

6.2 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 $i \neq j$.

Example 1. Determine which sets of vectors are orthogonal.

$$(1) \mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 4 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{u}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix}.$$

$$\vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 4 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \\ -7 \end{bmatrix} = -3 - 16 + 21 = 2 \neq 0$$

Thus the set is not an orthogonal set.

$$(2) \mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ -2 \\ 7/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

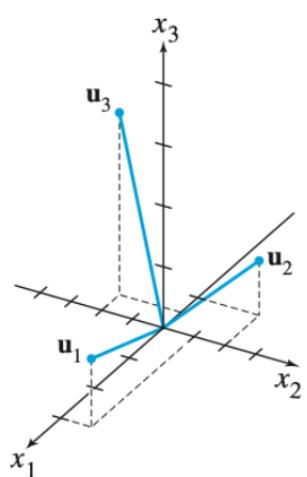


FIGURE 1

$$\vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_2 = 3 \times (-1) + 1 \times 2 + 1 \times 1 = 0$$

$$\vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_3 = 3 \times (-\frac{1}{2}) + 1 \times (-2) + 1 \times \frac{7}{2} = 0$$

$$\vec{u}_2 \cdot \vec{u}_3 = -1 \times (-\frac{1}{2}) + 2 \times (-2) + 1 \times \frac{7}{2} = 0$$

Since each pair of distinct vectors is orthogonal,

$\{\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \vec{u}_3\}$ is an orthogonal set.

Proof on Page 359

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 .

Definition. An **orthogonal basis** for a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n is a basis for W that is also an orthogonal set.

The next theorem suggests why an orthogonal basis is much nicer than other bases. The weights in a linear combination can be computed easily.

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

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

are given by

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

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{y} &= c_1 \vec{u}_1 + c_2 \vec{u}_2 + \cdots + c_p \vec{u}_p \\ \Rightarrow \vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_1 &= c_1 \vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_1 + c_2 \vec{u}_2 \cdot \vec{u}_1 + \cdots + c_p \vec{u}_p \cdot \vec{u}_1 \quad \text{since } \vec{u}_j \cdot \vec{u}_i = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j \\ \Rightarrow \vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_1 &= c_1 \vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_1 \\ \Rightarrow c_1 &= \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_1}{\vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_1}\end{aligned}$$

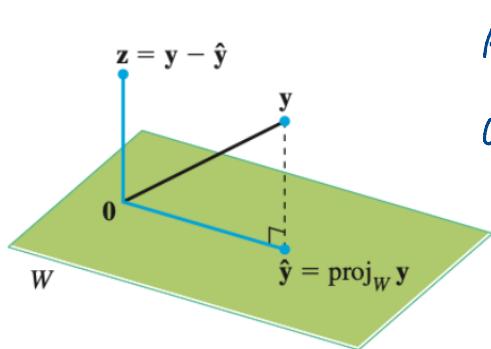
Similarly, the result holds for every c_j ($j = 1, \dots, p$)

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} .

$$\mathbf{y} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{z}$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \alpha \mathbf{u}$ for some scalar α and \mathbf{z} is some vector orthogonal to \mathbf{u} . We can show that $\alpha = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}}$:



As $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \alpha \vec{\mathbf{u}}$, $\vec{\mathbf{z}} = \vec{\mathbf{y}} - \alpha \vec{\mathbf{u}}$

also $\vec{\mathbf{z}}$ is orthogonal to $\vec{\mathbf{u}}$

$$0 = \vec{\mathbf{z}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{u}} = (\vec{\mathbf{y}} - \alpha \vec{\mathbf{u}}) \cdot \vec{\mathbf{u}} = \vec{\mathbf{y}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{u}} - \alpha \vec{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{u}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{\vec{\mathbf{y}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{u}}}{\vec{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \vec{\mathbf{u}}}$$

FIGURE 2

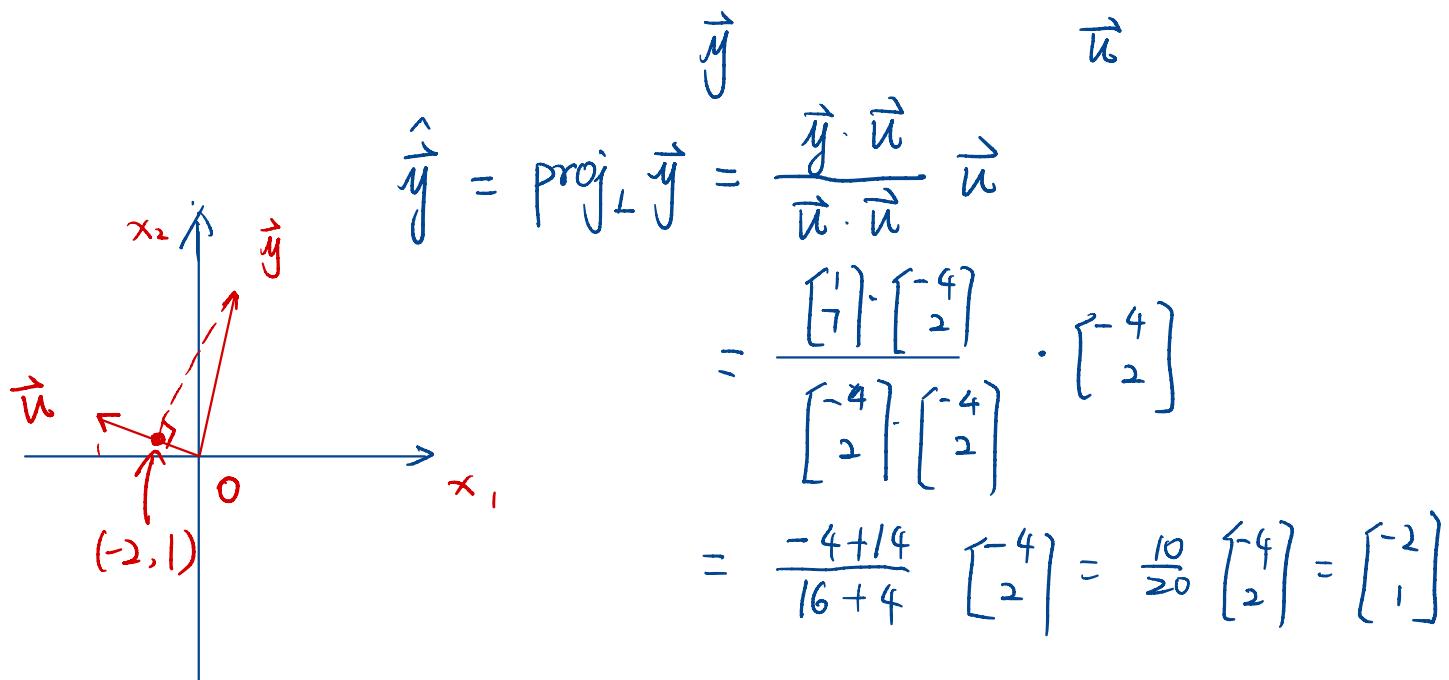
Finding α to make $\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$ orthogonal to \mathbf{u} .

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}** . Let L be the line spanned by $\vec{\mathbf{u}}$ (line through $\vec{\mathbf{u}}$ and $\vec{\mathbf{o}}$)

Note $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is also denoted by $\text{proj}_L \mathbf{y}$ and is called **the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto L** .

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \text{proj}_L \mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$$

Example 2. Compute the orthogonal projection of $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$ onto the line through $\begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ and the origin.



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

(1) Find the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto \mathbf{u} .

(2) Write \mathbf{y} as the sum of two orthogonal vectors, one in $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{u}\}$ and one orthogonal to \mathbf{u} .

(3) Compute the distance from \mathbf{y} to the line through \mathbf{u} and the origin.

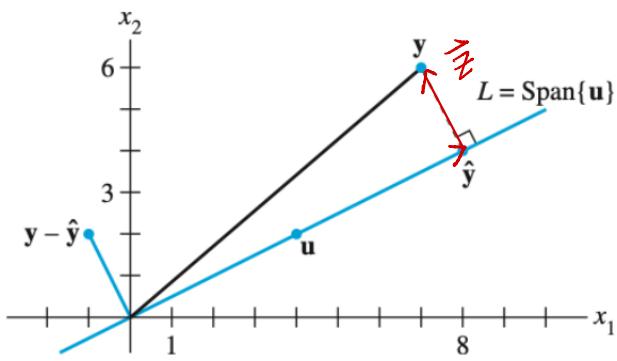


FIGURE 3 The orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto a line L through the origin.

ANS:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(1)} \quad \hat{\mathbf{y}} &= \text{proj}_L \mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u} \\ &= \frac{\begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}}{\begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}} \mathbf{u} \\ &= \frac{40}{20} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

(2) The component of \vec{y} orthogonal to \vec{u} is

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

Thus $\begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ ($\vec{y} = \hat{\vec{y}} + \vec{z}$ ^{in $\text{span}\{\vec{u}\}$} ^{orthogonal to \vec{u}})

(3) Notice that the distance from \vec{y} to L is the length of $\vec{y} - \hat{\vec{y}} = \vec{z}$.

$$\|\vec{y} - \hat{\vec{y}}\| = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{5}$$

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.

Example 4. Determine which sets of vectors are orthonormal. If a set is only orthogonal, normalize the vectors to produce an orthonormal set.

$$(1) \begin{bmatrix} -2/3 \\ 1/3 \\ 2/3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1/3 \\ 2/3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\overrightarrow{u} \quad \overrightarrow{v}$

$$(2) \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{18} \\ 4/\sqrt{18} \\ 1/\sqrt{18} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2/3 \\ 1/3 \\ -2/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$(1) \quad \overrightarrow{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{v} = -\frac{2}{9} + \frac{2}{9} = 0$$

Thus $\{\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{v}\}$ is an orthogonal set.

$$\|\overrightarrow{u}\|^2 = \overrightarrow{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{u} = \frac{4}{9} + \frac{1}{9} + \frac{4}{9} = 1$$

$$\|\overrightarrow{v}\|^2 = \frac{1}{9} + \frac{4}{9} = \frac{5}{9} \neq 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \|\overrightarrow{v}\| = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{3}$$

Thus $\{\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{v}\}$ is not an orthonormal set.

We can normalize $\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{v}$ to form the orthonormal set.

$$\left\{ \frac{\overrightarrow{u}}{\|\overrightarrow{u}\|}, \frac{\overrightarrow{v}}{\|\overrightarrow{v}\|} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{3} \\ \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{2}{3} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \\ \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

$$(2) \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{18} \\ 4/\sqrt{18} \\ 1/\sqrt{18} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2/3 \\ 1/3 \\ -2/3 \end{bmatrix}$$

\overrightarrow{u} \overrightarrow{v} \overrightarrow{w}

$$\overrightarrow{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{v} = 0$$

$$\overrightarrow{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{w} = 0$$

$$\overrightarrow{v} \cdot \overrightarrow{w} = 0$$

Thus $\{\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{v}, \overrightarrow{w}\}$ is an orthogonal set.

$$\|\overrightarrow{u}\|^2 = \overrightarrow{u} \cdot \overrightarrow{u} = \frac{1}{18} + \frac{16}{18} + \frac{1}{18} = 1$$

$$\|\overrightarrow{v}\|^2 = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1$$

$$\|\overrightarrow{w}\|^2 = \frac{4}{9} + \frac{4}{9} + \frac{4}{9} = 1$$

Thus $\{\overrightarrow{u}, \overrightarrow{v}, \overrightarrow{w}\}$ is also an orthonormal basis.

Theorem 6. An $m \times n$ matrix U has orthonormal columns if and only if $U_{m \times m}^T U_{m \times n} = I_n$

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

- a. $\|U\mathbf{x}\| = \|\mathbf{x}\|$ *U preserves the length*
- b. $(U\mathbf{x}) \cdot (U\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ *U preserves the inner product*.
- c. $(U\mathbf{x}) \cdot (U\mathbf{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$ *U preserves orthogonality*

Exercise 5. Let $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Compute the distance from \mathbf{y} to the line through \mathbf{u} and the origin.

Solution. The distance from \mathbf{y} to the line through \mathbf{u} and the origin is $\|\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}\|$. One computes that

$$\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{y} - \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} - 3 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -6 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \text{ so } \|\mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}\| = \sqrt{36 + 9} = 3\sqrt{5} \text{ is the desired distance.}$$