

# OPTIMIZATION ALGORITHM

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<https://sites.google.com/view/paris-physics-master/first-semester-courses/numerical-methods-for-physics>

Paris Physics Master

**Many problems need to minimize a function or find an optimal solution;**

- Minimizing the distance (XHI2) between data points and a model
- Find the equilibrium state of a mechanical system (Minimize  $E_{\text{pot}}$ )
- Find the equilibrium state of a gas, a chemical composition (Maximize Entropy)
- All optimization problems :minimize cost in engineering, minimize time ...
- Data Processing : machine learning, image processing ....

**All these problems come in a wide category: optimization**

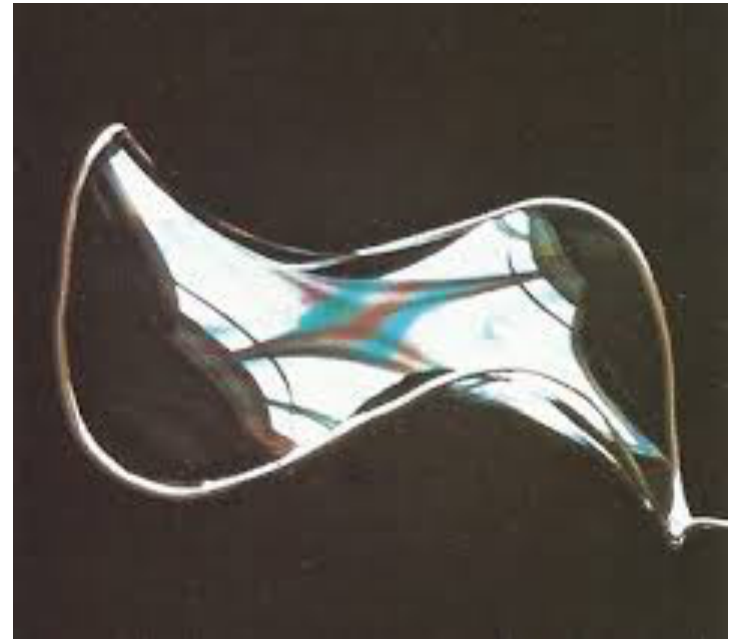
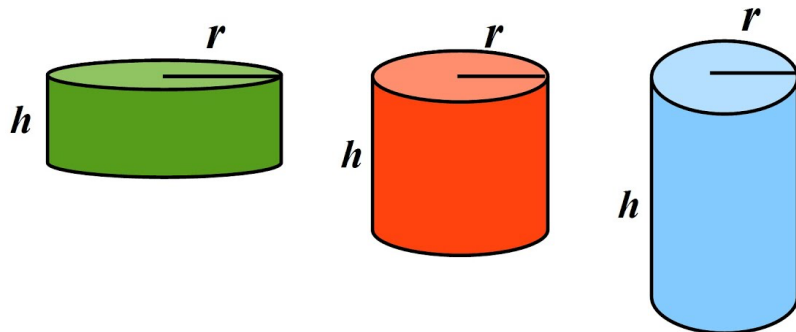
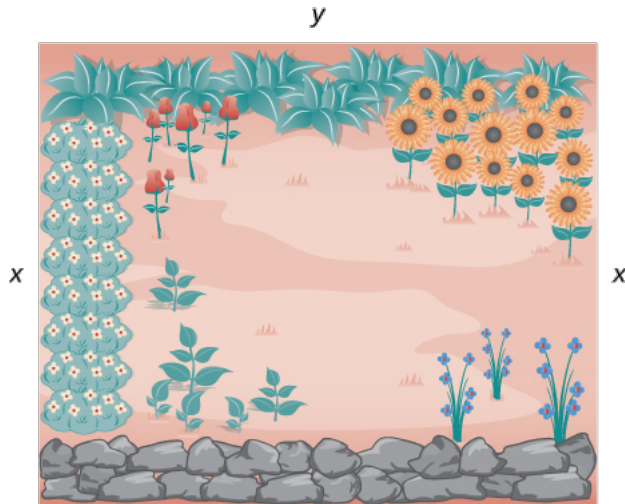
**Note: Maximize  $F(x)$  = Minimize  $-F(x)$**

**Minimize and maximize are actually the same problem !**

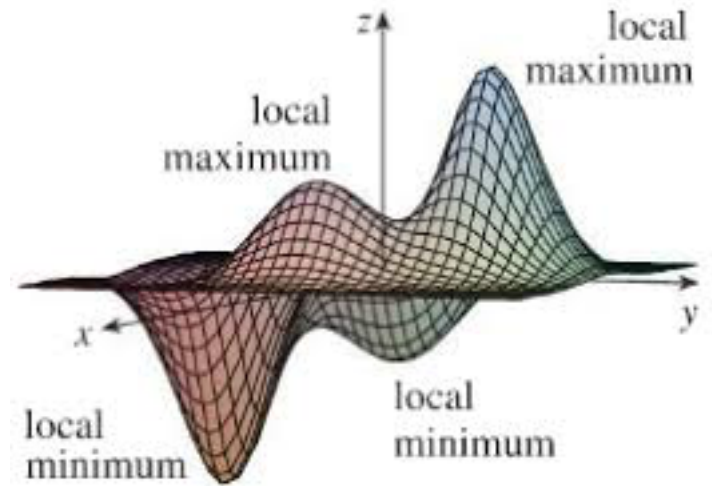
## Examples :

Finding the optimal size of a rectangular garden with a given perimeter

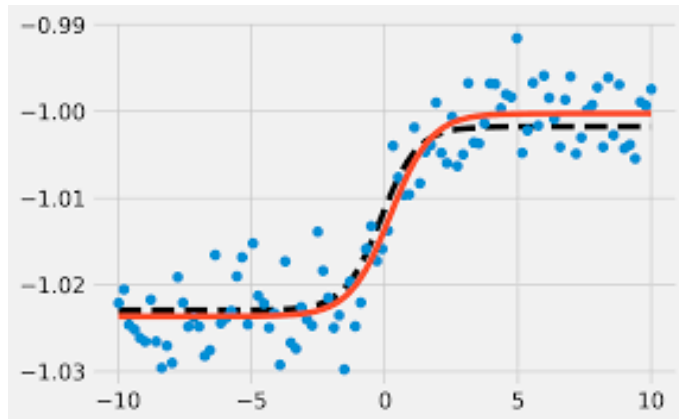
Finding the cylinder with the smallest surface , with constant volume to  
Minimize cost.



**Find the minimum point of a given function with complex shape**



**Find the best model that fits some data points.**

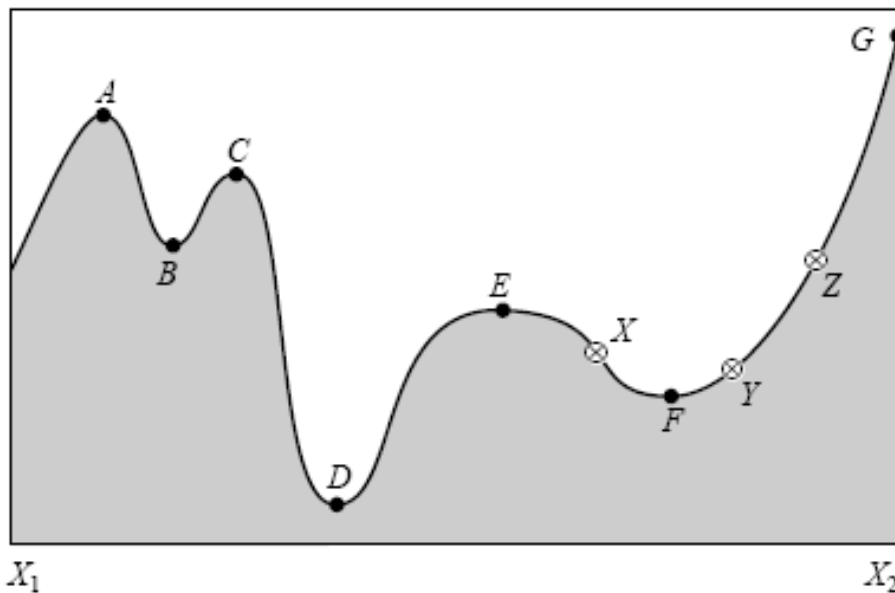


**Once again, it is an ill-posed problem:**

There is NO ideal method.

It is quite easy (i.e. fast) to find a local minimum.

It is **very difficult (i.e. long)** to find a global minimum



**B, D, F are local minima**

**D is the global minimum**

This research is particularly long and difficult if the problem is N-dimensional ( $N > 2$ )

Let  $n$ ,  $m$ , and  $p$  be positive integers. Let  $X$  be a subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , let  $f$ ,  $g_i$ , and  $h_j$  be [real-valued functions](#) on  $X$  for each  $i$  in  $\{1, \dots, m\}$  and each  $j$  in  $\{1, \dots, p\}$ , with at least one of  $f$ ,  $g_i$ , or  $h_j$  being nonlinear. A nonlinear minimization problem is an [optimization problem](#) of the form

There are different categories of problem :

## Unconstrained optimization :

We try to find the minimum of a function  $F$  (or of a vector of functions) for some variable  $(x)$  with NO constrain on  $x$  (basic case)

## Constrained optimizaion :

**We try to find th minimum of a function  $F$  WITH constrained on the variable  $X$ .**

Linear optimization :

*Minimize  $C^T X$ , Subject to  $A X < b$ ,  $x > 0$  (the « garden » problem)*

Non linear optimization :

*(Cylinder problem)*

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{minimize } f(x) \\ &\text{subject to } g_i(x) \leq 0 \text{ for each } i \in \{1, \dots, m\} \\ &\quad h_j(x) = 0 \text{ for each } j \in \{1, \dots, p\} \\ &\quad x \in X. \end{aligned}$$

*Chemical reaction at equilibrium:*

*To find the composition at equilibrium the chemical potential must be minimized of the system but must be respected that the total mass of the system is preserved ...*

**There are also specific methods for these cases.**

**Most method are first built for 1D problem (x is a scalar)**

**For Multi-dimensional problems, numerous methods try extend the 1D case.**

**Note :**

All methods start from an « initial guess » and then try to find the closest minimum => IMPORTANCE OF THE FIRST GUESS.

**For REAL TOUGH PROBLEMS**

Multidimensional optimization, global minimum finding, data mining

New families of algorithm :

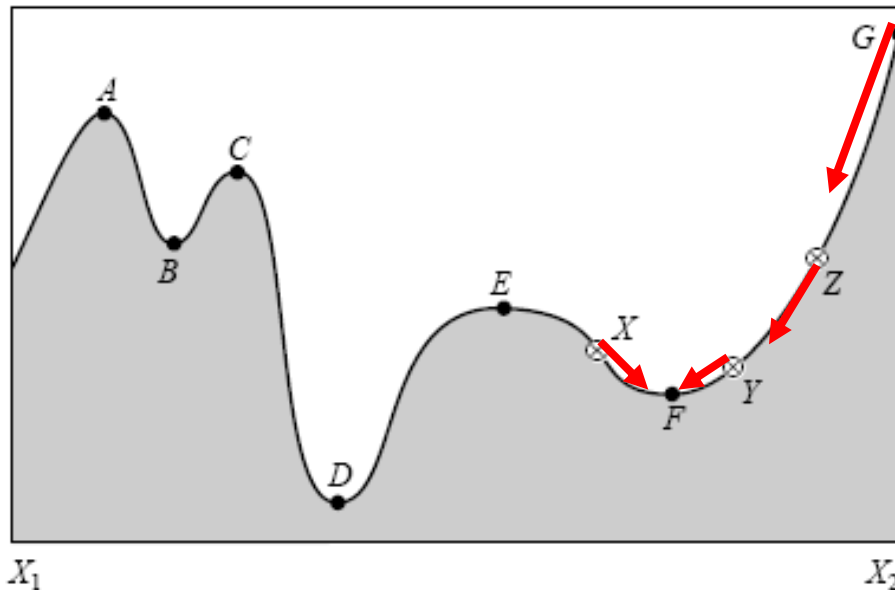
Genetic Algorithm, simulated annealing, machine learning..

# 1D unconstrained minimization

The most classic method is the famous **gradient descent**:

We want to find A minimum of  $F(x)$ , starting from a point  $X_0$  given by the user

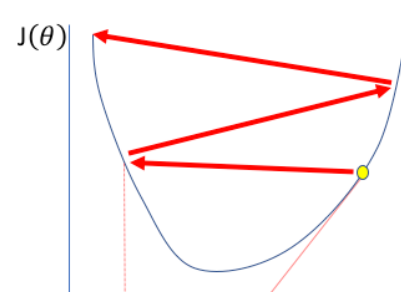
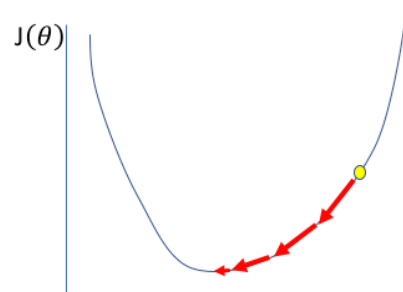
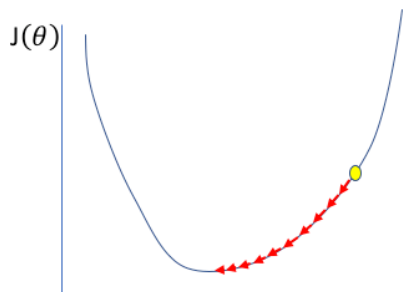
We **explore**  $F(x)$  always « Downslope » => in the direction of the local gradient.



**G=starting point**  
**F =minimum found (closest)**

This is why most algorithms find  
of the *local minima*  
not the *absolute minimum*

A big part of the computation  
Time and difficulty is  
is to compute the derivative  $H'(x)$





# IMPORTANCE OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DERIVATIVES $F'(X)$ AND $F''(X)$

**Reminder : if  $x$  is a minimum of  $F(x)$  then  $F'(x)=0$**

So :If you KNOW  $F'(X)$  (gradient) this will make your life MUCH EASIER

If you use a minimization algorithm

IT MEANS you CANNOT analytically calculate the zeros of  $F'(X)$

-Either because you do not know  $F'(x)$

-Either because solve  $F'(X) = 0$  is too complicated.

- Or because  $F(X)$  is a complex function.

BUT IF YOU KNOW  $F'(X)$  THIS WILL BE VERY USEFUL AND WILL  
SAVE A LOT OF TIME

## MINIMIZE WITH DOWN GRADIENT known derivative

**We know F and we assume we know F' (X)**

Starting from a starting point  $X_0$  ( 'first guess'), we compute a serie of points as follows :

$$X_{k+1} = X_k + d_k g_k$$

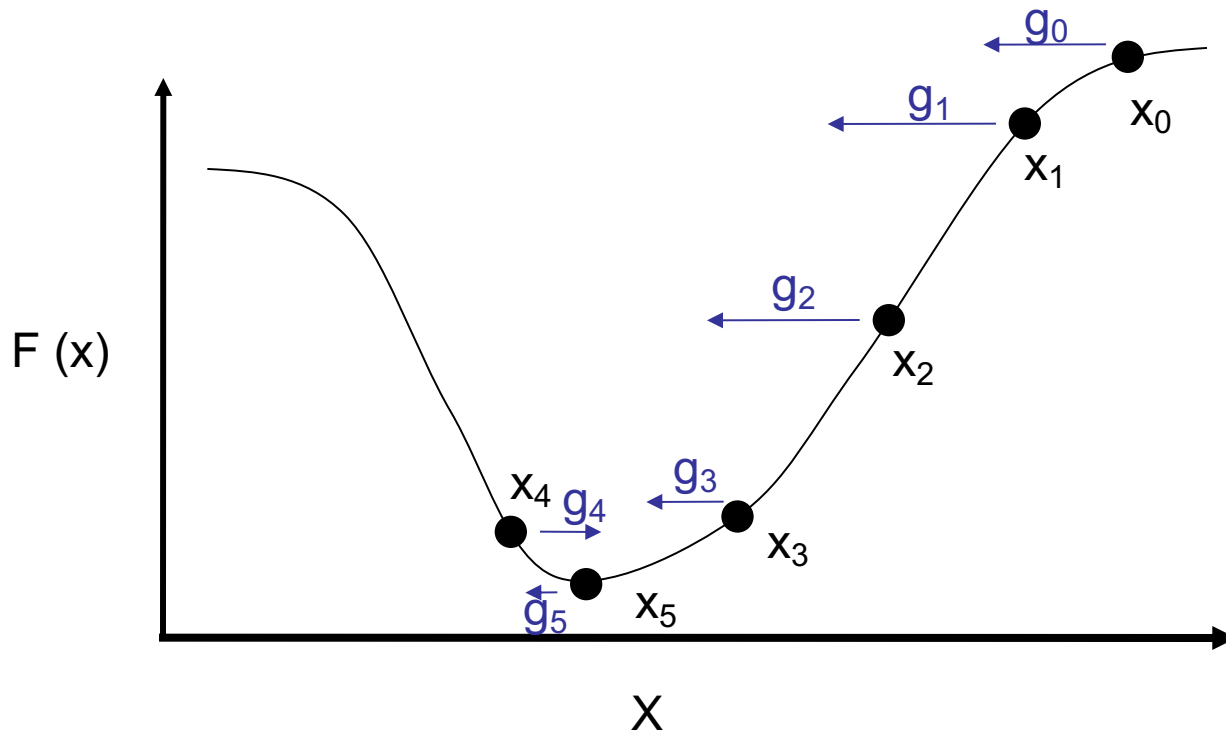
where  $g_k$  is the direction of descent (« left or right » in 1D) and  $d_k$  is the length of The step

The choice of  $g_k$  is such that  $f(X_{k+1}) < f(X_k)$ . A natural choice is :

$$g_k = - \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{X_k}$$

In the simplest method of descent gradient,  $g$  is simply « minus the gradient of F »

Note : here  $g_k$  is not normalized to 1



Example 1D

$g_i$  is less  
gradient of point  $i$

$$X_{k+1} = X_k + d_k g_k$$

2 questions:

- How to choose the step-size  $d_k$  ? (it must be smart)
- When does the calculation stops .

The « Fixed » descent

**If one does not know the second derivative descend the fixed pitch gradient.  
we impose  $d_k = \text{cst}$  at the beginning of the calculation.**

**What value do to  $d$ ? Hard to say a priori. In general it takes  
 $d < \text{the characteristic size of the research area.}$   
**For example the width of the valley.****

**The descent fixed not only on if the function is soft, and if the point  
Start is close to the solution.**

**The test will stop when**

$$\| f'(x_k) \| < \text{epsilon}$$

$$\text{or } \| x_k - x_{k+1} \| / \| x_k \| < \text{epsilon}$$

Warning: "fixed pitch" is an abusive name.

The REAL no progress is:  $dx g_k$  where  $g_k$  is  $-F'(X)$

This is the multiplicative factor that is constant.

## Choice of the Step Size $dx_k$

requires knowing the second derivative !! :

One makes a locally parabolic approximation of the function

It is based on the Taylor Expansion (T.E.) of  $F(x)$  at point  $X_k$

$$f(X_k + dx_k) = f(X_k) + \left. \frac{df}{dX} \right|_{x_k} dx_k + \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2 f}{dX^2} \right|_{x_k} dx_k^2 + o(dx_k^2)$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$f'(X_k + dx_k) = f'(X_k) + \left. \frac{d^2 f}{dX^2} \right|_{x_k} dx_k \quad \text{T.E. of the derivative.}$$

We want to cancel the derivative So, we choose to  $dx_k$  so that  $F'(X_k + dx_k) = 0$

$$dx_k = \frac{-f'(X_k)}{\left( \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \right)_{X_k}}$$

**Now with our notation:**

$$X_{k+1} = X_k + d_k g_k$$

**And**  $g_k = -F'(X_k)$  from where the "no" of progress  $dx_k = -F'(X_k)$

$$d_k = \frac{1}{\left( \frac{d^2 f}{dx^2} \right)_{X_k}}$$

This method is quadratic.

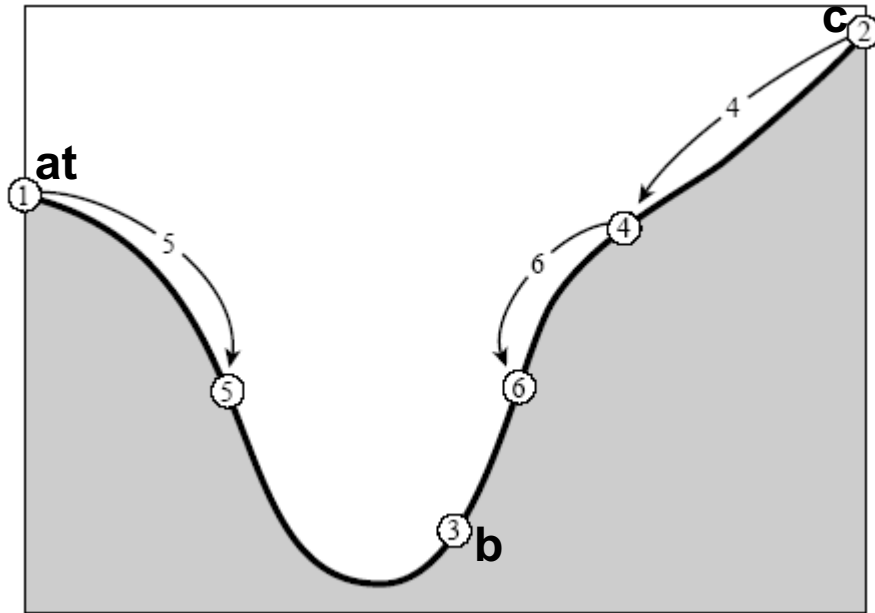
**The advantage of this method is that it generalizes well N-dimensional problems**

**But Often it can be difficult to compute  $F'(X)$  ...and  $F''(X)$  !!**

**Example : the XH12 test :**

## MINIMIZATION 1D WITHOUT GRADIENT (Bisection)

This is the easiest method, very similar to the method of bisection to find a zero



Basic Method

### General method

Framing the minimum of three points:  
 $a < b < c$

such that  $f(b) < f(a)$   
 $f(b) < f(c)$

The  $L_{ab}$  and  $L_{bc}$  are defined as:

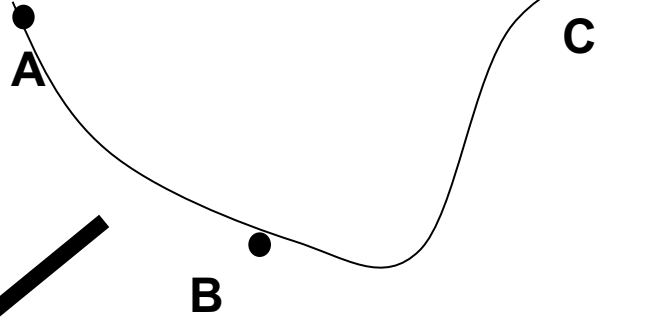
1. We start from  $a$  and  $b$  and  $c$
2. calculates  $f(a)$ ,  $f(b)$ ,  $f(c)$
3. If  $L_{ab} > L_{bc}$  We take  $X = \text{medium}(a, b)$   
If  $f(x) < f(b)$  then  $c = b$  and  $b = x$   
If  $a = x$ ,  $b$  and  $c$  are kept
5. If  $L_{bc} > L_{ab}$  We take  $X = \text{medium}(b, c)$   
If  $f(x) < f(b)$  then  $a = b$  and  $b = x$   
If  $x = c$ ,  $a$  and  $b$  are kept

6. Returns 2



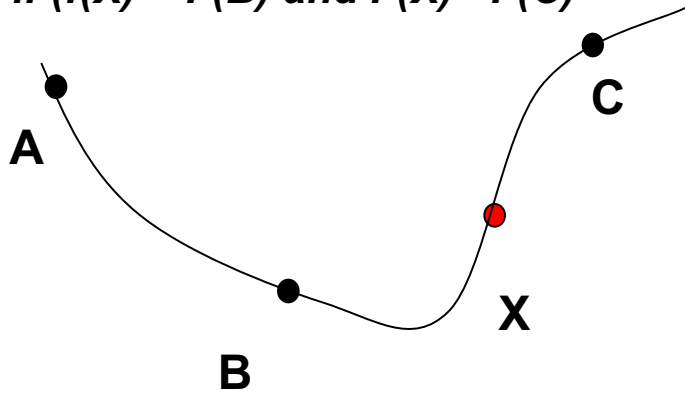
exemple :

If  $BC > AB$

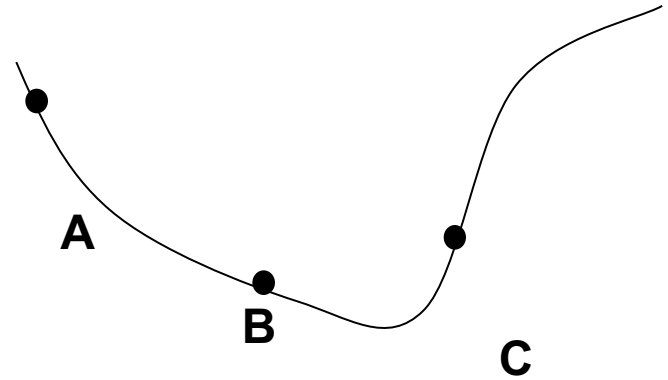


X is chosen in the  
Largest segment

*Replacing right*  
if  $(f(X) > F(B) \text{ and } F(X) < F(C))$



*Replacing C*



At the end of the stage:

$F(b) < F(a) \text{ and } F(b) < F(c)$

## ***Method of the "Golden rule" to find X***

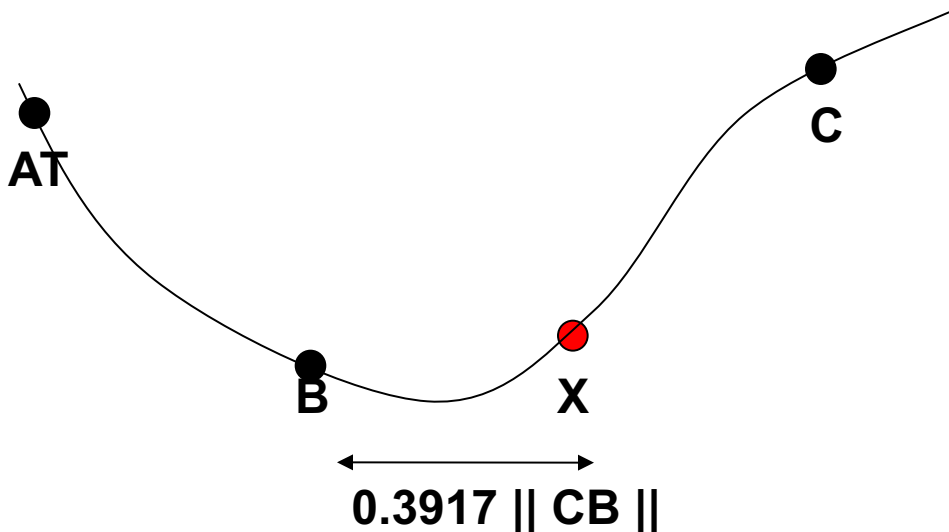
**In fact it can be shown that there is an optimal way to choose again point X in a single step.**

**the larger of the two right left segments are determined:**

**$\|AB\|$  and  $\|CB\|$ . Let D be the segment length**

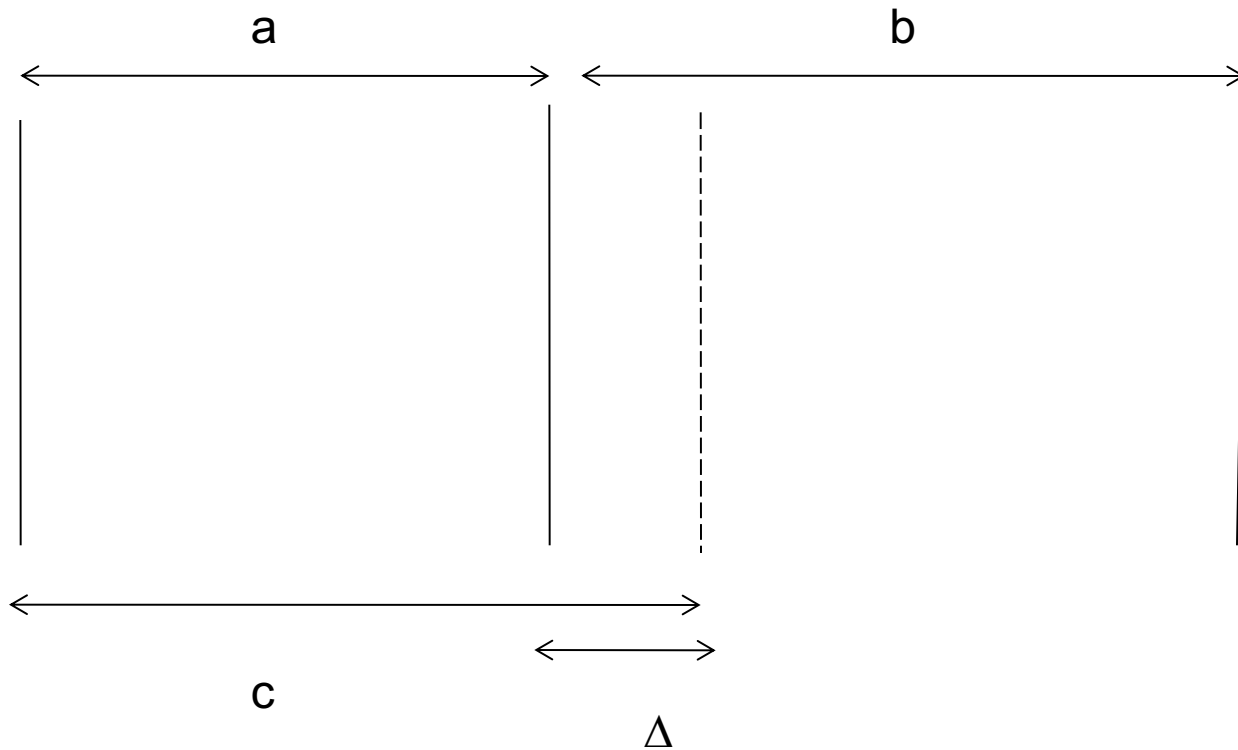
**And we take the new point X in this segment in the distance:  
 $0.39197 \times D$  (golden ratio) the point B**

**If  $F(x) < F(B)$  then  $B = X$  or if  $F(x) < F(C)$  then  $C = X$**



**So that  $(aX) / (C) = 1.618$**

**The Golden ratio**



How to choose a and b ?

Keep the proportions for each iteration:

To the left  $\Delta / A = a / b$  and to the right  $\Delta / (B - \Delta) = A / b$

is eliminated  $\Delta$  and include:  $a / b \sim 1.618 \dots$  The golden number

However, whereas you are sure not to spend too much time to find the minimum,  
This is not ALWAYS faster than the simple bisection

## parabolic method for finding X

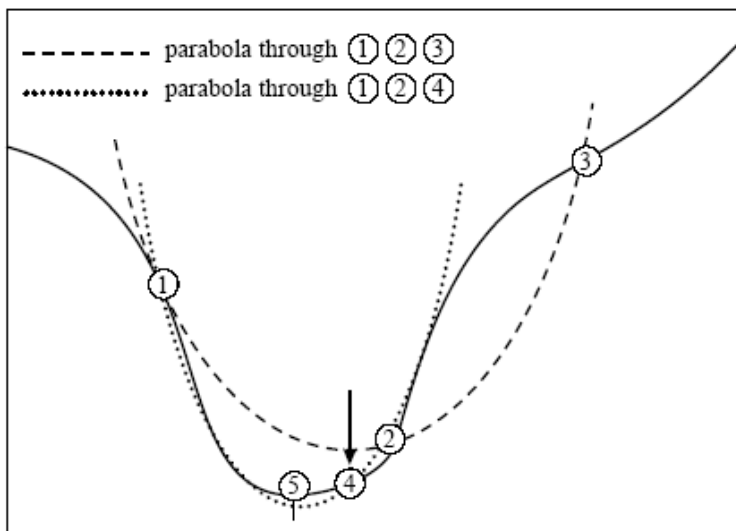
Now the rule of we can do better if F is nicely parabolic meadows the minimum.

If F is *effectively* parabolic on the interval [a, c], then we can analytically calculate the minimum

$$x = b - \frac{1}{2} \frac{(b-a)^2[f(b) - f(c)] - (b-c)^2[f(b) - f(a)]}{(b-a)[f(b) - f(c)] - (b-c)[f(b) - f(a)]}$$

**Note: only works if F is not linear**

In practice, F is rarely *exactly* parabolic. However, one can use It calculates X to find the new minimum supervision



**For the next step**

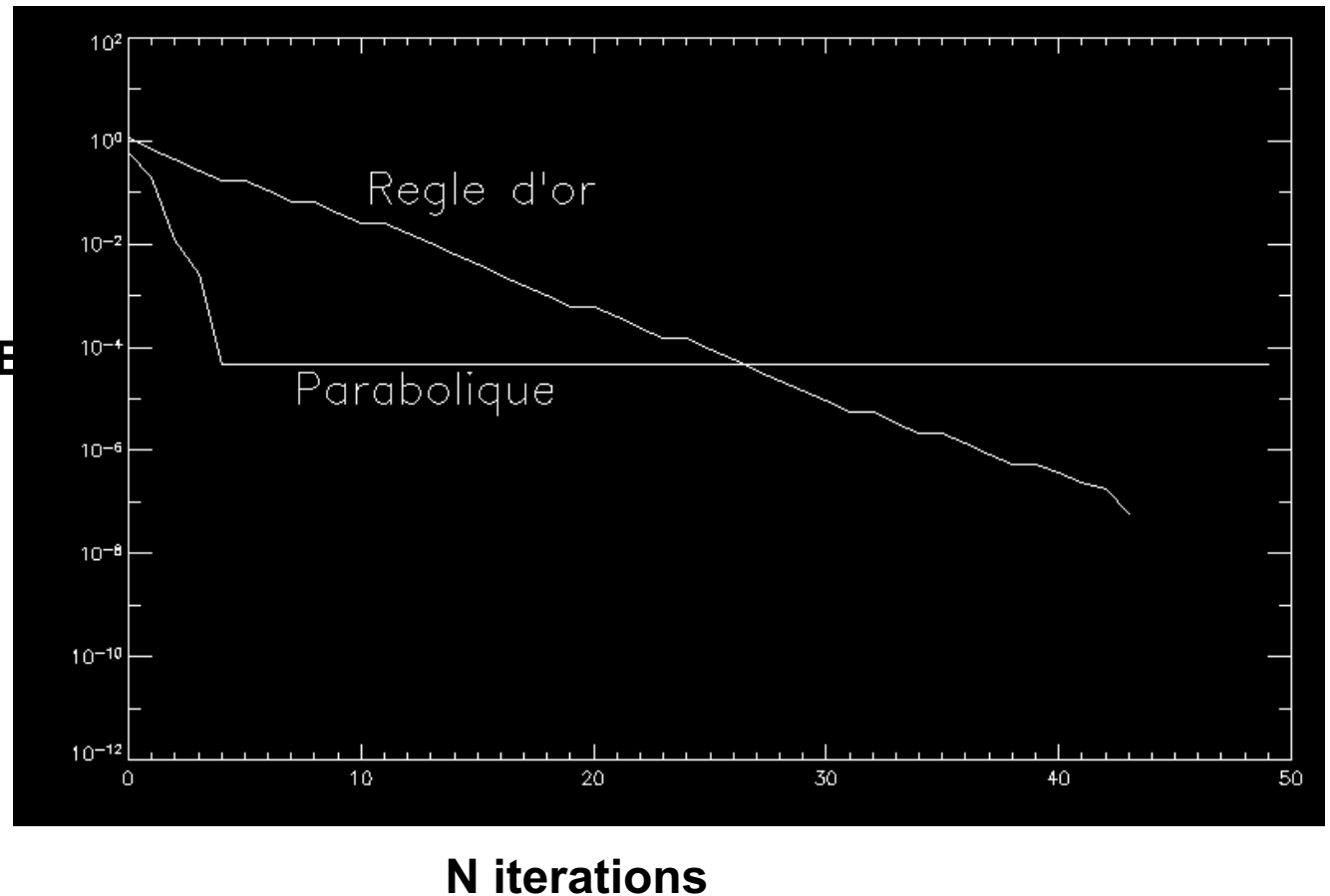
**Yes  $x < b$  then ABC = [a, x, b] (left)**

**If  $x > b$  then ABC = [x, b, c] (right)**

## Comparison of two methods: minimization of $\sin(x)^2$

Fault:

$\| \Delta C / E$

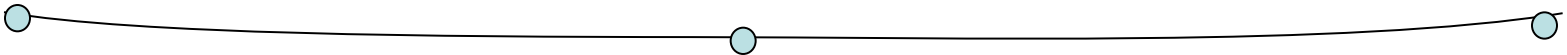


We see that the parabolic method converges much faster than the method of the Golden Rule.

However its convergence is limited ( $> 10^{-5}$ ) .... Why ?

**When the function is "flat" parabolic method becomes unstable**

**In practice what happens when the function is locally "flat"**  
**An error digital precision can "go out" on the minimum interval**



# minimization Multi-Dimensional

**Minimize  $F(X)$  wherein  $X = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$**

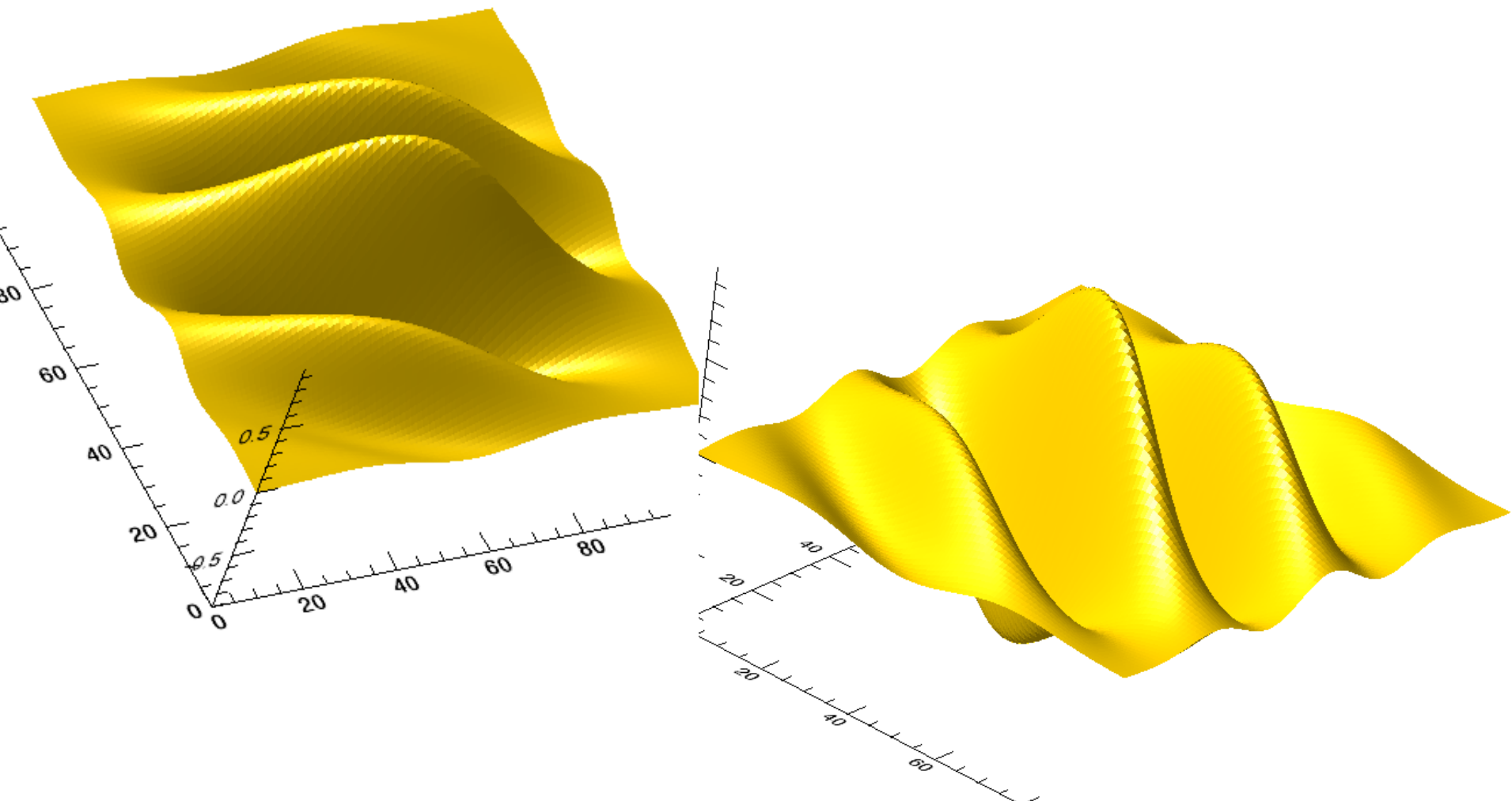
**The problem is much more twisted ... and much longer to solve**

**The big problem is often the CHOICE of the descent direction**

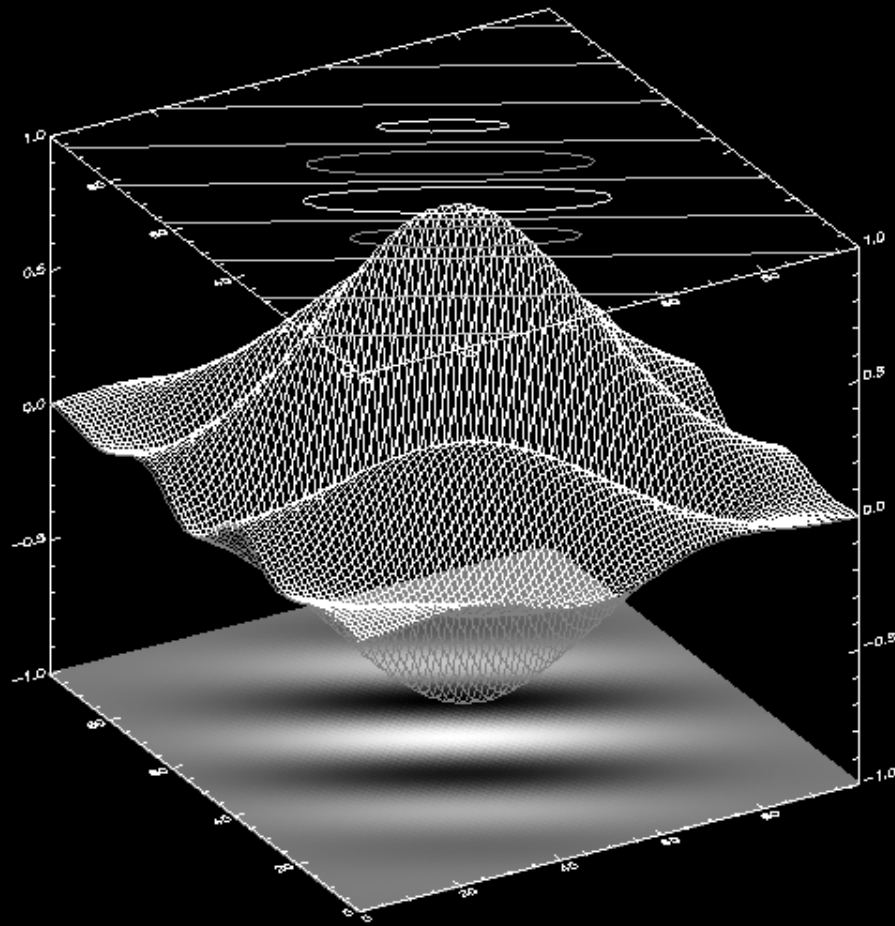
**Once we know which direction we go down, the other problem is how the *length* the descent.**

**In  $N$  dimensions, these choices are crucial.**

sample function to minimize, in 2D only  $F(x, y)$







**Here: several minimum,**

**Existence of "valleys" narrow,**

**Maximums and local minimums  
etc ...**

**Several techniques to tackle such a problem. Any is universally effective.**

**ALL require a starting point chosen by the user  $X_0$   
=> Need from a point  $X_0$  not very far from the minimum**

**The greater part use the DL function of several variables (N variables)  
 $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{P} + [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_{\text{not}}]$  where  $\mathbf{P}$  is a vector**

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{P}) + \sum_i \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} x_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} x_i x_j + \dots$$
$$\approx c - \mathbf{b} \cdot \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{x}$$

$$c \equiv f(\mathbf{P}) \quad \mathbf{b} \equiv -\nabla f|_{\mathbf{P}} \quad [\mathbf{A}]_{ij} \equiv \left. \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} \right|_{\mathbf{P}}$$

**$\mathbf{b}$  is the gradient**

**$\mathbf{A}$  is called the "Hessian"  $f(\mathbf{x})$ . It is simply the derivative matrix  
seconds at  $\mathbf{P}$ .**

**Example Hessian: Here the function is  $f(x, y, z)$**

**Hessian:  $A =$**

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial x} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial z} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial y} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial z} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z \partial x} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z \partial y} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z \partial z} \end{bmatrix}_P$$

**Calculated at the point P**

**While the term:**

$$\sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j} x_i x_j = \vec{X} \cdot (A\vec{X})$$

**Is "Scalar Product X with AX "**

**Methods CLASSIC down the slopes.**  
**They fall into two main categories:**

Methods that use several points: no gradient or Hessian

**\* Simplex Method (also called "Amoeba", "Amoeba" in English)**

Mixed methods (multiple 1D minimizations):

**\* Relaxation**

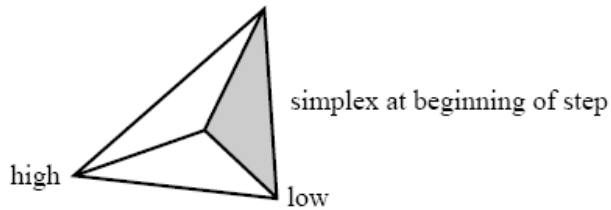
Methods using the gradient and the Hessian (if known)

- **fixed gradient descent (Gradient)**
- **optimal gradient descent (Gradient Hessian +)**
- **or conjugate gradient (Gradient Hessian +)**

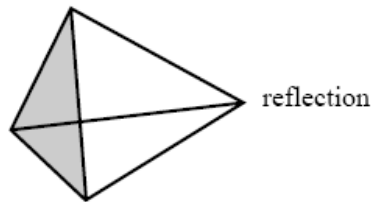
**All the methods above converge to a local minimum**

the highest and lowest point point were located.

Then you have to tighten the supervision step with some evolution rules

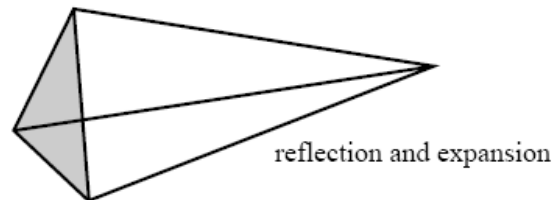


(a)



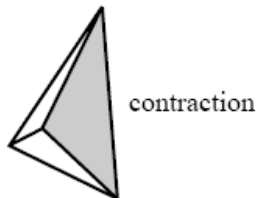
**Reflection: one reflects the most points high in the opposite direction**

(b)



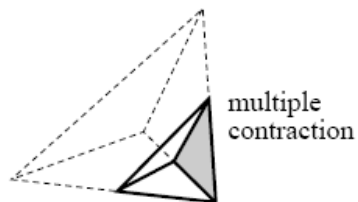
**Reflection + expansion**

(c)



**Contraction**

(d)



**multiple contraction**

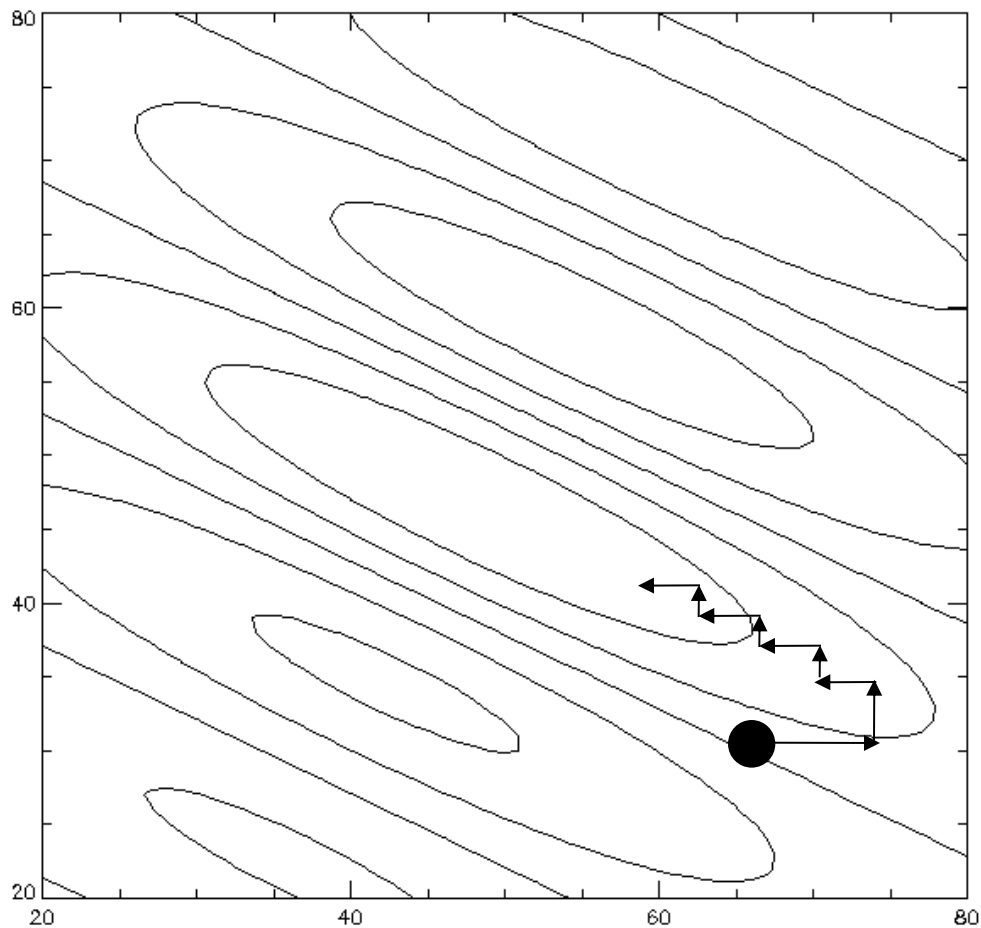
## Mixed methods: Relaxation

**The space in which we operate is orthonormal  $\{e_1 \dots e_{\text{not}}\}$**

**The idea is to break down a problem N-dimensional minimization in N problems 1D**

**The idea is to cycle through dimensions. On each dimension we perform 1D minimization.**

- 1- Select an axis in  $\{e_1 \dots e_{\text{not}}\}$  , beginning with  $e_1$**
- 2- Minimize function along this axis (any method)  $F(x_i)$**
- 3- If the method has converged, redo same operation on the next axis.**
- 4. If all the axes have been tested and that the method has not converged to the minimum, go back to  $e_1$**



**A 2D:**

**1- Get into the axis X**

**2- minimize along X**

**3. Stand on the axis Y**

**4 minimize along Y**

**5- Start in 1**

**if we have not reached the mini**

## **Note: "minimize along the axis $e_i$ " means**

**When we develop  $P : P = (p_1, \dots, p_{\text{not}})$**

**minimizes the function  $G(x) = F[(p_1, \dots, p_i + X, p_{i+1}, \dots, p_{\text{not}})]$**

Only  $i^{\text{th}}$  variable is evolving while  $p_1, \dots, p_{\text{not}}$  are fixed.

So  $G(x)$  is a function of one single variable.

**To conduct the minimization of  $G(x)$  one can use any method already seen in 1D.**



## GRADIENT DESECENT (also Steepest Descent) the known gradient. Same method as 1D

We know  $F$  and  $F'(X)$

$X$  is multidimensional  $X = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$

Starting from a starting point  $X_0$

Is calculated following

$$\vec{X}_{k+1} = \vec{X}_k + d_k \vec{g}_k = \vec{X}_k + d_k \vec{g}_k$$

where  $\vec{g}_k$  is the direction of descent and  $d_k$  is not downhill

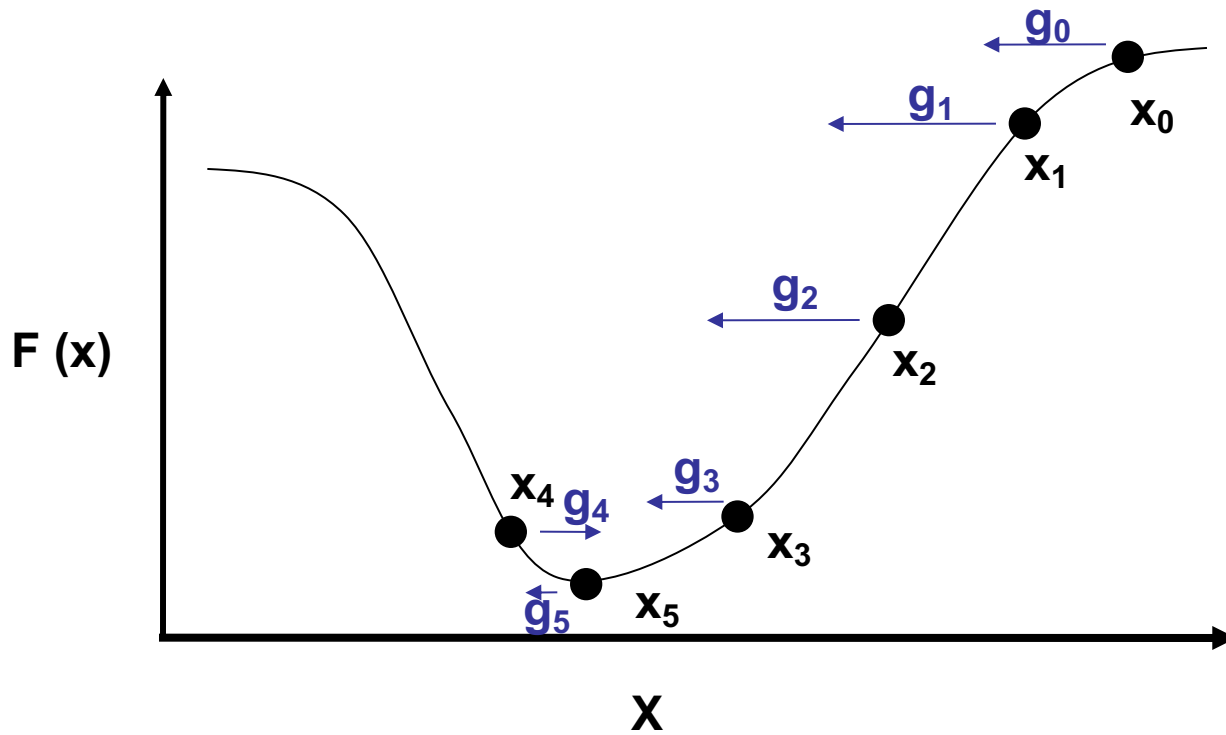
$\vec{g}_k = (g_{k1}, \dots, g_{kn})$  gradient vector

$d_k$  a real number

The choice of  $d_k$  is such that  $F(X_{k+1}) < F(X_k)$

$$\vec{g}_k = -\vec{\nabla} f(X_k)$$

In the simplest method of gradient descent  
,  $\vec{g}$  is simply - the gradient of  $F$



Example 1D

$g_i$  is less  
gradient of point  $i$

$$X_{k+1} = X_k + d_k g_k$$

Either one chooses  $d_k$  as constant ( $d_k$  is a vector)

**Steepest descent, either with fixed step, or with optimal step (using the HESSIAN)**

$$\overrightarrow{X_{k+1}} = \overrightarrow{X_k} + dX_k = \overrightarrow{X_{k+1}} + d_k \cdot \overrightarrow{g_k}$$

With  $\overrightarrow{g_k} = -\overrightarrow{\nabla f}$

**$g_k$  is the direction : - gradient (vector)**  
 **$d_k$  is the lentgh : scalar**

$$f(X_k + dX_k) = f(X_k) + \vec{\nabla} f(X_k) \cdot \vec{dX_k} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \frac{d^2 f}{dx_i dx_j} dX_k^2 + o(dX_k^2)$$

$\Rightarrow$

$$\vec{\nabla} f(X_k + dX_k) = \vec{\nabla} f(X_k) + \sum_{i,j} \frac{d^2 f}{dx_i dx_j} \vec{dX_k} + o(dX_k)$$

The 1<sup>st</sup> and 2<sup>nd</sup> derivatives  
can be written as follows ∴

$$\vec{\nabla} f(X_k + dX_k) = \vec{\nabla} f(X_k) + \sum_{i,j} \frac{d^2 f}{dx_i dx_j} \vec{d}X_k + o(dX_k)$$

$\begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix}_{X_k} = \vec{g}$

$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial x} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial y} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x \partial z} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial x} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial y} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial y \partial z} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z \partial x} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z \partial y} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial z \partial z} \end{bmatrix}_{X_k} \begin{pmatrix} dx \\ dy \\ dz \end{pmatrix} = A \vec{d}x$

$$\vec{\nabla} f(X_k + dX_k) \simeq \vec{\nabla} f(X_k) + A \vec{d}X_k = \vec{g} + A \vec{d}X_k$$

The idea is that we only go in the direction of the steepest descent (-gradient)  
So  $\vec{d}X$  is always proportional to the gradient.

Now we want to find the minimum, so cancel the gradient keeping  $\overrightarrow{dX}$  is always proportional to the gradient

$$0 = \vec{g} + A d\vec{x} \Rightarrow$$

$$\text{or } d\vec{x} = -d\vec{g} \Rightarrow$$

$$0 = \vec{g} - (A\vec{g})d \Leftrightarrow$$

$$0 = \vec{g}^2 - \vec{g} \cdot (A\vec{g})d \Rightarrow$$

$$d = \frac{g^2}{\vec{g} \cdot (A\vec{g})}$$

**d is the optimum distance**

## Summary:

At each step of calculation:

- Calculate the descent direction:  $\vec{g}_k = -\vec{\nabla} f(X_k)$
- Calculate the length of descent:  $d_k = \frac{g_k^2}{\vec{g}_k \cdot (A\vec{g}_k)}$
- Compute the new point  $X_{k+1} = X_k + d_k \times \vec{g}_k$

REPEAT down to desired accuracy

**But this method has its limitations:**

**Sometimes the steepest slope is not always optimal !!!**

**EXAMPLE:**

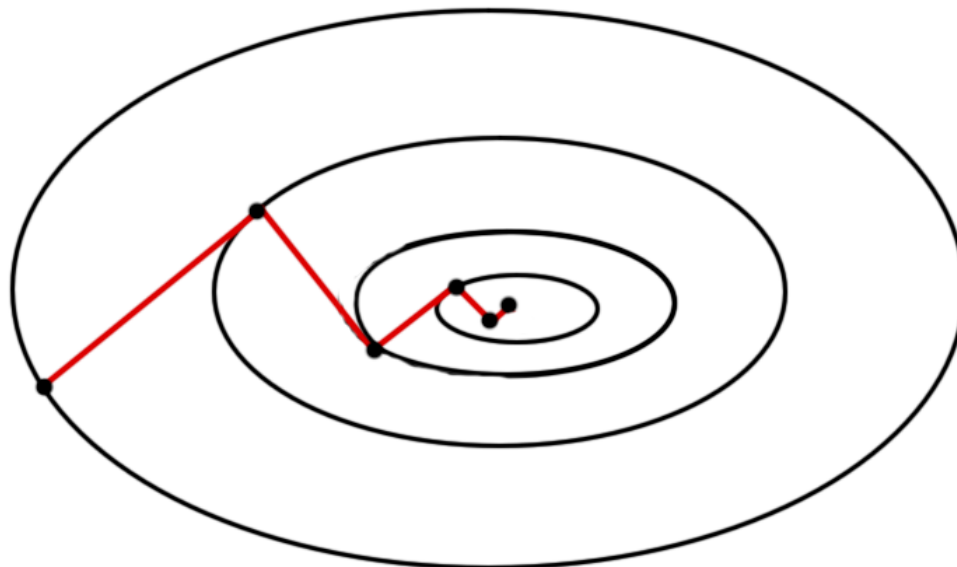
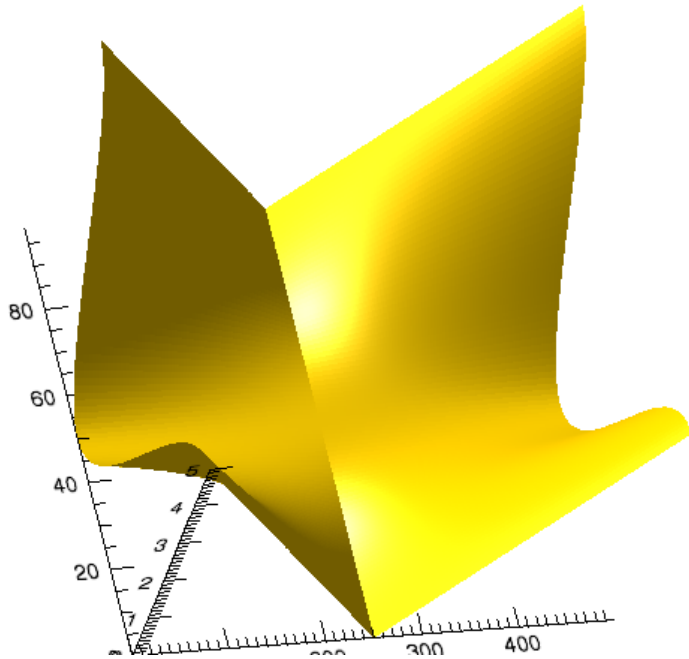


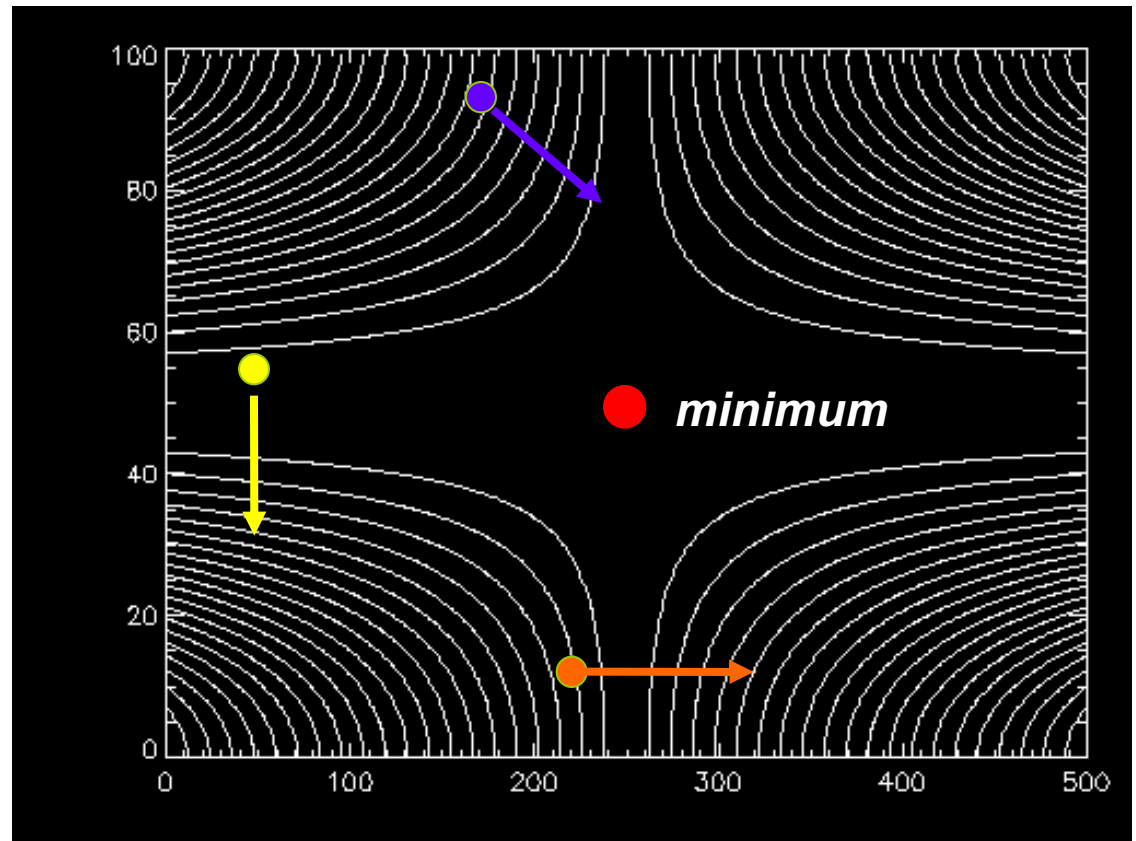
Figure 1: The contour plot of a function, with the steps of the steepest descent method in red

Either minimize  $F(x, y)$  (picture below)

Imagine that we are in a "valley" close.



*The arrow is the direction of - gradient.  
For yellow and orange dots gradient is not  
the best direction!*



=> conjugate gradient



**The algorithm will be like this:**

$$\vec{X}_{k+1} = \vec{X}_k + d_k \vec{u}_k$$

**where  $d_k$  is the distance of descent and  $u_k$  is the direction of descent.  
BUT in the conjugate gradient method,  $u_k$  is not the gradient (a priori)  
It will be something more complicated ..**

**In fact the descent direction  $u_k$  vary at each stage.  
In particular, it must have**

$$\vec{u}_k \perp \vec{u}_{k+1}$$

**So 2 questions:**

- 1) How to calculate the descent direction  $u_k$  ?**
- 2) Knowing  $u_k$  what is the best value of the length of descent  $t_k$  ?**

## How to build the $U_k$ vectors ?

We turn to a theorem of algebra. If  $A$  is symmetrical, definite and positive (which is the case around a minimum, i.e. all eigen values are  $> 0$ ) : then There exist a base of space  $\{U_k\}$  with  $N$  linearly independant vectors so That:

$$U_i^T A U_j = \vec{U}_i \cdot (A \vec{U}_j) = 0$$

i.e. all  $U_k$  are *conjugate* to each others with respect to Matrix  $A$ .

There are  $N$  of such vectors ( $N$ = dimension of space).

So starting from a point :  $\vec{X}_0$  and assuming that the minimum is  $\vec{X}_M$  the Displacement toward the minimum can always be decomposed like this :

$$\vec{X}_M - \vec{X}_0 = \alpha_0 \vec{U}_0 + \alpha_1 \vec{U}_1 + \cdots + \alpha_N \vec{X}_N$$

it simply states that any vector can be decomposed on the base of Conjugate vectors with respect to  $A$ .

So far we have just assumed that the set of A-conjugate search directions exists. In practice we need a way to create it. There are several ways to choose such a set. The eigenvectors of A form a A-conjugate set, but finding the eigenvectors is a task requiring a lot of computations, so we better and another strategy.

There exist an alternative strategy that is iterative and does not need to compute the eigen vectors.

Let start from point  $\overrightarrow{X_0}$ . Since we want to nullify the derivative of f

$$\overrightarrow{\nabla} f(X_k + dX_k) \simeq \overrightarrow{\nabla} f(X_k) + A \overrightarrow{dX_k} = \overrightarrow{g} + A \overrightarrow{dX_k}$$

So  $\overrightarrow{U_0} = \overrightarrow{g_0} = -(\overrightarrow{g} + A \overrightarrow{dX_k})$  ( first step is a simple steepest descent)

Then we go like this (we do not demonstrate, see 'Numerical Recipes')

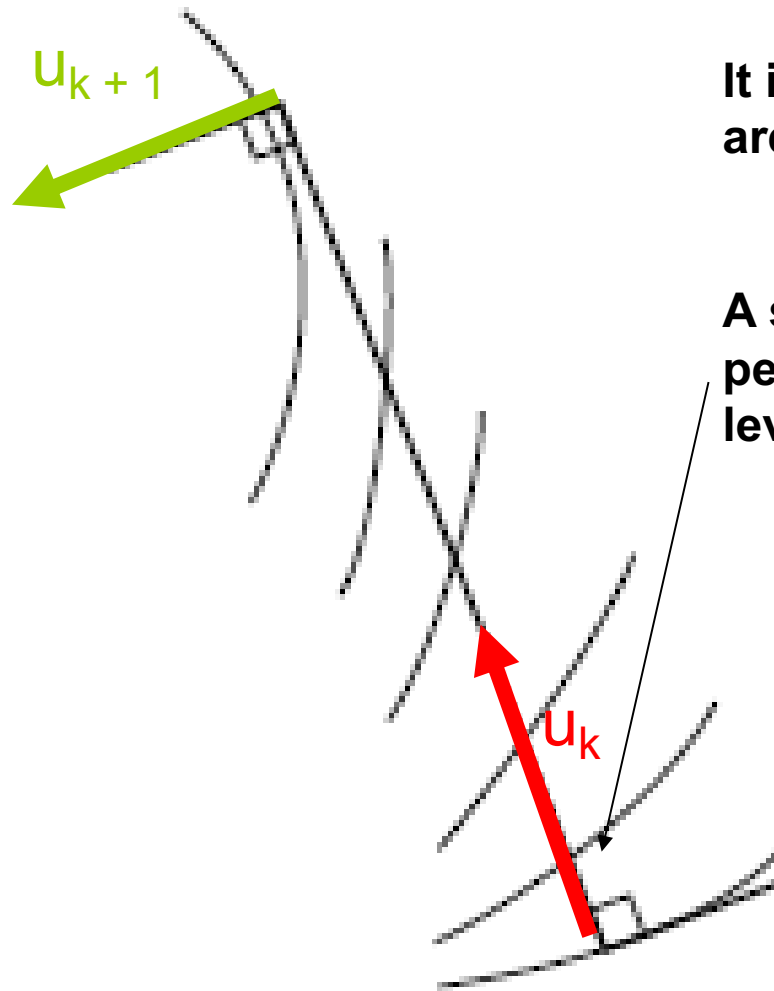
$$\alpha_k = \frac{g_k^2}{U_k^T A U_k}$$

$$\overrightarrow{X_{k+1}} = \overrightarrow{X_k} + \alpha_k \overrightarrow{U_k} \quad (\text{new point})$$

$$\overrightarrow{g_{k+1}} = \overrightarrow{g_k} + A \overrightarrow{U_k}$$

$$\beta_k = \frac{g_k^2}{g_{k+1}^2}$$

$$\overrightarrow{U_{k+1}} = -\overrightarrow{g_{k+1}} + \beta_k \overrightarrow{U_k} \quad (\text{new vector of descent})$$



It is seen that the  $U_k$  successive  
are perpendicular to each other

A step started  
perpendicular to the lines  
levels

Convergence of conjugate gradient algorithm:

**We can show that if  $f$  is EXACTLY quadratic**

$$f(\vec{X}) = c - \vec{B} \cdot \vec{X} + \frac{1}{2} \vec{X} \cdot (A\vec{X})$$

**Then just  $N$  iterations  $N$  dimensions are necessary**

**In practice, one rarely investigates exactly quadratic functions  
(If their minimum is analytically known).**

**So what if the algorithm does not converge after  $N$  iterations?**

**Simply restart from the last point obtained.**

Interest of the conjugate gradient method:

**VERY fast it converges to a minimum:**

**It can be shown that N-dimensional he simply steps N calculations**

**If the function is exactly square.**

**In practice :**

**Very often used in 'serious' calculations.**

**disadvantage:**

**Requires knowledge of the Hessian of the function F to determine the no descent.**

## The Fletcher-Reeves algorithm

**This algorithm is based on the Conjugate Gradient**

**We have seen that the conjugate gradient algorithm chooses optimally descent directions through  $u_k$ .**

**The calculation of  $u_k$  does not *explicitly* call the Hessian**

**Then the function is minimized along the axis  $u_k \Rightarrow$  Minimizing 1D.  
and the conjugate gradient, the length downhill  $d_k$ , is calculated with the Hessian**

Principle Fletcher Reeves

**We use the same downward directions as the conjugate gradient  
is minimized along the axis  $u_k$  with classical minimization method to 1D  
(Using 3 points for example).**

***advantage:* no need to know the Hessian**



**In practice :      The Fletcher Reeves algorithm**

**0. Start a starting point  $X_0$**

**1. Calculate  $u_k$**

$$\vec{u}_k = \vec{\nabla} f(X_k) + \frac{\|\vec{\nabla} f(X_k)\|}{\|\vec{\nabla} f(X_{k-1})\|} \vec{u}_{k-1}$$

**2. Minimize the function**

$$g(d) = F(\vec{X}_k - d\vec{u}_k)$$

**$d$  is a positive real. It is thus minimizing 1D. Use your method favorite (Trisection, quadrature etc ...). The minimum is  $t_k$**

**3.  $X_{k+1}$  is then  $\vec{X}_{k+1} = \vec{X}_k - d_k \vec{u}_k$**

**4. If you have not converged, again in 1**

## Fletcher-Reeves Convergence

**It depends on your choice of minimization algorithm to 1D.**

**If you take the quadrature method, then, Fletcher-Reeves behavior will be very similar to the conjugate gradient.**

***Rule to always respect (for all algorithms):***

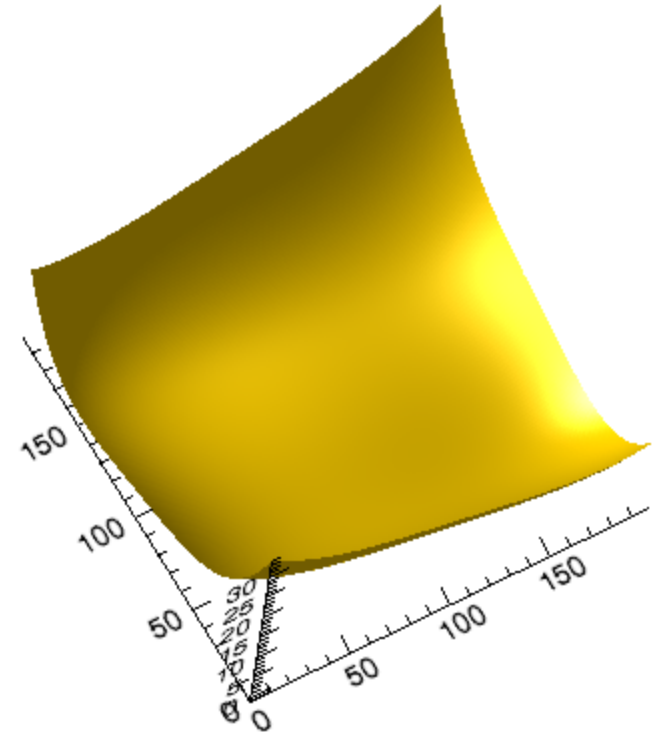
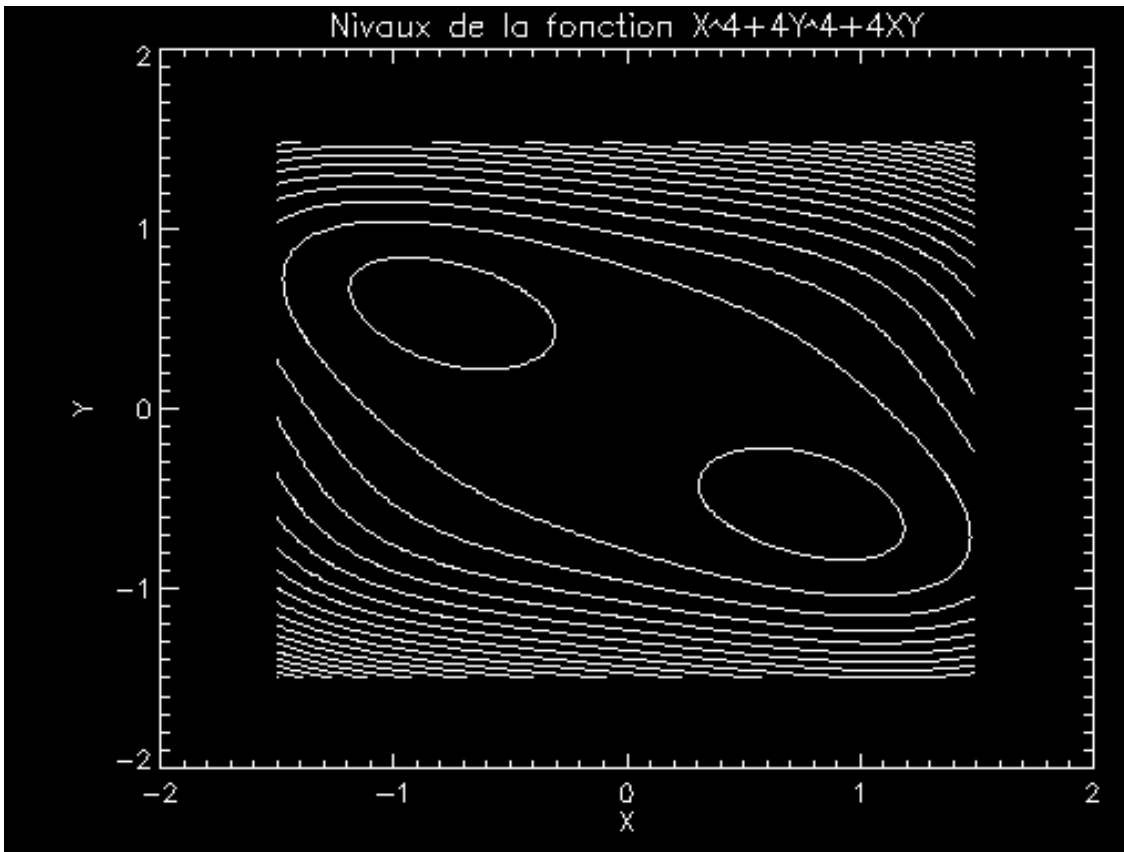
**When we get a minimum, we must *restart* algorithm for this (new starting point) to be \* on \* convergence.**

**Some authors advocate the algorithm periodically reset  
( $\Leftrightarrow$  impose  $u_{k-1} = 0$ )**

## Fletcher Reeves Conjugate Gradient Vs.

It minimizes the function:

$$F(x, y) = x^4 + 4y^4 + 4xy$$



Which has two real minimum

$$X^* 1 = [- 8^{1/4} / 2, 2^{1/4} / 2] \quad X^* 2 = [8^{1/4} / 2, -2^{1/4} / 2]$$

$$X^* 1 = [- 0.84, 0.59] \quad X^* 2 = [0.84, -0.59]$$

conjugate  
gradient

Fletcher-Reeves, with  
1D as minimization method  
the method of the "golden rule."

N iterations

Initialisation	(*)		(**)	
(0.1, 0.1)	14	$x_2^*$	divergence	6 $x_2^*$
(0.5, 0.5)	8	$x_2^*$	divergence	6 $x_2^*$
(1, 1)	4	$x_2^*$	6 $x_2^*$	5 $x_2^*$
(1, -1)	9	$x_2^*$	7 $x_2^*$	5 $x_2^*$
(10, 10)	10	$x_1^*$	9 $x_1^*$	7 $x_1^*$
(10, -10)	12	$x_1^*$	9 $x_1^*$	8 $x_1^*$
(100, 100)	12	$x_1^*$	10 $x_2^*$	9 $x_2^*$
(100, -100)	18	$x_1^*$	10 $x_2^*$	10 $x_2^*$
(1000, 1000)	16	$x_1^*$	13 $x_1^*$	11 $x_1^*$
(1000, -1000)	16	$x_1^*$	11 $x_1^*$	12 $x_1^*$

**Note 1:**

The iteration nb  
does not depend  
much of the  
distance to the solution

**Note 2:**

The better  
Fletcher-Reeves  
with periodic stimulus

\* No recovery

\*\* revival every 2 iterations

Conclusion on deterministic methods:

**They are very effective** As the study is relatively simple function :  
**For example: quadratic function**

They converge towards a LOCAL minimum :  
**It is never possible to say if you reach a local or a global minimum.**  
**To find more minima must restart the algorithm with different starting points.**

**All methods presented here may not be effective if :**

**If the function has a complex shape with numerous dimensions.**  
**If there are many local minima "parasites"**

**Or if you need to know the minimum GLOBAL function:**

**We must then use other methods !!!**

**Method to find a global minimum:**

**"Simulated Annealing" in English**

**'Simulé recuit ' in French ....**

**Also called "slow relaxation"**

**What to do to find a global minimum?**

**A possible method is "Simulated Annealing ». Another alternative is « genetic algorithm »**

**Simulated annealing in recent years has solved very complex problems like "traveling salesman" where deterministic methods are quickly trapped in local minima.**

**We briefly describe here.**

**It is a type method "Monte Carlo" therefore requires random numbers**

**.**

**It is inspired from thermodynamics ...**

**principle:**

**Natural systems spontaneously evolve towards a minimum energy or maximum total entropy:**

**Example: gas (maximum entropy)**

**spatial conformation of a molecule (minimum energy)**

**crystallization (maximum entropy)**

**etc ....**

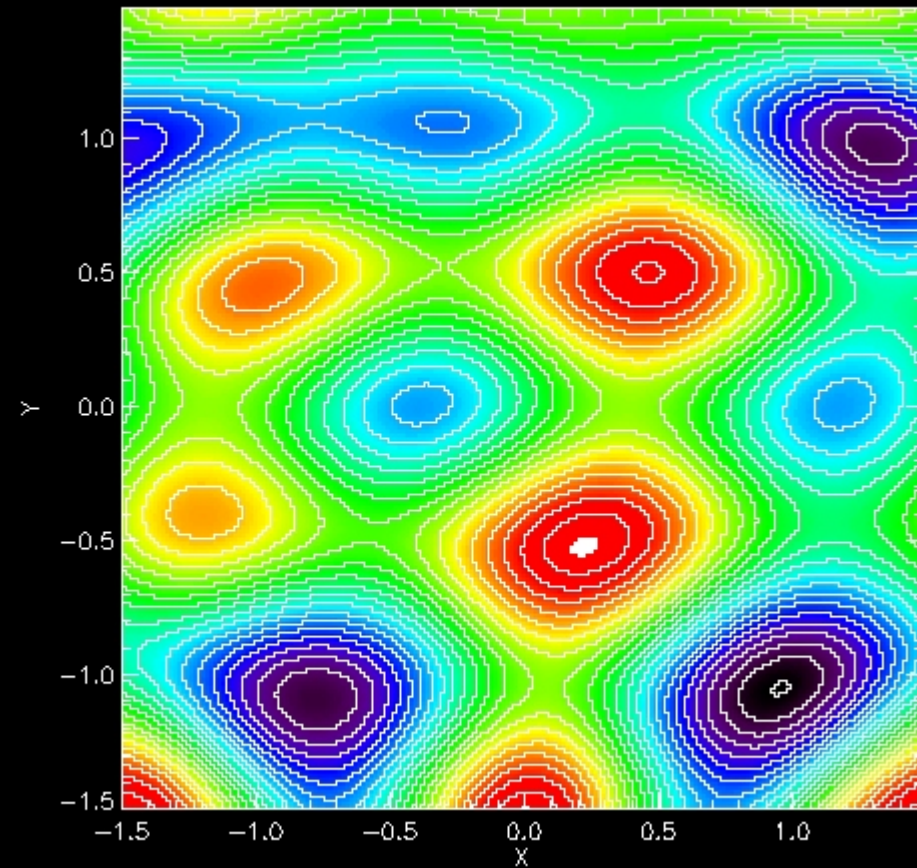
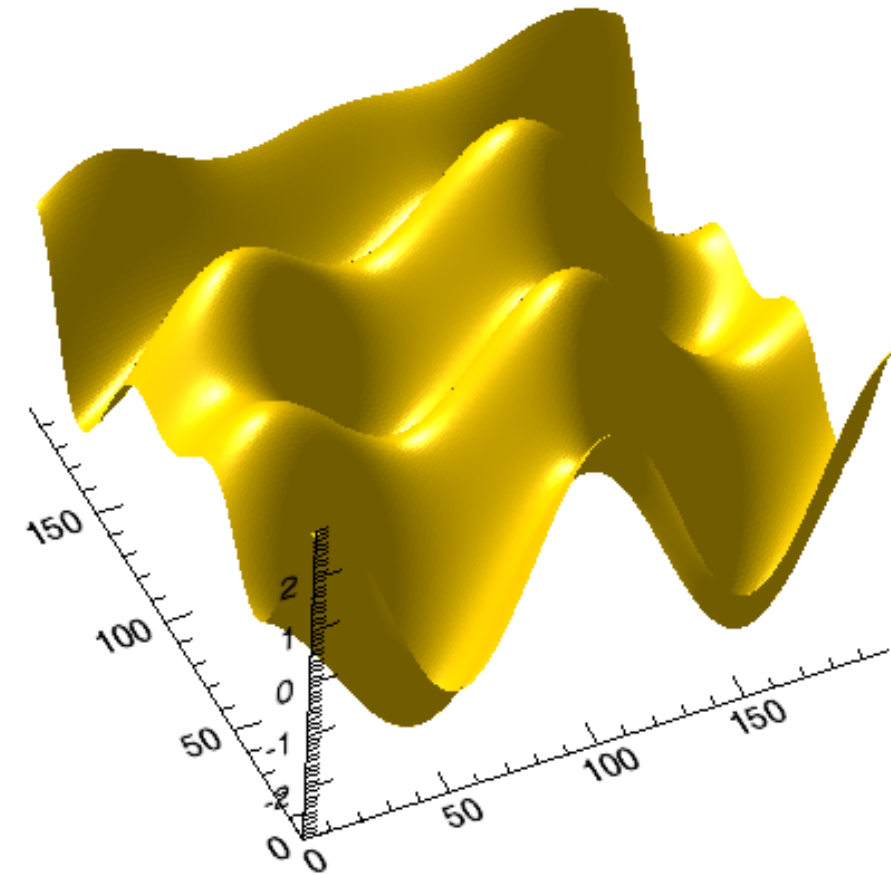
**The system explores all possibilities during some time (slow relaxation) then stabilizes inside minimum. It is a cooling process.**

**Over this cooling is slower, the system will be close to the absolute minimum.**

**The function  $F(X)$  will be called to minimize the according to "cost."**

**We must therefore minimize the "cost"**

**Example: Here is a function  $F(X, Y)$  which it is very difficult to determine the minimum absolute. A deterministic method will give you just the nearest local minimum.**





**Now let's get inspired from thermodynamics:**

**In thermodynamics the probability of an energy state  $E$  is**

$$P(E) \propto e^{-E/kT}$$

**Expressing the idea that if a system is in thermal equilibrium at temperature  $T$ , then its possible energy states are distributed probabilistically with a probability distribution that decreases exponentially with energy.**

So even if the lower energy state is most likely, it is still possible to "jumps" (with low probability) through a local minima of energy, but then eventually converge to the global energy minimum.

**So sometimes the system goes back to larger energies , but in average it gets down towards lower energies.**

**This is the FORCE of this approach. A deterministic method cannot do that**

$$P(E) \propto e^{-E/kT}$$

**The simulated-annealing method uses that probability.**

- E is the cost function F: F is the function to be minimized. It is treated as an energy
- T is a dummy control parameter is slowly decrease the temperature T of the system.
- The Boltzmann constant K will be replaced by an arbitrary constant so that P (E) is a number accessible by the machine.

**The probability of passing from one state  $E_k$  to state  $E_{k+1}$  will be :**

$$p(E_k \rightarrow E_{k+1}) = e^{-\frac{(E_{k+1}-E_k)}{kT}}$$

**If  $E_{k+1} < E_k$  then  $P = 1 \Rightarrow$  The transition is always accepted. (it minimizes !!!)**

**If  $E_{k+1} > E_k$  so  $0 < P < 1 \Rightarrow$  pulling a figure X between 0 and 1. If  $X < P$  then the transition is accepted**

**In practice, the method will be:**

Surgery  
repeated  
N times  
constant T

1- Starting from  $E_k$  energy, and a temperature T

2 randomly generate a new state,  $K + 1$ , close to the K state, energy  $E_{k+1}$  ( $\Delta E \sim KT$ )

3- Let's check if we accept the state  $K + 1$

For this we calculate the transition from K to  $K + 1$ :

Draw a random number between 0 and 1 X (distrib. Uniform)

If  $X > P$  then accept it, otherwise reject it

4- When L no longer decreases, it decreases T and start again in 1

**In step 2, the random generator should be able to generate new whose configurations  $\Delta E$  Typical is about  $KT$  ...**

**It is in step 2 that hides the effectiveness of the method.**

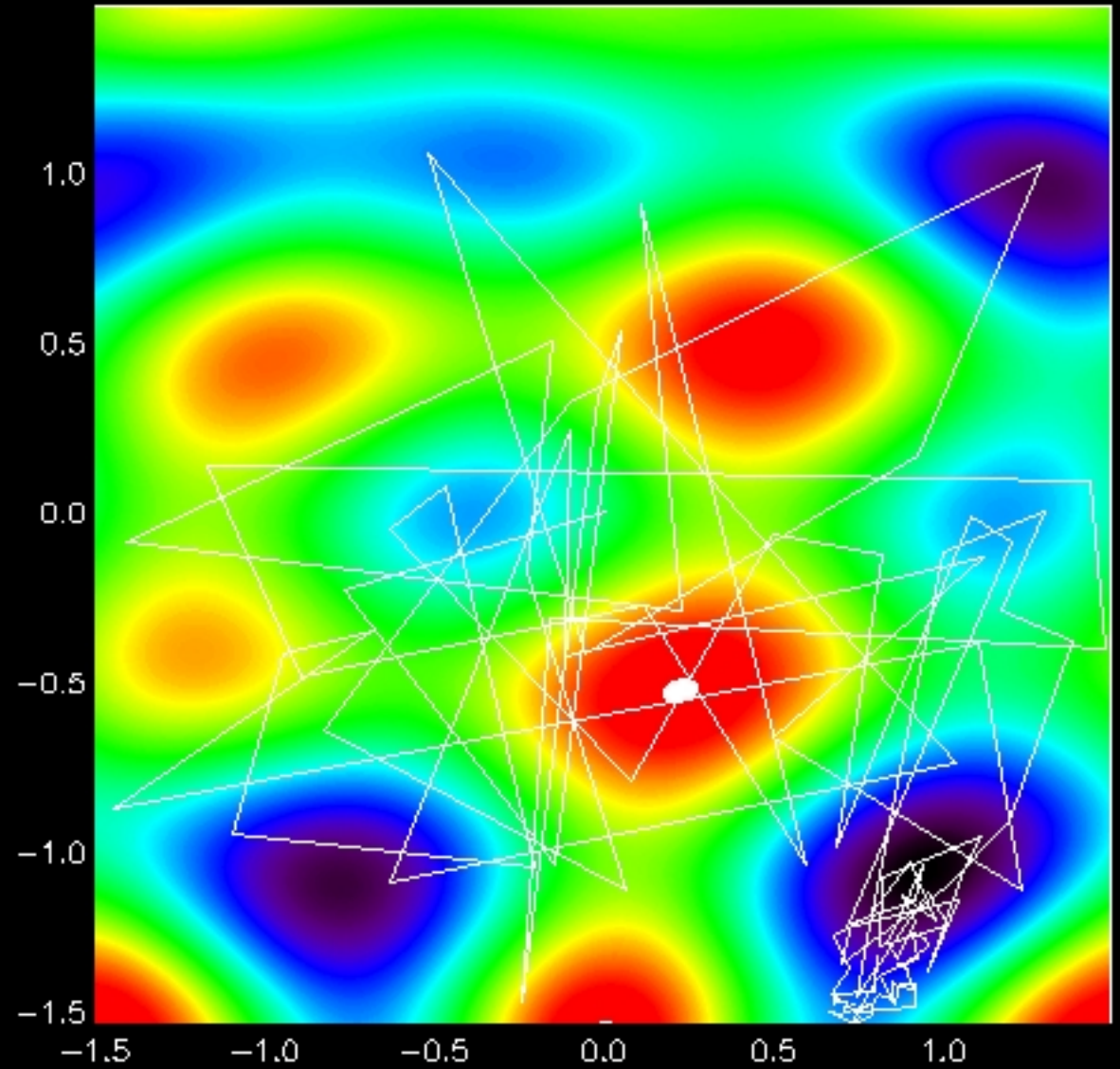
**example:**

**Starting point:**  
**[0,0]**

**Arrival point :**  
**[0.68, -1.42]**

**$10^5$  iterations**

**310 changes  
accepted**



Conclusion on simulated annealing:

**Method that can be effective when seeking an absolute minimum.**

**The result depends STRONGLY on method used to generate a new random state.**

**Very time consuming calculation => Use only if other methods are ineffective.**

**The method of "simulated annealing" is the basis of other methods of simulation type of physical "Monte Carlo" called "Metropolis" methods for simulate a gas or a crystal.**

**Alternative to simulated annealing: Genetic Algorithms.**

## Conclusion on minimizing without restraint

The problem is to minimize a function  $F(X)$   $N$  unconstrained dimensions on  $X$ .

- All methods require  $X_0$  start.
- Deterministic methods converge to the *local minimum* the closest.
- The more you know about the function (Gradient, Hessian) plus minimization will be effective. (Conjugate gradient, Fletcher-Reeves)
- . Methods to Solve ALL trying to reduce the problem to one dimension: it minimizes successively given directions

If the function is "noisy" of many local minima ... then we must use a method of the type "slow relaxation" as the "Simulated Annealing". This is a Monte Carlo method.

But the price is ... (1) a time of great computing

(2) There must be a generator of new states effective and there is no "practical recipe"

# Minimization Constraint

**Many problems in physics, engineering and economics require minimize function but soums to several constraints.**

**Examples:**

aeronautics:

**The optimal design of a wing that minimizes friction but ensure that Constraints on the wing are not too strong.**

Chemistry:

**Chemical composition in equilibrium, which minimizes the Gibbs energy but which retains the total mass**

**Etc ...**

**Several techniques exist.**

**We shall see one here, which is often found in thermodynamics:**

The method of Lagrange multipliers.

**Method can also be used analytically.**



**The Lagrange multipliers method can solve the following problem:**

**Let  $X = [x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n]$  a set of  $N$  variables**

**We want to minimise  $f(X)$  knowing that  $X$  is constrained so that we want  $g(X) = 0$**

**Example (from economy):**

**We want to maximize the function:**

$$f(x, y) = x^{2/3} y^{1/3}$$

**$X$  and  $Y$  represent them working investment ( $x$ ) and capital ( $y$ )**

**Knowing that the total cost is**

$$g(x, y) = p_1 x + p_2 y = c$$

If there was no constrain, it would suffice to increase  $x$  and  $y$  indefinitely.

But the constraint  $g(x, y) = c$  makes this impossible.

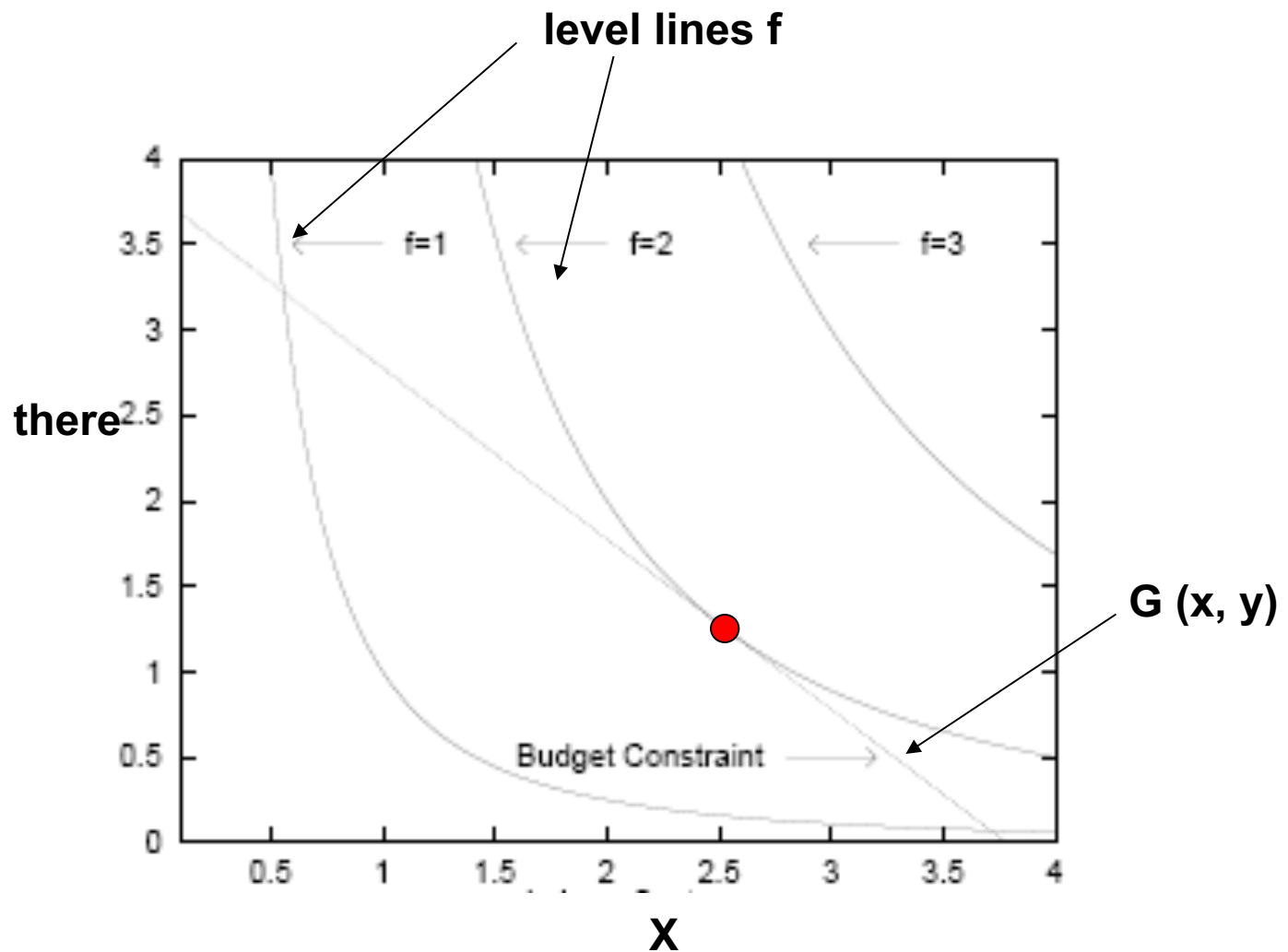
So we need to maximize  $f(x, y)$  with constrain  $g(x, y) = c$

It is a typical a « constrained optimization problem ».

How to solve this problem ?

Let's F study the level lines of  $F$ , for constant values of  $G$

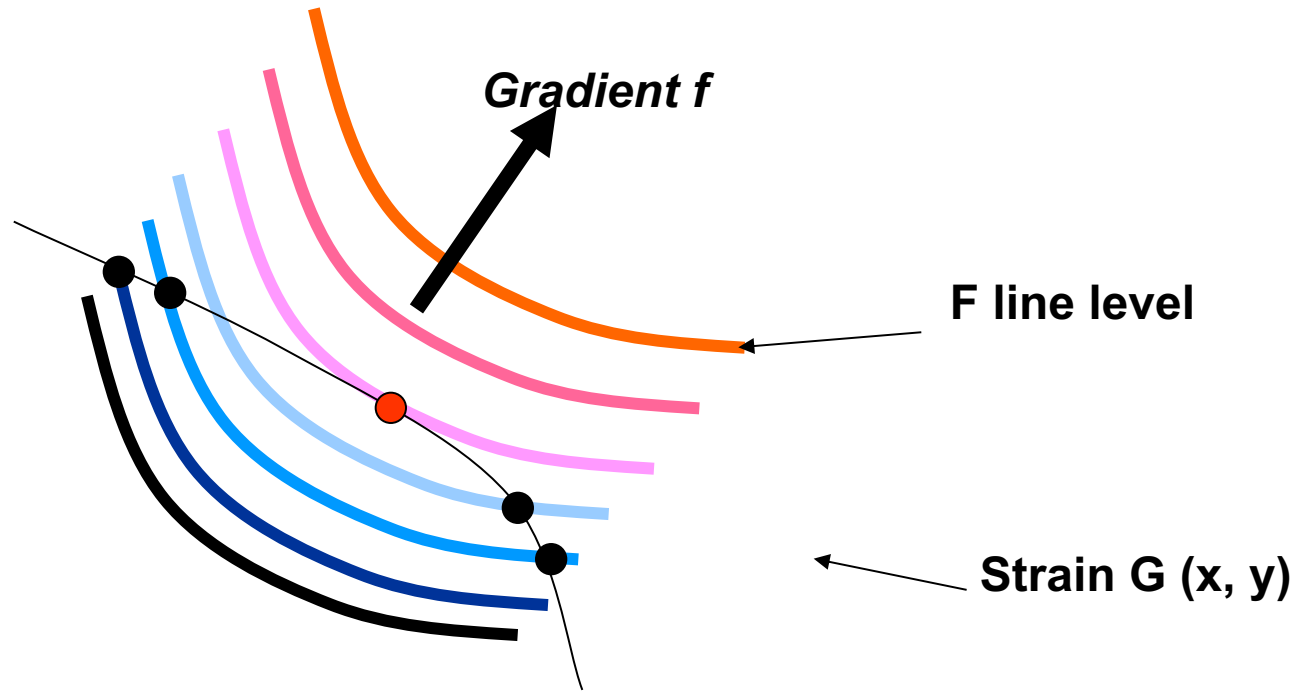
We will take for  $g(x, y) = c \Leftrightarrow x + y = 3.78 \dots$



Note that at the level of the possible solution (red) of the  $f$  level line is parallel to the line level  $g$ .

To this extend  $\vec{\nabla} f = k \vec{\nabla} G$

## graphic demonstration



- :  $f$  can be increased again, moving to the right or left
- : One can increase  $f$ : the left and right directions minimize  $f$

Then the the maximal condition is:

"F // gradient is the gradient of G"

$$\vec{\nabla} f = \lambda \vec{\nabla} G, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$$

$\Leftrightarrow$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} - \lambda \frac{\partial g}{\partial x} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} - \lambda \frac{\partial g}{\partial y} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} - \lambda \frac{\partial g}{\partial z} = 0 \end{array} \right.$$

$\lambda$  is called  
"Lagrange Multiplier"

N equations (All gradients)  
with N unknowns (x, y, z, etc ...)

+ 1 equation:  $G(x, y) = 0$  One unknown:  $\lambda$

So N + 1 equations a N + 1 unknowns

**This system is then solved numerically by the methods we saw being ...**

Summary : It maximizes  $F(X)$  with the constraint  $G(X) = 0$ .  $X$  a vector with  $N$  components

**1- Ask  $H(X, \lambda) = F(x) - \lambda G(X)$**

**2- Write  $\forall i \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} - \lambda \frac{\partial g}{\partial x_i} = 0$**

**3. Find the  $x_i$  and  $\lambda$  of  $N$  equations of the gradient solutions of the equation +  $G(X) = 0$**

**example:**

**We want to produce cylindrical cans of volume  $V_0$  set but  
Minimum area of  $S$ . Both parameters are  $r$  and  $h$**

$$S(r, h) = 2\pi rh + 2\pi r^2 \quad \leftarrow \text{Function to be minimized}$$

$$V(r, h) = V_0 = \pi r^2 h \quad \leftarrow \text{constraints}$$

$$H = S(r, h) - \lambda V(r, h)$$

$\Rightarrow$

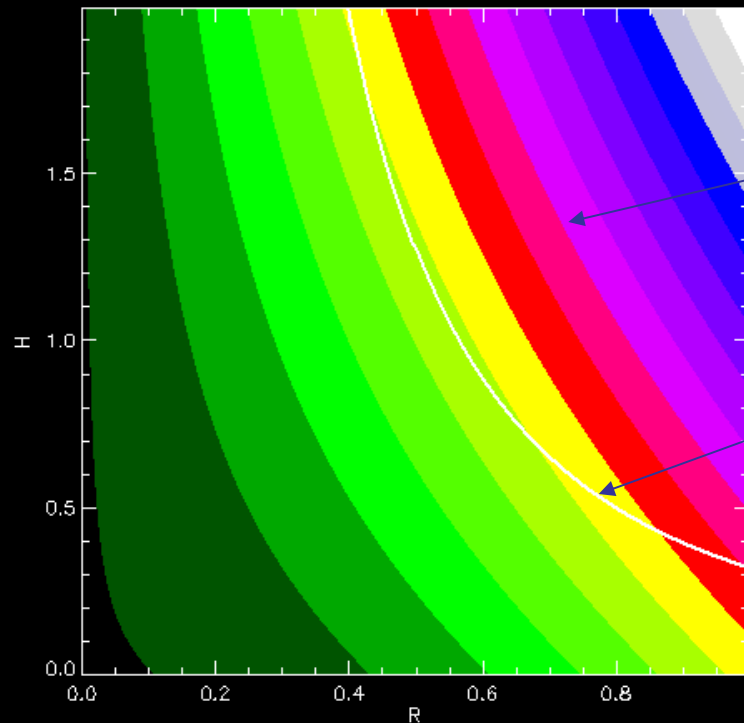
$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial S}{\partial r} - \lambda \frac{\partial V}{\partial r} = 0 \Leftrightarrow 2\pi h + 4\pi r - \lambda 2\pi r h = 0 \\ \frac{\partial S}{\partial h} - \lambda \frac{\partial V}{\partial h} = 0 \Leftrightarrow 2\pi r - \lambda \pi r^2 = 0 \\ \pi r^2 h = V_0 \end{cases}$$

**3 equations**

**3 unknowns:  $r, h, \lambda$**

$$\begin{cases} 2\pi h + 4\pi r - \lambda 2\pi r h = 0 \\ 2\pi r - \lambda \pi r^2 = 0 \\ \pi r^2 h = V_0 \end{cases}$$

**System of nonlinear equations  
solved by substitution**



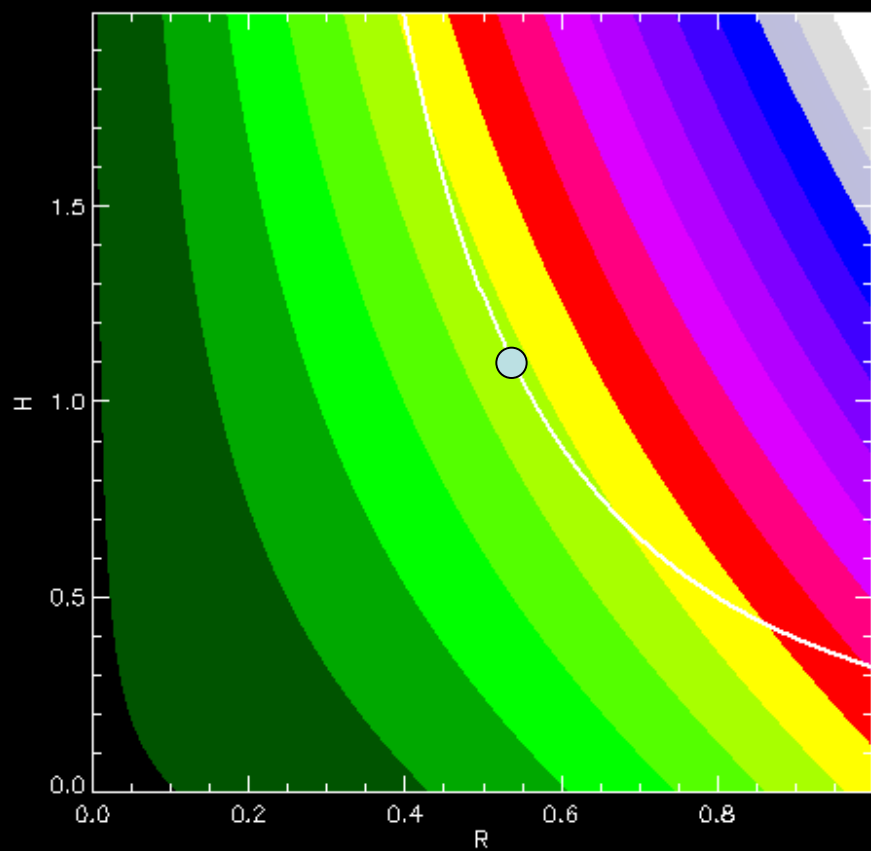
**Colors: levels Lines  
S maximize**

**Online: Constraint  $\pi r^2 h = V_0 = 1$**



$$\begin{cases} 2\pi h + 4\pi r - \lambda 2\pi r h = 0 \\ 2\pi r - \lambda \pi r^2 = 0 \\ \pi r^2 h = V_0 \end{cases} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{cases} 2\pi h + 4\pi r - \lambda 2\pi r h = 0 \\ \lambda = 2 / r \\ \pi r^2 h = V_0 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{cases} h = 2r \\ \lambda = 2 / r \\ \pi r^2 h = V_0 \end{cases} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{cases} h = 2r \\ \lambda = 2 / r \\ r = \left( \frac{V_0}{2\pi} \right)^{1/3} \end{cases}$$



$$\begin{cases} h = 1.08 \\ \lambda = 3.69 \\ r = 0.54 \end{cases}$$

$$\mathbf{v} = 1$$

**What to do when we have more of ONE constraint?**

**We introduce as many Lagrange multipliers as constraints:**

**Example : N variables and M constraints**

**Let  $x_1, \dots, x_N$  N variables.**

**We want to maximize  $F(x_1, \dots, x_N)$**

**With M-type constraints  $G_i(x_1, \dots, x_N) = 0$ , for  $i = 1 \dots M$**

**Method**

**Lagrange multipliers are introduced M:  $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_M$**

**And n solves the equations 
$$N \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} = \sum_{j=1}^M \lambda_j \frac{\partial G_j}{\partial x_i}$$**

**The M + constraints. This allows to find  $\lambda_i$  and all  $x_i$**

**The Lagrange multipliers method is the simplest method to optimize a problem with constraints.**

**the parameter  $\lambda$  has no real meaning here.**

**Other methods exist that we will not be detailed here.**

**It is widely used in thermodynamics where, for example, it allows to calculate the chemical equilibrium composition of a chemical reaction**

# Summary: How to tackle a minimization problem

Either minimize the function  $F(x_1, \dots, x_N)$   $N$  variables.

## 1. Is the problem constrained ?

If yes: Lagrange multipliers or other

## 2. Is the a simple problem? (Idea of the minimum, absence of many parasite minima)

If yes then we can use all the deterministic methods

## 3. Simple Problem: Do you know the gradient of $F$ ?

If yes , you are in the best case: use eg conjugate gradient (Hessian) or Fletcher Reeves

If not, and  $N = 1$ : Use a method of trisection and quadrature

If not, and  $N > 1$ : Only the "Amoeba" method ( "Amoeba") or mixed method not studied here

## 4. If the problem is complex (No idea of the minimum several parasites minima etc ...)

You are in the most difficult cases. Try a Monte Carlo method such as simulated annealing ( "Simulated Annealing"). Or check genetic algorithm.