

# Convex Optimisation

Matthew Tam  
(University of Melbourne)  
matthew.tam@unimelb.edu.au

ACE Network

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## Lecture times

- Thursdays, 1-3pm  
(Melb. time)
- Every week except  
on April 8th (Easter break)  
i.e. UniMelb calendar

## Consultation

- after lecture.
- Email me.

## Lecture notes

- send out weekly/fortnightly.
- typo/corrections → email

## Course outline

### Part I: convex analysis ("Tools")

- convexity
- differentiability of convex functions
- proximity operator
- separation theorem
- Subgradients of convex fun ch.

## Part II: Algorithms

- Frank-Wolfe
- Proximal gradient descent
- Nesterov acceleration
- Subgradient method
- Douglas-Rachford

⋮

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\* No convex duality.

## Assignments

- 4 assignments (25% each)
- LaTeX
- Due in: (@ 5pm)
  - Week 4 (March 25<sup>th</sup>)
  - Week 6 (April 15<sup>th</sup>)
  - Week 10 (May 13<sup>th</sup>)
  - Week 13 (June 3<sup>rd</sup>)

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## Census date

March 31<sup>st</sup>.

## Chapter 1: Introduction

Given  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  
a typical optimisation problem  
(or mathematical program) takes  
the form

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \quad \text{s.t. } x \in C. \quad (1.1)$$

### Terminology:

- $x$  = decision variable
- $f$  = objective function
- $C$  = constraint set.

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Switch between min and max  
by replacing  $f$  with  $-f$ .

To study optimisation problems,  
its useful to classify them  
based on their math. properties.

For example:

- linear / nonlinear
- continuous / discrete
- smooth / nonsmooth  
(differentiability)
- convex / nonconvex

Problem (1.1) is convex if  
 $f$  is convex and  $C$  is convex.

### Example 1.0.1 (LP)

Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

A linear program (LP) in standard form is given by

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \langle c, x \rangle \text{ s.t. } Ax \leq b, x \geq 0$$

$$c \cdot x = \sum_{i=1}^n c_i x_i$$

$$f(x) = \langle c, x \rangle$$

$$C = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : Ax \leq b, x \geq 0\}$$

## Example 1.0.2 ( $\ell_1$ -reg. regression)

Solve  $Ax = b$  where  
A is under-determined.

Often, we know that  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$   
is sparse (i.e. many of its entries  
are zero).

This problem can cast as the  
optimisation problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1,$$

where  $\lambda > 0$ . Recall:

$$\|y\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n y_i^2}$$

$$\|y\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i|.$$



### Example 1.0.4 (portfolios opt)

Invest some quantity of money in  $n$  stocks. A portfolio is a vector  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  st

$x_i$  = proportion of money invested in stock  $i$ .

Let  $r_i$  denote the expected return of stock  $i$ , and  $\Sigma_{ij}$  denote the correlation between stocks  $i$  and  $j$ . Then the expected return is

$$\sum_{i=1}^n r_i x_i$$

The risk is the variance of the portfolio given by  $x^T \Sigma x$ .

Finding the least risky  
portfolios which achieves  
expected return  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  is given  
by

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \boldsymbol{x}^\top \Sigma \boldsymbol{x} \quad \text{st.} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1, \quad x \geq 0,$$
$$\sum_{i=1}^n r_i x_i \geq \lambda.$$

# AMSI ACE Course: Convex Optimisation

Matthew Tam  
University of Melbourne  
`matthew.tam@unimelb.edu.au`

## Review of Euclidean Spaces

The vector space  $\mathbb{R}^n$   
equipped with the dot-product.

# Euclidean Spaces

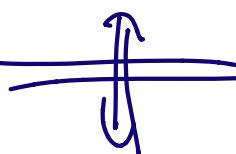
The **dot-product** on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  defined by

$\backslash\langle\!\rangle$  =  $\langle\!\rangle$   
 $\backslash\langle\!\rangle$  =  $\langle\!\rangle$

$$x \cdot y = \langle x, y \rangle := \sum_{i=1}^n x_i y_i \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$

The **(Euclidean) norm** (or 2-norm) induced by the dot-product which is given by

$$\|x\| := \sqrt{\langle x, x \rangle} = \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$



$$\|x\|^2 = \langle x, x \rangle$$

# Euclidean Spaces

Using the definitions, one can verify the following properties:

1. (linearity)  $\langle x + y, z \rangle = \langle x, z \rangle + \langle \cancel{x}, \cancel{y} \rangle$  for all  $x, y, z \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .
2. (symmetry)  $\langle x, y \rangle = \langle y, x \rangle$  for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .
3. (absolute homogeneity)  $\| \lambda x \| = | \lambda | \| x \|$  for all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

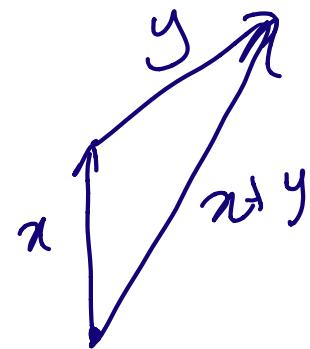
$$\begin{aligned}\| \lambda x \| &= \left( \sum_{i=1}^n (\lambda x_i)^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\&= \left( \lambda^2 \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\&= (\lambda^2)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \\&= |\lambda| \| x \|.\end{aligned}$$

# Useful Identities

The following identities holds for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

(a) (Cauchy–Schwarz inequality)

$$|\langle x, y \rangle| \leq \|x\| \|y\|.$$



(b) (Triangle inequality)

$$\|x + y\| \leq \|x\| + \|y\|.$$

(c) (Polarisation identity)

$$\begin{aligned}\langle x, y \rangle &= \frac{1}{2} (\|x + y\|^2 - \|x\|^2 - \|y\|^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\|x\|^2 + \|y\|^2 - \|x - y\|^2) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (\|x + y\|^2 - \|x - y\|^2).\end{aligned}$$

(d) (Parallelogram law)

$$2\|x\|^2 + 2\|y\|^2 = \|x + y\|^2 + \|x - y\|^2.$$

## Example: Proof of the polarisation identity

$$\langle x, y \rangle = \frac{1}{2} (\|x + y\|^2 - \|x\|^2 - \|y\|^2)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\|x+y\|^2 &= \langle x+y, x+y \rangle \\&= \langle x, x+y \rangle + \langle y, x+y \rangle \\&= \langle x, x \rangle + \langle x, y \rangle + \langle y, x \rangle + \langle y, y \rangle \\&= \|x\|^2 + 2\langle x, y \rangle + \|y\|^2\end{aligned}$$

$$\underbrace{\frac{1}{2}(\|x+y\|^2 - \|x\|^2 - \|y\|^2)}_{\text{Polarisation Identity}} = \cancel{\langle x, y \rangle}$$

# Cauchy Sequences and Completeness

Definition (Cauchy sequence)

A sequence  $(x_k) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a **Cauchy sequence** if

$$\|x_k - x_m\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k, m \rightarrow \infty.$$

Theorem

The space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  equipped with the Euclidean norm  $\|\cdot\|$  is *complete*, that is, every Cauchy sequence is a convergent sequence.

Recall  $(x_k)$  converges to  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  if

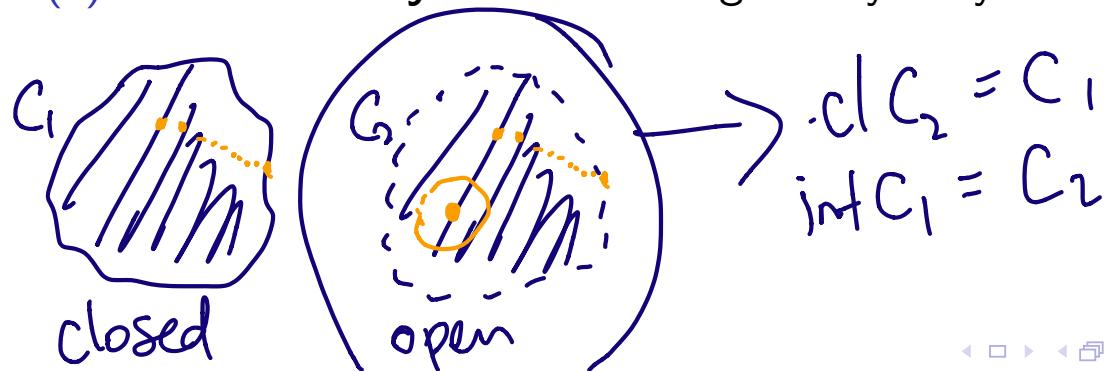
$$\|x_k - x\| \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty.$$

# Topological properties of sets

## Definition (open and closed sets)

Let  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ .

- (a)  $C$  is **closed** if  $(x_k) \subseteq C$  with  $x_k \rightarrow x$  implies  $x \in C$ .
- (b)  $C$  is **open**, if for every  $x \in C$ , there exists a  $\delta > 0$  such that  $B_\delta(x) \subseteq C$ .
- (c) The **closure** of  $C$ , denoted  $\overline{C}$ , is the smallest closed set containing  $C$ .
- (d) The **interior** of  $C$ , denoted  $\text{int } C$ , is the largest open set contained in  $C$ .
- (e) The **boundary** of a set  $C$  is given by  $\text{bdry } C := \overline{C} \setminus \text{int } C$ .



## Definition (compactness)

A set  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is **compact** if every sequence  $(x_k)$  contained in  $C$  contains a convergent subsequence.

## Theorem (Bolzano–Weierstrass)

*Every bounded sequence in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  contains a convergent subsequence.*

*A nonempty set in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is compact if and only if it is closed and bounded.*

Recall •  $(x_n)$  is bounded if  $\exists M > 0$

$$\text{st. } \|x_k\| \leq M \quad \forall k \in \mathbb{N}.$$

•  $C$  is bounded if  $\exists M > 0$

$$\text{st. } \|c\| \leq M \quad \forall c \in C.$$

$$\Delta = \left\{ x \in \mathbb{R}^n : \sum_{i=1}^n x_i = 1, x \geq 0 \right\}$$

This is a compact set.