<u>CS205 – Class 8</u>

Covered In Class: 1, 3, 4, 5, 6 *Reading*: Heath Chapter 6

- 1. <u>Optimization</u> given an <u>objective function</u> f, find relative maxima or minima. Note that since max $f = \min f$ it is enough to only consider minima.
 - a. We'll start with scalar functions f of one variable for now.
 - b. **<u>unconstained</u>** any $x \in \mathbf{R}^r$ is acceptable
 - c. <u>constrained</u> minimize f on a subset $S \neq \mathbf{R}$
 - d. usually find *local minima*, since global minima are hard to findi. one option is to find many local minima and compare them to find a global minimum
 - e. Not equivalent to solving for f(x) = 0. There might exist no such x or the minimum may be attained somewhere f(x) < 0.
 - f. *poorly conditioned* since f'(x) = 0 at a minimum, i.e. locally flat (similar to a multiple root) error tolerance should be more like $\sqrt{\varepsilon}$ as opposed to ε
 - g. given a critical point where f'(x) = 0, we can use the sign of the second derivative to determine whether we have a local minimum, a local maximum, or an inflection point
 - i. if f''(x) > 0, concave up, minimum
 - ii. if f''(x) < 0, concave down, maximum
 - iii. otherwise when the second derivative vanishes, we have an inflection point, i.e. neither a minimum nor a maximum



- h. <u>unimodal</u> $[a, x^*]$ is monotonically decreasing and $[x^*, b]$ is monotonically increasing x^* is the minimum most schemes need a unimodal interval in order to converge
- 2. golden section search Using the magic number $\tau = (\sqrt{5} 1)/2 \approx .618$ satisfying $\tau^2 = 1 \tau$
 - a. starting with an interval [a,b], find $x_1 = a + (1-\tau)(b-a)$ and $x_2 = a + \tau(b-a)$
 - b. if $f(x_1) > f(x_2)$, discard $[a, x_1]$ and set $a = x_1$, $x_1 = x_2$ and $x_2 = a + \tau(b-a)$ (using the updated value of a) noting that $x_1 = a + (1-\tau)(b-a)$ (again, for the updated value of a) is still true (this is the reason for the magic number)
 - c. otherwise discard $[x_2,b]$ and set $b = x_2$, $x_2 = x_1$ and $x_1 = a + (1-\tau)(b-a)$ (using the updated value of a) noting that $x_2 = a + \tau(b-a)$ (again, for the updated value of a) is still true (this is the reason for the magic number)
 - d. stop when $b a < \varepsilon$



e. linearly convergent with $C \approx .618$

3. <u>Newton's Method</u> $x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f'(x_k)}{f''(x_k)}$ since we're looking for f'(x) = 0 instead of f(x) = 0

- a. in general f' is hard to find, here f'' is needed as well which is even worse
 - i. secant type methods can be used to replace the second derivative with first derivatives
 - ii. one could also replace all the first derivative with function evaluations
- b. <u>mixed methods</u> can be used, for example combining Newton iteration with golden section search.
- 4. In multiple spatial dimensions, we need to find a vector function \vec{x} that minimizes $y = f(\vec{x})$
 - a. Instead of solving the scalar equation f'(x) = 0 to find potential solutions, we need to solve the system of equations $\nabla f(\vec{x}) = 0$. That is $\partial f / \partial x_1(\vec{x}) = 0$, ..., $\partial f / \partial x_i(\vec{x}) = 0$, ..., $\partial f / \partial x_n(\vec{x}) = 0$ where there is one equation for each x_i
 - b. once a potential solution is found we need to classify it as a maximum, minimum, or neither
 - i. in 1D we looked at f'(x) = 0
 - ii. in multiD, we look at the **Hessian matrix**, H(x), of 2^{nd} partial derivatives where $H_{ii} = \partial^2 f / \partial x_i \partial x_i$
 - iii. If *f* has continuous second partial derivatives, the order of differentiation does not matter, i.e. $H_{ii} = \partial^2 f / \partial x_i \partial x_i = \partial^2 f / \partial x_i \partial x_i = H_{ii}$, and H is symmetric
 - iv. At a critical point where the system corresponding to $\nabla f(\vec{x}) = 0$, we have:
 - 1. if H is positive definite, then x is a local minimum of f
 - 2. if H is negative definite, then x is a local maximum of f
 - 3. otherwise H is indefinite and x is a saddle point
 - v. In 1D H=[f''(x)], and this is positive or negative definite if f''(x) is positive or negative, respectively. Also, when f''(x)=0, it is indefinite. (Aside: a major theme of the course is that intuition is built through examining the scalar case)
 - vi. There are many ways to see if a symmetric matrix is positive definite, e.g. compute the eigenvalues and see if they are all positive, although this is one of the more expensive ways
 - vii. Think of this as walking down hill. But of course, if you never go uphill you can fall into local minima.
- 5. <u>steepest descent method</u> look in the $-\nabla f$ direction, i.e. the direction where f is decreasing fastest
 - a. look for a minimum on the parametric line $\vec{x}(t) = \vec{x}_k \nabla f(\vec{x}_k)t$
 - b. that is, find the min $f(\vec{x}(t)) = \min f(\vec{x}_k \nabla f(\vec{x}_k)t) = \min g(t)$ where g is a one dimensional function of the one dimensional parameter t
 - i. use a 1D solver

- c. given t^* that minimizes g(t), set $\vec{x}_{k+1} = \vec{x}_k \nabla f(\vec{x}_k)t^*$ and continue iterating
- d. stop when $\|\nabla f\|$ is small
- 6. Conjugate Gradient Method brief introduction
 - a. steepest descent can converge slow due to repeated searching in the same direction, i.e. overlapping components in the search direction
 - b. <u>conjugate gradient method</u> avoids repeated searches in the same direction making it faster than steepest descent
 - c. steepest descent in vector notation $\vec{x}_{k+1} = \vec{x}_k + \vec{s}_k \alpha$ where the search direction is $\vec{s}_k = -\nabla f(\vec{x}_k)$ and α comes from the 1D minimization of $F(\alpha) = f(\vec{x}(\alpha)) = f(\vec{x}_k + \vec{s}_k \alpha)$
 - d. use $\vec{s}_o = -\nabla f(\vec{x}_o)$ so the first step is the same for both methods

e. then
$$\vec{s}_{k+1} = -\nabla f(\vec{x}_{k+1}) + \frac{\nabla f(\vec{x}_{k+1})^T \nabla f(\vec{x}_{k+1})}{\nabla f(\vec{x}_k)^T \nabla f(\vec{x}_k)} \vec{s}_k$$

- f. theoretically, the exact solution is obtained after at most n (# of dimensions) iterations for quadratic functions
- g. because of numerical errors, every *n* iterations, start over with $\vec{s}_k = -\nabla f(\vec{x}_k)$
- h. The conjugate gradient method covers more than just optimization, e.g. we'll use it later as an iterative solver to aid in solving PDE's