

MATH 304

Linear Algebra

Lecture 27:

Inner product spaces.

Orthogonal sets.

Norm

The notion of *norm* generalizes the notion of length of a vector in \mathbb{R}^n .

Definition. Let V be a vector space. A function $\alpha : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is called a **norm** on V if it has the following properties:

- (i) $\alpha(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$, $\alpha(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ only for $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ (positivity)
- (ii) $\alpha(r\mathbf{x}) = |r| \alpha(\mathbf{x})$ for all $r \in \mathbb{R}$ (homogeneity)
- (iii) $\alpha(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \leq \alpha(\mathbf{x}) + \alpha(\mathbf{y})$ (triangle inequality)

Notation. The norm of a vector $\mathbf{x} \in V$ is usually denoted $\|\mathbf{x}\|$. Different norms on V are distinguished by subscripts, e.g., $\|\mathbf{x}\|_1$ and $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2$.

Examples. $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

- $\|\mathbf{x}\|_\infty = \max(|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|)$.
- $\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = (|x_1|^p + |x_2|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p)^{1/p}$, $p \geq 1$.

Examples. $V = C[a, b]$, $f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.

- $\|f\|_\infty = \max_{a \leq x \leq b} |f(x)|$.
- $\|f\|_p = \left(\int_a^b |f(x)|^p dx \right)^{1/p}$, $p \geq 1$.

Normed vector space

Definition. A **normed vector space** is a vector space endowed with a norm.

The norm defines a distance function on the normed vector space: $\text{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|$.

Then we say that a sequence $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots$ *converges* to a vector \mathbf{x} if $\text{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

Also, we say that a vector \mathbf{x} is a good *approximation* of a vector \mathbf{x}_0 if $\text{dist}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_0)$ is small.

Inner product

The notion of *inner product* generalizes the notion of dot product of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n .

Definition. Let V be a vector space. A function $\beta : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, usually denoted $\beta(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$, is called an **inner product** on V if it is positive, symmetric, and bilinear. That is, if

- (i) $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \geq 0$, $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0$ only for $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ (positivity)
- (ii) $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$ (symmetry)
- (iii) $\langle r\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = r\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ (homogeneity)
- (iv) $\langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$ (distributive law)

An **inner product space** is a vector space endowed with an inner product.

Examples. $V = \mathbb{R}^n$.

- $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \cdots + x_ny_n$.

- $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = d_1x_1y_1 + d_2x_2y_2 + \cdots + d_nx_ny_n$,

where $d_1, d_2, \dots, d_n > 0$.

- $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = (D\mathbf{x}) \cdot (D\mathbf{y})$,

where D is an invertible $n \times n$ matrix.

Example. $V = \mathcal{M}_{m,n}(\mathbb{R})$, space of $m \times n$ matrices.

- $\langle A, B \rangle = \text{trace}(AB^T)$.

If $A = (a_{ij})$ and $B = (b_{ij})$, then $\langle A, B \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}b_{ij}$.

Examples. $V = C[a, b]$.

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

- $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x)w(x) dx,$

where w is bounded, piecewise continuous, and $w > 0$ everywhere on $[a, b]$.

w is called the **weight** function.

Theorem Suppose $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ is an inner product on a vector space V . Then

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle^2 \leq \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in V.$$

Proof: For any $t \in \mathbb{R}$ let $\mathbf{v}_t = \mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{y}$. Then

$$\langle \mathbf{v}_t, \mathbf{v}_t \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + 2t\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + t^2\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle.$$

The right-hand side is a quadratic polynomial in t (provided that $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$). Since $\langle \mathbf{v}_t, \mathbf{v}_t \rangle \geq 0$ for all t , the discriminant D is nonpositive. But

$$D = 4\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle^2 - 4\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle.$$

Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

$$|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| \leq \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}.$$

Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality:

$$|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| \leq \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}.$$

Corollary 1 $|\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}| \leq |\mathbf{x}| |\mathbf{y}|$ for all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Equivalently, for all $x_i, y_i \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$(x_1 y_1 + \cdots + x_n y_n)^2 \leq (x_1^2 + \cdots + x_n^2)(y_1^2 + \cdots + y_n^2).$$

Corollary 2 For any $f, g \in C[a, b]$,

$$\left(\int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx \right)^2 \leq \int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx \cdot \int_a^b |g(x)|^2 dx.$$

Norms induced by inner products

Theorem Suppose $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ is an inner product on a vector space V . Then $\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}$ is a norm.

Proof: Positivity is obvious. Homogeneity:

$$\|r\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle r\mathbf{x}, r\mathbf{x} \rangle} = \sqrt{r^2 \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle} = |r| \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}.$$

Triangle inequality (follows from Cauchy-Schwarz's):

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 &= \langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \\ &\leq \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + |\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| + |\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle| + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \\ &\leq \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2 = (\|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|)^2. \end{aligned}$$

Examples. • The length of a vector in \mathbb{R}^n ,

$$|\mathbf{x}| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2},$$

is the norm induced by the dot product

$$\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \cdots + x_ny_n.$$

• The norm $\|f\|_2 = \left(\int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx \right)^{1/2}$ on the vector space $C[a, b]$ is induced by the inner product

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

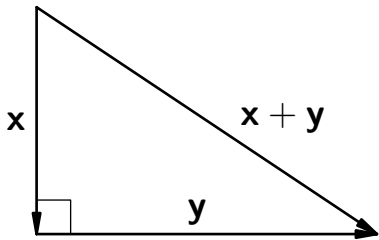
Angle

Since $|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|$, we can define the *angle* between nonzero vectors in any vector space with an inner product (and induced norm):

$$\angle(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \arccos \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|}.$$

Then $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\| \cos \angle(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$.

In particular, vectors \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} are **orthogonal** (denoted $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$) if $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$.

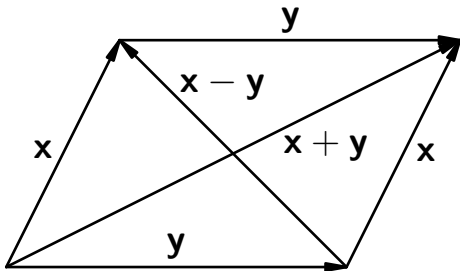


Pythagorean Law:

$$\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y} \implies \|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 &= \langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \\ &= \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2.\end{aligned}$$



Parallelogram Identity:

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

Proof: $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$.

Similarly, $\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle - \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle - \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$.

Then $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 = 2\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + 2\langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 2\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + 2\|\mathbf{y}\|^2$.

Orthogonal sets

Let V be an inner product space with an inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ and the induced norm $\| \cdot \|$.

Definition. A nonempty set $S \subset V$ of nonzero vectors is called an **orthogonal set** if all vectors in S are mutually orthogonal. That is, $\mathbf{0} \notin S$ and $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$ for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in S$, $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$.

An orthogonal set $S \subset V$ is called **orthonormal** if $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 1$ for any $\mathbf{x} \in S$.

Remark. Vectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k \in V$ form an orthonormal set if and only if

$$\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_j \rangle = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

Examples. • $V = \mathbb{R}^n$, $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$.

The standard basis $\mathbf{e}_1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots, 0)$,
 $\mathbf{e}_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$, \dots , $\mathbf{e}_n = (0, 0, 0, \dots, 1)$.

It is an orthonormal set.

• $V = \mathbb{R}^3$, $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$.

$\mathbf{v}_1 = (3, 5, 4)$, $\mathbf{v}_2 = (3, -5, 4)$, $\mathbf{v}_3 = (4, 0, -3)$.

$\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = 0$, $\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 = 0$, $\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 = 0$,

$\mathbf{v}_1 \cdot \mathbf{v}_1 = 50$, $\mathbf{v}_2 \cdot \mathbf{v}_2 = 50$, $\mathbf{v}_3 \cdot \mathbf{v}_3 = 25$.

Thus the set $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3\}$ is orthogonal but not orthonormal. An orthonormal set is formed by

normalized vectors $\mathbf{w}_1 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_1}{\|\mathbf{v}_1\|}$, $\mathbf{w}_2 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_2}{\|\mathbf{v}_2\|}$,

$\mathbf{w}_3 = \frac{\mathbf{v}_3}{\|\mathbf{v}_3\|}$.

- $V = C[-\pi, \pi], \quad \langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x)g(x) dx.$

$$f_1(x) = \sin x, \quad f_2(x) = \sin 2x, \quad \dots, \quad f_n(x) = \sin nx, \quad \dots$$

$$\langle f_m, f_n \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(mx) \sin(nx) dx = \begin{cases} \pi & \text{if } m = n \\ 0 & \text{if } m \neq n \end{cases}$$

Thus the set $\{f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots\}$ is orthogonal but not orthonormal.

It is orthonormal with respect to a scaled inner product

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

Orthogonality \implies linear independence

Theorem Suppose $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ are nonzero vectors that form an orthogonal set. Then $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k$ are linearly independent.

Proof: Suppose $t_1\mathbf{v}_1 + t_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + t_k\mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{0}$ for some $t_1, t_2, \dots, t_k \in \mathbb{R}$.

Then for any index $1 \leq i \leq k$ we have

$$\langle t_1\mathbf{v}_1 + t_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + t_k\mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = \langle \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0.$$

$$\implies t_1\langle \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle + t_2\langle \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle + \dots + t_k\langle \mathbf{v}_k, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0$$

By orthogonality, $t_i\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_i \rangle = 0 \implies t_i = 0$.