Advanced Optimization
Lecture 3: Continuous Optimization II

October 27, 2021

CentraleSupélec / ESSEC Business School

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Course Overview

		Topic
Wed, 13.10.2021	PM	Introduction, examples of problems, problem types
Wed, 20.10.2021	PM	Continuous (unconstrained) optimization: convexity, gradients, Hessian, … [technical test Evalmee]
Wed, 27.10.2021	PM	Continous optimization II: gradient descent, Newton direction, quasi-Newton (BFGS) [1st mini-exam] Constrained optimization: Lagrangian, optimality conditions
Wed, 03.11.2021	PM	Linear programming: duality, maxflow/mincut, simplex algo
Wed, 10.11.2021	PM	Gradient-based and derivative-free stochastic algorithms: SGD and CMA-ES
Wed, 17.11.2021	PM	Other blackbox optimizers: Nelder-Mead, Bayesian optimization [2nd mini-exam]
Wed, 24.11.2021	PM	Benchmarking solvers: runtime distributions, performance profiles
Tue, 30.11.2021	23:59	Deadline open source project (PDF sent by email)
Wed, 01.12.2021	PM	Discrete optimization: branch and bound, branch and cut, k-means clustering
Wed, 15.12.2021	PM	Exam

Remarks

Overlap with Other Classes

- I was not aware that gradients/Hessian/optimality conditions/… were already taught in some M1 course(s)
- I will try my best to adapt
- What I propose for today and next week:
  - lecture with basics needed for later on (for those who do not have the basics)
  - additional exercise (for those who are bored otherwise ☺)

Don’t forget the group project:

https://docs.google.com/spreadsheets/d/1WV8yfI1T0rYqtdoPYzOu7ORVx9qKC1kwvOSFE6MVaX4/edit?usp=sharing

Deadline for the report: November 30, 2021

Advanced Exercise

- Shall be done quietly (to not disturb the class)
- I will be there during the normal exercise times to help
- Jupyter notebook available on Edunao

Idea:

- Self-teaching of concepts, discussed later in the class via learning-by-doing
- practical python/programming exercise
- Part I: Invariances (today)
- Part II: Benchmarking (next week)

back to lecture

Details on Continuous Optimization Lectures

Introduction to Continuous Optimization

- examples and typical difficulties in optimization

Mathematical Tools to Characterize Optima

- reminders about differentiability, gradient, Hessian matrix
- unconstraint optimization
  - first and second order conditions
  - convexity
- constraint optimization
  - Lagrangian, optimality conditions

Gradient-based Algorithms

- gradient descent
- quasi-Newton method (BFGS) and invariances

Linear programming, duality

Learning in Optimization / Optimization in Machine Learning

- Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) + Adam
- CMA-ES (adaptive algorithms / Information Geometry)
- Other derivative-free algorithms: Nelder-Mead, Bayesian opt.

Optimality Conditions for Unconstrained Problems

Optimality Conditions: First Order Necessary Cond.

For 1-dimensional optimization problems f: $\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$

Assume f is differentiable

- $\boldsymbol{x}^*$ is a local optimum $\Longrightarrow f'(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0$

not a sufficient condition: consider $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{x}^3$

proof via Taylor formula: $f(\boldsymbol{x}^* + \boldsymbol{h}) = f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) + f'(\boldsymbol{x}^*)\boldsymbol{h} + o(||\boldsymbol{h}||)$

- points $\boldsymbol{y}$ such that $f'(\boldsymbol{y}) = 0$ are called critical or stationary points

Generalization to n-dimensional functions

If $f: U \subset \mathbb{R}^n \longmapsto \mathbb{R}$ is differentiable

- necessary condition: If $\boldsymbol{x}^*$ is a local optimum of f, then $\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0$

proof via Taylor formula

Second Order Necessary and Sufficient Opt. Cond.

If f is twice continuously differentiable

- Necessary condition: if $\boldsymbol{x}^*$ is a local minimum, then $\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0$ and $\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$ is positive semi-definite

proof via Taylor formula at order 2

- Sufficient condition: if $\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0$ and $\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$ is positive definite, then $\boldsymbol{x}^*$ is a strict local minimum

Proof of Sufficient Condition:

- Let $\lambda > 0$ be the smallest eigenvalue of $\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}^*)$, using a second order Taylor expansion, we have for all $\boldsymbol{h}$:
- $$f(\boldsymbol{x}^* + \boldsymbol{h}) - f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*)^T \boldsymbol{h} + \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{h}^T \nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) \boldsymbol{h} + o(||\boldsymbol{h}||^2)$$
$$> \frac{\lambda}{2} ||\boldsymbol{h}||^2 + \mathrm{o}(||\boldsymbol{h}||^2) = \left(\frac{\lambda}{2} + \frac{o(||\boldsymbol{h}||^2)}{||\boldsymbol{h}||^2} \right) ||\boldsymbol{h}||^2$$

Convex Functions

Let U be a convex open set of $\mathbb{R}^n$ and $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$. The function f is said to be convex if for all $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y} \in U$ and for all $t \in [0,1]$

$$f\big((1-t)\boldsymbol{x} + t\boldsymbol{y}\big) \leq (1-t)f(\boldsymbol{x}) + tf(\boldsymbol{y})$$

Theorem

If f is differentiable, then f is convex if and only if for all $\boldsymbol{x}, \boldsymbol{y}$

$$f(\boldsymbol{y}) - f(\boldsymbol{x}) \geq \big(\nabla f(x)\big)^T (\boldsymbol{y} - \boldsymbol{x})$$

if $n = 1$, the curve is on top of the tangent

If f is twice continuously differentiable, then f is convex if and only if $\nabla^2 f(\boldsymbol{x})$ is positive semi-definite for all $\boldsymbol{x}$.

Convex Functions: Why Convexity?

Examples of Convex Functions:

- $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = a^T \boldsymbol{x} + b$
- $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{x}^T A \boldsymbol{x} + a^T \boldsymbol{x} + b$, A symmetric positive definite
- the negative of the entropy function (i. e. $f(\boldsymbol{x}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \boldsymbol{x}_i \ln(\boldsymbol{x}_i)$)

Exercise:

Let $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$ be a convex and differentiable function on a convex open U.
Show that if $\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}^*) = 0$, then $\boldsymbol{x}^*$ is a global minimum of f

Why is convexity an important concept?

Mini-Exam
in Evalmee

Constrained Optimization

Equality Constraint

Objective:

Generalize the necessary condition of $\nabla f(x) = 0$ at the optima of f

when f is in $\mathcal{C}^1$, i.e. is differentiable and its differential is continuous

Theorem:

Be U an open set of $(E, ||\,.\,||)$, and $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$, $g: U \to \mathbb{R}$ in $\mathcal{C}^1$.

Let $a \in E$ satisfy

$$\begin{cases} f(a) = \inf \{f(x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n, g(x) = 0\} \\ g(a) = 0 \end{cases}$$

i.e. a is optimum of the problem

If $\nabla g(a) \neq 0$, then there exists a constant $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ called *Lagrange multiplier*, such that

$$\underbrace{\nabla f(a) + \lambda \nabla g(a) = 0}_{\text{Euler} - \text{Lagrange equation}}$$

i.e. gradients of f and g in a are colinear

Geometrical Interpretation Using an Example

Exercise:

Consider the problem

$$\inf \{ f(x,y) \mid (x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^2, g(x,y) = 0 \}$$

$f(x,y) = y - x^2 \qquad g(x,y) = x^2 + y^2 - 1 = 0$

1) Plot the level sets of f, plot $g = 0$
2) Compute ∇f and ∇g
3) Find the solutions with $\nabla f + \lambda \nabla g = 0$

   equation solving with 3 unknowns (x, y, λ)
4) Plot the solutions of 3) on top of the level set graph of 1)

Interpretation of Euler-Lagrange Equation

Intuitive way to retrieve the Euler-Lagrange equation:

- In a local minimum a of a constrained problem, the hypersurfaces (or level sets) $f = f(a)$ and $g = 0$ are necessarily tangent (otherwise we could decrease f by moving along $g = 0$).
- Since the gradients $\nabla f(a)$ and $\nabla g(a)$ are orthogonal to the level sets $f = f(a)$ and $g = 0$, it follows that $\nabla f(a)$ and $\nabla g(a)$ are colinear.

Generalization to More than One Constraint

Theorem

- Assume $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$ and $g_k: U \to \mathbb{R}$ $(1 \leq k \leq p)$ are $\mathcal{C}^1$.
- Let a be such that

$$\begin{cases} f(a) = \inf \{ f(x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad g_k(x) = 0, \quad 1 \leq k \leq p \} \\ g_k(a) = 0 \text{ for all } 1 \leq k \leq p \end{cases}$$

- If $\left(\nabla g_k(a)\right)_{1 \leq k \leq p}$ are linearly independent, then there exist p real constants $(\lambda_k)_{1 \leq k \leq p}$ such that

$$\nabla f(a) + \sum_{k=1}^{p} \lambda_k \nabla g_k(a) = 0$$

Lagrange multiplier

again: a does not need to be global but local minimum

The Lagrangian

- Define the Lagrangian on $\mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^p$ as

$$\mathcal{L}(x, \{\lambda_k\}) = f(x) + \sum_{k=1}^{p} \lambda_k g_k(x)$$

- To find optimal solutions, we can solve the optimality system

$$\begin{cases} \text{Find } (x, \{\lambda_k\}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^p \text{ such that } \nabla f(x) + \sum_{k=1}^{p} \lambda_k \nabla g_k(x) = 0 \\ g_k(x) = 0 \text{ for all } 1 \leq k \leq p \end{cases}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \text{Find } (x, \{\lambda_k\}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^p \text{ such that } \nabla_x \mathcal{L}(x, \{\lambda_k\}) = 0 \\ \nabla_{\lambda_k} \mathcal{L}(x, \{\lambda_k\})(x) = 0 \text{ for all } 1 \leq k \leq p \end{cases}$$

Inequality Constraint: Definitions

Let $\mathcal{U} = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid g_k(x) = 0 \text{ (for } k \in E),\ g_k(x) \leq 0 \text{ (for } k \in I)\}$.

Definition:

The points in $\mathbb{R}^n$ that satisfy the constraints are also called *feasible* points.

Definition:

Let $a \in \mathcal{U}$, we say that the constraint $g_k\ (x) \leq 0$ (for $k \in I$) is *active* in a if $g_k(a) = 0$.

Inequality Constraint: Karush-Kuhn-Tucker Theorem

Theorem (Karush-Kuhn-Tucker, KKT):

Let U be an open set of $(\mathbb{R}^n, ||\ ||)$ and $f: U \to \mathbb{R}$, $g_k: U \to \mathbb{R}$, all $\mathcal{C}^1$

Furthermore, let $a \in U$ satisfy

$$\begin{cases} f(a) = \inf(f(x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n, g_k(x) = 0 \ (\text{for } k \in E), g_k(x) \leq 0 \ (\text{for } k \in \mathrm{I}) \\ g_k(a) = 0 \ (\text{for } k \in E) \\ g_k(a) \leq 0 \ (\text{for } k \in I) \end{cases}$$

also works again for a being a local minimum

Let I_a^0 be the set of constraints that are active in a. Assume that $\left(\nabla g_k(a)\right)_{k \in E \cup I_a^0}$ are linearly independent.

Then there exist $(\lambda_k)_{1 \leq k \leq p}$ that satisfy

$$\begin{cases} \nabla f(a) + \sum_{k=1}^{p} \lambda_k \nabla g_k(a) = 0 \\ g_k(a) = 0 \ (\text{for } k \in E) \\ g_k(a) \leq 0 \ (\text{for } k \in I) \\ \lambda_k \geq 0 \ (\text{for } k \in I_a^0) \\ \lambda_k g_k(a) = 0 \ (\text{for } k \in E \cup I) \end{cases}$$

Inequality Constraint: Karush-Kuhn-Tucker Theorem

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Then there exist $(\lambda_k)_{1 \leq k \leq p}$ that satisfy

$$\begin{cases} \nabla f(a) + \sum_{k=1}^{p} \lambda_k \nabla g_k(a) = 0 \\ g_k(a) = 0 \ (\text{for } k \in E) \\ g_k(a) \leq 0 \ (\text{for } k \in I) \\ \lambda_k \geq 0 \ (\text{for } k \in I_a^0) \\ \lambda_k g_k(a) = 0 \ (\text{for } k \in E \cup I) \end{cases}$$

either active constraint or $\lambda_k = 0$

Descent Methods

Descent Methods

General principle

1. choose an initial point $\boldsymbol{x}_0$, set $t = 0$
2. while not happy
   - choose a descent direction $\boldsymbol{d}_t \neq 0$
   - line search:
     - choose a step size $\sigma_t > 0$
     - set $\boldsymbol{x}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{x}_t + \sigma_t \boldsymbol{d}_t$
   - set $t = t + 1$

Remaining questions

- how to choose $\boldsymbol{d}_t$?
- how to choose σ_t?

Gradient Descent

Rationale: $\boldsymbol{d}_t = -\nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}_t)$ is a descent direction

indeed for f differentiable

$$f\big(x - \sigma \nabla f(x)\big) = f(x) - \sigma ||\nabla f(x)||^2 + o(\sigma ||\nabla f(x)||)$$
$$< f(x) \text{ for } \sigma \text{ small enough}$$

Step-size

- optimal step-size: $\sigma_t = \underset{\sigma}{\operatorname{argmin}}\, f(\boldsymbol{x}_t - \sigma \nabla f(\boldsymbol{x}_t))$
- **Line Search:** total or partial optimization w.r.t. σ
  Total is however often too "expensive" (needs to be performed at each iteration step)
  Partial optimization: execute a limited number of trial steps until a loose approximation of the optimum is found. Typical rule for partial optimization: Armijo rule (see next slides)

Typical stopping criterium:

norm of gradient smaller than ϵ

The Armijo-Goldstein Rule

Choosing the step size:

- Only to decrease f-value not enough to converge (quickly)
- Want to have a reasonably large decrease in f

Armijo-Goldstein rule:

- also known as backtracking line search
- starts with a (too) large estimate of σ and reduces it until f is reduced enough
- what is enough?
  - assuming a linear f e.g. $m_k(x) = f(x_k) + \nabla f(x_k)^T (x - x_k)$
  - expected decrease if step of σ_k is done in direction $\boldsymbol{d}$: $\sigma_k \nabla f(x_k)^T \boldsymbol{d}$
  - actual decrease: $f(x_k) - f(x_k + \sigma_k \boldsymbol{d})$
  - stop if actual decrease is at least constant times expected decrease (constant typically chosen in [0, 1])

The Armijo-Goldstein Rule

The Actual Algorithm:

Input: descent direction $\mathbf{d}$, point $\mathbf{x}$, objective function $f(\mathbf{x})$ and its gradient $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$, parameters $\sigma_0 = 10$, $\theta \in [0, 1]$ and $\beta \in (0, 1)$
Output: step-size σ

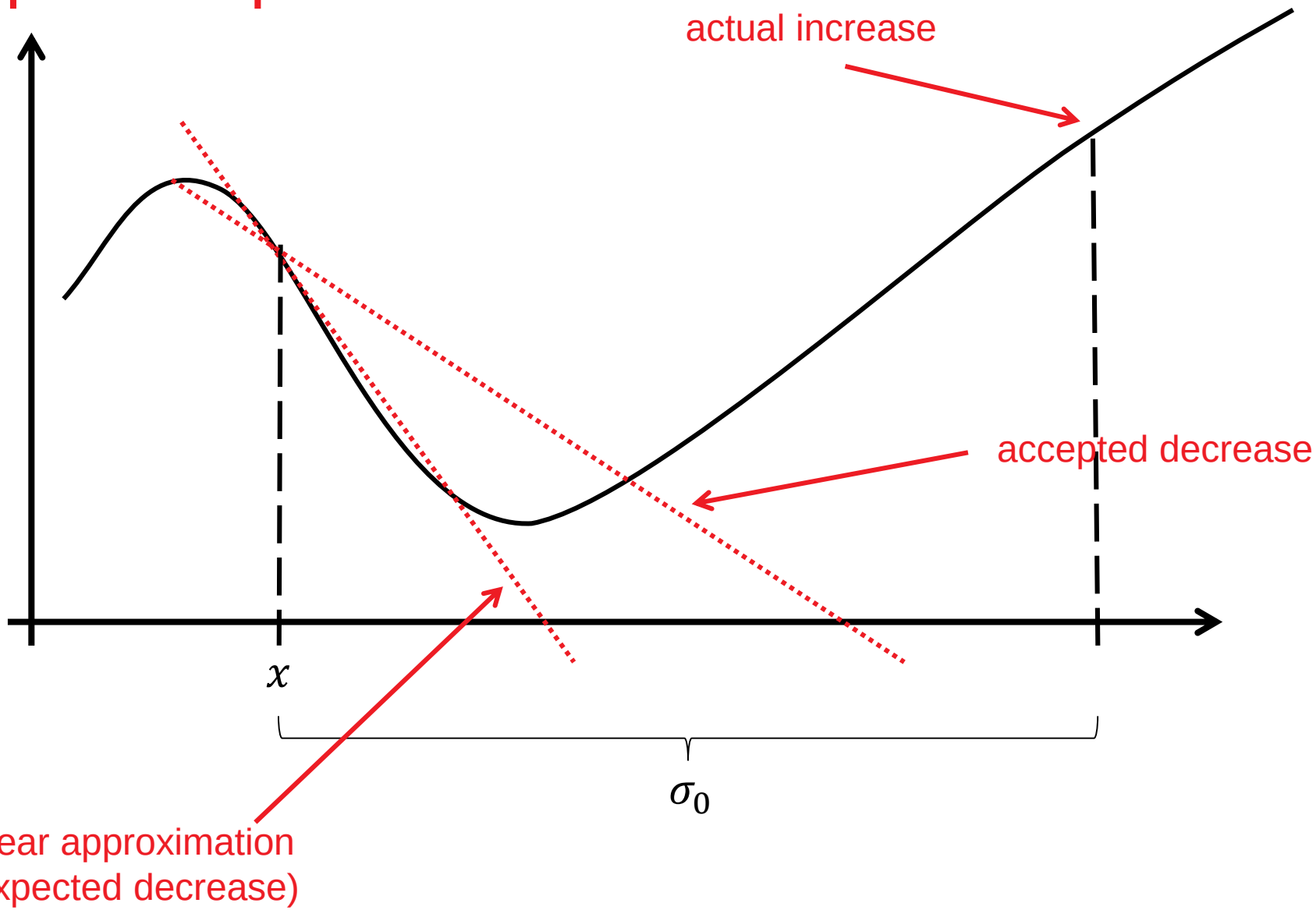
Initialize σ: $\sigma \leftarrow \sigma_0$
while $f(\mathbf{x} + \sigma\mathbf{d}) > f(\mathbf{x}) + \theta\sigma\nabla f(\mathbf{x})^T\mathbf{d}$ **do**
    $\sigma \leftarrow \beta\sigma$
end while

Armijo, in his original publication chose $\beta = \theta = 0.5$.

Choosing $\theta = 0$ means the algorithm accepts any decrease.

The Armijo-Goldstein Rule

Graphical Interpretation



The Armijo-Goldstein Rule

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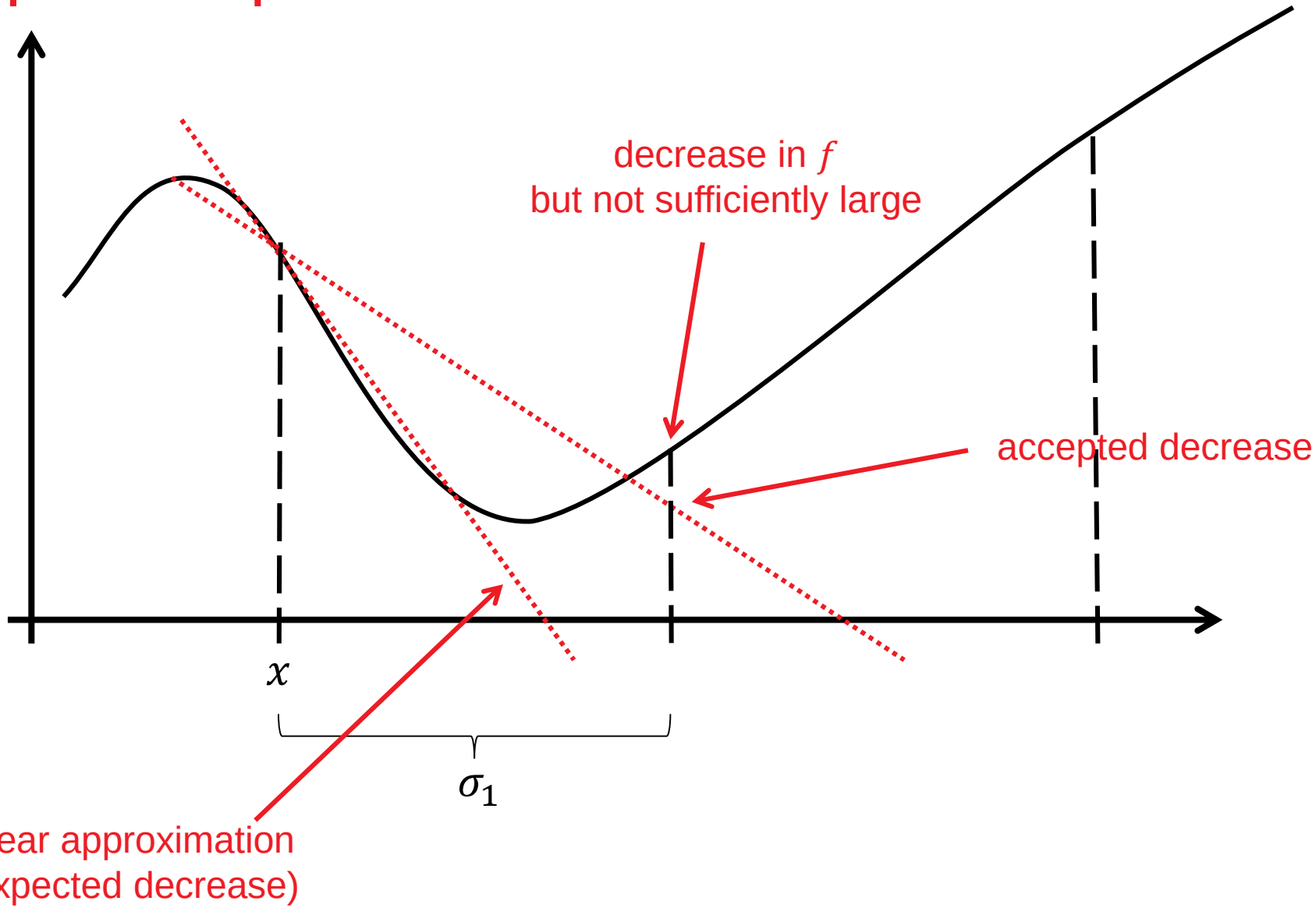

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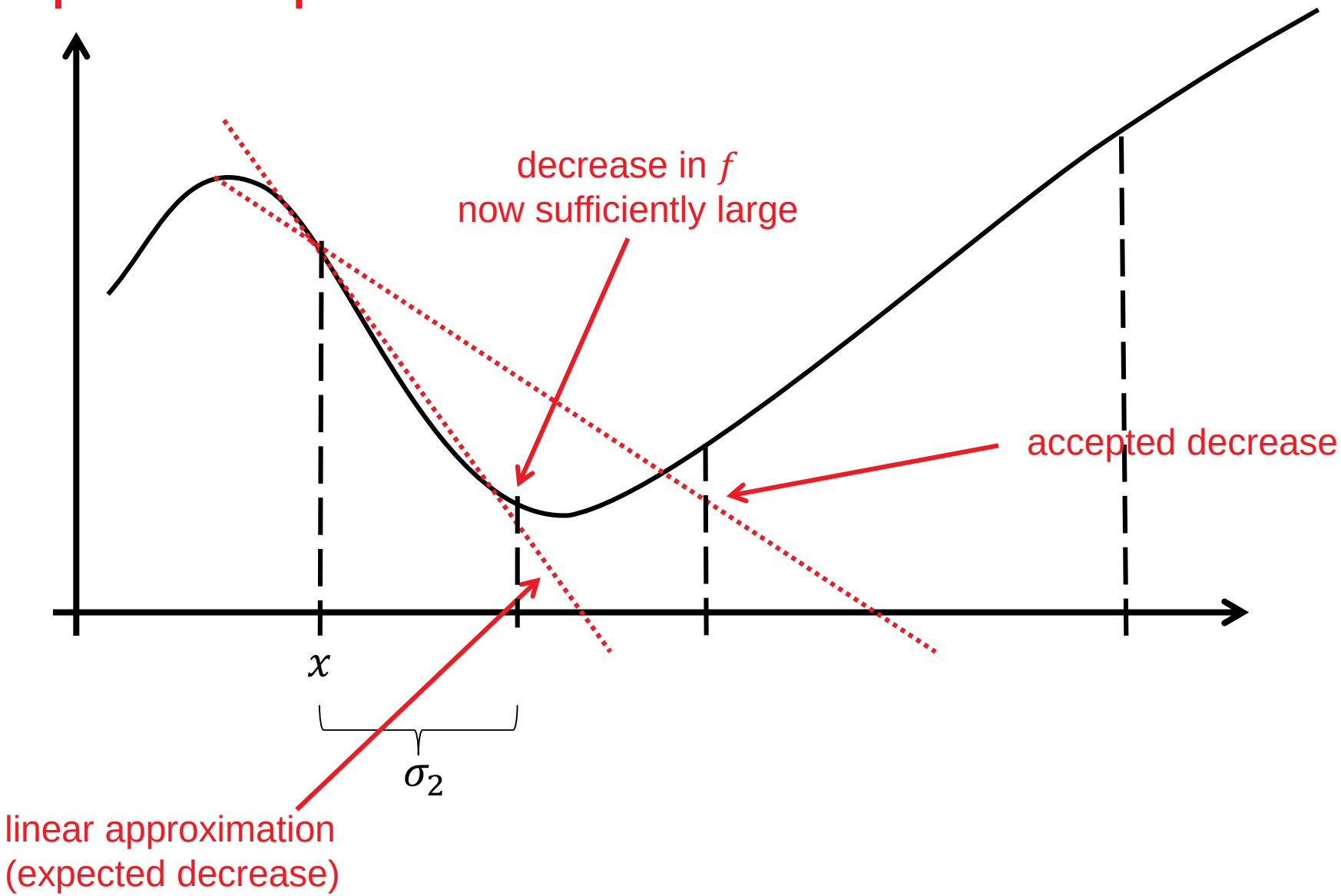


Gradient Descent: Simple Theoretical Analysis

Assume f is twice continuously differentiable, convex and that $\mu I_d \preccurlyeq \nabla^2 f(x) \preccurlyeq L I_d$ with $\mu > 0$ holds, assume a fixed step-size $\sigma_t = \frac{1}{L}$

Note: $A \preccurlyeq B$ means $x^T A x \leq x^T B x$ for all x

$$x_{t+1} - x^* = x_t - x^* - \sigma_t \nabla^2 f(y_t)(x_t - x^*) \text{ for some } y_t \in [x_t, x^*]$$

$$x_{t+1} - x^* = \left(I_d - \frac{1}{L}\nabla^2 f(y_t)\right)(x_t - x^*)$$

$$\text{Hence } ||x_{t+1} - x^*||^2 \leq |||I_d - \frac{1}{L}\nabla^2 f(y_t)|||^2 \; ||x_t - x^*||^2$$

$$\leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{L}\right)^2 ||x_t - x^*||^2$$

Linear convergence: $||x_{t+1} - x^*|| \leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{L}\right) ||x_t - x^*||$

algorithm slower and slower with increasing condition number

Non-convex setting: convergence towards stationary point

Newton Algorithm

Newton Method

- descent direction: $-[\nabla^2 f(x_k)]^{-1}\nabla f(x_k)$ [so-called Newton direction]
- The Newton direction:
  - minimizes the best (locally) quadratic approximation of f:
    $\tilde{f}(x+\Delta x) = f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T \Delta x + \frac{1}{2}(\Delta x)^T \nabla^2 f(x) \Delta x$
  - points towards the optimum on $f(x) = (x - x^*)^T A (x - x^*)$
- however, Hessian matrix is expensive to compute in general and its inversion is also not easy

quadratic convergence

$$\left(\text{i.e.} \quad \lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{|x_{k+1} - x^*|}{|x_k - x^*|^2} = \mu > 0\right)$$

Remark: Affine Invariance

Affine Invariance: same behavior on $f(x)$ and $f(Ax+b)$ for $A \in \mathrm{GLn}(\mathbb{R})$ = set of all invertible $n \times n$ matrices over $\mathbb{R}$

- Newton method is affine invariant

  see **`http://users.ece.utexas.edu/~cmcaram/EE381V_2012F/Lecture_6_Scribe_Notes.final.pdf`**

- same convergence rate on all convex-quadratic functions
- Gradient method not affine invariant

Quasi-Newton Method: BFGS

$x_{t+1} = x_t - \sigma_t H_t \nabla f(x_t)$ where H_t is an approximation of the inverse Hessian

Key idea of Quasi Newton:

successive iterates x_t, x_{t+1} and gradients $\nabla f(x_t)$, $\nabla f(x_{t+1})$ yield second order information

$$q_t \approx \nabla^2 f(x_{t+1}) p_t$$

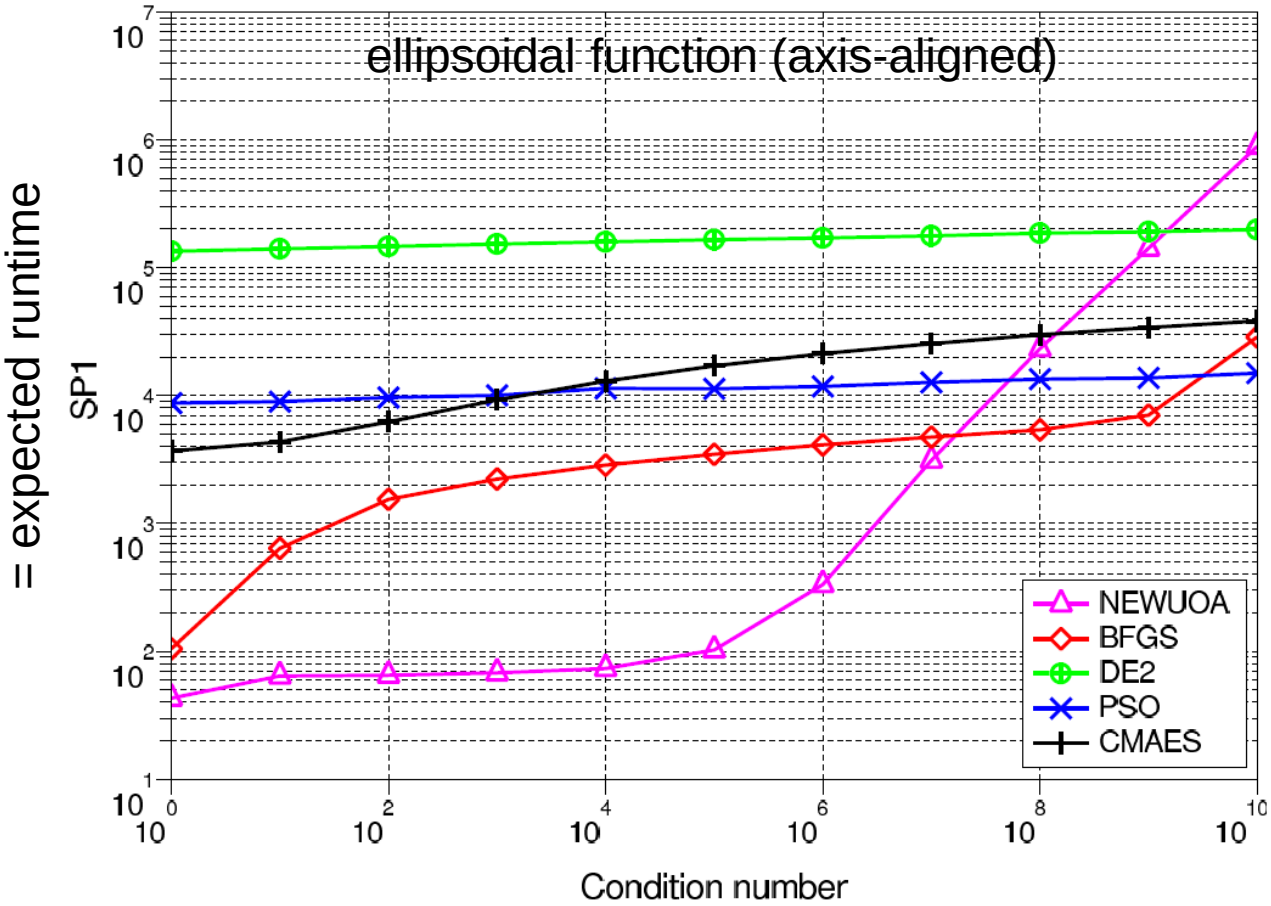
where $p_t = x_{t+1} - x_t$ and $q_t = \nabla f(x_{t+1}) - \nabla f(x_t)$

Most popular implementation of this idea: Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno (BFGS)

- default in MATLAB's **`fminunc`** and python's **`scipy.optimize.minimize`**

Once Again: Invariances

- Newton as well as BFGS are affine invariant in theory
- However, numerics might play an important role



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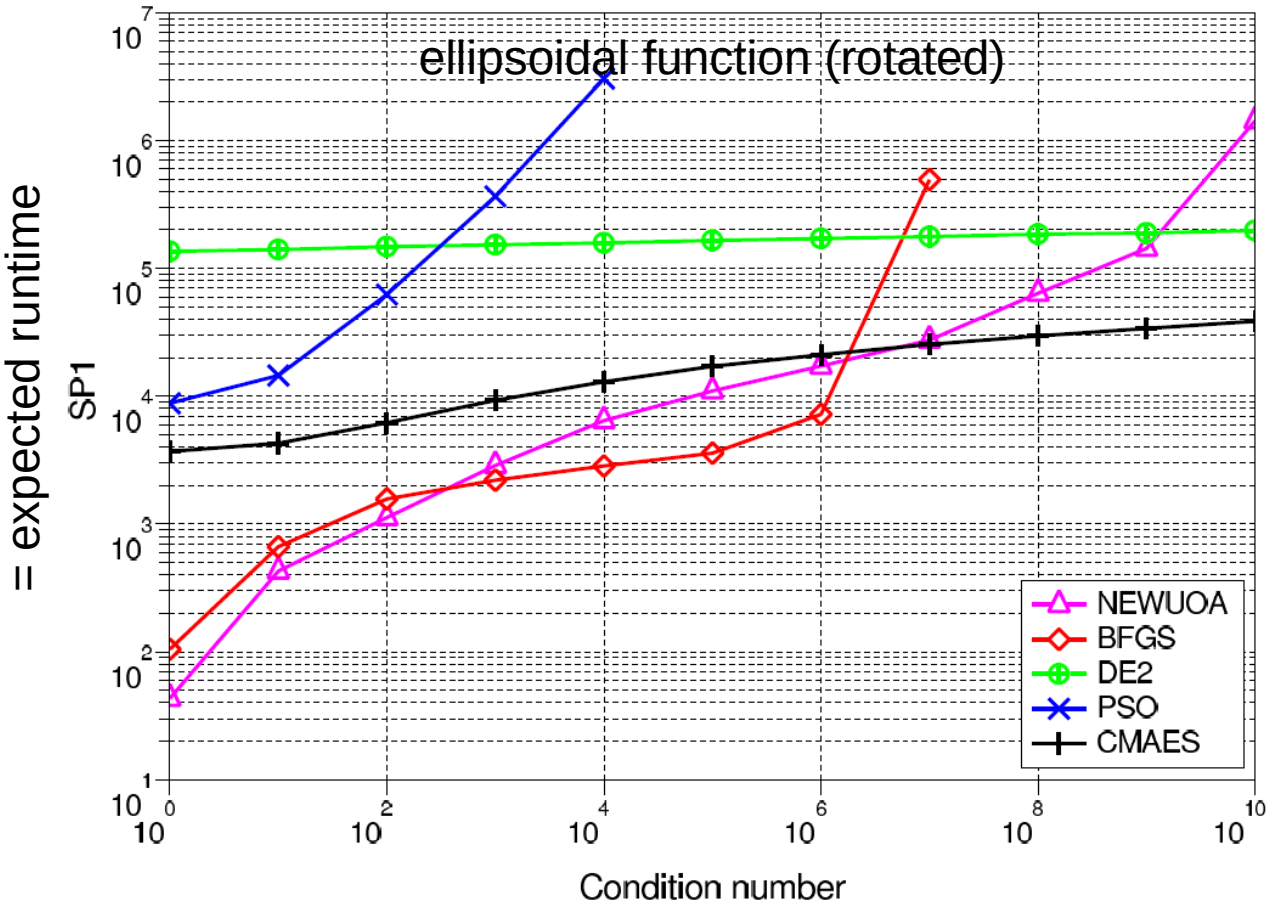

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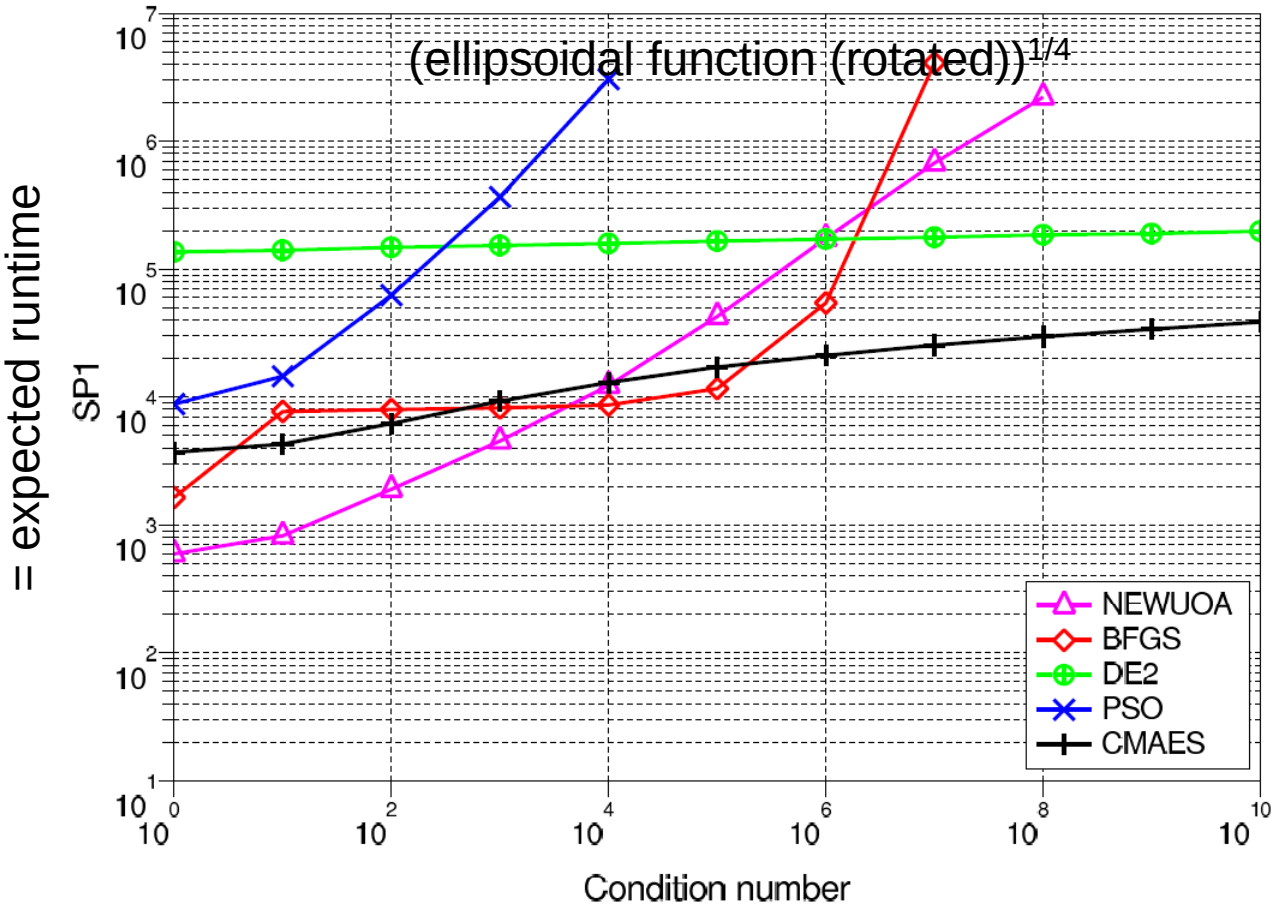
Once Again: Invariances

Other invariances might be nice as well, for example in function-value-free algorithms…



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Conclusions

I hope it became clear...

...what is the difference between gradient and Newton direction and gradient descent and (quasi-)Newton algorithms

... that adapting the step size in descent algorithms is crucial and

… what invariances are and why they are important in optimization (more details on that in the CMA-ES lecture)