

Some Essential Linear Algebra

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and the angle between vectors in \mathbb{R}^n

In these lectures $\langle x, y \rangle$ defines an inner product between vectors x, y of equal length such that $\langle x, y \rangle = y^T x$ if x and y are *both real* and $\langle x, y \rangle = y^* x$, otherwise.

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and the angle between vectors in \mathbb{R}^n

In these lectures $\langle x, y \rangle$ defines an inner product between vectors x, y of equal length such that $\langle x, y \rangle = y^T x$ if x and y are *both real* and $\langle x, y \rangle = y^* x$, otherwise.

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality: Given any $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$,

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2$$

with equality holding if and only if $\{x, y\}$ is a linearly dependent set.

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and the angle between vectors in \mathbb{R}^n

In these lectures $\langle x, y \rangle$ defines an inner product between vectors x, y of equal length such that $\langle x, y \rangle = y^T x$ if x and y are *both real* and $\langle x, y \rangle = y^* x$, otherwise.

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality: Given any $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$,

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2$$

with equality holding if and only if $\{x, y\}$ is a linearly dependent set.

If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$-1 \leq \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\|_2 \|y\|_2} \leq 1.$$

Hence $\theta = \arccos \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\|_2 \|y\|_2}$ is called the angle between x and y .

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality and the angle between vectors in \mathbb{R}^n

In these lectures $\langle x, y \rangle$ defines an inner product between vectors x, y of equal length such that $\langle x, y \rangle = y^T x$ if x and y are *both real* and $\langle x, y \rangle = y^* x$, otherwise.

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality: Given any $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$,

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\|_2 \|y\|_2$$

with equality holding if and only if $\{x, y\}$ is a linearly dependent set.

If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then by the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

$$-1 \leq \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\|_2 \|y\|_2} \leq 1.$$

Hence $\theta = \arccos \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\|_2 \|y\|_2}$ is called the angle between x and y .

Two vectors $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$ are said to be mutually orthogonal if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

Orthogonal complements of sets

Let S be any nonempty subset of \mathbb{F}^n where $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$. Then the orthogonal complement of S is defined by

$$S^\perp := \{x \in \mathbb{F}^n : \langle x, y \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } y \in S\}.$$

Orthogonal complements of sets

Let S be any nonempty subset of \mathbb{F}^n where $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$. Then the orthogonal complement of S is defined by

$$S^\perp := \{x \in \mathbb{F}^n : \langle x, y \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } y \in S\}.$$

Examples:

1. In \mathbb{C}^3 , $\{e_3\}^\perp = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2\}$.
2. In \mathbb{R}^4 , $\{e_2 + e_4\}^\perp = \text{span}\{e_1, e_3, e_2 - e_4\}$.

Orthogonal complements of sets

Let S be any nonempty subset of \mathbb{F}^n where $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$. Then the orthogonal complement of S is defined by

$$S^\perp := \{x \in \mathbb{F}^n : \langle x, y \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } y \in S\}.$$

Examples:

1. In \mathbb{C}^3 , $\{e_3\}^\perp = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2\}$.
2. In \mathbb{R}^4 , $\{e_2 + e_4\}^\perp = \text{span}\{e_1, e_3, e_2 - e_4\}$.

Exercise: Let S be any nonempty subset of \mathbb{F}^n . Prove that

1. S^\perp is always a *subspace* of \mathbb{F}^n .
2. $S^{\perp\perp} = \text{span } S$.

Orthogonal complements of sets

Let S be any nonempty subset of \mathbb{F}^n where $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ or $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$. Then the orthogonal complement of S is defined by

$$S^\perp := \{x \in \mathbb{F}^n : \langle x, y \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } y \in S\}.$$

Examples:

1. In \mathbb{C}^3 , $\{e_3\}^\perp = \text{span}\{e_1, e_2\}$.
2. In \mathbb{R}^4 , $\{e_2 + e_4\}^\perp = \text{span}\{e_1, e_3, e_2 - e_4\}$.

Exercise: Let S be any nonempty subset of \mathbb{F}^n . Prove that

1. S^\perp is always a *subspace* of \mathbb{F}^n .
2. $S^{\perp\perp} = \text{span } S$.

Exercise: Given any $n \times n$ matrix A prove that $N(A)^\perp = R(A^T)$ where

$$N(A) = \{x \in \mathbb{F}^n : Ax = 0\}$$

$$R(A^T) = \{A^T x : x \in \mathbb{F}^n\}$$

with $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{R}$ if A is real and $\mathbb{F} = \mathbb{C}$ if A is complex.

Sums and direct sums of subspaces

Sum of two subspaces: Given any two subspaces U, W of \mathbb{F}^n ,

$$\mathbb{F}^n = U + W$$

if for every $x \in \mathbb{F}^n$, there exist $x_1 \in U$ and $x_2 \in W$ such that $x = x_1 + x_2$.

Sums and direct sums of subspaces

Sum of two subspaces: Given any two subspaces U, W of \mathbb{F}^n ,

$$\mathbb{F}^n = U + W$$

if for every $x \in \mathbb{F}^n$, there exist $x_1 \in U$ and $x_2 \in W$ such that $x = x_1 + x_2$.

Examples:

1. $\mathbb{R}^4 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_3, e_2 + e_4\} + \{[\alpha, 0, -\alpha, 0]^T : \alpha \in \mathbb{R}\}$.
2. $\mathbb{C}^4 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_1 + e_3, e_2 - e_4\} + \text{span}\{e_2, e_3\}$.

Sums and direct sums of subspaces

Sum of two subspaces: Given any two subspaces U, W of \mathbb{F}^n ,

$$\mathbb{F}^n = U + W$$

if for every $x \in \mathbb{F}^n$, there exist $x_1 \in U$ and $x_2 \in W$ such that $x = x_1 + x_2$.

Examples:

1. $\mathbb{R}^4 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_3, e_2 + e_4\} + \{[\alpha, 0, -\alpha, 0]^T : \alpha \in \mathbb{R}\}$.
2. $\mathbb{C}^4 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_1 + e_3, e_2 - e_4\} + \text{span}\{e_2, e_3\}$.

Theorem Let U and W be two subspaces of \mathbb{F}^n . such that $\mathbb{F}^n = U + W$. Then

$$\dim U + \dim W - \dim(U \cap W) = n,$$

and $\text{span}(U \cup W) = U + W$.

Sums and direct sums of subspaces

Direct sum of two subspaces: Let U and W be subspaces of \mathbb{F}^n . Then \mathbb{F}^n is the *direct* sum of U and W denoted by

$$\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus W \quad (1)$$

if for every $x \in \mathbb{F}^n$, there exist *unique* $x_1 \in U$ and $x_2 \in W$ such that $x = x_1 + x_2$. The equation (1) is called a direct sum decomposition of \mathbb{F}^n .

Sums and direct sums of subspaces

Direct sum of two subspaces: Let U and W be subspaces of \mathbb{F}^n . Then \mathbb{F}^n is the *direct* sum of U and W denoted by

$$\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus W \quad (1)$$

if for every $x \in \mathbb{F}^n$, there exist *unique* $x_1 \in U$ and $x_2 \in W$ such that $x = x_1 + x_2$. The equation (1) is called a direct sum decomposition of \mathbb{F}^n .

Sums and direct sums of subspaces

Direct sum of two subspaces: Let U and W be subspaces of \mathbb{F}^n . Then \mathbb{F}^n is the *direct* sum of U and W denoted by

$$\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus W \quad (1)$$

if for every $x \in \mathbb{F}^n$, there exist *unique* $x_1 \in U$ and $x_2 \in W$ such that $x = x_1 + x_2$. The equation (1) is called a direct sum decomposition of \mathbb{F}^n .

Examples:

1. $\mathbb{R}^4 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_3, e_2 + e_4\} \oplus \{[\alpha, 0, -\alpha, 0]^T : \alpha \in \mathbb{R}\}$.
2. However $\mathbb{C}^4 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_1 + e_3, e_2 - e_4\} + \text{span}\{e_2, e_3\}$ is a sum that is not a direct sum.
3. Given any subspace U of \mathbb{F}^n , $\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus U^\perp$.

Sums and direct sums of subspaces

Direct sum of two subspaces: Let U and W be subspaces of \mathbb{F}^n . Then \mathbb{F}^n is the *direct* sum of U and W denoted by

$$\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus W \quad (1)$$

if for every $x \in \mathbb{F}^n$, there exist *unique* $x_1 \in U$ and $x_2 \in W$ such that $x = x_1 + x_2$. The equation (1) is called a direct sum decomposition of \mathbb{F}^n .

Examples:

1. $\mathbb{R}^4 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_3, e_2 + e_4\} \oplus \{[\alpha, 0, -\alpha, 0]^T : \alpha \in \mathbb{R}\}$.
2. However $\mathbb{C}^4 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_1 + e_3, e_2 - e_4\} + \text{span}\{e_2, e_3\}$ is a sum that is not a direct sum.
3. Given any subspace U of \mathbb{F}^n , $\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus U^\perp$.

Theorem Suppose U, W are subspaces of \mathbb{F}^n such that $\mathbb{F}^n = U + W$. Then $\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus W$ if and only if $u + w = 0$ for $u \in U, w \in W$, implies that $u = w = 0$.

Sums and direct sums of subspaces

Direct sum of two subspaces: Let U and W be subspaces of \mathbb{F}^n . Then \mathbb{F}^n is the *direct* sum of U and W denoted by

$$\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus W \quad (1)$$

if for every $x \in \mathbb{F}^n$, there exist *unique* $x_1 \in U$ and $x_2 \in W$ such that $x = x_1 + x_2$. The equation (1) is called a direct sum decomposition of \mathbb{F}^n .

Examples:

1. $\mathbb{R}^4 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_3, e_2 + e_4\} \oplus \{[\alpha, 0, -\alpha, 0]^T : \alpha \in \mathbb{R}\}$.
2. However $\mathbb{C}^4 = \text{span}\{e_1, e_1 + e_3, e_2 - e_4\} + \text{span}\{e_2, e_3\}$ is a sum that is not a direct sum.
3. Given any subspace U of \mathbb{F}^n , $\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus U^\perp$.

Theorem Suppose U, W are subspaces of \mathbb{F}^n such that $\mathbb{F}^n = U + W$. Then $\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus W$ if and only if $u + w = 0$ for $u \in U, w \in W$, implies that $u = w = 0$.

Find more examples like example 2!

Projections

A linear map $P : \mathbb{F}^n \mapsto \mathbb{F}^n$ is called a *projection* if $P^2 = P$.

Projections

A linear map $P : \mathbb{F}^n \mapsto \mathbb{F}^n$ is called a *projection* if $P^2 = P$.

Example: $x \mapsto Ax$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$ where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

In fact, any $n \times n$ idempotent matrix, ie., $A^2 = A$ defines a projection on \mathbb{F}^n .

Projections

A linear map $P : \mathbb{F}^n \mapsto \mathbb{F}^n$ is called a *projection* if $P^2 = P$.

Example: $x \mapsto Ax$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$ where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

In fact, any $n \times n$ idempotent matrix, ie., $A^2 = A$ defines a projection on \mathbb{F}^n .

Exercises:

- Given any projection P on \mathbb{F}^n , prove the following.
 - $\mathbb{F}^n = N(P) \oplus R(P)$.
 - $I - P$ is also a projection.
 - $N(P) = R(I - P)$ and $R(P) = N(I - P)$.
- If U and V are subspaces of \mathbb{F}^n such that $\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus V$ then $P : \mathbb{F}^n \mapsto \mathbb{F}^n$ defined by $Px = x_1$ where $x = x_1 + x_2$, $x_1 \in U$, $x_2 \in V$, is a projection onto U , that is, $R(P) = U$.

Orthogonal projections

A linear map $P : \mathbb{F}^n \mapsto \mathbb{F}^n$ is called an *orthogonal projection* if $P^2 = P$ and $P^T = P$.

Orthogonal projections

A linear map $P : \mathbb{F}^n \mapsto \mathbb{F}^n$ is called an *orthogonal projection* if $P^2 = P$ and $P^T = P$.

Example: $x \mapsto Ax$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$ where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

In fact, any $n \times n$ idempotent symmetric matrix, defines an orthogonal projection on \mathbb{F}^n .

Orthogonal projections

A linear map $P : \mathbb{F}^n \mapsto \mathbb{F}^n$ is called an *orthogonal projection* if $P^2 = P$ and $P^T = P$.

Example: $x \mapsto Ax$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^3$ where $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

In fact, any $n \times n$ idempotent symmetric matrix, defines an orthogonal projection on \mathbb{F}^n .

Exercises:

- Given any orthogonal projection P on \mathbb{F}^n , prove the following.
 - $I - P$ is also an orthogonal projection.
 - $N(P) = R(P)^\perp$.
 - $\mathbb{F}^n = R(P) \oplus R(P)^\perp$.
- If U is a subspace of \mathbb{F}^n such that $\mathbb{F}^n = U \oplus U^\perp$ then $P : \mathbb{F}^n \mapsto \mathbb{F}^n$ defined by $Px = x_1$ where $x = x_1 + x_2$, $x_1 \in U$, $x_2 \in U^\perp$, is an orthogonal projection onto U , that is $R(P) = U$.

Orthonormal sets and orthonormal bases

A nonempty subset $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n is said to be an *orthonormal set* if

$$\langle v_i, v_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

Orthonormal sets and orthonormal bases

A nonempty subset $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n is said to be an *orthonormal set* if

$$\langle v_i, v_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

Examples:

- ▶ The canonical basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n where e_i is the i^{th} column of I_n .

- ▶ $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ in \mathbb{R}^3 or \mathbb{C}^3 .

Orthonormal sets and orthonormal bases

A nonempty subset $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n is said to be an *orthonormal set* if

$$\langle v_i, v_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

Examples:

- ▶ The canonical basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n where e_i is the i^{th} column of I_n .

- ▶ $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ in \mathbb{R}^3 or \mathbb{C}^3 .

An orthonormal set is always a linearly independent set.

Orthonormal sets and orthonormal bases

A nonempty subset $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n is said to be an *orthonormal set* if

$$\langle v_i, v_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

Examples:

- ▶ The canonical basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n where e_i is the i^{th} column of I_n .

- ▶ $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ in \mathbb{R}^3 or \mathbb{C}^3 .

An orthonormal set is always a linearly independent set.

An *orthonormal basis* of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n is an orthonormal set with n elements.

Orthonormal sets and orthonormal bases

A nonempty subset $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n is said to be an *orthonormal set* if

$$\langle v_i, v_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

Examples:

- ▶ The canonical basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n where e_i is the i^{th} column of I_n .

- ▶ $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ in \mathbb{R}^3 or \mathbb{C}^3 .

An orthonormal set is always a linearly independent set.

An *orthonormal basis* of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n is an orthonormal set with n elements.

The canonical basis in \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n is a classic example of an orthonormal basis.

Orthonormal sets and orthonormal bases

A nonempty subset $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n is said to be an *orthonormal set* if

$$\langle v_i, v_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

Examples:

- ▶ The canonical basis $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n where e_i is the i^{th} column of I_n .

- ▶ $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ in \mathbb{R}^3 or \mathbb{C}^3 .

An orthonormal set is always a linearly independent set.

An *orthonormal basis* of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n is an orthonormal set with n elements.

The canonical basis in \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n is a classic example of an orthonormal basis.

Any linearly independent subset of \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n may be converted to an orthonormal set via the process of Gram-Schmidt orthonormalisation.

Classical Gram Schmidt Orthonormalisation

Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ be an ordered set of linearly independent vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . The Classical Gram Schmidt (CGS) process finds an ordered orthonormal set of vectors $\{q_1, \dots, q_m\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n such that

$$\text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_k\} = \text{span}\{q_1, \dots, q_k\}, \quad k = 1, \dots, m.$$

Classical Gram Schmidt Orthonormalisation

Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ be an ordered set of linearly independent vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . The Classical Gram Schmidt (CGS) process finds an ordered orthonormal set of vectors $\{q_1, \dots, q_m\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n such that

$$\text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_k\} = \text{span}\{q_1, \dots, q_k\}, \quad k = 1, \dots, m.$$

Classical Gram Schmidt (CGS):

Step 1: $q_1 := v_1 / \|v_1\|_2$.

Step 2: $q_2 := \underbrace{(v_2 - (v_2^T q_1)q_1)}_{=:\hat{q}_2} / \|v_2 - (v_2^T q_1)q_1\|_2$.

Step k: Assuming that q_1, \dots, q_{k-1} are calculated as above,

$$q_k = \underbrace{(v_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (v_k^T q_i)q_i)}_{=:\hat{q}_k} / \|v_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (v_k^T q_i)q_i\|_2.$$

Classical Gram Schmidt Orthonormalisation

Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ be an ordered set of linearly independent vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . The Classical Gram Schmidt (CGS) process finds an ordered orthonormal set of vectors $\{q_1, \dots, q_m\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n such that

$$\text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_k\} = \text{span}\{q_1, \dots, q_k\}, \quad k = 1, \dots, m.$$

Classical Gram Schmidt (CGS):

Step 1: $q_1 := v_1 / \|v_1\|_2$.

Step 2: $q_2 := \underbrace{(v_2 - (v_2^T q_1)q_1)}_{=:\hat{q}_2} / \|v_2 - (v_2^T q_1)q_1\|_2$.

Step k: Assuming that q_1, \dots, q_{k-1} are calculated as above,

$$q_k = \underbrace{(v_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (v_k^T q_i)q_i)}_{=:\hat{q}_k} / \|v_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (v_k^T q_i)q_i\|_2.$$

Exercise: Show that CGS applied to the basis $\{e_1 + e_2, e_2, e_2 + e_3\}$ in \mathbb{R}^3 produces the ordered orthonormal basis

$$\{(e_1 + e_2)/\sqrt{2}, (e_2 - e_1)/\sqrt{2}, e_3\}.$$

Unitary/Orthogonal matrices

Unitary matrices are square matrices such that $Q^* = Q^{-1}$.

A real unitary matrix is called an orthogonal matrix.

Unitary/Orthogonal matrices

Unitary matrices are square matrices such that $Q^* = Q^{-1}$.

A real unitary matrix is called an orthogonal matrix.

Evidently, a square matrix Q is unitary (orthogonal) if and only if its columns form an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n (\mathbb{C}^n).

Unitary/Orthogonal matrices

Unitary matrices are square matrices such that $Q^* = Q^{-1}$.

A real unitary matrix is called an orthogonal matrix.

Evidently, a square matrix Q is unitary (orthogonal) if and only if its columns form an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n (\mathbb{C}^n).

They play a very important role in matrix computations due to their nice properties. In the following let Q be an $n \times n$ unitary matrix.

Unitary/Orthogonal matrices

Unitary matrices are square matrices such that $Q^* = Q^{-1}$.

A real unitary matrix is called an orthogonal matrix.

Evidently, a square matrix Q is unitary (orthogonal) if and only if its columns form an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n (\mathbb{C}^n).

They play a very important role in matrix computations due to their nice properties. In the following let Q be an $n \times n$ unitary matrix.

- ▶ $\langle Qx, Qy \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$.
- ▶ $\|Qx\|_2 = \|x\|_2$.
- ▶ $\|QB\|_2 = \|B\|_2$ for any $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$.
- ▶ $\|Q\|_2 = 1$ and $\|Q\|_F = \sqrt{n}$.
- ▶ $\kappa_2(Q) = 1$.
- ▶ Q^*AQ is Hermitian if A is Hermitian.
- ▶ If A is real symmetric and Q is orthogonal, then $Q^T A Q$ is also real symmetric.
- ▶ In the presence of rounding errors, $fl(QA) = Q(A + E)$ where $\|E\|_2 / \|A\|_2$ is $O(u)$.

Unitary/Orthogonal matrices

Unitary matrices are square matrices such that $Q^* = Q^{-1}$.

A real unitary matrix is called an orthogonal matrix.

Evidently, a square matrix Q is unitary (orthogonal) if and only if its columns form an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n (\mathbb{C}^n).

They play a very important role in matrix computations due to their nice properties. In the following let Q be an $n \times n$ unitary matrix.

- ▶ $\langle Qx, Qy \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n$.
- ▶ $\|Qx\|_2 = \|x\|_2$.
- ▶ $\|QB\|_2 = \|B\|_2$ for any $B \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$.
- ▶ $\|Q\|_2 = 1$ and $\|Q\|_F = \sqrt{n}$.
- ▶ $\kappa_2(Q) = 1$. Prove these properties!
- ▶ Q^*AQ is Hermitian if A is Hermitian.
- ▶ If A is real symmetric and Q is orthogonal, then $Q^T A Q$ is also real symmetric.
- ▶ In the presence of rounding errors, $fl(QA) = Q(A + E)$ where $\|E\|_2 / \|A\|_2$ is $O(u)$.

Isometry

A matrix $Q \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$, or $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ with $n > m$, is said to be an isometry if $Q^* Q = I_m$.

Isometry

A matrix $Q \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$, or $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ with $n > m$, is said to be an isometry if $Q^* Q = I_m$.

Clearly a matrix Q with more rows than columns is an isometry if and only if its columns form an orthonormal set in \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n .

Isometry

A matrix $Q \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times m}$, or $\mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ with $n > m$, is said to be an isometry if $Q^* Q = I_m$.

Clearly a matrix Q with more rows than columns is an isometry if and only if its columns form an orthonormal set in \mathbb{R}^n or \mathbb{C}^n .

Isometries have properties very similar to that of unitary matrices.

Given an $n \times m$ isometry $Q = [q_1 \cdots q_m]$,

- ▶ $\langle Qx, Qy \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{C}^m$.
- ▶ $\|Qx\|_2 = \|x\|_2$.
- ▶ $\|QB\|_2 = \|B\|_2$ for any $B \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times m}$.
- ▶ $\|Q\|_2 = 1$ and $\|Q\|_F = \sqrt{m}$.
- ▶ $\kappa_2(Q) = 1$.
- ▶ In the presence of rounding errors, $fl(QA) = Q(A + E)$ where $\|E\|_2 / \|A\|_2$ is $O(u)$.
- ▶ QQ^* is the orthogonal projection onto $\text{span}\{q_1, \dots, q_m\}$, that is, $QQ^*v = v$ for all $v \in \text{span}\{q_1, \dots, q_m\}$ and $QQ^*w = 0$ for all $w \in \{q_1, \dots, q_m\}^\perp$. **Prove this!**

Suggested resources for further study

- ▶ G. Strang, Linear Algebra and Its Applications, Cengage Learning, 4th Edition, 2006.
- ▶ J. Gilbert and L. Gilbert, Linear Algebra and Matrix Theory, Academic Press, 1995.
- ▶ [MIT OCW on Linear Algebra](#).