

**ΟΙΚΟΝΟΜΙΚΟ
ΠΑΝΕΠΙΣΤΗΜΙΟ
ΑΘΗΝΩΝ**



ATHENS UNIVERSITY
OF ECONOMICS
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M.Sc. Program in Data Science

Department of Informatics

Optimization Techniques

Convex Optimization

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Outline

- Convex sets
 - Definitions and basic concepts
- Convex functions
 - Equivalent definitions
 - Advantages when optimizing convex functions
- Convex optimization problems
 - Unconstrained optimization
 - Descent methods
 - Constrained optimization
 - Lagrange duality and the KKT conditions
 - Algorithms

Our goals

- Formulate problems where the objective function or the constraints are non linear
- Understand when can we have efficient algorithms for solving “non-linear” programs
 - What assumptions are needed for the type of constraints or for the objective function?
- Generalize LP duality theory/sensitivity analysis?

Introduction to convex sets and convex functions

Convex Sets

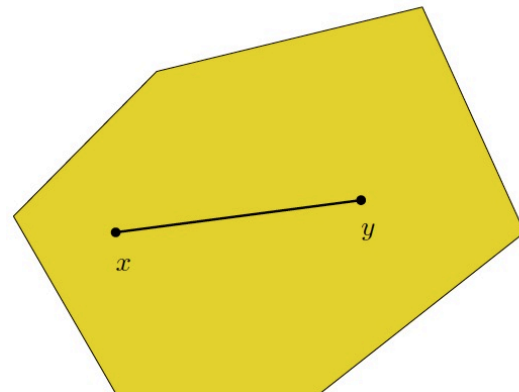
We focus on subsets of \mathbb{R}^n for some dimension $n \geq 1$

- Points here correspond to n -dimensional vectors
- But intuition from low dimensions very useful
- Given 2 points $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, a point z lies on the **line** that connects x and y if and only if

$$z = ax + (1-a)y \text{ for some } a \in [0, 1]$$

Definition: A set $C \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ is convex if for any 2 points $x, y \in C$, and for any $a \in [0, 1]$, we have that $ax + (1-a)y \in C$

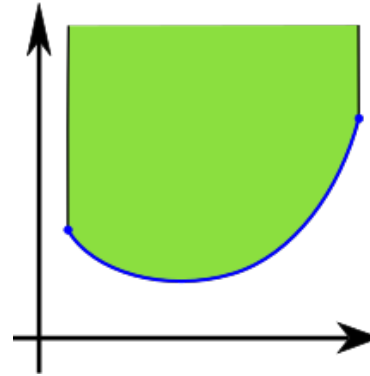
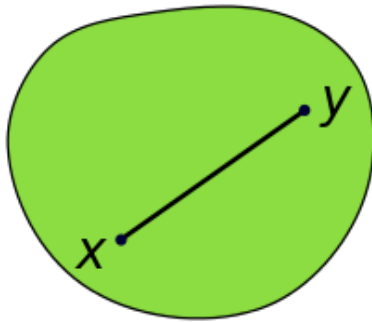
- **In geometric terms:** the line connecting any 2 points of C , must entirely belong to C



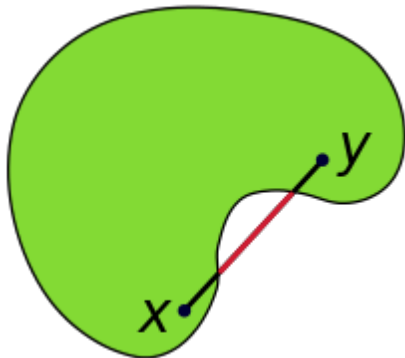
Convex Sets

Examples

Convex sets:



Nonconvex sets:



Convex Sets

Further examples of convex sets

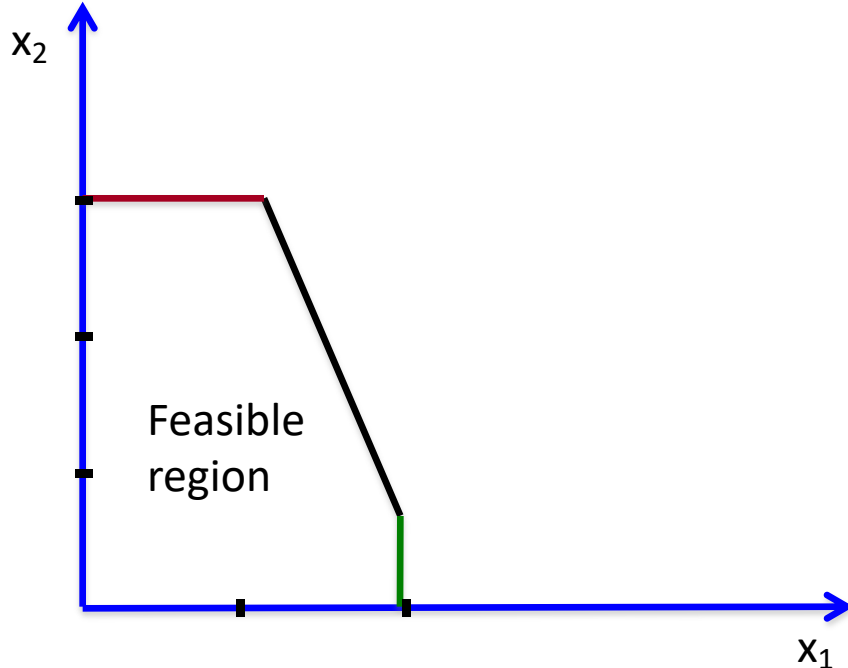
1. All of \mathbb{R}^n , for any dimension $n \geq 1$
2. The nonnegative orthant: points with all coordinates nonnegative
 - Since $ax + (1-a)y$ will also have nonnegative coordinates
3. The set of points contained within a ball
 - E.g. $\{x: \|x\|_2 \leq 1\}$
 - Since
$$\|ax + (1-a)y\|_2 \leq \|ax\|_2 + \|(1-a)y\|_2 \leq a\|x\|_2 + (1-a)\|y\|_2 \leq 1$$
4. Intersections of convex sets

Convex Sets

Further examples of convex sets

5. Feasible region of a linear program

- Convex polygon in 2 dimensions (when it is bounded)
- Convexity follows since it is an intersection of halfspaces



Convex Sets

Examples that do not involve \mathbb{R}^n

- The exact same definition of convexity can be applied for elements that are not points of \mathbb{R}^n

Definition: A real symmetric $n \times n$ matrix A is called positive semidefinite (PSD) if for every n -dimensional vector z

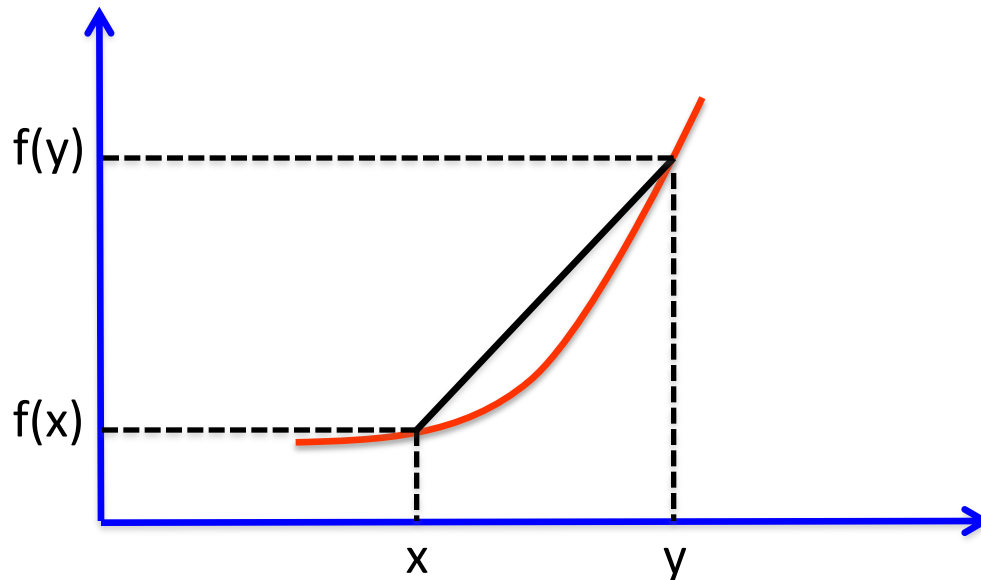
$$z^T \cdot A \cdot z \geq 0$$

Claim: The set of PSD matrices is a convex set
i.e., if A and B are PSD matrices, then $\lambda A + (1-\lambda)B$ is also PSD for any $\lambda \in [0, 1]$

Convex Functions

Definition: A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex if for any 2 points x, y , and for any $a \in [0, 1]$, we have that

$$f(ax + (1-a)y) \leq af(x) + (1-a)f(y)$$



- **Geometric interpretation:** the line connecting any 2 points $(x, f(x))$ $(y, f(y))$ must lie on or above the graph of the function

Convex Functions

Examples

- With 1 variable:
 - Exponential functions with base > 1 : 2^x , e^x , c^x for $c \geq 1$
 - Polynomial functions: x^3 , x^{10} , x^c , for $c \geq 1$
 - Linear functions: we have **exact equality** in the definition
- With many variables
 - Exponential functions: e^{x+y} , e^{x+y+z} ,
 - Negative of logarithms: $-\log(x + y)$
 - The sum of convex functions remains convex

Convex Functions

Equivalent definitions

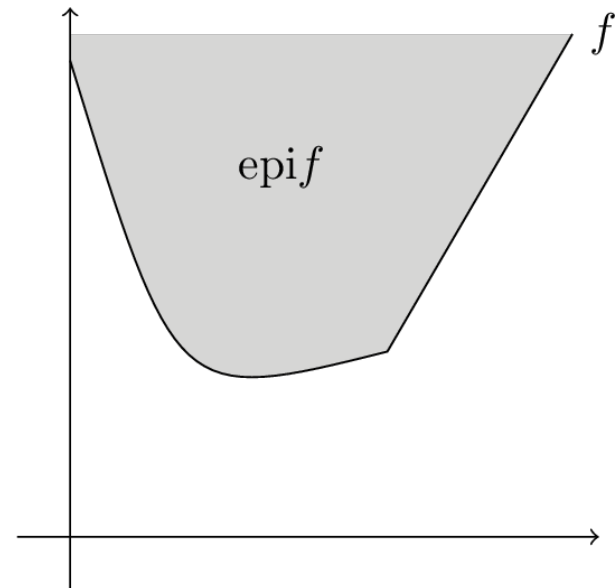
(1) Based on the epigraph

The epigraph of a function f is the set:

$$\text{epi } f = \{ (x, t) : t \geq f(x) \}$$

f is convex if and only if the epigraph of f is a convex set

- **Geometric interpretation:** the set of points that lie on or above the graph of the function should be a convex set



Convex Functions

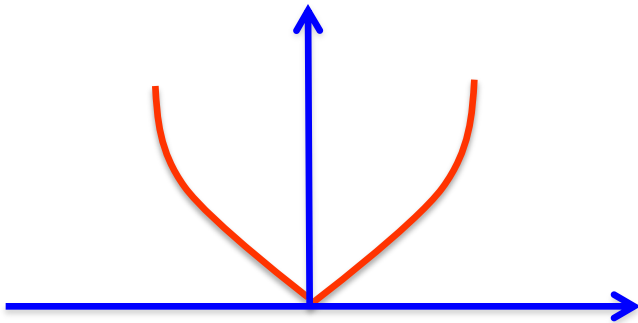
Equivalent definitions

(2) Based on the partial derivatives

Suppose that f is twice differentiable

For functions with 1 variable: f is convex if and only if $f''(x) \geq 0$, for every x

- The first derivative is increasing



e.g. for $f(x) = x^2$, $f''(x) = 2$ for every x

Convex Functions

Equivalent definitions

(2) Based on the partial derivatives

For functions with n variables: Define the Hessian of f at point x as the $n \times n$ array:

$$H(f, x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial^2 x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial^2 x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \cdots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial^2 x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

A function f is convex if and only if the Hessian is positive semidefinite for every x

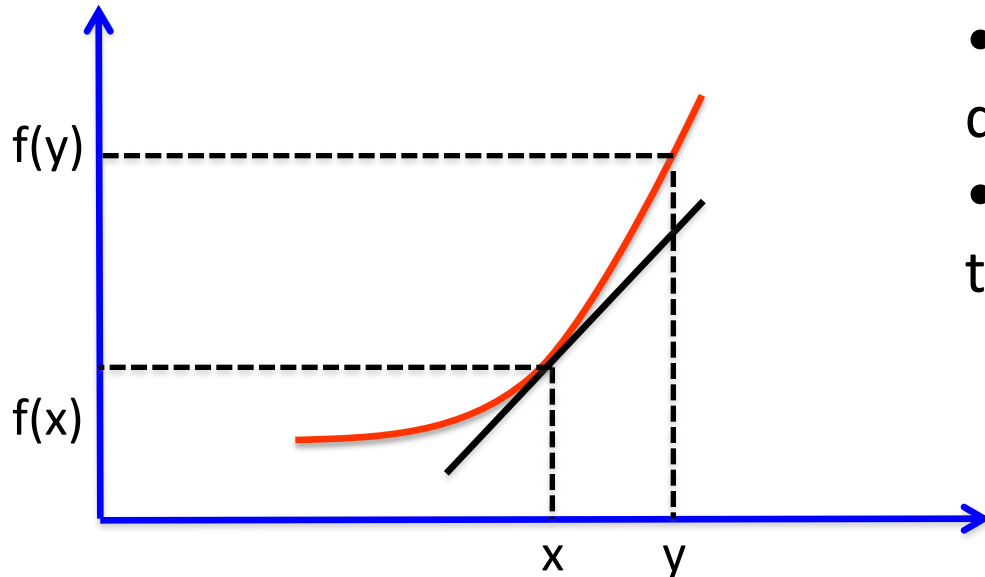
- Easy to see from Slide 13 that this holds for 1 dimension

Convex Functions

Equivalent definitions

(3) Based on the tangents to the graph of f

f is convex if and only if the graph of f lies on or above all its tangents:



Algebraically in 1 dimension:

- Slope of tangent at x = the derivative of f at x
- Hence, if f lies above all its tangents, then for every x, y :

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + f'(x)(y-x) \quad (*)$$

Convex Functions

Equivalent definitions

(3) Based on the tangents to the graph of f

For functions with n variables:

- Recall the gradient of a function

$$\nabla f(x) = \left(\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_n} \right)$$

- The gradient shows the rate of increase/decrease along each dimension just as the derivative does for one variable
- Generalizing (*) for many variables:

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T \cdot (y-x) \quad (**)$$

One of the most important properties of convex functions

Concave Functions

Sometimes we may also discuss concave functions

Definition: A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is concave if for any 2 points x, y , and for any $a \in [0, 1]$, we have that

$$f(ax + (1-a)y) \geq af(x) + (1-a)f(y)$$

- If f is concave, $-f$ is convex
- Hence, maximizing a concave function f can be reduced to minimizing a convex function

Convex Optimization Problems

Nonlinear Optimization Problems

General form of optimization problems:

- Both equality and inequality constraints present

$$\min f(x)$$

s. t.:

$$g_i(x) \leq 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, m$$

$$h_i(x) = 0, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, p$$

We say the above is a **convex optimization problem** when

- $f(x)$ is a **convex** function
- Each g_i is a **convex** function
- Each h_i is an **affine** function, $h_i = a_i^T x - b_i$

Convex Optimization

Applications of convex optimization:

- Machine learning: linear regression (least squares), classification (logistic regression, support vector machines)
- Statistics: parameter estimation
- Control theory
- Signal processing
- And many many more...

Convex Optimization

- For general non-convex problems, almost no hope
- There is no general approach that can work for any arbitrary optimization problem
- Some families of non-convex problems can be handled
- But when working under assumptions like convexity, or related properties (e.g. strong convexity), we can have guarantees for convergence and running time
- Still however not a standard technology, contrary to LP solvers
 - Commercial availability not as large as for LP solving but gradually changing

Unconstrained Convex Optimization

Unconstrained Optimization

- We start with the easier version that has no constraints
- Suppose we just want to minimize a function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ without any further constraints
 - Still interesting problem with many applications
- Assumption: f is twice continuously differentiable
- Necessary condition for a point x^* to be a minimum is
$$\nabla f(x^*) = 0$$
- **BUT:** for an arbitrary function f :
 - This is not a sufficient condition, many other points may satisfy this (such as local optima)

Unconstrained Optimization

- We start with the easier version that has no constraints
- Suppose we just want to minimize a function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ without any further constraints
 - Still interesting problem with many applications
- **Assumptions from now on** (unless otherwise stated)
 - f is **convex**, and twice continuously differentiable
 - The minimum of f is attained (and $\neq +\infty$ or $-\infty$)

Unconstrained Optimization

Why is it nice to be convex:

Theorem: For a convex function f , a point x^* is a global minimum of f if and only if $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$

Proof:

Recall the basic property of convex functions, i.e., inequality (**):

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T \cdot (y-x) \text{ for any 2 points } x, y$$

- Suppose there exists x^* for which $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$
- Then for every point y , inequality (**) implies $f(y) \geq f(x^*)$
- Hence x^* is a global minimum

Unconstrained Optimization

Why is it nice to be convex:

- The theorem makes our lives much easier (not trivial however)
 - It suffices to find a point where the derivatives become 0
 - Local minima are global minima, as with linear programs (recall the terminating condition of simplex)
 - If we can solve analytically the system $\nabla f(x) = 0$, then no need for an algorithm
- In many cases convexity helps us exploit the geometric intuition we have from polyhedra or linear programming problems

Unconstrained Optimization

Algorithms for convex unconstrained optimization:

- Iterative algorithms, updating a current feasible solution
- They produce a sequence of points $x^{(0)}, x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(k)}$ with the property that

$$f(x^{(k)}) \rightarrow p^* \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

- p^* is what we are after: $p^* = \inf_x f(x)$
 - We may never find the actual optimal solution
 - But we can get very close, in fact arbitrarily close if we allow enough iterations
- We can view these algorithms as iterative methods for solving the system $\nabla f(x) = 0$

Descent Methods

General form of descent methods

- Make a local update towards an appropriate direction
- Stop when $\nabla f(x)$ is close to 0
- **Initialization:** $k=0$, pick a starting point $x^{(0)}$, and a step size α_0
- **Update:**
 - Check if stopping criterion satisfied
 - If not, $x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + \alpha_k \Delta x^{(k)}$
 - $k++$
- **Usual stopping criterion:** $\|\nabla f(x^{(k)})\|_2 \leq \varepsilon$

Terminology:

- Δx : search direction
- α_k : step size, with $\alpha_k > 0$

Descent Methods

How should we pick the search direction?

- Need to ensure that for every iteration k , $f(\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$
- Convexity, i.e. using (**), implies we should to enforce that:
$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^\top \cdot \Delta \mathbf{x}^{(k)} < 0$$
- **Hence:** choosing the (negative) gradient itself for the search direction is a safe choice!

The Gradient Descent Method

One of the simplest algorithms in optimization: **Descend according to the gradient direction**

- **Initialization:** $k=0$, pick a starting point $x^{(0)}$, and a step size α_0
- **Update:**
 - Check if stopping criterion satisfied
 - If not, $x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \alpha_k \nabla f(x^{(k)})$
 - $k++$
- **Stopping criterion** $\|\nabla f(x^{(k)})\|_2 \leq \varepsilon$
 - If e.g., $\|\nabla f(x^{(k)})\|_2 \leq (2m\varepsilon)^{1/2}$, where m is a lower bound on the minimum eigenvalue of $H(f, x)$, then $f(x) - p^* \leq \varepsilon$

The Gradient Descent Method

How should we pick the step size α_k ?

- **First idea:** Exact line search
 - Find the minimum value of f along the gradient direction:
$$\alpha_k = \operatorname{argmin}_s f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - s \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}))$$
 - 1-dimensional problem
 - E.g., we could solve it via Newton's method
 - But often too time consuming in practice

The Gradient Descent Method

How should we pick the step size α_k ?

- **Second idea: Backtracking line search**, an approximate solution to the exact line search
 - Try to approximately minimize f along the ray $x - s\nabla f(x^{(k)})$
 - Essentially make sure the function decreases “enough”
 - Many variants in the literature, e.g.

Keep setting $s := \beta s$ while

$$f(x - s\nabla f(x^{(k)})) > f(x^{(k)}) - \alpha s \cdot \|\nabla f(x^{(k)})\|_2^2$$

for $\beta < 1$, $\alpha < 1/2$

- Works well in practice

Descent Methods

Example 1:

Consider the function $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 - 2x_1x_2$

Execute the first 2 steps of gradient descent with exact line search, starting from $x^{(0)} = (1, 1)$

Descent Methods

Example 2:

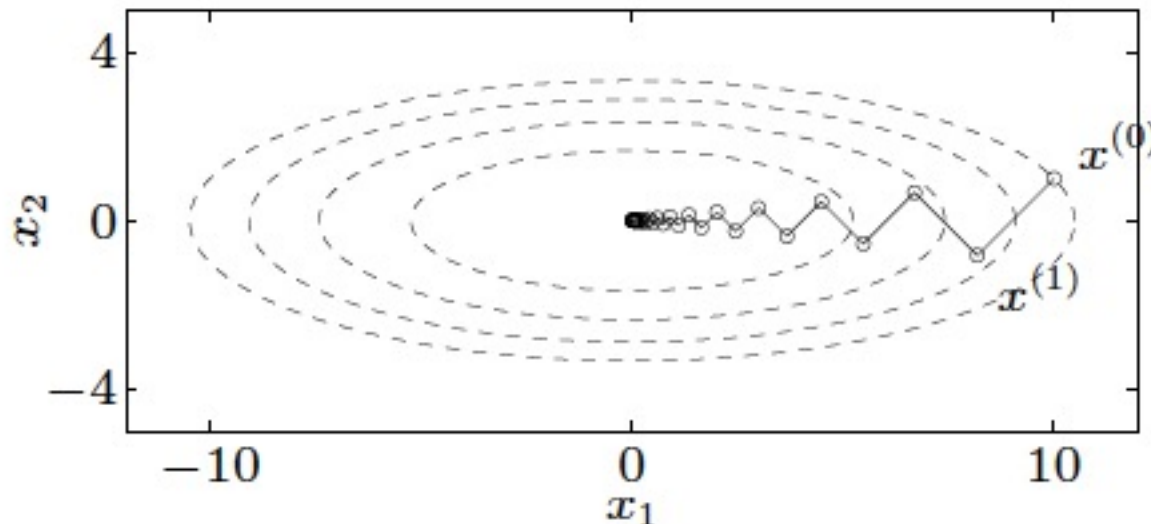
Consider the function $f(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + \gamma x_2^2)$, $\gamma > 0$

Start at $x^{(0)} = (\gamma, 1)$

After k iterations of gradient descent, we get:

$$x^{(k)} = \left(\gamma \left(\frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma + 1} \right)^k, \left(-\frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma + 1} \right)^k \right)$$

Run with $\gamma = 10$



Convergence analysis

Can we establish convergence properties for the gradient descent method?

- Empirically, it works well on average for convex functions
- Theoretically, upper bounds can be obtained when assuming **strong convexity**

Definition: A function is strongly convex when there exists $m > 0$ such that for any x ,

$$H(f, x) \geq m \cdot I$$

- I is the identity matrix

Convergence analysis

- Strong convexity together with (**) implies that there also exists upper bounds on the Hessian
- Hence, there exist $m > 0$ and $M > 0$ such that for every x :
$$m \cdot I \leq H(f, x) \leq M \cdot I$$
- Convergence results on the number of iterations depend on
 - m and M
 - The initial solution $x^{(0)}$
 - The accuracy parameter in the stopping criterion
- **Note:** we may not be aware of the values for m and M
 - It might be difficult to estimate for some functions
 - So, we may not know how many iterations we need
- Still, these bounds are conceptually useful
 - They provide a guarantee that the method converges

Convergence analysis

- A relatively loose analysis with exact line search
- **Theorem:** For strongly convex functions, the number of iterations required by the gradient descent method is bounded by

$$\log((f(x^{(0)}) - p^*)/\varepsilon) / \log(1/c)$$

where

- $c = 1 - m/M < 1$
- $p^* = \min_x f(x)$
- ε = accuracy parameter (= final suboptimality)
- $f(x^{(0)}) - p^*$ = initial suboptimality
- Thus, nominator = log of initial suboptimality to final suboptimality
- **Conclusions:** The error $f(x^{(k)}) - p^*$ converges to 0 at least as fast as a geometric series
 - i.e., linear convergence
- With backtracking line search, slightly worse bounds can also be established

The Newton Method

A different descent method with favorable performance

- It is instructive to see first the method in 1 dimension
 - When $n=1$, we search for a point x , where $f'(x) = 0$
 - Suppose after k iterations, we have reached a point x_k
 - How shall we move to the next iteration and pick x_{k+1} ?

Newton's method for $n=1$:

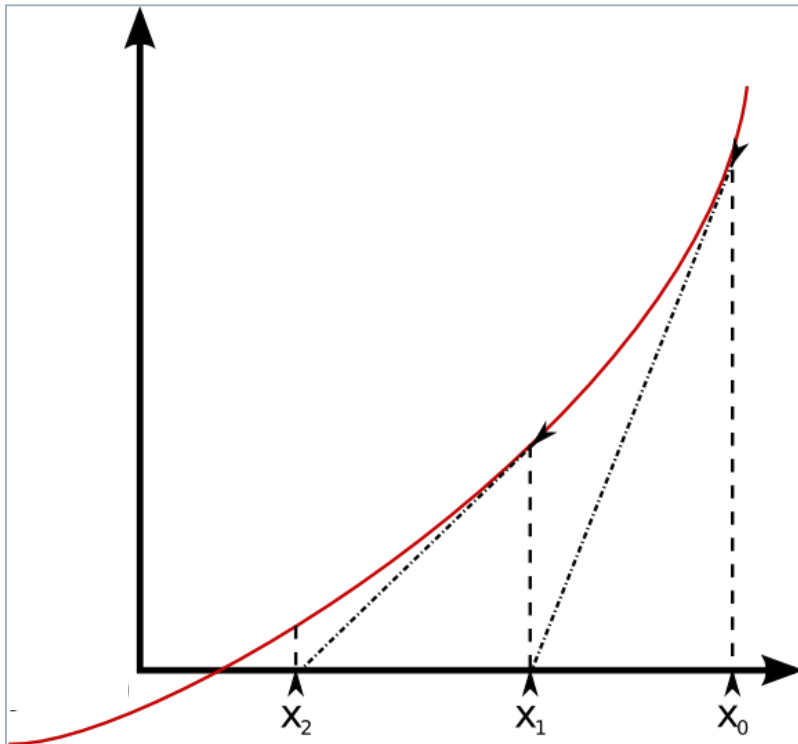
$$x_{k+1} = x_k - (f'(x_k)/f''(x_k))$$

Also referred to as the Newton-Raphson method

The Newton Method

Newton's method for $n=1$:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - (f'(x_k)/f''(x_k))$$



Geometric interpretation:

- Consider the plot of the derivative f'
- By convexity the first derivative is an increasing function
- Draw the tangent at x_k
- Slope of the tangent = $f''(x_k)$
- Find the point where the tangent hits the x-axis
- This is given by solving the equation
$$0 = f'(x_k) + f''(x_k)(x - x_k)$$

The Newton Method

Newton's method for $n=1$:

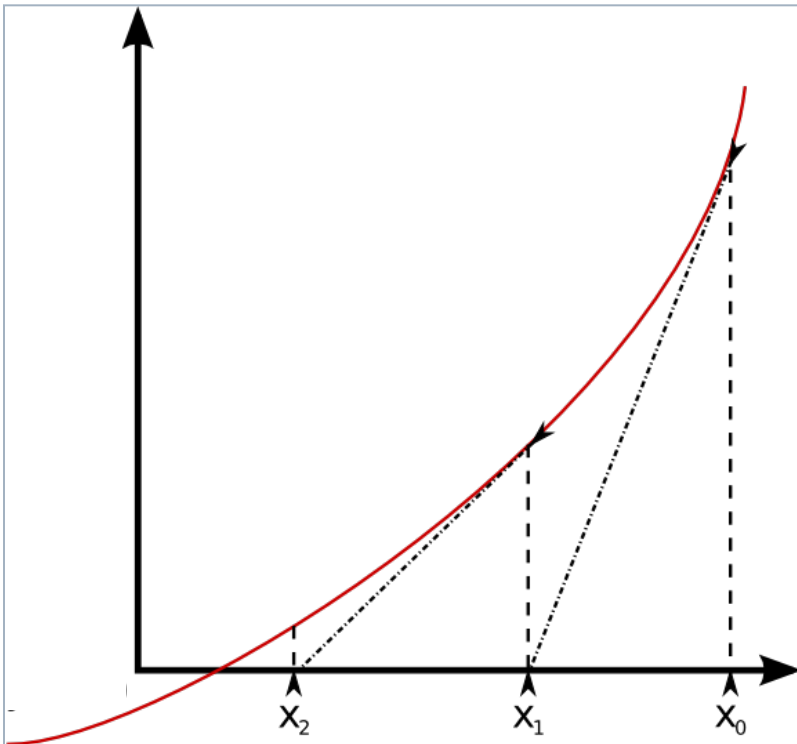
$$x_{k+1} = x_k - (f'(x_k)/f''(x_k))$$

Algebraic intuition:

- Consider the 2nd order Taylor approximation:

$$f(x_{k+1}) = f(x_k) + f'(x_k)(x_{k+1} - x_k) + f''(x_k)(x_{k+1} - x_k)^2/2$$

- How would we choose to move from x_k to x_{k+1} ?
- Set derivative (with respect to x_{k+1}) = 0
 $\Rightarrow x_{k+1} = x_k - f'(x)/f''(x)$
- x_{k+1} is the minimizer of g
- If f is close to a quadratic function, then the Newton step is close to the best possible



The Newton Method

For many variables, we can generalize the same intuition:

- 2nd order Taylor approximation for a function of n variables
- Now x and δ are n-dimensional vectors

$$f(x+\delta) = f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T \cdot \delta + \frac{1}{2} \delta^T \cdot H(f, x) \cdot \delta$$

If we try to minimize with respect to δ ($=\Delta x$), we get that:

$$\delta = - H(f, x)^{-1} \nabla f(x)$$

- Is this a descent direction?
- To be aligned with the convexity of f we need to check that:
 $-\nabla f(x)^T \cdot (H(f, x)^{-1} \cdot \nabla f(x)) < 0,$

But the Hessian is a PSD matrix!

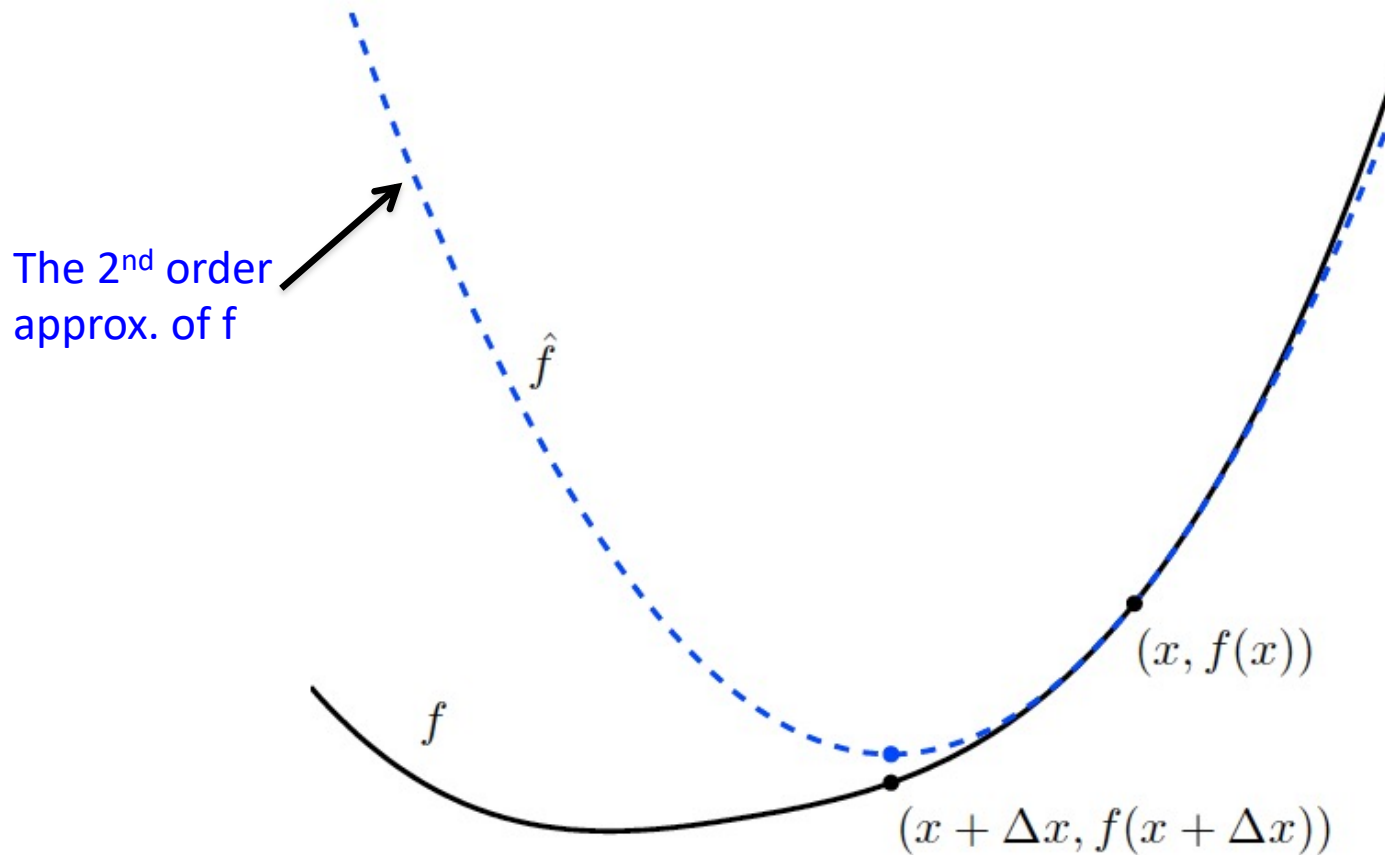
The Newton Method

Summarizing:

- **Initialization:** $k=0$, pick a starting point $x^{(0)}$, and a step size α_0
- **Update:**
 - Check if stopping criterion satisfied
 - If not, $x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \alpha_k H(f, x^{(k)})^{-1} \cdot \nabla f(x^{(k)})$
 - $k++$
- **Usual stopping criterion:**
 - Let $\lambda := (\nabla f(x^{(k)})^\top \cdot H(f, x^{(k)}) \cdot \nabla f(x^{(k)}))^{1/2}$
 - Stop when $1/2\lambda^2 \leq \varepsilon$
 - λ is called the Newton decrement
 - Useful parameter for the analysis of the method

The Newton Method

- Progress made using the 2nd order approximation



The Newton Method

- Pros
 - It is fast in general
 - Scales well with problem size
 - Performance not depend on problem parameters (?)
- Cons
 - Cost of computing the Hessian
- Convergence analysis
 - Can be established in a similar way as with gradient descent
 - Theoretical upper bound: proportional to $f(x^{(0)}) - p^*$