

Lecture: Nonlinear optimization without constraints

- 1. Nonlinear optimization without constraints
- 2. Optimality conditions
- 3. Optimization algorithms
 - The Gradient method
 - Newton's method
- 4. Nonlinear least-squares estimation

Local and Global optimas

minimize
$$f(\mathbf{x})$$
 s.t. $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n$

Definition 1. $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbf{R}^n$ is a local minimum to the function f if there exists a $\delta > 0$ such that

$$f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \le f(\mathbf{x}), \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n \text{ such that } \|\mathbf{x} - \hat{\mathbf{x}}\| \le \delta.$$

Definition 2. $\hat{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbf{R}^n$ is a global minimum to the function f if

$$f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \le f(\mathbf{x}), \ \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^n$$

First and second order derivatives

The Gradient to f in the point x is defined as the row-vector

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}$$

The Hessian to f in the point x is defined as the symmetric $n \times n$ matrix

$$\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1^2}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_n}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n \partial x_1}(\mathbf{x}) & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_n^2}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix}$$

Assume from now that f is twice continuously differentiable.

Lecture

The directional derivative

Consider the function f at the point \mathbf{x} in the direction \mathbf{d} , and let $F_{\mathbf{d}}(\alpha) = f(\mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{d})$. It is a function of <u>one</u> variable; the scalar α .

$$F'_{\mathbf{d}}(\alpha) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{F_{\mathbf{d}}(\alpha + h) - F_{\mathbf{d}}(\alpha)}{h} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{d} + h\mathbf{d}) - f(\mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{d})}{h}$$
$$= \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{d}) + h\nabla f(\mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{d})\mathbf{d} + \frac{1}{2}h^2\mathbf{d}^{\mathsf{T}}\nabla^2 f(\xi)\mathbf{d} - f(\mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{d})}{h}$$
$$= \nabla f(\mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{d})\mathbf{d}$$

Especially it holds that $F'_{\mathbf{d}}(0) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{d}$ is the directional derivative for f at the point \mathbf{x} and in the direction \mathbf{d} .

Descent directions and directional derivatives

Definition 3. d is a descent direction to f at the point \mathbf{x} if there exists an $\epsilon > 0$ such that $f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{d}) < f(\mathbf{x})$ for all $t \in (0, \epsilon)$.

Descent directions can be characterized using directional derivatives:

Lemma If $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{d} < 0$, then \mathbf{d} is a descent direction to f at \mathbf{x} .

If there are no descent directions to f at the point \mathbf{x} it must hold that $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{d} \geq 0$ for all \mathbf{d} , i.e. that $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$.

First and second order optimality conditions

Theorem 1 (First order necessary conditions). If $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ is a local minimum to f then $\nabla f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = \mathbf{0}^{\mathsf{T}}$.

Theorem 2 (Second order necessary conditions). If $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ is a local minimum to f then $\nabla f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = \mathbf{0}^\mathsf{T}$ and $\mathbf{F}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \geq \mathbf{0}$ (positive semidefinite),

Theorem 3 (Second order sufficient conditions). If $\nabla f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) = \mathbf{0}^{\mathsf{T}}$ and $\mathbf{F}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) > \mathbf{0}$ (positive definite) then $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ is a local minimum.

Example - No descents, but not local minimum

The function $f(x,y) = (y-x^2)(y-2x^2)$ is zero at $(x^*,y^*) = (0,0)$. It has no descent directions there; if $d = (\alpha, \beta)$ then

$$f(x^* + t\alpha, y^* + t\beta) - f(x^*, y^*) = t^2(\beta^2 - 3t\alpha^2\beta + t^2\alpha^4)$$

$$= \begin{cases} > 0 & \text{if } t < |\beta|/(3\alpha^2), \beta \neq 0, \alpha \neq 0 \\ 2t^4\alpha^4 > 0 & \text{if } \beta = 0, \\ t^2\beta^2 > 0 & \text{if } \alpha = 0. \end{cases}$$

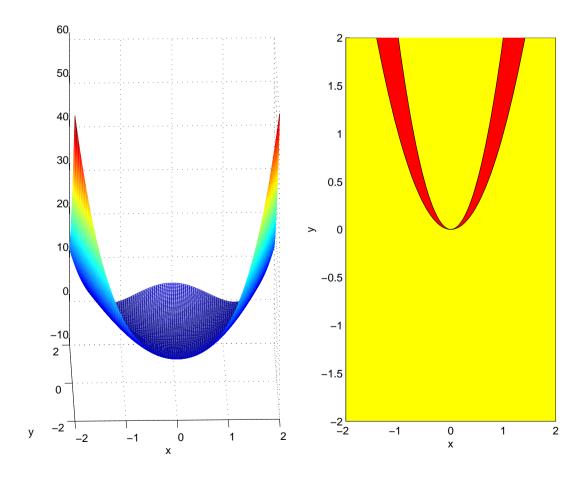
Along no straight line through the origin there is an initial descent.

Note: $f(t, \frac{3}{2}t^2) = -\frac{t^2}{4} < 0$ so (x^*, y^*) is not a local minimum.

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Example - Graphical illustration

The function z = f(x, y) is depicted below, in \mathbf{R}^3 (left) and in \mathbf{R}^2 (right). On the right the function is negative in the red region and positive in the yellow region.



Example - Descents, but no negative directional derivatives

The function $f(x,y) = -(x^4 + y^4)$ is zero at $(x^*, y^*) = (0,0)$.

Note that
$$\nabla f(x^*, y^*) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
, and $F(x^*, y^*) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

So the point (x^*, y^*) satisfies the first and second order necessary conditions for optimality, but not the second order sufficient conditions.

For the direction $d = (\alpha, \beta)^T$

$$f(x^* + t\alpha, y^* + t\beta) - f(x^*, y^*) = -t^4(\alpha^4 + \beta^4) < 0$$

so along all straight lines through the origin there is an initial descent, but no directional derivative $\nabla f(x^*, y^*)d$ is negative.

Note: (x^*, y^*) is in fact the global maximum for f.

Optimization algorithms

We consider two iterative methods for minimization of multivariable functions.

- 1. The Gradient method (steepest descent)
 - The search direction is determined from the gradient, *i.e.*, first order information.
- 2. Newton's method.
 - The search direction is determined from the gradient and Hessian, *i.e.*, second order information.

The Gradient method

Idéa: Search in the direction that the function decreases the most \Rightarrow the search direction is determined by $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{\mathsf{T}}$.

Algorithm:

- (0) Determine starting point $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ and let k = 0.
- (i) Let $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{\mathsf{T}}$.
- (ii) Check the stopping criterion: If $|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})| \leq \epsilon$ the search is terminated.
- (iii) Perform the line search

$$t^{(k)} = \arg\min_{t \ge 0} f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + t\mathbf{d}^{(k)})$$

and let $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + t^{(k)}\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

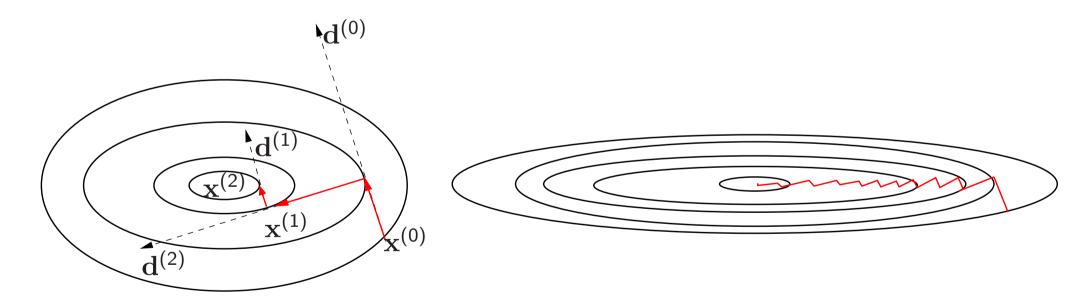
(iv) Update k = k + 1 and go to step (i).

Comments on the gradient method

If exact line search is performed, then $d^{(k+1)} \perp d^{(k)}$.

Proof: If $\varphi(t) = f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + t\mathbf{d}^{(k)})$, then

$$0 = \varphi'(t^{(k)}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + t^{(k)}\mathbf{d}^{(k)})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -(\mathbf{d}^{(k+1)})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$$



Orthogonal search directions

This can lead to slow convergence

Example

Let
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 + x_1x_2 + x_2$$
 and $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (0, 0)$.

Then
$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = (2x_1 + x_2, 4x_2 + x_1 + 1), \ \mathbf{d}^{(0)} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}) = (0, -1).$$

Perform exact line search:

$$\varphi_0(t) = f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)} + t\mathbf{d}^{(0)}) = f(0, -t) = 2t^2 - t,$$

minimized for t = 1/4, giving $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(0)} + 1/4\mathbf{d}^{(0)} = (0, -1/4)$.

The next search direction is then $d^{(1)} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}) = (1/4, 0)$.

Perform exact line search:

$$\varphi_1(t) = f(\mathbf{x}^{(1)} + t\mathbf{d}^{(1)}) = f(t/4, -1/4) = t^2/16 - t/16 - 1/8,$$

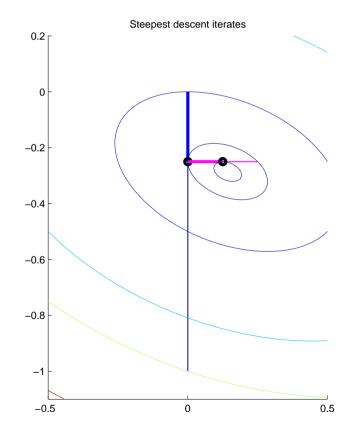
minimized for t = 1/2, giving $\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \mathbf{x}^{(1)} + 1/2\mathbf{d}^{(1)} = (1/8, -1/4)$.

Example - Graphical illustration

For every iteration we approach the minimum which is located at

$$x = -H^{-1}c = (1/7, -2/7)$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = (0,0), \quad \mathbf{x}^{(1)} = (0,-1/4), \quad \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = (1/8,-1/4).$$



Line search

We let $\varphi(t) = f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + t\mathbf{d}^{(k)})$. The line search corresponds to solving $\min_{t \geq 0} \varphi(t).$

The line search is usually performed approximatively. We present two methods:

- 1. The bisection method
- 2. Newton's method

The bisection method

The bisection method uses first order information to search for a point where $\varphi'(t^{(k)}) \approx 0$.

Algorithm:

- (0) Let $\alpha_0 = 0$ and $\beta_0 = t_{\text{max}}$, where t_{max} is an upper limit such that $\varphi'(t_{\text{max}}) > 0$.
- (i) $t_k = \frac{\alpha_k + \beta_k}{2}.$
- (ii) If $|\varphi'(t_k)| \leq \epsilon$ then $t^{(k)} = t_k$. Finished!
- (iii) If $\varphi'(t_k) < 0$ then $\alpha_{k+1} = t_k$ and $\beta_{k+1} = \beta_k$. If $\varphi'(t_k) \ge 0$ then $\alpha_{k+1} = \alpha_k$ and $\beta_{k+1} = t_k$.
- (iv) k = k + 1. Go to (i).

Newton's method (for line search)

Newton's method uses first and second order information to search for a point where $\varphi'(t^{(k)}) \approx 0$.

Let $t_0 = 0$ and perform the iteration

$$t_{k+1} = t_k - \frac{\varphi'(t_k)}{\varphi''(t_k)}$$

until $|\varphi'(t_k)| \leq \epsilon$. The optimal point is approximatively $t^{(k)} = t_k$.

This method is described in more generality next.

Newton's method

The idéa behind Newton's method is to approximate $f(\mathbf{x})$ with a second order Taylor expansion.

Let $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{d}$. Newton's method uses the approximation

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) \approx \min_{\mathbf{d}} f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \mathbf{d} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{d}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \mathbf{d}$$

If $\mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) > 0$ (positive definite) the minimum $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ satisfies

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

If it is not positive definite, then let $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) = \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + \mu I$, where $\mu > 0$ is large enough such that $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) > 0$ and then use the search direction $\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ satisfying

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

Newton's algorithm:

- (0) Determine starting point $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ and let k = 0.
- (i) Check the stopping criterion: $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})\| \leq \epsilon$
- (ii) Determine search direction

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

- (iii) Let $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + t^{(k)}\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$, where $t^{(k)}$ is the largest of the numbers 1, 1/2, 1/4,... such that $f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + t^{(k)}\mathbf{d}^{(k)}) < f(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$
- (iv) k = k + 1. Go to (i).

Comment 1. (iii) can be replaced with a line search. This is especially recommended if $f(\cdot)$ is not a convex function.

Quadratic convergence of Newton's method

(Not in the course curriculum, but you should know about it)

Let $f: S \to \mathbf{R}$, where $S \subset \mathbf{R}^n$ is open and convex. Assume that $\nabla^2 f$ is Lipschitz continuous on S, i.e.

$$\|\nabla^2 f(x) - \nabla^2 f(y)\| \le L\|x - y\|, \forall x, y \in S$$
, for some $L < \infty$.

Let x_* be a minimizer of f in S and assume that $\nabla^2 f(x_*)$ is positive definite.

If $||x_0 - x_*||$ is sufficently small, then $\{x^{(k)}\}$ defined by $x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + d^{(k)}$ converges quadratically to x_* , *i.e.*,

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{\|x^{(k+1)} - x_*\|}{\|x^{(k)} - x_*\|^2} = C < \infty.$$

Example

Let
$$f(x) = \sqrt{1 + x^2}$$
 and $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = 2$.

Then
$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{x}{\sqrt{1+x^2}}$$
, $F(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{(1+x^2)^{3/2}}$.

Since the Hessian is positive definite for all x, f is convex.

First iteration

Let
$$d^{(0)} = -(\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}))^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}) = -5\sqrt{5} \cdot 2/\sqrt{5} = -10.$$

Try first with unit step, which gives function value

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)} + \mathbf{d}^{(0)}) = f(2 + (-10)) = \sqrt{1 + (-8)^2} = \sqrt{65},$$

At the starting point we had $f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)}) = \sqrt{5}$, which was much better.

We have to reduce the steplength. Since $d^{(0)}$ is a descent direction the function should decrease for small enough steps.

Reduce the step length by 1/2:

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)} + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{d}^{(0)}) = f(2 + (-5)) = \sqrt{1 + (-3)^2} = \sqrt{10},$$

Reduce the step length by 1/4:

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)} + \frac{1}{4}\mathbf{d}^{(0)}) = f(2 + (-2.5)) = \sqrt{1 + (-1/2)^2} = \sqrt{5}/2,$$

which is an improvement. Let $x^{(1)} = x^{(0)} + 1/4d^{(0)} = -1/2$.

Second iteration

Then
$$d^{(1)} = -\left(\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^{(1)})\right)^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}) = -\frac{5\sqrt{5}}{8} \frac{-1}{\sqrt{5}} = 5/8.$$

Try first unit step, which gives function value

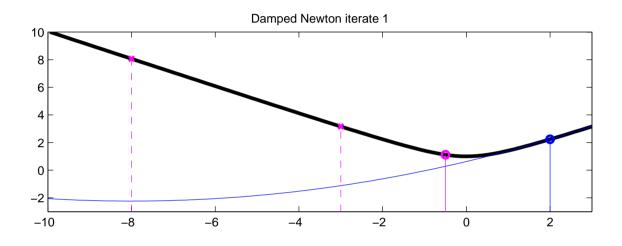
$$f(\mathbf{x}^{(1)} + \mathbf{d}^{(1)}) = f(-1/2 + (5/8)) = \sqrt{1 + (1/8)^2} = \sqrt{65}/\sqrt{64},$$

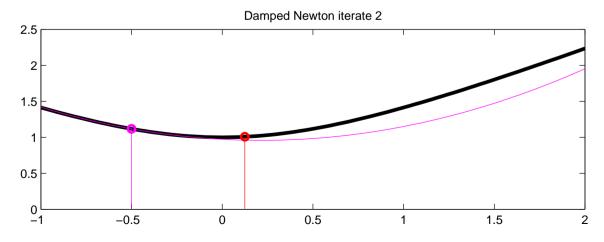
which is better than $f(\mathbf{x}^{(1)}) = \sqrt{5}/2$. Let $\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \mathbf{x}^{(1)} + \mathbf{d}^{(1)} = 1/8$.

Example - Graphical illustration

For every iteration we approach the minimum which is located at x = 0.

$$\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = 0, \quad \mathbf{x}^{(1)} = -1/2, \quad \mathbf{x}^{(2)} = 1/8.$$





Nonlinear least-squares estimation

Problem Find x so that (approximatively)

$$h_1(\mathbf{x}) = 0$$
 $h_2(\mathbf{x}) = 0$
 \vdots
 $h_m(\mathbf{x}) = 0$

Idéa: Solve the nonlinear least-squares problem:

$$\min f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} h_i(\mathbf{x})^2 = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) \quad \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{vmatrix} h_1(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ h_m(\mathbf{x}) \end{vmatrix}$$
(1)

If $f(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \approx 0$ it holds that $h_i(\hat{\mathbf{x}}) \approx 0$, $i = 1, \dots, m$.

Gauss-Newton's method

We consider two derivations of the Gauss-Newton's method

(for solving (1).)

Method 1: If we use that

$$\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{d}) pprox \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) +
abla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \mathbf{d}$$

we get the approximation

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) \approx \min_{\mathbf{d}} \frac{1}{2} |\nabla h(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \mathbf{d} + \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})|^2$$

This is a least-squares problem in standard form, whos solution is given by the normal equations:

$$abla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^\mathsf{T}
abla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -
abla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$$

The next iteration point is then given by $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + t^{(k)}\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ where $t^{(k)}$ is for example determined with a line search.

Method 2: Use the Newton direction. With $f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})$ we get

$$egin{aligned}
abla f(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum_{i=1}^m h_i(\mathbf{x})
abla h_i(\mathbf{x}) &= \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})^\mathsf{T}
abla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{x}) &=
abla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) &= \sum_{i=1}^m (
abla h_i(\mathbf{x})^\mathsf{T}
abla h_i(\mathbf{x}) + h_i(\mathbf{x})
abla^2 h_i(\mathbf{x})) \\ &=
abla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})^\mathsf{T}
abla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^m h_i(\mathbf{x})
abla^2 h_i(\mathbf{x})) \end{aligned}$$

The Newton direction is given by

$$\left(\nabla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{\mathsf{T}} \nabla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} h_i(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \nabla^2 h_i(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})\right) \mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^{\mathsf{T}} \nabla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$$

If we do the approximation $h_i(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \approx 0$ we get

$$abla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^\mathsf{T}
abla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^\mathsf{T}
abla \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$$

which coincides with **Method 1**.

The next iteration point is given by $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + t^{(k)}\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$ where $t^{(k)}$, for example, is determined by a line search.

Reading instructions

• Chapter 12-17 in the book.