

Euclidean spaces

- Extra structure on a vector space V over \mathbb{R} :
 - dot product (or scalar product)

~~with a scalar~~

Abstract definition

The dot product is a function
 $(\cdot, \cdot) : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

satisfying:

1) bilinear:

$(\cdot, \cdot) \in \mathbb{R}$ is linear in x if y is fixed
linear in y if x is fixed

This means:

$$(x_1 + x_2, y) = (x_1, y) + (x_2, y)$$

$$(\lambda x, y) = \lambda(x, y) \text{ for } \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$

$$(x, y_1 + y_2) = (x, y_1) + (x, y_2)$$

$$(x, \lambda y) = \lambda(x, y) \text{ for } \lambda \in \mathbb{R}.$$

2) symmetric : $(x, y) = (y, x)$

3) positive-definite : $(x, x) \geq 0$ and $(x, x) > 0$
if $x \neq 0$.

this is why we only work over \mathbb{R} .

Another term for ~~the~~ dot product:

"symmetric bilinear positive-definite form"

↑
function of 2 variables, linear in each.

Example:

$$x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\text{Define } (x, y) = x_1 y_1 + x_2 y_2 + \dots + x_n y_n$$

- the usual dot product $x \cdot y$

In fact, there exist infinitely many different scalar products (symmetric bilinear pos. def. forms) on \mathbb{R}^n (or on any real vector space).

Example: $A: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ is an invertible linear op.,

then $(x, y)_{\text{new}} = (Ax, Ay)$ - gives us a new scalar product.

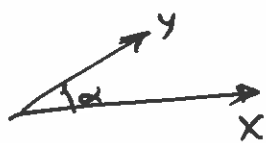
Why we care: this gives us the notion of

- distance (or length), and
- angles.

Def: $\|x\| = \sqrt{(x, x)}$

"the norm of x"

We could define the angle between x and y via its cosine:



$$x \cdot y = \|x\| \|y\| \cos \alpha$$

so we define $\alpha = \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{(x, y)}{\sqrt{(x, x)} \sqrt{(y, y)}} \right)$

Something to prove before we can do it:

$$\left| \frac{(x, y)}{\sqrt{(x, x)} \sqrt{(y, y)}} \right| \leq 1. \quad (\text{in order to define } \cos^{-1}(\dots))$$

next class, will prove it for the general dot product.

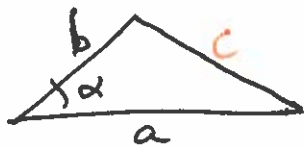
let's compute $(x-y, x-y) = \|x-y\|^2$

$$(x, x) - (y, x) - (x, y) + (y, y)$$

Get: $\|x-y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 - 2(x, y)$

For the standard dot product, it agrees with the usual angles.

Law of cosines:



$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \alpha$$

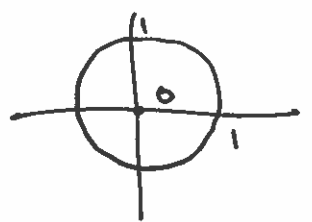
$\|x\|^2$ $\|y\|^2$

So $(x, y) = \|x\| \|y\| \cos \alpha$.

We just proved that with the usual notion of length, the angle agrees with the formula we get from the dot product.

Example: Now that we have the norm, we (in \mathbb{R}^2) have unit circle: $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|x\| = 1\}$.

The usual dot product:



(our familiar unit circle)

New dot product:

Let $A = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$

stretches x by a factor of 2 along x .

So $\|x\|_{\text{new}} =$

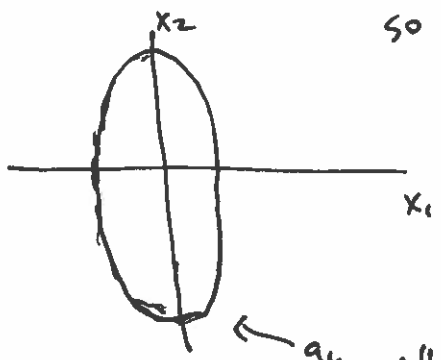
$$\sqrt{(Ax, Ax)} = \sqrt{4x_1^2 + x_2^2}$$

$x = (x_1, x_2)$

so the unit circle is:

$$4x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1$$

↑
in the standard coords.



← an ellipse

If we use the new dot product to define angles, they will be different from our usual angles.

What we really care about, is the notion of

orthogonality: x and y are orthogonal with respect to $(,)$ if $(x, y) = 0$.

Example of dot product in an infinite-dim. vector space

- Consider the space of all continuous functions $f: [-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

They form a real vector space. (infinite-dim'l)

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

Claim This is a symmetric bilinear positive-definite form.

let's check linearity in the first argument:

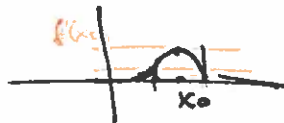
$$\begin{aligned} (f_1 + f_2, g) &= \int_{-1}^1 (f_1 + f_2)(x) g(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-1}^1 f_1(x) g(x) dx + \int_{-1}^1 f_2(x) g(x) dx. \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

$$(\lambda f, g) = \lambda (f, g).$$

Positive-definite: $(f, f) = \int_{-1}^1 f^2(x) dx \geq 0.$

why $(f, f) \neq 0$ for $f \neq 0$:
since f is continuous, if $f \neq 0$
then exists $x_0 \in (-1, 1)$ s.t. $f(x_0) \neq 0$
so $f^2(x_0) > 0$. Then $f^2 > 0$ on some
neighbourhood ~~of~~ of x_0 since f is continuous
The integral over this neighbourhood will be
positive.



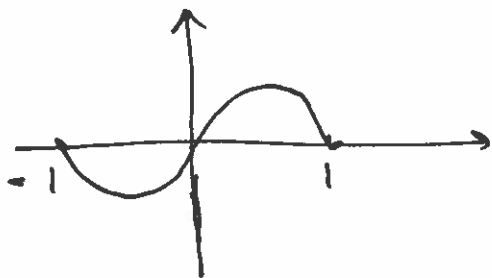
Thus we can define the "L²-norm" of f :

$$\|f\|_2 = \sqrt{\int_{-1}^1 f^2(x) dx}$$

The functions f, g are "orthogonal" if

$$(f, g) = 0, \text{ i.e. } \int_{-1}^1 f(x)g(x) dx = 0.$$

Example: $f(x) = \sin(\pi x)$ — orthogonal.
 $g(x) = 1$

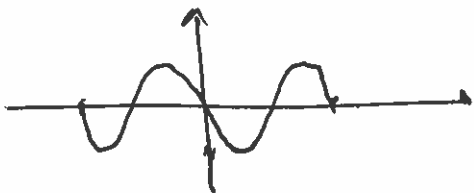


$\sin(\pi x), \cos(\pi x)$
— also orthogonal, but
harder:

$$\int_{-1}^1 \sin(\pi x) \cos(\pi x) dx =$$

↑
use double
angle formula

$$= \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 \sin(2\pi x) dx = 0.$$



A vector space V ^{over \mathbb{R}} with an inner product
(dot product)
(scalar product)

is called a Euclidean space.

So, the space of cont. fns: $[-1, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a
Euclidean space.

Def: A basis e_1, \dots, e_n in a Euclidean space V is called orthonormal if $(e_i, e_j) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i=j \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

(all orthogonal, length 1)
"ortho" "normal"

Magic: If e_1, \dots, e_n is an orthonormal basis

then if $x = \lambda_1 e_1 + \dots + \lambda_n e_n$,

you can find the λ 's using the dot product:

$$\lambda_i = (x, e_i)$$