

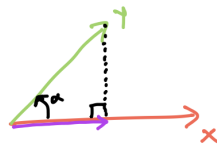
## Lecture 7

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# 1 Inner Product and Hilbert Spaces

- metric: measures distances
- norm: measures distances, lengths
- product: measure distances, lengths, angles

Figure 1: Inner product:  $\langle x, y \rangle = \|x\| \cdot \|y\| \cdot \cos \alpha$ 

In ML, we use cosine similarity:  $\cos(\theta) = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|x\| \cdot \|y\|}$ .

Inner product  $\leftrightarrow$  scalar product  $\leftrightarrow$  dot product

**Definition 1 (inner product)** Consider a vector space  $V$ . A mapping  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \rightarrow F$  is called a inner product if

- (P1) (linearity)  $\langle x_1 + x_2, y \rangle = \langle x_1, y \rangle + \langle x_2, y \rangle$
- (P2) (linearity)  $\langle \lambda x, y \rangle = \lambda \langle x, y \rangle$ , ( $\lambda \in F$ )
- (P3) (symmetry)  $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$  (if  $F$  is  $\mathbb{R}$ );  $\langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$  (if  $F$  is  $\mathbb{C}$ )
- (P4) (positive definite)  $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$
- (P5) (positive definite)  $\langle x, x \rangle = 0 \iff x = 0$

## Examples:

- Euclidean inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i,$$

where  $x = [x_1, \dots, x_n]^\top$ , and  $y = [y_1, \dots, y_n]^\top$

- On  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \bar{y}_i$
- $\mathcal{C}(\{[a, b]\})$ :  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(t)g(t)dt$  is an inner product (but space would not be complete)

**Definition 2** A vector space with a norm is called normed space. If a normed space is complete (all Cauchy sequences converge), then  $V$  is called a Banach Space. A vector space with an inner product is called a pre-Hilbert space. If it is additionally complete, then  $V$  is called a Hilbert space.

Given an inner product, we can define a norm space; while given a norm operation, we may not find a proper inner product.

Consider a vector space with an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ . Define  $\| \cdot \| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  as  $\|x\| := \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle}$ . Then  $\| \cdot \|$  is a norm on  $V$ , the norm is induced by  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ .

In general, the other way does not work.

Consider a vector space  $V$  with norm  $\| \cdot \|$ . Then  $d : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $d(x, y) := \|x - y\|$  is a metric on  $V$ , the metric is induced by the norm. In general, the other direction does not work.

inner product  $\Rightarrow$  norm  $\Rightarrow$  metric.

inner product  $\not\Leftarrow$  norm  $\not\Leftarrow$  metric.

## 2 Orthogonal Basis and Projections

**Definition 3 (orthogonal)** Consider a pre-Hilbert-space  $V$ . Two vectors  $v_1, v_2 \in V$  are called orthogonal if  $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = 0$ .

Notation:  $v_1 \perp v_2$ .

Two sets  $V_1, V_2 \subset V$  are called orthogonal if  $\forall v_1 \in V_1, v_2 \in V_2 : \langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = 0$ .

Vectors are called orthonormal if additionally the two vectors have norm of 1 :

- $\langle v_1, v_2 \rangle = 0$
- $\|v_1\| = 1, \|v_2\| = 1$

A set of vectors  $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$  is called orthonormal if any two vectors are orthonormal.

For a set  $S \subseteq Y$  we define its orthogonal complement  $S^\perp$  as follows:

$$S^\perp := \{v \in V \mid v \perp s, \forall s \in S\}$$

## 3 Orthogonal Projections

**Definition 4 (projection)**  $A \in \mathcal{L}(V)$  is called a projection if  $A^2 = A$ .

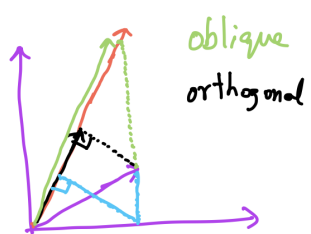


Figure 2: Oblique projection

**Definition 5** Let  $U$  be a finite-dim subspace of a pre-Hilbert-space  $H$ . Then there exists a linear projection  $P_U : H \rightarrow U$ , and  $\ker(P_U) = U^\perp$ .  $P_U$  is then called the orthogonal projection of  $H$  on  $U$ .

**Construction:** Let  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  be an orthogonal basis of  $U$ . Define  $P_U : V \rightarrow U$  by

$$P_U(\omega) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\langle \omega, v_i \rangle}{\|v_i\|^2} v_i.$$

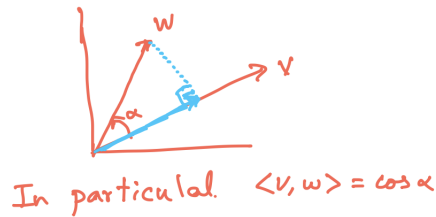


Figure 3: Orthogonal projection

**Remark 6** In an orthonormal basis  $u_1 \dots u_n$  the representation of a vector  $v$  is given by

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^n \langle v, u_i \rangle u_i.$$

**Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization:** It is a procedure that takes any basis  $v_1 \dots v_n$  of a finite-dim vector space and transforms it into another basis  $u_1 \dots u_n$  that is orthonormal.

**Intrition:** iterative procedure

Step 1.  $u_1 = \frac{v_1}{\|v_1\|}$ ,  $U_1 = \text{span}\{u_1\}$

Step k. Assume we already have  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{k-1}$   
 – Project  $v_k$  on  $U_{k-1}$  and keep "the rest"

$$\tilde{u}_k = v_k - P_{U_{k-1}}(v_k)$$

– Renormalize:

$$u_k = \frac{\tilde{u}_k}{\|\tilde{u}_k\|}$$

In practice use Householder reflections for a numerically stable orthogonalization.

## 4 Orthogonal Matrices

**Definition 7** Let  $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be a matrix with orthonormal column vectors (w.r.t. Euclidean inner product). Then  $Q$  is called an orthogonal matrix.

**Definition 8** If  $Q \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$  and the columns are orthonormal (w.r.t. the standard inner product on  $\mathbb{C}$ ), then it is called unitary.

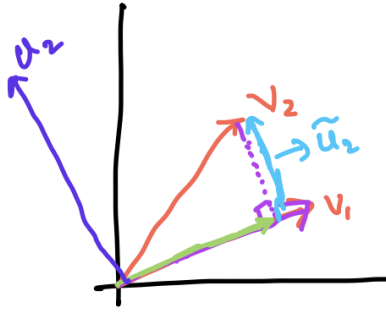


Figure 4: Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization

**Examples:**

- Identity:  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$
- Reflection:  $\begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ , reflection about  $x$ -axis
- Permutation:  $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
- Rotation:  $\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$
- Rotation in  $\mathbb{R}^3$ : rotate about one of the axes:

$$R_{\theta,1} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ 0 & \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$

**Properties** of orthogonal matrix  $Q$ :

- columns are orthogonal  $\Leftrightarrow$  rows are orthognd
- $Q$  is always invertible, and  $Q^{-1} = Q^T$
- $Q$  realizes an isometry :  $\forall v \in V, \|Qv\| = \|v\| \rightarrow$  keeps lengths intact
- $Q$  preserves angles:  $\langle Qu, Qv \rangle = \langle u, v \rangle \forall u, v \in V$
- $|\det Q| = 1$

The respective properties also hold for unitary matrices  $U$ . ( $U^{-1} = \bar{U}^T$ )

**Theorem 9** Let  $S \in \mathcal{L}(V)$  for a real vector space  $V$ . Then the following are equivalent:

- $S$  is an isometry:  $\|Sv\| = \|v\|, v \in V$ .
- There exists an orthonormal basis of  $V$  such that the matrix of  $S$  has the following form:

$$M = \begin{pmatrix} \square & & & 0 \\ & \square & & \\ & & \square & \\ 0 & & & \square \end{pmatrix}$$

where each of the little block

- either a  $1 \times 1$  matrix (one real number) with a value  $\pm 1$

– or a  $2 \times 2$  rotation matrix

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta & -\sin \theta \\ \sin \theta & \cos \theta \end{pmatrix}$$