A Universal Catalyst for Gradient-Based Optimization

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Collaborators



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Focus of this work

Minimizing large finite sums

Consider the minimization of a large sum of convex functions

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

where each f_i is smooth and convex and ψ is a convex but not necessarily differentiable penalty.

Goal of this work

- Design accelerated methods for minimizing large finite sums.
- Give a generic acceleration scheme which can apply to previously un-accelerated algorithms.

Catalyst

Why do large finite sums matter?

Empirical risk minimization

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

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

This would be a classification problem with a linear model.

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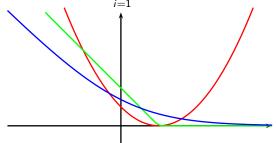
Why large finite sums matter?

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

Logistic regression:



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Why does the composite problem matter?

A few examples

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Regularization was called by Vladimir Vapnik "one of the first signs of the existence of intelligent inference".

The squared ℓ_2 -norm penalizes large entries in x.

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Why does the composite problem matter?

A few examples

Ridge regression:
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} (y_i - \langle x, z_i \rangle)^2 + \lambda \|x\|_1.$$
 Linear SVM:
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 Logistic regression:
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \log \left(1 + e^{-y_i \langle x, z_i \rangle}\right) + \lambda \|x\|_1.$$

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].

How to minimize a large sum composite problem?

Two major challenges

- Non-differentiable regularization penalty.
 Exclude existing solver such as MOSEK, CPLEX, etc.
- Large-scale dimension.
 Exclude higher-order (Newton) methods.

This leads us to first-order gradient-based methods.

Gradient descent methods

Let us consider the composite problem

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

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

The classical forward-backward/ISTA algorithm

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

- $f(x_k) f^* = O(1/k)$ 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]...

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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]

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

- $f(x_k) f^* = O(1/k^2)$ 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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What do we mean by "acceleration"?

Complexity analysis for large finite sums

Since f is a sum of n functions, computing ∇f requires computing n gradients ∇f_i . The complexity to reach an ε -solution is given below

	$\mu > 0$	$\mu = 0$
ISTA	$O\left(n\frac{L}{\mu}\log\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$	$O\left(\frac{nL}{\varepsilon}\right)$
FISTA	$O\left(n\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}}\log\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$	$O\left(\frac{nL}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}\right)$

Remarks

- ε -solution means here $f(x_k) f^* \leq \varepsilon$.
- For n = 1, the rates of FISTA are optimal for a "first-order local black box" [Nesterov, 2004].
- For n > 1, the sum structure of f is not exploited.

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Can we do better for large finite sums?

Several **randomized** algorithms are designed with one ∇f_i computed per iteration, which yields a better **expected computational complexity**.

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

SVRG, SAG, SAGA, SDCA, MISO, Finito improve upon FISTA when

$$\max\left(n, \frac{L}{\mu}\right) \le n\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \quad \Leftrightarrow \sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}} \le n,$$

but they are not "accelerated" in the sense of Nesterov.

[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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Can we do even better for large finite sums?

Without vs with acceleration

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

Acc-SDCA is due to Shalev-Shwartz and Zhang [2014].

- Acceleration occurs when $n \leq \frac{L}{\mu}$.
- see [Agarwal and Bottou, 2015] for discussions about optimality.

Challenge: can we accelerate these algorithms by a universal scheme for both convex and strongly convex objectives ?

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Catalyst is coming



Main idea

Catalyst, a meta-algorithm

Given an algorithm ${\mathcal M}$ that can solve a convex problem "appropriately".

• At iteration k, rather than minimizing F, we use \mathcal{M} to minimize a function G_k , defined as follows,

$$G_k(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} F(x) + \frac{\kappa}{2} ||x - y_{k-1}||_2^2,$$

up to accuracy ε_k , i.e., such that $G_k(x_k) - G_k^* \leq \varepsilon_k$.

ullet Then compute the next prox-center y_k using an extrapolation step

$$y_k = x_k + \beta_k(x_k - x_{k-1}).$$

The choices of β_k , ϵ_k , κ are driven by the theoretical analysis.

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Catalyst is a wrapper of ${\mathcal M}$ that yields an accelerated algorithm ${\mathcal A}.$

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Sources of inspiration

In addition to accelerated proximal algorithms [Beck and Teboulle, 2009, Nesterov, 2013], several works have inspired Catalyst.

The inexact accelerated proximal point algorithm of Güler [1992].

- Catalyst is a variant of inexact accelerated PPA.
- Complexity analysis for outer-loop only with non practical inexactness criterium.

Accelerated SDCA of Shalev-Shwartz and Zhang [2014].

- Accelerated SDCA is an instance of inexact accelerated PPA.
- Complexity analysis **limited to** μ -strongly convex objectives.

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Other related work

[Frostig et al., 2015, Schmidt et al., 2011, Salzo and Villa, 2012, He and Yuan, 2012, Lan, 2015]. + Chambolle and Pock, 15.

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This work

Contributions

- Generic acceleration scheme, which applies to previously unaccelerated algorithms such as SVRG, SAG, SAGA, SDCA, MISO, or Finito, and which is not taylored to finite sums.
- Provides explicit support to non-strongly convex objectives.
- Complexity analysis for μ -strongly convex objectives.
- Complexity analysis for non-strongly convex objectives.

Example of application

Garber and Hazan [2015] have used Catalyst to accelerate new principal component analysis algorithms based on convex optimization.

Catalyst

Appropriate $\mathcal{M}=$ Linear convergence rate when $\mu>0$

Linear convergence rate

Consider a strongly convex minimization problem

$$\min_{z\in\mathbb{R}^p}H(z).$$

We say that an algorithm \mathcal{M} has a **linear convergence rate** if \mathcal{M} generates a sequence of iterates $(z_t)_{t\in\mathbb{N}}$ such that there exists $\tau_{\mathcal{M},H}$ in (0,1) and a constant $C_{\mathcal{M},H}$ in \mathbb{R} satisfying

$$H(z_t) - H^* \le C_{\mathcal{M},H} (1 - \tau_{\mathcal{M},H})^t. \tag{1}$$

- $au_{\mathcal{M},H}$ depends usually on the condition number L/μ , e.g., $au_{\mathcal{M},H} = \mu/L$ for ISTA and $au_{\mathcal{M},H} = \sqrt{\mu/L}$ for FISTA.
- $C_{M,H}$ depends usually on $H(z_0) H^*$.

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Appropriate $\mathcal{M}=$ Linear convergence rate when $\mu>0$

Linear convergence rate

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$$H(z_t) - H^* \le C_{\mathcal{M},H} (1 - \tau_{\mathcal{M},H})^t. \tag{1}$$

Important message: we do not make any assumption for non strongly convex objectives. It is possible that $\mathcal M$ is not even defined for $\mu=0$.

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Catalyst action

Catalyst action

$$G_k(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} F(x) + \frac{\kappa}{2} ||x - y_{k-1}||_2^2,$$

- G_k is always strongly convex as long as F is convex.
- When F is strongly convex, the condition number of G_k is better than that of F since $\frac{L+\kappa}{\mu+\kappa}<\frac{L}{\mu}$.

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Minimizing G_k is easier than minimizing F!

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$$G_k(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} F(x) + \frac{\kappa}{2} ||x - y_{k-1}||_2^2,$$

- G_k is always strongly convex as long as F is convex.
- When F is strongly convex, the condition number of G_k is better than that of F since $\frac{L+\kappa}{\mu+\kappa} < \frac{L}{\mu}$.

Minimizing G_k is easier than minimizing F!

- If $\kappa \gg 1$, then minimizing G_k is easy;
- If $\kappa \approx 0$, then G_k is a good approximation of F.

We will choose κ to optimize the computational complexity.

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Convergence analysis

An analysis in two stages

$$G_k(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} F(x) + \frac{\kappa}{2} ||x - y_{k-1}||_2^2,$$

 x_k is a approximate minimizer of G_k such that $G_k(x_k) - G_k^* \leq \epsilon_k$.

- Outer loop: once we obtain the sequence $(x_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$, what can we say about the convergence rate of $F(x_k) - F^*$?
 - \Rightarrow Wisely choose (y_k) and control the accumulation of errors.
- Inner loop: how much effort do we need to obtain a x_k with accuracy ϵ_k ?
 - \Rightarrow Wisely choose the starting point.

Choice of $(y_k)_{k\in\mathbb{N}}$

Extrapolation

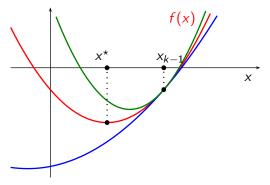
$$y_k = x_k + \beta_k (x_k - x_{k-1})$$
 with $\beta_k = \frac{\alpha_{k-1} (1 - \alpha_{k-1})}{\alpha_{k-1}^2 + \alpha_k}$.

- This update is identical to Nesterov's accelerated gradient descent or FISTA.
- Unfortunately, the literature does not provide any simple geometric explanation why it yields an acceleration...
- The construction is purely theoretical by using a mechanism introduced by Nesterov, called "estimate sequence".

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How does "acceleration" work?

If f is μ -strongly convex and ∇f is L-Lipschitz continuous



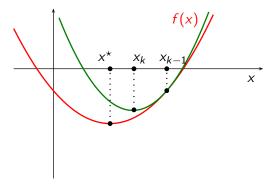
$$\bullet f(x) \le f(x_{k-1}) + \nabla f(x_{k-1})^{\top} (x - x_{k-1}) + \frac{L}{2} ||x - x_{k-1}||_2^2;$$

•
$$f(x) \ge f(x_{k-1}) + \nabla f(x_{k-1})^{\top} (x - x_{k-1}) + \frac{\mu}{2} ||x - x_{k-1}||_2^2$$
;

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How does "acceleration" work?

If ∇f is *L*-Lipschitz continuous



- $f(x) \le f(x_{k-1}) + \nabla f(x_{k-1})^{\top} (x x_{k-1}) + \frac{L}{2} ||x x_{k-1}||_2^2$;
- $x_k = x_{k-1} \frac{1}{L} \nabla f(x_{k-1})$ (gradient descent step).

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How does "acceleration" work?

Definition of estimate sequence [Nesterov].

A pair of sequences $(\varphi_k)_{k\geq 0}$ and $(\lambda_k)_{k\geq 0}$, with $\varphi_k: \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$ and $\lambda_k \geq 0$, is called an **estimate sequence** of function F if

- $\lambda_k \rightarrow 0$;
- $\varphi_k(x) \leq (1 \lambda_k)F(x) + \lambda_k \varphi_0(x)$, for any k, x;
- There exists a sequence $(x_k)_{k>0}$ such that

$$F(x_k) \leq \varphi_k^{\star} \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \varphi_k(x).$$

Remarks

- φ_k is neither an upper-bound, nor a lower-bound;
- Finding the right estimate sequence is often nontrivial.

Convergence of outer-loop algorithm

Analysis for μ -strongly convex objective functions

Choose $\alpha_0 = \sqrt{q}$ with $q = \mu/(\mu + \kappa)$ and

$$\epsilon_k = rac{2}{9}(F(x_0) - F^*)(1 -
ho)^k \quad ext{ with } \quad
ho < \sqrt{q}.$$

Then, the algorithm generates iterates $(x_k)_{k\geq 0}$ such that

$$F(x_k) - F^* \le C(1-\rho)^{k+1}(F(x_0) - F^*)$$
 with $C = \frac{8}{(\sqrt{q}-\rho)^2}$.

In practice

- Choice of ρ can safely be set to $\rho = 0.9\sqrt{q}$.
- Choice of $(\varepsilon_k)_{k\geq 0}$ typically follows from a duality gap at x_0 . When F is non-negative, we can set $\varepsilon_k = (2/9)F(x_0)(1-\rho)^k$.

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Convergence of outer-loop algorithm

Analysis for non-strongly convex objective functions, $\mu=0$

Choose $\alpha_0 = (\sqrt{5} - 1)/2$ and

$$\epsilon_k = rac{2(F(x_0) - F^*)}{9(k+2)^{4+\eta}} \quad ext{ with } \eta > 0.$$

Then, the meta-algorithm generates iterates $(x_k)_{k>0}$ such that

$$F(x_k) - F^* \le \frac{8}{(k+2)^2} \left(\left(1 + \frac{2}{\eta} \right)^2 (F(x_0) - F^*) + \frac{\kappa}{2} ||x_0 - x^*||^2 \right). \tag{2}$$

In practice

• Choice of η can be set to $\eta = 0.1$.

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How many iterates of \mathcal{M} do we need to obtain x_k ?

Control of inner-loop complexity

For minimizing G_k , consider a method \mathcal{M} generating iterates $(z_t)_{t\geq 0}$ with linear convergence rate

$$G_k(z_t) - G_k^{\star} \leq A(1 - \tau_{\mathcal{M}})^t (G_k(z_0) - G_k^{\star}).$$

Then by choosing $z_0 = x_{k-1}$, the precision ε_k is reached with at most

- A constant number of iterations $T_{\mathcal{M}}$ when $\mu > 0$;
- A logarithmic increasing number of iterations $T_{\mathcal{M}} \log(k+2)$ when $\mu = 0$.

where $T_{\mathcal{M}} = \tilde{O}(1/ au_{\mathcal{M}})$ is independent of k.

Global computational complexity

Analysis for μ -strongly convex objective functions

The global convergence rate of the accelerated algorithm ${\cal A}$ is

$$F_s - F^* \le C \left(1 - \frac{\rho}{T_{\mathcal{M}}} \right)^s (F(x_0) - F^*). \tag{3}$$

where F_s is the objective function value obtained after performing $s = kT_M$ iterations of the method M. As a result,

$$au_{\mathcal{A},\mathsf{F}} = rac{
ho}{T_{\mathcal{M}}} = \tilde{O}(au_{\mathcal{M}}\sqrt{\mu}/\sqrt{\mu+\kappa}),$$

where $\tau_{\mathcal{M}}$ typically depends on κ (the greater, the faster).

 κ will be chosen to maximize the ratio $\tau_{\mathcal{M}}/\sqrt{\mu+\kappa}$.

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Global computational complexity

Analysis for μ -strongly convex objective functions

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where $\tau_{\mathcal{M}}$ typically depends on κ (the greater, the faster).

e.g.,
$$\kappa = L - 2\mu$$
 when $\tau_{\mathcal{M}} = \frac{\mu + \kappa}{L + \kappa} \Rightarrow \tau_{\mathcal{A}} = \tilde{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{\mu}{L}}\right)$.

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Global computational complexity

Analysis for non-strongly convex objective functions

The global convergence rate of the accelerated algorithm ${\cal A}$ is

$$F_s - F^* \leq \frac{8T_{\mathcal{M}}^2 \log^2(s)}{s^2} \left(\left(1 + \frac{2}{\eta}\right)^2 (F(x_0) - F^*) + \frac{\kappa}{2} ||x_0 - x^*||^2 \right) .$$

If $\mathcal M$ is a first-order method, this rate is **near-optimal**, up to a logarithmic factor, when compared to the optimal rate $O(1/s^2)$, which may be the price to pay for using a generic acceleration scheme.

 κ will be chosen to maximize the ratio $\tau_{\mathcal{M}}/\sqrt{L+\kappa}$

Applications

Expected computational complexity in the regime $n \le L/\mu$ when $\mu > 0$,

	$\mu > 0$	$\mu = 0$	Catalyst $\mu > 0$	Cat. $\mu = 0$
FG	$O\left(n\left(\frac{L}{\mu}\right)\log\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$		$\tilde{O}\left(n\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}}\log\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$	
SAG		$O\left(n\frac{L}{\varepsilon}\right)$		
SAGA	$O\left(\frac{L}{\mu}\log\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$		$\tilde{O}\left(\sqrt{rac{nL}{\mu}}\log\left(rac{1}{arepsilon} ight) ight)$	$\tilde{O}\left(n\frac{L}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}\right)$
Finito/MISO	$\left(\begin{array}{c} \mathcal{O}\left(\mu \log \left(\varepsilon \right) \right) \end{array} \right)$		$\left(\sqrt{\frac{\mu}{\mu}}\log\left(\frac{\varepsilon}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$	$(n\sqrt{\varepsilon})$
SDCA		NA		
SVRG	$O\left(\frac{L'}{\mu}\log\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$		$\tilde{O}\left(\sqrt{rac{nL'}{\mu}}\log\left(rac{1}{arepsilon} ight) ight)$	
Acc-FG	$O\left(n\sqrt{\frac{L}{\mu}}\log\left(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}\right)\right)$	$O\left(n\frac{L}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}\right)$	no acceleration	
Acc-SDCA	$ ilde{O}\left(\sqrt{rac{nL}{\mu}}\log\left(rac{1}{arepsilon} ight) ight)$	NA	no deceleration	

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Experiments with MISO/SAG/SAGA

ℓ_2 -logistic regression formulation

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 and the strong convexity modulus.

Datasets

name	rcv1	real-sim	covtype	ocr	alpha
n	781 265	72 309	581 012	2 500 000	250 000
р	47 152	20 958	54	1 155	500

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Experiments with MISO/SAG/SAGA

The complexity analysis is not just a theoretical exercise since it provides the values of κ , ε_k , β_k , which are required in concrete implementations.

Here, theoretical values match practical ones.

Restarting

The theory tells us to restart \mathcal{M} with x_{k-1} . For SDCA/Finito/MISO, the theory tells us to use instead $x_{k-1} + \frac{\kappa}{\mu + \kappa} (y_{k-1} - y_{k-2})$. We also tried this as a heuristic for SAG and SAGA.

One-pass heuristic

constrain $\mathcal M$ to always perform at most n iterations in inner loop; we call this variant AMISO2 for MISO, whereas AMISO1 refers to the regular "vanilla" accelerated variant; idem to accelerate SAG and SAGA.

Experiments without strong convexity, $\mu = 0$

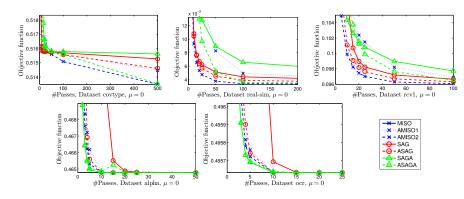


Figure: Objective function value for different number of passes on data.

Conclusions

- SAG, SAGA are accelerated when they do not perform well already;
- AMISO2 ≥ AMISO1 (vanilla), MISO does not apply.

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Experiments without strong convexity, $\mu = 10^{-1}/n$

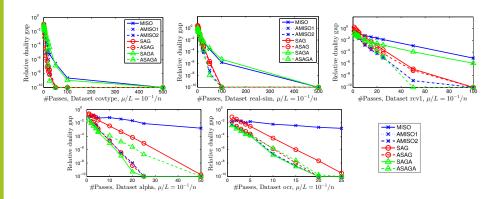


Figure: Relative duality gap (log-scale) for different number of passes on data.

Conclusions

- SAG, SAGA are not always accelerated, but often.
- AMISO2,AMISO1 ≫ MISO.

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Experiments without strong convexity, $\mu = 10^{-3}/n$

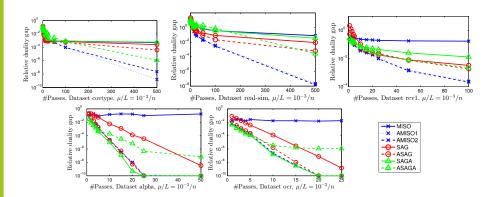


Figure: Relative duality gap (log-scale) for different number of passes on data.

Conclusions

- same conclusions as $\mu = 10^{-1}/n$;
- ullet μ is so small that (unaccelerated) MISO becomes numerically unstable.

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General conclusions about Catalyst

Summary: lots of nice features

- Simple acceleration scheme with broad application range.
- Recover near-optimal rates for known algorithms.
- Effortless implementation.

... but also lots of unsolved problems

- Acceleration occurs when $n \leq L/\mu$; otherwise, the "unaccelerated" complexity $O(n \log(1/\varepsilon))$ seems unbeatable.
- μ is an estimate of the true strong convexity parameter $\mu' \geq \mu$.
- ullet μ is the global strong convexity parameter, not a local one $\mu^\star \geq \mu$.
- When $n \leq L/\mu$, but $n \geq L/(\mu')$ or μ^* , a method $\mathcal M$ that adapts to the unknown strong convexity may be impossible to accelerate.
- ullet The optimal restart for ${\mathcal M}$ is not yet fully understood.

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Thank you for your attention!

Catalyst, the algorithm

Algorithm 1 Catalyst

input initial estimate $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^p$, parameters κ and α_0 , sequence $(\varepsilon_k)_{k \geq 0}$, optimization method \mathcal{M} ; initialize $q = \mu/(\mu + \kappa)$ and $y_0 = x_0$;

- 1: while the desired stopping criterion is not satisfied do
- 2: Find an approx. solution x_k using \mathcal{M} s.t. $G_k(x_k) G_k^* \leq \varepsilon_k$

$$x_k pprox rg \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ G_t(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} F(x) + rac{\kappa}{2} \|x - y_{k-1}\|^2
ight\}$$

- 3: Compute $\alpha_k \in (0,1)$ from equation $\alpha_k^2 = (1-\alpha_k)\alpha_{k-1}^2 + q\alpha_k$;
- 4: Compute

$$y_k = x_k + \beta_k(x_k - x_{k-1})$$
 with $\beta_k = \frac{\alpha_{k-1}(1 - \alpha_{k-1})}{\alpha_{k-1}^2 + \alpha_k}$.

5: **end while output** x_k (final estimate).

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Ideas of the proofs

Main theorem

Let us denote

$$\lambda_k = \prod_{i=0}^{k-1} (1 - \alpha_i), \tag{4}$$

where the α_i 's are defined in Catalyst. Then, the sequence $(x_k)_{k\geq 0}$ satisfies

$$F(x_k) - F^* \le \lambda_k \left(\sqrt{S_k} + 2 \sum_{i=1}^k \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon_i}{\lambda_i}} \right)^2,$$
 (5)

where F^* is the minimum value of F and

$$S_k = F(x_0) - F^* + \frac{\gamma_0}{2} ||x_0 - x^*||^2 + \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\epsilon_i}{\lambda_i} \quad \text{where} \quad \gamma_0 = \frac{\alpha_0 \left((\kappa + \mu)\alpha_0 - \mu \right)}{1 - \alpha_0},$$
(6)

where x^* is a minimizer of F.

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Ideas of the proofs

Then, the theorem will be used with the following lemma to control the convergence rate of the sequence $(\lambda_k)_{k\geq 0}$, whose definition follows the classical use of estimate sequences. This will provide us convergence rates both for the strongly convex and non-strongly convex cases.

Lemma 2.2.4 from Nesterov [2004]

If in the quantity γ_0 defined in (6) satisfies $\gamma_0 \geq \mu$, then the sequence $(\lambda_k)_{k>0}$ from (4) satisfies

$$\lambda_k \le \min \left\{ \left(1 - \sqrt{q}\right)^k, \frac{4}{\left(2 + k\sqrt{\frac{\gamma_0}{\kappa + \mu}}\right)^2} \right\},$$
 (7)

where $a \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \mu/(\mu + \kappa)$.

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Ideas of proofs

Step 1: build an approximate estimate sequence

• Remember that in general, we build φ_k from φ_{k-1} as follows

$$\varphi_k(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} (1 - \alpha_k) \varphi_{k-1}(x) + \alpha_k d_k(x),$$

where d_k is a lower bound.

• Here, a natural lower bound would be

$$F(x) \ge d_k(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} F(x_k^*) + \langle \kappa(y_{k-1} - x_k^*), x - x_k^* \rangle + \frac{\mu}{2} ||x - x_k^*||^2,$$

where $x_k^\star \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \arg\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \Big\{ G_k(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} F(x) + \frac{\kappa}{2} \|x - y_{k-1}\|_2^2 \Big\}.$

ullet But x_k^\star is unknown! Then, use instead $d_k'(x)$ defined as

$$d'_k(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} F(x_k) + \langle \kappa(y_{k-1} - x_k), x - x_k \rangle + \frac{\mu}{2} ||x - x_k||^2.$$

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Ideas of proofs

Step 2: Relax the condition $F(x_k) \leq \varphi_k^*$.

• We can show that Catalyst generates iterates $(x_k)_{k>0}$ such that

$$F(x_k) \le \phi_k^* + \xi_k,$$

where the sequence $(\xi_k)_{k>0}$ is defined by $\xi_0=0$ and

$$\xi_k = (1 - \alpha_{k-1})(\xi_{k-1} + \varepsilon_k - (\kappa + \mu)\langle x_k - x_k^*, x_{k-1} - x_k \rangle).$$

- The sequences $(\alpha_k)_{k>0}$ and $(y_k)_{k>0}$ are chosen in such a way that all the terms involving $y_{k-1} - x_k$ are cancelled.
- We will control later the quantity $x_k x_k^*$ by strong convexity of G_k :

$$\frac{\kappa+\mu}{2}\|x_k-x_k^*\|_2^2\leq G_k(x_k)-G_k^*\leq \varepsilon_k.$$

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Ideas of proofs

Step 3: Control how this errors sum up together.

• Do cumbersome calculus.

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Catalyst in practice

General strategy and application to randomized algorithms

Calculating the iteration-complexity decomposes into three steps:

- **1** When F is μ -strongly convex, find κ that maximizes the ratio $au_{\mathcal{M}.\mathcal{G}_{\iota}}/\sqrt{\mu+\kappa}$ for algorithm \mathcal{M} . When F is non-strongly convex, maximize instead the ratio $\tau_{\mathcal{M},G_{k}}/\sqrt{L+\kappa}$.
- 2 Compute the upper-bound of the number of outer iterations k_{out} using the theorems.
- Compute the upper-bound of the expected number of inner iterations

$$\max_{k=1,\ldots,k_{\mathrm{out}}} \mathbb{E}[T_{\mathcal{M},G_k}(\varepsilon_k)] \leq k_{\mathrm{in}},$$

Then, the expected iteration-complexity denoted Comp. is given by

$$Comp \le k_{in} \times k_{out}$$
.

Applications

Deterministic and Randomized Incremental Gradient methods

- Stochastic Average Gradient (SAG and SAGA) [Schmidt et al., 2013, Defazio et al., 2014a];
- Finito and MISO [Mairal, 2015, Defazio et al., 2014b];
- Semi-Stochastic/Mixed Gradient [Konečný et al., 2014, Zhang et al., 2013];
- Stochastic Dual coordinate Ascent [Shalev-Shwartz and Zhang, 2012];
- Stochastic Variance Reduced Gradient [Xiao and Zhang, 2014].

But also, randomized coordinate descent methods, and more generally first-order methods with linear convergence rates.

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Appendix on proximal MISO

Original motivation

Given some data, learn some model parameters x in \mathbb{R}^p by minimizing

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

where each f_i may be nonsmooth and nonconvex.

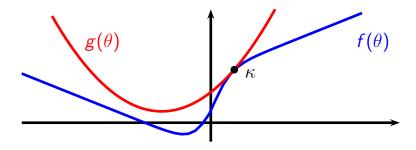
The original MISO algorithm is an incremental extension of the majorization-minimization principle [Lange et al., 2000].

Publications

- J. Mairal. Incremental Majorization-Minimization Optimization with Application to Large-Scale Machine Learning. SIAM Journal on Optimization. 2015.
- J. Mairal. Optimization with First-Order Surrogate Functions. ICML, 2013.

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Majorization-minimization principle



- Iteratively minimize locally tight upper bounds of the objective.
- The objective monotonically decreases.
- Under some assumptions, we get similar convergence rates as gradient-based approaches for convex problems.

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Incremental optimization: MISO

Algorithm 2 Incremental scheme MISO

input $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^p$; T (number of iterations).

- 1: Choose surrogates g_i^0 of f_i near x_0 for all i;
- 2: **for** k = 1, ..., K **do**
- 3: Randomly pick up one index $\hat{\imath}_k$ and choose a surrogate $g_{\hat{\imath}_k}^k$ of $f_{\hat{\imath}_k}$ near x_{k-1} . Set $g_i^k \triangleq g_i^{k-1}$ for $i \neq \hat{\imath}_k$;
- 4: Update the solution:

$$x_k \in \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g_i^k(x).$$

5: **end for output** x_K (final estimate);

Incremental Optimization: MISO

Update rule with basic upper bounds

We want to minimize $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(x)$, where the f_i 's are smooth.

$$\begin{aligned} x_k &\leftarrow \arg\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(y_i^k) + \nabla f_i(y_i^k)^\top (x - y_i^k) + \frac{L}{2} \|x - y_i^k\|_2^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^k - \frac{1}{Ln} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla f_i(y_i^k). \end{aligned}$$

At iteration k, randomly draw one index $\hat{\imath}_k$, and update $y_{\hat{\imath}_k}^k \leftarrow x_k$.

Remarks

- replace $(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^k$ by x_{k-1} yields SAG [Schmidt et al., 2013].
- replace (1/L) by $(1/\mu)$ for strongly convex problems is close to a variant of SDCA [Shalev-Shwartz and Zhang, 2012].

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Incremental Optimization: MISO μ .

Update rule with lower bounds???

We want to minimize $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(x)$, where the f_i 's are smooth.

$$\begin{aligned} x_k &= \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(y_i^k) + \nabla f_i(y_i^k)^\top (x - y_i^k) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|x - y_i^k\|_2^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i^k - \frac{1}{\mu n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla f_i(y_i^k). \end{aligned}$$

Remarks

- Requires strong convexity.
- Use a counter-intuitive minorization-minimization principle.
- Close to a variant of SDCA [Shalev-Shwartz and Zhang, 2012].
- Much faster than the basic MISO (faster rate).

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Incremental Optimization: MISO μ .

In the first part of this presentation, what we have called MISO is the algorithm that uses $1/(\mu n)$ step-sizes (sorry for the confusion).

To minimize $F(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(x)$, MISO μ has the following guarantees

Proposition [Mairal, 2015]

When the functions f_i are μ -strongly convex, differentiable with L-Lipschitz gradient, and non-negative, MISO μ satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - F^{\star}] \leq \left(1 - \frac{1}{3n}\right)^k nf^{\star},$$

under the condition $n \ge 2L/\mu$.

Remarks

- When $n \le 2L/\mu$, the algorithm may diverge;
- ullet When μ is very small, numerical stability is an issue.
- The condition $f_i \ge 0$ does not really matter.

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Proximal MISO [Lin, Mairal, and Harchaoui, 2015]

Main goals

- Remove the condition $n \leq 2L/\mu$;
- Allow a composite term ψ :

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

Starting points

 $\mathsf{MISO}\mu$ is iteratively updating/minimizing a lower-bound of F

$$x_k \leftarrow \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ D_k(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^k(x)
ight\},$$

[Lin, Mairal, and Harchaoui, 2015].

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Proximal MISO

Adding the proximal term

$$x_t \leftarrow \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \left\{ D_k(x) \stackrel{\triangle}{=} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n d_i^k(x) + \psi(x) \right\},$$

Remove the condition $n > 2L/\mu$

For
$$i = \hat{\imath}_k$$
,

$$d_i^k(x) = (1 - \delta)d_i^{k-1}(x) + \delta\left(f_i(x_{k-1}) + \langle \nabla f_i(x_{k-1}), x - x_{k-1} \rangle + \frac{\mu}{2} ||x - x_{k-1}||^2\right)$$

Remarks

- the original MISO μ uses $\delta = 1$. To get rid of the condition $n \ge 2L/\mu$, proximal MISO uses instead $\delta = \min\left(1, \frac{\mu n}{2(L-\mu)}\right)$.
- variant "5" of SDCA [Shalev-Shwartz and Zhang, 2012] is identical with another value $\delta = \frac{\mu n}{I + \mu n}$ in (0, 1).

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Proximal MISO

Convergence of MISO-Prox

Let $(x_k)_{k>0}$ be obtained by MISO-Prox, then

$$\mathbb{E}[F(x_k)] - F^* \le \frac{1}{\tau} (1 - \tau)^{k+1} \left(F(x_0) - D_0(x_0) \right) \text{ with } \tau \ge \min \left\{ \frac{\mu}{4L}, \frac{1}{2n} \right\}.$$
(8)

Furthermore, we also have fast convergence of the certificate

$$\mathbb{E}[F(x_k) - D_k(x_k)] \leq \frac{1}{\tau} (1 - \tau)^k (F^* - D_0(x_0)).$$

Differences with SDCA

- The construction is primal. The proof of convergence and the algorithm do not use duality, while SDCA is a dual ascent technique.
- $D_k(x_k)$ is a lower-bound of F^* ; it plays the same role as the dual in SDCA, but is **easier to evaluate**.

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Conclusions

- Relatively simple algorithm, with simple convergence proof, and simple optimality certificate.
- Catalyst not only accelerates it, but also stabilizes it numerically, with the parameter $\delta=1$.
- Close to SDCA, but without duality.

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