# 1 Linear Algebra

- Linear Indepent: m vectors are l.i. if  $c_1\mathbf{x_1} + ... + c_m\mathbf{x_m} = \mathbf{0}$ , only when  $c_1 = ... = c_d = \mathbf{0}$
- Standard basis of  $\mathbb{R}^d$  is composed of  $e_1, ..., e_d$
- Euclidean length:  $\sqrt{x_1^2 + \cdots + x_d^2}$

### Norm function

A function  $\lVert \cdot \rVert : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is called a norm if it satisfies

- 1.  $||x|| \ge 0 \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and for  $\mathbf{x} \ne \mathbf{0}$  we have ||x|| > 0
- $2. \ \forall c \in \mathbb{R}, \ |c| \|x\|$
- 3.  $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^d, ||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$

# $l_p$ -norm function

The norm is defined as  $||x||_p := (|x_1|^p + \cdots + |x_d|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}$ 

**Note:**  $||x||_p = \lim_{p \to \infty} ||x||_p = \max_{1 \le i \le d} |x_i|$ 

Also,  $l_p - norms$  are decreasing in  $p \ge 1$ , namely  $1 \le p \le q \le \infty \Rightarrow ||x||_p \ge ||x||_q$ .

The inner product  $\langle x,y\rangle=x^Ty$  is positive-definite for all  $\langle x,x\rangle$ , symmetric for all  $\mathbf{x},\mathbf{y}$ , and linear for all  $\mathbf{x_1},\mathbf{x_2},\mathbf{y},c\in\mathbb{R}$ .

Cauchy-Schwartz inequality:  $|\langle x,y\rangle| \leq ||x|| \, ||y||$ . As a result we have  $\cos \theta = \frac{\langle x,y\rangle}{||x|| \, ||y||}$ 

# Mutual Orthogonal

A set of vectors is called **mutually orthogonal** if  $\forall i \neq j : \langle x^{(i)}, x^{(j)} \rangle = 0$  and a set of mutually orthogonal vectors is linearly independent.

**Note:** we call a set orthonormal if  $\langle x^{(i)}, x^{(j)} \rangle \delta_i, j$  Matrix notation:  $A = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1,1} & a_{1,2} & \dots & a_{1,n} \\ a_{2,1} & a_{2,2} & \dots & a_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ a_{m,1} & a_{m,2} & \dots & a_{m,n} \end{pmatrix}$  The product is defined as  $[AB]_{i,j} = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{i,k} b_{k,j}$ 

- Range of matrix, the subspace of all vectors following from linear combinations of A's columns:  $\mathcal{R}(A) := \{Ax : x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$
- Rank of matrix: dimension of subspace  $\mathcal{R}(A)$

- $Rank(A_{m \times n}) \le min(m, n)$  and full-rank if Rank(A) = min(m, n)
- Null space of a matrix, the subspace of all vectors which A maps to  $\mathbf{0}$ :  $\mathcal{N}(A) := \{x : Ax = \mathbf{0}\}$
- Determinant:  $det(A) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} a_{i,j} det(A_{(i,j)})$

Equivalent sayings:

- A is invertible
- A is non-singular,  $det(A) \neq 0$
- A is full rank, Rank(A) = n
- A has linearly independent rows or columns
- A has a zero null space  $\mathcal{N}(A) = 0$
- A has full range  $\mathcal{R}(A) = 0$

## Eigenvectors and Eigenvalues

For a vector  $\mathbf{v} \neq \mathbf{0}$ , it's an eigenvector for its eigenvalue  $\lambda$  such that:  $Av = \lambda v$ 

Can be calculated by solving  $det(A - \lambda I_n)$ 

## Spectral theorem

For a symmetric matrix A there exists a spectral decomposition. Such that

$$A = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i v_i v_i^T = V \Lambda V^T.$$

, where  $V = [v_1, ..., V_n]$  and  $\Lambda = diag(\lambda_1, ..., \lambda_n)$  such that  $\lambda_1 \ge \cdots \ge \lambda_n$  and  $v_i$  is normalized

A symmetric matrix is called PSD if for every vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we have  $x^T A x \geq 0$ . Strictly definite if it holds strictly for  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}$ 

Theorem: A is psd  $\Leftrightarrow$  all its eigenvalues are non-negative  $\Leftrightarrow$  we have a matrix H such that  $A = HH^T$ 

### Partial Order for Matrices

- $A \succeq B$  if A B is PSD
- $A \succ B$  if A B is positive definite (PD)
- $A \leq B$  if A B is negative semidefinite
- $A \prec B$  if A B is negative definite

 $A \not\succeq B$  does not imply  $A \preceq B$ 

# 2 (Multivariable) Calculus Recap

### Lecture 5

## Special sets

Epigraph:  $epif := \{(\mathbf{x}, t) : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n, t \geq f(\mathbf{x})\}$ Contour set:  $C_f(t) := \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(\mathbf{x}) = t\}$ Hyperplane:  $H = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{a}^T x = b\}$ Halfspace (change  $\leq$  to  $\geq$  for +)  $H_- = \{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{a}^T x \leq b\}$ 

A function is linear if  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, c \in \mathbb{R}f(cx + y) = cf(x) + f(y)$ 

## General Quadratic Form

We can write a quadratic function, in terms of  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}, b \in \mathbb{R}^n, c \in \mathbb{R}$ :

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{x} + c.$$

Common gradients and hessians:

### Gradient and Hessians

A function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  has a gradient defined as  $\nabla f(x) = \left[\frac{\delta f(x)}{\delta x_1}, \dots, \frac{\delta f(x)}{\delta x_n}\right]^T$  and hessian is the second derivative (square matrix.)

### Math Rules:

- Derivative for  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m: df(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{df_1}{dx_1} & \cdots & \frac{df_1}{dx_n} \\ \frac{df_2}{dx_1} & \cdots & \frac{df_2}{dx_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{df_m}{dx_1} & \cdots & \frac{df_m}{dx_n} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$
- Gradient: we can calculate gradient for  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ . It's defined as  $\nabla f(x) = df(x)^T$
- Chain rule:  $d(g \circ f)(x) = dg(f(x)) \cdot df(x)$
- Product rule: g(x)h(x) = dg(x)h(x) + g(x)dh(x)
- $f(x) = ||Ax b||^2$ ,  $\nabla f(x) = 2A^T(Ax b)$ ,  $Hess_f(x) = 2A^TA$
- $f(x) = \|Ax b\|, \frac{A^T(Ax b)}{\|Ax b\|}, Hess_f(x) = \frac{A^TA}{\|Ax b\|} \frac{(A^TAx b)((x^TA^T b^T)A)}{\|Ax b\|^3}$

•  $d\mathbf{0} = 0, d(\alpha \mathbf{X}) = \alpha d\mathbf{X}, d(\mathbf{X}^{-1}) = -\mathbf{X}^{-1}(d\mathbf{X})X^{-1}, d\mathbf{X}^{T} = f(q(x))$ , where f,g both convex and f non-decreasing in  $(d\mathbf{X})^T$ ,  $\frac{dx^Ta}{dx} = \frac{da^Tx}{dx}a$ ,  $\frac{dx^TAx}{dx}(A+A^T)x$ ,  $\frac{d}{ds}(x-As)^TW(x-\text{ every entry.})$  $As) = -2A^{T}W(x - As), \frac{d}{dx}(x - As)^{T}W(x - As) =$ 2W(x-As)

We can approximate functions using gradients and hessians:  $f(x) \approx f(\mathbf{x_0}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x_0})^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x_0}) +$  $\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x_0})^T H_f(\mathbf{x_0})(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x_0})$ 

#### Affine Functions

Let  $f \in \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  be a multivariable function. Then f is an affine function iff:  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d, \theta \in [0,1]$ :  $f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) = \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta) f(y)$ 

Convex function (one dimensional): if we can replace = above with <. A function f is **concave** if -f(x)

Convex (multivariable):  $||\mathbf{x}||, ||\mathbf{x}||^p, p \ge 1, \log(\sum_i^d e^{x_i}).$ Concave:  $\sum_{i=1}^{d} x_{i} \log(\frac{1}{x_{i}}),$ 

 $dom(f) = R_{+}^{d}, (x_1 x_2 \dots x_d)^{\frac{1}{d}}, dom(f) = \mathbb{R}_{+}^{d}$ 

**Proposition:** A set S is convex iff  $\forall x, y \in S, \theta \in [0, 1]$ :  $\theta x + (1 - \theta)y \in S$ 

Examples of convex functions:  $x^p, p \ge 1$  or  $p \le 0$ ,  $|x|^{p}, p \ge 1, e^{ax+b}$ . Concave:  $x^{p}, x \in \mathbb{R}_{+}, 0 \le p \le 1$ 

#### Sublevel set

Let  $S_f(t) = \{ \mathbf{x} \in dom(f) : f(\mathbf{x}) \le t \}$ . If f is convex, then  $S_f(t)$  is a convex set for every t.

**Examples** of convex sets: hyperplanes, halfspaces, norm balls  $(\{\mathbf{x} : ||x|| < \epsilon)$ 

Convexity preserving operations: intersection, affine and inverse-affine mappings, linear fractional functions How to proof a function is convex:

- 1. Verify the inequality
- 2. Proof over epigraph and sub-level sets
- 3. Gradients and hessians
- 4. Convexity preserving operations

Convexity preserving operations: positive scalar multiplication, addition of two convex functions, composition with affine functions  $f(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b})$ , pointwise maximum  $max\{f_1(x),\ldots,f_k(\mathbf{x})\}\$  if each  $f_i$  is convex, composition

## First-order convexity condition

A differentiable function f is convex iff its domain is convex and  $\forall x, y \in dom(f) : f(y) > f(x) +$  $\nabla f(x)^T (y-x)$ 

## Second-order convexity

Same as above, but this  $\forall \mathbf{x} \in dom(f) : H_f(\mathbf{x}) \succeq 0$ (so PSD)

# **Optimization Problems**

Let the optimization problem be formulated as min f(x)subject to  $g_i(x) \leq 0$  for all i

- NP-Hard problems: proven to be intractable
- Linear Programming Problems: if a problem can be rewritten as  $\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \mathbf{x}$  subject to  $A\mathbf{x} \leq \mathbf{b}$  and  $\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}$ , with f and  $q_i \forall i$  affine. If f is non-Affine, then it's a non linear programming task
- Convex optimization problem: if  $f, g_i$  are all convex and we can rewrite it as  $\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(x)$  subject to  $g(x) \le$ 0 for all i or Ax = b, else non-convex

#### How to

- Define optimization variables, i.e.  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- Define objective function
- Define feasible set, or constraint functions, also must  $x_i \geq 0$  for example?

## Examples:

- LP: Transport task, manufacturing task, sorting task
- Convex problems: LP-problems, projection problem, distance computation problem, ridge regression

**Definition:** two problems are called *equivalent* if their optimal solutions are in one-to-one correspondence.

Feasible set:  $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d : g_i(x) \leq \text{ for all } 1 \leq i \leq a\}$ m} and  $x^*$  is called the globally optimal solution if it minimized the object function. We also have a locally optimal solution. In convex problems they are the same.

### 4 Extra

## Gram-Schmidt: orthogonalize a basis

- 1. Let  $proj_u(v) = \frac{\langle u, v \rangle}{\langle u, v \rangle} u$
- 2.  $u_1 = v_1 \Rightarrow e_1 = \frac{u_1}{\|u_1\|}$
- 3.  $u_2 = v_2 proj_{u_1}(v_2) \Rightarrow e_2 = \frac{u_2}{\|u_2\|}$
- 5.  $u_k = v_k \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} proj_{u_i}(v_k) \Rightarrow e_k = \frac{u_k}{\|u_k\|}$

We do this for all the k vectors we have and normalize them all

## Find eigenvectors

- 1. Solve for  $det(A \lambda I) \stackrel{!}{=} 0$
- 2. Set  $\lambda = \lambda_i \forall i$
- 3. Perform gauss elimination, and then get the systems of equations wrt one variable and set the variable to 1
- 4. If necessary, normalize

#### Prove PSD

One of the easier ways to prove a matrix is PSD, is by  $x^T A x$  and usually showing it's a norm squared. Another way is Sylvesters' criterion: Let  $A^{(1)} =$  $[a_{11}], A^{(n)} = A$ , like  $A^{(k)}$  be the  $k \times k$  submatrix from topleft. Then  $\Delta_k = det(A^{(k)})$ 

- A spd  $\Leftrightarrow \Delta_i > 0, ..., \Delta_n > 0$
- A snd  $\Leftrightarrow (-1)^1 \Delta_1 > 0, ..., (-1)^n \Delta_n > 0$

This is not always conclusive!