

Last time Complex Dot Product & Inner Product Spaces

a vector space with a function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ on pairs of vectors that behaves like the dot product. It gives us

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Norm : } \|u\| = \sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle} \quad \text{← notice } \langle u, u \rangle \geq 0 \\ \text{Distance : } d(u, v) = \|u - v\| \end{array} \right.$$

always real (even in complex inner products space) - but $\langle u, u \rangle = 0$ not necessarily true if $u \neq v$.

Unit ball : the vectors u with $\|u\| \leq 1$

closed

open unit ball if
this is <

Additional properties of inner products, norms, distances

Theorem (6.1.2 in real case)

For all u, v, w in innerproduct space \checkmark :

(a) $\langle 0, v \rangle = \langle v, 0 \rangle = 0$

(b) $\langle u, v+w \rangle = \langle u, v \rangle + \langle u, w \rangle$

(c) $\langle u, v-w \rangle = \langle u, v \rangle - \langle u, w \rangle$

(d) $\langle u-v, w \rangle = \langle u, w \rangle - \langle v, w \rangle$

(e) $\langle u, kw \rangle = k\langle u, w \rangle$

true for real innerproducts: For complex: $\langle u, kw \rangle = \bar{k} \langle u, w \rangle$ (see L3)

\checkmark } true for complex and real inner
 \checkmark } product spaces
 \checkmark } ~~$w(v+w) = uv+vw$~~

Proof of (a). Let v be in V .

$$0 = u - u \text{ for any vector } u.$$

Pick some u in V . Then $\langle 0, v \rangle = \langle u - u, v \rangle$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \langle u + (-u), v \rangle \\ &= \langle u, v \rangle + \langle -u, v \rangle \\ &\quad \text{by Axiom 2} \\ &= \langle u, v \rangle - 1 \cdot \langle u, v \rangle \\ &\quad \text{by Axiom 3} \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

We know $\langle 0, v \rangle = \langle v, 0 \rangle$ by Axiom 1 so $\langle v, 0 \rangle = 0$.
So (a) is true. \square

Have a go at (b), (c), (d), ...

Theorem 6.1.1 (real case) + 6.2.2

- | | | | |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| (a) $\ u\ \geq 0$ for all u | $\ u\ = 0$ exactly when $u = 0$ | (d) $d(u, v) \geq 0$ for all u, v | $d(u, v) = 0$ exactly when $u = v$ |
|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------------------|

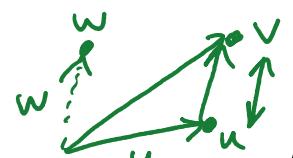
(b) $\|ku\| = |k|\|u\|$

(c) $\|u+v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$

(Triangle inequality
for norms)



(f) $d(u, w) \leq d(u, v) + d(v, w)$



(triangle
inequality
for distances)

Better picture:
(are endpoints of vectors)

Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality

If u, v are vectors in an inner product space V then

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

above

(You need this to prove the triangle inequalities.)

Angle & Orthogonality

The dot product in \mathbb{R}^2 or \mathbb{R}^3 is used to give / can be defined by:

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|}$$

θ is angle between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} .

So we define the angle between 2 vectors in an inner product space by the formula

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

In the real case, we need \rightarrow to be between -1 and 1 so this formula makes sense.

Fortunately Cauchy-Schwarz says

$$|\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|$$

$$\text{So } -\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \leq \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \leq \|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|$$

$$\rightarrow -1 \leq \frac{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{u}\| \|\mathbf{v}\|} \leq 1 \quad \text{Phew.}$$

More importantly in \mathbb{R}^2 or \mathbb{R}^3 we say that 2 vectors are orthogonal (perpendicular) when they are at right angles to each other.
i.e. the angle between them is $\frac{\pi}{2}$.

So here in a general inner product space

we say that two vectors u, v are
orthogonal if the angle given by the

formula  is $\frac{\pi}{2}$ i.e. $\cos \theta = 0$

$$\text{So } \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\|u\| \|v\|} = 0 \quad \text{i.e. } \boxed{\langle u, v \rangle = 0}$$

(u, v orthogonal/perpendicular means u and v are in some sense as different as could be).
bit vague, not formal

Example Let $C([0,1])$ be the space of all real-valued, continuous functions on $[0,1]$ with its usual inner product $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x)g(x) dx$.

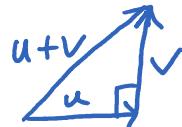
Are the functions $x^{-1/2}, (x^{-1/2})^2$ orthogonal?

Solution i.e. Is " $\langle x - \frac{1}{2}, (x - \frac{1}{2})^2 \rangle = 0$?

$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \int_0^1 (x - \frac{1}{2})(x - \frac{1}{2})^2 dx = \int_0^1 (x - \frac{1}{2})^3 dx \\
 &= \left[\frac{(x - \frac{1}{2})^4}{4} \right]_0^1 = \frac{(\frac{1}{2})^4}{4} - \frac{(-\frac{1}{2})^4}{4} \\
 &= 0 \text{ so yes.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Pythagorean Theorem

In \mathbb{R}^2 , and \mathbb{R}^3 , we know that if u and v are orthogonal vectors, then $\|u+v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2$.

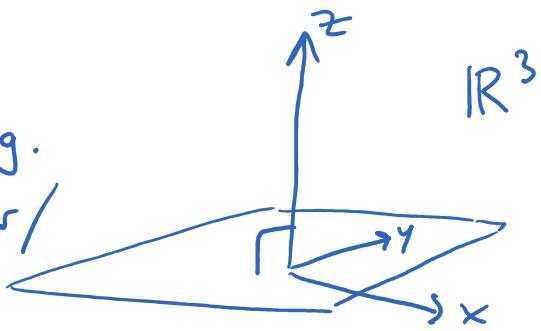


The same is true in any inner product space (real or complex):

Why?
(for real inner product spaces)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \|u+v\|^2 &= \langle u+v, u+v \rangle \quad (\text{Def'' of norm}) \\
 &= \langle u, u \rangle + \underbrace{\langle v, u \rangle}_{=0} + \langle u, v \rangle + \langle v, v \rangle \\
 &= \langle u, u \rangle + 2\langle u, v \rangle + \langle v, v \rangle \\
 &= \|u\|^2 + 2\cancel{\langle u, v \rangle} + \|v\|^2 \\
 &\quad \cancel{\langle u, v \rangle = 0} \\
 &= \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

In \mathbb{R}^3 we can think e.g.
of z -axis being perpendicular/
orthogonal / normal to
the subspace of the XY -plane.

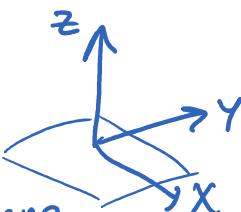


We can extend this idea to general inner product spaces i.e. a vector v being orthogonal to a subspace W .

Definition V inner product space, W subspace
 v in V is orthogonal to W if v is orthogonal
to w for every w in W i.e. $\langle v, w \rangle = 0$ for
every w in W .

Turning this around, we call the set of all
vectors v in V which are orthogonal to W the
orthogonal complement of W , written W^\perp

e.g. z -axis now
is W .



said "perp."

Then W^\perp is the xy -plane.

So if you take any vector u in W and any
vector v in W^\perp you have $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$.

Exercise 1 Take $M_{3 \times 2}(\mathbb{C})$ with the complex inner product we already saw: $\langle A, B \rangle = \text{tr}(B^T A)$.

Find $d(C, D)$ where $C = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 0 \\ i & 3 \\ 1+i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $D = \begin{pmatrix} 2i & 3-i \\ 0 & 4 \\ 0 & 1-3i \end{pmatrix}$.

Exercise 2 Take $C([0, 1])$ with inner product $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x)g(x)dx$.
Find $\|\sin(\pi x)\|$.

Solution 1

$$\begin{aligned}
 d(C, D) &= \|C - D\| \\
 &= \sqrt{\langle C - D, C - D \rangle} \\
 &= \sqrt{\text{tr}((C - D)^T (C - D))} \\
 &= \sqrt{\text{tr}\left(\begin{matrix} |5-2i|^2 + |i|^2 + |1+i|^2 & ? \\ ? & |3+i|^2 + |1|^2 + |-1+3i|^2 \end{matrix}\right)} \\
 &= \sqrt{|5-2i|^2 + |i|^2 + |1+i|^2 + (-3+i)^2 + |1|^2 + |-1+3i|^2} \\
 &= \sqrt{\text{sum of entries of } (-D)^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

? not relevant

In general if we have matrices $A = [a_{ij}]$ in

$M_{m \times n}(\mathbb{C})$, then $\langle A, B \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} \overline{b_{ij}}$

and $\|A\| = \sqrt{\langle A, A \rangle} = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^m |a_{ij}|^2}$

useful facts !!

Solution 2 Find $\|\sin(\pi x)\|$.

$$\begin{aligned}\sqrt{\langle \sin(\pi x), \sin(\pi x) \rangle} &= \sqrt{\int_0^1 (\sin(\pi x))^2 dx} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 1 - \cos 2\pi x dx} && \sin^2(\pi x) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{\left[x - \frac{1}{2\pi} \sin 2\pi x \right]_0^1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{(1 - 0 - 0 + 0)} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}.\end{aligned}$$

Notice: not about the values
that $\sin(\pi x)$ takes (how big they are)

Example With the inner product on $M_{22}(\mathbb{R})$

given by $\langle A, B \rangle = \text{tr}(B^T A)$, find the
angle between $C = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{2} \\ \sqrt{2} & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ and $D = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{3} \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Solution Use the useful fact above:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle C, D \rangle &= \sum_{j=1}^2 \sum_{i=1}^2 c_{ij} d_{ij} = 0 \cdot 0 + \sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{3} + \sqrt{2} \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0 \\ &= \sqrt{2} \sqrt{3}.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\|C\| &= \sqrt{\langle C, C \rangle} = \sqrt{0 \cdot 0 + \sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2} + \sqrt{2} \cdot \sqrt{2} + 0 \cdot 0} \\ &= \sqrt{4} = 2\end{aligned}$$

$$\|D\| = \sqrt{\langle D, D \rangle} = \sqrt{0 \cdot 0 + \sqrt{3} \cdot \sqrt{3} + 0 \cdot 0 + 0 \cdot 0} = \sqrt{3}$$

Thus the angle θ between C and D is given by

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle C, D \rangle}{\|C\| \|D\|}$$

$$= \sqrt{2}\sqrt{3} / 2\sqrt{3} = 1/\sqrt{2}$$

So $\theta = \cos^{-1}(1/\sqrt{2}) = \pi/4$.

Back to orthogonal complements!

Example

(1) The row space of an $m \times n$ matrix A and its null space are orthogonal complements in \mathbb{R}^n . ^{real}

(2) The column space of A in (1) is orthogonal to the null space of A^T in \mathbb{R}^m .

Proof $A = \begin{pmatrix} \underline{\underline{r_1}} \\ \vdots \\ \underline{\underline{r_m}} \end{pmatrix}$ each $r_i = (r_{i1}, \dots, r_{in})$

Vectors in row space look like

$$v = \alpha_1 r_1 + \dots + \alpha_m r_m, \text{ linear comb. } (\alpha_i \text{ in } \mathbb{R})$$

For a vector w in null space of A , we know $Aw = 0$ i.e. $r_1 \cdot w = r_2 \cdot w = \dots = r_m \cdot w = 0$.

$$\text{So look at } w \cdot v = \dots = \alpha_1 w \cdot r_1 + \dots + \alpha_m w \cdot r_m = 0.$$

(2) Column space of A is the row space of the transpose A^T (So apply (1) to A^T .)