

# Linear Algebra 2

## Lecture #17

Permutation matrices. Orthogonal matrices

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  - ① Permutation matrices

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  - ① Permutation matrices
  - ② Orthogonal matrices
  - ③ Scalar product, coordinate vectors, and matrices of linear functions

## 1 Permutation matrices

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### Definition

A *permutation matrix* is a square matrix that has exactly one 1 in each row and each column, and has 0's everywhere else.

- Examples:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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- The 0's and 1's in permutation matrices may belong to any field  $\mathbb{F}$  of our choice.
  - In our study of permutation matrices, we will never need to add two non-zero numbers, and whenever we multiply two numbers, at least one of the two numbers will be 0 or 1.
  - So, it does not matter which particular field we are working in, and therefore, we will not emphasize this.

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- Obviously, identity matrices are permutation matrices.
- Moreover,  $n \times n$  permutation matrices are precisely the matrices that can be obtained from the identity matrix  $I_n$  by reordering (i.e. permuting) rows, or alternatively, by reordering (i.e. permuting) columns.
- So, the columns of an  $n \times n$  permutation matrix are the standard basis vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$  (appearing in some order in that matrix), whereas the rows are  $\mathbf{e}_1^T, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n^T$  (again, appearing in some order in that matrix).

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For a positive integer  $n$  and a permutation  $\pi \in S_n$ , we define the *matrix of the permutation*  $\pi$ , denoted by  $P_\pi$ , to be the  $n \times n$  matrix that has 1 in the  $(i, \pi(i))$ -th entry for each index  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ , and has 0 in all other entries. In other words, for each index  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ , the  $i$ -th row of the matrix  $P_\pi$  is  $\mathbf{e}_{\pi(i)}^T$ .

- For example, for the permutation

$$\pi = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 6 \\ 2 & 4 & 1 & 6 & 5 & 3 \end{pmatrix},$$

in  $S_6$ , we obtain the  $6 \times 6$  permutation matrix

$$P_\pi = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$$

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- Obviously, for a positive integer  $n$ , the matrix of the identity permutation  $1_n$  in  $S_n$  is precisely the identity matrix  $I_n$ , i.e.  $P_{1_n} = I_n$ .

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Let  $n$  be a positive integer, and let  $\pi \in S_n$ . Then  $P_\pi$  is a permutation matrix.

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  - The answer to this question is “yes,” and it follows from a simple counting argument, as follows.
  - Let  $n$  be a positive integer.
  - The  $n \times n$  permutation matrices are precisely those  $n \times n$  matrices whose columns are the standard basis vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ , appearing in some order. There are  $n!$  many ways to order the vectors  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$ , and consequently, there are  $n!$  many  $n \times n$  permutation matrices.

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  - On the other hand,  $|S_n| = n!$ , and consequently, there are  $n!$  many matrices of permutations in  $S_n$ .

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    - We are using the fact that different permutations have different matrices.
  - So, the number of  $n \times n$  permutation matrices is the same as the number of matrices of permutations in  $S_n$ .
  - It now follows from Proposition 2.3.10 that  $n \times n$  permutation matrices are precisely the matrices of permutations in  $S_n$ .

### Proposition 2.3.11

Let  $n$  be a positive integer, and let  $\pi \in S_n$  be a permutation. Then both the following hold:

- Ⓐ  $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ :  $\mathbf{e}_i^T P_\pi = \mathbf{e}_{\pi(i)}$ , i.e. the  $i$ -th row of  $P_\pi$  is  $\mathbf{e}_{\pi(i)}^T$ ;
- Ⓑ  $\forall j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ :  $P_\pi \mathbf{e}_j = \mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(j)}$ , i.e. the  $j$ -th column of  $P_\pi$  is  $\mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(j)}$ .

Consequently, in terms of its rows and columns,  $P_\pi$  can be written as follows:

$$P_\pi = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_{\pi(1)}^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{e}_{\pi(n)}^T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(1)} & \dots & \mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(n)} \end{bmatrix}.$$

*Proof.* The last statement of the proposition follows immediately from (a) and (b). So, it is enough to prove (a) and (b).

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*Proof (continued).* (a) Fix an index  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ . By Proposition 1.8.2,  $\mathbf{e}_i^T P_\pi$  is precisely the  $i$ -th row of the matrix  $P_\pi$ , and by the definition of the matrix  $P_\pi$ , its  $i$ -th row is precisely  $\mathbf{e}_{\pi(i)}$ .

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(b) Fix an index  $j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ . By Proposition 1.4.4,  $P_\pi \mathbf{e}_j$  is precisely the  $j$ -th column of the matrix  $P_\pi$ .

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Consequently, in terms of its rows and columns,  $P_\pi$  can be written as follows:

$$P_\pi = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_{\pi(1)}^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{e}_{\pi(n)}^T \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(1)} & \dots & \mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(n)} \end{bmatrix}.$$

*Proof.* The last statement of the proposition follows immediately from (a) and (b). So, it is enough to prove (a) and (b).

### Proposition 2.3.12

Let  $n$  be a positive integer, and let  $\pi \in S_n$ . Then

$$P_{\pi^{-1}} = P_{\pi}^T.$$

*Proof.*

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*Proof.* We have that

$$P_{\pi}^T \stackrel{(*)}{=} \left( \left[ \mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(1)} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(n)} \right] \right)^T = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(1)}^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(n)}^T \end{bmatrix} \stackrel{(*)}{=} P_{\pi^{-1}},$$

where both instances of (\*) follow from Proposition 2.3.11.  $\square$

### Proposition 2.3.11

Ⓐ  $\forall i \in \{1, \dots, n\}: \mathbf{e}_i^T P_\pi = \mathbf{e}_{\pi(i)}$ , i.e. the  $i$ -th row of  $P_\pi$  is  $\mathbf{e}_{\pi(i)}^T$ ;

### Proposition 2.3.13

Let  $n$  be a positive integer, and let  $\sigma$  and  $\pi$  be permutations in  $S_n$ .  
Then  $P_{\sigma \circ \pi} = P_\pi P_\sigma$ .

*Proof.*

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*Proof.* It suffices to show that matrices  $P_{\sigma \circ \pi}$  and  $P_\pi P_\sigma$  have the same corresponding rows. Fix an index  $i \in \{1, \dots, n\}$ . By Proposition 1.8.2, the  $i$ -th row of the matrix  $P_{\sigma \circ \pi}$  is  $\mathbf{e}_i^T P_{\sigma \circ \pi}$ , and the  $i$ -th row of the matrix  $P_\pi P_\sigma$  is  $\mathbf{e}_i^T (P_\pi P_\sigma)$ .



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$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{e}_i^T (P_\pi P_\sigma) &= (\mathbf{e}_i^T P_\pi) P_\sigma \stackrel{(*)}{=} \mathbf{e}_{\pi(i)}^T P_\sigma \stackrel{(*)}{=} \mathbf{e}_{\sigma(\pi(i))} \\ &= \mathbf{e}_{(\sigma \circ \pi)(i)}^T \stackrel{(*)}{=} \mathbf{e}_i^T P_{\sigma \circ \pi}, \end{aligned}$$

where all three instances of (\*) follow from Prop. 2.3.11(a).  $\square$

### Theorem 2.3.14

Let  $n$  be a positive integer, and let  $\pi \in S_n$ . Then  $P_\pi$  is invertible, and moreover,

$$P_\pi^{-1} = P_{\pi^{-1}} = P_\pi^T.$$

*Proof.*

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*Proof.* The fact that  $P_{\pi^{-1}} = P_\pi^T$  follows immediately from Proposition 2.3.12.

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We now compute:

$$P_\pi P_{\pi^{-1}} \stackrel{(*)}{=} P_{\pi^{-1} \circ \pi} = P_{1_n} = I_n,$$

where (\*) follows immediately from Proposition 2.3.13.

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Analogously,  $P_{\pi^{-1}} P_\pi = I_n$ . So,  $P_\pi$  and  $P_{\pi^{-1}}$  are invertible and are each other's inverses. This completes the argument.  $\square$

### Theorem 2.3.14

Let  $n$  be a positive integer, and let  $\pi \in S_n$ . Then  $P_\pi$  is invertible, and moreover,

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- **Remark:** A matrix  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is *orthogonal* if it satisfies  $Q^T Q = I_n$ .
  - Theorem 2.3.14 guarantees that permutation matrices are orthogonal (as long as we consider the 0's and 1's in those matrices as belonging to  $\mathbb{R}$ , rather than to some other field).

- As our next theorem (Theorem 2.3.15, next slide) shows, multiplying a matrix by a permutation matrix on the left permutes the rows of the original matrix.

- As our next theorem (Theorem 2.3.15, next slide) shows, multiplying a matrix by a permutation matrix on the left permutes the rows of the original matrix.
- On the other hand, multiplying a matrix by a permutation matrix on the right permutes the columns of the original matrix.

### Theorem 2.3.15

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_n \end{bmatrix} = [ \mathbf{a}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{a}_m ]$  be an  $n \times m$  matrix with entries in some field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Then all the following hold:

(a) for all  $\pi \in S_n$ , we have that

$$P_\pi A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_{\pi(1)} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_{\pi(n)} \end{bmatrix};$$

(b) for all  $\pi \in S_m$ , we have that

$$AP_\pi = [ \mathbf{a}_{\pi^{-1}(1)} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{a}_{\pi^{-1}(m)} ];$$

(c) for all  $\pi \in S_m$ , we have that

$$AP_\pi^T = [ \mathbf{a}_{\pi(1)} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{a}_{\pi(m)} ].$$

*Proof.*

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(c) for all  $\pi \in S_m$ , we have that

$$AP_\pi^T = [ \mathbf{a}_{\pi(1)} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{a}_{\pi(m)} ].$$

*Proof.* We prove (b). Parts (a) and (c) are in the Lecture Notes.

### Theorem 2.3.15

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_n \end{bmatrix} = [ \mathbf{a}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{a}_m ]$  be an  $n \times m$  matrix with entries in some field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Then all the following hold:

ⓑ for all  $\pi \in S_m$ , we have that

$$AP_\pi = [ \mathbf{a}_{\pi^{-1}(1)} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{a}_{\pi^{-1}(m)} ] ;$$

*Proof of (b).*

### Theorem 2.3.15

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_n \end{bmatrix} = [ \mathbf{a}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{a}_m ]$  be an  $n \times m$  matrix with entries in some field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Then all the following hold:

(b) for all  $\pi \in S_m$ , we have that

$$AP_\pi = [ \mathbf{a}_{\pi^{-1}(1)} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{a}_{\pi^{-1}(m)} ];$$

*Proof of (b).* Fix any permutation  $\pi \in S_m$ . In what follows,  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_m$  are the standard basis vectors of  $\mathbb{F}^m$ . We compute:

$$AP_\pi = A [ \mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(1)} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(m)} ] \quad \text{by Proposition 2.3.11}$$

$$= [ A\mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(1)} \quad \dots \quad A\mathbf{e}_{\pi^{-1}(m)} ] \quad \text{by the definition of matrix multiplication}$$

$$= [ \mathbf{a}_{\pi^{-1}(1)} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{a}_{\pi^{-1}(m)} ] \quad \text{by Proposition 1.4.4.}$$

This proves (b).  $\square$



### Theorem 2.3.15

Let  $A = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_n \end{bmatrix} = [ \mathbf{a}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{a}_m ]$  be an  $n \times m$  matrix with entries in some field  $\mathbb{F}$ . Then all the following hold:

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## ② Orthogonal matrices

## 2 Orthogonal matrices

- In our study of orthogonal matrices, we assume that  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is equipped with the standard scalar product  $\cdot$  and the induced norm  $\|\cdot\|$ .

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- The matrices mentioned so far all have entries only  $-1, 0, 1$ . However, there are many other orthogonal matrices, and we will see a couple of examples later.



- Reminder:

### Corollary 3.3.18

Let  $\mathbb{F}$  be field, and let  $A, B \in \mathbb{F}^{n \times n}$  be such that  $AB = I_n$  or  $BA = I_n$ . Then  $AB = BA = I_n$ , i.e.  $A$  and  $B$  are both invertible and are each other's inverses.

### Theorem 6.8.1

Let  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- (a)  $Q$  is orthogonal (i.e. satisfies  $Q^T Q = I_n$ );
- (b)  $Q$  is invertible and satisfies  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$ ;
- (c)  $Q Q^T = I_n$ ;
- (d)  $Q^T$  is orthogonal;
- (e)  $Q$  is invertible and  $Q^{-1}$  is orthogonal;
- (f) the columns of  $Q$  form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ;
- (g) the columns of  $Q^T$  form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

*Proof.*

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*Proof.* By Corollary 3.3.18, we have that (a), (b), and (c) are equivalent.

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*Proof.* By Corollary 3.3.18, we have that (a), (b), and (c) are equivalent. Moreover, since  $(Q^T)^T = Q$ , we have that (c) and (d) are equivalent.

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*Proof.* By Corollary 3.3.18, we have that (a), (b), and (c) are equivalent. Moreover, since  $(Q^T)^T = Q$ , we have that (c) and (d) are equivalent. This proves that (a), (b), (c), and (d) are equivalent.

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*Proof (continued).* Next, (b) and (d) together imply (e).

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*Proof (continued).* Next, (b) and (d) together imply (e).

Suppose now that (e) holds. Then by applying “(a)  $\implies$  (b)” to the matrix  $Q^{-1}$ , we see that  $Q^{-1}$  is invertible and satisfies  $(Q^{-1})^{-1} = (Q^{-1})^T$ . Consequently,  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$ , and it follows that (b) holds.

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*Proof (continued).* So far, we have established that (a), (b), (c), (d), and (e) are equivalent.



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*Proof (continued).* So far, we have established that (a), (b), (c), (d), and (e) are equivalent.

Let us now show that (a) and (f) are equivalent.

### Theorem 6.8.1

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- Ⓕ the columns of  $Q$  form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ;

*Proof (continued).* Set  $Q = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{q}_n \end{bmatrix}$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} Q^T Q &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1^T \\ \mathbf{q}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{q}_n^T \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{q}_n \end{bmatrix} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1 \cdot \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_1 \cdot \mathbf{q}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{q}_1 \cdot \mathbf{q}_n \\ \mathbf{q}_2 \cdot \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_2 \cdot \mathbf{q}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{q}_2 \cdot \mathbf{q}_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{q}_n \cdot \mathbf{q}_1 & \mathbf{q}_n \cdot \mathbf{q}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{q}_n \cdot \mathbf{q}_n \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

### Theorem 6.8.1

- Ⓐ  $Q$  is orthogonal (i.e. satisfies  $Q^T Q = I_n$ );
- Ⓕ the columns of  $Q$  form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ;

*Proof (continued).* Set  $Q = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{q}_n \end{bmatrix}$ . Then

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So,  $Q^T Q = I_n$  iff  $\{\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_n\}$  is an orthonormal set.

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*Proof (continued).* Set  $Q = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{q}_1 & \dots & \mathbf{q}_n \end{bmatrix}$ . Then

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So,  $Q^T Q = I_n$  iff  $\{\mathbf{q}_1, \dots, \mathbf{q}_n\}$  is an orthonormal set. But by Proposition 6.3.4(b), any orthonormal set of  $n$  vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is in fact an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . So, (a) and (f) are equivalent.

### Theorem 6.8.1

Let  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- (a)  $Q$  is orthogonal (i.e. satisfies  $Q^T Q = I_n$ );
- (b)  $Q$  is invertible and satisfies  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$ ;
- (c)  $QQ^T = I_n$ ;
- (d)  $Q^T$  is orthogonal;
- (e)  $Q$  is invertible and  $Q^{-1}$  is orthogonal;
- (f) the columns of  $Q$  form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ;
- (g) the columns of  $Q^T$  form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

*Proof (continued).* Analogously to “(a)  $\iff$  (f),” we have that (d) and (g) are equivalent.  $\square$

### Theorem 6.8.1

Let  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- (a)  $Q$  is orthogonal (i.e. satisfies  $Q^T Q = I_n$ );
- (b)  $Q$  is invertible and satisfies  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$ ;
- (c)  $Q Q^T = I_n$ ;
- (d)  $Q^T$  is orthogonal;
- (e)  $Q$  is invertible and  $Q^{-1}$  is orthogonal;
- (f) the columns of  $Q$  form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ;
- (g) the columns of  $Q^T$  form an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

- We can make new orthogonal matrices out of old ones, as Propositions 6.8.2, 6.8.3, and 6.8.4 (below and next slide) show.
- The proofs of these propositions are easy and are in the Lecture Notes (we omit them here).

### Proposition 6.8.2

Let

$$Q = [ \mathbf{q}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{q}_n ] = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{r}_n^T \end{bmatrix}$$

be an orthogonal matrix in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then all the following hold:

- Ⓐ  $\forall \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \{-1, 1\}$ :  $[ \alpha_1 \mathbf{q}_1 \quad \dots \quad \alpha_n \mathbf{q}_n ]$  is orthogonal;
- Ⓑ  $\forall \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \{-1, 1\}$ :  $\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_1 \mathbf{r}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \mathbf{r}_n^T \end{bmatrix}$  is orthogonal;
- Ⓒ the matrix  $-Q$  is orthogonal.



### Proposition 6.8.3

If  $Q_1, Q_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  are orthogonal, then so is their product  $Q_1 Q_2$ .

### Proposition 6.8.4

Let  $Q_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$  and  $Q_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be orthogonal matrices. Then the  $(m+n) \times (m+n)$  matrix

$$Q = \begin{bmatrix} Q_1 & O_{m \times n} \\ O_{n \times m} & Q_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

is an orthogonal matrix in  $\mathbb{R}^{(m+n) \times (m+n)}$ .

- Next, we discuss two particularly significant orthogonal matrices: the Householder matrix and the Givens matrix.

- Next, we discuss two particularly significant orthogonal matrices: the Householder matrix and the Givens matrix.
- In our discussion of the Householder matrix, we will need the following result.

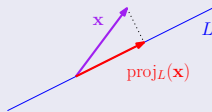
### Corollary 6.6.4

Let  $\mathbf{a}$  be a non-zero vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then the standard matrix of orthogonal projection onto the line  $L := \text{Span}(\mathbf{a})$  is the matrix

$$\mathbf{a}(\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a})^{-1} \mathbf{a}^T = \mathbf{a}(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a})^{-1} \mathbf{a}^T = \frac{1}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T.$$

Consequently, for every vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have that

$$\mathbf{x}_L = \text{proj}_L(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}.$$



- Proof: Lecture Notes.

## Definition

For a non-zero vector  $\mathbf{a}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the *Householder matrix* is the  $n \times n$  matrix

$$H(\mathbf{a}) := I_n - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T = I_n - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T.$$

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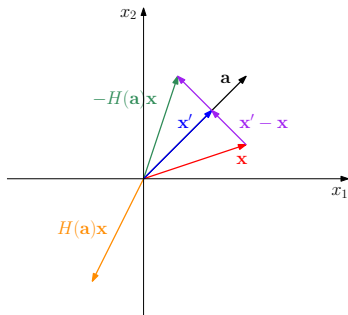
- To see that  $H(\mathbf{a})$  is an orthogonal matrix, we compute:

$$\begin{aligned} H(\mathbf{a})^T H(\mathbf{a}) &= (I_n - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T)^T (I_n - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T) \\ &= (I_n^T - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} (\mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T)^T) (I_n - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T) \\ &= (I_n - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T) (I_n - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T) \\ &= I_n - \frac{4}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T + \frac{4}{(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a})^2} \underbrace{\mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T}_{=\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \\ &= I_n - \frac{4}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T + \frac{4}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T \\ &= I_n. \end{aligned}$$

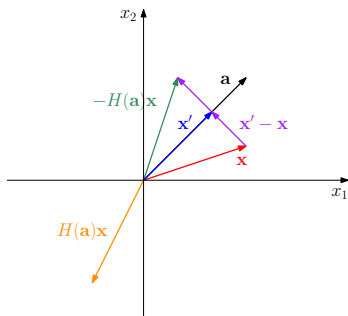
- Reminder:  $H(\mathbf{a}) := I_n - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T = I_n - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T$ .

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- if  $\mathbf{x}$  is any vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $\mathbf{x}'$  represents the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto  $\text{Span}(\mathbf{a})$ , then the reflection of  $\mathbf{x}$  about the line  $\text{Span}(\mathbf{a})$  is given by

$$\begin{aligned}
 \mathbf{x} + 2(\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x}) &= 2\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x} = \frac{2}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x} - I_n \mathbf{x} \\
 &= \left( \frac{2}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T - I_n \right) \mathbf{x} \\
 &= -H(\mathbf{a}) \mathbf{x}.
 \end{aligned}$$



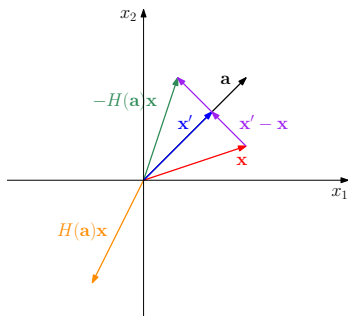
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- Thus,  $-H(\mathbf{a})$  is the standard matrix of reflection about the  $\text{Span}(\mathbf{a})$  line.

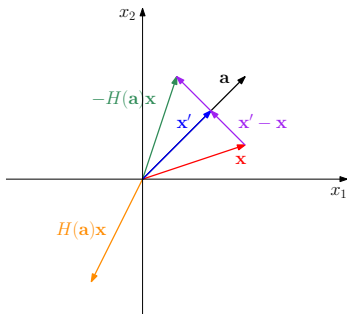


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- Thus,  $-H(\mathbf{a})$  is the standard matrix of reflection about the  $\text{Span}(\mathbf{a})$  line.
- The Householder matrix  $H(\mathbf{a})$  itself is the standard matrix of the linear operation that first reflects about the  $\text{Span}(\mathbf{a})$  line and then reflects about the origin.

- Reminder:  $H(\mathbf{a}) := I_n - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T = I_n - \frac{2}{\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}^T$ .



- **Remark:** Suppose that  $\mathbf{a}$  is a non-zero vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .
  - Then the standard matrix of reflection about the line  $L := \text{Span}(\mathbf{a})$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is an orthogonal matrix.
  - Indeed, as we saw, the Householder matrix  $H(\mathbf{a})$  is an orthogonal matrix.
  - By Proposition 6.8.2(c), it follows that  $-H(\mathbf{a})$  is also an orthogonal matrix, and as we saw above,  $-H(\mathbf{a})$  is the standard matrix of reflection about the line  $L = \text{Span}(\mathbf{a})$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .





- Let us now give a geometric interpretation of this matrix.

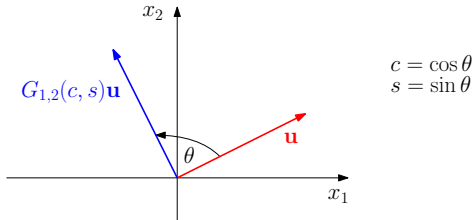
- Let us now give a geometric interpretation of this matrix.
- Since  $c^2 + s^2 = 1$ , we see that there exists a real number (angle in radians)  $\theta$  such that  $c = \cos \theta$  and  $s = \sin \theta$ .

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- With this set-up, we see that  $G_{i,j}(c, s)$  represents rotation about the origin by angle  $\theta$  in the  $x_i x_j$ -plane.
- This is particularly easy to see in the case when  $n = 2$ . In that case, we have that

$$G_{1,2}(c, s) = \begin{bmatrix} c & -s \\ s & c \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix},$$

which is precisely the standard matrix of counterclockwise rotation about the origin by angle  $\theta$ .





### Theorem 6.8.5

Let  $Q = [q_{i,j}]_{n \times n}$  be an orthogonal matrix in  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Then:

- Ⓐ for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $(Q\mathbf{x}) \cdot (Q\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ ;
- Ⓑ for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\|Q\mathbf{x}\| = \|\mathbf{x}\|$ ;
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- Proof: next slide.

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- **Remark:** By Theorem 6.8.5(b), multiplication by an orthogonal matrix (on the left) preserves vector length.
  - On the other hand, recall that for non-zero vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have that  $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\| \cos \theta$ , where  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ .

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  - So, Theorem 6.8.5(a-b) implies that multiplication (on the left) by an orthogonal matrix preserves angles between non-zero vectors.

### Theorem 6.8.5

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*Proof.*

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*Proof.* (a) For  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have the following:

$$(Q\mathbf{x}) \cdot (Q\mathbf{y}) = (Q\mathbf{x})^T(Q\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x}^T \underbrace{Q^T Q}_{=I_n} \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}.$$

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(b) For  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have the following:

$$\|Q\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{(Q\mathbf{x}) \cdot (Q\mathbf{x})} \stackrel{(a)}{=} \sqrt{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}} = \|\mathbf{x}\|.$$

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Let  $Q = [q_{i,j}]_{n \times n}$  be an orthogonal matrix in  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Then:

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$$\|Q\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{(Q\mathbf{x}) \cdot (Q\mathbf{x})} \stackrel{(a)}{=} \sqrt{\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}} = \|\mathbf{x}\|.$$

(c) By Theorem 6.8.1, the columns of  $Q$  form an orthonormal basis. In particular, all columns of  $Q$  are unit vectors, and it follows that all entries of  $Q$  have absolute value at most 1.  $\square$



- ③ Scalar product, coordinate vectors, and matrices of linear functions

- ③ Scalar product, coordinate vectors, and matrices of linear functions

### Proposition 6.9.1

Let  $V$  be a real or complex vector space, equipped with the scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  and the induced norm  $\| \cdot \|$ , and let  $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_n\}$  be an **orthonormal** basis of  $V$ . Let  $\cdot$  be the standard scalar product in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  or  $\mathbb{C}^n$  (depending on whether the vector space  $V$  is real or complex). Then for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V$ , we have that

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \left[ \mathbf{x} \right]_{\mathcal{B}} \cdot \left[ \mathbf{y} \right]_{\mathcal{B}}.$$

- Proof: Lecture Notes.

## Theorem 6.9.2

Let  $U$  and  $V$  be non-trivial, finite-dimensional **real** vector spaces. Assume that  $U$  is equipped with a scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_U$  and the induced norm  $\| \cdot \|_U$ , and that  $V$  is equipped with a scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_V$  and the induced norm  $\| \cdot \|_V$ . Let  $\mathcal{B}_U = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m\}$  and  $\mathcal{B}_V = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  be **orthonormal** bases of  $U$  and  $V$ , respectively, and let  $f : U \rightarrow V$  be a linear function. Then the following two statements are equivalent:

- (i) the columns of the  $n \times m$  matrix  ${}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U}$  form an orthonormal set of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (with respect to the standard scalar product  $\cdot$  and the induced norm  $\| \cdot \|$ );<sup>a</sup>
- (ii)  $f$  preserves the scalar product, that is, for all vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in U$ , we have that  $\langle f(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{y}) \rangle_V = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_U$ .

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<sup>a</sup>However, despite Theorem 6.8.1, this does not necessarily mean that the matrix  ${}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U}$  is orthogonal. This is because  ${}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U}$  is an  $n \times m$  matrix, and it is possible that  $m \neq n$ , in which case  ${}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U}$  is not a square matrix. Only square matrices can be orthogonal!

*Proof.* Set  ${}_{B_V} [ f ]_{B_U} = [ \mathbf{c}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{c}_m ]$ .

*Proof.* Set  ${}_{B_V} [ f ]_{B_U} = [ \mathbf{c}_1 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{c}_m ]$ . We observe that

$$\begin{aligned} ({}_{B_V} [ f ]_{B_U})^T {}_{B_V} [ f ]_{B_U} &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_1^T \\ \mathbf{c}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{c}_m^T \end{bmatrix} [ \mathbf{c}_1 \quad \mathbf{c}_2 \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{c}_m ] \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{c}_1 & \mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{c}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{c}_1 \cdot \mathbf{c}_m \\ \mathbf{c}_2 \cdot \mathbf{c}_1 & \mathbf{c}_2 \cdot \mathbf{c}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{c}_2 \cdot \mathbf{c}_m \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{c}_m \cdot \mathbf{c}_1 & \mathbf{c}_m \cdot \mathbf{c}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{c}_m \cdot \mathbf{c}_m \end{bmatrix}. \end{aligned}$$

So, we see that (i) holds iff  $({}_{B_V} [ f ]_{B_U})^T {}_{B_V} [ f ]_{B_U} = I_m$ .

*Proof (cont.).* Reminder: (i) holds iff  $({}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U})^T {}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} = I_m$ .

*Proof (cont.).* Reminder: (i) holds iff  $({}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U})^T {}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} = I_m$ .

Next, by Proposition 6.9.1, the following hold for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in U$ :

(1)  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_U = [ \mathbf{x} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} \cdot [ \mathbf{y} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U};$

(2)  $\langle f(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{y}) \rangle_V = [ f(\mathbf{x}) ]_{\mathcal{B}_V} \cdot [ f(\mathbf{y}) ]_{\mathcal{B}_V}.$

*Proof (cont.).* Reminder: (i) holds iff  $({}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U})^T {}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} = I_m$ .

Next, by Proposition 6.9.1, the following hold for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in U$ :

$$(1) \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_U = [ \mathbf{x} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} \cdot [ \mathbf{y} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U};$$

$$(2) \langle f(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{y}) \rangle_V = [ f(\mathbf{x}) ]_{\mathcal{B}_V} \cdot [ f(\mathbf{y}) ]_{\mathcal{B}_V}.$$

Now, for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in U$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{y}) \rangle_V &\stackrel{(2)}{=} [ f(\mathbf{x}) ]_{\mathcal{B}_V} \cdot [ f(\mathbf{y}) ]_{\mathcal{B}_V} \\ &= ([ f(\mathbf{x}) ]_{\mathcal{B}_V})^T [ f(\mathbf{y}) ]_{\mathcal{B}_V} \\ &= \left( {}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} [ \mathbf{x} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} \right)^T \left( {}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} [ \mathbf{y} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} \right) \\ &= ([ \mathbf{x} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U})^T ({}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U})^T {}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} [ \mathbf{y} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U}. \end{aligned}$$



*Proof (continued).* Suppose first that (i) holds. Then  $({}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U})^T {}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} = I_m$ , and consequently, for all  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in U$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{y}) \rangle_V &= ( [ \mathbf{x} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} )^T \underbrace{ ({}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U})^T {}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} }_{=I_m} [ \mathbf{y} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} \\ &= ( [ \mathbf{x} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} )^T [ \mathbf{y} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} \\ &= [ \mathbf{x} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} \cdot [ \mathbf{y} ]_{\mathcal{B}_U} \\ &\stackrel{(1)}{=} \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_U. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, (ii) holds.

*Proof (continued).* Reminder:  ${}_{B_V} [ f ]_{B_U} = [ \mathbf{c}_1 \ \dots \ \mathbf{c}_m ]$

Suppose now that (ii) holds. Then for all  $i, j \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ , we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{e}_i^m \cdot \mathbf{e}_j^m &= [ \mathbf{u}_i ]_{B_U} \cdot [ \mathbf{u}_j ]_{B_U} \\ &\stackrel{(1)}{=} \langle \mathbf{u}_i, \mathbf{u}_j \rangle_U \\ &\stackrel{(ii)}{=} \langle f(\mathbf{u}_i), f(\mathbf{u}_j) \rangle_V \\ &\stackrel{(2)}{=} [ f(\mathbf{u}_i) ]_{B_V} \cdot [ f(\mathbf{u}_j) ]_{B_V} \\ &= ({}_{B_V} [ f ]_{B_U} [ \mathbf{u}_i ]_{B_U}) \cdot ({}_{B_V} [ f ]_{B_U} [ \mathbf{u}_j ]_{B_U}) \\ &= ({}_{B_V} [ f ]_{B_U} \mathbf{e}_i^m) \cdot ({}_{B_V} [ f ]_{B_U} \mathbf{e}_j^m) \\ &= \mathbf{c}_i \cdot \mathbf{c}_j. \end{aligned}$$

So,  $\{\mathbf{c}_1, \dots, \mathbf{c}_n\}$  is an orthonormal set of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , that is, (i) holds.  $\square$

## Theorem 6.9.2

Let  $U$  and  $V$  be non-trivial, finite-dimensional **real** vector spaces. Assume that  $U$  is equipped with a scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_U$  and the induced norm  $\| \cdot \|_U$ , and that  $V$  is equipped with a scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle_V$  and the induced norm  $\| \cdot \|_V$ . Let  $\mathcal{B}_U = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_m\}$  and  $\mathcal{B}_V = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\}$  be **orthonormal** bases of  $U$  and  $V$ , respectively, and let  $f : U \rightarrow V$  be a linear function. Then the following two statements are equivalent:

- (i) the columns of the  $n \times m$  matrix  ${}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U}$  form an orthonormal set of vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (with respect to the standard scalar product  $\cdot$  and the induced norm  $\| \cdot \|$ );<sup>a</sup>
- (ii)  $f$  preserves the scalar product, that is, for all vectors  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in U$ , we have that  $\langle f(\mathbf{x}), f(\mathbf{y}) \rangle_V = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_U$ .

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<sup>a</sup>However, despite Theorem 6.8.1, this does not necessarily mean that the matrix  ${}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U}$  is orthogonal. This is because  ${}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U}$  is an  $n \times m$  matrix, and it is possible that  $m \neq n$ , in which case  ${}_{\mathcal{B}_V} [ f ]_{\mathcal{B}_U}$  is not a square matrix. Only square matrices can be orthogonal!