1. Let  $g: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$  be a twice differentiable function,  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  be any matrix, and h be the composition g(Ax), then we have two simple generalizations of the chain rule that combine linear algebra with calculus:

$$\nabla h(x) = A^T \nabla g(Ax)$$

and

$$\nabla^2 h(x) = A^T \nabla^2 q(Ax) A.$$

(a) Show what happens when you apply the above chain rules to the special case

$$h(x) = g(a^T x)$$

where a is a vector and  $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  is a univariate function. Given  $h(x) = g(a^T x)$ , let  $z = a^T x$ , where  $z \in \mathbb{R}$  is a scalar. We compute the gradient and Hessian as desired:

i. For Gradient:

Using the Chain Rule:

$$\nabla h(x) = A^T \nabla g(Ax)$$

Substituting  $A = a^T$ , we have:

$$a \cdot g'(a^T x)$$

ii. For Hessian:

Using the Chain Rule:

$$\nabla^2 h(x) = A^T \nabla^2 g(Ax) A$$

Since  $g(Ax) = g(a^Tx)$  and  $\nabla^2 g(Ax)$  for a univariate g is  $g''(a^Tx)$ , we get:

$$\nabla^2 h(x) = aa^T g''(a^T x)$$

(b) Compute the gradient and hessian of the regularized logistic regression objective:

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(a_i^T x)) - b^T A x\right) + \lambda ||x||^2$$

where  $a_i$  denote the rows of A.

The objective function for this problem is:

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(a_i^T x)) - b^T A x\right) + \lambda ||x||^2$$

i. For Gradient:

The gradient of each term:

• For  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(a_i^T x))$ , the gradient is:

$$\nabla \left( \log(1 + \exp(a_i^T x)) \right) = \frac{\exp(a_i^T x)}{1 + \exp(a_i^T x)} a_i$$

Summing over i:

$$\nabla \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(a_i^T x)) \right) = A^T \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\exp(a_1^T x)}{1 + \exp(a_1^T x)} \\ \frac{\exp(a_2^T x)}{1 + \exp(a_2^T x)} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\exp(a_n^T x)}{1 + \exp(a_n^T x)} \end{bmatrix}$$

- For  $-b^T A x$ , the gradient is  $-A^T b$ .
- For  $\lambda ||x||^2$ , the gradient is  $2\lambda x$ .

Combining, we get:

$$\nabla \left( \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(a_i^T x)) - b^T A x \right) + \lambda ||x||^2 \right) = A^T \begin{vmatrix} \frac{\exp(a_1^T x)}{1 + \exp(a_1^T x)} \\ \frac{\exp(a_2^T x)}{1 + \exp(a_2^T x)} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\exp(a_n^T x)}{1 + \exp(a_n^T x)} \end{vmatrix} - A^T b + 2\lambda x$$

## ii. For Hessian:

The Hessian of each term:

• For  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(a_i^T x))$ , the Hessian is:

$$\nabla^2 (\log(1 + \exp(a_i^T x))) = \frac{\exp(a_i^T x)}{(1 + \exp(a_i^T x))^2} a_i a_i^T$$

Summing over i:

$$\nabla^{2} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(a_{i}^{T} x)) \right) = A^{T} \operatorname{diag} \left( \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\exp(a_{1}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{1}^{T} x)} \\ \frac{\exp(a_{2}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{2}^{T} x)} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\exp(a_{n}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{n}^{T} x)} \end{bmatrix} \odot \left( 1 - \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\exp(a_{1}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{1}^{T} x)} \\ \frac{\exp(a_{2}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{2}^{T} x)} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\exp(a_{n}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{n}^{T} x)} \end{bmatrix} \right) A$$

- For  $-b^T Ax$ , the Hessian is 0.
- For  $\lambda ||x||^2$ , the Hessian is  $2\lambda I$ .

Combining, we get:

$$\nabla^{2} \left( \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(a_{i}^{T} x)) - b^{T} A x \right) + \lambda \|x\|^{2} \right) =$$

$$A^{T} \operatorname{diag} \left( \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\exp(a_{1}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{1}^{T} x)} \\ \frac{\exp(a_{2}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{2}^{T} x)} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\exp(a_{n}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{n}^{T} x)} \end{bmatrix} \odot \begin{pmatrix} 1 - \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\exp(a_{1}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{1}^{T} x)} \\ \frac{\exp(a_{2}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{2}^{T} x)} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\exp(a_{n}^{T} x)}{1 + \exp(a_{n}^{T} x)} \end{bmatrix} \right) A + 2\lambda I$$

$$(1)$$

(c) Compute the gradient and hessian of the regularized Poisson regression objective:

$$\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp(a_i^T x) - b^T A x\right) + \lambda ||x||^2$$

where  $a_i$  denote the rows of A.

The objective function for this problem is:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp(a_i^T x) - b^T A x + \lambda ||x||^2$$

i. For Gradient:

The gradient of each term:

• For  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp(a_i^T x)$ , the gradient is:

$$\nabla \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp(a_i^T x) \right) = A^T \exp(Ax) ,$$

where  $\exp(Ax)$  is the vector with entries  $\exp(a_i^T x)$ .

- For  $-b^T A x$ , the gradient is:  $\nabla (-b^T A x) = -A^T b$ .
- For  $\lambda ||x||^2$ , the gradient is:  $\nabla(\lambda ||x||^2) = 2\lambda x$ .

Combining, we get:

$$\nabla \left( \sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp(a_i^T x) - b^T A x + \lambda ||x||^2 \right) = A^T \exp(Ax) - A^T b + 2\lambda x$$

ii. For Hessian:

The Hessian of each term:

• For  $\sum_{i=1}^{n} \exp(a_i^T x)$ , the Hessian is:

$$\nabla^2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \exp(a_i^T x) \right) = A^T \operatorname{diag}(\exp(Ax)) A ,$$

where  $\exp(Ax)$  is the vector with entries  $\exp(a_i^T x)$ .

• For  $-b^T Ax$ , the Hessian is:

$$\nabla^2(-b^T A x) = 0$$

• For  $\lambda ||x||^2$ , the Hessian is:

$$\nabla^2(\lambda ||x||^2) = 2\lambda I$$

Combining, we get:

$$\nabla^2 \left( \sum_{i=1}^n \exp(a_i^T x) - b^T A x + \lambda ||x||^2 \right) = A^T \operatorname{diag}(\exp(Ax)) A + 2\lambda I$$

(d) Compute the gradient and hessian of the regularized 'concordant' regression objective

$$||Ax - b||_2 + \lambda ||x||_2$$
.

Give conditions that ensure that the gradient and Hessian of this objective exist at a point x. We have that the Gradient is:

$$\nabla(\|Ax - b\|_2 + \lambda \|x\|_2) = \frac{A^T(Ax - b)}{\|Ax - b\|_2} + \lambda \frac{x}{\|x\|_2}$$

We have that the Hessian is:

$$\nabla^{2}(\|Ax - b\|_{2} + \lambda \|x\|_{2}) = \frac{1}{\|Ax - b\|_{2}} \left( A^{T}A - \frac{A^{T}(Ax - b)(Ax - b)^{T}A}{\|Ax - b\|_{2}^{2}} \right) + \frac{\lambda}{\|x\|_{2}} \left( I - \frac{xx^{T}}{\|x\|_{2}^{2}} \right)$$

We also need the conditions that:

- $Ax \neq b$  so that  $||Ax b||_2 \neq 0$
- $x \neq 0$  so that  $||x||_2 \neq 0$

- 2. Show that each of the following functions is convex.
  - (a) Indicator function to a convex set:  $\delta_C(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in C \\ \infty & \text{if } x \notin C. \end{cases}$

The indicator function  $\delta_C(x)$  is defined as:

$$\delta_C(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in C, \\ \infty & \text{if } x \notin C. \end{cases}$$

To verify convexity, we must show that for all  $\theta \in [0,1]$  and any points  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the following holds:

$$\delta_C(\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2) \le \theta \delta_C(x_1) + (1 - \theta)\delta_C(x_2).$$

Case 1:  $x_1 \in C$  and  $x_2 \in C$ 

If  $x_1, x_2 \in C$ , then by convexity of C,  $\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2 \in C$ . Hence,  $\delta_C(\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2) = 0$ . Since  $\delta_C(x_1) = \delta_C(x_2) = 0$ , the inequality becomes  $0 \le \theta \cdot 0 + (1 - \theta) \cdot 0 = 0$ , which holds.

Case 2: At least one of  $x_1$  or  $x_2$  is not in C

Suppose  $x_1 \notin C$ . Then  $\delta_C(x_1) = \infty$ , and the right-hand side of the inequality becomes  $\infty$ , which is trivially satisfied. Similarly, if  $x_2 \notin C$ , the right-hand side again becomes  $\infty$ . Thus, the inequality holds regardless.

**Conclusion:** Since the inequality holds in all cases, the indicator function  $\delta_C(x)$  is convex.

(b) Support function to any set:

$$\sigma_C(x) = \sup_{c \in C} c^T x.$$

The support function is defined as:

$$\sigma_C(x) = \sup_{c \in C} c^T x$$

We must verify that:

$$\sigma_C(\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2) \le \theta \sigma_C(x_1) + (1 - \theta)\sigma_C(x_2)$$

For any  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we have that:

$$\sigma_C(\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2) = \sup_{c \in C} c^T(\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2)$$

By linearity of the inner product:

$$c^{T}(\theta x_{1} + (1 - \theta)x_{2}) = \theta(c^{T}x_{1}) + (1 - \theta)(c^{T}x_{2})$$

Taking the supremum over  $c \in C$ , we get

$$\sigma_C(\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2) = \sup_{c \in C} [\theta(c^T x_1) + (1 - \theta)(c^T x_2)]$$

Since sup is subadditive and homogeneous:

$$\sup_{c \in C} \left[ \theta(c^T x_1) + (1 - \theta)(c^T x_2) \right] \le \theta \sup_{c \in C} (c^T x_1) + (1 - \theta) \sup_{c \in C} (c^T x_2)$$

Thus:

$$\sigma_C(\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2) \le \theta \sigma_C(x_1) + (1 - \theta)\sigma_C(x_2)$$

proving convexity.

- (c) Any norm (see Chapter 1 of Boyd and Vandenbergh for the definition of a norm). A norm  $\|\cdot\|$  satisfies:
  - i.  $||x|| \ge 0$ , and ||x|| = 0 if and only if x = 0
  - ii.  $||x + y|| \le ||x|| + ||y||$
  - iii.  $\|\alpha x\| = |\alpha| \|x\|$

We can use the Triangle Inequality and the fact that the norm is absolutely scalable, we have that:

$$\|\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y\| \le \|\lambda x\| + \|(1 - \lambda)y\| = \lambda \|x\| + (1 - \lambda)\|y\|$$

where  $\lambda \in [0,1]$ . Thus, we have shown that any norm is convex.

3. Prove the Cauchy Schwartz inequality: For any inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  and vectors x, y,

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \le ||x|| ||y||$$

*Proof.* If x = 0 or y = 0, then both sides of our inequality equal 0 and thus our desired inequality holds. Thus, we proceed by stating  $x \neq 0$  and  $y \neq 0$ . Consider the orthogonal decomposition

$$x = \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|y\|^2} y + z$$

where z is orthogonal to y where  $z = x - \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{\|y\|^2} y$ . By the Pythagorean Theorem,

$$||x||^2 = \left\| \frac{\langle x, y \rangle}{||y||^2} y \right\|^2 + ||z||^2$$
$$= \frac{|\langle x, y \rangle|^2}{||y||^2} + ||z||^2$$
$$\geq \frac{|\langle x, y \rangle|^2}{||y||^2}$$

Multiplying both sides of this inequality by  $||y||^2$  gives us:  $||x||^2 ||y||^2 \ge |\langle x, y \rangle|^2$ .

Now, we take the square root of each side to state:  $||x|| ||y|| \ge |\langle x, y \rangle|$ .

This is the same as  $|\langle x, y \rangle| \le ||x|| ||y||$ .

Therefore, we have  $|\langle x, y \rangle| \le ||x|| \, ||y||$  as desired.

4. Prove that for any twice differentiable function f,

$$f(x+u) = f(x) + \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x+tu), u \rangle dt$$

Hint: What is the analogous statement for functions of one variable?

*Proof.* Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a twice differentiable function. Define g(t) = f(x + tu), where  $t \in [0, 1]$ . Observe that g(t) is a composition of f with the line segment parametrized by x + tu, and hence g is differentiable on [0, 1].

By the chain rule, we have that

$$g'(t) = \langle \nabla f(x + tu), u \rangle$$

Applying the Fundamental Theorem of Calculus to g(t) over [0,1], we obtain:

$$g(1) - g(0) = \int_0^1 g'(t) dt$$

Substituting g(1) = f(x+u), g(0) = f(x), and  $g'(t) = \langle \nabla f(x+tu), u \rangle$ , we have:

$$f(x+u) - f(x) = \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x+tu), u \rangle dt$$

Rearranging, we find:

$$f(x+u) = f(x) + \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x+tu), u \rangle dt$$

Thus, we have proven that for any twice differentiable function f,

$$f(x+u) = f(x) + \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x+tu), u \rangle dt$$

5. Suppose that  $\nabla f(x)$  is  $\beta$  – Lipschitz, meaning that for all x, y,

$$\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\| \le \beta \|x - y\|$$

(a) Prove that

$$f(x+u) \le f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), u \rangle + \frac{\beta}{2} ||u||^2 dt$$

Hint: Upper bound the integral above with the absolute value of the integrand, then add and subtract  $\nabla f(x)$  and apply Cauchy Schwartz.

*Proof.* Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a differentiable function, and assume that f is  $\beta$  – smooth meaning that its gradient is Lipschitz continuous with parameter  $\beta$ :

$$\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\| \le \beta \|x - y\|, \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

This implies that f satisfies the inequality:

$$f(x+u) \le f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), u \rangle + \frac{\beta}{2} ||u||^2, \quad \forall x, u \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

We take the steps:

i. Start with Taylor Expansion: By Taylor's Theorem, we have:

$$f(x+u) = f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), u \rangle + \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x+tu) - \nabla f(x), u \rangle dt$$

ii. Bound the Integral: Using the Lipschitz continuity of the gradient:

$$\|\nabla f(x+tu) - \nabla f(x)\| \le \beta \|tu\| = \beta t \|u\|$$

which implies:

$$|\langle \nabla f(x+tu) - \nabla f(x), u \rangle| \le ||\nabla f(x+tu) - \nabla f(x)|| \cdot ||u|| \le \beta t ||u||^2$$

iii. Integrate:

$$\int_0^1 \beta t \|u\|^2 dt = \frac{\beta}{2} \|u\|^2$$

iv. Combine Terms:

$$f(x+u) \le f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), u \rangle + \frac{\beta}{2} ||u||^2$$

Thus, the inequality is proven.

(b) What can you say when  $u = -s\nabla f(x)$ We start by simply substituting  $u = -s\nabla f(x)$  into the inequality:

$$f(x - s\nabla f(x)) \le f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), -s\nabla f(x) \rangle + \frac{\beta}{2} \|-s\nabla f(x)\|^2$$

This simplifies to:

$$f(x - s\nabla f(x)) \le f(x) - s\|\nabla f(x)\|^2 + \frac{\beta}{2}s^2\|\nabla f(x)\|^2$$

For small s the descent term  $-s\|\nabla f(x)\|^2$  dominates ensuring  $f(x-s\nabla f(x)) < f(x)$ . As s increases, the quadratic term  $\frac{\beta}{2}s^2\|\nabla f(x)\|^2$  may dominate potentially leading to an increase in f(x). This highlights the importance of selecting an appropriate step size s when dealing with gradient descent.

- 6. Contraction Mapping Theorem:
  - (a) Let  $0 < \rho < 1$ . We call a function  $F : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  a contraction with parameter  $\rho$  if for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $||F(x) F(y)|| \le \rho ||x y||$ . Prove that any contraction with parameter  $\rho < 1$  has a unique fixed point, that is, that there exists  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that F(x) = x.

Hint: For existence, consider the sequence  $x_k = F(x_{k-1})$ , starting from any initial point  $x_0$ . Prove that this is a Cauchy sequence, and then use completeness of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . This proof actually shows something even stronger, that iterating the map F, starting from any initial condition, converges to the unique fixed point of F.

To prove that any contraction  $F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$  with parameter  $0 < \rho < 1$  has a unique fixed point, we will have to:

- Prove existence of a fixed point
- Prove that such a fixed point is unique
- i. Step 1: Existence of a Fixed Point
  - A. Defining the sequence  $x_k$ :

We define the sequence  $x_k$  by choosing an arbitrary initial point  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and iterating the contraction map F:

$$x_k = F(x_{k-1}), \quad \text{for } k \ge 1$$

B. Showing that  $x_k$  is a Cauchy sequence:

$$||x_k - x_{k-1}|| = ||F(x_{k-1}) - F(x_{k-2})||$$
 (True for any  $k \ge 1$ )  
 $||x_k - x_{k-1}|| \le \rho ||x_{k-1} - x_{k-2}||$  (Using the contraction property of  $F$ )  
 $||x_k - x_{k-1}|| \le \rho^{k-1} ||x_1 - x_0||$  (Done by iterating this inequality)

So from  $||x_k - x_{k-1}|| = ||F(x_{k-1}) - F(x_{k-2})||$ , we can get to  $||x_k - x_{k-1}|| \le \rho^{k-1} ||x_1 - x_0||$ . Next, we consider the distance between two points  $x_m$  and  $x_n$  in the sequence, where m > n. Using the triangle inequality, we have:

$$||x_m - x_n|| \le ||x_m - x_{m-1}|| + ||x_{m-1} - x_{m-2}|| + \dots + ||x_{n+1} - x_n||$$

Applying the contraction inequality to each term, we have:

$$||x_m - x_n|| \le \rho^{m-1} ||x_1 - x_0|| + \rho^{m-2} ||x_1 - x_0|| + \dots + \rho^n ||x_1 - x_0||$$

Factor out  $||x_1 - x_0||$  and simplify the geometric sum:

$$||x_m - x_n|| \le ||x_1 - x_0|| \sum_{k=n}^{m-1} \rho^k = ||x_1 - x_0|| \rho^n \frac{1 - \rho^{m-n}}{1 - \rho}$$

As  $m \to \infty$  and  $n \to \infty$ , the tail of this geometric series tends to zero because  $0 < \rho < 1$ . Therefore,  $x_k$  is a Cauchy sequence.

C. Using completeness of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

Since  $x_k$  is Cauchy and  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is complete, the sequence  $x_k$  converges to some point  $x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . That means we have:

$$x_k \to x^*$$
 as  $k \to \infty$ 

D. Showing that  $x^*$  is a fixed point of F:

We proceed by showing that  $x^*$  is a fixed point of F.

Taking the limit as  $k \to \infty$  in the recursive relation  $x_k = F(x_{k-1})$ , we get:

$$x^* = \lim_{k \to \infty} x_k$$

Note that as  $x_k = F(x_{k-1})$  for  $k \ge 1$ , we can substitute  $\lim_{k \to \infty} x_k$  as  $\lim_{k \to \infty} F(x_{k-1})$ . Also, note that F is continuous.

Thus:

$$x^* = \lim_{k \to \infty} F(x_{k-1})$$

Since F is continuous, this implies:

$$x^* = F(x^*)$$

Thus,  $x^*$  is a fixed point of F.

ii. Step 2: Proving that our fixed point is unique: Next, we proceed by proving our fixed point is unique.

*Proof.* Suppose  $x^*$  and  $y^*$  are two fixed points chosen arbitrarily of F. This means  $F(x^*) = x^*$  and  $F(y^*) = y^*$ .

We want to show that  $x^* = y^*$ .

Using the definition of F being a contraction:

$$||F(x) - F(y)|| < \rho ||x - y||$$
, for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

we substitute  $x^*$  and  $y^*$  into this inequality:

$$||F(x^*) - F(y^*)|| \le \rho ||x^* - y^*||$$

Since  $F(x^*) = x^*$  and  $F(y^*) = y^*$ , the left-hand side simplifies to:

$$||x^* - y^*|| \le \rho ||x^* - y^*||$$

Rearranging this inequality gives:

$$(1-\rho)||x^*-y^*|| \le 0$$

Since  $1 - \rho > 0$ , which we can get from  $0 < \rho < 1$ , the only way this inequality can hold is if:

$$||x^* - y^*|| = 0$$

Thus,  $x^* = y^*$ , proving that the fixed point is unique as  $x^*$  and  $y^*$  are chosen arbitrarily.  $\square$ 

We have shown that iterating the map F starting from any initial condition, converges to a unique fixed point of F.

(b) What is the gradient of  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ax - x^T b$ ?

$$\nabla f(x) =$$

$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{2}x^T A x - x^T b\right) =$$

$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{2}x^T A x\right) - \nabla x^T b =$$

$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_i x_j\right) - b =$$

$$\frac{1}{2}\sum_{j=1}^n A_{kj} x_j + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n A_{ik} x_i - b =$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n A_{kj} x_j - b =$$

$$Ax - b$$

So,  $\nabla f(x) = Ax - b$ .

- (c) Consider the map F(x) = x s(Ax b), for symmetric positive definite matrices A. Under what conditions on s and A is F a contraction? What are the fixed points of F? Hint: You may want to consider the eigenvalue decomposition of A.
  - i. Step 1:

A point  $x^*$  is a fixed point of F if:  $F(x^*) = x^*$ 

$$F(x^*) = x^*$$

$$x^* = x^* - s(Ax^* - b)$$
 (Substituting  $F(x^*)$  as  $F(x) = x - s(Ax - b)$ )
$$s(Ax^* - b) = 0$$

$$Ax^* - b = 0$$
 (As  $s \neq 0$  as it is our step size)
$$Ax^* = b$$

$$x^* = A^{-1}b$$

Going into more detail why  $s \neq 0$ :

If s = 0, F(x) would reduce to the identity map F(x) = x, which cannot contract distances and has no fixed point dynamics. By having  $s \neq 0$ , we thus make sure that we can have iterative behavior and thus have F(x) actually be a contraction. Furthermore, if s = 0, F(x) would not contract distances, and thus, the iterative process  $F(x_k)$  would never converge.

- ii. Step 2: Contraction Property
  - A. Applying the Definition of Contraction:

A map F(x) is a contraction if there exists  $0 < \rho < 1$  such that:

$$||F(x) - F(y)|| \le \rho ||x - y||, \quad \forall x, y$$

For the given F(x), let us analyze:

$$||F(x) - F(y)|| = ||(x - s(Ax - b)) - (y - s(Ay - b))||$$

Simplifying:

$$||F(x) - F(y)|| = ||x - y - s(Ax - Ay)||$$

Factor out x - y:

$$||F(x) - F(y)|| = ||(I - sA)(x - y)||,$$

where I is the identity matrix.

B. Using the definition of the spectral norm:

We will proceed by using the key idea that Contraction depends on the spectral norm of I - sA.

The Euclidean norm satisfies:

$$||F(x) - F(y)|| \le ||(I - sA)|| ||x - y||$$
,

where ||(I - sA)|| is the spectral norm or largest eigenvalue in magnitude of I - sA.

For F to be a contraction, we require:

$$||(I - sA)|| < 1$$

## iii. Step 3: Analyze the Spectral Norm of I - sA

Since A is symmetric positive definite, it has an eigenvalue decomposition of  $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$ , where Q is an orthogonal matrix meaning that  $Q^TQ = I$  and  $\Lambda = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$  contains the eigenvalues of A, which are all positive meaning that  $\lambda_i > 0$  for our Matrix A.

This means:

$$I - sA = Q(I - s\Lambda)Q^T$$

The eigenvalues of I - sA are  $1 - s\lambda_i$  for i = 1, 2, ..., n. The spectral norm of I - sA is:

$$\|(I-sA)\| = \max_i |1-s\lambda_i|$$

For F to be a contraction, we require:

$$\max_{i} |1 - s\lambda_i| < 1$$

## iv. Step 4: Solving for s

For all i, it follows:

$$|1-s\lambda_i|<1$$
 (Condition that was figured out as necessary in previous step)  $-1<1-s\lambda_i<1$  (Definition of absolute value inequality)  $0< s\lambda_i<2$ 

Since  $\lambda_i > 0$  for all i, this implies:  $0 < s < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\text{max}}}$ , where  $\lambda_{\text{max}} = \max_i \lambda_i$  is the largest eigenvalue of A.

Thus, we have that F is a contraction if  $0 < s < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\text{max}}}$ , where  $\lambda_{\text{max}}$  is the largest eigenvalue of A, and the unique fixed point of F is  $x^* = A^{-1}b$ .

(d) Fixed step size gradient descent, defined by the iteration  $x_{k+1} = x_k - s\nabla f(x)$ , can be seen as a fixed point iteration algorithm, iterating the map  $F(x) = x - s\nabla f(x)$ . What are the fixed points of F in terms of f?

Now let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ax - x^T b$ . What can you conclude about the convergence of gradient descent with step size s applied to f? What choice of step size s minimizes the contraction constant  $\rho$  of F?

A fixed point  $x^*$  of F(x) satisfies:

$$F(x^*) = x^*$$

$$x^* = x^* - s\nabla f(x^*)$$

$$s\nabla f(x^*) = 0$$

$$\nabla f(x^*) = 0$$
(Substituting  $F(x^*)$  as  $F(x) = x - s\nabla f(x)$ )
$$(As  $s \neq 0$  as it is our step size)$$

Going into more detail why  $s \neq 0$ :

If s = 0, F(x) would reduce to the identity map F(x) = x, which cannot contract distances and has no fixed point dynamics. By having  $s \neq 0$ , we thus make sure that we can have iterative behavior and thus have F(x) actually be a contraction. Furthermore, if s = 0, F(x) would not contract distances, and thus, the iterative process  $F(x_k)$  would never converge.

Note that the fixed points of F(x) correspond to the critical points of f(x), or in other words, where the gradient of f(x) vanishes.

The Gradient of  $\frac{1}{2}x^TAx - x^Tb$ :

$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{2}x^T A x - x^T b\right) =$$

$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{2}x^T A x\right) - \nabla x^T b =$$

$$\nabla \left(\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n A_{ij} x_i x_j\right) - b =$$

$$\frac{1}{2}\sum_{j=1}^n A_{kj} x_j + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^n A_{ik} x_i - b =$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^n A_{kj} x_j - b =$$

$$Ax - b$$

So, the Gradient of  $\frac{1}{2}x^TAx - x^Tb$  is Ax - b.

Now, we substitute Ax - b, which is  $\nabla \left(\frac{1}{2}x^TAx - x^Tb\right) =$ , into F(x):

$$F(x) = x - s\nabla f(x)$$

$$F(x) = x - s(Ax - b)$$

Now, by using fixed point analysis, we find that  $x^* = x^* - s(Ax^* - b)$ . Thus,  $s(Ax^* - b) = 0$ . Remember that  $s \neq 0$ . Thus, we have that  $Ax^* - b = 0$ .  $Ax^* = b$ . Thus,  $x^* = A^{-1}b$ .

Now, we aim to show that this  $x^*$  is unique:

Assume  $x^*$  and  $y^*$  are two fixed points of F(x) chosen arbitrarily. This means:

$$F(x^*) = x^*$$
 and  $F(y^*) = y^*$ 

Substituting F(x) = x - s(Ax - b) into these definitions, we have:

$$x^* = x^* - s(Ax^* - b)$$
 and  $y^* = y^* - s(Ay^* - b)$ 

We can simplify this down to state:

$$s(Ax^* - b) = 0$$
 and  $s(Ay^* - b) = 0$ 

As  $s \neq 0$ ,

$$Ax^* = b$$
 and  $Ay^* = b$ 

We can subtract equations:

$$Ax^* - Ay^* = b - b$$
$$A(x^* - y^*) = 0$$

Note that A is symmetric positive definite. This means it is invertible. Thus, we have that  $x^* - y^* = 0$ . This means  $x^* = y^*$ . Since  $x^* = y^*$ , and our fixed points were chosen arbitrarily, this means our fixed point  $x^*$  is unique.

The convergence of gradient descent depends on the contraction property of F(x). To analyze this, consider:

$$||F(x) - F(y)|| = ||(I - sA)(x - y)||$$

The map F(x) is a contraction if ||(I-sA)|| < 1, where ||(I-sA)|| is the spectral norm, or largest eigenvalue in magnitude, of I-sA.

We now continue on with Spectral Analysis:

Since A is symmetric positive definite, it has an eigenvalue decomposition of  $A = Q\Lambda Q^T$ , where Q is an orthogonal matrix meaning that  $Q^TQ = I$  and  $\Lambda = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n)$  contains the eigenvalues of A, which are all positive meaning that  $\lambda_i > 0$  for our Matrix A.

This means:

$$I - sA = Q(I - s\Lambda)Q^{T}$$

The eigenvalues of I - sA are  $1 - s\lambda_i$  for i = 1, 2, ..., n. The spectral norm of I - sA is:

$$||(I - sA)|| = \max_{i} |1 - s\lambda_{i}|$$

For F to be a contraction, we require:

$$\max_{i} |1 - s\lambda_i| < 1$$

For all i, it follows:

$$|1-s\lambda_i|<1$$
 (Condition that was figured out as necessary in previous step)  
 $-1<1-s\lambda_i<1$  (Definition of absolute value inequality)  
 $0< s\lambda_i<2$ 

Since  $\lambda_i > 0$  for all i, this implies:  $0 < s < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\text{max}}}$ , where  $\lambda_{\text{max}} = \max_i \lambda_i$  is the largest eigenvalue of A

Thus, it follows:

- Gradient descent converges for  $0 < s < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\text{max}}}$ .
- The rate of convergence depends on the contraction constant  $\rho = ||(I sA)||$ .

We now consider the Optimal step size to minimize  $\rho$ . To minimize the contraction constant  $\rho = \|(I - sA)\| = \max_i |1 - s\lambda_i|$ , consider the eigenvalues  $1 - s\lambda_i$ . The goal is to minimize the largest deviation from 0. Note that the worst case eigenvalue is either  $(1 - s\lambda_{\max})$  or  $(1 - s\lambda_{\max})$ . Thus, to balance between these, we try to minimize our contraction constant  $\rho$ . The contraction constant  $\rho$  is determined by the spectral norm of I - sA. It is

$$\rho = \|(I - sA)\|$$

Remember that

$$||(I - sA)|| = \max_{i} |1 - s\lambda_i|,$$

where  $\lambda_i$  are the eigenvalues of A, and s > 0. Thus,

$$\rho = \max_{i} |1 - s\lambda_i|$$

If s < 0, the eigenvalues  $1 - s\lambda_i$  grow arbitrarily large in magnitude since  $\lambda_i > 0$  leading to divergence rather than contraction. If s = 0, the iteration becomes stagnant meaning that there is no movement and thus, no optimization occurs. Thus, we proceed by having s > 0.

So, we proceed with  $\rho = \max_{i} |1 - s\lambda_{i}|$ , where  $\lambda_{i}$  are the eigenvalues of A, and s > 0. The goal is to minimize  $\rho$ , which governs the convergence rate of F(x).

The map F(x) = x - s(Ax - b) corresponds to a fixed point iteration:

$$F(x_k) = x_{k+1}$$

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - s\nabla f(x_k)$$

Thus, we have that

$$F(x_k) = x_k - s\nabla f(x_k)$$

Recall that  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ax - x^T b$  and  $\nabla f(x) = Ax - b$ .

We analyze F(x) in terms of its spectral properties. The eigenvalues of I - sA are:

$$\mu_i = 1 - s\lambda_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n ,$$

where  $\lambda_i$  are eigenvalues of A.

We have  $\rho$  of F(x), where  $\rho$  is the spectral norm of I - sA. Thus, we have:

$$\rho = \max_{i} |1 - s\lambda_i|$$

To minimize  $\rho$ , we will prove why we want  $1 - s\lambda_i = 0$  for all eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$ 

*Proof.* Gradient descent converges if the map F(x) satisfies the contraction condition:

$$||F(x) - F(y)|| \le \rho ||x - y||$$
, where  $\rho < 1$ 

The spectral norm of I - sA determines  $\rho$ :

$$\rho = \max_{i} |1 - s\lambda_i|$$

The contraction constant  $\rho$  represents the largest deviation of the eigenvalues of I-sA from 0. To minimize  $\rho$ , we aim to make:

$$1 - s\lambda_i = 0$$
, for all  $i$ 

If  $1 - s\lambda_i = 0$  for all i, then:

$$\mu_i = 0, \quad \forall i$$

This means the spectral norm of I - sA becomes:

$$||(I - sA)|| = \max_{i} |\mu_{i}| = 0$$

When ||(I - sA)|| = 0, the map F(x) becomes:

$$F(x) = 0(x - y)$$

which collapses all points to the unique fixed point  $x^* = A^{-1}b$  in a single step as F(x) = 0 when this happens. Thus, this is the fastest possible convergence.

Thus, we have proven why to minimize  $\rho$ , we will want  $1 - s\lambda_i = 0$  for all eigenvalues  $\lambda_i$ .

The contraction constant  $\rho$  for the gradient descent map F(x) is determined by the spectral norm of I - sA given by:

$$\rho = \max_{i} |1 - s\lambda_i|$$

This ensures that the convergence rate is governed by the step size s and the eigenvalue distribution of A. For optimal convergence, we minimize  $\rho$  by carefully choosing s to balance the contraction along the directions in which the matrix A stretches or compresses vectors.

To minimize  $\rho$  we must balance between the two extreme eigenvalues of I - sA:

$$|1 - s\lambda_{\text{max}}|$$
 and  $|1 - s\lambda_{\text{min}}|$ 

To balance such extremes, we require

$$|1 - s\lambda_{\max}| = |1 - s\lambda_{\min}|$$

This equation ensures that neither extreme eigenvalue dominates  $\rho$ . Breaking the absolute values into cases, there are two possibilities:

i. 
$$1 - s\lambda_{\text{max}} = -(1 - s\lambda_{\text{min}})$$

ii. 
$$1 - s\lambda_{\text{max}} = 1 - s\lambda_{\text{min}}$$

We will briefly explain the trivial case where  $1 - s\lambda_{\text{max}} = 1 - s\lambda_{\text{min}}$ :

Here, we see that  $\lambda_{\max} = \lambda_{\min}$ . In this case, because  $\lambda_{\max} = \lambda_{\min}$ , we have that all eigenvalues of A are equal. This means  $I - sA = (1 - s\lambda)I$ . Note that for this case, we can say  $\lambda$  to mean an eigenvalue of A as all eigenvalues are equal in this case. Thus, for the trivial case, the contraction constant,  $\rho$ , is automatically minimized since all eigenvalues are equal, and no balancing is required.

We now look at the non trivial case:  $1 - s\lambda_{\text{max}} = -(1 - s\lambda_{\text{min}})$ . In this case, we have that:

$$1 - s\lambda_{\max} = -(1 - s\lambda_{\min})$$

$$1 - s\lambda_{\max} = -1 + s\lambda_{\min}$$

$$2 = s\lambda_{\max} + s\lambda_{\min}$$

$$2 = s(\lambda_{\max} + \lambda_{\min})$$
 
$$s = \frac{2}{\lambda_{\max} + \lambda_{\min}}$$

Thus, in this case, we have minimized  $\rho$  appropriately as desired.

## In Summary:

- We have our fixed point  $x^* = A^{-1}b$ .
- Gradient descent converges for  $0 < s < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\max}}$ . The rate of convergence depends on the contraction constant  $\rho = \|(I sA)\|$ .
- $\bullet$  We have that for non trivial cases:  $s=\frac{2}{\lambda_{\max}+\lambda_{\min}}$