02610

Optimization and Data Fitting

Week 11: Conjugate Gradient Methods & Large-Scale Unconstrained Optimization

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Unconstrained quadratic problems

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{x}$$

where A is an $n \times n$ symmetric positive definite matrix.

- It is equivalent to solve the linear system of equations: $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$.
- The **residual** $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{b} A\mathbf{x}$ is the negative gradient: $\mathbf{r} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$.
- Steepest descent method: $1 \text{ or } \infty$ iterations.
- Newton's method: 1 iteration
- Coordinate search method: n or ∞ iterations.
- Conjugate gradient method: n iterations.

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Conjugate gradient (CG) method

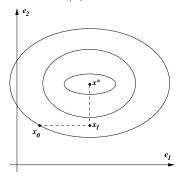
- It was proposed by Hestenes and Stiefel in the 1950s.
- It is the most widely used iterative method for solving $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ with $A \succ 0$
- It was extended to solve nonlinear unconstrained minimization problems in 1960s.

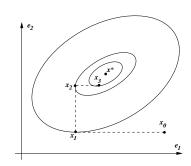
Main advantages of CG:

- It takes at most n iterations to the solution (theoretically).
- It does not alter A.
- At each iteration, it only need one computation of the matrix-vector product $(O(n^2))$ and a few vector product and sum (O(n)).
- For storage, it only need store a few vectors.
- CG is only used for solving large-scale problems.
- CG is proved with linear convergence rate, but generally much faster than the steepest descent method.

Idea:

• If A is diagonal, then the coordinate search method can find the minimizer of $f(\mathbf{x})$ in n iterations.

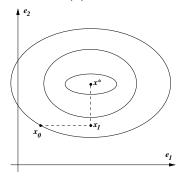


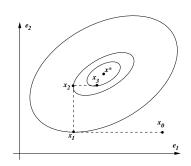


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Idea:

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• If A is **NOT** diagonal, we can diagonalize A, that is, accordingly transform the coordinate directions.

Suppose that a $n \times n$ matrix $S = [\mathbf{p}_0, \mathbf{p}_1, \cdots, \mathbf{p}_{n-1}]$ diagonalizes A, i.e., $S^T A S$ is diagonal. Then, we have

$$\mathbf{p}_i^T A \mathbf{p}_j = 0,$$
 for all $i \neq j$,

and we call $\{\mathbf{p}_0, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{n-1}\}$ to be **conjugate** with respect to spd. A.

- $\{\mathbf{p}_0, \dots, \mathbf{p}_{n-1}\}$ are conjugate, if and only if they are orthogonal for the inner product $\langle \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \rangle_A = \mathbf{u}^T A \mathbf{v}$.
- If $\mathbf{p}_i \neq \mathbf{0}$ for all i, they are also linearly independent.

If $\{\mathbf{p}_0, \cdots, \mathbf{p}_{n-1}\}$ are **conjugate** (conjugate directions) and $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k$, then the exact line search has a closed-form and gives

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\mathbf{r}_k^T \mathbf{p}_k}{\mathbf{p}^T A \mathbf{p}_k}.$$



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If $\{\mathbf{p}_0,\cdots,\mathbf{p}_{n-1}\}$ are **conjugate** (conjugate directions) and $\mathbf{x}_{k+1}=\mathbf{x}_k+\alpha_k\mathbf{p}_k$, then the exact line search has a closed-form and gives

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\mathbf{r}_k^T \mathbf{p}_k}{\mathbf{p}^T A \mathbf{p}_k}.$$



Conjugate direction methods

Algorithm

```
Given \mathbf{x}_0 and a set of conjugate directions \{\mathbf{p}_0,\cdots,\mathbf{p}_{n-1}\}. loop

Compute \alpha_k = \frac{\mathbf{r}_k^T\mathbf{p}_k}{\mathbf{p}^TA\mathbf{p}_k};

Update \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k\mathbf{p}_k;
end loop
```

Theorem

For any $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ the sequence $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}$ generated by the above conjugate direction method converges to the solution \mathbf{x}^* of the linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$ in at most n iterations.

Conjugate direction methods

Expanding subspace minimization

Let $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ be any starting point and the sequence $\{\mathbf{x}_n\}$ be generated by the conjugate direction method shown in the previous page. Then,

- $\mathbf{r}_{k}^{T}\mathbf{p}_{i}=0$, for $i=0,1,\cdots,k-1$;
- \mathbf{x}_k is the minimizer of $f(\mathbf{x})$ over the set $\{\mathbf{x}|\mathbf{x}=\mathbf{x}_0+\operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{p}_0,\cdots,\mathbf{p}_{k-1}\}\}.$

- ullet The current residual ${f r}_k$ is orthogonal to all previous search directions.
- The conjugate direction method minimizes $f(\mathbf{x})$ along one conjugate direction at one iteration.

Conjugate gradient directions

- \mathbf{p}_k is generated by using only the previous vector \mathbf{p}_{k-1} .
- \mathbf{p}_k is automatically conjugate to $\{\mathbf{p}_0, \cdots, \mathbf{p}_{k-1}\}$.

Recursion for p_k: We start with $\mathbf{p}_0 = \mathbf{r}_0$ and choose \mathbf{p}_k to be a linear combination of the residual \mathbf{r}_k and the previous direction \mathbf{p}_{k-1} :

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

Since \mathbf{p}_k is conjugate to \mathbf{p}_{k-1} w.r.t. A, then we have

$$\beta_k = -\frac{\mathbf{p}_{k-1}^T A \mathbf{r}_k}{\mathbf{p}_{k-1}^T A \mathbf{p}_{k-1}}.$$

Conjugate gradient method (preliminary version)

Algorithm

```
Given \mathbf{x}_0;
Set \mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{p}_0 = \mathbf{r}_0;
loop
    Compute \alpha_k = \frac{\mathbf{r}_k^T \mathbf{p}_k}{\mathbf{p}_k^T A \mathbf{p}_k};
     Update \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k;
     Compute \mathbf{r}_{k+1} = \mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}_{k+1};
     Compute \beta_{k+1} = -\frac{\mathbf{p}_k^T A \mathbf{r}_{k+1}}{\mathbf{p}_k^T A \mathbf{p}_k};
     Compute \mathbf{p}_{k+1} = \mathbf{r}_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1} \mathbf{p}_{k};
     Check for convergence;
end loop
Output \mathbf{x}_{k+1}.
```

Properties of CG method

Theorem

Suppose that the kth iterate of the CG method is not the solution \mathbf{x}^* . Then,

- **1** $\mathbf{r}_{k}^{T}\mathbf{r}_{i}=0,$ for $i=0,1,\cdots,k-1,$
- ② $\operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{r}_0, \mathbf{r}_1, \dots, \mathbf{r}_k\} = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{p}_0, \mathbf{p}_1, \dots, \mathbf{p}_k\} = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{r}_0, A\mathbf{r}_0, \dots, A^k\mathbf{r}_0\},$
- **3** $\mathbf{p}_k^T A \mathbf{p}_i = 0$, for $i = 0, 1, \dots, k 1$.

Therefore, the sequence $\{x_k\}$ converges to x^* in at most n steps.

- The proof of this theorem relies on the fact that $\mathbf{p}_0 = \mathbf{r}_0$ (the steepest descent direction).
- The result (1) shows that the residuals/gradients at all iterates are orthogonal to each other.
- The result (4) shows that $\{\mathbf{p}_0, \cdots, \mathbf{p}_k\}$ are conjugate directions.
- The result (3) shows that the search directions and the residuals from CG method generate the Krylov subspaces.

Krylov subspaces

Definition: For a linear system $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$, a sequence of subspaces

$$\mathcal{K}_0 = \{ \mathbf{0} \}, \qquad \mathcal{K}_k = \operatorname{span} \{ \mathbf{b}, A\mathbf{b}, \cdots, A^{k-1}\mathbf{b} \} \quad \text{for } k \geq 1.$$

Properties:

- $\mathcal{K}_k = \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{r}_0, A\mathbf{r}_0, \cdots, A^k\mathbf{r}_0\}.$
- The Krylov subspaces are nested: $\mathcal{K}_0 \subseteq \mathcal{K}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{K}_2 \subseteq \cdots$
- The dimensions of the Krylov subspaces increase by at most one: $\dim \mathcal{K}_{k+1} \dim \mathcal{K}_k$ is zero or one.
- If $\mathcal{K}_{k+1} = \mathcal{K}_k$, then $\mathcal{K}_i = \mathcal{K}_k$ for all $i \geq k$:

$$A^{k}\mathbf{b} \in \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{b}, A\mathbf{b}, \cdots, A^{k-1}\mathbf{b}\}$$

$$\implies A^{i}\mathbf{b} \in \operatorname{span}\{\mathbf{b}, A\mathbf{b}, \cdots, A^{k-1}\mathbf{b}\} \quad \text{for } i > k.$$

Simplified CG method

• Using $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k$ and $\mathbf{r}_{k+1} = \mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}_{k+1}$, we obtain

$$\mathbf{r}_{k+1} = \mathbf{r}_k - \alpha_k A \mathbf{p}_k. \tag{1}$$

• Using $\mathbf{p}_k = \mathbf{r}_k + \beta_k \mathbf{p}_{k-1}$ and $\mathbf{r}_k^T \mathbf{p}_{k-1} = 0$, we obtain $\mathbf{r}_k^T \mathbf{p}_k = \mathbf{r}_k^T \mathbf{r}_k$, then

$$\alpha_k = \frac{\mathbf{r}_k^T \mathbf{p}_k}{\mathbf{p}_k^T A \mathbf{p}_k} = \frac{\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2}{\mathbf{p}_k^T A \mathbf{p}_k}.$$
 (2)

• Using (1), (2) and $\mathbf{r}_{k+1}^T \mathbf{r}_k = 0$, we obtain

$$\beta_{k+1} = -\frac{\mathbf{p}_k^T A \mathbf{r}_{k+1}}{\mathbf{p}_k^T A \mathbf{p}_k} = \frac{\|\mathbf{r}_{k+1}\|_2^2}{\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2}.$$
 (3)

Conjugate gradient method

Algorithm

```
Given \mathbf{x}_0:
Set \mathbf{r}_0 = \mathbf{b} - A\mathbf{x}_0, \mathbf{p}_0 = \mathbf{r}_0;
loop
     Compute \alpha_k = \frac{\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2}{\mathbf{p}_{\scriptscriptstyle L}^T A \mathbf{p}_k};
     Update \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k;
     Compute \mathbf{r}_{k+1} = \mathbf{r}_k - \alpha_k A \mathbf{p}_k;
     Compute \beta_{k+1} = \frac{\|\mathbf{r}_{k+1}\|_2^2}{\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2};
     Compute \mathbf{p}_{k+1} = \mathbf{r}_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1} \mathbf{p}_{k};
     Check for convergence;
end loop
Output \mathbf{x}_{k+1}.
```

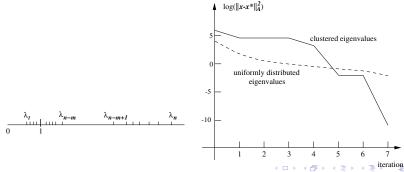
Main computation per iteration is matrix-vector product $A\mathbf{p}_{k+1}$.

Rate of convergence

- If A has only r distinct eigenvalues, then the CG method will terminate at the solution in at most r iterations.
- If A has eigenvalues $\lambda_1 < \lambda_2 < \cdots < \lambda_n$, we have that

$$\|\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\|_A^2 \le \left(\frac{\lambda_{n-k} - \lambda_1}{\lambda_{n-k} + \lambda_1}\right)^2 \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|_A^2.$$

We apply the CG method to solve $A\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$. Example:



Preconditioning

• Idea: Make change of variables $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = C\mathbf{x}$ with C nonsingular, and apply CG to

$$C^{-T}AC^{-1}\hat{\mathbf{x}}=C^{-T}\mathbf{b}.$$

- The spectrum of the new matrix $C^{-T}AC^{-1}$ should be clustered, then PCG converges fast.
- We need consider the trade-off between enhanced convergence and cost of extra computation.
- The matrix $M = C^T C$ is called the preconditioner.
- Matlab implementation: pcg

Example:

- diagonal $C = diag(A_{11}, A_{22}, \cdots, A_{nn})$
- incomplete or approximate Cholesky factorization of A
- Good preconditioners are often application-dependent.



Nonlinear conjugate gradient method

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(\mathbf{x}), \qquad f \text{ is convex and differentiable.}$$

Nonlinear CG methods

- Extend linear CG method to nonquadratic functions.
- Limited global convergence theory.

Modifications needed to extend linear CG method

- Replace $\mathbf{r}_k = \mathbf{b} A\mathbf{x}_k$ with $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$.
- Determine the step length α by line search.

Fletcher-Reeves method

Algorithm

```
Given \mathbf{x}_0;
Compute f_0 = f(\mathbf{x}_0) and \nabla f_0 = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0);
Set \mathbf{p}_0 = -\nabla f_0;
loop
    Compute \alpha_k by line search method;
    Update \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k;
    Evaluate \nabla f_{k+1};
    Compute \beta_{k+1}^{FR} = \frac{\|\nabla f_{k+1}\|_2^2}{\|\nabla f_k\|_2^2};
    Compute \mathbf{p}_{k+1} = -\nabla f_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1}^{FR} \mathbf{p}_k;
    Check for convergence;
end loop
Output \mathbf{x}_{k+1}.
```

Some observations

Interpretation

- First iteration is a steepest descent step.
- General update is a steepest descent step with momentum term

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - \alpha_k \nabla f_k + \frac{\alpha_k \beta_k}{\alpha_{k-1}} (\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}_{k-1}).$$

• It is common to restart the algorithm every *n* iterations by taking a steepest descent step to periodically refresh the algorithm.

Line search

- With exact line search, it reduces to linear CG for quadratic f.
- Exact line search in computation of α_k implies that α_k is a local minimizer along \mathbf{p}_k , i.e., $\nabla f_{k+1}^T \mathbf{p}_k = 0$. Therefore, \mathbf{p}_{k+1} is a descent direction at \mathbf{x}_{k+1} :

$$\nabla f_{k+1}^T \mathbf{p}_{k+1} = -\|\nabla f_{k+1}\|^2 + \beta_{k+1}^{FR} \nabla f_{k+1}^T \mathbf{p}_k = -\|\nabla f_{k+1}\|^2 < 0.$$

• For inexact line search, if α_k satisfies the strong Wolfe conditions, then \mathbf{p}_{k+1} is descent.

Variations

Polak-Ribière method: Compute β_{k+1} from

$$\beta_{k+1} = \frac{\nabla f_{k+1}^{T} (\nabla f_{k+1} - \nabla f_{k})}{\|\nabla f_{k}\|_{2}^{2}}.$$

Hestenes-Stiefel method: Compute β_{k+1} from

$$\beta_{k+1} = \frac{\nabla f_{k+1}^T (\nabla f_{k+1} - \nabla f_k)}{(\nabla f_{k+1} - \nabla f_k)^T \mathbf{p}_k}.$$

- All these formulas are equivalent for quadratic f and exact line search.
- With restarts and the strong Wolfe conditions, all three methods have global convergence.
- Without restarts, FR has global convergence with the strong Wolfe conditions, but PR not.
- In practice, PR is more robust and efficient than FR.

Large-scale unconstrained optimization

- \bullet Large-scale problems (today): $10^3 \sim 10^6$ variables.
- When solving large-scale problems, we have to take the storage and computational costs of the optimization algorithm into account.
- In large problems, the following can have a prohibitive cost:
 - factorizing the Hessian (solving for the Newton step)
 - computing the Hessian or multiplying it
 - ▶ storing a dense approximate Hessian like in quasi-Newton methods
- Linear/nonlinear conjugate gradient methods can be applied directly to large-scale problems without modification, but not fast.

Inexact Newton methods

Ideas: Use some inexpensive iterative algorithm to *very approximately* solve either

$$\nabla^2 f_k \mathbf{p}_k = -\nabla f_k \qquad \qquad \text{(line search)}$$

or

$$\begin{split} & \min_{\mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \ m_k(\mathbf{p}) = f_k + \nabla f_k^T \mathbf{p} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{p}^T \nabla^2 f_k \mathbf{p}, \\ & \text{s. t. } \|\mathbf{p}\|_2 \leq \Delta_k, \end{split} \tag{trust region}$$

without ruining global and fast local convergence of exact LS/TR Newton methods.

Stopping criterion for iterative solver:

$$\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2 = \|\nabla^2 f_k \mathbf{p}_k + \nabla f_k\|_2^2 \le \eta_k \|\nabla f_k\|_2^2,$$

where the sequence $\{\eta_k\}$ with $0 \le \eta_k \le 1$ for all k is called the **forcing** sequence.

Local convergence

Convergence theorem

Inexact Newton with unit steps:

- $\bullet \ \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \mathbf{p}_k$
- $\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2 \le \eta_k \|\nabla f_k\|_2^2$
- $0 < \eta_k \le \eta < 1$

Then, if the starting point x_0 is sufficiently near x^* ,

- the sequence $\{x_k\}$ converges to x^* ,
- and

$$\|\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^*)(\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*)\|_2 \le \hat{\eta} \|\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^*)(\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{x}^*)\|_2$$

for some constant $\hat{\eta}$ with $\eta < \hat{\eta} < 1$ (linear convergence).

Local convergence

Convergence rate

Inexact Newton with unit steps:

- $x_{k+1} = x_k + p_k$
- $\|\mathbf{r}_k\|_2^2 \le \eta_k \|\nabla f_k\|_2^2$
- $0 < \eta_k \le \eta < 1$

Then,

- if $\eta_k \to 0$, the sequence $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$ converges to \mathbf{x}^* superlinearly;
- if $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})$ is Lipschitz continuous for \mathbf{x} near \mathbf{x}^* and $\eta_k = O(\|\nabla f_k\|_2)$, then the convergence is quadratic.

Example:

- $\eta_k = \min(0.5, \sqrt{\|\nabla f_k\|_2})$ would yield superlinear convergence;
- $\eta_k = \min(0.5, \|\nabla f_k\|_2)$ would yield quadratic convergence.

Line search Newton-CG method

Algorithm

```
Given \mathbf{x}_0; loop
```

```
Define the forcing sequence \eta_k = \min(0.5, \sqrt{\|\nabla f_k\|_2})
```

Use CG to solve $\nabla^2 f_k \mathbf{p}_k = -\nabla f_k$ approximately with accuracy η_k Compute α_k by line search method;

Update $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k$;

end loop

Remark: $\nabla^2 f_k$ is not necessarily positive definite, but the CG method is designed to solve positive definite systems. So we need to modify CG loop.

Line search Newton-CG method

```
Given \mathbf{x}_0;
for k = 0, 1, \cdots do
   Set \mathbf{z}_0 = 0, \mathbf{r}_0 = -\nabla f_k, \mathbf{d}_0 = \mathbf{r}_0 and \eta_k = \min(0.5, \sqrt{\|\nabla f_k\|_2});
   for j=0,1,\cdots do
       if \mathbf{d}_i^T \nabla^2 f_k \mathbf{d}_i \leq 0 then
          if i = 0 then
               Stop CG and return steepest descent direction: \mathbf{p}_k = \mathbf{d}_0;
           else
               Stop CG and return \mathbf{p}_k = \mathbf{z}_i;
           end if
       end if
       : rest of CG loop
   end for
   Compute \alpha_k by line search method;
   Update \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k;
end for
```

Line search Newton-CG method

- Inner CG loop always produces a direction of descent for f.
- When the Hessian $\nabla^2 f_k$ is nearly singular, the line search Newton-CG direction can be long and of poor quality.
- It does not require explicit knowledge of the Hessian, and it requires only the Hessian-vector products. Finite differencing and automatic differentiation techniques can be used.
- Preconditioning can be introduced to speed up CG.

Limited-memory quasi-Newton methods

Idea: They save only a few vectors of length n that represent the approximation of the Hessian implicitly.

- Useful for solving large problems with costly or nonsparse Hessian.
- Linear convergence but fast rate.

Limited-memory BFGS (L-BFGS):

- It uses curvature information from only the most recent m iterations to construct the Hessian approximation.
- Modest values of $m (\sim 3-20)$ work fine in practice, but the best m depends on the problem.
- Slow convergence in ill-conditioned problems.

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L-BFGS update

Review: BFGS inverse Hessian update:

$$H_{k+1} = V_k^T H_k V_k + \rho_k \mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{s}_k^T$$

where $V_k = I - \rho_k \mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{y}_k^T$, $\rho_k = 1/(\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k)$, $\mathbf{s}_k = \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_k$ and $\mathbf{y}_k = \nabla f_{k+1} - \nabla f_k$.

- Since H_k is generally dense, the cost of storing and manipulating it is prohibitive when n is large.
- We store a modified version of H_k implicitly, by storing $m \ll n$ of the vector pairs $\{\mathbf{s}_k, \mathbf{y}_k\}$.
- The product $H_k \nabla f_k$ c an be obtained by performing a sequence of inner products and vector summations.
- After the new iterate is computed, we replace the oldest pair with the new pair.

L-BFGS update

Update algorithm: Compute $H_k \nabla f_k$

```
Given H_k^0; Set \mathbf{q} = \nabla f_k;
for i = k - 1, k - 2, \dots, k - m do
    \alpha_i = \rho_i \mathbf{s}_i^T \mathbf{q};
    \mathbf{q} = \mathbf{q} - \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i;
end for
\mathbf{r} = H_{\nu}^{0}\mathbf{q};
for i = k - m, k - m + 1, \dots, k - 1 do
    \beta = \rho_i \mathbf{v}_i^T \mathbf{r};
    \mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r} + \mathbf{s}_i(\alpha_i - \beta);
end for
Output r.
```

- It recursively expands the update with m pairs $\{\mathbf{s}_k, \mathbf{y}_k\}$.
- H_k^0 is allowed to vary from iteration to iteration.
- It requires 4mn multiplications and calculation of $H_k^0 \mathbf{q}$.

L-BFGS method

```
Given \mathbf{x}_0 and m;
loop
   Choose H_{\nu}^{0};
   Compute \mathbf{p}_k = -H_k \nabla f_k by update algorithm;
   Compute \alpha_k by line search method;
   Update \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k;
   if k > m then
       Discard \{\mathbf{s}_{k-m}, \mathbf{y}_{k-m}\} from storage;
   end if
   Store \mathbf{s}_k = \mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_k and \mathbf{y}_k = \nabla f_{k+1} - \nabla f_k;
end loop
```

- A good choice for H_k^0 in practice: $H_k^0 = \gamma_k I$ with $\gamma_k = (\mathbf{s}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{y}_{k-1})/(\mathbf{y}_{k-1}^T \mathbf{y}_{k-1})$.
- The line search based on the (strong) Wolfe conditions makes BFGS stable.
- The first m-1 iterates are the same as in BEGS.

Relationship with CG methods

- Limited-memory methods historically evolved as improvements of nonlinear CG methods.
- The Hestenes-Stiefel form of nonlinear CG method:

$$\mathbf{p}_{k+1} = -\nabla f_{k+1} + \frac{\nabla f_{k+1}^T \mathbf{y}_k}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{p}_k} \mathbf{p}_k = -\hat{H}_{k+1} \nabla f_{k+1} \quad \text{with } \hat{H}_{k+1} = I - \frac{\mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{y}_k^T}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k},$$

which resembles quasi-Newton iterates, but \hat{H}_{k+1} is neither symmetric nor positive definite.

 A symmetric positive definite modification, which also satisfies the secant equation, is

$$H_{k+1} = \left(I - \frac{\mathbf{s}_k \mathbf{y}_k^T}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k}\right) \left(I - \frac{\mathbf{y}_k \mathbf{s}_k^T}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k}\right) + \frac{\mathbf{s}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k}{\mathbf{y}_k^T \mathbf{s}_k},$$

which is exactly the L-BGFS method with m=1 and $H_k^0=I$ (memoryless BFGS).