Lecture 15

In this lecture we study optimality conditions for convex problems of the form

minimize
$$f(x)$$
 subject to $f(x) \leq 0$ (1) $h(x) = 0$,

where $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $\boldsymbol{f} = (f_1, \dots, f_m)^\top$, $\boldsymbol{h} = (h_1, \dots, h_p)^\top$, and the inequalities are componentwise. We assume that f and the f_i are convex, and the h_j are linear. It is also customary to write the conditions $\boldsymbol{h}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{0}$ as $\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{b}$, with $h_j(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{a}_j^\top \boldsymbol{x} - b_j$, \boldsymbol{a}_j being the j-th row of \boldsymbol{A} .

15.1 A first-order optimality condition

So far we have seen two examples of first order optimality conditions: for unconstraint optimization ($\nabla f(x) = 0$) and for linear programming. We now generalize these to the setting of constrained convex optimization.

Theorem 15.1. Let $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be a convex, differentiable function, and

$$\mathcal{F} = \{ \boldsymbol{x} : f_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \le 0, \ \boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{b} \}$$

a feasible set, with f_i convex. Then x^* is an optimal point of the optimization problem

minimize
$$f(x)$$
 subject to $x \in \mathcal{F}$

if and only if for all $y \in \mathcal{F}$ *,*

$$\langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x}^* \rangle > 0. \tag{15.1}$$

Proof. Suppose x^* is such that (1) holds. Then, since f is a convex function, for all $y \in \mathcal{F}$ we have, by Theorem 2.10.1,

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}^*) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*), \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}^* \rangle \ge f(\mathbf{x}^*),$$

which shows that x^* is a minimizer in \mathcal{F} . To show the opposite direction, assume that x^* is a minimizer but that (1) does not hold. This means that there exists a $y \in \mathcal{F}$ such that $\langle \nabla f(x^*), y - x^* \rangle < 0$. Since both x^* and y are in \mathcal{F} and \mathcal{F} is convex, any point $z(\lambda) = (1 - \lambda)x^* + \lambda y$ with $\lambda \in [0, 1]$ is also in \mathcal{F} . At $\lambda = 0$ we have

$$\frac{df}{d\lambda}f(\boldsymbol{z}(\lambda))|_{\lambda=0} = \langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x}^* \rangle < 0.$$

Since the derivative at $\lambda=0$ is negative, the function $f(\boldsymbol{z}(\lambda))$ is decreasing at $\lambda=0$, and therefore, for small $\lambda>0$, $f(\boldsymbol{z}(\lambda))< f(\boldsymbol{z}(0))=f(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$, in contradiction to the assumption that \boldsymbol{x}^* is a minimizer.

Example 15.2. In the absence of constraints, $\mathcal{F} = \mathbb{R}^n$, and the statement says that

$$\forall \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n \colon \langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x}^* \rangle \ge 0.$$

Given y such that $\langle \nabla f(x^*), y - x^* \rangle \geq 0$, then replacing y by 2x - y we also have the converse inequality, and therefore the optimality condition is equivalent to saying that $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$. We therefore recover the well-known first order optimality condition from Lecture 2.

Geometrically, the first order optimality condition means that the set

$$\{\boldsymbol{x}: \langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \boldsymbol{x} \rangle = \langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \boldsymbol{x}^* \rangle \}$$

defines a supporting hyperplane to the set \mathcal{F} .

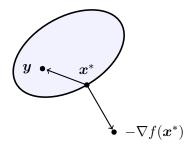


Figure 15.1: Optimality condition

15.2 Lagrangian duality

Recall the method of Lagrange multipliers. Given two functions f(x,y) and h(x,y), if the problem

minimize
$$f(x,y)$$
 subject to $h(x,y) = 0$

has a solution (x^*, y^*) , then there exists a parameter λ , the Lagrange multiplier, such that

$$\nabla f(x^*, y^*) = \lambda \nabla h(x^*, y^*). \tag{15.1}$$

In other words, if we define the Lagrangian as

$$\mathcal{L}(x, y, \lambda) = f(x, y) - \lambda h(x, y),$$

then (15.1) says that $\nabla \mathcal{L}(x^*, y^*, \lambda) = 0$ for some λ . The intuition is as follows. The set

$$M = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^2 : h(x, y) = 0\}$$

is a curve in \mathbb{R}^2 , and the gradient $\nabla h(x,y)$ is perpendicular to M at every point $(x,y) \in M$. For someone living inside M, a vector that is perpendicular to M is not visible, it is zero. Therefore the gradient $\nabla f(x,y)$ is zero as viewed from within M if it is perpendicular to M, or equivalently, a multiple of $\nabla h(x,y)$.

Alternatively, we can view the graph of f(x,y) in three dimensions. A maximum or minimum of f(x,y) along the curve defined by h(x,y) = 0 will be a point at which the direction of steepest ascent $\nabla f(x,y)$ is perpendicular to the curve h(x,y) = 0.

Example 15.3. Consider the function $f(x,y) = x^2y$ with the constraint $h(x,y) = x^2 + y^2 - 3$ (a circle of radius $\sqrt{3}$). The Lagrangian is the function

$$\mathcal{L}(x, y, \lambda) = x^2y - \lambda(x^2 + y^2 - 3).$$

Computing the partial derivatives gives the three equations

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\mathcal{L} = 2xy - 2\lambda x = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\mathcal{L} = x^2 - 2\lambda y = 0$$
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \lambda}\mathcal{L} = x^2 + y^2 - 3 = 0.$$

From the second equation we get $\lambda = \frac{x^2}{2y}$, and the first and third equations become

$$2xy - \frac{x^3}{y} = 0$$
$$x^2 + y^2 - 3 = 0.$$

Solving this system, we get six critical point $(\pm\sqrt{2},\pm1)$, $(0,\pm\sqrt{2})$. To find out which one of these is the minimizers, we just evaluate the function f on each of these.

We now turn to convex problems of the more general form form

minimize
$$f(x)$$

subject to $f(x) \le 0$ (15.2)
 $h(x) = 0$,

Denote by \mathcal{D} the *domain* of all the functions f, f_i, h_j , i.e.,

$$\mathcal{D} = \operatorname{dom}(f) \cap \operatorname{dom}(f_1) \cap \cdots \cap \operatorname{dom}(f_m) \cap \operatorname{dom}(h_1) \cap \cdots \cap \operatorname{dom}(h_p).$$

Assume that \mathcal{D} is not empty and let p^* be the optimal value of (15.2). The *Lagrangian* of the system is defined as

$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\mu}) = f(\boldsymbol{x}) + \boldsymbol{\lambda}^{\top} \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) + \boldsymbol{\mu}^{\top} h(\boldsymbol{x}) = f(\boldsymbol{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_{i} f_{i}(\boldsymbol{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^{p} \mu_{i} h_{i}(\boldsymbol{x}).$$

The vectors λ and μ are called the *dual variables* or *Lagrange multipliers* of the system. The domain of \mathcal{L} is $\mathcal{D} \times \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^p$.

Definition 15.4. The *Lagrange dual* of the problem (15.2) is the function

$$g(\lambda, \mu) = \inf_{x \in \mathcal{D}} \mathcal{L}(x, \lambda, \mu).$$

If the Lagrangian \mathcal{L} is unbounded from below, then the value is $-\infty$.

The Lagrangian \mathcal{L} is linear in the λ_i and μ_j variables. The infimum of a family of linear functions is concave, so that the Lagrange dual is a concave function. Therefore the negative $-g(\lambda, \mu)$ is a convex function.

Lemma 15.5. For any $\mu \in \mathbb{R}^p$ and $\lambda \geq 0$ we have

$$g(\lambda, \mu) \leq p^*$$
.

Proof. Let x^* be a feasible point for (15.2), that is,

$$f_i(\mathbf{x}^*) \le 0$$
, $h_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$, $1 \le i \le m$, $1 \le j \le p$.

Then for $\lambda \geq 0$ and any μ , since each $h_j(x^*) = 0$ and $\lambda_j f_j(x^*) \leq 0$,

$$\mathcal{L}({m{x}}^*,{m{\lambda}},{m{\mu}}) = f({m{x}}^*) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i f_i({m{x}}^*) + \sum_{j=1}^p \mu_j h_j({m{x}}^*) \le f({m{x}}^*).$$

In particular,

$$g(\lambda, \mu) = \inf_{x} \mathcal{L}(x, \lambda, \mu) \le \mathcal{L}(x^*, \lambda, \mu) \le f(x^*).$$

Since this holds for *all* feasible x^* , it holds in particular for the x^* that minimizes (15.2), for which $f(x^*) = p^*$.

A point (λ, μ) with $\lambda \geq 0$ and $(\lambda, \mu) \in \text{dom}(g)$ is called a *feasible point* of the dual problem.

The Lagrange dual of the optimization problem (15.2) is the problem

maximize
$$g(\lambda, \mu)$$
 subject to $\lambda \ge 0$. (15.3)

We have seen that if q^* is the optimal value of (15.3), then $q^* \le p^*$, and the example above implies that in the special case of linear programming we actually have $q^* = p^*$. We will see that under certain conditions, we have $q^* = p^*$ for more general problems, but this is not always the case.