

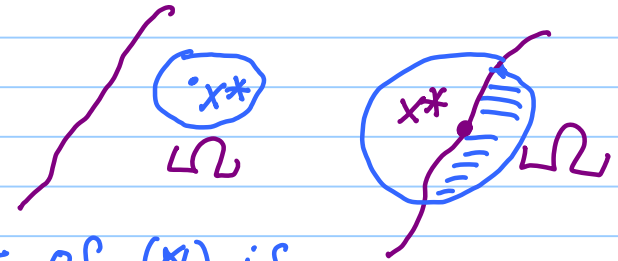
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \begin{cases} c_i(x) = 0, & i \in \mathcal{E} \\ c_i(x) \geq 0, & i \in \mathcal{I} \end{cases} \quad \begin{array}{l} \leftarrow \text{equality constraints} \\ \leftarrow \text{inequality constraints} \end{array}$$

↑
objective function

(★)

Feasible set $\Omega := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : c_i(x) = 0, i \in \mathcal{E}; c_i(x) \geq 0, i \in \mathcal{I}\}$

(★) can be rewritten as $\min_{x \in \Omega} f(x)$



Def: $x^* \in \Omega$ is a local solution/minimizer of (★) if
 \exists a neighborhood N of x^* st. $f(x) \geq f(x^*) \quad \forall x \in N \cap \Omega$.
 \equiv an open ball around x^*

["local solution" \rightsquigarrow "strict local solution" when " \geq " \rightsquigarrow " $>$ "]

For simplicity, assume the objective function f and all constraint functions c_i , $i \in \mathcal{E} \cup \mathcal{I}$, are C^2 smooth.

For unconstrained optimization problem (i.e. $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^n$),

Necessary conditions: Local unconstrained minimizers have $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$ and $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ positive semidefinite.

Sufficient conditions: Any point x^* at which $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$ and $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ is positive definite is a strong local minimizer of f .

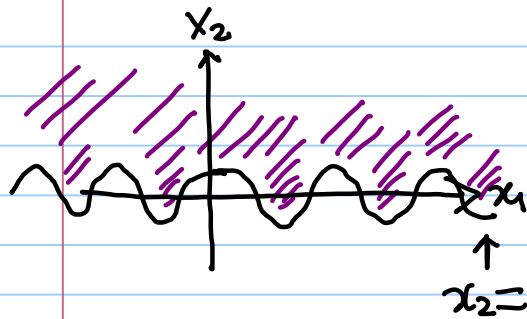
\Downarrow
strict

[Please study the proofs, they use the quadratic Taylor approximation in tandem with the spectral theorem.]

[Some subtle details will be found in the Hw.]

Example: $\min (x_2 + 100)^2 + 0.01 x_1^2 = [x_1, x_2 - (-100)] \begin{bmatrix} 100 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 - (-100) \end{bmatrix}$

s.t. $x_2 - \cos x_1 \geq 0$



Ω is clearly not a convex set.

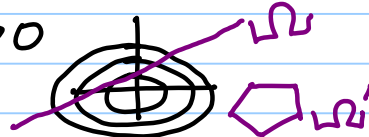
↑
a strictly convex quadratic, with a unique global minimizer at $(0, -100)$.

Aside: If $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a convex function
 $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is a convex set
 then $f: \Omega \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is also convex.

In this case, the solution set of $\min_{x \in \Omega} f(x)$
 is also a convex set.

e.g. $f(x_1, x_2) = \lambda_1 x_1^2 + \lambda_2 x_2^2, \lambda_1, \lambda_2 > 0$

$\Omega = \text{a line} \leftarrow \text{convex}$



Solution:

local minimizers at the boundary of Ω , more specifically, at

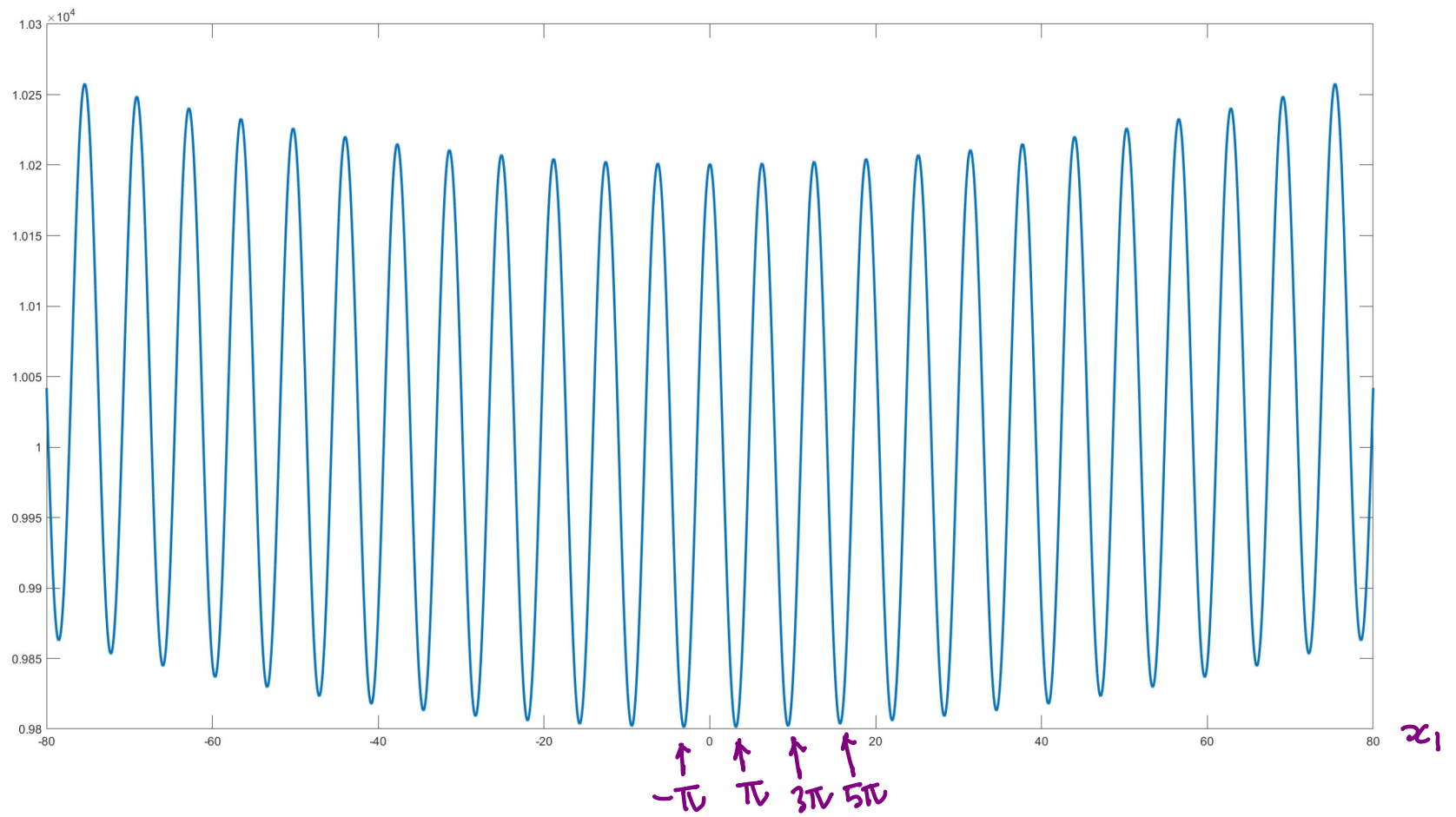
$$(x_1, x_2) = (k\pi, \overset{-1}{\cos(k\pi)}),$$

$k = \pm 1, \pm 3, \pm 5, \dots$

global minimizers at

$$(x_1, x_2) = (\pm\pi, -1)$$

Plot of $f(x_1, \cos(x_1))$, $x_1 \in [-80, 80]$



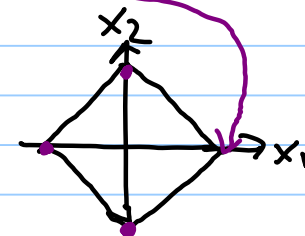
Note: That we assume $c_i(x)$ to be C^2 smooth does not mean the boundary of Ω cannot have "kinks".

E.g. $\Omega = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \|x\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| \leq 1\}$

can be rewritten as

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : x_1 + x_2 \leq 1, x_1 - x_2 \leq 1, -x_1 + x_2 \leq 1, -x_1 - x_2 \leq 1\}$$

$$\{x \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \underbrace{1 - x_1 - x_2}_{c_1(x)} \geq 0, \underbrace{1 - x_1 + x_2}_{c_2(x)} \geq 0, \underbrace{1 + x_1 - x_2}_{c_3(x)} \geq 0, \underbrace{1 + x_1 + x_2}_{c_4(x)} \geq 0\}$$



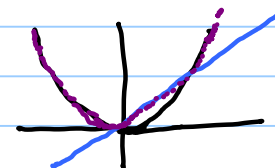
more interestingly, nonsmooth, unconstrained optimization problems can sometimes be reformulated as smooth constrained problems.

Here is a toy example:

can be recast as

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}} f(x) = \max(x^2, x) \quad \leftarrow \text{non-smooth}$$

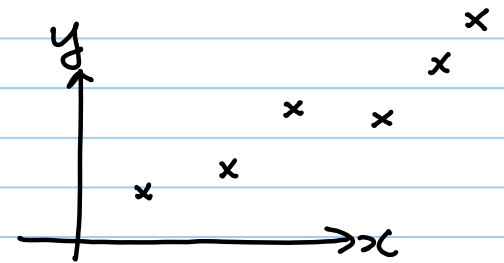
$$\min_{t \in \mathbb{R}} t \quad \text{s.t.} \quad t \geq x, t \geq x^2$$



A more serious example : robust L^1 regression

A basic machine learning problem :

Given data (x_i, y_i) $i=1, \dots, m$,
find a function $y=f(x)$ that
"best explains the data".



i.e. Find f st. $y_i \approx f(x_i) \quad \forall i$.

But this is meaningless if allow f to be any function. (why?)

Quite often, one may restrict attention to

$$f(x) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x \quad \text{or} \quad f(x) = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x + \alpha_2 x^2 \quad \swarrow$$

The least square method :

find $\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2$ so that $\sum_{i=1}^m (\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_2 x_i^2 - y_i)^2$ is minimized.

This is not only a smooth, unconstrained optimization problem in 3 variables, but also have a simple closed-form solution because the objective is a quadratic. Note:

$$\sum_{i=1}^m (\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_2 x_i^2 - y_i)^2 = \left\| \begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \\ 1 & x_2 & x_2^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m & x_m^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} \right\|_2^2$$

$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & x_1 & x_1^2 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ 1 & x_m & x_m^2 \end{bmatrix} = A$
 $\begin{bmatrix} \alpha_0 \\ \alpha_1 \\ \alpha_2 \end{bmatrix} = \alpha$
 $\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} = b$

The celebrated least square method is widely used. The problem is that when just a few of the data values y_i are very erroneous, the "square" may become very unforgiving.

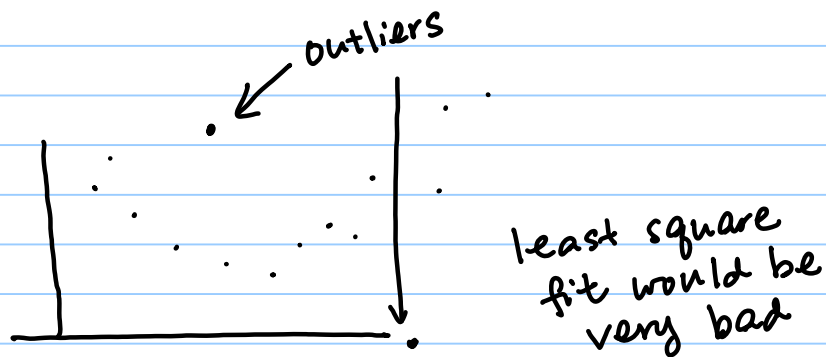
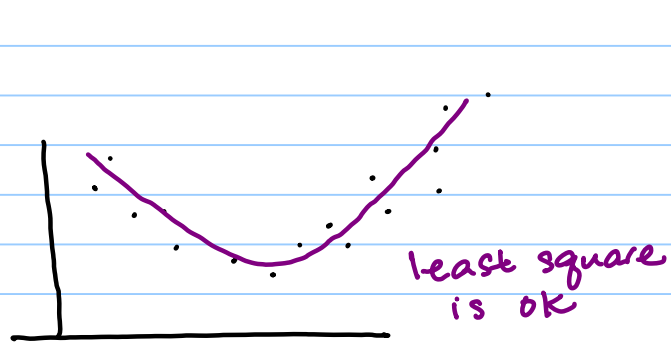
Idea: change \wedge_2 to $|\cdot|$.

$$= \| A\alpha - b \|_2^2$$

$$= \underbrace{\alpha^T A^T A \alpha}_{\uparrow} - 2b^T A \alpha + b^T b$$

positive definite (as long as $\text{rank}(A)=3$)

$$\alpha_{\min} = (A^T A)^{-1} (A^T b).$$



Least L^1 regression solves :

$$\min_{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2} \sum_{i=1}^m |\alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_2 x_i^2 - y_i|$$

Now, an ingenious trick: the unconstrained, but nonsmooth optimization problem above is equivalent to :

$$\min_{\substack{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, \alpha_2 \\ \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_m}} \gamma_1 + \dots + \gamma_m \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \begin{aligned} & -\gamma_i \leq \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 x_i + \alpha_2 x_i^2 - y_i \leq \gamma_i \\ & \gamma_1, \dots, \gamma_m \geq 0 \end{aligned} \quad i=1, \dots, m$$

Note: all the objective and constraint functions cannot possibly be any smoother, they are LINEAR functions!

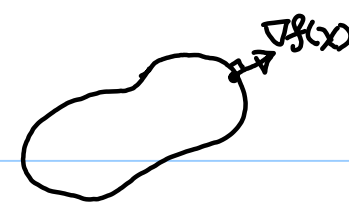
The latter constraint optimization problem is an example of LINEAR PROGRAM (LP).

Definition:

The active set $\mathcal{A}(x)$ at any feasible x consists of the equality constraint indices from \mathcal{E} together with the indices of the inequality constraints i for which $c_i(x) = 0$; that is,

$$\mathcal{A}(x) = \mathcal{E} \cup \{i \in \mathcal{I} \mid c_i(x) = 0\}.$$

At a feasible point x , the inequality constraint $i \in \mathcal{I}$ is said to be *active* if $c_i(x) = 0$ and *inactive* if the strict inequality $c_i(x) > 0$ is satisfied.



You may recall from your multivariate calculus course that :

$\nabla f(x)$ is orthogonal to the level surface $\{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(y) = f(x)\}$ at x .

or curve?

$f^{-1}(f(x))$

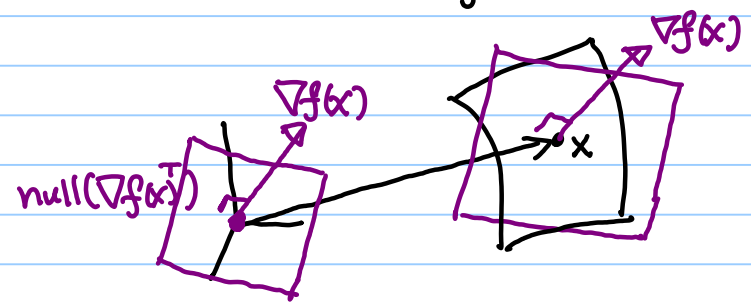
If you find this confusing, it is because it is !

Recall :

$$\underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{nonlinear}}}{f(y)} \approx f(x) + \underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{linear}}}{\nabla f(x)^T} (y-x) \quad , \quad y \approx x$$

Expect:

$$\underset{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{curved}}}{f^{-1}(f(x))} \approx \underbrace{\{y : \nabla f(x)^T (y-x) = 0\}}_{\text{flat}} = x + \underbrace{\text{null}(\nabla f(x)^T)}_{\substack{\text{"hyperplane"} \\ \leftarrow}} \text{ near } x$$



$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} (n-1)\text{-dimensional} \\ \text{if } \nabla f(x) \neq \vec{0} \\ n\text{-dimensional} \\ \text{if } \nabla f(x) = \vec{0} \end{array} \right.$

The implicit function theorem tells us that the level set $f^{-1}(f(x))$, in a neighborhood of x , is indeed a C^1 hypersurface (i.e. the graph of a C^1 function $h: \mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^{n-1} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$) when $\nabla f(x) \neq \vec{0}$.

In this case, the hyperplane $x + \text{null}(\nabla f(x)^T)$ is tangent to the hypersurface $f^{-1}(f(x))$.

Also $\nabla f(x) \perp$ the tangent plane.

What if $\nabla f(x) = \vec{0}$? The local linear approximation loses its power in telling you how $f^{-1}(f(x))$ looks like near x !

Consider $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$ $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2$, $f^{-1}(f(\vec{0})) = \{\vec{0}\} \leftarrow 0\text{-dimension}$

Consider $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$ $f(x) = 0$, $f^{-1}(f(\text{any pt})) = \mathbb{R}^n \leftarrow n \text{ dim.}$

In each case, the level set is not a hypersurface!
 $\nabla f(x) = \vec{0}$.

more generally,
 Consider $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^1$ $f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k x_i^2 = [x_1, \dots, x_n] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & & \\ & \ddots & \\ & & 1 & & \\ & & & 0 & \dots & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}$

$$f^{-1}(f(\vec{0})) = \left\{ \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \\ x_{k+1} \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} : x_{k+1}, \dots, x_n \in \mathbb{R} \right\} \leftarrow (n-k) \text{ dimensional}$$

This simple example tells us that when $\nabla f(x) = \vec{0}$, the level set $f^{-1}(f(x))$ can have any dimension from 0 to n !

Never forget that

$$\begin{array}{c} f'(x, p) \\ \parallel \\ \frac{d}{dt} f(x + tp) \Big|_{t=0} \end{array} = \nabla f(x)^T p$$

\leftarrow directional derivative of f at x in the direction p

If $\nabla f(x)^T p > 0$, $f(x + tp) > f(x)$ for small $t > 0$ (p is an ascent dir.)

$\nabla f(x)^T p < 0$, $f(x + tp) < f(x)$ for small $t < 0$

$\nabla f(x)^T p = 0$, $f(x + tp) \approx f(x)$ for small t (p is a descent dir.)

Half-spaces :

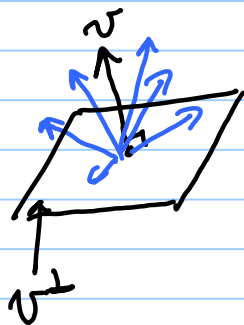
If $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $v \neq \vec{0}$

$$v^\perp = \{d \in \mathbb{R}^n : v^T d = 0\} \leftarrow \begin{matrix} (n-1) \text{ dimensional,} \\ \text{a hyperplane} \end{matrix}$$

$$\{d \in \mathbb{R}^n : v^T d \geq 0\} \leftarrow \text{a closed half space}$$

"

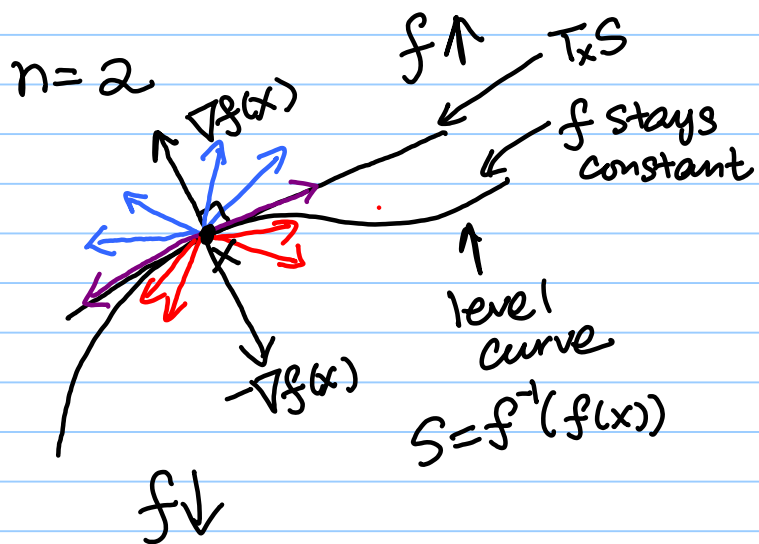
all the points on the same side of v^\perp as v , including points in v^\perp .



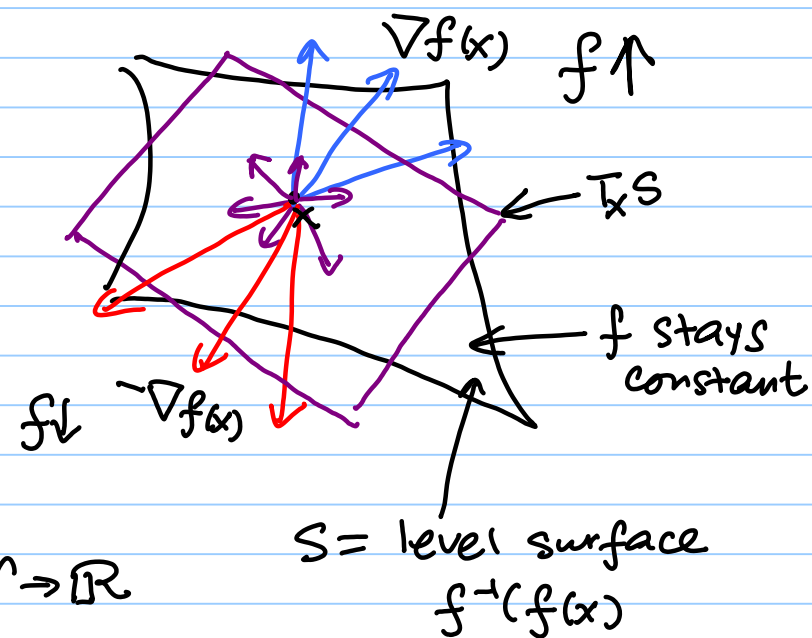
$$\text{Similarly, } \{d \in \mathbb{R}^n : v^T d > 0\} \leftarrow \text{an open half space}$$

"

all the points on the same side of v^\perp as v , excluding points in v^\perp .



$n=3$



Local picture of $f: \mathcal{U} \subset \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$
 @ $x \in \mathcal{U}$
 with $\nabla f(x) \neq \vec{0}$.

This is why if x is a local minimizer or maximizer of f , then it is necessary that $\nabla f(x) = \vec{0}$, for otherwise $\nabla f(x) \neq \vec{0}$ and we can choose

$$p = \nabla f(x)$$

to make

$$\nabla f(x)^T p = \nabla f(x)^T \nabla f(x) = \|\nabla f(x)\|_2^2 > 0,$$

meaning that in the $+\nabla f(x)$ direction f increases.

Similarly, in the $-\nabla f(x)$ direction, f decreases.

To conclude: $\nabla f(x) \neq \vec{0} \Rightarrow x$ cannot be a local min or max.
(Fermat's theorem is just the contrapositive of the above.)

The fact that $\frac{d}{dt} f(x - t \nabla f(x))|_{t=0} = -\nabla f(x)^T \cdot \nabla f(x) < 0$ when $\nabla f(x) \neq \vec{0}$ is the foundation of the gradient descent method for unconstrained optimization.

What if there are constraints?

Example: $\min \underbrace{x_1 + x_2}_{f(x)} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \underbrace{x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 2 = 0}_{C_1(x)}$

$$\nabla f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \neq \vec{0}, \quad \nabla C_1(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 2x_1 \\ 2x_2 \end{bmatrix} = 2x \neq \vec{0}$$

Q: If x is a solution, what condition must it satisfy?

Note:

$$\text{If } \exists d \in \mathbb{R}^2 \text{ st. } \nabla C_1(x)^T d = 0$$

and

$$\nabla f(x)^T d < 0$$

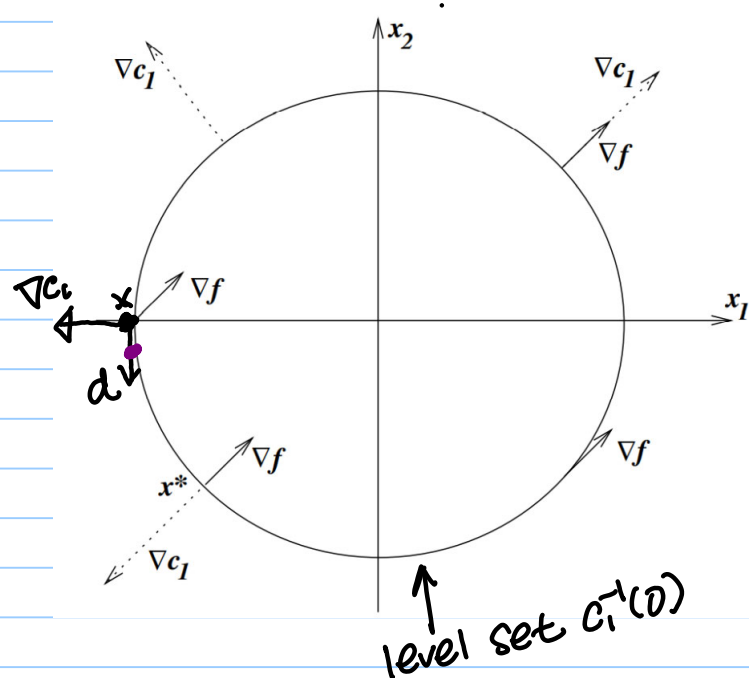
then we can decrease the value of f by moving to a nearby point within $C^1(C(x))$.

↑ means

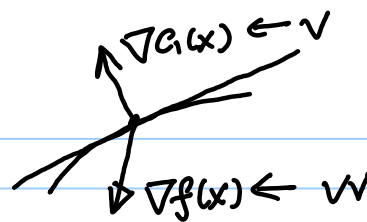
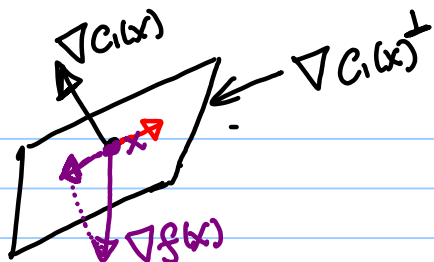
$$C_1(x + \varepsilon d) \approx C_1(x)$$

↑ means

$$f(x + \varepsilon d) < f(x)$$



If x is a solution, it should be that $\nexists d \text{ st. } \nabla C_1(x)^T d = 0 \ \& \ \nabla f(x)^T d < 0$
inconvenient to work with.....



Note: $\nexists d$ s.t. $v^T d = 0$ and $w^T d < 0$

(Assume $v \neq \vec{0}$)

$$\Leftrightarrow \exists \lambda \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t. } w = \lambda v.$$

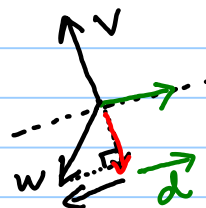
(\Leftarrow) If $w = \lambda v$, then $v^T d = 0 \Rightarrow w^T d = \lambda v^T d = 0$

(\Rightarrow) If v and w are not parallel,

$$\text{let } d = -\left(w - \frac{w^T v}{v^T v} \cdot v\right)$$

$$\neq \vec{0}$$

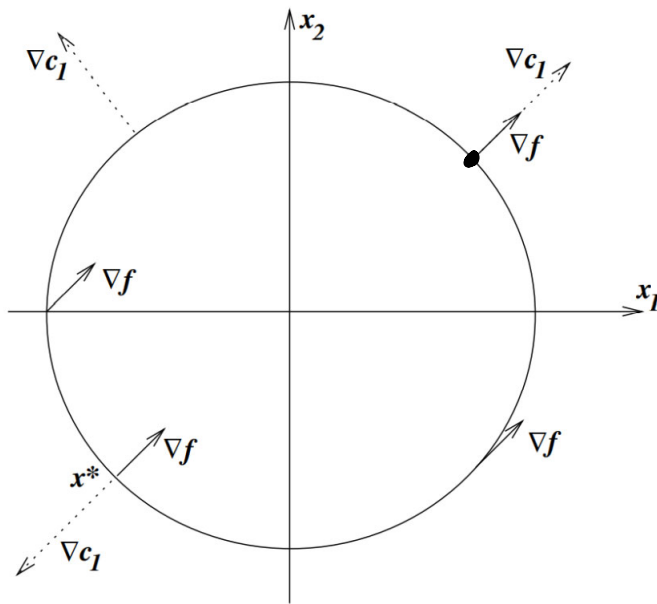
$$\text{and } v^T d = 0, w^T d < 0.$$



Conclusion: If x^* is a solution, it should be that $\exists \lambda_1^* \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\nabla f(x^*) = \lambda_1^* \nabla C_1(x^*)$$

↑ Lagrange multiplier



$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \lambda \cdot 2 \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \text{ can only be satisfied} \\ \text{and } c_1(x) = 0 \quad @ \quad x = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \lambda = \frac{1}{2} \quad \lambda = -\frac{1}{2}$$

It is clear that the only minimizer is $x^* = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$. ($\lambda^* = -\frac{1}{2}$.)

By introducing the Lagrangian function $\mathcal{L}(x, \lambda) = f(x) - \lambda_1 c_1(x)$.

Noting that $\nabla_x \mathcal{L}(x, \lambda) = \nabla f(x) - \lambda_1 \nabla c_1(x)$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda} \mathcal{L}(x, \lambda) = -c_1(x)$$

(n+1)(nonlinear)
equations in
(n+1) variables

The necessary condition can be written as

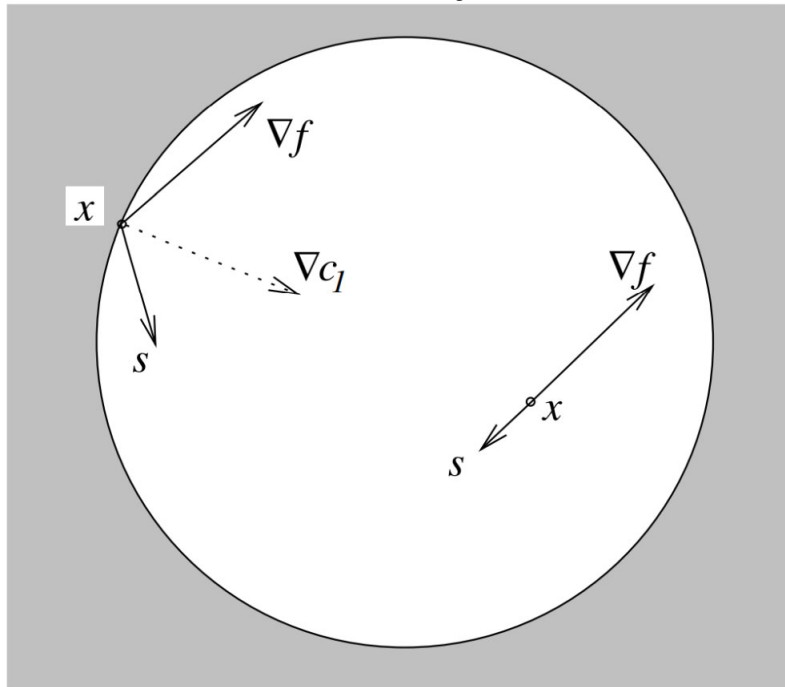
$$\boxed{\nabla_x \mathcal{L}(x, \lambda) = \vec{0}, \quad c_1(x) = 0}$$

Notice that if we change the constraint $x_1^2 + x_2^2 - 2 = 0$ to $\overbrace{2 - x_1^2 - x_2^2}^{\text{new } c_1} = 0$, the problem does not change, but

$$\nabla c_1(x) = -2 \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad x^* = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \quad , \quad \lambda_1^* = 1/2$$

(sign flipped) (same as before) (sign flipped)

Now, let's modify the example to $\min_{x_1, x_2} f(x) \text{ s.t. } 2 - \overbrace{x_1^2 - x_2^2}^{c_1(x)} \geq 0$.



What is a necessary condition for x to be a solution?

(I) If $c_1(x) > 0$ and x is a solution, then it is necessary that $\nabla f(x) = \vec{0}$. (why?)

(II) If $c_1(x) = 0$ and x is a solution, then it is necessary that

$$\nexists d \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ s.t. } \nabla c_1(x)^T d \geq 0 \text{ and } \nabla f(x)^T d < 0 \quad (\text{why?})$$

It should be evident that:

$$\{d: \nabla c_1(x)^T d \geq 0\} \cap \{d: \nabla f(x)^T d < 0\} = \emptyset$$

\uparrow \uparrow
 a closed half space an open half space



$\Leftrightarrow \nabla f(x)$ and $\nabla c_1(x)$ points in the same direction

i.e. $\nabla f(x) = \lambda_1 \nabla c_1(x)$ for some $\lambda_1 \geq 0$

If $\nabla f(x)$ and $\nabla c_1(x)$ do not point in the same direction, then

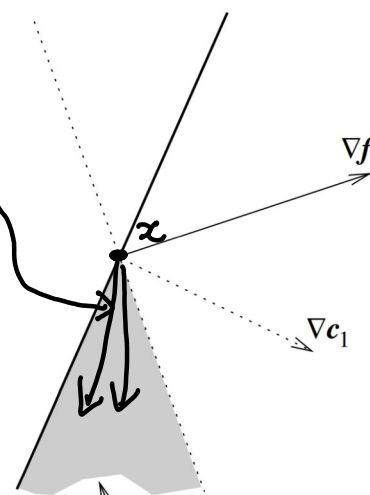
$\{d: \nabla c_1(x)^T d \geq 0\} \cap \{d: \nabla f(x)^T d < 0\} \neq \emptyset$ is a cone.

For any d in this cone,

$$c_1(x + \varepsilon d) > 0$$

$$f(x + \varepsilon d) < f(x),$$

meaning that x cannot be a solution.



Any d in this cone is a good search direction, to first order

To conclude: A necessary condition for optimality is

$$c_1(x^*) > 0 \text{ \& } \nabla f(x^*) = \vec{0} \quad \text{or} \quad c_1(x^*) = 0 \text{ \& } \nabla f(x^*) = \lambda_1^* \nabla c_1(x^*) \\ \lambda_1^* \geq 0$$

Solution to the problem:

$$x^* = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \lambda_1^* = \frac{1}{2}. \quad \text{the inequality constraint is active at this solution. (i.e. } c_1(x^*) = 0 \text{)}$$

(there is no solution that satisfies $c_1(x^*) > 0$ as $\nabla f(x^*) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \neq \vec{0}$)

Finally, there is a cute way to rewrite the optimality condition above:

$$\nabla_x \mathcal{L}(x^*, \lambda_1^*) = 0 \quad \text{for some } \lambda_1^* \geq 0$$

and

$$\lambda_1^* c_1(x^*) = 0.$$

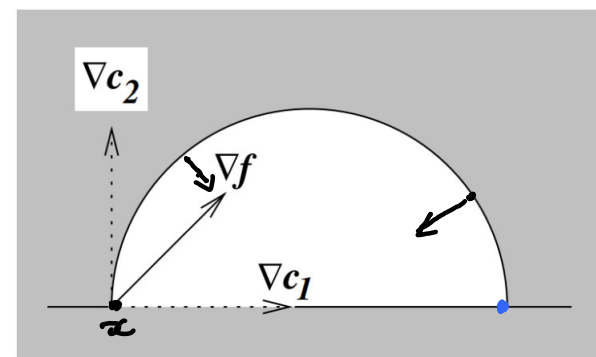
← called a
complementarity
condition

λ_1^* can only be strictly positive when the corresponding constraint is active.

Let's add one more constraint:

$$\min \underbrace{x_1 + x_2}_{= f(x)} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \underbrace{2 - x_1^2 - x_2^2}_{= c_1(x)} \geq 0, \quad \underbrace{x_2}_{= c_2(x)} \geq 0$$

Just like before, if x is a solution, then



(I) If $c_1(x) > 0, c_2(x) > 0$, then $\nabla f(x) = \vec{0}$ ←

impossible since $\nabla f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
 $\Rightarrow \nabla f(x) = \lambda_1 \nabla c_1(x) + \lambda_2 \nabla c_2(x)$, $\lambda \geq 0$
 impossible

(II) If $c_1(x) = 0, c_2(x) > 0$, then

$\nexists d$ s.t. $\nabla c_1(x)^T d \geq 0$ and $\nabla f(x)^T d < 0 \Leftrightarrow \nabla f(x) = \lambda_1 \nabla c_1(x)$, $\lambda \geq 0$
 impossible

(III) If $c_1(x) > 0, c_2(x) = 0$, then

$\nexists d$ s.t. $\nabla c_2(x)^T d \geq 0$ and $\nabla f(x)^T d < 0 \Leftrightarrow \nabla f(x) = \lambda_2 \nabla c_2(x)$
 impossible

(IV) If $c_1(x) = 0, c_2(x) = 0$, then

$\nexists d$ s.t. $\nabla c_1(x)^T d \geq 0, \nabla c_2(x)^T d \geq 0$ and $\nabla f(x)^T d < 0$.

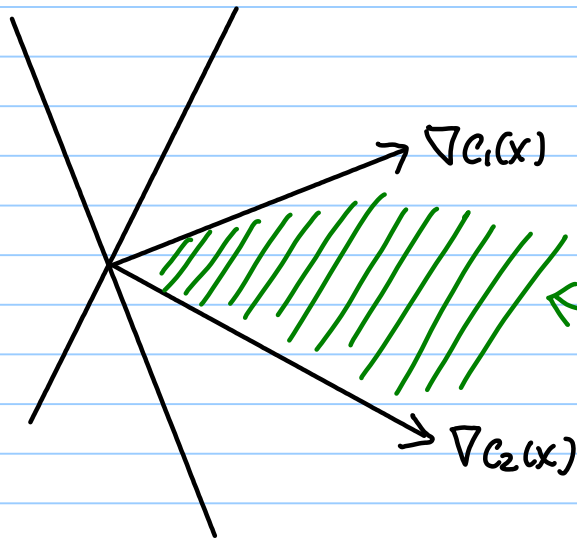
$$c_1(x) = 0, c_2(x) = 0 \Leftrightarrow x = \begin{bmatrix} -\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \text{ or } x = \begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$\nexists d$ s.t. $\nabla c_1(x)^T d \geq 0$, $\nabla c_2(x)^T d \geq 0$ and $\nabla f(x)^T d < 0$.

$$(*) \quad \{d: \nabla c_1(x)^T d \geq 0\} \cap \{d: \nabla c_2(x)^T d \geq 0\} \cap \{d: \nabla f(x)^T d < 0\} = \emptyset$$

\Leftrightarrow can you convince yourself why it should be true from the figure below?

$$\nabla f(x) = \lambda_1 \nabla c_1(x) + \lambda_2 \nabla c_2(x) \text{ for some } \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \geq 0$$



$$\{\lambda_1 \nabla c_1(x) + \lambda_2 \nabla c_2(x) : \lambda_1, \lambda_2 \geq 0\}$$

$\nabla f(x)$ is in this cone exactly when the optimality condition $(*)$ is satisfied.

Armed with this condition, we can see that $x^* = \begin{bmatrix} -\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ is the only minimizer.
 $[\nabla f(x^*) = [1], \nabla c_1(x^*) = \begin{bmatrix} 2\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}, \nabla c_2(x^*) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, \nabla f(x^*) = \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \nabla c_1(x^*) + 1 \cdot \nabla c_2(x^*)].$

Exercise: Show $\begin{bmatrix} \sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ does not satisfy the optimality condition.

more generally, given $b_1, \dots, b_m \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $g \in \mathbb{R}^n$

consider the cone $K = \{ \lambda_1 b_1 + \dots + \lambda_m b_m : \lambda_i \geq 0 \}$

Theorem: $\bigcap_{i=1}^m \{d : b_i^T d \geq 0\} \cap \{d : g^T d \geq 0\} = \emptyset$

$\Leftrightarrow g \in K$

(\Leftarrow) If $g = \sum \lambda_i b_i$, $\lambda_i \geq 0$

and $\exists d$ st. $b_i^T d \geq 0 \forall i$

then $g^T d = \sum \lambda_i \underbrace{b_i^T d}_{\geq 0} \geq 0$. So $\bigcap_i \{d : b_i^T d \geq 0\} \cap \{d : g^T d \geq 0\} = \emptyset$.

(\Rightarrow) Less obvious. We shall prove a slightly more general version of it called **Farkas' lemma**.