

Example 17. (review) If $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$, then its **transpose** is $A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$.

Recall that $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$. This reflects the fact that, in the column-centric versus the row-centric interpretation of matrix multiplication, the order of the matrices is reversed.

Comment. When working with complex numbers, the fundamental role is not played by the transpose but by the **conjugate transpose** instead (we'll see that in our discussion of orthogonality): $A^* = \overline{A^T}$.

For instance, if $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1-3i & 5i \\ 2+i & 3 \end{bmatrix}$, then $A^* = \begin{bmatrix} 1+3i & 2-i \\ -5i & 3 \end{bmatrix}$.

Orthogonality

The inner product and distances

Definition 18. The **inner product** (or **dot product**) of \mathbf{v} , \mathbf{w} in \mathbb{R}^n :

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{w} = v_1 w_1 + \dots + v_n w_n.$$

Because we can think of this as a special case of the matrix product, it satisfies the basic rules like associativity and distributivity.

In addition: $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v}$.

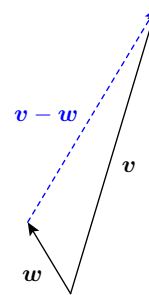
Example 19. $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix} = 2 - 2 + 12 = 12$

Definition 20.

- The **norm** (or **length**) of a vector \mathbf{v} in \mathbb{R}^n is

$$\|\mathbf{v}\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v}} = \sqrt{v_1^2 + \dots + v_n^2}.$$

- The **distance** between points \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} in \mathbb{R}^n is $\text{dist}(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}) = \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|$.



Example 21. For instance, in \mathbb{R}^2 , $\text{dist}\left(\begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ y_2 \end{bmatrix}\right) = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - x_2 \\ y_1 - y_2 \end{bmatrix} \right\| = \sqrt{(x_1 - x_2)^2 + (y_1 - y_2)^2}$.

Example 22. Write $\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|^2$ as a dot product, and multiply it out.

Solution. $\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|^2 = (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}) \cdot (\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} - \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2$

Comment. This is a vector version of $(x - y)^2 = x^2 - 2xy + y^2$.

The reason we were careful and first wrote $-\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} - \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ before simplifying it to $-2\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w}$ is that we should not take rules such as $\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{v}$ for granted. For instance, for the cross product $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w}$, that you may have seen in Calculus, we have $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w} \neq \mathbf{w} \times \mathbf{v}$ (instead, $\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{w} = -\mathbf{w} \times \mathbf{v}$).

Orthogonal vectors

Definition 23. \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} in \mathbb{R}^n are **orthogonal** if

$$\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = 0.$$

Why? How is this related to our understanding of right angles?

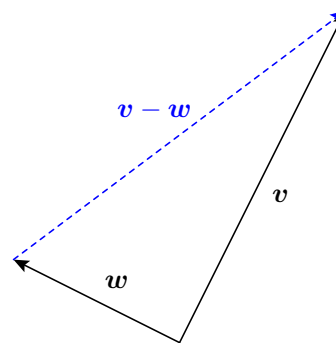
Pythagoras!

\mathbf{v} and \mathbf{w} are orthogonal

$$\iff \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 = \underbrace{\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{w}\|^2}_{= \|\mathbf{v}\|^2 - 2\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} + \|\mathbf{w}\|^2 \text{ (by previous example)}}$$

$$\iff -2\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = 0$$

$$\iff \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{w} = 0$$



Example 24. Determine a basis for the **orthogonal complement** of (the span of) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

What are we looking for? The orthogonal complement of \mathbf{v} consists of all vectors that are orthogonal to \mathbf{v} . More generally, the orthogonal complement of a space V consists of all vectors that are orthogonal to every vector in V .

Solution. (staring/intuition) We are working in 3-dimensional space and already have 1 vector. The vectors orthogonal to it lie in a $3 - 1 = 2$ -dimensional space (a plane).

Two of the vectors orthogonal to $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ are $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Knowing that the orthogonal complement has dimension 2, we conclude that $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is a basis.

In other words, the orthogonal complement of $\text{span}\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is $\text{span}\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$.

[Note how the dimensions add up to the dimension of the entire space: $1 + 2 = 3$.]

Solution. (professional) $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \cdot \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = 0$ (dot product!) is the same as $[1 \ 2 \ 1] \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = 0$ (matrix product!).

Hence, the orthogonal complement of $\text{span}\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$ is the same as $\text{null}([1 \ 2 \ 1])$.

Computing a basis for $\text{null}([1 \ 2 \ 1])$ is easy since $[1 \ 2 \ 1]$ is already in RREF.

Note that the general solution to $[1 \ 2 \ 1]\mathbf{x} = 0$ is $\begin{bmatrix} -2s - t \\ s \\ t \end{bmatrix} = s \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + t \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

A basis for $\text{null}([1 \ 2 \ 1])$ therefore is $\left\{ \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \right\}$. (Check that these are indeed orthogonal to $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$!)

Example 25. Determine a basis for the orthogonal complement of $\text{span}\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}\right\}$.

Solution. We are looking for vectors \mathbf{x} such that $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = 0$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = 0$.

The two equations can be combined into a single one: $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{0}$.

In other words, the orthogonal complement of $\text{span}\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}\right\}$ is the same as $\text{null}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix}\right)$.

It remains to compute a basis for that null space:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 3 & 1 & 2 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{R_2 - 3R_1} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 1 \\ 0 & -5 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{\text{back-substitution}} \begin{bmatrix} -3/5s \\ -1/5s \\ s \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence, a basis for the orthogonal complement of $\text{span}\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}\right\}$ is $\begin{bmatrix} -3/5 \\ -1/5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Check. $\begin{bmatrix} -3/5 \\ -1/5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ is indeed orthogonal to both $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Just to make sure. Why was it clear that the orthogonal complement is 1-dimensional?