Optimization Theory and Applications

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Introduction

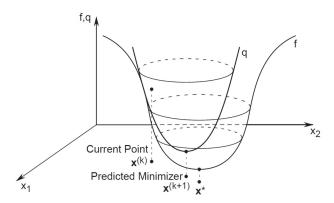
- Gradient methods use only gradient information (first derivative)
- If higher derivatives are used, the resulting algorithm may perform better (but it may be more computationally demanding)
- Newton's method uses the gradient and the Hessian to determine the search direction
- Newton's method performs better than the steepest descent method if the initial point is close to the minimizer

Underlying Idea of Newton's Method

- Given a start point
- Construct a quadratic approximation to the objective function that matches the first and second derivative values at that point
- Minimize the approximate quadratic function instead of the original objective function
- Use the minimizer of the approximate function as the starting point and repeat the procedure iteratively

- Given: $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, and current iterate $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$
- To compute $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}$, approximate f by a quadratic

$$q(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{\top} \mathbf{g}^{(k)} + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{\top} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)})$$



- Use minimizer of q as next iterate $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}$
- Write $\mathbf{g}^{(k)}=\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}).$ By FONC, we have $\nabla q(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})=0$ $\nabla q(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})=\mathbf{g}^{(k)}+\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})(\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}^{(k)})=0$
- Newton's algorithm

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{-1}\mathbf{g}^{(k)}$$

• Note: no step size (or step size = 1)

Example: Use Newton's method to minimize

$$f(x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4) = (x_1 + 10x_2)^2 + 5(x_3 - x_4)^2 + (x_2 - 2x_3)^4 + 10(x_1 - x_4)^4$$

Starting point $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = [3, -1, 0, 1]^\top$. Perform three iterations

• For $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$, $f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}) = 215$ and

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 2(x_1 + 10x_2) + 40(x_1 - x_4)^3 \\ 20(x_1 + 10x_2) + 4(x_2 - 2x_3)^3 \\ 10(x_3 - x_4) - 8(x_2 - 2x_3)^3 \\ -10(x_3 - x_4) - 40(x_1 - x_4)^3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 + 120(x_1 - x_4)^2 & 20 & 0 \\ 20 & 200 + 12(x_2 - 2x_3)^2 & -24(x_2 - 2x_3)^2 \\ 0 & -24(x_2 - 2x_3)^2 & 10 + 48(x_3 - 2x_3)^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) &= \\ & \begin{pmatrix} 2 + 120(x_1 - x_4)^2 & 20 & 0 & -120(x_1 - x_4)^2 \\ 20 & 200 + 12(x_2 - 2x_3)^2 & -24(x_2 - 2x_3)^2 & 0 \\ 0 & -24(x_2 - 2x_3)^2 & 10 + 48(x_2 - 2x_3)^2 & -10 \\ -120(x_1 - x_4)^2 & 0 & -10 & 10 + 120(x_1 - x_4)^2 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Iteration 1

$$\begin{split} \boldsymbol{g}^{(0)} &= [306, -144, -2, -310]^{\top}, \\ \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(0)}) &= \begin{bmatrix} 482 & 20 & 0 & -480 \\ 20 & 212 & -24 & 0 \\ 0 & -24 & 58 & -10 \\ -480 & 0 & -10 & 490 \end{bmatrix}, \\ \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(0)})^{-1} &= \begin{bmatrix} 0.1126 & -0.0089 & 0.0154 & 0.1106 \\ -0.0089 & 0.0057 & 0.0008 & -0.0087 \\ 0.0154 & 0.0008 & 0.0203 & 0.0155 \\ 0.1106 & -0.0087 & 0.0155 & 0.1107 \end{bmatrix} \\ \boldsymbol{F}(\boldsymbol{x}^{(0)})^{-1} \boldsymbol{g}^{(0)} &= [1.4127, -0.8413, -0.2540, 0.7460]^{\top}. \end{split}$$

Hence

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(0)})^{-1}\mathbf{g}^{(0)} = [1.5873, -0.1587, 0.2540, 0.2540]^{\top}$$

 $f(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}) = 31.8$

Iteration 2

$$\mathbf{g}^{(1)} = [94.81, -1.179, 2.371, -94.81]^{\top}$$

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}) = \begin{bmatrix} 215.3 & 20 & 0 & -213.3 \\ 20 & 205.3 & -10.67 & 0 \\ 0 & -10.67 & 31.34 & -10 \\ -213.3 & 0 & -10 & 223.3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(1)})^{-1}\mathbf{g}^{(1)} = [0.5291, -0.0529, 0.0846, 0.0846]^{\top}$$

Hence

$$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \mathbf{x}^{(1)} - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(1)})^{-1}\mathbf{g}^{(1)} = [1.0582, -0.1058, 0.1694, 0.1694]^{\top}$$

 $f(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}) = 6.28$

Iteration 3

$$\mathbf{g}^{(2)} = [28.09 - 0.34750.7031 - 28.08]^{\top}$$

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}) = \begin{bmatrix} 96.8 & 20 & 0 & -94.8 \\ 20 & 202.4 & -4.744 & 0 \\ 0 & -4.744 & 19.49 & -10 \\ -94.80 & 0 & -10 & 104.8 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence

$$\mathbf{x}^{(3)} = \mathbf{x}^{(2)} - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(2)})^{-1}\mathbf{g}^{(2)} = [0.7037, -0.0704, 0.1121, 0.1111]^{\top}$$

 $f(\mathbf{x}^{(2)}) = 1.24$

- The kth iteration of Newton's method can be break down into two steps:
 - Solve $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{g}^{(k)}$ for $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$
 - Set $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^k + \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$
- Step 1 requires the solution of an n × n system of linear equations
- An efficient method for solving systems of linear equations is essential when using Newton's method

Analysis of Newton's Method

- Does the method work? When does it work? How well does it work?
- For general f
 - · Hessian may not be invertible
 - Algorithm may not converge if we do not start close enough to x*
 - It may not have descent property
 - If it works, it is fast

Analysis of Newton's Method

- If f is a quadratic (with invertible Hessian Q), then Newton's method always converges to x* in 1 step. The order of convergence is ∞
- For $f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^{\top}\mathbf{b}$, the gradient and the Hessian are $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x} \mathbf{b}$ $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{O}$

Hence, given any initial point $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$, by Newton's method $\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}^{(1)} &= \mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(0)})^{-1}\mathbf{g}^{(0)} \\ &= \mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{Q}^{-1}[\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{b}] \\ &= \mathbf{Q}^{-1}\mathbf{b} \\ &= \mathbf{x}^{\star} \end{aligned}$

Convergence of Newton's Method

- What is the order of convergence of Newton's method for general f
- **Theorem**: Suppose that $f \in \mathcal{C}^3$ and $\mathbf{x}^\star \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a point such that $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^\star) = 0$ and $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^\star)$ is invertible. Then for all $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ sufficiently close to \mathbf{x}^\star , Newton's method is well-defined for all k and converges to \mathbf{x}^\star with an order of convergence at least 2
- Idea of proof: show $\|\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} \mathbf{x}^\star\| = O(\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} \mathbf{x}^\star\|^2)$ Thus

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{\|\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} - \mathbf{x}^*\|}{\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}^*\|^2} = \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{O(\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}^*\|)}{\|\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}^*\|^2} = 0$$

Newton's Method and Descent Property

- Note that in the above Theorem, we did not state that x* is a local minimizer
- If \mathbf{x}^* is a local maximizer, and if $f \in \mathcal{C}^3$ and $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^*)$ is invertible, Newton's method would converge to \mathbf{x}^* if we start close enough
- Newton's method may not have descent property
 - It is possible that $f(\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}) > f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$
- Fortunately, the vector $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{-1}\mathbf{g}^{(k)}$ points in a direction of decreasing f

Newton's Method and Descent Property

• **Theorem**: Let $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}$ be the sequence generated by Newton's method for minimizing a given objective function $f(\mathbf{x})$. If the Hessian $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) > 0$ and $\mathbf{g}^{(k)} = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \neq 0$, then the search direction

$$\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{-1}\mathbf{g}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}$$

from $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ to $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}$ is a descent direction for f in the sense that there exists an $\bar{\alpha}>0$ such that for all $\alpha\in(0,\bar{\alpha})$

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}) < f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$$

Newton's Method and Descent Property

- Proof:
 - Let $\phi(\alpha) = f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)})$
 - Then using the chain rule, we obtain

$$\phi'(\alpha) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)})^{\top} \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$$

- Hence, due to $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{-1} > 0$ and $\mathbf{g}^{(k)} \neq 0$, $\phi'(0) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{\top} \mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{g}^{(k)} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{-1} \mathbf{g}^{(k)} < 0$
- Thus, there exists an $\bar{\alpha}>0$ so that for all $\alpha\in(0,\bar{\alpha})$, $\phi(\alpha)<\phi(0)$. This implies that for all $\alpha\in(0,\bar{\alpha})$

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}) < f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$$

- It is possible to modify the algorithm such that the descent property holds
- The above theorem motivates the following modification of Newton's method:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} &= \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \alpha_k \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{-1} \mathbf{g}^{(k)} \\ \text{where} \\ &\alpha_k = \arg\min_{\alpha \geq 0} f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \alpha_k \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{-1} \mathbf{g}^{(k)}) \end{aligned}$$

- At each iteration, we perform a line search in the direction $-\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{-1}\mathbf{g}^{(k)}$
- Similar to the steepest descent method

- Drawbacks of Newton's method
 - Evaluation of $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ for large n can be computationally expensive
 - Solve the set of *n* linear equations $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{g}^{(k)}$
 - Which one is more time consuming
- Another potential issue is that the Hessian matrix may not be positive definite
- Why?

- If the Hessian $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ is not positive definite, then the search direction $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{-1}\mathbf{g}^{(k)}$ may not point in descent direction
- Is there any way to address this problem
- Levenberg-Marquardt modification of Newton's method: a simple technique to ensure that the search direction is a descent direction

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - (\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + \mu_k \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{g}^{(k)}$$

where $\mu_k \geq 0$

- The main idea:
 - For a symmetric matrix F which may not be positive definite
 - Let $\lambda_1, \ldots, \lambda_n$ be the eigenvalues of \mathbf{F} with corresponding eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_n$
 - The eigenvalues are real but may not be positive
 - Next, consider the matrix $\mathbf{G} = \mathbf{F} + \mu \mathbf{I}$, where $\mu > 0$. Accordingly, the eigenvalues of \mathbf{G} is $\lambda_1 + \mu, \dots, \lambda_n + \mu$

$$\mathbf{G}\mathbf{v}_{i} = (\mathbf{F} + \mu \mathbf{I})\mathbf{v}_{i}$$

$$= \mathbf{F}\mathbf{v}_{i} + \mu \mathbf{I}\mathbf{v}_{i}$$

$$= \lambda_{i}\mathbf{v}_{i} + \mu \mathbf{v}_{i}$$

$$= (\lambda_{i} + \mu)\mathbf{v}_{i}$$

• If μ is sufficiently large, all eigenvalues of ${\bf G}$ are positive and ${\bf G}$ is positive definite. Accordingly, the search direction $({\bf F}({\bf x}^{(k)}) + \mu_k {\bf I})^{-1} {\bf g}^{(k)}$ always points in a descent direction

Modification of Newton's Method: Levenberg-Marquardt Modification

• Furthermore, we can also introduce a step size α_k as follows:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \alpha_k (\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + \mu_k \mathbf{I})^{-1} \mathbf{g}^{(k)}$$

- When $\mu_k \to 0$, it approaches the behavior of the pure Newton's method
- When $\mu_k \to \infty$, it approaches a pure gradient method with small step size
- In practice, we can start with a small value of μ and increase it slowly until we find that the iteration is descent

 We now examine a particular class of optimization problems and the use of Newton's method for solving them. Consider the following problem

$$\min \sum_{i=1}^m (r_i(\mathbf{x}))^2$$

where $r_i(\mathbf{x}): \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ are given functions

- This particular problem is called a nonlinear least-squares problem
- A special case, r_i is linear

- Defining $\mathbf{r} = [r_1, \dots, r_m]^\top$, we write the objective function as $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x})^\top \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x})$
- To apply Newton's method, we first compute the gradient and the Hessian of f. The jth component of ∇f(x) is

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x})_j = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}) = 2 \sum_{i=1}^m r_i(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial x_j}(\mathbf{x})$$

Denote the Jacobian matrix of r by

$$m{J}(m{x}) = egin{bmatrix} rac{\partial r_1}{\partial x_1}(m{x}) & \cdots & rac{\partial r_1}{\partial x_n}(m{x}) \ dots & dots \ rac{\partial r_m}{\partial x_1}(m{x}) & \cdots & rac{\partial r_m}{\partial x_n}(m{x}) \end{bmatrix}$$

• Then the gradient of f can be represented as

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = 2\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})^{\top} \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x})$$

 Next, we compute the Hessian matrix of f, The jth component of the Hessian is given by

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_k \partial x_j}(\boldsymbol{x}) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_j}(\boldsymbol{x}) \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \left(2 \sum_{i=1}^m r_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial x_j}(\boldsymbol{x}) \right) \\ &= 2 \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\frac{\partial r_i}{\partial x_k}(\boldsymbol{x}) \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial x_j}(\boldsymbol{x}) + r_i(\boldsymbol{x}) \frac{\partial^2 r_i}{\partial x_k \partial x_j}(\boldsymbol{x}) \right) \end{split}$$

• Let S(x) be the matrix with the (k, j)th component as

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} r_i(\mathbf{x}) \frac{\partial^2 r_i}{\partial x_k \partial x_i}(\mathbf{x})$$

We write the Hessian matrix as

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = 2(\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})^{\top}\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}))$$

 Therefore, Newton's method applied to the nonlinear least-squares problem is given by

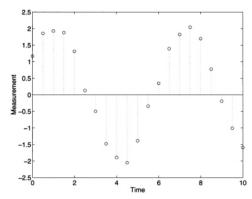
$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - (\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})^{\top}\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}))^{-1}\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})^{\top}\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x})$$

- Note
 - In some applications, the matrix $S(\mathbf{x})$ involving the second derivatives can be ignored because its components are negligibly small. In this case, the Newton's method reduces to what is commonly called Gauss-Newton method

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - (\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})^{\top} \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}))^{-1} \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x})^{\top} \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{x})$$

 Note that the Gauss-Newton method does not require calculation of the second derivatives of r

• **Example**: Suppose we are given m measurements of a process at m points in time. Let t_1, \ldots, t_m denote the measurement times and y_1, \ldots, y_m the measurement values. We wish to fit a sinusoid to the measurement data



• The equation of the sinusoid is

$$y = A \sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

with appropriate choices of the parameters A, ω , and ϕ

 To formulate the data-fitting problem, we construct the objective function

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} (y_i - A \sin(\omega t + \phi))^2$$

representing the sum of the squared errors between the measurement values and the function values at the corresponding points

• Let $\mathbf{x} = [A, \omega, \phi]^{\top}$ represent the vector of decision variables. We therefore obtain a nonlinear least-squares problem as

$$r_i(\mathbf{x}) = y_i - A\sin(\omega t + \phi)$$

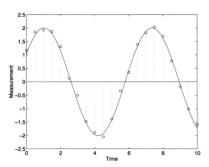
• The Jacobian matrix J(x) is given by

$$J(\mathbf{x})_{i,1} = -\sin(\omega t_i + \phi)$$

$$J(\mathbf{x})_{i,2} = -t_i A \cos(\omega t_i + \phi)$$

$$J(\mathbf{x})_{i,3} = -A\cos(\omega t_i + \phi)$$

• Using the expressions above, we apply the Gauss-Newton method to find the sinusoid of best fit. The parameters of this sinusoid are $A=2.01,\,\omega=0.992,$ and $\phi=0.541$



Summary of Newton's Method

- Newton's method performs well if we start close enough
- We can incorporate a step size to ensure descent
- For a quadratic, converges in one step
- Is there some way of using only gradients, but still only converge in one or a finite number of steps for quadratics?
- Yes. Conjugate direction method