

Short
Takes
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Orthogonal bases

Vector space V with an inner product (\vec{v}, \vec{w}) ,
i.e. inner-product space.

$X = \{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \dots, \vec{v}_N\}$ basis \rightarrow LI and spans V

$$\dim V = N$$

X is an orthogonal basis iff

$$(\vec{v}_i, \vec{v}_j) = 0 \text{ if } i \neq j, \quad i, j = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

- Note: if $(\vec{v}_i, \vec{v}_i) = 1$, we say the basis is orthonormal (since vectors are normalized to length 1)

and write $(\vec{v}_i, \vec{v}_j) = \delta_{ij}$

Kronecker delta

$$\delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

• Examples

- \mathbb{R}^3 with conventional dot product

$X = \{\vec{i}, \vec{j}, \vec{k}\}$ is an orthonormal basis

$$\vec{i} = (1, 0, 0)$$

$$\vec{j} = (0, 1, 0)$$

$$\vec{k} = (0, 0, 1)$$

- \mathbb{R}^2

$$X = \{\vec{i}, \vec{j}\}$$

or

$$\vec{e}_1 = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

$$\vec{e}_2 = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)$$

• Why define orthogonal bases?

They are very useful!

Any vector \vec{v} will take the form

$$\vec{v} = a_1 \vec{v}_1 + a_2 \vec{v}_2 + \dots + a_N \vec{v}_N$$

where we note that

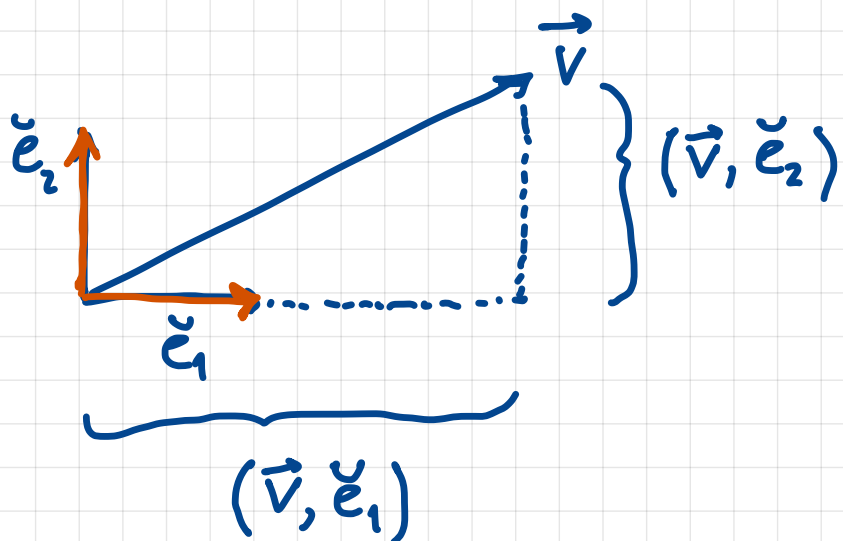
$$\begin{aligned} \rightarrow (\vec{v}, \vec{v}_1) &= a_1 (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_1) + a_2 (\vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_1) + \dots + a_N (\vec{v}_N, \vec{v}_1) \\ &= a_1 (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_1) \\ &= a_1 \quad \left[\text{if } (\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_1) = 1 \text{ (assume normalized!)} \right] \end{aligned}$$

Thus, the inner product allows us to calculate the coefficient a_1 . We may then write, generally,

$$\vec{v} = (\vec{v}, \vec{v}_1) \vec{v}_1 + (\vec{v}, \vec{v}_2) \vec{v}_2 + \dots + (\vec{v}, \vec{v}_N) \vec{v}_N$$

Projection of \vec{v} in the direction of \vec{v}_1

Geometrically,



Algebraically,

$$\begin{aligned} \vec{v} &= (7, 3) \\ \vec{v} &= a_1 \check{e}_1 + a_2 \check{e}_2 \\ a_1 &= (\vec{v}, \check{e}_1) = \dots = 10/\sqrt{2} \\ a_2 &= (\vec{v}, \check{e}_2) = \dots = 4/\sqrt{2} \end{aligned}$$

• Examples in spaces of functions.

1. Take V to be the space of all linear combinations of $\{1, x, x^2, x^3\}$

with the inner product

$$(f, g) = \int_{-1}^1 f(x)g(x) dx$$

Clearly, $\int_{-1}^1 1 \cdot x dx = \int_{-1}^1 x dx = \frac{1}{2} x^2 \Big|_{-1}^1 = \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} = 0$

and $\int_{-1}^1 x \cdot x^2 dx = \int_{-1}^1 x^3 dx = \dots = 0$

However, $\int_{-1}^1 1 \cdot 1 dx = 2$, $\int_{-1}^1 x \cdot x dx = \frac{2}{3}$

and $\int_{-1}^1 x \cdot x^3 dx \neq 0$
 $= \frac{2}{5} \rightarrow$ it is not orthogonal!

We may normalize

$$1 \rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \quad x \rightarrow \frac{x}{\sqrt{2/3}}, \quad \dots$$

but the basis will remain not orthogonal.

What if we want an orthogonal basis in this space? Can we find one?

Yes! \rightarrow Gram-Schmidt process
(future video!)

2. Consider $\{\sin t, \sin 2t, \sin 3t, \dots\}$

with $(f, g) = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t) g(t) dt$

Then $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(nt) \sin(mt) dt = 0$ if $m \neq n$.

They are orthogonal!

These functions are part of the Fourier basis, which is essential for Fourier series, as we will see later.

