

# Function Minimization (I)

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Numerical Methods,  
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# Plan for today

- What types of function do we usually need to minimize?
  - general non-linear problem
  - least-squares
- What information can we use?
  - the target function
  - its first derivatives
  - its second derivatives

# General Minimization Problem

The general problem can be posited as follows: There exists a function

$$f(a_1, \dots, a_N)$$

with real-valued parameters  $\{a_n\}$ .

We intend to find

- one,
- any, or
- all

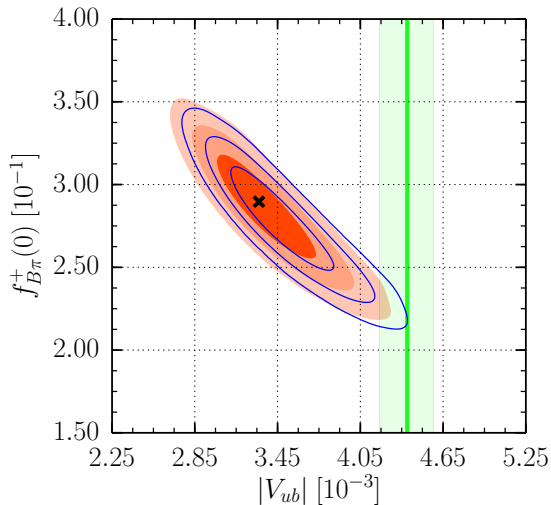
of its minima on a support  $A$ ,

$$A = \{(a_1, \dots, a_N) \mid g(a_1, \dots, a_N) > 0\}.$$

In order to find maxima, flip the function around:  $f \rightarrow -f$ .

## Example

Posterior probability density function with non-gaussian likelihood.



- shallow gradients in one direction
- step gradients in the other
- non-symmetric shape
- slight “banana” qualities (slightly bent in along one axis)

taken from 1409.7186

# Limitations and Monte-Carlo Methods

In general we have no further information on  $f$ , i.e., we do not *analytically* know any of its derivatives.

A very popular way to explore  $f$  is by using Monte Carlo methods, e.g. plain random walks, Markov chain methods, or genetic algorithms. Most of these methods are very good at delineating *local environments* around some/most/all(?) of the modes.

As always, analytic knowledge of the problem will help. For example, symmetry relations among the parameters or (a)periodic boundary conditions should be exploited if possible.

The specific Monte-Carlo methods are beyond the scope of these lectures.

## Simplex Method (aka Nelder-Mead Method)

We will now discuss the work-horse of minimization algorithms, the **Simplex** method. While it has very good convergence properties, but a rather slow convergence rate.

The basic idea is as follows:

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  - b Otherwise compute  $\vec{a}_{\text{contr}}$  as a linear combination of the worst point of the simplex  $\vec{a}_N$ , and  $\vec{a}_{\text{ref}}$ . If  $\vec{a}_{\text{contr}}$  is better than the worst point, replace the worst point. Continue at step 1.

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  - c Otherwise compress the the simplex by moving the points  $\vec{x}_1$  to  $\vec{x}_N$  closer to  $\vec{x}_0$  on their respective connecting lines. Continue at step 1.

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- 3 If at any point the volume of the simplex falls below a given threshold, then stop.

## Simplex Method (continued)

More details on the previous steps:

2 Compute the midpoint as

$$\vec{a}_{\text{mid}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} \vec{a}_n$$

The reflection is computed as

[default:  $\alpha = 1$ ]

$$\vec{a}_{\text{ref}} = (1 + \alpha) \vec{a}_{\text{mid}} - \alpha \vec{a}_N$$

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2a.1 If  $\vec{a}_{\text{ref}}$  is better than  $\vec{a}_0$ , then replace  $\vec{a}_N$  with  $\vec{a}_{\text{ref}}$ . Continue with step 1.

2a.1 **alternative:** Compute

[default:  $\epsilon = 2$ ]

$$\vec{a}_{\text{exp}} = (1 + \epsilon)\vec{a}_{\text{mid}} - \epsilon\vec{a}_N$$

and use in step 2a the better of the two ( $\vec{a}_{\text{ref}}$  or  $\vec{a}_{\text{exp}}$ ). Continue with step 1.

## Simplex Method (continued)

More details on the previous steps:

- 2a.2 If  $\vec{a}_{\text{ref}}$  is better than the second worst point  $\vec{a}_{N-1}$ , then replace the worst point by  $\vec{a}_{\text{ref}}$ .

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More details on the previous steps:

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2b Let  $\vec{a}_{\text{tmp}}$  be the better of  $\vec{a}_{\text{ref}}$  and  $\vec{a}_N$ . Compute [default:  $\gamma = 1/2$ ]

$$\vec{a}_{\text{contr}} = \gamma \vec{a}_{\text{mid}} + (1 - \gamma) \vec{a}_{\text{tmp}} .$$

If  $\vec{a}_{\text{contr}}$  is better than the worst point, replace the latter. Continue at step 1.



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2c Compress the entire simplex [default:  $\kappa = 1/2$ ]

$$\vec{a}_n = \kappa \vec{a}_0 + (1 - \kappa) \vec{a}_n \quad \forall n = 1, \dots, N$$

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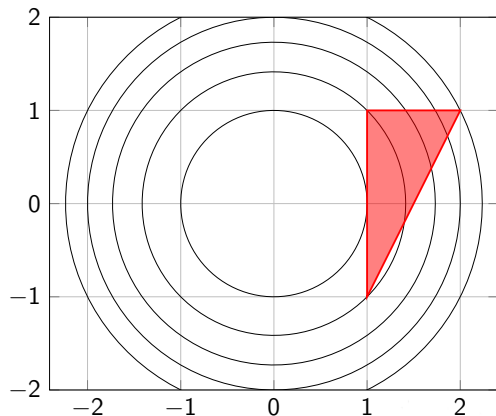
0 The  $N + 1$  initial points must span a simplex. Therefore, care must be taken that they do not lie in a linear subspace of the simplex. This is similar to picking points in a plane when constructing a 3D volume.

# Simplex Method: Properties

- The method is very robust against problems such as overshooting.
- It will usually converge toward a close-by minimum.
- However, the convergence rate is smaller than for many other methods, which e.g. work on more specialised problems.
- No guarantee is given that the simplex method converges toward the global minimum. Possible relief comes in the form of several starting simplex obtained using Monte-Carlo methods.

## Example

$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$$



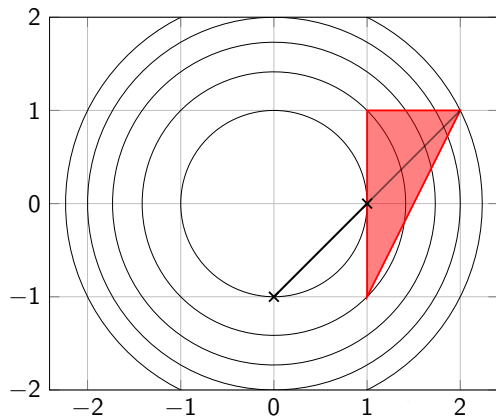
$$a_0 = (+1, -1) \quad f(a_0) = 2$$

$$a_1 = (+1, +1) \quad f(a_1) = 2$$

$$a_2 = (+2, +1) \quad f(a_2) = 5$$

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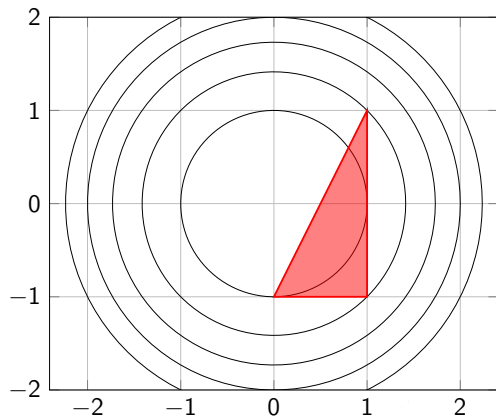
$$a_2 = (+2, +1) \quad f(a_2) = 5$$

$$a_{\text{mid}} = (+1, 0)$$

$$a_{\text{ref}} = (0, -1) \quad f(a_{\text{ref}}) = 1$$

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$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$$



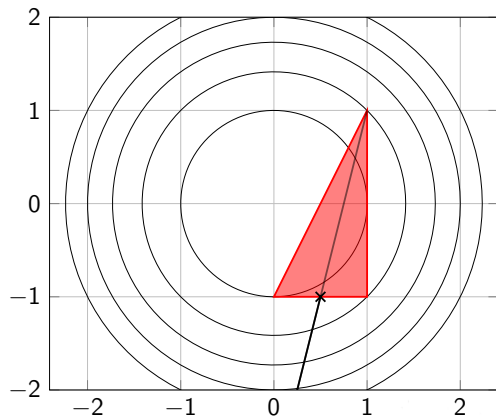
$$a_0 = (+0, -1) \quad f(a_0) = 1$$

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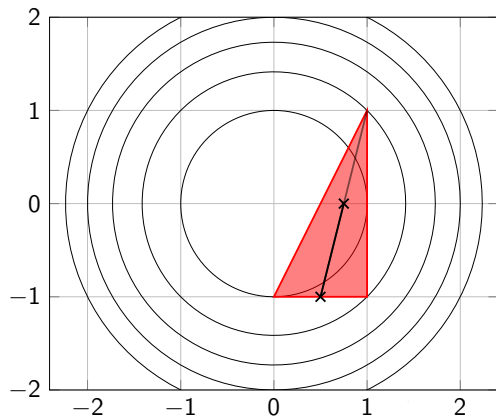
$$a_2 = (+1, +1) \quad f(a_2) = 2$$

$$a_{\text{mid}} = (+1/2, -1)$$

$$a_{\text{ref}} = (0, -3) \quad f(a_{\text{ref}}) = 9$$

## Example

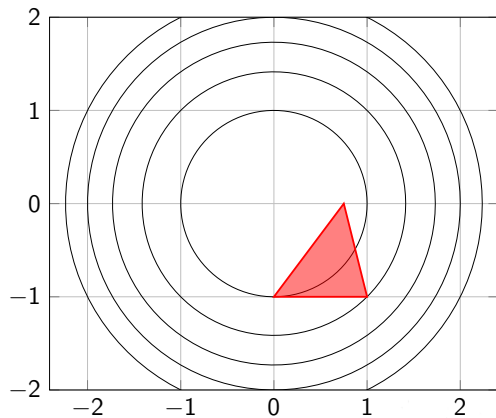
$$f(x, y) = x^2 + y^2$$





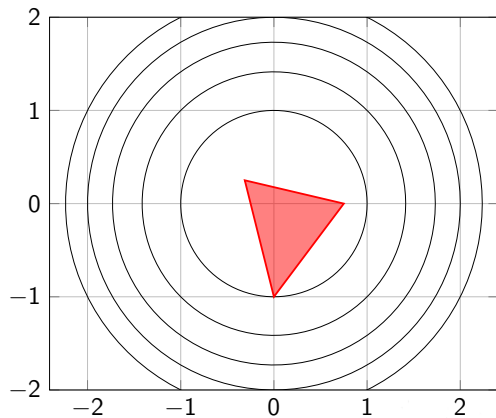
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# Least-squares Problems

The target function is called the residue  $r(a_1, \dots, a_N)$  with  $N$  parameters.

$$r_k \equiv y(\vec{a}, \vec{x}_k) - y_k$$

Here  $k$  denotes one of the  $K$  possible coordinate on a curve, with (external, e.g. experimental) inputs  $(\vec{x}_k, y_k)$ .

The problem now aims to minimize

$$f(\vec{a}) \equiv \sum_k^K |r_k|^2$$

The least-squares problem arises from the case of a Gaussian likelihood function if all uncertainties are equal. It is a very good example for understanding a non-linear problem through linearization.

# Gauss-Newton Method

This iterative method requires partial derivatives of the residues  $r_k$  with respect to the parameters  $a_n$ :

$$r'_{k,n} \equiv \left. \frac{\partial r(\vec{a}, \vec{x})}{\partial a_n} \right|_{\vec{x}=\vec{x}_k}$$

The algorithm now involves the following quantities:

$$J = \begin{pmatrix} r'_{1,1} & r'_{1,2} & \cdots & r'_{1,n} \\ r'_{2,1} & r'_{2,2} & \cdots & r'_{2,n} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ r'_{k,1} & r'_{k,2} & \cdots & r'_{k,n} \end{pmatrix} \quad \vec{r} = (r_1, \dots, r_k)^T$$

Here  $J$  is the Jacobi matrix of the residue.

## Gauss-Newton Method (cont'd)

- 0 As always, we will be requiring a starting point  $\vec{a}_0$  in parameter space.
- 1 Update the current point:

$$\vec{a}_{i+1} = \vec{a}_i - (J^T \cdot J)^{-1} \cdot J \cdot \vec{r}$$

- 2 If  $\|\vec{a}_{i+1} - \vec{a}_i\| < T$ , where  $T$  is some a-prior threshold, we stop. Otherwise, continue with step 1.

### Some comments

- The literature usually recommends to compute the auxiliary variable  $\vec{s}$  via:

$$(J^T \cdot J) \cdot \vec{s} = J^T \cdot \vec{r}$$

The above linear system of equations can be solved with known methods.

- Since  $(J^T \cdot J)$  is symmetric, it is a good idea to use Cholesky decomposition.

## Derivation

Why does this work? Necessary and sufficient conditions for an optimum are:

$$\vec{g} \equiv \frac{\partial f(\vec{a})}{\partial a_n} \stackrel{!}{=} 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \det h \stackrel{!}{\neq} 0 \quad \text{with} \quad h \equiv \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial a_n \partial a_{n'}}$$

One could therefore use Newton's method to find the zeros of the gradient:

$$\vec{a}_{i+1} = \vec{a}_i - (h)^{-1} \vec{g}$$

Express  $\vec{g}$  and  $h$  in terms of the  $r'_{k,n}$ :

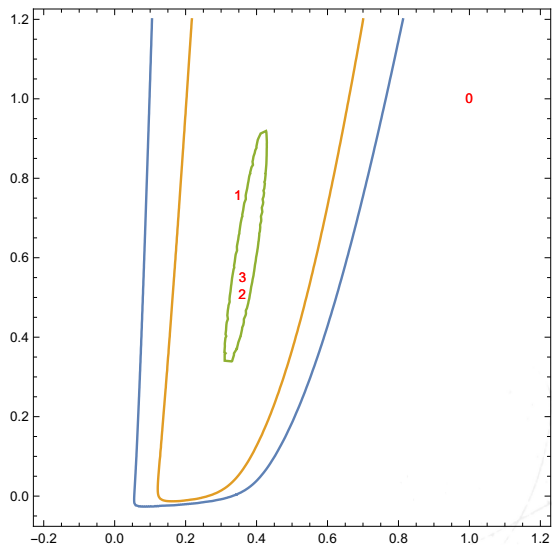
$$\begin{aligned} g_n &= \sum_k^K 2 \frac{\partial r_k}{\partial a_n} r_k & H_{n,n'} &= \sum_k^K 2 \frac{\partial^2 r_k}{\partial a_n \partial a_{n'}} r_k + 2 \frac{\partial r_k}{\partial a_n} \frac{\partial r_k}{\partial a_{n'}} \\ &= 2J \cdot \vec{r} & &= \left[ \sum_k^K 2 \frac{\partial^2 r_k}{\partial a_n \partial a_{n'}} \right] + 2J^T \cdot J \end{aligned}$$

Assuming the **second derivatives** are small compared to the square first-deriv. term, than we can neglect hem.

## Example

$$y(x, a_1, a_2) = \frac{a_1 x}{a_2 + x}$$

7 data points



# Levenberg-Marquardt Method

The Levenberg-Marquardt method arises from a modification to the Gauss-Newton method.

The adjustment length is attenuated through a dampening parameter  $\lambda$ . Steers adjustment away from Gauss-Newton direction to the gradient's direction.

- 0 As always, we will be requiring a starting point  $\vec{a}_0$  in parameter space.
- 1 Update the current point:

$$\vec{a}_{i+1} = \vec{a}_i - (J^T \cdot J + \lambda I)^{-1} \cdot J \cdot \vec{r}$$

where  $I$  is the unit matrix in  $N \times N$  and  $\lambda$  a real-valued parameter.

- 2 If  $\|\vec{a}_{i+1} - \vec{a}_i\| < T$ , where  $T$  is some a-prior threshold, we stop. Otherwise, continue with step 1.

The optimal choice of  $\lambda$  is specific to the problem.



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