

## Section 6.2: Orthogonal Sets

**Remark:** We know that if  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p\}$  is a basis for a subspace  $W$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then each vector  $\mathbf{x}$  in  $W$  can be realized (uniquely) as a sum

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + c_p \mathbf{b}_p.$$

If  $n$  is very large, the computations needed to determine the coefficients  $c_1, \dots, c_p$  may require a lot of time (and machine memory).

**Question:** Can we seek a basis whose nature simplifies this task?  
And what properties should such a basis possess?

# Orthogonal Sets

## Definition:

An indexed set  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is said to be an **orthogonal set** provided each pair of distinct vectors in the set is orthogonal. That is, provided

$$\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_j = 0 \quad \text{whenever } i \neq j.$$

**Example:** Show that the set  $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -4 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$  is an orthogonal set.

Call these  $\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \vec{u}_3$  in the given order. We'll compute  $\vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_2, \vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_3$  and  $\vec{u}_2 \cdot \vec{u}_3$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} \vec{u}_1 \\ \left[ \begin{array}{c} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right\}, \begin{array}{c} \vec{u}_2 \\ \left[ \begin{array}{c} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{array} \right] \end{array}, \begin{array}{c} \vec{u}_3 \\ \left[ \begin{array}{c} -1 \\ -4 \\ 7 \end{array} \right] \end{array} \right\}$$

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

$$\vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_3 = 3(-1) + 1(-4) + 1(7) = -3 - 4 + 7 = 0$$

$$\vec{u}_2 \cdot \vec{u}_3 = (-1)(-1) + 2(-4) + 1(7) = 1 - 8 + 7 = 0$$

# Orthogonal Basis

## Definition:

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

## Theorem:

Let  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$  be an orthogonal basis for a subspace  $W$  of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then each vector  $\mathbf{y}$  in  $W$  can be written as the linear combination

$$\mathbf{y} = c_1\mathbf{u}_1 + c_2\mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + c_p\mathbf{u}_p, \quad \text{where the weights } c_j = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}{\mathbf{u}_j \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}.$$

**Remark:** What's nice about this is how simple the formula for the  $c$ 's is.

## Example

$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -4 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$  is an orthogonal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ . Express

the vector  $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$  as a linear combination of the basis vectors.

we need  $\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_i$  and  $\vec{u}_i \cdot \vec{u}_i$ .

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

$$\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_2 = -2(-1) + 3(2) + 0 = 8$$

$$\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_3 = -2(-1) + 3(-4) + 0 = -10$$

$$\vec{u}_1 \cdot \vec{u}_1 = 3^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 = 11$$

$$\vec{u}_2 \cdot \vec{u}_2 = (-1)^2 + 2^2 + 1^2 = 6$$

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{u}_3 \cdot \vec{u}_3 &= (-1)^2 + (-4)^2 + 7^2 \\ &= 66 \end{aligned}$$

$$\vec{y} = \frac{-3}{11} \vec{u}_1 + \frac{9}{6} \vec{u}_2 + \frac{-10}{66} \vec{u}_3$$

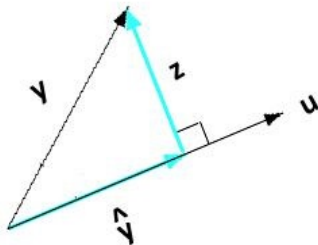
$$= \frac{-3}{11} \vec{u}_1 + \frac{4}{3} \vec{u}_2 - \frac{5}{33} \vec{u}_3$$

## Projection

Given a nonzero vector  $\mathbf{u}$ , suppose we wish to decompose another nonzero vector  $\mathbf{y}$  into a sum of the form

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

in such a way that  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  is parallel to  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{z}$  is perpendicular to  $\mathbf{u}$ .



# Projection

Since  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  is parallel to  $\mathbf{u}$ , there is a scalar  $\alpha$  such that

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \alpha \mathbf{u}.$$

Find a formula for this scalar.

Assume  $\vec{y} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \vec{z}$  where  $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \alpha \vec{u}$  and  $\vec{z} \perp \vec{u}$

Set  $\vec{y} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \vec{z} = \alpha \vec{u} + \vec{z}$ . Dot w/  $\vec{u}$ .

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{y} = \vec{u} \cdot (\alpha \vec{u} + \vec{z}) = \alpha \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{z}$$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{y} = \alpha \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} \quad \text{since } \vec{u} \cdot \vec{z} = 0$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{y}}{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}} = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{y}}{\|\vec{u}\|^2}$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \left( \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{y}}{\|\vec{u}\|^2} \right) \vec{u}$$



## Projection onto the subspace $L = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{u}\}$

### Projection Notation

We'll use the following notation for the project of a vector  $\mathbf{y}$  onto the line  $L = \text{Span}\{\mathbf{u}\}$  for nonzero vector  $\mathbf{u}$ .

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \text{proj}_L \mathbf{y} = \left( \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} \right) \mathbf{u}.$$

This may also be written as  $\text{proj}_{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{y}$ .

This is read as “the projection of  $\mathbf{y}$  onto  $\mathbf{u}$  (or onto  $L$ ).”

## Example

Let  $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ . Write  $\mathbf{y} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{z}$  where  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$  is in  $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{u}\}$  and  $\mathbf{z}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{u}$ .

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$$
$$\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 7(4) + 6(2) = 28 + 12 = 40$$
$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} = 4^2 + 2^2 = 20$$

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

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

$$\mathbf{y} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}}_{\hat{\mathbf{y}}} + \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{z}}$$

Note that  $\vec{z} \cdot \vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = -4 + 4 = 0$

## Example Continued...

Determine the distance between the point  $(7, 6)$  and the line  $\text{Span}\{\mathbf{u}\}$ .

The distance is  $\|\vec{z}\|$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\text{dist}(L, \vec{v}) &= \left\| \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \right\| \\ &= \sqrt{(-1)^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{5}\end{aligned}$$

## Distance between point and line

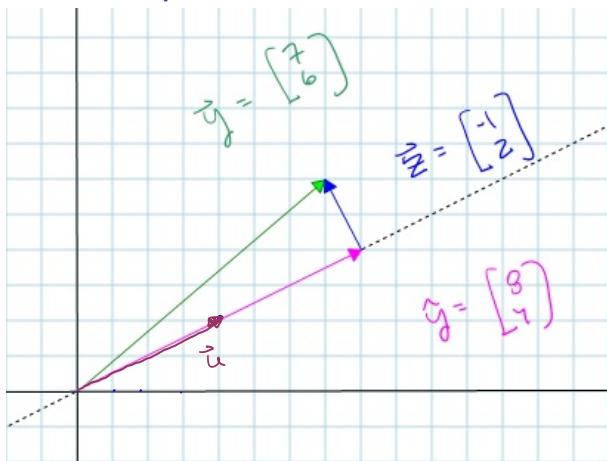


Figure: The distance between the point  $(7, 6)$  and the line  $\text{Span}\{u\}$  is the norm of  $z$ .

# Orthonormal Sets

## Definition:

A set  $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$  is called an **orthonormal set** if it is an orthogonal set of **unit vectors**.

## Definition:

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

**Remark:** So an **orthonormal** set (or basis) is an orthogonal set (or basis) with the extra condition that each vector has norm  $\sqrt{\mathbf{u}_j \cdot \mathbf{u}_j} = 1$ .

**Remark:** Any orthogonal set can be normalized to obtain an orthonormal one.