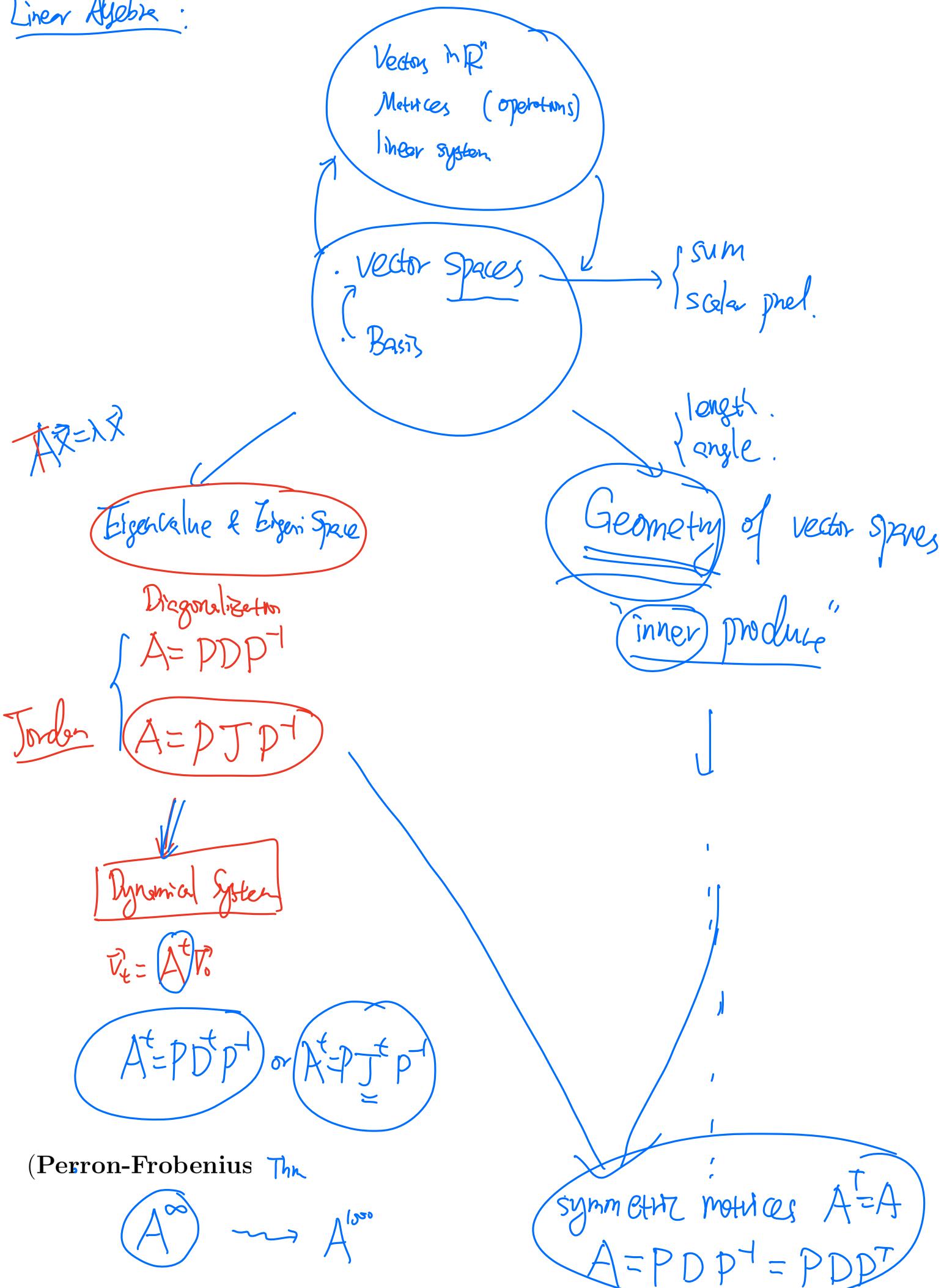


Linear Algebra:



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§6 Inner product spaces

Contents

1. Inner Product Spaces

Recall that for vectors $\vec{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix}$ and $\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$ in \mathbb{R}^n , the dot product of \vec{u} and \vec{v} is

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} := u_1 v_1 + \dots + u_n v_n$$

$$\overbrace{\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n}^{\text{Domain}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

$$(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) \rightarrow \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}$$

$$\|\vec{u}\| = \sqrt{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}} = \sqrt{u_1^2 + \dots + u_n^2}$$

$$\text{dist}(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = \|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|$$

$$\cos \angle(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v}}{\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|}$$

Theorem 1 (Properties of the dot Product). *For vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and a scalar $c \in \mathbb{R}$, the following hold:*

$$(1.) \quad \vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v} \cdot \vec{u}$$

$$(2.) \quad (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) \cdot \vec{w} = \vec{u} \cdot \vec{w} + \vec{v} \cdot \vec{w}$$

$$(3.) \quad (c\vec{u}) \cdot \vec{v} = c(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v})$$

$$(4.) \quad \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} \geq 0$$

$$(5.) \quad \vec{u} \cdot \vec{u} = 0 \Leftrightarrow \vec{u} = \vec{0}$$

Definition 2 (Inner Product). Let V be a real vector space. An inner product on V is a binary function

$$\langle -, - \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \underline{\mathbb{R}}, \mathbb{C}$$

such that for vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v}, \vec{w} \in V$ and a scalar $c \in \mathbb{R}$, the following hold:

- (1.) $\langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle = \langle \vec{v}, \vec{u} \rangle$.
- (2.) $\langle \vec{u} + \vec{v}, \vec{w} \rangle = \langle \vec{u}, \vec{w} \rangle + \langle \vec{v}, \vec{w} \rangle$.
- (3.) $\langle c\vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle = c\langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle$.
- (4.) $\langle \vec{u}, \vec{u} \rangle \geq 0$
- (5.) $\langle \vec{u}, \vec{u} \rangle = 0$ if and only if $\vec{u} = \vec{0}$.

We call V an **inner product space**.

$$(1), (3) \Rightarrow \langle \vec{u}, c\vec{v} \rangle = \bar{c} \langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle$$

Ex: In \mathbb{C}^n , the dot prod. is $\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i \bar{v}_i$

$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{u}^T \vec{v} = \vec{v}^T \vec{u}$$

Example 3. (Weighted dot products) Let c_1, \dots, c_n be positive numbers. The weighted inner product on \mathbb{R}^n is

$$\langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle_w := \sum_{i=1}^n c_i u_i v_i$$

$\boxed{\begin{matrix} & \\ & := \vec{u}^T W \vec{v} \\ & \end{matrix}}$

$n \times n \quad n \times n \quad n \times 1$

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 & & & \\ & c_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & c_n \end{bmatrix}$$

More generally

for W • symmetric

• W positive definite (all eigenvalues > 0)

Example 4. Let $P_n(\mathbb{R})$ be the vector space of polynomials of degree at most n with coefficient in \mathbb{F} . An inner product on $P_n(\mathbb{R})$ can be defined as

\mathbb{C}

$$\langle f(t), g(t) \rangle := \int_a^b f(t) \cdot \bar{g(t)} dt$$

$$V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

Definition 5. Two vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} are called orthogonal if

$$\langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle = 0$$

2. Norms (length)

Definition 6 (Norm of a Vector). Let V be a inner product space over \mathbb{F} . The **length** or **norm** of a vector $\vec{v} \in V$, denoted by $\|\vec{v}\|$, is defined as

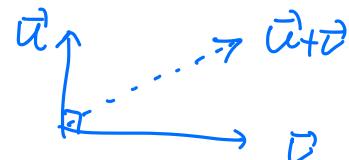
$$\|\vec{v}\| := \sqrt{\langle \vec{v}, \vec{v} \rangle}$$

- $\|\vec{v}\| \geq 0$. $\|\vec{v}\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow \vec{v} = \vec{0}$
- Unit vector \vec{u} if $\|\vec{u}\| = 1$

Proposition 7. For any vector $\vec{v} \in V$ and any scalar $c \in \mathbb{F}$ one obtains

$$\|c \cdot \vec{v}\| = |c| \cdot \|\vec{v}\|.$$

$$\|c \cdot \vec{v}\|^2 = \langle c\vec{v}, c\vec{v} \rangle = c^2 \langle \vec{v}, \vec{v} \rangle = c^2 \|\vec{v}\|^2$$

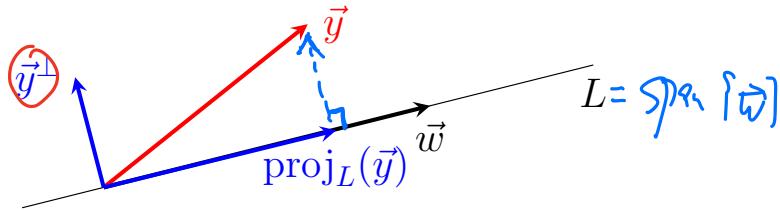


Theorem 8 (Pythagorean Theorem). If two vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$ are orthogonal, then they satisfy the **Pythagorean Relation**

$$\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 = \|\vec{u}\|^2 + \|\vec{v}\|^2.$$

$$\langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle \vec{u} + \vec{v}, \vec{u} + \vec{v} \rangle =$$



Definition 9. Let $L = \text{Span}\{\vec{w}\}$ be the subspace in V spanned by $\vec{w} \in V$. For a given vector $\vec{y} \in V$, the orthogonal projection of \vec{y} onto L

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{proj}_L(\vec{y}) := c \vec{w} \\ \langle \vec{y} - \text{proj}_L(\vec{y}), \vec{w} \rangle = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

\vec{y}^\perp

Proposition 10. Let \vec{w} be a nonzero vector in V . Any vector $\vec{y} \in V$ can be uniquely written as the sum of a scalar product of $\vec{w} \in V$ and a vector orthogonal to \vec{w} .

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \vec{y} - c\vec{w}, \vec{w} \rangle &= 0 \\ \langle \vec{y}, \vec{w} \rangle - c \langle \vec{w}, \vec{w} \rangle &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad \Rightarrow \quad c = \frac{\langle \vec{y}, \vec{w} \rangle}{\langle \vec{w}, \vec{w} \rangle}$$

Theorem 11 (Cauchy-Schwarz inequality).

$$|\langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle| \leq \|\vec{x}\| \|\vec{y}\|$$

Equality holds $\Leftrightarrow \vec{y} = c\vec{x}$

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

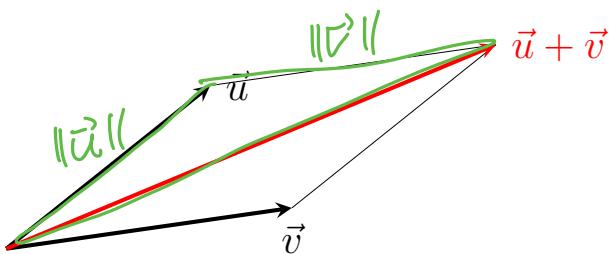
$$\vec{y} = \text{proj}_{\vec{x}} \vec{y} + \vec{y}^\perp$$

$$\|\vec{y}\|^2 = \langle \vec{y}, \vec{y} \rangle = \left\| \text{proj}_{\vec{x}} \vec{y} \right\|^2 \quad \|\vec{y}^\perp\|^2 \geq \left\| \text{proj}_{\vec{x}} \vec{y} \right\|^2$$

$$= \frac{\langle \vec{y}, \vec{x} \rangle^2}{\|\vec{x}\|^2}$$

Proposition 12 (Triangle Inequality). Two vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$ satisfy

$$\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| \leq \|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{v}\|.$$



Definition 13. (Angles Between Vectors) The angle between two nonzero vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in V$ is the angle $0 \leq \theta \leq \pi$ satisfying

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle \vec{u}, \vec{v} \rangle}{\|\vec{u}\| \|\vec{v}\|}$$

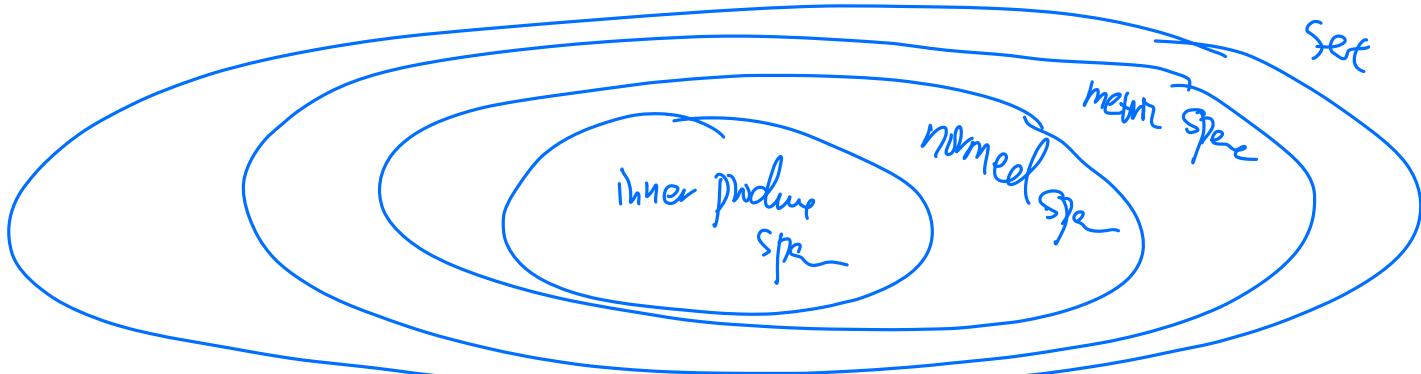
A vector space V with norm is called a **normed vector space**.

Definition 14. A norm on V is a map from V to \mathbb{F} such that

- (1) $\|\vec{x}\| \geq 0$ for all $\vec{x} \in V$. $\|\vec{x}\| = 0$ if and only if $\vec{x} = \vec{0}$.
- (2) $\|c\vec{x}\| = |c| \|\vec{x}\|$ for all $\vec{x} \in V$ and $c \in \mathbb{F}$.
- (3) The triangle inequality $\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\| \leq \|\vec{u}\| + \|\vec{v}\|$ holds for all vectors in V .

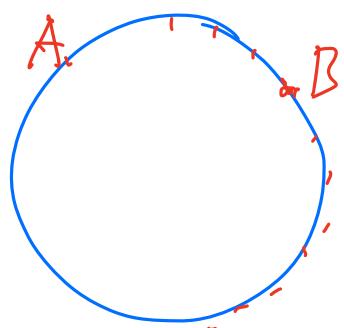
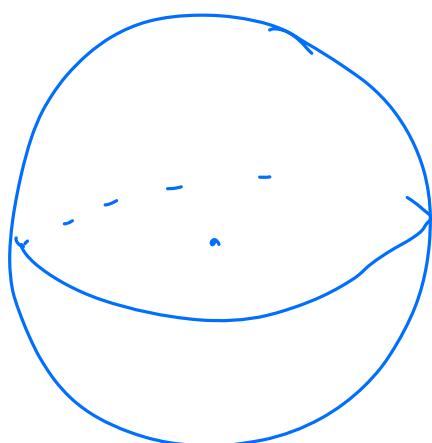
$$\text{Ex: } \|\vec{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle \vec{x}, \vec{x} \rangle}$$

$$\|\vec{u} + \vec{v}\|^2 + \|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\|^2 = 2\|\vec{u}\|^2 + 2\|\vec{v}\|^2$$



Ex: discrete metric

$$\text{dist}(A, B) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } A=B \\ 1 & \text{if } A \neq B \end{cases}$$



Distance (metric) on a set S is a binary map

$$\text{dist}(\ , \): S \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

such that (1) $\text{dist}(A, B) = \text{dist}(B, A)$

(2) $\text{dist}(A, B) = 0 \Leftrightarrow A = B$

(3) $\text{dist}(A, C) \leq \text{dist}(A, B) + \text{dist}(B, C)$

→ inner prod.

Definition 15 (Distance Between Vectors). The distance $\text{dist}(\vec{u}, \vec{v})$ between vectors $\vec{u}, \vec{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is defined as

$$\text{dist}(\vec{u}, \vec{v}) = \|\vec{u} - \vec{v}\| = \sqrt{(u_1 - v_1)^2 + \dots + (u_n - v_n)^2}.$$



$$[\vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_2, \dots, \vec{u}_n] = \vec{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Example 16. (l^p spaces) Let $1 \leq p < \infty$, it is natural to define l^p norms on \mathbb{R}^n

$$l^1 \text{ norm: } \|\vec{u}\|_{l^1} := \sum_{i=1}^n |u_i| + |u_1| + \dots + |u_n|. \quad \|\vec{u}\|_{l_p} \neq \text{any } \sqrt[p]{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}} \quad \text{for } p=1, 3, 4, \dots$$

$$l^2 \text{ norm: } \|\vec{u}\|_{l^2} = \sqrt{u_1^2 + \dots + u_n^2} = \sqrt{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}} = \|\vec{u}\|$$

$$l^p \text{ norm: } \|\vec{u}\|_{l_p} := \sqrt[p]{|u_1|^p + \dots + |u_n|^p}$$

Example 17. (l^∞ spaces) It is natural to define l^∞ norms on \mathbb{R}^n

$$\|\vec{x}\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \{ |x_i| \}$$

$F = \mathbb{R}$

Example 18. (Norms on $\mathbb{F}^{m \times n}$ induced by norms on \mathbb{F}^n) Normed matrix vector spaces $\mathbb{F}^{m \times n}$. Using norms on \mathbb{F}^n , one can define norms on matrix vector spaces

$$\|A\| := \sup \left\{ \|A\vec{x}\| \mid \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ and } \|\vec{x}\|=1 \right\}$$

↑
smallest upperbound.

Example 19. Infinity norm on $\mathbb{F}^{m \times n}$.

$$\|A\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}| \right\}$$

$$\boxed{\begin{array}{c} |a_{11}| + |a_{12}| + \dots + |a_{1n}| \\ |a_{21}| + |a_{22}| + \dots + |a_{2n}| \\ \vdots \\ |a_{n1}| + |a_{n2}| + \dots + |a_{nn}| \end{array}}$$

3. Orthogonal Projections and Orthonormal Bases

Definition 20 (Orthogonal Set). A set $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}$ of vectors in a inner vector space V is called **orthogonal** if

$$\langle \vec{u}_i, \vec{u}_j \rangle = 0 \quad \text{for } \forall i \neq j.$$

Proposition 21. • Orthogonal vectors are linear independent.

- Orthogonal vectors $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_n\}$ in \mathbb{R}^n form a basis of \mathbb{R}^n .

dim V = n

Definition 22. • An **orthogonal basis** for a subspace W of an inner product space V is any basis for W which is also an orthogonal set.
 • If each vector is a **unit** vector in an orthogonal basis, then it is an orthonormal basis.

Theorem 23 (Coordinates with respect to an orthogonal basis). Let $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}$ be an **orthogonal** basis for a subspace W of an inner product space V , and let \vec{y} be any vector in W . Then

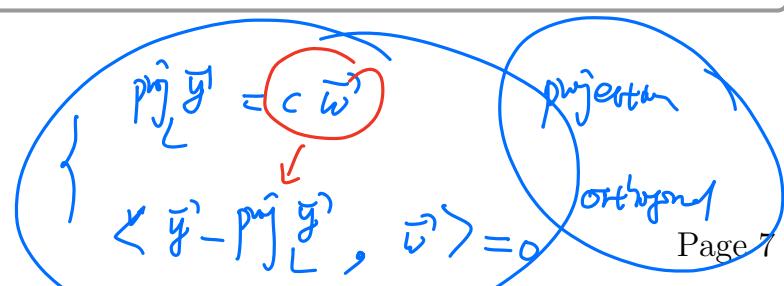
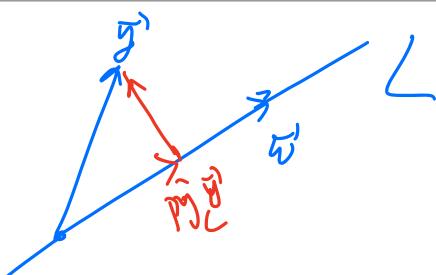
$$\vec{y} = \vec{y} = \left(\frac{\langle \vec{y}, \vec{u}_1 \rangle}{\langle \vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_1 \rangle} \right) \vec{u}_1 + \cdots + \left(\frac{\langle \vec{y}, \vec{u}_p \rangle}{\langle \vec{u}_p, \vec{u}_p \rangle} \right) \vec{u}_p$$

If $W = \mathbb{R}^n$, then the \mathcal{B} -coordinates of \vec{y} are given by:

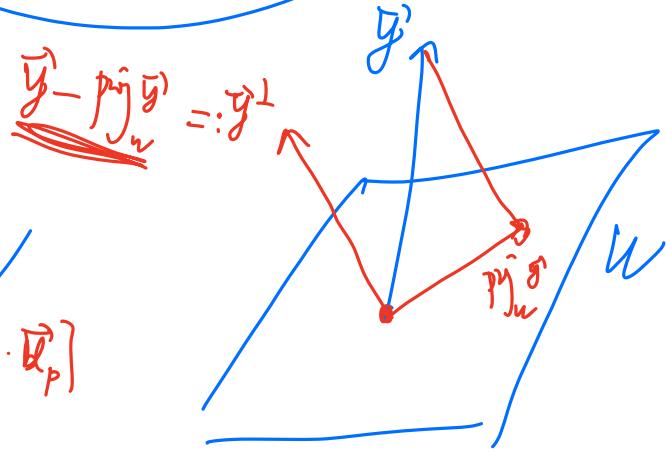
$$[\vec{y}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{with} \quad c_i = \frac{\langle \vec{y}, \vec{u}_i \rangle}{\langle \vec{u}_i, \vec{u}_i \rangle} = \frac{\langle \vec{y}, \vec{u}_i \rangle}{\|\vec{u}_i\|^2}$$

In particular, let $\mathcal{B} = \{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}$ be an **orthonormal** basis for a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n , and let \vec{y} be any vector in W . Then

$$\vec{y} = \langle \vec{y}, \vec{u}_1 \rangle \vec{u}_1 + \cdots + \langle \vec{y}, \vec{u}_p \rangle \vec{u}_p$$



- \checkmark inner product space.



- $\vec{y} \in V$ and $\underline{W \text{ sub space of } V}$
basis of W is $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}$
- $\vec{y} \notin W$

Def: Orthogonal projection of \vec{y} onto W .

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{proj}_W \vec{y} = c_1 \vec{u}_1 + \dots + c_p \vec{u}_p \\ \langle \vec{y}^\perp, W \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow \langle \vec{y}^\perp, \vec{u}_i \rangle = 0 \text{ for } i=1, \dots, p \end{array} \right.$$

If $\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p$ orthogonal, then

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \langle \vec{y} - (c_1 \vec{u}_1 + \dots + c_p \vec{u}_p), \vec{u}_1 \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow c_1 = \dots \\ \langle \vec{y} - (c_1 \vec{u}_1 + \dots + c_p \vec{u}_p), \vec{u}_p \rangle = 0 \Rightarrow c_p = \dots \end{array} \right.$$

Theorem 24 (Orthogonal Decomposition). Let W be any subspace of V and let $\vec{y} \in V$ be any vector. Then there exists a unique decomposition

$$\vec{y} = \text{proj}_W(\vec{y}) + \vec{y}^\perp$$

with $\text{proj}_W(\vec{y}) \in W$ and \vec{y}^\perp is perpendicular to W .

~~Theorem 25~~ (Orthogonal Decomposition). If $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}$ is an orthogonal basis for W , then

$$\text{proj}_W(\vec{y}) = \left(\frac{\langle \vec{y}, \vec{u}_1 \rangle}{\langle \vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_1 \rangle} \right) \vec{u}_1 + \dots + \left(\frac{\langle \vec{y}, \vec{u}_p \rangle}{\langle \vec{u}_p, \vec{u}_p \rangle} \right) \vec{u}_p$$

and $\vec{y}^\perp = \vec{y} - \text{proj}_W(\vec{y})$.

inner product space

Definition 26 (Orthogonal Complements). Given a nonempty subset (finite or infinite) W of V , its orthogonal complement W^\perp is the set of all vectors $\vec{v} \in V$ orthogonal to W .

$$\begin{aligned} W^\perp &:= \{ \text{all vectors in } V \text{ orthogonal to } W \} \\ &= \{ \vec{v} \in V \mid \langle \vec{v}, \vec{w} \rangle = 0 \text{ for any } \vec{w} \in W \} \end{aligned}$$

Ex: $W = \left\{ \vec{w}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \vec{w}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\} \subset \mathbb{R}^2$

in $A = S = \text{Span}(W)$

$S^\perp = W^\perp = \left\{ \vec{v} \in V \mid \begin{array}{l} \langle \vec{v}, \vec{w}_1 \rangle = 0 \\ \langle \vec{v}, \vec{w}_2 \rangle = 0 \end{array} \right\}$

$\Rightarrow \langle \vec{v}, c_1 \vec{w}_1 + c_2 \vec{w}_2 \rangle = 0$

$\vec{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{bmatrix}$

$\begin{cases} v_1 + 2v_2 + v_3 = 0 \\ 2v_1 + 3v_2 + 4v_3 = 0 \end{cases}$

$\Rightarrow \text{ker} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{ker}(A^T) = (\text{im } A)^\perp$

Theorem 27. Let S be a subset of V . Let $W = \text{Span}(S)$, then

$$(1) W^\perp = S^\perp$$

(2) S^\perp is a subspace of V .

$$(3) (W^\perp)^\perp = W$$

Hence
* (4) $\dim(W) + \dim(W^\perp) = \dim V$.

$$(5) W \cap W^\perp = \{0\}$$

Theorem 28. Let W be a subspace of V , then

$$V = W + W^\perp$$

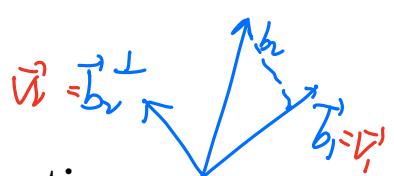
$$V = W \oplus W^\perp$$

Theorem 29. Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix, then

$$(\text{Row } A)^\perp = \ker(A) \quad \text{and} \quad (\text{im } A)^\perp = \ker A^T.$$

Moreover,

$$\mathbb{F}^m = \ker A^T \oplus \text{im } A$$



4. Gram-Schmidt process and QR-factorization

The **Gram-Schmidt process** is an algorithm that produces an orthogonal (or orthonormal) basis for any subspace W of V by starting with any basis for W .

Theorem 30 (Gram-Schmidt (Orthogonalize)). Let W be a subspace of V and let $\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_p$ be a basis for W . Define vectors $\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p$ as

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{v}_1 &= \vec{b}_1 \\ \vec{v}_2 &= \vec{b}_2 - \underbrace{\text{proj}_{\vec{v}_1} \vec{b}_2}_{\vec{b}_2 - \frac{\langle \vec{b}_2, \vec{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_1 \rangle} \vec{v}_1} = \vec{b}_2 - \frac{\langle \vec{b}_2, \vec{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_1 \rangle} \vec{v}_1 \\ \vec{v}_3 &= \vec{b}_3 - \underbrace{\text{proj}_{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2} \vec{b}_3}_{\vec{b}_3 - \frac{\langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_1 \rangle} \vec{v}_1 - \frac{\langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{v}_2 \rangle}{\langle \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_2 \rangle} \vec{v}_2} = \vec{b}_3 - \frac{\langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_1 \rangle} \vec{v}_1 - \frac{\langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{v}_2 \rangle}{\langle \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_2 \rangle} \vec{v}_2 \\ &\vdots\end{aligned}$$

Then $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p\}$ is an orthogonal basis for W .

Theorem 31 (Gram-Schmidt (Normalize)). If $\{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p\}$ is an orthogonal basis for W , then

$$\left\{ \vec{w}_i = \frac{\vec{v}_i}{\|\vec{v}_i\|} \quad \text{for } i=1, \dots, p \right\} \text{ is an orthonormal basis.}$$

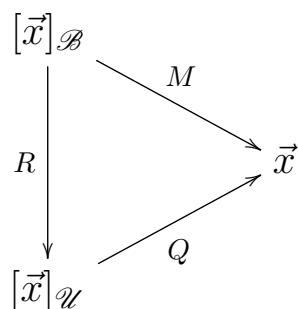
Basis $\xrightarrow{\text{orthogonalize}}$ Orthogonal basis $\xrightarrow{\text{normalize}}$ Orthonormal basis.

QR-Factorization.

QR-Factorization is the matrix version of Gram-Schmidt process for a subspace W of \mathbb{F}^n :

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Basis } \mathcal{B} = \{\vec{b}_1, \dots, \vec{b}_p\} \xrightarrow{\text{orthogonalize}} \text{Orthogonal basis } \mathcal{V} = \{\vec{v}_1, \dots, \vec{v}_p\} \\ \xrightarrow{\text{normalize}} \text{Orthonormal basis } \mathcal{U} = \{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}. \end{array}$$

Given a vector in W , let's compare their coordinates:



Each matrix defines an isomorphism. So, $M = QR$.

Here $M = [\vec{b}_1 \dots \vec{b}_p]$ and $Q = [\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p]$.

$\underbrace{\vec{b}_1 \dots \vec{b}_p}_{n \times p} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Theorem 32. Given a $n \times p$ matrix $M = [\vec{b}_1 \dots \vec{b}_p]$ with independent columns. There is a unique decomposition

$$M = \underbrace{Q}_{\text{Orthonormal}} \underbrace{R}_{\text{Upper triangular}}$$

where, $Q = [\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p]$ has orthonormal columns and R is an $p \times p$ upper triangular matrix with

$$r_{ii} = \|\vec{v}_i\| \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, p \text{ and } r_{ij} = \langle \vec{u}_i, \vec{b}_j \rangle \text{ for } i < j.$$

Proof. Proof(for $p = 3$): From Gram-Schmidt process, write \vec{b}_i as linear combinations of \vec{u}_i .

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned}\vec{b}_1 &= \vec{v}_1 = \|\vec{v}_1\| \vec{u}_1 \\ \vec{b}_2 &= \vec{v}_2 + \frac{\langle \vec{b}_2, \vec{v}_1 \rangle}{\|\vec{v}_1\|^2} \vec{v}_1 = \|\vec{v}_2\| \vec{u}_2 + \langle \vec{b}_2, \vec{u}_1 \rangle \vec{u}_1 \\ \vec{b}_3 &= \vec{v}_3 + \frac{\langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{v}_1 \rangle}{\|\vec{v}_1\|^2} \vec{v}_1 + \frac{\langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{v}_2 \rangle}{\|\vec{v}_2\|^2} \vec{v}_2 = \|\vec{v}_3\| \vec{u}_3 + \langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{u}_1 \rangle \vec{u}_1 + \langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{u}_2 \rangle \vec{u}_2\end{aligned}}$$

So,

$$[\vec{b}_1 \vec{b}_2 \vec{b}_3] = [\vec{u}_1 \vec{u}_2 \vec{u}_3] \begin{bmatrix} \|\vec{v}_1\| & \langle \vec{u}_1, \vec{b}_2 \rangle & \langle \vec{u}_1, \vec{b}_3 \rangle \\ 0 & \|\vec{v}_2\| & \langle \vec{u}_2, \vec{b}_3 \rangle \\ 0 & 0 & \|\vec{v}_3\| \end{bmatrix} \quad Q^T = \begin{bmatrix} \vec{u}_1^T \\ \vec{u}_2^T \\ \vec{u}_3^T \end{bmatrix}$$

$\text{rank } M = p$

$m \times p \quad n \times p \quad p \times p$

$M = QR$

$$Q^T Q = I_p$$

$$QQ^T \neq I_n$$

5. Orthogonal Transformations and Orthogonal Matrices

Let V be a inner product space.

$$\text{ord } T = R$$

$n \times n$

Definition 33. A linear transformation $T : V \rightarrow V$ is called **orthogonal** if

$$\|T(\vec{x})\| = \|\vec{x}\| \text{ for all } \vec{x} \in V$$

that is, T preserves the length of vectors.

Example 34. Whether or not the following transformations are orthogonal.

(1.) **Rotations** $S : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ are orthogonal transformations.

The matrix of rotation $S = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{bmatrix}$ is orthogonal.

(2.) **Reflections** $R : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ are orthogonal transformations.

The matrix of reflection matrix $R = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b & -a \end{bmatrix}$ with $a^2 + b^2 = 1$ is orthogonal.

(3.) **Orthogonal projections** $P : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$ are NOT orthogonal transformations.

The matrix of an **orthogonal transformation** $T_u : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is called an **orthogonal matrix**.

$$\|T(\vec{x})\| = \|\vec{x}\|$$

$$\vec{x} \rightarrow (I_x)$$

Theorem 35. Let U be an $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix and let \vec{x} and \vec{y} be any vectors in \mathbb{F}^n . Then

- (1) $\|U\vec{x}\| = \|\vec{x}\|$
- (2) $\langle U\vec{x}, U\vec{y} \rangle = \langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle$.
- (3) $\langle U\vec{x}, U\vec{y} \rangle = 0$ if and only if $\langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle = 0$.

To preserve the angle.

Proposition 36. U is an orthogonal matrix if and only if $\langle U\vec{x}, U\vec{y} \rangle = \langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle$ for any \vec{x} and \vec{y} in \mathbb{R}^n .

Using the geometric meaning of the orthogonal transformation, we have

Theorem 37. 1. If A is orthogonal, then A is invertible and A^{-1} is orthogonal.
2. If A and B are orthogonal, then AB is orthogonal.

Theorem 38. The $n \times n$ matrix U is orthogonal if and only if $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_n\}$ is an orthonormal set.

Thm: U is orthogonal $\Leftrightarrow \|U\vec{x}\| = \|\vec{x}\|$ for all \vec{x}



$$\Leftrightarrow \langle U\vec{x}, U\vec{y} \rangle = \langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle$$

$$\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_n\} \text{ orthonormal} \Leftrightarrow \vec{u}_i \cdot \vec{u}_j = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \\ 1 & \text{if } i = j \end{cases}$$

$\vec{u}_i^T \vec{u}_j$

$$\Leftrightarrow U^T U = I_n$$

$$\Leftrightarrow U^{-1} = U^T$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} u_1 \cdot u_1, u_1 \cdot u_2, \dots \\ u_2 \cdot u_1, u_2 \cdot u_2, \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{bmatrix} =$$

Application to real matrix A .

Recall the transpose of a matrix: Given an $m \times n$ matrix A , we define the **transpose matrix** A^T as the $n \times m$ matrix whose (i, j) -th entry is the (j, i) -th entry of A . The dot product can be written as matrix product

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = \vec{v}^T \vec{w}$$

Theorem 39. The $n \times n$ matrix A is orthogonal if and only if $A^T A = I_n$; if and only if $A^{-1} = A^T$.

$$\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\} \text{ orthonormal} \Leftrightarrow U^T U = I_p$$

$$\mathbb{R}^n \xrightarrow{U^T} \mathbb{R}^n$$

$U U^T$ $n \times n$

$U U^T \neq I_n$

Theorem 40. Let \underline{W} be any subspace of \mathbb{R}^n with an orthonormal basis $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}$. Let $U = [\vec{u}_1 \ \vec{u}_2 \ \dots \ \vec{u}_p]$. For any $\vec{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\text{proj}_W(\vec{y}) = \underline{UU^T \vec{y}}.$$

That is, the **matrix of the projection** onto W is

$$P = \underline{UU^T}$$

Ex: $\mathcal{W} = \{a_0 + a_1t + a_2t^2\} = \text{Span}\{1, t, t^2\}$

- inner product $\langle f(t), g(t) \rangle = \int_0^1 f(t)g(t) dt$.

- $\{1, t, t^2\}$ is a basis for \mathcal{W}

Q: Gram-Schmidt process find orthogonal basis for \mathcal{W}

$$\vec{v}_1 = \vec{b}_1 = 1$$

$$\vec{v}_2 = \vec{b}_2 - \text{proj}_{\vec{v}_1} \vec{b}_2 = t - \frac{\int_0^1 t dt}{\int_0^1 1 dt} \cdot 1 = t - \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\vec{v}_3 = \vec{b}_3 - \frac{\langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{v}_1 \rangle}{\langle \vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_1 \rangle} \vec{v}_1 - \frac{\langle \vec{b}_3, \vec{v}_2 \rangle}{\langle \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_2 \rangle} \vec{v}_2 = t^2 - \frac{\int_0^1 t^2 dt}{\int_0^1 1 dt} \cdot 1 - \frac{\int_0^1 t^2(t-\frac{1}{2}) dt}{\int_0^1 (t-\frac{1}{2})^2 dt} (t-\frac{1}{2})$$

$$= t^2 - t + \frac{1}{6}$$

$$\vec{u}_1 = 1$$

$$\vec{u}_2 = \frac{\vec{v}_2}{\|\vec{v}_2\|} = \sqrt{2} \left(t - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$\vec{u}_3 = \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}} \left(t^2 - t + \frac{1}{6} \right)$$

orthonormal basis for \mathcal{W} .

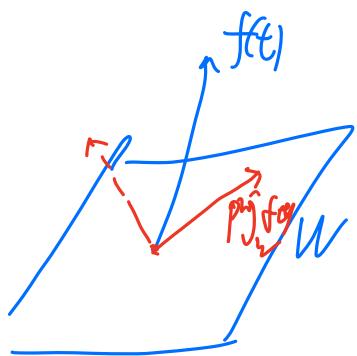
$$\|f(t)\| = \sqrt{\int_0^1 f(t)^2 dt}$$

$$\|f(t) - g(t)\| = \sqrt{\int_0^1 (f(t) - g(t))^2 dt}$$

Ex: $V = \{ \text{all cont. functions } \mathbb{R} \xrightarrow{f} \mathbb{R} \}$ $\langle f(t), g(t) \rangle = \int_0^1 f \cdot g dt$

$W = \text{Span } \{1, t, t^2\}$

$f(t) = e^t \in V \quad f(t) \notin W.$



Q. $\hat{\text{proj}}_W f(t) = ?$

METHOD 1

~~Theorem 25~~ (Orthogonal Decomposition). If $\{\vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_p\}$ is an orthogonal basis for W , then

$$\text{proj}_W(\vec{y}) = \left(\frac{\langle \vec{y}, \vec{u}_1 \rangle}{\langle \vec{u}_1, \vec{u}_1 \rangle} \right) \vec{u}_1 + \dots + \left(\frac{\langle \vec{y}, \vec{u}_p \rangle}{\langle \vec{u}_p, \vec{u}_p \rangle} \right) \vec{u}_p$$

and $\vec{y}^\perp = \vec{y} - \text{proj}_W(\vec{y})$.

METHOD 2. $\{1, t, t^2\}$ is basis for W .

$\hat{\text{proj}}_W f(t) \in W \Rightarrow \hat{\text{proj}}_W f(t) = c_0 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2$

$f(t) - \hat{\text{proj}}_W f(t) \perp W$

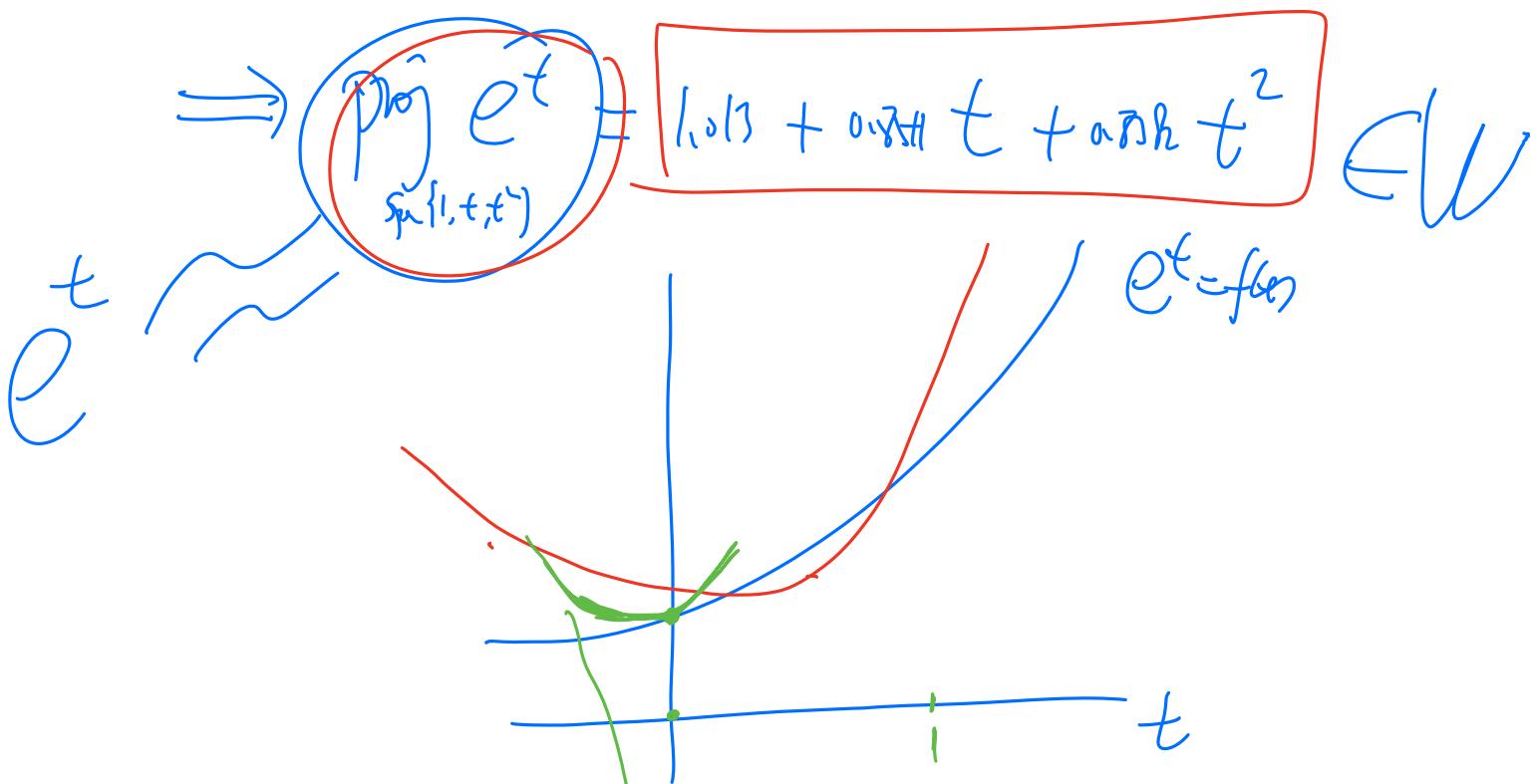
$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \int_0^1 (c_0 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2 - e^t) dt = 0 \\ \int_0^1 (c_0 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2 - e^t) t dt = 0 \\ \int_0^1 (c_0 + c_1 t + c_2 t^2 - e^t) t^2 dt = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} c_0 + \frac{1}{2}c_1 + \frac{1}{3}c_2 - (e-1) = 0 \\ \frac{1}{2}c_0 + \frac{1}{3}c_1 + \frac{1}{4}c_2 - 1 = 0 \\ \frac{1}{3}c_0 + \frac{1}{4}c_1 + \frac{1}{5}c_2 - (e-2) = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow A \begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \\ c_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} e-1 \\ 1 \\ e-2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} \\ \frac{1}{2} & \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} \\ \frac{1}{3} & \frac{1}{4} & \frac{1}{5} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} C_0 \\ C_1 \\ C_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.013 \\ 0.8511 \\ 0.8592 \end{pmatrix}$$



$\text{Proj}_W e^t$ is the "closest" vector in W to e^t .

$$e^t \approx 1 + t + \frac{t^2}{2!} + \frac{t^3}{3!} + \frac{t^4}{4!} + \dots$$

Application to complex matrix A . L

The conjugate transpose of a complex matrix A is $A^* := \bar{A}^T$

A complex matrix A is called Hermiltian if $A^* = A$.

Def: A matrix $U \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ is all "unitary"

$$\Leftrightarrow \|U\vec{x}\| = \|\vec{x}\| \quad \text{for all } \vec{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n \quad \text{where } \|\vec{x}\| = \sqrt{\vec{x}^T \vec{x}}$$

Thm:

$$\Leftrightarrow \langle U\vec{x}, U\vec{y} \rangle = \langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle \quad \text{where } \langle \vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle := \vec{x}^T \vec{y}$$

$\Leftrightarrow \vec{u}_1, \dots, \vec{u}_n$ are orthonormal.

$$\Leftrightarrow U^T \bar{U} = I_n \Leftrightarrow \bar{U}^T U = I_n$$

$$\Leftrightarrow U^T = U^*$$

Prop: real matrix A . $T_A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$

$$(A\vec{x}) \cdot \vec{y} = \vec{x} \cdot (A^T \vec{y})$$

Prop complex map A $T_A: \mathbb{C}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{C}^m$

$$(A\vec{x}) \cdot \vec{y} = \vec{x} \cdot (\bar{A}^T \vec{y})$$

$$\bullet (A\vec{x}) \cdot \vec{y} = (A\vec{x})^T \vec{y} = (\vec{x}^T A^T) \bar{\vec{y}}$$

dot over \mathbb{C}

$$\langle A\vec{x}, \vec{y} \rangle = \langle \vec{x}, \bar{A}^T \vec{y} \rangle$$

$$= \vec{x}^T (\bar{A}^T \vec{y})$$

$$= \vec{x}^T \bar{\bar{A}}^T \vec{y}$$

$$= \vec{x} \cdot (\bar{A}^T \vec{y})$$

CA
 $n \times 1$ $n \times 1$

6. The adjoint of a linear operator

An generalization of transpose of a real matrix and conjugate transpose of a complex is the joint operator.

Definition 41. Let $T : V \rightarrow W$ be a linear map between two inner product spaces. A joint operator of T is a linear map $T^* : W \rightarrow V$ such that

$$\langle T(\vec{v}), \vec{w} \rangle_W = \langle \vec{v}, T^*(\vec{w}) \rangle_V.$$

Theorem 42. Let $T : V \rightarrow W$ be a linear map between two inner product spaces. Then T has a unique joint operator T^* .

Theorem 43. Let $T : V \rightarrow W$ be a invertible linear map between two inner product spaces. Then its joint operator T^* is also invertible and $(T^*)^{-1} = (T^{-1})^*$.

$$(A^T)^{-1} = (A^{-1})^T$$

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