## MATH 423

Orthogonal sets.

Linear Algebra II

Lecture 29:

# **Orthogonality**

Let V be an inner product space with an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ .

Definition 1. Vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$  are said to be **orthogonal** (denoted  $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$ ) if  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$ .

Definition 2. A vector  $\mathbf{x} \in V$  is said to be **orthogonal** to a nonempty set  $Y \subset V$  (denoted  $\mathbf{x} \perp Y$ ) if  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$  for any  $\mathbf{y} \in Y$ .

Definition 3. Nonempty sets  $X, Y \subset V$  are said to be **orthogonal** (denoted  $X \perp Y$ ) if  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$  for any  $\mathbf{x} \in X$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in Y$ .

### **Orthogonal sets**

Let V be an inner product space with an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  and the induced norm  $\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}$ .

Definition. A nonempty set  $S \subset V$  is called an **orthogonal set** if all vectors in S are mutually orthogonal. That is,  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$  for any  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$ . An orthogonal set  $S \subset V$  is called **orthonormal** if  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 1$  for any  $\mathbf{x} \in S$ .

Remark. Vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k \in V$  form an orthonormal set if and only if

$$\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j, \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j. \end{cases}$$

Examples. •  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ . The standard basis  $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$ ,

The standard basis  $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0, 0, ..., 0)$ ,  $\mathbf{e}_2 = (0, 1, 0, ..., 0)$ , ...,  $\mathbf{e}_n = (0, 0, 0, ..., 1)$ . It is an orthonormal set.

• 
$$V = \mathbb{R}^3$$
,  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ .

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = (3, 5, 4), \ \mathbf{v}_2 = (3, -5, 4), \ \mathbf{v}_3 = (4, 0, -3).$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\textbf{v}_1 \cdot \textbf{v}_2 = 0, & \textbf{v}_1 \cdot \textbf{v}_3 = 0, & \textbf{v}_2 \cdot \textbf{v}_3 = 0, \\ &\textbf{v}_1 \cdot \textbf{v}_1 = 50, & \textbf{v}_2 \cdot \textbf{v}_2 = 50, & \textbf{v}_3 \cdot \textbf{v}_3 = 25. \end{aligned}$$
 Thus the set  $\{\textbf{v}_1, \textbf{v}_2, \textbf{v}_3\}$  is orthogonal but not

Thus the set  $\{\mathbf v_1, \mathbf v_2, \mathbf v_3\}$  is orthogonal but not orthonormal. An orthonormal set is formed by normalized vectors  $\mathbf w_1 = \frac{\mathbf v_1}{\|\mathbf v_1\|}$ ,  $\mathbf w_2 = \frac{\mathbf v_2}{\|\mathbf v_2\|}$ ,  $\mathbf w_3 = \frac{\mathbf v_3}{\|\mathbf v_2\|}$ .

• 
$$V = C[-\pi, \pi], \langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x)g(x) dx.$$

 $f_1(x) = \sin x$ ,  $f_2(x) = \sin 2x$ , ...,  $f_n(x) = \sin nx$ , ...

$$\langle f_m, f_n \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(mx) \sin(nx) dx = \begin{cases} \pi & \text{if } m = n, \\ 0 & \text{if } m \neq n. \end{cases}$$

Thus the set  $\{f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots\}$  is orthogonal but not orthonormal.

It is orthonormal with respect to a scaled inner product

$$\langle\!\langle f,g \rangle\!\rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x)g(x) dx.$$

• 
$$V = C([-\pi, \pi], \mathbb{C}), \langle f, g \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx.$$

 $h_n(x) = e^{inx}, n \in \mathbb{Z}.$ 

$$\frac{h_n(x) = \cos(nx) + i\sin(nx),}{h_n(x) = \cos(nx) - i\sin(nx) = e^{-inx} = h_{-n}(x).}$$

$$\langle h_m, h_n \rangle = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{imx} \, \overline{e^{inx}} \, dx = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{imx} e^{-inx} \, dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} e^{i(m-n)x} \, dx = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } m = n, \\ 0 & \text{if } m \neq n. \end{cases}$$

Thus the functions ...,  $h_{-2}$ ,  $h_{-1}$ ,  $h_0$ ,  $h_1$ ,  $h_2$ , ... form an orthonormal set. One can show that this is a maximal orthonormal set in  $C([-\pi, \pi], \mathbb{C})$ .

## **Orthogonality** $\implies$ **linear independence**

**Theorem** Suppose  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$  are nonzero vectors that form an orthogonal set. Then  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$  are linearly independent.

*Proof:* Suppose  $t_1\mathbf{v}_1 + t_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + t_k\mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{0}$  for some scalars  $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k$ . We have to show that all those scalars are zeros.

For any index  $1 \le i \le k$  we have

$$\langle t_1\mathbf{v}_1+t_2\mathbf{v}_2+\cdots+t_k\mathbf{v}_k,\mathbf{v}_i\rangle=\langle \mathbf{0},\mathbf{v}_i\rangle=0$$

$$\implies t_1\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle + t_2\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle + \cdots + t_k\langle \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0.$$

By orthogonality,  $t_i \langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0 \implies t_i = 0$ .

#### **Orthonormal bases**

Suppose  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  is an orthonormal basis for an inner product space V.

**Theorem** Let  $\mathbf{x} = x_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + x_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + x_n \mathbf{v}_n$  and  $\mathbf{y} = y_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + y_2 \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + y_n \mathbf{v}_n$ , where  $x_i, y_j \in \mathbb{C}$ . Then (i)  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = x_1 \overline{y_1} + x_2 \overline{y_2} + \dots + x_n \overline{y_n}$ , (ii)  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{|x_1|^2 + |x_2|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2}$ .

*Proof:* (ii) follows from (i) when y = x.

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \mathbf{v}_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{j} \mathbf{v}_{j} \right\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \left\langle \mathbf{v}_{i}, \sum_{j=1}^{n} y_{j} \mathbf{v}_{j} \right\rangle$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{i} \overline{y_{j}} \langle \mathbf{v}_{i}, \mathbf{v}_{j} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_{i} \overline{y_{i}}.$$

#### **Fourier coefficients**

Suppose  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_{\alpha}\}_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}}$  is an orthogonal subset of an inner product space V such that  $\mathbf{0} \notin S$ . For any  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ , a collection of scalars  $c_{\alpha} = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_{\alpha} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{v}_{\alpha} \rangle}$ ,  $\alpha \in \mathcal{A}$ , is called the

**Fourier coefficients** of the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  relative to S.

*Remark.* Classical Fourier coefficients were the coefficients of a function  $f \in C([-\pi,\pi],\mathbb{C})$  relative to the orthogonal set  $1, \sin x, \cos x, \sin 2x, \cos 2x, \ldots$  or the orthonormal set  $\ldots, e^{-2ix}, e^{-ix}, 1, e^{ix}, e^{2ix}, \ldots$ 

**Theorem** If  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  is an orthogonal basis for V, then the Fourier coefficients of any vector  $\mathbf{x} \in V$  relative to S coincide with the coordinates of  $\mathbf{x}$  relative to S. In other words,

$$\mathbf{x} = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_1 + \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_n \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_n, \mathbf{v}_n \rangle} \mathbf{v}_n.$$

**Theorem** If  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  is an orthogonal basis for V, then the Fourier coefficients of any vector  $\mathbf{x} \in V$  relative to S coincide with the coordinates of  $\mathbf{x}$  relative to S. In other words,

$$\mathbf{x} = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_1 + \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_n \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_n, \mathbf{v}_n \rangle} \mathbf{v}_n.$$

*Proof:* Let **p** denote the right-hand side of the above formula. For any index  $1 \le i \le n$ ,

$$\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_j \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle} \langle \mathbf{v}_j, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle} \langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle.$$

Hence  $\langle \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle - \langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0$ . That is,  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p} \perp \mathbf{v}_i$ . Any vector  $\mathbf{y} \in V$  is represented as  $\mathbf{y} = r_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \cdots + r_n \mathbf{v}_n$  for some scalars  $r_i$ . Then

$$\langle \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \overline{r_1} \langle \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v_1} \rangle + \dots + \overline{r_n} \langle \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v_n} \rangle = 0.$$

Therefore  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p} \perp V$ . In particular,  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p} \perp \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}$ , which is only possible if  $\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{0}$ .

# Fourier series: linear algebra meets calculus

Suppose  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n, \dots$  are nonzero vectors in an inner product space V that form an orthogonal set S. Given  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ , the **Fourier series** of the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  relative to the orthogonal set S is a series  $c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n + \dots$ , where  $c_1, c_2, \dots$  are the Fourier coefficients of  $\mathbf{x}$  relative to S.

The set S is called a **Hilbert basis** for V if any vector  $\mathbf{x} \in V$  can be expanded into a series  $\mathbf{x} = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \alpha_n \mathbf{v}_n$ , where  $\alpha_n$  are some scalars.

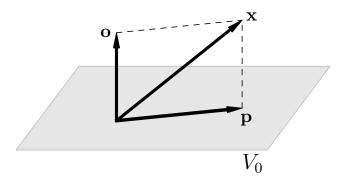
**Theorem 1** If S is a Hilbert basis for V, then the above expansion is unique for any vector  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ . Namely, it coincides with the Fourier series of  $\mathbf{x}$  relative to S.

**Theorem 2** The sets  $1, \sin x, \cos x, \sin 2x, \cos 2x, \ldots$  and  $\{e^{inx}\}_{n\in\mathbb{Z}}$  are two Hilbert bases for the space  $C([-\pi, \pi], \mathbb{C})$ .

*Remark.* Convergence of functions in the inner product space  $C([-\pi, \pi], \mathbb{C})$  need not imply pointwise convergence.

### **Orthogonal projection**

**Theorem** Let V be an inner product space and  $V_0$  be a finite-dimensional subspace of V. Then any vector  $\mathbf{x} \in V$  is uniquely represented as  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{o}$ , where  $\mathbf{p} \in V_0$  and  $\mathbf{o} \perp V_0$ .



The component  $\mathbf{p}$  is called the **orthogonal projection** of the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  onto the subspace  $V_0$ .