

Methods

1 General formulation

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \\ \text{s.t. } & g_i(x) \leq 0, i = 1, \dots, m \\ & h_j(x) = 0, j = 1, \dots, k \end{aligned}$$

Some necessary or/and sufficient conditions are known (See [Optimality conditions. KKT](#) and [Convex optimization problem](#)).

- In fact, there might be very challenging to recognize the convenient form of optimization problem.
- Analytical solution of KKT could be inviable.

1.1 Iterative methods

Typically, the methods generate an infinite sequence of approximate solutions

$$\{x_t\},$$

which for a finite number of steps (or better - time) converges to an optimal (at least one of the optimal) solution x_* .

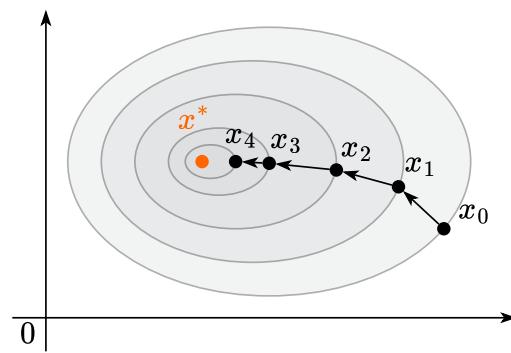


Illustration of iterative method approaches to the solution x^*

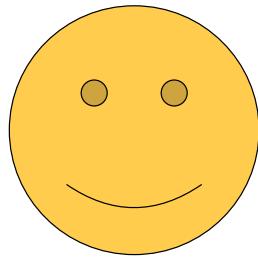
```
def GeneralScheme(x, epsilon):
    while not StopCriterion(x, epsilon):
        OracleResponse = RequestOracle(x)
        x = NextPoint(x, OracleResponse)
    return x
```

1.2 Oracle conception

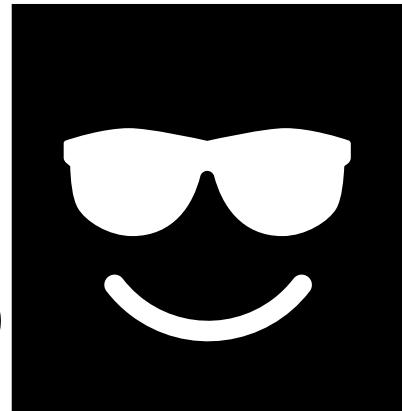


x_k

ORACLE



$f(x_k), f'(x_k), f''(x_k)$



Black - box

Depending on the maximum order of derivative available from the oracle we call the oracles as zero order, first order, second order oracles and etc.

2 Unsolvability of numerical optimization problem

In general, **optimization problems are unsolvable.** $\sim \backslash(\backslash)/\sim$

Consider the following simple optimization problem of a function over unit cube:

$$\begin{aligned} & \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x) \\ & \text{s.t. } x \in \mathbb{C}^n \end{aligned}$$

We assume, that the objective function $f(\cdot) : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is Lipschitz continuous on \mathbb{B}^n :

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq L \|x - y\|_\infty \quad \forall x, y \in \mathbb{C}^n,$$

with some constant L (Lipschitz constant). Here \mathbb{C}^n - the n -dimensional unit cube

$$\mathbb{C}^n = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid 0 \leq x_i \leq 1, i = 1, \dots, n\}$$

Our goal is to find such $\tilde{x} : |f(\tilde{x}) - f^*| \leq \varepsilon$ for some positive ε . Here f^* is the global minima of the problem. Uniform grid with p points on each dimension guarantees at least this quality:

$$\|\tilde{x} - x_*\|_\infty \leq \frac{1}{2p},$$

which means, that

$$|f(\tilde{x}) - f(x_*)| \leq \frac{L}{2p}$$

Our goal is to find the p for some ε . So, we need to sample $\left(\frac{L}{2\varepsilon}\right)^n$ points, since we need to measure function in p^n points. Doesn't look scary, but if we'll take $L = 2, n = 11, \varepsilon = 0.01$, computations on the modern personal computers will take 31,250,000 years.

2.1 Stopping rules

- Argument closeness:

$$\|x_k - x_*\|_2 < \varepsilon$$

- Function value closeness:

$$\|f_k - f^*\|_2 < \varepsilon$$

- Closeness to a critical point

$$\|f'(x_k)\|_2 < \varepsilon$$

But x_* and $f^* = f(x_*)$ are unknown!

Sometimes, we can use the trick:

$$\|x_{k+1} - x_k\| = \|x_{k+1} - x_k + x_* - x_*\| \leq \|x_{k+1} - x_*\| + \|x_k - x_*\| \leq 2\varepsilon$$

Note: it's better to use relative changing of these values, i.e. $\frac{\|x_{k+1} - x_k\|_2}{\|x_k\|_2}$.

💡 Example

Suppose, you are trying to estimate the vector x_{true} with some approximation x_{approx} . One can choose between two relative errors:

$$\frac{\|x_{approx} - x_{true}\|}{\|x_{approx}\|} \quad \frac{\|x_{approx} - x_{true}\|}{\|x_{true}\|}$$

If both x_{approx} and x_{true} are close to each other, then the difference between them is small, while if your approximation is far from the truth (say, $x_{approx} = 10x_{true}$ or $x_{approx} = 0.01x_{true}$ they differ drastically).

2.2 Local nature of the methods

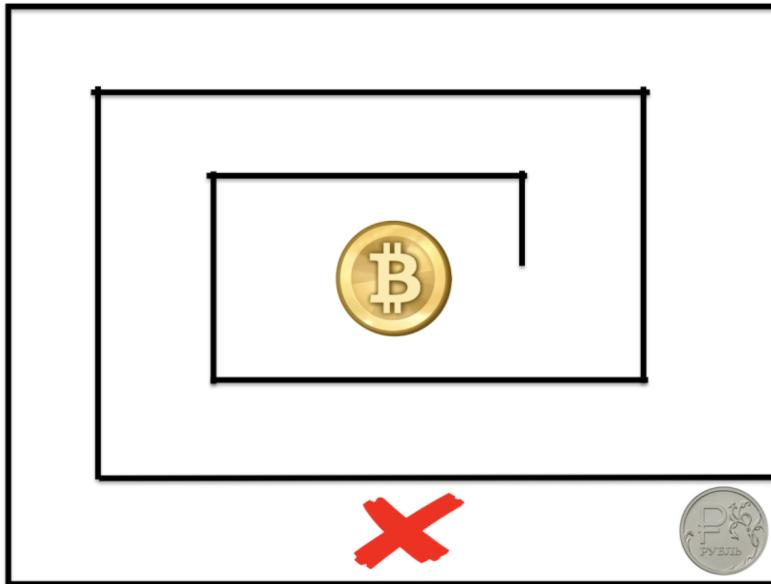
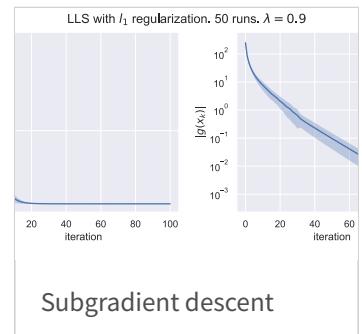
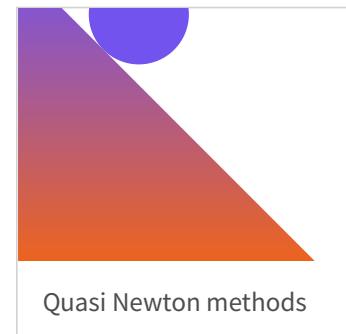
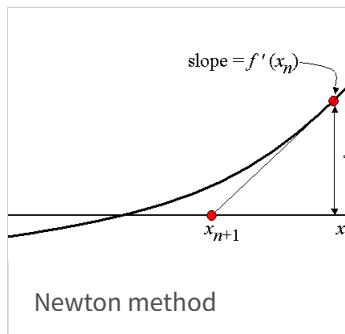
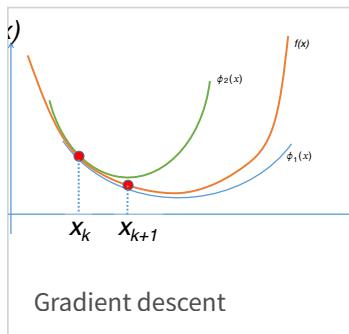


Illustration of the idea of locality in black-box optimization

3 Contents of the chapter



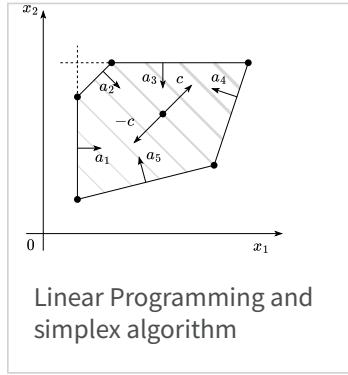
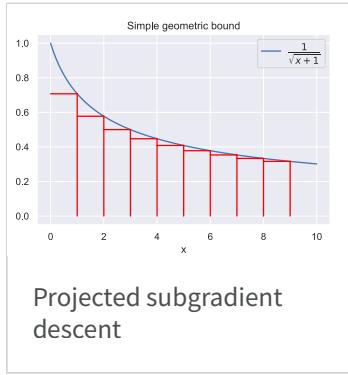
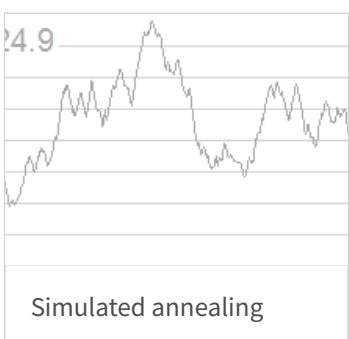
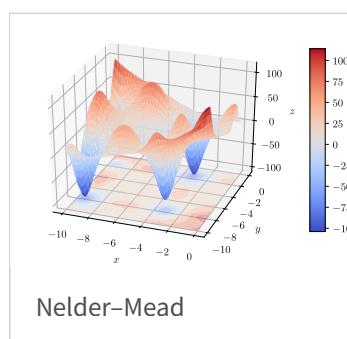
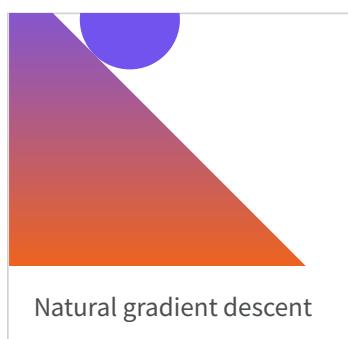
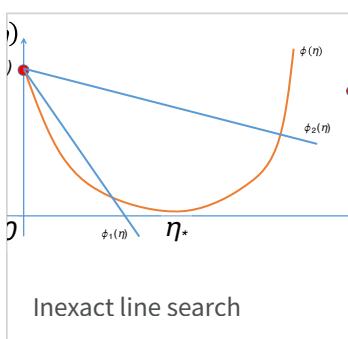
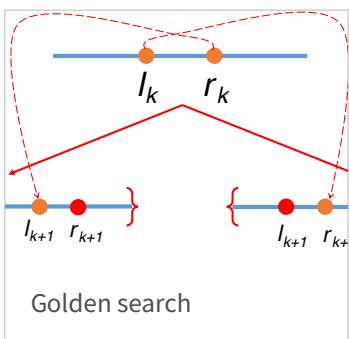
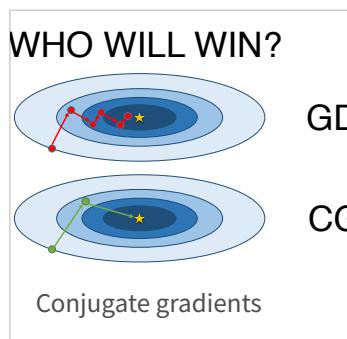
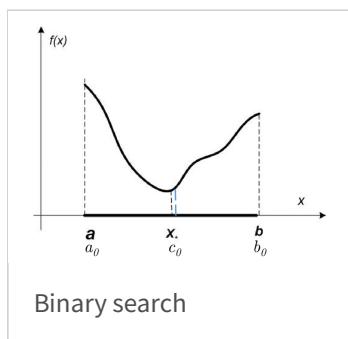
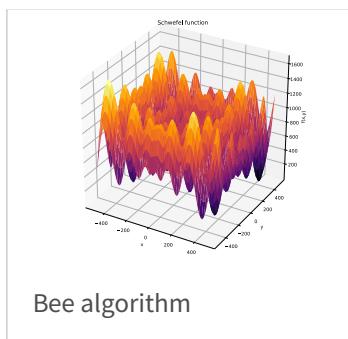
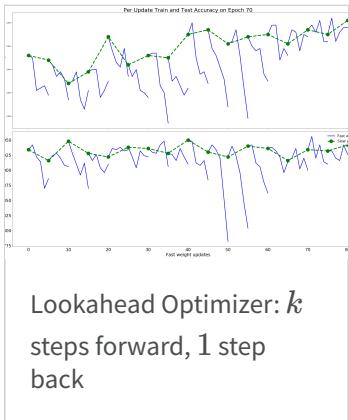
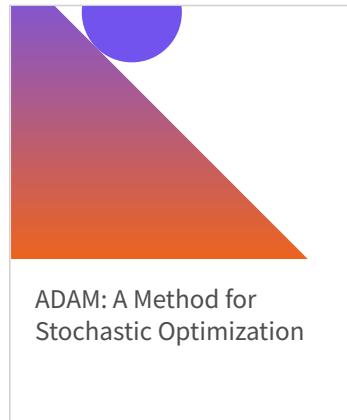
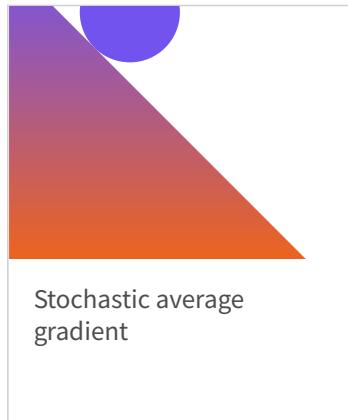
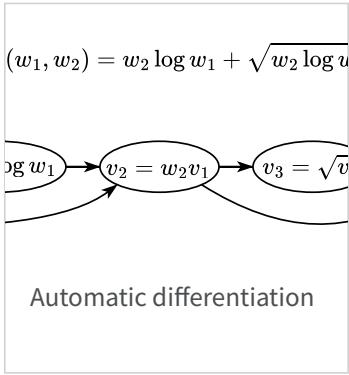


TABLE 2.1
Common seed functions and the corresponding divergences.

Function name	$\phi(x)$	$\text{dom } \phi(x)$	$V_\phi(y)$
Squared norm	$\frac{1}{2}x^2$	$(-\infty, +\infty)$	$\frac{1}{2}(x - y)^2$
Shanon entropy	$x \log x + (1-x) \log(1-x)$	$[0, 1]$	$x \log \frac{x}{y} + (1-x) \log \frac{1-x}{1-y}$
Boltzmann entropy	$-e^{-x}$	$(-\infty, +\infty)$	e^{-y}
Bellman	$-\sqrt{1-x^2}$	$[0, 1]$	$(1-y)(1-y^2)^{-1/2}, (1-x^2)^{1/2}$
ℓ_p quasi-norm	$-x^p$ $(0 < p < 1)$	$[0, +\infty)$	$-x^p + p x^{p-1} - (p-1)x^p$
ℓ_p norm	$ x ^p$ $(1 < p < \infty)$	$(-\infty, +\infty)$	$ x ^p - p x \operatorname{sgn}(x) x ^{p-1} + (p-1) x ^p$
Exponential	$\exp x$	$(-\infty, +\infty)$	$\exp(-c) - (c - y + 1)\exp y$
Inverse	$1/x$	$(0, +\infty)$	$1/x + x/y^2 - 2/y$

TABLE 2.2
Common exponential families and the corresponding divergences.

Exponential family	$v(\theta)$	$\text{dom } v$	$\mu(\theta)$	$\nu(\theta)$	Divergence
Gaussian (σ^2 fixed)	$\frac{1}{2}\sigma^2\theta^2$	$(-\infty, +\infty)$	$\sigma^2\theta$	$\frac{\sigma^2}{2}x^2$	Euclidean
Poisson	$\exp\theta$	$(-\infty, +\infty)$	$\exp\theta$	$x \log x - x$	Relative entropy
Bernoulli	$\log(1 + \exp\theta)$	$(-\infty, +\infty)$	$\frac{1 + \exp\theta}{\exp\theta}$	$-\alpha \log x + \alpha \log(1 - x)$	Logistic loss
Gamma (α fixed)	$-\alpha \log(-\theta)$	$(-\infty, 0)$	$-\theta$	$-\alpha \log x + \alpha \log(-x)$	Hikaru-Saito



Rates of convergence

1 Speed of convergence

In order to compare performance of algorithms we need to define a terminology for different types of convergence. Let $r_k = \{\|x_k - x^*\|_2\}$ be a sequence in \mathbb{R}^n that converges to zero.

1.1 Linear convergence

We can define the *linear* convergence in a two different forms:

$$\|x_{k+1} - x^*\|_2 \leq Cq^k \quad \text{or} \quad \|x_{k+1} - x^*\|_2 \leq q\|x_k - x^*\|_2,$$

for all sufficiently large k . Here $q \in (0, 1)$ and $0 < C < \infty$. This means that the distance to the solution x^* decreases at each iteration by at least a constant factor bounded away from 1. Note, that sometimes this type of convergence is also called *exponential* or *geometric*. We call the q the convergence rate.

💡 Question

Suppose, you have two sequences with linear convergence rates $q_1 = 0.1$ and $q_2 = 0.7$, which one is faster?

💡 Example

Let us have the following sequence:

$$r_k = \frac{1}{3^k}$$

One can immediately conclude, that we have a linear convergence with parameters $q = \frac{1}{3}$ and $C = 0$.

💡 Question

Let us have the following sequence:

$$r_k = \frac{4}{3^k}$$

Will this sequence be convergent? What is the convergence rate?

1.2 Sublinear convergence

If the sequence r_k converges to zero, but does not have linear convergence, the convergence is said to be sublinear. Sometimes we can consider the following class of sublinear convergence:

$$\|x_{k+1} - x^*\|_2 \leq Ck^q,$$

where $q < 0$ and $0 < C < \infty$. Note, that sublinear convergence means, that the sequence is converging slower, than any geometric progression.

1.3 Superlinear convergence

The convergence is said to be *superlinear* if:

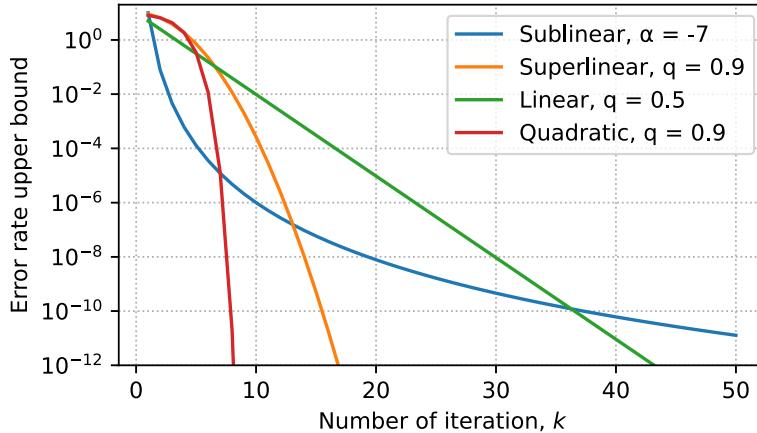
$$\|x_{k+1} - x^*\|_2 \leq Cq^{k^2} \quad \text{or} \quad \|x_{k+1} - x^*\|_2 \leq C_k\|x_k - x^*\|_2,$$

where $q \in (0, 1)$ or $0 < C_k < \infty$, $C_k \rightarrow 0$. Note, that superlinear convergence is also linear convergence (one can even say, that it is linear convergence with $q = 0$).

1.4 Quadratic convergence

$$\|x_{k+1} - x^*\|_2 \leq Cq^{2^k} \quad \text{or} \quad \|x_{k+1} - x^*\|_2 \leq C\|x_k - x^*\|_2^2,$$

where $q \in (0, 1)$ and $0 < C < \infty$.



Difference between the convergence speed

Quasi-Newton methods for unconstrained optimization typically converge superlinearly, whereas Newton's method converges quadratically under appropriate assumptions. In contrast, steepest descent algorithms converge only at a linear rate, and when the problem is ill-conditioned the convergence constant q is close to 1.

2 How to determine convergence type

2.1 Root test

Let $\{r_k\}_{k=m}^\infty$ be a sequence of non-negative numbers, converging to zero, and let

$$q = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \sup_k r_k^{1/k}$$

- If $0 \leq q < 1$, then $\{r_k\}_{k=m}^\infty$ has linear convergence with constant q .
- In particular, if $q = 0$, then $\{r_k\}_{k=m}^\infty$ has superlinear convergence.
- If $q = 1$, then $\{r_k\}_{k=m}^\infty$ has sublinear convergence.
- The case $q > 1$ is impossible.

2.2 Ratio test

Let $\{r_k\}_{k=m}^\infty$ be a sequence of strictly positive numbers converging to zero. Let

$$q = \lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_{k+1}}{r_k}$$

- If there exists q and $0 \leq q < 1$, then $\{r_k\}_{k=m}^\infty$ has linear convergence with constant q .
- In particular, if $q = 0$, then $\{r_k\}_{k=m}^\infty$ has superlinear convergence.
- If q does not exist, but $q = \limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_{k+1}}{r_k} < 1$, then $\{r_k\}_{k=m}^\infty$ has linear convergence with a constant not exceeding q .
- If $\liminf_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_{k+1}}{r_k} = 1$, then $\{r_k\}_{k=m}^\infty$ has sublinear convergence.
- The case $\liminf_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_{k+1}}{r_k} > 1$ is impossible.
- In all other cases (i.e., when $\liminf_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_{k+1}}{r_k} < 1 \leq \limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{r_{k+1}}{r_k}$) we cannot claim anything concrete about the convergence rate $\{r_k\}_{k=m}^\infty$.

Example

Let us have the following sequence:

$$r_k = \frac{1}{k}$$

Determine the convergence

Example

Let us have the following sequence:

$$r_k = \frac{1}{k^2}$$

Determine the convergence

Example

Let us have the following sequence:

$$r_k = \frac{1}{k^q}, q > 1$$

Determine the convergence

Try to use root test here

Let us have the following sequence:

$$r_k = \frac{1}{k^k}$$

Determine the convergence

3 References

- Code for convergence plots - [Open In Colab](#)
- [CMC seminars \(ru\)](#)
- Numerical Optimization by J.Nocedal and S.J.Wright