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Administrativia

- Prerequisites: no formal ones, but some of you will already know all what I tell (possibly better than the way I will present it) and others maybe not. ASK
- BYOD! I will propose and run examples (windows, excel, python).
 You are too many to see what's wrong if you use different configurations.
- Programming: python.
- · Algorithms: basic data structures, complexity
- Math: basic calculus and matrices
- Statistics: basic descriptive statistics, normal distribution.

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Final proof

Mine is just a module.

I will propose projects for groups of 1, 2 or 3 students.

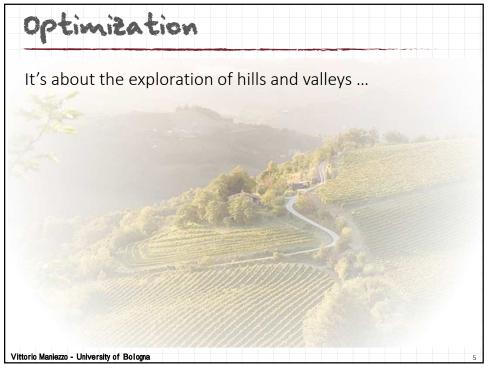
Projects will be checked with anti-plagiarism SW.

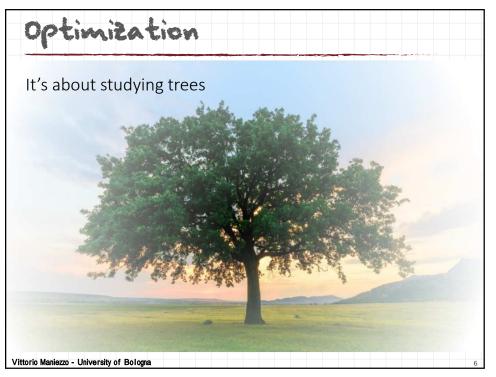
Each group must have its project accepted before starting to work.

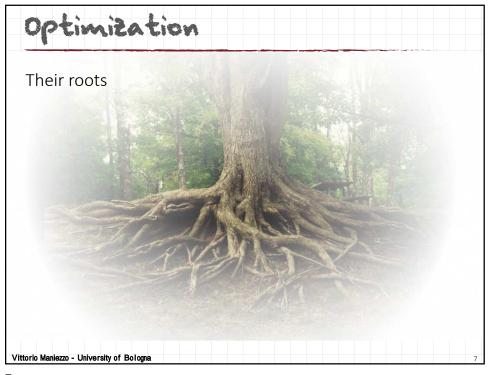
Classroom participation will be positively evaluated.

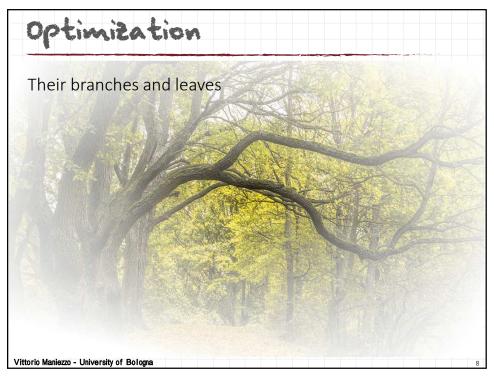
Taking part — even unfocusedly — to the lessons will not have bad impact. In no case.

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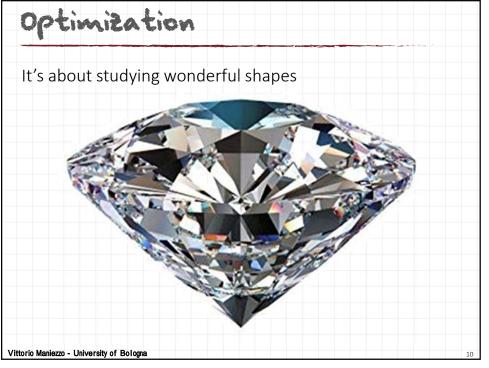












Optimization

Mathematical optimization (aka *mathematical programming*) is the selection of a *best* element from some set of available alternatives.

An optimization problem consists of *minimizing* (*maximizing*) a real function by choosing input values from within an allowed set.

More generally, optimization includes finding *best available* values of some objective function, given a defined domain (or input), where objective functions and domains can be very diverse.

(adapted from Wikipedia)

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Optimization problem

An optimization problem can be represented in the following way:

Given: a function $f: A \to \mathbb{R}$ from some set A to the real numbers

Find: an element $x_0 \in A$

- such that $f(x_0) \le f(x)$ for all $x \in A$ ("minimization") or
- such that $f(x_0) \ge f(x)$ for all $x \in A$ ("maximization").

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Subfields

Major subfields

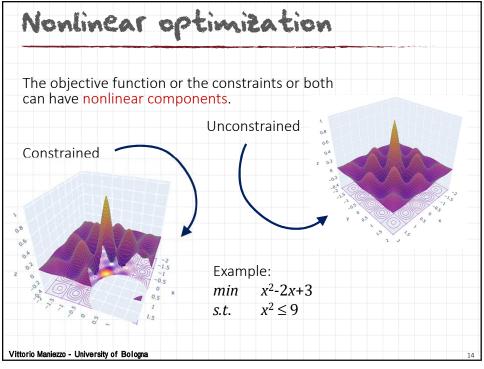
- Linear programming (LP): the objective function f is linear and the constraints are specified using only linear equalities and inequalities.
- Nonlinear programming: the objective function and/or the constraints can be nonlinear.
- Quadratic programming: the objective function can have quadratic terms, while the feasible set must be specified with linear equalities and inequalities.
- Integer programming: linear programs in which some or all variables are constrained to take on integer values (this is in general much more difficult than regular linear programming).
- Combinatorial optimization: problems where the set of feasible solutions is discrete or can be reduced to a discrete one.
- Stochastic programming: some of the constraints or parameters depend on random variables.
- Robust programming: tries to capture uncertainty in the data, finding solutions that are
 valid under all / a wide set of possible realizations of the uncertainties.
- Constraint programming: a programming paradigm where relations between variables are stated in the form of constraints.
- ... and many more . . . (Adapted from wikipedia)

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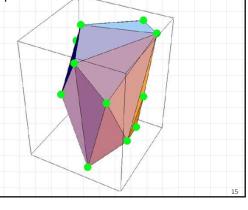


Linear optimization

- Both the objective function and the constraints are modelled by linear functions.
- Constraints (there have to be some) are in the form of a system of equations or inequalities.

Example: min $-x_1$ $-x_2$ s.t. x_1 $-x_2 \le 1.5$ $-7x_1$ $+5x_2 \le -17.5$ $-x_2 \le -4.5$

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Integer linear optimization

Linear optimization problems where (some of) the variables are required to take on integer values.

- If all variables are integer: Integer Linear Programming (ILP)
- If some of the variables are continuous: Mixed

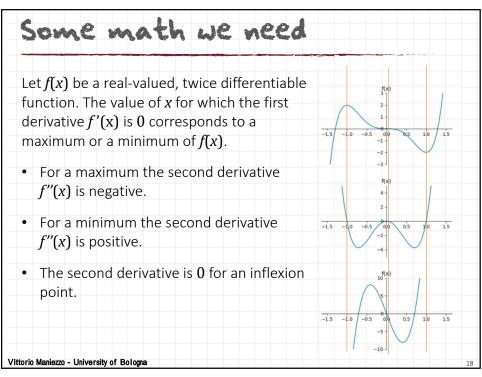
 Integer Linear
 programming (MILP).

Example:

 $\begin{array}{cccc} \min & -x_1 & -x_2 \\ s.t. & x_1 & -x_2 & \leq 1.5 \\ & -7x_1 & +5x_2 & \leq -17.5 \\ & & -x_2 & \leq -4.5 \\ & & x_1, x_2 \geq 0 \ and \ integer \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & \\ & & & & \\ & &$

5 4 3 2 1 0 0 1 2 3

able of derivatives				
y = f(x)	$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} = f'(x)$	y = f(x)	$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} = f'(x)$	
k, any constant	0	1		
x	1	$\sec x = \frac{1}{\cos x}$	$\sec x \tan x$	
x^2	2x	$\cot x = \frac{\cos x}{\sin x}$	$-\csc^2 x$	
x^3	$3x^2$	$\sin^{-1} x$	$\frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}}$	
x^n , any constant r	$n nx^{n-1}$	$\cos^{-1} x$	$ \begin{array}{c c} 1 \\ \sqrt{1-x^2} \\ -1 \\ \sqrt{1-x^2} \\ 1 \\ 1+x^2 \end{array} $	
e^x	e^x	$\tan^{-1} x$	1 1 1 2	
e^{kx}	ke^{kx}	$\cosh x$	$\sinh x$	
$\ln x = \log_{\mathbf{e}} x$	$\frac{1}{x}$	$\sinh x$	$\cosh x$	
$\sin x$	$\cos x$	$\tanh x$	$\mathrm{sech}^2 x$	
$\sin kx$	$k\cos kx$	$\operatorname{sech} x$	$-\mathrm{sech}x\tanh x$	
$\cos x$	$-\sin x$	$\operatorname{cosech} x$	$-\operatorname{cosech} x \operatorname{coth} x$	
$\cos kx$	$-k\sin kx$	$\coth x$	$-\operatorname{cosech}^2 x$	
$\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x}$	$\sec^2 x$	$\cosh^{-1} x$	1	
$\tan kx$	$k \sec^2 kx$	$\sinh^{-1} x$	$ \frac{\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 - 1}}}{\frac{1}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}} $ $ \frac{1}{1 - x^2} $	
$\csc x = \frac{1}{\sin x}$	$-\csc x \cot x$	$\tanh^{-1} x$	\frac{x^2+1}{1}	



Some math we need

Jacobian

The Jacobian operator is a generalization of the derivative operator to vector-valued functions. The Jacobian matrix of a vector-valued function f is the matrix of all its first-order partial derivatives.

The Jacobian matrix represents the differential of f at every point where f is differentiable.

$$J = \left[\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \cdots \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \right]$$

Throughout these slides, first order derivatives of f(x) will be denoted either as f'(x), or as V(x), according to my whims.

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Some math we need

Hessian

The Hessian matrix is a square matrix of second-order partial derivatives of a function f.

It describes the local curvature of a function of many variables.

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2} \end{bmatrix}$$

The trace of the Hessian matrix is known as the Laplacian operator

Throughout these slides, second order derivatives of f(x) will be denoted either as f''(x), or as H(x), or as $\nabla^2(x)$, according to my whims.

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Some math we need

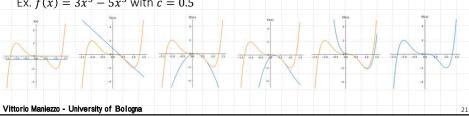
A Taylor series is a representation of an infinitely differentiable function as an infinite sum of terms that are calculated from the values of the function's derivatives at a point c.

$$f(x) = f(c) + \frac{f'(c)}{1!}(x - c) + \frac{f''(c)}{2!}(x - c)^2 + \dots = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{f^n(c)}{n!}(x - c)^n$$

(The derivative of order zero of f is defined to be f itself and $(x-c)^0$ and 0! are both defined to be 1)

The function can be approximated by using a finite number of terms of its Taylor series $\bar{f}(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\bar{n}} \frac{f^n(c)}{n!} (x-c)^n$

Ex. $f(x) = 3x^5 - 5x^3$ with c = 0.5



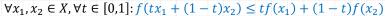
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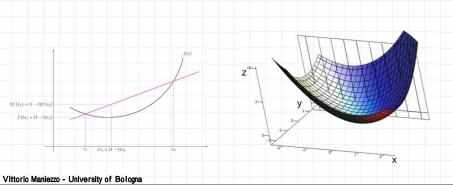
Some math we need

[Wikipedia] A real-valued function defined on an n-dimensional interval is called convex (convex downward or concave upward) if the line segment between any two points on the graph of the function lies above or on the graph.

For a twice-differentiable function of a single variable, if its second derivative is always nonnegative.

Given a convex set X, a function $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ is called convex if





Some math we need

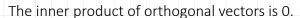
Vector dot product.

The *inner* (dot, scalar) product is an algebraic operation that takes two equal-length sequences of numbers (often coordinate vectors) and returns a single number.

$$(1,3,5)\cdot(2,4,6)=(1\times2+3\times4+5\times6)=(2+12+30)=44$$

Dot Product of two vectors:

- magnitudes and angle $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = |a| \times |b| \times cos(\theta)$
- components $\vec{a} \cdot \vec{b} = a_x \times b_x + a_y \times b_y$



A vector normal to a plane is orthogonal to any vector lying on the plane.

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Dot product, cont

A plane is determined by a point P_0 on the plane and a vector normal to the plane, \vec{n} .

 P_0 's position is determined by vector \vec{v}_0 , a generic point's P by a vector \vec{v} . The equation $\vec{n} \cdot (\vec{v} - \vec{v}_0)$ =0 holds, since the difference vector $\vec{v} - \vec{v}_0$ lies in the plane.

We can derive the equation of the plane.

Consider the vectors components:

 \vec{n} =[a,b,c], \vec{v} =[x,y,z] and \vec{v}_0 =[x₀,y₀,z₀] Dot product orthogonality $\vec{n} \cdot (\vec{v} - \vec{v}_0)$ =0

gives:

 $a(x-x_0)+b(y-y_0)+c(z-z_0)=0$

Defining $d=x_0+y_0+z_0$, then the previous equation becomes:

ax+by+cz=d

Which is the equation of the plane.

We can thus identify the normal vector \vec{n} directly from the coefficients (a,b,c) of the scalar equation of the plane.

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