

Chapter 6. Practical Newton Methods

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Recall: $\nabla^2 f(x_k) P_k^N = -\nabla f(x_k) \sim (*)$

We want:

* robust and efficient in all cases

* P_k^N to be a descent direction:

→ will be true if $\nabla^2 f(x_k)$ is positive definite.

→ else, ...

Consider line-search and trust-region implementations using Newton + CG:

* terminate at negative curvature, or

* modify $\nabla^2 f(x_k)$ to be pos. def.

Also, use Hessian sparsity to get efficient methods.

NB: Some of the most reliable and powerful methods for both small or large are based on Newton methods.

6.1 Inexact Newton Steps

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Start with $(*)$:

$$\nabla^2 f(x_k) P_k^N = -\nabla f(x_k)$$

Then, the residual error is:

$$r_k = \nabla^2 f(x_k) P_k + \nabla f(x_k) \sim (**)$$

for some $P_k \approx P_k^N$.

The problem here is that $cf(\cdot)$ for some constant c , will also scale the residual:

$$\text{New } r'_k = c \left(\nabla^2 f(x_k) P_k + \nabla f(x_k) \right)$$

∞ Eventhough both $f(\cdot)$ and $cf(\cdot)$ have the same stationary points, if we choose to terminate on $|r_k|$, we will stop at different locations for $f(\cdot)$ and $cf(\cdot)$ since $r_k \neq r'_k$.

Instead, we stop for:

$$\|r_k\| \leq \eta_k \|\nabla f(x_k)\|$$

for some sequence, the forcing sequence

$$\eta_1, \eta_2, \dots$$

and

$$0 < \eta_k < 1$$

We then have convergence according to:

Thm 6.1 Assume:

- * $\nabla f(x)$ is contsly diff'ble in a neighborhood of the minimizer x^* .
- * $\nabla^2 f(x)$ is positive definite.

Then: $x_{k+1} = x_k + p_k$, and if each p_k is such that:

$$\|r_k\| \leq \eta_k \|\nabla f(x_k)\|, \quad \eta_k < 1,$$

and if the starting point is sufficiently close to x^* , we have convergence.

We will have:

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Linear Convergence if:

$$\limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|\nabla f(x_{k+1})\|}{\|\nabla f(x_k)\|} < 1,$$

Quadratic Convergence if:

$$\limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|\nabla f(x_{k+1})\|}{\|\nabla f(x_k)\|^2} = c < \infty, \text{ some } c.$$

Superlinear Convergence if:

$$\limsup_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|\nabla f(x_{k+1})\|}{\|\nabla f(x_k)\|} = 0$$

To get the desired convergence rate, simply set the termination criterion as suggested by theorem 6.2:

Thm 6.2 Assume the setup in thm 6.1. Then:

- (I) $\eta_k \rightarrow 0 \Rightarrow$ superlinear convergence
- (II) $\eta_k = O(\|\nabla f(x_k)\|) \Rightarrow$ quadratic convergence.

The book recommends:

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① Superlinear convergence:

Use $\eta_k = \min(0.5, \sqrt{\|\nabla f(x_k)\|})$.

② Quadratic Convergence:

Use $\eta_k = \min(0.5, \|\nabla f(x_k)\|)$.

Make sure you can show how ① + ②
yield the promised convergence...

Line Search for Large Problems

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Algorithm 6.1 (Line-search Newton-CG)

Given x_0

for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \text{max_iterations}$

{ Solve $\nabla^2 f(x_k) p = -\nabla f_k$
using CG, $x^{(0)} = 0$. (see below).

{ compute α_k using line-search
that satisfies Wolfe, Goldstein, or
Armijo conditions

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k p_k$$

end

Modified CG

$$x_0 = 0, A = (\nabla^2 f_k), b = -\nabla f_k.$$

$$r_0 = -b, p_0 = -r_0, k = 0.$$

while $\|r_k\| \leq \min(0.5, \sqrt{\|\nabla f_k\|}) \|\nabla f(x_k)\|$

$$\text{den} = p_k^T A p_k$$

{ if $(\text{den} \leq 0)$
{ if $(k > 0)$ or $(\text{den}$ "small") stop
{ else $\alpha_0 = (r_k^T r_k) / \text{den}$, $x_1 = -\alpha_0 r_0$, stop
end

$$\alpha_k = r_k^T r_k / \text{den}$$

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k P_k$$

$$r_{k+1} = r_k + \alpha_k (AP_k)$$

$$\beta_{k+1} = \frac{r_{k+1}^T r_{k+1}}{r_k^T r_k}$$

$$P_{k+1} = -r_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1} P_k$$

$$k = k+1$$

end.

(* returns with P_k for the next step*)

note that this could have been pre-computed with den:

$$\begin{aligned} d &= AP_k \\ \text{den} &= P_k^T d \end{aligned}$$

Algorithm 6.2 (Line search with Preconditioning)

Given x_0

for $k=0, 1, 2, \dots, \text{max-iterations}$

{ Modify B_k to $B_k + E_k$ (discussed next)

{ Solve $B_k P_k = -\nabla f(x_k)$ for P_k

{ Compute α_k using line-search conditions.

$$x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k P_k$$

end

Notes:

Section 6.3 shows how to compute appropriate E_k .

* thm 6.3 says that if:

(I) $\{x \in D : f(x) \leq f(x_0)\}$ compact
(closed + bdd set that contains its boundary)

(II) $\text{cond}(B_k) = \|B_k\| \|B_k^{-1}\| \leq C < \infty$

then

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \nabla f(x_k) = 0.$$

Proof: Easy!

* $B_k p_k = -\nabla f_k$ can be solved using Gaussian elimination or any standard method since B_k is modified to be positive definite, CG or Gaussian elimination will work.

6.3 Hessian Modifications.

We consider:

- * $\nabla^2 f(x_k) + \lambda I$, already discussed,
- * Controlling selected eigenvalues:

Start from:

$$\nabla^2 f(x_k) = Q \Lambda Q^T \text{ as before.}$$

Add $Q \Lambda' Q^T$ to have:

$$\begin{aligned} Q \Lambda Q^T + Q \Lambda' Q^T &= Q (\Lambda Q^T + \Lambda' Q^T) \\ &= Q (\underbrace{\Lambda + \Lambda'}_{\text{new eigenvalue matrix}}) Q^T \end{aligned}$$

The new eigenvalue matrix satisfies:

$$\Lambda + \Lambda' = \text{diag}(\lambda_1 + \tau_1, \lambda_2 + \tau_2, \dots, \lambda_n + \tau_n)$$

where:

$$\Lambda = \text{diag}(\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_n),$$

$$\Lambda' = \text{diag}(\tau_1, \tau_2, \dots, \tau_n).$$

Basic idea:

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if original eigenvalues are sufficiently positive:

$\lambda_i > \varepsilon \geq 0$, some ε , then
set $\tau_i = 0$ (don't change them)

else

Either:

(I) set $\lambda_i + \tau_i = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda_i' = -\tau_i$,

(II) Flip the sign: $\lambda_i + \tau_i = |\lambda_i|$, or
 $\Rightarrow \lambda_i' = |\lambda_i| + \tau_i$

(III) Make them "sufficiently positive":

Set $\lambda_i + \tau_i = \varepsilon \Rightarrow \tau_i = \underline{\underline{\varepsilon - \lambda_i}}$.

The last option is optimal in the sense that the change ΔA to guarantee that we have

"sufficient positive definiteness" will have $\|\Delta A\|_F$ minimum for (III), 11/22

Where

$$\|\Delta A\|_F = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \Delta A_{ij}^2}.$$

Using the same notation, for

$\Delta A = \tau I$, set $\tau = \max(0, \delta - \lambda_{\min}(A))$
with new matrix $A + \tau I$.

The previous methods: I, II, III are optimal, but they can be very slow.

The textbook describes a fast algorithm in Algorithm 6.5, for computing:

$$PAP^T + E = LDL^T \sim (*)$$

Where: L is lower-triangular, D is diagonal, and E is used to make $PAP^T + E$ positive definite.

The book does not explain how to use the factorization in $\textcircled{*}$ to solve $Ax=b$, which is what we need!

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We have:

$$PA P^T = LDL^T \Rightarrow PA = (LDL^T) P^{-T}$$

Thus: $Ax=b \Rightarrow PAx = Pb$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{(LDL^T) P^{-T} x}_{\text{set as } z_1 = DL^T P^{-T} x} = Pb$$

We have:

Step 1: Solve $Lz_1 = Pb$ for z_1 .

Step 2: Solve $Dz_2 = z_1$ for z_2 .

Step 3: Solve $L^T z_3 = z_2$ for z_3 .

Step 4: Solve $P^{-T} x = z_3$ for x .

In other words:

$$z_1 = DL^T P^{-T} x,$$

$$z_2 = L^T P^{-T} x, \text{ and}$$

$$z_3 = P^{-T} x.$$

Another view:

$$L D L^T P^{-T} x = P b \quad \text{and:}$$

Diagram illustrating the nested structure of the equation:

L is a bracketed term encompassing D and L^T .

L^T is a bracketed term encompassing $P^{-T} x$.

$P^{-T} x$ is a bracketed term encompassing z_3 .

z_3 is a bracketed term encompassing z_2 .

z_2 is a bracketed term encompassing z_1 .

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$L z_1 = P b$ "gives" z_1 ,
 z_1 "gives" z_2 "gives" z_3 ,
and z_3 "gives" x .

Computing P^{-T} from P and computing Pb .

The book does not show how to compute P , P^T , or P^{-T} !

In algorithm 6.5, we have the step:

"Interchange row and column j and q " (of A)

corresponds to:

$$P_{ij} A' P_{ij}^T$$

where P_{ij} interchanges row i & j , where A' is the current value of modified A .

At the output; $A' = P A P^T$.

Now, we can compute Pb by adding

"Interchange rows j and q of b "
at this step.

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nted

"Interchange column J and q ".

Also, note that $P_{ij}^T P_{ij}^T = I$ since interchanging columns j and i twice, brings us back to where we started. $\Rightarrow P_{ij}^{-T} = P_{ij}^T$

Also:

$$P^T = P_{ij(1)}^T P_{ij(2)}^T \dots P_{ij(n)}^T$$

↑ ↑
1st iteration nth iteration

and

$$\begin{aligned} P^{-T} &= (P^T)^{-1} = \left(P_{ij(1)}^T P_{ij(2)}^T \cdots P_{ij(n)}^T \right)^{-1} \\ &= \left(P_{ij(n)}^T \right)^{-1} \cdots \left(P_{ij(1)}^T \right)^{-1} \\ &= P_{ij(n)}^T \cdots P_{ij(1)}^T \end{aligned}$$

Thus, to implement multiplication by P^{-T} , simply apply the column exchanges in the reverse order than what was done by algorithm 6.5.

So store the column exchange using:

$$P[J] = q \text{ (see below)}$$

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Corrected Algorithm 6.5 (see online corrections!)

Given A, b

$$\gamma = \max_{1 \leq i \leq n} |a_{ii}| \leftarrow \text{largest diagonal element}$$

$$\zeta = \max_{i \neq j} |a_{ij}| \leftarrow \text{largest off-diagonal element}$$

$$\delta = u \max(\gamma + \zeta, 1) \leftarrow u \text{ is machine precision}$$

for $k=1, 2, \dots, n$

$$c_{kk} = a_{kk} \leftarrow \text{diagonal}$$

end

$$\beta = \max\left(\gamma, \frac{\zeta}{\sqrt{n^2-1}}, u\right)^{1/2}$$

for $j=1, 2, \dots, n$ (j th column of L).

Find q so that: $|c_{qq}| \geq |c_{ii}|, i=j, j+1, \dots, n$

Interchange row and column j and q of A .

↑ (corrected position of the step!)

Interchange j and q elements of b . (Pb)

$P_j = q \leftarrow$ for inverting: P^{-T} .

(jth column of L:)

for $s=1, 2, \dots, j-1$

$l_{js} = c_{js} / d_s$
end

for $i=j+1, \dots, n$

$$c_{ij} = a_{ij} - \sum_{s=1}^{j-1} l_{js} c_{is}$$

end

$$\theta_j = 0$$

if $j < n$ ← correct this (see online comments.)

$$\theta_j = \max_{j < i \leq n} |c_{ij}|$$

end

$$d_j = \max \{ |c_{jj}|, (\theta_j / \beta)^2, \delta \}$$

if $j < n$

for $i=j+1, \dots, n$

$$c_{ii} = c_{ii} - c_{ij}^2 / d_j$$

end

end

end

Note that the output of the algorithm keeps:

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$$d_j \geq \delta, \quad |m_{ij}| \leq \beta$$

which keeps eigenvalues away from zero and $A = MM^T$ not very large.

If you implement the new algorithm, then:

→ check correctness with example 6.2.

6.4 Trust-Region Newton Method

We always want to compute:

$$\min_{p \in \mathbb{R}^n} m_k(p) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} f_k + \nabla f_k^T p + \frac{1}{2} p^T B_k p,$$

such that: $\|p\| \leq \Delta_k$.

For general problems, that are also large, consider Newton-CG method.

Trust-region Newton-CG

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Use CG to solve: $B_k p_k = -\nabla f_k$,
stopping if:

- (i) current solution exceeds trust region,
- (ii) we have achieved sufficient accuracy (small residuals), or
- (iii) We have encountered negative curvature ($p_k^T A p_k < 0$),
(if yes, follow negative curvature to the boundary).

* If we are at a "well-behaved solution",
use η_k to go to the minimum

* Avoid using the Hessian since the
CG method only needs $\nabla^2 f(x_k) v$.

→ Get $\nabla^2 f(x_k) v$ symbolically or

→ Use:
$$\nabla^2 f(x_k) p \approx \frac{\nabla f(x_k + hp) - \nabla f(x_k)}{h}$$

(finite differencing)

NB:

Advantages:

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- * globally convergent:
 - starting with Cauchy point and improving on it.
- * No matrix factorizations needed!
- * can be executed in parallel using a matrix times vector routine that executes in parallel.
- * can exploit sparsity in product (avoid multiplying zeros).
- * Can move away from nonminimizing points (unlike line-search).

Disadvantages:

- * Accepts all directions of negative curvature, even when they lead to an insignificant reduction.

Eg: For: $m(p) = -10^{-3} p_1 - 10^{-4} p_1^2 - p_2^2$
subject to $\|p\| \leq 1$, $p = \begin{bmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \end{bmatrix}$.

Correct
book!

Now:

$$\nabla m(\underline{p}) = \begin{bmatrix} -10^{-3} - 2 \times 10^{-4} p_1 \\ -2p_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

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At $\underline{p} = 0$: $-\nabla m(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 10^{-3} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ steepest descent.

Note:

$$\nabla^2 m(\underline{p}) = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \times 10^{-4} & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

When $\underline{p}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, along steepest descent:

$$\underline{p}_1^T \begin{bmatrix} -2 \times 10^{-4} & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \underline{p}_1 = -2 \times 10^{-4} < 0.$$

So, we have negative curvature along $\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$. Follow this to boundary of $\|\underline{p}\|=1$ to get:

$$m\left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}\right) = -10^{-3} - 10^{-4} \approx -10^{-3}$$

reduction in model

If we follow $\underline{p}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$, note:

$$\underline{p}_2^T \begin{bmatrix} -2 \times 10^{-4} & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \underline{p}_2 = -2 < 0,$$

we get:

$$m(\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}) = -\underline{p}_2^2 = -1$$

much more reduction

Solution I:

Must use "Lanczos method"

in references [177], [121].

more robust.

Heuristic: ignore "insignificant" curvatures

Solution II:

Precondition the Newton-CG method to a better distribution of the eigenvalues:

See: Algorithm 6.6, and get code from: MINPACK-2 (NMTR) or LANCELOT.

Final remarks:

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For convergence, we set $\eta_k \rightarrow 0$ as discussed previously, with Newton-CG, then the trust-region algorithm 4.1 will converge, where the line:

"Obtain P_k ---" is replaced by Newton-CG, for positive definite Hessians $x_k \rightarrow x^*$ for these Hessians.

Thm 6.4 says that $x_k \rightarrow x^*$, for $k \rightarrow \infty$ is solved by ignoring the trust region.

Constraint Optimization becomes Unconstraint.

\Rightarrow Trust-regions are for global convergence!!