

Small recap: In the beginning of our lecture course, we studied the basic concepts of linear algebra in the concrete context of \mathbb{R}^n . Since all this concepts were defined in terms of two operations: multiplication by $r \in \mathbb{R}$ and addition, we saw that it can be both natural and useful to apply the language developed to objects other than elements of \mathbb{R}^n (for example, functions). We introduced the notion of a vector space over a field, for set that behaves like \mathbb{R}^n as far as addition and scalar multiplication are concerned.

In this lecture, another operation for elements of \mathbb{R}^n is examined: the dot product. We will see that it is very useful to define a product analogous to the dot product in a vector space (linear space) other than \mathbb{R}^n . Generalized dot products are called inner products. Once we have inner product in a vector space, we can define what it means for vectors to be orthogonal and define the length of vectors, just like in \mathbb{R}^n .

For this lecture, we will only be considering vector spaces over real numbers.

Definition: An inner product in a vector space (over \mathbb{R}) V is a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

DEFINITION

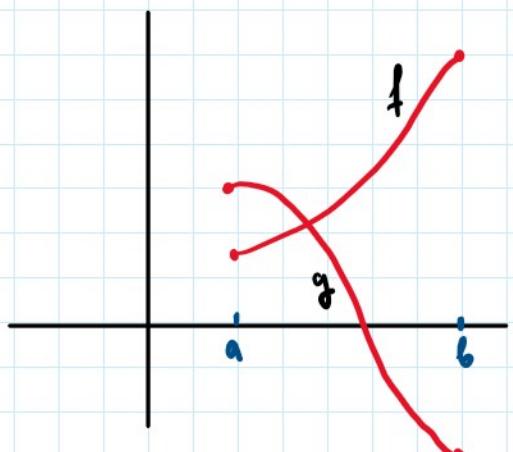
V is a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, such that

- 1) $\langle f, g \rangle = \langle g, f \rangle$, for all $f, g \in V$.
- 2) $\langle f+h, g \rangle = \langle f, g \rangle + \langle h, g \rangle$, for all $f, g, h \in V$.
- 3) $\langle cf, g \rangle = c \langle f, g \rangle$, for all $c \in \mathbb{R}$, $f, g \in V$.
- 4) $\langle f, f \rangle > 0$, for all $f \in V$ and $f \neq 0$ (**positive definiteness property**)

A vector space endowed with an inner product is called an **inner product space**.

Roughly, an inner product space $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ behaves like \mathbb{R}^n as far as addition, scalar multiplication and dot product are concerned.

Example: Let $V = C[a, b] = \{f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ continuous}\}$ for $a < b$, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$.



For functions $f, g \in C[a, b]$, define

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(t) \cdot g(t) dt. \quad \text{This is}$$

an inner product. For example,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, g \rangle &= \int_a^b f(t) \cdot g(t) dt = \int_a^b g(t) f(t) dt = \\ &= \langle g, f \rangle \end{aligned}$$

We will verify property 4) in **CE**.

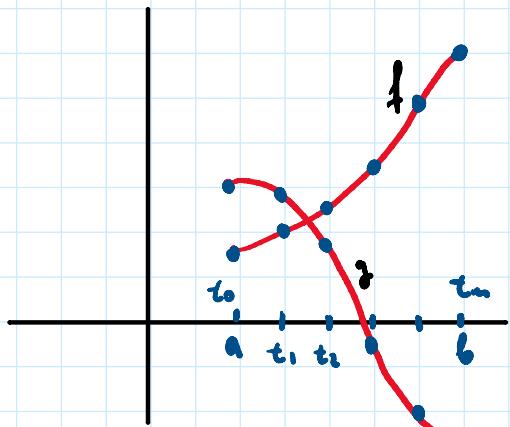
Now the Riemann integral $\int_a^b f(t) g(t) dt$ is the

we will verify property 7) in 4.5.

Now the Riemann integral $\int_a^b f(t) g(t) dt$ is the limit of the Riemann sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^m f(t_k) g(t_k) \Delta t$$

where the t_k can be chosen as equally spaced points on the interval $[a, b]$.



Then,

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(t) g(t) dt \approx \sum_{k=1}^m f(t_k) g(t_k) \Delta t = \\ = \left(\begin{pmatrix} f(t_0) \\ f(t_1) \\ \vdots \\ f(t_m) \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} g(t_0) \\ g(t_1) \\ \vdots \\ g(t_m) \end{pmatrix} \right) \Delta t$$

for large m . This shows that

inner product $\langle f, g \rangle$ for functions is a continuous version of the dot product. The more subdivisions we have, better will dot product approximate $\langle f, g \rangle$.

Example: Let \mathbb{R}^∞ denote the vector space of infinite sequences of real numbers.

$$l_2(\mathbb{N}) = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^\infty \mid \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots \text{ converges} \}$$

In this space we can define the inner product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i y_i = x_0 y_0 + x_1 y_1 + \dots$$

Example: Let $\text{Mat}_{n+m}(\mathbb{R})$ be the vector space of all $n+m$ matrices into \mathbb{R} .

Example: Let $\text{MAT}_{n \times m}(\mathbb{R})$ be the vector space of all $n \times m$ matrices. We can define

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \text{tr}(A^T \cdot B)$$

Where A^T denotes the transpose of A , and $\text{tr}(A)$ is the trace of A . This is an inner product space (**CE**).

Definition: Let V be a (real) vector space. A norm on V is a function $\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ such that

- a) $\|k \cdot v\| = |k| \cdot \|v\|$ for all $v \in V$ and $k \in \mathbb{R}$.
- b) $\|v\| \geq 0$ (Positive)
- c) $\|v\| = 0 \Rightarrow v = 0$ (Non-degenerate)
- d) $\|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$ (Triangle inequality)

Lemma: Let V be a real inner product space.

Then

$$\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

defined by

$$\|v\| := \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle} \quad , \text{ a norm.}$$

Proof:

- a) $\|k \cdot v\| = \sqrt{\langle k \cdot v, k \cdot v \rangle} = \sqrt{k^2 \langle v, v \rangle} = |k| \cdot \|v\|.$

- b) $\|v\| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle} \geq 0$

- c) Say $\|u\| = 0$. Then $\sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle} = 0 \Rightarrow \langle u, u \rangle = 0$
 $\Rightarrow u = 0$ by positive definiteness.

$\Rightarrow u=0$ by positive definiteness.

d) To prove this, we will use what is called Cauchy-Schwartz inequality: Let V be a (real) inner product space. If $u, v \in V$, then

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

Then,

$$\begin{aligned}\|u+v\|^2 &= \langle u+v, u+v \rangle = \langle u, u \rangle + 2 \langle u, v \rangle + \\ &\quad + \langle v, v \rangle \stackrel{\text{by CS.}}{\leq} \|u\|^2 + 2 \|u\| \cdot \|v\| + \|v\|^2 \\ &= (\|u\| + \|v\|)^2 \text{ which is the}\end{aligned}$$

triangle inequality.

We only have to prove Cauchy-Schwartz, which we now do: $u=0$ case is obvious. Say $u \neq 0$.

Consider $u, v \in V$ and a function $p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ defined by $p(t) = \langle tu+v, tu+v \rangle$. Since inner product is positive definite, $\text{Im}(p(t)) \subseteq \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$. On the other hand

$$p(t) = \langle tu+v, tu+v \rangle = \|u\|^2 t^2 + 2t \langle u, v \rangle + \|v\|^2$$

Since p is a polynomial of degree 2, such that sign of $p(t)$ does not change, the discriminant must be non-positive

$$\Delta = 4(\langle u, v \rangle^2 - \|u\|^2 \|v\|^2) \leq 0 \quad \text{therefore}$$

$$D = 4(\langle u, v \rangle^2 - \|u\|^2\|v\|^2) \leq 0 \quad \text{therefore} \\ \|u\|\cdot\|v\| \geq |\langle u, v \rangle|. \quad \square.$$

Definition: We will say that two vectors $u, v \in V$ in an inner product space V are **orthogonal**, if

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

In this case, we will write $u \perp v$. This corresponds to the familiar notion of perpendicularity in \mathbb{R}^n (see CE).

Example: Say $f(t) = t^2 \in C[0, 1]$, where inner product is given by $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(t)g(t) dt$. Then

$$\|f\| = \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle} = \sqrt{\int_0^1 t^4 dt} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{5}}$$

Example: Show that $f(t) = \sin(t)$ and $g(t) = \cos(t)$ are orthogonal in the inner product space $C[0, 2\pi]$.

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^{2\pi} \sin(t)\cos(t) dt = \left(\frac{1}{2} \sin^2(t) \right) \Big|_0^{2\pi} = 0.$$

Definition: We say that the basis v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots is an **orthogonal basis** of V , if vectors v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots are pairwise orthogonal. If in addition vectors v_i have $\|v_i\|=1$, then we say that basis v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots is **orthonormal**.

Example: The canonical basis in \mathbb{R}^n is orthonormal.

Example: The vectors $(1/\sqrt{2}) \cdot 1, (1/\sqrt{2}) \cdot e_1, \dots$ are orthonormal

Example: The vectors $\begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$ and $\begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .

We say that list of vectors v_1, \dots, v_m, \dots is orthogonal, if these vectors are pairwise orthogonal.

Lemma: If the nonzero vectors v_1, \dots, v_m are pairwise orthogonal, then they are independent. In particular if $\dim V = m$, then v_1, \dots, v_m form an orthogonal basis.

Proof: Suppose that

$$r_1 v_1 + \dots + r_n v_n = 0$$

taking inner product with v_j on both sides:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \langle r_1 v_1 + \dots + r_n v_n, v_j \rangle = \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m r_i \langle v_i, v_j \rangle = r_j \langle v_j, v_j \rangle \end{aligned}$$

as $\langle v_j, v_j \rangle \neq 0$, we get $r_j = 0$. Since for all $i \neq j$ so $r_i = 0$, $i = 1, \dots, m$. Thus v_1, \dots, v_m are linearly independent.

Lemma: If (v_1, \dots, v_n) is orthonormal basis of V and $v \in V$, then

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i v_i \quad \text{where } r_i = \langle v, v_i \rangle.$$

Proof: Now, since (v_1, \dots, v_n) is a basis, we know

Proof: Now, since (v_1, \dots, v_n) is a basis, we know that

$$w = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i v_i.$$

Again, taking scalar product with v_j on both sides

$$\langle w, v_j \rangle = \sum r_i \langle v_i, v_j \rangle = r_j \langle v_j, v_j \rangle = r_j \quad \square$$

Very useful property of inner product is that we get canonically defined complementary linear subspaces.

Lemma: Let V be a finite dimensional real inner product space. If $U \subset V$ is a subspace, then let

$$U^\perp = \{w \in V \mid \langle w, u \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } u \in U\}$$

the set of all vectors orthogonal to all vectors in U . Then

- a) U^\perp is a subspace of V .
- b) $U \cap U^\perp = \{0\}$
- c) U and U^\perp span V . (No proof of c))

Proof: a) Suppose w_1 and w_2 are in U^\perp . Pick $u \in U$.

Then $\langle w_1 + w_2, u \rangle = \langle w_1, u \rangle + \langle w_2, u \rangle = 0 + 0$
 $= 0$

Thus $w_1 + w_2 \in U^\perp$. So U^\perp is closed under addition.

Now suppose $w \in U^\perp$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$. Then

$$(\lambda w, u) = \lambda(w, u) = \lambda \cdot 0 = 0$$

Therefore $\lambda w \in U^\perp$ and U^\perp is also closed under scalar

Therefore $\forall w \in U^\perp$ and U^\perp is also closed under scalar multiplication.

b) Say $w \in U \cap U^\perp$. Then

$$\langle w, w \rangle = 0$$

and by positive-definiteness $w=0$. \square .

Lemma: Let A be (real) matrix and $(w = \text{Im}(A))$.

Then $W^\perp = \text{Ker}(A^T)$

Proof: Say

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} & & & | \\ & & & \\ \mathbf{v}_1 & \mathbf{v}_2 & \dots & \mathbf{v}_m \\ & & & | \end{pmatrix}, \text{ then}$$

$$A^T = \begin{pmatrix} -\mathbf{v}_1^T & -\mathbf{v}_2^T & \dots \\ -\mathbf{v}_m^T & & \end{pmatrix}. \text{ Then } A^T x = \begin{pmatrix} \langle x, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle \\ \langle x, \mathbf{v}_2 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle x, \mathbf{v}_m \rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

So, $x \in \text{Ker } A^T \iff \langle x, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } i=1, \dots, m$.

Now if $\langle x, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0$ for all $i=1, \dots, m$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x, w \rangle &= \langle x, r_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + r_m \mathbf{v}_m \rangle = r_1 \langle x, \mathbf{v}_1 \rangle + \dots + r_m \langle x, \mathbf{v}_m \rangle \\ &= 0 \text{ for all } w \in W \text{ and } w = \sum_{i=1}^m r_i \mathbf{v}_i. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore $x \in W^\perp$. So $\text{Ker}(A^T) \subseteq W^\perp$

On the other hand, if $x \in W^\perp$ in particular

On the other hand if $x \in W^\perp$, in particular
 $\langle x, v_i \rangle = 0$ for all $i = 1, \dots, m$ and $A^T x = \begin{pmatrix} \langle x, v_1 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle x, v_m \rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$.
and $W^\perp \subseteq \ker(A^T)$. \square