

1. Vectors and Vector Spaces

Monday, January 2, 2023 5:35 AM

linear algebra \cong geometry in arbitrary dimension

Data?

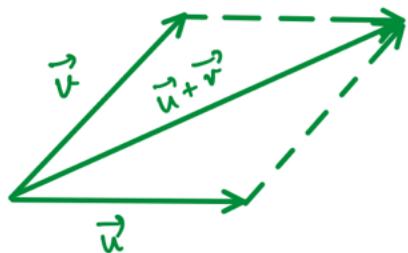
- ↳ Collection of data points
- ↳ To understand the structure of our data, we have to investigate the geometry of data points:
 - are they divided into clusters?
 - are they aligned?

Vector Spaces

Vectors:

2 fundamental operations:

- 1.) Add 2 vectors \vec{u} & \vec{v} to obtain another vector $\vec{u} + \vec{v}$



- 2) Multiply a vector \vec{u} by a scalar λ to get another vector $\lambda \cdot \vec{u}$.

Vector Spaces

A vector space consists of a set V (whose elements are called vectors) and two operations

$+$ and \cdot such that:

* The sum of two vectors is a vector:

$$\forall \vec{x}, \vec{y} \in V, \\ \vec{x} + \vec{y} \in V$$

* Multiplying a vector $\vec{x} \in V$ by a scalar

$$\lambda \in \mathbb{R} \text{ gives } \lambda \cdot \vec{x} \in V$$

* Operations $+$ and \cdot are "nice & compatible"

« Nice and compatible » ?

1. The vector sum is **commutative** and **associative**. For all $\vec{x}, \vec{y}, \vec{z} \in V$:

$$\vec{x} + \vec{y} = \vec{y} + \vec{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{x} + (\vec{y} + \vec{z}) = (\vec{x} + \vec{y}) + \vec{z}.$$

2. There exists a **zero vector** $\vec{0} \in V$ that verifies $\vec{x} + \vec{0} = \vec{x}$ for all $\vec{x} \in V$.

3. For all $\vec{x} \in V$, there exists $\vec{y} \in V$ such that $\vec{x} + \vec{y} = \vec{0}$. Such \vec{y} is called the **additive inverse** of \vec{x} and is written $-\vec{x}$.

4. Identity element for scalar multiplication: $1 \cdot \vec{x} = \vec{x}$ for all $\vec{x} \in V$.

5. **Distributivity**: for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ and all $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in V$,

$$(\alpha + \beta) \cdot \vec{x} = \alpha \cdot \vec{x} + \beta \cdot \vec{x} \quad \text{and} \quad \alpha \cdot (\vec{x} + \vec{y}) = \alpha \cdot \vec{x} + \alpha \cdot \vec{y}.$$

Scalars Vector split

6. Compatibility between scalar multiplication and the usual multiplication: for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ and all $\vec{x} \in V$, we have

$$\alpha \cdot (\beta \cdot \vec{x}) = (\alpha\beta) \cdot \vec{x}.$$



Example of Vector Spaces: Functions

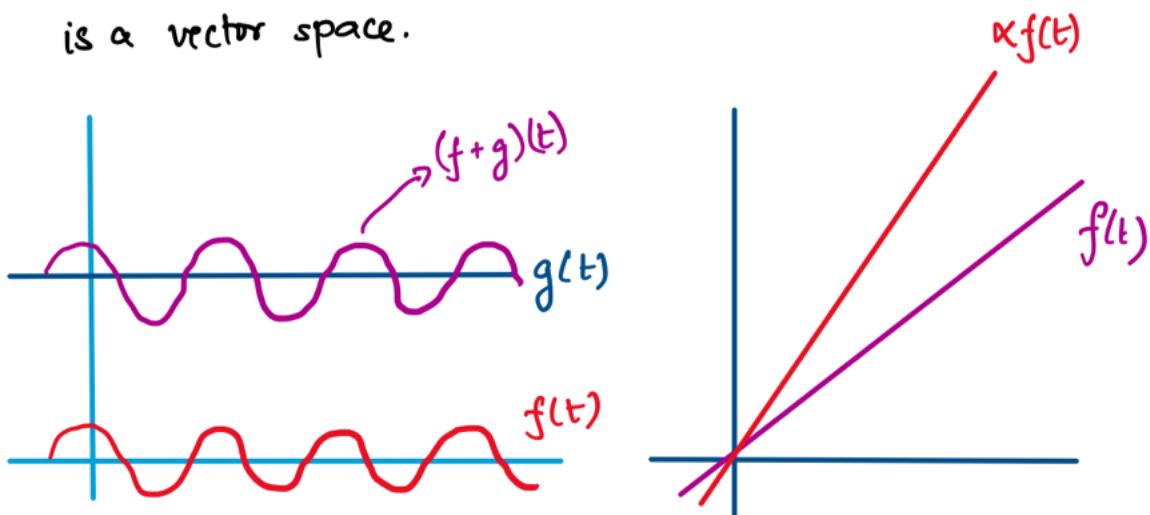
The set $V \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{f \mid f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$ of all functions from \mathbb{R} to itself

endowed by $+ \& \cdot$ defined by:

$$f+g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad \text{and} \quad t \rightarrow f(t) + g(t)$$

$$\alpha \cdot f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \quad t \rightarrow \alpha f(t)$$

is a vector space.



Example 3: random variables

Amp

The set of random variables on a given probability space Ω is a vector space:

If X and Y are two random variables and $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$, $X + Y$ and αX are also random variables.

Important to have this in mind when doing stats/probabilities!



Need?

* Geometric Intuition

Notion of length in \mathbb{R}^n is deeply connected to notion of variance of \mathbf{v} .

* Save time

Theorems that apply to vector spaces will be true for all examples seen above.

Subspaces

Definition:

We say that a non-empty subset S of a vector space V is a subspace if it is closed under addition and multiplication by a scalar, that is if :

1. for all $x, y \in S$ we have $x+y \in S$
2. for all $x \in S$ and all $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ we have $\alpha x \in S$.

Remark: a subspace is also a vector space.

Span & Linear Dependency

Linear combination

Let V be a vector space (think for instance $V = \mathbb{R}^n$).

Definition

We say that $y \in V$ is a *linear combination* of the vectors $x_1, \dots, x_k \in V$ if there exists $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$y = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i x_i = \alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_k x_k.$$

Remarks

- A linear combination is always a finite sum. *not an infinite number of $\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_k x_k$*
- If S is a subspace of V , then any linear combination of vectors x_1, \dots, x_k of S is also in S : *if x_1, \dots, x_k is in S then*
 $\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_k x_k \in S$, *for all $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$.*

« Subspaces are closed under linear combinations. »

If $x_1, \dots, x_k \in S$

then

$$\alpha_1 x_1 \in S$$

$$\alpha_2 x_2 \in S$$

:

$$\alpha_n x_n \in S$$

If $\alpha_1 x_1, \alpha_2 x_2, \dots, \alpha_n x_n \in S$,

then so does

$$\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n \in S$$

as S is a vector space

Hence subspaces are
closed under linear
combination

Let $x_1, \dots, x_k \in S$

and let y_1 & y_2 be linear combinations
of x_1, \dots, x_k

Then,

$$y_1 = \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \dots + \alpha_k x_k$$

$$y_2 = \beta_1 x_1 + \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k$$

$$\therefore y_1 + y_2 = (\alpha_1 + \beta_1) x_1 + (\alpha_2 + \beta_2) x_2 + \dots + (\alpha_k + \beta_k) x_k$$

Span

Definition

Let x_1, \dots, x_k be vectors of V . We define the *linear span* of x_1, \dots, x_k as the set of all linear combinations of these vectors:

$$\text{Span}(x_1, \dots, x_k) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \left\{ \alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_k x_k \mid \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R} \right\}.$$

2.2 Linear dependency

Definition

Vectors $x_1, \dots, x_k \in V$ are *linearly dependent* if there exists $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$ **that are not all zero** such that

$$\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_k x_k = 0.$$

They are said to be *linearly independent* otherwise. **Abuse of language:** Instead of saying « x_1, \dots, x_k are linearly dependent», we should say «the family (x_1, \dots, x_k) is linearly dependent».



2. Span & linear dependency 2.2 Linear dependency

Proof:

$\langle x_1, \dots, x_k \rangle$ are linearly dependent

Thus,

$$\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_k x_k = 0$$

We get,

$$-\alpha_1 x_1 = \alpha_2 x_2 + \dots + \alpha_k x_k$$

$$\therefore x_1 = \left(-\frac{\alpha_2}{\alpha_1} \right) x_2 + \dots + \left(-\frac{\alpha_k}{\alpha_1} \right) x_k$$

$$\boxed{x_1 = \beta_2 x_2 + \dots + \beta_k x_k}$$

1

x_1, \dots, x_k are linearly dependent \Leftrightarrow one of them is a linear combination of the others.

Why?

x_1, \dots, x_k linearly dependent \Leftrightarrow one of them is a linear combination of the others -

① Assume x_1, \dots, x_k linearly dependent:

exists $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_k x_k = 0$
not all 0

$$\alpha_i \neq 0 \Rightarrow \alpha_i x_i = -\alpha_1 x_1 - \dots - \alpha_k x_k \text{ (no term in } x_i)$$

$$\Rightarrow x_i = -\frac{\alpha_1 x_1}{\alpha_i} - \dots - \frac{\alpha_k x_k}{\alpha_i} \text{ since } \alpha_i \neq 0$$

② Assume $x_i = \beta_1 x_1 + \dots + \beta_k x_k$ (no term i) $\beta_1, \dots, \beta_k \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\Rightarrow \beta_1 x_1 + \dots - x_i + \dots + \beta_k x_k = 0 \rightarrow \text{linearly dependent-}$$

\downarrow

$\beta_i = -1 \neq 0$

21 / 48

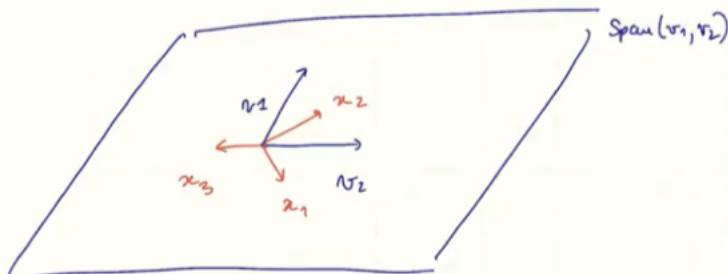
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A useful lemma

Lemma

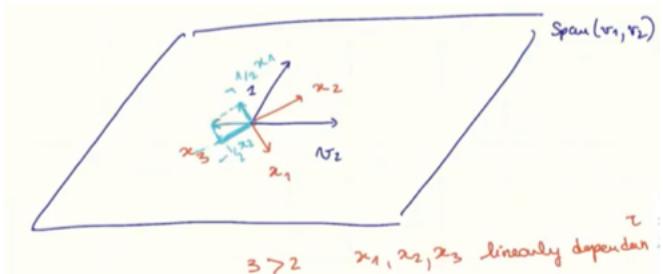
Let $v_1, \dots, v_n \in V$ and let $x_1, \dots, x_k \in \text{Span}(v_1, \dots, v_n)$.

Then, if $k > n$, x_1, \dots, x_k are linearly dependent.



Space that is spanned by 2 vectors,
... no linearly

if I have 3 vectors — they must be linearly dependent.



Note how x_3 can be written as

linear combination of x_1 & x_2 .



3.1 Basis definition

Definition

A family (x_1, \dots, x_n) of vectors of V is a basis of V if

1. x_1, \dots, x_n are linearly independent,
2. $\text{Span}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = V$.

This means that (x_1, \dots, x_n) is a basis of V if

1. None of the x_i is a linear combination of the others $(x_j)_{j \neq i}$,
2. Any vector of V can be expressed as a linear combination of (x_1, \dots, x_n) .

Example: the canonical basis of \mathbb{R}^n

Let us define the vectors $e_1, \dots, e_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$ by

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

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

⋮

$$e_n = (0, 0, 0, \dots, 1).$$

One can verify (homework!) that the family (e_1, \dots, e_n) is a basis of \mathbb{R}^n . This basis is called the “canonical basis” of \mathbb{R}^n .



3.2 Dimension

Theorem

Let V be a vector space.

- ▷ If V admits a basis (v_1, \dots, v_n) , then every basis of V has also n vectors. We say that V has dimension n and write $\dim(V) = n$.
- ▷ Otherwise, we say that V has infinite dimension: $\dim(V) = +\infty$.



Example:

- ▷ \mathbb{R}^2 has dimension 2, because the canonical basis (e_1, e_2) is a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 with 2 vectors.
- ▷ $\{f \mid f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$ has infinite dimension.

The dimension is well defined!

Theorem

If V admits a basis (v_1, \dots, v_n) , then every basis of V has also n vectors.

Proof. BY CONTRADICTION:

Assume
basis (v_1, \dots, v_n) $k > n$ then for any i $x_i \in \text{Span}(v_1, \dots, v_n)$
basis (x_1, \dots, x_k) $= \cup$

$\Rightarrow x_1, \dots, x_k$ are linearly dependent (by the lemma)
CONTRADICTION

What about when $k < n$?

(Think.)

Properties of the dimension

Proposition

Let V be a vector space that has dimension $\dim(V) = n$. Then

1. Any family of vectors of V that spans V contains at least n vectors.
i.e. if $x_1, \dots, x_k \in V$ are such that $\text{Span}(x_1, \dots, x_k) = V$, then $k \geq n$.
2. Any family of vectors of V that are linearly independent contains at most n vectors.
i.e. if $x_1, \dots, x_k \in V$ are linearly independent, then $k \leq n$.

Properties of the dimension

Proposition

Let V be a vector space of dimension n and let $x_1, \dots, x_n \in V$.

1. If x_1, \dots, x_n are linearly independent, then (x_1, \dots, x_n) is a basis of V .
2. If $\text{Span}(x_1, \dots, x_n) = V$, then (x_1, \dots, x_n) is a basis of V .

Very useful to show that a family of vector forms a basis:

Example: $x_1 = (12, 37)$ and $x_2 = (-9, 17)$ form a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .

How to prove that these 2 vectors form basis of \mathbb{R}^2 ?

* Since \mathbb{R}^2 needs 2 vectors — & we have these 2 vectors so they can be the basis.

* Now just need to prove that they are linearly independent.

Why? because if $x_2 = 2x_1$

then x_2 is along x_1 and they would both lie along a line that is they would span \mathbb{R}^2 . (real line)

But if we prove that x_2

x_1 are L.I. then they would span \mathbb{R}^2 .

Thus how do we know

$x_1 = (12, 37)$ & $x_2 = (-9, 17)$ are LI?

Because there is nothing we can multiply x_2 with that would result in x_1 ,

i.e. there exists no α ,

$$\text{s.t. } \alpha x_1 = x_2$$

Thus x_1 & x_2 are L.I.

Hence x_1 & x_2 can be basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .



Example: $x_1 = (12, 37)$ and $x_2 = (-9, 17)$ form a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .

$$\begin{pmatrix} 12 \\ 37 \end{pmatrix} \quad \begin{pmatrix} -9 \\ 17 \end{pmatrix}$$

there is no $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $x_1 = \alpha x_2 \Rightarrow$ linearly independent family

⊕ $\dim \mathbb{R}^2 = 2$

$\Rightarrow (x_1, x_2)$ basis of V .

3. Basis & Dimension 3.2 Dimension

Geometry in \mathbb{R}^n



3.3 Coordinates of a vector in a basis

Definition & Theorem

If (v_1, \dots, v_n) is a basis of V , then for every $x \in V$ there exists a unique vector $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that

$$x = \alpha_1 v_1 + \dots + \alpha_n v_n.$$

We say that $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ are the coordinates of x in the basis.

We say that $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ are the coordinates of x in the basis (v_1, \dots, v_n) .

