## Chapter 5

## **Inner Product Spaces**

10/6: • We define

$$\ell^{2}(\mathbb{R}) = \left\{ \{a_{n}\}_{n \geq 1} \subset \mathbb{R} : \sum_{1}^{\infty} |a_{n}|^{2} < \infty \right\}$$

- Inner product: A map  $V \times V \to \mathbb{F}$  that takes  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \mapsto \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$ . Denoted by  $\cdot, (\cdot, \cdot), \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ .
- Properties of the inner product:

$$-(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \overline{(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})}$$
 (symmetry).

- 
$$(\alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) = \alpha(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) + \beta(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z})$$
 (linearity).

$$-(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}) \geq 0.$$

$$- (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = 0 \text{ iff } \mathbf{x} = 0.$$

• If  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , then

$$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i y_i$$

• If  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ , then

$$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \bar{y}_i$$

• If  $f, g \in \mathbb{P}_n(t)$ , then

$$(f,g) = \int_{-1}^{1} f\bar{g} \,\mathrm{d}t$$

- The conjugate of a polynomial is the polynomial with the conjugate of the coefficients of the original polynomial. Symbolically, if  $f = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \alpha_i t^i$  is a polynomial, then  $\bar{f} = \sum_{i=0}^{n} \bar{\alpha}_i t^i$ .
- It is a fact that

$$\left| \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \bar{b}_n \right| \le \| (a_n)_{n \ge 1} \| \| (b_n)_{n \ge 1} \|$$

- Suppose we want to define the inner product between two matrices.
  - A common one is

$$(A, B) = \operatorname{tr}(B^*A)$$

where  $B^* = \overline{B}^T = \overline{B^T}$  is the conjugate transpose.

• We define the norm as a function  $V \to [0, \infty)$  given by

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})}$$

- Properties of the norm.
  - $\|\alpha \mathbf{x}\| = |\alpha| \|\mathbf{x}\|.$
  - $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \le \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|.$
  - $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0 \text{ iff } \mathbf{x} = 0.$
- In  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,



Figure 5.1: The unit ball of norms corresponding to  $p = 1, 2, \infty$ .

- The standard norm is

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\sum |x_i|^2}$$

- We can also define

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = \sqrt[p]{\sum |x_i|^p}$$

- We can even define

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} = \max|x_i|$$

- And we can prove that all of these are valid norms.
- Only the norm corresponding to  $\ell^2$  is given by an inner product, but all the other quantities are still norms as defined by the properties (see Treil (2017)).
- Figure 5.1 shows the unit ball of each norm, i.e., the set of all points which have norm 1.
- The parallelogram rule:

$$\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 = 2(\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2)$$

- Orthogonality: Given  $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$ , if  $\mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{w}$ , then  $(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}) = 0$ .
- In particular, if  $\mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{w}$ , then

$$\|\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$$

- Let E be a subspace of V. If  $\mathbf{v} \perp E$ , then  $\mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{e}$  for all  $\mathbf{e} \in E$ , i.e.,  $\mathbf{v} \perp \mathbf{a}$  set of vectors spanning E.
- Any set of orthogonal vectors is linearly independent. Thus, if V is n dimensional, then  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$  orthogonal is a basis.
- Let E be a subspace of V. Take  $\mathbf{v} \in V$ . We want to define the projection  $P_E \mathbf{v}$  of  $\mathbf{v}$  onto E.
  - We have that  $P_E \mathbf{v} \in E$  and  $v P_E \mathbf{v} \perp E$ .
  - Additionally, we have that

$$\|\mathbf{v} - P_E \mathbf{v}\| \le \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{e}\|$$

for all  $\mathbf{e} \in E$ .

- Lastly, we have that  $P_E \mathbf{v}$  is unique.
- If we receive a basis of a vector space, how do we create out of that a basis that is orthogonal? The process of doing this is called **Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization**.
  - We keep  $\mathbf{v}_1$ , subtract  $P_{\mathbf{v}_1}\mathbf{v}_2$  from  $\mathbf{v}_2$ , subtract  $P_{\{\mathbf{v}_1,\mathbf{v}_2\}}\mathbf{v}_3$  from  $\mathbf{v}_3$ , and on and on.
- If we are given a set of orthogonal vectors, we can normalize them by dividing each by its norm. This creates an orthonormal list. The standard basis is orthonormal.
- Let

$$E^{\perp} = \{ v \in V : v \perp E \}$$

- It follows that  $V = E \oplus E^{\perp}$ .
- How close can we come to solving  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  if we cannot solve it exactly (i.e., if the columns are not linearly independent)?
  - Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix, and let  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .
  - Then the best solution is given by minimizing  $||A\mathbf{x} \mathbf{b}||$ . We minimize this with projections. A special case of this is least squares regression! More details in Treil (2017).
- 10/8: Soug is gonna send us a hefty amount of reading for the weekend.
  - Least square approximation:
    - If we want to minimize  $||A\mathbf{x} \mathbf{b}||$ , the best we can do is project **b** onto the range of A.
    - Let  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$  be an orthogonal basis of range A.
    - Then

$$\operatorname{Proj}_{\operatorname{range} A} \mathbf{b} = \sum_{k=1}^{k} \frac{(\mathbf{b}, \mathbf{v}_{k})}{\|v_{k}\|^{2}} \mathbf{v}_{k}$$

- Matrix equation form:

$$Projection_{range A} = A(A^*A)^{-1}A^*$$

if  $A^*A$  is invertible, where  $A^* = \bar{A}^T$ .

- Soug never uses this though.
- The minimum is found when  $\mathbf{b} A\mathbf{x} \perp \text{range } A$ . Implies that  $\mathbf{b} A\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{a}_k$  for all k. Implies  $(\mathbf{b} A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}_k) = \bar{\mathbf{a}}_k^T(\mathbf{b} A\mathbf{x}) = 0$ .
- Note that we're letting  $\bar{\mathbf{a}}_k^T$  be the row vector

$$\bar{\mathbf{a}}_k^T = \begin{pmatrix} \bar{a}_{1,k} & \cdots & \bar{a}_{n,k} \end{pmatrix}$$

- We also have  $\bar{A}^T(\mathbf{b} A\mathbf{x}) = 0$ , from which it follows that  $A^*A\mathbf{x} = A^*\mathbf{b}$ , so  $\mathbf{x} = (A^*A)^{-1}A^*\mathbf{b}$ . Thus,  $\text{Proj}|_{\text{range }A} = Ax$ , so  $\text{Proj}|_{\text{range }A} = A(A^*A)^{-1}A^*\mathbf{b}$ .
- Adjoint of a linear map  $T: V \to W$  is the  $A^*$  discussed above.
  - First, we'll do this for matrices. And then we'll do it for any finite-dimensional vector space.
  - Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix. We claim then that

$$(A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x}, A^*\mathbf{y})$$

for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^m$ . Proof:

$$(A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \bar{\mathbf{y}}^T A \mathbf{x}$$
$$= \mathbf{y}^* A \mathbf{x}$$
$$= (A^* \mathbf{y})^* \mathbf{x}$$
$$= (\mathbf{x}, A^* \mathbf{y})$$

- Properties of the adjoint:

$$(AB)^{T} = B^{T}A^{T}$$
$$(AB)^{*} = B^{*}A^{*}$$
$$(A^{*})^{*} = A$$

- $-A^*$  is the unique matrix B such that  $(A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x}, B\mathbf{y})$ .
- Let  $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_n$  be a basis of V, and let  $\mathbf{w}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{w}_m$  be a basis of W.
- Definition of  $A^*$ : If  $(A\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (y, A^*\mathbf{x})$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in V$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in W$ .
- But it's not enough to define something; we have to check that it exists.
- If  $[A]_{\mathcal{AB}}$ , then  $[A^*]_{\mathcal{AB}}$ .
- More properties (give criteria for solving systems of equations):

$$\ker A^* = (\operatorname{range} A)^{\perp}$$
  
 $\ker A = (\operatorname{range} A^*)^{\perp}$   
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 $\operatorname{range} A^* = (\ker A)^{\perp}$ 

- Soug proves these.
- Isometries and unitary operators.
  - $-U: X \to Y$  is an isometry if  $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \|U\mathbf{x}\|$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in X$ . It is an isometry because it preserves the distance between points.
  - It immediately follows that  $\|\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2\| = \|U\mathbf{x}_1 U\mathbf{x}_2\| = \|U(\mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{x}_2)\|$ .
  - This definition is equivalent to an inner product one:  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (U\mathbf{x}, U\mathbf{y})$ . This follows from the definition of the norm.
  - We have

$$(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{\alpha = \pm 1, \pm i} \alpha \|\mathbf{a} + \alpha \mathbf{b}\|^2$$

■  $(a+b)^2 - (a-b)^2 = 4ab$  for any  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ , so  $ab = \frac{1}{4}[(a+b)^2 - (a-b)^2]$ . Thus, in a real inner product space,

$$(\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b}) = \frac{1}{4} (\|\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}\|^2 - \|\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}\|^2)$$

- It follows that isometries preserve inner products.
- U is an isometry if and only if  $U^*U = I$ . Proof:

$$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) = (U\mathbf{x}, U\mathbf{y}) = (U^*U\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x})$$
$$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (U\mathbf{x}, U\mathbf{y}) = (U^*U\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$
$$(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = (U\mathbf{x}, U\mathbf{y}) = (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

for all  $\mathbf{y}$ .

- An isometry is unitary if it is invertible.
  - Thus,  $U: X \to Y$  an isometry is unitary iff dim  $X = \dim Y$ .
- Note that it follows that  $U^* = U^{-1}$  for U an isometry.
- U unitary implies  $|\det U| = 1$ , so  $\lambda$  an eigenvalue of U implies that  $|\lambda| = 1$ .
- A is diagonalizable iff it has an orthogonal basis of eigenvectors.