Numerical Optimization with Python

Lecture 2: Unconstrained Optimization (Part 1/2)

Lecture 02: Unconstrained Optimization (Part 1/2)

- Problem definition
- Necessary conditions (first and second order) for a local minimum
- Sufficient conditions
- Definition of convex functions (and global minimizers)
- Overview of algorithms: line search and trust regions
- Gradient Descent: naïve version

Minimize an objective function that depends on real variables, with no restriction on their values:

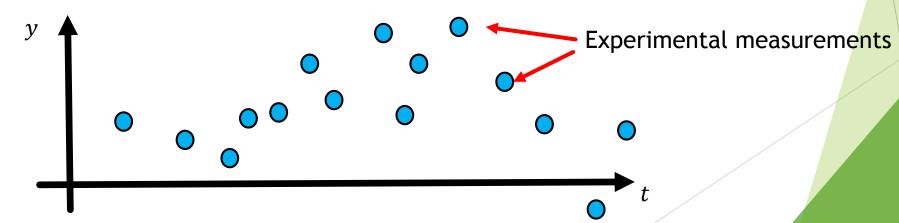
$$\min_{x\in\mathbb{R}^n} f(x)$$

- Unless otherwise stated we will assume $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is a smooth function (usually we will need continuous second derivatives)
- ► Typically: we do not have any global perspective of *f* , and only have local information (values of *f* and perhaps its derivatives at points we can usually choose)

- We would like algorithms that:
 - ► Identify solutions efficiently (time, computer storage)
 - ▶ Do not evaluate f or its derivatives unnecessarily, as sometimes evaluations are computationally expensive

Example - nonlinear least squares:

- Assume we have experimental data $(t_i, y_i)_{i=1,\dots,m}$ from some physical measurements $(t_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \mathbb{R})$
- We seek a mapping $\phi: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ to model the measured physical phenomenon, that best fits the measured data (in *some* sense)



Example - nonlinear least squares:

- From prior knowledge (or analysis) we assume the model has a linear trend, two periodic components and an exponential component
- Hence we restrict our search to:

$$\phi(t) = \phi(t; w_0, w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, w_5)$$

$$= w_0 + w_1 t + \sin w_2 t + \sin w_3 t + e^{-\left(\frac{w_4 - t}{w_5}\right)^2}$$

where $w = [w_0, w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, w_5]$ is a vector of unknown variables that parameterize the family of models we investigate

Example - nonlinear least squares:

Our usage of the observed data is to define the *residuals* (or *errors*) the assumed model has w.r.t the measurements:

$$r_i = y_i - \phi(t_i; w)$$

Observed value at t_i

Modelled value at t_i , given the vector w

Example - nonlinear least squares:

We can formulate the problem of determining the unknown parameters w that minimize the sum of the squared residuals:

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^6} r_1^2 + r_2^2 + \dots + r_m^2$$

The problem has 6 unknowns, and m terms in the objective function (and no constraints)

Example - nonlinear least squares:

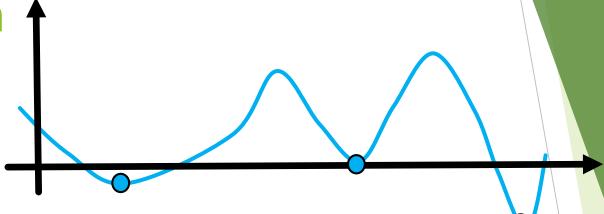
Some points to consider and variants:

- Is there a unique solution? If not, under which conditions will there be?
- What type of objective function are we minimizing? (Looks quadratic, does it?)
- ► Is the objective computationally expensive to evaluate? What does that depend on?

Example - nonlinear least squares:

Some points to consider and variants (cont.):

- Is the objective sensitive to outliers/erroneous measurements? What does that depend on? How can it be made more robust?
- ► The error measure we optimize: does it depend on *m* (number of observations)? What can be done about that?
- ▶ In what units is our error measure? What can we do about that?



- ▶ **Definition:** a point x^* is a *global minimizer* if $f(x^*) \le f(x)$ for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- We typically have only local information on f and most algorithms will be able to converge to local minimizers, defined next:
- ▶ **Definition:** a point x^* is a *local minimizer* if there exists a neighborhood N of x^* such that $\forall x \in N, f(x^*) \leq f(x)$
- Strict (or strong) minimizers are defined as above but with strict inequalities (while the others may be referred to as weak minimizers)

Recall Taylor's Theorem in one variable, for differentiable functions

of first and second order:

Assume $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable, and $x_0, x \notin \mathbb{R}$. Then there is point $c \in (x_0, x)$ such that: $f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(c)(x - x_0)$

If f is twice differentiable, then then there is point $c \in (x_o, x)$ such that we can write:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}f''(c)(x - x_0)^2$$

First order Taylor appx.

Second order Taylor appx.

Recall Taylor's Theorem in one variable, for differentiable functions of first and second order (cont.):

- We do not know where c is exactly, but usually bounds on derivative values in the interval are useful for bounds on the approximation err
- If the derivatives are continuous (also denoted $f \in C^1$ or $f \in C^2$) we can guarantee bounds in some neighborhood (we will use in a few slides)

For multivariate functions - we now show Taylor's theorem using the chain rule:

Assume $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable, and we would like first and second order approximations that are analog to the univariate case

For that we consider the line segment between x_0 and x that can be parametrized as follows:

$$x_0$$
 $x_0 + t(x - x_0), t \in (0,1)$

A comment on notation:

- In what follows, we will both use both $\nabla^2 f(x)$ and H(x) to denote the Hessian matrix of a scalar valued, twice differentiable function f at a point x
- We will use them interchangeably, with no confusion, as they mean the same thing: the matrix with $\frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$ in its i, j'th entry
- Note that ∇^2 does make sense: go ahead and differentiate that vector valued function $x \mapsto \nabla f(x)$, and obtain the Hessian matrix. We may think of this as applying the ∇ operator twice

For multivariate functions - we now show Taylor's theorem using the chain rule (cont.):

► The restriction of *f* to the line segment is a function of a single variable

$$t \in [0,1]$$
, defined by: $g(t) = f(x(t)) = f(x_0 + t(x - x_0))$

For g we have the first and second order Taylor approximations from the previous slides. First order:

 $f(x) = g(1) = g(0) + g'(t_c) \text{ for some}$ $\text{number } t_c \in (0,1) \text{ (and } t - t_0 = 1) \quad x_0$

$$x_0 + t(x - x_0), t \in (0,1)$$

For multivariate functions - we now show Taylor's theorem using the chain rule (cont.):

Using the chain rule, we differentiate:

$$g'(t) = \nabla f(x(t))^{T} \frac{dx}{dt} = \nabla f(x(t))^{T} (x - x_0)$$

► Hence the point $c = x(t_c)$ is the unknown point and we have our first order analog:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + \nabla f(c)^T (x - x_0)$$

Make sure the dimensions and matrix multiplication makes sense here! Note that:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = [x_1'(t), \dots, x_n'(t)]^T \text{ (column vector)}$$

For multivariate functions - we now show Taylor's theorem using the chain rule (cont.):

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we have our first order analog:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + \nabla f(c)^T (x - x_0)$$

This should look familiar: the explicit equation for the tangent plane to f at x_0 is:

$$L(x) = f(x_0) + \nabla f(x_0)^T (x - x_0)$$

For multivariate functions - we now show Taylor's theorem using the chain rule (cont.):

▶ To obtain our second order analog, we need g''(t). We already have:

$$g'(t) = \nabla f(x(t))^T \frac{dx}{dt} = \nabla f(x(t))^T (x - x_0) = (x - x_0)^T \nabla f(x(t))$$

▶ Differentiating again w.r.t t, recall $d[\nabla f(x)] = \nabla^2 f(x) = H(x)$:

$$g''(t) = (x - x_0)^T H(x(t)) \frac{dx}{dt} = (x - x_0)^T H(x(t))(x - x_0)$$

The expression for g'' is a quadratic form of the Hessian matrix, quadratic in the vector $x - x_0$

For multivariate functions - we now show Taylor's theorem using the chain rule (cont.):

Applying the second order appx for t, we have our multivariate analog:

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + \nabla f(x_0)^T (x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2} (x - x_0)^T H(c)(x - x_0)$$

Take a minute to make sure dimensions make sense. This is a scalar equation!

Theorem (First Order Necessary Conditions):

If $f \in C^1$ in a neighborhood of x^* and x^* is a local minimizer, then $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$

Proof:

- The underlying idea: a non-zero gradient enables decrease in function values for a small enough step size in the direction $-\nabla f(x^*)$.
- Formally: in our first order approximation, choose $x x_0$ to be the vector $-\alpha \nabla f(x^*)$, α is a positive scalar (the step size) we will soon choose appropriately

Proof (cont.):

- Note that $-\nabla f(x^*)^T \nabla f(x^*) = -\|\nabla f(x^*)\|^2 < 0$ and since ∇f is continuous, there is an entire neighborhood of x^* for which $-\nabla f(x)^T \nabla f(x^*) < 0$ (as a function of x in the first term)
- Hence we may choose a small enough α (displacement from x^* along $-\nabla f$) for which $-\alpha \nabla f(c)^T \nabla f(x^*) < 0$ and c is the intermediate point of the approximation: $f(x) = f(x^*) \alpha \nabla f(c)^T \nabla f(x^*) < f(x^*)$, a contradiction.

(Note: a point x^* for which $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$ is called a *stationary point*)

Definition: a (symmetric) matrix A is called *positive semidefinite* if the quadratic form is non-negative, namely: for all $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $x^T A x \ge 0$

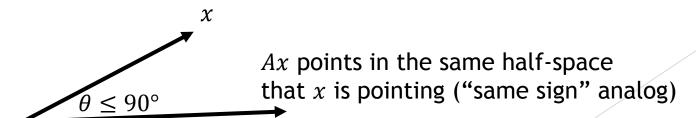
The matrix is called *positive definite* if for all $x \neq 0$, the inequality is strict.

(Recall that the above has a criterion: all eigenvalues are non-negative/positive, respectively)

Notation: we sometimes denote by $A \ge 0$ that A is positive semidefinite and by A > 0 that A is positive definite.

Positive definite matrices

- Thinking of scalars as operators via multiplication, in fact positive definite matrices are a generalization of positive numbers
- The image Ax is in the same half space as x, due to the positive inner product x^TAx
- The sign remains positive when operating on squared (positive) quantities



Theorem (Second Order Necessary Conditions):

If $f \in C^2$ in a neighborhood of x^* and x^* is a local minimizer, then $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$ and $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ is positive semidefinite

Proof:

From the previous theorem we have $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$. Now, assume the opposite, namely $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ is not positive semidefinite.

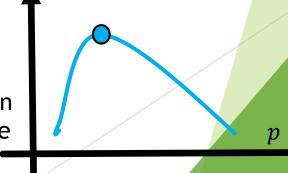
Proof (cont.):

Then we can choose a direction p such that $p^T \nabla^2 f(x^*) p < 0$ and since $\nabla^2 f(x)$ is continuous, an entire neighborhood of x^* enables choosing a small enough displacement along p such that:

$$f(x) = f(x^*) + \nabla f(x^*)^T p + \frac{1}{2} p^T H(c) p = f(x^*) + \frac{1}{2} p^T H(c) p < f(x^*)$$

which is again a contradiction.

For at least one direction p we can decrease function values (negative second derivative along p)



Sufficient Conditions for a Local Min

Theorem (Second Order Sufficient Conditions):

Assume $f \in C^2$, $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$ and $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ is positive definite. Then x^* is a strict local minimizer of f.

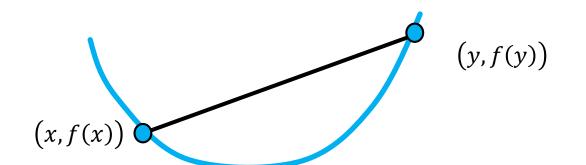
Proof:

- From the continuity of $\nabla^2 f$ we have an entire neighborhood of x^* for which $\nabla^2 f$ is positive definite
- ▶ Hence in any direction p, for small enough step ||p|| < r, we have:

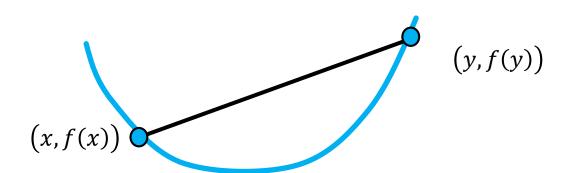
$$f(x) = f(x^*) + p^T \nabla^2 f(c) p > f(x^*)$$

- When the objective function is convex, global and local minimizers will be easy to characterize
- ▶ **Definition**: let $f: \mathcal{D} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ and assume its domain \mathcal{D} is convex. The function f is *convex* if for all $x, y \in \mathcal{D}$ and for any $\alpha \in [0,1]$:

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



- ▶ Geometrically, this means that the line segment between (x, f(x)) and (y, f(y)) lies above the graph of f
- A function is called *strictly convex* if strict inequality holds whenever $x \neq y$ and $\alpha \in (0,1)$
- ► (We say that *f* is *concave* if the opposite in equalities hold)

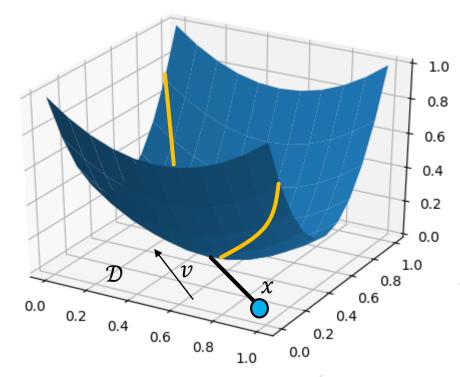


Linear and affine functions are both convex and concave

A function is convex if and only if its restriction to any line is convex, as a

function of a single variable:

g(t) = f(x + tv) where $x + tv \in \mathcal{D}$



First order conditions for convexity

Assume f is differentiable, that is: ∇f exists for all points of the (open) domain \mathcal{D} . Then f is convex if and only if for all $x, y \in \mathcal{D}$:

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x)$$

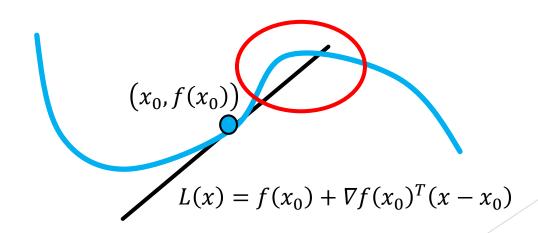
$$L(x) = f(x_0) + \nabla f(x_0)^T (x - x_0)$$

Geometrically: The tangent plane at any point lies entirely below the graph

$$(x_0, f(x_0))$$

First order conditions for convexity - geometry behind the proof:

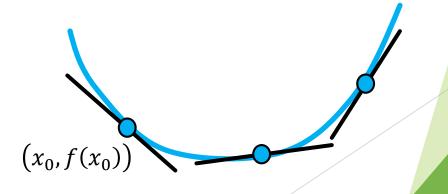
- A tangent plane that is not entirely below the graph of f, enables selecting a cord that will violate the definition of convexity (cord above graph):
- (Read the full proof: Boyd, Ch03 p.70)



Second order conditions for convexity

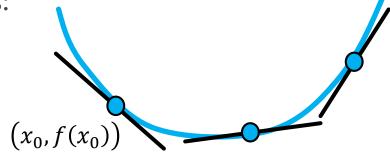
Assume f is twice differentiable, that is: $\nabla^2 f$ exists for all points of the (open) domain \mathcal{D} . Then f is convex if and only if $\nabla^2 f(x) \ge 0$

Geometrically: the graph has *positive* curvature - slopes are changing upwards



Second order conditions for convexity - proof main idea:

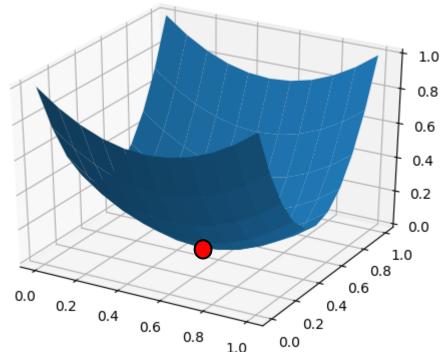
First make the positive curvature intuition formal in 1D, using the first order conditions:



- Then use the chain rule to show that that in any direction v in space, the second derivative is exactly the quadratic form of the Hessian in v (positive!)
- ightharpoonup Show that 1D convexity in every direction is equivalent to convexity in \mathbb{R}^n

Theorem: if f is convex, any local minimizer x^* is a global minimizer. If, in addition, f is differentiable, then any stationary point x^* is a global minimizer of

- Underlying idea: if it is not a global minimizer - a cord will violate convexity
- (proof: Nocedal & Wright Ch02)



It is sometimes useful to define the extended value version of a convex function as follows:

$$\bar{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \cup \infty$$

$$\bar{f}(x) = \begin{cases} f(x), & x \in \mathcal{D} \\ \infty, & x \notin \mathcal{D} \end{cases}$$

- ► This is convenient as we do not have to always explicitly state the domain and we can do arithmetic with functions without explicitly defining the intersection of their domains, etc.
- The extension is convex, allowing extended arithmetic and ordering in the definition!

Examples:

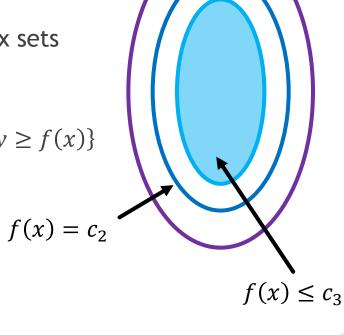
- Exponents: e^{ax} is convex on \mathbb{R} for any a
- ▶ Powers: x^a is convex on \mathbb{R}_+ for $a \ge 1$ or $a \le 0$ and concave for $a \in [0, 1]$
- ▶ Powers of absolute value: $|x|^p$ is convex on \mathbb{R} for $p \ge 1$
- Logarithms: $\log x$ is concave on \mathbb{R}

(Some) connections to convex sets:

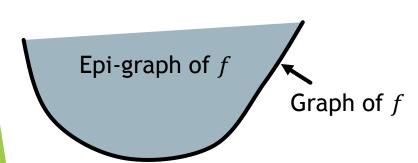
- Sub-level sets of convex functions, are convex sets
- **Definition**: the epi-graph of *f*:

$$epi(f) = \{(x, y) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1} : y \ge f(x)\}$$

A function is convex if and only if its epi-graph is a convex set



 $f(x) = c_1$



Line search methods:

- \blacktriangleright At the current iterate x_k find a search direction p_k
- ▶ Along the search direction p_k find a new iterate x_{k+1} such that the objective function value is lower
- ► The step length $\alpha > 0$ along the direction p_k is selected by *approximately* solving the (univariate!) minimization problem:

$$\min_{\alpha>0} f(x_k + \alpha p_k)$$

Two first examples of search directions:

- ▶ The direction of gradient descent: $p_k := -\nabla f(x_k)$
- ▶ The Newton direction: $p_k := -[\nabla^2 f(x_k)]^{-1} \nabla f(x_k)$

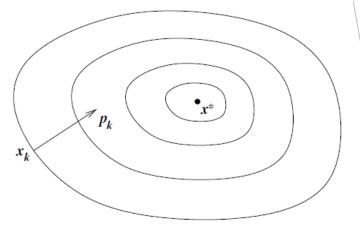


Fig: Nocedal & Wright, Ch02

- ► The direction of gradient descent gives rise to the family of gradient descent methods, and is a special cast of the direction of steepest descent (more on that later)
- ► The Newton direction solves the second order appx. minimization problem we will understand it next week

- Trust region methods:
 - \blacktriangleright At the current iterate x_k construct a model m_k of the objective function f
 - The model is similar to f in near x_k , and may not be a good approximation far from x_k
 - Restrict the search for a minimizer of m_k to some region around x_k , namely find a candidate step p to obtain $x_{k+1} = x_k + p$ by **approximately** solving:

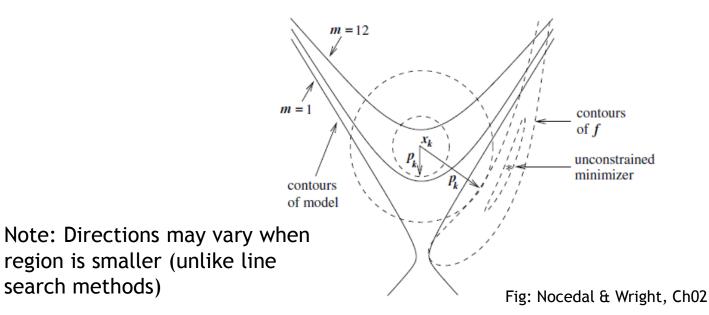
$$\min_{p} m_k(x_k + p)$$

where $x_k + p$ lies in the trust region

Two examples of models and trust regions:

search methods)

- Minimize the first order approximation of f at x_k in a Euclidean ball of radius Δ_k
- Minimize the second order approximation of f at x_k in a Euclidean ball of radius Δ_k



Gradient Descent - a First Naïve Version

```
def gradient_descent(obj_func, x0, alpha, max_iter):
   x prev = x0
   f_prev, df_prev = obj_func(x0)
   i = 0
   success = False
   while not success and i <= max iter:
      x next = x prev - alpha * df prev
      f next, df next = obj func(x next)
      i += 1
      success = check converge(x next, x prev,
                                f next, f prev, df next)
   return x next, success
```

Gradient Descent - a First Naïve Version

Discussion:

- Step size (now fixed alpha)
- Convergence:
 - ▶ Does the algorithm converge?
 - ▶ If so, to what point?
 - ▶ If so, at what rate?
- ▶ Easy/hard setups for the algorithm? Coordinate scaling, etc.
- ► Termination conditions?