

Lecture XX: Orthogonal bases for Subspaces

Recall: Given an (abstract) vector space V , a set of vectors $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_p\}$ is a basis for V if

- (1) B spans V (every vector is a linear comb of v_1, \dots, v_p)
- (2) B is linearly independent (only solution to $\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_p v_p = \mathbf{0}$ is the trivial one: $\alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_p = 0$)

Using basis, identify V with \mathbb{R}^p via $v \leftrightarrow [v]_B = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_p \end{bmatrix}$ where $v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_p v_p$

Fact: Coordinates with respect to a basis respect $+$, \cdot .
 $v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_p v_p$
 $[0]_B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

• l.i & spanning can be detected by $[]_B$.

Corollary: All bases of V have the same number of vectors, which we define as the dimension of V .

• If $\dim V = n$ & W is a subspace of V of dimension n , then $W = V$.

Thm: Assume V is a vector space of dimension n , and take $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ vectors in V .

- (1) If $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ is l.i, then it is a basis.
- (2) If $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ spans V , then it is a basis.
- (3) Any set of $n+1$ vectors in V is l.d.; any set of less than n vectors can't span V .

TODAY: Define inner products (generalizing dot product in \mathbb{R}^n) & find bases behaving well with respect to this inner product.

§1 Inner products

Definition: An inner product for a vector space V is a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ assigning a real number to a pair of vectors u, v in V , satisfying:

(call it $\langle u, v \rangle$)

- (1) $\langle u, v \rangle \geq 0$, $\langle u, u \rangle = 0$ if and only if $u = \mathbf{0}$ (zero vector in V)
- (2) $\langle u, v \rangle = \langle v, u \rangle$ (symmetric)
- (3) $\langle \alpha u, v \rangle = \alpha \langle u, v \rangle$ for any scalar α in \mathbb{R}
- (4) $\langle u+v, w \rangle = \langle u, w \rangle + \langle v, w \rangle$ for any u, v, w in V

Note: Using (2), (3) & (4) also hold for the second leg.

- (3') $\langle u, \alpha v \rangle = \alpha \langle u, v \rangle$
- (4') $\langle u, v+w \rangle = \langle u, v \rangle + \langle u, w \rangle$

Examples: ① $\langle u, v \rangle = u^T v$ for u, v in \mathbb{R}^n defines an inner product for \mathbb{R}^n
 (= $u \cdot v$ usual dot product for \mathbb{R}^2 & \mathbb{R}^3)

② A symmetric 2×2 matrix $\begin{vmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{vmatrix}$ with $a > 0$, $ad - bc > 0$ (Example $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 2 & 5 \end{bmatrix}$) Then $\langle u, v \rangle = u^T A v$ is an inner product for \mathbb{R}^2

③ In \mathcal{P}_2 : $\langle p, q \rangle = p(0)q(0) + p(1)q(1) + p(2)q(2)$ defines an inner product for \mathcal{P}_2

④ In $C[0,1]$: $\langle f(x), g(x) \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x)g(x)dx$ is an inner product.

Using $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ we can define the norm (or magnitude) of vectors in V .

Def: $\|v\| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$. (Note: $\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$ for all v in V)

§2 Orthogonal bases for \mathbb{R}^n

From now on, we work with the classical inner product in \mathbb{R}^n :

Def: If u, v are vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , we say u & v are orthogonal (or perpendicular) if $u^T \cdot v = 0$.

Def: A set of vectors $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_p\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n is orthogonal if each pair of vectors in S is orthogonal, that is $v_i^T v_j = 0$ for all $i \neq j$.

Example: $\left\{ \begin{matrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ v_3 \end{matrix} \right\} = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is an orthogonal set in \mathbb{R}^n because $v_1^T v_2 = v_1^T v_3 = v_2^T v_3 = 0$.

Why? These sets are ALWAYS l.i. unless they have the zero vector in them.

Thm: If S is an orth set of nonzero vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , then S is l.i.

Proof: Write $S = \{v_1, \dots, v_p\}$ & $a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_p v_p = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Then $0 = v_1^T \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_1 v_1^T v_1 + a_2 \underbrace{v_1^T v_2}_{=0} + \dots + a_p \underbrace{v_1^T v_p}_{=0} = a_1 \|v_1\|^2$

Since $v_1 \neq 0$, then $\|v_1\| \neq 0$, so from $0 = a_1 \|v_1\|^2$, we conclude $a_1 = 0$

Similarly $0 = v_2^T \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_2 \|v_2\|^2$ implies $a_2 = 0$ (because $v_2 \neq 0$)

\vdots
 $0 = v_p^T \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = a_p \|v_p\|^2$ $\implies a_p = 0$ ($v_p \neq 0$)

We conclude $a_1 = a_2 = \dots = a_p = 0$ so S is l.i. \square

Definition Let W be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n with basis $B = \{w_1, \dots, w_p\}$ 3

• We say B is an orthogonal basis if B is an orthogonal set (& a basis)

• orthonormal basis if B is an orthogonal basis &

$\|w_1\| = \dots = \|w_p\| = 1$ (all vectors have norm = 1)

Example: The plane W spanned by $B = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ in \mathbb{R}^3

• B is orthogonal basis $(1 \ -1 \ 1) \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = 1 - 2 + 1 = 0$.

• Not orthonormal basis $\| \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \|^2 = \sqrt{1+1+1} = \sqrt{3}$, $\| \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \|^2 = \sqrt{1+4+1} = \sqrt{6}$.

• How to make it orthonormal?

$B' = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

In general: replace each vector

v in B by $\frac{v}{\|v\|}$ if

B is orthogonal

Why? Determining coordinates with respect to an orthonormal basis is EASY!

Thm $B = \{v_1, \dots, v_p\}$ be an orthonormal basis for W (subspace of \mathbb{R}^n) & given $v \in W$

$[v]_B = \begin{bmatrix} v^T \cdot v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v^T \cdot v_p \end{bmatrix} \begin{matrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_p \end{matrix}$

Proof $v = a_1 v_1 + \dots + a_p v_p$, then $v^T \cdot v_1 = a_1 \underbrace{v_1^T v_1}_{=1} + a_2 \underbrace{v_2^T v_1}_{=0} + \dots + a_p \underbrace{v_p^T v_1}_{=0}$

so $a_1 = v^T \cdot v_1$

similarly for the others: $a_i = v^T \cdot v_i$ for $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Note: If B is an orthogonal basis, then $[v]_B = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{v^T v_1}{\|v_1\|^2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{v^T v_p}{\|v_p\|^2} \end{bmatrix}$

§3 Gram-Schmidt Algorithm

• Input: A basis $\{w_1, \dots, w_p\}$ for a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n .

• Output: An orthogonal basis for $W = \{u_1, \dots, u_p\}$

• Routine:

$u_1 = w_1$

$u_2 = w_2 - \frac{u_1^T w_2}{\|u_1\|^2} u_1$

$u_3 = w_3 - \frac{u_1^T w_3}{\|u_1\|^2} (u_1) - \frac{u_2^T w_3}{\|u_2\|^2} (u_2)$

\vdots

scales

In general: $u_{j+1} = w_{j+1} - \frac{u_1^T w_{j+1}}{\|u_1\|^2} u_1 - \dots - \frac{u_j^T w_{j+1}}{\|u_j\|^2} u_j$

↑ scalars ↑

Q: Why these scalars?

$u_{j+1} = w_{j+1} - a_1 u_1 - \dots - a_j u_j$ & $\{u_1, \dots, u_j\}$ orthogonal set.

$0 = u_1^T u_{j+1} = u_1^T w_{j+1} - a_1 \|u_1\|^2 - a_2 \underbrace{u_1^T u_2}_{=0} - \dots - a_j \underbrace{u_1^T u_j}_{=0}$

↑ want $= u_1^T w_{j+1} - a_1 \|u_1\|^2$ so $a_1 = \frac{u_1^T w_{j+1}}{\|u_1\|^2}$

Similarly: $0 = u_i^T u_{j+1} = u_i^T w_{j+1} - 0 - \dots - a_i \|u_i\|^2 - 0 \dots$

so $a_i = \frac{u_i^T w_{j+1}}{\|u_i\|^2}$ for all $i=1, \dots, j$.

Proof: Our choice of scalars ensures the vectors are pairwise orthogonal.

Claim: $u_j \neq \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ i \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ for all j

(1) $u_1 \neq 0$ because $w_1 \neq 0$ ✓

(2) $\text{Sp}(u_1, \dots, u_j) = \text{Sp}(w_1, \dots, w_j)$ for all j , so $\{u_1, \dots, u_j\}$ spans a subspace of $\dim=j$ so they are all non-zero vectors.

Why? Clear for $j=1$

For $j>1$: $\text{Sp}(u_1, \dots, u_j, u_{j+1}) = \text{Sp}(u_1, \dots, u_j, w_{j+1}) =$

↓ because $u_{j+1} = w_{j+1} - a_1 u_1 - \dots - a_j u_j$

↑ same span as w_1, \dots, w_j

$= \text{Sp}(w_1, \dots, w_j, w_{j+1})$.

Example: $W = \mathbb{R}^3$ with basis $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ GS $\rightarrow \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$

$u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow u_1^T w_2 = 1, u_1^T w_3 = -1, \|u_1\| = 1$

$u_2 = w_2 - \frac{u_1^T w_2}{\|u_1\|^2} u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{1}{1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

$\Rightarrow u_2^T w_2 = 4, u_2^T w_3 = -6, \|u_2\| = 4$

$u_3 = w_3 - \frac{u_1^T w_3}{\|u_1\|^2} u_1 - \frac{u_2^T w_3}{\|u_2\|^2} u_2 = w_3 - u_1 - \left(\frac{-6}{4}\right) u_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{3}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$