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Norms are used to measure the size of vectors and matrices. They are generalizations of the scalar function |x|, which determines the size or magnitude of a scalar value. For instance, if x is close to y, then we have |x - y| is close to zero.

So far, we have used the 2-norm of a vector. Let's work with them formally.

## **1 VECTOR NORMS**

DEFINITION 1 The Euclidean norm or 2-norm of a vector<sup>1</sup> is

$$\|\mathbf{x}\| = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i|^2} = \sqrt{\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{x}}$$

This can be generalized a *p*-norm.

DEFINITION 2 The p-norm of a vector is

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

This isn't created to generalize for generalizations sake. One of the common uses of norms is to argue that a sequence of vectors

$$\mathbf{x}_k \rightarrow \mathbf{y}$$

which can be handled by showing

$$\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{y}\| \to 0.$$

Depending on the value of p, this can be easy or difficult. For instance, when p = 1, then this is simply a sum of absolute values:

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$$

and  $p = \infty$  can be defined via a limit:<sup>2</sup>

$$\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} = \max_{i=1}^n |x_i|.$$

Now, we are going to define an extremely general notion of norm in order to state a few important results.

DEFINITION 3 A vector norm on  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is any function  $f(\mathbf{x}) \to \mathbb{R}$  that satisfies:

- 1.  $f(\mathbf{x}) \ge 0$  (non-negative)
- 2.  $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{x} = 0$  (zero-sensitive)
- 3.  $f(\alpha \mathbf{x}) = |\alpha| f(\mathbf{x})$  for any scalar  $\alpha$  (1-homogeneous),
- 4.  $f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}) \le f(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{y})$  (triangle inequality).

<sup>2</sup> It is a useful exercise to convince yourself that as  $p \to \infty$ , then the value of the norm will simply be the largest element by magnitude.

Learning objectives

1. Examples of vector norms. 2. Examples of matrix norms.

- 3. The submultiplicative property of a matrix norm.
- 4. The property that all norms are equivalent

<sup>1</sup> This definition includes absolute values. Yet,  $x_i^2 \ge 0$  for all real values. We leave the absolute values because this then generalizes to complex values where we need a complex magnitude.

Any *p*-norm with  $p \ge 1$  satisfies these definitions. When p < 1, then we violate the triangle inequality.

There are some crazy norms too. For instance, the following function satisfies these three criteria:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) =$$
sum of largest two entries in  $\mathbf{x}$  by magnitude.

The following theorem guarantees that if  $\mathbf{x}_k \rightarrow \mathbf{y}$  for any norm, then it will happen for all norms.

THEOREM 4 Informally, all vector norms are equivalent. Formally, let  $f(\mathbf{x})$  and  $g(\mathbf{x})$  be any pair of vector norms on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then there exist positive constants  $C_1 \leq C_2$  such that

$$C_1 f(\mathbf{x}) \leq g(\mathbf{x}) \leq C_2 f(\mathbf{x})$$

Note that these constants can depend on the dimension n.

Proof This is just a sketch, but the essence of the result is here; it requires just a little bit more analysis to fully state. They key we look at how these functions map unit-vectors to get the extreme values. Everything else follows from straightforward (but not simple) analysis. The values in the theorem are:

$$C_1 = \begin{array}{c} \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\text{maximize}} & f(\mathbf{x}) \\ \underset{\text{subject to}}{\text{x}} & g(\mathbf{x}) \leq 1 \end{array} \text{ and } C_2 = \begin{array}{c} \underset{\mathbf{x}}{\text{maximize}} & g(\mathbf{x}) \\ \underset{\text{subject to}}{\text{x}} & f(\mathbf{x}) \leq 1 \end{array}$$

Note that because of the scalar property, the extreme must occur on a boundary of the feasible set, i.e. where f(x) = 1. (If this isn't obvious, a quick proof by contradiction should help: If there is a point inside that gets the max, then we can scale it and make  $f(\mathbf{x})$  (say) bigger and also  $g(\mathbf{x})$  bigger, so it can't be optimal.) This is why we get the values of  $C_1$  and  $C_2$  in the above proof.

For instance,  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_{1} \leq n \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty}$  is an instance with  $C_{1} = 1, C_{2} = n$ . **Quiz** What are  $C_{1}$  and  $C_{2}$  such that  $C_{1} \|\mathbf{x}\|_{1} \leq \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} \leq C_{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|_{1}$ ?

Consequently, suppose, for a vector norm  $f(\mathbf{x})$ , you show that  $f(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{y}) \to 0$ . Then we know that  $C_2 f(\mathbf{x}) \ge g(\mathbf{x})$  and also that  $C_2 f(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{y}) \to 0$ . Since  $g(\mathbf{x}) \ge 0$ , then we must have  $g(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{y}) \to 0$  as well.

### 2 MATRIX NORMS

Vector norms measure the size or magnitude of a vector. Matrix norms do the same for a matrix. There are two important types of matrix norms: element-wise (or Frobenius norms) and operator norms. Just like vector norms, there is a general condition for all matrix norms.

DEFINITION 5 A matrix norm on  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is any function  $f(X) \to \mathbb{R}$  that satisfies:

- 1.  $f(\mathbf{X}) \ge 0$  (non-negative)
- 2.  $f(\mathbf{X}) = 0$  if and only if  $\mathbf{X} = 0$  (zero-sensitive)
- 3.  $f(\alpha X) = |\alpha| f(X)$  for any scalar  $\alpha$  (1-homogeneous)
- 4.  $f(X + Y) \le f(X) + f(Y)$  (triangle inequality).

#### 2.1 ELEMENT-WISE NORMS

Note that if vec X is any way of turning X into a vector by organizing the *mn* elements of X into a single array, then f(vec(X)) is a matrix norm for any vector norm  $f(\mathbf{x})$ . These are called element-wise norms. The most common of which is the Frobenius norm.

DEFINITION 6 The Frobenius norm of a matrix is

$$\|\boldsymbol{X}\|_{F} = \sqrt{\sum_{ij} |X_{ij}|^{2}} = \|\operatorname{vec}(\boldsymbol{X})\|_{2} = \sqrt{\operatorname{trace}(\boldsymbol{A}^{T}\boldsymbol{A})}$$

Here, we used trace(A) =  $\sum_{i=1}^{\min(m,n)} A_{i,i}$ , which is the sum of diagonal entries.

# 2.2 OPERATOR-INDUCED NORMS

Let  $f(\mathbf{x})$  be any vector norm, then we can define a matrix norm via:

$$f(\mathbf{X}) = \max_{\mathbf{x} \neq 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})}{f(\mathbf{x})}$$
.

#### **Proof that** f(X) is a matrix norm

- 1.  $f(\mathbf{X}) \ge 0$  because f is a vector norm.
- 2. If  $f(\mathbf{X}) = 0$ , then  $f(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})/f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$  for all vectors  $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$ . Since  $f(\mathbf{e}_i) > 0$ , then we must have  $f(Ae_i) = 0$  for all  $e_i$ , so the matrix is entirely empty. Also, if A = 0, then  $A\mathbf{x} = 0$  for any  $\mathbf{x}$ , and so f(A) = 0.
- 3.  $f(\alpha X) = \underset{\substack{\mathbf{x}\neq 0 \\ \mathbf{x}\neq 0}}{\text{maximize}} \quad f(\alpha A\mathbf{x})/f(\mathbf{x}) = |\alpha|f(X).$ 4. Note that  $f((X + Y)\mathbf{x}) \le f(X\mathbf{x}) + f(Y\mathbf{x})$  be the vector-norm triangle inequality. Hence,

$$f(\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Y}) = \underset{\mathbf{x} \neq 0}{\text{maximize}} \quad f((\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{Y})\mathbf{x})/f(\mathbf{x}) \leq \underset{\mathbf{x} \neq 0}{\text{maximize}} \quad f(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{x})/f(\mathbf{x}) + f(\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{x})/f(\mathbf{x})$$
$$\leq \underset{\mathbf{x} \neq 0}{\text{maximize}} \quad f(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{x})/f(\mathbf{x}) + \underset{\mathbf{x} \neq 0}{\text{maximize}} \quad f(\mathbf{Y}\mathbf{x})/f(\mathbf{x})$$
$$\leq f(\mathbf{X}) + f(\mathbf{Y})$$

The operator induced norms are harder to reason about. Let  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{x}\|_1$ , then

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_{1} = \max_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{m} |A_{ij}|$$

which is the maximum column 1-norm. If, instead,  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty}$ , then

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_{\infty} = \max_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |A_{ij}|$$

which is the maximum row 1-norm.

Here's my picture to remember these.



### 2.3 ADDITIONAL MATRIX NORMS

There is a wide additional class of norms defined in terms of the singular values of a matrix. See other sections on the singular values and their definitions.<sup>3</sup>

An  $m \times n$  real-valued or complex-valued matrix has  $\min(m, n)$  non-negative real singular values. Let  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{\min(m,n)}$  be the singular values of a  $m \times n$  matrix with  $m \ge n$ .

DEFINITION 7 (The Nuclear Norm, the Trace Norm) Let  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{\min(m,n)}$  be the singular values of an  $m \times n$  matrix **A**. Then the nuclear norm also called the trace norm is the matrix norm based on the function

$$f(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i} \sigma_{i} \text{ commonly denoted } \|\mathbf{A}\|_{*}.$$

DEFINITION 8 (The Schatten Norms) Let  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{\min(m,n)}$  be the singular values of an  $m \times n$ matrix A. Let s be the vector of singular values, ordered arbitrarily. Then the Shatten *p*-norm is the matrix norm based on the function

$$f(\boldsymbol{A}) = \|\boldsymbol{s}\|_p.$$

This section can be skipped on a first reading.

<sup>3</sup> TODO Insert reference when assembled into bigger document.

DEFINITION 9 (The Ky-Fan Norms) Let  $\sigma_1, \ldots, \sigma_{\min(m,n)}$  be the singular values of an  $m \times n$  matrix A where  $\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge \ldots \ge \sigma_{\min(m,n)}$  by convention (that is, the elements are ordered in decreasing order in most conventions). Then the Ky-Fan p-norm is the matrix norm based on the function

$$f(\boldsymbol{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^{p} \sigma_i.$$

Note that both Shatten and Ky-Fan norms are *vector norms* applied to the vector of singular values **s**. For Shatten norms, it is a *p*-norm. For Ky-Fan norms, it is the sum of the largest *p* elements. Indeed, any vector norm applied to the singular values of a matrix is a valid matrix norm.

## **3 NORM PROPERTIES**

#### 3.1 ORTHOGONAL INVARIANCE

An important property of a norm is that it is orthogonally invariant. This property is a realization of two ideas:

- norms measure lengths
- orthogonal matrices generalize rotations

When we rotate a vector, we simple change its orientation, but not its length. Consequently, we have the definition:

DEFINITION 10 (orthogonally invariant) Let Q be a square orthogonal matrix. Then a vector norm  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is orthogonally invariant when

$$f(\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x})$$
 or written as  $\|\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x}\| = \|\mathbf{x}\|$ .

Let A be an  $m \times n$  matrix. Let U be a square  $m \times m$  orthogonal matrix and let V be a square  $n \times n$  orthogonal matrix. Then a matrix norm f(A) is orthogonally invariant when

$$f(UAV) = f(A)$$
 or written as  $||UAV|| = ||A||$ .

#### 3.2 SUBMULTIPLICATIVE

Note that operator-induced matrix norms satisfy the property that:

$$f(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) \le f(\mathbf{A})f(\mathbf{x})$$

which is handy for studying iterative algorithms! This property has the special name: *sub-multiplicative*.

DEFINITION 11 A matrix-norm f(A) is sub-multiplicative if:

$$f(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{B}) \leq f(\boldsymbol{A})f(\boldsymbol{B}).$$

As you'll see on the homework, not all norms are sub-multiplicative. But we can always scale a norm to be sub-multiplicative.

### 4 EXERCISES

- 1. Let  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ . Decompose  $\mathbf{x}$  into the real and imaginary parts:  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} + i\mathbf{z}$  where  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Show that  $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \|\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{bmatrix}\|_2$ .
- Let *P* be a permutation matrix. So *Px* reorders the elements of *x*. Find a vector-norm function on length 2 vectors where ||*x*|| ≠ ||*Px*||.
- 3. (This requires knowledge of the SVD.) Show that the Schatten and Ky-Fan norms are orthogonally invariant.