Winter 2021 Math 106 Topics in Applied Mathematics Data-driven Uncertainty Quantification

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Lecture 10: Hilbert Space

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10.1 Function Space

- A function space is a set of functions *F* that has some structure.
- Often a nonparametric density estimation or a function approximation is chosen to lie in some function space, where the assumed structure is exploited by algorithms and theoretical analysis.

Let V be a vector space over \mathbb{R} . A norm is a mapping $\|\cdot\|: V \to [0,\infty)$ that satisfies

1.
$$||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||.$$

2.
$$\|ax\| = |a| \|x\|$$
 for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$.

3.
$$||x|| = 0$$
 implies $x = 0$.

A vector space equipped with a norm is called a **normed vector space**.

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Example.
$$V = \mathbb{R}^k$$
 with $||x|| = \sqrt{\sum_i x_i^2}$.

10.1 Function Space

- A sequence x₁, x₂, ... is said to converge to x if ||x_n − x || → 0 as n → ∞.
- A sequence x₁, x₂,... in a normed space is a Cauchy sequence if ||x_m − x_n|| → 0 as m, n → ∞.
- The space is complete if every Cauchy sequence converges to a limit.
- A complete, normed vector space is called a **Banach space**.

Example. $L^p([0,1])$ spaces, $1 \le p \le \infty$

$$\{f(x):\int |f^p(x)|^p dx<\infty\}.$$

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An inner product is a mapping < ·, · >: V × V → ℝ that satisfies, for all x, y, z ∈ V and a ∈ ℝ:
1. ⟨x, y⟩ ≥ 0 and ⟨x, x >= 0 if and only if x = 0
2. ⟨x, y + z >= ⟨x, x > +⟨x, z >
3. ⟨x, ay >= a⟨x, y⟩
4. ⟨x, y⟩ =< y, x >
Example. V = ℝ^k with ⟨x, y⟩ = ∑_i x_iy_i.
Example. V = L²([0, 1]) with ⟨f, g⟩ = ∫ f(x)g(x)dx.
x and y are orthogonal if ⟨x, y⟩ = 0

Cauchy-Schwartz inequality

 $|\langle x,y\rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\|.$

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Example. $\int f(x)g(x)dx \le (\int f^2 dx)^{1/2} (\int g^2 dx)^{1/2}$

- An inner product space is a normed space with the norm ||x|| = ⟨x, x⟩.
- Parallelogram property

$$||x + y||^{2} + ||x - y||^{2} = 2(||x||^{2} + ||y||^{2}).$$

- A Hilbert space, H, is a complete, inner product vector space.
- Given a set S ⊂ H of a normed linear space and some point b outside of S, the distance between b and S is defined as

$$d(b,S) = \inf_{x\in S} \|x-b\|.$$

Note that in general there is no guarantee that there exists a point u ∈ S such that d(b, S) = ||u − b|| (this is why we have inf instead of min).

Theorem. A set $S \subset H$ is called **closed** if every convergent sequence $\{x_n\}$ in S converges to an element of S. If S is a closed linear space of a Hilbert space H and b is an element of H, then there exists $u \in S$ such that ||u - b|| = d(b, S). **Idea of Proof.**

▶ There exists a sequence
$$\{u_n\} \in S$$
 such that $||u_n - b|| \rightarrow d(b, S)$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$.

This does not mean that {u_n} has a limit in S in general.
 From

$$\|\frac{1}{2}(b-u_m)\|^2 + \|\frac{1}{2}(b-u_n)\|^2 = \frac{1}{2}\|b-\frac{1}{2}(u_n+u_m)\|^2 + \frac{1}{8}\|u_n-u_m\|^2,$$

 $||u_n - u_m|| \to 0$ and thus $\{u_n\}$ is a Cauchy sequence.

From the definition of the Hilbert space, there exists u ∈ S such that d(b, S) = ||u − b||.

For a closed subspace S of H and x ∈ S, x̂ such that d(x, S) = ||x̂ − x|| is called the closest point of x in S or the projection of x onto S.

Theorem. Let *S* be a closed linear subspace of *H*, let *x* be any element of *S*, *b* any element of *V*, and \hat{b} the project of *b* onto *S*. Then

$$\langle x-\hat{b},b-\hat{b}
angle = 0.$$

Proof. If $x = \hat{b}$, we are done. Otherwise, set

$$heta(x-\hat{b})-(b-\hat{b})= heta x+(1- heta)\hat{b}-b=y-b$$
 where $y= heta x+(1- heta)\hat{b}.$

Since y is in S and $||y - b|| \ge ||\hat{b} - b||$, we have

 $\|\theta(x-\hat{b})-(b-\hat{b})\|^2 = \theta^2 \|x-\hat{b}\|^2 - 2\theta(x-\hat{b},b-\hat{b}) + \|b-\hat{b}\|^2 \ge \|b-\hat{b}\|^2.$

Therefore, $\theta^2 \|x - \hat{b}\|^2 - 2\theta \langle x - \hat{b}, b - \hat{b} \rangle \ge 0$ for all θ .

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Theorem. Let S be a closed linear subspace of H, let x be any element of S, b any element of V, and \hat{b} the project of b onto S. Then

$$\langle x-\hat{b},b-\hat{b}
angle = 0.$$

Proof.

Therefore, $\theta^2 \|x - \hat{b}\|^2 - 2\theta \langle x - \hat{b}, b - \hat{b} \rangle \ge 0$ for all θ . The left-hand side attains its minimum value when $\theta = \langle x - \hat{b}, b - \hat{b} \rangle / \|x - \hat{b}\|^2$, in which case

$$-\langle x-\hat{b},b-\hat{b}\rangle^2/\|x-\hat{b}\|^2\geq 0.$$

This implies

$$\langle x-\hat{b},b-\hat{b}
angle = 0.$$

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Theorem. Let S be a closed linear subspace of H, let x be any element of S, b any element of V, and \hat{b} the project of b onto S. Then

$$\langle x-\hat{b},b-\hat{b}
angle=0.$$

Proof.

Corollary. $b - \hat{b}$ is orthogonal to *S*. **Corollary.** \hat{b} is unique.

10.3 Parametric Regression

Example. For a given data set $\{(x_i, y_i), i = 1, 2, ..., m\}$, let we want a linear function fit to the data

$$y_i = ax_i + b.$$

In a matrix form, we are looking for a and b such that

$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 & 1\\ \vdots & \vdots\\ x_m & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a\\ b \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1\\ \vdots\\ y_n \end{pmatrix}$$

In a more general form, we are looking for a solution u to the following linear system

$$Au = v$$

where A is an $m \times n$ and m > n.

10.3 Parametric Regression

Example. (cont'd) If we assume that the column vectors of A are linearly independent, what can we say about the existence of the solution u?

- If Au = v has a solution, then one can express v as a linear combination of A₁, A₂, ..., A_n (the column vectors of A). That is, if v is not in the column space of A, there is no solution.
- The best we can represent about v is the projection of v into the column space of A, \hat{v} .
- ► Then, does $Au = \hat{v}$ has a solution? From the previous slides, we know

$$\langle A_1, \hat{v} - v \rangle = 0, \langle A_2, \hat{v} - v \rangle = 0, ..., \langle A_n, \hat{v} - v \rangle = 0.$$

That is, $A^T(Au - v) = A^T(\hat{v} - v) = 0$, i.e., $A^TAu = A^Tv$. As A^TA is invertible, we have

$$u = (A^T A)^{-1} A^T v$$
, the regression formula!

10.4 Orthonormal Basis

Definition. An orthonormal basis of a Hilbert Space *H* is a family $\{e_k \in H\}_{k \in B}$ if it satisfies

1.
$$\langle e_k, e_j \rangle = 0$$
 for all $k \neq j$, $k, j \in B$.

- 2. $||e_k|| = 1$ for all $k \in B$.
- 3. The linear span of $\{e_k\}$ is dense in H.

If the index set *B* is countable, the Hilbert space is called **separable**. That is, for any $u \in H$, *u* can be represented as

$$u = \sum_{i \in B} \beta_i e_i$$

for an orthonormal basis $\{e_i\}$.

Note. We will consider only separable Hilbert spaces.

$$\beta_i = \langle u, e_i \rangle.$$
$$\|u\|^2 = \sum_{i \in B} \beta_i^2.$$

10.4 Orthonormal Basis

Examples.

- $\{e^{2\pi inx}\}_{n=-\infty}^{\infty}$ is an orthogonal basis of $L^2[0,1]$.
- The Legendre polynomial is another orthogonal basis for L²[0, 1].
- The Hermite polynomial is an orthogonal basis of $L^2(\mathbb{R})$.

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