

Ch. 6 - Inner product spaces & orthogonality

§1. Applications of the dot product

Recall that the dot product of two vectors \underline{x} & \underline{y} in \mathbb{R}^n was defined by

$$\underline{x} \cdot \underline{y} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n.$$

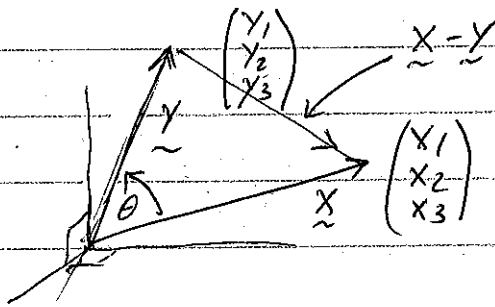
We can also write $\underline{x} \cdot \underline{y}$ as $\underline{x}^T \underline{y}$ where $\underline{x}^T \underline{y}$ is the matrix product of \underline{x}^T and \underline{y} .

We also defined the length of a vector \underline{x} in \mathbb{R}^n by

$$\|\underline{x}\| = \sqrt{\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x}} = \sqrt{(x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2)}.$$

Prop. 1 Let \underline{x} & \underline{y} be non-zero vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 and θ be the angle from \underline{x} to \underline{y} . Then $\cos \theta = \frac{\underline{x} \cdot \underline{y}}{\|\underline{x}\| \|\underline{y}\|}$

Proof:



The triangle determined the origin and the position vectors \underline{x} & \underline{y} . Then by the law of cosines

$$\|\underline{x} - \underline{y}\|^2 = \|\underline{x}\|^2 + \|\underline{y}\|^2 - 2\|\underline{x}\| \|\underline{y}\| \cos \theta.$$

$$\text{So } 2\|\underline{x}\| \|\underline{y}\| \cos \theta = \|\underline{x}\|^2 + \|\underline{y}\|^2 - \|\underline{x} - \underline{y}\|^2$$

$$= (x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2) + (y_1^2 + y_2^2 + y_3^2) - \{(x_1 - y_1)^2 + (x_2 - y_2)^2 + (x_3 - y_3)^2\}$$

$$= 2x_1 y_1 + 2x_2 y_2 + 2x_3 y_3 = 2(\underline{x} \cdot \underline{y})$$

$$\therefore \cos \theta = \frac{2(\underline{x} \cdot \underline{y})}{2\|\underline{x}\| \|\underline{y}\|} = \frac{\underline{x} \cdot \underline{y}}{\|\underline{x}\| \|\underline{y}\|}$$

Note: The results holds in \mathbb{R}^n also for any n , but it is not easy to visualize in \mathbb{R}^n for $n \geq 4$.

Def. Let \underline{v} & \underline{w} be any two vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . We say that \underline{v} is orthogonal to \underline{w} , and write $\underline{v} \perp \underline{w}$ if $\underline{v} \cdot \underline{w} = 0$. (2)

We define the component of \underline{w} that is parallel to \underline{v} by $\text{proj}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w}) = \left\{ \frac{(\underline{w} \cdot \underline{v})}{\|\underline{v}\|^2} \right\} \underline{v}$, if $\underline{v} \neq \underline{0}$.

We define the component of \underline{w} that is orthogonal to \underline{v} by $\text{orthog}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w}) = \underline{w} - \text{proj}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w})$.

Fact (a) If $\underline{v} \perp \underline{w}$, then the angle from \underline{v} to \underline{w} is $\pm 90^\circ$
(b) $\text{proj}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w}) \perp \text{orthog}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w})$.

Proof (a) Let θ be the angle from \underline{v} to \underline{w} . Then $\cos(\theta) = \frac{(\underline{v} \cdot \underline{w})}{\|\underline{v}\| \|\underline{w}\|} = 0$. So $\theta = \pm 90^\circ$.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(b) } \text{proj}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w}) \cdot \text{orthog}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w}) &= \frac{(\underline{w} \cdot \underline{v})}{\|\underline{v}\|^2} \left(\underline{w} - \left\{ \frac{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{v}}{\|\underline{v}\|^2} \underline{v} \right\} \right) \\ &= \frac{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{v}}{\|\underline{v}\|^2} \left(\underline{v} \cdot \underline{w} - \frac{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{v}}{\|\underline{v}\|^2} \|\underline{v}\|^2 \right) \\ &= \frac{\underline{w} \cdot \underline{v}}{\|\underline{v}\|^2} (\underline{v} \cdot \underline{w} - \underline{v} \cdot \underline{w}) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

So $\text{proj}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w}) \perp \text{orthog}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w})$.

Ex. 1 Let $\underline{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$ & $\underline{w} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$. Find (a) $\text{proj}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w})$ & (b) $\text{orthog}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w})$.

Sol. (a) $\text{proj}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w}) = \frac{(\underline{w} \cdot \underline{v})}{\|\underline{v}\|^2} \underline{v} = \frac{1}{4+4+1} \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \underline{v} = \frac{5}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2/3 \\ -2/3 \\ 1/3 \end{pmatrix}$

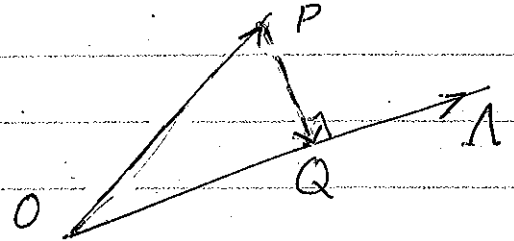
(b) $\text{orthog}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w}) = \underline{w} - \text{proj}_{\underline{v}}(\underline{w}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} -2/3 \\ -2/3 \\ 1/3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5/3 \\ -1/3 \\ 8/3 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ -1 \\ 8 \end{pmatrix}$

Ex. 2 (a) Find the point Q on the line $\Lambda = \{\alpha(1, 2, -2)^T : \alpha \in \mathbb{R}\}$ that is closest to the point $P = (1, 2, 1)^T$

(b) Find the shortest distance between P and the line Λ .

Sol. (a) Suppose $Q = c(1, 2, -2)^T$. Then $\vec{PQ} = \vec{PQ} + \vec{OQ} = \vec{OQ} - \vec{OP}$ must be orthogonal to the direction of the line Λ .

Thus $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot (\vec{OQ} - \vec{OP}) = 0$.



Now $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot (c\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} c \\ 2c \\ -2c \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right\} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} c-1 \\ 2c-2 \\ -2c-1 \end{pmatrix}$

So $1 \cdot (c-1) + 2(2c-2) + (-2)(-2c-1) = 0$.

$\therefore 9c - 3 = 0$. Hence $c = 1/3$.

Thus $Q = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 2/3 \\ -2/3 \end{pmatrix}$. Q is called the projection of P onto Λ .

(b) Shortest distance between P and $\Lambda = \|\vec{PQ}\|$. Now

$\vec{PQ} = \vec{OQ} - \vec{OP} = \begin{pmatrix} 1/3 \\ 2/3 \\ -2/3 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2/3 \\ -4/3 \\ -5/3 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ -4 \\ -5 \end{pmatrix}$. So

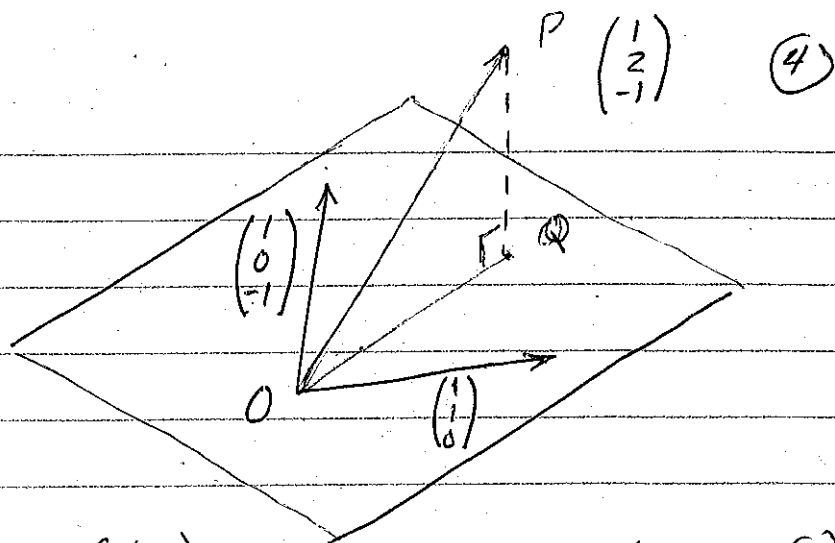
Shortest dist. = $\frac{1}{3} \sqrt{4+16+25} = \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{45} = \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{9 \cdot 5} = \sqrt{5}$.

Ex 3 (a) Find the point Q in the plane $\Pi = \{\alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} : \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}\}$ that is closest to the point $P = (1, 2, -1)^T$

(b) Find the shortest distance between the point P and the plane Π .

Sol. (a) Suppose $Q = a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$. Then $\vec{PQ} = \vec{OQ} - \vec{OP}$ must be orthogonal to the plane Π . So \vec{PQ} must be orthogonal to both of the vectors generating Π .

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Ex. 3(a)} \quad \vec{PQ} &= \vec{OQ} - \vec{OP} \\ &= a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \\ &= \begin{pmatrix} a+b-1 \\ a-2 \\ -b+1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$



$$\text{So } \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \vec{PQ} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 1(a+b-1) + 1(a-2) + 0(-b+1) = 0 \quad \therefore 2a+b=3 \quad (1)$$

$$\text{And } \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot \vec{PQ} = 0 \Rightarrow 1(a+b-1) + 0(a-2) + (-1)(-b+1) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a+2b=2 \quad (2)$$

From (1) $b = 3 - 2a$. Sub. in (2) gives us

$$a + 2(3 - 2a) = 2 \Rightarrow 4 = 3a \Rightarrow a = 4/3.$$

$$\therefore b = 3 - 2(4/3) = 9/3 - 8/3 = 1/3.$$

$$\therefore Q = \frac{4}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 5/3 \\ 4/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix}. \quad Q \text{ is called the projection of } P \text{ onto } \Pi.$$

(b) Shortest distance from P to $\Pi = \|\vec{PQ}\|$, Now $\vec{PQ} =$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 5/3 \\ 4/3 \\ -1/3 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2/3 \\ -2/3 \\ 2/3 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{2}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

So shortest distance $= \frac{2}{3} \sqrt{1+1+1} = \frac{2}{3} \sqrt{3}.$

Remark : Ex. 2 & 3 shows how we can find the point Q in a subspace S of \mathbb{R}^n that is nearest to a given point P in \mathbb{R}^n . An affine space is any set of vectors $T = \{ \underline{a} + \underline{v} : \underline{v} \in S \}$ where \underline{a} is a fixed vector in \mathbb{R}^n and S is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . The same method (from Ex. 2 & 3) can be used to find the point Q in an affine space T of \mathbb{R}^n that is nearest to a given point P in \mathbb{R}^n .

Theorem 2: Let U be a subspace of the vector space V and v be any vector in V . Then we can find unique vectors $u \in U$ & $w \in V$ such that $v = u + w$ and $w \cdot x = 0$ for each $x \in U$.

Proof: Let $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_k\}$ be a basis of U .
Put $u = c_1 u_1 + c_2 u_2 + \dots + c_k u_k$ where c_1, \dots, c_k are chosen such that

$$u \cdot u_i = v \cdot u_i \quad \text{for each } i=1, \dots, k.$$

This choice is possible because this is a system of k linear equations in k unknowns and since u_1, \dots, u_k are linearly independent, it will have a unique solution. Now let

$$w = v - u. \quad \text{Then } v = u + w \text{ and for each } i=1, \dots, k; \quad w \cdot u_i = (v - u) \cdot u_i = v \cdot u_i - u \cdot u_i = 0$$

Now if $x \in U$, then $x = \alpha_1 u_1 + \alpha_2 u_2 + \dots + \alpha_k u_k$ for some scalars $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned} w \cdot x &= w \cdot (\alpha_1 u_1 + \dots + \alpha_k u_k) \\ &= \alpha_1 (w \cdot u_1) + \dots + \alpha_k (w \cdot u_k) \\ &= \alpha_1 (0) + \dots + \alpha_k (0) = 0. \end{aligned}$$

So $w \cdot x = 0$ for each $x \in U$.

Def. let U be a subspace of the vector space V and $v \in V$. We define the projection of v onto the subspace U by

$$\text{Proj}_U(v) = \text{the unique vector } u \in U \text{ such that } v = u + w \text{ and } w \cdot x = 0 \text{ for each } x \in U.$$

§2. Orthogonal subspaces

(6)

Def. Let S_1 and S_2 be two subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n . We say that S_1 is orthogonal to S_2 , and write $S_1 \perp S_2$, if $\underline{x} \cdot \underline{y} = 0$ for each $\underline{x} \in S_1$ & each $\underline{y} \in S_2$.

Def. Let S be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . We define the orthogonal complement of S by

$$S^\perp = \{ \underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \underline{x} \cdot \underline{y} = 0 \text{ for each } \underline{y} \in S \}.$$

Prop. 3 : If S is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n , then (a) S^\perp is also a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n & (b) $S \cap S^\perp = \{0\}$.

Proof (a) Let S be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Then $0 \in S^\perp$ because $0 \cdot \underline{y} = 0$ for each $\underline{y} \in S$. So $S^\perp \neq \emptyset$.

Now suppose $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2 \in S^\perp$. Then for each $\underline{y} \in S$,

$$(\underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2) \cdot \underline{y} = \underline{x}_1 \cdot \underline{y} + \underline{x}_2 \cdot \underline{y} = 0 + 0 = 0$$

$$\& (\alpha \underline{x}_1) \cdot \underline{y} = (\alpha \underline{x}_1) \cdot \underline{y} = \alpha (\underline{x}_1 \cdot \underline{y}) = \alpha (0) = 0.$$

So $\underline{x}_1 + \underline{x}_2 \in S^\perp$ and $\alpha \underline{x}_1 \in S^\perp$. So S^\perp is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

(b) Now suppose $\underline{x} \in S \cap S^\perp$. Then $\underline{x} \cdot \underline{x} = 0$ because $\underline{x} \in S^\perp$ & $\underline{x} \in S$. So $\|\underline{x}\|^2 = 0 \Rightarrow \underline{x} = \underline{0}$.

Since $\underline{0} \in S$ & $\underline{0} \in S^\perp$, it follows that $S \cap S^\perp = \{0\}$.

Ex. 1(a) Let $S = \{ \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$. Then $S^\perp = \{ \beta \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} : \beta \in \mathbb{R} \}$

(b) Let $S = \{ \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} : \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$. Then $S^\perp = \{ \beta \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \gamma \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} : \beta, \gamma \in \mathbb{R} \}$.

Note: There will be many ways of expressing S^\perp .

Def. Let U & W be subspaces of the vector space V , We (7)
define $U \cap W$ and $U + W$ by

$$U \cap W = \{v \in V : v \in U \text{ \& } v \in W\}$$

$$U + W = \{u + w : u \in U \text{ \& } w \in W\}.$$

If $U \cap W = \{0\}$, then we will write $U \oplus W$ for $U + W$ to indicate that U & W have no non-zero vector in common.

Prop. 4 Let U & W be subspace of the vector space V .

Then (a) $U \cap W$ is a subspace of V .

(b) $U + W$ is a subspace of V .

Proof. Do for H.W.

Theorem 5. Let U be any subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Then
 $\mathbb{R}^n = U \oplus U^\perp$.

Proof. Let v be any vector in \mathbb{R}^n . Then we can write $v = u + w$ where $u = \text{Proj}_U(v)$, the projection of v onto the subspace U , and $w = v - u$.

Since u is the vector in U that is closest to v , it follows that $v - u$ is orthogonal to each vector in U . Thus $w = v - u \in U^\perp$.

So $\mathbb{R}^n = U + U^\perp$. Since $U \cap U^\perp = \{0\}$, it follows that $\mathbb{R}^n = U \oplus U^\perp$.

Remark: The projection of v onto U can be written as $u = (v \cdot u_1)u_1 + (v \cdot u_2)u_2 + \dots + (v \cdot u_k)u_k$ where u_1, \dots, u_k is an orthonormal basis of U . (See Sec. 6.4)

Corollary 6: Let U be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n . Then

(8)

$$(U^\perp)^\perp = U.$$

Proof: Suppose $\underline{y} \in U$. Then $\underline{x} \cdot \underline{y} = 0$ for each $\underline{x} \in U^\perp$.
So $\underline{y} \cdot \underline{x} = 0$ for each $\underline{x} \in U^\perp$. Hence $\underline{y} \in (U^\perp)^\perp$,
because $(U^\perp)^\perp = \{\underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \underline{y} \cdot \underline{x} = 0 \text{ for each } \underline{x} \in U^\perp\}$.
Thus $U \subseteq (U^\perp)^\perp \dots (*)$

Now suppose $\underline{y} \in (U^\perp)^\perp$. Then we can write \underline{y}
in the form $\underline{y} = \underline{u} + \underline{w}$ where $\underline{u} \in U$ & $\underline{w} \in U^\perp$
because $\mathbb{R}^n = U \oplus U^\perp$. So

$$\underline{w} = \underline{y} - \underline{u} \in U^\perp$$

Since $\underline{y} \in (U^\perp)^\perp$ and $\underline{u} \in U \subseteq (U^\perp)^\perp$, it follows
that $\underline{y} - \underline{u} \in (U^\perp)^\perp$. Thus $\underline{y} - \underline{u} \in (U^\perp) \cap (U^\perp)^\perp$.

But $(U^\perp) \cap (U^\perp)^\perp = \{0\}$. So $\underline{y} - \underline{u} = 0$. Hence
 $\underline{y} = \underline{u} \in U$. Thus $(U^\perp)^\perp \subseteq U \dots (**)$.

From (*) & (**), it follows that $(U^\perp)^\perp = U$.

Theorem 7 Let A be any $m \times n$ matrix. Then

(a) $[\text{RowSp}(A)]^\perp = [\text{Null}(A)]^\perp$ & $\mathbb{R}^n = \text{Null}(A) \oplus [\text{RowSp}(A)]^\perp$.

(b) $[\text{CoNull}(A)]^\perp = [\text{ColSp}(A)]^\perp$ & $\mathbb{R}^m = \text{ColSp}(A) \oplus [\text{CoNull}(A)]^\perp$.

Proof:

(a) $\underline{x} \in \text{Null}(A) \Leftrightarrow A\underline{x} = \underline{0} \Leftrightarrow \vec{r}_i(A) \cdot \underline{x} = 0$ for each $i=1, \dots, m$
 $\Leftrightarrow [\vec{r}_i(A)]^\perp \cdot \underline{x} = 0$ for each row \vec{r}_i of A
 $\Leftrightarrow \underline{y} \cdot \underline{x} = 0$ for each $\underline{y} \in [\text{RowSp}(A)]^\perp$
 $\Leftrightarrow \underline{x} \in \{[\text{RowSp}(A)]^\perp\}^\perp$.

Thus $\text{Null}(A) = \{[\text{RowSp}(A)]^\perp\}^\perp$. Hence
 $[\text{Null}(A)]^\perp = \{[\text{RowSp}(A)]^\perp\}^{\perp\perp} = [\text{RowSp}(A)]^\perp$.

$$\begin{aligned}
 (b) \quad \underline{x} \in [\text{CoNull}(A)]^T &\Leftrightarrow (\underline{x})^T \in \text{CoNull}(A) \Leftrightarrow (\underline{x})^T A = \underline{0} \quad (9) \\
 &\Leftrightarrow (\underline{x}^T) \underline{c}_j(A) = 0 \text{ for each column } j \text{ of } A. \\
 &\Leftrightarrow \underline{x} \cdot \underline{c}_j(A) = 0 \text{ for each column of } A \\
 &\Leftrightarrow \underline{x} \cdot \underline{y} = 0 \text{ for each } \underline{y} \in \text{ColSp}(A) \\
 &\Leftrightarrow \underline{x} \in [\text{ColSp}(A)]^\perp
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Thus } [\text{CoNull}(A)]^T = [\text{ColSp}(A)]^\perp.$$

The second part of the results follow immediately from Theorem 5.

Ex. 2 Let $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -3 & 2 \\ 1 & 2 & -2 & 0 \\ -2 & -2 & 4 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, the matrix from Ex. 1 Sec 4.6.

$$\begin{aligned}
 (a) \quad \text{Then } [\text{RowSp}(A)]^T &= \text{span}\{(1, 2, 0, -4), (0, 0, 1, -2)\}^T \\
 &= \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ -4 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}\right\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Also $\text{Null}(A) = \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right\}$. Now we can check that

$$[\text{RowSp}(A)]^T = [\text{Null}(A)]^\perp$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 (b) \quad \text{Also } [\text{CoNull}(A)]^T &= \text{span}\{(0, 0, 1, 0)\}^T = \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right\} \\
 \text{and } \text{ColSp}(A) &= \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ -2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}\right\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

Now we can check that $[\text{CoNull}(A)]^T = [\text{ColSp}(A)]^\perp$.

$$(c) \quad \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 0 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}\right\} \oplus \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ -4 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}\right\} = \mathbb{R}^4 \quad \& \quad \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right\} \oplus \text{span}\left\{\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -2 \\ -3 \\ -2 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}\right\} = \mathbb{R}^6$$

§3. Least squares problems

Suppose we have n variables x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n and each experiment we do gives us a linear equation in x_1, \dots, x_n . Then by doing n experiments, we will get a system of n linear equations in n unknowns. Since each experiment is independently done, we would expect the n equations to be linearly independent. So we can expect a unique solution set $x_1 = \hat{x}_1, \dots, x_n = \hat{x}_n$. Unfortunately, because of experimental errors, this solution set might not be very accurate. So how can we improve the accuracy?

Well, we can do m experiments where $m > n$. Unfortunately this will inevitably lead to an inconsistent $m \times n$ system. So what can we do now? Well, we can find the solution of the system that is in some sense the "best" approximation. We will explain what "best" means soon.

Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix with rank n and $\underline{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$. If $m > n$, then the system of linear equations $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$ will, in general, be inconsistent. [Recall that $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$ is a consistent system iff $\underline{b} \in \text{ColSp}(A)$.] Now if $\underline{b} \notin \text{ColSp}(A)$, then we can find the vector $\underline{u} \in \text{ColSp}(A) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^m$ that is closest to \underline{b} . So $\underline{u} = \text{Proj}_U(\underline{b})$ where $U = \text{ColSp}(A)$. Then we know that $\underline{u} = A\hat{\underline{x}}$ for a unique $\hat{\underline{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ & this $\hat{\underline{x}}$ is our best approximation.

Qu: Let A be an $m \times n$ matrix and suppose the system $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$ is inconsistent. How can we find a point $\hat{\underline{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $\|A\hat{\underline{x}} - \underline{b}\|$ is a minimum?

Sol. To find $A\hat{\underline{x}}$ all we have to do is to find the projection of \underline{b} onto the subspace $\text{ColSp}(A)$ of \mathbb{R}^m . Now let $\underline{a}_1, \dots, \underline{a}_n$ be the columns of A . Then $A = [\underline{a}_1 \dots \underline{a}_n]$. Now in order to find $\hat{\underline{x}}$, we must solve the equations

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{a}_1 \cdot (A\hat{\underline{x}} - \underline{b}) &= 0, \text{ i.e., } & \underline{a}_1^T (A\hat{\underline{x}} - \underline{b}) &= 0 \\ \underline{a}_2 \cdot (A\hat{\underline{x}} - \underline{b}) &= 0, \text{ i.e., } & \underline{a}_2^T (A\hat{\underline{x}} - \underline{b}) &= 0 \\ & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \underline{a}_n \cdot (A\hat{\underline{x}} - \underline{b}) &= 0, \text{ i.e., } & \underline{a}_n^T (A\hat{\underline{x}} - \underline{b}) &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

So $\begin{bmatrix} \underline{a}_1^T \\ \vdots \\ \underline{a}_n^T \end{bmatrix} (A\hat{\underline{x}} - \underline{b}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, i.e., $A^T(A\hat{\underline{x}} - \underline{b}) = \underline{0}$

So $A^T A \hat{\underline{x}} = A^T \underline{b}$. This system of equations is called the normal system of equations of the system $A\underline{x} = \underline{b}$.

If $\underline{a}_1, \dots, \underline{a}_n$ are linearly independent, the normal system $A^T A \hat{\underline{x}} = A^T \underline{b}$ will have a unique solution $\hat{\underline{x}}$. This solution $\hat{\underline{x}}$ is called the least squares solution because $\|A\hat{\underline{x}} - \underline{b}\|^2 = [(\vec{r}_1 \hat{\underline{x}} - b_1)^2 + \dots + (\vec{r}_m \hat{\underline{x}} - b_m)^2]$ will be a minimum. Here $\vec{r}_i = \text{row } i \text{ of } A$.

Theorem 8 Let A be any $m \times n$ matrix of rank n .

Then the normal system $A^T A x = A^T b$ has a unique solution $\hat{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$ which is the unique least squares solution of the system $Ax = b$

Proof: We will first show that $A^T A$ is non-singular.

Suppose $(A^T A)x = 0$. Let $z = Ax$. Then $Az = A^T(Ax) = (A^T A)x = 0$. So $z \in \text{Null}(A^T) = [\text{CoNull}(A)]^T$

But $z = Ax \in \text{ColSp}(A)$. But $[\text{CoNull}(A)]^T = [\text{ColSp}(A)]^\perp$. So $z \in \text{ColSp}(A) \cap [\text{ColSp}(A)]^\perp = \{0\}$

Hence $z = 0$. So $Ax = 0$. Since A has rank n ,

$x = 0$. So $(A^T A)$ is non-singular & hence is

invertible. Thus $(A^T A)x = A^T b$ has a

unique solution $\hat{x} = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T b$

Ex. 1 Find the least squares solution of the inconsistent system.

$$x_1 + 2x_2 = 0$$

$$x_1 + x_2 = 1$$

$$x_1 + 2x_2 = 0.1$$

Sol. We have $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0.1 \end{bmatrix}$. So $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$ & $b = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0.1 \end{bmatrix}$

The normal system is $A^T A \hat{x} = A^T b$. So

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}_1 \\ \hat{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 2 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0.1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 5 \\ 5 & 9 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}_1 \\ \hat{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.1 \\ 1.2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \therefore \begin{bmatrix} \hat{x}_1 \\ \hat{x}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{27-25} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & -5 \\ -5 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1.1 \\ 1.2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 9.9 - 6.0 \\ -5.5 + 3.6 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.95 \\ -0.95 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex.1 Checking: $\hat{x}_1 + 2\hat{x}_2 - b_1 = 0.05 - 0 = 0.05$
 $\hat{x}_1 + \hat{x}_2 - b_2 = 1.00 - 1 = 0$
 $\hat{x}_1 + 2\hat{x}_2 - b_3 = 0.05 - 0.1 = -0.05$

So $\|A\hat{x} - \underline{b}\|^2 = (0.05)^2 + (0)^2 + (-0.05)^2 = 0.005$.

Now if we were to take any other vector $\underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^2$, we will find $\|A\underline{y} - \underline{b}\|^2 > \|A\hat{x} - \underline{b}\|^2$. Let us try $\underline{y} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$. Then

$$A\underline{y} - \underline{b} = \begin{cases} 2 + 2(-1) - 0 = 0 \\ 2 + (-1) - 1 = 0 \\ 2 + 2(-1) - 0.1 = .1 \end{cases}$$

So $\|A\underline{y} - \underline{b}\|^2 = 0^2 + 0^2 + (.1)^2 = 0.010 > 0.005 = \|A\hat{x} - \underline{b}\|^2$.

Ex.2 Three experiments were done to estimate the value of x_1 and the following system was obtained

$$3x_1 = 2.7$$

$$-4x_1 = -4.0$$

$$5x_1 = 5.1$$

Find the least squares estimate \hat{x}_1 of x_1 .

Sol. $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} x_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2.7 \\ -4.0 \\ 5.1 \end{bmatrix}$. So $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & -4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ -4 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \hat{x}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -4 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2.7 \\ -4.0 \\ 5.1 \end{bmatrix}$

$\therefore 50\hat{x}_1 = 8.1 + 16 + 25.5 = 49.6$. So $\hat{x}_1 = \frac{49.6}{50} = 0.992$

Checking $3\hat{x}_1 - 2.7 = 2.976 - 2.7 = 0.276$ $\|A\hat{x} - \underline{b}\|^2 = 0.076176 +$
 $-4\hat{x}_1 - (-4) = -3.968 + 4 = 0.032$ $0.001024 + 0.0196 = 0.0968$
 $5\hat{x}_1 - 5.1 = 4.960 - 5.1 = -0.140$

Ex.2 Now if we try any other value $y = 0.99$ say, we see that

$$3y - 2.7 = 0.27 \quad \|Ay - b\|^2 = 0.0729$$

$$-4y - (-4) = 0.04 \quad + 0.0016 + 0.0225 = 0.0971$$

$$5y - (5.1) = -0.15$$

Ex.3 Find the least squares fit by a linear function $y = c_0 + c_1 x$ of the data:

x	1	2	3
y	-1	0	2

Sol. If we substitute the three values of x into the equation $y = c_0 + c_1 x$ we get

$$c_0 + 1 \cdot c_1 = -1$$

$$c_0 + 2 \cdot c_1 = 0$$

$$c_0 + 3 \cdot c_1 = 2$$

So $\underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix}}_A \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} c_0 \\ c_1 \end{bmatrix}}_b = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. $\therefore \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{c}_0 \\ \hat{c}_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$\therefore \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 6 \\ 6 & 14 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{c}_0 \\ \hat{c}_1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix}$. $\therefore \begin{bmatrix} \hat{c}_0 \\ \hat{c}_1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{42-36} \begin{bmatrix} 14 & -6 \\ -6 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -8/3 \\ 3/2 \end{bmatrix}$

$\therefore y = -\frac{8}{3} + \frac{3}{2}x$, Check.

x	1	2	3
$\hat{c}_0 + \hat{c}_1 x$	-7/6	-2/6	1/6

Ex.4 Find the least squares fit by a quadratic function $y = c_0 + c_1 x + c_2 x^2$ of the data:

x	-1	0	1	2
y	0	-1	0	2

(for masochists only)

Sol.

$$c_0 + c_1(1) + c_2(1) = 0$$

$$c_0 + c_1(0) + c_2(0) = -1$$

$$c_0 + c_1(1) + c_2(1) = 0$$

$$c_0 + c_1(2) + c_2(4) = 2$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 4 & 2 & 6 \\ 2 & 6 & 8 \\ 6 & 8 & 18 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \hat{c}_0 \\ \hat{c}_1 \\ \hat{c}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \hat{c}_0 \\ \hat{c}_1 \\ \hat{c}_2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{26} \begin{bmatrix} 11 & 3 & -5 \\ 3 & 9 & -5 \\ -5 & -5 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 11 \\ 4 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{20} \begin{bmatrix} -17 \\ -1 \\ 15 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\therefore y = \frac{3x^2}{4} - \frac{x}{20} - \frac{17}{20}$

§4. Orthogonal sets of vectors & orthonormal bases

Def. Let $\{\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_k\}$ be a set of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n . We say that $\{\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_k\}$ is an orthogonal set if $\underline{v}_i \cdot \underline{v}_j = 0$ for all $i \neq j$.

Ex. 1(a) $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is an orthogonal set of vectors in \mathbb{R}^2 .

(b) $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is an orthogonal set of vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 .

Prop. 9 If $\{\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_k\}$ is an orthogonal set of non-zero vectors in \mathbb{R}^n , then $\{\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_k\}$ is lin. indep.

Proof: Suppose $c_1 \underline{v}_1 + c_2 \underline{v}_2 + \dots + c_k \underline{v}_k = \underline{0}$. Then by taking the dot product of both sides of this equation with \underline{v}_i , we get

$$(c_1 \underline{v}_1 + c_2 \underline{v}_2 + \dots + c_k \underline{v}_k) \cdot \underline{v}_i = \underline{0} \cdot \underline{v}_i$$

So $0 + 0 + \dots + c_i (\underline{v}_i \cdot \underline{v}_i) + 0 + \dots + 0 = 0$

Thus $c_i \cdot \|\underline{v}_i\|^2 = 0$. Since \underline{v}_i is non-zero, $\|\underline{v}_i\|^2 \neq 0$, it follows that $c_i = 0$ for each $i = 1, \dots, k$.

Hence $\{\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_k\}$ is linearly independent.

Def. A basis $\{\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_n\}$ of \mathbb{R}^n is said to be an orthogonal basis if $\{\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_n\}$ is an orthogonal set. We say that $\{\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_n\}$ is an orthonormal basis if in addition $\|\underline{v}_i\| = 1$ for each $i = 1, \dots, n$.

Ex. 2(a) The set $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -3 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is an orthogonal basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .

(b) The set $\left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 4/5 \\ 3/5 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -3/5 \\ 4/5 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$ is an orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Prop. 10 Let $B = \langle \underline{u}_1, \underline{u}_2, \dots, \underline{u}_n \rangle$ be an ordered orthonormal basis of \mathbb{R}^n and \underline{v} be a vector in \mathbb{R}^n .

Then $[\underline{v}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_n \end{bmatrix}$.

Proof: Suppose $[\underline{v}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix}$. Then $\underline{v} = c_1 \underline{u}_1 + \dots + c_n \underline{u}_n$.

So $\underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_i = (c_1 \underline{u}_1 + c_2 \underline{u}_2 + \dots + c_n \underline{u}_n) \cdot \underline{u}_i$
 $= c_1 (\underline{u}_1 \cdot \underline{u}_i) + \dots + c_i (\underline{u}_i \cdot \underline{u}_i) + \dots + c_n (\underline{u}_n \cdot \underline{u}_i)$
 $= c_1 (0) + \dots + c_{i-1} (0) + c_i \|\underline{u}_i\|^2 + \dots + 0$
 $= c_i \|\underline{u}_i\|^2 = c_i$

Hence $[\underline{v}]_B = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ \vdots \\ c_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_1 \\ \vdots \\ \underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_n \end{bmatrix}$

Prop. 11 Let U be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n and $\{\underline{u}_1, \dots, \underline{u}_k\}$ be an orthonormal basis of U . Then for any vector \underline{v} in \mathbb{R}^n , $\text{Proj}_U(\underline{v}) = (\underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_1)\underline{u}_1 + \dots + (\underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_k)\underline{u}_k$.
Consequently, $\text{Orthog}_U(\underline{v}) = \underline{v} - \text{Proj}_U(\underline{v})$.

Proof: Let $\underline{u} = (\underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_1)\underline{u}_1 + \dots + (\underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_k)\underline{u}_k$. Then $\underline{u} \in U$. Now put $\underline{w} = \underline{v} - \underline{u}$. Then for each $i = 1, \dots, k$ we have

$\underline{w} \cdot \underline{u}_i = (\underline{v} - \underline{u}) \cdot \underline{u}_i$
 $= \underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_i - \{(\underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_1)\underline{u}_1 + \dots + (\underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_k)\underline{u}_k\} \cdot \underline{u}_i$
 $= \underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_i - \{0 + 0 + \dots + \underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_i + \dots + 0\}$
 $= (\underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_i) - (\underline{v} \cdot \underline{u}_i) = 0$

So $\underline{w} \perp \underline{u}_i$ for each \underline{u}_i . Thus $\underline{u} = \text{Proj}_U(\underline{v})$ and $\underline{w} = \underline{v} - \underline{u} = \underline{v} - \text{Proj}_U(\underline{v}) = \text{Orthog}_U(\underline{v})$.

The Gram-Schmidt orthonormalization process.

Let $\{\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_k\}$ be a basis of the subspace U of \mathbb{R}^n . The Gram-Schmidt process produces

- (a) an orthogonal basis $\underline{v}_1, \dots, \underline{v}_k$ of U and
- (b) an orthonormal basis $\underline{u}_1, \dots, \underline{u}_k$ of U .

1. Let $\underline{v}_1 = \underline{x}_1$. 2. Put $\underline{v}_2 = \underline{x}_2 - \frac{(\underline{x}_2 \cdot \underline{v}_1)}{\|\underline{v}_1\|^2} \underline{v}_1$

3. Put $\underline{v}_3 = \underline{x}_3 - \frac{(\underline{x}_3 \cdot \underline{v}_1)}{\|\underline{v}_1\|^2} \underline{v}_1 - \frac{\underline{x}_3 \cdot \underline{v}_2}{\|\underline{v}_2\|^2} \underline{v}_2$

k. Put $\underline{v}_k = \underline{x}_k - \frac{\underline{x}_k \cdot \underline{v}_1}{\|\underline{v}_1\|^2} \underline{v}_1 - \frac{\underline{x}_k \cdot \underline{v}_2}{\|\underline{v}_2\|^2} \underline{v}_2 - \dots - \frac{\underline{x}_k \cdot \underline{v}_{k-1}}{\|\underline{v}_{k-1}\|^2} \underline{v}_{k-1}$

Finally, put $\underline{u}_i = \underline{v}_i / \|\underline{v}_i\|$ for each $i = 1, \dots, k$.

Ex. 3 Find an orthogonal basis & an orthonormal basis of the RowSpace of the matrix A on the right.

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & -1 & 2 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Sol. Let $\underline{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$, $\underline{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\underline{x}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$. Then

$\{\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_3\}$ is a basis for RowSp(A).

(a) $\underline{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$, $\underline{v}_2 = \underline{x}_2 - \frac{(\underline{x}_2 \cdot \underline{v}_1)}{\|\underline{v}_1\|^2} \underline{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{6}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$,

$\underline{v}_3 = \underline{x}_3 - \frac{\underline{x}_3 \cdot \underline{v}_1}{\|\underline{v}_1\|^2} \underline{v}_1 - \frac{\underline{x}_3 \cdot \underline{v}_2}{\|\underline{v}_2\|^2} \underline{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{3}{9} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{2}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

Ex 3

So an orthogonal basis of RowSp(A) will be

$$\{\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2, \underline{v}_3\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\} \quad \|\underline{v}_1\|=3, \|\underline{v}_2\|=\sqrt{2} \text{ and } \|\underline{v}_3\|=\sqrt{3}$$

(b) An orthonormal basis for

$$\text{RowSp}(A) \text{ with thus be: } \{\underline{u}_1, \underline{u}_2, \underline{u}_3\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Ex 4

$$\text{Let } \underline{x}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \underline{x}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ \& } \underline{x}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Find an orthonormal basis of span{ $\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2, \underline{x}_3$ }

$$a) \underline{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \underline{v}_2 = \underline{x}_2 - \frac{\underline{x}_2 \cdot \underline{v}_1}{\|\underline{v}_1\|^2} \underline{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{5}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -2/3 \\ 1/3 \\ 1/3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\underline{v}_3 = \underline{x}_3 - \frac{\underline{x}_3 \cdot \underline{v}_1}{\|\underline{v}_1\|^2} \underline{v}_1 - \frac{\underline{x}_3 \cdot \underline{v}_2}{\|\underline{v}_2\|^2} \underline{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{2}{3} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \frac{(-1/3)}{6/9} \begin{pmatrix} -2/3 \\ 1/3 \\ 1/3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 2/3 \\ 2/3 \\ 2/3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} -2/6 \\ 1/6 \\ 1/6 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1/2 \\ -1/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \{\underline{v}_1, \underline{v}_2, \underline{v}_3\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$(b) \|\underline{v}_1\| = \sqrt{1^2+1^2+1^2} = \sqrt{3}, \|\underline{v}_2\| = \frac{1}{3} \sqrt{2^2+1^2+1^2} = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{3}$$

$$\text{and } \|\underline{v}_3\| = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{0+1^2+(-1)^2} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}$$

$$\therefore \{\underline{u}_1, \underline{u}_2, \underline{u}_3\} = \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{3}{\sqrt{6}} \cdot \frac{1}{3} \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{2}{\sqrt{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \begin{pmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix} \right\}$$

Inner product & normed spaces.

Def An inner product on a complex vector space V is any binary operation on V that assigns a complex number $\langle x, y \rangle$ to any $x, y \in V$ and is such that

- (a) $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$ with equality iff $x = 0$
- (b) $\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$ for any $x, y \in V$ where \bar{z} = conjugate of z .
- (c) $\langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle$ for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ & $x, y \in V$.
- (d) $\langle w + x, y \rangle = \langle w, y \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle$ for all $w, x, y \in V$

Ex. 5 (a) Let $\langle x, y \rangle = \frac{1}{2}(x_1 y_1) + \frac{1}{3}(x_2 y_2) + \frac{1}{4}(x_3 y_3)$. Then $\langle x, x \rangle$ is an inner product on \mathbb{R}^3 .

(b) Let $\langle A, B \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n A[i,j] \cdot B[i,j]$. Then $\langle A, B \rangle$ is an inner product on $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$.

(c) Let $\langle p(x), q(x) \rangle = \int_0^1 p(x) \cdot q(x) dx$. Then $\langle p(x), q(x) \rangle$ is an inner product on $C[0,1]$, the set of continuous functions on $[0,1]$.

Def A norm on a vector space V is any unary operation on V that assigns a real number $\|x\|$ to each $x \in V$ such that

- (a) $\|x\| \geq 0$ with equality iff $x = 0$
- (b) $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$ for all $\alpha \in \mathbb{C}$ & $x \in V$.
- (c) $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$ for all $x, y \in V$.

Now every inner product $\langle x, y \rangle$ produces a norm $\|x\|_2 = \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$. But there are norms that do not come from any inner products such as the ones in Ex. 6

Ex. 6 Let x be any vector in \mathbb{R}^n . Put $\|x\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| + \dots + |x_n|$ & $\|x\|_\infty = \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\}$. Then $\|x\|_1$ & $\|x\|_\infty$ are both norms on \mathbb{R}^n