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Math 225 Lecture 8 Sept 22nd 2023

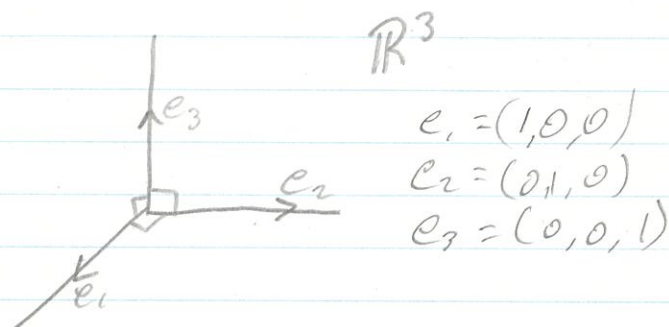
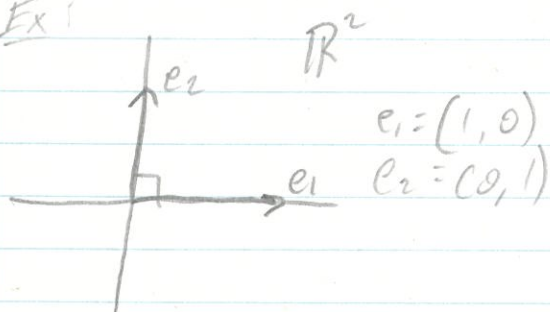
Goal: students should understand the basic concepts behind orthogonality. Furthermore students should be able to verify when a set of vectors are orthogonal.

Class Q: How can you check when vectors are \perp to one another?

Section 5.1

Perpendicular & orthogonal are the same

Ex 1

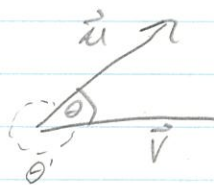


Recall: if $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ (or \mathbb{R}^n more generally) then

$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2$ but geometrically this is interpreted as

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta$$

(note it doesn't matter which θ as $\cos(2\pi - \theta) = \cos \theta$)



you may recognize this as \vec{u} & \vec{v} are orthogonal iff $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$

these are equivalent because if $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| \cos \theta = 0$ then $\cos(\theta) = 0$ (as $\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\| > 0$ if $\vec{u} \neq 0$ and $\vec{v} \neq 0$)

$$\Rightarrow \theta = \pi/2$$

(2)

it turns out this works in general not just \mathbb{R}^2

For a proof see office hours

↳ We say a set of vectors $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_r\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n is orthogonal if $\vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_j = 0$ when $i \neq j$ i.e. when the vectors are pairwise orthogonal or any two are orthogonal

Example $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ $\{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$
 $\{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \vec{e}_3\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ (& so on)

↳ Moreover such a set of vectors is said to be orthonormal if in addition to being orthogonal they are "normal" (have length 1 $|\vec{v}_i| = 1$)

Example $\{\vec{e}_1, \vec{e}_2, \vec{e}_3\} \subset \mathbb{R}^3$ $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \right\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$

verify $\begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} = \cos \theta (-\sin \theta) + \sin \theta \cos \theta = 0$

$$\left\| \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta \\ \sin \theta \end{bmatrix} \right\| = \sqrt{(\cos \theta)^2 + (\sin \theta)^2} = \sqrt{1} = 1$$

$$\left\| \begin{bmatrix} -\sin \theta \\ \cos \theta \end{bmatrix} \right\| = \sqrt{(-\sin \theta)^2 + (\cos \theta)^2} = \sqrt{(\sin \theta)^2 + (\cos \theta)^2} = \sqrt{1} = 1$$

Lemma: any set of n different orthogonal vectors in \mathbb{R}^n forms a basis

(3)

Proof: for $n=3$ (exact same process for arbitrary n)

let $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3$ be orthogonal vectors & suppose

$$c_1 \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \vec{v}_2 + c_3 \vec{v}_3 = \vec{0}$$

lets dot with \vec{v}_1

$$c_1 \underbrace{\vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_1}_{=\vec{0}} + c_2 \underbrace{\vec{v}_2 \cdot \vec{v}_1}_{=\vec{0}} + c_3 \underbrace{\vec{v}_3 \cdot \vec{v}_1}_{=\vec{0}} = \underbrace{\vec{0} \cdot \vec{v}_1}_{=\vec{0}}$$

$$\Rightarrow c_1 |\vec{v}_1|^2 = 0 \Rightarrow c_1 = 0$$

if you repeat this process with \vec{v}_2 & \vec{v}_3 you get that $c_2 = c_3 = 0$. this gives us 3 linearly independent vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 which means (as $\dim(\mathbb{R}^3) = 3$) they form a basis!

why do we care? orthogonal things are nice!

Thm: let $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_n\}$ be an orthogonal basis for \mathbb{R}^n and $\vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ then the unique scalars c_1, \dots, c_n s.t.

$$\vec{u} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n \text{ are given by } c_i = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_i}{\vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_i} \quad \forall i$$

Proof: by assumption $\vec{u} = c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n$ since the \vec{v}_i 's form a basis. to get the formula we will do the same trick & look at

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_i = (c_1 \vec{v}_1 + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n) \cdot \vec{v}_i$$

$$= c_1 \vec{v}_1 \cdot \vec{v}_i + \dots + c_n \vec{v}_n \cdot \vec{v}_i \quad \text{by orthogonality}$$

$$= c_i (\vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_i) \quad \text{since } \vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_j = 0 \text{ unless } i=j$$

since $\vec{v}_i \neq 0$ $\vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_i \neq 0$ & we can divide by it to get $c_i = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}_i}{\vec{v}_i \cdot \vec{v}_i}$

(4)

this idea leads to projections (mondays class)

Naturally one might then consider what we can do with orthonormal vectors? put them in a matrix! when we do we get some remarkable properties.

↳ an $n \times n$ matrix A whose columns form an orthonormal set is called an orthogonal matrix

Properties:

- A is orthogonal iff $A^{-1} = A^T$
- $\|A\vec{x}\| = \|\vec{x}\| \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- $A\vec{x} \cdot A\vec{y} = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$
- A^{-1} is orthogonal
- $\det(A) = \pm 1$
- if λ is an e val of A then $|\lambda| = 1$
- if A & B are orthogonal then so too is AB

Proof! (of #1) in this context showing that $A^{-1} = A^T$ is equivalent to $A^T A = I_n$ (as A is invertible & inverses are unique)

consider $A^T A$ if we want it to be the identity that is showing that $(A^T A)_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$

let \vec{a}_i denote the columns of A and hence the rows of A^T by the definition of matrix multiplication

$$A^T A = \begin{bmatrix} \text{--- } \vec{a}_1 \text{ ---} \\ \vdots \\ \text{--- } \vec{a}_n \text{ ---} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \downarrow \\ \vec{a}_1 & \dots & \vec{a}_n \\ \downarrow \\ 1 & & 1 \end{bmatrix} = [a_i \cdot a_j]_{ij}$$

(5)

however the \vec{a}_i 's form an orthonormal set by assumption
thus $\vec{a}_i \cdot \vec{a}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & i=j \\ 0 & \text{else} \end{cases}$ which is as we showed also equal
to $[A^T A]_{ij}$ thus completing the
proof

~~QED~~