



# LINEAR ALGEBRA

## Lecture 5: Euclidean Vector Spaces

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## Euclidean Vector Space

A real vector space  $V$  equipped with a positive definite symmetric bilinear form is called **Euclidean**.

This bilinear form is called an **inner product** and is denoted by  $(\cdot, \cdot)$ .

It allows to calculate **lengths and angles**:

$$\|x\| = \sqrt{(x, x)}, \quad \cos \angle(x, y) = \frac{(x, y)}{\|x\| \cdot \|y\|}.$$

## Some Examples

$\mathbb{R}^n$  with the standard Euclidean inner product  $(x, y) = x_1y_1 + \dots + x_ny_n$ .

The space  $C[a, b]$  with

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

Cauchy-Bunyakowski-Schwarz Inequality:

$$|(x, y)| \leq \|x\| \cdot \|y\|.$$

## Gram Matrix

The **Gram matrix** of a system of vectors:

$$G(v_1, \dots, v_k) = \begin{pmatrix} (v_1, v_1) & (v_1, v_2) & \dots & (v_1, v_k) \\ (v_2, v_1) & (v_2, v_2) & \dots & (v_2, v_k) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ (v_k, v_1) & (v_k, v_2) & \dots & (v_k, v_k) \end{pmatrix}$$

If  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  is a basis of  $V$ , then

$$G(e_1, \dots, e_n) = \text{Mat}((\cdot, \cdot)).$$

## Gram Matrix: Theorem

For any  $v_1, \dots, v_k$  in a Euclidean space  $V$   
 $\det G(v_1, \dots, v_k) \geq 0$  and  $= 0$  iff  $v_1, \dots, v_k$   
are linearly dependent.

**Proof:**  $\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j a_j = 0 \Rightarrow$  for all  $k = 1, \dots, n$   
 $\sum_{j=1}^n \lambda_j (a_j, a_k) = 0 \Rightarrow \det G(v_1, \dots, v_k) = 0.$

If  $v_1, \dots, v_k$  are linearly independent, then  
they form a basis of a subspace  $U$  in  $V$ .  
Then  $\text{Mat}((\cdot, \cdot) |_U) = G(v_1, \dots, v_k) > 0.$

## Orthonormal Basis

A basis  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  is called **orthonormal** if  $(x, y) = x_1y_1 + \dots + x_ny_n$ .

It is **equivalent** to any of the following conditions:

- $(x, x) = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2$
- $G(e_1, \dots, e_n) = E (= \text{Mat}(\text{Id}))$
- $(e_i, e_j) = \delta_{ij}$
- $(e_i, e_j) = 0$  and  $\|e_k\| = 1$ .

## Transition Between Orthonormal Bases

Suppose  $\{e_1, \dots, e_n\}$  is orthonormal and

$$(e'_1, \dots, e'_n) = (e_1, \dots, e_n)C.$$

Then the matrix of  $(\cdot, \cdot)$  in  $\{e'_1, \dots, e'_n\}$  is

$$C^T E C = C^T C.$$

Therefore,  $\{e'_1, \dots, e'_n\}$  is orthonormal, iff

$$C^T C = E.$$



## Orthogonal Matrices

The matrices  $C$ , s.t.  $C^T C = E$ , are called **orthogonal**. It implies that  $\det C = \pm 1$ .

The definition is **equivalent** to any of the following conditions:

- $C^{-1} = C^T$
- $CC^T = E$
- $(Cx, Cy) = (x, y)$  for any  $x, y \in V$
- rows (and columns) of  $C$  are pairwise orthogonal and have length 1.

## Orthogonal Projection and Component

Suppose  $U \subset V$ , then  $(\cdot, \cdot) |_{U^{\perp}} = 0$ .

It implies that  $V = U \oplus U^{\perp}$ , which follows that any  $x \in V$  can be uniquely written as

$$x = \text{pr}_U x + \text{ort}_U x, \quad \text{pr}_U x \in U, \text{ort}_U x \in U^{\perp}.$$

$\text{pr}_U x$  is the **orthogonal projection** of  $x$  on(to)  $U$ ,  $\text{ort}_U x$  is the **orthogonal component** of  $x$  with respect to  $U$ .

## Orthogonal Projection and Component

Suppose  $\{e_1, \dots, e_k\}$  is an orthogonal basis of  $U \subset V$ . Then

$$\text{pr}_U x = \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{(x, e_j)}{(e_j, e_j)} e_j.$$

Clearly,

$$\text{ort}_U x = x - \text{pr}_U x = x - \sum_{j=1}^k \frac{(x, e_j)}{(e_j, e_j)} e_j.$$