Numerical optimization

Mines Nancy – Fall 2024 session 6 – conjugate gradient methods

Lecturer: Julien Flamant (CNRS, CRAN)

lacksquare julien.flamant@univ-lorraine.fr

• Office 425, FST 1er cycle

Course material:

arche.univ-lorraine.fr/course/view.php?id=74098

github.com/jflamant/mines-nancy-fall24-optimization



Setting

We consider the linear system of N equations

$$\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p} \tag{\mathcal{L}}$$

where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N$, $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ and $\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^N$. We assume that $\mathbf{Q} > 0$.

The solution to (\mathcal{L}) is of course $\mathbf{x}^* = \mathbf{Q}^{-1}\mathbf{p}$.

Comments

- for large N, the cost of matrix inversion makes the direct calculation of x* untractable;
- instead, we seek iterative methods to solve (\mathcal{L}) ;
- the specific structure of the problem calls for a tailored solution: this is known as the linear conjugate gradient method;
- problem (\mathcal{L}) is closely related to least squares problems.

main reference for this lecture: Nocedal and Wright (2006), Chapter 5.

Reminder: least squares normal equations

Consider the least squares problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2, \quad \mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^M$$

where we assume that rank $\mathbf{A} = N$.

Recall the normal equations for this optimization problem:

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y}$$

Pose $\mathbf{Q} = \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}$ and $\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{A}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y}$, we obtain the linear system (\mathcal{L}). (recall that $\mathbf{Q} > 0$ since rank $\mathbf{A} = \mathcal{N}$). Hence the two problems are equivalent!

The linear conjugate gradient method is effective for solving large-scale least squares problems

Outline

1 Linear conjugate gradient method

2 Nonlinear conjugate gradient method

General idea: exploiting the conjugacy property

Conjugate gradient methods rely on the conjugacy property.

Let $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ a positive definite matrix.

A set of non-zero vectors $\{\bm{d}_0,\bm{d}_1,\ldots,\bm{d}_\ell\}$ is said to be $\emph{conjugate}$ with respect to \bm{Q} if

$$\mathbf{d}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_j = 0 \text{ for all } i \neq j.$$

Note that this implies that the $\mathbf{d}_{i}^{\prime}s$ are linearly independent.

General idea: exploiting the conjugacy property

Conjugate gradient methods rely on the conjugacy property.

Let $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$ a positive definite matrix.

A set of non-zero vectors $\{\bm{d}_0,\bm{d}_1,\ldots,\bm{d}_\ell\}$ is said to be *conjugate* with respect to \bm{Q} if

$$\mathbf{d}_i^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_j = 0 \text{ for all } i \neq j.$$

Note that this implies that the $\mathbf{d}_{i}^{\prime}s$ are linearly independent.

Conjugate direction method

Let $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ a starting point and $\{\mathbf{d}_0, \mathbf{d}_1, \dots, \mathbf{d}_\ell\}$ a set of conjugate directions.

At iteration k, generate the new iterate as

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}_k$$

where α_k is the optimal step size for the quadratic function associated to the systems of equations $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p}$.

Conjugate direction algorithm (I)

Computation of α_k Let $\phi(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{t}(\alpha)^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{t}(\alpha) - \mathbf{p}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{t}(\alpha)$ where $\mathbf{t}(\alpha) = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha\mathbf{d}_k$. Hence $\alpha_k = \arg\min_{\alpha} \phi(\alpha)$.

It is a quadratic convex function of α , so it suffices to cancel out the derivative to get α_k .

$$\phi'(\alpha) = \mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \left[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha \mathbf{d}_{k} \right] - \mathbf{p}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{d}_{k}$$
$$= +\alpha \mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_{k} + \mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}} \left[\mathbf{Q} \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{p} \right]$$

Define $\mathbf{r}_k = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{p}$ the residual at iteration k. Then

$$\alpha_k = -\frac{\mathbf{d}_{\mathbf{k}}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{r}_{\mathbf{k}}}{\mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_{k}}$$

Conjugate direction algorithm (II)

Theorem (Nocedal and Wright (2006))

The sequence $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}\}$ generated by

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}_k$$
, where $\alpha_k = -\frac{\mathbf{d}_k^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{r}_k}{\mathbf{d}_k^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k}$

where the $\{\mathbf{d}_k\}$ are conjugate directions converges to the solution \mathbf{x}^* of the linear system in at most N steps.

Proof Let us consider N conjugate directions. This implies that the directions are linearly independent and thus they must span \mathbb{R}^N . In particular, there exist $\sigma_0, \ldots, \sigma_{N-1} \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\mathbf{x}^* - \mathbf{x}^{(0)} = \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} \sigma_i \mathbf{d}_i$$

Proof (continued)

By using the conjugacy property, we can obtain the value of σ_k as

$$\mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}\left[\mathbf{x}^{\star}-\mathbf{x}^{(0)}\right]=\mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}\left[\sum_{i=0}^{N-1}\sigma_{i}\mathbf{d}_{i}\right]=\sigma_{k}\mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{d}_{k}$$

hence $\sigma_k = \frac{\mathbf{d}_k^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q}[\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} - \mathbf{x}^{(0)}]}{\mathbf{d}_k^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k}$. Next we prove that $\alpha_k = \sigma_k$.

By the recursion formula, we have for k > 0, $\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{x}^{(0)} + \sum_{i=0}^{k-1} \alpha_i \mathbf{d}_i$. Then by conjugacy

$$\mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x}^{(k)} = \mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \Leftrightarrow \mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}\left[\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}^{(0)}\right] = 0$$

and as a result

$$\mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}\left[\mathbf{x}^{\star}-\mathbf{x}^{(0)}\right] = \mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}\left[\mathbf{x}^{\star}-\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\right] = \mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\left[\mathbf{p}-\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\right] = -\mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{r}_{k}$$

which permits to conclude that $\alpha_k = \sigma_k$.

Additional properties

Properties of the conjugate direction method

Let $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}$ be generated by the conjugate direction method. Then, for an iteration k, one has

- $\mathbf{r}_{k} = \mathbf{r}_{k-1} + \alpha_{k-1} \mathbf{Qd}_{k-1}$
- $\mathbf{d}_{i}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{r}_{k} = 0 \text{ for } i = 0, 1, \dots, k-1$
- $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$ is the minimizer of $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x} \mathbf{p}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}$ over the set $\{\mathbf{x} \mid \mathbf{x}^{(0)} + \mathrm{span}\{\mathbf{d}_0, \mathbf{d}_1, \dots, \mathbf{d}_{k-1}\}\}$

Comments

- See Nocedal and Wright (2006), p. 106 for a proof.
- The residual r_k only depends on the previous one and on the current iteration (α_{k-1}, d_{k-1})
- the residual \mathbf{r}_k is orthogonal to the k previous conjugate directions

The linear conjugate gradient method

The conjugate directions method requires a set of conjugate directions $\{\mathbf{d}_k\}$, which can be determined in advance using, e.g.,

- eigenvalue decomposition of Q;
- modification of the Gram-Schmidt process to produce a set of conjugate directions
- → too costly for large scale applications

Solution: (linear) conjugate gradient (CG) method

- directions **d**_k are computed iteratively;
- each new direction \mathbf{d}_k use only \mathbf{d}_{k-1} ; it is automatically conjugated to all the previous directions $\mathbf{d}_0, \mathbf{d}_1, \dots, \mathbf{d}_{k-1}$
- cheap computational cost and memory storage.

The linear conjugate gradient method

Idea: choose the direction \mathbf{d}_k as a linear combination of $-\mathbf{r}_k$ and \mathbf{d}_{k-1}

$$\mathbf{d}_k = -\mathbf{r}_k + \beta_k \mathbf{d}_{k-1}$$

where β_k is set to impose conjugation between \mathbf{d}_k and \mathbf{d}_{k-1} :

$$\beta_k = \frac{\mathbf{d}_{k-1}^{\top} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{r}_k}{\mathbf{d}_{k-1}^{\top} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_{k-1}}$$

This gives us a preliminary version of CG.

Starting from $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ and $\mathbf{d}_0 = -\mathbf{r}_0$, iterate until convergence

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}_k, \text{ where } \alpha_k = -\frac{\mathbf{d}_k^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{r}_k}{\mathbf{d}_k^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k}$$
$$\mathbf{d}_{k+1} = -\mathbf{r}_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1} \mathbf{d}_k, \text{ where } \beta_{k+1} = \frac{\mathbf{d}_k^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{r}_{k+1}}{\mathbf{d}_k^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k}$$

Results for CG: theorem

This first version is practical for studying properties of CG.

Krylov subspace:

useful tool in numerical linear algebra

$$\mathcal{K}(\mathbf{r}; k) = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{Q}^2\mathbf{r}, \dots, \mathbf{Q}^k\mathbf{r}\}\$$

Theorem (Nocedal and Wright (2006))

Consider the k-th iteration of the CG method (not the final one). Then

$$\mathbf{r}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{r}_{i} = 0 \text{ for } i = 0, 1, \dots, k-1$$

 $\operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{r}_{0}, \mathbf{r}_{1}, \dots, \mathbf{r}_{k}\} = \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{r}_{0}; k)$
 $\operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{d}_{0}, \mathbf{d}_{1}, \dots, \mathbf{d}_{k}\} = \mathcal{K}(\mathbf{r}_{0}; k)$
 $\mathbf{d}_{k}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{d}_{i} = 0 \text{ for } i = 0, 1, \dots, k-1$

and thus the sequence $\{\mathbf{x}^{(k)}\}$ converges to \mathbf{x}^* in at most N iterations.

proof: see Nocedal and Wright (2006), pp. 109-111.

Results for CG: some comments

Comments on the theorem

- residuals $\{\mathbf{r}_k\}$ are mutually orthogonal;
- Residuals r_k and search directions d_k all belong to the Krylov subspace of order k associated with r₀;
- the search directions $\mathbf{d}_0, \mathbf{d}_1, \dots, \mathbf{d}_{N-1}$ are conjugate wrt \mathbf{Q}
- by the theorem on conjugate directions (slide 6), this implies termination in at most *N* steps.
- these results all depend on the choice of \mathbf{d}_0 ! In fact, if one chooses $\mathbf{d}_0 \neq -\mathbf{r}_0$ (i.e., different from the steepest direction at $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$) then the theorem does not longer holds.

Standard CG algorithm

Using the Theorems on slide 8 and 11, we can improve the computations of α_k and β_{k+1} in CG:

$$\alpha_k = -\frac{\mathbf{d}_k^{\intercal} \mathbf{r}_k}{\mathbf{d}_k^{\intercal} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k} = -\frac{\left[-\mathbf{r}_k + \beta_k \mathbf{d}_{k-1} \right]^{\intercal} \mathbf{r}_k}{\mathbf{d}_k^{\intercal} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k} = \frac{\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2}{\mathbf{d}_k^{\intercal} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k}$$

Moreover, observe that $\mathbf{r}_{k+1} - \mathbf{r}_k = \alpha_k \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k$ so that

$$\beta_{k+1} = \frac{\mathbf{d}_k^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{r}_{k+1}}{\mathbf{d}_k^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k} = \frac{\mathbf{d}_k^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k}{\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2} \frac{\left[\mathbf{r}_{k+1} - \mathbf{r}_k\right]^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{r}_{k+1}}{\mathbf{d}_k^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k} = \frac{\|\mathbf{r}_{k+1}\|_2^2}{\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2}$$

where we used the orthogonality of residuals.

Standard CG algorithm

For which problems?

- Solve "square" linear systems of the form $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p}$ with $\mathbf{Q} > 0$
- For strictly convex quadratic problems $\min_{\mathbf{x}} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{p}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}$ (or full column-rank least-squares problems)

Standard linear CG algorithm

- 1: input: $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^N$
- 2: Set $\mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \mathbf{p}$ and $\mathbf{d}_0 = -\mathbf{r}_0$.
- 3: k = 0
- 4: **while** $||\mathbf{r}_k||_2 \neq 0$ **do**
- 5: $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_k \mathbf{d}_k$, where $\alpha_k = \frac{\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2}{\mathbf{d}_k^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{d}_k}$
- 6: $\mathbf{d}_{k+1} = -\mathbf{r}_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1} \mathbf{d}_k$, where $\beta_{k+1} = \frac{\|\mathbf{r}_{k+1}\|_2^2}{\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2}$
- 7: k = k + 1
- 8: end while
- 9: return $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$

Numerical performance and conditioning

- convergence to \mathbf{x}^* is guaranteed after at most N iterations
- but it can be much faster!

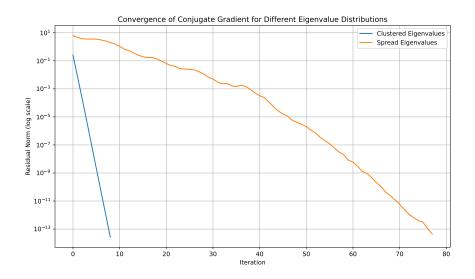
Trivial example Solve system $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p}$ using CG when $\mathbf{Q} = \lambda \mathbf{I}_N$. first residual $\mathbf{r}_0 = \lambda \mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{p}$ and direction $\mathbf{d}_0 = -\mathbf{r}_0$. first iteration:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \frac{\|\lambda \mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{p}\|^2}{\lambda \|\lambda \mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{p}\|^2} \|_2 (\lambda \mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{x}^{(0)} + \lambda^{-1} \mathbf{p} = \mathbf{x}^*$$

Then $\mathbf{r}_{k+1} = \mathbf{0}$ and $\mathbf{d}_{k+1} = \mathbf{0}$. CG stops after exactly 1 iteration.

- convergence usually depends on the distribution of eigenvalues of Q
- it can be shown that if **Q** has *r* distinct eigenvalues, then CG converges in at most *r* iterations.

Numerical experiment for N = 100



Summary for linear conjugate gradient

- exact convergence guarantees in at most N iterations compare with results of session 5 on descent methods
- state of the art for solving linear least squares in high-dimensions
- the closer the condition number of Q is to 1, the faster the convergence
 - \rightarrow use of preconditioners to improve the condition number of ${f Q}$
- implemented in many scientific libraries, e.g., scipy.sparse.linalg.cg (Python) or cgs (Matlab)

Outline

1 Linear conjugate gradient method

2 Nonlinear conjugate gradient method

Motivation

Linear conjugate gradient solves linear system $\mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{p}$, or equivalently,

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^N} f(\mathbf{x}) \coloneqq \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^\top \mathbf{Q} \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{p}^\top \mathbf{x}, \quad \mathbf{Q} > 0$$

Nonlinear conjugate gradient methods extend CG to non-quadratic objective functions f.

Several variants exists, two popular ones:

- the Fletcher-Reeves method
- the Polak-Ribière method

the key principle is the following:

replace the residual \mathbf{r}_k (which is the gradient of quadratic f) by the evaluation of the gradient of the nonlinear objective f at iteration $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$.

Fletcher-Reeves vs Polyak-Ribière

Fletcher-Reeves-CG algorithm

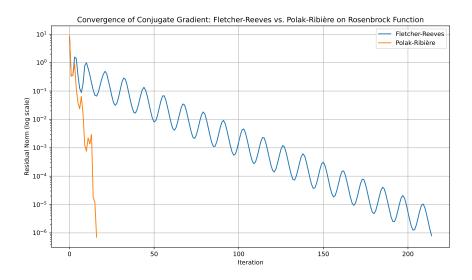
- 1: **input**: $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^{N}$ 2: Set $\nabla f_{0} = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(0)})$ and set $\mathbf{d}_{0} = -\nabla f_{0}$. 3: k = 04: **while** $\|\nabla f_{k}\|_{2} \neq 0$ **do** 5: $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \alpha_{k} \mathbf{d}_{k}$, where α_{k} is computed by line search 6: $\mathbf{d}_{k+1} = -\nabla f_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1}^{\mathsf{FR}} \mathbf{d}_{k}$, where $\beta_{k+1}^{\mathsf{FR}} = \frac{\|\nabla f_{k+1}\|_{2}^{2}}{\|\nabla f_{k}\|_{2}^{2}}$ 7: k = k+1
- 9: return x^(k)

8: end while

- α_k must be chosen with care, to that d_{k+1} remains a descent direction. → use of strong Wolfe conditions
- Polak-Ribière: replace β_{k+1}^{FR} by

$$\beta_{k+1}^{\text{PR}} = \frac{\nabla f_{k+1}^{\top} (\nabla f_{k+1} - \nabla f_k)}{\|\nabla f_k\|_2^2} \text{ or } \beta_{k+1}^+ = \max(0, \beta_{k+1}^{\text{PR}}) \text{ (more robust)}$$

Numerical experiment on Rosenbrock function



Summary

- PR is usually more efficient than FR; but this not a general rule and depends on the context
- many other variants exist: Hestenes-Stiefel, Dai-Yuan, etc.
- convergence analysis is still possible, but much more technical than for the linear conjugate gradient method: see Nocedal and Wright (2006), Chapter 5 for details.
- the Polak-Ribière method is implemented in Python: check out scipy.optimize.fmin_cg