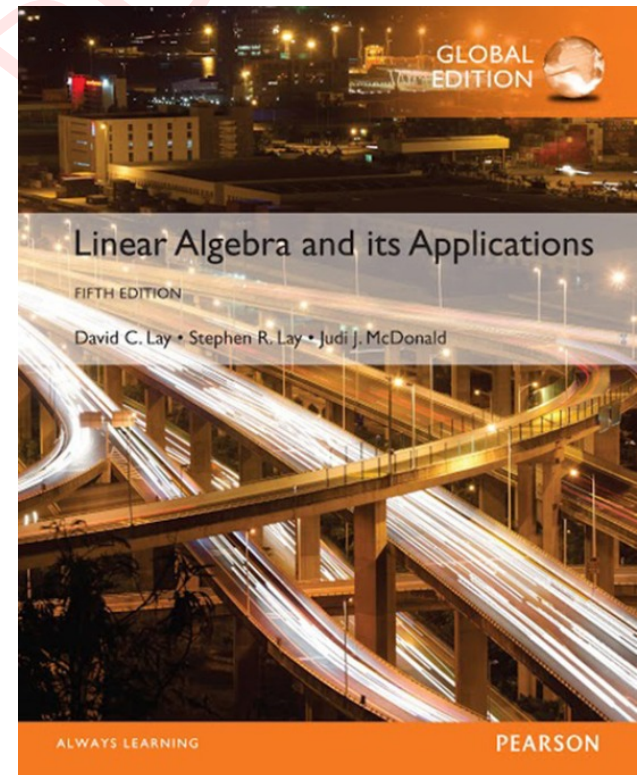


6

Orthogonality and Least Squares

6.2

ORTHOGONAL SETS



ORTHOGONAL SETS

- A set of vectors $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n is said to be an **orthogonal set** if each pair of distinct vectors from the set is orthogonal, that is, if $\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_j = 0$ whenever $i \neq j$.
- **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 .

ORTHOGONAL SETS

- **Proof:** If $0 = c_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p \mathbf{u}_p$ for some scalars c_1, \dots, c_p then

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= 0 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 = (c_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + c_p \mathbf{u}_p) \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 \\ &= (c_1 \mathbf{u}_1) \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 + (c_2 \mathbf{u}_2) \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 + \cdots + (c_p \mathbf{u}_p) \cdot \mathbf{u}_1 \\ &= c_1 (\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1) + c_2 (\mathbf{u}_2 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1) + \cdots + c_p (\mathbf{u}_p \cdot \mathbf{u}_1) \\ &= c_1 (\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1) \end{aligned}$$

because \mathbf{u}_1 is orthogonal to $\mathbf{u}_2, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p$.

- Since \mathbf{u}_1 is nonzero, $\mathbf{u}_1 \cdot \mathbf{u}_1$ is not zero and so $c_1 = 0$
- Similarly, c_2, \dots, c_p must be zero.

ORTHOGONAL SETS

- Thus 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

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

are given by

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

ORTHOGONAL SETS

- **Proof:** The orthogonality of $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ shows that

$$y \cdot u_1 = (c_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \dots + c_p \mathbf{u}_p) \cdot u_1 = c_1 u_1 \cdot u_1$$

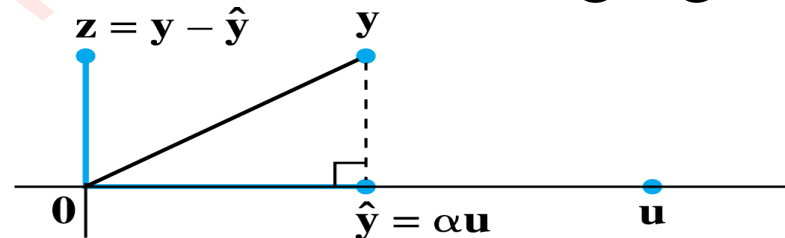
- Since $u_1 \cdot u_1$ is not zero, the equation above can be solved for c_1 .
- To find c_j for $j = 2, \dots, p$, compute $y \cdot u_j$ and solve for c_j .

AN ORTHOGONAL PROJECTION

- Given a nonzero vector \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n , consider the problem of decomposing a vector \mathbf{y} in \mathbb{R}^n into the sum of two vectors, one a multiple of \mathbf{u} and the other orthogonal to \mathbf{u} .
- We wish to write

$$(1) \quad \mathbf{y} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{z}$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \alpha \mathbf{u}$ for some scalar α and \mathbf{z} is some vector orthogonal to \mathbf{u} . See the following figure.



Finding α to make $\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$ orthogonal to \mathbf{u} .

AN ORTHOGONAL PROJECTION

- Given any scalar α , let $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y} - \alpha\mathbf{u}$, so that (1) is satisfied.
- Then $\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is orthogonal to \mathbf{u} if and only if
$$0 = (\mathbf{y} - \alpha\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u} - (\alpha\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u} - \alpha(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u})$$
- That is, (1) is satisfied with \mathbf{z} orthogonal to \mathbf{u} if and

only if $\alpha = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$.

- The vector $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is called the **orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto \mathbf{u}** , and the vector \mathbf{z} is called the **component of \mathbf{y} orthogonal to \mathbf{u}** .

AN ORTHOGONAL PROJECTION

- If c is any nonzero scalar and if \mathbf{u} is replaced by $c\mathbf{u}$ in the definition of $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$, then the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto $c\mathbf{u}$ is exactly the same as the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto \mathbf{u} .
- Hence this projection is determined by the *subspace* L spanned by \mathbf{u} (the line through \mathbf{u} and $\mathbf{0}$).
- Sometimes $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is denoted by $\text{proj}_L \mathbf{y}$ and is called the **orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto L** .
- That is,

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \text{proj}_L \mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u} \quad (2)$$

AN ORTHOGONAL PROJECTION

- **Example 3:** Let $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Find the

orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto \mathbf{u} . Then write \mathbf{y} as the sum of two orthogonal vectors, one in $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{u}\}$ and one orthogonal to \mathbf{u} .

- **Solution:** Compute

$$\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 40$$

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = 20$$

AN ORTHOGONAL PROJECTION

- The orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto \mathbf{u} is

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u} = \frac{40}{20} \mathbf{u} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

and the component of \mathbf{y} orthogonal to \mathbf{u} is

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

- The sum of these two vectors is \mathbf{y} .

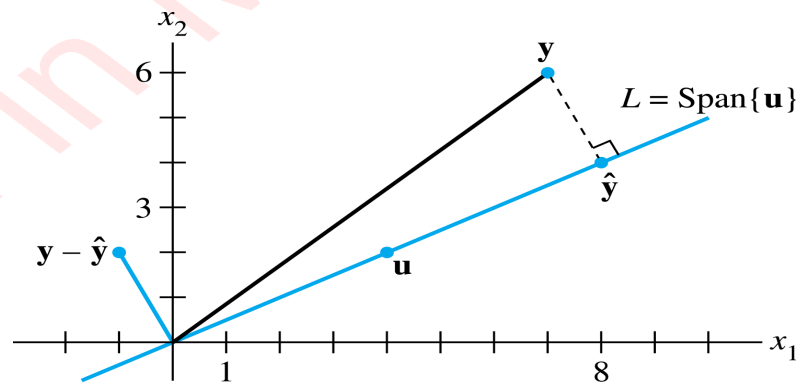
AN ORTHOGONAL PROJECTION

- That is,

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

$\uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow \qquad \qquad \uparrow$
 $y \qquad \qquad \hat{y} \qquad \qquad (y - \hat{y})$

- The decomposition of \mathbf{y} is illustrated in the following figure:



The orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto a line L through the origin.

AN ORTHOGONAL PROJECTION

- *Note:* If the calculations above are correct, then $\{\hat{y}, y - \hat{y}\}$ will be an orthogonal set.

- As a check, compute

$$\hat{y} \cdot (y - \hat{y}) = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = -8 + 8 = 0$$

- Since the line segment in the figure on the previous slide between y and \hat{y} is perpendicular to L , by construction of \hat{y} , the point identified with \hat{y} is the closest point of L to y .

ORTHONORMAL SETS

- A set $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is an **orthonormal set** if it is an orthogonal set of unit vectors.
- If W is the subspace spanned by such a set, then $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is an **orthonormal basis** for W , since the set is automatically linearly independent, by Theorem 4.
- The simplest example of an orthonormal set is the standard basis $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$ for \mathbb{R}^n .
- Any nonempty subset of $\{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$ is orthonormal, too.

ORTHONORMAL SETS

- **Example 2:** Show that $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^3 , where

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

- **Solution:** Compute

$$\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = -3 / \sqrt{66} + 2 / \sqrt{66} + 1 / \sqrt{66} = 0$$

$$\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 = -3 / \sqrt{726} - 4 / \sqrt{726} + 7 / \sqrt{726} = 0$$

ORTHONORMAL SETS

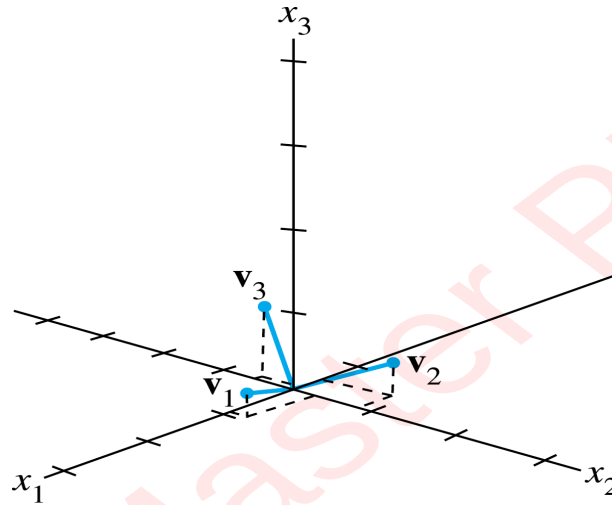
$$\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 = 1 / \sqrt{396} - 8 / \sqrt{396} + 7 / \sqrt{396} = 0$$

- Thus $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is an orthogonal set.
- Also, $\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 = 9 / 11 + 1 / 11 + 1 / 11 = 1$
 $\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = 1 / 6 + 4 / 6 + 1 / 6 = 1$
 $\mathbf{v}_3 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 = 1 / 66 + 16 / 66 + 49 / 66 = 1$

which shows that \mathbf{v}_1 , \mathbf{v}_2 , and \mathbf{v}_3 are unit vectors.

- Thus $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is an orthonormal set.
- Since the set is linearly independent, its three vectors form a basis for . See the figure on the next slide.

ORTHONORMAL SETS



- When the vectors in an orthogonal set of nonzero vectors are *normalized* to have unit length, the new vectors will still be orthogonal, and hence the new set will be an orthonormal set.

ORTHONORMAL SETS

- **Theorem 6:** An $m \times n$ matrix U has orthonormal columns if and only if $U^T U = I$.
- **Proof:** To simplify notation, we suppose that U has only three columns, each a vector in \mathbb{R}^m .
- Let $U = [\mathbf{u}_1 \quad \mathbf{u}_2 \quad \mathbf{u}_3]$ and compute

$$U^T U = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1^T \\ \mathbf{u}_2^T \\ \mathbf{u}_3^T \end{bmatrix} [\mathbf{u}_1 \quad \mathbf{u}_2 \quad \mathbf{u}_3] = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_2 & \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_3 \\ \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{u}_2 & \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{u}_3 \\ \mathbf{u}_3^T \mathbf{u}_1 & \mathbf{u}_3^T \mathbf{u}_2 & \mathbf{u}_3^T \mathbf{u}_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad (4)$$

ORTHONORMAL SETS

- The entries in the matrix at the right are inner products, using transpose notation.
- The columns of U are orthogonal if and only if
$$\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_2 = \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{u}_1 = 0, \mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_3 = \mathbf{u}_3^T \mathbf{u}_1 = 0, \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{u}_3 = \mathbf{u}_3^T \mathbf{u}_2 = 0 \quad (5)$$
- The columns of U all have unit length if and only if
$$\mathbf{u}_1^T \mathbf{u}_1 = 1, \mathbf{u}_2^T \mathbf{u}_2 = 1, \mathbf{u}_3^T \mathbf{u}_3 = 1 \quad (6)$$
- The theorem follows immediately from (4)–(6).

ORTHONORMAL SETS

- **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

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

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

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

- Properties (a) and (c) say that the linear mapping $\mathbf{x} \mapsto U\mathbf{x}$ preserves lengths and orthogonality.