Mathematics for Computer Science Linear Algebra

Lecture 15: Inner product spaces

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Contents for today's lecture

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

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

$$\mathbf{u}\cdot\mathbf{v}=u_1v_1+u_2v_2+\ldots+u_nv_n.$$

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 $k \in \mathbb{R}$.

[Symmetry axiom]

$$\langle \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$$

[Additivity axiom]

[Homogeneity axiom]

$$\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \geq 0$$
, and $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$ iff $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$

[Positivity axiom]

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

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

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

- $||\mathbf{v}|| \ge 0$, and $||\mathbf{v}|| = 0$ iff $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$
- $||k\mathbf{v}|| = |k| ||\mathbf{v}||$
- $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = d(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u})$
- $d(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = 0$ iff $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{v}$.

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): $\mathbf{v}\mapsto \frac{1}{||\mathbf{v}||}\mathbf{v}$.

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.

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 orthoginal complement of W.

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 $W=span(\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v})$. Then W^\perp is the solution space of the linear system

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

Example: weighted Euclidean inner product

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

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

- Easy to check that all four axioms of inner product are satisfied.
- If all $w_i = 1$, this becomes the standard dot product.

Example: Consider \mathbb{R}^2 equipped with the weighted Euclidean inner product with weights $w_1=3, w_2=2$, i.e define $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 3u_1v_1 + 2u_2v_2$.

- The norm of $e_1 = (1,0)$ is $||e_1|| = \sqrt{\langle e_1, e_1 \rangle} = \sqrt{3 \cdot 1^2 + 2 \cdot 0^2} = \sqrt{3}$.
- $\mathbf{u} = (1, -3)$ and $\mathbf{v} = (2, 1)$ are orthogonal: $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 3 \cdot 1 \cdot 2 + 2 \cdot (-3) \cdot 1 = 0$.

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

Working with orthogonal complement

Theorem

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

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

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

• If we change the inner product to the weighted Euclidean inner product with weights $w_1=2$, $w_2=1$, $w_3=3$, $w_4=1$. Then W^{\perp} is the solution space of

$$4x_1 - 3x_2 + 15x_3 + 4x_4 = 0$$
 $(\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0)$
 $x_2 - 12x_3 + 7x_4 = 0$ $(\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0)$

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

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

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = A\mathbf{u} \cdot A\mathbf{v}$$
, (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 .

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

Examples:

- ullet The dot product on \mathbb{R}^n is the inner product generated by the identity matrix
- The weighted Euclidean inner product on \mathbb{R}^n with weights w_1, \ldots, w_n is the inner product generated by $A = diag(\sqrt{w_1}, \ldots, \sqrt{w_n})$. For the earlier example of a weighted inner product on \mathbb{R}^2 ,

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

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
$$\mathbf{p} = a_0 + a_1 x + \ldots + a_n x^n$$
 and $\mathbf{q} = b_0 + b_1 x + \ldots + b_n x^n$ in \mathbb{P}_n , define $\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q} \rangle = a_0 b_0 + a_1 b_1 + \ldots + a_n b_n$.

This is an inner product, called the standard inner product on \mathbb{P}_n .

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

Example: Evaluation inner product on \mathbb{P}_n

Fix <u>distinct</u> points $x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n \in \mathbb{R}$ (called *sample points*).

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

$$\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q} \rangle = p(x_0)q(x_0) + p(x_1)q(x_1) + \ldots + p(x_n)q(x_n).$$

This inner product on \mathbb{P}_n is called the evaluation inner product at x_0, x_1, \ldots, x_n .

- It is easy to see that one can identify each vector $\mathbf{p} = p(x) \in \mathbb{P}_n$ with the corresponding vector $(p(x_0), p(x_1), \dots, p(x_n)) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$.
- Then the standard inner product on \mathbb{P}_n = the dot product in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} .
- One subtlety: need to check that $\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p} \rangle = 0$ iff $\mathbf{p} = 0$. This holds because

$$\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{p} \rangle = [p(x_0)]^2 + [p(x_1)]^2 + \dots + [p(x_n)]^2 = 0 \Rightarrow p(x_0) = p(x_1) = \dots = p(x_n) = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{p} = 0$$

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.

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

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

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

$$\langle \mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q} \rangle = p(-2)q(-2) + p(0)q(0) + p(2)q(2) = (4)(-1) + (0)(1) + (4)(3) = 8$$

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

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 $(k\mathbf{f})(x) = kf(x)$.
- Recall: any function continuous on [a, b] is integrable on [a, b].
- For $\mathbf{f} = f(x)$ and $\mathbf{g} = g(x)$ in C[a, b], define

$$\langle \mathbf{f}, \mathbf{g} \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx.$$

- This formula defines an inner product on C[a,b], let's check the 4 axioms. 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]).
- 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

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

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

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

$$||\mathbf{q}|| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{q} \rangle} = \sqrt{\int_{-1}^{1} x^2 x^2 \, dx} = \sqrt{\int_{-1}^{1} x^4 \, dx} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{5}}$$

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

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

Standard (in)equalities

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

Theorem (Pythogoras' theorem)

If \boldsymbol{u} and \boldsymbol{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 **u** and **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 $||\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}|| \le ||\mathbf{u}|| + ||\mathbf{v}||$.

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

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

What we learnt today

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

Next time:

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