

Orthogonal matrices and Gram-Schmidt

In this lecture we finish introducing orthogonality. Using an orthonormal basis or a matrix with orthonormal columns makes calculations much easier. The Gram-Schmidt process starts with any basis and produces an orthonormal basis that spans the same space as the original basis.

Orthonormal vectors

The vectors $\mathbf{q}_1, \mathbf{q}_2, \dots, \mathbf{q}_n$ are *orthonormal* if:

$$\mathbf{q}_i^T \mathbf{q}_j = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j. \end{cases}$$

In other words, they all have (normal) length 1 and are perpendicular (ortho) to each other. Orthonormal vectors are always independent.

Orthonormal matrix

If the columns of $Q = [\mathbf{q}_1 \dots \mathbf{q}_n]$ are orthonormal, then $Q^T Q = I$ is the identity.

Matrices with orthonormal columns are a new class of important matrices to add to those on our list: triangular, diagonal, permutation, symmetric, reduced row echelon, and projection matrices. We'll call them "orthonormal matrices".

A square orthonormal matrix Q is called an *orthogonal matrix*. If Q is square, then $Q^T Q = I$ tells us that $Q^T = Q^{-1}$.

For example, if $Q = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ then $Q^T = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Both Q and Q^T

are orthogonal matrices, and their product is the identity.

The matrix $Q = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$ is orthogonal. The matrix $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$ is

not, but we can adjust that matrix to get the orthogonal matrix $Q = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

We can use the same tactic to find some larger orthogonal matrices called *Hadamard matrices*:

$$Q = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

An example of a rectangular matrix with orthonormal columns is:

$$Q = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \\ 2 & -1 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

We can extend this to a (square) orthogonal matrix:

$$\frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 2 \\ 2 & -1 & -2 \\ 2 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

These examples are particularly nice because they don't include complicated square roots.

Orthonormal columns are good

Suppose Q has orthonormal columns. The matrix that projects onto the column space of Q is:

$$P = Q^T(Q^T Q)^{-1}Q^T.$$

If the columns of Q are orthonormal, then $Q^T Q = I$ and $P = QQ^T$. If Q is square, then $P = I$ because the columns of Q span the entire space.

Many equations become trivial when using a matrix with orthonormal columns. If our basis is orthonormal, the projection component \hat{x}_i is just $\mathbf{q}_i^T \mathbf{b}$ because $A^T A \hat{\mathbf{x}} = A^T \mathbf{b}$ becomes $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = Q^T \mathbf{b}$.

Gram-Schmidt

With elimination, our goal was "make the matrix triangular". Now our goal is "make the matrix orthonormal".

We start with two independent vectors \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} and want to find orthonormal vectors \mathbf{q}_1 and \mathbf{q}_2 that span the same plane. We start by finding orthogonal vectors \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} that span the same space as \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} . Then the unit vectors $\mathbf{q}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{A}}{\|\mathbf{A}\|}$ and $\mathbf{q}_2 = \frac{\mathbf{B}}{\|\mathbf{B}\|}$ form the desired orthonormal basis.

Let $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{a}$. We get a vector orthogonal to \mathbf{A} in the space spanned by \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} by projecting \mathbf{b} onto \mathbf{a} and letting $\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{p}$. (\mathbf{B} is what we previously called \mathbf{e} .)

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{b} - \frac{\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}} \mathbf{A}.$$

If we multiply both sides of this equation by \mathbf{A}^T , we see that $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{B} = 0$.

What if we had started with three independent vectors, \mathbf{a} , \mathbf{b} and \mathbf{c} ? Then we'd find a vector \mathbf{C} orthogonal to both \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} by subtracting from \mathbf{c} its components in the \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} directions:

$$\mathbf{C} = \mathbf{c} - \frac{\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{c}}{\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}} \mathbf{A} - \frac{\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{c}}{\mathbf{B}^T \mathbf{B}} \mathbf{B}.$$

For example, suppose $\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Then $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{a}$ and:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{B} &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}}{\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{3}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

Normalizing, we get:

$$Q = [\mathbf{q}_1 \quad \mathbf{q}_2] = \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{3} & 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}.$$

The column space of Q is the plane spanned by \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} .

When we studied elimination, we wrote the process in terms of matrices and found $A = LU$. A similar equation $A = QR$ relates our starting matrix A to the result Q of the Gram-Schmidt process. Where L was lower triangular, R is upper triangular.

Suppose $A = [\mathbf{a}_1 \quad \mathbf{a}_2]$. Then:

$$\begin{matrix} A \\ [\mathbf{a}_1 \quad \mathbf{a}_2] \end{matrix} = \begin{matrix} Q \\ [\mathbf{q}_1 \quad \mathbf{q}_2] \end{matrix} \begin{matrix} R \\ \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1^T \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{a}_2^T \mathbf{q}_1 \\ \mathbf{a}_1^T \mathbf{q}_2 & \mathbf{a}_2^T \mathbf{q}_2 \end{bmatrix} \end{matrix}.$$

If R is upper triangular, then it should be true that $\mathbf{a}_1^T \mathbf{q}_2 = 0$. This must be true because we chose \mathbf{q}_1 to be a unit vector in the direction of \mathbf{a}_1 . All the later \mathbf{q}_i were chosen to be perpendicular to the earlier ones.

Notice that $R = Q^T A$. This makes sense; $Q^T Q = I$.

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