

## 1 Diagonalization

**Definition 1** An operator  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$  is diagonalizable if there exists a basis of  $V$  such that the corresponding matrix is diagonal:

$$M(T) = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & 0 \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

Nice property: Diagonal form is the best since we have the eigenvectors as the basis.

**Proposition 2** Let  $V$  be a finite-dimension vector space.  $A \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ . Then the following statements are equivalent:

( $P_1$ )  $A$  is diagonalizable

( $P_2$ ) The characteristic polynomial  $P_A$  can be decomposed into linear factors **AND** The algebraic multiplicity of the roots of  $P_A$  are equal to the geometric multiplicity

( $P_3$ ) If  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_k$  are the pairwise distinct eigenvalues of  $A$ , then

$$V = E(A, \lambda_1) \oplus E(A, \lambda_2) \dots \oplus E(A, \lambda_k)$$

## 2 Triangular Matrices

**Definition 3** A matrix is called upper triangular if it has the form

$$M(T) = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & & * \\ & \ddots & \\ 0 & & \lambda_n \end{pmatrix}$$

**Proposition 4**  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ ,  $\Phi = \{v_1, v_2 \dots v_n\}$  a basis, then following are equivalent:

( $P_1$ )  $M(T, D)$  is upper triangular

( $P_2$ )  $Tv_j \in \text{span}\{v_1, v_2 \dots v_j\} \forall j = 1, 2, \dots, n$

$$Tv_1 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & a_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda_1 \cdot v_1$$

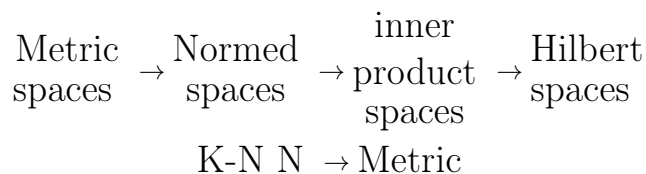
$$Tv_2 = \begin{pmatrix} \lambda_1 & a_{12} & a_{13} \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & a_{23} \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{12} \\ \lambda_2 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = a_{12} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \lambda_2 \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \in \text{span}(v_1, v_2)$$

**Proposition 5** *V complex, finite-dim VS,  $T \in \mathcal{L}(V)$ . Then  $M(T)$  has an upper triangular form for some basis.*

→ *If we are in the complex field, every matrix can be expressed as an upper triangular matrix.*

**Proposition 6** *Suppose  $T \in \mathcal{L}(v)$ ,  $V$  any finite-dim VS, has an upper triangular form. Then the entries on the diagonal are precisely the eigenvalues of  $T$ .*

### 3 Metric Space

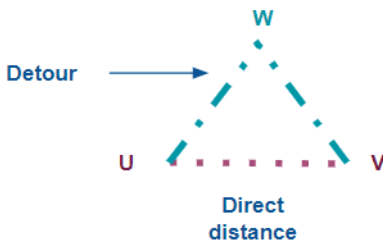


**Definition 7** *Let  $x$  be a set. A function  $d : x \times x \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called a metric if the following conditions hold.  $\forall u, v, w \in X$  :*

(P<sub>1</sub>)  $d(u, v) > 0$  if  $u \neq v$  **and**  $d(u, u) = 0$

(P<sub>2</sub>)  $d(u, v) = d(v, u)$  (symmetry)

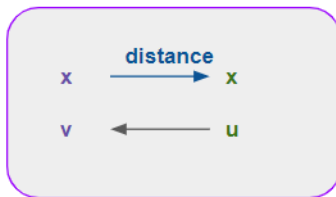
(P<sub>3</sub>)  $d(u, v) \leq d(u, w) + d(w, v)$



Example: asymmetric measures

(i) friendship graph

(ii)  $KL(p||q) \neq KL(q||p)$



Notation: Sequence:  $(x_1, x_2 \dots) \rightarrow (x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$

**Definition 8** Sequence:  $(x_1, x_2 \dots) \rightarrow (x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$

A sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  in a metric space  $(x, d)$  is called a Cauchy Sequence if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N}, \forall n, m > N, d(x_n, x_m) < \varepsilon$

**Definition 9** A sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  converges to  $x \in X$  if  $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists N \in \mathbb{N} \forall n > N, d(x_n, x) < \varepsilon$

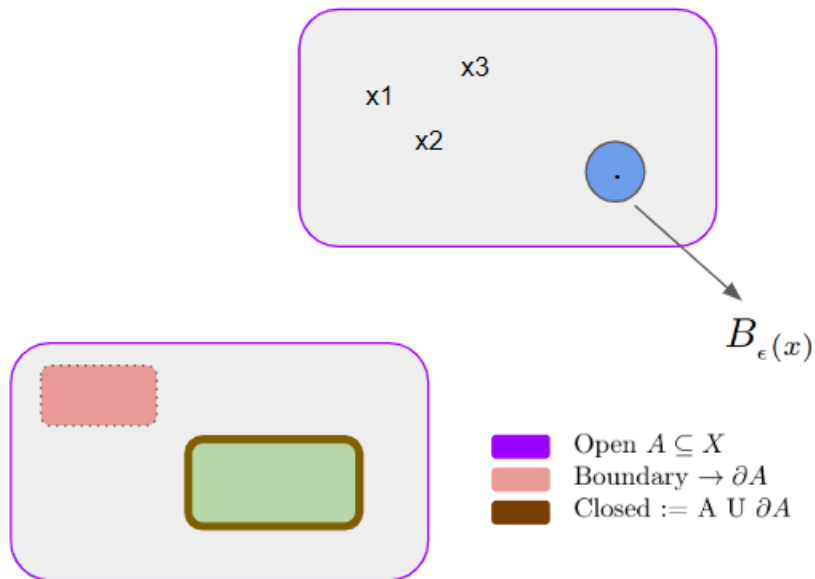
**Notation:**  $x_n \rightarrow x, \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} x_n = x$

sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = 1/n$  on  $x = (0, 1)$

Here  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a Cauchy seq. But does not converge.

Sequence  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}} = 1/n$  on  $\tilde{x} = [0, 1]$ . Here  $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$  is a cauchy sequence that converges on  $\tilde{x}$  to 0

**Definition 10** A metric space is called complete if every Cauchy sequence converges.



**Notation:**  $B_\epsilon(u) := \{x \in X \mid d(x, u) \leq \epsilon\} \rightarrow \epsilon$  - ball

**Definition 11** A set  $A \subseteq X$  is called closed if all Cauchy sequences converge and have their limit point of  $A$ .

**Definition 12** A set  $A \subseteq X$  is called open if:

$$\forall a \in A \quad \exists \epsilon > 0 : B_\epsilon(a) \subset A$$

- Set  $[0, 1]$  is closed.
- Set  $(0, 1)$  is open.



$$B = (a - \epsilon, a + \epsilon)$$

- A set  $A$  can be neither open nor closed. e.g.  $[0, 1)$ .

**Definition 13** A point  $a \in A$  is an interior point of  $A$  if  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$ , s.t.  $B_\varepsilon(a) \subset A$ .

- e.g.  $A = [0, 1]$ , then  $x \in (0, 1)$  are interior points.

**Definition 14** The (topological) closure of a set  $A$  is defined as the set of points that can be approximated by Cauchy sequences in  $A$  :

$$\omega \in \bar{A} \Leftrightarrow \forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists z \in A : d(\omega, z) < \varepsilon$$

**Notation:**  $\bar{A}$  is the closure of  $A$ .  $A \cup dA$  (always closed!)

**Definition 15** The (topological) interior of a set  $A$  is defined as the set of interior points of  $A$ .

**Notation:**  $A^\circ$

**Definition 16** The (topological) boundary of a set  $A$  is defined as the set  $\bar{A} \setminus A^\circ$ .

$$\begin{array}{ll} x & = [0, 1] \quad \text{sometimes} \\ \bar{x} & = [0, 1] \quad \partial x = x \setminus x^\circ \\ x^\circ & = (0, 1) \quad = \{0\} \end{array}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{boundary} \partial x = \bar{x} \setminus x^\circ = \{0, 1\}$$

**Definition 17** A set  $A$  is dense in  $X$  if we can approximate every  $x \in X$  by a sequence in  $A$ . Formally,  $\forall x \in X \quad \forall \varepsilon > 0, B_\varepsilon(x) \cap A \neq \emptyset$ .

Example:  $\mathbb{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}$  is dense

**Definition 18** A set  $A \subset X$  is bounded if there exists  $D > 0$  such that  $\forall u, v \in A \quad d(u, v) < D$ .

## 4 Norms

**Definition 19** Let  $V$  be a vector space. A norm on  $V$  is a function  $\|\cdot\| : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\forall x, y \in V, \lambda \in F$ , the following conditions hold:

$$(P_1) \|\lambda x\| = |\lambda| \|x\| \quad (\text{homogeneous})$$

$$(P_2) \|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\| \quad (\text{triangle inequality})$$

$$(P_3) x = 0 \Rightarrow \|x\| = 0$$

$$(P_4) \|x\| = 0 \Rightarrow x = 0$$

$\|\cdot\|$  is a semi-norm if  $(P_1) - (P_3)$  are satisfied.

*Intuition:*  $\text{norm}(x) = \text{"length of } x\text{"}$   
 $= \text{distance}(x, 0)$

Examples:

- *Euclidean norm on  $\mathbb{R}^d$ :*  $\|x\| = \left(\sum_{i=1}^d x_i^2\right)^{1/2}$
- *Manhattan distance:*  $\|x\| = \left(\sum_{i=1}^d |x_i|\right)$

## 5 p-Norm

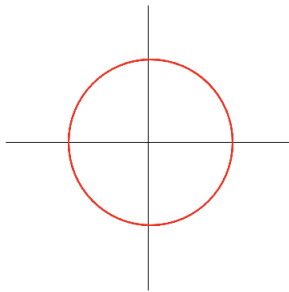
Consider  $V = \mathbb{R}^d$ . Define  $\|\cdot\|_p : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$\|x\|_p := \left(\sum_{i=1}^d |x_i|^p\right)^{1/p} \quad \text{for } 0 < p < \infty$$

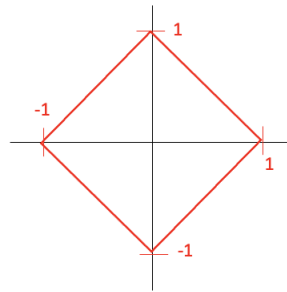
- $\|\cdot\|_p$  is a norm if  $p \geq 1$
- Unit balls: the unit ball of a norm is the set of points such that norm  $\leq 1$  :

$$B_p := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid \|x\|_p \leq 1\}$$

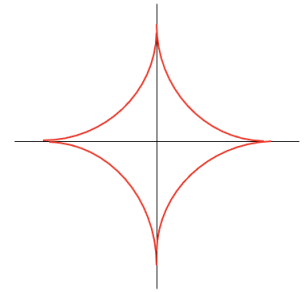
Examples:  $\mathbb{R}^2$



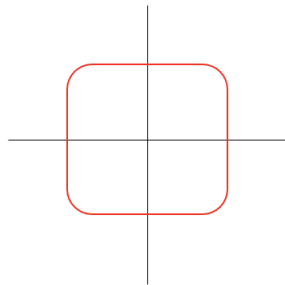
**p = 2**  
**(convex)**



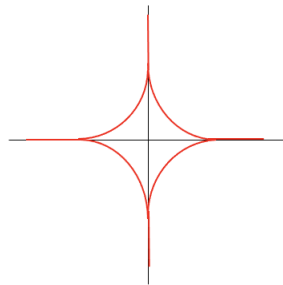
**p = 1**  
**(convex)**



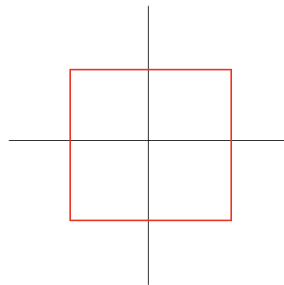
**p = 0.5**  
**(not convex)**



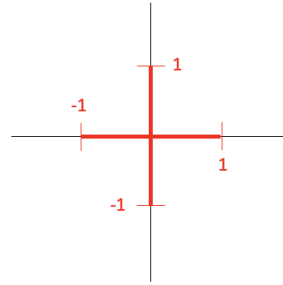
$p = 5$



$p = 0.1$



$p = \infty$



$p = 0$

**Definition 20**  $\|x\|_\infty := \max |x_i|$  (is a norm)

$\|x\|_0 := \text{number of non-zero coordinates} = \sum_{i=1}^d \mathbb{1}_{\{x_i \neq 0\}}$   $\|x\|_0$  is not a norm

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \|x\|_0 = 1; \lambda x = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \|\lambda x\|_0 = 1$$

$\lambda = 5 \qquad \neq 5.1$