# Chapter 12 Distances on Numbers, Polynomials, and Matrices

# 12.1 Metrics on Numbers

Here we consider the most important metrics on the classical number systems: the semiring  $\mathbb{N}$  of natural numbers, the ring  $\mathbb{Z}$  of integers, and the fields  $\mathbb{Q}$ ,  $\mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathbb{C}$  of rational, real, complex numbers, respectively. We consider also the algebra  $\mathcal{Q}$  of quaternions.

# • Metrics on natural numbers

There are several well-known metrics on the set  $\mathbb{N}$  of natural numbers:

- 1. |n m|; the restriction of the **natural metric** (from  $\mathbb{R}$ ) on  $\mathbb{N}$ ;
- 2.  $p^{-\alpha}$ , where  $\alpha$  is the highest power of a given prime number p dividing m-n, for  $m \neq n$  (and equal to 0 for m = n); the restriction of the p-adic metric (from  $\mathbb{Q}$ ) on  $\mathbb{N}$ ;
- 3.  $\ln \frac{lcm(m,n)}{ecd(m,n)}$ ; an example of the lattice valuation metric;
- 4.  $w_r(n-m)$ , where  $w_r(n)$  is the *arithmetic r-weight* of *n*; the restriction of the **arithmetic r-norm metric** (from  $\mathbb{Z}$ ) on  $\mathbb{N}$ ;
- 5.  $\frac{|n-m|}{mn}$  (cf. *M*-relative metric in Chap. 5);
- 6.  $1 + \frac{1}{m+n}$  for  $m \neq n$  (and equal to 0 for m = n); the **Sierpinski metric**.

Most of these metrics on N can be extended on Z. Moreover, any one of the above metrics can be used in the case of an arbitrary countable set X. For example, the Sierpinski metric is defined, in general, on a countable set X = {x<sub>n</sub> : n ∈ N} by 1 + 1/(m+n) for all x<sub>m</sub>, x<sub>n</sub> ∈ X with m ≠ n (and is equal to 0, otherwise).
Arithmetic *r*-norm metric

Let  $r \in \mathbb{N}, r \ge 2$ . The *modified r-ary form* of an integer x is a representation

$$x = e_n r^n + \dots + e_1 r + e_0,$$

where  $e_i \in \mathbb{Z}$ , and  $|e_i| < r$  for all i = 0, ..., n.

© Springer-Verlag Berlin Heidelberg 2014 M.M. Deza, E. Deza, *Encyclopedia of Distances*, DOI 10.1007/978-3-662-44342-2\_12 An *r*-ary form is called *minimal* if the number of nonzero coefficients is minimal. The minimal form is not unique, in general. But if the coefficients  $e_i$ ,  $0 \le i \le n-1$ , satisfy the conditions  $|e_i + e_{i+1}| < r$ , and  $|e_i| < |e_{i+1}|$  if  $e_i e_{i+1} < 0$ , then the above form is unique and minimal; it is called the *generalized nonadjacent form*.

The *arithmetic r-weight*  $w_r(x)$  of an integer x is the number of nonzero coefficients in a *minimal r-ary form* of x, in particular, in the generalized nonadjacent form. The **arithmetic r-norm metric** on  $\mathbb{Z}$  (see, for example, [Ernv85]) is defined by

$$w_r(x-y).$$

## • Distance between consecutive primes

The distance between consecutive primes (or prime gap, prime difference function) is the difference  $g_n = p_{n+1} - p_n$  between two successive prime numbers.

It holds  $g_n \leq p_n$ ,  $\overline{\lim}_{n\to\infty} g_n = \infty$  and (Zhang, 2013)  $\underline{\lim}_{n\to\infty} g_n < 7 \times 10^7$ , improved to  $\leq 246$  (conjecturally, to  $\leq 6$ ) by Polymath8, 2014. There is no  $\lim_{n\to\infty} g_n$  but  $g_n \approx \ln p_n$  for the average  $g_n$ .

Open Polignac's conjecture: for any  $k \ge 1$ , there are infinitely many *n* with  $g_n = 2k$ ; the case k = 1 (i.e., that  $\underline{\lim}_{n\to\infty}g_n = 2$  holds) is the *twin prime* conjecture.

## Distance Fibonacci numbers

*Fibonacci numbers* are defined by the recurrence  $F_n = F_{n-1} + F_{n-2}$  for  $n \ge 2$  with initial terms  $F_0 = 0$  and  $F_1 = 1$ . **Distance Fibonacci numbers** are three following generalizations of them in the distance sense, considered by Wloch et al..

Kwaśnik–Wloch, 2000: F(k,n) = F(k,n-1) + F(k,n-k) for n > k and F(k,n) = n + 1 for  $n \le k$ .

Bednarz et al., 2012: Fd(k, n) = Fd(k, n-k+1) + Fd(k, n-k) for  $n \ge k > 1$ and Fd(k, n) = 1 for  $0 \le n < k$ .

Which et al., 2013:  $F_2(k, n) = F_2(k, n-2) + F_2(k, n-k)$  for  $n \ge k \ge 1$  and  $F_2(k, n) = 1$  for  $0 \le n < k$ .

• *p*-adic metric

Let p be a prime number. Any nonzero rational number x can be represented as  $x = p^{\alpha} \frac{c}{d}$ , where c and d are integers not divisible by p, and  $\alpha$  is a unique integer. The *p*-adic norm of x is defined by  $|x|_p = p^{-\alpha}$ . Moreover,  $|0|_p = 0$  is defined.

The *p*-adic metric is a norm metric on the set  $\mathbb{Q}$  of rational numbers defined by

$$|x-y|_p$$
.

This metric forms the basis for the algebra of *p*-adic numbers. The **Cauchy** completions of the metric spaces  $(\mathbb{Q}, |x - y|_p)$  and  $(\mathbb{Q}, |x - y|)$  with the natural

**metric** |x - y| give the fields  $\mathbb{Q}_p$  of *p*-adic numbers and  $\mathbb{R}$  of real numbers, respectively.

The **Gajić metric** is an **ultrametric** on the set  $\mathbb{Q}$  of rational numbers defined, for  $x \neq y$  (via the integer part  $\lfloor z \rfloor$  of a real number *z*), by

$$\inf\{2^{-n}: n \in \mathbb{Z}, \lfloor 2^n(x-e) \rfloor = \lfloor 2^n(y-e) \rfloor\},\$$

where *e* is any fixed irrational number. This metric is **equivalent** to the **natural metric** |x - y| on  $\mathbb{Q}$ .

# • Continued fraction metric on irrationals

The continued fraction metric on irrationals is a complete metric on the set *Irr* of irrational numbers defined, for  $x \neq y$ , by

$$\frac{1}{n}$$
,

where *n* is the first index for which the continued fraction expansions of *x* and *y* differ. This metric is **equivalent** to the **natural metric** |x - y| on *Irr* which is noncomplete and disconnected. Also, the *Baire* 0-*dimensional space*  $B(\aleph_0)$  (cf. **Baire metric** in Chap. 11) is homeomorphic to *Irr* endowed with this metric.

# • Natural metric

The **natural metric** (or **absolute value metric**, **line metric**, *the distance between numbers*) is a metric on  $\mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$|x - y| = \begin{cases} y - x, \text{ if } x - y < 0, \\ x - y, \text{ if } x - y \ge 0. \end{cases}$$

On  $\mathbb{R}$  all  $l_p$ -metrics coincide with the natural metric. The metric space  $(\mathbb{R}, |x - y|)$  is called the *real line* (or *Euclidean line*).

There exist many other metrics on  $\mathbb{R}$  coming from |x - y| by some **metric transform** (cf. Chap. 4). For example: min $\{1, |x-y|\}$ ,  $\frac{|x-y|}{1+|x-y|}$ , |x|+|x-y|+|y| (for  $x \neq y$ ) and, for a given  $0 < \alpha < 1$ , the **generalized absolute value metric**  $|x - y|^{\alpha}$ .

Some authors use |x - y| as the *Polish notation* (parentheses-free and computer-friendly) of the distance function in any metric space.

# • Zero bias metric

The **zero bias metric** is a metric on  $\mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$1 + |x - y|$$

if one and only one of x and y is strictly positive, and by

$$|x-y|,$$

otherwise, where |x - y| is the **natural metric** (see, for example, [Gile87]).

# Sorgenfrey quasi-metric

The **Sorgenfrey quasi-metric** is a quasi-metric d on  $\mathbb{R}$  defined by

y - x

if  $y \ge x$ , and equal to 1, otherwise. Some similar quasi-metrics on  $\mathbb{R}$  are:

- 1.  $d_1(x, y) = \max\{y x, 0\}$  (in general,  $\max\{f(y) f(x), 0\}$  is a quasi-metric on a set X if  $f : X \to \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$  is an injective function);
- 2.  $d_2(x, y) = \min\{y x, 1\}$  if  $y \ge x$ , and equal to 1, otherwise;
- 3.  $d_3(x, y) = y x$  if  $y \ge x$ , and equal to a(x y) (for fixed a > 0), otherwise;
- 4.  $d_4(x, y) = e^y e^x$  if  $y \ge x$ , and equal to  $e^{-y} e^{-x}$  otherwise.

• Real half-line quasi-semimetric The real half-line quasi-semimetric is defined on the half-line  $\mathbb{R}_{>0}$  by

$$\max\left\{0,\ln\frac{y}{x}\right\}.$$

• Janous–Hametner metric The Janous–Hametner metric is defined on the half-line  $\mathbb{R}_{>0}$  by

$$\frac{|x-y|}{(x+y)^t},$$

where t = -1 or  $0 \le t \le 1$ , and |x - y| is the **natural metric**.

# • Extended real line metric

An extended real line metric is a metric on  $\mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\} \cup \{-\infty\}$ . The main example (see, for example, [Cops68]) of such metric is given by

$$|f(x) - f(y)|,$$

where  $f(x) = \frac{x}{1+|x|}$  for  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $f(+\infty) = 1$ , and  $f(-\infty) = -1$ . Another metric, commonly used on  $\mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\} \cup \{-\infty\}$ , is defined by

$$|\arctan x - \arctan y|,$$

where  $-\frac{1}{2}\pi < \arctan x < \frac{1}{2}\pi$  for  $-\infty < x < \infty$ , and  $\arctan(\pm \infty) = \pm \frac{1}{2}\pi$ . • Complex modulus metric

The complex modulus metric on the set  $\mathbb{C}$  of complex numbers is defined by

|z - u|,

where, for any  $z = z_1 + z_2 i \in \mathbb{C}$ , the number  $|z| = \sqrt{z\overline{z}} = \sqrt{z_1^2 + z_2^2}$  is the *complex modulus*. The *complex argument*  $\theta$  is defined by  $z = |z|(\cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta))$ .

The metric space  $(\mathbb{C}, |z - u|)$  is called the *complex* (or Wessel-Argand) plane. It is isometric to the Euclidean plane  $(\mathbb{R}^2, ||x - y||_2)$ . So, the metrics on  $\mathbb{R}^2$ , given in Chaps. 19 and 5, can be seen as metrics on  $\mathbb{C}$ . For example, the **British Rail metric** on  $\mathbb{C}$  is |z| + |u| for  $z \neq u$ . The *p*-relative (if  $1 \leq p < \infty$ ) and relative **metric** (if  $p = \infty$ ) on  $\mathbb{C}$  are defined for  $|z| + |u| \neq 0$  respectively, by

$$\frac{|z-u|}{\sqrt[p]{|z|^p + |u|^p}} \text{ and } \frac{|z-u|}{\max\{|z|, |u|\}}.$$

•  $\mathbb{Z}(\eta_m)$ -related norm metrics

A *Kummer* (or *cyclotomic*) *ring*  $\mathbb{Z}(\eta_m)$  is a subring of the ring  $\mathbb{C}$  (and an extension of the ring  $\mathbb{Z}$ ), such that each of its elements has the form  $\sum_{j=0}^{m-1} a_j \eta_m^j$ , where  $\eta_m$ is a primitive *m*-th root  $\exp(\frac{2\pi i}{m})$  of unity, and all  $a_j$  are integers. The complex modulus |z| of  $z = a + b\eta_m \in \mathbb{C}$  is defined by

$$|z|^{2} = z\overline{z} = a^{2} + (\eta_{m} + \overline{\eta_{m}})ab + b^{2} = a^{2} + 2ab\cos\left(\frac{2\pi i}{m}\right) + b^{2}.$$

Then  $(a + b)^2 = q^2$  for m = 2 (or 1),  $a^2 + b^2$  for m = 4, and  $a^2 + ab + b^2$  for m = 6 (or 3), i.e., for the ring  $\mathbb{Z}$  of usual integers,  $\mathbb{Z}(i)$  of *Gaussian integers* and  $\mathbb{Z}(\rho)$  of *Eisenstein–Jacobi* (or *EJ*) integers.

The set of units of  $\mathbb{Z}(\eta_m)$  contain  $\eta_m^j$ ,  $0 \le j \le m-1$ ; for m = 5 and  $m \ge 6$ , units of infinite order appear also, since  $\cos(\frac{2\pi i}{m})$  is irrational. For m = 2, 4, 6, the set of units is  $\{\pm 1\}, \{\pm 1, \pm i\}, \{\pm 1, \pm \rho, \pm \rho^2\}$ , where  $i = \eta_4$  and  $\rho = \eta_6 = \frac{1+i\sqrt{3}}{2}$ . The norms  $|z| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$  and  $||z||_i = |a| + |b|$  for  $z = a + bi \in \mathbb{C}$  give rise to the **complex modulus** and *i*-Manhattan metrics on  $\mathbb{C}$ . They coincide with the Euclidean  $(l_2)$  and Manhattan  $(l_1)$  metrics, respectively, on  $\mathbb{R}^2$  seen as the complex plane. The restriction of the *i*-Manhattan metric on  $\mathbb{Z}(i)$  is the path metric of the square grid  $\mathbb{Z}^2$  of  $\mathbb{R}^2$ ; cf. grid metric in Chap. 19.

The  $\rho$ -Manhattan metric on  $\mathbb{C}$  is defined by the norm  $||z||_{\rho}$ , i.e.,

$$\min\{|a| + |b| + |c| : z = a + b\rho + c\rho^2\}$$
  
= min{|a| + |b|, |a + b| + |b|, |a + b| + |a| : z = a + b\rho}.

The restriction of the  $\rho$ -Manhattan metric on  $\mathbb{Z}(\rho)$  is the path metric of the triangular grid of  $\mathbb{R}^2$  (seen as the hexagonal lattice  $A_2 = \{(a, b, c) \in \mathbb{Z}^3 :$ a + b + c = 0}), i.e., the **hexagonal metric** (Chap. 19).

Let f denote either i or  $\rho = \frac{1+i\sqrt{3}}{2}$ . Given a  $\pi \in \mathbb{Z}(f) \setminus \{0\}$  and  $z, z' \in \mathbb{Z}(f)$ , we write  $z \equiv z' \pmod{\pi}$  if  $z - z' = \delta\pi$  for some  $\delta \in \mathbb{Z}(f)$ . For the quotient ring  $\mathbb{Z}_{\pi}(f) = \{z \pmod{\pi} : z \in \mathbb{Z}(f)\}, \text{ it holds } |\mathbb{Z}_{\pi}(f)| = ||\pi||_f^2$ 

Call two congruence classes  $z \pmod{\pi}$  and  $z' \pmod{\pi}$  adjacent if  $z - z' \equiv$  $f^{j} \pmod{\pi}$  for some j. The resulting graph on  $\mathbb{Z}_{\pi}(f)$  called a *Gaussian network* or *EJ network* if, respectively, f = i or  $f = \rho$ . The path metrics of these networks coincide with their norm metrics, defined (Fan–Gao, 2004) for  $z \pmod{\pi}$  and  $z' \pmod{\pi}$ , by

$$\min ||u||_f : u \in z - z' \pmod{\pi}$$

These metrics are different from the previously defined [Hube94a, Hube94b] distance on  $\mathbb{Z}_{\pi}(f)$ :  $||v||_{f}$ , where  $v \in z - z' \pmod{\pi}$  is selected by minimizing the complex modulus. For f = i, this is the **Mannheim distance** (Chap. 16), which is not a metric.

#### Chordal metric

The **chordal metric**  $d_{\chi}$  is a metric on the set  $\overline{\mathbb{C}} = \mathbb{C} \cup \{\infty\}$  defined by

$$d_{\chi}(z, u) = \frac{2|z - u|}{\sqrt{1 + |z|^2}\sqrt{1 + |u|^2}} \text{ and } d_{\chi}(z, \infty) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{1 + |z|^2}}$$

for all  $u, z \in \mathbb{C}$  (cf. *M*-relative metric in Chap. 5).

The metric space  $(\overline{\mathbb{C}}, d_{\chi})$  is called the *extended complex plane*. It is homeomorphic and conformally equivalent to the *Riemann sphere*, i.e., the *unit sphere*  $S^2 = \{(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in \mathbb{E}^3 : x_1^2 + x_2^2 + x_3^2 = 1\}$  (considered as a metric subspace of  $\mathbb{E}^3$ ), onto which  $(\overline{\mathbb{C}}, d_{\chi})$  is one-to-one mapped under stereographic projection. The plane  $\overline{\mathbb{C}}$  can be identified with the plane  $x_3 = 0$  such that the and imaginary axes coincide with the  $x_1$  and  $x_2$  axes. Under stereographic projection, each point  $z \in \mathbb{C}$  corresponds to the point  $(x_1, x_2, x_3) \in S^2$ , where the ray drawn from the "north pole" (0, 0, 1) to the point z meets the sphere  $S^2$ ; the "north pole" corresponds to the point at  $\infty$ . The chordal (spherical) metric between two points  $p, q \in S^2$  is taken to be the distance between their preimages  $z, u \in \overline{\mathbb{C}}$ . The chordal metric can be defined equivalently on  $\overline{\mathbb{R}}^n = \mathbb{R}^n \cup \{\infty\}$ :

$$d_{\chi}(x,y) = \frac{2||x-y||_2}{\sqrt{1+||x||_2^2}\sqrt{1+||y||_2^2}} \text{ and } d_{\chi}(x,\infty) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{1+||x||_2^2}}$$

The restriction of the metric  $d_{\chi}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a **Ptolemaic metric**; cf. Chap. 1. Given  $\alpha > 0$ ,  $\beta \ge 0$ ,  $p \ge 1$ , the **generalized chordal metric** is a metric on  $\mathbb{C}$  (in general, on  $(\mathbb{R}^n, ||.||_2)$  and even on any *Ptolemaic space* (V, ||.||)), defined by

$$\frac{|z-u|}{\sqrt[p]{\alpha+\beta|z|^p} \cdot \sqrt[p]{\alpha+\beta|u|^p}}$$

#### • Metrics on quaternions

*Quaternions* are members of a noncommutative division algebra Q over the field  $\mathbb{R}$ , geometrically realizable in  $\mathbb{R}^4$  [Hami66]. Formally,

$$Q = \{q = q_1 + q_2 i + q_3 j + q_4 k : q_i \in \mathbb{R}\},\$$

where the basic units  $1, i, j, k \in Q$  satisfy  $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$  and ij = -ji = k.

The quaternion norm is defined by  $||q|| = \sqrt{q\overline{q}} = \sqrt{q_1^2 + q_2^2 + q_3^2 + q_4^2}$ , where  $\overline{q} = q_1 - q_2 i - q_3 j - q_4 k$ . The **quaternion metric** is the norm metric ||q - q'|| on Q.

The set of all Lipschitz integers and Hurwitz integers are defined, respectively, by

$$L = \{q_1 + q_2i + q_3j + q_4k : q_i \in \mathbb{Z}\} \text{ and}$$
$$H = \{q_1 + q_2i + q_3j + q_4k : \text{all } q_i \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ or all } q_i + \frac{1}{2} \in \mathbb{Z}\}.$$

A quaternion  $q \in L$  is *irreducible* (i.e., q = q'q'' implies  $\{q', q''\} \cap \{\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k\} \neq \emptyset$ ) if and only if ||q|| is a prime. Given an irreducible  $\pi \in L$  and  $q, q' \in H$ , we write  $q \equiv q' \pmod{\pi}$  if  $q - q' = \delta \pi$  for some  $\delta \in L$ .

For the rings  $L_{\pi} = \{q \pmod{\pi} : q \in L\}$  and  $H_{\pi} = \{q \pmod{\pi} : q \in H\}$  it holds  $|L_{\pi}| = ||\pi||^2$  and  $|H_{\pi}| = 2||\pi||^2 - 1$ .

The quaternion Lipschitz metric on  $L_{\pi}$  is defined (Martinez et al., 2009) by

$$d_L(\alpha, \beta) = \min \sum_{1 \le s \le 4} |q_s| : \alpha - \beta \equiv q_1 + q_2 i + q_3 j + q_4 k \pmod{\pi}.$$

The ring *H* is additively generated by its subring *L* and  $w = \frac{1}{2}(1 + i + j + k)$ . The **Hurwitz metric** on the ring  $H_{\pi}$  is defined (Guzëltepe, 2013) by

$$d_H(\alpha, \beta) = \min \sum_{1 \le s \le 5} |q_s| : \alpha - \beta \equiv q_1 + q_2 i + q_3 j + q_4 k + q_5 w \pmod{\pi}.$$

Cf. the **hyper-Kähler** and **Gibbons–Manton** metrics in Sect. 7.3 and the **unit quaternions** and **joint angle** metrics in Sect. 18.3.

# **12.2** Metrics on Polynomials

A *polynomial* is a sum of powers in one or more variables multiplied by coefficients. A *polynomial* in one variable (or monic polynomial) with constant real (complex) coefficients is given by  $P = P(z) = \sum_{k=0}^{n} a_k z^k$ ,  $a_k \in \mathbb{R}$  ( $a_k \in \mathbb{C}$ ). The set  $\mathcal{P}$  of all real (complex) polynomials forms a ring ( $\mathcal{P}, +, \cdot, 0$ ). It is also a vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  (over  $\mathbb{C}$ ).

#### • Polynomial norm metric

A **polynomial norm metric** is a **norm metric** on the vector space  $\mathcal{P}$  of all real (complex) polynomials defined by

$$||P - Q||,$$

where ||.|| is a *polynomial norm*, i.e., a function  $||.|| : \mathcal{P} \to \mathbb{R}$  such that, for all  $P, Q \in \mathcal{P}$  and for any scalar k, we have the following properties:

- 1.  $||P|| \ge 0$ , with ||P|| = 0 if and only if  $P \equiv 0$ ;
- 2. ||kP|| = |k|||P||;
- 3.  $||P + Q|| \le ||P|| + ||Q||$  (triangle inequality).

The  $l_p$ -norm and  $L_p$ -norm of a polynomial  $P(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k$  are defined by

$$||P||_{p} = \left(\sum_{k=0}^{n} |a_{k}|^{p}\right)^{1/p} \text{ and } ||P||_{L_{p}} = \left(\int_{0}^{2\pi} |P(e^{i\theta})|^{p} \frac{d\theta}{2\pi}\right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \text{ for } 1 \le p < \infty,$$
$$||P||_{\infty} = \max_{0 \le k \le n} |a_{k}| \text{ and } ||P||_{L_{\infty}} = \sup_{|z|=1} |P(z)| \text{ for } p = \infty.$$

The values  $||P||_1$  and  $||P||_{\infty}$  are called the *length* and *height* of polynomial *P*. • **Distance from irreducible polynomials** 

For any field  $\mathbb{F}$ , a polynomial with coefficients in  $\mathbb{F}$  is said to be *irreducible over*  $\mathbb{F}$  if it cannot be factored into the product of two nonconstant polynomials with coefficients in  $\mathbb{F}$ . Given a metric *d* on the polynomials over  $\mathbb{F}$ , the **distance** (of a given polynomial P(z)) **from irreducible polynomials** is  $d_{ir}(P) = \inf d(P, Q)$ , where Q(z) is any irreducible polynomial of the same degree over  $\mathbb{F}$ .

Polynomial conjecture of Turán, 1967, is that there exists a constant C with  $d_{ir}(P) \leq C$  for every polynomial P over  $\mathbb{Z}$ , where d(P, Q) is the length  $||P - Q||_1$  of P - Q.

Lee–Ruskey–Williams, 2007, conjectured that there exists a constant *C* with *d<sub>ir</sub>(P)* ≤ *C* for every polynomial *P* over the Galois field F<sub>2</sub>, where *d(P,Q)* is the Hamming distance between the (0, 1)-sequences of coefficients of *P* and *Q*.
Bombieri metric

The Bombieri metric (or polynomial bracket metric) is a polynomial norm metric on the set  $\mathcal{P}$  of all real (complex) polynomials defined by

$$[P-Q]_p$$

where  $[.]_p, 0 \le p \le \infty$ , is the *Bombieri p-norm*. For a polynomial  $P(z) = \sum_{k=0}^n a_k z^k$  it is defined by

$$[P]_p = \left(\sum_{k=0}^n {\binom{n}{k}}^{1-p} |a_k|^p\right)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

#### • Metric space of roots

The **metric space of roots** is (Ćurgus–Mascioni, 2006) the space (X, d) where X is the family of all multisets of complex numbers with n elements and the distance between multisets  $U = \{u_1, \ldots, u_n\}$  and  $V = \{v_1, \ldots, v_n\}$  is defined by the following analog of the **Fréchet metric**:

$$\min_{\tau \in Sym_n} \max_{1 \le j \le n} |u_j - v_{\tau(j)}|,$$

where  $\tau$  is any permutation of  $\{1, ..., n\}$ . Here the set of roots of some monic complex polynomial of degree *n* is considered as a multiset with *n* elements. Cf. **metrics between multisets** in Chap. 1.

The function assigning to each polynomial the multiset of its roots is a **homeo-morphism** between the metric space of all monic complex polynomials of degree n with the **polynomial norm metric**  $l_{\infty}$  and the metric space of roots.

# **12.3** Metrics on Matrices

An  $m \times n$  matrix  $A = ((a_{ij}))$  over a field  $\mathbb{F}$  is a table consisting of m rows and n columns with the entries  $a_{ij}$  from  $\mathbb{F}$ . The set of all  $m \times n$  matrices with real (complex) entries is denoted by  $M_{m,n}$  or  $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  ( $\mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ ). It forms a group  $(M_{m,n}, +, 0_{m,n})$ , where  $((a_{ij})) + ((b_{ij})) = ((a_{ij} + b_{ij}))$ , and the matrix  $0_{m,n} \equiv 0$ . It is also an *mn*-dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  ( $\mathbb{C}$ ).

The transpose of a matrix  $A = ((a_{ij})) \in M_{m,n}$  is the matrix  $A^T = ((a_{ji})) \in M_{n,m}$ . A  $m \times n$  matrix A is called a square matrix if m = n, and a symmetric matrix if  $A = A^T$ . The conjugate transpose (or adjoint) of a matrix  $A = ((a_{ij})) \in M_{m,n}$  is the matrix  $A^* = ((\overline{a_{ji}})) \in M_{n,m}$ . An Hermitian matrix is a complex square matrix A with  $A = A^*$ .

The set of all square  $n \times n$  matrices with real (complex) entries is denoted by  $M_n$ . It forms a *ring*  $(M_n, +, \cdot, 0_n)$ , where + and  $0_n$  are defined as above, and  $((a_{ij})) \cdot ((b_{ij})) = ((\sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik}b_{kj}))$ . It is also an  $n^2$ -dimensional vector space over  $\mathbb{R}$  (over  $\mathbb{C}$ ). The *trace* of a square  $n \times n$  matrix  $A = ((a_{ij}))$  is defined by  $\operatorname{Tr}(A) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}$ .

The *identity matrix* is  $1_n = ((c_{ij}))$  with  $c_{ii} = 1$ , and  $c_{ij} = 0$ ,  $i \neq j$ . An *unitary matrix*  $U = ((u_{ij}))$  is a square matrix defined by  $U^{-1} = U^*$ , where  $U^{-1}$  is the *inverse matrix* of U, i.e.,  $UU^{-1} = 1_n$ . A matrix  $A \in M_{m,n}$  is *orthonormal* if  $A^*A = 1_n$ . A matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is *orthogonal* if  $A^T = A^{-1}$ , *normal* if  $A^T A = AA^T$  and *singular* if its determinant is 0.

If for a matrix  $A \in M_n$  there is a vector x such that  $Ax = \lambda x$  for some scalar  $\lambda$ , then  $\lambda$  is called an *eigenvalue* of A with corresponding *eigenvector* x. Given a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{m \times n}$ , its *singular values*  $s_i(A)$  are defined as  $\sqrt{\lambda(A^*A)}$ . A real matrix A is *positive-definite* if  $v^T Av > 0$  for all nonzero real vectors v; it holds if and only if all eigenvalues of  $A_H = \frac{1}{2}(A + A^T)$  are positive. An Hermitian matrix A is *positive-definite* if  $v^*Av > 0$  for all nonzero complex vectors v; it holds if and only if all  $\lambda(A)$  are positive.

The *mixed states* of a *n*-dimensional *quantum system* are described by their *density matrices*, i.e., positive-semidefinite Hermitian  $n \times n$  matrices of trace 1. The set of such matrices is convex, and its extremal points describe the *pure states*. Cf. **monotone metrics** in Chap. 7 and **distances between quantum states** in Chap. 24.

#### • Matrix norm metric

A matrix norm metric is a norm metric on the set  $M_{m,n}$  of all real (complex)  $m \times n$  matrices defined by

$$||A - B||,$$

where ||.|| is a *matrix norm*, i.e., a function  $||.|| : M_{m,n} \to \mathbb{R}$  such that, for all  $A, B \in M_{m,n}$ , and for any scalar k, we have the following properties:

1.  $||A|| \ge 0$ , with ||A|| = 0 if and only if  $A = 0_{m,n}$ ;

2. ||kA|| = |k|||A||;

3.  $||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||$  (triangle inequality).

4.  $||AB|| \leq ||A|| \cdot ||B||$  (submultiplicativity).

All matrix norm metrics on  $M_{m,n}$  are equivalent. The simplest example of such metric is the **Hamming metric** on  $M_{m,n}$  (in general, on the set  $M_{m,n}(\mathbb{F})$  of all  $m \times n$  matrices with entries from a field  $\mathbb{F}$ ) defined by  $||A - B||_H$ , where  $||A||_H$  is the *Hamming norm* of  $A \in M_{m,n}$ , i.e., the number of nonzero entries in A. Example of a *generalized* (i.e., not submultiplicative one) *matrix norm* is the *max element norm*  $||A = ((a_{ij}))||\max = \max_{i,j} |a_{ij}|$ ; but  $\sqrt{mn}||A||_{\max}$  is a matrix norm.

• Natural norm metric

A natural (or *operator*, *induced*) norm metric is a matrix norm metric on the set  $M_n$  defined by

$$||A - B||_{\text{nat}},$$

where  $||.||_{nat}$  is a *natural* (or *operator*, *induced*) *norm* on  $M_n$ , induced by the vector norm  $||x||, x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  ( $x \in \mathbb{C}^n$ ), is a matrix norm defined by

$$||A||_{\text{nat}} = \sup_{||x|| \neq 0} \frac{||Ax||}{||x||} = \sup_{||x||=1} ||Ax|| = \sup_{||x|| \leq 1} ||Ax||.$$

The natural norm metric can be defined in similar way on the set  $M_{m,n}$  of all  $m \times n$  real (complex) matrices: given vector norms  $||.||_{\mathbb{R}^m}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^m$  and  $||.||_{\mathbb{R}^n}$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the *natural norm*  $||A||_{\text{nat}}$  of a matrix  $A \in M_{m,n}$ , induced by  $||.||_{\mathbb{R}^n}$  and  $||.||_{\mathbb{R}^m}$ , is a matrix norm defined by  $||A||_{\text{nat}} = \sup_{||x||_{\mathbb{R}^n} = 1} ||Ax||_{\mathbb{R}^m}$ .

# • Matrix *p*-norm metric

A matrix *p*-norm metric is a natural norm metric on  $M_n$  defined by

$$||A-B||_{\text{nat}}^p$$

where  $||.||_{nat}^p$  is the *matrix* (or *operator*) *p*-norm, i.e., a natural norm, induced by the vector  $l_p$ -norm,  $1 \le p \le \infty$ :

$$||A||_{\text{nat}}^p = \max_{||x||_p = 1} ||Ax||_p$$
, where  $||x||_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{1/p}$ .

The maximum absolute column and maximum absolute row metric are the matrix 1-norm and matrix  $\infty$ -norm metric on  $M_n$ . For a matrix  $A = ((a_{ij})) \in M_n$ , the maximum absolute column and maximum absolute row sum norm are

$$||A||_{\text{nat}}^1 = \max_{1 \le j \le n} \sum_{i=1}^n |a_{ij}| \text{ and } |A||_{\text{nat}}^\infty = \max_{1 \le i \le n} \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|.$$

The **spectral norm metric** is the **matrix 2-norm metric**  $||A-B||_{nat}^2$  on  $M_n$ . The matrix 2-norm  $||.||_{nat}^2$ , induced by the vector  $l_2$ -norm, is also called the *spectral norm* and denoted by  $||.||_{sp}$ . For a symmetric matrix  $A = ((a_{ij})) \in M_n$ , it is

$$||A||_{sp} = s_{\max}(A) = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(A^*A)},$$

where  $A^* = ((\overline{a}_{ji}))$ , while  $s_{\max}$  and  $\lambda_{\max}$  are largest singular value and eigenvalue.

#### • Frobenius norm metric

The **Frobenius norm metric** is a **matrix norm metric** on  $M_{m,n}$  defined by

$$||A-B||_{Fr},$$

where  $||.||_{Fr}$  is the Frobenius (or Hilbert–Schmidt) norm. For  $A = ((a_{ij}))$ , it is

$$||A||_{Fr} = \sqrt{\sum_{i,j} |a_{ij}|^2} = \sqrt{\operatorname{Tr}(A^*A)} = \sqrt{\sum_{1 \le i \le \operatorname{rank}(A)} \lambda_i} = \sqrt{\sum_{1 \le i \le \operatorname{rank}(A)} s_i^2},$$

where  $\lambda_i$ ,  $s_i$  are the eigenvalues and singular values of A.

This norm is strictly convex, is a differentiable function of its elements  $a_{ij}$  and is the only unitarily invariant norm among  $||A||_p = (\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$ ,  $p \ge 1$ . The **trace norm metric** is a matrix norm metric on  $M_{m,n}$  defined by

$$||A - B||_{tr}$$

where  $||.||_{tr}$  is the trace norm (or nuclear norm) on  $M_{m,n}$  defined by

$$||A||_{tr} = \sum_{i=1}^{\min\{m,n\}} s_i(A) = \operatorname{Tr}(\sqrt{A^*A}).$$

#### Schatten norm metric

Given  $1 \le p < \infty$ , the Schatten norm metric is a matrix norm metric on  $M_{m,n}$  defined by

$$||A-B||_{Sch}^p$$

where  $||.||_{Sch}^{p}$  is the Schatten p-norm on  $M_{m,n}$ . For a matrix  $A \in M_{m,n}$ , it is defined as the p-th root of the sum of the p-th powers of all its singular values:

$$||A||_{Sch}^{p} = (\sum_{i=1}^{\min\{m,n\}} s_{i}^{p}(A))^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

For  $p = \infty$ , 2 and 1, one obtains the spectral norm metric, Frobenius norm metric and trace norm metric, respectively.

• (c, p)-norm metric

Let  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $k \le \min\{m, n\}$ ,  $c \in \mathbb{R}^k$ ,  $c_1 \ge c_2 \ge \cdots \ge c_k > 0$ , and  $1 \le p < \infty$ . The (c, p)-norm metric is a matrix norm metric on  $M_{m,n}$  defined by

$$||A - B||_{(c,p)}^k$$

where  $||.||_{(c,p)}^k$  is the (c, p)-norm on  $M_{m,n}$ . For a matrix  $A \in M_{m,n}$ , it is defined by

$$||A||_{(c,p)}^{k} = (\sum_{i=1}^{k} c_{i} s_{i}^{p}(A))^{\frac{1}{p}},$$

where  $s_1(A) \ge s_2(A) \ge \cdots \ge s_k(A)$  are the first *k* singular values of *A*. If p = 1, it is the *c*-norm. If, moreover,  $c_1 = \cdots = c_k = 1$ , it is the Ky Fan *k*-norm.

• Ky Fan k-norm metric

Given  $k \in \mathbb{N}$ ,  $k \leq \min\{m, n\}$ , the **Ky Fan** k-norm metric is a matrix norm metric on  $M_{m,n}$  defined by

$$||A-B||_{KF}^k$$

where  $||.||_{KF}^k$  is the Ky Fan k-norm on  $M_{m,n}$ . For a matrix  $A \in M_{m,n}$ , it is defined as the sum of its first k singular values:

$$||A||_{KF}^{k} = \sum_{i=1}^{k} s_{i}(A).$$

For k = 1 and k = min{m, n}, one obtains the spectral and trace norm metrics.
Cut norm metric

The cut norm metric is a matrix norm metric on  $M_{m,n}$  defined by

$$||A-B||_{cut},$$

where  $||.||_{cut}$  is the *cut norm* on  $M_{m,n}$  defined, for a matrix  $A = ((a_{ij})) \in M_{m,n}$ , as:

$$||A||_{cut} = \max_{I \subset \{1, \dots, m\}, J \subset \{1, \dots, n\}} |\sum_{i \in I, j \in J} a_{ij}|.$$

Cf. in Chap. 15 the **rectangle distance on weighted graphs** and the **cut semimetric**, but the **weighted cut metric** in Chap. 19 is not related.

#### Matrix nearness problems

A norm ||.|| is *unitarily invariant* on  $M_{m,n}$  if ||B|| = ||UBV|| for all  $B \in M_{m,n}$  and all unitary matrices U, V. All Schatten p-norms are

Given a unitarily invariant norm ||.|| on  $M_{m,n}$ , a matrix property  $\mathcal{P}$  defining a subspace or compact subset of  $M_{m,n}$  (so that  $d_{||.||}(A, \mathcal{P})$  below is well defined) and a matrix  $A \in M_{m,n}$ , then the *distance to*  $\mathcal{P}$  is the **point-set distance** on  $M_{m,n}$ 

$$d(A) = d_{\parallel,\parallel}(A, \mathcal{P}) = \min\{||E|| : A + E \text{ has property } \mathcal{P}\}$$

A matrix nearness problem is [High89] to find an explicit formula for d(A), the  $\mathcal{P}$ -closest matrix (or matrices)  $X_{||.||}(A) = A + E$ , satisfying the above minimum, and efficient algorithms for computing d(A) and  $X_{||.||}(A)$ . The componentwise nearness problem is to find  $d'(A) = \min\{\epsilon : |E| \le \epsilon |A|, A+E \text{ has property } \mathcal{P}\}$ , where  $|B| = ((|b_{ii}|))$  and the matrix inequality is interpreted componentwise.

The most used norms for  $B = ((b_{ij}))$  are the Schatten 2- and  $\infty$ norms (cf. Schatten norm metric): the Frobenius norm  $||B||_{Fr} = \sqrt{\operatorname{Tr}(B^*B)} = \sqrt{\sum_{1 \le i \le \operatorname{rank}(B)} s_i^2}$  and the spectral norm  $||B||_{sp} = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(B^*B)} = s_1(B)$ .

Examples of closest matrices  $X = X_{||.||}(A, \mathcal{P})$  follow.

Let  $A \in \mathbb{C}^{n \times n}$ . Then  $A = A_H + A_S$ , where  $A_H = \frac{1}{2}(A + A^*)$  is Hermitian and  $A_H = \frac{1}{2}(A - A^*)$  is *skew-Hermitian* (i.e.,  $A_H^* = -A_H$ ). Let  $A = U\Sigma V^*$  be a *singular value decomposition* (SVD) of A, i.e.,  $U \in M_m$  and  $V^* \in M_n$  are unitary, while  $\Sigma = \text{diag}(s_1, s_2, \dots, s_{\min\{m,n\}})$  is an  $m \times n$ diagonal matrix with  $s_1 \ge s_2 \ge \dots \ge s_{\text{rank}(A)} > 0 = \dots = 0$ . Fan and Hoffman, 1955, showed that, for any unitarily invariant norm,  $A_H, A_S, UV^*$  are closest Hermitian (symmetric), skew-Hermitian (skew-symmetric) and unitary (orthogonal) matrices, respectively. Such matrix  $X_{Fr}(A)$  is a unique minimizer in all three cases.

Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ . Gabriel, 1979, found the closest normal matrix  $X_{Fr}(A)$ . Higham found in 1988 a unique closest symmetric positive-semidefinite matrix  $X_{Fr}(A)$  and, in 2001, the closest matrix of this type with unit diagonal (i.e., ab correlation matrix).

Given a SVD  $A = U\Sigma V^*$  of A, let  $A_k$  denote  $U\Sigma_k V^*$ , where  $\Sigma_k$  is a diagonal matrix diag $(s_1, s_2, \ldots, s_k, 0, \ldots, 0)$  containing the largest k singular values of A. Then (Mirsky, 1960)  $A_k$  achieves  $\min_{\operatorname{rank}(A+E) \leq k} ||E||$  for any unitarily invariant norm. So,  $||A - A_k||_{Fr} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=k+1}^{\operatorname{rank}(A)} s_i^2}$  (Eckart–Young, 1936) and  $||A - A_k||_{sp} = s_{\max}(A - A_k) = s_{k+1}(A)$ .  $A_k$  is a unique minimizer  $X_{Fr}(A)$  if  $s_k > s_{k+1}$ . Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  be nonsingular. Then its **distance to singularity**  $d(A, Sing) = \min\{||E|| : A + E \text{ is singular}\}$  is, for both above norms,  $s_n(A) = \frac{1}{s_1(A^{-1})} = \frac{1}{||A^{-1}||_{sp}} = \sup\{\delta : \delta \mathbb{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n} \subseteq A \mathbb{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n}\}$ ; here  $\mathbb{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||x|| \leq 1\}$ . Given a closed convex cone  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , call a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  feasible if  $\{Ax : x \in C\} = \mathbb{R}^m$ ; so, for m = n and  $C = \mathbb{R}^n$ , feasibly means nonsingularity.

 $x \in C$  =  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ; so, for m = n and  $C = \mathbb{R}^n$ , feasibly means nonsingularity. Renegar, 1995, showed that, for feasible matrix A, its **distance to infeasibility** min{ $||E||_{nat} : A + E$  is not feasible} is sup{ $\delta : \delta \mathbb{B}_{\mathbb{R}^m} \subseteq A(\mathbb{B}_{\mathbb{R}^n} \cap C)$ }.

Lewis, 2003, generalized this by showing that, given two real normed spaces X, Y and a surjective *convex process* (or *set valued sublinear mapping*) F from X to Y, i.e., a multifunction for which  $\{(x, y) : y \in F(x)\}$  is a closed convex cone, it holds

 $\min\{||E||_{\text{nat}} : E \text{ is any linear map } X \to Y, F + E \text{ is not surjective}\} = \frac{1}{||F^{-1}||_{\text{nat}}}.$ 

Donchev et al. 2002, extended this, computing **distance to irregularity**; cf. **metric regularity** (Chap. 1). Cf. the above four *distances to ill-posedness* with **distance to uncontrollability** (Chap. 18) and **distances from symmetry** (Chap. 21).

•  $Sym(n, \mathbb{R})^+$  and  $Her(n, \mathbb{C})^+$  metrics

Let  $Sym(n, \mathbb{R})^+$  and  $Her(n, \mathbb{C})^+$  be the cones of  $n \times n$  symmetric real and Hermitian complex positive-definite  $n \times n$  matrices. The  $Sym(n, \mathbb{R})^+$  **metric** is defined, for any  $A, B \in Sym(n, \mathbb{R})^+$ , as

$$(\sum_{i=1}^n \log^2 \lambda_i)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

where  $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  are the *eigenvalues* of the matrix  $A^{-1}B$  (the same as those of  $A^{-\frac{1}{2}}BA^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ ). It is the **Riemannian distance**, arising from the Riemannian metric  $ds^2 = \text{Tr}((A^{-1}(dA))^2)$ . This metric was rediscovered in Förstner–Moonen, 1999, and Pennec et al., 2004, via *generalized eigenvalue problem*:  $det(\lambda A - B) = 0$ .

The  $Her(n, \mathbb{C})^+$  metric is defined, for any  $A, B \in Her(n, \mathbb{C})^+$ , by

$$d_R(A, B) = ||\log(A^{-\frac{1}{2}}BA^{-\frac{1}{2}})||_{Fr},$$

where  $||H||_{Fr} = (\sum_{i,j} |h_{ij}|^2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$  is the *Frobenius norm* of the matrix  $H = ((h_{ij}))$ . It is the **Riemannian distance** arising from the Riemannian metric of nonpositive curvature, defined locally (at *H*) by  $ds = ||H^{-\frac{1}{2}} dH H^{-\frac{1}{2}}||_{Fr}$ . In other words, this distance is the **geodesic distance** 

 $\inf\{L(\gamma) : \gamma \text{ is a (differentiable) path from A to B}\},\$ 

where  $L(\gamma) = \int_{A}^{B} ||\gamma^{-\frac{1}{2}}(t)\gamma'(t)\gamma^{-\frac{1}{2}}(t)||_{Fr}dt$  and the geodesic [A, B] is parametrized by  $\gamma(t) = A^{\frac{1}{2}}(A^{-\frac{1}{2}}BA^{-\frac{1}{2}})^{t}A^{\frac{1}{2}}$  in the sense that  $d_{R}(A, \gamma(t)) = td_{R}(A, B)$  for each  $t \in [0, 1]$ . In particular, the geodesic midpoint  $\gamma(\frac{1}{2})$  of [A, B] can be seen as the *geometric mean* of two positive-definite matrices A and B. The space  $(Her(n, \mathbb{C})^+, d_R))$  is an **Hadamard** (i.e., complete and CAT(0)) **space**, cf. Chap. 6. But  $Her(n, \mathbb{C})^+$  is not complete with respect to matrix norms; it has a boundary consisting of the singular positive-semidefinite matrices.

Above  $Sym(n, \mathbb{R})^+$  and  $Her(n, \mathbb{C})^+$  metrics are the special cases of the distance  $d_R(x, y)$  among **invariant distances on symmetric cones** in Chap. 9.

Cf. also, in Chap. 24, the **trace distance** on all Hermitian of trace 1 positivedefinite  $n \times n$  matrices and in Chap. 7, the **Wigner–Yanase–Dyson metrics** on all complex positive-definite  $n \times n$  matrices.

The **Bartlett distance** between two matrices  $A, B \in Her(n, \mathbb{C})^+$ , is defined (Conradsen et al., 2003, for radar applications) by

$$\ln\left(\frac{(det(A+B))^2}{4det(A)det(B)}\right).$$

#### Siegel distance

The *Siegel half-plane* is the set  $SH_n$  of  $n \times n$  matrices Z = X + iY, where X, Y are symmetric or Hermitian and Y is positive-definite. The **Siegel-Hua metric** (Siegel, 1943, and independently, Hua, 1944) on  $SH_n$  is defined by

$$ds^2 = \operatorname{Tr}(Y^{-1}(dZ)Y^{-1}(d\overline{Z})).$$

It is unique metric preserved by any automorphism of  $SH_n$ . The Siegel-Hua metric on the Siegel disk  $SD_n = \{W = (Z - iI)(Z + iI)^{-1} : Z \in SH_n\}$  is defined by

$$ds^{2} = \text{Tr}((I - WW^{*})^{-1}dW(I - W^{*}W)^{-1}dW^{*})$$

For n=1, the Siegel–Hua metric is the **Poincaré metric** (cf. Chap. 6) on the *Poincaré half-plane*  $SH_1$  and the *Poincaré disk*  $SD_1$ , respectively.

Let  $A_n = \{Z = iY : Y > 0\}$  be the imaginary axe on the Siegel half-plane. The Siegel-Hua metric on  $A_n$  is the Riemannian **trace metric**  $ds^2 = \text{Tr}((P^1 dP)^2)$ . The corresponding distances are  $Sym(n, \mathbb{R})^+$  **metric** or  $Her(n, \mathbb{C})^+$  **metric**. The **Siegel distance**  $d_{Sievel}(Z_1, Z_2)$  on  $SH_n \setminus A_n$  is defined by

$$d_{Siegel}^{2}(Z_{1}, Z_{2}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log^{2} \left( \frac{1 + \sqrt{\lambda_{i}}}{1 - \sqrt{\lambda_{i}}} \right);$$

 $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$  are the *eigenvalues* of the matrix  $(Z_1 - Z_2)(Z_1 - \overline{Z_2}) - 1(\overline{Z_1} - \overline{Z_2})(\overline{Z_1} - Z_2)^{-1}$ .

# • Barbaresco metrics

Let z(k) be a complex temporal (discrete time) *stationary* signal, i.e., its mean value is constant and its *covariance function*  $\mathbb{E}[z(k_1)z^*(k_2)]$  is only a function of  $k_1 - k_2$ . Such signal can be represented by its covariance  $n \times n$  matrix  $R = ((r_{ij}))$ , where  $r_{ij} = \mathbb{E}[z(i), z * (j)] = \mathbb{E}[z(n)z * (n - i + j)]$ . It is a positive-definite *Toeplitz* (i.e. diagonal-constant) Hermitian matrix. In radar applications, such matrices represent the Doppler spectra of the signal. Matrices R admit a parametrization (complex ARM, i.e., *m*-th order autoregressive model) by *partial autocorrelation coefficients* defined recursively as the complex correlation between the forward and backward prediction errors of the (m-1)-th order complex ARM.

Barbaresco [Barb12] defined, via this parametrization, a **Bergman metric** (cf. Chap. 7) on the bounded domain  $\mathbb{R} \times D_n \subset \mathbb{C}^n$  of above matrices R; here D is a *Poincaré disk*. He also defined a related **Kähler metric** on  $M \times S_n$ , where M is the set of positive-definite Hermitian matrices and  $SD_n$  is the *Siegel disk* (cf. **Siegel distance**). Such matrices represent spatiotemporal stationary signals, i.e., in radar applications, the Doppler spectra and spatial directions of the signal.

Cf. Ruppeiner metric (Chap. 7) and Martin cepstrum distance (Chap. 21).

# Distances between graphs of matrices

The graph G(A) of a complex  $m \times n$  matrix A is the range (i.e., the span of columns) of the matrix  $R(A) = ([IA^T])^T$ . So, G(A) is a subspace of  $\mathbb{C}^{m+n}$  of all vectors v, for which the equation R(A)x = v has a solution.

A distance between graphs of matrices A and B is a distance between the subspaces G(A) and G(B). It can be an **angle distance between subspaces** or, for example, the following distance (cf. also the **Kadets distance** in Chap. 1 and the **gap metric** in Chap. 18).

The spherical gap distance between subspaces A and B is defined by

$$\max\{\max_{x \in S(A)} d_E(x, S(B)), \max_{y \in S(B)} d_E(y, S(A))\}$$

where S(A), S(B) are the unit spheres of the subspaces A, B, d(z, C) is the **point-set distance**  $\inf_{y \in C} d(z, y)$  and  $d_E(z, y)$  is the Euclidean distance.

#### Angle distances between subspaces

Consider the *Grassmannian space* G(m, n) of all *n*-dimensional subspaces of Euclidean space  $\mathbb{E}^m$ ; it is a compact *Riemannian manifold* of dimension n(m-n). Given two subspaces  $A, B \in G(m, n)$ , the *principal angles*  $\frac{\pi}{2} \ge \theta_1 \ge \cdots \ge \theta_n \ge 0$  between them are defined, for  $k = 1, \ldots, n$ , inductively by

$$\cos \theta_k = \max_{x \in A} \max_{y \in B} x^T y = (x^k)^T y^k$$

subject to the conditions  $||x||_2 = ||y||_2 = 1$ ,  $x^T x^i = 0$ ,  $y^T y^i = 0$ , for  $1 \le i \le k - 1$ , where  $||.||_2$  is the Euclidean norm.

The principal angles can also be defined in terms of orthonormal matrices  $Q_A$  and  $Q_B$  spanning subspaces A and B, respectively: in fact, n ordered singular values of the matrix  $Q_A Q_B \in M_n$  can be expressed as cosines  $\cos \theta_1, \ldots, \cos \theta_n$ .

The geodesic distance between subspaces A and B is (Wong, 1967) defined by

$$\sqrt{2\sum_{i=1}^{n}\theta_{i}^{2}}$$

The Martin distance between subspaces A and B is defined by

$$\sqrt{\ln \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{\cos^2 \theta_i}}$$

In the case when the subspaces represent ARMs (*autoregressive models*), the Martin distance can be expressed in terms of the *cepstrum* of the autocorrelation functions of the models. Cf. the **Martin cepstrum distance** in Chap. 21.

The **Asimov distance** between subspaces *A* and *B* is defined by  $\theta_1$ . It can be expressed also in terms of the **Finsler metric** on the manifold G(m, n).

The **gap distance** between subspaces *A* and *B* is defined by  $\sin \theta_1$ . It is the  $l_2$ norm of the difference of the *orthogonal projectors* onto *A* and *B*. Many versions of this distance are used in Control Theory (cf. **gap metric** in Chap. 18). The **Frobenius distance** between subspaces *A* and *B* is defined by

$$\sqrt{2\sum_{i=1}^n\sin^2\theta_i}.$$

It is the *Frobenius norm* of the difference of above projectors onto A and B. Similar distances  $\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sin^2 \theta_i}$ ,  $2\sin(\frac{\theta_1}{2})$ ,  $\sqrt{1-\prod_{i=1}^{n} \cos^2 \theta_i}$  and arccos  $(\prod_{i=1}^{n} \cos \theta_i)$  are called the **chordal distance**, **chordal 2-norm distance**, **Binet–Cauchy distance** and *Fubini–Study distance* (cf. Chap. 7), respectively.

# • Larsson–Villani metric

Let *A* and *B* be two arbitrary orthonormal  $m \times n$  matrices of full rank, and let  $\theta_{ij}$  be the angle between the *i*-th column of *A* and the *j*-th column of *B*.

We call **Larsson–Villani metric** the distance between A and B (used by Larsson and Villani, 2000, for multivariate models) the square of which is defined by

$$n-\sum_{i=1}^n\sum_{j=1}^n\cos^2\theta_{ij}.$$

The square of usual Euclidean distance between *A* and *B* is  $2(1 - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \cos \theta_{ii})$ . For n = 1, above two distances are  $\sin \theta$  and  $\sqrt{2(1 - \cos \theta)}$ , respectively.

## • Lerman metric

Given a finite set X and real symmetric  $|X| \times |X|$  matrices  $((d_1(x, y)))$ ,  $((d_2(x, y)))$  with  $x, y \in X$ , their **Lerman semimetric** (cf. **Kendall**  $\tau$  **distance** on permutations in Chap. 11) is defined by

$$|\{(\{x, y\}, \{u, v\}) : (d_1(x, y) - d_1(u, v))(d_2(x, y) - d_2(u, v)) < 0\}| \binom{|X| + 1}{2}^{-2},$$

where  $(\{x, y\}, \{u, v\})$  is any pair of unordered pairs of elements x, y, u, v from X. Similar **Kaufman semimetric** between  $((d_1(x, y)))$  and  $((d_2(x, y)))$  is

$$\frac{|\{(\{x, y\}, \{u, v\}) : (d_1(x, y) - d_1(u, v))(d_2(x, y) - d_2(u, v)) < 0\}|}{|\{(\{x, y\}, \{u, v\}) : (d_1(x, y) - d_1(u, v))(d_2(x, y) - d_2(u, v)) \neq 0\}|}$$