## Math Foundations: Review for CSE 203B

#### Chester Holtz

chholtz@eng.ucsd.edu OH: Fri 6:30 - 7:30 pm

### Overview

- Notations & general assumptions
- Vector norms, inner products
- Linear spaces, subspaces, linear transformations
- Eigenvalues / eigenvectors, rank, SVD, inverse
- Matrix norms
- Matrix and vector differential

# Notations & basic assumptions

- Greek alphabet  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  denote real numbers
- Small letters x, y, z denote vectors
- Capital letters denote matrices A, B, C

## Notations & basic assumptions

- Greek alphabet  $\alpha, \beta, \gamma$  denote real numbers
- Small letters x, y, z denote vectors
- ► Capital letters denote matrices A, B, C
- $\blacktriangleright \ \mathbb{R}$  is the one dimensional Euclidean space
- ▶  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is the *n*-dimensional vector Euclidean space
- ▶  $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is the  $m \times n$  dimensional *matrix* Euclidean space
- ▶  $\mathbb{R}_+$  denotes the range  $[0, +\infty)$ ,  $\mathbb{R}_{++}$  denotes the range  $(0,_\infty)$
- ▶  $1_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$  denotes a vector with 1 in all entries
- For any vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $|x|_i = |x|_i$   $\forall i = 1, ..., n$

A function  $f : x \in \mathbb{R}^n \to y \in \mathbb{R}_+$  is called a norm if the following conditions are satisfied:

1. (zero element)  $f(x) \ge 0$  and f(x) = 0 iff x = 0

A function  $f : x \in \mathbb{R}^n \to y \in \mathbb{R}_+$  is called a norm if the following conditions are satisfied:

- 1. (zero element)  $f(x) \ge 0$  and f(x) = 0 iff x = 0
- 2. (Homogeneity) For any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f(\alpha x) = |\alpha|f(x)$

A function  $f : x \in \mathbb{R}^n \to y \in \mathbb{R}_+$  is called a norm if the following conditions are satisfied:

- 1. (zero element)  $f(x) \ge 0$  and f(x) = 0 iff x = 0
- 2. (Homogeneity) For any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f(\alpha x) = |\alpha|f(x)$
- 3. (Triangle inequality)  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfy  $f(x) + f(y) \ge f(x + y)$

- 1. (zero element)  $f(x) \ge 0$  and f(x) = 0 iff x = 0
- 2. (Homogeneity) For any  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f(\alpha x) = |\alpha|f(x)$
- 3. (Triangle inequality)  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  satisfy  $f(x) + f(y) \ge f(x + y)$

#### Example

 ℓ<sub>1</sub> norm "|| · ||<sub>1</sub>" is defined as ||x||<sub>1</sub> = (|x<sub>1</sub>| + |x<sub>2</sub>| + ... |x<sub>n</sub>|)
ℓ<sub>2</sub> norm "|| · ||<sub>2</sub>" is defined as ||x||<sub>2</sub> = (|x<sub>1</sub>|<sup>2</sup> + |x<sub>2</sub>|<sup>2</sup> + ... |x<sub>n</sub>|<sup>2</sup>)<sup>1/2</sup>

In general, an  $\ell_p$  norm ( $p \ge 1$ ) is defined as

$$||x||_{p} = (|x_{1}|^{p} + |x_{2}|^{p} + \dots |x_{n}|^{p})^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Note:

The inner product.  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is defined as

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i}$$

The inner product.  $\langle\cdot,\cdot\rangle$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is defined as

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_i x_i y_i$$

Note that  $\langle x,x\rangle=||x||^2$ . Two vectors x and y are orthogonal if  $\langle x,y\rangle=0$ 

The inner product.  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is defined as

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \sum_{i} x_{i} y_{i}$$

Note that  $\langle x,x\rangle=||x||^2.$  Two vectors x and y are orthogonal if  $\langle x,y\rangle=0$ 

Furthermore, if  $p \ge q$ , then for any  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $||x||_p \le ||x||_q$ . In particular,

$$||x||_1 \ge ||x||_2 \ge ||x||_\infty$$

# $||x||_1 \le \sqrt{n} ||x||_2 \quad ||x||_2 \le \sqrt{n} ||x||_\infty$

Proof

$$||x||_1 \le \sqrt{n} ||x||_2 \quad ||x||_2 \le \sqrt{n} ||x||_\infty$$

Proof

$$||x||_1 = \langle 1_n, |x| \rangle \le ||1_n||_2 |||x|||_2 = \sqrt{n} ||x||_2$$

Cauchy Schwarz inequality:

$$|\langle u, v \rangle|^2 \leq \langle u, u \rangle \langle v, v \rangle$$

or

$$|\langle u, v \rangle| \leq ||u|| \, ||v||$$

Given a norm  $||x||_A$ , its dual norm is defined as

$$||x||_{\mathcal{A}^*} = \max_{||y||_{\mathcal{A}} \le 1} \langle x, y \rangle = \max_{||y||_{\mathcal{A}} = 1} \langle x, y \rangle = \max_{z} \frac{\langle x, z \rangle}{||z||_{\mathcal{A}}}$$

Given a norm  $||x||_A$ , its dual norm is defined as

$$||x||_{\mathcal{A}^*} = \max_{||y||_{\mathcal{A}} \le 1} \langle x, y \rangle = \max_{||y||_{\mathcal{A}} = 1} \langle x, y \rangle = \max_{z} \frac{\langle x, z \rangle}{||z||_{\mathcal{A}}}$$

▶ The dual norm's dual norm is itself.  $||x||_{(A^*)^*} = ||x||_A$ 

#### Given a norm $||x||_A$ , its dual norm is defined as

$$||x||_{\mathcal{A}^*} = \max_{||y||_{\mathcal{A}} \le 1} \langle x, y \rangle = \max_{||y||_{\mathcal{A}} = 1} \langle x, y \rangle = \max_{z} \frac{\langle x, z \rangle}{||z||_{\mathcal{A}}}$$

The dual norm's dual norm is itself. ||x||<sub>(A\*)\*</sub> = ||x||<sub>A</sub>
The ℓ<sub>2</sub> norm is self-dual

Given a norm  $||x||_A$ , its dual norm is defined as

$$||x||_{\mathcal{A}^*} = \max_{||y||_A \leq 1} \langle x, y \rangle = \max_{||y||_A = 1} \langle x, y \rangle = \max_z \frac{\langle x, z \rangle}{||z||_A}$$

- ▶ The dual norm's dual norm is itself.  $||x||_{(A^*)^*} = ||x||_A$
- ▶ The  $\ell_2$  norm is self-dual
- ▶ In general, the dual norm of an  $\ell_p$  norm is an  $\ell_q$  norm where p, q satisfy 1/p + 1/q = 1

Given a norm  $||x||_A$ , its dual norm is defined as

$$||x||_{\mathcal{A}^*} = \max_{||y||_A \leq 1} \langle x, y \rangle = \max_{||y||_A = 1} \langle x, y \rangle = \max_z \frac{\langle x, z \rangle}{||z||_A}$$

- ▶ The dual norm's dual norm is itself.  $||x||_{(A^*)^*} = ||x||_A$
- The  $\ell_2$  norm is self-dual
- ▶ In general, the dual norm of an  $\ell_p$  norm is an  $\ell_q$  norm where p, q satisfy 1/p + 1/q = 1
- (Holder inequality):  $\langle x, y \rangle \leq ||x||_{\mathcal{A}} ||y||_{\mathcal{A}^*}$

A set S is a linear space if

▶ 0 ∈ S

• given any two points  $x, y \in S$  and scalars  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ .

 $\alpha x + \beta y \in S$ 

▶ 0 ∈ S

• given any two points  $x, y \in S$  and scalars  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}, \alpha x + \beta y \in S$ 

#### examples

- ▶ Ø ?
- ▶ 0 ?

$$\blacktriangleright \{x | Ax = b\} ?$$

Let S be a linear space. A set S' is a subspace if S' is a linear space and also a subset of S.

Let S be a linear space. A function  $L(\cdot)$  is a linear transformation if given  $x, y \in S$  and scalars  $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$L(\alpha x + \beta y) = \alpha L(x) + \beta L(y)$$

Note 1-1 correspondence between linear transformations and matrices.

#### Expressing a subspace

A bunch of vectors. The range space of a matrix X:

span{
$$x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n$$
} =  $\left\{\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i | \alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}\right\}$  = { $X\alpha | \alpha$ }

#### Expressing a subspace

A bunch of vectors. The range space of a matrix X:

span
$$x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i x_i | \alpha_i \in \mathbb{R} \right\} = \{ X \alpha | \alpha \}$$

The null space of X:

$$\{\alpha | X\alpha = 0\}$$

The transpose of a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is defined as  $A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ :

$$(A^T)_{ij} = A_{ji}$$

The transpose of a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is defined as  $A^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ :

$$(A^T)_{ij} = A_{ji}$$

Can verify that

$$(AB)^T = B^T A^T$$

A matrix  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is the inverse of an invertible matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  if:

AB = I and BA = I

Note the following properties:

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

Given a square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $(x \neq 0)$  is called its eigenvector and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  is its associated eigenvalue if:

 $Ax = \lambda x$ 

Given a square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ ,  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $(x \neq 0)$  is called its eigenvector and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  is its associated eigenvalue if:

$$Ax = \lambda x$$

Properties

If the matrix A is symmetric, any two eigenvectors (corresponding to different eigenvalues) are orthogonal.

• 
$$\det A = \prod i \lambda_i$$

The rank of A is equal to the number of non-zero eigenvalues.

• If A is invertible, 
$$1/\lambda_i$$
 is an eigenvalue of  $A^{-1}$ 

$$\lambda_{\max} = \sup_{x \neq 0} \frac{x^T A x}{x^T x}$$

If 
$$A^T = A$$
,  $Ax_1 = \lambda_1 x_1$ ,  $Ax_2 = \lambda_2 x_2$ , and  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2$ , then  $x_1^T x_2 = 0$   
proof

Consider  $X_1^T A x_2$ . We have that

$$x_1^T A x_2 = x_1^T (A x_2) = x_1^T (\lambda_2 x_2) = \lambda_2 x_1^T x_2$$

and

$$x_1^T A x_2 = (x_1^T A) x_2 = (A^T x_1)^T x_2 = (A x_1)^T x_2 = \lambda_1 x_1^T x_2$$

So

$$\lambda_2 x_1^T x_2 = \lambda_1 x_1^T x_2$$

and since  $\lambda_1 \neq \lambda_2, x_1^T x_2 = 0$ .

The rank of a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is defined as

$$\operatorname{rank}(A) = \min\left\{r|A = \sum_{i=1}^{r} x_i y_i^T, x_i, y_i \in \mathbb{R}^n\right\}$$

The rank of a matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m imes n}$  is defined as

$$\operatorname{rank}(A) = \min\left\{r|A = \sum_{i=1}^{r} x_i y_i^T, x_i, y_i \in \mathbb{R}^n\right\}$$

#### Properties

- ▶  $rank(A) \le min\{m, n\}$  (equality = "full-rank")
- ▶  $\operatorname{rank}(A) = \operatorname{rank}(A^T)$
- ▶  $rank(AB) \le min\{rank(AB)\}$
- ▶  $rank(A + B) \le rank(A) + rank(B)$
- ▶ rank(A) + Nullity(A) = Dim(V) (rank-nullity theorem)

The determinant of a square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is a scalar-valued function  $det(A) : \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \to \mathbb{R}$ .

Consider the set of all linear combinations of the rows of A:

$$S = \{ \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n | \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \mathbf{a}_i, 0 \le \alpha_i \le 1, i = 1, \dots, n \}$$

 $|\det(A)|$  is the area of the *n*-dimensional parallelotope.

The determinant of a square matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is a scalar-valued function  $det(A) : \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} \to \mathbb{R}$ .

Consider the set of all linear combinations of the rows of A:

$$S = \{ \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n | \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \mathbf{a}_i, 0 \le \alpha_i \le 1, i = 1, \dots, n \}$$

 $|\det(A)|$  is the area of the *n*-dimensional parallelotope.

• If 
$$\operatorname{rank}(A) < n$$
,  $\det(A) = 0$ 

• If 
$$\operatorname{rank}(A) = n$$
,  $\det(A) \neq 0$ 

Given any matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,

$$A = U\Sigma V^{T} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i} U_{i} \cdot V_{i}^{T}$$

where  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times r}$  and  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r}$  have orthogonal columns and  $\Sigma = \text{diag}\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r\}$  is a diagonal matrix with positive diagonal elements "singular values".

Given any matrix  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m imes n}$ ,

$$A = U\Sigma V^{T} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sigma_{i} U_{i} \cdot V_{i}^{T}$$

where  $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times r}$  and  $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times r}$  have orthogonal columns and  $\Sigma = \text{diag}\{\sigma_1, \sigma_2, \dots, \sigma_r\}$  is a diagonal matrix with positive diagonal elements "singular values".

$$\blacktriangleright \operatorname{rank}(A) = r$$

►  $||Ax|| \le \sigma_1 ||x||$ . why?

A matrix  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is called positive semi-definite (PSD), if the following are satisfied:

► *B* is symmetric

► 
$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
,  $x^T B x \ge 0$ 

Note B is PSD if B can be written:  $B = U\Sigma U^T$ , where  $U^T U = I$ 

# Matrix norms

• Frobeneus norm: 
$$A_F = \left(\sum_{i,m} |A_{ij}|^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \left(\sum_{i=1} \sigma_i^2\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

The inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  is defined as:

$$\langle X, Y \rangle = \sum_{ij} X_{ij} Y_{ij} = \operatorname{trace}(X^T Y)$$

In general, trace(AB) = trace(BA) = trace( $A^TB^T$ ) = trace( $B^TA^T$ ) Let  $f(x) : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a (scalar-valued) continuous & differentiable function. It's differential (gradient) is defined as:

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



example  
Let 
$$f(x) = 1^T x = \sum_i x_i$$
.  
 $\nabla f(x) = 1$ 



example  
Let 
$$f(x) = x^T x = \sum_i x_i^2$$
.  
 $\nabla f(x) = 2x$ 

The product and chain rules hold when dealing with gradients of vector functions:

▶ Product rule:  $\nabla(f(x)g(x)) = f(x)\nabla g(x) + \nabla f(x)g(x)$ 

• Chain rule: 
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}f(g(t)) = \nabla f(g(t))^T \frac{\partial g}{\partial t}$$

The Hessian  $\nabla^2 f = H$  is a matrix with entries = f(x)'s second-order derivatives:

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



### example $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T A x = \frac{1}{2}x_1^2 + \frac{1}{2}x_2^2, A = I.$ $\nabla^2 f(x) = A$

Let  $f(X) : \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a (scalar-valued) function. It's differential (gradient) is defined as:

$$\frac{\partial f(X)}{\partial X} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(X)}{\partial X_{11}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(X)}{\partial X_{in}} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(X)}{\partial X_{m1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f(X)}{\partial X_{mn}} \end{bmatrix}$$

A linear system can be described as the matrix equality Ax = b. A solution exists if there is an assignment to the entries of x such that

$$a_{i1}x_1 + a_{i1}x_2 + \ldots + a_{in}x_n = b_i$$

The LHS defines a linear combination of A's column vectors - i.e. the system as a solution if b is in the space spanned by the columns of A.

## Linear equalities and inequalities

The solution to system of linear equalities corresponds to the point of intersection of m hyperplanes.



### Linear equalities and inequalities

Alternatively, the solution set to system of linear inequalities:  $\{x | Ax \le b\}$  defines the intersection of *m* half-planes.

