# MA1112: Linear Algebra II

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### Lecture 13

## **Euclidean spaces**

Informally, a Euclidean space is a vector space with a scalar product. Let us formulate a precise definition. In this lecture, we shall assume that our scalars are real numbers.

**Definition 1.** A vector space *V* is said to be a Euclidean space if it is equipped with a function (scalar product)  $V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $v_1, v_2 \mapsto (v_1, v_2)$  satisfying the following conditions:

- bilinearity:  $(c_1v_1 + c_2v_2, v) = c_1(v_1, v) + c_2(v_2, v)$  and  $(v, c_1v_1 + c_2v_2) = c_1(v, v_1) + c_2(v, v_2)$ ,
- symmetry:  $(v_1, v_2) = (v_2, v_1)$  for all  $v_1, v_2$ ,
- positivity:  $(v, v) \ge 0$  for all v, and (v, v) = 0 only for v = 0.

**Example 1.** Let  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$  with the *standard scalar product* 

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{pmatrix} = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n.$$

All the three properties are trivially true.

Example 2. Let V be the vector space of continuous functions on [0, 1], and

$$(f(t), g(t)) = \int_0^1 f(t)g(t) dt.$$

The symmetry is obvious, the bilinearity follows from linearity of the integral, and the positivity follows from the fact that if  $\int_0^1 h(t) dt = 0$  for a nonnegative continuous function h(t), then h(t) = 0.

**Lemma 1.** For every scalar product and every basis  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$  of V, we have

$$(x_1e_1 + \ldots + x_ne_n, y_1e_1 + \ldots + y_ne_n) = \sum_{i,j=1}^n a_{ij}x_iy_j,$$

*where*  $a_{ij} = (e_i, e_j)$ *.* 

This follows immediately from the bilinearity property of scalar products.

#### **Orthonormal bases**

A system of vectors  $e_1, \ldots, e_k$  of a Euclidean space *V* is said to be orthogonal, if it consists of nonzero vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal:  $(e_i, e_j) = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ . An orthogonal system is said to be orthonormal, if all its vectors are of length 1:  $(e_i, e_i) = 1$ . Note that a basis  $e_1, \ldots, e_n$  of *V* is orthonormal if and only if

$$(x_1e_1 + \ldots + x_ne_n, y_1e_1 + \ldots + y_ne_n) = x_1y_1 + \ldots + x_ny_n$$

for all  $x_1, ..., x_n, y_1, ..., y_n$ .

In other words, an orthonormal basis provides us with a system of coordinates that identifies V with  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with the standard scalar product.

#### Lemma 2. An orthonormal system is linearly independent.

*Proof.* Indeed, assuming  $c_1e_1 + \ldots + c_ke_k = 0$ , we have

$$0 = (0, e_p) = (c_1e_1 + \ldots + c_ke_k, e_p) = c_1(e_1, e_p) + \ldots + c_k(e_k, e_p) = c_p(e_p, e_p) = c_p.$$

#### **Theorem 1.** Every finite-dimensional Euclidean space has an orthonormal basis.

*Proof.* We shall describe a process called *Gram–Schmidt orthogonalisation procedure* which starts from some basis  $f_1, \ldots, f_n$ , and transform it into an orthogonal basis which we then make orthonormal. Namely, we shall prove by induction that there exists a basis  $e_1, \ldots, e_{k-1}, f_k, \ldots, f_n$ , where the first (k-1) vectors form an orthogonal system and are equal to linear combinations of the first (k-1) vectors of the original basis. For k = 1 the statement is empty, so there is nothing to prove. Assume that our statement is proved for some k, and let us show how to deduce it for k+1. Let us search for  $e_k$  of the form  $f_k - a_1e_1 - \ldots - a_{k-1}e_{k-1}$ ; this way the condition on linear combinations on the first k vectors of the original basis is automatically satisfied. Conditions  $(e_k, e_j) = 0$  for  $j = 1, \ldots, k-1$  mean that

$$0 = (f_k - a_1e_1 - \dots - a_{k-1}e_{k-1}, e_j) = (f_k, e_j) - a_1(e_1, e_j) - \dots - a_{k-1}(e_{k-1}, e_j),$$

and the induction hypothesis guarantees that the latter is equal to

$$(f_k, e_i) - a_i(e_i, e_i),$$

so we can put  $a_j = \frac{(f_k, e_j)}{(e_j, e_j)}$  for all j = 1, ..., k - 1. Clearly, the linear span of the vectors  $e_1, ..., e_{k-1}, f_k, ..., f_n$  is the same as the linear span of the vectors  $e_1, ..., e_{k-1}, e_k, f_{k+1}, ..., f_n$  (because we can recover the original set back:  $f_k = e_k + a_1e_1 + ... + a_{k-1}e_{k-1}$ ). Therefore,  $e_1, ..., e_{k-1}, e_k, f_{k+1}, ..., f_n$  are *n* vectors in an *n*-dimensional vector space that form a spanning set; they also must form a basis.

To complete the proof, we normalise all vectors, replacing each  $e_k$  by  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{(e_k, e_k)}}e_k$ .

This theorem effectively says that every finite-dimensional Euclidean space can be, with a "wise" choice of a coordinate system, identified with the vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  equipped with its standard scalar product. The key point of linear algebra is exactly that: an informed choice of a coordinate system can simplify things quite significantly.