

Small recap: In the beginning of our lecture course, we studied the basic concepts of linear algebra in the concrete context of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Since all these concepts were defined in terms of two operations: multiplication by  $r \in \mathbb{R}$  and addition, we saw that it can be both natural and useful to apply the language developed to objects other than elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (for example, functions). We introduced the notion of a vector space over a field, for a set that behaves like  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as far as addition and scalar multiplication are concerned.

In this lecture, another operation for elements of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is examined: the dot product. We will see that it is very useful to define a product analogous to the dot product in a vector space (linear space) other than  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Generalized dot products are called inner products. Once we have an inner product in a vector space, we can define what it means for vectors to be orthogonal and define the length of vectors, just like in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

For this lecture, we will only be considering vector spaces over real numbers.

**Definition:** An inner product in a vector space (over  $\mathbb{R}$ )

$V$  is a function  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

**Definition:**  $V$  is a function  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , such that

1)  $\langle f, g \rangle = \langle g, f \rangle$ , for all  $f, g \in V$ .

2)  $\langle f+h, g \rangle = \langle f, g \rangle + \langle h, g \rangle$ , for all  $f, g, h \in V$ .

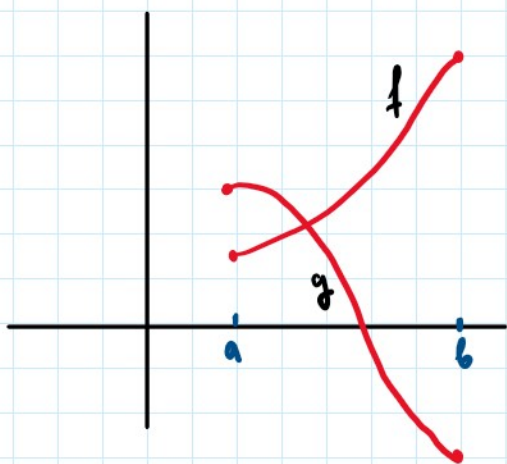
3)  $\langle cf, g \rangle = c \langle f, g \rangle$ , for all  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f, g \in V$ .

4)  $\langle f, f \rangle > 0$ , for all  $f \in V$  and  $f \neq 0$  (positive definiteness property)

A vector space endowed with an inner product is called an **inner product space**.

Roughly, an inner product space  $(V, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$  behaves like  $\mathbb{R}^n$  as far as addition, scalar multiplication and dot product are concerned.

**Example:** Let  $V = C[a, b] = \{ f: [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \mid f \text{ continuous} \}$  for  $a < b$ ,  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ .



For functions  $f, g \in C[a, b]$ , define

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(t) \cdot g(t) dt. \text{ This is}$$

an inner product. For example,

$$\begin{aligned} \langle f, g \rangle &= \int_a^b f(t) \cdot g(t) dt = \int_a^b g(t) f(t) dt = \\ &= \langle g, f \rangle \end{aligned}$$

We will verify property 4) in **CE**.

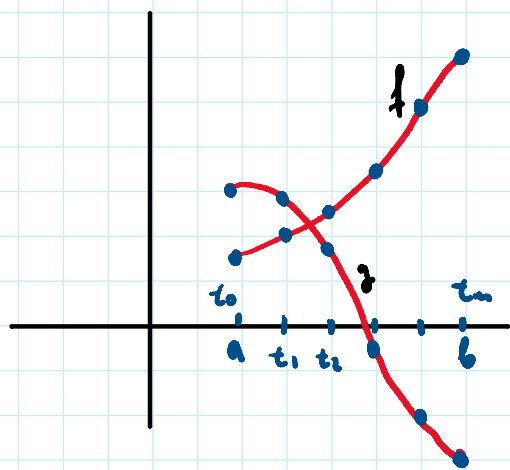
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Now the Riemann integral  $\int_a^b f(t)g(t) dt$  is the limit of the Riemann sum

$$\sum_{i=1}^m f(t_i)g(t_i) \Delta t$$

where the  $t_k$  can be chosen as equally spaced points on the interval  $[a, b]$ .



Then,

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(t)g(t) dt \approx \sum_{k=1}^m f(t_k)g(t_k) \Delta t = \left( \begin{pmatrix} f(t_1) \\ f(t_2) \\ \vdots \\ f(t_m) \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} g(t_1) \\ g(t_2) \\ \vdots \\ g(t_m) \end{pmatrix} \right) \Delta t$$

for large  $m$ . This shows that

inner product  $\langle f, g \rangle$  for functions is a continuous version of the dot product. The more subdivisions we have, better will dot product approximate  $\langle f, g \rangle$ .

**Example:** Let  $\mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}}$  denote the vector space of infinite sequences of real numbers.

$$l_2(\mathbb{N}) = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{N}} \mid \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots \text{ converges} \right\}$$

In this space we can define the inner product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} x_i y_i = x_0 y_0 + x_1 y_1 + \dots$$

**Example:** Let  $\text{Mat}_{n \times m}(\mathbb{R})$  be the vector space of all  $n \times m$  matrices with real entries.

**Example:** Let  $\text{Mat}_{n \times m}(\mathbb{R})$  be the vector space of all  $n \times m$  matrices. We can define

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \text{tr}(A^T \cdot B)$$

Where  $A^T$  denotes the transpose of  $A$ , and  $\text{tr}(A)$  is the trace of  $A$ . This is an inner product space (CE).

**Definition:** Let  $V$  be a (real) vector space. A norm on  $V$  is a function  $\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that

a)  $\|k \cdot v\| = |k| \cdot \|v\|$  for all  $v \in V$  and  $k \in \mathbb{R}$ .

b)  $\|v\| \geq 0$  (Positive)

c)  $\|v\| = 0 \Rightarrow v = 0$  (Non-degenerate)

d)  $\|u+v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$  (Triangle inequality)

**Lemma:** Let  $V$  be a real inner product space.

Then

$$\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$$

defined by

$$\|v\| := \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle} \quad \text{is a norm.}$$

**Proof:** a)  $\|k \cdot v\| = \sqrt{\langle k \cdot v, k \cdot v \rangle} = \sqrt{k^2 \langle v, v \rangle}$   
 $= |k| \cdot \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle} = |k| \cdot \|v\|.$

b)  $\|v\| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle} \geq 0$

c) Suppose  $\|u\| = 0$ . Then  $\sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle} = 0 \Rightarrow \langle u, u \rangle = 0$   
 $\Rightarrow u = 0$  by positive definiteness.

$\Rightarrow u=0$  by positive definiteness.

d) To prove this, we will use what is called

**Cauchy-Schwartz inequality**: Let  $V$  be a (real)

inner product space. If  $u, v \in V$ , then

$$\langle u, v \rangle \leq \|u\| \cdot \|v\|.$$

Then,

$$\begin{aligned} \|u+v\|^2 &= \langle u+v, u+v \rangle = \langle u, u \rangle + 2\langle u, v \rangle + \\ &+ \langle v, v \rangle \stackrel{\text{by CS.}}{\leq} \|u\|^2 + 2\|u\| \cdot \|v\| + \|v\|^2 \\ &= (\|u\| + \|v\|)^2 \quad \text{which is the} \end{aligned}$$

triangle inequality.

We only have to prove Cauchy-Schwartz, which we now do:  $u=0$  case is obvious. Say  $u \neq 0$ .

Consider  $u, v \in V$  and a function  $p: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by  $p(t) = \langle tu+v, tu+v \rangle$ . Since inner product is positive definite,  $\text{Im}(p(t)) \subseteq \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ . On the other hand

$$p(t) = \langle tu+v, tu+v \rangle = \|u\|^2 t^2 + 2t\langle u, v \rangle + \|v\|^2$$

Since  $p$  is a polynomial of degree 2, such that sign of  $p(t)$  does not change, the discriminant must be non-positive

$$D = 4(\langle u, v \rangle^2 - \|u\|^2 \|v\|^2) \leq 0 \quad \text{therefore}$$

$$D = 4(\langle u, v \rangle^2 - \|u\|^2 \|v\|^2) \leq 0 \quad \text{therefore} \\ \|u\| \cdot \|v\| \geq \langle u, v \rangle. \quad \square.$$

**Definition:** We will say that two vectors  $u, v \in V$  in an inner product space  $V$  are **orthogonal**, if  $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$

In this case, we will write  $u \perp v$ . This corresponds to the familiar notion of perpendicularity in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  (see CE).

**Example:** Say  $f(t) = t^2 \in C[0, 1]$ , where inner product is given by  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(t)g(t) dt$ . Then

$$\|f\| = \sqrt{\langle f, f \rangle} = \sqrt{\int_0^1 t^4 dt} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{5}}$$

**Example:** Show that  $f(t) = \sin(t)$  and  $g(t) = \cos(t)$  are orthogonal in the inner product space  $C[0, 2\pi]$ .

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^{2\pi} \sin(t) \cos(t) dt = \left( \frac{1}{2} \sin^2(t) \right) \Big|_0^{2\pi} = 0.$$

**Definition:** We say that the basis  $v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots$  is an orthogonal basis of  $V$ , if vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots$  are pairwise orthogonal. If in addition vectors  $v_i$  have  $\|v_i\| = 1$ , then we say that basis  $v_1, \dots, v_i, \dots$  is **orthonormal**.

**Example:** The canonical basis in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is orthonormal.

**Example:** The vectors  $(1/\sqrt{2}) \dots (1/\sqrt{2}) \dots$  is an orthonormal

Example: The canonical basis ... is orthonormal.

**Example:** The vectors  $\begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$  and  $\begin{pmatrix} 1/\sqrt{2} \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \end{pmatrix}$  is an orthonormal basis of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

We say that list of vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_m, \dots$  is orthogonal, if these vectors are pairwise orthogonal.

**Lemma:** If the nonzero vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  are pairwise orthogonal, then they are independent. In particular if  $\dim V = m$ , then  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  form an orthogonal basis.

**Proof:** Suppose that

$$r_1 v_1 + \dots + r_n v_n = 0$$

taking inner product with  $v_j$  on both sides:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \langle r_1 v_1 + \dots + r_n v_n, v_j \rangle = \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n r_i \langle v_i, v_j \rangle = r_j \langle v_j, v_j \rangle \end{aligned}$$

as  $\langle v_j, v_j \rangle \neq 0$ , we get  $r_j = 0$ . Same for all  $j$  so  $r_i = 0, i=1, \dots, m$ . Thus  $v_1, \dots, v_m$  are linearly independent.

**Lemma:** If  $(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  is orthonormal basis of  $V$  and  $v \in V$ , then

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i v_i \quad \text{where } r_i = \langle v, v_i \rangle.$$

**Proof:** Now, since  $(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  is a basis, we know

**Proof:** Now, since  $(\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n)$  is a basis, we know that

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i \sigma_i.$$

Again, taking scalar product with  $\sigma_j$  on both sides

$$\langle v, \sigma_j \rangle = \sum r_i \langle \sigma_i, \sigma_j \rangle = r_j \langle \sigma_j, \sigma_j \rangle = r_j \quad \square$$

Very useful property of inner product is that we get canonically defined complementary linear subspaces.

**Lemma:** Let  $V$  be a finite dimensional real inner product space. If  $U \subset V$  is a subspace, then let

$$U^\perp = \{ w \in V \mid \langle w, u \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } u \in U \}$$

the set of all vectors orthogonal to all vectors in  $U$ . Then

a)  $U^\perp$  is a subspace of  $V$ .

b)  $U \cap U^\perp = \{0\}$

c)  $U$  and  $U^\perp$  span  $V$ . (No proof of c)

**Proof:** a) Suppose  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  are in  $U^\perp$ . Pick  $u \in U$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Then } \langle w_1 + w_2, u \rangle &= \langle w_1, u \rangle + \langle w_2, u \rangle = 0 + 0 \\ &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Thus  $w_1 + w_2 \in U^\perp$ . So  $U^\perp$  is closed under addition.

Now suppose  $w \in U^\perp$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$\langle \lambda w, u \rangle = \lambda \langle w, u \rangle = \lambda \cdot 0 = 0$$

Therefore  $\lambda w \in U^\perp$  and  $U^\perp$  is also closed under scalar



Therefore  $\lambda w \in U^\perp$  and  $U^\perp$  is also closed under scalar multiplication.

b) Say  $w \in U \cap U^\perp$ . Then

$$\langle w, w \rangle = 0$$

and by positive-definiteness  $w = 0$ .  $\square$ .

**Lemma.** Let  $A$  be (real) matrix and  $W = \text{Im}(A)$ .

Then  $W^\perp = \text{Ker}(A^T)$

**Proof:** Say

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_m \\ | & | & & | \end{pmatrix}, \text{ then}$$

$$A^T = \begin{pmatrix} - & v_1^T & - \\ - & v_2^T & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & v_m^T & - \end{pmatrix}. \text{ Then } Ax = \begin{pmatrix} \langle x, v_1 \rangle \\ \langle x, v_2 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle x, v_m \rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

So,  $x \in \text{Ker} A^T \iff \langle x, v_i \rangle = 0$  for all  $i=1, \dots, m$ .

Now if  $\langle x, v_i \rangle = 0$  for all  $i=1, \dots, m$ . Then

$$\begin{aligned} \langle x, w \rangle &= \langle x, r_1 v_1 + \dots + r_m v_m \rangle = r_1 \langle x, v_1 \rangle + \dots + r_m \langle x, v_m \rangle \\ &= 0 \text{ for all } w \in W \text{ and } w = \sum_{i=1}^m r_i v_i. \end{aligned}$$

Therefore  $x \in W^\perp$ . So  $\text{Ker}(A^T) \subseteq W^\perp$

On the other hand if  $x \in W^\perp$  in particular

On the other hand if  $x \in W^\perp$ , in particular  
 $\langle x, v_i \rangle = 0$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, m$  and  $A^T x = \begin{pmatrix} \langle x, v_1 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle x, v_m \rangle \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ .  
and  $W^\perp \subseteq \text{Ker}(A^T)$ .  $\square$