Mathematics of Data: From Theory to Computation

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Lecture 5: Unconstrained, smooth minimization II

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Outline

- ▶ This lecture
 - 1. Gradient and accelerated gradient descent methods
- Next lecture
 - 1. The quadratic case and conjugate gradient
 - 2. Other optimization methods



Recommended reading

- Chapters 2, 3, 5, 6 in Nocedal, Jorge, and Wright, Stephen J., Numerical Optimization, Springer, 2006.
- Chapter 9 in Boyd, Stephen, and Vandenberghe, Lieven, Convex optimization, Cambridge university press, 2009.
- Chapter 1 in Bertsekas, Dimitris, Nonlinear Programming, Athena Scientific, 1999.
- Chapters 1, 2 and 4 in Nesterov, Yurii, Introductory Lectures on Convex Optimization: A Basic Course, Vol. 87, Springer, 2004.

Motivation

Motivation

This lecture covers the basics of numerical methods for *unconstrained* and *smooth* convex minimization.



Recall: convex, unconstrained, smooth minimization

Problem (Mathematical formulation)

$$F^* := \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ F(\mathbf{x}) := f(\mathbf{x}) \right\}$$
 (1)

where f is proper, closed, convex and twice differentiable. Note that (1) is unconstrained.

How de we design efficient optimization algorithms with accuracy-computation tradeoffs for this class of functions?

Basic principles of descent methods

Iterative descent

- 1. Let $\mathbf{x}^0 \in \mathsf{dom}(f)$ be a starting point.
- 2. Generate a sequence of vectors $\mathbf{x}^1, \mathbf{x}^2, \dots \in \mathsf{dom}(f)$ so that we have descent:

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}) < f(\mathbf{x}^k), \ \text{ for all } k = 0, 1, \dots$$

until \mathbf{x}_k is ϵ -optimal.

Such a sequence $\left\{\mathbf{x}^k\right\}_{k\geq 0}$ can be generated as:

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

where \mathbf{p}^k is a descent direction and $\alpha_k > 0$ a step-size.

Remark

Iterative algorithms can implicitly use various **oracle** information from the objective, such as its value, gradient, or Hessian, in different ways to obtain α_k and \mathbf{p}^k , which determine their overall convergence rate and complexity. The type of oracle information they use becomes their defining characteristic.



Basic principles of descent methods

A condition for local descent directions

The iterates are given as:

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

By Taylor's theorem, we have

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}) = f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \alpha_k \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{p}^k \rangle + O(\alpha_k^2).$$

For α_k small enough, the term $\alpha_k \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{p}^k \rangle$ dominates $O(\alpha_k^2)$ for a fixed \mathbf{p}^k . Therefore, in order to have $f(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}) < f(\mathbf{x}^k)$, we require:

$$\langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \ \mathbf{p}^k \rangle < 0$$



Basic principles of descent methods

Local steepest descent direction

Since

$$\langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{p}^k \rangle = \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\| \|\mathbf{p}^k\| \cos \theta,$$

where θ is the angle between $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)$ and \mathbf{p}^k , we have that

$$\mathbf{p}^k := -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)$$

is the local steepest descent direction.

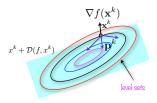


Figure: Descent directions in 2D should be an element of the cone of descent directions $\mathcal{D}(f,\cdot)$.

Gradient descent methods

Gradient descent (GD) algorithm

The gradient method we discussed before indeed use the local steepest direction:

$$\mathbf{p}^k = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)$$

so that

$$\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \mathbf{x}^k - \alpha_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k).$$

Key question: How do we choose α_k so that we have descent/contraction?

Gradient descent methods

Gradient descent (GD) algorithm

The gradient method we discussed before indeed use the local steepest direction:

$$\mathbf{p}^k = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)$$

so that

$$\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \mathbf{x}^k - \alpha_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k).$$

Key question: How do we choose α_k so that we have descent/contraction?

Answer: By exploiting the structures within the convex function

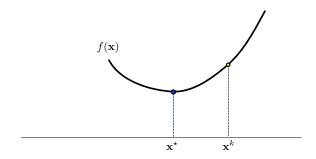
When $f \in \mathcal{F}_L^{2,1}$, we can use $\alpha_k = 1/L$ so that $\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \mathbf{x}^k - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)$ is contractive.

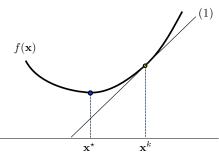
 Note that the above GD method only uses the gradient information, and hence, it is called a first-order method

First-order methods employ only first-order oracle information about the objective, namely the value of f and ∇f at specific points.

• Second-order methods also use the Hessian $\nabla^2 f$.







Structure in optimization:

(1)
$$f(\mathbf{x}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k \rangle$$

Majorize:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k\|_2^2 := Q_L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^k)$$

$$\mathbf{Minimize:}$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{x}} Q_L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^k)$$

$$= \arg\min_{\mathbf{x}} \left\| \mathbf{x} - \left(\mathbf{x}^k - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k) \right) \right\|^2$$

$$= \mathbf{x}^k - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)$$
Structure in optimization:
$$\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{x}^k + \mathbf{x}^k$$

Structure in optimization:

(1)
$$f(\mathbf{x}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k \rangle$$

(2)
$$f(\mathbf{x}^k) \leq f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k\|_2^2$$





Majorize:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k \rangle + \frac{L'}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k\|_2^2 := Q_{L'}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^k)$$

$$\mathbf{Minimize:}$$

$$\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{x}} Q_{L'}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^k)$$

$$= \arg\min_{\mathbf{x}} \left\| \mathbf{x} - \left(\mathbf{x}^k - \frac{1}{L'} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k) \right) \right\|^2$$

$$= \mathbf{x}^k - \frac{1}{L'} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)$$
slower

Structure in optimization:

- (1) $f(\mathbf{x}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}^k \rangle$

(2)
$$f(\mathbf{x}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k\|_2^2$$



Majorize: $f(\mathbf{x}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k\|_2^2 := Q_L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^k)$ Minimize: $\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \arg\min_{\mathbf{x}} Q_L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}^k)$ $= \arg\min_{\mathbf{x}} \left\| \mathbf{x} - \left(\mathbf{x}^k - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k) \right) \right\|^2$ $= \mathbf{x}^k - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)$

Structure in optimization:

(1)
$$f(\mathbf{x}) > f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k \rangle$$

(2)
$$f(\mathbf{x}) \le f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k||_2^2$$

(3)
$$f(\mathbf{x}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k \rangle + \frac{\overline{\mu}}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k\|_2^2$$

 \mathbf{x}^{\star}

 \mathbf{x}^{k}

Convergence rate of gradient descent

Theorem

Let the starting point for GD be $\mathbf{x}^0 \in dom(f)$.

• If $f \in \mathcal{F}_L^{2,1}$, with the choice $\alpha = \frac{1}{L}$, the iterates of GD satisfy

$$f(\mathbf{x}^k) - f(\mathbf{x}^*) \le \frac{2L}{k+4} \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2$$

• If $f \in \mathcal{F}^{2,1}_{L,\mu}$, with the choice $\alpha = \frac{2}{L+\mu}$, the iterates of GD satisfy

$$\|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2 \le \left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^k \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2$$

• If $f \in \mathcal{F}^{2,1}_{L,\mu}$, with the choice $\alpha = \frac{1}{L}$, the iterates of GD satisfy

$$\|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2 \le \left(\frac{L - \mu}{L + \mu}\right)^{\frac{k}{2}} \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2$$



Proof of convergence rates of gradient descent

ullet We first need to prove a basic result about functions in $\mathcal{F}_L^{1,1}$

Lemma

Let $f \in \mathcal{F}_L^{1,1}$. Then it holds that

$$\frac{1}{L} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{y})\|^2 \le \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{y}), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \rangle$$
 (2)

Proof.

First, recall the following result about Lipschitz gradient functions $h \in \mathcal{F}_{\scriptscriptstyle L}^{1,1}$

$$h(\mathbf{x}) \le h(\mathbf{y}) + \langle \nabla h(\mathbf{y}), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|_2^2.$$
 (3)

To prove the result, let $\phi(\mathbf{y}) := f(\mathbf{y}) - \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y} \rangle$, with $\nabla \phi(\mathbf{y}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{y}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x})$. Clearly, $\phi(\mathbf{y})$ attains its minimum value at $\mathbf{y}^{\star} = \mathbf{x}$. Hence, and by also applying (3) with $h = \phi$ and $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{y} - \frac{1}{L} \nabla \phi(\mathbf{y})$, we get

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) \le \phi\left(\mathbf{y} - \frac{1}{L}\nabla\phi(\mathbf{y})\right) \le \phi(\mathbf{y}) - \frac{1}{2L}\|\nabla\phi(\mathbf{y})\|_2^2.$$

Substituting the above definitions into the left and right hand sides gives

$$f(\mathbf{x}) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x} \rangle + \frac{1}{2L} \| \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{y}) \|_2^2 \le f(\mathbf{y})$$
 (4)

By adding two copies of (4) with each other, with x and y swapped, we obtain (2).



The proof of convergence rates - part I

Theorem

If $f \in \mathcal{F}_L^{2,1}$, with the choice $\alpha = \frac{1}{L}$, the iterates of GD satisfy

$$f(\mathbf{x}^k) - f(\mathbf{x}^*) \le \frac{2L}{k+4} \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2$$
 (5)

Proof - part I

- Consider the constant step-size iteration $\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \mathbf{x}^k \alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)$.
- Let $r_k := \|\mathbf{x}^k \mathbf{x}^\star\|$. Show $r_k \leq r_0$.

$$\begin{aligned} r_{k+1}^2 &:= \|\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|^2 = \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^{\star} - \alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\|^2 \\ &= \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|^2 - 2\alpha \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{\star}), \mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^{\star} \rangle + \alpha^2 \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\|^2 \\ &\leq r_k^2 - \alpha(2/L - \alpha) \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\|^2 \quad \text{(by (2))} \\ &< r_k^2, \quad \forall \alpha < 2/L. \end{aligned}$$

Hence, the gradient iterations are contractive when $\alpha < 2/L$ for all $k \geq 0$

• An auxiliary result: Let $\Delta_k := f(\mathbf{x}^k) - f^\star$. Show $\Delta_k \le r_0 \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\|$.

$$\Delta_k \le \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^* \rangle \le \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\| \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*\| = r_k \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\| \le r_0 \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\|.$$



The proof of convergence rates - part II

Proof - part II

▶ We can establish convergence along with the auxiliary result above:

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}) \le f(\mathbf{x}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^k \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \|\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^k\|^2$$

$$\le f(\mathbf{x}^k) - \omega_k \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\|^2, \quad \omega_k := \alpha(1 - L\alpha/2).$$

Subtract f^* from both sides and apply the last equation of the previous slide to get

$$\Delta_{k+1} \leq \Delta_k - (\omega_k/r_0^2)\Delta_k^2$$
 . Thus, dividing by $\Delta_{k+1}\Delta_k$

$$\Delta_{k+1}^{-1} \ge \Delta_k^{-1} + (\omega_k/r_0^2)\Delta_k/\Delta_{k+1} \ge \Delta_k^{-1} + (\omega_k/r_0^2).$$

By induction, we have $\Delta_{k+1}^{-1} \geq \Delta_0^{-1} + (\omega_k/r_0^2)(k+1)$. Then, taking $(\cdot)^{-1}$ of both sides (and hence replacing \geq by \leq) and substituting all of the definitions gives

$$f(\mathbf{x}^k) - f(\mathbf{x}^*) \le \frac{2(f(\mathbf{x}_0) - f(\mathbf{x}^*)) \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2}{2\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2 + k\alpha(2 - \alpha L)(f(\mathbf{x}_0) - f^*)},$$

- In order to choose the **optimal** step-size, we maximize the function $\phi(\alpha) = \alpha(2 \alpha L)$. Hence, the optimal step size for the gradient method for $f \in \mathcal{F}_L^{1,1}$ is given by $\alpha = \frac{1}{L}$.
- Finally, since $f(\mathbf{x}_0) \leq f^* + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*)^T (\mathbf{x}_0 \mathbf{x}^*) + (L/2) \|\mathbf{x}_0 \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2 = f^* + (L/2)r_0^2$ we obtain (5).



The proof of convergence rates - part III

Theorem

• If $f \in \mathcal{F}^{2,1}_{L,\mu}$, with the choice $\alpha = \frac{2}{L+\mu}$, the iterates of GD satisfy

$$\|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|_2 \le \left(\frac{L - \mu}{L + \mu}\right)^k \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|_2$$
 (6)

• If $f \in \mathcal{F}^{2,1}_{L,\mu}$, with the choice $lpha = \frac{1}{L}$, the iterates of GD satisfy

$$\left\| \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^\star\|_2 \le \left(\frac{L - \mu}{L + \mu}\right)^{\frac{k}{2}} \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^\star\|_2 \right\| \tag{7}$$

Before proving the convergence rate, we first need a result about functions in $\mathcal{F}_{L,\mu}^{1,1}$. It is proved similarly to (2).

Theorem

If $f \in \mathcal{F}_{L,\mu}^{1,1}$, then for any \mathbf{x} and \mathbf{y} , we have

$$\langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{y}), \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y} \rangle \ge \frac{\mu L}{\mu + L} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|^2 + \frac{1}{\mu + L} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{y})\|^2.$$
 (8)



The proof of convergence rates - part III

Proof of (6) and (7)

Let $r_k = \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^\star\|$. Then, using (8) and the fact that $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$, we have

$$\begin{split} r_{k+1}^2 &= \|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^{\star} - \alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\|^2 \\ &= r_k^2 - 2\alpha \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^{\star} \rangle + \alpha^2 \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\|^2 \\ &\leq \left(1 - \frac{2\alpha\mu L}{\mu + L}\right) r_k^2 + \alpha \left(\alpha - \frac{2}{\mu + L}\right) \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\|^2 \end{split}$$

Since $\mu \leq L$, we have $\alpha \leq \frac{2}{\mu + L}$ in both the cases $\alpha = \frac{1}{L}$ or $\alpha = \frac{2}{\mu + L}$. So the last term in the previous inequality is less than 0, and hence

$$r_{k+1}^2 \le \left(1 - \frac{2\alpha\mu L}{\mu + L}\right)^k r_0^2$$

- ▶ Plugging $\alpha = \frac{1}{L}$ and $\alpha = \frac{2}{\mu + L}$, we obtain the rates as advertised.
- For $f\in\mathcal{F}^{1,1}_{L,\mu}$, the **optimal** step-size is given by $\alpha=\frac{2}{\mu+L}$ (i.e., it optimizes the worst case bound).



Convergence rate of gradient descent

Convergence rate of gradient descent

$$\begin{split} &f \in \mathcal{F}_L^{2,1}, \quad \alpha = \frac{1}{L} & f(\mathbf{x}^k) - f(\mathbf{x}^\star) \leq \frac{2L}{k+4} \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^\star\|_2^2 \\ &f \in \mathcal{F}_{L,\mu}^{2,1}, \quad \alpha = \frac{2}{L+\mu} & \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^\star\|_2 \leq \left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^k \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^\star\|_2 \\ &f \in \mathcal{F}_{L,\mu}^{2,1}, \quad \alpha = \frac{1}{L} & \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^\star\|_2 \leq \left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^\frac{k}{2} \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^\star\|_2 \end{split}$$

Remarks

- Assumption: Lipschitz gradient. Result: convergence rate in **objective values**.
- Assumption: Strong convexity. Result: convergence rate in sequence of the iterates and in objective values.
- Note that the suboptimal step-size choice $\alpha=\frac{1}{L}$ adapts to the strongly convex case (i.e., it features a linear rate vs. the standard sublinear rate).

Example: Ridge regression

Optimization formulation

- Let $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ given by the model $\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}^{\natural} + \mathbf{w}$, where $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is some noise.
- lacktriangle We can try to estimate $\mathbf{x}^{
 atural}$ by solving the Tikhonov regularized least squares

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p} f(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 + \frac{\rho}{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2.$$

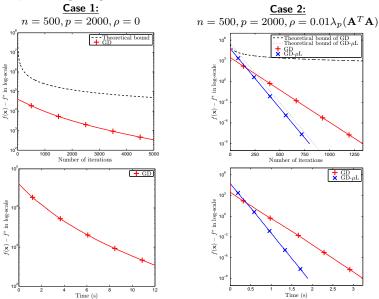
where $\rho \geq 0$ is a regularization parameter.

Remarks

- $f \in \mathcal{F}_{L,\mu}^{2,1}$ with:
 - $L = \lambda_n(\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}) + \rho;$
 - $\mu = \lambda_1(\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A}) + \rho;$
 - where $\lambda_1 \leq \ldots \leq \lambda_p$ are the eigenvalues of $\mathbf{A}^T \mathbf{A}$.
- ▶ The ratio $\frac{L}{\mu}$ decreases as ρ increases, leading to faster linear convergence.
- ▶ Note that if n < p and $\rho = 0$, we have $\mu = 0$, hence $f \in \mathcal{F}_L^{2,1}$ and we can expect only O(1/k) convergence from the gradient descent method.



Example: Ridge regression



Information theoretic lower bounds [2]

What is the **best** achievable rate for a **first-order** method (one using gradient information but not higher-order quantities)?

$f \in \mathcal{F}_{L}^{\infty,1}$: Smooth and Lipschitz-gradient

It is possible to construct a function in $\mathcal{F}_L^{\infty,1}$, for which any first order method must satisfy

$$f(\mathbf{x}^k) - f(\mathbf{x}^\star) \ge \frac{3L}{32(k+1)^2} \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^\star\|_2^2 \quad \text{for all } k \le (p-1)/2$$

$f \in \mathcal{F}_{L,u}^{\infty,1}$: Smooth and strongly convex

It is possible to construct a function in $\mathcal{F}_{L,u}^{\infty,1}$, for which any first order method must satisfy

$$\|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2 \ge \left(\frac{\sqrt{L} - \sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L} + \sqrt{\mu}}\right)^k \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2$$

Gradient descent is O(1/k) for $\mathcal{F}_L^{\infty,1}$ and it is slower for $\mathcal{F}_{L,n}^{\infty,1}$, hence it does not achieve the lower bounds!



Problem

Is it possible to design optimal first-order methods with convergence rates matching the theoretical lower bounds?





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Solution [Nesterov's accelerated scheme]

Accelerated Gradient (AG) methods achieve optimal convergence rates at a negligible increase in the computational cost.

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Solution [Nesterov's accelerated scheme]

Accelerated Gradient (AG) methods achieve optimal convergence rates at a negligible increase in the computational cost.

Accelerated Gradient algorithm for $\mathcal{F}_{\tau}^{1,1}$ (AG-L)

- **1.** Set $\mathbf{x}^0 = \mathbf{y}^0 \in \text{dom}(f)$ and $t_0 := 1$.
- **2.** For k = 0, 1, ..., iterate

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{x}^{k+1} &= \mathbf{y}^k - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\mathbf{y}^k) \\ t_{k+1} &= (1 + \sqrt{4t_k^2 + 1})/2 \\ \mathbf{y}^{k+1} &= \mathbf{x}^{k+1} + \frac{(t_k - 1)}{t_{k+1}} (\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^k) \end{cases}$$



Problem

Is it possible to design optimal first-order methods with convergence rates matching the theoretical lower bounds?

Solution [Nesterov's accelerated scheme]

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Accelerated Gradient algorithm for $\mathcal{F}_{L,\mu}^{1,1}$ (AG- μ L)

- 1. Choose $\mathbf{x}^0 = \mathbf{y}^0 \in \mathsf{dom}(f)$
- **2.** For k = 0, 1, ..., iterate

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{x}^{k+1} &= \mathbf{y}^k - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\mathbf{y}^k) \\ \mathbf{y}^{k+1} &= \mathbf{x}^{k+1} + \gamma (\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^k) \end{cases}$$
 where $\gamma = \frac{\sqrt{L} - \sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L} + \sqrt{\mu}}.$



Problem

Is it possible to design optimal first-order methods with convergence rates matching the theoretical lower bounds?

Solution [Nesterov's accelerated scheme]

Accelerated Gradient (AG) methods achieve optimal convergence rates at a negligible increase in the computational cost.

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- **1.** Set $\mathbf{x}^0 = \mathbf{y}^0 \in \text{dom}(f)$ and $t_0 := 1$.
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$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{x}^{k+1} &= \mathbf{y}^k - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(\mathbf{y}^k) \\ t_{k+1} &= (1 + \sqrt{4t_k^2 + 1})/2 \\ \mathbf{y}^{k+1} &= \mathbf{x}^{k+1} + \frac{(t_k - 1)}{t_{k+1}} (\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^k) \end{cases}$$

Accelerated Gradient algorithm for $\mathcal{F}_{L,\mu}^{1,1}$ (AG- μ L)

- 1. Choose $\mathbf{x}^0 = \mathbf{y}^0 \in \mathsf{dom}(f)$
- **2.** For k = 0, 1, ..., iterate

$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{x}^{k+1} &= \mathbf{y}^k - \frac{1}{L}\nabla f(\mathbf{y}^k) \\ \mathbf{y}^{k+1} &= \mathbf{x}^{k+1} + \gamma(\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^k) \end{cases}$$
 where $\gamma = \frac{\sqrt{L} - \sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L} + \sqrt{\mu}}.$

NOTE: AG is not monotone, but the cost-per-iteration is essentially the same as GD.





Global convergence of AGD [2]

Theorem (f is convex with Lipschitz gradient)

If $f \in \mathcal{F}_L^{1,1}$ or $\mathcal{F}_{L,\mu}^{1,1}$, the sequence $\{\mathbf{x}^k\}_{k \geq 0}$ generated by AGD-L satisfies

$$f(\mathbf{x}^k) - f^* \le \frac{4L}{(k+2)^2} \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2, \ \forall k \ge 0.$$
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AGD-L is optimal for $\mathcal{F}_L^{1,1}$ but NOT for $\mathcal{F}_{L,\mu}^{1,1}$!

Theorem (f is strongly convex with Lipschitz gradient)

If $f \in \mathcal{F}^{1,1}_{L,\mu}$, the sequence $\{\mathbf{x}^k\}_{k \geq 0}$ generated by AGD- μ L satisfies

$$f(\mathbf{x}^k) - f^* \le L \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}\right)^k \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2, \ \forall k \ge 0$$
 (10)

$$\|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2 \le \sqrt{\frac{2L}{\mu}} \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}\right)^{\frac{k}{2}} \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2, \ \forall k \ge 0.$$
 (11)

- ► AGD-L's iterates are not guaranteed to converge.
- AGD-L does not have a linear convergence rate for $\mathcal{F}_{L,u}^{1,1}$.
- AGD- μ L does, but needs to know μ .

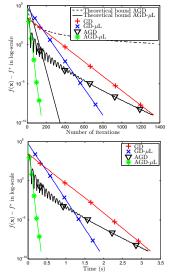
AGD achieves the iteration lowerbound within a constant!



Example: Ridge regression

Case 1: $n = 500, p = 2000, \rho = 0$ 10⁸ Theoretical bound AGD CONTROL OF THEORETICAL THEOR 10 $f(\mathbf{x}) - f^*$ in log-scale of $f(\mathbf{x}) = f^*$ in $f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x})$ 10 10 1000 2000 3000 Number of iterations 4000 5000 10 GD AGD 10 10 $f(\mathbf{x}) - f^*$ in log-scale 10 10 10 Time (s)

$n = 500, p = 2000, \rho = 0.01 \lambda_p(\mathbf{A}^T\mathbf{A})$



Two enhancements

- 1. Line-search for estimating L for both GD and AGD.
- 2. Restart strategies for AGD.



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- 1. Line-search for estimating ${\cal L}$ for both GD and AGD.
- 2. Restart strategies for AGD.

When do we need a line-search procedure?

We can use a line-search procedure for both GD and AGD when

- L is known but it is expensive to evaluate;
- ▶ The global constant L usually does not capture the local behavior of f or it is unknown;



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Line-search

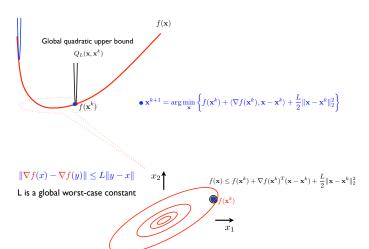
At each iteration, we try to find a constant L_k that satisfies:

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}) \leq Q_{L_k}(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}, \mathbf{y}^k) := f(\mathbf{y}^k) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{y}^k), \mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{y}^k \rangle + \frac{L_k}{2} \|\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{y}^k\|_2^2.$$

Here: $L_0 > 0$ is given (e.g., $L_0 := c \frac{\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^1) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^0)\|_2}{\|\mathbf{x}^1 - \mathbf{x}^0\|_2}$) for $c \in (0, 1]$.



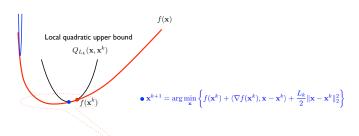
How can we better adapt to the local geometry?

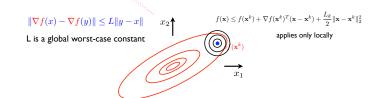






How can we better adapt to the local geometry?





Why do we need a restart strategy?

- AG- μL requires knowledge of μ and AG-L does not have optimal convergence for strongly convex f.
- AG is non-monotonic (i.e., $f(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}^k)$ is not always satisfied).
- AG has a periodic behavior, where the momentum depends on the local condition number $\kappa = L/\mu$.
- A restart strategy tries to reset this momentum whenever we observe high periodic behavior. We often use function values but other strategies are possible.

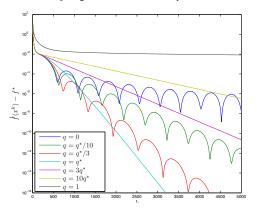
Two restart strategies

- 1. O'Donoghue Candes's strategy [3]: There are at least three options: Restart with fixed number of iterations, restart based on objective values, and restart based on a gradient condition.
- 2. Giselsson-Boyd's strategy [1]: Do not require $t_k=1$ and do not necessary require function evaluations.

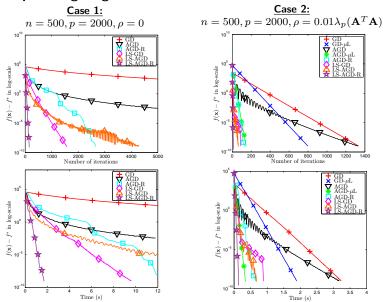


Oscillatory behavior of AGD

- Minimize a quadratic function $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{\Phi} \mathbf{x}$, with p=200 and $\kappa(\mathbf{\Phi}) = L/\mu = 2.4 \times 10^4$
- Use stepsize $\alpha = 1/L$ and update $\mathbf{x}^{k+1} + \gamma_{k+1}(\mathbf{x}^{k+1} \mathbf{x}^k)$ where
 - $\gamma_{k+1} = \theta_k (1 \theta_k) / (\theta_k^2 + \theta_{k+1})$
 - θ_{k+1} solves $\theta_{k+1}^2 = (1 \theta_{k+1})\theta_k^2 + q\theta_{k+1}$.
- ▶ The parameter q should be equal to the reciprocal of condition number $q^* = \mu/L$.
- ▶ A different choice of q might lead to oscillatory behavior.



Example: Ridge regression



The (special) quadratic case - Step-size

Consider the minimization of a quadratic function

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) := \frac{1}{2} \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \rangle - \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$$

where ${\bf A}$ is a $p \times p$ symmetric positive definite matrix, i.e., ${\bf A} = {\bf A}^T \succ 0$.

Gradient Descent

$$\alpha_k = 1/L \quad \text{with } L = \|\mathbf{A}\|$$

Steepest descent

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k)\|^2}{\langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{A} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k) \rangle}$$
(12)

Barzilai-Borwein

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{k-1})\|^2}{\langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{k-1}), \mathbf{A} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{k-1}) \rangle}$$
(13)



The (special) quadratic case – convergence rates

For $f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} \rangle - \langle \mathbf{b}, \mathbf{x} \rangle$, we have $L = \|\mathbf{A}\| = \lambda_p$ and $\mu = \lambda_1$, where $0 < \lambda_1 \le \lambda_2 \le \cdots \lambda_p$ are the eigenvalues of \mathbf{A} .

Theorem (Gradient Descent)

$$\|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|_2 \le \left(1 - \frac{\lambda_1}{\lambda_p}\right)^k \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|_2$$

Theorem (Steepest Descent)

$$\|\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|_{\mathbf{A}} \le \left(\frac{\lambda_p - \lambda_1}{\lambda_p + \lambda_1}\right)^k \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|_{\mathbf{A}}$$

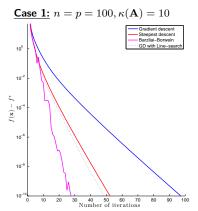
Theorem (Barzilai-Borwein)

Under the condition $\lambda_p < 2\lambda_1$

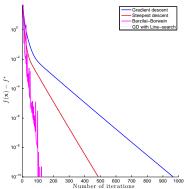
$$\|\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|_{2} \le \left(\frac{\lambda_{p} - \lambda_{1}}{\lambda_{1}}\right)^{k} \|\mathbf{x}^{0} - \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|_{2}$$



Example: Quadratic function



Case 1: $n = p = 100, \kappa(\mathbf{A}) = 100$



References |

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 Monotonicity and restart in fast gradient methods.
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- [2] Y. Nesterov. Introductory lectures on convex optimization: A basic course, volume 87. Springer, 2004.
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