1 Back to Basics: Linear Algebra

Let $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}$. We do not assume that $X$ is full rank.

(a) Give the definition of the rowspace, column-space, and nullspace of $X$. Solution: The rowspace is the span of the rows of $X$, the column-space is the span of the columns of $X$, and nullspace is the set of vectors $v$ such that $Xv = 0$.

(b) Check the following facts:

(a) The rowspace of $X$ is the column-space of $X^\top$, and vice versa. Solution: The rows of $X$ are the columns of $X^\top$, and vice versa.

(b) The nullspace of $X$ and the rowspace of $X$ are orthogonal complements. Solution: $v$ is in the nullspace of $X$ if and only if $Xv = 0$, which is true if and only if for every row $X_i$ of $X$, $\langle X_i, v \rangle = 0$. This is precisely the condition that $v$ is perpendicular to each row of $X$. This means that $v$ is in the nullspace of $X$ if and only if $v$ is in the orthogonal complement of the span of the rows of $X$, i.e. the orthogonal complement of the rowspace of $X$.

(c) The nullspace of $X^\top X$ is the same as the nullspace of $X$. Hint: if $v$ is in the nullspace of $X^\top X$, then $v^\top X^\top Xv = 0$. Solution: If $v$ is in the nullspace of $X$, then $X^\top Xv = X^\top 0 = 0$. On the other hand, if $v$ is in the nullspace of $X^\top X$, then $v^\top X^\top Xv = v^\top 0 = 0$. Then, $v^\top X^\top Xv = \|Xv\|^2_2 = 0$, which implies that $Xv = 0$.

(d) The column space and rowspace of $X^\top X$ are the same, and are equal to the rowspace of $X$. Hint: Use the relationship between nullspace and rowspace. Solution: $X^\top X$ is symmetric, and therefore its rows and columns are the same; hence, its column spaces and row spaces are the same. By the previous problem, the nullspace of $X^\top X$ is equal to the nullspace of $X$, therefore. Thus,

$$\text{rowspace}(X) = \text{nullspace}(X)^\perp = \text{nullspace}(X^\top X)^\perp = \text{rowspace}(X^\top X),$$

where $()^\perp$ denotes orthogonal complement.

2 Concentration Inequalities

For a given random variable, we are often interested in computing bounds on its tail, or on the probability that it deviates from its mean. In this problem we will prove a concentration inequality for
sub-exponential random variables. A random variable $X$ with mean $E[X] = \mu$ is sub-exponential if there are non-negative parameters $(\nu, b)$ such that

$$E[e^{\lambda(X - \mu)}] \leq e^{\frac{\lambda^2 \nu^2}{2}} \text{ for all } |\lambda| < \frac{1}{b} \tag{1}$$

We will prove that if $X$ is sub-exponential,

$$P(X \geq \mu + t) \leq \begin{cases} e^{-\frac{t^2}{2\nu^2}} & \text{if } 0 \leq t \leq \frac{\nu^2}{b} \\ e^{-\frac{t}{b}} & \text{if } t > \frac{\nu^2}{b} \end{cases} \tag{2}$$

(a) We will prove the case for $\mu = 0$. First, use a Chernoff bound to show that

$$P(X \geq t) \leq \exp\{-\lambda t + \frac{\lambda^2 \nu^2}{2}\} \tag{3}$$

for any $\lambda \in [0, \frac{1}{b})$.

**Solution:** To use a Chernoff bound, we write

$$P(X \geq t) = P(e^{\lambda X} \geq e^{\lambda t}) \leq e^{-\lambda t}E[e^{\lambda X}]$$

Applying the definition of a sub-exponential variable, we have that

$$e^{-\lambda t}E[e^{\lambda X}] \leq \exp\{-\lambda t + \frac{\lambda^2 \nu^2}{2}\}$$

(b) Define $g(\lambda) = -\lambda t + \frac{\lambda^2 \nu^2}{2}$. Compute the optimal values of $\lambda$ which minimize $g$ under the constraint that $\lambda \in (0, \frac{1}{b}]$.

**Solution:** We first solve the unconstrained version of the problem by solving for the critical point of the quadratic. The derivative of $g$ is $g'(\lambda) = -t + \lambda \nu^2$. Setting it to 0, we solve for $\lambda_1 = \frac{t}{\nu^2}$. If $0 \leq t < \frac{\nu^2}{b}$, $\lambda_1 < \frac{1}{b}$. In this case, $g(\lambda_1) = -\frac{t^2}{2\nu^2}$ which completes the first case of the proposition. If $t \geq \frac{\nu^2}{b}$, then $\lambda_1 \geq \frac{1}{b}$, so $\lambda_1$ cannot be the constrained minimum for the second case. We then find that $g''(\lambda) = -t + \lambda \nu^2 < -\frac{t^2}{b} + \frac{t}{b} \nu^2 = 0$, so $g$ is monotonically decreasing on the interval $[0, \lambda_1)$. So the minimum is achieved at the boundary, $\lambda_1 = \frac{1}{b}$. Then, $g(\lambda_2) = -\frac{t}{b} + \frac{\nu^2}{2b^2} \leq -\frac{t}{2b}$.

(c) Use these values to deduce the tightest possible bound for the inequality from the first part, completing the proof.

**Solution:** Simply plug in the values of $\lambda_1$ and $\lambda_2$ for the corresponding bounds on $t$ from the last part.
3 Vector Calculus

Below, \( x \in \mathbb{R}^d \) means that \( x \) is a \( d \times 1 \) (column) vector with real-valued entries. Likewise, \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d} \) means that \( A \) is a \( d \times d \) matrix with real-valued entries. In this course, we will by convention consider vectors to be column vectors.

Consider \( x, w \in \mathbb{R}^d \) and \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d} \). In the following questions, \( \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \) denotes the derivative with respect to \( x \), while \( \nabla_x \) denote the gradient with respect to \( x \). Compute the following:

Solution: A good resource for matrix calculus is the matrix cookbook: [https://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~hwolkowi/matrixcookbook.pdf](https://www.math.uwaterloo.ca/~hwolkowi/matrixcookbook.pdf) and the wikipedia page: [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Matrix_calculus](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Matrix_calculus).

Let us first understand the definition of the derivative. Let \( f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) denote a scalar function. Then the derivative \( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \) is an operator that can help find the change in function value at \( x \), up to first order, when we add a little perturbation \( \Delta \) to \( x \). That is

\[
 f(x + \Delta) = f(x) + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Delta + o(\|\Delta\|) \tag{4}
\]

where the term \( o(\|\Delta\|) \) stands for any term \( r(\Delta) \) such that \( r(\Delta)/\|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0 \) as \( \|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0 \). An example of such a term is a quadratic term like \( \|\Delta\|^2 \). Let us quickly verify that \( r(\Delta) = \|\Delta\|^2 \) is indeed an \( o(\|\Delta\|) \) term. As \( \|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0 \), we have

\[
 \frac{r(\Delta)}{\|\Delta\|} = \frac{\|\Delta\|^2}{\|\Delta\|} = \|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0,
\]

thereby verifying our claim. As a thumb rule, any term that has a higher order dependence on \( \|\Delta\| \) than linear is \( o(\|\Delta\|) \) and is ignored to compute the derivative.

We call \( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \) as the derivative of \( f \) at \( x \). Ideally, we should use \( \frac{df}{dx} \) but it is okay to use \( \partial \) to indicate that \( f \) may depend on some other variable too. (But to define \( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \), we study changes in \( f \) with respect to changes in only \( x \).)

Note that for \( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \Delta \) to be a scalar, the vector \( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \) should be a row vector, since \( \Delta \) is a column vector.

The gradient of \( f \) at \( x \) is defined as the transpose of this derivative. That is \( \nabla f(x) = \frac{\partial f^T}{\partial x} \). So one way to compute the derivative is to expand out \( f(x + \Delta) \) and guess from the expression. We call this method, computation via first principle.

We now write down some formulas that would be helpful to compute different derivatives in various settings where a solution via first principle might be hard to compute. We will also distinguish between the derivative, gradient, Jacobian and Hessian in our notation.

1. Let \( f: \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \) denote a scalar function. Let \( x \in \mathbb{R}^d \) denote a vector and \( A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d} \) denote a matrix. We have

\[
 \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times d} \quad \text{such that} \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = \left[ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}, \ldots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d} \right] \tag{5}
\]

1Note that \( r(\Delta) = \sqrt{\|\Delta\|} \) is not an \( o(\|\Delta\|) \) term. Since for this case, \( r(\Delta)/\|\Delta\| = 1/\sqrt{\|\Delta\|} \rightarrow \infty \) as \( \|\Delta\| \rightarrow 0 \).
\[ \nabla_x f = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)^T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d} \end{bmatrix}. \] (6)

2. Let \( y : \mathbb{R}^{m \times n} \to \mathbb{R} \) be a scalar function defined on the space of \( m \times n \) matrices. Then its derivative is an \( n \times m \) matrix and is given by

\[ \frac{\partial y}{\partial B} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m} \] such that \[ \left[ \frac{\partial y}{\partial B} \right]_{ij} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial B_{ji}}. \] (7)

An argument via first principles follows:

\[ y(B + \Delta) = y(B) + \text{trace}(\frac{\partial y}{\partial B} \Delta) + o(||\Delta||). \] (8)

3. For \( z : \mathbb{R}^{d} \to \mathbb{R}^{k} \) a vector-valued function; its derivative \( \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \) is an operator such that it can help find the change in function value at \( x \), up to first order, when we add a little perturbation \( \Delta \) to \( x \):

\[ z(x + \Delta) = z(x) + \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \Delta + o(||\Delta||). \] (9)

A formula for the same can be derived as

\[ J(z) = \frac{\partial z}{\partial x} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times d} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial z_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial z_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial z_1}{\partial x_d} \\ \frac{\partial z_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial z_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial z_2}{\partial x_d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial z_k}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial z_k}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial z_k}{\partial x_d} \end{bmatrix}, \] (10)

that is \[ [J(z)]_{ij} = \frac{\partial z_i}{\partial x_j}. \] (11)

4. However, the Hessian of \( f \) is defined as

\[ H(f) = \nabla^2 f(x) = J(\nabla f)^T = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_d} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d \partial x_d} \end{bmatrix}. \] (12)

A first principle definition is given as:

\[ \nabla f(x + \Delta) \approx \nabla f(x) + \nabla^2 f(x)\Delta \] (13)

or equivalently

\[ \nabla f(x + \Delta) = \nabla f(x) + \nabla^2 f(x)\Delta + o(||\Delta||). \]
For sufficiently smooth functions (when the mixed derivatives are equal), the Hessian is a symmetric matrix and in such cases (which cover a lot of cases in daily use) the convention does not matter.

5. The following linear algebra formulas are also helpful:

\[(Ax)_i = \sum_{j=1}^{d} A_{ij}x_j, \quad \text{and,} \quad \quad (A^T x)_i = \sum_{j=1}^{d} A^T_{ij}x_j = \sum_{j=1}^{d} A_{ji}x_j. \quad (14)\]

(a) \(\frac{\partial w^T x}{\partial x}\) and \(\nabla_x(w^T x)\)

**Solution:** We discuss two ways to solve the problem.

**Using first principle:** We use \(f(x) = w^T x\). Then we have

\[f(x + \Delta) = w^T x + w^T \Delta = f(x) + w^T \Delta.\]

Comparing with equation (4), we conclude that

\[\frac{\partial w^T x}{\partial x} = w^T \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla_x(w^T x) = \left(\frac{\partial w^T x}{\partial x}\right)^T = w.\]

**Using the formula [5]:** The idea is to use \(f = w^T x\) and apply equation (5). Note that \(w^T x = \sum_j w_j x_j\). Hence, we have

\[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial \sum_j w_j x_j}{\partial x_i} = w_i.\]

Thus, we find that

\[\frac{\partial w^T x}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial \sum_j w_j x_j}{\partial x} = \left[\frac{\partial \sum_j w_j x_j}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial \sum_j w_j x_j}{\partial x_2}, \ldots, \frac{\partial \sum_j w_j x_j}{\partial x_d}\right] = [w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_d] = w^T.\]

And \(\nabla_x(w^T x) = \frac{\partial w^T x}{\partial x} = w.\)

(b) \(\frac{\partial (w^T Ax)}{\partial x}\) and \(\nabla_x(w^T Ax)\)

**Solution:** We discuss three ways to solve the problem.

**Using part (a):** Note that we can solve this question simply by using part (a). We substitute \(u = A^T w\) to obtain that \(f(x) = u^T x\). Now from part (a), we conclude that

\[\frac{\partial (w^T Ax)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial u^T x}{\partial x} = u^T = w^T A \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla_x(w^T Ax) = \left(\frac{\partial (w^T Ax)}{\partial x}\right)^T = A^T w.\]
Using the first principle: Taking \( f(x) = w^T A x \) and expanding, we have

\[
f(x + \Delta) = w^T A (x + \Delta) = w^T A x + w^T A \Delta = f(x) + w^T A \Delta.
\]

Comparing with equation (4), we conclude that

\[
\frac{\partial w^T A x}{\partial x} = w^T A \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla_x (w^T A x) = \left( \frac{\partial w^T A x}{\partial x} \right)^T = A^T w.
\]

Using the formula (5): The idea is to use \( f(x) = w^T A x \), and apply equation (5). Using the fact that \( w^T A x = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_i A_{ij} x_j \), we find that

\[
\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \sum_{i=1}^{d} \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_i A_{ij} x_j = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_j} \sum_{j=1}^{d} x_j (\sum_{i=1}^{d} A_{ij} w_i) = \sum_{i=1}^{d} A_{ij} w_i = \sum_{i=1}^{d} A^T_{ji} w_i = (A^T w)_j,
\]

where in the last step we have used equation (15). Consequently, we have

\[
\frac{\partial (w^T A x)}{\partial x} = \left[ (A^T w)_1, (A^T w)_2, \ldots, (A^T w)_d \right] = (A^T w)^T = w^T A,
\]

and

\[
\nabla_x (w^T A x) = \left( \frac{\partial (w^T A x)}{\partial x} \right)^T = A^T w.
\]

(c) \( \frac{\partial (w^T A x)}{\partial w} \) and \( \nabla_w (w^T A x) \)

Solution: We discuss three ways to solve the problem.

Using part (a) and (b): Note that we can solve this question simply by using part (a) and (b). We have \( (w^T A x) = (x^T A^T w) \), since for a scalar \( \alpha \), we have \( \alpha = \alpha^T \). And in part (b), reversing the roles of \( x \) and \( w \), we obtain that

\[
\frac{\partial w^T A x}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial x^T A^T w}{\partial x} = x^T A^T \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla_w (w^T A x) = \left( \frac{\partial w^T A x}{\partial w} \right)^T = A x.
\]

Using the first principle: We now consider \( f \) as a function of \( w \). Taking \( f(w) = w^T A x \) and expanding, we have

\[
f(w + \Delta) = (w + \Delta)^T A x = w^T A x + \Delta^T A x = w^T A x + x^T A^T \Delta = f(w) + x^T A^T \Delta.
\]

Comparing with equation (4), we conclude that

\[
\frac{\partial w^T A x}{\partial w} = x^T A^T \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla_w (w^T A x) = \left( \frac{\partial w^T A x}{\partial w} \right)^T = A x.
\]
Using the formula \((5)\) Using a similar idea as in the previous part, we have

\[
\frac{\partial f}{\partial w_i} = \frac{\partial \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_i A_{ij} x_j}{\partial w_i} = \frac{\partial \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_i (\sum_{j=1}^{d} A_{ij} x_j)}{\partial w_i} = \sum_{j=1}^{d} A_{ij} x_j = (Ax)_i,
\]

where in the last step we have used equation (14). Consequently, we have

\[
\frac{\partial (w^T Ax)}{\partial w} = \left[ (Ax)_1, (Ax)_2, \ldots, (Ax)_d \right] = (Ax)^T = x^T A^T,
\]

and

\[
\nabla_w (w^T Ax) = \left( \frac{\partial (w^T Ax)}{\partial w} \right)^T = (x^T A^T)^T = Ax.
\]

(d) \(\frac{\partial (w^T Ax)}{\partial A}\) and \(\nabla_A (w^T Ax)\)

**Solution:**

We discuss two approaches to solve this problem.

**Using the first principle**: Treating \(y = w^T Ax\) as a function of \(A\) and expanding with respect to change in \(A\), we have

\[
y(A + \Delta) = w^T (A + \Delta) x = w^T Ax + w^T \Delta x.
\]

Note that, for two matrices \(M \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}\) and \(N \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}\), we have

\[
\text{trace}(MN) = \text{trace}(NM).
\]

Since \(w^T \Delta x\) is a scalar, we can write \(w^T \Delta x = \text{trace}(w^T \Delta x)\). And using the trace trick, we obtain

\[
w^T \Delta x = \text{trace}(w^T \Delta x) = \text{trace}(xw^T)\Delta.
\]

Thus, we have

\[
y(A + \Delta) = w^T (A + \Delta) x = w^T Ax + w^T \Delta x = y(A) + \text{trace}(xw^T)\Delta,
\]

which on comparison with equation \((8)\) yields that

\[
\frac{\partial (w^T Ax)}{\partial A} = xw^T \quad \text{and} \quad \nabla_A (w^T Ax) = \left[ \frac{\partial (w^T Ax)}{\partial A} \right]^T = xw^T.
\]
Using the formula (7): We use $y = w^T Ax$ and apply the formula (7). We have $w^T Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \sum_{j=1}^{d} w_i A_{ij} x_j$ and hence

$$\left[ \frac{\partial (w^T Ax)}{\partial A} \right]_{ij} = \frac{\partial (w^T Ax)}{\partial A_{ji}} = w_j x_i = (xw^T)_{ij}. $$

Consequently, we have

$$\frac{\partial (w^T Ax)}{\partial A} = [(xw^T)_{ij}],$$

and thereby $\nabla_A (w^T Ax) = wx^T.$

(e) $\frac{\partial (x^T Ax)}{\partial x}$ and $\nabla_x (x^T Ax)$

Solution:

We provide three ways to solve this problem.

Using the first principle: Taking $f(x) = x^T Ax$ and expanding, we have

\[
\begin{align*}
f(x + \Delta) &= (x + \Delta)^T A (x + \Delta) \\
&= x^T Ax + \Delta^T Ax + x^T A \Delta + \Delta^T A \Delta \\
&= f(x) + (x^T A^T + x^T A) \Delta + O(||\Delta||^2)
\end{align*}
\]

which yields

$$\frac{\partial (x^T Ax)}{\partial x} = x^T (A^T + A) \quad \text{and,}$$

$$\nabla_x (x^T Ax) = \left[ \frac{\partial (x^T Ax)}{\partial x} \right]^T = (A + A^T)x.$$

Using the product rule, and parts (b) and (c): We have

$$\frac{\partial (x^T Ax)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial w^T Ax}{\partial x}(x) \bigg|_{w=x} + \frac{\partial w^T Ax}{\partial w}(w) \bigg|_{w=x} = w^T A|_{w=x} + x^T A^T|_{w=x} = x^T (A + A^T)$$

and thereby $\nabla_x (x^T Ax) = \left[ \frac{\partial (x^T Ax)}{\partial x} \right]^T = (A + A^T)x.$

Using the formula [5]: We have $x^T Ax = \sum_{i=1}^{d} \sum_{j=1}^{d} x_i A_{ij} x_j.$ For any given index $\ell$, we have

$$x^T Ax = A_{\ell\ell} x_\ell^2 + x_\ell \sum_{j \neq \ell} (A_{j\ell} + A_{\ell j}) x_j + \sum_{i \neq \ell} \sum_{j \neq \ell} x_i A_{ij} x_j.$$

Thus we have

$$\frac{\partial x^T Ax}{\partial x_\ell} = 2A_{\ell\ell} x_\ell + \sum_{j \neq \ell} (A_{j\ell} + A_{\ell j}) x_j = \sum_{j=1}^{d} (A_{j\ell} + A_{\ell j}) x_j = ((A^T + A)x)_\ell.$$
And consequently
\[
\frac{\partial x^T Ax}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{\partial x^T Ax}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial x^T Ax}{\partial x_2}, \ldots, \frac{\partial x^T Ax}{\partial x_d}
\end{bmatrix}
= \begin{bmatrix}
((A^T + A)x)_1, ((A^T + A)x)_2, \ldots, ((A^T + A)x)_d
\end{bmatrix}
= (A^T + A)x
= x^T(A + A^T),
\]
and hence \( \nabla_x(x^T Ax) = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{\partial x^T Ax}{\partial x}
\end{bmatrix}^T = (A + A^T)x. \)

(f) \( \nabla^2_x(x^T Ax) \)

**Solution:**

We discuss two ways to solve this problem.

**Using the first principle:** We expand \( z(x) = \nabla f(x) = (A + A^T)x \) and find that
\[
z(x + \Delta) = (A + A^T)x + (A + A^T)\Delta.
\]
Relating with equation (13), we obtain that \( \nabla^2 f(x) = A + A^T. \)

**Using the formula (12):** A straightforward computation yields that
\[
\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} = A_{ij} + A_{ji}
\]
and hence
\[
\nabla^2 f(x) = \begin{bmatrix}
\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}
\end{bmatrix} = [(A_{ij} + A_{ji})] = A + A^T.
\]