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## Definition 1

A **unit vector** is a vector of length 1.

If  $\vec{u}$  is a unit vector, then the orthogonal projection on its line can be written as

$$\vec{u}(\vec{u}^T \vec{u})^{-1} \vec{u}^T = \vec{u} \vec{u}^T.$$

## Definition 2

An **orthonormal basis** of a space is a basis  $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$  such that

$$\vec{v}_i^T \vec{v}_j = \begin{cases} 0 & i \neq j \text{ (ortho)} \\ 1 & i = j \text{ (normal)} \end{cases}$$

Letting  $\Omega = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \cdots & \vec{v}_n \end{pmatrix}$  be the matrix of collections of these vectors. Then  $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$  is an orthonormal basis if and only if  $\Omega^T \Omega = I$

# Orthonormal basis



Note that columns of  $\Omega$  being a basis means it is a square matrix, and thus  $\Omega^T \Omega = I$  is equivalent to  $\Omega \Omega^T = I$ . Therefore, **columns being orthonormal basis is equivalent as rows being orthogonal.**

Suppose  $\Omega = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \cdots & \vec{v}_n \end{pmatrix}$ , then

$$\Omega^T \Omega = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_n \\ \vec{v}_2^T \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2^T \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_2^T \vec{v}_n \\ \cdots & \cdots & \ddots & \cdots \\ \vec{v}_n^T \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_n^T \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_n^T \vec{v}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

## Orthogonal (Symmetric) Cross-Filling

Let  $A$  be a symmetric matrix, if we choose the center of the cross-filling to be on diagonal, then the cross-filling summands  $A = A_1 + A_2$  are all symmetric matrix!

$$X = (Ae_i)(e_i^T Ae_i)^{-1}(e_i^T A) = (Ae_i)(e_i^T Ae_i)^{-1}(Ae_i)^T$$

Symmetric!

# Orthogonal (Symmetric) Cross-Filling

**Exercise.** The following matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0 & 0 & -0.5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -0.5 & 0 & 0 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}$$

is a projection to the space

$$W : \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \\ w \end{pmatrix} : x + y - z + w = 0 \right\}$$

Find an orthonormal basis  $\vec{w}_1, \vec{w}_2, \vec{w}_3$  of  $W$ .

## Orthogonal (Symmetric) Cross-Filling

**Solution.** We want to keep the matrix symmetric while cross-filling, the method is to choose crosses in a symmetric way - with centers on diagonal

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0 & 0 & -0.5 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -0.5 & 0 & 0 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0 & 0 & -0.5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -0.5 & 0 & 0 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ \vec{0} & 1 & \vec{0} & \vec{0} \\ 0 & \vec{0} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \vec{0} & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & \vec{0} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \vec{0} & 0 \\ \vec{0} & \vec{0} & 1 & \vec{0} \\ 0 & 0 & \vec{0} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Orthogonal (Symmetric) Cross-Filling

We may decompose this into

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -0.5 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{0.5} \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0 & 0 & -0.5 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \vec{0} \\ 1 \\ \vec{0} \\ \vec{0} \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{1} (\vec{0} \quad 1 \quad \vec{0} \quad \vec{0}) + \begin{pmatrix} \vec{0} \\ \vec{0} \\ 1 \\ \vec{0} \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{1} (\vec{0} \quad \vec{0} \quad 1 \quad \vec{0})$$

Now we decompose it into

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ -0.5 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{0.5}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{0.5}} \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0 & 0 & -0.5 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} \vec{0} \\ 1 \\ \vec{0} \\ \vec{0} \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} (\vec{0} \quad 1 \quad \vec{0} \quad \vec{0}) \\ + \begin{pmatrix} \vec{0} \\ \vec{0} \\ 1 \\ \vec{0} \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{1}} (\vec{0} \quad \vec{0} \quad 1 \quad \vec{0})$$



# Orthogonal (Symmetric) Cross-Filling

Therefore, with

$$\vec{v}_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{0.5}} \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0 & 0 & -0.5 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \vec{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{0} \\ 1 \\ \vec{0} \\ \vec{0} \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{0} \\ \vec{0} \\ 1 \\ \vec{0} \end{pmatrix}$$

We have already decomposed

$$P = \vec{v}_1 \vec{v}_1^T + \vec{v}_2 \vec{v}_2^T + \vec{v}_3 \vec{v}_3^T$$

Note that  $P$  is projection, so the number 3 has been reflected in  $\text{tr}(P)$ .

# Orthogonal (Symmetric) Cross-Filling

Since  $P$  is a projection, so is  $I - P$ .  $I$  is symmetric, so is  $I - P$ .

$$I - P = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & 0 & 0 & 0.5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0.5 & 0 & 0 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}$$

We can write it as

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ \vec{0} \\ \vec{0} \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{0.5}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{0.5}} \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 & \vec{0} & \vec{0} & 0.5 \end{pmatrix} = \vec{v}_4 \vec{v}_4^T$$

# Orthogonal (Symmetric) Cross-Filling

Therefore, we have collected vectors

$$P = \vec{v}_1 \vec{v}_1^T + \vec{v}_2 \vec{v}_2^T + \vec{v}_3 \vec{v}_3^T \quad I - P = \vec{v}_4 \vec{v}_4^T$$

Therefore

$$I_4 = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \vec{v}_3 & \vec{v}_4 \end{pmatrix}}_{\Omega} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1^T \\ \vec{v}_2^T \\ \vec{v}_3^T \\ \vec{v}_4^T \end{pmatrix}}_{\Omega^T}$$

This means columns of  $\Omega$  is an orthonormal basis.

# Orthogonal (Symmetric) Cross-Filling

**Exercise.** Some students make this argument for a  $4 \times 4$  symmetric matrix  $A$

$$A = \vec{v}_1 \vec{v}_1^T + \vec{v}_2 \vec{v}_2^T + \vec{v}_3 \vec{v}_3^T$$

$$I_4 - A = \vec{v}_4 \vec{v}_4^T + \vec{v}_5 \vec{v}_5^T$$

So he obtained that

$$I_4 = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \vec{v}_3 & \vec{v}_4 & \vec{v}_5 \end{pmatrix}}_{\Omega} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1^T \\ \vec{v}_2^T \\ \vec{v}_3^T \\ \vec{v}_4^T \\ \vec{v}_5^T \end{pmatrix}}_{\Omega^T}$$

Is columnn of  $\Omega$  an orthonormal basis? why?

## Orthogonal (Symmetric) Cross-Filling

**Solution.** In order for columns to be a basis, one has to be a square matrix. So in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  the columns of  $\Omega$  can only be basis when it consists of 4 columns.

# Orthogonal (Symmetric) Cross-Filling

## Theorem 1

Suppose  $P = P^T = P^2$  orthogonal projection matrix. Diagonal centered Cross-filling splits  $P$  in to mutually orthogonal projections

$$P = \underbrace{v_1 v_1^T}_{P_1} + \cdots + \underbrace{v_r v_r^T}_{P_r}$$

and  $v_1, \dots, v_r$  is an orthonormal basis of  $\text{Col}(P)$ .

**Proof:** Suppose  $P$  is of size  $n \times n$ ,  $\text{trace}(P) = \text{rank}(P) = r$ . So  $\text{trace}(I_n - P) = \text{rank}(I_n - P) = n - r$ . Since  $P$  is symmetric, so  $I_n - P$  is symmetric, using diagonal cross-filling we may decompose

$$I_n - P = \underbrace{v_{r+1} v_{r+1}^T}_{P_{r+1}} + \cdots + \underbrace{v_n v_n^T}_{P_n}$$

Since  $\vec{v}_1 \vec{v}_1^T + \dots + \vec{v}_n \vec{v}_n^T = I_n$ , then  $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n$  is an orthonormal basis!

# Gram–Schmidt orthogonalization

**Exercise.** Let  $W \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  be subspace spanned by following vectors

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Determine an orthogonal basis for  $W$ .

**Solution..** The standard way is to write

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

and therefore  $W = \text{Col}(A)$  We may use the formula of orthogonal projection to write

$$P = A(A^T A)^{-1} A^T$$

then  $P$  is an orthogonal projection and we may use diagonal corss-filling to find an orthogonal basis. However, the **Gram–Schmidt** method is a simpler algorithm of doing so.

## Description of the algorithm

Since  $A$  is linearly independent,  $A^T A$  is positive definite

$$0 = x^T A^T A x = (Ax)^T (Ax) \implies Ax = 0 \implies x = 0.$$

During the homework 1, we have showed that positive definite matrix always LU-decomposable. Therefore

$$A^T A = LDL^T$$

for some lower triangular matrix  $L$  and all diagonals of  $D$  is **positive**.

Therefore

$$(A^T A)^{-1} = L^{T-1} D^{-1} L^{-1}$$

This decomposes

$$P = \underbrace{AL^{T-1}\sqrt{D^{-1}}}_{\Omega} \underbrace{\sqrt{D^{-1}}L^{-1}A^T}_{\Omega^T}$$



## Description of the algorithm

$$P = \underbrace{AL^{T-1}\sqrt{D^{-1}}}_{\Omega} \underbrace{\sqrt{D^{-1}}L^{-1}A^T}_{\Omega^T}$$

Because both  $L$  and  $D$  invertible,  $A$  having left inverse implies that  $\Omega$  having left inverse. So  $\Omega^T$  have right inverse. Since  $P = \Omega\Omega^T$  is a projection matrix, we have

$$\Omega^T\Omega = I_m$$

this implies columns of  $\Omega$  is orthonormal basis of the column space of  $A$ .

# Description of the algorithm



: Wait a moment, why  $P = \Omega\Omega^T$  implies  $\Omega^T\Omega = I_m$  ????



: Is that because when  $P = P^2$ , then  $P = AB$  implies  $BA = I$ ?



: You have to assume  $A$  has left inverse and  $B$  has right inverse for the statement



I am sure that we have learned it before. But it was not on the midterm so I did not review. How to prove it?



Do you know the proof?

## Just in case if you forgot



Because  $P^2 = P$ , we have  $ABAB = AB = AIB$

Sine  $A$  has left inverse, so  $BAB = IB$

Since  $B$  has right inverse, so  $BA = I$ .



# Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

We describe the step of the algorithm for finding orthogonal basis of Column space of  $A$ .

- Using LU-decomposition, write  $A^T A = LDL^T$
- Columns of  $AL^{T-1}\sqrt{D^{-1}}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $\text{Col}(A)$ .

# Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

Let's finish the problem!

**Exercise.** Let  $W \subset \mathbb{R}^3$  be subspace spanned by following vectors

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Determine an orthogonal basis for  $W$ .

**Solution..** The standard way is to write

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

Calculate

$$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

Using cross-filling to find LU decomposition

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & frm-e \\ frm-e & 2 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \vec{0} \\ \vec{0} & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So we got

$$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

So

$$(A^T A)^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

An orthonormal basis is given by

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{L^{T-1}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1}}_{\sqrt{D^{-1}}} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

# Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

Method to find **orthonormal basis** of a subspace

## Summary

- For a subspace given by image of projection  $P$ : Do diagonal cross-filling of  $P$
- For a subspace with given basis  $W = \text{Col}(A)$ ,  $A$  having left inverse : Using Gram-Schmidt method to do LU-decomposition of  $A^T A = LDL^T$  and use the formula  $AL^{T-1}\sqrt{D^{-1}}$ .

# QR decomposition

When  $W$  is the whole space, then columns of  $A$  being basis means that it is an invertible square matrix, the formula

$$AL^{T-1}\sqrt{D^{-1}}$$

gives a square matrix with columns orthonormal basis for the whole space. Therefore, we write

$$Q = AL^{T-1}\sqrt{D^{-1}}, \quad R = \sqrt{D}L^T$$

and we call

$$A = QR$$

the QR-decomposition of matrix  $A$ .



# QR decomposition

**Exercise.** Find QR decomposition of the matrix

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

We calculate

$$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 5 & 13 \end{pmatrix}$$

Use cross-filling we decompose

$$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 5 \\ 5 & 12.5 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 2.5 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_L \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.5 \end{pmatrix}}_D \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2.5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{L^T}$$

So

$$R = \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{0.5} \end{pmatrix}}_{\sqrt{D}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2.5 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}}_{L^T}, \quad Q = AR^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \\ \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

## Gram-Schmidt for abstract functions

Note that writing  $A = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_n \end{pmatrix}$ , we have in fact

$$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_n \\ \vec{v}_2^T \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_2^T \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_2^T \vec{v}_n \\ \cdots & \cdots & \ddots & \cdots \\ \vec{v}_n^T \vec{v}_1 & \vec{v}_n^T \vec{v}_2 & \cdots & \vec{v}_n^T \vec{v}_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Symbolically, we write the inner product as a pair

$$\vec{v}_1^T \vec{v}_2 =: \langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle$$

it has property that  $\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2 \rangle = \langle \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_1 \rangle$  and  $\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_1 \rangle = 0 \iff \vec{v}_1 = 0$ .  
Having this pair is the same as having notion of length and angles.

# Gram-Schmidt for abstract functions

Generally, we may be able to define length and angles for functions for future applications. For example, we may define

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_0^\pi f(x)g(x)dx$$

In the abstract word, if the vector is given  $\vec{v} = f(x)$ , then the meaning of transpose is in fact a linear transformation

$$\vec{v}^T = \langle f(x), - \rangle$$

and the projection can be written by

$$\frac{\vec{v}\vec{v}^T}{\vec{v}^T\vec{v}} = \frac{f(x)\langle f(x), - \rangle}{\langle f(x), f(x) \rangle}$$

## Gram-Schmidt for abstract functions

This approach is extremely useful in Fourier analysis.

**Exercise.** Let  $W$  be vector space of polynomials with degree at most 2. Find an orthonormal basis for the inner product defined by

$$\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x)g(x)dx.$$

**Solution.** Let  $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & x & x^2 \end{pmatrix}$  We find the table of inner product

$$A^T A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{2} & 1 & 0 \\ \frac{1}{3} & 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{12} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{180} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

## Gram-Schmidt for abstract functions

So an orthonormal basis is given by

$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & x & x^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{12} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{180} \end{pmatrix}$$

## Application of orthonormal basis

Let  $v_1 = f_1(x)$   $v_2 = f_2(x)$   $v_3 = f_3(x)$  be orthonormal basis given as before. Note that this means

$$\underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} v_1^T \\ v_2^T \\ v_3^T \end{pmatrix}}_{A^T} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & v_3 \end{pmatrix}}_A = I.$$

This implies that

$$P := AA^T = v_1 v_1^T + v_2 v_2^T + v_3 v_3^T$$

is an orthogonal projection matrix projecting to space spanned by  $v_1, v_2, v_3$ . Note that for any vector  $w$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned} Pw &= v_1 v_1^T w + v_2 v_2^T w + v_3 v_3^T w \\ &= v_1 \langle v_1, w \rangle + v_2 \langle v_2, w \rangle + v_3 \langle v_3, w \rangle \end{aligned}$$

## Application of orthonormal basis

This means that for any function  $g$ , the orthogonal projection to the subspace is given by the formula

$$f_1(x) \cdot \int_0^1 f_1(x)g(x)dx + f_2(x) \cdot \int_0^1 f_2(x)g(x)dx + f_3(x) \cdot \int_0^1 f_3(x)g(x)dx$$

Therefore, finding an orthonormal basis can help writing down orthogonal projections clearly.