

Unconstrained optimisation

UFC/DC
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2018.2

Unconstrained optimisation

Newton method

Line-search

Descent directions

Step-length α_k

Newton directions

Quasi-Newton directions

Gradient and conjugate-gradient directions

Trust-region

Nonlinear least-squares

Gauss-Newton

Levenberg-Marquardt

Derivative-free

Golden section and quadratic interpolation

Nelder and Mead

Unconstrained optimisation (CK0031/CK0248)

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Numerical optimisation

Minimisation (maximisation)

- Find a global or local minimum (maximum) of some objective function

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Numerical optimisation (cont.)

Definition

Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $n \geq 1$ be a **cost** or an **objective function**

The **unconstrained optimisation** problem

$$\rightsquigarrow \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}) \quad (1)$$

The **constrained optimisation** problem

$$\rightsquigarrow \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}) \quad (2)$$

Ω is a closed subset determined by equality and inequality constraints

- They are dictated by the nature of the problem to solve

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Numerical optimisation (cont.)

Example

Find the optimal allocation of $i = 1, \dots, n$ bounded resources x_i

- Bounded resources means limited resources

The constraints express these limits in terms of inequalities

$$0 \leq x_i \leq C_i, \quad \text{with } C_i \text{ some given constants}$$

The set $\Omega = \{\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) : 0 \leq x_i \leq C_i, i = 1, \dots, n\}$

- A subset of \mathbb{R}^n determined by such constraints

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Numerical optimisation (cont.)

For some problems, Ω is characterised by explicit conditions

~~ Equality constraints

$$\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$$

~~ Inequality constraints

$$\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) \leq \mathbf{0}$$

$\mathbf{h} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ with $m \leq n$ indicates some given function of \mathbf{x}

- $\mathbf{h} \leq \mathbf{0}$ is $h_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0$, for $i = 1, \dots, m$

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Numerical optimisation (cont.)

Definition

Let f be a continuous function and let Ω be a connected set

A constrained optimisation problem is a **non-linear programming** problem

Convex programming

- ~~ f is a convex function and \mathbf{h} has convex components

Linear programming

- ~~ f and \mathbf{h} are linear

Quadratic programming

- ~~ f is quadratic and \mathbf{h} is linear

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Numerical optimisation (cont.)

Remark

Computing the maximum of function f is equivalent to computing the minimum of function $g = -f$

- ~~ We shall only consider minimisation algorithms

Definition

The minimum value of some given objective function is interesting

The point at which such minimum is achieved is more interesting

- ~~ Such point is called **minimiser**

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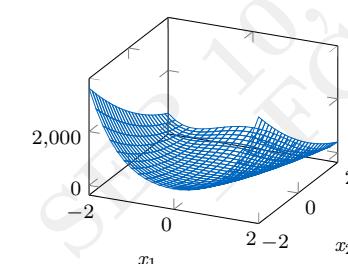
Numerical optimisation (cont.)

We consider the numerical solutions of optimisation problems

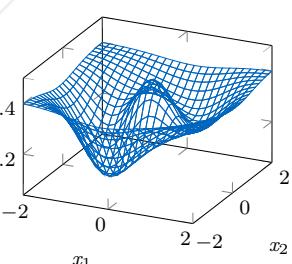
Ideal situation: A function with an *unique global minimiser*

- There are often several (local) minimisers

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2)$$



$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2)$$



Numerical optimisation (cont.)

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The meaning of minimising an objective function

We are interested in finding either a (good) local or the global minimiser

Definition

Point \mathbf{x}^* is a **global minimiser** of f

~ if $f(\mathbf{x}^*) \leq f(\mathbf{x})$, $\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Point \mathbf{x}^* is a **local minimiser** of f

~ if there is a $B_r(\mathbf{x}^*) \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, a ball centred in \mathbf{x}^* and radius $r > 0$, such that $f(\mathbf{x}^*) \leq f(\mathbf{x})$, $\forall \mathbf{x} \in B_r(\mathbf{x}^*)$

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Definition

Let f be differentiable in \mathbb{R}^n with first and second derivatives

Let **gradient vector** of f at point $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be the symbol

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}), \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \right)^T \quad (3)$$

Let **Hessian matrix** of f at point $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be the symbol

$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}) = (h_{ij})_{i,j=1}^n, \quad \text{with } h_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_j \partial x_i} \quad (4)$$

In general, it will be assumed that problem functions are smooth

- Continuous and continuously (Fréchet) differentiable, \mathbb{C}^1

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For $f(\mathbf{x})$ at any point \mathbf{x} there is a **vector of first derivatives**

- **Gradient vector**

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}} = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \quad (5)$$

∇ is the gradient operator $\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} \right)^T$

Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)

Let $f(\mathbf{x})$ be twice-differentiable, \mathbb{C}^2

There is a **matrix of second partial derivatives**

- Hessian matrix

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_2} & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \quad (6)$$

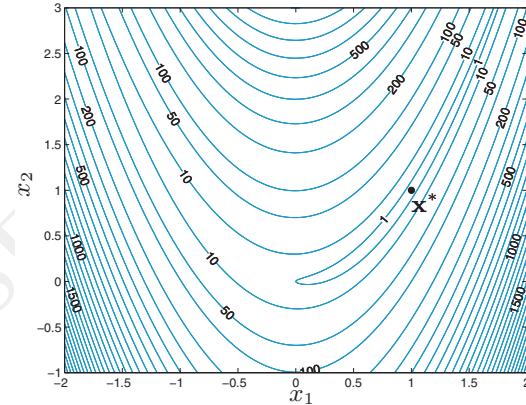
The (i, j) -th element of the Hessian matrix, $\partial^2 f / (\partial x_i \partial x_j)$

Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)

Example

Rosenbrock's function

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = 100(x_2 - x_1^2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2$$



The global minimum is at $\mathbf{x}^* = (1, 1)$, and variation around \mathbf{x}^* is low

Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)

A test-function for optimisation methods

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2) = 100(x_2 - x_1^2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2$$

- $\partial f / \partial x_1 = -400x_1(x_2 - x_1^2) - 2(1 - x_1)$
- $\partial f / \partial x_2 = 200(x_2 - x_1^2)$

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}} = \begin{bmatrix} -400x_1(x_2 - x_1^2) - 2(1 - x_1) \\ 200(x_2 - x_1^2) \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}} \quad (7)$$

Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(x_1, x_2) = 100(x_2 - x_1^2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2$$

- $\partial f / \partial x_1 = -400x_1(x_2 - x_1^2) - 2(1 - x_1)$
- $\partial f / \partial x_2 = 200(x_2 - x_1^2)$
- $\partial^2 f / (\partial x_1 \partial x_1) = 1200x_1^2 - 400x_2 + 2$
- $\partial^2 f / (\partial x_1 \partial x_2) = -400x_1$
- $\partial^2 f / (\partial x_2 \partial x_1) = -400x_1$
- $\partial^2 f / (\partial x_2 \partial x_2) = 200$

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) &= \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2} \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 1200x_1^2 - 400x_2 + 2 & -400x_1 \\ -400x_1 & 200 \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}} \end{aligned} \quad (8)$$

Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)

In general, ∇f and $\nabla^2 f$ will vary from point to point

At $\mathbf{x}' = (0, 0)^T$

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) &= \begin{bmatrix} -400x_1(x_2 - x_1^2) - 2(1 - x_1) \\ 200(x_2 - x_1^2) \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}=(0,0)^T}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) &= \begin{bmatrix} 1200x_1^2 - 400x_2 + 2 & -400x_1 \\ -400x_1 & 200 \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}} \\ &= \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 200 \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}=(0,0)^T}\end{aligned}$$



Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)

The idea of a line is also important

Definition

We can define the *line* as the set of points

$$\mathbf{x}[\mathbf{x}(\alpha)] = \mathbf{x}' + \alpha \mathbf{d}, \quad \text{for all } \alpha$$

\mathbf{x}' is some fixed point along the line

- It corresponds to $\alpha = 0$

\mathbf{d} is the direction of the line

Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)

Example

Let the fixed point \mathbf{x}' be the point $(2, 2)$

Let the direction \mathbf{d} be $(3, 1)$

Draw the line $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}' + \alpha \mathbf{d}$, for all α



Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)

We can determine expressions for the derivatives of f along any line $\mathbf{x}(\alpha)$

Based on definitions of line, gradient vector and Hessian matrix

By the chain rule of derivation of scalar-valued function of a vector

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{d\alpha} \{ \cdot [\mathbf{x}(\alpha)] \} &= \sum_i \frac{dx_i(\alpha)}{d\alpha} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \{ \cdot [\mathbf{x}(\alpha)] \} = \sum_i d_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \{ \cdot [\mathbf{x}(\alpha)] \} \\ &= \mathbf{d}^T \nabla \{ \cdot [\mathbf{x}(\alpha)] \}\end{aligned}$$

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The slope of $f\{ = f[\mathbf{x}(\alpha)] \}$ along the line at any point $\mathbf{x}(\alpha)$

$$\frac{df}{d\alpha} = \mathbf{d}^T \nabla f = \nabla f^T \mathbf{d}$$

This is the directional derivative of f with respect to \mathbf{d}

- ∇f is calculated at $\mathbf{x}(\alpha)$

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The curvature along the line at any point $\mathbf{x}(\alpha)$

$$\frac{d^2f}{d\alpha^2} = \frac{d}{d\alpha} \left(\frac{df}{d\alpha} \right) = \mathbf{d}^T \nabla (\nabla f^T \mathbf{d}) = \mathbf{d}^T \nabla^2 f \mathbf{d}$$

This is the second-order directional derivative of f

- ∇f and $\nabla^2 f$ are calculated at $\mathbf{x}(\alpha)$

Let $\mathbf{G} = \nabla^2 f$, then $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{d}$ is a vector

$$(\mathbf{G}\mathbf{d})_i = \sum_j G_{ij} d_j$$

$\mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{G}\mathbf{d}$ is the scalar product of \mathbf{d} and $\mathbf{G}\mathbf{d}$

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Rosenbrock's function

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = 100(x_2 - x_1^2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2$$

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} -400x_1(x_2 - x_1^2) - 2(1 - x_1) \\ 200(x_2 - x_1^2) \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}=0}$$

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1200x_1^2 - 400x_2 + 2 & -400x_1 \\ -400x_1 & 200 \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}=0}$$

We consider point $\mathbf{x}' = (0, 0)^T$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = 100(x_2 - x_1^2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2$$

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} -400x_1(x_2 - x_1^2) - 2(1 - x_1) \\ 200(x_2 - x_1^2) \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}}$$

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 1200x_1^2 - 400x_2 + 2 & -400x_1 \\ -400x_1 & 200 \end{bmatrix}_{\mathbf{x}=0}$$

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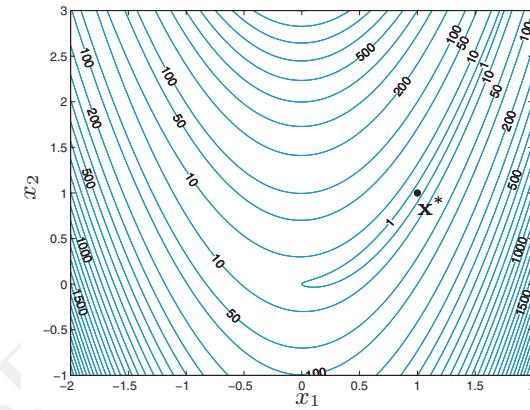
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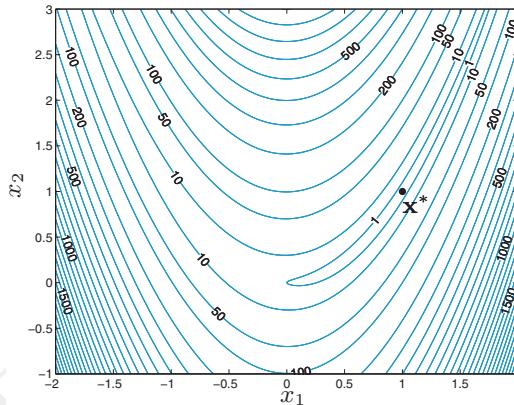
Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)



The slope along the line with direction $\mathbf{d} = (1, 0)^T$

$$\mathbf{d}^T \nabla f(\mathbf{x}') = [1 \quad 0] \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = -2$$

Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)



The curvature along the line with direction $s = (1, 0)^T$

$$\mathbf{d}^T \mathbf{G} \mathbf{d} = [1 \ 0] \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 200 \end{bmatrix} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}}_{[2 \ 0]^T} = 2$$

■

Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)

Definition

Let $f \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ (all first and second derivatives exist and are continuous)

Then, $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x})$ is symmetric for every $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Definition

A point \mathbf{x}^* is called a **stationary** or **critical point** for f if $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$

A point such that $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) \neq \mathbf{0}$ is called a **regular point**

Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)

Remark

A function f over \mathbb{R}^n does not necessarily admit a minimiser

- Also, should this point exist it is not necessarily unique

Example

- $f(\mathbf{x}) = x_1 + 3x_2$ is unbounded in \mathbb{R}^2
- $f(\mathbf{x}) = \sin(x_1) \sin(x_2) \cdots \sin(x_n)$ admits an infinite number of minimisers and maximisers in \mathbb{R}^n , both local and global

■

Unconstrained optimisation (cont.)

Definition

Function $f : \Omega \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is **convex** in Ω if

$$f[\alpha\mathbf{x} + (1 - \alpha)\mathbf{y}] \leq \alpha f(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \alpha)f(\mathbf{y}), \quad \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \Omega \quad (9)$$

for all $\alpha \in [0, 1]$

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Definition

Function f is **Lipschitz** in Ω if

$$\|f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{y})\| \leq L\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|, \quad \forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \Omega \quad (10)$$

for some constant $L > 0$

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Proposition

Optimality conditions

Let $\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $r > 0$ exists such that $f \in C^1(B_r(\mathbf{x}^*))$

- If \mathbf{x}^* is a minimiser for f (local or global), then $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$
 - Also, if $f \in C^2(B_r(\mathbf{x}^*))$, $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^*)$ is positive semidefinite (PSD)

Let $\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $r > 0$ exists such that $f \in C^2(B_r(\mathbf{x}^*))$

- If $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^*)$ is positive definite (PD) for all $\mathbf{x} \in B_r(\mathbf{x}^*)$, then \mathbf{x}^* is a local minimiser of f
- If $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is convex in \mathbb{R}^n and $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$, then \mathbf{x}^* is a global minimiser for f

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Definition

A symmetric real matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is **positive definite** (PD) if

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ with } \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}, \quad \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} > 0$$

A symmetric real matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is **positive semidefinite** (PSD) if

$$\forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n \text{ with } \mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{0}, \quad \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \geq 0$$

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Most methods for numerical optimisation are of iterative type

- They can be classified into two main categories

It depends on whether they use derivatives of the cost function

Derivative-free methods

- They explore the local behaviour of a cost function
- Direct comparison between function values

Methods using derivatives

- They use information on the local behaviour of the cost

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Methods based on derivatives are expected faster convergence

Remark

It can be shown that given $\bar{x} \in \text{dom}(f)$, if $\nabla f(\bar{x})$ exists and it is not null, then the largest increase of f from \bar{x} is along the gradient vector

Conversely, the largest decrease is along the opposite direction

Among them, the two most important classes of techniques

- ~~ Line-search methods
- ~~ Trust-region methods

The Newton method

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Trust-region

Nonlinear least-squares
Gauss-Newton

Levenberg-Marquardt

Derivative-free
Golden section and quadratic interpolation
Nelder and Mead

The Newton method

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Let $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ with $n \geq 1$ be of class $C^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$

We know how to compute its first and second order partial derivatives

We apply Newton's method to solve a system of nonlinear equation

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$$

The Newton method (cont.)

Remark

Newton's method

Consider the problem of finding the zero of some $f : [a, b] \subset \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

~~ Find $\alpha \in [a, b]$ such that $f(\alpha) = 0$

We know the equation of the tangent to function $f(x)$ at some point $x^{(k)}$

$$y(x) = f[x^{(k)}] + f'[x^{(k)}][x - x^{(k)}]$$

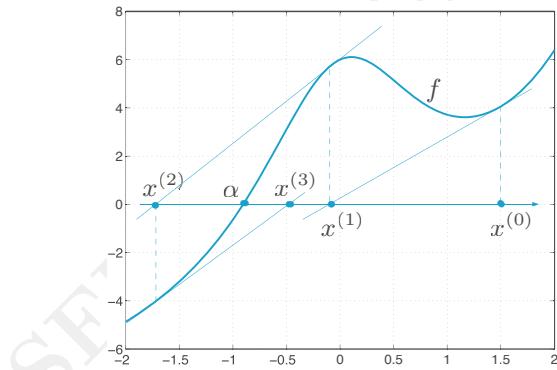
We can solve for some point $x = x^{(k+1)}$, such that $y[x^{(k+1)}] = 0$

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \frac{f[x^{(k)}]}{f'[x^{(k)}]}$$

All this, for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ and $f'[x^{(k)}] \neq 0$

The Newton method (cont.)

Sequence $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}$ is the **Newton's method** for finding the zero of a function



↝ The method reduces to locally substituting f with its tangent



The Newton method (cont.)

Consider now a set of nonlinear equations

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= 0 \\ f_2(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ f_n(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

For the sake of compactness, we re-write the system in vector form

- Let $\mathbf{f} \equiv (f_1, \dots, f_n)^T$
- Let $\mathbf{x} \equiv (x_1, \dots, x_n)^T$
- ↝ $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$

The Newton method (cont.)

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$$

We want solve the system of nonlinear equation

↝ We can extend Newton's method

Replace first derivative of function f with Jacobian \mathbf{J}_f of function \mathbf{f}

$$\rightsquigarrow (\mathbf{J}_f)_{ij} \equiv \frac{\partial f_i}{\partial x_j}, \quad \text{with } i, j = 1, \dots, n$$

The Newton method (cont.)

Consider the general system of nonlinear equations $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$

$$\begin{aligned} f_1(x_1, \dots, x_j, \dots, x_n) &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ f_i(x_1, \dots, x_j, \dots, x_n) &= 0 \\ &\vdots \\ f_n(x_1, \dots, x_j, \dots, x_n) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

The corresponding Jacobian matrix

$$\mathbf{J}_f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial x_n} \\ \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial x_n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_1} & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_n}{\partial x_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

The Newton method (cont.)

Given this notation, the multivariable Newton's method¹ follows

Pseudo-code

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be an initial solution

For $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, until convergence

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solve } & \mathbf{J}_f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \boldsymbol{\delta}\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \\ \text{Set } & \mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \boldsymbol{\delta}\mathbf{x}^{(k)} \end{aligned}$$

At each iteration, a linear system with matrix $\mathbf{J}_f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ must be solved

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - f[x^{(k)}]/f'[x^{(k)}], \quad \delta_x^{(k)} = x^{(k+1)} - x^{(k)}, \quad \rightsquigarrow f'[x^{(k)}]\delta_x^{(k)} = -f[x^{(k)}]$$

The Newton method (cont.)

$$\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$$

- The Jacobian $\mathbf{J}_f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ of the system is the Hessian matrix $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x})$ of f
- (computed at the generic iteration point $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$)

Pseudo-code

Given $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$, until convergence

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Solve } & \underbrace{\mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]}_{\mathbf{J}_f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]} \boldsymbol{\delta}\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = -\underbrace{\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]}_{\mathbf{f}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]} \\ \text{Set } & \mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \boldsymbol{\delta}\mathbf{x}^{(k)} \end{aligned} \quad (11)$$

A suitable stopping test

$$\|\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}\| \leq \varepsilon, \quad \varepsilon > 0 \text{ is the tolerance}$$

The Newton method (cont.)

The Newton method (cont.)

```

1 function [x,res,iter] = snwt(F_fun,J_fun,x_0,tol,imx)
2 % [ROOT,RES,ITER]=SNWT(F_FUN,J_FUN,X_0,TOL,IMX) Calculate
3 % vector ROOT, the zero of a nonlinear system defined in
4 % F_FUN with Jacobian J_FUN, from initial point X_0
5 %
6 % RES is residual in ROOT and ITER is number of iterations
7 % F_FUN e J_FUN are external functions (as M-files)
8 %
9 iter=0; x=x_0; err=1+tol;
10
11 while err >= tol & iter < imx
12 J = J_fun(x);
13 F = F_fun(x);
14 deltax = -J\F; % (Matlab/Octave backslash operator)
15 x = x + deltax;
16 err = norm(deltax); iter = 1+iter;
17
18 res = norm(F_fun(x));
19
20 if(iter==imx & err > tol)
21 disp(['Out by KMAX']);
22 else
23 disp(['Out by TOL']);
24 end
25 return

```

```

1 function F = F_fun(x)
2 F(1,1) = F_1(x_1,x_2,...); % Add your own expression
3 F(2,1) = F_2(x_1,x_2,...); % Add your own expression
4 ...
5 F(N,1) = F_N(x_1,x_2,...); % Add your own expression
6
7 return

```

```

1 function J = J_fun(x)
2 J(1,1) = dF_1 / dx_1; % Add your own expression
3 J(1,2) = dF_1 / dx_2; % Add your own expression
4 ...
5
6 J(2,1) = dF_2 / dx_1; % Add your own expression
7 J(2,2) = dF_2 / dx_2; % Add your own expression
8 ...
9
10 J(N,1) = dF_N / dx_1; % Add your own expression
11 J(N,2) = dF_N / dx_2; % Add your own expression
12 ...
13
14 return

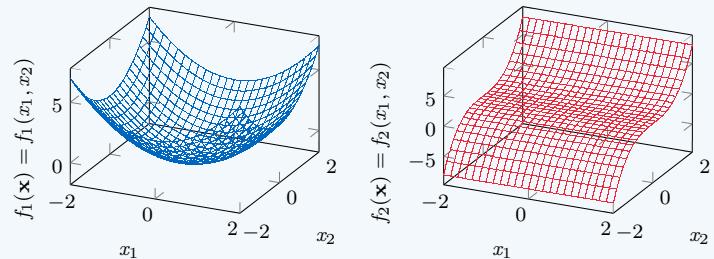
```

The Newton method (cont.)

Example

Consider the nonlinear system of equations

$$\begin{cases} f_1(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1 \\ f_2(x_1, x_2) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}x_1\right) + x_2^3 = 0 \end{cases}$$



The system has two solutions

- $\approx (0.47, -0.88)$ and $\approx (-0.47, 0.88)$

The Newton method (cont.)

$$\begin{cases} f_1(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2 = 1 \\ f_2(x_1, x_2) = \sin\left(\frac{\pi}{2}x_1\right) + x_2^3 = 0 \end{cases}$$

```

1 function F=F_fun(x)
2 hpi = 0.5*pi;
3 F(1,1) = x(1)^2 + x(2)^2 = 1;
4 F(2,1) = sin(pih*x(1)) + x(2)^3 = 0;
5 return

```

```

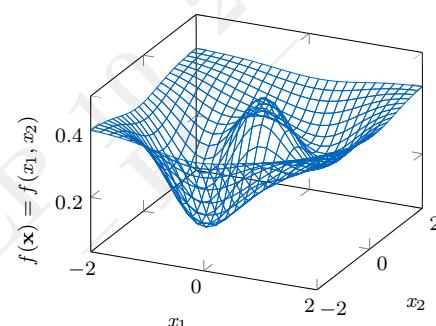
1 function J=J_fun(x)
2 hpi = 0.5*pi;
3 J(1,1) = 2*x(1);
4 J(1,2) = 2*x(2);
5 J(2,1) = hpi*cos(hpi*x(1));
6 J(2,2) = 3*x(2)^2;
7 return

```

The Newton method (cont.)

Example

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = 2/5 - 1/10(5x_1^2 + 5x_2^2 + 3x_1x_2 - x_1 - 2x_2)e^{[-(x_1^2+x_2^2)]}$$



We want to approximate the global minimum $\mathbf{x}^* \approx (-0.63, -0.70)$

The Newton method (cont.)

Suppose we start the solution from point $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (1, 1)^T$

Let $\varepsilon = 0.00001$ be the user-defined tolerance

```

1 x_0=[1;1]; % Initial solution
2 tol=1e-5; % Tolerance
3 imx=20; % Iteration
4
5 [x,res,iter] = sNWT(@F_fun,@J_fun,x_0,tol,imx);

```



The Newton method (cont.)

Newton's method with a tolerance $\varepsilon = 10^{-5}$

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (-0.9, -0.9)$

- ~~ After 5 iterations the method converges to $\mathbf{x} = [-0.63058; -0.70074]$

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (-1.0, -1.0)$

- ~~ After 400 iterations the stopping criterion is still not fulfilled

Moreover, Newton's method may converge to any stationary point

- (a point that is not necessarily a minimiser)

With $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (+0.5, -0.5)$

- ~~ After 5 iterations the method converges to the saddle point

- $\mathbf{x} = [0.80659; -0.54010]$



The Newton method (cont.)

Remark

A necessary condition for convergence of Newton's method

- $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ should be sufficiently close to the minimiser \mathbf{x}^*

The **local convergence property** of the method

Remark

General convergence criterium for the Newton's method

If $f \in \mathbb{C}^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ with stationary point \mathbf{x}^*

- ~~ Positive definite Hessian $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^*)$

- ~~ Lipschitz continuous components of $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x})$ in a neighbourhood of \mathbf{x}^*

Then, for $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ sufficiently close to \mathbf{x}^* , it converges (quadratically) to \mathbf{x}^*

The Newton method (cont.)

In spite of a simple implementation, the method is demanding for large n

- ~~ It requires the analytic expression of the derivatives
- ~~ The computation of both gradient and Hessian of f
- (Gradient and Hessian at each iteration)

Let alone that $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ has to be chosen near enough \mathbf{x}^*

The Newton method (cont.)

Remark

A valid approach to design efficient and robust minimisation algorithms

- ~~ Combine locally with globally convergent methods

Global convergence guarantees convergence to a stationary point

- (not necessarily a global minimiser)
- For all $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

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Newton method

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- Step-length α_k
- Newton directions
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Line-search methods

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Line-search methods

Line-search or descent methods are iterative methods

Suppose that $f \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ and that it is bounded from below

For every step $k \geq 0$, let $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}$ be the next point of the minimising sequence

Point $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}$ is determined from

↔ Point \mathbf{x}^k and vector $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

Vector $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ itself depends on

↔ The gradient $\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ of f

↔ A step-length parameter $\alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$

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Line-search methods (cont.)

The formulation of the method

Pseudo-code

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be an initial minimiser

Find direction $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Compute step-length $\alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$

Set $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

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Line-search methods (cont.)

Definition

Vector $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ must be a **descent direction**

A descent direction satisfies the following conditions

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{d}^{(k)} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] &< 0, & \text{if } \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \neq \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{d}^{(k)} = \mathbf{0}, & & \text{if } \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] = \mathbf{0} \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

• $\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ gives the direction of max positive growth of f from $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

• $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is the directional derivative of f along $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

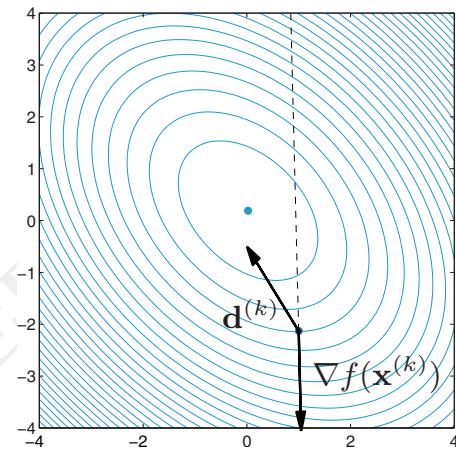
First condition ensures moves in a direction opposite to the gradient

↔ The iterates move towards a minimiser

Line-search methods (cont.)

Contour lines of function $f(\mathbf{x})$ and its gradient vector evaluated at $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

- $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ is a suitable descent direction



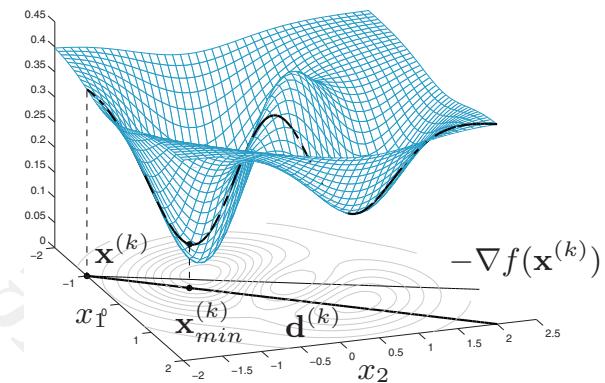
Optimal value $\alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$ guarantees max variation of f along $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

- Once $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ is determined

Line-search methods (cont.)

α_k can be computed by solving a one-dimensional minimisation problem

- Minimise the restriction of $f(\mathbf{x})$ along $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$
- $\mathbf{x}_{\min}^{(k)}$ is the minimiser along $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$



The computation of α_k is quite involved (when f is not quadratic)

↝ There are alternative techniques that approximate α_k well

Descent directions

Line-search methods

Descent directions

Newton's directions

$$\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{H}^{-1}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \quad (13)$$

- Matrix $\mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is the Hessian matrix at the k -th step
- Vector $\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is the gradient vector at the k -th step

Quasi-Newton directions

$$\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{H}_k^{-1} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \quad (14)$$

- Matrix \mathbf{H}_k is an approximation of the true Hessian $\mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$
- It is used when second derivatives are heavy to compute

Descent directions (cont.)

Gradient directions

$$\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \quad (15)$$

- These are quasi-Newton directions, with $\mathbf{H}_k = \mathbf{I}$, $\forall k \geq 0$

Conjugate-gradient directions

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{d}^{(0)} &= -\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(0)}] \\ \mathbf{d}^{(k+1)} &= -\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}] + \beta_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}, \quad k \geq 0 \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

- Coefficients β_k can be chosen according to different criteria

Descent directions (cont.)

For all $k \geq 0$, gradient directions are valid descent directions

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{d}^{(k)} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] &< 0, & \text{if } \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \neq \mathbf{0} \\ \mathbf{d}^{(k)} &= \mathbf{0}, & \text{if } \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] = \mathbf{0}, \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

Conjugate-gradient directions are valid directions for some suitable β_k

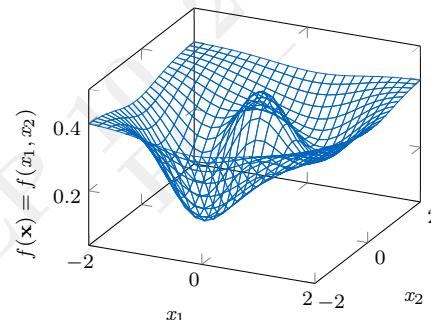
Newton's and quasi-Newton's directions can also be valid directions

- $\mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ and \mathbf{H}_k need be positive definite matrices

Descent directions (cont.)

Example

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = 2/5 - 1/10(5x_1^2 + 5x_2^2 + 3x_1x_2 - x_1 - 2x_2)e^{-(x_1^2+x_2^2)}$$



Two local minimisers, one local maximiser and two saddle points

Descent directions (cont.)

We compare sequences $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}$ from Newton's and descent methods

- Various descent directions
- From $\mathbf{x}_1^{(0)}$ and $\mathbf{x}_2^{(0)}$

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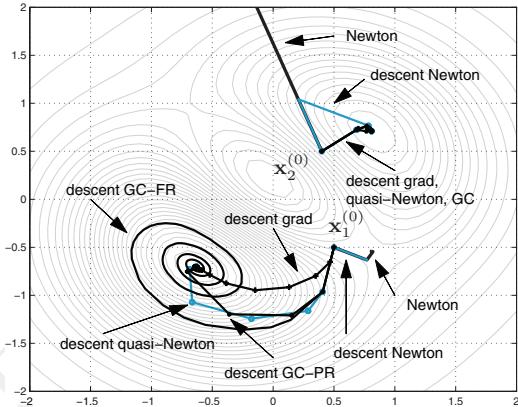
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Descent directions (cont.)

$$\mathbf{x}_1^{(0)} = (0.5, -0.5)$$



- Newton's method converges rapidly towards the saddle point
- Newton's directions take a first step identical to Newton's
- ~ Then collapse due to a non-positive definite matrix \mathbf{H}_k
- Others converge with different speeds into a local minimum
- Fastest convergence by quasi-Newton's directions

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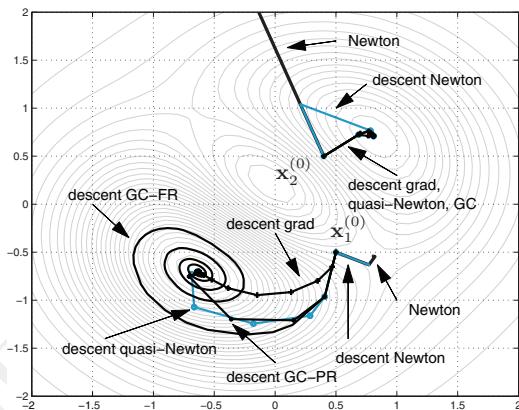
Derivative-free

Golden section and quadratic interpolation

Nelder and Mead

Descent directions (cont.)

$$\mathbf{x}_2^{(0)} = (0.4, 0.5)$$



- Newton's method diverges
- Newton's directions converge to a local minimum
- ~ Newton's method and directions share the same first direction
- All others also converge to the same local minimiser

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Descent directions (cont.)



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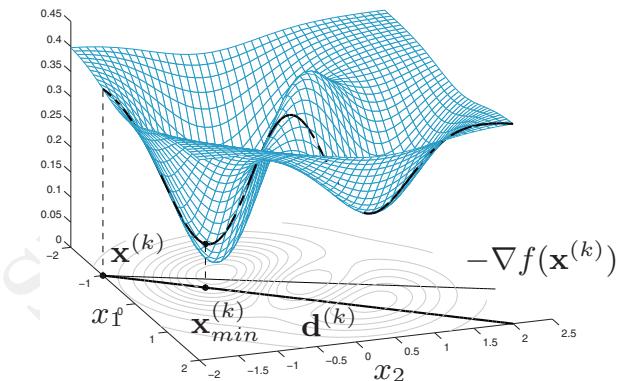
Step-length α_k Line-search methods

Step-length α_k

Let $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ be a descent direction

- How to set the step-length α_k

The new iterate $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}$ is (should be) the minimiser of f along $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$



Step-length α_k (cont.)

The new iterate $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}$ should be the minimiser of f along $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

Choose α_k such that the minimisation is exact

$$\alpha_k = \arg \min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}} f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}]$$

or

$$f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] = \min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}} f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}]$$

Step-length α_k (cont.)

A second-order Taylor expansion of f around $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ yields

$$f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] = f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \frac{\alpha^2}{2} \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \mathbf{d}^{(k)} + o(\|\alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}\|^2) \quad (19)$$

Step-length α_k (cont.)

Remark

Consider the special case in which f is a quadratic function

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

- $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ symmetric and positive definite
- $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- $c \in \mathbb{R}$

The expansion is exact, the infinitesimal residual is null

$$f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] = f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \frac{\alpha^2}{2} \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \mathbf{d}^{(k)} + o(\|\alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}\|^2)$$

Step-length α_k (cont.)

For every $k \geq 0$, we have

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

$$\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{b} = -\mathbf{r}^{(k)}$$

$$\nabla^2 f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] = \mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] = \mathbf{A}$$

Differentiate $f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] = f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \frac{\alpha^2}{2} \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ wrt α and set the derivative equal to zero to get $\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}} f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}]$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d}{d\alpha} f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{x}^{(k)}] &= -\mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \mathbf{r}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}^{(k)} = 0 \\ \rightsquigarrow \alpha_k &= \frac{\mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \mathbf{r}^{(k)}}{\mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}^{(k)}} \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

Step-length α_k (cont.)

Let $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ be gradient directions, $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) = \mathbf{r}^{(k)}$

☞ The gradient method for solving linear systems

Step-length α_k (cont.)

Let \mathbf{d}^k be conjugate-gradient directions, $\mathbf{d}^{(k+1)} = -\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}] + \beta_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

Set,

$$\beta_k = \frac{[\mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}^{(k)}]^T \mathbf{r}^{(k+1)}}{\mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}^{(k)}} \quad (21)$$

☞ The conjugate-gradient method for solving linear systems



Step-length α_k (cont.)

Let f be a non-quadratic function

The computation of the optimal α_k requires an iterative method

☞ Numerical solution of minimisation along $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

Remark

☞ Demanding and often not worth it

☞ Stick with an approximation of α_k

Step-length α_k (cont.)

Unconstrained optimisation

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Step-length α_k

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Golden section and quadratic interpolation

Nelder and Mead

How to pick a good approximated value of α_k ?

Impose a condition to the new iterate $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

$$\rightsquigarrow f[\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}] < f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \quad (22)$$

Step-length α_k (cont.)

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Example

A natural strategy for setting α_k

- Initially assign a large α_k
- Then, reduce it iteratively
- Until, $f[\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}] < f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is satisfied

The strategy does not guarantee a $\{\mathbf{x}^k\}$ that converges to \mathbf{x}^*

- Steps can be too long (go beyond the minimum)
- Steps can be too short (get infinitesimal)

Step-length α_k (cont.)

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There exist alternative (better/reliable) criteria for $\alpha_k > 0$

↪ Wolfe's conditions

Definition

Let α_k be the step-length

α_k is accepted if

$$\begin{aligned} f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] &\leq f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \sigma \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \\ \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] &\geq \delta \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \end{aligned} \quad (23)$$

The two additional parameters, constants σ and δ

- $0 < \sigma < \delta < 1$

$\mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is the directional derivative of f along direction $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

Step-length α_k (cont.)

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$$f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] \leq f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \sigma \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$$

$$\mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] \geq \delta \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$$

First condition (**Armijo's rule**) inhibits too small variations of f

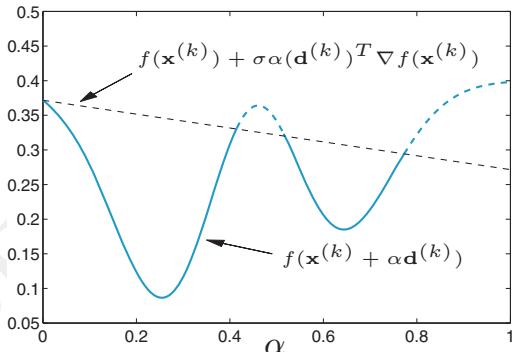
- With respect to step-length and directional derivative

Changes in f need be proportional to step-length and directional derivative

Step-length α_k (cont.)

The terms in the first of the two Wolfe's conditions, for $\sigma = 0.2$

$$f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] \leq f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \sigma \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$$



Condition is satisfied for α corresponding to the continuous line

Step-length α_k (cont.)

$$\begin{aligned} f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] &\leq f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \sigma \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \\ \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] &\geq \delta \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \end{aligned}$$

Second condition states that the directional derivative of f at new point $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ should be δ times larger than it was at point $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

- Point $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ is a valid candidate if f at such point decreases less than it does at $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ (closer to a minimiser)

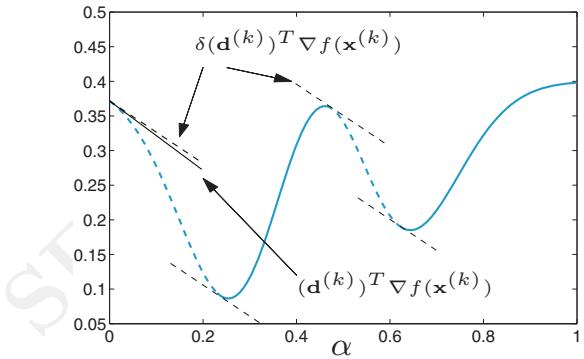
This second condition prevents steps whose length would be too small

- Happens where f has a largely negative directional derivative

Step-length α_k (cont.)

Lines with slope $\delta \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ in second condition, $\delta = 0.9$

$$\mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] \geq \delta \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$$



Condition is satisfied for α corresponding to the continuous line

Step-length α_k (cont.)

Wolfe's conditions are jointly satisfied in the interval

$$0.23 \leq \alpha \leq 0.41 \text{ or } 0.62 \leq \alpha \leq 0.77$$

Values of $\alpha \in [0.62, 0.77]$ are far from the minimiser of f along $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

- Also α where the directional derivative is large are accepted

Step-length α_k (cont.)

Definition

Wolfe's strong conditions

$$\begin{aligned} f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] &\leq f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \sigma \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \\ |\mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}]| &\leq -\delta \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

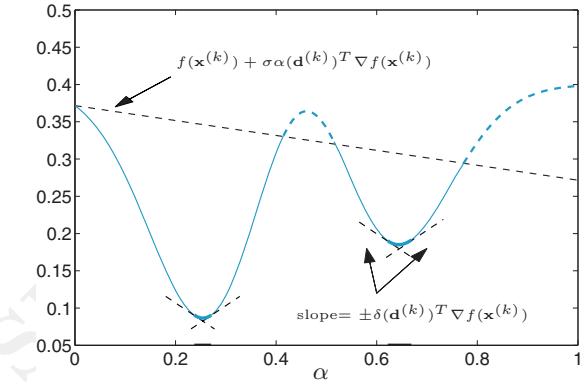
This conditions are more restrictive (duh!)

- The first condition is unchanged
- The second one inhibits f from large variations about $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

Step-length α_k (cont.)

Acceptable α must belong to small intervals around the minimisers

- (thick continuous arcs)



- For $\sigma = 0.2$ and $\delta = 0.9$

Step-length α_k (cont.)

Remark

Suppose that $f \in \mathcal{C}^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is bounded from below in $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}, \alpha > 0\}$

- Let $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ be a descent direction at $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

It can be shown that for all σ and δ such that $0 < \sigma < \delta < 1$ there exist non-empty intervals of α_k that satisfy Wolfe's weak and strong conditions

In practice², σ is usually chosen to be very small (e.g., $\sigma = 10^{-4}$)

Typical values for δ

- $\delta = 0.9$ for Newton, quasi-Newton and gradient directions
- $\delta = 0.1$ for conjugate-gradient directions

Step-length α_k (cont.)

A strategy for step-lengths α_k that satisfy Wolfe's conditions

Backtracking

- Start with $\alpha = 1$
- Then reduce it by a given factor ρ (typically, $\rho \in [0.1, 0.5]$)
- Until, the first weak condition is satisfied

For $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ and a direction $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$, for $\sigma \in (0, 1)$ and $\rho \in [0.1, 0.5]$

Pseudo-code

```
Set  $\alpha = 1$ 
  while  $f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] > f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \sigma \alpha \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ 
     $\alpha = \rho \alpha$ 
  end
Set  $\alpha_k = \alpha$ 
```

Second condition is never checked, as step-lengths are not small

Step-length α_k (cont.)

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```

1 function [x,alpha_k]=bTrack(fun,x_k,g_k,d_k,varargin)
2 %BTRACK Backtracking with line search
3 % [X,ALPHA_K]=BTRACK(FUN,X_K,G_K,D_K) x_{k+1}=x_k+alpha_k*d_k
4 % in the descent method, alpha_k by backtracking with
5 % sigma=1e-4 and rho=0.25
6 %
7 % [X,ALPHA_K]=BTRACK(FUN,X_K,G_K,D_K,SIGMA,RHO) sigma and rho
8 % can be inputed - sigma in (1e-4,0.1) and rho in (0.1,0.5)
9 %
10 % FUN is the function handle of the objective function
11 % X_K is element x_k, G_K is the gradient, D_K is d_k
12 %
13 if nargin == 4
14     sigma = 1.0e-4; rho = 1/4;
15 else
16     sigma = varargin {1}; rho = varargin {2};
17 end
18 %
19 minAlpha = 1.0e-5; % Smallest steplength
20 alpha_k = 1.0; f_k = fun(x_k);
21 %
22 k = 0; x = x_k + alpha_k*d_k;
23 while fun(x) > f_k+sigma*alpha_k*g_k'*d_k & alpha_k > minAlpha
24     alpha_k = alpha_k*rho;
25     x = x_k + alpha_k*d_k; k = k+1;
26 end

```

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Step-length α_k (cont.)

The descent method with various descent directions

- α_k is determined by backtracking

```

1 %DSCENT Descent method of minimisation
2 %[X,ERR,ITER]=DSCENT(FUN,GRAD_FUN,X_0,TOL,KMAX,TYP,HESS_FUN)
3 % Approximates the minimiser of FUN using descent directions
4 % Newton (TYP=1), BFGS (TYP=2), GRADIENT (TYP=3), and the
5 % CONJUGATE-GRADIENT method with
6 % beta_k by Fletcher and Reeves (TYP=41)
7 % beta_k by Polak and Ribiere (TYP=42)
8 % beta_k by Hestenes and Stiefel(TYP=43)
9 %
10 % Step length is calculated using backtracking (bTrack.m)
11 %
12 % FUN, GRAD_FUN and HESS_FUN (TYP=1 only) are function handles
13 % for the objective, gradient and Hessian matrix
14 % With TYP=2, HESS_FUN approximates the exact Hessian at X_0
15 %
16 % TOL is the stop check tolerance
17 % KMAX is the maximum number of iteration

```

Unconstrained optimisation

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```

1 function [x,err,iter]=dScent(fun,grad_fun,x_0,tol,kmax,typ,varargin)
2 if nargin>6; if typ==1; Hess=varargin{1};
3     elseif typ==2; Hess=varargin{1}; end; end
4 %
5 err=tol+1; k=0; xk=x0(:); gk=grad(xk); dk=-gk; eps2=sqrt(eps);
6 %
7 while err>tol & k<kmax
8     if typ==1; H = hess_fun(xk); dk = -H\gk; % Newton
9     elseif typ==2; dk = -H\gk; % BFGS
10    elseif typ==3; dk = -gk; % Gradient
11    end
12    [xk1,alphak]=bTrack(fun,xk,gk,dk);
13    gk1=grad_fun(xk1);
14    % BFGS update
15    yk = gk1-gk; sk = xk1-xk; yks = yk'*sk;
16    if yks > eps2*norm(sk)*norm(yk)
17        Hs=H*sk; H=H+(yk*yk')/yks-(Hs*Hs')/(sk'*Hs);
18    end
19    elseif typ>=40 % CG upgrade
20        if typ==41; betak=(gk1'*gk1)/(gk'*gk); % FR
21        elseif typ==42; betak=(gk1'*(gk1-gk))/(gk'*gk); % PR
22        elseif typ==43; betak=(gk1'*(gk1-gk))/(dk'*(gk1-gk)); % HS
23        end
24        dk = -gk1 + betak*dk;
25    end
26    xk = xk1; gk = gk1; k = k + 1; xkt = xk1;
27    for i=1:length(xk1); xkt(i) = max([abs(xk1(i)),1]); end
28    err = norm((gk1.*xkt)/max([abs(fun(xk1)),1]),Inf);
29    end
30    x = xk; iter = k;
31    if (k==kmax & err>tol); disp(['KMAX']); end

```

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Descent method with Newton's directions

Let us consider a descent method with Newton's directions

~> Newton directions

$$\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{H}^{-1}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$$

Let step-lengths α_k satisfy Wolfe's conditions

~> Wolfe step lengths α_k

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}) &\leq f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \sigma \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \\ \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] &\geq \delta \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \end{aligned}$$

Let $f \in \mathbb{C}^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ bounded from below

Descent method with Newton's directions (cont.)

Pseudo-code

Find direction $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Compute step $\alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$

Set $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

Descent method with Newton's directions (cont.)

Suppose that the Hessian $\mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is symmetric, for all $k \geq 0$

~> (from the assumption on f)

Suppose that $\mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is also positive definite (no uphill moves)

Let $\mathbf{B}_k = \mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$

Suppose that $\exists M > 0 : K(\mathbf{B}_k) = \|\mathbf{B}_k\|_2 \|\mathbf{B}_k^{-1}\|_2 \leq M$, for all $k \geq 0$

- $K(\mathbf{B}_k)$ is the (one) **spectral condition number** of \mathbf{B}_k
- Uniform upper bound on the condition number

Then, Newton's sequence $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}$ converges to a stationary point \mathbf{x}^*

~> By letting $\alpha_k = 1$ for $k \geq \bar{k}$, the converge is quadratic

Descent method with Newton's directions (cont.)

Definition

Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a matrix

Consider the problem of finding a scalar λ (complex or real) and a non-null vector $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{C}^n$ such that

$$\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \lambda\mathbf{x}$$

Any λ that satisfy this equation is an **eigenvalue** of \mathbf{A}

- \mathbf{x} is the corresponding **eigenvector**

The **spectral condition number** of \mathbf{A} is the quantity

$$K(\mathbf{A}) = \frac{\lambda_{\max}}{\lambda_{\min}}$$

Descent method with Newton's directions (cont.)

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Remark

If Hessians are positive definite, \mathbf{x}^* cannot be a maximiser or saddle point

- The stationary point must necessarily be a minimiser

It can happen that $\mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is not positive definite for some point $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

- $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ may not be a descent direction
- Wolfe's conditions might become meaningless

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Descent method with Newton's directions (cont.)

Hessian can be transformed to make them positive definite

$$\mathbf{B}_k = \mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \mathbf{E}_k$$

- \mathbf{E}_k is some suitable matrix (either diagonal or full)
- \mathbf{E}_k is such that $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{B}_k^{-1}\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is a descent direction

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Descent method with quasi-Newton

Let us consider a descent method with quasi-Newton directions

- Quasi-Newton directions

$$\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{H}_k^{-1}\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$$

$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{H}_k$ approximates the true Hessian $\mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$

Let step-lengths α_k satisfy Wolfe's conditions

\rightsquigarrow Wolfe step lengths α_k

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}) \leq f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \sigma \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$$

$$\mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] \geq \delta \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$$

Let $f \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ bounded from below

Descent method with quasi-Newton's directions (cont.)

Suppose we are given a symmetric and positive definite matrix \mathbf{H}_0

- ~ How do we build matrices \mathbf{H}_k ?

There exists a popular technique used for solving nonlinear systems

- ~ The recursive **Broyden's rank-one update**

Descent method with quasi-Newton's directions (cont.)

Matrices \mathbf{H}_k are required to satisfy certain conditions

- They must satisfy the secant condition

$$\mathbf{H}_{k+1}[\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}] = \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}] - \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^k]$$

- They must be symmetric, as $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x})$
- They must be positive definite, $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ are descent
- They must satisfy

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|[\mathbf{H}_k - \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^*)]\mathbf{d}^{(k)}\|}{\|\mathbf{d}^{(k)}\|} = 0$$

This ensures that \mathbf{H}_k is a good approximation of $\mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^*]$ along the descent direction $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ and guarantees a super-linear rate of convergence

Descent method with quasi-Newton's directions (cont.)

Definition

A strategy by Broyden, Fletcher, Goldfarb and Shanno (**BFGS**)

$$\mathbf{H}_{k+1} = \mathbf{H}_k + \frac{\mathbf{y}^{(k)}\mathbf{y}^{(k)T}}{\mathbf{x}^{(k)T}\mathbf{s}^{(k)}} - \frac{\mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{s}^{(k)}\mathbf{s}^{(k)T}\mathbf{H}_k^T}{\mathbf{s}^{(k)T}\mathbf{H}_k\mathbf{s}^{(k)}} \quad (25)$$

- $\mathbf{s}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}$
- $\mathbf{y}^k = \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}] - \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$

Descent method with quasi-Newton's directions (cont.)

Matrices \mathbf{H}_{k+1} are symmetric and positive definite under condition

$$\mathbf{y}^{(k)T}\mathbf{s}^{(k)} > 0$$

It is satisfied when step lengths α_k are either weak or strong Wolfe

Descent method with quasi-Newton's directions (cont.)

BFBS is a descent method, with quasi-Newton $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ and Wolfe's α_k s

$$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{H}_k^{-1} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$$

\rightsquigarrow

$$\begin{aligned} f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}) &\leq f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \sigma \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \\ \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}] &\geq \delta \mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \end{aligned}$$

Pseudo-code

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ be an initial solution

Find direction $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Compute step length $\alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$

Set $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

Descent method with quasi-Newton's directions (cont.)

Pseudo-code

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ be an initial solution

Let $\mathbf{H}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a suitable symmetric and positive definite matrix

$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{H}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ approximates $\mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(0)}]$

Solve $\mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$

Compute α_k that satisfies Wolfe's conditions

Set

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$$

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

$$\mathbf{y}^{(k)} = \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}] - \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$$

$$\text{Compute } \mathbf{H}_{k+1} = \mathbf{H}_k + \frac{\mathbf{y}^{(k)} \mathbf{y}^{(k)T}}{\mathbf{x}^{(k)T} \mathbf{s}^{(k)}} - \frac{\mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{s}^{(k)} \mathbf{s}^{(k)T} \mathbf{H}_k^T}{\mathbf{s}^{(k)T} \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{s}^{(k)}}$$

Descent method with quasi-Newton's directions (cont.)

Remark

The cost of calculating $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ is $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$, at every iteration $k \geq 0$

- Can be reduced to $\mathcal{O}(n^2)$ by using recursive QR on \mathbf{H}_k

Setting $\mathbf{H}_0 = \mathbf{I}$ gives faster convergence to \mathbf{x}^*

\rightsquigarrow Some experimental evidence, only

Descent method with quasi-Newton's directions (cont.)

Example

Rosenbrock's function

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = (1 - x_1)^2 + 100(x_2 - x_1^2)^2$$

Let $\varepsilon = 10^{-6}$ be the tolerance

```
1 x_0 = [+1.2; -1.0];
2
3 fun = @(x) (1-x(1))^2 + 100*(x(2)-x(1)^2)^2;
4
5 options = optimset ('largeScale','off'); % Switches to BFGS
6 [xstar,fval,exitflag,output] = fminunc(fun,x_0,options)
```

Convergence after 24 iterations and 93 function evaluations

We did not input an expression for evaluating the gradient

- It was, silently, approximated
- (finite difference methods)

Descent method with quasi-Newton's directions (cont.)

We can define and input the analytical gradient

```

1 x_0 = [+1.2; -1.0];
2
3 fun = @(x) (1-x(1))^2 + 100*(x(2)-x(1)^2)^2;
4 grad_fun = @(x)[-400*(x(2)-x(1)^2)*x(1)-2*(1-x(1)); ...
5           +200*(x(2)-x(1)^2)];
6
7 options = optimset('LargeScale','off','GradObj','on');
8 [xstar,fval,exitflag,output] = fminunc({fun,grad_fun},...
9           x_0,options)

```

Convergence after 25 iterations and 32 function evaluations

Descent method with quasi-Newton's directions (cont.)

Remark

In Octave, BFGS is implemented by the M-command `bfgsmin`

- M-command `fminunc` implements a different method
- (A trust-region method)

Descent method with gradient and conjugate-gradient directions

Line-search methods

Gradient and conjugate-gradient directions

Let us first consider the general descent method

Pseudo-code

Find direction $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$

Compute step $\alpha_k \in \mathbb{R}$

Set $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

The gradient (descent) directions

$$\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$$

If $f \in C^2(\mathbb{R}^n)$ is bounded from below and step lengths α_k are Wolfe

⇒ This method converges (linearly) to a stationary point

Gradient and conjugate-gradient directions (cont.)

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Let us now consider conjugate directions

$$\mathbf{d}^{(0)} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)})$$

$$\mathbf{d}^{(k+1)} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}) - \beta_k \mathbf{d}^{(k)}, \quad k \geq 0$$

There are several options for setting β_k

Gradient or conjugate-gradient directions (cont.)

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~~ Fletcher-Reeves

$$\beta_k^{FR} = -\frac{\|\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]\|^2}{\|\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}]\|^2} \quad (26)$$

~~ Polak-Ribière (-Polyak)

$$\beta_k^{PR} = -\frac{\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]^T \{\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] - \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}]\}}{\|\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}]\|^2} \quad (27)$$

~~ Hestenes-Stiefel

$$\beta_k^{HS} = -\frac{\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]^T \{\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]^T - \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}]\}}{\mathbf{d}^{(k-1)^T} \{\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] - \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)}]\}} \quad (28)$$

Gradient and conjugate-gradient directions (cont.)

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Remark

Suppose true the condition that f is quadratic and strictly convex

Then, all the aforementioned options are equivalent

$$\rightsquigarrow \beta_k = \frac{[\mathbf{A}\mathbf{d}^{(k)}]^T \mathbf{r}^{(k+1)}}{\mathbf{d}^{(k)T} \mathbf{A}\mathbf{d}^{(k)}}$$

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Trust-region methods

Numerical optimisation

Trust-region methods

Line search methods are designed to set first the descent direction $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

- Then, they determine the step-length α_k

These steps are performed at each k -th step

Trust-region methods simultaneously choose direction and step length

This is done by building a ball of radius δ_k centred at $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

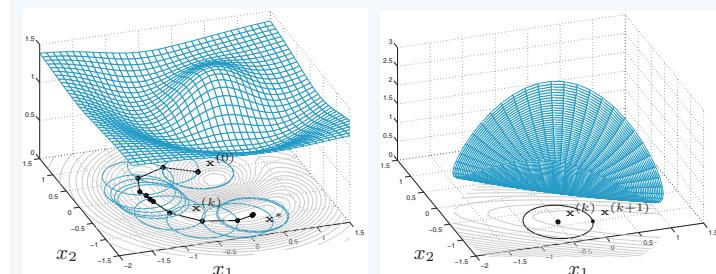
- The ball is the **trust region**, at iteration k

Within the ball, a quadratic approximation \tilde{f}_k of f is computed

- The new $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}$ is the minimiser of \tilde{f}_k in the trust region

Trust-region methods (cont.)

Example



Convergence history and quadratic approximation \tilde{f}_k at step $k = 8$

Trust-region methods (cont.)

To compute \tilde{f}_k , we start with some trust radius $\delta_k > 0$

- Determine a second-order Taylor expansion of f about $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

$$\tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{s}) = f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \mathbf{s}^T \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{s}, \quad \forall \mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad (29)$$

\mathbf{H}_k is either the Hessian of f at $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ or a suitable approximation

- We then compute the solution $\mathbf{s}^{(k)}$

$$\mathbf{s}^{(k)} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|\mathbf{s}\| \leq \delta_k} \tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{s}) \quad (30)$$

⇒ At this stage, we also compute the quantity

$$\rho_k = \frac{f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{s}^{(k)}] - f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]}{\tilde{f}_k[\mathbf{s}^{(k)}] - \tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{0})} \quad (31)$$

Trust-region methods (cont.)

$$\rho_k = \frac{f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{s}^{(k)}] - f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]}{\tilde{f}_k[\mathbf{s}^{(k)}] - \tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{0})}$$

A comparison between variation of f and variation of \tilde{f}_k

⇒ From point $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ to point $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{s}^{(k)}$

If ρ_k is about one, the approximation is considered to be good

Trust-region methods (cont.)

If ρ_k is approximately one, we accept $\mathbf{s}^{(k)}$ and move on to next iteration

~ We set $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{s}^{(k)}$

- (however, if the minimiser of \tilde{f}_k lie on the boundary of the trust region, we extend the latter before proceeding to next iteration)

If ρ_k is either negative or positive (and much smaller than one)

~ We reduce the ball's size and calculate a new $\mathbf{s}^{(k)}$

$$\mathbf{s}^{(k)} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|\mathbf{s}\| \leq \delta_k} \tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{s})$$

If ρ_k is much larger than one, we accept $\mathbf{s}^{(k)}$ and keep the trust region

~ Then we move to the next iteration

Trust-region methods (cont.)

Remark

Consider the situation in which second derivatives of f are available

We could set \mathbf{H}_k to be equal to the Hessian

- (or a variant, if not positive definite)

Otherwise, \mathbf{H}_k can be built recursively

Trust-region methods (cont.)

Let \mathbf{H}_k be symmetric positive definite and let $\|\mathbf{H}_k^{-1} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]\| \leq \delta_k$

- Then, $\mathbf{s}^{(k)} = \mathbf{H}_k^{-1} \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is a minimiser
- It is within the trust region

Otherwise, the minimiser of \tilde{f}_k lies outside the trust region

- ~ We must solve the minimisation of \tilde{f}_k
- Constrained to the δ_k -ball at $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

$$\min_{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|\mathbf{s}\| = \delta_k} \tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{s}) \quad (32)$$

This is a constrained optimisation problem

- ~ We can use the Lagrange multipliers

Trust-region methods (cont.)

At each iteration k , we look for the minimiser of the Lagrangian function

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{s}, \lambda) = \tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{s}) + 1/2\lambda(\mathbf{s}^T \mathbf{s} - \delta_k^2)$$

To be optimised with respect to both \mathbf{s} and the regularisation term λ

We search for a vector $\mathbf{s}^{(k)}$ and a scalar $\lambda^{(k)} > 0$ satisfying the system

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathbf{H}_k + \lambda^{(k)} \mathbf{I}] \mathbf{s}^{(k)} &= -\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \\ [\mathbf{H}_k + \lambda^{(k)} \mathbf{I}] \text{ is PSD} \\ \|\mathbf{s}^{(k)}\| - \delta_k &= 0 \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

Trust-region methods (cont.)

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Golden section and quadratic interpolation
Nelder and Mead

From $[\mathbf{H}_k + \lambda^{(k)} \mathbf{I}] \mathbf{s}^{(k)} = -\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$, we compute $\mathbf{s}^{(k)} = \mathbf{s}^{(k)}[\lambda^{(k)}]$

We substitute it in $\|\mathbf{s}^{(k)}\| - \delta_k = 0$

$$\rightsquigarrow \varphi[\lambda^{(k)}] = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{s}^{(k)}[\lambda^{(k)}]\|} - \frac{1}{\delta_k} = 0$$

The non-linear equation in λ is equivalent to system (33)

- It can be solved using Newton's method

Trust-region methods (cont.)

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For some given λ_0 , set $\mathbf{g}^{(k)} = \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$

Pseudo-code

For $l = 0, 1, \dots$ (typically, less than 5 iterations are needed)

Compute $\mathbf{s}_l^{(k)} = -[\mathbf{H}_k + \lambda_l^{(k)} \mathbf{I}]^{-1} \mathbf{g}^{(k)}$

Evaluate $\varphi[\lambda_l^{(k)}] = 1/\|\mathbf{s}_l^{(k)}\| - 1/\delta_k$

Evaluate $\varphi'[\lambda_l^{(k)}]$

Compute $\lambda_{l+1}^{(k)} = \lambda_l^{(k)} - \varphi\lambda_l^{(k)}/\varphi'[\lambda_l^{(k)}]$

Trust-region methods (cont.)

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Vector $\mathbf{s}_l^{(k)}$ is obtained by **Cholesky factorisation** of $[\mathbf{H}_k + \lambda_l^{(k)} \mathbf{I}]$

- Provided that matrix $\mathbf{B}^{(k)} = \mathbf{H}_k + \lambda_l^{(k)} \mathbf{I}$ is positive definite
- If $\mathbf{B}^{(k)}$ is symmetric (definition of \mathbf{H}_k), its eigenvalues are all real

Remark

Usually, a regularised matrix $\mathbf{B}_l^{(k)} + \beta \mathbf{I}$ is used instead of $\mathbf{B}^{(k)}$

- β should be larger than the negative eigenvalue of $\mathbf{B}^{(k)}$ of largest modulus

Trust-region methods (cont.)

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Definition

Cholesky factorisation

Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ be a symmetric and positive definite matrix

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{R}$$

\mathbf{R} is upper triangular with positive elements on the diagonal

Trust region methods (cont.)

For $\mathbf{g}^{(k)} = \nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ and for some given δ_k

Pseudo-code

Solve $\mathbf{H}_k \mathbf{s} = -\mathbf{g}^{(k)}$ (means $\mathbf{s} = -\mathbf{H}_k^{-1} \mathbf{g}^{(k)}$)

If $\|\mathbf{s}\| \leq \delta_k$ and \mathbf{H}_k is positive definite

Set $\mathbf{s}^{(k)} = \mathbf{s}$

else

Let β_1 be the negative eigenvalue of \mathbf{H}_k with largest modulus

Set $\lambda_0^{(k)} = 2|\beta_1|$

For $l = 0, 1, \dots$

Compute $\mathbf{R} : \mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{R} = \mathbf{H}_k + \lambda_l^{(k)} \mathbf{I}$

Solve $\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{R} \mathbf{s} = \mathbf{g}^{(k)}$, $\mathbf{R}^T \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{s}$

Update $\lambda_{l+1}^{(k)} = \lambda_l^{(k)} + (\|\mathbf{s}\|/\|\mathbf{q}\|)^2 \frac{\|\mathbf{s}\| - \delta_k}{\delta_k}$

Set $\mathbf{s}^{(k)} = \mathbf{s}$

endif

Trust-region methods (cont.)

For a fast convergence, a good radius δ_k is truly fundamental

The criterion for accepting a solution $\mathbf{s}^{(k)}$ is based on a comparison

- The variation of f and that of its quadratic approximation \tilde{f}_k

Remark

As $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ moves to $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{s}^{(k)}$

$$\rho_k = \frac{f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{s}^{(k)}] - f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]}{\tilde{f}_k[\mathbf{s}^{(k)}] - \tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{0})}$$

If $\rho_k \approx 1$

- $\mathbf{s}^{(k)}$ is accepted, the ball is enlarged if the minimum is on the boundary

If $\rho_k \approx 0$ or $\rho_k < 0$

- $\mathbf{s}^{(k)}$ is not accepted and the ball is diminished

Trust-region methods (cont.)

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ be an initial solution

Let the initial radius of the ball be $\delta_0 \in (0, \hat{\delta})$ with maximum radius $\hat{\delta} > 0$

Let $\{\eta_1, \eta_2, \gamma_1, \gamma_2\}$ be the four real parameters for updating the ball

- $0 < \eta_1 < \eta_2 < 1$
- $0 < \gamma_1 < 1 < \gamma_2$

Let $0 \leq \mu \leq \eta_1$ be the real parameter for accepting a solution

...

Trust-region methods (cont.)

Then, for $k = 0, 1, \dots$ until convergence

Pseudo-code

Compute $f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$, $\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ and \mathbf{H}_k

Solve $\min_{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|\mathbf{s}\|_2 \leq \delta_k} \tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{s})$

Compute ρ_k

If $\rho_k > \mu$

Set $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{s}^{(k)}$

else

Set $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

endif

If $\rho_k < \eta_1$

Set $\delta_{k+1} = \gamma_1 \delta_k$

elseif $\eta_1 \leq \rho_k \leq \eta_2$

Set $\delta_{k+1} = \delta_k$

elseif $\rho_k > \eta_2$ and $\|\mathbf{s}^{(k)}\| = \delta_k$

Set $\delta_{k+1} = \min\{\gamma_2 \delta_k, \hat{\delta}\}$

endif

Trust-region methods (cont.)

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Choice of parameters³

$$\begin{aligned}\rightsquigarrow \eta_1 &= 1/4 \\ \rightsquigarrow \eta_2 &= 3/4 \\ \rightsquigarrow \gamma_1 &= 1/4 \\ \rightsquigarrow \gamma_2 &= 8/4\end{aligned}$$

- By choosing $\mu = 0$, we accept any step yielding a decrease of f
- By choosing $\mu > 0$, we accept steps for which the variation of f is at least μ times the variation of its quadratic model \tilde{f}_k

³J. Nocedal and S. Wright (2006): *Numerical optimization*.

Trust-region methods (cont.)

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```
1 %TREGION Trust region optimisation method
2 %[X,ERR,ITER]=TREGION(FUN,GRAD_FUN,X_0,DELTA_0, ...
3 % TOL,KMAX,TYP,HESS_FUN)
4 % Approximates the minimiser of FUN with gradient GRAD_FUN
5 %
6 % If TYP=1 Hessian is inputed as HESS_FUN
7 % If TYP NE 1 Hessian is rank-one approximated
8 %
9 % FUN and GRAD_FUN (and HESS_FUN) are function handles
10 % X_0 is the initial point
11 % TOL is stop check tolerance
12 % DELTA_0 is initial radius of trust ball
13 % KMAX are maximum number of iterations
```

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```
1 function [x,err,iter]= tRegion(fun,grad_fun ,x_0,delta_0, ...
2 tol,kmax,typ,hess_fun)
3
4 delta = delta_0; err = 1 + tol; k = 0; mu = 0.1; delta_m = 5;
5 eta_1 = 0.25; eta_2 = 0.75; gamma_1 = 0.25; gamma_2 = 2.00;
6
7 xk = x_0(:); gk = grad_fun(xk); eps2 = sqrt(eps);
8 if typ==1; Hk=hess_fun(xk); else; Hk=eye(length(xk)); end
9
10 while err > tol & k < kmax
11 [s]=trust_one(Hk,gk,delta);
12 rho=(fun(xk+s)-fun(xk))/(s'*gk+1/2*s'*Hk*s);
13 if rho > mu; xk1 = xk + s; else; xk1 = xk; end
14 if rho < eta_1; delta = gamma_1*delta;
15 elseif rho > eta_2 & abs(norm(s)-delta) < sqrt(eps)
16 delta=min([gamma_2*delta,delta_m]);
17 end
18 gk1 = grad_fun(xk1);
19 err = norm((gk1.*xk1)/max([abs(fun(xk1)),1]),Inf);
20 if typ == 1; xk = xk1; gk = gk1; Hk = hess_fun(xk); % Newton
21 else
22 gk1 = grad(xk1); yk = gk1-gk; sk=xk1-xk; yks = yk'*sk;
23 if yks > eps_2*norm(sk)*norm(yk)
24 Hs = Hk*sk; Hk = Hk+(yk*yk')/(yks-(Hs*Hs'))/(sk'*Hs);
25 end
26 xk = xk1; gk = gk1;
27 end
28 k=k+1;
29 end
30
31 x = xk; iter = k;
32 if (k==kmax & err>tol); disp('Accuracy not met [KMAX]'); end
```

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Trust-region methods (cont.)

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```
1 function [s] = trust_one (Hk,gk,delta)
2 maxiter=5;
3
4 s = -Hk\gk; d = eigs(Hk,1,'sa'); % 1st smallest algebraic evalue
5
6 if norm(s) > delta | d<0
7 lambda = abs(2*d); I = eye(size(Hk));
8 for l=1:maxiter
9 R = chol(lambda*I+Hk);
10 s = -R\R'gk; q = R'\s;
11 lambda = lambda+(s'*s)/(q'*q)*(norm(s)-delta)/delta;
12 if lambda < -d
13 lambda = abs(2*lambda);
14 end
15 end
16 end
```

Trust-region methods (cont.)

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Example

Approximate the minimiser of function

$$f(x_1, x_2) = 7/5 + \frac{x_1 + 2x_2 + 2x_1x_2 - 5x_1^2 - 5x_2^2}{[5 \exp(x_1^2 + x_2^2)]}$$

Use the trust-region method

A local maximum, a saddle point and two local minima

- The local minima are near $(-1.0, +0.2)$ and $(+0.3, -0.9)$
- The second minimum is the global one

Trust region methods (cont.)

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Nelder and Mead

```

1 fun = @(x) (x(1)+2*x(2)+2*x(1)*x(2)-5*x(1)^2-5*x(2)^2) / ...
2   (5*exp(x(1)^2+x(2)^2)) + 7.5;
3
4 grad_fun = @(x) [(1 + 2*x(2)-10*x(1)-2*x(1)*(x(1)+2*x(2)) + ...
5   2*x(1)*x(2)-5*x(1)^2-5*x(2)^2) / ...
6   (5*exp(x(1)^2+x(2)^2));
7   (2 + 2*x(1)-10*x(2)-2*x(2)*(x(1)+2*x(2)) + ...
8   2*x(1)*x(2)-5*x(1)^2-5*x(2)^2) / ...
9   (5*exp(x(1)^2+x(2)^2))];
10
11 delta_0 = 0.5; x_0 = [0.0;0.5];
12 tol = 1e-5; kmax = 100; imax=5;
13 typ = 2;
14
15 [x,er,it]=tRegion(fun,grad_fun,x_0,delta_0,tol,kmax,typ,imax)

```

Trust-region methods (cont.)

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Unconstrained optimisation

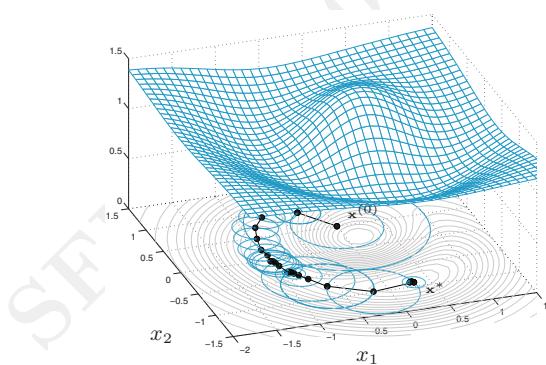
Newton method
Line-search
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Newton directions
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Trust-region
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Trust-region, approximated Hesse matrix

~ 24 iterations, $x^* \approx (+0.28, -0.90)$



Trust-region methods (cont.)

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Unconstrained optimisation

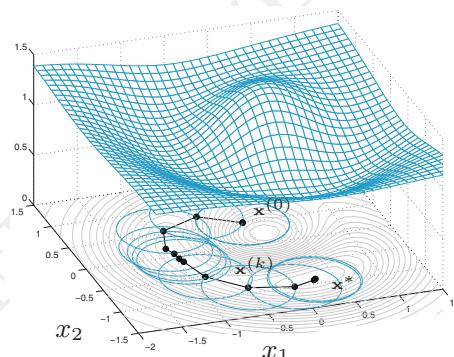
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Trust-region, exact Hessian

~ 12 iterations



Trust region methods (cont.)

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Example

Rosenbrock's function

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = 100(x_2 - x_1^2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2$$

```

1 fun = @(x) (1-x(1))^2+100*(x(2)-x(1)^2)^2;
2 grad_fun = @(x)[-400*(x(2)-x(1)^2)*x(1)-2*(1-x(1)); ...
3 200*(x(2)-x(1)^2)];
4
5 x_0=[+1.2;-1.0];
6
7 options = optimset ('LargeScale','on'); % Trust-region
8 options = optimset ('GradObj','on'); % Gradient
9
10 [x,fval,exitflag,output]=fminunc({fun,grad_fun},x_0,options)

```

Trust-region (Matlab)

~ 8 iterations, 9 function evaluations



Trust-region methods (cont.)

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Unconstrained optimisation

Newton method

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Gauss-Newton

Levenberg-

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Nelder and Mead

Remark

The M-command `fminunc` in Octave implements the trust region method

- With approximated Hessians \mathbf{H}_k , computed with BFGS

$$\mathbf{H}_{k+1} = \mathbf{H}_k + \frac{\mathbf{y}^{(k)}\mathbf{y}^{(k)\top}}{\mathbf{x}^{(k)\top}\mathbf{s}^{(k)}} - \frac{\mathbf{H}_k\mathbf{s}^{(k)}\mathbf{s}^{(k)\top}\mathbf{H}_k^\top}{\mathbf{s}^{(k)\top}\mathbf{H}_k\mathbf{s}^{(k)}}$$

The option '`LargeScale`' is not used

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Non-linear least-squares

The **least-squares method** is often used for approximating either functions $f(x)$ or sets of data $\{(x_k, y_k), k = 0, \dots, K\}$ by some function \tilde{f}

- Often \tilde{f} depends linearly on a set of coefficients $\{a_j, j = 1, \dots, m\}$

Example

$$\tilde{f}(x|\{a_j\}_{j=0}^m) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_m x^m$$

The coefficients $\{a_j\}_{j=0}^m$ are unknown

They must be determined from data

$$\{(x_k, y_k), k = 0, \dots, K\}$$

$$\rightsquigarrow \min_{\{a_j, j=1, \dots, m\}} \sum_{k=0}^K \left[y_k - \underbrace{\tilde{f}(x_k|\{a_j\})}_{a_0 + a_1 x_k + a_2 x_k^2 + \dots + a_m x_k^m} \right]^2$$

This problem is called a **least-squares** problem

The problem becomes nonlinear when \tilde{f} non-linearly depends on $\{a_j\}$

Non-linear least-squares (cont.)

Definition

Let $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}) = [r_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, r_n(\mathbf{x})]^T$ with $r_i : \mathbb{R}^m \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be some smooth function

We want to find

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m} f(\mathbf{x}), \quad \text{with } f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n r_i^2(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})\|^2 \quad (34)$$

We assume that $n \geq m$

If functions $r_i(\mathbf{x})$ are non-linear, then function $f(\mathbf{x})$ may not be convex

~ Thus, $f(\mathbf{x})$ may have multiple stationary points

We can use Newton, descent directions and trust-region methods

Non-linear least-squares (cont.)

Consider the special form of f

We have assembled the components $r_i(\mathbf{x})$ into a residual vector

$$\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}) = [r_1(\mathbf{x}), \dots, r_n(\mathbf{x})]^T$$

Because of this, we compactly rewrote the objective function

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})\|^2$$

Non-linear least-squares (cont.)

The derivatives of $f(\mathbf{x})$ can be expressed in terms of the Jacobian of \mathbf{R}

~ Partial derivatives of $r_i(\mathbf{x})$ with respect to x_j

$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x}) = \left[\frac{\partial r_i}{\partial x_j} \right]_{i=1, \dots, n}^{j=1, \dots, m} = \begin{bmatrix} \left[\frac{\partial r_1}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial r_1}{\partial x_2} \cdots \frac{\partial r_1}{\partial x_m} \right] \\ \left[\frac{\partial r_2}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial r_2}{\partial x_2} \cdots \frac{\partial r_2}{\partial x_m} \right] \\ \vdots \\ \left[\frac{\partial r_n}{\partial x_1} \frac{\partial r_n}{\partial x_2} \cdots \frac{\partial r_n}{\partial x_m} \right] \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} [\nabla r_1(\mathbf{x})^T] \\ [\nabla r_2(\mathbf{x})^T] \\ \vdots \\ [\nabla r_n(\mathbf{x})^T] \end{bmatrix}$$

Non-linear least-squares (cont.)

Gradient and Hessian of the cost function can be compactly written

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n r_i(\mathbf{x}) \nabla r_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}) \quad (35)$$

$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^n r_i(\mathbf{x}) \nabla r_i(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x})$$

~ The second derivatives of \mathbf{R} cannot be calculated from the Jacobian

$$\mathbf{S}_{lj}(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial^2 r_i}{\partial x_l \partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}) r_i(\mathbf{x}), \quad \text{for } l, j = 1, \dots, m$$

Non-linear least-squares (cont.)

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Calculation of the Hesse matrix can be heavy when m and n are large

- This is mostly due to matrix $\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x})$

In some cases, $\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x})$ is less influent than $\mathbf{J}_R(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{J}_R(\mathbf{x})$

- ~ It could be approximated or neglected
- ~ It simplifies the construction of $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x})$

We discuss two methods devoted to handling such cases

Gauss-Newton method Nonlinear least-squares

The Gauss-Newton method

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The **Gauss-Newton method** is a variant of the Newton method

Given $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, for $k = 0, 1, \dots$ until convergence

Pseudo-code

Solve $\mathbf{H}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \delta \mathbf{x}^{(k)} = -\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$

Set $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \delta \mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

The Hessian $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x})$ is approximated by neglecting $\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x})$

The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

Given $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and for $k = 0, 1, \dots$ until the convergence

Pseudo-code

Solve $\{\mathbf{J}_R(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T \mathbf{J}_R[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]\} \delta \mathbf{x}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{J}_R[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]^T \mathbf{R}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$

Set $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \delta \mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

The system in the first equation may have infinitely many solutions

If $\mathbf{J}_R[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is not full rank

- ~ Stagnation
- ~ Non-convergence
- ~ Convergence to a non-stationary point

If $\mathbf{J}_R[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ is full rank, the linear system has form $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{b}$

- It can be solved by using QR or SVD factorisations of $\mathbf{J}_R(\mathbf{x})$

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The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

```
1 function [x,err,iter]=nllsGauNewtn(r,jr,x_0,tol,kmax,varargin)
2 %NLLSGAUNEW Nonlinear least-squares with Gauss-Newton method
3 % [X,ERR,ITER]=NLLSGAUNEW(R,JR,X_0,TOL,KMAX)
4 % R and JR: Function handles for objective R and its Jacobian
5 % X_0 is the initial solution
6 % TOL is the stop check tolerance
7 % KMAX is the max number of iterations
8
9 err = 1 + tol; k = 0;
10 xk = x_0(:);
11
12 rk = r(xk,varargin{:}); jrk = jr(xk,varargin{:});
13
14 while err > tol & k < kmax
15 [Q,R] = qr(jrk,0); dk = -R\Q'*rk;
16 xk1 = xk + dk;
17 rk1 = r(xk1,varargin{:});
18 jrk1 = jr(xk1,varargin{:});
19
20 k = 1 + k; err = norm(xk1 - xk);
21 xk = xk1; rk = rk1; jrk = jrk1;
22 end
23
24 x = xk; iter = k;
25
26 if (k==kmax & err > tol)
27 disp('nllsGauNewtn stopped w/o reaching accuracy [KMAX]');
28 end
```

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The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

Remark

Neglecting $\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ at step k amounts to approximating $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})$

The first-order Taylor expansion of $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})$ at \mathbf{x}^*

$$\tilde{\mathbf{R}}_k(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{R}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}][\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \quad (36)$$

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The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

Convergence of the method is not always guaranteed

- It depends on f and initial solution

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The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

Let \mathbf{x}^* be a stationary point for $f(\mathbf{x})$

Let $\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x})$ be full rank in a suitable neighbourhood of \mathbf{x}^*

Then,

If $\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$ (if $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})$ is linear or $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$)

- ① The Gauss-Newton method is locally quadratically convergent
- ② It coincides with the Newton's method

If $\|\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x}^*)\|_2$ is small compared to the smallest positive eigenvalue of

$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x}^*)^T \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x}^*)$$

- ① (e.g., when $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})$ is mildly non-linear or its residual $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}^*)$ is small)

② Gauss-Newton converges linearly

If $\|\mathbf{S}(\mathbf{x})\|_2$ is large compared to the smallest positive eigenvalue of

$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x}^*)^T \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x}^*)$$

- ① Gauss-Newton may not converge, even if $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ is very close to \mathbf{x}^*

② (e.g., when $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})$ is strongly non-linear or its residual $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}^*)$ is large)

The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

Remark

Line-search can be used in combination with Gauss-Newton

- Replace $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \delta\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ with $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \delta\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$
- Computation of step-lengths α_k is as per usual

If $\mathbf{J}_R(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ is full rank, matrix $\mathbf{J}_R(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T \mathbf{J}_R(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ is symmetric and PD

- $\delta\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ is a descent direction for $f(\mathbf{x})$

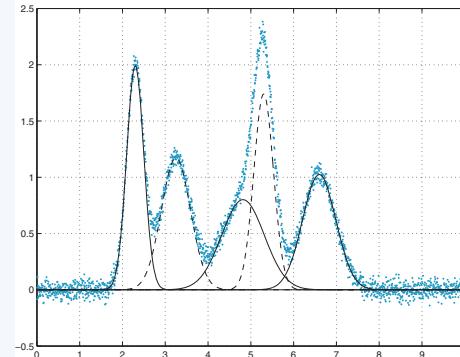
Under suitable assumptions on $f(\mathbf{x})$, we get the globally convergent method

→ Damped Gauss-Newton method

The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

Example

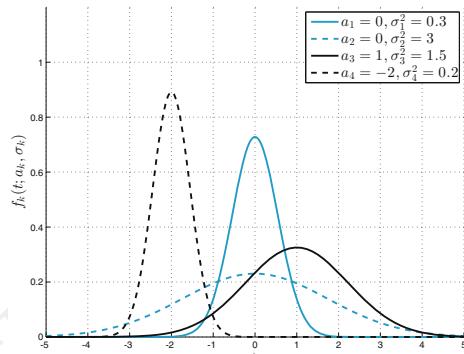
Compress an audio signal to a set of parameters



The signal intensity is modelled as a sum of m Gaussian functions

$$f_k(t|a_k, \sigma_k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_k^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{(t-a_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2}\right], \quad t \in [t_0, t_F], k = 1, \dots, m$$

The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)



Each peak or component is characterised by two coefficients

- The centre, a_k
- The (square of the) spread, σ_k^2

$$f(t|\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}) = \sum_{k=1}^m f_k(t; a_k, \sigma_k)$$

$$\begin{aligned} &\bullet \mathbf{a} = [a_1, \dots, a_m] \\ &\bullet \boldsymbol{\sigma} = [\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_m] \end{aligned}$$

The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

Find \mathbf{a} and $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ that minimise the residual sum of squares

$$\min_{\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}} \sum_{i=1}^n [f(t_i|\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}) - y_i]^2$$

From recorded audio intensities y_i at sampling times t_i

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The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

Generate $n = 2000$ time-intensity pairs $(t_i, y_i)_{i=1}^n$ with $t_i \in (0, 10)$

~> The sum of 5 Gaussian components

$$f_k(t|a_k, \sigma_k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma_k^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{(t-a_k)^2}{2\sigma_k^2}\right]$$

• Plus some little random noise

```

1 a = [2.3, 3.2, 4.8, 5.3, 6.6]; m = length(a);
2 sigma = [0.2, 0.3, 0.5, 0.2, 0.4];
3
4 gComp = @(t,a,sigma) exp(-((t-a)/(sigma*sqrt(2))).^2)/ ...
   (sigma*sqrt(pi*2));
5
6 n = 2000; t = linspace(0,10,n)'; y = zeros(n,1);
7 for k=1:m
8   y = y + gComp(t,a(k),sigma(k));
9 end
10
11 y = y + 0.05*randn(n,1); % Little additive noise

```

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The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

Solve the nonlinear least-squares problem of form

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m} \Phi(\mathbf{x}), \quad \text{with } \Phi(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})\|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n r_i^2(\mathbf{x})$$

$$r_i(\mathbf{x}) = f(t_i|\mathbf{a}, \boldsymbol{\sigma}) - y_i = \sum_{k=1}^m f_k(t_i|a_k, \sigma_k) - y_i$$

We also have,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial a_k} &= f_k(t_i|a_k, \sigma_k) \left[\frac{t_i - a_k}{\sigma_k} \right] \\ \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial \sigma_k} &= f_k(t_i|a_k, \sigma_k) \left[\frac{(t_i - a_k)^2}{\sigma_k^3} - \frac{1}{2\sigma_k} \right] \end{aligned}$$

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The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

Gauss-Newton

M-command `nllsGauNewtn` (22 iterations)

```

1 x_0 = [2.0,3.0,4.0,5.0,6.0,0.3,0.3,0.6,0.3,0.3];
2
3 tol = 3.0e-5;
4 kmax = 200;
5
6 [x,err,iter]=nllsGauNewtn(@gmR,@gmJR,x_0,tol,kmax,t,y)
7
8 x_a = x(1:m);
9 x_sigma = x(m+1:end);
10
11 h = 1.0/(x_sigma*sqrt(2*pi));
12 w = 2*x_sigma*sqrt(log(4));

```

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The Gauss-Newton method (cont.)

```

1 function [R]=gmR(x,t,y)
2
3 x = x(:); m = round(0.5*length(x));
4 a = x(1:m); sigma = x(m+1: end );
5
6 gauFun = @(t,a,sigma) [exp(-((t-a)/(sigma*sqrt(2))).^2) ...
   / (sigma*sqrt(pi*2))];
7
8 n = length(t); R = zeros(n,1);
9 for k = 1:m; R = R + gauFun(t,a(k),sigma(k)); end
11 R = R - y;

1 function [JR]=gmJR(x,t,y)
2 x = x(:); m = round(0.5*length(x));
3 a = x(1:m); sigma = x(m+1: end );
4
5 gauFun = @(t,a,sigma) [exp(-((t-a)/(sigma*sqrt(2))).^2) ...
   / (sigma*sqrt(pi*2))];
6
7 n = length(t); JR = zeros(n,2*m); fk = zeros(n,m);
9 for k = 1:m; fk(:,k) = gauFun(t,a(k),sigma(k)); end
10 for k = 1:m; JR(:,k) = (fk(:,k).*(t-a(k))/sigma(k)^2)'; end
11 for k = 1:m
12   JR(:,k+m) = (fk(:,k).*((t-a(k)).^2/(k.^3-1/(2*sigma(k)))))';
13 end

```

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Levenberg-Marquardt is a trust-region method

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m} f(\mathbf{x}), \quad \text{with } f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})\|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n r_i^2(\mathbf{x})$$

We can use the general trust-region formulation

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Levenberg-Marquardt (cont.)

Pseudo-code

Compute $f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$, $\nabla f[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$ and \mathbf{H}_k

Solve $\min_{\|\mathbf{s}\|_2 \leq \delta_k} \tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{s})$

Compute ρ_k

If $\rho_k > \mu$

 Set $\mathbf{x}^{(x+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{s}^{(k)}$

else

 Set $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

endif

If $\rho_k < \eta_1$

 Set $\delta_{k+1} = \gamma_1 \delta_k$

elseif $\eta_1 \leq \rho_k \leq \eta_2$

 Set $\delta_{k+1} = \delta_k$

elseif $\rho_k > \eta_2$ and $\|\mathbf{s}^{(k)}\| = \delta_k$

 Set $\delta_{k+1} = \min\{\gamma_2 \delta_k, \hat{\delta}\}$

endif

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Levenberg-Marquardt (cont.)

At each step k , we solve

$$\min_{\mathbf{s} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \|\mathbf{s}\| \leq \delta_k} \tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{s}), \quad \text{with } \tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{s}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{R}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] \mathbf{s}\|^2 \quad (37)$$

$\tilde{f}_k(\mathbf{x})$ is a quadratic approximation of $f(\mathbf{x})$ about $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

By approximating $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})$ with its linear model

$$\tilde{\mathbf{R}}_k(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{R}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] + \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}[\mathbf{x}^{(k)}] [\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^{(k)}]$$

Levenberg-Marquardt (cont.)

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Often $\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{R}}(\mathbf{x})$ is not full rank, yet the method is well-posed

The method is suited for minimisation problems with strong non-linearities or large residuals $f(\mathbf{x}^*) = 1/2\|\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}^*)\|^2$ about the local minimiser \mathbf{x}^*

Remark

Hessian approximations are those of the Gauss-Newton method

The two methods share the same local convergence properties

Convergence rates when Levenberg-Marquardt iterations do converge

- Convergence rate is quadratic, if residual is small at local minimiser
- Convergence rate is linear, otherwise

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Levenberg-Marquardt

Derivative-free
Golden section and quadratic interpolation
Nelder and Mead

We describe two simple numerical methods

- **Minimisation of univariate real-valued functions**
- **Minimisation of multivariate real-valued functions**
- (along a single direction)

We then describe the **Nelder and Mead method**

- **Minimisation of functions of several variables**

Unconstrained optimisation

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Unconstrained optimisation

Newton method

Line-search
Descent directions
Step-length α_k
Newton directions
Quasi-Newton directions
Gradient and conjugate-gradient directions

Trust-region

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Golden section and quadratic interpolation

Derivative-free methods

Golden section and quadratic interpolation

Let $f : (a, b) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function with unique minimiser

$$x^* \in (a, b)$$

Set $I_0 = (a, b)$, for $k \geq 0$ generate a sequence of intervals I_k

$$I_k = (a^{(k)}, b^{(k)})$$

The intervals I_k are of decreasing length and each contains x^*

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

For any given k , the next interval I_{k+1} can be determined

- 1) Let $c^{(k)}, d^{(k)} \in I_k$ with $c^{(k)} < d^{(k)}$ be two points such that

$$\frac{b^{(k)} - a^{(k)}}{d^{(k)} - a^{(k)}} = \frac{d^{(k)} - a^{(k)}}{b^{(k)} - d^{(k)}} = \varphi \quad (38a)$$

$$\frac{b^{(k)} - a^{(k)}}{b^{(k)} - c^{(k)}} = \frac{b^{(k)} - c^{(k)}}{c^{(k)} - a^{(k)}} = \varphi \quad (38b)$$

Let φ be the **golden ratio** $\varphi = \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2} \approx 1.628$

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

- 2) Using Equation 38a and 38b, we find point $c^{(k)}$ and point $d^{(k)}$

$$c^{(k)} = a^{(k)} + \frac{1}{\varphi^2}(b^{(k)} - a^{(k)}) \quad (39a)$$

$$d^{(k)} = a^{(k)} + \frac{1}{\varphi}(b^{(k)} - a^{(k)}) \quad (39b)$$

They are symmetrically placed about the mid-point of I_k

$$\frac{a^{(k)} + b^{(k)}}{2} - c^{(k)} = d^{(k)} - \frac{a^{(k)} + b^{(k)}}{2} \quad (40)$$

Remark

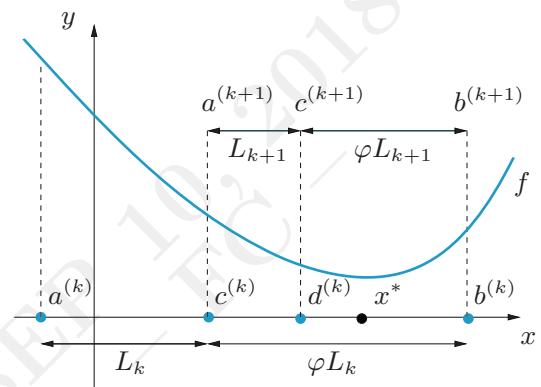
Replace $c^{(k)}$ and $d^{(k)}$ in Equation (40)

$$\text{Divide by the common factor } \frac{b^{(k)} - a^{(k)}}{\varphi^2}$$

Get the identity

$$\varphi^2 - \varphi - 1 = 0$$

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)



The generic iteration of the **golden-section method**

- φ is the golden ratio, while $L_k = c^{(k)} - a^{(k)}$

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

Set $a^{(0)} = a$ and $b^{(0)} = b$, the golden section method formulates as

Pseudo-code

For $k = 0, 1, \dots$ until convergence

Compute $c^{(k)}$ and $d^{(k)}$ through Equation (39)

```
If f(c(k)) ≥ f(d(k))
    set Ik+1 = (a(k+1), b(k+1)) = (c(k), b(k))
else
    set Ik+1 = (a(k+1), b(k+1)) = (a(k), d(k))
endif
```

It follows that

- ~ If $I_{k+1} = (c^{(k)}, b^{(k)})$, then $c^{(k+1)} = d^{(k)}$
- ~ If $I_{k+1} = (a^{(k)}, d^{(k)})$, then $d^{(k+1)} = c^{(k)}$

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

We need to set a **stopping criterion**

When the normalised size of the k -th interval is smaller than a tolerance ε

$$\frac{b^{(k+1)} - a^{(k+1)}}{|c^{(k+1)}| + |d^{(k+1)}|} < \varepsilon \quad (41)$$

The mid-point of the last interval I_{k+1} can be taken as solution

- This is an **approximation of the minimiser \mathbf{x}^***

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

By using Equation (38a) and (38b), yields the expression

$$|b^{(k+1)} - a^{(k+1)}| = \frac{1}{\varphi} |b^{(k)} - a^{(k)}| = \dots = \frac{1}{\varphi^{k+1}} |b^{(0)} - a^{(0)}| \quad (42)$$

The golden-section method converges linearly with rate

$$\varphi^{-1} \simeq 0.618$$

```
1 function [xmin,fmin,iter]=gSection(fun,a,b,tol,kmax,varargin)
2 %GSECTION finds the minimum of a function
3 % XMIN=GSECTION(FUN,A,B,TOL,KMAX) approximates a min point of
4 % function FUN in [A,B] by using the golden section method
5 % If the search fails, an error message is returned
6 % FUN can be i) an inline function, ii) an anonymous function
7 % or iii) a function defined in a M-file
8 % XMIN=GSECTION(FUN,A,B,TOL,KMAX,P1,P2,...) passes parameters
9 % P1, P2,... to function FUN(X,P1,P2,...)
10 % [XMIN,FMIN,ITER]= GSECTION(FUN,...) returns the value of FUN
11 % at XMIN and number of iterations ITER done to find XMIN
12
13 phi = (1+sqrt(5))/2;
14 iphi(1) = inv(phi); iphi(2) = inv(1+phi);
15 c = iphi(2)*(b-a) + a; d = iphi(1)*(b-a) + a;
16 err = 1+tol; k = 0;
17
18 while err > tol & k < kmax
19     if(fun(c) >= fun(d))
20         a = c; c = d; d = iphi(1)*(b-a) + a;
21     else
22         b = d; d = c; c = iphi(2)*(b-a) + a;
23     end
24     k = 1 + k; err = abs(b-a)/(abs(c)+abs(d));
25 end
26
27 xmin = 0.5*(a+b); fmin = fun(xmin); iter = k;
28 if (iter == kmax & err > tol)
29     fprintf('The method stopped after reaching the maximum number
30             of iterations, and without meeting the tolerance');
31 end
```

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

- `fun` is either an anonymous or an inline function for function f
- `a` and `b` are endpoints of the search interval
- `tol` is the tolerance ε
- `kmax` is the maximum allowed number of iterations
- `xmin` contains the value of the minimiser
- `fmin` is the minimum value of f in (a, b)
- `iter` is the number of iterations carried out by the algorithm

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

Example

Evolution of an isolated culture of 250 bacteria (Verhulst model)

$$f(t) = \frac{2500}{1 + 9e^{(-t/3)}}, \quad \text{for } t > 0$$

t denotes time (in days)

Find after how many days population growth rate is maximum

~~> Where (when?) does function $g(t) = -f'(t)$ has its minimum

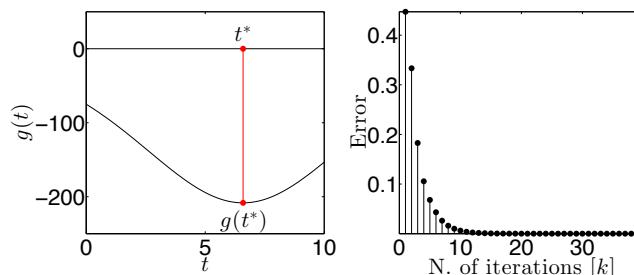
$$g(t) = -7500 \frac{\exp(t/3)}{[\exp(t/3) + 9]^2}$$

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

Function $g(t)$ admits a global minimiser in $[6, 7]$

```
1 g = @(t) [-(7500 * exp(t/3)) / (exp(t/3)+9)^2];
2
3 a = 0; b = 10;
4 tol = 1.0e-8; kmax = 100;
5
6 [tmin gmin,iter]= gSection(g,a,b,tol,kmax);
```

Golden section: 38 iterations, $t^* \approx 6.59$ and $g(t^*) \approx -208$



Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

The **quadratic interpolation method** is often used as alternative

- Let f be a continuous and convex function
- Let $x^{(0)}, x^{(1)}$ and $x^{(2)}$ be three distinct points

We build a sequence of points $x^{(k)}$ with $k \geq 3$ such that

- $x^{(k+1)}$ is the vertex (and thus the minimiser) of the parabola $p_2^{(k)}$
- $p_2^{(k)}$ interpolates f at (node points) $x^{(k)}, x^{(k-1)}$ and $x^{(k-2)}$

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

Definition

For $k \geq 2$, the order-2 **Lagrange polynomial** at such nodes

$$\begin{aligned} p_2^{(k)}(x) = & f[x^{(k-2)}] + \\ & f[x^{(k-2)}, x^{(k-1)}][x - x^{(k-2)}] + \\ & f[x^{(k-2)}, x^{(k-1)}, x^{(k)}][x - x^{(k-2)}][x - x^{(k-1)}] \end{aligned}$$

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

$$\begin{aligned} p_2^{(k)}(x) = & f[x^{(k-2)}] + \\ & f[x^{(k-2)}, x^{(k-1)}][x - x^{(k-2)}] + \\ & f[x^{(k-2)}, x^{(k-1)}, x^{(k)}][x - x^{(k-2)}][x - x^{(k-1)}] \end{aligned}$$

In the order-2 Lagrange polynomial $p_2^{(k)}$ for $k \geq 2$, consider the quantities

$$\begin{aligned} f[x_i, x_j] &= \frac{f(x_j) - f(x_i)}{x_j - x_i} \\ f[x_i, x_j, x_k] &= \frac{f[x_j, x_l] - f[x_i, x_j]}{x_l - x_i} \end{aligned} \quad (43)$$

The **Newton divided differences**

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

Theorem

Consider $n + 1$ distinct points

$$\left\{ [x_i, y_i(x_i)] \right\}_{n=0}^{n+1}$$

There exists only one polynomial $\Pi_n \in \mathbb{P}_n$ of order n or smaller that interpolates them

$$\Pi_n(x_i) = y_i, \quad \forall i = 0, \dots, n$$

Π_n is said to be the **interpolating polynomial** of f , if $y_i = f(x_i)$
 ↵ (for some continuous function f)

It is denoted by $\Pi_n f$

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

Definition

Consider the components of the Lagrangian basis associated to nodes $\{x_i\}_{i=0}^n$

$$\varphi_i(x) = \prod_{j=0, j \neq i}^n \frac{x - x_j}{x_i - x_j}, \quad i = 0, \dots, n$$

They are polynomials such that $\{\varphi_i\}$ is the only basis of \mathbb{P}_n satisfying

$$\varphi_i(x) \in \mathbb{P}_n, \varphi_i(x_j) = \delta_{ij} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } i = j \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

Definition

The **Lagrange polynomial** is the interpolating polynomial $\Pi_n(x)$

$$\Pi_n(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n y_i \varphi_i(x)$$

It is expressed in Lagrange form, or wrt the Lagrange basis

$$\Pi_n(x_i) = \sum_{j=0}^n y_j \varphi_j(x_i) = \sum_{j=0}^n y_j \delta_{ij} = y_i, \quad i = 0, \dots, n$$

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

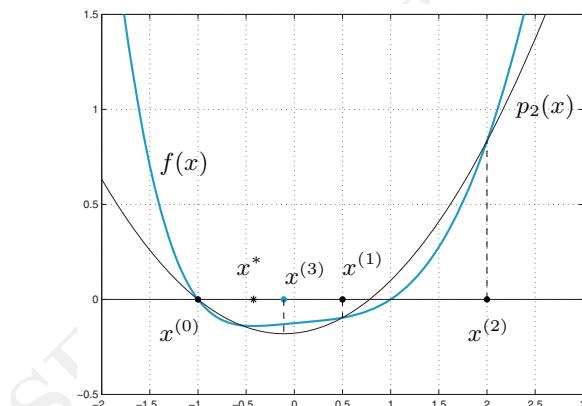
By solving the first-order equation $p_2'(x^{(k+1)}) = 0$, we get

$$x^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{2} \left\{ x^{(k-2)} + x^{(k-1)} - \frac{f[x^{(k-2)}, x^{(k-1)}]}{f[x^{(k-2)}, x^{(k-1)}, x^{(k)}]} \right\} \quad (44)$$

Next point in the sequence, by setting to zero the derivative of $p_2(x)$

We iterate until $|x^{(k+1)} - x^k| < \varepsilon$, for some tolerance $\varepsilon > 0$

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)



The first step of the quadratic interpolation method

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

Example

$$g(t) = -7500 \frac{\exp(t/3)}{[\exp(t/3) + 9]^2}$$

fminbnd combines golden section and parabolic interpolation

```

1 g = @(t) [-7500*exp(t/3)/(exp(t/3)+9)^2];
2 a = 0.0; b = 10.0;
3 tol = 1.0e-8; kmax = 100;
4 optionsQ = optimset('TolX', 1.0e-8)
5 [tminQ,gminQ,exitflagQ,outputQ] = fminbnd(g,a,b,optionsQ);
6
7

```

Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

Quadratic interpolation

8 iterations, $t^* \approx 6.59$ and $f(t^*) \approx -208$

- `optimset` sets the tolerance value in structure `optionsQ`
- `qminQ` contains the evaluation of f at the minimiser `tminQ`
- `exitflagQ` indicates the termination state
- `outputQ` has number of iterations and function evaluations



Golden section and quadratic interpolation (cont.)

The golden section and the quadratic interpolation method

- They are genuinely one-dimensional techniques
- They can be used to solve multidimensional optimisation problems
- They need to be restricted to search along one dimensional directions

Nelder and Mead

Derivative-free methods

Nelder and Mead

Let $n > 1$ and $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a continuous function

Definition

The *n-simplex* with $n + 1$ vertices $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ for $i = 0, \dots, n$

$$S = \left\{ \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n : \mathbf{y} = \sum_{i=0}^n \lambda_i \mathbf{x}_i, \text{ with } \lambda_i \geq 0 : \sum_{i=0}^n \lambda_i = 1 \right\} \quad (45)$$

Intrinsic assumption: Linearly independent vectors $\{(\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_0)\}_{i=1}^n$

S is a segment in \mathbb{R} , it is a triangle in \mathbb{R}^2 and a tetrahedron in \mathbb{R}^3

Unconstrained optimisation

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Unconstrained optimisation

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Nelder and Mead

Nelder and Mead (cont.)

The **Nelder and Mead method** is a derivative-free minimisation method

- It generates a sequence of simplices $\{S^{(k)}\}_{k \geq 0}$ in \mathbb{R}^n

The simplices either run after or circumscribe the minimiser $\mathbf{x}^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$ of f

The method uses simple operations

- ① Evaluations of f at the simplices' vertices
- ② Geometrical transformations (reflections, expansions, contractions)

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Nelder and Mead

Nelder and Mead (cont.)

- At the k -th iteration, the 'worst' vertex of simplex $S^{(k)}$ is identified

$$\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}, \text{ such that } f[\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}] = \max_{0 \leq i \leq n} f[\mathbf{x}_i^{(k)}]$$

- $\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}$ is substituted with a new point at which f takes a smaller value
- The new point is got by reflecting/expanding/contracting the simplex along the line joining $\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}$ and the centroid of the other vertices

$$\mathbf{x}_c^{(k)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq M}}^n \mathbf{x}_i^{(k)}$$

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Nelder and Mead (cont.)

How to generate the initial simplex $S^{(0)}$

We take a point $\tilde{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and a positive real number η

Then, we set

$$\mathbf{x}_i^{(0)} = \tilde{\mathbf{x}} + \eta \mathbf{e}_i, \text{ with } i = 1, \dots, n$$

$\{\mathbf{e}_i\}$ are the vectors of the standard basis in \mathbb{R}^n

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Nelder and Mead (cont.)

While $k \geq 0$ and until convergence, select the 'worst' vertex of $S^{(k)}$

$$\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)} = \max_{0 \leq i \leq n} f[\mathbf{x}_i^{(k)}] \quad (46)$$

Then, replace it by a new point to form the new simplex $S^{(k+1)}$

Nelder and Mead (cont.)

The new point is chosen by firstly selecting

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{x}_m^{(k)} &= \min_{0 \leq i \leq n} f[\mathbf{x}_i^{(k)}] \\ \mathbf{x}_\mu^{(k)} &= \max_a f[\mathbf{x}_i^{(k)}]\end{aligned}\quad (47)$$

and secondly by defining the **centroid** point

$$\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq M}}^n \mathbf{x}_i^{(k)} \quad (48)$$

This is the centroid of hyperplane $H^{(k)}$ passing through vertices $\{\mathbf{x}_i\}_{\substack{i=0 \\ i \neq M}}^n$

Nelder and Mead (cont.)

Thirdly, compute reflection $\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}$ of $\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}$ with respect to hyperplane $H^{(k)}$

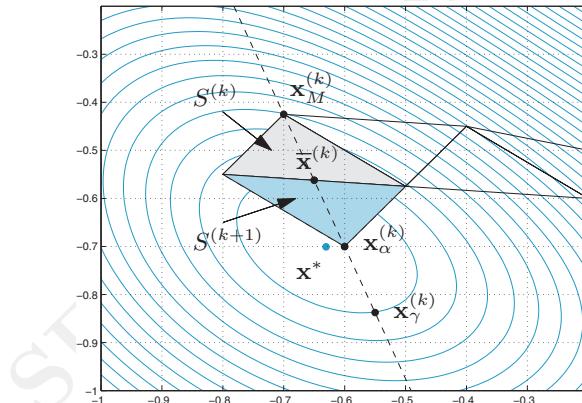
$$\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)} = (1 - \alpha) \bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{x}_M^{(k)} \quad (49)$$

The **reflection coefficient** $\alpha < 0$ is typically set to be -1

Point $\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}$ lies on the straight line joining points $\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)}$ and $\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}$

- It is on the side of $\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)}$, far from $\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}$

Nelder and Mead (cont.)



$n = 2$, the centroid is midpoint of edge of $S^{(k)}$ opposite to $\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}$

Nelder and Mead (cont.)

We fourthly compare $f[\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}]$ with f at the other vertices of the simplex

- Before accepting $\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}$ as the new vertex

We also try to move $\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}$ on the straight line joining $\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)}$ and $\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}$

To set the new simplex $S^{(k+1)}$

- (1) If $f[\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}] < f[\mathbf{x}_m^{(k)}]$ (reflection produced a minimum), then

$$\mathbf{x}_\gamma^{(k)} = (1 - \gamma) \bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)} + \gamma \mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}, \quad \text{with } \gamma < -1^4 \quad (50)$$

- Then, if $f[\mathbf{x}_\gamma^{(k)}] < f[\mathbf{x}_m^{(k)}]$, replace \mathbf{x}_M by $\mathbf{x}_\gamma^{(k)}$
- Otherwise, $\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}$ is replaced by $\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}$

We then proceed by incrementing k by one

⁴Typically, $\gamma = -2$

Nelder and Mead (cont.)

(2) If $f[\mathbf{x}_m^{(k)}] \leq f[\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}] < f[\mathbf{x}_\mu^{(k)}]$, then $\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}$ is replaced by $\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}$
 k is incremented by one

(3) If $f[\mathbf{x}_\mu^{(k)}] \leq f[\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}] < f[\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}]$, we compute

$$\mathbf{x}_\beta^{(k)} = (1 - \beta)\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)} + \beta\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}, \quad \text{with } \beta > 0^5 \quad (51)$$

- Then, if $f[\mathbf{x}_\beta^{(k)}] > f[\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}]$ define the vertices $S^{(k+1)}$

$$\mathbf{x}_i^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{2}[\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)} + \mathbf{x}_m^{(k)}] \quad (52)$$

- Otherwise $\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}$ is replaced by $\mathbf{x}_\beta^{(k)}$

Then, we increment k

⁵with typically $\beta = 1/2$

Nelder and Mead (cont.)

(4) If $f[\mathbf{x}_\alpha^{(k)}] > f[\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}]$, we compute

$$\mathbf{x}_\beta = (1 - \beta)\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)} + \beta\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}, \quad \text{with } \beta > 0 \quad (53)$$

- If $f[\mathbf{x}_\beta^{(k)}] > f[\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}]$ define the vertices of $S^{(k+1)}$

$$\mathbf{x}_i^{(k+1)} = \frac{1}{2}[\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)} + \mathbf{x}_m^{(k)}]$$

- Otherwise we replace $\mathbf{x}_M^{(k)}$ with $\mathbf{x}_\beta^{(k)}$

Then we increment k

Nelder and Mead (cont.)

When the stopping criterion $\max_{i=0,\dots,n} \|\mathbf{x}_i^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}_m^{(k)}\|_\infty < \varepsilon$ is met

$\rightsquigarrow \mathbf{x}_m^{(k)}$ is retained as approximation of the minimiser

Convergence is guaranteed in very special cases only

Stagnation may occur, algorithm needs to be restarted

- The algorithm is nevertheless quite robust
- It is efficient for small dimensional problems
- Convergence rate depends on initial simplex

Nelder and Mead (cont.)

Example

The Rosenbrock function

$$f(x_1, x_2) = 100(x_2 - x_1^2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2$$

The global minimum is at $\mathbf{x}^* = (1, 1)$, and variation around \mathbf{x}^* is low

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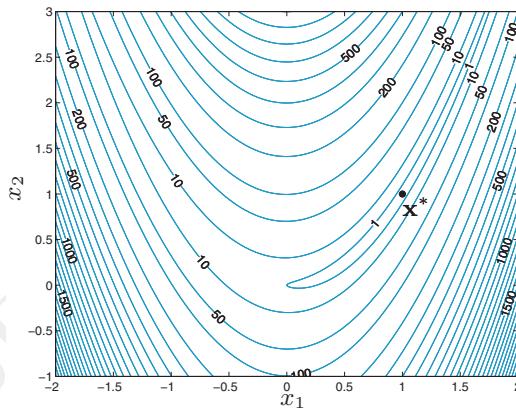
Marquardt

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Nelder and Mead (cont.)



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Nelder and Mead (cont.)

The simplex method

The M-command is `fminsearch`

```
1 x_0 = [-1.2,+1.0];
2
3 fun = @(x) (1-x(1))^2 + 100*(x(2)-x(1)^2)^2;
4
5 xstar = fminsearch(fun,x_0)
6
7 xstar =
8 1.000022021783570 1.000042219751772
```

To obtain additional information on the minimum value of f

```
1
2 [xstar,fval,exitflag,output] = fminsearch(fun,x_0)
```

