

Comment. Our choice of inner product $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_a^b f(t)g(t)dt$ for (square-integrable) functions on $[a, b]$ gives rise to the norm $\|f\| = (\int_a^b f(t)^2 dt)^{1/2}$. This is known as the L^2 -norm (and often written as $\|f\|_2$).

It is the continuous analog of the usual Euclidean norm $\|v\| = (v_1^2 + v_2^2 + \dots)^{1/2}$ (known as ℓ^2 -norm).

There do exist other norms to measure the magnitude of vectors, such as the ℓ_1 -norm $\|v\|_1 = |v_1| + |v_2| + \dots$ or, more generally, for $p \geq 1$, the ℓ_p -norms $\|v\|_p = (|v_1|^p + |v_2|^p + \dots)^{1/p}$.

Likewise, for functions, we have the L^p -norms $\|f\|_p = (\int_a^b f(t)^p dt)^{1/p}$.

Only in the case $p = 2$ do these norms come from an inner product. That's a mathematical (as opposed to geometric) reason why we especially care about that case.

Example 188. Find the best approximation of $f(x) = e^x$ on the interval $[0, 1]$ using a function of the form $y = ax + b$.

Solution. To find an orthogonal basis for $\text{span}\{1, x\}$, following Gram-Schmidt, we compute

$$x - \left(\begin{matrix} \text{projection of} \\ x \text{ onto } 1 \end{matrix} \right) = x - \frac{\langle x, 1 \rangle}{\langle 1, 1 \rangle} 1 = x - \frac{1}{2}.$$

Hence, $1, x - \frac{1}{2}$ is an orthogonal basis for $\text{span}\{1, x\}$.

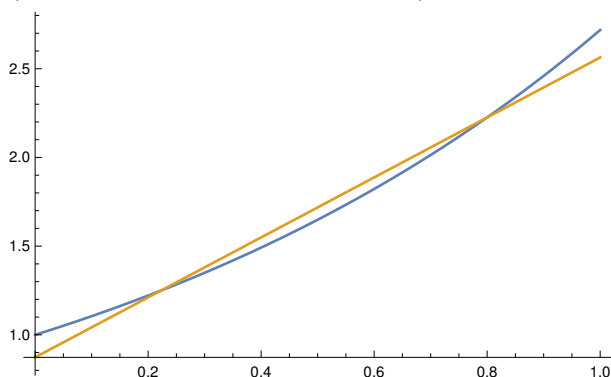
The orthogonal projection of $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ onto $\text{span}\{1, x\} = \text{span}\left\{1, x - \frac{1}{2}\right\}$ therefore is

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\langle f, 1 \rangle}{\langle 1, 1 \rangle} 1 + \frac{\langle f, x - \frac{1}{2} \rangle}{\langle x - \frac{1}{2}, x - \frac{1}{2} \rangle} \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right) &= \int_0^1 f(t) dt + \frac{\int_0^1 f(t) \left(t - \frac{1}{2}\right) dt}{\int_0^1 \left(t - \frac{1}{2}\right)^2 dt} \left(x - \frac{1}{2}\right) \\ &= \int_0^1 f(t) dt + (12x - 6) \int_0^1 f(t) \left(t - \frac{1}{2}\right) dt. \end{aligned}$$

In our case, this best approximation is

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^1 e^t dt + (12x - 6) \int_0^1 e^t \left(t - \frac{1}{2}\right) dt &= [e^t]_0^1 + (12x - 6) \left[e^t \left(t - \frac{3}{2}\right) \right]_0^1 \\ &= e - 1 + (12x - 6) \left(\frac{3}{2} - \frac{e}{2} \right) \\ &= 4e - 10 + (18 - 6e)x. \end{aligned}$$

(Here, we used integration by parts.) The plot below confirms how good this linear approximation is:



11.2 Orthogonal polynomials

Let us think about the space of all polynomials (with real coefficients). On that space, we consider the dot product

$$\langle p_1, p_2 \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 p_1(t)p_2(t)dt. \quad (1)$$

Comment. That dot product is useful if we are thinking about the polynomials as functions on $[-1, 1]$ only. You can, of course, consider any other interval and you will obtain a shifted version of what we get here.

Example 189. (homework) Are $1, x, x^2, \dots$ orthogonal (with respect to the inner product (1))?

Solution. Since $\langle x^r, x^s \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 t^r t^s dt = \int_{-1}^1 t^{r+s} dt$, we find that $\langle x^r, x^s \rangle = \begin{cases} \frac{2}{r+s+1}, & \text{if } r+s \text{ is even,} \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$

Hence, if $r+s$ is odd, then the monomials x^r and x^s are orthogonal. On the other hand, if $r+s$ is even, then x^r and x^s are not orthogonal.

Example 190. Use Gram-Schmidt to produce an orthogonal basis p_0, p_1, p_2, \dots for the space of polynomials with the dot product (1). Compute p_0, p_1, p_2, p_3, p_4 .

Instead of normalizing these polynomials, **standardize** them so that $p_n(1) = 1$.

Solution. We construct an orthogonal basis p_0, p_1, p_2, \dots from $1, x, x^2, \dots$ as follows:

- Starting with 1 , we find $p_0(x) = 1$.

For future reference, let us note that $\|p_0\|^2 = \int_{-1}^1 1 dx = 2$.

- Starting with x , Gram-Schmidt produces $x - \left(\begin{smallmatrix} \text{projection of} \\ x \text{ onto } p_0 \end{smallmatrix} \right) = x - \frac{\langle x, p_0 \rangle}{\langle p_0, p_0 \rangle} p_0 = x - \int_{-1}^1 t dt = x$.

Again, that's already standardized, so that $p_1(x) = x$.

Comment. The previous problem already told us that x is orthogonal to 1 .

For future reference, let us note that $\|p_1\|^2 = \int_{-1}^1 t^2 dt = \frac{2}{3}$.

- Starting with x^2 , Gram-Schmidt produces $x^2 - \left(\begin{smallmatrix} \text{projection of } x^2 \\ \text{onto span}\{p_0, p_1\} \end{smallmatrix} \right) = x^2 - \frac{\langle x^2, p_0 \rangle}{\langle p_0, p_0 \rangle} p_0 - \frac{\langle x^2, p_1 \rangle}{\langle p_1, p_1 \rangle} p_1$
 $= x^2 - \frac{1}{2} \int_{-1}^1 t^2 dt - \frac{x}{2/3} \int_{-1}^1 t^3 dt = x^2 - \frac{1}{3}$.

Hence, standardizing, $p_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(3x^2 - 1)$.

Comment. The previous problem told us that x^2 is orthogonal to x (but not to 1).

- (homework)** Continuing, we find $p_3(x) = \frac{1}{2}(5x^3 - 3x)$ and $p_4(x) = \frac{1}{8}(35x^4 - 30x^2 + 3)$.

Comment. These famous polynomials are known as the **Legendre polynomials**. The Legendre polynomial p_n is an even function if n is even, and an odd function if n is odd (can you explain why?!).

An explicit formula is $p_n(x) = 2^{-n} \sum_{k=0}^n \binom{n}{k}^2 (x+1)^k (x-1)^{n-k}$.

For instance, $p_2(x) = \frac{1}{4}((x-1)^2 + 2^2(x-1)(x+1) + (x+1)^2) = \frac{1}{2}(3x^2 - 1)$

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Legendre_polynomials

Comment. Legendre polynomials are an example of **orthogonal polynomials**. Each choice of dot product gives rise to a family of such orthogonal polynomials.

https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Orthogonal_polynomials

Comment. It is also particularly natural to consider the dot product (1), where the integral is from 0 to 1 . In that case, we obtain what's known as the shifted Legendre polynomials $\tilde{p}_n(x) = p_n(2x - 1)$.