

# Mathematical modelling

Lecture 5, March 15, 2022

Faculty of Computer and Information Science  
University of Ljubljana

2021/22

## Newton optimization method:

We would like to find the extrema of the function  $F : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ .

Since the extrema are *critical (or stationary) points*, the candidates are zeroes of the gradient, i.e.,

$$G(x) := \text{grad } F(x) = [ F_{x_1}(x) \quad \cdots \quad F_{x_n}(x) ] = 0. \quad (1)$$

(1) is a system of  $n$  equations for  $n$  variables, the Jacobian of the vector function  $G$  is the so called Hessian of  $F$ :

$$DG(x) = H(x) = \begin{bmatrix} F_{x_1x_1} & \cdots & F_{x_1x_n} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ F_{x_nx_1} & \cdots & F_{x_nx_n} \end{bmatrix}.$$

If the sequence of iterates

$$x_0, \quad x_{k+1} = x_k - H^{-1}(x_k)G(x_k)$$

converges, the limit is a critical point of  $F$ , i.e., a candidate for the minimum (or maximum).

# Gradient descent

Optimization methods can also be used to ensure a **sufficiently accurate starting approximation** for the Newton-based techniques. (Like bisection does for a single one-variable equation.)

Finding solutions of the system  $F(x) = 0$ , where

$$F = [F_1, \dots, F_n]^T : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^n$$

is equivalent to finding **global minima** of

$$g(x) := \|F\|^2 = F_1(x)^2 + \dots + F_n(x)^2 : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}.$$

We search for the local minima (**which are not necessarily global minima!**) of  $g$  as follows:

1. Choose  $x_0$ .
2. Determine the constant  $\alpha$  in  $x_r - \alpha \cdot \text{grad}(g(x_r))$  which minimizes

$$h(\alpha) = g(x_r - \alpha \cdot \text{grad}(g(x_r))).$$

(Or is significantly smaller than  $h(0) = g(x_r)$ .)

3.  $x_{r+1} = x_r - \alpha \cdot \text{grad}(g(x_r))$ .

## Quasi-Newtonov methods: Broyden's method

- ▶ For large  $n$ , the Newton's method is very expensive, since we need to evaluate  $n^2$  partial derivatives at each step and use  $\mathcal{O}(n^3)$  flops (+, -, ·, :) to solve the linear system.
- ▶ Broyden's method avoids computing derivatives. For  $n = m = 1$  it replaces the tangent by a secant through the last two iterates. It mimicks this idea also for larger  $n = m$ .

Let  $B_r$  be an approximate for  $J_f(x_r)$ . **Broyden's method** works as follows:

1. Solve  $B_r \Delta x_r = -f(x_r)$ ,
2.  $x_{r+1} = x_r + \Delta x_r$ ,
3. Determine  $B_{r+1}$ .

The last step searches for a matrix  $B_{r+1}$ , which fulfils the **secant condition**:

$$B_{r+1}(x_{r+1} - x_r) = f(x_{r+1}) - f(x_r)$$

and is the closest to  $B_r$  in the spectral norm  $\|\cdot\|_2$ .

It turns out that

$$B_{r+1} = B_r + \frac{f(x_{r+1})(\Delta x_r)^T}{\|\Delta x_r\|_2^2}.$$

## Application on the microwave oven example

Recall from above the microwave oven example. The system of equations for the parameters  $\alpha$ ,  $a$ ,  $b$  is:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\alpha}{1 + \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}} - 0.27 &= 0 \\ \frac{\alpha}{1 + \sqrt{(1-a)^2 + (1-b)^2}} - 0.36 &= 0 \\ \frac{\alpha}{1 + \sqrt{a^2 + (2-b)^2}} - 0.3 &= 0.\end{aligned}$$

<https://zalara.github.io/Algoritmi/newtonsys.m>

<https://zalara.github.io/Algoritmi/broyden.m>

[https://zalara.github.io/Algoritmi/gradient\\_descent.m](https://zalara.github.io/Algoritmi/gradient_descent.m)

[https://zalara.github.io/Algoritmi/test\\_newtonsys\\_2.m](https://zalara.github.io/Algoritmi/test_newtonsys_2.m)

### Newton's method for $m > n > 0$

We have an overdetermined system

$$f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, \quad f(x) = (0, \dots, 0) \quad (2)$$

of  $m$  nonlinear equations for  $n$  unknowns, where  $m > n$ .

The system (2) generally does not have a solution, so we are looking for a solution of (2) by the least squares method, i.e.,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that the distance of  $f(\alpha)$  from the origin is the smallest possible:

$$\|f(\alpha)\|^2 = \min\{\|f(x)\|^2\}.$$

The [Gauss-Newton method](#) is a generalization of the Newton's method, where instead of the inverse of the Jacobian its MP inverse is used at each step:

$$x_0 \dots \text{initial approximation}, \quad x_{k+1} = x_k - Df(x_k)^+ f(x_k),$$

where  $Df(x_k)^+$  is the MP inverse of  $Df(x_k)$ . If the matrix

$(Df(x_k)^T Df(x_k))$  is nonsingular at each step  $k$ , then

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - (Df(x_k)^T Df(x_k))^{-1} Df(x_k)^T f(x_k).$$

At each step  $x_{k+1}$  is the least squares approximation to the solution of the overdetermined linear system  $L_{x_k}(x) = 0$ , that is,

$$\|L_{x_k}(x_{k+1})\|^2 = \min\{\|L_{x_k}(x)\|^2, x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}.$$

Convergence is not guaranteed, but:

- ▶ if the sequence  $x_k$  converges, the limit  $x = \lim_k x_k$  is a local (but not necessarily global) minimum of  $\|f(x)\|^2$ .

It follows that the Gauss-Newton method is an algorithm for the local minimum of  $\|f(x)\|^2$ .

## Example

We are given point  $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^2$  for  $i = 1, \dots, m$  and are searching for the function

$$f(x, a, b) = ae^{bx}$$

which fits this data best by the method of least squares.

So we have the overdetermined system  $F(a, b) = 0$ , where

$$F : \mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, \quad F(a, b) = (y_1 - ae^{bx_1}, \dots, y_m - ae^{bx_m}).$$

The Jacobian of  $F$  is

$$DF(a, b) = \begin{bmatrix} -e^{bx_1} & ax_1 e^{bx_1} \\ \vdots & \vdots \\ -e^{bx_m} & ax_m e^{bx_m} \end{bmatrix}.$$

Using the Gauss-Newton method:

- ▶ We choose initial approximation  $(a_0, b_0)$ .
- ▶ Calculate iterates

$$\begin{bmatrix} a_{r+1} \\ b_{r+1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a_r \\ b_r \end{bmatrix} - DF(a_r, b_r)^+ F(a_r, b_r)^T.$$



## Chapter 4:

# Curves and surfaces

### ▶ Curves

- ▶ Definition and examples
- ▶ Derivative
- ▶ Arc length and the natural parametrization
- ▶ Curvature
- ▶ Plotting plane curves
- ▶ Area bounded by plane curves
- ▶ Curves in the polar form
- ▶ Motion in  $\mathbb{R}^3$

### ▶ Surfaces

- ▶ Definition and examples
- ▶ Cartesian, cylindrical and spherical coordinates
- ▶ Surface of revolution
- ▶ Tangent plane

## Curves - definition and examples

A parametric curve (or parametrized curve) in  $\mathbb{R}^m$  is a vector function

$$f : I \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m, \quad f(t) = \begin{bmatrix} f_1(t) \\ \vdots \\ f_m(t) \end{bmatrix},$$

where  $I \subset \mathbb{R}$  is a bounded or unbounded interval.

The independent variable (in this case  $t$ ) is the parameter of the curve.

For every value  $t \in I$ ,  $f(t)$  represents a **point** in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

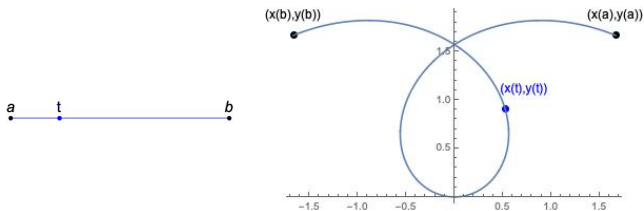
As  $t$  runs through  $I$ ,  $f(t)$  **traces a path**, or a **curve**, in  $\mathbb{R}^m$ .

If  $m = 2$ , then for every  $t \in I$ ,

$$f(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x(t) \\ y(t) \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{r}(t)$$

is the position vector of a point in the plane  $\mathbb{R}^2$ .

All points  $\{f(t), t \in I\}$  form a plane curve:

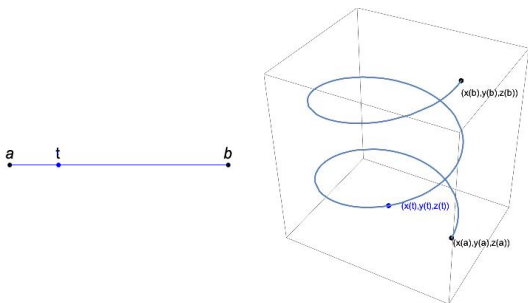


In this example  $x(t) = t \cos t, y(t) = t \sin t, t \in [-3\pi/4, 3\pi/4]$

If  $m = 3$ , then

$$f(t) = \begin{bmatrix} x(t) \\ y(t) \\ z(t) \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{r}(t)$$

is the position vector of a point in  $\mathbb{R}^3$  for every  $t$ , and  $\{f(t), t \in I\}$  is a space curve:



In this example  $x(t) = \cos t, y(t) = \sin t, z(t) = t/5, t \in [0, 4\pi]$

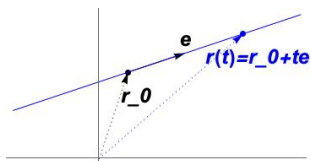
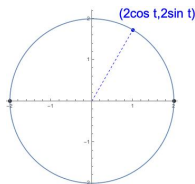
## Example

$$f(t) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cos t \\ 2 \sin t \end{bmatrix}, t \in [0, 2\pi]$$

a circle with radius 2 and center (0, 0)

$$f(t) = \mathbf{r}_0 + t\mathbf{e}, t \in \mathbb{R},$$
$$\mathbf{r}_0, \mathbf{e} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \mathbf{e} \neq \mathbf{0}$$

line through  $\mathbf{r}_0$  in the direction of  $\mathbf{e}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^m$



$m=2$ :

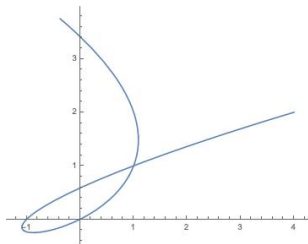
slope  $k = e_2/e_1$  if  $e_1 \neq 0$

vertical if  $\mathbf{e} = (0, e_2)$

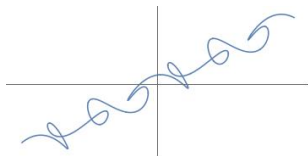
horizontal if  $\mathbf{e} = (e_1, 0)$

## Example

$$f(t) = \begin{bmatrix} t^3 - 2t \\ t^2 - t \end{bmatrix}, t \in \mathbb{R}$$



$$f(t) = \begin{bmatrix} t + \sin(3t) \\ t + \cos(5t) \end{bmatrix}, t \in \mathbb{R}$$



A parametric curve  $f(t)$ ,  $t \in [a, b]$  is closed if  $f(a) = f(b)$ .

### Example

$$f(t) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos 3t \\ \sin 5t \end{bmatrix}, t \in [0, 2\pi]$$

