MATH3332

Data Analytic Tools

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A summary notes for revision

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1 Vector Space, metric, limits/convergence

1.1 Vector Spaces

A vector space (linear space) over \mathbb{R} (in real domain) is a set V together with functions:

1. Vector addition

$$(V, V) \mapsto V$$

$$\equiv (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in (V, V) \implies \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}$$

2. Scalar multiplication

$$(\mathbb{R}, V) \mapsto V$$

$$\equiv \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x} \in V, \alpha \mathbf{x} \in V$$

These two functions should satisfy the following 8 properties. $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z} \in V$

1. Associativity of addition

$$x + y + z = x + (y + z) = (x + y) + z$$

2. Commutativity of addition

$$x + y = y + x$$

3. Zero vector

$$\exists 0 \text{ s.t. } x + 0 = 0 + x$$

4. Negative vector

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in V, \exists -\mathbf{x} \in V, \text{ s.t. } \mathbf{x} + (-\mathbf{x}) = (-\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

5.

$$1\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}$$

6.

$$\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}, \alpha(\beta \mathbf{x}) = (\beta \alpha) \mathbf{x}$$

7.

$$\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}, (\alpha + \beta)\mathbf{x} = \alpha\mathbf{x} + \beta\mathbf{x}$$

8.

$$\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \alpha(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) = \alpha \mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{y}$$

Remarks:

- 1. We can define vector space over the complex domain \mathbb{C} similarly.
- 2. We will assume vector space in the real domain by default. Vector space over complex domain is used very rarely.

Examples of vector spaces

- 1. \mathbb{R} with standard addition of real numbers and the standard multiplication of real numbers is a vector space.
- 2. \mathbb{R}^n *n*-dimensional Euclidean space with addition and multiplication defined as follows Addition:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ x_1 + y_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n + y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Multiplication:

$$\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}, \alpha \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \alpha x_1 \\ \alpha x_2 \\ \vdots \\ \alpha x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Zero:

$$\mathbf{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}^T$$

Then, \mathbb{R}^n is a vector space since it is closed in addition and scalar multiplication, and $\mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

3. All real $m \times n$ matrices $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with addition and multiplication defined as: Addition:

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1n} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \\ x_{m1} & x_{m2} & \dots & x_{mn} \end{bmatrix}, Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_{11} & y_{12} & \dots & y_{1n} \\ y_{21} & y_{22} & \dots & y_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \\ y_{m1} & y_{m2} & \dots & y_{mn} \end{bmatrix}, X + Y = (x_{ij} + y_{ij})_{m \times n}$$

Multiplication:

$$\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, X = \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1n} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \\ x_{m1} & x_{m2} & \dots & x_{mn} \end{bmatrix}, \alpha X = (\alpha x_{ij})_{m \times n}$$

Zero:

$$\mathbf{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

Then $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is a vector space. Remarks:

- (a) This vector space is same as \mathbb{R}^{mn} by vectorization.
- (b) Vectorization $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \mapsto \mathbb{R}^{mn}$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1n} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \\ x_{m1} & x_{m2} & \dots & x_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} \\ \vdots \\ x_{m1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{m2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{1n} \\ \vdots \\ x_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

4. All real 3-array of size $m \times n \times n \times l$ $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n \times l}$ with addition and multiplication defined as Addition:

$$X = (x_{ijk})_{i,j,k}, Y = (y_{ijk})_{i,j,k} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n \times l}, X + Y = (x_{ijk} + y_{ijk})_{i,j,k} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n \times l}$$

Multiplication:

$$\alpha \in \mathbb{R}, X = (x_{ijk})_{i,j,k} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n \times l}, \alpha X = (\alpha x_{ijk})_{i,j,k}$$

5. (Function space). The set of all continuous functions on [a, b], denoted by

$$C[a,b] := \{f : f \text{ is a continous function on } [a,b]\}$$

with addition defined as

$$\forall f, g \in C[a, b], (f + g)(t) = f(t) + g(t), \forall t \in [a, b]$$

and multiplication defined as

$$\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}, f \in C[a, b], (\alpha f)(t) = \alpha f(t) \forall t \in [a, b]$$

is a vector space.

Counter-example of vector spaces

- 1. Define $V = [-1,1] \subset \mathbb{R}$. We can easily say that V is not a vector space by considering a counter-example: $1+1=2 \notin V$.
- 2. Consider the set of all strings with addition defined as 'I' + ' am' = 'I am'. But this addition definition violates the commutativity of addition "I" + " am" ≠ " am" + "I". Therefore, we cannot use vector space to model text data in this naive way.

1.2 Metric on vector space

Metric on vector space is to define the "closeness/ distance" of two vectors in order to do calculus on vector spaces.

Let V be a vector space and $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \in V$, then

$$dist(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = dist(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) = length of \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}$$

and (triangular inequality)

$$dist(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) + dist(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{z}) \ge dist(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$$

Remark: distance should be *shift invariance*.

Therefore, to define distance, we only need to define the length (norm) of vectors.

Let $\mathbf{x} \in V$. Denote $||\mathbf{x}||$ be the length (norm) of \mathbf{x} . Then $||\mathbf{x}||$ should satisfy:

1. Non-negativity

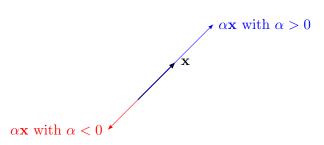
$$||\mathbf{x}|| \ge 0$$

and

$$||\mathbf{x}|| = 0 \iff \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

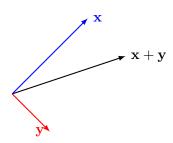
2. Length of a scaling of a vector is a scaling of the length of the vector

$$||\alpha \mathbf{x}|| = |\alpha|||\mathbf{x}||$$



3. (Triangular Inequality)

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



Examples of vector norms

1. Euclidean norm (2- norm)

$$||\mathbf{x}||_2 = (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

(a)

$$\forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}, x_i^2 \ge 0 \implies \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \ge 0 \implies ||\mathbf{x}||_2 \ge 0$$

and

$$||\mathbf{x}||_2 = 0 \iff (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = 0 \iff \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 = 0 \iff x_i = 0, \forall i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\} \iff \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$$

(b) $||\alpha \mathbf{x}||_2 = (\sum_{i=1}^n (\alpha x_i)^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = (\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha^2 x_i^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = (\alpha^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = |\alpha| (\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} = |\alpha| ||\mathbf{x}||_2$

(c)

$$||\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}||_2 \le ||\mathbf{x}||_2 + ||\mathbf{y}||_2$$

(To be proved later)

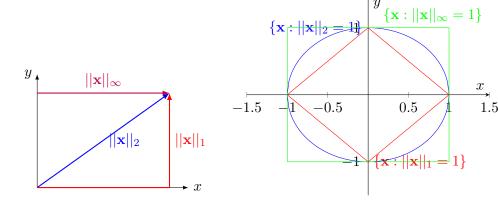
2. ∞ -norm

$$||\mathbf{x}||_{\infty} = \max_{i \in \{1, 2, \cdots, n\}} |x_i|$$

3. p-norm

$$||\mathbf{x}||_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Comparison of p-norms across different p



Remark: $||\mathbf{x}||_p \le ||\mathbf{x}||_q$ if $p \ge q$

1.3 Matrix Vector Norm

 $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is a vector space. When we are talking about **matrix vector norm**, we are viewing $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ as \mathbb{R}^{mn} by vectorization.

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{11} & x_{12} & \dots & x_{1n} \\ x_{21} & x_{22} & \dots & x_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & & \\ x_{m1} & x_{m2} & \dots & x_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x_{11} \\ \vdots \\ x_{m1} \\ \vdots \\ x_{m2} \\ \vdots \\ x_{1n} \\ \vdots \\ x_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

Then, we can define vector p-norm for $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ as

$$||A||_{p,vec} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|^{p}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

For example:

1. for p = 1,

$$||A||_{1,vec} = (\sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|)$$

2. for $p = \infty$,

$$||A||_{\infty,vec} = \max_{i,j} |a_{ij}|$$

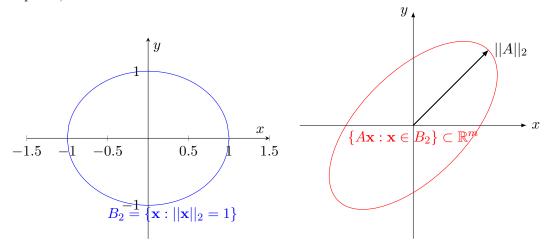
1.4 Matrix Norm

When we are talking about **matrix norm**, we are viewing $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ as linear transformation $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$. Then, we define matrix p-norm as

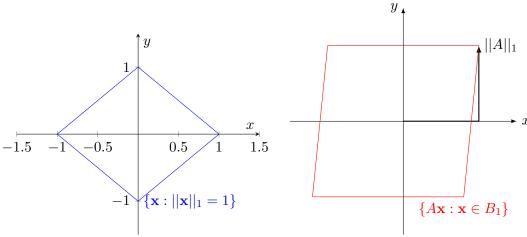
$$||A||_p = \max_{\mathbf{x} \neq 0, \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{||A\mathbf{x}||_p}{||\mathbf{x}||_p}$$

For example:

1. For p = 2,



2. For p = 1,



Proposition: $||A|_{-\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le m} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |a_{ij}|$ for example

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{3 \times 2}$$

then $||A||_{\infty} = \max |2| + |1| + |-1|, |0| + |2| + |4| = 6$

3. For $p = \infty$,

$$||A||_{\infty} = \max_{j \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|$$

proof: it suffices to proof that

$$\max_{\|A\|_{\infty}=1} \|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le m} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_{ij}|$$

. We will proof that with two inequalities.

(a)
$$A = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ \vdots \\ a_m \end{bmatrix}$$
 then $A\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} a_1\mathbf{x} \\ a_2\mathbf{x} \\ \vdots \\ a_m\mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}$

$$||A||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le m} |a_i x|$$

$$= \max_{1 \le i \le m} |\sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij} x_j|$$

$$\le \max_{1 \le i \le m} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}| |x_j|$$

$$\le \max_{1 \le i \le m} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|$$

(b) Choose a special
$$\mathbf{x}$$
. Assume $\max_{1 \leq i \leq m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}| = \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{i'j}|$ Let $\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} sign(a_{i'1}) \\ sign(a_{i'2}) \\ \vdots \\ sign(a_{i'n}) \end{bmatrix}$

$$||A\mathbf{x}||_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le m} |\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_{j}|$$

$$\geq |\sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{i'j} x_{j}|$$

$$= |\sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}||$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|$$

$$= \max_{1 \le i \le m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |a_{ij}|$$

By (a) and (b), we can conclude that

$$\max_{\|A\|_{\infty}=1} \|A\|_{\infty} = \max_{1 \le i \le m} \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} |a_{ij}|$$

.

4. (Operator norm) For p = 2,

$$||A||_2 = \max_{||x||_2=1} ||A\mathbf{x}||_2$$

$$= \max_{||x||_2=1} ((A\mathbf{x})^T A\mathbf{x})^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= \max_{||x||_2=1} (\mathbf{x}^T A^T A\mathbf{x})^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$= \text{Maximum Eigenvalues of } A^T A$$

We may also use different norms in \mathbb{R}^n (p-norm) and \mathbb{R}^m (q-norm).

$$||A||_{p \to q} = \max_{\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}, \mathbf{x} = \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{||A\mathbf{x}||_q}{||\mathbf{x}||_p} = \max_{||\mathbf{x}||_p = 1} ||A\mathbf{x}||_q$$

1.5 Other norms

1. Nuclear norm we can use different norms in \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbb{R}^m .

$$||A||_{p \to q} = \max_{||\mathbf{x}||_p = 1} ||A\mathbf{x}||_q$$

- 2. Norms on $C[a,b] = \{f: f \text{ is a continous function on } [a,b] \}$ For all $f \in C[a,b]$, we define
 - (a) $||f||_{\infty} = \max_{t \in [a,b]} |f(t)|$
 - (b) $||f||_p = (\int_a^b |f(t)|^p dt)^{\frac{1}{p}}$ for $p \in \{1, 2, \dots\}$
- 3. Norms on $l_{\infty} = \{ \mathbf{a} : \mathbf{a} \text{ is an infinite sequence and } \exists c > 0 \text{ s.t. } |a_i| \leq c \ \forall i \}$

- (a) $||\mathbf{a}||_{\infty} = \sup_{i} |a_{i}|$
- (b) $||\mathbf{a}||_p = (\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$ but $||a||_p$ is indeed not a norm on l_{∞} . We will proof that by a counter-example.

$$\mathbf{a} = \begin{bmatrix} 1\\1/2\\1/3\\ \vdots\\1/i\\ \vdots \end{bmatrix} \in l_{\infty} \implies ||\mathbf{a}||_{1} = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_{i}| = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{i} = +\infty$$

If we just consider $l_p = \{\mathbf{a} : ||\mathbf{a}||_p = (\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} |a_i|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}\}$, then we can just say $||\mathbf{a}||_p$ is a norm on l_p .

Remark: Suppose $1 \le p < q < \infty$, then $l_p \subset l_q$

2 Case Study: K-means clustering, K-medians clustering

2.1 Clustering

Suppose we are given N vectors in \mathbb{R}^n ,

$$x_1, x_2, \cdots, x_N \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

we are going to divide them into K different groups.

Remark: \mathbb{R}^n here is used for simplicity, it can be replaced by any vector space.

Applications: image clustering, text data clustering, recommendation system, etc.

2.2 K-means clustering

Recall that Machine Learning = Representation + Evaluation + Optimization, in the clustering case:

- 1. Representation:
 - (a) c_i the group that \mathbf{x}_i belongs to, for $i = 1, 2, \dots, N$
 - (b) G_j the indices of **x**'s that belongs to Group j

$$G_j = \{i | c_i = j\}, j = 1, 2, \cdot, K$$

$$c_i, i = 1, \cdots, N \iff G_j, j = 1, \cdots, K$$

(c) \mathbf{z}_j – the representation vector in G_j , $j = 1, \dots K$ Remark: \mathbf{z}_j is not necessarily in $\{\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}$

For example: we have $\mathbf{x}_1 = (1,2)^T$, $\mathbf{x}_2 = (3,4)^T$, $\mathbf{x}_3 = (4,5)^T$, K = 2 and $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \text{Group } 1, \mathbf{x}_3 \in \text{Group } 2$. Then with the above notations:

$$c_1 = 1, c_2 = 1, c_3 = 2$$

$$G_1 = \{1, 2\}, G_2 = \{3\}$$

- 2. Evaluation:
 - (a) Within Group j: we want all the vectors within the group should be close to its representation vector \mathbf{z}_j , that is to minimize

$$J_j = \sum_{i \in G_j} ||\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j||_2^2$$

(b) All groups: we want all of J_i 's to be small, that is to minimize

$$J = J_1 + J_2 + \cdots + J_K$$

Then, we want to solve the problem:

$$\min_{G_1, \cdots, G_K; \mathbf{z}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{z}_K} J = \min_{G_1, \dots, G_K; \mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_K} \sum_{j=1}^K \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_2^2$$

This is to find G_1, \dots, G_K and $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots \mathbf{z}_2$ that minimizes J.

3. Optimization:

In this problem, we have to find two sets of unknowns G_1, \dots, G_K and $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_2$. We can use alternating minimization to solve this problem.

Algorithm (Alternating minimization):

step 0: Initialize $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_k$

step 1: Fix $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_k$, solve the minimization with respect to G_1, \dots, G_K . That is to solve

$$\min_{G_1, \dots, G_K} \sum_{j=1}^K \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_2^2 - \dots - \dots - (1)$$

step 2: Fix G_1, \dots, G_K , solve the minimization with respect to $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_k$. That is to solve

$$\min_{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_k} \sum_{j=1}^K \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_2^2 - - - - - - (2)$$

(Repeat until stopping criterion meet)

How do we solve (1), (2)?

(1)
$$\sum_{j=1}^{K} \sum_{i \in G_i} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_2^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{K} \sum_{i \in G_i} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_{c_i}\|_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_{c_i}\|_2^2$$

Therefore,

$$\min_{G_1,\dots,G_K} \sum_{j=1}^K \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_2^2 \iff \min_{c_1,\dots,c_N} \sum_{i=1}^N \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_{c_i}\|_2^2$$

$$\iff \min_{c_1,\dots,c_N} \|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{z}_{c_1}\|_2^2 + \dots + \|\mathbf{x}_N - \mathbf{z}_{c_N}\|_2^2$$

$$\iff \min_{c_i \in \{1,2,\dots,K\}} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_{c_i}\|_2^2 \text{ for } i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

$$\iff c_i = \underset{j \in 1, 2, \dots, K}{\arg\min} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_2^2$$

 \mathbf{x}_i is assigned to the group whose representative is the closest to \mathbf{x}_i . After that, we assign

$$G_i = \{i | c_i = j\} \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, K$$

(2)
$$\sum_{j=1}^{K} \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_2^2 = \sum_{i \in G_1} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_1\|_2^2 + \dots + \sum_{i \in G_K} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_K\|_2^2$$

where each term only depends on \mathbf{z}_i and independent of $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_{i-1}, \mathbf{z}_{i+1}, \dots, \mathbf{z}_K$. Therefore,

$$\sum_{j=1}^{K} \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_2^2 \iff \min_{\mathbf{z}_j} \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_2^2 \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, K$$

$$\iff \mathbf{z}_j = \arg\min_{\mathbf{z}_j} \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_2^2 \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, K$$

Consider the case in \mathbb{R}^n , let $f(\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{i \in G_i} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}\|_2^2$

$$f(\mathbf{z}) = \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}\|_2^2$$

$$= \sum_{i \in G_j} (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z})^T (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z})$$

$$= \sum_{i \in G_j} \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i - 2\mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{z} + \mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{z}$$

$$= |G_j| \mathbf{z}^T \mathbf{z} + \sum_{i \in G_i} \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}_i - 2\sum_{i \in G_i} \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{z}$$

Then, $\nabla f(\mathbf{z}) = 2|G_j|\mathbf{z} - 2\sum_{i \in G_j} \mathbf{x}_i$. $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{z}) = 2|G_j|I$. It is obvious that $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{z})$ is positive definite. So, $f(\mathbf{z})$ is a convex function. By setting $\nabla f(\mathbf{z}) = 0$, we can find the minimizer $\mathbf{z}_{minimizer} = \frac{1}{|G_j|} \sum_{i \in G_j} \mathbf{x}_i$ As a result, we can update $z_j = \frac{1}{|G_j|} \sum_{i \in G_j} \mathbf{x}_i$, which is just the mean of \mathbf{x}_i 's.

2.3 K-medians Clustering

In K-means Clustering, we used 2-norm, what if we choose to use 1-norm instead?

$$\min_{G_1,...,G_K; \mathbf{z}_1,...,\mathbf{z}_K} \sum_{j=1}^K \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_1$$

This will become the K-medians Clustering Algorithm.

K-medians Clustering Algorithms:

step 0: Initialize $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_k$

step 1: Fix $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_k$, solve the minimization with respect to G_1, \dots, G_K . That is to solve

$$\min_{G_1, \dots, G_K} \sum_{j=1}^K \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_1 \iff c_i = \underset{j \in \{1, \dots K\}}{\operatorname{arg min}} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_1 \text{ For } i = 1, \dots, N$$

step 2: Fix G_1, \dots, G_K , solve the minimization with respect to $\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_k$. That is to solve

$$\min_{\mathbf{z}_1, \dots, \mathbf{z}_k} \sum_{j=1}^K \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_1 \iff \min_{j} \sum_{i \in G_j} \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{z}_j\|_1 \text{ For } j = 1, \dots, K$$

$$\mathbf{z}_i = \text{entrywise-median}\{\mathbf{x}_i | i \in G_i\} \text{ For } j = 1, \dots, K$$

(Repeat until stopping criterion meet)

2.4 Comparison of K-means and K-medians

Both mean and median can be using in clustering problem but median seems to have a better representation.

- 1. Mean is sensitive to outliers.
- 2. Median is more robust to outliers.
- 3. In machine learning algorithms, 1-norm distance is more robust than 2-norm.

3 Limit and Convergence on vector space

In calculus, we know that $\lim_{n\to\infty} a_n = a \iff \lim_{n\to\infty} |a_n - a| = 0$. Is it also true on a vector space with a norm $\|\cdot\|$? The answer is yes.

3.1 Limit and convergence on a normed vector space