

Abstract Vector Spaces - p. 1/14



Examples:N/A

- See Also:
  - · EK : 7.9 page 324-326, 11.1-11.3
- Begin:
  - 09.LN.Introduction to Fourier Series : Review of Symmetric and Periodic Functions
  - · Homework 4

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| Delore | we begin |  |

Quote of Slide Set Four

**Shannon McFarland**: Give me a rampant intellectualism as a coping mechanism.

Chuck Palahniuk : Invisible Monsters (1999)



- Let V be a nonempty set of elements a, b, c, which are called vectors. We say that V is a vector space if there are defined two algebraic operations, vector addition and scalar multiplication, such that,
  - · Commutativity :  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} + \mathbf{a}$
  - · Associativity :  $\mathbf{a} + (\mathbf{b} + \mathbf{c}) = (\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) + \mathbf{c}$
  - · Additive Identity :  $\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{a}$  for every  $\mathbf{a} \in V$
  - · Additive Inverse :  $\mathbf{a} + (-\mathbf{a}) = \mathbf{0}$  for every  $\mathbf{a} \in V$
  - · Distributivity : Let  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $(\alpha + \beta)(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = \alpha \mathbf{a} + \alpha \mathbf{b} + \beta \mathbf{a} + \beta \mathbf{b}$
  - · Associativity : Let  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $\alpha(\beta \mathbf{a}) = (\alpha \beta) \mathbf{a}$
  - · Multiplicative Identity :  $1\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}$
- $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a vector space.

## Examples of Abstract Vector Spaces $\cdot$ The space of $n^{th}$ -order polynomials, $\mathbb{P}_n$ .

- · The space of continuous functions on the real-line,  $C(\mathbb{R})$ .
- · The space of *n*-times continuously differentiable functions on the real line,  $C^n(\mathbb{R})$ .
- · The space of periodic functions whose principle period is from  $-\pi$  to  $\pi$ .
- · The space of square integrable functions on the domain (a,b),  $L^{2}(a,b)$ .

In linear algebra we learned how to define a vector space by teasing out a basis set of linearly independent vectors via row-reduction. This constructive approach illustrates the concept of a vector space but the question is more often phrased in the following way:

• Given a vector space V how can one represent any element in this space?

<u>Answer</u>: Use a linear combination a basis vectors. This leads to another question:

For abstract spaces how does one find a set of basis vectors?

<u>Answer</u>: In the abstract setting more math is required. Lucky for us this is the job of a mathematician and bases of common abstract spaces are already defined.

<u>Question</u>: Assuming that we have a basis for a space then how do we find the coefficients in the linear combination required to represent some element of the space?

• <u>Answer One</u>: If there are a finite number of basis vectors then the problem of finding coefficients  $c_1, c_2, c_2, \ldots, c_n$  for,

$$\mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=j}^{n} c_j \mathbf{v}_j,\tag{1}$$

is a problem of row-reduction. This is true regardless of the space since any vector space of dimension n is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . If there are an infinite number of basis vectors then the problem is more difficult.

• <u>Answer Two</u>: In the case of an infinite dimensional vector space the the linear combination reads,

$$\mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=j}^{\infty} c_j \mathbf{v}_j,\tag{2}$$

and the iterative process of row-reduction cannot hope to find the infinite number of coefficients. In this case we must find other approaches. These techniques are more powerful but require geometric tools. A vector space is defined by its cardinal directions but has no geometric meaning. A vector space V equipped with a product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  such that:

- · Linearity : Let  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$  then  $\langle \alpha \mathbf{a} + \beta \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{c} \rangle = \alpha \langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{c} \rangle + \beta \langle \mathbf{b} \mathbf{c} \rangle$ .
- $\cdot$  Symmetry :  $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{a} \rangle$
- · Positive-definiteness :  $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{a} \rangle \ge 0$  and  $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{a} \rangle = 0 \iff \mathbf{a} = 0$

This additional structure induces the following properties:

- · Orthogonality :  $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle = 0$  implies that  $\mathbf{a}$  is orthogonal to  $\mathbf{b}$
- · Length/Norm :  $||\mathbf{a}|| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{a} \rangle}$ .
- · Cauchy-Schwarz :|  $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle$  |  $\leq$  || $\mathbf{a}$ || || $\mathbf{b}$ ||
- · Parallelogram Rule :  $||\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}||^2 + ||\mathbf{a} \mathbf{b}||^2 = 2(||\mathbf{a}||^2 + ||\mathbf{b}||^2)$
- · Triangle Inequality :  $||\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}|| \le ||\mathbf{a}|| + ||\mathbf{b}||$

Suppose that the vector space V with basis  $\{\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \mathbf{v}_3, ...\}$  is equipped with an inner-product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  such that  $\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$ . Then for any  $\mathbf{y} \in V$  we have,

$$\mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=j}^{\infty} c_j \mathbf{v}_j \iff \langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \left\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_j \mathbf{v}_j \right\rangle$$
(3)
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_j \left\langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{v}_j \right\rangle$$
(4)
$$= \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} c_j \delta_{ji} = c_i,$$
(5)

which implies that the  $i^{th}$  coefficient is given by  $c_i = \langle \mathbf{v}_i, \mathbf{y} \rangle$  for  $i = 1, 2, 3, \ldots$ 

We define  $L_2(-\pi,\pi)$  to be the space of functions such that  $\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} (f(x))^2 dx < \infty$ . In homework 2 problem 5 we showed that  $\langle f,g \rangle = \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x)g(x)dx$  satisfies the axioms of inner-product. Consequently, we now have that,

·  $L_2(-\pi,\pi)$  is a vector-space of functions which have finite length with respect to the inner-product

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

This is all well and good but we still have an important question:

· How do we represent elements in this space?

First, we should decide how to think about elements in the space  $L_2(-\pi,\pi)$ . Right now all we know is that elements in this space must have the property that,

· If  $f \in L_2(-\pi, \pi)$  then the area under the curve of its square from  $-\pi$  to  $\pi$  is finite.

This is not telling us much. However, have the following thought.

• The function f is not periodic but if we repeatedly copy its shape to the space outside of  $(-\pi, \pi)$  then this extension,  $f^*$  is periodic with principle period of  $2\pi$ .

We call this new function  $f^*$  the periodic extension of f with the property that  $f^*(x) = f(x)$  for all  $x \in (-\pi, \pi)$ . Now, our goal is to search for a representation of  $f^*$  knowing that we will get  $f \in L_2(-\pi, \pi)$  for free. Forgetting about  $L_2(-\pi,\pi)$  for a second we ask the following question.

· Suppose that we have an arbitrary  $2\pi$ -periodic function. What is a basis for the space of  $2\pi$ -periodic functions?

Consider the following set of functions,

 $\{1, \cos(x), \sin(x), \cos(2x), \sin(2x), \cos(3x), \sin(3x), \dots\},$  (6)

which is called the Fourier basis. It can be shown these functions serve as a basis for all  $2\pi$ -periodic functions with finite integral on their principle period. Thus, we now hope that,

$$f^*(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx).$$

(7)

We now have the problem of finding the coefficients  $a_0, a_n, b_n$ . Lucky for us the Fourier basis is an orthogonal basis. Using the orthogonality of the basis vectors we have our final result,

$$f \in L_2(-\pi,\pi) \Rightarrow f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \cos(nx) + b_n \sin(nx), \quad (8)$$

where

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) dx$$
 (9)

$$a_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \cos(nx) dx$$
 (10)

$$b_n = \frac{1}{\pi} \int_{-\pi}^{\pi} f(x) \sin(nx) dx,$$
 (11)

which are sometimes called the Euler formulas.

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