

## Inner Product Spaces, Orthogonality

Recall that, the concept of "length" & "Orthogonality" in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  or  $\mathbb{C}^n$ .

i) length of a vector  $(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined as  $\sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2}$ .

(ii) Orthogonality : Let  $x = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$   
 $y = (y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Then  $x$  is orthogonal to  $y$  if

$$x \cdot y = x \cdot y^t = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n = 0$$

Now, we generalize the notion of length & orthogonality in arbitrary Vector space.

For this, we first need to study Inner Product spaces.

Def: Let  $V$  be a real vector space.

Let  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}(\text{or } \mathbb{C})$  be a function.

$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is called an "Inner product" on  $V$  if it satisfies the following axioms :-

(i) Linear Properties :-  $\langle au + bv, w \rangle = a \langle u, w \rangle + b \langle v, w \rangle$

(ii) Symmetric Property :-  $\langle u, w \rangle = \langle w, u \rangle$

(iii) Positive Definite Property :-  $\langle u, u \rangle \geq 0$  &  
 $\langle u, u \rangle = 0$  iff  $u = 0$ .

The vector space  $V$  with an Inner Product is  
called a real (complex) inner product space.

Remark: Note that for real inner product space  
~~(i)~~ state that an inner product function  
is linear in the first position.

Using (i) & (ii), we obtain

$$\begin{aligned}\langle u, cv + dw \rangle &= \langle cv + dw, u \rangle \\ &= c \langle v, u \rangle + d \langle w, u \rangle \\ &= c \langle u, v \rangle + d \langle u, w \rangle\end{aligned}$$

i.e., The inner product function is also linear in  
its second position.

Combining these two properties, yield in general

$$\left\langle \sum_i a_i u_i, \sum_j b_j v_j \right\rangle = \sum_i \sum_j a_i b_j \langle u_i, v_j \rangle$$

i.e The inner product of linear combination of vectors is equal to the linear combination of the inner product of vectors.

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Example: (i)} \quad & \langle 2u - 5v, 4u + 6v \rangle = 8\langle u, u \rangle + 12\langle u, v \rangle \\ & \quad - 20\langle v, u \rangle - 30\langle v, v \rangle \\ & = 8\langle u, u \rangle - 8\langle v, u \rangle - 30\langle v, v \rangle.\end{aligned}$$

Remark:- Axiom (i) implies  $\langle 0, 0 \rangle = \langle 0v, 0 \rangle = 0\langle v, 0 \rangle = 0$

Thus (i), (ii) & (iii) are equivalent to

(i), (ii) & (iii)' — if  $u \neq 0$  Then  $\langle u, u \rangle \geq 0$ .

i.e A function satisfying (i), (ii) & (iii)' defines an inner product.

### Norm of a Vector

By (iii) axioms  $\langle u, u \rangle$  is non-negative for any vector  $u$ .

Thus, its positive square root exists.

We use the notation

$$\|u\| = \sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle}$$

The non-negative number is called the norm or length of  $u$ .

(1) Frequently, we used  $\|u\|^2 = \langle u, u \rangle$ .

Remark: 2) If  $\|u\| = 1$  or equivalently,  $\langle u, u \rangle = 1$ . Then  $u$  is called unit vector and it is said to be normalized.

B) Every non-zero vector  $v \in V$  can be multiplied by the reciprocal of its length to obtain the unit vector.

$$\hat{v} = \frac{1}{\|v\|} v, \text{ which is a positive multiple of } v.$$

This process is called normalizing  $v$ .

Examples: Euclidean n-Space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

Consider the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . The dot product or scalar product in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is defined by

$$u \cdot v = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n,$$

$$\text{where } u = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n), \quad v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n).$$

This function defines an inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

The norm  $\|u\|$  of the vector  $u = (u_i)$  in the space is as follows:

$$\|u\| = \sqrt{u \cdot u} = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2}$$

On the other hand, by the Pythagorean Thm, The distant from origin "O" in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  to a pt  $P(a,b,c)$  is given by  $\sqrt{a^2+b^2+c^2}$ .

This is precisely the same as the above defined norm of the vector  $v = (a,b,c) \in \mathbb{R}^3$ .

\* Because, the Pythagorean theorem is a consequence of the axioms of Euclidean geometry.

∴ The vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the above inner product and norm is called Euclidean n-space. This inner product is called the usual (or standard) inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Remark:- If the vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is represented by column vector ie  $n \times 1$  column matrix. Then  $\langle u, v \rangle = u^T v$  defines the usual inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

## 2) Function Space $C[a,b]$ and Polynomial space $P(t)$

$$C[a,b] = \{ f : [a,b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} : f \text{ is cts} \}$$

$C[a,b]$  is a vector space with respect to the following addition & scalar multiplication.

$$(f+g)(x) = f(x) + g(x)$$

$$(\alpha f)(x) = \alpha f(x)$$

We define inner product on  $C[a,b]$  as

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

Then  $(C[a,b], \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$  is an inner product space.

Also  $\|f\|^2 = \langle f, f \rangle$

Verification :- i)  $\langle \alpha f + \beta h, g \rangle = \int_a^b (\alpha f + \beta h)(x) g(x) dx$

$$= \int_a^b (\alpha f(x) + \beta h(x)) g(x) dx$$

$$= \alpha \int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx + \beta \int_a^b h(x) g(x) dx$$

$$= \alpha \langle f, g \rangle + \beta \langle h, g \rangle$$

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

$$(iii) \quad \langle f, f \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)^2 dx \geq 0$$

$$\langle f, f \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow \int_a^b f^2 dx = 0 \Rightarrow f = 0.$$

Hence,  $\langle \cdot \rangle$  defines an inner product on  $C[a, b]$ .

Remark: The vector space  $P(t)$  - {set of all polynomial}, is a subspace of  $C[a, b]$  for any interval  $[a, b]$ , & hence, it also defines an inner product on  $P(t)$ .

Ex :- Consider  $f(t) = 3t - 5$ ,  $g(t) = t^2$  in  $P(t)$  with inner product

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f g dx$$

Compute  $\langle f, g \rangle$ ,  $\|f\|$ ,  $\|g\|$

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f g = \int_0^1 (3t - 5) t^2 = \frac{3}{4} t^4 - \frac{5}{3} t^3 \Big|_0^1 = \frac{3}{4} - \frac{5}{3} = \frac{9 - 20}{12} = -\frac{11}{12}$$

$$\|f\| = \langle f, f \rangle^{1/2} = \left( \int_0^1 (3t - 5)^2 dt \right)^{1/2} = \left[ \frac{1}{3} (3t - 5)^3 \Big|_0^1 \right]^{1/2} = \left[ -\frac{8}{9} + \frac{125}{9} \right]^{1/2} = \left( \frac{117}{9} \right)^{1/2} = \sqrt{13}$$

$$\|g\| = \langle g, g \rangle^{1/2} = \left( \int_0^1 t^4 dt \right)^{1/2} = \frac{1}{5}$$

3) Matrix Space  $M = M_{m \times n}$

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \text{trace}(B^t A) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} b_{ij}$$

$\langle A, B \rangle$  is the sum of the products of the corresponding entries in  $A$  &  $B$ .

$$\langle A, A \rangle = \text{trace}(A^t A) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}^2$$

= sum of the square of the entries of  $A$ .

Ex:  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 4 & 6 \end{bmatrix}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & -1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\langle A, B \rangle = 2 \cdot 2 + 4 + 12 = 16$$

$$\|A\|^2 = \langle A, A \rangle = 1 + 4 + 16 + 36 = 57$$

$$\|B\|^2 = \langle B, B \rangle = 4 + 1 + 1 + 4 = 10$$

## Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality, Application ?

Thm: For any vectors  $u$  &  $v$  in an inner product space  $V$ ,

$$\langle u, v \rangle^2 \leq \langle u, u \rangle \langle v, v \rangle$$

or

$$|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq \|u\| \|v\|$$

Ex-a) Let  $u = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n)$ ,  $v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$|u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + \dots + u_nv_n| \leq (u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} (v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots + v_n^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

or  $\left( \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i \right)^2 \leq \left( \sum_{i=1}^n u_i^2 \right) \left( \sum_{i=1}^n v_i^2 \right)$

i.e.  $(u \cdot v)^2 \leq \|u\|^2 \cdot \|v\|^2$

$$(b) \quad \left[ \int_0^1 f(x) g(x) dx \right]^2 \leq \left( \int_0^1 f(x)^2 dx \right) \left( \int_0^1 g(x)^2 dx \right)$$

i.e.  $\langle f, g \rangle^2 \leq \langle f, f \rangle \langle g, g \rangle$   
 $= \|f\|^2 \|g\|^2$

## Angles b/w Vectors :-

For non-zero vectors  $u, v$  in an inner product space  $V$ ,

The angle b/w  $u \& v$  is defined to be the angle  $\theta$  s.t  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ ,

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|u\| \|v\|}$$

$$\text{in } \mathbb{R}^n \\ a \cdot b = \|a\| \|b\| \cos \theta$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{a \cdot b}{\|a\| \|b\|}$$

By Cauchy schwartz inequality,

$$|\cos \theta| \leq 1$$



$\Rightarrow -1 \leq \cos \theta \leq 1$  & so angle exist & unique

Ex:- a)  $u = (2, 3, 5)$ ,  $v = (1, 5, 4, 3) \in \mathbb{R}^4$  Then

$$\langle u, v \rangle = 5, \quad \|u\| = \sqrt{38}, \quad \|v\| = \sqrt{26}$$

The angle  $\theta$  b/w  $u \& v$  is

$$\cos \theta = \frac{5}{\sqrt{38} \sqrt{26}}$$

(b) Let  $f(t) = 3t^{-5}$ ,  $g(t) = t^2$ .

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int f(t) g(t) dt$$

$$\|f\| = \sqrt{13}, \quad \|g\| = \sqrt{5} = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{5}$$

$$\langle f, g \rangle = -\frac{11}{12},$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{-55}{12 \sqrt{13} \sqrt{5}}$$

$\theta$  is an obtuse angle "cos  $\theta$  is negative"

## Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality, Application :-

Thm:- For any vector  $u \& v$  in an inner product space  $V$ , we have

$$\langle u, v \rangle^2 \leq \|u\|^2 \|v\|^2$$

or

$$|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq \|u\| \|v\|$$

→ equality occurs iff  $u \& v$  are linearly dependent.

Example :- Consider any real no's  $u = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n)$ ,  $v = (b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n)$ . Then, by Cauchy Schwarz inequality,

$$(a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + \dots + a_n b_n)^2 \leq (a_1^2 + a_2^2 + \dots + a_n^2)(b_1^2 + b_2^2 + \dots + b_n^2)$$

i.e.  $\langle u, v \rangle^2 \leq \|u\|^2 \|v\|^2$

$$|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq \|u\| \|v\|$$

2) Let  $f \& g$  be continuous function on the unit interval  $[0, 1]$ .

Then, by Cauchy Schwarz inequality,

$$\left[ \int_0^1 f(t)g(t) dt \right]^2 \leq \int_0^1 f^2(t) dt \int_0^1 g^2(t) dt$$

$$\langle f, g \rangle^2 \leq \|f\|^2 \|g\|^2$$

OR  $|\langle f, g \rangle| \leq \|f\| \|g\|$

## Angle b/w Vectors ?

For any nonzero vector  $u$  &  $v$  in an inner product space  $V$ , the angle b/w  $u$  &  $v$  is defined to be the angle  $\theta$  s.t  $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$  &

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|u\| \|v\|}$$

By the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality,  $-1 \leq \cos \theta \leq 1$ .

So, the angle exists & is unique.

Ex :- Let  $u = (2, 3, 5)$ , &  $v = (1, -4, 3)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$

$$\langle u, v \rangle = 5, \quad \|u\| = \sqrt{4+9+25} = \sqrt{38}$$

$$\|v\| = \sqrt{1+16+9} = \sqrt{26}$$

Then, the angle  $\theta$  b/w  $u$  &  $v$  is given by

$$\cos \theta = \frac{5}{\sqrt{38} \sqrt{26}}$$

$$(b) f(t) = 3t - 5, \quad g(t) = t^2,$$

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(t) g(t) dt$$

$$\cos \theta = \frac{-1/12}{(\sqrt{13})(\frac{\sqrt{5}}{5})} = -\frac{55}{12\sqrt{13}\sqrt{5}}$$

Note that  $\theta$  is an obtuse angle, because  $\theta$  is  $\pi$ .

## Orthogonality ?

Let  $V$  be an inner product space. The vectors  $u, v \in V$  are said to be orthogonal and  $u$  is said to be orthogonal to  $v$  if

$$\boxed{\langle u, v \rangle = 0}$$

1. The relation is symmetric. i.e. if  $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$  then  $\langle v, u \rangle = 0$ .  
i.e. if  $u$  is orthogonal to  $v$  then  $v$  is orthogonal to  $u$ .

Remark:- 1.  $0 \in V$  is orthogonal to every vector  $v \in V$ ; because

$$\langle 0, v \rangle = \langle 0v, v \rangle = 0 \langle v, v \rangle = 0.$$

Conversely, if  $u$  is orthogonal to every  $v \in V$ .

$$\text{Then } \langle u, v \rangle = 0 \quad \forall v \in V$$

$$\text{In particular } \langle u, u \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow \|u\|^2 = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{u=0}.$$

2. Observe that  $u$  &  $v$  are orthogonal iff  $\cos \theta = 0$ , where  $\theta$  is an angle b/w  $u$  &  $v$ . Also, this is true if  $u$  &  $v$  are perpendicular i.e.  $\theta = \pi/2$  or  $90^\circ$ .

Ex:-  $u = (1, 1, 1)$ ,  $v = (1, 2, -3)$ ,  $w = (1, -4, 3)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

$\Rightarrow$  Then  $u \perp v, w$  but  $v$  is not orthogonal to  $w$ .

(D) Consider the function  $\{\sin t, \cos t\}$  in the vector space  $C[-\pi, \pi]$ .  
of cts fun. on the closed interval  $[-\pi, \pi]$ .

Then

$$\langle \sin t, \cos t \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin t \cos t = \frac{1}{2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^2 t = 0 - 0 = 0.$$

(C) A vector  $w = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$  is orthogonal to  $u = (a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$   
if  $a_1 x_1 + a_2 x_2 + \dots + a_n x_n = 0$

Ex: Find a non-zero vector  $w$  that is orthogonal to  $u_1 = (1, 2, 1)$   
&  $u_2 = (2, 5, 4)$  in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

Sol: Let  $w = (x, y, z)$ . Then  $\langle u_1, w \rangle = 0 = \langle u_2, w \rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} x + 2y + z &= 0 \\ 2x + 5y + 4z &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{aligned} x + 2y + z &= 0 \\ y + 2z &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$z$  is only the free variable in the echelon system.

Set  $z = 1$ ,  $y = -2$ ,  $x = 3$

Thus,  $w = (3, -2, 1)$  is a desired non-zero vector orthogonal to  
 $u_1$  &  $u_2$ .

Any multiple of  $w$  is also orthogonal to  $u_1$  &  $u_2$ .

Normalizing  $w$ , we obtain unit vector orthogonal to  $u_1$  &  $u_2$ .

$$\hat{w} = \frac{w}{\|w\|} = \left( \frac{3}{\sqrt{14}}, \frac{-2}{\sqrt{14}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{14}} \right).$$

## Orthogonal Complement

Let  $S$  be a subset of an I.P.S  $V$ .

The orthogonal complement of  $S$ , denoted by  $S^\perp$  (read as "S perpendicular") consists of those vectors in  $V$  that are orthogonal to every vector  $u \in S$ .

$$\text{i.e } S^\perp = \{v \in V : \langle u, v \rangle = 0 \text{ } \forall u \in S\}$$

In particular, for a given vector  $u \in V$ , we have

$$u^\perp = \{v \in V : \langle v, u \rangle = 0\}$$

Remark:  $S^\perp$  is a subspace of  $V$ .

Clearly,  $0 \in S^\perp$ , because  $0$  is orthogonal to every vector in  $V$ .

Now, suppose,  $v, w \in S^\perp$

Then for any scalars  $\alpha, \beta$  & for any vector  $u \in S$ , we

have

$$\langle \alpha v + \beta w, u \rangle = \alpha \langle v, u \rangle + \beta \langle w, u \rangle = \alpha \cdot 0 + \beta \cdot 0 = 0.$$

Thus,  $\alpha v + \beta w \in S^\perp$ .

$\therefore S^\perp$  is a subspace of  $V$ .

Remark :- 1) Suppose  $u$  is a non-zero vector in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

Then Geometrical interpretation of  $u^\perp$  is a plane in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  through the origin  $O$  and perpendicular to the vector  $u$ .

2) Let  $W$  be the sol<sup>n</sup> space of an  $m \times n$  homogeneous system  $AX = 0$ , where  $A = [a_{ij}]$  &  $X = [x_i]$

Recall that :-  $W$  may be viewed as the kernel of the linear mapping  $A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ .  
Now, we can give another interpretation of  $W$  using the orthogonality.

Specifically, each solution vector  $w = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$

is orthogonal to each row of  $A$ .

& hence  $W$  is the orthogonal complement of the row space of  $A$

Ex :- Find a basis for the subspace  $u^\perp$  of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , where  $u = (1, 3, 4)$

$$u^\perp = \left\{ v = (x, y, z) \in \mathbb{R}^3 : \langle u, v \rangle = 0 \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ (x, y, z) : x + 3y - 4z = 0 \right\}$$

Set  $y = 1, z = 0$ , we obtain  $w_1 = (-3, 1, 0)$

Set  $y = 0, z = 1$ , we obtain  $w_2 = (4, 0, 1)$ .

Thus,  $w_1$  &  $w_2$  form a basis for the sol<sup>n</sup> space of eqn.  
& hence a basis for  $u^\perp$ .

\*→ Suppose  $W$  is a subspace of  $V$ . Then both  $W$  and  $W^\perp$  are subspaces of  $V$ .

$$\text{Then } V = W \oplus W^\perp$$

i.e.  $V$  is the direct sum of  $W$  &  $W^\perp$ .  
 iff  $V = W + W^\perp$  &  $W \cap W^\perp = \{0\}$ , so,  $\dim V = \dim W + \dim W^\perp$

### Orthogonal Set & Bases:

Let  $S = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$  be set of non-zero vectors in I.P.S.V.

Then  $S$  is called

(i) Orthogonal if  $\langle u_i, u_j \rangle = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$

(ii) Orthonormal if  $\langle u_i, u_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$

Thm:- Suppose  $S = \{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$  is an orthogonal set of non-zero vectors.

Then  $S$  is linearly independent.

$$\text{Sol: Let } \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n u_n = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\text{Let } \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n u_n, u_i \Rightarrow \left\{ \alpha_i^* \langle u_i, u_i \rangle = \alpha_i^* \|u_i\|^2 \right. \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\left. \langle \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 + \dots + \alpha_n u_n, u_i \rangle = \right\} \alpha_i^* \langle u_i, u_i \rangle = \alpha_i^* \|u_i\|^2 = 0$$

Using (1) & (2), we obtain

$$\alpha_i^* \|u_i\|^2 = 0$$

$$\text{since } u_i \neq 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_i^* = 0 \quad \forall i$$

Thus, the set  $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$  is l.i

② Suppose  $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$  is an orthogonal set of vectors. Then

$$\|u_1 + u_2 + \dots + u_r\|^2 = \|u_1\|^2 + \|u_2\|^2 + \dots + \|u_r\|^2.$$

This is known as Pythagoras Thm.

③ a) Let  $E = \{e_1, e_2, e_3\}$ ,  $e_1 = (1, 0, 0)$ ,  $e_2 = (0, 1, 0)$ ,  $e_3 = (0, 0, 1)$

Then  $E$  is an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

(b)  $E = \{1, \cos t, \cos 2t, \dots, \sin t, \sin 2t, \sin 3t, \dots\}$   
 (Let  $V = C[-\pi, \pi]$  be the vector space ofcts fun. on the interval  $-\pi \leq t \leq \pi$  with inner product defined by  
 $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(t)g(t) dt$ .

Then  $E \subset V$  is an orthogonal set in  $V$ .  
 This set plays a fundamental role in the theory of Fourier series.



## Orthogonal Basis and Linear Combination, Fourier Co-efficient:-

Let  $S$  consist of the following three vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^3$

$$u_1 = (1, 2, 1), \quad u_2 = (2, 1, -4), \quad u_3 = (3, -2, 1).$$

Then one can verify that  $u_1, u_2$  &  $u_3$  are orthogonal.

So, they are linearly independent.

Thus,  $S$  is an orthogonal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ .

Next, suppose we want to write  $v = (7, 1, 9)$  as a linear combination of  $u_1, u_2, u_3$ .

$$v = x_1 u_1 + x_2 u_2 + x_3 u_3$$

$$(7, 1, 9) = x_1(1, 2, 1) + x_2(2, 1, -4) + x_3(3, -2, 1)$$

Method 1:- Gauss Elimination Method:-

$$\begin{aligned}x_1 + 2x_2 + 3x_3 &= 7 \\2x_1 + x_2 - 2x_3 &= 1 \\x_1 - 4x_2 + x_3 &= 9\end{aligned}$$

We obtain  $x_1 = 3, x_2 = -1, x_3 = 2$ .

$$\text{Thus, } v = 3u_1 - u_2 + 2u_3.$$

Method 2:- This method uses the fact that the basis vectors are orthogonal.

$$\langle v, u_i \rangle = \langle x_1 u_1 + x_2 u_2 + x_3 u_3, u_i \rangle$$

$$\langle v, u_i \rangle = x_i \langle u_i, u_i \rangle \quad \text{or} \quad x_i = \frac{\langle v, u_i \rangle}{\langle u_i, u_i \rangle}$$

$$x_1 = \frac{\langle v, u_1 \rangle}{\langle u_1, u_1 \rangle} = \frac{1+2+9}{1+4+1} = \frac{18}{6} = 3, \quad x_2 = \frac{\langle v, u_2 \rangle}{\langle u_2, u_2 \rangle} = \frac{-2}{6} = -1$$

$$x_3 = \frac{\langle v, u_3 \rangle}{\langle u_3, u_3 \rangle} = \frac{18}{6} = 2$$

Thm: Let  $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n\}$  be an orthogonal basis of  $V$ . Then, for any  $v \in V$ ,

$$v = \frac{\langle v, u_1 \rangle}{\langle u_1, u_1 \rangle} u_1 + \frac{\langle v, u_2 \rangle}{\langle u_2, u_2 \rangle} u_2 + \dots + \frac{\langle v, u_n \rangle}{\langle u_n, u_n \rangle} u_n.$$

Remark: The scalar  $k_i = \frac{\langle v, u_i \rangle}{\langle u_i, u_i \rangle}$  is called the Fourier co-efficient of  $v$  w.r.t  $u_i$ .

## PROJECTIONS:

Let  $V$  be an I.P.S. Suppose  $w \neq 0 \in V$  and  $v$  be another vector.

We find proj of  $v$  along  $w$ .

$$= cw \text{ s.t}$$

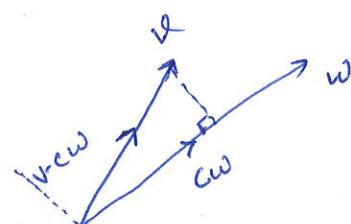
$$v - cw \perp w$$

$$\text{i.e. } \langle v - cw, w \rangle = 0$$

$$c = \frac{\langle v, w \rangle}{\langle w, w \rangle}.$$

$$\text{Thus } \text{Proj}_{w^\perp} v = cw = \frac{\langle v, w \rangle}{\langle w, w \rangle} \cdot w$$

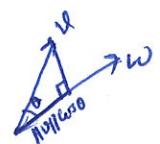
Such a scalar is unique.



OR

$$\|w^*\| = \|w\| \cos \theta$$

$$= \frac{\|v\| \cdot v \cdot w}{\|v\| \|w\|}$$



$$w^* = \frac{\|w^*\| \cdot w}{\|w\|} = \frac{\frac{\|v\| \cdot v \cdot w}{\|v\| \|w\|} \cdot w}{\|w\|}$$

$$= \frac{v \cdot w}{\|w\|^2} \cdot w$$

$$= \frac{\langle v, w \rangle}{\|w\|^2} \cdot w$$

This can be generalized as the following Thm,  
 $\therefore$  Suppose  $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n$  form an orthogonal set  
of non-zero vectors in  $V$ .  
Let  $v$  be any vector in  $V$ .

Define  $v' = v - (c_1 w_1 + c_2 w_2 + \dots + c_n w_n)$

where  $c_1 = \frac{\langle v, w_1 \rangle}{\langle w_1, w_1 \rangle}, c_2 = \frac{\langle v, w_2 \rangle}{\langle w_2, w_2 \rangle}, \dots, c_n = \frac{\langle v, w_n \rangle}{\langle w_n, w_n \rangle}$

Then  $v'$  is orthogonal to  $w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n$ .

Remark: The notion of the projection of a vector  $v \in V$  along a subspace  $W$  of  $V$  is defined as follows,

$\text{proj}(v, W)$ ,

if  $W = \text{span}(w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n)$ ,  $w_i$  form an orthogonal set.

then  $\text{proj}(v, W) = c_1 w_1 + c_2 w_2 + \dots + c_n w_n$ ,

where  $c_i = \frac{\langle v, w_i \rangle}{\langle w_i, w_i \rangle}$  (This is called the component of  $v$  along  $w_i$  as above).

## GRAM-SCHMIDT ORTHOGONALIZATION PROCESS

Suppose  $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$  is a basis of an inner product space  $V$ . One can use this basis to construct an orthogonal basis  $\{w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n\}$  of  $V$  as follows:

$$w_1 = v_1$$

$$w_2 = v_2 - \frac{\langle v_2, w_1 \rangle}{\langle w_1, w_1 \rangle} w_1$$

$$w_3 = v_3 - \frac{\langle v_3, w_1 \rangle}{\langle w_1, w_1 \rangle} w_1 - \frac{\langle v_3, w_2 \rangle}{\langle w_2, w_2 \rangle} w_2$$

⋮

$$w_n = v_n - \frac{\langle v_n, w_1 \rangle}{\langle w_1, w_1 \rangle} w_1 - \frac{\langle v_n, w_2 \rangle}{\langle w_2, w_2 \rangle} w_2 - \dots - \frac{\langle v_n, w_{n-1} \rangle}{\langle w_{n-1}, w_{n-1} \rangle} w_{n-1}$$

One can see that each " $w_k$ " is orthogonal to the preceding  $w$ 's.

Thus, one can see that,

$w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n$  form an orthogonal basis for  $V$ .

Normalizing each  $w_i$  ( $\frac{w_i}{\|w_i\|}$ ) will form an orthonormal basis for  $V$ .

Remark:

Ex 1 → Apply the Gram-Schmidt Orthogonalization Process to find an orthogonal basis & then an orthonormal basis for the subspace  $U$  of  $\mathbb{R}^4$  spanned by

$$v_1 = (1, 1, 1, 1), \quad v_2 = (1, 2, 4, 5), \quad v_3 = (1, -3, -4, -2).$$

Sol<sup>n</sup>  $w_1 = v_1 = (1, 1, 1, 1)$

$$\begin{aligned} w_2 &= v_2 - \frac{\langle v_2, w_1 \rangle}{\langle w_1, w_1 \rangle} w_1 = (1, 2, 4, 5) - \frac{(1+2+4+5)}{1+1+1+1} \cdot (1, 1, 1, 1) \\ &= (1, 2, 4, 5) - 3(1, 1, 1, 1) = (-2, -1, 1, 2) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} w_3 &= v_3 - \frac{\langle v_3, w_1 \rangle}{\langle w_1, w_1 \rangle} w_1 - \frac{\langle v_3, w_2 \rangle}{\langle w_2, w_2 \rangle} w_2 \\ &= v_3 - \left(\frac{-8}{4}\right) w_1 - \left(\frac{-7}{10}\right) w_2 = \left(\frac{8}{5}, -\frac{17}{10}, -\frac{13}{10}, \frac{7}{5}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Clearly fraction, we obtain,  $w_3 = (-6, -17, -13, 14)$

$$\|w_1\| = 2, \quad \|w_2\| = \sqrt{10}, \quad \|w_3\| = \sqrt{910}.$$

Ex:

In  $\mathbb{R}^4$ , let

$$U = \text{span} \left\{ [1 \ 1 \ 0 \ 0]^t, [1 \ 1 \ 1 \ 2]^t \right\}$$

Find  $u \in U$  s.t  $\|u - [1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4]^t\|$  is as small as possible.

Sol:- Find orthogonal or orthonormal vector of  $U$ .

$$u_1 = \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \quad 0 \quad 0 \right]^t, \quad u_2 = \left[ 0 \quad 0 \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}} \quad \frac{2}{\sqrt{5}} \right]^t$$

{Using Gram-Schmidt).

The closest point  $u \in U$  to  $[1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4]^t$  is

$$P_U([1 \ 2 \ 3 \ 4]^t) = c_1 u_1 + c_2 u_2$$

$$c_i = \frac{\langle v, u_i \rangle}{\|u_i\|^2}$$

$$= \left[ \frac{3}{2} \quad \frac{3}{2} \quad \frac{11}{5} \quad \frac{22}{5} \right]^t$$