



# B24 July 9 Lec 2 Notes

## Definition:

Let  $V$  be a v.s. A **norm** on  $V$  is a function

$$\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow [0, \infty)$$

s.t.

(i)  $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \|v\|$ ,  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{F}$ ,  $\forall v \in V$

(ii)  $\|u+v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$ ,  $\forall u, v \in V$

(iii)  $\|u\| \geq 0$ ,  $\forall u \in V$

(iv)  $\|u\| = 0$  iff  $u = 0$

A **normed space** is a v.s. together with a norm

e.g.

Let  $1 \leq p \leq \infty$  and for  $(x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{F}^n$ ,

called " $L^p$  norm"

$$\|(x_1, \dots, x_n)\|_p := [ |x_1|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p ]^{1/p}$$

So when  $p=2$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} \|(x_1, \dots, x_n)\|_2 &= \sqrt{|x_1|^2 + \dots + |x_n|^2} \\ &= \sqrt{\langle (x_1, \dots, x_n), (x_1, \dots, x_n) \rangle} \end{aligned}$$

But when  $p \neq 2$ ,  $\|\cdot\|_p$  defines a norm on  $\mathbb{F}^n$  which does not arise from an inner product, i.e. there is no inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  on  $V$  s.t.

$$\|v\|_p = \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle} \quad \text{for all } v \in V$$

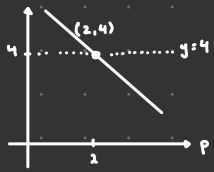
We will show  $\|\cdot\|_p$  can not arise from an inner product by showing the parallelogram identity fails for  $p \neq 2$ :

$$\underbrace{\|u+v\|_p^2 + \|u-v\|_p^2}_{\text{left side}} \neq \underbrace{2(\|u\|_p^2 + \|v\|_p^2)}_{\text{right side}} \quad p \neq 2$$

Consider  $u = (1, 0, \dots, 0)$ ,  $v = (0, 1, 0, \dots, 0)$

$$\begin{aligned} &= [1^p + 1^p]^{2/p} + [1^p + 1^p]^{2/p} \quad 2(1+1) = 4 \\ &= 2^{2/p} + 2^{2/p} \\ &= 2^{1+2/p} \end{aligned}$$

The claim follows if we can show  $2^{1+\frac{1}{p}}$  is a strictly decreasing function of  $p$ , since  $2^{1+\frac{1}{2}} = 4$



$$\frac{d}{dp} [2^{1+\frac{1}{p}}] = 2^{1+\frac{1}{p}} \cdot \underbrace{2 \log 2}_{>0} \cdot \underbrace{-\frac{1}{p^2}}_{<0} < 0$$

for all  $p \geq 1$ .  $\square$

If  $V = C([0,1])$ , or  $V = P_n^{\mathbb{F}}$ , and  $f \in V_p$

$$\|f\|_p := \left[ \int_0^1 |f(x)|^p dx \right]^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad \text{This is a norm}$$

When  $p=1$ ,  $\|f\|_1 = \int_0^1 |f(x)| dx$  is an average value of  $|f|$  on  $[0,1]$

As  $p \rightarrow \infty$ ,  $\|f\|_p$  is a weighted average of  $|f|$  on  $[0,1]$  where larger values are weighed more heavily.

So we define

$$\|f\|_{\infty} := \sup_{x \in [0,1]} \{ |f(x)| : x \in [0,1] \}$$

### Definition:

If  $V$  is an IPS, we say  $u, v \in V$  are orthogonal and write  $u \perp v$  if:

$$\langle u, v \rangle = 0$$

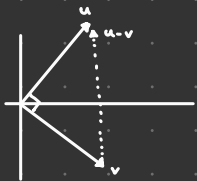
### Remark:

In  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $u, v$  meet at a right if  $\langle u, v \rangle = 0$

### Proposition: Pythagorean Theorem

If  $V$  is IPS, and  $u, v \in V$  s.t.  $u \perp v$ , then:

$$\|u+v\|^2 = \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2$$



$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \|u+v\|^2 &= \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2 \\ &= \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Proof:

$$\begin{aligned}\|u+v\|^2 &= \langle u+v, u+v \rangle \\ &= \langle u, u \rangle + \cancel{\langle v, u \rangle} + \cancel{\langle u, v \rangle} + \langle v, v \rangle \quad \text{By orthogonality} \\ &= \|u\|^2 + \|v\|^2\end{aligned}$$

□

e.g.

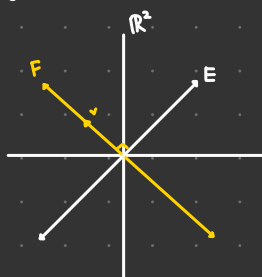
If  $V = C([0, 1])$ , pythagorean theorem says if  $f, g \in C([0, 1])$  and  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx$ , then:

$$\int_0^1 |f(x)|^2 dx + \int_0^1 |g(x)|^2 dx = \int_0^1 |f(x) + g(x)|^2 dx$$

Definition:

If  $E \subset V$  is a subspace, and  $v \in V$ , we say  $v$  is **orthogonal** to  $E$  if  $\langle v, e \rangle = 0$ ,  $\forall e \in E$ .

If  $F \subset V$  is also a subspace, we say  $F$  is **orthogonal** to  $E$  if  $\langle e, f \rangle = 0$ ,  $\forall e \in E, \forall f \in F$ .



Lemma:

Let  $v \in V$  and  $E \subset V$  be a subspace spanned by  $v_1, \dots, v_r$ . Then  $v \perp E$  iff  $v \perp v_k$  for  $1 \leq k \leq r$ .

Proof ( $\Rightarrow$ ): definition of  $v \perp E$

Proof ( $\Leftarrow$ ):

If  $w \in E$ , then  $\exists \alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}$  for  $1 \leq i \leq r$  with

$$w = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_r v_r$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\langle v, w \rangle &= \langle v, \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_r v_r \rangle \\ &= \langle v, \alpha_1 v_1 \rangle + \dots + \langle v, \alpha_r v_r \rangle \\ &= \alpha_1 \cancel{\langle v, v_1 \rangle} + \dots + \alpha_r \cancel{\langle v, v_r \rangle} \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

□

By IPS axiom (ii), we have

$$\langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle$$

Consider  $\langle x, \alpha y \rangle$ ,

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, \alpha y \rangle &= \overline{\langle \alpha y, x \rangle} && \text{By axiom (i)} \\ &= \overline{\alpha \langle y, x \rangle} && \text{By axiom (ii)} \\ &= \bar{\alpha} \overline{\langle y, x \rangle} && \bar{\bar{z}} = z \\ &= \bar{\alpha} \langle x, y \rangle && \text{By axiom (i)}\end{aligned}$$

**Definition:**

We say vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n \in V$  are **orthogonal** or form an **orthogonal system** if  $\langle v_i, v_j \rangle = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ .

If, in addition,  $\|v_i\| = 1$  for  $1 \leq i \leq n$ , we say  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  are **orthonormal** or form an **orthonormal system**.

**Lemma:**

If  $v_1, \dots, v_n \in V$  are orthogonal, and  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{F}$ , then:

$$\left\| \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k v_k \right\|^2 = \sum_{k=1}^n |\alpha_k|^2 \|v_k\|^2$$

**Proof:**

$$\begin{aligned}\left\| \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k v_k \right\|^2 &= \left\langle \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k v_k, \sum_{l=1}^n \alpha_l v_l \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \left\langle \alpha_k v_k, \sum_{l=1}^n \alpha_l v_l \right\rangle \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^n \langle \alpha_k v_k, \alpha_l v_l \rangle \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \sum_{l=1}^n \alpha_k \bar{\alpha}_l \underbrace{\langle v_k, v_l \rangle}_{=0 \text{ if } k \neq l} \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k \bar{\alpha}_k \langle v_k, v_k \rangle \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^n |\alpha_k|^2 \|v_k\|^2\end{aligned}$$

□

**Corollary:**

If  $v_1, \dots, v_n \in V$  are orthogonal and non-zero, then  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  are L.I.

### Proof:

Suppose  $\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n = 0$

Then  $\|\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n\|^2 = 0$

and by previous lemma,

$$\begin{aligned}\|\alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n\|^2 &= |\alpha_1|^2 \|v_1\|^2 + \dots + |\alpha_n|^2 \|v_n\|^2 \\ &= 0\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow |\alpha_1|^2 \|v_1\|^2 = \dots = |\alpha_n|^2 \|v_n\|^2 = 0 \quad \text{each } |\alpha_k|^2 \|v_k\|^2 > 0$$

$$\Rightarrow |\alpha_1|^2 = \dots = |\alpha_n|^2 = 0 \quad v_1, \dots, v_n \neq 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_1 = \dots = \alpha_n = 0 \quad \square$$

### Definition:

If  $v_1, \dots, v_n \in V$  form a basis for  $V$ , and  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  are **orthogonal**, then we call  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  an **orthogonal basis**.

### Definition:

If  $v_1, \dots, v_n \in V$  form a basis for  $V$ , and  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  are **orthonormal**, then we call  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  an **orthonormal basis**.

### Remark:

For any basis  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  for  $V$ , and  $v \in V$  we know there exist coordinates  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{F}$  s.t.

$$v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$$

but in particular, finding  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  is not trivial.

If  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  is an orthogonal basis, then finding  $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n$  is much easier.

Let  $v = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n$

$$\begin{aligned}\langle v, v_1 \rangle &= \langle \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n, v \rangle \\ &= \alpha_1 \underbrace{\langle v_1, v_1 \rangle}_{=0} + \alpha_2 \underbrace{\langle v_2, v_1 \rangle}_{=0} + \dots + \alpha_n \underbrace{\langle v_n, v_1 \rangle}_{=0} \\ &= \alpha_1 \|v_1\|^2\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha_1 = \frac{\langle v, v_1 \rangle}{\|v_1\|^2}$$

$$\text{i.e. } v = \frac{\langle v, v_1 \rangle}{\|v_1\|^2} v_1 + \dots + \frac{\langle v, v_n \rangle}{\|v_n\|^2} v_n$$

Similarly  $\alpha_k = \frac{\langle v, v_k \rangle}{\|v_k\|^2}$  for  $1 \leq k \leq n$

Ex 1:

$(1, 1), (1, -1)$  form an orthogonal basis for  $\mathbb{R}^2$  since  $\langle (1, 1), (1, -1) \rangle = 1 + (-1) = 0$

So

$$\begin{aligned}(x, y) &= \frac{\langle (x, y), (1, 1) \rangle}{\|(1, 1)\|^2} (1, 1) + \frac{\langle (x, y), (1, -1) \rangle}{\|(1, -1)\|^2} (1, -1) \\&= \frac{x+y}{2} (1, 1) + \frac{x-y}{2} (1, -1) \\&= \left( \frac{x+y}{2} + \frac{x-y}{2}, \frac{x+y}{2} - \frac{x-y}{2} \right)\end{aligned}$$

OR we could try to solve for

$$x = \alpha_1 + \alpha_2$$

$$y = \alpha_1 - \alpha_2$$

$(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}), (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$  form an orthonormal basis since  $\langle (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}), (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}) \rangle = 0$  and

$$\|(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})\| = \|(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})\| = 1$$

and

$$(x, y) = \langle (x, y), (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}) \rangle (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}) + \langle (x, y), (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}) \rangle (\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}})$$

e.g.

"Fourier Series" is the study of the extent a formula such as

$$v = \sum \frac{\langle v, v_k \rangle}{\|v_k\|^2} v_k$$

holds when  $v \in C([0, 1])$ , and  $(v_k)$  is a collection of orthogonal functions. (usually cosines and sines of different periods.