

Linear Algebra
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Module 11- Inner Product Spaces
Lecture 40
Norms on Vector Spaces

Ok so let me emphasize what I said yesterday the notion of inner products spaces more generally norm linear spaces this has relevance to practical notions like approximation and convergence, these will be made mathematically precise a little later ok. So we are only trying to develop the background material for that ok.

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Let V be an inner product space. Then

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\| \quad \forall x, y \in V.$$

In particular we have

$$(i) \left| \sum_{j=1}^n x_j \bar{y}_j \right| \leq \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|^2 \right)^{1/2} \left(\sum_{j=1}^n |y_j|^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

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Lets also recall ((00:44) I want to give two examples, ((00:48) in an inner product space ok, modulus in a product $x \cdot y$ this does not exceed the product of the norm of x and the norm of y this is true for all x, y , the right hand norm comes from the inner product ok.

So lets just remember that again, what does this inequality say with regard to the three inner products spaces we have seen before. In particular we have the following, look at \mathbb{C}^N for instance, I will call it one summation J equals 1 to N I am using $x_j \bar{y}_j$ and then I take the modulus, this is a inner product of two vectors in \mathbb{C}^N this does not exceed norm of x into norm of y , norm of x is summation J equals 1 to N mod x_j square to the 1 by 2 into norm y a similar expression, summation J equals 1 to N mod y_j square to the 1 by 2 ok, this is one particular case.

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$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\| \quad \forall x, y \in V.$$

In particular we have

$$(i) \left| \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \right| \leq \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^2 \right)^{1/2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^n |y_i|^2 \right)^{1/2}$$

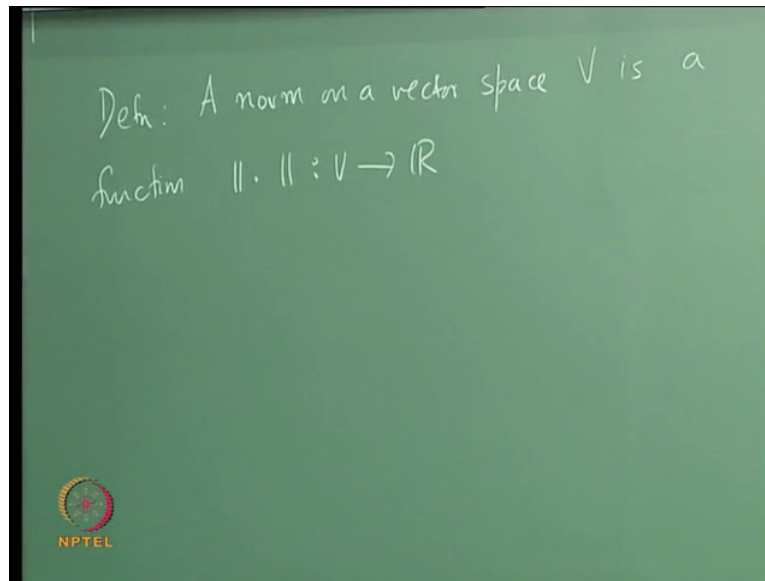
$$(ii) |\operatorname{tr}(AB^*)| \leq (\operatorname{tr}(AA^*))^{1/2} (\operatorname{tr}(BB^*))^{1/2}$$

$$(iii) \left| \int_0^1 f(t) \overline{g(t)} dt \right| \leq \left(\int_0^1 |f(t)|^2 dt \right)^{1/2} \left(\int_0^1 |g(t)|^2 dt \right)^{1/2}$$

Look at what happens to the inner product space $\mathbb{C}^N \times \mathbb{C}^N$ with the trace inner product. Trace of A, B^* modulus of that this is less and or equal to norm A norm B , norm A is trace of $A A^*$ to the half norm B similar expression trace of $B B^*$ to the half, finally if you look at the infinite dimensional example, infinite dimensional inner product space $\mathbb{C}^{[0, 1]}$ we have the following, modulus integral 0 to 1 inner product $x, y, \int_0^1 f(t) \overline{g(t)} dt$ modulus of this does not exceed the product of norm f norm g , what is norm f ? Norm f is integral 0 to 1 mod $f(t)^2 dt$ to the 1 by 2, the second factor 0 to 1 mod $g(t)^2 dt$ to 1 by 2 ok.

Inequalities are important when you discuss notions of approximation convergence etc, so you will encounter these if not in this course some other course. So this are specific instances of the (4:15) ok.

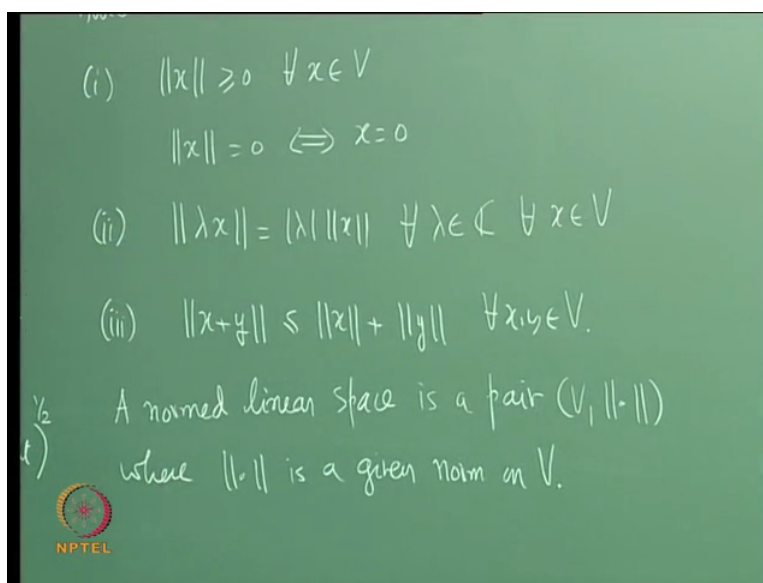
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We have seen yesterday that the notion of a norm can be introduced for a vector inner product space, more generally we have the following, that is a norm need not be induced through inner product. One can have a general norm linear space. A norm on a vector space V is a function it will be denoted by these two parallel lines, I am sure you must have encountered this. it is already there in inner product spaces.

It is a function from V to \mathbb{R} unlike the inner product which can be a complex number so this is a function from V to \mathbb{R} such that the following conditions are satisfied.

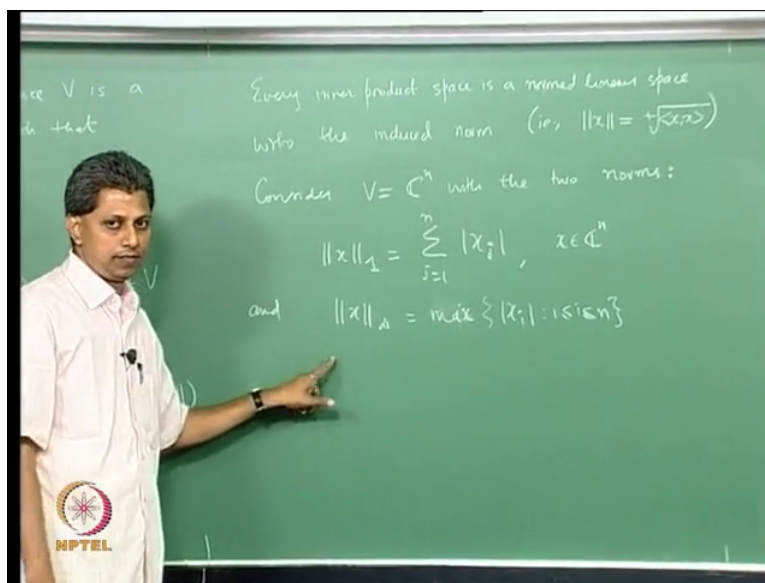
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Norm of X is greater than or equal to 0 for all x and V and this goes along with this norm x equal to 0 if and only if x is equal to 0. Condition 2 is again a condition that we have seen in the context of inner product spaces. Norm of λx is mod λ norm x for all λ in \mathbb{C} for all x and V , second condition. Third condition is just a triangle inequality norm x plus y must be less nor equal to norm x plus norm y .

A norm on a vector space is a function that satisfies this conditions a vector space together with tis norm with a given norm is called a norm linear space norm vector space. A norm linear space or a norm vector space, vector spaces are also called linear spaces, a norm linear space is a pair, it is a pair V , some norm where this is a given norm, norm V ok and so every inner product space is a norm linear space, every inner space is a example of a norm linear space it is a sub class.

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This normed linear space with respect to the induced norm. Just to recall norm x is the positive square root of inner product of x with itself ok.

What is also important is to observe that on a given vector space you can define several norms and what can be shown is that not all norms are induced by inner product ok. Now let me give you atleast two different norm on C^n for instance, this will also serve as examples of norm linear spaces. Consider V to be C^n with the two norms defined as follows, I will define two norms with respect to which C^n becomes norm linear space. One is called as the one norm sometimes called the absolute value norm. So it is it goes with the subscript 1 norm x goes with 1 this is summation J equals 1 to n mod x_j where the usual convention is that $x_1 x_2$ etc x_n are the coordinates of x , this is called the 1 norm.

This is 1 norm and yeah all that I am saying is that this satisfies you can verify that this satisfies this conditions ok. So C^n with this norm is a norm linear space there is also called the so called supremum norm or sometimes a maximum norm, this is equal to the supremum of actually it is maximum ok, there are only finitely many numbers here. Maximum of mod x_i 1 less (and) or equal to n . Maximum of the mod $|x_i|$ of the coordinates of the vector x , this is called the infinite norm or supremum norm maximum norm. C^n is a norm linear space with respect to both these norms ok.

C^n already has a norm with respect to the standard inner induced by the standard inner product ok. In numerical linear algebra one would like to ask questions like whether this

norms are equivalent ok, will not deal with those but it is in that context you would like to know whether norms are equivalent. If norms are equivalent then see a norm linear space can be shown to be a metric space $D(x, y) = \|x - y\|$ then with respect to this metric we ask questions about convergence, then the question is if a sequence x_n is convergent with respect to one norm, should it be convergent with respect to another norm? And this is related to the question as to whether two given norms are equivalent ok.

That is why it is of interest to know different norms on the same space and different norms have different, different norms are suitable for different applications. For example, when we do calculus it is the standard, it is a norm induced by the standard inner product, it is called the two norm or the Euclidean norm ok.

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The image shows a green chalkboard with three mathematical formulas written in white chalk. The first formula is $\|x\|_1 = \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|$, with $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ written to the right. The second formula is $\|x\|_\infty = \max \{ |x_i| : 1 \leq i \leq n \}$. The third formula is $\|x\|_2^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|^2$. In the bottom left corner, there is a hand pointing at the board and a small NPTEL logo.

Let me write that also, it is called the Euclidean norm or the two norm that is from the standard inner product so can you tell me what the two norm is? j equals 1 to n so norm x square ok, that is $\sum x_j^2$, this is called the Euclidean norm or the two norm. In calculus it is a two norm which is important whereas in a robot trajectory planning etc it is an infinite norm that is used ok.

So different applications ask for different norms. The question however is we need to go back to this question, the two norm is induced by the standard inner product what happens this two? The claim is that, this two are not induced by any inner product ok, how do you prove it? In order to prove it the following result is useful, it is called the parallelogram law, which holds in a vector space. So let me state and prove that and then I will leave it for you to verify

that these two norms are not induced by inner products by any inner product ok, parallelogram law let me state that here and prove it there in an inner product space.

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and $\|x\|_\infty = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |x_i|$

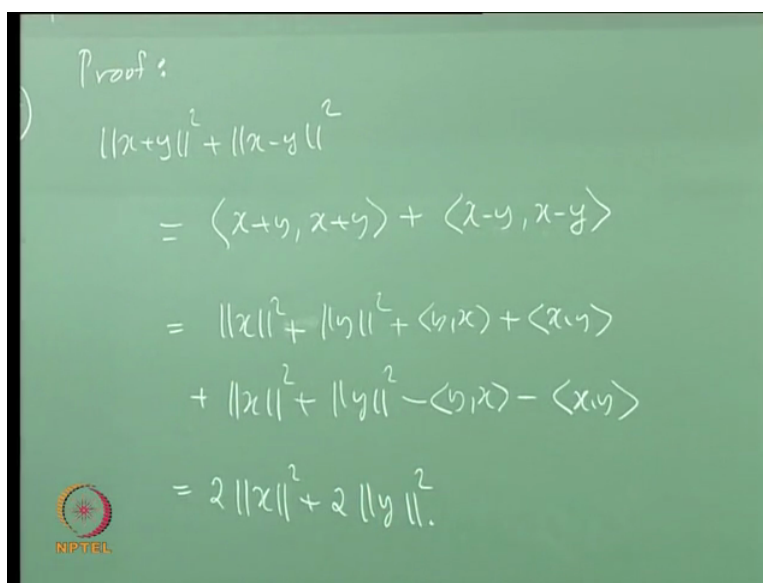
$\|x\|_2^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n |x_j|^2$

Theorem: Parallelogram Law:
 Let V be an inner product space. Then
 $\forall x, y \in V: \|x+y\|^2 + \|x-y\|^2 = 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2$

Let the V be an inner product space then we have the following, this the role that I am going to write is motivated by what we have seen in two dimensions even three dimensions. Norm of x plus y the whole square plus norm x minus y the whole square. You can think of x and y as two dimensional vectors on the plane then if then x plus y is the length of one of the diagonals x minus y is the length of the other diagonal, the sum of the squares of the diagonals must be two sides two times the sum of the square of the sides. Two times norm x square plus two times norm y square for all x y this law holds, this is the parallelogram law.


In an inner product space this holds where the norm is ofcourse the norm induced by the inner product ok. So if V is an inner product and this is the norm induced by the inner product parallelogram law holds. If I have a norm linear space where the parallelogram law does not hold then it cannot be the norm cannot be induced by any inner product, that is what you should use to prove that these two are not induced by any inner product. You have to take sample vectors x and y calculate this numbers and verify that this law does not hold for this two norms. I am going to leave that as an exercise this two are not induced by any inner product that is an exercise. But let me prove the parallelogram law, the rather straight forward.

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Proof:

$$\begin{aligned} & \|x+y\|^2 + \|x-y\|^2 \\ &= \langle x+y, x+y \rangle + \langle x-y, x-y \rangle \\ &= \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 + \langle y, x \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle \\ &\quad + \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 - \langle y, x \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle \\ &= 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2. \end{aligned}$$



You simply look at see this is induced by an inner product so you need to use that so look at norm x plus y the whole square plus norm x minus y the whole square, this is inner product of x plus y with itself plus inner product x minus y with itself. Just expand and simplify x with x is norm x square y goes with y for norm y square and you have a y x and an x y the second term gives you norm x square plus norm y square minus y with x minus x with y , so you get right answer. This is two times norm x square plus two times norm y square ok, so that proves the parallelogram law straight forward but it is still powerful in showing that certain norms are not induced by any inner product.

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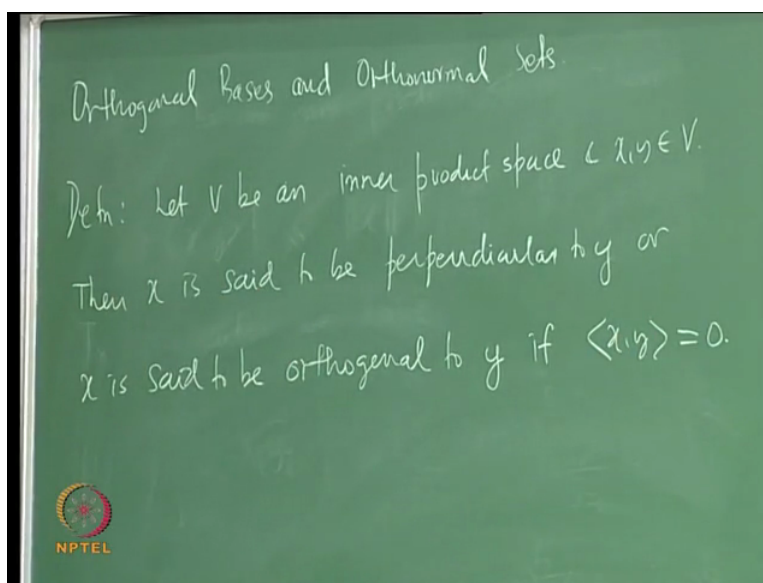
$$\begin{aligned}
 &= \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 + \langle y, x \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle \\
 &+ \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 - \langle y, x \rangle - \langle x, y \rangle \\
 &= 2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2.
 \end{aligned}$$

$\exists x, y: \text{s.t.}, \|\cdot\|_1 \text{ \& } \|\cdot\|_\infty \text{ are not induced}$
 by any inner product on \mathbb{C}^n .
 On $C([0,1])$: $\|f\|_1 = \int_0^1 |f(t)| dt$
 $\|f\|_\infty = \sup \{ |f(t)| : t \in [0,1] \}$

So the exercise for you is show that the one norm and the infinite norm are not induced by any inner product, the context is \mathbb{C}^n you also have similar results for the space of continuous functions over $[0, 1]$, whose space of continuous functions over $[0, 1]$ there is a two norm induced by the inner product which I have given there but there are other norms that can be defined on $C[0, 1]$ so let me also mention on $C[0, 1]$ I will define two norms similar to the one norm and the infinite norm on $C[0, 1]$ norm f the one norm is any guesses about what this is, f is a continuous function over $[0, 1]$. This is similar to the one norm integral mod, integral 0 to 1 mod $f(t) dt$, f is continuous modulus is continuous so the integral exists.

Similarly the infinite norm, what is a infinite norm? Supremum, supremum of modulus of f of t , $t \in [0, 1]$, the supremum exists because f is continuous mod is continuous composition of two continuous functions. So there is a maximum and a minimum, I want the maximum. So infact I can replace supremum by the maximum. So with respect with this two norms 1 and infinity $C[0, 1]$ is a norm linear space it can again be shown using the parallelogram law that this are not induced by any inner product ok. So lets move on, this are some of the basic notions one of the motivations for an inner product spaces is that it should allow us to generalize a notions of the usual dot product the notions of angle between in vectors in particular orthogonality ok.

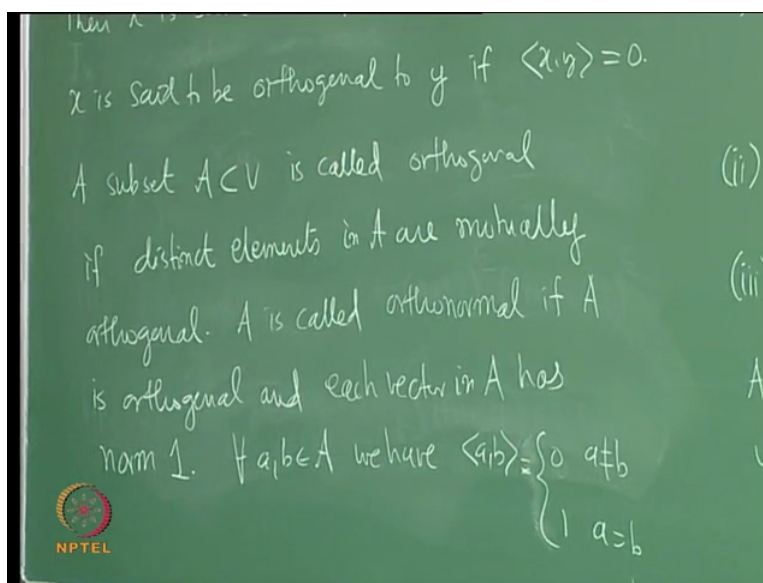
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Lets look at this notions, so in particular I want to look at the concept of an orthogonal basis and orthonormal basis I will simply say orthonormal sets ok a notion of orthogonality. See it is done through the inner product so this definition is natural. Let V be an inner product space take two at vector x or y then x is said to be perpendicular to y or x is said to be orthogonal to y , if the inner product of x with y in this fashion is zero ok. If x if the inner product of x with y taken in this manner is zero then the inner product of y with x , y first x next that is also zero because of the conjugates symmetry ok.

So then we can say that x and y are orthogonal, can say that x and y are orthogonal to each other ok.

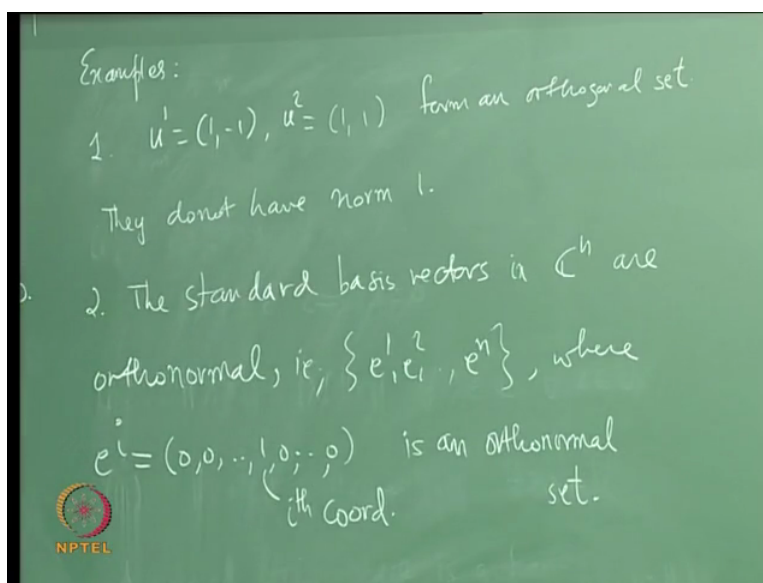
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For a subset A contained in V is called orthogonal a set is called an orthogonal set if distinct elements are orthogonal distinct (vectors) distinct elements in A are mutually orthogonal if distinct elements in A are mutually orthogonal. Zero vector is the only vector that is orthogonal to itself that is if A, A is equal to zero then A is zero that comes from the first two (())(22:23) inner product. Orthogonal we need something more A is called orthonormal if A is orthogonal and its vector in A has norm 1, which vector A has norm 1 so such a set is called an orthonormal set that is for every a, b in A we must have the inner product of a, b is zero if a is not equal to b it is one if a is equal to b .

So we write like this, distinct vectors are orthogonal and each vector has norm 1 so such a set is called an orthonormal set, do you have examples of orthonormal sets.

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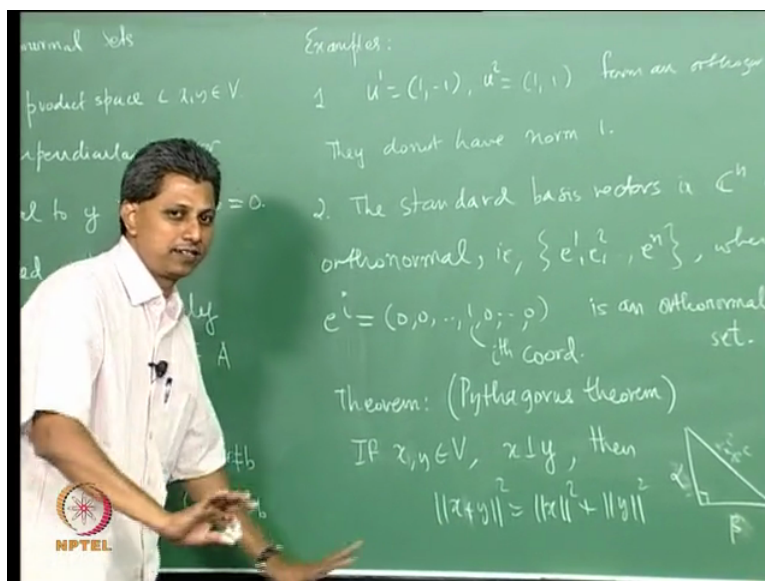


Look at the vectors that belong to standard basis but before that I will give another example, consider the following vectors, U_1 is 1 minus 1, U_2 is 1 1 these two vectors form an orthogonal set not orthonormal, these two form an orthogonal set not orthonormal because they do not have norm 1. Norm of U_1 or U_2 is in fact $\sqrt{2}$ sorry just $\sqrt{2}$, U_1 U_2 both have norm $\sqrt{2}$. On the other hand if you look at the standard basis vectors.

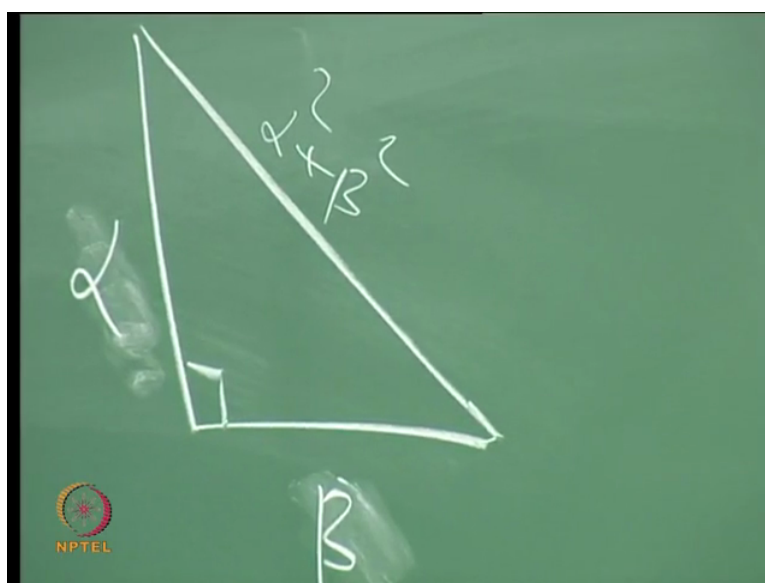
The standard basis vectors in \mathbb{C}^n are orthonormal in fact just emphasize what the standard basis is, look at e_1 e_2 etc e_n where e_i is 0, 0 etc 1, 0, 0 where this occurs in the i^{th} coordinate, this is an orthonormal set ok. This is this probably the simplest orthonormal set one would encounter. I want to explain a procedure, the question is the following. Given a linearly independent set can we get can we construct an orthonormal set out of it? Ok, the answer is yes, but before that we must understand that orthonormal (vect) orthogonal vectors are linearly independent ok. But even before that I want to prove Pythagoras theorem then I will come to this.

Pythagoras theorem which holds we have seen in the plane holds in a general normally general in a product space.

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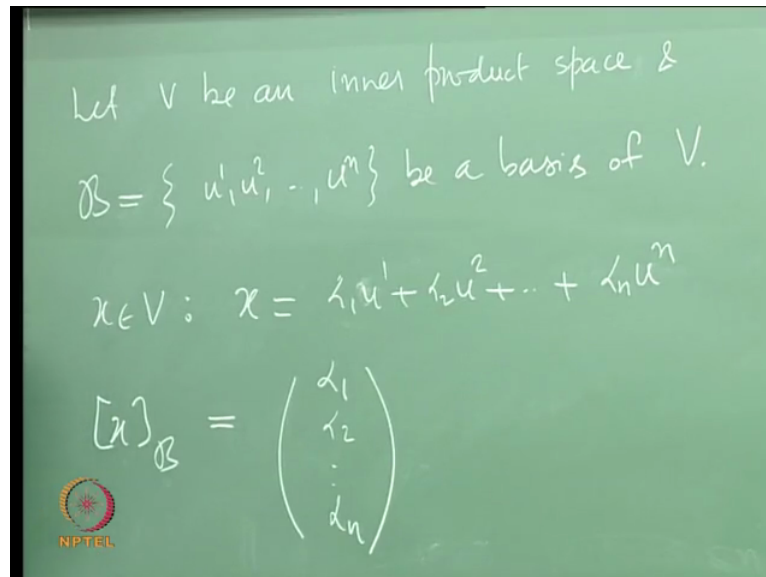


So I want to prove this and then look at the process of constructing orthonormal vectors from an independent set linearly independent set. Pythagoras theorem, the setting is an inner product space so if x, y belong to inner product space such that x is perpendicular to y then the inner right triangle there is a hypotenuse there are other two sides look at the square of the lengths of the other two sides, that sum is equal to the length of the hypotenuse.

Norm x plus y square is norm x square plus norm y square ok. Just to recall if this is 90, this is x and this is y this are the lengths ok, I think I should use alpha beta numbers then this is alpha square plus beta square, alpha and beta are the lengths norm x norm y are the lengths of

the side this holds in a general inner product space, I will leave the proof ok. You have to as before start with norm x plus y whole square use the inner product and one line the proof ok. So the high school notion of Pythagoras theorem you see holds in a abstract inner product space ok.

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I told you that orthogonal vectors are linearly independent, let me prove that lets recall the following. Let V be an inner product space and let me take this as a basis, so I am considering a finite dimensional inner product space, B equals lets call the vectors $U_1 U_2$ etc U_n let this B a basis of V ok so it is a finite dimensional inner product space. Given a its as before it's an ordered basis ok, that is U_1 is a first vector, U_2 so second vector etc U_n is the last vector. So that when we write down the matrix of a linear transformation or the matrix of a vector we know what is the first component, second component etc.

So this is an ordered basis it means that any x in V can be written as ordered basis. See when you write down the matrix of a vector then it is always done with respect to a basis, that is this x there is a representation, this x can be written given this basis this x has the following (representation) unique representation $\alpha_1 U_1$ plus $\alpha_2 U_2$ etc plus $\alpha_n U_n$, where the numbers $\alpha_1 \alpha_2$ etc α_n are unique for this x ok and we always deal with standard basis for the reason that we will have occasion to talk about the first coordinate of x second coordinate of x etc when we do matrix operations.

So it is natural to call α_1 as a first coordinate of x , α_2 as the second coordinate of x etc. Do you remember this we used to write the matrix of x relative to this basis and then that

is a column vector coming from the first term coefficient of the first term, coefficient of the second term etc. now what is to be understood is that, the sum does not change if you alter the first and the second term for instance but when you write down the matrix of the vector corresponding to the basis, it does make a difference ok. So we will always have in mind that there is an ordered basis.

So there is a first coordinate, second coordinate etc. So this an ordered basis I have this representation as I told you these numbers alpha 1 etc alpha n are unique for the particular x that we started with ok. How do you compute this numbers? Given a vector x do you remember how we compute this numbers alpha 1 etc alpha n, in a general vector space. See U1 U2 etc they do not form an orthogonal basis orthonormal basis they form just a basis, ordinary ordered basis. So how do you find this numbers?

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$$x \in V: x = \alpha_1 u^1 + \alpha_2 u^2 + \dots + \alpha_n u^n$$

$$[x]_B = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{pmatrix}$$

$$x = \underbrace{(u^1, u^2, \dots, u^n)}_{\text{given}} \underbrace{\begin{pmatrix} \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha_n \end{pmatrix}}_{\text{unknown}}$$

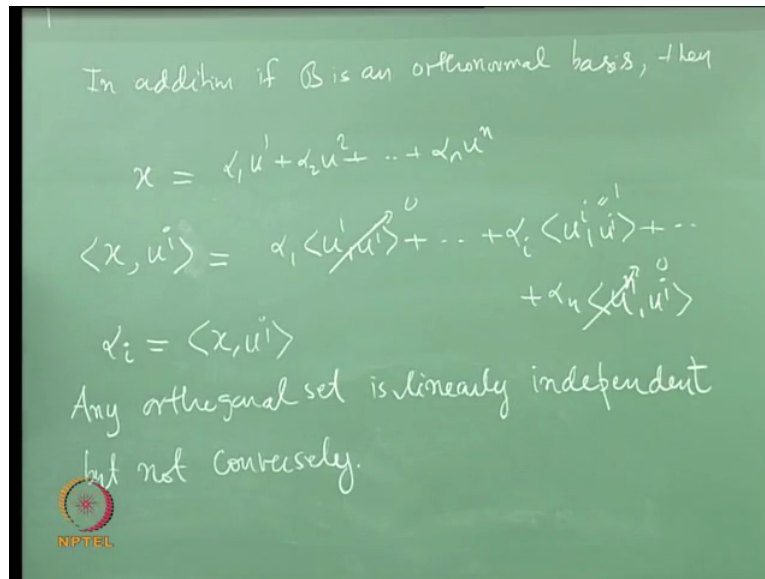
Solving a system, you can write this as ok see x is given, I need to find this numbers so what we do is look at the matrix whose columns are U1 U2 etc Un and then I want to determine the numbers alpha 1 alpha 2 etc.

This left hand side is given I know what x is, I want to determine the numbers alpha and the coefficients of x relative to this basis, I know what this is, this is also given the basis is also given I need to determine this, this is unknown. So this is essentially solving a linear system of equation. So you need to do elementary row operations and then determine the unknowns from the system of equations ok. Now that's we know that takes a little effort. In the case of a

so to determine the coefficients of a vector x you need to solve a system of linear equations but if this is not just a basis but an orthonormal basis then this is very easy.

That is a advantage of an orthonormal set an orthonormal basis. By the way what is an orthonormal basis? A basis which has a property that the vectors are mutually orthogonal and have each have norm 1 is an orthonormal basis.

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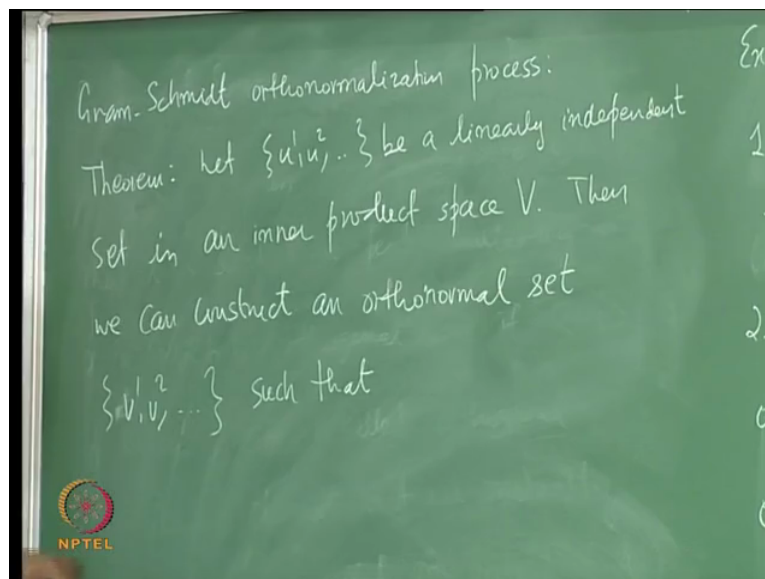
If this is an orthonormal basis, so in addition if B is an orthonormal basis then this computation immediate, there is no computation involved, it is immediate, then we have the following. Ok I will go back to this equation $\alpha_1 U_1 + \alpha_2 U_2 + \dots + \alpha_n U_n$ I take the inner product of x with U_i , i runs from 1 to n then this is $\alpha_1 U_1 U_i + \dots + \alpha_i U_i U_i + \dots + \alpha_n U_n U_i$ ok how do I write the terms? $U_1 U_i$ you consider the first I am taking on the right yeah so $U_n U_i$.

Since is orthonormal basis all terms cancel except this one of this as zero this is one and so this is α_i and so the coefficient α_i is determined as inner product of x with U_i . So the coefficients can be computed by multiplication the dot product by the dot product immediate. But the price you have to pay is the computation of an orthonormal basis from a linearly independent set. It is just a basis ordinary basis it is a linearly independent set, there is some effort involved in going from a linearly independent set to an orthonormal basis there is a (())(35:41) process Gram Schmidt procedure, numerically it can be modified but will simply locate the Gram Schmidt procedure.

That tells us how to go from a linearly independent set to an orthonormal set, so once you do that certain computations become easier ok. I told you that orthogonal vectors are linearly independent, can you see that to happening here immediately? In general orthogonal, if x is zero that is if I take a linear combination of the vectors U_1 etc U_n equate that to zero then it is clear that you comeback see that the coefficients must be zero. So an orthogonal set is linearly independent not conversely. Any orthogonal set there is no orthonormality that we are using here any orthogonal set is linearly independent but not conversely.

That the converse is not true has been exhibited already you look at those vectors 1 minus 1 1 I am sorry they are linearly they are orthogonal ok. You give an example ok that is easy, linear independent vector $1, 1, 1, 2$ they are linear independent but not orthogonal ok. So this means we need to look at the procedure that takes linearly independent to an orthonormal basis, this is called the Gram Schmidt procedure let me discuss that next.

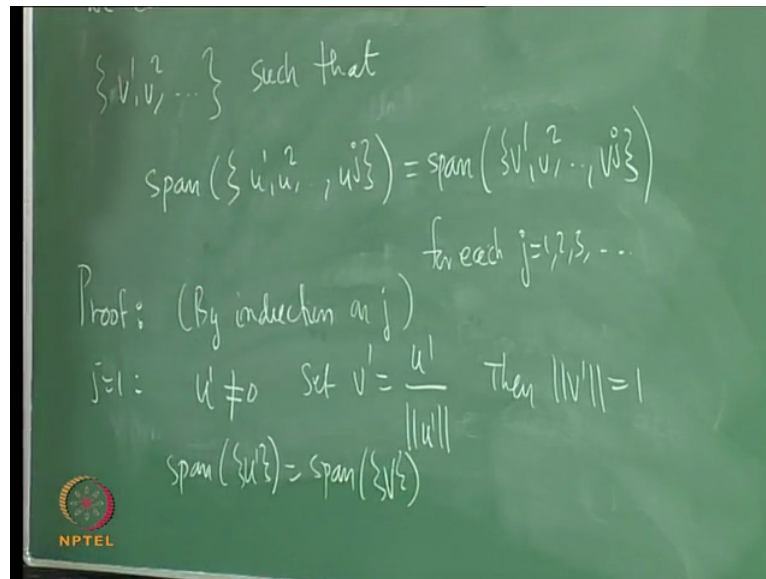
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So we have what is called as the Gram Schmidt orthonormalization process ok, what is this process? I will state that as a result let U_1, U_2 etc be linearly independent set in an inner product space V so I start with a linearly independent set in an inner product space then I can construct then we can construct an orthonormal set I will denote that by V_1, V_2 etc. Remember this can be an infinite set so you can apply this to an infinite dimensional space C^{∞} for instance. We can construct an orthonormal set V_1, V_2 etc which satisfies the following such that see for one thing it is an orthonormal set they are mutually orthogonal and the norm of each vector is one.

There is another thing it satisfies such that the following holds.

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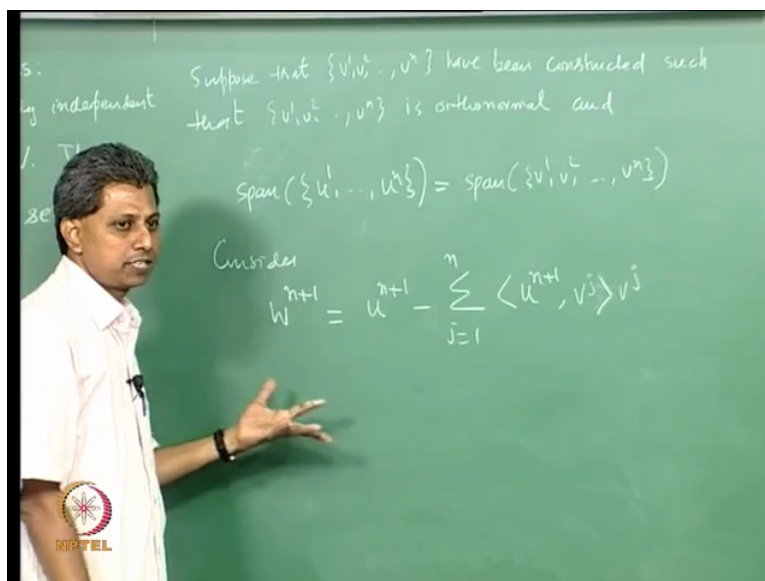


Look at this span of U_1, U_2 etc U_j for any j you can show that this span is the same as the span of V_1, V_2 etc V_j for each j ok. Step by step that is look at a span of U_1 that is the same as this span of V_1 , span of U_1, U_2 is equal to span of V_1, V_2 etc for every j , these two sub-spaces of V are the same ok, the proof I will complete the proof today the proof is by induction. The proof is by induction on j , ok to apply the induction principle you need a base step and then an inductive step ok. Base step take the case of equal to 1, j equals 1. I have the vector U_1 I must show how to construct V_1 such that span of U_1 equals span of V_1 ok.

But remember that we start with a linearly independent set so this U_1 cannot be zero any vector that contains a zero vector is linearly dependent ok. So none of these vectors is zero, U_1 is not zero so I can divide by norm U_1 . So I will call V_1 as the vector U_1 by norm U_1 , norm U_1 is not zero because U_1 is not zero then this V_1 satisfies the requirements, for one thing norm V_1 is 1 and you don't have to take another vector to take the dot product etc there is this is a basis step there is only one vector plus also clear is its span of U_1 is span of V_1 that is because V_1 is a multiple of U_1 .

Anything that is in the span of U_1 is a multiple of V_1 that is obviously a multiple of V_1 .

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So this two subspaces coincide. so the basis step holds so we apply the inductors suppose that v_1, v_2 etc v_n have been constructed such that span of u_k such that for one thing this is orthonormal ok, set u_k I want to write that again. Suppose this is orthonormal and this condition must also hold span of u_1 etc u_n is equal to span of v_1, v_2 etc v_n . So you assume that you are able to construct n vectors then you must show that you can do it for $N + 1$ vectors then by the induction principle it follows that this can be done forever indefinitely ok.

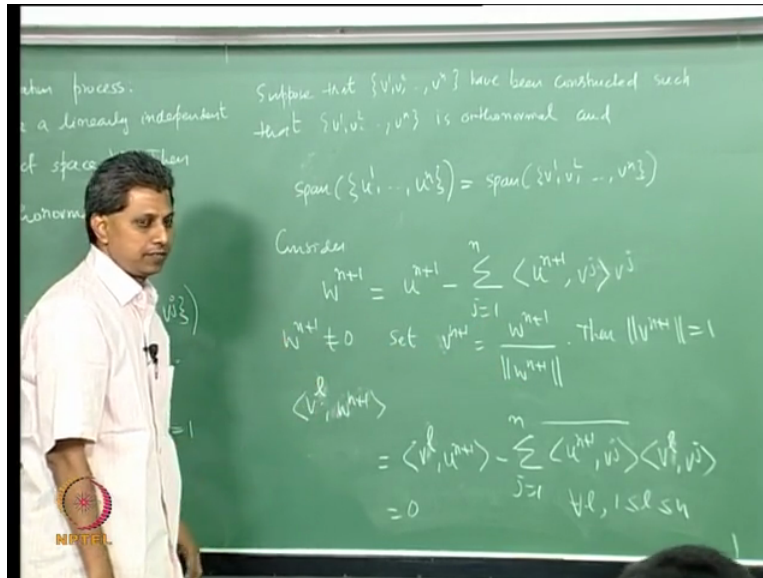
I need to give a formula for v_{n+1} then we are done ok, given v_1 etc v_n I must tell how to construct v_{n+1} that is done as follows. Consider the vector it is a new vector that I will define I have n vectors v_1 etc v_n I define new vector w_{n+1} as lets take u_{n+1} the one that we started with and then subtract the following sum, j equals 1 to n take the inner product of u_{n+1} with each of the vectors that we have constructed each of the vectors v_1 etc v_n that we have constructed v_j and then take dot product of that with v_j .

There is a geometric significance to this but this can be explained only a little later ok you remember u_1, u_2 etc that infinite set is given to us so I know what u_{n+1} are I have computed v_1 upto v_n only those I am using here so I delete this from the vector u_{n+1} . The first observation is that to this is not w_{n+1} is not the zero vector, can you see that? If you can see that then I can skip that step, w_{n+1} is not the zero vector, how do you prove?

As usual by contradiction, if w_{n+1} is zero then this vector is zero, so what is the contradiction? If w_{n+1} is zero then, yes u_{n+1} can be written as this sum it's a it is in

the linear span of v_1 etc v_n but v_1 etc v_n the span that is equal to this, which mean U_{n+1} plus 1 is our linear combination of this contradiction to the fact that we started with this as a linearly independent set so no vector can be written as a linear combination of the previous vectors.

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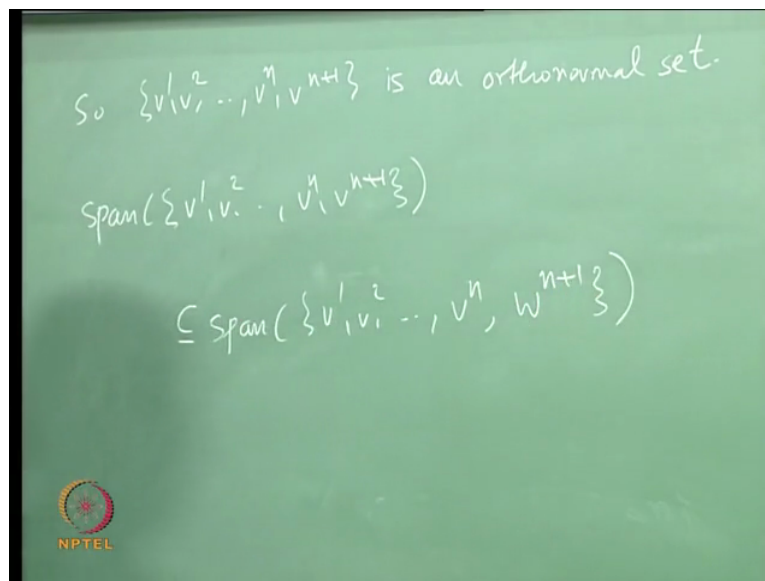


So this can't be zero, so W_{n+1} is not zero it makes sense to talk about the norm W_1 and then divide that by divide a vector by that so I will do something that similar to the first step call V_{n+1} as W_{n+1} by norm W_{n+1} , this is well defined because denominator is not zero the claim is that this V_{n+1} obviously has norm 1 but the claim is this is orthogonal to the vectors v_1 etc v_n ok then we are through almost. For one thing norm V_{n+1} is 1 however the orthogonal how was V_{n+1} orthogonal to the previous n vectors, that is that follows from this formula. Simply look at v_j, V_{n+1} ok, look at v_j, W_{n+1} , so this is I am doing it for the first argument.

So using this formula it is $v_j, U_{n+1} - \sum_{j=1}^n \langle U_{n+1}, v_j \rangle v_j$ equals 1 to n that is the first argument so this will go with a complex conjugates so can you see that this is what we have. $\sum_{j=1}^n \langle U_{n+1}, v_j \rangle \langle v_l, v_j \rangle$ oh this is I need to change this. The summation index is j I will call this L so this is L this is j this with respect to this so that is be L v_j is that ok? The summation index is j I do it for all L , L is fixed L runs between 1 and n I am looking at the inner product W_{n+1} with v_L , v_1 in the first argument, so v_1 with $U_{n+1} - v_1$ with this now this will go out with a complex conjugate, v_L, v_j is that clear?

J is running index L is fixed this is zero if j is different from L so all terms are gone except the term corresponding to j equals L when J is equal to L this is 1, this becomes $U_{n+1} V_L$ with a conjugate that is $V_L U_{n+1}$ that's get cancel with this so this is zero ok. So V_L is orthogonal to W_{n+1} for all L so how do I choose L? This is true for all L such that one less and or equal to L less and or equal to n. So W_{n+1} the new vector is orthogonal to V_L alright but since V_{n+1} is just a multiple of W_{n+1} it is also orthogonal to the vectors V_1 etc V_n .

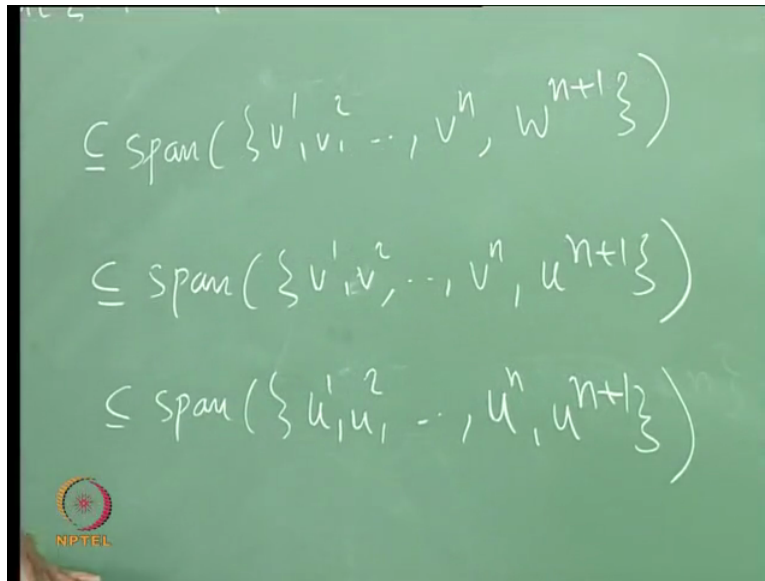
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So $V_1 V_2$ etc V_n together with V_{n+1} is an orthonormal set. The last point is to verify that the span of this is equal to the span of U_1 etc U_{n+1} ok just consider that. I will prove one inclusion the other one is similar, look at span of $V_1 V_2$ etc $V_n V_{n+1}$, this span is contained in I will keep the first n vectors $V_1 V_2$ etc V_n and observe that V_n is a multiple of W_{n+1} so instead of V_{n+1} I can use W_{n+1} ok. But when I write W_{n+1} I observe just go back to the formula W_{n+1} is a linear combination of U_{n+1} and the other V_1 etc but that is a linear combination of U_1 etc which means W_{n+1} is a linear combination of $U_1 U_2$ etc $U_n U_{n+1}$ agree?

Yes, $V_j U_{n+1}$ or j equals L because all terms are gone except j equals to L, minus, no real number it is a complex number. See take the conjugate but then inner product x, y bar is $y x$ so this becomes $V_L U_{n+1}$ this is $V_L U_{n+1}$ so it gets cancelled ok, is this step clear? V_n see this step is obvious I am sure because V_{n+1} is a multiple of W_{n+1} on the other hand W_{n+1} ok, you tell me if this is clear.

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$$\subseteq \text{span}(\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n, w^{n+1}\})$$
$$\subseteq \text{span}(\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n, u^{n+1}\})$$
$$\subseteq \text{span}(\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n, u^{n+1}\})$$

The image shows a green chalkboard with three lines of handwritten mathematical equations. The equations are: $\subseteq \text{span}(\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n, w^{n+1}\})$, $\subseteq \text{span}(\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n, u^{n+1}\})$, and $\subseteq \text{span}(\{u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n, u^{n+1}\})$. In the bottom left corner of the chalkboard, there is a small circular logo with a red and white pattern and the text 'NPTEL' below it.

What I am trying to explain is this is a linear combination of v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n I am again writing $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n, u^{n+1}$ do you agree?

That is because w^{n+1} is with regard to you can write it in terms of v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n and together with that you append u^{n+1} so this is fine. But v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n span of this vectors is equal to span of u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n so this is again contained in span of $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n, u^{n+1}$, ok so this is one inclusion I want to show that the span of this two sets are the same, this is one inclusion the other inclusion is similar. You can simply retrace the steps, ok that completes the proof. We will look at some examples next time and also applications of the Gram-Schmidt process in certain atomization problem ok, so let me stop here.