

Plan :

Basic Matrix Operations

Vector Spaces

Solving Linear Systems

Orthogonality, Projections and Determinants

SVD and Low Rank Approximation

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

Convexity and Quadratic Programming

Gradient Descent

Zero Sum Games and Linear Programming

Basic Operations

Let $u = [u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n]^T$, $v = [v_1, \dots, v_n]^T$

• Dot product $u \cdot v$

$$= u_1 v_1 + u_2 v_2 + \dots + u_n v_n$$

$$= \underline{u^T v} = \underline{v^T u}$$

• Transpose $(AB)^T = B^T A^T$
 $(A+B)^T = A^T + B^T$

• Vector magnitude

$$\begin{aligned} |u|^2 &= u_1^2 + u_2^2 + \dots + u_n^2 \\ &= \underline{u^T u} = u \cdot u \end{aligned}$$

• Inverse If A, B are invertible

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

Exercise: express $\|Ax - b\|^2$ in a matrix product form

$$\|Ax - b\|^2 = (Ax - b)^T (Ax - b)$$

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

$$= (x^T A^T - b^T) (Ax - b) = - (Ax)^T b + b^T b$$

$$= x^T A^T Ax - 2b^T Ax + b^T b$$

Matrix Operations $A = \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} \\ \text{---} \\ \text{---} \\ \text{---} \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}$, $B = \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} \\ \text{---} \\ \text{---} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times p}$

① Entry-wise: $C_{ik} = \sum_{j=1}^n A_{i,j} B_{j,k}$ for all $1 \leq i \leq m$
 $1 \leq k \leq p$

② Inner Product: C_{ik} = dot product of row i in A
 column j in B

$$i \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} \\ \text{---} \\ \text{---} \end{bmatrix}^j = i \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} \end{bmatrix}^j$$

③ Column-wise product: $AB = A \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ B_1 & B_2 & \dots & B_k \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ AB_1 & AB_2 & \dots & AB_k \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix}$

Exercise: Write $\begin{cases} Ax_1 = b_1 \\ Ax_2 = b_2 \\ Ax_3 = b_3 \end{cases}$ in one matrix product eq.

$$A \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | \\ b_1 & b_2 & b_3 \\ | & | & | \end{bmatrix}$$

④ Outer Product

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & \dots & | \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_n \\ | & | & \dots & | \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} b_1^T \text{---} \\ \text{---} b_2^T \text{---} \\ \vdots \\ \text{---} b_n^T \text{---} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times p}$$

$$AB = \underbrace{a_1}_{m \times 1} \underbrace{b_1^T}_{1 \times p} + a_2 b_2^T + \dots + a_n b_n^T = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i^T$$

$m \times p$

Example:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & 0 \\ 2 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & 3 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$= \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 2 & -2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -3 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -4 \\ 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$$

④ Outer Product

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}_{m \times n}, \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} b_1^T \text{---} \\ \text{---} b_2^T \text{---} \\ \vdots \\ \text{---} b_n^T \text{---} \end{bmatrix}_{n \times p}$$

$$AB = a_1 b_1^T + a_2 b_2^T + \dots + a_n b_n^T = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i^T$$

The outer product has been useful in many applications!

Example: projection matrix on space spanned by orthonormal vectors $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$

$$P = v_1 v_1^T + v_2 v_2^T + \dots + v_n v_n^T \leftarrow \text{We will get to this later today}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} v_1^T \text{---} \\ \text{---} v_2^T \text{---} \\ \vdots \\ \text{---} v_n^T \text{---} \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: SVD forms

Vector Spaces

V is a **vector space** (over reals) if:

① V is closed under scaling: $v \in V, \alpha \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \alpha v \in V$

② V is closed under addition: $v, w \in V \Rightarrow v + w \in V$

Examples: $\text{span}\left\{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 8 \end{bmatrix}\right\}$, $C(A)$, $N(A)$ and many others $\begin{bmatrix} x \\ -x \end{bmatrix}$

Column Space

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ a_1 & a_2 & \dots & a_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\Rightarrow C(A) = \text{span}\{a_1, a_2, \dots, a_n\}$$

$$C(A) = \{Ax \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$$

$$(Ax = b \Rightarrow b \in C(A))$$

$$Ax = \begin{bmatrix} | \\ a_1 \\ | \end{bmatrix} x_1 + \begin{bmatrix} | \\ a_2 \\ | \end{bmatrix} x_2 + \dots + \begin{bmatrix} | \\ a_n \\ | \end{bmatrix} x_n$$

Null Space

$$N(A) = \{x \mid Ax = 0\}$$

Linear Independance: $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ are linearly independent if any linear that results in a zero must be trivial

$$\lambda_1 v_1 + \lambda_2 v_2 + \dots + \lambda_n v_n = 0 \Leftrightarrow \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \dots = \lambda_n = 0$$

Generators: $\{v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n\}$ are generators of V if

$$\text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} = V$$

Basis: $\{v_1, \dots, v_n\}$ are basis V if $v_1, \dots, v_n$ are L.I.
and $\text{span}\{v_1, \dots, v_n\} = V$
 $\dim V = \# \text{ basis}$

rank(A) $\begin{matrix} \nearrow = \\ \rightarrow = \\ \searrow = \end{matrix}$ $\begin{matrix} \text{max \# of L.I. columns} = \dim(\text{column space}) \\ \text{max \# of L.I. rows} = \dim(\text{row space}) \\ \text{\# of pivots in the rref of A} \end{matrix}$

Rank-Nullity Theorem: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ $\text{rank } A + \dim N(A) = n$
 $\# \text{ pivots} \quad \quad \quad \# \text{ free variables}$

How to show check if $v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n$ are L.I.?

Some ideas:

① Can we easily write one of them as a linear combination of the others? $\begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 2 \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 1 \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$

② Is the number of vectors more than their dimension? L.D.

③ Check $A = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \end{bmatrix}$. If it's invertible $\Rightarrow$ L.I.
otherwise $\Rightarrow$ L.D.

because $A \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} x_1 + \begin{bmatrix} v_2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} x_2 + \dots + \begin{bmatrix} v_n \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} x_n$

Inverse of a square matrix

$A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is invertible

$$\Leftrightarrow N(A) = \{0\}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \text{rank}(A) = n$$

$$\Leftrightarrow C(A) = \mathbb{R}^n$$

$$\Leftrightarrow A \text{ has linearly independent columns}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow A \text{ has } n \text{ pivots in ref}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \det(A) \neq 0$$

Example: inverse of $\begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ c & d \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{\det(A)} \begin{bmatrix} d & -b \\ -c & a \end{bmatrix}$

$\det(A) \neq 0$

Solving $\overset{m \times n}{A} \overset{n \times 1}{x} = \overset{m \times 1}{b}$

$$C(A) = \{ \overset{m \times 1}{Ax} \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n \}$$

- If b is not in the column space of $A \rightarrow$ no solution
- If b is in $C(A)$:

$$\text{If } \overset{m \times 1}{A} \overset{n \times 1}{x_p} = b \text{ and } \overset{m \times 1}{A} \overset{n \times 1}{x_h} = 0 \quad (\text{i.e. } x_h \in N(A))$$

$$\text{Then } A(\underline{x_p + x_h}) = \underline{Ax_p} + Ax_h = b + 0 = b$$

Therefore $x_p + x_h$ solves $Ax = b$

In general, any solution for $Ax = b$ can be written

as $\underset{\{0\}}{x_p + x_h}$ for some $x_h \in N(A)$ x_h, x_h'

$\begin{matrix} x_p + x_h \\ x_p + x_h' \end{matrix}$

Solving $Ax=b$

We can use Gaussian Elimination to solve it

$$\# \text{ free variables} = \dim(N(A))$$

$$\# \text{ pivots} = \dim(C(A))$$

$$\begin{cases} x - 2y + 3z = 4 \\ x + y - 3z = 7 \\ 3x - 4y + 5z = 8 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{array}{ccc|c} \overset{x}{1} & \overset{y}{-2} & \overset{z}{3} & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & -3 & 7 \\ 3 & -4 & 5 & 7 \end{array} \xrightarrow{\text{G.E.}} \dots \rightarrow \begin{array}{ccc|c} \boxed{1} & -2 & 3 & 1 \\ 0 & \boxed{3} & -6 & 6 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}$$

$\overset{z}{\rightarrow} \text{free}$

ref

z can be
 $\rightarrow$ a free variable

$$\begin{cases} x = z + 5 \\ y = 2z + 2 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z+5 \\ 2z+2 \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + z \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \\ z \end{bmatrix} = \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 5 \\ 2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{x_p} + z \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}}_{x_h}$$

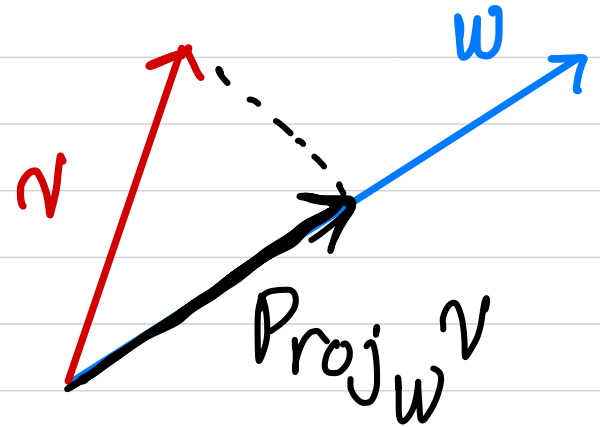
Orthogonality

- v and u are orthogonal vectors $\Leftrightarrow \begin{aligned} \langle v, u \rangle &= 0 \\ v^T u &= 0 \end{aligned}$
- V and W are orthogonal subspaces of $\mathbb{R}^n$ if $u \cdot w = 0$ for all $u \in V$ and $w \in W$
 $\dim V + \dim W \leq n$
- $V^\perp$ = largest orthogonal subspace to V
 $\dim V + \dim V^\perp = n$, $(V^\perp)^\perp = V$

Projection

Projecting a vector on another:

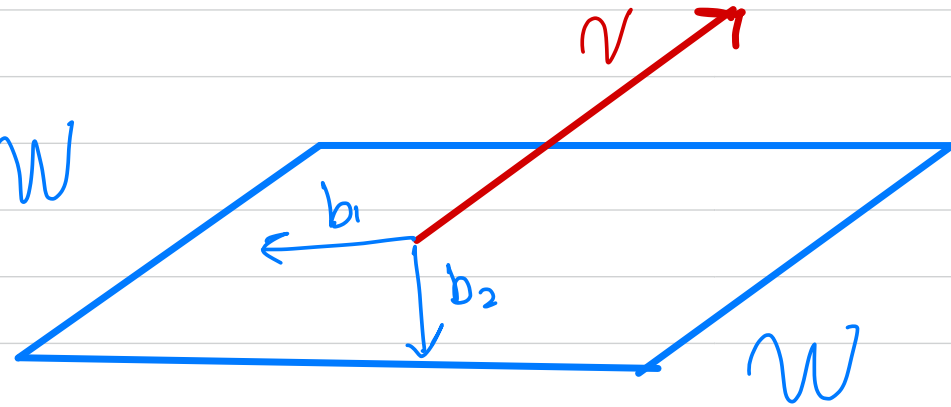
$$\text{Proj}_w v = \underbrace{\left(\frac{v \cdot w}{\|w\|^2} \right)}_{\text{scalar}} w \rightarrow \text{the vector } w.$$



When w is a unit vector $\text{Proj}_w v = (v \cdot w) w$

Projecting a vector on a space

Assume that $b_1, b_2, \dots, b_n$ are orthonormal bases of the space W



$$\text{proj}_W v = \sum_{i=1}^n \text{proj}_{b_i} v = \sum_{i=1}^n (v \cdot b_i) b_i$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^n b_i (v \cdot b_i) = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i (b_i^T v) = \sum_{i=1}^n (b_i b_i^T) v = P v$$

$$\text{let } P = \sum_{i=1}^n b_i b_i^T = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ b_1 & b_2 & \dots & b_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \text{---} b_1^T \text{---} \\ \text{---} b_2^T \text{---} \\ \vdots \\ \text{---} b_n^T \text{---} \end{bmatrix}$$

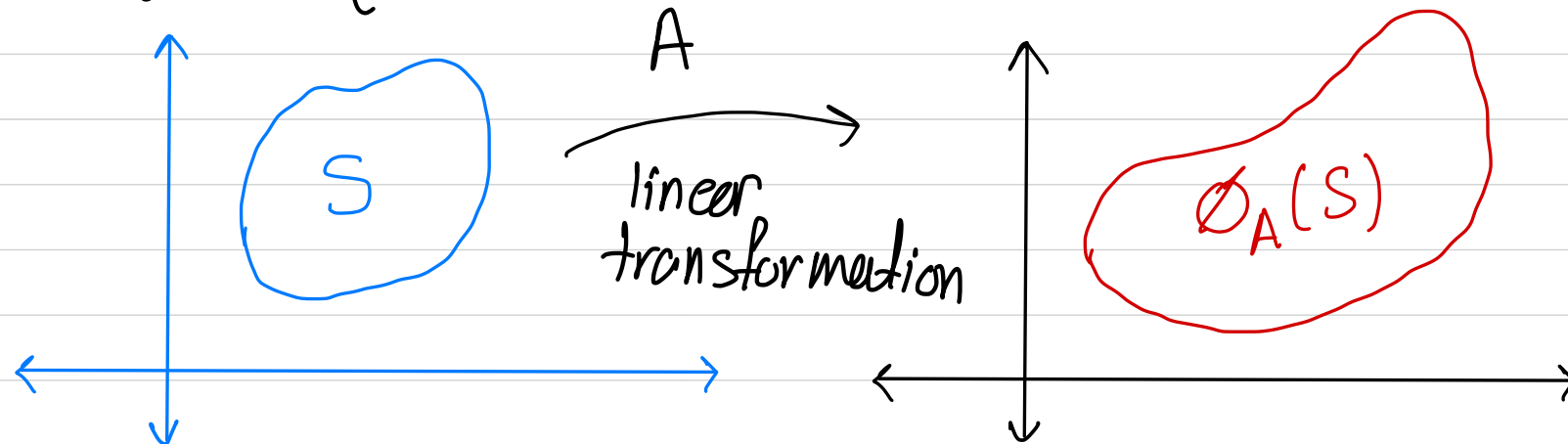
$$\text{proj}_W v = P v$$

Determinants

The determinant of a square matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is

the **scaling factor** between $\text{vol}(S)$ and $\text{vol}(\phi_A(S))$

where $\phi(S) = \{Ax : x \in S\}$



$$\bullet \det(A^T) = \det(A) \quad \bullet \det(AB) = \det(A) \det(B)$$

Ex. If P is a projection matrix, what's $\det(P)$?

$$P^2 = P \Rightarrow \det(P^2) = \det(P)$$

$$\Rightarrow \det(P)^2 = \det(P) \Rightarrow \det(P) = 0 \text{ or } 1$$

Orthogonal matrices

Q is orthogonal $\Leftrightarrow Q$ is a square matrix
and $Q^T Q = I$

if Q is an orthogonal matrix then

- $\|Qv\| = \|v\| \longrightarrow Q$ preserves length of v

proof: $\|Qv\|^2 = (Qv)^T Qv = v^T Q^T Q v$
 $= v^T I v = v^T v = \|v\|^2$

- $\langle Qv, Qu \rangle = \langle v, u \rangle \longrightarrow Q$ preserves $\cos$ of the angle
between u, v

Singular Value Decomposition (SVD)

$$A = U \Sigma V^T$$

A is $m \times n$
 U is $m \times m$ orthogonal matrix
 Σ is $n \times n$ diagonal matrix
 V^T is $n \times n$ orthogonal matrix

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ u_1 & u_2 & \dots & u_m \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \sigma_2 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \sigma_r & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ \downarrow \text{non zero} & & & & & & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} - & v_1^T & - \\ - & v_2^T & - \\ & \vdots & \\ - & v_n^T & - \end{bmatrix}$$

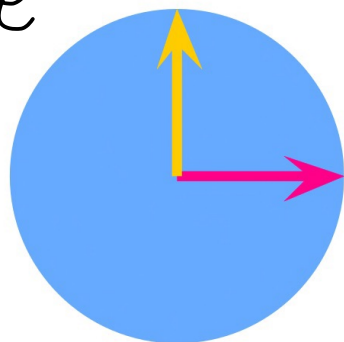
left singular vectors singular values right singular vectors

$$A = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T + \sigma_2 u_2 v_2^T + \dots + \sigma_r u_r v_r^T$$

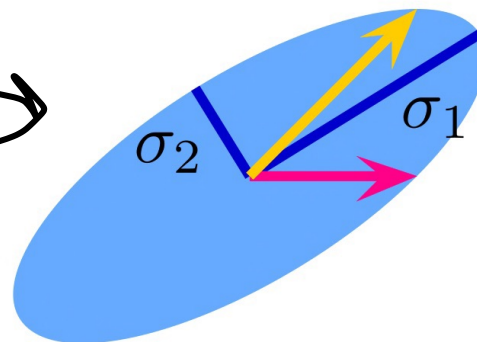
We can breakdown the linear map $A v = \underline{U} \underline{\Sigma} \underline{V}^T v$

$$A = U \begin{bmatrix} \underline{\sigma_1} & 0 \\ 0 & \underline{\sigma_2} \end{bmatrix} V^T \quad v \mapsto Av$$

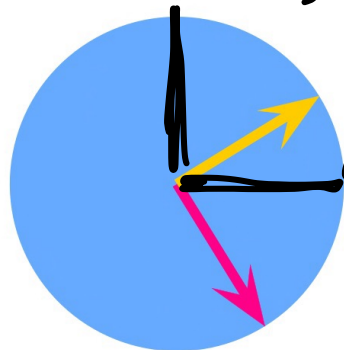
unit circle
↘



$v \mapsto Av$
↘

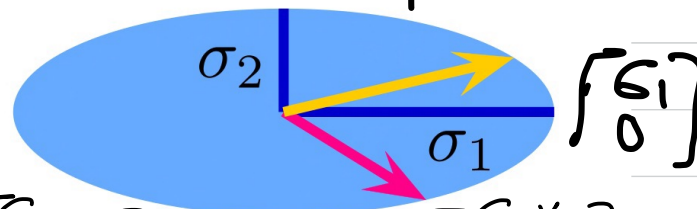


V^T : orthogonal matrix
↓
 $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$



Σ
diagonal
→

U : orthogonal matrix
↑
 $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \sigma_1 \end{bmatrix}$



$$\begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & 0 \\ 0 & \sigma_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 x \\ \sigma_2 y \end{bmatrix}$$

The column space and nullspace of $A = U \Sigma V^T$

$$U = \begin{bmatrix} | & | & | & | & | & | \\ u_1 & u_2 & \dots & u_r & u_{r+1} & \dots & u_m \\ | & | & | & | & | & | & | \end{bmatrix}, \quad V = \begin{bmatrix} | & \dots & | & \dots & | \\ v_1 & \dots & v_r & \dots & v_n \\ | & & | & & | \end{bmatrix}$$

$\mathbb{R}^m$

span column space of A
 $C(A)$
span $C^\perp(A)$

basis for $N^\perp(A)$
span nullspace of A $N(A)$
orthonormal basis for $N(A)$

$n-r$

Therefore, $\dim C(A) = r$ and $\dim N(A) = n - r$

$\text{Rank}(A) = r = \# \text{ nonzero singular values}$

The pseudo-inverse

$$A = U \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1 & & & \\ & \ddots & & \\ & & \sigma_r & \\ & & & 0 \\ & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} V^T \Rightarrow A^+ = V \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_1^{-1} & & & \\ & \sigma_2^{-1} & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \sigma_r^{-1} \\ & & & & 0 \\ & & & & & 0 \end{bmatrix} U^T$$

or $A = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T + \sigma_2 u_2 v_2^T + \dots + \sigma_r u_r v_r^T$

$$\Rightarrow A^+ = \sigma_1^{-1} v_1 u_1^T + \sigma_2^{-1} v_2 u_2^T + \dots + \sigma_r^{-1} v_r u_r^T$$

$A A^+$ is the projection matrix onto $C(A)$

$A^+ A$ is the projection matrix onto $N(A)^\perp$

Matrix Norm

$$\|A\|_p = \max_{x \text{ such that } \|x\|=1} \|Ax\|$$

Properties:

① $\|A\|_p =$ largest singular value of A

$$\textcircled{2} \|Ax\| \leq \|A\|_p \|x\|$$

Exercise: $\|AB\| \leq \|A\| \|B\|$ A, B matrices

$$\|AB\| = \max_{\|x\|=1} \|ABx\| = \|ABx^*\|$$

$$\|AB\| = \|ABx\| \leq \|A\| \|u\|$$

$$u = Bx \Rightarrow \|u\| = \|Bx\| \leq \|B\| \|x\| \leq \|B\|$$

$$\Rightarrow \|AB\| \leq \|A\| \|u\| \leq \|A\| \|B\|$$

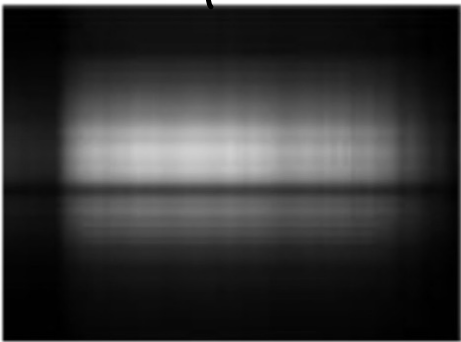
Low Rank Approximation

$A =$
rank 680



$$\overset{\text{rank 1}}{\underbrace{\sigma_1}} \overset{\text{rank 1}}{\underbrace{u_1 v_1^T}} + \overset{\text{rank 1}}{\underbrace{\sigma_2}} \overset{\text{rank 1}}{\underbrace{u_2 v_2^T}} + \dots + \overset{\text{rank 1 matrix}}{\underbrace{\sigma_r}} \overset{\text{rank 1 matrix}}{\underbrace{u_r v_r^T}}$$
$$\sigma_1 \geq \sigma_2 \geq \dots \geq \sigma_r$$

C_1



rank 1

$$C_1 = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T$$

C_2



rank 2

$$C_2 = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T + \sigma_2 u_2 v_2^T$$

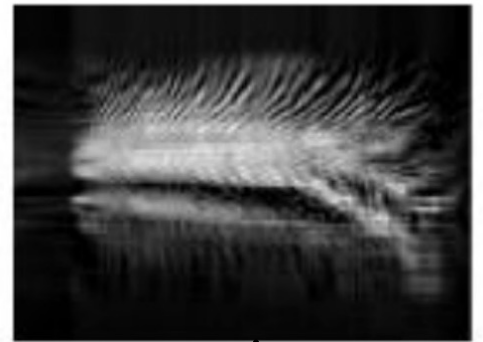
C_5



rank 5

$$C_5 = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T + \dots + \sigma_5 u_5 v_5^T$$

C_{10}



rank 10

$$C_{10} = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T + \dots + \sigma_{10} u_{10} v_{10}^T$$

rank k approximation

$$C_k = \sigma_1 u_1 v_1^T + \dots + \sigma_k u_k v_k^T$$
$$\|A - C_k\| = \sigma_{k+1}$$

Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

$$A \underbrace{v}_{\text{eigen vector}} = \underbrace{\lambda v}_{\text{eigenvalue}}$$

- ① eigenvectors with **distinct** eigenvalues are **linearly independent**
- ② $\text{trace}(A) = \text{sum of } A\text{'s eigenvalues} = \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i$
- ③ $\det(A) = \text{product of } A\text{'s eigenvalues}$

Diagonalization

A is diagonalizable if it can be written as
 $T D T^{-1}$ where D is diaogo

① How to find eigenvalues?

- find the characteristic polynomial $p(t) = \det(tI - A)$

- find all roots of $p(t)$

can have repeated roots (e.g. $(t-2)^3(t-1)(t-7)^4$)

algebraic multiplicity of 2 is 3, 1 is 1, 7 is 4

② How to find eigenvectors?

$$Av = \lambda v$$

$v, 2v, 3v, \dots$

Solve for $(A - \lambda I)v = 0$

- find basis of the null space of $A - \lambda I$

geometric multiplicity of $\lambda = \dim N(A - \lambda I)$

Note: if λ has algebraic multiplicity of 1, then you only need to find one eigenvector for λ .

③ How to diagonalize A?

If algebraic multi. = geometric multi. for all eigenvalues,

then A is diagonalizable $A = T D T^{-1}$

$$= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} | & | & & | \\ v_1 & v_2 & \dots & v_n \\ | & | & & | \end{bmatrix}}_T \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & & & 0 \\ & \lambda_2 & & 0 \\ & & \ddots & \\ 0 & & & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix}}_D \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} | & & | \\ v_1 & & v_n \\ | & & | \end{bmatrix}^{-1}}_{T^{-1}}$$

then A is diagonalizable

Note: if geometric multiplicity = algebraic multiplicity > 1 for λ then you have to choose independent eigenvectors for each eigenvalue λ

Example $A = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 0 \\ 0 & 3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & \\ & 3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{-1}$

- Application to Linear Dynamical Systems

- Consider a linear system $x_{k+1} = Ax_k$ where A is diagonalizable $A = TDT^{-1}$.
Want to study its long-term behavior, i.e. what is x_k as $k \rightarrow \infty$?
- Unrolling the recursion, we have

$$x_k = A^k x_0 = T D^k T^{-1} x_0 = T \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1^k & & & \\ & \lambda_2^k & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \lambda_n^k \end{bmatrix} T^{-1} x_0$$

- The only dependency on k is the eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n$.
- If $|\lambda_i| > 1$, then $\lambda_i^k \rightarrow \infty$.
- If $|\lambda_i| < 1$, then $\lambda_i^k \rightarrow 0$.
- If $|\lambda_i| < 1$ for all $i = 1, \dots, n$, then $D^k \rightarrow 0$ as $k \rightarrow \infty$, and hence $x_k \rightarrow 0$ regardless of the initial condition x_0 . We say this is a **stable** system.

Positive Semi-definite Matrix

A symmetric matrix $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is PSD if
square

$$x^T A x \geq 0 \text{ for all } x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Positive definite (PD) $x^T A x > 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 $x \neq 0$

How to check that A is psd?

Method 1: write the expression for $x^T A x$ if it can be expressed as sum of squares

$$\begin{bmatrix} a & b \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} = 3a^2 + 2ab + 5b^2 = (a+b)^2 + 2a^2 + 4b^2$$

Method 2: check if all eigenvalues of A are ≥ 0
if $\lambda_i > 0 \forall i \rightarrow PD$ (non-negative)

Method 3: Show that M is a sum of two psds

Method 4: Show that can be expressed as $M = A A^T$
for some $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$

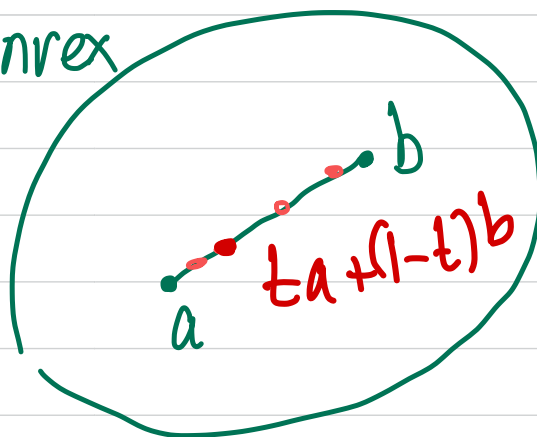
Note: for 2×2 matrices check $\text{trace}(A) \geq 0$ & $\det(A) \geq 0$

Convexity

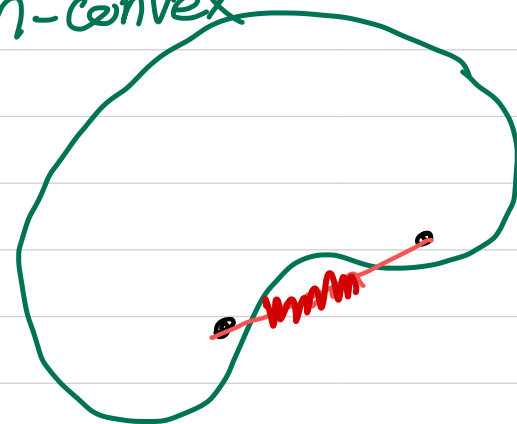
A set C is **convex** if for all a, b in C $ta + (1-t)b \in C$ is in C for any $t \in [0, 1]$

In other words, it contains line segment between any two points in the set

convex



non-convex



1. Intersection C_1, C_2 are convex set, then $C_1 \cap C_2$ is convex

2. Maps: If C is convex and ϕ is a linear or affine map then $\phi(C)$ is convex

Ax $Ax + \underline{b}$

Example: Show that $S = \{x \mid Ax \leq b\}$ is convex

Assume that $x, y \in S$, $t \in [0, 1]$

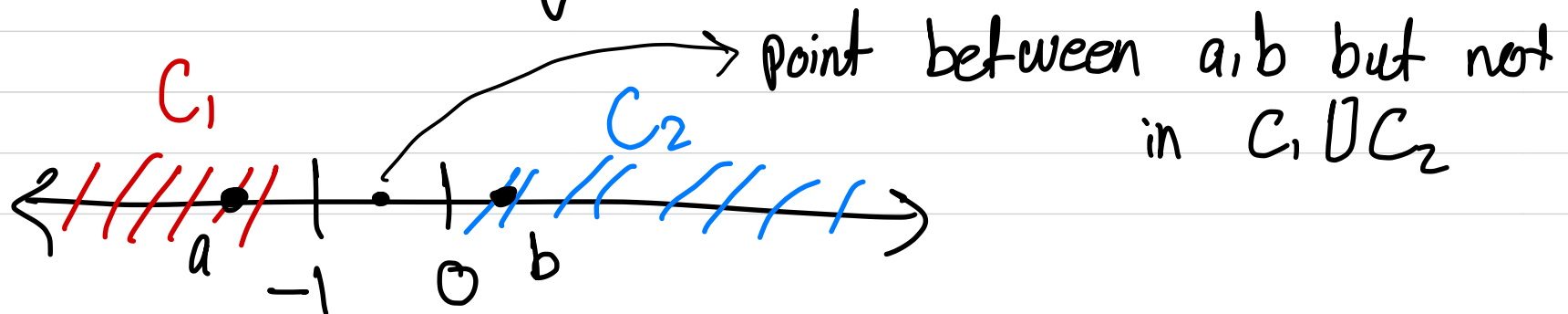
$Ax \leq b$ and $Ay \leq b$

$$c = tx + (1-t)y \in S$$

$$Ac = A(tx + (1-t)y) = t \underbrace{Ax} + (1-t) \underbrace{Ay} \leq t b + (1-t) b = b$$

$\Rightarrow Ac \leq b \Rightarrow C$ is in S

• Union is not always convex



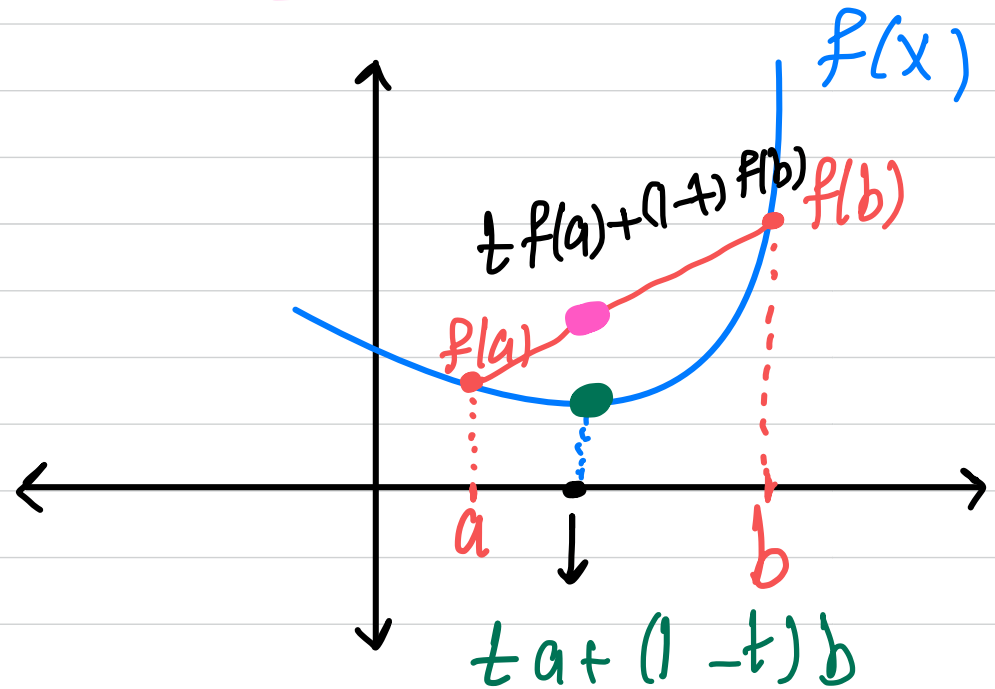
Convex Functions

$f: X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex if for any $a, b \in X$

$$f(ta + (1-t)b) \leq tf(a) + (1-t)f(b)$$

for any $t \in [0, 1]$

Geometrically: the graph is below the chord



1. Sum: If $f_1(x)$ and $f_2(x)$ are convex functions, then for $c_1, c_2 \geq 0$, $c_1 f_1(x) + c_2 f_2(x)$ is also a convex function.
2. Pointwise maximum: If $f_1, \dots, f_n$ are convex functions, then $f(x) = \max\{f_1(x), \dots, f_n(x)\}$ is also convex.
3. Linear change of coordinates: If f is a convex function, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$, then $g(x) = f(Ax + b)$ is also convex.
4. Sublevel sets:

$$S_\gamma = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(x) \leq \gamma\}$$

If $f(x)$ is convex, then S_γ is a convex set.

5. Epigraph of a function:

$$\text{epi} f = \{(x, y) : x \in \mathbb{R}^n, y \in \mathbb{R} : f(x) \leq y\}.$$

If f is a convex function, then $\text{epi} f$ is a convex set.

How to show that a function is convex?

Method 1: Use properties (sum & change of coord. are useful)

$$g(x, y) = x^2 + (y-1)^2$$

sum of convex
function

$$h(x, y) = (x + y)^2$$

$$x + y = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}$$

$$g(x) = x^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} g\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix}\right) \\ = g(x + y) \\ = (x + y)^2 \end{aligned}$$

Method 2: Take second derivative or Hessian

Ex. $f(x) = x^4 \rightarrow f'' = 4 \cdot 3 x^2 \geq 0 \rightarrow \text{convex}$

Method 3: Use definition

Method 2: Taking 2nd derivative

Single variable

$$f(x) = x^4$$



$$f''(x) = 12x^2$$

$$f''(x) \geq 0 \text{ for all } x$$

Multivariable

$$f(x) = 2x^2 + 4xy + 4y^2$$

$$H(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

If $H(x)$ is PSD
then f is convex

↳ always symmetric

Short-cut for quadratic forms:

If $f(v) = v^T A v + b^T v$, then $(A \text{ is symmetric})$

f is convex $\iff A$ is PSD

No Need To Find Hessian.

Why? because $H(x) = 2A$

Example: $f(x) = \underline{2}x^2 + \underline{4}xy + \underline{4}y^2 + 5x + 10$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x & y \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix}}_A \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} 5 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} + 10$$

$$H(x, y) = 2 \times \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 4 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 4 & 4 \\ 4 & 8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Quadratic functions: $f(x) = x^T A x + b^T x$

$$\left| \begin{array}{l} \nabla f = 2Ax + b \\ H(x) = 2A \end{array} \right.$$

When is f convex? A psd

If f is **convex**, how to find minimum?

Method 1: Diagonalization Approach: $A = V D V^T$.

Method 2: Solve for $\nabla f = 0$

Method 3: Use gradient descent $\rightarrow$ approximate solution

Assume that f is a function with Hessian H

ex. $f(x,y) = x^2 + y + \cos(x)$

Let $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n$
be eigenvalues of H .

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \end{bmatrix}$$

convex function

non-negative
eigenvalues

$$0 \leq \lambda_i \text{ for } i=1, \dots, n$$

Smooth & convex

upper bound

$$0 \leq \lambda_i \leq L \text{ for some constant } L$$

Smooth & strongly convex

upper and lower
bound

$$\boxed{m \leq \lambda_i} \leq L \quad \forall i$$

where m is positive

Bounding Eigenvalues of Hessian λ_1, λ_2

Example 1: If $\lambda_1 = 3, \lambda_2 = 5 \Rightarrow \underbrace{3}_m \leq \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \leq \underbrace{5}_L$
 $\Rightarrow f$ is smooth and strongly convex

Example 2: If $\lambda_1 = 3 - \sin x$ where $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$
 $\lambda_2 = 2 - \sin y$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{aligned} 2 &\leq 3 - \sin x \leq 4 \\ 1 &\leq 2 - \sin y \leq 3 \end{aligned}$$

$\Rightarrow \underbrace{1}_m \leq \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \leq \underbrace{4}_L \Rightarrow f$ is smooth and strongly convex

Algorithm 1: Gradient Descent

Input: initial guess x_0 , step size $\gamma > 0$;

while $\nabla f(x_k) \neq 0$ **do**

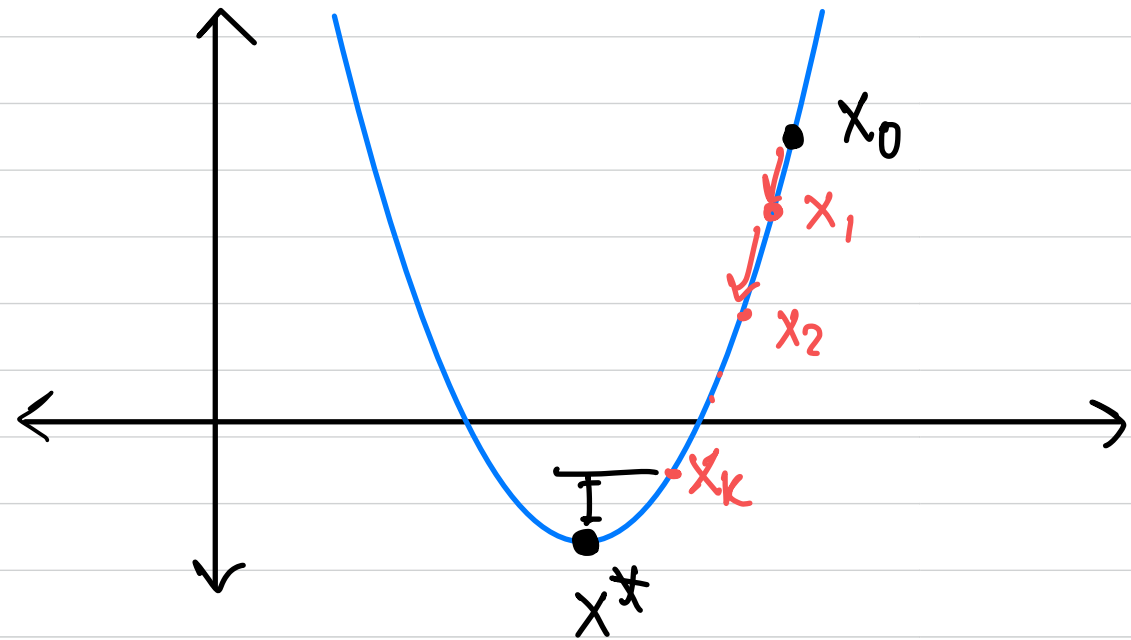
$x_{k+1} = x_k - \gamma \nabla f(x_k)$

end

return x_k ;

Goal: get closer to $f(x^*)$

$$f(x_k) - f(x^*) \leq \epsilon$$



Let f is a **convex** function with Hessian H

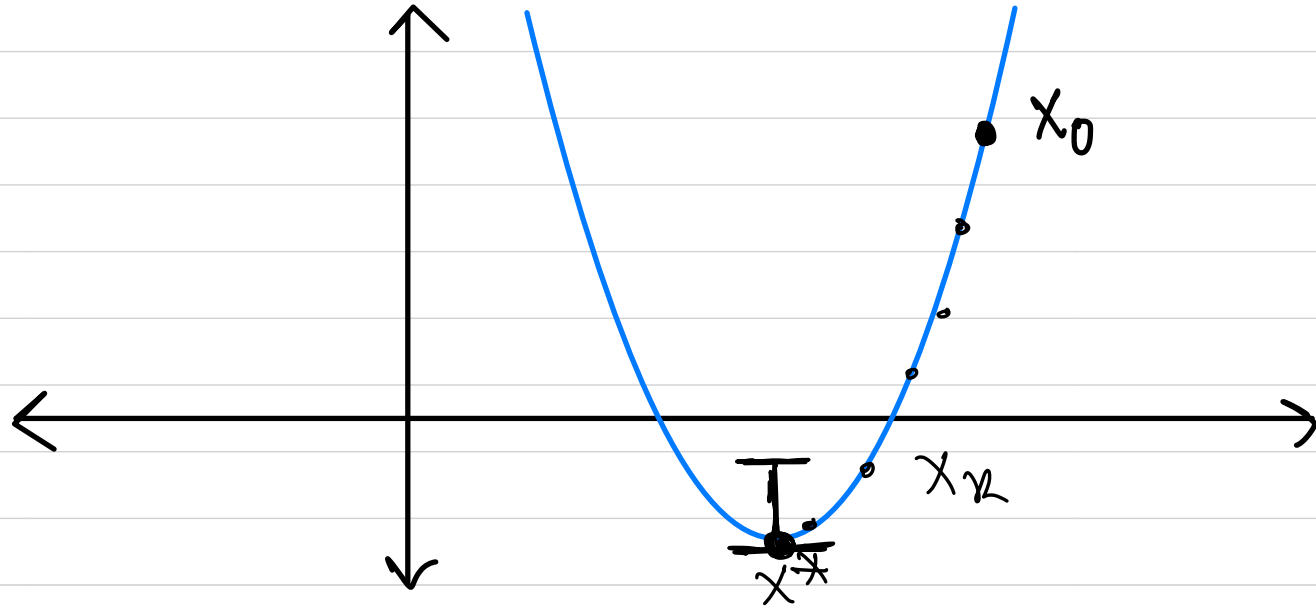
Let $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_n > 0$ be eigenvalues of H

	general convex f	quadratic $f = x^T A x + b^T x$ (assume that $A \neq 0$)
Smooth function step size γ	$\lambda_i \leq L$ $\gamma = \frac{1}{L}$	If $0 < \gamma < \frac{2}{\lambda_1}$ $\rightarrow$ converges
Smooth & Strongly convex step size γ	$m \leq \lambda_i \leq L$ $\gamma = \frac{2}{m+L}$	Best step size $\boxed{\gamma = \frac{2}{\lambda_1 + \lambda_n}}$
Condition number Q	$Q = \frac{L}{m}$	condition num $Q = \frac{ \lambda_1 }{ \lambda_n }$ convergence rate $\ I - \gamma A\ $ $\frac{Q-1}{Q+1}$

Convergence Rate

Goal : minimize
 $f(x_k) - f(x^*)$

$k = \# \text{ steps}$



smooth & convex : $f(x_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{L}{2} \frac{1}{k} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2$

Smooth & strongly convex : $f(x_k) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{L}{2} \left(\frac{Q-1}{Q+1} \right)^{2k} \|x_0 - x^*\|^2$

converges much faster

Logistic Regression

goal: classify points

x : point, y = label

$$z = w^T x + b \rightarrow \text{scalar}$$

$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

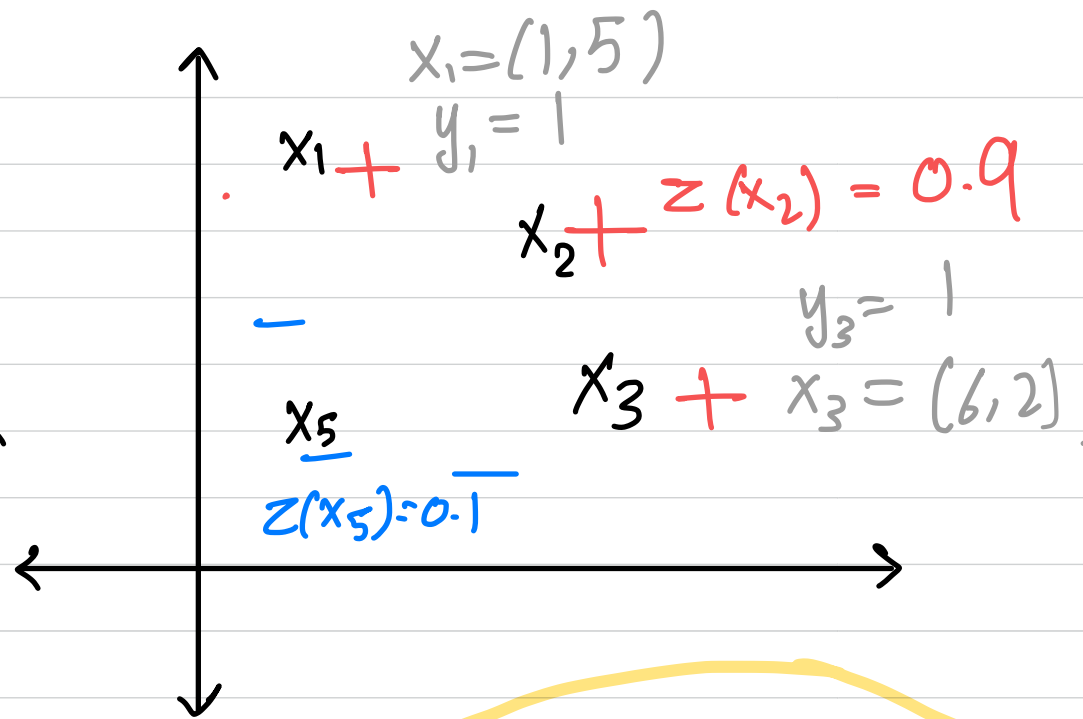
if $\sigma(z) > 0.5 \rightarrow +$
if $\sigma(z) \leq 0.5 \rightarrow -$

$x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, y_1, \dots, y_n$ are given data points

objective function

$$L(x, y; w, b) = - \sum_{\text{samples}} y \log(\sigma(wx+b)) + (1-y) \log(1-\sigma(wx+b))$$

use Gradient Descent to find w^*, b^*



want to
find best w, b

Linear Programs

Canonical form

Find a vector $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
that maximizes $c^T x \leftarrow \text{scalar}$
subject to
$$\begin{cases} Ax \leq b \\ x \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

Example:

$$\max x_1 + 2x_2 - x_3$$

$$\text{subject to } \begin{cases} x_1 + x_2 \leq 1 \\ x_1 - x_3 \leq 5 \end{cases}$$

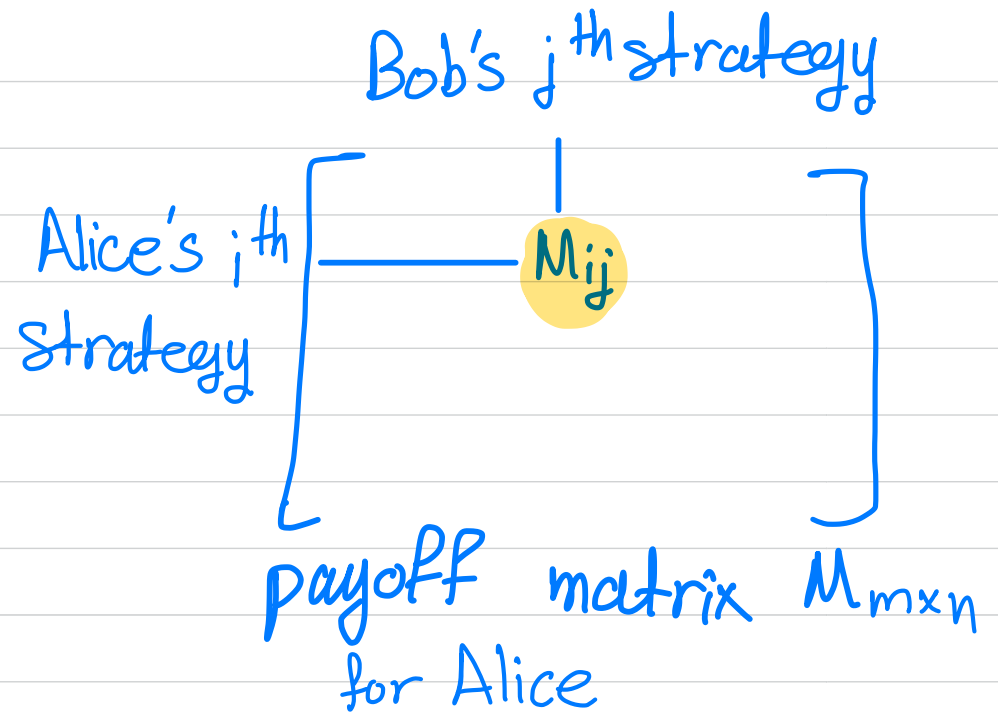
$$\text{and } x_1, x_2, x_3 \geq 0$$

Zero Sum Games:

Payoff Matrix

If Alice plays strategy i
and Bob plays strategy j

$\Rightarrow$ $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Alice payoff } M_{ij} \\ \text{Bob's payoff } -M_{ij} \end{array} \right.$



Expected Payoff

When Alice plays with probabilities

Bob plays with probabilities $q = \begin{bmatrix} q_1 \\ \vdots \\ q_n \end{bmatrix}$

$$p = \begin{bmatrix} p_1 \\ \vdots \\ p_m \end{bmatrix}$$

Expected payoff for Alice is $p^T M q$.

(because $p^T M q = \sum_{i=1}^m \sum_{j=1}^n p_i q_j M_{ij}$).

1.3 Duality and Von Neumann's Theorem

Von Neumann's Theorem states that the solution to the above LP is equivalent to the solution for the following LP, which models the game if Bob were forced to reveal his strategy first:

Alice
first

$$\begin{aligned} & \max \gamma \\ \text{s.t. } & p^T A \geq \gamma \vec{1} \\ & \vec{0} \leq p \leq \vec{1} \\ & (\vec{1})^T p = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} & \min \lambda \\ \text{s.t. } & \lambda \vec{1} \geq Aq \\ & \vec{0} \leq q \leq \vec{1} \\ & (\vec{1})^T q = 1 \end{aligned}$$

Bob
first

Then, the optimal objective function value for these LPs is precisely equal to the game value.

The following is a problem from recitation
about Projected Gradient Descent

Projected Gradient Descent (Exercise)

6. (Projected Gradient Descent). In this problem we explore gradient descent with convex constraints.

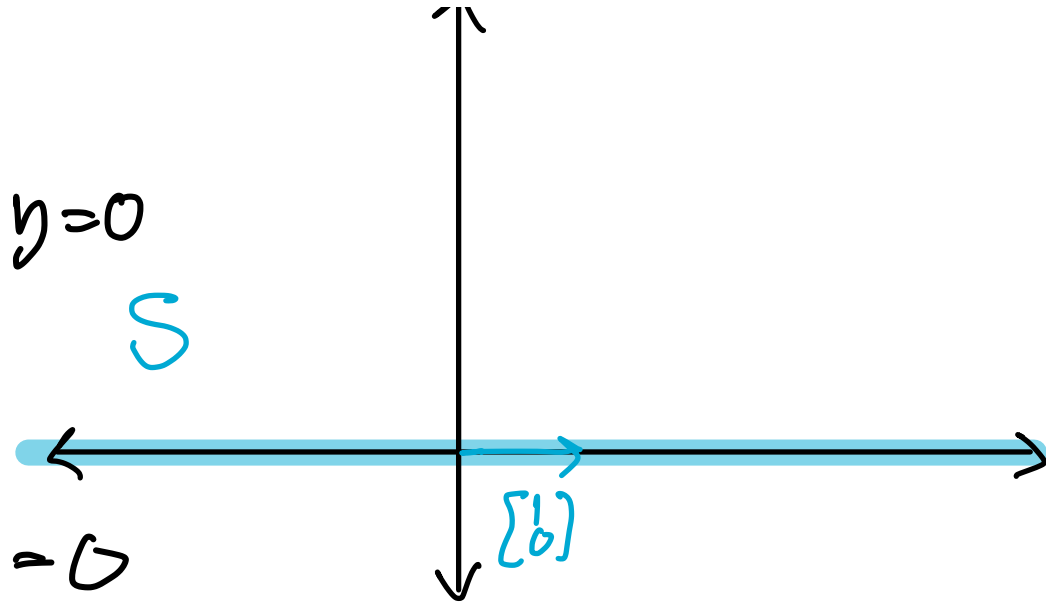
(a) Let $S = \text{Span}(\{(1, 0)\})$. Write down a matrix A such that S is the nullspace of A .

$$S = \text{Span}\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} \in S \quad \text{if and only if} \quad y=0$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \Leftrightarrow y=0$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Let } A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$S = N(A)$$



Projected Gradient Descent (Exercise)

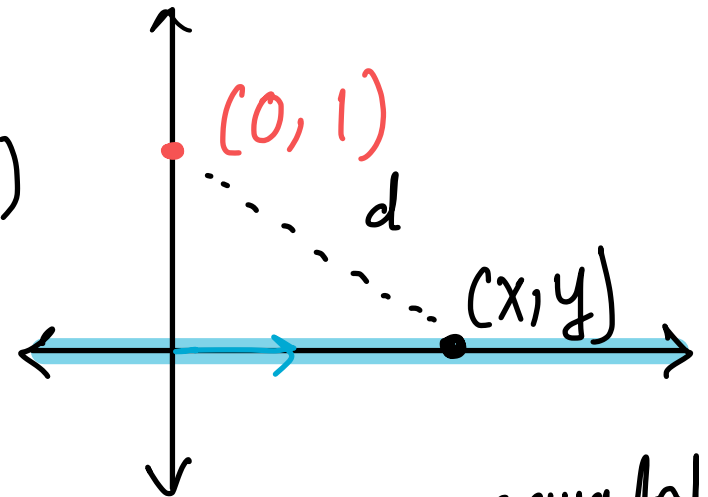
- (b) Write down a quadratic optimization with linear constraints for finding the closest point in S to the point $(0, 1)$. That is come up with a function $f(x, y)$ such that

$$\min_{(x,y) \in S} f(x, y)$$

Write down the Hessian of this optimization.

The square of the distance between (x, y)

and $(0, 1)$ is $x^2 + (y - 1)^2$



$\Rightarrow$ We want to minimize $f(x, y) = x^2 + (y - 1)^2$ (quadratic function),
such that $x \in S$ or equivalently $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \vec{0}$ (part a)

quadratic optimization: $\min x^2 + (y - 1)^2$

such that $\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x \\ y \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Note that the optimal x^* is $(0, 0)$

next page $\rightarrow$

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + (y - 1)^2 = x^2 + y^2 - 2y + 1$$

Gradient $\nabla f = \begin{bmatrix} 2x \\ 2y - 2 \end{bmatrix}$ | Hessian: $H(x, y) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$

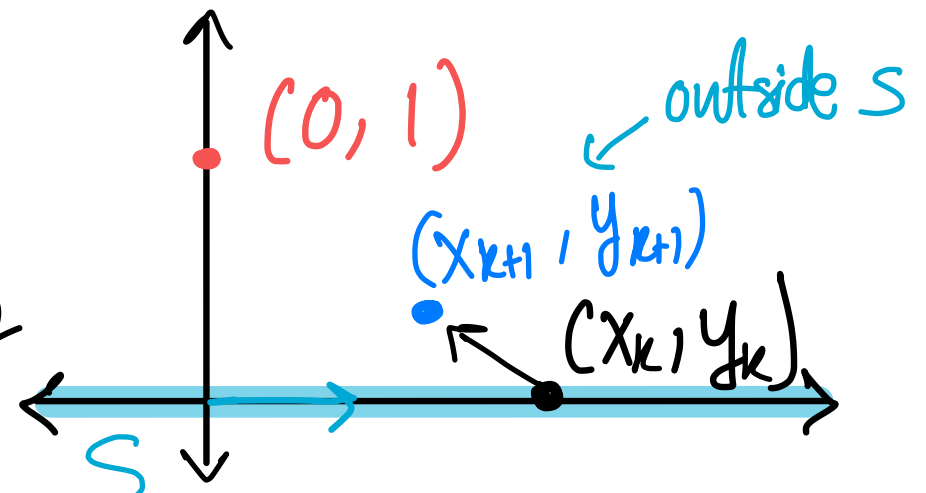
(c) If we move in the direction of the negative gradient $\nabla f(x, y)$ do we stay in S ?

No, we don't. Assume that $(x_k, y_k) \in S$

i.e. $y_k = 0$, then

$$\begin{bmatrix} x_{k+1} \\ y_{k+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_k \\ y_k \end{bmatrix} - \gamma \begin{bmatrix} 2x_k \\ 2y_k - 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_k - 2\gamma x_k \\ 0 - 0 + 2\gamma \end{bmatrix} \text{ not in } S \text{ since } y_k = 2\gamma \neq 0.$$



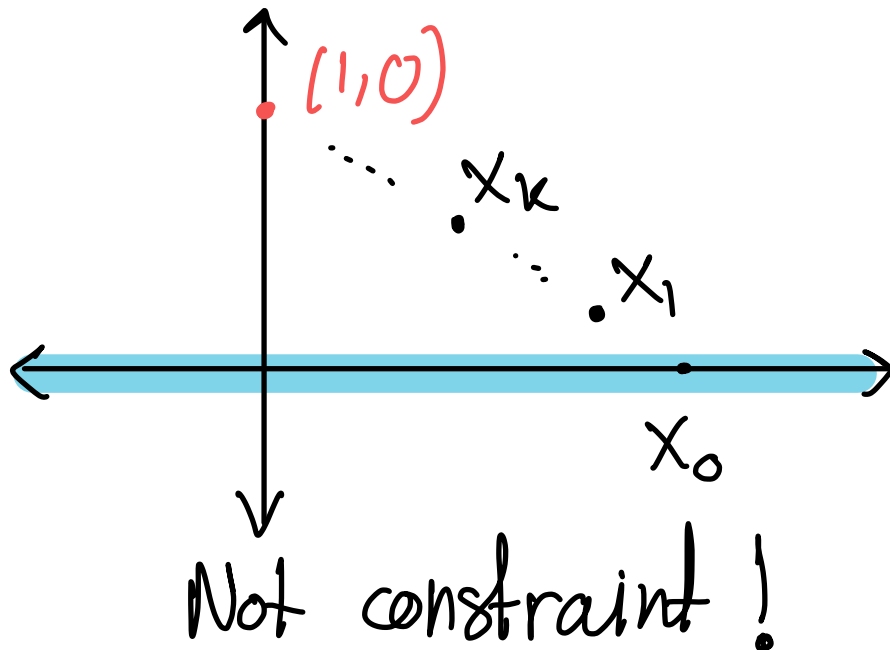
- (d) The projected gradient descent algorithm takes a step in the direction of the negative gradient $x_{t+1}^* = x_t - \gamma \nabla f(x_t)$ and then sets x_{t+1} to be the projection of x_{t+1}^* onto the subspace S . Write down the projected gradient descent update using A from part (a).

Gradient Descent

```

while  $\nabla f(x_k) \neq 0$  do
  |  $x_{k+1} = x_k - \gamma \nabla f(x_k)$ 
end
return  $x_k$ ;

```

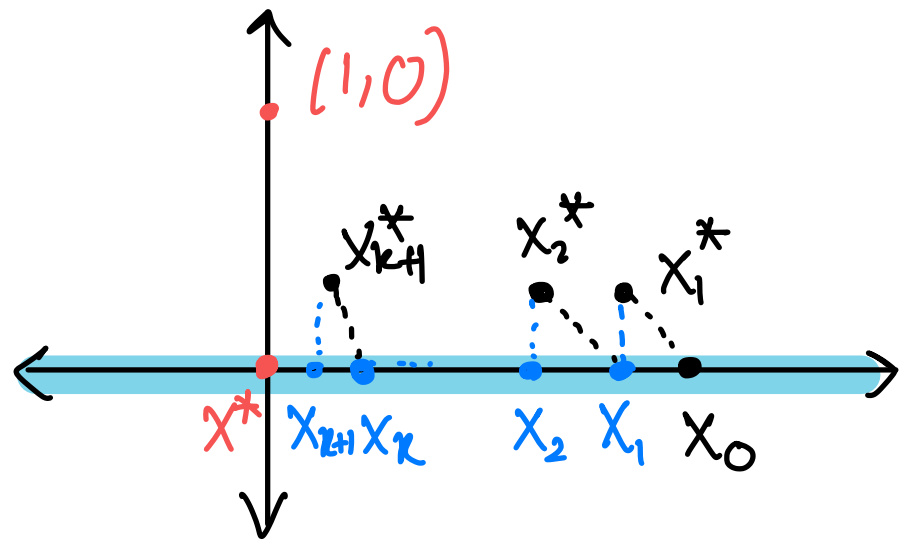


Projected Gradient Descent

```

while  $\nabla f(x_k) \neq 0$  do
  |  $x_{k+1}^* = x_k - \gamma \nabla f(x_k)$ 
  |  $x_{k+1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} x_{k+1}^*$  ) projection step
return  $x_k$ ;

```



Constraint optimization 😊