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

Jeff Linderoth

Department of Industrial and Systems Engineering
University of Wisconsin-Madison

March 6, 2024

Quadratic forms

• **Linear functions:** sum of terms of the form $c_i x_i$ where the c_i are parameters and x_i are variables. General form:

$$c_1 x_1 + \dots + c_n x_n = c^\mathsf{T} x$$

• Quadratic functions: sum of terms of the form $q_{ij}x_ix_j$ where q_{ij} are parameters and x_i are variables. General form:

$$q_{11}x_1^2 + q_{12}x_1x_2 + \dots + q_{nn}x_n^2 \qquad (n^2 \text{ terms})$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} \begin{bmatrix} q_{11} & \dots & q_{1n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ q_{n1} & \dots & q_{nn} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{bmatrix} = x^\mathsf{T}Qx$$

Quadratic forms

Any quadratic function $f(x_1, ..., x_n)$ can be written in the form x^TQx where Q is a **symmetric matrix** $(Q = Q^T)$.

Proof: Suppose $f(x_1, ..., x_n) = x^T R x$ where R is *not* symmetric. Since it is a scalar, we can take the transpose:

$$\boldsymbol{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{R} \boldsymbol{x} = \left(\boldsymbol{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{R} \boldsymbol{x} \right)^\mathsf{T} = \boldsymbol{x}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{R}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}$$

Therefore:

$$x^{\mathsf{T}}Rx = \frac{1}{2} \left(x^{\mathsf{T}}Rx + x^{\mathsf{T}}R^{\mathsf{T}}x \right) = x^{\mathsf{T}}\frac{1}{2}(R + R^{\mathsf{T}})x$$

So we're done, because $\frac{1}{2}(R+R^{\mathsf{T}})$ is symmetric!

Eigenvalue decomposition

Theorem. Every real symmetric matrix $Q = Q^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ can be decomposed into a product:

$$Q = U\Lambda U^{\mathsf{T}}$$

where $\Lambda = \operatorname{diag}(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_n)$ is a real diagonal matrix, and $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is an orthogonal matrix. i.e. it satisfies $U^{\mathsf{T}}U = I$.

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors

If $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and there is a vector v and scalar λ such that

$$Av = \lambda v$$

Then v is an eigenvector of A and λ is the corresponding eigenvalue. Some facts:

- Any square matrix has n eigenvalues (but some may be repeated
 — they may not all be different).
- Each eigenvalue has at least one corresponding eigenvector.
- In general, eigenvalues & eigenvectors can be complex.
- In general, eigenvectors aren't orthogonal, and may not even be linearly independent. i.e. $V = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & \cdots & v_n \end{bmatrix}$ may not be invertible. If it is, we say that A is diagonalizable and then $A = V\Lambda V^{-1}$. Otherwise, Jordan Canonical Form.

Symmetric matrices are **much** simpler!

Symmetric matrices; Eigenvalues and Eigenvectors

- Every symmetric $Q = Q^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ has n real eigenvalues λ_i .
- There exist n mutually orthogonal eigenvectors u_1, \ldots, u_n :

$$Qu_i = \lambda_i u_i \qquad \text{for all } i = 1, \dots, n$$

$$u_i^\mathsf{T} u_j = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } i = j \\ 0 & \text{if } i \neq j \end{cases}$$

• If we define $U = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 & \cdots & u_n \end{bmatrix}$ then $U^\mathsf{T} U = I$ and

$$Q = U \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \lambda_n \end{bmatrix} U^\mathsf{T}$$

Positive definite matrices

For a matrix $Q = Q^{\mathsf{T}}$, the following are equivalent:

- ② all eigenvalues of Q satisfy $\lambda_i \geq 0$

A matrix with this property is called *positive semidefinite* (PSD). The notation is $Q \succeq 0$.

Note: When we talk about PSD matrices, we *always* assume we're talking about a symmetric matrix.

Positive definite matrices

Name	Definition	Notation
Positive semidefinite	all $\lambda_i \geq 0$	$Q \succeq 0$
Positive definite	all $\lambda_i > 0$	$Q \succ 0$
Negative semidefinite	all $\lambda_i \leq 0$	$Q \leq 0$
Negative definite	all $\lambda_i < 0$	$Q \prec 0$
Indefinite	everything else	(none)

Some properties:

- If $P \succ 0$ then $-P \prec 0$
- If $P \succeq 0$ and $\alpha > 0$ then $\alpha P \succeq 0$
- If $P \succ 0$ and $Q \succ 0$ then $P + Q \succ 0$

Difference of positive definite matrices

Claim: Every symmetric matrix R can be written as R = P - Q for some appropriate choice of symmetric matrices $P \succeq 0$ and $Q \succeq 0$.

Write eigenvalue decomposition as $R = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i v_i v_i^{\mathsf{T}}$. Let

$$\mathcal{P} = \{i = 1, 2, \dots, n : \lambda_i > 0\},\$$

 $\mathcal{N} = \{i = 1, 2, \dots, n : \lambda_i < 0\}.$

Then

$$R = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}} \lambda_i v_i v_i^T - \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}} (-\lambda_i) v_i v_i^T.$$

Get result by setting

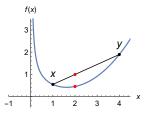
$$P = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{P}} \lambda_i v_i v_i^T, \quad Q = \sum_{i \in \mathcal{N}} (-\lambda_i) v_i v_i^T.$$

Convex functions

• A function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is *convex* for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $0 \le \alpha \le 1$, we have:

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

• f is concave if (-f) is convex.



- "Holds water"
- All local minima are global minima

Convex and concave functions on $\mathbb R$

Convex functions on $\mathbb R$

- Affine: ax + b.
- Absolute value: |x|.
- Quadratic: ax^2 for any $a \ge 0$.
- Exponential: a^x for any a > 0.
- Powers: x^{α} for x > 0, $\alpha \ge 1$ or $\alpha \le 0$.
- Negative entropy: $x \log x$ for x > 0.

Concave functions on $\mathbb R$

- Affine: ax + b.
- Quadratic: ax^2 for any $a \le 0$.
- Powers: x^{α} for x > 0, $0 < \alpha < 1$.
- Logarithm: $\log x$ for x > 0.

Convex and concave functions

Convex functions on \mathbb{R}^n

- Affine: $a^{\mathsf{T}}x + b$.
- Norms: $||x||_2$, $||x||_1$, $||x||_{\infty}$
- Quadratic form: $x^{\mathsf{T}}Qx$ for any $Q \succeq 0$

Concave functions on \mathbb{R}^n

- Affine: $a^{\mathsf{T}}x + b$.
- Quadratic form: $x^{\mathsf{T}}Qx$ for any $Q \leq 0$

Building convex functions

- **1** Nonnegative weighted sum: If f(x) and g(x) are convex and $\alpha, \beta \geq 0$, then $\alpha f(x) + \beta g(x)$ is convex.
- ② Composition with an affine function: If f(x) is convex, so is g(x) := f(Ax + b)
- **3** Pointwise maximum: If $f_1(x), \ldots, f_k(x)$ are convex, then $g(x) := \max \{f_1(x), \ldots, f_k(x)\}$ is convex.
 - N.B.: A composition of two convex functions is not necessarily convex!
 - Example in \mathbb{R} : g(x)=|x| and $h(x)=x^2-1$ are both convex, but $g(h(x))=|x^2-1|$ is not convex.

Least squares

- We often are given a linear system Ax = b, $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, with m > n (overdetermined).
- If there is no solution to Ax = b, we try instead to have $Ax \approx b$.
- \bullet The least-squares approach: make Euclidean norm $\|Ax-b\|$ as small as possible.
 - Recall: $||x|| := \sqrt{x_1^2 + \dots + x_n^2} = \sqrt{x^T x}$
- Equivalently: make $||Ax b||^2$ as small as possible.

Standard form:

$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad \left\| Ax - b \right\|^2$$

This is an unconstrained optimization problem.

Positive Definite

Note that the quadratic form is PSD:

$$||Ax - b||^2 = (Ax - b)^{\mathsf{T}}(Ax - b) = x^{\mathsf{T}}A^{\mathsf{T}}Ax - 2b^{\mathsf{T}}Ax + b^{\mathsf{T}}b$$

• For any matrix A, $A^{\mathsf{T}}A$ is PSD, since for any $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, let z = Ay, and then

$$0 \le z^T z = (A^\mathsf{T} y)^\mathsf{T} (Ay) = (y^\mathsf{T} A^\mathsf{T}) (Ay) = y^\mathsf{T} (A^\mathsf{T} A) y.$$

- So regression is a convex optimization problem
- Of course, you know there is a faster solution in terms of the solution of the normal equations:

More least squares

• Solving the least squares optimization problem:

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

Is equivalent to solving the normal equations:

$$A^{\mathsf{T}} A \, \hat{x} = A^{\mathsf{T}} b$$

• If $A^{\mathsf{T}}A$ is invertible (A has linearly independent columns)

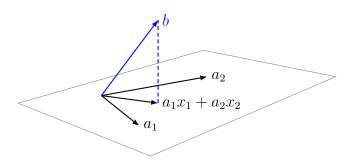
$$\hat{x} = (A^{\mathsf{T}}A)^{-1}A^{\mathsf{T}}b$$

• $A^{\dagger} := (A^{\mathsf{T}}A)^{-1}A^{\mathsf{T}}$ is called the *pseudoinverse* of A. $\mathtt{pinv}(A)$ in Julia (LinearAlgebra)

Geometry of Least Squares

• **column interpretation**: find the linear combination of columns $\{a_1, \ldots, a_n\}$ that is closest to b.

$$||Ax - b||^2 = ||(a_1x_1 + \dots + a_nx_n) - b||^2$$



Geometry of Least Squares

• row interpretation: If \tilde{a}_i^T is the ith row of A, define $r_i := \tilde{a}_i^\mathsf{T} x - b_i$ to be the i^th residual component.

$$||Ax - b||^2 = (\tilde{a}_1^\mathsf{T} x - b_1)^2 + \dots + (\tilde{a}_m^\mathsf{T} x - b_m)^2$$

We minimize the sum of squares of the residuals.

- Solving Ax = b would make all residual components zero.
- Least squares attempts to make all of them small.

Regression Example: curve-fitting

- We are given noisy data points (x_i, y_i) .
- We suspect they are related by $y = px^2 + qx + r$
- Find the p, q, r that best agrewe es with the data.

Writing all the equations:

$$y_1 \approx px_1^2 + qx_1 + r$$

$$y_2 \approx px_2^2 + qx_2 + r$$

$$\vdots$$

$$y_m \approx px_m^2 + qx_m + r$$

$$\Longrightarrow \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} x_1^2 & x_1 & 1 \\ x_2^2 & x_2 & 1 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ x_m^2 & x_m & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p \\ q \\ r \end{bmatrix}$$

Example: curve-fitting

- More complicated: $y = pe^x + q\cos(x) r\sqrt{x} + sx^3$
- Find the p, q, r, s that best agrees with the data.

Writing all the equations:

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{bmatrix} \approx \begin{bmatrix} e^{x_1} & \cos(x_1) & -\sqrt{x_1} & x_1^3 \\ e^{x_2} & \cos(x_2) & -\sqrt{x_2} & x_2^3 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ e^{x_m} & \cos(x_m) & -\sqrt{x_m} & x_m^3 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} p \\ q \\ r \\ s \end{bmatrix}$$

- Julia notebook: Regression.ipynb
- We probably want to install Gurobi (for its better ability to solve quadratic optimization problems)
- Also will start doing some plotting: See https://matplotlib.org/stable/tutorials/pyplot.html

Optimal tradeoffs

We often want to optimize several different objectives simultaneously, but these objectives are **conflicting**.

- Risk vs Expected return (finance)
- Power vs Fuel economy (automobiles)
- Quality vs Memory (audio compression)
- Space vs Time (computer programs)

Tradeoff Applications

- Radiation Treatment Planning
 - Maximize dose at cancerous tissue sites
 - Minimize dose to critical normal tissue
- Military Planning
 - Maximize number of targets hit. (Targets themselves have different priorities)
 - Minimize time to reach targets.
 - Minimize number of high-value weapons
- Network design (retail network)
 - Minimize cost of network
 - Maximize customer service
- Portfolio Planning
 - Maximize Return
 - Minimize Risk
 - Minimize Tax implications
 - Minimize market impact from large trades

Optimal tradeoffs

- Suppose $J_1 = f_1(x) = ||Ax b||^2$ and $J_2 = f_2(x) = ||Cx d||^2$.
- We would like to make **both** J_1 and J_2 small.
- A sensible approach: solve the optimization problem:

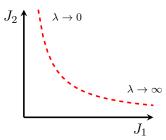
$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad J_1 + \lambda J_2$$

where $\lambda > 0$ is a (fixed) tradeoff parameter.

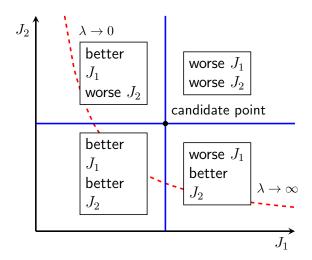
- Then tune λ to explore possible results.
 - When $\lambda \to 0$, we place more weight on J_1
 - When $\lambda \to \infty$, we place more weight on J_2

Tradeoff analysis

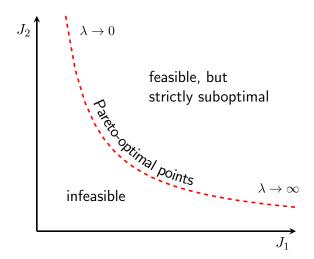
- ① Choose values for λ (usually log-spaced). A useful command: lambda = logspace(p,q,n) produces n points logarithmically spaced between 10^p and 10^q .
- ② For each λ value, find \hat{x}_{λ} that minimizes $J_1 + \lambda J_2$.
- **3** For each \hat{x}_{λ} , also compute the corresponding J_1^{λ} and J_2^{λ} .
- Plot $(J_1^{\lambda}, J_2^{\lambda})$ for each λ and connect the dots.



Pareto curve

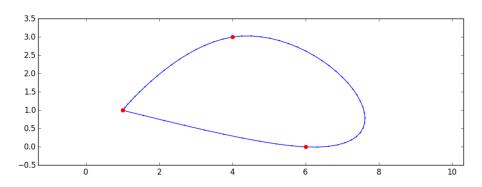


Pareto curve



Example: Anakin Goes Podracing

- Anakin Skywalker has a Pod, and he is practicing his pod-racing.
- ullet 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:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t + v_t$$

 $v_{t+1} = v_t + u_t$ for $t = 0, 1, \dots, T - 1$

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

Anakin's First Model

First model: Hit the waypoints exactly

Julia model: Podracing.ipynb

Tradeoffs in Podracing

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

- ullet λ 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:

minimize
$$J_1(x) + \lambda J_2(x) + \mu J_3(x)$$
 subject to: constraints

- 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

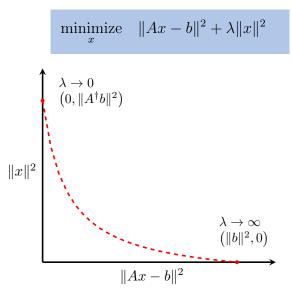
• When Ax = b is underdetermined (A is wide), we can resolve ambiguity by adding a cost function, e.g. min-norm LS:

Alternative approach: express it as a tradeoff!

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

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

Tradeoff visualization



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)
- ullet λ 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

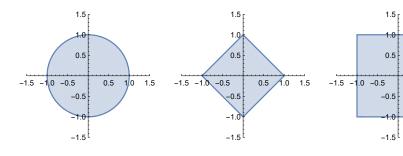
$$\underset{x}{\text{minimize}} \quad ||Ax - b||^2 + \lambda R(x)$$

- 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.
- 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).
- 3 $R(x) = ||x||_{\infty} = \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|, \dots, |x_n|\}$ It is called L_{∞} 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:

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



$$||x||_2 \le 1$$
$$x^2 + y^2 < 1$$

$$||x||_1 \le 1$$
$$|x| + |y| < 1$$

$$||x||_{\infty} \le 1$$
$$\max\{|x|, |y|\} \le 1$$

0.5

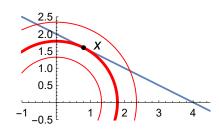
1.0 1.5

Simple example

Consider the minimum-norm problem for different norms:

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

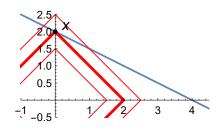
- set of solutions to Ax = b is an affine subspace
- solution is point belonging to smallest norm ball
- for p = 2, this occurs at the perpendicular distance

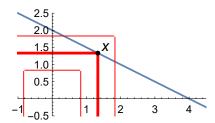


Simple example

- 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:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t + v_t$$

 $v_{t+1} = v_t + u_t$ for: $t = 1, 2, \dots, 49$

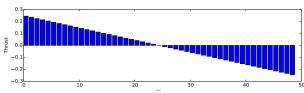
- Decide thruster inputs u_1, u_2, \ldots, u_{49} .
- This time: minimize $||u||_p$

Example: hovercraft revisited

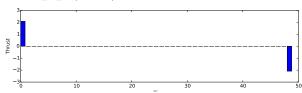
$$\begin{array}{ll} \underset{x_t, v_t, u_t}{\text{minimize}} & \|u\|_p \\ \text{subject to:} & x_{t+1} = x_t + v_t & \text{for } t = 1, \dots, 49 \\ & v_{t+1} = v_t + u_t & \text{for } t = 1, \dots, 49 \\ & x_1 = 0, \quad x_{50} = 100 \\ & v_1 = 0, \quad v_{50} = 0 \end{array}$$

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

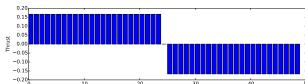
• Minimizing $||u||_2^2$ (smooth)



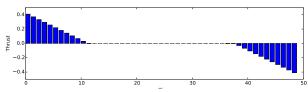
2 Minimizing $||u||_1$ (sparse)



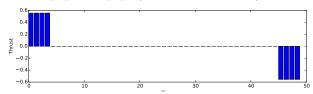
3 Minimizing $||u||_{\infty}$ (equalized)



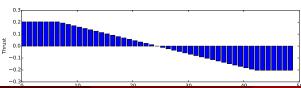
• Minimizing $||u||_2^2 + \lambda ||u||_1$ (smooth and sparse)



② Minimizing $||u||_{\infty} + \lambda ||u||_{1}$ (equalized and sparse)



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



Jeff Linderoth (CS/ECE/ISyE524)

Hierarchical Optimization

- One popular way for dealing with multiple objectives or goals is to combine then 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:
 - \bullet min $f_1(x)$

 - \bigcirc 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

First, solve for the highest priority objective

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

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

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

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

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

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

ullet Suppose now that we only wish to make sure that we get "close enough" to the waypoints, which we measure my saying that each component of the position is within eta units away

$$F^* := \underset{x,v,u}{\operatorname{minimize}} \qquad \sum_{t=0}^T \|u_t\|^2$$
 subject to:
$$x_{t+1} = x_t + v_t \qquad \text{for } t = 0, 1, \dots, T-1$$

$$v_{t+1} = v_t + u_t \qquad \text{for } t = 0, 1, \dots, T-1$$

$$\|x_{t_i} - w_i\|_{\infty} \leq \beta \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, k$$

$$x_0 = v_0 = 0$$

Tradeoff-Podracing-Constraint.ipynb

Hierarchical—Finish Slow

- Now suppose that for a fixed value of β , 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-Podracing-Hierarchical.ipynb

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