

1 5th of October 2018 — A. Frangioni

1.1 Unconstrained optimization

Until now we stated that the best conditions are encountered when the domain is a compact set and we have many derivatives.

Now we need to consider when we can stop our algorithm.

Definition 1.1 (Unconstrained optimization problem). *We want to solve (P) $f_* = \min\{f(x) : x \in X\}$, where $X = \mathbb{R}^n$.*

If \mathbb{R}^n is not bounded, Weierstrass theorem does not apply, hence even if a (global) minimum x_* exists, finding it is a NP problem.

Let us use a weaker condition to ease things a little: x_* is a **local minimum** if it solves

$$\min\{f(x) : x \in \mathcal{B}(x_*, \varepsilon)\} \text{ for some } \varepsilon > 0$$

aka, the minimum we found is a global minimum in a ball around x^* .

Also, x^* is a **strict local minimum** if $f(x) < f(y) \ \forall y \in \mathcal{B}(x_*, \varepsilon)$

To test these conditions derivatives help, as an example see Figure 1.1

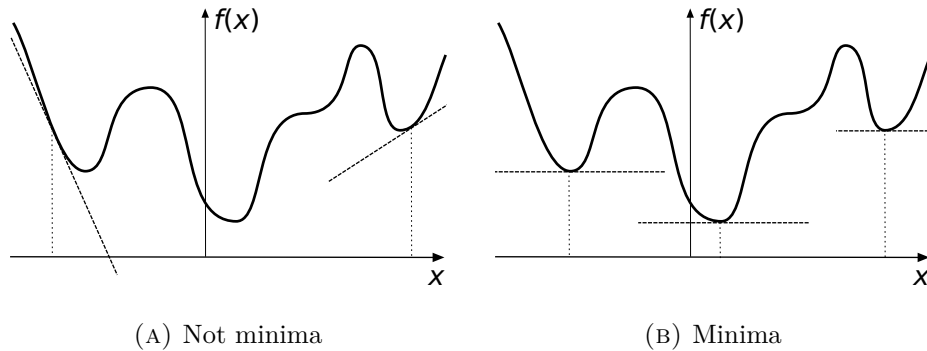


FIGURE 1.1: In the leftmost plot, we can see that if the derivatives are non zero the point is not a minimum. Such a condition is satisfied in the right handed plot.

If $f'(x) < 0$ or $f'(x) > 0$, x clearly cannot be a local minimum.

Hence, $f'(x) = 0$ in all local minima, so this holds in the global one as well.

1.1.1 First order model



Do you recall?

The first order model of f is $L_x(y) = f(x) + \nabla f(x)(y - x)$, such that $f(y) = f(x) + \nabla f(x)(y - x) + R(y - x)$.

We already stated last lecture that if the norm of the argument of the residual is going to 0, then the residual is going to 0 faster (quadratically), formally $\lim_{\|h\| \rightarrow 0} \frac{R(h)}{\|h\|} = 0$.

Fact 1.1. Let f be differentiable, if x is a local minimum, then $\nabla f(x) = 0$.

In which direction shall we move in order to get closer to the minimum, provided that we are sitting in x ? $x(\alpha) = x - \alpha \nabla f(x)$, hence we should take a step along the anti-gradient $-\nabla f(x)$.

Proof by contraddiction. Let us assume that x is a local minimum but $\nabla f(x) \neq 0$.

In our case, $y = x - \alpha \nabla f(x)$, so we get $f(x - \alpha \nabla f(x)) = f(x) - \alpha \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 + R(-\alpha \nabla f(x))$.

Hence, in our case the direction is fixed, but we can choose the step size α , so it can be proved that $\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{R(-\alpha \nabla f(x))}{\|\alpha \nabla f(x)\|} = 0$, that is equivalent by definition to $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \bar{\alpha} > 0$ s.t.

$$\frac{R(-\alpha \nabla f(x))}{\alpha \|\nabla f(x)\|} \leq \varepsilon \quad \forall 0 \leq \alpha < \bar{\alpha}.$$

Take $\varepsilon < \|\nabla f(x)\|^2$ to get $R(-\alpha \nabla f(x)) < \alpha \|\nabla f(x)\|^2$, then

$$f(x(\alpha)) = f(x) - \alpha \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 + R(-\alpha \nabla f(x)) < f(x)$$

$\forall \alpha < \bar{\alpha}$ x cannot be a local minimum. □

Notice that the optimality condition also tells us how to move to get closer to the minimum.

An attentive reader may notice that the gradient is 0 in minima, maxima and saddle points (aka stationary point), hence how to discriminate among those?

We need to take into account second derivatives, namely such second derivative should be positive for a minimum point.

1.1.2 Second order model

Fact 1.2. Let $f \in C^2$. If x is a local minimum then $\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0$, in words the Hessian is positive semidefinite.

Proof by contraddiction. Our contradictory hypothesis is that we are in a local minimum, but the Hessian is not positive semidefinite (formally, $\exists d$ s.t. $d^T \nabla^2 f(x) d < 0$ or equivalently, $\exists \lambda_i < 0$, noticing that $f(\alpha) = \text{tr}(\alpha H_i) \nabla f(x)(\alpha H_i) = \alpha^2 \lambda_i < 0$).

Obs: saying that Hessian is not positive semidefinite means saying that there is a direction of negative curvature.

Just like in previous case, we take the direction d normalized ($\|d\| = 1$).

Let us consider a step $x(\alpha) = x + \alpha d$ and then take the second-order Taylor formula (since $\nabla f(x) = 0$ there is no linear term involved)

$$f(x(\alpha)) = f(x) + \frac{1}{2}\alpha^2 d^T \nabla^2 f(x) d + R(\alpha d)$$

with $\lim_{\|h\| \rightarrow 0} \frac{R(h)}{\|h\|^2} = 0$, which means that the residual should go to 0 at least cubically.

Since $h = x - x(\alpha)$ we get that $\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow 0} \frac{R(\alpha d)}{\alpha^2} = 0$ or equivalently $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \bar{\alpha} > 0$ s.t. $R(\alpha d) \leq \varepsilon \alpha^2 \forall 0 \leq \alpha < \bar{\alpha}$.

At this point, since this condition holds for each ε we are allowed to take the most convenient: $\varepsilon < -\frac{1}{2}d^T \nabla^2 f(x) d$, so that we obtain this condition on the residual $R(\alpha d) < -\frac{1}{2}\alpha^2 d^T \nabla^2 f(x) d$, hence

$$f(x(\alpha)) = f(x) + \frac{1}{2}\alpha^2 d^T \nabla^2 f(x) d + R(\alpha d) < f(x) \forall 0 \leq \alpha < \bar{\alpha}$$

Hence x cannot be a local minimum. □

In a local minimum, there cannot be directions of negative curvature “when the first derivative is 0, second-order effects prevail”.

As far as sufficient conditions are concerned, we can prove the following

Fact 1.3. *Let $f \in C^2$ and let the Hessian be symmetric (hence real eigenvalues). If $\nabla f(x) = 0$ and the Hessian is strictly positive definite ($\nabla^2 f(x) \succ 0$) then x is a local minimum.*

Proof. Since the gradient is 0 we get the following second order Taylor approximation

$$f(x + d) = f(x) + \frac{1}{2}d^T \nabla^2 f(x) d + R(d) \text{ with } \lim_{\|d\| \rightarrow 0} \frac{R(d)}{\|d\|^2} = 0$$

Hence, by definition of limit $\forall \varepsilon > 0 \exists \delta > 0$ s.t. $R(d) \leq \varepsilon \|d\|^2 \forall d$ s.t. $\|d\| < \delta$.

Since the Hessian is strictly positive definite $\lambda_{\min} > 0$ minimum eigenvalue of $\nabla^2 f(x)$, hence the variational characterization of eigenvalues $d^T \nabla^2 f(x) d \geq \lambda_{\min} \|d\|^2$.

We are now ready to pick the ε we prefer ($\varepsilon < \lambda_{\min}$) to get $\forall d$ s.t. $\|d\| < \delta$

$$f(x + d) = f(x) + \frac{1}{2}d^T \nabla^2 f(x) d + R(d) \geq f(x) + (\lambda_{\min} - \varepsilon) \|d\|^2 > f(x)$$

The term $\lambda_{\min} - \varepsilon$ is strictly positive □

In the remaining part of this lecture we will look for conditions that ensure that one a local minimum is found, it is also a global minimum.

Until now, we said that the local minima are those points where the gradient is 0 and the Hessian is positive semidefinite. An easy way to ensure that the Hessian is positive semidefinite in a ball around x is to have that the Hessian is positive semidefinite everywhere ($\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$) aka f is a convex function.

1.2 Convexity

Let us introduce some preliminaries to the hypothesis of convex functions.

Definition 1.2 (Convex hull). *Let $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ we term **convex hull** and denote $\text{conv}(x, y) = \{z = \alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y : \alpha \in [0, 1]\}$ the segment joining x and y .*

Definition 1.3 (Convex set). *We term **convex set** if for each couple in the set, the line linking such points belongs to the set.*

*Formally, $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a **convex set** if $\forall x, y \in C \text{ conv}(x, y) \subseteq C$.*

Notice that “disconnected sets” cannot be convex sets.

Definition 1.4 (Convex hull of a set). *Given a set S , we can “complete” it to a convex set:*

$$\begin{aligned} \text{conv}(S) &= \bigcup \{ \text{conv}(x, y) : x, y \in S \} \\ &= \bigcap \{ C : C \text{ is convex} \wedge C \supseteq S \} \end{aligned}$$

Equivalently, the convex hull of S = iterated convex hull of all $x, y \in S$ or the smallest convex set containing S

Our goal is to find the nicest possible convex set that approximates our set.

Fact 1.4. *A convex set is equal to its convex hull, formally C is convex $\iff C = \text{conv}(C)$.*

Note

A more general definition of a convex hull is the following: $\text{conv}(\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}) = \{x = \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i x_i : \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i = 1, \alpha_i \geq 0 \forall i\}$

Definition 1.5 (Unitary simplex). *We term **unitary simplex** the set of k non-negative numbers summing to 1, formally*

$$\Theta^k = \{\alpha_i \in \mathbb{R}^k : \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i = 1, \alpha_i \geq 0 \forall i\}$$

A few graphical examples are displayed in Figure 1.2.

We are interested in sufficient conditions for convexity.

Definition 1.6 (Cone). *We term **cone** the set $\mathcal{C} = \{x : \alpha x \in \mathcal{C} \forall \alpha \geq 0\}$.*

An attentive reader may notice that the definition of cone is a relaxation of the unitary simplex, where we do not require the unitary sum.

The following sets are convex:

- Convex polytope $\text{conv}(\{x_1, \dots, x_k\})$, unitary simplex Θ

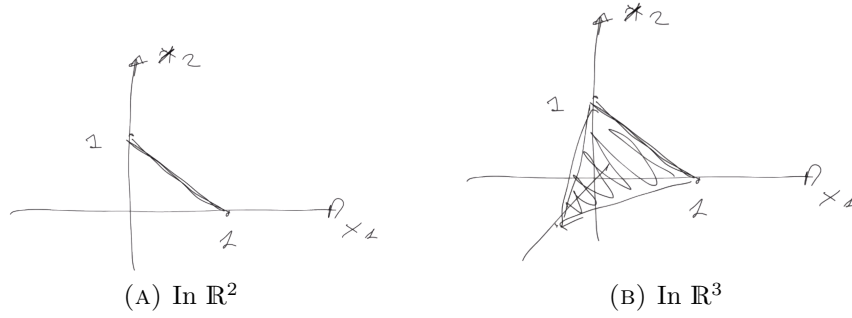


FIGURE 1.2: Unitary simplexes.

- Affine hyperplane: $\mathcal{H} := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : ax = b\}$
- Affine subspace: $\mathcal{S} := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : ax \leq b\}$
- Ball in p -norm, $p \geq 1$: $\mathcal{B}_p(x, r) = \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|y - x\|_p \leq r\}$
- Ellipsoid: $\mathcal{E}(Q, x, r) := \{y \in \mathbb{R}^n : (y - x)^T Q (y - x) \leq r\}$ with $Q \succeq 0$. Notice that ellipsoids are levelsets of quadratic functions.
- Open versions by substituting “ $<$ ” to “ \leq ”
- Cones
- Conical hull of a finite set of directions: $\text{cone}(\{d_1, \dots, d_k\}) = \left\{ d = \sum_{i=1}^k \mu_i d_i : \mu_i \geq 0 \forall i \right\}$
- Lorentz (ice-cream) cone: $\mathbb{L} = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_n \geq \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n-1} x_i^2} \right\}$
- Cone of positive semidefinite matrices: $\mathbb{S}_+ = \{A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n} : A \succeq 0\}$

Fact 1.5. *The following operations preserve convexity.*

1. *Given a possibly infinite family of convex sets $(\{C_i\}_{i \in I})$, the intersection $(\bigcap_{i \in I} C_i)$ convex;*
2. *If we have convex sets in different subspaces, their cartesian product is a convex set $(C_1, \dots, C_k \text{ convex} \iff C_1 \times \dots \times C_k \text{ convex})$;*
3. *Given a convex set, its image under a linear mapping (aka scaling, translation, rotation) is a convex set. Formally, $C \text{ convex} \implies A(C) := \{x = Ay + b : y \in C\} \text{ convex}$;*
4. *$C \text{ convex} \implies A^{-1}(C) := \{x : Ax + b \in C\} \text{ convex}$ (inverse image under a linear mapping);*

5. Let C_1 and C_2 convex and let $\alpha_1, \alpha_2 \in \mathbb{R}$. Then $\alpha_1 C_1 + \alpha_2 C_2 := \{x = \alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 : x_1 \in C_1, x_2 \in C_2\}$ convex;

6. $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^{n_1} \times \mathbb{R}^{n_2}$ convex \implies

SLICE: $C(y) := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1} : (x, y) \in C\}$ convex;

PROJECTION: $C^1 := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^{n_1} : \exists y \text{ s.t. } (x, y) \in C\}$ convex

A pictorial example in Figure 1.3;

7. C convex $\implies \text{int}(C)$ and $\text{cl}(C)$ convex

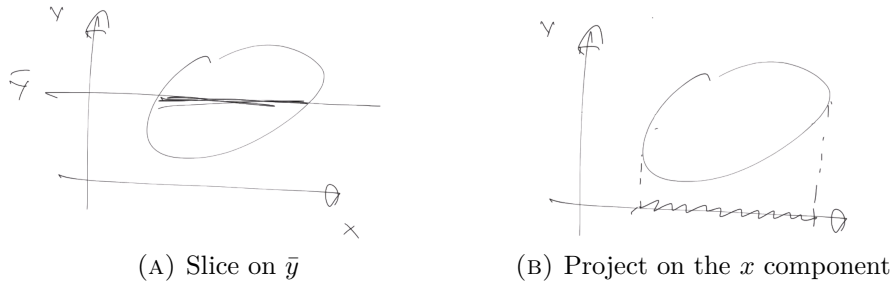


FIGURE 1.3: Pictorial examples of slicing and projecting.

Theorem 1.6. \mathcal{P} is a polyhedron iff $\exists \{x_1, \dots, x_k\}$ and $\{d_1, \dots, d_h\}$ s.t. $\mathcal{P} = \text{conv}(\{x_1, \dots, x_k\}) + \text{cone}(\{d_1, \dots, d_h\})$.

Notice that if we are interested in proving that a set with a certain shape is convex, we should try to derive it from an object that we know is convex through the operations we enumerated above.

Definition 1.7 (Convex function). Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a function. We say that f is **convex** if $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the segment that joins $f(x)$ and $f(y)$ lies above the function.

In other words, f is **convex** iff $\text{epi}(f)$ is convex, where epi denotes the epigraph of the function, graphically speaking, the region which is above the function line (in the plot).

Equivalently, we say that f is **convex** if $\forall x, y \in \text{dom}(f)$ for any $\alpha \in [0, 1]$, $\alpha f(x) + (1 - \alpha)f(y) \geq f(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y)$.

Equivalently, $\forall x^1, \dots, x^k, \alpha \in \Theta^k$

$$f\left(\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i x^i\right) \leq \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i f(x^i)$$

Definition 1.8 (Sublevel graph). Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ be a function. We term **sublevel graph** of $f(x)$ the projection on the x axis of the portions of the epigraph which lie below the constant $y = \bar{x}$.

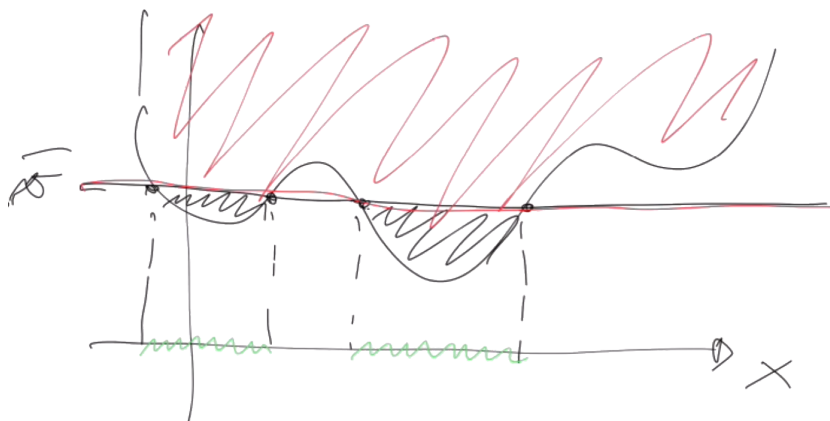


FIGURE 1.4: Pictorial example of sublevel graph. Such a graph is drawn in green in the figure.

Fact 1.7. *The following holds:*

- Let f convex. Then $S(f, v)$ convex $\forall v \in \mathbb{R}$;
- f is concave if $-f$ is convex (“convex analysis is a one-sided world”).

The second statement of Proposition 1.7 is useful to make a comparison between minimizing and maximizing. In particular, if our aim is to maximize the function, we can be sure to have found a global maximum if the function is concave.

Definition 1.9 (Strict convexity). Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$. We term f **strictly convex** iff $\alpha f(x) + (1 - \alpha)f(y) > f(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y)$.

Definition 1.10 (Strong convexity). Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$. We term f **strongly convex modulus** $\tau > 0$ iff $f(x) - \frac{\tau}{2} \|x\|^2$ is convex.

Formally,

$$\alpha f(x) + (1 - \alpha)f(y) \geq f(\alpha x + (1 - \alpha)y) + \frac{\tau}{2} \alpha(1 - \alpha) \|(y - x)\|^2$$

Next lecture we will talk about how we can check that a function is convex, operationally.