Projected Gradient Algorithm

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Overview

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- 5 Theorem 2. PGD converges at order $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\right)$ on Lipschitz function
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Constrained and unconstrained problem

► For unconstrained minimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}),$$

any \mathbf{x} in \mathbb{R}^n can be a solution.

lacktriangle For constrained minimization problem with a given set $\mathcal{Q}\subset\mathbb{R}^n$

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathcal{Q}}f(\mathbf{x}),$$

not any ${\bf x}$ can be a solution, the solution has to be inside the set ${\cal Q}.$

► An example of constrained minimization problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2 \quad \text{s.t. } \|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \le 1$$

can be expressed as

$$\min_{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2 \le 1} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2.$$

Solving unconstrained problem by gradient descent

- ► **Gradient Descent** (GD) is a standard (easy and simple) way to solve **unconstrained** optimization problem.
- ▶ Starting from an initial point $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, GD iterates the following equation until a stopping condition is met:

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k),$$

where ∇f is the gradient of f, the parameter $\alpha \geq 0$ is the step size, and k is the iteration counter.

■ Question: how about constrained problem? Is it possible to tune GD to fit constrained problem?

Answer: yes, and the key is projection.

Remark: If f is not differentiable, we can replace gradient by subgradient, and we get the so-called subgradient method.

Solving constrained problem by projected gradient descent

- ► Projected Gradient Descent (PGD) is a standard (easy and simple) way to solve constrained optimization problem.
- ▶ Consider a constraint set $\mathcal{Q} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$, starting from a initial point $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathcal{Q}$, PGD iterates the following equation until a stopping condition is met:

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = P_{\mathcal{Q}}\Big(\mathbf{x}_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)\Big).$$

 $\blacktriangleright\ P_{\mathcal{Q}}(\ .\)$ is the projection operator, and itself is also an optimization problem:

$$P_{\mathcal{Q}}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \arg\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{Q}} \frac{1}{2} ||\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0||_2^2,$$

i.e. given a point \mathbf{x}_0 , $P_{\mathcal{Q}}$ try to find a point $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{Q}$ which is "closest" to \mathbf{x}_0 .

About the projection

 $ightharpoonup P_{\mathcal{Q}}(\,.\,)$ is a function from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R}^n , and itself is an optimization problem:

$$P_{\mathcal{Q}}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \arg\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{Q}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|_2^2.$$

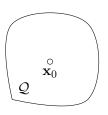
- ▶ PGD is an "economic" algorithm if the problem is easy to solve. This is not true for general Q and there are lots of constraint sets that are very difficult to project onto.
- \blacktriangleright If ${\cal Q}$ is a convex set, the optimization problem has a unique solution.
- ▶ If Q is nonconvex, the solution to $P_Q(\mathbf{x}_0)$ may not be unique: it gives more than one solution.

Comparing PGD to GD

- ► GD
 - 1. Pick an initial point $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 - 2. Loop until stopping condition is met:
 - 2.1 Descent direction: pick the descent direction as $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$
 - 2.2 Stepsize: pick a step size α_k
 - 2.3 Update: $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k \alpha_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$
- ▶ PGD
 - 1. Pick an initial point $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathcal{Q}$
 - 2. Loop until stopping condition is met:
 - 2.1 Descent direction: pick the descent direction as $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$
 - 2.2 Stepsize: pick a step size α_k
 - 2.3 Update: $\mathbf{y}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k \alpha_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$
 - 2.4 Projection: $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \underset{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{O}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{2} ||\mathbf{x} \mathbf{y}_{k+1}||_2^2$
- ▶ PGD has one more step: the projection.
- ► The idea of PGD is simple: if the point $\mathbf{x}_k \alpha_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$ after the gradient update is leaving the set \mathcal{Q} , project it back.

Understanding the geometry of projection ... (1/5)

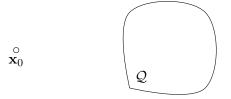
Consider a convex set $\mathcal Q$ and a point $\mathbf x_0 \in \mathcal Q$.



- ▶ As $x_0 \in \mathcal{Q}$, the closest point to x_0 in \mathcal{Q} will be x_0 itself.
- ► The distance between a point to itself is zero.
- ► Mathematically: $\frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}_0\|_2^2 = 0$ gives $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_0$.

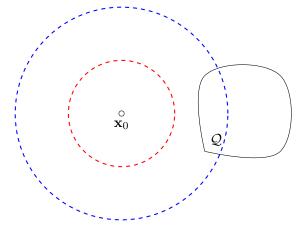
Understanding the geometry of projection ... (2/5)

Now consider a convex set Q and a point $\mathbf{x}_0 \notin Q$: outside Q.



Understanding the geometry of projection ... (3/5)

- \blacktriangleright The circles are L_2 norm ball centered at \mathbf{x}_0 with different radius.
- ▶ Points on these circles are **equidistant** to \mathbf{x}_0 (with different L_2 distance on different circles).
- lacktriangle Note that some points on the blue circle are inside \mathcal{Q} .



Understanding the geometry of projection ... (4/5)

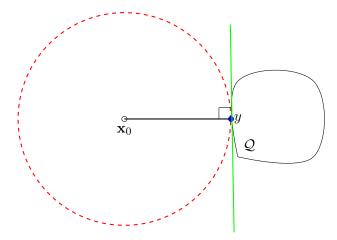
- ▶ The point inside Q which is closest to \mathbf{x}_0 is the point where the L_2 norm ball "touches" Q.
- ightharpoonup In this example, the blue point \mathbf{y} is the solution to

$$P_{\mathcal{Q}}(\mathbf{x}_0) = \underset{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{Q}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|_2^2.$$

In fact, it can be proved that, such point is always located on the **boundary** of \mathcal{Q} for $\mathbf{x}_0 \notin \mathcal{Q}$. That is, mathematically, $\underset{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{Q}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \ \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|_2^2 \in \ \mathsf{bd} \mathcal{Q} \ \mathsf{if} \ \mathbf{x}_0 \notin \mathcal{Q}.$

Understanding the geometry of projection ... (5/5)

Note that the projection is **orthogonal**: the blue point y is always on a straight line that is tangent to the norm ball and Q.



PGD is a special case of proximal gradient

- ▶ The indicator function, denoted as $i(\mathbf{x})$, of a set \mathcal{Q} is defined as follows: if $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{Q}$, then $i(\mathbf{x}) = 0$; if $\mathbf{x} \notin \mathcal{Q}$, then $i(\mathbf{x}) = \infty$.
- With the indicator function, constrained problem has two equivalent expressions

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{Q}} f(\mathbf{x}) \quad \equiv \quad \min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) + i(\mathbf{x}).$$

► Proximal gradient is a method to solve the optimization problem of a sum of differentiable and a non-differentiable function:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x}),$$

where g is a non-differentiable function.

▶ PGD is in fact the special case of proximal gradient where $g(\mathbf{x})$ is the indicator function of the constrain set. See here for more about proximal gradient .

On PGD convergence rate

▶ Theorem 1. If f is convex, PGD with constant stepsize α satisfies

$$f\left(\frac{1}{K+1}\sum_{k=0}^{K}\mathbf{x}_{k}\right) - f^{*} \leq \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_{0} - \mathbf{x}^{*}\|_{2}^{2}}{2\alpha(K+1)} + \frac{\alpha}{2(K+1)}\sum_{k=0}^{K}\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k})\|_{2}^{2},$$

where $f^* = f(\mathbf{x}^*)$ is the optimal cost value, \mathbf{x}^* is the (global) minimizer, α is the constant stepsize, K is the total of number of iteration performed.

▶ Interpretation of this theorem: the term $\frac{1}{K+1}\sum_{k=0}^K \mathbf{x}_k$ is the "average" of the sequence \mathbf{x}_k after K iteration, hence we can denote it as \bar{x} and $f(\bar{x})$ as \bar{f} . Then the theorem reads:

$$\bar{f} - f^* \le \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2}{2\alpha(K+1)} + \text{something positive.}$$

Hence the convergence rate is like $\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{K})$.

▶ For the second term on the right hand side, as long as $\sum_{k=0}^K \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)\|_2^2 \text{ is not diverging to infinity, or the growth of it is slower than } K, \text{ then the term } \frac{\alpha}{2(K+1)} \sum_{k=0}^K \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)\|_2^2 \text{ converges.} \\ \frac{14}{22}$

Proof of theorem 1 ... (1/5)

- ▶ f is convex so $f(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{z}) \le \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{x} \mathbf{z} \rangle$.
- ightharpoonup Put $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}_k$, $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{x}^*$ and $f(\mathbf{x}^*) = f^*$:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_k) - f^* \le \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k), \mathbf{x}_k - x^* \rangle.$$

▶ PGD update $\mathbf{y}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$ gives $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) = \frac{\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{y}_{k+1}}{\alpha_k}$ and

$$f(\mathbf{x}_k) - f^* \le \frac{1}{\alpha_k} \langle \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{y}_{k+1}, \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}^* \rangle.$$

► As we use constant stepsize:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_k) - f^* \le \frac{1}{\alpha} \langle \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{y}_{k+1}, \mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}^* \rangle.$$

Proof of theorem 1 ... (2/5)

► A trick

$$(a-b)(a-c) = a^{2} - ac - ab + bc$$

$$= \frac{2a^{2} - 2ac - 2ab + 2bc}{2}$$

$$= \frac{a^{2} - 2ac + a^{2} - 2ab + 2bc + c^{2} - c^{2} + b^{2} - b^{2}}{2}$$

$$= \frac{(a-c)^{2} + (a-b)^{2} - (b-c)^{2}}{2}$$

► Hence

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{k}) - f^{*} \leq \frac{1}{\alpha} \langle \mathbf{x}_{k} - \mathbf{y}_{k+1}, \mathbf{x}_{k} - \mathbf{x}^{*} \rangle$$

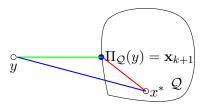
$$= \frac{1}{2\alpha} (\|\mathbf{x}_{k} - \mathbf{x}^{*}\|_{2}^{2} + \|\mathbf{x}_{k} - \mathbf{y}_{k+1}\|_{2}^{2} - \|\mathbf{y}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^{*}\|_{2}^{2})$$

$$\stackrel{*}{=} \frac{1}{2\alpha} (\|\mathbf{x}_{k} - \mathbf{x}^{*}\|_{2}^{2} - \|\mathbf{y}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^{*}\|_{2}^{2}) + \frac{\alpha}{2} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k})\|_{2}^{2}$$

where * is due to PGD update $\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{y}_{k+1} = \alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$

Proof of theorem $1 \dots (3/5)$

Note that $\|\mathbf{y}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2 \ge \|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2$.



Hence
$$-\|\mathbf{y}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2 \le -\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2$$
 and

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{k}) - f^{*} \leq \frac{1}{2\alpha} \left(\|\mathbf{x}_{k} - \mathbf{x}^{*}\|_{2}^{2} - \|\mathbf{y}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^{*}\|_{2}^{2} \right) + \frac{\alpha}{2} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k})\|_{2}^{2}$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2\alpha} \left(\|\mathbf{x}_{k} - \mathbf{x}^{*}\|_{2}^{2} - \|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^{*}\|_{2}^{2} \right) + \frac{\alpha}{2} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k})\|_{2}^{2}$$

It forms a telescoping series!

Proof of theorem 1 ... (4/5)

$$k = 0 f(\mathbf{x}_0) - f^* \le \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2}{2\alpha} + \frac{\alpha}{2} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)\|_2^2$$

$$k = 1 f(x_1) - f^* \le \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2}{2\alpha} + \frac{\alpha}{2} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_1)\|_2^2$$

$$\vdots$$

$$k = K f(\mathbf{x}_k) - f^* \le \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_{K+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2}{2\alpha} + \frac{\alpha}{2} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)\|_2^2$$

Sums all

$$\sum_{k=0}^{K} \left(f(\mathbf{x}_k) - f^* \right) \le \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2 - \|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2}{2\alpha} + \frac{\alpha}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{K} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)\|_2^2.$$

Proof of theorem 1 ... (5/5)

As $0 \le \frac{1}{2\alpha} \|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2$,

$$\sum_{k=0}^{K} \left(f(\mathbf{x}_k) - f^* \right) \le \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2}{2\alpha} + \frac{\alpha}{2} \sum_{k=0}^{K} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)\|_2^2.$$

Expand the summation on the left and divide the whole equation by ${\cal K}+1$

$$\frac{1}{K+1} \sum_{k=0}^{K} f(\mathbf{x}_k) - f^* \le \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_2^2}{2\alpha(K+1)} + \frac{\alpha}{2(K+1)} \sum_{k=0}^{K} \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)\|_2^2.$$

Consider the left hand side, as f is convex, by Jensen's inequality

$$f\left(\frac{1}{K+1}\sum_{k=0}^{K}\mathbf{x}_k\right) \le \frac{1}{K+1}\sum_{k=0}^{K}f(\mathbf{x}_k).$$

Therefore

$$f\left(\frac{1}{K+1}\sum_{k=0}^{K}\mathbf{x}_{k}\right) - f^{*} \leq \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_{0} - \mathbf{x}^{*}\|_{2}^{2}}{2\alpha(K+1)} + \frac{\alpha}{2(K+1)}\sum_{k=0}^{K}\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k})\|_{2}^{2}. \quad \Box$$

PGD converges at order $\mathcal{O}\Big(\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\Big)$ on Lipschitz function

Theorem 2. If
$$f$$
 is Lipschitz, for the point $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_K = \left\{ \frac{1}{K+1} \sum_{k=0}^K \mathbf{x}_k \right\}$ and constant stepsize $\alpha = \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|}{L\sqrt{K+1}}$ we have

$$f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_K) - f^* \le \frac{L\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|}{\sqrt{K+1}}$$

Proof. Put $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_K$, α into theorem 1 directly, note that $\|\nabla f\| \leq L$.

Remarks

- ▶ f is Lipschitz then ∇f is bounded: $\|\nabla f\| \leq L$, where L is the Lipschitz constant.
- ightharpoonup On the stepsize α , note that it is K (total number of step) not k (current iteration number).
- ► The stepsize requires to know x*, so this theorem is practically useless as knowing x* already solves the problem.

Discussion

In the convergence analysis of GD:

- 1. f is convex and β -smooth (gradient is β -Lipschitz)
- 2. Convergence rate $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{k}\right)$.

In the convergence analysis of PGD:

- 1. f is convex and L-Lipschitz (gradient is bounded above)
- 2. Convergence rate $\mathcal{O}\Big(\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}\Big)$.
- 3. The convergence rate works on $ar{\mathbf{x}}_K$

If f is convex and β -smooth, the convergence of PGD will be the same as that of GD.

- ► Theoretical convergence rate of PGD on convex and β -smooth f will also be $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{k}\right)$.
- ▶ However practically it depends on the complexity of the projection. Some Q are difficult to project onto.

Last page - summary

- ightharpoonup PGD = GD + projection
- ▶ PGD with constant stepsize α :

$$f\left(\frac{1}{K+1}\sum_{k=0}^{K}\mathbf{x}_{k}\right) - f^{*} \leq \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_{0} - \mathbf{x}^{*}\|_{2}^{2}}{2\alpha(K+1)} + \frac{\alpha}{2(K+1)}\sum_{k=0}^{K}\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k})\|_{2}^{2}$$

▶ If f is Lipschitz (bounded gradient), for the point $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_K = \left\{\frac{1}{K+1}\sum_{k=0}^K \mathbf{x}_k\right\}$ and constant step size $\alpha = \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|}{L\sqrt{K+1}}$ then

$$f(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_K) - f^* \le \frac{L\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|}{\sqrt{K+1}}.$$

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