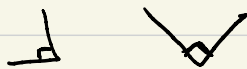


Lecture 15 : 07 / 27

- Orthogonality



Goal: generalize the notion of "angle" to a general vector space.

For example in \mathbb{R}^2



What does "angle" mean in $\mathcal{M}_{m \times m}(\mathbb{R})$?

fairly clear what "angle" means in \mathbb{R}^2

- Dot product: (scalar product)

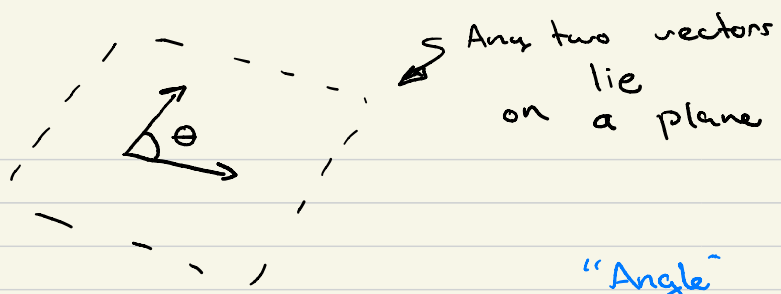
$$v, w \in \mathbb{R}^m, \quad v = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_m)$$

$$\langle v, w \rangle = v \cdot w = \sum_{k=1}^m v_k w_k$$

in \mathbb{R}^m this measures "angle" in the following sense:

$$v \cdot w = |v| |w| \cos(\theta)$$

the angle between v & w in radians



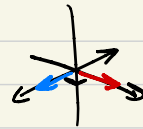
$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{v \cdot w}{|v||w|} \right)$$

"Angle" is this θ

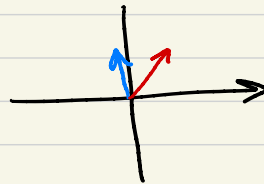
$$|v| = \sqrt{\sum_{k=1}^n v_k^2} = \sqrt{v \cdot v}$$

Ex:

$$(0, 1, 0) \cdot (1, 0, 0) = 0$$



$$(0, 1) \cdot (1, 1) = 1$$



$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{(0, 1) \cdot (1, 1)}{1 \cdot \sqrt{2}} \right)$$

$$= \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \right) = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2} \right)$$

$$\boxed{= \pi/4}$$

$$\begin{aligned}(1, 1, 0) \cdot (1, 1, 0) &= |(1, 1, 0)|^2 \\ &= 2 \quad \Rightarrow \quad |(1, 1, 0)| = \sqrt{2}\end{aligned}$$

Aside: $x^2 = a, a > 0$

$$x = \pm\sqrt{a}$$

$$|(1, 1, 0)|^2 = 2$$

$$\underline{|(1, 1, 0)|} = \pm\sqrt{2}$$

when talking about length, only
take + root.

• Properties of dot product in \mathbb{R}^m

① $x \cdot x \geq 0$, why $x \cdot x = \sum_{k=1}^m x_k^2$

② $x \cdot y = y \cdot x$, this follows from $x_k y_k = y_k x_k$

③ $\alpha(x \cdot y) = (\alpha x) \cdot y$

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha \sum_k x_k y_k &= \sum_k (\alpha x_k) y_k \\ &= \sum_k x_k (\alpha y_k) \end{aligned}$$

④ $(x + y) \cdot z = x \cdot z + y \cdot z$

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_k (x_k + y_k) z_k &= \sum_k x_k z_k + \sum_k y_k z_k \end{aligned}$$

For $\mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}^1$

① $x^2 \geq 0$, $xy = yx$, $\alpha(xy) = (\alpha x)y$

$$(x+y)z = xz + yz$$

"multiplication"

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

$$f(x, y), x \in V, y \in V, f(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}$$

Def: Let V be a vector space. We say a mapping $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an inner product if it satisfies

$$(1) \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$$

$$(2) \langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle \quad \text{commutative}$$

$$(3) d \langle x, y \rangle = \langle dx, y \rangle$$

$$(4) \langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle \quad \text{distributes over +}$$

$$d \langle x, y \rangle \neq \langle dx, dy \rangle$$

$$= d^2 \langle x, y \rangle$$

Ex: $C^0([a, b])$

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{\langle f, g \rangle}{|f||g|} \right)$$

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

$$f \cdot g = fg$$

$$f(x) \cdot g(x) = f(x)g(x)$$

$$(1) \langle f, f \rangle = \int_a^b f^2(x) dx \geq \min_{[a, b]} f^2 (b-a)$$

$$\geq 0 (b-a) = 0$$

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \underline{\underline{30}} \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx$$

(2) pretty clear

$$(3) \quad \alpha \int_a^b f(x)g(x) dx$$

$$= \int_a^b (\alpha f(x))g(x) dx$$

(4) is also true

Def: A v.s. V w/ an associated inner product $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ is called an inner product space.

We define the norm on V , by

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

↳ generalizes notion of "length"

- Takeaway: Introduces a way to measure angles & length. V.S. don't have either!

↙ v.s.

Ex: $A, B \in M_{m \times m}(\mathbb{R})$

$$\langle A, B \rangle = \sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m a_{kj} b_{kj}$$

$$\left\langle \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 6 \\ 7 & 8 \end{pmatrix} \right\rangle$$

$$5 + 12 + 21 + 32 = 70$$

$$\|A\|_p^p = \sum_{k=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m a_{kj}^p \quad , \quad p \geq 1$$

$$\|A\|_2 = \left(\sum_k \sum_j a_{kj}^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\|A - A^*\|_2 \leftarrow \text{want small}$$

$$\|A - A^*\|_4$$

$$\left(\sum_k \sum_j a_{kj}^p \right)^{1/p}$$

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

changing ruler
changes answer...

$$\|A\|_1 = 3$$

$$\|A\|_\infty = 2$$

$$\|A\|_2 = \sqrt{7}$$



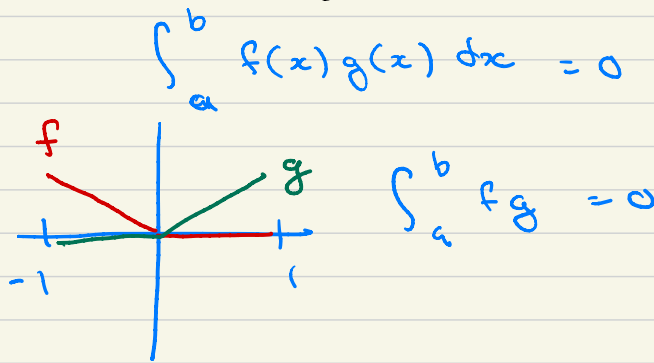
$$\|A - A^*\|$$

↑ exact ↑ approximate

- Orthogonality

Let V be an i.p.s. $u, w \in V$

- ① If $\langle u, w \rangle = 0$, we say u, w are orthogonal



- ② A set $\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m\}$ is orthogonal if $\langle u_i, u_j \rangle = 0 \quad \forall i \neq j$

- ③ We say v is a unit vector if

$$\|v\| = 1$$

- ④ We say a set is orthonormal if it is an orthogonal set of unit vectors

- Orthogonal and orthonormal bases

→ These prove enormously useful

Thm: Any orthogonal set is l.i.

Pf: Let $\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$ be orthogonal assume $v_i \neq 0$ for any i

let c_1, \dots, c_m be scalars such that

$$\sum_{k=1}^m c_k v_k = 0 \quad \langle v_i, 0 \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle v_i, 0 \rangle = \langle v_i, 0 \cdot v \rangle$$

Fix any i , $1 \leq i \leq m$

$$= 0 \cdot \langle v_i, v \rangle$$

$$= 0$$

$$0 = \langle v_i, \sum_k c_k v_k \rangle$$

$$= \sum_k c_k \langle v_i, v_k \rangle$$

← since ortho.

$$\langle v_i, v_k \rangle = 0$$

when $i \neq k$

$$= c_i \underbrace{\langle v_i, v_i \rangle}_{\neq 0}$$

$$\Rightarrow c_i = \frac{0}{\langle v_i, v_i \rangle} = 0$$

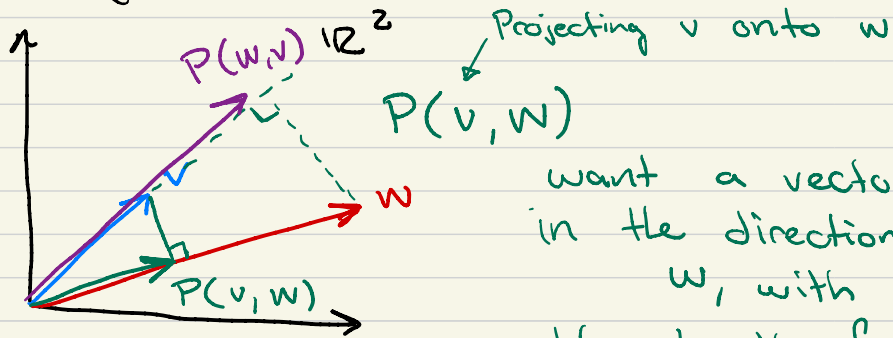
$$c_i = 0 \quad \forall i, 1 \leq i \leq m.$$

⇒ l.i.



$$\begin{aligned}
 \sum_k c_k \langle v_i, v_k \rangle &= 0 \quad i \neq 1 && \neq 0 \quad i = i \\
 &= c_1 \langle v_i, v_1 \rangle + \dots + c_i \langle v_i, v_i \rangle \\
 &\quad + \dots + c_m \langle v_i, v_m \rangle = 0 \quad i \neq m \\
 &= c_i \langle v_i, v_i \rangle
 \end{aligned}$$

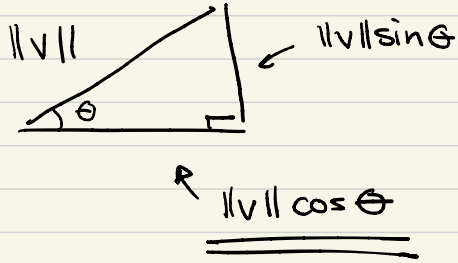
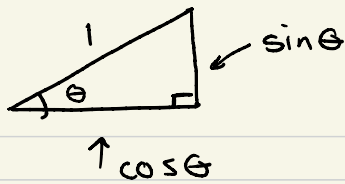
• Orthogonal projections



want a vector in the direction of w , with the length of the shadow of v .

$\frac{w}{\|w\|}$ a vector of length 1, in direction of w

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle v, \frac{w}{\|w\|} \rangle &= \|v\| \overbrace{\left\| \frac{w}{\|w\|} \right\|}^{=1} \cos \theta \\
 &= \|v\| \cos \theta
 \end{aligned}$$



$$P(v, w) = \frac{\langle v, w \rangle}{\|w\|^2} w$$

$$= \left(\left\langle v, \frac{w}{\|w\|} \right\rangle \right) \frac{w}{\|w\|}$$

$$= \left(\frac{1}{\|w\|} \langle v, w \rangle \right) \frac{w}{\|w\|}$$

on $[-\pi, \pi]$

$$P(x^2, \sin x)$$

$$= \frac{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} x^2 \sin x \, dx}{\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^2 x \, dx} \sin x$$

IBP

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{1}{2} (1 - \cos(2x)) \, dx$$

$$= 2 \sin x$$

- Write vectors in terms of orthogonal base

$$\{v_1, \dots, v_m\}$$

$$v = \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{\langle v, v_k \rangle}{\underbrace{\|v_k\|^2}_{\alpha_k}} v_k$$

for an orthonormal base, ($\|v_k\| = 1$)

$$v = \sum_{k=1}^m \langle v, v_k \rangle v_k$$

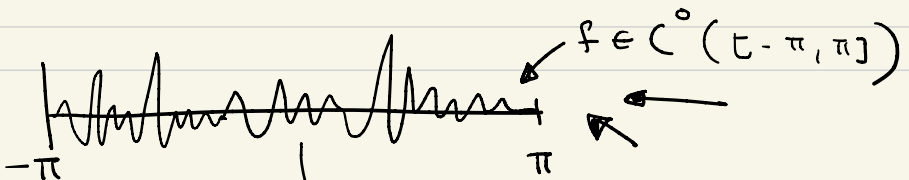
- $\{1, \sin x, \cos x, \sin 2x, \cos 2x, \dots\}$

$$[-\pi, \pi] \quad C^0([- \pi, \pi])$$

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} a_k \cos(kx) + b_k \sin(kx)$$

$$a_k = \langle f, \cos(kx) \rangle$$

$$b_k = \langle f, \sin(kx) \rangle$$

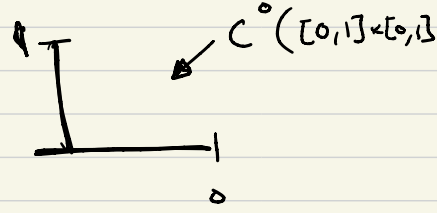


$$a_k = \{1, 3, -1, -2, 6, 10, 4, 1/2\}$$

$$b_k = \{ \dots \}$$

20,000

1,000 coefficients



an image at each pixel
has a value (r, g, b)
↑
0-255

$$f(a, b) = (r, g, b)$$

$$f: \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$$