

# Trust Region Methods

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## 1 Introduction

These are notes on trust region optimization methods that I took as I read [1]. Intuitively, line search methods first make a quadratic model of the function  $f$  to generate a step direction and calculate the step length (preferably one that satisfies the Wolfe Conditions). In contrast, trust region methods also generate a model of the function  $f$  - but they define a region around where we are currently such that inside that region we believe our model is more or less the same as function  $f$  and then step to the minimizer of the model. Therefore, we would want our model to be one that we *can* in fact solve.

## 2 Model

Let us first discuss how to model the function  $f$  in the first place. This is simply done through Taylor expansion. Suppose, we are currently at  $x_k$  and we choose to take a step in direction  $p$ . Then, if we expand  $f$ , we get:

$$f(x_k + p) = f_k + g_k^T p + \frac{1}{2} p^T \nabla^2 f(x_k + tp) p$$

where  $t \in (0, 1)$ ,  $f_k := f(x_k)$  and  $g_k := \nabla f(x_k)$ . Now, suppose we approximate the matrix  $\nabla^2 f(x_k)$  with  $B_k$ , such that  $B_k$  is a symmetric matrix. Then, we model the function to be:

$$m_k(p) := f_k + g_k^T p + \frac{1}{2} p^T B_k p.$$

Therefore, at each step, we define the trust region to be a sphere of radius  $\Delta_k$  around  $x_k$ . Therefore, from  $x_k$ , we will take a step  $p_k$  such that  $\|p_k\| \leq \Delta_k$  and it solves the model  $m_k$ . So, we are searching for the solution:

$$\arg \min_{p \in \mathbb{R}^n} m_k(p)$$

To emphasize again, note that within the trust region, we are solving the *model*, not the function  $f$ . Given a step  $p_k$ , we may *think* that we have reduced the function  $f$  by a certain amount, but may end up reducing the function by a different amount. To quantify this, we define:

$$\rho_k := \frac{f(x_k) - f(x_k + p_k)}{m_k(0) - m_k(p_k)}.$$

Note that the numerator is the the amount by which  $f$  got reduced after we took the step  $p_k$  from  $x_k$ . The denominator is the amount by which we reduced the *model*. This ratio therefore is also a measure of how good our model is - if it is close to 1, it means our model represented the function well and therefore the step  $p_k$  reduced  $f$  by the same amount by which it reduced  $m_k$ .

Generally, the way trust region methods work is that we start at  $x_k$ , fix a radius  $\Delta_k$  to define the trust region, make a model  $m_k$  of the function inside this trust region and then take a step  $p_k$  that reduces the model  $m_k$  and **stays inside the trust region**. Then, we calculate  $\rho_k$  to get an estimation of how good our model is. If it is close to 1, we expand our trust region radius (because our model is good we can take a step that's longer). On the other hand, if  $\rho_k$  is close to 0, we realise that our model is not too good and so we choose to not take the step  $p_k$ , we make the trust region smaller to try and find a more accurate model and then try again.

### Trust Region Algorithm Outline:

Hyperparameters:  $\Delta_{max} > 0, \Delta_0 \in (0, \Delta_{max}), \eta \in [0, \frac{1}{4})$  :

For  $k=0, 1, 2, \dots$ :

Solve  $m_k$  to find  $p_k$

Calculate  $\rho_k$

If  $\rho_k < \frac{1}{4}$ :

$$\Delta_k := \frac{1}{4} \Delta_k$$

Else:

If  $\rho_k > \frac{3}{4}$  and  $\|p_k\| = \Delta_k$ :

$$\Delta_{k+1} := \min(2\Delta_k, \Delta_{max})$$

Else:

$$\Delta_{k+1} := \Delta_k$$

if  $\rho_k > \eta$ :

$$x_{k+1} := x_k + p_k$$

Else:

$$x_{k+1} := x_k$$

## 3 How to solve the model $m_k$

### 3.1 Solving model using Cauchy Point:

We define the solutions of two problems:

$$p_k^s := \arg \min_{p \in \mathbb{R}^n} f_k + g_k^T p \quad \text{s.t. } \|p\| \leq \Delta_k$$

$$\tau_k^s := \arg \min_{\tau \geq 0} m_k(\tau p_k^s) = f_k + g_k^T(\tau p_k^s) + \frac{1}{2} \tau^2 (p_k^s)^T B_k p_k^s \quad \text{s.t. } \|p\| \leq \Delta_k$$

Then, we define:

$$p_k^C := \tau_k p_k^s.$$

Now, the solution to the first problem is simply the same as what we saw in line search methods:

$$p_k^s = -\frac{\Delta_k}{\|g_k\|} g_k.$$

Solving the second problem is slightly trickier.

First, consider the case where  $g_k^T B_k g_k \leq 0$ : Then,  $m_k(\tau p_k^s)$  decreases monotonically with  $\tau$  whenever  $g_k \neq 0$ . So,  $\tau_k$  is just the largest value such that we are inside the trust region, so  $\tau_k = 1$ .

Next, consider the case where  $g_k^T B_k g_k > 0$ : Then,  $m_k(\tau p_k^s)$  is convex quadratic in  $\tau$ . So, either  $\tau_k$  is going to be the value such that  $\tau_k p_k^s$  minimizes  $m_k$  which is  $\frac{\|g_k\|^3}{\Delta_k g_k^T B_k g_k}$  (differentiate  $m_k(\tau p_k^s)$  with respect to  $\tau$  and use the definition of  $p_k^s$  to get this) or it is going to be 1.

Putting these together, we get the following solution:

$$p_k^C := -\tau_k \frac{\Delta_k}{\|g_k\|} g_k$$

where

$$\tau_k := \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } g_k^T B_k g_k \leq 0 \\ \min\left(\frac{\|g_k\|^3}{\Delta_k g_k^T B_k g_k}, 1\right) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (1)$$

While this method seems concrete, we can improve on it. For starter, notice that our step direction  $p_k^s$  is not affected by  $B_k$  at all, meaning that the second order terms are not used to generate the step direction at all. It only affects the step length  $\tau_k$ . We could try and use information from  $B_k$  to determine the step direction too.

### 3.2 Solving model using Dogleg Method:

*Note 1:* We use this method for only when  $B_k$  is positive definite. There are some fairly simple and nice ways to *make*  $B_k$  positive definite without compromising on accuracy much.

*Note 2:* We will drop the  $k$  in subscripts for easier notation.

When  $B$  is positive definite, from our study of line search methods, we know that the solution is just  $p^B := -B^{-1}g$ . So when this is a step that keeps us inside the trust region, we will choose this as our solution. Therefore,

$$p^*(\Delta) = p^B = -B^{-1}g$$

when  $\Delta \geq \|p^B\|$ . We wrote  $p^*$  as a function of the trust region radius to emphasize the fact that our step will depend on the radius. Of course, the other case is where  $\Delta < \|p^B\|$ . In this case, the quadratic term does not contribute much to our model, so we only keep the linear terms to get

$$p^*(\Delta) \approx -\Delta \frac{g}{\|g\|}.$$

Dogleg method essentially gives us a solution that interlaces these two solutions. The solution is:

$$\tilde{p}(\tau) := \begin{cases} \tau p^U, & 0 \leq \tau \leq 1 \\ p^U + (\tau - 1)(p^B - p^U), & 1 \leq \tau \leq 1 \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

where  $p^U := -\frac{g^T g}{g^T B g} g$  and  $p^B := -B^{-1}g$ .

Now, we will prove a theorem that shows that the path we described parametrised by  $\tau$  does not overlap and that along this path we do minimise our model:

**Theorem 1.** *Let  $B$  be positive definite. Then,*

- (i)  $\|\tilde{p}(\tau)\|$  is an increasing function of  $\tau$  and
- (ii)  $m(\tilde{p}(\tau))$  is a decreasing function of  $\tau$ .

*Proof.* It is very easy to see that the theorem is true for  $\tau$ . We focus on  $\tau \in [1, 2]$ . We prove (i) first. Define  $S(\alpha) := \frac{1}{2} \|\tilde{p}(1 + \alpha)\|^2$ . Expanding using (2), we get  $S(\alpha) = \frac{1}{2} \|p^U + \alpha(p^B - p^U)\|^2 = \frac{1}{2} \|p^U\|^2 + \alpha(p^U)^T(p^B - p^U) + \frac{1}{2}\alpha^2 \|p^B - p^U\|^2$ . Then, for  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ ,

$$\begin{aligned} S'(\alpha) &= -(p^U)^T(p^U - p^B) + \alpha \|p^U - p^B\|^2 \\ &\geq -(p^U)^T(p^U - p^B) \\ &= \frac{g^T g}{g^T B g} g^T \left(-\frac{g^T g}{g^T B g} g + B^{-1}g\right) \\ &= g^T g \frac{g^T B^{-1}g}{g^T B g} \left(1 - \frac{(g^T g)^2}{(g^T B g)(g^T B^{-1}g)}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Now, we show that  $\frac{(g^T g)^2}{(g^T B g)(g^T B^{-1} g)} \geq 1$ :

$$\begin{aligned}
\frac{(g^T g)^2}{(g^T B g)(g^T B^{-1} g)} &= \frac{(g^T g)^2}{(g^T B B^T g)(B^T g)^{-1} g (g^T B^{-1} (B^{-1})^T g) ((B^{-1})^T g)^{-1} g} \\
&= \frac{(g^T g)^2}{(B^T g \cdot B^T g)(B^T g)^{-1} g ((B^{-1})^T g \cdot (B^{-1})^T g) g^{-1} B^T g} \\
&\geq \frac{(g^T g)^2}{|B^T g \cdot (B^{-1})^T g|^2} \quad \text{Using Cauchy-Schwarz Inequality} \\
&= \frac{(g^T g)^2}{|g^T B^T (B^{-1})^T g|^2} \\
&= \frac{(g^T g)^2}{(g^T g)^2} \\
&= 1.
\end{aligned}$$

Using this, we get  $S'(\alpha) \geq 0$  proving (i).

Now, we prove (ii) (for  $\tau \in [1, 2]$ ):

Define  $\hat{S}(\alpha) := m(\tilde{p}(1 + \alpha))$ . We will show  $\hat{S}'(\alpha) \leq 0$  for  $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}
\hat{S}(\alpha) &= (p^B - p^U)^T (g + B p^U) + \alpha (p^B - p^U)^T B (p^B - p^U) \\
&\leq (p^B - p^U)^T (g + B p^U + B (p^B - p^U)) \\
&= (p^B - p^U)^T (g + B p^B) \\
&= 0.
\end{aligned}$$

□

## 4 Convergence Properties

First, we prove the following lemma:

**Lemma 2.** *The Cauchy point  $p_k^C$  satisfies*

$$m_k(0) - m_k(p_k) \geq \frac{1}{2} \|g_k\| \min(\Delta, \frac{\|g_k\|}{\|B_k\|})$$

where we are using the Frobenius norm of matrices.

*Proof.* We drop the  $k$ 's in subscripts for easier notation.

Case 1:  $g^T Bg \leq 0$

In this case, we have  $\tau = 1$ , so

$$\begin{aligned}
 m(p^C) - m(0) &= m\left(-\frac{\Delta}{\|g\|}g\right) - f \\
 &= -\frac{\Delta}{\|g\|} \|g\|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta^2}{\|g\|^2} g^T Bg \\
 &\leq -\Delta \|g\| \\
 &\leq -\|g\| \min\left(\Delta, \frac{\|g\|}{\|B\|}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

Case 2:  $g^T Bg > 0$  and  $\frac{\|g\|^3}{\Delta g^T Bg} \leq 1$

Then,

$$\tau := \frac{\|g\|^3}{\Delta g^T Bg}.$$

So,

$$\begin{aligned}
 m(p^C) - m(0) &= -\frac{\|g\|^4}{g^T Bg} + \frac{1}{2} g^T Bg \frac{\|g\|^4}{(g^T Bg)^2} \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|g\|^4}{g^T Bg} \\
 &\leq -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|g\|^4}{\|B\| \|g\|^2} \\
 &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\|g\|^2}{\|B\|} \\
 &\leq -\frac{1}{2} \|g\| \min\left(\Delta, \frac{\|g\|}{\|B\|}\right)
 \end{aligned}$$

Case 3:  $g^T Bg > 0$  and  $\frac{\|g\|^3}{\Delta g^T Bg} > 1$

Then,  $\tau = 1$ . So,

$$\begin{aligned}
m(p^C) - m(0) &= -\frac{\Delta}{\|g\|} \|g\|^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta^2}{\|g\|^2} g^T B g \\
&\leq -\Delta \|g\| + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\Delta^2}{\|g\|^2} \frac{\|g\|^3}{\Delta} \\
&= -\frac{1}{2} \Delta \|g\| \\
&\leq -\frac{1}{2} \|g\| \min(\Delta, \frac{\|g\|}{\|B\|})
\end{aligned}$$

□

Using this, we can now prove the following theorem which shows that we are minimising our model  $m$ :

**Theorem 3.** *Let  $p_k$  be any vector such that  $\|p_k\| \leq \Delta_k$  and  $m_k(0) - m_k(p_k) \geq c_2(m_k(0) - m_k(p_k^C))$ . Then,  $p_k$  satisfies:*

$$m_k(0) - m_k(p_k) \geq \frac{c_2}{2} \|g\| \min(\Delta_k, \frac{\|g_k\|}{\|B_k\|}).$$

*In particular, if  $p_k$  is the exact solution  $p_k^* = \arg \min_{p \in \mathbb{R}^n} m_k(p) := f_k + g_k^T p + \frac{1}{2} p^T B_k p$  (where  $\|p\| \leq \Delta_k$ ). Then, it satisfies:*

$$m_k(0) - m_k(p_k) \geq \frac{1}{2} \|g\| \min(\Delta_k, \frac{\|g_k\|}{\|B_k\|}).$$

*Proof.* Given  $\|p_k\| \leq \Delta_k$ , we use Lemma 2 to write:

$$m_k(0) - m_k(p_k) \geq c_2(m_k(0) - m_k(p_k^C)) \geq \frac{1}{2} c_2 \|g\| \min(\Delta_k, \frac{\|g_k\|}{\|B_k\|})$$

.

Note that when  $p_k = p_k^*$ , the step is the Cauchy point and therefore, the first inequality becomes equality with  $c_2 = 1$ . From that we get the second part of the theorem. □

Next, we prove two theorems to show these methods end up converging to stationary points - which ultimately is the real goal of optimisation.

**Theorem 4.** Let  $\eta = 0$  in our algorithm (the pseudocode is above). Suppose,  $\|B_k\| \leq \beta$  for some constant  $\beta$ . Suppose,  $f$  is bounded on the level set  $S := \{x : f(x) \leq f(x_0)\}$ .

Now, suppose  $f$  is Lipschit continuously differentiable in the neighbourhood  $S(R_0) := \{x : \|x - y\| \leq R_0\}$  (for some  $y \in S$ ) with Lipschitz constant  $\beta_1$ .

Finally, suppose all approximate solutions of  $\min_{p \in \mathbb{R}^n} m_k(p) = f_k + g_k^T p + \frac{1}{2} p_k^T B_k p_k$  satisfies:

(a)  $m_k(0) - m_k(p_k) \geq c_1 \|g_k\| \min(\Delta_k, \frac{\|g_k\|}{\|B_k\|})$  for some  $c_1 \in (0, 1]$ .

(b)  $\|p_k\| \leq \gamma \Delta_k$  for some  $\gamma \geq 1$ .

Then,

$$\liminf_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|g_k\| = 0$$

*Proof.* We first bound  $|\rho_k - 1|$ :

$$\begin{aligned} |\rho_k - 1| &= \left| \frac{(f(x_k) - f(x_k + p_k)) - (m_k(0) - m_k(p_k))}{m_k(0) - m_k(p_k)} \right| \\ &= \left| \frac{-f(x_k + p_k) + m_k(p_k)}{m_k(0) - m_k(p_k)} \right|. \end{aligned}$$

Now, we use mean value theorem (with some algebraic manipulation - adding a zero term) to write:

$$f(x_k + p_k) = f(x_k) + g(x_k)^T p_k + \int_0^1 [g(x_k + tp_k) - g(x_k)]^T p_k dt.$$

Then, we use the definition of  $m_k$  to write:

$$|m_k(p_k) - f(x_k + p_k)| = \left| \frac{1}{2} p_k^T B_k p_k - \int_0^1 [g(x_k + tp_k) - g(x_k)]^T p_k dt \right| \quad (3)$$

$$\leq \frac{\beta}{2} \|p_k\|^2 + \beta_2 \|p_k\|^2 \quad (4)$$

where we got the last inequality using the Lipschitz continuity condition:  $\|g(x_k + tp_k) - g(x_k)\| \leq \beta_1 \|x_k + tp_k - x_k\|$  and we assumed  $\|p_k\| \leq R_0$  to ensure both  $x_k$  and  $x_k + tp_k$  are inside  $S(R_0)$ .

Now, we suppose, for contradiction:

*Claim A:* There exists  $\epsilon > 0$  and  $Z > 0$  such that  $\|g_k\| \geq \epsilon$  for any  $k \geq Z$ . Then, for any  $k \geq Z$ , we have

$$m_k(0) - m_k(p_k) \geq c_1 \|g_k\| \min(\Delta, \frac{\|g_k\|}{\|B_k\|}) \geq c_1 \epsilon \min(\Delta, \frac{\epsilon}{\beta}). \quad (5)$$

Now, we use (4) and (5) to write:

$$|\rho_k - 1| \leq \frac{\gamma^2 \Delta_k^2 (\frac{\beta}{2} + \beta_1)}{c_1 \epsilon \min(\Delta_k, \frac{\epsilon}{\beta})}.$$

Now, we define  $\bar{\Delta} := \min(\frac{1}{2} \frac{c_1 \epsilon}{\gamma^2 (\frac{\beta}{2} + \beta_1)}, \frac{R_0}{\gamma})$ . We consider all  $\Delta_k \leq \bar{\Delta}$ . Note that we added  $R_0/\gamma$  inside the min function to ensure that  $\|p_k\| \leq \gamma \Delta_k$  since  $\gamma \Delta_k \leq \gamma \bar{\Delta} \leq R_0$ .

With this, since  $c_1 \leq 1$  and  $\gamma \geq 1$ , we have  $\bar{\Delta} \leq \frac{\epsilon}{\beta}$ . Thus, for any  $\Delta_k \in [0, \bar{\Delta}]$ , we have  $\min(\Delta_k, \frac{\epsilon}{\beta}) = \Delta_k$ .

$$\begin{aligned} |\rho_k - 1| &\leq \frac{\gamma^2 \Delta_k^2 (\frac{\beta}{2} + \beta_1)}{c_1 \epsilon \Delta_k} \\ &= \frac{\gamma^2 \Delta_k (\frac{\beta}{2} + \beta_1)}{c_1 \epsilon} \\ &\leq \frac{\gamma^2 \bar{\Delta} (\frac{\beta}{2} + \beta_1)}{c_1 \epsilon} \\ &\leq \frac{1}{2} \end{aligned}$$

where we got the last inequality using the definition of  $\bar{\Delta}$ .

Using this, we know  $\rho_k > \frac{1}{4}$  and so, in our algorithm,  $\Delta_{k+1} \geq \Delta_k$  whenever  $\Delta_k \leq \bar{\Delta}$ . So,  $\Delta_{k+1} = \frac{1}{4} \Delta_k$  only if  $\Delta \geq \bar{\Delta}$ . Together, we have

$$\Delta_k \geq \min(\Delta_k, \bar{\Delta}/4) \tag{6}$$

for any  $k \geq Z$ . Now, for the sake of contradiction: *Claim B*: suppose there exists an infinite subsequence  $\phi$  such that  $\rho_k \geq \frac{1}{4}$  for any  $k \in \phi$ .

Then, for any  $k \in \phi$  and  $k \geq Z$ , we have from (5):

$$f(x_k) - f(x_{k+1}) = f(x_k) - f(x_k + p_k) \geq \frac{1}{4} [m_k(0) - m_k(p_k)] \geq \frac{1}{4} c_1 \epsilon \min(\Delta_k, \frac{\epsilon}{\beta})$$

where we got the first inequality using  $\rho_k \geq \frac{1}{4}$ . Now, given  $f$  is bounded below, therefore,  $\lim_{k \in \phi, k \rightarrow \infty} \Delta_k = 0$ . This contradicts (6) meaning our assumption, *claim B*, was wrong. Therefore,  $\Delta_{k+1} = \frac{1}{4} \Delta_k$  at every iteration, so  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \Delta_k = 0$ , which contradicts (6) again, meaning our assumption, *claim A*, was wrong. Given  $\|g_k\|$  is bounded below by 0, this implies the theorem.  $\square$

Finally, we prove an even stronger theorem showing convergence to stationary points:

**Theorem 5.** *Let  $\eta \in (0, 1/4)$  in our algorithm (the pseudocode is above). Suppose,  $\|B_k\| \leq \beta$  for some constant  $\beta$ . Suppose,  $f$  is bounded on the level set  $S := \{x : f(x) \leq f(x_0)\}$ .*

*Now, suppose  $f$  is Lipschit continuously differentiable in the neighbourhood  $S(R_0) := \{x : \|x - y\| \leq R_0\}$  (for some  $y \in S$ ).*

*Finally, suppose all approximate solutions of  $\min_{p \in \mathbb{R}^n} m_k(p) = f_k + g_k^T p + \frac{1}{2} p_k^T B_k p_k$  satisfies:*

$$(a) \ m_k(0) - m_k(p_k) \geq c_1 \|g_k\| \min(\Delta_k, \frac{\|g_k\|}{\|B_k\|}) \text{ for some } c_1 \in (0, 1].$$

$$(b) \ \|p_k\| \leq \gamma \Delta_k \text{ for some } \gamma \geq 1.$$

Then,

$$\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} g_k = 0$$

*Proof.* Consider some  $m > 0$  such that  $g_m \neq 0$ . By Lipschitz continuity, we have  $\|g(x) - g_m\| \leq \beta_1 \|x - x_m\|$  for any  $x \in S(R_0)$ .

Now, define  $\epsilon := \frac{1}{2} \|g_m\|$ ,  $R := \min(\frac{\epsilon}{\beta_1}, R_0)$ . Now, the open ball centered at  $x_m - B_R(x_m) := \{x : \|x - x_m\| \leq R\}$  is contained in  $S(R_0)$ , meaning the Lipschitz contintuity of  $g$  holds inside this open ball.

Then,  $x \in B_R(x_m)$  implies

$$\begin{aligned} \|g_m\| &\geq \|g_m\| - \|g(x) - g_m\| \\ &\geq \|g_m\| - \beta_1 R \\ &\geq \|g_m\| - \epsilon \\ &= \|g_m\| - \frac{\|g_m\|}{2} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \|g_m\| \\ &= \epsilon. \end{aligned}$$

Now, if the entire sequence  $\{x_k\}_{k \geq m}$  is inside  $B_R(x_m)$ , then  $\|g_m\| \geq \epsilon > 0$  for any  $k \geq m$ . Now, in the same way we contradicted *claim A* in theorem 4, we can show that this never occurs. So,  $\{x_k\}_{k \geq m}$  will have to get outside the open ball  $B_R(x_m)$  for *some*  $k$ . Let  $l \geq m$  be the smallest index such that  $x_{l+1}$  is outside  $B_R(x_m)$ . Now, for  $k \in [m, l]$ , we have  $\|g_k\| \geq \epsilon$ . Thus,

$$m_k(0) - m_k(p_k) \geq c_1 \|g_k\| \min(\Delta_k, \frac{\|g_k\|}{\|B_k\|}) \geq c_1 \epsilon \min(\Delta_k, \frac{\epsilon}{\beta}).$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
f(x_m) - f(x_{l+1}) &= \sum_{k=m}^l f(x_k) - f(x_{k+1}) \\
&\geq \sum_{k=m}^l \eta(m_k(0) - m_k(p_k)) \quad \text{Using definition of } \rho_k \\
&\geq \sum_{k=m}^l \eta c_1 \epsilon \min(\Delta_k, \frac{\epsilon}{\beta})
\end{aligned}$$

Now, if  $\Delta_k \leq \frac{\epsilon}{\beta}$  for  $k \in [m, l]$ , we have

$$\begin{aligned}
f(x_m) - f(x_{l+1}) &\geq \eta c_1 \epsilon \sum_{k=m}^l \Delta_k \\
&\geq \eta c_1 \epsilon R \quad \text{Since we are summing over } \Delta_k \text{ and } x_{l+1} \text{ is outside } B_R(x_m) \\
&= \eta c_1 \epsilon \min(\frac{\epsilon}{\beta_1}, R_0)
\end{aligned}$$

So,

$$f(x_m) - f(x_{l+1}) \geq \eta c_1 \epsilon \min(\frac{\epsilon}{\beta_1}, R_0). \quad (7)$$

On the other hand, if  $\Delta_k > \frac{\epsilon}{\beta}$  for some  $k \in [m, l]$ , we have

$$f(x_m) - f(x_{l+1}) \geq \eta c_1 \epsilon \frac{\epsilon}{\beta}. \quad (8)$$

Since the sequence  $\{f(x_k)\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$  is decreasing and bounded below, therefore  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_k) = f^*$  for some  $f^* > -\infty$ .

now, we use (7) and (8) to write:

$$\begin{aligned}
f(x_m) - f^* &\geq f(x_m) - f(x_{l+1}) \\
&\geq \eta c_1 \epsilon \min(\frac{\epsilon}{\beta}, \frac{\epsilon}{\beta_1}, R_0) \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \eta c_1 \|g_m\| \min\left(\frac{\|g_m\|}{2\beta}, \frac{\|g_m\|}{2\beta_1}, R_0\right) \\
&> 0.
\end{aligned}$$

Now, since  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} f(x_k) - f^* = 0$ , we must have  $\lim_{k \rightarrow \infty} \|g_k\| = 0$  □

## 5 References

[1] Jorge Nocedal, Stephen J. Wright. *Numerical Optimization*. Spring Series in Operations Research