

**Figure 1.12** The affine combination  $(1 - \theta)a + \theta b$  for different values of  $\theta$ . These points are on the line passing through  $a$  and  $b$ ; for  $\theta$  between 0 and 1, the points are on the line segment between  $a$  and  $b$ .

## 1.4 Inner product

The (standard) *inner product* (also called *dot product*) of two  $n$ -vectors is defined as the scalar

$$a^T b = a_1 b_1 + a_2 b_2 + \cdots + a_n b_n,$$

the sum of the products of corresponding entries. (The origin of the superscript ‘T’ in the inner product notation  $a^T b$  will be explained in chapter 6.) Some other notations for the inner product (that we will not use in this book) are  $\langle a, b \rangle$ ,  $\langle a | b \rangle$ ,  $(a, b)$ , and  $a \cdot b$ . (In the notation used in this book,  $(a, b)$  denotes a stacked vector of length  $2n$ .) As you might guess, there is also a vector *outer product*, which we will encounter later, in §10.1. As a specific example of the inner product, we have

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} = (-1)(1) + (2)(0) + (2)(-3) = -7.$$

When  $n = 1$ , the inner product reduces to the usual product of two numbers.

**Properties.** The inner product satisfies some simple properties that are easily verified from the definition. If  $a$ ,  $b$ , and  $c$  are vectors of the same size, and  $\gamma$  is a scalar, we have the following.

- *Commutativity.*  $a^T b = b^T a$ . The order of the two vector arguments in the inner product does not matter.
- *Associativity with scalar multiplication.*  $(\gamma a)^T b = \gamma(a^T b)$ , so we can write both as  $\gamma a^T b$ .
- *Distributivity with vector addition.*  $(a + b)^T c = a^T c + b^T c$ . The inner product can be distributed across vector addition.

These can be combined to obtain other identities, such as  $a^T(\gamma b) = \gamma(a^T b)$ , or  $a^T(b + \gamma c) = a^T b + \gamma a^T c$ . As another useful example, we have, for any vectors  $a, b, c, d$  of the same size,

$$(a + b)^T(c + d) = a^T c + a^T d + b^T c + b^T d.$$

This formula expresses an inner product on the left-hand side as a sum of four inner products on the right-hand side, and is analogous to expanding a product of sums in algebra. Note that on the left-hand side, the two addition symbols refer to vector addition, whereas on the right-hand side, the three addition symbols refer to scalar (number) addition.

### General examples.

- *Unit vector.*  $e_i^T a = a_i$ . The inner product of a vector with the  $i$ th standard unit vector gives (or ‘picks out’) the  $i$ th element  $a$ .
- *Sum.*  $\mathbf{1}^T a = a_1 + \cdots + a_n$ . The inner product of a vector with the vector of ones gives the sum of the elements of the vector.
- *Average.*  $(\mathbf{1}/n)^T a = (a_1 + \cdots + a_n)/n$ . The inner product of an  $n$ -vector with the vector  $\mathbf{1}/n$  gives the average or mean of the elements of the vector. The average of the entries of a vector is denoted by  $\mathbf{avg}(x)$ . The Greek letter  $\mu$  is a traditional symbol used to denote the average or mean.
- *Sum of squares.*  $a^T a = a_1^2 + \cdots + a_n^2$ . The inner product of a vector with itself gives the sum of the squares of the elements of the vector.
- *Selective sum.* Let  $b$  be a vector all of whose entries are either 0 or 1. Then  $b^T a$  is the sum of the elements in  $a$  for which  $b_i = 1$ .

**Block vectors.** If the vectors  $a$  and  $b$  are block vectors, and the corresponding blocks have the same sizes (in which case we say they *conform*), then we have

$$a^T b = \begin{bmatrix} a_1 \\ \vdots \\ a_k \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_k \end{bmatrix} = a_1^T b_1 + \cdots + a_k^T b_k.$$

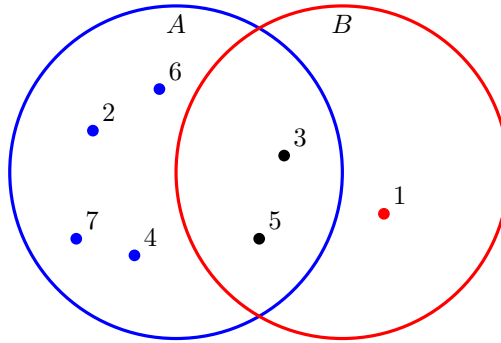
The inner product of block vectors is the sum of the inner products of the blocks.

**Applications.** The inner product is useful in many applications, a few of which we list here.

- *Co-occurrence.* If  $a$  and  $b$  are  $n$ -vectors that describe occurrence, *i.e.*, each of their elements is either 0 or 1, then  $a^T b$  gives the total number of indices for which  $a_i$  and  $b_i$  are both one, that is, the total number of co-occurrences. If we interpret the vectors  $a$  and  $b$  as describing subsets of  $n$  objects, then  $a^T b$  gives the number of objects in the intersection of the two subsets. This is illustrated in figure 1.13, for two subsets  $A$  and  $B$  of 7 objects, labeled  $1, \dots, 7$ , with corresponding occurrence vectors

$$a = (0, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1, 1), \quad b = (1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0, 0).$$

Here we have  $a^T b = 2$ , which is the number of objects in both  $A$  and  $B$  (*i.e.*, objects 3 and 5).



**Figure 1.13** Two sets  $A$  and  $B$ , containing seven objects.

- *Weights, features, and score.* When the vector  $f$  represents a set of features of an object, and  $w$  is a vector of the same size (often called a *weight vector*), the inner product  $w^T f$  is the sum of the feature values, scaled (or weighted) by the weights, and is sometimes called a *score*. For example, if the features are associated with a loan applicant (*e.g.*, age, income,  $\dots$ ), we might interpret  $s = w^T f$  as a credit score. In this example we can interpret  $w_i$  as the weight given to feature  $i$  in forming the score.
- *Price-quantity.* If  $p$  represents a vector of prices of  $n$  goods, and  $q$  is a vector of quantities of the  $n$  goods (say, the bill of materials for a product), then their inner product  $p^T q$  is the total cost of the goods given by the vector  $q$ .
- *Speed-time.* A vehicle travels over  $n$  segments with constant speed in each segment. Suppose the  $n$ -vector  $s$  gives the speed in the segments, and the  $n$ -vector  $t$  gives the times taken to traverse the segments. Then  $s^T t$  is the total distance traveled.
- *Probability and expected values.* Suppose the  $n$ -vector  $p$  has nonnegative entries that sum to one, so it describes a set of proportions among  $n$  items, or a set of probabilities of  $n$  outcomes, one of which must occur. Suppose  $f$  is another  $n$ -vector, where we interpret  $f_i$  as the value of some quantity if outcome  $i$  occurs. Then  $f^T p$  gives the expected value or mean of the quantity, under the probabilities (or fractions) given by  $p$ .
- *Polynomial evaluation.* Suppose the  $n$ -vector  $c$  represents the coefficients of a polynomial  $p$  of degree  $n - 1$  or less:

$$p(x) = c_1 + c_2 x + \dots + c_{n-1} x^{n-2} + c_n x^{n-1}.$$

Let  $t$  be a number, and let  $z = (1, t, t^2, \dots, t^{n-1})$  be the  $n$ -vector of powers of  $t$ . Then  $c^T z = p(t)$ , the value of the polynomial  $p$  at the point  $t$ . So the inner product of a polynomial coefficient vector and vector of powers of a number evaluates the polynomial at the number.

- *Discounted total.* Let  $c$  be an  $n$ -vector representing a cash flow, with  $c_i$  the cash received (when  $c_i > 0$ ) in period  $i$ . Let  $d$  be the  $n$ -vector defined as

$$d = (1, 1/(1+r), \dots, 1/(1+r)^{n-1}),$$

where  $r \geq 0$  is an interest rate. Then

$$d^T c = c_1 + c_2/(1+r) + \dots + c_n/(1+r)^{n-1}$$

is the discounted total of the cash flow, *i.e.*, its *net present value* (NPV), with interest rate  $r$ .

- *Portfolio value.* Suppose  $s$  is an  $n$ -vector representing the holdings in shares of a portfolio of  $n$  different assets, with negative values meaning short positions. If  $p$  is an  $n$ -vector giving the prices of the assets, then  $p^T s$  is the total (or net) value of the portfolio.
- *Portfolio return.* Suppose  $r$  is the vector of (fractional) returns of  $n$  assets over some time period, *i.e.*, the asset relative price changes

$$r_i = \frac{p_i^{\text{final}} - p_i^{\text{initial}}}{p_i^{\text{initial}}}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n,$$

where  $p_i^{\text{initial}}$  and  $p_i^{\text{final}}$  are the (positive) prices of asset  $i$  at the beginning and end of the investment period. If  $h$  is an  $n$ -vector giving our portfolio, with  $h_i$  denoting the dollar value of asset  $i$  held, then the inner product  $r^T h$  is the total return of the portfolio, in dollars, over the period. If  $w$  represents the fractional (dollar) holdings of our portfolio, then  $r^T w$  gives the total return of the portfolio. For example, if  $r^T w = 0.09$ , then our portfolio return is 9%. If we had invested \$10000 initially, we would have earned \$900.

- *Document sentiment analysis.* Suppose the  $n$ -vector  $x$  represents the histogram of word occurrences in a document, from a dictionary of  $n$  words. Each word in the dictionary is assigned to one of three sentiment categories: *Positive*, *Negative*, and *Neutral*. The list of positive words might include ‘nice’ and ‘superb’; the list of negative words might include ‘bad’ and ‘terrible’. Neutral words are those that are neither positive nor negative. We encode the word categories as an  $n$ -vector  $w$ , with  $w_i = 1$  if word  $i$  is positive, with  $w_i = -1$  if word  $i$  is negative, and  $w_i = 0$  if word  $i$  is neutral. The number  $w^T x$  gives a (crude) measure of the sentiment of the document.

## 1.5 Complexity of vector computations

**Computer representation of numbers and vectors.** Real numbers are stored in computers using *floating point format*, which represents a real number using a block of 64 *bits* (0s and 1s), or 8 *bytes* (groups of 8 bits). Each of the  $2^{64}$  possible sequences of bits corresponds to a specific real number. The floating point numbers