

# Math 333 Linear Algebra

## Supplementary Lecture Notes

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# 1 Vector Spaces

**Definition 1** Let  $V$  be a nonempty set on which the operations of addition  $+$  and scalar multiplication have been defined:

- (i)  $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}$  is defined  $\forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$
- (ii)  $c\mathbf{u}$  is defined  $\forall \mathbf{u} \in V, \forall c \in \mathbb{R}$ .

The set  $V$  is called a vector space if additionally,  $\forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$  and  $\forall b, c \in \mathbb{R}$  the following axioms hold:

- |       |   |  |
|-------|---|--|
| (A1)  | $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \in V$   | $V$ closed under addition              |
| (A2)  | $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u}$                               | addition is commutative                |
| (A3)  | $\mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w}$ | addition is associative                |
| (A4)  | $\exists \mathbf{0} \in V$ such that $\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{u}$       | existence of a zero vector             |
| (A5)  | $\exists -\mathbf{u} \in V$ such that $\mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{u}) = \mathbf{0}$   | existence of a negative element        |
| (A6)  | $c\mathbf{u} \in V$   | closed under scalar multiplication     |
| (A7)  | $c(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = c\mathbf{u} + c\mathbf{v}$                          | distributive property I                |
| (A8)  | $(b + c)\mathbf{u} = b\mathbf{u} + c\mathbf{u}$                                   | distributive property II               |
| (A9)  | $c(\beta\mathbf{u}) = (c\beta)\mathbf{u}$   | commutativity of scalar multiplication |
| (A10) | $1\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}$  | scalar multiplication identity element |

Sometimes the symbols  $\oplus$  and  $\odot$  will be used to denote vector addition and scalar multiplication, respectively.

**Example 1 :** Let

$$V = \{\mathbf{u} : \mathbf{u} = (u_1, u_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2\}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{u} \oplus \mathbf{v} &\equiv (u_1 + v_1 + 1, u_2 + v_2 + 1) \\ c \odot \mathbf{u} &\equiv c\mathbf{u} = (cu_1, cu_2)\end{aligned}$$

It is easy to show axioms (A1)-(A3) are satisfied. For instance

$$\mathbf{u} + (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{w} = (u_1 + v_1 + w_1 + 2, u_2 + v_2 + w_2 + 2)$$

Also, (A6) and (A8)-(A10) are simple to verify. (A7) is not satisfied since

$$\begin{aligned}c(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) &= (cu_1 + cv_1 + c, cu_2 + cv_2 + c) \\ c\mathbf{u} + c\mathbf{v} &= (cu_1 + cv_1 + 1, cu_2 + cv_2 + 1)\end{aligned}$$

implies  $c(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) \neq c\mathbf{u} + c\mathbf{v}$  for all  $c$ . Moreover, (A4) is not satisfied and therefore (A5) is not either.  $V$  is not a vector space.

**Some Common Vector spaces:**

$\mathbb{R}^n$	the set of all ordered n-tuples of real numbers
$M_{mn} = \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$	the set of all real m by n matrices
$P_n$	the set of all n-th degree polynomials
$C(\mathbb{R})$	the set of all continuous functions on $\mathbb{R}$
$C^n(\mathbb{R})$	the set of all functions on $\mathbb{R}$ with n continuous derivatives
$C^\infty(\mathbb{R})$	the set of all functions on $\mathbb{R}$ with continuous derivatives of all orders
$F(\mathbb{R})$	the set of all function defined on $\mathbb{R}$

Note that the function spaces are subsets:

$$P_n \subset C(\mathbb{R}) \subset C^1(\mathbb{R}) \subset C^2(\mathbb{R}) \subset \cdots C^\infty(\mathbb{R}) \subset F(\mathbb{R})$$

## 2 Basic Definitions:

In all of the following  $V$  is a vector space:

**Definition 2**  $W$  is a subspace of  $V$  if

- a)  $W \subset V$  (subset)
- b)  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in W \Rightarrow \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \in W$  (closure under addition)
- c)  $\mathbf{u} \in W, c \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow c\mathbf{u} \in W$  (closure under scalar addition)

This theorem implies  $W$  is also a vector space (see text).

**Definition 3**  $\mathbf{w} \in V$  is a linear combination of  $\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n \in V$  if  $\exists c_k \in \mathbb{R}$  such that

$$\mathbf{w} = c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n$$

**Definition 4** Let  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} \subset V$ .

$$\text{span}(S) \equiv \left\{ \mathbf{w} \in V : \mathbf{w} = \sum_{k=1}^n c_k \mathbf{v}_k \text{ for some } c_k \in \mathbb{R} \right\}$$

In words,  $W = \text{span}(S)$  is the set of all linear combinations of the vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n$ . Note that  $W$  is a subspace of  $V$ .

**Definition 5** A set  $S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \dots, \mathbf{v}_n\} \subset V$  is linearly independent if

$$c_1\mathbf{v}_1 + c_2\mathbf{v}_2 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{v}_n = 0 \Rightarrow c_k = 0, \quad \forall k = 1, \dots, n.$$

If  $S$  is not linearly independent  $S$  is said to be linearly dependent.

If  $S$  is (linearly) dependent then at least one vector  $\mathbf{v} \in S$  is a linear combination of the remaining vectors.

**Definition 6** A set  $E = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\} \subset V$  is basis for  $V$  if

- a)  $E$  is linearly independent
- b)  $V = \text{span}(E)$

By a theorem, if  $E = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$  is a basis for  $V$  then for every  $\mathbf{v} \in V$  there are unique scalars  $c_1, \dots, c_n$  such that

$$\mathbf{v} = c_1\mathbf{e}_1 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{e}_n$$

Moreover, if

$$\mathbf{w} = b_1\mathbf{e}_1 + \dots + b_n\mathbf{e}_n$$

then

$$\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{w} \Leftrightarrow (c_1, \dots, c_n) \neq (b_1, \dots, b_n)$$

This permits the following definition.

**Definition 7** The coordinate  $(\mathbf{v})_E$  of  $\mathbf{v} \in V$  relative to the basis  $E = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$  is that unique  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\mathbf{v} = c_1\mathbf{e}_1 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{e}_n$ , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{c} = (\mathbf{v})_E \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{v} = c_1\mathbf{e}_1 + \dots + c_n\mathbf{e}_n$$

**Definition 8** If  $E = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \mathbf{e}_2, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\}$  is a basis for  $V$  and  $1 \leq n < \infty$  then  $V$  is said to be finite dimensional with dimension

$$\dim(V) = n$$

If  $V = \{0\}$  then  $\dim(V) = 0$ .

### 3 Basic Theorems for spanning, dependence and bases:

**Theorem 1** Let  $V$  be a vector space with  $\dim(V) = n < \infty$ , having basis

$$E = \{\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n\},$$

$W$  be any subspace of  $V$  and let

$$S = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\} \subset V$$

be a finite collection of  $k$  vectors. Further define the set of coordinate vectors:

$$S_E = \{(\mathbf{v}_1)_E, \dots, (\mathbf{v}_k)_E\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n.$$

Then,

$S$ dependent	$\Leftrightarrow$	$\exists \mathbf{v} \in S$ such that $\mathbf{v} \in \text{span}(S - \{\mathbf{v}\})$ .
$k > n$	$\Rightarrow$	$S$ dependent
$k < n$	$\Rightarrow$	$S$ does not span $V$
$\mathbf{v} \notin \text{span}(S)$ and $S$ independent	$\Rightarrow$	$S^+ \equiv S \cup \{\mathbf{v}\}$ independent
$\mathbf{v} \in \text{span}(S^-) \equiv \text{span}(S - \{\mathbf{v}\})$	$\Rightarrow$	$\text{span}(S) = \text{span}(S^-)$
$V = \text{span}(S)$	$\Rightarrow$	$\exists S^- \subset S$ , $S^-$ a basis for $V$
$V = \text{span}(S)$ and $k = n$	$\Rightarrow$	$S$ a basis for $V$
$S$ independent and $k = n$	$\Rightarrow$	$S$ a basis for $V$
$\dim(W) \leq \dim(V)$		
$\dim(W) = \dim(V)$	$\Rightarrow$	$V = W$
$S$ independent in $V$	$\Leftrightarrow$	$S_E$ independent in $\mathbb{R}^n$
$V = \text{span}(S)$ and $k = n$	$\Leftrightarrow$	$\mathbb{R}^n = \text{span}(S_E)$

## 4 Matrices and their Subspaces:

In the following  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  are matrices,  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . We shall define  $\mathbf{r}_i$  to be the row vectors of  $A$  and  $\mathbf{c}_j$  to be the column vectors so that

$$A = [a_{ij}] = \begin{bmatrix} \cdots \mathbf{r}_1 \cdots \\ \cdots \mathbf{r}_2 \cdots \\ \cdots \cdots \cdots \\ \cdots \mathbf{r}_m \cdots \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{c}_1 & \mathbf{c}_2 & \vdots & \mathbf{c}_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

For any matrix, its transpose  $A^T$  is defined by

$$A^T = [a_{ji}]$$

Important properties of the transpose are

$$\begin{aligned} (A + B)^T &= A^T + B^T \\ (AB)^T &= B^T A^T \end{aligned}$$

For square matrices  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  having inverses  $A^{-1}$  and  $B^{-1}$ , respectively,

$$\begin{aligned} (AB)^{-1} &= B^{-1}A^{-1} \\ (A^{-1})^T &= (A^T)^{-1} \end{aligned}$$

A simple proof of the latter can be seen from the calculations:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} &= A^{-1}\mathbf{b} \\ \mathbf{x}^T &= \mathbf{b}^T(A^{-1})^T \\ \mathbf{x}^T &= \mathbf{x}^T A^T (A^{-1})^T, \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \\ I &= A^T (A^{-1})^T. \end{aligned}$$

Also, for any matrix one can define the four fundamental subspaces:

**Definition 9** *The four fundamental subspaces of  $A$  are*

$$\text{row}(A) \equiv \text{span}\{\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots, \mathbf{r}_m\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\text{col}(A) \equiv \text{span}\{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_2, \dots, \mathbf{c}_m\} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$N(A) \equiv \{\mathbf{x} : A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$N(A^T) \equiv \{\mathbf{y} : A^T \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}\} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$$

Note that  $\text{row}(A^T)$  and  $\text{col}(A^T)$  have not been included since for every  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,

$$\text{col}(A) = \text{row}(A^T).$$

Bases for  $\text{row}(A)$ ,  $\text{col}(A)$  and  $N(A)$  can all be found by row reducing  $A$  to its upper echelon form  $U$ .

**Definition 10** Two matrices  $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  are said to be row equivalent if a finite number of row operations (addition, multiplication and permutation) convert  $A$  to  $B$ . When such matrices are row equivalent we write

$$A \sim B.$$

**Theorem 2**

$$A \sim B \Rightarrow \text{row}(A) = \text{row}(B)$$

$$A \sim B \Rightarrow N(A) = N(B)$$

Row operations do not preserve the column space. For instance

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \sim B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

by a simple permutation of rows but clearly  $\text{col}(A) \neq \text{col}(B)$ .

**Definition 11** Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . A system  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is consistent if it has a solution.

**Theorem 3 (General Solutions)** Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,

$$A\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{b}.$$

Then,

$$A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b} \Rightarrow \exists \mathbf{v} \in N(A) \text{ such that } \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{v}.$$

Here  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is called a particular solution and  $\mathbf{v}$  is the homogeneous solution. Written another way, if  $\mathbf{x}_0$  is “a” solution and  $\mathbf{x}$  is any other solution then there exists constants  $c_1, \dots, c_k$  such that

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_0 c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots c_k \mathbf{v}_k$$

where

$$E = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k\}$$

is a basis for  $N(A)$ . Also, conversely, if  $A\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{b}$ ,  $\mathbf{v} \in N(A)$  and  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_0 + \mathbf{v}$  then  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ .

Next we describe one method for finding bases for  $\text{row}(A)$ ,  $N(A)$  and  $\text{col}(A)$ . Suppose that after row reduction one reduces  $A$  to  $U$  having the form:

$$A \sim U = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & * & * & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & * & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & * & * \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \dots & \mathbf{u}_1 & \dots \\ \dots & \mathbf{u}_2 & \dots \\ \dots & \mathbf{u}_3 & \dots \\ \dots & \mathbf{u}_4 & \dots \\ \dots & 0 & \dots \end{bmatrix}$$

In this example, there are 4 pivots (leading ones in rows). A basis  $E(\text{row}(A))$  for  $\text{row}(A)$  is the four non-zero row vectors of  $U$ , i.e.,

$$E(\text{row}(A)) = \{\mathbf{u}_1, \mathbf{u}_2, \mathbf{u}_3, \mathbf{u}_4\}$$



from which we know  $\dim(\text{row}(A)) = 4$ . Also, the 4 pivots in  $U$  occur in columns 1, 3, 4 and 6. A basis  $E(\text{col}(A))$  for  $\text{col}(A)$  is the 1<sup>st</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup>, 4<sup>th</sup> and 6<sup>th</sup> columns of  $A$ , i.e.,

$$E(\text{col}(A)) = \{\mathbf{c}_1, \mathbf{c}_3, \mathbf{c}_4, \mathbf{c}_6\}$$

The columns of  $U$  which contain no pivots correspond to *free variables*. There are 2 free variables  $x_2$  and  $x_5$  since columns 2 and 5 contain no pivots. This means that by backsolving  $U\mathbf{x} = 0$ , the remaining variables can be written in terms of  $x_2$  and  $x_5$ . This procedure implies that any solution of  $U\mathbf{x} = 0$  can be written in the form

$$\mathbf{x} = x_1\mathbf{v}_1 + x_2\mathbf{v}_2$$

where the vectors  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2$  form a basis  $E(N(A))$  for  $N(A)$ , i.e.,

$$E(N(A)) = \{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2\}$$

A basis for  $N(A^T)$  is found by row reducing  $A^T$  and applying a similar procedure.

Note that an alternate method for finding a basis for  $\text{col}(A)$  uses the fact that  $\text{col}(A) = \text{row}(A^T)$ . Thus, by finding a basis for  $\text{row}(A^T)$  thru row reduction of  $A^T$ , one is actually finding a basis for  $\text{col}(A)$ .

Knowing these methods for finding bases we have the following definitions and Theorem.

**Definition 12**

$$\begin{aligned} \text{rank}(A) &\equiv \dim(\text{row}(A)) \\ \text{nullity}(A) &\equiv \dim(N(A)) \end{aligned}$$

**Theorem 4** Let  $r = \text{rank}(A)$  and  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \dim(\text{row}(A)) &= r \\ \dim(\text{col}(A)) &= r \\ \dim(N(A)) &= n - r \\ \dim(N(A^T)) &= m - r \end{aligned}$$

## 5 Linear Transformations on $\mathbb{R}^n$

**Definition 13** A linear transformation  $T$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a function  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  such that

$$T(\mathbf{x}) = A\mathbf{x}$$

for some matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ . The matrix  $A$  is called the standard matrix associated with  $T$  which we notationally denote

$$[T] = A$$

so that  $T(\mathbf{x}) = [T]\mathbf{x}$ .

This definition implies certain algebraic properties about linear transformations on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

**Theorem 5**  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  is a linear transformation if and only if

$$(a) T(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = T(\mathbf{x}) + T(\mathbf{y}) \quad , \quad \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad (1)$$

$$(b) T(k\mathbf{x}) = kT(\mathbf{x}) \quad , \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \forall k \in \mathbb{R} \quad (2)$$

This equivalence mean that properties a)-b) of the Theorem could be used to define linear transformations on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Later, this will be the definition for linear transformations on abstract vector spaces  $V$ .

**Definition 14** Let  $f$  be a function from  $X$  into  $Y$ , i.e.,  $f : X \rightarrow Y$ . The domain  $D(f)$  of  $f$  is defined by:

$$D(f) = \{\mathbf{x} \in X : f(\mathbf{x}) \text{ is defined}\}$$

The range  $R(f)$  of  $f$  is defined by:

$$R(f) = \{\mathbf{y} \in Y : \mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x}) \text{ for some } \mathbf{x} \in X\}$$

In this setting  $Y$  is called the codomain of  $f$ . Also, if  $\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x})$  for some  $\mathbf{x} \in D(f)$ , then  $\mathbf{y}$  is the image of  $\mathbf{x}$  under  $f$ .

Note that if  $T$  is a linear transformation on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $D(T) = \mathbb{R}^n$ . In general, however,  $R(T) \subset \mathbb{R}^m$ .

**Definition 15** The function  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is 1-1 on  $D(f)$  if

$$\forall \mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in D(f), \quad , \quad f(\mathbf{x}_1) = f(\mathbf{x}_2) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{x}_1 = \mathbf{x}_2$$

**Definition 16** If  $f : X \rightarrow Y$  is 1-1 on  $D(f)$  then  $f$  has an inverse  $f^{-1} : Y \rightarrow X$  where  $D(f^{-1}) = R(f)$  and

$$f^{-1}(f(\mathbf{x})) = f(f^{-1}(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x}, \quad , \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \in D(f)$$

For linear transformations  $T$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  that are 1-1, the inverse of  $T$  is denoted  $T^{-1}$  and

$$[T^{-1}] = [T]^{-1} .$$

**Theorem 6** Let  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $T(\mathbf{x}) = [T]\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{x}$ . Then, the following are equivalent:

- a)  $T$  is 1-1
- b)  $A$  is invertible
- c)  $N(A) = \{0\}$
- d)  $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$  is consistent  $\forall \mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
- e)  $\det(A) \neq 0$
- f)  $R(T) = \text{col}(A) = \text{row}(A) = \mathbb{R}^n$
- g)  $\text{rank}(A) = n$
- h)  $\text{nullity}(A) = 0$

If the standard basis vectors for  $\mathbb{R}^n$  are  $\mathbf{e}_1, \dots, \mathbf{e}_n$  then we have the following useful Theorem for determining the standard matrix  $[T]$  of a linear transformation  $T$ :

**Theorem 7** Let  $T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear transformation. Then,

$$[T] = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ T(\mathbf{e}_1) & T(\mathbf{e}_2) & \vdots & T(\mathbf{e}_n) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

## 6 Inner Products

**Definition 17** Let  $V$  be a vector space. By an inner product on  $V$  we mean a real valued function  $\langle u, v \rangle$  on  $V \times V$  which satisfies the following axioms:

- a)  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$  ,  $\forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$
- b)  $\langle \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  ,  $\forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$
- c)  $\langle k\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = k \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  ,  $\forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V, k \in \mathbb{R}$
- d)  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle \geq 0$  ,  $\forall \mathbf{u} \in V$
- e)  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{u} = 0$

If  $V$  has an inner product defined on it then  $V$  is said to be an inner product space.

In the definition above since  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  and  $k$  are real,  $V$  is sometimes said to be an inner product space over the real field. In this case, if  $f(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \equiv \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  then  $f : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . However, if  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  and  $k$  are complex numbers,  $V$  is an inner product space over the complex field where a) and c) are replaced by

- a')  $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \overline{\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{u} \rangle}$  ,  $\forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V$
- c')  $\langle k\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \bar{k} \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$  ,  $\forall \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in V, k \in \mathbb{C}$

and  $\bar{(\ )}$  denotes complex conjugate.

Below we give examples of several inner product spaces. In these examples, note that  $V$  may have many different inner products.

**Example 2** Scalar multiplication on  $V = \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\langle u, v \rangle = uv$$

**Example 3** Euclidean inner product on  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$\langle u, v \rangle = u_1v_1 + \dots + u_nv_n = \sum_{i=1}^n u_i v_i$$

This is also known as the dot product and notationally written

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

Considering  $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$  as matrices, this can equivalently be written

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v}$$

**Example 4** Weighted Euclidean inner product on  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $\omega_i > 0, \forall i$ .

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \omega_1 u_1 v_1 + \dots + \omega_n u_n v_n = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i u_i v_i$$

**Example 5** Matrix induced inner product on  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ : Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  have an inverse.

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = (A\mathbf{u}) \cdot (A\mathbf{v}) = (A\mathbf{u})^T (A\mathbf{v})$$

**Example 6** An inner product space on  $V = M_{nn}$ ,  $n \geq 1$ .

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \text{Tr}(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v})$$

where if  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} = [a_{ij}]$ , the trace  $\text{Tr}(A)$  is the sum of its diagonal elements, i.e.,

$$\text{Tr}(A) = a_{11} + \dots + a_{nn} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$$

**Example 7** Other inner products on  $V = M_{nn}$ ,  $n \geq 1$ . For every element  $\mathbf{v} \in V$  one can define a unique element  $\hat{\mathbf{v}} \in \mathbb{R}^{n^2}$  as follows:

$$\mathbf{v} = [v_{ij}] \Rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{v}} = \begin{pmatrix} v_{11} \\ \vdots \\ v_{1n} \\ v_{21} \\ \vdots \\ v_{nn} \end{pmatrix}$$

Then if we let  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{u}}, \hat{\mathbf{v}} \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^n}$  be any inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  we define the inner product on  $V$  as follows:

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \hat{\mathbf{u}}, \hat{\mathbf{v}} \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^n}$$

If one chooses  $\langle \hat{\mathbf{u}}, \hat{\mathbf{v}} \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^n}$  to be the Euclidean inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the definition above yields the same inner product described in Example 6, i.e.,

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \langle \hat{\mathbf{u}}, \hat{\mathbf{v}} \rangle_{\mathbb{R}^n} = \text{Tr}(\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{v})$$

**Example 8**  $L^2$  inner product on the function space  $V = C[a, b]$ :

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \int_a^b u(x)v(x)dx$$

**Example 9** Weighted  $L^2$  inner product on the function space  $V = C[a, b]$ . Let  $\omega(x) > 0$ ,  $\omega \in C[a, b]$ , then

$$\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = \int_a^b \omega(x)u(x)v(x)dx$$

We now make an observation that if  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$  then for each fixed  $\mathbf{v}$

$$T_{\mathbf{v}}(\mathbf{u}) \equiv \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$$

is a linear transformation from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  into  $\mathbb{R}$ , i.e.,  $T_{\mathbf{v}} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . This fact follows from b) and c) in the definition of the inner product.

## 7 Norms induced by Inner products

A norm on any vector space is defined by:

**Definition 18** We say  $\|u\|$  is a norm on a vector space  $V$  if  $\forall u, v \in V$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

- a)  $\|\alpha u\| = |\alpha| \|u\|$
- b)  $\|u\| \geq 0$
- c)  $\|u\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow u = 0$
- d)  $\|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$

If  $V$  is an inner product space then

$$\|u\| \equiv \sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle}$$

is the inner product induced norm for  $V$ . That this norm satisfies a)-c) in the above definition is easy to see. Showing the triangle inequality d) is satisfied requires the Cauchy-Schwartz inequality, however.

**Theorem 8** Let  $V$  be an inner product space and assume  $\|u\|$  is the inner product induced norm. Then

$$|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq \|u\| \|v\|, \quad \forall u, v \in V$$

*Proof:* If  $u = 0$  equality is attained so the statement is true. Thus, assume  $u \neq 0$  and define  $P(t) = \|tu + v\|^2$ . By properties of inner products we have

$$P(t) = at^2 + 2bt + c = \|u\|^2 t^2 + 2\langle u, v \rangle t + \|v\|^2$$

Since  $P(t) \geq 0$  and is quadratic in  $t$  it has either one root or no roots. In either case

$$b^2 - ac \leq 0$$

Written another way,

$$\langle u, v \rangle^2 \leq \|u\|^2 \|v\|^2$$

from which the result follows.

With this we now state

**Theorem 9** Let  $V$  be an inner product space and let

$$\|u\| \equiv \sqrt{\langle u, u \rangle}$$

Then  $\|u\|$  defines a norm on  $V$ .

*Proof: We only verify d) since a)-c) are trivial. Let  $u, v \in V$ . Then*

$$\begin{aligned}\|u + v\|^2 &= \|u\|^2 + 2\langle u, v \rangle + \|v\|^2 \\ &\leq \|u\|^2 + 2|\langle u, v \rangle| + \|v\|^2 \\ &\leq \|u\|^2 + 2\|u\|\|v\| + \|v\|^2 \\ &\leq (\|u\| + \|v\|)^2\end{aligned}$$

*from which the result follows.*

**Example 10** Euclidean norm on  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\|u\| = \sqrt{u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \cdots + u_n^2}$$

**Example 11**  $L^2$  norm on  $V = C[a, b]$ .

$$\|u\| = \sqrt{\int_a^b u(x)^2 dx}$$

**Example 12** Norm on  $V = M_{nn}$ .

$$\|u\| = \sqrt{\text{Tr}(u^T u)}$$

Given every inner product space has a norm, every inner product space is also a metric space with metric (or “distance”)

$$d(u, v) = \|u - v\|$$

## 8 Orthogonality

**Definition 19** Let  $V$  be an inner product space.  $u, v \in V$  are said to be orthogonal if

$$\langle u, v \rangle = 0$$

For any subspace  $W$  of  $V$ , one can define the space of vectors which are orthogonal to every element of  $W$ :

**Definition 20** Let  $V$  be an inner product space and  $W$  be a subspace of  $V$ . Then, the orthogonal complement  $W^\perp$  of  $W$  is

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

The following Theorem (without proof) summarizes several important facts about orthogonal complements:

**Theorem 10** Let  $V$  be a finite dimensional inner product space and  $X, Y, W$  be subspaces of  $V$ . Then

- a)  $\{0\}^\perp = V$
- b)  $W^\perp$  is a subspace of  $V$ .
- c)  $W \cap W^\perp = \{0\}$
- d)  $(W^\perp)^\perp = W$ .
- e)  $X \subset Y \Rightarrow Y^\perp \subset X^\perp$

A very important Theorem in linear algebra relates to the four fundamental matrix subspaces.

**Theorem 11** (Orthogonality of Matrix Subspaces) Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and let orthogonal complements be defined using the Euclidean inner product. Then,

- a)  $\text{row}(A) = N(A)^\perp$
- b)  $\text{col}(A) = N(A^T)^\perp$

From this arises the Fredholm Alternative<sup>1</sup> on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

**Theorem 12** Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then

$$Ax = b \text{ has a solution } x \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \langle v, b \rangle = 0, \forall v \in N(A^T)$$

A further large result is that  $W$  and  $W^\perp$  can be used to “decompose” a finite dimensional space into two parts. To make this precise we first make the following definitions:

**Definition 21** Let  $X, Y \subset V$  where  $V$  is a vector space. Then, the set  $X + Y$  is defined as all possible sums of elements in  $X$  and  $Y$ :

$$X + Y = \{x + y : x \in X, y \in Y\}$$

**Definition 22** Let  $V$  be a vector space and suppose

- i)  $X, Y$  are subspaces of  $V$ .
- ii)  $X \cap Y = \{0\}$
- iii)  $V = X + Y$

then  $X + Y$  is called a direct sum of  $X$  and  $Y$  and we write

$$V = X \oplus Y$$

Now we state the decomposition Theorem:

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<sup>1</sup>technically this is only part of the “alternative”



**Theorem 13** *Let  $W$  be a subspace of a finite dimensional inner product space  $V$ . Then,*

$$V = W \oplus W^\perp$$

*Moreover, for every  $v \in V$  there exist unique  $w \in W$  and  $w^\perp \in W^\perp$  such that*

$$v = w + w^\perp$$

*Here the unique  $w \in W$  is called the projection of  $v$  onto  $W$  and is denoted:*

$$w = \text{proj}_W v$$

When applied to the fundamental matrix subspaces, this Theorem implies for any matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbb{R}^n &= \text{row}(A) \oplus N(A) \\ \mathbb{R}^m &= \text{col}(A) \oplus N(A^T)\end{aligned}$$

## 9 Appendix on Symbol Notations

$=$	equals
$\equiv$	is defined as
$\Rightarrow$	implies
$\Leftrightarrow$	is equivalent to
$\exists$	there exists
$\forall$	for all
$\in$	is an element of
$\cup$	union
$\cap$	intersect
$\subset$	subset or proper subset
$\subseteq$	subset
$+$	vector addition
$\oplus$	vector addition or direct sum
$\odot$	scalar multiplication
$\cdot$	dot product or scalar multiplication
$\  u \ $	norm of $u$
$\Sigma$	sum
$\Sigma_{i=0}^n u_i$	$u_1 + u_2 + \dots u_n$
$d(u, v)$	distance between $u$ and $v$