

Notations and Abbreviations

We introduce here the notations and abbreviations that will be used consistently throughout the course. Additional notations will be defined later as they are needed and first appear.

- Unless otherwise specified, vectors and matrices are emphasized using a **bold** font. The null vector is denoted by **0**.
- The notation $\text{diag}(a_1, \dots, a_n)$ is used for a matrix with diagonal elements a_1, \dots, a_n and all off-diagonal elements zero. The symbol **1** is used to denote an identity matrix, i.e. the matrix $\text{diag}(1, \dots, 1)$. The determinant of a matrix A is denoted by $\det(A)$.
- Unless otherwise specified, *any vector that appears in a mathematical operation—such as addition, subtraction, or multiplication—is implicitly interpreted as a **column vector***. For readability, we may write a vector in inline form,

for example $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$, but whenever \mathbf{x} enters a vector or matrix expression, it is understood to mean the column vector $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$. The index t denotes vector/matrix *transpose*. For example, $(x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3)^t = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix}$.

- Random variables are assigned to letters from the last part of the alphabet (X, Y, Z, U, V, \dots), while corresponding observations are assigned to lowercase letters (x, y, z, u, v, \dots).
- Constants are assigned to letters from the first part of the alphabet (a, b, c, \dots).
- The symbol $:=$ indicates an *assignment*. For example, if $x = 2$ and we write $x = y := 2$, then it means that x and y are equal, as y is *defined* to be 2. The symbol \equiv denotes *equivalence*, i.e. things that have exactly the same meaning. These symbols will only be used when they are really relevant to the understanding of a particular concept or situation, otherwise “=” will be used.
- The *probability density function* (pdf) of a continuous random variable/vector, or the *probability mass function* (pmf) of a discrete random variable/vector, will be simply referred to as a *probability distribution* (**pd**), and will be typically denoted f .
- rv/rve: Random variable(s)/Random vector(s).
- cdf: Cumulative distribution function; typically denoted by F .

- iid: Independent and identically distributed rvs (or rves).
- $X \perp\!\!\!\perp Y$: X and Y are independent of each other.
- log and ln will be used interchangeably to refer to the *natural logarithm*.
- Any integral sign \int , without limits, should be understood as $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}$ in the univariate case and as $\int_{\mathbb{R}^d}$ in the multivariate case.
- The *indicator function* of a given set A is denoted by $I(x \in A)$. It takes the value 1 if $x \in A$, and 0 otherwise.
- $a = \arg \min_{x \in I} f(x)$ means that a is a value for which $x \mapsto f(x)$ reaches its minimum on I . The same applies to $\arg \max$.
- For a d -dimensional rve $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, \dots, X_d)^t$. $\boldsymbol{\mu} = E(\mathbf{X})$ denotes the vector of first moments (means), i.e. $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_1, \dots, \mu_d)^t$, with $\mu_j = E(X_j)$. The variance-covariance, or simply the variance, of \mathbf{X} is the $d \times d$ symmetric matrix denoted by $Var(\mathbf{X}) := E((\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})(\mathbf{X} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^t) = E(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^t) - \boldsymbol{\mu}\boldsymbol{\mu}^t$. The (j, k) element of this matrix is nothing but $Cov(X_j, X_k)$. Note that, if A and B are two constant objects, then $E(A + BX) = A + BE(\mathbf{X})$, and $Var(A + BX) = BVar(\mathbf{X})B^t$.
- We will use the notation N_d to designate a multivariate normal distribution of dimension d , $d \geq 2$. For a univariate normal ($d = 1$), we simply write N (without any subscript).

- For a scalar function $f(x) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, the first *derivative* evaluated at $x = a$ is denoted $f'(a) = \frac{df(x)}{dx}\Big|_{x=a}$, and the second derivative is denoted by $f''(a)$. For $k \geq 3$, the k -th order derivative is denoted by $f^{(k)}(a)$.
- For a multivariate function $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, \dots, x_d) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$:
 - The *partial derivative*, at $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{a}$, with respect to x_i is denoted by $\partial_i f(\mathbf{a}) = \partial_{x_i} f(\mathbf{a}) = \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i}\Big|_{\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{a}}$. Similarly, we denote the second-order partial derivative by $\partial_{ij} f(\mathbf{a}) = \partial_{x_i x_j} f(\mathbf{a}) = \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}\Big|_{\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{a}}$, and $\partial_i^2 f(\mathbf{a}) = \partial_{x_i}^2 f(\mathbf{a}) = \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i^2}\Big|_{\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{a}}$.
 - The *gradient*, at a point \mathbf{a} , is the column vector given by $\nabla f(\mathbf{a}) = (\partial_1 f(\mathbf{a}), \dots, \partial_d f(\mathbf{a}))^t$.
 - The *Hessian*, at a point \mathbf{a} , is the symmetric matrix given by $\mathbf{H}_f(\mathbf{a}) = \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{a}) = [\partial_{ij} f(\mathbf{a})]_{i,j=1,\dots,d}$.

For example, for $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + 2x_2^3 + x_1 x_2$, $\nabla f(x_1, x_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 2x_1 + x_2 \\ x_1 + 6x_2^2 \end{pmatrix}$ and
 $\nabla^2 f(x_1, x_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 12x_2 \end{pmatrix}$.

- For a multivariate vector-valued function $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = (f_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_p(\mathbf{x})) : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$, where $f_i : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, $i = 1, \dots, p$, the *Jacobian* is the $p \times d$ matrix $\mathbf{J}_f(\mathbf{a}) = \dot{\mathbf{f}}(\mathbf{a}) = [\partial_j f_i(\mathbf{a})]_{i=1,\dots,p;j=1,\dots,d}$.

For example, for $f(x_1, x_2) = (x_1^3, x_1^2 + 2x_2^3 + x_1x_2, x_2^2)$, $\dot{f}(x_1, x_2) = \begin{pmatrix} 3x_1^2 & 0 \\ 2x_1 + x_2 & x_1 + 6x_2^2 \\ 0 & 2x_2 \end{pmatrix}$.

Note that Hessian is the Jacobian matrix of the gradient, thus $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{a}) = J_{\nabla f}(\mathbf{a})$.