

A SEMI-DISTANCE AND PROXIMAL DISTANCE ASSOCIATED WITH SYMMETRIC CONE

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ABSTRACT. Recently, there was a distance function \mathbf{d} studied in [16], which was shown a semi-distance in the setting of symmetric cone. This result was indeed verified under the assumption of operator commute. It was further proved that it could become a proximal distance in the setting of second-order cone. In this short paper, we improve these results by showing that the distance function \mathbf{d} studied in [16] is not only a semi-distance, but also a proximal distance in the setting of symmetric cone without assuming operator commute.

1. MOTIVATION AND BACKGROUND MATERIALS

We are interested in constructing distance-like functions, which can be used in proximal-like algorithm [4, 6, 7, 13, 17, 18] for nonlinear symmetric cone programming (SCP):

$$(1.1) \quad \begin{aligned} \min \quad & f(x) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & x \in \mathcal{K}, \end{aligned}$$

where \mathbb{V} is a Euclidean Jordan algebra, $\mathcal{K} \subset \mathbb{V}$ denotes a symmetric cone, $f : \mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \cup \{+\infty\}$ is a proper lower semicontinuous (l.s.c. in short) convex function. That is, the problem (1.1) is a convex programming problem [19].

A popular approach to deal with SCP is the proximal point algorithm, which generates a sequence $\{x^k\}$ via the following iterative scheme:

$$(1.2) \quad x^{k+1} = \arg \min_{x \in \mathcal{K}} \{f(x) + \lambda_k D(x, x^k)\}.$$

Here $D(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a certain function satisfying some desirable properties and $\{\lambda_k\}_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ a positive sequence. The choice of $D(\cdot, \cdot)$ is important and examples of $D(\cdot, \cdot)$ are the distances induced by Euclidean norm, quasi-distance, Bregman distance, φ -divergence, and proximal distance, etc., see [2, 3, 8, 9, 15, 20, 21, 23]. The below chart shows the relationship among these distances.

A *Euclidean Jordan algebra* [5, 10] is a finite dimensional inner product space $(\mathbb{V}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ (\mathbb{V} for short) over the field of real numbers \mathbb{R} equipped with a bilinear map $(x, y) \mapsto x \circ y : \mathbb{V} \times \mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$, which satisfies the following conditions:

- (i) $x \circ y = y \circ x$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{V}$;

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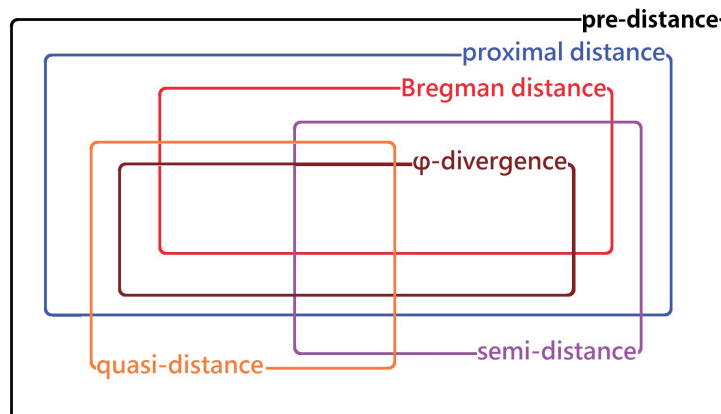


FIGURE 1. Relationship among various distances.

- (ii) $x \circ (x^2 \circ y) = x^2 \circ (x \circ y)$ for all $x, y \in \mathbb{V}$ where $x^2 := x \circ x$;
- (iii) $\langle x \circ y, z \rangle = \langle x, y \circ z \rangle$ for all $x, y, z \in \mathbb{V}$.

Here $x \circ y$ is called the *Jordan product* of x and y . If a Jordan product only satisfies the conditions (i) and (ii) in the above definition, the algebra \mathbb{V} is said to be a *Jordan algebra*. Moreover, if there is an (unique) element $e \in \mathbb{V}$ such that $x \circ e = x$ for all $x \in \mathbb{V}$, the element e is called the *identity element* in \mathbb{V} . Note that a Jordan algebra does not necessarily have an identity element. Throughout this paper, we assume that \mathbb{V} is a Euclidean Jordan algebra with an identity element e .

In a given Euclidean Jordan algebra \mathbb{V} , the set of squares $\mathcal{K} := \{x^2 \mid x \in \mathbb{V}\}$ is a *symmetric cone* [10, Theorem III.2.1]. This means that \mathcal{K} is a self-dual closed convex cone and, for any two elements $x, y \in \text{int}(\mathcal{K})$, there exists an invertible linear transformation $\Gamma : \mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$ such that $\Gamma(x) = y$ and $\Gamma(\mathcal{K}) = \mathcal{K}$. It is well known that second-order cone is a special symmetric cone, which is defined as follows in \mathbb{R}^n :

$$\mathcal{K}^n := \{x = (x_0, \bar{x}) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \mid x_0 \geq \|\bar{x}\|\},$$

and the corresponding Jordan product of x and y in \mathbb{R}^n with $x = (x_0, \bar{x})$, $y = (y_0, \bar{y}) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$ is given by

$$x \circ y := \begin{bmatrix} x^T y \\ x_0 \bar{y} + y_0 \bar{x} \end{bmatrix}.$$

In particular, in the setting of the second-order cone \mathcal{K}^n , the identity element $e = (1, 0) \in \mathbb{R} \times \mathbb{R}^{n-1}$, where 0 denotes the zero vector in \mathbb{R}^{n-1} .

For $x \in \mathbb{V}$, we denote $m(x)$ the *degree* of the minimal polynomial of x , that is,

$$m(x) := \min \left\{ k > 0 \mid \{e, x, \dots, x^k\} \text{ is linearly dependent} \right\},$$

and the *rank* of \mathbb{V} is well-defined by $r := \max\{m(x) \mid x \in \mathbb{V}\}$. In Euclidean Jordan algebra \mathbb{V} , an element $e^i \in \mathbb{V}$ is an *idempotent* if $(e^i)^2 = e^i$, and it is a *primitive idempotent* if it is nonzero and cannot be written as a sum of two nonzero idempotents. The idempotents e^i and e^j are said to be *orthogonal* if $e^i \circ e^j = 0$. In

addition, we say that a finite set $\{e^1, e^2, \dots, e^r\}$ of primitive idempotents in \mathbb{V} is a *Jordan frame* if

$$e^i \circ e^j = 0 \text{ for } i \neq j, \text{ and } \sum_{i=1}^r e^i = e.$$

Note that $\langle e^i, e^j \rangle = \langle e^i \circ e^j, e \rangle$ whenever $i \neq j$.

With the above, there have the spectral decomposition and Peirce decomposition of an element x in \mathbb{V} .

Theorem 1.1 ((The Spectral Decomposition Theorem) [10, Theorem III.1.2]). *Let \mathbb{V} be a Euclidean Jordan algebra. Then, there is a number r such that, for every $x \in \mathbb{V}$, there exists a Jordan frame $\{e^1, \dots, e^r\}$ and real numbers $\lambda_1(x), \dots, \lambda_r(x)$ with*

$$x = \lambda_1(x)e^1 + \dots + \lambda_r(x)e^r.$$

Here, the numbers $\lambda_i(x)$ ($i = 1, \dots, r$) are the eigenvalues of x , the expression $\lambda_1(x)e^1 + \dots + \lambda_r(x)e^r$ is the spectral decomposition of x . Moreover, $\text{tr}(x) := \sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i(x)$ is called the trace of x , and $\det(x) := \lambda_1(x) \dots \lambda_r(x)$.

We point out that different elements x, y have their own Jordan frames in the spectral decomposition, which are not easy to handle when we need to do operations for x and y . Thus, we need another so-called Peirce decomposition to conquer such difficulty. In other words, in the Peirce decomposition, two different elements x, y share the same Jordan frame. We elaborate them more as below.

The Peirce decomposition: Fix a Jordan frame $\{e^1, e^2, \dots, e^r\}$ in a Euclidean Jordan algebra \mathbb{V} . For $i, j \in \{1, 2, \dots, r\}$, we define the following eigen-spaces

$$\mathbb{V}_{ii} := \{x \in \mathbb{V} \mid x \circ e^i = x\} = \mathbb{R}e^i$$

and

$$\mathbb{V}_{ij} := \left\{ x \in \mathbb{V} \mid x \circ e^i = \frac{1}{2}x = x \circ e^j \right\} \text{ for } i \neq j.$$

Theorem 1.2 ([10, Theorem IV.2.1]). *The space \mathbb{V} is the orthogonal direct sum of spaces \mathbb{V}_{ij} ($i \leq j$). Furthermore,*

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{V}_{ij} \circ \mathbb{V}_{ij} &\subset \mathbb{V}_{ii} + \mathbb{V}_{jj}, \\ \mathbb{V}_{ij} \circ \mathbb{V}_{jk} &\subset \mathbb{V}_{ik}, \text{ if } i \neq k, \\ \mathbb{V}_{ij} \circ \mathbb{V}_{kl} &= \{0\}, \text{ if } \{i, j\} \cap \{k, l\} = \emptyset. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, given any Jordan frame $\{e^1, e^2, \dots, e^r\}$, we can write any element $x \in \mathbb{V}$ as

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^r x_i e^i + \sum_{i < j} x_{ij},$$

where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$ and $x_{ij} \in \mathbb{V}_{ij}$. The expression $\sum_{i=1}^r x_i e^i + \sum_{i < j} x_{ij}$ is called the *Peirce decomposition* of x .

Theorem 1.3 ([22, Theorem 4.6]). *Suppose that \mathbb{V} is simple and $\{e^1, \dots, e^r\}$ is any fixed Jordan frame in \mathbb{V} . Let $z = \sum_{i=1}^r z_i e^i + \sum_{i < j} z_{ij} \in \mathcal{K}$. Then, we have*

$$\sum_{i=1}^r z_i^p \leq \text{tr}(z^p) \quad \text{for } p > 1 \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^r z_i^p \geq \text{tr}(z^p) \quad \text{for } 0 < p < 1,$$

where the equalities hold if and only if $z = \sum_{i=1}^r z_i e^i$.

In a Euclidean Jordan algebras \mathbb{V} , for any $x \in \mathbb{V}$, a linear transformation $L(x) : \mathbb{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{V}$ is called *Lyapunov transformation*, which is defined as $L(x)(y) := x \circ y$ for all $y \in \mathbb{V}$. The so-called *quadratic representation* $P(x)$ is define by $P(x) := 2L^2(x) - L(x^2)$. For any $x \in \mathbb{V}$, the endomorphisms $L(x)$ and $P(x)$ are self-adjoint. We say that two elements x and y of a Euclidean Jordan algebra \mathbb{V} *operator commute* if $x \circ (y \circ z) = y \circ (x \circ z)$ for all $z \in \mathbb{V}$, which is equivalent to stating that $L(x)L(y) = L(y)L(x)$. For the quadratic representation $P(x)$, if x is invertible, then we have

$$P(x)\mathcal{K} = \mathcal{K} \quad \text{and} \quad P(x)\text{int}(\mathcal{K}) = \text{int}(\mathcal{K}).$$

Below is a useful property regarding the quadratic representation $P(x)$, which is needed for our subsequent analysis.

Theorem 1.4 ([12, Proposition 2.5]). *Suppose that $\{e^1, e^2, \dots, e^r\}$ is Jordan frame in \mathbb{V} and the spectral decomposition of x can be expressed as $x = \lambda_1(x)e^1 + \dots + \lambda_r(x)e^r$. For any $z \in \mathbb{V}$, if the Peirce decomposition of z is $z = \sum_{i=1}^r z_i e^i + \sum_{i < j} z_{ij}$, we have*

$$P(x)z = \sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i(x)^2 z_i e^i + \sum_{i < j} \lambda_i(x)\lambda_j(x) z_{ij}.$$

In light of the trace function $\text{tr}(\cdot)$, a semi-distance function associated with symmetric cone was proposed in [16]:

$$(1.3) \quad d(x, y) := \text{tr}(x + y) - 2 \text{tr} \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}, \quad \text{for } x, y \in \mathcal{K}.$$

When the symmetric cone reduces to the second-order cone \mathcal{K}^n , the function $d(x, y)$ was modified a bit as below distance function (1.4) and is further proved a proximal distance in [16]. When the symmetric cone reduces to the semi-definite positive matrix cone, the function $d(x, y)$ corresponds to the matrix distance proposed by Givens and Shortt [11]:

$$d(A, B) := \text{tr}(A + B) - 2 \text{tr} \left(A^{\frac{1}{2}} B A^{\frac{1}{2}} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}.$$

Theorem 1.5 ([16, Theorem 2.3]). *Let $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ be defined as in (1.3). For any $x, y \in \mathcal{K}$, assume that x and y operator commute. Then, the function $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a semi-distance, i.e.,*

- (a) $d(x, y) \geq 0$;
- (b) $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$;
- (c) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$.

As mentioned earlier, the function $d(x, y)$ was modified a bit in the setting of second-order cone in [16], which could become a proximal distance. In particular, for any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, there defines $\mathbf{d} : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \cup \{+\infty\}$ by

$$(1.4) \quad \mathbf{d}(x, y) := \begin{cases} \operatorname{tr}(x + y) - 2 \operatorname{tr} \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} & \forall x \in \operatorname{int}(\mathcal{K}^n), y \in \mathcal{K}^n, \\ +\infty & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

This modified function $\mathbf{d}(x, y)$ is a proximal distance on $\operatorname{int}(\mathcal{K}^n)$, see [16, Theorem 3.7].

Theorem 1.6 ([16, Theorem 3.7]). *Let the function $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ be defined by (1.4). Then, the function $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a proximal distance with respect to $\overline{\operatorname{int}(\mathcal{K}^n)}$, i.e.,*

- (a) $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, y)$ is proper, l.s.c., convex, continuously differentiable on $\operatorname{int}(\mathcal{K}^n)$;
- (b) $\operatorname{dom} \mathbf{d}(\cdot, y) \subset \overline{\operatorname{int}(\mathcal{K}^n)}$ and $\operatorname{dom} \partial_1 \mathbf{d}(\cdot, y) = \operatorname{int}(\mathcal{K}^n)$, where the symbol $\partial_1 \mathbf{d}(\cdot, y)$ denotes the classical subgradient map of the function $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, y)$ with respect to the first variable;
- (c) $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, y)$ is level bounded on \mathbb{R}^n i.e., $\lim_{\|u\| \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{d}(u, y) = +\infty$;
- (d) $\mathbf{d}(y, y) = 0$.

In this short paper, we improve these two results by showing that without assuming operator commute, the function $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a semi-distance, and the function $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a proximal distance in the setting of symmetric cone. These generalizations enable them applicable to proximal-like algorithm for nonlinear symmetric cone programming.

2. MAIN RESULTS

In this section, without assuming operator commute, we show our main results. Indeed, there exists a difficulty that the same Jordan frame is not available for any two elements x and y in \mathbb{V} , when there is no condition of operator commute. Our novel idea to tackle with it is using the spectral decomposition of x , whereas employing the Peirce decomposition of y . These together with the quadratic representation $P(x)$ paves a way to do the analysis.

Theorem 2.1. *Let $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ be defined as in (1.3). For any $x, y \in \mathcal{K}$, the function $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a semi-distance, i.e., there hold*

- (a) $d(x, y) \geq 0$;
- (b) $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$;
- (c) $d(x, y) = d(y, x)$.

Proof. (a) Suppose that $\{e^1, e^2, \dots, e^r\}$ is a Jordan frame in \mathbb{V} . With this, we write out the spectral decomposition of x and the Peirce decomposition of y , respectively, as below:

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \lambda_1(x) e^1 + \dots + \lambda_r(x) e^r, \\ y &= y_1 e^1 + \dots + y_r e^r + \sum_{i < j} y_{ij}. \end{aligned}$$

Based on the spectral decomposition of x , it follows that

$$x^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sqrt{\lambda_1(x)} e^1 + \cdots + \sqrt{\lambda_r(x)} e^r.$$

Combining with Theorem 1.5, this implies that

$$P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y = \lambda_1(x)y_1 e^1 + \cdots + \lambda_r(x)y_r e^r + \sum_{i < j} \sqrt{\lambda_i(x)\lambda_j(x)} y_{ij}.$$

Then, applying Theorem 1.3, we have

$$\operatorname{tr} \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \leq \sum_{i=1}^r \sqrt{\lambda_i(x)y_i}.$$

According to this, for any $x, y \in \mathcal{K}$, we achieve

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, y) &= \operatorname{tr}(x + y) - 2 \operatorname{tr} \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &\geq \operatorname{tr}(x) + \operatorname{tr}(y) - 2 \sum_{i=1}^r \sqrt{\lambda_i(x)y_i} \\ &\geq \sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i(x) + \sum_{i=1}^r y_i - 2 \sum_{i=1}^r \sqrt{\lambda_i(x)y_i} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^r \left(\sqrt{\lambda_i(x)} - \sqrt{y_i} \right)^2 \\ &\geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where the second inequality follows from [12, Corollary 4.6]. Hence, we prove that $d(x, y) \geq 0$.

(b) From the proof of part (a), we know that

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, y) &= \operatorname{tr}(x + y) - 2 \operatorname{tr} \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \geq \operatorname{tr}(x) + \operatorname{tr}(y) - 2 \sum_{i=1}^r \sqrt{\lambda_i(x)y_i} \\ &\geq \sum_{i=1}^r \left(\sqrt{\lambda_i(x)} - \sqrt{y_i} \right)^2 \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, it follows from $d(x, y) = 0$ that

$$\operatorname{tr}(x + y) - 2 \operatorname{tr} \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \operatorname{tr}(x) + \operatorname{tr}(y) - 2 \sum_{i=1}^r \sqrt{\lambda_i(x)y_i}$$

and

$$\sum_{i=1}^r \left(\sqrt{\lambda_i(x)} - \sqrt{y_i} \right)^2 = 0.$$

These lead that

$$\operatorname{tr} \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \sum_{i=1}^r \sqrt{\lambda_i(x)y_i} \quad \text{and} \quad \sqrt{\lambda_i(x)} = \sqrt{y_i} \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, r.$$

In addition, applying Theorem 1.3 yields

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^r \lambda_i(x)e^i = \sum_{i=1}^r y_i e^i = y.$$

Therefore, it is clear to see that $d(x, y) = 0$ if and only if $x = y$.

(c) First, from [14, Proposition 3.2], for any $x, y \in \mathcal{K}$, we have

$$\lambda_i \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right) = \lambda_i \left(P(y^{\frac{1}{2}})x \right)$$

for $i = 1, \dots, r$. This leads to

$$\lambda_i \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \lambda_i \left(P(y^{\frac{1}{2}})x \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \forall i = 1, \dots, r.$$

Hence, it follows that $\text{tr} \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = \text{tr} \left(P(y^{\frac{1}{2}})x \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$, which implies that

$$\begin{aligned} d(x, y) &= \text{tr}(x + y) - 2 \text{tr} \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\ &= \text{tr}(y + x) - 2 \text{tr} \left(P(y^{\frac{1}{2}})x \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} = d(y, x). \end{aligned}$$

Then, the proof is complete. □

Theorem 2.2. *Let $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ be defined as in (1.3). Then, the function $d(x, y)$ is convex, for any a fixed $x \in \mathcal{K}$ or $y \in \mathcal{K}$.*

Proof. The proof is the similar to [16, Theorem 2.4]. Hence, we omit it. □

From Theorem 2.1 and Theorem 2.2, we have shown that the function $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ defined as in (1.3) is a convex semi-distance associated with symmetric cone. However, as indicated in [16], it can be verified by using the convexity of $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ that the triangle inequality fails. To see this, for given any $x, y \in \mathcal{K}$, taking $z = \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y$ and $0 < \lambda < 1$, there have

$$(2.1) \quad \begin{aligned} d(x, z) &= d(x, \lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) \\ &\leq \lambda d(x, x) + (1 - \lambda)d(x, y) = (1 - \lambda)d(x, y), \end{aligned}$$

$$(2.2) \quad \begin{aligned} d(z, y) &= d(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y, y) \\ &\leq \lambda d(x, y) + (1 - \lambda)d(y, y) = \lambda d(x, y). \end{aligned}$$

Then, adding (2.1) and (2.2) together yields

$$d(x, z) + d(z, y) \leq d(x, y).$$

In other words, the semi-distance $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ defined as in (1.3) could not become a “distance function” (metric function). Thus, we turn our attention to the possibility of $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ becoming a proximal distance.

In order to prove $d(\cdot, \cdot)$ could become a proximal distance, we need to modify it a bit. For any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we define $\mathbf{d} : \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_+ \cup \{+\infty\}$ by

$$(2.3) \quad \mathbf{d}(x, y) := \begin{cases} \text{tr}(x + y) - 2 \text{tr} \left(P(x^{\frac{1}{2}})y \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} & \forall x \in \text{int}\mathcal{K}, y \in \mathcal{K}, \\ +\infty & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

The above function $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is different from the ones given in [1]. To our best knowledge, it may be the only proximal distance which is not induced from Bregman distance or φ -divergence. This function, as will be shown below, is a proximal distance on $\text{int}\mathcal{K}$.

Theorem 2.3. *Let $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ be defined as in (2.3) in the setting of symmetric cone. Then, the function $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ is a proximal distance, i.e., it satisfies*

- (a) $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, y)$ is proper, l.s.c., convex, continuously differentiable on $\text{int}\mathcal{K}$;
- (b) $\text{dom } \mathbf{d}(\cdot, y) \subset \overline{\text{int}\mathcal{K}}$ and $\text{dom } \partial_1 \mathbf{d}(\cdot, y) = \text{int}\mathcal{K}$, where $\partial_1 \mathbf{d}(\cdot, y)$ denotes the classical subgradient map of the function $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, y)$ with respect to the first variable;
- (c) $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, y)$ is level bounded on \mathbb{R}^n i.e., $\lim_{\|u\| \rightarrow \infty} \mathbf{d}(u, y) = +\infty$;
- (d) $\mathbf{d}(y, y) = 0$.

Proof. (a) The proof is similar to [5, Lemma 3.1], we omit the details.

(b) The arguments are similar to [16, Proposition 3.5], due to only the general cone structure is used. We also omit them.

(c) Suppose $y \in \text{int}\mathcal{K}$. For any $x \in \text{int}\mathcal{K}$, as what we do in Theorem 2.1, we write out the spectral decomposition of x and the Peirce decomposition of y , respectively, i.e.,

$$x = \lambda_1(x) e^1 + \cdots + \lambda_r(x) e^r \quad \text{and} \quad y = y_1 e^1 + \cdots + y_r e^r + \sum_{i < j} y_{ij}.$$

Note that $\|x\|^2 = \lambda_1(x)^2 \|e^1\|^2 + \cdots + \lambda_r(x)^2 \|e^r\|^2 \leq r \lambda_1(x)^2 \|e^1\|^2$, where the inequality holds because $\|e^i\|$ is a constant on \mathbb{V} for any primitive idempotent e^i ($i = 1, \dots, r$) and $\lambda_1(x) \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_r(x) \geq 0$. Hence, it is easy to check that $\lambda_1(x) \rightarrow \infty$ as $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$. From this and the proof of part (a) in Theorem 2.1, we have

$$\mathbf{d}(x, y) \geq \sum_{i=1}^r \left(\sqrt{\lambda_i(x)} - \sqrt{\mu_i} \right)^2 \geq \left(\sqrt{\lambda_1(x)} - \sqrt{\mu_1} \right)^2 \rightarrow \infty.$$

It follows that $\mathbf{d}(x, y) \rightarrow \infty$ as $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$ for any $x \in \text{int}\mathcal{K}$. Moreover, $\mathbf{d}(x, y) = \infty$ when $x \notin \text{int}\mathcal{K}$. Then, we prove that $\mathbf{d}(x, y) \rightarrow \infty$ as $\|x\| \rightarrow \infty$ for any $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Thus, we conclude that $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, y)$ is level bounded on \mathbb{R}^n .

(d) This property is trivial.

To sum up, the function $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ defined as in (2.3) is a proximal distance in the setting of symmetric cone. □

Remark 2.4. We say a few words about Theorem 2.1 and Theorem 2.3. In fact, when the symmetric cone \mathcal{K} reduces to the second-order cone \mathcal{K}^n , the conclusions of Theorem 2.1 and Theorem 2.3 correspond to the contents of Theorem 2.5 and theorem 3.7 in [16], respectively. In other words, our results are generalizations of Theorem 2.5 and theorem 3.7 in [16] in a broader framework.

3. CONCLUDING REMARKS

In this paper, we study a semi-distance associated with symmetric cone \mathcal{K} . Furthermore, based on it, we construct a proximal distance on $\text{int}\mathcal{K}$, which also answers a question raised in [16]. Again, we would like to point out some possible future directions as mentioned in [16].

- Can the function $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ further become a Bregman distance or φ -divergence?
- Can the function $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ be extended to nonsymmetric cone setting? In particular, for circular cone \mathcal{L}_θ , we have already known one type of spectral decomposition of x and some differentiabilitys of $\lambda_i(x)$, see [24]. By using these facts, we may consider to construct an analogous distance function $\mathbf{d}(\cdot, \cdot)$ in the setting of circular cone.

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