# Basics of Convex Optimization

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## 1 Introduction to Convexity

### 1.1 Convex Sets

**Definition 1.1.1** (Lines and Line Segments). Let  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be two distinct points, then

- $\{\theta x + (1 \theta)y : \theta \in \mathbb{R}\}$  represents the line passing through x and y,
- $\{\theta x + (1 \theta)y : \theta \in [0, 1]\}$  represents the line segment passing through x and y.

**Definition 1.1.2** (Affine Sets). A set  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is affine if for all  $x, y \in A$ ,  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ ,

$$\theta x + (1 - \theta)y \in A$$
.

**Definition 1.1.3** (Convex Sets). A set  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is convex if for all  $x, y \in C$ ,  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$\theta x + (1 - \theta)y \in C$$
.

## 1.2 Convex Set Examples

**Definition 1.2.1** (Hyperplanes, Halfspaces & Polyhedra). Let  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n \setminus \{\mathbf{0}\}$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $A \in \mathcal{M}_n(\mathbb{R})$ ,  $B \in \mathcal{M}_m(\mathbb{R})$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $d \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , then

- A hyperplane has the form  $\{x : a^Tx = b\}$ ,
- A halfspace has the form  $\{x : a^T x \leq b\}$ ,
- A polyhedron has the form  $\{x : Ax = b, Bx \leq d\}$ .

**Proposition 1.2.1.** Hyperplanes, halfspaces and polyhedra are all convex. In particular, hyperplanes are affine.

*Proof.* We'll first prove that polyhedra are convex. Let  $\mathcal{P} = \{ \boldsymbol{x} \, | \, A\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{b}, B\boldsymbol{x} \leq \boldsymbol{d} \}$  be a polyhedron, then for all  $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathcal{P}, \theta \in [0, 1]$ , consider  $\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta) \boldsymbol{y}$ :

$$A(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) = \theta Ax + (1 - \theta)Ay = \theta b + (1 - \theta)b = b,$$

$$B(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) = \theta Bx + (1 - \theta)By \le \theta d + (1 - \theta)d = d.$$

We proved that  $\theta x + (1 - \theta)y \in \mathcal{P}$ , and therefore  $\mathcal{P}$  is convex. It's trivial to see that hyperplanes are affine.

#### 1.3 Operations that Preserve the Convexity of Sets

**Proposition 1.3.1.** Let  $C_1, C_2 \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be convex, then  $C_1 \cap C_2$  is also convex.

*Proof.* For all  $x, y \in C_1 \cap C_2$ ,  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ , consider  $\theta x + (1 - \theta)y$ :

$$x, y \in C_1 \Rightarrow \theta x + (1 - \theta)y \in C_1, x, y \in C_2 \Rightarrow \theta x + (1 - \theta)y \in C_2,$$

that is, we have  $\theta x + (1 - \theta)y \in \mathcal{C}_1 \cap \mathcal{C}_2$ , and this completes the proof.

**Definition 1.3.1** (Affine Functions). Let  $\mathbf{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be a function, then  $\mathbf{f}$  is affine if there exists  $A \in \mathcal{M}_{m \times n}$  and  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$  s.t. for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$f(x) = Ax + b.$$

In particular, scalar and linear (equivalently, matrix) transformations are affine transformations.

**Proposition 1.3.2.** Let  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be convex, and  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  be an affine function, then f(C), i.e. the image of f over C is also convex.

*Proof.* For all  $y_1, y_2 \in f(\mathcal{C})$ , there exist  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{C}$  s.t.

$$f(x_1) = Ax_1 + b = y_1, f(x_2) = Ax_2 + b = y_2.$$

We'll then show that  $\theta y_1 + (1 - \theta)y_2 \in f(\mathcal{C})$  for all  $\theta \in [0, 1]$  as well:

$$\theta y_1 + (1 - \theta)y_2 = \theta(Ax_1 + b) + (1 - \theta)(Ax_2 + b) = A(\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2) + b = f(\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2),$$

where  $\theta x_1 + (1 - \theta)x_2 \in \mathcal{C}$ , and this completes the proof.

#### 1.4 Convex Functions

**Definition 1.4.1** (Convex Functions). A function  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  is convex if for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \le \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y).$$

**Definition 1.4.2** (Strictly Convex Functions). A function  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  is strictly convex if for all  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $\theta \in (0,1)$ ,

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) < \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y).$$

**Definition 1.4.3** (Concave Functions). A function  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  is concave if -f is convex. It is equivalent to define that f is concave if for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \ge \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y).$$

**Definition 1.4.4** (Affine Functions). A function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  is affine if for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$f(\theta \mathbf{x} + (1 - \theta)\mathbf{y}) = \theta f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\mathbf{y}).$$

This is equivalent to Definition 1.3.1.

*Proof.* We're to prove for all  $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n, \theta \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) = \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y) \Leftrightarrow f(x) = a^{T}x + b, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$$

for some  $\boldsymbol{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $b \in \mathbb{R}$ . We'll first prove  $\Leftarrow$ . For all  $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ , we have

$$f(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y}) = \boldsymbol{a}^T(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y}) + \boldsymbol{b} = \theta(\boldsymbol{a}^T\boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{b}) + (1 - \theta)(\boldsymbol{a}^T\boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{b}) = \theta f(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\boldsymbol{y}).$$

Conversely, we define  $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  s.t. g(x) = f(x) - f(0), then it's equivalent to prove that g is linear. Note that g satisfies the LHS as well, and g(0) = 0.

• g preserves scalar multiplication, i.e.,  $\forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R} = [0,1] \cup (1,\infty) \cup (-\infty,0) : g(\alpha x) = \alpha g(x)$ :

$$-\alpha \in [0,1] \Rightarrow \alpha, 1-\alpha \in [0,1]$$
:

$$g(\alpha \mathbf{x}) = g(\alpha \mathbf{x} + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{0}) = \alpha g(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \alpha)g(\mathbf{0}) = \alpha g(\mathbf{x})$$
(1)

 $-\alpha \in (1,\infty) \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\alpha} \in [0,1]$ :

$$g(\alpha \mathbf{x}) = \alpha \frac{1}{\alpha} g(\alpha \mathbf{x}) \stackrel{(1)}{=} \alpha g(\frac{1}{\alpha} \alpha \mathbf{x}) = \alpha g(\mathbf{x})$$
 (2)

 $-\alpha \in (-\infty, 0) \Rightarrow -\alpha \in (0, \infty)$ :

$$g(\alpha \mathbf{x}) = g(-\alpha(-\mathbf{x})) = -\alpha g(\mathbf{0} - \mathbf{x}) \stackrel{(4)}{=} -\alpha(g(\mathbf{0}) - g(\mathbf{x})) = \alpha g(\mathbf{x})$$
(3)

• g preserves addition, i.e.,  $\forall x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n : g(x + y) = g(x) + g(y)$ : Let  $\theta \in (0, 1)$ , then

$$g(\boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{y}) = g(\theta \frac{1}{\theta} \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta) \frac{1}{1 - \theta} \boldsymbol{y}) = \theta g(\frac{1}{\theta} \boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta) g(\frac{1}{1 - \theta} \boldsymbol{y}) \stackrel{(1)}{=} g(\boldsymbol{x}) + g(\boldsymbol{y}). \tag{4}$$

### 1.5 Theorems of Convex Functions

**Proposition 1.5.1.** Let  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function, then

f is affine  $\Leftrightarrow f$  is both convex and concave.

*Proof.* This holds if  $dom(f) = \mathbb{R}^n$ , so it directly applies to  $\mathcal{C}$ .

**Proposition 1.5.2** (Convex Along All Lines). Let  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function, then f is convex if and only if for all  $x \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $d \in \mathcal{D} = \{d \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \exists t > 0 : x + td \in \mathcal{C}\}$ , i.e. the set of all feasible directions at x,

$$g(t) = f(\boldsymbol{x} + t\boldsymbol{d})$$
 is convex,

where  $dom(g) = \{t \mid x + td \in \mathcal{C}\}.$ 

*Proof.* It's trivial to show that dom(g) is convex. Assume f is convex, then for all  $t_1, t_2 \in dom(g), \theta \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$g(\theta t_1 + (1 - \theta)t_2) = f(\mathbf{x} + (\theta t_1 + (1 - \theta)t_2)\mathbf{d}) = f(\theta(\mathbf{x} + t_1\mathbf{d}) + (1 - \theta)(\mathbf{x} + t_2\mathbf{d}))$$
  
=  $\theta f(\mathbf{x} + t_1\mathbf{d}) + (1 - \theta)f(\mathbf{x} + t_2\mathbf{d}) = \theta g(t_1) + (1 - \theta)g(t_2).$ 

Conversely, assume g is convex, then for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$f(\theta \mathbf{y} + (1 - \theta)\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x} + \theta(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})) = g(\theta)$$
  
=  $g(\theta \cdot 1 + (1 - \theta) \cdot 0) = \theta g(1) + (1 - \theta)g(0) = \theta f(\mathbf{y}) + (1 - \theta)f(\mathbf{x}).$ 

**Theorem 1.5.1** (First Order Convexity Condition). Let  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a differentiable function, then f is convex if and only if for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle.$$

*Proof.* First we assume f is convex, then for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $\theta \in (0, 1]$ ,

$$f(\theta \boldsymbol{y} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{x}) \leq \theta f(\boldsymbol{y}) + (1 - \theta)f(\boldsymbol{x}) \Rightarrow \frac{f(\theta \boldsymbol{y} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{x}) - f(\boldsymbol{x})}{\theta} + f(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq f(\boldsymbol{y}).$$

Let  $g(\theta) = f(\theta y + (1 - \theta)x)$ , so in particular f(x) = g(0), then it becomes for all  $\theta \in (0, 1]$ ,

$$\frac{g(0+\theta)-g(0)}{\theta}+f(\boldsymbol{x})\leq f(\boldsymbol{y}).$$

With  $\theta \to 0^+$  we have  $g'(0) + f(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq f(\boldsymbol{y})$ , where  $g'(0) = \langle \nabla f(\theta \boldsymbol{y} + (1-\theta)\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x} \rangle |_{\theta=0} = \langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x} \rangle$ . Conversely, for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \neq \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathcal{C}$  (the case  $\boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{y}$  is trivial),  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ , let  $\boldsymbol{z} = \theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1-\theta)\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathcal{C}$ , then

$$f(x) \ge f(z) + \langle \nabla f(z), x - z \rangle,$$
 (5)

$$f(y) \ge f(z) + \langle \nabla f(z), y - z \rangle,$$
 (6)

and  $\theta \cdot (5) + (1 - \theta) \cdot (6)$  completes the proof.

**Remark 1.5.1.** Here're some details for  $g'(\theta)$ :

$$g(\theta) = f(\underbrace{\theta y + (1 - \theta)x}_{\mathbf{u}(\theta)}) = f(\underbrace{\theta y_1 + (1 - \theta)x_1}_{u_1(\theta)}, ..., \underbrace{\theta y_n + (1 - \theta)x_n}_{u_n(\theta)}),$$

so by the Chain Rule,

$$\frac{dg}{d\theta} = \frac{d}{d\theta} f(u_1(\theta), ..., u_n(\theta)) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_i} \frac{du_i}{d\theta} = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial f}{\partial u_i} (y_i - x_i)$$

$$= \langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{u}), \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x} \rangle = \langle \nabla f(\theta \boldsymbol{y} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x} \rangle.$$

**Theorem 1.5.2** (Second Order Convexity Condition). Let  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a twice differentiable function, then f is convex if and only if for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{C}$ ,

$$\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}) \succcurlyeq 0.$$

Proof.

## 1.6 Optimality of Convex Functions

**Theorem 1.6.1** (Local & Global Optimality). Let  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a convex function, then any locally optimal point is also globally optimal.

*Proof.* Let  $x^*$  be a local optimum, then there exists R > 0 s.t. for all  $x \in \{x \in \mathcal{C} : ||x - x^*|| \le R\}$ ,

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) \leq f(\boldsymbol{x}).$$

To prove by contradiction, assume there exists  $x_0 \in \mathcal{C} \setminus \{x^*\}$  s.t.

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}_0) < f(\boldsymbol{x}^*),$$

and it's clear that  $\|\boldsymbol{x}_0 - \boldsymbol{x}^*\| > R$ . Now consider the point  $\boldsymbol{x}_R = \theta \boldsymbol{x}^* + (1 - \theta) \boldsymbol{x}_0 \in \mathcal{C}$  where  $\theta = 1 - \frac{R}{\|\boldsymbol{x}_0 - \boldsymbol{x}^*\|} \in (0, 1)$ , note that  $\|\boldsymbol{x}_R - \boldsymbol{x}^*\| = R$ , then

$$f(\theta x^* + (1 - \theta)x_0) = f(x_R) \ge f(x^*) > \theta f(x^*) + (1 - \theta)f(x_0),$$

which contradicts with the convexity of f, and this completes the proof.

**Theorem 1.6.2** (First Order Optimality Condition). Let  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be convex and differentiable, then  $\mathbf{x}^*$  minimizes f over  $\mathcal{C}$  if and only if for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{C}$ ,

$$\langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}^* \rangle \ge 0. \tag{7}$$

In particular if  $C = \mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $\mathbf{x}^*$  minimizes f over  $\mathbb{R}^n$  if and only if

$$\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}.$$

*Proof.* To prove by contradiction, assume  $\mathbf{x}^*$  minimizes f over  $\mathcal{C}$ , and there exists  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathcal{C}$  s.t.  $\langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*), \mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^* \rangle < 0$ . Similar to Theorem 1.5.1, define  $g(\theta) = f(\theta \mathbf{x}_0 + (1 - \theta)\mathbf{x}^*)$ , then

$$\lim_{\theta \to 0^+} \frac{g(0+\theta) - g(0)}{\theta} = \langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \boldsymbol{x}_0 - \boldsymbol{x}^* \rangle < 0,$$

which implies that  $g(0 + \theta) < g(0)$  for some small  $\theta > 0$ , contradicting with the minimality of  $\boldsymbol{x}^*$ . Conversely, assume  $\langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}^* \rangle \geq 0 \Rightarrow f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}^* \rangle \geq f(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$ . By Theorem 1.5.1, for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{C}$ ,

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}) > f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}^* \rangle > f(\boldsymbol{x}^*),$$

showing that  $\mathbf{x}^*$  minimizes f over  $\mathcal{C}$ . If  $\mathcal{C} = \mathbb{R}^n$ , assume  $\mathbf{x}^*$  minimizes f over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} f(\mathbf{x}^*) \neq 0$  for some i. We then have  $f(\mathbf{x}^* + \theta \mathbf{e}_i) < f(\mathbf{x}^*)$  for some small  $\theta \neq 0$ , which contradict with the minimality of  $\mathbf{x}^*$ . The converse can be proved directly using the above part.

## 1.7 Other types of Convex Functions

## 1.7.1 Strong Convexity

**Definition 1.7.1** (Strongly Convex Functions). A function  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  is  $\sigma$ -strongly convex w.r.t. some norm for some  $\sigma > 0$   $\|\cdot\|$  if for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \le \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y) - \frac{\sigma}{2}\theta(1 - \theta)\|x - y\|^2$$

**Proposition 1.7.1** (Quadratic Lower Bound of Strongly Convex Functions). Let  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be differentiable, then f is  $\sigma$ -strongly convex if and only if for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,

$$f(\boldsymbol{y}) \geq f(\boldsymbol{x}) + \langle \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}), \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x} \rangle + \frac{\sigma}{2} \|\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x}\|^2.$$

*Proof.* It's very similar to Proof 1.5. Let f be  $\sigma$ -strongly convex, then for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $\theta \in (0, 1]$ ,

$$f(\theta \mathbf{y} + (1 - \theta)\mathbf{x}) \le \theta f(\mathbf{y}) + (1 - \theta)f(\mathbf{x}) - \frac{\sigma}{2}\theta(1 - \theta)\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\|^2$$
  
$$\Rightarrow f(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{f(\theta \mathbf{y} - (1 - \theta)\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x})}{\theta} + \frac{\sigma}{2}(1 - \theta)\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}\|^2 \le f(\mathbf{y}),$$

then with  $\theta \to 0^+$  we completes the proof for  $\Rightarrow$ . Conversely, for all  $\boldsymbol{x} \neq \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $\theta \in [0,1]$ , let  $\boldsymbol{z} = \theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1-\theta)\boldsymbol{y}$ , then

$$f(x) \ge f(z) + \langle \nabla f(z), x - z \rangle + \frac{\sigma}{2} ||x - z||^2,$$
 (8)

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \ge f(\mathbf{z}) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{z}), \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z} \rangle + \frac{\sigma}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{z}\|^2$$
 (9)

and  $\theta \cdot (8) + (1 - \theta) \cdot (9)$  we get  $f(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y}) \le \theta f(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\boldsymbol{y}) - \sigma\theta(1 - \theta)\|\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{y}\|^2$ , which implies the one in Definition 1.7.1.

**Proposition 1.7.2** (Sum of Strongly Convex Functions). Let  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be  $\sigma$ -strongly convex,  $g: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be convex, both of which are differentiable, then

h = f + g is also  $\sigma$ -strongly convex.

*Proof.* For  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{\sigma}{2} ||y - x||^2,$$
  
 $g(y) \ge g(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle,$ 

and after adding we have

$$\underbrace{f(\boldsymbol{y}) + g(\boldsymbol{y})}_{h(\boldsymbol{y})} \ge \underbrace{f(\boldsymbol{x}) + g(\boldsymbol{x})}_{h(\boldsymbol{x})} + \langle \underbrace{\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}) + \nabla g(\boldsymbol{x})}_{\nabla h(\boldsymbol{x})}, \boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x} \rangle + \frac{\sigma}{2} \|\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x}\|^2,$$

so h = f + g is  $\sigma$ -strongly convex.

#### 1.7.2 Exponential Concavity

**Definition 1.7.2** (Exponentially Concave Functions).

Proposition 1.7.3 (Convexity of Exponentially Concave Functions).

 $\square$ 

#### 1.7.3 Lipschitz Continuity

**Definition 1.7.3** (Lipschitz Continuity). A function  $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$  is L-Lipschitz continuous w.r.t. some norm  $\|\cdot\|$  if for all  $x, y \in \mathcal{X}$ , we have

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le L||x - y||.$$

**Proposition 1.7.4** (Lipschitzness, Convexity and Bounded Gradient). Let  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be convex, differentiable and L-Lipschitz w.r.t. some norm  $\|\cdot\|$ , then for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{C}$ , we have

$$\|\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x})\| \leq L.$$

*Proof.* For all  $x \in \text{int}(\mathcal{C})$ , there exist  $\eta > 0$  s.t.  $x + \eta \nabla f(x) \in \mathcal{C}$ . By Theorem ??,

$$f(x + \eta \nabla f(x)) \ge f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), x + \eta \nabla f(x) - x \rangle \Rightarrow |f(x + \eta \nabla f(x)) - f(x)| \ge ||\eta \nabla f(x)||^2$$

and then by lipschitzness,

$$|L||\mathbf{x} + \eta \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{x}|| \ge |f(\mathbf{x} + \eta \nabla f(\mathbf{x})) - f(\mathbf{x})| \ge ||\eta \nabla f(\mathbf{x})||^2,$$

which yields  $\|\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x})\| \leq L$ .

### 1.8 Convex Function Examples

**Example 1.8.1** (Common Convex and Concave Functions). The convexity of the following functions can be proved using the above two theorems:

- $e^x$ ,  $x \log x$ ,  $-\log x$  are convex
- $x^{\alpha}$  is convex on  $\mathbb{R}_{>0}$  for  $\alpha \geq 1$  or  $\alpha \leq 0$
- Every norm  $\|\boldsymbol{x}\|$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  is convex
- Geometric mean  $f(x) = (\prod_{i=1}^n x_i)^{\frac{1}{n}}$  is concave on  $\mathbb{R}^n_{\geq 0}$

## 1.9 Operations that Preserve the Convexity of Functions

**Proposition 1.9.1** (Non-negative Weighted Sums). Let  $f_1, f_2 : \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be convex,  $\omega_1, \omega_2 \geq 0$ , then

$$f = \omega_1 f_1 + \omega_2 f_2$$
 is convex.

*Proof.* For all  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$f(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y}) = (\omega_1 f_1 + \omega_2 f_2)(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y})$$

$$= \omega_1 f_1(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta \boldsymbol{y})) + \omega_2 f_2(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y})$$

$$\leq \theta \omega_1 f_1(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)\omega_1 f_1(\boldsymbol{y}) + \theta \omega_2 f_2(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)\omega_2 f_2(\boldsymbol{y})$$

$$= \theta f(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\boldsymbol{y}).$$

**Proposition 1.9.2** (Composition with an Affine Map). Let  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be convex,  $A \in \mathcal{M}_{m \times n}$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , then  $g(\mathbf{x}) = f(A\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b})$  is convex,

where  $dom(g) = \{ \boldsymbol{x} \mid A\boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{b} \in \mathcal{C} \}.$ 

*Proof.* For all  $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in \text{dom}(g), \theta \in [0, 1],$ 

$$\begin{split} g(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta) \boldsymbol{y}) &= f(A(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta) \boldsymbol{y}) + \boldsymbol{b}) \\ &= f(\theta (A \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{b}) + (1 - \theta)(A \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{b})) \\ &\leq \theta f(A \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{b}) + (1 - \theta)f(A \boldsymbol{y} + \boldsymbol{b}) \\ &= \theta g(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)g(\boldsymbol{y}). \end{split}$$

**Proposition 1.9.3** (Pointwise Maximum). Let  $f_1, f_2 : \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be convex, then

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \max\{f_1(\mathbf{x}), f_2(\mathbf{x})\}$$
 is convex.

*Proof.* For all  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$ ,  $\theta \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$f(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y}) = \max\{f_1(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y}), f_2(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y})\}$$

$$\leq \max\{\theta f_1(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)f_1(\boldsymbol{y}), \theta f_2(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)f_2(\boldsymbol{y})\}$$

$$\leq \theta \max\{f_1(\boldsymbol{x}), f_2(\boldsymbol{x})\} + (1 - \theta)\max\{f_1(\boldsymbol{y}), f_2(\boldsymbol{y})\}$$

$$= \theta f(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\boldsymbol{y})$$

## 1.10 Relationship between Convex Sets and Convex Functions

**Definition 1.10.1** (Graphs, Epigraphs, Level Sets and Sublevel Sets). Let  $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function, then

- The graph of f is defined as  $\{(\boldsymbol{x}, f(\boldsymbol{x})) : \boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ ,
- The epigraph of f is defined as  $\{(x,t): x \in \mathcal{X}, t \geq f(x)\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ , denoted by epi(f),
- The  $\alpha$ -level set of f is defined as  $\{x : x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) = \alpha\}$ ,
- The  $\alpha$ -sublevel set of f is defined as  $\{x : x \in \mathcal{X}, f(x) \leq \alpha\}$ , denoted by  $C_{\alpha}$ .

**Proposition 1.10.1.** Let  $f: \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function, then f is convex if and only if epi(f) is convex.

Proof. Assume f is convex, then for all  $(\boldsymbol{x}, t_1), (\boldsymbol{y}, t_2) \in \text{epi}(f), \theta \in [0, 1]$ , consider  $\theta(\boldsymbol{x}, f(\boldsymbol{x})) + (1 - \theta)(\boldsymbol{y}, f(\boldsymbol{y})) = (\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y}, \theta t_1 + (1 - \theta)t_2)$ ,

$$\theta t_1 + (1 - \theta)t_2 \ge \theta f(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\boldsymbol{y}) \ge f(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y}),$$

and hence  $\theta(\boldsymbol{x}, f(\boldsymbol{x})) + (1 - \theta)(\boldsymbol{y}, f(\boldsymbol{y})) \in \text{epi}(f)$ . Conversely, assume epi(f) is convex, then for all  $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathcal{C}, \theta \in [0, 1]$ , consider  $(\boldsymbol{x}, f(\boldsymbol{x})), (\boldsymbol{y}, f(\boldsymbol{y})) \in \text{epi}(f)$ ,

$$\theta(\boldsymbol{x}, f(\boldsymbol{x})) + (1 - \theta)(\boldsymbol{y}, f(\boldsymbol{y})) = (\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y}, \theta f(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\boldsymbol{y})) \in epi(f),$$

and hence  $\theta f(\boldsymbol{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\boldsymbol{y}) \ge f(\theta \boldsymbol{x} + (1 - \theta)\boldsymbol{y}).$ 

**Proposition 1.10.2.** *Let*  $f : \mathcal{C} \to \mathbb{R}$  *be convex, then for all*  $\alpha$ *,* 

 $C_{\alpha}$  is convex.

*Proof.* For all  $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in C_{\alpha}, \ \theta \in [0, 1],$ 

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \le \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y) \le \alpha,$$

and hence  $\theta x + (1 - \theta)y \in C_{\alpha}$ .

## 2 Convex Optimization: Concepts

**Definition 2.0.1** (*Mathematical Optimization*). Let  $\{f_i\}_{i=0}^m$  and  $\{h_j\}_{j=1}^p : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be functions. We use the following notation to represent the standard/canonical form of a *mathematical optimization* problem:

minimize: 
$$f_0(\boldsymbol{x})$$
  
subject to:  $f_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq 0, \ \forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\}$   
 $h_j(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0, \ \forall j \in \{1, 2, ..., p\}.$ 

Here are some related terminologies:

- x: optimization variable
- $f_0$ : objective function
- $\{f_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq 0\}_{i=1}^m$ : inequality constraints
- $\{h_i(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0\}_{j=1}^p$ : equality constraints
- $\bullet$  A point x is feasible if it satisfies all constraints, and infeasible otherwise.
- The feasible set  $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  is the set of all feasible points.
- The problem is feasible if  $C \neq \emptyset$ , and infeasible otherwise.
- The optimal value  $p^*$  is defined as  $\inf_{x} \{f_0(x) \mid x \in C\}$ , which may or may not be attainable.
- A feasible point  $x^*$  is globally optimal, or optimal if  $f(x^*) = p^*$ . There may be multiple optimal points.
- A feasible point  $\boldsymbol{x}^*$  is locally optimal if  $\exists R > 0 : f_0(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = \min_{\boldsymbol{x}} \{f_0(\boldsymbol{x}) \mid \boldsymbol{x} \in C \text{ and } ||\boldsymbol{x} \boldsymbol{x}^*|| \leq R\}.$
- The problem is unbounded below if  $p^* = -\infty$ .

Here are some other equivalent forms to represent an optimization problem:

**Definition 2.0.2** (*Indicator Function Form*). With respect to the problem above, the *indicator function form* looks like:

$$\underset{\boldsymbol{x}}{\text{minimize:}} \ f_0(\boldsymbol{x}) + I_C(\boldsymbol{x})$$

where the indicator function  $I_C$  is defined as follows:

$$I_C \colon \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$\boldsymbol{x} \mapsto \begin{cases} f_0(\boldsymbol{x}), & \text{if } \boldsymbol{x} \in C \\ \infty, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

**Remark 2.0.1.** The Indicator function form relaxes the problem, while sacrificing its convex property, i.e., it is no longer a convex optimization problem.

**Definition 2.0.3** (Epigraph Form). With respect to the problem above, the epigraph form looks like:

minimize: 
$$t$$
 subject to:  $f_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq 0$ ,  $\forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\}$  
$$h_j(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0, \ \forall j \in \{1, 2, ..., p\}$$
 
$$f_0(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq t.$$

**Remark 2.0.2.** The optimization variable changes from x to (x,t), so rigorously, all constraint functions should be (slightly) modified correspondingly. But we will skip these for simplicity.

**Definition 2.0.4** (Convex Optimization). Let  $\{f_i\}_{i=0}^m : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be convex functions,  $\{a_j\}_{j=1}^p \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $\{b_j\}_{j=1}^p \in \mathbb{R}$ , then a convex optimization problem has the form:

minimize: 
$$f_0(\boldsymbol{x})$$
  
subject to:  $f_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq 0$ ,  $\forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\}$   
 $\boldsymbol{a}_j^T \boldsymbol{x} - b_j = 0$ ,  $\forall j \in \{1, 2, ..., p\}$ ,

or equivalently, it has the form:

minimize: 
$$f_0(\boldsymbol{x})$$
  
subject to:  $f_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq 0, \quad \forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\}$   
 $A\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{b} = \boldsymbol{0}.$ 

Remark 2.0.3. Convex optimization has three more requirements:

- The objective function  $f_0$  must be convex,
- The inequality constraint functions  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^m$  must be convex,
- The equality constraint functions  $\{h_j(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{a}_j^T \boldsymbol{x} b_j\}_{j=1}^p$  must be affine.

The resulting feasible set from the form above is convex because:

- Any sublevel set of a convex function  $\{f_i\}_{i=1}^m$  is convex,
- Hyperplanes are affine  $\{x \mid a_j^T x b_j = 0\}_{j=1}^p$ , and therefore convex,
- The intersection of convex sets is convex.

**Remark 2.0.4.** A concave maximization problem can be transformed into an equivalent convex minimization problem.

**Remark 2.0.5.** We may encounter a case where the constraint functions are not convex, but the feasible set is still convex. Here we do **not** consider it a convex optimization problem. We must strictly follow the definition.

## 3 Convex Optimization: Duality

Consider a general optimization problem (not necessarily convex) in the canonical form:

min: 
$$f_0(\mathbf{x})$$
  
s.t.:  $f_i(\mathbf{x}) \le 0$ ,  $\forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\}$   
 $h_j(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ ,  $\forall j \in \{1, 2, ..., p\}$ .

Denote the optimal value by  $p^*$ , and the optimal point by  $x^*$ . Then we define the following associated functions:

**Definition 3.0.1** (Lagrangian Function). The associated Lagrangian function  $L: \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$  is defined as follows:

$$L(oldsymbol{x},oldsymbol{\lambda},oldsymbol{
u})=f_0(oldsymbol{x})+\sum_{i=1}^m\lambda_if_i(oldsymbol{x})+\sum_{i=1}^p
u_jh_j(oldsymbol{x}),$$

where  $\{\lambda_i\}_{i=1}^m$  and  $\{\nu_j\}_{j=1}^p$  are called the Lagrange multipliers.

**Remark 3.0.1.** This involves the idea of *relaxation*: we are more interested in a *nearby* problem which is easier to solve. The way we acquire a nearby problem is to move the constraints to the objective function, and penalize the violations of the constraints using the multipliers. A solution of a nearby problem provides information about the original problem.

**Definition 3.0.2** (Dual Function). As motivated, the associated dual function  $g: \mathbb{R}^m \times \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$  is defined as follows:

$$g(\lambda, \nu) = \inf_{x} L(x, \lambda, \nu).$$

where  $\lambda$  and  $\nu$  are called the dual variables.

**Remark 3.0.2.** The motivation to define g is intuitive: since we have already considered the feasibility of x in  $f_0$  through the penalty, there is no need to add additional constraints on x, i.e., we can relax the problem. However, it can be the case that L being minimal is due to negative penalty + not-optimized  $f_0$ , which makes it only a nearby problem.

**Remark 3.0.3.** Regardless of the concavity of the original problem, g is always concave. To see this, if we traverse all  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we will have a set of an infinite number of affine functions of  $(\lambda, \nu)^T$ . The pointwise infimum function over such a set is concave.

**Theorem 3.0.1** (Weak Duality). With respect to an optimization problem, we have

$$\forall \lambda \geq 0 : \forall \nu \in \mathbb{R}^p : g(\lambda, \nu) \leq p^*.$$

This property is called the weak duality, and it holds for any optimization problem.

Proof.

$$g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) := \inf_{\boldsymbol{x}} L(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu})$$

$$= \inf_{\boldsymbol{x}} f_0(\boldsymbol{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i f_i(\boldsymbol{x}) + \sum_{j=1}^p \nu_j h_j(\boldsymbol{x})$$

$$\leq f_0(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i f_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{j=1}^p \nu_j h_j(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$$

$$\leq f_0(\boldsymbol{x}^*), \text{ since } \boldsymbol{x}^* \text{ is feasible}$$

$$= p^*.$$

Remark 3.0.4. Weak duality says that under  $\lambda \geq 0$ ,  $g(\lambda, \nu)$  is a lower bound for  $p^*$ . A natural question is then raised: what is  $\max_{\lambda \geq 0} g(\lambda, \nu)$ , i.e. the largest lower bound? Can it be equal to  $p^*$ ? In that case, we say the *strong duality* holds. We are interested in these questions, because it will be our best approximation of  $p^*$  from the dual perspective.

**Definition 3.0.3** (Dual Problem). As motivated, we are to consider the following optimization problem:

$$\max_{(\boldsymbol{\lambda},\boldsymbol{\nu})} g(\boldsymbol{\lambda},\boldsymbol{\nu})$$

s.t.: 
$$\lambda \geq 0$$
,

which is called the associated dual problem, and the original one is called the primal problem. Denote the optimal value by  $d^*$ , and the optimal point by  $(\lambda^*, \nu^*)^T$ . The duality gap is defined as  $p^* - d^*$ .

**Remark 3.0.5.** Regardless of the convexity of the primal problem, the dual problem is always convex. To see this, we argued that g is always concave, and maximizing a concave function is equivalent to minimizing a convex function. In addition, the inequality constrained function is convex, and hence the problem is convex.

**Remark 3.0.6.** Under strong duality, we can solve  $p^*$  from the dual perspective, which is always convex. It turns out that most (but not all) convex optimization problems have strong duality. There are many results establishing conditions (called *constraint qualifications*) on the problem, under which the strong duality holds. We will see one below.

**Definition 3.0.4** (Relative Interior). Let  $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$  be a set, then its relative interior is defined as

$$relint(S) := \{ \boldsymbol{x} \in S \mid \exists r > 0 : (B(\boldsymbol{x}, r) \cap aff(S)) \subseteq C \},$$

where B is a ball of radius r centered at  $\boldsymbol{x}$ , i.e.,  $B(\boldsymbol{x},r) = \{\boldsymbol{y} \,|\, ||\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x}|| \leq r\}$ , and aff(S) is the affine hull of S, i.e. the smallest affine set that contains S.

**Theorem 3.0.2** (Slater's Condition). Given a convex optimization problem, strong duality holds if there exists a strictly feasible point in the relative interior of C, i.e.,

$$\exists x \in \text{relint}(C) : f_i(x) < 0, \forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\}, \text{ and } Ax - b = 0.$$

In particular, when the inequality constraint functions are all affine, the feasibility does not have to be strict.

*Proof.* Skipped for now.  $\Box$ 

Here are two immediate results followed from strong duality:

**Proposition 3.0.1** (Stationarity & Complementary Slackness). Assume strong duality holds, then we have stationarity:

$$abla_{oldsymbol{x}}L(oldsymbol{x}^*,oldsymbol{\lambda}^*,oldsymbol{
u}^*) = 
abla f_0(oldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^* 
abla f_i(oldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{j=1}^p 
u_j^* 
abla h_j(oldsymbol{x}^*) = oldsymbol{0},$$

and complementary slackness:

$$\forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\} : \lambda_i^* f_i(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0.$$

Proof.

$$f_0(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}^*, \boldsymbol{\nu}^*)$$

$$= \inf_{\boldsymbol{x}} L(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*, \boldsymbol{\nu}^*)$$

$$\leq L(\boldsymbol{x}^*, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*, \boldsymbol{\nu}^*)$$

$$= f_0(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^* f_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + \sum_{j=1}^p \nu_j^* h_j(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$$

$$\leq f_0(\boldsymbol{x}^*),$$

which means that it should be equality everywhere. Therefore,  $\boldsymbol{x}^*$  is a minimizer of  $L(\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}^*, \boldsymbol{\nu}^*)$  over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and we have stationarity by the First-Order Optimality Condition. Due to the feasibility of  $\boldsymbol{x}^*$  and  $\boldsymbol{\lambda}^*$ , we have  $\sum_{j=1}^p \nu_j^* h_j(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0$  and therefore  $\sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^* f_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0$ . The fact that  $\lambda_i^* f_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$  is non-positive forces it to be zero, and then we have complementary slackness.

**Theorem 3.0.3** (KKT Conditions). The KKT conditions are as follows:

- $\forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\} : f_i(\boldsymbol{x}^*) \leq 0 \text{ and } A\boldsymbol{x}^* \boldsymbol{b} = \boldsymbol{0} \dots primal feasibility$
- $\nabla f_0(\mathbf{x}^*) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^* \nabla f_i(\mathbf{x}^*) + \sum_{j=1}^p \nu_j^* \nabla h_j(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$  ..... stationarity

We have the following conclusions:

Putting up together, assume we have strong duality (e.g.  $convex\ problem + Slater's\ condition)$ ,

 $(x^*, \lambda^*, \nu^*)$  satisfies the KKT conditions  $\Leftrightarrow x^*$  and  $(\lambda^*, \nu^*)$  are primal and dual optimal.

*Proof.* Necessity is trivial to prove (we in fact proved it from the above proposition). Regarding sufficiency, we assume  $(x, \lambda, \nu)$  satisfies the KKT conditions. By weak duality, we have

$$g(\lambda, \nu) \leq f_0(x^*).$$

By assumption, we also have

$$egin{aligned} g(oldsymbol{\lambda}, oldsymbol{
u}) &= \inf_{oldsymbol{x}} L(oldsymbol{x}, oldsymbol{\lambda}, oldsymbol{
u}) \ &= L(oldsymbol{x}, oldsymbol{\lambda}, oldsymbol{
u}) \ &= f_0(oldsymbol{x}), \end{aligned}$$

and hence we have  $f_0(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq f_0(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$ . It must be the case that  $f_0(\boldsymbol{x}) = f_0(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$ , or otherwise it will contradict with the optimality of  $\boldsymbol{x}^*$ . This proves that  $\boldsymbol{x}$  is primal optimal. In addition, we also have  $g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu}) = f_0(\boldsymbol{x}) = f_0(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = p^*$ , and clearly,  $g(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu})$  has reached its maximum, which makes  $(\boldsymbol{\lambda}, \boldsymbol{\nu})$  dual optimal.

## 4 Convex Optimization: Algorithms

Let  $f:\mathbb{R}^n\to\mathbb{R}$  be a convex and differentiable function. We will first consider the unconstrained problem:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{x}} : f(\boldsymbol{x}).$$

By the First-Order Optimality Condition, it is equivalent to solve

$$\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \mathbf{0},$$

which is a root-finding problem, where *fixed point iteration* can be found useful. Several algorithms in this section are instances of the fixed point iteration. Before moving on, we need some definitions first:

**Proposition 4.0.1.** Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a convex function. With respect to some norm, f is L-Lipschitz continuous implies

$$\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||\nabla f(x)|| \le L,$$

that is, the gradient of f is bounded.

Proof.

#### Algorithm 1 Gradient Descent

```
Initialize x_0, \epsilon, and k=0.

while ||\nabla f(x_k)|| > \epsilon do

Direction: -\nabla f(x_k).

Step size: \alpha_k.

Update: x_{k+1} \coloneqq x_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x_k).

k \coloneqq k+1.

end while
```

**Theorem 4.0.1** (Convergence Rate of Gradient Descent: Convex Case). Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a convex and differentiable function, and additionally  $\nabla f$  is Lipschitz continuous with a constant L > 0, that is,  $\forall \mathbf{x_1}, \mathbf{x_2} \in \mathbb{R}^n : ||\nabla f(\mathbf{x_1}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x_2})||_2 \le L||\mathbf{x_1} - \mathbf{x_2}||_2$ . Then gradient descent with a fixed step size  $\alpha \le \frac{1}{L}$  satisfies:

$$f(x_k) - f(x^*) \le \frac{||x_0 - x^*||_2^2}{2\alpha k}.$$

This means that gradient descent is guaranteed to converge with rate  $\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{k})$ , or reaching a sub-optimal tolerance level  $\epsilon$  requires  $\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$  iterations, where  $\epsilon \coloneqq |f(\boldsymbol{x}_k) - f(\boldsymbol{x}^*)|$ .

Proof.

**Theorem 4.0.2** (Convergence rate of Gradient descent: Strongly Convex Case). Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a convex and differentiable function, where  $\nabla f$  is Lipschitz continuous with a constant L > 0, and additionally f is strongly convex with a parameter m, that is,  $\forall \mathbf{x_1}, \mathbf{x_2} \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(\mathbf{x_2}) \geq f(\mathbf{x_1}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x_1})^T(\mathbf{x_2} - \mathbf{x_1}) + \frac{m}{2}||\mathbf{x_2} - \mathbf{x_1}||_2^2$ . Then gradient descent with a fixed step size  $\alpha \leq \frac{2}{m+L}$  satisfies:

$$f(x_k) - f(x^*) \le \frac{\gamma^k L||x_0 - x^*||_2^2}{2}, \text{ where } \gamma \in (0, 1).$$

This means that gradient descent is guaranteed to converge with rate  $\mathcal{O}(\gamma^k)$ , or reaching a sub-optimal tolerance level  $\epsilon$  requires  $\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{\log(\frac{1}{\epsilon})})$  iterations.

Proof.

## Algorithm 2 Newton's Method

```
Initialize x_0, and k = 0.

while ||\nabla f(x_k)|| > \epsilon do \Rightarrow Could use other stopping criteria Direction: -\nabla^2 f(x_k)^{-1} \nabla f(x_k).

Step size: \alpha_k.

Update: x_{k+1} := x_k - \alpha_k \nabla^2 f(x_k)^{-1} \nabla f(x_k).

k := k+1.

end while
```

Now, we will then consider the equality-constrained problem:

$$\underset{\boldsymbol{x}}{\text{minimize:}} \ f_0(\boldsymbol{x})$$

subject to: 
$$Ax - b = 0$$
.

The idea is to eliminate the equality constraints.

Lastly, we will consider the general convex optimization problem:

minimize: 
$$f_0(\boldsymbol{x})$$
  
subject to:  $f_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \leq 0, \ \forall i \in \{1, 2, ..., m\}$   
 $h_j(\boldsymbol{x}) = 0, \ \forall j \in \{1, 2, ..., p\}.$ 

There are multiple algorithms to solve the unconstrained problem, and here we will focus on one algorithm called *Barrier methods*, a.k.a. *interior point methods*, (*IPM*). We will use *barrier functions* such that high cost will be added due to infeasibility.

Our first choice of the barrier function is the indicator function:

## 5 Other Useful Concepts

## 5.1 Inner Product

**Definition 5.1.1** (Inner Product). An inner product on a vector space V is a function

$$\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle : \mathcal{V} \times \mathcal{V} \to \mathbb{R}$$

s.t. the following axioms hold:

- $\forall u, v \in \mathcal{V} : \langle u, v \rangle = \langle v, u \rangle$ ,
- $\forall u, v, w \in \mathcal{V} : \langle u, v + w \rangle = \langle u, v \rangle + \langle u, w \rangle$ ,
- $\forall u, v \in \mathcal{V}, c \in \mathbb{R} : \langle cu, v \rangle = c \langle u, v \rangle,$
- $\forall u \in \mathcal{V} : \langle u, u \rangle \geq 0$ , and  $\langle u, u \rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow u = 0$ .

A vector space  $\mathcal{V}$  together with an inner product  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  is called an inner product space, denoted by  $(\mathcal{V}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ .

**Definition 5.1.2** (Euclidean Inner Product). The Euclidean inner product is an inner product on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle$  defined as

$$\langle \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle = \boldsymbol{u}^T \boldsymbol{v}$$

for all  $u, v \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Sometimes it's referred to as the dot product, denoted by  $u \cdot v$ .

### 5.2 Norm

**Definition 5.2.1** (Norm). W.r.t. the inner product space  $(\mathcal{V}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$ , the induced norm is the function

$$\|\cdot\|:\mathcal{V}\to\mathbb{R}_{>0}$$

where  $\|\mathbf{u}\| = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{u} \rangle}$  for all  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{V}$ .

**Lemma 5.2.1** (Properties of Norms). Let  $\|\cdot\|$  be a norm on  $\mathcal{V}$ ,

- $\forall u \in \mathcal{V} : ||u|| \ge 0$ , and  $||u|| = 0 \Leftrightarrow u = 0$ ,
- $\forall \mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{V}, c \in \mathbb{R} : ||c\mathbf{u}|| = |c| \cdot ||\mathbf{u}||.$

**Theorem 5.2.1** (Cauchy–Schwarz Inequality). Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$  be an inner product space, then for all  $u, v \in \mathcal{V}$ ,

$$|\langle \boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{v} \rangle| \leq ||\boldsymbol{u}|| \cdot ||\boldsymbol{v}||.$$

The equality holds when they're linearly dependent.

**Theorem 5.2.2** (Triangle Inequality). Let  $(\mathcal{V}, \langle \cdot, \cdot \rangle)$  be an inner product space, then for all  $u, v \in \mathcal{V}$ ,

$$||u + v|| \le ||u|| + ||v||.$$

**Definition 5.2.2**  $(\ell_p\text{-Norm})$ . On  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , the  $\ell_p\text{-norm} \|\cdot\|_p$  for some  $p \geq 1$  is a norm s.t. for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

$$\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_p = (|x_1|^p + |x_2|^p + \dots + |x_n|^p)^{\frac{1}{p}}.$$

**Remark 5.2.1.** Here're some common  $\ell_p$ -norms on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :

• 
$$p = 1$$
:  $||x||_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|$ 

- p = 2:  $\|\boldsymbol{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2} = \sqrt{\boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{x}}$ , which is called the Euclidean norm
- $p = \infty$ :  $||x||_{\infty} = \max\{|x_1|, |x_2|, ..., |x_n|\}$

**Definition 5.2.3** (Dual Norm). Let  $\|\cdot\|$  be a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then its associated dual norm  $\|\cdot\|_*$  is defined as  $\|\boldsymbol{u}\|_* = \sup\{\boldsymbol{u}^T\boldsymbol{v} : \|\boldsymbol{v}\| \leq 1, \boldsymbol{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$ 

for all  $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

## 6 References