A Generic Quasi-Newton Algorithm for Faster Gradient-Based Optimization

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Collaborators



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Publications

H. Lin, J. Mairal and Z. Harchaoui. QuickeNing: A Generic Quasi-Newton Algorithm for Faster Gradient-Based Optimization. *arXiv:1610.00960.* 2016 H. Lin, J. Mairal and Z. Harchaoui. A Universal Catalyst for First-Order Optimization. *Adv. NIPS* 2015.

Focus of this work

Minimizing large finite sums

Consider the minimization of a large sum of convex functions

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ f(\mathbf{x}) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(\mathbf{x}) + \psi(\mathbf{x}) \right\},\,$$

where each f_i is **smooth and convex** and ψ is a convex but not necessarily differentiable penalty, e.g., the ℓ_1 -norm.

Goal of this work

- Design accelerated methods for minimizing large finite sums.
- Give generic acceleration schemes which can be applied to previously un-accelerated algorithms.

Why do large finite sums matter?

Empirical risk minimization

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ f(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x) + \psi(x) \right\},\,$$

- Typically, *x* represents **model parameters**.
- Each function f_i measures the **fidelity** of x to a data point.
- ullet ψ is a regularization function to prevent overfitting.

For instance, given training data $(y_i, z_i)_{i=1,...,n}$ with features z_i in \mathbb{R}^p and labels y_i in $\{-1, +1\}$, we may want to predict y_i by $\operatorname{sign}(\langle z_i, x \rangle)$. The functions f_i measure how far the prediction is from the true label.

This would be a classification problem with a linear model.



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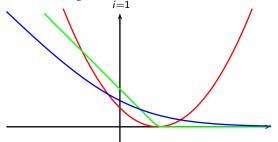
Why large finite sums matter?

A few examples

Ridge regression:
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} (y_i - \langle x, z_i \rangle)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||x||_2^2.$$

Ridge regression:
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 Linear SVM:
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \max(0, 1 - y_i \langle x, z_i \rangle) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|x\|_2^2.$$

 $\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{\binom{n-1}{n}} \log \left(1 + e^{-y_i \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}_i \rangle} \right) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2.$ Logistic regression:



Why does the composite problem matter?

A few examples

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The **squared** ℓ_2 -**norm** penalizes large entries in x.

Why does the composite problem matter?

A few examples

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When one knows in advance that x should be sparse, one should use a **sparsity-inducing** regularization such as the ℓ_1 -norm.

[Chen et al., 1999, Tibshirani, 1996].



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Part I: a quick overview of optimization methods

How to minimize a large finite sum of functions?

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}\in\mathbb{R}^p}\left\{f(\mathbf{x})\stackrel{\triangle}{=}\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n f_i(\mathbf{x})+\psi(\mathbf{x})\right\},\,$$

assuming here that the problem is μ -strongly convex.

We consider several alternatives

- Batch first-order methods (ISTA, FISTA).
- Stochastic first-order methods (SGD, mirror descent).
- Incremental first-order methods (SAG, SAGA, SDCA, MISO, ...).
- Quasi-Newton approaches (L-BFGS).

(Batch) gradient descent methods

Let us consider the composite problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ f(x) = f_0(x) + \psi(x) \right\},\,$$

where f_0 is convex, differentiable with L-Lipschitz continuous gradient and ψ is convex, but not necessarily differentiable.

The classical forward-backward/ISTA algorithm

$$x_k \leftarrow \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{2} \left\| x - \left(x_{k-1} - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f_0(x_{k-1}) \right) \right\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{L} \psi(x).$$

- $f(x_k) f^* = O(1/k)$ for convex problems;
- $f(x_k) f^* = O((1 \mu/L)^k)$ for μ -strongly convex problems;

[Nowak and Figueiredo, 2001, Daubechies et al., 2004, Combettes and Wajs, 2006, Beck and Teboulle, 2009, Wright et al., 2009, Nesterov, 2013]...



Accelerated gradient descent methods

Nesterov introduced in the 80's an acceleration scheme for the gradient descent algorithm. It was generalized later to the composite setting.

FISTA [Beck and Teboulle, 2009]

$$\begin{aligned} x_k &\leftarrow \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{2} \left\| x - \left(y_{k-1} - \frac{1}{L} \nabla f_0(y_{k-1}) \right) \right\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{L} \psi(x); \\ \text{Find } \alpha_k &> 0 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \alpha_k^2 = (1 - \alpha_k) \alpha_{k-1}^2 + \frac{\mu}{L} \alpha_k; \\ y_k &\leftarrow x_k + \beta_k (x_k - x_{k-1}) \quad \text{with} \quad \beta_k = \frac{\alpha_{k-1} (1 - \alpha_{k-1})}{\alpha_{k-1}^2 + \alpha_k}. \end{aligned}$$

- $f(x_k) f^* = O(1/k^2)$ for **convex** problems;
- $f(x_k) f^* = O((1 \sqrt{\mu/L})^k)$ for μ -strongly convex problems;
- Acceleration works in many practical cases.

see also [Nesterov, 1983, 2004, 2013]



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... or the recent return of Robins and Monroe, 1951. Consider

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ f(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x) \right\}.$$

At iteration k, select at random an index i_k , and perform the update

$$x_k \leftarrow x_{k-1} - \eta_k \nabla f_{i_k}(x_{k-1})$$

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- variants are compatible with prox ψ , e.g., [Duchi et al., 2011].
- Sometimes a bit difficult to tune. When well tuned, the speed-up to obtain a solution with moderate accuracy may be huge.



Figure: The Adaline [Widrow et al., 1960].

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ f(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x) \right\}.$$

Several **randomized** algorithms are designed with one ∇f_i computed per iteration, with **fast convergence rates**, e.g., SAG [Schmidt et al., 2013]:

$$x_k \leftarrow x_{k-1} - \frac{\gamma}{Ln} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^k$$
 with $y_i^k = \begin{cases} \nabla f_i(x_{k-1}) & \text{if } i = i_k \\ y_i^{k-1} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$.

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See also SVRG, SAGA, SDCA, MISO, Finito...

Some of these algorithms perform updates of the form

$$x_k \leftarrow x_{k-1} - \eta_k g_k$$
 with $\mathbb{E}[g_k] = \nabla f(x_{k-1}),$

but g_k has lower variance than in SGD.

[Schmidt et al., 2013, Xiao and Zhang, 2014, Defazio et al., 2014a,b, Shalev-Shwartz and Zhang, 2012, Mairal, 2015, Zhang and Xiao, 2015]

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These methods achieve low (worst-case) complexity in expectation.

The number of gradients evaluations to ensure $f(x_k) - f^\star \leq \varepsilon$ is

	$\mu > 0$
FISTA	$O\left(n\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}}\log\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$
SVRG, SAG, SAGA, SDCA, MISO, Finito	$O\left(\max\left(n, \frac{L}{\mu}\right)\log\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$

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- Same complexity per-iteration (but higher memory footprint).
- Faster convergence (exploit the finite-sum structure).
- Less parameter tuning than SGD.
- Some variants are compatible with composite term ψ .
- May be accelerated [Lin, Mairal, and Harchaoui, 2015].



Yet, none of these approaches are able to exploit curvature.

Presentation borrowed from Mark Schmidt, NIPS OPT 2010

- Consider minimizing a twice-differentiable function f(x).
- Newton-like methods use a quadratic approximation of f:

$$f(x_{k-1}) + \nabla f(x_{k-1})^{\top} (x - x_{k-1}) + \frac{1}{2\alpha} (x - x_{k-1}) B_k (x - x_{k-1}).$$

- B_k is a **positive-definite** approximation of the Hessian.
- The new iterate is set to the minimizer of the approximation

$$x_k \leftarrow x_{k-1} - \alpha d_k$$

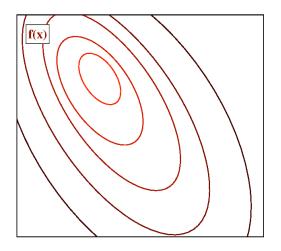
where d_k is the solution to

$$B_k d_k = \nabla f(x_{k-1}).$$

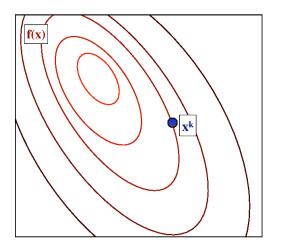
• Guarantees descent for small enough α .



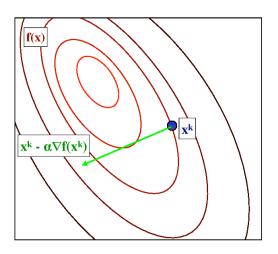
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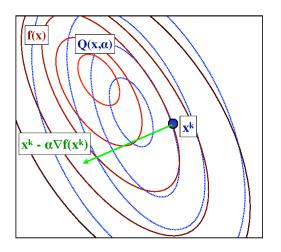
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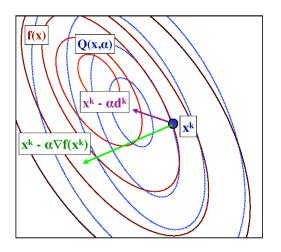
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Pros

• Under suitable smoothness and convexity assumptions, the method achieves a quadratic convergence rate: it requires $O(\log\log 1/\varepsilon)$ iterations to achieve ε -accuracy.

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Alternatives

- solving inexactly the linear systems.
- Limited Memory Quasi-Newton (e.g., L-BFGS).



Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno Quasi-Newton Method

Presentation borrowed from Mark Schmidt, NIPS OPT 2010

 Quasi-Newton methods work with the parameter and gradient differences between successive iterations:

$$s_k \triangleq x_{k+1} - x_k, \quad y_k \triangleq \nabla f(x_{k+1}) - \nabla f(x_k).$$

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$$B_{k+1}s_k=y_k.$$

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$$B_{k+1}s_k = y_k$$
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• Since B_{k+1} is not unique; the **BFGS** method chooses the symmetric matrix whose difference with B_k is minimal:

$$B_{k+1} = B_k - \frac{B_k s_k s_k B_k}{s_k B_k s_k} + \frac{y_k y_k^\top}{y_k^\top s_k}.$$

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- Instead of storing B_k , the **limited-memory BFGS** (L-BFGS) method stores the previous I differences s_k and y_k .
- We can solve a linear system involving these updates applied to a diagonal B_0 in $\mathcal{O}(pl)$ [Nocedal, 1980].

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Remarks

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Cons

- worst-case convergence rates for strongly-convex functions are linear, but no better than the gradient descent method.
- proximal variants typically requires solving many times

$$\min_{x\in\mathbb{R}^p}\frac{1}{2}(x-z)B_k(z-z)+\psi(x).$$

no guarantee of approximating the Hessian.

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Part II: QuickeNing

Challenges

We still consider the problem

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ f(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x) + \psi(x) \right\}.$$

The goal is to

- accelerate first-order methods with Quasi-Newton principles.
- design L-BFGS algorithms compatible with composite term,
- which are easy to use (no line search, natural initialization, assuming L, μ are known),
- and which may exploit the finite-sum structure.

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The Moreau-Yosida regularization of a convex function f is defined as

$$F(x) = \min_{z \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ f(z) + \frac{\kappa}{2} ||x - z||^2 \right\},\,$$

and call p(x) the unique solution of the problem.

The equivalence property

F is convex and minimizing f and F are equivalent in the sense that

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} F(x) = \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} f(x).$$

The minimizers of f and F coincide with each other.

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The smoothness properties

• F is continuously differentiable even when f is not and

$$\nabla F(x) = \kappa(x - p(x)),$$

The gradient ∇F is Lipschitz continuous with constant $L_F = \kappa$.

- When f is μ -strongly convex, F is μ_F -strongly convex with constant $\mu_F = \frac{\mu\kappa}{\mu + \kappa}$.
- \Rightarrow When $\mu > 0$, the condition number of F is $1 + \frac{\kappa}{\mu}$.

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A naive approach consists of minimizing F instead of f with a method designed for smooth optimization. Consider indeed

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{1}{\kappa} \nabla F(x_k).$$

By rewriting the gradient $\nabla F(x_k)$ as $\kappa(x_k - p(x_k))$, we obtain

$$x_{k+1} = p(x_k) = \underset{z \in \mathbb{R}^p}{\arg\min} \left\{ f(z) + \frac{\kappa}{2} ||z - x_k||^2 \right\}.$$

This is exactly the proximal point algorithm [Rockafellar, 1976].

Consider now

$$x_{k+1} = y_k - \frac{1}{\kappa} \nabla F(y_k)$$
 and $y_{k+1} = x_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1} (x_{k+1} - x_k),$

where β_{k+1} is a Nesterov-like extrapolation parameter. We may now rewrite the update using the value of ∇F , which gives:

$$x_{k+1} = p(y_k)$$
 and $y_{k+1} = x_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1}(x_{k+1} - x_k)$

This is the accelerated proximal point algorithm of Güler [1992].

Consider now

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where β_{k+1} is a Nesterov-like extrapolation parameter. We may now rewrite the update using the value of ∇F , which gives:

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What is the advantage of these approaches?

F may be better conditioned than f when $1 + \kappa/\mu \le L/\mu$;

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What is the advantage of these approaches?

F may be better conditioned than *f* when $1 + \kappa/\mu \le L/\mu$;

But...

Computing $p(y_k)$ has a cost!



A fresh look at Catalyst [Lin, Mairal, and Harchaoui, 2015]

Catalyst is a particular accelerated proximal point algorithm with inexact gradients [Güler, 1992].

$$x_{k+1} \approx p(y_k)$$
 and $y_{k+1} = x_{k+1} + \beta_{k+1}(x_{k+1} - x_k)$

The quantity x_{k+1} is obtained by approximately solving using an optimization method \mathcal{M} :

$$x_{k+1} pprox rg \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ h_k(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} f(x) + rac{\kappa}{2} \|x - y_k\|^2
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such that $h_k(x_{k+1}) - h_k^* \le \epsilon_k$.

Julien Mairal

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Catalyst provides Nesterov's acceleration to ${\mathcal M}$ with...

- the right κ , sequence $(\varepsilon_k)_{k\geq 0}$, and restart strategy for \mathcal{M} .
- global complexity analysis resulting in theoretical acceleration.

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QuickeNing

QuickeNing is a limited memory Quasi-Newton algorithm with inexact gradients applied to the smoothed function F.

Main features

- ullet uses an optimization method ${\mathcal M}$ to solve the sub-problems.
- ullet if ${\mathcal M}$ is compatible with prox, so is QuickeNing.
- linear convergence rate for strongly-convex functions.
- no need for a line-search and easy initialization of B_0 , assuming L and μ are known.

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Theory vs practice

- global theoretical complexity is not as good as Catalyst.
- in practice, outperforms Catalyst for ill-conditioned problems.

QuickeNing

Related work

- L-BFGS with inexact gradients [Friedlander and Schmidt, 2012].
- Quasi-Newton on Moreau-Yosida regularization [Burke and Qian, 2000, Chen and Fukushima, 1999, Fuentes et al., 2012, Fukushima and Qi, 1996].

Our contributions

- practical inexactness criterion and dedicated L-BFGS rule with no line search.
- global complexity with both inner- and outer-loop analysis.
- parameter choices that ensure linear convergence rate for strongly-convex problems.

Algorithm Procedure GradientEstimate

input Current point x in \mathbb{R}^p ; accuracy ε ; smoothing parameter $\kappa > 0$.

1: Compute the approximate proximal mapping using \mathcal{M} :

$$z \approx \arg\min_{v \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ h(v) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} f(v) + \frac{\kappa}{2} ||v - x||^2 \right\}, \tag{1}$$

such that $h(z) - h^* \le \epsilon$ where $h^* = \min_{z \in \mathbb{R}^p} h(z)$; define $F_a = h(z)$.

2: Estimate the gradient of the Moreau-Yosida objective function

$$g=\kappa(x-z).$$

output gradient estimate $g \approx \nabla F(x)$, objective value $F_a \approx F(x)$, proximal mapping $z \approx p(x)$.



Julien Mairal QuickeNing

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32/50

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Remember,

$$F(x) = \min_{z \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ f(z) + \frac{\kappa}{2} ||x - z||^2 \right\},$$

and call p(x) the unique solution of the problem.

Approximation guarantees [Fukushima and Qi, 1996]

Consider a vector x in \mathbb{R}^p , a positive scalar ε and

$$(g, F_a, z) = GradientEstimate(x, \varepsilon).$$

Then, the following inequalities hold

$$F(x) \le F_{a} \le F(x) + \varepsilon,$$

$$\|z - p(x)\| \le \sqrt{\frac{2\varepsilon}{\kappa}},$$

$$\|g - \nabla F(x)\| \le \sqrt{2\kappa\varepsilon}.$$

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- Initialize $C_1 = (1/\kappa)I$.
- Maintain a generating list $(s_i, y_i)_{i=1...j}$ with $j \leq l$ such that

$$C_{i+1} = C_i - \frac{C_i s_i s_i C_i}{s_i C_i s_i} + \frac{y_i y_i^\top}{y_i^\top s_i}$$

and the current L-BFGS matrix is $B_k = C_i$.

- Remember that B_k is never stored explicitly, but that $B_k^{-1}z$ can be computed in O(pl) operations for all vector z.
- The generating list is incrementally updated given a new pair

$$y_k \approx \nabla F(x_{k+1}) - \nabla F(x_k)$$
 and $s_k = x_{k+1} - x_k$.

but it requires skipping steps to ensure positive definitess.



Julien Mairal QuickeNing 34/50

Algorithm Quasi-Newton-type update rule L-BFGS

input current generating list $\{(s_i, y_i)\}_{i=1...j}$; new candidate pair (s, y); L-BFGS parameters $0 < c_1, c_2 \le 1$; memory parameter I;

1: if the following condition is satisfied

$$c_1 \mu_F ||s||^2 < y^T s$$
 and $\frac{c_2}{L_F} ||y||^2 < y^T s$.

then

- 2: add (s, y) to the generating list, and remove the oldest pair if the cardinal exceeds I.
- 3: **else**
- 4: keep the generating list unchanged.
- 5: end if



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Finally, the QuickeNing algorithm I

Algorithm QuickeNing

input Initial point x_0 in \mathbb{R}^p ; sequence $(\varepsilon_k)_{k \geq 0}$; number of iterations K; smoothing parameter $\kappa > 0$; L-BFGS parameters $0 < c_1, c_2 \leq 1$; optimization method \mathcal{M} .

1: Initialization:

$$(g_0, F_0, z_0) = \text{GradientEstimate}(x_0, \varepsilon_0);$$

BFGS matrix $B_0 = \kappa I$.

- 2: **for** k = 0, ..., K 1 **do**
- 3: Perform the Quasi-Newton step

$$x_{\text{test}} = x_k - B_k^{-1} g_k.$$

4: Estimate the new gradient and the Moreau-Yosida function value

$$(g_{\text{test}}, F_{\text{test}}, z_{\text{test}}) = \text{GradientEstimate}(x_{\text{test}}, \varepsilon_{k+1}).$$



Finally, the QuickeNing algorithm II

5: **if** sufficient decrease is obtained

$$F_{\text{test}} \le F_k - \frac{1}{4\kappa} \|g_k\|^2 + \epsilon_k,\tag{2}$$

then

- 6: accept: $(x_{k+1}, g_{k+1}, F_{k+1}, z_{k+1}) = (x_{\text{test}}, g_{\text{test}}, F_{\text{test}}, z_{\text{test}}).$
- 7: **else**
- 8: update the current iterate: $x_{k+1} = z_k$.

$$(g_{k+1}, F_{k+1}, z_{k+1}) = \text{GradientEstimate}(x_{k+1}, \varepsilon_{k+1}).$$

- 9: end if
- 10: update $B_{k+1} = \text{L-BFGS}(B_k, x_{k+1} x_k, g_{k+1} g_k)$.
- 11: end for

output last proximal mapping z_K (solution).



37/50

Julien Mairal QuickeNing

A key lemma:

Approximate descent property

Consider the sequence $(x_k, z_k)_{k \ge 0}$ generated by QuickeNing. Then,

$$\max\{F(x_{k+1}), f(z_k)\} \leq F(x_k) - \frac{1}{8\kappa} \|\nabla F(x_k)\|^2 + 3\varepsilon_k.$$

A key lemma:

Approximate descent property

Consider the sequence $(x_k, z_k)_{k \ge 0}$ generated by QuickeNing. Then,

$$\max\{F(x_{k+1}), f(z_k)\} \leq F(x_k) - \frac{1}{8\kappa} \|\nabla F(x_k)\|^2 + 3\varepsilon_k.$$

In contrast, the exact gradient descent method applied to F provides

$$F(x_{k+1}) \leq F(x_k) - \frac{1}{2\kappa} \|\nabla F(x_k)\|^2.$$

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Next, we control the accumulation of errors.

Accumulation of errors in QuickeNing when $\mu > 0$

Assume that f is μ -strongly convex and define $\rho=\frac{\mu}{8(\mu+\kappa)}$. Then, the iterates $(x_k)_{k\geq 0}$ and $(z_k)_{k\geq 0}$ produced by QuickeNing satisfy

$$\max\{F(x_{k+1}) - F^*, f(z_k) - f^*\} \le$$

$$(1 - 2\rho)^{k+1} (f(x_0) - f^*) + 3\sum_{i=0}^k (1 - 2\rho)^{k-i} \varepsilon_i.$$

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Complexity analysis when $\mu > 0$

Assume that \mathcal{M} is always able to produce a sequence of iterates $(w_t)_{t\geq 0}$ for solving the sub-problems such that

$$h(w_t) - h^* \le A(1 - \tau_{\mathcal{M}})^t (h(w_0) - h^*)$$
 for some constants $A, \tau_{\mathcal{M}} > 0$. (3)

Then, choose $\varepsilon_k=C(1-\rho)^{k+1}/3$ with $C\geq (f(x_0)-f^\star)$ and define $\rho=\frac{\mu}{8(\mu+\kappa)}$; then,

$$\max\{F(x_k) - F^*, f(z_k) - f^*\} \le \frac{C}{\rho} (1 - \rho)^{k+2}. \tag{4}$$

Moreover, by initializing $\mathcal M$ with $w_0=z_k$ at iteration k, each sub-problem (1) is solved up to accuracy ε_{k+1} in at most a constant number $\mathcal T_{\mathcal M}$ of iterations of $\mathcal M$, where $\mathcal T_{\mathcal M}=\tilde O(1/\tau_{\mathcal M})$.

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Remarks

Theory and practice

- the restart at z_k is not the best one, both in theory and in practice (work in progress, arXiv paper is outdated).
- the gap between theory and practice is huge, due to L-BFGS.
- ullet the theory does not provide the right parameters for κ : we use those of Catalyst in practice.

Nice features

- \mathcal{M} can exploit the structure (incremental for large n, block coordinate descent for large p), and so does QuickeNing.
- no line search: when the test point is rejected, we perform one step of inexact PPA, whose convergence is well understood.
- the sequence $(z_k)_{k\geq 0}$ is produced by $\mathcal M$ and thus may be compatible with composite regularization (e.g., sparse).



Part III: Preliminary experiments

Formulations

We consider two types of formulations

A smooth one: logistic regression

Given some data (y_i, z_i) , with y_i in $\{-1, +1\}$ and z_i in \mathbb{R}^p , minimize

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log(1 + e^{-y_i x^\top z_i}) + \frac{\mu}{2} ||x||_2^2,$$

 μ is the regularization parameter.

A non-smooth one: Elastic-net [Zou and Hastie, 2005]

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} (y_i - x^\top z_i)^2 + \lambda ||x||_1 + \frac{\mu}{2} ||x||_2^2.$$

We will consider a regime with relatively small μ .



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Datasets and methods

Datasets

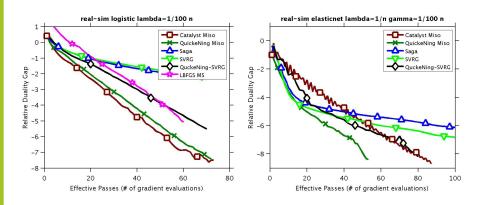
name	rcv1	real-sim	covtype	alpha
n	781 265	72 309	581 012	250 000
р	47 152	20 958	54	500

Methods

- Mark Schmidt's implementation of L-BFGS;
- Catalyst Miso [Lin, Mairal, and Harchaoui, 2015];
- QuickeNing Miso;
- SAGA [Defazio et al., 2014a];
- SVRG [Xiao and Zhang, 2014];
- QuickeNing SVRG.

All methods come with **default parameters** (no further tuning here).

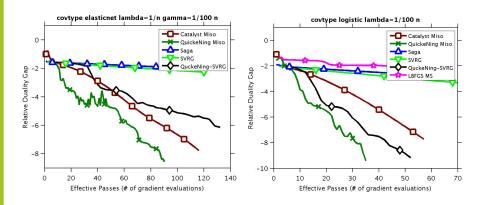
real-sim



- QuickeNing MISO ≥ Catalyst MISO.
- QuickeNing SVRG > SVRG.
- L-BFGS is competitive, unlike SAGA.



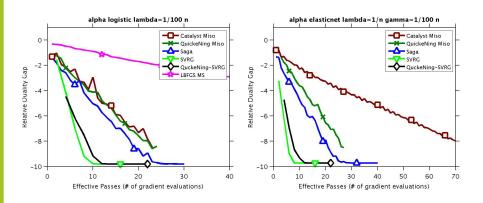
covtype



- QuickeNing MISO ≥ Catalyst MISO.
- QuickeNing SVRG > SVRG.
- L-BFGS and SAGA are not competitive here.



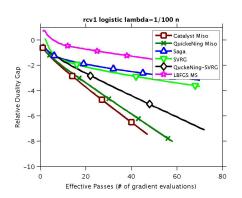
alpha



- QuickeNing SVRG and SVRG are surprinsingly good.
- QuickeNing MISO ≥ Catalyst MISO.
- SAGA is close to QuickeNing MISO here.



rcv1

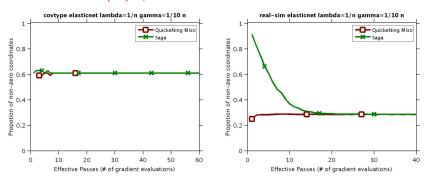


- QuickeNing MISO and Catalyst MISO are the best here.
- QuickeNing SVRG > SVRG.
- QuickeNing MISO \geq Catalyst MISO.



QuickeNing and sparsity

Are the iterates (z_k) sparse with the Elastic-Net?



When the regularization parameter λ is large enough, the solution is sparse. In this context, exact sparsity is a desirable feature.

Concluding remarks

- Conclusions are always data/context-dependent:
 - Is the dataset well-conditioned?
 - What is the amount of regularization?
 - Is there hidden strong convexity in the loss at the optimum?
 - Is the solution sparse?
- QuickeNing has been a safe heuristic so far.
- Not evaluated yet: the one-pass heuristic,
 QuickeNing-block-coordinate-descent,
- We also have convergence results without strong convexity, but no complexity analysis.

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- Note: this is work in progress; the figures here should not be considered as those of a published paper (yet).

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