

# MATH 408 Notes

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# 1 Section One

## 1.1 Vector Space $\mathbb{R}^n$

$\mathbb{R}^n$  is the set of real column vectors  $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$

- Addition

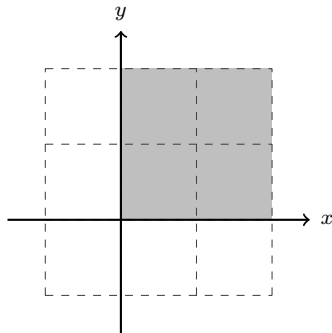
$$x + y = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 + y_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n + y_n \end{bmatrix}$$

- Scalar multiplication

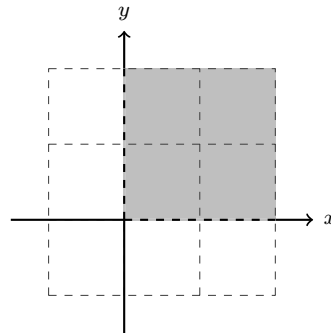
$$\lambda x = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda x_1 \\ \vdots \\ \lambda x_n \end{bmatrix}$$

## 1.2 Subsets of $\mathbb{R}^n$

- $\mathbb{R}_+^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_1, \dots, x_n \geq 0\}$



- $\mathbb{R}_{++}^n = \{(x_1, \dots, x_n) \mid x_1, \dots, x_n > 0\}$



## 1.3 Line Segments

- Closed line segment

The closed line segment  $[x, y]$  between the points  $x$  and  $y$  is the set  $\{\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \mid \lambda \in [0, 1]\}$

- Open line segment

The open line segment  $(x, y)$  between the points  $x$  and  $y$  is the set  $\{\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y \mid \lambda \in (0, 1)\}$

## 1.4 Unit Simplex

The unit simplex  $\Delta_n$  is the set  $\{x \in \mathbb{R}_+^n \mid x_1 + \dots + x_n = 1\}$

## 1.5 Polyhedrons

A polyhedron  $P$  is the set of points  $\{x \mid a_i^T x \leq b_i, \forall i = 1, \dots, k\}$

## 1.6 Matrix Space $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

$\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is the set of real matrices  $A = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$

- Addition

$$A + B = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_{11} & \dots & b_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ b_{m1} & \dots & b_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} + b_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Scalar Multiplication

$$\lambda A = \lambda \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & \dots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda a_{11} & \dots & \lambda a_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \lambda a_{m1} & \dots & \lambda a_{mn} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Square Matrix Trace

$$\text{tr}(A) = \text{tr} \left( \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{n1} & a_{n2} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \right) = a_{11} + a_{22} + \dots + a_{nn}$$

## 1.7 Subsets of $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

- Symmetric matrices

$$S^n = \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \mid A = A^T\}$$

- Positive semidefinite matrices

$$S_+^n = \{A \in S^n \mid x^T A x \geq 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

– If  $A \in S_+^n$ , then we can denote this as  $A \succeq 0$

- Positive definite matrices

$$S_{++}^n = \{A \in S^n \mid x^T A x > 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\}\}$$

– If  $A \in S_{++}^n$ , then we can denote this as  $A \succ 0$

- Orthogonal matrices

$$\mathbb{O}^n = \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \mid A^T A = I\}$$

## 1.8 Dot Product

The dot product operation  $x^T y$  can be denoted as  $\langle x, y \rangle$

- $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$
- $\langle x, y + z \rangle = \langle x, y \rangle + \langle x, z \rangle$
- $\langle \lambda x, y \rangle = \lambda \langle x, y \rangle$
- $\langle x, x \rangle \geq 0$  for all  $x$
- $\langle x, x \rangle = 0$  if and only if  $x = 0$

## 1.9 Vector Norms

The norm  $||a||$  is a number assigned to each real or complex  $n$ -vector  $a$ . Vector norms satisfy the following properties

- For all vectors  $a$ ,  $||a|| \geq 0$  and  $||a|| = 0$  if and only if  $a = 0$ 
  - The only vector with zero length is the zero vector
- For vectors  $a$  and all scalars  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  or  $\mathbb{C}$ ,  $||\alpha a|| = |\alpha| \cdot ||a||$ 
  - Scaling a vector also scales its norm
- For all vectors  $a, b$ ,  $||a + b|| \leq ||a|| + ||b||$ 
  - In a triangle, the sum of lengths of two sides is greater than or equal to the length of the remaining side

Common vector norms

- $||a||_1 = \sum_{j=1}^n |a_j|$ 
  - Referred to as the 'one norm'
  - This is the absolute vector sum
- $||a||_2 = \left( \sum_{j=1}^n |a_j|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ 
  - Referred to as the 'two/Euclidean norm'
  - This is the root of the absolute square vector sum
- $||a||_\infty = \max_{1 \leq j \leq n} |a_j|$ 
  - Referred to as the 'infinity/max norm'
  - This is the maximum absolute element

## 1.10 Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality

The Cauchy-Schwartz inequality states that  $|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq ||x||_2 \cdot ||y||_2$

- Equality holds if and only if  $x$  and  $y$  are linearly independent
- $\langle x, y \rangle = ||x||_2 \cdot ||y||_2 \cdot \cos \theta$

## 1.11 Matrix Norms

The operator norm of an  $(n \times n)$  matrix is  $||A||_{\text{op}} = \sup_{x: ||x||_2 \leq 1} ||Ax||_2$

- $||Ax||_2 \leq ||A||_{\text{op}} \cdot ||x||_2$

## 1.12 Frobenius Norm

The Frobenius norm of an  $(m \times n)$  matrix is  $||A||_F = \left( \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n |a_{ij}|^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

- $||A||_F = \text{tr}(A^T A)^{\frac{1}{2}}$

### 1.13 Eigenvalue Decompositions

Let  $A \in S^n$ . Then a scalar  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  is an eigenvalue of  $A$  if  $A - \lambda I$  is singular

- Any  $u \in \text{null}(A - \lambda I)$  where  $u \neq 0$  is an eigenvector of  $A$
- If  $A \in S^n$  is symmetric, then the polynomial  $p(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$  has exactly  $n$  real roots, including multiplicities
- A matrix  $A \in S^n$  has at most  $n$  eigenvalues
- Given that  $A \in S^n$  has eigenvalues  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$ 
  - $\text{tr}(A) = \lambda_1 + \dots + \lambda_n$
  - $\det(A) = \lambda_1 \dots \lambda_n$

### 1.14 Spectral Decomposition Theorem

Let  $A \in S^n$ . Then there exists  $U \in \mathbb{O}^n$  and a diagonal matrix  $\Omega = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$  satisfying  $A = U\Omega U^T$

### 1.15 Rayleigh-Ritz Theorem

Let  $A \in S^n$ . Then  $\lambda_{\min} \|x\|_2^2 \leq \langle Ax, x \rangle \leq \lambda_{\max} \|x\|_2^2$  where  $\lambda_{\min}$  is the minimum eigenvalue of  $A$  and  $\lambda_{\max}$  is the maximum eigenvalue of  $A$

### 1.16 Balls

An ball in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the volume of space bounded by an  $n$ -dimensional ball

- Open ball
 
$$B(x, r) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|y - x\|_2 < r\}$$
- Closed ball
 
$$B[x, r] = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|y - x\|_2 \leq r\}$$

### 1.17 Interior Points

A point  $x \in U$  where  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is an interior point of a volume  $U$  if there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $B(x, r) \subseteq U$

- A point  $x \in U$  is an interior point of  $U$  if there exists a ball with non-zero radius that is fully enclosed within  $U$

### 1.18 Interiors

The interior of a volume  $U$  where  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is the set of all interior points of  $U$

- $\text{int}(U) = \{x \in U \mid x \text{ is an interior point}\}$

### 1.19 Open Sets

A set  $U$  is an open set if  $U = \text{int}(U)$

- $U$  is an open set if and only if  $U$  contains no boundary points
- The union of any number of open sets is open
- The intersection of finitely many open sets is open

### 1.20 Closed Sets

A set  $U$  is a closed set if its complement  $U^c = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid x \notin U\}$  is open

- $U$  is a closed set if and only if every sequence  $x_n \in U$  converges to a point in  $U$

### 1.21 Boundaries

The boundary of a set  $U$  is the set of non-interior points of  $U$

- $\text{bd}(U) = \{x \in U \mid B(x, r) \cap U \neq \emptyset \text{ and } B(x, r) \cap U^c \neq \emptyset \text{ for } r > 0\}$

### 1.22 Closure

The closure of a set  $U$  is the union of  $U$  and its boundary

- $\text{cl}(U) = U \cup \text{bd}(U)$
- The closure of  $U$  is the smallest

### 1.23 Bounded Sets

A set  $U$  is bounded if there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $U \subseteq B(0, r)$

### 1.24 Compact Sets

A set  $U$  is compact if  $U$  is closed and bounded

### 1.25 Continuous Functions

A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous if  $\lim_{y \rightarrow x} f(y) = f(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- If  $f$  is continuous, then the following sets are closed
  - $[f = r] = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid f(x) = r\}$
  - $[f \leq r] = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid f(x) \leq r\}$

### 1.26 Extreme Value Theorem

Any continuous function  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined on a compact set  $U$  contains its infimum and supremum

### 1.27 Minimizer

An element  $\bar{x}$  is a minimizer of  $f$  if  $f(\bar{x}) \leq f(x)$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- If a minimizer  $\bar{x}$  exists, then  $f(\bar{x}) = \inf f(x)$
- A minimizer  $\bar{x}$  does not necessarily exist
  - i.e.  $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$  does not have a minimizer

### 1.28 First-Order Partial Derivatives

Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where the set  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is open. Then  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x)$  is the first-order partial derivative of  $f$  with respect to  $x_i$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x) = \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + te_i) - f(x)}{t}$$

### 1.29 Second-Order Partial Derivatives

Let  $f : U \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where the set  $U \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is open and let  $g(x) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x)$ . Then  $\frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j}(x)$  is the second-order partial derivative of  $f$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}(x) = \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_j}(x)$$

### 1.30 $C'$ -Smooth

A function is  $C'$ -smooth if  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x)$  exists and is continuous for all  $i = 1, \dots, n$

### 1.31 $C''$ -Smooth

A function is  $C''$ -smooth if  $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}(x)$  exists and is continuous for all  $i, j = 1, \dots, n$

### 1.32 Gradient

$\nabla f(x)$  is a column vector in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  representing the gradient of  $f$

$$\nabla f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}(x) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(x) \end{bmatrix}$$

### 1.33 Directional Derivatives

$f'(x, v)$  is the directional derivative of  $f$  in direction  $v$

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x, v) &= \lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + tv) - f(x)}{t} \\ &= \langle \nabla f(x), v \rangle \end{aligned}$$



### 1.34 Hessian

$\nabla^2 f(x)$  is a matrix in  $\mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  consisting of the second-order partial derivatives of  $f$

$$\nabla^2 f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[\nabla^2 f(x)]_{i,j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$$

- If  $f$  is  $C''$ -smooth, then  $\partial^2 f(x)$  is symmetric

### 1.35 Directional Derivative Approximation Theorem

If  $f$  is  $C'$ -smooth, then  $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x) - \langle \nabla f(x), h \rangle}{\|h\|} = 0$

- If  $f$  is  $C'$ -smooth, then the directional derivative of  $f$  at  $x$  in direction  $h$  represents the gradient of  $f$  in direction  $h$
- Alternatively, we can write  $f(x+h) - f(x) - \langle \nabla f(x), h \rangle = o(\|h\|)$ 
  - $f(x) = o(t)$  is notationally equivalent to  $\lim_{t \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(t)}{t} = 0$

### 1.36 Best Linear Approximation

If  $f$  is  $C'$ -smooth, then the best linear approximation of  $f$  centered at  $x$  is given by

$$g(y) = f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle$$

$$g(x+h) = f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), h \rangle$$

### 1.37 Best Linear Approximation Error

The error equation for the best linear approximation of  $f$  centered at  $x$  is given by

$$\underbrace{f(x+h)}_{\text{function value}} = \underbrace{f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), h \rangle}_{\text{linear approximation}} + \underbrace{o(\|h\|)}_{\text{error value}}$$

### 1.38 Mean Value Theorem

If  $f$  is  $C''$ -smooth, then for any  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , there exists  $z \in [x, y]$  such that

$$f(y) = f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \langle \nabla^2 f(z)(y - x), y - x \rangle$$

### 1.39 Taylor's Theorem

If  $f$  is  $C''$ -smooth, then

$$\underbrace{f(y)}_{\text{function value}} = \underbrace{f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \langle \nabla^2 f(x)(y - x), y - x \rangle}_{\text{quadratic approximation}} + \underbrace{o(\|y - x\|^2)}_{\text{error value}}$$

## 2 Section Two

### 2.1 Global Minimizers

Let  $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\bar{x} \in S$  is a global minimizer of  $f$  over  $S$  if  $f(\bar{x}) \leq f(x)$  for all  $x \in S$

- $\bar{x} \in S$  is a strict global minimizer of  $f$  over  $S$  if  $f(\bar{x}) < f(x)$  for all  $x \in S \setminus \{\bar{x}\}$
- $f(\bar{x})$  is the minimal value of  $f$

### 2.2 Local Minimizers

Let  $f : S \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  where  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then  $\bar{x} \in S$  is a local minimizer of  $f$  over  $S$  if there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $f(\bar{x}) \leq f(x)$  for all  $x \in S \cap B(\bar{x}, r)$

- $\bar{x} \in S$  is a strict local minimizer of  $f$  over  $S$  if there exists  $r > 0$  such that  $f(\bar{x}) < f(x)$  for all  $x \in S \cap B(\bar{x}, r)$

### 2.3 Critical Points

$\bar{x}$  is a critical point of a differentiable  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  if  $\nabla f(\bar{x}) = 0$

- A critical point can correspond to a local maximum, local minimum, or inflection point

### 2.4 Convex Functions

A  $C''$ -smooth function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is convex if  $\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

### 2.5 Coercive Functions

A function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is coercive if  $\lim_{\|x_i\| \rightarrow +\infty} f(x_i) = +\infty$  for any  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$  where  $\|x_i\| \rightarrow +\infty$

- A quadratic function  $f$  is coercive if and only if  $\nabla^2 f(x)$  is positive definite

### 2.6 Principal Minors

If  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , then the determinant of the top-left  $k \times k$  submatrix of  $A$  is the  $k^{\text{th}}$  principal minor, denoted as  $\Delta_k(A)$

### 2.7 Recognizing Positive Definite and Semidefinite Matrices

- Let  $\lambda_{\min}(A)$  be the minimal eigenvalue of a matrix  $A$ 
  - $A \succ 0$  if and only if  $\lambda_{\min}(A) > 0$
  - $A \succeq 0$  if and only if  $\lambda_{\min}(A) \geq 0$
- $A \succ 0$  if and only if  $\Delta_1(A), \Delta_2(A), \dots, \Delta_n(A) > 0$ 
  - The test for positive semidefinite matrices requires that all principal minors of  $A$  be non-negative

## 2.8 First-Order Conditions

Let  $\bar{x}$  be a local minimizer of  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ . If  $f$  is differentiable at  $\bar{x}$ , then  $\nabla f(\bar{x}) = 0$

- Otherwise,  $f(\bar{x} - t\nabla f(\bar{x})) < f(\bar{x})$  for all small  $t > 0$

## 2.9 Second-Order Conditions

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be  $C''$ -smooth

- If  $\bar{x}$  is a local minimizer of  $f$ , then  $\nabla f(\bar{x}) = 0$  and  $\nabla^2 f(\bar{x}) \succeq 0$
- If  $\nabla f(\bar{x}) = 0$  and  $\nabla^2 f(\bar{x}) \succ 0$ , then  $\bar{x}$  is a local minimizer of  $f$

## 2.10 Sufficient Conditions

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a convex function. Then the following are equivalent

- $\bar{x}$  is a local minimizer of  $f$
- $\bar{x}$  is a global minimizer of  $f$
- $\bar{x}$  is a critical point of  $f$

## 2.11 Additional Theorems

- If  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and coercive, then  $f$  attains its infimum
- If  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous and coercive, and  $S$  is a closed set, then  $f$  attains its infimum over  $S$
- $A \succeq 0$  if and only if there exists a lower triangular matrix  $L$  such that  $A = LL^T$ 
  - $L$  can be found via Cholesky factorization, which is beyond the scope of this class

## 2.12 Quadratic Functions

A quadratic function over  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is a function of the form

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

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} A_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_i b_i x_i + c$$

where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$

- $x^T Ax = x^T \left( \frac{A + A^T}{2} \right) x$ 
  - We can always assume  $A$  is symmetric since we can always express  $A$  as  $\frac{A + A^T}{2}$
- The first-order derivative is given by  $\nabla f(x) = Ax + b$
- The second-order derivative is given by  $\nabla^2 f(x) = A$

### 2.13 Quadratic Functions Theorem

Let  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ax + b^T x + c$  where  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then

- $x$  is critical if and only if  $Ax + b = 0$
- $f$  has a strict global minimizer if and only if  $A \succ 0$
- $f$  has a global minimizer if and only if  $A \succeq 0$  and  $b \in \text{Range}(A)$
- If  $x$  satisfies  $Ax + b = 0$ , then  $x$  is a global minimizer
- $f$  is coercive if and only if  $A \succ 0$

### 3 Section Three

#### 3.1 Least Squares

Given an inconsistent system of equations  $Ax = b$ , the least squares solution is an approximate solution that minimizes the squared norm of the residual  $r = Ax - b$

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} x^T (A^T A) x - (A^T b)^T x + \frac{1}{2} b^T b \end{aligned}$$

$$\nabla f(x) = A^T Ax - A^T b$$

$$\nabla^2 f(x) = A^T A$$

- Least squares functions always have minimizers, represented by the solution of  $\nabla f(x) = 0$ 
  - $A^T Ax - A^T b = 0$  always has a solution
  - $\nabla^2 f(x)$  is always positive semidefinite

#### 3.2 Applications: Linear Fitting

Suppose we have data points  $(s_i, t_i) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$ . We want to find  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $t_i \approx s_i^T x$  for all  $i = 1, \dots, m$ . Then  $x$  represents the minimizer to the least squares function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|Sx - t\|_2^2$$

$$\text{where } S = \begin{bmatrix} s_1^T \\ \vdots \\ s_m^T \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } t = \begin{bmatrix} t_1 \\ \vdots \\ t_m \end{bmatrix}$$

- Linear fitting finds the straight line of best fit through the dataset

#### 3.3 Applications: Nonlinear Fitting

Suppose we have data points  $(s_i, t_i) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$ . We want to find a degree  $d$  polynomial  $p(s_i) = a_0 + a_1 s_1 + \dots + a_d s_i^d$  such that  $t_i \approx p(s_i)$ . Then the coefficients  $a = [a_0 \ a_1 \ \dots \ a_m]$  represent the minimizer to the least squares function

$$f(a) = \frac{1}{2} \|Sa - t\|_2^2$$

$$\text{where } S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & s_1 & \dots & s_1^d \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & s_m & \dots & s_m^d \end{bmatrix} \text{ and } t = \begin{bmatrix} t_1 \\ \vdots \\ t_m \end{bmatrix}$$

- Nonlinear fitting finds the polynomial line of best fit through the dataset

### 3.4 Applications: Regularized Least Squares

Nonlinear fitting tends to overfit data when given high enough degree  $d$ . To avoid this, we add a p function  $R(x)$  to reinforce certain behaviors. This gives us the regularized least squares function

$$f(a) = \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\|Sa - t\|_2^2}_{\text{fidelity}} + \lambda \underbrace{R(a)}_{\text{prior}}$$

where  $S = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & s_1 & \dots & s_1^d \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 1 & s_m & \dots & s_m^d \end{bmatrix}$  and  $t = \begin{bmatrix} t_1 \\ \vdots \\ t_m \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\lambda \geq 0$

- Typical choices for the prior function are

- $R(a) = \|a\|_2^2 = \sum_{j=0}^m a_j^2$

- $R(a) = \|Da\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^k |(Dx)_i|$  for some  $D \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}$

- \* Forces many of  $(Da)_i$  to be zero

- $R(a) = \frac{1}{2} \|Da\|_2^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^k (Dx)_i^2$  for some  $D \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d}$

- \* Forces all of  $(Da)_i$  to be small

- \* Minimizer is represented by the solution of  $(S^T S + \lambda D^T D) a - A^T b = 0$

### 3.5 Applications: Denoising

Suppose we have data points  $b_i = x_i + \omega_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$  where  $x_i$  is the truth value and  $\omega_i$  is some noise. We want to find the truth value  $x_i$  such that the line of best fit through  $x_i$  is a polynomial function. Then  $x = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_m]$  represents the minimizer to the least squares function

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{2} \|b - x\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \|Lx\|_2^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m (b_i - x_i)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} (x_i - x_{i+1})^2 \end{aligned}$$

where  $L = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(m-1) \times m}$  and  $b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$

- Minimizer is represented by the solution of  $(I + \lambda L^T L) x - b = 0$
- The larger  $\lambda$  is, the smoother the denoised data becomes

### 3.6 Applications: Trend Filtering

Suppose we have data points  $b_i = x_i + \omega_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$  where  $x_i$  is the truth value and  $\omega_i$  is some noise. We want to find the truth value  $x_i$  such that the line of best fit through  $x_i$  is

- A piecewise constant function. Then  $x = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_m]$  represents the minimizer to the least squares function

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{2} \|b - x\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \|D^{(1)}x\|_1 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m (b_i - x_i)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{m-1} |x_i - x_{i+1}| \end{aligned}$$

where  $D^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(m-1) \times m}$  and  $b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$

- A piecewise linear function. Then  $x = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_m]$  represents the minimizer to the least squares function

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{2} \|b - x\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \|D^{(2)}x\|_1 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m (b_i - x_i)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{m-2} |x_i - 2x_{i+1} + x_{i+2}| \end{aligned}$$

where  $D^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(m-2) \times m}$  and  $b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$

- A piecewise quadratic function. Then  $x = [x_1 \ x_2 \ \dots \ x_m]$  represents the minimizer to the least squares function

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= \frac{1}{2} \|b - x\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \|D^{(3)}x\|_1 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m (b_i - x_i)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{m-3} |x_i - 3x_{i+1} + 3x_{i+2} - x_{i+3}| \end{aligned}$$

where  $D^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -3 & 3 & -1 & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & 1 & -3 & 3 & -1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(m-3) \times m}$  and  $b = \begin{bmatrix} b_1 \\ \vdots \\ b_m \end{bmatrix}$

## 4 Section Four

### 4.1 Line Search Method

Given an initial point  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  in a  $C'$ -smooth function  $f$ , the line search method generates a sequence  $x_k$  for  $k = 1, 2, \dots$  such that  $f(x_{k+1}) < f(x_k)$  and  $x_k$  approaches the local minimizer

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + t_k d_k$$

where  $t_k \in \mathbb{R}$  is the step size and  $d_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the descent direction

### 4.2 Descent Direction

A non-zero vector  $d$  is a descent direction of a  $C'$ -smooth function  $f$  if the directional derivative of  $f$  along  $d$  is negative, that is  $\langle \nabla f(x), d \rangle < 0$

- Given  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that  $f(x + td) < f(x) + \alpha t \langle \nabla f(x), d \rangle$  for all  $t \in (0, \varepsilon)$
- Typical choices for the descent direction are
  - Gradient descent
    - \*  $d_k = -\nabla f(x_k)$
  - Newton
    - \*  $d_k = -[\nabla^2 f(x_k)]^{-1} \nabla f(x_k)$  where  $\nabla^2 f(x_k) \succ 0$
  - Quasi-Newton
    - \*  $d_k = H_k \nabla f(x_k)$  where  $H_k$  is an approximation of  $-\left[\nabla^2 f(x_k)\right]^{-1}$

### 4.3 Step Size

A large step size allows  $x_k$  to approach the minimizer faster, while a small step size allows  $x_k$  to get closer to the minimizer

- Typical choices for the step size are
  - Constant
    - \*  $t_k = \bar{t}$  for some  $\bar{t} \in \mathbb{R}$
    - \* Decently fast, but not accurate ( $x_k, x_{k+1}, \dots$  might end up oscillating)
  - Exact line search
    - \*  $t_k = \operatorname{argmin}_{t \geq 0} f(x_k + td_k)$
    - \* Finds the exact  $t$  value that minimizes  $f(x_k + td_k)$
    - \* Fast and accurate, but calculating  $t_k$  for each iteration is impractical
  - Backtracking
    - \* Let  $s > 0$ ,  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ ,  $\beta \in (0, 1)$
    - \* set  $t \leftarrow s$
    - while  $f(x + td) \geq f(x) + \alpha t \langle \nabla f(x), d \rangle$
    - $t \leftarrow \beta t$
    - set  $t_k \leftarrow t$
    - \* Finds the largest approximate  $t$  value that minimizes  $f(x_k + td_k)$
    - \* Decently fast and decently accurate



#### 4.4 Condition Number

The condition number of a matrix  $A$  is defined as  $\kappa(A) = \frac{\lambda_{\max}(A)}{\lambda_{\min}(A)}$

- If  $\kappa(A)$  is small,  $A$  is well-conditioned
- If  $\kappa(A)$  is large,  $A$  is ill-conditioned

#### 4.5 Gradient Descent

In gradient descent, the descent direction is opposite to the gradient such that  $d_k = -\nabla f(x_k)$

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

- Gradient descent has linear convergence
  - Each iteration divides the error by a fixed constant
- The direction of motion is orthogonal to the contour line
  - $\langle x_{k+2} - x_{k+1}, x_{k+1} - x_k \rangle = 0$  for all  $k$
- If the contour lines of the graph are poorly scaled, then the direction of motion ends up zig-zagging excessively and the rate of convergence suffers

#### 4.6 Lipschitz Property of the Gradient

Suppose  $f$  is  $C''$ -smooth. Then the following are equivalent

- $f \in C_L^{1,1}$  such that  $\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\|_2 \leq L\|x - y\|_2$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- $\|\nabla^2 f(x)\| \leq L$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- $\max_{i=1,\dots,n} |\lambda_i(\nabla^2 f(x))| \leq L$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$

#### 4.7 Descent Lemma

Suppose  $f \in C_L^{1,1}$ . Then  $f(y) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T(y - x) + \frac{L}{2}\|x - y\|^2$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

- The descent lemma provides an upper bound for a quadratic function over the entire space

#### 4.8 Sufficient Decrease Lemma

Suppose  $f \in C_L^{1,1}$ . Then  $f(x) - f(x - t\nabla f(x)) \geq t\left(1 - \frac{Lt}{2}\right)\|\nabla f(x)\|^2$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $t > 0$

## 4.9 Sufficient Decrease of the Gradient Descent

Suppose  $f \in C_L^{1,1}$ . Let  $(x_k)_{k \geq 0}$  be the sequence generated by the gradient descent for solving

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)$$

with one of the following step size strategies

- Constant step size  $t \in (0, \frac{2}{L})$
- Exact line search
- Backtracking procedure with parameters  $s \in \mathbb{R}_{++}$ ,  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , and  $\beta \in (0, 1)$

Then  $f(x_k) - f(x_{k+1}) \geq M \|\nabla f(x_k)\|^2$  where

$$M = \begin{cases} t \left(1 - \frac{tL}{2}\right) & \text{constant step size} \\ \frac{1}{2L} & \text{exact line search} \\ \alpha \min \left(s, \frac{2(1-\alpha)\beta}{L}\right) & \text{backtracking} \end{cases}$$

## 4.10 Convergence of the Gradient Descent

Suppose  $f \in C_L^{1,1}$  and that there exists  $m \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(x) > m$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $(x_k)_{k \geq 0}$  be the sequence generated by the gradient descent for solving

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)$$

with one of the following step size strategies

- Constant step size  $t \in (0, \frac{2}{L})$
- Exact line search
- Backtracking procedure with parameters  $s \in \mathbb{R}_{++}$ ,  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ , and  $\beta \in (0, 1)$

Then we have the following

- The sequence  $(f(x_k))_{k \geq 0}$  is monotone decreasing
- For any  $k \geq 0$ ,  $f(x_{k+1}) < f(x_k)$  unless  $\nabla f(x_k) = 0$
- $\nabla f(x_k) \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$
- $\min_{i=1, \dots, k} \|\nabla f(x_i)\|^2 \leq \frac{f(x_0) - \inf_x f(x)}{M(k+1)}$

### 4.11 Upper Complexity Bound of Gradient Descent

To find a point  $x_i$  with  $\|\nabla f(x_i)\| \leq \varepsilon$ , it suffices to perform  $k = \frac{f(x_0) - \inf f}{M\varepsilon^2}$  iterations

### 4.12 Linear Rate Theorem

Suppose  $f$  is  $C''$ -smooth and  $f \in C_L^{1,1}$  with  $\lambda_{\min}(\nabla^2 f(x)) \geq \mu > 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then gradient descent with constant step size  $t_k = \frac{1}{L}$  satisfies

$$\|x_{k+1} - \bar{x}\|^2 \leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{L}\right) \|x_k - \bar{x}\|^2$$

where  $\bar{x}$  is a minimizer

- Then to find a point  $x_i$  with  $\|\nabla f(x_i)\| \leq \varepsilon$ , it suffices to perform  $k = \frac{L}{\mu} \ln \left( \frac{\|x_0 - \bar{x}\|^2}{\varepsilon} \right)$  iterations

### 4.13 Lower Complexity Bound of Gradient Descent

Suppose  $f \in C_L^{1,1}$  with  $\lambda_{\min}(\nabla^2 f(x)) \geq \mu > 0$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Then to find a point  $x_i$  with  $\|\nabla f(x_i)\| \leq \varepsilon$ , it requires at least  $k = \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \log \left( \frac{\|x_0 - \bar{x}\|^2}{\varepsilon} \right)$  iterations

## 5 Section Five

### 5.1 Newton's Method

In Newton's method, the descent direction is  $d_k = -[\nabla^2 f(x_k)]^{-1} \nabla f(x_k)$  with step size  $t = 1$

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - [\nabla^2 f(x_k)]^{-1} \nabla f(x_k)$$

- To calculate  $[\nabla^2 f(x_k)]^{-1} \nabla f(x_k)$ , we let  $d_k = [\nabla^2 f(x_k)]^{-1} \nabla f(x_k)$  and solve the system of equations  $\nabla^2 f(x_k) d_k = \nabla f(x_k)$

### 5.2 Disadvantages of Newton's Method

- Requires that the starting point is sufficiently close to the optimal point
- Requires us to calculate the Hessian  $\nabla^2 f(x)$  at each iteration
- Requires us to solve a linear system of equations at each iteration

### 5.3 Upper Complexity Bound of Newton's Method

Suppose the starting point  $x_0$  is sufficiently close to  $\bar{x}$ . To find a point  $x_k$  with  $\|x_k - \bar{x}\| \leq \varepsilon$ , it suffices to perform  $k = \log(\log(\frac{c}{\varepsilon}))$  iterations, where  $c$  is some constant

### 5.4 Quadratic Local Convergence of Newton's Method

Suppose  $f$  is  $C'$ -smooth and let  $\bar{x}$  satisfy  $f(\bar{x}) = 0$ . Suppose that there exists  $\mu, \varepsilon, L > 0$  such that

- $\|[\nabla f(x)]^{-1}\| \leq \frac{1}{\mu}$  for all  $x \in B(\bar{x}, \varepsilon)$
- $\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\| \leq L\|x - y\|$  for all  $x, y \in B(\bar{x}, \varepsilon)$

Let  $(x_k)$  be the sequence generated by Newton's method and let  $\bar{x}$  be the unique minimizer of  $f$  over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then

$$\|x_{k+1} - \bar{x}\| \leq \frac{L}{2\mu} \|x_k - \bar{x}\|^2$$

If  $\|x_k - \bar{x}\| \leq \frac{\mu}{L}$ , then  $\|x_k - \bar{x}\| \leq \frac{2\mu}{L} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{(2^k)}$

### 5.5 Affine Invariance of Newton's Method

Affine invariance means that surfaces are considered the same under affine/linear transformations. Therefore Newton's method performs the same with functions  $f(x)$  and  $f(Ax)$

## 6 Appendix

### 6.1 Common Expressions in $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

- Given  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ ,  $\|Ax\|_2^2 = (Ax)^T Ax = x^T A^T Ax$
- Given  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $x^T Ax = \sum_{i,j} A_{ij} x_i x_j$
- Given  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $x^T x = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$
- Given  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $A_{ij} = x_i x_j$ ,  $A = xx^T$
- $\text{Null}(A^T A) = \text{Null}(A)$
- $\text{Range}(A^T A) = \text{Range}(A^T)$