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 $z = [z_1, z_2, ..., z_n]$. Then:

$$(x + y) + z = ([x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] + [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n]) + [z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n]$$

= $[x_1 + y_1, x_2 + y_2, \dots, x_n + y_n] + [z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n]$
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

$$= [x_1 + (y_1 + z_1), x_2 + (y_2 + z_2), \dots x_n + (y_n + z_n)]$$

since addition in \mathbb{R} is associative

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$$= [x_1 + (y_1 + z_1), x_2 + (y_2 + z_2), \dots x_n + (y_n + z_n)]$$

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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).**

$$(x + y) + z = [x_1 + (y_1 + z_1), x_2 + (y_2 + z_2), \dots x_n + (y_n + z_n)]$$

since addition in \mathbb{R} is associative
$$= [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] + [y_1 + z_1, y_2 + z_2, \dots, y_n + z_n]$$

by the definition of vector addition

$$= [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] + ([y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n] + [z_1, z_2, \dots, z_n])$$

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.

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 $ax + by \in V_1 \cap V_2$.

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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 $x_2, y_2 \in V_2$.

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.

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

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.

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.

Proof. Suppose that $x = b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \dots + b_kv_k = c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \dots + c_kv_k.$ Then $0 = x - x = (b_1v_1 + b_2v_2 + \dots + b_kv_k) - (c_1v_1 + c_2v_2 + \dots + c_kv_k)$ $= (b_1 - c_1)v_1 + (b_2 - c_2)v_2 + \dots + (b_k - c_k)v_k.$

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

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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 $x = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ and $y = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n]$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} a\langle x, y \rangle &= a\langle [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n], [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n] \rangle \\ &= a(x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \dots + x_ny_n) \text{ by the definition of } \langle x, y \rangle \\ &= a(x_1y_1) + a(x_2y_2) + \dots + a(x_ny_n) \\ &\qquad \text{by distribution property of multiplication over addition in } \mathbb{R} \\ &= (ax_1)y_1 + (ax_2)y_2 + \dots + (ax_n)y_n \end{aligned}$$

- by associativity for multiplication in ${\mathbb R}$
- $= \langle [ax_1, ax_2, \dots, ax_n], [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n] \rangle$ by the definition of inner product

$$= \langle ax, y \rangle. \square$$

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 $x = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$ and $y = [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n]$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} a\langle x, y \rangle &= a\langle [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n], [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n] \rangle \\ &= a(x_1y_1 + x_2y_2 + \dots + x_ny_n) \text{ by the definition of } \langle x, y \rangle \\ &= a(x_1y_1) + a(x_2y_2) + \dots + a(x_ny_n) \\ &\quad \text{by distribution property of multiplication over addition in } \mathbb{R} \\ &= (ax_1)y_1 + (ax_2)y_2 + \dots + (ax_n)y_n \\ &\quad \text{by associativity for multiplication in } \mathbb{R} \\ &= \langle [ax_1, ax_2, \dots, ax_n], [y_1, y_2, \dots, y_n] \rangle \end{aligned}$$

by the definition of inner product

$$= \langle ax, y \rangle. \square$$

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

 $= at^2 + bt + c$

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

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

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 $b^2 - 4ac \le 0$; that is, $(b/2)^2 \le ac$. Hence, we have $(b/2)^2 = \langle x, y \rangle^2 \le ac$ $= \langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle$ 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 $b^2 - 4ac \le 0$; that is, $(b/2)^2 \le ac$. Hence, we have $(b/2)^2 = \langle x, y \rangle^2 \le ac$ $= \langle x, x \rangle \langle y, y \rangle$ 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.

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.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Proof (continued). Finally,

$$\rho(x+y)^{2} = \rho((c_{1}+d_{1})v_{1}+(c_{2}+d_{2})v_{2}+\dots+(c_{k}+d_{k})v_{k})^{2}$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{k} (c_{j}+d_{j})^{2} = \sum_{j=1}^{k} (c_{j}^{2}+2c_{j}d_{j}+d_{j}^{2})$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{k} c_{j}^{2}+2\sum_{j=1}^{k} c_{j}d_{j}+\sum_{j=1}^{k} d_{j}^{2}$$

$$\leq \sum_{j=1}^{k} c_{j}^{2}+2\left\{\sum_{j=1}^{k} c_{j}^{2}\right\}^{1/2}\left\{\sum_{j=1}^{k} d_{j}^{2}\right\}^{1/2}+\sum_{j=1}^{k} d_{j}^{2}$$
by Theorem 2.1.7 (Schwarz's Inequality in \mathbb{R}^{n})
$$= \left(\left\{\sum_{j=1}^{k} c_{j}^{2}\right\}^{1/2}+\left\{\sum_{j=1}^{k} d_{j}^{2}\right\}^{1/2}\right)^{2}=(\rho(x)+\rho(y))^{2}.$$
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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, $\rho(x + y) \le \rho(x) + \rho(y)$ and so the Triangle Inequality holds. Therefore ρ is a metric on V.

Theorem 2.1.10. Every norm on (finite dimensional vector space) V is equivalent to the basis norm ρ 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,"

$$\|x\|_{a} = \left\|\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} v_{i}\right\|_{a} \le \sum_{i=1}^{k} |c_{i}| \|v_{i}\|_{a}.$$

Theorem 2.1.10. Every norm on (finite dimensional vector space) V is equivalent to the basis norm ρ 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,"

$$\|x\|_{a} = \left\|\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} v_{i}\right\|_{a} \le \sum_{i=1}^{k} |c_{i}| \|v_{i}\|_{a}.$$

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

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

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

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

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

Proof (continued). Hence

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

$$\varepsilon = \delta > \begin{cases} \|y\|_{a} - \|x\|_{a} \\ \|x\|_{a} - \|y\|_{a} \end{cases} = \begin{cases} \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}v_{i}\|_{a} - \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}'v_{i}\|_{a} \\ \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}'v_{i}\|_{a} - \|\sum_{i=1}^{k} u_{i}v_{i}\|_{a} \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} f(y) - f(x) \\ f(x) - f(y) \end{cases} = \begin{cases} |f(y) - f(x)| \text{ if } f(y) \ge f(x) \\ |f(x) - f(y)| \text{ if } f(y) < f(x). \end{cases}$$
That is, $|f(y) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$. So $f : C \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuous.

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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 $f(u_*) \le f(u)$ 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
$$\tilde{c} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \left(c_i \left/ \left\{ \sum_{j=1}^{k} c_j^2 \right\}^{1/2} \right) v_i$$
, 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 $f(u_*) \le f(u)$ for all $u \in C$. Let $\tilde{r} = f(u_*) > 0$. If $x = \sum_{i=1}^{k} c_i v_i \neq 0$ then

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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 $\{v_1, v_2, ..., v_k\}$ in a vector space with an inner product for which $\langle v_i, v_j \rangle = 0$ 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 $a_i \neq 0$.

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

But then

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

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Proof.

$$\begin{aligned} \langle v_i, v_i \rangle &= (-a_1/a_i) \langle v_1, v_i \rangle + (-a_2/a_i) \langle v_2, v_i \rangle + \dots + (-a_{i-1}/a_i) \langle v_{i-1}, v_i \rangle \\ &+ (-a_{i+1}/a_i) \langle v_{i+1}, v_i \rangle + \dots + (-a_k/a_i) \langle v_k, v_i \rangle = 0, \end{aligned}$$

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.

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Proof.

$$\begin{split} \langle v_i, v_i \rangle &= (-a_1/a_i) \langle v_1, v_i \rangle + (-a_2/a_i) \langle v_2, v_i \rangle + \dots + (-a_{i-1}/a_i) \langle v_{i-1}, v_i \rangle \\ &+ (-a_{i+1}/a_i) \langle v_{i+1}, v_i \rangle + \dots + (-a_k/a_i) \langle v_k, v_i \rangle = 0, \end{split}$$

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