## Course : Algebra 3

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Department of Computer Science

## Chapter 4:

## Vector spaces

## 1 Maps on vector spaces

Definition 1.1 Let $V$ be a vector space over a field $K$ and let $f: V \times V \longrightarrow K$ be a function. Supppose that the following two conditions hold, for $\alpha, \beta \in K$.
a. $f\left(\alpha x+\beta x^{\prime}, y\right)=\alpha f(x, y)+\beta f\left(x^{\prime}, y\right), x, x^{\prime}, y \in V$.
b. $f\left(x, \alpha y+\beta y^{\prime}\right)=\alpha f(x, y)+\beta f\left(x, y^{\prime}\right), x, y, y^{\prime} \in V$.

Then, $f$ is called a bilinear map on $V$.
Example 1.1 Consider the function $f: V \times V \longrightarrow K$ where

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x, y)=x A y^{T} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $V=\mathbb{R}^{n}$ and $K=\mathbb{R}$ and where $A$ is an $n \times n$ matrix. Then, $f$ represents a bilinear map.
Definition 1.2 Let $V$ be a vector space over a field $K$ and let $f$ be a bilinear map on $V$. Take that $g: V \longrightarrow K$ is a map, having

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=f(x, x) \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, $g$ is called a quadratic map on $V$.
Example 1.2 Consider

$$
\begin{equation*}
f(x, y)=a_{11} x_{1} y_{1}+a_{12} x_{1} y_{2}+a_{21} x_{2} y_{1}+a_{22} x_{2} y_{2} \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=a_{11} x_{1}^{2}+\left(a_{12}+a_{21}\right) x_{1} x_{2}+a_{22} x_{2}^{2} \tag{4}
\end{equation*}
$$

this map represents a quadratic map.

Definition 1.3 Suppose that the quadratic map $g: V \longrightarrow K$ satisfies, for $x \neq 0$,

$$
\begin{equation*}
g(x)=f(x, x) \succ 0 \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $f$ is a bilinear map. Then, $g$ and $f$ are positive definite.
Definition 1.4 Let $V$ be a vector space over $K$ and let $S$ be a subset of $V$. Suppose that $x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}$ is a finite list of vectors with $x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n} \in S$. Then, $S$ spans $V$ iff $x=\alpha_{1} x_{1}+\alpha_{2} x_{2}+\cdots+\alpha_{n} x_{n}$, for $\alpha_{1}, \alpha_{2}, \cdots, \alpha_{n} \in K$.

Definition 1.5 Let $V$ be a vector space and let $S \subseteq V$. Assume that $S$ spans $V$ and $S$ must be linearly independent. Then, $S$ is called a basis of $V$.

Definition 1.6 Suppose that $V$ is a vector space and that $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$ is an ordered basis for $V$. Take that

$$
\begin{equation*}
a_{i j}=f\left(x_{i}, x_{j}\right) \tag{6}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $f$ is a bilinear map on $V$. Then, $A=\left(a_{i j}\right)$ is said to be the matrix for $f$ with respect to $\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \cdots, x_{n}\right)$.

## 2 Inner product spaces

Definition 2.1 Suppose that $Y=\mathbb{R}$ or $Y=\mathbb{C}$ and that $V$ is a vector space over $Y$. Take that $<,>: V \times V \longrightarrow Y$ is a function satisfies, for $x, y, z \in V$,

1. $<x, x>\succcurlyeq 0$ and $<x, x>=0 \Leftrightarrow x=0$.
2. 

$$
\begin{aligned}
& <x, y>=<y, x>\text { when } Y=\mathbb{C} \\
& <x, y>=<y, x>\text { when } Y=\mathbb{R}
\end{aligned}
$$

3. $<\alpha x+\beta y, z>=\alpha<x, z>+\beta<y, z>$, for $\alpha, \beta \in Y$.

Then, the function $<,>: V \times V \longrightarrow Y$ is called an inner product on $V$.

Definition 2.2 Suppose that $V$ is a vector space over $Y$. Take that $<,>: V \times V \longrightarrow Y$ is an inner product on $V$.

1. When $V$ is a real or complex vector space, $V$ is said to be a real or complex inner product space.
2. When $V$ is a real vector space, $V$ is said to be a Euclidean space.
3. When $V$ is a complex vector space, $V$ is said to be a unitary space.

Definition 2.3 Let $d: X \times X \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function where $X$ is a nonempty set and assume that, for $x, y, z \in X$,

1. $d(x, y)=0$ if and only if $x=y$.
2. $0 \preccurlyeq d(x, y) \prec \infty$.
3. $d(x, y)=d(y, x)$.
4. $d(x, z) \preccurlyeq d(x, y)+d(y, z)$.

Then, $d(x, y)$ is said to be the distance from $x$ to $y$ or a metric on $X$.
Definition 2.4 Suppose that $X$ is a nonempty set and that $d: X \times X \longrightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a metric on $X$. Then, $X$ is said to be a metric space.

Remark 2.1 .
For $x \in V$, the norm of $x$ can be represented as

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|x\|=\sqrt{<x, x>} \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $V$ is an inner product space.
The polarization identities are presented in the following two theorems where $V$ is a real or complex inner product space.

Theorem 2.1 Let $V$ be a real inner product space and let $x, y \in V$. Then, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
<x, y>=\frac{1}{4}\left(\|x+y\|^{2}-\|x-y\|^{2}\right) \tag{8}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 2.2 Let $V$ be a complex inner product space and let $x, y \in V$. Then, we get

$$
\begin{equation*}
<x, y>=\frac{1}{4}\left(\|x+y\|^{2}-\|x-y\|^{2}\right)+\frac{1}{4} i\left(\|x+i y\|^{2}-\|x-i y\|^{2}\right) \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

Definition 2.5 Suppose that $X$ is a metric space and that $x \in X$. Let $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence of points in $X$. Then, we can say that $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ converges to $x$ when

$$
\begin{equation*}
\lim _{n \longrightarrow \infty} d\left(x_{n}, x\right)=0 \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

which means that for $\varepsilon \succ 0$ we find an integer $N \succ 0$ with $n \succcurlyeq N \Longrightarrow d\left(x_{n}, x\right) \prec \varepsilon$.
Definition 2.6 Assume that $X$ is a metric space and that $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a sequence of points in $X$. Then, $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is called a Cauchy sequence when we have that for $\varepsilon \succ 0$ we find an integer $N \succ 0$ with $m, n \succcurlyeq N \Longrightarrow d\left(x_{m}, x_{n}\right) \prec$ $\varepsilon$.

Theorem 2.3 Let $x, y, z \in V$. Then, we have

1. $\|x+y\| \preccurlyeq\|x\|+\|y\|$, (The triangle inequality).
2. $\|x+y\|^{2}+\|x-y\|^{2}=2\|x\|^{2}+2\|y\|^{2}$, (The parallelogram law).
3. $\|x-y\| \preccurlyeq\|x-z\|+\|z-y\|$.
4. $|<x, y>| \preccurlyeq\|x\|\|y\|$, (The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality).
5. $\|x\| \succcurlyeq 0$ and $\|x\|=0$ if and only if $x=0$.

Lemma 2.1 Let $X$ be a metric space and let $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a convergent sequence in $X$. Then, $\left\{x_{n}\right\}_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is said to be a Cauchy sequence.

Definition 2.7 Suppose that $X$ is a metric space and that $x$ is an element of $X$. Take that each Cauchy sequence in $X$ converges to $x$. Then, $X$ is said to be complete.

## Remark 2.2 .

Let $V$ be a real or complex vector space and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|x\|=\sqrt{<x, x>} \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, a complete metric space $(V,\|x-y\|)$ is said to be a Hilbert space.

## 3 Orthogonal sets

Definition 3.1 Suppose that $V$ is an inner product space and that $x$ and $y$ are vectors. Let $<x, y>=0$ for $x, y \in V$. Then, the vectors $x$ and $y$ are called orthogonal and denoted by $x \perp y$.

Definition 3.2 Suppose that $V$ is an inner product space and that $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ are subsets with $A_{1}, A_{2} \subseteq V$. Let $x \perp y$ for every $x \in A_{1}$ and $y \in A_{2}$. Then, $A_{1}$ and $A_{2}$ are said to be orthogonal.

Definition 3.3 Let $V$ be an inner product space and let $A$ be a nonempty set of vectors where

$$
\begin{equation*}
A=\left\{x_{i} \backslash i \in K\right\} \tag{12}
\end{equation*}
$$

1. When we have $x_{i} \perp x_{j}$ for $i \neq j, A$ is called orthogonal.
2. When we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
<x_{i}, x_{j}>=\delta_{i, j} \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

$A$ is called orthonormal such that $\delta_{i, j}$ represents the Kronecker delta function with

$$
\delta_{i, j}:= \begin{cases}1 & \text { when } i=j \\ 0 & \text { when } i \neq j\end{cases}
$$

Theorem 3.1 (Pythagoras) Let $V$ be a real or complex inner product space and let $x \perp y$. Then, we have

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|x+y\|^{2}=\|x\|^{2}+\|y\|^{2} . \tag{14}
\end{equation*}
$$

Theorem 3.2 (Gram-Schmidt) Suppose that $V$ is a real or complex inner product space and that $\left\{v_{1}, v_{2}, \cdots, v_{n}\right\}$ is a basis for $V$. Then, we say that $\left\{u_{1}, u_{2}, \cdots, u_{n}\right\}$ represents an orthogonal basis for $V$ where

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{1}=v_{1} \tag{15}
\end{equation*}
$$

and

$$
\begin{equation*}
u_{j}=v_{j}-\sum_{i=1}^{j-1} \frac{<v_{j}, u_{i}>}{<u_{i}, u_{i}>} u_{i}, j=2, \cdots, n \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

An orthonormal basis for $V$ is given by

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{\frac{u_{1}}{\left\|u_{1}\right\|}, \frac{u_{2}}{\left\|u_{2}\right\|}, \cdots, \frac{u_{n}}{\left\|u_{n}\right\|}\right\} \tag{17}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 4 Orthogonal matrices and their properties

Definition 4.1 Let $A$ be an $n \times n$ matrix over $\mathbb{R}$ and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
A^{T} A=A A^{T}=I_{n} \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, we say that $A$ is an orthogonal matrix.
Theorem 4.1 Let $A$ be an orthogonal matrix. Then, we have
a. $A^{-1}$ is an orthogonal matrix.
b. $A^{T}$ is an orthogonal matrix.

Theorem 4.2 Let $A$ and $B$ be two matrices of order $n$ such that $A$ and $B$ are orthogonal matrices. Then, the product $A B$ represents an orthogonal matrix, on the other hand, the product $B A$ is also orthogonal.

Theorem 4.3 Let $A$ be an orthogonal matrix. Then, the determinant of $A$ is equal to $\pm 1$.

## Remark 4.1 .

The group which is denoted by $G L_{n}(\mathbb{R})$ is said to be the general linear group of degree $n$ over $\mathbb{R}$ if $G L_{n}(\mathbb{R})$ is the group of $n \times n$ matrices that are real and nonsingular such that this group is the group under matrix multiplication. On he other hand, the general linear group of degree $n$ over $\mathbb{C}$ is denoted by $G L_{n}(\mathbb{C})$.
The group which id denoted by $O_{n}(\mathbb{R})$ is said to be the orthogonal group if $O_{n}(\mathbb{R})$ is the group of $n \times n$ orthogonal matrices over $\mathbb{R}$ such that this group is the group under multiplication.

## 5 Unitary matrices and their properties

Definition 5.1 Let $A$ be an $n \times n$ matrix over $\mathbb{C}$ and let

$$
\begin{equation*}
A^{*} A=A A^{*}=I_{n} \tag{19}
\end{equation*}
$$

Then, we say that $A$ is a unitary matrix such that $A^{*}$ is the conjugate transpose of $A$.
Theorem 5.1 Let $A$ be a unitary matrix. Then, we have that $A^{-1}$ is a unitary matrix.
Theorem 5.2 Suppose that $A$ and $B$ are two matrices of the same order such that $A$ and $B$ are unitary. Then, $A B$ is a unitary matrix.

Remark 5.1 .
The multiplicative group of $n \times n$ unitary matrices over $\mathbb{C}$ is the so-called unitary group and is denoted by $U_{n}(\mathbb{C})$.

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