PAGES 216 TO 231 OF http://www.cse.iitb.ac.in/~ cs709/notes/BasicsOfConvexOptimiz ation.pdf, interspersed with pages between 239 and 253 and summary of material thereafter, which extend univariate concepts to generic spaces

Maximum and Minimum values of univariate functions

Let f be a function with domain \mathcal{D} . Then f has an *absolute maximum* (or global maximum) value at point $c \in \mathcal{D}$ if

 $f(x) \le f(c), \ \forall x \in \mathcal{D}$

and an *absolute minimum* (or global minimum) value at $c \in \mathcal{D}$ if

 $f(x) \ge f(c), \ \forall x \in \mathcal{D}$

If there is an open interval \mathcal{I} containing c in which $f(c) \geq f(x)$, $\forall x \in \mathcal{I}$, then we say that f(c) is a *local maximum value* of f. On the other hand, ifthere is an open interval \mathcal{I} containing c in which $f(c) \leq f(x)$, $\forall x \in \mathcal{I}$, then we say that f(c) is a *local minimum value* of f. If f(c) is either a local maximum or local minimum value of f in an open interval \mathcal{I} with $c \in \mathcal{I}$, the f(c) is called a *local extreme value* of f.

Theorem 39 If f(c) is a local extreme value and if f is differentiable at x = c, then f'(c) = 0. $\rightarrow |f a|| p \cdot ds$ of $f excet at x = c \oplus D \subseteq R^{\circ}$ $4 |f f(c) = b \cdot a| extreme of <math>f(c) = 0$

Theorem 40 A continuous function f(x) on a closed and bounded interval [a,b] attains a minimum value f(c) for some $c \in [a,b]$ and a maximum value f(d) for some $d \in [a,b]$. That is, a continuous function on a closed, bounded interval attains a minimum and a maximum value.

Keplace with sets fork

Note: [a, ∞) is closed bat NOT bounded So both conditions are needed

FOR Rn

Theorem 60 If $f(\mathbf{x})$ defined on a domain $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \Re^n$ has a local maximum or minimum at \mathbf{x}^* and if the first-order partial derivatives exist at \mathbf{x}^* , then $f_{x_i}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$ for all $1 \le i \le n$.

Definition 27 [Critical point]: A point \mathbf{x}^* is called a critical point of a function $f(\mathbf{x})$ defined on $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \Re^n$ if

- 1. If $f_{x_i}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$, for $1 \le i \le n$.
- 2. OR $f_{x_i}(\mathbf{x}^*)$ fails to exist for any $1 \leq i \leq n$.

A procedure for computing all critical points of a function f is:

- 1. Compute f_{x_i} for $1 \le i \le n$.
- 2. Determine if there are any points where any one of f_{x_i} fails to exist. Add such points (if any) to the list of critical points.
- 3. Solve the system of equations $f_{x_i} = 0$ simultaneously. Add the solution points to the list of saddle points.

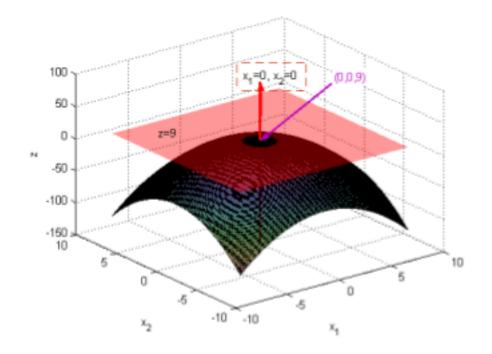
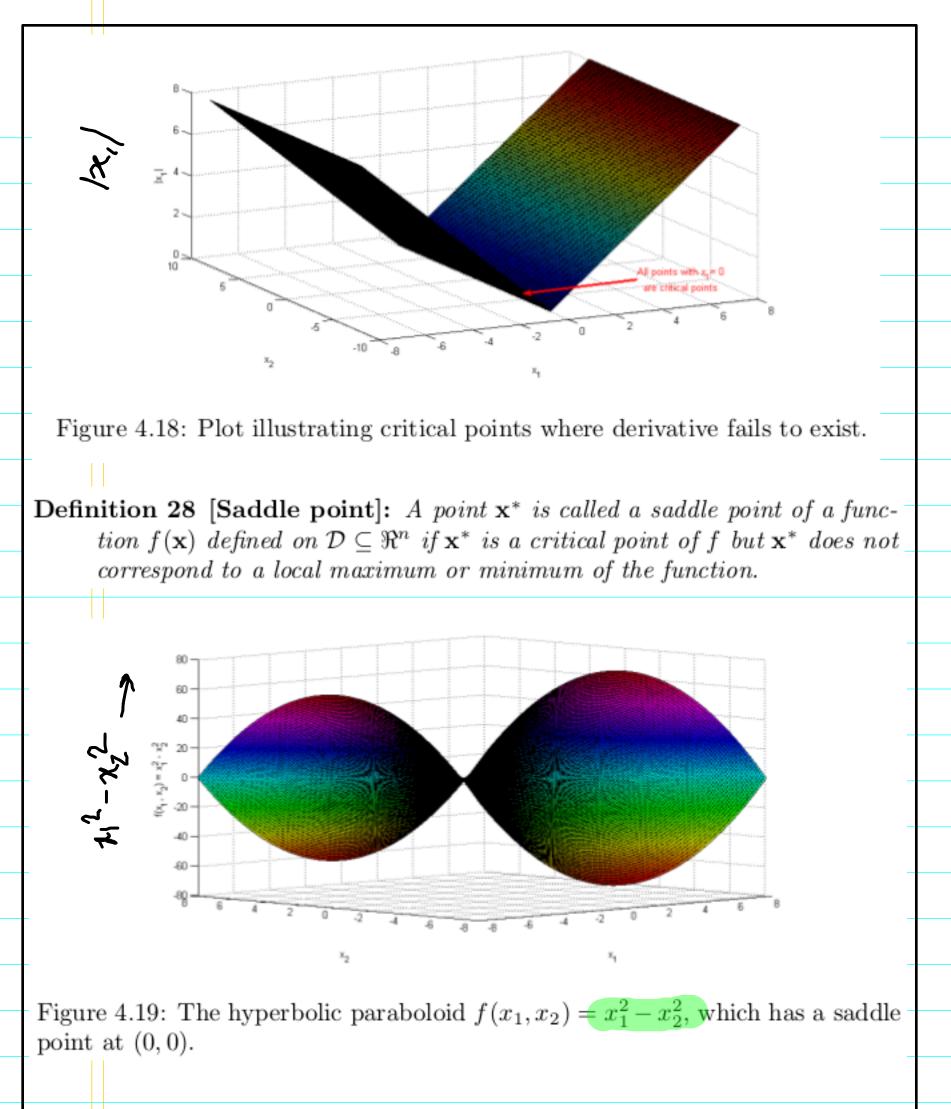


Figure 4.17: The paraboloid $f(x_1, x_2) = 9 - x_1^2 - x_2^2$ attains its maximum at (0,0). The tanget plane to the surface at (0,0, f(0,0)) is also shown, and so is



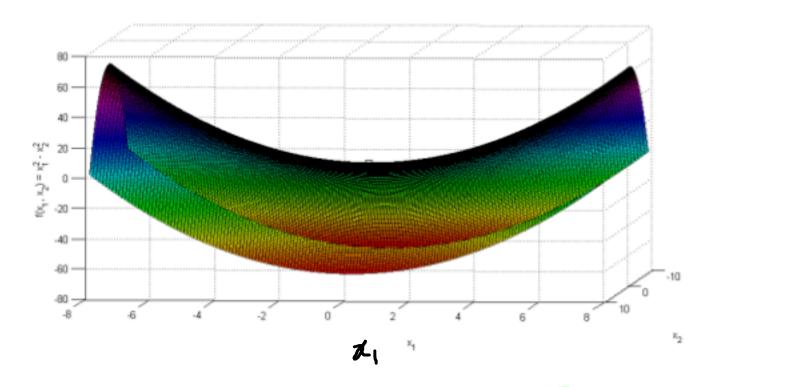


Figure 4.20: The hyperbolic paraboloid $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - x_2^2$, when viewed from the x_1 axis is concave up.

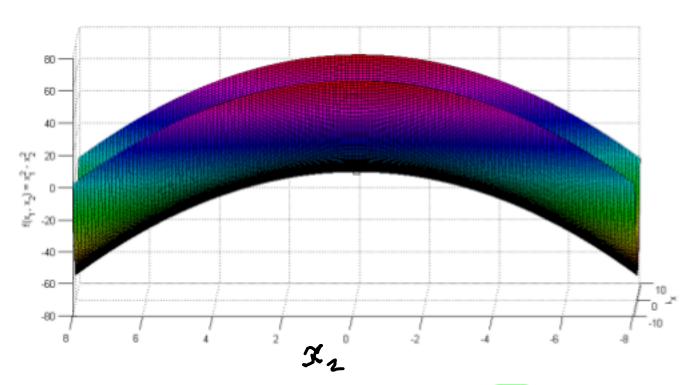
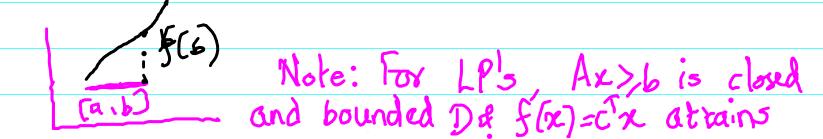


Figure 4.21: The hyperbolic paraboloid $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - x_2^2$, when viewed from the x_2 axis is concave down.



Theorem 41 A continuous function f(x) on a closed and bounded interval [a, b]attains a minimum value f(c) for some $c \in [a, b]$ and a maximum value f(d)for some $d \in [a, b]$. If a < c < b and f'(c) exists, then f'(c) = 0. If a < d < band f'(d) exists, then f'(d) = 0. If f = 0 is closed f bounded f = 1 is closed f = 0. If f = 0 is closed f = 0. If f = 0 is closed f = 0. Theorem 42 If f is continuous on [a, b] and differentiable at all $x \in (a, b)$ and if f(a) = f(b), then f'(c) = 0 for some $c \in (a, b)$.

Figure 4.1 illustrates Rolle's theorem with an example function $f(x) = 9-x^2$ on the interval [-3, +3].

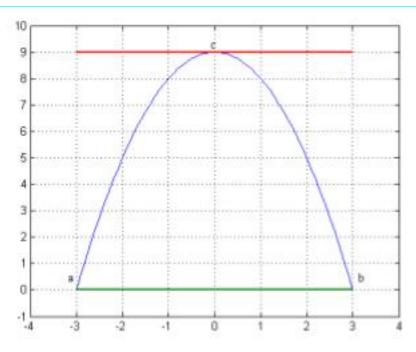


Figure 4.1: Illustration of Rolle's theorem with $f(x) = 9 - x^2$ on the interval [-3, +3]. We see that f'(0) = 0.

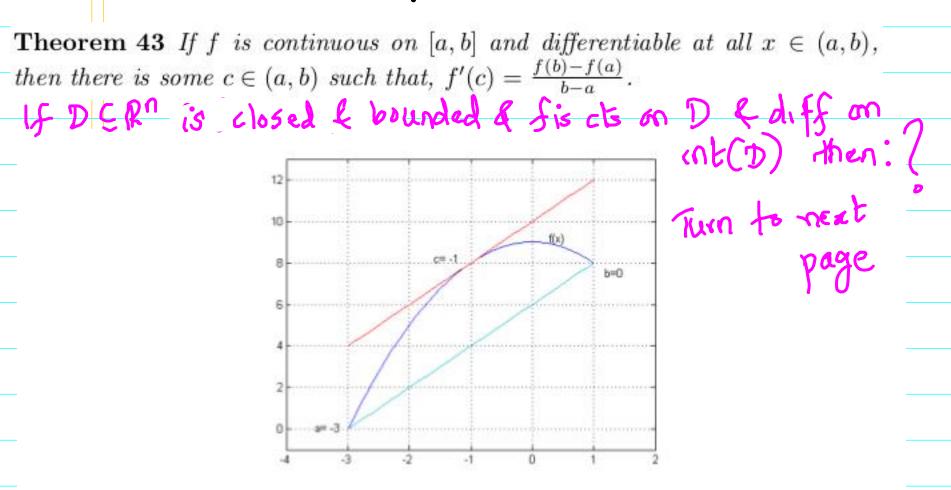


Figure 4.2: Illustration of mean value theorem with $f(x) = 9 - x^2$ on the interval [-3, 1]. We see that $f'(-1) = \frac{f(1) - f(-3)}{4}$.

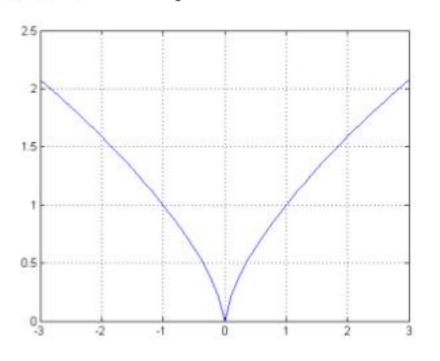


Figure 4.4: The mean value theorem can be violated if f(x) is not differentiable at even a single point of the interval. Illustration on $f(x) = x^{2/3}$ with the

The mean value theorem in one variable generalizes to several variables by applying the theorem in one variable via parametrization. Let G be an open subset of \mathbb{R}^n , and let $f: G \to \mathbb{R}$ be a differentiable function. Fix points $x, y \in G$ such that the interval x y lies in G, and define g(t) = f((1 - t)x + ty). Since g is a differentiable function in one variable, the mean value theorem gives:

$$g(1) - g(0) = g'(c)$$

for some c between 0 and 1. But since g(1) = f(y) and g(0) = f(x), computing g'(c) explicitly we have:

$$f(y) - f(x) = \nabla f((1-c)x + cy) \cdot (y - x)$$
Convexity of the domain is fundamental
ance $y \in C[0, \int], \frac{\chi(1-t) + ty \in Ponies}{1 + ty \in Ponies}$
That is, we taguise convexity if
set in some sense

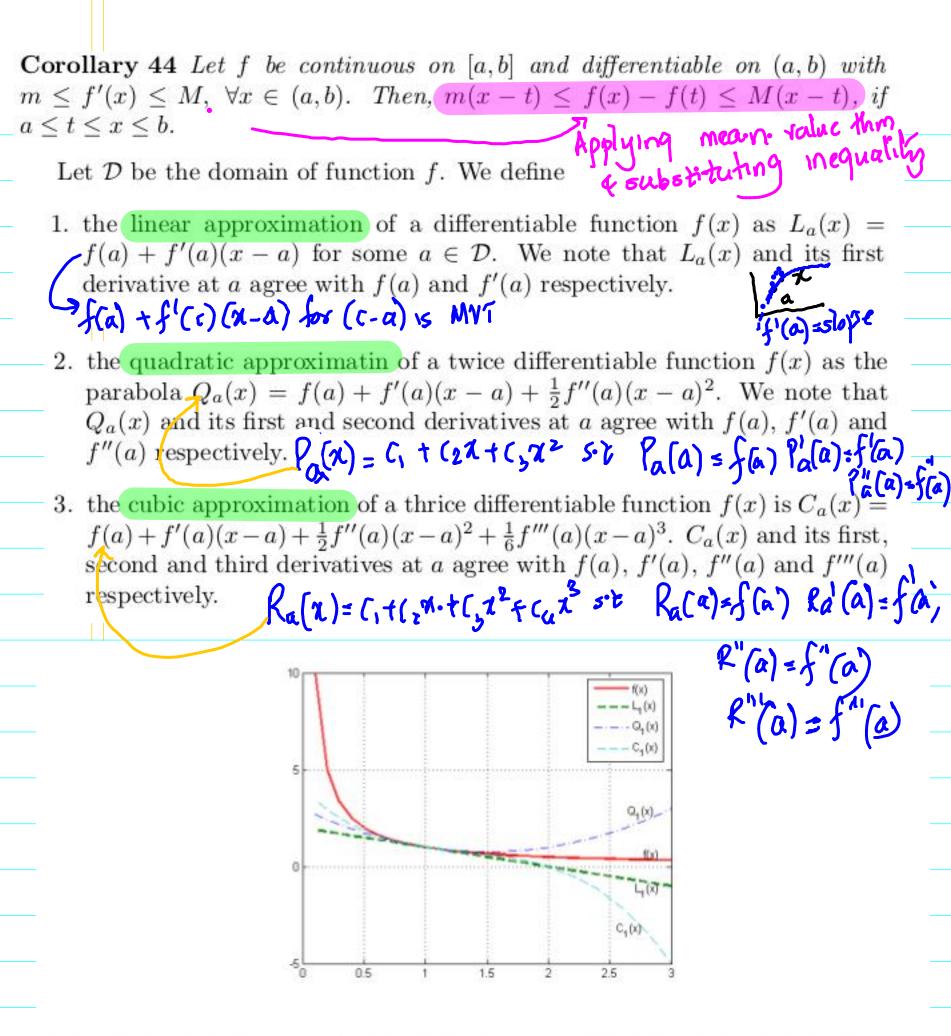


Figure 4.3: Plot of $f(x) = \frac{1}{x}$, and its linear, quadratic and cubic approximations.

Can be thought if as general all order **Theorem 45** The Taylor's theorem states that if f and its first n aerivatives f(f) $f', f'', \ldots, f^{(n)}$ are continuous on the closed interval [a, b], and differentiable on (a, b), then there exists a number $c \in (a, b)$ such that

$$f(b) = f(a) + f'(a)(b-a) + \frac{1}{2!}f''(a)(b-a)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{n!}f^{(n)}(a)(b-a)^n + \frac{1}{(n+1)!}f^{(n+1)}(c)(b-a)$$

$$MVT is operiod Cose$$

$$MVT : \exists c \in (a, b) \ s \ f(b) = f(a) + f'(c)(b-a) \ ho \ c \ in \ he$$

$$f_{0} \ prove use \ MVT \ successively \ on \ f(\cdot), f'(\cdot), \dots f^{(n)}(\cdot) \ approximations$$

$$Consider the function \ \phi(t) = f(x + th) \ considered in \ theorem \ 71, \ defined \ on \ the \ domain \ \mathcal{D}_{\phi} = [0, 1]. \ Using the \ chain \ rule,$$

$$\phi'(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n f_{x_i}(x + th) \frac{dx_i}{dt} = h^T \cdot \nabla f(x + th)$$
Since f has partial and mixed partial derivatives, ϕ' is a differentiable function of t on \mathcal{D}_{ϕ} and $\phi''(t) = h^T \nabla^2 f(x + th)h$
Since ϕ and ϕ' are continues on \mathcal{D}_{ϕ} and ϕ' is differentiable on $int(\mathcal{D}_{\phi})$, we can make use of the Taylor's theorem (45) with $n = 3$ to obtain:

$$\phi(t) = \phi(0) + t \cdot \phi'(0) + t^2 \cdot \frac{1}{2} \phi''(0) + O(t^3)$$
Writing this equation in terms of f gives $scoold \ scder \ approximation \ f(x + th) = f(x) + th^T \nabla f(x) + t^2 \frac{1}{2} h^T \nabla^2 f(x) h + O(t^3)$

$$f(x + th) = f(x) + th^T \nabla f(x) + t^2 \frac{1}{2} h^T \nabla^2 f(x) h + O(t^3)$$

$$f(x + th) = f(x) + th^T \nabla f(x) + t^2 \frac{1}{2} h^T \nabla^2 f(x) h + O(t^3)$$

We discussed in class, derivation of the second order Taylor expression. We talso discussed that the matrix $\nabla^2 f$ of mixed partial derivatives is symmetric if f has continuous mixed partial derivatives

We will introduce some definitions at this point:

- A function f is said to be *increasing* on an interval \mathcal{I} in its domain \mathcal{D} if f(t) < f(x) whenever t < x.
- The function f is said to be *decreasing* on an interval $\mathcal{I} \in \mathcal{D}$ if f(t) > f(x) whenever t < x.

These definitions help us derive the following theorem:

THODU		
	$\frac{f(\alpha)}{f(\alpha)}$	
	1 (n)	
	(
	l n	

Theorem 46 Let \mathcal{I} be an interval and suppose f is continuous on \mathcal{I} and differentiable on $int(\mathcal{I})$. Then:

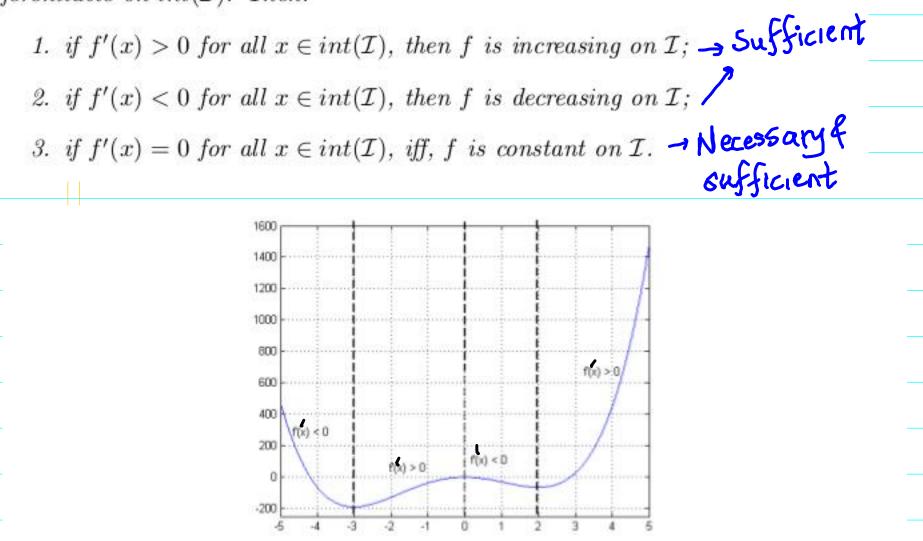


Figure 4.5: Illustration of the increasing and decreasing regions of a function $f(x) = 3x^4 + 4x^3 - 36x^2$

Theorem 47 Let \mathcal{I} be an interval and suppose f is continuous on \mathcal{I} and differentiable on $int(\mathcal{I})$. Then:

1. if $f'(x) \ge 0$ for all $x \in int(\mathcal{I})$, and if f'(x) = 0 at only finitely many $x \in \mathcal{I}$, then f is increasing on \mathcal{I} ; Necessary

2. if $f'(x) \leq 0$ for all $x \in int(\mathcal{I})$, and if f'(x) = 0 at only finitely many $x \in \mathcal{I}$, then f is decreasing on \mathcal{I} .

Theorem 48 Let \mathcal{I} be an interval, and suppose f is continuous on \mathcal{I} and differentiable in $int(\mathcal{I})$. Then:

1. if f is increasing on \mathcal{I} , then $f'(x) \ge 0$ for all $x \in int(\mathcal{I})$; 2. if f is decreasing on \mathcal{I} , then $f'(x) \le 0$ for all $x \in int(\mathcal{I})$.

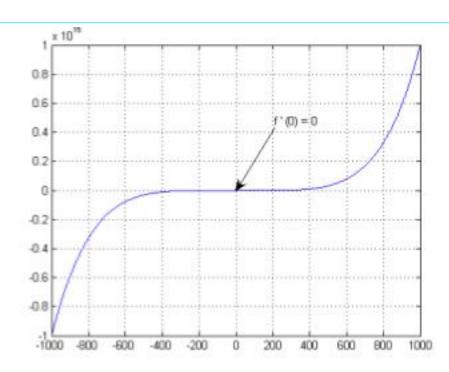


Figure 4.6: Plot of $f(x) = x^5$, illustrating that though the function is increasing on $(-\infty, \infty)$, f'(0) = 0.

In summary: 5	(x)>0	is increasing
5(x);	$xO \in f'(x)=0$ at course	table # pto the is strictly
		Increasing
	~ 17	

1.1

Analogous to the definition of increasing functions introduced on page number 220, we next introduce the concept of monotonic functions. This concept is very useful for characterization of a convex function. The scaple provide the concept of
$$f(x_1, x_2) = 0$$
 if $f(x_1, x_2) = 0$ if $f(x_1, x_2) = 0$.
Definition 39 Let $f(x_1, x_2) = 0$ if $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.
2. f is strictly monotone on D if for any $x_1, x_2 \in D$ with $x_1 \neq x_2$,
 $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ $f(x_1 - x_2) = 0$ if $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$.
3. f is uniformly or strongly monotone on D if for any $x_1, x_2 \in D$, there is a constant $c > 0$ such that
 $f(x_1) = f(x_2)$ $f(x_1 - x_2) = c||x_1 - x_2||^2$ (4.43)
 $||f(x_1) - f(x_2)|| = (f(x_1) - f(x_2))^T (x_1 - x_2) = c||x_1 - x_2||^2$ (4.43)
For $m = f_2$ and $D = (a, b)$, this incluses (by mean value that $f'(t) \ge C + t \in (a, b) = 0$.
For $m > f_2$, more if every new of the Jacobi an $(m \times n - matrix)$ should be $\gtrsim C$ (verify)



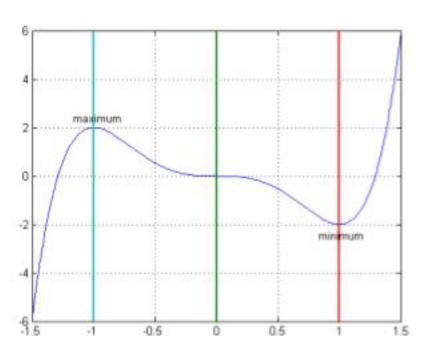
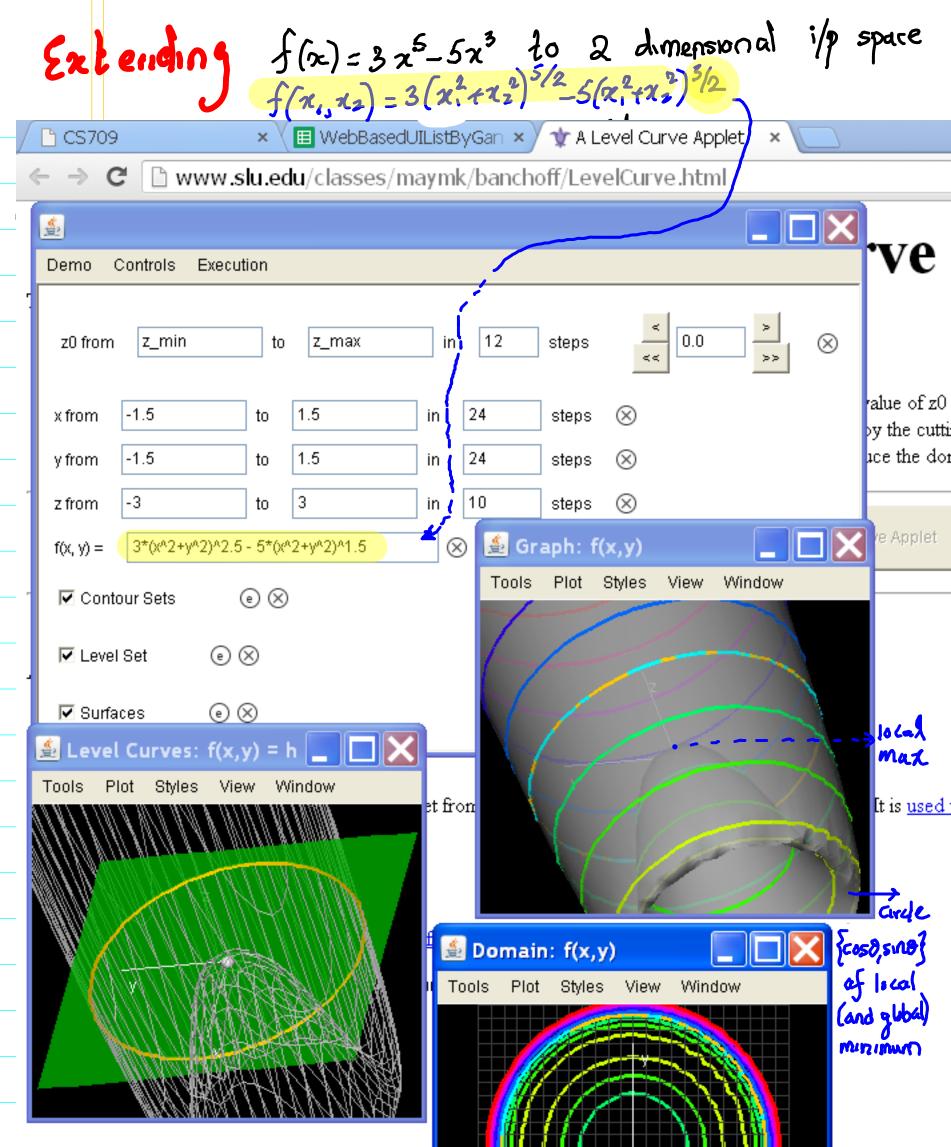


Figure 4.7: Example illustrating the derivative test for function $f(x) = 3x^5 - 5x^3$.

Procedure 1 [First derivative test]: Let c be an isolated critical number of f. Then,

- 1. f(c) is a local minimum if f(x) is decreasing in an interval $[c \epsilon_1, c]$ and increasing in an interval $[c, c + \epsilon_2]$ with $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 > 0$, or (but not equivalently), the sign of f'(x) changes from negative in $[c - \epsilon_1, c]$ to positive in $[c, c + \epsilon_2]$ with $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 > 0$.
- 2. f(c) is a local maximum if f(x) is increasing in an interval $[c \epsilon_1, c]$ and decreasing in an interval $[c, c + \epsilon_2]$ with $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 > 0$, or (but not equivalently), the sign of f'(x) changes from positive in $[c - \epsilon_1, c]$ to negative in $[c, c + \epsilon_2]$ with $\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2 > 0$.
- 3. If f'(x) is positive in an interval $[c \epsilon_1, c]$ and also positive in an interval $[c, c \epsilon_2]$, or f'(x) is negative in an interval $[c \epsilon_1, c]$ and constant c

As an example, the function $f(x) = 3x^5 - 5x^3$ has the derivative $f'(x) = \frac{1}{5}x^2(x+1)(x-1)$. The critical points are 0, 1 and -1. Of the three, the sign of f'(x) changes at 1 and -1, which are local minimum and maximum respectively.



a function f:R=R Convexity of $f(\Theta_{x_1} + (1-\Theta)_{x_2}) \leq \Theta_f(\pi_1) + (1-\Theta)_f(\pi_2)$ ()f is convex of for $\Theta_{x,t}(1-\Theta) \times_{2} \in D$, $\forall X_{1}, X_{2}$ in domain $D \subseteq R$ $\int O = 0 \times_{1} \times_{1} (1-\Theta) \times_{2} \in D$, $\forall \Theta \in [0,1]$ |D should be convex & f is convex iff f (2) increasing in D $(f(x_1) - f(x_2))(x_1 - x_2) \ge 0$ (3) $f(y) \ge f(x) + f'(x)(y-x)$ Linear approximation to y using x (4) : f(x) is increasing, $f''(x) \ge D$

1. A differentiable function f is strictly convex (or strictly concave up) on an open interval \mathcal{I} , iff, f'(x) is increasing on \mathcal{I} . Recall from theorem 46, the graphical interpretation of the first derivative f'(x); f'(x) > 0 implies that f(x) is increasing at x. Similarly, f'(x) is increasing when f''(x) > 0. This gives us a sufficient condition for the strict convexity of a function:

Theorem 50 If at all points in an open interval \mathcal{I} , f(x) is doubly differentiable and if f''(x) > 0, $\forall x \in \mathcal{I}$, then the slope of the function is always increasing with x and the graph is strictly convex. This is illustrated in Figure 4.8.

On the other hand, if the function is strictly convex and doubly differentiable in \mathcal{I} , then $f''(x) \ge 0, \ \forall x \in \mathcal{I}$.

There is also a slopeless interpretation of strict convexity as stated in the following theorem:

Theorem 51 A differentiable function f is strictly convex on an open interval \mathcal{I} , iff

$$f(ax_1 + (1-a)x_2) < af(x_1) + (1-a)f(x_2)$$
(4.2)

whenver
$$x_1, x_2 \in I$$
, $x_1 \neq x_2$ and $0 < a < 1$.
IS EQUIVALENT TO SAYING. THAT
A differentiable function f is (strictly) convex
on \underline{i} if f' is strictly increasing on \underline{I}

Proof: First we will prove the necessity. Suppose f' is increasing on \mathcal{I} . Let 0 < a < 1, $x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{I}$ and $x_1 \neq x_2$. Without loss of generality assume that $x_1 < x_2^3$. Then, $x_1 < ax_1 + (1-a)x_2 < x_2$ and therefore $ax_1 + (1-a)x_2 \in \mathcal{I}$. By the mean value theorem, there exist s and t with $x_1 < s < ax_1 + (1-a)x_2 < t < x_2$, such that $f(ax_1 + (1-a)x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(s)(x_2 - x_1)(1-a)$ and $f(x_2) - f(ax_1 + (1-a)x_2) = f'(t)(x_2 - x_1)a$. Therefore,

$$(1-a)f(x_1) - f(ax_1 + (1-a)x_2) + af(x_2) = a [f(x_2) - f(ax_1 + (1-a)x_2)] - (1-a) [f(ax_1 + (1-a)x_2) - f(x_1)] = a(1-a)(x_2 - x_1) [f'(t) - f'(s)]$$

Since f(x) is strictly convex on \mathcal{I} , f'(x) is increasing \mathcal{I} and therefore, f'(t) - f'(s) > 0. Moreover, $x_2 - x_1 > 0$ and 0 < a < 1. This implies that $(1 - a)f(x_1) - f(ax_1 + (1 - a)x_2) + af(x_2) > 0$, or equivalently, $f(ax_1 + (1 - a)x_2) < af(x_1) + (1 - a)f(x_2)$, which is what we wanted to prove in 4.2.

Next, we prove the sufficiency. Suppose the inequality in 4.2 holds. Therefore,

$$\lim_{a \to 0} \frac{f(x_2 + a(x_1 - x_2)) - f(x_2)}{a} \le f(x_1) - f(x_2)$$

that is,

$$f'(x_2)(x_1 - x_2) \le f(x_1) - f(x_2) \tag{4.3}$$

Similarly, we can show that

$$f'(x_1)(x_2 - x_1) \le f(x_2) - f(x_1) \tag{4.4}$$

Adding the left and right hand sides of inequalities in (4.3) and (4.4), and multiplying the resultant inequality by -1 gives us

 $(f'(x_2) - f'(x_1))(x_2 - x_1) \ge 0 \tag{4.5}$

Using the mean value theorem, $\exists z = x_1 + t(x_2 - x_1)$ for $t \in (0, 1)$ such that

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(z)(x_2 - x_1)$$
(4.6)

Since 4.5 holds for any $x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{I}$, it also hold for $x_2 = z$. Therefore,

$$(f'(z) - f'(x_1))(x_2 - x_1) = \frac{1}{t}(f'(z) - f'(x_1))(z - x_1) \ge 0$$

Additionally using 4.6, we get

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = (f'(z) - f'(x_1))(x_2 - x_1) + f'(x_1)(x_2 - x_1) \ge f'(x_1)(x_2 - x_1)$$

$$(4.7)$$

Suppose equality holds in 4.5 for some $x_1 \neq x_2$. Then equality holds in 4.7 for the same x_1 and x_2 . That is,

$$f(x_2) - f(x_1) = f'(x_1)(x_2 - x_1) \tag{4.8}$$

Applying 4.7 we can conclude that

$$f(x_1) + af'(x_1)(x_2 - x_1) \le f(x_1 + a(x_2 - x_1)) \tag{4.9}$$

From 4.2 and 4.8, we can derive that

$$f(x_1 + a(x_2 - x_1)) < (1 - a)f(x_1) + af(x_2) = f(x_1) + af'(x_1)(x_2 - x_1)$$
(4.10)

However, equations 4.9 and 4.10 contradict each other. Therefore, equality in 4.5 cannot hold for any $x_1 \neq x_2$, implying that

$$(f'(x_2) - f'(x_1))(x_2 - x_1) > 0$$

that is, f'(x) is increasing and therefore f is convex on \mathcal{I} . \Box

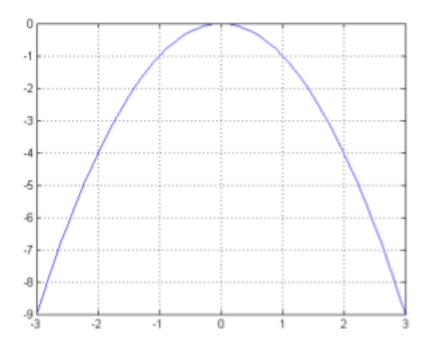


Figure 4.9: Plot for the strictly convex function $f(x) = -x^2$ which has $f''(x) = -2 < 0, \forall x$.

A differentiable function f is said to be *strictly concave* on an open interval \mathcal{I} , *iff*, f'(x) is decreasing on \mathcal{I} . Recall from theorem 46, the graphical interpretation of the first derivative f'(x); f'(x) < 0 implies that f(x) is decreasing at x. Similarly, f'(x) is monotonically decreasing when f''(x) > 0. This gives us a sufficient condition for the concavity of a function:

Theorem 52 If at all points in an open interval \mathcal{I} , f(x) is doubly differentiable and if f''(x) < 0, $\forall x \in \mathcal{I}$, then the slope of the function is always decreasing with x and the graph is strictly concave. This is illustrated in Figure 4.9.

On the other hand, if the function is strictly concave and doubly differentiable in \mathcal{I} , then $f''(x) \leq 0, \ \forall x \in \mathcal{I}$.

There is also a slopeless interpretation of concavity as stated in the following theorem:

Theorem 53 A differentiable function f is strictly concave on an open interval \mathcal{I} , iff

 $f(ax_1 + (1 - a)x_2) > af(x_1) + (1 - a)f(x_2)$ (4.11)

whenver $x_1, x_2 \in \mathcal{I}$, $x_1 \neq x_2$ and 0 < a < 1.

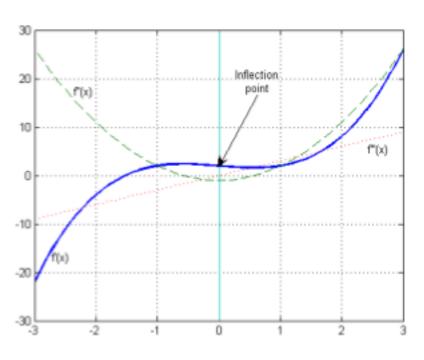


Figure 4.10: Plot for $f(x) = x^3 + x + 2$, which has an inflection point x = 0, along with plots for f'(x) and f''(x).

Procedure 2 [First derivative test in terms of strict convexity]: Let c be a critical number of f and f'(c) = 0. Then,

- 1. f(c) is a local minimum if the graph of f(x) is strictly convex on an open interval containing c.
- 2. f(c) is a local maximum if the graph of f(x) is strictly concave on an open interval containing c.

3. Convex functions

- basic properties and examples
- operations that preserve convexity
- the conjugate function
- quasiconvex functions
- log-concave and log-convex functions
- convexity with respect to generalized inequalities

Definition

 $f: \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ is convex if $\operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f$ is a convex set and

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

for all $x, y \in \operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f$, $0 \le \theta \le 1$



- f is concave if -f is convex
- f is strictly convex if $\mathbf{dom} f$ is convex and

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

for $x, y \in \operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f$, $x \neq y$, $0 < \theta < 1$

Convex functions

3-1

Definition 35 [Convex Function]: A function $f : \mathcal{D} \to \Re$ is convex if \mathcal{D} is a convex set and

$$f(\theta \mathbf{x} + (1 - \theta)\mathbf{y}) \le \theta f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\mathbf{y}) \quad \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{D} \quad 0 \le \theta \le 1 (4.31)$$

Figure 4.37 illustrates an example convex function. A function $f : \mathcal{D} \to \Re$ is strictly convex if \mathcal{D} is convex and

$$f(\theta \mathbf{x} + (1 - \theta)\mathbf{y}) < \theta f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\mathbf{y})) \quad \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{D} \quad 0 \le \theta \le 1(4.32)$$

A function $f : \mathcal{D} \to \Re$ is called uniformly or strongly convex if \mathcal{D} is convex and there exists a constant c > 0 such that

$$f(\theta \mathbf{x} + (1 - \theta)\mathbf{y}) \le \theta f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \theta)f(\mathbf{y}) - \frac{1}{2}c\theta(1 - \theta)||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}|| \quad \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{D} \quad 0 \le \theta \le 1(1 - \theta)||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}||$$

Theorem 69 Let $f : \mathcal{D} \to \Re$ be a convex function on a convex domain \mathcal{D} . Any point of locally minimum solution for f is also a point of its globally minimum solution.

Theorem 70 Let $f : D \to \Re$ be a strictly convex function on a convex domain D. Then f has a unique point corresponding to its global minimum.

Theorem 71 A function $f : \mathcal{D} \to \Re$ is (strictly) convex if and only if the function $\phi : \mathcal{D}_{\phi} \to \Re$ defined below, is (strictly) convex in t for every $\mathbf{x} \in \Re^n$ and for every $\mathbf{h} \in \Re^n$

$$\phi(t) = f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{h})$$

with the domain of ϕ given by $\mathcal{D}_{\phi} = \{t | \mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{h} \in \mathcal{D}\}$.

Examples on R

convex:

- affine: ax + b on **R**, for any $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$
- exponential: e^{ax} , for any $a \in \mathbf{R}$
- powers: x^{α} on \mathbf{R}_{++} , for $\alpha \geq 1$ or $\alpha \leq 0$
- powers of absolute value: $|x|^p$ on **R**, for $p \ge 1$
- negative entropy: $x \log x$ on \mathbf{R}_{++}

concave:

- affine: ax + b on **R**, for any $a, b \in \mathbf{R}$
- powers: x^{α} on \mathbf{R}_{++} , for $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1$
- logarithm: $\log x$ on \mathbf{R}_{++}

Convex functions

Examples on \mathbb{R}^n and $\mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$

affine functions are convex and concave; all norms are convex

examples on R^n

- affine function $f(x) = a^T x + b$
- norms: $||x||_p = (\sum_{i=1}^n |x_i|^p)^{1/p}$ for $p \ge 1$; $||x||_{\infty} = \max_k |x_k|$

examples on $\mathbf{R}^{m \times n}$ ($m \times n$ matrices)

• affine function

$$f(X) = \mathbf{tr}(A^T X) + b = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} X_{ij} + b$$

• spectral (maximum singular value) norm

$$f(X) = ||X||_2 = \sigma_{\max}(X) = (\lambda_{\max}(X^T X))^{1/2}$$

Convex functions

3–3

Restriction of a convex function to a line

 $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ is convex if and only if the function $g : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$,

$$g(t) = f(x + tv), \qquad \operatorname{dom} g = \{t \mid x + tv \in \operatorname{dom} f\}$$

is convex (in t) for any $x \in \operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f$, $v \in \mathbf{R}^n$

can check convexity of f by checking convexity of functions of one variable

example. $f: \mathbf{S}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ with $f(X) = \log \det X$, $\operatorname{dom} X = \mathbf{S}_{++}^n$

$$g(t) = \log \det(X + tV) = \log \det X + \log \det(I + tX^{-1/2}VX^{-1/2})$$

= $\log \det X + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + t\lambda_i)$

where λ_i are the eigenvalues of $X^{-1/2}VX^{-1/2}$

g is concave in t (for any choice of $X \succ 0, V$); hence f is concave

Convex functions

Extended-value extension

extended-value extension \tilde{f} of f is

$$\tilde{f}(x) = f(x), \quad x \in \operatorname{dom} f, \qquad \tilde{f}(x) = \infty, \quad x \notin \operatorname{dom} f$$

often simplifies notation; for example, the condition

$$0 \le \theta \le 1 \implies f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \le \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y)$$

(as an inequality in $\mathbf{R} \cup \{\infty\}$), means the same as the two conditions

- $\mathbf{dom} f$ is convex
- for $x, y \in \operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f$,

$$-0 \le \theta \le 1 \implies -f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \le \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y)$$

3–5

First-order condition

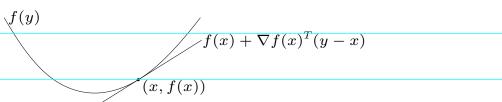
f is **differentiable** if $\operatorname{dom} f$ is open and the gradient

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

exists at each $x \in \operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f$

1st-order condition: differentiable f with convex domain is convex iff

 $f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) \quad \text{for all } x, y \in \operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f$



first-order approximation of f is global underestimator

Convex functions

3–8

3–7

Theorem 75 Let $f : \mathcal{D} \to \Re$ be a differentiable convex function on an open convex set \mathcal{D} . Then:

1. f is convex if and only if, for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{D}$,

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla^T f(\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) \tag{4.44}$$

2. f is strictly convex on \mathcal{D} if and only if, for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{D}$, with $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{y}$,

$$f(\mathbf{y}) > f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla^T f(\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})$$
(4.45)

3. f is strongly convex on \mathcal{D} if and only if, for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{D}$,

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla^T f(\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}) + \frac{1}{2}c||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}||^2$$
(4.46)

for some constant c > 0.

Theorem 78 Let $f : \mathcal{D} \to \Re$ with $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \Re^n$ be differentiable on the convex set \mathcal{D} . Then,

 f is convex on D if and only if is its gradient ∇f is monotone. That is, for all x, y ∈ ℜ

$$(\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{y}))^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) \ge 0$$
(4.53)

 f is strictly convex on D if and only if is its gradient ∇f is strictly monotone. That is, for all x, y ∈ R with x ≠ y,

$$\left(\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{y})\right)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) > 0 \tag{4.54}$$

 f is uniformly or strongly convex on D if and only if is its gradient ∇f is uniformly monotone. That is, for all x, y ∈ R,

$$\left(\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{y})\right)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}) \ge c ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}||^2 \tag{4.55}$$

for some constant c > 0.

Procedure 3 [Second derivative test]: Let c be a critical number of f where f'(c) = 0 and f''(c) exists.

- 1. If f''(c) > 0 then f(c) is a local minimum.
- 2. If f''(c) < 0 then f(c) is a local maximum.
- 3. If f''(c) = 0 then f(c) could be a local maximum, a local minimum, neither or both. That is, the test fails.

For example,

- If f(x) = x⁴, then f'(0) = 0 and f''(0) = 0 and we can see that f(0) is a local minimum.
- If f(x) = −x⁴, then f'(0) = 0 and f''(0) = 0 and we can see that f(0) is a local maximum.
- If f(x) = x³, then f'(0) = 0 and f''(0) = 0 and we can see that f(0) is neither a local minimum nor a local maximum. (0,0) is an inflection point in this case.

- If $f(x) = x + 2\sin x$, then $f'(x) = 1 + 2\cos x$. f'(x) = 0 for $x = \frac{2\pi}{3}, \frac{4\pi}{3}$, which are the critical numbers. $f''\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = -2\sin\frac{2\pi}{3} = -\sqrt{3} < 0 \Rightarrow$ $f\left(\frac{2\pi}{3}\right) = \frac{2\pi}{3} + \sqrt{3}$ is a local maximum value. On the other hand, $f''\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) = \sqrt{3} > 0 \Rightarrow f\left(\frac{4\pi}{3}\right) = \frac{4\pi}{3} - \sqrt{3}$ is a local minimum value.
- If f(x) = x + ¹/_x, then f'(x) = 1 − ¹/_{x²}. The critical numbers are x = ±1. Note that x = 0 is not a critical number, even though f'(0) does not exist, because 0 is not in the domain of f. f''(x) = ²/_{x³}. f''(-1) = -2 < 0 and therefore f(-1) = -2 is a local maximum. f''(1) = 2 > 0 and therefore f(1) = 2 is a local minimum.

Theorem 79 A twice differential function $f : \mathcal{D} \to \Re$ for a nonempty open convex set \mathcal{D}

 is convex if and only if its domain is convex and its Hessian matrix is positive semidefinite at each point in D. That is

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \succeq 0 \quad \forall \ \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D} \tag{4.62}$$

 is strictly convex if its domain is convex and its Hessian matrix is positive definite at each point in D. That is

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \succ 0 \quad \forall \ \mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}$$
 (4.63)

3. is uniformly convex if and only if its domain is convex and its Hessian matrix is uniformly positive definite at each point in \mathcal{D} . That is, for any $\mathbf{v} \in \Re^n$ and any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}$, there exists a c > 0 such that

$$\mathbf{v}^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{v} \ge c ||\mathbf{v}||^2 \tag{4.64}$$

In other words

 $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \succeq c I_{n \times n}$

where $I_{n \times n}$ is the $n \times n$ identity matrix and \succeq corresponds to the positive semidefinite inequality. That is, the function f is strongly convex iff $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) - cI_{n \times n}$ is positive semidefinite, for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{D}$ and for some constant c > 0, which corresponds to the positive minimum curvature of f. Procedure 4 [Finding extreme values on closed, bounded intervals]: Find the critical points in $int(\mathcal{I})$.

> 2. Compute the values of f at the critical points and at the endpoints of the interval.

3. Select the least and greatest of the computed values.

For example, to compute the maximum and minimum values of $f(x) = 4x^3 - 8x^2 + 5x$ on the interval [0,1], we first compute $f'(x) = 12x^2 - 16x + 5$ which is 0 at $x = \frac{1}{2}, \frac{5}{6}$. Values at the critical points are $f(\frac{1}{2}) = 1$, $f(\frac{5}{6}) = \frac{25}{27}$. The values at the end points are f(0) = 0 and f(1) = 1. Therefore, the minimum value is f(0) = 0 and the maximum value is $f(1) = f(\frac{1}{2}) = 1$.

Definition 21 [One-sided derivatives at endpoints]: Let f be defined on a closed bounded interval [a,b]. The (right-sided) derivative of f at x = ais defined as

$$f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0^+} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

Similarly, the (left-sided) derivative of f at x = b is defined as

$$f'(b) = \lim_{h \to 0^-} \frac{f(b+h) - f(b)}{h}$$

Theorem 54 If f is continuous on [a, b] and f'(a) exists as a real number or as $\pm \infty$, then we have the following necessary conditions for extremum at a.

• If f(a) is the maximum value of f on [a, b], then $f'(a) \leq 0$ or $f'(a) = -\infty$.

• If f(a) is the minimum value of f on [a,b], then $f'(a) \ge 0$ or $f'(a) = \infty$.

If f is continuous on [a, b] and f'(b) exists as a real number or $as \pm \infty$, then we have the following necessary conditions for extremum at b.

- If f(b) is the maximum value of f on [a,b], then $f'(b) \ge 0$ or $f'(b) = \infty$.
- If f(b) is the minimum value of f on [a,b], then $f'(b) \leq 0$ or $f'(b) = -\infty$.

The following theorem gives a useful procedure for finding extrema on closed intervals.

Theorem 55 If f is continuous on [a, b] and f''(x) exists for all $x \in (a, b)$. Then,

- If f"(x) ≤ 0, ∀x ∈ (a, b), then the minimum value of f on [a, b] is either f(a) or f(b). If, in addition, f has a critical number c ∈ (a, b), then f(c) is the maximum value of f on [a, b].
- If f"(x) ≥ 0, ∀x ∈ (a, b), then the maximum value of f on [a, b] is either f(a) or f(b). If, in addition, f has a critical number c ∈ (a, b), then f(c) is the minimum value of f on [a, b].

Theorem 56 Let \mathcal{I} be an open interval and let f''(x) exist $\forall x \in \mathcal{I}$.

- If $f''(x) \ge 0$, $\forall x \in \mathcal{I}$, and if there is a number $c \in \mathcal{I}$ where f'(c) = 0, then f(c) is the global minimum value of f on \mathcal{I} .
- If f''(x) ≤ 0, ∀x ∈ I, and if there is a number c ∈ I where f'(c) = 0, then f(c) is the global maximum value of f on I.

For example, let $f(x) = \frac{2}{3}x - \sec x$ and $\mathcal{I} = (\frac{-\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$. $f'(x) = \frac{2}{3} - \sec x \tan x = \frac{2}{3} - \frac{\sin x}{\cos^2 x} = 0 \Rightarrow x = \frac{\pi}{6}$. Further, $f''(x) = -\sec x(\tan^2 x + \sec^2 x) < 0$ on $(\frac{-\pi}{2}, \frac{\pi}{2})$. Therefore, f attains the maximum value $f(\frac{\pi}{6}) = \frac{\pi}{9} - \frac{2}{\sqrt{3}}$ on \mathcal{I} .

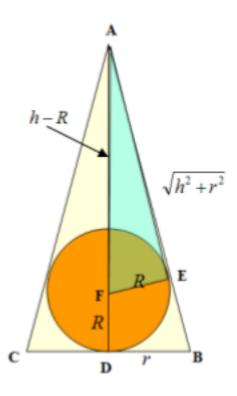


Figure 4.11: Illustrating the constraints for the optimization problem of finding the cone with minimum volume that can contain a sphere of radius R.

Theorem 61 Let $f : \mathcal{D} \to \Re$ where $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \Re^n$. Let $f(\mathbf{x})$ have continuous partial derivatives and continuous mixed partial derivatives in an open ball \mathcal{R} containing a point \mathbf{x}^* where $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$. Let $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})$ denote an $n \times n$ matrix of mixed partial derivatives of f evaluated at the point \mathbf{x} , such that the ij^{th} entry of the matrix is $f_{x_i x_j}$. The matrix $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})$ is called the Hessian matrix. The Hessian matrix is symmetric⁶. Then,

- If ∇²f(x^{*}) is positive definite, x^{*} is a local minimum.
- If ∇²f(**x**^{*}) is negative definite (that is if −∇²f(**x**^{*}) is positive definite),
 x^{*} is a local maximum.

Theorem 62 Let $f : \mathcal{D} \to \Re$ where $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \Re^n$. Let $f(\mathbf{x})$ have continuous partial derivatives and continuous mixed partial derivatives in an open region \mathcal{R} containing a point \mathbf{x}^* where $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$. Then,

- If \mathbf{x}^* is a point of local minimum, $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^*)$ must be positive semi-definite.
- If x^{*} is a point of local maximum, ∇² f(x^{*}) must be negative semi-definite (that is, -∇² f(x^{*}) must be positive semi-definite).

Corollary 63 Let $f : \mathcal{D} \to \Re$ where $\mathcal{D} \subseteq \Re^n$. Let $f(\mathbf{x})$ have continuous partial derivatives and continuous mixed partial derivatives in an open region \mathcal{R} containing a point \mathbf{x}^* where $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$. If $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^*)$ is neither positive semidefinite nor negative semi-definite (that is, some of its eigenvalues are positive and some negative), then \mathbf{x}^* is a saddle point. **Theorem 64** Let the partial and second partial derivatives of $f(x_1, x_2)$ be continuous on a disk with center (a, b) and suppose $f_{x_1}(a, b) = 0$ and $f_{x_2}(a, b) = 0$ so that (a,b) is a critical point of f. Let $D(a,b) = f_{x_1x_1}(a,b)f_{x_2x_2}(a,b) - f_{x_1x_1}(a,b)f_{x_2x_2}(a,b)$ $[f_{x_1x_2}(a,b)]^2$. Then⁷,

- If D > 0 and $f_{x_1x_1}(a, b) > 0$, then f(a, b) is a local minimum.
- Else if D > 0 and f_{x₁x₁}(a, b) < 0, then f(a, b) is a local maximum.
- Else if D < 0 then (a, b) is a saddle point.

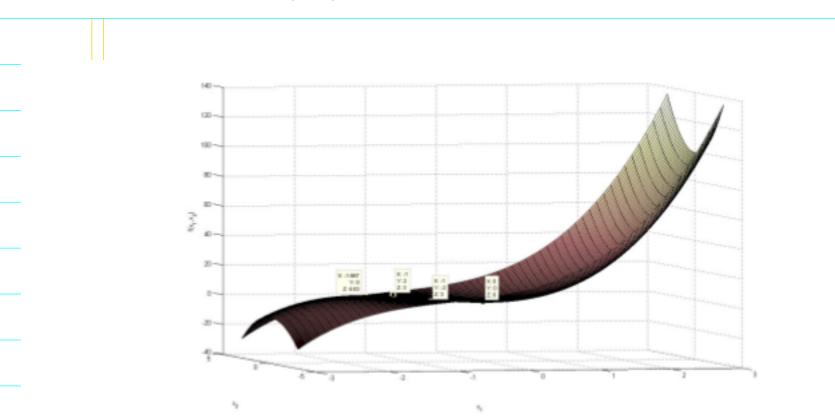


Figure 4.22: Plot of the function $2x_1^3 + x_1x_2^2 + 5x_1^2 + x_2^2$ showing the four critical points.

We saw earlier that the critical points for $f(x_1, x_2) = 2x_1^3 + x_1x_2^2 + 5x_1^2 + x_2^2$ are $(0,0), (-\frac{5}{3},0), (-1,2)$ and (-1,-2). To determine which of these correspond to local extrema and which are saddle, we first compute compute the partial derivatives of f:

$$\begin{aligned} f_{x_1x_1}(x_1,x_2) &= 12x_1 + 10 \\ f_{x_2x_2}(x_1,x_2) &= 2x_1 + 2 \\ f_{x_1x_2}(x_1,x_2) &= 2x_2 \\ \text{Using theorem 64, we can verify that } (0,0) \text{ corresponds to a local minimum,} \\ (-\frac{5}{2},0) \text{ corresponds to a local maximum while } (-1,2) \text{ and } (-1,-2) \text{ correspond} \end{aligned}$$

. . .

to saddle points. Figure 4.22 shows the plot of the function while pointing ou the four critical points.

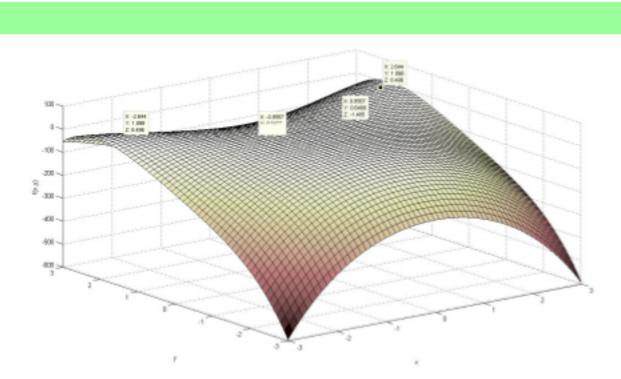


Figure 4.23: Plot of the function $10x^2y - 5x^2 - 4y^2 - x^4 - 2y^4$ showing the four critical points.

Consider a significantly harder function $f(x,y) = 10x^2y - 5x^2 - 4y^2 - x^4 - 2y^4$. Let us find and classify its critical points. The gradient vector is $\nabla f(x,y) = [20xy - 10x - 4x^3, 10x^2 - 8y - 8y^3]$. The critical points correspond to solutions of the simultaneous set of equations

$$20xy - 10x - 4x^3 = 0$$

$$10x^2 - 8y - 8y^3 = 0$$
(4.15)

One of the solutions corresponds to solving the system $-8y^3 + 42y - 25 = 0^8$ and $10x^2 = 50y - 25$, which have four real solutions⁹, viz., (0.8567, 0.646772), (-0.8567, 0.646772), (2.6442, 1.898384), and (-2.6442, 1.898384).Another real solution is (0,0). The mixed partial derivatives of the function are

$$\begin{aligned}
f_{xx} &= 20y - 10 - 12x^2 \\
f_{xy} &= 20x \\
f_{yy} &= -8 - 24y^2
\end{aligned} (4.16)$$

Using theorem 64, we can verify that (2.6442, 1.898384) and (-2.6442, 1.898384) correspond to local maxima whereas (0.8567, 0.646772) and (-0.8567, 0.646772) correspond to saddle points. This is illustrated in Figure 4 23

