

MS-C2105 - Introduction to Optimization

Lecture 8

Fabricio Oliveira (with modifications by Harri Hakula)

Systems Analysis Laboratory
Department of Mathematics and Systems Analysis

Aalto University
School of Science

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Outline of this lecture

Revision of calculus

General optimisation problems

Optimality conditions - unconstrained problems

Convexity of functions

One dimensional optimisation methods - line search

- Bisection method

- Newton's method

Reading: Taha: Chapter 20; Winston: Chapter 11

Tools from differential calculus

We focus on devising **optimisation methods** for general problems.

- ▶ No assumption of **linearity**.
- ▶ We consider first **unconstrained problems**.
- ▶ Later, we will include the consideration of constraints.

Let us first revise some important tools we will use.

Definition 1 (Limits and continuity)

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a function. We say that $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = c$ if, as x becomes closer to a , $f(x)$ becomes closer to c (asymptotically). Moreover, f is **continuous at point a** if $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$. If $\lim_{x \rightarrow a} f(x) = f(a)$ for all $a \in \mathbb{R}$, then function f is continuous.

Tools from differential calculus

Definition 2 (Differentiation)

The **derivative** of a function $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ at $x = a$ (denoted $f'(a)$) is defined as

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(a + \Delta x) - f(a)}{\Delta x}.$$

If $f'(x)$ exists for every $x \in \mathbb{R}$, then f is **differentiable**.

Differentiability is used to infer **local behaviour of f**

- ▶ It is direction dependent: $\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0^+}$ and $\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0^-}$. If they are the same for all x , $f(x)$ is continuous.
- ▶ $f'(a)$ can be thought as the **slope** of f at a .
- ▶ $f'(x) > 0$ means that the function is **increasing** at x ; i.e., for a arbitrarily small $\epsilon > 0$, $f(x + \epsilon) > f(x)$.
- ▶ Likewise, $f'(x) < 0$ means that the function is **decreasing** at x .

Tools from differential calculus

Function	Derivative
a	0
x	1
$af(x)$	$af'(x)$
$f(x) + g(x)$	$f'(x) + g'(x)$
x^n	nx^{n-1}
e^x	e^x
a^x	$a^x \ln(a)$
$\ln(x)$	$\frac{1}{x}$
$[f(x)]^n$	$nf(x)^{n-1} f'(x)$
$e^{f(x)}$	$e^{f(x)} f'(x)$
$a^{f(x)}$	$a^{f(x)} f'(x) \ln a$
$\ln f(x)$	$\frac{f'(x)}{f(x)}$
$f(x)g(x)$	$f(x)g'(x) + f'(x)g(x)$
$\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$	$\frac{g(x)f'(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{g(x)^2}$

Tools from differential calculus

Definition 3 (n -order derivative)

The n^{th} -order derivative $f^{(n)}(a)$ of f at a is the derivative of $f^{(n-1)}(a)$ at a .

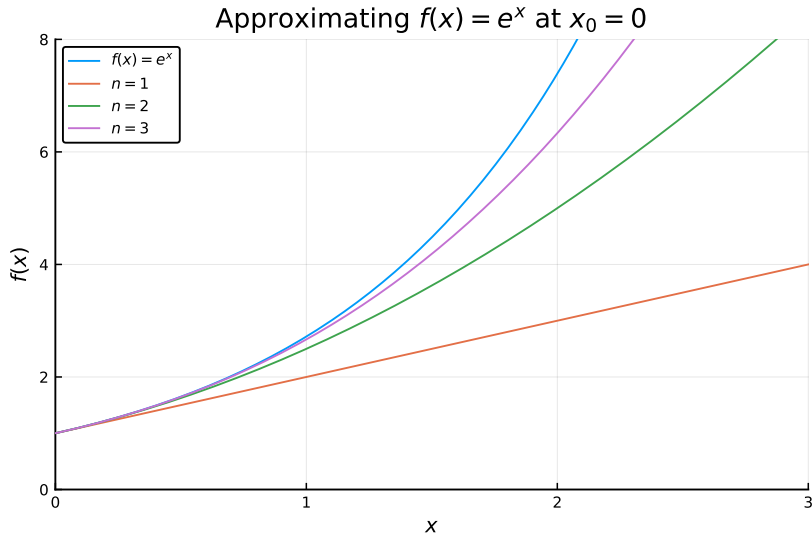
Higher derivatives are employed in **Taylor series expansions**, which are in turn used as general local approximations of function values.

Theorem 4 (Taylor's theorem)

Let f be n -times differentiable on an open interval containing x and x_0 . Then, the **Taylor series expansion** of f is

$$\begin{aligned} f(x) &= f(x_0) + \frac{1}{1} f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{1 \times 2} f''(x_0)(x - x_0)^2 + \dots \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{n!} f^{(n)}(x_0)(x - x_0)^n + R_{n+1}(x) \\ &= \sum_{i=0}^n \frac{1}{i!} f^{(i)}(x_0)(x - x_0)^i + R_{n+1}(x) \end{aligned}$$

Tools from differential calculus



Tools from differential calculus

Remarks:

1. The term $R_n(x)$ is called the **residual**. For some $c \in (x_0, x)$,

$$R_{n+1}(x) = \frac{f^{(n+1)}(c)}{(n+1)!} (x - x_0)^{n+1}.$$

2. In particular, if $|f^{(n+1)}| \leq M$, then

$$R_{n+1}(x) \leq \frac{M|x - x_0|^{n+1}}{(n+1)!}.$$

3. **Taylor's approximation** is the Taylor's expansion **without** the residual term.
4. if $x_0 = 0$, Taylor's series reduce to the **Maclaurin's series**.

Nonlinear optimisation models

Nonlinear programming models are a more general class of optimisation problems.

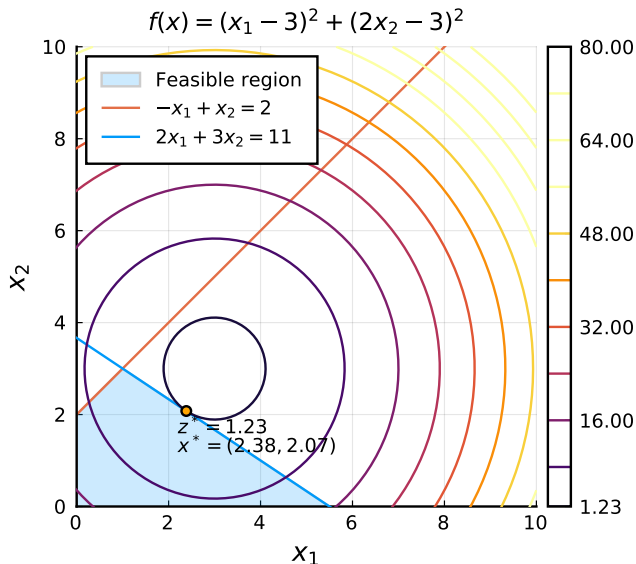
$$\begin{array}{ll}\min. & f(x) \\ \text{s.t.} & g_i(x) \leq 0, i = 1, \dots, m. \\ & x \in X\end{array}$$

Clearly, LP/ MIP models are a particular cases, to which dedicated efficient methods exist.

For more general problems

- ▶ optimal points might **not be extreme points** or be **on the boundary** of the feasible region.
- ▶ guarantees of **global optimality** might **not exist**.

Nonlinear optimisation models



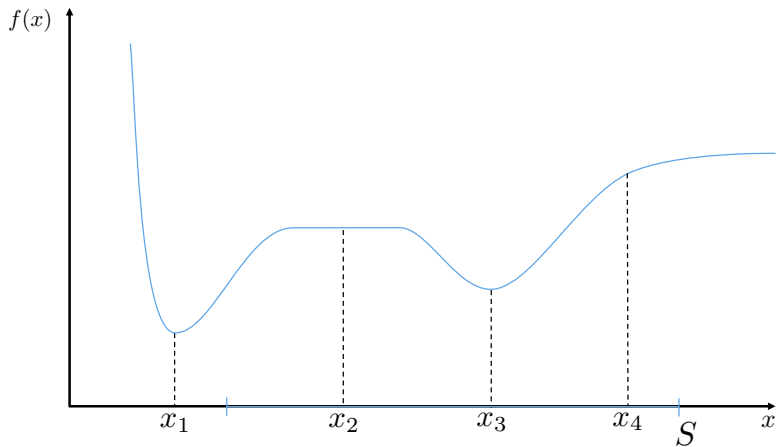
General optimality conditions

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. Consider the problem

$(P) : \min. \{f(x) : x \in S\}$. Some important terminology:

- ▶ **feasible solution**: $x \in S$;
- ▶ **local optimal solution**: $\bar{x} \in S$ that has a neighbourhood $N_\epsilon(\bar{x}) = \{x : \|x - \bar{x}\| \leq \epsilon\}$ for some $\epsilon > 0$ such that $f(\bar{x}) \leq f(x)$ for each $x \in S \cap N_\epsilon(\bar{x})$.
- ▶ **global optimal solution**: $\bar{x} \in S$ with $f(\bar{x}) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in S$.

General optimality conditions



Necessary optimality conditions

Candidates to **local optima** must be **critical points**.

Theorem 5 (First-order optimality condition)

Let \bar{x} be a local optimum for f in $N_\epsilon(\bar{x})$ and assume that f is differentiable. Then $f'(\bar{x}) = 0$.

Proof.

Suppose \bar{x} is a local minimum. Then, there exists $\delta > 0$ for which $f(\bar{x}) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in (\bar{x} - \delta, \bar{x} + \delta) \subset N_\epsilon(\bar{x})$.

1. for any $h \in (0, \delta)$, it holds that $\frac{f(\bar{x}+h)-f(\bar{x})}{h} \geq 0$.

Thus, $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{f(\bar{x}+h)-f(\bar{x})}{h} = f'(\bar{x}) \geq 0$.

2. for any $h \in (-\delta, 0)$, it holds that $\frac{f(\bar{x}+h)-f(\bar{x})}{h} \leq 0$.

Thus, $\lim_{h \rightarrow 0^-} \frac{f(\bar{x}+h)-f(\bar{x})}{h} = f'(\bar{x}) \leq 0$.

From the above, we conclude that $f'(\bar{x}) = 0$.



Sufficient optimality conditions

The condition $f'(x) = 0$ does not imply local optimality.

- ▶ Points satisfying $f'(x) = 0$ are called **stationary**.
- ▶ An **additional certificate** is necessary to state optimality.

Theorem 6 (n^{th} -order optimality condition)

Suppose f has a stationary point at x_0 and that $f'(x_0) = \dots = f^{(n-1)}(x_0) = 0$, while $f^{(n)}(x_0) \neq 0$. If $f^{(n)}$ is continuous, then

1. *if n is even and $f^{(n)}(x_0) > 0$, then x_0 is a **local minimum**.*
2. *if n is even and $f^{(n)}(x_0) < 0$, then x_0 is a **local maximum**.*
3. *if n is odd, then x_0 is an **inflection point**.*

Sufficient optimality conditions

Proof.

With the first $n - 1$ derivatives vanishing, using Taylor's expansion, we have that

$$f(x) - f(x_0) = R_n(x_0) = \frac{f^{(n)}(c)}{n!}(x - x_0)^n$$

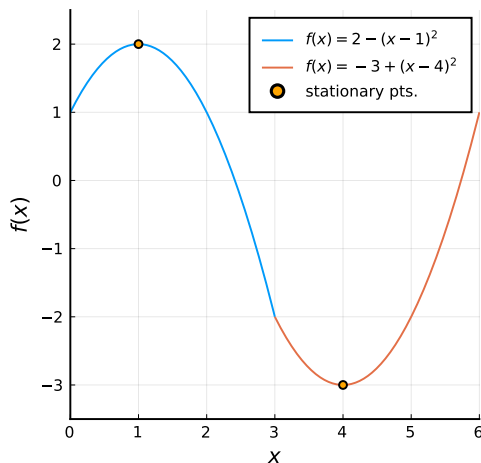
For n even, $(x - x_0)^n > 0$. $f^{(n)}(c)$ and $f^{(n)}(x_0)$ agree in sign, since they are arbitrarily close. Thus, $f(x) - f(x_0)$ will agree in sign of $f^{(n)}(x_0)$. If n is odd, $(x - x_0)^n$ and thus $f(x) - f(x_0)$ have opposite signs for $x < x_0$ and $x > x_0$. □

Sufficient conditions are posed **considering $n = 2$** , i.e.,

- ▶ if $f'(x_0) = 0$ and $f''(x_0) > 0$ then x_0 is a **local minimum**.
- ▶ if $f'(x_0) = 0$ and $f''(x_0) < 0$ then x_0 is a **local maximum**.
- ▶ if $f'(x_0) = 0$ and $f''(x_0) = 0$ then x_0 is a **inflection point**.

Necessary and sufficient optimality conditions

Example: $f(x) = \begin{cases} 2 - (x - 1)^2, & \text{if } x < 3 \\ -3 + (x - 4)^2, & \text{if } x \geq 3. \end{cases}$



Convexity of functions

Convexity is a key feature in optimisation. In convex optimisation problems, **local optimality always implies global optimality**.

Definition 7 (Convexity of a function)

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$. The function f is said to be **convex** if

$$f(\lambda x_1 + (1 - \lambda)x_2) \leq \lambda f(x_1) + (1 - \lambda)f(x_2)$$

for each $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and for each $\lambda \in (0, 1)$.

Remarks:

- ▶ f is **concave** if $-f$ is convex;
- ▶ if strict inequality holds, f is strictly convex.
- ▶ A nonconvex function can be convex within a specific set (e.g., $f(x) = x^3$ for $x \geq 0$)

Convexity of functions

Examples of **convex functions**:

1. $f(x) = a^\top x + b$;
2. $f(x) = e^x$;
3. $f(x) = x^p$ on \mathbb{R}_+ for $p \leq 0$ or $p \geq 1$; concave for $0 \leq p \leq 1$.
4. $f(x) = \|x\|_p$ (p -norm);

Convexity of functions

Convexity preserving operations:

1. let $f_1, \dots, f_k : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be convex. Then these are convex:
 - $f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_j f_j(x)$ where $\alpha_j > 0$ for $j = 1, \dots, k$;
 - $f(x) = \max \{f_1(x), \dots, f_k(x)\}$;
2. $f(x) = \frac{1}{g(x)}$ on S , where $g : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is concave and $S = \{x : g(x) > 0\}$;
3. $f(x) = g(h(x))$, where $g : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a nondecreasing convex function and $h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex.
4. $f(x) = g(h(x))$, where $g : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex and $h : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ is affine: $h(x) = Ax + b$ with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$.

Example: $f(a) = (b - a^\top x)^2 + \|a\|^2$. Is this function convex?

Convexity and optimality condition

The **importance of convexity** derives from this fundamental result:

Theorem 8 (Necessary and sufficient conditions)

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a convex differentiable function. Then any local optimum \bar{x} of f is also a global optimum.

Proof.

By **contradiction**. **Assume that \bar{x} is a local minimum in $N_\epsilon(\bar{x})$,** but not a global minimum. Then, for some x we will have $f(x) < f(\bar{x})$. As f is convex, we have for every $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ that

$$\begin{aligned} f(\lambda\bar{x} + (1 - \lambda)x) &\leq \lambda f(\bar{x}) + (1 - \lambda)f(x) \\ &< \lambda f(\bar{x}) + (1 - \lambda)f(\bar{x}) = f(\bar{x}). \end{aligned}$$

Now, $1 - \lambda$ can be made arbitrarily small such that $\lambda\bar{x} + (1 - \lambda)x$ belongs to $N_\epsilon(\bar{x})$, contradicting the **initial assumption**. \square

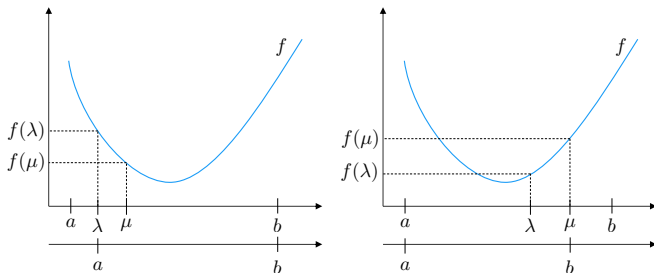
Line search methods

Most optimisation methods will iteratively search for points that satisfy **first-order conditions**.

One-dimensional (line) searches seek for \bar{x} such that $f'(\bar{x}) = 0$.

Theorem 9 (Line search reduction)

Let $f : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be convex over the interval $[a, b]$, and let $\lambda, \mu \in [a, b]$ such that $\lambda < \mu$. If $f(\lambda) > f(\mu)$, then $f(z) \geq f(\mu)$ for all $z \in [a, \lambda]$. If $f(\lambda) \leq f(\mu)$, then $f(z) \geq f(\lambda)$ for all $z \in [\mu, b]$.



Line search: bisection method

The bisection method uses **gradient information** to infer whether function is increasing or decreasing.

- ▶ Iteratively **trim** the search space (using **Theorem 9**).
- ▶ Relies on first-order conditions (presuming convexity/sufficiency).

The **main idea** of the method is

1. if $f'(\lambda_k) = 0$, then λ_k is a **minimiser**.
2. if $f'(\lambda_k) > 0$, then, for $\lambda > \lambda_k$, we have $f(\lambda) \geq f(\lambda_k)$ since f is convex. Therefore, the new search interval becomes $[a_{k+1}, b_{k+1}] = [a_k, \lambda_k]$.
3. if $f'(\lambda_k) < 0$, the new search interval becomes $[a_{k+1}, b_{k+1}] = [\lambda_k, b_k]$.
4. To **maximise interval reduction**, we set $\lambda_k = \frac{1}{2}(b_k + a_k)$.

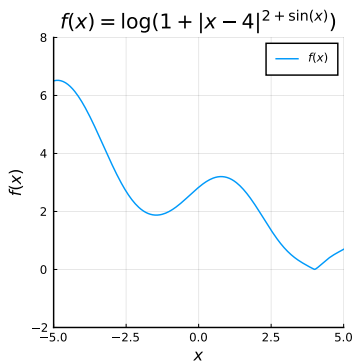
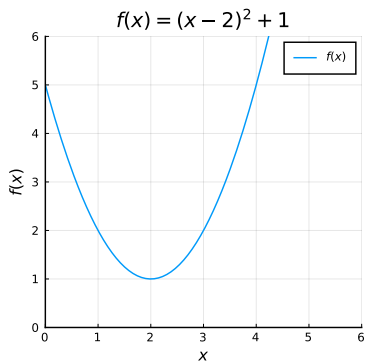
Line search: bisection method

Algorithm Bisection method (minimisation)

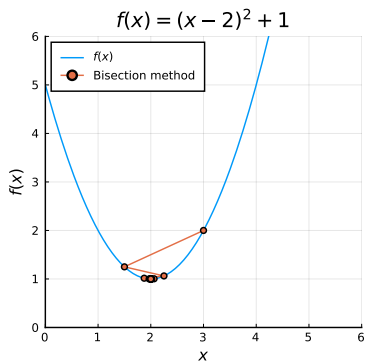
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1: initialise. tolerance  $l > 0$ ,  $[a_0, b_0] = [a, b]$ ,  $k = 0$ .
2: while  $b_k - a_k > l$  do
3:    $\lambda_k = \frac{(b_k + a_k)}{2}$  and evaluate  $f'(\lambda_k)$ .
4:   if  $f'(\lambda_k) = 0$  then return  $\lambda_k$ .
5:   else if  $f'(\lambda_k) > 0$  then
6:      $a_{k+1} = a_k$ ,  $b_{k+1} = \lambda_k$ .
7:   else
8:      $a_{k+1} = \lambda_k$ ,  $b_{k+1} = b_k$ .
9:   end if
10:   $k = k + 1$ .
11: end while
12: return  $\bar{\lambda} = \frac{a_k + b_k}{2}$ .
```

Remark: if maximising, the condition in Line 5 must be replaced with $f'(x) < 0$ and concavity is presumed.

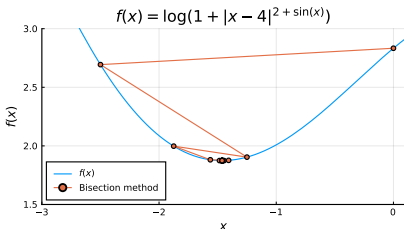
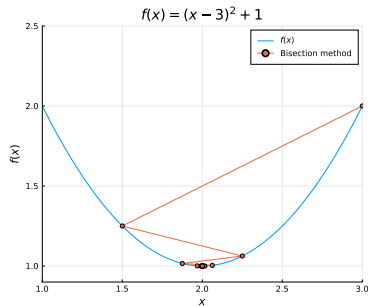
Bisection method: example



Bisection method: example



Bisection method: example (zoom in)



Line search: Newton's method

Explores the **quadratic approximation** q of f at a given point x_k :

$$q(x) = f(x_k) + f'(x_k)(x - x_k) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_k)(x - x_k)^2$$

Letting x_{k+1} be the point at which $q'(x) = 0$, we have

$$q'(x_{k+1}) = f'(x_k) + f''(x_k)(x_{k+1} - x_k) = 0,$$

which implies

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f'(x_k)}{f''(x_k)}.$$

Remarks:

1. The search terminates when $|x_{k+1} - x_k| < \epsilon$ or $|f'(x_k)| < \epsilon$.
2. The same as applying **Newton-Raphson's method** (for finding roots of functions) to first-order optimality condition.

Line search: Newton's method

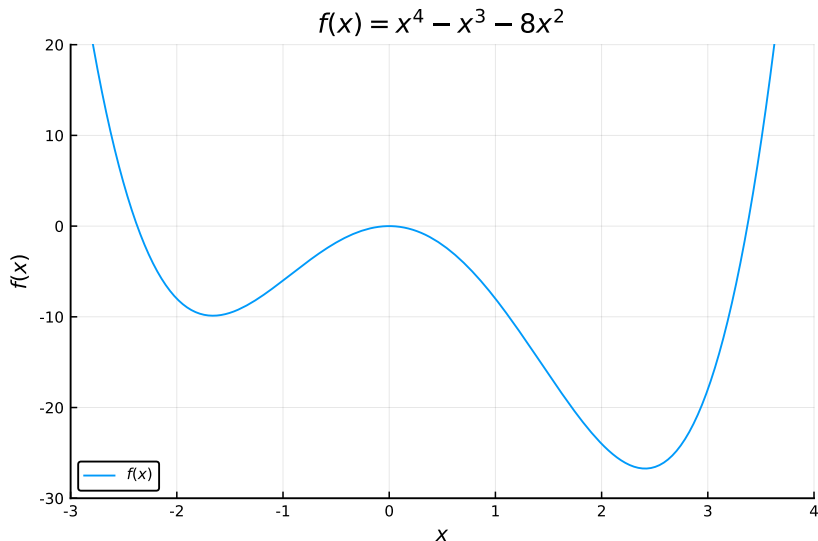
Algorithm Newton's method

- 1: **initialise.** tolerance $\epsilon > 0$, initial step size x_0 , iteration count $k = 0$.
 - 2: **while** $|f'(x_k)| > \epsilon$ **do**
 - 3: $x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f'(x_k)}{f''(x_k)}.$
 - 4: $k = k + 1.$
 - 5: **end while**
 - 6: **return** $\bar{x} = x_k.$
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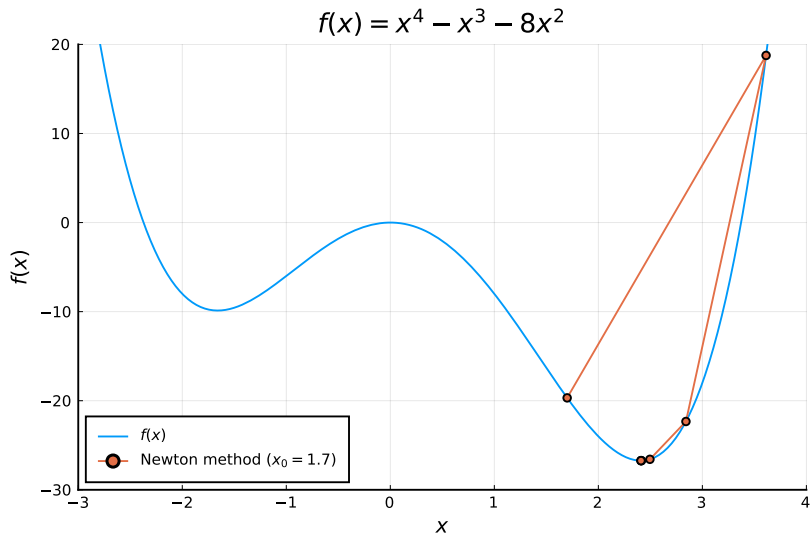
Remarks:

1. Newton's method is the backbone of several optimisation algorithms.
2. Has convergence issues if x_0 is too far away from optimal.
3. For quadratic problems, the approximation q is exact, meaning that only one iteration is needed.

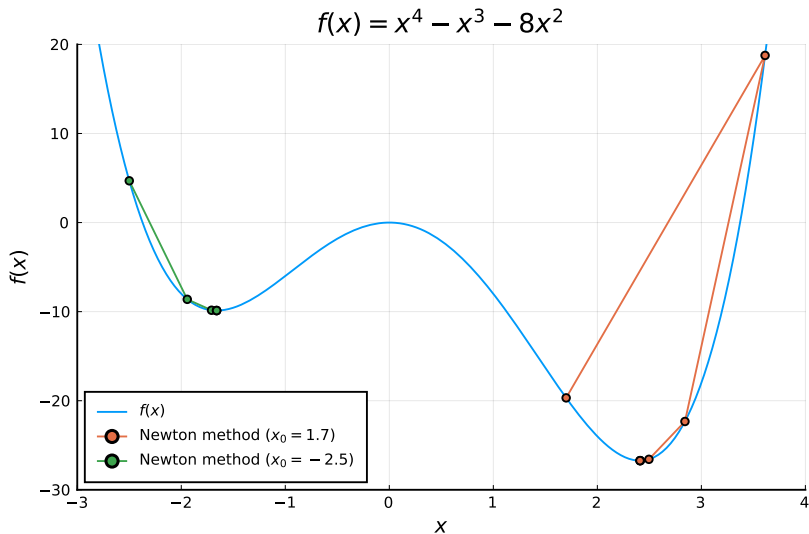
Newton's method: example



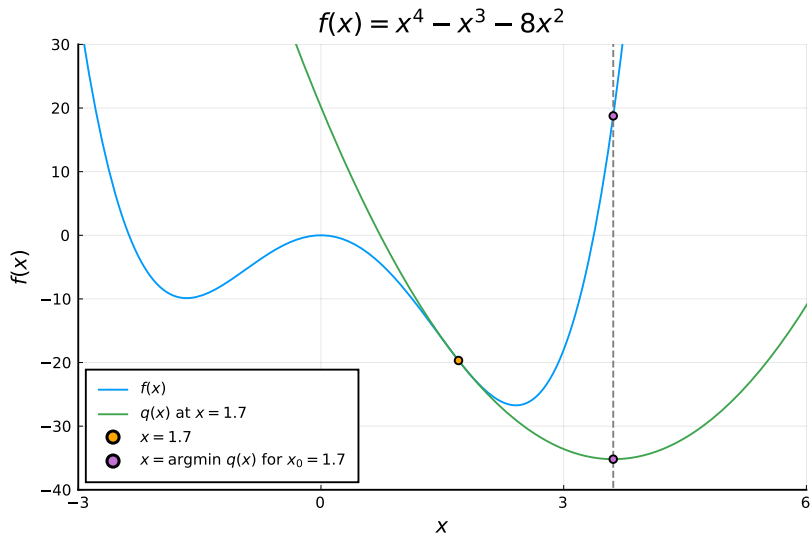
Newton's method: example



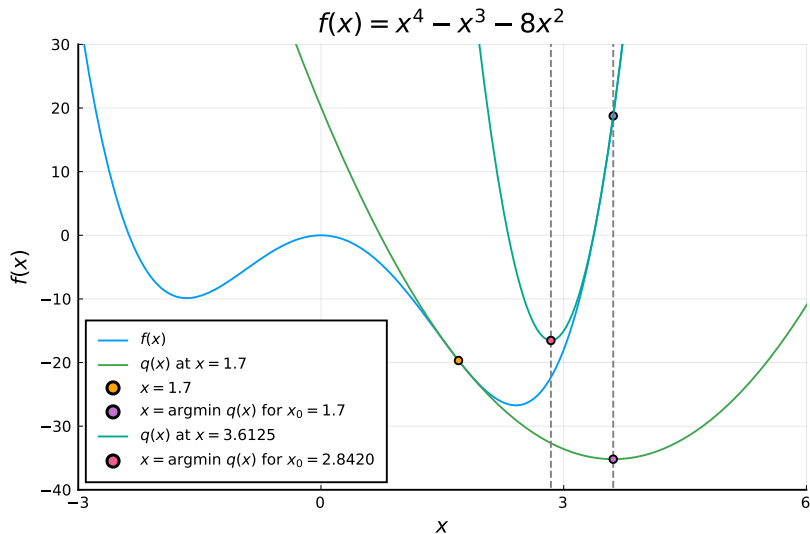
Newton's method: example



Newton's method: example



Newton's method: example



Newton's method: example

