Convex Optimization and Modeling Numerical linear algebra 14th (last) lecture, 14.07.2010

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Topics:

- convex sets and functions
- convex optimization problems
- optimality conditions and duality theory
- unconstrained minimization (steepest descent, Newton, subgradient)
- interior point method
- constrained first order method (including FISTA)
- EXERCISES !

Convergence proofs:

• key ideas





Numerical Linear Algebra:

- Sparse Matrices
- Linear System: direct solution via factorization
- Low rank updates

Semi-definite Programming:

- Globally optimal solution of a non-convex problem
- The best approximation of the sparsest cut





Sparse Matrix: Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ be a sparse matrix (most entries are zero). Consider the case where n and m are very large - full matrix would never fit it into memory.

Sparse Matrix Format: N denotes the number of nonzeros

• List of Coordinates

 $N \times 3$ array - [rowIx,colIx,val] Fast for creation of sparse matrix (Matlab).

- Compressed Column (Row) Storage
 - array of length N containing value of nonzero elements,
 - array of length N containing row indices of nonzero elements ,
 - array of length m + 1 where the *s*-entries points to the start of the *s*-th column in the value and row array

Internal Storage Format of sparse matrices in Matlab.





Compressed Column Storage: $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ with N nonzeros.

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 5 & 0 & 0 \\ 4 & 1 & 0 & 3 \\ 1 & 2 & 0 & 7 \\ 0 & 8 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

has CCS representation (indices start with zero !)

val = [4, 1, 5, 1, 2, 8, 3, 7] - N entriesrow = [1, 2, 0, 1, 2, 3, 1, 2] - N entriescol = [0, 2, 6, 6, 8] - m + 1 entries

Number of elements in column j: col(j+1)-col(j). Number of non-zero elements in A: col(m+1).





Which will be faster ?

b=A*x or bt=xt*At with: xt=x'; At=A';





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b=A*x or bt=xt*At with: xt=x'; At=A';

Matrix Multiplication from the left is much faster !

- the second is faster quick experiment 10 15%,
- can be easily parallelized.

Matrix-Vector-Multiplication from the left:

$$b_j = \sum_{i=1}^n x_i A_{ij} = \sum_{i=\operatorname{col}(j)}^{\operatorname{col}(j+1)-1} x_{\operatorname{row}(i)} \operatorname{val}(i).$$

Summary:

- quick access of every column,
- but: adding an element which does not exist yet is expensive !





Solving a linear system

Ax = b,

where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}^n$, A has full rank.

Methods:

- direct (non-iterative) methods,
- iterative methods.

 \Rightarrow iterative methods are better for **large-scale problems** since they need less memory (fill-in phenomenon) and are also easier to parallelize.





Basic costs of matrix operations

- inner product in \mathbb{R}^n : 2n-1 flops,
- matrix-vector product: Ax with $A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$
 - 1. general case: 2mn flops,
 - 2. A sparse, N nonzero entries: 2N flops,
 - 3. A factorized, A = UV with $U \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times p}$ and $V \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$: 2p(m+n) flops





Solving easy linear systems: Ax = b

- diagonal matrix A: $x_i = \frac{b_i}{a_{ii}} \Longrightarrow n$ flops,
- lower triangular matrix A:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ a_{21} & a_{22} & 0 \\ a_{31} & a_{32} & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \\ b_3 \end{pmatrix},$$

flops: $\sum_{k=1}^{n} (2k-1) = n^2$, less for structured matrices.

- upper triangular matrix A: same as lower triangular matrix,
- orthogonal matrix A: $x = A^{-1}b = A^Tb \Longrightarrow n^2$ flops,
- permutation matrix P: A permutation matrix P is orthogonal \Rightarrow $x = P^T b$ with 0 flops,





Solving linear systems using factorization We have a factorization of the matrix A into

A = BC.

Then we solve the linear system Ax = b using the steps

- Bz = b,
- Cx = z.

Cost: matrix factorization F + 2 solutions of linear systems S, $\implies B, C$ upper/lower triangular, $S = n^2$.

Multiple right hand sides: Ax = B, $B = (b_1, \ldots, b_m)$ $(m \le n)$. Cost: F + 2mS.





LU Factorization of a non-singular, square matrix \boldsymbol{A}

A = PLU,

where

- $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a permutation matrix,
- $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a lower triangular matrix,
- $U \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a upper triangular matrix.
- \implies Gaussian elimination (with partial pivoting) needs $\frac{2n^3}{3}$ flops.

Solving the linear system: Ax = b via

$$z_1 = P^T b, \qquad L z_2 = z_1, \qquad U x = z_2,$$

which costs $2n^2$ flops.





Cholesky Factorization of a symmetric, positive-definite matrix A

 $A = LL^T,$

where $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a lower triangular matrix,

Total cost: $\frac{n^3}{3}$ flops.

- **banded:** bandwidth k, nk^2 flops,
- **sparse:** complicated dependency on *n*, the number of nonzero components and the sparsity pattern. Usually reordering necessary for sparse cholesky factor *L*,

$$A = PLL^T P^T.$$





Let A_i be the principal submatrix:

$$A_{i} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & \dots & a_{1i} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ a_{i1} & \dots & a_{ii} \end{pmatrix} =: \begin{pmatrix} A_{i-1} & \beta_{i} \\ \beta_{i}^{T} & a_{ii} \end{pmatrix} \text{ with } \beta_{i} = \begin{pmatrix} a_{1i} \\ \vdots \\ a_{i-1,i} \end{pmatrix}$$

Iterative Algorithm for the Cholesky factorization:

•
$$A_1 = L_1 L_1^T$$
 with $L_1 = \sqrt{a_{11}}$,

• Let
$$A_{i-1} = L_{i-1}L_{i-1}^T$$
, then

$$L_{i} = \begin{pmatrix} L_{i-1} & 0\\ l_{i}^{T} & \lambda_{ii} \end{pmatrix}, \quad \text{where } l_{i} = L_{i-1}^{-1}\beta_{i} \text{ and } \lambda_{ii} = \sqrt{a_{ii} - \|l_{i}\|^{2}}.$$

We have

have

$$A_i = L_i L_i^T = \begin{pmatrix} L_{i-1} & 0 \\ l_i^T & \lambda_{ii} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} L_{i-1}^T & l_i \\ 0 & \lambda_{ii} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} L_{i-1} L_{i-1}^T & L_{i-1} l_i \\ l_i^T L_{i-1}^T & \lambda_{ii}^2 + l_i^T l_i \end{pmatrix}.$$





LDL^T Factorization of a nonsingular, symmetric matrix A

$$A = PLDL^T P^T,$$

where

- $P \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a permutation matrix,
- $L \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is a lower triangular matrix with positive elements,
- $D \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is block-diagonal with nonsingular 1×1 and 2×2 diagonal blocks.

Total cost: $\frac{n^3}{3}$ flops.





Solving a linear system with block structure

$$\begin{pmatrix} A_{11} & A_{12} \\ A_{21} & A_{22} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b_1 \\ b_2 \end{pmatrix},$$

where

- $A_{11} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times k}, A_{12} \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times l}, A_{21} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times k}, A_{22} \in \mathbb{R}^{l \times l},$
- $x_1, b_1 \in \mathbb{R}^k, x_2, b_2 \in \mathbb{R}^l,$
- n = k + l.

Solution:

$$x_1 = A_{11}^{-1}(b_1 - A_{12}x_2), \qquad (A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12})x_2 = b_2 - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}b_1,$$

where $S = A_{22} - A_{21}A_{11}^{-1}A_{12}$ is called the **Schur complement.** \implies advantage over the general case if A_{11}^{-1} easy to compute !





Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury Formula:

Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ have full rank, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times p}$ and $C \in \mathbb{R}^{p \times n}$, then

$$(A + BC)^{-1} = A^{-1} - A^{-1}B(\mathbb{1} + CA^{-1}B)^{-1}CA^{-1}.$$

Proof:

$$(A + BC)x = b \quad \iff \quad Ax + By = b, \quad y = Cx$$
$$\begin{pmatrix} A & B \\ C & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x \\ y \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} b \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Block inversion leads to the desired result.

 \implies Key simplification: $CA^{-1}B$ has rank p.





Linear system

$$Ax = b.$$

Now we have to solve a new linear system

$$(A + uv^T)x' = b.$$

 \implies difference has rank one - rank one update of x.

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= (A^{-1} - A^{-1}u(\mathbbm{1} + v^T A^{-1}u)^{-1}v^T A^{-1})b \\ &= x - \frac{\langle v, x \rangle}{1 + \langle v, A^{-1}u \rangle} A^{-1}u. \end{aligned}$$

Advantages:

- only factorization of A required !
- uv^T is in general a dense matrix !





What is global optimization ?

Find the globally optimal solution of a (non-convex) problem.





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We consider quadratic optimization with quadratic equality and inequality constraints.

$$\min_{F \in \mathbb{R}^n} \langle f, Af \rangle \\ \langle f, Bf \rangle = c, \\ \langle f, Cf \rangle \le d,$$

where A, B, C are positive semi-definite.

 \implies Problem is non-convex due to equality constraint !





Can we find the globally optimal solution ? Note, that $\langle f, Af \rangle = \text{trace}(Aff^T)$. Thus we get

 $\min_{f} \operatorname{trace}(A f f^{T})$ $\operatorname{trace}(B f f^{T}) = c$ $\operatorname{trace}(C f f^{T}) \leq d$

What would you do?





Relaxation into an SDP

 $\min_{X \in S^n} \operatorname{trace}(A X)$ $\operatorname{trace}(B X) = c$ $\operatorname{trace}(C X) \leq d$ $X \succeq 0$

Under which conditions can one get the solution of the original problem from the SDP ?





Relaxation into an SDP

 $\min_{X \in S^n} \operatorname{trace}(A X)$ $\operatorname{trace}(B X) = c$ $\operatorname{trace}(C X) \leq d$ $X \succeq 0$

Under which conditions can one get the solution of the original problem from the SDP ?

If the minimizer X^* has rank one !





Suppose we have an SDP of the form:

$$\min_{X \in S^n} \operatorname{trace}(A X)$$
$$\operatorname{trace}(B_i X) = c_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m$$
$$X \succeq 0$$

Theorem 1 (Pataki(1998)). If X is an extreme point of the above SDP, then $\operatorname{rank}(X) \leq r_m$, where

$$r_m = \max\{r \in \mathbb{N} \mid r(r+1) \le m\}.$$

What does that imply for our problem ?





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$$\operatorname{trace}(B_i X) = c_i, \quad i = 1, \dots, m$$
$$X \succeq 0$$

Theorem 2 (Pataki(1998)). If X is an extreme point of the above SDP, then $\operatorname{rank}(X) \leq r_m$, where

$$r_m = \max\{r \in \mathbb{N} \mid r(r+1) \le m\}.$$

What does that imply for our problem ?

- The optimum is attained at an extreme point (linear objective !)
- turn the problem into a problem with two equality constraints all extreme points have rank one \implies minimizer has rank one.