## APM462

## Lecture Notes

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#### MATRIX CALCULUS 3

#### 1 Matrix Calculus

Row v.s. Column Vector Our default rule is that every vector is a column vector unless explicitly stated otherwise.

This is also known as the numerator layout.

Special case: For  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ , Df is a  $1 \times n$  matrix or row vector.

#### 1.1 Matrix Multiplication

**Definition 1.1.1** Let A be  $m \times n$ , and B be  $n \times p$ , and let the product AB be

$$C = AB$$

then C is a  $m \times p$  matrix, with element (i, j) given by

$$c_{ij} = \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{ik} b_{kj}$$

for all  $i = 1, 2, \dots, m, j = 1, 2, \dots, p$ .

**Proposition 1.1.2** Let A be  $m \times n$ , and x be  $n \times 1$ , then the typical element of the product

$$z = Ax$$

is given by

$$z_i = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ik} x_k$$

for all i = 1, 2, ..., m.

Similarly, let y be  $m \times 1$ , then the typical element of the product

$$z^T = y^T A$$

is given by

$$z_i^T = \sum_{k=1}^n a_{ki} y_k$$

for all i = 1, 2, ..., n.

Finally, the scalar resulting from the product

$$\alpha = y^T A x$$

is given by

$$\alpha = \sum_{j=1}^{m} \sum_{k=1}^{n} a_{jk} y_i x_k$$

#### 1.2 **Partitioned Matrices**

**Proposition 1.2.1** Let A be a square, nonsingular matrix of order m. Partition A as

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{bmatrix}$$

so that  $A_{11}$  and  $A_{22}$  are invertible.

Then

$$A^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} (A_{11} - A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}A_{21})^{-1} & -A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}(A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12})^{-1} \\ -A_{22}^{-1}A_{21}(A_{11} - A_{12}A_{22}^{-1}A_{21})^{-1} & (A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12})^{-1} \end{bmatrix}$$

proof:

Direct multiplication of the proposed  $A^{-1}$  and A yields

$$A^{-1}A = I$$

#### 4

#### 1.3 Matrix Differentiation

#### Proposition 1.3.1

$$\frac{\partial A}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial A^T}{\partial x}$$

#### Proposition 1.3.2 Let

$$y = Ax$$

where y is  $m \times 1$ , x is  $n \times 1$ , A is  $m \times n$ , and A does not depend on x. Suppose that x is a function of the vector z, while A is independent of z. Then

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial z} = A \frac{\partial x}{\partial z}$$

**Proposition 1.3.3** Let the scalar  $\alpha$  be defined by

$$\alpha = y^T A x$$

where y is  $m \times 1$ , x is  $n \times 1$ , A is  $m \times n$ , and A is independent of x and y, then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x} = y^T A$$

and

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial u} = x^T A^T$$

**Proposition 1.3.4** For the special case where the scalar  $\alpha$  is given by the quadratic form

$$\alpha = x^T A x$$

where x is  $n \times 1$ , A is  $n \times n$ , and A does not depend on x, then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x} = x^T (A + A^T)$$

proof:

By definition

$$\alpha = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} a_{ij} x_i x_j$$

Differentiating with respect to the kth element of x we have

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x_k} = \sum_{i=1}^n a_{kj} x_J + \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ik} x_i$$

for all k = 1, 2, ..., n, and consequently,

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x} = x^T A^T + x^T A = x^T (A^T + A)$$

**Proposition 1.3.4** For the special case where A is a symmetric matrix and

$$\alpha = x^T A x$$

where x is  $n \times 1$ , A is  $n \times n$ , and A does not depend on x, then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial x} = 2x^T A$$

**Proposition 1.3.5** Let the scalar  $\alpha$  be defined by

$$\alpha = y^T x$$

where y is  $n \times 1$ , x is  $n \times 1$ , and both y and x are functions of the vector z. Then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial z} = x^T \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} + y^T \frac{\partial x}{\partial z}$$

**Proposition 1.3.6** Let the scalar  $\alpha$  be defined by

$$\alpha = x^T x$$

where x is  $n \times 1$ , and x is a functions of the vector z. Then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial z} = 2x^T \frac{\partial y}{\partial z}$$

**Proposition 1.3.7** Let the scalar  $\alpha$  be defined by

$$\alpha = y^T A x$$

where y is  $m \times 1$ , A is  $m \times n$ , x is  $n \times 1$ , and both y and x are functions of the vector z, while A does not depend on z. Then

$$\frac{\partial \alpha}{\partial z} = x^T A^T \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} + y^T A \frac{\partial x}{\partial z}$$

**Proposition 1.3.8** Let A be an invertible,  $m \times m$  matrix whose elements are functions of the scalar parameter  $\alpha$ . Then

$$\frac{\partial A^{-1}}{\partial \alpha} = -A^{-1} \frac{\partial A}{\partial \alpha} A^{-1}$$

proof:

Start with the definition of the inverse

$$A^{-1}A = I$$

and differentiate, yielding

$$A^{-1}\frac{\partial A}{\partial \alpha} + \frac{\partial A^{-1}}{\partial \alpha}A = 0$$

rearranging the terms yields

$$\frac{\partial A^{-1}}{\partial \alpha} = -A^{-1} \frac{\partial A}{\partial \alpha} A^{-1}$$

Vector-by-vector Differentiation Identities 1.3.9

Young's Theorem 1.3.10 i.e. Symmetry of second derivatives

$$[\nabla_{xy} f(x,y)]^T = \nabla_{yx} f(x,y)$$

proof:

This is straightforward by writing out the elements of the matrix.

### 2 Second-year Calculus Review

functions  $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ 

Condition	Expression	Numerator layout, i.e. by y and x <sup>T</sup>	Denominator layout, i.e. by y <sup>T</sup> and x	
a is not a function of x	$rac{\partial \mathbf{a}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} =$	0		
	$rac{\partial \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} =$	:	I	
A is not a function of x	$rac{\partial \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} =$	A	$\mathbf{A}^{\top}$	
A is not a function of x	$rac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{ op} \mathbf{A}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} =$	$\mathbf{A}^{\top}$	A	
a is not a function of $x$ , u = u(x)	$rac{\partial a {f u}}{\partial  {f x}} =$	$a\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$	$a\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$	
$v = v(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{u} = \mathbf{u}(\mathbf{x})$	$rac{\partial v {f u}}{\partial {f x}} =$	$vrac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + \mathbf{u}rac{\partial v}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$	$vrac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} + rac{\partial v}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \mathbf{u}^ op$	
A is not a function of $x$ , u = u(x)	$rac{\partial \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} =$	$\mathbf{A} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$	$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \mathbf{A}^\top$	
u = u(x), v = v(x)	$rac{\partial (\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v})}{\partial \mathbf{x}} =$	$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$ -	$+\frac{\partial \mathbf{v}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$	
<b>u</b> = <b>u</b> ( <b>x</b> )	$rac{\partial \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})}{\partial \mathbf{x}} =$	$\frac{\partial \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$	$rac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} rac{\partial \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})}{\partial \mathbf{u}}$	
u = u(x)	$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u}))}{\partial \mathbf{x}} =$	$\frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{g})}{\partial \mathbf{g}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}}$	$\frac{\partial \mathbf{u}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{u})}{\partial \mathbf{u}} \frac{\partial \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{g})}{\partial \mathbf{g}}$	

### Mean Value Theorem in 1 Dimension

 $g \in C^1$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ 

$$\frac{g(x+h) - g(x)}{h} = g'(x+\theta h)$$

where  $\theta \in (0,1)$ Or equivalently,

$$g(x+h) = g(x) + hg'(x+\theta h)$$

#### 1st Order Taylor Approximation

 $g \in C^1$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ 

$$g(x+h) = g(x) + hg'(x) + o(h)$$

where o(h) is "little o" of h, the error term.

Say a function f(h) = o(h), this means  $\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(h)}{h} = 0$ For example, for  $f(h) = h^2$ , we can say f(h) = o(h), since  $\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(h)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{h^2}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} h = 0$ proof: (Use MVT):

 $\overline{\text{WTS}}$ : g(x+h) - g(x) - hg'(x) = o(h)

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{[g(x+h) - g(x)] - hg'(x)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{[hg'(x+\theta h)] - hg'(x)}{h}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} g'(x+\theta h) - g'(x)$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} g'(x) - g'(x)$$

$$= 0$$

#### 2.3 2nd Order Mean Value Theorem

 $g \in C^2$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ 

$$g(x+h) = g(x) + hg'(x) + \frac{h^2}{2}g'(x+\theta h)$$

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

proof:

WTS:  $g(x+h) - g(x) - hg'(x) - \frac{h^2}{2}g''(x) = o(h^2)$ 

$$\lim_{h \to 0} \frac{g(x+h) - g(x) - hg'(x) - \frac{h^2}{2}g''(x)}{h^2} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\left[\frac{h^2}{2}g'(x+\theta h)\right] - \frac{h^2}{2}g''(x)}{h^2}$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{2}(g''(x+\theta h) - g''(x))$$

$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{1}{2}(g''(x) - g''(x))$$

$$= 0$$

multivariate functions:  $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ 

### 2.4 Recall: Definition of gradient

Gradient of  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  at  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (denoted  $\nabla f(x)$ ) if exists is a vector characterized by the property:

$$\lim_{\mathbf{v}\to\mathbf{0}} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}+\mathbf{v}) - f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v}}{||\mathbf{v}||} = 0$$

In Cartesian coordinates,  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = (\frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1}(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}_n}(\mathbf{x}))$ 

#### 2.5 Mean Value Theorem in n dimension

 $f \in C^1$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then for any  $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x} + \theta \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

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

 $\frac{\textit{proof:}}{g(t) := f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{v}), t \in \mathbb{R}}$ 

$$g'(t) = \frac{d}{dt} f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{v})$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{i}} (\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{v}) \cdot \frac{d(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{v})_{i}}{dt}$$
 (by Chain Rule)
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{i}} (\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{v}) \cdot \frac{d(\mathbf{x}_{i} + t\mathbf{v}_{i})}{dt}$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \mathbf{x}_{i}} (\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}_{i}$$

$$= \nabla f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}$$
 (\*)

 $g \in C^1$  on  $\mathbb{R}$ Using MVT in  $\mathbb{R}$ :

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}) = g(1)$$

$$= g(0 + 1)$$

$$= g(0) + 1g'(0 + \theta 1) \qquad (\theta \in (0, 1))$$

$$= g(0) + g'(\theta)$$

$$= f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x} + \theta \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v} \qquad (by (*))$$

### 2.6 1st Order Taylor Approximation in $\mathbb{R}^n$

 $f \in C^1$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v} + o(||\mathbf{v}||)$$

proof:

$$\lim_{||\mathbf{v}|| \to 0} \frac{[f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}) - f(\mathbf{x})] - \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v}}{||\mathbf{v}||} = \lim_{||\mathbf{v}|| \to 0} \frac{[\nabla f(\mathbf{x} + \theta \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}] - \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v}}{||\mathbf{v}||}$$

$$= \lim_{||\mathbf{v}|| \to 0} [\nabla f(\mathbf{x} + \theta \mathbf{v}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x})] \cdot \frac{\mathbf{v}}{||\mathbf{v}||}$$

$$= 0 \qquad (\frac{\mathbf{v}}{||\mathbf{v}||} \text{ is a unit vector, remains 1})$$

#### 2.7 2nd Order Mean Value Theorem in $\mathbb{R}^n$

 $f \in C^2$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{v}^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x} + \theta \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}$$

**Remarks** In this course,  $\nabla^2$  means Hessian, not Laplacian.

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \mathbf{x}_i \partial \mathbf{x}_j}\right)_{1 \le i, j \le n} (\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial_1^2} & \frac{\partial f}{\partial_1 \partial_2} & \cdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial_2 \partial_1} & \cdots & \\ \vdots & & \end{pmatrix}$$

The Hessian matrix is symmetric. This is sometimes called <u>Clairaut's Theorem.</u> note:  $\mathbf{v}^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{v} = \sum_{1 \leq i,j \leq n} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial \mathbf{x}_i \partial \mathbf{x}_j} f(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{v}_i \mathbf{v}_j$ 

#### 2.8 2nd Order Taylor Approximation in $\mathbb{R}^n$

 $f \in C^2$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ 

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{v}^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{v} + o(||\mathbf{v}||^2)$$

proof:

$$\lim_{||\mathbf{v}|| \to 0} \frac{[f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{v}) - f(\mathbf{x})] - \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v} - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{v}^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{v}}{||\mathbf{v}||^2} = \lim_{||\mathbf{v}|| \to 0} \frac{[\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{v}^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x} + \theta \mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}] - \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{v}^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v}}{||\mathbf{v}||^2}$$

$$= \lim_{||\mathbf{v}|| \to 0} \frac{1}{2} (\frac{\mathbf{v}}{||\mathbf{v}||})^T [\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x} + \theta \mathbf{v}) - \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})] (\frac{\mathbf{v}}{||\mathbf{v}||})$$

$$= 0$$

#### 2.9 Geometric Meaning of Gradient

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

Rate of change of f at  $\mathbf{x}$  in direction  $\mathbf{v}(||\mathbf{v}|| = 1) = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0}f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{v})$ 

$$\frac{d}{dt}|_{t=0}f(\mathbf{x}+t\mathbf{v}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}+t\mathbf{v}) \cdot \mathbf{v}|_{t=0} 
= \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{v} 
= |\nabla f(\mathbf{x})||\mathbf{v}|\cos \theta 
= |\nabla f(\mathbf{x})|\cos \theta \qquad (||\mathbf{v}|| = 1)$$

maximized at  $\theta = 0$ 

So  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$  points in the direction of steepest ascent.

### 2.10 Implicit Function Theorem

 $f: \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \to \mathbb{R} \in C^1$ 

Fix  $(\mathbf{a}, b) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}$  s.t.  $f(\mathbf{a}, b) = 0$ .

If  $\nabla f(\mathbf{a}, b) \neq 0$ , then  $\{(\mathbf{x}, y) \in (\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}) | f(\mathbf{x}, y) = 0\}$  is locally (near  $(\mathbf{a}, b)$ ) the graph of a function.

#### 2.11 Level Sets of f

c-level set of  $f := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n | f(\mathbf{x}) = c \}$ 

**Fact** gradient  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) \perp$  level curve (through  $\mathbf{x}_0$ )

#### 3 Convex Sets & Functions

#### 3.1 Definitions

**Definition of Convex Set**  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a <u>convex set</u> if  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \Omega \Rightarrow s\mathbf{x}_1 + (1-s)\mathbf{x}_2 \in \Omega$  where  $s \in [0,1]$ 

**Definition of Convex Function** A function f: convex  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is convex if

$$f(s\mathbf{x}_1 + (1-s)\mathbf{x}_2) < sf(\mathbf{x}_1) + (1-s)f(\mathbf{x}_2)$$

for all  $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in \Omega$  and all  $s \in [0, 1]$ 

**Remarks** Second line above (or equal to) the graph

**Definition of Concave Function** A function f is <u>concave</u> if -f is convex.

#### 3.2 Basic Properties of Convex Functions

Let  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be a convex set.

- 1.  $f_1, f_2$  are convex functions on  $\Omega \Rightarrow f_1 + f_2$  is a convex function on  $\Omega$ .
- 2. f is a convex function,  $a \ge 0 \Rightarrow af$  is a convex function.
- 3. f is a convex function on  $\Omega \Rightarrow$  The sublevel sets of f,  $SL_c := \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n | f(\mathbf{x}) \leq c \}$  is convex.

#### proof of (3):

Let  $x_1, x_2 \in SL_C$ , so that  $f(x_1) \leq c$  and  $f(x_2) \leq c$ . WTS:  $sx_1 + (1 - s)x_2 \in SL_c$  for any  $s \in [0, 1]$ 

$$f(sx_1 + (1-s)x_2) \le sf(x_1) + (1-s)f(x_2)$$

$$\le sc + (1-s)c$$

$$= c$$

$$\Rightarrow sx_1 + (1-s)x_2 \in SL_c$$
(f is convex)

Example of a convex function Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , f(x) = |x|

Let  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}, s \in [0, 1]$ 

Then

$$f(sx_1 + (1-s)x_2) = |sx_1 + (1-s)x_2|$$

$$\leq |sx_1| + |(1-s)x_2|$$
 (by Triangle Inequality)
$$= s|x_1| + (1-s)|x_2|$$

$$= sf(x_1) + (1-s)f(x_2)$$

Then f is a convex function.

**Theorem - Characterization of**  $C^1$  **convex functions** Let f: convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$   $\Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  be a  $C^1$  function.

Then,

f is convex 
$$\iff f(y) \ge f(x) + \nabla f(x) \cdot (y-x)$$
 for all  $x, y \in \Omega$ 

**Remarks** Tangent line below the graph.

 $\frac{proof:}{(\Rightarrow)}$ 

f is convex, then by definition,

$$f(s\mathbf{x}_1 + (1-s)\mathbf{x}_2) \leq sf(\mathbf{x}_1) + (1-s)f(\mathbf{x}_2)$$

$$f(s\mathbf{x}_1 + (1-s)\mathbf{x}_2) - f(\mathbf{x}_2) \leq s(f(\mathbf{x}_1) - f(\mathbf{x}_2))$$

$$\frac{f(s\mathbf{x}_1 + (1-s)\mathbf{x}_2) - f(\mathbf{x}_2)}{s} \leq f(\mathbf{x}_1) - f(\mathbf{x}_2)$$

$$\lim_{s \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x}_2 + s(\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2)) - f(\mathbf{x}_2)}{s} \leq f(\mathbf{x}_1) - f(\mathbf{x}_2)$$

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_2) \cdot (\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2) \leq f(\mathbf{x}_1) - f(\mathbf{x}_2) \qquad (\text{since } \frac{d}{ds}|_{s=0} f(\mathbf{x}_2 + s(\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2)) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_2) \cdot (\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2)$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}_2) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_2) \cdot (\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_2) \leq f(\mathbf{x}_1)$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) \leq f(\mathbf{y})$$

where  $0 \le s \le 1$ 

 $(\Leftarrow)$ 

Fix  $\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{x}_1 \in \Omega$  and  $s \in (0, 1)$ 

Let  $x = s\mathbf{x}_0 + (1 - s)\mathbf{x}_1$ 

$$\begin{cases} f(\mathbf{x}_0) & \geq f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot (\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}) \\ & = f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot (1 - s)(\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_1) \\ f(\mathbf{x}_1) & \geq f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot (\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}) \\ & = f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot s(\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_0) \end{cases}$$
$$\begin{cases} sf(x_0) & \geq sf(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot (1 - s) \cdot s(\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}_1) \\ (1 - s)f(\mathbf{x}_1) & \geq (1 - s)f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot (1 - s) \cdot s(\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_0) \end{cases}$$

Then

$$sf(\mathbf{x}_0) + (1-s)f(\mathbf{x}_1) \ge f(x) + 0$$

Then f is convex.

#### 3.3 Criterions for convexity

 $C^1$  criterion for convexity

$$f: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$$
 is convex  $\iff f(y) \ge f(x) + \nabla f(x) \cdot (y - x)$ 

for all  $x, y \in \Omega$ 

**Theorem:**  $C^2$  criterion for convexity Let  $f \in C^2$  on  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  (here we assume  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a convex set containing an interior point)

Then

$$f$$
 is convex on  $\Omega \iff \nabla^2 f(x) \ge 0$ 

for all  $x \in \Omega$ 

**Remark 1** Let A be an  $n \times n$  matrix.

" $A \ge 0$ " means A is positive semi-definite:

$$v^T A v \ge 0$$

for all  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 

Remark 2 In  $\mathbb{R}$ ,

$$f$$
 is convex  $\iff f'(x) \ge 0$ 

for all  $x \in \Omega$ 

("concave up" in first year calculus)

proof for Theorem:

Recall 2nd order MVT:

$$f(y) = f(x) + \nabla f(x) \cdot (y - x) + \frac{1}{2}(y - x)^{T} \nabla^{2} f(x + s(y - x)) \cdot (y - x)$$

for some  $s \in [0, 1]$ 

 $(\Leftarrow)$ 

Since  $\nabla^2 f(x) \geq 0$ , then

$$\frac{1}{2}(y-x)^{T}\nabla^{2}f(x+s(y-x))\cdot(y-x) \ge 0$$

Then

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + \nabla f(x) \cdot (y - x)$$

for all  $x, y \in \Omega$ .

Then by  $C^1$  criterion, f is convex.

 $(\Rightarrow)$ 

Assume f is convex on  $\Omega$ .

Suppose for contradiction that  $\nabla^2 f(x)$  is not positive semi-definite at some  $x \in \Omega$ .

Then  $\exists v \neq 0$  s.t.  $v^T \nabla^2 f(x) v < 0$  v could be arbitrarily small and > 0

Let y = x + v, then

$$(y-x)^T \nabla^2 f(x+s(y-x)) \cdot (y-x) < 0$$

for all  $s \in [0, 1]$ 

Then by MVT,

$$f(y) < f(x) + \nabla f(x) \cdot (y - x)$$

for some  $x, y \in \Omega$ , and this contradicts the  $C^1$  criterion.

#### 3.4 Minimization and Maximization of Convex Functions

**Theorem**  $f: \text{convex } \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \text{ is a convex function.}$ 

Suppose 
$$\Gamma := \{x \in \Omega | f(x) = \min_{\Omega} f(x)\} \neq \emptyset$$

(i.e. minimizer exists)

Then  $\Gamma$  is a convex set, and any local minimum of f is a global minimum of f. proof:

Let  $m = \min_{\Omega} f(x)$ .

$$\Gamma = \{x \in \Omega | f(x) = m\} = \{x \in \Omega | f(x) \leq m\}$$

(sublevel set)

Then by Basic Properties of Convex Sets,  $\Gamma$  is convex.

Let x be a local minimum of f.

Suppose for contradiction that  $\exists y \text{ s.t. } f(y) < f(x)$ 

(i.e. x is not a global minimum)

$$f(sy + (1 - s)x) \le sf(y) + (1 - s)f(x)$$

$$< sf(x) + (1 - s)f(x)$$

$$= f(x)$$
(f(y) < f(x))

for all  $s \in (0,1)$ 

As s approaches 0, s approaches x.

Then we have  $\lim_{x \to 0} f(sy + (1-s)x) = f(x) < f(x)$ .

which is a contradiction.

**Theorem** If  $f: \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is a convex function, and  $\Omega$  is convex and compact, then

$$\max_{\Omega} f = \max_{\partial \Omega} f$$

**Remarks** Maximum value of f is attained (also) on the boundary of  $\Omega$  proof:

 $\overline{\text{Since }} \Omega \text{ is closed, } \partial \Omega \subseteq \Omega \text{, so } \max_{\Omega} f \geq \max_{\partial \Omega} f.$ 

Suppose  $f(x_0) = \max_{\Omega} f$  for some  $x_0 \notin \partial \Omega$ . Let L be an arbitrary line through  $x_0$ .

By convexity and compactness of  $\Omega$ , L meets  $\partial\Omega$  at two points  $x_1, x_2$ . Let  $x_0 + sx_1 + (1 - s)x_2$  for  $s \in (0, 1)$ 

$$f(x_0) = f(sx_1 + (1 - s)x_2)$$

$$\leq sf(x_1) + (1 - s)f(x_2)$$

$$\leq \max\{f(x_1), f(x_2)\}$$

$$\leq \max_{\partial \Omega} f$$

$$\leq \max_{\Omega} f = f(x_0)$$
(f convex)

This implies that

$$\max_{\Omega} f = \max_{\partial \Omega} f$$

as wanted.

#### Example

$$|ab| \leq \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q$$

where p, q > 1 s.t.  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = 1$ . Special cases:

1.

$$p = q = 2, |ab| \le \frac{|a|^2 + |b|^2}{2}$$

2.

$$p=3, q=\frac{3}{2}, |ab| \leq \frac{1}{3}|a|^3 + \frac{2}{3}|b|^{\frac{3}{2}}$$

proof:

Since function  $f(x) = -\log(x)$  is convex, then

$$(-\log)|ab| = (-\log)|a| + (-\log)|b|$$

$$= \frac{1}{p}(-\log)|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}(-\log)|b|^q$$

$$\ge (-\log)(\frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q)$$

$$(-\log)|ab| \ge (-\log)(\frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q)$$

$$\log|ab| \le \log(\frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q)$$

$$|ab| \le \frac{1}{p}|a|^p + \frac{1}{q}|b|^q$$

(exponential function is increasing)

## 4 Basics of Unconstrained Optimization

#### 4.1 Extreme Value Theorem

Suppose  $f:\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is continuous, and compact set  $K\subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  Then the problem

$$\min_{x \in K} f(x)$$

has a solution.

#### Recall

1.

$$K \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$$
 compact  $\iff K$  closed and bounded

2. If  $h_1, \ldots, h_k$  and  $g_1, \ldots, g_m$  are continuous functions on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then the set of all points  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  s.t.

$$\begin{cases} h_i(x) = 0 & \text{for all } i \\ g_j(x) \le 0 & \text{for all } j \end{cases}$$

is a closed set.

3. If such a set is also bounded, then it is compact.

#### Example

$$\{(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 | x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0\}$$

by (2), this is a closed set

by (3), this is a compact set.

**Remarks**  $f: \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  convex does not imply f is continuous.

#### 4.2 Unconstrained Optimization

$$\min_{x \in \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)$$

typically

- 1.  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$
- 2.  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^n$
- 3.  $\Omega = \text{open}$
- 4.  $\Omega = \overline{\text{open}}$

#### Remark

- 1.  $\max f(x) = -(\min f(x))$
- 2.  $\min f(x) = -(\max f(x))$

**Definition:** local minimum We say that f has a <u>local minimum</u> at a point  $x_0 \in \Omega$  if

$$f(x_0) \le f(x)$$

for all  $x \in B_{\Omega}^{\varepsilon}(x_0)$ , where  $B_{\Omega}^{\varepsilon}(x_0) = \{x \in \Omega : |x - x_0| < \varepsilon\}$  which is an open ball around  $x_0$  inside  $\Omega$  of radius  $\varepsilon > 0$ .

We say that f has a strict local minimum at a point  $x_0 \in \Omega$  if

$$f(x_0) < f(x)$$

for all  $x \in B_{\Omega}^{\varepsilon}(x_0) \setminus \{x_0\}$ 

#### 4.3 1st order necessary condition for local minimum

**Theorem** Let f be a  $C^1$  function on  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . If  $x_0 \in \Omega$  is a local minimum of f, then

$$\nabla f(x_0) \cdot v \ge 0$$

for all feasible directions v at  $x_0$ 

**Definition:** feasible direction  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is a feasible direction at  $x_0 \in \Omega$  if

$$x_0 + sv \in \Omega$$

for all  $0 \le s \le \bar{s}$  where  $\bar{s} \in \mathbb{R}$ 

Remarks Feasible directions go into the set.

**Corollary** Special case: If  $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^n$  is an open set, then any direction is a feasible direction. Then  $x_0$  is a local minimum of f on  $\Omega$  implies that  $\nabla f(x_0) \cdot v \geq 0$  for all  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\begin{cases} \nabla f(x_0) \cdot v \ge 0 \\ \nabla f(x_0) \cdot (-v) \ge 0 \iff \nabla f(x_0) \cdot v \le 0 \end{cases} \implies \nabla f(x_0) \cdot v = 0 \text{ for all } v \in \mathbb{R}^n$$
$$\implies \nabla f(x_0) = 0$$

proof: []

#### 4.4 2nd order necessary condition for local minimum

 $f \in C^2, \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ 

If  $x_0 \in \Omega$  is a local minimum of f on  $\Omega$ , then

- 1.  $\nabla f(x_0) \cdot v \geq 0$  for all feasible directions v at  $x_0$
- 2. If  $\nabla f(x_0) \cdot v = 0$ , then  $v^T \nabla^2 f(x_0) v \ge 0$  (function curves up)

proof: []

**Remark** If  $x_0$  is an interior point of  $\Omega$ , then

$$\nabla f(x_0) = 0, \quad \nabla^2 f(x_0) \ge 0$$

$$f'(x_0) = 0, \quad f''(x_0) \ge 0$$

**Definition:** principal minor Let A be an  $n \times n$  matrix. A  $k \times k$  submatrix of A formed by deleting n - k rows of A, and the same n - k columns of A, is called <u>principal submatrix</u> of A. The determinant of a principal submatrix of A is called a principal minor of A.

**Definition: leading principal minor** Let A be an  $n \times n$  matrix. The kth order principal submatrix of A obtained by deleting the last n - k rows and columns of A is called the k-th order leading principal submatrix of A, and its determinant is called a leading principal minor of A.

Definition: positive definiteness (Sylvester's Criterion) A  $n \times n$  matrix A is

- 1. <u>positive definite</u> if  $v^T A v > 0$  for all  $v \neq 0 \iff$  all eigenvalues  $> 0 \iff$  all leading principle minors > 0
- 2. positive semi-definite if  $v^T A v \ge 0$  for all  $v \iff$  all eigenvalues  $\ge 0 \iff$  all principle minors  $\ge 0$

**Lemma** Suppose  $\nabla^2 f(x_0)$  is positive definite, then

$$\exists a > 0 \text{ s.t. } v^T \nabla^2 f(x_0) v \ge a||v||^2 \quad \forall v$$

#### 4.5 2nd order sufficient condition (for interior points)

$$f \in C^2$$
 on  $\Omega$   
If  $\begin{cases} \nabla f(x_0) = 0 \\ \nabla^2 f(x_0) > 0 \end{cases}$ , then  $x_0$  is a strict local minimum.  
proof:  $[]$ 

### 5 Optimization with Equality Constraints

#### 5.1 Definitions of Related Spaces

#### Definition 5.1.1: surface

$$M = \text{"surface"} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | h_1(x) = 0, \dots, h_k(x) = 0\}$$

where  $h_i \in C^1$ 

**Definition 5.1.2:** differentiable curve on surface A differentiable curve on surface  $M \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a  $C^1$  function

$$x: (-\epsilon, \epsilon) \to M: s \mapsto x(s)$$

#### Remarks

- 1. Let x(s) be a differentiable curve on M that passes through  $x_0 \in M$ , say  $x(0) = x_0$ . The vector  $v = \frac{d}{ds}|_{s=0} x(0)$  touches M "tangentially". We say v is generated by x(s).
- 2. In previous calculus courses, differentiable curves are often referred to as parameterizations.

**Definition 5.1.3: tangent vector** Any vector v which is generated by some differentiable curve on M through  $x_0$  is called a tangent vector.

**Definition 5.1.4: tangent space** Tangent space to the surface M at point  $x_0$  is

$$T_{x_0}M = \{\text{all tangent vectors to } M \text{ at } x_0\} = \{v \in \mathbb{R}^n : v = \frac{d}{ds}|_{s=0} x(s)\}$$

where x(s) is a differentiable curve on M s.t.  $x(0) = x_0$ 

**Remarks** The zero vector is contained in all tangent spaces.

#### Definition 5.1.5: T-space

$$T_{x_0} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x^T \nabla h_i(x_0) = 0 \,\forall i\} = Span\{\nabla h_1(x_0), \dots, \nabla h_k(x_0)\}^{\perp}$$

**Definition 5.1.6: regular point**  $x_0 \in M$  is a <u>regular point</u> (of the constraints) if  $\{\nabla h_1(x_0), \dots, \nabla h_k(x_0)\}$  are linearly independent.

**Remark** If there is only one constraint h, then  $x_0$  is regular if and only if  $\nabla h(x_0) \neq 0$ .

When does the T-space equivalent to the tangent space? When  $x_0$  is a regular point (of the constraints).

**Theorem 5.1.7** Suppose  $x_0$  is a regular point s.t.  $M = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : h_i(x) = 0 \,\forall i\}$ . Then

$$T_{x_0}M = T_{x_0}$$

**Lemma 5.1.8**  $f, h_1, \ldots, h_k \in C^1$  on open  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ 

 $M = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : h_i(x) = 0 \,\forall i \}$ 

Suppose  $x_0 \in M$  is a local minimum of f on M, then

$$\nabla f(x_0) \perp T_{x_0} M \iff \nabla f(x_0) \cdot v = 0$$

for all  $v \in T_{x_0}M$ 

#### 5.2 Lagrange Multipliers: 1st order necessary condition for local minimum

 $f, h_1, \ldots, h_k \in C^1$  on open  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Let  $x_0$  be a regular point of the constraints  $M = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : h_i(x) = 0 \,\forall i\}.$ 

Suppose  $x_0$  is a local minimum of f on M, then  $\exists \lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_k \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t.

$$\nabla f(x_0) + \lambda_1 \nabla h_1(x_0) + \ldots + \lambda_k \nabla h_k(x_0) = 0$$

*proof:*  $x_0$  regular implies that

$$T_{x_0}M = T_{x_0} = Span\{\nabla h_1(x_0), \dots, \nabla h_k(x_0)\}^{\perp}$$

By Lemma 5.1.8,  $x_0$  is a loc min implies that

$$\nabla f(x_0) \perp T_{x_0} M$$

Then

$$\nabla f(x_0) \in (T_{x_0}M)^{\perp} = Span\{\nabla h_i(x_0)\}^{\perp \perp} = Span\{\nabla h_i(x_0)\}$$

Then

$$\nabla f(x_0) = -\lambda_1 \nabla h_1(x_0) - \ldots - \lambda_k \nabla h_k(x_0)$$

for some  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ 

#### 5.3 2nd order necessary condition for local minimum

 $f, h_1, \ldots, h_k \in \mathbb{C}^2$  on open  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ .

Let  $x_0$  be a regular point of the constraints  $M = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : h_i(x) = 0 \,\forall i\}$ .

Suppose  $x_0$  is a local minimum of f on M, then

1.

$$\nabla f(x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \nabla h_i(x_0) = 0$$

for some  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$ 

2.

$$\nabla^2 f(x_0) + \sum \lambda_i \nabla^2 h_i(x_0) \ge 0$$

on  $T_{x_0}M$ 

#### 5.4 2nd order sufficient condition for local minimum

 $f, h_1, \ldots, h_k \in \mathbb{C}^2$  on open  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $x_0$  be a regular point of the constraints  $M = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : h_i(x) = 0 \,\forall i\}$ . If  $\exists \lambda_i \in \mathbb{R} \text{ s.t.}$ 

1.

$$\nabla f(x_0) + \sum \lambda_i \nabla h_i(x_0) = 0$$

2.

$$\nabla^2 f(x_0) + \sum \lambda_i \nabla^2 h_i(x_0) > 0$$

on  $T_{x_0}M$ 

Then  $x_0$  is a strict local minimum.

proof: Recall that (2) means  $[\nabla^2 f(x_0) + \sum \lambda_i h_i(x_0)]$  is pos-def on  $T_{x_0}M$ . Then  $\exists a > 0$  s.t.  $v^T [\nabla^2 f(x_0) + \sum \lambda_i h_i(x_0)] v \geq a||v||^2$  for all  $v \in T_{x_0}M$ . Let  $x(s) \in M$  be a curve s.t.  $x(0) = x_0$  and v = x'(0). WLOG, ||x'(0)|| = 1. By 2nd order Taylor,

$$f(x(s)) - f(x(0)) = s \frac{d}{ds}|_{s=0} f(x(s)) + \frac{1}{2} s^2 \frac{d}{ds^2}|_{s=0} f(x(s)) + o(s^2)$$

$$= s \frac{d}{ds}|_{s=0} [f(x(s)) + \sum_i \lambda_i h_i(x(s))] + \frac{1}{2} s^2 \frac{d}{ds^2}|_{s=0} [f(x(s)) + \sum_i \lambda_i h_i(x(s))] + o(s^2)$$

$$(\sum_i \lambda_i h_i(x(s)) = 0)$$

$$= s [\nabla f(x_0) + \sum_i \lambda_i \nabla h_i(x_0)] \cdot x'(0) + \frac{1}{2} s^2 x'(0)^T [\nabla^2 f(x_0) + \sum_i \lambda_i \nabla^2 h_i(x_0)] x'(0) + o(s^2)$$

$$= 0 + \frac{1}{2} s^2 v^T [\nabla^2 f(x_0) + \sum_i \lambda_i \nabla^2 h_i(x_0)] v + o(s^2)$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{2} s^2 a ||v||^2 + o(s^2)$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} s^2 a + o(s^2)$$

$$= s^2 \left[ \frac{a}{2} + \frac{o(s^2)}{2} \right] > 0$$

for small s > 0, since  $\frac{a}{2} > 0$  and  $\lim_{s \to 0} \frac{o(s^2)}{s^2} = 0$ Then  $f(x(s)) > f(x_0)$  for small s > 0 Then  $x_0$  is a strict local min of f.

### 6 Optimization with Inequality Constraints

**Problem** open  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$   $f: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$   $h_1, \dots, h_k: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$  $g_1, \dots, g_l: \Omega \to \mathbb{R}$ 

$$\begin{cases} \min f(x) \\ x \in \Omega \text{ subject to } \begin{cases} h_1(x) = 0, \dots, h_k(x) = 0 \\ g_1(x) \le 0, \dots, g_l(x) \le 0 \end{cases}$$
 (\*)

**Definition 1: activeness** Let  $x_0$  satisfy the constraints.

We say that the constraint  $g_i(x) \leq 0$  is <u>active</u> at  $x_0$  if  $g_i(x_0) = 0$ .

It is inactive at  $x_0$  if  $g_i(x_0) < 0$ .

**Definition 2: regular point** Suppose for some  $l' \leq l$ :

$$g_1(x) \le 0, \dots, g_{l'}(x) \le 0; \ g_{l'+1}(x) \le 0, \dots, g_l(x) \le 0$$

where  $g_1, \dots g_{l'}$  active and the rest inactive.

We say that  $x_0$  is a regular point of the constraints if

 $\{\nabla h_1(x_0), \dots, \nabla h_k(x_0), \nabla g_1(x_0), \dots, \nabla g_{l'}(x_0)\}\$  is linearly independent.

#### 6.1 Kuhn-Tucker conditions: 1st order necessary condition for local minimum

open  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ 

 $f:\Omega\to\mathbb{R}$ 

 $h_1,\ldots,h_k,g_1,\ldots,g_l:C^1\in\Omega$ 

Suppose  $x_0 \in \Omega$  is a regular point of the constraints which is a local minimum, then

1.

$$\nabla f(x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_i \nabla h_i(x_0) + \sum_{j=1}^{l} \mu_j \nabla g_j(x_0) = 0$$

for some  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mu_j \geq 0$ 

2.  $\mu_j g_j(x_0) = 0$ 

**Remark 1** Given  $x_0$ ,

$$\begin{cases} g_j(x) \le 0 \text{ active at } x_0 \implies g_j(x_0) = 0 \implies \mu_j g_j(x_0) = 0 \\ g_j(x) \le 0 \text{ inactive at } x_0 \implies g_j(x_0) < 0 \implies \mu_j = 0 \end{cases}$$

 $\implies \mu_i = 0$  for all inactive  $g_i$  at  $x_0$ 

**Remark 2** It is possible for an active constraint to have zero multiplier.

**Remark 3**  $\mu_i \geq 0$  because  $\nabla f$  and  $\nabla g$  have opposite directions at a local minimum  $x_0$ .

$$\nabla f(x_0) + \mu \nabla g(x_0) = 0 \implies \nabla f(x_0) = -\mu \nabla g(x_0) \implies -\mu < 0 \implies \mu > 0$$

Is this true?

**Idea of proof**  $x_0$  is a local min of f subject to (\*)

 $\implies x_0$  is a local min for equality constraints  $h_1(x) = 0, \dots, h_k(x) = 0+$  active inequality constraints  $g_1(x) \le 0, \dots, g_{l'}(x) \le 0$ 

 $\implies x_0$  is a local min for  $h_1(x) = 0, \dots, h_k(x) = 0 + g_1(x) = 0, \dots, g_{l'}(x) = 0 \implies \nabla f(x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \nabla h_i(x_0) + \sum_{j=1}^{l'} \mu_j \nabla g_j(x_0) = 0$ 

for some  $\lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $\mu_i \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Let  $\mu_j = 0$  for  $j = l' + 1, \dots, l$ , then

$$\nabla f(x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \nabla h_i(x_0) + \sum_{j=1}^l \mu_j \nabla g_j(x_0) = 0$$

#### 2nd order necessary conditions for local minimum

Open  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n, f, h_1, \ldots, h_k, g_1, \ldots, g_l \in \mathbb{C}^2$ . Let  $x_0$  be a regular point of the constraints:

$$(+) \begin{cases} h_1(x) = \dots = h_k(x_0) = 0 \\ g_1(x), \dots g_l(x_0) \le 0 \end{cases}$$

Suppose  $x_0$  is a local min of f subject to (+). Then,  $\exists \lambda_i \in \mathbb{R}, \mu_i \geq 0$  s.t.

- 1.  $\nabla f(x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \nabla h_i(x_0) + \sum_{j=1}^l \mu_j \nabla g_j(x_0) = 0$
- 2.  $\mu_i g_i(x_0) = 0$  for all j
- 3.  $[\nabla^2 f(x_0) + \sum \lambda_i \nabla^2 h_i(x_0) + \sum \mu_j \nabla^2 g_h(x_0)]]$  is positive semi definite on tangent space to active constraints

*proof:*  $x_0$  local min for  $(\dagger)$ 

$$\implies \begin{cases} h_i(x) = 0 \ \forall i \\ g_j(x) = 0 \ j = 1, \dots, l' \end{cases}$$

$$\implies [\nabla^2 f(x_i) + \sum_j \nabla^2 h_j(x_j)]$$

 $\Rightarrow x_0 \text{ local min for only active}$   $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} h_i(x) = 0 \ \forall i \\ g_j(x) = 0 \ j = 1, \dots, l' \end{cases}$   $\Rightarrow \begin{cases} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(x_i) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \lambda_i \nabla^2 h_i(x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mu_j \nabla^2 g_h(x_0) \end{bmatrix} \text{ pos semi def on tangent space to active constraints.}$ 

Open  $\Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $f, h_i, g_i \in \mathbb{C}^2$  on  $\Omega$ .

Problem:

$$\begin{cases} \min & f(x) \\ \text{subject to} & \begin{cases} h_i(x) = 0 \\ g_j(x) \le 0 \end{cases} \end{cases}$$

Suppose  $\exists x_0$  feasible and  $\lambda_i, \mu_i \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t.

1. 
$$\nabla f(x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \nabla h_i(x) + \sum_{j=1}^l \mu_j \nabla g_j(x_0) = 0$$

2. 
$$\mu_j g_j(x_0) = 0 \text{ all } j$$

If the Hessian matrix,  $L(x_0) = \nabla^2 f(x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^k \lambda_i \nabla^2 f(x_0) + \sum_{i=1}^l \mu_j \nabla^2 g_j(x)$  is pos def on  $\tilde{T}_{x_0}$ -space of "strongly" active" constraints at  $x_0$ .

Then  $x_0$  is a strict local min.

### Remarks

1.

Active constraints at 
$$x_0$$
 
$$\begin{cases} h_i(x) = 0 & i = 1, ..., k \\ g_j(x) \le 0 & j = 1, ..., l' \implies g_j(x_0) = 0 \end{cases}$$

2.

Strongly active constraints at  $x_0$   $\begin{cases} h_i(x) = 0 & i = 1, ..., k \\ g_j(x) \le 0 & j = 1, ..., l'' \ g_j(x) \text{ is active at } x_0 \& \mu_j > 0 \end{cases}$ 

$$l'' \leq l' \leq l$$

3.

$$\tilde{T}_{x_0} = \{ v \in \mathbb{R}^n | v \cdot \nabla h_i(x_0) = 0 \text{ all } i \& v \cdot \nabla g_j(x_0) = 0 \text{ all } j = 1, \dots, l'' \}$$

4. strongly active  $\subseteq$  active  $(\text{strongly active})^{\perp} \supseteq (\text{active})^{\perp}$ 

proof: (details see another pdf by prof) Suppose  $x_0$  is NOT a (strict) local min. <u>claim</u>:  $\exists$  unit vector  $v \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t.

- 1.  $\nabla f(x_0) \cdot v \leq 0$
- $2. \nabla h_i(x_0) \cdot v = 0 \quad i = 1, \dots, k$
- 3.  $\nabla g_j(x_0) \cdot v \leq 0 \quad j = 1, \dots, l'$

proof of claim: []

 $\overline{\underline{\operatorname{claim:}} \nabla g_j(x)} \cdot v = 0 \text{ for } j = 1, \dots, l''$ 

proof of claim:

 $\Longrightarrow$  contradiction!

<u>claim:</u>  $\exists$  unit vector  $v \in \mathbb{R}$  s.t.

- 1.  $\nabla f(x_0) \cdot v \leq 0$
- 2.  $\nabla h_i(x_0) \cdot v = 0$  i = 1, ..., k
- 3.  $\nabla g_j(x_0) \cdot v = 0$   $j = 1, \dots, l''$

proof of claim: []

### 7 Different Computation Methods for Solving Optimum

#### 7.1 Newton's Method

$$x_0 \in I \text{ start} \\ x_{n+1} = x_0 - \frac{f'(x_0)}{f''(x_0)}$$

**Theorem** Let  $f \in C^3$  on I.

Suppose  $x_* \in I$  satisfies  $f'(x_*) = 0$  and  $f''(x_*) \neq 0$  ( $x_*$  is a non-degenerate critical point).

Then the sequence of points  $\{x_n\}$  generated by Newton's method

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{f'(x_0)}{f''(x_0)}$$

converges to  $x_*$  if  $x_0$  is sufficiently close to  $x_*$ .

Why do we need this method? In real life, we may not know the real function formula. We only have data, using which we can approximate the function formula. In a way, Newton's method is true "applied mathematics".

**Proof of Theorem** Let g(x) = f'(x) so that  $x_{n+1} = x_n - \frac{g(x_n)}{g'(x_n)}$ By  $g \in C^2$ ,  $\exists \alpha$  s.t.  $|g'(x_1)| > \alpha \, \forall x_1$  and  $|g''(x_2)| < \frac{1}{\alpha} \, \forall x_2$  in a neighbourhood of  $x_*$  (choose  $\alpha$  small enough).

$$x_{n+1} - x_* = x_n - \frac{g(x_n)}{g'(x_n)} - x_* \tag{1}$$

$$= x_n - x_* - \frac{g(x_n) - g(x_*)}{g'(x_n)}$$
 (g(x\_\*) = 0)

$$= \frac{-[g(x_n) - g(x_*) - g'(x_n)(x_n - x_*)]}{g'(x_n)}$$
(3)

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{g''(\xi)}{g'(x_n)} (x_n - x_*)^2 \tag{4}$$

$$|x_{n+1} - x_*| = \frac{1}{2} \frac{g''(\xi)}{g'(x_n)} |x_n - x_*|^2 < \frac{1}{2\alpha^2} |x_n - x_*|^2$$
 (in small neighbourhood of  $x_*$ ) (5)

$$\rho := \frac{1}{2\alpha^2} |x_0 - x_*| \qquad \text{(choose } x_0 \text{ sufficiently close to } x_* \text{ s.t. } \rho < 1) \qquad (6)$$

$$|x_1 - x_*| < \frac{1}{2\alpha^2} |x_0 - x_*|^2 \tag{7}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\alpha^2} |x_0 - x_*| |x_0 - x_*| \tag{8}$$

$$= \rho |x_0 - x_*| \tag{9}$$

$$|x_2 - x_*| < \frac{1}{2\alpha^2} |x_1 - x_*|^2 \tag{10}$$

$$<\frac{1}{2\alpha^2}\rho^2|x_0 - x_*|^2\tag{11}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\alpha^2} |x_0 - x_*| \rho^2 |x_0 - x_*| \tag{12}$$

$$< \rho^2 |x_0 - x_*|$$
 (13)

$$|x_n - x_*| < \rho^n |x_0 - x_*| \underset{n \to \infty}{\to} 0$$
 (14)

$$\implies x_n \to x_*$$
 (15)

proof of (4):

By 2nd order MVT,

$$g(x) = g(y) + g'(y)(x - y) + \frac{1}{2}g''(\xi)(x - y)^{2}$$

for some  $\xi \in [x, y]$ .

Let  $x = x_*$  and  $y = x_n$ , then

$$g(x_*) = g(x_n) + g'(x_n)(x_* - x_n) + \frac{1}{2}g''(\xi)(x_* - x_n)^2$$

$$\implies -[g(x_n) - g(x_*) - g'(x_n)(x_n - x_*)] = \frac{1}{2}g''(\xi)(x_n - x_*)^2$$

Newton's Method (generalized)  $f: \Omega \subseteq_{open} \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $f \in C^3$  on  $\Omega$ 

 $x_0 \in \Omega$ 

$$x_{n+1} = x_n - [\nabla^2 f(x_n)]^{-1} \nabla f(x_n)$$

(The algorithm requires  $\nabla^2 f(x_n)$  invertible and stops when  $\nabla f(x_n) = 0$ )

**Note** Newton's method may fail to converge even if f(x) has a unique global min  $x_*$  and  $x_0$  is arbitrarily close to  $x_*$ 

Remark Newton's method, if converge, converges to

- 1. local min
- 2. local max
- 3. saddle point

#### 7.2 Method of Steepest Descent (Gradient Method)

$$f:\Omega\subseteq_{open}\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}\&C^1$$

Recall: Direction of steepest ascent at  $x_0$  is given by the direction of gradient  $\nabla f(x_0)$ 

#### Algorithm of steepest descent $x_0 \in \Omega$

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)$$
  
where  $\alpha_k \ge 0$  satisfying  $f(x_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)) = \min_{\alpha \ge 0} f(x_k - \alpha \nabla f(x_k))$ 

(keep going until you find the minimum)

Fact: algorithm is descending If  $\nabla f(x_k) \neq \text{then } f(x_{k+1}) < f(x_k)$ Why?  $f(x_{k+1}) = f(x_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)) \leq f(x_k - \alpha \nabla f(x_k))$  for all  $0 < \alpha \leq \alpha_k$ Recall:  $\frac{d}{ds}|_{s=0} f(x_k - s \nabla f(x_k)) = \nabla f(x_k) \cdot (-\nabla f(x_k)) = -|\nabla f(x_k)|^2 < 0$  $\implies f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k - \alpha \nabla f(x_k)) < f(x_k)$  for small  $\alpha$ 

Fact: the method of steepest descent moves perpendicular steps

$$(x_{k+2} - x_{k+1}) \cdot (x_{k+1} - x_k) = (-\alpha_{k+1} \nabla f(x_{k+1})) \cdot (-\alpha_k \nabla f(x_k))$$
(16)

$$= \alpha_k \alpha_{k+1} \nabla f(x_{k+1}) \cdot \nabla f(x_k) \tag{17}$$

(18)

If  $\alpha_k = 0$ , then we are done.

If  $\alpha_k \neq 0$ , then

$$\nabla f(x_{k+1}) = \min_{\alpha \ge 0} f(x_k - \alpha \nabla f(x_k))$$
(19)

$$\implies \frac{d}{d\alpha}|_{\alpha=\alpha_k} f(x_k - \alpha \nabla f(x_k)) = (-\nabla f(x_k)) \cdot \nabla f(x_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)) = 0$$
 (20)

$$\implies \alpha_k \alpha_{k+1} \nabla f(x_{k+1}) \cdot \nabla f(x_k) = 0 \tag{21}$$

**Note** This method is not the most efficient. May take infinite steps to converge.

# Theorem (Convergence of Steepest Descent) $f \in C^1$ on $\Omega \subseteq_{open} \mathbb{R}^n$

Let  $\{x_k\}$  be sequence generated by steepest descent.

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)$$

If  $\{x_k\}$  is "bounded in  $\Omega$ " (i.e.  $\exists$  compact set  $K \subset \Omega$  s.t.  $x_k \in K$  for all k) Then every convergence subsequence of  $\{x_k\}$  converges to a critical point  $x_* \in \Omega$  of  $f : \nabla f(x_*) = 0$ 

<u>proof:</u>  $x_k \in \text{compact } K \Longrightarrow \text{subsequence } x_{k_i} \to x_* \in K$ Since  $f(x_0) \ge f(x_1) \ge f(x_2) \ge \dots$  and  $f(x_{k_i}) \searrow f(x_*)$ Suppose by contradiction that  $\nabla f(x_*) \ne 0$ 

(27)

 $x_{k_i} \to x_* \implies \nabla f(x_{k_i}) \to \nabla f(x_*)$ Let  $y_{k_i} = x_{k_i} - \alpha_{k_i} \nabla f(x_{k_i}) = x_{k_i+1}$ . Then  $y_{k_i} \to y_*$ . Then

$$f(y_{k_i}) = f(x_{k_i+1}) = \min_{\alpha > 0} f(x_i - \alpha \nabla f(x_{k_i}))$$
(22)

$$f(y_{k_i}) \le f(x_{k_i} - \alpha \nabla f(x_{k_i})) \text{ for all } \alpha \ge 0$$
 (23)

$$\lim_{i \to \infty} f(y_*) \le f(x_* - \alpha \nabla f(x_*)) \text{ for all } \alpha \ge 0$$
(24)

$$f(y_*) \le \min_{\alpha > 0} f(x_* - \alpha \nabla f(x_*)) < f(x_*)$$
(25)

$$f(y_*) < f(x_*) \tag{26}$$

But  $f(y_*) \leftarrow f(y_{k_i}) = f(x_{k_i+1}) \rightarrow f(x_*)$ , so we have a contradiction.

Steepest descent: Quadratic case  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^TQx - b^Tx$ 

 $b, x \in \mathbb{R}^n \ Q \ n \times n$  positive definite Let  $0 < \lambda = \lambda_1 \le \lambda_2 \le \ldots \le \lambda_n = \Lambda$  be eigenvalues of Q. Recall that if Q pos-def, then there is a unique minimum  $x_*$  such that  $Qx_* - b = 0 \iff x_* = Q^{-1}b$   $q(x) := \frac{1}{2}(x - x^*)^T Q(x - x^*) = f(x) + const$ 

Note:  $q(x) \ge 0, q(x_*) = 0.$ 

Define  $g(x) := Qx - b = \nabla g(x) = \nabla f(x)$  So using the method of steepest descent:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k g(x_k)$$

#### Derive the formula for $\alpha_k$ :

 $\alpha_k$  minimizes  $f(x_k - \alpha g(x_k))$ 

$$0 = \frac{d}{d\alpha}|_{\alpha = \alpha_k} f(x_k - \alpha g(x_k))$$
(28)

$$= \nabla f(x_k - \alpha_k g(x_k)) \cdot (-g(x_k)) \tag{29}$$

$$= -[Q(x_k - \alpha_k g(x_k)) - b] \cdot (g(x_k)) \tag{30}$$

$$= -(Qx_k - b) \cdot g(x_k) \tag{31}$$

$$= -|g(x_k)|^2 + \alpha_k g(x_k)^T Q g(x_k)$$
(32)

$$\implies \alpha_k = \frac{|g(x_k)|^2}{g(x_k)^T Q g(x_k)} \tag{33}$$

$$\implies x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k g(x_k) \tag{34}$$

$$= x_k - \frac{|g(x_k)|^2}{g(x_k)^T Q g(x_k)} g(x_k)$$
 (35)

Claim:

$$q(x_{k+1}) = \left(1 - \frac{|g(x_k)|^4}{(g(x_k)^T Q g(x_k))(g(x_k)^T Q^{-1} g(x_k))}\right) g(x_k)$$

proof:

$$q(x_{k+1}) = q(x_k - \alpha_k g(x_k)) \tag{36}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(x_k - \alpha_k g(x_k) - x_*)^T Q(x_k - \alpha_k g(x_k) - x_*)$$
(37)

$$= \frac{1}{2}(x_k - x_* - \alpha_k g(x_k))^T Q((x_k - x_*) - \alpha_k g(x_k))$$
(38)

$$= \frac{1}{2}(x_k - x_*)^T Q(x_k - x_*) - \alpha_k g(x_k)^T Q(x_k - x_*) + \frac{1}{2}\alpha_k^2 g(x_k)^T Qg(x_k)$$
(39)

$$= q(x_k) - \alpha_k g(x_k)^T Q(x_k - x_*) + \frac{1}{2} \alpha_k^2 g(x_k)^T Q g(x_k)$$
(40)

$$\implies q(x_k) - q(x_{k+1}) = -\frac{1}{2}\alpha_k^2 g(x_k)^T Q g(x_k) + \alpha_k g(x_k)^T Q (x_k - x_*)$$
(41)

$$y_k := x_k - x_* \tag{42}$$

$$\frac{q(x_k) - q(x_{k+1})}{q(x_k)} = \frac{-\frac{1}{2}\alpha_k^2 g(x_k)^T Q g(x_k) + \alpha_k g(x_k)^T Q y_k}{\frac{1}{2}y_k^T Q y_k}$$
(43)

$$= \frac{2\alpha_k g(x_k)^T Q y_k - \alpha_k^2 g(x_k)^T Q g(x_k)}{y_k^T Q y_k}$$
(44)

$$(g_k := g(x_k) = Qx_k - b = Qx_k - Qx_* = Q(x_k - x_*) = Qy_k \implies y_k = Q^{-1}g_k)$$
 (45)

$$= \frac{2\alpha_k |g_k|^2 - \alpha_k^2 g_k^T Q g_k}{g_k^T Q^{-1} g_k} \tag{46}$$

$$=\frac{2\frac{|g_k|^4}{g_k^T Q g_k} - \frac{|g_k|^4}{g_k^T Q g_k}}{g_k^T Q^{-1} g_k} \tag{47}$$

$$= \frac{|g_k|^4}{(g_k^T Q g_k)(g_k^T Q^{-1} g_k)} \qquad (\alpha_k = \frac{|g(x_k)|^2}{g(x_k)^T Q g(x_k)})$$

$$\implies q(x_k) - q(x_{k+1}) = \left(\frac{|g_k|^4}{(g_k^T Q g_k)(g_k^T Q^{-1} g_k)}\right) q(x_k) \tag{48}$$

$$\implies q(x_{k+1}) = q(x_k) \left( 1 - \frac{|g_k|^4}{(g_k^T Q g_k)(g_k^T Q^{-1} g_k)} \right) \tag{49}$$

$$\leq (1 - \frac{4\lambda\Lambda}{(\lambda + \Lambda)^2})q(x_k)$$
 (By Kantorovich Inequality)

$$\implies q(x_{k+1}) \le \frac{(\Lambda - \lambda)^2}{(\lambda + \Lambda)^2} q(x_k) \tag{50}$$

**Kantorovich Inequality**  $Q: n \times n$  positive definite symmetric matrix

 $\lambda = \lambda_1 \le \lambda_2 \le \ldots \le \lambda_n = \Lambda$ 

For any  $v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$\frac{|v|^4}{(v^TQv)(v^TQ^{-1}v)} \ge \frac{4\lambda\Lambda}{(\lambda+\Lambda)^2}$$

**Theorem: Steepest Descent in Quadratic Case** For any  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , method of steepest descent converges to the unique min point  $x_*$  of f.

Furthermore, for  $q(x) := \frac{1}{2}(x - x_*)Q(x - x_*)$ , where Q symmetric positive definite and  $0 < \lambda = \lambda_1 \le \lambda_2 \le \ldots \le \lambda_n = \Lambda$ ,

$$q(x_{k+1}) \le \frac{(\Lambda - \lambda)^2}{(\lambda + \Lambda)^2} q(x_k)$$

Let  $r := \frac{(\Lambda - \lambda)^2}{(\lambda + \Lambda)^2}$ , then

$$q(x_k) \le r^k q(x_0)$$

for all k. As  $k \to \infty$ ,  $q(x_k) \to \infty$ .

#### Notes

- 1.  $x_k \in \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n | q(x) \le r^k q(x_0)\} = SL_k$  (sublevel set of function q(x))
- 2.  $(\frac{(\Lambda-\lambda)}{(\lambda+\Lambda)})^2 = (\frac{\Lambda/\lambda-1}{\Lambda/\lambda+1})^2$  depends only on the ratio  $\frac{\Lambda}{\lambda} =$  "condition number of Q" case  $\frac{\Lambda}{\lambda} = 1 \Longrightarrow \text{ cond no} = 1 \Longrightarrow 0 \le q(x_1) \le 0 q(x_0) \Longrightarrow q(x_1) = 0 \Longrightarrow x_1 = x_*$  case  $\frac{\Lambda}{\lambda} >> 1 \Longrightarrow r \simeq 1$  (worst case converges very flow)

#### 7.3 Method of Conjugate Direction

**Motivation** Method of conjugate directions is designed for quadratic functions with form  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^TQx - b^Tx$ . For other functional forms, one can approximate the function using quadratic form firstly and then apply method of conjugate directions.

**Definition:** Q-orthogonality Let Q be a symmetric matrix. Two vectors  $d, d' \in \mathbb{R}^n$  are Q-orthogonal (or Q-conjugate) if

$$d^T Q d' = 0$$

A finite set of  $d_0, \ldots, d_k$  is called Q-orthogonal set if  $d_i^T Q d_i = 0$  for all  $i \neq j$ .

**Example 1** Q is an identity matrix. d, d' are Q-orthogonal iff they are orthogonal.

**Example 2** If d, d' are two eigenvectors with different eigenvalues, then they are Q-orthogonal. proof: Suppose  $Qv = \lambda v$  and  $Qw = \lambda' w$  so  $\lambda \neq \lambda'$ 

$$\langle v, Qw \rangle = \langle v, \lambda' w \rangle = \lambda' \langle v, w \rangle$$
 (51)

$$= \langle Q^T v, w \rangle = \langle Qv, w \rangle = \langle \lambda v, w \rangle = \lambda \langle v, w \rangle$$
 (52)

$$\implies (\lambda - \lambda')\langle v, w \rangle = 0 \tag{53}$$

Since  $(\lambda - \lambda') \neq 0$ , them we have  $\langle v, w \rangle = 0$ .

$$\implies v^T Q w = \langle v, Q w \rangle = \lambda \langle v, w \rangle = 0$$

**Example 3** If Q is an  $n \times n$  symmetric matrix, then there exists an orthogonal basis of eigenvectors  $d_0, \ldots, d_{n-1}$  Claim: They are also Q-orthogonal.

proof: 
$$d_i^T Q d_j = d_i^T (\lambda d_j) = \lambda d_i^T d_j = 0$$

**Proposition** Let Q be a symmetric positive definite matrix. Let  $d_0, \ldots, d_k$  be a set of (non-zero) Q-orthogonal vectors. Then  $d_0, \ldots, d_k$  are linearly independent.

*proof:* Assume  $\alpha_0 d_0 + \ldots + \alpha_k d_k = 0$  for  $\alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Multiply the whole equation by  $d_i^T Q$ :

$$\alpha_0 \underbrace{d_i^T Q d_0}_{=0} + \ldots + \alpha_i \underbrace{d_i^T Q d_i}_{>0} + \ldots + \alpha_k \underbrace{d_i^T Q d_k}_{>0} = 0$$

which implies  $\alpha_i d_i^T Q d_i = 0$  and  $\alpha_i = 0$ .

This is true for every i. Therefore  $d_0, \ldots, d_k$  are linearly independent.

#### Lemma (Theorems covered so far)

- 1.  $d_i, d_j$  are Q-orthogonal if  $d_i^T Q d_j = 0$ ;
- 2. Eigen-vectors with different eigenvalues are Q-orthogonal;
- 3. Matrix Q symmetric  $\implies$  there exists an orthogonal basis  $\implies$  the set of basis is Q-orthogonal as well;
- 4. Q-orthogonal vectors are linearly independent.

**Example 4** (Special case: Method of Conjugate Direction on Quadratic Functions). Let Q be a positive definite symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix. The problem is

$$\min f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Q x - b^T x$$

Recall that the unique global minimum is  $x^* = Q^{-1}b$ .

Let  $d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_{n-1}$  be non-zero Q-orthogonal vectors.

Note that they are linearly independent by the previous theorem.

Therefore, they form a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

The global minimum can be represented as

$$x^* = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \alpha_j d_j \, \alpha_j \in \mathbb{R}$$

For every j, the following holds:

$$d^{T}Qx^{*} = \alpha_{j}d_{j}^{T}Qd_{j}$$

$$\implies \alpha_{j} = \frac{d_{j}^{T}Qx^{*}}{d_{i}^{T}Qd_{j}}$$

**Algorithm: Method of Conjugate Directions** Let Q be a positive definite symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix. and  $\{d_j\}_{j=0}^{n-1}$  be a set of non-zero Q-orthogonal vectors, note that they form a basis of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .

Given initial point  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the method of conjugate direction generates a sequence of points  $\{x_k\}_{k=0}^n$  as the following:

$$x_{k+1} \leftarrow x_k + \alpha_k d_k$$

$$\alpha_k := -\frac{\langle g_k, d_k \rangle}{d_k^T Q d_k} g_k := \nabla f(x_k)$$

**Theorem** Given the method of conjugate, the sequence of points generated eventually reaches the global minimum. That is,  $x_n = x^*$ .

proof: Let  $x^*, x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , consider

$$x^* - x_0 = \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \beta_j d_j \tag{54}$$

$$\iff x^* = x_0 + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \beta_j d_j \tag{55}$$

$$d_j^T Q(x^* - x_0 = d_j^T Q(\sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \beta_j d_j)$$
(56)

$$= \beta_j d_j^T Q d_j \tag{57}$$

$$\implies \beta_j = \frac{d_j^T Q(x^* - x_0)}{d_j^T Q d_j} \tag{58}$$

Note that the algorithm generates the sequence as following:

$$x_k = x_0 + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \alpha_j d_j \tag{59}$$

$$\implies (x_k - x_0) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \alpha_j d_j \tag{60}$$

$$\implies d_k^T Q(x_k - x_0) = \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \alpha_j d_k^T Q d_j = 0$$
 (61)

Therefore,

$$\beta_k = \frac{d_k^T Q(x^* - x_0)}{d_k^T Q d_k} \tag{62}$$

$$=\frac{d_k^T Q(x^* - x_0) - d_k^T Q(x_k - x_0)}{d_k^T Q d_k}$$
(63)

$$=\frac{d_k^T Q(x^* - x_k)}{d_k^T Q d_k} \tag{64}$$

$$=\frac{d_k^T(Qx^* - Qx_k)}{d_k^TQd_k} \tag{65}$$

$$= \frac{d_k^T (b - Qx_k)}{d_k^T Q d_k}$$
 (The first order necessary condition suggests  $Qx^* = b$ )

$$= -\frac{d_k^T (Qx_k - b)}{d_k^T Q d_k} \tag{66}$$

$$= -\frac{d_k^T \nabla f(x_k)}{d_k^T Q d_k}$$
 (Assuming  $f$  is quadratic)

$$=\alpha_k \tag{67}$$

Consequently,

$$x^* = x_0 + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \beta_j d_j \tag{68}$$

$$= x_0 + \sum_{j=0}^{n-1} \alpha_j d_j \tag{69}$$

$$=x_n\tag{70}$$

#### 7.3.1 Geometric Interpretations of Method of Conjugate Directions

**Theorem** Let  $f \in C^1(\Omega, \mathbb{R})$ , where  $\Omega$  is a convex subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $x_0$  is a local minimum of f on  $\Omega$  if and only if

$$\nabla f(x_0) \cdot (y - x_0) \ge 0 \,\forall y \in \Omega$$

**Example** Now consider the special case in which  $\Omega$  is an affine hyperplane, that is,

$$\Omega = \{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : cx + b = 0 \}$$

where  $\dim(\Omega)$  is n-1.

Note that for every  $y \in \Omega$ ,  $\nabla f(x_0) \cdot (y - x_0) \ge 0$ . For any feasible direction a at point  $x_0$ , by definition of hyperplane, -a is a feasible direction as well.

Consequently,  $a \cdot \nabla f(x_0) = 0$  for every feasible direction. That is,  $\nabla f(x_0) \perp \Omega$ .

**Geometric Interpretation** Let  $d_0, d_1, \ldots, d_{n-1}$  be a set of non-zero Q-orthogonal vectors in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Let  $B_k = Span\{d_0, \ldots, d_{k-1}\}$  for  $k = 0, 1, \ldots, n$ .

Note:

$$B_0 = \{0\} \subseteq B_1 = \langle d_0 \rangle \subseteq B_2 = \langle d_0, d_1 \rangle \subseteq \ldots \subseteq B_n = \langle d_0, \ldots, d_{n-1} \rangle = \mathbb{R}^n$$

 $\dim B_k = k$ 

 $x_0 + B_0 \subseteq x_0 + B_1 \subseteq \dots$ 

**Theorem** The sequence  $\{x_k\}$  generated from  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  by conjugate directions method has the property that  $x_k$  minimizes  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^TQx - b^Tx$  on the affine hyperplane  $x_0 + B_k$ .

<u>proof:</u> Recall that  $x_k$  is the minimizer of f(x) on  $x_0 + B_k \iff \nabla f(x_k) \perp x_0 + B_k$ 

Enough to prove that  $\nabla f(x_k) \perp B_k$ .

We prove this by induction on k.

Notation:  $\nabla f(x_k) = Qx_k - b =: g_k$ .

Base case:  $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{0} \ B_0 = \{0\} \implies g_0 \perp B_0$ 

**Inductive Step:** Assume that  $g_k \perp B_k$ , show  $g_{k+1} \perp B_{k+1}$ 

Since

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k d_k$$

then

$$\underbrace{Q_{k+1} - b}_{g_{k+1}} = \underbrace{Q_{x_k} - b}_{g_k} + \alpha_k Q d_k$$

$$g_{k+1}^T B_k = \langle d_0, \dots, d_{k-1} \rangle \tag{71}$$

$$g_{k+1}^T d_k = \underbrace{(g_k + \alpha_k Q d_k^T d_k)^T}_{q_{k+1}} d_k \tag{72}$$

$$= g_k^T d_k + \alpha_k d_k^T Q d_k \tag{73}$$

$$= g_k^T d_k + \left(-\frac{g_k^T d_k}{d_k^T Q d_k}\right) d_k^T Q d_k \tag{74}$$

$$=0 (75)$$

This implies that  $g_{k+1} \perp d_k$ For  $0 \le i < k$ ,

$$g_{k+1}^T \cdot d_i = (g_k + \alpha_k Q d_k)^T d_i \tag{76}$$

$$= \underbrace{g_k^T d_i}_{=0} + \underbrace{\alpha_k d_k^T Q d_i}_{=0} \tag{77}$$

$$=0 (78)$$

Therefore,  $g_{k+1} \perp d_0, d_1, \dots, d_k$ Hence  $g_{k+1} \perp \langle d_0, d_1, \dots, d_k \rangle = B_k$ 

**Corollary** 
$$x_n$$
 minimizes  $f(x)$  on  $x_0 + B_n$  (which is  $\mathbb{R}^n$ ) i.e.  $x_n = x^*$ 

**Corollary** 
$$0 \le q(x_k) = \min_{x \in x_0 + B_k} q(x) \le q(x_{k-1}) = \min_{x \in x_0 + B_{k-1}} q(x)$$

#### Corollary

$$\begin{cases}
\min f(x) \\
x \in x_0 + B_1
\end{cases}$$

$$\Rightarrow \begin{cases}
\min f(x_0 + td_0) \\
t \in \mathbb{R}
\end{cases}$$
(Since  $x_0 + B_1 = \{x_0 + td_0 | t \in \mathbb{R}\}$ )
$$\Rightarrow 0 = \frac{d}{dt}|_{t=t_0} f(x_0 + td_0) = \nabla f(x_0 + t_0 d_0) \cdot d_0$$
(where  $t_0$  is such that  $x_1 = x_0 + t_0 d_0$ )

#### 8 Calculus of Variations

Note: infinite dimensional optimization.

#### Comparison with finite dimensions

	finite dimensional	$\infty$ -dimensional
problem	$\min f(x)$	$\min F[u]$
constraint	$x \in M$	$u \in \mathcal{A}$
note	set of points in $\mathbb{R}^n$	space of functions

### Model model

$$\mathcal{A} = \{u : [0,1] \to \mathbb{R} | u \in C^1 \text{ s.t. } u(0) = u(1) = 1\}$$

Note: We call F a "Functional". It maps a function to a real number.

**Notation** Write  $u(\cdot)$  for a function u.

#### 8.1 Example

$$F[u(\cdot)] = \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \{u(x)^2 + u'(x)^2\} dx.$$

$$\begin{cases} \min F[u(\cdot)] \\ u(\cdot) \in \mathcal{A} \end{cases}$$

neans: Find  $u^*(\cdot) \in \mathcal{A}$  s.t.  $F[u^*(\cdot)] \leq F[u(\cdot)]$  for all  $u(\cdot) \in \mathcal{A}$ .

#### Plan

- 1. We derive 1st order necessary conditions for a local min;
- 2. Find a function  $u^*(\cdot)$  satisfying these conditions;
- 3. Check this candidate  $u^*(\cdot)$  is in fact a minimizer.

**Idea** We reduce this problem to (many) 1-dimensional problems.

Fix  $v(\cdot) \in C^1$  on [0, 1] s.t. v(0) = 0 = v(1).

Suppose  $u^*(\cdot) \in \mathcal{A}$  is a minimizer.

Notice that  $u^*(\cdot) + sv(\cdot) \in \mathcal{A} \, \forall s \in \mathbb{R}$ .

Let  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  s.t.  $f(s) := F(u^*(\cdot) + sv(\cdot))$ .

If  $u^*(\cdot)$  minimizes F, then s=0 minimizes f, then f'(0)=0.

Then  $f(0) = F[u^*(\cdot)] \le F[u^*(\cdot) + sv(\cdot)] = f(s)$ 

$$f'(0) = \frac{d}{ds}|_{s=0} \underbrace{F[u*(\cdot) + sv(\cdot)]}_{f(s)}$$
(80)

$$= \frac{d}{ds}|_{s=0} \frac{1}{2} \int_0^1 \{ [u^*(x) + sv(x)]^2 + [u^{*'}(x) + sv'(x)]^2 \} dx$$
 (81)

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{d}{ds} |_{s=0} \int_0^1 \{u^*(x)^2 + u^{*'}(x)^2\} dx + \frac{d}{ds} |_{s=0} s \int_0^1 \{u^*(x)v(x) + u^{*'}(x)v'(x)\} dx + \frac{d}{ds} |_{s=0} \frac{s^2}{2} \int_0^1 \{v(x)^2 + v'(x)^2\} dx$$
(82)

$$= \int_0^1 \{u^*(x)v(x) + u^{*'}(x)v'(x)\} dx \tag{83}$$

So far, if  $u^*(\cdot)$  is a minimizer of F over  $\mathcal{A}$ , then

$$\int_0^1 \{u^*(x)v(x) + u^{*'}(x)v'(x)\} dx = 0 \quad (\heartsuit)$$

for all  $v(\cdot) \in C^1$  on [0,1] and v(0) = 0 = v(1). We call this a "primitive form of 1st order condition", and call  $v(\cdot)$  the test functions.

Recall Integration by parts:

$$\int_0^1 w(x)v'(x) \, dx = w(x)v(x)|_0^1 - \int_0^1 w'(x)v(x) \, dx$$

$$(\heartsuit) = \int_0^1 u^*(x)v(x) \, dx + \int_0^1 u^{*'}(x)v'(x) \, dx \tag{84}$$

$$= \int_{0}^{1} u^{*}(x)v(x) dx + \underbrace{u^{*'}(x)v(x)|_{0}^{1}}_{=0 (v(0)=v(1)=0)} - \int_{0}^{1} u^{*''}(x)v(x) dx$$
 (85)

$$= \int_0^1 \left( u^*(x) - u^{*''}(x) \right) v(x) \, dx \tag{86}$$

$$=0 (87)$$

For all test functions  $v(\cdot)$ .

Next we will show that  $(\heartsuit) \implies u^*(x) - u^{*''}(x) \equiv 0$