# **Second Order Optimization Algorithms I**

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Chapters 7, 8, 9 and 10

### The 1.5-Order Algorithm: Conjugate Gradient Method I

The second-order information is used but no need to inverse it.

- 0) Initialization: Given initial solution  $\mathbf{x}^0$ . Let  $\mathbf{g}^0 = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^0)$ ,  $\mathbf{d}^0 = -\mathbf{g}^0$  and k = 0.
- 1) Iterate Update:

$$\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \mathbf{x}^k + \alpha^k \mathbf{d}^k, \text{ where } \alpha^k = \frac{-(\mathbf{g}^k)^T \mathbf{d}^k}{(\mathbf{d}^k)^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^k) \mathbf{d}^k}.$$

2) Compute Conjugate Direction: Compute  $\mathbf{g}^{k+1} = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{k+1})$ . Unless k = n - 1:

$$\mathbf{d}^{k+1} = -\mathbf{g}^{k+1} + \beta^k \mathbf{d}^k \quad \text{where} \quad \beta^k = \frac{(\mathbf{g}^{k+1})^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^k) \mathbf{d}^k}{(\mathbf{d}^k)^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^k) \mathbf{d}^k}$$

and set k = k + 1 and go to Step 1.

3) Restart: Replace  $\mathbf{x}^0$  by  $\mathbf{x}^n$  and go to Step 0.

For convex quadratic minimization, this process end in no more than 1 round.

### The 1.5 Order Algorithm: Conjugate Gradient Method II

The information of the Hessian is learned (more on this later):

- 0) Initialization: Given initial solution  $\mathbf{x}^0$ . Let  $\mathbf{g}^0 = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^0)$ ,  $\mathbf{d}^0 = -\mathbf{g}^0$  and k = 0.
- 1) Iterate Update:

$$\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \mathbf{x}^k + \alpha^k \mathbf{d}^k$$

where one-dimensional search of  $\alpha^k$  is applied.

2) Compute Conjugate Direction: Compute  $\mathbf{g}^{k+1} = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{k+1})$ . Unless k = n - 1:

$$\mathbf{d}^{k+1} = -\mathbf{g}^{k+1} + \beta^k \mathbf{d}^k$$

where 
$$\beta^k = \frac{\|\mathbf{g}^{k+1}\|^2}{\|\mathbf{g}^k\|^2}$$
 or  $\beta^k = \frac{(\mathbf{g}^{k+1} - \mathbf{g}^k)^T \mathbf{g}^{k+1}}{\|\mathbf{g}^k\|^2}.$ 

and set k = k + 1 and go to Step 1.

3) Restart: Replace  $\mathbf{x}^0$  by  $\mathbf{x}^n$  and go to Step 0.

### **Bisection Method: First Order Method**

For a one variable problem, an KKT point is the root of g(x) := f'(x) = 0.

Assume we know an interval  $[a \ b]$  such that a < b, and g(a)g(b) < 0. Then we know there exists an  $x^*$ ,  $a < x^* < b$ , such that  $g(x^*) = 0$ ; that is, interval  $[a \ b]$  contains a root of g. How do we find x within an error tolerance  $\epsilon$ , that is,  $|x - x^*| \le \epsilon$ ?

- 0) Initialization: let  $x_l = a, x_r = b$ .
- 1) Let  $x_m = (x_l + x_r)/2$ , and evaluate  $g(x_m)$ .
- 2) If  $g(x_m) = 0$  or  $x_r x_l < \epsilon$  stop and output  $x^* = x_m$ . Otherwise, if  $g(x_l)g(x_m) > 0$  set  $x_l = x_m$ ; else set  $x_r = x_m$ ; and return to Step 1.

The length of the new interval containing a root after one bisection step is 1/2 which gives the linear convergence rate is 1/2.



Figure 1: Illustration of Bisection

### **Golden Section Method: Zero Order Method**

Assume that the one variable function f(x) is Unimodel in interval  $[a \ b]$ , that is, for any point  $x \in [a_r \ b_l]$  such that  $a \le a_r < b_l \le b$ , we have that  $f(x) \le \max\{f(a_r), f(b_l)\}$ . How do we find  $x^*$  within an error tolerance  $\epsilon$ ?

- 0) Initialization: let  $x_l = a$ ,  $x_r = b$ , and choose a constant 0 < r < 0.5;
- 1) Let two other points  $\hat{x}_l = x_l + r(x_r x_l)$  and  $\hat{x}_r = x_l + (1 r)(x_r x_l)$ , and evaluate their function values.
- 2) Update the triple points  $x_r = \hat{x}_r, \hat{x}_r = \hat{x}_l, x_l = x_l$  if  $f(\hat{x}_l) < f(\hat{x}_r)$ ; otherwise update the triple points  $x_l = \hat{x}_l, \hat{x}_l = \hat{x}_r, x_r = x_r$ ; and return to Step 1.

In either cases, the length of the new interval after one golden section step is (1 - r). If we set (1 - 2r)/(1 - r) = r, then only one point is new in each step and needs to be evaluated. This give r = 0.382 and the linear convergence rate is 0.618.



Figure 2: Illustration of Golden Section

#### Newton's Method: A Second Order Method

For functions of a single real variable x, the KKT condition is g(x) := f'(x) = 0. When f is twice continuously differentiable then g is once continuously differentiable, Newton's method can be a very effective way to solve such equations and hence to locate a root of g. Given a starting point  $x^0$ , Newton's method for solving the equation g(x) = 0 is to generate the sequence of iterates

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \frac{g(x^k)}{g'(x^k)}.$$

The iteration is well defined provided that  $g'(x^k) \neq 0$  at each step.

For multi-variables, Newton's method for minimizing  $f(\mathbf{x})$  is defined as

$$\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \mathbf{x}^k - (\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^k))^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k).$$

We now introduce the second-order  $\beta$ -Lipschitz condition: for any point x and direction vector d

$$\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{d}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{d}\| \le \beta \|\mathbf{d}\|^2.$$

In the following, for notation simplicity, we use  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x})$  and  $\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})$ .

#### Local Convergence Theorem of Newton's Method

**Theorem 1** Let  $f(\mathbf{x})$  be  $\beta$ -Lipschitz and the smallest absolute eigenvalue of its Hessian uniformly bounded below by  $\lambda_{min} > 0$ . Then, provided that  $\|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|$  is sufficiently small, the sequence generated by Newton's method converges quadratically to  $\mathbf{x}^*$  that is a KKT solution with  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^*) = \mathbf{0}$ .

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\| &= \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^* - \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)^{-1} \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)\| \\ &= \|\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)^{-1} \left( \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k) - \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)(\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*) \right) \| \\ &= \|\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)^{-1} \left( \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^*) - \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)(\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*) \right) \| \\ &\leq \|\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)^{-1}\| \|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^*) - \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)(\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*) \| \\ &\leq \|\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)^{-1}\| \beta \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*\|^2 \leq \frac{\beta}{\lambda_{min}} \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, when  $\frac{\beta}{\lambda_{min}} \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^*\| < 1$ , the quadratic convergence takes place:

$$\frac{\beta}{\lambda_{min}} \|\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\| \le \left(\frac{\beta}{\lambda_{min}} \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*\|\right)^2$$

Such a starting solution  $\mathbf{x}^0$  is called an approximate root of  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})$ .

#### How to Check a Point being an Approximate Root

**Theorem 2** (Smale 86). Let g(x) be an analytic function. Then, if x in the domain of g satisfies

$$\sup_{k>1} \left| \frac{g^{(k)}(x)}{k!g'(x)} \right|^{1/(k-1)} \le (1/8) \left| \frac{g'(x)}{g(x)} \right|.$$

Then, x is an approximate root of g.

In the following, for simplicity, let the root be in interval  $\begin{bmatrix} 0 & R \end{bmatrix}$ .

**Corollary 1** (Y. 92). Let g(x) be an analytic function in  $R^{++}$  and let g be convex and monotonically decreasing. Furthermore, for  $x \in R^{++}$  and k > 1 let

$$\left|\frac{g^{(k)}(x)}{k!g'(x)}\right|^{1/(k-1)} \le \frac{\alpha}{8}\mathbf{x}^{-1}$$

for some constant  $\alpha > 0$ . Then, if the root  $\bar{x} \in [\hat{x}, (1 + 1/\alpha)\hat{x}] \subset R^{++}$ ,  $\hat{x}$  is an approximate root of g.

# Hybrid of Bisection and Newton I

Note that the interval becomes wider and wider at geometric rate when  $\hat{x}$  is increased.

Thus, we may symbolically construct a sequence of points:

$$\hat{x}_0 = \epsilon, \ \hat{x}_1 = (1 + 1/\alpha)\hat{x}_0, ..., \ \text{and} \ \hat{x}_j = (1 + 1/\alpha)\hat{x}_{j-1}, ...$$

until  $\hat{x}_j = \hat{x}_J \ge R$ . Obviously the total number of points, J, of these points is bounded by  $O(\log(R/\epsilon))$ . Moreover, define a sequence of intervals

$$I_j = [\hat{x}_{j-1}, \hat{x}_j] = [\hat{x}_{j-1}, (1+1/\alpha)\hat{x}_{j-1}].$$

Then, if the root  $\bar{x}$  of g is in any one of these intervals, say in  $I_j$ , then the front point  $\hat{x}_{j-1}$  of the interval is an approximate root of g so that starting from it Newton's method generates an x with  $|x - \bar{x}| \le \epsilon$  in  $O(\log \log(1/\epsilon))$  iterations.

# Hybrid of Bisection and Newton II

Now the question is how to identify the interval that contains  $\bar{x}$ ?

This time, we bisect the number of intervals, that is, evaluate function value at point  $\hat{x}_{j_m}$  where  $j_m = [J/2]$ . Thus, each bisection reduces the total number of the intervals by a half. Since the total number of intervals is  $O(\log(R/\epsilon))$ , in at most  $O(\log\log(R/\epsilon))$  bisection steps we shall locate the interval that contains  $\bar{x}$ .

Then the total number iterations, including both bisection and Newton methods, is  $O(\log \log(R/\epsilon))$  iterations.

Here we take advantage of the global convergence property of Bisection and local quadratic convergence property of Newton, and we would see more of these features later...

(2)

### **Spherical Constrained Nonconvex Quadratic Minimization I**

min 
$$\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^T Q \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$$
, s.t.  $\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 = 1$ .

where  $Q \in S^n$  is any symmetric data matrix. If c = 0 this problem becomes finding the least eigenvalue of Q.

The necessary and sufficient condition (can be proved using SDP) for  $\mathbf{x}$  being a global minimizer of the problem is

$$(Q + \lambda I)\mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{c}, \ (Q + \lambda I) \succeq \mathbf{0}, \ \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 = 1,$$

which implies  $\lambda \ge -\lambda_{min}(Q) > 0$  where  $\lambda_{min}(Q)$  is the least eigenvalue of Q. If the optimal  $\lambda^* = -\lambda_{min}(Q)$ , then  $\mathbf{c}$  must be orthogonal to the  $\lambda_{min}(Q)$ -eigenvector, and it can be checked using the power algorithm.

The minimal objective value:

$$\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{T}Q\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c}^{T}\mathbf{x} = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{x}^{T}(Q + \lambda I)\mathbf{x} - \frac{1}{2}\lambda \|\mathbf{x}\|^{2} = -\frac{\lambda}{2},$$

### Sphere Constrained Nonconvex Quadratic Minimization II

WLOG, Let us assume that the least eigenvalue is 0. Then we must have  $\lambda \ge 0$ . If the optimal  $\lambda^* = 0$ , then c must be a 0-eigenvector of Q, and it can be checked using the power algorithm to find it. Therefore, we assume that the optimal  $\lambda > 0$ .

Furthermore, there is an upper bound on  $\lambda$ :

$$\lambda \leq \lambda \|\mathbf{x}\|^2 \leq \mathbf{x}^T (Q + \lambda I) \mathbf{x} = -\mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x} \leq \|\mathbf{c}\| \|\mathbf{x}\| = \|\mathbf{c}\|.$$

Now let  $\mathbf{x}(\lambda) = -(Q + \lambda I)^{-1}\mathbf{c}$ , the problem becomes finding the root of  $\|\mathbf{x}(\lambda)\|^2 = 1$ .

**Lemma 1** The analytic function  $\|\mathbf{x}(\lambda)\|^2$  is convex monotonically decreasing with  $\alpha = 12$  in Corollary 1.

**Theorem 3** The 1-spherical constrained quadratic minimization can be computed in  $O(\log \log(||\mathbf{c}||/\epsilon))$  iterations where each iteration costs  $O(n^3)$  arithmetic operations.

What about 2-spherical constrained quadratic minimization, that is, quadratic minimization with 2 ellipsoidal constraints?

# Second Order Method for Minimizing Lipschitz $f(\mathbf{x})$

Recall the second-order  $\beta$ -Lipschitz condition: for any two points x and y

$$\|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{d}) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{d}\| \le \beta \|\mathbf{d}\|^2,$$

which further implies

$$f(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{d}) - f(\mathbf{x}) \le \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{d} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{d}^T \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{d} + \frac{\beta}{3} \|\mathbf{d}\|^3.$$

The second-order method, at the *k*th iterate, would let  $\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \mathbf{x}^k + \mathbf{d}^k$  where

$$\mathbf{d}^{k} = \arg \min_{\mathbf{d}} \quad (\mathbf{c}^{k})^{T} \mathbf{d} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{d}^{T} Q^{k} \mathbf{d} + \frac{\beta}{3} \alpha^{3}$$
  
s.t.  $\|\mathbf{d}\| \le \alpha$ ,

with  $\mathbf{c}^k = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)$  and  $Q^k = \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)$ . One typically fixed  $\alpha$  to a "trusted' radius  $\alpha^k$  so that it becomes a sphere-constrained problem (the inequality is normally active if the Hessian is non PSD):

$$(Q^k + \lambda^k I)\mathbf{d}^k = -\mathbf{c}^k, \ (Q^k + \lambda^k I) \succeq \mathbf{0}, \ \|\mathbf{d}^k\|_2^2 = (\alpha^k)^2.$$

### **Convergence Speed of the Second Order Method**

A naive choice would be  $\alpha^k = \sqrt{\epsilon}/\beta$ . Then from reduction (2)

$$f(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}) - f(\mathbf{x}^k) \le -\frac{\lambda^k}{2} \|\mathbf{d}^k\|^2 + \frac{\beta}{3} (\alpha^k)^3 = -\frac{\lambda^k (\alpha^k)^2}{2} + \frac{\beta}{3} (\alpha^k)^3 = -\frac{\lambda^k \epsilon}{2\beta^2} + \frac{\epsilon^{3/2}}{3\beta^2}.$$

Also

$$\begin{aligned} |\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k+1})| &= \|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}) - (\mathbf{c}^k + Q^k \mathbf{d}^k) + (\mathbf{c}^k + Q^k \mathbf{d}^k)\| \\ &\leq \|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}) - (\mathbf{c}^k + Q^k \mathbf{d}^k)\| + \|(\mathbf{c}^k + Q^k \mathbf{d}^k)\| \\ &\leq \beta \|\mathbf{d}^k\|^2 + \lambda^k \|\mathbf{d}^k\| = \beta (\alpha^k)^2 + \lambda^k \alpha^k = \frac{\epsilon}{\beta} + \frac{\lambda^k \sqrt{\epsilon}}{\beta}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, one can stop the algorithm as soon as  $\lambda^k = \sqrt{\epsilon}$  so that the inequality becomes  $\|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k+1})\| \leq \frac{2\epsilon}{\beta}$ . Furthermore,  $|\lambda_{min}(\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k))| \leq \lambda^k = \sqrt{\epsilon}$ .

**Theorem 4** Let the objective function  $p^* = \inf f(\mathbf{x})$  be finite. Then in  $\frac{O(\beta^2(f(\mathbf{x}^0) - p^*))}{\epsilon^{1.5}}$  iterations of the second-order method, the norm of the gradient vector is less than  $\epsilon$  and the Hessian is  $\sqrt{\epsilon}$ -positive semidefinite.

# Would Convexity Help?

Before we answer this question, let's summarize a generic form one iteration of the Second Order Method for solving  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ :

$$(\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k) + \lambda I)(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k) = -\gamma \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k), \text{ or}$$
$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k) + \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k) + \lambda(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^k) = (1 - \gamma)\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k).$$

Many interpretations: when

- $\gamma = 1, \lambda = 0$ : pure Newton;
- $\gamma$  and  $\lambda$  are sufficiently large: SDM;
- $\gamma = 1$  and  $\lambda$  decreases to 0: Homotopy or path-following method.

The Quasi-Newton Method More generally:

$$\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x}^k - \alpha^k S^k \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k),$$

for a symmetric matrix  $S^k$  with a step-size  $\alpha^k$ .

### The Quasi-Newton Method

For convex qudratic minimization, the convergnece rate becomes  $\left(\frac{\lambda_{max}(S^kQ) - \lambda_{min}(S^kQ)}{\lambda_{max}(S^kQ) + \lambda_{min}(S^kQ)}\right)^2$  where  $\lambda_{max}$  and  $\lambda_{min}$  represent the largest and smallest eigenvalues of a matrix.

 $S^k$  can be viewed as a Preconditioner-typically an approximation of the Hessian matrix inverse, and can be learned from a regression model:

$$\mathbf{q}^{k} := \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k}) = Q(\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^{k}) = Q\mathbf{d}^{k}, \ k = 0, 1, \dots$$

We actually learn  $Q^{-1}$  from  $Q^{-1}\mathbf{q}^k = \mathbf{d}_k$ , k = 0, 1, ... The process start with  $H^k$ , k = 0, 1, ..., where the rank of  $H^k$  is k, that is, we each step lean a rank-one update: given  $H^{k-1}$ ,  $\mathbf{q}^k$ ,  $\mathbf{d}^k$  we solve

$$(H^{k-1} + \mathbf{h}^k (\mathbf{h}^k)^T) \mathbf{q}^k = \mathbf{d}^k$$

for vector  $\mathbf{h}^k$ . Then after n iterations, we build up  $H^n = Q^{-1}$ .

You also "learnig while doing":  $\mathbf{x}^{k+1} = \mathbf{x}^k - \alpha^k (\frac{n-k}{n}I + \frac{k}{n}H^k)\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)$ , which is similar to the Conjugate Gradient method.

We now give a confirmation answer: convexity helps a lot in Second-Order methods.

#### A Path-Following Algorithm for Unconstrained Optimization I

We assume that f is convex and meet a local Lipschitz condition: for any point  ${\bf x}$  and a  $\beta \geq 1$ 

$$\|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{d}) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{d}\| \le \beta \mathbf{d}^T \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x})\mathbf{d}, \text{ whenever } \|\mathbf{d}\| \le O(1)$$
 (3)

and  $\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{d}$  in the function domain. We start from a solution  $\mathbf{x}^k$  that approximately satisfies

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) + \lambda \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}, \quad \text{with} \quad \lambda = \lambda^k > 0.$$
 (4)

Such a solution  $\mathbf{x}(\lambda)$  exists for any  $\lambda > 0$  because it is the (unique) optimal solution for problem

$$\mathbf{x}(\lambda) = rg\min f(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|^2$$

and they form a path down to  $\mathbf{x}(0)$ . Let the approximation path error at  $\mathbf{x}^k$  with  $\lambda = \lambda^k$  be

$$\|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k) + \lambda^k \mathbf{x}^k\| \le \frac{1}{2\beta} \lambda^k.$$

Then, we like to compute a new iterate  $\mathbf{x}^{k+1}$  such that

$$\|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k+1}) + \lambda^{k+1}\mathbf{x}^{k+1}\| \le \frac{1}{2\beta}\lambda^{k+1}, \quad \text{where } 0 \le \lambda^{k+1} < \lambda^k.$$

(5)

### A Path-Following Algorithm for Unconstrained Optimization II

When  $\lambda^k$  is replaced by  $\lambda^{k+1}$ , say  $(1 - \eta)\lambda^k$  for some  $\eta \in (0, 1]$ , we aim to find a solution  $\mathbf{x}$  such that

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) + (1 - \eta)\lambda^k \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0},$$

we start from  $\mathbf{x}^k$  and apply the Newton iteration:

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k) + \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)\mathbf{d} + (1-\eta)\lambda^k(\mathbf{x}^k + \mathbf{d}) = \mathbf{0}, \text{ or}$$
$$\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)\mathbf{d} + (1-\eta)\lambda^k\mathbf{d} = -\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k) - (1-\eta)\lambda^k\mathbf{x}^k.$$

From the second expression, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \|\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k})\mathbf{d} + (1-\eta)\lambda^{k}\mathbf{d}\| &= \|-\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k}) - (1-\eta)\lambda^{k}\mathbf{x}^{k}\| \\ &= \|-\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k}) - \lambda^{k}\mathbf{x}^{k} + \eta\lambda^{k}\mathbf{x}^{k}\| \\ &\leq \|-\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k}) - \lambda^{k}\mathbf{x}^{k}\| + \eta\lambda^{k}\|\mathbf{x}^{k}\| \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2\beta}\lambda^{k} + \eta\lambda^{k}\|\mathbf{x}^{k}\|. \end{aligned}$$
(6)

On the other hand

 $\|\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)\mathbf{d} + (1-\eta)\lambda^k\mathbf{d}\|^2 = \|\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)\mathbf{d}\|^2 + 2(1-\eta)\lambda^k\mathbf{d}^T\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)\mathbf{d} + ((1-\eta)\lambda^k)^2\|\mathbf{d}\|^2.$ 

From convexity,  $\mathbf{d}^T \| \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k) \mathbf{d} \ge 0$ , together with (6) we have

$$\begin{aligned} ((1-\eta)\lambda^k)^2 \|\mathbf{d}\|^2 &\leq (\frac{1}{2\beta} + \eta \|\mathbf{x}^k\|)^2 (\lambda^k)^2 \quad \text{and} \\ 2(1-\eta)\lambda^k \mathbf{d}^T \|\nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^k)\mathbf{d} &\leq (\frac{1}{2\beta} + \eta \|\mathbf{x}^k\|)^2 (\lambda^k)^2. \end{aligned}$$

The first inequality implies

$$\|\mathbf{d}\|^2 \le (\frac{1}{2\beta(1-\eta)} + \frac{\eta}{1-\eta} \|\mathbf{x}^k\|)^2.$$

Let the new iterate be  $\mathbf{x}^+ = \mathbf{x}^k + \mathbf{d}$ . The second inequality implies

$$\begin{aligned} \|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{+}) + (1-\eta)\lambda^{k}\mathbf{x}^{+}\| \\ &= \|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{+}) - (\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k}) + \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k})\mathbf{d}) + (\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k}) + \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k})\mathbf{d}) + (1-\eta)\lambda^{k}(\mathbf{x}^{k} + \mathbf{d})\| \\ &= \|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{+}) - \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k}) + \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k})\mathbf{d}\| \\ &\leq \beta \mathbf{d}^{T} \nabla \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{k})\mathbf{d} \leq \frac{\beta}{2(1-\eta)} (\frac{1}{2\beta} + \eta \|\mathbf{x}^{k}\|)^{2} \lambda^{k}. \end{aligned}$$

We now just need to choose  $\eta \in (0,\ 1)$  such that

$$\begin{array}{rcl} (\frac{1}{2\beta(1-\eta)} + \frac{\eta}{1-\eta} \|\mathbf{x}^k\|)^2 &\leq 1 \quad \text{and} \\ & \frac{\beta\lambda^k}{2(1-\eta)} (\frac{1}{2\beta} + \eta \|\mathbf{x}^k\|)^2 &\leq & \frac{1}{2\beta} (1-\eta)\lambda^k = \frac{1}{2\beta} \lambda^{k+1}. \end{array}$$

For example, given  $\beta \geq 1$ ,

$$\eta = \frac{1}{2\beta(1 + \|\mathbf{x}^k\|)}$$

would suffice.

This would give a linear convergence since  $||\mathbf{x}^k||$  is typically bounded following the path to the optimality, while the covergence in non-convex case is only arithmetic.

Convexity, together with some types of second-order methods, make convex optimization solvers into practical technoloies.