

CS498: Algorithmic Engineering

Semidefinite Programming and Applications II

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Outline

- 1 Recap of SDP
- 2 SDP for Metric Space Embeddings
- 3 SDP for Balanced Graph Partition
- 4 SDP and Sum-of-Squares Polynomials
- 5 Polynomial Optimization with Constraints

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SDP: Formulation

Input: matrices $C, D_1, \dots, D_k \in M_n$ and scalars d_1, \dots, d_k .

Variable: a matrix $Y \in M_n$.

$$\max \quad C \cdot Y$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad D_i \cdot Y = d_i \quad 1 \leq i \leq k$$

$$Y \succeq 0$$

SDP is special case of convex programming and efficiently solvable to within arbitrary good accuracy.

SDP and Vector Programming

If $Y \succeq 0$, write $Y = W^T W$ (Cholesky) and let v_1, \dots, v_n be the columns of W . Then $Y_{ij} = v_i \cdot v_j$.

This gives an equivalent **vector program**:

$$\begin{aligned} \max \quad & \sum_{ij} C_{ij} v_i \cdot v_j \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \sum_{ij} D_{ij}^{(k)} v_i \cdot v_j = d_k \quad \forall k \\ & v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n \end{aligned}$$

SDP \longleftrightarrow **Vector Programming**. Vector programming is often more natural for graph and metric problems.

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Metric Spaces: Definition

A *metric space* is a pair (V, d) where $d : V \times V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}_{\geq 0}$ satisfies, for all $u, v, w \in V$:

- **Symmetry:** $d(u, v) = d(v, u)$
- **Triangle inequality:** $d(u, w) \leq d(u, v) + d(v, w)$
- **Identity of indiscernibles:** $d(u, v) = 0 \iff u = v$

Metric Spaces: Examples

In \mathbb{R}^m (points $u = (u_1, \dots, u_m)$, $v = (v_1, \dots, v_m)$):

- **Euclidean (l_2):** $d(u, v) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^m (u_i - v_i)^2 \right)^{1/2}$
- **Manhattan (l_1):** $d(u, v) = \sum_{i=1}^m |u_i - v_i|$
- **Chebyshev (l_∞):** $d(u, v) = \max_{1 \leq i \leq m} |u_i - v_i|$

Graph metric: given $G = (V, E)$ with non-negative edge lengths, $d(u, v) =$ length of shortest path from u to v . Satisfies all metric axioms.

Embeddings and Distortion

Goal: given a finite metric (V, d) , find an *embedding* $f : V \rightarrow W$ into a “nicer” target metric (W, ρ) that approximately preserves pairwise distances.

The *distortion* of f is the smallest $c \geq 1$ such that, for some scale factor $\alpha > 0$:

$$\alpha \cdot d(u, v) \leq \rho(f(u), f(v)) \leq \alpha \cdot c \cdot d(u, v) \quad \forall u \neq v$$

- $c = 1$: *isometric* (perfect) embedding
- Larger c means more distortion

Two Target Metrics

We study embeddings into two targets arising from vectors $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^k$:

- **Euclidean (ℓ_2):**

$$\rho(i, j) = \|v_i - v_j\|_2$$

Standard Euclidean distance between the image points.

- **Squared Euclidean (negative type):**

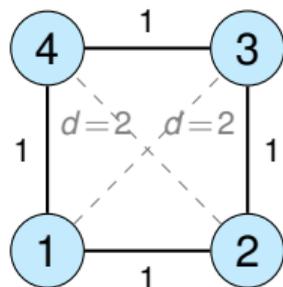
$$\rho(i, j) = \|v_i - v_j\|_2^2$$

Useful for graph partitioning applications (ARV sparsest cut).

For each target: minimizing distortion \Rightarrow **SDP**.

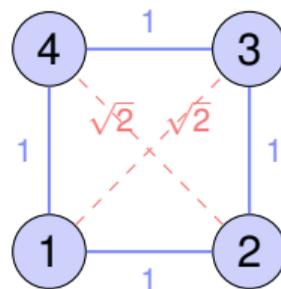
Example: Graph Metric and 2-D Embedding

Graph: 4-cycle C_4 , vertices $\{1, 2, 3, 4\}$, unit edge weights. **Embedding** $f : V \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^2$: corners of the unit square.



d	1	2	3	4
1	0	1	2	1
2	1	0	1	2
3	2	1	0	1
4	1	2	1	0

$$f(1) = (0, 0), f(2) = (1, 0), f(3) = (1, 1), f(4) = (0, 1)$$



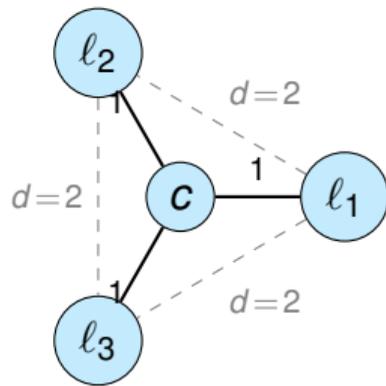
Distortion analysis:

- Adjacent pairs: distortion factor 1
- Diagonal pairs: distortion factor $\sqrt{2}$

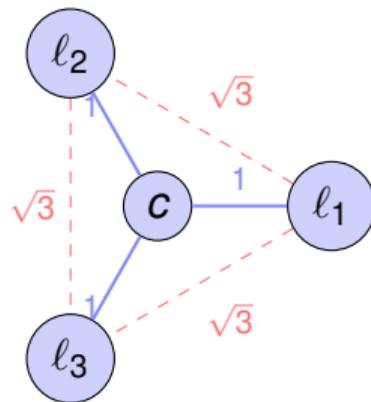
Example: Star Graph $K_{1,3}$ – Less Symmetric Metric

Graph: star $K_{1,3}$: center c , leaves l_1, l_2, l_3 . All edges weight 1; leaves are *not* adjacent.

Embedding: leaves at 120° on unit circle.



$$d(c, l_i) = 1; \quad d(l_i, l_j) = 2$$



Distortion: $\sqrt{3}/2$

Finding best ℓ_2 embedding

Given a finite metric (V, d) (say a graph metric). Find the smallest distortion embedding into ℓ_2

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- Can solve it via SDP if dimension is not fixed!

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Theorem (Bourgain)

Every n -point metric embeds into ℓ_2 with distortion $O(\log n)$.

Dimensionality reduction of Euclidean metrics:

Lemma (Johnson-Lindenstrauss)

Every n -point Euclidean metric (in any number of dimensions) can be embedded into \mathbb{R}^d for $d = O(\log n/\epsilon^2)$ with distortion at most $(1 + \epsilon)$.

Finding best ℓ_2 embedding: Vector Program

Find vectors $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$. Normalize so no pair contracts; minimize expansion. Check if expansion c is feasible and then do binary search for smallest c .

$$d(i, j)^2 \leq \|v_i - v_j\|_2^2 \leq c^2 \cdot d(i, j)^2 \quad \forall i \neq j$$
$$v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

All constraints are linear in inner products $v_a \cdot v_b \Rightarrow$ *vector program* \Rightarrow **SDP**.

The ℓ_2 triangle inequality holds *automatically* for any vectors, so no extra constraints are needed.

Finding best ℓ_2 embedding: Vector Program

Find vectors $v_1, \dots, v_n \in \mathbb{R}^n$ to see if expansion with c is feasible.

$$d(i, j)^2 \leq \|v_i - v_j\|_2^2 \leq c^2 \cdot d(i, j)^2 \quad \forall i \neq j$$
$$v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

g In standard form:

$$Y_{ij} \geq d(i, j)^2 \quad \forall i \neq j$$
$$Y_{ij} \leq c^2 \cdot d(i, j)^2 \quad \forall i \neq j$$
$$Y \succeq 0$$

Note that c is a fixed constant that we are trying.

Best Squared- ℓ_2 Embedding: Vector Program

Find vectors v_1, \dots, v_n such that $\|v_i - v_j\|_2^2$ approximates $d(i, j)$ up to factor c :

$$\min \quad c$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad d(i, j)^2 \leq \|v_i - v_j\|_2^2 \leq c \cdot d(i, j)^2 \quad \forall i \neq j$$

$$\|v_i - v_j\|_2^2 + \|v_j - v_k\|_2^2 \geq \|v_i - v_k\|_2^2 \quad \forall i, j, k$$

$$v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Unlike ℓ_2 , squared Euclidean distances do *not* satisfy the triangle inequality automatically — so it must be added explicitly.

Why add the triangle inequality?

For ℓ_2 distances, triangle inequality holds for any vectors. For *squared* ℓ_2 , it fails.

Counterexample: collinear points at **0, 1, 2**:

$$\|v_1 - v_3\|^2 = 4 \not\leq 1 + 1 = \|v_1 - v_2\|^2 + \|v_2 - v_3\|^2$$

Lemma

v_1, v_2, \dots, v_n satisfy the triangle inequality for squared Euclidean lengths iff any three vectors induce an acute angled triangle.

The constraint $\|v_i - v_j\|^2 + \|v_j - v_k\|^2 \geq \|v_i - v_k\|^2$ expands to

$$v_j \cdot v_j - v_i \cdot v_j - v_j \cdot v_k + v_i \cdot v_k \geq 0$$

which is *linear* in inner products $v_a \cdot v_b \Rightarrow$ still a **vector program**.

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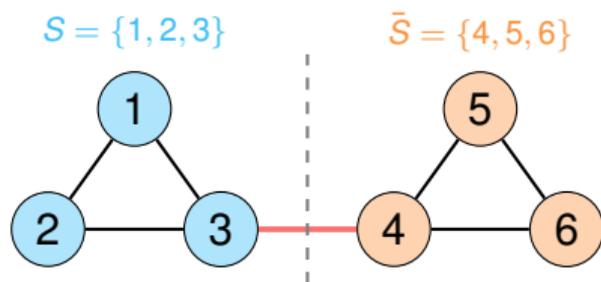
Minimum Bisection: The Problem

Input: $G = (V, E)$, $|V| = n$ (assume n even).

Goal: find $S \subseteq V$ with $|S| = n/2$, minimize crossing edges $|E(S, \bar{S})|$.

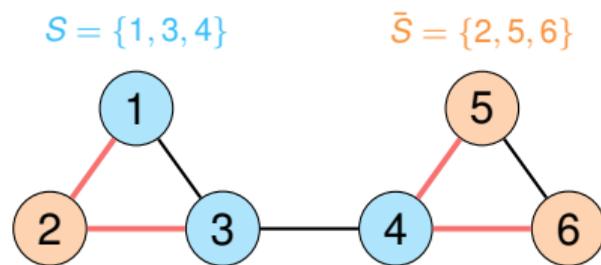
Example graph: two triangles joined by one bridge edge; $n = 6$, seek $|S| = 3$.

Optimal bisection: cost = 1



Only $\{3, 4\}$ crosses the cut.

Non-optimal bisection: cost = 4



Crossing: $\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}, \{4, 5\}, \{4, 6\}$.

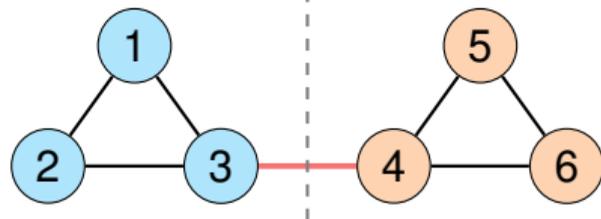
Bisection Example: Optimal vs. Non-Optimal

Graph: two triangles joined by one bridge edge; $n = 6$, seek $|S| = 3$.

Optimal bisection: cost = 1

$$S = \{1, 2, 3\}$$

$$\bar{S} = \{4, 5, 6\}$$

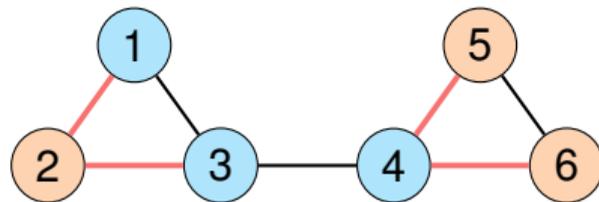


Only $\{3, 4\}$ crosses the cut.

Non-optimal bisection: cost = 4

$$S = \{1, 3, 4\}$$

$$\bar{S} = \{2, 5, 6\}$$



Crossing: $\{1, 2\}, \{2, 3\}, \{4, 5\}, \{4, 6\}$.

Minimum Bisection: The Problem

Problem is NP-Hard. Important in practice, many heuristics.

Quadratic program (label each vertex $x_i \in \{-1, +1\}$):

$$\min \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(i,j) \in E} (1 - x_i x_j) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{i < j} (x_i - x_j)^2 = n^2$$

- Each term $\frac{1}{2}(1 - x_i x_j)$ is 0 if same side, 1 if opposite
- Balance constraint enforces $|S| = n/2$

Vector Programming Formulation

Relax: replace $x_i \in \{-1, +1\}$ with unit vectors $v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $x_i x_j \mapsto v_i \cdot v_j$:

$$\min \frac{1}{4} \sum_{(i,j) \in E} \|v_i - v_j\|^2$$

$$\text{s.t. } \|v_i\|^2 = 1 \quad \forall i \in V$$

$$\sum_{i < j} \|v_i - v_j\|^2 = n^2 \quad (\text{balance})$$

$$v_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

All constraints are **linear in inner products** $v_i \cdot v_j \Rightarrow$ **SDP**.

Vector Programming Formulation: Add triangle inequality

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We are asking for an embedding into squared Euclidean distance!

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We are asking for an embedding into squared Euclidean distance! Valid because it holds when vectors are in $\{-1, 1\}$.

Vector Programming Formulation: Add triangle inequality

Arora-Rao-Vazirani' 2004 breakthrough work that used squared triangle inequality based SDP to obtain an $O(\sqrt{\log n})$ -approximation for sparsest cut, (near)-balanced partition etc.

Improved the previous $O(\log n)$ -approximation

Led to many other results and ideas. After Max-Cut this is one of the big successes of SDP in (approximation) algorithms. Both won the Fulkerson award.

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Optimizing Non-Convex Functions

Unconstrained optimization: given smooth function $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(x)$$

Saw gradient descent methods to achieve a *local optimum*. For convex functions, local optimum is also a *global optimum*.

What if f is not convex? Can we find global optimum in some structured way even if it takes exponential time?

What are interesting classes of non-convex functions?

Optimizing Polynomials

Univariate polynomials

- $f(x) = 2x^2 + 3x - 10$
- $f(x) = x^3 + 10x^2 + x - 100$
- $f(x) = 10x^4 + x^3 - 53x^2$

Multivariate polynomials

- $f(x) = x^3y^2 + x^2y^1 - 3x^2y^2 + 1$ (degree is 5)
- $f(x) = x^4y^2 + x^2y^4 - 3x^2y^2 + 1$ (degree is 6)

Optimizing Polynomials

Univariate polynomials

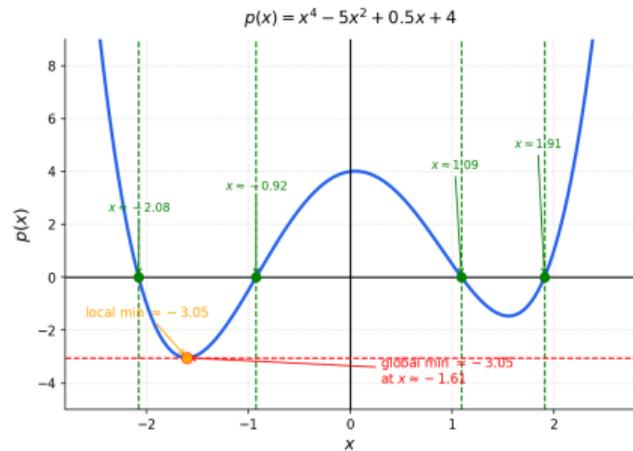
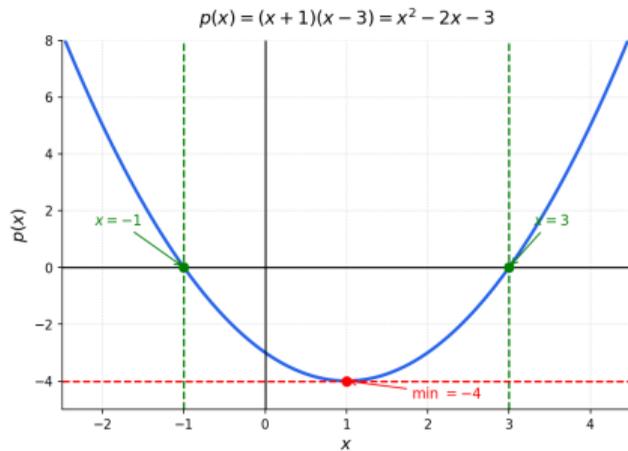
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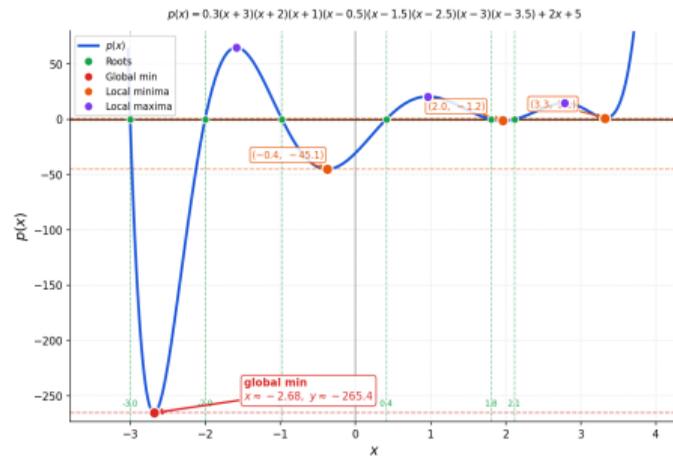
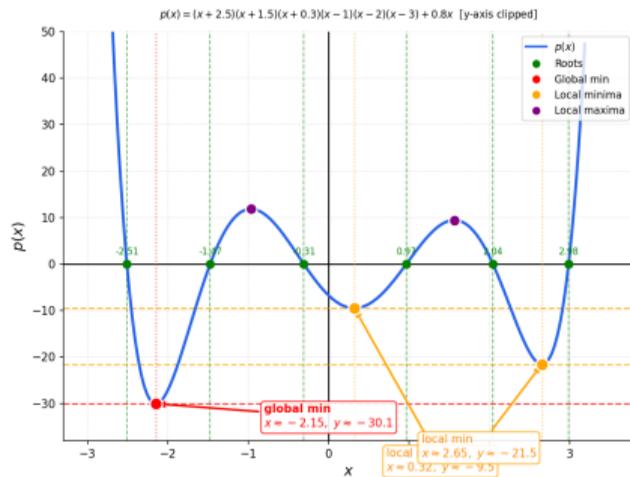
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If degree is odd then global minimum is $-\infty$ (why?) and hence main interest for *unconstrained* minimization is even degree polynomials

Examples: Univariate Polynomials



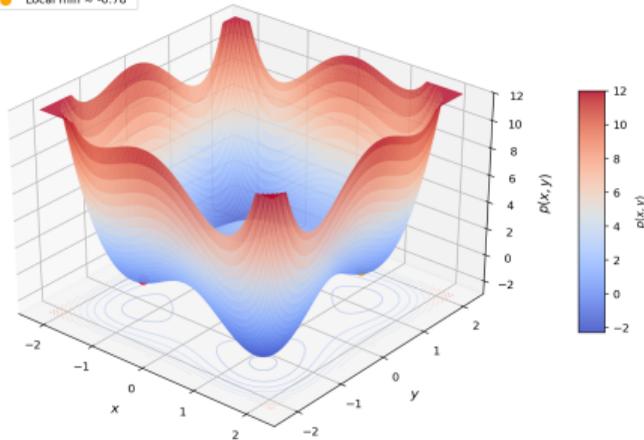
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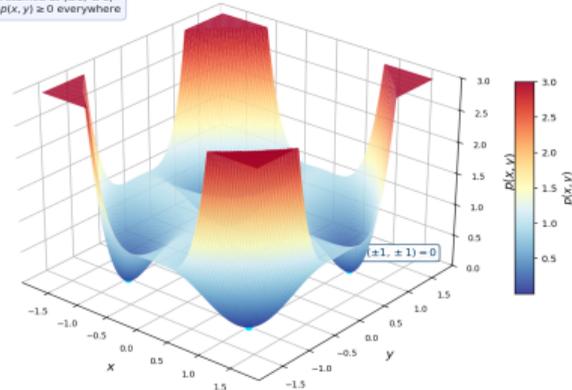
$$p(x, y) = x^4 + y^4 - 3x^2 - 3y^2 + \frac{1}{2}xy + 3$$

- Global min ≈ -0.78
- Local min ≈ -0.78



$$p(x, y) = x^4y^2 + x^2y^4 - 3x^2y^2 + 1$$

- Global minimum = 0
- Attained at $(\pm 1, \pm 1)$
- $p(x, y) \geq 0$ everywhere



When is a polynomial non-negative?

Question: given $p(x_1, \dots, x_n)$ of even degree is $p(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$?

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A polynomial p is a sum of squares (SOS) polynomial if there exist polynomials q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k such that $p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^k q_i(\mathbf{x})^2$.

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Clearly SOS \Rightarrow nonneg. Is the converse true?

Quadratic Case in One Variable

Consider $p(x) = ax^2 + bx + c$ with $a > 0$.

When is $p(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$?

Complete the square:

$$p(x) = a\left(x + \frac{b}{2a}\right)^2 + \left(c - \frac{b^2}{4a}\right)$$

So $p \geq 0$ iff $b^2 - 4ac \leq 0$ (discriminant condition).

When $p \geq 0$, it is explicitly a sum of (at most two) squares:

$$p(x) = \left(\sqrt{a}x + \frac{b}{2\sqrt{a}}\right)^2 + \left(\sqrt{c - \frac{b^2}{4a}}\right)^2$$

Conclusion: for univariate quadratics, $p \geq 0 \iff p$ is SOS.

Univariate Polynomials of Higher Degree

Consider $p(x)$ of even degree $2d$ in one variable.

Theorem

A univariate polynomial $p(x)$ of even degree is nonnegative for all $x \in \mathbb{R}$ if and only if it is a sum of squares of polynomials.

Proof sketch: Over \mathbb{C} , factor $p = c \prod_k (x - r_k)$. Since p has real coefficients, complex roots come in conjugate pairs $(x - \alpha)(x - \bar{\alpha}) = (x - a)^2 + b^2$. Real roots of even multiplicity contribute $(x - r)^{2m}$. $p \geq 0$ forces all real roots to have even multiplicity, so p is a product of nonneg quadratics — hence a sum of squares.

So far: nonneg = SOS for all univariate polynomials. Does this extend to multiple variables?

Multivariate Case

Do nonneg multivariate polynomials have to be SOS?

No! Hilbert proved in 1888 that nonneg \neq SOS in general. Specifically, in all cases *except*:

The three cases where nonneg = SOS (Hilbert, 1888)

- (i) univariate ($n = 1$), any even degree (ii) quadratics ($\text{deg} = 2$), any n (iii)
quartics ($\text{deg} = 4$), $n = 2$

In all other cases ($n \geq 2$, $\text{deg} \geq 4$ except the case above), there exist nonneg polynomials that are *not* SOS.

Hilbert's proof was non-constructive. An explicit example had to wait until **1967**.

The Motzkin Polynomial

The first *explicit* nonneg polynomial that is not SOS, due to **Motzkin (1967)**:

$$M(x, y) = x^4y^2 + x^2y^4 - 3x^2y^2 + 1$$

$M \geq 0$ for all (x, y) : Apply AM-GM inequality to three terms:

$$\frac{x^4y^2}{3} + \frac{x^2y^4}{3} + \frac{1}{3} \geq (x^4y^2 \cdot x^2y^4 \cdot 1)^{1/3} = x^2y^2$$

So $x^4y^2 + x^2y^4 + 1 \geq 3x^2y^2$, hence $M \geq 0$.

M is not SOS: we will see why shortly.

Is a polynomial SOS?

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A polynomial p is a sum of squares (SOS) polynomial if there exist polynomials q_1, q_2, \dots, q_k such that $p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^k q_i(\mathbf{x})^2$.

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Efficient algorithm via SDP!

Checking whether a polynomial is SOS

Let $p(x)$ be a univariate polynomial of degree $2d$.

$$p(x) = p_0 + p_1x + p_2x^2 + \dots + p_{2d}x^{2d}$$

View p as a vector of size $d + 1$.

Let $z = [1 \quad x \quad x^2 \quad \dots \quad x^d]^T$ be a vector of monomials

Theorem

$p(x)$ is a SOS iff there exists a psd matrix $Q \in M_{d+1}$ such that $z^T Qz = p(x)$.

Degree-4 Univariate SOS

Given: $p(x) = p_0 + p_1x + p_2x^2 + p_3x^3 + p_4x^4$. Use monomial vector $z = [1, x, x^2]^T$ (degree ≤ 2).

Step 1. Expand $p(x) = z^T Q z$ for an unknown 3×3 symmetric Q :

$$z^T Q z = Q_{11} \cdot 1 + 2Q_{12} \cdot x + (Q_{22} + 2Q_{13}) \cdot x^2 + 2Q_{23} \cdot x^3 + Q_{33} \cdot x^4$$

Step 2. Match each monomial coefficient with p :

$$Q_{11} = p_0, 2Q_{12} = p_1, (Q_{22} + 2Q_{13}) = p_2, 2Q_{23} = p_3, Q_{33} = p_4$$

Step 3. SDP: find any $Q \succeq 0$ satisfying the 5 equations. If feasible: Cholesky $Q = LL^T$ gives $p = \sum_k (l_k^T z)^2$.

Example: $p(x) = x^4 - 2x^3 + 3x^2 - 2x + 1$

Coefficients: $p_0 = 1, p_1 = -2, p_2 = 3, p_3 = -2, p_4 = 1$.

Constraints (Step 2):

$$Q_{11} = 1, \quad Q_{12} = -1, \quad Q_{23} = -1, \quad Q_{33} = 1, \quad Q_{22} = 3 - 2Q_{13}$$

Set $Q_{13} = q$ (free parameter). The full matrix is:

$$Q(q) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 & q \\ -1 & 3 - 2q & -1 \\ q & -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

PSD conditions Want $Q \succeq 0$ and it works for any $q \in [-\frac{1}{2}, 1]$. Choose $q = 1$.

SOS decomposition: $(1 - x + x^2)^2 = 1 - 2x + 3x^2 - 2x^3 + x^4$

Checking whether a polynomial is SOS

Let $p(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n)$ be a multivariable polynomial with n variables and degree $2d$.

Each monomial is $x_1^{a_1} x_2^{a_2} \dots x_n^{a_n}$ s.t all $a_i \geq 0$ and $0 \leq \sum_i a_i \leq 2d$. Hence, $\binom{n+2d}{2d}$

Let $z(\mathbf{x})$ be the vector of all monomials of degree $\leq d$:

$$z(\mathbf{x}) = [1, x_1, \dots, x_n, x_1^2, x_1 x_2, \dots, x_n^d]^T$$

The dimension of z is $s = \binom{n+d}{d}$.

Theorem

p is SOS if and only if there exists $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times s}$ with $Q \succeq 0$ such that

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = z(\mathbf{x})^T Q z(\mathbf{x})$$

Example: Motzkin Polynomial via SDP

$M(x, y) = x^4y^2 + x^2y^4 - 3x^2y^2 + 1$ has degree 6.

Monomial vector for degree ≤ 3 in 2 variables:

$$z = [1, x, y, x^2, xy, y^2, x^3, x^2y, xy^2, y^3]^T \quad (s = 10)$$

So Q is 10×10 .

Matching coefficients: e.g. coefficient of x^4y^2 in $z^T Q z$ must equal 1. Coefficient of x^3 must equal 0. And similarly for other coefficients.

Result: the linear system on the entries of Q , together with $Q \succeq 0$, is *infeasible*
 $\Rightarrow M$ is **not SOS**.

Proof of Theorem

Theorem

p is SOS iff there exists $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times s}$ with $Q \succeq 0$ such that $p(\mathbf{x}) = z(\mathbf{x})^T Q z(\mathbf{x})$.

- Suppose there is $Q \succeq 0$ such that $z(x)^T Q z(x) = p(x)$.
- Write $Q = W^T W$ and w_1, w_2, \dots, w_s be rows of W .
- $z^T Q z = \sum_{i=1}^s (w_i z(x))^2 = p(x)$.
- $q_i(x) = w_i z(x)$ is a polynomial of degree d . Thus $p(x) = \sum_i q_i(x)^2$.

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Other direction.

- Suppose $p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k q_i(x)^2$. Each q_i is of degree $\leq d$.
- Write $q_i(x) = \mathbf{c}_i^T \mathbf{z}(x)$ for some coefficient vector \mathbf{c}_i
- Let Q_i be psd matrix $\mathbf{c}_i \mathbf{c}_i^T$ (outer product)
- Then $p(x) = \sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{z}(x)^T Q_i \mathbf{z}(x) = \mathbf{z}(x)^T (\sum_i Q_i) \mathbf{z}(x)$. And $Q = \sum_i Q_i$ is psd.

Checking SOS via SDP

Checking whether p is SOS reduces to an SDP!

Expand $z(\mathbf{x})^T Q z(\mathbf{x})$ and match each monomial coefficient with p :

- Each monomial x^γ in p gives one *linear equation* in the entries of Q :

$$\sum_{\alpha+\beta=\gamma} Q_{\alpha\beta} = p_\gamma \quad \forall \gamma$$

- Seek Q satisfying all these linear constraints *and* $Q \succeq 0$

Find $Q \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times s}$

s.t. $\sum_{\alpha+\beta=\gamma} Q_{\alpha\beta} = p_\gamma \quad \forall \gamma$

$$Q \succeq 0$$

Feasible $\Rightarrow p$ is SOS (Cholesky of Q gives decomposition).

Infeasible $\Rightarrow p$ is not SOS (Motzkin polynomial!).

Summary so far

- A multivariate polynomial p can be non-negative but may not be SOS
- Given an even degree multivariate polynomial p one can check whether it is SOS via SDP.

Question: Is there a way to certify that $p \geq 0$?

Hilbert's 17th Problem

Even though nonneg $\not\Rightarrow$ SOS, Hilbert asked a related question:

Hilbert's 17th Problem (1900)

If $p(x_1, \dots, x_n) \geq 0$ for all $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, can p be written as a *sum of squares of rational functions*?

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_k \left(\frac{q_k(\mathbf{x})}{r_k(\mathbf{x})} \right)^2$$

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Theorem (Artin, 1927)

Yes. Every nonnegative polynomial $p \in \mathbb{R}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ is a sum of squares of rational functions.

Artin's proof was non-constructive (used model theory / real algebra). Finding an explicit representation and doing so algorithmically is where **SDP** enters.

The Motzkin Polynomial Again

$$M(x, y) = x^4y^2 + x^2y^4 - 3x^2y^2 + 1$$

M is not SOS but non-negative

Artin representation: $M(x, y) \cdot (x^2 + y^2 + 1)$ is SOS!

This prove that $M(x, y) \geq 0$ since $(x^2 + y^2 + 1)$ is SOS.

Gives an explicit ratio-of-SOS representation consistent with Artin's theorem.

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Interesting fact: $M(x, y) - \gamma$ is not SOS for any γ !

Summary: SOS, Hilbert, and SDP

Question	Answer / Tool
$p \geq 0$ everywhere?	NP-hard for $\text{deg} \geq 4, n \geq 2$
p SOS?	Feasibility SDP (Gram matrix)
nonneg \Rightarrow SOS?	Yes for $n = 1; n = 2, \text{deg} = 4; \text{deg} = 2$ No in general (Motzkin 1967)
nonneg \Rightarrow ratio of SOS?	Yes (Artin 1927; Hilbert's 17th)
Lower bound on $\min_K p$?	SOS hierarchy SDP (Lasserre)

Key message: SDP makes Artin's theorem constructive — the SOS hierarchy provides a systematic, algorithmically tractable sequence of relaxations that converge to the true polynomial optimum.

- 1 Recap of SDP
- 2 SDP for Metric Space Embeddings
- 3 SDP for Balanced Graph Partition
- 4 SDP and Sum-of-Squares Polynomials
- 5 Polynomial Optimization with Constraints**

Polynomial Optimization: The Problem

Setting: minimize a polynomial subject to polynomial constraints.

$$p^* = \min_{\mathbf{x}} p(\mathbf{x}) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad g_i(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, m$$

where $p, g_1, \dots, g_m \in \mathbb{R}[x_1, \dots, x_n]$ are polynomials.

The feasible set

$$K = \{ \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : g_i(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0 \forall i \}$$

is called a *semialgebraic set*.

Examples of Feasible Sets

Many important feasible sets are semialgebraic:

- **Unconstrained:** $K = \mathbb{R}^n$ (no constraints, $m = 0$)
- **Box:** $[-1, 1]^n$ via $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = 1 - x_i^2 \geq 0$
- **Euclidean ball:** $\|\mathbf{x}\| \leq 1$ via $g_1(\mathbf{x}) = 1 - \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \geq 0$
- **Polytope:** $\{\mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b}\}$ via $g_i(\mathbf{x}) = b_i - \mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{x} \geq 0$ (linear g_i)
- **Binary variables:** $x_i \in \{-1, +1\}$ via $g_i = 1 - x_i^2 \geq 0$ and $x_i^2 - 1 \geq 0$, which together force $x_i^2 = 1$

Hardness and Strategy

Hardness: Polynomial optimization is NP-hard in general.

It subsumes:

- Integer programming (binary variables are semialgebraic)
- Quadratic programming with combinatorial constraints
- Many other NP-hard problems

Strategy: Rather than solving exactly, compute the *best provable lower bound* via an algebraic certificate.

Certifying lower bounds is tractable via SDP.

Reformulation: Certifying Lower Bounds

Every lower bound $\lambda \leq p^*$ corresponds to $p(\mathbf{x}) - \lambda \geq 0$ on K .

So the optimum equals the *best certifiable lower bound*:

$$p^* = \sup \{ \lambda : p(\mathbf{x}) - \lambda \geq 0 \text{ for all } \mathbf{x} \in K \}$$

Challenge: verifying $p(\mathbf{x}) - \lambda \geq 0$ on K is NP-hard.

Key insight: replace the semantic condition “ ≥ 0 on K ” with a *syntactic algebraic certificate* that can be checked efficiently.

The SOS Certificate

Certificate structure: prove $p - \lambda \geq 0$ on K by writing it as

$$p(\mathbf{x}) - \lambda = \underbrace{\sigma_0(\mathbf{x})}_{\geq 0 \text{ everywhere}} + \sum_{i=1}^m \underbrace{\sigma_i(\mathbf{x})}_{\geq 0 \text{ everywhere}} \cdot \underbrace{g_i(\mathbf{x})}_{\geq 0 \text{ on } K}$$

where each $\sigma_i(\mathbf{x})$ is a **sum of squares (SOS)**.

Why valid: each term $\sigma_i \cdot g_i \geq 0$ on K , so the RHS ≥ 0 on K , confirming $\lambda \leq p^*$.

Optimization: maximize λ subject to the existence of such a certificate \Rightarrow an **SDP**.

Gram Matrices for Each Multiplier

Each SOS multiplier $\sigma_i(\mathbf{x})$ is represented via a Gram matrix.

Let $\mathbf{z}_r(\mathbf{x})$ be the vector of all monomials of degree $\leq r$. Then:

$$\sigma_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{z}_r(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{Q}_i \mathbf{z}_r(\mathbf{x}), \quad \mathbf{Q}_i \succeq 0$$

Degree bound at level r : require $\deg(\sigma_i g_i) \leq 2r$ for all i , giving

$$\deg(\sigma_i) \leq 2r - \deg(g_i)$$

Expanding each $\sigma_i g_i$ and matching monomial coefficients with $p - \lambda$ yields *linear equations* in λ and the entries of $\mathbf{Q}_0, \dots, \mathbf{Q}_m$.

The Level- r SDP

Combining the coefficient equations and PSD constraints gives an SDP:

Level- r SDP Relaxation (Lasserre Hierarchy)

$$\max \quad \lambda$$

$$\text{s.t.} \quad \text{coefficient equations: } p - \lambda = \sigma_0 + \sum_i \sigma_i g_i$$

$$Q_0, Q_1, \dots, Q_m \succeq 0$$

Matrix sizes:

- Q_0 has size $\binom{n+r}{r} \times \binom{n+r}{r}$
- Each Q_i is smaller (degree of g_i reduces the size)
- Solvable in polynomial time in the SDP size

Putinar's Positivstellensatz (1993)

Question: is a certificate always achievable?

Not in general. Under a mild condition, every *strictly positive* polynomial has one.

Theorem (Putinar, 1993)

Suppose K satisfies the Archimedean condition: $R - \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$ has an SOS-multiplier certificate for some $R > 0$ (i.e. the constraint system certifies K is bounded). Then every polynomial $p > 0$ on K admits a certificate

$$p = \sigma_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m \sigma_i g_i, \quad \sigma_i \text{ SOS.}$$

Practical note: if K is bounded, add the redundant constraint $g_{m+1} = R - \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \geq 0$ to ensure Archimedean.

The Lasserre Hierarchy

Putinar's theorem guarantees that the level- r SDP bounds converge to p^* :

- Level- r SDP produces lower bound $\lambda_r \leq p^*$
- Bounds are **non-decreasing**: $\lambda_1 \leq \lambda_2 \leq \dots \leq p^*$
- **Convergence**: $\lambda_r \rightarrow p^*$ as $r \rightarrow \infty$ (finite convergence when $p > 0$ on K)
- In practice, often exact at level $r = 1$ or $r = 2$