Lecture slides for

Introduction to Applied Linear Algebra: Vectors, Matrices, and Least Squares

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3. Norm and distance

Outline

Norm

Distance

Standard deviation

Angle

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Norm

the Euclidean norm (or just norm) of an n-vector x is

$$||x|| = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \dots + x_n^2} = \sqrt{x^T x}$$

- used to measure the size of a vector
- reduces to absolute value for n = 1

Properties

for any *n*-vectors x and y, and any scalar β

- homogeneity: $||\beta x|| = |\beta|||x||$
- triangle inequality: $||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$
- nonnegativity: $||x|| \ge 0$
- *definiteness:* ||x|| = 0 only if x = 0

easy to show except triangle inequality, which we show later

RMS value

mean-square value of n-vector x is

$$\frac{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2}{n} = \frac{\|x\|^2}{n}$$

root-mean-square value (RMS value) is

rms(x) =
$$\sqrt{\frac{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2}{n}} = \frac{||x||}{\sqrt{n}}$$

- *e.g.*, $\mathbf{rms}(\mathbf{1}) = 1$ (independent of *n*)
- RMS value useful for comparing sizes of vectors of different lengths

Norm of block vectors

suppose a, b, c are vectors

•
$$||(a, b, c)||^2 = a^T a + b^T b + c^T c = ||a||^2 + ||b||^2 + ||c||^2$$

so we have

$$\|(a, b, c)\| = \sqrt{\|a\|^2 + \|b\|^2 + \|c\|^2} = \|(\|a\|, \|b\|, \|c\|)\|$$

(parse RHS very carefully!)

we'll use these ideas later

Chebyshev inequality

- Suppose that k of the numbers $|x_1|, \ldots, |x_n|$ are $\geq a$
- then k of the numbers x_1^2, \ldots, x_n^2 are $\geq a^2$
- so $||x||^2 = x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2 \ge ka^2$
- ▶ so we have $k \leq ||x||^2/a^2$
- number of x_i with $|x_i| \ge a$ is no more than $||x||^2/a^2$
- this is the Chebyshev inequality
- in terms of RMS value:

fraction of entries with $|x_i| \ge a$ is no more than $\left(\frac{\operatorname{rms}(x)}{a}\right)^2$

• example: no more than 4% of entries can satisfy $|x_i| \ge 5 \operatorname{rms}(x)$

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Distance

(Euclidean) distance between n-vectors a and b is

 $\mathbf{dist}(a,b) = \|a - b\|$

▶ agrees with ordinary distance for *n* = 1, 2, 3



rms(a - b) is the *RMS deviation* between *a* and *b*

Triangle inequality

- triangle with vertices at positions a, b, c
- edge lengths are ||a b||, ||b c||, ||a c||
- by triangle inequality

$$||a - c|| = ||(a - b) + (b - c)|| \le ||a - b|| + ||b - c||$$

i.e., third edge length is no longer than sum of other two



Feature distance and nearest neighbors

- ► if x and y are feature vectors for two entities, ||x y|| is the *feature distance*
- if z_1, \ldots, z_m is a list of vectors, z_j is the *nearest neighbor* of x if



$$||x - z_i|| \le ||x - z_i||, \quad i = 1, \dots, m$$

these simple ideas are very widely used

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Document dissimilarity

- 5 Wikipedia articles: 'Veterans Day', 'Memorial Day', 'Academy Awards', 'Golden Globe Awards', 'Super Bowl'
- word count histograms, dictionary of 4423 words
- pairwise distances shown below

	Veterans Day	Memorial Day	Academy Awards	Golden Globe Awards	Super Bowl
Veterans Day	0	0.095	0.130	0.153	0.170
Memorial Day	0.095	0	0.122	0.147	0.164
Academy A.	0.130	0.122	0	0.108	0.164
Golden Globe A. Super Bowl	0.153 0.170	0.147 0.164	0.108 0.164	0 0.181	0.181 0
Memorial Day Academy A. Golden Globe A. Super Bowl	0.095 0.130 0.153 0.170	0.095 0 0.122 0.147 0.164	0.130 0.122 0 0.108 0.164	0.133 0.147 0.108 0 0.181	0.170 0.164 0.164 0.181 0

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Standard deviation

- for *n*-vector *x*, $\mathbf{avg}(x) = \mathbf{1}^T x/n$
- de-meaned vector is $\tilde{x} = x \operatorname{avg}(x)\mathbf{1}$ (so $\operatorname{avg}(\tilde{x}) = 0$)
- standard deviation of x is

$$\mathbf{std}(x) = \mathbf{rms}(\tilde{x}) = \frac{\|x - (\mathbf{1}^T x/n)\mathbf{1}\|}{\sqrt{n}}$$

- **std**(x) gives 'typical' amount x_i vary from avg(x)
- $\mathbf{std}(x) = 0$ only if $x = \alpha \mathbf{1}$ for some α
- greek letters μ, σ commonly used for mean, standard deviation
- a basic formula:

$$\mathbf{rms}(x)^2 = \mathbf{avg}(x)^2 + \mathbf{std}(x)^2$$

Mean return and risk

- x is time series of returns (say, in %) on some investment or asset over some period
- ▶ **avg**(*x*) is the mean return over the period, usually just called *return*
- std(x) measures how variable the return is over the period, and is called the *risk*
- multiple investments (with different return time series) are often compared in terms of return and risk
- often plotted on a risk-return plot

Risk-return example



Chebyshev inequality for standard deviation

- x is an *n*-vector with mean avg(x), standard deviation std(x)
- rough idea: most entries of x are not too far from the mean
- by Chebyshev inequality, fraction of entries of x with

$$|x_i - \mathbf{avg}(x)| \ge \alpha \operatorname{std}(x)$$

is no more than $1/\alpha^2$ (for $\alpha > 1$)

For return time series with mean 8% and standard deviation 3%, loss (x_i ≤ 0) can occur in no more than (3/8)² = 14.1% of periods

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Cauchy–Schwarz inequality

- ▶ for two *n*-vectors *a* and *b*, $|a^Tb| \le ||a|| ||b||$
- written out,

$$|a_1b_1 + \dots + a_nb_n| \le (a_1^2 + \dots + a_n^2)^{1/2} (b_1^2 + \dots + b_n^2)^{1/2}$$

now we can show triangle inequality:

$$||a+b||^{2} = ||a||^{2} + 2a^{T}b + ||b||^{2}$$

$$\leq ||a||^{2} + 2||a|||b|| + ||b||^{2}$$

$$= (||a|| + ||b||)^{2}$$

Derivation of Cauchy–Schwarz inequality

- it's clearly true if either a or b is 0
- ▶ so assume $\alpha = ||a||$ and $\beta = ||b||$ are nonzero

we have

$$0 \leq \|\beta a - \alpha b\|^{2}$$

= $\|\beta a\|^{2} - 2(\beta a)^{T}(\alpha b) + \|\alpha b\|^{2}$
= $\beta^{2} \|a\|^{2} - 2\beta \alpha (a^{T}b) + \alpha^{2} \|b\|^{2}$
= $2\|a\|^{2} \|b\|^{2} - 2\|a\| \|b\| (a^{T}b)$

- divide by 2||a|| ||b|| to get $a^T b \le ||a|| ||b||$
- ▶ apply to −*a*, *b* to get other half of Cauchy–Schwarz inequality

Angle

angle between two nonzero vectors a, b defined as

$$\angle(a,b) = \arccos\left(\frac{a^T b}{\|a\| \|b\|}\right)$$

• $\angle(a, b)$ is the number in $[0, \pi]$ that satisfies

$$a^{T}b = ||a|| ||b|| \cos (\angle (a, b))$$

coincides with ordinary angle between vectors in 2-D and 3-D

Classification of angles

 $\theta = \angle(a,b)$

- $\theta = \pi/2 = 90^{\circ}$: *a* and *b* are *orthogonal*, written $a \perp b$ ($a^T b = 0$)
- $\theta = 0$: *a* and *b* are *aligned* ($a^T b = ||a|| ||b||$)
- $\theta = \pi = 180^{\circ}$: *a* and *b* are *anti-aligned* ($a^T b = -||a|| ||b||$)
- $\theta \le \pi/2 = 90^{\circ}$: *a* and *b* make an *acute angle* ($a^T b \ge 0$)
- $\theta \ge \pi/2 = 90^{\circ}$: *a* and *b* make an *obtuse angle* ($a^T b \le 0$)



Spherical distance

if *a*, *b* are on sphere of radius *R*, distance *along the sphere* is $R \angle (a, b)$



Document dissimilarity by angles

- measure dissimilarity by angle of word count histogram vectors
- pairwise angles (in degrees) for 5 Wikipedia pages shown below

	Veterans Day	Memorial Day	Academy Awards	Golden Globe Awards	Super Bowl
Veterans Day	0	60.6	85.7	87.0	87.7
Memorial Day	60.6	0	85.6	87.5	87.5
Academy A.	85.7	85.6	0	58.7	85.7
Golden Globe A.	. 87.0	87.5	58.7	0	86.0
Super Bowl	87.7	87.5	86.1	86.0	0

Correlation coefficient

vectors a and b, and de-meaned vectors

$$\tilde{a} = a - \operatorname{avg}(a)\mathbf{1}, \qquad \tilde{b} = b - \operatorname{avg}(b)\mathbf{1}$$

• correlation coefficient (between a and b, with $\tilde{a} \neq 0$, $\tilde{b} \neq 0$)

$$\rho = \frac{\tilde{a}^T \tilde{b}}{\|\tilde{a}\| \|\tilde{b}\|}$$

 $\blacktriangleright \ \rho = \cos \angle (\tilde{a}, \tilde{b})$

- $\rho = 0$: *a* and *b* are *uncorrelated*
- $-\rho > 0.8$ (or so): *a* and *b* are *highly correlated*
- $-\rho < -0.8$ (or so): *a* and *b* are highly anti-correlated
- very roughly: highly correlated means a_i and b_i are typically both above (below) their means together

Examples



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Examples

- highly correlated vectors:
 - rainfall time series at nearby locations
 - daily returns of similar companies in same industry
 - word count vectors of closely related documents (e.g., same author, topic, ...)
 - sales of shoes and socks (at different locations or periods)
- approximately uncorrelated vectors
 - unrelated vectors
 - audio signals (even different tracks in multi-track recording)
- (somewhat) negatively correlated vectors
 - daily temperatures in Palo Alto and Melbourne

Example: chocolate consumption



F. Messerli 2012, NEJM

Physicists and F1 rankings



As the number of physicists in California rose, so did the development of advanced car technology. These physicists were really driving innovation in the automotive industry, leading to faster and more efficient race cars. It seems they were the ones who truly understood the physics of speed, propelling Michael Schumacher to higher rankings. It was a case of Golden State of Mind meets Pole Position!

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