

Section 3.3Orthonormal Systems and Orthogonal
~~and Orthogonal Polynomials~~ Polynomials

Definition Let X be a Hilbert space. Suppose $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n, \dots$ are vectors of X such that

$$\langle u_j, u_k \rangle = \delta_{jk} \quad (j, k = 1, 2, \dots)$$

Then we call $\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ an orthonormal sequence of vectors or orthonormal system.

Examples ① $X = L^2(-\pi, \pi)$.

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cos x, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sin x, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \cos 2x, \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sin 2x, \dots \right\}$$

is an orthonormal system.

Since

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \cos nx \cos mx \, dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \neq m \\ \pi & \text{if } n = m \neq 0 \\ 2\pi & \text{if } n = m = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin nx \cos mx \, dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } n \neq m \\ \pi & \text{if } n = m \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\int_{-\pi}^{\pi} \sin nx \sin mx \, dx = 0.$$

If $\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ is an orthonormal seq. then any of its subseq. is also an orthonormal seq.

We try to find a "maximal" seq of orthonormal vectors $\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ so that any vector $x \in X$ can be represented as $x = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} x_j \cdot u_j$. Fine if $\dim X < \infty$. What if $\dim X = \infty$?

② $X = L^2(0, \pi) \quad \left\{ \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \sin nx \right\}$: orthonormal.

Fact: If $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n, \dots$ are orthonormal then any subseq. is also orthonormal.

In a finite-dimensional space, say, \mathbb{R}^n , we have a set of "complete" orthonormal vectors e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n (each e_j has j th component 1 and other components 0), in the sense that any vector $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$ can be uniquely expressed as

$$u = u_1 e_1 + u_2 e_2 + \dots + u_n e_n$$

These are coordinates of u .

What about an infinitely dimensional Hilbert space?

$$\langle a, b \rangle = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j b_j$$

Example $\ell^2 = \left\{ (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots) : \text{all } a_j \in \mathbb{R}, j \geq 1 \right.$
 $\left. \text{and } \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j^2 < \infty \right\}$

This is a (real) Hilbert space. Let

$$e_1 = (1, 0, 0, \dots)$$

$$e_2 = (0, 1, 0, \dots)$$

$$e_3 = (0, 0, 1, 0, \dots)$$

.....

$\{e_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ is an orthonormal system. This is in fact "complete" as every $u = (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots) \in \ell^2$

can be expressed as

$$u = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j e_j \stackrel{\text{definition}}{=} \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \sum_{j=1}^N a_j e_j$$

check: $\sum_{j=1}^N a_j e_j = a_1 e_1 + a_2 e_2 + \dots + a_N e_N$
 $= (a_1, a_2, a_3, \dots, a_N, 0, 0, 0, \dots)$

$$\left\| \sum_{j=1}^N a_j e_j - u \right\| = \left\| (0, 0, \dots, 0, a_{N+1}, a_{N+2}, \dots) \right\|$$

$$= \sum_{j=N+1}^{\infty} a_j^2 \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } N \rightarrow \infty$$

since $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} a_j^2 < \infty$.

Definition Let $\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ be an orthonormal system in a Hilbert space X . This system is complete if for any $x \in X$,

$$\langle x, u_j \rangle = 0 \text{ for all } j \geq 1 \implies x = 0.$$

This means that there is no nonzero vectors that are orthogonal to all u_j ($j \geq 1$).

Theorem Let X be a Hilbert space. Let $\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ be an orthonormal system of X .

The following are equivalent:

(1) $\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ is complete;

(2) $\text{span}\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ is dense in X ;

(3) (Parseval relation) $\sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_j \rangle|^2 = \|x\|^2 \quad \forall x \in X$.

i.e. $\overline{\text{span}\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}} = X$.

$$(4) \quad \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_j \rangle \overline{\langle y, u_j \rangle} = \langle x, y \rangle \quad \forall x, y \in X$$

$$(5) \quad x = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} \langle x, u_j \rangle u_j \quad \forall x \in X.$$

Sketch of Proof

(1) \Rightarrow (2) If $\text{span}\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ is not dense in X then $M = \overline{\text{span}\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}}$ is a proper, closed subspace of X . $\exists x_0 \in X \setminus M$. Let $u_0 \in M$ be the best approximation of x_0 in M . Then $x_0 - u_0 \neq 0$, $x_0 - u_0 \perp M$. Hence, $x_0 - u_0 \perp$ all u_j ($j \geq 1$) $\Rightarrow \{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ is not complete. A contradiction.

(2) \Rightarrow (1) Suppose $x \in X$, $\langle x, u_j \rangle = 0 \quad \forall j \geq 1$. Since $\text{span}\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ is dense in X , $\exists \{v_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ s.t. $v_k \in \text{span}\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$, $v_k \rightarrow x$, as $k \rightarrow \infty$. Since $\langle x, u_j \rangle = 0 \quad \forall j \geq 1$, we have $\langle v_k, x \rangle = 0$. Hence $\langle x, x \rangle = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \langle v_k, x \rangle = 0$. $x = 0$. Thus $\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ is complete.

(3) \Rightarrow (1) Obvious (by definition of completeness).

(2) \Rightarrow (3) $\forall x \in X$ $d_n = \text{dist}(x, \text{span}\{u_j\}_{j=1}^n) \rightarrow 0$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, since $\text{span}\{u_j\}_{j=1}^{\infty}$ is dense in X .

But, $d_n = \left\| x - \sum_{j=1}^n \langle x, u_j \rangle u_j \right\|$.

$$x - \sum_{j=1}^n \langle x, u_j \rangle u_j \perp u_k \quad (1 \leq k \leq n). \quad \|x\|^2 = \left\| x - \sum_{j=1}^n \langle x, u_j \rangle u_j \right\|^2 + \sum_{j=1}^n |\langle x, u_j \rangle|^2$$

$$\text{Hence, } d_n^2 = \|x\|^2 - \sum_{j=1}^n |\langle x, u_j \rangle|^2$$

$$\text{So, } d_n \rightarrow 0 \Leftrightarrow \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |\langle x, u_j \rangle|^2 = \|x\|^2.$$

(4) \Leftrightarrow (3).

(5) \Rightarrow (1) Obvious.

(1) \Rightarrow (5) See (2) \Rightarrow (3) Q.E.D.

This page should be in section 3.1

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Definition Let X be a Hilbert space. A sequence $\{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ converges to x in X if all $x_k \in X$ ($k \geq 1$), $x \in X$, and $x_k \rightarrow x$ weakly $\langle x_k, u \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, u \rangle \quad \forall u \in X$.

Example In $X = L^2(a, b)$, $f_k \rightarrow f$ weakly means $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \int_a^b f_k(x) g(x) dx = \int_a^b f(x) g(x) dx \quad \forall g \in L^2(a, b)$.

Thm. Let X be a Hilbert space.

~~(1) If $\{x_k\}_{k=1}^{\infty}$ is a sequence~~

(1) $x_k \rightarrow x$ weakly in $X \implies \{\|x_k\|\}$ is bounded and $\liminf_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|x_k\| \geq \|x\|$.

(2) $x_k \rightarrow x$ (strongly, i.e., $\|x_k - x\| \rightarrow 0$) $\iff x_k \rightarrow x$ weakly and $\|x_k\| \rightarrow \|x\|$.

Proof (1) $\langle x_k, x \rangle \rightarrow \langle x, x \rangle = \|x\|^2$
 $\|x\|^2 = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_k, x \rangle \leq \liminf_{k \rightarrow \infty} \langle x_k, x \rangle$
 $\leq \liminf_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|x_k\| \|x\|$.

[Weak convergence of $\{x_k\}$ implies the (strong) boundedness of $\{\|x_k\|\}$, by the Banach-Steinhaus Principle of uniform boundedness (of functionals/operators).]

(2) $\|x_k - x\|^2 = -\|x_k + x\|^2 + 2\|x_k\|^2 + 2\|x\|^2$
 $\|x_k + x\|^2 = \|x_k\|^2 + 2\langle x_k, x \rangle + \|x\|^2 \quad (x: \text{real})$
 $\rightarrow \|x\|^2 + 2\langle x, x \rangle + \|x\|^2 = 4\|x\|^2$

So, $\|x_k - x\|^2 \rightarrow 0$. Q.E.D.

§ 3.4 Orthogonal Polynomials

$$\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(x)g(x)dx$$

Consider $L^2(a, b)$, a (real) Hilbert space. Denote

$\mathcal{P} = \{ \text{all (real) polynomials} \}$

$\mathcal{P}_n = \{ \text{all (real) polynomials of deg. } \leq n \}$

Facts: ① $\mathcal{P}_n = \text{span} \{ 1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n \}$

② $\mathcal{P}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{P}_1 \subseteq \dots \subseteq \mathcal{P}_n \subseteq \dots \subseteq C([a, b]) \subseteq L^2(a, b)$

$C([a, b]) = \{ \text{all (real) continuous functions on } [a, b] \}$.

Best approximation / Least-squares approximation

Given $f \in L^2(a, b)$ and $n \geq 0$ (integer). Find

$$p \in \mathcal{P}_n \text{ s.t. } \|p - f\| = \min_{q \in \mathcal{P}_n} \|q - f\|$$

Solution

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + \dots + a_n x^n$$

$$\langle p, x^j \rangle = \langle f, x^j \rangle \quad (j=0, 1, \dots, n)$$

$$G a = f \quad G = G(1, x, \dots, x^n) = \left[\langle x^i, x^j \rangle \right]_{i,j=0}^n$$

$$a = \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} \quad f = \begin{bmatrix} \langle f, x^0 \rangle \\ \langle f, x^1 \rangle \\ \vdots \\ \langle f, x^n \rangle \end{bmatrix}$$

G is symmetric positive definite. \Rightarrow unique sol'n a .

i.e., unique best approximation p .

Now, let's think about replacing $1, x, \dots, x^n, \dots$ by orthonormal polynomials $Q_0(x), Q_1(x), Q_2(x), \dots$ such that $\deg Q_n = n$ (exactly).

Then $P_n = \text{span} \{Q_0, Q_1, \dots, Q_n\}$

$$p(x) = b_0 Q_0(x) + b_1 Q_1(x) + \dots + b_n Q_n(x)$$

$$\langle p, Q_j \rangle = \langle f, Q_j \rangle \Rightarrow \boxed{b_j = \langle f, Q_j \rangle, j=0, 1, \dots, n}$$

$$G = I.$$

We can use the Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process to obtain Q_0, Q_1, Q_2, \dots starting from $1, x, x^2, \dots$.

$$1 \rightarrow Q_0 = \frac{1}{\|1\|} 1$$

$$\text{span}\{Q_0\} = P_0 = \text{span}\{1\}$$

$$1, x \rightarrow Q_1 \quad \langle Q_i, Q_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$$

$$\text{span}\{Q_0, Q_1\} = P_1 = \text{span}\{1, x\}$$

$$1, x, x^2 \rightarrow Q_2 \quad \langle Q_i, Q_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$$

$$\text{span}\{Q_0, Q_1, Q_2\} = P_2 = \text{span}\{1, x, x^2\}$$

You don't need to normalize it!

Definition We call a sequence of polynomials $Q_0, Q_1, Q_2, \dots, Q_n, \dots$ orthogonal polynomials in $L^2(a, b)$ if

(1) $\deg Q_n = n \quad (n=0, 1, 2, \dots)$

(2) They are orthogonal w.r.t. the inner product in $L^2(a, b)$.

Note that (1) $\Rightarrow P_n = \text{span}\{Q_0, Q_1, \dots, Q_n\}$.

Note also that uniqueness is up to constant multiplication. [This requires a proof.]

Theorem Let $\{Q_n\}_0^\infty$ be orthogonal polynomials in $L^2(a,b)$.

(1) Let $\tilde{Q}_n = c_n Q_n$ so that $\tilde{Q}_n(x)$ has the leading coefficient 1. Then

$$\|\tilde{Q}_n\| = \min_{\tilde{Q} \in \mathcal{P}_{n-1}} \|1 - x^n\|.$$

(2) \tilde{Q}_n is unique.

(3) Each Q_n ($n \geq 1$) has exactly n distinct roots in (a,b) .

PF (1) $\tilde{Q}_n = x^n - \tilde{P}_{n-1}$ $\tilde{P}_{n-1} \in \mathcal{P}_{n-1}$
 $x^n - \tilde{P}_{n-1} \perp \mathcal{P}_{n-1}$ since $\tilde{Q}_n \perp Q_0, Q_1, \dots, Q_{n-1}$
 So, $\|\tilde{Q}_n\| = \|x^n - \tilde{P}_{n-1}\| = \min_{\tilde{Q} \in \mathcal{P}_{n-1}} \|x^n - \tilde{Q}\|.$

(2) By (1).

(3). By induction $\int_a^b Q_n(x) Q_0 dx = 0$
 $\Rightarrow Q_n$ changes sign once (at least).

$$\text{If } Q_n(x) = (x-x_1) \dots (x-x_k) p(x)$$

$$a < x_1 < \dots < x_k < b \quad \text{deg } p = n-k.$$

Then consider $\int_a^b Q_n(x) p(x) (x-x_1) \dots (x-x_k) dx = 0.$
Q.E.D.

Legendre Polynomials

Legendre Polynomials

Definition $P_n(x) = \frac{1}{2^n n!} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} [(x^2-1)^n]$, $n=0, 1, 2, \dots$

$\{P_n\}$ are orthogonal polynomials in $L^2(-1, 1)$, normalized by
 $P_n(1) = 1$ ($n=0, 1, 2, \dots$).

$$P_0(x) = 1$$

$$P_1(x) = x$$

$$P_2(x) = \frac{3}{2}x^2 - \frac{1}{2}$$

$$P_3(x) = \frac{5}{2}x^3 - \frac{3}{2}x$$

$$P_4(x) = \frac{35}{8}x^4 - \frac{15}{4}x^2 + \frac{3}{8}$$

.....

Theorem (Properties of Legendre Polynomials)

(1) Orthogonality:

$$\int_{-1}^1 P_m(x) P_n(x) dx = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } m \neq n, \\ \frac{2}{2n+1} & \text{if } m = n. \end{cases}$$

(2) Recurrence

$$P_0(x) = 1$$

$$P_1(x) = x$$

$$(n+1)P_{n+1}(x) - (2n+1)xP_n(x) + nP_{n-1}(x) = 0$$

$(n=1, 2, \dots)$

(3) Zeros. For each $n \geq 1$, $P_n(x)$ has n distinct roots in $(-1, 1)$.

(4) $P_n(1) = (-1)^n P_n(-1) = 1$ ($n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$)

(5) $P_n(x)$ satisfies

$$(1-x^2)P_n''(x) - 2xP_n'(x) + n(n+1)P_n(x) = 0.$$

Some applications

Least-squares approximation.

Let $f \in L^2(-1, 1)$.

There exists a unique $P_n \in \mathcal{P}_n$ such that

$$\|P_n - f\| = \min_{g \in \mathcal{P}_n} \|g - f\|.$$

$$P_n = a_0 P_0 + a_1 P_1 + \dots + a_n P_n$$

Legendre polynomials

Gram matrix $G(P_0, \dots, P_n) =$

$$\text{So, } \begin{bmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_n \end{bmatrix} = \sum_{j=0}^n \langle P_j, P_j \rangle^{-1} \langle f, P_j \rangle$$

$\begin{bmatrix} \langle P_0, P_0 \rangle & & & \\ & \langle P_1, P_1 \rangle & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \langle P_n, P_n \rangle \end{bmatrix}_{(n+1) \times (n+1)}$
diagonal.

$$P_n = \sum_{j=0}^n \frac{\langle f, P_j \rangle}{\langle P_j, P_j \rangle} P_j$$

Numerical integration

Roots of $P_n(x)$.