

Modern Convex Optimization Methods for Large-Scale Empirical Risk Minimization (Part I: Primal Methods)

International Conference on Machine Learning

Peter Richtárik and Mark Schmidt

July 2015

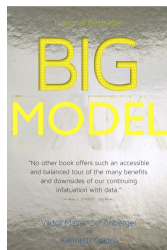
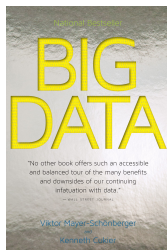
Context: Big Data and Big Models

- We are collecting data at unprecedented rates.
 - Seen across many fields of science and engineering.
 - Not gigabytes, but terabytes or petabytes (and beyond).



Context: Big Data and Big Models

- We are collecting data at unprecedented rates.
 - Seen across many fields of science and engineering.
 - Not gigabytes, but terabytes or petabytes (and beyond).



- Machine learning can use big data to fit richer models:
 - Bioinformatics.
 - Computer vision.
 - Speech recognition.
 - Product recommendation.
 - Machine translation.

Common Framework: Empirical Risk Minimization

- The most common framework is **empirical risk minimization**:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

- We have n **observations** a_i (and possibly labels b_i).
- We want to find optimal **parameters** x^* .

Common Framework: Empirical Risk Minimization

- The most common framework is **empirical risk minimization**:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

- We have n **observations** a_i (and possibly labels b_i).
- We want to find optimal **parameters** x^* .
- Examples range from squared error with 2-norm regularization,

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{2} (a_i^T x - b_i)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|x\|^2,$$

to conditional random fields (CRFs) and deep neural networks.

Common Framework: Empirical Risk Minimization

- The most common framework is **empirical risk minimization**:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

- We have n **observations** a_i (and possibly labels b_i).
- We want to find optimal **parameters** x^* .
- Examples range from squared error with 2-norm regularization,

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{1}{2} (a_i^T x - b_i)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|x\|^2,$$

to conditional random fields (CRFs) and deep neural networks.

- **Main practical challenges**:
 - Designing/learning good features a_i .
 - Efficiently solving the problem when N or P are very large.

Motivation: Why Learn about Convex Optimization?

- Why learn about **large-scale optimization**?
 - Optimization is at the core of many ML algorithms.
 - Can't solve huge problems with traditional techniques.

Motivation: Why Learn about Convex Optimization?

- Why learn about **large-scale optimization**?
 - Optimization is at the core of many ML algorithms.
 - Can't solve huge problems with traditional techniques.

- Why in particular learn about **convex** optimization?

Motivation: Why Learn about Convex Optimization?

- Why learn about **large-scale optimization**?
 - Optimization is at the core of many ML algorithms.
 - Can't solve huge problems with traditional techniques.

- Why in particular learn about **convex** optimization?
 - Among only *efficiently-solvable* continuous problems.

Motivation: Why Learn about Convex Optimization?

- Why learn about **large-scale optimization**?
 - Optimization is at the core of many ML algorithms.
 - Can't solve huge problems with traditional techniques.

- Why in particular learn about **convex** optimization?
 - Among only *efficiently-solvable* continuous problems.
 - You can do a lot with convex models.
(least squares, lasso, generalized linear models, SVMs, CRFs, etc.)
 - Empirically effective non-convex methods are often based
methods with good properties for convex objectives.
(functions are locally convex around minimizers)

Motivation: Why Learn about Convex Optimization?

- Why learn about **large-scale optimization**?
 - Optimization is at the core of many ML algorithms.
 - Can't solve huge problems with traditional techniques.

- Why in particular learn about **convex** optimization?
 - Among only *efficiently-solvable* continuous problems.
 - You can do a lot with convex models.
(least squares, lasso, generalized linear models, SVMs, CRFs, etc.)
 - Empirically effective non-convex methods are often based
methods with good properties for convex objectives.
(functions are locally convex around minimizers)
 - Tools from convex analysis are being extended to non-convex.

How hard is real-valued optimization?

How long to find an ϵ -optimal minimizer of a real-valued function?

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x).$$

How hard is real-valued optimization?

How long to find an ϵ -optimal minimizer of a real-valued function?

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x).$$

- General function: impossible!

How hard is real-valued optimization?

How long to find an ϵ -optimal minimizer of a real-valued function?

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x).$$

- General function: impossible!

We need to make some assumptions about the function:

- Assume f is **Lipschitz-continuous**: (can not change too quickly)

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq L\|x - y\|.$$

How hard is real-valued optimization?

How long to find an ϵ -optimal minimizer of a real-valued function?

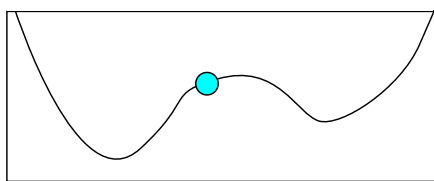
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x).$$

- General function: impossible!

We need to make some assumptions about the function:

- Assume f is **Lipschitz-continuous**: (can not change too quickly)

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq L\|x - y\|.$$



How hard is real-valued optimization?

How long to find an ϵ -optimal minimizer of a real-valued function?

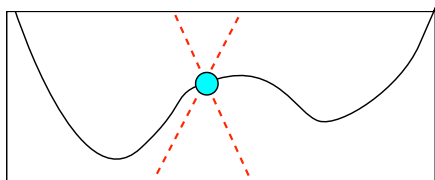
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x).$$

- General function: impossible!

We need to make some assumptions about the function:

- Assume f is **Lipschitz-continuous**: (can not change too quickly)

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq L\|x - y\|.$$



How hard is real-valued optimization?

How long to find an ϵ -optimal minimizer of a real-valued function?

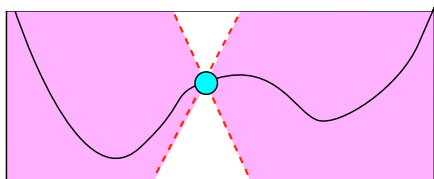
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x).$$

- General function: impossible!

We need to make some assumptions about the function:

- Assume f is **Lipschitz-continuous**: (can not change too quickly)

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq L\|x - y\|.$$



How hard is real-valued optimization?

How long to find an ϵ -optimal minimizer of a real-valued function?

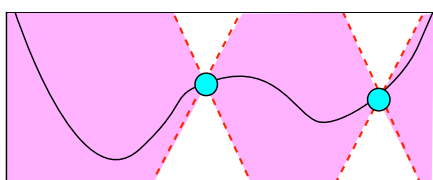
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x).$$

- General function: impossible!

We need to make some assumptions about the function:

- Assume f is **Lipschitz-continuous**: (can not change too quickly)

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq L\|x - y\|.$$



How hard is real-valued optimization?

How long to find an ϵ -optimal minimizer of a real-valued function?

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x).$$

- General function: impossible!

We need to make some assumptions about the function:

- Assume f is **Lipschitz-continuous**: (can not change too quickly)

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq L\|x - y\|.$$

- After t iterations, the error of *any algorithm* is $\Omega(1/t^{1/n})$.
(and grid-search is nearly optimal)

How hard is real-valued optimization?

How long to find an ϵ -optimal minimizer of a real-valued function?

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x).$$

- General function: impossible!

We need to make some assumptions about the function:

- Assume f is **Lipschitz-continuous**: (can not change too quickly)

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \leq L\|x - y\|.$$

- After t iterations, the error of *any algorithm* is $\Omega(1/t^{1/n})$.
(and grid-search is nearly optimal)
- **Optimization is hard, but assumptions make a big difference.**
(we went from impossible to very slow)

Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

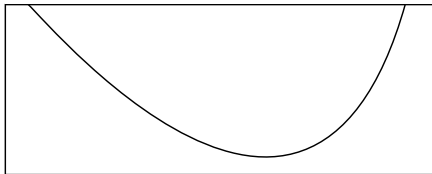
- Function is **below linear interpolation** between x and y .
- Implies that **all local minima are global minima**.

Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

- Function is **below linear interpolation** between x and y .
- Implies that **all local minima are global minima**.

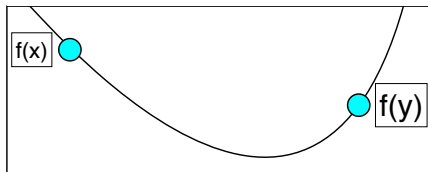


Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

- Function is **below linear interpolation** between x and y .
- Implies that **all local minima are global minima**.

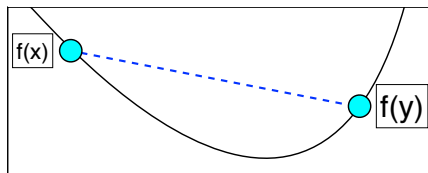


Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

- Function is **below linear interpolation** between x and y .
- Implies that **all local minima are global minima**.

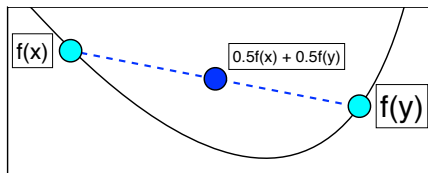


Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

- Function is **below linear interpolation** between x and y .
- Implies that **all local minima are global minima**.

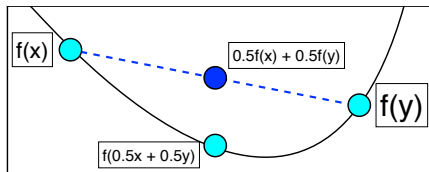


Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

- Function is **below linear interpolation** between x and y .
- Implies that **all local minima are global minima**.

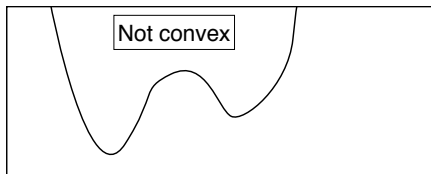


Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

- Function is **below linear interpolation** between x and y .
- Implies that **all local minima are global minima**.

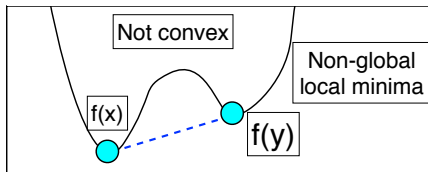


Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

- Function is **below linear interpolation** between x and y .
- Implies that **all local minima are global minima**.



Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

A *differentiable* function f is convex if for all x and y we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x),$$

- The function is globally *above the tangent* at x .

Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

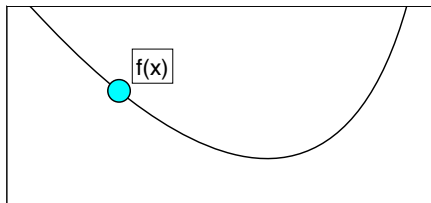
A function f is **convex** if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

A **differentiable** function f is convex if for all x and y we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x),$$

- The function is globally **above the tangent** at x .



Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

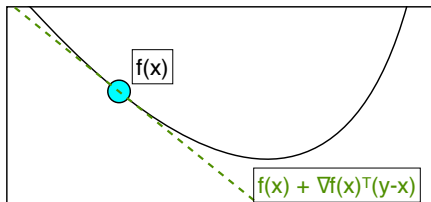
A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

A *differentiable* function f is convex if for all x and y we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x),$$

- The function is globally *above the tangent* at x .



Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

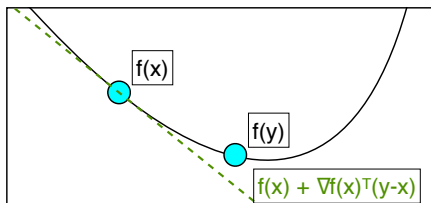
A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

A *differentiable* function f is convex if for all x and y we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x),$$

- The function is globally *above the tangent* at x .



Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

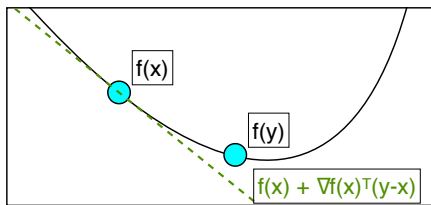
A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

A *differentiable* function f is convex if for all x and y we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x),$$

- The function is globally *above the tangent* at x .



- If $\nabla f(y) = 0$, implies y is a global minimizer.

Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

A *differentiable* function f is convex if for all x and y we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x),$$

Convex Functions: Three Characterizations

A function f is *convex* if for all x and y we have

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \leq \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(y), \quad \text{for } \theta \in [0, 1].$$

A *differentiable* function f is convex if for all x and y we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x),$$

A *twice-differentiable* function f is convex if for all x we have

$$\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0$$

- All eigenvalues of 'Hessian' are non-negative.
- The function is *flat or curved upwards* in every direction.
- This is usually the easiest way to show a function is convex.

Examples of Convex Functions

Some simple convex functions:

- $f(x) = c$
- $f(x) = a^T x$
- $f(x) = x^T A x$ (for $A \succeq 0$)
- $f(x) = \exp(ax)$
- $f(x) = x \log x$ (for $x > 0$)
- $f(x) = \|x\|^2$
- $f(x) = \|x\|_p$
- $f(x) = \max_i \{x_i\}$

Examples of Convex Functions

Some simple convex functions:

- $f(x) = c$
- $f(x) = a^T x$
- $f(x) = x^T A x$ (for $A \succeq 0$)
- $f(x) = \exp(ax)$
- $f(x) = x \log x$ (for $x > 0$)
- $f(x) = \|x\|^2$
- $f(x) = \|x\|_p$
- $f(x) = \max_i \{x_i\}$

Some other notable examples:

- $f(x, y) = \log(e^x + e^y)$
- $f(X) = \log \det X$ (for X positive-definite).
- $f(x, Y) = x^T Y^{-1} x$ (for Y positive-definite)

Operations that Preserve Convexity

- 1 Non-negative weighted sum:

$$f(x) = \theta_1 f_1(x) + \theta_2 f_2(x).$$

- 2 Composition with affine mapping:

$$g(x) = f(Ax + b).$$

- 3 Pointwise maximum:

$$f(x) = \max_i \{f_i(x)\}.$$

Operations that Preserve Convexity

- 1 Non-negative weighted sum:

$$f(x) = \theta_1 f_1(x) + \theta_2 f_2(x).$$

- 2 Composition with affine mapping:

$$g(x) = f(Ax + b).$$

- 3 Pointwise maximum:

$$f(x) = \max_i \{f_i(x)\}.$$

Show that least-residual problems are convex for any ℓ_p -norm:

$$f(x) = \|Ax - b\|_p$$

Operations that Preserve Convexity

- ① Non-negative weighted sum:

$$f(x) = \theta_1 f_1(x) + \theta_2 f_2(x).$$

- ② Composition with affine mapping:

$$g(x) = f(Ax + b).$$

- ③ Pointwise maximum:

$$f(x) = \max_i \{f_i(x)\}.$$

Show that least-residual problems are convex for any ℓ_p -norm:

$$f(x) = \|Ax - b\|_p$$

We know that $\|\cdot\|_p$ is a norm, so it follows from (2).

Operations that Preserve Convexity

- 1 Non-negative weighted sum:

$$f(x) = \theta_1 f_1(x) + \theta_2 f_2(x).$$

- 2 Composition with affine mapping:

$$g(x) = f(Ax + b).$$

- 3 Pointwise maximum:

$$f(x) = \max_i \{f_i(x)\}.$$

Show that SVMs are convex:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|x\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \max\{0, 1 - b_i a_i^T x\}.$$

Operations that Preserve Convexity

- 1 Non-negative weighted sum:

$$f(x) = \theta_1 f_1(x) + \theta_2 f_2(x).$$

- 2 Composition with affine mapping:

$$g(x) = f(Ax + b).$$

- 3 Pointwise maximum:

$$f(x) = \max_i \{f_i(x)\}.$$

Show that SVMs are convex:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \|x\|^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \max\{0, 1 - b_i a_i^T x\}.$$

Know first term is convex, for the second term use (3) on the two (convex) arguments, then use (1) to put it all together.

Outline

- 1 Motivation
- 2 Gradient Method**
- 3 Stochastic Subgradient
- 4 Finite-Sum Methods
- 5 Non-Smooth Objectives

Motivation for Gradient Methods

- We can solve **convex** optimization problems in polynomial-time by *interior-point* methods

Motivation for Gradient Methods

- We can solve **convex** optimization problems in polynomial-time by *interior-point* methods
- But these solvers require $O(P^2)$ or worse cost per iteration.
 - Infeasible for applications where P may be in the billions.

Motivation for Gradient Methods

- We can solve **convex** optimization problems in polynomial-time by *interior-point* methods
- But these solvers require $O(P^2)$ or worse cost per iteration.
 - Infeasible for applications where P may be in the billions.
- Large-scale problems have renewed interest **gradient methods**:

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha_t \nabla f(x^t).$$

Motivation for Gradient Methods

- We can solve **convex** optimization problems in polynomial-time by *interior-point* methods
- But these solvers require $O(P^2)$ or worse cost per iteration.
 - Infeasible for applications where P may be in the billions.
- Large-scale problems have renewed interest **gradient methods**:

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha_t \nabla f(x^t).$$

- Only have $O(P)$ iteration cost!
- But **how many iterations** are needed?

Logistic Regression with 2-Norm Regularization

- Let's consider **logistic regression with 2-norm regularization**:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-b_i(x^T a_i))) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|x\|^2.$$

- Objective f is **convex**.
- First term is **Lipschitz continuous**, second term is not.

Logistic Regression with 2-Norm Regularization

- Let's consider **logistic regression with 2-norm regularization**:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-b_i(x^T a_i))) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|x\|^2.$$

- Objective f is **convex**.
- First term is **Lipschitz continuous**, second term is not.
- But we have

$$\mu I \preceq \nabla^2 f(x) \preceq LI,$$

for some L and μ .

$$(L \leq \frac{1}{4} \|A\|_2^2 + \lambda, \mu \geq \lambda)$$

Logistic Regression with 2-Norm Regularization

- Let's consider **logistic regression with 2-norm regularization**:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-b_i(x^T a_i))) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|x\|^2.$$

- Objective f is **convex**.
- First term is **Lipschitz continuous**, second term is not.
- But we have

$$\mu I \preceq \nabla^2 f(x) \preceq LI,$$

for some L and μ .

$$(L \leq \frac{1}{4} \|A\|_2^2 + \lambda, \mu \geq \lambda)$$

- We say that the **gradient is Lipschitz-continuous**.
- We say that the **function is strongly-convex**.

Properties of Lipschitz-Continuous Gradient

- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

Properties of Lipschitz-Continuous Gradient

- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \preceq LI$.

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{L}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- *Global quadratic upper bound on function value.*

Properties of Lipschitz-Continuous Gradient

- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \preceq LI$.

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{L}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- *Global quadratic upper bound on function value.*
- Variant of gradient method if we set x^{t+1} to minimum y value:

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(x^t).$$

- Plugging this value in:

$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$

- Guaranteed **decrease** of objective.

Properties of Lipschitz-Continuous Gradient

- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \preceq LI$.

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{L}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- *Global quadratic upper bound on function value.*

Properties of Lipschitz-Continuous Gradient

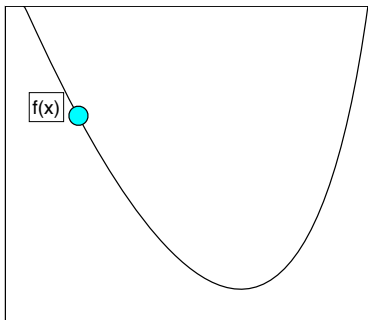
- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \preceq LI$.

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{L}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- Global quadratic upper bound on function value.*



Properties of Lipschitz-Continuous Gradient

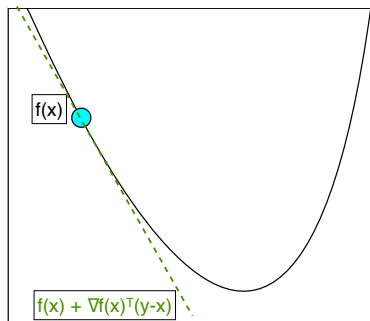
- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \preceq LI$.

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{L}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- Global quadratic upper bound on function value.*



Properties of Lipschitz-Continuous Gradient

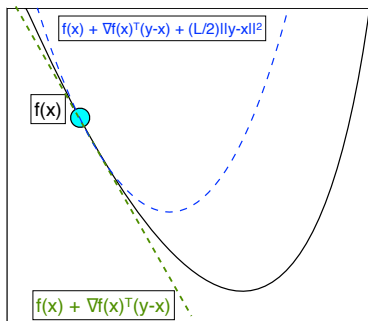
- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \preceq LI$.

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{L}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- Global quadratic upper bound on function value.*



Properties of Lipschitz-Continuous Gradient

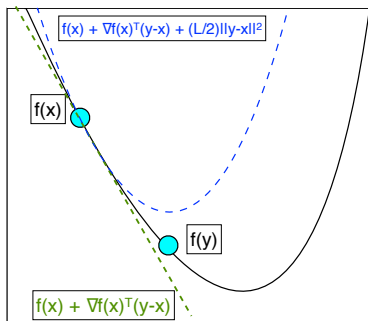
- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \preceq LI$.

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{L}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- Global quadratic upper bound on function value.*



Properties of Lipschitz-Continuous Gradient

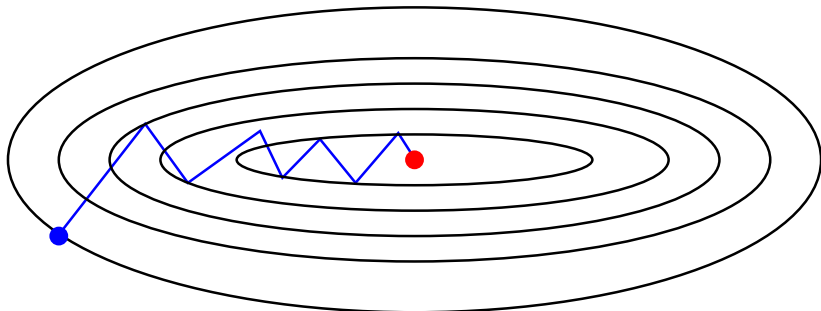
- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \preceq LI$.

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{L}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- *Global quadratic upper bound on function value.*



Properties of Strong-Convexity

- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

Properties of Strong-Convexity

- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \succeq \mu I$.

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- *Global quadratic lower bound on function value.*

Properties of Strong-Convexity

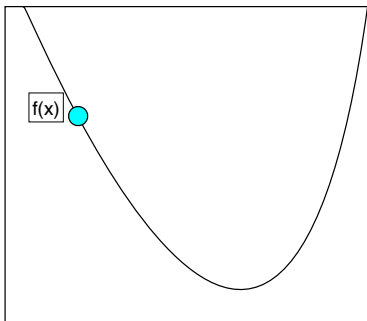
- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \succeq \mu I$.

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- Global quadratic lower bound on function value.*



Properties of Strong-Convexity

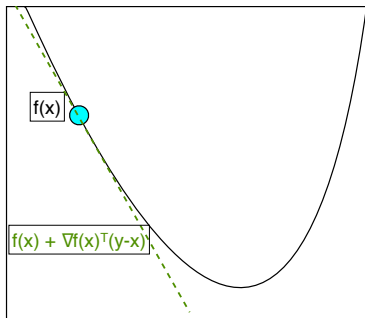
- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \succeq \mu I$.

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- Global quadratic lower bound on function value.*



Properties of Strong-Convexity

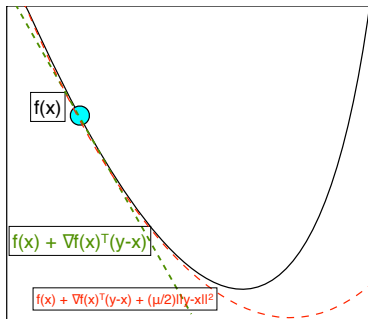
- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \succeq \mu I$.

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- Global quadratic lower bound on function value.*



Properties of Strong-Convexity

- From Taylor's theorem, for some z we have:

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

- Use that $\nabla^2 f(z) \succeq \mu I$.

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

- *Global quadratic lower bound on function value.*
- Minimize both sides in terms of y :

$$f(x^*) \geq f(x) - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2.$$

- Upper bound on how far we are from the solution.

Linear Convergence of Gradient Descent

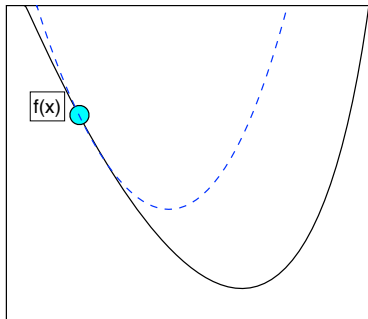
- We have bounds on x^{t+1} and x^* :

$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2, \quad f(x^*) \geq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$

Linear Convergence of Gradient Descent

- We have bounds on x^{t+1} and x^* :

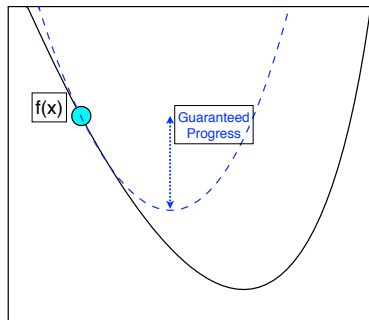
$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2, \quad f(x^*) \geq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$



Linear Convergence of Gradient Descent

- We have bounds on x^{t+1} and x^* :

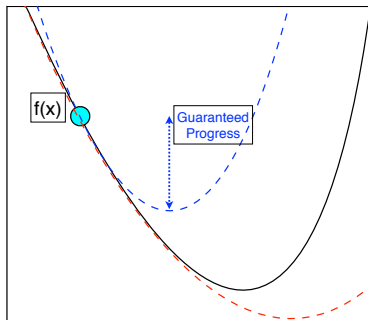
$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2, \quad f(x^*) \geq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$



Linear Convergence of Gradient Descent

- We have bounds on x^{t+1} and x^* :

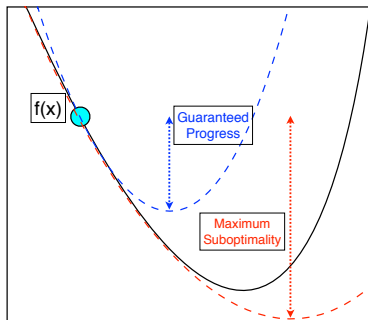
$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2, \quad f(x^*) \geq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$



Linear Convergence of Gradient Descent

- We have bounds on x^{t+1} and x^* :

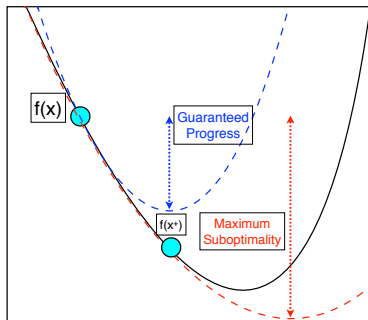
$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2, \quad f(x^*) \geq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$



Linear Convergence of Gradient Descent

- We have bounds on x^{t+1} and x^* :

$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2, \quad f(x^*) \geq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$



Linear Convergence of Gradient Descent

- We have bounds on x^{t+1} and x^* :

$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2, \quad f(x^*) \geq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$

combine them to get

$$f(x^{t+1}) - f(x^*) \leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{L}\right) [f(x^t) - f(x^*)]$$

Linear Convergence of Gradient Descent

- We have bounds on x^{t+1} and x^* :

$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2, \quad f(x^*) \geq f(x^t) - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$

combine them to get

$$f(x^{t+1}) - f(x^*) \leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{L}\right) [f(x^t) - f(x^*)]$$

- This gives a **linear convergence** rate:

$$f(x^t) - f(x^*) \leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{L}\right)^t [f(x^0) - f(x^*)]$$

- Each iteration multiplies the error by a fixed amount.

(very fast if μ/L is not too close to one)

Maximum Likelihood Logistic Regression

- What about maximum-likelihood logistic regression?

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-b_i(x^T a_i))).$$

Maximum Likelihood Logistic Regression

- What about **maximum-likelihood logistic regression**?

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-b_i(x^T a_i))).$$

- We now only have

$$0 \preceq \nabla^2 f(x) \preceq LI.$$

- **Convexity** only gives a linear upper bound on $f(x^*)$:

$$f(x^*) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (x^* - x)$$

Maximum Likelihood Logistic Regression

- What about **maximum-likelihood logistic regression**?

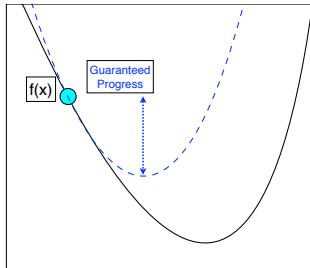
$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-b_i(x^T a_i))).$$

- We now only have

$$0 \preceq \nabla^2 f(x) \preceq LI.$$

- **Convexity** only gives a linear upper bound on $f(x^*)$:

$$f(x^*) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (x^* - x)$$



Maximum Likelihood Logistic Regression

- What about **maximum-likelihood logistic regression**?

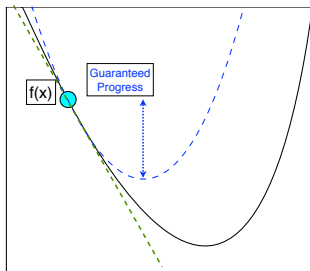
$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-b_i(x^T a_i))).$$

- We now only have

$$0 \preceq \nabla^2 f(x) \preceq LI.$$

- **Convexity** only gives a linear upper bound on $f(x^*)$:

$$f(x^*) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (x^* - x)$$



Maximum Likelihood Logistic Regression

- What about **maximum-likelihood logistic regression**?

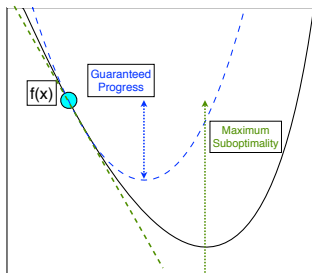
$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-b_i(x^T a_i))).$$

- We now only have

$$0 \preceq \nabla^2 f(x) \preceq LI.$$

- **Convexity** only gives a linear upper bound on $f(x^*)$:

$$f(x^*) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (x^* - x)$$



Maximum Likelihood Logistic Regression

- Consider maximum-likelihood logistic regression:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-b_i(x^T a_i))).$$

- We now only have

$$0 \preceq \nabla^2 f(x) \preceq LI.$$

- Convexity only gives a linear upper bound on $f(x^*)$:

$$f(x^*) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (x^* - x)$$

- If some x^* exists, we have the sublinear convergence rate:

$$f(x^t) - f(x^*) = O(1/t)$$

(compare to slower $\Omega(1/t^{-1/N})$ for general Lipschitz functions)

Maximum Likelihood Logistic Regression

- Consider maximum-likelihood logistic regression:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + \exp(-b_i(x^T a_i))).$$

- We now only have

$$0 \preceq \nabla^2 f(x) \preceq LI.$$

- Convexity only gives a linear upper bound on $f(x^*)$:

$$f(x^*) \leq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (x^* - x)$$

- If some x^* exists, we have the sublinear convergence rate:

$$f(x^t) - f(x^*) = O(1/t)$$

(compare to slower $\Omega(1/t^{-1/N})$ for general Lipschitz functions)

- If f is convex, then $f + \lambda \|x\|^2$ is strongly-convex.

Gradient Method: Practical Issues

- In practice, searching for step size (**line-search**) is usually much faster than $\alpha = 1/L$.

(and doesn't require knowledge of L)

Gradient Method: Practical Issues

- In practice, searching for step size (**line-search**) is usually much faster than $\alpha = 1/L$.
(and doesn't require knowledge of L)
- Basic **Armijo** backtracking line-search:
 - 1 Start with a large value of α .
 - 2 Divide α in half until we satisfy (typically value is $\gamma = .0001$)

$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \gamma\alpha \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$

Gradient Method: Practical Issues

- In practice, searching for step size (**line-search**) is usually much faster than $\alpha = 1/L$.

(and doesn't require knowledge of L)

- Basic **Armijo** backtracking line-search:

- 1 Start with a large value of α .

- 2 Divide α in half until we satisfy (typically value is $\gamma = .0001$)

$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \gamma\alpha \|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$

- Practical methods may use *Wolfe conditions* (so α isn't too small), and/or use *interpolation* to propose trial step sizes.

(with good interpolation, ≈ 1 evaluation of f per iteration)

Gradient Method: Practical Issues

- In practice, searching for step size (**line-search**) is usually much faster than $\alpha = 1/L$.

(and doesn't require knowledge of L)

- Basic **Armijo** backtracking line-search:

- 1 Start with a large value of α .

- 2 Divide α in half until we satisfy (typically value is $\gamma = .0001$)

$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) - \gamma\alpha\|\nabla f(x^t)\|^2.$$

- Practical methods may use *Wolfe conditions* (so α isn't too small), and/or use *interpolation* to propose trial step sizes.

(with good interpolation, ≈ 1 evaluation of f per iteration)

- Also, check your derivative code!

$$\nabla_i f(x) \approx \frac{f(x + \delta e_i) - f(x)}{\delta}$$

- For large-scale problems you can check a random direction d :

$$\nabla f(x)^T d \approx \frac{f(x + \delta d) - f(x)}{\delta}$$

Accelerated Gradient Method

- Is gradient method an optimal first-order method?

Accelerated Gradient Method

- Is gradient method an optimal first-order method?

Algorithm	Assumptions	Rate
Gradient	Convex	$O(1/t)$
Nesterov	Convex	$O(1/t^2)$
Gradient	Strongly-Convex	$O((1 - \mu/L)^t)$
Nesterov	Strongly-Convex	$O((1 - \sqrt{\mu/L})^t)$

Accelerated Gradient Method

- Is gradient method an optimal first-order method?

Algorithm	Assumptions	Rate
Gradient	Convex	$O(1/t)$
Nesterov	Convex	$O(1/t^2)$
Gradient	Strongly-Convex	$O((1 - \mu/L)^t)$
Nesterov	Strongly-Convex	$O((1 - \sqrt{\mu/L})^t)$

- Nesterov's accelerated gradient method:

$$x_{t+1} = y_t - \alpha_t \nabla f(y_t),$$

$$y_{t+1} = x_t + \beta_t(x_{t+1} - x_t),$$

for appropriate α_t, β_t .

- Similar to heavy-ball/momentum and conjugate gradient.
- Rates are **nearly-optimal** for dimension-independent algorithm.

Accelerated Gradient Method

- Is gradient method an optimal first-order method?

Algorithm	Assumptions	Rate
Gradient	Convex	$O(1/t)$
Nesterov	Convex	$O(1/t^2)$
Gradient	Strongly-Convex	$O((1 - \mu/L)^t)$
Nesterov	Strongly-Convex	$O((1 - \sqrt{\mu/L})^t)$

- Nesterov's accelerated gradient method:

$$x_{t+1} = y_t - \alpha_t \nabla f(y_t),$$

$$y_{t+1} = x_t + \beta_t (x_{t+1} - x_t),$$

for appropriate α_t, β_t .

- Similar to heavy-ball/momentum and conjugate gradient.
- Rates are **nearly-optimal** for dimension-independent algorithm.
- For logistic regression and many other losses, we can get linear convergence without strong-convexity [Luo & Tseng, 1993].

Newton's Method

- **Newton's method** is a **second-order** strategy.

(also called IRLS for functions of the form $f(Ax)$)

- Modern form uses the update

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha_t d_t,$$

where d is a solution to the system

$$\nabla^2 f(x_t) d_t = -\nabla f(x_t). \quad (\text{Assumes } \nabla^2 f(x) \succ 0)$$

Newton's Method

- **Newton's method** is a **second-order** strategy.

(also called IRLS for functions of the form $f(Ax)$)

- Modern form uses the update

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha_t d_t,$$

where d is a solution to the system

$$\nabla^2 f(x_t) d_t = -\nabla f(x_t). \quad (\text{Assumes } \nabla^2 f(x) \succ 0)$$

- Equivalent to minimizing the quadratic approximation:

$$f(y) \approx f(x_t) + \nabla f(x_t)^T (y - x_t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha} \|y - x_t\|_{\nabla^2 f(x_t)}^2.$$

(recall that $\|x\|_H^2 = x^T H x$)

Newton's Method

- **Newton's method** is a **second-order** strategy.

(also called IRLS for functions of the form $f(Ax)$)

- Modern form uses the update

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha_t d_t,$$

where d is a solution to the system

$$\nabla^2 f(x_t) d_t = -\nabla f(x_t). \quad (\text{Assumes } \nabla^2 f(x) \succ 0)$$

- Equivalent to minimizing the quadratic approximation:

$$f(y) \approx f(x_t) + \nabla f(x_t)^T (y - x_t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha} \|y - x_t\|_{\nabla^2 f(x_t)}^2.$$

(recall that $\|x\|_H^2 = x^T H x$)

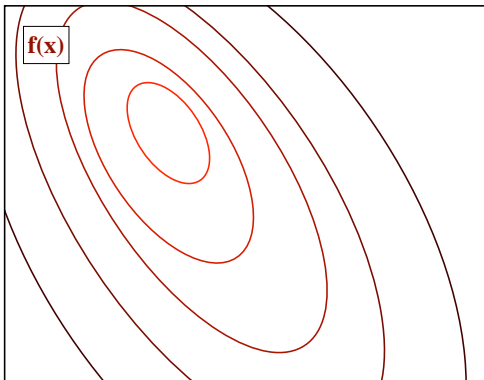
- We can generalize the Armijo condition to

$$f(x^{t+1}) \leq f(x^t) + \gamma \alpha \nabla f(x^t)^T d.$$

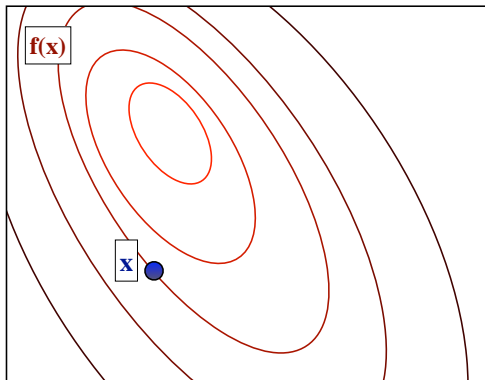
- Has a natural step length of $\alpha = 1$.

(always accepted when close to a minimizer)

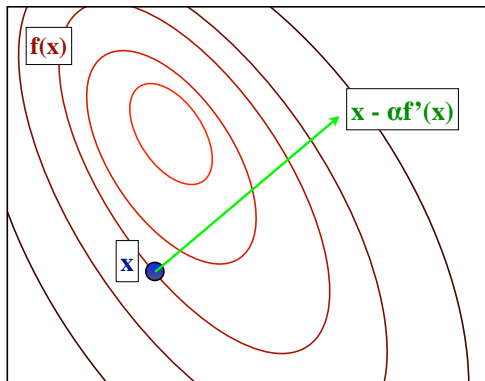
Newton's Method



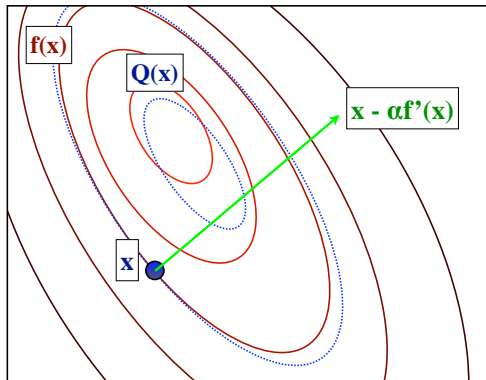
Newton's Method



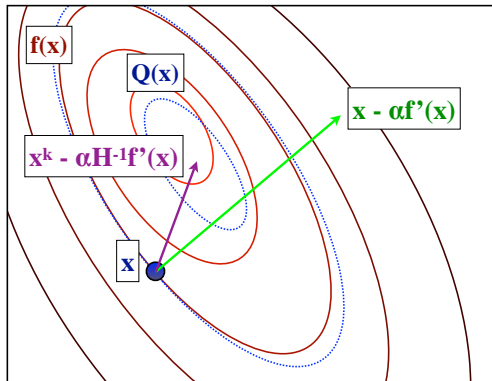
Newton's Method



Newton's Method



Newton's Method



Convergence Rate of Newton's Method

- If $\nabla^2 f(x)$ is Lipschitz-continuous and $\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq \mu$, then close to x^* Newton's method has **local superlinear** convergence:

$$f(x^{t+1}) - f(x^*) \leq \rho_t [f(x^t) - f(x^*)],$$

with $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \rho_t = 0$.

- Converges very fast, use it if you can!

Convergence Rate of Newton's Method

- If $\nabla^2 f(x)$ is Lipschitz-continuous and $\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq \mu$, then close to x^* Newton's method has **local superlinear** convergence:

$$f(x^{t+1}) - f(x^*) \leq \rho_t [f(x^t) - f(x^*)],$$

with $\lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \rho_t = 0$.

- Converges very fast, use it if you can!
- But **requires solving** $\nabla^2 f(x^t) d^t = \nabla f(x^t)$.
- Variant called **cubic regularization** has global rates.

Newton's Method: Practical Issues

There are practical large-scale Newton-like methods:

- Only use the diagonals of the Hessian.
- **Barzilai-Borwein**: Choose a step-size that acts like the Hessian over the last iteration:

$$\alpha = \frac{(x^{t+1} - x^t)^T (\nabla f(x^{t+1}) - \nabla f(x^t))}{\|\nabla f(x^{t+1}) - \nabla f(x^t)\|^2}$$

Newton's Method: Practical Issues

There are practical large-scale Newton-like methods:

- Only use the diagonals of the Hessian.
- **Barzilai-Borwein**: Choose a step-size that acts like the Hessian over the last iteration:

$$\alpha = \frac{(x^{t+1} - x^t)^T (\nabla f(x^{t+1}) - \nabla f(x^t))}{\|\nabla f(x^{t+1}) - \nabla f(x^t)\|^2}$$

- **Quasi-Newton**: Update a (diagonal plus low-rank) approximation of the Hessian (**L-BFGS**).
- **Hessian-free**: Compute d inexactly using Hessian-vector products:

$$\nabla^2 f(x)d = \lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \frac{\nabla f(x + \delta d) - \nabla f(x)}{\delta}$$

Another related method is **nonlinear conjugate gradient**.

Outline

- 1 Motivation
- 2 Gradient Method
- 3 Stochastic Subgradient**
- 4 Finite-Sum Methods
- 5 Non-Smooth Objectives

Big-N Problems

- Recall the regularized empirical risk minimization problem:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

Big-N Problems

- Recall the regularized empirical risk minimization problem:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

- Gradient methods are effective when P is very large.
- What if number of training examples N is very large?
 - E.g., ImageNet has more than 14 million annotated images.

Stochastic vs. Deterministic Gradient Methods

- We consider minimizing $f(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f_i(x)$.

Stochastic vs. Deterministic Gradient Methods

- We consider minimizing $f(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f_i(x)$.
- **Deterministic** gradient method [Cauchy, 1847]:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha_t \nabla f(x_t) = x_t - \frac{\alpha_t}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x_t).$$

- Iteration cost is **linear in N** .
- Convergence with constant α_t or line-search.

Stochastic vs. Deterministic Gradient Methods

- We consider minimizing $f(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f_i(x)$.
- **Deterministic** gradient method [Cauchy, 1847]:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha_t \nabla f(x_t) = x_t - \frac{\alpha_t}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x_t).$$

- Iteration cost is **linear in N** .
- Convergence with constant α_t or line-search.
- **Stochastic** gradient method [Robbins & Monro, 1951]:
 - Random selection of i_t from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$.

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha_t \nabla f_{i_t}(x_t).$$

Stochastic vs. Deterministic Gradient Methods

- We consider minimizing $f(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f_i(x)$.
- **Deterministic** gradient method [Cauchy, 1847]:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha_t \nabla f(x_t) = x_t - \frac{\alpha_t}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x_t).$$

- Iteration cost is **linear in N** .
- Convergence with constant α_t or line-search.
- **Stochastic** gradient method [Robbins & Monro, 1951]:
 - Random selection of i_t from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$.

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha_t \nabla f_{i_t}(x_t).$$

- Gives unbiased estimate of true gradient,

$$\mathbb{E}[f'_{i_t}(x)] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x) = \nabla f(x).$$

- Iteration cost is **independent of N** .

Stochastic vs. Deterministic Gradient Methods

- We consider minimizing $f(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f_i(x)$.
- **Deterministic** gradient method [Cauchy, 1847]:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha_t \nabla f(x_t) = x_t - \frac{\alpha_t}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x_t).$$

- Iteration cost is **linear in N** .
- Convergence with constant α_t or line-search.
- **Stochastic** gradient method [Robbins & Monro, 1951]:
 - Random selection of i_t from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$.

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha_t \nabla f_{i_t}(x_t).$$

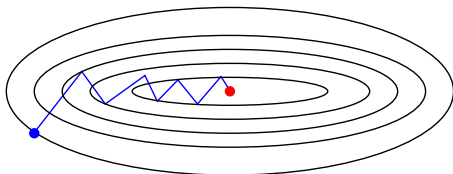
- Gives unbiased estimate of true gradient,

$$\mathbb{E}[f'_{i_t}(x)] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x) = \nabla f(x).$$

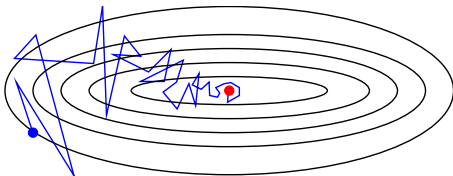
- Iteration cost is **independent of N** .
- **Convergence requires $\alpha_t \rightarrow 0$** .

Stochastic vs. Deterministic Gradient Methods

- We consider minimizing $g(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x)$.
- **Deterministic** gradient method [Cauchy, 1847]:



- **Stochastic** gradient method [Robbins & Monro, 1951]:



Stochastic vs. Deterministic Gradient Methods

Stochastic iterations are N times faster, but how many iterations?

Stochastic vs. Deterministic Gradient Methods

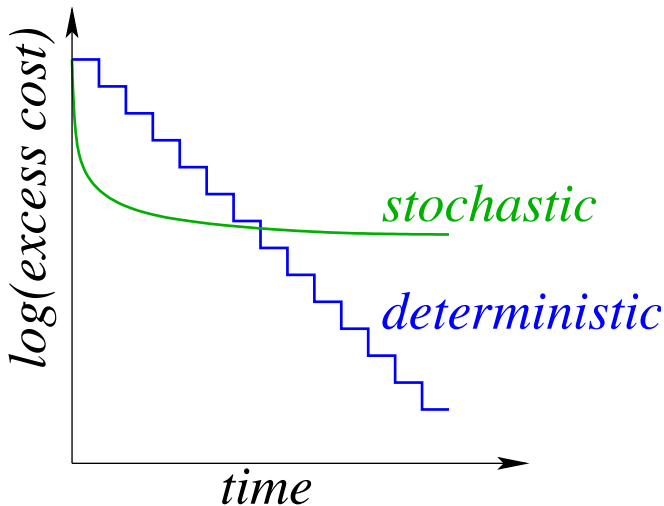
Stochastic iterations are N times faster, but how many iterations?

Assumption	Deterministic	Stochastic
Convex	$O(1/t^2)$	$O(1/\sqrt{t})$
Strongly	$O((1 - \sqrt{\mu/L})^t)$	$O(1/t)$

- Stochastic has **low iteration cost** but **slow convergence rate**.
 - **Sublinear rate even in strongly-convex case.**
 - Bounds are unimprovable if only unbiased gradient available.

Stochastic vs. Deterministic Convergence Rates

Plot of convergence rates in strongly-convex case:



Stochastic will be superior for low-accuracy/time situations.

Stochastic vs. Deterministic for Non-Smooth

- The story changes for **non-smooth** problems.
- Consider the binary support vector machine objective:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \max\{0, 1 - b_i(x^T a_i)\} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|x\|^2.$$

Stochastic vs. Deterministic for Non-Smooth

- The story changes for **non-smooth** problems.
- Consider the binary support vector machine objective:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \max\{0, 1 - b_i(x^T a_i)\} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|x\|^2.$$

- Rates for **subgradient** methods for **non-smooth** objectives:

Assumption	Deterministic	Stochastic
Convex	$O(1/\sqrt{t})$	$O(1/\sqrt{t})$
Strongly	$O(1/t)$	$O(1/t)$

- Other black-box methods (cutting plane) are not faster.

Stochastic vs. Deterministic for Non-Smooth

- The story changes for **non-smooth** problems.
- Consider the binary support vector machine objective:

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \max\{0, 1 - b_i(x^T a_i)\} + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|x\|^2.$$

- Rates for **subgradient** methods for **non-smooth** objectives:

Assumption	Deterministic	Stochastic
Convex	$O(1/\sqrt{t})$	$O(1/\sqrt{t})$
Strongly	$O(1/t)$	$O(1/t)$

- Other black-box methods (cutting plane) are not faster.
- For non-smooth problems:
 - Deterministic methods are **not faster than stochastic method**.
 - So use **stochastic subgradient** (iterations are n times faster).

Sub-Gradients and Sub-Differentials

Recall that for *differentiable* convex functions we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x), \forall x, y.$$

Sub-Gradients and Sub-Differentials

Recall that for *differentiable* convex functions we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x), \forall x, y.$$

A vector d is a *subgradient* of a convex function f at x if

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + d^T (y - x), \forall y.$$

Sub-Gradients and Sub-Differentials

Recall that for *differentiable* convex functions we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x), \forall x, y.$$

A vector d is a *subgradient* of a convex function f at x if

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + d^T (y - x), \forall y.$$

- At differentiable x :
 - Only subgradient is $\nabla f(x)$.
- At non-differentiable x :
 - We have a set of subgradients.
 - Called the *sub-differential*, $\partial f(x)$.
- Note that $0 \in \partial f(x)$ iff x is a global minimum.

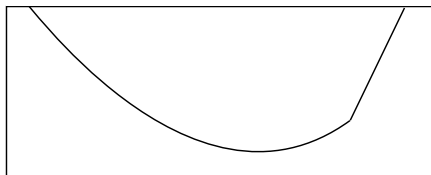
Sub-Gradients and Sub-Differentials

Recall that for *differentiable* convex functions we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x), \forall x, y.$$

A vector d is a *subgradient* of a convex function f at x if

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + d^T (y - x), \forall y.$$



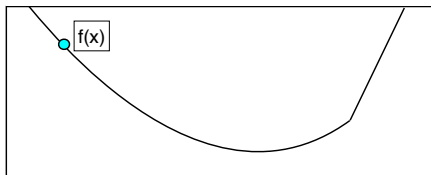
Sub-Gradients and Sub-Differentials

Recall that for *differentiable* convex functions we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x), \forall x, y.$$

A vector d is a *subgradient* of a convex function f at x if

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + d^T (y - x), \forall y.$$



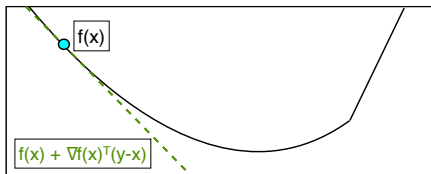
Sub-Gradients and Sub-Differentials

Recall that for *differentiable* convex functions we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x), \forall x, y.$$

A vector d is a *subgradient* of a convex function f at x if

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + d^T (y - x), \forall y.$$



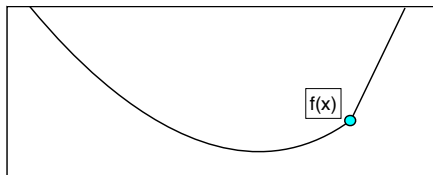
Sub-Gradients and Sub-Differentials

Recall that for *differentiable* convex functions we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x), \forall x, y.$$

A vector d is a *subgradient* of a convex function f at x if

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + d^T (y - x), \forall y.$$



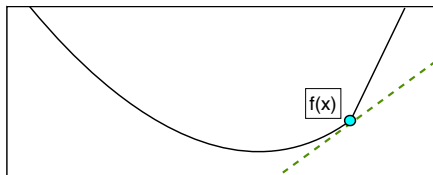
Sub-Gradients and Sub-Differentials

Recall that for *differentiable* convex functions we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x), \forall x, y.$$

A vector d is a *subgradient* of a convex function f at x if

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + d^T (y - x), \forall y.$$



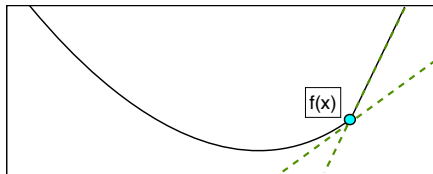
Sub-Gradients and Sub-Differentials

Recall that for *differentiable* convex functions we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x), \forall x, y.$$

A vector d is a *subgradient* of a convex function f at x if

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + d^T (y - x), \forall y.$$



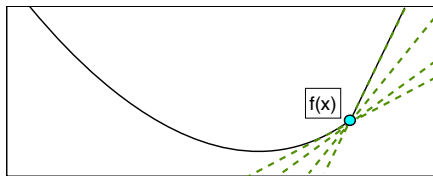
Sub-Gradients and Sub-Differentials

Recall that for *differentiable* convex functions we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x), \forall x, y.$$

A vector d is a *subgradient* of a convex function f at x if

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + d^T (y - x), \forall y.$$



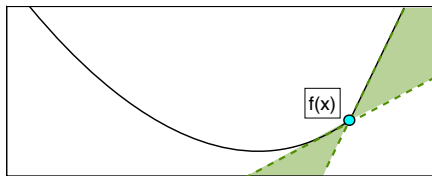
Sub-Gradients and Sub-Differentials

Recall that for *differentiable* convex functions we have

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x), \forall x, y.$$

A vector d is a *subgradient* of a convex function f at x if

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + d^T (y - x), \forall y.$$



Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

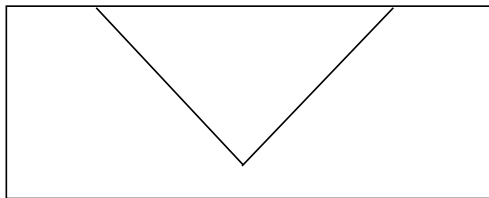
(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)

Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)

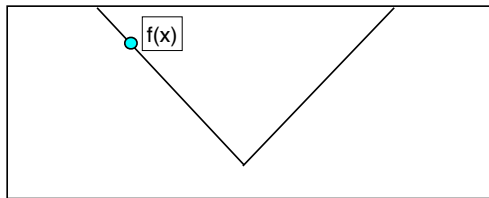


Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)

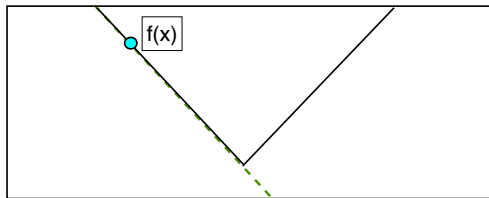


Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)

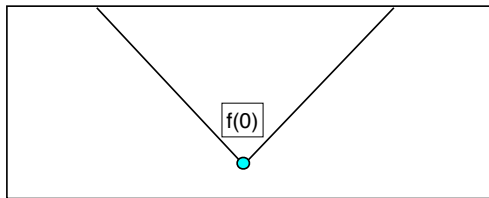


Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)

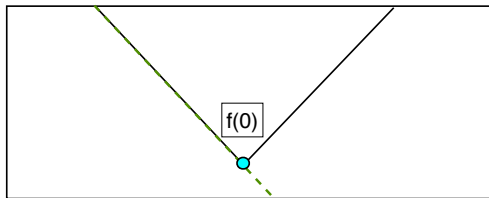


Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)

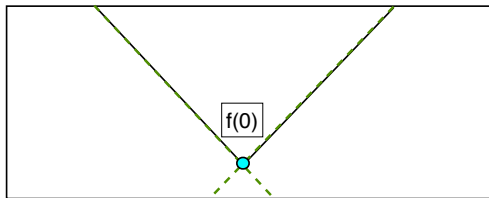


Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)

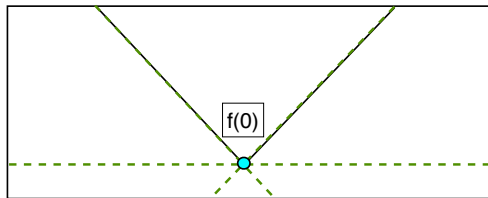


Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)

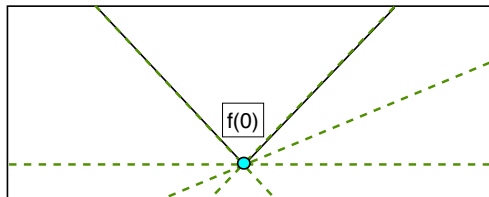


Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)

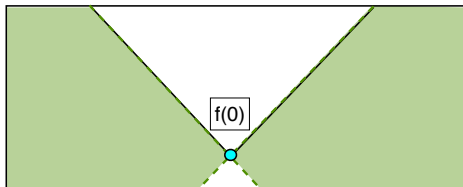


Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)



Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)

- Sub-differential of **max** function:

$$\partial \max\{f_1(x), f_2(x)\} =$$

Sub-Differential of Absolute Value and Max Functions

- Sub-differential of **absolute value** function:

$$\partial|x| = \begin{cases} 1 & x > 0 \\ -1 & x < 0 \\ [-1, 1] & x = 0 \end{cases}$$

(sign of the variable if non-zero, anything in $[-1, 1]$ at 0)

- Sub-differential of **max** function:

$$\partial \max\{f_1(x), f_2(x)\} = \begin{cases} \nabla f_1(x) & f_1(x) > f_2(x) \\ \nabla f_2(x) & f_2(x) > f_1(x) \\ \theta \nabla f_1(x) + (1 - \theta) \nabla f_2(x) & f_1(x) = f_2(x) \end{cases}$$

(any convex combination of the gradients of the argmax)

Subgradient and Stochastic Subgradient methods

- The basic **subgradient method**:

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha d_t,$$

for some $d_t \in \partial f(x^t)$.

Subgradient and Stochastic Subgradient methods

- The basic **subgradient method**:

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha d_t,$$

for some $d_t \in \partial f(x^t)$.

- The *steepest descent* choice is given by $\operatorname{argmin}_{d \in \partial f(x)} \{\|d\|\}$.
(often hard to compute, but **easy for ℓ_1 -regularization**)

Subgradient and Stochastic Subgradient methods

- The basic **subgradient method**:

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha d_t,$$

for some $d_t \in \partial f(x^t)$.

- The *steepest descent* choice is given by $\operatorname{argmin}_{d \in \partial f(x)} \{\|d\|\}$.
(often hard to compute, but **easy for ℓ_1 -regularization**)
- Otherwise, may **increase** the objective even for small α .
- But $\|x^{t+1} - x^*\| \leq \|x^t - x^*\|$ for small enough α .
- For convergence, we require $\alpha \rightarrow 0$.

Subgradient and Stochastic Subgradient methods

- The basic **subgradient method**:

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha d_t,$$

for some $d_t \in \partial f(x^t)$.

- The *steepest descent* choice is given by $\operatorname{argmin}_{d \in \partial f(x)} \{\|d\|\}$.
(often hard to compute, but **easy for ℓ_1 -regularization**)
- Otherwise, may **increase** the objective even for small α .
- But $\|x^{t+1} - x^*\| \leq \|x^t - x^*\|$ for small enough α .
- For convergence, we require $\alpha \rightarrow 0$.
- The basic **stochastic subgradient method**:

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha d_t,$$

for some $d_t \in \partial f_{i_t}(x^t)$ for some random $i_t \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$.

Stochastic Subgradient Methods in Practice

- The theory says to use a method like this:

$$i_t = \text{rand}(1, 2, \dots, N), \quad \alpha_t = \frac{1}{\mu t}$$

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha_t f'_{i_t}(x^t).$$

- $O(1/t)$ for smooth objectives.
- $O(\log(t)/t)$ for non-smooth objectives.

Stochastic Subgradient Methods in Practice

- The theory says to use a method like this:

$$i_t = \text{rand}(1, 2, \dots, N), \quad \alpha_t = \frac{1}{\mu t}$$

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha_t f'_{i_t}(x^t).$$

- $O(1/t)$ for smooth objectives.
- $O(\log(t)/t)$ for non-smooth objectives.
- Except for some special cases, **you should not do this.**
 - Initial steps are huge: usually $\mu = O(1/N)$ or $O(1/\sqrt{N})$.
 - Later steps are tiny: $1/t$ gets small very quickly.
 - Convergence rate is not robust to mis-specification of μ .
 - No adaptation to 'easier' problems than worst case.

Stochastic Subgradient Methods in Practice

- The theory says to use a method like this:

$$i_t = \text{rand}(1, 2, \dots, N), \quad \alpha_t = \frac{1}{\mu t}$$

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \alpha_t f'_{i_t}(x^t).$$

- $O(1/t)$ for smooth objectives.
- $O(\log(t)/t)$ for non-smooth objectives.
- Except for some special cases, **you should not do this.**
 - Initial steps are huge: usually $\mu = O(1/N)$ or $O(1/\sqrt{N})$.
 - Later steps are tiny: $1/t$ gets small very quickly.
 - Convergence rate is not robust to mis-specification of μ .
 - No adaptation to 'easier' problems than worst case.
- **Tricks that can improve theoretical and practical properties:**
 - 1 Use smaller initial step-sizes, that go to zero more slowly.
 - 2 Take a (weighted) average of the iterations or gradients:

$$\bar{x}_t = \sum_{i=1}^t \omega_t x_t, \quad \bar{d}_t = \sum_{i=1}^t \delta_t d_t.$$

Speeding up Stochastic Subgradient Methods

Works that support using large steps and averaging:

- Rakhlin et al. [2011]:
 - **Averaging later iterations** achieves $O(1/t)$ in non-smooth case.
- Nesterov [2007], Xiao [2010]:
 - **Gradient averaging** improves constants ('dual averaging').
 - Finds non-zero variables with sparse regularizers.
- Bach & Moulines [2011]:
 - $\alpha_t = O(1/t^\beta)$ for $\beta \in (0.5, 1)$ more robust than $\alpha_t = O(1/t)$.

Speeding up Stochastic Subgradient Methods

Works that **support using large steps and averaging**:

- Rakhlin et al. [2011]:
 - **Averaging later iterations** achieves $O(1/t)$ in non-smooth case.
- Nesterov [2007], Xiao [2010]:
 - **Gradient averaging** improves constants ('dual averaging').
 - Finds non-zero variables with sparse regularizers.
- Bach & Moulines [2011]:
 - $\alpha_t = O(1/t^\beta)$ for $\beta \in (0.5, 1)$ more robust than $\alpha_t = O(1/t)$.
- Nedic & Bertsekas [2000]:
 - **Constant step size** ($\alpha_t = \alpha$) achieves rate of

$$\mathbb{E}[f(x^t)] - f(x^*) \leq (1 - 2\mu\alpha)^t (f(x^0) - f(x^*)) + O(\alpha).$$

Speeding up Stochastic Subgradient Methods

Works that **support using large steps and averaging**:

- Rakhlin et al. [2011]:
 - **Averaging later iterations** achieves $O(1/t)$ in non-smooth case.
- Nesterov [2007], Xiao [2010]:
 - **Gradient averaging** improves constants ('dual averaging').
 - Finds non-zero variables with sparse regularizers.
- Bach & Moulines [2011]:
 - $\alpha_t = O(1/t^\beta)$ for $\beta \in (0.5, 1)$ more robust than $\alpha_t = O(1/t)$.
- Nedic & Bertsekas [2000]:
 - **Constant step size** ($\alpha_t = \alpha$) achieves rate of

$$\mathbb{E}[f(x^t)] - f(x^*) \leq (1 - 2\mu\alpha)^t (f(x^0) - f(x^*)) + O(\alpha).$$

- Polyak & Juditsky [1992]:
 - In smooth case, **iterate averaging is asymptotically optimal**.
 - Achieves **same rate as optimal stochastic Newton** method.

Stochastic Newton Methods?

- Should we use accelerated/Newton-like stochastic methods?
 - These **do not** improve the convergence rate.

Stochastic Newton Methods?

- Should we use accelerated/Newton-like stochastic methods?
 - These **do not** improve the convergence rate.
- But some positive results exist.
 - Ghadimi & Lan [2010]:
 - Acceleration **can improve dependence on L and μ** .
 - Improves performance at start or if noise is small.
 - Duchi et al. [2010]:
 - Newton-like methods can **improve regret** bounds.
 - Bach & Moulines [2013]:
 - Newton-like method **achieves $O(1/t)$ without strong-convexity**.
(under extra self-concordance assumption)

Outline

- 1 Motivation
- 2 Gradient Method
- 3 Stochastic Subgradient
- 4 Finite-Sum Methods**
- 5 Non-Smooth Objectives

Big-N Problems

- Recall the regularized empirical risk minimization problem:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

Big-N Problems

- Recall the regularized empirical risk minimization problem:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

- Stochastic methods:
 - $O(1/t)$ convergence but requires 1 gradient per iterations.
 - Rates are unimprovable for general stochastic objectives.

Big-N Problems

- Recall the regularized empirical risk minimization problem:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

- Stochastic methods:
 - $O(1/t)$ convergence but requires 1 gradient per iterations.
 - Rates are unimprovable for general stochastic objectives.
- Deterministic methods:
 - $O(\rho^t)$ convergence but requires N gradients per iteration.
 - The faster rate is possible because N is finite.

Big-N Problems

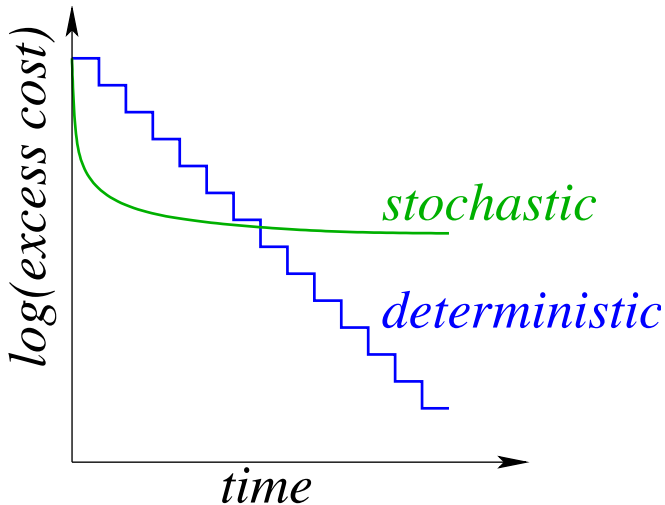
- Recall the regularized empirical risk minimization problem:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

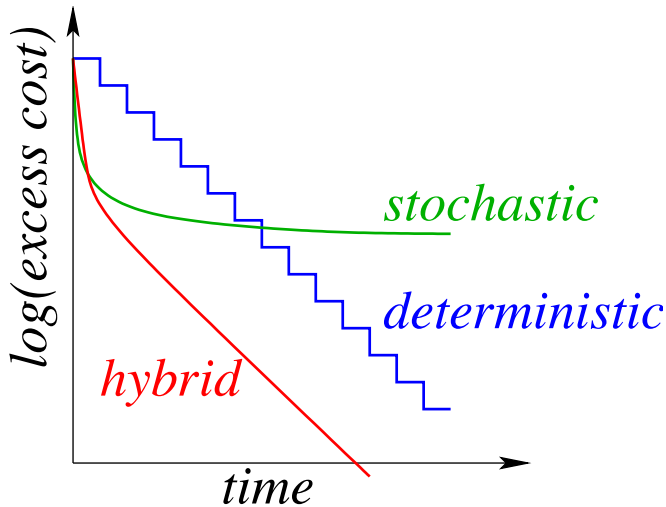
data fitting term + regularizer

- Stochastic methods:
 - $O(1/t)$ convergence but requires 1 gradient per iterations.
 - Rates are unimprovable for general stochastic objectives.
- Deterministic methods:
 - $O(\rho^t)$ convergence but requires N gradients per iteration.
 - The faster rate is possible because N is finite.
- For minimizing finite sums, can we design a better method?

Motivation for Hybrid Methods



Motivation for Hybrid Methods



Hybrid Deterministic-Stochastic

- Approach 1: control the sample size.

Hybrid Deterministic-Stochastic

- Approach 1: **control the sample size.**
- The FG method uses all **N gradients**,

$$\nabla f(x^t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x^t).$$

- The SG method approximates it with **1 sample**,

$$\nabla f_{i_t}(x^t) \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x^t).$$

Hybrid Deterministic-Stochastic

- Approach 1: **control the sample size**.
- The FG method uses all **N gradients**,

$$\nabla f(x^t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x^t).$$

- The SG method approximates it with **1 sample**,

$$\nabla f_{i_t}(x^t) \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x^t).$$

- A common variant is to use **larger sample \mathcal{B}^t** ,

$$\frac{1}{|\mathcal{B}^t|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}^t} \nabla f_i(x^t) \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x^t).$$

Approach 1: Batching

- The SG method with a sample \mathcal{B}^t uses iterations

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \frac{\alpha^t}{|\mathcal{B}^t|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}^t} f_i(x^t).$$

- For a fixed sample size $|\mathcal{B}^t|$, the **rate is sublinear**.

Approach 1: Batching

- The SG method with a sample \mathcal{B}^t uses iterations

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \frac{\alpha^t}{|\mathcal{B}^t|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}^t} f_i(x^t).$$

- For a fixed sample size $|\mathcal{B}^t|$, the **rate is sublinear**.
- **Gradient error decreases as sample size $|\mathcal{B}^t|$ increases.**

Approach 1: Batching

- The SG method with a sample \mathcal{B}^t uses iterations

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \frac{\alpha^t}{|\mathcal{B}^t|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}^t} f_i(x^t).$$

- For a fixed sample size $|\mathcal{B}^t|$, the **rate is sublinear**.
- **Gradient error decreases as sample size $|\mathcal{B}^t|$ increases.**
- Common to **gradually increase the sample size $|\mathcal{B}^t|$.**

[Bertsekas & Tsitsiklis, 1996]

Approach 1: Batching

- The SG method with a sample \mathcal{B}^t uses iterations

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \frac{\alpha^t}{|\mathcal{B}^t|} \sum_{i \in \mathcal{B}^t} f_i(x^t).$$

- For a fixed sample size $|\mathcal{B}^t|$, the **rate is sublinear**.
- **Gradient error decreases as sample size $|\mathcal{B}^t|$ increases.**
- Common to **gradually increase the sample size $|\mathcal{B}^t|$.**
[Bertsekas & Tsitsiklis, 1996]
- We can **choose $|\mathcal{B}^t|$ to achieve a linear convergence rate:**
 - Early iterations are cheap like SG iterations.
 - Later iterations can use a Newton-like method.

Stochastic Average Gradient

- Growing $|\mathcal{B}^t|$ eventually requires $O(N)$ iteration cost.
- Can we have a rate of $O(\rho^t)$ with only 1 gradient evaluation per iteration?

Stochastic Average Gradient

- Growing $|\mathcal{B}^t|$ eventually requires $O(N)$ iteration cost.
- **Can we have a rate of $O(\rho^t)$ with only 1 gradient evaluation per iteration?**
 - YES!

Stochastic Average Gradient

- Growing $|\mathcal{B}^t|$ eventually requires $O(N)$ iteration cost.
- Can we have a rate of $O(\rho^t)$ with only 1 gradient evaluation per iteration?
 - YES! The stochastic average gradient (SAG) algorithm:
 - Randomly select i_t from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ and compute $f'_{i_t}(x^t)$.

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \frac{\alpha^t}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x^t)$$

Stochastic Average Gradient

- Growing $|\mathcal{B}^t|$ eventually requires $O(N)$ iteration cost.
- Can we have a rate of $O(\rho^t)$ with only 1 gradient evaluation per iteration?
 - YES! The stochastic average gradient (SAG) algorithm:
 - Randomly select i_t from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ and compute $f'_{i_t}(x^t)$.

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \frac{\alpha^t}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla f_i(x^t)$$

Stochastic Average Gradient

- Growing $|\mathcal{B}^t|$ eventually requires $O(N)$ iteration cost.
- Can we have a rate of $O(\rho^t)$ with only 1 gradient evaluation per iteration?
 - YES! The stochastic average gradient (SAG) algorithm:
 - Randomly select i_t from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ and compute $f'_{i_t}(x^t)$.

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \frac{\alpha^t}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i^t$$

- **Memory:** $y_i^t = \nabla f_i(x^t)$ from the last t where i was selected.
[Le Roux et al., 2012]

Stochastic Average Gradient

- Growing $|\mathcal{B}^t|$ eventually requires $O(N)$ iteration cost.
- Can we have a rate of $O(\rho^t)$ with only 1 gradient evaluation per iteration?
 - YES! The stochastic average gradient (SAG) algorithm:
 - Randomly select i_t from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ and compute $f'_{i_t}(x^t)$.

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \frac{\alpha^t}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i^t$$

- **Memory:** $y_i^t = \nabla f_i(x^t)$ from the last t where i was selected.
[Le Roux et al., 2012]
 - **Stochastic** variant of increment average gradient (IAG).
[Blatt et al., 2007]

Stochastic Average Gradient

- Growing $|\mathcal{B}^t|$ eventually requires $O(N)$ iteration cost.
- Can we have a rate of $O(\rho^t)$ with only 1 gradient evaluation per iteration?
 - YES! The stochastic average gradient (SAG) algorithm:
 - Randomly select i_t from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$ and compute $f'_{i_t}(x^t)$.

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \frac{\alpha^t}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i^t$$

- **Memory:** $y_i^t = \nabla f_i(x^t)$ from the last t where i was selected.
[Le Roux et al., 2012]
 - **Stochastic** variant of increment average gradient (IAG).
[Blatt et al., 2007]
 - Assumes gradients of non-selected examples don't change.
 - Assumption becomes accurate as $\|x^{t+1} - x^t\| \rightarrow 0$.

Convergence Rate of SAG

- If each f'_i is L -continuous and f is strongly-convex, with $\alpha_t = 1/16L$ SAG has

$$\mathbb{E}[f(x^t) - f(x^*)] \leq \left(1 - \min\left\{\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8N}\right\}\right)^t C,$$

where

$$C = [f(x^0) - f(x^*)] + \frac{4L}{N} \|x^0 - x^*\|^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{16L}.$$

Convergence Rate of SAG

- If each f'_i is L -continuous and f is strongly-convex, with $\alpha_t = 1/16L$ SAG has

$$\mathbb{E}[f(x^t) - f(x^*)] \leq \left(1 - \min\left\{\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8N}\right\}\right)^t C,$$

where

$$C = [f(x^0) - f(x^*)] + \frac{4L}{N} \|x^0 - x^*\|^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{16L}.$$

- **Linear convergence rate but only 1 gradient per iteration.**
 - For well-conditioned problems, constant reduction per pass:

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{8N}\right)^N \leq \exp\left(-\frac{1}{8}\right) = 0.8825.$$

- For ill-conditioned problems, almost same as deterministic method (but N times faster).

Rate of Convergence Comparison

- Assume that $N = 700000$, $L = 0.25$, $\mu = 1/N$:

Rate of Convergence Comparison

- Assume that $N = 700000$, $L = 0.25$, $\mu = 1/N$:
 - Gradient method has rate $\left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^2 = 0.99998$.

Rate of Convergence Comparison

- Assume that $N = 700000$, $L = 0.25$, $\mu = 1/N$:
 - Gradient method has rate $\left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^2 = 0.99998$.
 - Accelerated gradient method has rate $(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}) = 0.99761$.

Rate of Convergence Comparison

- Assume that $N = 700000$, $L = 0.25$, $\mu = 1/N$:
 - Gradient method has rate $\left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^2 = 0.99998$.
 - Accelerated gradient method has rate $(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}) = 0.99761$.
 - SAG (N iterations) has rate $(1 - \min\{\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8N}\})^N = 0.88250$.

Rate of Convergence Comparison

- Assume that $N = 700000$, $L = 0.25$, $\mu = 1/N$:
 - Gradient method has rate $\left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^2 = 0.99998$.
 - Accelerated gradient method has rate $(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}) = 0.99761$.
 - **SAG (N iterations) has rate $(1 - \min\{\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8N}\})^N = 0.88250$.**
 - *Fastest possible* first-order method: $\left(\frac{\sqrt{L}-\sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L}+\sqrt{\mu}}\right)^2 = 0.99048$.

Rate of Convergence Comparison

- Assume that $N = 700000$, $L = 0.25$, $\mu = 1/N$:
 - Gradient method has rate $\left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^2 = 0.99998$.
 - Accelerated gradient method has rate $(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}) = 0.99761$.
 - SAG (N iterations) has rate $(1 - \min\{\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8N}\})^N = 0.88250$.**
 - Fastest possible* first-order method: $\left(\frac{\sqrt{L}-\sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L}+\sqrt{\mu}}\right)^2 = 0.99048$.
- SAG beats two lower bounds:**
 - Stochastic gradient bound (of $O(1/t)$).
 - Deterministic gradient bound (for typical L , μ , and N).

Rate of Convergence Comparison

- Assume that $N = 700000$, $L = 0.25$, $\mu = 1/N$:
 - Gradient method has rate $\left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^2 = 0.99998$.
 - Accelerated gradient method has rate $(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}) = 0.99761$.
 - **SAG (N iterations) has rate $(1 - \min\{\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8N}\})^N = 0.88250$.**
 - *Fastest possible* first-order method: $\left(\frac{\sqrt{L}-\sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L}+\sqrt{\mu}}\right)^2 = 0.99048$.
- **SAG beats two lower bounds:**
 - Stochastic gradient bound (of $O(1/t)$).
 - Deterministic gradient bound (for typical L , μ , and N).
- Number of f'_i evaluations to reach ϵ :

Rate of Convergence Comparison

- Assume that $N = 700000$, $L = 0.25$, $\mu = 1/N$:
 - Gradient method has rate $\left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^2 = 0.99998$.
 - Accelerated gradient method has rate $(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}) = 0.99761$.
 - **SAG (N iterations) has rate $(1 - \min\{\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8N}\})^N = 0.88250$.**
 - *Fastest possible* first-order method: $\left(\frac{\sqrt{L}-\sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L}+\sqrt{\mu}}\right)^2 = 0.99048$.
- **SAG beats two lower bounds:**
 - Stochastic gradient bound (of $O(1/t)$).
 - Deterministic gradient bound (for typical L , μ , and N).
- Number of f'_i evaluations to reach ϵ :
 - Stochastic: $O(\frac{L}{\mu}(1/\epsilon))$.

Rate of Convergence Comparison

- Assume that $N = 700000$, $L = 0.25$, $\mu = 1/N$:
 - Gradient method has rate $\left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^2 = 0.99998$.
 - Accelerated gradient method has rate $(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}) = 0.99761$.
 - SAG (N iterations) has rate $(1 - \min\{\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8N}\})^N = 0.88250$.
 - *Fastest possible* first-order method: $\left(\frac{\sqrt{L}-\sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L}+\sqrt{\mu}}\right)^2 = 0.99048$.
- SAG beats two lower bounds:
 - Stochastic gradient bound (of $O(1/t)$).
 - Deterministic gradient bound (for typical L , μ , and N).
- Number of f'_i evaluations to reach ϵ :
 - Stochastic: $O(\frac{L}{\mu}(1/\epsilon))$.
 - Gradient: $O(N\frac{L}{\mu} \log(1/\epsilon))$.

Rate of Convergence Comparison

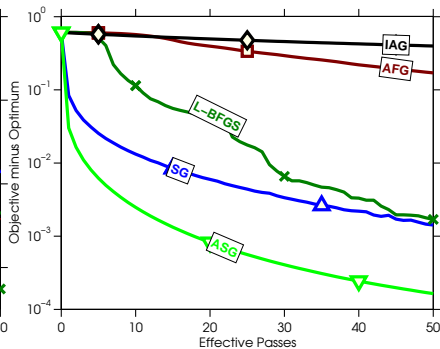
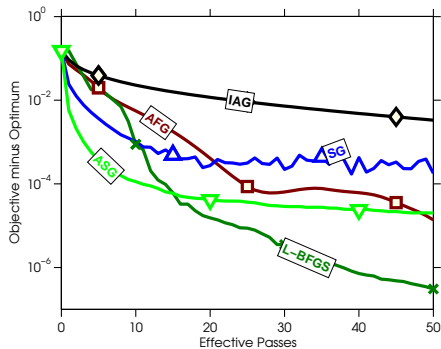
- Assume that $N = 700000$, $L = 0.25$, $\mu = 1/N$:
 - Gradient method has rate $\left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^2 = 0.99998$.
 - Accelerated gradient method has rate $(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}) = 0.99761$.
 - **SAG (N iterations) has rate $(1 - \min\{\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8N}\})^N = 0.88250$.**
 - *Fastest possible* first-order method: $\left(\frac{\sqrt{L}-\sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L}+\sqrt{\mu}}\right)^2 = 0.99048$.
- **SAG beats two lower bounds:**
 - Stochastic gradient bound (of $O(1/t)$).
 - Deterministic gradient bound (for typical L , μ , and N).
- Number of f'_i evaluations to reach ϵ :
 - Stochastic: $O(\frac{L}{\mu}(1/\epsilon))$.
 - Gradient: $O(N\frac{L}{\mu}\log(1/\epsilon))$.
 - Accelerated: $O(N\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}}\log(1/\epsilon))$.

Rate of Convergence Comparison

- Assume that $N = 700000$, $L = 0.25$, $\mu = 1/N$:
 - Gradient method has rate $\left(\frac{L-\mu}{L+\mu}\right)^2 = 0.99998$.
 - Accelerated gradient method has rate $(1 - \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}) = 0.99761$.
 - SAG (N iterations) has rate $(1 - \min\{\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8N}\})^N = 0.88250$.**
 - Fastest possible* first-order method: $\left(\frac{\sqrt{L}-\sqrt{\mu}}{\sqrt{L}+\sqrt{\mu}}\right)^2 = 0.99048$.
- SAG beats two lower bounds:**
 - Stochastic gradient bound (of $O(1/t)$).
 - Deterministic gradient bound (for typical L , μ , and N).
- Number of f'_i evaluations to reach ϵ :
 - Stochastic: $O(\frac{L}{\mu}(1/\epsilon))$.
 - Gradient: $O(N\frac{L}{\mu}\log(1/\epsilon))$.
 - Accelerated: $O(N\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}}\log(1/\epsilon))$.
 - SAG: $O(\max\{N, \frac{L}{\mu}\}\log(1/\epsilon))$.**

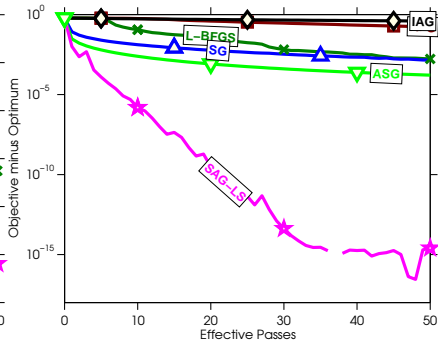
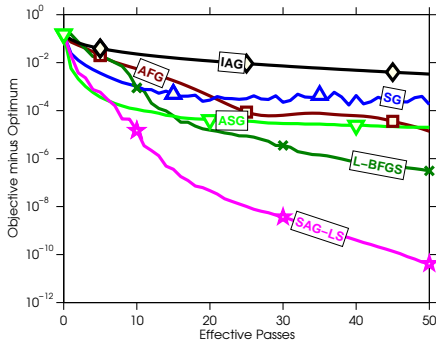
Comparing Deterministic and Stochastic Methods

- quantum ($n = 50000$, $p = 78$) and rcv1 ($n = 697641$, $p = 47236$)



SAG Compared to FG and SG Methods

- quantum ($n = 50000$, $p = 78$) and rcv1 ($n = 697641$, $p = 47236$)



Other Linearly-Convergent Stochastic Methods

- Subsequent stochastic algorithms with linear rates:
 - Stochastic dual coordinate ascent [Shalev-Schwartz & Zhang, 2013]
 - Incremental surrogate optimization [Mairal, 2013].
 - **Stochastic variance-reduced gradient (SVRG)**
[Johnson & Zhang, 2013, Konecny & Richtarik, 2013, Mahdavi et al., 2013, Zhang et al., 2013]
 - SAGA [Defazio et al., 2014]

Other Linearly-Convergent Stochastic Methods

- Subsequent stochastic algorithms with linear rates:
 - Stochastic dual coordinate ascent [Shalev-Schwartz & Zhang, 2013]
 - Incremental surrogate optimization [Mairal, 2013].
 - **Stochastic variance-reduced gradient (SVRG)**
[Johnson & Zhang, 2013, Konecny & Richtarik, 2013, Mahdavi et al., 2013, Zhang et al., 2013]
 - SAGA [Defazio et al., 2014]
- **SVRG has a much lower memory requirement** (later in talk).
- There are also non-smooth extensions (last part of talk).

SAG Implementation Issues

- Basic SAG algorithm:
 - while(1)
 - Sample i from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$.
 - Compute $f'_i(x)$.
 - $d = d - y_i + f'_i(x)$.
 - $y_i = f'_i(x)$.
 - $x = x - \frac{\alpha}{N}d$.

SAG Implementation Issues

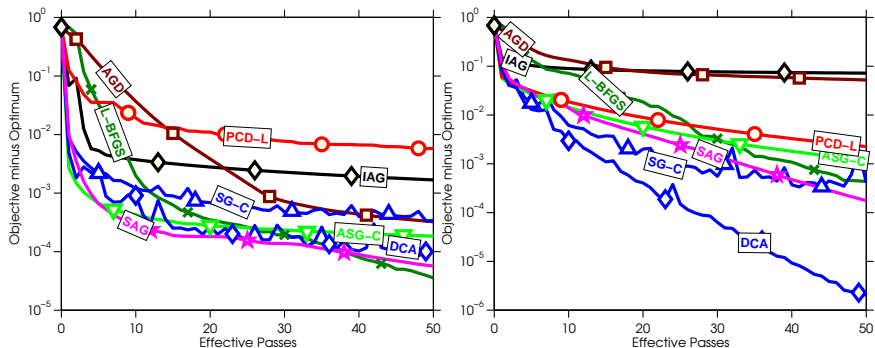
- Basic SAG algorithm:
 - while(1)
 - Sample i from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$.
 - Compute $f'_i(x)$.
 - $d = d - y_i + f'_i(x)$.
 - $y_i = f'_i(x)$.
 - $x = x - \frac{\alpha}{N}d$.
- Practical variants of the basic algorithm allow:
 - Regularization.
 - Sparse gradients.
 - Automatic step-size selection.
 - Termination criterion.
 - Acceleration [Lin et al., 2015].

SAG Implementation Issues

- Basic SAG algorithm:
 - while(1)
 - Sample i from $\{1, 2, \dots, N\}$.
 - Compute $f'_i(x)$.
 - $d = d - y_i + f'_i(x)$.
 - $y_i = f'_i(x)$.
 - $x = x - \frac{\alpha}{N}d$.
- Practical variants of the basic algorithm allow:
 - Regularization.
 - Sparse gradients.
 - Automatic step-size selection.
 - Termination criterion.
 - Acceleration [Lin et al., 2015].
 - **Adaptive non-uniform sampling** [Schmidt et al., 2013]:
 - Sample gradients that change quickly more often.

SAG with Adaptive Non-Uniform Sampling

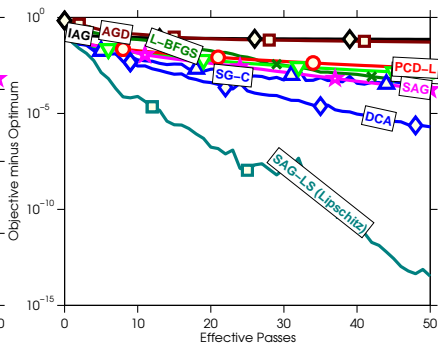
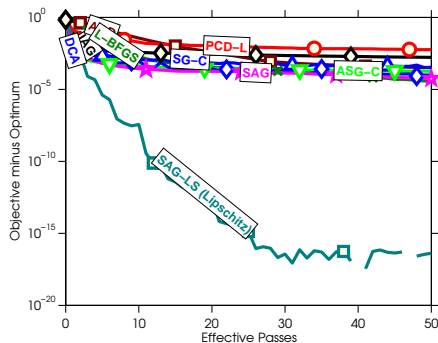
- protein ($n = 145751$, $p = 74$) and sido ($n = 12678$, $p = 4932$)



- Datasets where SAG had the worst relative performance.

SAG with Non-Uniform Sampling

- protein ($n = 145751$, $p = 74$) and sido ($n = 12678$, $p = 4932$)



- Adaptive Lipschitz sampling helps a lot.

Minimizing Finite Sums: Dealing with the Memory

- A major disadvantage of SAG is the **memory requirement**.

Minimizing Finite Sums: Dealing with the Memory

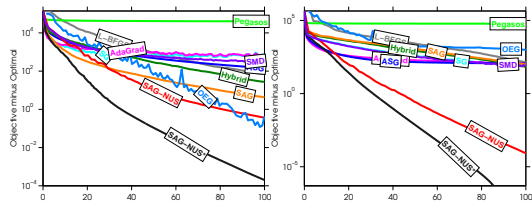
- A major disadvantage of SAG is the **memory requirement**.
- There are several ways to avoid this:
 - Use **mini-batches** (only store gradient of the mini-batch).

Minimizing Finite Sums: Dealing with the Memory

- A major disadvantage of SAG is the **memory requirement**.
- There are several ways to avoid this:
 - Use **mini-batches** (only store gradient of the mini-batch).
 - Use structure in the objective:
 - For $f_i(x) = L(a_i^T x)$, only need to store N values of $a_i^T x$.

Minimizing Finite Sums: Dealing with the Memory

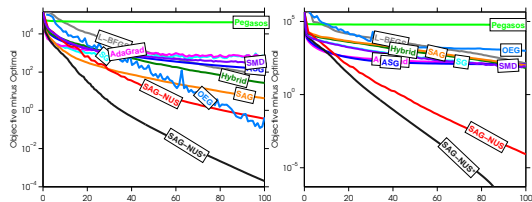
- A major disadvantage of SAG is the **memory requirement**.
- There are several ways to avoid this:
 - Use **mini-batches** (only store gradient of the mini-batch).
 - Use structure in the objective:
 - For $f_i(x) = L(a_i^T x)$, only need to store N values of $a_i^T x$.
 - For CRFs, only need to store marginals of parts.



(optical character and named-entity recognition tasks)

Minimizing Finite Sums: Dealing with the Memory

- A major disadvantage of SAG is the **memory requirement**.
- There are several ways to avoid this:
 - Use **mini-batches** (only store gradient of the mini-batch).
 - Use structure in the objective:
 - For $f_i(x) = L(a_i^T x)$, only need to store N values of $a_i^T x$.
 - For CRFs, only need to store marginals of parts.



(optical character and named-entity recognition tasks)

- If the above don't work, use **SVRG**...

Stochastic Variance-Reduced Gradient

SVRG algorithm:

- Start with x_0
- for $s = 0, 1, 2 \dots$
 - $d_s = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f'_i(x_s)$
 - $x^0 = x_s$

Stochastic Variance-Reduced Gradient

SVRG algorithm:

- Start with x_0
- for $s = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
 - $d_s = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f'_i(x_s)$
 - $x^0 = x_s$
 - for $t = 1, 2, \dots, m$
 - Randomly pick $i_t \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$
 - $x^t = x^{t-1} - \alpha_t (f'_{i_t}(x^{t-1}) - f'_{i_t}(x_s) + d_s)$.
 - $x_{s+1} = x^t$ for random $t \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$.

Stochastic Variance-Reduced Gradient

SVRG algorithm:

- Start with x_0
- for $s = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
 - $d_s = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N f'_i(x_s)$
 - $x^0 = x_s$
 - for $t = 1, 2, \dots, m$
 - Randomly pick $i_t \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$
 - $x^t = x^{t-1} - \alpha_t (f'_{i_t}(x^{t-1}) - f'_{i_t}(x_s) + d_s)$.
 - $x_{s+1} = x^t$ for random $t \in \{1, 2, \dots, m\}$.

Requires **2 gradients per iteration and occasional full passes**,
but **only requires storing d_s and x_s** .

Outline

- 1 Motivation
- 2 Gradient Method
- 3 Stochastic Subgradient
- 4 Finite-Sum Methods
- 5 Non-Smooth Objectives**

Motivation: Sparse Regularization

- Recall the regularized empirical risk minimization problem:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

- Often, regularizer r is used to encourage sparsity pattern in x .

Motivation: Sparse Regularization

- Recall the regularized empirical risk minimization problem:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

- Often, regularizer r is used to encourage sparsity pattern in x .
- For example, ℓ_1 -regularized least squares,

$$\min_x \|Ax - b\|^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1$$

- Regularizes and encourages sparsity in x

Motivation: Sparse Regularization

- Recall the regularized empirical risk minimization problem:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) \quad + \quad \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

- Often, regularizer r is used to encourage sparsity pattern in x .
- For example, ℓ_1 -regularized least squares,

$$\min_x \|Ax - b\|^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1$$

- Regularizes and encourages sparsity in x
- The objective is **non-differentiable** when any $x_i = 0$.
- Subgradient methods are optimal (slow) black-box methods.

Motivation: Sparse Regularization

- Recall the regularized empirical risk minimization problem:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^P} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(x, a_i, b_i) + \lambda r(x)$$

data fitting term + regularizer

- Often, regularizer r is used to encourage sparsity pattern in x .
- For example, ℓ_1 -regularized least squares,

$$\min_x \|Ax - b\|^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1$$

- Regularizes and encourages sparsity in x
- The objective is **non-differentiable** when any $x_i = 0$.
- Subgradient methods are optimal (slow) black-box methods.
- Faster methods for specific non-smooth problems?

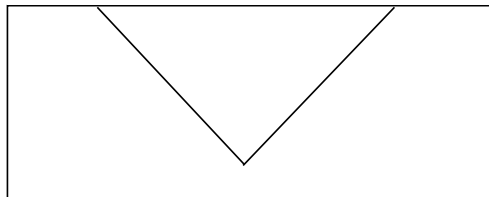
Smoothing Approximations of Non-Smooth Functions

- Smoothing: replace non-smooth f with smooth f_ϵ .
- Apply a fast method for smooth optimization.

Smoothing Approximations of Non-Smooth Functions

- Smoothing: replace non-smooth f with smooth f_ϵ .
- Apply a fast method for smooth optimization.
- Smooth approximation to the absolute value:

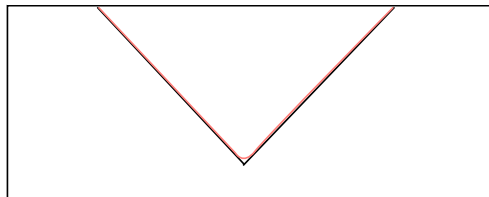
$$|x| \approx \sqrt{x^2 + \nu}.$$



Smoothing Approximations of Non-Smooth Functions

- Smoothing: replace non-smooth f with smooth f_ϵ .
- Apply a fast method for smooth optimization.
- Smooth approximation to the absolute value:

$$|x| \approx \sqrt{x^2 + \nu}.$$



Smoothing Approximations of Non-Smooth Functions

- Smoothing: replace non-smooth f with smooth f_ϵ .
- Apply a fast method for smooth optimization.
- Smooth approximation to the absolute value:

$$|x| \approx \sqrt{x^2 + \nu}.$$

- Smooth approximation to the max function:

$$\max\{a, b\} \approx \log(\exp(a) + \exp(b))$$

- Smooth approximation to the hinge loss:

$$\max\{0, x\} \approx \begin{cases} 0 & x \geq 1 \\ 1 - x^2 & t < x < 1 \\ (1 - t)^2 + 2(1 - t)(t - x) & x \leq t \end{cases}$$

Smoothing Approximations of Non-Smooth Functions

- Smoothing: replace non-smooth f with smooth f_ϵ .
- Apply a fast method for smooth optimization.
- Smooth approximation to the absolute value:

$$|x| \approx \sqrt{x^2 + \nu}.$$

- Smooth approximation to the max function:

$$\max\{a, b\} \approx \log(\exp(a) + \exp(b))$$

- Smooth approximation to the hinge loss:

$$\max\{0, x\} \approx \begin{cases} 0 & x \geq 1 \\ 1 - x^2 & t < x < 1 \\ (1 - t)^2 + 2(1 - t)(t - x) & x \leq t \end{cases}$$

- Generic smoothing strategy: strongly-convex regularization of convex conjugate. [Nesterov, 2005]

Discussion of Smoothing Approach

- Nesterov [2005] shows that:
 - Gradient method on smoothed problem has $O(1/\sqrt{t})$ subgradient rate.
 - Accelerated gradient method has faster $O(1/t)$ rate.

Discussion of Smoothing Approach

- Nesterov [2005] shows that:
 - Gradient method on smoothed problem has $O(1/\sqrt{t})$ subgradient rate.
 - Accelerated gradient method has faster $O(1/t)$ rate.
- In practice:
 - Slowly decrease level of smoothing (often difficult to tune).
 - Use faster algorithms like L-BFGS, SAG, or SVRG.

Discussion of Smoothing Approach

- Nesterov [2005] shows that:
 - Gradient method on smoothed problem has $O(1/\sqrt{t})$ subgradient rate.
 - Accelerated gradient method has faster $O(1/t)$ rate.
- In practice:
 - Slowly decrease level of smoothing (often difficult to tune).
 - Use faster algorithms like L-BFGS, SAG, or SVRG.
- You can get the $O(1/t)$ rate for $\min_x \max\{f_i(x)\}$ for f_i convex and smooth using *mirror-prox* method.[Nemirovski, 2004]
 - See also Chambolle & Pock [2010].

Converting to Constrained Optimization

- Re-write non-smooth problem as constrained problem.

Converting to Constrained Optimization

- Re-write non-smooth problem as constrained problem.
- The problem

$$\min_x f(x) + \lambda \|x\|_1,$$

is equivalent to the problem

$$\min_{x^+ \geq 0, x^- \geq 0} f(x^+ - x^-) + \lambda \sum_i (x_i^+ + x_i^-),$$

or the problems

$$\min_{-y \leq x \leq y} f(x) + \lambda \sum_i y_i, \quad \min_{\|x\|_1 \leq \gamma} f(x) + \lambda \gamma$$

Converting to Constrained Optimization

- Re-write non-smooth problem as constrained problem.
- The problem

$$\min_x f(x) + \lambda \|x\|_1,$$

is equivalent to the problem

$$\min_{x^+ \geq 0, x^- \geq 0} f(x^+ - x^-) + \lambda \sum_i (x_i^+ + x_i^-),$$

or the problems

$$\min_{-y \leq x \leq y} f(x) + \lambda \sum_i y_i, \quad \min_{\|x\|_1 \leq \gamma} f(x) + \lambda \gamma$$

- These are **smooth objective with 'simple' constraints**.

$$\min_{x \in \mathcal{C}} f(x).$$

Optimization with Simple Constraints

- Recall: gradient descent minimizes quadratic approximation:

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_y \left\{ f(x^t) + \nabla f(x^t)^T (y - x^t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha_t} \|y - x^t\|^2 \right\}.$$

Optimization with Simple Constraints

- Recall: gradient descent minimizes quadratic approximation:

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_y \left\{ f(x^t) + \nabla f(x^t)^T (y - x^t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha_t} \|y - x^t\|^2 \right\}.$$

- Consider minimizing subject to simple constraints:

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ f(x^t) + \nabla f(x^t)^T (y - x^t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha_t} \|y - x^t\|^2 \right\}.$$

Optimization with Simple Constraints

- Recall: gradient descent minimizes quadratic approximation:

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_y \left\{ f(x^t) + \nabla f(x^t)^T (y - x^t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha_t} \|y - x^t\|^2 \right\}.$$

- Consider minimizing subject to simple constraints:

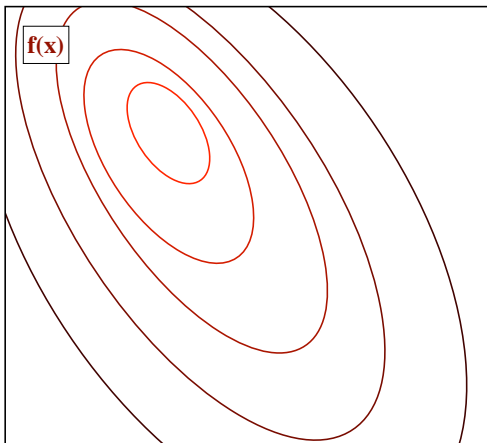
$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ f(x^t) + \nabla f(x^t)^T (y - x^t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha_t} \|y - x^t\|^2 \right\}.$$

- Equivalent to **projection** of gradient descent:

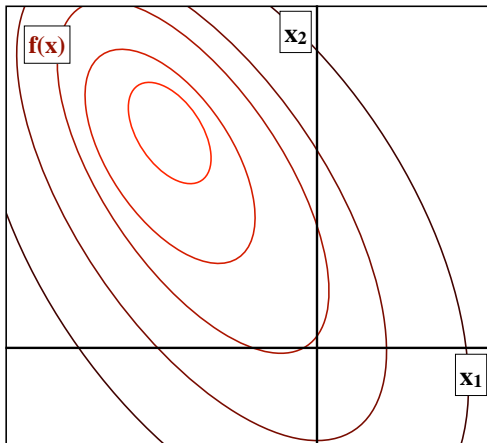
$$x_t^{GD} = x^t - \alpha_t \nabla f(x^t),$$

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ \|y - x_t^{GD}\| \right\},$$

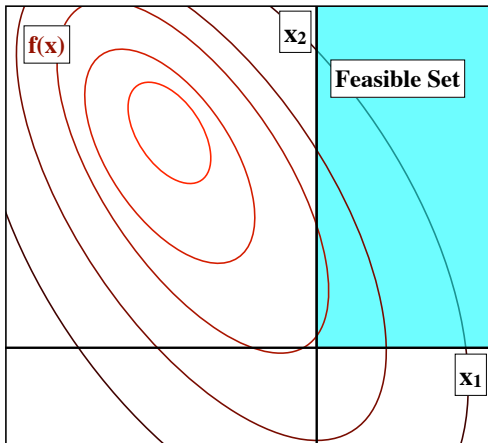
Gradient Projection



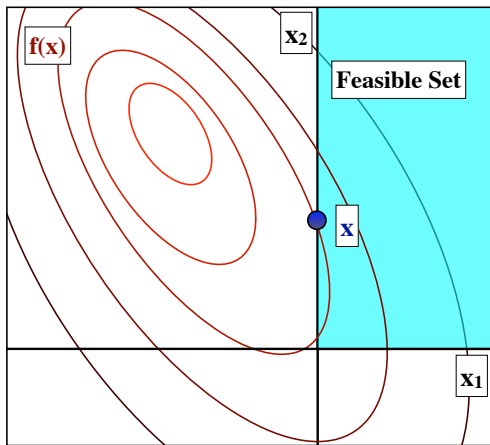
Gradient Projection



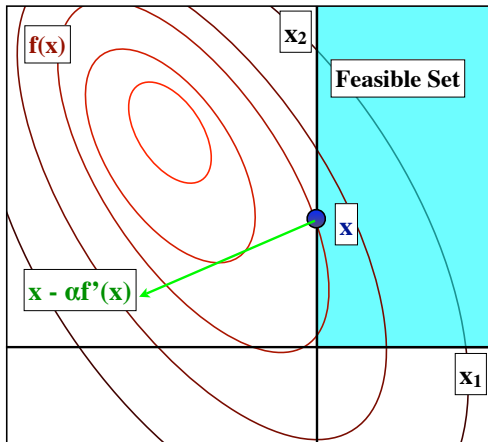
Gradient Projection



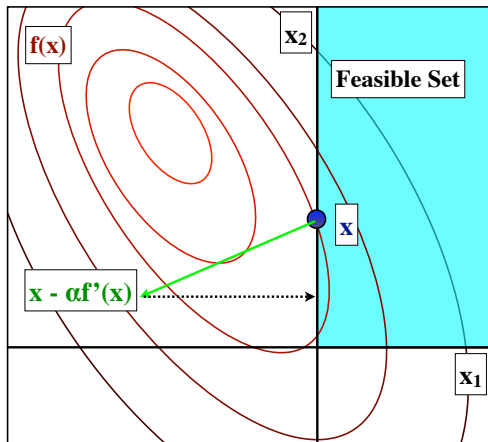
Gradient Projection



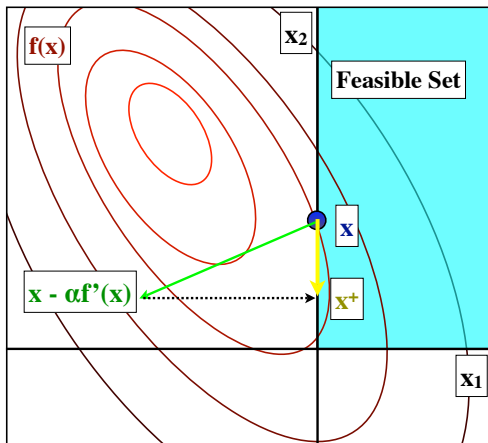
Gradient Projection



Gradient Projection



Gradient Projection



Discussion of Projected Gradient

- Projected gradient has same rate as gradient method!

Discussion of Projected Gradient

- Projected gradient has same rate as gradient method!
- Can do many of the same tricks (i.e. line-search, acceleration, Barzilai-Borwein, SAG, SVRG).

Discussion of Projected Gradient

- Projected gradient has same rate as gradient method!
- Can do many of the same tricks (i.e. line-search, acceleration, Barzilai-Borwein, SAG, SVRG).
- For projected Newton, you need to do an expensive projection under $\|\cdot\|_{H_t}$.
 - Two-metric projection methods are efficient Newton-like strategy for bound constraints.
 - Inexact Newton methods allow Newton-like strategy for optimizing costly functions with simple constraints.

Projection Onto Simple Sets

Projections onto simple sets:

- $\operatorname{argmin}_{y \geq 0} \|y - x\| = \max\{x, 0\}$
- $\operatorname{argmin}_{l \leq y \leq u} \|y - x\| = \max\{l, \min\{x, u\}\}$
- $\operatorname{argmin}_{a^T y = b} \|y - x\| = x + (b - a^T x)a/\|a\|^2.$
- $\operatorname{argmin}_{a^T y \geq b} \|y - x\| = \begin{cases} x & a^T x \geq b \\ x + (b - a^T x)a/\|a\|^2 & a^T x < b \end{cases}$
- $\operatorname{argmin}_{\|y\| \leq \tau} \|y - x\| = \tau x/\|x\|.$
- Linear-time algorithm for ℓ_1 -norm $\|y\|_1 \leq \tau.$
- Linear-time algorithm for probability simplex $y \geq 0, \sum y = 1.$

Projection Onto Simple Sets

Projections onto simple sets:

- $\operatorname{argmin}_{y \geq 0} \|y - x\| = \max\{x, 0\}$
- $\operatorname{argmin}_{l \leq y \leq u} \|y - x\| = \max\{l, \min\{x, u\}\}$
- $\operatorname{argmin}_{a^T y = b} \|y - x\| = x + (b - a^T x)a / \|a\|^2.$
- $\operatorname{argmin}_{a^T y \geq b} \|y - x\| = \begin{cases} x & a^T x \geq b \\ x + (b - a^T x)a / \|a\|^2 & a^T x < b \end{cases}$
- $\operatorname{argmin}_{\|y\| \leq \tau} \|y - x\| = \tau x / \|x\|.$
- Linear-time algorithm for ℓ_1 -norm $\|y\|_1 \leq \tau.$
- Linear-time algorithm for probability simplex $y \geq 0, \sum y = 1.$
- Intersection of simple sets: Dykstra's algorithm.

We can solve large instances of problems with these constraints.

Proximal-Gradient Method

- A generalization of projected-gradient is **Proximal-gradient**.
- The proximal-gradient method addresses problem of the form

$$\min_x f(x) + r(x),$$

where f is smooth but r is a general convex function.

Proximal-Gradient Method

- A generalization of projected-gradient is **Proximal-gradient**.
- The proximal-gradient method addresses problem of the form

$$\min_x f(x) + r(x),$$

where f is smooth but r is a general convex function.

- Applies **proximity** operator of r to gradient descent on f :

$$x_t^{GD} = x^t - \alpha_t \nabla f(x_t),$$

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_y \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|y - x_t^{GD}\|^2 + \alpha r(y) \right\},$$

Proximal-Gradient Method

- A generalization of projected-gradient is **Proximal-gradient**.
- The proximal-gradient method addresses problem of the form

$$\min_x f(x) + r(x),$$

where f is smooth but r is a general convex function.

- Applies **proximity** operator of r to gradient descent on f :

$$x_t^{GD} = x^t - \alpha_t \nabla f(x_t),$$

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_y \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \|y - x_t^{GD}\|^2 + \alpha r(y) \right\},$$

- Equivalent to using the approximation

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_y \left\{ f(x^t) + \nabla f(x^t)^T (y - x^t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha} \|y - x^t\|^2 + r(y) \right\}.$$

- **Convergence rates are still the same as for minimizing f .**

Proximal Operator, Iterative Soft Thresholding

- The proximal operator is the solution to

$$\text{prox}_r[y] = \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^P}{\text{argmin}} \ r(x) + \frac{1}{2} \|x - y\|^2.$$

Proximal Operator, Iterative Soft Thresholding

- The **proximal operator** is the solution to

$$\text{prox}_r[y] = \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^P}{\text{argmin}} \quad r(x) + \frac{1}{2} \|x - y\|^2.$$

- For L1-regularization, we obtain **iterative soft-thresholding**:

$$x^{t+1} = \text{softThresh}_{\alpha\lambda}[x^t - \alpha \nabla f(x^t)].$$

Proximal Operator, Iterative Soft Thresholding

- The **proximal operator** is the solution to

$$\text{prox}_r[y] = \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^P}{\text{argmin}} \quad r(x) + \frac{1}{2} \|x - y\|^2.$$

- For L1-regularization, we obtain **iterative soft-thresholding**:

$$x^{t+1} = \text{softThresh}_{\alpha\lambda}[x^t - \alpha \nabla f(x^t)].$$

- Example with $\lambda = 1$:

Input

Threshold

Soft-Threshold

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0.6715 \\ -1.2075 \\ 0.7172 \\ 1.6302 \\ 0.4889 \end{bmatrix}$$

Proximal Operator, Iterative Soft Thresholding

- The **proximal operator** is the solution to

$$\text{prox}_r[y] = \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^P}{\text{argmin}} \quad r(x) + \frac{1}{2} \|x - y\|^2.$$

- For L1-regularization, we obtain **iterative soft-thresholding**:

$$x^{t+1} = \text{softThresh}_{\alpha\lambda}[x^t - \alpha \nabla f(x^t)].$$

- Example with $\lambda = 1$:

Input	Threshold	Soft-Threshold
$\begin{bmatrix} 0.6715 \\ -1.2075 \\ 0.7172 \\ 1.6302 \\ 0.4889 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1.2075 \\ 0 \\ 1.6302 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$	

Proximal Operator, Iterative Soft Thresholding

- The **proximal operator** is the solution to

$$\text{prox}_r[y] = \underset{x \in \mathbb{R}^P}{\text{argmin}} \quad r(x) + \frac{1}{2} \|x - y\|^2.$$

- For L1-regularization, we obtain **iterative soft-thresholding**:

$$x^{t+1} = \text{softThresh}_{\alpha\lambda}[x^t - \alpha \nabla f(x^t)].$$

- Example with $\lambda = 1$:

Input	Threshold	Soft-Threshold
$\begin{bmatrix} 0.6715 \\ -1.2075 \\ 0.7172 \\ 1.6302 \\ 0.4889 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1.2075 \\ 0 \\ 1.6302 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$	$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -0.2075 \\ 0 \\ 0.6302 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$

Special case of Projected-Gradient Methods

- **Projected-gradient** methods are another special case:

$$r(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{C} \\ \infty & \text{if } x \notin \mathcal{C} \end{cases},$$

Special case of Projected-Gradient Methods

- **Projected-gradient** methods are another special case:

$$r(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{C} \\ \infty & \text{if } x \notin \mathcal{C} \end{cases},$$

gives

$$x^{t+1} = \text{project}_{\mathcal{C}}[x^t - \alpha \nabla f(x^t)],$$

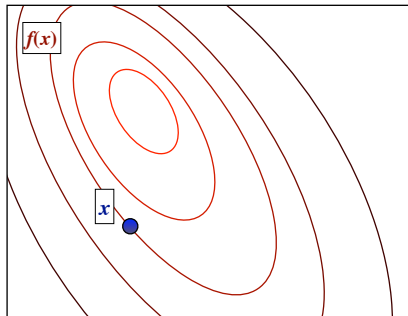
Special case of Projected-Gradient Methods

- **Projected-gradient** methods are another special case:

$$r(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{C} \\ \infty & \text{if } x \notin \mathcal{C} \end{cases},$$

gives

$$x^{t+1} = \text{project}_{\mathcal{C}}[x^t - \alpha \nabla f(x^t)],$$



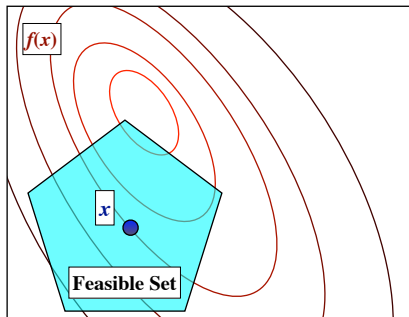
Special case of Projected-Gradient Methods

- **Projected-gradient** methods are another special case:

$$r(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{C} \\ \infty & \text{if } x \notin \mathcal{C} \end{cases},$$

gives

$$x^{t+1} = \text{project}_{\mathcal{C}}[x^t - \alpha \nabla f(x^t)],$$



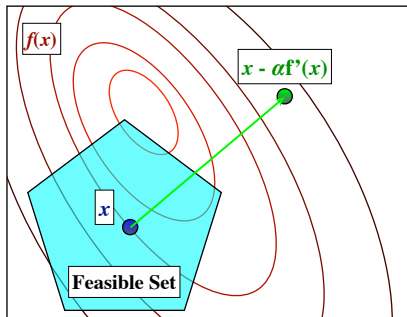
Special case of Projected-Gradient Methods

- **Projected-gradient** methods are another special case:

$$r(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{C} \\ \infty & \text{if } x \notin \mathcal{C} \end{cases},$$

gives

$$x^{t+1} = \text{project}_{\mathcal{C}}[x^t - \alpha \nabla f(x^t)],$$



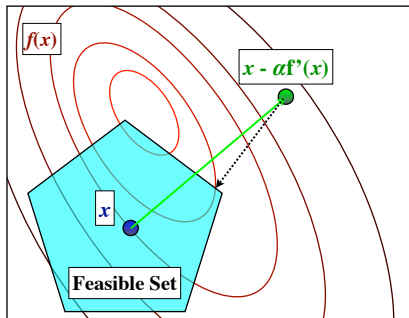
Special case of Projected-Gradient Methods

- **Projected-gradient** methods are another special case:

$$r(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{C} \\ \infty & \text{if } x \notin \mathcal{C} \end{cases},$$

gives

$$x^{t+1} = \text{project}_{\mathcal{C}}[x^t - \alpha \nabla f(x^t)],$$



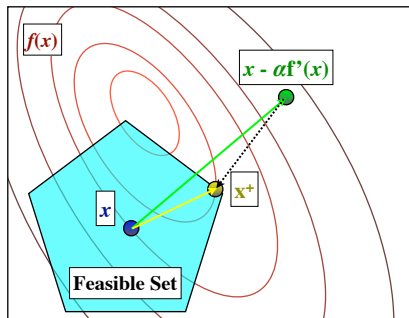
Special case of Projected-Gradient Methods

- Projected-gradient methods are another special case:

$$r(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } x \in \mathcal{C} \\ \infty & \text{if } x \notin \mathcal{C} \end{cases},$$

gives

$$x^{t+1} = \text{project}_{\mathcal{C}}[x^t - \alpha \nabla f(x^t)],$$



Exact Proximal-Gradient Methods

- For what problems can we apply these methods?

Exact Proximal-Gradient Methods

- For what problems can we apply these methods?
- We can efficiently compute the proximity operator for:
 - ① L1-Regularization.
 - ② Group ℓ_1 -Regularization.

Exact Proximal-Gradient Methods

- For what problems can we apply these methods?
- We can efficiently compute the proximity operator for:
 - ① L1-Regularization.
 - ② Group ℓ_1 -Regularization.
 - ③ Lower and upper bounds.
 - ④ Small number of linear constraint.
 - ⑤ Probability constraints.
 - ⑥ A few other simple regularizers/constraints.

Exact Proximal-Gradient Methods

- For what problems can we apply these methods?
- We can efficiently compute the proximity operator for:
 - ① L1-Regularization.
 - ② Group ℓ_1 -Regularization.
 - ③ Lower and upper bounds.
 - ④ Small number of linear constraint.
 - ⑤ Probability constraints.
 - ⑥ A few other simple regularizers/constraints.
- Can solve these non-smooth/constrained problems as fast as smooth/unconstrained problems!

Exact Proximal-Gradient Methods

- For what problems can we apply these methods?
- We can efficiently compute the proximity operator for:
 - ① L1-Regularization.
 - ② Group ℓ_1 -Regularization.
 - ③ Lower and upper bounds.
 - ④ Small number of linear constraint.
 - ⑤ Probability constraints.
 - ⑥ A few other simple regularizers/constraints.
- Can solve these non-smooth/constrained problems as fast as smooth/unconstrained problems!
- We can again do many of the same tricks (line-search, acceleration, Barzilai-Borwein, two-metric subgradient-projection, inexact proximal operators, inexact proximal Newton, SAG, SVRG).

Alternating Direction Method of Multipliers

- Alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) solves:

$$\min_{Ax+By=c} f(x) + r(y).$$

- Alternate between prox-like operators with respect to f and r .

Alternating Direction Method of Multipliers

- Alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) solves:

$$\min_{Ax+By=c} f(x) + r(y).$$

- Alternate between prox-like operators with respect to f and r .
- Can introduce constraints to convert to this form:

$$\min_x f(Ax) + r(x) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \min_{x=Ay} f(x) + r(y),$$

Alternating Direction Method of Multipliers

- Alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) solves:

$$\min_{Ax+By=c} f(x) + r(y).$$

- Alternate between prox-like operators with respect to f and r .
- Can introduce constraints to convert to this form:

$$\min_x f(Ax) + r(x) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \min_{x=Ay} f(x) + r(y),$$

$$\min_x f(x) + r(Bx) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \min_{y=Bx} f(x) + r(y).$$

Alternating Direction Method of Multipliers

- Alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) solves:

$$\min_{Ax+By=c} f(x) + r(y).$$

- Alternate between prox-like operators with respect to f and r .
- Can introduce constraints to convert to this form:

$$\min_x f(Ax) + r(x) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \min_{x=Ay} f(x) + r(y),$$

$$\min_x f(x) + r(Bx) \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \min_{y=Bx} f(x) + r(y).$$

- If prox can not be computed exactly: [Linearized ADMM](#).

Frank-Wolfe Method

- In some cases the projected gradient step

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ f(x^t) + \nabla f(x^t)^T (y - x^t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha_t} \|y - x^t\|^2 \right\},$$

may be hard to compute (e.g., dual of max-margin Markov networks).

Frank-Wolfe Method

- In some cases the projected gradient step

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ f(x^t) + \nabla f(x^t)^T (y - x^t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha_t} \|y - x^t\|^2 \right\},$$

may be hard to compute (e.g., dual of max-margin Markov networks).

- Frank-Wolfe method simply uses:

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ f(x^t) + \nabla f(x^t)^T (y - x^t) \right\},$$

requires compact \mathcal{C} , takes convex combination of x^t and x^{t+1} .

Frank-Wolfe Method

- In some cases the projected gradient step

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ f(x^t) + \nabla f(x^t)^T (y - x^t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha_t} \|y - x^t\|^2 \right\},$$

may be hard to compute (e.g., dual of max-margin Markov networks).

- Frank-Wolfe method simply uses:

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ f(x^t) + \nabla f(x^t)^T (y - x^t) \right\},$$

requires compact \mathcal{C} , takes convex combination of x^t and x^{t+1} .

- Iterate can be written as convex combination of vertices of \mathcal{C} .
- $O(1/t)$ rate for smooth convex objectives, some linear convergence results for smooth and strongly-convex. [Jaggi, 2013]

Alternatives to Quadratic/Linear Surrogates

- **Mirror descent** uses the iterations [Beck & Teboulle, 2003]

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x^t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha_t} \mathcal{D}(x^t, y) \right\},$$

where \mathcal{D} is a Bregman-divergence:

- $\mathcal{D} = \|x^t - y\|^2$ (gradient method).
- $\mathcal{D} = \|x^t - y\|_H^2$ (Newton's method).
- $\mathcal{D} = \sum_i x_i^t \log(\frac{x_i^t}{y_i}) - \sum_i (x_i^t - y_i)$ (exponentiated gradient).

Alternatives to Quadratic/Linear Surrogates

- **Mirror descent** uses the iterations [Beck & Teboulle, 2003]

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \left\{ f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x^t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha_t} \mathcal{D}(x^t, y) \right\},$$

where \mathcal{D} is a Bregman-divergence:

- $\mathcal{D} = \|x^t - y\|^2$ (gradient method).
 - $\mathcal{D} = \|x^t - y\|_H^2$ (Newton's method).
 - $\mathcal{D} = \sum_i x_i^t \log(\frac{x_i^t}{y_i}) - \sum_i (x_i^t - y_i)$ (exponentiated gradient).
- Mairal [2013,2014] considers general **surrogate optimization**:

$$x^{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{y \in \mathcal{C}} \{g(y)\},$$

where g upper bounds f , $g(x^t) = f(x^t)$, $\nabla g(x^t) = \nabla f(x^t)$, and $\nabla g - \nabla f$ is Lipschitz-continuous.

- Get $O(1/k)$ and linear convergence rates depending on $g - f$.

Dual Methods

- Strongly-convex problems have smooth duals.
- Solve the dual instead of the primal.

Dual Methods

- Strongly-convex problems have smooth duals.
- Solve the dual instead of the primal.
- SVM non-smooth strongly-convex primal:

$$\min_x C \sum_{i=1}^N \max\{0, 1 - b_i a_i^T x\} + \frac{1}{2} \|x\|^2.$$

- SVM smooth dual:

$$\min_{0 \leq \alpha_i \leq C} \frac{1}{2} \alpha^T A A^T \alpha - \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i$$

- Smooth bound constrained problem:
 - Two-metric projection (efficient Newton-liked method).
 - Randomized coordinate descent (part 2 of this talk).

Summary

Summary:

- Part 1: Convex functions have special properties that allow us to efficiently minimize them.
- Part 2: Gradient-based methods allow elegant scaling with dimensionality of problem.
- Part 3: Stochastic-gradient methods allow scaling with number of training examples, at cost of slower convergence rate.
- Part 4: For finite datasets, SAG fixes convergence rate of stochastic gradient methods, and SVRG fixes memory problem of SAG.
- Part 5: These building blocks can be extended to solve a variety of constrained and non-smooth problems.