

Chapter 7 Orthogonality

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Norm (or length) of vector:

$$||v|| = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$$

Distance between u and v :

$$d(u, v) = ||u - v||$$

Orthogonal (or perpendicular):

We say that u and v are orthogonal (or perpendicular) if $u \cdot v = 0$

(i.e. $u \cdot v = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \dots + u_nv_n = 0$)

Prop:

1. $u \cdot u = ||u||^2$
2. $u \cdot u \geq 0$, with equality if and only if $u = 0$
3. $u \cdot v = v \cdot u$
4. $u \cdot (v + w) = u \cdot v + u \cdot w$
5. $(cu) \cdot v = u \cdot (cv) = c(u \cdot v)$
6. $||cu|| = c||u||$

Unit vector and normalizing:

For any non-zero vector v , consider

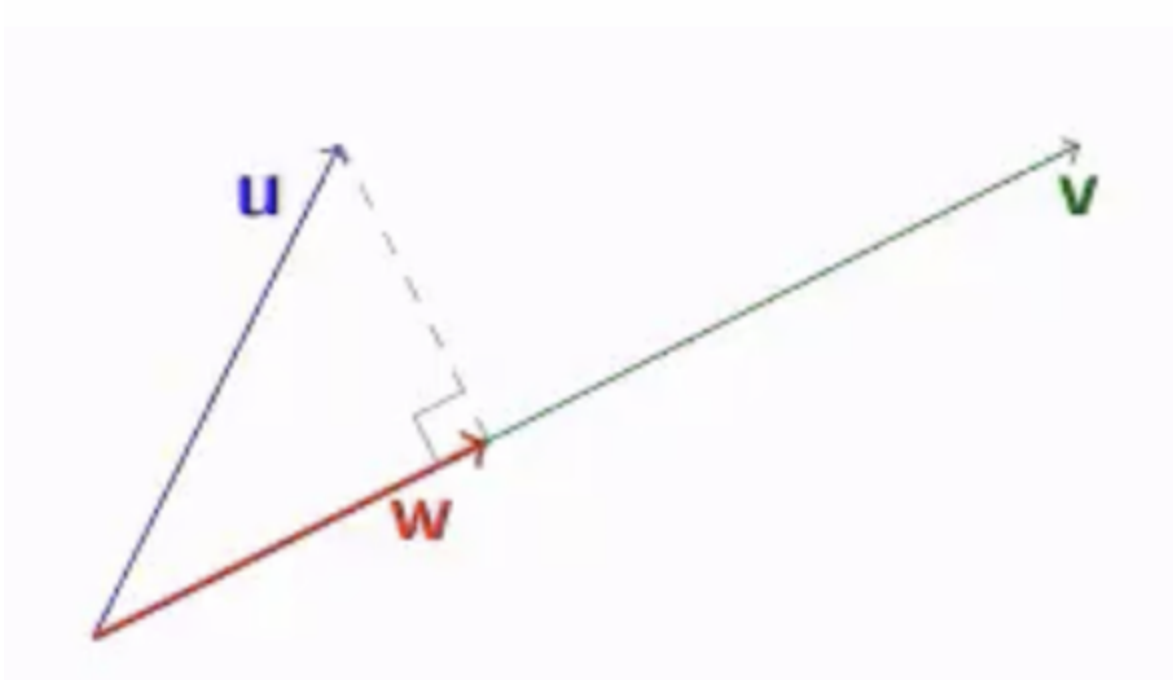
$$u = \frac{1}{||v||} v$$

Then $||u|| = 1$ and is called a **unit vector**. This process is known as **normalising** the vector v , producing a unit vector in the same direction as v .

Orthogonal projection:

In general, the orthogonal projection of u on a non-zero vector v is given by:

$$w = \frac{u \cdot v}{||v||^2} v$$



Pythagoras' Theorem

For two vectors:

Two vectors u and v in \mathbb{R}^n are **orthogonal IFF**:

$$||u||^2 + ||v||^2 = ||u + v||^2$$

Generally:

For m vectors $v_1, v_2 \dots v_m$ in \mathbb{R}^n , they are pairwise orthogonal IFF:

$$||v_1||^2 + ||v_2||^2 + \dots + ||v_m||^2 = ||v_1 + v_2 + \dots + v_m||^2$$

Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

For real numbers u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n and v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n , we have:

$$(u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n)^2 \leq (u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2)(v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2)$$

Equality holds IFF $\forall i \neq j, u_i v_j = u_j v_i$

For vector, we have:

For any $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have $|u \cdot v| \leq ||u|| \cdot ||v||$

Equality holds IFF $u \parallel v$

Triangle inequality

For any $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have:

$$||v_1|| + ||v_2|| + \dots + ||v_k|| \geq ||v_1 + v_2 + \dots + v_k||$$

Orthogonal set

Definition:

Let S be a subset of \mathbb{R}^n .

(a) S is said to be an **orthogonal set** if any two vectors in S are orthogonal.

(b) Furthermore, if every vector in S has unit length (i.e. norm 1), then S is said to be an orthonormal set.

Clearly, we can get an orthonormal set by normalizing each vector of an orthogonal set.

Orthogonal basis

In general, suppose $B = v_1, v_2, \dots, v_k$ is an orthogonal basis for a subspace V of \mathbb{R}^n . Then for any $v \in V$, we have:

$$v = \sum \frac{v \cdot v_i}{||v_i||^2} v_i$$

Furthermore, if the basis B is orthonormal, the above expression can be simplified to:

$$v = \sum (v \cdot v_i) v_i$$

Prop: Every orthogonal set of non-zero vectors is linearly independent.

Gram Schmidt process

Suppose $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\}$ is a basis for a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n . The **Gram Schmidt** process turns this basis into an orthogonal basis $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ by:

$$v_1 = u_1$$
$$v_i = u_i - \sum_{k=0}^{i-1} \frac{u_i \cdot v_k}{\|v_k\|} v_k \text{ for } 2 \leq i \leq k$$

Orthogonal Complement of S:

Definition:

Let S be a subset of \mathbb{R}^n .

The **Orthogonal complement** of S , denoted by S^\perp is the set of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n that are orthogonal to every vector in S .

i.e.

$$S^\perp = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^n : \forall u \in S, v \cdot u = 0\}$$

prop:

1. Let S be a subset of \mathbb{R}^n , then S^\perp is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .
2. Let S be a finite subset of \mathbb{R}^n . Then $S^\perp = (\text{Span } S)^\perp$
3. Let A be a matrix. Then $(\text{Row } A)^\perp = \text{Null } A$. (Here we identify the row vectors in $\text{Row } A$ as column vectors in the natural way.)

Orthogonal Decomposition Theorem

Definition

Let W be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

Then every vector u in \mathbb{R}^n can be written in the form $u = w + z$ where $w \in W$ and $z \in W^\perp$ in a unique way.

prop:

1. $\dim W + \dim W^\perp = n$
2. $B \cup B'$ is a basis for \mathbb{R}^n , where B is a basis for W and B' is a basis for W^\perp .

Orthogonal Projection

Let W be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . The **orthogonal projection** function

$U_W : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is a linear transformation. The standard matrix P_W of U_W is given by:

$P_W = C(C^T C)^{-1} C^T$, where C is a matrix whose columns form a basis for W .

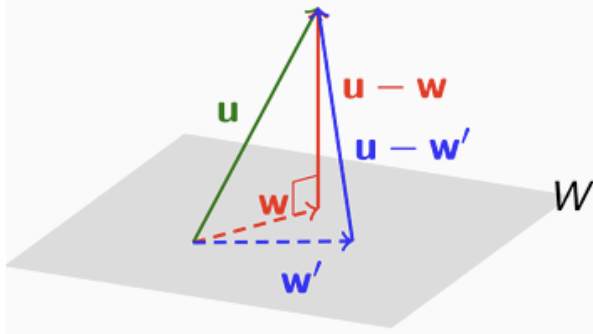
And we have:

Let C be a matrix whose columns are linearly independent. Then $C^T C$ is invertible.

prop:

$U_W(u)$ is the vector in W that is closest to u .

Proof:



Show: $\|u - w\| < \|u - w'\|$, if $w \neq w'$.

$$\begin{aligned} \|u - w'\|^2 &= \|u - w\|^2 + \|w - w'\|^2 \\ &> \|u - w\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Least Squares Fitting:

There are n points $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_n, y_n)$ on the plane. We use square deviation E to describe the fitting level of the straight line $y = a_0 + a_1 x$:

$$\begin{aligned} E &= \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i - (a_0 + a_1 x_i)]^2 \\ &= \left\| \begin{bmatrix} y_1 - (a_0 + a_1 x_1) \\ y_2 - (a_0 + a_1 x_2) \\ \vdots \\ y_n - (a_0 + a_1 x_n) \end{bmatrix} \right\|^2 \\ &= \|y - (a_0 \mathbf{1} + a_1 \mathbf{x})\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Hence we want to look for the vector in $\text{Span}\{1, x\}$ that is closest to y , naturally, we consider the orthofonal projection.

根据线性代数理论, y 在子空间 $Span\{1, x\}$ 上的正交投影是最小化误差 $\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{p}\|$ 的唯一解

More generally, finding the 'Least Squares Fitting' is equivalent to finding the 'best approximation' of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, where:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 \\ 1 & x_2 \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_n \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

It's equivalent to the 'best approximate solution' \mathbf{z} so that $A\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{b}'$ is as close to \mathbf{b} as possible. This amounts to solving the equation $A\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{b}'$ where \mathbf{b}' is the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{b} on $\text{Col}(A)$. There are two cases:

1. There are infinitely solutions of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$

The form of the solution can be

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{z}$$

where \mathbf{x}_0 is a **particular solution** of the linear equation

\mathbf{z} is the **general solution** of the linear equation ($A\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{0}$, i.e. $\mathbf{z} \in \text{Null}(A)$)

We want to find the least norm solution, which means the \mathbf{z} is closest to $\mathbf{0}$

2. There are no solution of $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$

So there also be infinitely many best approximate solutions to $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}'$