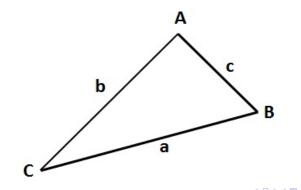
October 24 Math 3260 sec. 57 Fall 2017

Recall the Law of Cosines

For triangle with angles A, B, C and opposite sides of lengths a, b, and c, respectively,

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab\cos(C)$$



Geometry of the Dot Product

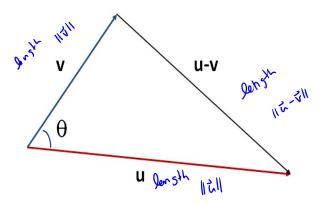


Figure: We can use the law of cosines to show that in \mathbb{R}^2 that $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ is related to the angle between the two (nonzero) vectors. This holds in \mathbb{R}^n . We're just restricting *n* to 2 for ease of computation.

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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 **x** in W can be realized (uniquely) as a sum

$$\mathbf{x} = c_1 \mathbf{b}_2 + \cdots + c_p \mathbf{b}_p$$

If *n* is very large, the computations needed to determine the coefficients c_1, \ldots, 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?

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Orthogonal Sets & Orthogonal Bases

Definition: An indexed set $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ 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

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

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

Theorem: Let $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ 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

 $\mathbf{y} = c_1 \mathbf{u}_1 + c_2 \mathbf{u}_2 + \cdots + c_p \mathbf{u}_p$, where the weights

$$c_j = rac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}{\mathbf{u}_j \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}$$

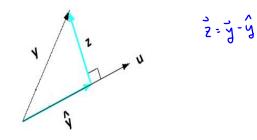
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Projection

Given a nonzero vector **u**, suppose we wish to decompose another nonzero vector **y** into a sum of the form

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

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



Projection

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

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

We determined last time that the scalar

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

so that

$$\hat{y} = \frac{\boldsymbol{y} \cdot \boldsymbol{u}}{\|\boldsymbol{u}\|^2} \boldsymbol{u} \quad \text{and} \quad \boldsymbol{z} = \boldsymbol{y} - \hat{\boldsymbol{y}}.$$

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

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

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 Span{ \mathbf{u} } and \mathbf{z} is orthogonal to \mathbf{u} .

$$\hat{y} = \frac{\overline{y} \cdot \overline{u}}{\|\overline{x}\|^{2}} \quad \overline{u} = \left(\frac{\overline{\gamma}(\underline{u}) + 6(z)}{\underline{y}^{2} + z^{2}}\right) \quad \overline{u} = \frac{\overline{y}}{z_{0}} \quad \overline{u} = \overline{z} \quad \overline{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 8\\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\overline{z} = \overline{y} - \hat{y} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{7}{6} \\ - \begin{bmatrix} 8\\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1\\ z \end{bmatrix}$$

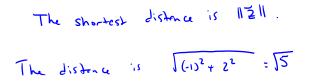
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$$S^{\circ} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Example Continued...

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





Orthonormal Sets

Definition: A set $\{u_1, \ldots, u_p\}$ 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.

Example: Show that
$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{5} \\ \frac{4}{5} \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{4}{5} \\ \frac{3}{5} \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$
 is an orthonormal basis for
 \mathbb{R}^{2} .
 $\vec{u}_{1} \cdot \vec{u}_{2} = \frac{3}{5} \left(\frac{-4}{5} \right) + \left(\frac{4}{5} \right) \left(\frac{3}{7} \right) = \frac{-16 + 16}{27} = 0$ Then are orthogonal
 $\|\vec{u}_{1}\|^{2} = \left(\frac{3}{5} \right)^{2} + \left(\frac{4}{5} \right)^{2} = \frac{16 + 49}{25} = \frac{25}{25} = 1$ $\|\vec{u}_{2}\|^{2} = \left(\frac{-4}{5} \right)^{2} + \left(\frac{3}{7} \right)^{2} = \frac{16 + 1}{25} = 1$
Then are also unit ve(tors.

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If the vectors are linearly independent, they span
$$\mathbb{R}^2$$
 (since there are 2 of them).

Orthogonal Matrix

Consider the matrix $U = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{5} & -\frac{4}{5} \\ \frac{4}{5} & \frac{3}{5} \end{bmatrix}$ whose columns are the vectors in the last example. Compute the product

$$U^{T}U : \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{5} & \frac{4}{5} \\ \frac{1}{5} & \frac{3}{5} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{5} & \frac{4}{5} \\ \frac{1}{5} & \frac{3}{5} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
This shows that $U = U^{T}$

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What does this say about U^{-1} ?

Orthogonal Matrix

Definition: A square matrix U is called an **orthogonal matrix** if $U^{T} = U^{-1}$.

Theorem: An $n \times n$ matrix U is orthogonal if and only if it's columns form an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

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The linear transformation associated to an orthogonal matrix preserves *lenghts* and *angles* in the following sense:

Theorem: Orthogonal Matrices

Let *U* be an $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix and **x** and **y** vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . Then (a) $||U\mathbf{x}|| = ||\mathbf{x}||$

(b)
$$(U\mathbf{x}) \cdot (U\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$$
, in particular

(c) $(U\mathbf{x}) \cdot (U\mathbf{y}) = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$. **Proof** (of (a)): **Precall** $\| \mathbf{u} \mathbf{x} \|^{2} = (\mathbf{u} \mathbf{x}) \cdot (\mathbf{u} \mathbf{x})$ $= (\mathbf{u} \mathbf{x})^{T} (\mathbf{u} \mathbf{x})$ This is how we defined the delined the del product

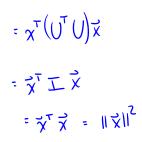
 $= \left(\overrightarrow{X}^{\mathsf{T}} \bigcup^{\mathsf{T}} \right) \left((\overrightarrow{X} \overrightarrow{X}) \right)$

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 $\|X_{x}\| = \|x\|$

Section 6.3: Orthogonal Projections

Equating points with position vectors, we may wish to find the point $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ in a subspace *W* of \mathbb{R}^n that is *closest* to a given point \mathbf{y} .

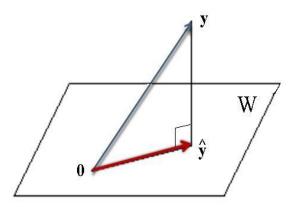


Figure: Illustration of an orthogonal projection. Note that $dist(\mathbf{y}, \hat{\mathbf{y}})$ is the shortest distance between \mathbf{y} and the points on W.

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Orthogonal Decomposition Theorem

Let *W* be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Each vector **y** in \mathbb{R}^n can be written uniquely as a sum

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

where $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is in W and \mathbf{z} is in W^{\perp} .

If $\{\mathbf{u}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{u}_p\}$ is any orthogonal basis for W, then

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \sum_{j=1}^{p} \left(\frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}{\mathbf{u}_j \cdot \mathbf{u}_j} \right) \mathbf{u}_j, \text{ and } \mathbf{z} = \mathbf{y} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}.$$

Remark: Note that the basis must be orthogonal, but otherwise the vector $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is **independent** of the particular basis used!

Remark: The vector $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is called the **orthogonal projection of y onto** *W*. We can denote it

proj_W **y**.

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Example
Let
$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 8 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{z} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 8 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ $\mathbf{w} = \operatorname{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}.$

(a) Verify that the spanning vectors for W given are an orthogonal basis for W.

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Example Continued...

$$W = \operatorname{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 2\\1\\2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2\\2\\1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \text{ and } \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 4\\8\\1 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b) Find the orthogonal projection of \mathbf{y} onto W.

$$\hat{y} = \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_{1}}{\|\vec{u}_{1}\|^{2}} \vec{u}_{1} + \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_{2}}{\|\vec{u}_{2}\|^{2}} \vec{u}_{2}$$

$$\|\vec{u}_{1}\|^{2} = 2^{2} + 1^{2} + 2^{2} = 9 \implies \|\vec{u}_{1}\| = 3$$

$$\|\vec{u}_{1}\|^{2} = (-25^{2} + 2^{2} + 1^{2} = 9 \implies \|\vec{u}_{2}\| = 3$$

$$\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_{1} = 2 \cdot 4 + 1 \cdot 8 + 2 \cdot 1 = 18, \quad \vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_{2} = -2(4) + 2(8) + 1 = 9$$

$$(1 + 1)^{2} + 2(1)^{2} = 18, \quad \vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_{2} = -2(4) + 2(8) + 1 = 9$$

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(c) Find the shortest distance between \mathbf{y} and the subspace W.

The shortest distince is

$$\|\vec{z}\| = \int 2^2 + 4^2 + (-4)^2 = \int 4 + 16 + 16 = 6$$

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