Multivariate Statistical Analysis

Lecture 01

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Outline

Course Overview

2 Linear Algebra

Convex Optimization

Outline

Course Overview

2 Linear Algebra

3 Convex Optimization

Course Overview

Homepage:

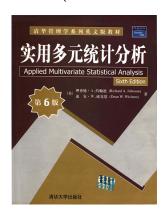
• https://luoluo-sds.github.io/

Prerequisite courses:

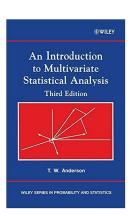
- Calculus
- Linear algebra
- Probability and statistics
- Optimization
- Machine learning

Course Overview

Textbook (recommended reading):







Grading Policy

Option I:

- Homework, 40%
- Final Exam, 60%

Option II:

- Quiz, 20%
- Homework, 30%
- Final Exam, 50%



What is Multivariate Statistics?

2021-2022 NBA season

Points leaders:

Rank	ank Player		
1	Joel Embiid	30.6	
2	2 LeBron James		
3	Giannis Antetokounmpo		
4	Kevin Durant	29.9	
5	5 Luka Dončić		
6	6 Trae Young		
7	7 DeMar DeRozan		
8	8 Kyrie Irving		
9	9 Ja Morant		
10	Nikola Jokić	27.1	
11	Jayson Tatum	26.9	
12	12 Devin Booker		
13	13 Donovan Mitchell		
14	.4 Stephen Curry		
15	15 Karl-Anthony Towns		

Rank	Player	PTS 24.5
16	6 Shai Gilgeous-Alexander	
17	.7 Zach LaVine	
18	CJ McCollum	
19	Paul George	
20	Damian Lillard	24.0
21	. Jaylen Brown	
22	2 De'Aaron Fox	
23	3 Bradley Beal	
24	4 Anthony Davis	
25	Pascal Siakam	22.8
26	Brandon Ingram	22.7
27	James Harden	22.5
28	CJ McCollum	22.1
29	Kristaps Porziņģis	22.1
30	James Harden	22.0

MVP ranking:

Rank	Player	PTS	TRB	AST	STL	BLK	WIN%
1	Nikola Jokić	27.1	13.8	7.9	1.5	0.9	0.585
2	Joel Embiid	30.6	11.7	4.2	1.1	1.5	0.622
3	Giannis Antetokounmpo	29.9	11.6	5.8	1.1	1.4	0.622



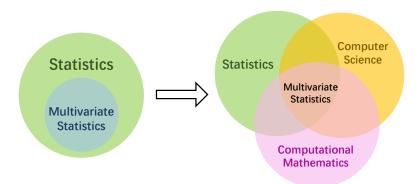
Applications of Multivariate Statistics

- Investigating of the dependency among variables
- 4 Hypotheses testing
- Oimensionality reduction
- Prediction
- Clustering

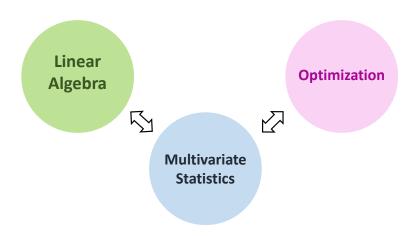
Applications of Multivariate Statistics

课程	学生1	学生2	学生3	学生4	学生5	学生6
习近平新时代中国特色社会主义思想概论	B+	A-	В	A-	С	Α
马克思主义原理	Α	Α	В	B+	В	B+
形势与政策	A-	A-	Α	A-	B+	B+
数学分析	Α	Α	C+	A-	B-	B+
高等代数	A-	Α	С	B+	C+	A-
最优化方法	Α	A-	С	Α-	C+	A-
多元统计分析	Α	?	D	?	?	A-
程序设计	B+	Α	Α	Α-	B+	B-
数据库及实现	B+	?	Α	B+	В	?
神经网络与深度学习	B+	Α-	Α-	Α-	?	В
计算机视觉	B+	Α	Α	?	B-	B-
自然语言处理	B+	?	Α	A-	B+	B+

Where is Multivariate Statistics?



Where is Multivariate Statistics?



We start from the review of linear algebra and convex optimization.

Outline

Course Overview

2 Linear Algebra

Convex Optimization

Notations

We use x_i to denote the entry of the *n*-dimensional vector **x** such that

$$\mathbf{x} = egin{bmatrix} x_1 \ x_2 \ dots \ x_n \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

We use a_{ij} or $(\mathbf{A})_{ij}$ to denote the entry of matrix \mathbf{A} with dimension $m \times n$ such that

$$\mathbf{A} = egin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}.$$

Notations

We can also present the matrix as

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A}_{11} & \mathbf{A}_{12} & \cdots & \mathbf{A}_{1q} \\ \mathbf{A}_{21} & \mathbf{A}_{22} & \cdots & \mathbf{A}_{2q} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \mathbf{A}_{p1} & \mathbf{A}_{p2} & \cdots & \mathbf{A}_{pq} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}.$$

if the sub-matrices are compatible with the partition.

We define

$$\mathbf{0} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}.$$

Transpose

The transpose of a matrix results from flipping the rows and columns. Given a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ such that

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} & a_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n},$$

then its transpose, written $\mathbf{A}^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$, is an $n \times m$ matrix such that

$$\mathbf{A}^{ op} = egin{bmatrix} a_{11} & a_{21} & \cdots & a_{m1} \ a_{12} & a_{22} & \cdots & a_{m2} \ dots & dots & \ddots & dots \ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & \cdots & a_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}.$$

Sometimes, we also use \mathbf{A}' the present the transpose of \mathbf{A} .

Addition/Subtraction

If $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ are two matrices of the same order, then

$$\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} + b_{11} & a_{12} + b_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} + b_{1n} \\ a_{21} + b_{21} & a_{22} + b_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} + b_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} + b_{m1} & a_{m2} + b_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} + b_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$$

and

$$\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} = \begin{bmatrix} a_{11} - b_{11} & a_{12} - b_{12} & \cdots & a_{1n} - b_{1n} \\ a_{21} - b_{21} & a_{22} - b_{22} & \cdots & a_{2n} - b_{1n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ a_{m1} - b_{m1} & a_{m2} - b_{m2} & \cdots & a_{mn} - b_{mn} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}.$$

Multiplication

The product of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ is the matrix

$$C = AB \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$$
,

where

$$\mathbf{C} = \begin{bmatrix} c_{11} & c_{12} & \cdots & c_{1q} \\ c_{21} & c_{22} & \cdots & c_{2q} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ c_{p1} & c_{p2} & \cdots & c_{pq} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}.$$

and $c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj}$.

Trace

The trace of a square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, denoted $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A})$, is the sum of diagonal elements in the matrix:

$$\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ii}.$$

The trace has the following properties

- **1** For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we have $\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}) = \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}^{\top})$.
- ② For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $c_1 \in \mathbb{R}$ and $c_2 \in \mathbb{R}$, we have

$$\operatorname{tr}(c_1\mathbf{A}+c_2\mathbf{B})=c_1\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A})+c_2\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{B}).$$

- **3** For **A** and **B** such that **AB** is square, tr(AB) = tr(BA).
- 4 For A, B and C such that ABC is square, we have

$$\operatorname{tr}(\mathsf{ABC}) = \operatorname{tr}(\mathsf{BCA}) = \operatorname{tr}(\mathsf{CAB}).$$

Inverse

The inverse of a square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is denoted by \mathbf{A}^{-1} and is the unique matrix such that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{-1}=\mathbf{I}=\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{A}.$$

We say that $\bf A$ is invertible or non-singular if $\bf A^{-1}$ exists and non-invertible or singular otherwise.

Inverse

If all the necessary inverse exist, we have

$$(A^{-1})^{-1} = A$$

2
$$(c\mathbf{A})^{-1} = c^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{-1}$$

$$(\mathbf{A}^{-1})^{\top} = (\mathbf{A}^{\top})^{-1}$$

$$(AB)^{-1} = B^{-1}A^{-1}$$

For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ and $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$, we have

$$(A + BCD)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(C^{-1} + DA^{-1}B)^{-1}DA^{-1}$$

if $\bf A$ and $\bf A+BCD$ are non-singular.

Vector Norms

A norm of a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ written by $\|\mathbf{x}\|$, is informally a measure of the length of the vector.

Formally, a norm is any function $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies four properties:

- For all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have $\|\mathbf{x}\| \ge 0$ (non-negativity).
- $\|\mathbf{x}\| = 0$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$.
- **3** For all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $||t\mathbf{x}|| = |t| ||\mathbf{x}||$.
- For all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have $\|\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{y}\| \le \|\mathbf{x}\| + \|\mathbf{y}\|$.

Vector Norms

There are some examples for $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}$:

- $\bullet \ \ \mathsf{The} \ \ell_2 \ \mathsf{norm} \ \mathsf{is} \ \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$
- ② The ℓ_1 norm is $\|\mathbf{x}\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$
- **1** The ℓ_p norm is $\|\mathbf{x}\|_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{1/p}$ for p > 1.
- The ℓ_{∞} norm is $\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\infty} = \max_{i} |x_{i}|$

Orthogonality

- **1** Two vectors $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are orthogonal if $\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{y} = 0$.
- ② A vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is normalized if $\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 = 1$.
- **3** A square matrix $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is orthogonal if all its columns are orthogonal to each other and are normalized (the columns are then referred to as being orthonormal). In other word, we have

$$\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I} = \mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}}.$$

● Note that if **U** is not square, i.e., $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, n < m, but its columns are still orthonormal, then $\mathbf{U}^{\top}\mathbf{U} = \mathbf{I}$, but $\mathbf{U}\mathbf{U}^{\top} \neq \mathbf{I}$, we call that **U** is column orthonormal.

Quiz

What is the volume of the tetrahedral?

Given square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ as

$$\mathbf{A} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{(1)}^\top \\ \mathbf{a}_{(2)}^\top \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{(n)}^\top \end{bmatrix},$$

the determinant of A is the "volume" of the set

$$\mathcal{S} = \left\{ \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i \mathbf{a}_{(i)}, \text{ where } 0 \leq \beta_i \leq 1, i = 1, \dots, n \right\}.$$

The set $\mathcal S$ formed by taking all possible linear combinations of the row vectors, where the coefficients are all between 0 and 1.

The determinant of a square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, is denoted by $\det(\mathbf{A})$ or $|\mathbf{A}|$, which is defined as

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{\tau = (\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)} \left(\operatorname{sgn}(\tau) \prod_{i=1}^n \mathbf{a}_{i, \tau_i} \right)$$

where $\tau = (\tau_1, \dots, \tau_n)$ is permutation of $(1, 2, \dots, n)$. The signature $\operatorname{sgn}(\tau)$ is defined to be +1 whenever the reordering given by τ can be achieved by successively interchanging two entries an even number of times, and -1 whenever it can be achieved by an odd number of such interchanges.

We can also define determinant recursively

$$\det(\mathbf{A}) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (-1)^{i+j} a_{ij} \det(\mathbf{A}_{\setminus i, \setminus j}) \quad \text{for any } j \in \{1, \dots, n\}$$

with the initial condition $\det(a_{ij}) = a_{ij}$, where $\mathbf{A}_{\setminus i, \setminus j}$ is the $(n-1) \times (n-1)$ matrix obtained by deleting the *i*-th row and *j*-th column from \mathbf{A} .

- $\mathbf{0} \det(\mathbf{I}) = 1$
- ② If we multiply a single row in **A** by a scalar $t \in \mathbb{R}^n$, then the determinant of the new matrix is $t \det(\mathbf{A})$.
- 3 If we exchange any two rows of the square matrix \mathbf{A} , then the determinant of the new matrix is $-\det(\mathbf{A})$.
- **3** For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we have $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 0$ if and only if \mathbf{A} is singular.

- **1** For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is triangular, then $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \prod_{i=1}^{n} a_{ii}$.
- ② For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$ and $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$, we have

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \textbf{A} & \textbf{C} \\ \textbf{0} & \textbf{B} \end{bmatrix} \end{pmatrix} = \det(\textbf{A})\det(\textbf{B})$$

- **3** For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we have $\det(\mathbf{A}) = \det(\mathbf{A}^{\top})$.
- For $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, we have $\det(\mathbf{AB}) = \det(\mathbf{A}) \det(\mathbf{B})$.
- **5** For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is orthogonal, we have $\det(\mathbf{A}) = 1$.

Singular Value Decomposition

The singular value decomposition (SVD) of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ matrix is

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^{\top},$$

where $\mathbf{U} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times m}$ is orthogonal, $\mathbf{\Sigma} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is rectangular diagonal matrix with non-negative real numbers on the diagonal and $\mathbf{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is orthogonal.

- The diagonal entries of Σ are uniquely determined by A and are known as the singular values of A.
- The number of non-zero singular values is equal to the rank of A.
- ullet The columns of ullet and the columns of ullet are called left-singular vectors and right-singular vectors of ullet, respectively.

Singular Value Decomposition

The term SVD sometimes refers to the compact SVD, that is

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}_r \mathbf{\Sigma}_r \mathbf{V}_r^{\top}$$

in which Σ_r is square diagonal of size $r \times r$, where $r \leq \min\{m, n\}$ is the rank of A, and has only the non-zero singular values.

In this variant, \mathbf{U}_r is an $m \times r$ column orthogonal matrix and \mathbf{V}_r is an $n \times r$ column orthogonal matrix such that

$$\mathbf{U}_r^{\top}\mathbf{U}_r = \mathbf{V}_r^{\top}\mathbf{V}_r = \mathbf{I}.$$

Matrix Norms

Matrix norm is any function $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \to \mathbb{R}$ that satisfies

- For all $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, we have $\|\mathbf{A}\| \geq 0$.
- **2** $\|A\| = 0$ if and only if A = 0.
- **3** For all $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $||t\mathbf{A}|| = |t| ||\mathbf{A}||$.
- For all $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, we have $||A + B|| \le ||A|| + ||B||$.

Matrix Norms

Given any matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, its spectral norm is defined as

$$\left\|\mathbf{A}\right\|_{2}=\sup_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^{n},\mathbf{x}\neq\mathbf{0}}\frac{\left\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\right\|_{2}}{\left\|\mathbf{x}\right\|_{2}}=\sup_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^{n},\left\|\mathbf{x}\right\|_{2}=1}\left\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\right\|_{2};$$

and its Frobenius norm is defined as

$$\|\mathbf{A}\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n a_{ij}^2} = \sqrt{\operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A})}.$$

We can show that

$$\left\|\mathbf{A}\right\|_2 = \sigma_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \left\|\mathbf{A}\right\|_F = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \dots + \sigma_r^2},$$

where $\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \cdots \geq \sigma_r \geq 0$ are the non-zero singular values of **A**.

Low-Rank Approximation

Let $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}_r \mathbf{\Sigma}_r \mathbf{V}_r^{\top}$ be condense SVD of rank-r matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and partition

$$\mathbf{U}_r = [\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_r] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times r}, \ \mathbf{\Sigma}_r = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & \sigma_r \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{r \times r}, \ \mathbf{V}_r = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_r] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r}.$$

The matrix $\mathbf{A}_k = \mathbf{U}_k \mathbf{\Sigma}_k \mathbf{V}_k^{\top}$ is the best rank-k approximation of \mathbf{A} $(k \leq r)$, where

$$\mathbf{U}_k = [\mathbf{u}_1, \dots, \mathbf{u}_k] \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times k}, \ \mathbf{\Sigma}_k = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 \\ & \ddots \\ & & \sigma_k \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}, \ \mathbf{V}_k = [\mathbf{v}_1, \dots, \mathbf{v}_k] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k}.$$

We have

$$\mathbf{A}_k = \mathop{\arg\min}_{\mathrm{rank}(\mathbf{X}) \leq k} \left\| \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{X} \right\|_2 = \mathop{\arg\min}_{\mathrm{rank}(\mathbf{X}) \leq k} \left\| \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{X} \right\|_F.$$

Quadratic Forms

Given a square matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and a vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the scalar $\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$ is called a quadratic form and we have

$$\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_i x_j.$$

We often implicitly assume that the matrices appearing in a quadratic form are symmetric.

Definiteness

We introduce the definiteness as follows.

- **1** A symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is positive definite if for all non-zero vectors $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ holds that $\mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$. This is usually denoted by $\mathbf{A} \succ \mathbf{0}$.
- ② A symmetric matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is positive semi-definite if for all vectors $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ holds that $\mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \ge 0$. This is usually denoted by $\mathbf{A} \succeq \mathbf{0}$.

Similarly, we can define negative definite and negative semi-definite matrices.

Schur Complement

Given matrices $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$, $\mathbf{B} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times q}$, $\mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times p}$ and $\mathbf{D} \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times q}$, we suppose \mathbf{D} is non-singular and let

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{(p+q)\times (p+q)}.$$

Then the Schur complement of the block **D** for **M** is

$$\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B} \mathbf{D}^{-1} \mathbf{C} \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times p}$$
.

Then we can decompose the matrix M as

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}$$

and the inverse of **M** can be written as

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix}^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ -\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} (\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C})^{-1} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{D}^{-1} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & -\mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}$$

Schur Complement

The decomposition

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{C} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{0} & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{I} & \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C} & \mathbf{I} \end{bmatrix}$$

means we have $det(\mathbf{M}) = det(\mathbf{D}) det(\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{C})$.

We consider the symmetric matrix

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} & \mathbf{B} \\ \mathbf{B}^\top & \mathbf{D} \end{bmatrix}$$

with non-singular \mathbf{D} and let $\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{B}\mathbf{D}^{-1}\mathbf{B}^{\top}$, then

- 2 If $D \succ 0$, then $M \succeq 0 \iff S \succeq 0$.

Low-Rank Approximation and Beyond

For symmetric positive-definite $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$, its best rank-k approximation is

$$\mathbf{A}_k = \mathbf{U}_k \mathbf{\Sigma}_k \mathbf{U}_k^\top = \mathop{\arg\min}_{\mathrm{rank}(\mathbf{X}) \leq k} \left\| \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{X} \right\|_2 = \mathop{\arg\min}_{\mathrm{rank}(\mathbf{X}) \leq k} \left\| \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{X} \right\|_F.$$

Inspired by probabilistic PCA, we find the better estimator

$$\widehat{\mathbf{A}}_k = \mathbf{U}_k (\mathbf{\Sigma}_k - \widehat{\delta} \mathbf{I}_k) \mathbf{U}_k^{\top} + \widehat{\delta} \mathbf{I}_d, \quad \text{where} \quad \widehat{\delta} = \frac{1}{n-k} \sum_{i=k+1}^n \sigma_i.$$

We can verify

$$\left(\mathbf{U}_k(\mathbf{\Sigma}_k - \hat{\delta}\mathbf{I}_k)^{1/2}, \hat{\delta}\right) = \underset{\mathrm{rank}(\mathbf{B}) \leq k, \delta \in \mathbb{R}}{\arg\min} \left\|\mathbf{A} - (\mathbf{B}\mathbf{B}^\top + \delta\mathbf{I}_d)\right\|_F$$

and

$$\|\mathbf{A} - \widehat{\mathbf{A}}_k\|_F \leq \|\mathbf{A} - \mathbf{A}_k\|_F$$
.

The Gradient

Suppose that $f: \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a differentiable function that takes as input a matrix **X** of size $m \times n$ and returns a real value. Then the gradient of f with respect to **X** is

$$\frac{\partial f(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \nabla f(\mathbf{X}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{X})}{\partial x_{11}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{X})}{\partial x_{1n}} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{X})}{\partial x_{m1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{X})}{\partial x_{mn}} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}.$$

Some Basic Results

- $\bullet \ \, \text{For} \,\, \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \text{, we have} \,\, \frac{\partial (f(\mathbf{X}) + g(\mathbf{X}))}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}} + \frac{\partial g(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}}.$
- ② For $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $t \in \mathbb{R}$, we have $\frac{\partial t f(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = t \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}}$.
- For $\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, we have $\frac{\partial \operatorname{tr}(\mathbf{A}^{\top} \mathbf{X})}{\partial \mathbf{X}} = \mathbf{A}$.
- For $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have $\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{A} + \mathbf{A}^{\top}) \mathbf{x}$.

 If \mathbf{A} is symmetric, we have $\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{\top} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = 2\mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$.

We can find more results in the matrix cookbook: https://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~hwolkowi/matrixcookbook.pdf

Hessian

Suppose that $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is a twice differentiable function. Then its Hessian with respect to \mathbf{x} , written as $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})$, which is defined as

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_n \partial x_n} \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}.$$

Taylor's expansion:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{a}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{a})^{\top} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a})^{\top} \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{a}) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}).$$

Outline

Course Overview

2 Linear Algebra

3 Convex Optimization

Convex Function

A function $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex if it holds

$$f(\alpha \mathbf{x} + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{y}) \le \alpha f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \alpha)f(\mathbf{y})$$

for all $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\alpha \in [0, 1]$.

Theorem (first-order condition)

If a function $f:\mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable, then it is convex if and only if

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \geq f(\mathbf{x}) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} \rangle$$

holds for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^d$.

If a function $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex and differentiable, then \mathbf{x}^* is the global minimizer of $f(\cdot)$ if and only if $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$.

Convex Function

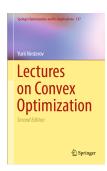
Theorem (second-order condition)

If a function $f:\mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is twice differentiable, then it is convex if and only if

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \succeq \mathbf{0}$$

holds for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$.







Example: Least Squares

Consider the least square problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \left\| \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b} \right\|_2^2.$$

where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is full rank, $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $m \ge n$.

The solution is

$$\mathbf{x}^* = (\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{b}.$$

Pseudo Inverse

Let $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U}_r \mathbf{\Sigma}_r \mathbf{V}_r^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ be the condense SVD, where r is the rank of \mathbf{A} . We define the pseudo inverse of \mathbf{A} as

$$\mathbf{A}^{\dagger} = \mathbf{V}_r \mathbf{\Sigma}_r^{-1} \mathbf{U}_r^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}.$$

In special case, we have

- If $rank(\mathbf{A}) = n$, we have $\mathbf{A}^{\dagger} = (\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A})^{-1}\mathbf{A}^{\top}$.
- ② If $rank(\mathbf{A}) = m$, we have $\mathbf{A}^{\dagger} = \mathbf{A}^{\top}(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\top})^{-1}$.
- **3** If **A** is square and non-singular, we have $\mathbf{A}^{\dagger} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}$.

The solution of the general least square problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2$$

is
$$\{\mathbf x: \mathbf x = \mathbf A^\dagger \mathbf b + (\mathbf I - \mathbf A^\dagger \mathbf A) \mathbf y, \, \mathbf y \in \mathbb R^n \}$$
.

Gradient Descent Method

We consider the optimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}}f(\mathbf{x}),$$

where $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable.

The most popular method is gradient descent, which follows

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \mathbf{x}_t - \eta_t \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t),$$

where $\eta_t > 0$.

Examples: Adversarial Attack

+.007 ×



"panda" 57.7% confidence



noise



"gibbon" 99.3 % confidence

We can only access the output of a big model.

Zeroth-Order Optimization

We consider the optimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^d} f(\mathbf{x}),$$

where the gradient of $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is difficult to access.

We can solve the problem by iteration

$$\mathbf{x}_{t+1} = \mathbf{x}_t - \eta_t \cdot \frac{f(\mathbf{x}_t + \delta \mathbf{u}_t) - f(\mathbf{x}_t)}{\delta} \cdot \mathbf{u}_t$$

for some $\eta_t > 0$ and $\delta > 0$, where $\mathbf{u}_t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is a random vector.

It also works for nonsmooth nonconvex optimization.