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How do we understand the geometry of an arbitrary vector space?

 Inner product can be used to understand the geometry of abstract vector spaces. ullet The inner product can be defined on the vector space over the field either $\mathbb R$ or $\mathbb C$. We use the following notation of the filed $\mathbb K$ where $\mathbb K$ is either $\mathbb R$ or $\mathbb C$.

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An inner product is a mapping $\langle .,. \rangle : \mathbb{V} \times \mathbb{V} \to \mathbb{K}$ which satisfies the following conditions.

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1. $\langle x, x \rangle \ge 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{V}$ (positivity) and $\langle x, x \rangle = 0$ iff x = 0 (definiteness).

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Then
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$$= \langle f, h \rangle + \langle g, h \rangle.$$

• Let f:[a,b] be integrable and $f(x) \ge 0$. Let f is continuous at x=c and f(c) > 0 (resp. f(c) < 0). Then $\int_a^b f(x) dx > 0$ (resp. $\int_a^b f(x) dx < 0$).

Sol: Case I. Let a < c < b.

f is continuous at x=c. Take $\epsilon=\frac{f(c)}{2}$ then there exists $\delta>0$ such that

for each
$$x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta) \implies |f(x) - f(c)| < \frac{(f(c))}{2}$$
.

Then
$$-\frac{(f(c))}{2} < f(x) - f(c) < \frac{(f(c))}{2}$$
 for all $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta)$.

Therefore
$$f(x) > \frac{(f(c))}{2} > 0$$
 for all $x \in (c - \delta, c + \delta)$.

$$\int_{a}^{b} f^{2}(x)dx = \int_{a}^{c-\delta} f(x)dx + \int_{c-\delta}^{c+\delta} f(x)dx + \int_{c+\delta}^{b} f(x)dx > 0$$
as
$$\int_{c-\delta}^{c+\delta} f^{2}(x)dx > 0.$$

Case II. c = a

When c = a, we have a neighborhood $(a, a + \delta)$ where f is positive.

$$\int_a^b f^2(x)dx = \int_a^{a+\delta} f(x)dx + \int_b^{a+\delta} f(x)dx > 0$$

Case-III. c = b. Same as Case II.

To show
$$\langle f, f \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) f(x) dx = 0 \implies f \equiv 0.$$

Here f^2 is nonnegative function and continuous. If f is not identically zero, then there exists $c \in [a,b]$ such that $f(c) \neq 0$. Therefore $f^2(c) > 0$. Using above result we have $\int_a^b f(x)f(x)dx > 0$, a contradiction. Hence $f \equiv 0$.

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 but $f \not\equiv 0$.

Hence $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx$ is not an inner product on $C(\mathbb{R})$.

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Then $x + y = \sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_i + b_i)u_i$. Therefore,

$$\langle x + y, z \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{k} (a_i + b_i) \overline{c_i}$$

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 where $b_j \in \mathbb{K}$ for $j = 1, \dots, m$.

Define
$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{k} a_i \overline{b_j} f(u_{\alpha_i}, u_{\beta_j}).$$

Check $\langle x,y \rangle = \sum\limits_{j=1}^m \sum\limits_{i=1}^k a_i \overline{b_j} f(u_{\alpha_i},u_{\beta_j})$ is an inner product on \mathbb{V} .

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4. Let $x, y, z \in \mathbb{V}$. Then there exits two finite subsets $\{u_{\alpha_1}, \dots, u_{\alpha_k}\}$

 $z = c_1 u_{\gamma_1} + \cdots + c_n u_{\gamma_n}$ where $c_l \in \mathbb{K}$ for $l = 1, \dots, n$.

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Proof: 1. $\langle 0, u \rangle = \langle u - u, u \rangle$

$$=\langle u,u\rangle+\langle -u,u\rangle$$

$$= \langle u, u \rangle - \langle u, u \rangle$$

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3. Suppose $u, v, w \in \mathbb{V}$. Then

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 $\langle \textit{e}_1, \textit{e}_2 \rangle_1 = -1.$ These two vectors are not orthogonal with respect to $\langle .,. \rangle_1$

• [Definition]Let $(\mathbb{V}, \langle ., . \rangle)$ be an inner product space. A subset S of \mathbb{V} is said to be **orthogonal** if $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$ for all $u, v \in S$ and $u \neq v$.

Proof: To show $S = \{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k\}$ is LI.

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$$\langle c_1 \alpha_1 + c_2 \alpha_2 + \dots + c_k \alpha_k, \alpha_i \rangle = \langle 0, \alpha_i \rangle$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^k c_i \langle \alpha_j, \alpha_i \rangle = 0.$$

$$c_i\langle\alpha_i,\alpha_i\rangle=0$$

$$c_i = 0$$
. This is true for $i = 1, \ldots, k$.

Hence $S = \{\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_k\}$ is LI.

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- [Definition:]Let $(\mathbb{V}, \langle ., . \rangle)$ be an inner product space.
- [Definition:]Let $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n\} \subseteq \mathbb{V}$. Then $\{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \dots, \alpha_n\}$ is called orthonormal if $\langle \alpha_i, \alpha_j \rangle = 0$ for $i \neq j$ and $\langle \alpha_i, \alpha_i \rangle = 1$.