

Section 6.1: Inner Product, Length, and Orthogonality

Definition: For vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n we define the **inner product** of \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} (also called the **dot product**) by the **matrix product**

$$\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v} = [u_1 \ u_2 \ \cdots \ u_n] \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \cdots + u_n v_n.$$

Remark: Note that this product produces a scalar. It is sometimes called a scalar product.

The Norm

Definition: The **norm** of the vector $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ in \mathbb{R}^n is the nonnegative number

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2}$$

Theorem: For vector \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n and scalar c

$$\|c\mathbf{v}\| = |c|\|\mathbf{v}\|.$$

Definition: A vector \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n for which $\|\mathbf{u}\| = 1$ is called a **unit vector**.

Given any nonzero vector \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n , *normalizing* the vector means finding the unit vector in the direction of \mathbf{v}

$$\mathbf{v}/\|\mathbf{v}\|$$

Distance in \mathbb{R}^n

Definition: For vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n , the **distance between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v}** is denoted by

$$\text{dist}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}),$$

and is defined by

$$\text{dist}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|.$$

Remark: This is the same as the traditional formula for distance used in \mathbb{R}^2 between points (x_0, y_0) and (x_1, y_1) ,

$$d = \sqrt{(y_1 - y_0)^2 + (x_1 - x_0)^2}.$$

Example

Find the distance between the vectors $\mathbf{u} = (4, 0, -1, 1)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (0, 0, 2, 7)$ in \mathbb{R}^4 .

$$\text{dist}(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = \|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|$$

$$\vec{u} - \vec{v} = (4-0, 0-0, -1-2, 1-7) = (4, 0, -3, -6)$$

$$\text{dist}(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = \sqrt{4^2 + 0^2 + (-3)^2 + (-6)^2} = \sqrt{61}$$

Orthogonality

Definition: Two vectors are **\mathbf{u}** and **\mathbf{v}** orthogonal if $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$.

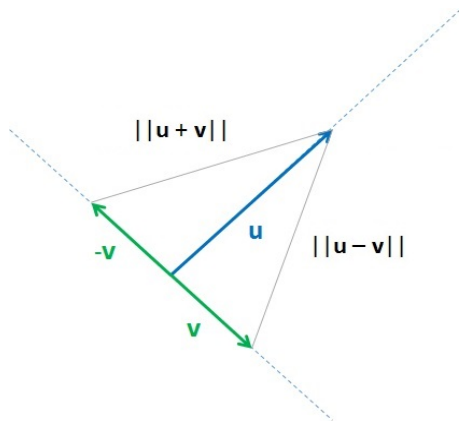


Figure: Note that two vectors are perpendicular if $\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|$

Orthogonal and Perpendicular

Show that $\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\| = \|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|$ if and only if $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$.

Consider

$$\begin{aligned}\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|^2 &= (\vec{u} - \vec{v}) \cdot (\vec{u} - \vec{v}) \\ &= \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} - \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u} - \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} \\ &= \|\vec{u}\|^2 - 2\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \|\vec{v}\|^2\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 &= (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \cdot (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \\ &= \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u} + \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{v} \\ &= \|\vec{u}\|^2 + 2\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \|\vec{v}\|^2\end{aligned}$$

Suppose $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$. Then

$$\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\| = \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|$$

as these are nonnegative

If $\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\| = \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|$, then

$$\|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 \Rightarrow$$

$$\|\vec{u}\|^2 - 2\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \|\vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u}\|^2 + 2\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} + \|\vec{v}\|^2$$

$$\Rightarrow 0 = 4\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}$$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = 0$$

The Pythagorean Theorem

Theorem: Two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are orthogonal if and only if

$$\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2.$$

This follows immediately from the observation that

$$\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 + 2\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}.$$

The two vectors are defined as being orthogonal precisely when $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$.

Orthogonal Complement

Definition: Let W be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . A vector \mathbf{z} in \mathbb{R}^n is said to be **orthogonal to** W if \mathbf{z} is orthogonal to every vector in W . That is, if

$$\mathbf{z} \cdot \mathbf{w} = 0 \quad \text{for every } \mathbf{w} \in W.$$

Definition: Given a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n , the set of all vectors orthogonal to W is called the **orthogonal complement** of W and is denoted by W^\perp .

$$W^\perp = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{w} = 0 \quad \text{for every } \mathbf{w} \in W\}$$

Theorem:

Theorem: If W is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n , then W^\perp is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

This is readily proved by appealing to the properties of the inner product. In particular

$$\mathbf{0} \cdot \mathbf{w} = 0 \quad \text{for any vector } \mathbf{w}$$

$$(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} \quad \text{and}$$

$$(c\mathbf{u}) \cdot \mathbf{w} = c\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}.$$

Example

Let $W = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$. Then $W^\perp = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$.

A vector in W has the form

$$\mathbf{w} = x \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + z \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ 0 \\ z \end{bmatrix}.$$

A vector in \mathbf{v} in W^\perp has the form

$$\mathbf{v} = y \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ y \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Note that

$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v} = x(0) + 0(y) + z(0) = 0.$$

W is the xz -plane and W^\perp is the y -axis in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Example

Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 \\ -2 & 0 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$. Show that if \mathbf{x} is in $\text{Nul}(A)$, then \mathbf{x} is in $[\text{Row}(A)]^\perp$.

Let's find a representation for \vec{x} in $\text{Nul}(A)$.

$$[A \ \vec{0}] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & 2 & 0 \\ -2 & 0 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{rref}} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{4}{3} & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= 2x_3 \\ x_2 &= -\frac{4}{3}x_3 \\ x_3 & \text{ free} \end{aligned} \quad \vec{x} = x_3 \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -\frac{4}{3} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = t \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ for } t \text{ in } \mathbb{R}$$

We can use the rows of A as a

spanning set for Row(A).

$$\text{Row}(A) = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} \right\} = \text{Span} \{ \vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2 \}$$

\vec{x} in Nul(A) looks like $t \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} = \vec{x}$

Note $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{u}_1 = t \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = t(6 - 12 + 6) = 0$

$$\vec{x} \cdot \vec{u}_2 = t \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ -4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = t(-12 + 0 + 12) = 0$$

Theorem

Theorem: Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix. The orthogonal complement of the row space of A is the null space of A . That is

$$[\text{Row}(A)]^\perp = \text{Nul}(A).$$

orthogonal
The ~~orthogonal~~ complement of the column space of A is the null space of A^T —i.e.

$$[\text{Col}(A)]^\perp = \text{Nul}(A^T).$$

Example: Find the orthogonal complement of $\text{Col}(A)$

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 2 & 1 \\ -3 & 3 & 0 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 \\ 2 & -2 & 9 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad [\text{Col}(A)]^\perp = \text{Nul}(A^T)$$

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 5 & -3 & 2 & 2 & 0 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 9 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A^T \vec{x} = \vec{0}$$

row \rightarrow

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & -54 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -146/3 & 19/3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 63 & -8 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$x_1 = 54x_4 - 7x_5$$

$$x_2 = \frac{146}{3}x_4 - \frac{19}{3}x_5$$

$$x_3 = -63x_4 + 8x_5$$

x_4, x_5 are free

$$\vec{x} = x_4 \begin{bmatrix} 54 \\ \frac{146}{3} \\ -63 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + x_5 \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ \frac{-19}{3} \\ 8 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[\text{Col}(A)]^\perp = \text{Span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 54 \\ \frac{146}{3} \\ -63 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -7 \\ \frac{-19}{3} \\ 8 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

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 order shown.

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

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

$$\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -4 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$$

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

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

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

$$c_j = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}{\mathbf{u}_j \cdot \mathbf{u}_j}.$$

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.

$$\vec{y} = c_1 \vec{u}_1 + c_2 \vec{u}_2 + c_3 \vec{u}_3$$

$$c_1 = \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_1}{\|\vec{u}_1\|^2} = \frac{-3}{11}, \quad c_2 = \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_2}{\|\vec{u}_2\|^2} = \frac{8}{6} = \frac{4}{3}$$

$$c_3 = \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{u}_3}{\|\vec{u}_3\|^2} = \frac{-10}{66} = \frac{-5}{33}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{-3}{11} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \frac{4}{33} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} - \frac{5}{33} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -4 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$