

# CS/ECE/ISYE524: Introduction to Optimization – Convex Optimization Models

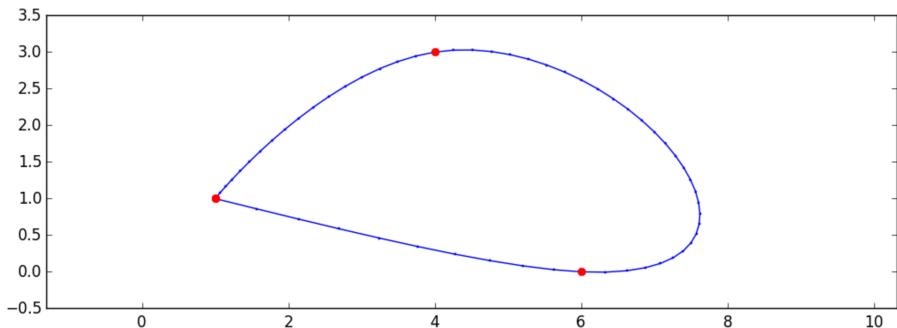
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## Example: Anakin Goes Podracing

- Anakin Skywalker has a Pod, and he is practicing his pod-racing.
- We are given a set of  $k$  waypoint locations and times.
- The objective is to hit the waypoints at the prescribed times while minimizing fuel use.



# Anakin's Dynamics

- Discretize time:  $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots, T$ .
- Important variables: position  $x_t$ , velocity  $v_t$ , thrust  $u_t$ . (These are vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^2$ )
- Simplified model of the dynamics:

$$\begin{aligned} x_{t+1} &= x_t + v_t \\ v_{t+1} &= v_t + u_t \end{aligned} \quad \text{for } t = 0, 1, \dots, T-1$$

- We must choose  $u_0, u_1, \dots, u_T$ .
- Initial position and velocity:  $x_0 = 0$  and  $v_0 = 0$ .
- Waypoint constraints:  $x_{t_i} = w_i$  for  $i = 1, \dots, k$ .
- Minimize fuel use:  $\|u_0\|^2 + \|u_1\|^2 + \dots + \|u_T\|^2$

# Anakin's First Model

**First model:** Hit the waypoints exactly

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\underset{x_t, v_t, u_t}{\text{minimize}} && \sum_{t=0}^T \|u_t\|^2 \\
 &\text{subject to:} && x_{t+1} = x_t + v_t \quad \text{for } t = 0, 1, \dots, T-1 \\
 & && v_{t+1} = v_t + u_t \quad \text{for } t = 0, 1, \dots, T-1 \\
 & && x_0 = v_0 = 0 \\
 & && x_{t_i} = w_i \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, k
 \end{aligned}$$

Julia model: [Podracing.ipynb](https://podracing.jpl.nasa.gov/podracing-ipython/)

# Tradeoffs in Podracing

**Second model:** We are allowed to miss the waypoints (by a bit):

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\underset{x_t, v_t, u_t}{\text{minimize}} && \sum_{t=0}^T \|u_t\|^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^k \|x_{t_i} - w_i\|^2 \\
 &\text{subject to:} && x_{t+1} = x_t + v_t \quad \text{for } t = 0, 1, \dots, T-1 \\
 & && v_{t+1} = v_t + u_t \quad \text{for } t = 0, 1, \dots, T-1 \\
 & && x_0 = v_0 = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

- $\lambda$  controls the tradeoff between making  $u$  small and hitting all the waypoints.
- [Tradeoff-Podracing.ipynb](#)

# Multi-objective tradeoff

- We can use a similar procedure if we have more than two costs we'd like to make small, e.g.  $J_1$ ,  $J_2$ ,  $J_3$
- Choose parameters  $\lambda > 0$  and  $\mu > 0$ . Then solve:

$$\begin{array}{ll}\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} & J_1(x) + \lambda J_2(x) + \mu J_3(x) \\ \text{subject to:} & \text{constraints}\end{array}$$

- Each  $\lambda > 0$  and  $\mu > 0$  yields a solution  $\hat{x}_{\lambda,\mu}$ .
- Can visualize tradeoff by plotting  $J_3(\hat{x}_{\lambda,\mu})$  vs  $J_2(\hat{x}_{\lambda,\mu})$  vs  $J_1(\hat{x}_{\lambda,\mu})$  on a 3D plot. You then obtain a *Pareto surface*.

# Minimum-norm as a regularization

- When  $Ax = b$  is underdetermined ( $A$  is wide), we can resolve ambiguity by adding a cost function, e.g. *min-norm* LS:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \underset{x}{\text{minimize}} & \|x\|^2 \\ \text{subject to:} & Ax = b \end{array}$$

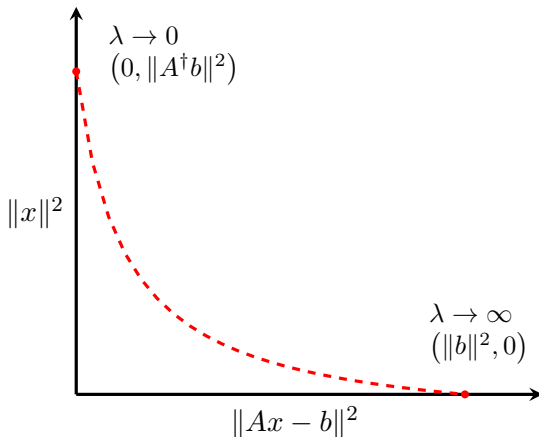
- Alternative approach: express it as a tradeoff!

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|Ax - b\|^2 + \lambda \|x\|^2$$

- 
- Tradeoffs of this type are called **regularization** and  $\lambda$  is called the *regularization parameter* or *regularization weight*
  - If we let  $\lambda \rightarrow \infty$ , we just obtain  $\hat{x} = 0$
  - If we let  $\lambda \rightarrow 0$ , we obtain the minimum-norm solution!

# Tradeoff visualization

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|Ax - b\|^2 + \lambda \|x\|^2$$





# Regularization

**Regularization:** Additional penalty term added to the cost function to encourage a solution with desirable properties.

**Regularized least squares:**

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|Ax - b\|^2 + \lambda R(x)$$

- $R(x)$  is the regularizer (penalty function)
- $\lambda$  is the regularization parameter
- The model has different names depending on  $R(x)$ .

Regularized least squares turns out to be important in many contexts!

# Regularization

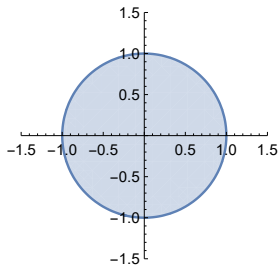
$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad \|Ax - b\|^2 + \lambda R(x)$$

- ❶ If  $R(x) = \|x\|^2 = x_1^2 + x_2^2 + \cdots + x_n^2$   
It is called:  $L_2$  regularization, *Tikhonov regularization*, or *Ridge regression* depending on the application. It has the effect of *smoothing* the solution.
- ❷ If  $R(x) = \|x\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2| + \cdots + |x_n|$   
It is called:  $L_1$  regularization or *LASSO*. It has the effect of *sparsifying* the solution ( $\hat{x}$  will have few nonzero entries).
- ❸  $R(x) = \|x\|_\infty = \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|\}$   
It is called  $L_\infty$  regularization and it has the effect of *equalizing* the solution (makes many components tie for the max absolute value).

# Norm balls

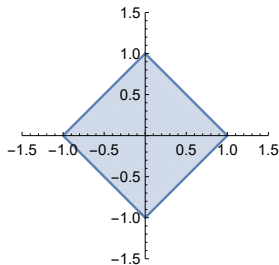
For a norm  $\|\cdot\|_p$ , the **norm ball** of radius  $r$  is the set:

$$B_r = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x\|_p \leq r\}$$



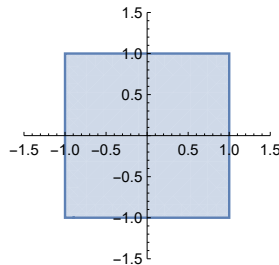
$$\|x\|_2 \leq 1$$

$$x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$$



$$\|x\|_1 \leq 1$$

$$|x| + |y| \leq 1$$



$$\|x\|_\infty \leq 1$$

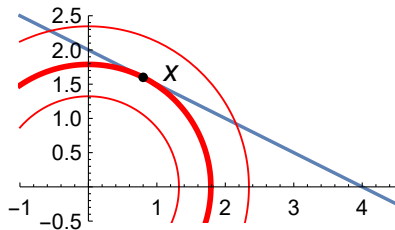
$$\max\{|x|, |y|\} \leq 1$$

# Simple example

Consider the minimum-norm problem for different norms:

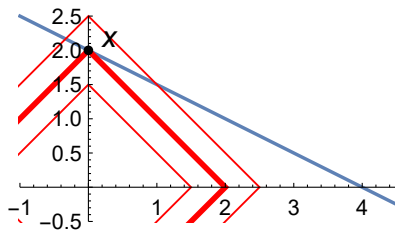
$$\begin{array}{ll} \underset{x}{\text{minimize}} & \|x\|_p \\ \text{subject to:} & Ax = b \end{array}$$

- set of solutions to  $Ax = b$  is an affine subspace
- solution is point belonging to smallest norm ball
- for  $p = 2$ , this occurs at the perpendicular distance

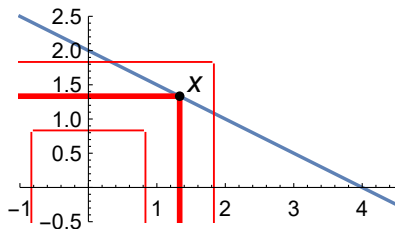


# Simple example

- for  $p = 1$ , this occurs at one of the axes.
- *sparsifying* behavior



- for  $p = \infty$ , this occurs at corners or edges, where many components tie for max value
- *equalizing* behavior



## Example: hovercraft revisited (simpler 1D case)

One-dimensional version of the hovercraft problem:

- Start at  $x_1 = 0$  with  $v_1 = 0$  (at rest at position zero)
- Finish at  $x_{50} = 100$  with  $v_{50} = 0$  (at rest at position 100)
- Same simple dynamics as before:

$$\begin{aligned}x_{t+1} &= x_t + v_t \\ v_{t+1} &= v_t + u_t\end{aligned}\quad \text{for: } t = 1, 2, \dots, 49$$

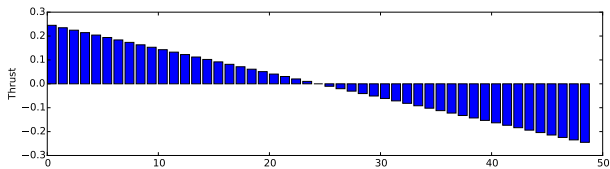
- Decide thruster inputs  $u_1, u_2, \dots, u_{49}$ .
- This time: minimize  $\|u\|_p$

# Example: hovercraft revisited

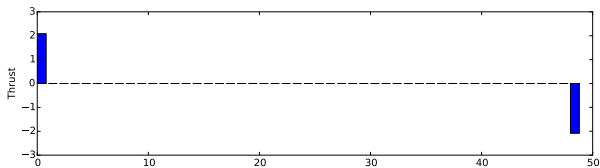
$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \underset{x_t, v_t, u_t}{\text{minimize}} & \|u\|_p \\
 \text{subject to:} & x_{t+1} = x_t + v_t \quad \text{for } t = 1, \dots, 49 \\
 & v_{t+1} = v_t + u_t \quad \text{for } t = 1, \dots, 49 \\
 & x_1 = 0, \quad x_{50} = 100 \\
 & v_1 = 0, \quad v_{50} = 0
 \end{array}$$

- This model has 150 variables, but very easy to understand.

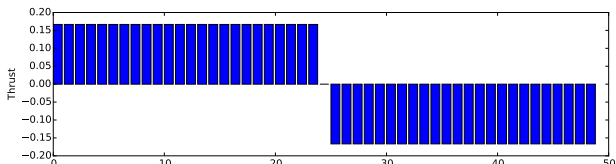
1 Minimizing  $\|u\|_2^2$  (smooth)



2 Minimizing  $\|u\|_1$  (sparse)

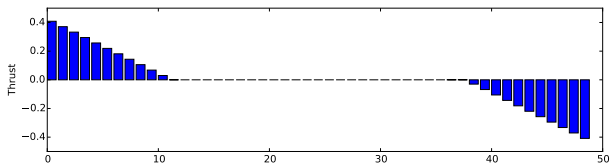


3 Minimizing  $\|u\|_\infty$  (equalized)

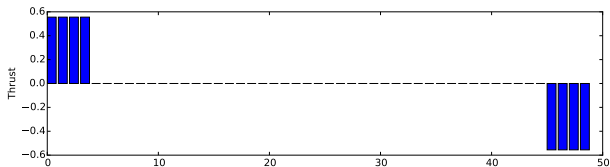




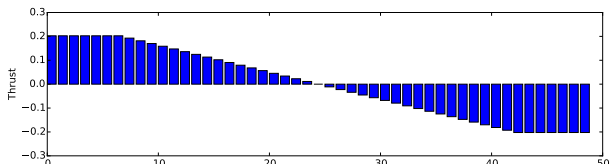
1 Minimizing  $\|u\|_2^2 + \lambda\|u\|_1$  (smooth and sparse)



2 Minimizing  $\|u\|_\infty + \lambda\|u\|_1$  (equalized and sparse)



3 Minimizing  $\|u\|_2^2 + \lambda\|u\|_\infty$  (equalized and smooth)



# Hierarchical Optimization

- One popular way for dealing with multiple objectives or goals is to combine them into objective using weights or penalties.
  - This can work.
  - But I don't recommend it in some cases...
    - If the quantities you are combining are in different units
    - If you have significantly more than two objectives
- 
- Instead, often decision-makers have **priorities** for the individual goals
  - In this case you can solve the problem in a **hierarchical** manner

# Hierarchical Optimization

- Suppose we wish to make some decisions  $x \in X$ , but we have three different goals/objectives:
  - ①  $\min f_1(x)$
  - ②  $\max f_2(x)$
  - ③  $\min f_3(x)$
- In **hierarchical optimization**, we solve the objectives in the given order.
- As we move down the hierarchy, we impose the **constraint** that we do (almost?) as well with respect to the previous objectives.
- This of course generalizes to any number of goals that you can put in a priority order

# Hierarchical Optimization

- 1 First, solve for the highest priority objective

$$z_1^* := \min_{x \in X} f_1(x)$$

- 2 Next, constrained to do (almost) as well with respect to first objective, solve for second priority:

$$z_2^* := \max_{x \in X} \{f_2(x) : f_1(x) \leq (1 + \varepsilon)z_1^*\}$$

- 3 Finally, solve final objective constrained to do (almost) as well with respect to first two objectives:

$$\min_{x \in X} \{f_3(x) : f_1(x) \leq (1 + \varepsilon)z_1^*, f_2(x) \geq (1 - \varepsilon)z_2^*\}$$

## The Upshot

Final solution is best with respect to the third objective that is within  $\varepsilon\%$  of the best for the first two objectives

# Annakin Again—Constrained Waypoints

- Suppose now that we only wish to make sure that we get "close enough" to the waypoints, which we measure by saying that each component of the position is within  $\beta$  units away

$$\begin{aligned}
 F^* := \underset{x,v,u}{\text{minimize}} \quad & \sum_{t=0}^T \|u_t\|^2 \\
 \text{subject to:} \quad & x_{t+1} = x_t + v_t \quad \text{for } t = 0, 1, \dots, T-1 \\
 & v_{t+1} = v_t + u_t \quad \text{for } t = 0, 1, \dots, T-1 \\
 & \|x_{t_i} - w_i\|_\infty \leq \beta \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, k \\
 & x_0 = v_0 = 0
 \end{aligned}$$

[Tradeoff-Pod racing-Constraint.ipynb](#)

# Hierarchical—Finish Slow

- Now suppose that for a fixed value of  $\beta$ , we have a secondary objective to be going as slow as possible at the end of the race
- But we also want to make sure that we won't use too much more fuel than we do in an optimal fuel plan
- [Tradeoff-Pod racing-Hierarchical.ipynb](#)

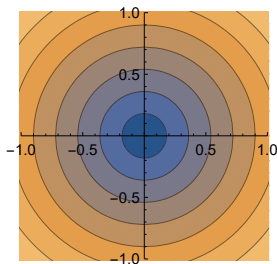
$$\begin{array}{ll}
 \underset{x,v,u}{\text{minimize}} & \|v_T\|^2 \\
 \text{subject to:} & x_{t+1} = x_t + v_t \quad \text{for } t = 0, 1, \dots, T-1 \\
 & v_{t+1} = v_t + u_t \quad \text{for } t = 0, 1, \dots, T-1 \\
 & \|x_{t_i} - w_i\|_\infty \leq \beta \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, k \\
 & x_0 = v_0 = 0 \\
 & \sum_{t=1}^T \|u_t\|^2 \leq (1 + \varepsilon) F^*
 \end{array}$$

# Ellipsoids

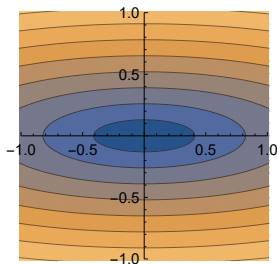
- For linear constraints, the set of  $x$  satisfying  $c^\top x = b$  is a *hyperplane* and the set  $c^\top x \leq b$  is a *halfspace*.
- For quadratic constraints, the set of  $x$  satisfying  $x^\top Q x \leq b$  is an *ellipsoid* if  $Q \succ 0$ .
- If  $Q \succ 0$ , then  $x^\top Q x \leq b \iff \|Q^{1/2}x\|^2 \leq b$ .
- (Recall that if we write the eigenvalue decomposition  $Q = U\Lambda U^\top$ , then  $Q^{1/2} = U\Lambda^{1/2}U^\top$ , where  $\Lambda^{1/2}$  is the diagonal matrix whose diagonal entries are the square roots of the diagonals of  $\Lambda$ .)

# Degenerate Ellipsoids

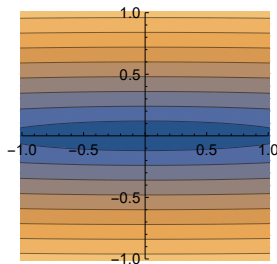
Ellipsoid axes have length  $\frac{1}{\sqrt{\lambda_i}}$ . When an eigenvalue is close to zero, contours are stretched in that direction.



$$x^2 + y^2$$



$$\frac{1}{10}x^2 + y^2$$



$$\frac{1}{100}x^2 + y^2$$

- Warmer colors = larger values
- If  $\lambda_i = 0$ , then  $Q \succeq 0$ . The ellipsoid  $x^T Q x \leq 1$  is *degenerate* (stretches out to infinity (is constant) in direction  $u_i$ ).



## Ellipsoids with linear terms

If  $Q \succ 0$ , then the quadratic form with extra linear term:

$$x^T Q x + r^T x + s$$

defines an *shifted* ellipsoid, whose center is not at 0. To see why, complete the square!

For scalars (ellipsoids in  $\mathbb{R}^1$  are not very interesting), we have:

$$qx^2 + rx + s = q \left( x + \frac{r}{2q} \right)^2 + \left( s - \frac{r^2}{4q} \right)$$

In the matrix case, we have:

$$x^T Q x + r^T x + s = \left( x + \frac{1}{2} Q^{-1} r \right)^T Q \left( x + \frac{1}{2} Q^{-1} r \right) + \left( s - \frac{1}{4} r^T Q^{-1} r \right)$$

# Ellipsoids with linear terms

Therefore, the inequality  $x^\top Qx + r^\top x + s \leq b$  is equivalent to:

$$\left(x + \frac{1}{2}Q^{-1}r\right)^\top Q \left(x + \frac{1}{2}Q^{-1}r\right) \leq \left(b - s + \frac{1}{4}r^\top Q^{-1}r\right)$$

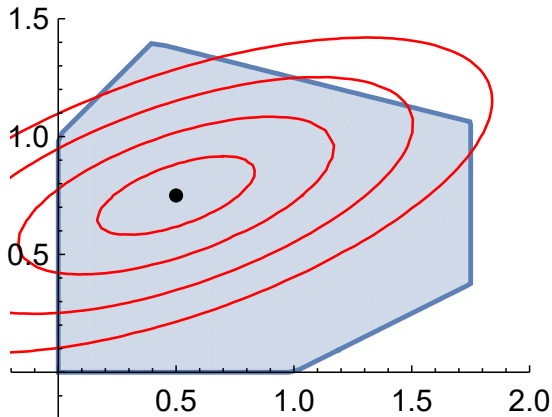
This is an ellipse centered at  $-\frac{1}{2}Q^{-1}r$  — but its shape is still defined by the matrix  $Q$ .

Writing this using the matrix square root, we have:

$$\left\|Q^{1/2}x + \frac{1}{2}Q^{-1/2}r\right\|^2 \leq \left(b - s + \frac{1}{4}r^\top Q^{-1}r\right)$$

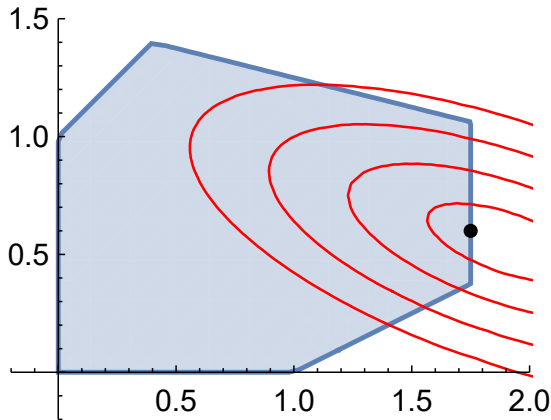
# Quadratic programs

$$\begin{array}{ll}\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} & x^{\top} P x + q^{\top} x + r \\ \text{subject to:} & A x \leq b\end{array}$$



# Quadratic programs

$$\begin{array}{ll} \underset{x}{\text{minimize}} & x^{\top} P x + q^{\top} x + r \\ \text{subject to:} & A x \leq b \end{array}$$



# QCQPs

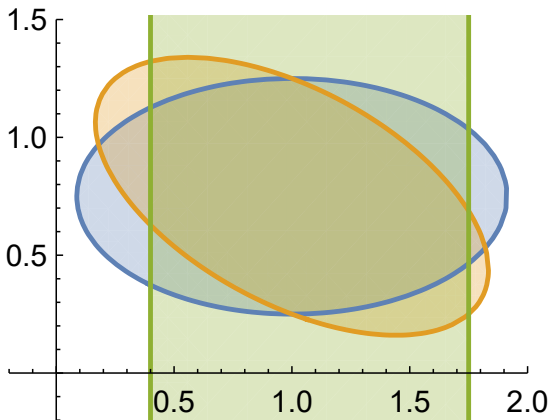
Quadratically constrained quadratic program (QCQP) has both a quadratic cost and quadratic constraints:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \underset{x}{\text{minimize}} & x^\top P_0 x + q_0^\top x + r_0 \\ \text{subject to:} & x^\top P_i x + q_i^\top x + r_i \leq 0 \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, m \end{array}$$

- If  $P_i \succeq 0$  for  $i = 0, 1, \dots, m$ , it is a *convex QCQP*
  - feasible set is convex
  - solution can be on boundary or in the interior
  - relatively easy to solve
- If any  $P_i \not\succeq 0$ , the QCQP becomes **very hard** to solve.

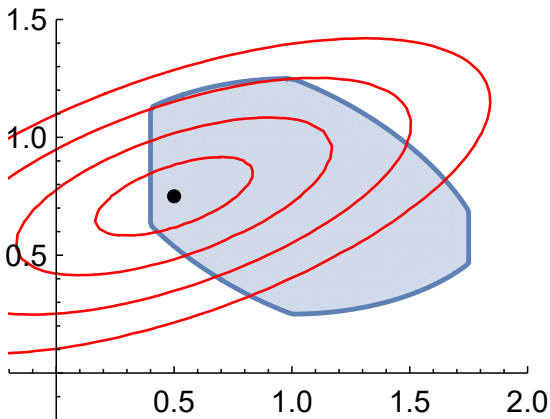
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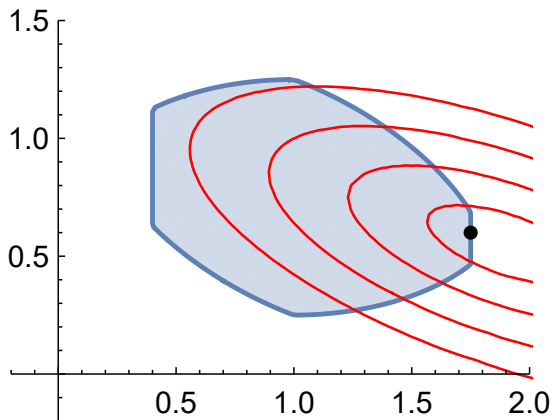
# QCQPs

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# QCQPs

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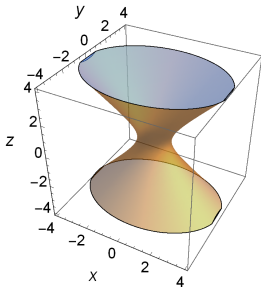


# Difficult quadratic constraints

The following types of quadratic constraints make a problem nonconvex and generally difficult to solve (but not always).

## Indefinite quadratic constraints.

- Example:  $x^2 + 2y^2 - z^2 \leq 1$  corresponds to the nonconvex region on the right.
- **Note:** Be mindful of  $\leq$  vs  $\geq$  !  
e.g.  $x^2 + y^2 \geq 1$  is nonconvex.



## Quadratic equalities.

- Using quadratic equalities, you can encode Boolean constraints. Example:  $x^2 = 1$  is equivalent to  $x \in \{-1, 1\}$ . (There are many interesting problems with these kinds of variables!)