

Math 2270-3  
Monday Oct 26

- Discuss the  $A = QR$  decomposition that keeps track of the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization (or more precisely, relates the original basis ~ cols of  $A$  to the G.S. orthonormal one ~ cols of  $B$ )

this is page 3-4 Friday notes.

- Then begin § 5.3 "Orthogonal transformations", which relates to the  $Q$  matrices above, in the  $Q_{n \times n}$  case.

Def: A linear transformation  $T: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  is called orthogonal

(we will see that ortho-normal would be a better name, but oh well...)

iff it preserves lengths of line segments, i.e. iff

$$\|T(\vec{x})\| = \|\vec{x}\| \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

↑ sometimes these transformations are called linear isometries, a better name.

Can we characterize orthogonal transformations  $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$  in terms of the matrix  $A$ ?

Lemma If  $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$  is orthogonal, then  $T$  also preserves the dot product, i.e.  $T\vec{x} \cdot T\vec{y} = \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \quad \forall \vec{x}, \vec{y}$ , and hence also the angle, i.e.  $\angle \vec{x}, \vec{y} = \angle T\vec{x}, T\vec{y} \quad \forall \vec{x}, \vec{y}$ .

[you actually expect this since if triangles get mapped to congruent triangles ("SSS"), then also angles between sides will be preserved]

proof if  $\|T\vec{x}\|^2 = \|\vec{x}\|^2 \quad \forall \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

then  $\|T(\vec{u} + \vec{v})\|^2 = \|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 \quad \forall \vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$(T\vec{u} + T\vec{v}) \cdot (T\vec{u} + T\vec{v}) = (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \cdot (\vec{u} + \vec{v})$$

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

$$T\vec{u} \cdot T\vec{v} = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} \quad \forall \vec{u}, \vec{v}$$

$$\& \frac{T\vec{u} \cdot T\vec{v}}{\|T\vec{u}\| \|T\vec{v}\|} = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|} \quad \blacksquare$$

So what orthogonal transformations are there?

Let  $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$  be orthogonal

$$A = \left[ T(\vec{e}_1) \mid T(\vec{e}_2) \mid \dots \mid T(\vec{e}_n) \right]$$

so the columns of  $A$  must be unit length (because the  $\vec{e}_i$  are & length is preserved) & mutually orthogonal (because  $\vec{e}_i \cdot \vec{e}_j = 0 \neq \delta_{ij}$ )

→ the columns of  $A$  must be an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ !

e.g.  $A = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & -\sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & \cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$   
rotation

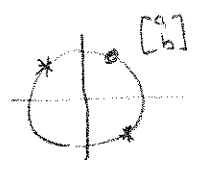
$$\begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha \\ \sin \alpha & -\cos \alpha \end{bmatrix}$$

reflection (thru line with  $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \alpha/2 \\ \sin \alpha/2 \end{bmatrix}$ )

only ones from  $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & c \\ b & d \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a^2 + b^2 &= 1 \\ c^2 + d^2 &= 1 \\ ac + bd &= 0 \end{aligned}$$



We just showed  $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$  orthog trans  $\Rightarrow$  cols of  $A$  are orthonormal (basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ )

Converse is true too:

let  $A = \left[ \vec{w}_1 \mid \vec{w}_2 \mid \dots \mid \vec{w}_n \right]$

$\{\vec{w}_1, \vec{w}_2, \dots, \vec{w}_n\}$  orthonormal.

$$\begin{aligned} A\vec{x} \cdot A\vec{y} &= (x_1\vec{w}_1 + x_2\vec{w}_2 + \dots + x_n\vec{w}_n) \cdot (y_1\vec{w}_1 + y_2\vec{w}_2 + \dots + y_n\vec{w}_n) \\ &= \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \vec{w}_i \right) \cdot \left( \sum_{j=1}^n y_j \vec{w}_j \right) \\ &\stackrel{!}{=} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n x_i y_j (\vec{w}_i \cdot \vec{w}_j) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \quad \left\{ \begin{aligned} &= 0 \quad j \neq i \\ &= 1 \quad j = i \end{aligned} \right. \\ &= \vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} \end{aligned}$$

so  $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$  preserves dot prod, hence also lengths, so  $T$  is orthogonal!

Theorem  $T(\vec{x}) = A\vec{x}$  is an orthogonal transformation if and only if the columns of  $A$  are orthonormal. We call such an  $A$  an orthogonal matrix

Example  $A = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$  is an orthogonal matrix.

Now I will make a matrix B in which I transpose the columns of A into the rows of B:

$$B = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Compute

$$BA = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 & -1 \\ -1 & 1 & -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} \\ \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} \\ \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} \\ \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} & \phantom{0} \end{bmatrix}$$

What do you get?

Why???

