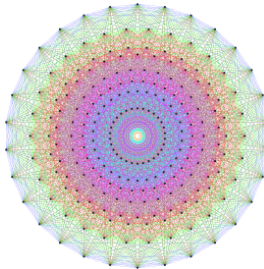


# Further topics in Linear Algebra

## 4433LALG3: Linear Algebra

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# Overview

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- Abstract vector spaces
- Norms
- Inner products

## References:

- 3Blue1Brown Ch.16

## Section 1

### Abstract vector spaces

# Vector spaces

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In this course, we have made extensive use of the vector notation  $\mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ \vdots \\ v_n \end{bmatrix}$ .

But we have also emphasized that the “coordinates” are just a name.

What the notation *really* means is that we should use the numbers  $v_i$  to combine certain basis vectors:

$$\mathbf{v} = v_1 \mathbf{e}_1 + \dots + v_n \mathbf{e}_n$$

or

$$\mathbf{v} = v_1 \mathbf{b}_1 + \dots + v_n \mathbf{b}_n$$

or

... something else?

# Vector spaces

## Definition

A **vector space** is a set  $V$  of “objects” (we will call them vectors) such that:

- We can add them: if  $\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \in V$ , the operation  $\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}$  makes sense
- We can re-scale them: if  $\mathbf{v} \in V$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , then  $\alpha \mathbf{v}$  makes sense
- There is a special vector  $\mathbf{0}$  that serves as “zero-vector”
- The above operations satisfy “*the usual algebraic properties*”

# Vector spaces

## Rules for vectors addition and scaling

$$1. \vec{u} + (\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = (\vec{u} + \vec{v}) + \vec{w}$$

$$2. \vec{v} + \vec{w} = \vec{w} + \vec{v}$$

$$3. \text{There is a vector } \mathbf{0} \text{ such that } \mathbf{0} + \vec{v} = \vec{v} \text{ for all } \vec{v}$$

$$4. \text{For every vector } \vec{v} \text{ there is a vector } -\vec{v} \text{ so that } \vec{v} + (-\vec{v}) = \mathbf{0}$$

$$5. a(b\vec{v}) = (ab)\vec{v}$$

$$6. 1\vec{v} = \vec{v}$$

$$7. a(\vec{v} + \vec{w}) = a\vec{v} + a\vec{w}$$

$$8. (a + b)\vec{v} = a\vec{v} + b\vec{v}$$

“Axioms”

# Examples

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1. We can add and re-scale matrices.
  - The space  $\text{Mat}(m, n)$  of all  $m \times n$  matrices is a vector space.
2. We can add and re-scale functions.
  - The space  $\mathcal{C}^0(\mathbb{R})$  of all continuous functions  $f: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a vector space.
3. We can add and re-scale random variables.
  - The space  $\mathbb{X}$  of all random variables is a vector space.

# Linear transformations

## Definition

A transformation between vector spaces  $T: V \rightarrow W$  is **linear** if:

- $T(\mathbf{v}_1 + \mathbf{v}_2) = T(\mathbf{v}_1) + T(\mathbf{v}_2)$  for all  $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2 \in V$ ,
- $T(\alpha \mathbf{v}) = \alpha T(\mathbf{v})$  for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mathbf{v} \in V$ .

## Examples:

1. Transposition  $\top: \text{Mat}(m, n) \rightarrow \text{Mat}(n, m)$  is a linear transformation.
2. Integration  $\int_a^b: \mathcal{C}^0(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a linear transformation.
3. Expectation  $\mathbb{E}: \mathbb{X} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a linear transformation.



# Basis and dimension

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- The following matrices form a **basis** for  $\text{Mat}(2, 2)$ :

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}.$$

Therefore the dimension of  $\text{Mat}(2, 2)$  is 4.

- A **basis** for the space of *polynomial* functions is:

$$1, \quad x, \quad x^2, \quad x^3, \quad \dots$$

This space is infinite dimensional.

# Subspaces

## Definition

$$\Rightarrow S \subseteq V$$

A **linear subspace** of a vector space  $V$  is a (non-empty) subset  $S \subseteq V$  that is a vector space itself (i.e. with the operations inherited from  $V$ ).

## Examples:

1. The space of diagonal matrices is a subspace of  $\text{Mat}(n, n)$
2. The space of differentiable functions is a subspace of  $\mathcal{C}^0(\mathbb{R})$ .
3. The space of variables  $X$  for which  $\mathbb{E}(X) = 0$  is a subspace of  $\mathbb{X}$ .

# Kernel and image

Consider the following linear transformation on  $\mathcal{C}(\mathbb{R})$ :

$$T: \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow \mathcal{C}(\mathbb{R}) \quad \text{such that} \quad T(f(x)) = \frac{f(x) + f(-x)}{2}.$$

$$T(f(x)) = 0$$

- The **kernel** (null space) of  $T$  is the space of all *odd functions*:

$$f(x) \text{ is odd if } f(-x) = -f(x).$$

- The **image** (column space) of  $T$  is the space of all *even functions*:

$$g(x) \text{ is even if } g(-x) = g(x). \quad \text{even functions}$$

# Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

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Consider the derivative  $\frac{d}{dx}$  as a linear transformation on the space of differentiable functions.

What are the eigenvalues and eigenvectors?

Set the usual equation:  $\frac{d}{dx} f(x) = \lambda f(x)$ .  $Av = \lambda v$

- Any real number is an **eigenvalue**.
- The corresponding **eigenfunction** is  $f(x) = e^{\lambda x}$ .

## Section 2

### Norms

# Norms

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A **norm** is a way to measure the length (the size) of a vector.

This can be on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  or for an abstract vector space.

Depending on the situation, a particular way of measuring length might be more convenient than another.

If you are on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  and can only move horizontally and/or vertically, you might want to measure length using:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| \quad \text{instead of} \quad \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}.$$

If you are dealing with observations from a  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma)$ -distribution, you should measure length using:

$$d_{\Sigma}(\mathbf{x}) = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^{\top} \Sigma^{-1} \mathbf{x}}.$$

# Norms

It's OK to measure length in some alternative way, as long as a few *axioms* are satisfied.

## Definition

A **norm** in a vector space  $V$  is a function  $F: V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfying:

- $F(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$
- $F(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  only if  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$
- $F(\alpha\mathbf{x}) = |\alpha|F(\mathbf{x})$
- $F(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \leq F(\mathbf{x}) + F(\mathbf{y})$

In practice, people write  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_F$ , or  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_V$ , or something similar. Sometimes we just write  $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ , if it is clear from the context **which** norm we are talking about.

# Examples

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There are many ways to measure how big a matrix is.

For example, consider  $M \in \text{Mat}(m, n)$ .

- The *operator norm* is given by:

$$\|M\|_O = \max \left\{ \frac{\|M\mathbf{x}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \mid \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0} \right\}.$$

- The *spectral norm* is given by:

$$\|M\|_S = \sigma_{\max}(A), \quad \text{i.e. the largest singular value of } A.$$



# Examples

There are many ways to measure how big a continuous function is.

Consider  $\mathcal{C}^0([0, 1])$ , the space of continuous functions  $f: [0, 1] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

- The *uniform norm* is given by:

$$\|f\|_U = \max \{ |f(x)| \text{ with } x \in [0, 1] \}.$$

- The  $L^1$ -norm is given by:

$$\|f\|_1 = \int_0^1 |f(x)| \, dx.$$

- The  $L^2$ -norm is given by:

$$\|f\|_2 = \sqrt{\int_0^1 (f(x))^2 \, dx}.$$

## Section 3

### Inner products

# Inner products

What about “alternative dot products”?

They also exist, and are called *inner products*.

## Definition

An **inner product** on a vector space  $V$  is a map  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle: V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  satisfying the following axioms:

1. It is symmetric
  - That is,  $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{v} \rangle$
2. It is positive-definite
  - $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $\mathbf{v}$
  - $\langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{v} \rangle = 0$  only if  $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{0}$
3. It is bilinear
  - $\langle \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$
  - $\langle \alpha \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle = \alpha \langle \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$

# Examples

- Let  $Q$  be a **positive-definite** symmetric matrix. Then  $Q$  defines an inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  via:

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle_Q = \mathbf{x}^\top Q \mathbf{y}.$$

- On  $\text{Mat}(m, n)$  we have the inner product:

$$\underline{\langle A, B \rangle = \text{tr}(A^\top B)}.$$

- On  $\mathcal{C}^0([0, 1])$  we have the inner product:

$$\underline{\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x)g(x) \, dx}.$$

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This last can be thought of as **covariance between functions**.

# Induced norms

## Remark

Every inner product induces a norm.

Indeed, if you have an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  defined on  $V$ , you can set

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle}.$$

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If the axioms for inner products are satisfied, the axioms for norms are automatically satisfied as well.

However, not all norms come from an inner product!

## Conclusion:

Inner products can provide a lot of additional structure on  $V$ , which can be extremely useful.

# Orthogonality

Consider  $\mathcal{C}^0([0, 1])$  again, with the inner product  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(x)g(x) \, dx$ .

The functions  $\cos(2\pi x)$  and  $\sin(2\pi x)$  are orthogonal, because

$$\int_0^1 \cos(2\pi x) \sin(2\pi x) \, dx = 0.$$

In fact, the following functions form an orthogonal set:

- 1
- $\cos(2\pi nx)$ , for  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$
- $\sin(2\pi nx)$ , for  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

The **expansion** of a function  $f \in \mathcal{C}^0([0, 1])$  in terms of this orthogonal basis is called the **Fourier series** of  $f$ : 傅立叶级数

$$f(x) = a_0 + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} (a_n \cos(2\pi nx) + b_n \sin(2\pi nx)).$$

## Section 4

### Supplementary material

# Examination material

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From this lecture, the only exam material is:

- The concept of an abstract vector space, and its subspaces

You are expected to be able to identify whether a given subset  $S$  of a vector space  $V$  is a linear subspace or not.



# Examples

## Example

Let  $\mathbf{x}$  be a fixed vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Consider  $S = \{A \in \text{Mat}(m, n) \mid A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}\}$ . Is this a linear subspace?

Let's see.

Consider two matrices  $A, B \in S$ , and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

We need to check whether  $A + B$  and  $\alpha A$  are also in  $S$ .

- $(A + B)\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{x} + B\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$ . Therefore,  $A + B \in S$ .
- $(\alpha A)\mathbf{x} = \alpha(A\mathbf{x}) = \alpha\mathbf{0} = \mathbf{0}$ . So  $\alpha A \in S$ .

We conclude that  $S$  is indeed a subspace.

# Examples

## Example

Let  $\lambda \neq 0$  and  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be fixed. Consider  $S = \{A \in \text{Mat}(m, n) \mid A\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}\}$ . Is this a linear subspace?

Let's see.

Consider two matrices  $A, B \in S$ , and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

We need to check whether  $A + B$  and  $\alpha A$  are also in  $S$ .

$$\blacksquare (A + B)\mathbf{x} = A\mathbf{x} + B\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x} + \lambda\mathbf{x} = 2\lambda\mathbf{x}.$$

Because  $\lambda \neq 0$ , we get that  $2\lambda \neq \lambda$ .

Therefore,  $(A + B)\mathbf{x} \neq \lambda\mathbf{x}$ .

We conclude that  $S$  is not a subspace.

## Exercises

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In each of the following cases, you are given a vector space  $V$  and  $S \subseteq V$ .

Is  $S$  a linear subspace of  $V$ ?

1.  $V = \text{Mat}(n, n)$  and  $S$  is the subset of upper triangular matrices.
2.  $V = \text{Mat}(n, n)$  and  $S$  is the subset of matrices with zero determinant.
3.  $V = \mathbb{X}$  and  $S = \{X \in \mathbb{X} \mid \text{Cov}(X, Y) = 0\}$ ,  $Y$  a *fixed* random variable.
4.  $V = \mathcal{C}^0([0, 1])$  and  $S = \{f \in V \mid f(0) = 0\}$ .
5.  $V = \mathcal{C}^0([0, 1])$  and  $S = \{f \in V \mid \int_0^1 f(x) \, dx = 1\}$ .