AM 205: lecture 18

- ▶ There will be no lecture on Tuesday November 25
- Last time: optimization methods
- ► Today: conditions for optimality

An important concept for uniqueness is convexity

A set $S \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex if it contains the line segment between any two of its points

That is, S is convex if for any $x, y \in S$, we have

$$\{\theta x + (1-\theta)y : \theta \in [0,1]\} \subset S$$

Similarly, we define convexity of a function $f:S\subset\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}$

f is convex if its graph along any line segment in S is on or below the chord connecting the function values

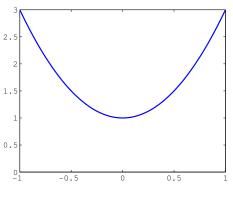
i.e. f is convex if for any $x, y \in S$ and any $\theta \in [0, 1]$, we have

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

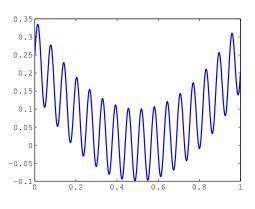
Also, if

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

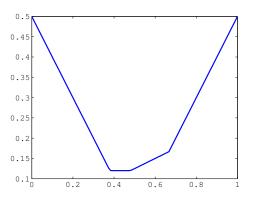
then f is strictly convex



Strictly convex



Non-convex



Convex (not strictly convex)

If f is a convex function on a convex set S, then any local minimum of f must be a global minimum

Proof: Suppose x is a local minimum, *i.e.* $f(x) \le f(y)$ for $y \in B(x, \epsilon)$ (where $B(x, \epsilon) \equiv \{y \in S : ||y - x|| \le \epsilon\}$)

Suppose that x is not a global minimum, *i.e.* that there exists $w \in S$ such that f(w) < f(x)

(Then we will show that this gives a contradiction)

Proof (continued...):

For
$$\theta \in [0,1]$$
 we have $f(\theta w + (1-\theta)x) \le \theta f(w) + (1-\theta)f(x)$

Let $\sigma \in (0,1]$ be sufficiently small so that

$$z \equiv \sigma w + (1 - \sigma) x \in B(x, \epsilon)$$

Then

$$f(z) \leq \sigma f(w) + (1-\sigma) f(x) < \sigma f(x) + (1-\sigma) f(x) = f(x),$$

i.e. f(z) < f(x), which contradicts that f(x) is a local minimum!

Hence we cannot have $w \in S$ such that f(w) < f(x)

Note that convexity does not guarantee uniqueness of global minimum

e.g. a convex function can clearly have a "horizontal" section (see earlier plot)

If f is a strictly convex function on a convex set S, then a local minimum of f is the unique global minimum

Optimization of convex functions over convex sets is called convex optimization, which is an important subfield of optimization

We have discussed existence and uniqueness of minima, but haven't considered how to find a minimum

The familiar optimization idea from calculus in one dimension is: set derivative to zero, check the sign of the second derivative

This can be generalized to \mathbb{R}^n

If $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable, then the gradient vector

 $\nabla f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$ is

$$\nabla f(x) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

The importance of the gradient is that ∇f points "uphill," *i.e.* towards points with larger values than f(x)

And similarly $-\nabla f$ points "downhill"

This follows from Taylor's theorem for $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$

Recall that

$$f(x + \delta) = f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T \delta + \text{H.O.T.}$$

Let $\delta \equiv -\epsilon \nabla f(x)$ for $\epsilon > 0$ and suppose that $\nabla f(x) \neq 0$, then:

$$f(x - \epsilon \nabla f(x)) \approx f(x) - \epsilon \nabla f(x)^T \nabla f(x) < f(x)$$

Also, we see from Cauchy–Schwarz that $-\nabla f(x)$ is the steepest descent direction

Similarly, we see that a necessary condition for a local minimum at $x^* \in S$ is that $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$

In this case there is no "downhill direction" at x^*

The condition $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$ is called a first-order necessary condition for optimality, since it only involves first derivatives

 $x^* \in S$ that satisfies the first-order optimality condition is called a critical point of f

But of course a critical point can be a local min., local max., or saddle point

(Recall that a saddle point is where some directions are "downhill" and others are "uphill", e.g. (x,y)=(0,0) for $f(x,y)=x^2-y^2$)

As in the one-dimensional case, we can look to second derivatives to classify critical points

If $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is twice differentiable, then the Hessian is the matrix-valued function $H_f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$

$$H_f(x) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

The Hessian is the Jacobian matrix of the gradient $\nabla f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^n$

If the second partial derivatives of f are continuous, then $\partial^2 f/\partial x_i \partial x_j = \partial^2 f/\partial x_j \partial x_i$, and H_f is symmetric

Suppose we have found a critical point x^* , so that $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$

From Taylor's Theorem, for $\delta \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have

$$f(x^* + \delta) = f(x^*) + \nabla f(x^*)^T \delta + \frac{1}{2} \delta^T H_f(x^* + \eta \delta) \delta$$
$$= f(x^*) + \frac{1}{2} \delta^T H_f(x^* + \eta \delta) \delta$$

for some $\eta \in (0,1)$

Recall positive definiteness: A is positive definite if $x^T Ax > 0$

Suppose $H_f(x^*)$ is positive definite

Then (by continuity) $H_f(x^* + \eta \delta)$ is also positive definite for $\|\delta\|$ sufficiently small, so that: $\delta^T H_f(x^* + \eta \delta)\delta > 0$

Hence, we have $f(x^* + \delta) > f(x)$ for $||\delta||$ sufficiently small, *i.e.* $f(x^*)$ is a local minimum

Hence, in general, positive definiteness of H_f at a critical point x^* is a second-order sufficient condition for a local minimum

A matrix can also be negative definite: $x^T A x < 0$ for all $x \neq 0$

Or indefinite: There exists x, y such that $x^T A x < 0 < y^T A y$

Then we can classify critical points as follows:

- ▶ $H_f(x^*)$ positive definite $\implies x^*$ is a local minimum
- $ightharpoonup H_f(x^*)$ negative definite $\implies x^*$ is a local maximum
- ▶ $H_f(x^*)$ indefinite $\implies x^*$ is a saddle point

Also, positive definiteness of the Hessian is closely related to convexity of \boldsymbol{f}

If $H_f(x)$ is positive definite, then f is convex on some convex neighborhood of x

If $H_f(x)$ is positive definite for all $x \in S$, where S is a convex set, then f is convex on S

Question: How do we test for positive definiteness?

Answer: A is positive (resp. negative) definite if and only if all eigenvalues of A are positive (resp. negative)¹

Also, a matrix with positive and negative eigenvalues is indefinite

Hence we can compute all the eigenvalues of \boldsymbol{A} and check their signs

 $^{^1\}mathsf{This}$ is related to the Rayleigh quotient, see Unit V

Heath Example 6.5

Consider

$$f(x) = 2x_1^3 + 3x_1^2 + 12x_1x_2 + 3x_2^2 - 6x_2 + 6$$

Then

$$\nabla f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 6x_1^2 + 6x_1 + 12x_2 \\ 12x_1 + 6x_2 - 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

We set $\nabla f(x) = 0$ to find critical points² $[1, -1]^T$ and $[2, -3]^T$

²In general solving $\nabla f(x) = 0$ requires an iterative method

Heath Example 6.5, continued...

The Hessian is

$$H_f(x) = \left[\begin{array}{cc} 12x_1 + 6 & 12 \\ 12 & 6 \end{array} \right]$$

and hence

$$H_f(1,-1) = \begin{bmatrix} 18 & 12 \\ 12 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$
, which has eigenvalues 25.4, -1.4 $H_f(2,-3) = \begin{bmatrix} 30 & 12 \\ 12 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$, which has eigenvalues 35.0, 1.0

Hence $[2,-3]^T$ is a local min. whereas $[1,-1]^T$ is a saddle point

So far we have ignored constraints

Let us now consider equality constrained optimization

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)$$
 subject to $g(x) = 0$,

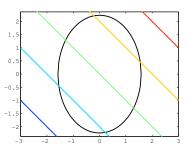
where $f:\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ and $g:\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, with $m \leq n$

Since g maps to \mathbb{R}^m , we have m constraints

This situation is treated with Lagrange mutlipliers

We illustrate the concept of Lagrange multipliers for $f, g : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$

Let
$$f(x, y) = x + y$$
 and $g(x, y) = 2x^2 + y^2 - 5$



 ∇g is normal to S:³ at any $x \in S$ we must move in direction $(\nabla g(x))_{\perp}$ (tangent direction) to remain in S

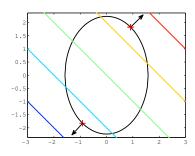
³This follows from Taylor's Theorem: $g(x + \delta) \approx g(x) + \nabla g(x)^T \delta$

Also, change in f due to infinitesimal step in direction $(\nabla g(x))_{\perp}$ is

$$f(x \pm \epsilon(\nabla g(x))_{\perp}) = f(x) \pm \epsilon \nabla f(x)^{T}(\nabla g(x))_{\perp} + \text{H.O.T.}$$

Hence stationary point $x^* \in S$ if $\nabla f(x^*)^T (\nabla g(x^*))_{\perp} = 0$, or

$$\nabla f(x^*) = \lambda^* \nabla g(x^*), \quad \text{for some } \lambda^* \in \mathbb{R}$$



This shows that for a stationary point with m=1 constraints, ∇f cannot have any component in the "tangent direction" to S

Now, consider the case with m > 1 equality constraints

Then $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ and we now have a set of constraint gradient vectors, ∇g_i , i = 1, ..., m

Then we have $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g_i(x) = 0, i = 1, \dots, m\}$

Any "tangent direction" at $x \in S$ must be orthogonal to all gradient vectors $\{\nabla g_i(x), i = 1, \dots, m\}$ to remain in S

Let $\mathcal{T}(x) \equiv \{v \in \mathbb{R}^n : \nabla g_i(x)^T v = 0, i = 1, 2, ..., m\}$ denote the orthogonal complement of $\{\nabla g_i(x), i = 1, ..., m\}$

Then, for $\delta \in \mathcal{T}(x)$ and $\epsilon \in \mathbb{R}_{>0}$, $\epsilon \delta$ is a step in a "tangent direction" of S at x

Since we have

$$f(x^* + \epsilon \delta) = f(x^*) + \epsilon \nabla f(x^*)^T \delta + \text{H.O.T.}$$

it follows that for a stationary point we need $\nabla f(x^*)^T \delta = 0$ for all $\delta \in \mathcal{T}(x^*)$

Hence, we require that at a stationary point $x^* \in S$ we have

$$\nabla f(x^*) \in \operatorname{span}\{\nabla g_i(x^*), i=1,\ldots,m\}$$

This can be written succinctly as a linear system

$$\nabla f(x^*) = (J_g(x^*))^T \lambda^*$$

for some $\lambda^* \in \mathbb{R}^m$, where $(J_g(x^*))^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$

This follows because the columns of $(J_g(x^*))^T$ are the vectors $\{\nabla g_i(x^*), i=1,\ldots,m\}$

We can write equality constrained optimization problems more succinctly by introducing the Lagrangian function, $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{n+m} \to \mathbb{R}$,

$$\mathcal{L}(x,\lambda) \equiv f(x) + \lambda^{T} g(x)$$

= $f(x) + \lambda_{1} g_{1}(x) + \dots + \lambda_{m} g_{m}(x)$

Then we have,

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(x,\lambda)}{\partial x_i} & = & \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_i} + \lambda_1 \frac{\partial g_1(x)}{\partial x_i} + \dots + \lambda_n \frac{\partial g_n(x)}{\partial x_i}, & i = 1,\dots,n \\ \\ \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(x,\lambda)}{\partial \lambda_i} & = & g_i(x), & i = 1,\dots,m \end{array}$$

Hence

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(x,\lambda) = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla_x \mathcal{L}(x,\lambda) \\ \nabla_\lambda \mathcal{L}(x,\lambda) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla f(x) + J_g(x)^T \lambda \\ g(x) \end{bmatrix},$$

so that the first order necessary condition for optimality for the constrained problem can be written as a nonlinear system:⁴

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(x,\lambda) = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla f(x) + J_g(x)^T \lambda \\ g(x) \end{bmatrix} = 0$$

(As before, stationary points can be classified by considering the Hessian, though we will not consider this here...)

 $^{^4}n + m$ variables, n + m equations



See Lecture: Constrained optimization of cylinder surface area

As another example of equality constrained optimization, recall our underdetermined linear least squares problem from ${\rm I.3}$

$$\min_{b\in\mathbb{R}^n} f(b)$$
 subject to $g(b) = 0$,

where
$$f(b) \equiv b^T b$$
, $g(b) \equiv Ab - y$ and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ with $m < n$

Introducing Lagrange multipliers gives

$$\mathcal{L}(b,\lambda) \equiv b^T b + \lambda^T (Ab - y)$$

where $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^m$

Hence $\nabla \mathcal{L}(b,\lambda) = 0$ implies

$$\left[\begin{array}{c} \nabla f(b) + J_g(b)^T \lambda \\ g(b) \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 2b + A^T \lambda \\ Ab - y \end{array}\right] = 0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$$

Hence, we obtain the $(n+m) \times (n+m)$ square linear system

$$\left[\begin{array}{cc} 2I & A^T \\ A & 0 \end{array}\right] \left[\begin{array}{c} b \\ \lambda \end{array}\right] = \left[\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ y \end{array}\right]$$

which we can solve for $\left[egin{array}{c} b \\ \lambda \end{array}
ight] \in \mathbb{R}^{n+m}$

We have $b = -\frac{1}{2}A^T\lambda$ from the first "block row"

Substituting into
$$Ab = y$$
 (the second "block row") yields $\lambda = -2(AA^T)^{-1}y$

And hence

$$b = -\frac{1}{2}A^{T}\lambda = A^{T}(AA^{T})^{-1}y$$

which was the solution we introduced (but didn't derive) in I.3

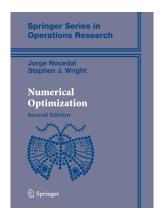


Similar Lagrange multiplier methods can be developed for the more difficult case of inequality constrained optimization

Survey of Optimization Methods

Numerical Optimzation

Numerical Optimization is a very large and important field. For more details, there are many good references on this area, for example: Numerical Optimization, by Nocedal and Wright



Unconstrained Optimization

Steepest Descent

We first consider the simpler case of unconstrained optimization (as opposed to constrained optimization)

Perhaps the simplest method for unconstrained optimization is steepest descent

Key idea: The negative gradient $-\nabla f(x)$ points in the "steepest downhill" direction for f at x

Hence an iterative method for minimizing f is obtained by following $-\nabla f(x_k)$ at each step

Question: How far should we go in the direction of $-\nabla f(x_k)$?

Steepest Descent

We can try to find the best step size via a subsidiary (and easier!) optimization problem

For a direction $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$, let $\phi : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ be given by

$$\phi(\eta) = f(x + \eta s)$$

Then minimizing f along s corresponds to minimizing the one-dimensional function ϕ

This process of minimizing f along a line is called a line search⁵

⁵The line search can itself be performed via Newton's method, as described for $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ shortly, or via a built-in function

Steepest Descent

Putting these pieces together leads to the steepest descent method:

```
1: choose initial guess x_0

2: for k = 0, 1, 2, ... do

3: s_k = -\nabla f(x_k)

4: choose \eta_k to minimize f(x_k + \eta_k s_k)

5: x_{k+1} = x_k + \eta_k s_k

6: end for
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However, steepest descent often converges very slowly

Convergence rate is linear, and scaling factor can be arbitrarily close to $\boldsymbol{1}$

(Steepest descent will be covered on Assignment 5)

We can get faster convergence by using more information about f

Note that $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$ is a system of nonlinear equations, hence we can solve it with quadratic convergence via Newton's method⁶

The Jacobian matrix of $\nabla f(x)$ is $H_f(x)$ and hence Newton's method for unconstrained optimization is:

- 1: choose initial guess x_0
- 2: **for** $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ **do**
- 3: solve $H_f(x_k)s_k = -\nabla f(x_k)$
- 4: $x_{k+1} = x_k + s_k$
- 5: end for

⁶Note that in its simplest form this algorithm searches for stationary points, not necessarily minima

We can also interpret Newton's method as seeking stationary point based on a sequence of local quadratic approximations

Recall that for small δ

$$f(x + \delta) \approx f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T \delta + \frac{1}{2} \delta^T H_f(x) \delta \equiv q(\delta)$$

where $q(\delta)$ is quadratic in δ (for a fixed x)

We find stationary point of q in the usual way:⁷

$$\nabla q(\delta) = \nabla f(x) + H_f(x)\delta = 0$$

This leads to $H_f(x)\delta = -\nabla f(x)$, as in the previous slide

⁷Recall I.4 for differentiation of $\delta^T H_f(x) \delta$

Python example: Newton's method for minimization of Himmelblau's function

$$f(x,y) = (x^2 + y - 11)^2 + (x + y^2 - 7)^2$$

Local maximum of 181.617 at (-0.270845, -0.923039)

Four local minima, each of 0, at

$$(3,2), (-2.805,3.131), (-3.779,-3.283), (3.584,-1.841)$$

Python example: Newton's method for minimization of Himmelblau's function

