Module 6: Nonlinear Programs

CO 250: Introduction to Optimization David Duan, 2019 Spring

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Lecture 26. Convexity

26.1 Nonlinear Programs

Definition 26.1.1 A nonlinear program (NLP) is a program of the form

$$egin{array}{lll} \min & f(x) \ s.\,t. & g_i(x) \leq 0 \quad (i=1,\ldots,k) \end{array}$$

where $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ and $g_i : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ for $i = 1, \ldots, k$.

Example 26.1.2

Remark 26.1.3 We may assume f(x) is a *linear* function, i.e., $f(x) = c^T x$.

Remark 26.1.4 We can rewrite (P) as

$$egin{array}{lll} \min & \lambda \ s.\,t. & \lambda \geq f(x) \ g_i(x) \leq 0 & (i=1,\ldots,k) \end{array} \end{array} (Q)$$

The optimal solution to (Q) will have $\lambda = f(x)$.

Remark 26.1.5 Recall $x_j \in \{0,1\} \iff x_j(1-x_j) = 0$. Thus NLPs generalize binary IPs:

$$egin{array}{lll} \max & c^Tx & \min & -c^Tx \ s.t. & Ax \leq b \ x_j \in \{0,1\} & (j=1,\ldots,n) & \displaystyle lpha & x_j(1-x_j) \leq 0 & (j=1,\ldots,n) \ -x_j(1-x_j) \leq 0 & (j=1,\ldots,n) \end{array}$$

Remark 26.1.6 Recall $x_j \in \mathbb{Z} \iff \sin(\pi x) = 0$. Thus NLPs generalize pure IPs:

$$egin{array}{lll} \max & c^Tx & \min & -c^Tx \ s.\,t. & Ax \leq b & \Longleftrightarrow & s.\,t. & Ax \leq b \ & x_j \in \mathbb{Z} & (j=1,\ldots,n) & & \sin(\pi x)=0 & (j=1,\ldots,n) \end{array}$$

26.2 Convex Sets

Definition 26.2.1 Consider (P) := min{ $f(x) : x \in S$ }. We call $x \in S$ a local optimum if there exists $\delta > 0$ such that

$$orall x' \in S: \|x'-x\| \leq \delta \implies f(x) \leq f(x').$$

Proposition 26.2.2 Consider (P) := $\min\{f(x) : x \in S\}$. If S is convex and x is a local optimum, then x is optimal.

Proof. Let x be the local optimum. Suppose to the contrary that $\exists x' \in S$ with $c^T x' < c^T x$. Let $y = \lambda x' + (1 - \lambda)x$ for $\lambda > 0$ small. Since S is convex, $y \in S$. For λ small, $||y - x|| \leq \delta$, then

$$egin{aligned} c^T y &= c^T (\lambda x' + (1-\lambda)x) \ &= \lambda c^T x' + (1-\lambda) c^T x \ &< \lambda c^T x + (1-\lambda) c^T x \ &= c^T x. \end{aligned}$$

This contradicts the optimality of x. \Box

26.3 Convex Functions

Definition 26.3.1 A function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is **convex** if for all $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $f(\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b) \leq \lambda f(a) + (1 - \lambda)f(b)$ for all $0 \leq \lambda \leq 1$.

Proposition 26.3.2 Let $g : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be a *convex function* and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}$. It follows that $S = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : g(x) \leq \beta\}$ is a convex set.

Proof. Let $a, b \in S$ and $\lambda \in [0, 1]$. Let $x = \lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b$. We want to show that $x \in S$, i.e., $g(x) \leq \beta$:

$$egin{array}{lll} g(x) &= g(\lambda a + (1-\lambda)b) \ &\leq \lambda g(a) + (1-\lambda)g(b) & ext{ convexity of } g \ &\leq \lambda eta + (1-\lambda)eta & ext{ (a, b \in S)} \ &= eta & \Box \end{array}$$

Proposition 26.3.3 If all constraint functions g_i are convex for (P), then the feasible region of (P) is convex.

Proof. Let $S_i = \{x : g_i(x) \leq 0\}$. By Proposition 26.3.2, S_i is convex. The feasible region of (P) is $S_1 \cap S_2 \cap \cdots \cap S_k$. Since the intersection of convex sets is convex, the result follows. \Box

26.4 Convex Functions vs. Convex Sets

Definition 26.4.1 Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function. The **epigraph** of f is given by

$$epi(f) = \left\{ inom{y}{x} : y \geq f(x), x \in \mathbb{R}^n
ight\} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^{n+1}.$$

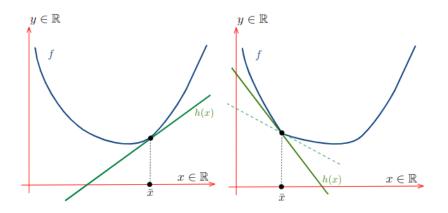
Proposition 26.4.2 Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be a function. It follows that f is convex if and only if epi(f) is a convex set.

Proof. Suppose f is convex. Pick $\binom{\alpha}{a}, \binom{\beta}{b} \in epi(f)$ and $\lambda \in [0, 1]$. Observe $f(\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b) \leq \lambda f(a) + (1 - \lambda)f(b) \leq \lambda \alpha + (1 - \lambda)\beta$ as $f(a) \leq \alpha$ and $f(b) \leq \beta$. Thus $\lambda \binom{\alpha}{a} + (1 - \lambda)\binom{\beta}{b} = \binom{\lambda \alpha + (1 - \lambda)\beta}{\lambda a + (1 - \lambda)b} \in epi(f).$

The other direction is left for exercise. \Box

Lecture 27. KKT Theorem

27.1 Subgradient



Definition 27.1.1 Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be a convex function and $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Then, $s \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a subgradient of f at \bar{x} if $h(x) := f(\bar{x}) + s^T(x - \bar{x}) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Remark 27.1.2 There are three key points in this definition:

- h(x) is affine: Observe $h(x) = s^T x + b$ where $b = f(\bar{x}) s^T \bar{x}$ is a constant vector.
- $h(\bar{x}) = f(\bar{x})$: The affine function h(x) touches the convex function f(x) at \bar{x} .
- h is a lower bound for f: We restrict that for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $h(x) \leq f(x)$.

Remark 27.1.3 Remarks on subgradients and subdifferentials.

- The subgradient generalize the derivative to convex functions which are not necessarily differentiable. They arise in convex analysis, the study of convex functions, often in connection to convex optimization.
- Let $f: I \to \mathbb{R}$ be a real-valued function defined on an open interval of the real line. Such a function need not be differentiable at all points. For example, the absolute value function f(x) = |x| is non-differentiable when x = 0. However, for any x_0 in the domain of the function one can draw a line which goes through the point $(x_0, f(x_0))$ and which is everywhere either touching or below the graph of f. The slope of such a line is called a subgradient or subderivative (because the line is under the graph of f).
- Rigorously, a subderivative of a function f: I → R at a point x₀ ∈ I open is c ∈ R such that f(x) f(x₀) ≥ c(x x₀) for all x ∈ I. We can show that the set of subderivatives at x₀ for a convex function is a non-empty closed interval [a, b], where a and b are one-sided limits as x → x₀, which are guaranteed to exist and satisfy a ≤ b. The set [a, b] of all subderivatives is called the *subdifferential* of the function f at x₀. Since f is convex, if its subdifferential at x₀ contains exactly one subderivative, then f is differentiable at x₀. Putting together, a convex function f : I → R is differentiable at x₀.
- A point x_0 is a global minimum of a convex function f if and only if zero is contained in the subdifferential, that is, one may draw a horizontal "subtangent line" to the graph of f at

 $(x_0, f(x_0))$. This is a generalization of the fact that the derivative of a function differentiable at a local minimum is zero.

• The concepts of subderivative and subdifferential can be generalized to functions of several variables. If $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$ is a real-valued convex function defined on a convex open set in the Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n , a vector v in the space is called a subgradient at $x_0 \in U$ if for any $x \in U$ one has $f(x) - f(x_0) \geq v \cdot (x - x_0)$, where the dot denotes the dot product. The set of all subgradients at x_0 is called the subdifferential at x_0 and is denoted $\partial f(x_0)$. The subdifferential is always a non-empty convex compact set.

Example 27.1.4 Consider $f : \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$ where $f(x) = -x_1 + x_2^2$ and $\bar{x} = (1, 1)^T$. We claim that $(-1, 2)^T$ is a subgradient of f at \bar{x} .

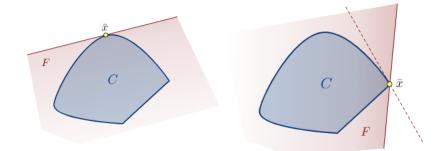
• Evaluate h(x):

$$h(x) = f(ar{x}) + s^T(x-ar{x}) = 0 + (-1,2)(x-(1,1)^T) = -x_1 + 2x_2 - 1 \implies h(1,1) = f(1,1).$$

• Check $h(x) \leq f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$:

$$(x_2-1)^2 = x_2-2x_2+1 \geq 0 \implies -x_1+2x_2-1 \leq -x_1+x_2^2. \quad \Box$$

27.2 Supporting Halfspace



Definition 27.2.1 Let $C \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be a convex set and $\bar{x} \in C$. The halfspace $F = \{x : s^T x \leq \beta\}$ is supporting C at \bar{x} if

- 1. $C \subseteq F$ and
- 2. $s^T \bar{x} = \beta$. That is, \bar{x} is on the boundary of F.

Remark 27.2.2 Remarks on halfspaces.

- A halfspace is either of the two parts into which a plane divides the 3D Euclidean space. More generally, it is either of the two parts into which a hyperplane divides an affine plane. That is, the points that are not incident to the hyperplane are partitioned into two convex sets (i.e., half-spaces), such that any subspace connecting a point in one set to a point in the other must intersect the hyperplane.
- A 2D halfspace is called halfplane; a 1D halfspace is a ray.

- An open halfspace is specified by $a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n > b$; a closed halfspace is specified by $a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n > b$; a closed halfspace is specified by $a_1x_1 + \cdots + a_nx_n \geq b$. Here, one assumes that not all a_1, \ldots, a_n are zero.
- The epigraph of a real-valued function f is a halfspace if and only if f is a real valued-affine function.

Remark 27.2.3. Remarks on support hyperplane.

- A supporting hyperplane of a set S in Euclidean space \mathbb{R}^n is a hyperplane that has both of the following properties:
 - 1. S is entirely contained in one of the two closed halfspaces bounded by the hyperplane.
 - 2. S has at least one boundary point on the hyperplane.
- In 1D, C is a segment, F is a ray, and they have one endpoint together.

Proposition 27.2.4

- Let $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be convex and let \bar{x} where $g(\bar{x}) = 0$.
- Let s be a subgradient of g at \bar{x} .
- Let $C = \{x : g(x) \le 0\}.$
- Let $F = \{x : h(x) := g(\bar{x}) + s^T (x \bar{x}) \le 0\}.$
- Then, F is a supporting halfspace of C at \bar{x} .

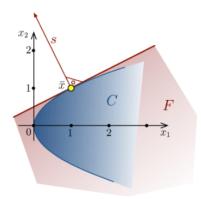
Remark 27.2.5 We make the following observations:

- 1. By 26.2.2, since g is a convex, C is a convex set.
- 2. F is a halfspace as h(x) is an affine function.
- 3. $h(\bar{x}) = g(\bar{x}) = 0$, thus, \bar{x} is on the boundary of F.

Proof.

- 1. $C \subseteq F$: Let $x \in C$, i.e., $g(x) \leq 0$. By definition of a subgradient, we know that $h(x) \leq g(x)$. It follows that $h(x) \leq g(x) \leq 0$. Hence $x \in F$.
- 2. $h(\bar{x}) = 0$: $h(\bar{x}) = g(\bar{x}) = 0$. \Box

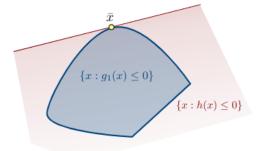
Example 27.2.6 Given $g(x) = x_2^2 - x_1$, $\bar{x} = (1, 1)^T$, $s = (-1, 2)^T$.



The subgradient h(x) at \bar{x} is $0 + (-1, 2)[(x_1, x_2)^T - (1, 1)^T] = -x_1 + 2x_2 - 1$. Let $F = \{x : -x_1 + 2x_2 \le 1\}$. We see that F is the supporting halfspace of C.

27.3 LP Relaxation of NLP

Remark 27.3.1 We can use this proposition to construct relaxations of NLPs. Suppose we are given NLP $\min\{c^T x : g_i(x) \le 0, i = 1, ..., k\}$. Let \bar{x} be a feasible solution, g_1 be convex, $g_1(\bar{x}) = 0$, and s be a subgradient for g_1 at \bar{x} . If we replace the nonlinear constraint $g_1(x) \le 0$ with the linear constraint $h(x) = g_1(\bar{x}) + s^T(x - \bar{x}) \le 0$, we get a relaxation.



This motivates the following proposition.

Proposition 27.3.2 Given NLP $\min\{c^T x : g_i(x) \le 0, i = 1, ..., k\}$, suppose $g_1, ..., g_k$ are all convex, \bar{x} is a feasible solution, $g_i(\bar{x}) = 0$ for all $i \in I$ and $s^{(i)}$ is a subgradient for g_i at \bar{x} for all $i \in I$. If $-c \in \operatorname{cone}\{s^{(i)} : i \in I\}$, then \bar{x} is optimal.

Proof. Rewrite the constraints as $P_i = s^{(i)}x \leq s^{(i)}\bar{x} - g_i(\bar{x})$ and we get a relaxation $\max\{-c^Tx : P_i, i \in I\}$. From previous theorem, \bar{x} is optimal for the relaxation if $-c \in \operatorname{cone}\{s^{(i)} : i \in I\}$. This means that \bar{x} is also optimal for the NLP. \Box

Example 27.3.3

$$egin{array}{lll} \min & -x_1-x_2 \ s.\,t. & -x_2+x_1^2 \leq 0 \ & -x_1+x_2^2 \leq 0 \ & -x_1+rac{1}{2} \leq 0 \end{array}$$

Observe $\bar{x} = (1,1)^T$ is feasible, $I = \{1,2\}, (2,-1)^T$ is a subgradient for g_1 at $\bar{x}, (-1,2)^T$ is a subgradient for g_2 at \bar{x} . Since $-(-1,-1) \in \operatorname{cone}\{(2,-1),(-1,2)\}$, we get \bar{x} optimal.

27.4 KKT

Proposition 27.4.1 Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ be a convex function and let $\bar{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$. If the gradient $\nabla f(\bar{x})$ of f exists at \bar{x} , then it is a subgradient.

Definition 27.4.2 A feasible solution to \bar{x} is a **Slater point** of $\min\{c^T x : g_i(x) \le 0, i \in J\}$ if $g_i(\bar{x}) < 0$ for all $i \in J$, i.e., every inequality is satisfied strictly by \bar{x} .

Theorem 27.4.3 [KKT] Given NLP min{ $c^T x : g_i(x) \leq 0, i \in J$ }, if

- 1. g_i is convex for all $i \in J$,
- 2. There exists a Slater point,
- 3. \bar{x} is a feasible solution,
- 4. *I* is the set of indices *i* for which $g_i(\bar{x}) = 0$, and
- 5. For all $i \in I$ there exists a gradient $\nabla g_i(\bar{x})$ of g_i at \bar{x} .

Then \bar{x} is optimal if and only if $-c \in \operatorname{cone}\{\nabla g_i(\bar{x}) : i \in I\}$.

Proof. We proved the \Leftarrow direction in 27.3.5. The other direction is omitted. \Box