TD 01 - SD-TSIA 211

1 Picard's fixed point theorem

(Picard's fixed point theorem).

Prove the following theorem:

If $T: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^d$ satisfies

$$\exists 0 < \rho < 1, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d, \forall y \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad ||T(x) - T(y)|| \le \rho ||x - y|| \tag{1}$$

then, T has a unique fixed point x^* such that $x^* = T(x^*)$

Moreover, every sequence of the form $x_{k+1} = T(x_k)$ converges to x^* with a linear convergence rate given by $||x_k - x^*|| \le \rho^k ||x_0 - x^*||$

1.1 Recalls

Definition 1. Cauchy sequence

Let $(\mathcal{E}, ||.||)$ be a normed vector space, and let $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ be a sequence in \mathcal{E} , then $(x_n)_{n \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a Cauchy sequence if: $\forall \varepsilon > 0, \exists N \in \mathbb{N}$ such that

$$\forall n, m > N, \quad \|x_n - x_m\| < \varepsilon$$

Or, equivalently,

$$\forall n, m > N, \quad ||x_n - x_m|| \to 0 \quad as \quad n, m \to +\infty$$

Definition 2. Sum of a finite Geometric sequence

The sum S_n of the $1^{st} - n$ terms of a Geometric sequence is:

$$S_n = \frac{a_1(1-r^n)}{1-r} \qquad r \neq 0$$

1.2 Proof

Since \mathbb{R}^d is a complete space, then one way of proving that $(x_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to some limit point, x^* , is to prove that $(x_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ is a Cauchy sequence. Hence, it does converge. Secondly, we shall prove that the limit point, x^* , is a fixed point $(i.e.\ T(x^*) = x^*)$. Then, a usual proof of uniqueness. Lastly, we'll show the linear convergence rate.

1. We'll show that (x_k) is a Cauchy sequence.

 $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}, m \in \mathbb{N} \setminus \{0\},\$

$$||x_{k+m} - x_k|| = ||\sum_{\ell=1}^m x_{k+\ell} - x_{k+\ell-1}|| \le \sum_{\ell=1}^m ||x_{k+\ell} - x_{k+\ell-1}||$$
 (2)

Now, $\forall \ell \in \{1, \ldots, m\},\$

$$||x_{k+\ell} - x_{k+\ell-1}|| = ||T(x_{k+\ell-1}) - T(x_{k+\ell-2})|| \qquad \text{using} \quad x_{k+1} = T(x_k)$$

$$\leq \rho ||x_{k+\ell-1} - x_{k+\ell-2}|| \qquad \text{by (1)}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\leq \rho^{k+\ell-1} ||x_1 - x_0|| \qquad (3)$$

Thus,

$$||x_{k+m} - x_k|| \le \sum_{\ell=1}^m \rho^{k+\ell-1} ||x_1 - x_0||$$

$$= \rho^k ||x_1 - x_0|| \sum_{\ell=1}^m \rho^{\ell-1}$$

$$= (1 - \rho)^{-1} (1 - \rho^m) \rho^k ||x_1 - x_0||$$
by (3)

Which implies that $||x_{k+m} - x_k|| \to 0$ as $k \to +\infty$, and hence $(x_k)_{k \in \mathbb{N}}$ is a Cauchy sequence. Therefore it converges to some limit point, x^* .

2. We'll show that x^* is a fixed point of T.

T is a contraction $\Rightarrow T$ is continuous. Thus,

$$x_{k+1} = T(x_k) = T\left(\lim_{k \to +\infty} x_k\right) = T(x^*)$$
 As $k \to +\infty$, $T(x^*) = x_{k+1} \to x^* \Rightarrow T(x^*) = x^*$.

3. Usual proof of uniqueness.

Assume x^* and y^* are two fixed points of T, then

$$||x^* - y^*|| = ||T(x^*) - T(y^*)|| \stackrel{(1)}{\leq} \rho ||x^* - y^*||$$
 Thus, $||x^* - y^*|| = 0 \Rightarrow x^* = y^* \Rightarrow \text{Fix}(T) = \{x^*\}$

4. Proof of linear convergence.

$$||x_k - x^*|| = ||T(x_{k-1}) - T(x^*)|| \stackrel{(1)}{\leq} \rho ||x_{k-1} - x^*|| \leq \dots \leq \rho^k ||x_0 - x^*|| \quad \Box$$

2 Gradient calculus

(Gradient calculus).

• Calculate the gradient of the following functions. A, M and Q are fixed matrices, b is a fixed vector. f_1 is useful for least squares and regression problems. f_2 is useful for logistic regression and binary classification, f_3 is useful for non-negative matrix factorization.

$$f_{1} \colon \mathbb{R}^{n} \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$x \mapsto \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - b\|^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (\sum_{j=1}^{n} A_{ij} x_{j} - b_{i})^{2}$$

$$f_{2} \colon \mathbb{R}^{n} \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$z \mapsto \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(z_{i}))$$

$$f_{3} \colon \mathbb{R}^{m \times p} \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$P \mapsto \frac{1}{2} \|M - PQ\|_{F}^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \sum_{j=1}^{n} (M_{ij} - \sum_{k=1}^{p} P_{ik} Q_{kj})^{2}$$

• Let g_1, g_2, g_3 be functions such that $g_1 \colon \mathbb{R}^{n_1} \to \mathbb{R}^{n_2}, g_2 \colon \mathbb{R}^{n_2} \to \mathbb{R}^{n_3}, g_3 \colon \mathbb{R}^{n_3} \to \mathbb{R}$ and let

$$f_4 = g_3 \circ g_2 \circ g_1.$$

Compute the gradient of f_4 using the Jacobian matrices of g_i for $i \in \{1, 2, 3\}$.

Suppose that computing one element of the Jacobian matrices costs C_J and that multiplying two numbers costs C_M . How much does it cost to compute $\nabla f_4(x)$?

2.1 Recalls

Lemma 1. Let $A, B \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, then

$$||A + B||_F^2 = ||A||_F^2 + ||B||_F^2 + \langle A, B \rangle_F$$

 $\langle A, B \rangle_F = \operatorname{tr}(A^{\mathsf{T}}B)$

Lemma 2. tr(ABC) = tr(CAB) = tr(BCA)

2.2 Solution

- Gradient calculations of f_1, f_2 and f_3
 - 1. $f_1(x) = \frac{1}{2} ||Ax b||^2$ (lecture notes page 15)
 - 2. $f_2(z) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(z_i))$, thus by using partial derivative:

$$\frac{\partial f_2}{\partial z_i} = \frac{\exp(z_i)}{1 + \exp(z_i)} = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(z_i)} =: \sigma(x_i) \Rightarrow \nabla f_2(x) = \left(\sigma(x_1) \dots \sigma(x_n)\right)^{\mathsf{T}}$$

3. $f_3(P) = \frac{1}{2} ||M - PQ||_F^2$, by the definition:

$$f_3(P+H) = \frac{1}{2} ||M - (P+H)Q||_F^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} ||M - PQ - HQ||_F^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} ||M - PQ||_F^2 - \langle M - PQ, HQ \rangle_F + \frac{1}{2} ||HQ||_F^2$$

$$= f_3(P) - \langle M - PQ, HQ \rangle_F + \frac{1}{2} ||HQ||_F^2$$

Now,

$$\langle M - PQ, HQ \rangle_F = \operatorname{tr}((M - PQ)^{\mathsf{T}}HQ)$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}(Q(M - PQ)^{\mathsf{T}}H)$$

$$= \operatorname{tr}(((M - PQ)Q^{\mathsf{T}})^{\mathsf{T}}H)$$

$$= \langle (M - PQ)Q^{\mathsf{T}}, H \rangle_F$$
(4)

Thus,

$$f_3(P+H) = f_3(P) - \langle M - PQ, HQ \rangle_F + \frac{1}{2} ||HQ||_F^2$$

$$\stackrel{(4)}{=} f_3(P) + \langle -(M-PQ)Q^{\mathsf{T}}, H \rangle_F + o(H)$$

Hence,
$$\nabla f_3(P) = -(M - PQ)Q^{\mathsf{T}}$$

• $f_4(x) = g_3 \circ g_2 \circ g_1(x)$, then by the chain rule:

$$\nabla f_4(x) = (J_{g_3}(g_2 \circ g_1(x))_{1 \times n_3} \times J_{g_2}(g_1(x))_{n_3 \times n_2} \times J_{g_1}(x)_{n_2 \times n_1})^{\mathsf{T}}$$

Now, to figure out the total cost of computing $\nabla f_4(x)$, the cost depends on the sizes of the matrices. For instance:

- The cost of computing a Jacobian $J \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times q}$ is equal to the cost of computing one element of this Jacobian, C_J , multiplied by its size, pq, which is in total $C_J \times pq$. Hence,
 - * The cost of computing $J_{g_3} = C_J \times 1 \times n_3$
 - * The cost of computing $J_{g_2} = C_J \times n_3 \times n_2$
 - * The cost of computing $J_{g_1} = C_J \times n_2 \times n_1$
 - \Rightarrow The total cost of computing the Jacobians $= C_J(n_3 + n_3n_2 + n_2n_1)$
- The cost of multiplying two matrices $A \times B$ where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ is equal to the cost of multiplying two numbers, C_M , by the number of multiplication operations we do, mnp, which is in total $C_M \times mnp$. Hence,

- * The cost of multiplying $J_{g_3}(g_2 \circ g_1(.))_{1 \times n_3} \times J_{g_2}(g_1(.))_{n_3 \times n_2} = C_M \times 1 \times n_3 \times n_2$
- * Then, the cost of multiplying $S_{1\times n_2} = J_{g_3}(g_2 \circ g_1(.)) \times J_{g_2}(g_1(.))$ by $J_{g_1}(.)_{n_2\times n_1} = C_M \times 1 \times n_2 \times n_1$
 - \Rightarrow The total cost of multiplying all the Jacobians = $C_M(n_2n_3 + n_2n_1)$

Thus, the total cost of computing $\nabla f_4(x)$ equals

$$C_J(n_3 + n_3n_2 + n_2n_1) + C_M(n_2n_3 + n_2n_1)$$

(Convergence of Gradient Descent for strongly convex C^2 functions.)

Consider a C^2 function $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\mu I \leq \nabla^2 f(x) \leq LI$.

- 1. Show that the fixed point operator $T\colon x\mapsto x-\gamma\nabla f(x)$ is contractant for any $0<\gamma<\frac{2}{L}$
- 2. Show that the Gradient Descent method converges linearly.
- 3. How many iterations are necessary to ensure that $||x_k x^*|| \le \varepsilon$?

2.3 Recalls

Theorem 1. Mean Value Thoerem

For a continuous vector-valued function $\mathcal{F}:[a,b]\to\mathbb{R}^k$ differentiable on (a,b), there exists a number $c\in(a,b)$ such that

$$\|\mathcal{F}(b) - \mathcal{F}(a)\| \le \|\mathcal{F}'(c)\|(b - a)$$

Remark 1. For a symmetric matrix A, $||A||_2 = |\lambda_{\max}(A)|$ where λ_{\max} is the largest eigenvalue of A.

2.4 Proof

- 1. We'll first show that the definition of a contractant operator T (1) can sufficiently be achieved by the property $\nabla T < 1$. Then, we'll show that the defined operator T does, indeed, satisfy the mentioned property.
 - Let $T: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^d$ be an operator and $\beta \in (0,1)$, then $\|\nabla T\| \leq \beta \Rightarrow T$ is a contraction (1).

Fix $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$, and define:

$$g: [0,1] \to \mathbb{R}^d$$

 $t \mapsto T(tx + (1-t)y)$

Then,

$$g'(t) = \langle \nabla T(tx + (1-t)y), x - y \rangle \tag{5}$$

As g is continuous on [0,1], and differentiable on (0,1), thus one can apply the Mean Value Theorem: $\exists c \in (0,1)$ such that:

$$||g(1) - g(0)|| \le ||g'(c)|| \iff ||T(x) - T(y)|| \le ||\langle \nabla T(cx + (1 - c)y), x - y \rangle||$$

 $\le ||\nabla T(cx + (1 - c)y)|| ||x - y||$
 $\le \beta ||x - y||$

Thus, T is a contraction.

• We'll show that $T(x) = x - \gamma \nabla f(x)$ is a contraction using the previous property.

$$T(x) = x - \gamma \nabla f(x) \Rightarrow \nabla T(x) = I - \gamma \nabla^2 f(x)$$

Now,

$$\mu \mathbf{I} \preccurlyeq \nabla^2 f(x) \preccurlyeq L \mathbf{I} \iff -\gamma L \mathbf{I} \preccurlyeq -\gamma \nabla^2 f(x) \preccurlyeq \gamma \mu \mathbf{I}$$

$$\iff (1 - \gamma L) \mathbf{I} \preccurlyeq \mathbf{I} - \gamma \nabla^2 f(x) \preccurlyeq (1 - \gamma \mu) \mathbf{I}$$

$$\iff (1 - \gamma L) \mathbf{I} \preccurlyeq \nabla T(x) \preccurlyeq (1 - \gamma \mu) \mathbf{I}$$

$$\iff \|\nabla T(x)\| \le \max(|1 - \gamma L|, |1 - \gamma \mu|)$$

Moreover,
$$\beta := \max(|1 - \gamma L|, |1 - \gamma \mu|) < 1$$
 whenever $\gamma \in (0, \frac{2}{L})$

- 2. Since $T(x) = x \gamma \nabla f(x)$ is a contraction, then by Picard's fixed point theorem we conclude that the Gradient Descent converges linearly.
- 3. Again, by Picard's fixed point theorem, we know that:

$$||x_k - x^*|| \le \beta^k ||x_0 - x^*|| \text{ with } \beta = \max(|1 - \gamma \mu|, |1 - \gamma L|)$$

So, to ensure that $||x_k - x^*|| \le \beta^k ||x_0 - x^*|| \le \varepsilon$, the algorithm requires number of iterations k such that:

$$\beta^{k} \|x_{0} - x^{*}\| \leq \varepsilon \iff \log(\beta^{k} \|x_{0} - x^{*}\|) \leq \log \varepsilon$$

$$\iff k \log \beta + \log(\|x_{0} - x^{*}\|) \leq \log \varepsilon$$

$$\iff k \log \beta \leq \log \varepsilon - \log \|x_{0} - x^{*}\|$$

$$\iff k \geq \frac{\log \varepsilon - \log \|x_{0} - x^{*}\|}{\log \beta}$$

Thus,

$$k = \left\lceil \frac{\log\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\|x_0 - x^*\|}\right)}{\log \beta} \right\rceil$$