

# Optimization

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# Contents

<b>Fundamental Concepts</b>	<b>2</b>
1 Fundamental Concepts of Optimization . . . . .	3
2 Types of Optimization Problems . . . . .	4
3 Convex Optimization . . . . .	7
4 The Lagrangian Function and Duality . . . . .	8
<b>Unconstrained Optimization Algorithms</b>	<b>9</b>
5 Optimality Conditions . . . . .	10
6 Estimation and Fitting Problems . . . . .	11
7 Newton Type Optimization . . . . .	12
8 Globalisation Strategies . . . . .	13
9 Calculating Derivatives . . . . .	14
<b>Constrained Optimization Algorithms</b>	<b>15</b>
10 Optimality Conditions for Constrained Optimization . . . . .	16
11 Equality Constrained Optimization Algorithms . . . . .	17
12 Inequality Constrained Optimization Algorithms . . . . .	18
13 Optimal Control Problems . . . . .	19

## Fundamental Concepts

# 1 Fundamental Concepts of Optimization

## Theorem 1.1: Optimization problem in standard form

$$\begin{array}{ll}\text{minimize} & f(x) \\ x \in \mathbb{R}^n & \\ \text{subject to} & g(x) = 0, \\ & h(x) \geq 0.\end{array}$$

## Theorem 1.2: Level Set

The set

$$\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid f(x) = c \}$$

is the level set of  $f$  for the value  $c$ .

## Theorem 1.3: Feasible set

The set

$$\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid g(x) = 0, h(x) \geq 0 \}$$

is the feasible set  $\Omega$ .

## Theorem 1.4: Global minimizer

The point  $x^*$  is a global minimizer if and only if

$$x^* \in \Omega, \forall x \in \Omega : f(x^*) \leq f(x).$$

## Theorem 1.5: Strict global minimizer

The point  $x^*$  is a strict global minimizer if and only if

$$x^* \in \Omega, \forall x \in \Omega \setminus \{x^*\} : f(x^*) < f(x).$$

## Theorem 1.6: Strict local minimizer

The point  $x^*$  is a strict local minimizer if and only if  $x^* \in \Omega$  and there exists a neighborhood  $\mathcal{N}$  of  $x^*$  such that

$$\forall x \in (\Omega \cap \mathcal{N}) \setminus \{x^*\} : f(x^*) < f(x).$$

### Theorem 1.7: Weierstrass

If  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is compact and  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuous, then there exists a global minimizer of the optimization problem

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} && f(x) \\ & \text{subject to} && x \in \Omega. \end{aligned}$$

### Proof 1.1: Weierstrass

Regard the graph of  $f$ ,  $G = \{(x, f(x)) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \mid x \in \Omega\}$ .  $G$  is a compact set, and so is the projection of  $G$  onto its last coordinate, the set  $G = \{s \in \mathbb{R} \mid \exists x \text{ such that } (x, s) \in G\}$ , which is a compact interval  $[f_{\min}, f_{\max}] \subset \mathbb{R}$ . By construction, there must be at least one  $x^*$  such that  $(x^*, f(x^*)) \in G$ . □

## 2 Types of Optimization Problems

### Theorem 2.1: Nonlinear Programming (NLP)

Nonlinear Programming Problems are problems of the following form:

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} && f(x) \\ & \text{subject to} && g(x) = 0, \\ & && h(x) \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ,  $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^p$ , and  $h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^q$ , are assumed to be continuously differentiable at least once.

### Theorem 2.2: Linear Programming (LP)

When the functions  $f$ ,  $g$ ,  $h$  are affine (i.e., they can be expressed in the form  $f(x) = a^T x + b$  for some vector  $a$  and scalar  $b$ ) in the general formulation (see Theorem 2.1), the general NLP gets something easier to solve, namely a Linear Program (LP), which can be written as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} && c^T x \\ & \text{subject to} && Ax - b = 0, \\ & && Cx - d \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where  $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^p$ ,  $C \in \mathbb{R}^{q \times n}$ , and  $d \in \mathbb{R}^q$ .

### Theorem 2.3: Quadratic Programming (QP)

When the functions  $g, h$  are affine (as for an LP in Theorem 2.2), and the objective function  $f$  is a linear-quadratic function, the NLP becomes a Quadratic Program (QP), which can be written as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} && c^T x + \frac{1}{2} x^T B x \\ & \text{subject to} && Ax - b = 0, \\ & && Cx - d \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where, in addition to the LP parameters,  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$  is the Hessian matrix. Specifically, for the objective function  $f(x) = c^T x + \frac{1}{2} x^T B x$ , the Hessian is given by:

$$\nabla^2 f(x) = B.$$

### Theorem 2.4: Convex QP

If the Hessian matrix  $B$  is positive semi-definite (i.e. if  $\forall z \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} : z^T B z \geq 0$ ) we call the QP a convex QP. Convex QPs are tremendously easier to solve globally than “non-convex QPs” (i.e., where the Hessian  $B$  is not positive semi-definite), which might have different local minima (i.e. have a non-convex solution set).

### Theorem 2.5: Strictly convex QP

If the Hessian matrix  $B$  is positive definite (i.e. if  $\forall z \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{0\} : z^T B z > 0$ ) we call the QP a strictly convex QP. Strictly convex QPs are a subset of convex QPs (see Theorem 2.4).

### Theorem 2.6: Convex set

A set  $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n$  is convex if

$$\forall x, y \in \Omega, \forall \lambda \in [0, 1] : x + \lambda(y - x) \in \Omega.$$

or if “all connecting lines lie inside the set”.

### Theorem 2.7: Convex function

A function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is convex if

$$\forall x, y \in \Omega, \forall \lambda \in [0, 1] : f(x + \lambda(y - x)) \leq f(x) + \lambda(f(y) - f(x)).$$

or if “all secants (i.e. a line segment between two points on the graph) are above graph”. This definition is equivalent to saying that the Epigraph of  $f$ , i.e. the set  $\{(x, s) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R} \mid x \in \Omega, s \geq f(x)\}$ , is a convex set.

### Theorem 2.8: Convex optimization problem

An optimization problem with convex feasible set  $\Omega$  and convex objective function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is called a convex optimization problem.

### Theorem 2.9: Globality of local minima of convex optimization problem

For a convex optimization problem, a local minimum is also a global one.

### Proof 2.1: Globality of local minima of convex optimization problem

Regard a local minimum  $x^*$  of the convex optimization problem

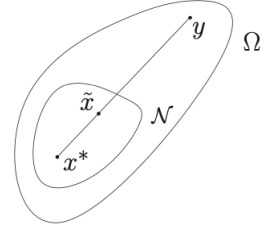
$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}{\text{minimize}} && f(x) \\ & \text{subject to} && x \in \Omega. \end{aligned}$$

We will show that for any point  $y \in \Omega$  holds  $f(y) \geq f(x^*)$ , i.e.  $x^*$  is a global minimum.

First we choose, using local optimality, a neighborhood  $\mathcal{N}$  of  $x^*$  such that for all  $\tilde{x} \in \Omega \cap \mathcal{N}$  holds  $f(\tilde{x}) \geq f(x^*)$ . Second, we regard the connecting line between  $x^*$  and  $y$ . This line is completely contained in  $\Omega$  due to the convexity of  $\Omega$ . Now we choose a point  $\tilde{x}$  on this line such that it is in the neighborhood, but not equal to  $x^*$ , i.e.  $\tilde{x} = x^* + \lambda(y - x^*)$  for some  $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ , and  $\tilde{x} \in \Omega \cap \mathcal{N}$ . Due to local optimality, we have  $f(\tilde{x}) \geq f(x^*)$ , and due to convexity we have

$$f(\tilde{x}) = f(x^* + \lambda(y - x^*)) \leq f(x^*) + \lambda(f(y) - f(x^*)).$$

It follows that  $\lambda(f(y) - f(x^*)) \geq 0$ , and since  $\lambda \in (0, 1)$ , we have  $f(y) \geq f(x^*)$ , as desired.



□

### Theorem 2.10: Unconstrained optimization problem

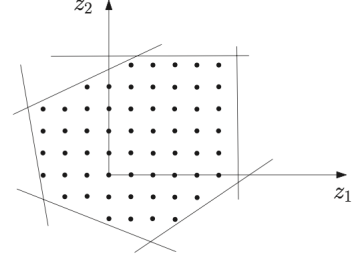
An optimization problem with no constraints, i.e.  $g(x) = 0$  and  $h(x) \geq 0$  are empty, is called an unconstrained optimization problem.

### Theorem 2.11: Mixed-Integer Programming (MIP)

A mixed-integer programming problem or mixed-integer program (MIP) is a problem with both real and integer decision variables. A MIP can be formulated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \underset{\substack{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \\ z \in \mathbb{Z}^m}}{\text{minimize}} && f(x, z) \\ & \text{subject to} && g(x, z) = 0, \\ & && h(x, z) \geq 0, \end{aligned}$$

where  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are the continuous variables, and  $z \in \mathbb{Z}^m$  are the integer variables.



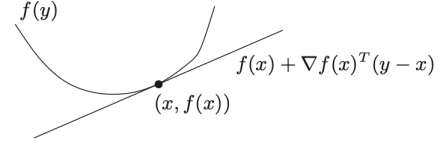
## 3 Convex Optimization

### Theorem 3.1: Convexity for $C^1$ functions

Assume that  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is continuously differentiable and  $\Omega$  is convex. Then holds that  $f$  is convex if and only if

$$\forall x, y \in \Omega : f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x)$$

i.e. tangents lie below the graph.



### Proof 3.1: Convexity for $C^1$ functions

“ $\Rightarrow$ ”: Due to convexity of  $f$  holds for given  $x, y \in \Omega$  and for any  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$  that

$$f(x + \lambda(y - x)) - f(x) \leq \lambda(f(y) - f(x)).$$

and therefore that

$$\nabla f(x)^T (y - x) = \lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \lambda(y - x)) - f(x)}{\lambda} \leq \frac{f(y) - f(x)}{y - x}.$$

“ $\Leftarrow$ ”: To prove that  $z = x + \lambda(y - x) = (1 - \lambda)x + \lambda y$  holds that  $f(z) \leq (1 - \lambda)f(x) + \lambda f(y)$ , we can use the equation from Theorem 3.1 twice to get

$$f(x) \geq f(z) + \nabla f(z)^T (x - z) \quad \text{and} \quad f(y) \geq f(z) + \nabla f(z)^T (y - z),$$

which yield, when weighted with  $(1 - \lambda)$  and  $\lambda$  respectively, that

$$(1 - \lambda)f(x) + \lambda f(y) \geq f(z) + \underbrace{\nabla f(z)^T [(1 - \lambda)(x - z) + \lambda(y - z)]}_{=0}$$

□

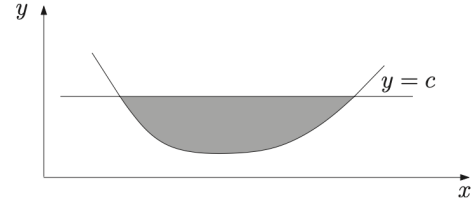


### Theorem 3.2: Convexity of Sublevel subsets

The sublevel set

$$\{ x \in \Omega \mid f(x) \leq c \}$$

of a convex function  $f : \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with respect to any constant  $c \in \mathbb{R}$  is convex.



### Proof 3.2: Convexity of Sublevel subsets

If  $f(x) \leq c$  and  $f(y) \leq c$ , then for any  $\lambda \in [0, 1]$  holds also

$$f((1 - \lambda)x + \lambda y) \leq (1 - \lambda)f(x) + \lambda f(y) \leq \underbrace{(1 - \lambda)c + \lambda c}_{=c}.$$

□

### Property 3.1: Convexity perserving operations on convex sets

The following operations preserve convexity of a set:

1. The intersection of finitely or infinitely many convex sets is convex.
2. Affine image: if  $\Omega$  is convex, then for  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$  also the set  $A\Omega + b = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid \exists x \in \Omega : y = Ax + b\}$  is convex.
3. Affine pre-image: if  $\Omega$  is convex, then for  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$  also the set  $\{z \in \mathbb{R}^m \mid Az + b \in \Omega\}$  is convex.

## 4 The Lagrangian Function and Duality

## Unconstrained Optimization Algorithms

## 5 Optimality Conditions

## 6 Estimation and Fitting Problems

## 7 Newton Type Optimization

## 8 Globalisation Strategies

## 9 Calculating Derivatives

## Constrained Optimization Algorithms



## 10 Optimality Conditions for Constrained Optimization

## 11 Equality Constrained Optimization Algorithms

## 12 Inequality Constrained Optimization Algorithms

## 13 Optimal Control Problems