STAT 309: MATHEMATICAL COMPUTATIONS I FALL 2023 LECTURE 2

1. Continuity of norms

- all norms are continuous functions a simple but important observation
- we know that $||v-w|| \le ||v|| + ||w||$ but we can obtain another useful relationship as follows:

$$||v|| = ||(v - w) + w|| \le ||v - w|| + ||w||$$

we obtain

$$||v - w|| \ge ||v|| - ||w||$$

• thirdly, from

$$||w|| = ||w - v + v|| \le ||v - w|| + ||v||$$

it follows that

$$||v - w|| \ge ||w|| - ||v||$$

and therefore

$$|||v|| - ||w||| \le ||v - w|| \tag{1.1}$$

• the inequality (1.1) yields a very important property of norms, namely, they are all (uniformly) continuous functions of the entries of their arguments — in fact, they are *Lipschitz functions* if you know what those are

2. Equivalence of norms

- there are also interesting relationships for two different norms
- first and foremost, on finite dimensional spaces (which include \mathbb{C}^n and $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$) all norms are equivalent
 - that is, given two norms $\|\cdot\|_{\alpha}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{\beta}$, there exist constants c_1 and c_2 with $0 < c_1 < c_2$ such that

$$c_1 \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\alpha} \le \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\beta} \le c_2 \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\alpha} \tag{2.1}$$

for all $\mathbf{x} \in V$

– example: from the definition of the ∞ -norm, we have

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_{2} \leq \sqrt{n} \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty}$$

- example: also not hard to show that

$$\frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{x}\|_1 \le \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} \le \|\mathbf{x}\|_1$$

- in fact, no matter what crazy choices of norms that we make, say

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\alpha} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} i |x_i|^n\right)^{1/n}, \quad \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\beta} = \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & -1 & & \\ -1 & 3 & \ddots & \\ & \ddots & \ddots & -1 \\ & & -1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{x},$$

we know that there are c_1 and c_2 so that (2.1) holds

– it is the same for $\mathbb{C}^{m\times n}$; for example we always have

$$\begin{split} \|A\|_{\mathsf{H},\infty} &\leq \|A\|_{\mathsf{F}} \leq \sqrt{mn} \|A\|_{\mathsf{H},\infty} \\ &\frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \|A\|_2 \leq \|A\|_{\infty} \leq \sqrt{n} \|A\|_2 \\ &\|A\|_2 \leq \|A\|_{\mathsf{F}} \leq \sqrt{n} \|A\|_2 \end{split}$$

for all $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$

• by definition, a sequence of vectors $\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}_1, \dots$ converges to a vector \mathbf{x} if and only if

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}\| = 0$$

for any norm (you may also write down a formal version in terms of ε and N)

• the equivalence of norms on finite dimensional vector spaces tells us that

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}\|_{\alpha} = 0 \quad \text{if and only if} \quad \lim_{k \to \infty} \|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}\|_{\beta} = 0$$

for any choice of norms $\|\cdot\|_{\alpha}$ and $\|\cdot\|_{\beta}$ (why?)

- if we can establish convergence of an algorithm in a specific norm convergence in every other norm follows automatically
- for this reason, norms are very useful to measure the error in an approximation

3. INNER PRODUCTS

- an inner product is a complex-valued function on a product of a vector space (over \mathbb{C}) with itself, denoted $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \to \mathbb{C}$, satisfying
 - (1) $\langle v, v \rangle \geq 0$ for all $v \in V$
 - (2) $\langle v, v \rangle = 0$ if and only if $v = 0_V$
 - (3) $\langle v, \alpha_1 w_1 + \alpha_2 w_2 \rangle = \alpha_1 \langle v, w_1 \rangle + \alpha_2 \langle v, w_2 \rangle$ for all $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ and $v, w_1, w_2 \in V$
 - (4) $\langle v, w \rangle = \overline{\langle w, v \rangle}$ for any $v, w \in V$
- by virtue of the last two conditions $\langle \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2, w \rangle = \overline{\alpha}_1 \langle v_1, w \rangle + \overline{\alpha}_2 \langle v_2, w \rangle$ for all $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{C}$ and $v_1, v_2, w \in V$
- for real vector spaces, an inner product is a real-valued function $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : V \times V \to \mathbb{R}$ and as a result, the last two conditions become:
 - (3) $\langle \alpha_1 v_1 + \alpha_2 v_2, w \rangle = \alpha_1 \langle v_1, w \rangle + \alpha_2 \langle v_2, w \rangle$ for all $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $v_1, v_2, w \in V$
 - (4) $\langle v, w \rangle = \langle w, v \rangle$ for any $v, w \in V$
- just as norms are an abstraction of length, inner products are an abstraction of angles (or rather, inverse cosines of angles)
- the defining properties of an inner product tell us that

$$||v|| \coloneqq \sqrt{\langle v, v \rangle}$$

defines a norm called the norm induced by the inner product

• Cauchy–Schwartz inequality in fact holds for any inner product and the norm induced by that inner product

$$|\langle v, w \rangle| < ||v|| ||w||$$

- given a norm $\|\cdot\|$, how can we tell if it is a norm induced by some inner product?
- the answer is: if and only if the norm satisfies the parallelogram law

$$||v + w||^2 + ||v - w||^2 = 2||v||^2 + 2||w||^2$$

• the only inner products we care about in this course are the *Hermitian inner product* or l^2 -inner product for vectors

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \coloneqq \mathbf{x}^* \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n \overline{x}_i y_i, \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$$

and trace inner product for matrices

$$\langle X, Y \rangle := \operatorname{tr}(X^*Y) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n \overline{x}_{ij} y_{ij}, \quad \text{for all } X, Y \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$$

• over reals, we have

$$\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \coloneqq \mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i, \quad \text{for all } \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n,$$

called the Euclidean (instead of Hermitian) inner product, and

$$\langle X, Y \rangle := \operatorname{tr}(X^{\mathsf{T}}Y) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} x_{ij} y_{ij}, \quad \text{for all } X, Y \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

• the norms induced by these inner products are precisely the Euclidean norm and Frobenius norm respectively since

$$(\mathbf{x}^*\mathbf{x})^2 = \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$
 and $\operatorname{tr}(X^*X) = \|X\|_{\mathsf{F}}^2$

for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ and $X \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$

• Cauchy–Schwartz inequality yields

$$|\mathbf{x}^*\mathbf{y}| \le ||\mathbf{x}||_2 ||\mathbf{y}||_2$$
 and $|\operatorname{tr}(X^*Y)| \le ||X||_{\mathsf{F}} ||Y||_{\mathsf{F}}$

- using the parallelogram law, we can show that no other vector p-norms or matrix Hölder p-norm are induced by inner products when $p \neq 2$
- the parallelogram law also tells us that matrix (p, q)-norm are not induced by inner products, whatever the value of p and q (including p = q = 2, so the spectral norm is not induced by an inner product either)
- there are two well-known generalizations of the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality:
 - (i) the Hölder inequality

$$|\mathbf{x}^*\mathbf{y}| \le ||\mathbf{x}||_p ||\mathbf{y}||_q, \quad \frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$$

when p = q = 2, we get back the Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

(ii) the Bessel inequality in Homework 0: for any $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_r$ pairwise orthogonal unit vectors, i.e., $\|\mathbf{x}_i\|_2 = 1$ for all $i = 1, \dots, r$, and $\mathbf{x}_i^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_j = 0$ for all $i \neq j$,

$$\sum_{i=1}^r (\mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_i)^2 \le \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2$$

when r = 1, we get back the Cauchy–Schwarz inequality

4. OUTER PRODUCT

• for $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_m]^\mathsf{T} \in \mathbb{C}^m$ and $\mathbf{y} = [y_1, \dots, y_n]^\mathsf{T} \in \mathbb{C}^n$, the product

$$\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} = egin{bmatrix} x_1y_1 & x_1y_2 & \cdots & x_1y_n \ x_2y_1 & x_2y_2 & \cdots & x_2y_n \ dots & dots & dots \ x_my_1 & x_my_2 & \cdots & x_my_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{m imes n}$$

or

$$\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^* = \begin{bmatrix} x_1\bar{y}_1 & x_1\bar{y}_2 & \cdots & x_1\bar{y}_n \\ x_2\bar{y}_1 & x_2\bar{y}_2 & \cdots & x_2\bar{y}_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ x_m\bar{y}_1 & x_m\bar{y}_2 & \cdots & x_m\bar{y}_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$$

is often called the *outer product* of \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y}

 \bullet if neither **x** nor **y** is the zero vector, then

$$rank(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}) = rank(\mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^{*}) = 1$$

- furthermore if rank(A) = 1, then there exists $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^m$ and $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ so that $A = \mathbf{x}\mathbf{y}^*$
- as such a matrix of this form is often called a rank-1 matrix

5. MATRIX PRODUCT

- the following are some useful observations regarding matrix-matrix and matrix-vector products, assuming over \mathbb{R} for simplicity
- by definition, multiplying two matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{lpha}_1^{\intercal} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{lpha}_m^{\intercal} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad \text{and} \quad B = [\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$$

is the same as forming the matrix of inner products of the row vectors $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and the column vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{1}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{b}_{1} & \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{1}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{1}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{b}_{p} \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{2}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{b}_{1} & \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{2}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{2}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{b}_{p} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{m}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{b}_{1} & \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{m}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{b}_{2} & \cdots & \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{m}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{b}_{p} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$$

$$(5.1)$$

• multiplying two matrices

$$A = [\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$
 and $B = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\beta}_1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\beta}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$

is the same as taking the sum of outer products of the column vectors $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and the row vectors $\boldsymbol{\beta}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\beta}_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$AB = \mathbf{a}_1 \boldsymbol{\beta}_1^{\mathsf{T}} + \dots + \mathbf{a}_n \boldsymbol{\beta}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$$
 (5.2)

• multiplying two matrices

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$
 and $B = [\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$

is the same as multiplying A to each of the column vectors $\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, \mathbf{b}_p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ of B,

$$AB = [A\mathbf{b}_1, \dots, A\mathbf{b}_p] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$$

• multiplying two matrices

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{lpha}_1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{lpha}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad \text{and} \quad B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$$

is the same as multiplying each of the row vectors $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_1^{\mathsf{T}}, \dots, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_n^{\mathsf{T}} \in (\mathbb{R}^m)^* = \mathbb{R}^{m \times 1}$ by B on the right:

$$AB = \begin{bmatrix} \boldsymbol{\alpha}_1^{\mathsf{T}} B \\ \vdots \\ \boldsymbol{\alpha}_n^{\mathsf{T}} B \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$$

- the following are special cases when one of the matrices is a vector or is a diagonal matrix
- multiplying $A = [\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ on the right by $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_n]^\mathsf{T} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the same as taking linear combinations of the column vectors $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$,

$$A\mathbf{x} = x_1\mathbf{a}_1 + \dots + x_n\mathbf{a}_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$$

• multiplying

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{lpha}_1^{\intercal} \ dots \ oldsymbol{lpha}_n^{\intercal} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m imes n}$$

on the left by $\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}} = [y_1, \dots, y_m] \in \mathbb{R}^m$ is the same as taking linear combinations of the row vectors $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{\alpha}_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

$$\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}A = y_1 \boldsymbol{\alpha}_1^{\mathsf{T}} + \dots + y_m \boldsymbol{\alpha}_m^{\mathsf{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^{n*}$$

where $\mathbb{R}^{n*} = \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n}$ is the dual space of $\mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$

• multiplying $A = [\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ on the right by a diagonal matrix

$$D = \operatorname{diag}(d_1, \dots, d_n) = \begin{bmatrix} d_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & d_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$$

is the same as scaling the column vectors $\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, \mathbf{a}_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$ by $d_1, \dots, d_n \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$AD = [d_1\mathbf{a}_1, \dots, d_n\mathbf{a}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

multiplying

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} oldsymbol{lpha}_1^{\intercal} \ dots \ oldsymbol{lpha}_m^{\intercal} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m imes n}$$

on the left by a diagonal matrix

$$\Delta = \operatorname{diag}(\delta_1, \dots, \delta_m) = \begin{bmatrix} \delta_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \delta_m \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$$

is the same as scaling the row vectors $\alpha_1, \ldots, \alpha_n \in \mathbb{R}^m$, by $\delta_1, \ldots, \delta_m \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$\Delta A = egin{bmatrix} \delta_1 oldsymbol{lpha}_1^{\intercal} \ dots \ \delta_m oldsymbol{lpha}_m^{\intercal} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m imes n}$$