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QUASI-NEWTON METHODS CONVERGE AT THE GOLDEN SECTION RATE.(U)
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QUASI-NEWTON METHODS CONVERGE AT THE GOLDEN SECTION RATE

by

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Square root of 5

ABSTRACT

We prove that the rate of convergence of quasi-Newton methods is the golden section ratio $(1 + \sqrt{5})/2$.

KEY WORDS

Unconstrained minimization, Convergence rates, Quasi-Newton methods.

1. Introduction

Newton's method for the minimization of $f: R^n \to R$ requires computation and inversion of the Hessian matrix at each iteration. Quasi-Newton methods approximate the Hessian or its inverse by first order (i.e. gradient) information. These methods extend the classical secant (or False Position) method for $n > 1$ (see e.g. Luenberger [7]). They are known to converge to the solution superlinearly (see Dennis and Moré [3] and the references there). Thus, it is commonly accepted (e.g. [3]), that the price paid for the approximation of the Hessian by gradient information is a reduction from second order to superlinear convergence.

In [1,2], we developed new tools for the analysis of the rate of convergence of interpolatory algorithms. We use them in this paper to prove that actually, the rate of convergence of a class of quasi-Newton methods, without line-search and without restart, is given by the golden section ratio $(1+\sqrt{5})/2 \approx 1.618$. We note in passing that no other tools exist enabling one to establish convergence rates between superlinear and quadratic.

2. Rate of Convergence Analysis

Newton's method consists of the iteration $x_{k+1} = x_k - [\nabla^2 f(x_k)]^{-1} \cdot \nabla f(x_k)$. Here ∇f, $\nabla^2 f$ are the gradient and Hessian of f respectively and all vectors are column vectors. Quasi-Newton replace this equation with

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k H_k \nabla f(x_k) \,, \tag{1}$$

where the matrix H_k approximates the inverse of the Hessian, and the step-size $\alpha_k \in R$ is obtained by an exact or approximate line-search. The matrix H_k is required to satisfy

(2) $$H_{k+1}y_k = s_k ,$$

where

(3) $$y_k = \nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k) , \quad s_k = x_{k+1} - x_k .$$

For a thorough discussion of these methods see Dennis and Moré [3].

Henceforth, we will assume $\alpha_k = 1$ for all k, i.e., no line search is performed so that the iteration formula becomes

(4) $$x_{k+1} = x_k - H_k \nabla f(x_k) .$$

In the one dimensional case $(n = 1)$, equation (2) implies

$$H_k = \frac{x_k - x_{k-1}}{f'_k - f'_{k-1}}$$

with $f'_k = f'(x_k)$, so that (4) is the classical secant or False Position method (see Luenberger [7]). For this reason equation (2) is called the secant equation. Other names, e.g. quasi-Newton equation, are also in use. This equation plays a fundamental role in the classical theory of quasi-Newton methods as well as in our analysis.

The formulas expressing H_{k+1} in terms of H_k and the data are called updating formulas. Different updating formulas give rise to a variety of quasi-Newton methods. In addition, there are quasi-Newton methods which replace equations (2) and (4) with

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

(6) $$B_{k+1} s_k = y_k$$

together with an appropriate updating formula for the matrix B_k.

We recall our basic results on hyperosculatory interpolation algorithms developed in [1,2]. The interpolation algorithm studied there generates a sequence $\{x_k\}$ as follows. Let $s \geq 1$, $m \geq 0$ be fixed integers, and let $T: R^n \to R$ depend on $r = s(m+1)$ parameters. Given $m+1$ approximants $x_0, \ldots, x_{m+1}$ to the solution x^* of $\nabla f(x) = 0$, we use $x_{k-m}, \ldots, x_{k-1}, x_k$ to construct a new approximant x_{k+1}. First we interpolate f by T requiring

$$T^{(i)}(x_{k-j}) = f^{(i)}(x_{k-j}) \quad j = 0, \ldots, m; \quad i = 0, \ldots, s-1 . \tag{7}$$

Here $f^{(1)} = \nabla f$, $f^{(2)} = \nabla^2 f$ etc. The new point x_{k+1} is determined by

$$\nabla T(x_{k+1}) = 0 . \tag{8}$$

In [1], we proved that the sequence $\{x_k\}$, generated by this algorithm converges (locally) to the solution with Q- and R-rates of convergence at least p, where p is the unique positive solution of the equation $t^{m+1} - (s-1)t^m - s \sum_{j=0}^{m-1} t^j = 0$ (the sum is taken as zero if $m = 0$). For the definitions of the Q- and R-rates of convergence and their properties see [9, §9]. The derivation of this result is based on the analysis in Traub [11], where a difference relation for the errors $\|x_k - x^*\|$ is used to compute the rate.

To show that quasi-Newton methods as defined above can be regarded as interpolatory algorithms, we now characterize them by the requirements

$$T(x_k) = f(x_k) \tag{9}$$

$$\nabla T(x_k) = \nabla f(x_k) \tag{10}$$

$$\nabla T(x_{k-1}) = \nabla f(x_{k-1}) , \tag{11}$$

and

$$\nabla T(x_{k+1}) = 0 , \tag{12}$$

where T is the quadratic interpolation function

$$(13) \qquad T(x) = f(x_k) + (x-x_k)^T \nabla f(x_k) + \frac{1}{2}(x-x_k)^T B_k (x-x_k) ,$$

and where B_k is a symmetric nonsingular $n \times n$ matrix, and a^T stands for the transpose of the vector a.

Indeed, if T is defined by (13), equation (9) holds and

$$(14) \qquad \nabla T(x) = \nabla f(x_k) + B_k(x-x_k) ,$$

which implies (10). Using (14) in (12) we have $\nabla f(x_k) + B_k(x_{k+1}-x_k) = 0$, which is equivalent to (5). Finally the requirement (11) is equivalent to

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

which is the secant equation (6).

So far we have interpreted all quasi-Newton algorithms as interpolatory algorithms. Note that (9)-(11) do not define hyperosculatory interpolation, since we do not require $T(x_{k-1}) = f(x_{k-1})$, therefore our results in [1] do not apply directly to the algorithm (9)-(12). For $n = 1$ the algorithm is precisely the secant method which is well known to have convergence order $(1+\sqrt{5})/2$. We will now show that the rate of convergence of a class of quasi-Newton methods is induced by the underlying one-dimensional secant algorithm.

First we note that equation (9) is redundant. Indeed, equations (10)-(13) are sufficient to define the sequence $\{x_k\}$, for if $T(x)$ satisfies (9)-(13) and $T_1(x) = T(x) + a$ with $a \in R$, equation (9) may no longer hold for $T_1(x)$, but $\nabla T_1(x) = \nabla T(x)$ will produce the same value for x_{k+1}.

As in [1], we derive the basic difference equation we need by passing a curve in R^n through the points $x_{k-1}, x_k, x_{k+1}, x^*$, i.e., we determine a function $\psi: R \to R^n$ such that

$$(15) \qquad \begin{cases} \psi(t_{k-j}) = x_{k-j} & j = -1,0,1 \\ \psi(t^*) = x^* , \end{cases}$$

where the parameter t is chosen so that

$$(16) \qquad t_{k-j} = \|x_{k-j} - x^*\| , \quad t^* = \|x^* - x^*\| = 0 .$$

This can evidently be done in infinitely many ways. We will later specify further restrictions on ψ. Defining $\bar{\theta}(t) = T(\psi(t))$, $\bar{\varphi}(t) = f(\psi(t))$ and $\theta(t) = \bar{\theta}'(t)$, $\varphi(t) = \bar{\varphi}'(t)$, we have from (10)-(12)

$$(17) \qquad \theta(t_k) = \varphi(t_k)$$

$$(18) \qquad \theta(t_{k-1}) = \varphi(t_{k-1})$$

$$(19) \qquad \theta(t_{k+1}) = 0$$

$$(20) \qquad \varphi(0) = 0 .$$

Having reduced the original equations to one-dimensional hyperosculatory interpolation ones, we are now able to derive a difference equation for the sequence $\{t_k\}$.

<u>Theorem 1</u>. If $\theta, \varphi \in C^{(2)}(J)$ where $J = \{t: |t| \le L\}$ for some $L > 0$, and if $t_{k-j} \in J$ $j = -1,0,1$ then equations (17)-(20) imply

$$(21) \qquad t_{k+1} = A_k \, t_k \, t_{k-1}$$

where

$$(22) \qquad A_k = \frac{\varphi^{(2)}(\xi) - \theta^{(2)}(\xi)}{2\theta'(\zeta)}$$

and ξ, ζ are in the interval spanned by t_{k-1}, t_k, t_{k+1} and 0.

<u>Proof</u>. By the remainder formula for a general interpolating function (see Ostrowski [10]), (17) and (18) imply

$$\varphi(t) - \theta(t) = \frac{\varphi^{(2)}(\xi(t)) - \theta^{(2)}(\xi(t))}{2}(t-t_k)(t-t_{k-1}) \tag{23}$$

with $\xi(t)$ in the interval spanned by t, t_k and t_{k-1}. By (19) we have $-\theta(0) = \theta(t_{k+1}) - \theta(0) = t_{k+1}\theta'(\zeta)$ with ζ between t_{k+1} and 0. Setting $t = 0$ in (23) and denoting $\xi = \xi(0)$ we therefore have

$$t_{k+1}\theta'(\zeta) = \frac{\varphi^{(2)}(\xi) - \theta^{(2)}(\xi)}{2} t_k t_{k-1} ,$$

which completes the proof.

□

Our main result now follows from equation (21).

Theorem 2. Let $f \in C^{(3)}$ in a neighborhood of the solution x^*. If $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ is positive definite, and if the sequence $\{B_k\}$ is bounded, then there exists a neighborhood N of x^*, such that for all $x_0, x_1 \in N$, the sequence $\{x_k\}$ generated by the quasi-Newton algorithm converges to x^* with Q- and R-rates of convergence at least $(1 + \sqrt{5})/2$.

Proof. This is an immediate consequence of the difference equation (21), if the sequence $\{A_k\}$ is bounded (see e.g. [6] or [11] and [2]).

Under the assumptions of the theorem and by definition of the functions θ, φ, it is therefore sufficient to show that the curve ψ can be chosen so that the derivatives of ψ are bounded at $t = 0$, and $\varphi'(0) \neq 0$.

Note that ψ is used to derive equation (21), but its construction is not a part of the algorithm. Assuming without loss of generality $\frac{\partial^2 f(x^*)}{\partial x_1^2} \neq 0$, and since $\varphi'(0) = \dot\psi(0)^T\ ^2f(x^*)\dot\psi(0)$, one can satisfy (15) and $\varphi'(0) \neq 0$ by choosing $\psi_i(t) = \sum_{j=0}^{r} a_{ji}t^j$ $(i = 1,\ldots,n)$ with $a_{11} = 1$, $a_{1i} = 0$ $i = 2,\ldots,n$. This completes the proof.

□

Theorem 2 holds for all quasi-Newton methods. We now turn our attention to the so-called Broyden's class of quasi-Newton methods, which are defined by the updating formula

$$(24)\quad \begin{cases} H_{k+1} = H_k + \dfrac{s_k s_k^T}{s_k^T y_k} - \dfrac{H_k y_k y_k^T H_k}{y_k^T H_k y_k} + \alpha_k v_k v_k^T , \\ \text{with } y_k , s_k \text{ defined by (3),} \\ v_k = \left(y_k^T H_k y_k\right)^{\frac{1}{2}} \left[\dfrac{s_k}{s_k^T y_k} - \dfrac{H_k y_k}{y_k^T H_k y_k}\right] \end{cases}$$

and $\alpha_k \in [0,1]$.

Evidently boundedness of B_k and $H_k = B_k^{-1}$ is equivalent.

<u>Theorem 3</u>. Let $f \in C^{(3)}$ in a neighborhood of the solution x^*, and let $\nabla^2 f(x^*)$ be positive definite. If x_0, x_n are close enough to x^*, if H_0 is symmetric and positive definite, and if the matrices H_k are updated by (24), then $x_k \to x^*$ with Q- and R-rates of convergence at least $(1+\sqrt{5})/2$.

<u>Proof</u>. By the mean value theorem we have $y_k = A_k s_k$ where $A_k = \nabla^2 f(\bar{x})$ and $\bar{x}$ on the segment line connecting x_k and x_{k+1}. Fletcher [4] proved that the eigenvalues of $A_k^{\frac{1}{2}} H_k A_k^{\frac{1}{2}}$ are bounded. Since we assumed that $\nabla^2 f$ is continuous and positive definite at x^*, the eigenvalues of H_k are bounded and the result follows from Theorem 2.

□

3. Concluding Remarks

Under traditional assumptions, we have proved that quasi-Newton methods inherit their rate of convergence from the underlying secant method (cf. Luenberger [6, §7.2].

Thus, the assumption in Theorem 8.9 of [3] that equation (8.21) of that paper holds, is not made here. Similarly, no assumption has been made on the linear independence of the directions $\{s_k\}$ (cf. Moré and Trangenstein [8]).

We have not broadened our analysis to quasi-Newton methods beyond those belonging to Broyden's class of updates (and their inverse updated in the sense of [3]), in order not to obscure the main points in our analysis. The well known Davidon-Fletcher-Powell and Broyden-Fletcher Goldfarb-Shanno algorithms fall in this category. While the latter algorithm is the best available at present, our analysis in [1] suggests that faster algorithms can be designed utilizing gradient information only.

Our results extend with the obvious modifications for the problem of solving $F(x) = 0$, $F: R^n \to R^n$ discussed in the first part of [3]. They also extend to the infinite dimensional case if the coefficients A_k in the basic difference equation (21) are bounded.

From our point of view, the rate of convergence of quasi-Newton methods has nothing to do with their so-called quadratic termination property. It is a consequence of the data used in the interpolatory equations (7) (see [1,2]). Therefore, the Huang class of updates [5] is too wide in the sense that it contains updates which do not satisfy the secant equation. Note also that Theorem 8.10 of [3] is not interesting in the sense that $1.6^n > 2$ for all $n > 1$.

Finally, note that the common observation that Newton's method is self corrective in the sense that x_{k+1} depends explicitly on x_k only, while quasi-Newton methods carry along bad effects from previous iterations, is not justified. The fact that quasi-Newton methods are two-point interpolatory algorithms, is exactly their advantage over Newton's method (see [10, §6.4], [1] and [2]).

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