

# Optimization and Computational Linear Algebra for Data Science

## Lecture 4: Norm and dot product

Léo MIOLANE · leo.miolane@gmail.com

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**Warning:** *This material is not meant to be lecture notes. It only gathers the main concepts and results from the lecture, without any additional explanation, motivation, examples, figures...*

## 1 Norm

### Definition 1.1 (*Norm*)

Let  $V$  be a vector space. A norm  $\|\cdot\|$  on  $V$  is a function from  $V$  to  $\mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  that verifies the following points:

- (i) Triangular inequality:  $\|u + v\| \leq \|u\| + \|v\|$  for all  $u, v \in V$ .
- (ii) Homogeneity:  $\|\alpha v\| = |\alpha| \times \|v\|$  for all  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $v \in V$ .
- (iii) Positive definiteness: if  $\|v\| = 0$  for some  $v \in V$ , then  $v = 0$ .

**Example 1.1.** One can consider various norms over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

- The Euclidean norm  $\|x\|_2 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$ .
- The  $\ell_1$  norm  $\|x\|_1 \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$ .
- More generally, given  $p \geq 1$ , the  $\ell_p$ -norm  $\|x\|_p \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{1/p}$ .
- The infinity-norm  $\|x\|_\infty \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \max(|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|)$ .

## 2 Dot product

### Definition 2.1 (*Scalar product, or “dot product”, or “inner product”*)

Let  $V$  be a vector space. A scalar product on  $V$  is a function  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  from  $V \times V$  to  $\mathbb{R}$  that verifies the following points:

- (i) Symmetry:  $\langle u, v \rangle = \langle v, u \rangle$  for all  $u, v \in V$ .
- (ii) Linearity:  $\langle u + v, w \rangle = \langle u, w \rangle + \langle v, w \rangle$  and  $\langle \alpha v, w \rangle = \alpha \langle v, w \rangle$  for all  $u, v, w \in V$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- (iii) Positive definiteness:  $\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$  with equality if and only if  $v = 0$ .

**Example 2.1.**

- For  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ , the Euclidean scalar product  $\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i = x^\top y$  is a scalar product.

- If  $V$  is the set of all continuous functions on  $[0, 1]$ , then  $\langle f, g \rangle = \int_0^1 f(t)g(t)dt$  is a scalar product.

**Proposition 2.1 (Norm induced by a scalar product)**

If  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is a scalar product on  $V$  then  $\|v\| \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$  is a norm on  $V$ . We say that the norm  $\|\cdot\|$  is induced by the scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$ .

**Theorem 2.1 (Cauchy-Schwarz inequality)**

Let  $\|\cdot\|$  be the norm induced by the scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  on the vector space  $V$ . Then for all  $x, y \in V$ :

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\|. \quad (1)$$

Moreover, there is equality in (1) if and only if  $x$  and  $y$  are linearly dependent, i.e.  $x = \alpha y$  or  $y = \alpha x$  for some  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Proof.** If  $x = 0$  or  $y = 0$  the result is obvious, we assume therefore to be in the case where  $x \neq 0$  and  $y \neq 0$ . For  $t \in \mathbb{R}$  we define the function  $f(t) = \|tx - y\|^2$ . Since the norm  $\|\cdot\|$  is induced by the scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  we have

$$f(t) = \langle tx - y, tx - y \rangle = t^2\|x\|^2 - 2t\langle x, y \rangle + \|y\|^2.$$

$f$  is therefore a quadratic function of  $t$ . Notice that  $f$  is non-negative because  $f(t) = \|tx - y\|^2 \geq 0$ . This gives that its discriminant  $\Delta$  is non-positive:

$$\Delta = (2\langle x, y \rangle)^2 - 4\|x\|^2\|y\|^2 \leq 0,$$

which proves (1). We have equality in (1) if and only if  $\Delta = 0$  that is if and only if  $f$  admits a zero  $\alpha$ , which is equivalent to  $\alpha x - y = 0$ , i.e.  $y = \alpha x$ .  $\square$

### 3 Orthogonality

In this section we consider a scalar product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  (that induces a norm  $\|\cdot\|$ ) on a vector space  $V$ . For simplicity one may think of  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  and  $\|\cdot\|$  to be the usual Euclidean dot product and norm on  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Definition 3.1 (Orthogonality)**

- We say that vectors  $x$  and  $y$  are orthogonal if  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$ . We write then  $x \perp y$ .
- We say that a vector  $x$  is orthogonal to a set of vectors  $A \subset V$  if  $x$  is orthogonal to all the vectors in  $A$ , i.e.  $\forall y \in A, \langle x, y \rangle = 0$ . We write then  $x \perp A$ .
- More generality we say that  $A \subset V$  and  $B \subset V$  are orthogonal if  $\langle x, y \rangle = 0$  for all  $x \in A$  and all  $y \in B$ . As before, we write  $A \perp B$ .

**Proposition 3.1**

If  $x$  is orthogonal to  $v_1, \dots, v_k$  then  $x$  is orthogonal to any linear combination of these vectors i.e.  $x \perp \text{Span}(v_1, \dots, v_k)$ .

**Theorem 3.1 (Pythagorean theorem)**

Let  $x, y \in V$ . Then

$$x \perp y \iff \|x + y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2.$$

**Definition 3.2 (Orthogonal and orthonormal basis)**

Assume that  $\dim(V) = n$  and let  $(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  be a basis of  $V$ . We say that

- $(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  is an orthogonal basis of  $V$  if the vectors  $v_1, \dots, v_n$  are pairwise orthogonal, i.e.  $\langle v_i, v_j \rangle = 0$  for all  $i \neq j$ .
- $(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  is an orthonormal basis of  $V$  if it is an orthogonal basis and if all the  $v_i$  have unit norm:  $\|v_1\| = \dots = \|v_n\| = 1$ .

Orthonormal basis are particularly convenient for computing coordinates of vectors:

**Proposition 3.2**

Assume that  $\dim(V) = n$  and let  $(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  be an **orthonormal** basis of  $V$ . Then the coordinates of a vector  $x \in V$  in the basis  $(v_1, \dots, v_n)$  are  $(\langle v_1, x \rangle, \dots, \langle v_n, x \rangle)$ :

$$x = \langle v_1, x \rangle v_1 + \dots + \langle v_n, x \rangle v_n.$$

## 4 Orthogonal projection and distance to a subspace

We assume in this section that  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$  and that  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle, \|\cdot\|$  are respectively the Euclidean scalar product and Euclidean norm.

**Definition 4.1 (Orthogonal projection and distance to a subspace)**

Let  $S$  be a subspace of  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$ . The orthogonal projection of a vector  $x$  onto  $S$  is defined as the vector  $P_S(x)$  in  $S$  that minimizes the distance to  $x$ :

$$P_S(x) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \arg \min_{y \in S} \|x - y\|.$$

The distance of  $x$  to the subspace  $S$  is then defined as

$$d(x, S) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \min_{y \in S} \|x - y\| = \|x - P_S(x)\|.$$

**Proposition 4.1**

Let  $S$  be a subspace of  $V = \mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $(v_1, \dots, v_k)$  be a basis of  $S$ . Then for all  $x \in V$ ,

- $P_S(x) = \langle v_1, x \rangle v_1 + \dots + \langle v_k, x \rangle v_k$ .
- $x - P_S(x)$  is orthogonal to  $S$ .

## 5 Gram-Schmidt orthogonalisation method

