### Exercises

7.1.8 Problem. Determine which of the following statements are true.

If a statement is false, then provide a counterexample.

- *i*. The norm of any vector is a complex number.
- *ii.* The only vector of norm 0 is the zero vector.
- *iii.* In any inner product space, there exists only finitely many vectors having norm 1.
- iv. Orthonormal vectors always satisfy non-trivial linear relations.

**7.1.9 Problem.** Let *n* be a nonnegative integer. For any vectors *v* in  $\mathbb{C}^n$ , consider the norm defined by  $||v||_1 \coloneqq |v_1| + |v_2| + \cdots + |v_n| \in \mathbb{R}$ .

*i*. Show that this norm satisfies the following four properties:

$\ cv\ _1 =  c  \ v\ _1$	for all $c$ in $\mathbb{C}$ and all $v$ in $\mathbb{C}^n$ .
$\left\  oldsymbol{v}  ight\ _1 \geqslant 0$	for all $v$ in $\mathbb{C}^n$ .
$\ v\ _1 = 0$ if and only	if $v = 0$ .
$\ oldsymbol{v}+oldsymbol{w}\ _1\leqslant \ oldsymbol{v}\ _1+\ oldsymbol{w}\ _1$	for all $v$ and $w$ in $\mathbb{C}^n$ .
	$\ v\ _1 \ge 0$ $\ v\ _1 = 0$ if and only

*ii.* Whenever  $n \ge 2$ , prove that this norm does not satisfy the parallelogram identity.

**7.1.10 Problem.** For any two vectors v and w in a complex inner product space , prove that  $||v + w|| ||v - w|| \le ||v||^2 + ||w||^2$ . When does equality hold?

**7.1.11 Problem.** For all vectors u, v, and w in a complex inner product space, prove that  $||u - v|| ||w|| \le ||v - w|| ||u|| + ||w - u|| ||v||$ .

# 7.2 Orthonormalization

How DO WE CONSTRUCT AN ORTHONORMAL BASIS? There is an effective process for producing an orthonormal set from any linearly independent set of vectors in an inner product space.

## 7.2.0 Algorithm (Orthonormalization).

input: a list  $(v_1, v_2, ..., v_m)$  of linearly independent vectors in an inner product space.

output: an orthonormal list  $(u_1, u_2, ..., u_m)$  of vectors such that  $\text{Span}(u_1, u_2, ..., u_k) = \text{Span}(v_1, v_2, ..., v_k)$  for all  $1 \le k \le m$ .

For k from 1 to m do

Set  $w_k \coloneqq v_k - \langle v_k, u_1 \rangle u_1 - \langle v_k, u_2 \rangle u_2 - \cdots - \langle v_k, u_{k-1} \rangle u_{k-1}$ ; Set  $u_k \coloneqq \frac{1}{\|w_k\|} w_k$ ;

Return the list  $(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m)$ .

Before explaining why this algorithm produces the expected output, we illustrate it with an example.

Erhard Schmidt published this process in 1907, indicating that Jorgen Gram had essentially the same idea in 1883. However, Pierre-Simon Laplace also described this process in 1816.

loop over input list create orthogonal vectors normalize the vectors **7.2.1 Problem.** Consider the real vector space  $\mathbb{R}^4$  equipped with the standard inner product. Find an orthonormal basis for  $\text{Span}(v_1, v_2, v_3)$  where  $v_1 \coloneqq \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T}$ ,  $v_2 \coloneqq \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T}$ , and  $v_3 \coloneqq \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T}$ .

Solution. Applying the orthonormalization algorithm [7.2.0] gives

$$\begin{aligned} k &= 1: \quad w_1 = v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} & \Rightarrow u_1 = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} \\ k &= 2: \quad w_2 = v_2 - \langle v_2, u_1 \rangle u_1 \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} - \frac{3}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} = \frac{1}{4} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} & \Rightarrow u_2 = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{3}} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} \\ k &= 3: \quad w_3 = v_3 - \langle v_3, u_1 \rangle u_1 - \langle v_3, u_2 \rangle u_2 \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} - \frac{2}{4} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} - \frac{2}{12} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} \\ &= \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 0 -2 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} \end{aligned}$$

so the list  $(u_1, u_2, u_3)$  is an orthonormal basis for Span $(v_1, v_2, v_3)$ .

*Correctness of Algorithm* 7.2.0. We demonstrate, by induction on the number *m* of input vectors, that the output does have the desired properties. If m = 0, then the algorithm returns the empty set, which is the unique basis for the zero linear space. Suppose that the number *m* is positive. When k = m - 1 in the loop, the induction hypothesis establishes that  $(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_{m-1})$  is an orthonormal list and  $\text{Span}(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_{m-1}) = \text{Span}(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_{m-1})$ . For each index *j* satisfying  $1 \leq j < m$ , the linearity of inner products [7.0.0] and orthonormality [7.1.3] give

$$\langle \boldsymbol{w}_m, \boldsymbol{u}_j \rangle = \langle \boldsymbol{v}_m - \langle \boldsymbol{v}_m, \boldsymbol{u}_1 \rangle \, \boldsymbol{u}_1 - \langle \boldsymbol{v}_m, \boldsymbol{u}_2 \rangle \, \boldsymbol{u}_2 - \dots - \langle \boldsymbol{v}_m, \boldsymbol{u}_{m-1} \rangle \, \boldsymbol{u}_{m-1}, \boldsymbol{u}_j \rangle \\ = \langle \boldsymbol{v}_m, \boldsymbol{u}_j \rangle - \langle \boldsymbol{v}_m, \boldsymbol{u}_1 \rangle \, \langle \boldsymbol{u}_1, \boldsymbol{u}_j \rangle - \langle \boldsymbol{v}_m, \boldsymbol{u}_2 \rangle \, \langle \boldsymbol{u}_k, \boldsymbol{u}_2 \rangle - \dots - \langle \boldsymbol{v}_m, \boldsymbol{u}_{m-1} \rangle \, \langle \boldsymbol{u}_{m-1}, \boldsymbol{u}_j \rangle \\ = \langle \boldsymbol{v}_m, \boldsymbol{u}_j \rangle - \langle \boldsymbol{v}_m, \boldsymbol{u}_j \rangle = 0.$$

Hence, the vectors  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_{m-1}, w_m$  are pairwise orthogonal. Since the vectors  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m$  are linearly independent, we deduce that the vector  $v_m$  is not in  $\text{Span}(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_{m-1}) = \text{Span}(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_{m-1})$ , so  $w_m \neq 0$ . Thus, the vector  $u_m = \frac{1}{\|w_m\|} w_m$  is well-defined and has unit length. It follows that  $(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m)$  is an orthonormal list and, in particular, linearly independent [7.1.6]. The defining equations for the vectors  $u_m$  and  $w_m$  imply that the vector  $v_m$  lies in  $\text{Span}(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m)$  and  $\text{Span}(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m) \subseteq \text{Span}(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m)$ . Since  $(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m)$  and  $(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m)$  are linearly independent, the linear subspaces they span have the same dimension, so we conclude that  $\text{Span}(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_m) = \text{Span}(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m)$ .

This algorithm has two immediate consequences.

**7.2.2 Corollary.** Let V be a finite-dimensional inner product space.

- i. The vector space V has an orthonormal basis
- ii. Every orthonormal list in V can be extended to an orthonormal basis.

Proof.

*i*. Because *V* is a finite-dimensional vector space, it has a basis  $v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n$  [2.2.1] where  $n := \dim(V)$  is a nonnegative integer. Applying the orthonormalization algorithm to these vectors produces an orthonormal list  $(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n)$  such that

$$\operatorname{Span}(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n) = \operatorname{Span}(v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_n) = V.$$

An orthonormal set of vectors in linearly independent [7.1.6], so we conclude that  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_n$  is a basis for *V*.

*ii.* Suppose the list (*u*<sub>1</sub>, *u*<sub>2</sub>, ..., *u*<sub>m</sub>) of vectors in *V* is orthonormal.
Since the vectors *u*<sub>1</sub>, *u*<sub>2</sub>, ..., *u*<sub>n</sub> are linearly independent [7.1.6], they can be extended to a basis [2.2.1]. In other words, there exists vectors *v*<sub>m+1</sub>, *v*<sub>m+2</sub>, ..., *v*<sub>n</sub> in *V* such that the list

$$(u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m, v_{m+1}, v_{m+2}, \ldots, v_n)$$

forms a basis for *V*. Applying the orthonormalization algorithm to this list produces an orthonormal basis *V*. Moreover, the algorithm does not change the first *m* vectors because they are already orthonormal. More explicitly, for all  $1 \le k \le m$ , we have

$$w_k = u_k - \langle u_k, u_1 \rangle u_1 - \langle u_k, u_2 \rangle u_2 - \cdots - \langle u_k, u_{k-1} \rangle u_{k-1} = u_k. \quad \Box$$

As a second illustration of the orthonormalization algorithm, we construct some orthogonal polynomials.

**7.2.3 Problem.** Consider the  $\mathbb{R}$ -vector space  $\mathbb{R}[t]_{\leq 2}$  equipped with the inner product  $\langle f, g \rangle := \int_{-1}^{1} f(x) g(x) dx$  where f and g in  $\mathbb{R}[t]_{\leq 2}$ . Convert the monomial basis  $(1, t, t^2)$  into an orthonormal basis.

Solution. The orthonormalization algorithm gives

$$\begin{split} k &= 1: \quad w_{1} = 1, \\ &\|w_{1}\|^{2} = \int_{-1}^{1} 1 \, dx = 2, \\ k &= 2: \quad w_{2} = t - \langle t, u_{1} \rangle \, u_{1} = t - \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} x \, dx = t - \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} x^{2} \Big]_{-1}^{1} = t, \\ &\|w_{2}\|^{2} = \int_{-1}^{1} x^{2} \, dx = \Big[ \frac{1}{3} x^{3} \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{2}{3}, \\ k &= 3: \quad w_{3} = t^{2} - \langle t^{2}, u_{1} \rangle \, u_{1} - \langle t^{2}, u_{2} \rangle \, u_{2} = t^{2} - \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^{1} x^{2} \, dx - \frac{3}{2} t \int_{-1}^{1} x^{3} \, dx \\ &= t^{2} - \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{3} x^{3} \Big]_{-1}^{1} - \frac{3}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{4} x^{4} \Big]_{-1}^{1} t = t^{3} - \frac{1}{3}, \\ \|w_{3}\|^{2} &= \int_{-1}^{1} (x^{2} - \frac{1}{3})^{2} \, dx = \frac{1}{9} \int_{-1}^{1} 9 \, x^{4} - 6 \, x^{2} + 1 \, dx \\ &= \frac{1}{9} \Big[ \frac{9}{5} \, x^{5} - 2 \, x^{3} + x \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{2}{45} (9 - 10 + 5) = \frac{8}{45}, \\ &\Rightarrow u_{3} = \frac{1}{\|w_{3}\|} w_{3} = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2\sqrt{2}} (3 \, t^{2} - 1) \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{3} \, t^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{2}{45} (9 - 10 + 5) = \frac{8}{45}, \\ &\Rightarrow u_{3} = \frac{1}{\|w_{3}\|} w_{3} = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2\sqrt{2}} (3 \, t^{2} - 1) \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{2}{45} (9 - 10 + 5) = \frac{8}{45}, \\ &\Rightarrow u_{3} = \frac{1}{\|w_{3}\|} w_{3} = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2\sqrt{2}} (3 \, t^{2} - 1) \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{2}{45} (9 - 10 + 5) = \frac{1}{45} \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2} \Big[ \frac{1}{2} \, y^{2} - 1 \Big]_{-1}^{1} = \frac{1}{2}$$

Therefore, the polynomials  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}}t, \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2\sqrt{2}}(3t^2-1)$  form an orthonormal basis of the space  $\mathbb{R}[t]_{\leq 2}$  of polynomials of degree at most 2.

This orthonormal basis already appeared in Problem 7.1.4.

Since the empty set is vacuously an orthonormal list, part *ii* implies part *i*.

### Exercises

**7.2.4 Problem.** Determine which of the following statements are true. If a statement is false, then provide a counterexample.

- *i.* Every linearly independent set of vectors in an inner product space is orthonormal.
- *ii.* Every orthogonal list can be extended to an basis of pairwise orthogonal vectors.
- *iii.* By rescaling the vectors, any orthogonal list can be converted into an orthonormal list.
- *iv.* The output of the orthonormalization algorithm depends on the order of the vectors in the input list.

**7.2.5 Problem.** Set  $n \coloneqq 2$ . Consider the  $\mathbb{R}$ -vector space  $\mathbb{R}[t]_{\leq n}$  with the inner product defined, for all polynomials f and g in  $\mathbb{R}[t]_{\leq n}$ , by

$$\langle f,g\rangle \coloneqq \int_0^\infty f(x)\,g(x)\,e^{-x}\,dx\,.$$

- *i*. Transform the monomial basis  $(1, t, t^2, ..., t^n)$  of  $\mathbb{R}[t]_{\leq n}$  into a orthonormal basis  $(L_0(t), L_1(t), ..., L_n(t))$  by applying the orthonormalization algorithm.
- *ii.* For each integer *j* satisfying  $0 \le j \le n$ , consider the linear operator  $D_j: \mathbb{R}[t]_{\le n} \to \mathbb{R}[t]_{\le n}$  defined, for all polynomials *f* in  $\mathbb{R}[t]_{\le n}$ , by  $D_j[f] := t f''(t) + (1 t) f'(t) + j f(t)$ . For all  $0 \le j \le n$ , show that  $\text{Span}(L_j) = \text{Ker}(D_j)$ .

Orthogonal Projections

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Orthogonal projections produce to a data-fitting technique. The best fit in the least-squares sense minimizes the sum of squared residuals—the difference between an observed value and the fitted value provided by a model. This chapter develops this idea.

# 8.0 Projections

How DO WE UNDERSTAND GENERAL ORTHOGONAL PROJECTIONS? Although we have discussed orthogonal projections onto a line, we gain new insights by generalizing these ideas to linear operators. We first identify a special type of linear operator.

**8.0.0 Definition.** A *projection* is a linear operator *P* such that  $P^2 = P$ .

**8.0.1 Lemma** (Properties of projections). *Let V* be a vector space and let  $P: V \rightarrow V$  be a projection.

- i. For any vector w in the image Im(P), we have P[w] = w.
- ii. We have  $\operatorname{Im}(P) \cap \operatorname{Ker}(P) = \{\mathbf{0}\}.$
- iii. For any vector v in V, there exists unique vectors w in Im(P) and z in Ker(P) such that v = w + z, P[v] = w, and  $(\text{id}_V P)[v] = z$ .

# Proof.

- *i*. For any vector w in Im(*P*), there is a vector v such that w = P[v]. Since  $P^2 = P$ , we have  $P[w] = P[P[v]] = P^2[v] = P[v] = w$ . Thus, the restriction of *P* to Im(*P*) is the identity operator.
- *ii.* Suppose that the vector w lies in the intersection  $\text{Im}(P) \cap \text{Ker}(P)$ . Part i shows that P[w] = w. Since w is in Ker(P), we also have  $P[w] = \mathbf{0}$ . Therefore, we have  $w = \mathbf{0}$  and  $\text{Im}(P) \cap \text{Ker}(P) = \{\mathbf{0}\}$ .
- *iii.* We first prove existence. For any vector v in V, consider the vectors w := P[v] and z := v w. It follows that w lies in Im(P) and w + z = w + (v w) = v. Using part i, linearity gives P[z] = P[v w] = P[v] P[w] = w w = 0, so z lies in Ker(P). Hence, the required expression is v = w + z.

To prove uniqueness, suppose that we have  $w + z = \tilde{w} + \tilde{z}$ where  $w, \tilde{w} \in \text{Im}(P)$  and  $z, \tilde{z} \in \text{Ker}(P)$ . Since both Im(P) and Ker(P) are linear subspaces [3.1.2], it follows that  $w - \tilde{w} \in \text{Im}(P)$ and  $\tilde{z} - z \in \text{Ker}(P)$ , so the vector  $w - \tilde{w} = \tilde{z} - z$  lies in the intersection  $\text{Im}(P) \cap \text{Ker}(P)$ . Part *ii* implies that  $w - \tilde{w} = \mathbf{0}$  and For any scalar *c* in  $\mathbb{C}$ , the matrix  $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$  defines a projection on  $\mathbb{C}^2$  via left multiplication. Indeed, we have

 $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1+0 & c+0 \\ 0+0 & 0+0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & c \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}.$ 

# 8

 $\widetilde{z} - z = \mathbf{0}$  or  $w = \widetilde{w}$  and  $\widetilde{z} = z$ . Thus, an expression v = w + z, where  $w \in \text{Im}(P)$  and  $z \in \text{Ker}(P)$ , is unique.

An inner product distinguishes a special class of projections.

**8.0.2 Definition.** Let *V* be an inner product space. A projection  $P: V \rightarrow V$  is *orthogonal* if the linear subspaces Im(P) and Ker(P) are orthogonal.

**8.0.3 Lemma** (Characterization of orthogonal projections). *Let V be an inner product space. A projection*  $P: V \rightarrow V$  *is orthogonal if and only if, for all vectors* u *and* v *in* V, *we have*  $\langle u, P[v] \rangle = \langle P[u], v \rangle$ .

## Proof.

 $\Rightarrow$ : Suppose that the linear operator *P* is an orthogonal projection.

The properties of projections show that there exist unique vectors x and w in Im(P) and unique vectors y and z in Ker(P) such that u = x + y and v = w + z. The orthogonality of the linear operator P implies that  $\langle y, w \rangle = 0$  and  $\langle x, z \rangle = 0$ . It follows that  $\langle u, P[v] \rangle = \langle x, w \rangle = \langle P[u], v \rangle$  because

$$\langle u, P[v] \rangle = \langle x + y, P[w + z] \rangle = \langle x + y, P[w] + P[z] \rangle = \langle x + y, w + 0 \rangle = \langle x, w \rangle + \langle y, w \rangle = \langle x, w \rangle$$
  
 
$$\langle P[u], v \rangle = \langle P[x + y], w + z \rangle = \langle P[x] + P[y], w] + z \rangle = \langle x + 0, w + z \rangle = \langle x, w \rangle + \langle x, z \rangle = \langle x, w \rangle$$

 $\Leftarrow$ : For all vectors *u* and *v* in *V*, suppose that  $\langle u, P[v] \rangle = \langle P[u], v \rangle$ . For any vector *w* in Im(*P*) and any vector *z* in Ker(*P*), there exists a vector *v* such that *w* = *P*[*v*] and *P*[*z*] = **0**. The properties of an inner product [7.0.9] show that

$$\langle w, z \rangle = \langle P[v], z \rangle = \langle v, P[z] \rangle = \langle v, 0 \rangle = 0,$$

so the linear subspaces Im(P) and Ker(P) are orthogonal.

Orthogonal projections have an elegant description.

**8.0.4 Proposition** (Projection formula). Let *U* be a finite-dimensional linear subspace in an inner product space *V*. For any orthonormal basis  $u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_m$  of the linear subspace *U*, the unique orthogonal projection  $P: V \rightarrow V$  satisfying Im(P) = U is defined, for all vectors v in *V*, by  $P[v] := \langle v, u_1 \rangle u_1 + \langle v, u_2 \rangle u_2 + \cdots + \langle v, u_m \rangle u_m$ .

*Proof.* For any vector v in V, the properties of projections show that there exists unique vectors w in Im(P) and z in Ker(P) such that v = w + z and P[v] = P[w + z] = P[w] + P[z] = w + 0 = w. Orthonormal coordinates [7.1.7] relative to the basis  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m$ establish that  $P[v] = w = \langle w, u_1 \rangle u_1 + \langle w, u_2 \rangle u_2 + \dots + \langle w, u_m \rangle u_m$ . Since the vectors  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m$  are linearly independent, we see that

$$0 = (\langle v, u_1 \rangle u_1 + \langle v, u_2 \rangle u_2 + \dots + \langle v, u_m \rangle u_m) - P[v]$$
  
=  $\langle v - w, u_1 \rangle u_1 + \langle v - w, u_2 \rangle u_2 + \dots + \langle v - w, u_m \rangle u_m$   
=  $\langle z, u_1 \rangle u_1 + \langle z, u_2 \rangle u_2 + \dots + \langle z, u_m \rangle u_m$ 

Saying that Im(P) and Ker(P) are orthogonal means that, for any vector win Im(P) and any vector z in Ker(P), we have  $\langle w, z \rangle = 0$ . if and only if, for all  $1 \le k \le m$ , we have  $\langle z, u_k \rangle = 0$ . Thus, to have  $P[v] = \langle v, u_1 \rangle u_1 + \langle v, u_2 \rangle u_2 + \dots + \langle v, u_m \rangle u_m$  for any vector v in V, it both necessary and sufficient that each vector z in Ker(P) be orthogonal to the vectors  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_m$ . Equivalently, the linear subspace Ker(P) must be orthogonal to linear subspace U. For any vector v in V, setting  $P[v] = \langle v, u_1 \rangle u_1 + \langle v, u_2 \rangle u_2 + \dots + \langle v, u_m \rangle u_m$  implies that  $P[u_k] = u_k$  for all  $1 \le k \le m$ , so Im(P) = U.

## Exercises

**8.0.5 Problem.** Determine which of the following statements are true. If a statement is false, then provide a counterexample.

- *i*. Every linear operator is a projection.
- *ii.* A linear operator *T* that satisfies  $Im(T) \cap Ker(T) = \{0\}$  must be a projection.
- *iii.* Given any linear subspace *W* in an inner product space *V*, there is a unique projection *P* on *V* such that Im(P) = W.
- *iv.* Given any linear subspace W in an inner product space V, there is a unique orthogonal projection P on V such that Im(P) = W.

**8.o.6 Problem.** Determine all of the eigenvalues of a projection and describe the corresponding eigenspaces.

# 8.1 Approximate Solutions

WHAT IS THE BEST APPROXIMATE SOLUTION TO A LINEAR SYSTEM? For an inconsistent linear system, it is fruitful to find an approximate solution. The next theorem demonstrates that orthogonal projections play a pivotal role in locating optimal approximations.

**8.1.0 Theorem** (Orthogonal projections minimize norms). *Let V* be an inner product space and let  $P: V \to V$  be an orthogonal projection. For any vector v in *V* and any vector u in Im(P), we have  $||v - P[v]|| \leq ||v - u||$ . *Furthermore, we have* ||v - P[v]|| = ||v - u|| *if and only if* u = P[v].

*Proof.* For any vector v in V, the properties of projections [8.0.1] show that there exist unique vectors w in Im(P) and z in Ker(P) such that v = w + z and P[v] = P[w] + P[z] = w + 0 = w. The difference w - u is also the image Im(P), because both u and w lie in Im(P) and Im(P) is a linear subspace [3.1.2]. The orthogonality [8.0.2] of the projection P asserts that the linear subspaces Im(P) and Ker(P) are orthogonal, so  $\langle z, w - u \rangle = 0$ . Hence, the nonnegativity of inner products [7.0.0] and the Pythagorean theorem [7.1.2] yield

$$\|v - P[v]\|^2 = \|v - w\|^2 = \|z\|^2 \le \|z\|^2 + \|w - u\|^2 = \|z + w - u\|^2 = \|v - w\|^2$$
,

Taking square roots, we obtain  $||v - P[v]|| \le ||v - u||$ . Equality holds if and only if 0 = ||w - u|| = ||P[v] - u|| which, by the properties of norms [7.1.1], is equivalent to P[v] = u.

**8.1.1 Remark.** Let  $T: V \to V$  be linear operator on an inner product space *V*. For any vector **b** in *V*, consider the equation  $T[\mathbf{x}] = \mathbf{b}$ . When the vector **b** lies in the image Im(T), this equation has a solution: there exists  $\mathbf{v} \in V$  such that  $T[\mathbf{v}] = \mathbf{b}$ . When the vector **b** does not lie in the image Im(T), the best approximate solution is a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in *V* minimizing  $\|\mathbf{b} - T[\mathbf{v}]\|$ . Since orthogonal projections minimize norms, the optimal approximation is a vector  $\mathbf{v}$  in *V* such that the vector  $T[\mathbf{v}]$  equals the orthogonal projection of **b** onto the image of *T*.

**8.1.2 Problem.** Let *V* be the  $\mathbb{R}$ -vector space of continuous functions over the interval  $[-1,1] \subset \mathbb{R}$  with  $\langle f,g \rangle := \int_{-1}^{1} f(s) g(s) ds$ . Find the quadratic polynomial g(x) that is the best approximation to the function  $f(x) = e^x$  over the interval [-1,1].

*Solution.* Problem 7.2.3 establishes that  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{2}}x, \frac{\sqrt{5}}{2\sqrt{2}}(3x^2 - 1)$  form an orthonormal basis for the linear subspace *W* of the inner product space *V* consisting of polynomials of degree at most 2. Since the best approximation is given by the orthogonal projection onto *W*, projection formula [8.0.4] gives

$$\begin{split} & \frac{1}{2} \langle f, 1 \rangle 1 + \frac{3}{2} \langle f, x \rangle x + \frac{5}{8} \langle f, 3x^2 - 1 \rangle (3x^2 - 1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \int_{-1}^1 e^s \, ds \right) 1 + \frac{3}{2} \left( \int_{-1}^1 s \, e^s \, ds \right) x + \frac{5}{8} \left( \int_{-1}^1 (3s^2 - 1) \, e^s \, ds \right) (3x^2 - 1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left( \left[ e^s \right]_{-1}^1 \right) 1 + \frac{3}{2} \left( \left[ (s - 1) \, e^s \right]_{-1}^1 \right) x + \frac{5}{8} \left( \left[ (3s^2 - 6s + 5) \, e^s \right]_{-1}^1 \right) (3x^2 - 1) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (e - e^{-1}) + 3e^{-1} x + \frac{5}{8} (2e - 14e^{-1}) (3x^2 - 1) \\ &= \left( \frac{1}{4} (7e - 33e^{-1}) \right) 1 + (3e^{-1}) x + \left( \frac{15}{4} (e - 7e^{-1}) \right) x^2. \end{split}$$

**8.1.3 Problem.** Consider the inner product space of trigonometric polynomials having degree at most *n* with  $\langle f, g \rangle := \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(s) g(s) \, ds$ . Prove that  $(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \cos(x), \sin(x), \cos(2x), \sin(2x), \dots, \cos(nx), \sin(nx))$  is an orthonormal basis for this vector space.

*Solution.* For all nonnegative integer *j* and all positive integers *k* such that  $j \neq k$ , using integration by parts twice gives

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(js) \cos(ks) \, ds = \left[\frac{1}{k} \cos(js) \sin(ks)\right]_{s=-\pi}^{s=\pi} + \frac{j}{k} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin(js) \sin(ks) \, ds$$
$$= \left[-\frac{j}{k^2} \sin(js) \cos(ks)\right]_{s=-\pi}^{s=\pi} + \frac{j^2}{k^2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(js) \cos(ks) \, ds$$

It follows that  $0 = ((k^2 - j^2)/(k^2)) \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(js) \cos(ks) ds$ , so we deduce that  $\langle \cos(jx), \cos(kx) \rangle = 0$ . Similar calculations demonstrate that  $\langle \cos(jx), \sin(kx) \rangle = 0$  and  $\langle \sin(jx), \sin(kx) \rangle = 0$ . As  $1 = \cos(0x)$ , this establishes the desired orthogonality.

It remains to see that the functions are appropriately normalized. Observe that  $\langle \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \frac{1}{2} ds = \frac{1}{2\pi} [s]_{s=-\pi}^{s=\pi} = 1$ . For a positive integer *k*, integration by parts gives

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos^2(ks) \, ds = \left[\frac{1}{k} \cos(ks) \sin(ks)\right]_{s=-\pi}^{s=\pi} + \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^2(ks) \, ds = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} 1 - \cos^2(ks) \, ds \, .$$

Fourier series are the least-squares approximations of periodic functions in terms of (typically infinite) sums of sines and cosines.

This method of least squares is a standard approach used to approximate the solution of overdetermined systems.

The best approximation is not the quadratic Taylor polynomial for  $e^x$ .

It follows that  $2\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos^2(ks) ds = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} 1 ds = [s]_{s=-\pi}^{s=\pi} = 2\pi$ , so we see that  $\langle \cos(kx), \cos(kx) \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos^2(ks) ds = 1$ . A similar computation gives  $\langle \sin(kx), \sin(kx) \rangle = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin^2(ks) ds = 1$ .

**8.1.4 Problem.** Find the trigonometric polynomial of degree at most *n* that best approximates the function saw(*x*) =  $2\left(\frac{x}{2\pi} - \left\lfloor \frac{1}{2} + \frac{x}{2\pi} \right\rfloor\right)$ .

*Solution.* Problem 8.1.3 provides the relevant orthonormal basis. The best approximation is given by the orthogonal projection, which by the projection formula [8.0.4] is

$$\langle \operatorname{saw}(x), 1 \rangle \frac{1}{2} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \langle \operatorname{saw}(x), \cos(jx) \rangle \cos(jx) + \sum_{k=1}^{n} \langle \operatorname{saw}(x), \sin(kx) \rangle \sin(kx).$$

Since  $(\operatorname{saw}(x), \cos(jx)) = \frac{1}{\pi^2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} s \cos(js) \, ds = 0$  and

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \operatorname{saw}(x), \sin(kx) \rangle &= \frac{1}{\pi^2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} s \sin(ks) \, ds \\ &= \left[ -\frac{1}{k\pi^2} s \cos(ks) \right]_{s=-\pi}^{s=\pi} + \frac{1}{k\pi^2} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos(ks) \, ds \\ &= -\frac{2\cos(k\pi)}{k\pi} + \frac{1}{k^2\pi^2} \left[ \sin(ks) \right]_{s=-\pi}^{s=\pi} = \frac{2(-1)^{k+1}}{k\pi} \,, \end{aligned}$$

the best approximation of saw(x) is  $\frac{2}{\pi} \sum_{k=1}^{n} \frac{(-1)^{k+1}}{k} \sin(kx)$ .

**8.1.5 Remark.** One can prove that, as  $n \to \infty$ , this approximation converges pointwise to saw(*x*).

#### Exercises

**8.1.6 Problem.** Determine which of the following statements are true. If a statement is false, then provide a counterexample.

- *i*. Any projection onto a linear subspace in an inner product space minimizes norms.
- *ii.* When the vector v is a solution to the linear equation T[x] = b, the orthogonal projection of T[v] onto the image of T equals b.
- *iii.* Taylor polynomials always provide the best approximation to a function.
- *iv.* The defining basis for the space of trigonometric polynomials is an orthonormal basis.

**8.1.7 Problem.** Fix a nonnegative integer *n* and consider the *n*-element set  $\mathcal{X} := \{\frac{2\pi\ell}{n} \in \mathbb{R} \mid 0 \leq \ell \leq n-1\}$ . Let  $V := \mathbb{C}^{\mathcal{X}}$  the complex inner product space, consisting of all functions from the finite set  $\mathcal{X}$  of real numbers to  $\mathbb{C}$  with the inner product

$$\langle f,g \rangle := \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x) \overline{g(x)} = \sum_{\ell=0}^{n-1} f\left(\frac{2\pi\ell}{n}\right) \overline{g\left(\frac{2\pi\ell}{n}\right)}.$$

The *sawtooth wave function* saw(x) is piecewise linear: saw(x) =  $\frac{x}{\pi}$  for all  $-\pi < x \le \pi$ ; saw( $x + 2j\pi$ ) = saw(x) for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and all  $j \in \mathbb{Z}$ .

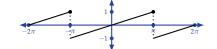


Figure 8.0: Graph of sawtooth wave