# Alternating Minimization, Optimization Transfer and Proximal Minimization Are Equivalent (9/16/15 draft)

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September 16, 2015

#### Abstract

Let X be an arbitrary nonempty set and  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ . The objective is to minimize f(x) over  $x \in X$ . In proximal minimization algorithms (PMA) we minimize  $f(x) + d(x, x^{k-1})$  to get  $x^k$ . The  $d: X \times X \to \mathbb{R}_+$  is a "distance" function, with d(x, x) = 0, for all x. In majorization minimization (MM), also called optimization transfer, a second "majorizing" function g(x|z) is postulated, with the properties  $g(x|z) \ge f(x)$ , for all x and z in X, and g(x|x) = f(x). We then minimize  $g(x|x^{k-1})$  to get  $x^k$ . With

$$d(x,z) \doteq g(x|z) - f(x),$$

it is clear that MM is equivalent to PMA. Alternating minimization (AM) methods appear to be more general, but AM is equivalent to PMA and to MM.

Let  $\Phi : X \times Y \to \mathbb{R}_+$ , where X and Y are arbitrary nonempty sets. The objective in alternating minimization is to find  $\hat{x} \in X$  and  $\hat{y} \in Y$  such that

$$\Phi(\hat{x}, \hat{y}) \le \Phi(x, y),$$

for all  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$ . For each k we minimize  $\Phi(x, y^{k-1})$  to get  $x^{k-1}$  and then minimize  $\Phi(x^{k-1}, y)$  to get  $y^k$ . For each  $x \in X$ , let  $y(x) \in Y$  be such that  $\Phi(x, y) \geq \Phi(x, y(x))$ , for all  $y \in Y$ ; then  $y^k = y(x^{k-1})$ . Minimizing  $\Phi(x, y)$ over all  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$  is equivalent to minimizing  $f(x) \doteq \Phi(x, y(x))$  over all  $x \in X$ . With  $d(x, x') = \Phi(x, y(x')) - \Phi(x, y(x))$ , minimizing  $\Phi(x, y^k)$  is equivalent to minimizing  $f(x) + d(x, x^{k-1})$ . Therefore, all AM algorithms are instances of PMA, and therefore, of MM.

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### **1** Auxiliary-Function Methods in Optimization

Let  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$ , where X is an arbitrary nonempty set. In applications the set X will have additional structure, but not always that of a Euclidean space; for that reason, it is convenient to impose no structure at the outset. An iterative procedure for minimizing f(x) over  $x \in X$  is called an *auxiliary-function* (AF) algorithm [4, 7] if, at each step, we minimize

$$G_k(x) = f(x) + g_k(x),$$
 (1.1)

where  $g_k(x) \ge 0$ , and  $g_k(x^{k-1}) = 0$ . It follows easily that the sequence  $\{f(x^k)\}$  is decreasing, so  $\{f(x^k)\} \downarrow \beta^* \ge -\infty$ . We want more, however; we want  $\beta^* = \beta \doteq \inf_{x \in X} f(x)$ . To have this we need to impose an additional condition on the auxiliary functions  $g_k(x)$ ; the SUMMA Inequality is one such additional condition.

#### 1.1 The SUMMA Inequality

We say that an AF algorithm is in the SUMMA class if the SUMMA Inequality holds for all x in X:

$$G_k(x) - G_k(x^k) \ge g_{k+1}(x).$$
 (1.2)

One consequence of the SUMMA Inequality is

$$g_k(x) + f(x) \ge g_{k+1}(x) + f(x^k),$$
(1.3)

for all  $x \in X$ . It follows from this that  $\beta^* = \beta$ . If this were not the case, then there would be  $z \in X$  with

$$f(x^k) \ge \beta^* > f(z)$$

for all k. The sequence  $\{g_k(z)\}$  would then be a decreasing sequence of nonnegative terms with the sequence of its successive differences bounded below by  $\beta^* - f(z) > 0$ .

There are many iterative algorithms that satisfy the SUMMA Inequality [4], and are therefore in the SUMMA class. However, some important methods that are not in this class still have  $\beta^* = \beta$ ; one example is the proximal minimization method of Auslender and Teboulle [2]. This suggests that the SUMMA class, large as it is, is still unnecessarily restrictive. This leads us to the definition of the SUMMA2 class.

#### 1.2 The SUMMA2 Class

An iterative algorithm for minimizing  $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$  is said to be in the SUMMA2 class if, for each sequence  $\{x^k\}$  generated by the algorithm, there are functions  $h_k : X \to \mathbb{R}_+$  such that, for all  $x \in X$ , we have

$$h_k(x) + f(x) \ge h_{k+1}(x) + f(x^k).$$
 (1.4)

Any algorithm in the SUMMA class is in the SUMMA2 class; use  $h_k = g_k$ . As in the SUMMA case, we must have  $\beta^* = \beta$ , since otherwise the successive differences of the sequence  $\{h_k(z)\}$  would be bounded below by  $\beta^* - f(z) > 0$ . It is helpful to note that the functions  $h_k$  need not be the  $g_k$ , and we do not require that  $h_k(x^{k-1}) = 0$ . The proximal minimization method of Auslender and Teboulle is in the SUMMA2 class.

### 2 PMA is MM

In proximal minimization algorithms (PMA) we minimize

$$f(x) + d(x, x^{k-1}) \tag{2.1}$$

to get  $x^k$ . Here  $d(x, z) \ge 0$  and d(x, x) = 0, so we say that d(x, z) is a distance.

In [8] the authors review the use, in statistics, of "majorization minimization" (MM), also called "optimization transfer". In numerous papers [10, 1] Jeff Fessler and his colleagues use the terminology "surrogate-function minimization" to describe optimization transfer. The objective is to minimize  $f : X \to \mathbb{R}$ . In MM methods a second "majorizing" function g(x|z) is postulated, with the properties  $g(x|z) \ge f(x)$ , for all x and z in X, and g(x|x) = f(x). We then minimize  $g(x|x^{k-1})$  to get  $x^k$ . Defining

$$d(x,z) \doteq g(x|z) - f(x),$$

it is clear that d(x, z) is a distance and so MM is equivalent to PMA.

Every MM algorithm, and therefore every PMA, can be viewed as an application of alternating minimization: define  $\Phi(x, z) \doteq g(x|z)$ . Minimizing  $g(x|x^{k-1})$  to get  $x^k$  is equivalent to minimizing  $\Phi(x, x^{k-1})$ , while minimizing  $g(x^k|z)$  is equivalent to minimizing  $\Phi(x^k, z)$  and yields  $z = x^k$ .

## **3** Alternating Minimization (AM)

In this section we review the basics of alternating minimization (AM).

#### 3.1 The AM Method

Let  $\Phi: X \times Y \to \mathbb{R}_+$ , where X and Y are arbitrary nonempty sets. The objective is to find  $\hat{x} \in X$  and  $\hat{y} \in Y$  such that

$$\Phi(\hat{x}, \hat{y}) \le \Phi(x, y),$$

for all  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$ .

The alternating minimization method [9] is to minimize  $\Phi(x, y^{k-1})$  to get  $x^{k-1}$ and then to minimize  $\Phi(x^{k-1}, y)$  to get  $y^k$ . Clearly, the sequence  $\{\Phi(x^{k-1}, y^k)\}$  is decreasing and converges to some  $\beta^* \ge -\infty$ . We want  $\beta^* = \Phi(\hat{x}, \hat{y})$ , or, at least, for  $\beta^* = \beta$ , where  $\beta = \inf_{x,y} \Phi(x, y)$ .

It is helpful to reformulate AM as a method for minimizing a function f(x) of the single variable  $x \in X$ . For each  $x \in X$ , let  $y(x) \in Y$  be such that  $\Phi(x, y) \ge \Phi(x, y(x))$ , for all  $y \in Y$ . Then minimizing  $\Phi(x, y)$  over all  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$  is equivalent to minimizing  $f(x) \doteq \Phi(x, y(x))$  over all  $x \in X$ . Note that  $\Phi(x^{k-1}, y^k) = f(x^{k-1})$ . Then the sequence  $\{f(x^k)\}$  is decreasing to  $\beta^*$ .

In AM we find  $x^k$  by minimizing  $\Phi(x,y^k)=\Phi(x,y(x^{k-1})).$  For each x and x' in X we define

$$d(x, x') \doteq \Phi(x, y(x')) - \Phi(x, y(x)).$$
(3.1)

Clearly,  $d(x, x') \ge 0$  and d(x, x) = 0, so d(x, x') is a "distance". We obtain  $x^k$  by minimizing

$$\Phi(x, y(x^{k-1})) = \Phi(x, y(x)) + \Phi(x, y(x^{k-1})) - \Phi(x, y(x)) = f(x) + d(x, x^{k-1}),$$

which shows that every AM algorithm is also a PMA algorithm. Given any AM algorithm, we define  $f(x) = \Phi(x, y(x))$ . Then the function  $g(x|z) = \Phi(x, y(z))$  majorizes f(x). Consequently, AM, PMA and MM are equivalent to one another. Now we can obtain conditions on MM algorithms sufficient for  $\beta^* = \beta$  from analogous conditions expressed in the language of AM or PMA.

#### 3.2 The Three-Point Property

The three-point property (3PP) in [9] is the following: for all  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$  and for all k we have

$$\Phi(x, y^k) - \Phi(x^k, y^k) \ge d(x, x^k).$$
(3.2)

The 3PP implies that the AM algorithm, expressed as a PMA, is in the SUMMA class and so is sufficient to have  $\beta^* = \beta$ .

#### 3.3 The Weak Three-Point Property

The 3PP is stronger than we need to get  $\beta^* = \beta$ ; the weak 3PP implies that the AM algorithm, expressed as a PMA, is in the SUMMA2 class, and so is sufficient for  $\beta^* = \beta$ . The *weak three-point property* (w3PP) is the following: for all  $x \in X$  and  $y \in Y$  and for all k we have

$$\Phi(x, y^k) - \Phi(x^k, y^{k+1}) \ge d(x, x^k).$$
(3.3)

#### 3.4 Consequences of the w3PP

From the w3PP we find that, for all x and y,

$$d(x, x^{k-1}) - d(x, x^k) \ge \Phi(x^k, y^{k+1}) - \Phi(x, y(x)).$$
(3.4)

Since

$$\Phi(x^k, y^{k+1}) - \Phi(x, y(x)) = f(x^k) - f(x)$$

we conclude that, whenever the w3PP holds, we have

$$d(x, x^{k-1}) - d(x, x^k) \ge f(x^k) - f(x),$$
(3.5)

for all  $x \in X$ . This means that AM with the w3PP is in the SUMMA2 class of iterative algorithms, from which it follows that  $\beta^* = \beta$ .

### **3.5** When Do We Have $\beta^* = \beta$ ?

As we have noted, an AM method for which the w3PP holds is in the SUMMA2 class, so that  $\beta^* = \beta$ . We can formulate this in the language of MM as follows:

$$g(x|x^{k-1}) - g(x|x^k) \ge f(x^k) - f(x)$$
(3.6)

for all x. In the language of PMA it becomes

$$d(x, x^{k-1}) - d(x, x^k) \ge f(x^k) - f(x)$$
(3.7)

for all x.

## 4 PMA with Bregman Distances (PMAB)

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^J \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $h : \mathbb{R}^J \to \mathbb{R}$  be convex and differentiable. Let  $D_h(x, z)$  be the Bregman distance associated with h. At the kth step of a proximal minimization algorithm with Bregman distance (PMAB) we minimize

$$G_k(x) = f(x) + D_h(x, x^{k-1})$$
(4.8)

to get  $x^k$ . It was shown in [4] that such algorithms are in the SUMMA class.

In order to minimize  $G_k(x)$  we need to solve the equation

$$0 = \nabla f(x) + \nabla h(x) - \nabla h(x^{k-1})$$
(4.9)

for  $x = x^k$ ; generally, this is not easy. Here is a "trick" that can be used to simplify the calculations. Select a function g so that  $h \doteq g - f$  is convex and differentiable and so that the equation

$$0 = \nabla g(x) - \nabla g(x^{k-1}) + \nabla f(x^{k-1})$$
(4.10)

is easily solved. As an example, we use this "trick" to derive the Landweber algorithm.

### 5 The Landweber Algorithm

Suppose we want to find a minimizer of the function  $f(x) = ||Ax - b||^2$ , where A is a real I by J matrix. Let  $g(x) = \frac{1}{\gamma} ||x||^2$ , for some  $\gamma$  in the interval  $(0, \frac{2}{L})$ , where  $L = \rho(A^T A)$ , the largest eigenvalue of the matrix  $A^T A$ . Then the function h = g - f is convex and differentiable. We have

$$D_f(x,y) = \|Ax - Ay\|^2,$$
(5.11)

so that

$$D_h(x,y) = \frac{1}{\gamma} \|x - y\|^2 - \|Ax - Ay\|^2.$$
(5.12)

At the kth step we differentiate

$$||Ax - b||^{2} + \frac{1}{\gamma} ||x - x^{k-1}||^{2} - ||Ax - Ax^{k-1}||^{2},$$
(5.13)

to obtain

$$0 = A^{T}(Ax - b) + \frac{1}{\gamma}(x - x^{k-1}) - A^{T}(Ax - Ax^{k-1})$$
(5.14)

so that

$$x^{k} = x^{k-1} - \gamma A^{T} (A x^{k-1} - b).$$
(5.15)

This is the iterative step of Landweber's algorithm. The sequence  $\{x^k\}$  converges to a minimizer  $x^*$  of f(x), and  $x^*$  minimizes  $\|\hat{x} - x^0\|$  over all  $\hat{x}$  that minimize  $\|Ax - b\|$ .

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