Conjugate gradients method

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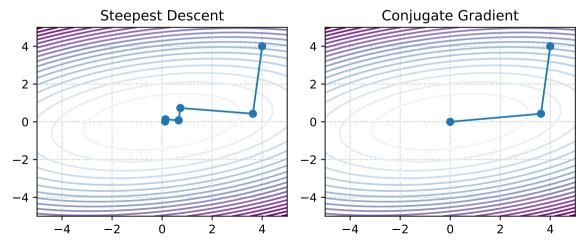




Strongly convex quadraticsConsider the following quadratic optimization problem:

Optimality conditions

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x) = \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} x^\top A x - b^\top x + c, \text{ where } A \in \mathbb{S}^n_{++}. \tag{1}$$



Exact line search aka steepest descent

$$\alpha_k = \arg\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+} f(x_{k+1}) = \arg\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+} f(x_k - \alpha \nabla f(x_k))$$

More theoretical than practical approach. It also allows you to analyze the convergence, but often exact line search can be difficult if the function calculation takes too long or costs a lot. An interesting theoretical property of this method is that each following iteration is orthogonal to the previous one:

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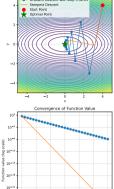
$$\alpha_k = \arg\min_{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^+} f(x_k - \alpha \nabla f(x_k))$$

Optimality conditions:

$$\nabla f(x_k)^T \nabla f(x_{k+1}) = 0$$

Optimal value for quadratics

$$\nabla f(x_k)^{\top} A(x_k - \alpha \nabla f(x_k)) - \nabla f(x_k)^{\top} b = 0 \qquad \alpha_k = \frac{\nabla f(x_k)^{\top} \nabla f(x_k)}{\nabla f(x_k)^{\top} A \nabla f(x_k)}$$

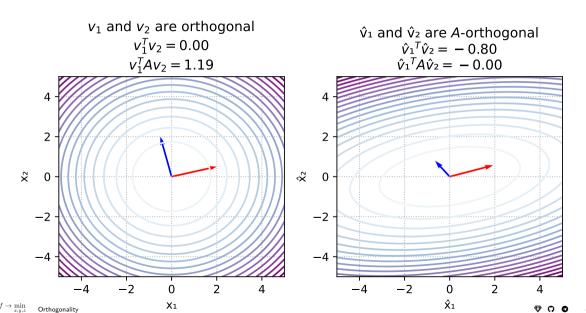


Trajectories with Contour Plot

Figure 1: Steepest Descent

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Suppose, we have two coordinate systems and some quadratic function $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^TIx$ looks just like on the left part of Figure 2, while in other coordinates it looks like $f(\hat{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\hat{x}^TA\hat{x}$, where $A \in \mathbb{S}^n_{++}$.

$$\frac{1}{2}x^T I x \qquad \qquad \frac{1}{2}\hat{x}^T A \hat{x}$$

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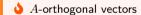
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Vectors $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ are called A-orthogonal (or A-conjugate) if

$$x^T A y = 0 \qquad \Leftrightarrow \qquad x \perp_A y$$

When A = I, A-orthogonality becomes orthogonality.

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0,\ldots,d_{n-1} .

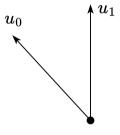


Figure 3: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

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Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal $d_0,\ldots,d_{n-1}.$

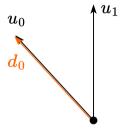


Figure 4: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

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Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1} .

Output: n linearly independent vectors, which are pairwise orthogonal d_0,\ldots,d_{n-1} .

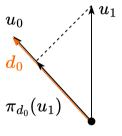


Figure 5: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

Orthogonality

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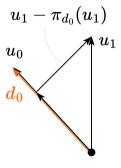


Figure 6: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

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Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1} .

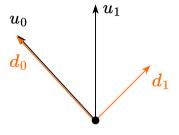
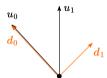
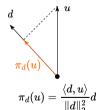


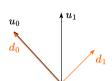
Figure 7: Illustration of Gram-Schmidt orthogonalization process

Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1} .



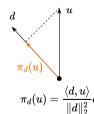




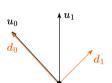


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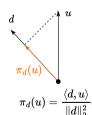




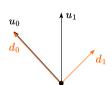


Input: n linearly independent vectors u_0, \ldots, u_{n-1} .

$$d_0 = u_0 d_1 = u_1 - \pi_{d_0}(u_1)$$





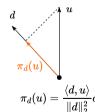


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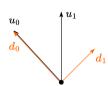
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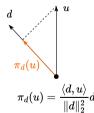
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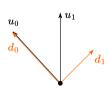
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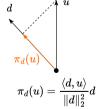
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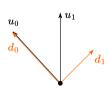
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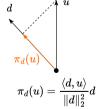
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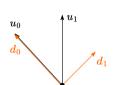
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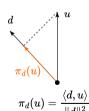
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$$d_k = u_k + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} \beta_{ik} d_i \qquad \beta_{ik} = -\frac{\langle d_i, u_k \rangle}{\langle d_i, d_i \rangle}$$

• In an isotropic A=I world, the steepest descent starting from an arbitrary point in any n orthogonal linearly independent directions will converge in n steps in exact arithmetic. We attempt to construct the same procedure in the case $A \neq I$ using the concept of A-orthogonality.



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$$x^* = x_0 + \sum_{i=0}^{n-1} \alpha_i d_i$$
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• We will prove, that α_i and d_i could be selected in a very efficient way (Conjugate Gradient method).



Thus, we formulate an algorithm:

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5. Repeat steps 2-4 until n directions are built, where n is the dimension of space (dimension of x).

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If a set of vectors d_1, \ldots, d_n - are A-conjugate (each pair of vectors is A-conjugate), these vectors are linearly independent. $A \in \mathbb{S}^n_{++}$.



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We'll show, that if $\sum \alpha_i d_i = 0$, than all coefficients should be equal to zero:

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i d_i \\ \text{Multiply by } d_j^T A \cdot &= d_j^\top A \left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i d_i \right) = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i d_j^\top A d_i \\ &= \alpha_j d_j^\top A d_j + 0 + \ldots + 0 \end{aligned}$$



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Thus, $\alpha_j = 0$, for all other indices one has to perform the same process

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• Note also, that since $x_{k+1} = x_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i d_i$, we have

$$e_{k+1} = e_0 + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i d_i.$$

(4)

(5)

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Suppose, we solve n-dimensional quadratic convex optimization problem (1). The conjugate directions method

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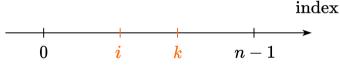
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Multiply both sides by $-d_i^T A$.

$$-d_i^T A e_k = \sum_{j=k}^{n-1} \alpha_j d_i^T A d_j = 0$$



Thus, $d_i^T r_k = 0$ and residual r_k is orthogonal to all previous directions d_i for the CD method.

(7)

The idea of the Conjugate Gradients (CG) method

• It is literally the Conjugate Direction method, where we have a special (effective) choice of d_0, \ldots, d_{n-1} .



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- The main idea is that for an arbitrary CD method, the Gramm-Schmidt process is quite computationally expensive and requires a quadratic number of vector addition and scalar product operations $\mathcal{O}\left(n^2\right)$, while in the case of CG, we will show that the complexity of this procedure can be reduced to linear $\mathcal{O}\left(n\right)$.



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 $\mathsf{CG} = \mathsf{CD} + r_0, \dots, r_{n-1}$ as starting vectors for $\mathsf{Gram} ext{-}\mathsf{Schmidt} + A ext{-}\mathsf{orthogonality}.$





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$$d_i = u_i + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} \beta_{ji} d_j \quad \beta_{ji} = -\frac{\langle d_j, u_i \rangle_A}{\langle d_j, d_j \rangle_A} \quad (9)$$

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+ +

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$$r_k^T d_i = r_k^T u_i + \sum_{j=0}^{k-1} eta_{ji} r_k^T d_j$$

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 $d_i = u_i + \sum_{j=1}^{\kappa-1} \beta_{ji} d_j \quad \beta_{ji} = -\frac{\langle d_j, u_i \rangle_A}{\langle d_j, d_j \rangle_A} \quad \text{(9) Multiply both sides of (9) by } r_k^T \cdot \text{ for some index } k:$

 $r_{i}^{T}r_{k}=0 \quad \forall i \neq k$

 $r_k^T d_i = r_k^T u_i + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} eta_{ji} r_k^T d_j$

If j < i < k, we have the lemma 4 with $d_i^T r_k = 0$ and $d_i^T r_k = 0$. We $d_i = r_i + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \beta_{ji} d_j \ \beta_{ji} = -\frac{\langle d_j, r_i \rangle_A}{\langle d_j, d_i \rangle_A} \ \ ext{(10)} \ \ ext{have:}$ $r_k^T u_i = 0$ for CD $r_k^T r_i = 0$ for CG

Moreover, if k = i:

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Lemma 6. Residual recalculation

$$r_{k+1} = -Ae_{k+1} = -A(e_k + \alpha_k d_k) = -Ae_k - \alpha_k Ad_k = r_k - \alpha_k Ad_k$$

Finally, all these above lemmas are enough to prove, that $\beta_{ji}=0$ for all i,j, except the neighboring ones.

 $r_{k+1} = r_k - \alpha_k A d_k$

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(11)

Consider the Gram-Schmidt process in the CG method

$$\beta_{ji} = -\frac{\langle d_j, u_i \rangle_A}{\langle d_j, d_j \rangle_A}$$



Consider the Gram-Schmidt process in the CG method

$$\beta_{ji} = -\frac{\langle d_j, u_i \rangle_A}{\langle d_j, d_j \rangle_A} = -\frac{d_j^T A u_i}{d_j^T A d_j}$$



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$$\langle r_i, r_{j+1} \rangle$$



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- 3. For any other case: $\alpha_i \langle r_i, Ad_i \rangle = 0$, because all residuals are orthogonal to each other.

Finally, we have a formula for i = j + 1:

$$\beta_{ji} = -\frac{r_i^T A d_j}{d_i^T A d_j} = \frac{1}{\alpha_j} \frac{\langle r_i, r_i \rangle}{d_i^T A d_j} = \frac{d_j^T A d_j}{d_i^T r_j} \frac{\langle r_i, r_i \rangle}{d_i^T A d_j} = \frac{\langle r_i, r_i \rangle}{\langle r_j, r_j \rangle} = \frac{\langle r_i, r_i \rangle}{\langle r_{i-1}, r_{i-1} \rangle}$$

And for the direction

$$d_{k+1} = r_{k+1} + \beta_{k,k+1} d_k, \qquad \beta_{k,k+1} = \beta_k = \frac{\langle r_{k+1}, r_{k+1} \rangle}{\langle r_{k+1}, r_{k+1} \rangle}.$$



Conjugate gradients method

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{r}_0 &:= \mathbf{b} - \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_0 \\ \text{if } \mathbf{r}_0 \text{ is sufficiently small, then return } \mathbf{x}_0 \text{ as the result} \\ \mathbf{d}_0 &:= \mathbf{r}_0 \\ k &:= 0 \\ \text{repeat} \\ & \alpha_k := \frac{\mathbf{r}_k^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{r}_k}{\mathbf{d}_k^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_k} \\ & \mathbf{x}_{k+1} := \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}_k \\ & \mathbf{r}_{k+1} := \mathbf{r}_k - \alpha_k \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_k \\ & \text{if } \mathbf{r}_{k+1} \text{ is sufficiently small, then exit loop} \\ & \beta_k := \frac{\mathbf{r}_{k+1}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{r}_{k+1}}{\mathbf{r}_k^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{r}_k} \\ & \mathbf{d}_{k+1} := \mathbf{r}_{k+1} + \beta_k \mathbf{d}_k \\ & k := k+1 \\ \text{end repeat} \end{split}$$

return \mathbf{x}_{k+1} as the result

Convergence

Theorem 1. If matrix A has only r different eigenvalues, then the conjugate gradient method converges in riterations.

Theorem 2. The following convergence bound holds

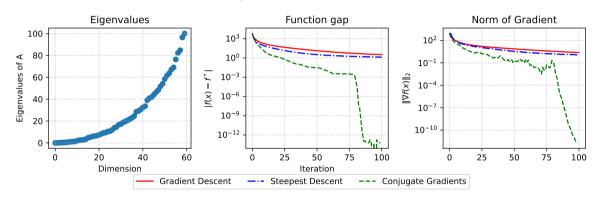
$$||x_k - x^*||_A \le 2 \left(\frac{\sqrt{\kappa(A)} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa(A)} + 1}\right)^k ||x_0 - x^*||_A,$$

where $||x||_A^2 = x^\top Ax$ and $\kappa(A) = \frac{\lambda_1(A)}{\lambda_n(A)}$ is the conditioning number of matrix $A, \lambda_1(A) \geq ... \geq \lambda_n(A)$ are the eigenvalues of matrix A

Note: Compare the coefficient of the geometric progression with its analog in gradient descent.



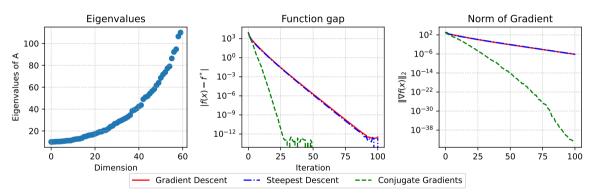
Convex quadratics. n=60, random matrix.







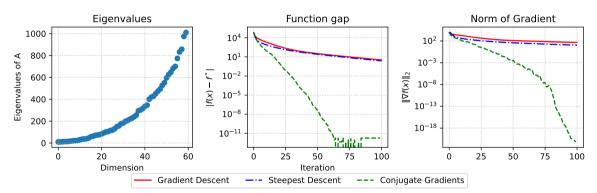
Strongly convex quadratics. n=60, random matrix.





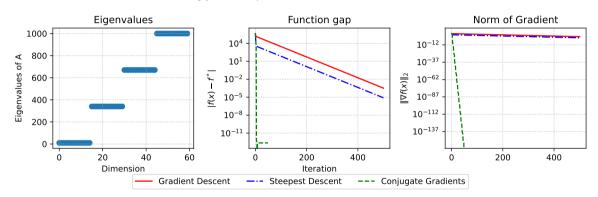


Strongly convex quadratics. n=60, random matrix.



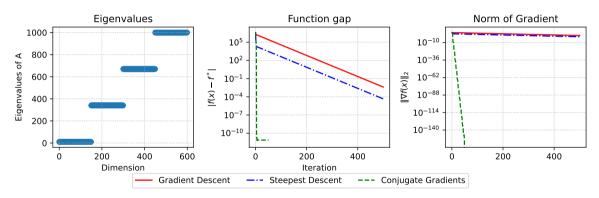


Strongly convex quadratics. n=60, clustered matrix.



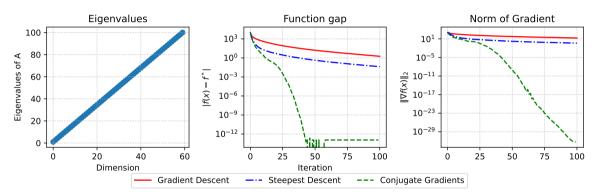


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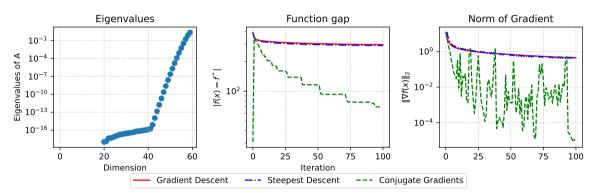
Strongly convex quadratics. n=60, uniform spectrum matrix.







Strongly convex quadratics. n=60, Hilbert matrix.







Non-linear conjugate gradient method

In case we do not have an analytic expression for a function or its gradient, we will most likely not be able to solve the one-dimensional minimization problem analytically. Therefore, step 2 of the algorithm is replaced by the usual line search procedure. But there is the following mathematical trick for the fourth point:

For two iterations, it is fair:

$$x_{k+1} - x_k = cd_k,$$

where c is some kind of constant. Then for the quadratic case, we have:

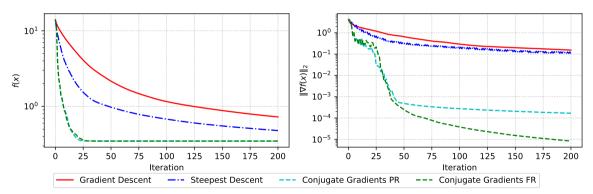
$$\nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k) = (Ax_{k+1} - b) - (Ax_k - b) = A(x_{k+1} - x_k) = cAd_k$$

Expressing from this equation the work $Ad_k = \frac{1}{c} \left(\nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k) \right)$, we get rid of the "knowledge" of the function in step definition β_k , then point 4 will be rewritten as:

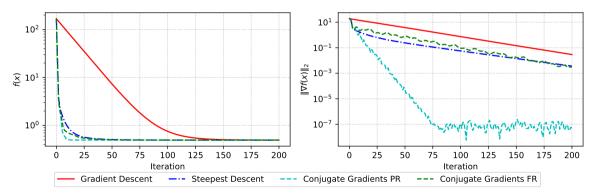
$$\beta_k = \frac{\nabla f(x_{k+1})^\top (\nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k))}{d_k^\top (\nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k))}.$$

This method is called the Polack-Ribier method.

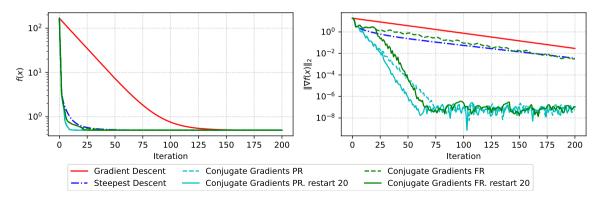
$$f(x) = \frac{\mu}{2} ||x||_2^2 + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \log(1 + \exp(-y_i \langle a_i, x \rangle)) \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$



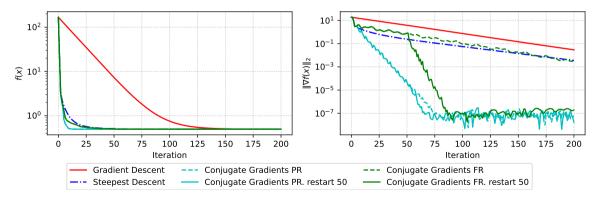
$$f(x) = \frac{\mu}{2} ||x||_2^2 + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \log(1 + \exp(-y_i \langle a_i, x \rangle)) \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$



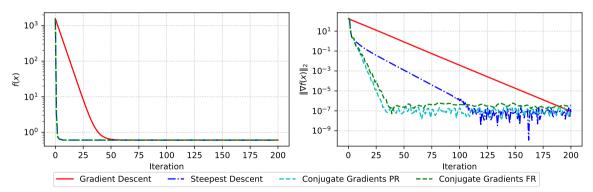
$$f(x) = \frac{\mu}{2} ||x||_2^2 + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \log(1 + \exp(-y_i \langle a_i, x \rangle)) \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$



$$f(x) = \frac{\mu}{2} ||x||_2^2 + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \log(1 + \exp(-y_i \langle a_i, x \rangle)) \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$



$$f(x) = \frac{\mu}{2} ||x||_2^2 + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \log(1 + \exp(-y_i \langle a_i, x \rangle)) \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$



$$f(x) = \frac{\mu}{2} ||x||_2^2 + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \log(1 + \exp(-y_i \langle a_i, x \rangle)) \to \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$

