# Orthogonal Bases 

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## Definition

A set of vectors $\left\{\mathbf{v}_{1}, \mathbf{v}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{r}\right\}$ is called orthogonal if $\mathbf{v}_{i} \perp \mathbf{v}_{j}$ for every $i \neq j$.

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Note: Any set that contains $\mathbf{0}$ is dependent because we can always find a nontrivial solution to

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Simply set $c_{1}=1$ and the rest of the $c_{j}=0$.

Now suppose $\left\{\mathbf{v}_{1}, \mathbf{v}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{r}\right\}$ is orthogonal and that

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We can multiply this by $\mathbf{v}_{j}^{T}$ to get

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To see this, let $S$ be a subspace. It is enough to find an orthogonal spanning set in $S$ : it will automatically be independent.

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To see this, let $S$ be a subspace. It is enough to find an orthogonal spanning set in $S$ : it will automatically be independent. Then we can replace each vector $\mathbf{v}_{j}$ with $\left(1 /\left\|\mathbf{v}_{j}\right\|\right) \mathbf{v}_{j}$ to get an orthonormal basis.

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If $r=2$ then $\operatorname{Span}\left(\mathbf{v}_{1}, \mathbf{v}_{2}\right)=S$ and we are done.

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We can repeat this until we have an orthogonal set $\left\{\mathbf{v}_{1}, \mathbf{v}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{r}\right\}$ in $S$ with $r=\operatorname{dim} S$. Since the set is independent and its size is $\operatorname{dim} S$, it must also be spanning and so is a basis.

## Theorem

Let $S$ is a subspace of $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and let $\left\{\mathbf{v}_{1}, \mathbf{v}_{2}, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_{r}\right\}$ be an orthogonal basis for $S$. If $\mathbf{v}$ is any vector in $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $\mathbf{p}$ the element of $S$ that is closest to $\mathbf{v}$, then

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Notice that each term in the sum $\sum_{j=1}^{r} \frac{\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{j}}{\mathbf{v}_{j}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{j}} \mathbf{v}_{j}$ has the same formula as the vector projection of $\mathbf{v}$ onto $\mathbf{v}_{j}$.

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To see why this is true, recall that the closest vector $\mathbf{p}$ is the one that makes $\mathbf{v}-\mathbf{p} \perp S$. So we only need to check that this formula makes $\mathbf{v}-\mathbf{p} \perp \mathbf{v}_{i}$ for each of the basis vectors $\mathbf{v}_{i}$.

$$
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\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T}(\mathbf{v}-\mathbf{p}) & =\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{v}-\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T} \sum_{j=1}^{r} \frac{\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{j}}{\mathbf{v}_{j}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{j}} \mathbf{v}_{j} \\
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\end{aligned}
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Some key properties of the scalar product:

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3. $(\alpha \mathbf{u}+\beta \mathbf{w})^{T} \mathbf{v}=\alpha \mathbf{u}^{T} \mathbf{v}+\beta \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{v}$.

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We have seen that, because of the first of these, we can use $\|\mathbf{v}\|=\left(\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v}\right)^{1 / 2}$ as a measure of the size of $\mathbf{v}$.

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\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T}(\mathbf{v}-\mathbf{p}) & =\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{v}-\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T} \sum_{j=1}^{r} \frac{\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{j}}{\mathbf{v}_{j}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{j}} \mathbf{v}_{j} \\
& =\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{v}-\sum_{j=1}^{r} \frac{\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{j}}{\mathbf{v}_{j}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{j}} \mathbf{v}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{j} \\
& =\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{v}-\frac{\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{i}}{\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{i}} \mathbf{v}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{i}=\mathbf{v}_{i}^{T} \mathbf{v}-\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v}_{i}=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Some key properties of the scalar product:

1. $\mathbf{0}^{T} \mathbf{0}=0$, and if $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ then $\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v}>0$.
2. $\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{w}=\mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{v}$.
3. $(\alpha \mathbf{u}+\beta \mathbf{w})^{T} \mathbf{v}=\alpha \mathbf{u}^{T} \mathbf{v}+\beta \mathbf{w}^{T} \mathbf{v}$.

We have seen that, because of the first of these, we can use $\|\mathbf{v}\|=\left(\mathbf{v}^{T} \mathbf{v}\right)^{1 / 2}$ as a measure of the size of $\mathbf{v}$. Moreover, in the special cases $\mathbb{R}^{2}$ and $\mathbb{R}^{3},\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|$ is the distance between the points with coordinates $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$.

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This suggests the following definition.

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If $V$ is a vector space, then an inner product is an operation that assigns, to any pair of vectors $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ in $V$, a real number $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$ satisfying

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\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{ccc}
1 & 1 / 2 & 1 / 3 \\
1 / 2 & 1 / 3 & 1 / 4 \\
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2. $(A \mathbf{y})^{T} A \mathbf{x}=(A \mathbf{x})^{T} A \mathbf{y}$ because the scalar product has that property.

One way to create an inner product is to produce a linear one-to-one correspondence from $V$ to a vector space that already has an inner product. For example, if $V$ has an ordered basis $\mathcal{B}$, we can define $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle=[\mathbf{x}]_{\mathcal{B}}^{T}[\mathbf{y}]_{\mathcal{B}}$. If we apply this to $\mathcal{P}_{3}$ with the basis $\left[1, x, x^{2}\right]$, then

$$
\left\langle a_{0}+a_{1} x+a_{2} x^{2}, b_{0}+b_{1} x+b_{2} x^{2}\right\rangle=a_{0} b_{0}+a_{1} b_{1}+a_{2} b_{2}
$$

Even $\mathbb{R}^{n}$ can have different inner products from the scalar product. If $A$ is any invertible $n \times n$ matrix, then

$$
\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle=(A \mathbf{x})^{T} A \mathbf{y}=\mathbf{x}^{T} A^{T} A \mathbf{y}
$$

is an example of an inner product.
Let's verify this:

1. $A \mathbf{0}=\mathbf{0}$ so $(A \mathbf{0})^{T} A \mathbf{0}=0$. If $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ then $A \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ and so $(A \mathbf{x})^{T} A \mathbf{x}>0$.
2. $(A \mathbf{y})^{T} A \mathbf{x}=(A \mathbf{x})^{T} A \mathbf{y}$ because the scalar product has that property.
3. $(A(\alpha \mathbf{x}+\beta \mathbf{y}))^{T} A \mathbf{z}=(\alpha A \mathbf{x}+\beta A \mathbf{y})^{T} A \mathbf{z}=\left(\alpha(A \mathbf{x})^{T}+\beta(A \mathbf{y})^{T}\right) A \mathbf{z}=$ $\alpha(A \mathbf{x})^{T} A \mathbf{z}+\beta(A \mathbf{y})^{T} A \mathbf{z}$

## Definition

If $V$ is a vector space with an inner product $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$, then $\|\mathbf{x}\|=\sqrt{\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle}$. This is called the norm induced by this inner product.

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## Definition

If $V$ is a vector space with an inner product $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$, then we say $\mathbf{x}$ is orthogonal to $\mathbf{y}$ if $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle=0$. and we express this by $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$.

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If $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ then $\|\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\|^{2}=\|\mathbf{x}\|^{2}+\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}$.

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## Theorem (Pythagorean Formula)

If $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ then $\|\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\|^{2}=\|\mathbf{x}\|^{2}+\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}$.
We prove this by

$$
\begin{aligned}
\|\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\|^{2} & =\langle\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\rangle \\
& =\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\rangle+\langle\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\rangle \\
& =\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle+\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle+\langle\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}\rangle+\langle\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}\rangle \\
& =\|\mathbf{x}\|^{2}+\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Theorem (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality)
For any $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ in an inner product space,

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|\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle| \leq\|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\|
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If either norm is zero that is, $\mathbf{x}$ or $\mathbf{y}$ is zero, then both sides are zero, which is OK.
Otherwise consider the following for any real numbers $\alpha$ and $\beta$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 0 \leq\langle\alpha \mathbf{x}-\beta \mathbf{y}, \alpha \mathbf{x}-\beta \mathbf{y}\rangle \\
& 0 \leq\langle\alpha \mathbf{x}, \alpha \mathbf{x}\rangle+\langle\alpha \mathbf{x},-\beta \mathbf{y}\rangle+\langle-\beta \mathbf{y}, \alpha \mathbf{x}\rangle+\langle-\beta \mathbf{y},-\beta \mathbf{y}\rangle \\
& 0 \leq \alpha^{2}\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle-\alpha \beta\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle-\alpha \beta\langle\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}\rangle+\beta^{2}\langle\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}\rangle \\
& 0 \leq \alpha^{2}\|\mathbf{x}\|^{2}-2 \alpha \beta\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle+\beta^{2}\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

Altogether we get

$$
\alpha \beta\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle \leq(1 / 2)\left(\alpha^{2}\|\mathbf{x}\|^{2}+\beta^{2}\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}\right)
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Since this holds for any $\alpha, \beta$, let $\alpha=1 /\|\mathbf{x}\|$ and $\beta=1 /\|\mathbf{y}\|$ to get

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\frac{\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle}{\|\mathrm{x}\|\|\mathrm{y}\|} \leq 1
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This just what we need if $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle \geq 0$. If $\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle<0$, use $\beta=-1 /\|\mathbf{y}\|$ to get

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$$

Altogether we get

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Theorem (Triangle Inequality)
For any pair of vectors $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y},\|\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\| \leq\|\mathbf{x}\|+\|\mathbf{y}\|$.

The proof relies on the Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

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& =\|\mathbf{x}\|^{2}+2\langle\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle+\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2} \\
& \leq\|\mathbf{x}\|^{2}+2\|\mathbf{x}\|\|\mathbf{y}\|+\|\mathbf{y}\|^{2}=(\|\mathbf{x}\|+\|\mathbf{y}\|)^{2}
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Then take square roots to get $\|\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\| \leq\|\mathbf{x}\|+\|\mathbf{y}\|$.
This allows us to express the distance between vectors by $d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})=\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|$ and deduce that

$$
\begin{aligned}
d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) & =\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{z}\|=\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}+\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{z}\| \\
& \leq\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|+\|\mathbf{y}-\mathbf{z}\|=d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})+d(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})
\end{aligned}
$$

