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Lecture 3: Huge-scale optimization problems

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## Outline

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## Nonlinear Optimization: problems sizes

| Class | Operations | Dimension | Iter.Cost | Memory |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Small-size | All | $10^{0}-10^{2}$ | $n^{4} \rightarrow n^{3}$ | Kilobyte: | $10^{3}$ |
| Medium-size | $A^{-1}$ | $10^{3}-10^{4}$ | $n^{3} \rightarrow n^{2}$ | Megabyte: | $10^{6}$ |
| Large-scale | $A x$ | $10^{5}-10^{7}$ | $n^{2} \rightarrow n$ | Gigabyte: | $10^{9}$ |
| Huge-scale | $x+y$ | $10^{8}-10^{12}$ | $n \rightarrow \log n$ | Terabyte: | $10^{12}$ |

## Sources of Huge-Scale problems

- Internet (New)
- Telecommunications (New)
- Finite-element schemes (Old)
- Partial differential equations (Old)


## Very old optimization idea: Coordinate Search

Problem: $\min _{x \in R^{n}} f(x) \quad$ ( $f$ is convex and differentiable).

## Coordinate relaxation algorithm

For $k \geq 0$ iterate
(1) Choose active coordinate $i_{k}$.
(2) Update $x_{k+1}=x_{k}-h_{k} \nabla_{i_{k}} f\left(x_{k}\right) e_{i_{k}}$ ensuring $f\left(x_{k+1}\right) \leq f\left(x_{k}\right)$. ( $e_{i}$ is ith coordinate vector in $R^{n}$.)

Main advantage: Very simple implementation.

## Possible strategies

(1) Cyclic moves. (Difficult to analyze.)
(2) Random choice of coordinate (Why?)
(3) Choose coordinate with the maximal directional derivative.

Complexity estimate: assume

$$
\|\nabla f(x)-\nabla f(y)\| \leq L\|x-y\|, \quad x, y \in R^{n}
$$

Let us choose $h_{k}=\frac{1}{L}$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left(x_{k}\right)-f\left(x_{k+1}\right) & \geq \frac{1}{2 L}\left|\nabla_{i_{k}} f\left(x_{k}\right)\right|^{2} \geq \frac{1}{2 n L}\left\|\nabla f\left(x_{k}\right)\right\|^{2} \\
& \geq \frac{1}{2 n L R^{2}}\left(f\left(x_{k}\right)-f^{*}\right)^{2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

Hence, $f\left(x_{k}\right)-f^{*} \leq \frac{2 n L R^{2}}{k}, k \geq 1$. (For Grad.Method, drop n.)
This is the only known theoretical result known for CDM!

## Criticism

## Theoretical justification:

- Complexity bounds are not known for the most of the schemes.
- The only justified scheme needs computation of the whole gradient. (Why don't use GM?)

Computational complexity:

- Fast differentiation: if function is defined by a sequence of operations, then $C(\nabla f) \leq 4 C(f)$.
- Can we do anything without computing the function's values?

Result: CDM are almost out of the computational practice.

## Google problem

Let $E \in R^{n \times n}$ be an incidence matrix of a graph. Denote $e=(1, \ldots, 1)^{T}$ and

$$
\bar{E}=E \cdot \operatorname{diag}\left(E^{T} e\right)^{-1}
$$

Thus, $\bar{E}^{T} e=e$. Our problem is as follows:
Find $x^{*} \geq 0: \quad \bar{E} x^{*}=x^{*}$.

## Optimization formulation:

$$
f(x) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{1}{2}\|\bar{E} x-x\|^{2}+\frac{\gamma}{2}[\langle e, x\rangle-1]^{2} \rightarrow \min _{x \in R^{n}}
$$

## Huge-scale problems

## Main features

- The size is very big $\left(n \geq 10^{7}\right)$.
- The data is distributed in space.
- The requested parts of data are not always available.
- The data is changing in time.


## Consequences

Simplest operations are expensive or infeasible:

- Update of the full vector of variables.
- Matrix-vector multiplication.
- Computation of the objective function's value, etc.


## Structure of the Google Problem

Let ua look at the gradient of the objective:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\nabla_{i} f(x) & =\left\langle a_{i}, g(x)\right\rangle+\gamma[\langle e, x\rangle-1], i=1, \ldots, n \\
g(x) & =\bar{E} x-x \in R^{n}, \quad\left(\bar{E}=\left(a_{1}, \ldots, a_{n}\right)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

## Main observations:

- The coordinate move $x_{+}=x-h_{i} \nabla_{i} f(x) e_{i}$ needs $O\left(p_{i}\right)$ a.o.
( $p_{i}$ is the number of nonzero elements in $a_{i}$.)
- $d_{i} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \operatorname{diag}\left(\nabla^{2} f \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \bar{E}^{T} \bar{E}+\gamma e e^{T}\right)_{i}=\gamma+\frac{1}{p_{i}}$ are available.

We can use them for choosing the step sizes $\left(h_{i}=\frac{1}{d_{i}}\right)$.
Reasonable coordinate choice strategy? Random!

## Random coordinate descent methods (RCDM)

$$
\min _{x \in R^{N}} f(x), \quad(f \text { is convex and differentiable })
$$

## Main Assumption:

$$
\left|f_{i}^{\prime}\left(x+h_{i} e_{i}\right)-f_{i}^{\prime}(x)\right| \leq L_{i}\left|h_{i}\right|, \quad h_{i} \in R, i=1, \ldots, N,
$$

where $e_{i}$ is a coordinate vector. Then

$$
f\left(x+h_{i} e_{i}\right) \leq f(x)+f_{i}^{\prime}(x) h_{i}+\frac{L_{i}}{2} h_{i}^{2} . \quad x \in R^{N}, h_{i} \in R
$$

Define the coordinate steps: $T_{i}(x) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} x-\frac{1}{L_{i}} f_{i}^{\prime}(x) e_{i}$. Then,

$$
f(x)-f\left(T_{i}(x)\right) \geq \frac{1}{2 L_{i}}\left[f_{i}^{\prime}(x)\right]^{2}, \quad i=1, \ldots, N
$$

## Random coordinate choice

We need a special random counter $\mathcal{R}_{\alpha}, \alpha \in R$ :

$$
\operatorname{Prob}[i]=p_{\alpha}^{(i)}=L_{i}^{\alpha} \cdot\left[\sum_{j=1}^{N} L_{j}^{\alpha}\right]^{-1}, \quad i=1, \ldots, N .
$$

Note: $\mathcal{R}_{0}$ generates uniform distribution.

## Method $\operatorname{RCDM}\left(\alpha, x_{0}\right)$

For $k \geq 0$ iterate:

1) Choose $i_{k}=\mathcal{R}_{\alpha}$.
2) Update $x_{k+1}=T_{i_{k}}\left(x_{k}\right)$.

## Complexity bounds for RCDM

We need to introduce the following norms for $x, g \in R^{N}$ :

$$
\|x\|_{\alpha}=\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} L_{i}^{\alpha}\left[x^{(i)}\right]^{2}\right]^{1 / 2}, \quad\|g\|_{\alpha}^{*}=\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{L_{i}^{\alpha}}\left[g^{(i)}\right]^{2}\right]^{1 / 2} .
$$

After $k$ iterations, $R C D M\left(\alpha, x_{0}\right)$ generates random output $x_{k}$, which depends on $\xi_{k}=\left\{i_{0}, \ldots, i_{k}\right\}$. Denote $\phi_{k}=E_{\xi_{k-1}} f\left(x_{k}\right)$.

Theorem. For any $k \geq 1$ we have

$$
\phi_{k}-f^{*} \leq \frac{2}{k} \cdot\left[\sum_{j=1}^{N} L_{j}^{\alpha}\right] \cdot R_{1-\alpha}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

where $R_{\beta}\left(x_{0}\right)=\max _{x}\left\{\max _{x_{*} \in X^{*}}\left\|x-x_{*}\right\|_{\beta}: f(x) \leq f\left(x_{0}\right)\right\}$.

## Interpretation

1. $\alpha=0$. Then $S_{0}=N$, and we get

$$
\phi_{k}-f^{*} \leq \frac{2 N}{k} \cdot R_{1}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right) .
$$

## Note

- We use the metric $\|x\|_{1}^{2}=\sum_{i=1}^{N} L_{i}\left[x^{(i)}\right]^{2}$.
- A matrix with diagonal $\left\{L_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{N}$ can have its norm equal to $n$.
- Hence, for GM we can guarantee the same bound.

But its cost of iteration is much higher!

## Interpretation

2. $\alpha=\frac{1}{2}$. Denote

$$
D_{\infty}\left(x_{0}\right)=\max _{x}\left\{\max _{y \in X^{*}} \max _{1 \leq i \leq N}\left|x^{(i)}-y^{(i)}\right|: f(x) \leq f\left(x_{0}\right)\right\}
$$

Then, $R_{1 / 2}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right) \leq S_{1 / 2} D_{\infty}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right)$, and we obtain

$$
\phi_{k}-f^{*} \leq \frac{2}{k} \cdot\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} L_{i}^{1 / 2}\right]^{2} \cdot D_{\infty}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

## Note:

- For the first order methods, the worst-case complexity of minimizing over a box depends on $N$.
- Since $S_{1 / 2}$ can be bounded, RCDM can be applied in situations when the usual GM fail.


## Interpretation

3. $\alpha=1$. Then $R_{0}\left(x_{0}\right)$ is the size of the initial level set in the standard Euclidean norm. Hence,

$$
\phi_{k}-f^{*} \leq \frac{2}{k} \cdot\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} L_{i}\right] \cdot R_{0}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right) \equiv \frac{2 N}{k} \cdot\left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L_{i}\right] \cdot R_{0}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

Rate of convergence of GM can be estimated as

$$
f\left(x_{k}\right)-f^{*} \leq \frac{\gamma}{k} R_{0}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right)
$$

where $\gamma$ satisfies condition $f^{\prime \prime}(x) \preceq \gamma \cdot I, x \in R^{N}$.
Note: maximal eigenvalue of symmetric matrix can reach its trace.
In the worst case, the rate of convergence of GM is the same as that of RCDM.

## Minimizing the strongly convex functions

Theorem. Let $f(x)$ be strongly convex with respect to $\|\cdot\|_{1-\alpha}$ with convexity parameter $\sigma_{1-\alpha}>0$.
Then, for $\left\{x_{k}\right\}$ generated by $\operatorname{RCDM}\left(\alpha, x_{0}\right)$ we have

$$
\phi_{k}-\phi^{*} \leq\left(1-\frac{\sigma_{1-\alpha}}{S_{\alpha}}\right)^{k}\left(f\left(x_{0}\right)-f^{*}\right)
$$

Proof: Let $x_{k}$ be generated by $R C D M$ after $k$ iterations.
Let us estimate the expected result of the next iteration.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f\left(x_{k}\right)-E_{i_{k}}\left(f\left(x_{k+1}\right)\right)=\sum_{i=1}^{N} p_{\alpha}^{(i)} \cdot\left[f\left(x_{k}\right)-f\left(T_{i}\left(x_{k}\right)\right)\right] \\
& \geq \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{p_{\alpha}^{(i)}}{2 L_{i}}\left[f_{i}^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right]^{2}=\frac{1}{2 S_{\alpha}}\left(\left\|f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right\|_{1-\alpha}^{*}\right)^{2} \\
& \geq \frac{\sigma_{1}-\alpha}{S_{\alpha}}\left(f\left(x_{k}\right)-f^{*}\right) .
\end{aligned}
$$

It remains to compute expectation in $\xi_{k-1}$.

## Confidence level of the answers

Note: We have proved that the expected values of random $f\left(x_{k}\right)$ are good.

Can we guarantee anything after a single run?
Confidence level: Probability $\beta \in(0,1)$, that some statement about random output is correct.
Main tool: Chebyschev inequality $\quad(\xi \geq 0)$ :

$$
\operatorname{Prob}[\xi \geq T] \leq \frac{E(\xi)}{T}
$$

Our situation:

$$
\operatorname{Prob}\left[f\left(x_{k}\right)-f^{*} \geq \epsilon\right] \leq \frac{1}{\epsilon}\left[\phi_{k}-f^{*}\right] \leq 1-\beta
$$

We need $\phi_{k}-f^{*} \leq \epsilon \cdot(1-\beta)$. Too expensive for $\beta \rightarrow 1$ ?

## Regularization technique

Consider $f_{\mu}(x)=f(x)+\frac{\mu}{2}\left\|x-x_{0}\right\|_{1-\alpha}^{2}$. It is strongly convex.
Therefore, we can obtain $\phi_{k}-f_{\mu}^{*} \leq \epsilon \cdot(1-\beta)$ in

$$
O\left(\frac{1}{\mu} S_{\alpha} \ln \frac{1}{\epsilon \cdot(1-\beta)}\right) \text { iterations. }
$$

Theorem. Define $\alpha=1, \mu=\frac{\epsilon}{4 R_{0}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right)}$, and choose

$$
k \geq 1+\frac{8 S_{1} R_{0}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right)}{\epsilon}\left[\ln \frac{2 S_{1} R_{0}^{2}\left(x_{0}\right)}{\epsilon}+\ln \frac{1}{1-\beta}\right] .
$$

Let $x_{k}$ be generated by $\operatorname{RCDM}\left(1, x_{0}\right)$ as applied to $f_{\mu}$. Then

$$
\operatorname{Prob}\left(f\left(x_{k}\right)-f^{*} \leq \epsilon\right) \geq \beta
$$

Note: $\quad \beta=1-10^{-p} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \ln 10^{p}=2.3 p$.

## Implementation details: Random Counter

Given the values $L_{i}, i=1, \ldots, N$, generate efficiently random
$i \in\{1, \ldots, N\}$ with probabilities Prob $[i=k]=L_{k} / \sum_{j=1}^{N} L_{j}$.
Solution: a) Trivial $\Rightarrow O(N)$ operations.
b). Assume $N=2^{p}$. Define $p+1$ vectors $S_{k} \in R^{2^{p-k}}, k=0, \ldots, p$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
S_{0}^{(i)} & =L_{i}, i=1, \ldots, N \\
S_{k}^{(i)} & =S_{k-1}^{(2 i)}+S_{k-1}^{(2 i-1)}, i=1, \ldots, 2^{p-k}, \quad k=1, \ldots, p .
\end{aligned}
$$

Algorithm: Make the choice in $p$ steps, from top to bottom.

- If the element $i$ of $S_{k}$ is chosen, then choose in $S_{k-1}$ either $2 i$ or
$2 i-1$ in accordance to probabilities $\frac{S_{k-1}^{(2 i)}}{S_{k}^{(i)}}$ or $\frac{S_{k-1}^{(2 i-1)}}{S_{k}^{(i)}}$.
Difference: for $n=2^{20}>10^{6}$ we have $p=\log _{2} N=20$.


## Sparse problems

Problem: $\min _{x \in Q} f(x)$, where $Q$ is closed and convex in $R^{N}$, and

- $f(x)=\Psi(A x)$, where $\Psi$ is a simple convex function:

$$
\Psi\left(y_{1}\right) \geq \Psi\left(y_{2}\right)+\left\langle\Psi^{\prime}\left(y_{2}\right), y_{1}-y_{2}\right\rangle, \quad y_{1}, y_{2} \in R^{M}
$$

- $A: R^{N} \rightarrow R^{M}$ is a sparse matrix.

Let $p(x) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \#$ of nonzeros in $x$. Sparsity coefficient: $\gamma(A) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \frac{p(A)}{M N}$.
Example 1: Matrix-vector multiplication

- Computation of vector $A x$ needs $p(A)$ operations.
- Initial complexity $M N$ is reduced in $\gamma(A)$ times.


## Gradient Method

$$
x_{0} \in Q, \quad x_{k+1}=\pi_{Q}\left(x_{k}-h f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right), \quad k \geq 0
$$

## Main computational expenses

- Projection of simple set $Q$ needs $O(N)$ operations.
- Displacement $x_{k} \rightarrow x_{k}-h f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)$ needs $O(N)$ operations.
- $f^{\prime}(x)=A^{T} \Psi^{\prime}(A x)$. If $\Psi$ is simple, then the main efforts are spent for two matrix-vector multiplications: $2 p(A)$.

Conclusion: As compared with full matrices, we accelerate in $\gamma(\boldsymbol{A})$ times.
Note: For Large- and Huge-scale problems, we often have $\gamma(A) \approx 10^{-4} \ldots 10^{-6}$.

Can we get more?

## Sparse updating strategy

## Main idea

- After update $x_{+}=x+d$ we have $y+\stackrel{\text { def }}{=} A x_{+}=\underbrace{A x}_{y}+A d$.
- What happens if $d$ is sparse?

Denote $\sigma(d)=\left\{j: d^{(j)} \neq 0\right\}$. Then $y_{+}=y+\sum_{j \in \sigma(d)} d^{(j)} \cdot A e_{j}$. Its complexity, $\kappa_{A}(d) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \sum_{j \in \sigma(d)} p\left(A e_{j}\right), \quad$ can be VERY small!

$$
\begin{aligned}
\kappa_{A}(d) & =M \sum_{j \in \sigma(d)} \gamma\left(A e_{j}\right)=\gamma(d) \cdot \frac{1}{p(d)} \sum_{j \in \sigma(d)} \gamma\left(A e_{j}\right) \cdot M N \\
& \leq \gamma(d) \max _{1 \leq j \leq m} \gamma\left(A e_{j}\right) \cdot M N .
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\text { If } \gamma(d) \leq c \gamma(A), \gamma\left(A_{j}\right) \leq c \gamma(A) \text {, then } \kappa_{A}(d) \leq c^{2} \cdot \gamma^{2}(A) \cdot M N \text {. }
$$

Expected acceleration: $\left(10^{-6}\right)^{2}=10^{-12} \Rightarrow 1 \mathrm{sec} \approx 32000$ years

## When it can work?

- Simple methods: No full-vector operations! (Is it possible?)
- Simple problems: Functions with sparse gradients.


## Examples

(1) Quadratic function $f(x)=\frac{1}{2}\langle A x, x\rangle-\langle b, x\rangle$. The gradient

$$
f^{\prime}(x)=A x-b, \quad x \in R^{N}
$$

is not sparse even if $A$ is sparse.
(2) Piece-wise linear function $g(x)=\max _{1 \leq i \leq m}\left[\left\langle a_{i}, x\right\rangle-b^{(i)}\right]$. Its subgradient $f^{\prime}(x)=a_{i(x)}, i(x): f(x)=\left\langle a_{i(x)}, x\right\rangle-b^{(i(x))}$, can be sparse if $a_{i}$ is sparse!

But: We need a fast procedure for updating max-operations.

## Fast updates in short computational trees

Def: Function $f(x), x \in R^{n}$, is short-tree representable, if it can be computed by a short binary tree with the height $\approx \ln n$.
Let $n=2^{k}$ and the tree has $k+1$ levels: $v_{0, i}=x^{(i)}, i=1, \ldots, n$.
Size of the next level halves the size of the previous one:

$$
v_{i+1, j}=\psi_{i+1, j}\left(v_{i, 2 j-1}, v_{i, 2 j}\right), \quad j=1, \ldots, 2^{k-i-1}, \quad i=0, \ldots, k-1
$$

where $\psi_{i, j}$ are some bivariate functions.

| $V_{k, 1}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $V_{k-1,1}$ |  |  |  | $v_{k-1,2}$ |  |
| . . |  |  |  | . . |  |
| $V_{2,1}$ |  |  |  | $V_{2, n / 4}$ |  |
| $V_{1,1}$ |  |  |  | $V_{1, n / 2-1}$ | $V_{1, n / 2}$ |
| $V_{0,1}$ $V_{0,2}$ | $V_{0,3}$ | $V_{0,4}$ |  | $V_{0, n-3} \mid V_{0, n-2}$ |   <br> $0, n-1$ $V_{0, n}$ |

## Main advantages

- Important examples (symmetric functions)

$$
\begin{aligned}
& f(x)=\|x\|_{p}, \quad p \geq 1, \quad \psi_{i, j}\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right) \equiv\left[\left|t_{1}\right|^{p}+\left|t_{2}\right|^{p}\right]^{1 / p}, \\
& f(x)=\ln \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{x^{(i)}}\right), \quad \psi_{i, j}\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right) \equiv \ln \left(e^{t_{1}}+e^{t_{2}}\right), \\
& f(x)=\max _{1 \leq i \leq n} x^{(i)}, \quad \psi_{i, j}\left(t_{1}, t_{2}\right) \equiv \max \left\{t_{1}, t_{2}\right\} .
\end{aligned}
$$

- The binary tree requires only $n-1$ auxiliary cells.
- Its value needs $n-1$ applications of $\psi_{i, j}(\cdot, \cdot)$ ( $\equiv$ operations).
- If $x_{+}$differs from $x$ in one entry only, then for re-computing $f\left(x_{+}\right)$we need only $k \equiv \log _{2} n$ operations.

Thus, we can have pure subgradient minimization schemes with Sublinear Iteration Cost

## Simple subgradient methods

1. Problem: $f^{*} \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \min _{x \in Q} f(x)$, where

- $Q$ is a closed and convex and $\left\|f^{\prime}(x)\right\| \leq L(f), x \in Q$,
- the optimal value $f^{*}$ is known.

Consider the following optimization scheme (B.Polyak, 1967):

$$
x_{0} \in Q, \quad x_{k+1}=\pi_{Q}\left(x_{k}-\frac{f\left(x_{k}\right)-f^{*}}{\left\|f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right\|^{2}} f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right), \quad k \geq 0
$$

Denote $f_{k}^{*}=\min _{0 \leq i \leq k} f\left(x_{i}\right)$. Then for any $k \geq 0$ we have:

$$
\begin{aligned}
f_{k}^{*}-f^{*} & \leq \frac{L(f)\left\|x_{0}-\pi_{X_{*}}\left(x_{0}\right)\right\|}{(k+1)^{1 / 2}} \\
\left\|x_{k}-x^{*}\right\| & \leq\left\|x_{0}-x^{*}\right\|, \quad \forall x^{*} \in X_{*}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Proof:

Let us fix $x^{*} \in X_{*}$. Denote $r_{k}\left(x^{*}\right)=\left\|x_{k}-x^{*}\right\|$. Then

$$
\begin{aligned}
r_{k+1}^{2}\left(x^{*}\right) & \leq\left\|x_{k}-\frac{f\left(x_{k}\right)-f^{*}}{\left\|f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right\|^{\prime}} f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)-x^{*}\right\|^{2} \\
& =r_{k}^{2}\left(x^{*}\right)-2 \frac{f\left(x_{k}\right)-f^{*}}{\left\|f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right\|^{2}}\left\langle f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right), x_{k}-x^{*}\right\rangle+\frac{\left(f\left(x_{k}\right)-f^{*}\right)^{2}}{\left\|f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right\|^{2}} \\
& \leq r_{k}^{2}\left(x^{*}\right)-\frac{\left(f\left(x_{k}\right)-f^{*}\right)^{2}}{\left\|f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right\|^{2}} \leq r_{k}^{2}\left(x^{*}\right)-\frac{\left(f_{k}^{*}-f^{*}\right)^{2}}{L^{2}(f)} .
\end{aligned}
$$

From this reasoning, $\left\|x_{k+1}-x^{*}\right\|^{2} \leq\left\|x_{k}-x^{*}\right\|^{2}, \forall x^{*} \in X^{*}$.
Corollary: Assume $X_{*}$ has recession direction $d_{*}$. Then

$$
\left\|x_{k}-\pi_{X_{*}}\left(x_{0}\right)\right\| \leq\left\|x_{0}-\pi_{X_{*}}\left(x_{0}\right)\right\|, \quad\left\langle d_{*}, x_{k}\right\rangle \geq\left\langle d_{*}, x_{0}\right\rangle
$$

(Proof: consider $x^{*}=\pi_{X_{*}}\left(x_{0}\right)+\alpha d_{*}, \alpha \geq 0$.)

## Constrained minimization (N.Shor (1964) \& B.Polyak)

II. Problem: $\min _{x \in Q}\{f(x): g(x) \leq 0\}$, where

- $Q$ is closed and convex,
- $f, g$ have uniformly bounded subgradients.

Consider the following method. It has step-size parameter $h>0$.

$$
\text { If } \begin{array}{rll}
g\left(x_{k}\right)>h\left\|g^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right\|, & \text { then }(\mathrm{A}): & x_{k+1}=\pi_{Q}\left(x_{k}-\frac{g\left(x_{k}\right)}{\left\|g^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right\|^{2}} g^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right), \\
& \text { else (B): } \quad x_{k+1}=\pi_{Q}\left(x_{k}-\frac{h}{\left\|f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right\|} f^{\prime}\left(x_{k}\right)\right) .
\end{array}
$$

Let $\mathcal{F}_{k} \subseteq\{0, \ldots, k\}$ be the set (B)-iterations, and $f_{k}^{*}=\min _{i \in \mathcal{F}_{k}} f\left(x_{i}\right)$.
Theorem: If $k>\left\|x_{0}-x^{*}\right\|^{2} / h^{2}$, then $\mathcal{F}_{k} \neq \emptyset$ and

$$
f_{k}^{*}-f(x) \leq h L(f), \quad \max _{i \in \mathcal{F}_{k}} g\left(x_{i}\right) \leq h L(g) .
$$

## Computational strategies

1. Constants $L(f), L(g)$ are known (e.g. Linear Programming)

We can take $h=\frac{\epsilon}{\max \{L(f), L(g)\}}$. Then we need to decide on the number of steps $N$ (easy!).
Note: The standard advice is $h=\frac{R}{\sqrt{N+1}}$ (much more difficult!)
2. Constants $L(f), L(g)$ are not known

- Start from a guess.
- Restart from scratch each time we see the guess is wrong.
- The guess is doubled after restart.

3. Tracking the record value $f_{k}^{*}$

Double run.
Other ideas are welcome!

## Application examples

## Observations:

(1) Very often, Large- and Huge- scale problems have repetitive sparsity patterns and/or limited connectivity.

- Social networks.
- Mobile phone networks.
- Truss topology design (local bars).
- Finite elements models (2D: four neighbors, 3D: six neighbors).
(2) For $p$-diagonal matrices $\kappa(A) \leq p^{2}$.


## Nonsmooth formulation of Google Problem

## Main property of spectral radius $(A \geq 0)$

If $A \in R_{+}^{n \times n}$, then $\rho(A)=\min _{x \geq 0} \max _{1 \leq i \leq n} \frac{1}{x^{(i)}}\left\langle e_{i}, A x\right\rangle$.
The minimum is attained at the corresponding eigenvector.
Since $\rho(\bar{E})=1$, our problem is as follows:

$$
f(x) \stackrel{\text { def }}{=} \max _{1 \leq i \leq N}\left[\left\langle e_{i}, \bar{E}^{x}\right\rangle-x^{(i)}\right] \rightarrow \min _{x \geq 0} .
$$

Interpretation: Maximizing the self-esteem!
Since $f^{*}=0$, we can apply Polyak's method with sparse updates.
Additional features; the optimal set $X^{*}$ is a convex cone.
If $x_{0}=e$, then the whole sequence is separated from zero:

$$
\left\langle x^{*}, e\right\rangle \leq\left\langle x^{*}, x_{k}\right\rangle \leq\left\|x^{*}\right\|_{1} \cdot\left\|x_{k}\right\|_{\infty}=\left\langle x^{*}, e\right\rangle \cdot\left\|x_{k}\right\|_{\infty} .
$$

Goal: Find $\bar{x} \geq 0$ such that $\|\bar{x}\|_{\infty} \geq 1$ and $f(\bar{x}) \leq \epsilon$.
(First condition is satisfied automatically.)

## Computational experiments: Iteration Cost

We compare Polyak's GM with sparse update $\left(G M_{s}\right)$ with the standard one (GM).

Setup: Each agent has exactly $p$ random friends. Thus, $\kappa(A) \approx p^{2}$. Iteration Cost: $G M_{s} \approx p^{2} \log _{2} N, \quad G M \approx p N$.
Time for $10^{4}$ iterations $(p=32)$

| $N$ | $\kappa(A)$ | $G M_{s}$ | $G M$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 1024 | 1632 | 3.00 | 2.98 |
| 2048 | 1792 | 3.36 | 6.41 |
| 4096 | 1888 | 3.75 | 15.11 |
| 8192 | 1920 | 4.20 | 139.92 |
| 16384 | 1824 | 4.69 | 408.38 |

Time for $10^{3}$ iterations $(p=16)$

| $N$ | $\kappa(A)$ | $G M_{s}$ | $G M$ |
| ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 131072 | 576 | 0.19 | 213.9 |
| 262144 | 592 | 0.25 | 477.8 |
| 524288 | 592 | 0.32 | 1095.5 |
| 1048576 | 608 | 0.40 | 2590.8 |
| $1 \mathrm{sec} \approx 100 \mathrm{~min}!$ |  |  |  |

