

MATH 323

Linear Algebra

**Lecture 24a:**

**Orthogonality in inner product spaces.  
The Gram-Schmidt process.**

## 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  $\alpha : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , usually denoted  $\alpha(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{x}\|$ , is called a **norm** on  $V$  if it has the following properties:

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

A **normed vector space** is a vector space endowed with a norm. The norm defines a distance function on the normed vector space:  $\text{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|$ .

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

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

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

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

## 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  $\beta : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , 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  $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n > 0$ .

*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  $[a, b]$ .

## 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.

*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

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \cdots + x_ny_n.$$

• 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

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

## Orthogonality

Let  $V$  be an inner product space with an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  and the induced norm  $\| \cdot \|$ . We say that vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$  are **orthogonal** if  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$ .

*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  $\mathbf{x} \in S$ .

*Example.* The standard basis  $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$ ,  $\mathbf{e}_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $\mathbf{e}_n = (0, 0, 0, \dots, 1)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . It is an orthonormal set.

## Example

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

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

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

Thus the set  $\{f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots\}$  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  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$  are nonzero vectors that form an orthogonal set. Then  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$  are linearly independent.

*Proof:* Suppose  $t_1\mathbf{v}_1 + t_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + t_k\mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{0}$  for some  $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Then for any index  $1 \leq i \leq k$  we have

$$\langle t_1\mathbf{v}_1 + t_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + t_k\mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = \langle \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0.$$

$$\implies t_1\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle + t_2\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle + \dots + t_k\langle \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0$$

By orthogonality,  $t_i\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0 \implies t_i = 0$ .

## Orthonormal bases

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

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

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

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

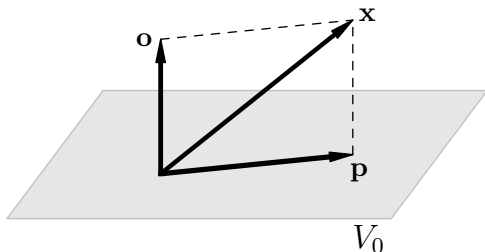
*Proof:* (ii) follows from (i) when  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{x}$ .

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

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



The projection  $\mathbf{p}$  is closer to  $\mathbf{x}$  than any other vector in  $V_0$ . Hence the distance from  $\mathbf{x}$  to  $V_0$  is  $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}\| = \|\mathbf{o}\|$ .

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  $\mathbf{p} = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle} \mathbf{v}$ .

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

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

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

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

## Coordinates relative to an orthogonal basis

**Theorem** If  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  is an orthogonal basis for an inner product space  $V$ , then

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

for any vector  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ .

**Corollary** If  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  is an orthonormal basis for an inner product space  $V$ , then

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

for any vector  $\mathbf{x} \in V$ .

## The Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

Let  $V$  be a vector space with an inner product. Suppose  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  is a basis for  $V$ . Let

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{x}_1,$$

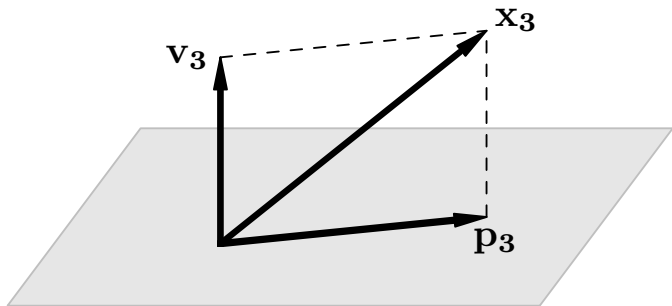
$$\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_1,$$

$$\mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{x}_3 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_1 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_2,$$

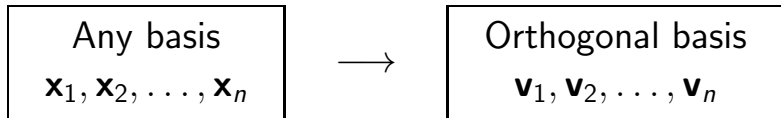
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$$\mathbf{v}_n = \mathbf{x}_n - \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_1 - \dots - \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{v}_{n-1} \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_{n-1}, \mathbf{v}_{n-1} \rangle} \mathbf{v}_{n-1}.$$

Then  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  is an orthogonal basis for  $V$ .



$$\text{Span}(\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2) = \text{Span}(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2)$$



*Properties of the Gram-Schmidt process:*

- $\mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{x}_k - (\alpha_1\mathbf{x}_1 + \dots + \alpha_{k-1}\mathbf{x}_{k-1})$ ,  $1 \leq k \leq n$ ;
- the span of  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$  is the same as the span of  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_k$ ;
- $\mathbf{v}_k$  is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{k-1}$ ;
- $\mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{p}_k$ , where  $\mathbf{p}_k$  is the orthogonal projection of the vector  $\mathbf{x}_k$  on the subspace spanned by  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{k-1}$ ;
- $\|\mathbf{v}_k\|$  is the distance from  $\mathbf{x}_k$  to the subspace spanned by  $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{k-1}$ .



## Normalization

Let  $V$  be a vector space with an inner product.

Suppose  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  is an orthogonal basis for  $V$ .

Let  $\mathbf{w}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_1}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|}$ ,  $\mathbf{w}_2 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_2}{\|\mathbf{v}_2\|}$ ,  $\dots$ ,  $\mathbf{w}_n = \frac{\mathbf{v}_n}{\|\mathbf{v}_n\|}$ .

Then  $\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n$  is an orthonormal basis for  $V$ .

**Theorem** Any finite-dimensional vector space with an inner product has an orthonormal basis.

*Remark.* An infinite-dimensional vector space with an inner product may or may not have an orthonormal basis.

## Orthogonalization / Normalization

An alternative form of the Gram-Schmidt process combines orthogonalization with normalization.

Suppose  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n$  is a basis for an inner product space  $V$ . Let

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{x}_1, \quad \mathbf{w}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_1}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|},$$

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2 - \langle \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{w}_1 \rangle \mathbf{w}_1, \quad \mathbf{w}_2 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_2}{\|\mathbf{v}_2\|},$$

$$\mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{x}_3 - \langle \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{w}_1 \rangle \mathbf{w}_1 - \langle \mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{w}_2 \rangle \mathbf{w}_2, \quad \mathbf{w}_3 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_3}{\|\mathbf{v}_3\|},$$

.....

$$\mathbf{v}_n = \mathbf{x}_n - \langle \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}_1 \rangle \mathbf{w}_1 - \dots - \langle \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{w}_{n-1} \rangle \mathbf{w}_{n-1},$$

$$\mathbf{w}_n = \frac{\mathbf{v}_n}{\|\mathbf{v}_n\|}.$$

Then  $\mathbf{w}_1, \mathbf{w}_2, \dots, \mathbf{w}_n$  is an orthonormal basis for  $V$ .

**Problem.** Let  $\Pi$  be the plane spanned by vectors  $\mathbf{x}_1 = (1, 1, 0)$  and  $\mathbf{x}_2 = (0, 1, 1)$ .

- (i) Find the orthogonal projection of the vector  $\mathbf{y} = (4, 0, -1)$  onto the plane  $\Pi$ .
- (ii) Find the distance from  $\mathbf{y}$  to  $\Pi$ .

First we apply the Gram-Schmidt process to the basis  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2$ :

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{x}_1 = (1, 1, 0),$$

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_1 = (0, 1, 1) - \frac{1}{2}(1, 1, 0) = (-1/2, 1/2, 1).$$

Now that  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$  is an orthogonal basis for  $\Pi$ , the orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{y}$  onto  $\Pi$  is

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{p} &= \frac{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_1 + \frac{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle}{\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_2 = \frac{4}{2}(1, 1, 0) + \frac{-3}{3/2}(-1/2, 1/2, 1) \\ &= (2, 2, 0) + (1, -1, -2) = (3, 1, -2). \end{aligned}$$

The distance from  $\mathbf{y}$  to  $\Pi$  is  $\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{p}\| = \|(1, -1, 1)\| = \sqrt{3}$ .

**Problem.** Approximate the function  $f(x) = e^x$  on the interval  $[-1, 1]$  by a quadratic polynomial.

The best approximation would be a polynomial  $p(x)$  that minimizes the distance relative to the uniform norm:

$$\|f - p\|_{\infty} = \max_{|x| \leq 1} |f(x) - p(x)|.$$

However there is no analytic way to find such a polynomial. Instead, one can find a **“least squares”** approximation that minimizes the integral norm

$$\|f - p\|_2 = \left( \int_{-1}^1 |f(x) - p(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2}.$$

The norm  $\| \cdot \|_2$  is induced by the inner product

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

Therefore  $\|f - p\|_2$  is minimal if  $p$  is the orthogonal projection of the function  $f$  on the subspace  $\mathcal{P}_3$  of quadratic polynomials.

We should apply the Gram-Schmidt process to the polynomials  $1, x, x^2$ , which form a basis for  $\mathcal{P}_3$ .

This would yield an orthogonal basis  $p_0, p_1, p_2$ .

Then

$$p(x) = \frac{\langle f, p_0 \rangle}{\langle p_0, p_0 \rangle} p_0(x) + \frac{\langle f, p_1 \rangle}{\langle p_1, p_1 \rangle} p_1(x) + \frac{\langle f, p_2 \rangle}{\langle p_2, p_2 \rangle} p_2(x).$$