

6.2 – Orthogonal Sets

Math 220

Warnock - Class Notes

A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is called an orthogonal set if each pair of distinct vectors from the set is orthogonal. That is, $\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_j = 0$ when $i \neq j$.

Ex 1: Determine whether the set of vectors is orthogonal.

a)
$$\begin{matrix} u_1 & u_2 & u_3 \\ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -7 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, & \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ -3 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}, & \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

$u_1 \cdot u_2 = -12 + 21 - 9 = 0 \checkmark$
 $u_1 \cdot u_3 = 6 - 7 + 1 = 0 \checkmark$
 $u_2 \cdot u_3 = -18 - 3 - 9 = -30 \neq 0$

Not orthogonal } $\vec{u}_1 \perp \text{Span}\{\vec{u}_2, \vec{u}_3\}$

b)
$$\begin{matrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, & \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \\ -3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}, & \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 8 \\ 7 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

$u_1 \cdot u_2 = -3 - 6 - 3 + 12 = 0 \checkmark$
 $u_1 \cdot u_3 = 9 - 16 + 7 + 0 = 0 \checkmark$
 $u_2 \cdot u_3 = -3 + 24 - 21 + 0 = 0 \checkmark$

Orthogonal set

Theorem 4

If $S = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is an orthogonal set of nonzero vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , then S is linearly independent and hence is a basis for the subspace spanned by S.

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 Proof: Let $\vec{0} = c_1 \vec{u}_1 + c_2 \vec{u}_2 + \dots + c_p \vec{u}_p$ (Show $c_i = 0, 1 \leq i \leq p$)

$$\vec{0} \cdot \vec{u}_1 = (c_1 \vec{u}_1 + c_2 \vec{u}_2 + \dots + c_p \vec{u}_p) \cdot \vec{u}_1$$

$$\vec{0} = c_1 \vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_1 + c_2 \vec{u}_2 \cdot \vec{u}_1 + \dots + c_p \vec{u}_p \cdot \vec{u}_1$$

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

$$\vec{0} = c_1 \vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_1 \quad (\vec{u}_i \cdot \vec{u}_i \neq 0, \text{ since } \vec{u}_1 \text{ is non-zero vector})$$

$$\Rightarrow c_1 = 0$$

Similarly, $c_2 = c_3 = \dots = c_p$ are zero $\therefore S$ is linearly independent

Definition

An **orthogonal basis** for a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n is a basis for W that is also an orthogonal set.

Theorem 5

Let $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ be an orthogonal basis for a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n . For each \mathbf{y} in W , the weights in the linear combination

$$\mathbf{y} = c_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \dots + c_p \mathbf{u}_p$$

$$\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_j = c_j \mathbf{u}_j \cdot \mathbf{u}_j$$

are given by

$$c_j = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}{\mathbf{u}_j \cdot \mathbf{u}_j} \quad (j = 1, \dots, p)$$

$$\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_j = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$$

Ex 2: The vector $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ -8 \\ -10 \\ 17 \end{bmatrix}$ is in the subspace W with orthogonal basis from Ex 1b).
 $\vec{v} = c_1 \vec{u}_1 + c_2 \vec{u}_2 + c_3 \vec{u}_3$

Express \mathbf{v} as a linear combination of the orthogonal basis.

$$\begin{matrix} \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2 & \mathbf{u}_3 \\ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \\ 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 3 \\ -3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} & \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 8 \\ 7 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}$$

$$c_1 = \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{u}_1}{\vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_1} = \frac{12 + 16 - 10 + 51}{9 + 4 + 1 + 9} = \frac{69}{23} = 3$$

$$c_2 = \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{u}_2}{\vec{u}_2 \cdot \vec{u}_2} = \frac{-4 - 24 + 30 + 68}{1 + 9 + 9 + 16} = \frac{70}{35} = 2$$

$$c_3 = \frac{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{u}_3}{\vec{u}_3 \cdot \vec{u}_3} = \frac{12 - 64 - 70 + 0}{9 + 64 + 49 + 0} = \frac{-122}{122} = -1$$

$$\vec{v} = 3\vec{u}_1 + 2\vec{u}_2 - \vec{u}_3$$

An Orthogonal Projection $y = \hat{y} + z$

$$\hat{y} = \alpha u$$

$$z = y - \alpha u$$

$$0 = z \cdot u = (y - \alpha u) \cdot u$$

$$0 = y \cdot u - \alpha u \cdot u$$

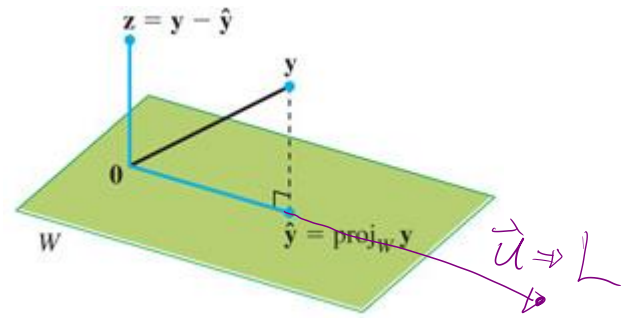
$$\alpha = \frac{y \cdot u}{u \cdot u} \Rightarrow \boxed{\hat{y} = \frac{y \cdot u}{u \cdot u} u}$$

← orthogonal projection of y onto u

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

↖ component of y orthogonal to u
($z = y - \hat{y}$)

$$\boxed{\hat{y} = \text{proj}_L y = \frac{y \cdot u}{u \cdot u} u}$$



Ex 3: Compute the orthogonal projection of $\vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$ onto the line through $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and the origin.

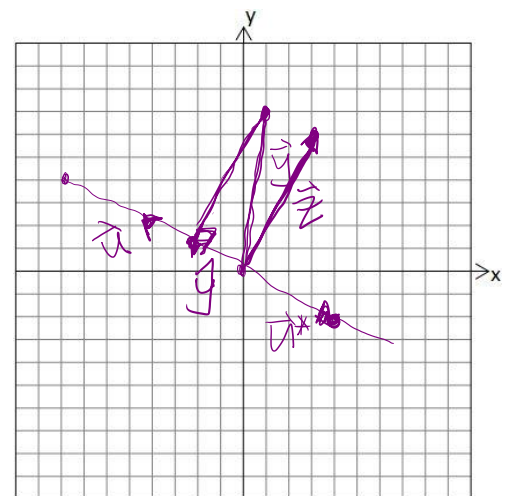
Then write $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$ as a sum of two orthogonal vectors. Also, observe geometrically.

$$\hat{y} = \frac{y \cdot u}{u \cdot u} u = \frac{-4 + 14}{16 + 4} \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$z = y - \hat{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\boxed{y = \hat{y} + z}$$

$$\boxed{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}}$$



Ex 4: Find the distance from the vector $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$ to the line through $\begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ (from Ex 3).

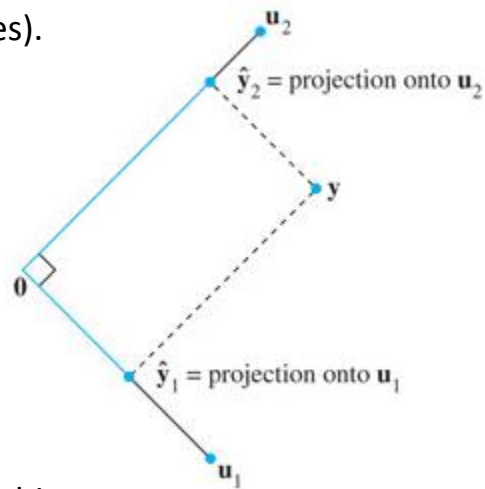
$$\hat{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \|y - \hat{y}\| = \sqrt{(-(-2))^2 + (7-1)^2} = \sqrt{3^2 + 6^2} = \sqrt{45} = 3\sqrt{5} \quad (= \|z\|)$$

Notice that the orthogonal projection formula matches the weights of the orthogonal basis terms in theorem 5. Theorem 5 decomposes a vector into a sum of orthogonal projections onto one-dimensional subspaces (lines).

In \mathbb{R}^2 , if we have an orthogonal basis $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2\}$

then any $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ can be written as

$$\mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_1}{\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1} \mathbf{u}_1 + \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_2}{\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_2} \mathbf{u}_2$$



In Physics we use this to decompose force on an object.



A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is called an orthonormal set if it is an orthogonal set of unit vectors. If W is spanned by this set, then the set is an orthonormal basis for W .

Simplest orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^n is $\{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \dots, \vec{e}_n\}$.

Any nonempty subset of this standard basis is orthonormal as well.

Ex 5: Determine whether the set of vectors is orthonormal. Is it an orthonormal basis for \mathbb{R}^3 ?

$$\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{10} \\ 3/\sqrt{20} \\ 3/\sqrt{20} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3/\sqrt{10} \\ -1/\sqrt{20} \\ -1/\sqrt{20} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \vec{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} u \cdot u = \|\vec{u}\|^2 &= \frac{1}{10} + \frac{9}{20} + \frac{9}{20} = 1 \quad \checkmark \\ \|v\|^2 = v \cdot v &= \frac{9}{10} + \frac{1}{20} + \frac{1}{20} = 1 \quad \checkmark \\ \|w\|^2 = w \cdot w &= 0 + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1 \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} &= \frac{3}{10} - \frac{3}{20} - \frac{3}{20} = 0 \quad \checkmark \\ \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w} &= 0 - \frac{3}{\sqrt{40}} + \frac{3}{\sqrt{40}} = 0 \quad \checkmark \\ \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} &= 0 + \frac{1}{\sqrt{40}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{40}} = 0 \quad \checkmark \end{aligned}$$

Yes, orthonormal
for \mathbb{R}^3

Theorem 6

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

Proof:

$$U = [\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_n]$$

$$U^T U = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{u}_1 \\ \vec{u}_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vec{u}_n \end{bmatrix} [\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_n] = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_1 & \vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_2 & \dots & \vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_n \\ \vec{u}_2 \cdot \vec{u}_1 & \vec{u}_2 \cdot \vec{u}_2 & \dots & \vec{u}_2 \cdot \vec{u}_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vec{u}_n \cdot \vec{u}_1 & \dots & \dots & \vec{u}_n \cdot \vec{u}_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 1 \end{bmatrix} = I_{n \times n}$$

$$i \neq j \quad \vec{u}_i \cdot \vec{u}_j = 0$$

$$i = j \quad \vec{u}_i \cdot \vec{u}_j = \vec{u}_i \cdot \vec{u}_i = 1$$

Theorem 7

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

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

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

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

Ex 6: Let $U = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & 0 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{6} \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$. Verify that $\|U\mathbf{x}\| = \|\mathbf{x}\|$

$$U\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{3}} - \frac{4}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{3}} - 0 \\ \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{3}} + \frac{4}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} - 2\sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} + 2\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -\sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} \\ 3\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\|U\vec{x}\| = \sqrt{2+2+18} = \sqrt{22}$$

$$\|\vec{x}\| = \sqrt{6+16} = \sqrt{22}$$

An orthogonal Matrix is a square invertible matrix U , such that $U^{-1} = U^T$. By theorem 6, it has orthonormal columns.

$$U^T U = I$$

The matrix formed from the vectors from Ex 5 is an example.

$$U^{-1} U = I$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{10} & 3/\sqrt{10} & 0 \\ 3/\sqrt{20} & -1/\sqrt{20} & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 3/\sqrt{20} & -1/\sqrt{20} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

Practice Problem

1. Let U and \mathbf{x} be as in example 6, and let $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -\sqrt{3} \\ \sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$. Verify that $(U\mathbf{x}) \cdot (U\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$

$$U\vec{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -\sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} \\ 3\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$U\vec{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -1-1 \\ -1 \\ -1+1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(U\vec{x}) \cdot (U\vec{y}) = 2\sqrt{2} - \sqrt{2} + 0 = \sqrt{2}$$

$$\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = -\sqrt{18} + 4\sqrt{2} = -3\sqrt{2} + 4\sqrt{2} = \sqrt{2}$$