MATH 304

Linear Algebra

Lecture 20:
Inner product spaces.
Orthogonal sets.

Norm

The notion of *norm* generalizes the notion of length of a vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

Definition. Let V be a vector space. A function $\alpha : V \to \mathbb{R}$ is called a **norm** on V if it has the following properties:

(i) $\alpha(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$, $\alpha(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ only for $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ (positivity)
(ii) $\alpha(r\mathbf{x}) = |r|\,\alpha(\mathbf{x})$ for all $r \in \mathbb{R}$ (homogeneity)
(iii) $\alpha(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \leq \alpha(\mathbf{x}) + \alpha(\mathbf{y})$ (triangle inequality)

Notation. The norm of a vector $\mathbf{x} \in V$ is usually denoted $\|\mathbf{x}\|$. Different norms on V are distinguished by subscripts, e.g., $\|\mathbf{x}\|_1$ and $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2$.

Examples. $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

- $\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = \max(|x_1|, |x_2|, \ldots, |x_n|)$.
- $\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \big(|x_1|^p + |x_2|^p + \cdots + |x_n|^p\big)^{1/p}$, $p \geq 1$.

Examples. $V = C[a, b]$, $f : [a, b] \to \mathbb{R}$.

- $\|f\|_\infty = \max\limits_{a \leq x \leq b} |f(x)|$.
- $\|f\|_p = \left(\int_a^b |f(x)|^p \, dx\right)^{1/p}$, $p \geq 1$.

Normed vector space

Definition. A **normed vector space** is a vector space endowed with a norm.

The norm defines a distance function on the normed vector space: $\operatorname{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|$.

Then we say that a sequence $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \ldots$ *converges* to a vector $\mathbf{x}$ if $\operatorname{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_n) \to 0$ as $n \to \infty$.

Also, we say that a vector $\mathbf{x}$ is a good *approximation* of a vector $\mathbf{x}_0$ if $\operatorname{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0)$ is small.

Inner product

The notion of *inner product* generalizes the notion of dot product of vectors in $\mathbb{R}^n$.

Definition. Let V be a vector space. A function $\beta : V \times V \to \mathbb{R}$, usually denoted $\beta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$, is called an **inner product** on V if it is positive, symmetric, and bilinear. That is, if

(i) $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \geq 0$, $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0$ only for $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ (positivity)
(ii) $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$ (symmetry)
(iii) $\langle r\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = r\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ (homogeneity)
(iv) $\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$ (distributive law)

An **inner product space** is a vector space endowed with an inner product.

Examples. $V = \mathbb{R}^n$.

- $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \cdots + x_ny_n$.

- $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = d_1x_1y_1 + d_2x_2y_2 + \cdots + d_nx_ny_n$,

where $d_1, d_2, \ldots, d_n > 0$.

- $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = (D\mathbf{x}) \cdot (D\mathbf{y})$,

where D is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix.

Problem. Find an inner product on $\mathbb{R}^2$ such that $\langle \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 \rangle = 2$, $\langle \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_2 \rangle = 3$, and $\langle \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2 \rangle = -1$, where $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0)$, $\mathbf{e}_2 = (0, 1)$.

Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)$, $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, y_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$.
Then $\mathbf{x} = x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + x_2\mathbf{e}_2$, $\mathbf{y} = y_1\mathbf{e}_1 + y_2\mathbf{e}_2$.
Using bilinearity, we obtain

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + x_2\mathbf{e}_2, y_1\mathbf{e}_1 + y_2\mathbf{e}_2 \rangle$$

$$= x_1\langle \mathbf{e}_1, y_1\mathbf{e}_1 + y_2\mathbf{e}_2 \rangle + x_2\langle \mathbf{e}_2, y_1\mathbf{e}_1 + y_2\mathbf{e}_2 \rangle$$

$$= x_1y_1\langle \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 \rangle + x_1y_2\langle \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2 \rangle + x_2y_1\langle \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_1 \rangle + x_2y_2\langle \mathbf{e}_2, \mathbf{e}_2 \rangle$$

$$= 2x_1y_1 - x_1y_2 - x_2y_1 + 3x_2y_2.$$

It remains to check that $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle > 0$ for $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$.
$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 2x_1^2 - 2x_1x_2 + 3x_2^2 = (x_1 - x_2)^2 + x_1^2 + 2x_2^2$.

Example. $V = \mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$, space of $m \times n$ matrices.

- $\langle A, B \rangle = \mathrm{trace}\,(AB^T)$.

If $A = (a_{ij})$ and $B = (b_{ij})$, then $\langle A, B \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} b_{ij}$.

Examples. $V = C[a, b]$.

- $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) g(x)\, dx$.

- $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) g(x) w(x)\, dx$,

where w is bounded, piecewise continuous, and $w > 0$ everywhere on $[a, b]$.

w is called the **weight** function.

Theorem Suppose $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ is an inner product on a vector space V. Then

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle^2 \leq \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V.$$

Proof: For any $t \in \mathbb{R}$ let $\mathbf{v}_t = \mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{y}$. Then

$$\langle \mathbf{v}_t, \mathbf{v}_t \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + 2t\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + t^2\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle.$$

The right-hand side is a quadratic polynomial in t (provided that $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$). Since $\langle \mathbf{v}_t, \mathbf{v}_t \rangle \geq 0$ for all t, the discriminant D is nonpositive. But $D = 4\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle^2 - 4\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$.

Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

$$|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| \leq \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}\,\sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}.$$

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Corollary 1 $|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \le |\mathbf{x}|\,|\mathbf{y}|$ for all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Equivalently, for all $x_i, y_i \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$(x_1 y_1 + \cdots + x_n y_n)^2 \le (x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2)(y_1^2 + \cdots + y_n^2).$$

Corollary 2 For any $f, g \in C[a, b]$,

$$\left(\int_a^b f(x) g(x)\, dx \right)^2 \le \int_a^b |f(x)|^2\, dx \cdot \int_a^b |g(x)|^2\, dx.$$

Norms induced by inner products

Theorem Suppose $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ is an inner product on a vector space V. Then $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$ is a norm.

Proof: Positivity is obvious. Homogeneity:

$$\|r\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle r\mathbf{x}, r\mathbf{x} \rangle} = \sqrt{r^2 \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} = |r| \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}.$$

Triangle inequality (follows from Cauchy-Schwarz's):

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 &= \langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \\ &\leq \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + |\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| + |\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle| + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \\ &\leq \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{x}\| \, \|\mathbf{y}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2 = (\|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Examples. • The length of a vector in $\mathbb{R}^n$,

$$|\mathbf{x}| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2},$$

is the norm induced by the dot product

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \cdots + x_n y_n.$$

• The norm $\|f\|_2 = \left(\int_a^b |f(x)|^2 \, dx \right)^{1/2}$ on the vector space $C[a, b]$ is induced by the inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) g(x) \, dx.$$

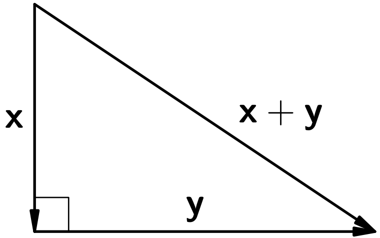
Angle

Since $|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| \, \|\mathbf{y}\|$, we can define the *angle* between nonzero vectors in any vector space with an inner product (and induced norm):

$$\angle(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \arccos \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{x}\| \, \|\mathbf{y}\|}.$$

Then $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \|\mathbf{x}\| \, \|\mathbf{y}\| \cos \angle(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$.

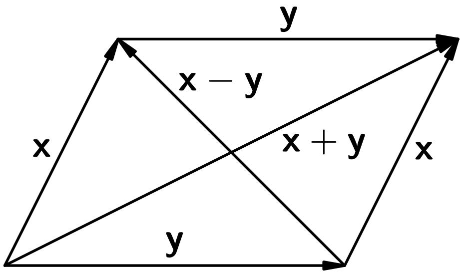
In particular, vectors $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{y}$ are **orthogonal** (denoted $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$) if $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$.



Pythagorean Law:

$$\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y} \implies \|\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2$$

Proof:
$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\|^2 &= \langle \mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2. \end{aligned}$$



Parallelogram Identity:

$$\|\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|^2 = 2\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{y}\|^2$$

Proof: $\|\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\|^2 = \langle \mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}\rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$.

Similarly, $\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|^2 = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle - \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}\rangle - \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}\rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}\rangle$.

Then $\|\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{y}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{y}\|^2 = 2\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}\rangle + 2\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y}\rangle = 2\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{y}\|^2$.

Orthogonal sets

Let V be an inner product space with an inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ and the induced norm $\| \cdot \|$.

Definition. A nonempty set $S \subset V$ of nonzero vectors is called an **orthogonal set** if all vectors in S are mutually orthogonal. That is, $\mathbf{0} \notin S$ and $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$ 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 $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k \in V$ 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 $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$, $\mathbf{e}_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$, $\dots$, $\mathbf{e}_n = (0, 0, 0, \dots, 1)$.

It is an orthonormal set.

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

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

$$\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = 0, \quad \mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 = 0, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 = 0,$$
$$\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 = 50, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = 50, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 = 25.$$

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 $\mathbf{w}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_1}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|}$, $\mathbf{w}_2 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_2}{\|\mathbf{v}_2\|}$, $\mathbf{w}_3 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_3}{\|\mathbf{v}_3\|}$.

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

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

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

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

It is orthonormal with respect to a scaled inner product

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

Orthogonality $\implies$ linear independence

Theorem Suppose $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k$ are nonzero vectors that form an orthogonal set. Then $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_k$ 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 $t_1, t_2, \ldots, t_k \in \mathbb{R}$.

Then 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

Let $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_n$ be an orthonormal basis for an inner product space V.

Theorem Let $\mathbf{x} = x_1\mathbf{v}_1 + x_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + x_n\mathbf{v}_n$ and $\mathbf{y} = y_1\mathbf{v}_1 + y_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \cdots + y_n\mathbf{v}_n$, where $x_i, y_j \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

(i) $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \cdots + x_ny_n$,

(ii) $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2}$.

Proof: (ii) follows from (i) when $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}$.

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \left\langle \sum_{i=1}^n x_i\mathbf{v}_i, \sum_{j=1}^n y_j\mathbf{v}_j \right\rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \left\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \sum_{j=1}^n y_j\mathbf{v}_j \right\rangle$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n x_i y_j \langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_j \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i.$$

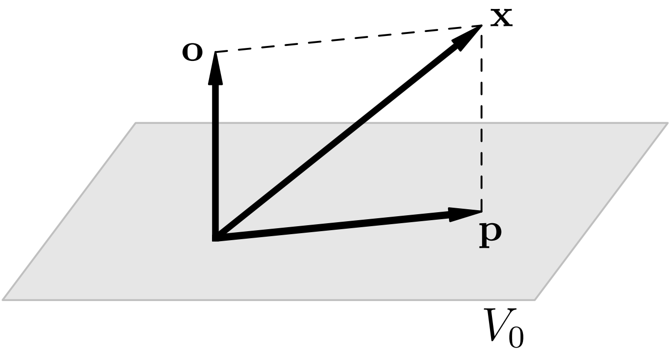
Orthogonal projection

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 the **orthogonal projection** of the vector $\mathbf{x}$ onto the subspace V_0. We have

$$\|\mathbf{o}\| = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}\| = \min_{\mathbf{v} \in V_0} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{v}\|.$$

That is, the distance from $\mathbf{x}$ to the subspace V_0 is $\|\mathbf{o}\|$.


x
o
p
V_0

Let V be an inner product space. Let $\mathbf{p}$ be the orthogonal projection of a vector $\mathbf{x} \in V$ onto a finite-dimensional subspace V_0.

If V_0 is a one-dimensional subspace spanned by a vector $\mathbf{v}$ then $\mathbf{p} = \dfrac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle} \mathbf{v}$.

If $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ is an orthogonal basis for V_0 then

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

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

$\implies \langle \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0 \implies \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p} \perp \mathbf{v}_i \implies \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p} \perp V_0$.