

Lecture 11: Orthogonal bases

Admin:

PAIRWISE ORTHOGONAL SETS OF VECTORS

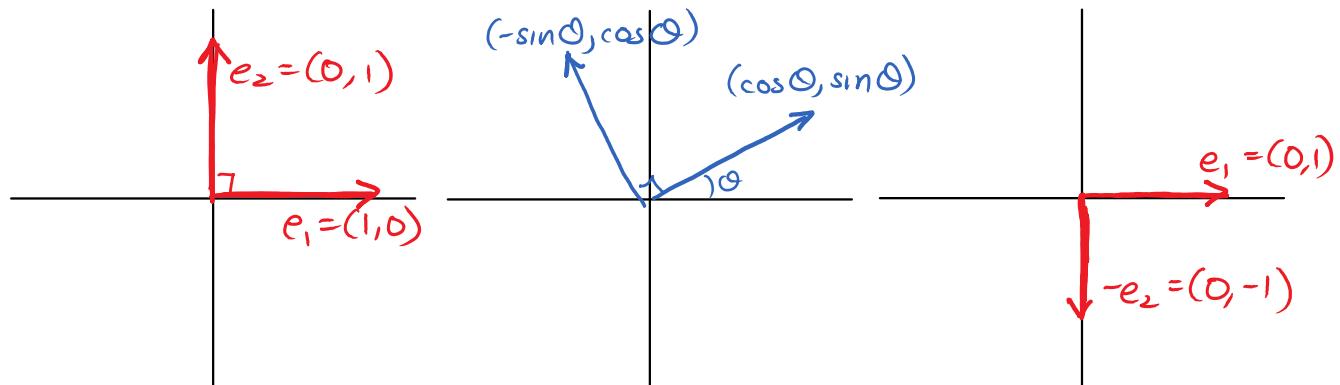
EXAMPLES:

① Standard basis in \mathbb{R}^n

$$\vec{e}_1 = (1, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, \vec{e}_n = (0, \dots, 0, 1)$$

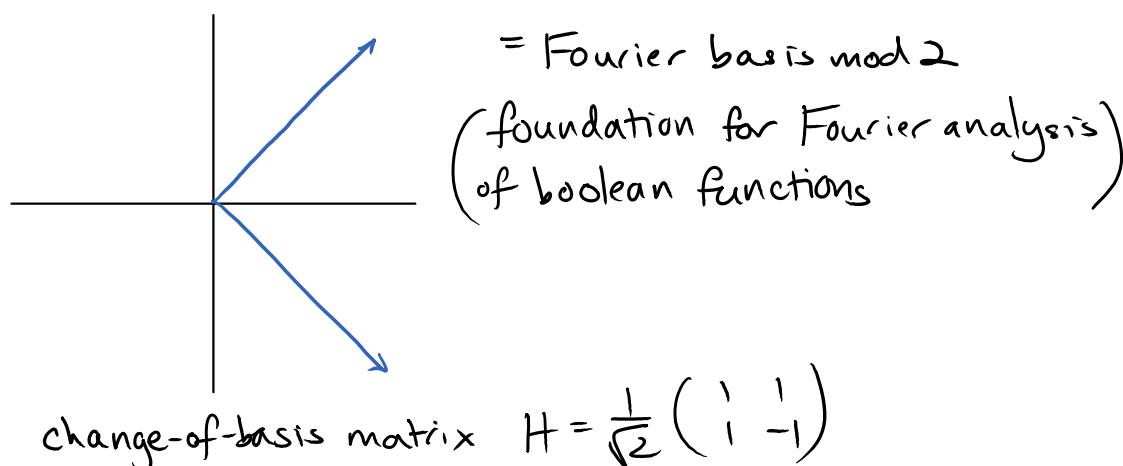
$$\vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_j = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

② Rotations/reflections of the standard basis



③ Hadamard basis

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1,1) , \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1,-1)$$



change-of-basis matrix $H = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

Hadamard basis in dimension 4:

$$H_4 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

all entries either $\pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$
columns are orthogonal pairwise

In dimensions $n = 2^k$:

$$H_{2^k} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} H_{2^{k-1}} & H_{2^{k-1}} \\ H_{2^{k-1}} & -H_{2^{k-1}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Applications: Coding,
control theory, statistics,
quantum computing, Fourier
analysis of boolean functions

Conjecture (1936): If n is a multiple of 4,
then there is a Hadamard basis for \mathbb{R}^n .

Open: Find a Hadamard basis for $n = 668$.

④ Haar wavelet basis

$$(1, 1, 1, 1)$$

$$(1, 1, -1, -1) \quad \text{for } \mathbb{R}^4$$

$$(1, 1, 0, 0)$$

$$(0, 0, 1, -1)$$

$$(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$$

$$(1, 1, 1, 1, -1, -1, -1, -1)$$

$$(1, 1, -1, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0)$$

$$(1, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0) \quad \text{for } \mathbb{R}^8$$

$$(0, 0, 1, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0)$$

$$(0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, -1, -1)$$

$$(0, 0, 0, 0, 1, -1, 0, 0)$$

$$(0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, -1)$$

-used in image compression

a vector in \mathbb{R}^n with few jumps will have

a sparse representation in this basis, e.g.,

$$(1, 1, 1, 0, -2, -2, -2, -2)$$

$$= -\frac{5}{8}(1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1)$$

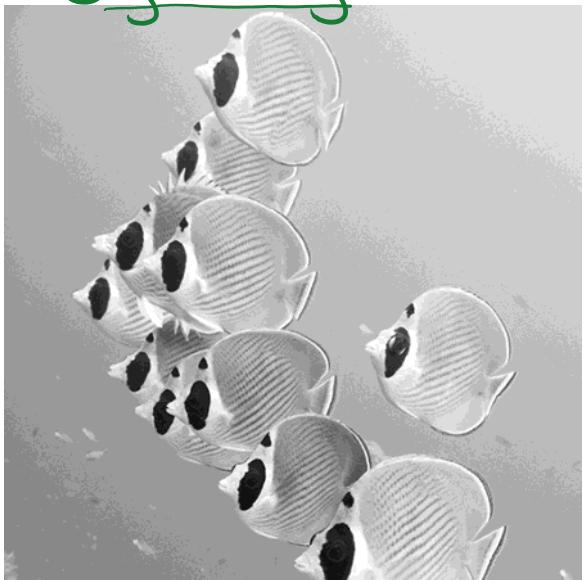
$$+ \frac{11}{8}(1, 1, 1, 1, -1, -1, -1, -1)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{4}(1, 1, -1, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2}(0, 0, 1, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0)$$

... after discarding 0 in
smallest-magnitude Haar
basis coordinates

Original image



⑤ Fourier basis for \mathbb{C}^n

- used everywhere!

$$(\vec{v}_0, \vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_{n-1})$$

where $\vec{v}_j = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{n} \cdot jk\right) \vec{e}_k$

$$[I]_{\substack{\text{Fourier} \\ \rightarrow \text{std. basis}}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}} \begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_0 & \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \vec{v}_3 & \cdots \\ \vec{e}_0 & | & | & | & \cdots \\ \vec{e}_1 & | & \omega & \omega^2 & \omega^3 & \cdots \\ \vec{e}_2 & | & \omega^2 & \omega^4 & \omega^6 & \cdots \\ \vec{e}_3 & | & \omega^3 & \omega^6 & \omega^9 & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \\ \vec{e}_{n-1} & | & \omega^{n-1} & \omega^{2(n-1)} & \omega^{3(n-1)} & \cdots \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\omega = \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{n}\right)$

$$= \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} + i \sin \frac{2\pi}{n}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{v}_{j'} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k,k'=0}^{n-1} \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{n} (-jk + j'k')\right) (\vec{e}_k \cdot \vec{e}_{k'})$$

$\delta_{kk'}^{\parallel}$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{k=0}^{n-1} \exp\left(\frac{2\pi i}{n} k(j'-j)\right)$$

$$\text{case } j=j': \vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{v}_j = \frac{1}{n} (1+1+\dots+1) = 1$$

case $j \neq j'$:

$$\vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{v}_{j'} = \frac{1}{n} \cdot \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{geometric series} \\ 1 + \omega^{j'-j} + \omega^{2(j'-j)} + \dots + \omega^{(n-1)(j'-j)} \end{array} \right)$$

where $\omega = e^{\frac{2\pi i}{n}} = \cos \frac{2\pi}{n} + i \sin \frac{2\pi}{n}$

$$1 + r + r^2 + \dots + r^{n-1} = \frac{1-r^n}{1-r}$$

$= 0 \quad \text{since } \omega^n = 1$

⑥ Various bases for functions

e.g., Hermite, Laguerre, Chebyshev
sines and cosines,

There are lots of named examples because

PAIRWISE

ORTHOGONAL SETS OF VECTORS ARE NICE!!

$$\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$$

$$\text{with } \vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_j = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j$$

① Simplifies deciding linear independence

Normally, to check if $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is lin. indep.,
compute $N((\downarrow_1 ||| \downarrow_n)) \stackrel{?}{=} \{0\}$.

Lemma:

$$S = \{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$$

non zero, pairwise orthogonal

$$v_i \cdot v_j = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j$$

S is linearly independent

Proof: Assume $\alpha_1 \vec{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_n \vec{v}_n = 0$.

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_1 (\vec{v}_1 \cdot v_1) + \alpha_2 (\vec{v}_2 \cdot v_2) + \dots + \alpha_n (\vec{v}_n \cdot v_n) = 0$$

$$\alpha_i \vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_i = \alpha_i \|v_i\|^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_i = 0 \quad (\text{since } v_i \neq 0)$$

for all i

□

② Pairwise Lity simplifies deciding if S is a basis

Corollary: In an n-dimensional space, any set of n pairwise orthogonal vectors forms a basis.

(because any n linearly indep. vectors is a basis)

Definition: Orthogonal basis = basis of pairwise orthogonal vectors

Orthonormal basis = basis of orthogonal, length-one vectors

Example: The standard basis $\vec{e}_1, \dots, \vec{e}_n$ is orthonormal.

Dividing by the lengths, orthogonal \rightarrow orthonormal basis.

③ Simplifies computing inner products & lengths

Let $\vec{u} = \alpha_1 \vec{v}_1 + \alpha_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + \alpha_m \vec{v}_m$

Q: What is $\|\vec{u}\|$?

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{A}: \quad \|\vec{u}\|^2 &= \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} \\ &= \left(\sum_i \alpha_i \vec{v}_i \right) \cdot \left(\sum_j \alpha_j \vec{v}_j \right) \\ &= \sum_{i,j=1}^n \alpha_i^* \alpha_j (\vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_j) \end{aligned}$$

$\uparrow n^2$ terms to sum up!
But if $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ is orthogonal,

$$\|\vec{u}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i|^2 \cdot \|\vec{v}_i\|^2$$

since $\vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_j$ terms
are otherwise 0,

And if $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ is orthonormal,

$$\boxed{\|\vec{u}\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n |\alpha_i|^2}$$

the exact same expression
as works in the standard
basis

MORAL: Orthonormal bases behave just like the standard basis.

$$\text{e.g., for } \vec{u} = \sum_j \alpha_j \vec{v}_j, \vec{v} = \sum_j \beta_j \vec{v}_j,$$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \sum_j \alpha_j^* \beta_j$$

④ Simplifies basis expansions

Let $B = (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_m)$ be a basis for $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$,
and $\vec{u} \in V$.

What is the expansion of \vec{u} in the basis B ?

In general: Write $\begin{pmatrix} \vec{u} \end{pmatrix} = x_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + x_m \vec{v}_m = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \dots & \vec{v}_m \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{pmatrix}$

and solve these equations.

If B is orthonormal:

$$\vec{u} = x_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + x_m \vec{v}_m$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{u} &\Downarrow \vec{v}_j \cdot (x_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + x_m \vec{v}_m) \\ &= 0 + 0 + \dots + x_j + \dots + 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{u} = \sum_{j=1}^m (\vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{u}) \vec{v}_j \quad = x_j$$

just compute these inner products
needn't solve any equations!

Example: Haar wavelet basis for \mathbb{R}^8

$$\begin{aligned}
 v_1 & (1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1) \\
 v_2 & (1, 1, 1, 1, -1, -1, -1, -1) \\
 v_3 & (1, 1, -1, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0) \\
 v_4 & (1, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0) \\
 v_5 & (0, 0, 1, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0) \\
 v_6 & (0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 1, -1, -1) \\
 v_7 & (0, 0, 0, 0, 1, -1, 0, 0) \\
 v_8 & (0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, -1)
 \end{aligned}$$

Pairwise \perp

↓
Linearly independent

↓
Must be a basis!

Exercise: Expand $\overset{u}{(1, 1, 1, 0, -2, -2, -2, -2)}$
in the above basis.

Answer: $v_1 \cdot u = -5$

$$v_2 \cdot u = 11$$

$$v_3 \cdot u = 1$$

$$v_4 \cdot u = 0$$

$$v_5 \cdot u = 1$$

:

$$\begin{aligned}
 \Rightarrow \vec{u} &= \sum_j \frac{(\vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{u})}{\|\vec{v}_j\|^2} \vec{v}_j \\
 &= -\frac{5}{8} \vec{v}_1 + \frac{11}{8} \vec{v}_2 + \frac{1}{4} \vec{v}_3 + \frac{1}{2} \vec{v}_5 + \dots
 \end{aligned}$$

We could compute $v_6 \cdot u, v_7 \cdot u, v_8 \cdot u$ — and it's easy
— but in fact, observe

$$\|u\|^2 = 19 \quad \text{squared coeff. of } v_2 / \|v_2\|^2$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{and } \frac{|v_1 \cdot u|^2}{\|v_1\|^2} + \frac{|v_2 \cdot u|^2}{\|v_2\|^2} + \frac{|v_3 \cdot u|^2}{\|v_3\|^2} + \frac{|v_5 \cdot u|^2}{\|v_5\|^2} \\
 = \frac{25}{8} + \frac{12}{8} + \frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{2}
 \end{aligned}$$

= 19

\Rightarrow all other coefficients must be 0, since
all of \vec{u} 's length is accounted for!
(This is a common trick, to save time.)

④ Simplifies matrix basis expansions

$$f: U \rightarrow V$$

$$B_U = \{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_n\}$$

$$B_V = \{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_m\}$$

orthonormal basis

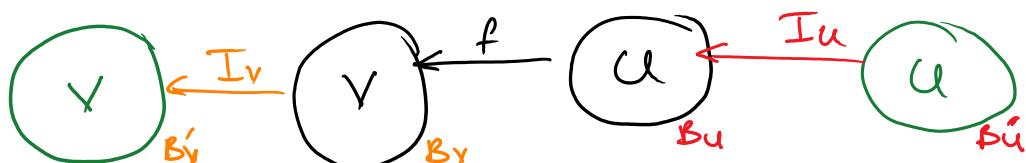
$$\Rightarrow [f]_{B_U \rightarrow B_V} = \begin{pmatrix} & & & \\ & & \vdots & \\ & \vec{v}_i \cdot f(\vec{u}_j) & & \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{since } f(\vec{u}_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m (\vec{v}_i \cdot f(\vec{u}_j)) \vec{v}_i$$

⑤ Simplifies changing basis

Recall: $f: U \rightarrow V$ linear
 bases, B_U, B'_U bases, B_V, B'_V

$$[f]_{B'_U \rightarrow B'_V} = [I]_{B_V \rightarrow B'_V} [f]_{B_U \rightarrow B_V} [I]_{B'_U \rightarrow B_U}$$



if $U = V$,

$$[f]_{B' \rightarrow B'} = [I]_{B \rightarrow B'} [f]_{B \rightarrow B} [I]_{B' \rightarrow B}$$

$$([I]_{B' \rightarrow B})^{-1}$$

Example:

Consider the 2×2 complex matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} e^{i\theta} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\theta} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Write this matrix in the basis $\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, i), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -i) \right\}$.

Answer: Initial basis $B = \{(1, 0), (0, 1)\}$.

New basis $C = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, i), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -i) \right\}$.

Observe: C is orthonormal!

$$\left\| \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, \pm i) \right\|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \|(1, \pm i)\|^2 \\ = \frac{1}{2} (1 + |\pm i|^2) = 1 \quad \checkmark$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, i) \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -i) = \frac{1}{2} (1 + i^*(-i)) \\ = \frac{1}{2} (1 + i^2) = 0 \quad \checkmark$$

$C \rightarrow B$ basis change:

$$(1, 0) \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, i) & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -i) \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{-i}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{pmatrix}$$

$B \rightarrow C$ basis change

$$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, i) \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -i) \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} (1, 0) & (0, 1) \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{-i}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}} \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ 1 & i \end{pmatrix}$$

since, e.g., $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, i) \cdot (0, 1) = -\frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}$

Check: $(1, 0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, i) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -i) \right) \quad \checkmark$

$$(0, 1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\frac{-i}{\sqrt{2}}(1, i) + \frac{i}{\sqrt{2}}(1, -i) \right) \quad \checkmark$$

$$\Rightarrow [A]_{C \rightarrow C} = [B \rightarrow C] \cdot [A]_{B \rightarrow B} \cdot [C \rightarrow B]$$

(read this right to left)

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ 1 & i \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} e^{i\theta} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\theta} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{pmatrix}$$

In[1]:= $\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -i \\ 1 & i \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} e^{i\theta} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{-i\theta} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{pmatrix} // \text{FullSimplify} // \text{MatrixForm}$

Out[1]/MatrixForm=

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \cos[\theta] & i \sin[\theta] \\ i \sin[\theta] & \cos[\theta] \end{pmatrix}$$

(Mathematica)

Out[1]/MatrixForm=

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \cos[\theta] & i \sin[\theta] \\ i \sin[\theta] & \cos[\theta] \end{pmatrix}$$

(Mathematica)

Observe: 1. This was really easy!

$$2. \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ i & -i \end{pmatrix} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & i \\ 1 & i \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

— they're inverses

3. They differ only by transpose
and complex conjugate.

In general,

If B, C are each orthonormal:

$$B = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}, C = \{\vec{c}_1, \dots, \vec{c}_n\}.$$

$$[I]_{C \rightarrow B} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \vec{c}_j \\ \vdots \\ \boxed{\vec{b}_i \cdot \vec{c}_j} \end{array} \right) \quad \text{since } \vec{c}_j = \sum_{i=1}^n (\vec{b}_i \cdot \vec{c}_j) \vec{b}_i$$

$$[I]_{B \rightarrow C} = \left(\begin{array}{c} \vec{b}_i \\ \vdots \\ \boxed{\vec{c}_j \cdot \vec{b}_i} \end{array} \right) \quad \text{since } \vec{b}_i = \sum_{j=1}^n (\vec{c}_j \cdot \vec{b}_i) \vec{c}_j$$

$$\Rightarrow [I]_{B \rightarrow C} = ([I]_{C \rightarrow B})^\dagger$$

"adjoint"
 = transpose
 + complex conjugate
 (same as transpose
 for real matrices)

⑦ Simplifies computing projections

Problem: How can we project onto a higher-dimensional subspace?

Example: $P_{xy\text{-plane}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

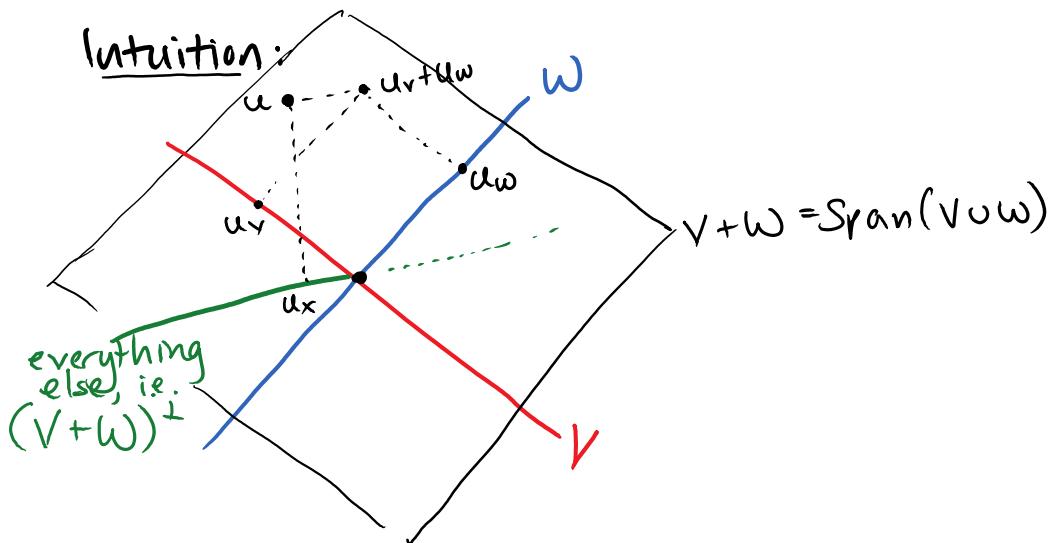
Example: $P_{xy\text{-plane}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\quad \quad \quad P_{x\text{-axis}} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}(100) \quad P_{y\text{-axis}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}(010)$$

Key property: If $V \perp W$,

$$P_V + P_W = P_{V+W}$$



⇒ To project into any space:
 "Split" it into orthogonal lines,
 and add up those projections

FACT: For a subspace $\mathcal{U} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ with orthonormal basis
 $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_k\}$,
 orthogonal projection onto \mathcal{U}

$$P_{\mathcal{U}} = \boxed{\sum_{j=1}^k \underbrace{\vec{u}_j \vec{u}_j^T}_{n \times n \text{ matrix}}$$

$$\text{Proof: } P_u = P_{\text{Span}\{u_1, \dots, u_{k-1}\}} + P_{\text{Span}\{u_k\}} \\ \text{with } u_k u_k^T$$

Exercise: Compute the projection of $e_1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots)$ onto a random 50-dimensional subspace of \mathbb{R}^{100} .

Answer:

$$n = 100;$$

$$d = 50;$$

$$v = \text{zeros}(n, 1); \\ v(1) = 1;$$

the vector e_1

```
A = randn(n, d);    # choose d random vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  
                     # with normally distributed coordinates  
[Q, R] = qr(A, 0);  # generate Q, whose columns form an  
                     # orthonormal basis for  $R(A)$ ,  
                     # the span of A's columns
```

we'll explain this function later

$Q(:, 1), Q(:, 2), \dots, Q(:, d)$ form an orthonormal basis for $R(A)$

① First approach

```
projectedv = zeros(n, 1);  
for i = 1:d  
    projectedv += Q(:, i) * (Q(:, i)'. * v);  
end for;  
projectedv
```

build sum $\sum_{i=1}^d q_i q_i^T v$
one term at a time

② Second try: Note: $Q = \sum_{i=1}^d q_i e_i^T$ where $q_i = Q(:, i)$ _{i-th column}

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow Q Q^T &= \left(\sum_i q_i e_i^T \right) \left(\sum_j e_j q_j^T \right) \\ &= \sum_{i,j} q_i (e_i^T e_j) q_j^T \\ &\quad \text{if } i \neq j \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^d q_i q_i^T \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{projectedv2} = Q * (Q' * v);$$

$$\text{sum}(\text{abs}(\text{projectedv2} - \text{projectedv}))$$

Trick: To check that two vectors ...

projectedv2 = U' * (U' * v);

sum(abs(projectedv2 - projectedv))

Trick:
To check that two vectors
are the same, add up the
absolute values of the coord.
differences

⑤ Check the answer:

1. Is projectedv in R(A)?

x = A\projectedv; # Solve for a linear comb. of the columns of A

err = A*x - projectedv # that gives projectedv

sum(abs(err))

2. Is v-projectedv perpendicular to R(A)?

(v - projectedv)' * A

(Question: What is the expected squared length
of the projection? $\text{projectedv}' * \text{projectedv}$)

Key Example: If $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, "resolution of the identity" is

$$\left| \sum_{j=1}^n \vec{v}_j \vec{v}_j^T = I \right| \text{identity matrix}$$

This gives an easy derivation of the other facts:

Example: I forgot, is

$$\vec{u} = \sum_j (\vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{u}) \vec{v}_j \quad \text{or} \quad \vec{u} = \sum_j (\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_j) \vec{v}_j ?$$

over \mathbb{C} , they're different!

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u} &= I\vec{u} \\ &= \sum_j \vec{v}_j \vec{v}_j^T \vec{u} = \sum_j \vec{v}_j (\vec{v}_j^T \vec{u}) = \sum_j (\vec{v}_j \cdot \vec{u}) \vec{v}_j \end{aligned}$$

Example:

$$\|\vec{u}\|^2 = \vec{u}^T \vec{u}$$

$$= \vec{u}^T I \vec{u}$$

$$= \vec{u}^T \sum_j \vec{v}_j \vec{v}_j^T \vec{u}$$

$$= \sum_j (\vec{u}^T \vec{v}_j) (\vec{v}_j^T \vec{u})$$

$$\Rightarrow \|\vec{u}\|^2 = \sum_j |\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_j|^2$$

Any basis expansion can be done by inserting
 $I = \sum_j v_j v_j^T$.

Even changes of basis:

$$B = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_n\} \quad C = \{\vec{c}_1, \dots, \vec{c}_n\}$$

↑ orthonormal sets

$$\begin{aligned} I &= I \cdot I \\ &= \sum_i c_i c_i^T \sum_j b_j b_j^T \\ &= \sum_{i,j} \vec{c}_i (c_i \circ b_j) b_j^T \end{aligned}$$

⑧ Orthonormal bases simplify many arguments

- If you prove something for the standard basis, it most likely holds for any orthonormal basis.
 Intuition and arguments are usually basis independent.

Example: If $V \perp W$,

$$P_{V+W} = P_V + P_W.$$

Why? Work in an orthonormal basis

$$\underbrace{\{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_p\}}_{\text{basis for } V}, \underbrace{\{\vec{b}_{p+1}, \dots, \vec{b}_{p+q}\}}_{\text{basis for } W}, \underbrace{\{\vec{b}_{p+q+1}, \dots, \vec{b}_n\}}_{\text{basis for } W}$$

$$P_V = \begin{pmatrix} I_p & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad P_W = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I_q & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$P_V + P_W = \begin{pmatrix} I_p & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & I_q & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Example: If $V \subseteq W$,
 $P_V P_W = P_W P_V = P_V$.

Check this.

But how do we find orthonormal bases for spaces?

(How does Matlab's qr function work?)