

1 Stationary Points (one variable)

2 Stationary Points (many variables)

Finding Stationary Points

Intro to
Comp. Phys.

James
Farrell &
Jure
Dobnikar

Stationary
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(one
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the problem of finding a **stationary point** of a function is the same as finding a **zero of the first derivative** of that function

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the problem of finding a **stationary point** of a function is the same as finding a **zero of the first derivative** of that function

the methods we will study are very **similar to root-finding methods**

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the problem of finding a **stationary point** of a function is the same as finding a **zero of the first derivative** of that function

the methods we will study are very **similar to root-finding methods**

special care must be taken if we are only looking for **minima or maxima**

Golden Section Search

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1 choose two points (a, b) that bracket a minimum;

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- 1 choose **two** points (a, b) that **bracket** a minimum;
- 2 choose two **probe points** (c, d) on the bracket;

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Q. We want a **reliable, efficient** method; how should we choose the points (c, d) ?

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Q. We want a **reliable, efficient** method; how should we choose the points (c, d) ?

A1. Such that (a, d) and (c, b) have the same width (**reliable**),

$$c = b - \frac{b - a}{x}; \quad d = a + \frac{b - a}{x}$$

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$$\frac{b-a}{d-a} = \frac{d-a}{c-a}$$

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the conditions are satisfied when

$$x = \frac{\sqrt{5} + 1}{2},$$

the golden ratio, hence the name, “golden section search.”

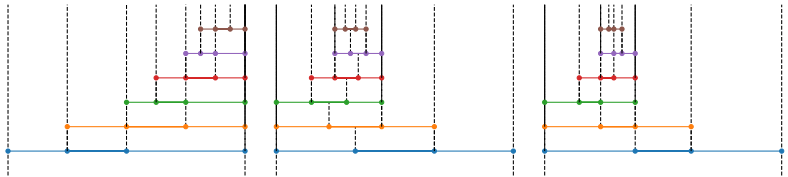
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- Uneven intervals (left), even, but suboptimal intervals (centre), and golden section search (right)

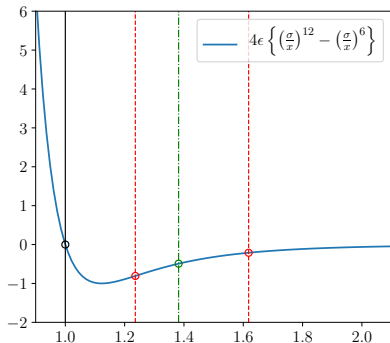
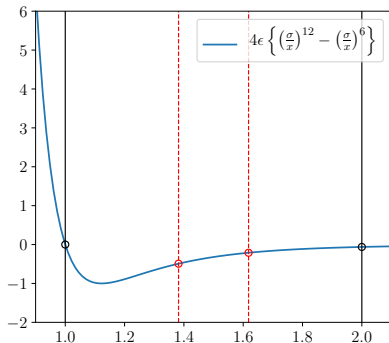
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- One iteration of the golden section search applied to the Lennard-Jones potential.

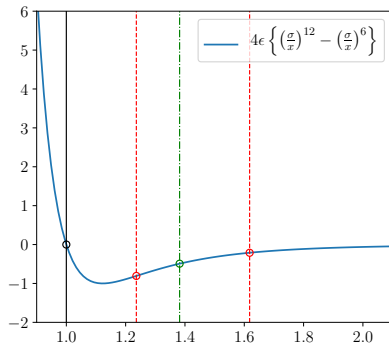
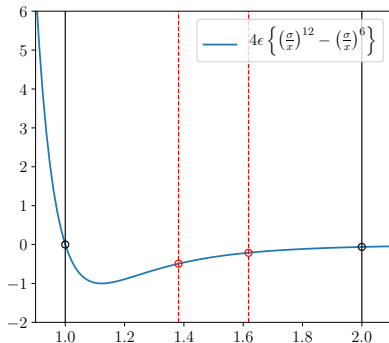
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- One iteration of the golden section search applied to the Lennard-Jones potential.
- The “c” point in the first bracket is **reused** as the “d” point in the second bracket.

Successive parabolic interpolation

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- 1 choose three points (a, b, c) that need not bracket a stationary point;
- 2 find the unique parabola to the curve passing through those points,

$$p(x) = \frac{(x-b)(x-c)}{(a-b)(a-c)} f_a + \frac{(x-a)(x-c)}{(b-a)(b-c)} f_b + \frac{(x-a)(x-b)}{(c-a)(c-b)} f_c$$

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- 3 find the unique stationary point of the parabola,

$$d = \frac{1}{2} \frac{a^2 (f_c - f_b) + b^2 (f_a - f_c) + c^2 (f_b - f_a)}{a (f_c - f_b) + b (f_a - f_c) + c (f_b - f_a)}$$

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- 4 $(a, b, c) \leftarrow (b, c, d)$
- 5 continue until $|c - b| < \delta$

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- 4 $(a, b, c) \leftarrow (b, c, d)$
- 5 continue until $|c - b| < \delta$
- 6 the order of convergence $q \approx 1.324$

Successive parabolic interpolation

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What if we only want to converge to minima?

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What if we only want to converge to minima?

1 find a bracket (a, c, b) ;

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What if we only want to converge to minima?

- 1 find a bracket (a, c, b) ;
- 2 find the new point d ;

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What if we only want to converge to minima?

- 1 find a bracket (a, c, b) ;
- 2 find the new point d ;
- 3 update with the new, narrower bracket,

$$(a, c, b) \leftarrow \begin{cases} (a, d, c) & d < c, \quad f(d) < f(c) \\ (d, c, b) & d < c, \quad f(d) > f(c) \\ (c, d, b) & d > c, \quad f(d) < f(c) \\ (a, c, d) & d > c, \quad f(d) > f(c) \end{cases}.$$

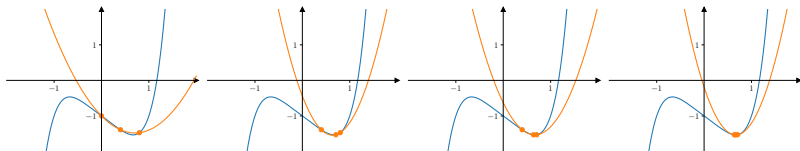
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- Successive parabolic interpolation applied to the quintic with $(a, b, c) = (0.0, 0.4, 0.8)$.

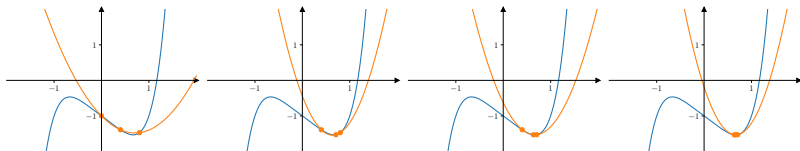
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- Successive parabolic interpolation applied to the quintic with $(a, b, c) = (0.0, 0.4, 0.8)$.
- What happens if you set $(a, b, c) = (0.0, 0.5, 1.0)$?

Newton–Raphson (again)

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Newton–Raphson (again)

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- 1 pick an initial guess x_0 close to the stationary point;
- 2 find the extremum of the parabola that at x_0 has the same function value, derivative, and curvature as the objective function

Newton–Raphson (again)

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- 1 pick an initial guess x_0 close to the stationary point;
- 2 find the extremum of the parabola that at x_0 has the **same function value, derivative, and curvature** as the objective function
- 3 *i.e.*, solve for the extremum of a second-order Taylor expansion of the function,

$$f(\xi) = f(x_0 + \epsilon_0) = f_0 + \epsilon_0 f'_0 + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_0^2)$$

Newton–Raphson (again)

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$$f'(\xi) = f'(x_0 + \epsilon_0) = f'_0 + \epsilon_0 f''_0 + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_0^2)$$

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$$0 = f'_0 + \epsilon_0 f''_0 + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_k^2)$$

Newton–Raphson (again)

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- 3 *i.e.*, solve for the extremum of a second-order Taylor expansion of the function,

$$\epsilon_0 = -\frac{f'_0}{f''_0} + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon_k^2)$$

Newton–Raphson (again)

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- 4 which point is,

$$x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f'_0}{f''_0}$$

Newton–Raphson (again)

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- 4 which point is,

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- 5 $x_0 \leftarrow x_1$

Newton–Raphson (again)

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$$x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f'_0}{f''_0}$$

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- 6 continue until $|x_1 - x_0| < \delta$

Newton–Raphson (again)

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- to find only minima, take the absolute value of the second derivative in the update step,

$$x_1 = x_0 - \frac{f'_0}{|f''_0|}$$

Newton–Raphson (again)

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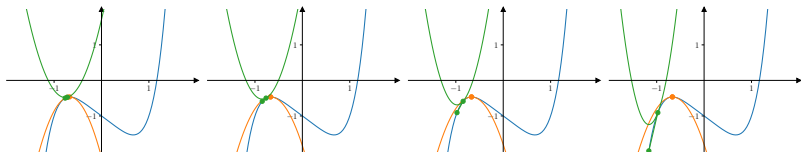
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- Convergence to a minimum is not guaranteed...

Secant Method (again)

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- You may have noticed that the secant method for zeros is equivalent to the NR method for zeros with the **derivative approximated by first backward differences**

Secant Method (again)

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- You may have noticed that the secant method for zeros is equivalent to the NR method for zeros with the **derivative approximated by first backward differences**
- the secant method for stationary points works on a similar basis, with the **second derivative** term replaced by a **first backward differences** approximation of the first derivative...of the first derivative

Gradient Descent (something new!)

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- 1 pick an initial guess x_0 close to the stationary point;
- 2 move a small amount in the direction that the function is decreasing,

$$x_1 = x_0 + \Delta x_0 = x_0 - \alpha p$$

(α is a **small, positive, adjustable** parameter, chosen to **guarantee function decrease**)

Gradient Descent (something new!)

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- 3 $x_0 \leftarrow x_1$
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- By construction, this method only finds minima

Gradient Descent (something new!)

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 - 4 continue until $|x_1 - x_0| < \delta$
- By construction, this method only finds minima
 - to find maxima, a negative value of α should be employed

The gradient-descent (one dimensional)

Choosing the value of α is a critical consideration: if α is too small, convergence is slow; if α is too large, then we risk jumping back and forth over the minimum, which also results in slow convergence.

- 1 devise a simple algorithm to choose α ;
- 2 implement the gradient-descent method, using this algorithm.

Backtracking line search

- consider the update

$$x_1 = x_0 - \alpha p$$

where α is a **positive, adjustable parameter**, and $p = f'(x) / |f'(x)|$ is either 1 or -1

Backtracking line search

- consider the update

$$x_1 = x_0 - \alpha p$$

where α is a **positive, adjustable parameter**, and $p = f'(x) / |f'(x)|$ is either 1 or -1

- start with a **linear** approximation to f ,

$$f(x_0 - \alpha p) = f(x_0) - \alpha p f'(x_0) + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^2)$$

Backtracking line search

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Stationary
Points
(one
variable)

Stationary
Points
(many
variables)

- consider the update

$$x_1 = x_0 - \alpha p$$

where α is a **positive, adjustable parameter**, and $p = f'(x) / |f'(x)|$ is either 1 or -1

- start with a **linear** approximation to f ,

$$f(x_0 - \alpha p) = f(x_0) - \alpha p f'(x_0) + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^2)$$

- if f really was linear, then

$$f(x_0 - \alpha p) - f(x_0) = -\alpha p f'(x_0)$$

Backtracking line search

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$$f(x_0 - \alpha p) - f(x_0) = -\alpha p f'(x_0)$$

- so we say the function value has **decreased sufficiently** if

$$f(x_0 - \alpha p) \leq f(x_0) - \alpha c m \tag{1}$$

where $m = p f'(x_0) = |f'(x_0)|$ and $c \in (0, 1)$ is a **control parameter**

Backtracking line search

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- if condition 1 is not satisfied, update α as $\alpha \leftarrow \tau \alpha$ where $\tau \in (0, 1)$ is another control parameter

Backtracking line search

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- continue until condition 1 is satisfied

Backtracking line search

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- if condition 1 is not satisfied, update α as $\alpha \leftarrow \tau \alpha$ where $\tau \in (0, 1)$ is another control parameter
- continue until condition 1 is satisfied
- typically, $c = 0.5$, $\tau = 0.5$

1 Stationary Points (one variable)

2 Stationary Points (many variables)

Solving linear equations

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Stationary
Points
(one
variable)

Stationary
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variables)

- Consider the system of equations,

$$\begin{aligned}2x + y - z &= 8; \\ -3x - y + 2z &= -11; \\ -2x + y + 2z &= -3,\end{aligned}$$

- we can summarise these equations in an **augmented matrix**

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 1 & -1 & 8 \\ -3 & -1 & 2 & -11 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 & -3 \end{array} \right]$$

Solving linear equations

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- Consider the system of equations,

$$2x + y - z = 8;$$

$$-3x - y + 2z = -11;$$

$$-2x + y + 2z = -3,$$

- $(R2) - \frac{3}{2}(R1), (R3) + (R1)$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 1 & -1 & 8 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 1 \\ 0 & 2 & 1 & 5 \end{array} \right]$$

Solving linear equations

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Stationary
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- Consider the system of equations,

$$\begin{aligned}2x + y - z &= 8; \\ -3x - y + 2z &= -11; \\ -2x + y + 2z &= -3,\end{aligned}$$

- $(R3) - 4(R2)$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 2 & 1 & -1 & 8 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0.5 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 1 \end{array} \right]$$

- at this point, we could solve by **back-substitution**
- we could also find the **determinant** of the original matrix as the product of the diagonal elements
- additionally, if the matrix is symmetric, the **signs of the eigenvalues** of the matrix are the same as the **signs of the diagonal elements**

Solving linear equations

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Stationary
Points
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Stationary
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- Consider the system of equations,

$$2x + y - z = 8;$$

$$-3x - y + 2z = -11;$$

$$-2x + y + 2z = -3,$$

- reflect in the antidiagonal

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0.5 & 0.5 & 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 & 2 & 8 \end{array} \right]$$

Solving linear equations

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$$\begin{aligned}2x + y - z &= 8; \\ -3x - y + 2z &= -11; \\ -2x + y + 2z &= -3,\end{aligned}$$

- $(R2) + \frac{1}{2}(R1), (R3) - (R1)$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 1.5 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 7 \end{array} \right]$$

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- Consider the system of equations,

$$2x + y - z = 8;$$

$$-3x - y + 2z = -11;$$

$$-2x + y + 2z = -3,$$

- $(R3) - 2(R2)$

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} -1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0.5 & 0 & 1.5 \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 4 \end{array} \right]$$

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- Consider the system of equations,

$$\begin{aligned}2x + y - z &= 8; \\ -3x - y + 2z &= -11; \\ -2x + y + 2z &= -3,\end{aligned}$$

- divide through by the diagonal

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 2 \end{array} \right]$$

REDUCED ROW ECHELON FORM

Solving linear equations

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- Consider the system of equations,

$$\begin{aligned}2x + y - z &= 8; \\ -3x - y + 2z &= -11; \\ -2x + y + 2z &= -3,\end{aligned}$$

- don't forget that we switched x and z

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{array} \right]$$

Solving linear equations

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$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & 0 & 2 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & -1 \end{array} \right]$$

- the proof:

$$\begin{aligned}2(2) + (3) - (-1) &= 8 \\ -3(2) - (3) + 2(-1) &= -11 \\ -2(2) + (3) + 2(-1) &= -3\end{aligned}$$

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- solving for the **inverse** of a matrix amounts to applying the above procedure to

$$[\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{I}]$$

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- solving for the **inverse** of a matrix amounts to applying the above procedure to

$$[\mathbf{A} \mid \mathbf{I}]$$

- for example, our matrix,

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & -1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right],$$

Solving linear equations

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$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 2 & 1 & -1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -3 & -1 & 2 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -2 & 1 & 2 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array} \right],$$

- reduces to,

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} -1 & 0 & 0 & -5 & -4 & 1 \\ 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & -1 & -1 & \frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & 2 & 8 & 6 & -2 \end{array} \right],$$

Solving linear equations

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- and finally solves to,

$$\left[\begin{array}{ccc|ccc} 1 & 0 & 0 & 4 & 3 & -1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & -2 & -2 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 & 4 & -1 \end{array} \right].$$

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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- Newton's method in many variables is derived in a similar way to single variable case

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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- Newton's method in many variables is derived in a similar way to single variable case
- We start with the many variable Taylor expansion of a function at the stationary point, ξ ,

$$f(\xi) = f(\mathbf{x}_k + \epsilon_k) = f(\mathbf{x}_k) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \cdot \epsilon_k + \mathcal{O}(|\epsilon_k|^2)$$

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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$$f(\xi) = f(\mathbf{x}_k + \epsilon_k) = f(\mathbf{x}_k) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \cdot \epsilon_k + \mathcal{O}(|\epsilon_k^2|)$$

- Taking derivatives, and setting the derivative at the stationary point to zero,

$$\nabla f(\xi) = \mathbf{0} = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) + \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k) \cdot \epsilon_k + \mathcal{O}(|\epsilon_k^2|)$$

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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- Taking derivatives, and setting the derivative at the stationary point to zero,

$$\nabla f(\xi) = \mathbf{0} = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) + \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k) \cdot \epsilon_k + \mathcal{O}(|\epsilon_k^2|)$$

- rearranging,

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k) \cdot \epsilon_k = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) + \mathcal{O}(|\epsilon_k^2|)$$

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

- truncating at second order in the error, we have a matrix equation of the form,

$$\mathbf{Ax} = \mathbf{b},$$

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

- truncating at second order in the error, we have a matrix equation of the form,

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b},$$

- where,

$$\mathbf{x} = \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_k;$$

$$\mathbf{b} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k);$$

$$\mathbf{A} = \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k).$$

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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- the solution for $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_k$ is,

$$\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_k = -\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k)^{-1} \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) + \mathcal{O}(|\boldsymbol{\epsilon}_k^2|)$$

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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Stationary
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- the solution for ϵ_k is,

$$\epsilon_k = -\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k)^{-1} \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) + \mathcal{O}(|\epsilon_k^2|)$$

- giving the many-variable Newton update,

$$\boxed{\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x} - \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k)^{-1} \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)}$$

(2)

MANY-VARIABLE NEWTON-RAPHSON UPDATE

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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(2)

MANY-VARIABLE NEWTON-RAPHSON UPDATE

- we can compute the inverse of the matrix of second derivatives, the Hessian matrix, using the matrix methods outlined above.

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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- in the one dimensional version, we take as the new point the **stationary point of a parabola**

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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- in the one dimensional version, we take as the new point the **stationary point of a parabola**
- a **minimum** if the parabola has **positive curvature**, and a **maximum** if it has **negative curvature**

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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- a **minimum** if the parabola has **positive curvature**, and a **maximum** if it has **negative curvature**
- in many dimensions we find the stationary point of a **quadratic form**,

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{x} + c$$

a linear combination of **orthogonal parabolas**

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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- a linear combination of **orthogonal parabolas**
- the search direction is only one in which the function decreases if **all the parabolas have positive curvature**,

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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a linear combination of **orthogonal parabolas**

- the search direction is only one in which the function decreases if **all the parabolas have positive curvature**,
- *i.e.*, if the Hessian matrix is **positive definite**, *i.e.*,

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}, \quad \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$$

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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- the search direction is only one in which the function decreases if **all the parabolas have positive curvature**,
- *i.e.*, if the Hessian matrix is **positive definite**, *i.e.*,

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}, \quad \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$$

- this condition is true iff all of the **eigenvalues of the Hessian matrix are positive**

Non-linear equations—Newton's method—again (2)

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- we can **shift the eigenvalues** of a symmetric matrix to positive values, while leaving the **eigenvectors unchanged**, by adding to it a multiple of the identity matrix,

$$\mathbf{B} = \mathbf{A} + \mu \mathbf{I}$$

where $\mu + \lambda_{\min} > 0$, and λ_{\min} is the **smallest (most negative) eigenvalue** of \mathbf{A}

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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- computing the Hessian and its inverse is expensive for large systems—we would like to compute it **infrequently or never...**

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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- computing the Hessian and its inverse is expensive for large systems—we would like to compute it **infrequently or never...**
- one solution is to update the coordinates with an **approximate Hessian matrix**, \mathbf{B}_k ,

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{B}_k^{-1} \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$$

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{B}_k^{-1} \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$$

- and then **update the the approximate Hessian**,

$$\mathbf{B}_{k+1} = ??$$

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{B}_k^{-1} \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$$

- and then **update the the approximate Hessian**,

$$\mathbf{B}_{k+1} = ??$$

- how do we choose the update?

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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- the one-dimensional secant equation (from first backward differences),

$$f''(x) \cdot h = f'(x) - f'(x - h) + \mathcal{O}(h^2)$$

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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Stationary
Points
(one
variable)

Stationary
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(many
variables)

- the one-dimensional secant equation (from first backward differences),

$$f''(x) \cdot h = f'(x) - f'(x - h) + \mathcal{O}(h^2)$$

- the many-variable secant equation is analogously

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{h} = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{h}) + \mathcal{O}(\mathbf{h}^2)$$

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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- re-writing in the above terms, we get

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) \cdot (\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_k) \approx \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$$

- choose an update that is **consistent with the secant equation!**

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- choose an update that is **consistent with the secant equation!**
- but... there is no unique solution to the secant equation!

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- if we want to do minimisation, we require that \mathbf{B}_k be **symmetric and positive definite**
- similarly, the updated matrix \mathbf{B}_{k+1} must also be **symmetric and positive definite**

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$$\mathbf{B}_{k+1} \mathbf{s}_k = \mathbf{y}_k$$

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$$\mathbf{B}_{k+1} \mathbf{s}_k = \mathbf{y}_k$$

- rearranging,

$$\mathbf{B}_{k+1} = (\mathbf{y}_k \cdot \mathbf{s}_k^T) \cdot (\mathbf{s}_k \cdot \mathbf{s}_k^T)^{-1}$$

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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- this matrix is in general **non-symmetric**

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- assume the update is of the form,

$$\mathbf{B}_{k+1} = \mathbf{B}_k + \alpha \mathbf{u} \mathbf{u}^T + \beta \mathbf{v} \mathbf{v}^T$$

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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- the added term is a symmetric, positive semi-definite rank-two matrix

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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$$\mathbf{B}_{k+1} \mathbf{s}_k = \mathbf{y}_k$$

- choosing $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{y}_k$ and $\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{B}_k \mathbf{s}_k$, and solving for α, β , we get

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k}; \quad \beta = \frac{1}{\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{B}_k \mathbf{s}_k},$$

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k}; \quad \beta = \frac{1}{\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{B}_k \mathbf{s}_k},$$

- so the update to \mathbf{B} is,

$$\mathbf{B}_{k+1} = \mathbf{B}_k + \frac{\mathbf{y}_k \mathbf{y}_k^T}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k} - \frac{\mathbf{B}_k \mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{B}_k^T}{\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{B}_k \mathbf{s}_k}$$

(verify this for yourselves)

Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno (BFGS) method

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- collecting these ideas together, recalling that $\mathbf{s}_k = \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_k$, and $\mathbf{y}_k = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$,

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{B}_k^{-1} \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) \quad (3)$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{k+1} = \mathbf{B}_k + \frac{\mathbf{y}_k \mathbf{y}_k^T}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k} - \frac{\mathbf{B}_k \mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{B}_k^T}{\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{B}_k \mathbf{s}_k}. \quad (4)$$

BFGS UPDATES

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

- however, since we only need the **inverse** of \mathbf{B} , we can rewrite the update using the **Sherman–Morrison formula**,

$$\mathbf{B}_{k+1}^{-1} = \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{y}_k^T}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k} \right) \mathbf{B}_k^{-1} \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{y}_k \mathbf{s}_k^T}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k} \right) + \frac{\mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{s}_k^T}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k} \quad (5)$$

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- as \mathbf{B}_k^{-1} is symmetric, and both $\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{B}_k^{-1} \mathbf{y}_k$ and $\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{y}_k$ are scalars, we can write

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{B}_k^{-1} \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) \quad (6)$$

$$\mathbf{B}_{k+1}^{-1} = \mathbf{B}_k^{-1} + \frac{(\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{y}_k + \mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{B}_k^{-1} \mathbf{y}_k)(\mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{s}_k^T)}{(\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{y}_k)^2} - \frac{\mathbf{B}_k^{-1} \mathbf{y}_k \mathbf{s}_k^T + \mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{B}_k^{-1}}{\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{y}_k} \quad (7)$$

BFGS UPDATES (IMPROVED)

and we never need to invert a matrix ever again.

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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BFGS UPDATES (IMPROVED)

and we never need to invert a matrix ever again.

- we can use the real Hessian matrix as a starting guess, but it is often sufficient to start with the **identity matrix**...

Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno (BFGS) method

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BFGS UPDATES (IMPROVED)

and we never need to invert a matrix ever again.

- we can use the real Hessian matrix as a starting guess, but it is often sufficient to start with the **identity matrix**...
- ...at the first iteration, the update behaves like **gradient descent**, but in favourable circumstances, the approximate Hessian quickly approaches the values of the real Hessian

Non-linear equations—Gradient Descent—again

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- we can easily generalise the gradient-descent update to the many-variable case

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- our update shall be

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \alpha \mathbf{p} \quad (8)$$

GRADIENT DESCENT UPDATE

where α is a **small, positive, adjustable parameter**, and \mathbf{p} is a unit vector chosen as a **direction of function decrease**

Non-linear equations—Gradient Descent—again

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GRADIENT DESCENT UPDATE

where α is a **small, positive, adjustable parameter**, and \mathbf{p} is a unit vector chosen as a **direction of function decrease**

- expanding the function around the new point,

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) = f(\mathbf{x}_k) - \alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \mathbf{p} + \mathcal{O}(\alpha^2)$$

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- we find that, **if the function were linear**, the function value would decrease by an amount,

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) - f(\mathbf{x}_k) &= -\alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \mathbf{p} \\ &= -\alpha m \end{aligned}$$

where $m = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \mathbf{p}$

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- as a condition for choosing α , we say that the function value has decreased by a **sufficient amount** if it decreases by some amount,

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) - f(\mathbf{x}_k) < -\alpha cm$$

(9)

ARMIJO–GOLDSTEIN CONDITION

where $0 < c < 1$ is a **control parameter** (non-adjustable)

Non-linear equations—Gradient Descent—again

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ARMIJO–GOLDSTEIN CONDITION

where $0 < c < 1$ is a **control parameter** (non-adjustable)

- if the Armijo–Goldstein condition is not satisfied, α is reduced

$$\alpha \leftarrow \tau \alpha$$

where $0 < \tau < 1$ is another **control parameter**.

Non-linear equations—Gradient Descent—again

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where $0 < \tau < 1$ is another **control parameter**.

- this method is known as a **backtracking line search**, because we start far from the original point with relatively large α , and backtrack, decreasing α until the condition is satisfied.

Non-linear equations—Gradient Descent—again

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- this method is known as a **backtracking line search**, because we start far from the original point with relatively large α , and backtrack, decreasing α until the condition is satisfied.
- in practice, the Newton and BFGS updates aren't always used directly—we use those equations to find a **suitable search direction**, then use a **line search** to find a **suitable step size**

First-order saddles—eigenvector following

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- sometimes we want to find stationary points that are **not minima or maxima**—they are generally harder to converge to

First-order saddles—eigenvector following

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First-order saddles—eigenvector following

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First-order saddles—eigenvector following

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- we did this in the one variable case of Newton's method by taking the absolute value of the second derivative
- to do so, we find the relevant eigenvector \mathbf{v}_{\min} and take a small step in the direction the function is **increasing**, using, *e.g.*, a line search...

First-order saddles—eigenvector following

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- sometimes we want to find stationary points that are **not minima or maxima**—they are generally harder to converge to
- to find index-1 saddles (Hessian index 1, *i.e.*, one negative eigenvalue), we can use **eigenvector following**
- the idea is to, starting at a point with Hessian index 1, **maximise** parallel to the negative eigenvector while **minimising** in all orthogonal directions
- we did this in the one variable case of Newton's method by taking the absolute value of the second derivative
- to do so, we find the relevant eigenvector \mathbf{v}_{\min} and take a small step in the direction the function is **increasing**, using, *e.g.*, a line search...
- then minimise in the direction obtained by **projecting the eigenvector out of the gradient vector**, using *e.g.*, BFGS,

$$\boxed{\nabla f_{\perp} = \nabla f - \left(\nabla f^T \cdot \mathbf{v}_{\min} \right) \mathbf{v}_{\min}} \quad (10)$$

EIGENVECTOR FOLLOWING PROJECTED GRADIENT

Eigenvalues and eigenvectors—Rayleigh–Ritz ratio

Intro to
Comp. Phys.

James
Farrell &
Jure
Dobnikar

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(one
variable)

Stationary
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(many
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- how do we find this crucial eigenvector?

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$$\lambda(\mathbf{v}) = \frac{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{v}}{\mathbf{v}^T \mathbf{v}} \quad (11)$$

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RAYLEIGH–RITZ RATIO & GRADIENT THEREOF

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RAYLEIGH–RITZ RATIO & GRADIENT THEREOF

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- we can also use [approximate Hessian matrices](#) if exact ones are not available