

MTHSC 3110 SECTION 6.2 – ORTHOGONAL SETS

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DEFINITION

A set $\{\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_k\}$ of non-zero vectors is said to be orthogonal if for every $i \neq j$,

$$\vec{u}_i \cdot \vec{u}_j = 0,$$

that is, if every pair of vectors is orthogonal.

EXAMPLE

Show that $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ -7 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is orthogonal.

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$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = (3)(-1) + (1)(2) + (1)(1) = 0.$$

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Suppose that $\sum_{i=1}^k c_i \vec{u}_i = \vec{0}$.

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Thus $c_1 = c_2 = \dots = c_k = 0$, and our set is indeed independent. □

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Let $W < \mathbb{R}^n$, and let $S = \{\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_k\}$ be an orthogonal basis for W . Then if the vector \vec{y} in W is given in terms of the basis S by

$$\vec{y} = c_1 \vec{u}_1 + c_2 \vec{u}_2 + \cdots + c_k \vec{u}_k$$

then

$$c_j = \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_j}{\vec{u}_j \cdot \vec{u}_j}$$

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EXAMPLE

We saw above that

$$S = \left\{ \vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \vec{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ -7 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \text{ is an}$$

orthogonal set in \mathbb{R}^3 . Since it is linearly independent and has three vectors in it, it must be a basis for \mathbb{R}^3 . Express the vector

$$\vec{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 4 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix} \text{ in terms of the vectors in } S.$$

SOLUTION

$$\vec{y} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + c_3 \vec{v}_3, \text{ where}$$

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$$c_3 = \frac{\vec{v}_3 \cdot \vec{y}}{\vec{v}_3 \cdot \vec{v}_3} = \frac{(1)(2) + (4)(4) + (-7)(6)}{1^2 + 4^2 + (-7)^2} = \frac{-24}{66} = \frac{-4}{11}$$

Orthogonal Projections

Earlier we saw how to find the component of \vec{v} in the direction of \vec{u} and the component orthogonal to \vec{u} . We revisit this idea to introduce some notation, and to extend it to projecting onto a subspace.

Given $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, find $\hat{y}, \vec{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ so that

- 1 $\vec{y} = \hat{y} + \vec{z}$.
- 2 $\hat{y} = \alpha \vec{u}$ ($\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$).
- 3 $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{z} = 0$.

As before, we see that

$$\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u} = \hat{y} \cdot \vec{u} = (\alpha \vec{u}) \cdot \vec{u} = \alpha \|\vec{u}\|^2$$

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and

$$\vec{z} = \vec{y} - \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}}{\|\vec{u}\|^2} \vec{u}$$

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NOTATION

$$\hat{y} = \text{Proj}_L(\vec{y}) = \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}}{\|\vec{u}\|^2} \vec{u}$$

where $L = \text{Span}(\vec{u})$.

TERMINOLOGY

$$\vec{y} = \hat{y} + \vec{z}:$$

\hat{y} is the orthogonal projection of \vec{y} onto L

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EXAMPLE

Let $\vec{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$, $\vec{u} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $L = \text{Span}(\vec{u})$. Compute the orthogonal projection of \vec{y} onto L and the component of \vec{y} orthogonal to L . Plot \vec{y} , \vec{u} , \hat{y} and \vec{z} . Compute the distance from \vec{y} to L . (Note: the subspace L here is the line through $\vec{0}$ and \vec{u} .)

GEOMETRIC INTERPRETATION OF THEOREM 5

Let $\{\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2\}$ be an orthogonal basis for \mathbb{R}^2 . Put

$$\hat{y}_1 = \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_1}{\|\vec{u}_1\|^2} \vec{u}_1 = \text{Proj}_{\vec{u}_1}(\vec{y})$$

$$\hat{y}_2 = \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_2}{\|\vec{u}_2\|^2} \vec{u}_2 = \text{Proj}_{\vec{u}_2}(\vec{y})$$

Then

$$\vec{y} = \hat{y}_1 + \hat{y}_2.$$

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Orthonormal Sets A set $\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_p$ is called *orthonormal* if it is orthogonal and $\|\vec{u}_i\| = 1$ for $1 \leq i \leq p$. In this case, if $W = \text{Span}(\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p)$, then the set is called an *orthonormal basis* for W .

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Show that the set $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3\}$ is an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^3 , where

$$\vec{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 3/\sqrt{11} \\ 1/\sqrt{11} \\ 1/\sqrt{11} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1/\sqrt{6} \\ 2/\sqrt{6} \\ 1/\sqrt{6} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{66} \\ 4/\sqrt{66} \\ -7/\sqrt{66} \end{pmatrix}.$$

THEOREM

An $m \times n$ matrix U has orthonormal columns if and only if $U^T U = I$.

Proof: proof strategy: interpret the entries of $U^T U$ in terms of inner products of the columns of U .

THEOREM

Let U be an $m \times n$ matrix with orthonormal columns, and $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then

- 1 $\|U\vec{x}\| = \|\vec{x}\|$.
- 2 $(U\vec{x}) \cdot (U\vec{y}) = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$.
- 3 $(U\vec{x}) \cdot (U\vec{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = 0$.

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- 1 U preserves length
- 2 U preserves orthonormality.

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PROOF.

$$(U\vec{x}) \cdot (U\vec{y}) = (U\vec{x})^T (U\vec{y}) = (\vec{x}^T U^T)(U\vec{y}) = \vec{x}^T (U^T U)\vec{y} = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$$

This proves part 2. 1 & 3 follow from 2. □

EXAMPLE

Let

$$U = \begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} & 2/3 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} & -2/3 \\ 0 & 1/3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Check that U has orthonormal columns and that $\|U\vec{x}\| = \|\vec{x}\|$.

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Check that U has orthonormal columns and that $\|U\vec{x}\| = \|\vec{x}\|$.

NOTE

In the case where U is a an $n \times n$ matrix with orthonormal columns, we see that $U^T U = I$ so $U^T = U^{-1}$, so $U U^T = I$ as well: that is, U has orthonormal rows too!