

Session 1: Vector spaces

Optimization and Computational Linear Algebra for Data Science

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Contents

1. Vector Spaces

1.1 Definition and examples

1.2 Subspaces

Vector spaces inside other vector spaces

2. Span & Linear Families

2.1 Spans, Linear combinations

2.2 Linear dependency

3. Basis & Dimension

3.1 Definitions

3.2 Coordinates

4. Why do we care about all these things ?

Application to data science: image compression

1. Vector spaces

So far, « Vectors = arrows »

Two fundamental operations:

1. Add two vectors \vec{u} and \vec{v} to obtain another vector $\vec{u} + \vec{v}$
2. Multiply a vector \vec{u} by a «scalar» (= a real number) λ to get another vector $\lambda \cdot \vec{u}$

Coordinate representation

- ❖ One can represent vectors using coordinates
- ❖ 2D vectors in the plane $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2$
- ❖ 3D vectors in space $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, u_3) \in \mathbb{R}^3$
- ❖ n -dimensional vectors $\vec{u} = (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- ❖ $\vec{u} + \vec{v} = (u_1 + v_1, u_2 + v_2, \dots, u_n + v_n)$
- ❖ $\lambda \cdot \vec{u} = (\lambda u_1, \lambda u_2, \dots, \lambda u_n)$

1.1 Vector spaces: Definition

Definition (simplified - see notes)

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: for $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in V$, the sum $\vec{x} + \vec{y}$ is a vector, i.e. $\vec{x} + \vec{y} \in V$.
- ❖ Multiplying a vector $\vec{x} \in V$ by a scalar $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ gives a vector $\lambda \cdot \vec{x} \in V$.
- ❖ The operations $+$ and \cdot are “nice and 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 $\vec{x}, \vec{y} \in V$,

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

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 1: \mathbb{R}^n

The set $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ endowed with the usual vector addition $+$

$$(x_1, \dots, x_n) + (y_1, \dots, y_n) = (x_1 + y_1, \dots, x_n + y_n)$$

and the usual scalar multiplication \cdot

$$\alpha \cdot (x_1, \dots, x_n) = (\alpha x_1, \dots, \alpha x_n)$$

is a vector space.

We will work in \mathbb{R}^n 99% of the time !

Example 2: functions

The set $V \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{f \mid f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\}$ of all functions from \mathbb{R} to itself endowed with the addition $+$ and the scalar multiplication \cdot defined by

$$\begin{array}{lll} f + g : \mathbb{R} & \rightarrow & \mathbb{R} \\ t & \mapsto & f(t) + g(t) \end{array} \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{lll} \alpha \cdot f : \mathbb{R} & \rightarrow & \mathbb{R} \\ t & \mapsto & \alpha f(t) \end{array}$$

is a vector space.

Useful in signal processing.

Example 3: random variables

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!

Why do we need all this?

❖ **Get geometric intuition.**

We will see for instance that the notion of length in \mathbb{R}^n is deeply connected to the notion of variance of random variables.

❖ **Save time.**

A theorem that applies to vector spaces will in particular be true for all the examples we listed before.

1.2 Subspaces: Definition

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.

Examples

- ❖ \mathbb{R}^n is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .
- ❖ $\{0\}$ is a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .
- ❖ Any line that contains the origin is subspace of \mathbb{R}^2 .

Remarks, questions ?

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2. 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.
- ❖ If S is a subspace of V , then any linear combination of vectors x_1, \dots, x_k of S is also in S :

$$\alpha_1 x_1 + \dots + \alpha_k x_k \in S, \quad \text{for all } \alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}.$$

« Subspaces are closed under linear combinations. »

Exercise: Prove it !

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».

Key observation: « x_1, \dots, x_k are linearly dependent » is equivalent to « one of the vectors x_1, \dots, x_k can be obtained as a linear combination of the others.»

Why ?

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.

3. Basis & Dimension

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

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

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

$$\vdots$$

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

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.



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 $k \leq n$.

Proof.

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Proof.

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 .

An inequality

Proposition

Let U and V be two subspaces of \mathbb{R}^n . Assume that $U \subset V$. Then

$$\dim(U) \leq \dim(V) \leq n.$$

If **moreover** $\dim(U) = \dim(V)$, then $U = V$.

Subspaces dimensions: Vocabulary

Definition

Let S be a subspace of \mathbb{R}^n .

- ❖ We call S a *line* if $\dim(S) = 1$.
- ❖ We call S an *hyperplane* if $\dim(S) = n - 1$.

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 (v_1, \dots, v_n) .

Proof.

3.3 Coordinates of a vector in a basis

Exercise

1. Show that the vectors $v_1 = (1, 1)$ and $v_2 = (1, -1)$ form a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .
2. Express the coordinates of $u = (x, y)$ in the basis (v_1, v_2) in terms of x and y .

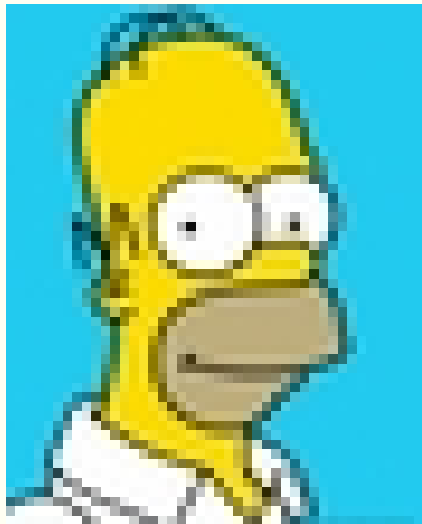
Exercise

1. Show that the vectors $v_1 = (1, 1)$ and $v_2 = (1, -1)$ form a basis of \mathbb{R}^2 .
2. Express the coordinates of $u = (x, y)$ in the basis (v_1, v_2) in terms of x and y .

4. Why do we care about this ?

Application to image compression

- Image = Grid of pixels
- Represented as a vector $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, for some large n .
- One needs to store n numbers.



$$n = 44 \times 55 = 2420$$

Can we do better?

- ✚ If we want to store an arbitrary image, NO!



«Random» image

Can we do better?

- ❖ If we want to store an arbitrary image, NO!
- ❖ However, we are mainly storing images coming from the « real world »
- ❖ These images have some *structure*.



«Random» image

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- ❖ These images have some *structure*.



«Real» image

What do we mean by « structure » ?

Neighboring pixels are very likely to have similar colors.

- ❖ There exists a basis (w_1, \dots, w_n) of \mathbb{R}^n in which «real» images $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are (approximately) **sparse**.
- ❖ This means that the coordinates $(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_n)$ of v in the basis (w_1, \dots, w_n) contains a lot of zeros.

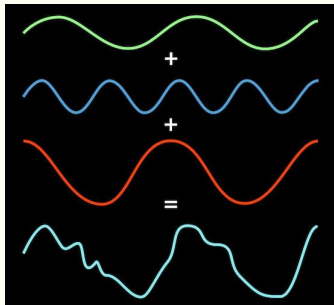
Store only the $k \ll n$ non-zero coordinates of v (in the w_i 's basis') !

A toy example

Consider $n = 2$, that is images $v \in \mathbb{R}^2$ with only 2 pixels.
Take $v_1 = (1, 1)$ and $v_2 = (1, -1)$:

Examples of good bases

- Fourier bases (used in .jpeg, .mp3)



- JPEG2000 uses **wavelet bases**, and achieves better performance than JPEG.
- The course **DS-GA 1013** deepens these concepts!

Questions?

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