### Large-Scale Unconstrained Optimization

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March 10, 2024



### Introduction

- Many applications give rise to unconstrained optimization problems with thousands or millions of variables.
- Problems of this size can be solved efficiently only if the storage and computational costs of the optimization algorithm can be kept at a tolerable level.
- A diverse collection of large-scale optimization methods has been developed to achieve this goal, each being particularly effective for certain problem types.
- Some of these methods are straightforward adaptations of the methods described until now.
- Other approaches are modifications of these basic methods that allow approximate steps to be calculated at lower cost in computation and storage.

### Introduction

- The non-linear conjugate gradient methods of can be applied to large problems without modification, owing to its minimal storage demands and its reliance on only first-order derivative information.
- The Newton method in both line search and trust-region algorithms require matrix factorizations of the Hessian matrices.
- High quality software implementations are available, which are based on factorizations that can be carried out using sparse elimination techniques.
- Newton methods are plagued with issues related to computational cost and memory requirements of these sparse factorization methods.
- If the Hessian matrix can be formed explicitly, with the above problems sorted they constitute an effective approach for solving such problems.

### Introduction

- Often, however, the cost of factoring the Hessian is prohibitive, and it is preferable to compute approximations to the Newton step using iterative linear algebra techniques.
- Inexact Newton methods that use these techniques, in both line search and trust-region frameworks have attractive global convergence properties and may be super-linearly convergent for suitable choices of parameters.
- There are variants of the quasi-Newton approach, which use Hessian approximations that can be stored compactly by using just a few vectors of length n.
- These methods are fairly robust, inexpensive, and easy to implement, but they do not converge rapidly.

### **Inexact Newton Methods**

• The basic Newton step  $p_k^N$  is obtained by solving the symmetric  $n \times n$  linear system

$$\nabla^2 f_k p_k^N = -\nabla f_k. \tag{1}$$

- $p_k^N$  can be obtained by solving the above equation (1) approximately, via inexpensive iterative solvers.
- For example the conjugate gradient (CG) method can be employed to get  $p_k^N$ .
- Both line search and trust region approaches can be derived based on this approximation, which falls in the general family of inexact Newton methods.
- In addition, we can implement these methods in a Hessian-free manner, so that the Hessian  $\nabla^2 f_k$  need not be calculated or stored explicitly at all.

## LOCAL CONVERGENCE OF INEXACT NEWTON METHODS

• Consider the residual for the equation (1) as:

$$r_k = \nabla^2 f_k p_k + \nabla f_k \tag{2}$$

where  $p_k$  is the inexact Newton step.

The CG iterations are terminated when

$$||r_k|| \le \eta_k ||\nabla f_k||, \tag{3}$$

where the sequence  $\{\eta_k\}$  ( with  $0<\eta_k<1$  for all k) is called the forcing sequence.

# LOCAL CONVERGENCE OF INEXACT NEWTON METHODS

#### Theorem

Suppose that  $\nabla^2 f(x)$  exists and is continuous in a neighbourhood of a minimizer  $x^*$ , with  $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$  is positive definite. Consider the iteration  $x_{k+1} = x_k + p_k$  where  $p_k$  satisfies (3), and assume that  $\eta_k \leq \eta$  for some constant  $\eta \in [0,1)$ . Then, if the starting point  $x_0$  is sufficiently near  $x^*$ , the sequence  $\{x_k\}$  converges to  $x^*$  and satisfies

$$||\nabla^2 f(x^*)(x_{k+1} - x^*)|| \le \hat{\eta}||\nabla^2 f(x^*)(x_k - x^*)||, \tag{4}$$

for some constant  $\hat{\eta}$  with  $\eta < \hat{\eta} < 1$ .

 In the line search Newton-CG method, also known as the truncated Newton method, the search direction is computed by applying the CG method to the Newton equations:

$$\nabla^2 f_k p_k^N = -\nabla f_k;$$

• and attempt to satisfy a termination test of the form

$$||r_k|| \leq \eta_k ||\nabla f_k||,$$

- The CG method is designed to solve positive definite systems.
- However, the Hessian  $\nabla^2 f_k$  may have negative eigenvalues when  $x_k$  is not close to a solution.
- The CG iteration is terminated as soon as a direction of negative curvature is generated.

- This adaptation of the CG method produces a search direction  $p_k$  that is a descent direction.
- Moreover, the adaptation guarantees that the fast convergence rate of the pure Newton method is preserved, provided that the step length  $\alpha_k=1$  is used whenever it satisfies the acceptance criteria.
- For purposes of this algorithm rewrite the linear system (1) in the form

$$B_k p = -\nabla f_k \tag{5}$$

where  $B_k$  represents  $\nabla^2 f_k$ .

• For the inner CG iteration, denote the search direction by  $d_j$  and the sequence of iterates that it generates by  $z_j$ .

- When  $B_k$  is positive definite, the inner iteration sequence  $\{z_j\}$  will converge to the Newton step  $p_k^N$  that solves (5).
- At each major iteration, a tolerance  $\varepsilon_k$  that specifies the required accuracy of the computed solution.
- For concreteness the forcing sequence is chosen to be  $\eta_k = \min(0.5, \sqrt{||\nabla f_k||})$  to obtain a super-linear convergence rate (one may choose differently as well).

### Line Search Newton-CG

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Algorithm
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Given initial point x_0;
for k = 0, 1, 2, ...
       Define tolerance \varepsilon = \min(0.5, \sqrt{||\nabla f_k||})||\nabla f_k||;
      Set z_0 = 0, r_0 = \nabla f_k, d_0 = -r_0 = -\nabla f_k;
      for j = 0, 1, 2, ...
             if d_i^T B_k d_j \leq 0
                          return p_k = -\nabla f_k;
                   else
                          return p_k = z_i;
            set \alpha_j = r_i^T r_j / d_i^T B_k d_i;
            Set z_{j+1} = z_j + \alpha_j d_j;
Set r_{j+1} = r_j + \alpha_j B_k d_j;
             if ||r_{i+1}|| < \varepsilon_k
                   return p_k = z_{j+1};
             Set \beta_{i+1} = r_{i+1}^T r_{i+1} / r_i^T r_i;
             Set d_{i+1} = -r_{i+1} + \beta_{i+1}d_i;
      end (for)
      Set x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k p_k, where \alpha_k satisfies the Wolfe, Goldstein, or
             Armijo backtracking conditions (using \alpha_k = 1 if possible);
end
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- The main differences between the inner loop of the above algorithm and the original CG are that the specific starting point  $z_0 = 0$  is used;
- and the use of a positive tolerance  $\varepsilon_k$  allows the CG iterations to terminate at an inexact solution;
- and the negative curvature test  $d_j^T B_k d_j \le 0$  ensures that  $p_k$  is a descent direction for f at  $x_k$ .
- If negative curvature is detected on the first inner iteration j=0, the returned direction  $p_k=-\nabla f_k$  is both a descent direction and a direction of non-positive curvature for f at  $x_k$ .