

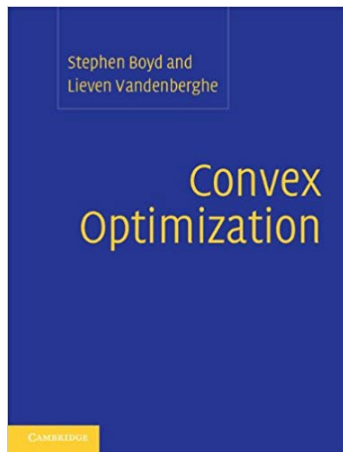
CS495
Optimiztaion

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Lectures follow:

Boyd and Vandenberghe (2004)



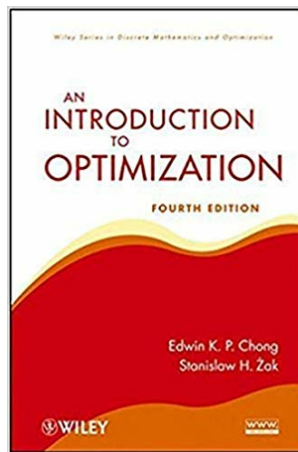
Boyd, S., & Vandenberghe, L. (2004). Convex Optimization. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Book and Stanford course:

<http://web.stanford.edu/~boyd/cvxbook/>

Some examples from:

Chong and Zak (2001)



Chong, E. K., & Zak, S. (2001). An introduction to optimization: Wiley-Interscience.

Course Objectives

- Developing rigorous mathematical treatment for mathematical optimization.
- Building intuition, in particular to practical problems.
- Developing computer practice to using optimization SW.

Prerequisites

Calculus (both single and multivariable) and Linear Algebra.

Chapter 1

Introduction

Snapshot on Optimization

Acknowledgment

Figures from [Boyd and Vandenberghe \(2004\)](#) are extracted from the PDF version of the book¹, with permission from the authors.

¹<http://web.stanford.edu/~boyd/cvxbook/>

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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Mathematical Optimization

Definition 1 A mathematical optimization problem or just optimization problem, has the form (Boyd and Vandenberghe, 2004):

$$\begin{aligned} &\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} && f_0(x) \\ &\text{subject to:} && f_i(x) \leq 0, && i = 1, \dots, m \\ &&& h_i(x) = 0, && i = 1, \dots, p, \end{aligned}$$

$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbf{R}^n$, (optimization variable)

$f_0: \mathbf{R}^n \mapsto \mathbf{R}$, (objective (cost/utility) function)

$f_i: \mathbf{R}^n \mapsto \mathbf{R}$, (inequality constraints (functions))

$h_i: \mathbf{R}^n \mapsto \mathbf{R}$, (equality constraints (functions))

$$\mathcal{D}: \bigcap_{i=1}^m \text{dom } f_i \cap \bigcap_{i=1}^p \text{dom } h_i \quad (\text{feasible set})$$

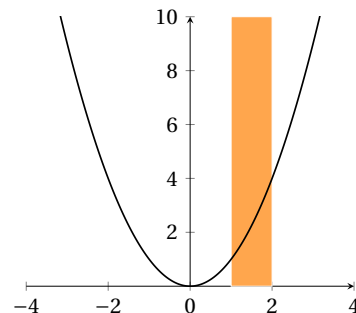
$$= \{x \mid x \in \mathbf{R}^n \wedge f_i(x) \leq 0 \wedge h_i(x) = 0\}$$

$$x^*: \{x \mid x \in \mathcal{D} \wedge f_0(x) \leq f_0(z) \forall z \in \mathcal{D}\} \quad (\text{solution})$$

- minimize $f_0 \equiv \text{maximize } -f_0$.
- $f_i \leq 0 \equiv -f_i \geq 0$.
- 0s can be replaced of course by constants b_i, c_i
- unconstrained problem when $m = p = 0$.

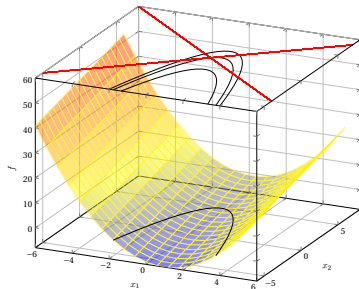
Example 2 :

$$\begin{aligned} &\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} && x^2 \\ &\text{subject to:} && x \leq 2 \wedge x \geq 1. \end{aligned}$$



$$x^* = 1.$$

If the constraints are relaxed, then $x^* = 0$.



$$\begin{aligned} &\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} && f_0(x) \\ &\text{subject to:} && f_i(x) \leq 0, && i = 1, \dots, m \\ &&& h_i(x) = 0, && i = 1, \dots, p, \end{aligned}$$

$x = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbf{R}^n$, (optimization variable)

$f_0: \mathbf{R}^n \mapsto \mathbf{R}$, (objective (cost/utility) function)

$f_i: \mathbf{R}^n \mapsto \mathbf{R}$, (inequality constraints (functions))

$h_i: \mathbf{R}^n \mapsto \mathbf{R}$, (equality constraints (functions))

$$\mathcal{D}: \bigcap_{i=1}^m \text{dom } f_i \cap \bigcap_{i=1}^p \text{dom } h_i \quad (\text{feasible set})$$

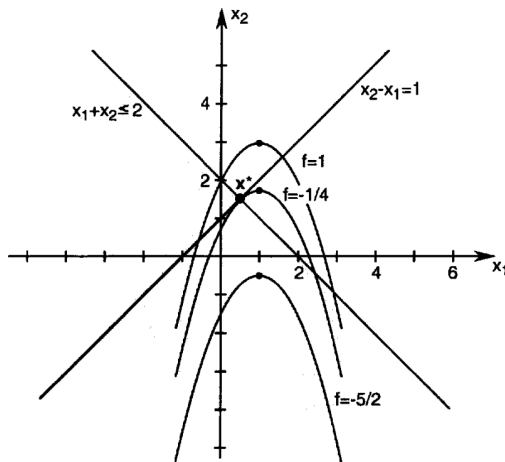
$$= \{x \mid x \in \mathbf{R}^n \wedge f_i(x) \leq 0 \wedge h_i(x) = 0\}$$

$$x^*: \{x \mid x \in \mathcal{D} \wedge f_0(x) \leq f_0(z) \forall z \in \mathcal{D}\} \quad (\text{solution})$$

Example 3 (*Chong and Zak, 2001, Ex. 20.1, P. 454*):

$$\begin{aligned} &\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} && (x_1 - 1)^2 + x_2 - 2 \\ &\text{subject to:} && x_2 - x_1 = 1 \\ &&& x_1 + x_2 \leq 2. \end{aligned}$$

No global minimizer: $\partial z / \partial x_2 = 1 \neq 0$. However, $z|_{(x_2 - x_1 = 1)} = (x_1 - 1)^2 + (x_1 - 1)$, which attains a minimum at $x_1 = 1/2$.



$x^* = (1/2, 3/2)'$. (Let's see animation)

1.1.1 Motivation and Applications

- *optimization problem* is an abstraction of how to make “best” possible choice of $x \in \mathbf{R}^n$.
- *constrains* represent trim requirements or specifications that limit the possible choices.
- *objective function* represents the *cost* to minimize or the *utility* to maximize for each x .

Examples:

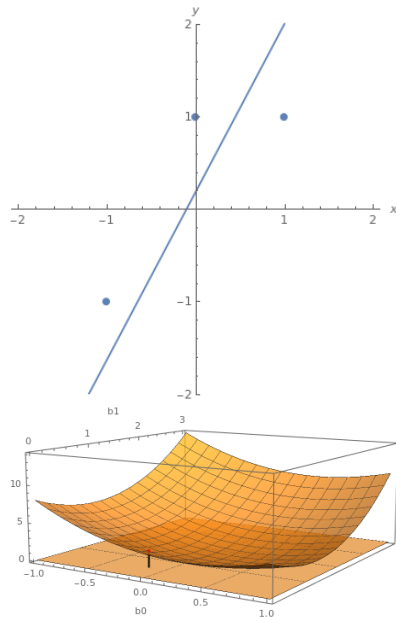
	<i>Any problem</i>	<i>Portfolio Optimization</i>	<i>Device Sizing</i>	<i>Data Science</i>
$x \in \mathbf{R}^n$	choice made	investment in capitals	dimensions	parameters
f_i, h_i	firm requirements /conditions	overall budget	engineering constraints	regularizer
f_0	cost (or utility)	overall risk	power consumption	error

- Amazing variety of practical problems. In particular, data science: two sub-fields: construction and assessment.
- The construction of: Least Mean Square (LMS), Logistic Regression (LR), Support Vector Machines (SVM), Neural Networks(NN), Deep Neural Networks (DNN), etc.
- Many techniques are for solving the optimization problem:
 - Closed form solutions: convex optimization problems
 - Numerical solutions: Newton’s methods, Gradient methods, Gradient descent, etc.
 - “Intelligent” methods: particle swarm optimization, genetic algorithms, etc.

Example 4 (Machine Learning: construction) :

Let's suppose that the best regression function is $Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X$, then for the training dataset (x_i, y_i) we need to minimize the MSE.

$$\underset{\beta_0, \beta_1}{\text{minimize}} \sum_i (\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i - y_i)^2$$



- Half of ML field is construction: NN, SVM, etc.
- In DNN it is an optimization problem of millions of parameters.
- Let's see animation.
- Where are Probability, Statistics, and Linear Algebra here? Let's re-visit the chart.
- Is the optimization problem solvable:
 - closed form? (LSM)
 - numerically and guaranteed? (convex and linear)
 - numerically but not guaranteed? (non-convex):
 - * numerical algorithms, e.g., GD,
 - * local optimization,
 - * heuristics, swarm, and genetics,
 - * brute-force with exhaustive search

1.1.2 Solving Optimization Problems

- A *solution method* for a class of optimization problems is an algorithm that computes a solution.
- Even when the *objective function* and constraints are smooth, e.g., polynomials, the solution is very difficult.
- There are three classes where solutions exist, theory is very well developed, and amazingly found in many practical problems:

Linear \subset Quadratic \subset Convex \subset Non-linear (not linear and not known to be convex!)

- For the first three classes, the problem can be solved very reliably in hundreds or thousands of variables!

1.2 Least-Squares and Linear Programming

1.2.1 Least-Squares Problems

A *least-squares* problem is an optimization problem with no constraints (i.e., $m = p = 0$), and an objective in the form:

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} f_0(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k (a'_i x - b_i)^2 = \|A_{k \times n} x_{n \times 1} - b_{k \times 1}\|^2.$$

The solution is given in **closed form** by:

$$x = (A' A)^{-1} A' b$$

- Good algorithms in many SC SW exist; it is a very mature technology.
- Solution time is $O(n^2 k)$.
- Easily solvable even for hundreds or thousands of variables.
- More on that in the Linear Algebra course.
- Many other problems reduce to typical LS problem:
 - Weighted LS (to emphasize some observations)

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} f_0(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k w_i (a'_i x - b_i)^2.$$

- Regularization (to penalize for over-fitting)

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} f_0(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k (a'_i x - b_i)^2 + \rho \sum_{j=1}^n x_j^2.$$

1.2.2 Linear Programming

A *linear programming* problem is an optimization problem with objective and all constraint functions are linear:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \underset{x}{\text{minimize}} & f_0(x) = C'x \\ \text{subject to:} & a'_i x \leq b_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m \\ & h'_i x = g_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, p, \end{array}$$

- **No** closed form solution as opposed to LS.
- Very robust, reliable, and effective set of methods for numerical solution; e.g., Dantzig's simplex, and interior point.
- Complexity is $\simeq O(n^2 m)$.
- Similar to LS, we can solve a problem of thousands of variables.
- Example is *Chebyshev minimization* problem:

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} f_0(x) = \max_{i=1, \dots, k} |a'_i x - b_i|,$$

- The objective is different from the LS: minimize the maximum error. **Ex:**
- After some tricks, requiring familiarity with optimization, it is equivalent to a LP:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \underset{x}{\text{minimize}} & t \\ \text{subject to:} & a'_i x - t \leq b_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, k \\ & -a'_i x - t \leq -b_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, k \end{array}$$

1.3 Convex Optimization

A *convex optimization* problem is an optimization problem with objective and all constraint function are convex:

$$\begin{array}{llll} \underset{x}{\text{minimize}} & f_0(x) & & \\ \text{subject to:} & f_i(x) \leq 0, & i = 1, \dots, m & \\ & h_i(x) = 0, & i = 1, \dots, p, & \\ & f_i(\alpha x + \beta y) \leq \alpha f_i(x) + \beta f_i(y), & \alpha + \beta = 1, & 0 \leq \alpha, 0 \leq \beta, \quad 0 \leq i \leq m \\ & h_i(x) = a'_i x + b_i & & 0 \leq i \leq p \end{array}$$

- The LP and LS are special cases; however, only LS has closed-form solution.
- Very robust, reliable, and effective set of methods, including *interior point methods*.
- Complexity is almost: $O(\max(n^3, n^2 m, F))$, where F is the cost of evaluating 1st and 2nd derivatives of f_i and h_i .
- Similar to LS and LP, we can solve a problem of thousands of variables.
- However, it is not as very mature technology as the LP and LS yet.
- There are many practical problems that can be re-formulated as convex problem **BUT** requires mathematical skills; but once done the problem is solved. **Hint:** realizing that the problem is convex requires more mathematical maturity than those required for LP and LS.

1.4 Nonlinear Optimization

A *non-linear optimization* problem is an optimization problem with objective and constraint functions are non-linear **BUT** not known to be convex (**so far**). Even simple-looking problems in 10 variables can be extremely challenging. Several approaches for solutions:

Local Optimization : starting at initial point in space, using differentiability, then navigate

- does not guarantee global optimal.
- affected heavily by initial point.
- depends heavily on numerical algorithm and their parameters.
- More art than technology.
- In contrast to convex optimization, where a lot of art and mathematical skills are required to formulate the problem as convex; then numerical solution is straightforward.

Global Optimization : the true global solution is found; the compromise is complexity.

- The complexity goes exponential with dimensions.
- Sometimes it is worth it when: the cost is huge, not in real time, and dimensionality is low.

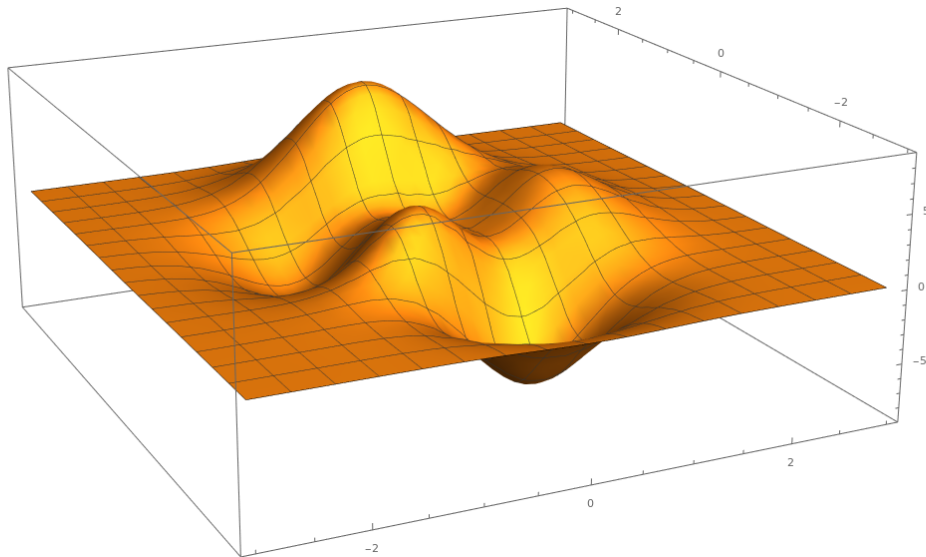
Role of Convex Optimization :

- Approximate the non-linear function to a convex one, finding the exact solution, then using it as a starting point for the original problem. (Also does not guarantee optimality)
- Setting bounds on the global solution.

Evolutionary Computations : Genetic Algorithm (GA), Simulated Annealing (SA), Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO), etc.

Example 5 (Nonlinear Objective Function) : (*Chong and Zak, 2001, Ex. 14.3*)

$$f(x, y) = 3(1 - x)^2 e^{-x^2 - (y+1)^2} - 10e^{-x^2 - y^2} \left(-x^3 + \frac{x}{5} - y^5 \right) - \frac{1}{3} e^{-(x+1)^2 - y^2}$$



Part I

Theory

Chapter 2

Convex sets

2.1 Affine and convex sets

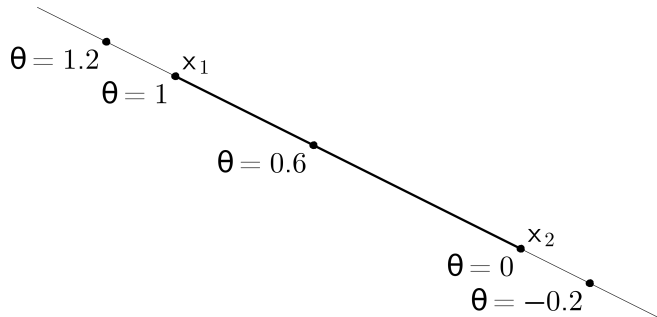
2.1.1 Lines and line segments

Definition 6 (line and line segment) Suppose $x_1 \neq x_2 \in \mathbf{R}^n$. Points of the form

$$\begin{aligned}y &= \theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2 \\ &= x_2 + \theta(x_1 - x_2),\end{aligned}$$

where $\theta \in \mathbf{R}$, form the line passing through x_1 and x_2 .

- As usual, this is a definition for high dimensions taken from a proof for $n \leq 3$.
- We have done it many times: angle, norm, cardinality of sets, etc.
- if $0 \leq \theta \leq 1$ this forms a line segment.



2.1.2 Affine sets

Definition 7 (Affine sets) A set $C \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ is affine if the line through any two distinct points in C lies in C . I.e., $\forall x_1, x_2 \in C$ and $\theta \in \mathbf{R}$, we have $\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2 \in \mathbf{R}^n$. In other words, C contains any linear combination (summing to one) of any two points in C .

Examples: what about line, line segment, circle, disk, strip, first quadrant?

Corollary 8 Suppose C is an affine set, and $x_1, \dots, x_k \in C$, then C contains every general affine combination of the form $\theta_1 x_1 + \dots + \theta_k x_k$, where $\theta_1 + \dots + \theta_k = 1$.

Wrong Proof. Suppose $y_1, y_2 \in C$, then

$$x = \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i x_i = \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i (\alpha_i y_1 + (1 - \alpha_i) y_2);$$

and the summation of the coefficients will be

$$\sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i \alpha_i + \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i (1 - \alpha_i) = \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i (\alpha_i + 1 - \alpha_i) = \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i = 1.$$

Where is the bug?

Correct Proof. base: $k = 3$.

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2 + \theta_3 x_3 \\ &= (1 - \theta_3) \left(\frac{\theta_1}{1 - \theta_3} x_1 + \frac{\theta_2}{1 - \theta_3} x_2 \right) + \theta_3 x_3. \\ &= (1 - \theta_3)(\cdot \in C) + \theta_3(\cdot \in C). \end{aligned}$$

induction: suppose it is true for some $k \geq 3$; i.e., $\sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i x_i \in C$ when $\sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i = 1$. Then

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \sum_{i=1}^{k+1} \theta_i x_i \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i x_i + \theta_{k+1} x_{k+1} \\ &= (1 - \theta_{k+1}) \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i' (1 - \theta_{k+1}) x_i + \theta_{k+1} x_{k+1} \\ &= (1 - \theta_{k+1})(\cdot \in C) + \theta_{k+1}(\cdot \in C), \\ &\quad \text{(from the induction hypothesis)} \end{aligned}$$

■ which completes the proof. ■

Definition 9 (Subspace from Linear Algebra) a set $V \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ of vector (here points) is a subspace if it is closed under sums and scalar multiplication. I.e., $\forall v_1, v_2 \in V$ and $\forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbf{R}$ we have $\alpha v_1 + \beta v_2 \in V$.

Remember:

- $\alpha + \beta$ not necessarily equals 1
- $\alpha = 0, \beta = 0 \rightarrow \mathbf{0} \in V$.
- Any subspace V is the solution set of $A_{m \times n} x_{n \times 1} = \mathbf{0}$, which is $\mathcal{N}(A)$ (the null space of A). Geometry?
- $\dim(V)$ is min. number of vectors to express any $v \in V$.
- **rank**(A) = $\dim(V) + m$. (for $m < n$)

Corollary 10

1. If C is affine, then $V = C - x_0 = \{x - x_0 | x, x_0 \in C\}$ is a subspace.
2. If V is a subspace, then $C = V + x_0 = \{x + x_0 | x \in V\}$ is affine.
3. An affine set C can be represented as the solution set of a nonhomogeneous linear system $Ax = b$, where $V = C - x_0$ is $\mathcal{N}(A)$.
4. The solution set of any nonhomogeneous system is an affine set. (Ex. 2.1)

Proof.

1. Suppose $x_1, x_2, x_0 \in C$, an affine set. Both $x_1 - x_0$ and $x_2 - x_0$, by construction, $\in V$; then

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \alpha(x_1 - x_0) + \beta(x_2 - x_0) + x_0 \\ &= \alpha x_1 + \beta x_2 + (1 - \alpha - \beta)x_0 \in C \end{aligned}$$

Then $x - x_0 = \alpha(x_1 - x_0) + \beta(x_2 - x_0) \in V$; hence V is a subspace.

2. Suppose $x_1, x_2 \in V$, a subspace. Both $x_1 + x_0$ and $x_2 + x_0$, by construction, $\in C$; then

$$\begin{aligned} x &= \theta(x_1 + x_0) + (1 - \theta)(x_2 + x_0) \\ &= \theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2 + x_0 = (\cdot \in V) + x_0 \in C \end{aligned}$$

3. If C is affine and $x_0 \in C$, then

$$\begin{aligned} C - x_0 &= \{x | Ax = 0\} && \text{(a subspace)} \\ C &= \{x + x_0 | A(x + x_0) = Ax_0\} \\ C &= \{c | Ac = b\}. \end{aligned}$$

4. $C = \{x | Ax = b\}$; if $x_0 \in C$ then $Ax_0 = b$ and

$$C - x_0 = \{x - x_0 | A(x - x_0) = b - Ax_0 = 0\}.$$

Hence, $C - x_0$ is a subspace and C is affine. ■

Proof of the book: Suppose $x_1, x_2 \in C$, where $C = \{x | Ax = b\}$. Then

$$A(\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2) = \theta Ax_1 + (1 - \theta)Ax_2 = \theta b + (1 - \theta)b = b.$$

which means $\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2 \in C$ as well.

- The dimension of *affine* is defined to be the dimension of the associate *subspace*.
- *affine* is a *subspace* plus offset.
- every subspace is affine but not the vice versa.
- subspace is a special case of affine.

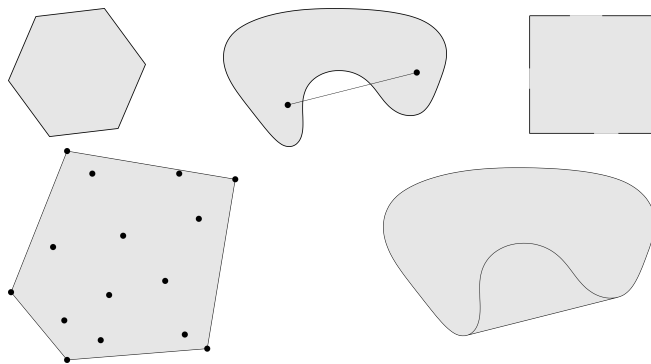
Definition 11 (affine hull) *The set of all affine combinations of point in some set C (not necessarily affine) is called the affine hull $\text{aff}C$.*

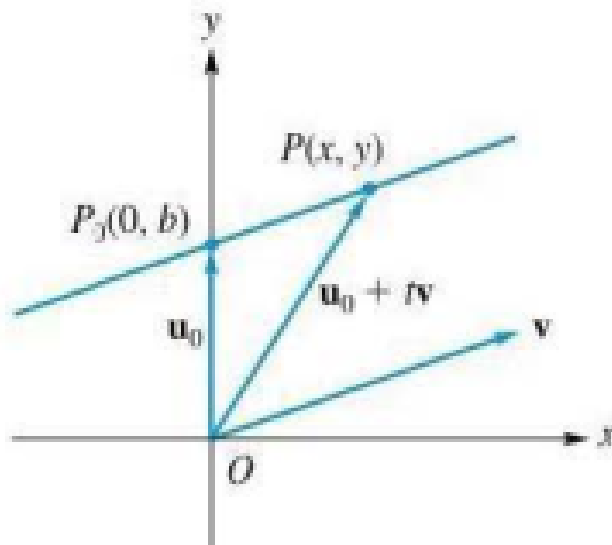
$$\text{affdom}C = \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i x_i \mid x_i \in C, \sum_i \theta_i = 1 \right\}.$$

Example 12 *Construct*

2.1.3 Affine dimension and relative interior

2.1.4 Convex sets





2.1.5 Cones

Part II

Applications

Part III

Algorithms

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Boyd, S. and Vandenberghe, L. (2004), *Convex Optimization*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chong, E. K. and Zak, Stanislaw, H. (2001), *An Introduction to Optimization*, Wiley-Interscience, 4th ed.