

Scientific Computing: Numerical Optimization

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Outline

- 1 Mathematical Background
- 2 Smooth Unconstrained Optimization
- 3 Equality Constrained Optimization
- 4 Conclusions

Formulation

- Optimization problems are among the most important in engineering and finance, e.g., **minimizing** production cost, **maximizing** profits, etc.

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

where \mathbf{x} are some variable parameters and $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a scalar **objective function**.

- Observe that one only need to consider minimization as

$$\max_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}) = - \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} [-f(\mathbf{x})]$$

- A **local minimum** \mathbf{x}^* is optimal in some neighborhood,

$$f(\mathbf{x}^*) \leq f(\mathbf{x}) \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*\| \leq R > 0.$$

(think of finding the bottom of a valley)

- Finding the **global minimum** is generally not possible for *arbitrary* functions (think of finding Mt. Everest without a satellite).

Connection to nonlinear systems

- Assume that the objective function is **differentiable** (i.e., first-order Taylor series converges or gradient exists).
- Then a **necessary condition** for a local minimizer is that \mathbf{x}^* be a **critical point**

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{x}^*) \right\}_i = \mathbf{0}$$

which is a system of non-linear equations!

- In fact similar methods, such as Newton or quasi-Newton, apply to both problems.
- Vice versa, observe that solving $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ is equivalent to an optimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \left[\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}) \right]$$

although this is only recommended under special circumstances.

Sufficient Conditions

- Assume now that the objective function is **twice-differentiable** (i.e., Hessian exists).
- A critical point \mathbf{x}^* is a local minimum if the **Hessian is positive definite**

$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}^2 f(\mathbf{x}^*) \succ \mathbf{0}$$

which means that the minimum really looks like a valley or a **convex** bowl.

- At any local minimum the Hessian is positive **semi-definite**, $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}^2 f(\mathbf{x}^*) \succeq \mathbf{0}$.
- Methods that require Hessian information converge fast but are expensive.

Mathematical Programming

- The general term used is **mathematical programming**.
- Simplest case is **unconstrained optimization**

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

where \mathbf{x} are some variable parameters and $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is a scalar **objective function**.

- Find a **local minimum** \mathbf{x}^* :

$$f(\mathbf{x}^*) \leq f(\mathbf{x}) \quad \forall \mathbf{x} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^*\| \leq R > 0.$$

(think of finding the bottom of a valley).

- Find the best local minimum, i.e., the **global minimum** \mathbf{x}^* : This is virtually impossible in general and there are many specialized techniques such as **genetic programming**, **simulated annealing**, **branch-and-bound** (e.g., using interval arithmetic), etc.
- Special case: A **strictly convex objective function** has a unique local minimum which is thus also the global minimum.

Constrained Programming

- The most general form of **constrained optimization**

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} f(\mathbf{x})$$

where $\mathcal{X} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a **set of feasible solutions**.

- The feasible set is usually expressed in terms of **equality and inequality constraints**:

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

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

- The only generally solvable case: **convex programming**
Minimizing a convex function $f(\mathbf{x})$ over a convex set \mathcal{X} : every local minimum is global.
If $f(\mathbf{x})$ is strictly convex then there is a **unique local and global minimum**.

Special Cases

- Special case of convex programming is **linear programming**:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{ \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} \} \\ \text{s.t.} \quad \mathbf{Ax} \leq \mathbf{b} \quad . \end{aligned}$$

- The feasible set here is a convex **polytope** (polygon, polyhedron) in \mathbb{R}^n , consider for now the case when it is bounded, meaning there are at least $n + 1$ constraints.
- The optimal point is a **vertex** of the polyhedron, meaning a point where (generically) n constraints are **active**,

$$\mathbf{A}_{act} \mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{b}_{act}.$$

- Solving the problem therefore means finding the subset of **active constraints**:
Combinatorial search problem, solved using the **simplex algorithm** (search along the edges of the polytope).

Necessary and Sufficient Conditions

- A **necessary condition** for a local minimizer:

The optimum \mathbf{x}^* must be a **critical point (maximum, minimum or saddle point)**:

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \left\{ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(\mathbf{x}^*) \right\}_i = \mathbf{0},$$

and an additional **sufficient condition** for a critical point \mathbf{x}^* to be a local minimum:

The Hessian at the optimal point must be **positive definite**,

$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}}^2 f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \left\{ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}(\mathbf{x}^*) \right\}_{ij} \succ \mathbf{0}.$$

which means that the minimum really looks like a valley or a **convex** bowl.

Direct-Search Methods

- A **direct search method** only requires $f(\mathbf{x})$ to be **continuous** but not necessarily differentiable, and requires only **function evaluations**.
- Methods that do a search similar to that in bisection can be devised in higher dimensions also, but they may fail to converge and are usually slow.
- The MATLAB function *fminsearch* uses the Nelder-Mead or **simplex-search** method, which can be thought of as rolling a simplex downhill to find the bottom of a valley. But there are many others and this is an active research area.
- **Curse of dimensionality**: As the number of variables (dimensionality) n becomes larger, direct search becomes hopeless since the number of samples needed grows as 2^n !

Minimum of $100(x_2 - x_1^2)^2 + (a - x_1)^2$ in MATLAB

```

% Rosenbrock or 'banana' function:
a = 1;
banana = @(x) 100*(x(2)-x(1)^2)^2+(a-x(1))^2;

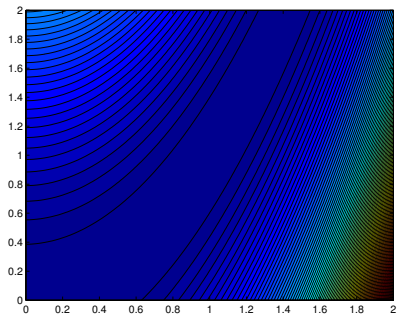
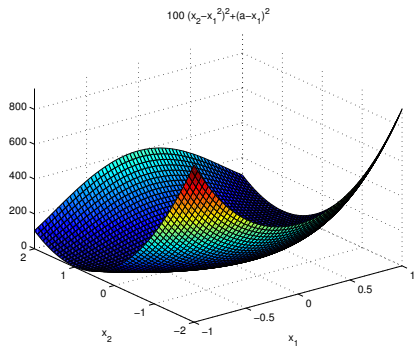
% This function must accept array arguments!
banana_xy = @(x1,x2) 100*(x2-x1.^2).^2+(a-x1).^2;

figure(1); ezsurf(banana_xy, [0,2,0,2])

[x,y] = meshgrid(linspace(0,2,100));
figure(2); contourf(x,y,banana_xy(x,y),100)

% Correct answers are x=[1,1] and f(x)=0
[x,fval] = fminsearch(banana, [-1.2, 1], optimset('TolX',1e-8))
x =      0.999999999187814      0.999999998441919
fval =      1.099088951919573e-18

```

Figure of Rosenbrock $f(\mathbf{x})$ 

Descent Methods

- Finding a local minimum is generally **easier** than the general problem of solving the non-linear equations

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$$

- We can evaluate f in addition to $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f$.
- The Hessian is positive-(semi)definite near the solution (enabling simpler linear algebra such as Cholesky).
- If we have a current guess for the solution \mathbf{x}^k , and a **descent direction** (i.e., **downhill** direction) \mathbf{d}^k :

$$f(\mathbf{x}^k + \alpha \mathbf{d}^k) < f(\mathbf{x}^k) \text{ for all } 0 < \alpha \leq \alpha_{max},$$

then we can move downhill and get closer to the minimum (valley):

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

where $\alpha_k > 0$ is a **step length**.

Gradient Descent Methods

- For a differentiable function we can use Taylor's series:

$$f(\mathbf{x}^k + \alpha \mathbf{d}^k) \approx f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \alpha_k \left[(\nabla f)^T \mathbf{d}^k \right]$$

- This means that **fastest local decrease** in the objective is achieved when we move opposite of the gradient: **steepest or gradient descent**:

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

- One option is to choose the step length using a **line search** one-dimensional minimization:

$$\alpha_k = \arg \min_{\alpha} f(\mathbf{x}^k + \alpha \mathbf{d}^k),$$

which needs to be solved **only approximately**.

Steepest Descent

- Assume an exact line search was used, i.e., $\alpha_k = \arg \min_{\alpha} \phi(\alpha)$ where

$$\phi(\alpha) = f(\mathbf{x}^k + \alpha \mathbf{d}^k).$$

$$\phi'(\alpha) = 0 = [\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k + \alpha \mathbf{d}^k)]^T \mathbf{d}^k.$$

- This means that steepest descent takes a **zig-zag path** down to the minimum.
- Second-order analysis shows that steepest descent has **linear convergence** with convergence coefficient

$$C \sim \frac{1-r}{1+r}, \quad \text{where} \quad r = \frac{\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{H})}{\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{H})} = \frac{1}{\kappa_2(\mathbf{H})},$$

inversely proportional to the **condition number** of the Hessian.

- Steepest descent can be very slow for ill-conditioned Hessians: One improvement is to use **conjugate-gradient method instead**.

Newton's Method

- Making a second-order or quadratic model of the function:

$$f(\mathbf{x}^k + \Delta\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}^k) + [\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)]^T (\Delta\mathbf{x}) + \frac{1}{2} (\Delta\mathbf{x})^T [\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^k)] (\Delta\mathbf{x})$$

we obtain **Newton's method**:

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x} + \Delta\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x} + \Delta\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0} = \mathbf{g} + \mathbf{H}(\Delta\mathbf{x}) \quad \Rightarrow$$

$$\Delta\mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{H}^{-1}\mathbf{g} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \mathbf{x}^k - [\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^k)]^{-1} [\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)].$$

- Note that this is identical to using the Newton-Raphson method for solving the nonlinear system $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$.
- At the minimum $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^*) \succ \mathbf{0}$ so one can use **Cholesky factorization** to compute $[\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^k)]^{-1} [\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)]$ sufficiently close to the minimum.

Problems with Newton's Method

- Newton's method is **exact for a quadratic function** (this is another way to define order of convergence!) and converges in one step when $\mathbf{H} \equiv \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}^k) = \text{const.}$
- For non-linear objective functions, however, Newton's method requires solving a linear system every step: **expensive**.
- It may not converge at all if the initial guess is not very good, or may converge to a saddle-point or maximum: **unreliable**.
- All of these are addressed by using variants of **quasi-Newton or trust-region methods**:

$$\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \mathbf{x}^k - \alpha_k \mathbf{H}_k^{-1} [\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)],$$

where $0 < \alpha_k < 1$ and \mathbf{H}_k is an approximation to the true Hessian.

Penalty Approach

- The idea is to convert the constrained optimization problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}) \\ \text{s.t.} \quad \mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0} \quad . \end{aligned}$$

into an unconstrained optimization problem.

- Consider minimizing the **penalized function**

$$\mathcal{L}_\alpha(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \alpha \|\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})\|_2^2 = f(\mathbf{x}) + \alpha [\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})]^T [\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})],$$

where $\alpha > 0$ is a **penalty parameter**.

- Note that one can use **penalty functions** other than sum of squares.
- If the constraint is exactly satisfied, then $\mathcal{L}_\alpha(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x})$.
As $\alpha \rightarrow \infty$ violations of the constraint are penalized more and more, so that the equality will be satisfied with higher accuracy.

Penalty Method

- The above suggest the **penalty method** (see homework):
For a monotonically diverging sequence $\alpha_1 < \alpha_2 < \dots$, solve a **sequence of unconstrained problems**

$$\mathbf{x}^k = \mathbf{x}(\alpha_k) = \arg \min_{\mathbf{x}} \left\{ \mathcal{L}_k(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \alpha_k [\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})]^T [\mathbf{h}(\mathbf{x})] \right\}$$

and the solution should converge to the optimum \mathbf{x}^* ,

$$\mathbf{x}^k \rightarrow \mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{x}(\alpha_k \rightarrow \infty).$$

- Note that one can use \mathbf{x}^{k-1} as an **initial guess** for, for example, Newton's method.
- Also note that the problem becomes more and more **ill-conditioned** as α grows.
A better approach uses Lagrange multipliers in addition to penalty (**augmented Lagrangian**).

Conclusions/Summary

- Optimization, or **mathematical programming**, is one of the most important numerical problems in practice.
- Optimization problems can be **constrained** or **unconstrained**, and the nature (linear, convex, quadratic, algebraic, etc.) of the functions involved matters.
- Finding a **global minimum** of a general function is virtually **impossible** in high dimensions, but very important in practice.
- An unconstrained local minimum can be found using **direct search**, **gradient descent**, or **Newton-like methods**.
- Equality-constrained optimization is **tractable**, but the best method **depends on the specifics**.
- Constrained optimization is tractable for the convex case, otherwise often hard, and even **NP-complete** for **integer programming**.