

# Basic definitions on Euclidean Spaces

**Definition 1 (Euclidean Space)** *An  $n$  dimensional Euclidean space is defined as*

$$\mathbb{R}^n = \{(x_1 \dots x_n) \text{ s.t. } x_i \in \mathbb{R} \forall i\}$$

*If  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $a \in \mathbb{R}$  then*

1.  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ;

2.  $a\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

*Therefore  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a vector space and  $\mathbf{x}$  is a vector.*

**Definition 2 (Euclidean Distance)** *The distance is a function  $d$  defined on  $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n$  such that for any  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$*

$$d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \equiv \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - y_i)^2}$$

*When  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{0}$  then we have the norm of vector  $\mathbf{x}$*

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$$

**Definition 3 (Ball)** *For any  $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $r \in \mathbb{R}^+$  we define the a ball with center in  $\mathbf{p}$  and radius  $r$  as the open set*

$$B^n(\mathbf{p}, r) = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ s.t. } \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}\| < r\}$$

**Definition 4 (Basis)** Every vector  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  can be written as

$$\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \mathbf{e}_i$$

where  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$  for any  $i$  and  $\mathbf{e}_i = (0 \dots \underbrace{1}_i \dots 0) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

The set  $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$  is called standard basis and it identifies the orthogonal axis. It is an independent set, i.e.  $\sum_i c_i \mathbf{e}_i = \mathbf{0}$  if and only if  $c_i = 0$  for any  $i$ . The standard basis is unique.

Since  $\mathbf{x}$  is a vector it will have

1. a magnitude (length) which is  $\|\mathbf{x}\|$ ;
2. an orientation with respect to the axis (i.e. the standard basis) defined as  $\cos \alpha_i = \frac{x_i}{\|\mathbf{x}\|}$

**Definition 5 (Scalar Product)** Given  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  the scalar product is the real number defined as

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$

It has the following properties

1.  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$ ;
2.  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} + \mathbf{z} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \rangle$ ;
3.  $\alpha \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = \langle \alpha \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle$ ;
4.  $\langle \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0$ ;
5.  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \geq 0$ , and  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$ .

The angle between two vectors can then be written as

$$\cos \theta = \frac{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}{\|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|}$$

**Theorem 1 (Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality)** Given  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|$$

**Definition 6 (Orthogonality)** Given  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we say that they are orthogonal  $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$  if and only if  $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle = 0$ . Notice that the vectors of the standard basis are orthogonal, i.e.  $\langle \mathbf{e}_i, \mathbf{e}_j \rangle = 0$  for  $i \neq j$ , while  $\langle \mathbf{e}_i, \mathbf{e}_i \rangle = \|\mathbf{e}_i\| = 1$ . The standard basis is made of orthonormal vectors.

**Theorem 2 (Triangular Inequality)** Given  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \leq \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|$$

Then if  $\mathbf{x} \perp \mathbf{y}$  we have the Pythagora's theorem

$$\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\|^2 = \langle \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} \rangle = \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 + \|\mathbf{y}\|^2 + \underbrace{2\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle}_0$$

**Definition 7 (Orthogonal Projection)** Given  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{y} \neq \mathbf{0}$  we define the normalized vector  $\mathbf{u} = \frac{\mathbf{y}}{\|\mathbf{y}\|}$ . The orthogonal projection of  $\mathbf{x}$  onto  $\mathbf{y}$  is

$$\mathbf{w} = (\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} \rangle) \mathbf{u}$$

In the special case  $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{e}_k$  for some  $k$ , we have  $\mathbf{w} = x_k \mathbf{e}_k$ . Moreover  $\|\mathbf{w}\| = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$ .

## Linear Transformations

**Definition 8** A linear transformation  $A$  is defined as

$$A : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$$

such that for any  $\mathbf{x}_1$  and  $\mathbf{x}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and for any  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  we have

1.  $A(\mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{x}_2) = A\mathbf{x}_1 + A\mathbf{x}_2$ ;

$$2. A(c\mathbf{x}) = cA(\mathbf{x}).$$

The action of  $A$  is determined by its action on a basis. Take  $\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$  then if  $\mathbf{x} = \sum c_i \mathbf{e}_i$  we have

$$A(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i A(\mathbf{e}_i)$$

If  $n = m$  and  $A$  is bijective then  $A$  is invertible.

**Definition 9** Take a basis  $\{\mathbf{e}_i\} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  and a basis  $\{\mathbf{u}_i\} \subset \mathbb{R}^m$  then

$$A(\mathbf{e}_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m a_{ij} \mathbf{u}_i \quad j = 1, \dots, n$$

The matrix representation of  $A$  is simply given by

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = (A\mathbf{e}_1 \dots A\mathbf{e}_n)$$

Therefore  $A(\mathbf{x}) \equiv A\mathbf{x}$  and

$$A\mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^m \left( \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} c_j \right) \mathbf{u}_i$$

The linear transformations can be written as matrices, however notice that the matrix representation depends on the chosen basis.

## Reference

Rudin, W. *Principles of Mathematical Analysis* McGraw-Hill, Inc. 1976