Handout

Review of Linear Algebra, Matrix Computations, Derivatives and Convexity

MIE 1624H October 9, 2018

Review of derivatives, gradients and Hessians:

- Given a function f of n variables x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n , we use the following notations to represent the vector of variables and the function: $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)^T$, $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$
- The gradient extends the notion of derivative, the Hessian matrix that of second derivative.
- We define the partial derivative relative to variable x_i , written as $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$, to be the derivative of f with respect to x_i treating all variables except x_i as constant.
- The gradient of f at x, written as $\nabla f(x)$, is

$$abla f(oldsymbol{x}) = \left(egin{array}{c} rac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ rac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \\ dots \\ rac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{array}
ight)$$

The gradient of f is a multivariate function of x, $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$, $\nabla f(x) \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

- The gradient vector $\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x})$ gives the direction of steepest ascent of the function f at point \boldsymbol{x} .

 The gradient acts like the derivative in that small changes around a given point \boldsymbol{x}^* can be estimated using the gradient (see first-order Taylor series expansion and finite difference method).
- Second partial derivatives $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$ are obtained from $f(\boldsymbol{x})$ by taking the derivative relative to x_i (this yields the first partial derivative $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$) and then by taking the derivative of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$ relative to x_j . So, we can compute $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2}$, $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2}$ and so on. This values are arranged into the Hessian matrix:

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

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The Hessian matrix is a symmetric matrix, that is $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_j \partial x_i}$.

Computing gradients and Hessians:

Example

Compute the gradient and the Hessian of the function $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - 3x_1x_2 + x_2^2$ at the point $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2)^T = (1, 1)^T$.

$$\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \left(\begin{array}{c} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 2x_1 - 3x_2 \\ -3x_1 + 2x_2 \end{array} \right) = \left(\begin{array}{c} -1 \\ -1 \end{array} \right)$$

$$\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -3 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Taylor series expansion:

Second-order Taylor series expansion:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + \nabla f(x_0)^T (x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2} (x - x_0)^T \nabla^2 f(x_0) (x - x_0)$$

First-order Taylor series expansion:

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}) = f(\boldsymbol{x}_0) + \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}_0)^T (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}_0)$$

Example

 $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - 3x_1x_2 + x_2^2$, compute f(1.01, 1.01) using first- and second-order Taylor series expansion at the point $\mathbf{x}_0 = (1, 1)^T$.

First-order Taylor series expansion:

$$f(1.01, 1.01) = f(1, 1) + \nabla f(1, 1)^{T} \begin{pmatrix} 1.01 - 1 \\ 1.01 - 1 \end{pmatrix} = -1 + (-1, -1) \begin{pmatrix} 0.01 \\ 0.01 \end{pmatrix} = -1.02$$

Second-order Taylor series expansion:

$$f(1.01, 1.01) = f(1, 1) + \nabla f(1, 1)^{T} \begin{pmatrix} 0.01 \\ 0.01 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2}(0.01, 0.01)\nabla^{2} f(1, 1) \begin{pmatrix} 0.01 \\ 0.01 \end{pmatrix} =$$

$$= -1 + (-1, -1) \begin{pmatrix} 0.01 \\ 0.01 \end{pmatrix} + \frac{1}{2}(0.01, 0.01) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -3 \\ -3 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0.01 \\ 0.01 \end{pmatrix} = -1.0201$$

Convex functions:

Definition A function f is convex if for any x^1 , $x^2 \in C$ and $0 \le \lambda \le 1$

$$f(\lambda \mathbf{x}^1 + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{x}^2) \le \lambda f(\mathbf{x}^1) + (1 - \lambda)f(\mathbf{x}^2).$$

A square matrix \mathbf{A} said to be positive definite (PD) if $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \neq 0$.

A square matrix \boldsymbol{A} said to be positive semidefinite (PSD) if $\boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{A} \boldsymbol{x} \geq 0$ for all \boldsymbol{x} .

Hessian $\nabla f^2(x)$ is PD \Longrightarrow strictly convex function.

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Checking a matrix for PD and PSD by computing principal minors:

Leading principal minors D_k , k = 1, 2, ..., n of a matrix $\mathbf{A} = (a_{ij})_{[n \times n]}$ are defined as

$$D_k = \det \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1k} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{k1} & \dots & a_{kk} \end{pmatrix}$$

A square matrix \mathbf{A} is PD $\Leftrightarrow D_k > 0$ for all $k = 1, 2, \dots, n$.

Example

Consider the function $f(\mathbf{x}) = 3x_1^2 + 3x_2^2 + 5x_3^2 - 2x_1x_2$. The corresponding Hessian matrix is

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = 2 \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Leading principal minors of $\nabla^2 f(x)$ are

$$D_1 = 2 \cdot 3 = 6 > 0$$
, $D_2 = 2 \cdot \det \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} = 2[3 \cdot 3 - (-1)(-1)] = 2 \cdot 8 = 16 > 0$,

$$D_{3} = 2 \cdot \det \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$= 2([3 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 + 0 \cdot 0 \cdot (-1) + 0 \cdot 0 \cdot (-1)] - [0 \cdot 0 \cdot 3 + 0 \cdot 0 \cdot 3 + (-1) \cdot (-1) \cdot 5])$$

$$= 2 \cdot 40 = 80 > 0$$

So, the Hessian is positive definite (PD) and the function is strictly convex.

A square matrix \mathbf{A} is PSD \Leftrightarrow all the principal minors of \mathbf{A} are ≥ 0 .

The principal minor is

$$\det \begin{pmatrix} a_{i_1 i_1} & \dots & a_{i_1 i_p} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{i_p i_1} & \dots & a_{i_p i_p} \end{pmatrix}, \text{ where } 1 \leq i_1 < i_2 < \dots < i_p \leq n, \ p \leq n.$$

Checking if symmetric matrix is PD or PSD by computing its eigenvalues:

Definition Any number λ such that the equation $Ax = \lambda x$ has a non-zero vector-solution x is called an eigenvalue (or a characteristic root) of the equation.

A symmetric matrix is PD if its eigenvalues $\lambda_i > 0$ for all i = 1, 2, ..., n and PSD if $\lambda_i \geq 0$.

How to calculate eigenvalues: $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \lambda \mathbf{x} = 0 \Rightarrow (\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{x} = 0$. Since \mathbf{x} is non-zero, the determinant of $(\mathbf{A} - \lambda \mathbf{I})$ should vanish. Therefore all eigenvalues can be calculated as roots of the equation (which is often called the characteristic equation of \mathbf{A}):

$$\det(\boldsymbol{A} - \lambda \boldsymbol{I}) = 0.$$

Example

Consider the Hessian matrix

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$

Computing eigenvalues

$$\det(\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}) - \lambda \boldsymbol{I}) = \begin{pmatrix} 3 - \lambda & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 3 - \lambda & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 5 - \lambda \end{pmatrix} = (5 - \lambda)(\lambda^2 - 6\lambda + 8) = (5 - \lambda)(\lambda - 2)(\lambda - 4) = 0.$$

Therefore, the eigenvalues are $\lambda = 2$, $\lambda = 4$ and $\lambda = 5$. As ll of them are strictly positive, the Hessian is positive definite (PD).

Try computing eigenvalues and determinants in Python:

```
import numpy as np
H = np.matrix( ((3,-1,0), (-1,3,0), (0,0,5)) )
eigenvalues, eigenvectors = np.linalg.eig(H)
determinant = np.linalg.det(H)
```

Properties of convex functions:

- if f is convex function, its sublevel set $f(x) \leq \alpha$ is convex;
- positive multiple of convex function is convex:

f convex, $\alpha \ge 0 \implies \alpha f$ convex

• sum of convex functions is convex:

 $f_1, f_2 \text{ convex} \implies f_1 + f_2 \text{ convex}$

• pointwise maximum of convex functions is convex:

 $f_1, f_2 \text{ convex} \implies \max\{f_1(\boldsymbol{x}), f_2(\boldsymbol{x})\} \text{ convex}$ (corresponds to intersections of epigraphs)

• affine transformation of domain:

 $f \text{ convex} \implies f(\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}) \text{ convex}$

Composition rules:

Composite function

f(x) = h(g(x))

is convex if:

- g convex; h convex nondecreasing
- g concave; h convex nonincreasing

Proof (differentiable functions, $x \in \Re$):

$$f'' = h''(q')^2 + q''h'$$

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Examples:

- $f(x) = e^{g(x)}$ is convex if g is convex
- f(x) = 1/g(x) is convex if g is concave, positive
- $f(x) = g(x)^p$, $p \ge 1$ is convex if g(x) is convex, positive

Examples

Show that the function $e^x + \frac{1}{2}x^2$ is convex and solve min $e^x + \frac{1}{2}x^2$.

First derivative: A function is increasing if f' > 0, decreasing if f' < 0 and neither if f' = 0. Second derivative: A function is convex if f'' > 0 and concave if f'' < 0.

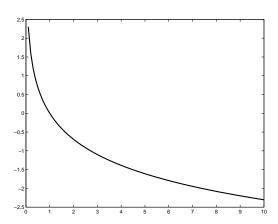
Answer: $f'(x) = e^x + x$ and $f''(x) = e^x + 1 > 0$. So, f is convex.

Thus, we can find a solution to an optimization problem by solving f'(x) = 0, given f is convex.

Find the local/global minimum of the functions if exists:

 $\bullet - \ln x$

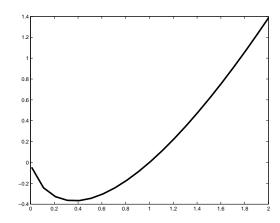
 $f'(x)=-1/x,\ f''(x)=1/x^2>0$ - strictly convex function. $f'(x)=-1/x=0\implies x\to\infty$



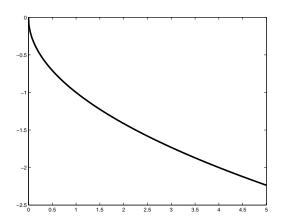
 $\bullet x \ln x$

 $f'(x) = 1 + \ln x$, f''(x) = 1/x > 0 on the domain of $\ln x \Rightarrow$ strictly convex function.

 $f'(x) = 1 + \ln x = 0 \implies x = 0.37$ (global minimum).



• $-\sqrt{x}$ when $x \ge 0$ $f'(x) = -0.5x^{-1/2}$, $f''(x) = 0.25x^{-3/2} \ge 0$ when $x \ge 0 \Rightarrow$ convex function. $f'(x) = -0.5x^{-1/2} = 0 \implies x \to \infty$.



• $(x_1-2)^2+(x_2+1)^2-2$

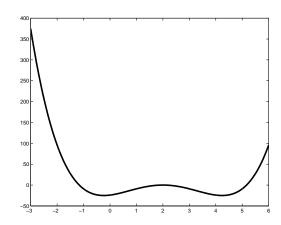
$$\nabla f(x) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 2(x_1 - 2) \\ 2(x_2 + 1) \end{array}\right)$$

$$\nabla^2 f(x) = \left(\begin{array}{cc} 2 & 0\\ 0 & 2 \end{array}\right) \succ 0$$

As $\nabla^2 f(x)$ is PD, f(x) is strictly convex function.

$$\nabla f(x) = 0 \implies x = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 (global minimum).

• $(x-2)^4 - 10(x-2)^2$ $f'(x) = 4(x-2)^3 - 20(x-2)$, $f''(x) = 12(x-2)^2 - 20$ - non-convex, non-concave function.



Example of Newton Method

Consider minimizing the function $f(x_1, x_2) = e^{x_1 + x_2 - 2} + (x_1 - x_2)^2$. Given $\mathbf{x}^0 = (1, 1)^T$, apply a full Newton step and compute \mathbf{x}^1 .

$$\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{x_1 + x_2 - 2} + 2(x_1 - x_2) \\ e^{x_1 + x_2 - 2} - 2(x_1 - x_2) \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} e^{x_1 + x_2 - 2} + 2 & e^{x_1 + x_2 - 2} - 2 \\ e^{x_1 + x_2 - 2} - 2 & e^{x_1 + x_2 - 2} + 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\boldsymbol{x}^1 = \boldsymbol{x}^0 - (\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}^0))^{-1} \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^0)$$

So

$$\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^0) = \begin{pmatrix} 1\\1 \end{pmatrix}$$
$$\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}^0) = \begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1\\-1 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$$

Instead of inverting matrix $\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}^0)$, which is costly, we can solve the system of equations. Please note that if want to compute $y = A^{-1}b$, we can solve the system of equations Ay = b to find y. So we can solve $\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}^0)y = \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^0)$ to get $y = (\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}^0))^{-1} \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^0)$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} 3 & -1 \\ -1 & 3 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} y_1 = 0.5 \\ y_2 = 0.5 \end{cases}$$

Thus,

$$\mathbf{x}^{1} = \mathbf{x}^{0} - \left(\nabla^{2} f(\mathbf{x}^{0})\right)^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{0})$$
$$= \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ 0.5 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}^1) = 0.3679 < f(\mathbf{x}^0) = 1$$