# Lecture 3: Solution Concepts; Taylor's Theorems

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Consider the problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} f(x),\tag{P}$$

where  $\mathcal{X} \subseteq \text{dom}(f) \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is a closed set.

## 1 A Taxonomy of Solutions to (P)

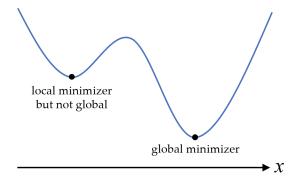
Will use "solution" and "minimizer" interchangeably.

**Definition 1.** We say that  $x^* \in \mathcal{X} \subseteq \text{dom}(f)$  is

- 1. a *local minimizer/solution* of (P) if there exists a neighborhood  $\mathcal{N}_{x^*}$  of  $x^*$  such that for all  $x \in \mathcal{N}_{x^*} \cap \mathcal{X}$  we have  $f(x) \geq f(x^*)$ ;
- 2. a global minimizer of (P) if  $\forall x \in \mathcal{X}$ :  $f(x) \geq f(x^*)$
- 3. a *strict local minimizer* of (P) if there exists a neighborhood  $\mathcal{N}_{x^*}$  of  $x^*$  such that for all  $x \in \mathcal{N}_{x^*} \cap \mathcal{X}$  and  $x \neq x^*$  we have  $f(x) > f(x^*)$ ; (i.e., satisfies part 1 with a strict inequality)
- 4. an *isolated local minimizer* of (P) if there exists a neighborhood  $\mathcal{N}_{x^*}$  such that  $\forall x \in \mathcal{N}_{x^*} \cap \mathcal{X}$ :  $f(x) \geq f(x^*)$  and  $\mathcal{N}_{x^*}$  does not contain any other local minimizer.
- 5. a *unique minimizer* if it is the only global minimizer.

**Example 1.** A local minimizer that is not strict: consider a constant function

**Example 2.** A local minimizer that is not global: (picture)



**Exercise 1.** Prove that every isolated local minimizer is strict.

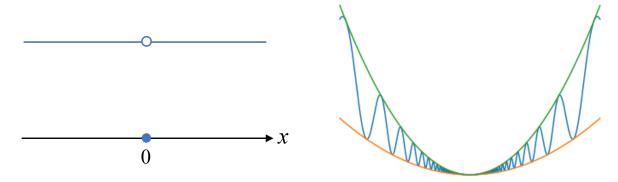
The converse of the above statement does *not* hold in general, as demonstrated by the example below.

**Example 3.** A strict minimizer that is not isolated:

• (not continuous) 
$$f_1(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$
 and  $x^* = 0$ .

• (continuous) 
$$f_2(x) = \begin{cases} x^2 \left(1 + \sin^2\left(\frac{1}{x}\right)\right) & x \neq 0 \\ 0 & x = 0 \end{cases}$$
 and  $x^* = 0$ .

Illustration: Left  $f_1$ . Right:  $f_2$ .



We want to determine whether a particular point is a local or global minimizer. A powerful tool is Taylor's theorem.

## 2 Taylor's Theorem

For this part and until explicitly stated otherwise, we will be assuming that f is at least once continuously differentiable (i.e., gradient exists everywhere and is continuous).

**Recall:** Taylor's Theorem for 1D functions from calculus: Let  $f : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a k-times continuously differentiable function. Then

$$\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R} : f(y) = f(x) + \frac{1}{1!}f'(x)(y-x) + \frac{1}{2!}f''(x)(y-x)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{k!}f^{(k)}(x)(y-x)^k + \underbrace{R_k(y)}_{\text{remainder}}.$$

Typical forms of  $R_k(y)$  (assume that f is k + 1 times continuously differentiable):

• Lagrange (mean-value) remainder:

$$R_k(y) = \frac{1}{(k+1)!} f^{(k+1)} \left( x + \gamma(y-x) \right) \cdot (y-x)^{k+1}$$

for some  $\gamma \in (0,1)$ ;

• Integral remainder:

$$R_k(y) = \frac{1}{k!} \int_0^1 (1-t)^k f^{(k+1)} \left( x + t(y-x) \right) (y-x)^{k+1} dt.$$

Below is the multivariate version.

**Theorem 1** (Taylor's Theorem; Thm 2.1 in Wright-Recht). Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \overline{\mathbb{R}}$  be a continuously differentiable function. Then, for all  $x,y \in \text{dom}(f)$  such that  $\{(1-\alpha)x + \alpha y : \alpha \in (0,1)\} \subseteq \text{dom}(f)$ , we have

1. 
$$f(y) = f(x) + \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x + t(y - x)), y - x \rangle dt$$

2. 
$$f(y) = f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x + \gamma(y - x)), y - x \rangle$$
 for some  $\gamma \in (0, 1)$  (a.k.a. Mean Value Thm).

*If f is twice continuously differentiable:* 

3. 
$$\nabla f(y) = \nabla f(x) + \int_0^1 \nabla^2 f(x + t(y - x)) (y - x) dt$$
. Here

$$\nabla^2 f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} & \dots \\ \vdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(x) & \vdots \\ & \dots \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$$

denotes the Hessian matrix ("second-order derivative") of f at x.

4.  $\exists \gamma \in (0,1)$ :

$$\begin{split} f(y) &= f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \left\langle \nabla^2 f\left(x + \gamma(y - x)\right) (y - x), y - x \right\rangle \\ &= f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} (y - x)^\top \nabla^2 f\left(x + \gamma(y - x)\right) (y - x). \end{split}$$

Remark 1. A common mistake is to write down the following "Mean-Value Thm" for the gradient:

$$\exists \gamma \in (0,1): \nabla f(y) = \nabla f(x) + \nabla^2 f(x + \gamma(y - x)) (y - x)? \longleftarrow$$
 This is wrong!

#### 2.1 Digression: order notation

Two sequences:  $\{a_k\}_{k>1}$ ,  $\{b_k\}_{k>1}$ , for all k:  $a_k$ ,  $b_k \ge 0$ .

**Big-Oh notation:**  $a_k = O(b_k) \iff$ 

$$(\exists M > 0)(\exists K < \infty)(\forall k \ge K) : a_k \le Mb_k.$$

e.g. 
$$k=O(\frac{1}{10}k^2)$$
,  $k=O(\frac{1}{10!}k)$   
If  $a_k=O(b_k)$  and  $b_k=O(a_k)$ , we write  $a_k=\Theta(b_k)$ .

Little-oh notation:

$$a_k = o(b_k) \Longleftrightarrow \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{a_k}{b_k} = 0.$$

So  $a_k = o(1)$  means  $a_k \to 0$ .

Using the notations above, we can show that for f continuously differentiable at x, we have

$$f(x+p) = f(x) + \nabla f(x)^{\top} p + o(||p||).$$

Explicitly, this means

$$\lim_{\|p\| \to 0} \frac{\left| f(x+p) - f(x) + \nabla f(x)^{\top} p \right|}{\|p\|} = 0.$$

*Proof.* By part 2 of Theorem 1 (Taylor's), we have

$$\begin{split} f(x+p) &= f(x) + \nabla f(x+\gamma p)^\top p \\ &= f(x) + \nabla f(x)^\top p + (\nabla f(x+\gamma p) - \nabla f(x))^\top p \\ &= f(x) + \nabla f(x)^\top p + O\left(\|\nabla f(x+\gamma p) - \nabla f(x)\|_2 \cdot \|p\|_2\right) &\quad \text{Cauchy-Schwarz} \\ &= f(x) + \nabla f(x)^\top p + o\left(\|p\|_2\right), \end{split}$$

where the step follows from continuity of  $\nabla f$ :  $\|\nabla f(x+\gamma p)-\nabla f(x)\|_2\to 0$  as  $p\to 0$ .