5. Duality

- Lagrange dual problem
- weak and strong duality
- geometric interpretation
- optimality conditions
- perturbation and sensitivity analysis
- examples
- generalized inequalities

Perturbation and sensitivity analysis

(unperturbed) optimization problem and its dual

minimize
$$f_0(x)$$
 maximize $g(\lambda, \nu)$ subject to $f_i(x) \leq 0, \quad i=1,\ldots,m$ subject to $\lambda \geq 0$ $h_i(x) = 0, \quad i=1,\ldots,p$

perturbed problem and its dual

min.
$$f_0(x)$$
 max. $g(\lambda, \nu) - u^T \lambda - v^T \nu$ s.t. $f_i(x) \leq u_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m$ s.t. $\lambda \succeq 0$ $h_i(x) = v_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, p$

- ullet x is primal variable; u, v are parameters
- $p^*(u,v)$ is optimal value as a function of u, v
- we are interested in information about $p^*(u,v)$ that we can obtain from the solution of the unperturbed problem and its dual

global sensitivity result

assume strong duality holds for unperturbed problem, and that λ^* , ν^* are dual optimal for unperturbed problem

apply weak duality to perturbed problem:

$$p^{\star}(u,v) \geq g(\lambda^{\star},\nu^{\star}) - u^{T}\lambda^{\star} - v^{T}\nu^{\star}$$
$$= p^{\star}(0,0) - u^{T}\lambda^{\star} - v^{T}\nu^{\star}$$

sensitivity interpretation

- if λ_i^{\star} large: p^{\star} increases greatly if we tighten constraint i ($u_i < 0$)
- if λ_i^* small: p^* does not decrease much if we loosen constraint i ($u_i > 0$)
- if ν_i^{\star} large and positive: p^{\star} increases greatly if we take $v_i < 0$; if ν_i^{\star} large and negative: p^{\star} increases greatly if we take $v_i > 0$
- if ν_i^{\star} small and positive: p^{\star} does not decrease much if we take $v_i > 0$; if ν_i^{\star} small and negative: p^{\star} does not decrease much if we take $v_i < 0$

local sensitivity: if (in addition) $p^*(u,v)$ is differentiable at (0,0), then

$$\lambda_i^{\star} = -\frac{\partial p^{\star}(0,0)}{\partial u_i}, \qquad \nu_i^{\star} = -\frac{\partial p^{\star}(0,0)}{\partial v_i}$$

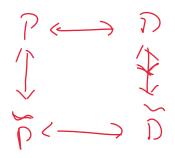
proof (for λ_i^*): from global sensitivity result, $\mathcal{N} = \frac{1}{2} \cdot e_i \quad \mathcal{N} = 0$

$$\frac{\partial p^{\star}(0,0)}{\partial u_i} = \lim_{t \to 0} \frac{p^{\star}(te_i,0) - p^{\star}(0,0)}{t} \ge -\lambda_i^{\star}$$

$$\frac{\partial p^{\star}(0,0)}{\partial u_i} = \lim_{t \nearrow 0} \frac{p^{\star}(te_i,0) - p^{\star}(0,0)}{t} \le -\lambda_i^{\star}$$

$$f_{i}(\vec{x}) = 0$$
, inactive $\Rightarrow \vec{\lambda}_{i} = 0$

hence, equality $f_{1}(\vec{x}) = 0, \text{ active } \Rightarrow \lambda = 0 \\
f_{1}(\vec{x}) = 0, \text{ active } \Rightarrow \lambda = 0 \\
p^{*}(u) \text{ for a problem with one (inequality)} \\
\text{constraint:} \\
u = 0 \\
p^{*}(u)$



Duality and problem reformulations

- equivalent formulations of a problem can lead to very different duals
- reformulating the primal problem can be useful when the dual is difficult to derive, or uninteresting

common reformulations

- introduce new variables and equality constraints
- make explicit constraints implicit or vice-versa
- transform objective or constraint functions

e.g., replace $f_0(x)$ by $\phi(f_0(x))$ with ϕ convex, increasing

Introducing new variables and equality constraints

minimize
$$f_0(Ax+b)$$

- dual function is constant: $g = \inf_x L(x) = \inf_x f_0(Ax + b) = p^*$
- we have strong duality, but dual is quite useless

reformulated problem and its dual

minimize
$$f_0(y)$$
 maximize $b^T \nu - f_0^*(\nu)$ subject to $Ax + b - y = 0$ subject to $A^T \nu = 0$

dual function follows from

$$g(\nu) = \inf_{x,y} (f_0(y) - \nu^T y + \nu^T A x + b^T \nu)$$
$$= \begin{cases} -f_0^*(\nu) + b^T \nu & A^T \nu = 0\\ -\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

norm approximation problem: minimize ||Ax - b||

can look up conjugate of $\|\cdot\|$, or derive dual directly

$$g(\nu) = \inf_{x,y} (\|y\| + \nu^T y - \nu^T A x + b^T \nu)$$

$$= \begin{cases} b^T \nu + \inf_y (\|y\| + \nu^T y) & A^T \nu = 0 \\ -\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$= \begin{cases} b^T \nu & A^T \nu = 0, & \|\nu\|_* \le 1 \\ -\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

(see page 5-4)

dual of norm approximation problem

maximize
$$b^T \nu$$
 subject to $A^T \nu = 0, \quad \|\nu\|_* \leq 1$

Implicit constraints

LP with box constraints: primal and dual problem

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{minimize} & c^Tx & \text{maximize} & -b^T\nu - \mathbf{1}^T\lambda_1 - \mathbf{1}^T\lambda_2 \\ \text{subject to} & Ax = b & \text{subject to} & c + A^T\nu + \lambda_1 - \lambda_2 = 0 \\ & -\mathbf{1} \preceq x \preceq \mathbf{1} & \lambda_1 \succeq 0, \quad \lambda_2 \succeq 0 \end{array}$$

reformulation with box constraints made implicit

minimize
$$f_0(x) = \begin{cases} c^T x & -1 \leq x \leq 1 \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
 subject to $Ax = b$

dual function

$$g(\nu) = \inf_{-1 \le x \le 1} (\underline{c^T x + \nu^T (Ax - b)})$$

$$= -b^T \nu - \|A^T \nu + c\|_1$$

dual problem: maximize $-b^T \nu - \|A^T \nu + c\|_1$

Problems with generalized inequalities

minimize
$$f_0(x)$$

subject to $f_i(x) \leq_{K_i} 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, m$
 $h_i(x) = 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, p$

 \preceq_{K_i} is generalized inequality on \mathbf{R}^{k_i}

definitions are parallel to scalar case:

- Lagrange multiplier for $f_i(x) \leq_{K_i} 0$ is vector $\lambda_i \in \mathbf{R}^{k_i}$
- Lagrangian $L: \mathbf{R}^n \times \mathbf{R}^{k_1} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{R}^{k_m} \times \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}$, is defined as

$$L(x, \lambda_1, \cdots, \lambda_m, \nu) = f_0(x) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^T f_i(x) + \sum_{i=1}^p \nu_i h_i(x)$$

• dual function $g: \mathbf{R}^{k_1} \times \cdots \times \mathbf{R}^{k_m} \times \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}$, is defined as

$$g(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m, \nu) = \inf_{x \in \mathcal{D}} L(x, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m, \nu)$$

lower bound property: if $\lambda_i \succeq_{K_i^*} 0$, then $g(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m, \nu) \leq p^*$ proof: if \tilde{x} is feasible and $\lambda \succeq_{K_i^*} 0$, then

$$f_0(\tilde{x}) \geq f_0(\tilde{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^m \lambda_i^{\gamma} f_i(\tilde{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^m \nu_i h_i(\tilde{x}) = 0$$

$$\geq \inf_{x \in \mathcal{D}} L(x, \lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m, \nu)$$

$$= g(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m, \nu)$$

minimizing over all feasible \tilde{x} gives $p^* \geq g(\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_m, \nu)$

dual problem

maximize
$$g(\lambda_1,\ldots,\lambda_m,\nu)$$
 subject to $\lambda_i\succeq_{K_i^*}0, \quad i=1,\ldots,m$

- weak duality: $p^* \ge d^*$ always
- strong duality: $p^* = d^*$ for convex problem with constraint qualification (for example, Slater's: primal problem is strictly feasible)

$$(a,b)=ab$$

Semidefinite program $\langle A, B \rangle = T_{V}(A^{T}_{R})$

primal SDP $(F_i, G \in S^k)$

minimize
$$c^Tx$$
 subject to $x_1F_1 + \cdots + x_nF_n \preceq G$

- Lagrange multiplier is matrix $Z \in \mathbf{S}^k$
- Lagrangian $L(x,Z) = c^T x + \mathbf{tr} \left(Z(x_1 F_1 + \dots + x_n F_n G) \right)$
- dual function

$$g(Z) = \inf_{x} L(x, Z) = \begin{cases} -\mathbf{tr}(GZ) & \mathbf{tr}(F_i Z) + c_i = 0, & i = 1, \dots, n \\ -\infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

dual SDP

maximize
$$-\mathbf{tr}(GZ)$$

subject to $Z \succeq 0$, $\mathbf{tr}(F_iZ) + c_i = 0$, $i = 1, \dots, n$

 $p^* = d^*$ if primal SDP is strictly feasible ($\exists x$ with $x_1F_1 + \cdots + x_nF_n \prec G$)

10. Unconstrained minimization

- terminology and assumptions
- gradient descent method
- steepest descent method
- Newton's method
- self-concordant functions
- implementation

Unconstrained minimization

minimize
$$f(x)$$

- f convex, twice continuously differentiable (hence $\operatorname{dom} f$ open)
- we assume optimal value $p^* = \inf_x f(x)$ is attained (and finite)

unconstrained minimization methods

ullet produce sequence of points $x^{(k)} \in \operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f$, $k=0,1,\ldots$ with

$$f(x^{(k)}) \to p^*$$

• can be interpreted as iterative methods for solving optimality condition

$$\nabla f(x^{\star}) = 0$$
 ptimality anditim.

Initial point and sublevel set

algorithms in this chapter require a starting point $x^{(0)}$ such that

- $x^{(0)} \in \operatorname{dom} f$
- sublevel set $S = \{x \mid f(x) \leq f(x^{(0)})\}$ is closed

2nd condition is hard to verify, except when all sublevel sets are closed:

- ullet equivalent to condition that $\operatorname{\mathbf{epi}} f$ is closed

• equivalent to condition that
$$\operatorname{epi} f$$
 is closed
• true if $\operatorname{dom} f = \mathbb{R}^n$
• true if $f(x) \to \infty$ as $x \to \operatorname{bd} \operatorname{dom} f$

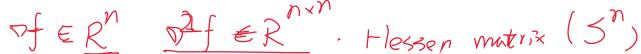
examples of differentiable functions with closed sublevel sets:

$$f(x) = \log(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \exp(a_i^T \underline{x} + b_i)), \qquad f(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} \log(b_i - a_i^T x)$$

$$\operatorname{dom} f = \operatorname{Ph}$$

$$\operatorname{dom} f = \operatorname{Ph}$$

$$f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$$







Strong convexity and implications

f is strongly convex on S if there exists an (m > 0) such that $(+\infty) = \frac{1}{y}$

$$\frac{\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq mI}{(\ensuremath{\mathcalimbde{/}{\mathca$$

hence, S is bounded

• $p^{\star} > -\infty$, and for $x \in S$,

$$\text{Subsptimality:} \quad \underline{f(x) - p^{\star} \leq \frac{1}{2m} \|\nabla f(x)\|_{2}^{2} \leq \underline{\zeta} \qquad \boxed{\underline{f(x)}} = \underline{f(x)}$$

useful as stopping criterion (if you know m)

$$\frac{1}{1+x} = \frac{1}{1+x}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1+x} = \frac{$$

Descent methods

$$\underline{x}^{(k+1)} = \underline{x}^{(k)} + \underline{t}^{(k)} \underline{\Delta x^{(k)}} \quad \text{with} \underline{f(x^{(k+1)})} < \underline{f(x^{(k)})}$$

- other notations: $x^+ = x + t\Delta x$, $x := x + t\Delta x$
- (t>0)
- Δx is the step, or search direction; t is the step size, or step length
- from convexity, $f(x^+) < f(x)$ implies $\nabla f(x)^T \Delta x < 0$ (i.e., Δx is a descent direction)

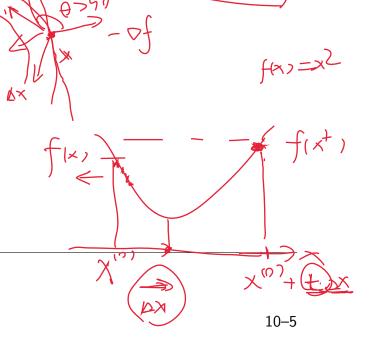
General descent method.

given a starting point $x \in \operatorname{dom} f$. repeat

- 1. Determine a descent direction Δx .
- 2. Line search. Choose a step size t > 0.
- 3. Update. $x := x + t\Delta x$.

until stopping criterion is satisfied.

110flb small



Line search types
$$\begin{cases} f(x) : R^n \to R \\ f(x) : R \to R \end{cases}$$

exact line search: $t = \operatorname{argmin}_{t>0} f(\underline{x} + t\Delta \underline{x}) = f(t)$

backtracking line search (with parameters $\underline{\alpha} \in (0, 1/2)$, $\beta \in (0, 1)$)

ullet starting at $\underline{t}=1$, repeat $\underline{t}:=\beta t$ until

$$(2 = 0.1, 00.1, \beta = \frac{1}{2})$$

$$\underbrace{f(x+t\Delta x) < f(x) + Qt\nabla f(x)^T\Delta x}_{\text{f(x)}} \qquad \qquad x^{\dagger} = x + t\Delta x}_{\text{f(x)}}$$
 • graphical interpretation: backtrack until $t \leq t_0$

$$f(x) + t\nabla f(x)^T \Delta x \qquad f(x) + \alpha t \nabla f(x)^T \Delta x$$

$$t = 0 \qquad \qquad t = \frac{1}{2} \qquad t_0 \qquad t_0$$

$$f(x) + t \nabla f(x) + \alpha t$$

Unconstrained minimization

(GD)

Gradient descent method

general descent method with $\Delta x = -\nabla f(x)$

given a starting point $x \in \operatorname{dom} f$. repeat

- 1. $\Delta x := -\nabla f(x)$.
- 2. Line search. Choose step size t via exact or backtracking line search.
- 3. Update. $x := x + t\Delta x$.

until stopping criterion is satisfied.

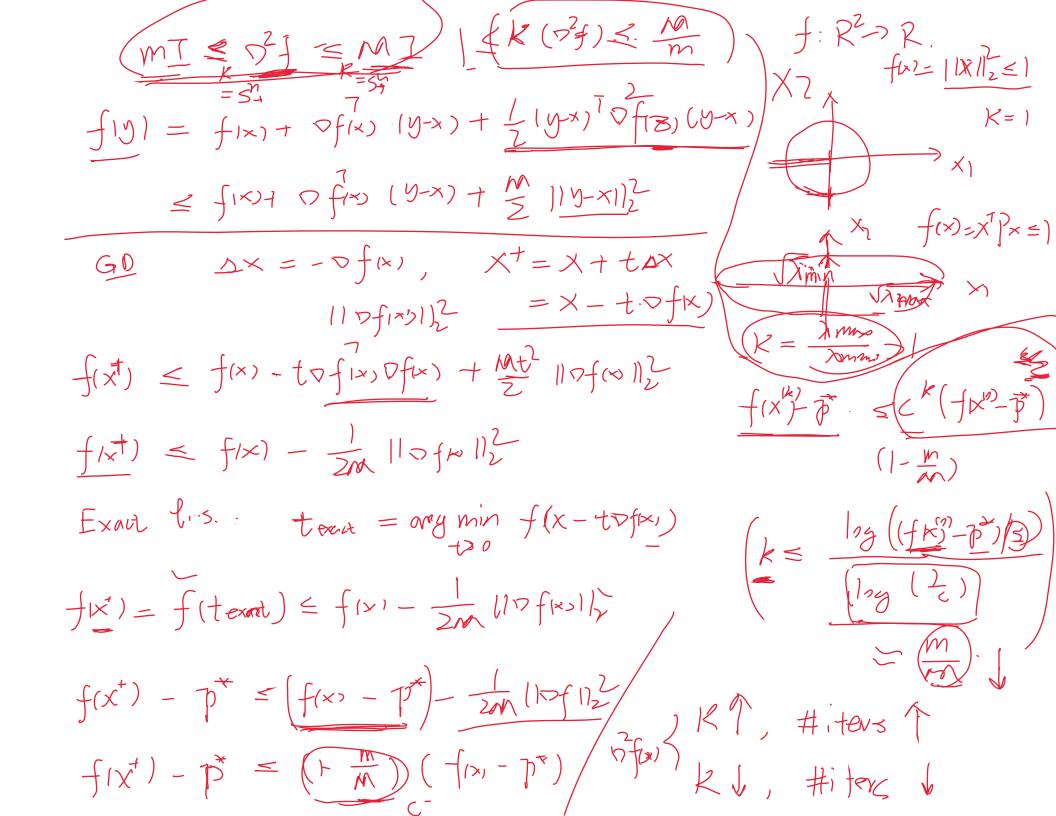
- stopping criterion usually of the form $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 \leq \epsilon$
- ullet convergence result: for strongly convex f,

$$f(x^{(k)}) - p^* \le c^k (f(x^{(0)}) - p^*)$$

Convergens-

 $c \in (0,1)$ depends on m, $x^{(0)}$, line search type

very simple, but often very slow; rarely used in practice



quadratic problem in R²

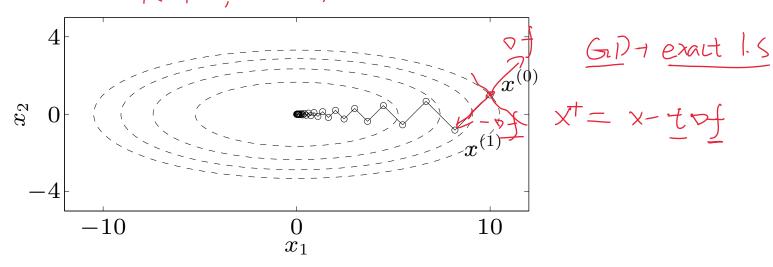
em in
$$\mathbb{R}^2$$

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{x_1}{x_2} \right)^7 \left(\frac{1}{2} \frac{0}{x_1} \right) \frac{\mathcal{K}(P)}{|x_2|} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \text{min} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \text{min} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_2}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\ \frac{x_1}{x_2} \end{cases} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} \frac{x_1}{x_2} \\$$

with exact line search, starting at $x^{(0)} = (\gamma, 1)$:

$$x_1^{(k)} = \gamma \left(\frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma + 1}\right)^k, \qquad x_2^{(k)} = \left(-\frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma + 1}\right)^k$$

- \bullet very slow if $\gamma\gg 1$ or $\gamma\ll 1$
- example for $\underline{\gamma=10}$: $\underline{\gamma=1=10}$ $\underline{\gamma=1=10}$ $\underline{\gamma=1=10}$ $\underline{\gamma=1=10}$

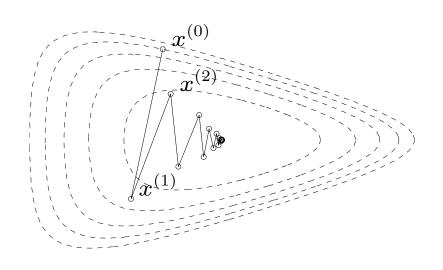


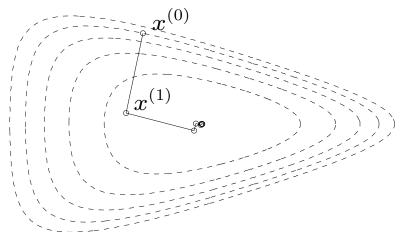
nonquadratic example



$$f(x_1, x_2) = e^{x_1 + 3x_2 - 0.1} + e^{x_1 - 3x_2 - 0.1} + e^{-x_1 - 0.1}$$

$$X^{t} = x - t \eta f(x)$$

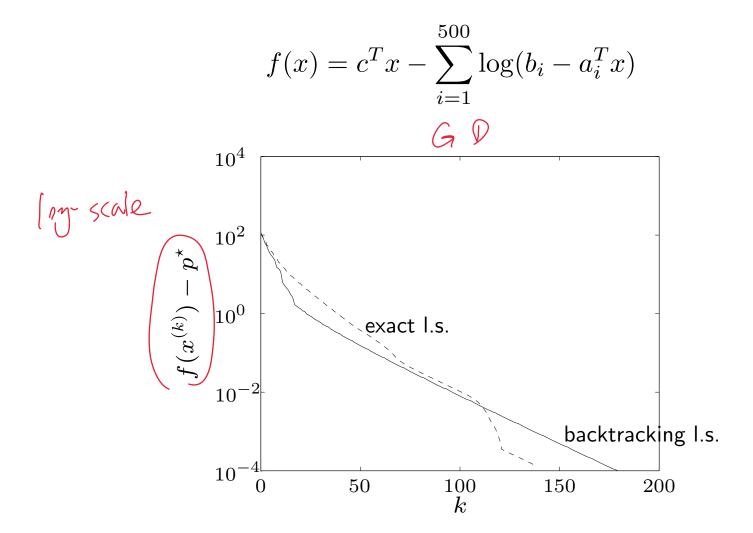




backtracking line search

exact line search

a problem in \mathbf{R}^{100}



'linear' convergence, i.e., a straight line on a semilog plot

$$\frac{\int (x+y) \times \int (x+y)}{\int (x+y)} = \int |x| + \int \int |x| = \int$$

normalized steepest descent direction (at x, for norm $\|\cdot\|$):

$$\underline{\Delta x_{\mathrm{nsd}}} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathcal{V} \in \mathcal{R}^{n}} \{ \nabla f(x)^{T} v | \|v\| = 1 \} \qquad \underline{||z||_{\mathcal{A}}} = \langle \overline{z} | ||x|| \leq 1$$

interpretation: for small v, $f(x+v) \approx f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T v$; direction $\Delta x_{\rm nsd}$ is unit-norm step with most negative directional derivative

(unnormalized) steepest descent direction

steepest descent method

- ullet general descent method with $\Delta x = \Delta x_{
 m sd}$
- convergence properties similar to gradient descent

Df(x). DXns1 = - 11 Of(x)

examples

- Euclidean norm: $\Delta x_{\rm sd} = -\nabla f(x)$
- quadratic norm $||x||_P = (x^T P x)^{1/2} (P \in \mathbf{S}_{++}^n)$: $\Delta x_{\rm sd} = -P^{-1} \nabla f(x)$

Unconstrained minimization 10–12

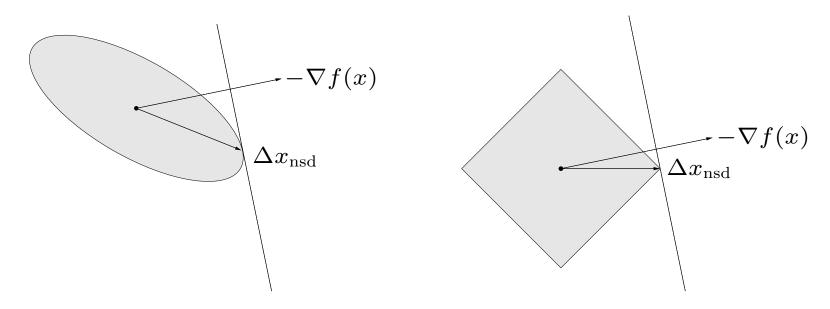
examples

• Euclidean norm: $\Delta x_{\rm sd} = -\nabla f(x)$

• quadratic norm $||x||_P = (x^T P x)^{1/2} \ (P \in \mathbf{S}_{++}^n)$: $\Delta x_{\rm sd} = -P^{-1} \nabla f(x)$

• ℓ_1 -norm: $\Delta x_{\rm sd} = -(\partial f(x)/\partial x_i)e_i$, where $|\partial f(x)/\partial x_i| = \|\nabla f(x)\|_{\infty}$

unit balls and normalized steepest descent directions for a quadratic norm and the ℓ_1 -norm:



choice of norm for steepest descent



- steepest descent with backtracking line search for two quadratic norms
- ellipses show $\{x \mid ||x x^{(k)}||_P = 1\}$
- equivalent interpretation of steepest descent with quadratic norm $\|\cdot\|_P$: gradient descent after change of variables $\bar{x}=P^{1/2}x$

shows choice of P has strong effect on speed of convergence

Newton step

$$\Delta x_{\rm nt} = -\nabla^2 f(x)^{-1} \nabla f(x)$$

interpretations

• $x + \Delta x_{\rm nt}$ minimizes second order approximation

$$\widehat{f}(x+v) = f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T v + \frac{1}{2} v^T \nabla^2 f(x) v$$

• $x + \Delta x_{\rm nt}$ solves linearized optimality condition

$$\nabla f(x+v) \approx \nabla \widehat{f}(x+v) = \nabla f(x) + \nabla^2 f(x)v = 0$$





ullet $\Delta x_{
m nt}$ is steepest descent direction at x in local Hessian norm

$$||u||_{\nabla^2 f(x)} = (u^T \nabla^2 f(x)u)^{1/2}$$



dashed lines are contour lines of f; ellipse is $\{x+v\mid v^T\nabla^2f(x)v=1\}$ arrow shows $-\nabla f(x)$

Newton decrement

$$\lambda(x) = \left(\nabla f(x)^T \nabla^2 f(x)^{-1} \nabla f(x)\right)^{1/2}$$

a measure of the proximity of x to x^*

properties

ullet gives an estimate of $f(x)-p^\star$, using quadratic approximation \widehat{f} :

$$f(x) - \inf_{y} \widehat{f}(y) = \frac{1}{2}\lambda(x)^{2}$$

Newton decrement

$$\lambda(x) = \left(\nabla f(x)^T \nabla^2 f(x)^{-1} \nabla f(x)\right)^{1/2}$$

a measure of the proximity of x to x^*

properties

ullet gives an estimate of $f(x)-p^\star$, using quadratic approximation \widehat{f} :

$$f(x) - \inf_{y} \widehat{f}(y) = \frac{1}{2}\lambda(x)^{2}$$

equal to the norm of the Newton step in the quadratic Hessian norm

$$\lambda(x) = \left(\Delta x_{\rm nt}^T \nabla^2 f(x) \Delta x_{\rm nt}\right)^{1/2}$$

- ullet directional derivative in the Newton direction: $\nabla f(x)^T \Delta x_{\mathrm{nt}} = -\lambda(x)^2$
- affine invariant (unlike $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2$)

Newton's method

given a starting point $x \in \operatorname{dom} f$, tolerance $\epsilon > 0$. repeat

1. Compute the Newton step and decrement.

$$\Delta x_{\rm nt} := -\nabla^2 f(x)^{-1} \nabla f(x); \quad \lambda^2 := \nabla f(x)^T \nabla^2 f(x)^{-1} \nabla f(x).$$

- 2. Stopping criterion. quit if $\lambda^2/2 \leq \epsilon$.
- 3. Line search. Choose step size t by backtracking line search.
- 4. Update. $x := x + t\Delta x_{\rm nt}$.

affine invariant, i.e., independent of linear changes of coordinates:

Newton iterates for $\tilde{f}(y) = f(Ty)$ with starting point $y^{(0)} = T^{-1}x^{(0)}$ are

$$y^{(k)} = T^{-1}x^{(k)}$$

Classical convergence analysis

assumptions

- ullet f strongly convex on S with constant m
- $\nabla^2 f$ is Lipschitz continuous on S, with constant L>0:

$$\|\nabla^2 f(x) - \nabla^2 f(y)\|_2 \le L\|x - y\|_2$$

(L measures how well f can be approximated by a quadratic function)

outline: there exist constants $\eta \in (0, m^2/L)$, $\gamma > 0$ such that

- if $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 \ge \eta$, then $f(x^{(k+1)}) f(x^{(k)}) \le -\gamma$
- if $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 < \eta$, then

$$\frac{L}{2m^2} \|\nabla f(x^{(k+1)})\|_2 \le \left(\frac{L}{2m^2} \|\nabla f(x^{(k)})\|_2\right)^2$$

damped Newton phase $(\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 \ge \eta)$

- most iterations require backtracking steps
- ullet function value decreases by at least γ
- if $p^* > -\infty$, this phase ends after at most $(f(x^{(0)}) p^*)/\gamma$ iterations

quadratically convergent phase $(\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 < \eta)$

- all iterations use step size t=1
- $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2$ converges to zero quadratically: if $\|\nabla f(x^{(k)})\|_2 < \eta$, then

$$\frac{L}{2m^2} \|\nabla f(x^l)\|_2 \le \left(\frac{L}{2m^2} \|\nabla f(x^k)\|_2\right)^{2^{l-k}} \le \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2^{l-k}}, \qquad l \ge k$$

conclusion: number of iterations until $f(x) - p^* \le \epsilon$ is bounded above by

$$\frac{f(x^{(0)}) - p^*}{\gamma} + \log_2 \log_2(\epsilon_0/\epsilon)$$

- ullet γ , ϵ_0 are constants that depend on m, L, $x^{(0)}$
- second term is small (of the order of 6) and almost constant for practical purposes
- ullet in practice, constants m, L (hence γ , ϵ_0) are usually unknown
- provides qualitative insight in convergence properties (i.e., explains two algorithm phases)

Examples

example in \mathbb{R}^2 (page 10–9)





- ullet backtracking parameters lpha=0.1, eta=0.7
- converges in only 5 steps
- quadratic local convergence

example in R^{100} (page 10–10)



- ullet backtracking parameters lpha=0.01, eta=0.5
- backtracking line search almost as fast as exact l.s. (and much simpler)
- clearly shows two phases in algorithm

example in R^{10000} (with sparse a_i)

$$f(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{10000} \log(1 - x_i^2) - \sum_{i=1}^{100000} \log(b_i - a_i^T x)$$



- backtracking parameters $\alpha = 0.01$, $\beta = 0.5$.
- performance similar as for small examples

Summary