## Convex Optimization: Reading Notes 1

**GKxx** 

May 6, 2022

## 1 Least-squares problems

A least-squares problems is an optimization problem of the form

min 
$$f(x) = ||Ax - b||_2^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k (\alpha_i^T x - b_i)^2$$
,

where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$  with  $k \geqslant n$ , and  $a_i^T$  are the rows of A, and the vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the optimization variable. The gradient of the objective function is

$$\nabla f(x) = \nabla ((Ax - b)^{\mathsf{T}}(Ax - b)) = 2A^{\mathsf{T}}Ax - 2A^{\mathsf{T}}b.$$

Setting this to zero yields  $A^TAx = A^Tb$ . So the analytical solution to the least-squares problem, if  $A^TA$  is invertible, is  $x = (A^TA)^{-1}A^Tb$ .

**Definition 1.1** (Moore-Penrose generalized inverse). For  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$ , consider the singular value decomposition  $A = U\Sigma V^T$ , as well as the thin SVD  $A = \bar{U}\bar{\Sigma}\bar{V}^T$ . Define  $A^\dagger = \bar{V}\bar{\Sigma}^{-1}\bar{U}^T$ , or  $A^\dagger = V\Sigma^\dagger U^T$ , where  $\Sigma^\dagger$  is obtained from  $\Sigma$  by first replacing each nonzero singular value with its inverse and then transposing. The matrix  $A^\dagger$  is called the Moore-Penrose generalized inverse.

**Remark 1.2.** In the SVD of  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times n}$ ,  $U = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{U} & \tilde{U} \end{bmatrix}$  and  $V = \begin{bmatrix} \bar{V} & \tilde{V} \end{bmatrix}$ , where  $\bar{U}, \tilde{U}, \bar{V}$  and  $\tilde{V}$  are the orthonormal bases of  $\mathcal{R}(A)$ ,  $\mathcal{N}(A^T)$ ,  $\mathcal{R}(A^T)$  and  $\mathcal{N}(A)$ , respectively.

Lemma 1.3.  $\mathcal{R}(A^{\dagger}) = \mathcal{R}(A^{T})$ .

*Proof.*  $A^{\dagger} = \bar{V}\bar{\Sigma}^{-1}\bar{U}^{T} \Rightarrow \mathcal{R}\left(A^{\dagger}\right) \subseteq \mathcal{R}\left(\bar{V}\right)$ . Moreover,  $\bar{V} = A^{\dagger}\bar{U}\bar{\Sigma} \Rightarrow \mathcal{R}\left(\bar{V}\right) \subseteq \bar{A}^{\dagger}$ . Therefore  $\mathcal{R}\left(A^{\dagger}\right) = \mathcal{R}\left(\bar{V}\right)$ . Since  $\bar{V}$  is the orthonormal basis of  $\mathcal{R}\left(A^{T}\right)$ , we obtain  $\mathcal{R}\left(A^{\dagger}\right) = \mathcal{R}\left(A^{T}\right)$ .

**Lemma 1.4.** If the linear system of equations Ax = b is consistent, then  $A^{\dagger}b$  is the unique solution of minimal Euclidean norm.

*Proof.* First check that  $A(A^{\dagger}b) = b$ . Since the system is consistent,  $b \in \mathcal{R}(A)$  and we have that

$$A\left(A^{\dagger}b\right) = \bar{U}\bar{\Sigma}\bar{V}^{\mathsf{T}}\bar{V}\bar{\Sigma}^{-1}\bar{U}^{\mathsf{T}}b = \bar{U}\bar{U}^{\mathsf{T}}b = \Pi_{\mathcal{R}(A),\mathcal{R}(A)^{\perp}}(b) = b,$$

where  $\Pi_{S,T}(x)$  is the projection of x onto S along T. Now let  $A^{\dagger}b + \xi$  be any other solution, where  $\xi \in \mathcal{N}(A)$ . We have that

$$\left| \left| A^{\dagger} b + \xi \right| \right|_{2}^{2} = \left( A^{\dagger} b + \xi \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \left( A^{\dagger} b + \xi \right) = \left| \left| A^{\dagger} b \right| \right|_{2}^{2} + \left\| \xi \right\|_{2}^{2} + 2 \xi^{\mathsf{T}} A^{\dagger} b.$$

Here  $A^{\dagger}b\in\mathcal{R}\left(A^{\dagger}\right)=\mathcal{R}\left(A^{T}\right)$ , while  $\xi\in\mathcal{N}\left(A\right)=\mathcal{R}\left(A^{T}\right)^{\perp}$ , so  $\xi^{T}A^{\dagger}b=0$ . Therefore

$$\left|\left|A^{\dagger}b+\xi\right|\right|_{2}^{2}=\left|\left|A^{\dagger}b\right|\right|_{2}^{2}+\left|\left|\xi\right|\right|_{2}^{2}>\left|\left|A^{\dagger}b\right|\right|_{2}^{2}.$$

**Proposition 1.5.** The unique solution of minimal Euclidean norm to the least-squares problem is  $A^{\dagger}b$ .

*Proof.* We have known that the solution to the least-squares problem must satisfy  $A^TAx = A^Tb$ . Note that  $A^TA = \bar{V}\bar{\Sigma}\bar{U}^T\bar{U}\bar{\Sigma}\bar{V}^T = \bar{V}\bar{\Sigma}^2\bar{V}^T$ , so the Moore-Penrose generalized inverse of  $A^TA$  is

$$(A^TA)^{\dagger} = \bar{V}\bar{\Sigma}^{-2}\bar{V}^T.$$

From Lemma 1.4 we know that the unique solution of minimal Euclidean norm is

$$\left(A^{\mathsf{T}}A\right)^{\dagger}A^{\mathsf{T}}b = \bar{V}\bar{\Sigma}^{-2}\bar{V}^{\mathsf{T}}\bar{V}\bar{\Sigma}\bar{U}^{\mathsf{T}}b = \bar{V}\bar{\Sigma}^{-1}\bar{U}^{\mathsf{T}}b = A^{\dagger}b.$$

## 2 Affine sets, convex sets and cones

**Definition 2.1** (Affine set). A set  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is affine if for any  $x_1, x_2 \in C$  and  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ , we have  $\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2 \in C$ .

**Definition 2.2** (Affine combination). The affine combination of k points  $x_1, \dots, x_k$  is the linear combination

$$\theta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \theta_k x_k$$

where  $\theta_1 + \cdots + \theta_k = 1$ .

**Proposition 2.3.** The solution set of a system of linear equations is an affine set. Conversely, every affine set can be expressed as the solution set of a system of linear equations.

*Proof.* We only show the converse. Suppose C is an affine set. If  $C = \emptyset$  this is trivial. When  $C \neq \emptyset$ , take any  $x_0 \in C$  and the set  $V = C - x_0 = \{x - x_0 \mid x \in C\}$  is a linear subspace. Suppose dim  $V^{\perp} = d$  and  $B = \{b_1, \dots, b_d\}$  is a basis for  $V^{\perp}$ . Then

$$x \in V \iff \forall \xi \in V^{\perp}, x \perp \xi \iff \forall i \in [d], x \perp b_i.$$

Now define the matrix  $A = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 & \cdots & b_d \end{bmatrix}^T$ , the i-th row of which is  $b_i^T$ , and then  $x \in V \iff Ax = 0$ . Therefore  $x \in C \iff Ax = Ax_0$ , which shows that C is the solution set of  $Ax = Ax_0$ .

**Definition 2.4** (Affine hull). For a set  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , the set of all affine combinations of points in C is called the affine hull of C, denoted **aff** C:

**aff** 
$$C = \{\theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_k x_k \mid x_1, \dots, x_k \in C, \theta_1 + \dots + \theta_k = 1\}.$$

**Remark 2.5.** aff C is the smallest affine set that contains C. For any affine set  $S \supseteq C$ , aff  $C \subseteq S$ .

**Definition 2.6** (Relative interior). The relative interior of a set C, denoted **relint** C, is defined to be its interior relative to **aff** C, i.e.

relint 
$$C = \{x \in C \mid \exists r > 0 \text{ s.t. } B(x,r) \cap \text{aff } C \subseteq C\}$$
.

Here B(x, r) is the ball of radius r and center x defined by any norm.

Remark 2.7 (Interior). The interior of a set C

$$\{x \in C \mid \exists r > 0 \text{ s.t. } B(x,r) \subseteq C\}$$

is contained in the set relint C.

**Proposition 2.8.** All norms define the same relative interior.

*Proof Sketch.* We can show that there exists nonnegative constants c and d such that

$$c \|x\| \leqslant \|x\|_1 \leqslant d \|x\|$$

holds for every  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , no matter what norm  $\|\cdot\|$  is chosen. Here  $\|\cdot\|_1$  is the  $\ell_1$ -norm. In that sense, all norms are equivalent in a vector space.

**Definition 2.9** (Cone). A set  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a cone if  $\theta x \in C$  for every  $x \in C$  and  $\theta \geqslant 0$ .

**Definition 2.10** (Conic combination). The conic combination of k points  $x_1, \dots, x_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is of the form

$$\theta_1 x_1 + \cdots + \theta_k x_k$$

where  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k \geqslant 0$ .

**Remark 2.11.** The convex combination is both a conic combination and an affine combination.

**Definition 2.12** (Convex cone). The set of convex cones is the intersection of the set of convex sets and that of cones.

**Proposition 2.13.** C is a convex cone if and only if C contains all conic combinations of points in itself.

*Proof.*  $\Leftarrow$ : Suppose C contains all conic combinations of points in itself, i.e. for every  $x_1, x_2 \in C$  and  $\theta_1, \theta_2 \geqslant 0$  we have  $\theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 \in C$ . Set  $\theta_2 = 0$  and we obtain that  $\forall \theta_1 \geqslant 0, \theta_1 x_1 \in C$ , so C is a cone. Setting  $\theta_1 + \theta > 0$  yields

$$\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_1 + \theta_2} x_1 + \frac{\theta_2}{\theta_1 + \theta_2} x_2 = \frac{1}{\theta_1 + \theta_2} (\theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2) \in C,$$

which means that C is a convex set. Hence C is a convex cone.

 $\Rightarrow$ : For a convex cone C, suppose  $x_0 = \theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_k x_k$  is a conic combination of k points  $x_1, \dots, x_k \in C$ , where  $\theta_1, \dots, \theta_k \geqslant 0$ . If  $\Theta = \theta_1 + \dots + \theta_k = 0$ , then all the  $\theta_i$ 's are zero and  $x_0 = 0 \in C$  is obvious. When  $\Theta > 0$ , we know that

$$\frac{1}{\Theta}x_0 = \frac{\theta_1}{\Theta}x_1 + \dots + \frac{\theta_k}{\Theta}x_k \in C$$

since C is convex, noting that

$$\frac{\theta_1}{\Theta} + \dots + \frac{\theta_k}{\Theta} = 1.$$

Since C is a cone,  $x_0$  is also contained in C.

## 3 Balls, ellipsoids and norm cones

**Definition 3.1** (Norm ball). A norm ball in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has the form

$$B(x_c, r) = \{x \mid ||x - x_c|| \le r\},\$$

where r > 0. Here  $\|\cdot\|$  is any norm.

**Definition 3.2** (Euclidean ball). A Euclidean ball is a norm ball defined by the Euclidean norm  $\|\cdot\|_2$ .

**Remark 3.3.**  $B(x_c, r) = \{x_c + ru \mid ||u||_2 \le 1\}.$ 

Proposition 3.4. A norm ball is convex.

Proof. Suppose  $x_1, x_2 \in B(x_c, r)$ . Then for any  $0 \le \theta \le 1$ ,

$$\begin{split} \|\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta) x_2 - x_c\| &= \|\theta(x_1 - x_c) + (1 - \theta)(x_2 - x_c)\| \\ &\leqslant \theta \|x_1 - x_c\| + (1 - \theta) \|x_2 - x_c\| \\ &\leqslant \theta r + (1 - \theta) r = r. \end{split}$$

Therefore the convex combination  $\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2$  is also contained in  $B(x_c, r)$ .

**Definition 3.5** (Euclidean ellipsoid). A Euclidean ellipsoid in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  has the form

$$\mathcal{E}(x_c, P) = \{x \mid (x - x_c)^T P^{-1}(x - x_c) \leq 1\},$$

where  $x_c \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is its center and  $P \in \mathbb{S}^n_{++}$  determines how far the ellipsoid extends in every direction from  $x_c$ . The lengths of the semi-axes of  $\mathcal{E}(x_c,P)$  are given by  $\sqrt{\lambda_i}$ , where  $\lambda_i$ 's are the eigenvalues of P.

**Remark 3.6.** For r > 0,  $\mathcal{E}(x_c, r^2I)$  is the Euclidean ball  $B(x_c, r)$ .

**Remark 3.7.**  $\mathcal{E}(x_c,P) = \{x_c + Au \mid ||u||_2 \leqslant 1\}$ , where  $A = P^{1/2}$  is defined by first diagonalizing  $P = Q\Lambda Q^T$  and then taking  $A = Q\Lambda^{1/2}Q^T$ . A is also symmetric and positive definite.

**Proposition 3.8.** A Euclidean ellipsoid is convex.

*Proof.* For a Euclidean ellipsoid  $\mathcal{E} = \{x_c + Au \mid ||u||_2 \leq 1\}$ , consider any  $x_c + Au_1, x_c + Au_2 \in \mathcal{E}$  and  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ , the convex combination induced by which satisfies

$$\theta(x_c + Au_1) + (1 - \theta)(x_c + Au_2) = x_c + A(\theta u_1 + (1 - \theta)u_2),$$

and by triangle inequality we have

$$\|\theta u_1 + (1-\theta)u_2\|_2 \le \theta \|u_1\|_2 + (1-\theta) \|u_2\|_2 \le 1.$$

Therefore the convex combination is contained in  $\mathcal{E}$ .

Proof by convex function. For a Euclidean ellipsoid  $\mathcal{E}(x_c,P)$ , consider the function  $f(x) = (x-x_c)^T P^{-1}(x-x_c)$ . f is convex because  $\nabla^2 f(x) = 2P^{-1} \succ 0$ . Then for every  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{E}(x_c,P)$  and every  $\theta \in [0,1]$ , we have

$$f(\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2) \leqslant \theta f(x_1) + (1 - \theta)f(x_2)$$
  
$$\leqslant \theta + (1 - \theta) = 1.$$

Therefore the convex combination  $\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2$  is contained in  $\mathcal{E}(x_c, P)$ , so  $\mathcal{E}(x_c, P)$  is convex.

Question 3.9. The inequality

$$(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{c})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{P}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{c}) \leqslant 1$$

can be rewritten as

$$1 - (x - x_c)^{\mathsf{T}} P^{-1} (x - x_c) \geqslant 0,$$

the left-hand side of which is the Schur complement of the matrix

$$S = \begin{bmatrix} P & x - x_c \\ (x - x_c)^T & 1 \end{bmatrix},$$

so the inequality holds if and only if  $S \in \mathbb{S}^n_+$ . What can we obtain with this?

**Definition 3.10** (Norm cone). The norm cone associated with the norm  $\|\cdot\|$  is the set

$$C = \{(x, t) \mid ||x|| \leqslant t\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}.$$

**Proposition 3.11.** A norm cone is a convex cone.

*Proof.* We will show the convexity of a norm cone  $C = \{(x,t) \mid ||x|| \le t\}$ . For every  $(x_1,t_1)$ ,  $(x_2,t_2) \in C$  and  $\theta \in [0,1]$ ,

$$\|\theta x_1 + (1-\theta)x_2\| \le \theta \|x_1\| + (1-\theta)\|x_2\| \le \theta t_1 + (1-\theta)t_2.$$

Therefore the convex combination  $\theta(x_1, t_1) + (1 - \theta)(x_2, t_2) \in C$ .

**Definition 3.12** (Second-order cone). A second-order cone is the norm cone defined by the Euclidean norm. It is also called the quadratic cone, the Lorentz cone or the ice-cream cone.

**Definition 3.13** (Positive semidefinite cone). The set  $\mathbb{S}^n_+$ , which denotes the set of all positive semidefinite matrices, induces a positive semidefinite cone.

**Proposition 3.14.**  $\mathbb{S}^n_+$  is a convex cone.

*Proof.* Since for any  $A \in \mathbb{S}^n_+$  and any  $\theta \geqslant 0$ ,  $\theta A$  is also positive semidefinite,  $\mathbb{S}^n_+$  is a cone. Moreover, for any  $\theta \in [0,1]$  and every  $A,B \in \mathbb{S}^b_+$ ,

$$x^{T} (\theta A + (1 - \theta)B) x = \theta x^{T} A x + (1 - \theta) x^{T} B x \geqslant 0$$

holds for every vector  $\mathbf{x}$ , so  $\theta \mathbf{A} + (1 - \theta) \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{S}^n_+$ . This shows the convexity.