Inner Product

The inner product of two vectors
$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 \\ u_2 \\ \vdots \\ u_n \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$

is defined as

$$\overrightarrow{\mathbf{u}} \cdot \overrightarrow{\mathbf{v}} = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & u_2 & \cdots & u_n \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix} = u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \cdots + u_n v_n$$

This is the dot product between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} .

Ex. Compute
$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$$
 for $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -5 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$

<u>Properties of the Inner Product</u>

1)
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{a}$$

2)
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{c}$$

3)
$$(c\mathbf{a}) \cdot \mathbf{b} = c(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) = \mathbf{a} \cdot (c\mathbf{b})$$

4)
$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} \ge 0$$
 and $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{a} = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0}$

<u>Def.</u> The <u>length</u> (or <u>norm</u>) of a vector is denoted $||\mathbf{a}||$

Def. A unit vector is a vector whose length is 1.

→ This process is sometimes called <u>normalization</u>.

The unit vector in the direction of **a** is

$$\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{a}}{\|\mathbf{a}\|}$$

$$\underbrace{\text{Ex. Find the unit vector in the direction of } \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex. Let W be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 spanned by $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{2}{3} \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$. Find a unit vector that is a basis for W.

$$||\vec{x}|| = \sqrt{2^2 + 3^2} = \sqrt{4 + 9} = \sqrt{13}$$

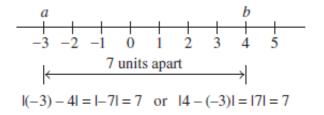
$$\vec{x} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{13}} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{13}}$$

$$\vec{x} = \sqrt{\frac{3}{13}} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{13}}$$

$$-\frac{1}{\sqrt{13}}\begin{bmatrix}2\\3\end{bmatrix}$$

Distance:

In 1-D, the distance between points a and b is |b-a|



In higher dimensions, this can be extended to be

$$dist(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = ||\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}||$$

Ex. Find dist
$$\left(\begin{bmatrix} 7\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3\\2 \end{bmatrix}\right)$$
.

$$\overrightarrow{u} - \overrightarrow{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 4\\-1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$J_1 = \left[3 - \overrightarrow{v} \right] = \left[4 - 7 \right] = \sqrt{4^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{17}$$

Note this is same as using the distance formula on the points (7,1) and (3,2).

The inner product is used to find the angle between two vectors:

<u>Thm.</u> If θ is the angle between **a** and **b**, then

$$\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = \|\mathbf{a}\| \|\mathbf{b}\| \cos \theta$$

Ex. Find the angle between
$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$

$$||\vec{a}|| : \sqrt{2^2 + 2^2 + (-1)^2} = \sqrt{4 + 4 + 1} = 3$$

$$||T|| : \sqrt{5^2 + (-3)^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{25 + 9 + 4} = \sqrt{38}$$

$$||T|| : \sqrt{5^2 + (-3)^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{25 + 9 + 4} = \sqrt{38}$$

$$||T|| : \sqrt{5^2 + (-3)^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{25 + 9 + 4} = \sqrt{38}$$

<u>Thm.</u> Two vectors **a** and **b** are orthogonal if $\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b} = 0$.

Orthogonal = Perpendicular = Normal

Ex. Show that
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$ are orthogonal $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -8 - 2 \end{bmatrix} = 0$

Thm. Pythagorean Theorem

Two vectors \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} are orthogonal if and only if

$$||\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}||^2 = ||\mathbf{u}||^2 + ||\mathbf{v}||^2$$

Ex. Verify this for
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and
$$\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ -4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\| \vec{\lambda} \|^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 2^2 + 2^2 + (-1)^2 = 3 \\ | \vec{\lambda} |^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\| \vec{\lambda} \|^2 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3^2 + 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\$$

<u>Def.</u> If **z** is orthogonal to every vector in a subspace W of \mathbb{R}^n , we say **z** is <u>orthogonal to W</u>.

The set of all vectors orthogonal to W is called the <u>orthogonal complement</u> of W, and is denoted W^{\perp} (called "W perpendicular" or "W perp").

• W^{\perp} is itself a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

If W is a plane (through the origin) in \mathbb{R}^3 , then W^{\perp} is the set of all vectors orthogonal to the plane.

• A vector \mathbf{x} is in W^{\perp} if and only if \mathbf{x} is orthogonal to every vector in a set that spans W.

Assume W= span {\vec{v}_1,\vec{v}_2,\vec{v}_3} \rightarrow Prove it. $= \left\{ C_{1} \vec{\nabla}_{1} + C_{2} \vec{\nabla}_{2} + C_{3} \vec{V}_{3} \right\}$ Assume & is orthog. to $\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, \vec{v}_3, \vec{v}_3 = 0$ show is orthog. to w=c,v,+c,v,+c,v, $\overrightarrow{\times} \cdot \overrightarrow{\omega} = \overrightarrow{\times} \cdot \left(c_1 \overrightarrow{\nabla}_1 + c_2 \overrightarrow{\nabla}_2 + c_3 \overrightarrow{\nabla}_3 \right) = c_1 \left(\overrightarrow{\times} \cdot \overrightarrow{\nabla}_1 \right) + c_2 \left(\overrightarrow{\times} \cdot \overrightarrow{\nabla}_2 \right) + c_3 \left(\overrightarrow{\times} \cdot \overrightarrow{\nabla}_3 \right) = 0$ o orthog to with it

$$\underline{\text{Ex. Is } \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ in } W^{\perp} \text{ where } W = \text{span} \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix} \right\}?$$

$$\overrightarrow{\chi} \cdot \overrightarrow{w_1} = 1 - 1 + 0 = 0$$

$$\overrightarrow{\chi} \cdot \overrightarrow{w_2} = 2 + 0 + 2 = 0$$

$$\overrightarrow{\chi} \cdot \overrightarrow{w_2} = 2 + 0 + 2 = 0$$

$$\therefore \overrightarrow{\chi} \in W^{\perp}$$

$$\therefore \forall e W^{\perp}$$

Ex. Evaluate
$$\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 12 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Note:
$$A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} (Row_1 A) \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ (Row_2 A) \cdot \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{M} \\ (Row_n A) \cdot \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}$$

- \rightarrow If $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ (meaning \mathbf{x} is in Nul A) then $(\text{Row}_k A) \cdot \mathbf{x} = 0$
- \rightarrow x is orthogonal to every row of A
- \rightarrow **x** is in $(\text{Row } A)^{\perp}$

$$(\operatorname{Row} A)^{\perp} = \operatorname{Nul} A$$

Also,
$$\operatorname{Col} A = \operatorname{Row} (A^{\mathrm{T}})$$

$$\rightarrow$$
 $(\operatorname{Col} A)^{\perp} = (\operatorname{Row} A^{\mathrm{T}})^{\perp} = \operatorname{Nul} A^{\mathrm{T}}$

<u>Def.</u> A set $S = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, ..., \mathbf{u}_p\}$ of vectors in \mathbb{R}^n is called an <u>orthogonal set</u> if each pair of distinct vectors in the set is orthogonal.

$$\rightarrow$$
 $\mathbf{u}_i \cdot \mathbf{u}_j = 0$ as long as $i \neq j$

Ex. Show that
$$\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 3\\1\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1\\2\\1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1\\-4\\7 \end{bmatrix}\right\}$$
 is an orthogonal set.

$$\frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} = -3 + 2 + 1 = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} = -3 - 4 + 7 = 0$$

$$\frac{1}{3} \cdot \frac{1}{3} = 1 - 8 + 7 = 0$$

An orthogonal set is linearly independent.

If
$$C_{1}\vec{\nabla}_{1} + C_{2}\vec{\nabla}_{2} + C_{3}\vec{\nabla}_{3} = \vec{0}$$
, show $C_{1}, C_{2}, C_{3} = 0$.

$$\vec{\nabla}_{1} \cdot \left(C_{1}\vec{\nabla}_{1} + C_{2}\vec{\nabla}_{2} + C_{3}\vec{\nabla}_{3} \right) = \vec{\nabla}_{1}\cdot\vec{0}$$

$$C_{1}(\vec{\nabla}_{1}\cdot\vec{\nabla}_{1}) + C_{2}(\vec{\nabla}_{1}\cdot\vec{\nabla}_{2}) + C_{3}(\vec{\nabla}_{1}\cdot\vec{\nabla}_{3}) = 0$$

$$C_{1}(\vec{\nabla}_{1}\cdot\vec{\nabla}_{1}) = 0$$

$$C_{1}(\vec{\nabla}_{1}\cdot\vec{\nabla}_{1}) = 0$$

<u>Def.</u> An <u>orthogonal basis</u> is a basis for a subspace that is also an orthogonal set.

- → The standard basis of \mathbb{R}^n , $\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 1\\0\\\vdots\\0\end{bmatrix},\begin{bmatrix} 0\\1\\\vdots\\0\end{bmatrix},...,\begin{bmatrix} 0\\0\\\vdots\\1\end{bmatrix}\right\}$ is an orthogonal basis.
- → An orthogonal basis is useful because it's easy to compute the weights.

Thm. If $\mathcal{B} = \{\mathbf{b_1}, \mathbf{b_2}, \dots, \mathbf{b_p}\}$ is an orthogonal basis of W, and if \mathbf{y} is in $W(\mathbf{y} = c_1\mathbf{b_1} + c_2\mathbf{b_2} + \dots + c_p\mathbf{b_p})$, then the weights are given by

$$c_j = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{b}_j}{\mathbf{b}_j \cdot \mathbf{b}_j}$$

→ This makes it easy to find the coordinate vector

$$[\mathbf{y}]_{\mathcal{B}} = \begin{bmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \\ c_p \end{bmatrix}$$

→ Let's prove it.

$$\vec{y} = c_1 \vec{b}_1 + c_2 \vec{b}_3
\vec{b}_1 \cdot \vec{y} = \vec{b}_1 \cdot (c_1 \vec{b}_1 + c_2 \vec{b}_1 + c_3 \vec{b}_3)
\vec{b}_1 \cdot \vec{y} = c_1 (\vec{b}_1 \cdot \vec{b}_1) + c_2 (\vec{b}_1 \cdot \vec{b}_2) + c_3 (\vec{b}_1 \cdot \vec{b}_3)
\vec{b}_1 \cdot \vec{y} = c_1 (\vec{b}_1 \cdot \vec{b}_1) + c_2 (\vec{b}_1 \cdot \vec{b}_2) + c_3 (\vec{b}_1 \cdot \vec{b}_3)$$

Ex. Express
$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 6 \\ 1 \\ -8 \end{bmatrix}$$
 as a linear combination of the vectors
$$(\begin{bmatrix} 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \end{bmatrix})$$

in the orthogonal basis
$$S = \begin{cases} \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix} \\ 7 \end{bmatrix}$$
.

$$c_1 = \frac{7 \cdot \vec{b}_1}{\vec{b}_1 \cdot \vec{b}_2} = \frac{18 + 1 - 8 = 11}{9 + 1 + 1} = 1$$

$$c_2 = \frac{7 \cdot \vec{b}_2}{\vec{b}_2 \cdot \vec{b}_2} = \frac{6 + 2 - 8}{1 + 4 + 1} = \frac{-12}{6} = -2$$

$$c_3 = \frac{7 \cdot \vec{b}_3}{\vec{b}_3 \cdot \vec{b}_3} = \frac{-6 - 4 - 56}{1 + 16 + 49} = \frac{-66}{66} = -1$$

Without this trick, we have to solve the system of equations.

Given a vector \mathbf{u} in \mathbb{R}^n , consider the problem of decomposing a vector \mathbf{y} into the sum of two vectors: one that is in the direction of \mathbf{u} and the other that is orthogonal to \mathbf{u} :

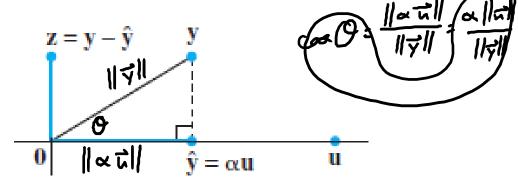
$$\mathbf{y} = \hat{\mathbf{y}} + \mathbf{z}$$

 $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ is in the direction of \mathbf{u} , so $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \alpha \mathbf{u}$.



 \mathbf{z} is called the component of \mathbf{y} orthogonal to \mathbf{u}

 \rightarrow Let's find a formula for α



If the L is the line containing \mathbf{u} (all multiples of \mathbf{u}), we can write

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \operatorname{proj}_{L} \mathbf{y} = \frac{\mathbf{y} \cdot \mathbf{u}}{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}} \mathbf{u}$$

$$\vec{\mathbf{z}} = \vec{\mathbf{y}} - \hat{\mathbf{y}}$$

Ex. Let $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$. Write \mathbf{y} as the sum of a vector in Span $\{\mathbf{u}\}$ and a vector orthogonal to \mathbf{u} .

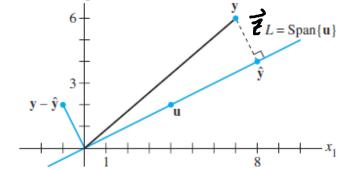
$$\hat{\gamma} = \frac{\vec{y} \cdot \vec{q}}{\vec{v} \cdot \vec{v}} \vec{v} = \frac{28 + 12}{16 + 4} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{40}{20} \begin{bmatrix} 4 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{z} = \vec{\gamma} - \hat{\gamma} = \begin{bmatrix} 7 \\ 6 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\vec{\gamma} = \begin{bmatrix} 8 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

Ex. In the previous example, find the distance from y to the line containing u.

$$||\vec{z}|| = ||\vec{y} - \hat{y}|| = \sqrt{(-1)^2 + 2^2} = \sqrt{5}$$



<u>Def.</u> An <u>orthonormal set</u> is an orthogonal set of unit vectors.

If a subspace is spanned by an orthonormal set, then the set is called an <u>orthonormal basis</u> for the subspace.

Ex. Show that
$$\begin{cases}
3/\sqrt{11} \\
1/\sqrt{11} \\
1/\sqrt{11}
\end{cases}, \begin{bmatrix}
-1/\sqrt{6} \\
2/\sqrt{6} \\
1/\sqrt{6}
\end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix}
-1/\sqrt{66} \\
-4/\sqrt{66} \\
7/\sqrt{66}
\end{bmatrix} \text{ is an orthonormal set.}$$
orthonormal set. \vec{u}

$$\vec{v}$$

$$\vec{v} = \frac{3}{66} + \frac{2}{\sqrt{66}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{66}} = 0$$

$$||\vec{u}|| = \sqrt{\frac{9}{11}} + \frac{1}{11} + \frac{1}{11} = \sqrt{\frac{11}{11}} = 1$$

$$\vec{v} \cdot \vec{w} = \frac{-3}{\sqrt{126}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{726}} + \frac{7}{\sqrt{726}} = 0$$

$$||\vec{w}|| = \sqrt{\frac{1}{6}} + \frac{1}{6} + \frac{1}{6} = \frac{6}{6} = 1$$

$$||\vec{w}|| = \sqrt{\frac{1}{66}} + \frac{1}{66} + \frac{1}{66} = \frac{66}{66} = 1$$

$$||\vec{w}|| = \sqrt{\frac{1}{66}} + \frac{1}{66} + \frac{1}{66} = \frac{66}{66} = 1$$

This is the earlier orthogonal set where each vector is made into a unit vector.

Thm. A matrix U (not necessarily square) has orthonormal columns if and only if $U^TU = I$.

 \rightarrow Prove it

Thm. Let U be a matrix with orthonormal columns.

i.
$$||U\mathbf{x}|| = ||\mathbf{x}||$$

ii.
$$(U\mathbf{x}) \cdot (U\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y}$$

iii.
$$(U\mathbf{x}) \cdot (U\mathbf{y}) = 0$$
 if and only if $\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{y} = 0$

 \rightarrow This means that the transformation $\mathbf{x} \mapsto U\mathbf{x}$ preserves length and orthogonality

If U is a square matrix with orthonormal columns, then

$$U^TU = I$$

$$\rightarrow U^T = U^{-1}$$

→ We call this an <u>orthogonal matrix</u>



 \rightarrow In this case, the rows of U are orthonormal as well

$$\begin{bmatrix} 3/\sqrt{11} & -1/\sqrt{6} & -1/\sqrt{66} \\ 1/\sqrt{11} & 2/\sqrt{6} & -4/\sqrt{66} \\ 1/\sqrt{11} & 1/\sqrt{6} & 7/\sqrt{66} \end{bmatrix}$$