

Introduction to large-scale optimization

(Lecture 2)

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Course materials

- <http://svr.it.de/teach/msr2015/>
- Some references:
 - *Introductory lectures on convex optimization* – Nesterov
 - *Convex optimization* – Boyd & Vandenberghe
 - *Nonlinear programming* – Bertsekas
 - *Convex Analysis* – Rockafellar
 - *Fundamentals of convex analysis* – Urruty, Lemaréchal
 - *Lectures on modern convex optimization* – Nemirovski
 - *Optimization for Machine Learning* – Sra, Nowozin, Wright
- Some related courses:
 - EE227A, Spring 2013, (UC Berkeley)
 - 10-801, Spring 2014 (CMU)
 - EE364a,b (Boyd, Stanford)
 - EE236b,c (Vandenberghe, UCLA)
- NIPS, ICML, UAI, AISTATS, SIOPT, Math. Prog.

Outline

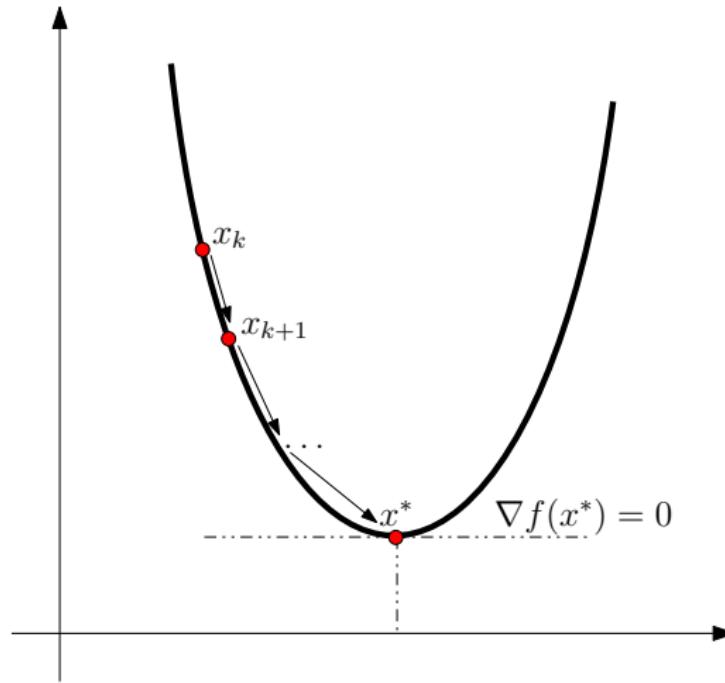
- Recap on convexity
- Recap on duality, optimality
- First-order optimization algorithms
- Proximal methods, operator splitting
- Incremental methods
- High-level view of parallel, distributed
- Some words on nonconvex

Descent methods

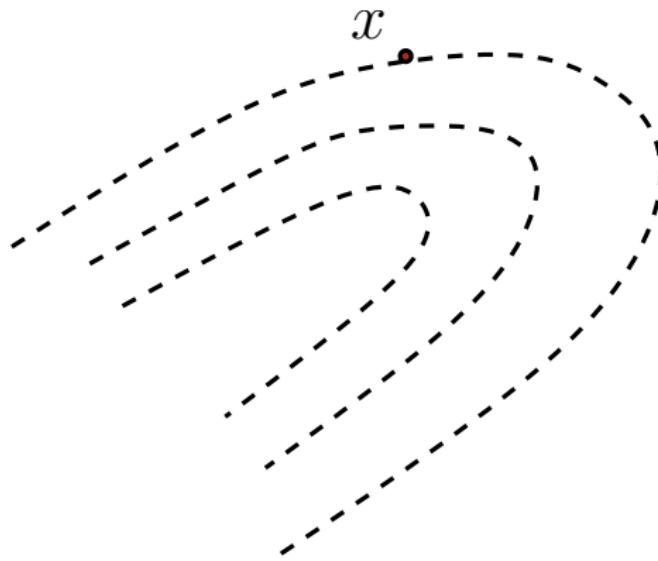
$$\min_x f(x)$$

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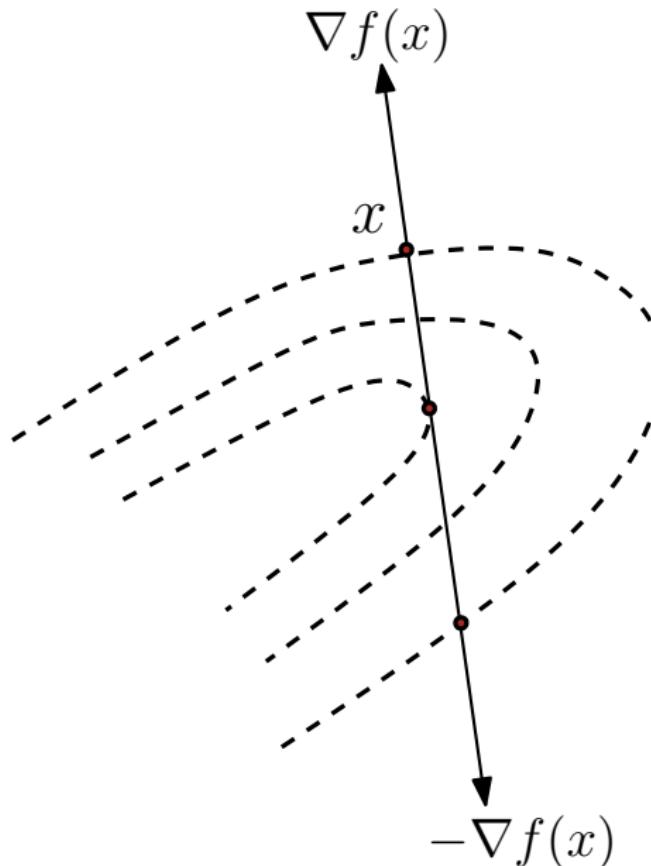
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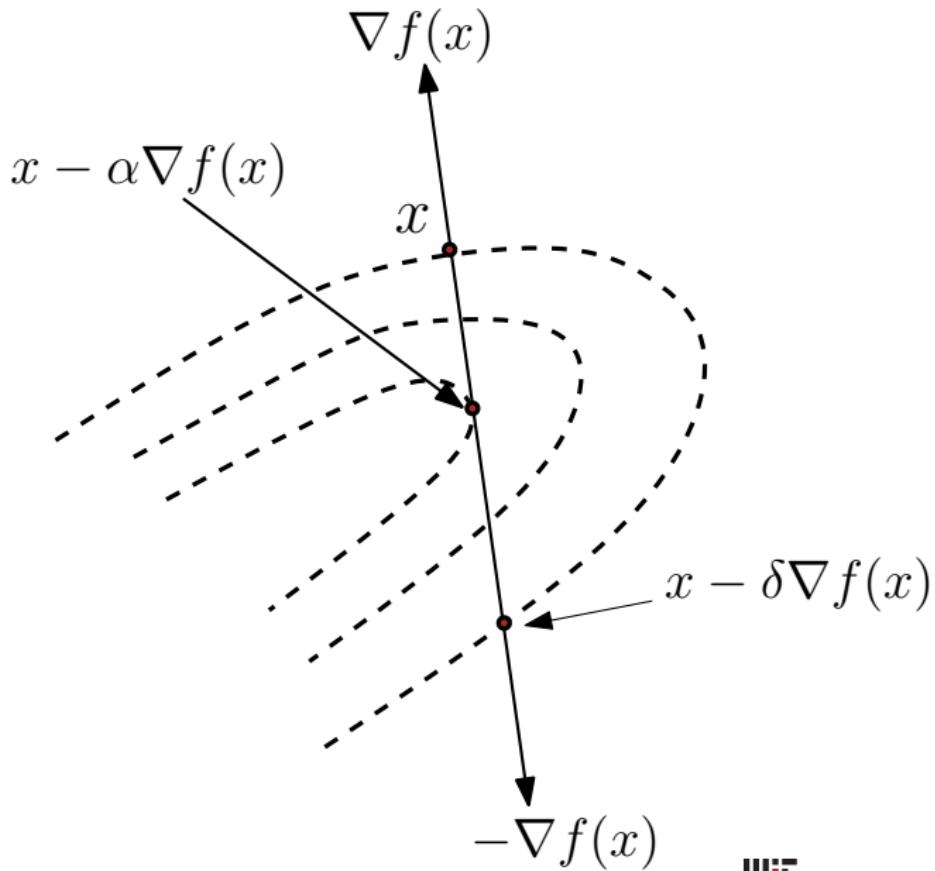
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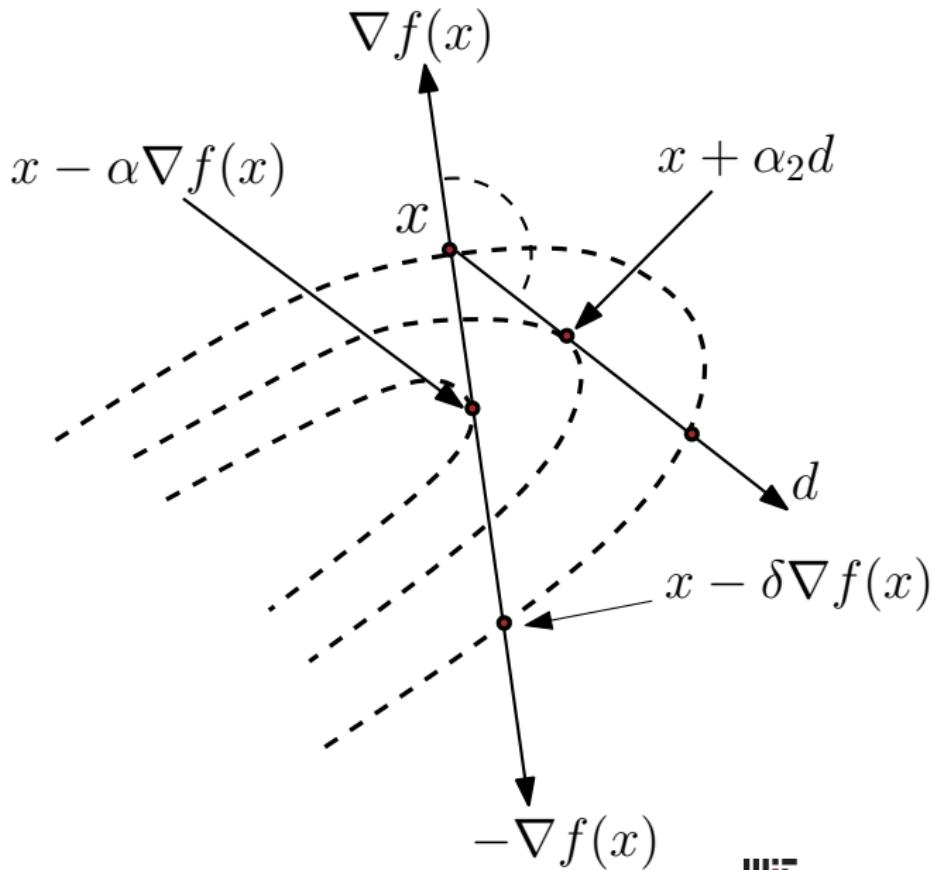
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Descent methods



Algorithm

- 1 Start with some guess x^0 ;
- 2 For each $k = 0, 1, \dots$
 - $x^{k+1} \leftarrow x^k + \alpha_k d^k$
 - Check when to stop (e.g., if $\nabla f(x^{k+1}) = 0$)

Gradient methods

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \alpha_k d^k, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

- **stepsize** $\alpha_k \geq 0$, usually ensures $f(x^{k+1}) < f(x^k)$

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Numerous ways to select α_k and d^k

Usually methods **seek monotonic descent**

$$f(x^{k+1}) < f(x^k)$$

Gradient methods – direction

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \alpha_k d^k, \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

► Different choices of direction d^k

- **Scaled gradient:** $d^k = -D^k \nabla f(x^k)$, $D^k \succ 0$
- **Newton's method:** ($D^k = [\nabla^2 f(x^k)]^{-1}$)
- **Quasi-Newton:** $D^k \approx [\nabla^2 f(x^k)]^{-1}$
- **Steepest descent:** $D^k = I$
- **Diagonally scaled:** D^k diagonal with $D_{ii}^k \approx \left(\frac{\partial^2 f(x^k)}{(\partial x_i)^2} \right)^{-1}$
- **Discretized Newton:** $D^k = [H(x^k)]^{-1}$, H via finite-diff.

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- ...

Exercise: Verify that $\langle \nabla f(x^k), d^k \rangle < 0$ for above choices

Gradient methods – stepsize

- **Exact:** $\alpha_k := \underset{\alpha \geq 0}{\operatorname{argmin}} f(x^k + \alpha d^k)$

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- ▶ **Limited min:** $\alpha_k = \underset{0 \leq \alpha \leq s}{\operatorname{argmin}} f(x^k + \alpha d^k)$
- ▶ **Armijo-rule.** Given **fixed** scalars, s, β, σ with $0 < \beta < 1$ and $0 < \sigma < 1$ (chosen experimentally). Set

$$\alpha_k = \beta^{m_k} s,$$

where we **try** $\beta^m s$ for $m = 0, 1, \dots$ until **sufficient descent**

$$f(x^k) - f(x + \beta^m s d^k) \geq -\sigma \beta^m s \langle \nabla f(x^k), d^k \rangle$$

- ▶ **Constant:** $\alpha_k = 1/L$ (for suitable value of L)
- ▶ **Diminishing:** $\alpha_k \rightarrow 0$ but $\sum_k \alpha_k = \infty$.

Convergence

Assumption: Lipschitz continuous gradient; denoted $f \in C_L^1$

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- ♣ Objective function has “bounded curvature”
- ♣ Speed at which gradient varies is bounded

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Lemma (Descent). Let $f \in C_L^1$. Then,

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{L}{2}\|y - x\|_2^2$$

Theorem Let $f \in C_L^1$ and $\{x^k\}$ be sequence generated as above, with $\alpha_k = 1/L$. Then, $f(x^{k+1}) - f(x^*) = O(1/k)$.

Linear convergence

Assumption: Strong convexity; denote $f \in S_{L,\mu}^1$

$$f(x) \geq f(y) + \langle \nabla f(y), x - y \rangle + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - y\|_2^2$$

- Setting $\alpha_k = 2/(\mu + L)$ yields linear rate ($\mu > 0$)

Strongly convex – linear rate

Theorem. If $f \in S_{L,\mu}^1$, $0 < \alpha < 2/(L + \mu)$, then the gradient method generates a sequence $\{x^k\}$ that satisfies

$$\|x^k - x^*\|_2^2 \leq \left(1 - \frac{2\alpha\mu L}{\mu + L}\right)^k \|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2.$$

Moreover, if $\alpha = 2/(L + \mu)$ then

$$f(x^k) - f^* \leq \frac{L}{2} \left(\frac{\kappa - 1}{\kappa + 1}\right)^{2k} \|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2,$$

where $\kappa = L/\mu$ is the **condition number**.

Gradient methods – lower bounds

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x^k)$$

Theorem Lower bound I (Nesterov) For any $x^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $1 \leq k \leq \frac{1}{2}(n - 1)$, there is a **smooth** f , s.t.

$$f(x^k) - f(x^*) \geq \frac{3L\|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2}{32(k + 1)^2}$$

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Theorem Lower bound II (Nesterov). For class of **smooth, strongly convex**, i.e., $S_{L,\mu}^\infty$ ($\mu > 0$, $\kappa > 1$)

$$f(x^k) - f(x^*) \geq \frac{\mu}{2} \left(\frac{\sqrt{\kappa} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa} + 1} \right)^{2k} \|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2.$$

Nonsmooth opt.

Subgradient method

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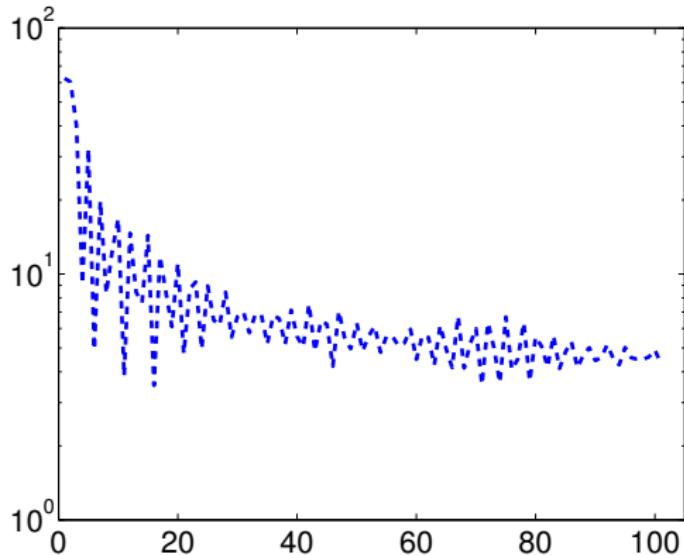
where $g^k \in \partial f(x^k)$ is **any** subgradient

Stepsize $\alpha_k > 0$ must be chosen

- ▶ Method generates sequence $\{x^k\}_{k \geq 0}$
- ▶ Does this sequence converge to an optimal solution x^* ?
- ▶ If yes, then how fast?
- ▶ What if have constraints: $x \in \mathcal{X}$?

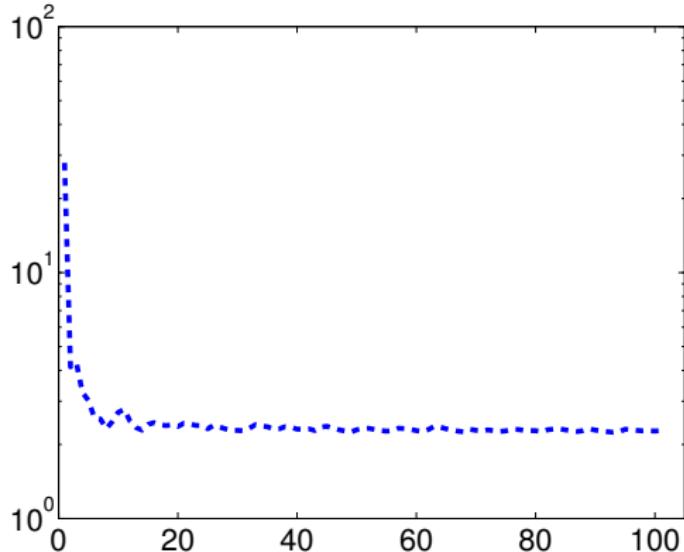
Example

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1 \\ x^{k+1} = & x^k - \alpha_k (A^T(Ax^k - b) + \lambda \operatorname{sgn}(x^k)) \end{aligned}$$



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(More careful implementation)

Subgradient method – stepsizes

- ▶ **Constant** Set $\alpha_k = \alpha > 0$, for $k \geq 0$
- ▶ **Scaled constant** $\alpha_k = \alpha / \|g^k\|_2$ ($\|x^{k+1} - x^k\|_2 = \alpha$)

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- ▶ **Square summable but not summable**

$$\sum_k \alpha_k^2 < \infty, \quad \sum_k \alpha_k = \infty$$

- ▶ **Diminishing scalar**

$$\lim_k \alpha_k = 0, \quad \sum_k \alpha_k = \infty$$

- ▶ **Adaptive stepsizes** (not covered)

Not a descent method!

Work with best f^k so far: $f_{\min}^k := \min_{0 \leq i \leq k} f^i$

Exercise

Support vector machines

- ▶ Let $\mathcal{D} := \{(x_i, y_i) \mid x_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, y_i \in \{\pm 1\}\}$
- ▶ We wish to find $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$\min_{w,b} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|w\|_2^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^m \max[0, 1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b)]$$

- ▶ Derive and implement a subgradient method
- ▶ Plot evolution of objective function
- ▶ Experiment with different values of $C > 0$
- ▶ Plot and keep track of $f_{\min}^k := \min_{0 \leq t \leq k} f(x^t)$

Nonsmooth complexity

- ▶ Let $\phi(x) = |x|$ for $x \in \mathbb{R}$

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- ▶ If $x^0 = 1$ and $\alpha_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k+1}} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{k+2}}$ (this stepsize is known to be optimal), then $|x^k| = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k+1}}$

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Can we do better in general?

Nonsmooth complexity

Theorem (Nesterov.) Let $\mathcal{B} = \{x \mid \|x - x^0\|_2 \leq D\}$. Assume, $x^* \in \mathcal{B}$. There exists a convex function f in $C_L^0(\mathcal{B})$ (with $L > 0$), such that for $0 \leq k \leq n - 1$, the lower-bound

$$f(x^k) - f(x^*) \geq \frac{LD}{2(1+\sqrt{k+1})},$$

holds for **any algorithm** that generates x^k by linearly combining the previous iterates and subgradients.

Constrained problems

Constrained optimization

$$\min \quad f(x) \quad \text{s.t.} \quad x \in \mathcal{X}$$

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- Previously: $x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha_t g^t$
- This could be infeasible!

Projected subgradient method

$$x^{k+1} = P_{\mathcal{X}}(x^k - \alpha_k g^k)$$

where $g^k \in \partial f(x^k)$ is any subgradient

- **Projection:** closest feasible point

$$P_{\mathcal{X}}(y) = \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \|x - y\|^2$$

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- **Projection:** closest feasible point

$$P_{\mathcal{X}}(y) = \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \|x - y\|^2$$

- Great as long as projection is “easy”
- Same questions as before:
 - Does it converge?
 - For which stepsizes?
 - How fast?

Examples

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & \frac{1}{2} \|Ax - b\|_2^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1 \\ \text{s.t. } & x \in \mathcal{X} \end{aligned}$$

- **Nonnegativity** $x \geq 0$

$$P_{\mathcal{X}}(z) = [z]_+$$

Update step: $x^{k+1} = [x^k - \alpha_k(A^T(Ax^k - b) + \lambda \operatorname{sgn}(x^k))]_+$

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Projection: $\min \|x - z\|^2$ s.t. $x \leq 1$ and $x \geq -1$

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Update step:

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$$x_i^{k+1} = \operatorname{sgn}(z_i^{k+1}) \min\{|z_i^{k+1}|, 1\}$$

Examples

- **Linear constraints** $Ax = b$ ($A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ has rank n)

$$\begin{aligned}P_{\mathcal{X}}(y) &= y - A^T(AA^T)^{-1}(Ay - b) \\&= (I - A^T(A^TA)^{-1}A)y + A^T(AA^T)^{-1}b\end{aligned}$$

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- **Simplex** $x^T 1 = 1$ and $x \geq 0$
more complex but doable in $O(n)$, similarly ℓ_1 -norm ball

Subgradient method – remarks

- ▶ Why care?
 - simple
 - low-memory
 - large-scale versions possible

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- ▶ Another perspective

$$x^{k+1} = \min_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \langle x, g^k \rangle + \frac{1}{2\alpha_k} \|x - x_k\|^2$$

Mirror Descent

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- ▶ Improvements using more information (heavy-ball, filtered subgradient, ...)

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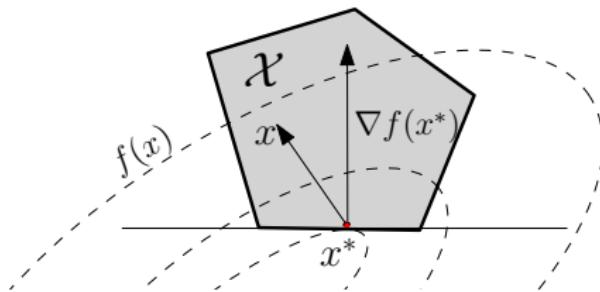
- ▶ Improvements using more information (heavy-ball, filtered subgradient, ...)
- ▶ Don't forget the dual
 - may be more amenable to optimization
 - duality gap

What we did not cover

- ♠ Adaptive stepsize tricks
- ♠ Space dilation methods, quasi-Newton style subgrads
- ♠ Barrier subgradient method
- ♠ Sparse subgradient method
- ♠ Ellipsoid method, center of gravity, etc. as subgradient methods
- ♠ ...

Feasible descent

$$\begin{aligned} \min \quad & f(x) \quad \text{s.t. } x \in \mathcal{X} \\ & \langle \nabla f(x^*), x - x^* \rangle \geq 0, \quad \forall x \in \mathcal{X}. \end{aligned}$$



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- ▶ d^k must also be **descent direction**, i.e., $\langle \nabla f(x^k), d^k \rangle < 0$
- ▶ Stepsize α_k chosen to ensure **feasibility and descent**.

Feasible descent

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- Stepsize α_k chosen to ensure **feasibility and descent**.

Since \mathcal{X} is convex, all feasible directions are of the form

$$d^k = \gamma(z - x^k), \quad \gamma > 0,$$

where $z \in \mathcal{X}$ is any feasible vector.

Feasible descent

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \alpha_k d^k$$

- d^k – **feasible direction**, i.e., $x^k + \alpha_k d^k \in \mathcal{X}$
- d^k must also be **descent direction**, i.e., $\langle \nabla f(x^k), d^k \rangle < 0$
- Stepsize α_k chosen to ensure **feasibility and descent**.

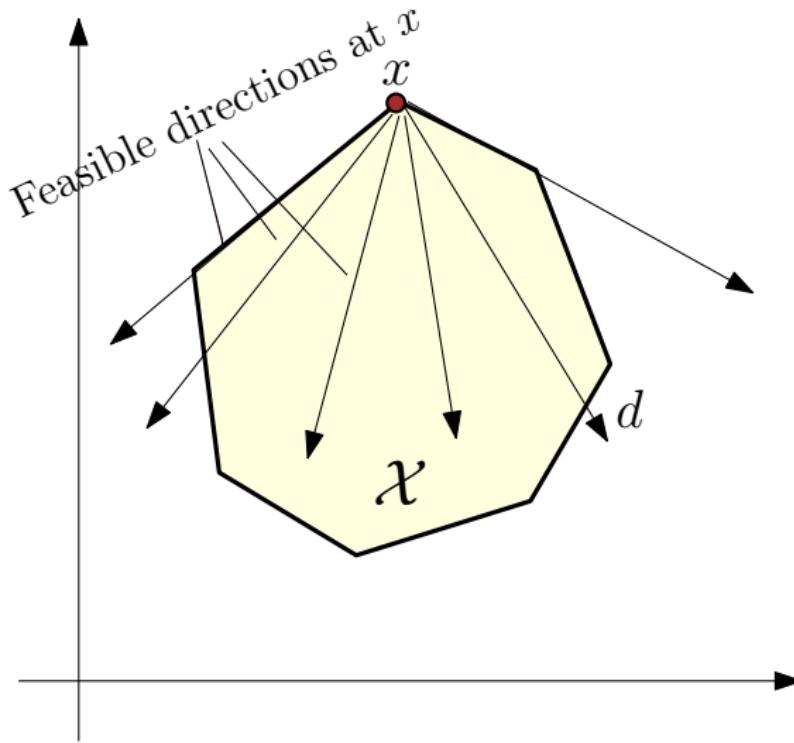
Since \mathcal{X} is convex, all feasible directions are of the form

$$d^k = \gamma(z - x^k), \quad \gamma > 0,$$

where $z \in \mathcal{X}$ is any feasible vector.

$$x^{k+1} = x^k + \alpha_k(z^k - x^k), \quad \alpha_k \in (0, 1]$$

Cone of feasible directions



Conditional gradient method

Optimality: $\langle \nabla f(x^k), z^k - x^k \rangle \geq 0$ for all $z^k \in \mathcal{X}$

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Frank-Wolfe (Conditional gradient) method

- ▲ Let $z^k \in \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \langle \nabla f(x^k), x - x^k \rangle$
- ▲ Use different methods to select α_k
- ▲ $x^{k+1} = x^k + \alpha_k(z^k - x^k)$

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- ♠ Practical when solving *linear* problem over \mathcal{X} easy
- ♠ Became popular in machine learning in recent years
- ♠ Refinements, several variants

Composite objectives

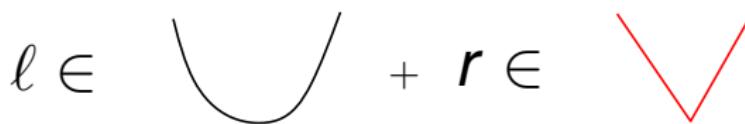
Frequently nonsmooth problems take the form

$$\text{minimize } f(x) := \ell(x) + r(x)$$

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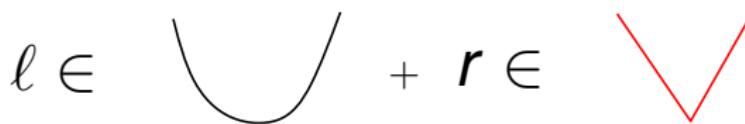
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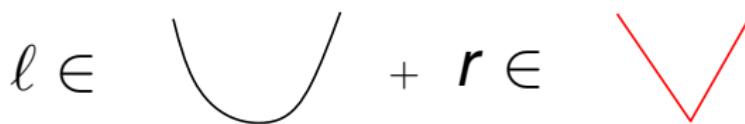
Example: $\ell(x) = \frac{1}{2}\|Ax - b\|^2$ and $r(x) = \lambda\|x\|_1$

Lasso, L1-LS, compressed sensing

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Lasso, L1-LS, compressed sensing

Example: $\ell(x)$: Logistic loss, and $r(x) = \lambda\|x\|_1$

L1-Logistic regression, sparse LR

Composite objective minimization

$$\text{minimize } f(x) := \ell(x) + r(x)$$

subgradient: $x^{k+1} = x^k - \alpha^k g^k$, $g^k \in \partial f(x^k)$

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subgradient: converges slowly at rate $O(1/\sqrt{k})$

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but: f is *smooth* plus *nonsmooth*

we should **exploit:** smoothness of ℓ for better method!

Proximal Gradient Method

$$\min f(x) \quad x \in \mathcal{X}$$

Projected gradient

$$x \leftarrow P_{\mathcal{X}}(x - \alpha \nabla f(x))$$

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NOTE: non-Euclidean versions (mirror-descent) also exist

Proximity operator

Projection

$$P_{\mathcal{X}}(y) := \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \|x - y\|_2^2 + \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{X}}(x)$$

Proximity operator

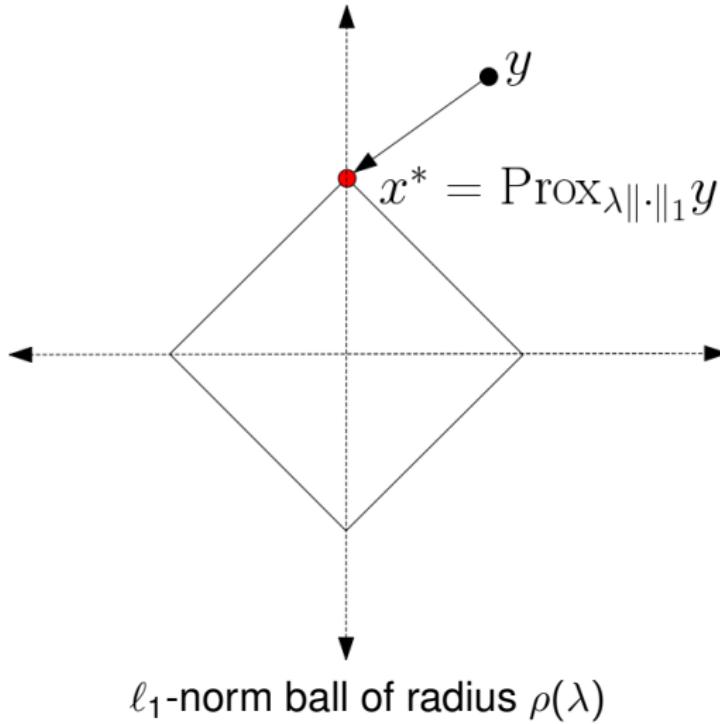
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Proximity: Replace $\mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{X}}$ by a closed convex function

$$\text{prox}_r(y) := \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \|x - y\|_2^2 + r(x)$$

Proximity operator



Proximity operators

Exercise: Let $r(x) = \|x\|_1$. Solve $\text{prox}_{\lambda r}(y)$.

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \quad \frac{1}{2} \|x - y\|_2^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1.$$

Hint 1: The above problem decomposes into n independent subproblems of the form

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}} \quad \frac{1}{2}(x - y)^2 + \lambda|x|.$$

Hint 2: Consider the two cases: either $x = 0$ or $x \neq 0$

Aka: Soft-thresholding operator

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Above fixed-point eqn suggests iteration

$$x_{k+1} = \text{prox}_{\alpha_k h}(x_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x_k))$$

Why does it work?

$$\begin{aligned}x_{k+1} &= \text{prox}_{\alpha_k h}(x_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x_k)) \\x_{k+1} &= x_k - \alpha_k G_{\alpha_k}(x_k).\end{aligned}$$

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Gradient mapping: the “gradient-like object”

$$G_\alpha(x) = \frac{1}{\alpha}(x - P_{\alpha h}(x - \alpha \nabla f(x)))$$

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Gradient mapping: the “gradient-like object”

$$G_\alpha(x) = \frac{1}{\alpha}(x - P_{\alpha h}(x - \alpha \nabla f(x)))$$

- ▶ Our lemma shows: $G_\alpha(x) = 0$ if and only if x is optimal
- ▶ So G_α analogous to ∇f
- ▶ If x locally optimal, then $G_\alpha(x) = 0$ (nonconvex f)

Convergence analysis

Assumption: Lipschitz continuous gradient; denoted $f \in C_L^1$

$$\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\|_2 \leq L\|x - y\|_2$$

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- ♣ Objective function has “bounded curvature”
- ♣ Speed at which gradient varies is bounded

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Lemma (Descent). Let $f \in C_L^1$. Then,

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For convex f , compare with

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle.$$

Descent lemma

Proof. Since $f \in C_L^1$, by Taylor's theorem, for the vector $z_t = x + t(y - x)$ we have

$$f(y) = f(x) + \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(z_t), y - x \rangle dt.$$

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Add and subtract $\langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle$ on rhs we have

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Bounds $f(y)$ around x with quadratic functions

Descent lemma – corollary

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{L}{2} \|y - x\|_2^2$$

Let $y = x - \alpha G_\alpha(x)$, then

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Corollary. So if $0 \leq \alpha \leq 1/L$, we have

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Lemma Let $y = x - \alpha G_\alpha(x)$. Then, for any z we have

$$f(y) + h(y) \leq f(z) + h(z) + \langle G_\alpha(x), x - z \rangle - \frac{\alpha}{2} \|G_\alpha(x)\|_2^2.$$

Exercise: Prove! (hint: f, h are convex, $G_\alpha(x) - \nabla f(x) \in \partial h(y)$)

Convergence analysis

We've actually shown $x' = x - \alpha G_\alpha(x)$ is a descent method.
Write $\phi = f + h$; plug in $z = x$ to obtain

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Exercise: Why this inequality suffices to show convergence.

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Set $x \leftarrow x_k$, $x' \leftarrow x_{k+1}$, and $\alpha = 1/L$. Then add

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But for C_L^1 convex functions, optimal rate is $O(1/k^2)$

Faster methods

Optimal gradient methods

- ♠ We saw following efficiency estimates for the gradient method

$$f \in C_L^1 : \quad f(x^k) - f^* \leq \frac{2L\|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2}{k + 4}$$

$$f \in S_{L,\mu}^1 : \quad f(x^k) - f^* \leq \frac{L}{2} \left(\frac{L - \mu}{L + \mu} \right)^{2k} \|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2.$$

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- ♠ We also saw **lower complexity bounds**

$$f \in C_L^1 : \quad f(x^k) - f(x^*) \geq \frac{3L\|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2}{32(k+1)^2}$$

$$f \in S_{L,\mu}^\infty : \quad f(x^k) - f(x^*) \geq \frac{\mu}{2} \left(\frac{\sqrt{L} - \sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L} + \sqrt{\mu}} \right)^{2k} \|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2.$$

Optimal gradient methods

- ♠ Subgradient method upper and lower bounds

$$f(x^k) - f(x^*) \leq O(1/\sqrt{k})$$

$$f(x^k) - f(x^*) \geq \frac{LD}{2(1+\sqrt{k+1})}.$$

- ♠ Composite objective problems: proximal gradient gives same bounds as gradient methods.

Gradient with “momentum”

Polyak's method (aka heavy-ball) for $f \in S_{L,\mu}^1$

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x^k) + \beta_k(x^k - x^{k-1})$$

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- **Converges** (locally, i.e., for $\|x^0 - x^*\|_2 \leq \epsilon$) as

$$\|x^k - x^*\|_2^2 \leq \left(\frac{\sqrt{L} - \sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L} + \sqrt{\mu}} \right)^{2k} \|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2,$$

$$\text{for } \alpha_k = \frac{4}{(\sqrt{L} + \sqrt{\mu})^2} \text{ and } \beta_k = \left(\frac{\sqrt{L} - \sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L} + \sqrt{\mu}} \right)^2$$

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- c). Set $\beta_k = \alpha_k(1 - \alpha_k)/(\alpha_k^2 + \alpha_{k+1})$
- d). Update solution estimate

$$y^{k+1} = x^{k+1} + \beta_k(x^{k+1} - x^k)$$

Optimal gradient method – rate

Theorem Let $\{x^k\}$ be sequence generated by above algorithm.
If $\alpha_0 \geq \sqrt{\mu/L}$, then

$$f(x^k) - f(x^*) \leq c_1 \min \left\{ \left(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}\right)^k, \frac{4L}{(2\sqrt{L} + c_2 k)^2} \right\},$$

where constants c_1, c_2 depend on α_0, L, μ .

Strongly convex case – simplification

If $\mu > 0$, select $\alpha_0 = \sqrt{\mu/L}$. The two main steps get simplified:

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Notice similarity to Polyak's method!

Accelerated Proximal Gradient

$$\min \phi(x) = f(x) + h(x)$$

Let $x^0 = y^0 \in \text{dom } h$. For $k \geq 1$:

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$$\phi(x^k) - \phi^* \leq \frac{2L}{(k+1)^2} \|x^0 - x^*\|_2^2.$$

The operator view

Set-valued mappings

Think of ∂f as a **set-valued map**

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- ▶ **Identity:** $I := \{(x, x) \mid x \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$
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- ▶ We will write $R(x)$ to mean $\{y \mid (x, y) \in R\}$.
- ▶ Example: $\partial f(x) = \{g \mid (x, g) \in \partial f\}$

Why this notation?

- **Goal:** solve *generalized equation* $0 \in R(x)$
- That is, find $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that $(x, 0) \in R$

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- **Example:** Say $R \equiv \partial f$, then goal

$$0 \in R(x) \Leftrightarrow 0 \in \partial f(x),$$

means we want to find an x that minimizes f .

- Helps succinctly write / analyze problems and algorithms

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Generalize notion of monotonicity to vectors

- ♠ Abstraction takes linear-algebra intuition to optimization

Monotone operators – simple facts

Exercise: Prove λR monotone if R monotone and $\lambda \geq 0$

Exercise: Prove R^{-1} monotone, if R is monotone

Exercise: For monotone R, S and $\lambda \geq 0$, $R + \lambda S$ is monotone.

Corollary: Resolvent of monotone operator is monotone.

$$R \text{ monotone} \implies (I + \lambda R)^{-1} \text{ is monotone.}$$

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- ▶ Equivalently, $x - y + \lambda \partial h(x) \ni 0$
- ▶ Nothing other than optimality condition for prox-operator

$$\text{prox}_{\lambda h}(y) \equiv y \mapsto \underset{x}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{2} \|x - y\|_2^2 + \lambda h(x)$$

More proximal splitting

$$\ell(x) + f(x) + h(x)$$

- ▶ Direct use of prox-grad not easy
- ▶ Requires computation of: $\text{prox}_{\lambda(f+h)}$ (i.e., $(I + \lambda(\partial f + \partial h))^{-1}$)

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- But good feature: prox_f and prox_h separately easier
- Can we exploit that?

Proximal splitting – operator notation

- If $(I + \partial f + \partial h)^{-1}$ hard, but $(I + \partial f)^{-1}$ and $(I + \partial h)^{-1}$ “easy”

Proximal splitting – operator notation

- ▶ If $(I + \partial f + \partial h)^{-1}$ hard, but $(I + \partial f)^{-1}$ and $(I + \partial h)^{-1}$ “easy”
- ▶ Let us derive a fixed-point equation that “splits” the operators

Proximal splitting – operator notation

- If $(I + \partial f + \partial h)^{-1}$ hard, but $(I + \partial f)^{-1}$ and $(I + \partial h)^{-1}$ “easy”
- Let us derive a fixed-point equation that “splits” the operators

Assume we are solving

$$\min f(x) + h(x),$$

where both f and h are convex but potentially nondifferentiable.

Notice: We implicitly assumed: $\partial(f + h) = \partial f + \partial h$.

Proximal splitting

$$0 \in \partial f(x) + \partial h(x)$$

Proximal splitting

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &\in \partial f(x) + \partial h(x) \\ 2x &\in (I + \partial f)(x) + (I + \partial h)(x) \end{aligned}$$

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Key idea of splitting: new variable!

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- ▶ Not a fixed-point equation yet
- ▶ We need one more idea

Douglas-Rachford splitting

Reflection operator

$$R_h(z) := 2 \operatorname{prox}_h(z) - z$$

Douglas-Rachford splitting

Reflection operator

$$R_h(z) := 2 \operatorname{prox}_h(z) - z$$

Douglas-Rachford method

$$z \in (I + \partial h)(x), \quad x = \operatorname{prox}_h(z)$$

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$$\text{but } R_h(z) = 2x - z \implies$$

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$$z = 2 \operatorname{prox}_f(R_h(z)) - R_h(z) = R_f(R_h(z))$$

Finally, z is on both sides of the eqn

Douglas-Rachford method

$$0 \in \partial f(x) + \partial h(x) \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} x = \text{prox}_h(z) \\ z = R_f(R_h(z)) \end{cases}$$

DR method: given z_0 , iterate for $k \geq 0$

$$x_k = \text{prox}_h(z_k)$$

$$v_k = \text{prox}_f(2x_k - z_k)$$

$$z_{k+1} = z_k + \gamma_k(v_k - x_k)$$

Douglas-Rachford method

$$0 \in \partial f(x) + \partial h(x) \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} x = \text{prox}_h(z) \\ z = R_f(R_h(z)) \end{cases}$$

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Theorem If $f + h$ admits minimizers, and (γ_k) satisfy

$$\gamma_k \in [0, 2], \quad \sum_k \gamma_k(2 - \gamma_k) = \infty,$$

then the DR-iterates v_k and x_k converge to a minimizer.

Douglas-Rachford method

For $\gamma_k = 1$, we have

$$z_{k+1} = z_k + v_k - x_k$$

$$z_{k+1} = z_k + \text{prox}_f(2 \text{prox}_h(z_k) - z_k) - \text{prox}_h(z_k)$$

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Dropping superscripts, writing $P \equiv \text{prox}$, we have

$$z \leftarrow Tz$$

$$T = I + P_f(2P_h - I) - P_h$$

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Lemma DR can be written as: $z \leftarrow \frac{1}{2}(R_f R_h + I)z$, where R_f denotes the *reflection operator* $2P_f - I$ (similarly R_h).

Exercise: Prove this claim.

Other methods

- ADMM (DR on dual)
- Proximal-Dykstra
- Proximal methods for $f_1 + f_2 + \cdots + f_n$
- Peaceman-Rachford
- Proximal quasi-Newton, Newton
- Ultimately, proximal-point method
- ...