

Optimization

Introduction to Optimization for Machine Learning
M1 MLSD/AMSD

October 28, 2025

Roadmap

- (1) Optimization Using Gradient Descent
- (2) Constrained Optimization and Lagrange Multipliers
- (3) Convex Sets and Functions

Summary

- Training machine learning models = finding a good set of parameters
- A good set of parameters = Solution (or close to solution) to some optimization problem
- Directions: Unconstrained optimization, Constrained optimization, Convex optimization
- A necessary condition for the optimal point: $f'(x) = 0$ (stationary point)
 - Gradient will play an important role

Unconstrained Optimization and Gradient Algorithms

- Goal

$$\min f(\mathbf{x}), \quad f(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}, \quad f \in C^1$$

- Gradient-type algorithms

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \gamma_k \mathbf{d}_k, \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

- **Lemma.** Any direction $\mathbf{d} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 1}$ that satisfies $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{d} < 0$ is a descent direction of f at \mathbf{x} . That is, if we let $\mathbf{x}_\alpha = \mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{d}$, $\exists \bar{\alpha} > 0$, such that for all $\alpha \in (0, \bar{\alpha}]$, $f(\mathbf{x}_\alpha) < f(\mathbf{x})$.
- Finding a local optimum $f(\mathbf{x}_*)$, if the step-size γ_k is suitably chosen.

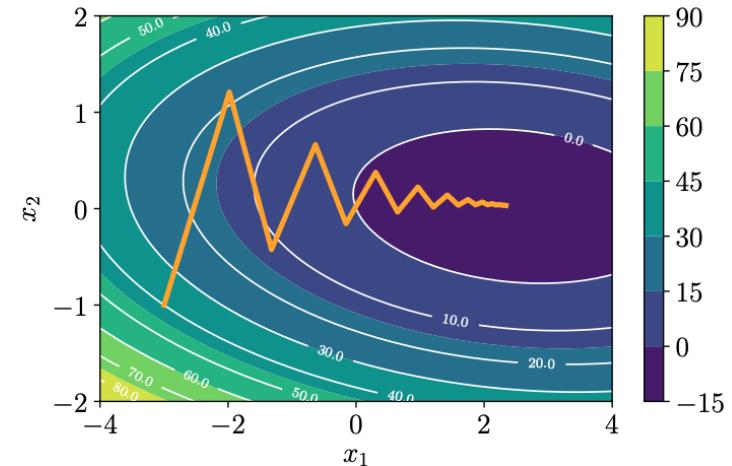
Example

- A quadratic function $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \mapsto \mathbb{R}$.

$$f \left(\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}^\top \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 20 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}^\top \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix},$$

whose gradient is $\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix}^\top \begin{pmatrix} 2 & 1 \\ 1 & 20 \end{pmatrix} - \begin{pmatrix} 5 \\ 3 \end{pmatrix}^\top$

- $x_0 = (-3 - 1)^\top$
- constant step size $\alpha = 0.085$
- Zigzag pattern



Taxonomy

- Goal: $\min L(\theta)$ for n training data
- Based on the amount of training data used for each iteration
 - Batch gradient descent (the entire n)
 - Mini-batch gradient descent($k < n$ data)
 - Stochastic gradient descent (one sampled data)
- Based on the adaptive method of update
 - Momentum, NAG, Adagrad, RMSprop, Adam, etc
- <https://ruder.io/optimizing-gradient-descent/>

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

- Assume $L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n L_n(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ (which happens in many cases in machine learning, e.g., negative log-likelihood in regression)
- Gradient update

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{k+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_k - \gamma_k \nabla L(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)^\top = \boldsymbol{\theta}_k - \gamma_k \sum_{n=1}^N \nabla L_n(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)^\top$$

- Batch gradient: $\sum_{n=1}^N \nabla L_n(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)^\top$
- Mini-batch gradient: $\sum_{n \in \mathcal{K}} \nabla L_n(\boldsymbol{\theta}_k)^\top$ for a suitable choice of $\mathcal{K}, |\mathcal{K}| < n$
- Stochastic gradient: $\nabla L_n(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i)^\top$ for some (randomly chosen) i . Noisy approximation to the real gradient.
- Tradeoff: computation burden vs. exactness

Adaptivity for Better Convergence: Momentum

- Step size.
 - Too small: slow update, Too big: overshoot, zig-zag, often fail to converge
- Adaptive update: smooth out the erratic behavior and dampens oscillations
- Gradient descent with momentum

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \gamma_i \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T + \alpha \Delta \mathbf{x}_k, \quad \alpha \in [0, 1]$$

$$\Delta \mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_{k-1}$$

- Memory term: $\alpha \Delta \mathbf{x}_k$, where α is the degree of how much we remember the past
- Next update = a linear combination of current and previous updates

Standard Constrained Optimization Problem

- An optimization problem in standard form:

minimize $f(\mathbf{x})$

subject to $g_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m \quad (\text{Inequality constraints})$

$h_j(\mathbf{x}) = 0, \quad j = 1, 2, \dots, p \quad (\text{Equality constraints})$

- Variables: $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Assume nonempty feasible set
- Optimal value: p^* . Optimizer: \mathbf{x}^*

Problem Solving via Langrange Multipliers

- Duality Mentality
 - Bound or solve an optimization problem via a different optimization problem!
 - We'll develop the basic Lagrange duality theory for a general optimization problem, then specialize for convex optimization
- Idea: augment the objective with a weighted sum of constraints
 - Lagrangian:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i g_i(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^p \nu_i h_i(\mathbf{x})$$

- Lagrange multipliers (dual variables): $\boldsymbol{\lambda} = (\lambda_i : i = 1, \dots, m) \succeq 0$, $\boldsymbol{\nu} = (\nu_1, \dots, \nu_p)$
- Lagrange dual function:

$$\mathcal{D}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) = \inf_{\mathbf{x}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu})$$

Lower Bound on the Optimal Value

- The dual function $\mathcal{D}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu})$ is the lower bound on the optimal value p^* .
- **Theorem.** $\mathcal{D}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) \leq p^*$, $\forall \boldsymbol{\lambda} \succeq 0, \boldsymbol{\nu}$
- **Proof.** Consider feasible $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$. Then,

$$\mathcal{L}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) = f(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i g_i(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) + \sum_{i=1}^p \nu_i h_i(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) \leq f(\tilde{\mathbf{x}})$$

since $f_i(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}) \leq 0$ and $\lambda_i \geq 0$.

Hence, $\mathcal{D}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) \leq \mathcal{L}(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) \leq f(\tilde{\mathbf{x}})$ for all feasible $\tilde{\mathbf{x}}$. Therefore, $\mathcal{D}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) \leq p^*$.

Lagrangian Dual Problem

- Lower bound from Lagrange dual function depends on (λ, ν) .
 - **Question.** What's the best lower bound?

$$\begin{array}{ll} \textbf{Langrangian dual problem} & \text{maximize } \mathcal{D}(\lambda, \nu) \\ & \text{subject to } \lambda \succeq 0 \end{array}$$

- Dual variables: (λ, ν)
 - Always a convex optimization, because $\mathcal{D}(\lambda, \nu)$ is always concave over λ, ν .
 - Infimum over x of a family of affine functions in (λ, ν) (we will see this later)
 - Denote the optimal value of Lagrange dual problem by d^* .

Weak Duality

- What's the relationship between d^* and p^* ?

Weak Duality

$$d^* \leq p^*$$

- Weak duality **always** hold (even if the primal problem is not convex):
- Optimal duality gap: $p^* - d^*$
- Efficient generation of the lower bounds through the dual problem

Convex Optimization

- Convex optimization problem

minimize $f(\mathbf{x})$

subject to $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$,

where $f(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is a convex function, and \mathcal{X} is a convex set.

- The watershed between easily solvable problem and intractable ones is not ‘linearity’, but ‘convexity’
- Let’s overview the background of convex functions, convex sets, and their basic properties.

Convex Set

- Set \mathcal{C} is a **convex set** if the line segment between any two points in \mathcal{C} lies in \mathcal{C} , i.e., if for any $x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{C}$ and any $\theta \in [0, 1]$, we have $\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2 \in \mathcal{C}$
- **Convex hull** of \mathcal{C} is the set of all **convex combinations** of points in \mathcal{C} :

$$\left\{ \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i x_i \mid x_i \in \mathcal{C}, \theta_i \geq 0, i = 1, 2, \dots, k, \sum_{i=1}^k \theta_i = 1 \right\}$$

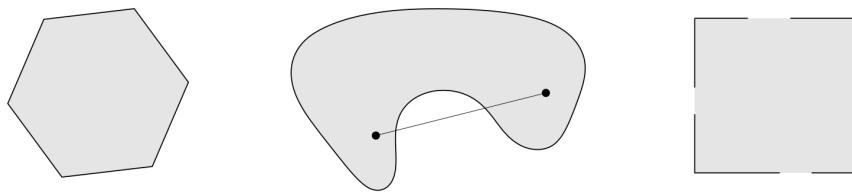
- What is k ? For all k ? For some k ?
- Generalize to infinite sums and integrals:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \theta_i x_i \in \mathcal{C}, \quad \int_{\mathcal{C}} p(x) x dx \in \mathcal{C},$$

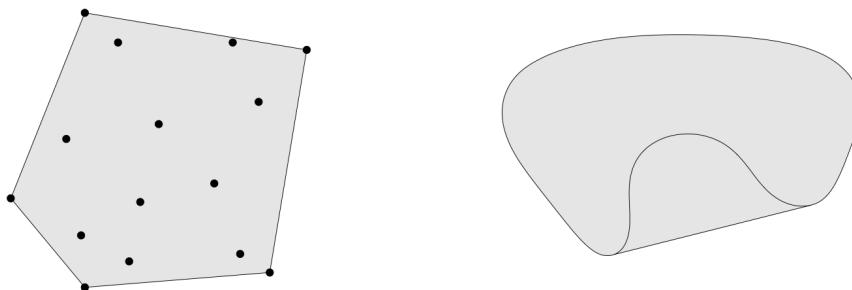
where $\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \theta_i = 1$ and $p(x)$ is a pdf of some random variable.

Examples

- Convex and Non-convex sets



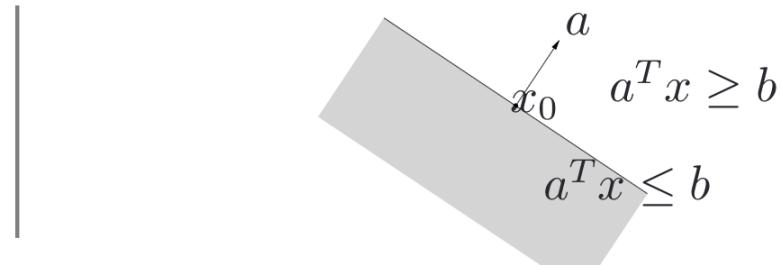
- Convex hulls



Examples of Convex Sets

- Hyperplane in \mathbb{R}^n is a set: $\{x \mid a^T x = b\}$ where $a \in \mathbb{R}^n, a \neq 0, b \in \mathbb{R}$
In other words, $\{x \mid a^T(x - x_0) = 0\}$, where x_0 is any point in the hyperplane, i.e., $a^T x_0 = b$.

- Divides \mathbb{R}^n into two halfspaces:
 $\{x \mid a^T x \leq b\}$ and $\{x \mid a^T x > b\}$

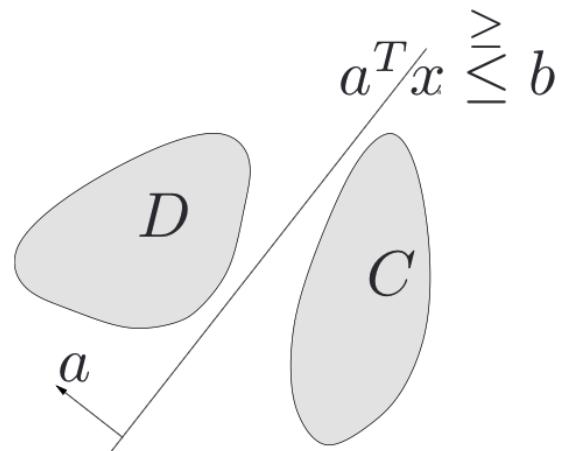


- Polyhedron is the solution set of a finite number of linear equalities and inequalities (intersection of finite number of halfspaces and hyperplanes)

$$\mathcal{P} = \{x \mid a_j^T x \leq b_j, j = 1, \dots, m, c_j^T x = d_j, j = 1, \dots, p\} = \{x \mid Ax \leq b, Cx = d\}$$

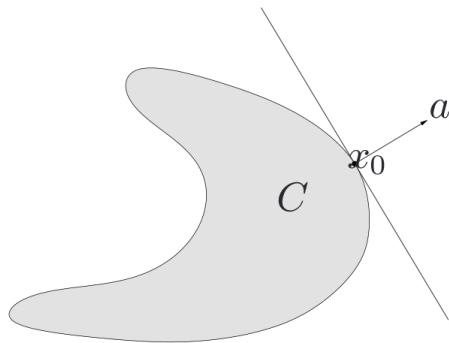
- Polytope: a bounded polyhedron

Separating Hyperplane Theorem



- \mathcal{C} and \mathcal{D} : non-intersecting convex sets, i.e., $\mathcal{C} \cap \mathcal{D} = \emptyset$.
- Then, there exist $a \neq 0$ and b such that $a^T x \leq b$ for all $x \in \mathcal{C}$ and $a^T x \geq b$ for all $x \in \mathcal{D}$.

Supporting Hyperplane Theorem



- Given a set $\mathcal{C} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and a point x_0 on its boundary, if $a \neq 0$ satisfies $a^T x \leq a^T x_0$ for all $x \in \mathcal{C}$, then $\{x | a^T x = a^T x_0\}$ is called a **supporting hyperplane** to \mathcal{C} at x_0
- For any nonempty convex set \mathcal{C} and **any** x_0 on boundary of \mathcal{C} , there exists a supporting hyperplane to \mathcal{C} at x_0
- What happens if \mathcal{C} is non-convex?

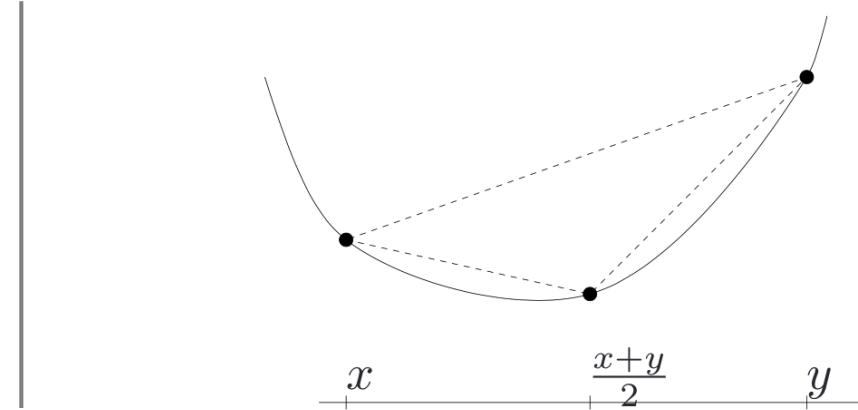
Convex Functions

- $f : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is a **convex function** if $\text{dom } f$ is a convex set and for all $x, y \in \text{dom } f$ and $\theta \in [0, 1]$, we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y)$$

- f is **strictly convex** if the strict inequality in the above holds for all $x \neq y$ and $0 < \theta < 1$.

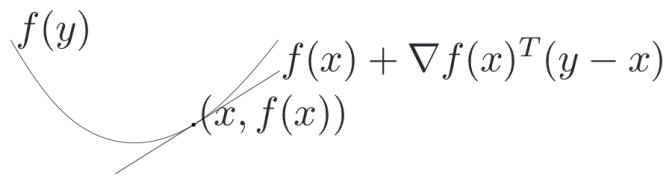
- f is **concave** if $-f$ is convex
- Affine functions are convex and concave
- **Jensen's inequality.** For a rv X ,
$$f(\mathbb{E}[X]) \leq \mathbb{E}[f(X)].$$



Conditions of Convex Functions (1)

- **First-order condition.** For differentiable functions, f is convex iff

$$f(y) - f(x) \geq \nabla f(x)^T(y - x), \quad \forall x, y \in \text{dom } f, \text{ and } \text{dom } f \text{ is convex}$$



- **Example.** $f(y) = y^2$.
- $f(y) \geq \tilde{f}_x(y)$ where $\tilde{f}_x(y)$ is the first order Taylor expansion of $f(y)$ at x .
- **Local** information (first order Taylor approximation) about a convex function provides **global** information (global underestimator).
- If $\nabla f(x) = 0$, then $f(y) \geq f(x)$, $\forall y$. Thus, x is a global minimizer of f

Conditions of Convex Functions (2)

- **Second-order condition.** For twice differentiable functions, f is convex iff

$$\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0$$

for all $x \in \text{dom } f$ (upward slope) and $\text{dom } f$ is convex

- Example: $f(x) = x^2$.
- Meaning: The graph of the function have positive (upward) curvature at x .

Examples of Convex or Concave Functions

- e^{ax} is convex on \mathbb{R} , for any $a \in \mathbb{R}$
- x^a is convex on \mathbb{R}_{++} when $a \geq 1$ or $a \leq 0$, and concave for $0 < a < 1$
- $|x|^p$ is convex on \mathbb{R} for $p \geq 1$
- $\log x$ is concave on \mathbb{R}_{++}
- $x \log x$ is strictly convex on \mathbb{R}_{++}
- Every norm on \mathbb{R}^n is convex
- $f(x) = \max\{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$ is convex on \mathbb{R}^n
- $f(x) = \log \sum_{i=1}^n e^{x_i}$ is convex on \mathbb{R}^n
- $f(x) = (\prod_{i=1}^n x_i)^{\frac{1}{n}}$ is concave on \mathbb{R}_{++}^n

Convexity-Preserving Operations

- $f = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i f_i$ convex if f_i are all convex and $w_i \geq 0$
- $g(x) = f(Ax + b)$ is convex iff $f(x)$ is convex
- $f(x) = \max\{f_1(x), f_2(x)\}$ convex if f_i convex, e.g., sum of r largest components is convex
- $f(x) = h(g(x))$, where $h : \mathbb{R}^k \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ and $g : \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}^k$.
If $k = 1$: $f''(x) = h''(g(x))g'(x)^2 + h'(g(x))g''(x)$. So, f is convex if h is convex and nondecreasing and g is convex, or if h is convex and nonincreasing and g is concave ...