### Theory of Matrices

#### Chapter 2. Vectors and Vector Spaces 2.1. Operations on Vectors—Proofs of Theorems

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### Theorem 2.1.1(A1)

Theorem 2.1.1. Properties of Vector Algebra in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then: **A1.**  $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$  (Associativity of Vector Addition)

**Proof.** Let  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be  $x = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_n]$ ,  $y = [y_1, y_2, ..., y_n]$ , and  $z = [z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n]$ . Then:

$$
(x + y) + z = ([x_1, x_2, ..., x_n] + [y_1, y_2, ..., y_n]) + [z_1, z_2, ..., z_n]
$$
  
= 
$$
[x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, ..., x_n + y_n] + [z_1, z_2, ..., z_n]
$$
  
by the definition of vector addition

$$
= [(x_1 + y_1) + z_1, (x_2 + y_2) + z_2, \dots (x_n + y_n) + z_n]
$$
  
by the definition of vector addition

<span id="page-2-0"></span>
$$
= [x1 + (y1 + z1), x2 + (y2 + z2), \ldots xn + (yn + zn)]
$$
  
since addition in R is associative

### Theorem 2.1.1(A1)

Theorem 2.1.1. Properties of Vector Algebra in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then: **A1.**  $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$  (Associativity of Vector Addition)

**Proof.** Let  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be  $x = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_n]$ ,  $y = [y_1, y_2, ..., y_n]$ , and  $z = [z_1, z_2, \ldots, z_n]$ . Then:

$$
(x + y) + z = ([x_1, x_2, ..., x_n] + [y_1, y_2, ..., y_n]) + [z_1, z_2, ..., z_n]
$$
  
=  $[x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, ..., x_n + y_n] + [z_1, z_2, ..., z_n]$   
by the definition of vector addition  
=  $[(x_1 + y_1) + z_1, (x_2 + y_2) + z_2, ..., (x_n + y_n) + z_n]$   
by the definition of vector addition  
=  $[x_1 + (y_1 + z_1), y_1 + (y_1 + z_1), ..., y_n + (y_n + z_n)]$ 

 $[ x_1 + (y_1 + z_1), x_2 + (y_2 + z_2), \ldots, x_n + (y_n + z_n) ]$ since addition in  $\mathbb R$  is associative

### Theorem 2.1.1(A1) (continued)

Theorem 2.1.1. Properties of Vector Algebra in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then: **A1.**  $(x + y) + z = x + (y + z)$  (Associativity of Vector Addition) Proof (continued).

$$
(x + y) + z = [x1 + (y1 + z1), x2 + (y2 + z2), \dots xn + (yn + zn)]
$$
  
since addition in R is associative  

$$
= [x1, x2, \dots, xn] + [y1 + z1, y2 + z2, \dots, yn + zn]
$$
  
by the definition of vector addition  

$$
= [x1, x2, \dots, xn] + ([y1, y2, \dots, yn] + [z1, z2, \dots, zn])
$$
  
by the definition of vector addition

$$
= x + (y + z).
$$

#### **Theorem 2.1.2.** Let  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  be vector spaces of *n*-vectors. Then  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is a vector space.

<span id="page-5-0"></span>**Proof.** By our definition of "vector space," we only need to prove that  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is closed under linear combinations.

**Theorem 2.1.2.** Let  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  be vector spaces of *n*-vectors. Then  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is a vector space.

Proof. By our definition of "vector space," we only need to prove that  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is closed under linear combinations. Let  $x, y \in V_1 \cap V_2$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $V_1$  is a vector space then it is closed under linear combinations and so  $ax + by \in V_1$ . Similarly,  $ax + by \in V_2$ . So  $ax + bv \in V_1 \cap V_2$ .

**Theorem 2.1.2.** Let  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  be vector spaces of *n*-vectors. Then  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is a vector space.

Proof. By our definition of "vector space," we only need to prove that  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is closed under linear combinations. Let  $x, y \in V_1 \cap V_2$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $V_1$  is a vector space then it is closed under linear combinations and so  $ax + by \in V_1$ . Similarly,  $ax + by \in V_2$ . So  $ax + by \in V_1 \cap V_2$ . Since x and y are arbitrary elements of  $V_1 \cap V_2$  and a,  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  are arbitrary scalars, then  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is closed under linear combinations. That is,  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is a vector space.

**Theorem 2.1.2.** Let  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  be vector spaces of *n*-vectors. Then  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is a vector space.

Proof. By our definition of "vector space," we only need to prove that  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is closed under linear combinations. Let  $x, y \in V_1 \cap V_2$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Since  $V_1$  is a vector space then it is closed under linear combinations and so  $ax + by \in V_1$ . Similarly,  $ax + by \in V_2$ . So  $ax + by \in V_1 \cap V_2$ . Since x and y are arbitrary elements of  $V_1 \cap V_2$  and a,  $b \in \mathbb{R}$  are arbitrary scalars, then  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is closed under linear combinations. That is,  $V_1 \cap V_2$  is a vector space.

#### **Theorem 2.1.3.** If  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are vector spaces of *n*-vectors, then  $V_1 + V_2$  is a vector space.

<span id="page-9-0"></span>**Proof.** By our definition of "vector space," we must show that  $V_1 + V_2$  is closed under linear combinations. Let  $x, y \in V_1 + V_2$  and let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $x = x_1 + x_2$  and  $y = y_1 + y_2$  for some  $x_1, y_1 \in V_1$  and  $x_2, y_2 \in V_2$ .

**Theorem 2.1.3.** If  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are vector spaces of *n*-vectors, then  $V_1 + V_2$  is a vector space.

**Proof.** By our definition of "vector space," we must show that  $V_1 + V_2$  is closed under linear combinations. Let  $x, y \in V_1 + V_2$  and let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $x = x_1 + x_2$  and  $y = y_1 + y_2$  for some  $x_1, y_1 \in V_1$  and  $x_2, y_2 \in V_2$ . Since  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are vector spaces, then they are closed under linear combinations and so  $ax_1 + by_1 \in V_1$  and  $ax_2 + by_2 \in V_2$ . Therefore

 $ax + by = a(x_1 + x_2) + b(y_1 + y_2) = (ax_1 + by_1) + (ax_2 + by_2) \in V_1 + V_2.$ 

Since x and y are arbitrary vectors in  $V_1 + V_2$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  are arbitrary scalars, then we have that  $V_1 + V_2$  is closed under linear combinations. That is,  $V_1 + V_2$  is a vector space.

**Theorem 2.1.3.** If  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are vector spaces of *n*-vectors, then  $V_1 + V_2$  is a vector space.

**Proof.** By our definition of "vector space," we must show that  $V_1 + V_2$  is closed under linear combinations. Let  $x, y \in V_1 + V_2$  and let  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $x = x_1 + x_2$  and  $y = y_1 + y_2$  for some  $x_1, y_1 \in V_1$  and  $x_2, y_2 \in V_2$ . Since  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are vector spaces, then they are closed under linear combinations and so  $ax_1 + by_1 \in V_1$  and  $ax_2 + by_2 \in V_2$ . Therefore

$$
ax + by = a(x_1 + x_2) + b(y_1 + y_2) = (ax_1 + by_1) + (ax_2 + by_2) \in V_1 + V_2.
$$

Since x and y are arbitrary vectors in  $V_1 + V_2$  and  $a, b \in \mathbb{R}$  are arbitrary scalars, then we have that  $V_1 + V_2$  is closed under linear combinations. That is,  $V_1 + V_2$  is a vector space.

**Theorem 2.1.4.** If vector spaces  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are essentially disjoint then every element of  $V_1 \oplus V_2$  can be written as  $v_1 + v_2$ , where  $v_1 \in V_1$  and  $v_2 \in V_2$ , in a unique way.

<span id="page-12-0"></span>**Proof.** Let  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  be essentially disjoint vector spaces of *n*-vectors; that is,  $V_1 \cap V_2 = \{0\}$ . Suppose some  $v \in V_1 \oplus V_2$  is of the form  $v = v_1 + v_2 = v'_1 + v'_2$  where  $v_1, v'_2 \in V_1$  and  $v_2, v'_2 \in V_2$ . Then  $v_1 - v_1' = v_2' - v_2.$ 

**Theorem 2.1.4.** If vector spaces  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are essentially disjoint then every element of  $V_1 \oplus V_2$  can be written as  $v_1 + v_2$ , where  $v_1 \in V_1$  and  $v_2 \in V_2$ , in a unique way.

**Proof.** Let  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  be essentially disjoint vector spaces of *n*-vectors; that is,  $V_1 \cap V_2 = \{0\}$ . Suppose some  $v \in V_1 \oplus V_2$  is of the form  $v = v_1 + v_2 = v'_1 + v'_2$  where  $v_1, v'_2 \in V_1$  and  $v_2, v'_2 \in V_2$ . Then  $v_1 - v_1' = v_2' - v_2$ . So  $v_1 - v_1' \in V_1$  and  $v_2' - v_2 \in V_2$  since  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are vector space. But then  $v_1 - v'_1, v'_2 - v_2 \in V_1 \cap V_2$  and so  $v_1 - v'_1 = 0$  and  $v'_2 - v_2 = 0$ . That is,  $v_1 = v'_1$  and  $v_2 = v'_2$ . So the representation of  $v \in V_1 \oplus V_2$  as a sum of an element of  $V_1$  and an element of  $V_2$  is unique, as claimed.

**Theorem 2.1.4.** If vector spaces  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are essentially disjoint then every element of  $V_1 \oplus V_2$  can be written as  $v_1 + v_2$ , where  $v_1 \in V_1$  and  $v_2 \in V_2$ , in a unique way.

**Proof.** Let  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  be essentially disjoint vector spaces of *n*-vectors; that is,  $V_1 \cap V_2 = \{0\}$ . Suppose some  $v \in V_1 \oplus V_2$  is of the form  $v = v_1 + v_2 = v'_1 + v'_2$  where  $v_1, v'_2 \in V_1$  and  $v_2, v'_2 \in V_2$ . Then  $v_1 - v_1' = v_2' - v_2$ . So  $v_1 - v_1' \in V_1$  and  $v_2' - v_2 \in V_2$  since  $V_1$  and  $V_2$  are vector space. But then  $v_1 - v_1', v_2' - v_2 \in V_1 \cap V_2$  and so  $v_1 - v_1' = 0$  and  $v'_2 - v_2 = 0$ . That is,  $v_1 = v'_1$  and  $v_2 = v'_2$ . So the representation of  $v \in V_1 \oplus V_2$  as a sum of an element of  $V_1$  and an element of  $V_2$  is unique, as claimed.

**Theorem 2.1.5.** If  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  is a basis for a vector space V, then each element can be uniquely represented as a linear combination of the basis vectors.

<span id="page-15-0"></span>Proof. Suppose that  $x = b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \cdots + b_kv_k = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k$ . Then  $0 = x - x = (b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \cdots + b_kv_k) - (c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k)$  $=(b_1 - c_1)v_1 + (b_2 - c_2)v_2 + \cdots + (b_k - c_k)v_k.$ 

**Theorem 2.1.5.** If  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  is a basis for a vector space V, then each element can be uniquely represented as a linear combination of the basis vectors.

Proof. Suppose that  $x = b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \cdots + b_kv_k = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k$ . Then  $0 = x - x = (b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \cdots + b_kv_k) - (c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k)$  $=(b_1 - c_1)v_1 + (b_2 - c_2)v_2 + \cdots + (b_k - c_k)v_k.$ Since the basis consists (by definition) of a linearly independent set of vectors, then  $b_1 - c_1 = b_2 - c_2 = \cdots b_k - c_k = 0$ ; that is,  $b_1 = c_1, b_2 = c_2, \ldots, b_k = c_k$ . Therefore, the representation of x is unique. Since  $x$  is an arbitrary vector in  $V$ , the claim follows.

**Theorem 2.1.5.** If  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  is a basis for a vector space V, then each element can be uniquely represented as a linear combination of the basis vectors.

Proof. Suppose that  $x = b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \cdots + b_kv_k = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k$ . Then  $0 = x - x = (b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \cdots + b_kv_k) - (c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k)$  $=(b_1 - c_1)v_1 + (b_2 - c_2)v_2 + \cdots + (b_k - c_k)v_k.$ Since the basis consists (by definition) of a linearly independent set of vectors, then  $b_1 - c_1 = b_2 - c_2 = \cdots b_k - c_k = 0$ ; that is,  $b_1 = c_1, b_2 = c_2, \ldots, b_k = c_k$ . Therefore, the representation of x is unique. Since  $x$  is an arbitrary vector in  $V$ , the claim follows.

### Theorem 2.1.6(3)

Theorem 2.1.6. Properties of Inner Products. Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then: **3.**  $a\langle x, y \rangle = \langle ax, y \rangle$  (Factoring of Scalar Multiplication in Inner Products). **Proof.** Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be  $x = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_n]$  and  $y = [y_1, y_2, ..., y_n]$ . Then

$$
a\langle x, y \rangle = a\langle [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n], [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n] \rangle
$$
  
\n
$$
= a\langle x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \dots + x_ny_n \rangle
$$
 by the definition of  $\langle x, y \rangle$   
\n
$$
= a(x_1y_1) + a(x_2y_2) + \dots + a(x_ny_n)
$$
  
\nby distribution property of multiplication over addition in R  
\n
$$
= (ax_1)y_1 + (ax_2)y_2 + \dots + (ax_n)y_n
$$
  
\nby associativity for multiplication in R

$$
= \langle [ax_1, ax_2, \dots, ax_n], [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n] \rangle
$$
  
by the definition of inner product

<span id="page-18-0"></span>
$$
= \langle ax, y \rangle. \quad \Box
$$

### Theorem 2.1.6(3)

Theorem 2.1.6. Properties of Inner Products. Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $a \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then: **3.**  $a\langle x, y \rangle = \langle ax, y \rangle$  (Factoring of Scalar Multiplication in Inner Products). **Proof.** Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be  $x = [x_1, x_2, ..., x_n]$  and  $y = [y_1, y_2, ..., y_n]$ . Then

$$
a\langle x, y \rangle = a\langle [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n], [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n] \rangle
$$
  
\n
$$
= a\langle x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \dots + x_ny_n \rangle
$$
 by the definition of  $\langle x, y \rangle$   
\n
$$
= a(x_1y_1) + a(x_2y_2) + \dots + a(x_ny_n)
$$
  
\nby distribution property of multiplication over addition in R  
\n
$$
= (ax_1)y_1 + (ax_2)y_2 + \dots + (ax_n)y_n
$$
  
\nby associativity for multiplication in R  
\n
$$
= \langle [ax_1, ax_2, \dots, ax_n], [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n] \rangle
$$
  
\nby the definition of inner product

$$
= \langle ax, y \rangle. \quad \Box
$$

Theorem 2.1.7. Schwarz Inequality. For any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have  $|\langle x, y \rangle| \le \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2} \langle y, y \rangle^{1/2}$ . **Proof.** Let  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

 $0 \leq \langle (tx + y), (tx + y) \rangle$  by Theorem 2.1.6(1)

 $=$   $t\langle x, tx + y \rangle + \langle y, tx + y \rangle$  by linearity in the 1st entry

 $= t(t\langle x, x\rangle + \langle x, y\rangle) + (t\langle y, x\rangle + \langle y, y\rangle)$  by linearity in the 2nd entry

 $= t^2 \langle x, x \rangle + 2t \langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle$  by Theorem 1.2.6(2)

<span id="page-20-0"></span> $-$  at<sup>2</sup> + bt + c

where  $a = \langle x, x \rangle$ ,  $b = 2\langle x, y \rangle$ , and  $c = \langle y, y \rangle$ .

Theorem 2.1.7. Schwarz Inequality. For any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have  $|\langle x, y \rangle| \le \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2} \langle y, y \rangle^{1/2}$ . **Proof.** Let  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$
0 \le \langle (tx + y), (tx + y) \rangle \text{ by Theorem 2.1.6(1)}
$$
  
=  $t\langle x, tx + y \rangle + \langle y, tx + y \rangle \text{ by linearity in the 1st entry}$   
=  $t(t\langle x, x \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle) + (t\langle y, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle) \text{ by linearity in the 2nd entry}$   
=  $t^2\langle x, x \rangle + 2t\langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle \text{ by Theorem 1.2.6(2)}$   
=  $at^2 + bt + c$ 

where  $a = \langle x, x \rangle$ ,  $b = 2\langle x, y \rangle$ , and  $c = \langle y, y \rangle$ . As a quadratic in t,  $at^2 + bt + c$  cannot have two distinct roots or else we would have  $at^2 + bt + c < 0$  for some t. This means that the discriminant  $b^2 - 4ac$  in the quadratic equation  $t=(-b\pm\sqrt{b^2-4ac})/(2a)$ , must be  $b^2-4ac\leq$  0; that is,  $(b/2)^2\leq ac.$  Hence, we have  $(b/2)^2=\langle x,y\rangle^2\leq ac$  $= \langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle$  or  $\sqrt{\langle x, y \rangle^2} = |\langle x, y \rangle| \le \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2} \langle y, y \rangle^{1/2}.$ 

Theorem 2.1.7. Schwarz Inequality. For any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have  $|\langle x, y \rangle| \le \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2} \langle y, y \rangle^{1/2}$ . **Proof.** Let  $t \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

$$
0 \leq \langle (tx + y), (tx + y) \rangle \text{ by Theorem 2.1.6(1)}
$$
  
=  $t\langle x, tx + y \rangle + \langle y, tx + y \rangle \text{ by linearity in the 1st entry}$   
=  $t(t\langle x, x \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle) + (t\langle y, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle) \text{ by linearity in the 2nd entry}$   
=  $t^2\langle x, x \rangle + 2t\langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle \text{ by Theorem 1.2.6(2)}$   
=  $at^2 + bt + c$ 

where  $a = \langle x, x \rangle$ ,  $b = 2\langle x, y \rangle$ , and  $c = \langle y, y \rangle$ . As a quadratic in t,  $at^2 + bt + c$  cannot have two distinct roots or else we would have  $at^2 + bt + c < 0$  for some t. This means that the discriminant  $b^2 - 4ac$  in the quadratic equation  $t=(-b\pm\sqrt{b^2-4ac})/(2a)$ , must be  $b^2-4ac\leq$  0; that is,  $(b/2)^2\leq$  ac. Hence, we have  $(b/2)^2=\langle x,y\rangle^2\leq$  ac  $= \langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle$  or  $\sqrt{\langle x, y \rangle^2} = |\langle x, y \rangle| \le \langle x, x \rangle^{1/2} \langle y, y \rangle^{1/2}.$ 

Theorem 2.1.8 The basis norm is indeed a norm for any basis  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  of vector space V.

<span id="page-23-0"></span>**Proof.** Let  $x = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k$  and  $y = d_1v_1 + d_2v_2 + \cdots + d_kv_k$ . If  $x \neq 0$  then some  $c_i \neq 0$  and so  $\rho(x) > 0$ . Clearly  $\rho(0) = 0$ . So "Nonnegativity and Mapping of the Identity" is satisfied.

**Theorem 2.1.8** The basis norm is indeed a norm for any basis  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  of vector space V.

**Proof.** Let  $x = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k$  and  $y = d_1v_1 + d_2v_2 + \cdots + d_kv_k$ . If  $x \neq 0$  then some  $c_i \neq 0$  and so  $\rho(x) > 0$ . Clearly  $\rho(0) = 0$ . So "Nonnegativity and Mapping of the Identity" is satisfied. Next

$$
\rho(ax) = \rho(a(c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k)) = \rho((ac_1)v_1 + (ac_2)v_2 + \cdots + (ac_k)v_k)
$$

$$
= \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{k} (ac_j)^2 \right\}^{1/2} = |a| \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{k} c_j^2 \right\}^{1/2} = |a| \rho(x)
$$

and "Relation of Scalar Multiplication to Real Multiplication" holds.

**Theorem 2.1.8** The basis norm is indeed a norm for any basis  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  of vector space V.

**Proof.** Let  $x = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k$  and  $y = d_1v_1 + d_2v_2 + \cdots + d_kv_k$ . If  $x \neq 0$  then some  $c_i \neq 0$  and so  $\rho(x) > 0$ . Clearly  $\rho(0) = 0$ . So "Nonnegativity and Mapping of the Identity" is satisfied. Next

$$
\rho(ax) = \rho(a(c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k)) = \rho((ac_1)v_1 + (ac_2)v_2 + \cdots + (ac_k)v_k)
$$

$$
= \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{k} (ac_j)^2 \right\}^{1/2} = |a| \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{k} c_j^2 \right\}^{1/2} = |a| \rho(x)
$$

and "Relation of Scalar Multiplication to Real Multiplication" holds.

Proof (continued). Finally,

$$
\rho(x + y)^2 = \rho((c_1 + d_1)v_1 + (c_2 + d_2)v_2 + \dots + (c_k + d_k)v_k)^2
$$
  
\n
$$
= \sum_{j=1}^k (c_j + d_j)^2 = \sum_{j=1}^k (c_j^2 + 2c_jd_j + d_j^2)
$$
  
\n
$$
= \sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2 + 2\sum_{j=1}^k c_jd_j + \sum_{j=1}^k d_j^2
$$
  
\n
$$
\leq \sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2 + 2\left\{\sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2\right\}^{1/2} \left\{\sum_{j=1}^k d_j^2\right\}^{1/2} + \sum_{j=1}^k d_j^2
$$
  
\nby Theorem 2.1.7 (Schwarz's Inequality in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ )  
\n
$$
= \left(\left\{\sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2\right\}^{1/2} + \left\{\sum_{j=1}^k d_j^2\right\}^{1/2}\right\}^2 = (\rho(x) + \rho(y))^2.
$$

**Theorem 2.1.8** The basis norm is indeed a norm for any basis  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  of vector space V.

Proof (continued). ...

$$
\rho(x + y)^2 = (\rho(x) + \rho(y))^2.
$$

Taking square roots,  $\rho(x + y) \leq \rho(x) + \rho(y)$  and so the Triangle Inequality holds. Therefore  $\rho$  is a metric on V.

**Theorem 2.1.10.** Every norm on (finite dimensional vector space)  $V$  is equivalent to the basis norm  $\rho$  for any given basis  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$ . Therefore, any two norms on  $V$  are equivalent.

**Proof.** Let  $\|\cdot\|_a$  be any norm on vector space V and let  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$ be a basis for the space. Then for some unique scalars  $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k \in \mathbb{R}$ we have  $x = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k$ . Then, by the Triangle Inequality and "Relation of Scalar Multiplication to Real Multiplication,"

<span id="page-28-0"></span>
$$
||x||_a = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^k c_i v_i \right\|_a \leq \sum_{i=1}^k |c_i| ||v_i||_a.
$$

**Theorem 2.1.10.** Every norm on (finite dimensional vector space)  $V$  is equivalent to the basis norm  $\rho$  for any given basis  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$ . Therefore, any two norms on V are equivalent.

**Proof.** Let  $\|\cdot\|_a$  be any norm on vector space V and let  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$ be a basis for the space. Then for some unique scalars  $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k \in \mathbb{R}$ we have  $x = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k$ . Then, by the Triangle Inequality and "Relation of Scalar Multiplication to Real Multiplication,"

$$
||x||_a = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^k c_i v_i \right\|_a \leq \sum_{i=1}^k |c_i| ||v_i||_a.
$$

Now with  $[|c_1|, |c_2|, \ldots, |c_k|], [||v_1||_a, ||v_2||_a, \ldots, ||v_k||_a] \in \mathbb{R}^k$  we have by the Schwarz Inequality (Theorem 2.1.7) that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^k |c_i| \|v_i\|_a \le \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k |c_i|^2 \right\}^{1/2} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \|v_i\|_a^2 \right\}^{1/2}
$$

**Theorem 2.1.10.** Every norm on (finite dimensional vector space)  $V$  is equivalent to the basis norm  $\rho$  for any given basis  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$ . Therefore, any two norms on  $V$  are equivalent.

**Proof.** Let  $\|\cdot\|_a$  be any norm on vector space V and let  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$ be a basis for the space. Then for some unique scalars  $c_1, c_2, \ldots, c_k \in \mathbb{R}$ we have  $x = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \cdots + c_kv_k$ . Then, by the Triangle Inequality and "Relation of Scalar Multiplication to Real Multiplication,"

$$
||x||_a = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^k c_i v_i \right\|_a \leq \sum_{i=1}^k |c_i| ||v_i||_a.
$$

Now with  $[|c_1|, |c_2|, \ldots, |c_k|], [\||v_1\|_a, \||v_2\|_a, \ldots, \|v_k\|_a] \in \mathbb{R}^k$  we have by the Schwarz Inequality (Theorem 2.1.7) that

$$
\sum_{i=1}^k |c_i| \|v_i\|_a \leq \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k |c_i|^2 \right\}^{1/2} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \|v_i\|_a^2 \right\}^{1/2}.
$$

#### Proof (continued). Hence

$$
\|x\|_a \le \left\{\sum_{i=1}^k \|v_i\|_a^2\right\}^{1/2} \rho(x) = \tilde{s}\rho(x) \text{ for } \tilde{s} = \left\{\sum_{i=1}^k \|v_i\|_a^2\right\}^{1/2}
$$

Next, let  $C = \left\{ x = \sum_{i=1}^{k} u_i v_i \in V \right\}$  $\sum_{i=1}^k |u_i|^2 = 1 \Big\}$  . Gentle states that set C is "obviously [topologically] closed" (page 20). Set C is the surface of the unit sphere in V under  $\rho$ ,  $C = \{x \in V \mid \rho(x) = 1\}.$ 

#### Proof (continued). Hence

$$
\|x\|_{a} \le \left\{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \|v_{i}\|_{a}^{2}\right\}^{1/2} \rho(x) = \tilde{s}\rho(x) \text{ for } \tilde{s} = \left\{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \|v_{i}\|_{a}^{2}\right\}^{1/2}
$$

Next, let  $C = \left\{ x = \sum_{i=1}^{k} u_i v_i \in V \right\}$  $\sum_{i=1}^k |u_i|^2 = 1 \Big\}$  . Gentle states that set C is "obviously [topologically] closed" (page 20). Set C is the surface of the unit sphere in V under  $\rho$ ,  $C = \{x \in V \mid \rho(x) = 1\}$ . We give a proof that C is a topologically closed set by showing that its complement,  $V \setminus C$ , is open. Let  $x \in V \setminus C$  and let  $\varepsilon = |1 - \rho(x)| > 0$ . Then the open ball  $\{v \in V \mid \rho(v - x) < \varepsilon\}$  contains no elements of C: for  $y \in C$ ,

$$
\rho(y-x) \ge \begin{cases} \rho(y) - \rho(x) \\ \rho(x) - \rho(y) \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 1 - \rho(x) \\ \rho(x) - 1 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \varepsilon & \text{if } \rho(x) < 1 \\ \varepsilon & \text{if } \rho(x) > 1. \end{cases}
$$

#### Proof (continued). Hence

$$
\|x\|_{a} \leq \left\{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \|v_{i}\|_{a}^{2}\right\}^{1/2} \rho(x) = \tilde{s}\rho(x) \text{ for } \tilde{s} = \left\{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \|v_{i}\|_{a}^{2}\right\}^{1/2}
$$

Next, let  $C = \left\{ x = \sum_{i=1}^{k} u_i v_i \in V \right\}$  $\sum_{i=1}^k |u_i|^2 = 1 \Big\}$  . Gentle states that set  $C$  is "obviously [topologically] closed" (page 20). Set  $C$  is the surface of the unit sphere in V under  $\rho$ ,  $C = \{x \in V \mid \rho(x) = 1\}$ . We give a proof that C is a topologically closed set by showing that its complement,  $V \setminus C$ , is open. Let  $x \in V \setminus C$  and let  $\varepsilon = |1 - \rho(x)| > 0$ . Then the open ball  $\{v \in V \mid \rho(v - x) < \varepsilon\}$  contains no elements of C: for  $y \in C$ ,

$$
\rho(y-x) \ge \begin{cases} \rho(y) - \rho(x) \\ \rho(x) - \rho(y) \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 1 - \rho(x) \\ \rho(x) - 1 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \varepsilon & \text{if } \rho(x) < 1 \\ \varepsilon & \text{if } \rho(x) > 1. \end{cases}
$$

(Notice that the Triangle Inequality for norms implies for any  $x, y \in V$ that  $||x|| = ||x - y + y|| \le ||x - y|| + ||y||$  or  $||x - y|| > ||x|| - ||y||$ .)

#### Proof (continued). Hence

$$
\|x\|_{a} \leq \left\{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \|v_{i}\|_{a}^{2}\right\}^{1/2} \rho(x) = \tilde{s}\rho(x) \text{ for } \tilde{s} = \left\{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \|v_{i}\|_{a}^{2}\right\}^{1/2}
$$

Next, let  $C = \left\{ x = \sum_{i=1}^{k} u_i v_i \in V \right\}$  $\sum_{i=1}^k |u_i|^2 = 1 \Big\}$  . Gentle states that set  $C$  is "obviously [topologically] closed" (page 20). Set  $C$  is the surface of the unit sphere in V under  $\rho$ ,  $C = \{x \in V \mid \rho(x) = 1\}$ . We give a proof that C is a topologically closed set by showing that its complement,  $V \setminus C$ , is open. Let  $x \in V \setminus C$  and let  $\varepsilon = |1 - \rho(x)| > 0$ . Then the open ball  $\{v \in V \mid \rho(v - x) < \varepsilon\}$  contains no elements of C: for  $y \in C$ ,

$$
\rho(y-x) \ge \begin{cases} \rho(y) - \rho(x) \\ \rho(x) - \rho(y) \end{cases} = \begin{cases} 1 - \rho(x) \\ \rho(x) - 1 \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \varepsilon & \text{if } \rho(x) < 1 \\ \varepsilon & \text{if } \rho(x) > 1. \end{cases}
$$

(Notice that the Triangle Inequality for norms implies for any  $x, y \in V$ that  $||x|| = ||x - y + y|| \le ||x - y|| + ||y||$  or  $||x - y|| > ||x|| - ||y||$ .)

**Proof (continued).** Define  $f : C \to \mathbb{R}$  as  $f(u) = \|\cdot\|$  $\sum_{i=1}^k u_i v_i \Big\|_a$ . Gentle claims that  $f$  is continuous (page 20). Let's prove this. Let  $y=\sum_{i=1}^k u_iv_i\in\mathcal{C}$  and let  $\varepsilon>0.$  Set  $\delta=\varepsilon.$  For any  $x=\sum_{i=1}^k u'_iv_i\in\mathcal{C}$ with  $||y - x||_2 < \delta$  we have

$$
\varepsilon = \delta > \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \|y\|_{a} - \|x\|_{a} \\ \|x\|_{a} - \|y\|_{a} \end{array} \right. = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}v_{i}\|_{a} - \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}'v_{i}\|_{a} \\ \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}'v_{i}\|_{a} - \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}v_{i}\|_{a} \end{array} \right.
$$

$$
= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} f(y) - f(x) \\ f(x) - f(y) \end{array} \right. = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} |f(y) - f(x)| \text{ if } f(y) \ge f(x) \\ |f(x) - f(y)| \text{ if } f(y) < f(x). \end{array} \right.
$$
That is,  $|f(y) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ . So  $f : C \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous.

**Proof (continued).** Define  $f: C \to \mathbb{R}$  as  $f(u) = \left\| \sum_{i=1}^{k} u_i v_i \right\|_a$ . Gentle Iļ claims that  $f$  is continuous (page 20). Let's prove this. Let  $y=\sum_{i=1}^k u_iv_i\in\mathcal{C}$  and let  $\varepsilon>0.$  Set  $\delta=\varepsilon.$  For any  $x=\sum_{i=1}^k u'_iv_i\in\mathcal{C}$ with  $\|y - x\|_a < \delta$  we have

$$
\varepsilon = \delta > \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \|y\|_{a} - \|x\|_{a} \\ \|x\|_{a} - \|y\|_{a} \end{array} \right. = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}v_{i}\|_{a} - \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}'v_{i}\|_{a} \\ \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}'v_{i}\|_{a} - \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}v_{i}\|_{a} \end{array} \right.
$$

$$
= \left\{ \begin{array}{l} f(y) - f(x) \\ f(x) - f(y) \end{array} \right. = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} |f(y) - f(x)| \text{ if } f(y) \ge f(x) \\ |f(x) - f(y)| \text{ if } f(y) < f(x). \end{array} \right.
$$

That is,  $|f(y) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$ . So  $f : C \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous.

Proof (continued). By the Heine-Borel Theorem (since C is closed and bounded and  $V$  is finite dimensional),  $C$  is compact and so continuous function f attains a minimum value on C, say  $f(u_*) \leq f(u)$  for all  $u \in C$ . **Let**  $\tilde{r} = f(u_*) > 0$ **.** If  $x = \sum_{i=1}^k c_i v_i \neq 0$  then

$$
\|x\|_a = \left\|\sum_{i=1}^k c_i v_i\right\|_a = \left\{\sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2\right\}^{1/2} \left\|\sum_{i=1}^k \left(\frac{c_i}{\left\{\sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2\right\}^{1/2}}\right) v_i\right\|_a = \rho(x) f(\tilde{c})
$$

where 
$$
\tilde{c} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \left( c_i / \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{k} c_j^2 \right\}^{1/2} \right) v_i
$$
, so  $\tilde{c} \in C$  since

$$
\rho(\tilde{c}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \left| \frac{c_i}{\left\{ \sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2 \right\}^{1/2}} \right|^2 = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2} \sum_{i=1}^k c_i^2 = 1.
$$

Proof (continued). By the Heine-Borel Theorem (since C is closed and bounded and V is finite dimensional), C is compact and so continuous function f attains a minimum value on C, say  $f(u_*) \leq f(u)$  for all  $u \in C$ . Let  $\tilde{r} = f(u_*) > 0$ . If  $x = \sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i v_i \neq 0$  then

$$
\|x\|_a = \left\|\sum_{i=1}^k c_i v_i\right\|_a = \left\{\sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2\right\}^{1/2} \left\|\sum_{i=1}^k \left(\frac{c_i}{\left\{\sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2\right\}^{1/2}}\right) v_i\right\|_a = \rho(x) f(\tilde{c})
$$
  
where  $\tilde{c} = \sum_{i=1}^k \left(c_i \middle| \left\{\sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2\right\}^{1/2}\right) v_i$ , so  $\tilde{c} \in C$  since

$$
\rho(\tilde{c}) = \sum_{i=1}^k \left| \frac{c_i}{\left\{ \sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2 \right\}^{1/2}} \right|^2 = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^k c_j^2} \sum_{i=1}^k c_i^2 = 1.
$$

**Theorem 2.1.10.** Every norm on (finite dimensional vector space)  $V$  is equivalent to the basis norm  $\rho$  for any given basis  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$ . Therefore, any two norms on  $V$  are equivalent.

**Proof (continued).** Since  $\tilde{r} \in C$  then  $f(\tilde{c}) \geq \tilde{r}$ , and so  $||x||_a \geq \tilde{r}(\rho(x))$  for all  $x \in V$ ,  $x \neq 0$ . Of course  $||x||_a \geq \tilde{r}\rho(x)$  for  $x = 0$ , so for all  $x \in V$  we have  $\tilde{r}\rho(x)\leq \|x\|_a\leq \tilde{s}\rho(x)$ . That is,  $\|\cdot\|_a\cong \rho(\cdot)$ . Since  $\cong$  is an equivalence relation for Theorem 2.1.9, we have that any two norms on  $V$ are equivalent.

**Theorem 2.1.11.** A set of nonzero vectors  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  in a vector space with an inner product for which  $\langle \mathsf{v}_i,\mathsf{v}_j\rangle = 0$  for  $i\neq j$  (the vectors are said to be mutually orthogonal) is a linearly independent set.

<span id="page-40-0"></span>**Proof.** Let  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  be a set of mutually orthogonal nonzero vectors. ASSUME the set is not linearly independent. Then  $a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \cdots + a_iv_i + \cdots + a_kv_k = 0$  is satisfied where some coefficient is nonzero, say  $a_i \neq 0$ .

**Theorem 2.1.11.** A set of nonzero vectors  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  in a vector space with an inner product for which  $\langle \mathsf{v}_i,\mathsf{v}_j\rangle = 0$  for  $i\neq j$  (the vectors are said to be *mutually orthogonal*) is a linearly independent set.

**Proof.** Let  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  be a set of mutually orthogonal nonzero vectors. ASSUME the set is not linearly independent. Then  $a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \cdots + a_iv_i + \cdots + a_kv_k = 0$  is satisfied where some coefficient is nonzero, say  $a_i \neq 0$ . So

$$
v_i = (-a_1/a_i)v_1 + (-a_2/a_i)v_2 + \cdots + (-a_{i-1}/a_i)v_{i-1} + (-a_{i+1}/a_i)v_{i+1} + \cdots + (-a_k/a_i)v_k.
$$

But then

$$
\langle v_i, v_i \rangle = \langle (-a_1/a_i)v_1 + (-a_2/a_i)v_2 + \cdots + (-a_{i-1}/a_i)v_{i-1} + (-a_{i+1}/a_i)v_{i+1} + \cdots + (-a_k/a_i)v_k, v_i \rangle
$$

**Theorem 2.1.11.** A set of nonzero vectors  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  in a vector space with an inner product for which  $\langle \mathsf{v}_i,\mathsf{v}_j\rangle = 0$  for  $i\neq j$  (the vectors are said to be *mutually orthogonal*) is a linearly independent set.

**Proof.** Let  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  be a set of mutually orthogonal nonzero vectors. ASSUME the set is not linearly independent. Then  $a_1v_1 + a_2v_2 + \cdots + a_iv_i + \cdots + a_kv_k = 0$  is satisfied where some coefficient is nonzero, say  $a_i \neq 0$ . So

$$
v_i = (-a_1/a_i)v_1 + (-a_2/a_i)v_2 + \cdots + (-a_{i-1}/a_i)v_{i-1} + (-a_{i+1}/a_i)v_{i+1} + \cdots + (-a_k/a_i)v_k.
$$

But then

$$
\langle v_i, v_i \rangle = \langle (-a_1/a_i)v_1 + (-a_2/a_i)v_2 + \cdots + (-a_{i-1}/a_i)v_{i-1} + (-a_{i+1}/a_i)v_{i+1} + \cdots + (-a_k/a_i)v_k, v_i \rangle
$$

**Theorem 2.1.11.** A set of nonzero vectors  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  in a vector space with an inner product for which  $\langle \mathsf{v}_i,\mathsf{v}_j\rangle = 0$  for  $i\neq j$  (the vectors are said to be *mutually orthogonal*) is a linearly independent set.

#### Proof.

$$
\langle v_i, v_i \rangle = (-a_1/a_i) \langle v_1, v_i \rangle + (-a_2/a_i) \langle v_2, v_i \rangle + \cdots + (-a_{i-1}/a_i) \langle v_{i-1}, v_i \rangle
$$

$$
+ (-a_{i+1}/a_i) \langle v_{i+1}, v_i \rangle + \cdots + (-a_k/a_i) \langle v_k, v_i \rangle = 0,
$$

**a CONTRADICTION to the fact that**  $v_i \neq 0$ **.** So the assumption that the set is not linearly independent is false; that is, the set is linearly independent, as claimed.

**Theorem 2.1.11.** A set of nonzero vectors  $\{v_1, v_2, \ldots, v_k\}$  in a vector space with an inner product for which  $\langle \mathsf{v}_i,\mathsf{v}_j\rangle = 0$  for  $i\neq j$  (the vectors are said to be *mutually orthogonal*) is a linearly independent set.

#### Proof.

$$
\langle v_i, v_i \rangle = (-a_1/a_i) \langle v_1, v_i \rangle + (-a_2/a_i) \langle v_2, v_i \rangle + \cdots + (-a_{i-1}/a_i) \langle v_{i-1}, v_i \rangle
$$

$$
+ (-a_{i+1}/a_i) \langle v_{i+1}, v_i \rangle + \cdots + (-a_k/a_i) \langle v_k, v_i \rangle = 0,
$$

<span id="page-44-0"></span>a CONTRADICTION to the fact that  $v_i \neq 0$ . So the assumption that the set is not linearly independent is false; that is, the set is linearly independent, as claimed.