

CO367, Course Notes

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Introduction

Mathematical Optimization or Mathematical Programming

Informally: Find a best solution to the model of a problem

best according to a given objective/criterion

Applications include

1. Operations research
 - (a) Scheduling + Planning
 - (b) Supply Chain Management
 - (c) Vehicular Routing
 - (d) Power Grid Optimization
2. Statistics and Machine Learning
 - (a) Curve Fitting
 - (b) Classification, Clustering, SVM,...
 - (c) Deep Learning
3. Finance
4. Optimal Control
5. Biology

(OPT) $\min f(x)$ s.t.

$$g_i(x) \leq 0, \text{ for } i \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots, m\}$$

Remarks

- a. $\max f(x) = -(\min -f(x))$
- b. $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g(x) \geq 0\} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : -g(x) \leq 0\}$
- c. $\{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g(x) \geq b\} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : -g(x) - b \leq 0\}$

Classification of Problems - 1

- if $f(x) = 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \implies$ (OPT) is a feasibility problem
- if we have $m = 0$ constraints \implies (OPT) is an unconstrained optimization problem

Classification of Problems - 2

Q: Why do we need f and g ? A: In absence of hyp. on f and g , (OPT) is unsolvable.

Note: "Black box" optimization framework

All that is given is an oracle function that can compute values of $f(x) \forall x$ in the domain of f

Example: consider

$$\begin{aligned} \min & f(x) \\ \text{s.t.} & g(x) \leq 0, \text{ for } i \in [1, m] \cap \mathbb{N} \\ & h(x) \leq 0 \\ & h(x), \text{ when } x \in \mathbb{Z}^n, \text{ do: } 0 \\ & h(x), \text{ do: } 1 \end{aligned}$$

in other words, we only want integral solutions.

Definition 0.1. Discrete Optimization: When the constraint of OPT restrict to a lattice, we have a discrete optimization problem

Definition 0.2. Continuous: A function $f : D \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ is continuous over D ($f \in C^k(D)$) if all its k^{th} derivatives are continuous over D .

Consider the following examples

$$\begin{aligned} & f(x) \text{ when } x \geq 2, \text{ do: } 1 \\ & f(x), \text{ do: } -1 \end{aligned}$$

Then $f(x)$ is not continuous.

In another example we have $g(x)$, do: $\text{abs}(x - 2)$. Then $g(x) \in C^0$.

Definition 0.3. Gradient: Let $f \in C^1(D)$ for $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. The gradient is $\nabla f : D \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$ if it satisfies $\nabla f \in C^0(D)$ and is given by $\nabla f(x) = \left[\frac{\delta f}{\delta x_1(x)} \cdots \frac{\delta f}{\delta x_n(x)} \right]$.

Definition 0.4. Hessian: Let $f \in C^2(D)$ for $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$. Its Hessian is $\nabla^2 f : D \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$. It satisfies $\nabla^2 f \in C^0(D)$ and is given by

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

Definition 0.5. Linear: A function $f : D \mapsto \mathbb{R}$, $D \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is linear if $\exists c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ where $f(x) = c^T x, \forall x \in D$. Then $\nabla f(x) = c$ and $\nabla^2 f(x) = 0$.

remark: if f, g_i are linear, then OPT is a linear programming function.

1 Linear Algebra

A vector and matrix norm.

Definition 1.1. Norm: A norm $\|\cdot\|$ on \mathbb{R}^n assigns a scalar $\|x\|$ to every $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t.

1. $\|x\| \geq 0, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
2. $\|cx\| = |c|\|x\|, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n \forall c \in \mathbb{R}$
3. $\|x\| = 0 \iff x = 0$
4. $\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\| \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

L^k norm $\|x\| = (\sum (x_i)^k)^{\frac{1}{k}}$ in particular,

1. Manhattan Norm = L_1
2. Euclidean Norm = L_2
3. Infinite Norm = $L_\infty = \max(|x_i|)$

Schwartz inequality: $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$|x^T y| \leq \|x\|_2 \cdot \|y\|_2$$

Theorem 1.1. Pythagorean Theorem: If $x, y \in \mathbb{R}$ are orthogonal then $\|x + y\|^2 = \|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2$ under L_2 .

Definition 1.2. Matrix Norm: Given a vector norm $\|\cdot\|$, the induced matrix norm associates a scalar $\|A\|$ to all $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

$$\|A\| = \max \|Ax\| \text{ where } \|x\| = 1$$

Property of Matrix norm:

$$\|A\|_2 = \max \|Ax\|_2 = \max |y^T Ax|, \text{ where } \|x\|_2 = 1 \text{ and } \|y\|_2 = 1.$$

Proof is trivial by schwartz inequality.

$$\|A\| = \|A^T\|_2$$

TFAE: ¹

1. A is nonsingular
2. A^T is nonsingular
3. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ if $x \neq 0$ then $Ax \neq 0$.
4. $\forall b \in \mathbb{R}^n, \exists x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ s.t. $Ax = b$ and x is unique
5. The columns of A are linearly independent
6. The rows of A are linearly independent

¹The following are equivalent

7. A unique inverse of A exists

8. If B is a matrix *s.t.* an inverse of B exists, then $(AB)^{-1} = A^{-1}B^{-1}$

Definition 1.3. Eigenvalue: The characteristic polynomial $\Phi : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is $\Phi(\lambda) = \det(A - \lambda I)$. It has n complex roots, the eigenvalues of A . Given an eigenvalue λ of A , $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is its corresponding eigenvector of A if $Ax = \lambda x$.

Properties : Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

1. λ is an eigenvalue $\iff \exists$ a corresponding eigenvector x .
2. A is singular \iff it has a zero eigenvalue
3. If A is triangular, then its eigenvalues are its diagonal elements
4. If $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is nonsingular and $B = SAS^{-1}$ then A and B have the same eigenvalues.
5. If the eigenvalues of A are $\{\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n\}$ then
 - (a) the eigenvalues of $A + cI$ are $c + \lambda_1, \dots, c + \lambda_n$.
 - (b) the eigenvalues of A^k are $\lambda_1^k, \dots, \lambda_n^k$. This also holds for $k = -1$.
 - (c) the eigenvalues of A^T are the same as the eigenvalues of A .

Definition 1.4. Spectral Radius: The spectral radius $\rho(A)$ of $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is the maximum magnitude of its eigenvalues.

Property:

Lemma 1.2. For any induced norm, $\|\cdot\|$, $\rho(A) \leq \|A^k\|^{\frac{1}{k}} \forall k \in \mathbb{N}$

Proof: By defn, $\|A^k\| = \max_y \|A^k y\| = \max_y \frac{\|A^k y\|}{\|y\|}$, where $\|y\| = 1$.

Let λ be an eigenvalue of A , and x its eigenvector. Then

$$\|A^k\| \geq \frac{\|A^k x\|}{\|x\|} = \frac{\|A^{k-1} Ax\|}{\|x\|} = \frac{A^{k-1} \lambda x}{\|x\|} = \dots = \frac{\|\lambda^k x\|}{\|x\|} = \frac{(|\lambda|^k \|x\|)}{\|x\|} = \|\lambda^k\|$$

So for any eigenvalue, $\|A^k\| \geq |\lambda^k| \implies \|A^k\|^{\frac{1}{k}} \geq |\lambda| \implies \rho(A) \leq \|A^k\|^{\frac{1}{k}}$.

Lemma 1.3. For any induced norm, $\|\cdot\|$, $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|A^k\|^{\frac{1}{k}} = \rho(A)$. Furthermore, $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} A^k = A$ iff $\rho(A) \leq 1$.

Proof: Exercise!

Symmetric Matrices:

Property: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a symmetric matrix.

1. its eigenvalues are real

2. its eigenvectors are mutually orthongal
3. assume its eigenvectors are normalized. Let (λ_i, v_i) refer to an eigenpair.
Then $A = \sum \lambda_i x_i x_i^T$.

Proof: Exercise!

Lemma 1.4. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a symmetric matrix, then $\|A\|_2 = p(A)$.

Proof: from before, $\rho(A) \leq \|A^k\|^{\frac{1}{k}}$ and in particular we have that $p(A) \leq \|A\|_2$. Now all we need to do is show that $p(A) \geq \|A\|_2$.
As the eigenvectors x_i $i = 1, \dots, n$ of A are mutually orthogonal we can write any $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ as $y = \sum \beta_i x_i$ for some $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

By pythagoras' theorem, $\|y\|_2^2 = \sum \beta_i^2 \cdot \|x_i\|_2^2$. Hence $Ay = A \sum \beta_i^2 \cdot \|x_i\|_2^2 = \sum \beta_i \lambda_i x_i$. Again we can apply pythagoras'

$$\begin{aligned}
\|Ay\|_2^2 &= \left\| \sum \beta_i \lambda_i x_i \right\|_2^2 \\
&= \sum \beta_i^2 \lambda_i^2 \|x_i\|_2^2 \\
&= \sum |\lambda_i|^2 \cdot |\beta_i|^2 \cdot \|x_i\|_2^2 \\
&\leq \sum \rho(A)^2 |\beta_i|^2 \|x_i\|_2^2 \\
&= \rho(A)^2 \sum |\beta_i|^2 \|x_i\|_2^2 \\
&= \rho(A)^2 \|y\|_2^2
\end{aligned}$$

This then implies that

$$\begin{aligned}
\|A\|_2 &\leq \rho(A) \|y\|_2 \\
\implies A &= \max \frac{\|Ay\|_2}{\|y\|_2} \leq \frac{(\rho(A) \|y\|_2)}{\|y\|_2}, \text{ where } y \neq 0 \\
\implies \|A\|_2 &\leq \rho(A)
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore $\|A\|_2 = \rho(A)$.

Lemma 1.5. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be symmetric, with eigen values $\lambda_1 \leq \dots \leq \lambda_n \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $\forall y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we have that $\lambda_1 \|y\|_2^2 \leq y^T A y \leq \lambda_n \|y\|_2^2$.

Proof: Express y as $\sum \beta_i x_i$, $i = 1, \dots, n$ where $\beta_i \in \mathbb{R}$, x_i are orthongal eigenvectors of A . Firstly:

$$y^T A y = \left(\sum \beta_i x_i \right)^T \left(\sum \beta_i \lambda_i x_i \right) = \sum \beta_i^2 \lambda_i \|x_i\|_2^2$$

WLOG, assume that $\|x_i\|_2 = 1$ by normalization. So $y^T A y = \sum \lambda \beta_i^2$. Secondly:
 $\|y\|_2^2 = \sum \beta_i^2$

$$\sum \lambda_1 \beta_1^2 \leq \sum \lambda_i \beta_i^2 \leq \sum \lambda_n \beta_n^2 \implies \lambda_1 \|y\|_2^2 \leq y^T A y \leq \lambda_n \|y\|_2^2.$$

Lemma 1.6. *Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be symmetric, then $\|A^k\|_2 = \|A\|_2^k$.*

Proof:

Since A is symmetric, we have that $(A^k)^T = A^k$ and $\|A^k\|_2 = \rho(A^k)$. So $\rho(A^k) = \rho(A)^k$. Therefore $\|A\|_2^k = \|A^k\|_2$.