

# Week 6, lectures 2-3

- Trust-region methods
- Global optimization

Cauchy - Point Method (§7.6)

EXAM

Approximate the cost function at each iteration  $x_k$  as a quadratic problem:

$$\begin{aligned} f(x_k + p) &\approx f_k + \langle g, p \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \langle p, B p \rangle \\ &= m_k(p) \end{aligned}$$

The approximation is valid in the ~~is~~ trust region where

$$\|p\|_2 \leq \Delta.$$

At each iteration, we minimize:

$$p_* = \arg \min_{\|p\|_2 \leq \Delta} m_k(p)$$

Theorem 7.1 tells us how to solve for  $p_*$  exactly.

\* Cauchy Point Method  
\* Dogleg Method } Approximate solutions

The idea behind the Cauchy-Point Method:

If  $\Delta$  is very small, and  $\|p\|_2 \leq \Delta$ , then  
the quadratic term in  $m_k(p)$  is negligible, and

$$m_k(p) \approx f_k + \langle g, p \rangle$$

To minimize this, we take \*

$$p \propto -g.$$

We place  $p^*$  on the trust-region boundary  
to obtain

$$p_{\text{temp}} = -\frac{\Delta}{\|g\|_2} g$$

We next look at  $p^* = \tau p_{\text{temp}}$  where  
 $\tau$  is to be determined, and where  $\tau$   
solves :

$$\tau = \arg \min_{\tau > 0} m_k(\tau p_{\text{temp}}).$$

We compute  $\tau$ .

$$\begin{aligned} m_k(\tau p_{\text{temp}}) &= f_k + \tau \langle g, p_{\text{temp}} \rangle \\ &\quad + \frac{1}{2} \tau^2 \langle p_{\text{temp}}, B p_{\text{temp}} \rangle \end{aligned}$$

We use  $P_{\text{temp}} = -\left(\frac{\Delta}{\|g\|_2}\right) \bar{g}$ :

$$m_k(\tau P_{\text{temp}}) = f_k + \tau \langle \bar{g}, \bar{g} \rangle \left(-\frac{\Delta}{\|g\|_2}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \tau^2 \left(\frac{-\Delta}{\|g\|_2}\right)^2 \langle \bar{g}, B\bar{g} \rangle.$$

Hence:

$$m_k(\tau P_{\text{temp}}) = f_k - \tau \Delta \frac{\|g\|_2}{\|g\|_2} + \frac{1}{2} \tau^2 \frac{\Delta^2}{\|g\|_2^2} \langle \bar{g}, B\bar{g} \rangle.$$

$\underbrace{\qquad\qquad\qquad}_{Q(\tau)}$

We find the  $\tau$  which minimizes  $Q(\tau)$ .

Two cases:

Case 1:  $\langle \bar{g}, B\bar{g} \rangle \leq 0$ . Then, take  $\tau = 1$ , to make  $Q(\tau)$  as negative as possible. Hence,  $P = \tau P_{\text{temp}}$ ,  $\tau = 1$ ,

so

$$\boxed{P = -\frac{\Delta}{\|g\|_2} \bar{g}}$$

Case 2:  $\langle \bar{g}, B\bar{g} \rangle > 0$ . Look at  $Q'(\tau)$ :

$$Q'(\tau) = -\Delta \|g\|_2 + \tau \frac{\Delta^2}{\|g\|_2^2} \langle \bar{g}, B\bar{g} \rangle.$$

To find the min, set  $Q'(\tau) = 0$ .

Hence:

$$\bar{\tau} = \frac{\Delta \|g\|_2^3}{\Delta^2 \langle g, Bg \rangle}$$

Or  $\bar{\tau} = \frac{\|g\|_2^3}{\Delta \langle g, Bg \rangle}$

We require  $0 \leq \bar{\tau} \leq 1$ , to keep  $R$  in the trust region. Hence:

$$\tau = \min \left( 1, \frac{\|g\|_2^3}{\Delta \langle g, Bg \rangle} \right)$$

Summarizing, the Cauchy point is:

$$\boxed{P_{\text{Cauchy}} = -\bar{\tau} \frac{\Delta}{\|g\|_2^2} g}$$

where

$$\tau = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \langle g, Bg \rangle \leq 0 \\ \min \left( 1, \frac{\|g\|_2^3}{\Delta \langle g, Bg \rangle} \right) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Drawback of the Cauchy-Point Method:

$$P_{\text{Cauchy}} \alpha = -g.$$

An obvious choice for  $g$  is  $Df_k$ . This

gives us back the steepest-descent method

(poor convergence,  $\|x_{k+1} - x^*\| \leq C \|x_k - x^*\|^{\frac{1}{2}}$ )

$$p_* = \arg \min_{\|p\|_2 \leq \Delta} M_k(p) \quad (1)$$

A better approximate solution to (1) is given by the Dog-Leg Method (Ch. 8).

If we could momentarily forget that (1) is a constrained minimization, we would compute

$$\nabla_p M_k(p) = 0 \Rightarrow p = -B^{-1}g.$$

Notice,  $p = -B^{-1}g$  is the Newton descent direction,  $p^{\text{Newton}}$ . If  $\|p^{\text{Newton}}\|_2 \leq \Delta$ , then  $p^{\text{Newton}}$  solves (1).

So the idea of the Dog-Leg Method is to accept  $\beta^{\text{Newton}}$  as the solution of (1) in cases when  $\|\beta^{\text{Newton}}\|_2 \leq \Delta$ . Otherwise, when  $\|\beta^{\text{Newton}}\|_2 > \Delta$ , we construct an approximate solution of (1) using a linear combination of  $\beta^{\text{Cauchy}}$  and  $\beta^{\text{Newton}}$ :

$$\beta_* \approx \underbrace{\beta^{\text{Cauchy}} + \alpha (\beta^{\text{Newton}} - \beta^{\text{Cauchy}})}_{\beta^{\text{approx}}}$$

where  $\alpha \in [0,1]$ .

We just have to find  $\alpha$  such that  $\|\beta^{\text{approx}}\|_2 \leq \Delta$ .

In Section 8.2 we show that such an  $\alpha$ -value can always be found. Here, we attempt to find an  $\alpha$  such that

$$\|\beta^{\text{approx}}\|_2 = \Delta,$$

$$\text{or } \|\beta^{\text{approx}}\|_2^2 = \Delta^2,$$

$$\text{or } \langle \beta^{\text{approx}}, \beta^{\text{approx}} \rangle = \Delta^2.$$

Hence, we seek solutions  $\alpha$  such that

$$\langle \mathbf{P}_{\text{approx}}, \mathbf{P}_{\text{approx}} \rangle = \Delta^2.$$

$$\Rightarrow \left\langle \mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}} + \alpha (\mathbf{P}_{\text{Newton}} - \mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}}), \mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}} + \alpha (\mathbf{P}_{\text{Newton}} - \mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}}) \right\rangle = \Delta^2.$$

$$\Rightarrow \|\mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}}\|_2^2 + 2\alpha \langle \mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}}, \mathbf{P}_{\text{Newton}} - \mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}} \rangle + \alpha^2 \|\mathbf{P}_{\text{Newton}} - \mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}}\|_2^2 = \Delta^2.$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} & \underbrace{\alpha^2 \|\mathbf{P}_{\text{Newton}} - \mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}}\|_2^2}_a + \underbrace{2\alpha \langle \mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}}, \mathbf{P}_{\text{Newton}} - \mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}} \rangle}_b + \underbrace{\|\mathbf{P}_{\text{Cauchy}}\|_2^2 - \Delta^2}_c = 0. \end{aligned}$$

Solve for  $\alpha$ :

$$\alpha = \frac{-2b \pm \sqrt{4b^2 - 4ac}}{2a}$$

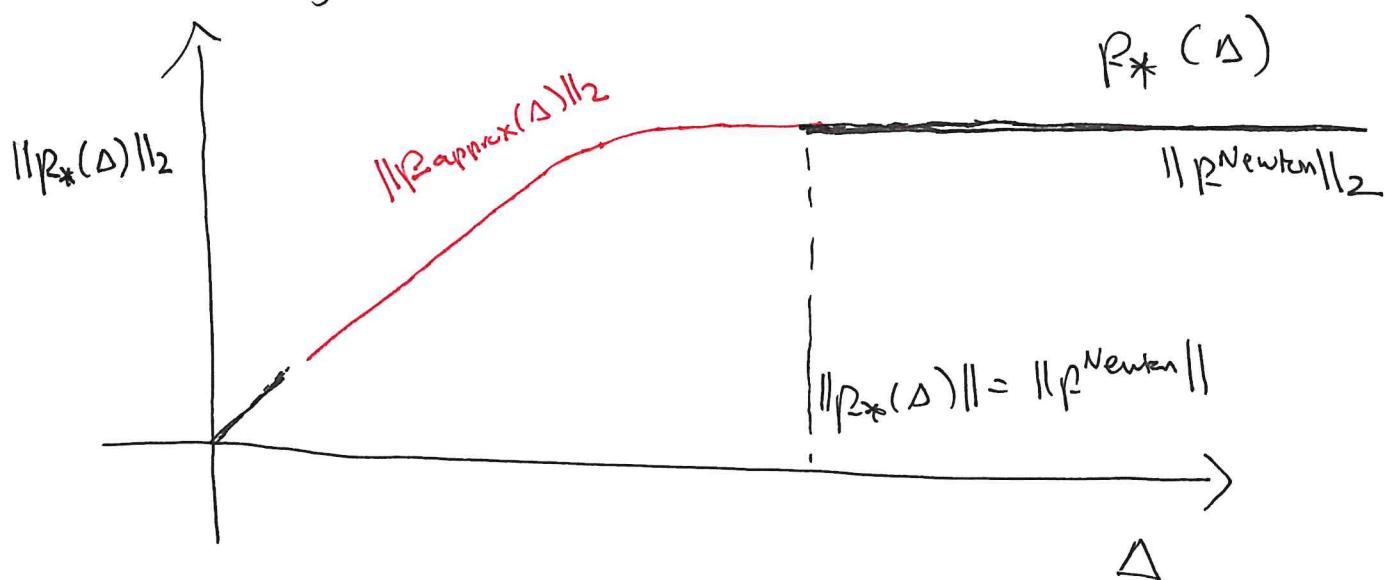
$$\Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - ac}}{a}$$

We require  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , hence  $b^2 - ac \geq 0$ .

But notice,  $C = \|P_{\text{Cauchy}}\|_2^2 - \Delta^2 \leq 0$ .

Hence,  $b^2 - ac \geq 0$ . Hence, a real solution for  $\alpha$  exists, giving the Dog-Leg Method.

Reason for the Name:



Key point in favour of the dogleg method:

$$\|x_{k+1} - x_*\|_2 \leq C \|x_k - x_*\|^{1+\epsilon}, \epsilon > 0.$$

i.e. superlinear convergence.

# Extension to non-positive-definite $B$ (§ 8.5)

## Three Cases

1. When  $B$  is positive-definite, we solve (1) in an approximate sense by doing a 2D subspace minimization:

$$p_* = \arg \min_{p} m_h(p), \text{ subject to}$$
$$p \in \text{Span}(g, B^{-1}g), \text{ and}$$
$$\|p\|_h \leq \Delta.$$

$$\alpha g + \beta B^{-1}g$$

2. When  $B$  has a zero eigenvalue but no negative eigenvalues, take

$$p_* \approx p_{\text{Cauchy}}$$

3. When  $B$  has negative eigenvalues, we solve (1) again in an approximate sense by doing another 2D subspace minimization, over

$$p \in \text{Span}(g, (B + \alpha I)^{-1}g),$$

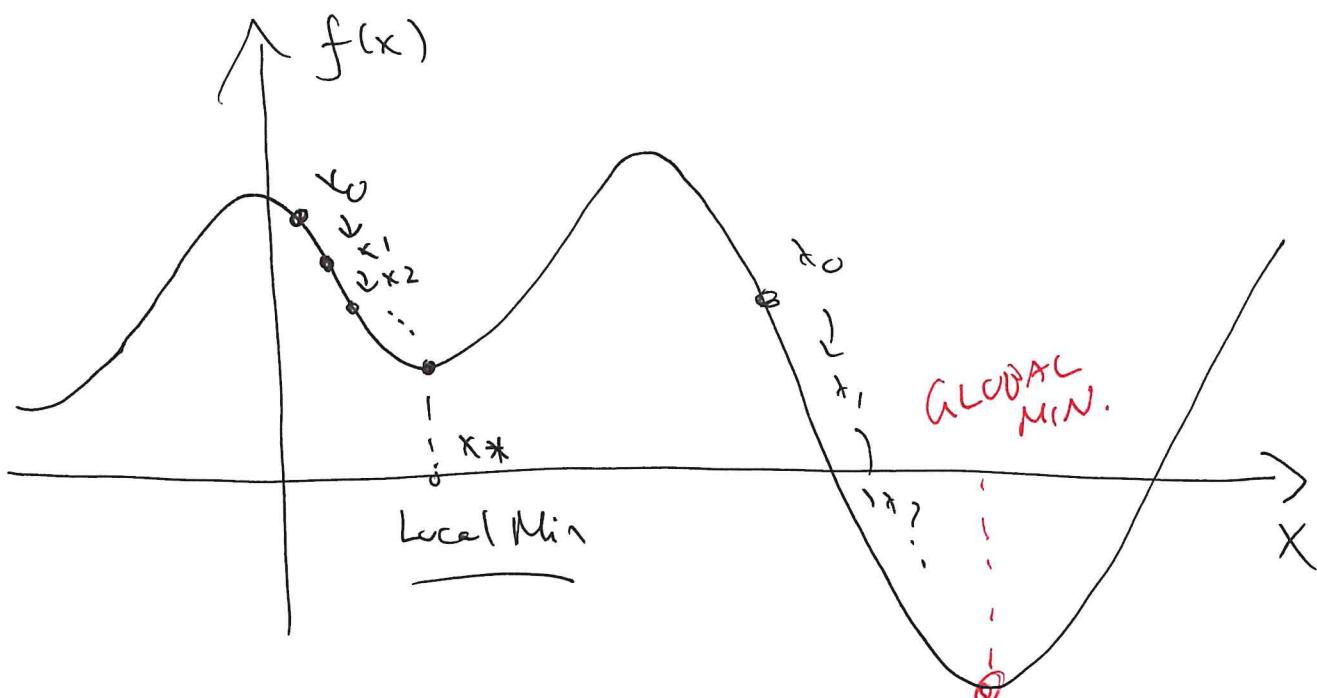
where  $\alpha \in (-\lambda_1, -2\lambda_1]$ , and where  $\lambda_1$  is the most negative eigenvalue.

This perturbation makes  $B + \alpha I$  positive-definite.

## Week 6, Lecture 3

### Global Optimization via Simulated Annealing (Ch. 17).

Motivation — Descent Methods stop when a local min is reached



- \* We want to find a numerical method that finds the global min, regardless of the value of  $x_0$ , the starting-point.
- \* Global methods like Simulated Annealing, Genetic Algorithms, and Particle Swarm Optimization are robust in another sense as well, as they can deal with non-differentiable cost functions — No differentiation is required.

The idea behind Simulated Annealing (SA) comes from physics. Consider a system (= collection of particles) with  $n$  continuous degrees of freedom. A vector  $\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  therefore describes the state of the system. The energy  $E$  of the system is a map from the phase space  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to the real numbers:

$$\begin{aligned} E : \mathbb{R}^n &\rightarrow \mathbb{R} \\ \underline{x} &\mapsto E(\underline{x}) . \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

We want to find the probability  $dP$  of finding the system in a small region of phase space of volume  $d^n x$ , centred at  $\underline{x}$ :

$$dP = p(\underline{x}) d^n x . \quad (2)$$

Here,  $p(\underline{x})$  is the probability distribution function,  $p(\underline{x}) \geq 0$ , and

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^n} p(\underline{x}) d^n x = 1 . \quad (3)$$

The energy of the system is thus:

$$\bar{E} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} E(x) p(x) d^n x . \quad (4)$$

The entropy of the system is given by the Boltzmann formula:

$$S = - \int_{\mathbb{R}^n} p(x) \log p(x) d^n x . \quad (5)$$

The required p.d.f.  $p(x)$  is the one that maximizes the entropy.

$$\begin{aligned} \tilde{S} &= - \int p \log p d^n x \\ &\quad - \beta \left( \int E(x) p(x) d^n x - \bar{E} \right) \\ &\quad + \alpha \left( \int p(x) d^n x - 1 \right) \end{aligned}$$

Look at small variations in  $p$ :  $p \rightarrow p + \delta p$ .

This gives corresponding variations in  $\tilde{S}$ ,  $\tilde{S} \rightarrow \tilde{S} + \delta \tilde{S}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \delta \tilde{S} &= - \int \underline{\delta(p \log p)} d^n x \\ &\quad - \beta \left( \int E \delta p d^n x - \cancel{\bar{E}} \right) \\ &\quad + \alpha \left( \int \delta p d^n x \right) . \end{aligned}$$

i.e.  $\delta \tilde{S}$  is the change in  $\tilde{S}$  after replacing  $p$  with  $p + \delta p$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\delta(p \log p) &= \delta p \log p + p \delta \log p \\ &= \delta p \log p + \cancel{R} \frac{\delta p}{\cancel{R}} \\ &= \delta p \log p + \delta p.\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\delta \tilde{S} &= - \int \delta p (\log p + 1) d^N x \\ &\quad - \beta \int E \delta p d^N x \stackrel{+}{=} \alpha \int \delta p.\end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta \tilde{S} = - \int \underbrace{\delta p [\log p + 1 + \beta E - \alpha]}_{0} d^N x.$$

$$\delta \tilde{S} = 0 \text{ at max entropy}.$$

$$\text{Hence } [\dots] = 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow \log p + 1 + \beta E - \alpha = 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow \log p = -\beta E + (\alpha - 1).$$

$$\Rightarrow p = e^{-\beta E} e^{\alpha - 1}.$$

$$1 = \int p(x) d^n x = \left( \int e^{-\beta E(x)} d^n x \right) e^{\alpha-1}.$$

This fixes  $\alpha$ . Hence:

$$p(x) = \frac{e^{-\beta E(x)}}{\int e^{-\beta E(x)} d^n x}$$

$$Z = \int e^{-\beta E(x)} d^n x \quad \text{PARTITION FUNCTION}$$

$$\boxed{p(x) = \frac{e^{-\beta E(x)}}{Z}}$$

BOLTZMANN  
DISTRIBUTION

Sub back into  $S$ :

$$\begin{aligned} S &= - \int p(x) \log p(x) d^n x + \beta (\dots) \\ &\quad + \alpha (\dots) \\ &= - \int p \log p d^n x \\ &= - \int \frac{e^{-\beta E(x)}}{Z} \left[ \log \frac{e^{-\beta E}}{Z} \right] d^n x \\ &= - \int \frac{e^{-\beta E}}{Z} \left[ -\beta E - \log Z \right] d^n x. \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{S} = \beta \left( \frac{1}{Z} \int e^{-\beta E} E d^n x \right) + \log Z \underbrace{\frac{1}{Z} \int e^{-\beta E} d^n x}_{=1} = \beta \bar{E} + \log Z.$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{S_{max} = \beta \bar{E} + \log Z}$$

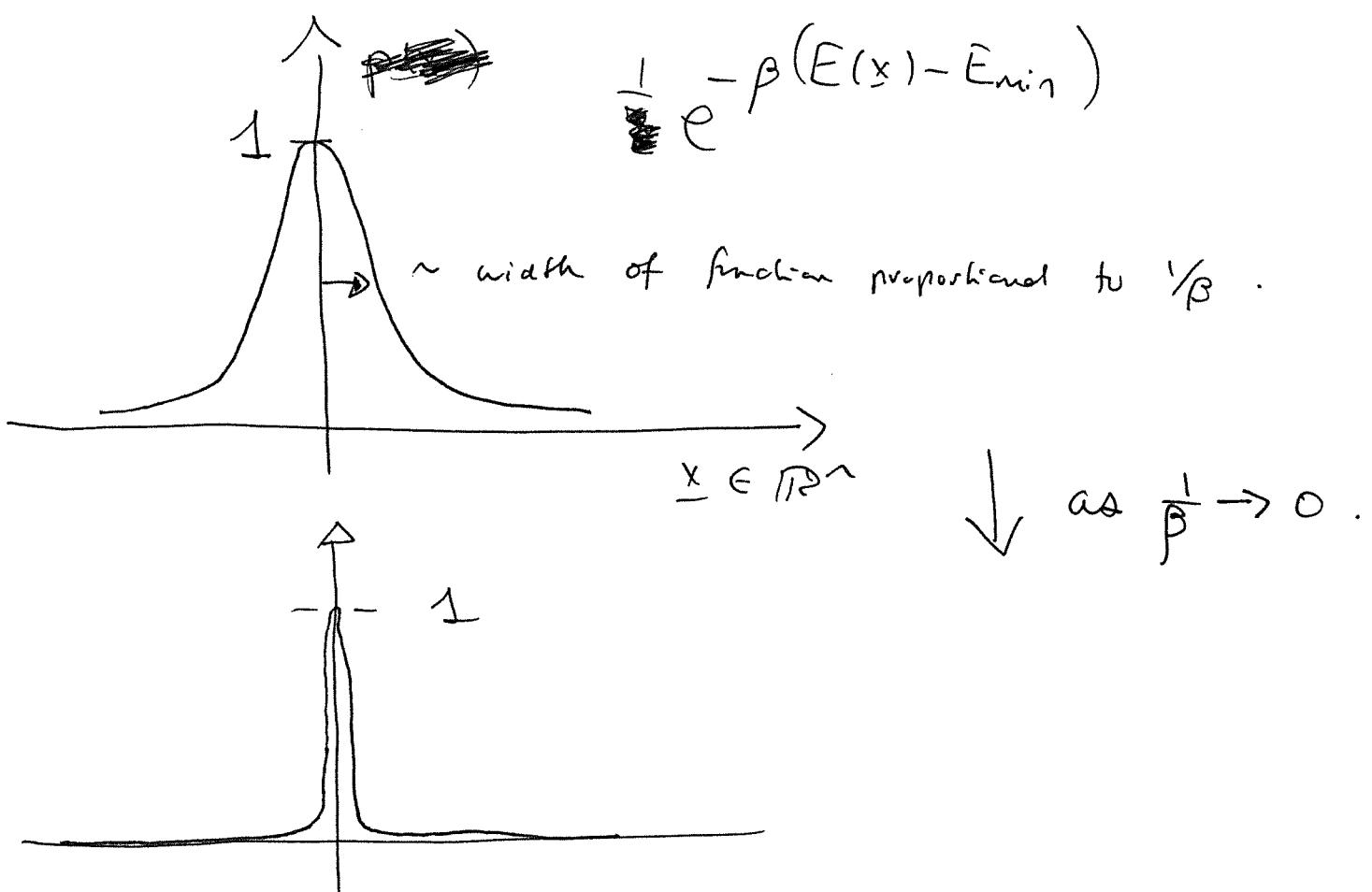
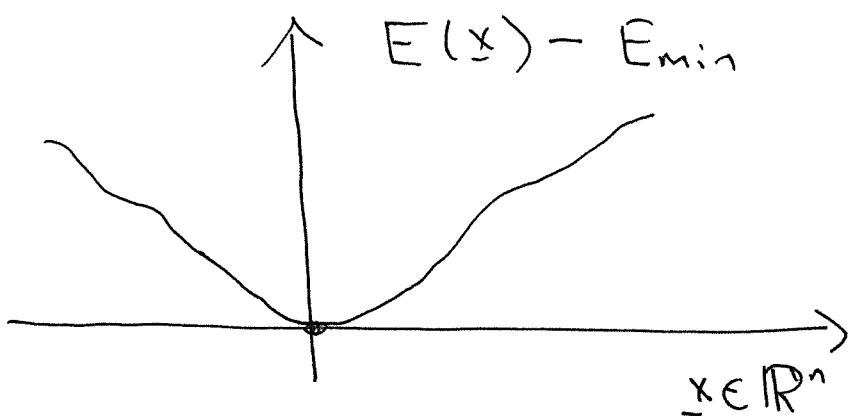
$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \log Z}{\partial \beta} &= \frac{1}{Z} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial \beta} \\ &= \frac{1}{Z} \underbrace{\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \int e^{-\beta E(x)} d^n x}_{= - \frac{1}{Z} \int e^{-\beta E} E d^n x} \\ &= - \underbrace{\frac{1}{Z} \int e^{-\beta E} E d^n x}_{= -\bar{E}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\bar{E} = - \frac{\partial \log Z}{\partial \beta}}$$

$\beta = \frac{1}{T}$ ,  $T = \text{temperature}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} S_{max} &= \beta \bar{E} + \log Z \\ \Rightarrow \beta &= \frac{\partial S_{max}}{\partial \bar{E}} \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{1}{T} = \frac{\partial S_{max}}{\partial \bar{E}}} \end{aligned}$$

Let's suppose that  $E(\underline{x})$  has a global min;  
 & call it  $E_{\min}$ .



Hence,

$$\frac{e^{-\beta(E(\underline{x}) - E_{\min})}}{Z} \rightarrow \delta(\underline{x} - \underline{x}_*)$$

where  $E(\underline{x}_*) = E_{\min}$ .

This is the idea of the quench: as the system is cooled to  $T=0$ , it goes into the minimum-energy state.

So, if we can simulate this quench on a computer, and view  $E(x)$  as the cost function to be minimized, the simulated system reaches a state which minimizes  $E(x)$  — hence, the global min  $x^*$  of  $E(x)$  can be computed.

This is the simulated-annealing algorithm.

Plan:

- Online lecture on SA algorithm
- Convergence proof.

Next Thursday

- Practical Session — Coding exercises on S.A.  
(Exercises #4)
- Structure of midterm exam.



(How to compute  $\delta S$ )

$$\hat{S}[p] = - \int p \log p d^n x + \dots$$

$$\tilde{S}[p + \delta p] = - \int (p + \delta p) \log(p + \delta p) d^n x + \dots$$

$$\tilde{S}[p + \delta p] - \hat{S}[p] = \delta \tilde{S}.$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta \tilde{S} = - \int \frac{(p + \delta p) \log(p + \delta p)}{p \log p} d^n x + \dots$$

$$+ \int p \log p d^n x + \dots$$

$$= - \int [(p + \delta p) \log(p + \delta p) - p \log p] d^n x + \dots$$

$$= - \int \left\{ (p + \delta p) \log \left[ p \left( 1 + \frac{\delta p}{p} \right) \right] - p \log p \right\} d^n x + \dots$$

$$= - \int \left\{ (p + \delta p) \left[ \log p + \log \left( 1 + \frac{\delta p}{p} \right) \right] - p \log p \right\} d^n x$$

$$= - \int \left\{ (p + \delta p) \left[ \log p + \frac{\delta p}{p} \right] - p \log p \right\} d^n x + \dots$$

$$= - \int [\delta p \log p + \delta p] d^n x + \dots$$