Proximal Gradient Method

Pontus Giselsson

Learning goals

- Know the difference between first and second order methods
- Know the proximal gradient method:
 - Know that it is (sometimes) a majorization-minimization method
 - Understand its relation to the descent lemma
 - Understand the conditions for convergence and convergence proof
 - Understand what it converges to in nonconvex and convex settings
 - Able to show that the fixed-points solves the problem if convex

Optimization algorithm overview

Algorithms can roughly be divided into the following classes:

- Second-order methods
- Quasi second-order methods
- First-order methods
- Stochastic and coordinate-wise first-order methods

Second-order methods

- Solves problems using second-order (Hessian) information
- Requires smooth (twice continuously differentiable) functions
- Constraints can be incorporated via barrier functions
- Examples:
 - Newton's method to minimize smooth function *f*:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \gamma_k (\nabla^2 f(x_k))^{-1} \nabla f(x_k)$$

- Interior points methods for smooth constrained problems:
 - Use sequence of smooth constraint barrier functions
 - For each barrier, solve smooth problem using Newton's method
 - Make barriers increasingly well approximate constraint set
 - (Can be applied to directly solve primal-dual optimality condition)
- Computational backbone: solving linear systems ${\cal O}(n^3)$
- Often restricted to small to medium scale problems

Quasi second-order methods

- Estimates second-order information from first-order
- Solves problems using estimated second-order information
- Requires smooth (twice continuously differentiable) functions
- Quasi-Newton method for smooth f

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \gamma_k B_k \nabla f(x_k)$$

where B_k is:

- estimate of Hessian inverse (not Hessian to avoid later inverse)
- cheaply computed from gradient information
- Computational backbone: forming B_k and matrix multiplication
- Can solve large-scale smooth problems

First-order methods

- Solves problems using first-order (sub-gradient) information
- Computational primitives: gradients and proximal operators
- Use gradient if function differentiable, prox if nondifferentiable
- Examples for solving minimize f(x) + g(x)
 - Proximal gradient method (requires smooth f since gradient used)

$$x_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(x_k - \gamma \nabla f(x_k))$$

• Douglas-Rachford splitting (no smoothness requirement)

 $z_{k+1} = \frac{1}{2}z_k + \frac{1}{2}(2\text{prox}_{\gamma g} - I)(2\text{prox}_{\gamma f} - I)z_k$

and $x_k = prox_{\gamma f}(z_k)$ converges to solution

- Iteration often cheaper than second-order if function split wisely
- Can solve large scale problems

Stochastic and coordinate-wise first-order methods

- Sometimes first-order methods computationally too expensive
- Stochastic gradient methods:
 - Use stochastic approximation of gradient
 - For finite sum problems, cheaply computed approximation exists
- Coordinate-wise updates:
 - Update only one (or block of) coordinates in every iteration:
 - via direct minimization
 - via proximal gradient step
 - Can update coordinates in cyclic fashion
 - Stronger convergence results if random selection of block
 - Efficiently evaluated, e.g., if one function separable
- Can solve huge scale problems

Our focus

Proximal gradient method, stochastic and coordinate-wise versions

Lectures will cover:

- Proximal gradient method
- Coordinate and stochastic proximal gradient method
- Line search, acceleration, and scaling
- Newton prox method, early termination, quasi-Newton

Notation

- Will go back to optimization variable notation: x, y, z
- For learning examples, use machine learning notation: $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (w, b)$

Proximal Gradient Method

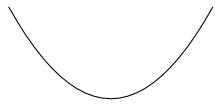
- Proximal gradient is (often) majorization minimization algorithm
- Majorization minimization for solving minimize f(x):
 - Let iterate be x_k
 - Find at x_k majorizing function \bar{f}_{x_k} such that

$$ar{f}_{x_k} \geq f$$
 and $ar{f}_{x_k}(x_k) = f(x_k)$

• Minimize \bar{f} (easier than minimizing f) to get next iterate

$$x_{k+1} = \operatorname*{argmin}_{x} \bar{f}_{x_k}(x)$$

- Majorizer should ensure $x_{k+1} = x_k$ if and only if x_k minimizes f
- Guarantees function decrease (maybe not $x_k \rightarrow x \in \operatorname{argmin} f$)



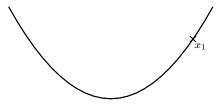
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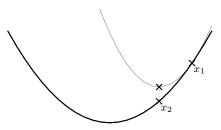
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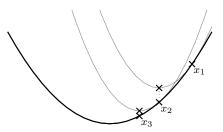
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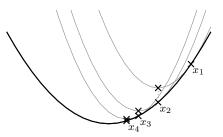
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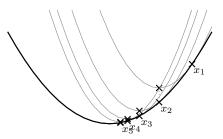
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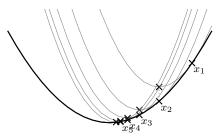
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Composite optimization problems

• We will consider composite optimization problems of the form

 $\min_{x} \inf f(x) + g(x)$

where

- $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is β -smooth (not necessarily convex)
- $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ is closed convex
- Solution set is nonempty, i.e., a solution exists
- Model includes minimization problems of the form

 $\min_{x} \inf f(Lx) + g(x)$

with differentiable $f:\mathbb{R}^m\to\mathbb{R}$ and $L\in\mathbb{R}^{m\times n}$ where

- gradient $\nabla (f \circ L)(x) = L^T \nabla f(Lx)$
- $f \circ L$ is $\beta \|L\|_2^2$ -smooth for β -smooth f, ($\|L\|_2$ is operator norm)
- The latter is form of most supervised training problems
- The former is used here since lighter notation

Gradient method

- Consider minimize β -smooth $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ (i.e., g = 0)
- Recall that β -smoothness implies that

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

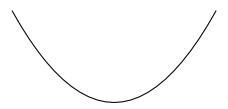
for all $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, i.e., r.h.s. is majorizing function for fixed x

• Majorization minimization with majorizer if $\gamma_k \in [\epsilon, \beta^{-1}]$, $\epsilon > 0$:

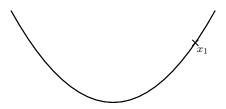
$$\begin{aligned} x_{k+1} &= \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmin}} \left(f(x_k) + \nabla f(x_k)^T (y - x_k) + \frac{1}{2\gamma_k} \|y - x_k\|_2^2 \right) \\ &= \underset{y}{\operatorname{argmin}} \frac{1}{2\gamma_k} \|y - x_k + \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k)\|_2^2 \\ &= x_k - \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k) \end{aligned}$$

• Gives gradient method, γ_k (bounded above by β^{-1}) is step length

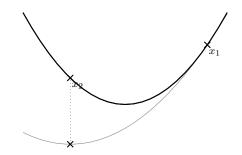
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- Analysis will say: Possible to have $\gamma_k \in [\epsilon, \frac{2}{\beta} \epsilon]$:



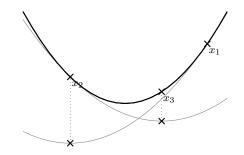
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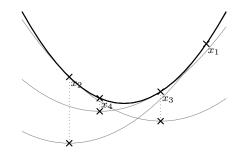
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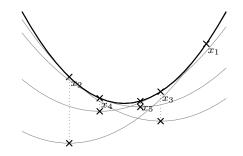
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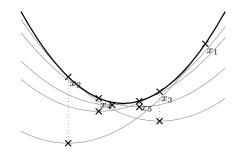
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Proximal gradient method

- Consider minimize f(x) + g(x) where
 - f is β -smooth $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ (not necessarily convex)
 - g is closed convex
- Due to β -smoothness of f, we have

$$f(y) + g(y) \le f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{\beta}{2} \|y - x\|_2^2 + g(y)$$

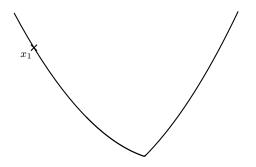
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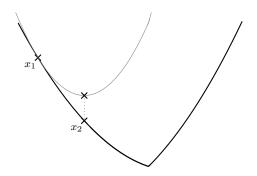
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gives proximal gradient method

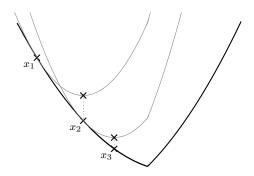
- Proximal gradient iterations for problem minimize $\frac{1}{2}(x-a)^2 + |x|$
- $f(x)=\frac{1}{2}(x-a)^2$ is smooth term and g(x)=|x| is nonsmooth
- Iteration: $x_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(x_k \gamma \nabla f(x_k))$
- Note: convergence in finite number of iterations (not always)



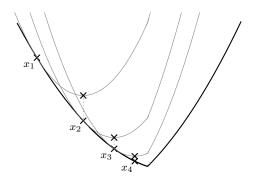
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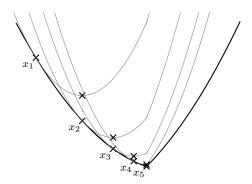
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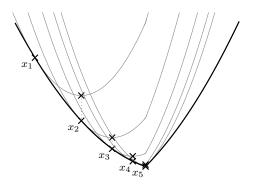
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Proximal gradient – Special cases

- Proximal gradient method:
 - solves $\min_{x} \operatorname{resc}(f(x) + g(x))$
 - iteration: $x_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g}(x_k \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k))$
- Proximal gradient method with g = 0:
 - solves minimize(f(x))
 - $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g}(z) = \operatorname{argmin}_x (0 + \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||x z||_2^2) = z$
 - iteration: $x_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g}(x_k \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k)) = x_k \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k)$
 - reduces to gradient method
- Proximal gradient method with f = 0:
 - solves minimize(g(x))
 - $\nabla f(x) = 0$
 - iteration: $x_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g}(x_k \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k)) = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g}(x_k)$
 - reduces to proximal point method (which is not very useful)

Proximal gradient – Optimality condition

• Proximal gradient iteration:

$$x_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g} (x_k - \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k))$$

=
$$\operatorname{argmin}_{y} (g(y) + \underbrace{\frac{1}{2\gamma_k} \|y - (x_k - \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k))\|_2^2}_{h(y)},$$

where \boldsymbol{x}_{k+1} is unique due to strong convexity of \boldsymbol{h}

• Fermat's rule (and since CQ holds) gives optimality condition:

$$0 \in \partial g(x_{k+1}) + \partial h(x_{k+1}) = \partial g(x_{k+1}) + \gamma_k^{-1}(x_{k+1} - (x_k - \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k))) = \partial g(x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_k) + \gamma_k^{-1}(x_{k+1} - x_k)$$

since h differentiable

• A consequence: $\partial g(x_{k+1})$ is nonempty

Solving composite problem

To solve $\min_{x} f(x) + g(x)$, an algorithm must:

- have fixed-points (output equals input) that solve problem
- converge to a fixed-point

Proximal gradient method:

- for convex problems, it satisfies both requirements
- for nonconvex, weaker (but still useful) results hold

Proximal gradient – Fixed-point set

- Denote $T_{PG}^{\gamma} := prox_{\gamma g}(I \gamma \nabla f)$, gives algorithm $x_{k+1} = T_{PG}^{\gamma} x_k$
- Proximal gradient fixed-point set definition

$$\operatorname{fix} T^{\gamma}_{\mathrm{PG}} = \{ x : x = T^{\gamma}_{\mathrm{PG}} x \} = \{ x : x = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g} (x - \gamma \nabla f(x)) \}$$

i.e., set of points for which $x_{k+1} = x_k$

Proximal gradient – Fixed-point characterization

Let $\gamma > 0$. Then $\bar{x} \in \operatorname{fix} T_{\operatorname{PG}}^{\gamma}$ if and only if $0 \in \partial g(\bar{x}) + \nabla f(\bar{x})$.

• Proof: by proximal gradient step optimality condition

$$\begin{split} \bar{x} \in \mathrm{fix} T_{\mathrm{PG}}^{\gamma} & \Leftrightarrow & \bar{x} = \mathrm{prox}_{\gamma g}(\bar{x} - \gamma \nabla f(\bar{x})) \\ \Leftrightarrow & 0 \in \partial g(\bar{x}) + \gamma^{-1}(\bar{x} - (\bar{x} - \gamma \nabla f(\bar{x}))) \\ \Leftrightarrow & 0 \in \partial g(\bar{x}) + \nabla f(\bar{x}) \end{split}$$

- Consequence: fixed-point set same for all $\gamma>0$
- We call inclusion $0 \in \partial g(\bar{x}) + \nabla f(\bar{x})$ fixed-point characterization

Meaning of fixed-point characterization

- What does fixed-point characterization $0 \in \partial g(\bar{x}) + \nabla f(\bar{x})$ mean?
- For convex differentiable f, subdifferential $\partial f(x) = \{\nabla f(x)\}$ and

$$0 \in \partial f(\bar{x}) + \partial g(\bar{x}) = \partial (f+g)(\bar{x})$$

(subdifferential sum rule holds), i.e., fixed-points solve problem

- For nonconvex differentiable f, we might have $\partial f(\bar{x}) = \emptyset$
 - Fixed-point are not in general global solutions
 - Points \bar{x} that satisfy $0 \in \partial g(\bar{x}) + \nabla f(\bar{x})$ are called *critical points*
 - If g = 0, the condition is $\nabla f(\bar{x}) = 0$, i.e., a stationary point
- Quality of fixed-points differs
- How about convergence to fixed-point?

Assumptions for convergence – Nonconvex case

- Proximal gradient method $x_{k+1} = prox_{\gamma_k g}(x_k \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k))$
- Assumptions:
 - (i) $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is continuously differentiable (not necessarily convex)
 - (*ii*) For every x_k and x_{k+1} there exists $\beta_k \in [\eta, \eta^{-1}]$, $\eta \in (0, 1)$:

$$f(x_{k+1}) \le f(x_k) + \nabla f(x_k)^T (x_{k+1} - x_k) + \frac{\beta_k}{2} \|x_k - x_{k+1}\|_2^2$$

where β_k is a sort of local Lipschitz constant

- $(iii) \;\; g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \cup \{\infty\}$ is closed convex
- (iv) A minimizer exists (and $p^* = \min_x (f(x) + g(x))$ is optimal value)
- (v) Algorithm parameters $\gamma_k \in [\epsilon, \frac{2}{\beta_k} \epsilon]$, where $\epsilon > 0$
- Assumption on f satisfied with $\beta_k=\beta$ if f $\beta\text{-smooth}$

A basic inequality

Using

- $(a) \ \mbox{Upper bound}$ assumption on f, i.e., Assumption (ii)
- (b) Prox optimality condition: There exists $s_{k+1} \in \partial g(x_{k+1})$

$$0 = s_{k+1} + \gamma_k^{-1} (x_{k+1} - (x_k - \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k)))$$

(c) Subgradient definition: $g(x_k) \ge g(x_{k+1}) + s_{k+1}^T(x_k - x_{k+1})$

$$f(x_{k+1}) + g(x_{k+1})$$

$$\stackrel{(a)}{\leq} f(x_k) + \nabla f(x_k)^T (x_{k+1} - x_k) + \frac{\beta_k}{2} ||x_{k+1} - x_k||_2^2 + g(x_{k+1})$$

$$\stackrel{(c)}{\leq} f(x_k) + \nabla f(x_k)^T (x_{k+1} - x_k) + \frac{\beta_k}{2} ||x_{k+1} - x_k||_2^2 + g(x_k)$$

$$- s_{k+1}^T (x_k - x_{k+1})$$

$$\stackrel{(b)}{=} f(x_k) + \nabla f(x_k)^T (x_{k+1} - x_k) + \frac{\beta_k}{2} ||x_{k+1} - x_k||_2^2 + g(x_k)$$

$$+ \gamma_k^{-1} (x_{k+1} - (x_k - \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k)))^T (x_k - x_{k+1})$$

$$= f(x_k) + g(x_k) - (\gamma_k^{-1} - \frac{\beta_k}{2}) ||x_{k+1} - x_k||_2^2$$

Function value decrease

• What conclusions can we draw from

 $f(x_{k+1}) + g(x_{k+1}) \le f(x_k) + g(x_k) - (\gamma_k^{-1} - \frac{\beta_k}{2}) ||x_{k+1} - x_k||_2^2$

- The requirement on $\gamma_k \in [\epsilon, \frac{2}{\beta_k} \epsilon]$:
 - since $\beta_k \in [\eta, \eta^{-1}]$ there is $\epsilon > 0$ such that $[\epsilon, \frac{2}{\beta_k} \epsilon]$ nonempty
 - therefore $\delta > 0$ exists such that

$$\gamma_k^{-1} \in [\tfrac{\beta_k}{2} + \delta, \delta^{-1}] \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \gamma_k^{-1} - \tfrac{\beta_k}{2} \geq \delta > 0$$

which implies that function value decreases:

$$f(x_{k+1}) + g(x_{k+1}) \le f(x_k) + g(x_k) - \delta ||x_{k+1} - x_k||_2^2$$

• Not very useful!

Fixed-point residual converges

• Rearrange inequality from previous slide:

$$\delta \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|_2^2 \le f(x_k) + g(x_k) - (f(x_{k+1}) + g(x_{k+1}))$$

• Telescope summation gives for all $n \in \mathbb{N}$:

$$\delta \sum_{k=1}^{n} \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|_2^2 \le \sum_{k=1}^{n} (f(x_k) + g(x_k) - (f(x_{k+1}) + g(x_{k+1})))$$

= $f(x_1) + g(x_1) - (f(x_{n+1}) + g(x_{n+1}))$
 $\le f(x_1) + g(x_1) - p^* < \infty$

where $p^{\star} = \min_x (f(x) + g(x))$ and $<\infty$ since $x_1 \in \mathrm{dom} g$

• Since $\delta > 0$, this implies:

$$\|\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(x_k - \gamma \nabla f(x_k)) - x_k\|_2 = \|x_{k+1} - x_k\|_2 \to 0$$

Residual convergence – Implication

What does $\| \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g}(x_k - \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k)) - x_k \|_2 \to 0$ mean and imply?

- That fixed-point equation will be satisfied in the limit
- By prox-grad optimality condition:

$$\partial g(x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_k) \ni \gamma_k^{-1}(x_k - x_{k+1}) \to 0$$

as $k \to \infty$ (since $\gamma_k \geq \epsilon,$ i.e., $0 < \gamma_k^{-1} \leq \epsilon^{-1})$ or equivalently

$$\partial g(x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_{k+1}) \ni \underbrace{\gamma_k^{-1}(x_k - x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k)}_{u_k} \to 0$$

where $u_k \rightarrow 0$ is concluded by continuity of ∇f , implications:

- Fixed-point characterization satisfied in the limit
- Nonconvex f: Critical point definition satisfied in the limit
- Convex f: Global optimality condition satisfied in the limit
- However, does not imply that (x_k) converges to a fixed-point

Sequence convergence results

Nonconvex *f*:

• convergent (sub)sequences (if exist), converge to fixed-point

Convex *f*:

• sequence converges to fixed-point, hence to (global) solution

Sequence convergence – Convex case

- Assume, in addition to previous assumptions, that f is convex
- The following result can be shown to hold

A sequence $(x_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges to a point in $\operatorname{fix} T_{\operatorname{PG}}^{\gamma}$ if: (i) $\|\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma g}(x_k - \gamma \nabla f(x_k)) - x_k\|_2 \to 0$ as $k \to \infty$ (ii) $(\|x_k - z\|_2)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$ converges for all $z \in \operatorname{fix} T_{\operatorname{PG}}^{\gamma}$

- Condition (i) already shown to hold for prox-grad iteration
- Condition (ii) holds for convex problems (but not for nonconvex)
- A proof can be found in note on course webpage

Summary

Nonconvex f:

- Fixed-points \bar{x} such that $0 \in \partial g(\bar{x}) + \nabla f(\bar{x})$ are critical points
- Generated sequence $u_k \to 0$ satisfies $u_k \in \partial g(x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_{k+1})$
- If convergent (sub)sequence exists, converges to fixed-point

Convex f:

- Fixed-points \bar{x} such that $0 \in \partial g(\bar{x}) + \nabla f(\bar{x})$ are global solutions
- Generated sequence $u_k \to 0$ satisfies $u_k \in \partial g(x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_{k+1})$
- Sequence converges to fixed-point

Choose β_k and γ_k

• Convergence based on assumption that β_k known that satisfies

 $f(x_{k+1}) \le f(x_k) + \nabla f(x_k)^T (x_{k+1} - x_k) + \frac{\beta_k}{2} ||x_k - x_{k+1}||_2^2$

call this descent condition (DC)

• If f is $\beta\text{-smooth, then }\beta_k=\beta$ is valid choice since

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

for all x,y, select $\gamma_k \in [\epsilon, \frac{2}{\beta} - \epsilon]$

Choose β_k and γ_k – Backtracking

- Backtracking, choose $\delta > 1$, $\beta_k \in [\eta, \eta^{-1}]$ and loop:
 - 1. choose $\gamma_k \in [\epsilon, \frac{2}{\beta_k} \epsilon]$
 - 2. compute $x_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g}(x_k \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k))$
 - if descent condition (DC) satisfied break

else

```
set \beta_k \leftarrow \delta \beta_k and go to 1
```

end

- Backtracking will terminate within finite number of backtracks if:
 - f smooth (∇f Lipschitz), constant unknown: initialize $\beta_k = \beta_{k-1}$
 - ∇f locally Lipschitz and sequence bounded: initialize $\beta_k = \bar{\beta}$

When is problem solved?

- Consider $\min_{x} rightarrow consider minimize(f(x) + g(x))$
- Apply proximal gradient method $x_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g}(x_k \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k))$
- Algorithm sequence satisfies

$$\partial g(x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_{k+1}) \ni \underbrace{\gamma_k^{-1}(x_k - x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k)}_{u_k} \to 0$$

is $||u_k||$ small a good measure of being close to fixed-point?

When is problem solved?

Let $\delta > 0$ and solve equivalent problem $\min_{x} \min(\delta f(x) + \delta g(x))$:

- Denote algorithm parameter $\gamma_{\delta,k} = \frac{\gamma_k}{\delta}$
- Algorithm satisfies:

$$x_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_{\delta,k}\delta g}(x_k - \gamma_{\delta,k}\nabla\delta f(x_k)) = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g}(x_k - \gamma_k\nabla f(x_k))$$

i.e., the same algorithm as before

• However, $u_{\delta,k}$ in this setting satisfies

$$u_{\delta,k} = \gamma_{\delta,k}^{-1}(x_k - x_{k+1}) + \nabla \delta f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla \delta f(x_k)$$

= $\delta(\gamma_{\delta}^{-1}(x_k - x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k))$
= δu_k

i.e., same algorithm but different optimality measure

• Optimality measure should be scaling invariant

Stopping condition

• For β smooth f, use scaled condition $\beta^{-1}u_k$

$$\beta^{-1}u_k := \beta^{-1}(\gamma_k^{-1}(x_k - x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k))$$

which is scale invariant

- Stop algorithm when $\beta^{-1}u_k$ is small enough
 - absolute stopping conditions with small $\epsilon_{\rm abs}>0$

•
$$\beta^{-1} \| u_k \|_2 \le \epsilon_{\text{abs}}$$

• $\beta^{-1} (\gamma_k^{-1} \| x_k - x_{k+1} \|_2 + \| \nabla f(x_k) - \nabla f(x_{k+1}) \|_2) \le \epsilon_{\text{abs}}$

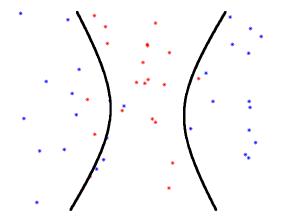
• relative stopping condition with small $\epsilon_{rel}, \epsilon > 0$:

$$\begin{array}{l} \bullet \hspace{0.1 cm} \beta^{-1} \frac{\|u_{k}\|}{\|x_{k}\|+\epsilon} \leq \epsilon_{\mathrm{rel}} \\ \bullet \hspace{0.1 cm} \beta^{-1} \gamma_{k}^{-1} \frac{\|x_{k}-x_{k+1}\|_{2}}{\|x_{k}\|_{2}+\epsilon} + \frac{\|\nabla f(x_{k})-\nabla f(x_{k+1})\|_{2}}{\|\nabla f(x_{k})\|_{2}+\epsilon} \leq \epsilon_{\mathrm{re}} \end{array}$$

- Problem considered solved to optimality if, say, $\epsilon_{\rm abs} \leq 10^{-6}$
- Sometimes want to stop algorithm early, a form of regularization
- Other stopping conditions can be used, should be scaling invariant

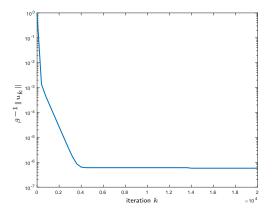
Example – SVM

- Classification problem from SVM lecture, SVM with
 - polynomial features of degree 2
 - regularization parameter $\lambda = 0.00001$



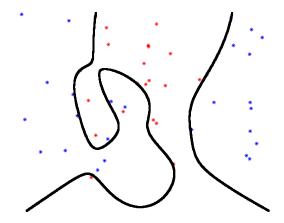
Example - Fixed-point residual

- Plots $\beta^{-1} \|u_k\|_2 = \beta^{-1} \|\gamma_k^{-1}(x_k x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_{k+1}) \nabla f(x_k)\|_2$
- Shows residual up to 20'000 iterations
- Quite many iterations needed to converge



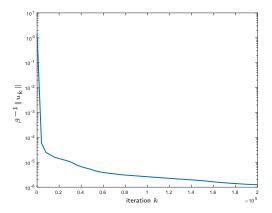
Example – SVM higher degree polynomial

- Classification problem from SVM lecture, SVM with
 - polynomial features of degree 6
 - regularization parameter $\lambda = 0.00001$



Example – Fixed-point residual

- Plots $\beta^{-1} \|u_k\|_2 = \beta^{-1} \|\gamma_k^{-1}(x_k x_{k+1}) + \nabla f(x_{k+1}) \nabla f(x_k)\|_2$
- Shows residual up to 200'000 iterations (10x more than before)
- Many iterations needed



Applying proximal gradient to primal problems

```
Problem minimize f(x) + g(x):
```

- Assumptions:
 - f smooth
 - g closed convex and prox friendly¹
- Algorithm: $x_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g}(x_k \gamma_k \nabla f(x_k))$

Problem minimize f(Lx) + g(x):

- Assumptions:
 - f smooth (implies $f \circ L$ smooth)
 - g closed convex and prox friendly¹
- Gradient $\nabla(f\circ L)(x) = L^T \nabla f(Lx)$
- Algorithm: $x_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k g}(x_k \gamma_k L^T \nabla f(Lx_k))$

 1 Prox friendly: proximal operator cheap to evaluate, e.g., g separable

Applying proximal gradient to dual problem

Dual problem minimize $f^*(\nu) + g^*(-L^T\nu)$:

- Assumptions:
 - f closed convex and prox friendly
 - g strongly convex (which implies $g^* \circ -L^T$ smooth)
- Gradient: $\nabla(g^* \circ -L^T)(\nu) = -L \nabla g^*(-L^T \nu)$
- Prox (Moreau): $\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k f^*}(\nu) = \nu \gamma_k \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k^{-1} f}(\gamma_k^{-1}\nu)$
- Algorithm:

$$\nu_{k+1} = \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k f^*} (\nu_k - \gamma_k \nabla (g^* \circ -L^T)(\nu_k)) = (I - \gamma_k \operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k^{-1} f} (\gamma_k^{-1} \circ I))(\nu_k + \gamma_k L \nabla g^*(-L^T \nu_k))$$

- Problem must be convex to have dual!
- Enough to know prox of \boldsymbol{f}

Primal recovery

• Fermat's rule for dual proximal gradient method

$$0 \in \partial f^*(\nu_{k+1}) + \nabla (g^* \circ -L^T)(\nu_k) + \gamma_k^{-1}(\nu_{k+1} - \nu_k) = \partial f^*(\nu_{k+1}) - L\nabla (g^*(-L^T\nu_k) + \gamma_k^{-1}(\nu_{k+1} - \nu_k))$$

• Now, let
$$x_k = \nabla g^* (-L^T \nu_k)$$
, then

$$0 \in \begin{cases} \nabla g^*(-L^T \nu_k) - x_k \\ \partial f^*(\nu_{k+1}) - L x_k + \gamma_k^{-1}(\nu_{k+1} - \nu_k) \end{cases}$$

and (x_k,ν_k) satisfies optimality condition when $\nu_{k+1}-\nu_k \rightarrow 0$

What problems cannot be solved (efficiently)?

Problem minimize f(x) + g(x)

- Assumptions: f and g convex and nonsmooth
- No term differentiable, another method must be used:
 - Subgradient method
 - Douglas-Rachford splitting
 - Primal-dual methods

Problem minimize f(x) + g(Lx)

- Assumptions:
 - f smooth
 - g nonsmooth convex
 - L arbitrary structured matrix
- Can apply proximal gradient method, but

$$\operatorname{prox}_{\gamma_k(g \circ L)}(z) = \operatorname{argmin}_x g(Lx) + \frac{1}{2\gamma} ||x - z||_2^2)$$

often not "prox friendly", i.e., it is expensive to evaluate