

Linear Algebra Review

Defn: A vector space S is any linear space closed under vector addition and scalar multiplication

Examples

$$1) S = \{ \vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^3 : \vec{x} = \alpha (1, 3, 2) \text{ for some } \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \}$$

$$2) S = \{ f(x) : f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}, f(x) = \sum_{i=0}^N \alpha_i x^i \} \equiv P_N$$

$$3) S = \{ f(x) : f \in P_N, f(0) = 0 \}$$

$$4) S = \{ u(x) : u'' + u = 0 \}$$

a couple examples of spaces that are not vector spaces

$$5) S = \{ f(x) : f \in P_N, f(2) = 7 \}$$

$$6) S = \{ u(x) : u' + u^2 = 0 \}$$

Defn: A set $\{x_i\}_{i=1}^n \subset S$ (vector space) is independent iff

$$\sum_{k=1}^n \alpha_k x_k = 0 \iff \alpha_k = 0, \forall k$$

Defn: $\pi \subset S$ is a spanning set if every $x \in S$ can be written as a linear combination of elements of π .

Remark: In both these two defns one can have $n = \infty$ for the linear combinations

Defn: A basis is a linearly independent spanning set $\mathcal{B} \subset S$. For finite \mathcal{B} we have

$$\dim(S) = \# \text{ elements in } \mathcal{B}$$

Defn: S is an inner product space if it is a vector space with a bilinear operator (inner product) $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : S \times S \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ such that

$$a) \quad \langle x, y \rangle = \overline{\langle y, x \rangle}$$

$$b) \quad \langle \alpha x, y \rangle = \alpha \langle x, y \rangle \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{C}$$

$$c) \quad \langle x+y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle y, z \rangle$$

creat) $d) \quad \langle x, x \rangle \geq 0 \quad \forall x \in S$

$$e) \quad \langle x, x \rangle = 0 \iff x = 0$$

EXAMPLES

$$1) \quad S = \mathbb{R}^n \quad \langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \bar{y}_i \quad \text{Euclidean}$$

$$2) \quad S = L^2[a, b] \quad \langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) \overline{g(x)} dx \quad L^2$$

and a Sobolev space $H^1[a, b]$

$$3) \quad S = H^1[a, b] \quad \langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x) \overline{g(x)} + f'(x) \overline{g'(x)} dx$$

Here $H^1[a, b]$ is the set of $f \in L^2[a, b]$ such that $\langle f, f \rangle$ is defined in 3).

Defn Every inner product space S has an inner product induced norm

$$\|x\| = \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2}$$

with the properties

a) $\|x\| \geq 0$

b) $\|x\| = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = 0$

c) $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$

d) $\|x+y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|$

Defn Let S be an inner product space.
 $x, y \in S$ orthogonal $\Leftrightarrow \langle x, y \rangle = 0$

Examples

1) $x = (1, 2, 1), y = (1, -1, 1) \quad \langle x, y \rangle = 0$

2) Consider $f(x) = a+x, g(x) = 2-3x^2$ in $L^2[0, 1]$

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 (a+x)(2-3x^2) dx = a + \frac{1}{4}$$

hence orthogonal only if $a = -\frac{1}{4}$

3) An infinite set of mutually orthogonal functions

$$\{\phi_n(x)\} \equiv \{\sin(nx)\}_{n>1} \subset L^2[0, 2\pi]$$

Easy to show

$$\langle \phi_j, \phi_k \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow i \neq j$$

Defn: Let $\mathcal{T} = \{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n\}$ be a basis of linear space S . We say $\alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ is the coordinate of $f \in S$ relative to \mathcal{T} if

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \phi_i$$

Remark: Linear independence of ϕ_i assures the uniqueness of the coordinate. Why?

Coordinates for Inner Product Spaces S

EXAMPLE Let $\mathcal{T} = \{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n\}$ be a mutually orthogonal basis for S and

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \phi_i$$

Then

$$\langle f, \phi_k \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \langle \phi_i, \phi_k \rangle = \alpha_k \|\phi_k\|^2$$

so the coordinates are

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\langle f, \phi_k \rangle}{\|\phi_k\|^2}$$

Remark: Orthogonal basis \Rightarrow easy to compute coordinates

EXAMPLE

Non orthogonal basis

Let $\mathcal{T} = \{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n\}$ be a basis for inner product space S .

$$(1) \quad f = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \phi_i$$

$$(2) \quad \langle f, \phi_j \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \langle \phi_i, \phi_j \rangle \quad j=1, \dots, n$$

Equation (2) is a matrix problem for unknown coordinates α_i .

$$(3) \quad \Phi \vec{\alpha} = \vec{f}$$

where

$$\vec{\alpha} = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \quad \Phi = [\langle \phi_i, \phi_j \rangle] \quad \vec{f} = \begin{pmatrix} \langle f, \phi_1 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle f, \phi_n \rangle \end{pmatrix}$$

The matrix Φ is invertible since if $f = 0$ in (1) and/or (3) we have the defn of independence of ϕ_i , i.e.,

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \phi_i = 0 \iff \alpha_i = 0 \quad \forall i$$

Since $\Phi \vec{\alpha} = \vec{0} \Rightarrow \vec{\alpha} = 0$ then Φ^{-1} exists and

$$(4) \quad \vec{\alpha} = \Phi^{-1} \vec{f}$$

For orthogonal bases Φ is diagonal and easy to invert. Not so in (4).

Gram Schmidt orthogonalization

Let $T = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ be a basis of inner product space S .

To find an orthogonal basis $T_{\perp} = \{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_n\}$

$$\phi_1 \equiv x_1$$

$$\phi_2 \equiv x_2 - \frac{\langle x_2, \phi_1 \rangle}{\|\phi_1\|^2} \phi_1$$

$$\phi_k \equiv x_k - \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \frac{\langle x_k, \phi_i \rangle}{\|\phi_i\|^2} \phi_i$$

Pf/ Inductive (idea)

$$\langle \phi_2, \phi_1 \rangle = \langle x_2, \phi_1 \rangle - \frac{\langle x_2, \phi_1 \rangle}{\|\phi_1\|^2} \langle \phi_1, \phi_1 \rangle = 0$$

Thus $\phi_1 \perp \phi_2$. Next assume $\phi_k \perp \{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_{k-1}\}$ and show

$$\langle \phi_{k+1}, \phi_j \rangle = 0 \quad \forall j = 1, \dots, k.$$

Example Legendre Polynomials

$$T = \{1, x, x^2, x^3\}$$

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 f(x)g(x)dx$$

Using Gram Schmidt can find orthogonal set:

$$T_{\perp} = \left\{ 1, x, x^2 - \frac{1}{3}, x^3 - \frac{3}{5}x \right\}$$

remark on polynomial approximations.

Least Squares Approximation

Let $\dim(S) = n < \infty$ and $T = \{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_m\}$, $m \leq n$ be an orthogonal linearly independent set. Suppose $f \in S$.

Not every $f \in S$ can be written $f = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \phi_i$ since $\dim(S) > m$. Still we may ask if $\exists \alpha_i$ such that the "distance"

$$(1) \quad g(\alpha) \equiv \left\| f - \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \phi_i \right\|^2$$

is smallest. We find $\bar{\alpha}$ s.t. $g(\bar{\alpha}) = \min_{\alpha} g(\alpha)$. Such an approximation is called the least square approximation of f relative to T . From (1)

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial \alpha_j} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha_j} \left(\|f\|^2 - 2 \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i \langle f, \phi_i \rangle + \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i^2 \|\phi_i\|^2 \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial g}{\partial \alpha_j} = -2 \langle f, \phi_j \rangle + 2 \alpha_j \|\phi_j\|^2$$

Hence, necessarily,

$$\alpha_j = \frac{\langle f, \phi_j \rangle}{\|\phi_j\|^2} \quad \forall_j$$

This is the same as if T were a basis !!