

## (6.2) Angles and Orthogonality

Recall that we define the angle between two vectors in  $R^3$  by  $\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|}$ . We want to make the same definition for vectors in inner product spaces, so we would define  $\cos \theta = \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|}$ . But there is a potential problem: what if for some inner product it turned out that  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle > \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|$ ? Then  $\cos \theta > 1$ , but that's not possible. However, we can prove that in an inner product space, this cannot happen.

**Cauchy-Schwarz inequality.** For all vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$ , we have

$$|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|$$

The proof of this is clever and interesting. It relies on the fact that  $\|\mathbf{u}\|^2 = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$  for any vector  $\mathbf{u}$ . Now  $\|t\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 \geq 0$  for any real number  $t$ . (The norm of anything is nonnegative, but we've squared it for good measure.) This is

$$\begin{aligned} \|t\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 &= \langle t\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}, t\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \rangle \\ &= t^2 \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + t \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + t \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \\ &= t^2 \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + 2t \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Now this is supposed to be nonnegative. If we write  $a = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2$ ,  $b = 2 \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  and  $c = \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$  we have

$$at^2 + bt + c \geq 0$$

for all  $t$ . This means either the quadratic equation  $at^2 + bt + c = 0$  has no real solutions or exactly one solution. The quadratic formula is

$$t = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

so it can be seen that there are no real solutions exactly when the discriminant  $b^2 - 4ac$  is negative, and exactly one real solution exactly when it is zero. So we know  $b^2 - 4ac \leq 0$ . This is

$$(2 \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle)^2 - 4 \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \leq 0$$

or

$$(2 \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle)^2 \leq 4 \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$$

If we take square roots and divide by 2, we get  $|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|$ . (If  $x^2 \leq c^2$  then  $|x| \leq c$ , assuming  $c \geq 0$ .)

This verifies the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality in  $R^n$ , by the way, something that we didn't prove back in Chapter 4.

With the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality in hand, it is now easy to prove the Triangle Inequality. All we do is:

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 &= \langle \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \\ &= \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + 2\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \\ &\leq \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 \quad (\text{C-S ineq.}) \\ &= (\|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|)^2 \end{aligned}$$

so by taking square roots, we have

$$\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|.$$

(If  $a^2 \leq b^2$  and  $a$  and  $b$  are both nonnegative, then  $a \leq b$ .)

The reason why we need the Triangle Inequality is that it makes our definition of distance,  $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|$ , behave correctly. If you go from point  $A$  to point  $B$  and then to point  $C$ , the distance you cover should be at least as large as if you go from point  $A$  directly to point  $C$ .

We are now equipped to talk about angles and distances in settings where you might not think such geometrical quantities could make any sense.

**Example.** We can find the angle between two functions in a function space. Say  $V = C[0, 2\pi]$ . Recall this is the set of all continuous functions on the interval  $[0, 2\pi]$ . Let's try  $f(x) = \cos 2x$  and  $g(x) = \sin 3x$ . We compute:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, g \rangle &= \int_0^{2\pi} \cos 2x \sin 3x \, dx = 0 \\ \|f\|^2 &= \langle f, f \rangle = \int_0^{2\pi} (\cos 2x)^2 \, dx = \pi \\ \|g\|^2 &= \langle g, g \rangle = \int_0^{2\pi} (\sin 3x)^2 \, dx = \pi \end{aligned}$$

So

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle f, g \rangle}{\|f\| \|g\|} = \frac{0}{\sqrt{\pi} \cdot \sqrt{\pi}} = 0$$

Of course, we didn't need to compute the norms of  $f$  and  $g$  once we discovered that  $\langle f, g \rangle = 0$ . But we have found  $\cos \theta = 0$  so  $\theta = 90^\circ$ . So in some mysterious sense, these functions are perpendicular to each other.

We now make a very basic and important definition: in an inner product space  $V$ , we say two vectors  $\mathbf{u}$  and  $\mathbf{v}$  are **orthogonal** if  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$ . This means  $\cos \theta = 0$  where  $\theta$  is the angle between the vectors, so it means  $\theta = 90^\circ$ . That is, the vectors are perpendicular. So in the last example, we had two functions that are orthogonal.

**Orthogonal complements.** Suppose  $W$  is a subspace of an inner product space  $V$ . We define  $W^\perp$ , the **orthogonal complement** of  $W$ , to be the set of all vectors in  $V$  that are orthogonal to  $W$ , that is, orthogonal to every vector in  $W$ . It is easy to verify that  $W^\perp$  is also a subspace of  $V$ . For example, if  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  belong to  $W^\perp$ , then so does  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}$ . This is because  $\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = 0 + 0 = 0$  for every  $\mathbf{w}$  in  $W$ .

We can visualize  $W^\perp$  as follows. Say  $V = R^3$  and  $W$  is a plane through the origin. Then  $W^\perp$  ends up being the line through the origin that is perpendicular to the plane. If instead  $W$  is a line through the origin, then  $W^\perp$  turns out to be the plane through the origin that is perpendicular to the line. (Recall all subspaces of  $R^3$  are either lines through the origin, planes through the origin, or else  $\{\mathbf{0}\}$ , or all of  $R^3$ .)

Very often, a subspace of a vector space is given as the span of several vectors. So we might say, let  $W$  be the subspace of  $V$  that is spanned by the three vectors  $\mathbf{w}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{w}_2$  and  $\mathbf{w}_3$ . Or we might say, let  $W$  be the subspace of  $V$  that has basis  $\mathbf{w}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{w}_2$  and  $\mathbf{w}_3$ . We would like to be able to find  $W^\perp$  in this circumstance. It turns out to be easy to do that. The trick is to form a matrix  $A$  whose rows are given by the vectors that span  $W$ . Then  $W^\perp$  turns out to be exactly the same thing as the nullspace of  $A$ . This works because if  $\mathbf{x}$  is in the nullspace of  $A$ , so it solves  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , then the dot product of each row of  $A$  with  $\mathbf{x}$  is equal to 0. Rather than give a full-fledged proof of this, one simple example should be convincing. Look at a  $3 \times 3$  matrix:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Call each row of  $A$  a vector, so let  $\mathbf{a}_1 = (a_{11}, a_{12}, a_{13})$ ,  $\mathbf{a}_2 = (a_{21}, a_{22}, a_{23})$  and  $\mathbf{a}_3 = (a_{31}, a_{32}, a_{33})$ . Now suppose  $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix}$  is in the nullspace of  $A$ , which means  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ . This is

$$\begin{aligned} A\mathbf{x} &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & a_{23} \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} a_{11}x_1 + a_{12}x_2 + a_{13}x_3 \\ a_{21}x_1 + a_{22}x_2 + a_{23}x_3 \\ a_{31}x_1 + a_{32}x_2 + a_{33}x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{a}_2 \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{a}_3 \cdot \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

so  $\mathbf{a}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0$ ,  $\mathbf{a}_2 \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0$  and  $\mathbf{a}_3 \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0$ .

**Example.** Suppose  $W$  is the subspace of  $R^5$  spanned by the four vectors  $(1, 3, -1, 8, 4)$ ,  $(1, -1, -1, 4, 4)$ ,  $(2, 0, 1, 1, 7)$  and  $(0, 1, 1, -2, -1)$ . We will find a basis for  $W$  and we will find a basis for  $W^\perp$ . Let  $A$  be the matrix whose rows are these vectors:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 3 & -1 & 8 & 4 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 4 & 4 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 7 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

We solve  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ , which is a system that in augmented matrix form is given by

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & 3 & -1 & 8 & 4 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 4 & 4 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 7 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 & -2 & -1 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

We put this into reduced row-echelon form:

$$\left[ \begin{array}{ccccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & -2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -3 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right]$$

This gives us a basis for  $W$  (and also for the row space of  $A$ ):  $(1, 0, 0, 2, 3)$ ,  $(0, 1, 0, 1, -2)$ ,  $(0, 0, 1, -3, 1)$ . But if we write the system represented by the re-

duced matrix, we can find the nullspace of  $A$ . We have

$$\begin{array}{rccccrcr} x_1 & & & + & 2x_4 & + & 3x_5 & = & 0 \\ & x_2 & & + & x_4 & - & 2x_5 & = & 0 \\ & & x_3 & - & 3x_4 & + & x_5 & = & 0 \end{array}$$

We do the usual thing: solve for the lead variables and then set the free variables equal to certain parameters. We have

$$\begin{aligned} x_1 &= -2t - 3s \\ x_2 &= -t + 2s \\ x_3 &= 3t - s \\ x_4 &= t \\ x_5 &= s \end{aligned}$$

Now we write

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ x_5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -2t - 3s \\ -t + 2s \\ 3t - s \\ t \\ s \end{bmatrix} = t \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ -1 \\ 3 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + s \begin{bmatrix} -3 \\ 2 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

which finally provides us with a basis for the nullspace of  $A$ , and therefore  $W^\perp$ :  $(-2, -1, 3, 1, 0)$  and  $(-3, 2, -1, 0, 1)$ .

We may verify directly that these two vectors are orthogonal to each of the original four vectors that span  $W$ . For example, we can verify that the third vector in the set that spanned  $W$  is orthogonal to the second vector in the basis for  $W^\perp$ :

$$\langle (2, 0, 1, 1, 7), (-3, 2, -1, 0, 1) \rangle = 2(-3) + 0(2) + 1(-1) + 1(0) + 7(1) = 0.$$

(This inner product is just the ordinary dot product or inner product on  $R^5$ .)

By the way, the dimension of  $W$  turned out to be 3 (the basis for  $W$  has three vectors), and the dimension of  $W^\perp$  turned out to be 2 (it has a basis of two vectors). Both of these spaces are subspaces of  $R^5$ . Notice  $3 + 2 = 5$ . This always happens: if  $W$  is a subspace of  $R^n$  then  $\dim(W) + \dim(W^\perp) = n$ . This is just the same fact we learned earlier, that  $\text{rank} + \text{nullity} = n$  for an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$ .