# Accelerated Dual Descent for Network Optimization

The MIT Faculty has made this article openly available. Please share how this access benefits you. Your story matters.

| Citation       | Zargham, Michael et al. “Accelerated Dual Descent for Network Optimization.” Papers of the 2011 American Control Conference, June 29-July 01, 2011, San Francisco, CA, USA. |
|----------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| As Published   | https://css.paperplaza.net/conferences/conferences/2011ACC/program/2011ACC_ContentListWeb_2.html#thb10_05                                                                                                           |
| Publisher      | IEEE Control Systems Society                                                                                                                                                                          |
| Version        | Author’s final manuscript                                                                                                                                                                             |
| Citable link   | http://hdl.handle.net/1721.1/64639                                                                                                                                                                   |
| Terms of Use   | Creative Commons Attribution-Noncommercial-Share Alike 3.0                                                                                                                                              |
| Detailed Terms | http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-nc-sa/3.0/                                                                                                                                                       |
Abstract—Dual descent methods are commonly used to solve network optimization problems because their implementation can be distributed through the network. However, their convergence rates are typically very slow. This paper introduces a family of dual descent algorithms that use approximate Newton directions to accelerate the convergence rate of conventional dual descent. These approximate directions can be computed using local information exchanges thereby retaining the benefits of distributed implementations. The approximate Newton directions are obtained through matrix splitting techniques and sparse Taylor approximations of the inverse Hessian. We show that, similarly to conventional Newton methods, the proposed algorithm exhibits superlinear convergence within a neighborhood of the optimal value. Numerical analysis corroborates that convergence rates are typically very slow. This paper introduces a family of algorithms, denoted ADD-N, permitting a tradeoff between the Newton step and subgradient descent algorithms. The number of iterations necessary to find optimal flows is typically very large [13], [15]. The natural alternative is the use of second order Newton’s methods, but they cannot be implemented in a distributed manner (Section II-B).

Indeed, implementation of Newton’s method necessitates computation of the inverse of the dual Hessian and a distributed implementation would require each node to have access to a corresponding row. It is not difficult to see that the dual Hessian is a weighted version of the network’s Laplacian and that as a consequence its rows could be locally computed through information exchanges with neighboring nodes. Its inversion, however, requires global information. Our insight is to consider a Taylor’s expansion of the inverse Hessian, which, being a polynomial with the Hessian matrix as variable, can be implemented through local information exchanges. More precisely, considering only the zeroth order term in the Taylor’s expansion yields an approximation to the Hessian inverse based on local information only – which, incidentally, coincides with the method of Hessian diagonal inverses proposed in [1]. The first order approximation necessitates information available at neighboring nodes and in general, the Nth order approximation necessitates information from nodes located N hops away (Section III). The resultant family of algorithms, denoted ADD-N permits a tradeoff between accurate Hessian approximation and communication cost. Despite the fact that the proposed distributed algorithms rely on approximate Newton directions, we show that they exhibit local quadratic convergence as their centralized counterparts (Section IV). An approximate backtracking line search is added to the basic algorithm to ensure global convergence (Section IV-B).

Newton-type methods for distributed network optimization have been recently proposed in [1], [9], [19]. While specifics differ, these papers rely on consensus iterations to compute approximate Newton directions. Quite surprisingly, it is possible to show that the methods in [1], [9], [19] and the ADD algorithm proposed here are equivalent under some conditions (Section V). Numerical experiments study the communication...
cost of ADD relative to [1], [9], [19] and to conventional subgradient descent. ADD reduces this cost by one order of magnitude with respect to [1], [9], [19] and by two orders of magnitude with respect to subgradient descent (Section VI).

**Notation.** Vectors are viewed as column vectors. The \( i \)th component of vector \( x \) is denoted as \( x^i \). The notation \( x \geq 0 \) means that all components \( x^i \geq 0 \). The transpose of vector \( x \) is \( x^\top \), the inner product of \( x \) and \( y \) is \( x^\top y \), and the Euclidean norm of \( x \) is \( \| x \| := \sqrt{x^\top x} \). The element in the \( i \)th row and \( j \)th column of a matrix \( A \) is written as \( [A]_{ij} \). The transpose of \( A \) is denoted as \( A^\top \).

II. **The Network Optimization Problem**

Consider a network represented by a directed graph \( G = (\mathcal{N}, \mathcal{E}) \) with node set \( \mathcal{N} = \{1, \ldots, n\} \), and edge set \( \mathcal{E} = \{1, \ldots, E\} \). The network is deployed to support a single commodity flow problem. The rate requirements are collected in a vector \( b \), which is assumed to be non-negative. We define the reward as the negative of scalar cost function \( \phi_e(x^e) \) denoting the amount of flow on edge \( e \). Flow conservation implies that it must be \( Ax = b \), with \( A \) the \( n \times E \) node-edge incidence matrix defined as

\[
[A]_{ij} = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if edge } j \text{ leaves node } i, \\
-1 & \text{if edge } j \text{ enters node } i, \\
0 & \text{otherwise}.
\end{cases}
\]

We define the reward as the negative of scalar cost function \( \phi_e(x^e) \) denoting the amount of flow on edge \( e \). We assume that the cost functions \( \phi_e \) are strictly convex and twice continuously differentiable. The max reward network optimization problem is then defined as

\[
\text{maximize } -f(x) = \sum_{e=1}^{E} -\phi_e(x^e), \quad \text{subject to: } Ax = b.
\] (1)

Our goal is to investigate Newton-type iterative distributed methods for solving the optimization problem in (1). Before doing that, let us discuss the workhorse distributed solution based on subgradient descent (Section II-A) and the conventional centralized Newton’s method (Section II-B).

A. **Dual Subgradient Method**

Dual subgradient descent solves (1) by descending in the dual domain. Start then by defining the Lagrangian function of problem (1) as

\[
\mathcal{L}(x, \lambda) = -\sum_{e=1}^{E} \phi_e(x^e) + \lambda^\top (Ax - b)
\]

and the dual function \( q(\lambda) \) as

\[
q(\lambda) = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^E} \mathcal{L}(x, \lambda) = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^E} \left( -\sum_{e=1}^{E} \phi_e(x^e) + \lambda^\top (Ax - b) \right) - \lambda^\top b
\]

\[
= \sum_{e=1}^{E} \sup_{x^e \in \mathbb{R}} \left( -\phi_e(x^e) + (\lambda^\top A)^e x^e \right) - \lambda^\top b,
\]

where in the last equality we wrote \( \lambda^\top A x = \sum_{e=1}^{E} (\lambda^\top A)^e x^e \) and exchanged the order of the sum and supremum operators.

It can be seen from (2) that the evaluation of the dual function \( q(\lambda) \) decomposes into the \( E \) one-dimensional optimization problems that appear in the sum. We assume that each of these problems has an optimal solution, which is unique because of the strict convexity of the functions \( \phi_e \). Denote this unique solution as \( x^e(\lambda) \) and use the first order optimality conditions for these problems in order to write

\[
x^e(\lambda) = (\phi'_e)^{-1}(\lambda^e - \lambda^{e_0}),
\] (3)

where \( i \in \mathcal{N} \) and \( j \in \mathcal{N} \) respectively denote the source and destination nodes of edge \( e = (i, j) \). As per (3) the evaluation of \( x^e(\lambda) \) for each node \( e \) is based on local information about the edge cost function \( \phi_e \) and the dual variables of the incident nodes \( i \) and \( j \).

The dual problem of (1) is defined as \( \min_{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n} q(\lambda) \). The dual function is convex, because all dual functions of minimization problems are, and differentiable, because the \( \phi_e \) functions are strictly convex. Therefore, the dual problem can be solved using gradient descent. Consider an iteration index \( k \), an arbitrary initial vector \( \lambda_0 \) and define iterates \( \lambda_k \) generated by the following:

\[
\lambda_{k+1} = \lambda_k - \alpha_k g_k \quad \text{for all } k \geq 0,
\] (4)

where \( g_k = g(\lambda_k) = \nabla q(\lambda_k) \) denotes the gradient of the dual function \( q(\lambda) \) at \( \lambda = \lambda_k \). A first important observation here is that we can compute the gradient as \( g_k = Ax(\lambda_k) - b \) with the vector \( x(\lambda_k) \) having components \( x^e(\lambda_k) \) as determined by (3) with \( \lambda = \lambda_k \). Section 6.4]. Differentiability of \( q(\lambda) \) follows from strict convexity of (1). A second important observation is that because of the sparsity pattern of the node-edge incidence matrix \( A \) the \( i \)th element \( g_k^i \) of the gradient \( g_k \) can be computed as

\[
g_k^i = \sum_{e=1}^{E} x^e(\lambda_k) - \sum_{e=1}^{E} x^e(\lambda_k) - b_i
\] (5)

The algorithm in (4) lends itself to distributed implementation. Each node \( i \) maintains information about its dual iterates \( \lambda_k^i \) and primal iterates \( x^e(\lambda_k) \) of outgoing edges \( e = (i, j) \). Gradient components \( g_k^i \) are evaluated as per (5) using local primal iterates \( x^e(\lambda_k) \) for \( e = (i, j) \) and primal iterates of neighboring nodes \( x^e(\lambda_k) \) for \( e = (j, i) \). Dual variables are then updated as per (4). Having updated the dual iterates, we proceed to update primal variables as per (3). This update necessitates local multipliers \( \lambda_k^i \) and neighboring multipliers \( \lambda_k^j \).

Distributed implementation is appealing because it avoids the cost and fragility of collecting all information at a centralized location. However, practical applicability of gradient descent algorithms is hindered by slow convergence rates; see e.g., [13], [15]. This motivates consideration of Newton’s method which we describe next.

B. **Newton’s Method for Dual Descent**

Newton’s Method is a descent algorithm along a scaled version of the gradient. In lieu of (4) iterates are given by

\[
\lambda_{k+1} = \lambda_k + \alpha_k d_k \quad \text{for all } k \geq 0,
\] (6)
where $d_k$ is the Newton direction at iteration $k$ and $\alpha_k$ is a properly selected step size. The Newton direction, $d_k$, satisfies

$$H_k d_k = -g_k,$$  

(7)

where $H_k = H(\lambda_k) = \nabla^2 g(\lambda_k)$ is the Hessian of the dual function at the current iterate and $g_k = g_k(\lambda_k)$ is, we recall, the corresponding gradient.

To obtain an expression for the dual Hessian, consider given dual $\lambda_k$ and primal $x_k = x(\lambda_k)$ variables, and consider the second order approximation of the primal objective centered at the current primal iterates $x_k$.

$$\hat{f}(y) = f(x_k) + \nabla f(x_k)(y-x_k) + \frac{1}{2}(y-x_k)^T \nabla^2 f(x_k)(y-x_k)$$

(8)

The primal optimization problem in (1) is now replaced by the maximization of the approximating function $-\hat{f}(y)$ in (8) subject to the constraint $A y = b$. This approximated problem is a quadratic program whose dual is the (also quadratic) program

$$\min_{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n} g(\lambda_k) = \min_{\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} \lambda_k^T A \nabla^2 f(x_k)^{-1} A^T \lambda_k + p^T \lambda_k + r.$$  

(9)

The vector $p$ and the constant $r$ can be expressed in closed form as functions of $\nabla f(x_k)$ and $\nabla^2 f(x_k)$, but are irrelevant for the discussion here. The important consequence of (9) is that the dual Hessian is given by

$$H_k = Q = A (-\nabla^2 f(x_k)^{-1}) A^T.$$  

(10)

From the definition of $f(x)$ in (1) it follows that the primal Hessian $-\nabla^2 f(x_k)$ is a diagonal matrix, which is negative definite by strict convexity of $f(x)$. Therefore, its inverse exists and can be computed locally. Further observe that the dual Hessian, being the product of the incidence matrix times a positive definite diagonal matrix times the incidence matrix transpose, is a weighted version of the network graph’s Laplacian. As a particular consequence it follows that 1 is an eigenvector of $H_k$ associated with eigenvalue 0 and that $H_k$ is invertible on the subspace $1^\perp$. Since the gradient $g_k$ lies in $1^\perp$ we can find the Newton step as $d_k = -H_k^\dagger g_k$. However, computation of the pseudoinverse $H_k^\dagger$ requires global information. We are therefore interested in approximations of the Newton direction requiring local information only.

III. APPROXIMATE NEWTON’S METHOD

To define an approximate Newton direction, i.e., one for which (7) is approximately true, we will consider a finite number of terms of a suitable Taylor’s expansion representation of the Newton direction. At iteration $k$, split the Hessian into diagonal elements $D_k$ and off diagonal elements $B_k$ and write $H_k = D_k - B_k$. Further rewrite the Hessian as $H_k = D_k^{\frac{1}{2}} \left( I - D_k^{\frac{1}{2}} B_k D_k^{\frac{1}{2}} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} D_k^{\frac{1}{2}}$, which implies that the Hessian pseudo-inverse is given by $H_k^{-1} = D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left( I - D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} B_k D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right)^{-\frac{1}{2}} D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. Notice now that for the central term of this product we can use the Taylor’s expansion identity $(I - X)^{\dagger} v = (\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} X^i) v$, which is valid for any vector $v$ orthogonal to the eigenvectors of $X$ associated with eigenvalue 1. Since $g_k$ is orthogonal to 1, it follows

$$d_k = -H_k^\dagger g_k = -\sum_{i=0}^{\infty} D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left( D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} B_k D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right)^{\dagger} D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} g_k.$$  

(11)

The Newton direction is now represented as an infinite sum we can define a family of approximations characterized by truncations of this sum,

$$d_k^{(N)} = -\sum_{i=0}^{N} D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left( D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} B_k D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right)^{\dagger} D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} g_k := -\hat{H}_k^{(N)} g_k,$$  

(12)

where we have defined the approximate Hessian pseudo inverse $\hat{H}_k^{(N)} := \sum_{i=0}^{N} D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left( D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} B_k D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \right)^{\dagger} D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}$. The approximate Newton algorithm is obtained by replacing the Newton step $d_k$ in (6) by its approximations $d_k^{(N)} = -\hat{H}_k^{(N)} g_k$. The resultant algorithm is characterized by the iteration

$$\lambda_{k+1} = \lambda_k - \alpha_k \hat{H}_k^{(N)} g_k.$$  

While not obvious, the choice of $N$ in (11) dictates how much information node $i$ needs from the network in order to compute the $i$th element of the approximate Newton direction $d_k^{(N)}$ — recall that node $i$ is associated with dual variable $\lambda_k^i$.

For the zeroth order approximation $d_k^{(0)}$ only the first term of the sum in (11) is considered and it therefore suffices to have access to the information in $D_k$ to compute the approximate Newton step. Notice that the approximation in this case reduces to $d_k^{(0)} = D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} g_k$ implying that we approximate $H_k^{-1}$ by the inverse diagonals which coincides with the method in [1].

The first order approximation $d_k^{(1)}$ uses the first two terms of the sum in (11) yielding $d_k^{(1)} = (D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} + D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} B_k D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}) g_k$. The key observation here is that the sparsity pattern of $B_k$, and as a consequence the sparsity pattern of $D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} B_k D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, is that of the graph Laplacian, which means that $[D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} B_k D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}]_{ij} \neq 0$ if and only if $i$ and $j$ correspond to an edge in the graph, i.e., $(i, j) \in E$. As a consequence, to compute the $i$th element of $d_k^{(1)}$ node $i$ needs to collect information that is either locally available or available at nodes that share an edge with $i$.

For the second order approximation $d_k^{(2)}$ we add the term $(D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} B_k)^2 D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ to the approximation $d_k^{(1)}$. The sparsity pattern of $(D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} B_k)^2 D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ is that of $B_k^2$, which is easy to realize has nonzero entries matching the 2-hop neighborhoods of each node. Therefore, to compute the $i$th element of $d_k^{(2)}$ node $i$ requires access to information from neighboring nodes and from neighbors of these neighbors. In general, the $N$th order approximation adds a term of the form $(D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} B_k)^N D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ to the $N - 1$st order approximation. The sparsity pattern of this term is that of $B_k^N$, which coincides with the $N$-hop neighborhood, and computation of the local elements of the Newton step necessitates information from $N$ hops away.

We thus interpret (11) as a family of approximations indexed by $N$ that yields Hessian approximations requiring in-
formation from $N$-hop neighbors in the network. This family of methods offers a trade off between communication cost and precision of the Newton direction. We analyze convergence properties of these methods in the coming sections.

A. Convergence

A basic guarantee for any iterative optimization algorithm is to show that it eventually approaches a neighborhood of the optimal solution. This is not immediate for ADD as defined by (12) because the errors in the $\bar{H}(N)$ approximations to $H_k$ may be significant. Notwithstanding, it is possible to prove that the $\bar{H}(N)$ approximations are positive definite for all $N$ and from there to conclude that the $\lambda_k$ iterates in (12) eventually approach a neighborhood of the optimal $\lambda^*$. This claim is stated and proved in the next proposition.

Proposition 1. Let $\lambda^*$ denote the optimal argument of the dual function $q(\lambda)$ of the optimization problem in (1) and consider the ADD-N algorithm characterized by iteration (12) with $\bar{H}(N)$ as in (11). Assume $\alpha_k = \alpha$ for all $k$ and that the network graph is not bipartite. Then, for all sufficiently small $\alpha$,

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \lambda_k = \lambda^*$$

Proof: As per the Descent Lemma, to prove convergence of the $\lambda_k$ iterates in (12) it suffices to show that the matrix $\bar{H}(N)$ is positive definite for all $k$ [2, Proposition A.24].

To do so, begin by recalling that the dual Hessian, $H_k$ is a weighted Laplacian and define the normalized laplacian $L_k = D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}H_k D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, having unit diagonal elements. Applying the splitting $H_k = D_k - B_k$ it follows $D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}B_kD_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} = I - L_k$ from which we can write $\bar{H}(N)$ as [cf. (11)]

$$\bar{H}(N) = D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \left( \sum_{i=0}^N (I - L_k)^i \right) D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (14)

Focus now on the sum $\sum_{i=0}^N (I - L_k)^i$. For non-bipartite graphs, normalized Laplacians have eigenvalues in the interval $[0,2)$, [6, Lemma 1.7]. Therefore, it follows that the eigenvalues of $I - L_k$, fall in $(-1,1)$. Furthermore, the normalized Laplacian $L_k$ has exactly one eigenvector, $\nu_0$ associated with the eigenvalue 0. Observe that since $L_k \nu_0 = 0$, $\nu_0$ satisfies

$$\nu_0 \left( \sum_{i=0}^N (I - L_k)^i \right) \nu_0 = (N + 1)\nu_0^2 \nu_0 > 0.$$  \hspace{1cm} (15)

The other eigenvectors of the normalized Laplacian necessarily lie in $(-1,1)$. Suppose $\mu \in (-1,1)$ is one such eigenvalue of $I - L_k$, associated with eigenvector $\nu$. It follows that $\nu$ is an eigenvector of $\sum_{i=0}^N (I - L_k)^i$, whose associated eigenvalue is $\nu$ is $(1 - \mu^{N+1})/(1 - \mu) > 0$ as follows from the sum of the truncated geometric series. Since the latter value is positive for any $\mu \in (-1,1)$ it follows that $\sum_{i=0}^N (I - L_k)^i$ is positive definite. Further observe that it is also symmetric by definition so we can define $\sum_{i=0}^N (I - L_k)^i = C^T C$ where $C$ is square and full rank, [7, Theorem 7.2.10]. We then construct $C = CD_k^{-\frac{1}{2}}$ which is also square and full rank. This gives us a new symmetric positive definite matrix $C^T C = D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} \sum_{i=0}^N (I - L_k)^i D_k^{-\frac{1}{2}} = \bar{H}(N)$, thus completing the proof.

By continuity of (3), convergence of the dual variable to an error neighborhood implies convergence of the primal variables to an error neighborhood. Requiring the graph to not be bipartite is a technical condition to avoid instabilities created by Laplacian eigenvalues $-1$. The restriction is not significant in practice.

IV. CONVERGENCE RATE

The basic guarantee in Proposition 1 is not stronger than convergence results for regular gradient descent. Our goal is to show that the approximate Newton method in (12) exhibits quadratic convergence in a sense similar to centralized (exact) Newton algorithms. Specifically, we will show that selecting $N$ large enough, it is possible to find a neighborhood of $\lambda^*$ such that if the iteration is started within that neighborhood converges quadratically.

Before introducing this result let us define the Newton approximation error $\epsilon_k$ as

$$\epsilon_k = H_k d_k^N + g_k.$$  \hspace{1cm} (16)

We further introduce the following standard assumptions to bound the rate of change in the Hessian of the dual function.

Assumption 1. The Hessian $H(\lambda)$ of the dual function $q(\lambda)$ satisfies the following conditions

Lipschitz dual Hessian There exists some constant $L > 0$ such that $\|H(\lambda) - H(\lambda')\| \leq L \|\lambda - \lambda'\|$ \forall $\lambda, \lambda' \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

(Strictly convex dual function) There exists some constant $M > 0$ such that $\|H(\lambda)^{-1}\| \leq M$ \forall $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

As is usual in second order optimization methods we use the gradient norm $\|g_k\| = \|g(\lambda_k)\|$ to measure the progress of the algorithm. The aforementioned quadratic convergence result establishes that for any graph we can always select $N$ large enough so that an iterate $\lambda_k$ is sufficiently close to the optimal $\lambda^*$, the gradient norm $\|g_{k+m}\|$ of subsequent iterates $\lambda_{k+m}$ decays like $2^{2m}$. This is formally stated in the following.

Proposition 2. Consider ADD-N algorithms characterized by the iteration (12) with $\bar{H}(N)$ as defined in (11). Let Assumption 1 hold and further assume that the step size is $\alpha_{k+m} = 1$ for all $k \geq m$. Let $\epsilon$ be a uniform bound in the norm of the Newton approximation error $\epsilon_k$ in (15) so that $\|\epsilon_k\| \leq \epsilon$ for all $k$. Define the constant

$$B = \epsilon + M^2 L^2.$$  \hspace{1cm} (17)

Further assume that at time $k$ it holds $\|g_k\| \leq 1/(2M^2 L)$ and that $N$ is chosen large enough to ensure that for some $\delta \in (0,1/2)$, $B + M^2 L^2 B^2 \leq \delta/(4M^2 L)$. Then, for all $m \geq 1$,

$$\|g_{k+m}\| \leq \frac{1}{2^m M^2 L} + B + \frac{\delta}{M^2 L} \left( \frac{2^{2m} - 1}{2^{2m}} \right).$$  \hspace{1cm} (18)

In particular, as $m \to \infty$ it holds

$$\lim_{m \to \infty} \|g_{k+m}\| \leq B + \frac{\delta}{2 M^2 L}.$$  \hspace{1cm} (19)
Proposition 2 has the same structure of local convergence results for Newton’s method [4, Section 9.5]. In particular, quadratic convergence follows from the term $1/(2^2)$ in (17). The remaining terms in (17) are small constants that account for the error in the approximation of the Newton step.

Notice that Proposition 2 assumes that at some point in the algorithm’s progression, $\|g_k\| \leq 1/(2M^2L)$. Quadratic convergence is only guaranteed for subsequent iterates $\lambda_{k+m}$. This is not a drawback of ADD, but a characteristic of all second order descent algorithms. To ensure that some iterate $\lambda_k$ does come close to $\lambda^*$ so that $\|g_k\| \leq 1/(2M^2L)$ we use a distributed adaptation of backtracking line search (Section IV-A).

To proceed with the proof of Proposition 2 we need two preliminary results. The first result concerns the bound $\epsilon$ which was required to hold uniformly for all iteration indexes $k$. While it is clear that increasing $N$ reduces $\|\epsilon_k\|$, it is not immediate that a uniform bound should exist. The fact that a uniform bound does exists is claimed in the following lemma.

**Lemma 1.** Given an arbitrary $\epsilon > 0$, there exists an $N$ such that the Newton approximation errors $\epsilon_k$ as defined in (15) have uniformly bounded norms $\|\epsilon_k\| \leq \epsilon$ for all iteration indexes $k$.

**Proof:** We begin eliminating the summation from our expression of the Newton error by observing that a telescopic property emerges.

$$
H_kd_k^{(N)} + g_k = H_k \left( - \sum_{i=0}^{N} (D_k^{-1}B_k)^i D_k^{-1} g_k \right) + g_k
$$

$$
= \left( I - (D_k - B_k) \sum_{i=0}^{N} (D_k^{-1}B_k)^i D_k^{-1} \right) g_k
$$

$$
= \left( I - \sum_{i=0}^{N} (D_k^{-1}B_k)^i - (D_k^{-1}B_k)^{i+1} \right) g_k
$$

$$
= (B_kD_k^{-1})^{N+1} g_k
$$

We introduce the matrix $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n-1}$, made up of $n - 1$ orthonormal columns spanning $1^\perp$. We observe that $VV' = I_n - \frac{1}{n} 1n^1$, and since $g \in 1^\perp$ we have $g = VV'g$. Our descent occurs in $1^\perp$ so we restrict our analysis to this subspace. We have $\|V'(B_kD_k^{-1})^{N+1}g_k\| = \|V'(B_kD_k^{-1})^{N+1}V'Vg_k\| \leq \|V'(B_kD_k^{-1})^{N+1}V\| \|V'g_k\| \leq \rho^{N+1} (B_kD_k^{-1}) g_k$ from the triangle inequality and the following definition. For a matrix $X$, $\rho(X)$ is the radius of a disc containing all eigenvalues with subunit magnitude. In this problem $\rho(V'(B_kD_k^{-1})V)$ coincides with the largest eigenvalue modulus and $\rho(B_kD_k^{-1})$ is the second largest eigenvalue modulus. From [11] we have

$$
\rho (B_kD_k^{-1}) \leq 1 - (n\Delta(G)(\text{diam}(G) + 1)b_{\text{max}})
$$

(19)

where $\Delta(G)$ is the maximum degree of any node in $G$, $\text{diam}(G)$ is the diameter of $G$ and $b_{\text{max}}$ is an upper bound on dual off diagonal elements of the dual hessian: $|H_{k,ij}| \leq b_{\text{max}}$ if $i \neq j$. Combining this fact with the assumption that $g_k$ is upperbounded for all $k$, the result follows.

Another preliminary result necessary for the proof of Proposition 2 is an iterative relationship between the gradient norm $\|g_{k+1}\|$ at iteration $k + 1$ and the norm $\|g_k\|$ at iteration $k$. This relationship follows from a multi-dimensional extension of the descent lemma (see [3]) as we explain next.

**Lemma 2.** Let Assumption 1 hold. Let $\{\lambda_k\}$ be a sequence generated by the method (6). For any steplike size $\alpha_k$, we have $\|g_{k+1}\| \leq (1 - \alpha_k)\|g_k\| + M^2L\alpha_k^2 \|g_k\|^2 + \alpha_k \|\epsilon_k\| + M^2L\alpha_k^2 \|\epsilon_k\|^2$.

**Proof:** We consider two vectors $w \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and $z \in \mathbb{E}$. We let $\xi$ be a scalar parameter and define the function $y(\xi) = \nabla y(w + \xi z)$. From the chain rule, it follows that $\frac{\partial}{\partial \xi}y(\xi) = H(w + \xi z)\xi$. Using the Lipschitz continuity of the residual function gradient [cf. Assumption 1(a)], we obtain: $g(w + z) - g(w) = (1) - y(0) = \int_0^1 \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi}y(\xi)d\xi = \int_0^1 H(w + \xi z)d\xi$

$$
\leq \left| \int_0^1 (H(w + \xi z) - H(w)) \xi d\xi \right| + \int_0^1 |H(w)\xi| d\xi
$$

$$
\leq \left| \int_0^1 H(w + \xi z) - H(w) \right| \xi d\xi + \int_0^1 |H(w)| \xi d\xi + H(w)z
$$

$$
\leq \|z\| \int_0^1 |\xi| |d\xi + H(w)z = \frac{L}{2} \|z\|^2 + H(w)z.
$$

We apply the preceding relation with $w = \lambda_k$ and $z = \epsilon_kd_k$ and obtain $g(\lambda_k + \epsilon_kd_k) - g(\lambda_k) \leq \alpha_k H(\lambda_k)d_k + \frac{L}{2} \|\epsilon_k\|^2$. Moreover, using Assumption 1(b), we have $\|d_k\| = \|H(\lambda_k)^{-1}(g(\lambda_k) + \epsilon_k)|^2 \leq H(\lambda_k)^{-1}2 \|g(\lambda_k) + \epsilon_k\|^2 \leq M^2L\|g(\lambda_k)\|^2 + \alpha_k \|\epsilon_k\|^2 + M^2L\alpha_k^2 \|\epsilon_k\|^2$. Combining the above relations, we obtain $\|g(\lambda_{k+1})\| \leq (1 - \alpha_k)\|g(\lambda_k)\| + M^2L\alpha_k^2 \|g(\lambda_k)\|^2 + \alpha_k \|\epsilon_k\|^2 + M^2L\alpha_k^2 \|\epsilon_k\|^2$, establishing the desired result.

The proof of Proposition 2 follows from recursive application of the result in Lemma 2.

**Proof:** (Proposition 2) We show Eq. (17) using induction on the iteration $m$. Using $\alpha_k = 1$ in the statement of Lemma 2, we obtain $\|g_{k+1}\| \leq M^2L\|g_k\|^2 + B \leq 1/4M^2L + B$, where the second inequality follows from the assumption $\|g_k\| \leq 1/2M^2L$. This establishes relation (17) for $m = 1$. We next assume that (17) holds for some $m > 0$, and show that it also holds for $m + 1$. Eq. (17) implies that $\|g_{k+m}\| \leq 1/4M^2L + B + \delta/4M^2L$. Using the assumption $B + M^2LB \leq \delta/4M^2L$, this yields $\|g_{k+m}\| \leq 1 + 2\delta/4M^2L \leq 1/2M^2L$, where the strict inequality follows from $\delta \in (0, 1/2)$. Using $\alpha_{k+m} = 1$ in the generalized descent lemma 2, we obtain

$$
M^2L\|g_{k+m+1}\| \leq \left( M^2L\|g_{k+m}\| \right)^2 + B.
$$

Using Eq. (17), this implies that $M^2L\|g_{k+m+1}\| \leq \left( \frac{1}{2^{2m}} + M^2LB + \frac{\delta(2^{2m}-1)}{2^{2m}} \right)^2 + M^2LB$

$$
= \frac{1}{2^{2m+1}} + M^2LB - \frac{\delta(2^{2m}-1)}{2^{2m+1}} + M^2L \left( B + \frac{\delta}{M^2L} \frac{(2^{2m}-1)}{2^{2m+1}} \right)^2 + M^2LB.
$$
Using algebraic manipulations and the assumption $B + M^2LB^2 \leq \frac{\delta}{4M^2L}$, this yields
\[ \|g_{k+1}\| \leq \frac{1}{2^{m+1}} + B + \frac{\delta}{M^2L} \left( \frac{2^{m+1} - 1}{2^{m+1}} \right), \]
completing the induction. Taking the limit superior in Eq. (17) establishes the final result.

\[ \text{(21)} \]

A. Distributed backtracking line search

Proposition 2 establishes local quadratic convergence for properly selected members of the ADD family. To guarantee global convergence we modify ADD to use time varying step sizes $\alpha_k$ selected through distributed backtracking line search [4, Algorithm 9.2]. Line search implementation requires computation of the gradient norm $\|g_k\| = \sum_{i=1}^n g_k^i$. This can be easily achieved using distributed consensus algorithms, e.g., [8]. However, since these consensus algorithms are iterative in nature, an approximate norm $\eta_k$ is computed in lieu of $\|g_k\|$. We assume that approximate gradient norms are computed with an error not exceeding a given constant $\gamma/2 \geq 0$.

\[ \eta_k - \|g_k\| \leq \gamma/2, \quad (20) \]

For fixed scalars $\sigma \in (0, 1/2)$ and $\beta \in (0, 1)$, we set the stepsize $\alpha_k$ equal to $\alpha_k = \beta^m_k$, where $m_k$ is the smallest nonnegative integer that satisfies
\[ n_{k+1} \leq (1 - \sigma \beta^m_k) \eta_k + B + \gamma. \quad (21) \]

The expression in (21) coincides with the regular (centralized) backtracking line search except for the use of the approximate norm $\eta_k$ instead of the actual norm $\|g_k\|$ and the (small) additive constants $B$ and $\gamma$ respectively defined in (16) and (20).

While we introduce line search to ensure global convergence we start by showing that stepsizes selected according to the rule in (21) do not affect local convergence. As we show next, this is because if $\|g_k\| \leq 1/(2M^2L)$ as required in Proposition 2 the rule in (21) selects stepsize $\alpha_k = 1$.

**Proposition 3.** If at iteration $k$ of ADD-$N$ the gradient norm satisfies $\|g_k\| \leq 1/(2M^2L)$, the inexact backtracking stepsize rule in (20) selects $\alpha_k = 1$.

**Proof:** Replacing $\alpha_k = 1$ in Lemma 2 and using the definition of the constant $B$, we obtain $\|g_{k+1}\| \leq M^2L\|g_k\|^2 + B \leq \frac{1}{2}\|g_k\| + B \leq (1 - \sigma)\|g_k\| + B$, where to get the last inequality, we used the fact that the constant $\sigma$ used in the inexact backtracking stepsize rule satisfies $\sigma \in (0, 1/2)$. Using the condition on $\eta_k$ [cf. Eq. (20)], this yields $n_{k+1} \leq (1 - \sigma)\eta_k + B + \gamma$, showing that the steplength $\alpha_k = 1$ satisfies condition (21) in the inexact backtracking stepsize rule.

As per Proposition 3, if ADD-$N$ with backtracking line search is initialized at a point at which $\|g_0\| \leq 1/(2M^2L)$, stepsizes $\alpha_k = 1$ are used. Therefore, Proposition 2 holds, and convergence to the optimum $\lambda^*$ is quadratic, which in practice implies convergence in a few steps. Otherwise, selecting step sizes $\alpha_k$ satisfying (21) ensures a strict decrease in the norm of the residual function as proven by the proposition below.

**Proposition 4.** Consider ADD-$N$ algorithms characterized by the iteration $(12)$ with $H_k^{(N)}$ as defined in (11). Let Assumption 1 hold and stepizes $\alpha_k$ being selected according to the inexact backtracking rule in (21). Further assume that $\|g_k\| > 1/2M^2L$ and that $N$ is chosen large enough to ensure that the constants $B$ and $\gamma$ in (16) and (20) satisfy
\[ B + 2\gamma \leq \frac{\beta}{16M^2L}, \quad (22) \]
where $\beta$ is the backtracking rule constant and $M$ and $L$ are defined in Assumption 1. Then, the gradient norm at iteration $k + 1$ decreases by at least $\beta/(16M^2L)$,
\[ \|g_{k+1}\| \leq \|g_k\| - \frac{\beta}{16M^2L}, \quad (23) \]

**Proof:** For any $k \geq 0$, we define $\bar{\alpha}_k = \frac{1}{2M^2L(\eta_k + \gamma/2)}$. In view of the condition on $\eta_k$ [cf. Eq. (20)], we have
\[ \frac{1}{2M^2L(\|g_k\| + \gamma)} \leq \bar{\alpha}_k \leq \frac{1}{2M^2L\|g_k\|} < 1, \quad (24) \]
where the last inequality follows by the assumption $\|g_k\| > 1/(2M^2L)$. Using the preceding relation and substituting $\bar{\alpha}_k = \alpha_k$ in the generalized descent lemma (lemma 2), we obtain:
\[ \|g_{k+1}\| \leq \|g_k\| + \bar{\alpha}_k \|\epsilon_k\| + M^2L\alpha_k^2 \|\epsilon_k\|^2 \]
\[ \leq \|g_k\| + \bar{\alpha}_k \|\epsilon_k\| + M^2L\bar{\alpha}_k^2 \|\epsilon_k\|^2 \]
\[ \leq \bar{\alpha}_k \|g_k\| \left( 1 - \frac{1}{2M^2L\|g_k\|} \right) \]
\[ \leq \bar{\alpha}_k \epsilon_k + M^2L\bar{\alpha}_k^2 \epsilon_k^2 + \left( 1 - \frac{\bar{\alpha}_k}{2} \right) \|g_k\| \]
\[ \leq B + \left( 1 - \frac{\bar{\alpha}_k}{2} \right) \|g_k\|, \]
where the second inequality follows from the definition of $\bar{\alpha}_k$ and the third inequality follows by combining the facts $\bar{\alpha}_k < 1$, $\|\epsilon_k\| \leq \epsilon$ for all $k$, and the definition of $B$. The constant $\sigma$ used in the definition of the inexact backtracking line search satisfies $\sigma \in (0, 1/2)$, therefore, it follows from the preceding relation that $\|g_{k+1}\| \leq (1 - \sigma\bar{\alpha}_k)\|g_k\| + B$. Using condition (20) once again, this implies $n_{k+1} \leq (1 - \sigma\bar{\alpha}_k)\eta_k + B + \gamma$, showing that the steplength $\alpha_k$ selected by the inexact backtracking line search satisfies $\alpha_k \geq \beta\bar{\alpha}_k$. From condition (21), we have $n_{k+1} \leq (1 - \sigma\bar{\alpha}_k)\eta_k + B + \gamma$, which implies $\|g_{k+1}\| \leq (1 - \sigma\bar{\alpha}_k)\|g_k\| + B + 2\gamma$. Combined with Eq. (24), this yields
\[ \|g_{k+1}\| \leq \left( 1 - \frac{\sigma\beta}{2M^2L(\|g_k\| + \gamma)} \right) \|g_k\| + B + 2\gamma. \]

By 22, we also have $\gamma \leq B + 2\gamma \leq \beta/(16M^2L)$, which in view of the assumption $\|g_k\| > 1/2M^2L$ implies that $\gamma \leq \|g_k\|$. Substituting this in the preceding relation and using the fact $\alpha \in (0, 1/2)$, we obtain $\|g_{k+1}\| \leq \|g_k\| - \beta/(8M^2L) + B + 2\gamma$. Combined with 22, this yields the desired result.

Proposition 4 shows that if ADD-$N$ is initialized at a point with gradient norm $\|g_0\| > 1/2M^2L$, we obtain a decrease in the norm of the gradient of at least $\beta/(16M^2L)$. This holds true for all iterations as long as $\|g_k\| > 1/2M^2L$. This establishes
that we need at most $16\|g_0\|M^2L/\beta$ iterations until we obtain $\|g_k\| \leq 1/2M^2L$. At this point the quadratic convergence result in Proposition 2 comes in effect and ADD-N converges in a few extra steps.

V. CONSENSUS-BASED NEWTON

An alternative approach to obtain an approximation to the Newton step is to use consensus iterations. This consensus-based inexact Newton algorithm is pursued in [9] and shares a connection with the algorithm proposed here. While consensus-based Newton is developed for a primal dual formulation, it can be adapted to dual descent as pursued here. In consensus-based Newton, approximate Newton directions $d_k$ are found by solving the following consensus dynamic

$$d_k^{(i+1)} = (D_k + I)^{-1}(B_k + I)d_k^{(i)} - (D_k + I)^{-1}g_k,$$

where the splitting $H_k = (D_k + I) - (B_k + I)$ was used.

Observe that both consensus-based Newton and ADD use a choice of splitting. ADD uses $D_k, B_k$ as opposed to $(D_k + I), (B_k + I)$ but the choice of splitting is not crucial. With the appropriate choice of splitting, the consensus update becomes

$$d_k^{(i+1)} = D_k^{-1}B_k d_k^{(i)} - D_k^{-1}g_k.$$

Choosing the initial value $d_k^{(0)} = 0$ results in a sequence of approximations of the Newton direction as follows

$$d_k^{(1)} = D_k^{-1}B_k 0 - D_k^{-1}g_k = -H_k^{(0)}g_k,$$

$$d_k^{(2)} = D_k^{-1}B_k (-D_k^{-1}g_k) - D_k^{-1}g_k = -H_k^{(1)}g_k,$$

$$\vdots$$

$$d_k^{(m)} = - \sum_{i=0}^{m-1} D_k^{-\frac{i}{2}} (D_k^{-\frac{i}{2}}B_k D_k^{-\frac{i}{2}}) D_k^{-\frac{i}{2}} g_k = -H_k^{(m-1)}g_k.$$

We observe that after $m$ consensus iterations our approximation $d_k^{(m)}$ is the same approximation arrived at by using ADD-N with $N = m - 1$. Therefore, ADD has the same behavior as a fixed iteration version of consensus-based Newton.

VI. NUMERICAL RESULTS

Numerical experiments are undertaken to study ADD’s performance with respect to the choice of the number of approximating terms $N$. These experiments show that $N = 1$ or $N = 2$ work best in practice. ADD is also compared to dual gradient descent [14] and the consensus-based Newton method in [9] that we summarized in Section V. These comparisons show that ADD convergence times are one to two orders of magnitude faster.

Figures 1 and 2 show convergence metrics for a randomly generated network with 25 nodes and 75 edges. Edges in the network are selected uniformly at random. The flow vector $b$ is chosen to place sources and sinks a full diam($G$) away from each other. All figures show results for ADD-0 through ADD-3, gradient descent, and consensus-based Newton. In Fig. 1, objective value $f(x(\lambda_k))$ and constraint violation $\|Ax(\lambda_k) - b\|$ are shown as functions of the iteration index $k$. As expected, the number of iterations required decreases with increasing $N$. The performance improvement, however, is minimal when increasing $N$ from 2 to 3. The convergence time of consensus-based Newton is comparable to ADD, while gradient descent is three orders of magnitude slower.

The comparison in Fig. 1 is not completely accurate because different versions of ADD differ in the number of communication instances required per iteration. These numbers differ for consensus-based Newton and regular dual descent as well. Fig. 2 normalizes the horizontal axis to demonstrate algorithms’ progress with respect to the number of times nodes exchange information with their neighbors. Observe that in terms of this metric all versions of ADD are about an order of magnitude faster than consensus-based Newton and two orders of magnitude faster than gradient descent. The difference between figs. 1 and 2 is due to the number of communication instances needed per each Newton iteration.

Another important conclusion of Fig. 2 is that even though increasing $N$ in ADD decreases the number of iterations required, there is not a strict decrease in the number of communications. Indeed, as can be appreciated in Fig. 2,
ADD-2 requires fewer communications than ADD-3. This fact demonstrates an inherent trade off between spending communication instances to refine the Newton step $d_k^{(N)}$ versus using them to take a step. We further examine this phenomenon in Fig. 3. These experiments are on random graphs with 25 nodes and 75 edges chosen uniformly at random. The flow vector $b$ is selected by placing a source and a sink at $\text{diam}(\mathcal{G})$ away from each other. We consider an algorithm to have converged when its residual $\|g_k\| \leq 10^{-10}$.

The behavior of ADD is also explored for graphs of varying size and degree in Fig. 4. As the graph size increases the performance gap between ADD and competing methods increases. Consistency of ADD is also apparent since the maximum, minimum, and average information exchanges required to solve (1) for different network realizations are similar. This is not the case for neither consensus-based Newton nor gradient descent. Further note that ADD’s communication cost increases only slightly with network size.

VII. CONCLUSION

A family of accelerated dual descent (ADD) algorithms to find optimal network flows in a distributed manner was introduced. Members of this family are characterized by a single parameter $N$ determining the accuracy in the approximation of the dual Newton step. This same parameter controls the communication cost of individual algorithm iterations. We proved that it is always possible to find members of this family for which convergence to optimal operating points is quadratic.

Simulations demonstrated that $N = 1$ and $N = 2$, respectively denoted as ADD-1 and ADD-2 perform best in practice. ADD-1 corresponds to Newton step approximations using information from neighboring nodes only, while ADD-2 requires information from nodes two hops away. ADD-1 and ADD-2 outperform gradient descent by two orders of magnitude and a related consensus-based Newton method by one order of magnitude.

Possible extensions include applications to network utility maximization [19], general wireless communication problems [17], and stochastic settings [16].

REFERENCES

[1] S. Authuraliya and S. H. Low, Optimization flow control with newton-like algorithm, Telecommunications Systems 15 (2000), 345–358.
[2] D.P. Bertsekas, Nonlinear programming, Athena Scientific, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 1999.
[3] D.P. Bertsekas, A. Nedić, and A.E. Ozdaglar, Convex analysis and optimization, Athena Scientific, Cambridge, Massachusetts, 2003.
[4] S. Boyd and L. Vandenberghe, Convex optimization, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, UK, 2004.
[5] M. Chiang, S.H. Low, A.R. Calderbank, and J.C. Doyle, Layering as optimization decomposition: A mathematical theory of network architectures, Proceedings of the IEEE 95 (2007), no. 1, 255–312.
[6] Fan Chung, Spectral graph theory, The American Mathematical Society, 1997.
[7] R. Horn and C. R. Johnson, Matrix analysis, Cambridge University Press, New York, 1985.
[8] A. Jadbabaie, J. Lin, and S. Morse, Coordination of groups of mobile autonomous agents using nearest neighbor rules, IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control 48 (2003), no. 6, 988–1001.
[9] A. Jadbabaie, A. Ozdaglar, and M. Zargham, A distributed newton method for network optimization, Proceedings of IEEE CDC.
[10] P.F. Kelly, A.K. Maulloo, and D.K. Tan, Rate control for communication networks: shadow prices, proportional fairness, and stability, Journal of the Operational Research Society 49 (1998), 237–252.
[11] H. J. Landau and A. M. Odlyzko, Bounds for eigenvalues of certain stochastic matrices, Linear Algebra and its Applications 38 (1981), 5–15.
[12] S. Low and D.E. Lapsley, Optimization flow control, I: Basic algorithm and convergence, IEEE/ACM Transactions on Networking 7 (1999), no. 6, 861–874.
[13] A. Nedić and A. Ozdaglar, Approximate primal solutions and rate analysis for dual subgradient methods, SIAM Journal on Optimization, forthcoming (2008).
[14] Distributed subgradient methods for multi-agent optimization, IEEE Transactions on Automatic Control, forthcoming (2008).
[15] Subgradient methods in network resource allocation: Rate analysis, Proc. of CISS, 2008.
[16] A. Ribeiro, Ergodic stochastic optimization algorithms for wireless communication and networking, IEEE Transactions on Signal Processing (2009).
[17] A. Ribeiro and G. B. Giannakis, Separation theorems of wireless networking, IEEE Transactions on Information Theory (2007).
[18] R. Srikant, Mathematics of Internet congestion control, Birkhauser, 2004.
[19] E. Wei, A. Ozdaglar, and A. Jadbabaie, A distributed newton method for network utility maximization, LIDS Technical Report 2832 (2010).