

# Normal distributions on vector spaces

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## 1 Affine transformations of euclidean spaces

Let  $s : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$  be a linear transformation. This means that there is an  $m \times n$  matrix  $A$  so  $s(x) = Ax$ .

An *affine* transformation  $t$  is formed by following this linear map by a translation:

$$t : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, t(x) = Ax + v \quad (1.1)$$

Here,  $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . Since translations are always bijective, we note that  $t$  is bijective iff  $A$  is invertible.

Each component of an affine transformation is composed from measurable function - it is understood that we mean with respect to the Borel algebras of each space) - so the affine transformation itself is measurable as well.

### 1.1 Transformation properties of the Lebesgue measure

Recall that the Lebesgue measure in  $n$  dimensions  $m_n$  is invariant under translation: If  $t$  is a translation  $t : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, t(x) = x + x_0$ , where  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  then:

$$t(m_n) = m_n \quad (1.2)$$

Also, if  $s : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, x \mapsto Ax$  is an isomorphism, then:

$$s(m_n) = m_n |\det A^{-1}| \quad (1.3)$$

Combining the two, the formula for affine transformation is the same as for linear ones.

## 2 Orthogonal complement

Let  $V$  be a finite-dimensional vector space with an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ . Let  $U$  be a subspace of  $V$ . Then we define the *orthogonal complement* of  $U$  as:

$$U^\perp = \{v \in V \mid \forall u \in U : \langle u, v \rangle = 0\} \quad (2.1)$$

**Theorem 2.1.**  $U^\perp$  is a subspace of  $V$ .

*Proof.* According to the subspace theorem, we need to show three things:

- $U^\perp$  is not empty: Clearly  $0 \in U^\perp$ .
- Closed under addition: If  $v_1, v_2 \in U^\perp$ , then for all  $u \in U$ :

$$\langle v_1 + v_2, u \rangle = \langle v_1, u \rangle + \langle v_2, u \rangle = 0 \quad (2.2)$$

- Closed under scalar multiplication: If  $v \in U^\perp$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  then for all  $u \in U$ :

$$\langle cv, u \rangle = c\langle v, u \rangle = 0 \quad (2.3)$$

□

Since the only vector perpendicular to itself is 0, we further conclude that  $U \cap U^\perp = \{0\}$ .

**Theorem 2.2.** If  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_m$  is an orthonormal basis for  $U$ , then for any  $v \in V$ :

$$v - \sum_{i=1}^m \langle v, e_i \rangle e_i \in U^\perp \quad (2.4)$$

*Proof.* Let  $u \in U$ . Then we can write  $u = \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j e_j$  for some coefficients  $\lambda_j$ . Now calculate the inner product with the vector above:

$$\langle v - \sum_{i=1}^m \langle v, e_i \rangle e_i, \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j e_j \rangle = \sum_{i=j}^m \lambda_j \langle v, e_j \rangle - \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^m \lambda_j \langle v, e_i \rangle \langle e_i, e_j \rangle \quad (2.5)$$

Since  $\langle e_i, e_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$  this vanishes. □

This means that we may write any  $v \in V$  as a sum of vectors from  $U$  and  $U^\perp$  respectively:

$$v = \underbrace{\sum_{i=1}^m \langle v, e_i \rangle e_i}_{\in U} + \underbrace{v - \sum_{i=1}^m \langle v, e_i \rangle e_i}_{\in U^\perp} \quad (2.6)$$

**Theorem 2.3.** *The decomposition into elements from  $U$  and  $U^\perp$  from equation 2.6 is unique.*

*Proof.* Let  $v = u_1 + u_1^\perp$  and  $v = u_2 + u_2^\perp$  be two such decompositions. Then  $u_1 + u_1^\perp = u_2 + u_2^\perp$  and hence  $u_1 - u_2 = u_2^\perp - u_1^\perp$ . But this means that this vector is a member of both  $U$  and  $U^\perp$ , and hence it must be 0. This means  $u_1 = u_2$  and  $u_1^\perp = u_2^\perp$ .  $\square$

## 2.1 The orthogonal projection

The previous section motivates the following:

**Definition 2.1.** *Let  $V$  be a finite-dimensional inner product vector space and  $U$  a subspace of  $V$ . The orthogonal projection from  $V$  onto  $U$  is the map  $p : V \rightarrow V$  which satisfies:*

$$\forall v \in V : \quad p(v) \in U, \quad v - p(v) \in U^\perp \quad (2.7)$$

As we see, one could also define the co-domain of  $p$  to be  $U$ . Usually, the distinction will not matter much.

**Theorem 2.4.** *The orthogonal projection operator is linear.*

*Proof.* We need to show additivity and homogeneity:

- Additivity: Let  $v_1, v_2 \in V$ . Then  $p(v_1) + p(v_2) \in U$  and:

$$v_1 - p(v_1) + v_2 - p(v_2) = v_1 + v_2 - (p(v_1) + p(v_2)) \in U^\perp \quad (2.8)$$

Adding the two we get  $v_1 + v_2$ . So  $p(v_1 + v_2) = p(v_1) + p(v_2)$ .

- Homogeneity. Let  $v \in V$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then  $cp(v) \in U$  and  $c(v - p(v)) = cv - cp(v) \in U^\perp$ . Adding the two we get  $cv$ , so  $p(cv) = cp(v)$ .

$\square$

**Theorem 2.5.** *The orthogonal projection operator  $p : V \rightarrow V$  is idempotent. I.e.  $p \circ p = p$ .*

*Proof.* Let  $v \in V$ . Then  $p(v) \in U$ . But this means that the decomposition of  $p(v)$  is  $p(v) + 0$ . So  $p \circ p(v) = p(v)$ .  $\square$

### 3 Lebesgue measures on vector spaces

#### 3.1 Coordinate maps

Let  $V$  be a finite-dimensional vector space of dimension  $n$ . Our question is, if we can turn  $V$  into a measure space in a natural way. Since we know that  $V$  is isomorphic to  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , it makes sense to tweak the usual Lebesgue measure in  $N$  dimensions:

Let  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n$  be a basis for  $V$ . Then we can define the *coordinate map* as follows:

$$\phi : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow V, \quad \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i \quad (3.1)$$

This is obviously an isomorphism. Specifically, it is invertible with inverse  $\phi^{-1} : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ .

The coordinate map depends on the chosen basis. If we had chosen another basis  $e_1^*, e_2^*, \dots, e_n^*$  we would get another isomorphism  $\phi^*$ .

#### 3.2 Borel algebra on $V$

We can now use  $\phi^{-1}$  to induce a  $\sigma$ -algebra on  $V$ . Set  $\mathbb{B}_V$  to the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra that makes  $\phi^{-1}$  measurable when  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is equipped with the Borel algebra  $\mathbb{B}_n$ . We call  $\mathbb{B}_V$  the *Borel algebra on  $V$* .

At first this object seems to depend of the choice of basis for  $V$ . But it turns out that the use of definite article in the definition is justified:

**Theorem 3.1.** *If  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n$  and  $e_1^*, e_2^*, \dots, e_n^*$  are bases for  $V$ , then the induced  $\sigma$ -algebra  $\mathbb{B}_V$  and  $\mathbb{B}_V^*$  is the same thing.*

*Proof.* We know that  $\phi^{-1}$  is  $\mathbb{B}_V - \mathbb{B}_n$  measurable by definition. We have:

$$(\phi^*)^{-1} = (\phi^*)^{-1} \circ \text{id}_V = (\phi^*)^{-1} \circ (\phi \circ \phi^{-1}) = ((\phi^*)^{-1} \circ \phi) \circ \phi^{-1} \quad (3.2)$$

$((\phi^*)^{-1} \circ \phi)$  is a linear operator on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and so according to section 1.1 is measurable. So  $(\phi^*)^{-1}$  must be  $\mathbb{B}_V - \mathbb{B}_n$ -measurable. Since  $\mathbb{B}_V^*$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra to make  $(\phi^*)^{-1}$   $\mathbb{B}_V - \mathbb{B}_n$ -measurable, we must have  $\mathbb{B}_V^* \subseteq \mathbb{B}_V$ .

But by a totally symmetric argument, we must also have  $\mathbb{B}_V \subseteq \mathbb{B}_V^*$ . Hence  $\mathbb{B}_V = \mathbb{B}_V^*$ .  $\square$

It turns out, that  $\phi$  must be measurable too. This is a direct consequence of the pipeline lemma.

**Theorem 3.2.** *Given two finite-dimensional vector spaces  $V$  and  $W$ , then:*

$$\mathbb{B}_{V \times W} = \mathbb{B}_V \otimes \mathbb{B}_W \quad (3.3)$$

*Proof.* Let  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n$  be a basis for  $V$  with corresponding coordinate map  $\phi$ . And  $f_1, f_2, \dots, f_m$  a basis for  $W$  with corresponding coordinate map  $\psi$ . Then  $(e_1, 0), (e_2, 0), \dots, (e_n, 0), (0, f_1), (0, f_2), \dots, (0, f_m)$  is a basis for  $V \times W$ . The corresponding coordinate map is:

$$\phi \times \psi : (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n+m}) \mapsto \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i, \sum_{j=1}^m x_{n+j} f_j \right) \quad (3.4)$$

The inverse is  $(\phi \times \psi)^{-1} = \phi^{-1} \times \psi^{-1}$ . Since  $\phi^{-1}$  is  $\mathbb{B}_V - \mathbb{B}_n$ -measurable and  $\psi^{-1}$  is  $\mathbb{B}_W - \mathbb{B}_m$ -measurable,  $\phi^{-1} \times \psi^{-1}$  must be  $\mathbb{B}_V \otimes \mathbb{B}_W - \mathbb{B}_n \otimes \mathbb{B}_m$ -measurable. But  $\mathbb{B}_n \otimes \mathbb{B}_m = \mathbb{B}_{n+m}$ . Since  $\mathbb{B}_{V \times W}$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra to make  $\phi^{-1} \times \psi^{-1}$  measurable, we must have  $\mathbb{B}_{V \times W} \subseteq \mathbb{B}_V \otimes \mathbb{B}_W$ .

On the other hand, consider the projection operators:

$$\pi_V : V \times W \rightarrow V, (v, w) \mapsto v \quad (3.5)$$

$$\pi_n : \mathbb{R}^{n+m} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n, (x_1, \dots, x_{n+m}) \mapsto (x_1, \dots, x_n) \quad (3.6)$$

Now consider  $\pi_V \circ (\phi \times \psi)$ . Applied to an  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$  we have:

$$\pi_V \circ (\phi \times \psi)(x) = \pi_v \left( \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i, \sum_{j=1}^m x_{n+j} f_j \right) \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i \quad (3.7)$$

But this is the same as:

$$\phi \circ \pi_1(x) = \phi((x_1, \dots, x_n)) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i e_i \quad (3.8)$$

So  $\pi_V \circ (\phi \times \psi) = \phi \circ \pi_1$ . Now apply  $\phi^{-1} \times \psi^{-1}$  from the right to get:

$$\pi_V = \phi \circ \pi_1 \circ (\phi^{-1} \times \psi^{-1}) \quad (3.9)$$

Since all the three functions on the right side are measurable,  $\pi_V$  must be  $\mathbb{B}_{V \times W} - \mathbb{B}_V$ -measurable. By a similar argument the corresponding projection operator  $\pi_W : V \times W \rightarrow W$  is  $\mathbb{B}_{V \times W} - \mathbb{B}_W$ -measurable. Since  $\mathbb{B}_V \otimes \mathbb{B}_W$  is the smallest  $\sigma$ -algebra to make both  $\pi_V$  and  $\pi_W$  measurable, we must have:  $\mathbb{B}_V \otimes \mathbb{B}_W \subseteq \mathbb{B}_{V \times W}$ .  $\square$

### 3.3 Lebesgue measures on $V$

We now want to define a measure on the measurable space  $(V, \mathbb{B}_V)$ . If  $e_1, e_2, \dots, e_n$  is a basis for  $V$ , we will use the associated coordinate map  $\phi$  to define a measure:

$$\lambda_V = \phi(m_n) \quad (3.10)$$

Here,  $m_n$  is the usual Lebesgue measure in  $n$  dimensions. The problem is, that this measure depends on the chosen basis! Consider another basis  $e_1^*, e_2^*, \dots, e_n^*$  and associated coordinate map  $\phi^*$ . Then the measure is:

$$\lambda_V^* = \phi^*(m_n) = (\phi \circ \phi^{-1}) \circ \phi^*(m_n) = \phi \circ (\phi^{-1} \circ \phi^*(m_n)) \quad (3.11)$$

Now  $\phi^{-1} \circ \phi^*$  is an isomorphism  $\mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$ , so according to section 1.1, there is a constant  $c$  such that  $(\phi^{-1} \circ \phi^*(m_n)) = cm_n$ . So:

$$\lambda_V^* = c\phi(m_n) = c\lambda_V \quad (3.12)$$

So while there are many Lebesgue measures on  $V$  they only differ from each other by a constant factor. This means that they all agree on what constitutes a null set, and on which functions are integrable. They disagree on the integral, but agree on whether it is finite or not. They also agree on whether a measure  $\mu$  has a density with respect to  $\lambda_V$  or not.