CS 726 Assignment 4

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1

Given $d_k = -\nabla f(x_k)$ and $\alpha \in (0, \frac{1}{L})$, we have

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

Also, equation (3.8) in the manuscript reads

$$f(x + \alpha d) \leqslant f(x) + \alpha \nabla f(x)^T d + \alpha^2 \frac{L}{2} ||d||^2;$$

by plugging in $d = -\nabla f(x_k)$ we have

$$f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x_k) - \alpha \|\nabla f(x_k)\|^2 + \frac{\alpha^2 L}{2} \|\nabla f(x_k)\|^2$$

= $f(x_k) - \frac{\alpha(2 - \alpha L)}{2} \|\nabla f(x_k)\|^2$. (1)

1.1 General case

Rearrange equation (1) we have:

$$\left\|\nabla f(x_k)\right\|^2 \leqslant \frac{2}{\alpha(2-\alpha L)} [f(x_k) - f(x_{k+1})]. \tag{2}$$

Sum both sides of equation (2) from 0 to n, we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \|\nabla f(x_{k})\|^{2} \leq \frac{2}{\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} [f(x_{0}) - f(x_{n+1})]$$

$$\leq \frac{2}{\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} [f(x_{0}) - f(x^{*})]$$

$$\Rightarrow \min_{k=0,\dots,n} \|\nabla f(x_{k})\| \leq \sqrt{\frac{2(f(x_{0}) - f(x^{*}))}{\alpha(n+1)(2 - \alpha L)}},$$
(3)

thus preserving the $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$ convergence rate; note that if we plug $\alpha = \frac{1}{L}$ into the inequality above, we recover the results for steepest descent in the manuscript.

1.2 Convex case

If f(x) is convex, then we have

$$f(x^*) \geqslant f(x_k) + \nabla f(x_k)^T (x^* - x_k)$$

$$\Rightarrow f(x_k) \leqslant f(x^*) - \nabla f(x_k)^T (x^* - x_k).$$

Plug this into equation (1) we have

$$f(x_{k+1}) \leq f(x^*) - \nabla f(x_k)^T (x^* - x_k) - \frac{\alpha(2 - \alpha L)}{2} \|\nabla f(x_k)\|^2$$

$$= f(x^*) - \frac{\alpha(2 - \alpha L)}{2} \nabla f(x_k)^T \left[\frac{2}{\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} (x^* - x_k) + \nabla f(x_k) \right]$$

$$= f(x^*) - \frac{\alpha(2 - \alpha L)}{2} \left(\left\| \nabla f(x_k) + \frac{x^* - x_k}{\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} \right\|^2 - \left\| \frac{x^* - x_k}{\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} \right\|^2 \right)$$

$$= f(x^*) - \frac{1}{2\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} \left(\left\| \alpha(2 - \alpha L) \nabla f(x_k) + x^* - x_k \right\|^2 - \left\| x^* - x_k \right\|^2 \right)$$

$$\leq f(x^*) - \frac{1}{2\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} \left(\left\| \alpha \nabla f(x_k) + x^* - x_k \right\|^2 - \left\| x^* - x_k \right\|^2 \right)$$

$$= f(x^*) - \frac{1}{2\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} \left(\left\| x^* - x_{k+1} \right\|^2 - \left\| x^* - x_k \right\|^2 \right)$$

$$\implies f(x_{k+1}) - f(x^*) \leqslant \frac{1}{2\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} \Big(\|x^* - x_k\|^2 - \|x^* - x_{k+1}\|^2 \Big)$$
 (4)

Sum inequality (4) from k = 0 to n - 1, we have

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n-1} (f(x_{k+1}) - f(x^*)) \leq \frac{1}{2\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} (||x_0 - x^*||^2 - ||x_n - x^*||^2)$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{2\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} ||x_0 - x^*||^2$$
(5)

Because $f(x_k)$ is decreasing,

$$f(x_n) - f(x^*) \le \frac{1}{2n\alpha(2 - \alpha L)} ||x_0 - x^*||^2 = o(\frac{1}{n}).$$

1.3

 $\mathbf{2}$

2.1

There are infinite solutions, because for underdetermined (i.e. n < d) case like this, there is either no solution or infinite solutions.

2.2

Instead of minimizing the function $f_0(x) = \frac{1}{n} ||Ax - b||^2$, we opt to minimize the function $f(x) = ||Ax - b||^2$ to get rid of the cumbersome coefficient $\frac{1}{n}$. Since they only differ in a factor of constant, they'll have the same convergence peoperties, the same minimizer, and even the same minimum 0; only that the error in f_0 is 10 times smaller than that of f:

$$f_0(x) \leqslant \epsilon \iff f(x) \leqslant n\epsilon.$$

We first note that f(x) (and $f_0(x)$, of course) is convex, but not strongly convex. To prove this, we first write f(x) in the form of a quadratic function:

$$f(x) = x^T A^T A x - 2b^T A x + b^T b,$$

$$\nabla f(x) = 2A^T A x - 2A^T b = 2A^T (A x - b).$$

f(x) is convex because

$$f(y) - f(x) - \nabla f(x)^{T} (y - x)$$

$$= y^{T} A^{T} A y - 2b^{T} A y - x^{T} A^{T} A x + 2b^{T} A x$$

$$- 2x^{T} A^{T} A (y - x) + 2b^{T} A (y - x)$$

$$= y^{T} A^{T} A y - 2x^{T} A^{T} A y + x^{T} A^{T} A x$$

$$= ||Ax - Ay||^{2} \geqslant 0$$

$$\implies f(y) \geqslant f(x) + \nabla f(x)(y - x);$$

it's not strongly convex because A^TA is singular and must have 0 as at least one of its eigenvalues: $\operatorname{rank}(A^TA) = \operatorname{rank}(A) = n < d$, but A^TA is a $d \times d$ matrix; in other words, A^TA is positive semidefinite.

In order to make f(x) fit into our analysis in class, we define $A' = 2A^T A$,

so that $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^TA'x - 2b^TAx + b^Tb$. Suppose the largest eigenvalue of A' is L, and x^* is a minimizer of f, then

$$f(x_K) - f(x^*) = f(x_K) \leqslant \frac{L}{2K} ||x_0 - x^*||^2$$

= $\frac{L}{2K} ||x^*||^2$;

if we require the error within K steps in f(x) to be smaller than $n\epsilon$, then

$$K \leqslant \frac{L}{2n\epsilon} \|x^*\|^2.$$

Here are some notes:

- Since f(x) has infinite minimizers, our iteration does not necessarily lead to $x_k \to x^*$; however, $||x^*||$ can still be used to bound our error; in fact, the error can be bounded by $||x^{\dagger}|| = \min_{\{x: Ax = b\}} ||x||$, with x^{\dagger} being the minimizer of f(x) that has the smallest Euclidean distance from origin.
- The relationship between the spectra of A' and A^TA is the following: $\lambda_i(A') = 2\lambda_i(A^TA)$; thus if we define L' as the largest eigenvalue of A^TA , then we should replace the Ls in our inequality with 2L'.
- Writing f(x) in its quadratic form is only of conceptual use to us; we would never want of calculate A^TA , which has the complexity of about $O(nd^2)$, in practice. Evaluating $f(x) = ||Ax b||^2$ and $\nabla f(x) = 2A^T(Ax b)$ each costs us O(nd), and doing a exact line serch would have similar time complexity, if we alway evaluate expressions like x^TA^TAx as $(Ax)^T(Ax)$.
- If n is small compared to d, then we probably can afford to evaluate the matrix product AA^T , which costs $O(n^2d)$, at the beginning of the program. By doing so, we can transform the problem into one with much nicer properties: Minimizing $g(t) = \left\|AA^Tt b\right\|^2$. Because AA^T is a $n \times n$ matrix with rank n, it is now invertible and thus is positive definite, (instead of being positive semi-definite, as we've seen above,) making g(t) strictly convex. Now that g(t) is a strictly convex function, we can yield much faster convergence with descent methods: given that the condition number of A^TA is κ , after K iterations we would have

$$g(t_K) \leqslant (1 - \frac{1}{\kappa})^K ||b||^2$$

$$\Rightarrow k \geqslant \frac{\ln \frac{n\epsilon}{\|b\|^2}}{\ln(1 - \frac{1}{\kappa})},$$

if we want the error in g(t) to be smaller than $n\epsilon$. Finally, we can get the corresponding minimizer in x-space with

$$x = A^T t$$
.

The solution we get from this algorithm is also the x^{\dagger} we mentioned above, namely the solution that's closest to origin.

2.3

$$l_{\mu}(x) = \frac{1}{n} ||Ax - b||^2 + \mu ||x||^2,$$

$$\nabla l_{\mu}(x) = \frac{2}{n} A^T (Ax - b) + 2\mu x = (\frac{2}{n} A^T A + \mu I) x - \frac{2}{n} A^T b.$$

At the minimizer of l_{μ} , we have

$$\nabla l_{\mu}(x^{(\mu)}) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(\frac{2}{n}A^{T}A + 2\mu I\right)x^{(\mu)} = \frac{2A^{T}b}{n},$$

$$x^{(\mu)} = \left(A^{T}A + n\mu I\right)^{-1}A^{T}b.$$

Here $A^TA + n\mu I$ is invertible because A^TA is positive semidefinite, as we've shown above, and $n\mu I$ is positive definite, making the sum positive definite and thus invertible.

2.4

$$l_{\mu}(x) = \frac{2}{n} ||Ax - b||^{2} + \mu ||x||^{2}$$
$$= x^{T} (\frac{1}{n} A^{T} A + \mu I) x - \frac{2}{n} b^{T} A x + ||b||^{2}.$$

If we define $\tilde{A} = \frac{1}{n}A^TA + \mu I$, and its condition number $\tilde{\kappa}$, then

$$l_{\mu}(x_{k}) - l_{\mu}(x^{\mu}) \leqslant (1 - \frac{1}{\tilde{\kappa}})^{k} (l_{\mu}(x_{0}) - l_{\mu}(x^{(\mu)}))$$
$$= (1 - \frac{1}{\tilde{\kappa}})^{k} (\frac{\|b\|^{2}}{n} - l_{\mu}(x^{(\mu)})).$$

If we desire the left-hand side of the inequality above to be no larger than ϵ after K steps, then

$$(1 - \frac{1}{\tilde{\kappa}})^{K} (\frac{\|b\|^{2}}{n} - l_{\mu}(x^{(\mu)})) \leqslant \epsilon$$

$$K \ln(1 - \frac{1}{\tilde{\kappa}}) \leqslant \ln \frac{\epsilon}{\frac{\|b\|^{2}}{n} - l_{\mu}(x^{(\mu)})},$$

$$K \geqslant \frac{\ln \frac{\epsilon}{\frac{\|b\|^{2}}{n} - l_{\mu}(x^{(\mu)})}}{\ln(1 - \frac{1}{\tilde{\kappa}})}.$$

2.5

$$\frac{1}{n} ||A\hat{x} - b||^2 = l_{\mu}(\hat{x}) - \mu ||\hat{x}||^2$$

$$\leq \epsilon + l_{\mu}(x^{(\mu)}) - \mu ||\hat{x}||^2;$$

plug in the expression for $x^{(\mu)}$, we have

$$\begin{split} \frac{1}{n} \|A\hat{x} - b\|^2 &\leqslant \epsilon + \frac{1}{n} \left\| A(A^T A + n\mu I)^{-1} A^T b - b \right\|^2 + \mu \left\| (A^T A + n\mu I)^{-1} A^T b \right\|^2 - \mu \|\hat{x}\|^2 \\ &\leq \epsilon + \frac{1}{n} \left\| A(A^T A + n\mu I)^{-1} A^T b - b \right\|^2 + \mu \left\| (A^T A + n\mu I)^{-1} A^T b \right\|^2. \end{split}$$

3

Given symmetric positive definite matrix A, if for a set of vectors $\{p_k\}$ we have

$$p_i^T A p_j = 0$$
, if $i \neq j$,

then we define

$$P = \begin{bmatrix} p_0, & p_1, & \dots, & p_l \end{bmatrix}$$

and

$$\Sigma = P^T A P = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma_0 & & & \\ & \sigma_1 & & \\ & & \ddots & \\ & & & \sigma_l \end{bmatrix} \succ 0,$$

in which $\sigma_i = p_i^T A p_i > 0$ because A is positive definite.

We can prove the theorem by contradiction: if $\{p_k\}$ is linearly dependent, i.e. $\exists x \neq 0$ such that $Px = \sum_{i=0}^{l} x_i p_i = 0$, then, on one hand,

$$x^T \Sigma x = x^T P^T A P x = (Px)^T A (Px) = 0;$$

on the other, since Σ is positive definite,

$$x^T \Sigma x > 0,$$

which contradicts the equation above. Hence we've shown that $\{p_k\}$ can only be linearly independent if they're conjugate with respect to symmetric possitive definite matrix A.

4

Lemma: if A is symmetric, then any polynomial of A is also symmetric.

Proof: Suppose A is an $n \times n$ symmetric matrix, then

$$(A^k)_{ij} = \sum_{x_1=1}^n \sum_{x_2=1}^n \cdots \sum_{x_{k-1}=1}^n A_{ix_1} A_{x_1 x_2} \cdots A_{x_{k-1} j}$$

$$= \sum_{x_1=1}^n \sum_{x_2=1}^n \cdots \sum_{x_{k-1}=1}^n A_{x_1 i} A_{x_2 x_1} \cdots A_{j x_{k-1}}$$

$$= (A^k)_{ii}.$$

And clearly the sum of symmetric matrices is also symmetric; and a polynomial of A to the kth power is a sum of k+1 symmetric matrices, which is symmetric, and thus $[I + P_k(A)A]^T = [I + P_k(A)A]$.

With the result from the textbook that $P_k(A)v_i = P_k(\lambda_i)v_i$, we have:

$$[I + P_k(A)A]^T A [I + P_k(A)A] v_i = [I + P_k(A)A] A [v_i + P_k(A)Av_i]$$

$$= [I + P_k(A)A] A [(1 + \lambda_i P_k(\lambda_i))v_i]$$

$$= (1 + \lambda_i P_k(\lambda_i)) [I + P_k(A)A] A v_i$$

$$= \lambda_i (1 + \lambda_i P_k(\lambda_i)) [I + P_k(A)A] v_i$$

$$= \lambda_i (1 + \lambda_i P_k(\lambda_i))^2 v_i.$$

Hence $(v_i, \lambda_i(1 + \lambda_i P_k(\lambda_i))^2)$ is an eigenpair of $[I + P_k(A)A]^T A[I + P_k(A)A]$, given that (v_i, λ_i) is one for A.

5

For the given problem, the solution is

$$x^* = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \frac{1}{n+1} \\ 1 - \frac{2}{n+1} \\ \vdots \\ 1 - \frac{n}{n+1} \end{bmatrix},$$

and x_k can have non-zero entries only in the first k spots, given the starting point $x_0 = 0$. Thus

$$||x_0 - x^*||^2 = ||x^*||^2 = \sum_{j=1}^n \left(1 - \frac{j}{n+1}\right)^2$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^n \left(1 - \frac{2j}{n+1} + \frac{j^2}{(n+1)^2}\right)$$

$$= n - \frac{2}{n+1} \sum_{j=1}^n j + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} \sum_{j=1}^n j^2$$

$$= n - \frac{2}{n+1} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)}{2} + \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} \cdot \frac{n(n+1)(2n+1)}{6}$$

$$= n - n + \frac{2n+1}{n+1} \cdot \frac{n}{6}$$

$$\leqslant \frac{2n}{6} = \frac{n}{3}$$

and

$$||x_k - x^*||^2 \ge \left| \left[0, \dots, 0, 1 - \frac{k+1}{n+1}, \dots, 1 - \frac{n}{n+1} \right]^T \right|$$

$$= \sum_{j=k+1}^n \left(1 - \frac{j}{n+1} \right)^2 = \frac{\sum_{j=k+1}^n (n+1-j)^n}{(n+1)^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} \left((n-k)^2 + (n-k-1)^2 + \dots + 2^2 + 1^2 \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} \cdot \frac{(n-k)(n-k+1)(2n-2k+1)}{6}$$

$$\ge \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} \cdot \frac{(n-k)(n-k)(2n-2k)}{6}$$

$$= \frac{1}{(n+1)^2} \cdot \frac{(n-k)^3}{3} = \frac{(n-k)^3}{3(n+1)^2}$$

$$\ge \frac{(n-k)^3}{n(n+1)^2} ||x_0 - x^*||^2,$$

in the last step of which we invoked the inequality we proved for $||x_0 - x^*||^2$.