### Lecture 4 - The Gradient Method

Objective: find an optimal solution of the problem

 $\min\{f(\mathbf{x}):\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^n\}.$ 

The iterative algorithms that we will consider are of the form

 $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + t_k \mathbf{d}_k, k = 0, 1, \dots$ 

- **d**<sub>k</sub> direction.
- ► *t<sub>k</sub>* stepsize.

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We will limit ourselves to descent directions.

Definition. Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a continuously differentiable function over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . A vector  $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathbf{d} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is called a descent direction of f at  $\mathbf{x}$  if the directional derivative  $f'(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{d})$  is negative, meaning that

$$f'(\mathbf{x};\mathbf{d}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{d} < 0.$$

### The Descent Property of Descent Directions

Lemma: Let f be a continuously differentiable function over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , and let  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Suppose that **d** is a descent direction of f at **x**. Then there exists  $\varepsilon > 0$  such that

 $f(\mathbf{x} + t\mathbf{d}) < f(\mathbf{x})$ 

for any  $t \in (0, \varepsilon]$ .

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#### Proof.

Since f'(x; d) < 0, it follows from the definition of the directional derivative that</p>

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• Therefore,  $\exists \varepsilon > 0$  such that

$$\frac{f(\mathbf{x}+t\mathbf{d})-f(\mathbf{x})}{t}<0$$

for any  $t \in (0, \varepsilon]$ , which readily implies the desired result.

### Schematic Descent Direction Method

**Initialization:** pick  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  arbitrarily. **General step:** for any k = 0, 1, 2, ... set (a) pick a descent direction  $\mathbf{d}_k$ . (b) find a stepsize  $t_k$  satisfying  $f(\mathbf{x}_k + t_k \mathbf{d}_k) < f(\mathbf{x}_k)$ . (c) set  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + t_k \mathbf{d}_k$ . (d) if a stopping criteria is satisfied, then STOP and  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1}$  is the output.

Of course, many details are missing in the above schematic algorithm:

- What is the starting point?
- How to choose the descent direction?
- What stepsize should be taken?
- What is the stopping criteria?

### Stepsize Selection Rules

- constant stepsize  $t_k = \overline{t}$  for any k.
- exact stepsize  $t_k$  is a minimizer of f along the ray  $\mathbf{x}_k + t\mathbf{d}_k$ :

```
t_k \in \operatorname*{argmin}_{t\geq 0} f(\mathbf{x}_k + t\mathbf{d}_k).
```

backtracking<sup>1</sup> - The method requires three parameters: s > 0, α ∈ (0, 1), β ∈ (0, 1). Here we start with an initial stepsize t<sub>k</sub> = s. While

$$f(\mathbf{x}_k) - f(\mathbf{x}_k + t_k \mathbf{d}_k) < -\alpha t_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \mathbf{d}_k.$$

set  $t_k := \beta t_k$ 

Sufficient Decrease Property:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_k) - f(\mathbf{x}_k + t_k \mathbf{d}_k) \geq -\alpha t_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \mathbf{d}_k.$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>also referred to as Armijo

### Exact Line Search for Quadratic Functions

 $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + 2\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{x} + c$  where **A** is an  $n \times n$  positive definite matrix,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and let  $\mathbf{d} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be a descent direction of f at  $\mathbf{x}$ . The objective is to find a solution to

 $\min_{t\geq 0}f(\mathbf{x}+t\mathbf{d}).$ 

In class

# The Gradient Method - Taking the Direction of Minus the Gradient

- In the gradient method  $\mathbf{d}_k = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$ .
- This is a descent direction as long as  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k) \neq 0$  since

 $f'(\mathbf{x}_k; -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)) = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) = -\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)\|^2 < 0.$ 

In addition for being a descent direction, minus the gradient is also the steepest direction method.

Lemma: Let f be a continuously differentiable function and let  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be a non-stationary point  $(\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \neq \mathbf{0})$ . Then an optimal solution of

$$\min_{\mathbf{d}} \{ f'(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{d}) : \|\mathbf{d}\| = 1 \}$$
(1)

is  $\mathbf{d} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) / \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\|$ .

Proof. In class

### The Gradient Method

#### The Gradient Method

**Input:**  $\varepsilon > 0$  - tolerance parameter.

**Initialization:** pick  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  arbitrarily. **General step:** for any k = 0, 1, 2, ... execute the following steps: (a) pick a stepsize  $t_k$  by a line search procedure on the function

 $g(t) = f(\mathbf{x}_k - t\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)).$ 

(b) set  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - t_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$ . (c) if  $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1})\| \le \varepsilon$ , then STOP and  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1}$  is the output.

### Numerical Example

 $\min x^2 + 2y^2$ 

 $x_0 = (2; 1), \varepsilon = 10^{-5}$ , exact line search.



#### 13 iterations until convergence.

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Lemma. Let  $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}_{k\geq 0}$  be the sequence generated by the gradient method with exact line search for solving a problem of minimizing a continuously differentiable function f. Then for any k = 0, 1, 2, ...

$$(\mathbf{x}_{k+2} - \mathbf{x}_{k+1})^T (\mathbf{x}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_k) = 0.$$

#### Proof.

 $\mathbf{k}_{k+1} - \mathbf{x}_k = -t_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k), \mathbf{x}_{k+2} - \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = -t_{k+1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}).$ 

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- Therefore, we need to prove that  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) = 0$ .

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- Hence,  $g'(t_k) = 0$ .

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- Hence,  $g'(t_k) = 0$ .
- $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k t_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)) = 0.$
- $\triangleright \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) = 0.$

### Numerical Example - Constant Stepsize, $\bar{t} = 0.1$

 $\min x^2 + 2y^2$ 

 $\mathbf{x}_0 = (2; 1), \varepsilon = 10^{-5}, \overline{t} = 0.1.$ 

iter_number =	: 1	norm_grad	=	4.000000	fun_val	=	3.280000
iter_number =	2	norm_grad	=	2.937210	fun_val	=	1.897600
iter_number =	- 3	norm_grad	=	2.222791	fun_val	=	1.141888
:		:			:		
iter_number =	56	norm_grad	=	0.000015	fun_val	=	0.000000
iter_number =	57	norm_grad	=	0.000012	fun_val	=	0.000000
iter number =	58	norm grad	=	0.000010	fun val	=	0.000000

quite a lot of iterations...

### Numerical Example - Constant Stepsize, $\bar{t} = 10$

 $\min x^2 + 2y^2$ 

 $\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_0 &= (2;1), \varepsilon = 10^{-5}, \overline{t} = 10.. \\ \texttt{iter_number} &= 1 \text{ norm_grad} = 1783.488716 \text{ fun_val} = 476806.000000 \\ \texttt{iter_number} &= 2 \text{ norm_grad} = 656209.693339 \text{ fun_val} = 56962873606.00 \\ \texttt{iter_number} &= 3 \text{ norm_grad} = 256032703.004797 \text{ fun_val} = 83183008071 \\ \texttt{:} & \texttt{:} & \texttt{:} \\ \texttt{iter_number} = 119 \text{ norm_grad} = \text{NaN fun_val} = \text{NaN} \end{aligned}$ 

- The sequence diverges:(
- Important question: how can we choose the constant stepsize so that convergence is guaranteed?

### Lipschitz Continuity of the Gradient

Definition Let f be a continuously differentiable function over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . We say that f has a Lipschitz gradient if there exists  $L \ge 0$  for which

```
\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) - \nabla f(\mathbf{y})\| \leq L \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\| for any \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n.
```

#### L is called the Lipschitz constant.

- If ∇f is Lipschitz with constant L, then it is also Lipschitz with constant L for all L ≥ L.
- ▶ The class of functions with Lipschitz gradient with constant *L* is denoted by  $C_L^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$  or just  $C_L^{1,1}$ .

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- Linear functions Given  $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , the function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{x}$  is in  $C_0^{1,1}$ .
- ▶ Quadratic functions Let **A** be a symmetric  $n \times n$  matrix,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $c \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then the function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + 2\mathbf{b}^T \mathbf{x} + c$  is a  $C^{1,1}$  function. The smallest Lipschitz constant of  $\nabla f$  is  $2\|\mathbf{A}\|_2 \text{why}$ ? In class

### Equivalence to Boundedness of the Hessian

Theorem. Let f be a twice continuously differentiable function over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then the following two claims are equivalent:

1. 
$$f \in C_L^{1,1}(\mathbb{R}^n)$$
.  
2.  $\|\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x})\| \le L$  for any  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

**Proof on pages 73,74 of the book Example:**  $f(x) = \sqrt{1 + x^2} \in C^{1,1}$ In class

### Convergence of the Gradient Method

Theorem. Let  $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}_{k\geq 0}$  be the sequence generated by GM for solving

 $\min_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^n}f(\mathbf{x})$ 

with one of the following stepsize strategies:

- constant stepsize  $\overline{t} \in (0, \frac{2}{L})$ .
- exact line search.
- backtracking procedure with parameters s > 0 and  $\alpha, \beta \in (0, 1)$ .

Assume that

- ►  $f \in C^{1,1}_L(\mathbb{R}^n).$
- ▶ *f* is bounded below over  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , that is, there exists  $m \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $f(\mathbf{x}) > m$  for all  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ).

Then

1. for any k, 
$$f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) < f(\mathbf{x}_k)$$
 unless  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) = \mathbf{0}$ .

2. 
$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) \to 0$$
 as  $k \to \infty$ .

#### Theorem 4.25 in the book.

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### Two Numerical Examples - Backtracking

 $\min x^2 + 2y^2$ 

 $\mathbf{x}_0 = (2; 1), s = 2, \alpha = 0.25, \beta = 0.5, \varepsilon = 10^{-5}.$ 

iter\_number = 1 norm\_grad = 2.000000 fun\_val = 1.000000 iter\_number = 2 norm\_grad = 0.000000 fun\_val = 0.000000

fast convergence (also due to lack!)

no real advantage to exact line search.

#### ANOTHER EXAMPLE:

min  $0.01x^2 + y^2$ ,  $s = 2, \alpha = 0.25, \beta = 0.5, \varepsilon = 10^{-5}$ .

Important Question: Can we detect key properties of the objective function that imply slow/fast convergence?

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Lemma. Let **A** be a positive definite  $n \times n$  matrix. Then for any  $\mathbf{0} \neq \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  the inequality

$$\frac{\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}}{(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{x})} \geq \frac{4\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A})\lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A})}{(\lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A}) + \lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A}))^2}$$

holds.

• Denote 
$$m = \lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A})$$
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#### Proof.

• Denote 
$$m = \lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A})$$
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• The eigenvalues of the matrix  $\mathbf{A} + Mm\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  are  $\lambda_i(\mathbf{A}) + \frac{Mm}{\lambda_i(\mathbf{A})}$ .

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- ▶ The maximum of the 1-D function  $\varphi(t) = t + \frac{Mm}{t}$  over [m, M] is attained at the endpoints *m* and *M* with a corresponding value of M + m.

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- ▶ Thus, the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A} + Mm\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  are smaller than (M + m).

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- ▶ The maximum of the 1-D function  $\varphi(t) = t + \frac{Mm}{t}$  over [m, M] is attained at the endpoints *m* and *M* with a corresponding value of M + m.
- Thus, the eigenvalues of  $\mathbf{A} + Mm\mathbf{A}^{-1}$  are smaller than (M + m).
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- $\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + Mm(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{x}) \leq (M+m)(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}),$

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- ►  $\mathbf{A} + Mm\mathbf{A}^{-1} \preceq (M+m)\mathbf{I}$ .
- $\mathbf{F} \mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x} + Mm(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{x}) \leq (M + m)(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}),$
- Therefore,

$$(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x})[Mm(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{x})] \leq \frac{1}{4}\left[(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}) + Mm(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}^{-1}\mathbf{x})\right]^{2} \leq \frac{(M+m)^{2}}{4}(\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x})^{2},$$

### Gradient Method for Minimizing $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}$

Theorem. Let  $\{x_k\}_{k\geq 0}$  be the sequence generated by the gradient method with exact linesearch for solving the problem

 $\min_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^n}\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} \quad (\mathbf{A}\succ\mathbf{0}).$ 

Then for any  $k = 0, 1, \ldots$ 

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) \leq \left(\frac{M-m}{M+m}\right)^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k),$$

where  $M = \lambda_{\max}(\mathbf{A}), m = \lambda_{\min}(\mathbf{A}).$ 

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - t_k \mathbf{d}_k,$$

where 
$$t_k = \frac{\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{d}_k}{2\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_k}, \mathbf{d}_k = 2\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_k.$$

### Proof of Rate of Convergence Contd.

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) = \mathbf{x}_{k+1}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_{k+1} = (\mathbf{x}_{k} - t_{k} \mathbf{d}_{k})^{T} \mathbf{A} (\mathbf{x}_{k} - t_{k} \mathbf{d}_{k})$$
$$= \mathbf{x}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_{k} - 2t_{k} \mathbf{d}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_{k} + t_{k}^{2} \mathbf{d}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_{k}$$
$$= \mathbf{x}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_{k} - t_{k} \mathbf{d}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{d}_{k} + t_{k}^{2} \mathbf{d}_{k}^{T} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_{k}.$$

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• Plugging in the expression for  $t_k$ 

f

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{T}(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) &= \mathbf{x}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_k - \frac{1}{4} \frac{(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{d}_k)^2}{\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_k} \\ &= \mathbf{x}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_k \left( 1 - \frac{1}{4} \frac{(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{d}_k)^2}{(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_k)(\mathbf{x}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_k)} \right) \\ &= \left( 1 - \frac{(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{d}_k)^2}{(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_k)(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{d}_k)} \right) f(\mathbf{x}_k). \end{aligned}$$

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• Plugging in the expression for  $t_k$ 

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) = \mathbf{x}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_k - \frac{1}{4} \frac{(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{d}_k)^2}{\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_k}$$
  
$$= \mathbf{x}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_k \left( 1 - \frac{1}{4} \frac{(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{d}_k)^2}{(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_k)(\mathbf{x}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{A} \mathbf{x}_k)} \right)$$
  
$$= \left( 1 - \frac{(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{d}_k)^2}{(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{A} \mathbf{d}_k)(\mathbf{d}_k^T \mathbf{A}^{-1} \mathbf{d}_k)} \right) f(\mathbf{x}_k).$$

By Kantorovich:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1}) \leq \left(1 - \frac{4Mm}{(M+m)^2}\right) f(\mathbf{x}_k) = \left(\frac{M-m}{M+m}\right)^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k) = \left(\frac{\kappa(\mathbf{A}) - 1}{\kappa(\mathbf{A}) + 1}\right)^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k),$$

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### The Condition Number

Definition. Let **A** be an  $n \times n$  positive definite matrix. Then the condition number of **A** is defined by

$$\kappa(\mathbf{A}) = rac{\lambda_{\mathsf{max}}(\mathbf{A})}{\lambda_{\mathsf{min}}(\mathbf{A})}.$$

- matrices (or quadratic functions) with large condition number are called ill-conditioned.
- matrices with small condition number are called well-conditioned.
- large condition number implies large number of iterations of the gradient method.
- small condition number implies small number of iterations of the gradient method.
- For a non-quadratic function, the asymptotic rate of convergence of x<sub>k</sub> to a stationary point x<sup>\*</sup> is usually determined by the condition number of ∇<sup>2</sup>f(x<sup>\*</sup>).

### A Severely III-Condition Function - Rosenbrock

$$\min\left\{f(x_1, x_2) = 100(x_2 - x_1^2)^2 + (1 - x_1)^2\right\}.$$

• optimal solution: $(x_1, x_2) = (1, 1)$ , optimal value: 0.

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} -400x_1(x_2 - x_1^2) - 2(1 - x_1) \\ 200(x_2 - x_1^2) \end{pmatrix},$$
  
$$\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} -400x_2 + 1200x_1^2 + 2 & -400x_1 \\ -400x_1 & 200 \end{pmatrix}.$$

$$abla^2 f(1,1) = egin{pmatrix} 802 & -400\ -400 & 200 \end{pmatrix}$$

condition number: 2508

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►

# Solution of the Rosenbrock Problem with the Gradient Method

 $\mathbf{x}_0 = (2; 5), s = 2, \alpha = 0.25, \beta = 0.5, \varepsilon = 10^{-5}$ , backtracking stepsize selection.



#### 6890(!!!) iterations.

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### Sensitivity of Solutions to Linear Systems

Suppose that we are given the linear system

#### $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{b}$

where  $\bm{A}\succ\bm{0}$  and we assume that  $\bm{x}$  is indeed the solution of the system  $(\bm{x}=\bm{A}^{-1}\bm{b}).$ 

- Suppose that the right-hand side is perturbed  $\mathbf{b} + \Delta \mathbf{b}$ . What can be said on the solution of the new system  $\mathbf{x} + \Delta \mathbf{x}$ ?
- $\blacktriangleright \Delta \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{A}^{-1} \Delta \mathbf{b}.$
- Result (derivation In class):

$$rac{\|\Delta \mathbf{x}\|}{\|\mathbf{x}\|} \leq \kappa(\mathbf{A}) rac{\|\Delta \mathbf{b}\|}{\|\mathbf{b}\|}$$

### Numerical Example

consider the ill-condition matrix:

$$\textbf{A} = \begin{pmatrix} 1+10^{-5} & 1 \\ 1 & 1+10^{-5} \end{pmatrix}$$

>> cond(A)

ans =

2.00000999998795e+005

We have

```
>> A\[1;1]
```

ans =

- 0.499997500018278
- 0.499997500006722
- ► However,

```
>> A\[1.1;1]
```

ans =

- 1.0e+003 \*
  - 5.000524997400047
- -4.999475002650021

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Consider the minimization problem

(P)  $\min\{f(\mathbf{x}) : \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}.$ 

▶ For a given nonsingular matrix  $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , we make the linear change of variables  $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{y}$ , and obtain the equivalent problem

 $(\mathsf{P}') \quad \min\{g(\mathbf{y}) \equiv f(\mathbf{S}\mathbf{y}) : \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}.$ 

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 $(\mathsf{P}') \quad \min\{g(\mathbf{y}) \equiv f(\mathbf{S}\mathbf{y}) : \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n\}.$ 

► Since  $\nabla g(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{S}^T \nabla f(\mathbf{S}\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{S}^T \nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ , the gradient method for (P') is  $\mathbf{y}_{k+1} = \mathbf{y}_k - t_k \mathbf{S}^T \nabla f(\mathbf{S}\mathbf{y}_k)$ .

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, the gradient method for (P') is  
 $\mathbf{y}_{k+1} = \mathbf{y}_k - t_k \mathbf{S}^T \nabla f(\mathbf{S}\mathbf{y}_k)$ .

• Multiplying the latter equality by **S** from the left, and using the notation  $\mathbf{x}_k = \mathbf{S}\mathbf{y}_k$ :

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - t_k \mathbf{S} \mathbf{S}^T \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k).$$

Consider the minimization problem

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$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - t_k \mathbf{S} \mathbf{S}^T \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k).$$

▶ Defining **D** = **SS**<sup>*T*</sup>, we obtain the scaled gradient method:

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - t_k \mathbf{D} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k).$$

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▶ **D** > **0**, so the direction  $-\mathbf{D}\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$  is a descent direction:

 $f'(\mathbf{x}_k; -\mathbf{D}\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)) = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \mathbf{D}\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k) < 0,$ 

▶ **D** > **0**, so the direction  $-\mathbf{D}\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$  is a descent direction:

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We also allow different scaling matrices at each iteration.

#### Scaled Gradient Method

**Input:**  $\varepsilon > 0$  - tolerance parameter. **Initialization:** pick  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  arbitrarily. **General step:** for any k = 0, 1, 2, ... execute the following steps: (a) pick a scaling matrix  $\mathbf{D}_k \succ \mathbf{0}$ . (b) pick a stepsize  $t_k$  by a line search procedure on the function  $g(t) = f(\mathbf{x}_k - t\mathbf{D}_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k))$ .

(c) set  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k - t_k \mathbf{D}_k \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k)$ . (c) if  $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1})\| \le \varepsilon$ , then STOP and  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1}$  is the output.

### Choosing the Scaling Matrix $D_k$

The scaled gradient method with scaling matrix D is equivalent to the gradient method employed on the function g(y) = f(D<sup>1/2</sup>y).

### Choosing the Scaling Matrix $\mathbf{D}_k$

- The scaled gradient method with scaling matrix D is equivalent to the gradient method employed on the function g(y) = f(D<sup>1/2</sup>y).
- Note that the gradient and Hessian of g are given by

$$\nabla g(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{D}^{1/2} f(\mathbf{D}^{1/2} \mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{D}^{1/2} f(\mathbf{x}),$$
  
 
$$\nabla^2 g(\mathbf{y}) = \mathbf{D}^{1/2} \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{D}^{1/2} \mathbf{y}) \mathbf{D}^{1/2} = \mathbf{D}^{1/2} \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) \mathbf{D}^{1/2}.$$

► The objective is usually to pick D<sub>k</sub> so as to make D<sup>1/2</sup><sub>k</sub> ∇<sup>2</sup>f(x<sub>k</sub>)D<sup>1/2</sup><sub>k</sub> as well-conditioned as possible.

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- ► A well known choice (Newton's method):  $\mathbf{D}_k = (\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k))^{-1}$ .
- diagonal scaling:  $\mathbf{D}_k$  is picked to be diagonal. For example,

$$(\mathbf{D}_k)_{ii} = \left(\frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x}_k)}{\partial x_i^2}\right)^{-1}.$$

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 Diagonal scaling can be very effective when the decision variables are of different magnitudes.

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Nonlinear least squares problem:

(NLS): 
$$\min_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^n}\left\{g(\mathbf{x})\equiv\sum_{i=1}^m(f_i(\mathbf{x})-c_i)^2\right\}.$$

 $f_1, \ldots, f_m$  are continuously differentiable over  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and  $c_1, \ldots, c_m \in \mathbb{R}$ .  $\blacktriangleright$  Denote:

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} f_1(\mathbf{x}) - c_1 \\ f_2(\mathbf{x}) - c_2 \\ \vdots \\ f_m(\mathbf{x}) - c_m \end{pmatrix},$$

Then the problem becomes:

 $\min \|F(\mathbf{x})\|^2.$ 

Given the *k*th iterate  $\mathbf{x}_k$ , the next iterate is chosen to minimize the sum of squares of the linearized terms, that is,

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ f_i(\mathbf{x}_k) + \nabla f_i(\mathbf{x}_k)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_k) - c_i \right]^2 \right\}.$$

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The general step actually consists of solving the linear LS problem

 $\min \|\mathbf{A}_k \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}_k\|^2,$ 

where

$$\mathbf{A}_{k} = \begin{pmatrix} \nabla f_{1}(\mathbf{x}_{k})^{T} \\ \nabla f_{2}(\mathbf{x}_{k})^{T} \\ \vdots \\ \nabla f_{m}(\mathbf{x}_{k})^{T} \end{pmatrix} = J(\mathbf{x}_{k})$$

is the so-called Jacobian matrix, assumed to have full column rank.

$$\mathbf{b}_{k} = \begin{pmatrix} \nabla f_{1}(\mathbf{x}_{k})^{T} \mathbf{x}_{k} - f_{1}(\mathbf{x}_{k}) + c_{1} \\ \nabla f_{2}(\mathbf{x}_{k})^{T} \mathbf{x}_{k} - f_{2}(\mathbf{x}_{k}) + c_{2} \\ \vdots \\ \nabla f_{m}(\mathbf{x}_{k})^{T} \mathbf{x}_{k} - f_{m}(\mathbf{x}_{k}) + c_{m} \end{pmatrix} = J(\mathbf{x}_{k})\mathbf{x}_{k} - F(\mathbf{x}_{k})$$

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The Gauss-Newton method can thus be written as:

 $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = (J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T J(\mathbf{x}_k))^{-1} J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \mathbf{b}_k.$ 

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- ▶ The GN method can be rewritten as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x}_{k+1} &= (J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T J(\mathbf{x}_k))^{-1} J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T (J(\mathbf{x}_k) \mathbf{x}_k - F(\mathbf{x}_k)) \\ &= \mathbf{x}_k - (J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T J(\mathbf{x}_k))^{-1} J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T F(\mathbf{x}_k) \\ &= \mathbf{x}_k - \frac{1}{2} (J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T J(\mathbf{x}_k))^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k), \end{aligned}$$

The Gauss-Newton method can thus be written as:

 $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = (J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T J(\mathbf{x}_k))^{-1} J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T \mathbf{b}_k.$ 

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- The GN method can be rewritten as follows:

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that is, it is a scaled gradient method with a special choice of scaling matrix:

$$\mathbf{D}_k = \frac{1}{2} (J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T J(\mathbf{x}_k))^{-1}.$$

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### The Damped Gauss-Newton Method

The Gauss-Newton method does not incorporate a stepsize, which might cause it to diverge. A well known variation of the method incorporating stepsizes is the damped Gauss-newton Method.

#### **Damped Gauss-Newton Method**

**Input:**  $\varepsilon$  - tolerance parameter.

**Initialization:** pick  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  arbitrarily. **General step:** for any k = 0, 1, 2, ... execute the following steps: (a) Set  $\mathbf{d}_k = -(J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T J(\mathbf{x}_k))^{-1} J(\mathbf{x}_k)^T F(\mathbf{x}_k)$ . (b) Set  $t_k$  by a line search procedure on the function  $h(t) = g(\mathbf{x}_k + t\mathbf{d}_k)$ .

(c) set  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + t_k \mathbf{d}_k$ . (c) if  $\|\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{k+1})\| \le \varepsilon$ , then STOP and  $\mathbf{x}_{k+1}$  is the output.

### Fermat-Weber Problem

**Fermat-Weber Problem:** Given *m* points in  $\mathbb{R}^n$ :  $\mathbf{a}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{a}_m$  – also called "anchor point" – and *m* weights  $\omega_1, \omega_2, \ldots, \omega_m > 0$ , find a point  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  that minimizes the weighted distance of  $\mathbf{x}$  to each of the points  $\mathbf{a}_1, \ldots, \mathbf{a}_m$ :

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^n}\left\{f(\mathbf{x})\equiv\sum_{i=1}^m\omega_i\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{a}_i\|\right\}.$$

- ▶ The objective function is not differentiable at the anchor points **a**<sub>1</sub>,..., **a**<sub>m</sub>.
- One of the simplest instances of facility location problems.

• Start from the stationarity condition  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}^2$ .

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- $\blacktriangleright \sum_{i=1}^{m} \omega_i \frac{\mathbf{x} \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{a}_i\|} = \mathbf{0}.$

• Start from the stationarity condition  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}^2$ .

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \omega_i \frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i\|} = \mathbf{0}.$$

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i\|} \right) \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i\|},$$

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$$\mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i\|}} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i\|}.$$

• Start from the stationarity condition  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}^2$ .

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \omega_i \frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i\|} = \mathbf{0}.$$

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i\|} \right) \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i\|},$$

- $\blacktriangleright \mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{a}_i\|}} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{a}_i\|}.$
- ► The stationarity condition can be written as x = T(x), where T is the operator

$$\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{x}) \equiv rac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} rac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{a}_i\|}} \sum_{i=1}^{m} rac{\omega_i \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{a}_i\|},$$

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>We implicitly assume here that  $\mathbf{x}$  is not an anchor point.

• Start from the stationarity condition  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}^2$ .

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \omega_i \frac{\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i\|} = \mathbf{0}.$$

$$\left( \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i\|} \right) \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{a}_i\|},$$

- $\blacktriangleright \mathbf{x} = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{a}_i\|}} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x} \mathbf{a}_i\|}.$
- ► The stationarity condition can be written as x = T(x), where T is the operator

$$\mathcal{T}(\mathbf{x}) \equiv rac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^m rac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{a}_i\|}} \sum_{i=1}^m rac{\omega_i \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{a}_i\|}.$$

Weiszfeld's method is a fixed point method:

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = T(\mathbf{x}_k).$$

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"Introduction to Nonlinear Optimization" Lecture Slides - The Gradient Method

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### Weiszfeld's Method as a Gradient Method

Weiszfeld's Method Initialization: pick  $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  such that  $\mathbf{x} \neq \mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_m$ . General step: for any  $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$  compute:

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = T(\mathbf{x}_k) = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{a}_i\|}} \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\omega_i \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{a}_i\|}.$$

### Weiszfeld's Method as a Gradient Method

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Weiszfeld's method is a gradient method since

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{x}_{k+1} &= \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{a}_i\|}} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{a}_i\|} \\ &= \mathbf{x}_k - \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{a}_i\|}} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \omega_i \frac{\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{a}_i}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{a}_i\|} \\ &= \mathbf{x}_k - \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{a}_i\|}} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_k). \end{split}$$

### Weiszfeld's Method as a Gradient Method

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• A gradient method with a special choice of stepsize:  $t_k = \frac{1}{\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\omega_i}{\|\mathbf{x}_k - \mathbf{a}_i\|}}$ .

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