

Topics on High-Dimensional Data Analytics

Optimization Methods II

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Proximal Gradient Descent



Learning Objectives

- Define Decomposable functions
- Use Proximal gradient descent
- Accelerate Proximal gradient descent



Decomposable Functions

Consider a convex function f that can be **decomposed** into two functions g and h in the following form:

$$f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$$

Suppose, we want to find

$$x^* = \operatorname{argmin} f(x) \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

If both g and h are **convex and differentiable** then we could use gradient descent algorithm by minimizing the quadratic approximation of f .

$$f(z) = f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (z - x) + \frac{1}{2t} \|z - x\|_2^2$$

Which results in

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - t \nabla f(x_k)$$

Decomposable Functions

Consider a convex function f that can be **decomposed** into two functions g and h in the following form:

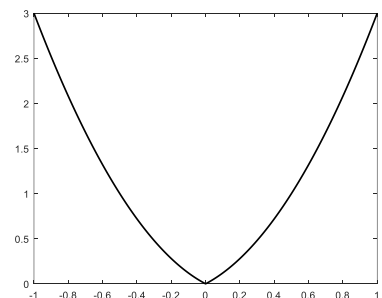
$$f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$$

Suppose, we want to find

$$x^* = \operatorname{argmin} f(x) \quad \text{for } x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Now assume, g is **convex and differentiable**,
and h is **convex** (may or may not be differentiable)

Example: $f(x) = x^T A x + |x|_1$
(in real numbers, $f(x) = 2x^2 + |x|$)



Proximal Gradient Descent

- How can we efficiently solve: $x^* = \operatorname{argmin}(g(x) + h(x))$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ using an iterative method?
- Because g is a differentiable function, we can approximate it around point x using **quadratic approximation** as following:

$$g(z) = g(x) + \nabla g(x)^T(z - x) + \frac{1}{2t} \|z - x\|_2^2$$

- Therefore, the function f can be rewritten as

$$\begin{aligned} x^+ &= \arg \min_z \left(g(x) + \nabla g(x)^T(z - x) + \frac{1}{2t} \|z - x\|_2^2 + h(z) \right) \\ &= \arg \min_z \frac{1}{2t} \|z - (x - t \nabla g(x))\|_2^2 + h(z) \end{aligned}$$

Proximal Gradient Descent

- Let us define the proximal function as $\operatorname{prox}_t(x) = \arg \min_z \left(\frac{1}{2t} \|z - x\|_2^2 + h(z) \right)$
- Using the proximal function, the optimization problem that determines the direction in the next iteration can be written by

$$\operatorname{prox}_t(x - t \nabla g(x)) = \arg \min_z \frac{1}{2t} \|z - (x - t \nabla g(x))\|_2^2 + h(z)$$

- The **proximal gradient descent algorithm** gives the next value as following:

$$x_k = \operatorname{prox}_{t_k}(x_{k-1} - t_k \nabla g(x_{k-1}))$$

Algorithm 1 Proximal Gradient Descent

```

1: Define  $\operatorname{prox}_t(x)$ 
2: Initialize  $x_0$ 
3: for  $k = 1 : K$  do
4:   Compute  $x_k = \operatorname{prox}_{t_k}(x_{k-1} - t_k \nabla g(x_{k-1}))$ 
5: end for
```

- Note that proximal gradient descent works well if the prox function can be computed easily.

Proximal Gradient Descent - Example

Consider the objective of function of LASSO regression

$$f(x) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|_2^2}_{g(x)} + \underbrace{\lambda \|x\|_1}_{h(x)}$$

Then

$$\text{prox}_t(a) = \arg \min_z \frac{1}{2t} \|z - a\|_2^2 + \lambda \|z\|_1 = S_{\lambda t}(a)$$

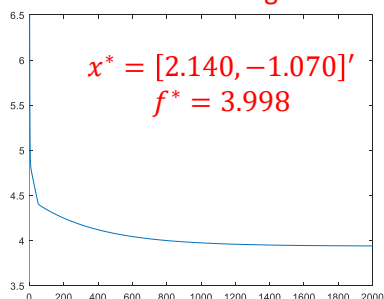
This is a well-known problem that has a closed-form solution as follows:

$$[S_{\lambda t}(x)]_i = \begin{cases} x_i - t\lambda & x_i > t\lambda \\ 0 & -t\lambda \leq x_i \leq t\lambda \\ x_i + t\lambda & x_i < -t\lambda \end{cases} \quad \text{prox}_t(x - t\nabla g(x)) = S_{\lambda t}((x + tA^T(y - Ax)))$$

Proximal Gradient Descent - Example

- Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|_2^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1$
- Take $y = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\lambda = 0.5$. Also use constant $t = 0.01$

of iteration for achieving $\epsilon = 0.0001$: 991



```
A = [1 2; 3 4]; y = [-2; 3];
lambda = 0.5; t = 0.01; iterations = 2000;
x = zeros(2, iterations); L = zeros(1, iterations);
L(1) = 0.5*(y - A*x(:,1))' * (y - A*x(:,1)) +
lambda * norm(x(:,1), 1);
x_new = zeros(size(A, 2), 1); %initiate
for i = 2 : iterations
    x_current = x(:, i-1);
    grad_g = -A'*(y - A*x_current);
    x_new_gd = x_current - t * grad_g;
    for k = 1 : length(x_new_gd)
        if x_new_gd(k) > lambda * t; x_new(k) =
x_new_gd(k) - lambda * t;
        elseif x_new_gd(k) < -lambda * t; x_new(k)
= x_new_gd(k) + lambda * t;
        else; x_new(k) = 0; end
    end
    x(:, i) = x_new;
    L(i) = 0.5*(norm(y - A*x_new))^2 + lambda *
norm(x_new, 1);
end
```

Proximal Gradient Descent - Special Case

- Let $f(x)$ be a differentiable function. Use proximal gradient descent to find the minimizer of f .
- Because $f(x)$ is differentiable, then $h(z) = 0$. Therefore

$$\text{prox}_t(x) = x$$
- Then, the iterative procedure of proximal gradient descent is as follows,
 - Choose x_0 as an initial value
 - Iterate using the following formula

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - t_k \nabla f(x_k)$$
- The proximal gradient descent is the same as gradient descent for differentiable functions.
- Therefore, proximal gradient descent has the $O(\frac{1}{\varepsilon})$ convergence rate (same as GD).

Accelerated Proximal Gradient Descent

- Similar to gradient descent, the proximal GD can be accelerated.
- Let $f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$ where g is convex and differentiable, and h is convex but not differentiable.
- The **accelerated proximal gradient descent** is as follows:
 - Select an initial values x_0
 - Define $v = x_{k-1} + \frac{k-2}{k+1}(x_{k-1} - x_{k-2})$
 - Set $x_k = \text{prox}_{t_k}(v - t_k \nabla g(v))$
- v carries momentum from previous iterations.
- The convergence rate is same as the accelerated GD (i.e., $O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}})$).

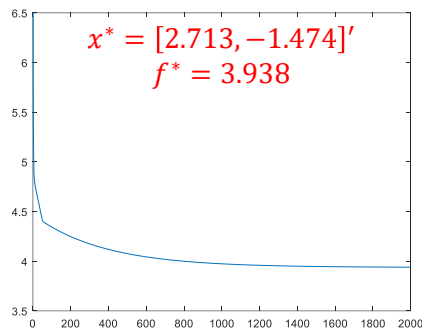
Algorithm 2 Accelerated Proximal Gradient Descent

- 1: Define $\text{prox}_t(x)$
 - 2: Initialize x_{-1} and x_0
 - 3: **for** $k = 1 : K$ **do**
 - 4: Compute $v = x_{k-1} + \frac{k-2}{k+1}(x_{k-1} - x_{k-2})$
 - 5: Compute $x_k = \text{prox}_{t_k}(v - t_k \nabla g(v))$
 - 6: **end for**
-

Accelerated Proximal GD - Example

- Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|_2^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1$
- Take $y = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\lambda = 0.5$. Also use constant $t = 0.01$

of iteration for achieving $\epsilon = 0.0001 : 101$



```
A = [1 2; 3 4]; y = [-2; 3];
lambda = 0.5; t = 0.01; iterations = 2000;
x = zeros(2, iterations); L = zeros(1, iterations);
L(1) = 0.5*(y - A*x(:,1))' * (y - A*x(:,1)) + lambda *
norm(x(:,1), 1);
x_new = zeros(size(A, 2), 1); %initiate
for i = 3 : iterations
    x_current = x(:, i-1);
    x_prev = x(:, i-2);
    v = x_current + ((i-2)/(i+1)) * (x_current - x_prev);
    grad_g = -A'*(y - A*v);
    x_new_gd = v - t * grad_g;
    for k = 1 : length(x_new_gd)
        if x_new_gd(k) > lambda * t; x_new(k) = x_new_gd(k) -
lambda * t;
        elseif x_new_gd(k) < -lambda * t; x_new(k) =
x_new_gd(k) + lambda * t;
        else x_new(k) = 0; end
    end
    x(:, i) = x_new;
    L2(i) = 0.5*(norm(y - A*x_new))^2 + lambda * norm(x_new,
1);
end
```

Topics on High-Dimensional Data Analytics

Optimization Methods II

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Augmented Lagrangian Method
and ADMM



Learning Objectives

- Describe Augmented Lagrangian Methods
- Explain Alternating Direction Method of Multipliers (ADMM)



Augmented Lagrangian Method

- Proximal gradient descent is useful for minimizing **decomposable convex functions** with a differentiable and a non-differentiable part.
- However, if $\text{prox}_t(x)$ is not easy to obtain, proximal gradient method may not be useful.
- For example, if a function is in the form of $f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$, but $h(x) = r(Ax)$, it may be difficult to use the proximal gradient descent method.
- **Augmented Lagrangian method** and **Alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM)** are two methods that can be useful in these cases.

Augmented Lagrangian Method

- Assume we want to solve the following problem:

$$\min_x f(x) \quad \text{subject to } Ax = b,$$

where $x \in R^d$ and A is a $m \times d$ matrix and $b \in R^m$ and $f(x)$ is a convex function

- The main idea is to solve a constraint problem by solving a series of unconstrained problems.
- The augmented Lagrangian objective function is given by ($\rho > 0$ is a parameter)

$$L(x, u; \rho) = f(x) + \underbrace{u^T(Ax - b)}_{\text{Lagrangian}} + \underbrace{\frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2}_{\text{Augmented}}$$

- The augmentation gives the strong convexity properties without changing the minimizer of the objective function.

Augmented Lagrangian Method

$$L(x, u; \rho) = f(x) + u^T(Ax - b) + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2$$

The update of the **Augmented Lagrangian method (a.k.a. method of multipliers)** is as following:

$$x^+ = \arg \min_x f(x) + u^T Ax + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2$$

$$u^+ = u + \rho(Ax^+ - b)$$

- One can use acceleration and backtracking (on u) as before for this algorithm.

Algorithm 3 Augmented Lagrangian Method

```

1: Select  $\rho$  and  $\epsilon$ 
2: Initialize  $u_0$ 
3: for  $k = 1 : K$  do
4:   Compute  $x_k = \arg \min_x \left\{ f(x) + u_{k-1}^T Ax + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 \right\}$ 
5:   Compute  $u_k = u_{k-1} + \rho(Ax_k - b)$ 
6:   if  $\|Ax_k - b\|_2 < \epsilon$  then
7:     Break
8:   end if
9: end for
```

Augmented Lagrangian Method - Example

Minimize $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + x_2^2)$ where $x = (x_1, x_2)^T$
 Subject to $x_1 = 1$

The steps for the Augmented Lagrangian methods are as following:

- Initiate x_0 and u_0 , then for $k=1,2,\dots$

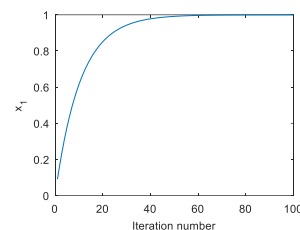
$$(1) x_k = \arg \min_x \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + x_2^2) + u_{k-1}(x_1 - 1) + \frac{\rho}{2}(x_1 - 1)^2$$

$$(2) u_k = u_{k-1} + \rho(x_1 - 1)$$

- By taking derivative from (1) we can derive,

$$x_1 = \frac{\rho - u_{k-1}}{1 + \rho} \text{ and } x_2 = 0$$

```
iterations = 100;
u = 0;
rho = 0.1;
x_2 = 0; % x_2 remains fixed
as we derived.
for i = 1 : iterations
    x_1 = (rho - u) / (1 + rho);
    x_1_record(i) = x_1;
    u = u + rho * (x_1 - 1);
    L(i) = 0.5 * x_1^2 + 0.5 *
x_2^2;
end
```



Alternating Direction Method of Multipliers (ADMM)

Assume we want to solve the following problem:

$$\min_{x,z} f(x) + g(z) \quad \text{subject to } Ax + Bz = c$$

Similar to the Augmented Lagrangian method, we augment the objective function as the following:

$$\min_{x,z} f(x) + g(z) + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax + Bz - c\|_2^2 \quad \text{subject to } Ax + Bz = c$$

- The augmented term does not change the objective, as its value is always zero due to the constraints.
- Define the augmented Lagrangian function (for a given ρ) as following:

$$L(x, z, u; \rho) = \underbrace{f(x) + g(z) + u^T(Ax + Bz - c)}_{\text{Lagrangian}} + \underbrace{\frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax + Bz - c\|_2^2}_{\text{Augmented}}$$

Alternating Direction Method of Multipliers (ADMM)

Define the augmented Lagrangian function (for a given ρ) as following:

$$L(x, z, u; \rho) = f(x) + g(z) + u^T (Ax + Bz - c) + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax + Bz - c\|_2^2$$

Then the ADMM updates are as following:

- Initiate z_0 and u_0 and for $k = 1, 2, \dots$ iterate using the following:

$$x_k = \arg \min_x L(x, z_{k-1}, u_{k-1}; \rho)$$

$$z_k = \arg \min_z L(x_k, z, u_{k-1}; \rho)$$

$$u_k = u_{k-1} + \rho(Ax_k + Bz_k - c)$$

- Note that original augmented Lagrangian combines the updates of x, z :

$$(x_k, z_k) = \arg \min_{x, z} L(x, z, u_{k-1}; \rho)$$

Scaled Form of ADMM

If we define $w = \frac{u}{\rho}$ then the **scaled form** of the ADMM is as following:

$$L(x, z, w; \rho) = f(x) + g(z) + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax + Bz - c + w\|_2^2 + \frac{\rho}{2} \|w\|_2^2$$

With the following updates:

$$x_k = \arg \min_x f(x) + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax + Bz_{k-1} - c + w_{k-1}\|_2^2$$

$$z_k = \arg \min_z g(z) + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax_k + Bz - c + w_{k-1}\|_2^2$$

$$w_k = w_{k-1} + Ax_k + Bz_k - c$$

Algorithm 4 ADMM

- 1: Initialize u_0 and z_0
 - 2: **for** $k = 1 : K$ **do**
 - 3: Compute $x_k = \arg \min_x \left\{ f(x) + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax + Bz_{k-1} - c + w_{k-1}\|_2^2 \right\}$
 - 4: Compute $z_k = \arg \min_z \left\{ g(z) + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax_k + Bz - c + w_{k-1}\|_2^2 \right\}$
 - 5: Compute $w_k = w_{k-1} + Ax_k + Bz_k - c$
 - 6: **end for**
-

ADMM- Example

$$\text{Minimize } h(x) = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + x_2^2)$$

$$\text{Subject to } x_1 + x_2 = 1$$

Here, $f(x) = 0.5x_1^2$ and $g(z) = 0.5x_2^2$ and $A = 1; B = 1; c = 1$.

ADMM updates:

$$x_{1,k} = \arg \min_{x_1} 0.5x_1^2 + \frac{\rho}{2}(x_1 + x_{2,k-1} - 1 + w_{k-1})^2$$

$$x_{2,k} = \arg \min_{x_2} 0.5x_2^2 + \frac{\rho}{2}(x_{1,k} + x_2 - 1 + w_{k-1})^2$$

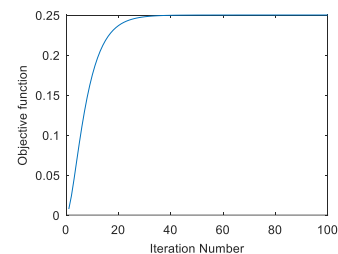
$$w_k = w_{k-1} + x_{1,k} + x_{2,k} - 1$$

Form the first two equations:

$$x_{1,k} = \frac{-\rho(x_{2,k-1} - 1 + w_{k-1})}{1 + \rho} \text{ and } x_{2,k} = \frac{-\rho(x_{1,k-1} - 1 + w_{k-1})}{1 + \rho}$$

$$x_k = \arg \min_x f(x) + \frac{\rho}{2} \|Ax + Bz_{k-1} - c + w_{k-1}\|_2^2$$

```
iterations = 100;
rho = 0.1;
w = 0; % intial value
x_2 = 0; % intial value.
for i = 1 : iterations
    x_1 = -rho*(x_2 - 1 + w)/(1+ rho);
    x_2 = -rho*(x_1 - 1 + w)/(1+ rho);
    w = w + x_1 + x_2 -1;
    L(i) = 0.5* x_1^2 + 0.5 * x_2^2;
end
plot(L); ylabel('Objective function');
xlabel('Iteration number')
```



ADMM and Proximal Gradient Descent

- Recall that the objective function of the proximal gradient descent was in the following form:

$$\text{Minimize } f(x), \text{ where } f(x) = g(x) + h(x).$$

We can write the above objective as

$$\text{Minimize } g(x) + h(z) \text{ subject to } x = z$$

Which gives an objective function in the form suitable for ADMM.

- What if $h(x) = r(Ax)$? In this situation proximal gradient method is difficult to use but ADMM can be used as follows:

$$\text{Minimize } g(x) + r(z) \text{ subject to } Ax = z$$

Some Notes on ADMM

In practice

- ADMM can reach relatively accurate results in a few iterations. However, for highly-accurate results, ADMM requires many iterations.
- **Selection of ρ** influences the convergence of the algorithm:
 - If ρ is too large, then we are not appropriately minimizing the objective function
 - If ρ is too small, we may end up with infeasible solutions.

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Coordinate Descent Algorithm



Learning Objectives

- Define decomposable functions
- Use coordinate descent algorithm
- Apply block coordinate descent algorithm



Decomposable Functions - Revisit

- We introduced decomposable functions that can be written as differentiable and non-differentiable parts.
- These functions, however, may or may not be decomposed in their coordinates.
- Suppose that we want to solve the following problem:

$$\text{Minimize } f(x) = g(x) + h(x),$$

where $h(x) = \sum_i h_i(x_i)$, $g(x)$ is convex and differentiable and each h_i is convex.

- As can be seen, $h(x) = \sum_i h_i(x_i)$ is decomposable with respect to the coordinates.

Decomposable Functions - Revisit

- Suppose that we want to solve the following problem:

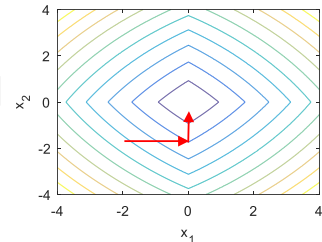
$$\text{Minimize } f(x) = g(x) + h(x),$$

where $h(x) = \sum_i h_i(x_i)$, $g(x)$ is convex and differentiable and each h_i is convex.

Example:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|_2^2 + \|x\|_1 = \frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|_2^2 + |x_1| + |x_2|$$

$$\text{Let } y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$$



- When minimizing along each direction, the objective function is minimized

This results in an algorithm called coordinate descent

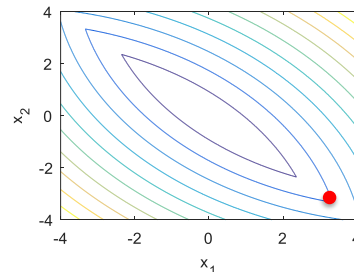
Decomposable Functions - Revisit

- What if the non-differentiable part ($h(x)$) is not decomposable into its coordinates?

Example:

$$\text{Let } f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|_2^2 + |x_1 + x_2|$$

$$\text{Take } y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 0.3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0.3 \end{bmatrix}$$



At the red point, we cannot minimize along one direction only.

- Therefore, separability of the nonsmooth part into its coordinates (or a block of coordinates) is a requirement to be able to solve the problem by minimizing along each direction.

Coordinate Descent Algorithm

Suppose that we want to solve the following problem:

$$\text{Minimize } f(x) \quad \text{and } x \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

Where $f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$ and $h(x) = \sum_i h_i(x_i)$. Here, $g(x)$ is convex and differentiable and each h_i is convex.

Then we can find the minimum by **minimizing along each coordinate** as following:

- Initiate $x = x_0$ and the for each coordinate i and for iterations $k = 1, 2, \dots$ solve

$$x_i^k = \arg \min_{x_i} f(x_1^k, x_2^k, \dots, x_i, x_{i+1}^{k-1}, \dots, x_n^{k-1})$$

- We always use most updated results from other coordinates.

Coordinate Descent Algorithm

Initiate $x = x_0$ and the for each coordinate i and for iterations $k = 1, 2, \dots$ solve

$$x_i^k = \arg \min_{x_i} f(x_1^k, x_2^k, \dots, x_i, x_{i+1}^{k-1}, \dots, x_n^{k-1})$$

Algorithm 5 Coordinate Descent

```

1: Initialize  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ 
2: for  $k = 1 : K$  do
3:   for  $i = 1 : n$  do
4:     Compute  $x_i^k = \arg \min_{x_i} f(x_1^k, x_2^k, \dots, x_{i-1}^k, x_i, x_{i+1}^{k-1}, \dots, x_n^{k-1})$ 
5:   end for
6: end for
```

- If the nonsmooth part is decomposable into groups of coordinates, we should minimize the function along each block of coordinates. The resulting algorithm is known as **block coordinate descent**.

Coordinate Descent Algorithm - Example

$$\text{Minimize } f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|y - Ax\|_2^2 + 0.5|x_1| + 0.5|x_2|$$

$$\text{Let } y = \begin{bmatrix} -2 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

Using coordinate descent algorithm, in each iteration we have,

$$x_1^k = \arg \min_{x_1} \frac{1}{2} \|y - A(x_1, x_2^{k-1})^T\|_2^2 + 0.5|x_1| + 0.5|x_2^{k-1}|$$

$$x_2^k = \arg \min_{x_2} \frac{1}{2} \|y - A(x_1^k, x_2)^T\|_2^2 + 0.5|x_1^k| + 0.5|x_2|$$

Coordinate Descent Algorithm - Example

$$x_1^k = \arg \min_{x_1} \frac{1}{2} \|y - A(x_1, x_2^{k-1})^T\|_2^2 + 0.5|x_1| + 0.5|x_2^{k-1}|$$

$$x_2^k = \arg \min_{x_2} \frac{1}{2} \|y - A(x_1^k, x_2)^T\|_2^2 + 0.5|x_1^k| + 0.5|x_2|$$

The solution to each of these is soft-thresholding:

Let A_i be the i^{th} column of the matrix A , and define $\gamma_i = \frac{0.5}{\|A_i\|_2^2}$ then,

$$x_1^k = S_{\gamma_1} \left(\frac{A_1^T (y - A_2 x_2^{k-1})}{A_1^T A_1} \right) \text{ and } x_2^k = S_{\gamma_2} \left(\frac{A_2^T (y - A_1 x_1^k)}{A_2^T A_2} \right)$$

$$\text{where } S_{\gamma_i}(a) = \begin{cases} a - \gamma_i & a > \gamma_i \\ 0 & -\gamma_i \leq a \leq \gamma_i \\ a + \gamma_i & a < -\gamma_i \end{cases}$$

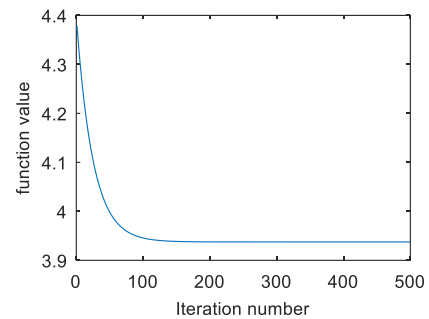
Coordinate Descent Algorithm – Example Continued

```

A = [1 2; 3 4]; % this is same as the gradient of g
y = [-2; 3];
lambda = 0.5; x(1) = 0; x(2) = 0; e(1)=1; L(1)=5; k=1;
while e > 0.0001
    k=k+1;
    for i = 1 : 2
        Ai = A(:,i);
        A_i = A(:, 2-i+1);
        gamma = lambda/(Ai'*Ai);
        z = Ai'*(y - A_i * x(2-i+1))./(Ai'*Ai);
        x(i) = softthres(z, gamma);
    end
    L(k) = 0.5*(norm(y - A*x')^2 + lambda * norm(x, 1);
    e(k) = L(k-1) - L(k);
end

function s = softthres(x, gamma)
    if x > gamma
        s = x - gamma;
    elseif x < -gamma
        s = x + gamma;
    else
        s = 0;
    end
end

```



of iterations for achieving $\epsilon = 0.0001$: 131

$$x^* = [2.595, -1.392]'$$

$$f^* = 3.940$$

APGD: # of iterations is 101

$$x^* = [2.713, -1.474]'$$

$$f^* = 3.938$$

PGD: # of iterations is 991

$$x^* = [2.140, -1.070]'$$

$$f^* = 3.998$$