot Z}{\mathbf{u}_k \cdot \mathbf{u}_k}$$

- Naturally, an **orthogonal basis** for a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n is a basis for W that is also an orthogonal set.
- For example, the set in Example 1 is an orthogonal basis of \mathbb{R}^3 .
- Orthogonal Bases are nice! You can compute coefficients without solving a linear system.
- Suppose

$$B = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$$

is a basis of a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n ,

$$B = [\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p],$$

and \mathbf{y} is a vector in W . Then, in general, computing the coordinate vector

$$[\mathbf{y}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_p \end{bmatrix}$$

of \mathbf{y} requires the solution of the linear system

$$B[\mathbf{y}]_B = \mathbf{y}.$$

- However, if B is an orthogonal basis we can compute the components of $[\mathbf{y}]_B$ directly:

$$c_j = \frac{\mathbf{y} \bullet \mathbf{u}_j}{\mathbf{u}_j \bullet \mathbf{u}_j}.$$

- Example 2, p. 341. Express the vector

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \\ -8 \end{bmatrix}$$

as a linear combination of the vectors in the set

$$S = \left\{ \begin{matrix} u_1 \\ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}, \begin{matrix} u_2 \\ \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}, \begin{matrix} u_3 \\ \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ -2 \\ 7/2 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix} \right\} \quad \frac{17}{4} + \frac{49}{4} = \frac{33}{2}$$

in Example 1.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{y} &= \sum_{i=1}^3 \frac{u_i \cdot \mathbf{y}}{u_i \cdot u_i} u_i \\ &= \frac{11}{11} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{-12}{6} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{-33}{33/2} \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ -2 \\ 7/2 \end{bmatrix} \\ &\quad \quad \quad 1 \quad \quad \quad -2 \quad \quad \quad -2 \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 3 + 2 + 1 \\ 1 - 4 + 4 \\ 1 - 2 - 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \\ -8 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Orthogonal Projections onto a Line

- Again, this is a review and generalization from Math 2210.
- Given a non-zero vector \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n we wish to write \mathbf{y} in \mathbb{R}^n as a multiple of \mathbf{u} and a vector orthogonal to \mathbf{u} .
- That is we wish to write

$$\mathbf{y} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{z} = \alpha \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{z}$$

where

$$\mathbf{z} \bullet \mathbf{u} = 0.$$

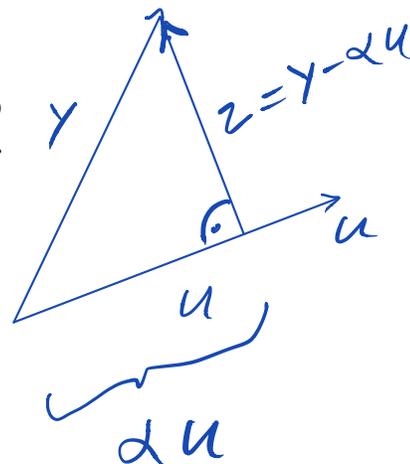
- We want formulas for α and \mathbf{z} . They are easy to obtain.

$$(\mathbf{y} - \alpha \mathbf{u}) \bullet \mathbf{u} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{y} \bullet \mathbf{u} = \alpha \mathbf{u} \bullet \mathbf{u}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\mathbf{y} \bullet \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \bullet \mathbf{u}}$$

$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y} - \frac{\mathbf{y} \bullet \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \bullet \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$$



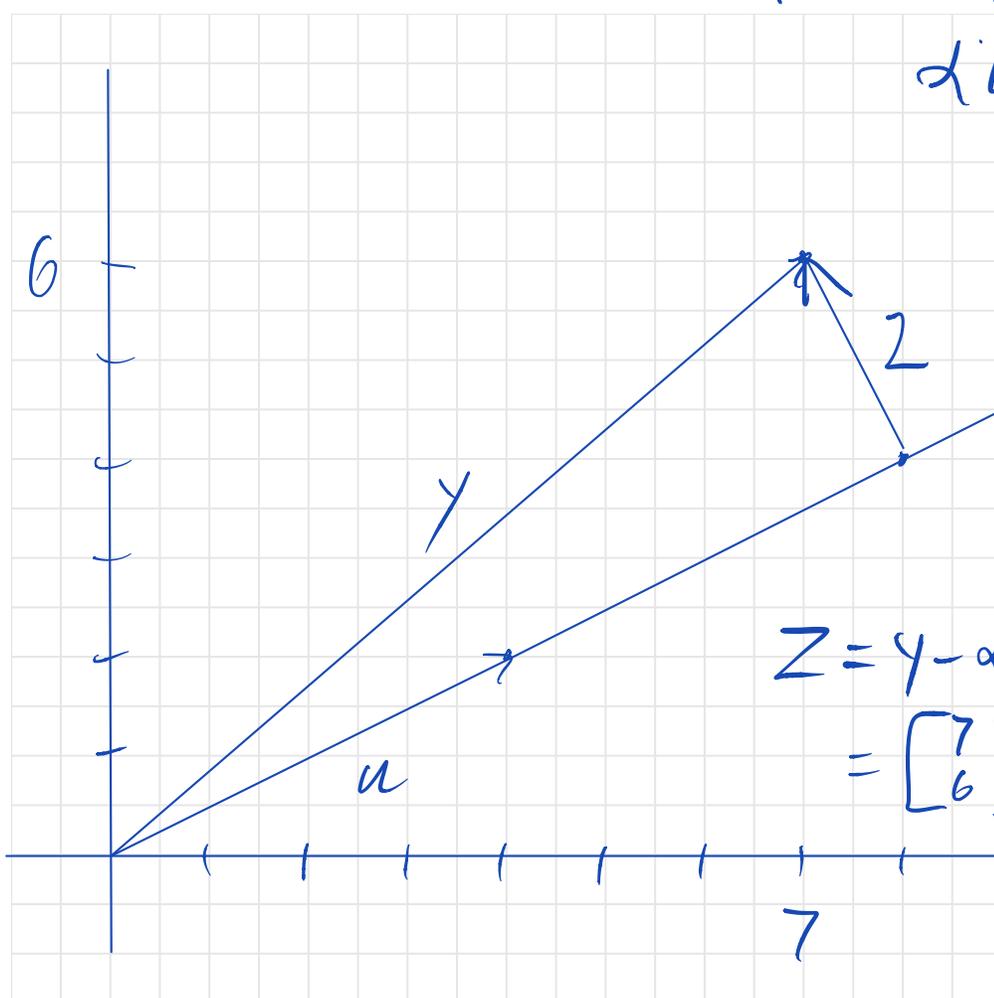
- Example 3, pg. 342, textbook. Let

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Write \mathbf{y} as a linear combination of a vector in $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{u}\}$ and a vector that is orthogonal to \mathbf{u} .

$$d = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} = \frac{40}{20} = 2$$

$$d\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$



$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y} - d\mathbf{u}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Figure 1. Example 2.

- An orthogonal set is called an **orthonormal set** if all of its vectors are unit vectors.
- Example: The standard basis, and any (nonempty) subset of it.
- **Theorem 6**, p. 345. An $m \times n$ matrix U has orthonormal columns if and only if

$$U^T U = I$$

$\begin{matrix} \nearrow n \times n \\ \uparrow n \times m & m \times n \end{matrix}$

(where I is the $n \times n$ identity matrix.).

• **Theorem 7**, p. 345. Let U be an $m \times n$ matrix with orthonormal columns, and let \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} be vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . Then:

a. $\|U\mathbf{x}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$

b. $(U\mathbf{x}) \bullet (U\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \bullet \mathbf{y}$

c. $(U\mathbf{x}) \bullet (U\mathbf{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} \bullet \mathbf{y} = 0$

$$\|U\mathbf{x}\|^2 = (U\mathbf{x})^T U\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^T \underbrace{U^T U}_{I} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x} = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} (U\mathbf{x}) \bullet (U\mathbf{y}) &= (U\mathbf{x})^T (U\mathbf{y}) \\ &= \mathbf{x}^T U^T U \mathbf{y} \\ &= \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \bullet \mathbf{y} \end{aligned}$$

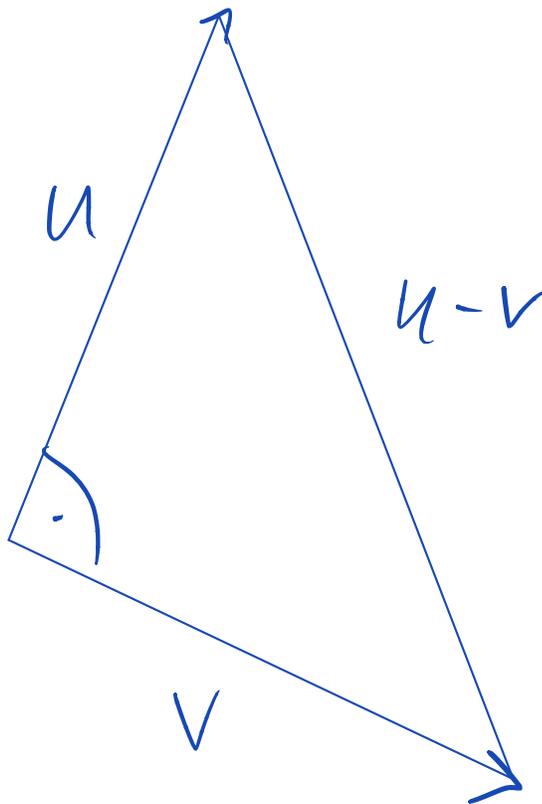
The Pythagorean Theorem

- Suppose \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are orthogonal. Then

$$\|\mathbf{u} \pm \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2.$$

- More precisely, we should say that

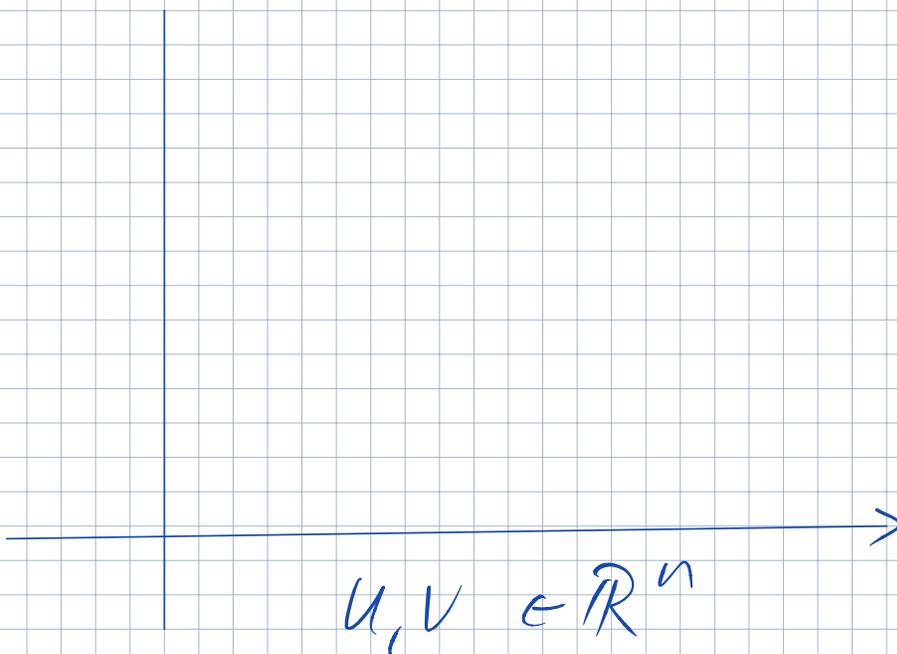
$$\|\mathbf{u} \pm \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \iff \mathbf{u} \bullet \mathbf{v} = 0.$$



$$\|u-v\|^2 = (u-v)^T (u-v)$$

$$= u^T u - 2u^T v + v^T v$$

$$= \|u\|^2 - 2u^T v + \|v\|^2$$



$(u, v) \in \mathbb{R}$ inner product
if

$$(u, v) = (v, u)$$

$$(u, u) \geq 0$$

$$(u, u) = 0 \Rightarrow u = 0$$

$$(u+v, w) = (u, w) + (v, w)$$

$$(ku, v) = k(u, v)$$

$$\text{Ex.: } (u, v) = u \cdot v$$

$$\text{Ex.: } (u, v) = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i u_i v_i$$

$$w_i > 0$$

$$\text{Ex.: } (u, v) = u^T A v$$

$$A = A^T$$

A non-singular

$$u^T A u > 0$$

$$V = P_n$$

$$(p, q) = \int_0^1 p(x) q(x) dx$$