Convex Optimization

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9. Unconstrained minimization

Outline

Terminology and assumptions

Gradient descent method

Steepest descent method

Newton's method

Self-concordant functions

Implementation

Unconstrained minimization

unconstrained minimization problem

minimize f(x)

we assume

- -f convex, twice continuously differentiable (hence **dom** f open)
- optimal value $p^{\star} = \inf_{x} f(x)$ is attained at x^{\star} (not necessarily unique)
- optimality condition is $\nabla f(x) = 0$
- minimizing *f* is the same as solving $\nabla f(x) = 0$
- a set of n equations with n unknowns

Quadratic functions

- convex quadratic: $f(x) = (1/2)x^T P x + q^T x + r, P \ge 0$
- we can solve exactly via linear equations

$$\nabla f(x) = Px + q = 0$$

much more on this special case later

Iterative methods

for most non-quadratic functions, we use iterative methods

- ▶ these produce a sequence of points $x^{(k)} \in \mathbf{dom} f, k = 0, 1, ...$
- $x^{(0)}$ is the initial point or starting point
- $x^{(k)}$ is the *k*th **iterate**
- we hope that the method converges, i.e.,

$$f(x^{(k)}) \to p^{\star}, \qquad \nabla f(x^{(k)}) \to 0$$

Initial point and sublevel set

- algorithms in this chapter require a starting point $x^{(0)}$ such that
 - $-x^{(0)} \in \mathbf{dom} f$
 - sublevel set $S = \{x \mid f(x) \le f(x^{(0)})\}$ is closed
- > 2nd condition is hard to verify, except when all sublevel sets are closed
 - equivalent to condition that epi f is closed
 - true if $\mathbf{dom} f = \mathbf{R}^n$
 - true if $f(x) \to \infty$ as $x \to \mathbf{bd} \operatorname{\mathbf{dom}} f$

examples of differentiable functions with closed sublevel sets:

$$f(x) = \log\left(\sum_{i=1}^{m} \exp(a_i^T x + b_i)\right), \qquad f(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} \log(b_i - a_i^T x)$$

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Strong convexity and implications

• *f* is **strongly convex** on *S* if there exists an m > 0 such that

 $\nabla^2 f(x) \ge mI$ for all $x \in S$

- same as $f(x) (m/2) ||x||_2^2$ is convex
- if *f* is strongly convex, for $x, y \in S$,

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{m}{2} ||x - y||_2^2$$

- hence, S is bounded
- we conclude $p^* > -\infty$, and for $x \in S$,

$$f(x) - p^{\star} \le \frac{1}{2m} \|\nabla f(x)\|_2^2$$

useful as stopping criterion (if you know m, which usually you do not)

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Descent methods

descent methods generate iterates as

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} + t^{(k)} \Delta x^{(k)}$$

with $f(x^{(k+1)}) < f(x^{(k)})$ (hence the name)

- other notations: $x^+ = x + t\Delta x$, $x := x + t\Delta x$
- $\Delta x^{(k)}$ is the step, or search direction
- $t^{(k)} > 0$ is the step size, or step length
- From convexity, $f(x^+) < f(x)$ implies $\nabla f(x)^T \Delta x < 0$
- this means Δx is a **descent direction**

Generic descent method

General descent method.

given a starting point $x \in \mathbf{dom} f$. repeat

- 1. Determine a descent direction Δx .
- 2. Line search. Choose a step size t > 0.
- 3. **Update.** $x := x + t\Delta x$.

until stopping criterion is satisfied.

Line search types

- exact line search: $t = \operatorname{argmin}_{t>0} f(x + t\Delta x)$
- **backtracking line search** (with parameters $\alpha \in (0, 1/2), \beta \in (0, 1)$)
 - starting at t = 1, repeat $t := \beta t$ until $f(x + t\Delta x) < f(x) + \alpha t \nabla f(x)^T \Delta x$
- ▶ graphical interpretation: reduce t (*i.e.*, backtrack) until $t \le t_0$



Gradient descent method

• general descent method with $\Delta x = -\nabla f(x)$

```
given a starting point x ∈ dom f.
repeat

Δx := -∇f(x).
Line search. Choose step size t via exact or backtracking line search.
Update. x := x + t∆x.

until stopping criterion is satisfied.
```

▶ stopping criterion usually of the form $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 \le \epsilon$

convergence result: for strongly convex f,

$$f(x^{(k)}) - p^* \le c^k (f(x^{(0)}) - p^*)$$

 $c \in (0, 1)$ depends on $m, x^{(0)}$, line search type

very simple, but can be very slow

Example: Quadratic function on R²

• take
$$f(x) = (1/2)(x_1^2 + \gamma x_2^2)$$
, with $\gamma > 0$

• with exact line search, starting at $x^{(0)} = (\gamma, 1)$:

$$x_1^{(k)} = \gamma \left(\frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma + 1}\right)^k, \qquad x_2^{(k)} = \left(-\frac{\gamma - 1}{\gamma + 1}\right)^k$$

- $-\,$ very slow if $\gamma\gg 1$ or $\gamma\ll 1$
- example for $\gamma = 10$ at right
- called zig-zagging



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Example: Nonquadratic function on \mathbf{R}^2

•
$$f(x_1, x_2) = e^{x_1 + 3x_2 - 0.1} + e^{x_1 - 3x_2 - 0.1} + e^{-x_1 - 0.1}$$



backtracking line search



exact line search

Example: A problem in \mathbf{R}^{100}

•
$$f(x) = c^T x - \sum_{i=1}^{500} \log(b_i - a_i^T x)$$



▶ linear convergence, *i.e.*, a straight line on a semilog plot

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Steepest descent method

• normalized steepest descent direction (at *x*, for norm $\|\cdot\|$):

 $\Delta x_{\text{nsd}} = \operatorname{argmin}\{\nabla f(x)^T v \mid ||v|| = 1\}$

- interpretation: for small $v, f(x + v) \approx f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T v$;
- direction Δx_{nsd} is unit-norm step with most negative directional derivative
- (unnormalized) steepest descent direction: $\Delta x_{sd} = \|\nabla f(x)\|_* \Delta x_{nsd}$
- satisfies $\nabla f(x)^T \Delta x_{sd} = -\|\nabla f(x)\|_*^2$
- steepest descent method
 - general descent method with $\Delta x = \Delta x_{sd}$
 - convergence properties similar to gradient descent

Examples

- Euclidean norm: $\Delta x_{sd} = -\nabla f(x)$
- quadratic norm $||x||_P = (x^T P x)^{1/2}$ $(P \in \mathbf{S}_{++}^n)$: $\Delta x_{sd} = -P^{-1} \nabla f(x)$
- ▶ ℓ_1 -norm: $\Delta x_{sd} = -(\partial f(x)/\partial x_i)e_i$, where $|\partial f(x)/\partial x_i| = ||\nabla f(x)||_{\infty}$
- unit balls, normalized steepest descent directions for quadratic norm and ℓ_1 -norm:



Choice of norm for steepest descent





- steepest descent with backtracking line search for two quadratic norms
- ellipses show $\{x \mid ||x x^{(k)}||_P = 1\}$
- ► interpretation of steepest descent with quadratic norm $\|\cdot\|_P$: gradient descent after change of variables $\bar{x} = P^{1/2}x$
- shows choice of P has strong effect on speed of convergence

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Newton step

• Newton step is
$$\Delta x_{nt} = -\nabla^2 f(x)^{-1} \nabla f(x)$$

interpretation: $x + \Delta x_{nt}$ minimizes second order approximation

$$\widehat{f}(x+v) = f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T v + \frac{1}{2} v^T \nabla^2 f(x) v$$

$$(x, f(x))$$

$$(x + \Delta x_{nt}, f(x + \Delta x_{nt}))$$

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Another intrepretation

• $x + \Delta x_{nt}$ solves linearized optimality condition

$$\nabla f(x+v) \approx \nabla \widehat{f}(x+v) = \nabla f(x) + \nabla^2 f(x)v = 0$$

And one more interpretation

• Δx_{nt} is steepest descent direction at x in local Hessian norm $||u||_{\nabla^2 f(x)} = (u^T \nabla^2 f(x) u)^{1/2}$



► dashed lines are contour lines of *f*; ellipse is $\{x + v \mid v^T \nabla^2 f(x)v = 1\}$

• arrow shows $-\nabla f(x)$

Newton decrement

- Newton decrement is $\lambda(x) = (\nabla f(x)^T \nabla^2 f(x)^{-1} \nabla f(x))^{1/2}$
- a measure of the proximity of x to x^{\star}
- gives an estimate of $f(x) p^*$, using quadratic approximation \hat{f} :

$$f(x) - \inf_{y} \widehat{f}(y) = \frac{1}{2}\lambda(x)^{2}$$

equal to the norm of the Newton step in the quadratic Hessian norm

$$\lambda(x) = \left(\Delta x_{\rm nt}^T \nabla^2 f(x) \Delta x_{\rm nt}\right)^{1/2}$$

- directional derivative in the Newton direction: $\nabla f(x)^T \Delta x_{nt} = -\lambda(x)^2$
- affine invariant (unlike $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2$)

Newton's method

```
given a starting point x \in \text{dom} f, tolerance \epsilon > 0.
repeat
```

1. Compute the Newton step and decrement.

 $\Delta x_{\rm nt} := -\nabla^2 f(x)^{-1} \nabla f(x); \quad \lambda^2 := \nabla f(x)^T \nabla^2 f(x)^{-1} \nabla f(x).$

- 2. Stopping criterion. quit if $\lambda^2/2 \le \epsilon$.
- 3. Line search. Choose step size *t* by backtracking line search.
- 4. **Update.** $x := x + t\Delta x_{nt}$.

- affine invariant, i.e., independent of linear changes of coordinates
- Newton iterates for $\tilde{f}(y) = f(Ty)$ with starting point $y^{(0)} = T^{-1}x^{(0)}$ are $y^{(k)} = T^{-1}x^{(k)}$

Classical convergence analysis

assumptions

- f strongly convex on S with constant m
- ▶ $\nabla^2 f$ is Lipschitz continuous on *S*, with constant *L* > 0:

$$\|\nabla^2 f(x) - \nabla^2 f(y)\|_2 \le L \|x - y\|_2$$

(L measures how well f can be approximated by a quadratic function)

outline: there exist constants $\eta \in (0, m^2/L)$, $\gamma > 0$ such that

- if $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 \ge \eta$, then $f(x^{(k+1)}) f(x^{(k)}) \le -\gamma$
- if $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 < \eta$, then

$$\frac{L}{2m^2} \|\nabla f(x^{(k+1)})\|_2 \le \left(\frac{L}{2m^2} \|\nabla f(x^{(k)})\|_2\right)^2$$

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Classical convergence analysis

damped Newton phase $(\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 \ge \eta)$

- most iterations require backtracking steps
- function value decreases by at least γ
- if $p^* > -\infty$, this phase ends after at most $(f(x^{(0)}) p^*)/\gamma$ iterations

quadratically convergent phase $(\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 < \eta)$

- all iterations use step size t = 1
- ► $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2$ converges to zero quadratically: if $\|\nabla f(x^{(k)})\|_2 < \eta$, then

$$\frac{L}{2m^2} \|\nabla f(x^l)\|_2 \le \left(\frac{L}{2m^2} \|\nabla f(x^k)\|_2\right)^{2^{l-k}} \le \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2^{l-k}}, \qquad l \ge k$$

conclusion: number of iterations until $f(x) - p^* \le \epsilon$ is bounded above by

$$\frac{f(x^{(0)}) - p^{\star}}{\gamma} + \log_2 \log_2(\epsilon_0/\epsilon)$$

- γ , ϵ_0 are constants that depend on *m*, *L*, $x^{(0)}$
- second term is small (of the order of 6) and almost constant for practical purposes
- ▶ in practice, constants m, L (hence γ, ϵ_0) are usually unknown
- provides qualitative insight in convergence properties (*i.e.*, explains two algorithm phases)

Example: R²

(same problem as slide 9.13)





- backtracking parameters $\alpha = 0.1, \beta = 0.7$
- converges in only 5 steps
- quadratic local convergence

Example in \mathbf{R}^{100}

(same problem as page 9.14)



• backtracking parameters $\alpha = 0.01$, $\beta = 0.5$

- backtracking line search almost as fast as exact l.s. (and much simpler)
- clearly shows two phases in algorithm

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Example in \mathbf{R}^{10000}

(with sparse a_i)



- backtracking parameters $\alpha = 0.01$, $\beta = 0.5$.
- performance similar as for small examples

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Self-concordance

shortcomings of classical convergence analysis

- depends on unknown constants (m, L, ...)
- bound is not affinely invariant, although Newton's method is

convergence analysis via self-concordance (Nesterov and Nemirovski)

- does not depend on any unknown constants
- gives affine-invariant bound
- applies to special class of convex functions ('self-concordant' functions)
- developed to analyze polynomial-time interior-point methods for convex optimization

Self-concordant functions

definition

- convex $f : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ is self-concordant if $|f'''(x)| \le 2f''(x)^{3/2}$ for all $x \in \mathbf{dom} f$
- ► $f : \mathbf{R}^n \to \mathbf{R}$ is self-concordant if g(t) = f(x + tv) is self-concordant for all $x \in \mathbf{dom} f$, $v \in \mathbf{R}^n$

examples on R

- linear and quadratic functions
- negative logarithm $f(x) = -\log x$
- negative entropy plus negative logarithm: $f(x) = x \log x \log x$

affine invariance: if $f : \mathbf{R} \to \mathbf{R}$ is s.c., then $\tilde{f}(y) = f(ay + b)$ is s.c.:

$$\tilde{f}^{\prime\prime\prime}(y)=a^3f^{\prime\prime\prime}(ay+b),\qquad \tilde{f}^{\prime\prime}(y)=a^2f^{\prime\prime}(ay+b)$$

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Self-concordant calculus

properties

- preserved under positive scaling $\alpha \ge 1$, and sum
- preserved under composition with affine function
- if g is convex with dom $g = \mathbf{R}_{++}$ and $|g'''(x)| \le 3g''(x)/x$ then

$$f(x) = \log(-g(x)) - \log x$$

is self-concordant

examples: properties can be used to show that the following are s.c.

•
$$f(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} \log(b_i - a_i^T x)$$
 on $\{x \mid a_i^T x < b_i, i = 1, ..., m\}$
• $f(X) = -\log \det X$ on \mathbf{S}_{++}^n
• $f(x) = -\log(y^2 - x^T x)$ on $\{(x, y) \mid ||x||_2 < y\}$

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Convergence analysis for self-concordant functions

summary: there exist constants $\eta \in (0, 1/4]$, $\gamma > 0$ such that

• if $\lambda(x) > \eta$, then

$$f(x^{(k+1)}) - f(x^{(k)}) \le -\gamma$$

• if $\lambda(x) \leq \eta$, then

$$2\lambda(x^{(k+1)}) \le \left(2\lambda(x^{(k)})\right)^2$$

(η and γ only depend on backtracking parameters α , β)

complexity bound: number of Newton iterations bounded by

$$\frac{f(x^{(0)}) - p^{\star}}{\gamma} + \log_2 \log_2(1/\epsilon)$$

for $\alpha = 0.1, \beta = 0.8, \epsilon = 10^{-10}$, bound evaluates to $375(f(x^{(0)}) - p^{\star}) + 6$

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Numerical example

150 randomly generated instances of



bound of the form $c(f(x^{(0)}) - p^*) + 6$ with smaller c (empirically) valid

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main effort in each iteration: evaluate derivatives and solve Newton system

$$H\Delta x = -g$$

where $H = \nabla^2 f(x)$, $g = \nabla f(x)$

via Cholesky factorization

$$H = LL^{T}, \qquad \Delta x_{\rm nt} = -L^{-T}L^{-1}g, \qquad \lambda(x) = \|L^{-1}g\|_{2}$$

- cost $(1/3)n^3$ flops for unstructured system
- $cost \ll (1/3)n^3$ if *H* sparse, banded

example of dense Newton system with structure

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \psi_i(x_i) + \psi_0(Ax + b), \qquad H = D + A^T H_0 A$$

• assume $A \in \mathbf{R}^{p \times n}$, dense, with $p \ll n$

► *D* diagonal with diagonal elements $\psi_i''(x_i)$; $H_0 = \nabla^2 \psi_0(Ax + b)$

method 1: form *H*, solve via dense Cholesky factorization: (cost $(1/3)n^3$) **method 2** (page **??**): factor $H_0 = L_0 L_0^T$; write Newton system as

$$D\Delta x + A^T L_0 w = -g, \qquad L_0^T A\Delta x - w = 0$$

eliminate Δx from first equation; compute *w* and Δx from

$$(I + L_0^T A D^{-1} A^T L_0)w = -L_0^T A D^{-1}g, \qquad D\Delta x = -g - A^T L_0 w$$

cost: $2p^2n$ (dominated by computation of $L_0^T A D^{-1} A^T L_0$)

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