# Appendix A: Mathematical Background

### **Norms: vector**

Inner product

$$\langle x, y \rangle = x^T y = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i$$
 for  $x, y \in \mathbf{R}^n$ 

Euclidean norm or l<sub>2</sub>-norm

$$||x||_2 = (x^T x)^{1/2} = (x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2)^{1/2}$$

Angle

$$\angle(x,y) = \cos^{-1}\left(\frac{x^T y}{\|x\|_2 \|y\|_2}\right)$$

## **Norms: matrix**

Inner product

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = \mathbf{tr}(X^T Y) = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n X_{ij} Y_{ij} \quad \text{for } X, Y \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$$

Frobenius norm

$$||X||_F = (\mathbf{tr}(X^T X))^{1/2} = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n X_{ij}^2\right)^{1/2}$$

Sum-absolute-value, or ℓ₁-norm

$$||x||_1 = |x_1| + \dots + |x_n|$$

Chebyshev or <sup>1</sup>√∞-norm

$$||x||_{\infty} = \max\{|x_1|,\ldots,|x_n|\}$$

•  $\ell_p$ -norm

$$||x||_p = (|x_1|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p)^{1/p}$$
 with  $p \ge 1$ 

ℓ₁-norm

$$\lim_{p \to \infty} ||x||_p = \max\{|x_1|, \dots, |x_n|\}$$

Sum-absolute-value norm

$$||X||_{\text{sav}} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} |X_{ij}|$$

Maximum-absolute-value norm

$$||X||_{\text{max}} = \max\{|X_{ij}| \mid i = 1, \dots, m, \ j = 1, \dots, n\}$$

# **Analysis: Interior point**

## Interior point

An element  $x \in C \subseteq \mathbf{R}^n$  is called an *interior* point of C if there exists an  $\epsilon > 0$  for which

$$\{y \mid ||y - x||_2 \le \epsilon\} \subseteq C,$$

i.e., there exists a ball centered at x that lies entirely in C.

- The set of all points interior to C is called the interior of C and is denoted intC
- Open: A set C is open if int C = C, i.e., every point in C is an interior point.
- Closed:

A set  $C \subseteq \mathbf{R}^n$  is *closed* if its complement  $\mathbf{R}^n \setminus C = \{x \in \mathbf{R}^n \mid x \notin C\}$  is open.

# **Analysis: Closure and Boundary**

• Closure of a set C:  $\operatorname{cl} C = \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \operatorname{int}(\mathbb{R}^n \setminus C)$ 

i.e., the complement of the interior of the complement of C. A point x is in the closure of C if for every  $\epsilon > 0$ , there is a  $y \in C$  with  $||x - y||_2 \le \epsilon$ .

• Boundary of the set C:  $\mathbf{bd} C = \mathbf{cl} C \setminus \mathbf{int} C$ 

A boundary point x (i.e., a point  $x \in \mathbf{bd} C$ ) satisfies the following property: For all  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists  $y \in C$  and  $z \notin C$  with

$$||y - x||_2 \le \epsilon, \qquad ||z - x||_2 \le \epsilon,$$

i.e., there exist arbitrarily close points in C, and also arbitrarily close points not in C.

# **Supremum and infimum**

## Supremum sup C

Suppose  $C \subseteq \mathbf{R}$ . A number a is an upper bound on C if for each  $x \in C$ ,  $x \leq a$ . The set of upper bounds on a set C is either empty (in which case we say C is unbounded above), all of  $\mathbf{R}$  (only when  $C = \emptyset$ ), or a closed infinite interval  $[b, \infty)$ .

The number b is called the *least upper bound* or *supremum* of the set C

• Infimum  $\inf C = -\sup(-C)$ 

A number a is a lower bound on  $C \subseteq \mathbf{R}$  if for each  $x \in C$ ,  $a \le x$ .

## **Functions**

• Notation  $f: A \rightarrow B$ 

we mean that f is a function on the set  $\operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f \subseteq A$  into the set B; in particular we can have  $\operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f$  a proper subset of the set A.

Example

$$f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$$

means that f maps (some) n-vectors into m-vectors; it does not mean that f(x) is defined for every  $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$ .

$$- f: \mathbf{S}^n \to \mathbf{R}$$

$$f(X) = \log \det X$$
, with  $\operatorname{dom} f = \mathbf{S}_{++}^n$ .

## **Derivatives**

#### Definition

Suppose  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$  and  $x \in \operatorname{int} \operatorname{dom} f$ . The function f is differentiable at x if there exists a matrix  $Df(x) \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$  that satisfies

$$\lim_{z \in \text{dom } f, \ z \neq x, \ z \to x} \frac{\|f(z) - f(x) - Df(x)(z - x)\|_2}{\|z - x\|_2} = 0, \tag{A.4}$$

in which case we refer to Df(x) as the *derivative* (or *Jacobian*) of f at x. (There can be at most one matrix that satisfies (A.4).) The function f is differentiable if  $\operatorname{dom} f$  is open, and it is differentiable at every point in its domain.

#### Partial derivatives

$$Df(x)_{ij} = \frac{\partial f_i(x)}{\partial x_j}, \qquad i = 1, \dots, m, \quad j = 1, \dots, n.$$

## **Gradient**

#### Definition

When f is real-valued (i.e.,  $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ ) the derivative Df(x) is a  $1 \times n$  matrix, i.e., it is a row vector. Its transpose is called the gradient of the function:

$$\nabla f(x) = Df(x)^T,$$

which is a (column) vector, *i.e.*, in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Its components are the partial derivatives of f:

$$\nabla f(x)_i = \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_i}, \quad i = 1, \dots, n.$$

The first-order approximation of f at a point  $x \in \mathbf{int} \operatorname{dom} f$  can be expressed as (the affine function of z)

$$f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (z - x).$$

As a simple example consider the quadratic function  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ ,

$$f(x) = (1/2)x^{T}Px + q^{T}x + r,$$

where  $P \in \mathbf{S}^n$ ,  $q \in \mathbf{R}^n$ , and  $r \in \mathbf{R}$ . Its derivative at x is the row vector  $Df(x) = x^T P + q^T$ , and its gradient is

$$\nabla f(x) = Px + q.$$

$$f(X) = \log \det X, \quad \mathbf{dom} \ f = \mathbf{S}_{++}^{n}. \qquad \nabla f(X) = X^{-1}$$

$$\log \det Z = \log \det(X + \Delta X)$$

$$= \log \det \left( X^{1/2} (I + X^{-1/2} \Delta X X^{-1/2}) X^{1/2} \right)$$

$$= \log \det X + \log \det(I + X^{-1/2} \Delta X X^{-1/2})$$

$$= \log \det X + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \lambda_i),$$

$$\log \det Z \approx \log \det X + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i$$

$$= \log \det X + \mathbf{tr}(X^{-1/2} \Delta X X^{-1/2})$$

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## **Chain rule**

Suppose  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$  is differentiable at  $x \in \operatorname{int dom} f$  and  $g: \mathbf{R}^m \to \mathbf{R}^p$  is differentiable at  $f(x) \in \operatorname{int dom} g$ . Define the composition  $h: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^p$  by h(z) = g(f(z)). Then h is differentiable at x, with derivative

$$Dh(x) = Dg(f(x))Df(x). (A.5)$$

As an example, suppose  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ ,  $g: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ , and h(x) = g(f(x)). Taking the transpose of Dh(x) = Dg(f(x))Df(x) yields

$$\nabla h(x) = g'(f(x))\nabla f(x). \tag{A.6}$$

# **Composition with affine function**

Suppose  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}^m$  is differentiable,  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{n \times p}$ , and  $b \in \mathbf{R}^n$ . Define  $g: \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}^m$  as g(x) = f(Ax + b), with  $\operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} g = \{x \mid Ax + b \in \operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f\}$ . The derivative of g is, by the chain rule (A.5), Dg(x) = Df(Ax + b)A.

When f is real-valued (i.e., m = 1), we obtain the formula for the gradient of a composition of a function with an affine function,

$$\nabla g(x) = A^T \nabla f(Ax + b).$$

For example, suppose that  $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ ,  $x, v \in \mathbf{R}^n$ , and we define the function  $\tilde{f}: \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$  by  $\tilde{f}(t) = f(x+tv)$ . (Roughly speaking,  $\tilde{f}$  is f, restricted to the line  $\{x+tv \mid t \in \mathbf{R}\}$ .) Then we have

$$D\tilde{f}(t) = \tilde{f}'(t) = \nabla f(x + tv)^T v.$$

**Example A.2** Consider the function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ , with  $\operatorname{dom} f = \mathbb{R}^n$  and

$$f(x) = \log \sum_{i=1}^{m} \exp(a_i^T x + b_i),$$

where  $a_1, \ldots, a_m \in \mathbf{R}^n$ , and  $b_1, \ldots, b_m \in \mathbf{R}$ . We can find a simple expression for its gradient by noting that it is the composition of the affine function Ax + b, where  $A \in \mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$  with rows  $a_1^T, \ldots, a_m^T$ , and the function  $g : \mathbf{R}^m \to \mathbf{R}$  given by  $g(y) = \log(\sum_{i=1}^m \exp y_i)$ . Simple differentiation (or the formula (A.6)) shows that

$$\nabla g(y) = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \exp y_i} \begin{bmatrix} \exp y_1 \\ \vdots \\ \exp y_m \end{bmatrix}, \tag{A.7}$$

so by the composition formula we have

$$\nabla f(x) = \frac{1}{\mathbf{1}^T z} A^T z$$

where  $z_i = \exp(a_i^T x + b_i), i = 1, ..., m.$ 

## **Second derivative**

In this section we review the second derivative of a real-valued function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ . The second derivative or *Hessian matrix* of f at  $x \in \operatorname{int} \operatorname{dom} f$ , denoted  $\nabla^2 f(x)$ , is given by

$$\nabla^2 f(x)_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}, \qquad i = 1, \dots, n, \quad j = 1, \dots, n,$$

provided f is twice differentiable at x, where the partial derivatives are evaluated at x. The second-order approximation of f, at or near x, is the quadratic function of z defined by

$$\widehat{f}(z) = f(x) + \nabla f(x)^{T} (z - x) + (1/2)(z - x)^{T} \nabla^{2} f(x)(z - x).$$

$$f(x) = (1/2)x^{T}Px + q^{T}x + r,$$

where  $P \in \mathbf{S}^n$ ,  $q \in \mathbf{R}^n$ , and  $r \in \mathbf{R}$ . Its gradient is  $\nabla f(x) = Px + q$ , so its Hessian is given by  $\nabla^2 f(x) = P$ . The second-order approximation of a quadratic function is itself.

$$\begin{split} f(X) &= \log \det X, \text{ with } \mathbf{dom} \ f = \mathbf{S}^n_{++} \\ \nabla f(X) &= X^{-1} \\ \text{For } Z \in \mathbf{S}^n_{++} \text{ near } X \in \mathbf{S}^n_{++}, \text{ and } \Delta X = Z - X \\ Z^{-1} &= (X + \Delta X)^{-1} \\ &= \left( X^{1/2} (I + X^{-1/2} \Delta X X^{-1/2}) X^{1/2} \right)^{-1} \\ &= X^{-1/2} (I + X^{-1/2} \Delta X X^{-1/2})^{-1} X^{-1/2} \\ &\approx X^{-1/2} (I - X^{-1/2} \Delta X X^{-1/2}) X^{-1/2} \\ &= X^{-1} - X^{-1} \Delta X X^{-1}, \end{split}$$

from the first-order approximation of the gradient above, the quadratic form can be expressed as  $-\mathbf{tr}(X^{-1}UX^{-1}V)$   $(\log x)'' = -1/x^2$ 

$$f(Z) = f(X + \Delta X)$$

$$\approx f(X) + \operatorname{tr}(X^{-1}\Delta X) - (1/2)\operatorname{tr}(X^{-1}\Delta X X^{-1}\Delta X)$$

$$\approx f(X) + \operatorname{tr}(X^{-1}(Z - X)) - (1/2)\operatorname{tr}(X^{-1}(Z - X)X^{-1}(Z - X)) \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$$