



Vectors



Fall 2025 

(October – December Virtual Internship)

At the end of the session the students or candidates should be able to understand and work with:



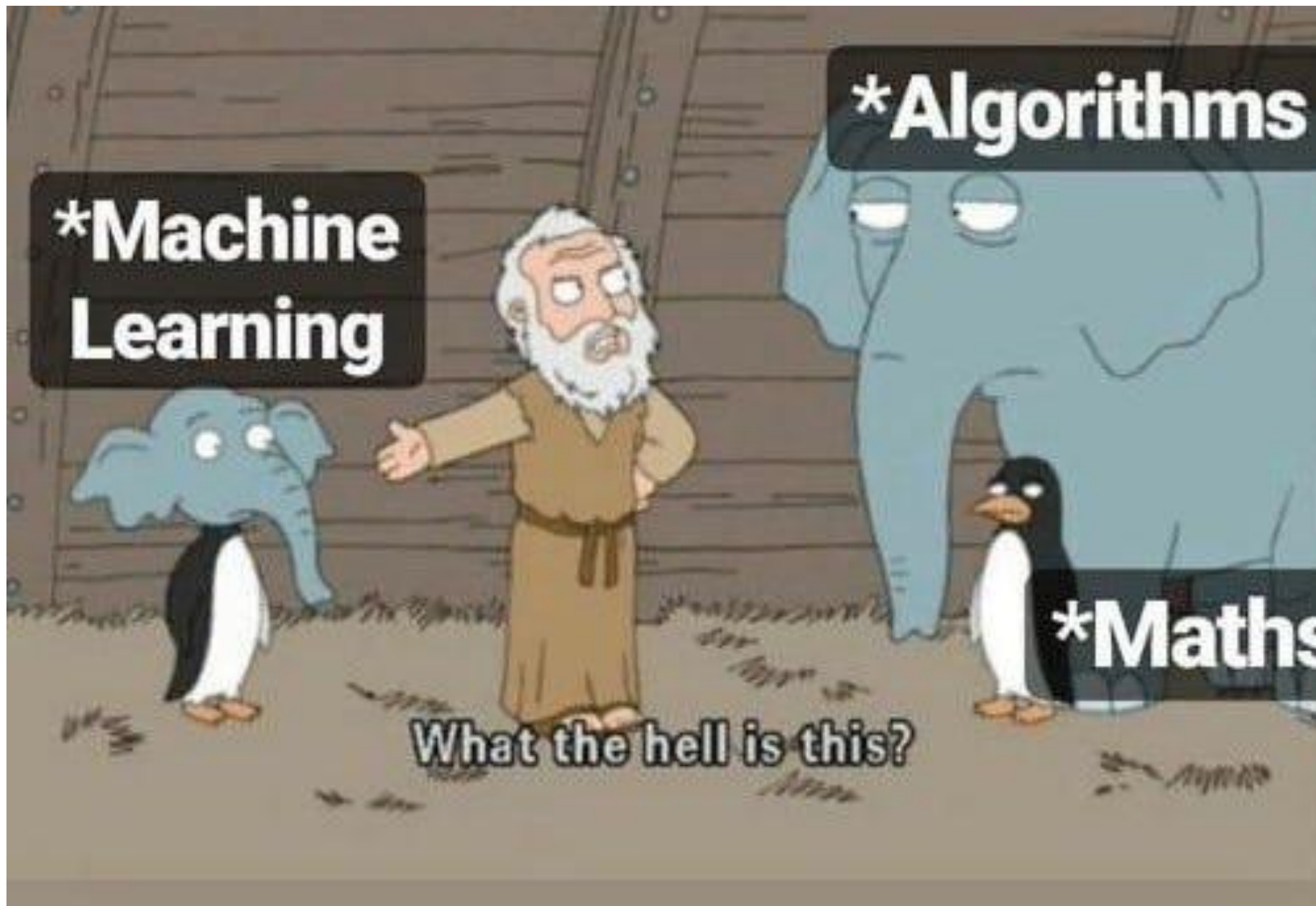
- Vector spaces
- Basis
 - Linear combination and independence
 - Spans of vectors
 - Bases
 - Finite dimensional vectors spaces
 - Why bases so important
 - The existences of bases
 - Sub spaces

***Machine Learning**

***Algorithms**

***Maths**

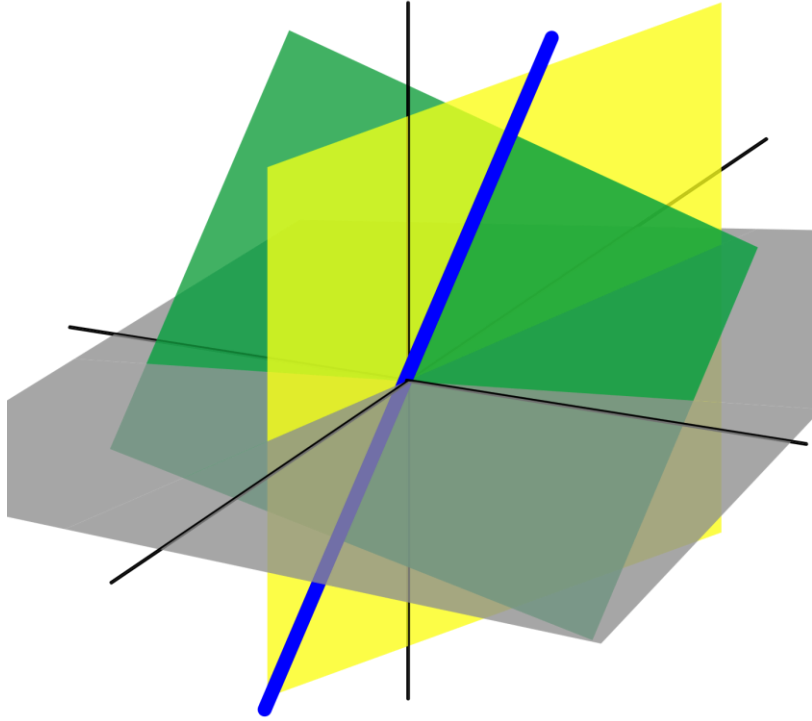
What the hell is this?





- Mathematics of machine learning rests upon three pillars:
 - linear algebra
 - calculus
 - probability theory
- Linear algebra describes how to **represent and manipulate data**; calculus helps us **fit the models**; while **probability theory helps interpret them**.

Why Linear Algebra



- Linear algebra is essential to forming a **complete** understanding of machine learning.
- The techniques from this discipline belong to a shared collection of algorithm widely used in **artificial intelligence**.

- Its properties and methods allow for faster computation of complex systems and extraction of hidden relationships in sets of data.

Notation

- $\mathbb{Z}, \mathbb{N}, \mathbb{Q}, \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}$ denote, respectively, the **integers**, the **natural numbers (nonnegative integers)**, the **rational numbers**, the **real numbers**, and the **complex numbers**.
- $\sum_{i=1}^n a_i = a_1 + a_2 + \cdots + a_n$, $\prod_{i=1}^n a_i = a_1 a_2 \cdots a_n$, are used for the sum and product of the quantities a_1, \dots, a_n

What is a Vector

- In a simple term, *a vector is a list of numbers where the position of each item in this structure matters.*
- *A column vector* consists of a finite number of real numbers, known as its entries, arranged in a vertical column.

□ Given a position integer $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, the set of all vectors with n entries is denoted by \mathbb{R}^n .

□ Examples of vectors in \mathbb{R}^3 :

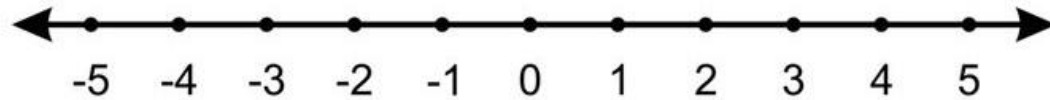
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \pi \\ \sqrt{2} \\ -\frac{4}{7} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 3.14 \\ 1.41 \\ -.57 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

□ In general, a vector $\boldsymbol{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ has the form: $\boldsymbol{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}$,

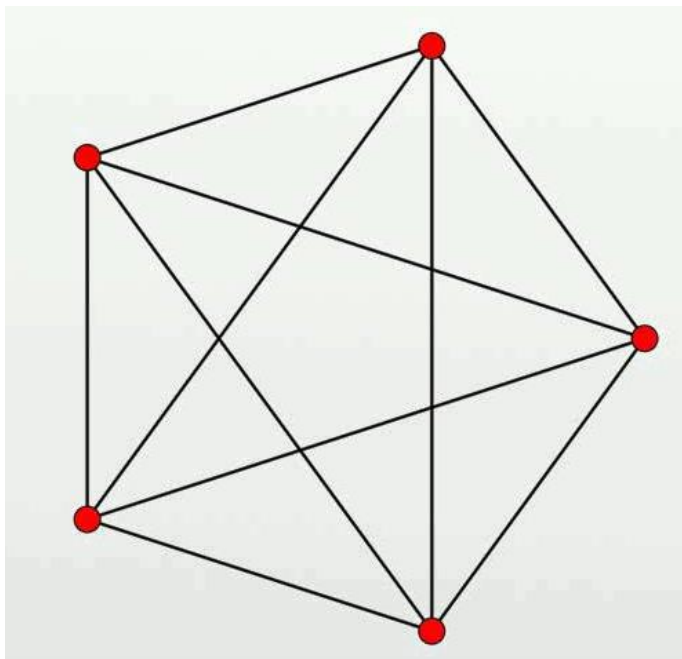
where $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}$.

□ Two vectors are equal, $\boldsymbol{v} = \boldsymbol{w}$, if and only if they have the same number of entries, so $\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ for some $0 < n \in \mathbb{N}$, and all their entries are equal: $v_i = w_i, i = 1, \dots, n$.

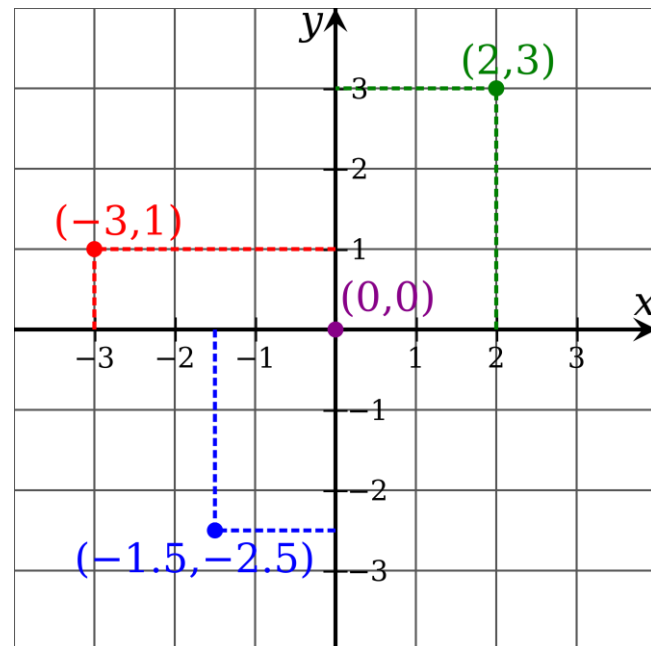
- The set \mathbb{R}^n is known as n –
dimensional Euclidean space, which forms the basic
setting for Euclidean geometry
- $\mathbb{R}^1 \simeq \mathbb{R}$ can be identified as the real line;
- \mathbb{R}^2 is the two-dimensional Euclidean plane;
- \mathbb{R}^3 can be identified with three-dimensional space



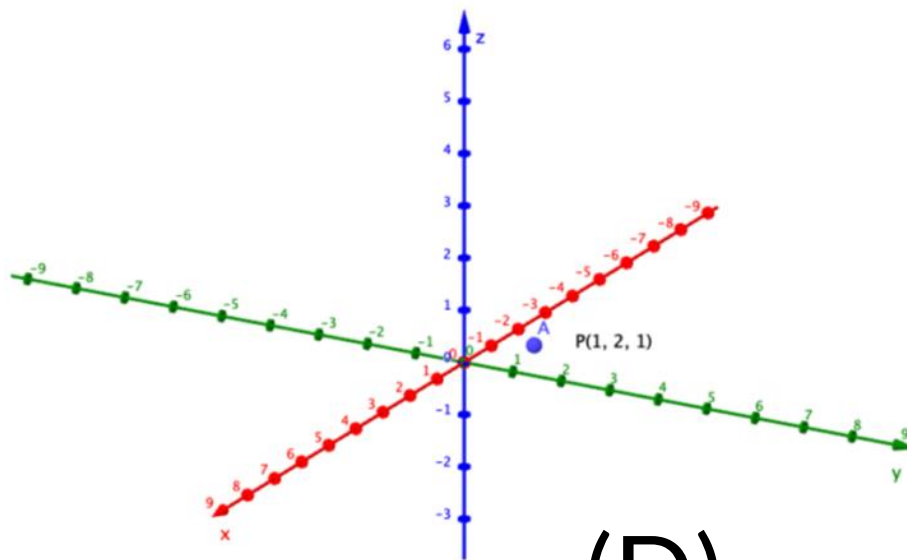
(A)



(B)



(C)



(D)

- ❑ A *row vector* contains a finite number of real numbers arranged in a horizontal row.
- ❑ ***Column vectors*** are the more important of the two.
- ❑ The operation of converting a column vector into a row vector, and vice versa, is known as the ***transpose***.
- ❑ It is denoted with a *T* superscript.

$$\begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}^T = (v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)$$

$$(v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n)^T = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{pmatrix}.$$

Transposing twice takes you back to where you started:

$$(\boldsymbol{v}^T)^T$$

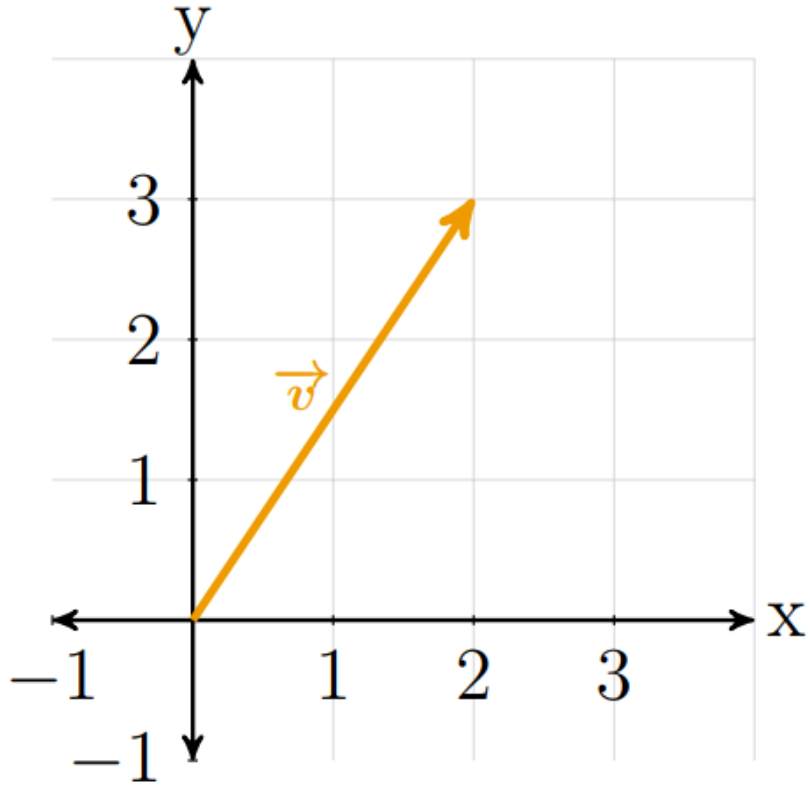
Example

If you are analysing the **height** and **weight** of a class of students, in this domain, a **two-dimensional vector** will represent each student.

$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 \\ v_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.64 \\ 64 \end{pmatrix}$$

v_1 represent height, v_2 represents weight;

□ In linear algebra, a vector is an arrow with a **direction** dictated by its coordinates.

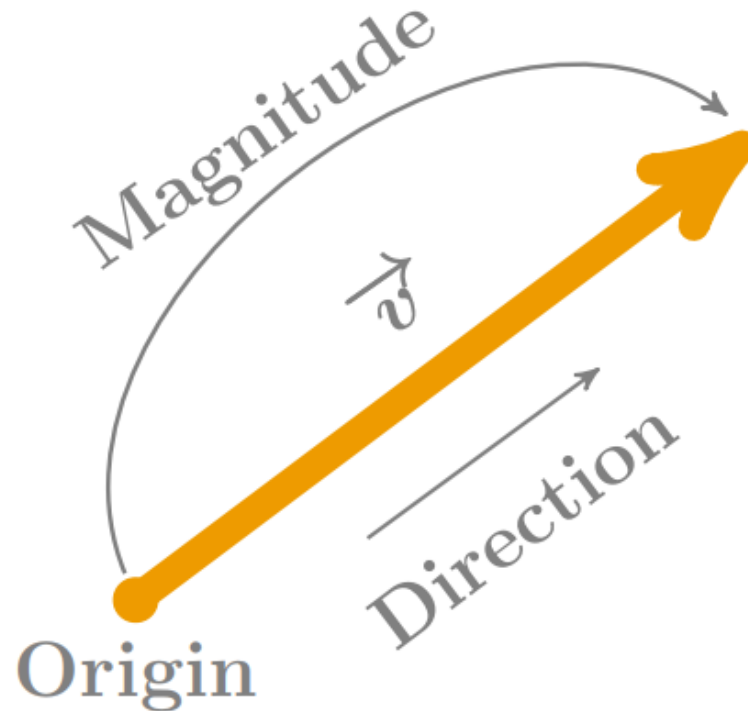


$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ❑ There is no limitation to the dimensions a vector can have:
- ❑ A **three-dimensional** vector, t can be represented as:

$$\vec{t} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

- ❑ Using abstract concept, a vector is an object that has both a direction and a magnitude.
- ❑ The starting point of a vector is called the **BASE** or **ORIGIN**.



❑ **Magnitude** is the size of the vector, and it is also a function of where it lands.

❑ For two vectors to be the same, their **directions** and **magnitudes** must be equal.

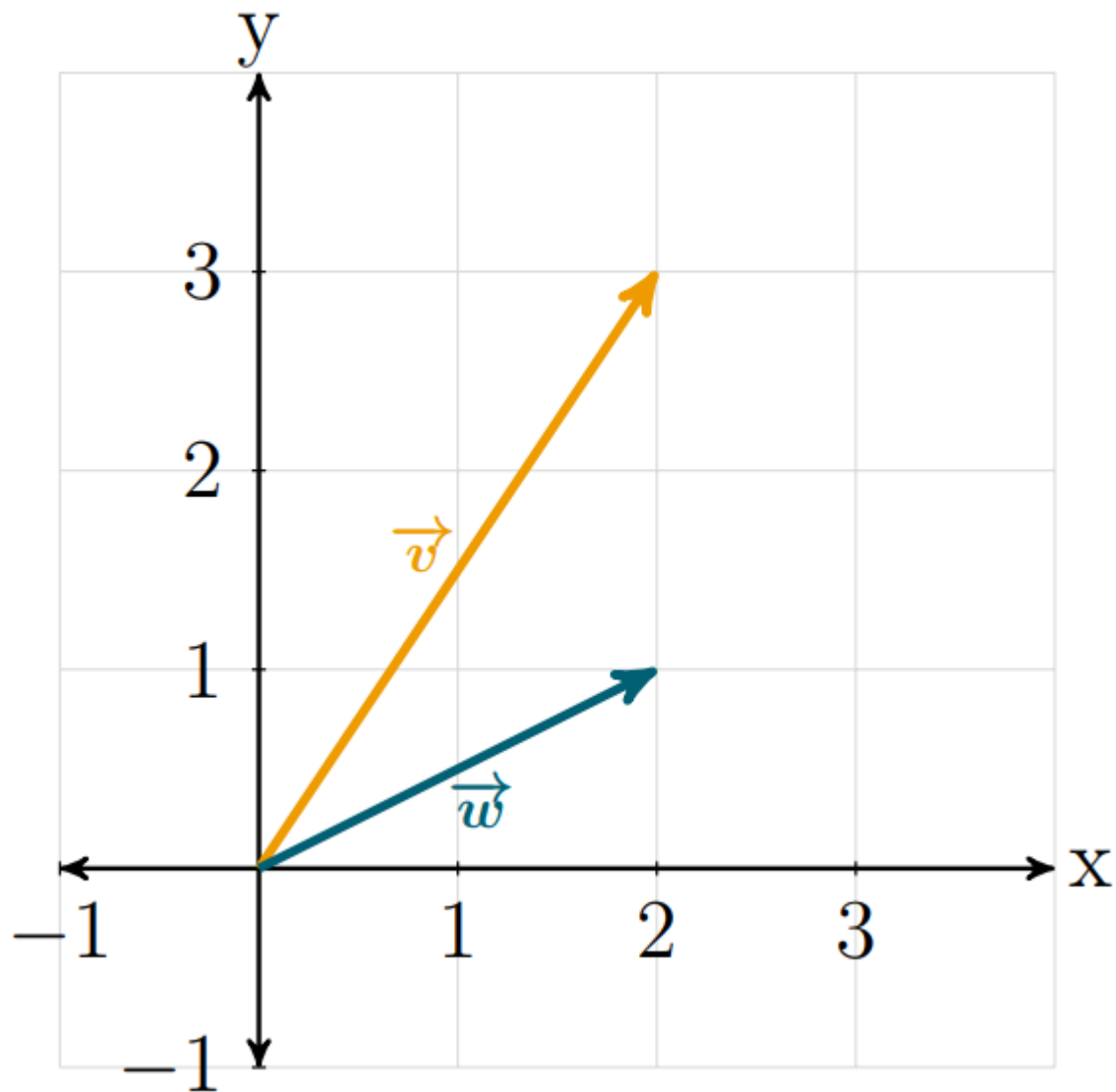
- ❑ Vectors alone are instrumental mathematical elements.
- ❑ They can also represent many things, such as **gravity, velocity, acceleration, and paths.**

□ When $n = 1$, a column vector $\boldsymbol{v} = (v_1) \in \mathbb{R}^1$ has a single entry.

□ Such a vector can be uniquely identified with the corresponding real number $v_1 \in \mathbb{R}$, and so $\mathbb{R}^1 \simeq \mathbb{R}$

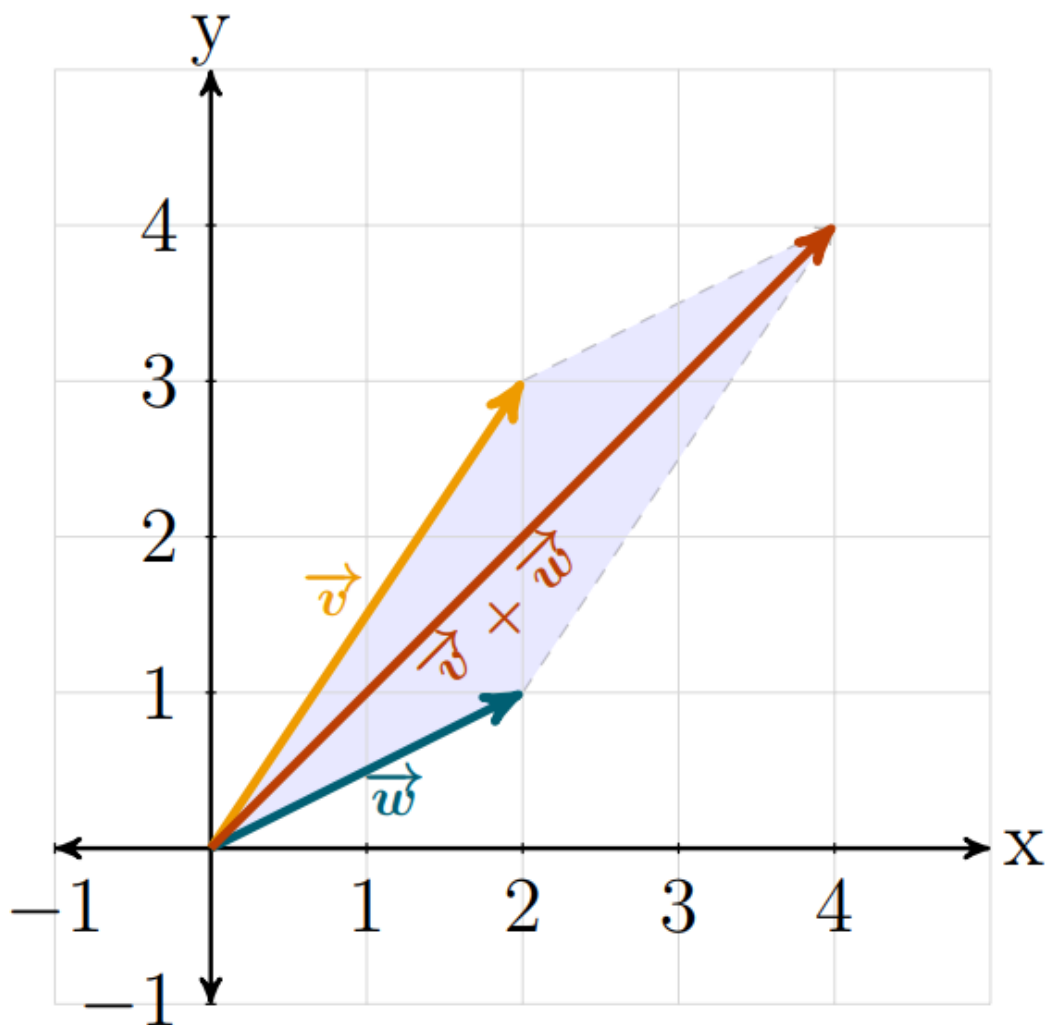
Vector Addition

□ Given two vector \vec{v} and \vec{w} , their sum, $\vec{v} + \vec{w}$ is translation from the edge of \vec{v} with the magnitude and direction of \vec{w} .



$$\vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{w} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{v} + \vec{w}$$



$$\vec{z} = \vec{v} + \vec{w}$$

$$\vec{z} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{z} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 + 2 \\ 3 + 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 4 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

Scalar Multiplication

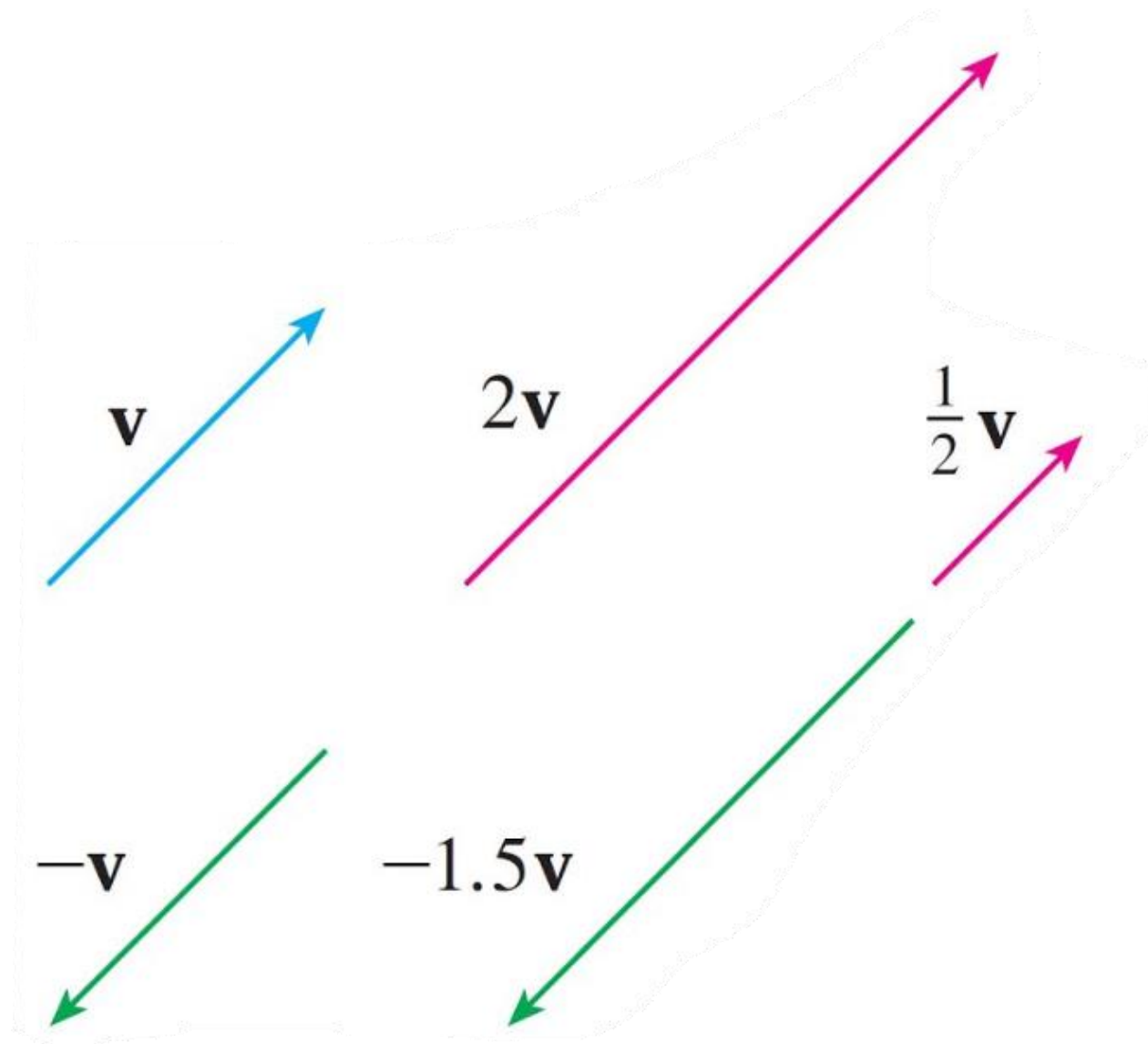
- ❑ A scalar can be any real number.
- ❑ A real number is any number you can think of.



$$\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$

There are four different outcomes when multiplying a vector by a scalar.

1. If $\lambda > 1$ the vector will keep the same direction but stretch
2. If $1 > \lambda > 0$ the vector will keep the same direction but shrink.
3. If $\lambda < -1$ the vector will change direction and stretch.
4. If $0 > \lambda > -1$ the vector will change direction and shrink.



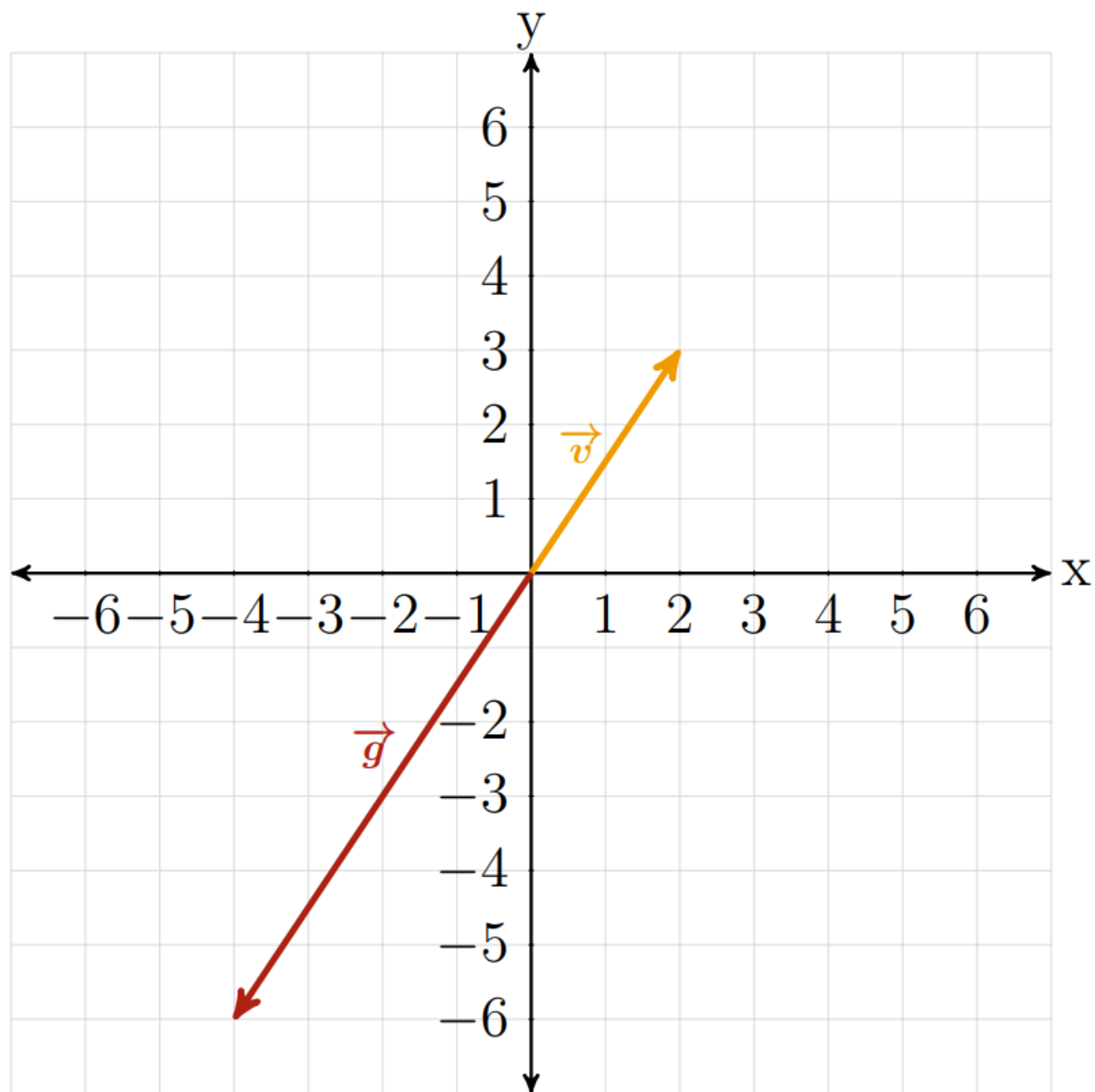
□ Multiplying a vector \vec{v} by a scalar λ can be defined by: $\lambda\vec{v}$

□ If we define a new vector \vec{g} such that:

$$\vec{g} = \lambda\vec{v} \text{ and } \lambda = -2$$

$$\vec{g} = -2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{g} = \begin{pmatrix} -4 \\ -6 \end{pmatrix}$$



The Vector Space

- A **vector space** is a fundamental concept that provides a formal framework for the study and manipulation of vectors.
- Vectors are entities can be **added** together and **multiplied** by scalars.

- ❑ A **vector space** is a structured set consisting of a carefully defined group of entities, known as vectors, which adhere to specific rules.
- ❑ Vector space is describe using: $(O, +, \times)$

- O is a non-empty set whose elements are called vectors.
- $+$ is a binary operation (vector addition) that takes two vectors from O and produces another vector in O .
- \times is an operation (scalar multiplication) that takes a scalar and a vector from O and produces another vector in O .

- If \vec{v} and \vec{w} are two vectors $\in O$ then $\vec{v} + \vec{w}$ must be in O
- $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\vec{v} \in O$ then $\lambda\vec{v}$ also needs to be in O .

Axioms of Vector Space

- Commutative property of addition:

$$\vec{v} + \vec{w} = \vec{w} + \vec{v}$$

- Associative property of addition:

$$\vec{v} + (\vec{w} + \vec{t}) = (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) + \vec{t}$$

- Associative property of addition:

$$\vec{v} + 0 = \vec{v}$$

- An inverse element exists:

$$\vec{v} + (-\vec{v}) = \vec{0}$$

- Scalars can be distributed across the members of an addition:

$$c(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = c\vec{v} + c\vec{w}$$

- Vector can be distributed to an addition of two scalars:

$$(c + d)\vec{v} = c\vec{v} + d\vec{v}$$

- The product of two scalars and an element is equivalent to one of the scalars being multiplied by the product of the other scalar and the element:

$$(cd)\vec{v} = c(d\vec{v})$$

- Multiplying an element by 1 just returns the same element:

$$1 \cdot \vec{v} = \vec{v}$$

A Two-dimension Vector Space (\mathbb{R}^2)

- This is the space formed by all of the vectors with two dimensions, whose elements are real numbers.
- Let's define two vectors \vec{v} and \vec{w} as being in \mathbb{R}^2 .
- Let's also define a scalar $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

□ If we multiply \vec{v} by λ we have:

$$\lambda \cdot \vec{v} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda \cdot v_1 \\ \lambda \cdot v_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

□ Multiplying a real number by a real number results in a new real number.

□ If we add \vec{v} and \vec{w} :

$$\vec{v} + \vec{w} = \begin{pmatrix} v_1 + w_1 \\ v_2 + w_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Subspaces

- ❑ The most important subsets of \mathbb{R}^n are those that **closed** under the operations of vector addition and scalar multiplication.
- ❑ They serve to generalize the geometric notions of points, line, and plane in two- and three-dimensional space.

□ A subspace of \mathbb{R}^n is a nonempty subset $\emptyset \neq V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ that satisfies.

- a) for every $\boldsymbol{v}, \boldsymbol{w} \in V$, the sum $\boldsymbol{v} + \boldsymbol{w} \in V$ and
- b) for every $\boldsymbol{v} \in V$ and every $c \in \mathbb{R}$, the scalar product $c\boldsymbol{v} \in V$

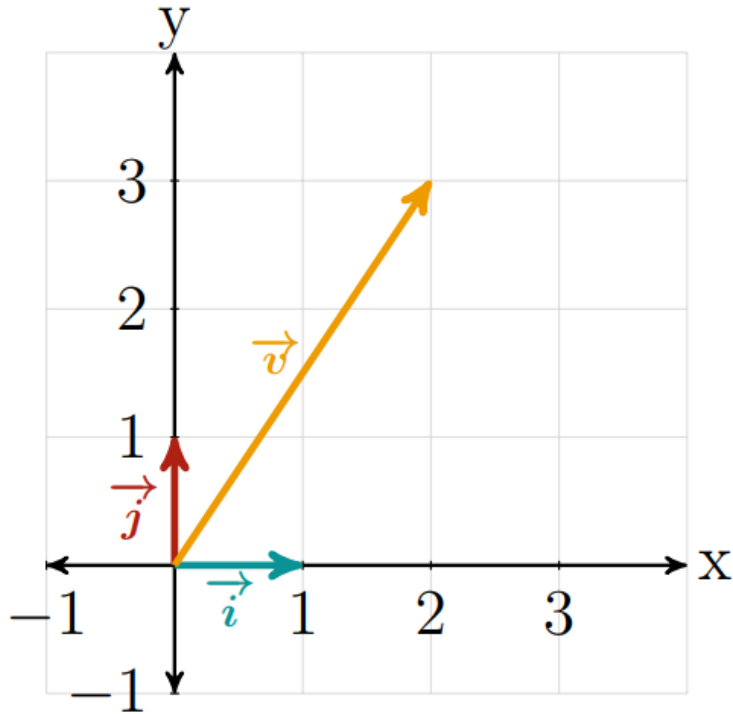
Span and Linear Independence

□ Linear means there are no curves, just *lines*, *planes*, or *hyper-planes*, depending on the dimensions that we are working in.

Example of linear combination

$$\alpha \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{where } \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$$

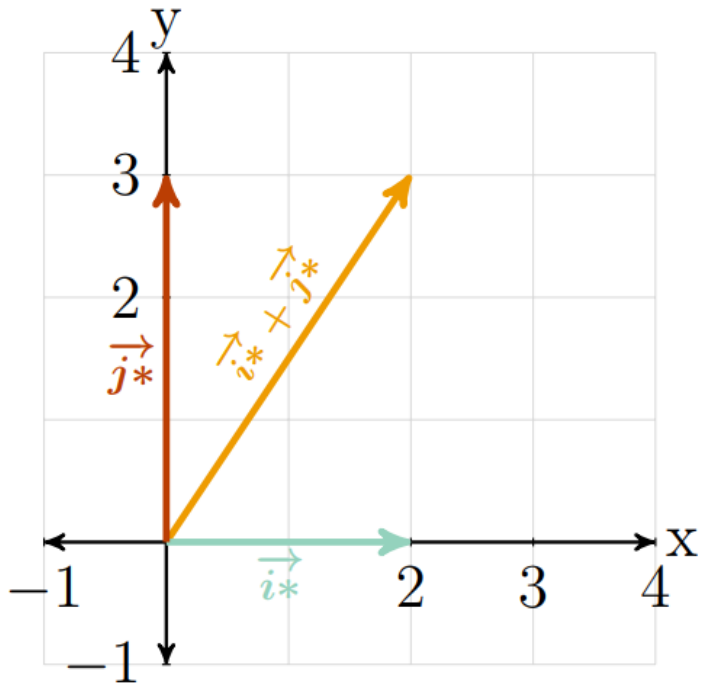
We name $(1 \ 0)^T$ as \vec{i} and $(0 \ 1)^T$ as \vec{j}



$$\vec{v} = (2, 3)^T$$

We can stretch \vec{i} by **two** units and then sum it to a **three** units stretched version of \vec{j} , the result will be equal to \vec{v} .

$$\vec{v} = 2 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + 3 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$



The scalars 2 and 3 can be replaced with α and β , where both of them are in \mathbb{R}

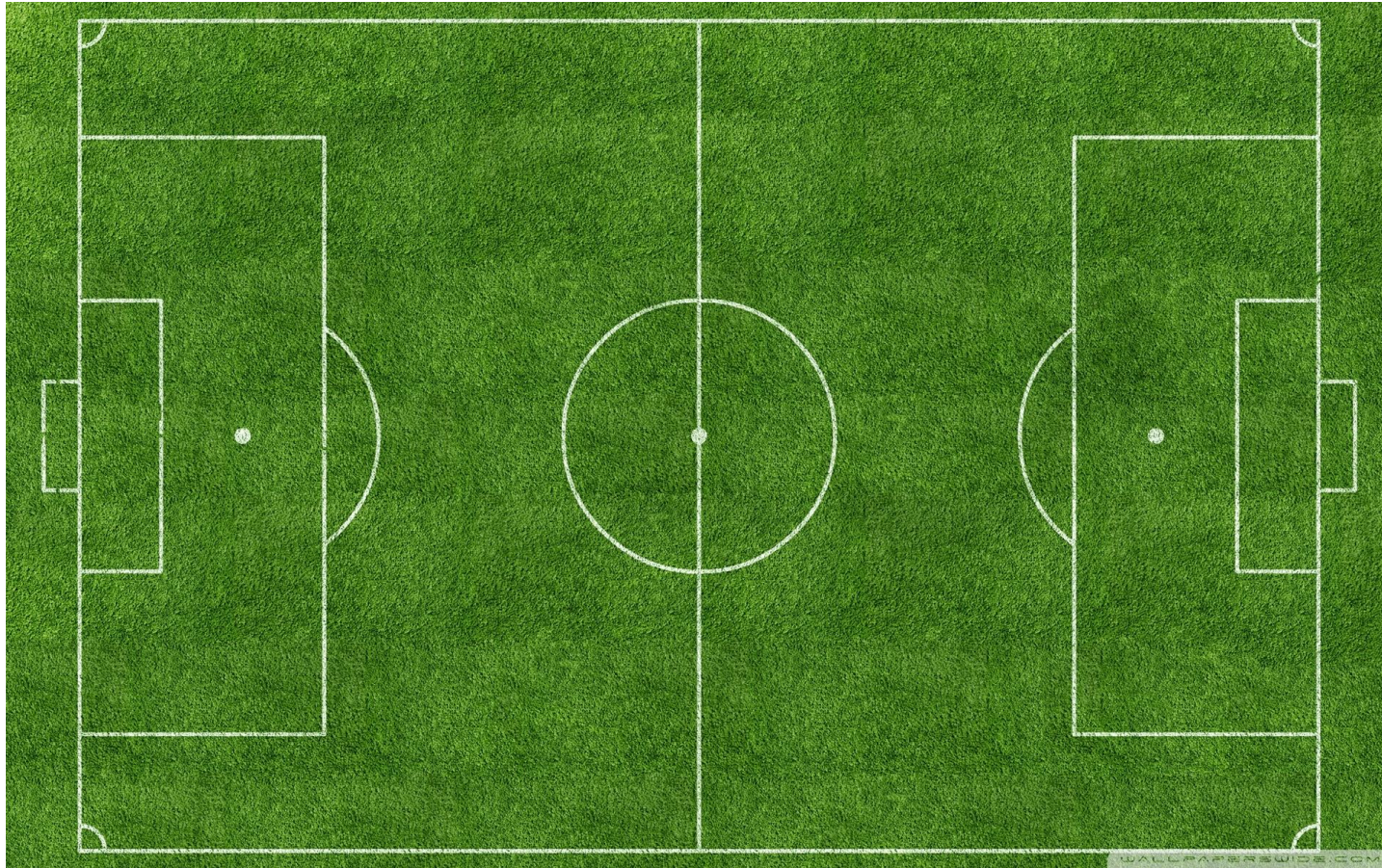
$$\alpha \cdot \vec{i} + \beta \cdot \vec{j}$$

$$\vec{v} = 2 \cdot \vec{i} + 3 \cdot \vec{j}$$

□ We can display all the vectors of the vector space \mathbb{R}^2 using $\alpha \cdot \vec{i} + \beta \cdot \vec{j}$

□ If I have the entire set of real numbers assigned to the scalars α and β , it means that if I add up the scaled version of \vec{i} and \vec{j} , I can get any vector within \mathbb{R}^2

- ❑ The vectors \vec{i} and \vec{j} are linearly independent.
- ❑ You can't get to \vec{j} via \vec{i} and vice versa.



□ Linear independent can be defined using the

equation: $c_1 \cdot \vec{v}_1 + c_2 \cdot \vec{v}_2 + \dots + c_n \cdot \vec{v}_n = 0$

□ The factors c_1, c_2, \dots, c_n are scalars or real numbers.

□ The v 's are set of vectors that belong to the space
are **linearly independent** if, and only if, the values for
the c 's that satisfy that equality are 0.

$$\alpha \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

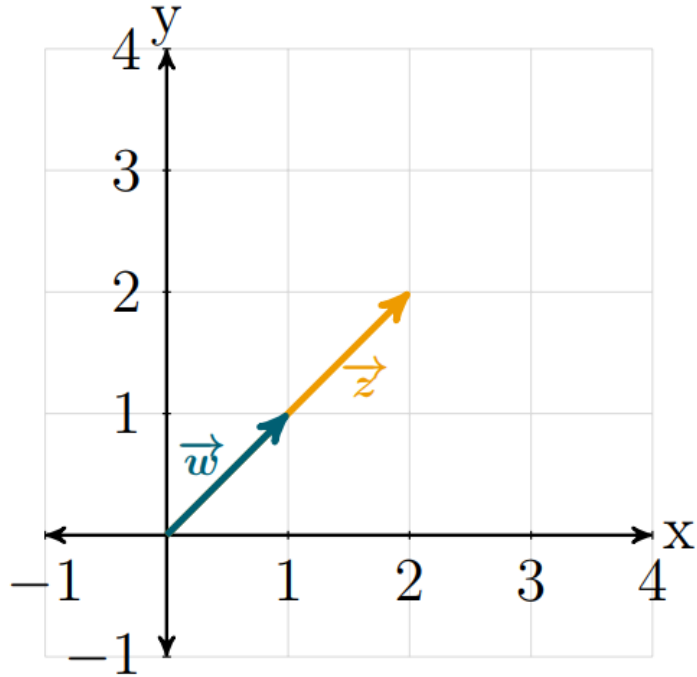
- ❑ The only way for the equality to be true is if both α and β are equal to zero.
- ❑ Therefore, \vec{i} and \vec{j} are **linearly independent**.

□ The vectors $v_1, \dots, v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are called linearly dependent if there exist scalars $c_1, \dots, c_k \in \mathbb{R}$, *not all zero*, such that:

$$c_1 \mathbf{v}_1 + \dots + c_k \mathbf{v}_k = \mathbf{0}$$

□ To check **linear independence**, one needs to show that the only linear combination that produces the zero vector $c_1 = \cdots = c_k = 0$ is the *one and only* solution to the vector equation.

□ Let's consider $\vec{w} = (1 \ 1)^T$ and $\vec{z} = (2 \ 2)^T$



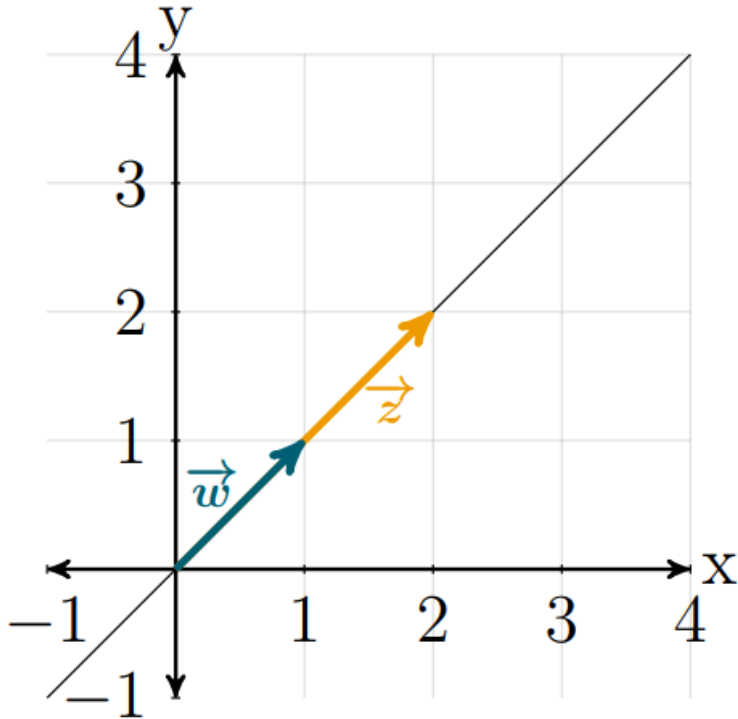
We can define a linear combination of these two vectors

$$\alpha \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \beta \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\vec{z} = 2 \cdot \vec{w}$$

We are not able to represent all of the vectors in the space using the two vectors, \vec{w} and \vec{z}

\vec{z} and \vec{w} linearly dependence



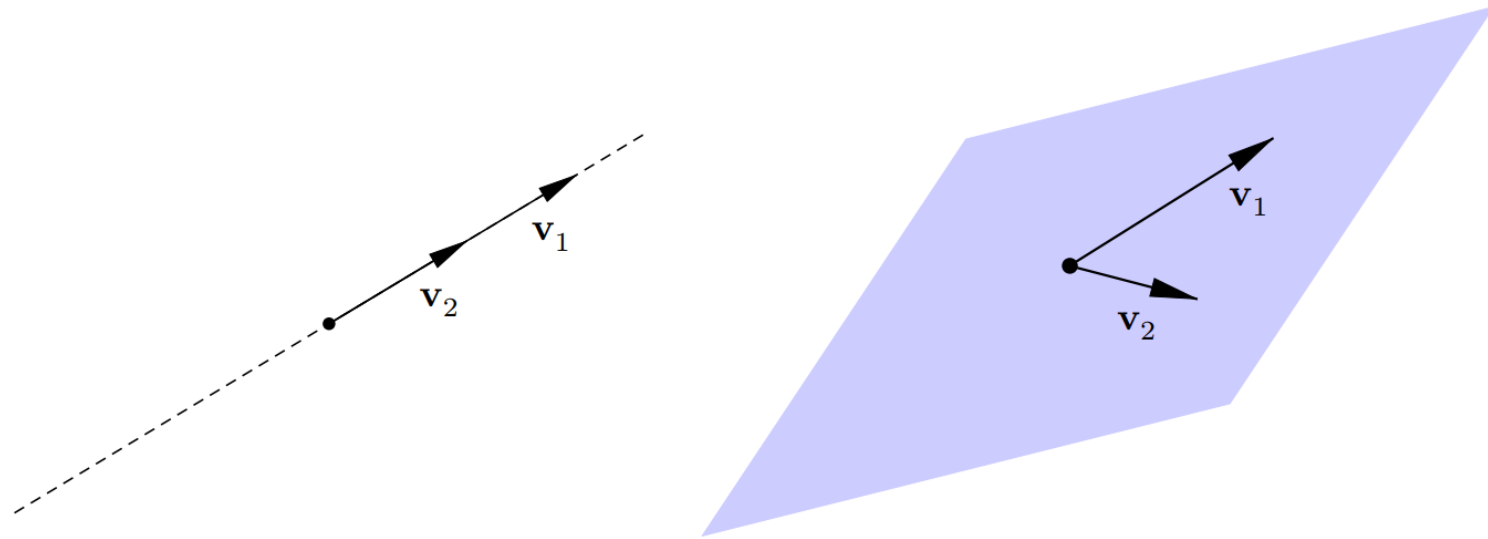
□ Two vectors $v, w \in V$ are **linearly dependent** if and only if they are parallel, meaning that one is a scalar multiple of the other.

□ All the vectors that result from a linear combination define the **span**.

□ The *span* of a finite collection of vectors $v_1, \dots, v_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the subset $V = \text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_k\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ consisting of all possible linear combinations for $c_1, \dots, c_k \in \mathbb{R}$

□ \vec{i} and \vec{j} span the entire vector space (**plane**) because we can get all the vectors.

□ The span of \vec{w} and \vec{z} is a **line**.



Basis and Dimension

□ A *basis* of a subspace $V \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a finite set of vectors

$v_1, \dots, v_k \in V$ that span

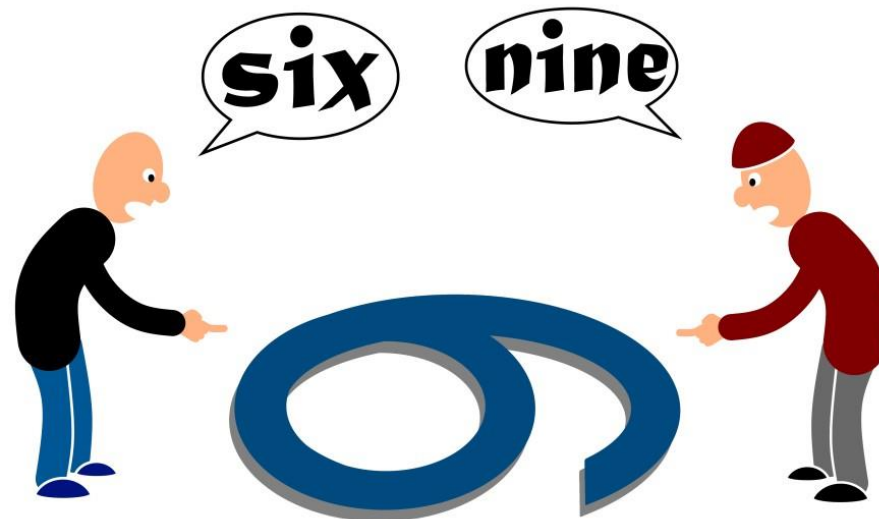
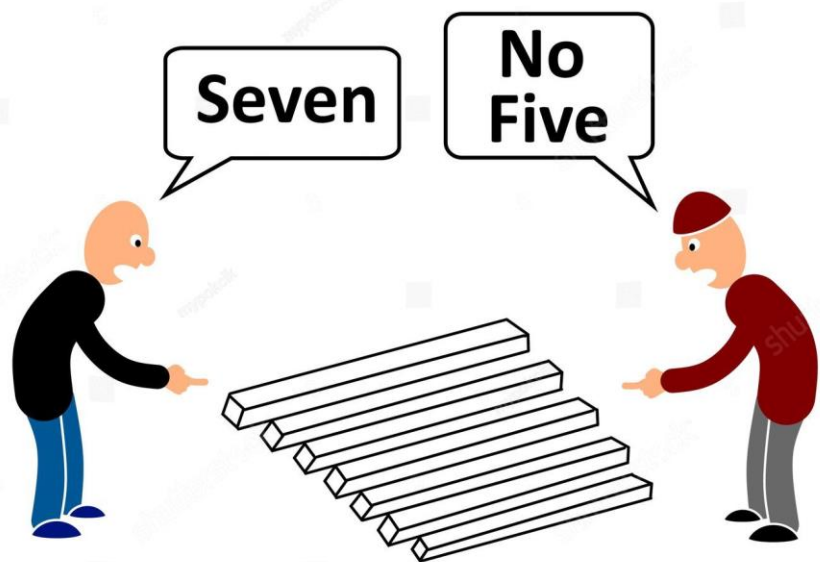
(a) spans V

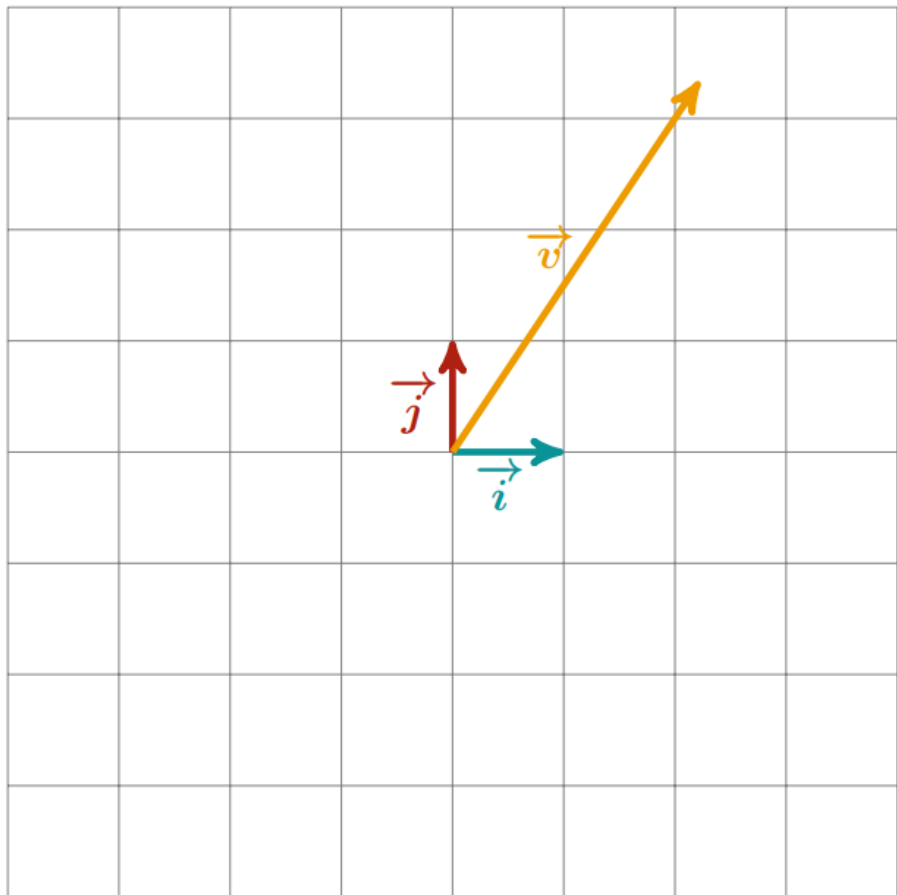
(b) Is linearly independent

□ For a set of vectors to be considered a basis of a vector space, these vectors need to be linearly independent, and their span has to be equal to the entire space.

□ \vec{i} and \vec{j} form a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .

- ❑ A vector space can have **more** than one basis.
- ❑ Different basis is the **perspective** from which we observe the same vector in different ways.



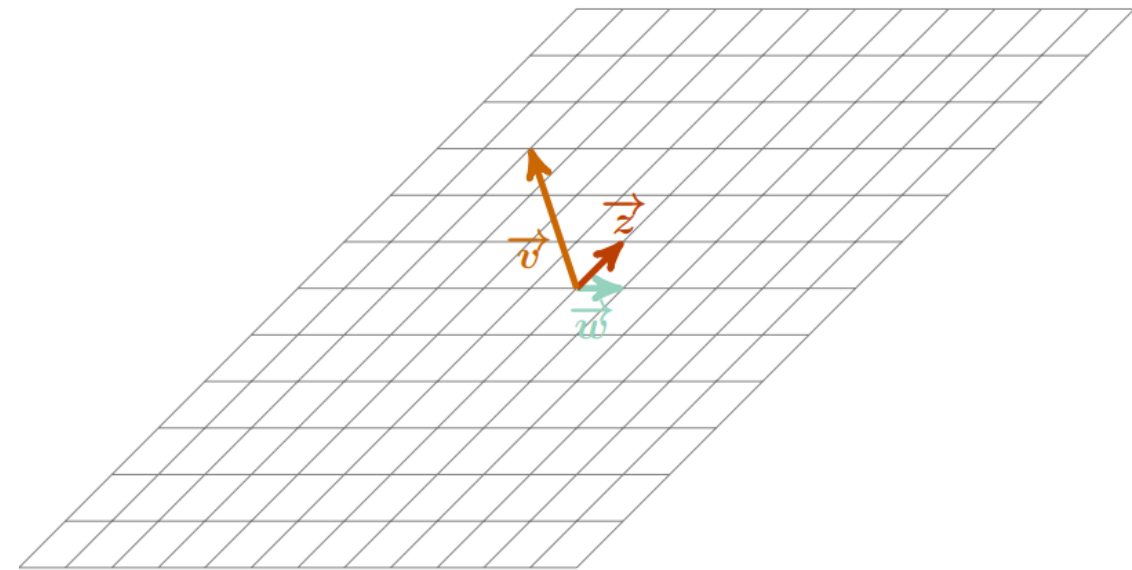


$$\vec{i} = (1 \quad 0)^T \quad \vec{j} = (0 \quad 1)^T$$

$$\vec{v} = (2 \quad 3)^T$$

$$\vec{v} = 2 \cdot \vec{i} + 3 \cdot \vec{j}$$

The grids represent out perspective or the basis, which is the way we observe \vec{v} on the basis formed by \vec{i} and \vec{j} .



Let's calculate the new coordinates of \vec{v} using the new basis above.

$$\vec{w} = (1 \ 0)^T \quad \vec{z} = (1 \ 1)^T$$

$$\vec{v} = (2 \ 3)^T$$

$$\vec{v} = v_1^* \cdot \vec{w} + v_2^* \cdot \vec{z}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix} = v_1^* \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + v_2^* \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Find v_1^* and v_2^*

□ The coordinates of \vec{v} in the new basis formed by \vec{w} and \vec{z} are $(-1, 3)^T$

$$\mathbf{v}_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \mathbf{v}_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix},$$

Wavelet basis plays an increasingly central role in modern signal and digital image processing.

Change of basis is very useful because you can find **properties** of vectors or data using a different basis or spaces, which allows for **faster** computation or even better results when dealing with machine learning models.

Application

We wish to predict the price of a house



- ❑ The dataset consists of two measurements: the **number of bedrooms** and the **number of bathrooms**.
- ❑ The vector $\vec{i} = (1, 0)^T$ will point in the directions where the number of bedrooms increases.
- ❑ The vector $\vec{j} = (0, 1)^T$ will point in the directions where the number of bathrooms increases.

Let's assume that:

- ❑ Houses with more rooms in total tend to have higher prices.
- ❑ When the number of bathrooms is the same or close to the number of bedrooms, there is increase in price.

Let's define new basis:

□ $\vec{i}^* = (1, 1)^T$ and $\vec{j}^* = (1, -1)^T$

□ The vector \vec{i}^* will represent the total number of rooms.

□ The vector \vec{j}^* displays the difference in number between bedrooms and bathrooms.

- We have a house with three bedrooms and two bathrooms.

$$\vec{w} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- Let's check it from a new perspective, the one described by the new basis, \vec{i}^* and \vec{j}^*

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{pmatrix} = w_1^* \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + w_2^* \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Find the values of w_1^* and w_2^*

Thank you

Thank you very much