

Line Search Methods for Unconstrained Optimisation

Lecture 8, Numerical Linear Algebra and Optimisation
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The Generic Framework

For the purposes of this lecture we consider the unconstrained minimisation problem

$$(UCM) \quad \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x),$$

where $f \in C^1(\mathbb{R}^n, \mathbb{R})$ with Lipschitz continuous gradient $g(x)$.

- In practice, these smoothness assumptions are sometimes violated, but the algorithms we will develop are still observed to work well.
- The algorithms we will construct have the common feature that, starting from an initial educated guess $x^0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ for a solution of (UCM), a sequence of solutions $(x^k)_{\mathbb{N}} \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is produced such that

$$x^k \rightarrow x^* \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

such that the first and second order necessary optimality conditions

$$\begin{aligned} g(x^*) &= 0, \\ H(x^*) &\succeq 0 \quad (\text{positive semidefiniteness}) \end{aligned}$$

are satisfied.

- We usually wish to make progress towards solving (UCM) in every iteration, that is, we will construct x^{k+1} so that

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

(descent methods).

- In practice we cannot usually compute x^* precisely (i.e., give a symbolic representation of it, see the LP lecture!), but we have to stop with a x^k sufficiently close to x^* .
- Optimality conditions are still useful, in that they serve as a stopping criterion when they are satisfied to within a predetermined error tolerance.
- Finally, we wish to construct $(x^k)_{\mathbb{N}}$ such that convergence to x^* takes place at a rapid rate, so that few iterations are needed until the stopping criterion is satisfied. This has to be counterbalanced with the computational cost per iteration, as there typically is a tradeoff

faster convergence \Leftrightarrow higher computational cost per iteration.

We write $f^k = f(x^k)$, $g^k = g(x^k)$, and $H^k = H(x^k)$.

Generic Line Search Method:

1. Pick an initial iterate x^0 by educated guess, set $k = 0$.
2. Until x^k has converged,
 - i) Calculate a *search direction* p^k from x^k , ensuring that this direction is a *descent direction*, that is,

$$[g^k]^\top p^k < 0 \text{ if } g^k \neq 0,$$

so that for small enough steps away from x^k in the direction p^k the objective function will be reduced.

- ii) Calculate a suitable *steplength* $\alpha^k > 0$ so that

$$f(x^k + \alpha^k p^k) < f^k.$$

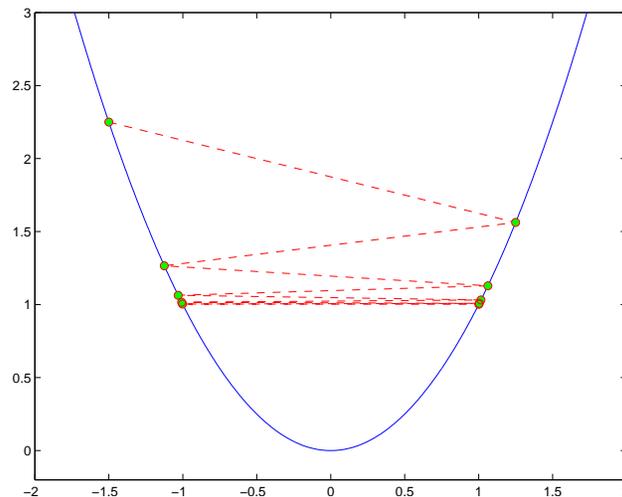
The computation of α^k is called *line search*, and this is usually an inner iterative loop.

- iii) Set $x^{k+1} = x^k + \alpha^k p^k$.

Actual methods differ from one another in how steps i) and ii) are computed.

Computing a Step Length α^k

The challenges in finding a good α^k are both in avoiding that the step length is too long,



(the objective function $f(x) = x^2$ and the iterates $x^{k+1} = x^k + \alpha^k p^k$ generated by the descent directions $p^k = (-1)^{k+1}$ and steps $\alpha^k = 2 + 3/2^{k+1}$ from $x_0 = 2$)

Exact Line Search:

In early days, α^k was picked to minimize

$$\begin{aligned} \text{(ELS)} \quad & \min_{\alpha} f(x^k + \alpha p^k) \\ & \text{s.t. } \alpha \geq 0. \end{aligned}$$

Although usable, this method is not considered cost effective.

Inexact Line Search Methods:

- Formulate a criterion that assures that steps are neither too long nor too short.
- Pick a good initial stepsize.
- Construct sequence of updates that satisfy the above criterion after very few steps.

Backtracking Line Search:

1. Given $\alpha_{\text{init}} > 0$ (e.g., $\alpha_{\text{init}} = 1$), let $\alpha^{(0)} = \alpha_{\text{init}}$ and $l = 0$.
2. Until $f(x^k + \alpha^{(l)}p^k) \ll f^k$,
 - i) set $\alpha^{(l+1)} = \tau\alpha^{(l)}$, where $\tau \in (0, 1)$ is fixed (e.g., $\tau = \frac{1}{2}$),
 - ii) increment l by 1.
3. Set $\alpha^k = \alpha^{(l)}$.

This method prevents the step from getting too small, but it does not prevent steps that are too long relative to the decrease in f .

To improve the method, we need to tighten the requirement

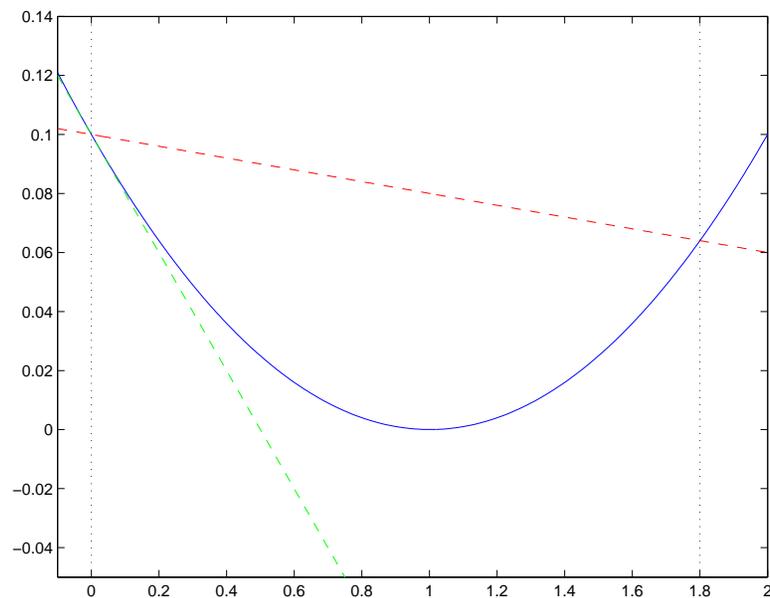
$$f(x^k + \alpha^{(l)}p^k) \ll f^k.$$

To prevent long steps relative to the decrease in f , we require the *Armijo condition*

$$f(x^k + \alpha^k p^k) \leq f(x^k) + \alpha^k \beta \cdot [g^k]^\top p^k$$

for some fixed $\beta \in (0, 1)$ (e.g., $\beta = 0.1$ or even $\beta = 0.0001$).

That is to say, we require that the achieved reduction in f be at least a fixed fraction β of the reduction promised by the first-order Taylor approximation of f at x^k .



Backtracking-Armijo Line Search:

1. Given $\alpha_{\text{init}} > 0$ (e.g., $\alpha_{\text{init}} = 1$), let $\alpha^{(0)} = \alpha_{\text{init}}$ and $l = 0$.
2. Until $f(x^k + \alpha^{(l)}p^k) \leq f(x^k) + \alpha^{(l)}\beta \cdot [g^k]^\top p^k$,
 - i) set $\alpha^{(l+1)} = \tau\alpha^{(l)}$, where $\tau \in (0, 1)$ is fixed (e.g., $\tau = \frac{1}{2}$),
 - ii) increment l by 1.
3. Set $\alpha^k = \alpha^{(l)}$.

Theorem 1 (Termination of Backtracking-Armijo). Let $f \in C^1$ with gradient $g(x)$ that is Lipschitz continuous with constant γ^k at x^k , and let p^k be a descent direction at x^k . Then, for fixed $\beta \in (0, 1)$,

i) the Armijo condition $f(x^k + \alpha p^k) \leq f^k + \alpha\beta \cdot [g^k]^\top p^k$ is satisfied for all $\alpha \in [0, \alpha_{\max}^k]$, where

$$\alpha_{\max}^k = \frac{2(\beta - 1)[g^k]^\top p^k}{\gamma^k \|p^k\|_2^2},$$

ii) and furthermore, for fixed $\tau \in (0, 1)$ the stepsize generated by the backtracking-Armijo line search terminates with

$$\alpha^k \geq \min \left(\alpha_{\text{init}}, \frac{2\tau(\beta - 1)[g^k]^\top p^k}{\gamma^k \|p^k\|_2^2} \right).$$

We remark that in practice γ^k is not known. Therefore, we cannot simply compute α_{\max}^k and α^k via the explicit formulas given by the theorem, and we still need the algorithm on the previous slide.

Theorem 2 (Convergence of Generic LSM with B-A Steps).
Let the gradient g of $f \in C^1$ be uniformly Lipschitz continuous on \mathbb{R}^n . Then, for the iterates generated by the Generic Line Search Method with Backtracking-Armijo step lengths, one of the following situations occurs,

i) $g^k = 0$ for some finite k ,

ii) $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^k = -\infty$,

iii) $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \min \left(|[g^k]^\top p^k|, \frac{|[g^k]^\top p^k|}{\|p^k\|_2} \right) = 0$.

Computing a Search Direction p^k

Method of Steepest Descent:

The most straight-forward choice of a search direction, $p^k = -g^k$, is called *steepest-descent* direction.

- p^k is a descent direction.
- p^k solves the problem

$$\begin{aligned} \min p \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad & m_k^L(x^k + p) = f^k + [g^k]^\top p \\ \text{s.t.} \quad & \|p\|_2 = \|g^k\|_2. \end{aligned}$$

- p^k is cheap to compute.

Any method that uses the steepest-descent direction as a search direction is a *method of steepest descent*.

Intuitively, it would seem that p^k is the best search-direction one can find. If that were true then much of optimisation theory would not exist!

Theorem 3 (Global Convergence of Steepest Descent). *Let the gradient g of $f \in C^1$ be uniformly Lipschitz continuous on \mathbb{R}^n . Then, for the iterates generated by the Generic LSM with B-A steps and steepest-descent search directions, one of the following situations occurs,*

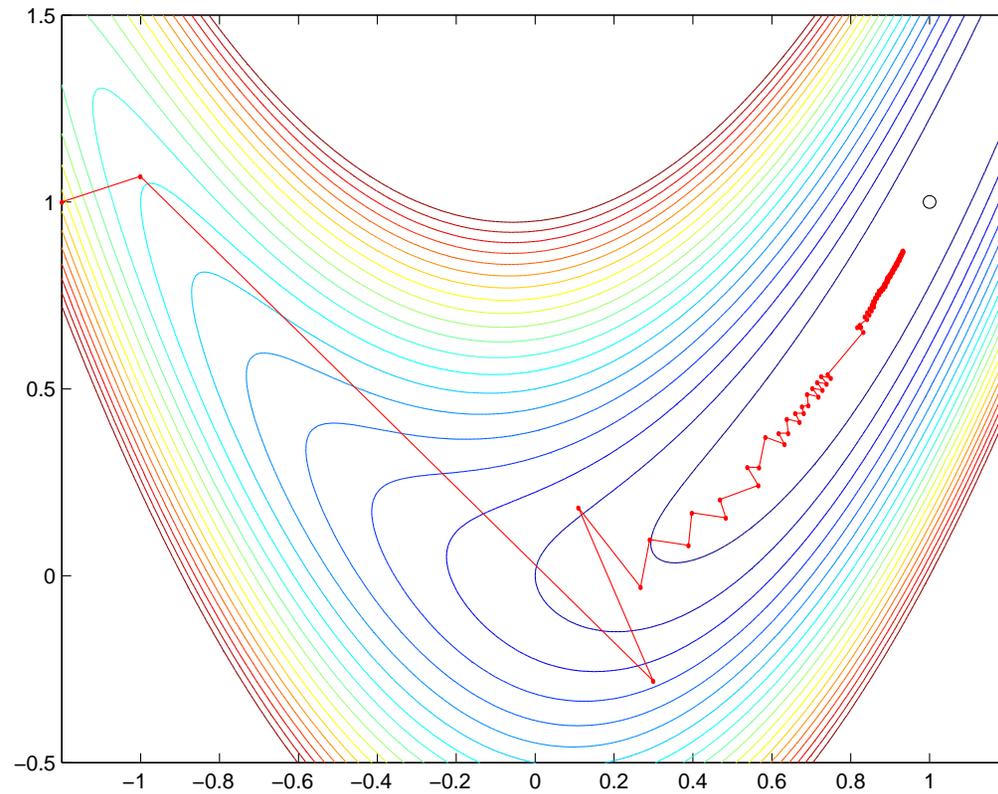
i) $g^k = 0$ for some finite k ,

ii) $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^k = -\infty$,

iii) $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} g^k = 0$.

Advantages and disadvantages of steepest descent:

- ⊕ Globally convergent (converges to a local minimiser from any starting point x^0).
- ⊕ Many other methods switch to steepest descent when they do not make sufficient progress.
- ⊖ Not scale invariant (changing the inner product on \mathbb{R}^n changes the notion of gradient!).
- ⊖ Convergence is usually very (very!) slow (linear).
- ⊖ Numerically, it is often not convergent at all.



Contours for the objective function $f(x, y) = 10(y - x^2)^2 + (x - 1)^2$ (Rosenbrock function), and the iterates generated by the generic line search steepest-descent method.

More General Descent Methods:

Let B^k be a symmetric, positive definite matrix, and define the search direction p^k as the solution to the linear system

$$B^k p^k = -g^k$$

- p^k is a descent direction, since

$$[g^k]^\top p^k = -[g^k]^\top [B^k]^{-1} g^k < 0.$$

- p^k solves the problem

$$\min_{p \in \mathbb{R}^n} m_k^Q(x^k + p) = f^k + [g^k]^\top p + \frac{1}{2} p^\top B^k p.$$

- p^k corresponds to the steepest descent direction if the norm

$$\|x\|_{B^k} := \sqrt{x^\top B^k x}$$

is used on \mathbb{R}^n instead of the canonical Euclidean norm. This change of metric can be seen as preconditioning that can be chosen so as to speed up the steepest descent method.

- If the Hessian H^k of f at x^k is positive definite, and $B^k = H^k$, this is *Newton's method*.
- If B^k changes at every iterate x^k , a method based on the search direction p^k is called *variable metric* method. In particular, Newton's method is a variable metric method.

Theorem 4 (Global Convergence of More General Descent Direction Methods). *Let the gradient g of $f \in C^1$ be uniformly Lipschitz continuous on \mathbb{R}^n . Then, for the iterates generated by the Generic LSM with B-A steps and search directions defined by $B^k p^k = -g^k$, one of the following situations occurs,*

i) $g^k = 0$ for some finite k ,

ii) $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f^k = -\infty$,

iii) $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} g^k = 0$,

provided that the eigenvalues of B^k are uniformly bounded above, and uniformly bounded away from zero.

Theorem 5 (Local Convergence of Newton's Method). *Let the Hessian H of $f \in C^2$ be uniformly Lipschitz continuous on \mathbb{R}^n . Let iterates x^k be generated via the Generic LSM with B-A steps using $\alpha_{\text{init}} = 1$ and $\beta < \frac{1}{2}$, and using the Newton search direction n^k , defined by $H^k n^k = -g^k$. If $(x^k)_{\mathbb{N}}$ has an accumulation point x^* where $H(x^*) \succ 0$ (positive definite) then*

i) $\alpha^k = 1$ for all k large enough,

ii) $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} x^k = x^*$,

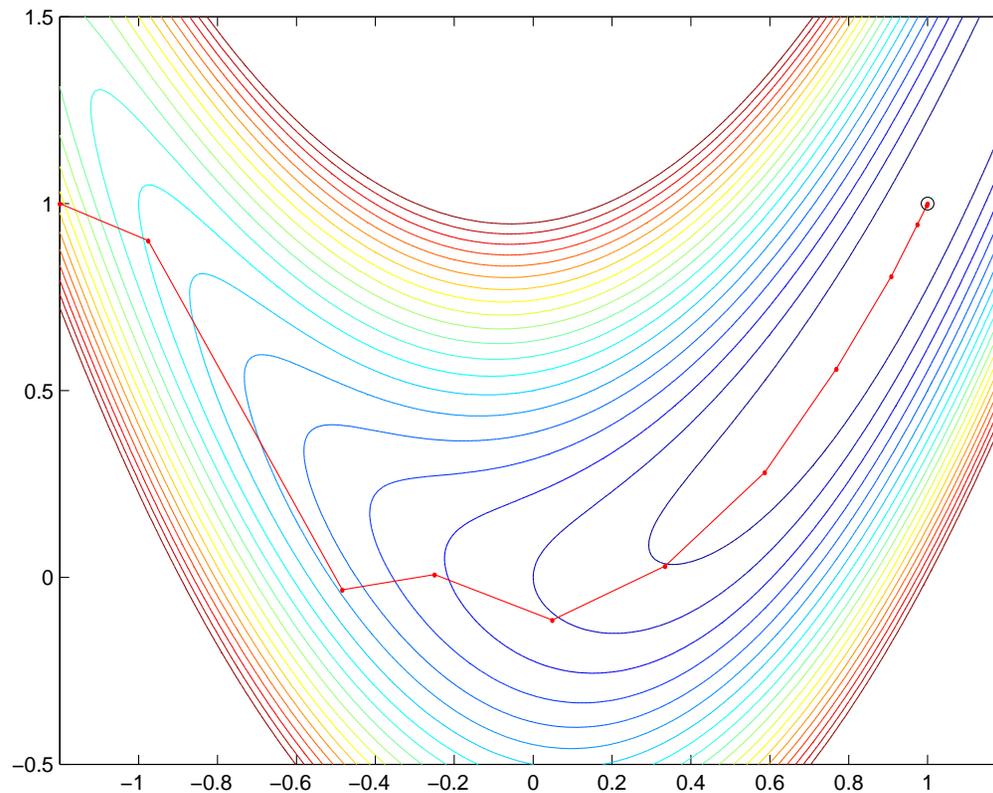
iii) *the sequence converges Q-quadratically, that is, there exists $\kappa > 0$ such that*

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \frac{\|x^{k+1} - x^*\|}{\|x^k - x^*\|^2} \leq \kappa.$$

The mechanism that makes Theorem 5 work is that once the sequence $(x^k)_{\mathbb{N}}$ enters a certain domain of attraction of x^* , it cannot escape again and quadratic convergence to x^* commences.

Note that this is only a local convergence result, that is, Newton's method is not guaranteed to converge to a local minimiser from all starting points.

The fast convergence of Newton's method becomes apparent when we apply it to the Rosenbrock function:



Contours for the objective function $f(x, y) = 10(y - x^2)^2 + (x - 1)^2$, and the iterates generated by the Generic Linesearch Newton method.

Modified Newton Methods:

The use of $B^k = H^k$ makes only sense at iterates x^k where $H^k \succ 0$. Since this is usually not guaranteed to always be the case, we modify the method as follows,

- Choose $M^k \succeq 0$ so that $H^k + M^k$ is “sufficiently” positive definite, with $M^k = 0$ if H^k itself is sufficiently positive definite.
- Set $B^k = H^k + M^k$ and solve $B^k p^k = -g^k$.

The *regularisation term* M^k is typically chosen as one of the following,

- If H^k has the spectral decomposition $H^k = Q^k \Lambda^k [Q^k]^\top$, then

$$H^k + M^k = Q^k \max(\varepsilon \mathbf{I}, |D^k|) [Q^k]^\top.$$

- $M^k = \max(0, -\lambda_{\min}(H^k)) \mathbf{I}$.

- Modified Cholesky method:

1. Compute a factorisation $PH^kP^\top = LBL^\top$, where P is a permutation matrix, L a unit lower triangular matrix, and B a block diagonal matrix with blocks of size 1 or 2.
2. Choose a matrix F such that $B + F$ is sufficiently positive definite.
3. Let $H^k + M^k = P^\top L(B + F)L^\top P$.

Other Modifications of Newton's Method:

1. Build a cheap approximation B^k to H^k :

- Quasi-Newton approximation (BFGS, SR1, etc.),
- or use finite-difference approximation.

2. Instead of solving $B^k p^k = -g^k$ for p^k , if $B^k \succ 0$ approximately solve the convex quadratic programming problem

$$\text{(QP)} \quad p^k \approx \arg \min_{p \in \mathbb{R}^n} f^k + p^\top g^k + \frac{1}{2} p^\top B p.$$

The conjugate gradient method is a good solver for step 2:

1. Set $p^{(0)} = 0$, $g^{(0)} = g^k$, $d^{(0)} = -g^k$, and $i = 0$.

2. Until $g^{(i)}$ is sufficiently small or $i = n$, repeat

i) $\alpha^{(i)} = \frac{\|g^{(i)}\|_2^2}{[d^{(i)}]^\top B^k d^{(i)}}$,

ii) $p^{(i+1)} = p^{(i)} + \alpha^{(i)} d^{(i)}$,

iii) $g^{(i+1)} = g^{(i)} + \alpha^{(i)} B^k d^{(i)}$,

iv) $\beta^{(i)} = \frac{\|g^{(i+1)}\|_2^2}{\|g^{(i)}\|_2^2}$,

v) $d^{(i+1)} = -g^{(i+1)} + \beta^{(i)} d^{(i)}$,

vi) increment i by 1.

3. Output $p^k \approx p^{(i)}$.

Important features of the conjugate gradient method:

- $[g^k]^\top p^{(i)} < 0$ for all i , that is, the algorithm always stops with a descent direction as an approximation to p^k .
- Each iteration is cheap, as it only requires the computation of matrix-vector and vector-vector products.
- Usually, $p^{(i)}$ is a good approximation of p^k well before $i = n$.