

Mathematics for Computer Science

Linear Algebra (Part 2)

Inner Product Spaces

Karl Southern

Durham University

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Thanks to Andrei Krokhin and William Moses for use of some slides.

Outline

1 Recap & Plan for Today

2 Inner Product Spaces

- Definition
- Norm
- Orthogonality

3 Important Examples

- Weighted Euclidean Inner Product
- Matrix Inner Product on \mathbb{R}^n
- Standard Inner Product on \mathbb{P}_n
- Evaluation Inner Product on \mathbb{P}_n
- Inner Product on the Space $C[a, b]$
- Complex Inner Product

4 Standard (In)Equalities

5 Wrapping Things Up

Recap of Last Week

- Matrices A and B are similar if $A = PBP^{-1}$ for some invertible P .

Recap of Last Week

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- A is diagonalisable if it is similar to B and B is a diagonal matrix.
- $A = PDP^{-1}$ is an eigendecomposition of A if P is the eigenvectors of A and D is the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues.

Roadmap for Next Few Classes

- **End Goal:** Application - linear regression.

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- **End Goal:** Application - linear regression.
- **Using:** QR decomposition.
- Requires knowledge of some basics: Inner product spaces.

Contents for Today's Class

- Inner product spaces – definition, norm, orthogonality.
- Important examples.

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Inner Product: The Definition

Recall: The **dot product** (aka **Euclidean inner product**) of vectors $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$ in \mathbb{R}^n is defined as $\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$.

Using it, one can define norm (aka length), distance, angles, orthogonality in \mathbb{R}^n .

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Using it, one can define norm (aka length), distance, angles, orthogonality in \mathbb{R}^n .

Definition

Let V be a (real) vector space. An **inner product** on V is a function that associates to each pair $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$ a real number $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \in \mathbb{R}$, satisfying the following properties for all $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$ and $k \in \mathbb{R}$.

- ① $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$ [Symmetry axiom]
- ② $\langle \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$ [Additivity axiom]
- ③ $\langle k\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = k\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$ [Homogeneity axiom]
- ④ $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \geq 0$, and $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$ iff $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$ [Positivity axiom]

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Norm and Distance

Generalising from \mathbb{R}^n to an arbitrary **inner product space** (i.e. a vector space equipped with an inner product), we can define **norm** and **distance** as

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

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The following properties of norm and distance follow directly from definitions:

- $\|\mathbf{v}\| \geq 0$, and $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 0$ iff $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$
- $\|k\mathbf{v}\| = |k| \|\mathbf{v}\|$
- $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = d(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u})$
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A vector \mathbf{v} with $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$ is called a **unit vector**. Each non-zero vector can be **normalised** (scaled to become a unit vector): $\mathbf{v} \mapsto \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{v}\|} \mathbf{v}$.

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Orthogonality and Orthogonal Complement

Definition

Vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} in an inner product space V are called **orthogonal** if $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$.

In \mathbb{R}^n with the dot product, this is the same notion as before.

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Definition

Let W be a subspace in an inner product space V . Then the set

$$W^\perp = \{\mathbf{x} \in V \mid \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } \mathbf{u} \in W\}$$

is called the **orthogonal complement** of W .

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Example: Take $\mathbf{u} = (2, -3, 5, 4)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (0, 1, -4, 7)$ in \mathbb{R}^4 (with the dot product) and let $W = \text{span}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$. Then W^\perp is the solution space of the linear system

$$\begin{aligned} 2x_1 - 3x_2 + 5x_3 + 4x_4 &= 0 & (\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0) \\ x_2 - 4x_3 + 7x_4 &= 0 & (\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0) \end{aligned}$$

Working with Orthogonal Complement

Theorem

For any subspace W in an inner product space V , the set W^\perp is also a subspace.

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Take $\mathbf{u} = (2, -3, 5, 4)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (0, 1, -4, 7)$ in \mathbb{R}^4 and let $W = \text{span}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$.

If our inner product on \mathbb{R}^4 is the dot product, W^\perp is the solution space of

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Finding a basis for W^\perp = finding a basis in the solution space of linear system.

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Example: Weighted Euclidean Inner Product

- Let $w_1, \dots, w_n \in \mathbb{R}$ be arbitrary positive numbers, which we'll call *weights*.
- The **weighted Euclidean inner product** (with weights w_1, \dots, w_n) on \mathbb{R}^n is defined as follows: for vectors $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_n)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (v_1, \dots, v_n)$,

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = w_1 u_1 v_1 + w_2 u_2 v_2 + \dots + w_n u_n v_n.$$

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Example: Consider \mathbb{R}^2 equipped with the weighted Euclidean inner product with weights $w_1 = 3, w_2 = 2$, i.e., define $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 3u_1 v_1 + 2u_2 v_2$.

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- The norm of $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0)$ is $\|\mathbf{e}_1\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_1 \rangle} = \sqrt{3 \cdot 1^2 + 2 \cdot 0^2} = \sqrt{3}$.

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- $\mathbf{u} = (1, -3)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (2, 1)$ are orthogonal: $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot (-3) \cdot 1 = 0$.

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Norms, distances and orthogonality depend on the choice of inner product!

Example: Weighted Euclidean Inner Product - Orthogonal Complement

- **Dot Product:** Take $\mathbf{u} = (2, -3, 5, 4)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (0, 1, -4, 7)$ in \mathbb{R}^4 and let $W = \text{span}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$. If our inner product on \mathbb{R}^4 is the dot product, W^\perp is the solution space of

$$2x_1 - 3x_2 + 5x_3 + 4x_4 = 0 \quad (\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0)$$

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$$4x_1 - 3x_2 + 15x_3 + 4x_4 = 0 \quad (\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0)$$

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Example: Matrix Inner Product on \mathbb{R}^n

Let A be an invertible $n \times n$ matrix.

Considering vectors in \mathbb{R}^n as column vectors, define

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = A\mathbf{u} \cdot A\mathbf{v}, \text{ (or, equivalently, } \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = (A\mathbf{v})^T A\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}^T A^T A\mathbf{u})$$

where the right-hand side uses the standard dot product in \mathbb{R}^n .

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This is an inner product (can check all axioms), called the **inner product on \mathbb{R}^n generated by A** .

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For the earlier example of a weighted inner product on \mathbb{R}^2 ,

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 3u_1v_1 + 2u_2v_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{3} & 0 \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Example: Standard Inner Product on \mathbb{P}_n

Recall: \mathbb{P}_n is the space of all polynomials of degree at most n .

For vectors $\mathbf{p} = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n$ and $\mathbf{q} = b_0 + b_1x + \dots + b_nx^n$ in \mathbb{P}_n , define

$$\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q} \rangle = a_0b_0 + a_1b_1 + \dots + a_nb_n.$$

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- It is easy to see that each vector $\mathbf{p} = a_0 + a_1x + \dots + a_nx^n \in \mathbb{P}_n$ can be identified with the corresponding vector $(a_0, a_1, \dots, a_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$.
- Then the standard inner product on \mathbb{P}_n = the dot product on \mathbb{R}^{n+1} .

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Example: Evaluation Inner Product on \mathbb{P}_n

Fix distinct points $x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$ (called *sample points*).

For vectors $\mathbf{p} = p(x)$ and $\mathbf{q} = q(x)$ in \mathbb{P}_n , define

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The last implication follows from the fundamental theorem of algebra:
a non-0 polynomial of degree $\leq n$ can have at most n distinct roots.

Working with Evaluation Inner Product on \mathbb{P}_n

Consider \mathbb{P}_2 with evaluation inner product at $x_0 = -2, x_1 = 0, x_2 = 2$, i.e.

$$\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q} \rangle = p(x_0)q(x_0) + p(x_1)q(x_1) + p(x_2)q(x_2) = p(-2)q(-2) + p(0)q(0) + p(2)q(2)$$

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Consider two vectors $\mathbf{p} = x^2$ and $\mathbf{q} = x + 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{p}\| &= \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p} \rangle} = \sqrt{[p(x_0)]^2 + [p(x_1)]^2 + [p(x_2)]^2} = \\ &\quad \sqrt{[p(-2)]^2 + [p(0)]^2 + [p(2)]^2} = \sqrt{4^2 + 0^2 + 4^2} = 4\sqrt{2}. \end{aligned}$$

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If we normalise \mathbf{p} , we get vector $\mathbf{p}' = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{p}\|} \mathbf{p} = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}} x^2 \in \mathbb{P}_2$.

Outline

1 Recap & Plan for Today

2 Inner Product Spaces

- Definition
- Norm
- Orthogonality

3 Important Examples

- Weighted Euclidean Inner Product
- Matrix Inner Product on \mathbb{R}^n
- Standard Inner Product on \mathbb{P}_n
- Evaluation Inner Product on \mathbb{P}_n
- Inner Product on the Space $C[a, b]$
- Complex Inner Product

4 Standard (In)Equalities

5 Wrapping Things Up

Example: Inner Product on the Space $C[a, b]$

- **Recall:** $C[a, b]$ consists of all functions that are continuous on interval $[a, b]$.
- The operations in $C[a, b]$ are defined point-wise: if $\mathbf{f} = f(x)$ and $\mathbf{g} = g(x)$ then $(\mathbf{f} + \mathbf{g})(x) = f(x) + g(x)$ and $(k\mathbf{f})(x) = kf(x)$.

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The first three are straightforward, let's check the last one (positivity): Clearly, $\langle \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{f} \rangle = \int_a^b f^2(x) dx \geq 0$. Moreover, the integral is 0 only if $f = 0$ (because f is continuous on $[a, b]$).

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- Each polynomial is a continuous function: so \mathbb{P}_n is a subspace of $C[a, b]$, and this inner product works on \mathbb{P}_n too.

Working with Inner Product on $C[a, b]$

Consider \mathbb{P}_2 or $C[-1, 1]$ with inner product

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

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$$\|\mathbf{p}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p} \rangle} = \sqrt{\int_{-1}^1 x x dx} = \sqrt{\int_{-1}^1 x^2 dx} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}}$$

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

In particular, $\mathbf{p} = x$ and $\mathbf{q} = x^2$ are orthogonal w.r.t. this inner product.

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Hermitian conjugation

For a complex vector \mathbf{v} , the Hermitian conjugation of \mathbf{v} , denoted \mathbf{v}^\dagger is the conjugate transpose of the vector, i.e. $\mathbf{v}^\dagger = \overline{(\mathbf{v}^\top)}$.

A complex square matrix A is a Hermitian matrix if it is equal to its own conjugate transpose. i.e.

$$A = A^\dagger = \overline{A^\top}$$

or

$$a_{i,j} = \overline{a_{j,i}}$$

The matrix $A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2-i \\ 2+i & 3 \end{pmatrix}$ is a Hermitian matrix.

Inner Product on \mathbb{C}^n

Considering vectors in \mathbb{C}^n as column vectors, the Hermitian Inner product is defined as:

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{u}^\dagger \mathbf{v} .$$

Examples:

- If the vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are real, then this is the dot product.
- For $\mathbf{u} = (1 + i, 5, 3 + 2i)$, $\mathbf{v} = (2, 7, 3 + 4i)$

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{u}^\dagger \mathbf{v} = 2(1 - i) + 5(7) + (3 - 2i)(3 + 4i) = 54 + 4i$$

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Standard (In)Equalities

The standard (in)equalities for the dot product work for general inner products (and the proofs are the same):

Theorem (Pythagoras' theorem)

If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are orthogonal vectors in an inner product space then $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{u}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|^2$.

Theorem (Cauchy-Schwarz inequality)

If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are vectors in an inner product space then $|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|$.

Corollary (Triangle inequality)

If \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are vectors in an inner product space then $\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| + \|\mathbf{v}\|$.

Standard (In)Equalities

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Example: Cauchy-Schwarz inequality in $C[a, b]$:

$$\left| \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx \right| \leq \sqrt{\int_a^b f^2(x) dx} \sqrt{\int_a^b g^2(x) dx}.$$

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Example Exam question

Consider the weighted Euclidean inner product with weights $(a, b, a + b)$. Let $v_1 = (1, 2, 3)$ and $v_2 = (3, 4, -2)$. Find values for a and b such that v_1 and v_2 are orthogonal, and $\|v_1\| = \sqrt{59}$.

Wrapping Things Up

Today:

- Inner product spaces
- Norm and orthogonality in these spaces
- Important examples

Next time:

- The Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation process
- QR decomposition of matrices

The End