# Linear Algebra



Linear Algebra

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## Linear Algebra Review



- Linear algebra provides a way of compactly representing and operating on sets of linear equations.
- For example, consider the following system of equations:

$$4x_1 - 5x_2 = -13$$
$$-2x_1 + 3x_2 = 9.$$

• In matrix notation, we can write the system more compactly as

$$Ax = b$$

with

**Notations** 

Basic

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & -5 \\ -2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \ and \ b = \begin{bmatrix} -13 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix}$$



- ullet By  $A \in \mathbb{R}_{m imes n}$  we denote a matrix with m rows and n columns, where the entries of A are real numbers.
- ullet By  $x\in\mathbb{R}_n$ , we denote a vector with n entries. By convention, an n-dimensional vector is often thought of as a matrix with n rows and 1 column, known as a column vector.
- The ith element of a vector x is denoted  $x_i$ :

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

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 $\bullet$  We use the notation  $a_{ij}(orA_{ij},A_{i,j},\ etc)$  to denote the entry of A in the  $i^{th}$  row and jth column:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

ullet We denote the jth column of A by  $a_j$  or  $A_{:,j}$  and the ith row of A by  $a_i^T$  or  $A_i$ ,: :

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} \qquad A = \begin{bmatrix} -- & a_1^T & -\\ -- & a_1^T & - \end{bmatrix}$$





# Vector Space

**Notations** 

- Let V be an arbitrary nonempty set of objects for which two operations are defined:
- addition and multiplication by numbers called scalars.
- $\bullet$  addition implies that u and v in V an object u+v, called the sum of u and v.
- By scalar multiplication we mean a rule for associating with each scalar k and each object u in V an object ku, called the scalar multiple of u by k.
- $\bullet$  If the following axioms are satisfied by all objects u, v, w in V and all scalars k and m, then we call V a vector space and we call the objects in V. vectors





# Vector Space Axioms

- ullet If u and v are objects in V, then  $u+v\in V$ .
- u + v = v + u
- u + (v + w) = (u + v) + w
- There exists zero vector,  $0 + u = u + 0 = u \ \forall \ u \in V$ .
- For each u in V, there is an object -u in V, called a negative of u, such that u + (-u) = (-u) + u = 0.
- $\bullet$  If k is any scalar and u is any object in V, then ku is in V.
- $\bullet \ k(u+v) = ku + kv$
- $\bullet (k+m)u = ku + mu$
- k(mu) = (km)(u)
- 1u = u

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# Example

- Given  $u + v = (u_1 + v_1 + 1, u_2 + v_2 + 1), ku = (ku_1, ku_2)$ 
  - a. Compute u+v and ku for u=(0,4), v=(1,-3), and k=2.
  - b. Show that  $(0,0) \neq 0$ .
  - c. Show that (-1, -1) = 0.

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- If W is a nonempty set of vectors in a vector space V, then W is a subspace of V if and only if the following conditions are satisfied.
- ullet If u and v are vectors in W, then u + v is in W.
- If k is a scalar and u is a vector in W, then ku is in W.

Example





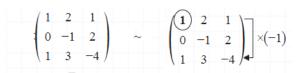


• Check if following forms a subspace

- All matrices of the form
- All matrices of the form



## Row Echolen Form



$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & -5 \end{pmatrix} \times (1) \sim \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$R_3 - 1 \cdot R_1 \to R_3$$
  $R_3 - (-1) \cdot R_2 \to R_3$ 



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Finding inverse of A (Gauss-Jordan)

• Find the inverse of the following matrix by Gauss-Jordan Algorithm

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

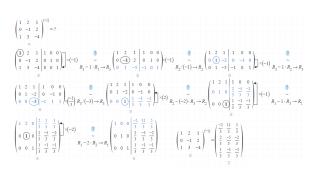
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## Finding inverse of A (Gauss-Jordan)





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## Row and Column Space of matrix A



- Let A be an m x n matrix
- The Column Space of matrix A is the vector space spanned by the column vectors of matrix A. i.e. all linear combinations of the column vectors
- Since each column vector has m components, C(A) is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^m$
- The Row Space of matrix A is the vector space spanned by the row vectors of matrix A.
- ullet Since each row vector has n components, R(A) is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$

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# Nullspace and Rank

- Let A be an m x n matrix
- The Nullspace of matrix A is the vector space spanned by all the vectors  $\mathbf{x}$  which satisfy Ax = 0.
- ullet Since the vector  ${\bf x}$  has n components, N(A) is a subspace of  ${\mathbb R}^n$
- ullet The Left Nullspace of matrix A, or the nullspace of  $A^T$ , is the vector space spanned by all the vectors y which satisfy  $A^T\boldsymbol{y}=\boldsymbol{0}.$
- Since the vector y has m components,  $N(A^T)$  is a subspace of  $R^m$ .
- The common dimension of the row space and column space of a matrix A is called the rank of A and is denoted by rank(A)
- the dimension of the null space of A is called the nullity of A and is denoted by nullity(A).

Linear Algebra Review Four Fundamental Subspaces

- ullet A is a  $5 \times 3$  matrix.
- The rank of matrix A=2.
- The dimension of C(A) =
- The dimension of R(A) =
- The C(A) is a subspace of  $R^-$ , so is ....
- The R(A) is a subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^3$ , so is \_\_.
- The dimension of N(A) is
- The dimension of  $N(A^T)$ =

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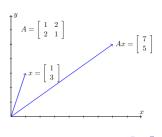
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# Eigen Values and Eigen Vectors, Diagonalization

# Matrix Operations



What happens when a matrix operates on a vector?

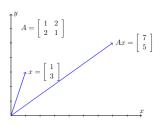


Matrix Operations



What happens when a matrix operates on a vector?

The vector gets transformed into a new vector (it strays from its path)



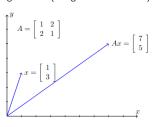


Matrix Operations

What happens when a matrix operates on a vector?

The vector gets transformed into a new vector (it strays from its path)  $\,$ 

The vector may also get scaled (elongated or shortened) in the process.



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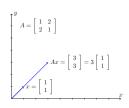
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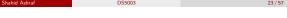


- For a given square matrix A, there exist special vectors which refuse to stray from their path.
- These vectors are called eigenvectors.
- More formally,

 $Ax = \lambda x$ 

[direction remains the same]



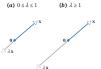




# Eigen Values

- $\bullet$  In  $\mathbb{R}^2$  or  $\mathbb{R}^3$  multiplication by A maps each eigenvector x of A along the same line through the origin as
- Depending on the sign and magnitude of the eigenvalue  $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$ corresponding to x,
- $\bullet$  the operation  $Ax=\lambda x$  compresses or stretches x by a factor of  $\lambda$ ,
- Reversal of direction in the case





(c) -1 ≤ λ ≤ 0

where  $\lambda$  is negative

(d)  $\lambda \leq -1$ 



# Eigen Values

 $A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 8 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} = 3\mathbf{x}$ 

Geometrically, multiplication by  $\boldsymbol{A}$  has stretched the vector  $\mathbf{x}$  by a factor of 3



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# Characteristic Equation

• The basic equation for eigenvectors and eigenvalues is

$$Ax = \lambda$$

then

$$(A - \lambda I)x = 0$$

- $\bullet$  So, the matrix  $(A-\lambda I)$  has a nontrivial nulispace, and therefore must be singular.
- So,

$$det(A - \lambda I) = 0.$$

 $\bullet$  So, if A is an eigenvalue of A then  $det(A-\lambda I)=0.$ 

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Example

Eigen values of the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 8 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$



Example

Eigen values of the matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 8 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Solving  $(\lambda I - A)x = 0$  we have  $\lambda = 3, -1$ 

$$\begin{bmatrix} \lambda - 3 & 0 \\ -8 & \lambda + 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\lambda = 3 \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -8 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{aligned} x_1 &= \frac{1}{2}t \\ x_2 &= t \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2}t \\ t \end{bmatrix} = t \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

 $\begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$  is a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to  $\lambda=3$ 



Example 2

Find bases for the eigenspaces of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$ 

□ The characteristic equation of matrix A is  $\lambda^3 - 5\lambda^2 + 8\lambda - 4 = 0$ , or in factored form,  $(\lambda - 1)(\lambda - 2)^2 = 0$ ; thus, the eigenvalues of A are  $\lambda = 1$  and  $\lambda = 2$ , so there are two eigenspaces of A.

$$(\lambda \mathbf{I} - A)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} \Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} \lambda & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & \lambda - 2 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & \lambda - 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

If 
$$\lambda = 2$$
, then (3) becomes 
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 & 2 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \\ -1 & 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Example 2

Solving the system yield

$$x_1 = -s, x_2 = t, x_3 = s$$

Thus, the eigenvectors of A corresponding to  $\lambda = 2$  are the nonzero vectors of the form

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} -s \\ t \\ s \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -s \\ 0 \\ s \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ t \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

The vectors  $[-1\ 0\ 1]^T$  and  $[0\ 1\ 0]^T$  are linearly independent and form a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to  $\lambda=2$ .

Similarly, the eigenvectors of *A* corresponding to  $\lambda = 1$  are the nonzero vectors of the form  $\mathbf{x} = s \begin{bmatrix} -2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^T$ 

Thus,  $[-2\ 1\ 1]^T$  is a basis for the eigenspace corresponding to  $\lambda = 1$ .

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## Diagonalization



From the definition of the eigenvector vcorresponding to the eigenvalue  $\boldsymbol{\lambda}$  we have

 $A\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$  Then:  $A\mathbf{v} - \lambda \mathbf{v} = (A - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ 

Equation has a nonzero solution if and only if

$$\det(A - \lambda \underline{I}) = 0$$

$$\det(A - \lambda \underline{I}) = \begin{vmatrix} 3 - \lambda & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 - \lambda & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 3 - \lambda \end{vmatrix}$$

$$= -\lambda^{3} + 8\lambda^{2} - 20\lambda + 16 = -(\lambda - 4) \cdot (\lambda^{2} - 4\lambda + 4)$$

$$= -(\lambda - 4) \cdot (\lambda - 2)^2 = 0$$

$$\lambda_1 = 4$$
  $\lambda_2 = 2$ 



# Diagonalization

For every  $\lambda$  we find its own vectors:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \lambda_1 = 4 & \lambda_2 = 2 \\ A - \lambda_1 I = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & -2 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 \end{pmatrix} & A - \lambda_2 I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \\ & & & = \end{array}$$

$$A - \lambda_{2} I = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\equiv$$

$$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$$
  $(A - \lambda \mathbf{I}) \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ 

$$A\mathbf{v} = \lambda \mathbf{v}$$
  $(A - \lambda I) \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$ 

The solution set: 
$$\{x_3 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\} = \{x_2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + x_3 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\}$$



# Diagonalization

 $\bullet$  The diagonal matrix with diagonal entries  $\lambda_1,\lambda_2,\lambda_3$ 

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

ullet The matrix with the Eigenvectors  $v_1,v_2,v_3$  as its columns.

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad P^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

hence

$$A = PDP^{-1}$$

$$A^2 = PDP^{-1}PDP^{-1}$$

$$A^2 = PD.DP^{-1}$$



# Diagonalization

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- $\bullet \ \, \text{Verify} \,\, A = P^{-1}DP$
- $\bullet \ \, \text{Verify} \,\, D = P^{-1}AP$
- $\bullet \ {\rm Find} \ A^{100}$

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## Inner Product Spaces

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# Definition of inner product

- (Inner product) Let V be a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$ . An inner product <,> is a function  $V\times V\to \mathbb{R}$  with the following properties
- $\bullet \ \forall \ u \ \in \ V, \ < u,u> \geq 0, \ and \ < u,u> = 0 \ iff \ u=0;$
- $\bullet \ \forall \ u,v \ \in \ V, \ holds \ < u,v> = < v,u>$
- $\bullet \ \forall \ u, v \in V, \ and \ \forall \ a, b \in \mathbb{R}$

$$< au + bv, w >= a < u, w > +b < v, w >$$

 $\bullet$  Notation: V together with <,> is called an inner product space.

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Inner Product Spaces

Inner Products



# Definition of inner product

 $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$ If V is a real inner product space, then the **norm** (or **length**) of a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in V is denoted by  $\|\mathbf{v}\|$  and is defined by

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

and the *distance* between two vectors is denoted by  $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$  and is defined by

$$d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = ||\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}|| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} \rangle}$$

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A vector of norm 1 is called a *unit vector*.

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Inner Product



# Weighted Euclidean Inner Product

• Let  $u=(u_1,u_2)$  and  $v=(v_1,v_2)$  be vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2.$  Verify that the weighted Euclidean inner product

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$$\langle u, v \rangle = 3u_1v_1 + 2u_2v_2$$

satisfies the inner product axioms.

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## Example



Consider

$$\begin{split} \langle u-2v, 3u+4v \rangle = & \langle u, 3u+4v \rangle - \langle 2v, 3u+4v \rangle \\ = & \langle u, 3u \rangle + \langle u, 4v \rangle - \langle 2v, 3u \rangle - \langle 2v, 4v \rangle \\ = & 3\langle u, u \rangle + 4\langle u, v \rangle - 6\langle v, u \rangle - 8\langle v, v \rangle \end{split}$$



Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

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

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle^2 \le \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$$
 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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# Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality



Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

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

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

$$(x_1y_1 + \cdots + x_ny_n)^2 \le (x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2)(y_1^2 + \cdots + y_n^2).$$

**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

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

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

is the norm induced by the dot product

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

ullet The norm  $\|f\|_2=\left(\int_a^b|f(x)|^2\,dx
ight)^{1/2}$  on the

vector space C[a, b] is induced by the inner product

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

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Since  $|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| \le \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|$ , 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  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$ .

Angle



$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \operatorname{tr}(U^T V)$$

If  $\mathbf{u} = U$  and  $\mathbf{v} = V$  are matrices in the vector space  $M_{nn}$ , then the formula

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 \\ u_3 & u_4 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and  $V = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 \\ v_3 & v_4 \end{bmatrix}$ 

$$\langle \mathbf{u},\mathbf{v}\rangle = \mathrm{tr}(U^TV) = u_1v_1 + u_2v_2 + u_3v_3 + u_4v_4$$

Let  $M_{22}$  have the standard inner product. Find the cosine of the angle between the vectors

$$\mathbf{u} = U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and  $\mathbf{v} = V = \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 3 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ 



Pythagorean Law



Pythagorean Law:

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

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



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  $\langle \mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}\rangle = 0 \ \ \text{for any} \ \ \mathbf{x},\mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{S}, \ \ \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}.$ 

An orthogonal set  $S \subset V$  is called **orthonormal** if  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 1$  for any  $\mathbf{x} \in S$ .

Remark. Vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k \in V$  form an orthonormal set if and only if

$$\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

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## Orthogonal sets



The vectors  $\mathbf{u} = (1,1)$  and  $\mathbf{v} = (1,-1)$  are orthogonal

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{and} \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

### Inner Product Spaces Inner Products

Let  $P_2$  have the inner product  $\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q} \rangle = \int_{-1}^{1} p(x)q(x) dx$ 

$$\|\mathbf{p}\| = \langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p} \rangle^{1/2} = \left[ \int_{-1}^{1} xx \, dx \right]^{1/2} = \left[ \int_{-1}^{1} x^{2} \, dx \right]^{1/2} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}$$

$$\|\mathbf{q}\| = \langle \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{q} \rangle^{1/2} = \left[ \int_{-1}^{1} x^{2} x^{2} \, dx \right]^{1/2} = \left[ \int_{-1}^{1} x^{4} \, dx \right]^{1/2} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{5}}$$

$$\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q} \rangle = \int_{-1}^{1} x x^{2} dx = \int_{-1}^{1} x^{3} dx = 0$$

Because 
$$(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q}) = 0$$
, the vectors  $\mathbf{p} = x$  and  $\mathbf{q} = x^2$  are orthogonal 
$$\|\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{q}\|^2 = \left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}\right)^2 + \left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{5}}\right)^2 = \frac{2}{3} + \frac{2}{5} = \frac{16}{15}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{q}\|^2 &= (\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p} + \mathbf{q}) = \int_{-1}^{1} (x + x^2)(x + x^2) \, dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^{1} x^2 \, dx + 2 \int_{-1}^{1} x^3 \, dx + \int_{-1}^{1} x^4 \, dx = \frac{2}{3} + 0 + \frac{2}{5} = \frac{16}{15} \end{aligned}$$



# Orthogonal set

 $\begin{array}{lll} \mbox{Let} & \mbox{$\mathbf{v}_1$} = (0,1,0), & \mbox{$\mathbf{v}_2$} = (1,0,1), & \mbox{$\mathbf{v}_3$} = (1,0,-1) \\ \mbox{and assume that $R^3$ has the Euclidean inner product.} \end{array}$  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\} \text{ is an orthogonal set since } \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_3 \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3 \rangle = 0.$ 

$$\|\mathbf{v}_1\| = 1$$
,  $\|\mathbf{v}_2\| = \sqrt{2}$ ,  $\|\mathbf{v}_3\| = \sqrt{2}$ 

Consequently, normalizing  $\mathbf{u}_1$ ,  $\mathbf{u}_2$ , and  $\mathbf{u}_3$  yields

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{u}_1 &= \frac{\mathbf{v}_1}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|} = (0, 1, 0), \quad \mathbf{u}_2 &= \frac{\mathbf{v}_2}{\|\mathbf{v}_2\|} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right), \\ \mathbf{u}_3 &= \frac{\mathbf{v}_3}{\|\mathbf{v}_3\|} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, 0, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \end{split}$$

 $\langle \mathbf{u}_1,\mathbf{u}_2\rangle = \langle \mathbf{u}_1,\mathbf{u}_3\rangle = \langle \mathbf{u}_2,\mathbf{u}_3\rangle = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \|\mathbf{u}_1\| = \|\mathbf{u}_2\| = \|\mathbf{u}_3\| = 1$ 



# 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  ${\bf x}$  to the subspace  $V_0$  is  $\|\mathbf{o}\|$ .

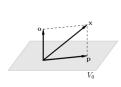
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## Orthogonal projection







luct Spaces Inner Products



# Orthogonal projection

 $\bullet$  Let  $\mathbb{R}^3$  have the Euclidean inner product, and let W be the subspace spanned by the orthonormal vectors

$$v_1 = (0, 1, 0) and v_2 = (-45, 0, 35).$$

 $\bullet$  Find the orthogonal projection of u=(1,1,1) on  $\mathsf{W}$ 

$$\begin{aligned} proj_W u &= < u, v_1 > v_1 + < u, v_2 > v_2 \\ &= (1)(0, 1, 0) + (\frac{-1}{5})(\frac{-4}{5}, 0, \frac{3}{5}) \\ &= (\frac{4}{25}, 1, \frac{3}{25}) \end{aligned}$$



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

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

$$\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{x}_2 - \frac{1}{\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle} \mathbf{v}_1,$$

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

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

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



The Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

## The Gram-Schmidt Process

To convert a basis  $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_r\}$  into an orthogonal basis  $\{\mathbf v_1, \mathbf v_2, \dots, \mathbf v_r\}$ , perform the following computations:

Step 1. 
$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \mathbf{u}_1$$

Step 2. 
$$\mathbf{v}_2 = \mathbf{u}_2 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|^2} \mathbf{v}_1$$

Step 3. 
$$\mathbf{v}_3 = \mathbf{u}_3 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}_3, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|^2} \mathbf{v}_1 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}_3, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|^2} \mathbf{v}_1$$

Step 4. 
$$\mathbf{v}_4 = \mathbf{u}_4 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}_4, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|^2} \mathbf{v}_1 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}_4, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle}{\|\mathbf{v}_2\|^2} \mathbf{v}_2 - \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}_4, \mathbf{v}_3 \rangle}{\|\mathbf{v}_3\|^2} \mathbf{v}_3$$

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(continue for r steps)

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The Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process



Assume that the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^3$  has the Euclidean inner product. Apply the Gram–Schmidt process to transform the basis vectors

$$\mathbf{u}_1 = (1, 1, 1), \quad \mathbf{u}_2 = (0, 1, 1), \quad \mathbf{u}_3 = (0, 0, 1)$$

into an orthogonal basis  $\{v_1,v_2,v_3\}$ , and then normalize the orthogonal basis vectors to obtain an orthonormal basis  $\{q_1,q_2,q_3\}$ .

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The Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

$$\begin{split} & \textbf{Step 1.} \, \mathbf{v_1} = \mathbf{u_1} = (1,1,1) \\ & \textbf{Step 2.} \, \mathbf{v_2} = \mathbf{u_2} - \text{proj}_{W_1} \mathbf{u_2} = \mathbf{u_2} - \frac{\langle \mathbf{u_2}, \mathbf{v_1} \rangle}{||\mathbf{v_1}||^2} \mathbf{v_1} \\ & = (0,1,1) - \frac{2}{3}(1,1,1) = \left( -\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3} \right) \\ & \textbf{Step 3.} \, \mathbf{v_3} = \mathbf{u_3} - \text{proj}_{W_2} \mathbf{u_3} = \mathbf{u_3} - \frac{\langle \mathbf{u_2}, \mathbf{v_1} \rangle}{||\mathbf{v_1}||^2} \mathbf{v_1} - \frac{\langle \mathbf{u_1}, \mathbf{v_2} \rangle}{||\mathbf{v_2}||^2} \mathbf{v_2} \\ & = (0,0,1) - \frac{1}{3}(1,1,1) - \frac{1/3}{2/3} \left( -\frac{2}{3}, \frac{1}{3}, \frac{1}{3} \right) \\ & = \left( 0, -\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right) \end{split}$$

 $\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_1 &= (1,1,1), \\ \mathbf{v}_2 &= \left(-\frac{2}{3},\frac{1}{3},\frac{1}{3}\right), \\ \mathbf{v}_3 &= \left(0,-\frac{1}{2},\frac{1}{2}\right) \\ \text{form an orthogonal basis for } R^3. \end{aligned}$  The norms of these vectors are  $\|\mathbf{v}_1\| = \sqrt{3}, \quad \|\mathbf{v}_2\| = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}, \quad \|\mathbf{v}_3\| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \text{so an orthonormal basis for } R^3 \text{ is} \\ \mathbf{q}_1 &= \frac{\mathbf{v}_1}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|} = \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}},\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}},\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}\right), \\ \mathbf{q}_2 &= \frac{\mathbf{v}_1}{\|\mathbf{v}_3\|} = \left(-\frac{2}{\sqrt{6}},\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}},\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}\right), \\ \mathbf{q}_3 &= \frac{\mathbf{v}_1}{\|\mathbf{v}_3\|} = \left(0,-\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}},\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right) \end{aligned}$ 

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**QR-Decomposition** 

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Inner Product Spaces

nner Products



 $\bullet$  If A is an  $m\times n$  matrix with linearly independent column vectors, then A can be factored as

$$A = QR$$

where Q is an  $m\times n$  matrix with orthonormal column vectors, and R is an  $n\times n$  invertible upper triangular matrix.

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--- Deciderate



# QR-Decomposition

Find a QR-decomposition of  $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$  The column vectors of A are  $\mathbf{u}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{u}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$   $\mathbf{q}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{q}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} -\frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \end{bmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{q}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$   $R = \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{q}_1) & (\mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{q}_1) & (\mathbf{u}_3, \mathbf{q}_1) \\ 0 & (\mathbf{u}_3, \mathbf{q}_2) & (\mathbf{u}_3, \mathbf{q}_2) \\ 0 & 0 & (\mathbf{u}_3, \mathbf{q}_3) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{3}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \\ 0 & \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \end{bmatrix}$ 

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