



$\min f(x)$   
st.  $x \in X$





2. (a)  $\min_x x^T Q x + 2b^T x$

$v(x) = Qx + b$ . Takes time  $O(n^2)$ .

$$\frac{er}{\epsilon} \leq (1 - \frac{1}{k})^r \Rightarrow r \geq k \log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$$

In total, the time complexity is  $O(n^2 k \log \frac{1}{\epsilon})$ .

(b) If we ignore the term  $\log \frac{1}{\epsilon}$

The time complexity becomes  $O(n^2 k)$

Then, if  $k \gg n$ , direct method is faster.

if  $k \ll n$ , GD method is faster

(c) When  $n = 10$ ,  $k = \frac{\lambda_{\max}(A^T A)}{\lambda_{\min}(A^T A)} = 265.651$

$n = 20$ ,  $k = 3111$

$n = 50$ ,  $k = 1.421 \times 10^5$

$n = 100$ ,  $k = 4.89 \times 10^4$

It can be seen that  $k$  is much larger than  $n$ .

(d). Direct method will be faster than GD method for the problems generated in (c)

(e). GD will go through multiple stages and  $k \log(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$  only captures the speed of last stage. Each speed has  $\frac{\lambda_{\max}}{\lambda_{\min}}$  and ends at roughly  $\lambda_k$ . If low-accuracy is wanted,  $k \log(\frac{1}{\epsilon})$  is not an issue since convergence behavior of GD roughly depends on eigenvalues above or around the accuracy. It is bad, however, if high accuracy is wanted.





3. (a) coordinate descent and gradient descent  
can solve the least square problem with  
some convergence guarantee.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(b). } \min_w \|Aw - b\|^2 \quad \text{s.t. } w \geq 0, \quad w \in \mathbb{R}^d, \quad A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d} \\ = \min_w \sum_{i=1}^n \|A_i w - b_i\|^2 = \sum f_i(w) \\ = \min_{w, z_1, \dots, z_n} \sum_{i=1}^n \|A_i z_i - b_i\|^2 \quad \text{s.t. } z_i = w, \quad w \geq 0 \quad \forall i \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Lagrangian} = \underbrace{\sum f_i(z_i)}_{F(z_i)} + \langle \lambda, z_i \rangle - m \underbrace{\sum (\lambda_i, x)}_{G(x)}.$$

$$= \|Ax - b\|^2 + \lambda^T (z - x) + \frac{\rho}{2} \|z - x\|^2$$

$$/ \quad x^{r+1} = \arg\min_x L_p(x, z^r, \lambda^r)$$

$$z^{r+1} = \arg\min_z L_p(x^{r+1}, z, \lambda^r)$$

$$\lambda^{r+1} = \lambda^r + \rho(z^r - x^r)$$





4. (a)  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 - x_2^2) - 3x_2$

s.t.  $x_2 = 0$ .

$$L(x, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 - x_2^2) - 3x_2 + \lambda(x_2 - 0)$$

$$\nabla_x L(x^*, \lambda^*) = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{cases} x_1 = 0 \Rightarrow x_1 = 0 \\ -x_2 - 3 + \lambda = 0 \Rightarrow \lambda = 3. \end{cases}$$

$$\nabla_\lambda L(x^*, \lambda^*) = 0 \Rightarrow x_2 = 0. \quad \nearrow$$

Hence,  $x^* = (0, 0)$ ,  $\lambda^* = 3$

(b)  $L_c(x, \lambda) = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 - x_2^2) - 3x_2 + \lambda(x_2 - 0) + \frac{c}{2}(x_2 - 0)^2$

$$x_1(\lambda, c) = 0 \quad x_2(\lambda, c) = -x_2 - 3 + \lambda + cx_2 = 0$$

$$= \frac{3 - \lambda}{c - 1}$$

When  $k = 0, 1, 2$ ,  $c^k = 10, 10^2, 10^3$

For Quadratic penalty with  $\lambda^k = 0$ .

when  $k = 0$ ,  $x_2 = \frac{3 - \lambda^k}{c^k - 1} = \frac{3 - 0}{10 - 1} = \frac{3}{9}$

$k = 1$ ,  $x_2 = \frac{3}{100 - 1} = \frac{3}{99}$

$k = 2$ ,  $x_2 = \frac{3}{999}$

For Multipliers with  $\lambda^0 = 0$   $\lambda^k \rightarrow 3 = \lambda^*$

when  $k = 0$ ,  $x_2 = \frac{3 - \lambda^k}{c - 1} = \frac{3}{c - 1}$

$k = 1$ ,  $x_2 = \frac{3 - \lambda^1}{c - 1} = 0$

$k = 2$ ,  $x_2 = \frac{3 - \lambda^2}{c - 1} = 0$

when  $k \rightarrow \infty$  the quadratic penalty method will have  $x_2 \rightarrow 0 = x_2^*$

And the result from the two methods will be the same.

