# Local Nonglobal Minima for Solving Large Scale Extended Trust Region Subproblems 

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#### Abstract

We study large scale extended trust region subproblems (eTRS) i.e., the minimization of a general quadratic function subject to a norm constraint, known as the trust region subproblem (TRS) but with an additional linear inequality constraint. It is well known that strong duality holds for the TRS and that there are efficient algorithms for solving large scale TRS problems. It is also known that there can exist at most one local non-global minimizer (LNGM) for TRS. We combine this with known characterizations for strong duality for eTRS and, in particular, connect this with the so-called hard case for TRS.

We begin with a recent characterization of the minimum for the TRS via a generalized eigenvalue problem and extend this result to the LNGM. We then use this to derive an efficient algorithm that finds the global minimum for eTRS by solving at most three generalized eigenvalue problems.


Keywords: Trust region subproblem, linear inequality constraint, large scale optimization, generalized eigenvalue problem
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## 1 Introduction

We study large scale instances of the extended trust region subproblem, eTRS

$$
\begin{align*}
p^{*}:=\min & q(x):=x^{T} A x+2 a^{T} x \\
\text { s.t. } & g(x):=\|x\|^{2}-\delta \leq 0  \tag{eTRS}\\
& \ell(x):=b^{T} x-\beta \leq 0
\end{align*}
$$

where $A \in \mathbb{S}^{n}$ is a real $n \times n$ symmetric matrix, $a, b \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \backslash\{0\}$ and $\beta \in \mathbb{R}, \delta \in \mathbb{R}_{++}$. Here a linear inequality constraint is added onto the standard trust region subproblem, $T R S$. The TRS is an important subproblem in trust region methods for both constrained and unconstrained problems, e.g. [5]. The eTRS problem extends the TRS and is a step toward solving TRS with a general number of inequality constraints. Such problems would be useful for example in the subproblem of finding search directions for sequential quadratic programming (SQP) methods for general nonlinear programming, e.g., [3].

It is known that, surprisingly, strong duality holds for TRS and the global minimizer can be found efficiently and accurately, even though the objective function is not necessarily convex. The early algorithms for moderate sized problems are based on exploiting the positive semidefinite second order optimality conditions using a Cholesky factorization of the Lagrangian, see e.g., 8, 16]. These methods were extended to the large scale case using a parametrized eigenvalue problem, e.g. 9, 10, 13, 17. A related problem is finding the local non-global minimizer (LNGM) of TRS if it exists, see [15]. See [5] for more extensive details, applications, and background for TRS.

However, strong duality can fail for the eTRS. This is characterized in [2] for the more general two quadratic constraint problem. We show that this is exactly connected to the so-called hard case for TRS. We use this fact to find an efficient approach for finding the global minimizer for eTRS. Recently, a generalized eigenvalue characterization for the TRS optimum is derived in Adachi et al [1] based on solving a single generalized eigenvalue problem. This algorithm is shown to be extremely efficient for solving the TRS. In this paper we extend this result for the LNGM optimum using the second largest real generalized eigenvalue of a matrix pencil. This provides an efficient procedure for finding the LNGM. From combining the solutions for TRS and LNGM we derive an efficient algorithm for eTRS.

We include a discussion relating strong duality and stability for eTRS. Extensive numerical tests show that our new algorithm is accurate and can solve large scale problems efficiently.

Related previous work on strong duality and an eigenvalue approach on eTRS appeared in e.g., [11, 12, 18, 19].

### 1.1 Notation and Preliminaries

We let

$$
\lambda_{\min }(A)=\lambda_{1} \leq \lambda_{2} \leq \ldots \leq \lambda_{n}
$$

denote the eigenvalues of $A$ in nondecreasing order, and $A=Q \Lambda Q^{T}$ be the orthogonal spectral decomposition of $A$ with the diagonal matrix of eigenvalues $\Lambda=$ $\operatorname{Diag}\left(\lambda_{1}, \ldots, \lambda_{n}\right)$. We denote the orthogonal matrices, $\mathcal{O}^{n}$. We let $q_{i}$ denote the orthonormal columns of the eigenvector matrix $Q \in \mathcal{O}^{n}$.

For $X \in \mathbb{S}^{n}$ the space of $n \times n$ real symmetric matrices, we let $X \succeq 0, \succ 0$ denote positive semidefiniteness and definiteness, respectively. In addition, we define the vector of ones, $e$ of appropriate size and $\operatorname{Diag}(v)$ be the diagonal matrix formed from the vector $v$.

It is now well known that, surprisingly, the possibly nonconvex TRS problem has the following characterization of optimality with a positive semidefinite Lagrangian Hessian.

Theorem 1.1 (Characterization of Global Minimum of TRS, 8, 16]). Define the

$$
\begin{equation*}
\text { Lagrangian of } \boldsymbol{T R S}, L(x, \lambda):=q(x)+\lambda\left(\|x\|^{2}-\delta\right) \tag{1.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

The vector $x^{*} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is a global optimum of $\operatorname{TRS}$ if, and only if, there exists $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{2} \nabla L\left(x^{*}, \lambda^{*}\right) & =\left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right) x^{*}+a
\end{aligned}=0, \quad \lambda^{*} \geq 0
$$

Now if $x^{*}$ is a global minimizer of $\operatorname{TRS}$ and $\nabla^{2} L\left(x^{*}, \lambda^{*}\right)$ is singular, then

$$
\lambda^{*}=-\lambda_{1} \text { and } 0 \neq a \in \operatorname{Range}\left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right)=\left(\operatorname{Null}\left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right)\right)^{\perp}
$$

holds and leads to the following definition.
Definition 1.1 (Hard Case). The hard case holds for $\boldsymbol{T R S}$ if a is orthogonal to the eigenspace corresponding to $\lambda_{1}, \operatorname{Null}\left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right)$.

In addition, the Slater constraint qualification, $\boldsymbol{S C Q}$, or strict feasibility, can be assumed without loss of generality for feasible instances of eTRS.

Lemma 1.1. The $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R} \boldsymbol{S}$ is feasible, respectively strictly feasible, if, and only if

$$
\begin{equation*}
-\sqrt{\delta}\|b\| \leq \beta, \text { respectively }-\sqrt{\delta}\|b\|<\beta \tag{1.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, if equality holds on the left in (1.2), then $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$ has the unique feasible (and so optimal) point $x^{*}=-\frac{-\sqrt{\delta}}{\|b\|} b$.

Proof. Consider the problem $\min _{x}\left\{x^{T} b:\|x\|^{2} \leq \delta\right\}$. We can differentiate the Lagrangian to get

$$
0 \neq x=\frac{-1}{2 \lambda} b, \lambda>0 .
$$

Since $x^{T} b=\frac{-1}{2 \lambda} b^{T} b<0$, the minimum value is obtained with $0<\lambda$ small. We now have

$$
x^{T} x=\frac{1}{(2 \lambda)^{2}}\|b\|^{2} \leq \delta \Longrightarrow 2 \lambda=\frac{\|b\|}{\sqrt{\delta}}
$$

The result now follows by noting that the linear inequality constraint is

$$
x^{T} b=-\frac{1}{2 \lambda}\|b\|^{2} \leq \beta
$$

and then substituting for the value found for $2 \lambda$.
We note that if the global solution of TRS is feasible for eTRS then it is clearly optimal. And from the above, we know that it can be found efficiently using a generalized eigenvalue problem. Therefore from this and Lemma 1.1 we can make the following assumption for the theoretical part of the paper. (We do not make this assumption for the algorithmic part.)

Assumption 1.1. We assume in this paper that $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$ is strictly feasible and that the global solution of TRS is infeasible for eTRS.

### 1.2 Outline

We continue in Section 2 with the details on the LNGM. This includes known results from [15] and one of the main results of this paper in Theorem [2.4, the necessary conditions for a LNGM using the second largest real generalized eigenvalue of a matrix pencil. In Section 3.1 we discuss necessary and sufficient conditions for strong duality to hold for eTRS. A discussion on the stability of eTRS and resulting stability of our approach is given in Section 3.2,

The various optimality conditions for eTRS are applied in Section 4 Included in this section are outlines of the algorithms for an efficient numerical procedure to find the global optimum of eTRS. Our numerical results appear in Section 5. We provide concluding remarks in Section 6.

## 2 On a Local Non-global Minimizer (LNGM) of TRS

### 2.1 Background on LNGM

Let $x^{*}$ be a global optimal solution of eTRS. Then the linear constraint is either inactive $b^{T} x^{*}<\beta$ or active $b^{T} x^{*}=\beta$. In the former case, we have $x^{*}$ must be a local (not global by Assumption 1.1) minimizer of TRS, i.e., we can have $x^{*}$ being a local non-global minimizer, LNGM, of TRS. We now provide some background on the LNGM.

Lemma 2.1. If $A \succeq 0$, then no $L N G M$ exists.

Proof. This is immediate since $A \succeq 0$ implies that TRS is a convex problem, i.e., a problem where local minima are global minima. (It also follows from Theorem 2.1 below, since $0 \leq \lambda^{*}<-\lambda_{1}$.)

Therefore, in this section we assume that $\lambda_{1}<0$. We continue and present some known results related to LNGM. Then following the results in [1], we show that the LNGM can be computed via a generalized eigenvalue problem.

Theorem 2.1 (Necessary Conditions for LNGM, [15]). Let $x^{*}$ be a LNGM. Choose $V \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times(n-1)}$ such that $\left[\left.\frac{1}{\left\|x^{*}\right\|} x^{*} \right\rvert\, V\right] \in \mathcal{O}^{n}$. Then there exists a unique $\lambda^{*} \in$ $\left(\max \left\{0,-\lambda_{2}\right\},-\lambda_{1}\right)^{1}$ such that

$$
\begin{equation*}
V^{T}\left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right) V \succeq 0, \quad\left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right) x^{*}=-a, \quad\left\|x^{*}\right\|^{2}=\delta \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Corollary 2.1. If the so-called hard case holds for TRS, i.e., a is orthogonal to the eigenspace corresponding to $\lambda_{1}$, then no $\boldsymbol{L N G M}$ exists. 2

Proof. The proof is given in [15, Lemma 3.2]. We include a separate proof to emphasize that a stronger result holds as is given in Corollary 2.2 below.

After a rotation if needed, we can assume for simplicity that $A=\operatorname{Diag}(\lambda)$ is a diagonal matrix. To obtain a contradiction, we assume that $a^{T} q_{1}=0$. From this assumption we have that the first element $a_{1}=0$. From (2.1) this implies that the first element $x_{1}^{*}=0$ which yields that the first eigenvector given by the first unit vector $e_{1}$ satisfies $e_{1}=V u$, for some $u$. We have $u^{T} V^{T}(A+\mu I) V u=\lambda_{1}+\lambda^{*}<0$. This contradicts the second order semidefiniteness condition in (2.1).

Corollary 2.2. If the weak form of the hard case holds for TRS, i.e., a is orthogonal to some eigenvector corresponding to $\lambda_{1}$, then no $\boldsymbol{L N G M}$ exists.

Proof. The proof of Corollary 2.1 just needed one eigenvector orthogonal to $a$.
Now let

$$
\left.\phi(\lambda):=\|(A+\lambda I)^{-1} a\right) \|^{2} .
$$

For

$$
\lambda \in\left(\max \left\{0,-\lambda_{2}\right\},-\lambda_{1}\right),
$$

[^1]Theorem 2.1 shows that the equation $\phi(\lambda)=\delta$ is a necessary condition for a LNGM. Furthermore, using the eigenvalue decomposition of $A$ we have

$$
\begin{align*}
\phi(\lambda) & =\sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\left(q_{i}^{T} a\right)^{2}}{\left(\lambda_{i}+\lambda\right)^{2}}, \\
\phi^{\prime}(\lambda) & =-2 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\left(q_{i}^{T} a\right)^{2}}{\left(\lambda_{i}+\lambda\right)^{3}},  \tag{2.2}\\
\phi^{\prime \prime}(\lambda) & =6 \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\left(q_{i}^{T} a\right)^{2}}{\left(\lambda_{i}+\lambda\right)^{4}} .
\end{align*}
$$

The equations (2.2) imply that the function $\phi(\lambda)$ is strictly convex on $\lambda \in\left(\max \left\{0,-\lambda_{2}\right\},-\lambda_{1}\right)$ and so it has at most two roots in the interval $\left(\max \left\{0,-\lambda_{2}\right\},-\lambda_{1}\right)$. The following theorem states that only the largest root can correspond to a LNGM.

Theorem 2.2. ([15, Theorem 3.1])

1. If $x^{*}$ is a $\boldsymbol{L} \boldsymbol{N G} \boldsymbol{M}$, then (2.1) holds with a unique $\lambda^{*} \in\left(\max \left\{0,-\lambda_{2}\right\},-\lambda_{1}\right)$ and with $\phi^{\prime}\left(\lambda^{*}\right) \geq 0$.
2. There exists at most one $\mathbf{L N G M}$.

### 2.2 Characterization using a Generalized Eigenvalue Problem

We now consider the problem of efficiently computing the LNGM. Due to the results in Section 2.1 we can make the following two assumptions.

Assumption 2.1. 1. The smallest two eigenvalues of $A$ satisfy

$$
\lambda_{1}<\min \left\{0, \lambda_{2}\right\}
$$

2. The hard case does not hold, i.e., a is not orthogonal to the eigenspace corresponding to $\lambda_{1}$ which here is $\operatorname{span}\left(q_{1}\right)$ the span of the eigenvector of $\lambda_{1}, a^{T} q_{1} \neq 0$.

To the best of our knowledge, the only algorithm for computing the LNGM is the one by Martinez [15] which tries to find the largest root of the equation $\phi(\lambda)=\delta$ for $\lambda \in\left(\max \left\{0,-\lambda_{2}\right\},-\lambda_{1}\right)$ via an iterative algorithm. Each step of his approach requires solving an indefinite system of linear equations which can be expensive for large scale instances. In what follows, we follow on the ideas of [1] and present a new algorithm that shows that the LNGM can be computed efficiently by a generalized eigenvalue problem. Our result is then used to solve large instances of eTRS.

Recently, Adachi et al. [1] designed an efficient algorithm for TRS which solves just one generalized eigenvalue problem. They consider the following $2 n \times 2 n$ regular
symmetric matrix pencil which has $2 n$ finite eigenvalues $3^{3}$

$$
M(\lambda)=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
-I & A+\lambda I \\
A+\lambda I & -\frac{1}{\delta} a a^{T}
\end{array}\right]
$$

We can rephrase Theorem 1.1 as $x_{g}^{*}$ is a global optimal solution of TRS if, and only if, the following system is consistent.

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(A+\lambda_{g}^{*} I\right) x_{g}^{*}=-a  \tag{2.3a}\\
& A+\lambda_{g}^{*} I \succeq 0, \quad \lambda_{g}^{*} \geq 0 \text { and unique, }  \tag{2.3b}\\
& \left\|x_{g}^{*}\right\|^{2} \leq \delta,  \tag{2.3c}\\
& \lambda_{g}^{*}\left(\left\|x_{g}^{*}\right\|^{2}-\delta\right)=0 \tag{2.3d}
\end{align*}
$$

Lemma 2.2 (Generalized Eigenvalue of Pencil, [1]). For every Lagrange multiplier $\lambda_{g}^{*} \neq 0$, satisfying the stationarity condition (2.3a) with equality in the quadratic constraint (2.3C), we have $\operatorname{det} M\left(\lambda_{g}^{*}\right)=0$, i.e., $\lambda_{g}^{*}$ is a generalized eigenvalue of the pencil $M(\lambda)$.

Proof. The Lemma is proved in [1]. We include a shorter proof.
For simplicity we denote $D=A+\lambda I$ and let $\lambda=\lambda_{g}^{*}$ be a Lagrange multiplier satisfying (2.3a). We can rewrite (with $x=x_{g}^{*}$ )

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
I & 0  \tag{2.4}\\
0 & D
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
-I & I \\
I & -\frac{1}{\delta} x x^{T}
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
I & 0 \\
0 & D
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
I & 0 \\
0 & D
\end{array}\right]\left[\begin{array}{cc}
-I & D \\
I & -\frac{1}{\delta} x x^{T} D
\end{array}\right]=M(\lambda)
$$

The result follows by observing that the vector $0 \neq\binom{ x}{x} \in \operatorname{Null}\left(\left[\begin{array}{cc}-I & I \\ I & -\frac{1}{\delta} x x^{T}\end{array}\right]\right)$.
Corollary 2.3. The set of real generalized eigenvalues of $M(\lambda)$ is nonempty. Moreover, if $\operatorname{det} M(\lambda)=0, \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$, then either $-\lambda$ is an eigenvalue of $A$ or

$$
\operatorname{det}\left(\left[\begin{array}{cc}
-I & I \\
I & -\frac{1}{\delta} x x^{T}
\end{array}\right]\right)=0, \quad x=-(A+\lambda I)^{-1} a
$$

Proof. This follows immediately from Lemma 2.2 and from (2.4) in its proof.
The following theorem shows that the global optimal solution of TRS can be obtained via computing an eigenpair of the pencil $M(\lambda)$.
Theorem 2.3 (Eigenvalue Characterization of TRS, [1]). Let $\left(x_{g}^{*}, \lambda_{g}^{*}\right)$ be a global optimal solution of $\boldsymbol{T R S}$ with $\left\|x_{g}^{*}\right\|^{2}=\delta$. Then the multiplier $\lambda_{g}^{*}$ is equal to the largest real eigenvalue of $M(\lambda)$. Furthermore, if $\lambda_{g}^{*}>-\lambda_{1}$, then $x_{g}^{*}$ can be obtained by $x_{g}^{*}=-\frac{\delta}{a^{T} y_{2}} y_{1}$, where $\left[\begin{array}{l}y_{1} \\ y_{2}\end{array}\right] \in \mathbb{R}^{n} \times \mathbb{R}^{n}$ is an eigenvector for $M\left(\lambda_{g}^{*}\right)$ and also we have $a^{T} y_{2} \neq 0$.

[^2]Theorem 2.3 establishes that the largest real eigenvalue of $M(\lambda)$ is the Lagrange multiplier associated with the global optimal solution of TRS. In the following theorem, we prove that if TRS has a LNGM, then the corresponding Lagrange multiplier is the second largest real eigenvalue of $M(\lambda)$. This is the main result of this section.

Theorem 2.4 (Eigenvalue Characterization of LNGM). Let $x^{*}$ be a LNGM. Then the corresponding Lagrange multiplier $\lambda^{*}$ is equal to the second largest real eigenvalue of $M(\lambda)$. Moreover, $x^{*}$ can be computed as $x^{*}=-\frac{\delta}{a^{T} y_{2}} y_{1}$, where $\left[\begin{array}{l}y_{1} \\ y_{2}\end{array}\right]$ is an eigenvector for $M\left(\lambda^{*}\right)$ and we also have $a^{T} y_{2} \neq 0$.

Proof. From Theorem 2.1 we have $\lambda^{*} \in\left(\max \left\{0,-\lambda_{2}\right\},-\lambda_{1}\right)$. Moreover, $\left\|x^{*}\right\|^{2}=\delta$ and it follows from Lemma 2.2 that $\lambda^{*}$ is an eigenvalue of $M(\lambda)$, i.e. $\operatorname{det} M\left(\lambda^{*}\right)=0$. We know that the hard case does not hold, see Corollary 2.1. Therefore, by Theorem 2.3 and the optimality conditions in (2.3), we get that the largest real eigenvalue of $M(\lambda)$ is the unique multiplier associated with the global optimal solution of TRS and is the unique root of equation $\phi(\lambda)-\delta=0$ in $\left(-\lambda_{1}, \infty\right)$. Moreover, it follows from Theorem [2.2 that $\lambda^{*}$, the multiplier corresponding to the LNGM, is positive and is the largest root of the equation $\phi(\lambda)-\delta=0$ in $\left(-\lambda_{2},-\lambda_{1}\right)$. Next, note that Lemma 2.2 implies that $-\lambda_{1}$ is not an eigenvalue of $M(\lambda)$. From the interval considerations for the optimum of TRS and eTRS, this establishes that $\lambda^{*}$ is the second largest real eigenvalue of $M(\lambda)$.

Now let $\binom{y_{1}}{y_{2}}$ be an eigenvector for $\lambda^{*}$ for $M(\lambda)$. We have

$$
\begin{align*}
& \left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right) y_{2}=y_{1}  \tag{2.5}\\
& \left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right) y_{1}=\frac{1}{\delta} a a^{T} y_{2} \tag{2.6}
\end{align*}
$$

We first show that $a^{T} y_{2} \neq 0$. Suppose by contradiction that $a^{T} y_{2}=0$. Then, since $\left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right)$ is nonsingular, we obtain first that $y_{1}=0$ from the second equation which then implies $y_{2}=0$ from the first equation, i.e., we have $y_{1}=y_{2}=0$, a contraction of the fact that $\binom{y_{1}}{y_{2}}$ is an eigenvector. Hence, $a^{T} y_{2} \neq 0$. Thus, (2.6) implies that $x^{*}=\frac{-\delta}{a^{T} y_{2}} y_{1}$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right) x^{*}=-a . \tag{2.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

Moreover, we have

$$
\left\|x^{*}\right\|^{2}=\frac{\delta^{2}}{\left(a^{T} y_{2}\right)^{2}} y_{1}^{T} y_{1}=\frac{\delta^{2}}{\left(a^{T} y_{2}\right)^{2}} y_{2}^{T}\left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right)\left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right)^{-1} \frac{a a^{T}}{\delta} y_{2}=\delta
$$

## 3 Strong Duality and Stability for eTRS

### 3.1 Characterization of Strong Duality for eTRS

A necessary and sufficient condition for strong duality of the problem of minimizing a quadratic function over two quadratic inequality constraints, when one of them is strictly convex, is presented in [2]. Since eTRS is a special case, we have the following.

Theorem 3.1 (Characterization Strong Duality eTRS). Strong duality fails for $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$
if, and only if, there exist multipliers $\lambda, \mu$ such that the following hold:

1. $\lambda>0$ and $\mu>0$;
2. $A+\lambda I \succeq 0$, and $\operatorname{rank}(A+\lambda I)=n-1$;
3. The following system of linear equations is consistent.

$$
\begin{equation*}
2(A+\lambda I) x_{i}=-2 a-\mu b, x_{i}^{T} x_{i}=\delta, i=1,2, \quad\left(b^{T} x_{1}-\beta\right)\left(b^{T} x_{2}-\beta\right)<0 . \tag{3.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. This follows immediately from the characterization in [2, Thm 5.2] for two quadratic constraints, since the affine constraint is a special case of a quadratic constraint.

It is interesting to translate this theorem under our special assumptions and the language of the hard case. In fact, we see that loss of strong duality is directly connected to the hard case in TRS. Note that the hard case is identified by obtaining a feasible solution that satisfies all the optimality conditions except for complementary slackness.

Corollary 3.1. Consider the Lagrangian dual of $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$ in parametric form.

$$
d_{\text {eTRS }}^{*}:=\max _{\mu \geq 0} g(\mu),
$$

where the dual function, $g(\mu)$, with $\lambda$ implicit in $g$, is a parametric $\boldsymbol{T R S}, \boldsymbol{T R S}_{\mu}$,

$$
g(\mu):=\max _{\lambda \geq 0} \min _{x}\left[L(x, \lambda)+\mu b^{T} x\right]-\mu \beta
$$

Then strong duality fails for $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$ if, and only if, there exists $\mu>0$ such that the parametrized $\boldsymbol{T R S}_{\mu}$ has a hard case solution $x_{\mu}^{*}$ that satisfies all the optimality conditions except for complementary slackness, i.e.,

$$
\left\|x_{\mu}^{*}\right\|^{2}<\delta, \quad b^{T} x_{\mu}^{*}=\beta .
$$

Proof. Since eTRS is a convex problem if $\lambda_{1} \geq 0$, without loss of generality we assume that $\lambda_{1}<0$. We conclude that the optimal Lagrange multiplier for $\mathbf{T R S}_{\mu}$ satisfies $\lambda>0$ and moreover there exists an optimal solution on the boundary of the trust region.

The three conditions in Theorem 3.1 are equivalent to the optimality conditions for the parametrized problem at $\mu$. And the two points $x_{i}, i=1,2$ are on opposite
sides of the affine manifold for the linear constraint. We note that necessarily $0 \neq v:=$ $x_{1}-x_{2} \in \operatorname{Null}(A+\lambda I)$. Therefore $v$ is the required eigenvector and this is equivalent to finding the convex combination $x^{*}=\alpha x_{1}+(1-\alpha) x_{2}, \alpha \in(0,1)$ with $b^{T} x^{*}=\beta$ and necessarily $\left\|x^{*}\right\|<\delta$.

Therefore, the parametrized TRS has multiple optimal solutions and the hard case holds for the corresponding $\mathbf{T R S}_{\mu}$, i.e., $2 a+\mu b \in \operatorname{Range}\left(A-\lambda_{1} I\right), \lambda^{*}=-\lambda_{1}$.

More details on $\left\|x_{\mu}^{*}\right\|^{2}<\delta$ and the relation with the minimum norm solution $\hat{x}:=\frac{1}{2}\left(A-\lambda_{1} I\right)^{\dagger}(-2 a-\mu b)$ are discussed in Section 4.2.1, where we define the MoorePenrose generalized inverse, $C^{\dagger}$. In fact, necessarily $\left\|x_{\mu}^{*}\right\|^{2}=\frac{1}{2}\left(A-\lambda_{1} I\right)^{\dagger}(-2 a-\mu b)+v$ for $v \in \operatorname{Null}\left(A-\lambda_{1} I\right)$.

Remark 3.1. Corollary 3.1 illustrates the geometry of strong duality in terms of the parametrized $\boldsymbol{T R} \boldsymbol{S}_{\mu}$. If we start with $\mu=0$ and increase $\mu \uparrow$, then the corresponding optimal solution of $\boldsymbol{T R} \boldsymbol{S}_{\mu}$ moves on the boundary of the trust region. If we encounter the boundary of the linear constraint first then strong duality holds. On the other hand if we encounter the hard case at $\mu>0$ and if we can move using the nullspace $\bar{x}=x_{\mu}+v$ so that $\|\bar{x}\|^{2}<\delta, b^{T} \bar{x}=\beta$, then strong duality fails.

This means that given a $\boldsymbol{T R S}$ we can characterize all the $b, \beta$ where strong duality would fail using the characterization of the hard case.

We know that strong duality fails if the LNGM is the optimum for eTRS. We now see that it requires a special eigenvalue configuration for strong duality to fail if the linear constraint is active.

Theorem 3.2. Suppose that $x^{*}$ solves $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$ with $b^{T} x^{*}=\beta$. Suppose that $\lambda_{2}<0$. Then strong duality holds for $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T} \boldsymbol{R} \boldsymbol{S}$.

Proof. As above, we can construct a full column rank matrix $W$ to represent $\operatorname{Null}\left(b^{T}\right)$. From interlacing of eigenvalues we get that $\lambda_{\min }\left(W^{T} A W\right)<0$. Therefore, there exists an optimal solution on the boundary of the trust region for the projected problem, i.e., complementary slackness holds. This means that the optimum for eTRS is also on the boundary of the trust region constraint. We can therefore add a multiple of the identity to the Hessian of the original problem and obtain a convex equivalent problem. This shows that strong duality holds. The dual problem is equivalent to perturbing the Hessian to $Q-\lambda_{1} I$ as long as we subtract the constant $\lambda_{1} \beta$.

### 3.2 Stability for eTRS

We now see that the eTRS is stable with respect to perturbations in the data.
Lemma 3.1. Recall that we have made Assumptions 1.1 and 2.1. Let $x^{*}$ be the optimal solution for $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$. Then the linear independence constraint qualification, $\boldsymbol{L I C Q}$, holds at $x^{*}$. Moreover, $x^{*}$ is the unique optimal solution if the second constraint is inactive. Thus unique Lagrange multipliers $\lambda_{1}^{*}, \lambda_{2}^{*}$ exist for the two constraints, respectively 4

[^3]Proof. Suppose that the second constraint is inactive $b^{T} x^{*}<\beta$. First we note that the first constraint is active by the $\lambda_{1}(A)<0$ assumption and the gradients of the active constraint is $2 x^{*} \neq 0$. Therefore the LICQ holds. This immediately implies that $\lambda_{1}^{*}>0$ exists. Moreover, both $x^{*}$ and the optimal Lagrange multiplier $\lambda^{*}$ are unique by the $\lambda_{1}(A)<\lambda_{2}(A)$ assumption.

If the second constraint is active $b^{T} x^{*}=\beta$, then $x^{*}$ is the optimal solution of the projected problem. If the first constraint is inactive, we are done as $\{b\}$ is a linearly independent set. And it is clear from the geometry that if both constraints are active then the gradients $\left\{b, 2 x^{*}\right\}$ are linearly dependent only if strict feasibility fails, a contradiction. Therefore, LICQ holds and the multipliers are unique.

Corollary 3.2. The $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$ is a stable problem with respect to perturbations in the data.

Proof. This follows from standard results in sensitivity analysis since the Lagrange multipliers are unique, satisfy LICQ and the feasible set is compact, e.g., [6].

Remark 3.2. We note that these results on stability along with standard sensitivity results on eigenvalue algorithms imply that our approach is a robust method for solving eTRS.

In addition, strict complementarity can fail for eTRS. If the LNGM is the optimal solution for $\boldsymbol{e T R S}$, then one can perturb the linear constraint till it becomes active. It is therefore a redundant constraint illustrating that the corresponding Lagrange multiplier can be zero. This would then be a degenerate problem and perturbing the linear constraint further can make the projected trust region optimal point the optimum for $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$, i.e., the result is a jump in the optimal solution.

## 4 Algorithm and Subproblems for eTRS

We now describe our proposed method to solve eTRS in Algorithm 4.1. This finds the global optimal solution for the general problem of eTRS. We include the details about the global minimizer for TRS and the details for the subproblems that need to be solved. We do not assume that the global minimizer of TRS is infeasible in the details of our algorithm, i.e., our algorithm solves the general case.

Lemma 4.1. Strong duality fails for the LNGM.
Proof. The Lagrangian of TRS is given in (1.1). The Lagrangian dual of TRS is $\max _{\lambda \geq 0} \min _{x} L(x, \lambda)$. Since the inner problem is a minimization of a quadratic, for it to be finite we get the necessary (hidden) condition that the Hessian of the quadratic $A+\lambda I \succeq 0$. This contradicts the Lagrange multiplier condition for LNGM given in Theorem 2.2.

Theorem 4.1. Suppose that strong duality holds for $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$ and that the optimal solution of eTRS is $x^{*}$. Then $b^{T} x^{*}=\beta$ and $x^{*}$ is a global optimal solution of TRS after projection onto the linear manifold of the linear constraint.

Proof. If $b^{T} x^{*}<\beta$, then either $x^{*}$ is the global minimizer or a LNGM. Since strong duality fails for the LNGM, we conclude that it must be the global minimizer of the TRS. But our Assumption 1.1 means that the global minimizer is infeasible for eTRS.

If the linear inequality is active, then we have a TRS problem after a projection onto the linear manifold and we obtain the global minimizer on this affine manifold.

### 4.1 Main Algorithm

Theorem 4.1 suggests the following Algorithm 4.1 for eTRS. Without loss of generality, by Lemma 1.1, we can assume that strict feasibility holds.

In addition, we see that the cost of the algorithm in the worst case is to find $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}$ and eigenvector $v_{1}$ for $\lambda_{1}$; check for strong duality; find the TRS and projected TRS optima or the LNGM and the projected TRS optima.

Recall that, if the LNGM exists then we can use Theorem 2.4 and find it efficiently via the second largest real eigenvalue of the matrix pencil. The other subproblems are now discussed.

### 4.2 Subproblems

### 4.2.1 Verifying Strong Duality

To specify the value of $\mu$ in Theorem 3.1, first notice that, for given $\mu$, system (3.1) is consistent if, and only if, $v^{T}(2 a+\mu b)=0$ where $v$ is a normalized eigenvector for $\lambda_{1}$. Next, let us consider the following cases:

1. $v^{T} b=0$ : In this case, we show that strong duality holds for eTRS. We show this by contradiction. Suppose that strong duality does not hold for eTRS. Then system (3.1) has two solutions $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ satisfying $x_{i}^{T} x_{i}=\delta, i=1,2$, and $\left(b^{T} x_{1}-\beta\right)\left(b^{T} x_{2}-\beta\right)<0$ for some $\mu>0$. Moreover, we know that the solutions $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ necessarily have the form $x_{1}=\frac{1}{2}\left(A-\lambda_{1} I\right)^{\dagger}(-2 a-\mu b)+z_{1}$ and $x_{2}=\frac{1}{2}\left(A-\lambda_{1} I\right)^{\dagger}(-2 a-\mu b)+z_{2}$ where $z_{i}$, for $i=1,2$, is an eigenvector corresponding to $\lambda_{1}$. By the fact that $b$ is orthogonal to the eigenspace of $\lambda_{1}\left(\lambda_{1}\right.$ has multiplicity one), we have $b^{T} x_{1}-\beta=b^{T} x_{2}-\beta$, a contradiction to the fact that $\left(b^{T} x_{1}-\beta\right)\left(b^{T} x_{2}-\beta\right)<0$, i.e., we have strong duality for eTRS.
2. $v^{T} b \neq 0$ : In this case, consistency of system (3.1), i.e., $v^{T}(2 a+\mu b)=0$ implies that necessarily $\mu=\frac{-2 v^{T} a}{v^{T} b}$. If $\mu=0$, it follows from Theorem 3.1 that eTRS enjoys strong duality. If $\mu>0$, then strong duality does not hold for eTRS if, and only if, system (3.1) for $\mu=\frac{-2 v^{T} a}{v^{T} b}$ has two solutions $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$ satisfying $x_{i}^{T} x_{i}=\delta, i=1,2$, and $\left(b^{T} x_{1}-\beta\right)\left(b^{T} x_{2}-\beta\right)<0$.

To verify whether strong duality holds we suppose that $x_{i}, i=1,2$ are as defined in Theorem 3.1 clearly, $x_{i}=x_{p}+\alpha_{i} v$ where $v$ is a normalized eigenvector associated with $\lambda_{1}, x_{p}=\frac{1}{2}\left(A-\lambda_{1} I\right)^{\dagger}(-2 a-\mu b)$ and $\alpha_{i}, i=1,2$, are roots of the following quadratic equation.

$$
\alpha^{2}+2 \alpha v^{T} x_{p}+x_{p}^{T} x_{p}-\delta=0
$$

## Algorithm 4.1.

INPUT: $A \in \mathbb{S}^{n}, a, b \in \mathbb{R}^{n}, \delta \in \mathbb{R}_{++}, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$ with $-\sqrt{\delta}\|b\|<\beta$.
INITIALIZATION: Solve the symmetric eigenvalue problem for $\lambda_{1}, \lambda_{2}$ and eigenvector $v_{1}$ for $\lambda_{1}$.

IF: $\lambda_{1} \geq 0$ or $\lambda_{1}=\lambda_{2}$, THEN Strong duality holds; solve $\boldsymbol{T R S}$ for $x$.
IF: $x$ is feasible, THEN it is opt. STOP.
ELSE: Solve the projected TRS problem for $x$; it is opt. STOP.

## END:

ELSE: Check the strong duality condition for $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$.
IF: strong duality holds, THEN solve $\boldsymbol{T R S}$ for $x$.
IF: $x$ is feasible, THEN it is opt. STOP.
ELSE: Solve the projected TRS problem for x; it is opt. STOP.
END:
ELSE: Solve for the projected $\boldsymbol{T R S}$ and the $\boldsymbol{L N G M}$ if it exists; discard $\boldsymbol{L N G M}$ if it is not feasible; choose the $x$ as the best of the remaining solutions; it is opt. STOP.

END:
END:
OUTPUT: $x$ is optimizer of $\boldsymbol{e} \boldsymbol{T R S}$.
Table 4.1: Algorithm: Solve the General (strictly feasible) eTRS

The main task in finding $x_{i}, i=1,2$, is computing $x_{p}$. In the sequel, we show that $x_{p}$ is indeed the solution of a symmetric positive definite linear system. To see this, let us consider the eigenvalue decomposition of $A$ defined as before in which $Q$ contains $v$ as its first column. Noting that $v^{T}(2 a+\mu b)=0$, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left(A+\gamma v v^{T}-\lambda_{1} I\right)^{-1}(-2 a-\mu b) & =Q\left(\Lambda+\gamma e_{1} e_{1}^{T}-\lambda_{1} I\right)^{-1} Q^{T}(-2 a-\mu b) \\
& =Q\left(\Lambda-\lambda_{1} I\right)^{\dagger} Q^{T}(-2 a-\mu b) \\
& =\left(A-\lambda_{1} I\right)^{\dagger}(-2 a-\mu b),
\end{aligned}
$$

where $\gamma$ is a positive constant and $e_{1}$ is the first unit vector. This implies that $x_{p}$ can be computed efficiently by applying the conjugate gradient algorithm to the following
positive definite system.

$$
2\left(A+\gamma v v^{T}-\lambda_{1} I\right) x_{p}=(-2 a-\mu b) .
$$

However, we note that the perturbation with $\gamma v v^{T}$ is not required since the right-hand side $(-2 a-\mu b) \in \operatorname{Range}\left(A-\lambda_{1} I\right)$. The MATLAB $p c g$ works fine even though the matrix is singular.

### 4.2.2 Solving the TRS Subproblem

The main work of the algorithms lie in solving generalized eigenvalue problems. For the TRS, we use the method of [1] that solves the scaled TRS

$$
\begin{align*}
\min & \frac{1}{2} x^{T} A x+a^{T} x \\
& x^{T} B x \leq \delta, \tag{4.1}
\end{align*}
$$

where $B$ is a positive definite matrix. The algorithm computes one generalized eigenpair and is able to handle the hard case efficiently. Specifically, it is shown that the optimal Lagrange multiplier corresponding to the solution of (4.1) is the largest real eigenvalue of the $2 n \times 2 n$ matrix pencil $M_{0}+\lambda M_{1}$, where

$$
\tilde{M}(\lambda)=M_{0}+\lambda M_{1}, \quad M_{0}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
-B & A \\
A & -\frac{a a^{T}}{\delta}
\end{array}\right], M_{1}=\left[\begin{array}{cc}
O_{n \times n} & B \\
B & O_{n \times n}
\end{array}\right] .
$$

As above we have an equivalent result to Lemma[2.2]that every nonzero KKT multiplier is a generalized eigenvalue of the pencil, $\operatorname{det}(\tilde{M}(\lambda))=0$.

Lemma 4.2 (Generalized Eigenvalue of Pencil, [1, Lemma 3.1]). For every nonzero KKT multiplier $\lambda_{g}^{*} \neq 0$ for (4.1) with equality in the quadratic constraint we have $\operatorname{det} \tilde{M}\left(\lambda_{g}^{*}\right)=0$, i.e., $\lambda_{g}^{*}$ is a generalized eigenvalue of the pencil $\tilde{M}(\lambda)$.

### 4.2.3 Solving the Projected TRS Subproblem

We can eliminate the equality constraint $b^{T} x=\beta$ to solve the projected TRS. For ease of exposition, we assume that

$$
\left|b_{1}\right| \geq\left|b_{2}\right| \geq \ldots \geq\left|b_{r}\right|>0=b_{r+1}=\ldots=b_{n} .
$$

In order to find a basis of $\operatorname{Null}\left(b^{T}\right)$, we define $\bar{b}:=\left(\begin{array}{lll}b_{2}^{-1} & \ldots & b_{r}^{-1}\end{array}\right)^{T}$ and the matrix

$$
W:=\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
-b_{1}^{-1} e_{r-1}^{T} & 0_{n-r} \\
\hline \operatorname{Diag}(\bar{b}) & 0 \\
0 & I_{n-r}
\end{array}\right] \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times(n-1)} .
$$

Algorithm 4.2. 1. Solve $A x_{0}=-a$ by the conjugate gradient algorithm and keep $x_{0}$ if it is feasible, i.e., if $x_{0}^{T} B x_{0} \leq \delta$.
2. Compute $\lambda_{g}^{*}$, the largest generalized eigenvalue of the symmetric regular pencil $M_{0}+$ $\lambda M_{1}$, and a corresponding eigenvector $\binom{y_{1}}{y_{2}}$, i.e.,

$$
\left[\begin{array}{cc}
-B & A  \tag{4.2}\\
A & -\frac{a a^{T}}{\delta}
\end{array}\right]\binom{y_{1}}{y_{2}}=-\lambda_{g}^{*}\left[\begin{array}{cc}
O_{n \times n} & B \\
B & O_{n \times n}
\end{array}\right]\binom{y_{1}}{y_{2}} .
$$

3. If $\left\|y_{1}\right\| \leq \tau$ (default is $\tau=10^{-4}$ ), then the hard case is detected; run Steps 4 to 6 . Else go to Step 7.
4. Compute $H:=\left(A+\lambda_{g}^{*} B+\alpha \sum_{i=1}^{d} B v_{i} v_{i}^{T} B\right)$ where $V=\left[v_{1}, \ldots, v_{d}\right]$ is a basis of $\operatorname{Null}\left(A+\lambda_{g}^{*} B\right)$ that is $B$-orthogonal, i.e., $V^{T} B V=I, d=\operatorname{dim}\left(\operatorname{Null}\left(A+\lambda_{g}^{*} B\right)\right)$ and $\alpha$ is an arbitrary positive scalar.
5. Solve $H q=-a$ by the conjugate gradient algorithm.
6. Take an eigenvector $v$ computed above, and find $\eta$ such that $(q+\eta v)^{T} B(q+\eta v)=\delta$ and return $x^{*}=q+\eta v$ as global optimal solution of (4.1).
7. Set $x_{1}=-\operatorname{sign}\left(a^{T} y_{2}\right) \sqrt{\delta} \frac{y_{1}}{\sqrt{y_{1}^{T B y_{1}}}}$.
8. The global optimal solution of (4.1) is either $x_{1}$ or $x_{0}$, whichever gives the smaller objective value.

Table 4.2: Algorithm: Solve scaled TRS [4.1, [1] Theorem 3.1]

Define a particular solution, $\hat{x}$ satisfying $b^{T} \hat{x}=\beta,\|\hat{x}\|^{2}<\delta$ We choose

$$
\hat{x}=\left\{\begin{array}{cc}
0, & \text { if } \beta=0  \tag{4.3}\\
\frac{\beta}{\|b\|^{2}} b, & \text { if } \beta \neq 0
\end{array}\right. \text { 故 }
$$

Then it is clear that

$$
b^{T} x=\beta \Longleftrightarrow x=\hat{x}+W y, \text { for some } y \in \mathbb{R}^{n-1}
$$

We can now substitute for $x$ into eTRS and eliminate the linear equality constraint. The objective function becomes

$$
(\hat{x}+W y)^{T} A(\hat{x}+W y)+2 a^{T}(\hat{x}+W y)=\left[y^{T}\left(W^{T} A W\right) y+2\left(W^{T}(a+A \hat{x})\right)^{T} y\right]+\left[(A \hat{x}+2 a)^{T} \hat{x}\right] .
$$

[^4]The constraint becomes

$$
y^{T}\left(W^{T} W\right) y+2\left(W^{T} \hat{x}\right)^{T} y \leq \delta-\hat{x}^{T} \hat{x}
$$

We get the following equivalent problem in the case that the linear constraint is active.

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\min & y^{T}\left(W^{T} A W\right) y+2\left(W^{T}(a+A \hat{x})\right)^{T} y \\
\text { s.t. } & y^{T}\left(W^{T} W\right) y+2\left(W^{T} \hat{x}\right)^{T} y \leq \delta-\hat{x}^{T} \hat{x}
\end{array} \quad\left(\mathbf{T R S}_{\text {proj }}\right)
$$

We let

$$
B:=W^{T} W, \hat{A}:=W^{T} A W, \hat{a}:=W^{T}(a+A \hat{x}), \hat{b}:=2\left(W^{T} \hat{x}\right) ., \hat{\delta}=\delta-\hat{x}^{T} \hat{x}
$$

Therefore, we need to solve the nonhomogeneous $\boldsymbol{T R S}, \boldsymbol{n T R S}$

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\text { min } & x^{T} \hat{A} x+2 \hat{a}^{T} x \\
\text { s.t. } & x^{T} B x+\hat{b}^{T} x \leq \hat{\delta} . \tag{nTRS}
\end{array}
$$

By the change of variables

$$
x \leftarrow y+g, \quad \text { with } \quad 2 B g=-\hat{b},
$$

we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{T} \hat{A} x+2 \hat{a}^{T} x & =(y+g)^{T} \hat{A}(y+g)+2 \hat{a}^{T}(y+g) \\
& =y^{T} \hat{A} y+2(\hat{A} g+\hat{a})^{T} y+\text { constant. }
\end{aligned}
$$

and

$$
\begin{aligned}
x^{T} B x+\hat{b}^{T} x & =(y+g)^{T} B(y+g)+\hat{b}^{T}(y+g) \\
& =y^{T} B y+(2 B g+\hat{b})^{T} y+g^{T} B g+b^{T} g \\
& =y^{T} B y+g^{T} B g+b^{T} g
\end{aligned}
$$

We write nTRS as the scaled homogeneous $\boldsymbol{T R S}$, $s \boldsymbol{T R S}$,

$$
\begin{array}{cl}
\min & y^{T} \hat{A} y+2(\hat{A} g+\hat{a})^{T} y \\
\text { s.t. } & y^{T} B y \leq \hat{\delta}-g^{T} B g-\hat{b}^{T} g . \tag{sTRS}
\end{array}
$$

This means we can directly apply the approach in [1] where the scaled TRS is solved using the generalized eigenvalue approach.

Remark 4.1. When we solve for the optimimum in sTRS using (4.2) we do not form $B$ explicitly but exploit the rank one update structure of $W$ and its inverse. This means we can exploit the original sparsity in $A$ in the objective function and in the, now scaled, I in the original trust region constraint when performing the matrix-vector multiplications needed for eigs in MATLAB. Let

$$
\bar{B}:=\operatorname{Diag}(\bar{b}), \quad \bar{e}:=\left(\frac{e_{r-1}^{T}}{0_{n-r}}\right) .
$$

[^5]Note that

$$
\begin{aligned}
B & =\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
\bar{B}^{2} & 0 \\
\hline 0 & I_{n-r}
\end{array}\right]+b_{1}^{-2} \bar{e} \bar{e}^{T} \\
& =\left\{\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
\bar{B} & 0 \\
\hline 0 & I_{n-r}
\end{array}\right]+w w^{T}\right\}\left\{\left[\begin{array}{c|c}
\bar{B} & 0 \\
\hline 0 & I_{n-r}
\end{array}\right]+w w^{T}\right\} \\
& =B^{1 / 2} B^{1 / 2} .
\end{aligned}
$$

We can then find the appropriate rank one update of $\left[\begin{array}{c|c}\bar{B} & 0 \\ \hline 0 & I_{n-r}\end{array}\right]$ to find the inverse $B^{-1 / 2}$. Therefore we can take a diagonal congruence of both sides of (4.2) and obtain a simple right-hand side of the generalized eigenvalue problem.

## 5 Numerical Results

We now present our numerical results to illustrate the efficiency of the new algorithm. We compare with the second order cone and semidefinite programming, SOCP/SDP, reformulation in [4] on some small instances as this reformulation is not able to handle large instances. Hence, for large instances we just report the solution obtained by our new algorithm.

All computations were done in MATLAB 8.6.0.267246 (R2015b) on a Dell Optiplex 9020 with 16GB RAM with Windows 7. To solve the SOCP/SDP reformulation, we used SeDuMi 1.3, [20].

### 5.1 Four Classes of Test Problems

We divide our tests into four classes I,II,III,IV, of test problems.

### 5.1.1 Class I

In this section, we apply our algorithm and the SOCP/SDP reformulation to some eTRS instances for which the LNGM of the corresponding TRS is a good candidate for the global optimal solution of eTRS. To generate the desirable random instances of eTRS, we proceed as follows. First we construct a TRS problem having a local non-global minimizer based on Theorem [2.4. Then we add the inequality constraint $b^{T} x \leq \beta$ to enforce that the global minimizer of TRS is infeasible but that the LNGM remains feasible.

Comparison with the SOCP/SDP reformulation is given on some small instances in Table 5.1]. We follow [1] and report the relative objective function difference

$$
\frac{\left|q\left(x^{*}\right)-q\left(x_{\text {best }}\right)\right|}{\left|q\left(x_{\text {best }}\right)\right|} \quad \text { accuracy measure },
$$

where $x^{*}$ is the computed solution by each method and $x_{\text {best }}$ is the solution with
the smallest objective value among the two algorithms. For each dimension, we have generated 10 eTRS instances. We report the dimension $n$, and the average values of the relative accuracy, the run time in cpu-seconds and we include the time taken for checking the strong duality property of eTRS in Algorithm 4.1. Moreover, for each dimension, \# LNGM denotes the number of test problems among the 10 instances for which our algorithm has detected the LNGM of the corresponding TRS as a global optimal solution of eTRS. It should be noted that the algorithm which gets $x_{\text {best }}$ varies from problem to problem and since we are reporting the average of 10 runs, we can have a positive accuracy in both columns of the table.

|  | Accuracy | Accuracy | CPUsec | CPUsec | CPUsec | \# LNGM |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Main Algor. | SOCP/SDP | Main Algor | Str. Dual. | SOCP/SDP | Main Algor. |
| 100 | 0.0 | $1.1309 \mathrm{e}-10$ | 0.043 | 0.019 | $1.372 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 10 |
| 200 | 0.0 | $2.9945 \mathrm{e}-10$ | 0.037 | 0.012 | $8.440 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 10 |
| 300 | 0.0 | $2.7884 \mathrm{e}-10$ | 0.040 | 0.012 | $3.193 \mathrm{e}+01$ | 10 |
| 400 | 0.0 | $3.1309 \mathrm{e}-10$ | 0.049 | 0.018 | $9.017 \mathrm{e}+01$ | 10 |

Table 5.1: Class I: Comparison with SOCP/SDP reformulation.

We see in Table 5.1 that our algorithm finds the global optimal solution of eTRS significantly faster than the SOCP/SDP reformulation and with improved accuracy. The generated matrix $A$ in this the first class of test problems is dense and so we do not perform tests of large size as the aim of our method is solving large sparse eTRS instances.

### 5.1.2 Class II

In this section we test our algorithm on both small and large sparse eTRS instances. we take advantage of the following lemma from [15] to generate such eTRS instances.

Lemma 5.1 (Lemma 3.4 of [15). Consider the TRS problem. Suppose that $\lambda_{1}<0$, has multiplicity one, and the $\boldsymbol{T R S}$ is an easy case instance. Then there exists $\delta_{0}>0$ such that TRS admits a local non-global minimizer for all $\delta>\delta_{0}$.

The second class of test problems are generated as follows. We generate a random sparse symmetric matrix $A$ via $\mathrm{A}=$ sprandsym(n, density). Next we generate the vector $a$ via $\mathrm{a}=\operatorname{randn}(\mathrm{n}, 1)$ and make sure that $v^{T} a \neq 0$ where $v$ is the eigenvector corresponding to $\lambda_{1}$, i.e., we get the easy case TRS. Then we set $\delta=4000$ following Lemma 5.1. Finally we set $b=0.9 x$ xopt and $c=\|b\|^{2}$ to cut off xopt, the global optimal solution of the generated TRS instance. We have compared our algorithm with the SOCP/SDP reformulation on the test problems of small size in both runtime and solution accuracy. For each dimension, we have generated 10 eTRS instances and the corresponding numerical results are presented in Table 5.2, where we report the dimension of the problem $n$, the algorithm run time and the time taken for checking the strong duality property of eTRS , and the accuracy at termination averaged over the 10 random instances. Moreover, for each dimension, \# LNGM denotes the number
of test problems among 10 instances for which our algorithm has detected the LNGM of the corresponding TRS as a global optimal solution of eTRS. It should be noted that the algorithm which gets $x_{\text {best }}$ varies from problem to problem and since we are reporting the average of 10 runs, we have positive accuracy in the Table. Furthermore, we verified that in all cases, there was a positive duality gap for generated eTRS instances. As in the previous test problems the new algorithm finds higher accuracy solutions in significantly shorter time than the SOCP/SDP reformulation.

|  | Accuracy | Accuracy | CPUsec | CPUsec | CPUsec | \# LNGM |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Main Algor. | SOCP/SDP | Main Algor | Str. Dual. | SOCP/SDP | Main Algor. |
| 100 | 0.0 | $4.2588 \mathrm{e}-09$ | 0.093 | 0.028 | $1.697 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 9 |
| 200 | 0.0 | $1.0547 \mathrm{e}-08$ | 0.128 | 0.030 | $1.167 \mathrm{e}+01$ | 6 |
| 300 | 0.0 | $9.3557 \mathrm{e}-09$ | 0.180 | 0.036 | $4.694 \mathrm{e}+01$ | 7 |
| 400 | 0.0 | $3.3775 \mathrm{e}-09$ | 0.252 | 0.042 | $1.287 \mathrm{e}+02$ | 5 |

Table 5.2: Class II: Comparison with SOCP/SDP reformulation; density 0.1

Now we turn to solving large sparse eTRS instances. For this class we just report the results of our algorithm since the SOCP/SDP approach could not handle problems of this size. Let $x^{*}$ be a global optimal solution of eTRS and $\lambda^{*}$ the corresponding Lagrange multiplier. Depending on the context of the linear constraint being not active or being active, we denote the error in the stationarity condition by: $\boldsymbol{K K T 1}:=\left\|\left(A+\lambda^{*} I\right) x^{*}+a\right\|_{\infty}$ or the corresponding conditions for the scaled active case, respectively; and the error in complementary slackness by $\boldsymbol{K} \boldsymbol{K} \boldsymbol{T} \boldsymbol{2}:=\lambda^{*}\left(\left\|x^{*}\right\|^{2}-\delta\right)$ or the corresponding condition for the scaled linear active case, respectively. For each dimension, we have generated 10 eTRS instances. In both cases the global optimal solution of eTRS is obtained from solving generalized eigenvalue problems. Numerical results are presented in Table 5.3.

|  | Opt. Cond. | Opt. Cond. | CPUsec | CPUsec | \# LNGM |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | KKT1 eTRS | KKT2 C.S. | Algor Time | Str. dual. Time | Main Algor. |
| 10000 | $1.4085 \mathrm{e}-08$ | $-1.3688 \mathrm{e}-12$ | 1.087 | 0.168 | 4 |
| 20000 | $1.3465 \mathrm{e}-10$ | $-7.7060 \mathrm{e}-13$ | 2.506 | 0.294 | 6 |
| 40000 | $1.9584 \mathrm{e}-09$ | $-3.8369 \mathrm{e}-14$ | 10.343 | 0.963 | 2 |
| 60000 | $1.9876 \mathrm{e}-10$ | $1.8024 \mathrm{e}-14$ | 13.694 | 1.912 | 4 |
| 80000 | $1.8937 \mathrm{e}-10$ | $5.3614 \mathrm{e}-13$ | 26.768 | 3.253 | 5 |
| 100000 | $8.5902 \mathrm{e}-11$ | $2.8473 \mathrm{e}-12$ | 29.225 | 5.415 | 2 |

Table 5.3: Class II: Large instances; density 0.0001

The following lemma is useful in generating test problems for the next two classes.
Lemma 5.2 (Generating LNGM). Let $A \in \mathbb{S}^{n}$ and suppose that $\lambda_{1}<\min \left\{0, \lambda_{2}\right\}$. Then there exists linear term a for which the eigenvector associated with $\lambda_{1}$ is the LNGM.

Proof. Let $\mu \in\left(\max \left\{0,-\lambda_{2}\right\},-\lambda_{1}\right)$. Set $a=-\left(A+\mu I_{n}\right) v_{1}$ where $v_{1}$ is the eigenvector for $\lambda_{1}$ with $\left\|v_{1}\right\|^{2}=\delta$. Then for this choice we have the first order stationary conditions.

Now let Range $(W)=\operatorname{Null}\left(v_{1}^{T}\right)$. Then $W^{T}\left(A+\mu I_{n}\right) W=\operatorname{diag}\left(\lambda_{2}+\mu, \ldots, \lambda_{n}+\mu\right)$. Due to the choice of $\mu$, the diagonal matrix has all diagonal elements positive. Thus we have the positive definiteness of the reduced Hessian. This implies that $v_{1}$ is the LNGM.

### 5.1.3 Class III

In this section, we consider a class of large sparse eTRS instances for which strong Lagrangian duality holds while the corresponding TRS has a LNGM which is feasible for eTRS. We generate the TRS using the previous Lemma 5.2 and set $b=\left(A-\lambda_{1} I\right) x$ where $\mathrm{x}=\mathrm{rand}(\mathrm{n}, 1)$. This means that $b^{T} v_{1}=0$ implying that we have strong duality property for generated eTRS instances.

Now let $x^{*}$ be a global optimal solution of eTRS. Then either $b^{T} x^{*}<\beta$ or $b^{T} x^{*}=$ $\beta$. Since strong duality holds, in the former case, $x^{*}$ is the global minimizer of the corresponding TRS. We define KKT1 and KKT2 as the previous section. For each dimension, we have generated 10 eTRS instances and the corresponding numerical results are presented in Table 5.4.

|  | Opt. Cond. | Opt. Cond. | CPUsec | CPUsec |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | KKT1 eTRS | KKT2 C.S. | Algor Time | Str. dual. Time |
| 10000 | $5.4076 \mathrm{e}-14$ | $5.4076 \mathrm{e}-14$ | 0.313 | 0.118 |
| 20000 | $3.1243 \mathrm{e}-14$ | $3.1243 \mathrm{e}-14$ | 0.731 | 0.242 |
| 40000 | $2.0866 \mathrm{e}-12$ | $2.0866 \mathrm{e}-12$ | 2.279 | 0.721 |
| 60000 | $8.9301 \mathrm{e}-14$ | $8.9301 \mathrm{e}-14$ | 3.827 | 1.448 |
| 80000 | $4.5073 \mathrm{e}-14$ | $4.5073 \mathrm{e}-14$ | 5.998 | 2.333 |
| 100000 | $9.7731 \mathrm{e}-14$ | $9.7731 \mathrm{e}-14$ | 9.727 | 3.820 |

Table 5.4: Class III: density 0.0001

### 5.1.4 Class IV

For this class also we follow the above Lemma 5.2 to generate TRS having LNGM. We follow the same procedure as in Section 5.1.3 to obtain $A, a, \delta$ and LNGM but we set $b=x o p t-x_{l}$ and $\beta=b^{T}\left(0.9 x_{l}+0.1\right.$ xopt $)$ to cut off xopt but leave $x_{l}$ feasible where xopt and $x_{l}$ are the global optimal solution and LNGM of the corresponding TRS, respectively.

|  | Accuracy | Accuracy | CPUsec | CPUsec | CPUsec | \# LNGM |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Main Algor. | SOCP/SDP | Main Algor | Str. Dual. | SOCP/SDP | Main Algor. |
| 100 | $1.8488 \mathrm{e}-10$ | 0.0 | 0.132 | 0.025 | $9.170 \mathrm{e}-01$ | 10 |
| 200 | $2.3815 \mathrm{e}-10$ | 0.0 | 0.145 | 0.025 | $7.037 \mathrm{e}+00$ | 10 |
| 300 | $2.1072 \mathrm{e}-10$ | 0.0 | 0.230 | 0.034 | $2.926 \mathrm{e}+01$ | 10 |
| 400 | $2.1792 \mathrm{e}-10$ | 0.0 | 0.386 | 0.041 | $8.877 \mathrm{e}+01$ | 10 |

Table 5.5: Class IV: density 0.1

|  | Opt. Cond. | Opt. Cond. | CPUsec | CPUsec | \# LNGM |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | KKT1 eTRS | KKT2 C.S. | Algor Time | Str. dual. Time | Main Algor. |
| 10000 | $1.3807 \mathrm{e}-13$ | $2.1481 \mathrm{e}-18$ | 2.564 | 0.167 | 10 |
| 20000 | $3.3108 \mathrm{e}-14$ | $1.2592 \mathrm{e}-16$ | 2.712 | 0.314 | 10 |
| 40000 | $1.9213 \mathrm{e}-13$ | $-9.3530 \mathrm{e}-16$ | 10.682 | 0.981 | 10 |
| 60000 | $3.8501 \mathrm{e}-13$ | $7.6124 \mathrm{e}-16$ | 19.285 | 2.060 | 10 |
| 80000 | $6.2677 \mathrm{e}-14$ | $3.1855 \mathrm{e}-16$ | 29.587 | 3.736 | 10 |
| 100000 | $1.1080 \mathrm{e}-13$ | $-7.4408 \mathrm{e}-16$ | 44.761 | 6.171 | 10 |

Table 5.6: Class IV: density 0.0001

## 6 Conclusion

In this paper we have derived a new necessary condition for the local non-global optimal solution LNGM of the TRS that is based on the second largest real generalized eigenvalue of a matrix pencil. This is then used to derive an efficient algorithm for finding the global minimizer of the extended TRS, the eTRS. We have presented numerical tests to show that our method far outperforms current methods for eTRS. And our method solves large sparse problems which are too large for current methods to be applied. We have included discussions on a characterization of when strong duality holds for eTRS as well as details on the stability of the problem.

It is well known that TRS is important for unconstrained trust region methods, restricted Newton methods, for unconstrained minimization; as well it is important for general minimization algorithms such as sequential quadratic programming (SQP) methods. For SQP methods it is customary to solve a standard quadratic programming problem for the search direction after using something akin to a quasi-Newton method to guarantee convexity of the objective function. The eTRS we have studied can be viewed as a step toward solving a TRS with multiple linear constraints for the search direction in SQP methods.

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[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ We have added the fact that $\lambda^{*}>0$ whereas only nonnegativity is given in [15, Theorem 3.1]. Strict complementarity is proved in [14, Prop. 3.4]. In fact, it is easy to see by the second order conditions that strict complementarity holds as well for the global minimum for TRS in the $\lambda_{1}<0$ case.
    ${ }^{2}$ The hard case arises in algorithms for TRS. The singularity that can arise requires special treatment, see e.g., [16. In fact, it can be handled by a shift and deflation step, see [7].

[^2]:    ${ }^{3}$ The objective function in [1] is $1 / 2$ our objective function and $I$ in the pencil is a general $B \succ 0$.

[^3]:    ${ }^{4}$ We note that the optimum does not have to be unique for the projected problem, i.e., though the hard case does not hold for TRS, it can hold for the projected problem.

[^4]:    ${ }^{5}$ Some scaling issues can arise here. It is preferable to take $\hat{x}$ strictly feasible for the trust region constraint.
    ${ }^{6}$ We note that the choice $\hat{x}=0$ simplifies the nonhomogeneous nTRS below.

[^5]:    ${ }^{7}$ We note again here that if $\beta=0$ then we can choose $\hat{x}=0$ and the homogeneous TRS is maintained.

