

Today: • Euclidean spaces:  $V$  - vector space  
(, ) - inner product.

The upshot: The only kind of basis you want to work with in a Euclidean space is an orthonormal basis:

That is, a basis  $\{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$  such that

$$(w_i, w_j) = \delta_{ij} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

↑  
"delta - i - j"  
(the "Kronecker  $\delta$ ")

Aside:

Example (of the  $\delta$ -notation)

← an important family of linear functionals of a space of functions

Let  $V$  = the space of all continuous functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

Define a linear operator  $A_0: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  by

$$A_0(f) = f(0)$$

More generally, fix  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ , define  $A_{x_0}(f) = f(x_0)$

- A linear operator from  $V$  to a 1-dimensional vector space is called a linear functional

And these linear functionals we just defined have a standard name: they are called "the  $\delta$ -function":

Standard notation:


$$\delta_0(f) = f(0)$$

$$\delta_{x_0}(f) = f(x_0)$$

$$\underline{\text{Ker}(\delta_{x_0})} = \left\{ f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \text{ cont. s.t. } f(x_0) = 0 \right\} - \text{infinite-dim.}$$

## Back to orthonormal bases

$$(w_i, w_j) = \begin{cases} 0 & i \neq j \\ 1 & i = j \end{cases}$$

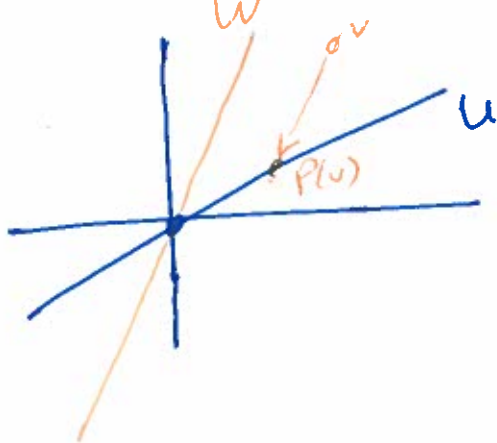
 vectors are mutually orthogonal and have length 1.

- Normally, when we talk about a  $V$ -vect. space, we say let  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  be a basis, --
- In a Euclidean space, we say, let  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  be an orthonormal basis --

Why do they exist?

First, projections.

Recall: If  $V = U \oplus W$ , we have a projection operator  $P_U: V \rightarrow U$  - projection onto  $U$  along  $W$



$V = U \oplus W$  means, every  $v$  has unique decomp.

$$v = u + w \\ u \in U, w \in W$$

$$P(v) = u.$$

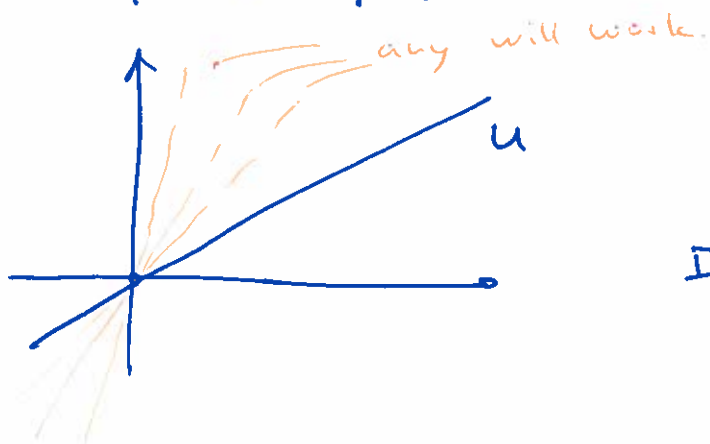
- This operator has the property  $P^2 = P$ .

In fact, any linear operator satisfying this property is a projector:

Let  $P$  satisfy  $P^2 = P$ . Then take  $U = \text{Im}(P)$   
 $W = \text{Ker}(P)$ .

We proved in h/w that then  $V = U \oplus W$ .

- In an arbitrary vector space, given a subspace  $U$ , there are infinitely many (unless your field is finite) possible projections onto  $U$  along various spaces  $W$ :



(there are many  $W$  s.t.  $V = U \oplus W$ ).

In a Euclidean space, there is the best one of them, called the orthogonal complement of  $U$ .

(Recall)

Def  $U^\perp = \{ v \in V : (u, v) = 0 \ \forall u \in U \}$ .

Thm:  $U \oplus U^\perp = V$ .

Pf: Recall: direct sum means: every  $v \in V$  has

a decomposition  $v = u + w$ ,  $u \in U$ ,  $w \in U^\perp$

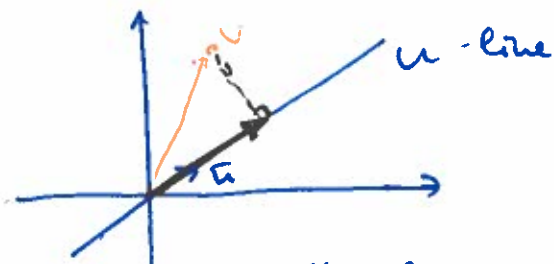
and such a decomp. is unique

(which is equivalent to saying

$$U \cap U^\perp = \{0\})$$

- Easy part:  $U \cap U^\perp = \{0\}$ : suppose  $v \in U \cap U^\perp$ . Then  $(v, v) = 0$ . Then  $v = 0$ .
- so: existence of this decomposition:

$$v \in V.$$



$$\text{Proj}_U v = \vec{u}_0 \cdot (v, \vec{u}_0).$$

↑  
unit basis vector of our line  $U$ .

Why this works for a line?

$$v - u_0 \cdot \underbrace{(v, u_0)}_{\text{scalar}} \perp u_0 \leftarrow \text{need to show this.}$$

$$(u_0, v - u_0 \cdot (v, u_0)) = (u_0, v) - \underbrace{(u_0, u_0)}_1 \cdot (v, u_0)$$

" because  $u_0$  is a unit vector

$$= 0.$$

So: when projecting onto a line,

the component along the line is

$$u = (v, u_0) \cdot u_0, \text{ where } u_0 \text{ is a unit basis vector}$$

$$w = v - (v, u_0) \cdot u_0 \text{ is the } \underline{\text{orthogonal}} \text{ component.}$$

So we proved our theorem when  $U$  is a line.

To do it in general, we ~~also~~ need an orthonormal basis for  $U$ . Then we'll have a formula for projection onto  $U$ .

Lemma Suppose we had an orthonormal basis

$$u_1, \dots, u_k \text{ in } U.$$

$$\text{Then } \text{Proj}_U v = \sum_{i=1}^k (v, u_i) u_i$$

orthogonal projection  
onto  $U$

$$= \underbrace{(v, u_1) u_1 + \dots + (v, u_k) u_k}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ U}}$$

comp. of  $v$  along  $u_1$       comp. of  $v$  along  $u_k$

To prove:  $v - \text{Proj}_U v$  is orthogonal to  $U$ .

$$\text{We compute: } (v - \sum_{i=1}^k (v, u_i) u_i, \underbrace{u_j}_{\uparrow U}) =$$

$$= (v, u) - \sum_{i=1}^k (v, u_i)(u_i, u)$$

Write  $u = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i u_i$  - decomposition of  $u$  into the components along  $u_i \in U$ .

$$= \sum_{i=1}^k a_i (v, u_i) - \sum_{i=1}^k (v, u_i) \underbrace{(u_i, u)}_{= a_i} = 0.$$

Why  $(u, u_i) = a_i$   
 Plug in  $u = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i u_i$ :

$$\begin{aligned} (u, u_j) &= \left( \sum_{i=1}^k a_i u_i, u_j \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k a_i \underbrace{(u_i, u_j)}_{= \delta_{ij}} = a_j \cdot 1 \end{aligned}$$

This says: all terms are 0 except for the  $j$ -th term  
 The  $j$ -th term is  $a_j \cdot 1$

### Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

Given a basis  $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$  in  $V$ , how to make it into an orthonormal basis?

• Do it inductively:

1) • make  $v_1$  a unit vector by replacing it with

$$\tilde{v}_1 = \frac{v_1}{\|v_1\|}.$$

2) Replace  $v_2$  with  $\tilde{v}_2' = v_2 - \text{Proj}_{\tilde{v}_1} v_2 = v_2 - \frac{1}{\|v_1\|^2} (v_2, \tilde{v}_1) \tilde{v}_1$

$$= v_2 - \underbrace{(v_2, \tilde{v}_1)}_{= a} \tilde{v}_1$$

So:  $\tilde{v}_2' \perp \tilde{v}_1$ .

→ w/c  $v_1, v_2$  were

3) Make  $\tilde{v}_2'$  into a unit vector:

$$\tilde{v}_2 = \frac{\tilde{v}_2'}{\|\tilde{v}_2'\|} = \frac{v_2 - (v_2, \tilde{v}_1) \tilde{v}_1}{\|v_2 - (v_2, \tilde{v}_1) \tilde{v}_1\|}$$

4) Let  $\tilde{v}_3' = v_3 - \text{Proj}_{L(\tilde{v}_1, \tilde{v}_2)} v_3$

$$= v_3 - \underbrace{((v_3, \tilde{v}_1) \cdot \tilde{v}_1 + (v_3, \tilde{v}_2) \cdot \tilde{v}_2)}_{\text{not } 0 \text{ b/c}}$$

$$\text{Let } \tilde{v}_3 = \frac{\tilde{v}_3'}{\|\tilde{v}_3'\|}$$

$v_1, v_2, v_3$  are  
lin. indep.

...  
This way we build an orthonormal basis,  
and it finishes the proof of the theorem.

Next time: Example of how to use it;  
Sections 8.3 and a bit of 8.4