

Chapter 0 Inner Product Spaces

0.1 Motivation (and some Reviews)

A. Inner Product in \mathbb{R}^3 :

A **vector** is a quantity that has both of **magnitude** and **direction**. Let $\vec{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$. Then, the magnitude of \vec{a} is

$$|\vec{a}| = \sqrt{a_1^2 + a_2^2 + a_3^2}.$$

The only vector with length zero is **zero vector**, denoted by $\vec{0} = \langle 0, 0 \rangle$ in \mathbb{R}^2 or $\vec{0} = \langle 0, 0, 0 \rangle$ in \mathbb{R}^3 .

A vector whose length is 1 is called *unit vector*. If $\vec{a} \neq 0$, then the unit vector that has the same direction as \vec{a} is

$$\vec{u} = \frac{\vec{a}}{|\vec{a}|}.$$

Definition 1. If $\vec{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\vec{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$, the **dot product** of \vec{a} and \vec{b} is the number $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}$ given by

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = a_1b_1 + a_2b_2 + a_3b_3.$$

Note 1: A result of the dot product of two vectors is a scalar (not a vector). So, the dot product is sometimes called **inner product** or **scalar product**.

Theorem 1. Let $\vec{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\vec{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$. If θ is the angle between the vectors \vec{a} and \vec{b} , then

$$\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = |\vec{a}| |\vec{b}| \cos \theta.$$

Corollary 1. Let $\vec{a} = \langle a_1, a_2, a_3 \rangle$ and $\vec{b} = \langle b_1, b_2, b_3 \rangle$. If θ is the angle between the vectors \vec{a} and \vec{b} , then

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{|\vec{a}| |\vec{b}|}.$$

B. Projection :

C.1. Scalar Projection : component of \vec{b} along \vec{a}

$$\text{comp}_{\vec{a}} \vec{b} = |\vec{b}| \cos \theta = \frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{|\vec{a}|}.$$

C.2. Vector Projection:

$$\text{proj}_{\vec{a}} \vec{b} = \text{comp}_{\vec{a}} \vec{b} \frac{\vec{a}}{|\vec{a}|} = \left(\frac{\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b}}{|\vec{a}|} \right) \frac{\vec{a}}{|\vec{a}|}.$$

0.2 Definition of Inner Product

Definition 2. An **inner product space** on a vector space V is a function

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$$

that satisfies the following properties:

- Positivity: $\langle v, v \rangle > 0$ for each nonzero $v \in V$.
- Conjugate symmetry: $\overline{\langle v, w \rangle} = \langle w, v \rangle$ for all $v, w \in V$.
- Linearity: $\langle \alpha u + \beta v, w \rangle = \alpha \langle u, w \rangle + \beta \langle v, w \rangle$ for all $u, v, w \in V$ and $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$.

Remark :

- If $v, w \in V$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{C}$,

$$\langle v, cw \rangle = \bar{c} \langle v, w \rangle .$$

- For a nonzero $v \in V$, the *length* or *norm* of the vector v is defined by

$$\|v\| = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$$

- The distance between u and v is indicated by $\|u-v\|$. We say that $u_k \rightarrow u$ if $\|u_k - u\| \rightarrow 0$.

- See Examples 0.2, 0.3.

0.3 The Spaces L^2 and ℓ^2

Definition 3. For any interval $a \leq t \leq b$, the space $L^2([a, b])$ is the set of all square integrable functions defined in $[a, b]$, that is,

$$L^2([a, b]) = \left\{ f : [a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{C} : \|f\|_2^2 := \int_a^b |f(x)|^2 dx < \infty \right\}.$$

Remark : We say that two functions f and g in $L^2[a, b]$ are equal if $f(x) = g(x)$ for all $x \in [a, b]$ except for a finite x -values.

Definition 4. The L^2 inner product on $L^2[a, b]$ is defined as

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(t) \overline{g(t)} dt$$

for $f, g \in L^2[a, b]$.

Definition 5. The space $\ell^2[a, b]$ is the set of all sequences $X = (x_n \in \mathbb{C} : n \in \mathbb{Z})$ with

$$\sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} |x_n|^2 < \infty.$$

The inner product on this space is defined by

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = \sum_{n \in \mathbb{Z}} x_n \overline{y_n}$$

for $X = (x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$ and $Y = (y_n)_{n \in \mathbb{Z}}$.

Definition 6. A sequence f_n converges to $f \in L^2[a, b]$ if

$$\|f_n - f\|_2 \rightarrow 0, \quad \text{as } n \rightarrow \infty.$$

More precisely, given any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a positive $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $\|f_n - f\|_2 < \epsilon$ for all $n > N$.

Definition 7. A sequence f_n converges to f pointwise on $[a, b]$ if for any $t \in [a, b]$ and any $\epsilon > 0$ there exists $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|f_n(t) - f(t)| < \epsilon$ for all $n \geq N$.

Definition 8. A sequence f_n converges to f uniformly on $[a, b]$ if given any $\epsilon > 0$, there exists a positive $N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that $|f_n(t) - f(t)| < \epsilon$ for all $n > N$ and $t \in [a, b]$.

Remark : Convergence in L^2 is sometimes called *convergence in mean*.

- See Examples 0.9.

Theorem 2. If a sequence f_n converges uniformly to f as $n \rightarrow \infty$ on $[a, b]$, then f_n converges to f in $L^2[a, b]$.

Remark : The converse of the above theorem is not true; consider the sequence of functions on $[0, 1]$:

$$f_n(x) := \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } x \in [0, 1/n], \\ 0, & \text{if } x \in (1/n, 1]. \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

Also, the pointwise convergence of f_n to f on $[a, b]$ does not imply $f_n \rightarrow f$ in $L^2[a, b]$.

0.4 Schwarz and Triangular Inequalities

Theorem 3. Suppose that V is an inner product space (either real or complex). Then, for all $X, Y \in V$, the followings hold:

Schwarz Inequality:

$$|\langle X, Y \rangle| \leq \|X\| \|Y\|.$$

Equity holds if and only if X and Y are linearly dependent. Moreover, $\langle X, Y \rangle = \|X\| \|Y\|$ if and only if X or Y is a nonnegative multiple of the other.

Triangle inequality:

$$\|X + Y\| \leq \|X\| + \|Y\|.$$

Equity holds if and only if X or Y is a nonnegative multiple of the other.

0.5 Orthogonality

In \mathbb{R}^3 , $\langle x, y \rangle = |x||y| \cos \theta$ with θ the angle between x and y . We say $x \perp y$ if and only if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.

Definition 9. Suppose that V is an inner product space.

- x and y in V are said to be orthogonal if $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$.
- e_1, \dots, e_N in V are orthonormal if $\|e_j\| = 1$ and $\langle e_i, e_j \rangle = 0$ for any $j \neq i$.
- Two spaces V_1 and V_2 are orthogonal ($V_1 \perp V_2$) if for any $v_1 \in V_1$ and $v_2 \in V_2$, $v_1 \perp v_2$, i.e., $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = 0$.

- See Examples 0.13-0.17.

Theorem 4. Let V be an inner product space and V_0 is a subspace of V . Suppose that $\{e_1, \dots, e_N\}$ is an orthonormal basis for V_0 . Then if $v \in V_0$,

$$v = \sum_{n=1}^N \langle v, e_n \rangle e_n.$$

- See Examples 0.22-0.23.

Definition 10. Let V be an inner product space and V_0 is a finite dimensional subspace of V . For any $v \in V$, the orthogonal projection of v onto V_0 is the unique vector $v_0 \in V_0$ such that

$$\|v - v_0\| = \min_{w \in V_0} \|v - w\|.$$

Theorem 5. Let V be an inner product space and V_0 is a finite dimensional subspace of V . Let $v \in V$ and v_0 is its orthogonal projection onto V_0 if and only if $v - v_0 \perp V_0$ (i.e., $v - v_0 \perp w$ for any $w \in V_0$.)

Theorem 6. Let V be an inner product space and V_0 is a finite dimensional subspace of V . Suppose that $\{e_1, \dots, e_N\}$ is an orthonormal basis for V_0 . If v_0 is the orthogonal projection of $v \in V$ onto V_0 , v_0 is of the form

$$v_0 = \sum_{j=1}^N c_j e_j, \quad c_j = \langle v, e_j \rangle.$$

Definition 11. Let V be an inner product space and V_0 is a finite dimensional subspace of V . The orthogonal complement of V_0 , say V_0^\perp , is defined by

$$V_0^\perp = \{v \in V : \langle v, w \rangle = 0, \quad \forall w \in V_0\}.$$

Theorem 7. Let V be an inner product space and V_0 is a finite dimensional subspace of V . For any $v \in V$, there $\exists v_0 \in V_0$ and $v_1 \in V_0^\perp$ such that

$$v = v_0 + v_1, \quad \text{i.e.,} \quad V = V_0 + V_0^\perp.$$

- See Examples 0.26.

Theorem 8. Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_N\}$ be a basis for V_0 , where V_0 is subspace of V . Then, there $\exists\{e_1, \dots, e_N\}$: orthonormal basis for V_0 such that e_j is a linear combination of $v_j, j = 1, \dots, j - 1$. Practically, $e_j, j = 1, \dots, N$, is given (inductively) by

$$e_j = v_j - \sum_{\ell=1}^{j-1} \langle v_j, e_\ell \rangle e_\ell / \left\| v_j - \sum_{\ell=1}^{j-1} \langle v_j, e_\ell \rangle e_\ell \right\|.$$

0.7 Least Squares and Linear Predictive Coding

Goal : For the given data (x_j, y_j) with $j = 1, \dots, N$, find m and b such that

$$\text{minimize } \sum_{j=1}^N |y_j - (mx_j + b)|^2.$$

Solution: Let $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_N)^T$ and $\mathbf{c} = (b, m)^T$. Then the solution \mathbf{c} is given as

$$\mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{E}\mathbf{E}^T)^{-1}\mathbf{E}\mathbf{y} \quad (2)$$

where

$$\mathbf{E} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ x_1 & \cdots & x_N \end{pmatrix}.$$

Put

$$Y = (y_1, \dots, y_N)^T, \quad X = (x_1, \dots, x_N)^T, \quad U = (1, \dots, 1)^T.$$

Let

$$V_0 = \text{span}\{U, X\} = \{mx + bU : m, b \in \mathbb{R}\}.$$

Then the solution \mathbf{c} in (2) can be understood as the coefficient of the projection $P_0(x) = mx + b$ of the vector Y onto V_0 .

Generalization: For the given data (x_j, y_j) with $j = 1, \dots, N$, find a polynomial

$$p(x) = a_0 + \cdots + a_k x^k$$

such that

$$\text{minimize } \sum_{j=1}^N |y_j - p(x)|^2.$$

Solution: Let $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_N)^T$ and $\mathbf{a} = (a_0, \dots, a_k)^T$. Then the solution \mathbf{a} is given as

$$\mathbf{a} = (\mathbf{E}\mathbf{E}^T)^{-1}\mathbf{E}\mathbf{y}$$

where

$$\mathbf{E} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ x_1 & \cdots & x_N \\ \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ x_1^k & \cdots & x_N^k \end{pmatrix}.$$

• See Examples 0.36