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# Nonsmooth, Nonconvex Optimization Algorithms and Examples

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Convex and Nonsmooth Optimization Class, Spring 2020, Lecture 13

Based on my research work with  
Jim Burke (Washington), Adrian Lewis (Cornell) and others



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Problem: find  $x$  that locally minimizes  $f$ , where  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is



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## ■ Continuous



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Problem: find  $x$  that locally minimizes  $f$ , where  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is

- Continuous
- Not differentiable everywhere, in particular often not differentiable at local minimizers



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- Not differentiable everywhere, in particular often not differentiable at local minimizers
- Not convex
- Usually, but not always, locally Lipschitz: for all  $x$  there exists  $L_x$  s.t.  $|f(y) - f(z)| \leq L_x \|y - z\|$  for all  $y, z$  near  $x$



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Lots of interesting applications



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Lots of interesting applications

Any locally Lipschitz function is differentiable almost everywhere on its domain. So, whp, can evaluate gradient at any given point.



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What happens if we simply use gradient descent (steepest descent) with a standard line search?



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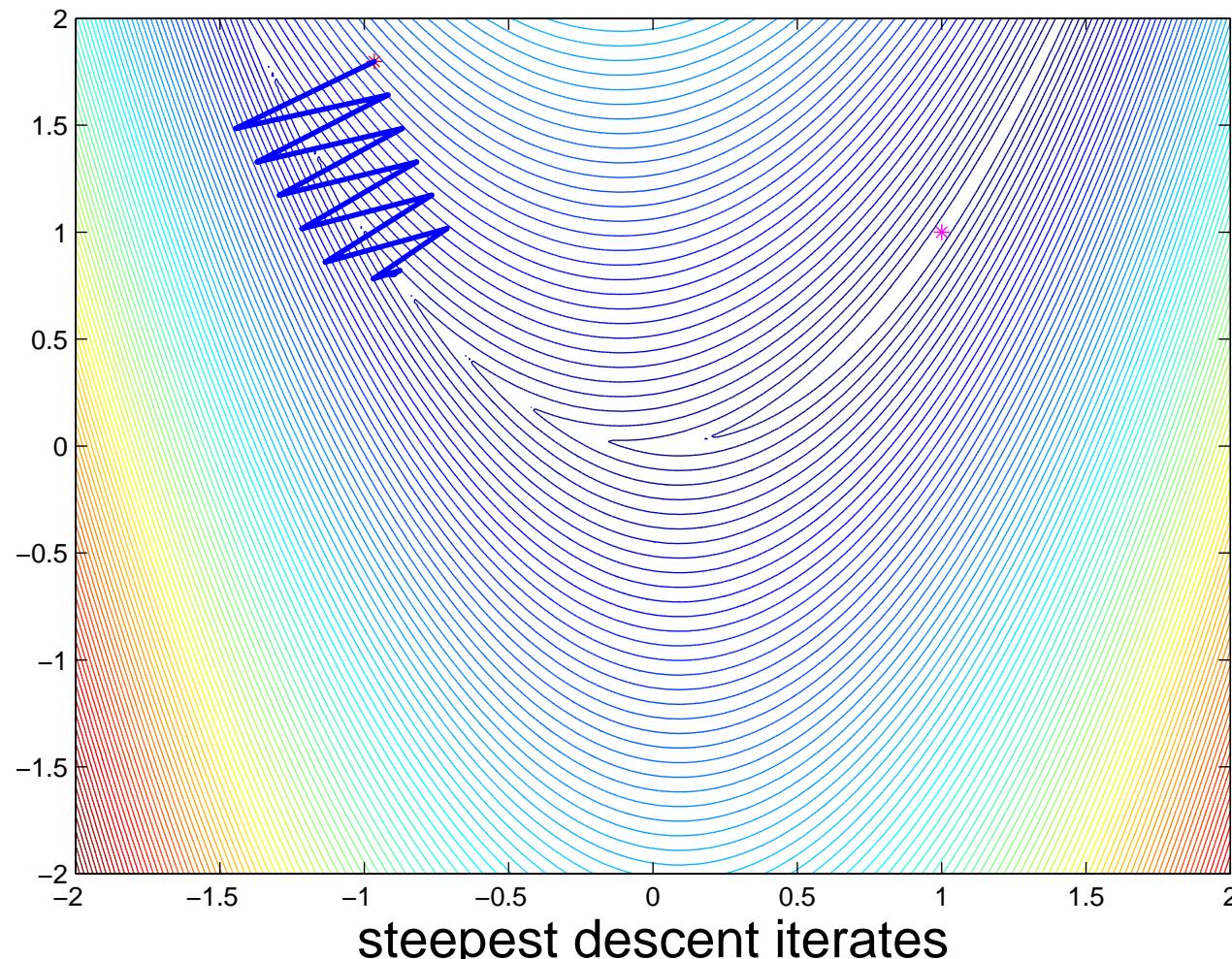
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$$f(x) = 10|x_2 - x_1^2| + (1-x_1)^2$$





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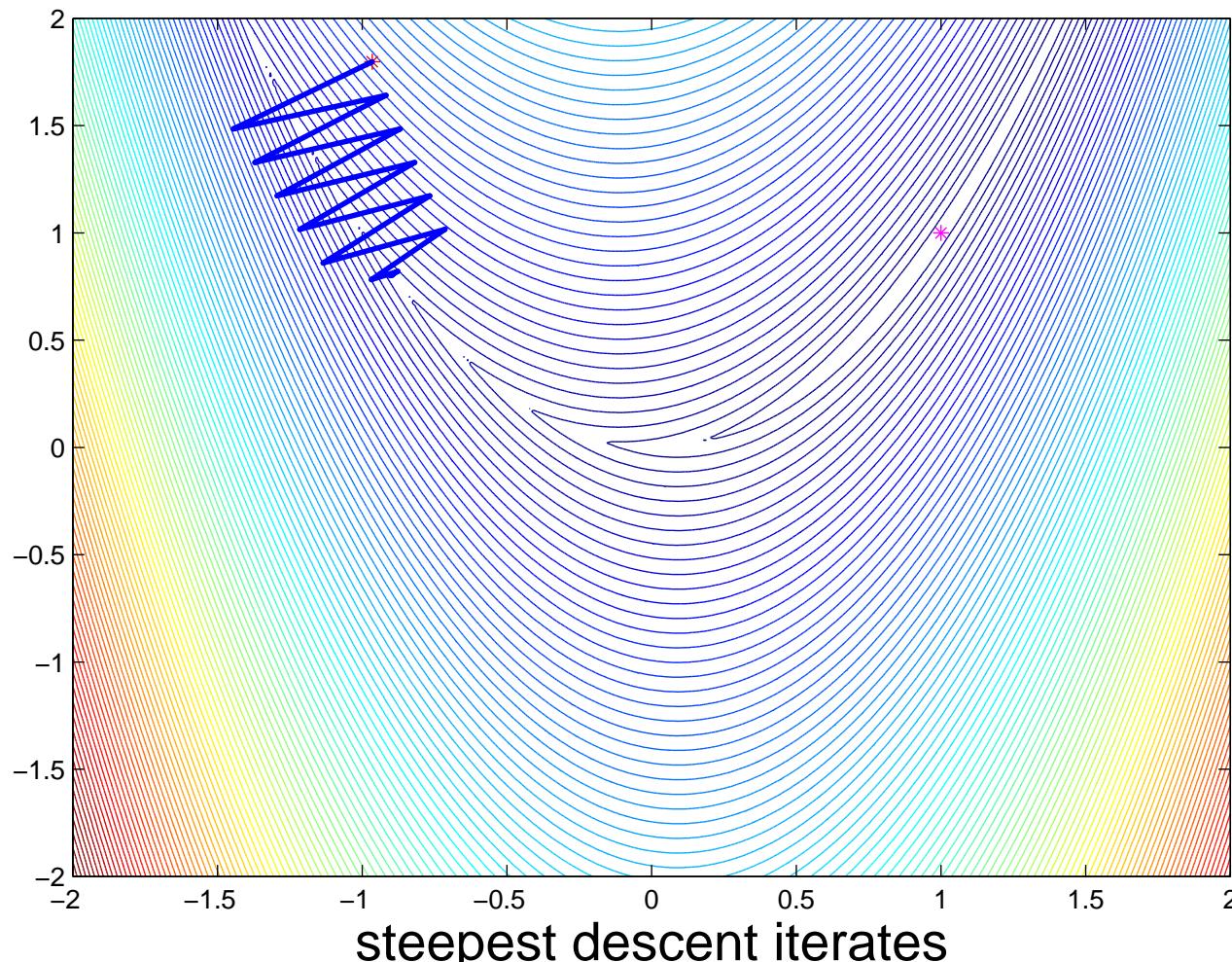
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On this example, iterates invariably converge to a nonstationary point



# Failure of Gradient Descent in Nonsmooth Case

Known for decades that gradient descent may converge to nonstationary points when  $f$  is nonsmooth, even if it is convex.

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- V.F. Dem'janov and V.N. Malozemov, 1970
- P. Wolfe, 1975
- J.-B. Hiriart-Urruty and C. Lemaréchal, 1993

But these are all examples cooked up to defeat exact line searches from a specific starting point.

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But these are all examples cooked up to defeat exact line searches from a specific starting point.

Failure can be avoided by using sufficiently short steplengths (N.Z. Shor, 1970s), but this is slow.



# Armijo-Wolfe Line Search

Given  $x$  with  $f$  differentiable at  $x$  and  $d$  with  $\nabla f(x)^T d < 0$ , and parameters  $0 < c_1 < c_2 < 1$ , find steplength  $t$  so that

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- sufficient decrease in function value:

$$f(x + td) < f(x) + c_1 t \nabla f(x)^T d \text{ (L. Armijo, 1966)}$$

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$$f(x + td) < f(x) + c_1 t \nabla f(x)^T d \quad (\text{L. Armijo, 1966})$$
- sufficient increase in directional derivative:  $f$  is differentiable at  $x + td$  and  $\nabla f(x + td)^T d > c_2 \nabla f(x)^T d$  ( $P.$  Wolfe, 1969)

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Assuming  $\inf_t f(x + td)$  is bounded below,

- the Armijo condition holds for sufficiently small  $t$  as long as  $f$  is continuous
- the Wolfe condition holds for sufficiently large  $t$  as long as  $f$  is differentiable
- the intervals where each holds overlap

so combining the two conditions leads to a convenient, convergent bracketing line search (M.J.D. Powell, 1976)

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Extends to locally Lipschitz case (A.S. Lewis and M.L.O., 2013)

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Extends to locally Lipschitz case (A.S. Lewis and M.L.O., 2013)

Searching for “Armijo-Wolfe” on the web, we found  
Melissa Armijo-Wolfe’s LinkedIn page!

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## Failure of Gradient Method: Simple Convex Example

Let  $f(x) = a|x_1| + x_2$ , with  $a \geq 1$ . Although  $f$  is unbounded below, it is bounded below along any direction  $d = -\nabla f(x)$ .



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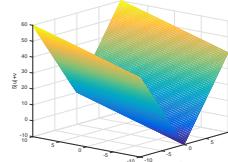
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**Theorem.** Let  $x^{(0)}$  satisfy  $x_1^{(0)} \neq 0$  and define  $x^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^2$  by

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + t_k d^{(k)} \text{ where } d^{(k)} = -\nabla f(x^{(k)})$$

and  $t_k$  is any steplength satisfying the Armijo and Wolfe conditions with Armijo parameter  $c_1$ . If

$$c_1(a^2 + 1) > 1$$

then  $x^{(k)}$  converges to  $\bar{x}$  with  $\bar{x}_1 = 0$ , even though  $f$  is unbounded below.

Azam Asl and M.L.O., 2017

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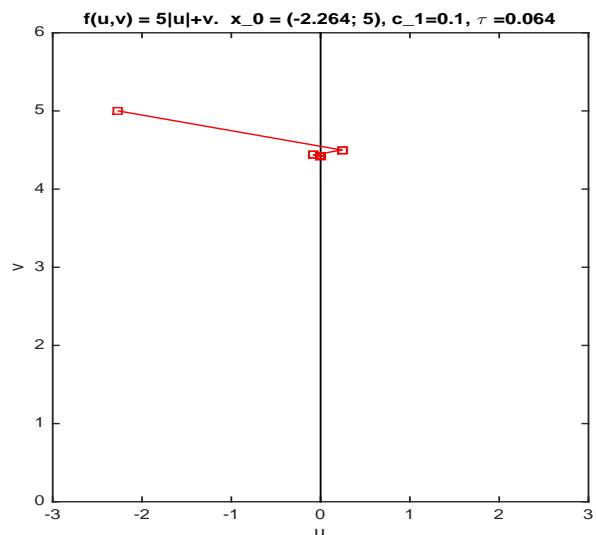
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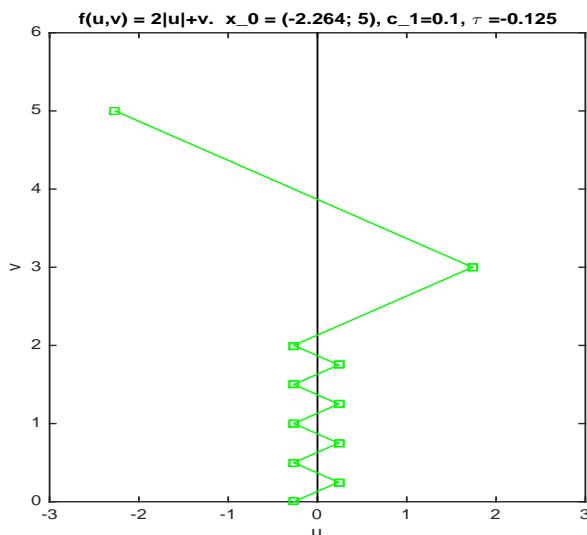
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$$a = 5, c_1 = 0.1 \\ x^{(k)} \rightarrow \bar{x}$$



$$a = 2, c_1 = 0.1 \\ f(x^{(k)}) \downarrow -\infty$$



# Methods Suitable for Nonsmooth Functions

Exploit the gradient information obtained at several points, not just at one point:

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- BFGS: traditional workhorse for smooth optimization, works amazingly well for nonsmooth optimization too, but very limited convergence theory



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■ New phase: set  $\epsilon = \mu\epsilon$  and  $\tau = \theta\tau$ .

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J.V. Burke, A.S. Lewis and M.L.O., SIOPT, 2005.

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<sup>1</sup>Needed in theory, but typically not in practice.

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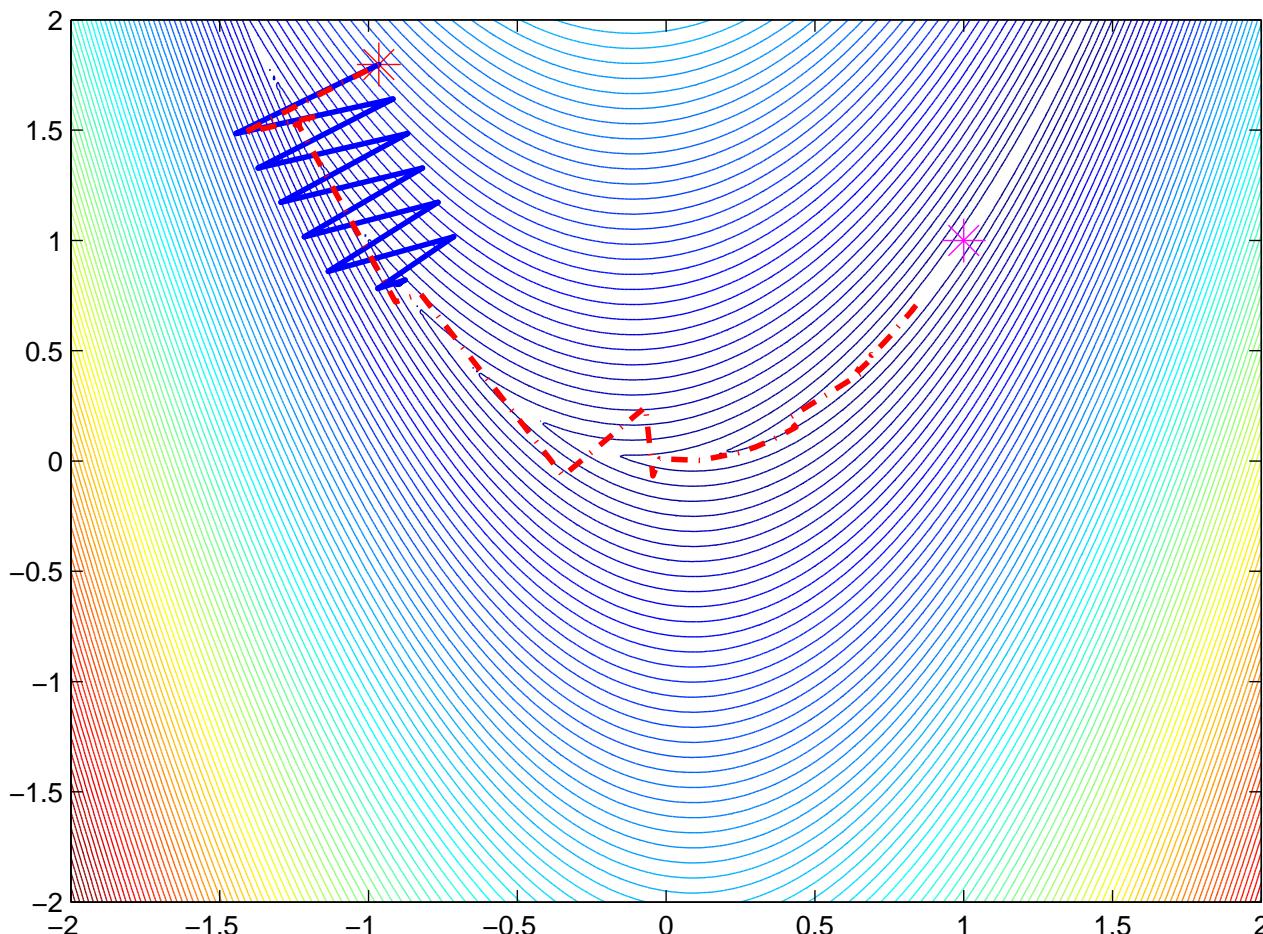
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$$f(x) = 10|x_2 - x_1^2| + (1-x_1)^2$$





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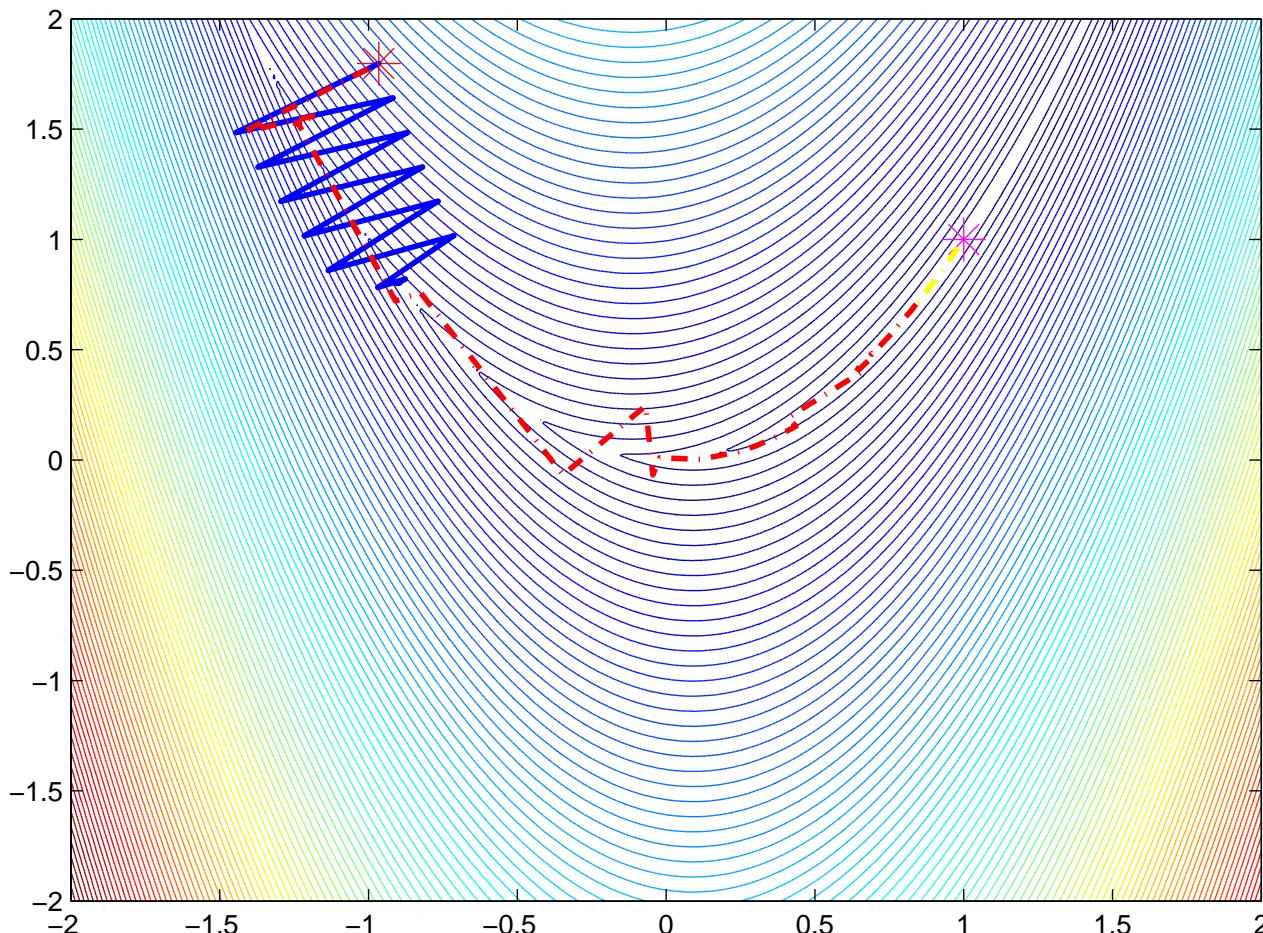
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Rademacher's Theorem:  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus D$  has measure zero.



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The Clarke subdifferential of  $f$  at  $\bar{x}$  is

$$\partial^C f(\bar{x}) = \text{conv} \left\{ \lim_{x \rightarrow \bar{x}, x \in D} \nabla f(x) \right\}.$$



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F.H. Clarke, 1973 (he used the name “generalized gradient”).



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F.H. Clarke, 1973 (he used the name “generalized gradient”).

If  $f$  is continuously differentiable at  $\bar{x}$ , then  $\partial^C f(\bar{x}) = \{\nabla f(\bar{x})\}$ .



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let  $D = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : f \text{ is differentiable at } x\}$ .

Rademacher's Theorem:  $\mathbb{R}^n \setminus D$  has measure zero.

The Clarke subdifferential of  $f$  at  $\bar{x}$  is

$$\partial^C f(\bar{x}) = \text{conv} \left\{ \lim_{x \rightarrow \bar{x}, x \in D} \nabla f(x) \right\}.$$

F.H. Clarke, 1973 (he used the name “generalized gradient”).

If  $f$  is continuously differentiable at  $\bar{x}$ , then  $\partial^C f(\bar{x}) = \{\nabla f(\bar{x})\}$ .

If  $f$  is convex,  $\partial^C f$  is the subdifferential of convex analysis.



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We say  $\bar{x}$  is Clarke stationary for  $f$  if  $0 \in \partial^C f(\bar{x})$ .



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Key point: the convex hull of the set  $G$  generated by Gradient Sampling is a surrogate for  $\partial^C f$ .



## Example

Let

$$f(x) = 10|x_2 - x_1^2| + (1 - x_1)^2$$

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## Example

Let

$$f(x) = 10|x_2 - x_1^2| + (1 - x_1)^2$$

For  $x$  with  $x_2 \neq x_1^2$ ,  $f$  is differentiable with gradient

$$\nabla f(x) = 10 \operatorname{sgn}\{x_2 - x_1^2\} \begin{bmatrix} -2x_1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -2(1 - x_1) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

so  $\partial^C f(x) = \{\nabla f(x)\}$ .

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so  $\partial^C f(x) = \{\nabla f(x)\}$ . For  $x$  with  $x_2 = x_1^2$ , there are two limiting gradients, namely

$$\pm 10 \begin{bmatrix} -2x_1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -2(1 - x_1) \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

so  $\partial^C f(x)$  consists of the convex hull of these two vectors.

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so  $\partial^C f(x)$  consists of the convex hull of these two vectors. The unique  $x$  for which  $0 \in \partial^C f(x)$  is  $x = [1; 1]^T$ , so this is the unique Clarke stationary point of  $f$  (it follows that it is the global minimizer).

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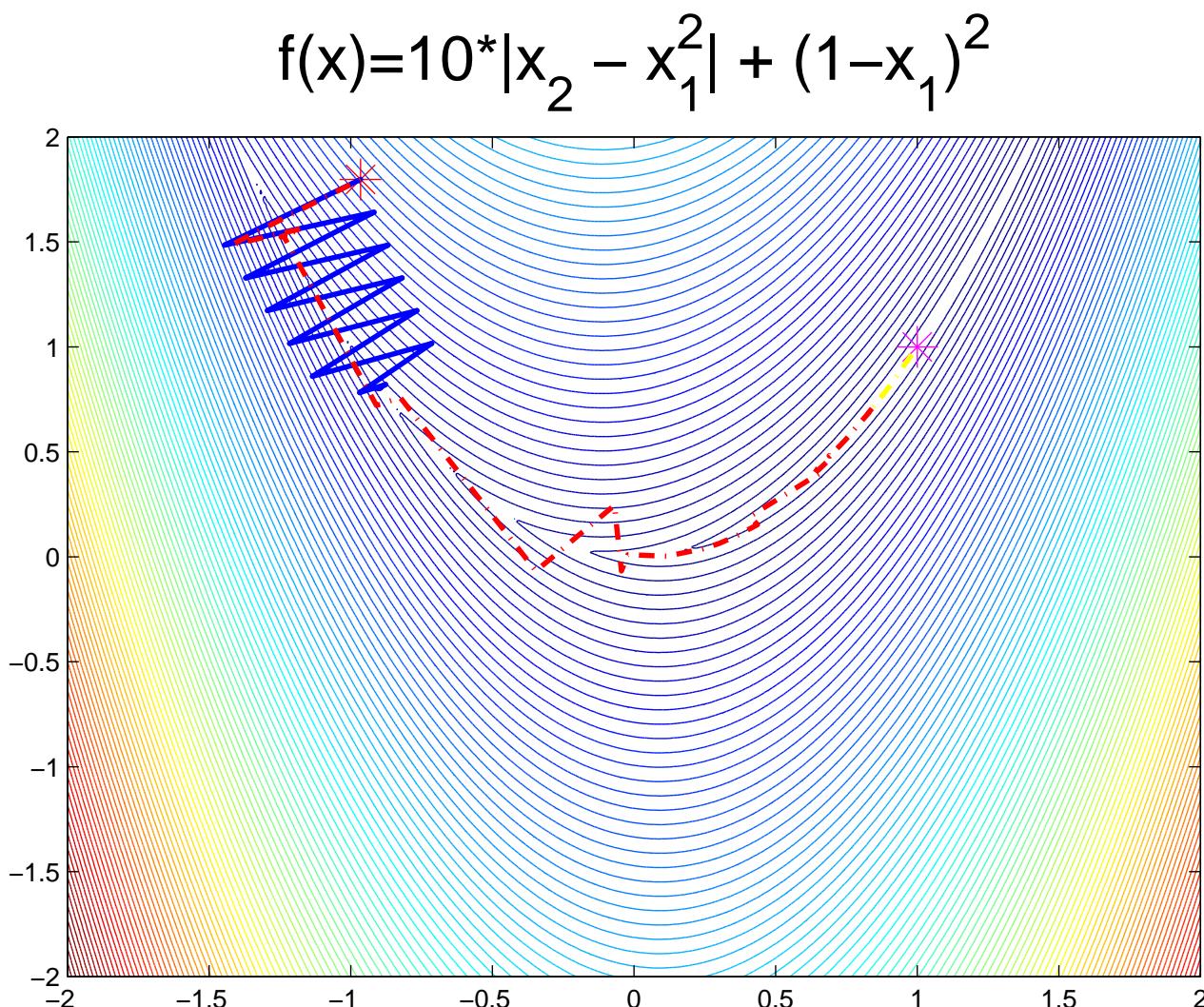
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# Grad. Samp.: A Stabilized Steepest Descent Method

**Lemma.** Let  $C$  be a compact convex set and  $\|\cdot\| = \|\cdot\|_2$ . Then

$$-\text{dist}(0, C) = \min_{\|d\| \leq 1} \max_{g \in C} g^T d$$

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**Proof.**

$$\begin{aligned} -\text{dist}(0, C) &= -\min_{g \in C} \|g\| \\ &= -\min_{g \in C} \max_{\|\tilde{d}\| \leq 1} g^T \tilde{d} \quad (\text{Cauchy-Schwartz}) \\ &= -\max_{\|\tilde{d}\| \leq 1} \min_{g \in C} g^T \tilde{d} \quad (\text{min-max} = \text{max-min theorem}) \\ &= -\max_{\|d\| \leq 1} \min_{g \in C} g^T (-d) \quad (\text{substitute } d = -\tilde{d}) \\ &= \min_{\|d\| \leq 1} \max_{g \in C} g^T d \quad (\text{change sign}) \end{aligned}$$

Note: the distance is nonnegative, and zero iff  $0 \in C$ .

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Otherwise, equality is attained by  $g = \Pi_C(0)$ ,  $d = -g/\|g\|$ .

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Ordinary steepest descent:  $C = \{\nabla f(x)\}$ .

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Otherwise, equality is attained by  $g = \Pi_C(0)$ ,  $d = -g/\|g\|$ .

Ordinary steepest descent:  $C = \{\nabla f(x)\}$ .

Gradient sampling:  $C = \text{conv}(G)$

$$= \text{conv}(\{\nabla f(x), \nabla f(x + \epsilon u_1), \dots, \nabla f(x + \epsilon u_m)\})$$

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**Theorem.** Suppose that  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

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**Theorem.** Suppose that  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$

- is locally Lipschitz
- is cont. differentiable on an open full-measure subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$

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- the inner loop always terminates, so the sequences of sampling radii  $\{\epsilon\}$  and tolerances  $\{\tau\}$  converge to zero, and
- $\bar{x}$  is Clarke stationary for  $f$ , i.e.,  $0 \in \partial^C f(\bar{x})$ .

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J.V. Burke, A.S. Lewis and M.L.O., SIOPT, 2005.

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J.V. Burke, A.S. Lewis and M.L.O., SIOPT, 2005.

Drop the assumption that  $f$  has bounded level sets. Then, wp 1, either the sequence  $\{f(x)\} \rightarrow -\infty$ , or every cluster point of the sequence of iterates  $\{x\}$  is Clarke stationary.

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- is cont. differentiable on an open full-measure subset of  $\mathbb{R}^n$
- has bounded level sets

Then, with probability one,  $f$  is differentiable at the sampled points, the line search always terminates, and if the sequence of iterates  $\{x\}$  converges to some point  $\bar{x}$ , then, with probability 1

- the inner loop always terminates, so the sequences of sampling radii  $\{\epsilon\}$  and tolerances  $\{\tau\}$  converge to zero, and
- $\bar{x}$  is Clarke stationary for  $f$ , i.e.,  $0 \in \partial^C f(\bar{x})$ .

J.V. Burke, A.S. Lewis and M.L.O., SIOPT, 2005.

Drop the assumption that  $f$  has bounded level sets. Then, wp 1, either the sequence  $\{f(x)\} \rightarrow -\infty$ , or every cluster point of the sequence of iterates  $\{x\}$  is Clarke stationary.

K.C. Kiwiel, SIOPT, 2007.

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$$\begin{aligned} & \min f(x) \\ & \text{subject to } c_i(x) \leq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, p \end{aligned}$$



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# Some Gradient Sampling Success Stories

- Non-Lipschitz eigenvalue optimization for non-normal matrices (J.V. Burke, A.S. Lewis and M.L.O., 2002 – )

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- Design of path planning for robots: avoids “chattering” that otherwise arises from nonsmoothness (I. Mitchell et al, 2017)



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Each inverse Hessian approximation differs from the previous one by a rank-two correction.



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Davidon was a well known active anti-war protester during the Vietnam War. In December 2013, it was revealed that he was the mastermind behind the break-in at the FBI office in Media, PA, on March 8, 1971, during the Muhammad Ali - Joe Frazier world heavyweight boxing championship.



## Fletcher and Powell

In 1963, R. Fletcher and M.J.D. Powell improved Davidon's method and established convergence for convex quadratic functions.

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They applied it to solve problems in 100 variables: a lot at the time.

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The method became known as the DFP method.



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Davidon, Fletcher and Powell all died during 2013–2016.

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## BFGS

In 1970, C.G. Broyden, R. Fletcher, D. Goldfarb and D. Shanno all independently proposed the BFGS method, which is a kind of dual of the DFP method. It was soon recognized that this was a remarkably effective method for smooth optimization.

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Pathological counterexamples to convergence in the smooth, nonconvex case are known to exist (Y.-H. Dai, 2002, 2013; W. Mascarenhas 2004), but it is widely accepted that the method works well in practice in the smooth, nonconvex case.

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Initialize iterate  $x$  and positive-definite symmetric matrix  $H$   
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Initialize iterate  $x$  and positive-definite symmetric matrix  $H$   
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Repeat



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Repeat

- Set  $d = -H\nabla f(x)$ .



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- Set  $d = -H\nabla f(x)$ .
- Obtain  $t$  from Armijo-Wolfe line search



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Repeat

- Set  $d = -H\nabla f(x)$ .
- Obtain  $t$  from Armijo-Wolfe line search
- Set  $s = td$ ,  $y = \nabla f(x + td) - \nabla f(x)$



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Initialize iterate  $x$  and positive-definite symmetric matrix  $H$  (which is supposed to approximate the *inverse Hessian* of  $f$ )

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- Obtain  $t$  from Armijo-Wolfe line search
- Set  $s = td$ ,  $y = \nabla f(x + td) - \nabla f(x)$
- Replace  $x$  by  $x + td$



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Initialize iterate  $x$  and positive-definite symmetric matrix  $H$  (which is supposed to approximate the *inverse* Hessian of  $f$ )

Repeat

- Set  $d = -H\nabla f(x)$ .
- Obtain  $t$  from Armijo-Wolfe line search
- Set  $s = td$ ,  $y = \nabla f(x + td) - \nabla f(x)$
- Replace  $x$  by  $x + td$
- Replace  $H$  by  $VHV^T + \frac{1}{s^T y} ss^T$ , where  $V = I - \frac{1}{s^T y} sy^T$



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The Wolfe condition guarantees that  $s^T y > 0$  and hence that the new  $H$  is positive definite.



# BFGS for Nonsmooth Optimization

In 1982, C. Lemaréchal observed that quasi-Newton methods can be effective for nonsmooth optimization, but dismissed them as there was no theory behind them and no good way to terminate them.

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In the nonsmooth case, BFGS builds a very ill-conditioned inverse “Hessian” approximation, with some tiny eigenvalues converging to zero, corresponding to “infinitely large” curvature in the directions defined by the associated eigenvectors.

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Remarkably, the condition number of the inverse Hessian approximation typically reaches  $10^{16}$  before the method breaks down.

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Convergence rate of BFGS is typically linear (not superlinear) in the nonsmooth case.

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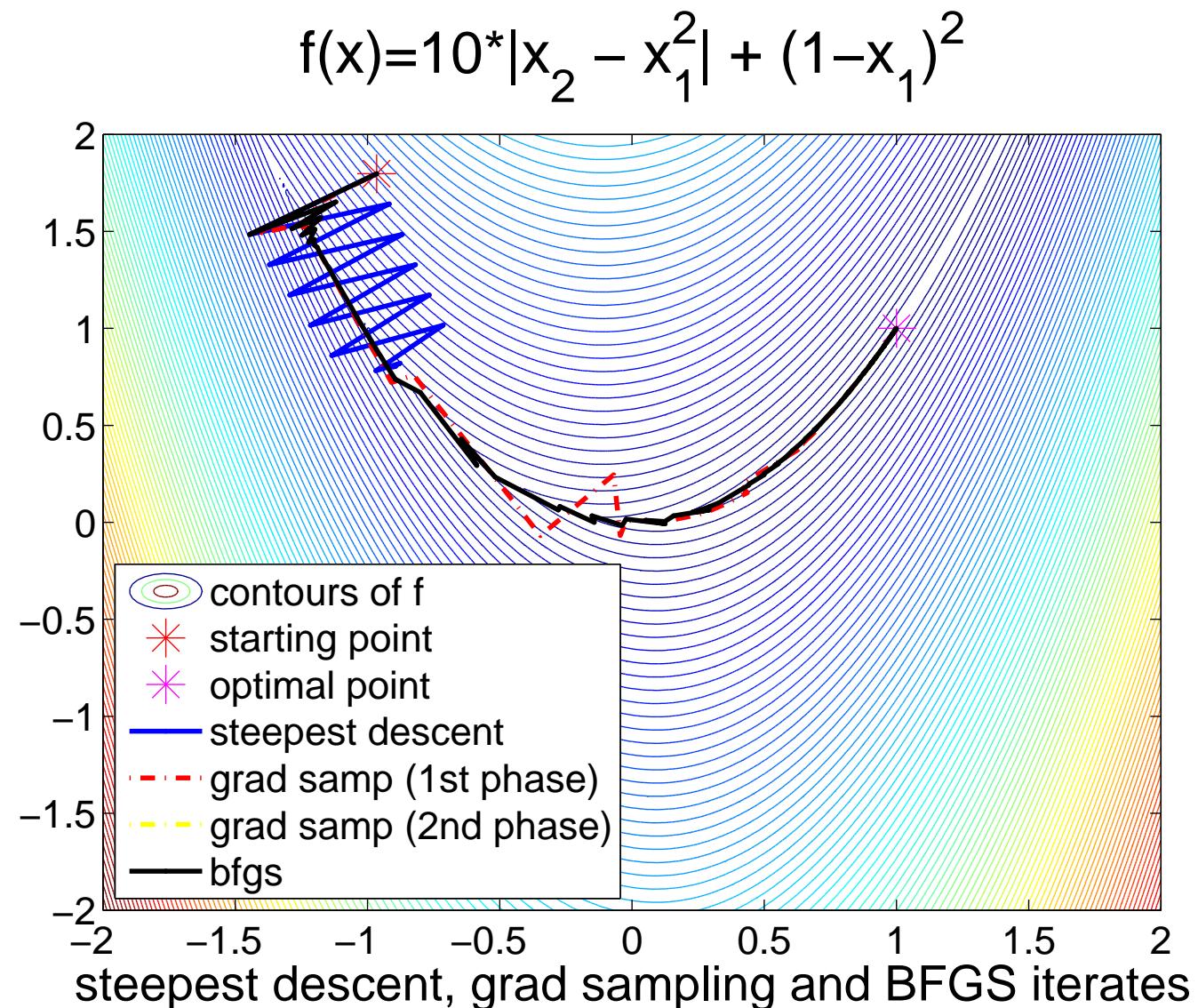
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## Example: Minimizing a Product of Eigenvalues

Let  $S^N$  denote the space of real symmetric  $N \times N$  matrices, and

$$\lambda_1(X) \geq \lambda_2(X) \geq \cdots \lambda_N(X)$$

denote the eigenvalues of  $X \in S^N$ .

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$$f(X) = \log \prod_{i=1}^{N/2} \lambda_i(A \circ X)$$

where  $A \in S^N$  is fixed and  $\circ$  is the Hadamard (componentwise) matrix product, subject to the constraints that  $X$  is positive semidefinite and has diagonal entries equal to 1.

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Application: entropy minimization in an environmental application (K.M. Anstreicher and J. Lee, 2004)

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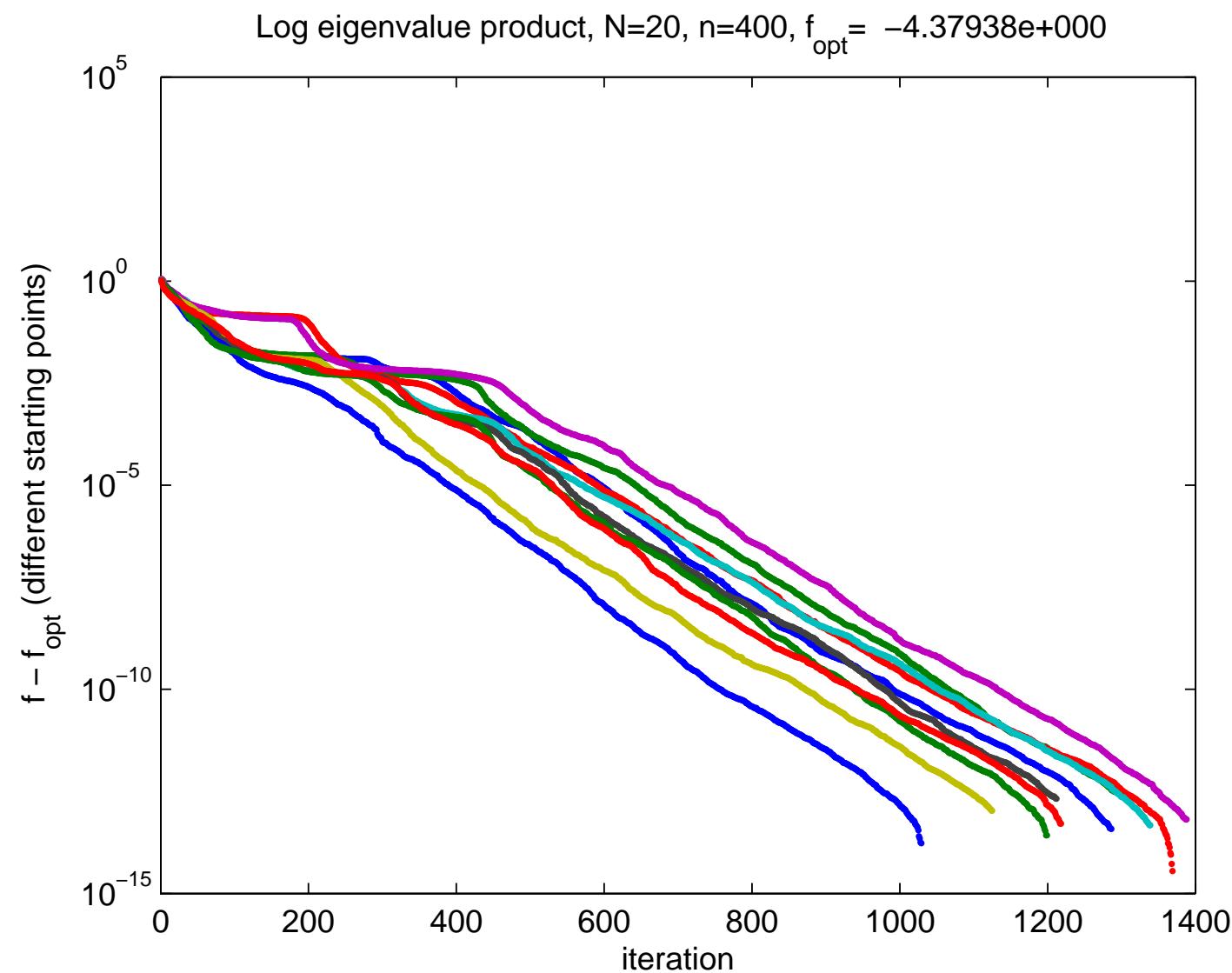
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$f - f_{\text{opt}}$ , where  $f_{\text{opt}}$  is least value of  $f$  found over all runs



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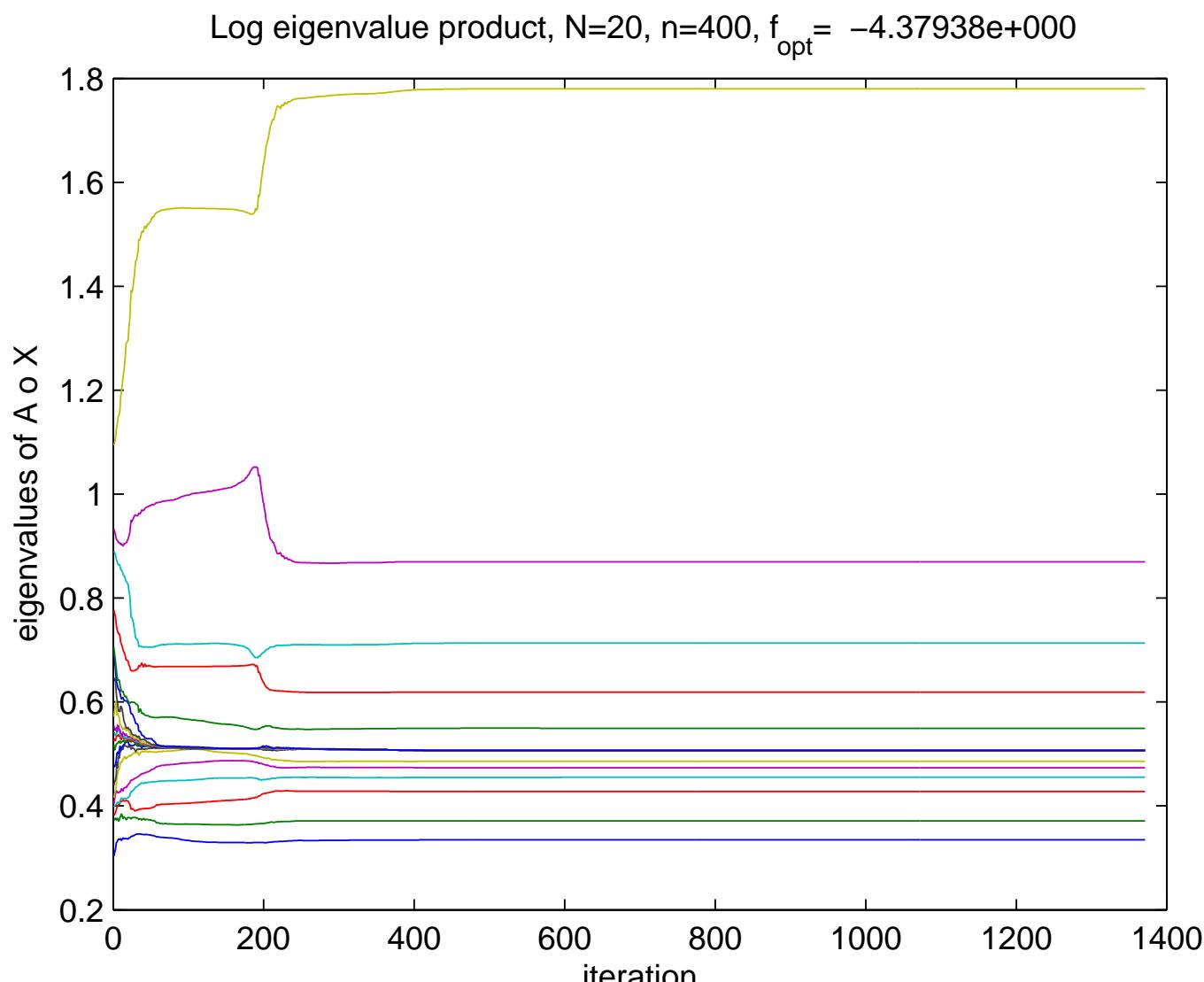
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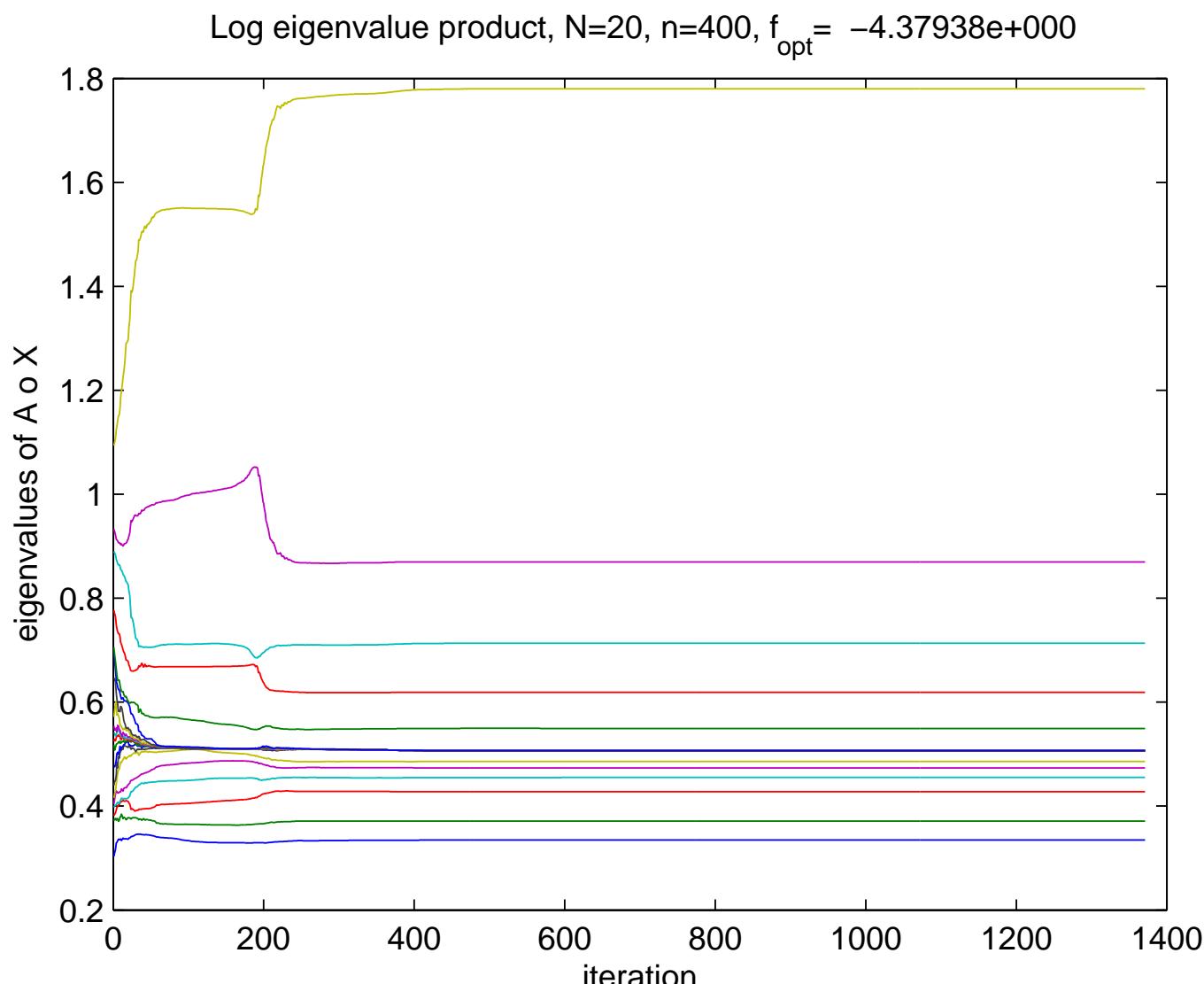
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Note that  $\lambda_6(X), \dots, \lambda_{14}(X)$  coalesce



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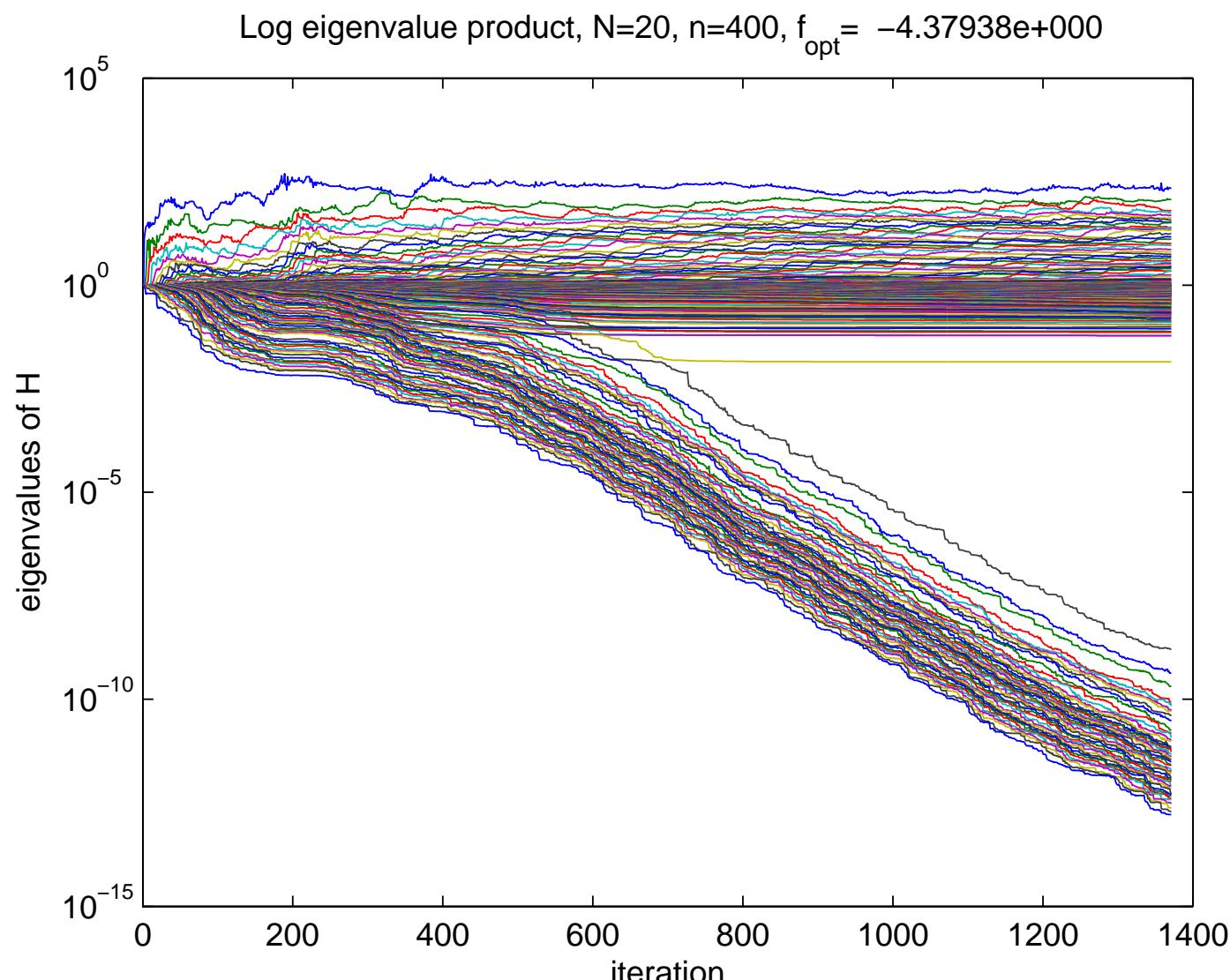
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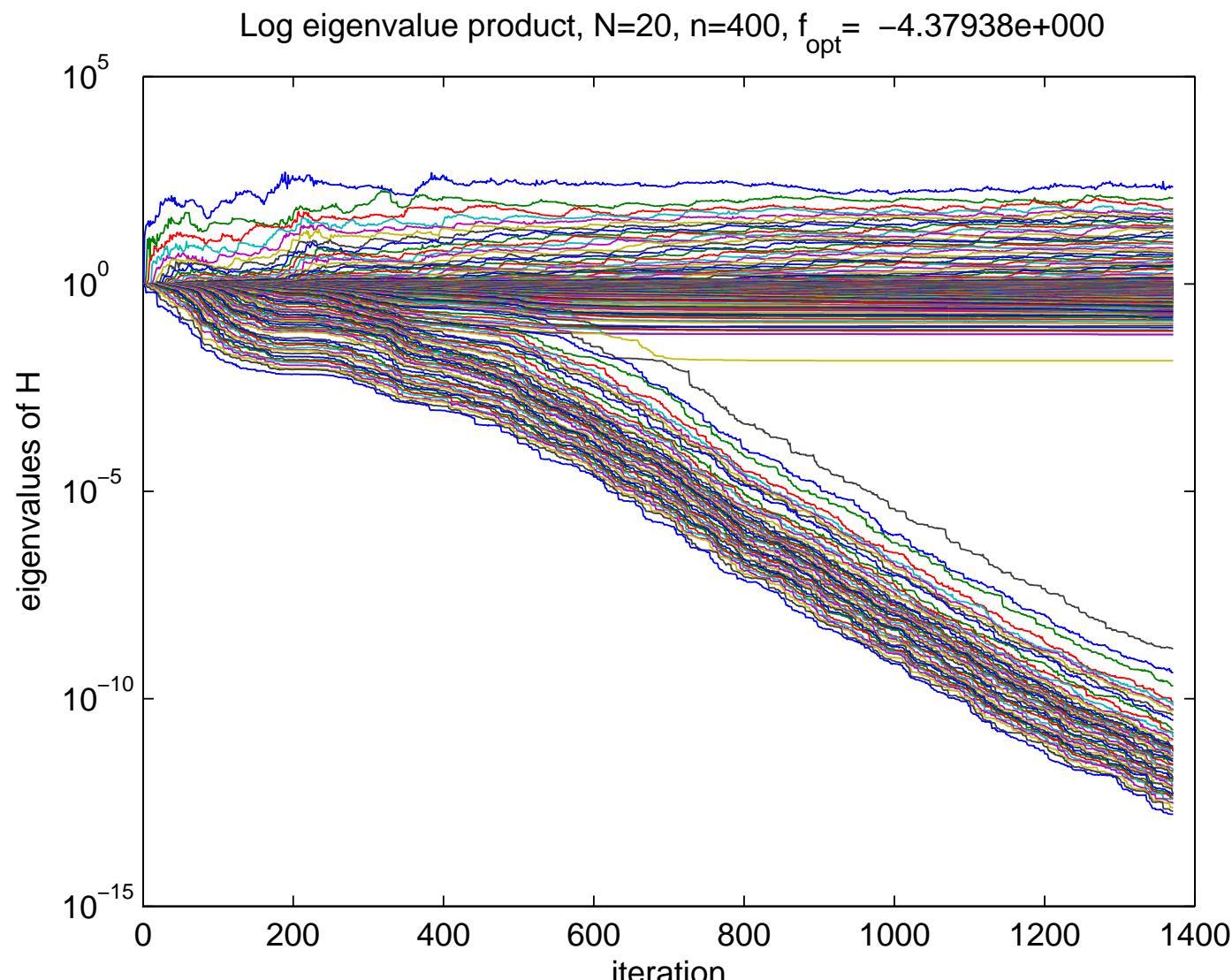
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44 eigenvalues of  $H$  converge to zero...why???



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In this case  $0 \in \partial^C f(x)$  is equivalent to the first-order optimality condition  $f'(x, d) \geq 0$  for all directions  $d$ .



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A locally Lipschitz, directionally differentiable function  $f$  is *regular* (Clarke 1970s) near a point  $x$  when its directional derivative  $f'(\cdot; d)$  is upper semicontinuous there for every fixed direction  $d$ .

In this case  $0 \in \partial^C f(x)$  is equivalent to the first-order optimality condition  $f'(x, d) \geq 0$  for all directions  $d$ .

■ All convex functions are regular



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- All convex functions are regular
- All smooth ( $C^1$ ) functions are regular
- Nonsmooth concave functions are not regular

Example:  $f(x) = -|x|$

Note: this is a somewhat simpler definition of regularity than the one in Lecture 12, but it is less precise: it defines regularity in a neighborhood, not at a point.



## Partly Smooth Functions

A regular function  $f$  is *partly smooth* at  $x$  relative to a manifold  $\mathcal{M}$  containing  $x$  (A.S. Lewis 2003) if

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When we refer to the *V-space* and *U-space* without reference to a point  $x$ , we mean at a minimizer.

For nonzero  $y$  in the *V-space*, the mapping  $t \mapsto f(x + ty)$  is necessarily nonsmooth at  $t = 0$ , while for nonzero  $y$  in the *U-space*,  $t \mapsto f(x + ty)$  is differentiable at  $t = 0$  as long as  $f$  is locally Lipschitz.

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## Partly Smooth Functions: Some Examples, $n = 2$

Example:  $f(x) = \|x\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2|$ .

**Question:** What is  $\mathcal{M}$  and what are the  $U$  and  $V$  spaces at  $\bar{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ?

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Example:  $f(x) = \|x\|_1 = |x_1| + |x_2|$ .

**Question:** What is  $\mathcal{M}$  and what are the  $U$  and  $V$  spaces at  $\bar{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ?

- $\mathcal{M} = \{x : x_2 = 0\}$
- $\partial f(\bar{x}) = \{x : x_1 = 1, -1 \leq x_2 \leq 1\}$
- $V = \text{par } \partial f(\bar{x}) = \{x : x_1 = 0, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}\}$
- $U = V^\perp = \{x : x_1 \in \mathbb{R}, x_2 = 0\}$

Example:  $f(x) = \|x\|_2 = \sqrt{x_1^2 + x_2^2}$ .

**Question:** What is  $\mathcal{M}$  and what are the  $U$  and  $V$  spaces at  $\bar{x} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$ ?

- $\mathcal{M} = \{x : x_1 = x_2 = 0\}$
- $\partial f(\bar{x}) = \{x : \|x\|_2 \leq 1\}$
- $V = \text{par } \partial f(\bar{x}) = \mathbb{R}^2$
- $U = V^\perp = \{0\}$

Example:  $f(x) = 10|x_2 - x_1^2| + (1 - x_1)^2$ : same example as earlier...



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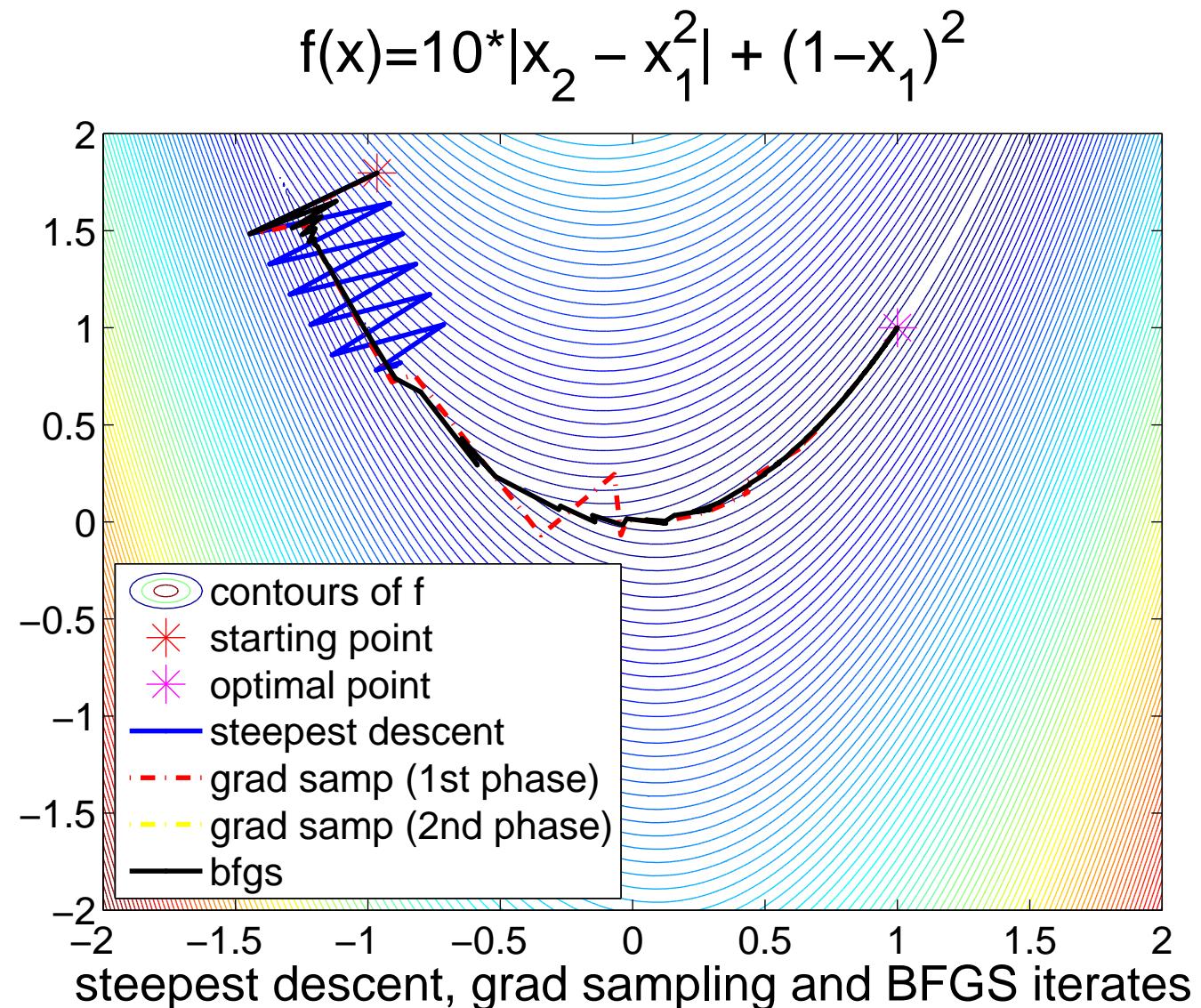
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The eigenvalue product is *regular* and also *partly smooth* (in the sense of A.S. Lewis, 2003) with respect to the manifold of matrices with an eigenvalue with given multiplicity. This implies that *tangent* to this manifold (preserving the multiplicity to first-order) the function is *smooth* ("U-shaped") and *normal* to it, the function is *nonsmooth* ("V-shaped").



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Recall that at the computed minimizer,

$$\lambda_6(A \circ X) \approx \dots \approx \lambda_{14}(A \circ X).$$

Matrix theory says that imposing multiplicity  $m$  on an eigenvalue a matrix  $\in S^N$  is  $\frac{m(m+1)}{2} - 1$  conditions, or 44 when  $m = 9$ , so the dimension of the  $V$ -space at this minimizer is 44.



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Tiny eigenvalues of  $H$  correspond to huge curvature, which corresponds to  $V$ -space directions.



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Tiny eigenvalues of  $H$  correspond to huge curvature, which corresponds to  $V$ -space directions.

Thus BFGS *automatically* detected the  $U$  and  $V$  space partitioning without knowing anything about the mathematical structure of  $f$ !



# Variation of $f$ from Minimizer, along EigVecs of $H$

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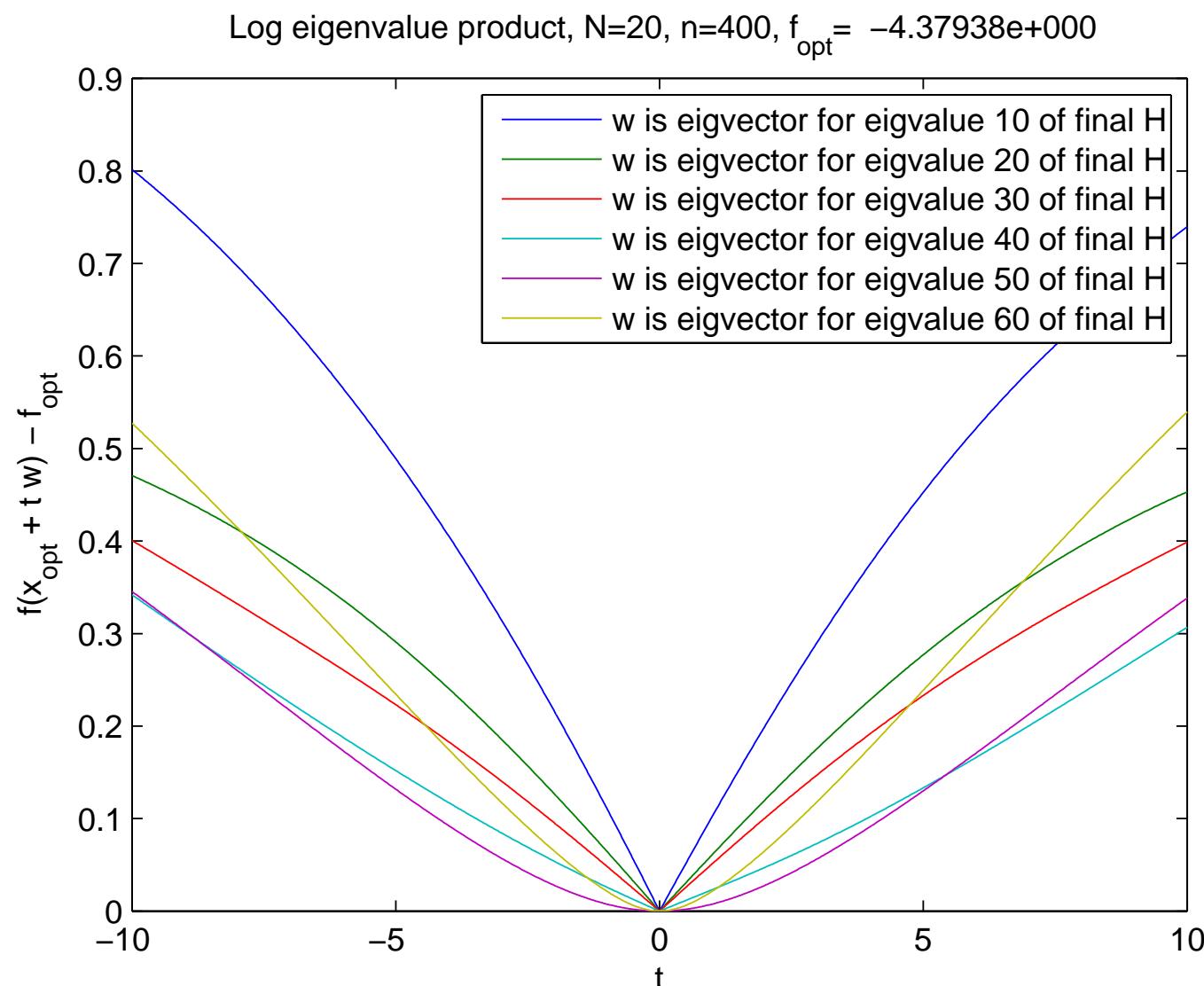
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Eigenvalues of  $H$  numbered *smallest to largest*



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Convergence results for BFGS with Armijo-Wolfe line search when  $f$  is nonsmooth are limited to very special cases.

- $f(x) = |x|$  (one variable!): sequence generated converging to 0 is related to a certain binary expansion of the starting point (A.S. Lewis and M.L.O., 2013)



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- $f(x) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2}$ : iterates converge to  $[0, \dots, 0]$  (Jiayi Guo and A.S. Lewis, 2017) (proof based on Powell (1976))



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- $f(x) = |x_1| + x_2^2$ : remains open!



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Assume  $f$  is locally Lipschitz with bounded level sets and is semi-algebraic (its graph is a finite union of sets each defined by a finite list of polynomial inequalities)

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## Challenge: General Nonsmooth Case

Assume  $f$  is locally Lipschitz with bounded level sets and is semi-algebraic (its graph is a finite union of sets each defined by a finite list of polynomial inequalities)

Assume the initial  $x$  and  $H$  are generated randomly (e.g. from normal and Wishart distributions)

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Prove or disprove that the following hold with probability one:



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Assume the initial  $x$  and  $H$  are generated randomly (e.g. from normal and Wishart distributions)

Prove or disprove that the following hold with probability one:

1. BFGS generates an infinite sequence  $\{x\}$  with  $f$  differentiable at all iterates



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4. If  $\{x\}$  converges to  $\bar{x}$  where  $f$  is "partly smooth" w.r.t. a manifold  $\mathcal{M}$  then the subspace defined by the eigenvectors corresponding to eigenvalues of  $H$  converging to zero converges to the "V-space" of  $f$  w.r.t.  $\mathcal{M}$  at  $\bar{x}$



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- Design of fixed-order controllers for linear dynamical systems with input and output (D. Henrion and M.L.O., 2006, and many subsequent users of our HIFOO (H-Infinity Fixed Order Optimization) toolbox)

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## Some BFGS Nonsmooth Success Stories

- Design of fixed-order controllers for linear dynamical systems with input and output (D. Henrion and M.L.O., 2006, and many subsequent users of our HIFOO (H-Infinity Fixed Order Optimization) toolbox)
- Shape optimization for spectral functions of Dirichlet-Laplacian operators (B. Osting, 2010)

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Software is available: HANSO



# Extensions of BFGS for Nonsmooth Optimization

A combined BFGS-Gradient Sampling method with convergence theory (F.E. Curtis and X. Que, 2015)

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## Constrained Problems

$$\begin{aligned} & \min f(x) \\ & \text{subject to } c_i(x) \leq 0, \quad i = 1, \dots, p \end{aligned}$$

where  $f$  and  $c_1, \dots, c_p$  are locally Lipschitz but may not be differentiable at local minimizers.

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A sequence of orthogonal polynomials defined on  $[-1, 1]$  by

$$T_0(x) = 1, \quad T_1(x) = x, \quad T_{n+1}(x) = 2xT_n(x) - T_{n-1}(x).$$

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$$\text{So } T_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1,$$



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- $T_n(x) = \cos(n \cos^{-1}(x))$



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Important properties that can be proved easily include

- $T_n(x) = \cos(n \cos^{-1}(x))$
- $T_m(T_n(x)) = T_{mn}(x)$
- $\int_{-1}^1 \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-x^2}} T_i(x) T_j(x) dx = 0$  if  $i \neq j$



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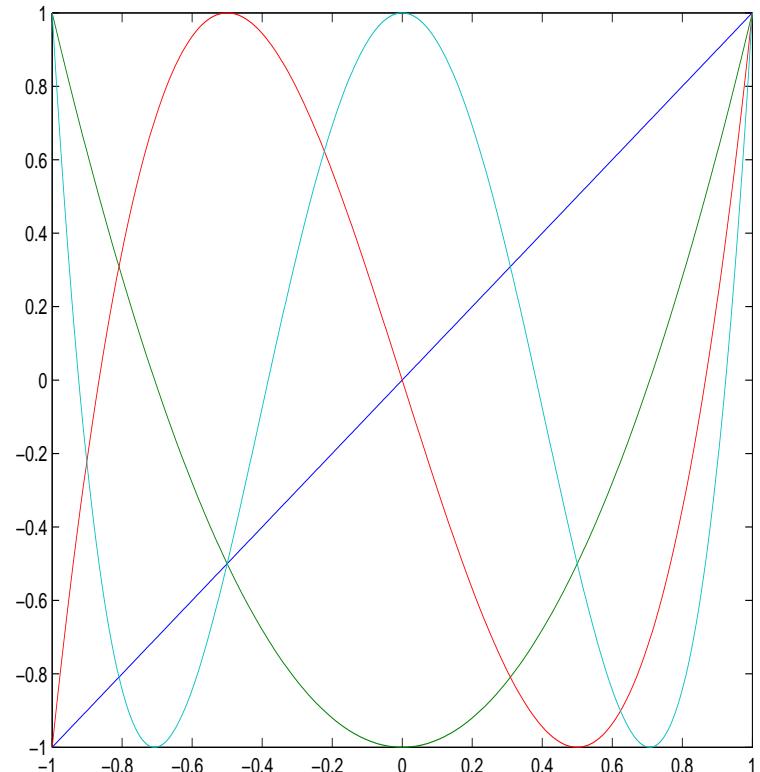
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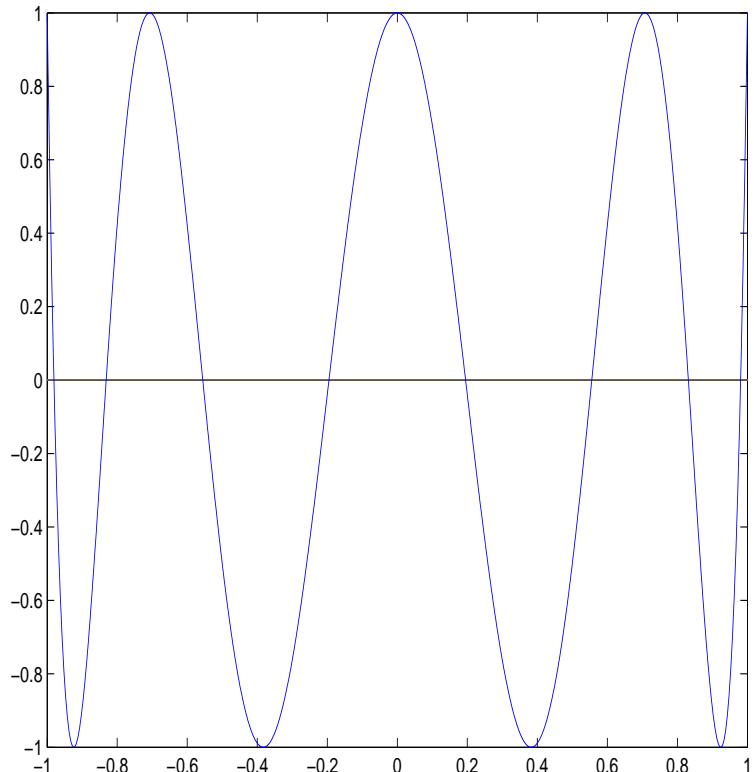
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Right: Plot of  $T_8(x)$ .



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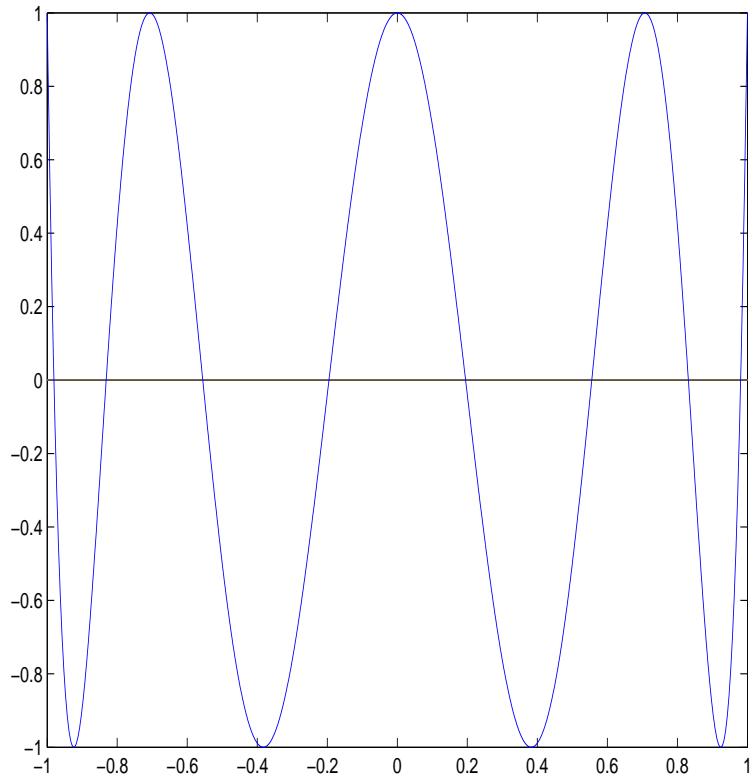
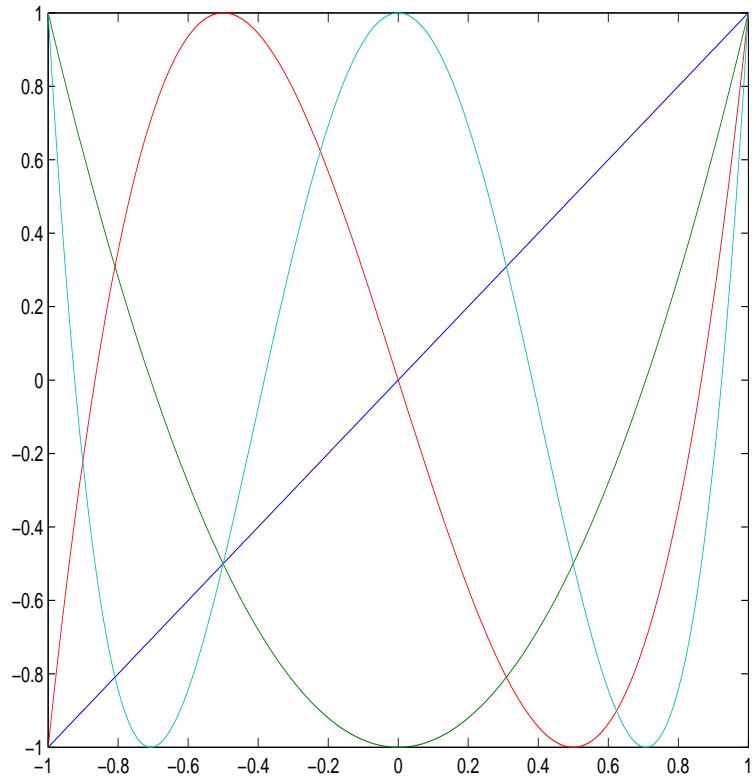
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Left: Plots of  $T_0(x), \dots, T_4(x)$

Right: Plot of  $T_8(x)$ .

Question: How many extrema does  $T_n(x)$  have in  $[-1, 1]$ ?



# Nesterov's Chebyshev-Rosenbrock Functions

Consider the function

$$N_p(x) = \frac{1}{4}(x_1 - 1)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} |x_{i+1} - 2x_i^2 + 1|^p, \quad \text{where } p \geq 1$$

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The unique minimizer is  $x^* = [1, 1, \dots, 1]^T$  with  $N_p(x^*) = 0$ .

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Define  $\hat{x} = [-1, 1, 1, \dots, 1]^T$  with  $N_p(\hat{x}) = 1$  and the manifold

$$\mathcal{M}_N = \{x : x_{i+1} = 2x_i^2 - 1, \quad i = 1, \dots, n - 1\}$$

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$$\mathcal{M}_N = \{x : x_{i+1} = 2x_i^2 - 1, \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1\}$$

For  $x \in \mathcal{M}_N$ , e.g.  $x = x^*$  or  $x = \hat{x}$ , the 2nd term of  $N_p$  is zero. Starting at  $\hat{x}$ , BFGS needs to approximately follow  $\mathcal{M}_N$  to reach  $x^*$  (unless it “gets lucky”).

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Define  $\hat{x} = [-1, 1, 1, \dots, 1]^T$  with  $N_p(\hat{x}) = 1$  and the manifold

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For  $x \in \mathcal{M}_N$ , e.g.  $x = x^*$  or  $x = \hat{x}$ , the 2nd term of  $N_p$  is zero. Starting at  $\hat{x}$ , BFGS needs to approximately follow  $\mathcal{M}_N$  to reach  $x^*$  (unless it “gets lucky”).

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# Nesterov's Chebyshev-Rosenbrock Functions

Consider the function

$$N_p(x) = \frac{1}{4}(x_1 - 1)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} |x_{i+1} - 2x_i^2 + 1|^p, \quad \text{where } p \geq 1$$

The unique minimizer is  $x^* = [1, 1, \dots, 1]^T$  with  $N_p(x^*) = 0$ .

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- $n = 5$ : BFGS needs 370 iterations to reduce  $N_2$  below  $10^{-15}$

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even though  $N_2$  is *smooth!* . . . In the last few iterations, we observe superlinear convergence!

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which has  $2^{n-1} - 1$  extrema in  $(-1, 1)$ .

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Even though BFGS will *not* track the manifold  $\mathcal{M}_N$  exactly, it will follow it approximately. So, since the manifold is highly oscillatory, BFGS must take relatively short steps to obtain reduction in  $N_2$  in the line search, and hence *many* iterations!

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Newton's method is not much faster, although it converges quadratically at the end.

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# First Nonsmooth Variant of Nesterov's Function

$$N_1(x) = \frac{1}{4}(x_1 - 1)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} |x_{i+1} - 2x_i^2 + 1|$$

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However,  $N_1$  is regular at  $x \in \mathcal{M}_N$  and partly smooth at  $x$  w.r.t.  $\mathcal{M}_N$ .



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We cannot initialize BFGS at  $\hat{x}$ , so starting at normally distributed random points:



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$$N_1(x) = \frac{1}{4}(x_1 - 1)^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} |x_{i+1} - 2x_i^2 + 1|$$

$N_1$  is nonsmooth (though locally Lipschitz) as well as nonconvex. The second term is still zero on the manifold  $\mathcal{M}_N$ , but  $N_1$  is not differentiable on  $\mathcal{M}_N$ .

However,  $N_1$  is regular at  $x \in \mathcal{M}_N$  and partly smooth at  $x$  w.r.t.  $\mathcal{M}_N$ .

We cannot initialize BFGS at  $\hat{x}$ , so starting at normally distributed random points:

- $n = 5$ : BFGS reduces  $N_1$  only to about  $10^{-2}$  in 10,000 iterations



# First Nonsmooth Variant of Nesterov's Function

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- $n = 5$ : BFGS reduces  $N_1$  only to about  $10^{-2}$  in 10,000 iterations
- $n = 10$ : BFGS reduces  $N_1$  only to about  $5 \times 10^{-2}$  in 10,000 iterations

The method appears to be converging, very slowly, but may be having numerical difficulties.



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$$\widehat{N}_1(x) = \frac{1}{4}|x_1 - 1| + \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} |x_{i+1} - 2|x_i|| + 1.$$

Again, the unique global minimizer is  $x^*$ . The second term is zero on the set

$$S = \{x : x_{i+1} = 2|x_i| - 1, \quad i = 1, \dots, n-1\}$$

but  $S$  is not a manifold: it has “corners”.

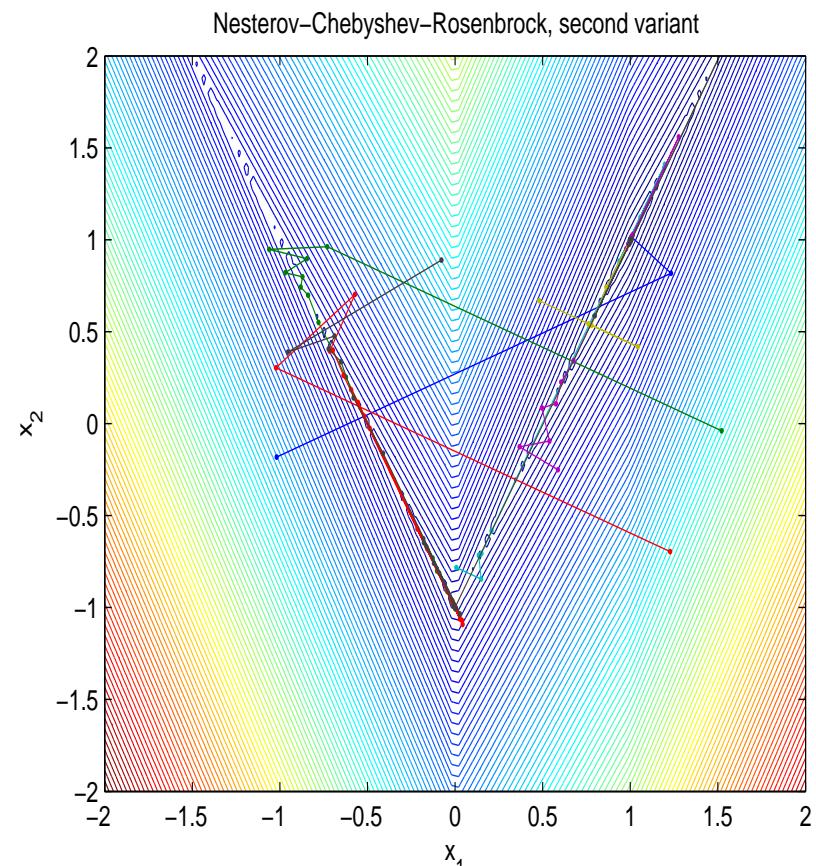
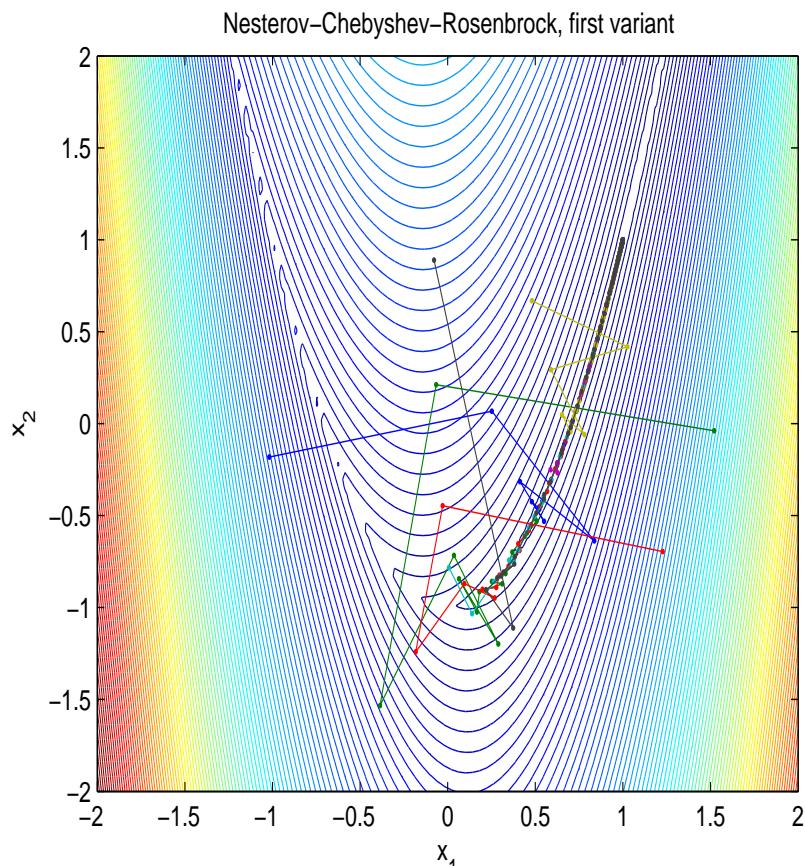


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Contour plots of nonsmooth Chebyshev–Rosenbrock functions  $N_1$  (left) and  $\hat{N}_1$  (right), with  $n = 2$ , with iterates generated by BFGS initialized at 7 different randomly generated points.

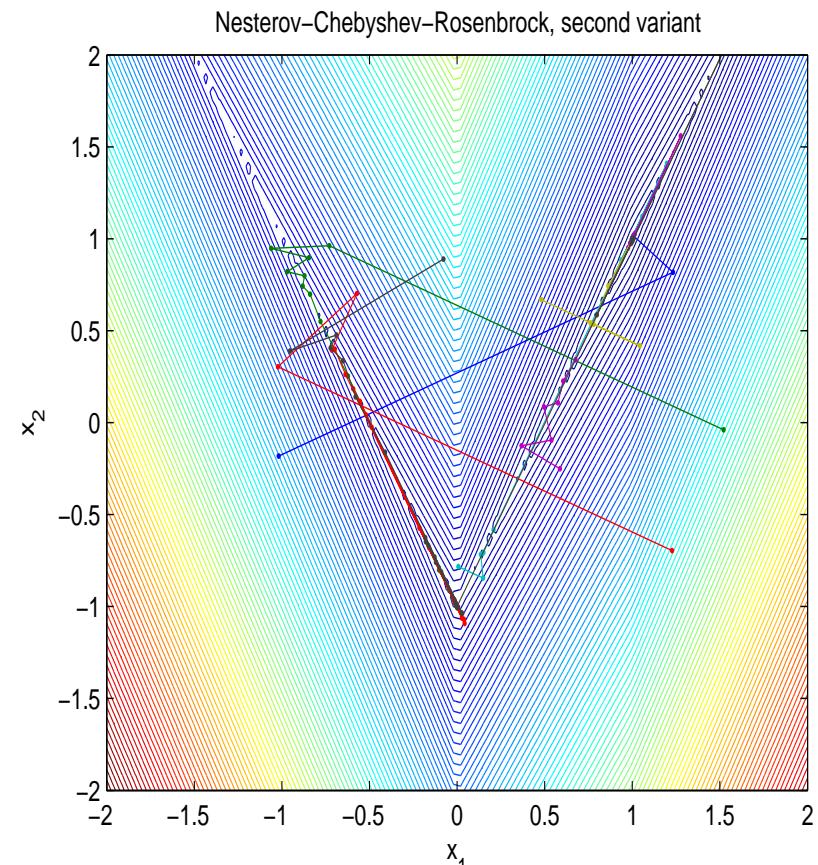
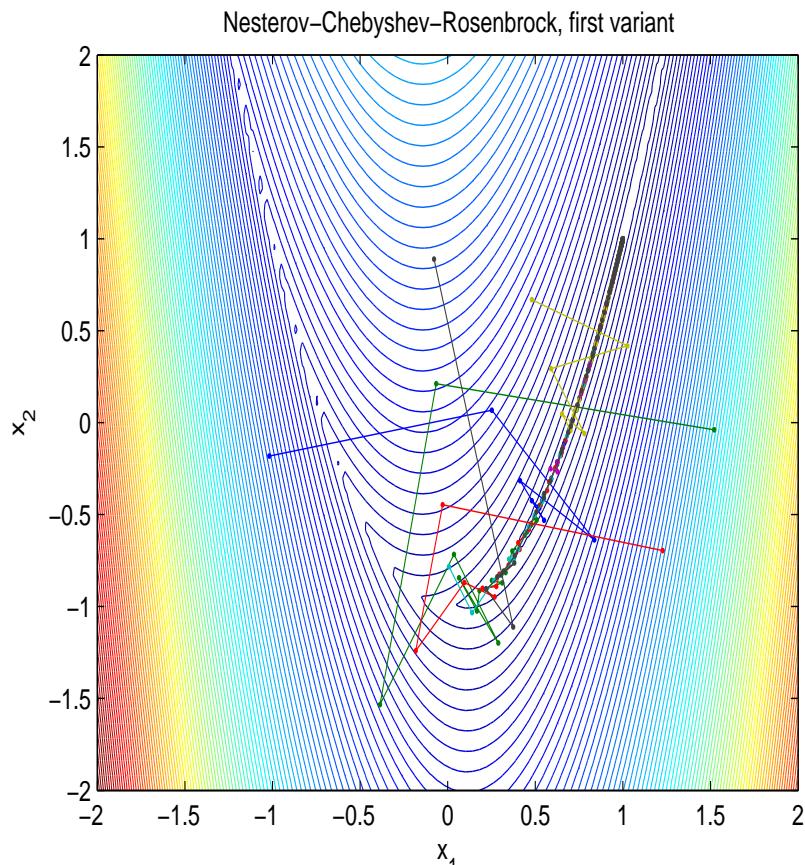


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Contour plots of nonsmooth Chebyshev-Rosenbrock functions  $N_1$  (left) and  $\hat{N}_1$  (right), with  $n = 2$ , with iterates generated by BFGS initialized at 7 different randomly generated points. On the left, always get convergence to  $x^* = [1, 1]^T$ . On the right, most runs converge to  $[1, 1]$  but some go to  $x = [0, -1]^T$ .



## Properties of the Second Nonsmooth Variant $\hat{N}_1$

When  $n = 2$ , the point  $x = [0, -1]^T$  is Clarke stationary for the second nonsmooth variant  $\hat{N}_1$ . We can see this because zero is in the convex hull of the gradient limits for  $\hat{N}_1$  at the point  $x$ .

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However,  $x = [0, -1]^T$  is not a local minimizer, because  $d = [1, 2]^T$  is a direction of linear descent:  $\hat{N}'_1(x, d) < 0$ .

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These two properties mean that  $\hat{N}_1$  is *not regular* at  $[0, -1]^T$ .

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In fact, for  $n \geq 2$ :

- $\hat{N}_1$  has  $2^{n-1}$  Clarke stationary points

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- $\hat{N}_1$  has  $2^{n-1}$  Clarke stationary points
- the only local minimizer is the global minimizer  $x^*$
- $x^*$  is the only stationary point in the sense of Mordukhovich  
(i.e., with  $0 \in \partial N_1(x)$  where we defined  $\partial$  in Lecture 12)  
(see also Rockafellar and Wets, *Variational Analysis*, 1998).

(M. Gürbüzbalaban and M.L.O., 2012)

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(M. Gürbüzbalaban and M.L.O., 2012)

Furthermore, starting from enough randomly generated starting points, BFGS finds all  $2^{n-1}$  Clarke stationary points!

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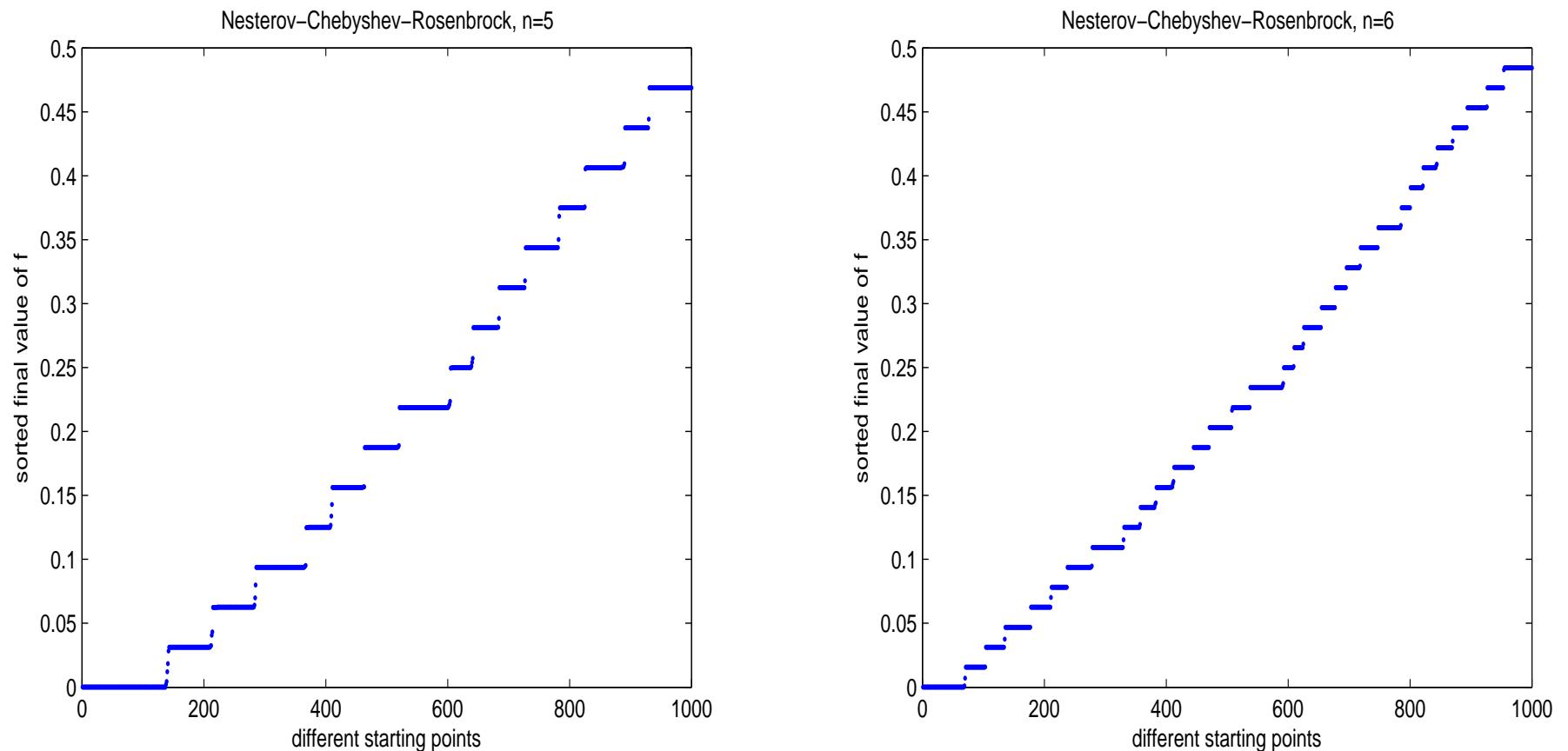
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Left: *sorted* final values of  $\hat{N}_1$  for 1000 randomly generated starting points, when  $n = 5$ : BFGS finds all 16 Clarke stationary points. Right: same with  $n = 6$ : BFGS finds all 32 Clarke stationary points.



# Convergence to Non-Locally-Minimizing Points

When  $f$  is *smooth*, convergence of methods such as BFGS to non-locally-minimizing stationary points or local maxima is *possible* but not likely, because of the line search, and such convergence will not be stable under perturbation.

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However, this kind of convergence is what we are seeing for the non-regular, non-smooth Nesterov Chebyshev-Rosenbrock example, and it *is* stable under perturbation. The same behavior occurs for gradient sampling or bundle methods.

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However, this kind of convergence is what we are seeing for the non-regular, non-smooth Nesterov Chebyshev-Rosenbrock example, and it *is* stable under perturbation. The same behavior occurs for gradient sampling or bundle methods.

Kiwiel (private communication): the Nesterov example is the first he had seen which causes his bundle code to have this behavior.

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However, this kind of convergence is what we are seeing for the non-regular, non-smooth Nesterov Chebyshev-Rosenbrock example, and it *is* stable under perturbation. The same behavior occurs for gradient sampling or bundle methods.

Kiwiel (private communication): the Nesterov example is the first he had seen which causes his bundle code to have this behavior.

Nonetheless, we don't know whether, in exact arithmetic, the methods would actually generate sequences converging to the nonminimizing Clarke stationary points. Experiments by Kaku (2011) suggest that the higher the precision used, the more likely BFGS is to eventually move away from such a point.



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Limited Memory BFGS

A Nonsmooth Convex Function, Unbounded Below  
L-BFGS-1 vs.

Gradient Descent  
Convergence of the L-BFGS-1 Search  
Direction

Experiment, with  
 $n = 2$  and  $\alpha = \sqrt{3}$

Experiment: slightly smaller  $\alpha$

Experiments: Top, scaling on; Bottom, scaling off

Nesterov's  
Ill-Conditioned  
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# Limited Memory Methods



# Limited Memory BFGS

“Full” BFGS requires storing an  $n \times n$  matrix and doing matrix-vector multiplies, which is not possible when  $n$  is large.

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**Limited Memory BFGS**

A Nonsmooth Convex Function, Unbounded Below  
L-BFGS-1 vs. Gradient Descent  
Convergence of the L-BFGS-1 Search Direction

Experiment, with  $n = 2$  and  $\alpha = \sqrt{3}$

Experiment: slightly smaller  $\alpha$

Experiments: Top, scaling on; Bottom, scaling off

Nesterov's Ill-Conditioned Nonsmooth Convex Function

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## Limited Memory BFGS

“Full” BFGS requires storing an  $n \times n$  matrix and doing matrix-vector multiplies, which is not possible when  $n$  is large.

In the 1980s, J. Nocedal and others developed a “limited memory” version of BFGS, with  $O(n)$  space and time requirements, which is very widely used for minimizing smooth functions in many variables. At the  $k$ th iteration, it applies only the most recent  $m$  rank-two updates, defined by

$$(s_j, y_j), \quad j = k - m, \dots, k - 1,$$

where

$$s_j = x_{j+1} - x_j, \quad y_{j+1} = \nabla f(x_{j+1}) - \nabla f(x_j)$$

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The convergence rate of limited memory BFGS is linear, not superlinear, on smooth problems.

Question: how effective is it on nonsmooth problems?



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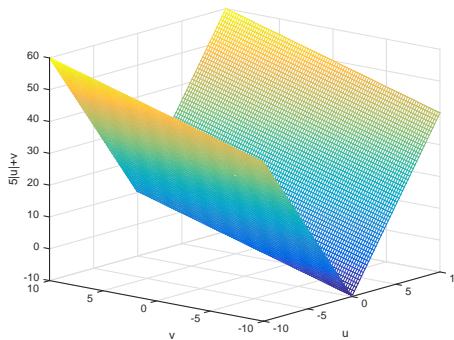
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Let's reconsider

$$f(x) = a|x_1| + x_2$$

with  $a \geq 1$ .



Turns out that L-BFGS-1 (saving just one update) with scaling fails for *smaller* values of  $a$  than the critical value beyond which Gradient Descent fails!



# L-BFGS-1 vs. Gradient Descent

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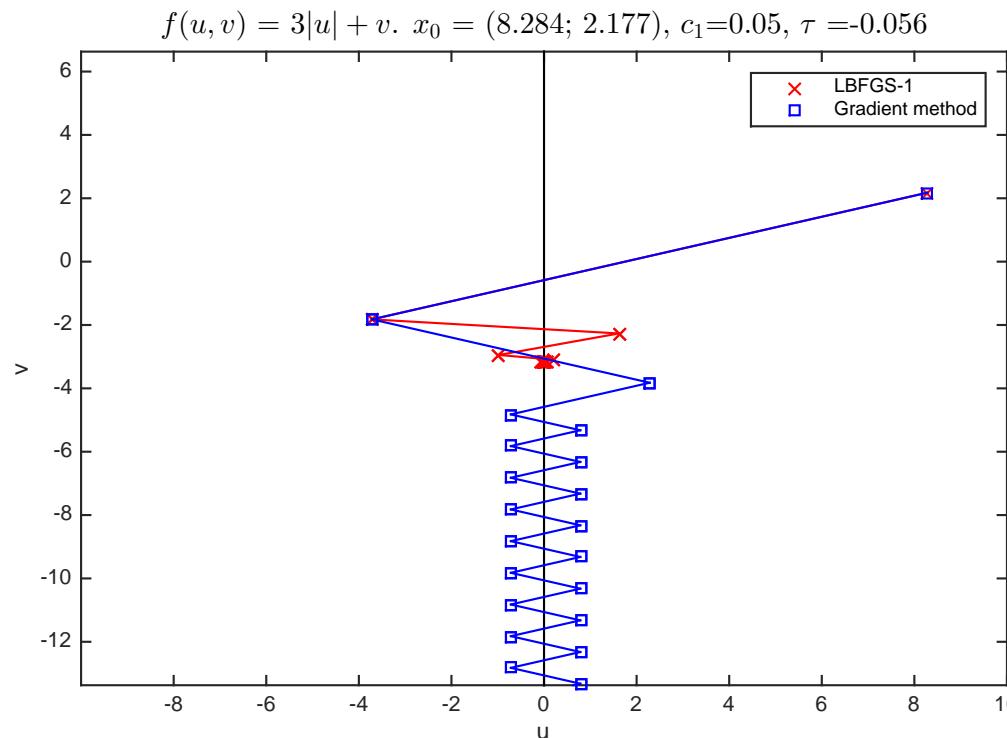
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Red: path of L-BFGS-1 with scaling, converges to non-stationary point.

Blue: path of the gradient method with same Armijo-Wolfe line search, generates  $f(x) \downarrow -\infty$ .





# Convergence of the L-BFGS-1 Search Direction

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**Theorem.** Let  $d^{(k)}$  be the search direction generated by L-BFGS-1 with scaling applied to  $f(x) = a|x_1| + \sum_{i=2}^n x_i$  using an Armijo-Wolfe line search. If  $\sqrt{4(n-1)} \leq a$ , then  $\frac{|d^{(k)}|}{\|d^{(k)}\|}$  converges to some constant direction  $d$ . Furthermore, if

$$a(a + \sqrt{a^2 - 3(n-1)}) > \left(\frac{1}{c_1} - 1\right)(n-1),$$

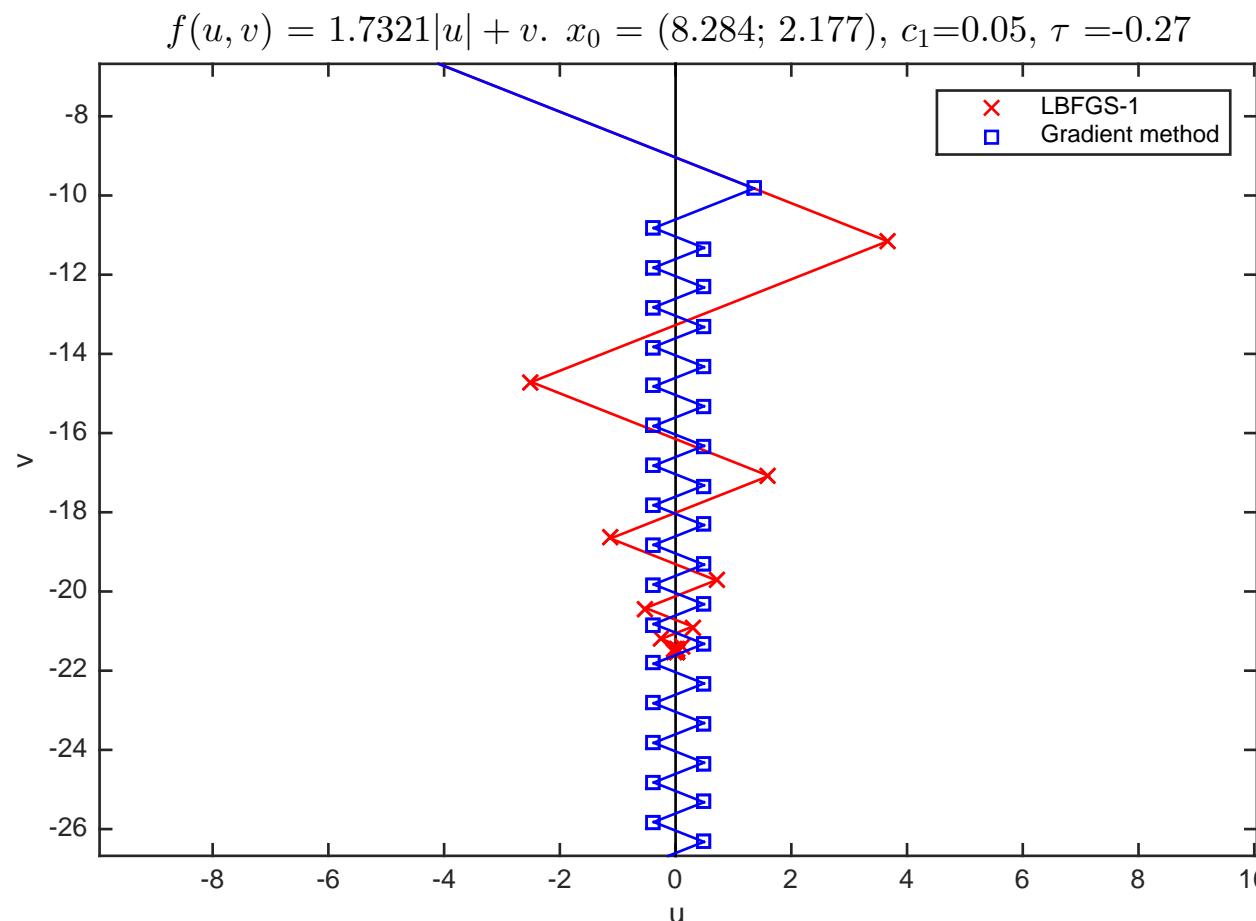
where  $c_1$  is the Armijo parameter, then the iterates  $x^{(k)}$  converge to a non-stationary point.

Azam Asl, 2018.



## Experiment, with $n = 2$ and $a = \sqrt{3}$

In practice we observe that  $\sqrt{3}(n - 1) \leq a$  suffices for the method to fail, which is a weaker condition than the previous one. Below with  $n = 2$  and  $a = \sqrt{3}$  the method fails:



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## Experiment: slightly smaller $a$

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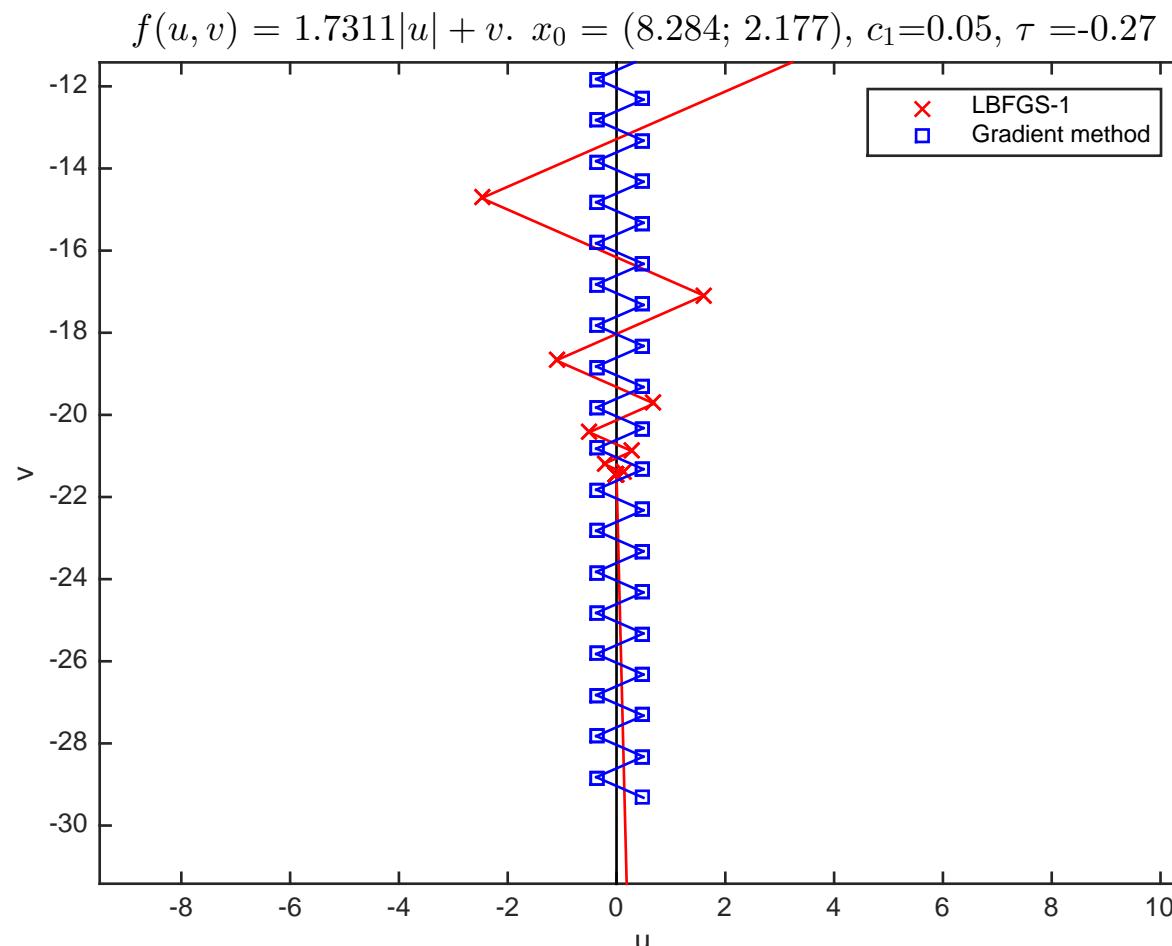
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But if we set  $a = \sqrt{3} - 0.001$ , it succeeds “at the last minute”.





# Experiments: Top, scaling on; Bottom, scaling off

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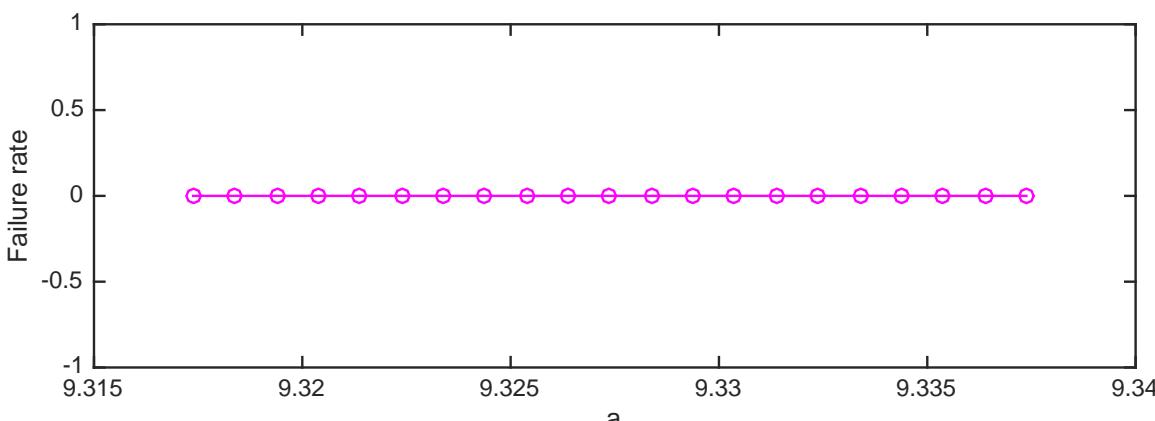
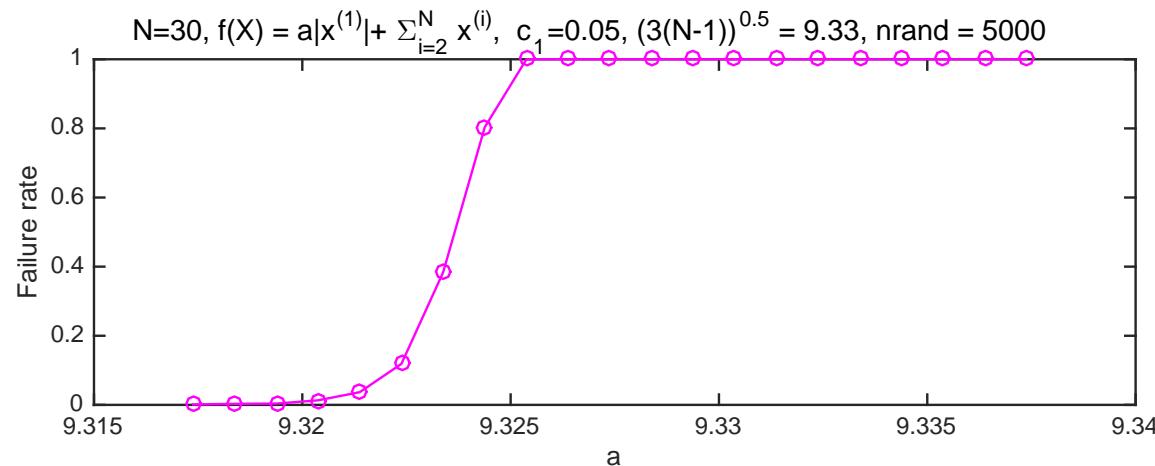
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$$n = 30, \sqrt{3(n - 1)} = 9.327$$





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# Nesterov's III-Conditioned Nonsmooth Convex Function



## Another Challenging Problem from Nesterov

Consider the nonsmooth, convex function

$$f(x) = \max \left( |x_1|, \{ |x_i - 2x_{i-1}|, i = 2, \dots, n \} \right)$$

and set

$$\tilde{x}_1 = 1, \quad \tilde{x}_i = 2\tilde{x}_{i-1} + 1, i = 2, \dots, n.$$

Then  $f(\tilde{x}) = 1$  although  $\|\tilde{x}\| \approx 2^n$ .

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Smoothed variant:

$$f_\mu(x) = \text{softmax} \left( \pm x_1, \pm \{ x_i - 2x_{i-1}, i = 2, \dots, n \} \right)$$

with minimizer 0 with  $f_\mu(0) = \mu \log(2n)$ , where

$$\text{softmax}(y) = \mu \log \left( \exp \left( \frac{y_1}{\mu} \right) + \dots + \exp \left( \frac{y_{2n}}{\mu} \right) \right)$$

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As smoothing parameter  $\mu \rightarrow 0$ , function  $f_\mu \rightarrow f$ .

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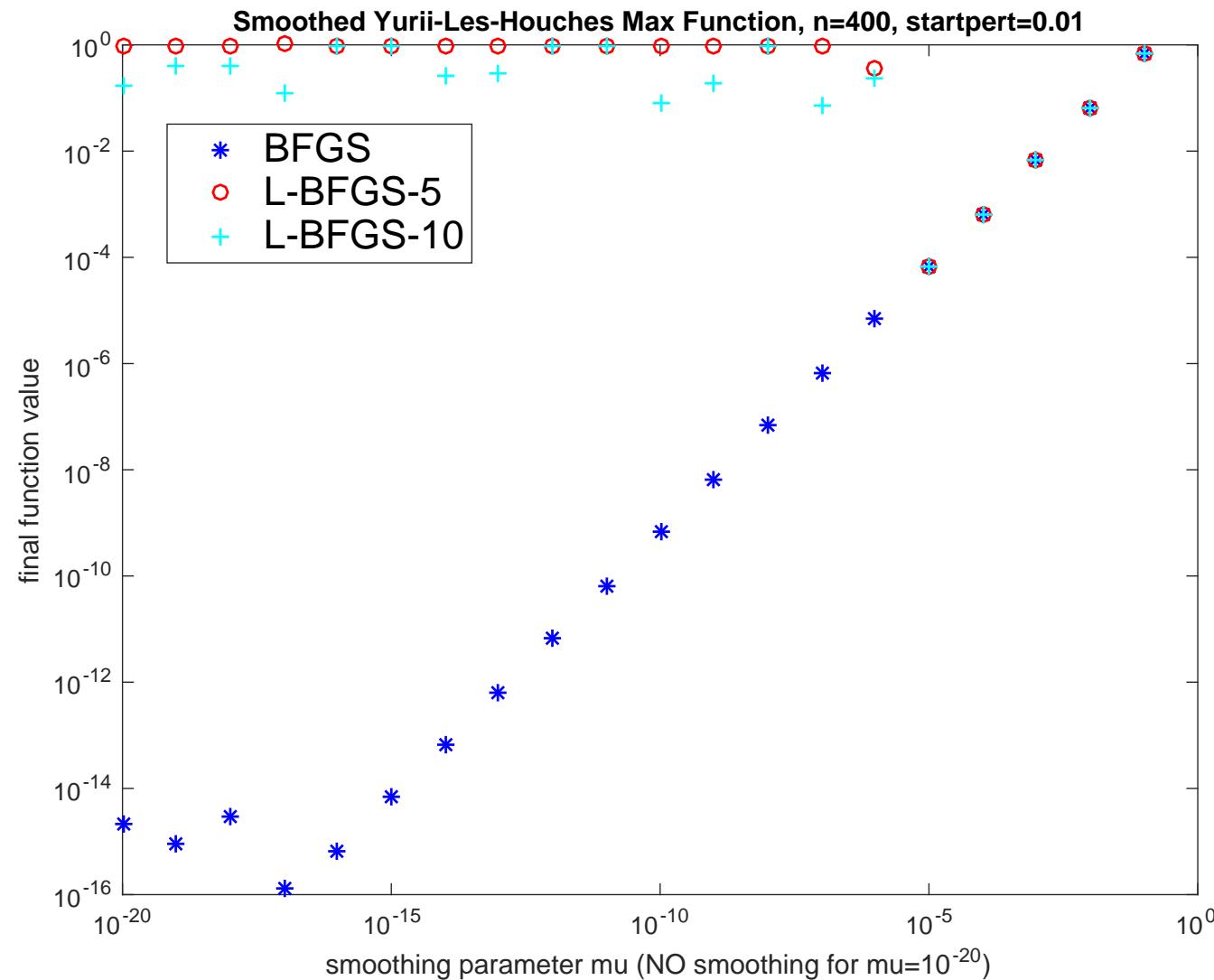
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BFGS finds accurate solution independent of conditioning as  $\mu \rightarrow 0$

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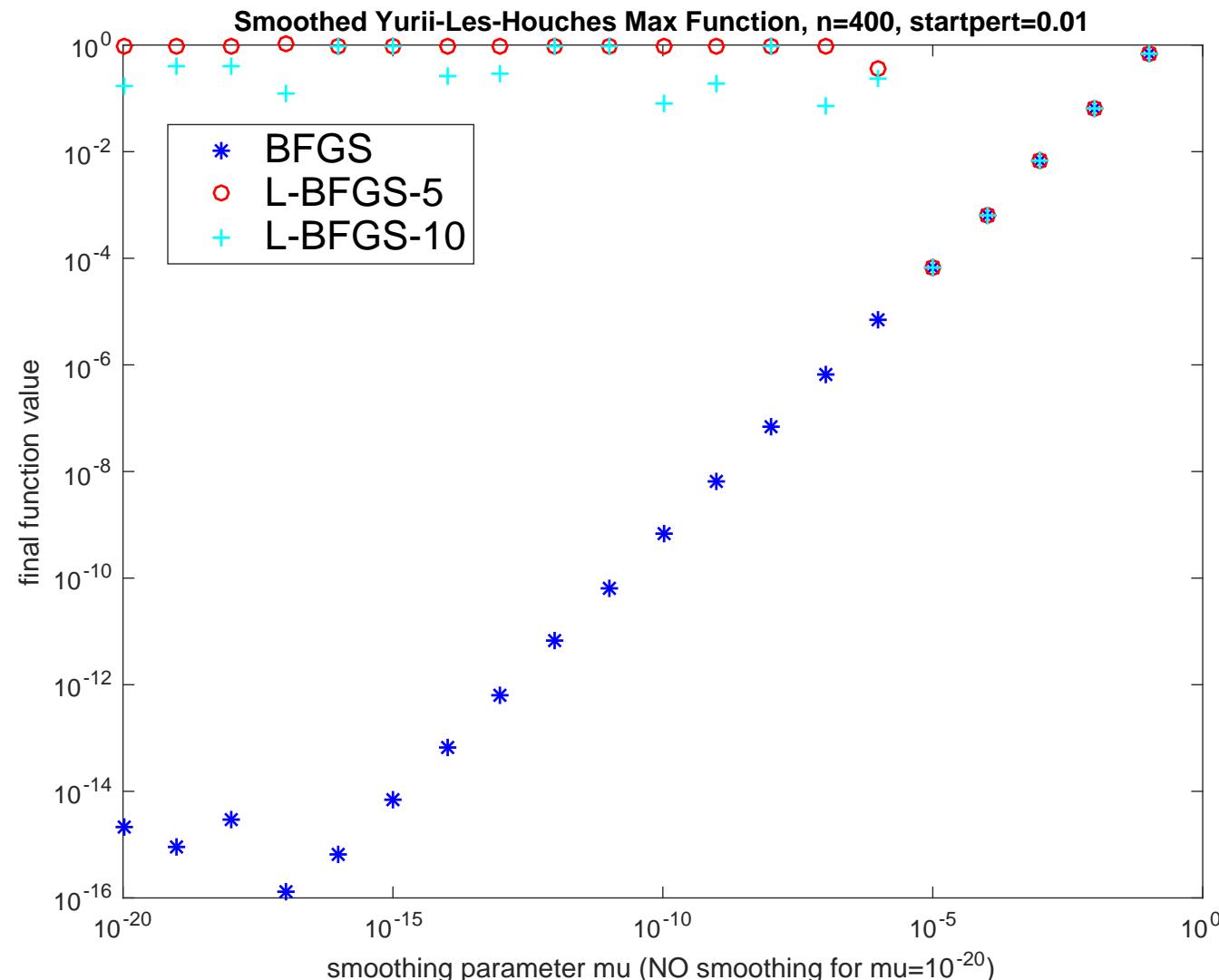
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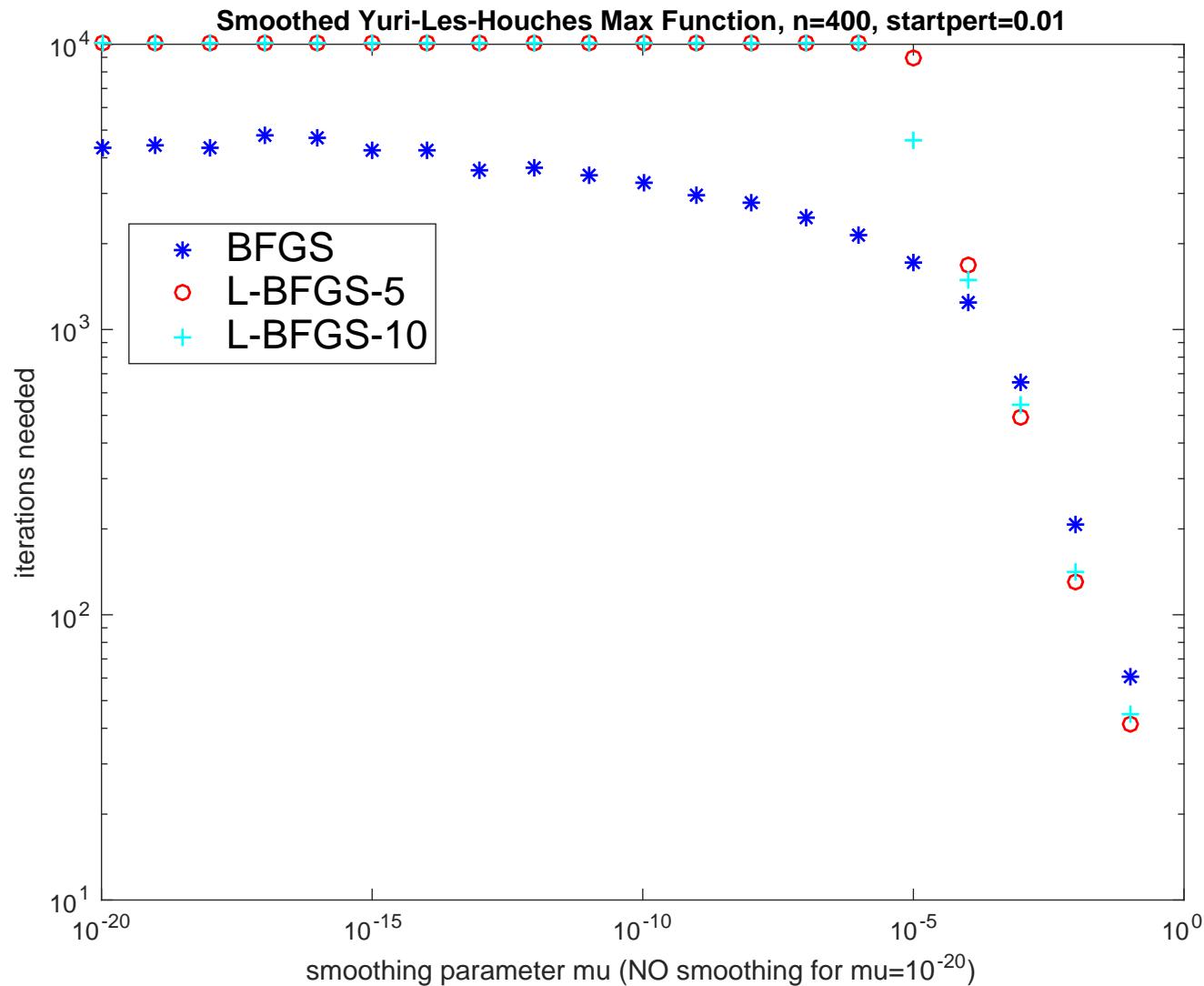
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BFGS finds accurate solution independent of conditioning as  $\mu \rightarrow 0$   
L-BFGS breaks down as  $\mu \rightarrow 0$

# Number of Iterations for $n = 400$



# BFGS iterations is almost independent of the conditioning as  $\mu \rightarrow 0$

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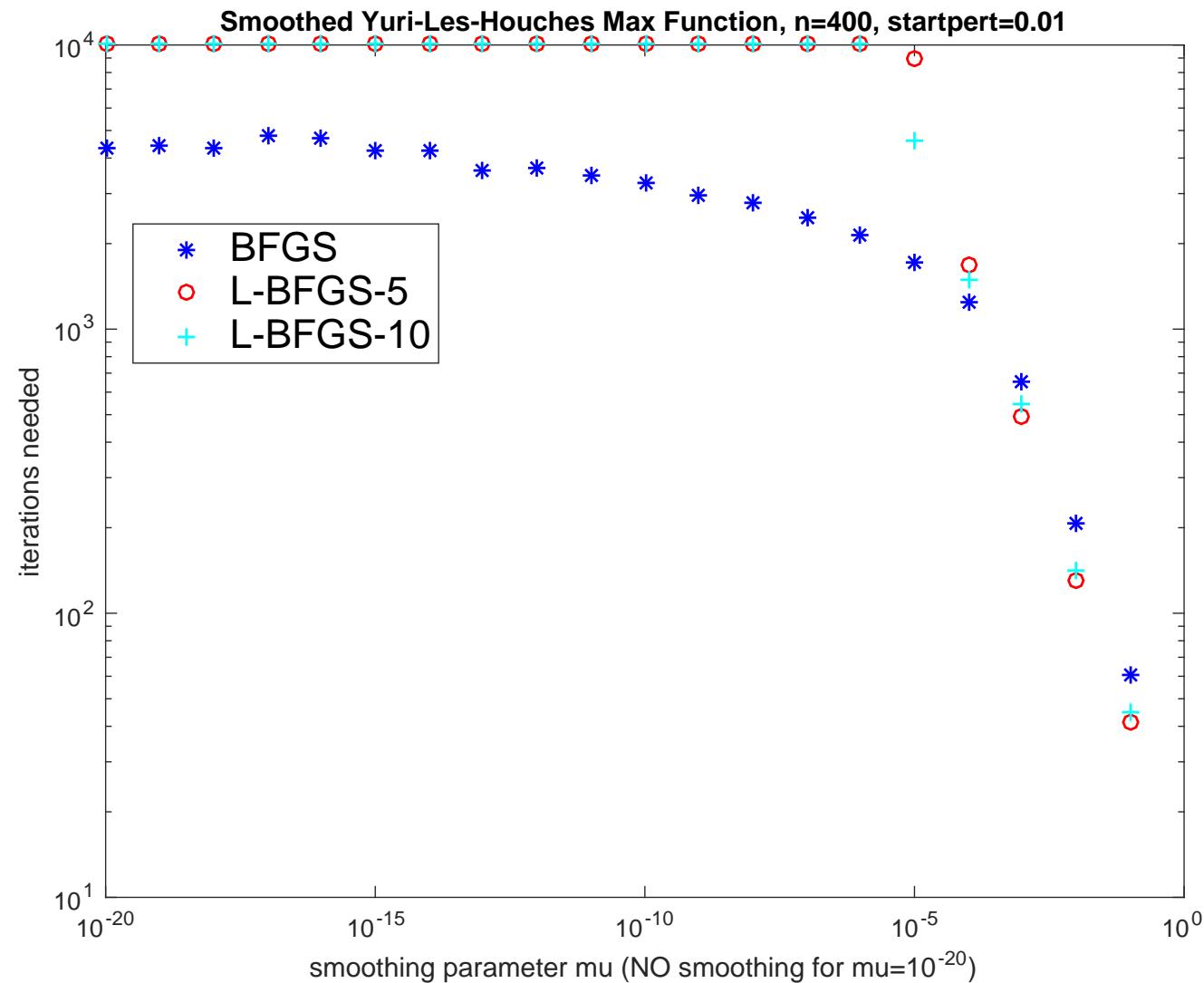
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# BFGS iterations is almost independent of the conditioning as  $\mu \rightarrow 0$   
# L-BFGS iterations hits max iteration limit for small  $\mu$



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We have observed that that addition of nonsmoothness to a problem, convex or nonconvex, creates great difficulties for Limited Memory BFGS, with and without scaling, even when the dimension of the  $V$ -space is less than the size of the memory.



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Azam Asl's result establishes failure of L-BFGS-1 for a specific  $f$  when scaling is on; no such result is proved yet when scaling is off.



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Azam Asl's result establishes failure of L-BFGS-1 for a specific  $f$  when scaling is on; no such result is proved yet when scaling is off.

We have also investigated Limited Memory Gradient Sampling which does not work well either.



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Gradient Sampling is a simple method for nonsmooth, nonconvex optimization for which a convergence theory is known, but it is too expensive to use in most applications.

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Diabolical nonconvex problems such as Nesterov's Chebyshev-Rosenbrock problems can be very difficult, especially in the nonsmooth case.



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Diabolical nonconvex problems such as Nesterov's Chebyshev-Rosenbrock problems can be very difficult, especially in the nonsmooth case.

Our software, HANSO and GRANSO, is available (unconstrained and constrained) along with HIFOO (H-infinity fixed order optimization) for controller design, which has been used successfully in many applications.



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Papers, software are available at [www.cs.nyu.edu/overton](http://www.cs.nyu.edu/overton).