# Introduction to Structural Optimization

Raymond Atta-Fynn (University of Texas, Arlington) NSF Summer School on Disordered Materials Modeling *Summer 2019* attafynn@uta.edu



# **Outline**

• What is structural optimization?

- Optimization algorithms
	- Steepest descent algorithm
	- Conjugate gradient algorithm
	- Monte Carlo method

• Closing remarks

### What is structural optimization?

Structural optimization is the process of using computer algorithms to minimize the energy of an atomistic structure.

Specifically, the atomic positions are displaced sequentially [following a set of rules] until a minimum energy state is reached.

- An atomistic structure is a set atoms with well-defined positions (or coordinates).
- Several properties of an atomistic structure are best described when the structure is in a minimum energy state; this is a major reason why structural optimization is performed

- Goal of structural optimization: Minimize the total energy  $E$  of a set of  $N$  atoms with respect to the atomic positions  $\{r_1, r_2,..., r_N\} \equiv \{(x_1, y_1, z_1), (x_2, y_2, z_2), (x_N, y_N, z_N)\}.$
- E is a function of  $\{r_1, r_2,..., r_N\}$ , that is:  $E \equiv E(r_1, r_2,..., r_N)$ . E depends on 3N variables.
- $\bullet$  The condition for E to be a minimum is:

$$
\nabla E(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N) = \mathbf{0} \qquad [1]
$$

where  $\nabla E$  is a *vector known as the gradient* of E given by:

$$
\nabla E = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial \mathbf{r}_1}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial \mathbf{r}_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial E}{\partial \mathbf{r}_N}\right) = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_1}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial x_2}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_2}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial x_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial E}{\partial x_N}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_N}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial x_N}\right)
$$

Thus equation  $\lceil 1 \rceil$  is equivalent to solving the 3N equations:

$$
\frac{\partial E}{\partial \mathbf{r}_1} = 0; \frac{\partial E}{\partial \mathbf{r}_2} = 0; \dots \dots \frac{\partial E}{\partial \mathbf{r}_N} = 0
$$

- Example: Consider a system with  $N = 2$  atoms. Suppose that atom 1 is located at position  ${\bf r}_1 = (x_1, 0, 0)$  and atom 2 is located at  ${\bf r}_2 = (x_2, 0, 0)$
- Suppose the (hypothetical) energy  $E$  of the 2-particle system is given by:  $E(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 - 2x_1x_2 - 2x_1 - x_2 + 6$
- $\bullet$  A plot of E is shown below:



- Given the energy of a 2-atom system:  $E(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + 2x_2^2 2x_1x_2 2x_1 x_2 + 6$
- We want to minimize E with respect to  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ . The conditions are:

$$
\frac{\partial E}{\partial x_1} = 2x_1 - 2x_2 - 2 = 0
$$
  

$$
\frac{\partial E}{\partial x_2} = 4x_2 - 2x_1 - 1 = 0
$$

 $\bullet$  The solutions to the equations are:

 $x_1 = 2.5$  and  $x_2 = 1.5$ ;

• The minimum energy is  $E(2.5, 1.5) = 2.75$  [red dot is  $(2.5, 1.5, 2.75)]$ 



#### Raymond Atta-Fynn

#### 6/3/2019 **I** Raymond Atta-Fynn **Introduction** to Structural Optimization **6** 6

- $\bullet$  Now consider a more realistic scenario: begin with a random, high energy N-atom structure  $[N = 1000$  in the pictures]
- The energy  $E(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, ..., \mathbf{r}_{1000})$  of the system can be a bit complicated.
	- Optimizing the random structure implies: minimizing the total energy  $E$  by adjusting the positions of the atoms several times to yield an ordered (or semi-ordered), low energy structure.



# Optimization Methods

Optimization problem: Given  $E: R^N \to R$ , minimize E over all possible values of  $\vec{x} \in R^N$ , where  $\vec{x} = (\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N)$ .

### Possible optimization methods

- Gradient based methods
	- Steepest descent method
	- Conjugate gradient method
	- Quasi-Newton methods [will not be discussed]
- Stochastic based methods
	- Metropolis Monte Carlo method
	- Particle swarm/population based methods [will not be discussed]

### **Optimization Methods**

First a quick refresher on Taylor series: Suppose that  $x$  is a one-dimensional variable and  $x_0$  is a constant. If the scalar function E is differentiable, then the Taylor expansion of  $E(x + a)$  is

$$
E(x + x_0) = E(x_0) + x \frac{dE}{dx}\bigg|_{x = x_0} + x^2 \frac{d^2E}{dx^2}\bigg|_{x = x_0} + \dots = E(x_0) + x\overline{V}E(x_0) + x^2\overline{V}^2E(x_0) + \dots
$$

Now suppose that  $\vec{x}$  is an N-dimensional variable vector and  $\vec{x}_0$  is a constant vector. Then

$$
E(\vec{x} + \vec{x}_0) = E(\vec{x}_0) + \vec{x} \cdot E(\vec{x}_0) + \vec{x}^{\mathrm{T}} \cdot \nabla^2 E(\vec{x}_0) \cdot \vec{x} + \cdots
$$

### Steepest descent in 1-dimension

- Suppose we want to minimize a 1-dimensional function  $E(x)$ .
- Given an initial point  $x_0$ , the direction of steepest descent, i.e. direction of greatest change from  $x_0$  is  $-\nabla E(x_0)$ .
- Key point: if we follow  $-\nabla E$  in a *small enough steps, E* is *guaranteed to decrease*. To see this, consider the first order Taylor expansion of  $E(x_0)$ :  $E(x_0 + \delta x) = E(x_0) + \delta x \nabla E(x_0)$

where  $\delta x$  is a small change in  $x_0$  [ignore  $(\delta x)^2$  and higher powers]

• If  $\delta x$  is chosen to be  $\delta x = -\alpha \nabla E(x_0)$ , where  $\alpha$  is a **positive parameter called the step** size, then the decrease in  $E$  follows:

$$
E(x_0 + \delta x) = E(x_0) - \alpha |\nabla E(x_0)|^2 < E(x_0)
$$

### Steepest descent in *N*-dimensions

- We want to minimize a *N*-dimensional function  $E(\vec{x})$ , where  $\vec{x} \in R^N$  is a vector of dimension *N*.
- Given an initial point  $\vec{x}_0$ , the direction of steepest descent from  $\vec{x}_0$  is the vector  $-\nabla E(\vec{x}_0)$ .
- Taylor expansion: the first order Taylor expansion of  $E(\vec{x}_0)$ :  $E(\vec{x}_0 + \delta \vec{x}) = E(\vec{x}_0) + \delta \vec{x} \cdot \nabla E(\vec{x}_0)$
- The choice of  $\delta \vec{x} = -\alpha \nabla E(\vec{x}_0)$ , where  $\alpha > 0$ , ensures that E decrease steadily toward the minimum.

### Steepest descent algorithm

```
Pick an initial point \vec{x}_0i \rightarrow 0\alpha \rightarrow 0.5\varepsilon = 0.000001loop
    -\nabla E(\vec{x}_i) \rightarrow \Deltaif |\Delta| < \varepsilon stop
       \alpha \rightarrow 2\alphawhile E(\vec{x}_i + \alpha \Delta) \ge E(\vec{x}_i)\alpha \rightarrow \alpha/2end	while
      \vec{x}_i + \alpha \Delta \rightarrow \vec{x}_{i+1}i + 1 \rightarrow iend	loop
```
Raymond Atta-Fynn

### Steepest descent minimization:  $E(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$

Raymond Atta-Fynn (UT Arlington), NSF Summer School 2019

Bowl Function:  $E(x_1,x_2)=x_1^2+x_2^2$ ; starting point for steepest descent minimization  $(x_1,x_2)=(3,3)$ 

Steepest descent: step #1;  $(x_1,x_2)=(3.000,3.000)$ ; E=18.000000



The minimum value of E is  $E_{min} = 0$ ; this occurs at the location  $(x_1, x_2) = (0,0)$ Left plot: 3D graph.

**Right plot:** corresponding projection onto the 2D plane spanned by  $x_1$ and  $x_2$  (contour plot).

#### Raymond Atta-Fynn

#### 6/3/2019 **I** Raymond Atta-Fynn **Introduction** to Structural Optimization 13

Steepest descent minimization: Rosenbrock function  $E(x_1, x_2) = (1 - x_1)^2 + 100(x_2^2 - x_1)^2$ 

Raymond Atta-Fynn (UT Arlington), NSF Summer School 2019

Rosenbrock function:  $E(x_1,x_2)=(1-x_1)^2+100*(x_2-x_1)^2$ ; minimization starting point  $(x_1,x_2)=(0,2)$ 

Steepest descent: step #1;  $(x_1,x_2)=(0.0000,2.0000)$ ; E=401.0000



The minimum value of the Rosenbrock function is  $E_{min} = 0$ ; this occurs at the  $\text{location } (x_1, x_2) =$  $(1,1)$ 

Left plot: 3D graph.

**Right plot: Contour** plot in the 2D plane spanned by  $x_1$  and  $x_2$ .

#### Raymond Atta-Fynn

Steepest descent advantages

• Easy to implement.

• Many other methods switch to steepest descent when they do not make sufficient progress.

### Steepest descent advantages

• Picking the step size  $\alpha$  is a bit of a dark art. A small  $\alpha$  makes the determination of the solution longer; a large  $\alpha$  can make the algorithm worse

• The convergence of steepest descent algorithms close to the minimum can be quite slow.

Conjugate gradient method

The steepest descent minimization algorithm:

 $\vec{x}_{i+1} = \vec{x}_i - \alpha_i \nabla E(\vec{x}_i) = \vec{x}_0 - \alpha_1 \nabla E(\vec{x}_1) - \alpha_2 \nabla E(\vec{x}_2) - \dots - \alpha_i \nabla E(\vec{x}_i)$ Until  $\nabla E(\vec{x}_{i+1}) \approx 0$ 

where  $i = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

often finds itself taking steps in the same direction as earlier steps.

- This makes the steepest descent method woefully inefficient! It will be more efficient if a step is taken only once (but optimally). This lies at the heart of the conjugate gradient method.
- Original philosophy of conjugate gradient method: pick a set of directions  $\{\vec{d}_0, \vec{d}_1, ...,$  $\vec{d}_{N-1}$ }, known as conjugate directions, such that at only one step is taken along each direction  $\vec{d}_i$  to reach the minimum.

### Conjugate gradient method: exact arithmetics

- For a given function  $E(\vec{x})$  with *N* variables, you are guaranteed to reach the minimum  $E(\vec{x}^*)$  in exactly N steps if  $E(\vec{x})$  is quadratic.
- Specifically, given an initial point  $\vec{x}_0$  and a set of N conjugate directions  $\{\vec{d}_0, \vec{d}_1, ..., \vec{d}_{N-1}\}$ , E attains a minimum at  $\vec{x} = \vec{x}^*$  given by:

$$
\vec{x}^* = \vec{x}_0 + \alpha_0 \vec{d}_0 + \alpha_1 \vec{d}_1 + \dots + \alpha_{N-1} \vec{d}_{N-1} = \vec{x}_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \alpha_i \vec{d}_i
$$

$$
\nabla E(\vec{x}^*) = 0
$$

where  $\alpha_i$  is the step size along the conjugate direction  $\vec{d}_i$ .

- Thus the employment of the conjugate gradient method boils to the determination of the directions  $\{\vec{d}_0, \vec{d}_1, ..., \vec{d}_{N-1}\}$  and the step sizes  $\{\alpha_0, \alpha_1, ..., \alpha_{N-1}\}.$
- Later on, we will present methods for determining  $\{\vec{d}_i\}$  and  $\{\alpha_i\}$ .

### Conjugate gradient method: in practice

• Advantage: The conjugate gradient method is much faster than the steepest descent method; it requires much less steps to converge.

- Disadvantage:
- (i) Its implementation is slightly more involving compared to the steepest descent method;
- (ii) Due to rounding errors, the conjugate gradient method may take longer to converge
- (iii) For highly disordered structures, the conjugate method can fail miserably.
- Implementation: We will present two iterative conjugate gradient methods that can be applied in practice; they are Fletcher–Reeves method and the Polak–Ribiere method.

Fletcher–Reeves and Polak–Ribiere conjugate gradient algorithm

### Step 1

Pick an initial point  $\vec{x}_0$  and calculate  $\vec{g}_0 = \nabla E(\vec{x}_0)$ ; set  $\vec{d}_0 = -\vec{g}_0$ 

Step 2

For  $i = 0, 1, 2, ...$ 

- (a) Find the value of  $\alpha_i$  which minimizes  $E(\vec{x}_i + \alpha_i \vec{d}_i)$
- (b) Set  $\vec{x}_{i+1} = \vec{x}_i + \alpha_i \vec{d}_i$  and compute the gradient  $\vec{g}_{i+1} = \nabla E(\vec{x}_{i+1})$ (c) Test for convergence: if  $|\nabla E(\vec{x}_{i+1})| < \varepsilon$  then stop  $[\varepsilon = 10^{-4}]$ .

(d) Compute the next conjugate direction  $\vec{d}_{i+1}$  given by  $\vec{d}_{i+1} = -\vec{g}_{i+1} + \beta_i \vec{d}_i$ , where

$$
\beta_i = \frac{|\vec{g}_{i+1}|^2}{|\vec{g}_i|^2}
$$
 [Fletcher–Reeves method]

$$
\beta_i = \frac{(\vec{g}_{i+1} - \vec{g}_i) \cdot \vec{g}_{i+1}}{|\vec{g}_i|^2}
$$

[Polak–Ribiere method; preferred ]

### End for

#### Raymond Atta-Fynn

#### 6/3/2019 **Introduction to Structural Optimization** 19

### conjugate gradient method and the steepest descent method comparison: Rosenbrock

Raymond Atta-Fynn (UT Arlington), NSF Summer School 2019

Rosenbrock function:  $E(x_1,x_2)=(1-x_1)^2+100*(x_2-x_1)^2$ ; minimization starting point  $(x_1,x_2)=(0,2)$ 



Conqugate gradient: step #1



Left plot: contour plot of steepest descent minimization; it requires 3300 iterations to converge

Right plot: contour plot of conjugate gradient minimization; it requires only 15 iterations to converge

#### Raymond Atta-Fynn

#### 6/3/2019 **Introduction to Structural Optimization 19th Control 20** and the Uniteduction to Structural Optimization

Stochastic Optimization: Metropolis Monte Carlo Method (MMC)

- The MMC employs *random moves* to minimize a function; it is quite cheap [but not *necessarily efficient*] as no gradients are required. It is based on the concept of Markov chains.
- A sequence of  $N + 1$  successive moves or *events* or *states*  $\vec{x}_0$ ,  $\vec{x}_1$ ,  $\vec{x}_2$  ...  $\vec{x}_{N-1}$ ,  $\vec{x}_N$  form a Markov chain if the present state  $\vec{x}_N$  depends on only the immediate past state  $\vec{x}_{N-1}$ regardless of all the other past states  $\vec{x}_0$ ,  $\vec{x}_1$ ,  $\vec{x}_2$  ...  $\vec{x}_{N-2}$  :

$$
P(\vec{x}_N|\vec{x}_0, \vec{x}_1, \vec{x}_2 \dots \vec{x}_{N-1}) = P(\vec{x}_N|\vec{x}_{N-1})
$$

- $\bullet$  Here  $P(B|A)$  is the conditional probability that the event B occurs given that A has occurred.
- $\bullet$  In Monte Carlo language, the conditional probability  $P(B|A)$  is also known as the *transition probability from event A to event B (A is the present event, while B future event).*

Stochastic Optimization: Metropolis Monte Carlo Method (MMC)

- MMC operates on two key principles, namely, *egordicity* and *detailed balance*.
- **Egordicity:** For a given system, a given state  $\vec{x}_j$  can be reached from the state  $\vec{x}_i$  in a finite number of steps.
- **Detailed balance:** For a given system, the average number of times the state  $\vec{x}_j$  can be reached from the state  $\vec{x_i}$  equals the average number of times  $\vec{x_i}$  can be reached from  $\vec{x_j}.$

### Stochastic Optimization: Metropolis Monte Carlo Method (MMC)

### *Philosophy behind the practical application of MMC minimization*

(i) Suppose that an atomic structure begins in a state with coordinates  $\vec{x}_0$  and energy  $E(\vec{x}_0)$ . We assign a fictitious temperature  $T$  to the system to measure its "hotness."

(ii) Conceptually, **MMC** operates by gradually cooling the system to from a "hot, unstable" state  $\vec{x}_0$  to a "cold, minimum energy" state  $\vec{x}_1$  using random atomic displacements. This "hotto-cool" process in falls under a general minimization method known as *simulated annealing*.

(iii) The transition probability  $P(\vec{x}_1|\vec{x}_0)$  from  $\vec{x}_0$  to  $\vec{x}_1$  is given by the <u>Metropolis criterion</u>:  $P(\vec{x}_1 | \vec{x}_0) = \min(1, e^{-\beta \Delta E})$ 

where  $\beta = 1/(k_B T)$  and  $k_B$  is a fundamental constant known as Boltzmann's constant.

# Optimization Methods

The Metropolis Monte Carlo algorithm

**Step 1:** Pick a fictious temperature  $T$  and begin in an initial state  $\vec{x}_0$  with total energy  $E(\vec{x}_0)$ .

**Step 2:** Generate a new state  $\vec{x}_1$  from  $\vec{x}_0$  via *random* displacements of the atomic positions. Denote the total energy of  $\vec{x}_1$  by  $E(\vec{x}_1)$ .

**Step 3:** Compute the energy difference  $\Delta E = E(\vec{x}_1) - E(\vec{x}_0)$  and compute the transition probability from state  $\vec{x}_0$  to state  $\vec{x}_1$  as  $P(\vec{x}_1|\vec{x}_0) = \min(1, e^{-\beta \Delta E})$ , where  $\beta = 1/(k_B T)$ .

**Step 4:** Generate a uniform random number r such that  $0 \le r < 1$ . (a)If  $r < P(\vec{x}_1 | \vec{x}_0)$ , then replace  $\vec{x}_0$  with  $\vec{x}_1$  and  $E(\vec{x}_0)$  with  $E(\vec{x}_1)$  and go to step 2. (a)If  $r \ge P(\vec{x}_1 | \vec{x}_0)$ , then discard  $\vec{x}_1$  and go to step 2.

**Additional information:** As the simulation proceeds, the temperature  $T$  is gradually reduced. Convergence is established by closely monitoring  $E$ .

### Metropolis Monte Carlo method in action: minimizing the Rosenbrock function

Raymond Atta-Fynn (UT Arlington), NSF Summer School 2019

Rosenbrock function:  $E(x_1,x_2)=(1-x_1)^2+100*(x_2-x_1)^2$ ; minimization starting point  $(x_1,x_2)=(0,2)$ 

2500 2500 2000 2000  $\overline{2}$ 1500  $\mathsf{E}(x_1,x_2)$ 1500 1000  $\lambda$ <sup>1</sup> 500 1000 52  $\mathbf 0$  $\mathsf O$ 500  $x_2$  $\overline{\circ}_{x_1}$  $-1$  $-1$  $\mathbf{1}$  $\overline{2}$ 0  $x_1$ 

Monte Carlo with  $k_B T = 8.617E-4$ : step #4; acceptance probability=0.2500;  $(x_1, x_2) = (0.0869, 1.9767)$ ; E=357.9537

The minimum value of the Rosenbrock function is  $E_{min} = 0$ ; this occurs at the location  $(x_1, x_2) =$  $(1,1)$ 

Left plot: 3D graph.

**Right plot: Contour** plot in the 2D plane spanned by  $x_1$  and  $\mathcal{X}_{2}$ .

#### Raymond Atta-Fynn

#### 6/3/2019 **Introduction to Structural Optimization 19th Control 25** and the Uniteduction to Structural Optimization

# Concluding Remarks

- Three minimization schemes, all of which are fairly easy to implement in computer codes, were presented: (i) steepest descent (ii) conjugate gradient (iii) Metropolis Monte Carlo
- The steepest descent and conjugate gradient methods are gradient-based (i.e. based on the evaluation of first partial derivative), while the Monte Carlo method does not require gradients.
- For practical applications, the conjugate gradient method is preferred; steepest descent can be used as a supplement in instances where the conjugate gradient method gets "stuck."
- For "quick and approximate results," the Monte Carlo method, which is the easiest to implement, can be employed.