

MATH529 – Fundamentals of Optimization
Unconstrained Optimization III

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Recap

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Optimization via Calculus

Definition

Let A be an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix and $Q_A(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$ its associated quadratic form. Then A and $Q_A(\mathbf{x})$ are called:

- positive definite if $Q_A(\mathbf{x}) > 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, except $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$.
- positive semidefinite if $Q_A(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- negative definite if $Q_A(\mathbf{x}) < 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, except $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$.
- negative semidefinite if $Q_A(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- indefinite if $Q_A(\mathbf{x}) > 0$ for some $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $Q_A(\mathbf{x}) < 0$ for other $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

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Optimization via Calculus

In view of this definition, we can say that

Theorem

Suppose that \mathbf{x}^* is a stationary point of a function $f(\mathbf{x})$ with continuous first and second partial derivatives on \mathbb{R}^n . Then:

- \mathbf{x}^* is a **global minimizer** of $f(\mathbf{x})$ if $Hf(\mathbf{x})$ is positive semidefinite on \mathbb{R}^n ;
- \mathbf{x}^* is a **strict global minimizer** of $f(\mathbf{x})$ if $Hf(\mathbf{x})$ is positive definite on \mathbb{R}^n ;
- \mathbf{x}^* is a **strict local minimizer** of $f(\mathbf{x})$ if $Hf(\mathbf{x}^*)$ is positive definite;
- \mathbf{x}^* is a **saddle point** of $f(\mathbf{x})$ if $Hf(\mathbf{x}^*)$ is indefinite;

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Optimization via Calculus

Example

$$f(x, y) = (1 - x)^2 + 100(y - x^2)^2$$

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Optimization via Calculus

Example

$$f(x, y) = \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{y^2}{2} + xy + 8$$

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Optimization via Calculus

Example

$$f(x, y) = x^4 - y^4$$

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Optimization via Calculus

There are two methods to determine whether a matrix is positive (negative) (semi)definite:

- Using determinants
- Using eigenvalues

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Optimization via Calculus

Determining positive (negative) definiteness using determinants.

Let

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} \Delta_1 & \Delta_2 & \Delta_3 & & \\ \hline a_{11} & a_{12} & a_{13} & \dots & a_{1n} \\ \hline a_{12} & a_{22} & a_{23} & \dots & a_{2n} \\ \hline a_{13} & a_{23} & a_{33} & \dots & a_{3n} \\ \vdots & & & & \vdots \\ a_{1n} & a_{2n} & a_{3n} & \dots & a_{nn} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \begin{aligned} \Delta_1 &= a_{11}, \\ \Delta_2 &= \det \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & a_{12} \\ a_{12} & a_{22} \end{pmatrix}, \\ &\vdots \\ \Delta_n &= \det A. \end{aligned}$$

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Optimization via Calculus

Determining positive (negative) (semi)definiteness using determinants.

Theorem (Determining positive or negative (semi)definiteness)

If A is an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix and if Δ_k is the k th principal minor of A for $1 \leq k \leq n$, then:

- A is positive definite if and only if $\Delta_k > 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$;
- A is negative definite if and only if $(-1)^k \Delta_k > 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq n$ (in other words, the sign of Δ_k alternates starting with $\Delta_k < 0$).
- A is positive semidefinite if $\Delta_k > 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq n - 1$ and $\Delta_n = 0$; **Note: not an iff!**
- A is negative semidefinite if $(-1)^k \Delta_k > 0$ for $1 \leq k \leq n - 1$ and $\Delta_n = 0$;

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Optimization via Calculus

Example

Find the local and global minimizers and maximizers of
 $f(\mathbf{x}) = x_1^3 + x_2^3 + x_3^2 - 3x_1x_2 + x_1x_3^2 + 2$.

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Optimization via Calculus

Determining positive (negative) (semi)definiteness using eigenvalues.

Since Hessians are symmetric, the following facts follow:

- The eigenvalues of a Hessian are real.
- The eigenvectors of distinct eigenvalues are orthogonal (or if an eigenvalue has multiplicity k , one can find k orthogonal vectors).

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Optimization via Calculus

Determining positive (negative) (semi)definiteness using eigenvalues.

By definition, an eigenvalue of an $n \times n$ matrix A , denoted by λ , is a real or complex number such that $A\mathbf{p} = \lambda\mathbf{p}$, where $\mathbf{p} \neq \mathbf{0}$ is called an eigenvector of A .

If we form a square matrix P with the n eigenvectors of A as columns, then we can write

$$AP = PD$$

where D is a diagonal matrix the eigenvalues λ_i , $i = 1, \dots, n$ down the main diagonal.

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Optimization via Calculus

Determining positive (negative) (semi)definiteness using eigenvalues.

Since P is orthogonal, $P^{-1} = P^T$, and therefore we can write

$$P^TAP = D$$

which means that in the quadratic form

$$Q_A(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x}$$

we can substitute $\mathbf{x} = P\mathbf{y}$, yielding

$$Q_A(\mathbf{x}) = (P\mathbf{y})^T A (P\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{y}^T P^T A P \mathbf{y} = \mathbf{y}^T D \mathbf{y} = \lambda_1 y_1^2 + \dots + \lambda_n y_n^2.$$

So the sign of $Q_A(\mathbf{x})$ depends on the signs of the eigenvalues of A .

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Optimization via Calculus

Determining positive (negative) (semi)definiteness using eigenvalues.

Theorem (Determining positive or negative (semi)definiteness)

If A is an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix, then:

- *A is positive definite if and only if all its eigenvalues are positive ($\lambda_i > 0$, for all $i = 1 \dots n$);*
- *A is negative definite if and only if all its eigenvalues are negative ($\lambda_i < 0$, for all $i = 1 \dots n$);*
- *A is positive semidefinite if and only if all its eigenvalues are nonnegative ($\lambda_i \geq 0$, for all $i = 1 \dots n$);*
- *A is negative semidefinite if and only if all its eigenvalues are nonpositive ($\lambda_i \leq 0$, for all $i = 1 \dots n$);*
- *A is indefinite if and only if A has at least one positive and one negative eigenvalue.*