# Course Notes for EE227C (Spring 2018): Convex Optimization and Approximation

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### 12 Lecture 12: Coordinate Descent

# 12.1 Why Coordinate Descent?

There are many classes of functions for which it is very cheap to compute directional derivatives along the standard basis vectors  $e_i$ ,  $i \in [n]$ . For example,

$$f(x) = ||x||^2 \text{ or } f(x) = ||x||_1$$
 (1)

This is especially true of common regularizers, which often take the form

$$R(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} R_i(x_i) . {2}$$

More generally, many objectives and regularizes exhibit "group sparsity"; that is,

$$R(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{m} R_j(x_{S_j})$$
 (3)

where each  $S_j$ ,  $j \in [m]$  is a subsect of [n], and similarly for f(x). Examples of functions with block decompositions and group sparsity include:

1. Group sparsity penalties;

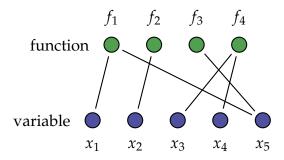


Figure 1: Example of the bipartite graph between component functions  $f_i$ ,  $i \in [m]$  and variables  $x_j$ ,  $j \in [n]$  induced by the group sparsity structure of a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$ . An edge between  $f_i$  and  $x_j$  conveys that the ith component function depends on the jth coordinate of the input.

- 2. Regularizes of the form  $R(U^{\top}x)$ , where R is coordinate-separable, and U has sparse columns and so  $(U^{\top}x) = u_i^{\top}x$  depends only on the nonzero entries of  $U_i$ ;
- 3. Neural networks, where the gradients with respect to some weights can be computed "locally"; and
- 4. ERM problems of the form

$$f(x) := \sum_{i=1}^{n} \phi_i(\langle w^{(i)}, x \rangle) \tag{4}$$

where  $\phi_i : \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , and  $w^{(i)}$  is non-zero except in a few coordinates.

# 13 Coordinate Descent

Denote  $\partial_i f = \frac{\partial f}{x_i}$ . For each round  $t = 1, 2, \ldots$ , the coordinate descent algorithms chooses an index  $i_t \in [n]$ , and computes

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta_t \partial_{i_t} f(x_t) \cdot e_{i_t} . \tag{5}$$

This algorithm is a special case of stochastic gradient descent. For

$$\mathbb{E}[x_{t+1}|x_t] = x_t - \eta_t \mathbb{E}[\partial_{i_t} f(x_t) \cdot e_{i_t}]$$
 (6)

$$= x_t - \frac{\eta_t}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \partial_i f(x_t) \cdot e_i \tag{7}$$

$$= x_t - \eta_t \nabla f(x_t) . (8)$$

Recall the bound for SGD: If  $\mathbb{E}[g_t] = \nabla f(x_t)$ , then SGD with step size  $\eta = \frac{1}{BR}$  satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T}x_t)] - \min_{x \in \Omega}f(x) \leqslant \frac{2BR}{\sqrt{T}}$$
(9)

where  $R^2$  is given by  $\max_{x \in \Omega} \|x - x_1\|_2^2$  and  $B = \max_t \mathbb{E}[\|g_t\|_2^2]$ . In particular, if we set  $g_t = n \partial_{x_{i_t}} f(x_t) \cdot e_{i_t}$ , we compute that

$$\mathbb{E}[\|g_t\|_2^2] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \|n \cdot \partial_{x_i} f(x_t) \cdot e_i\|_2^2 = n \|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2^2.$$
 (10)

If we assume that f is L-Lipschitz, we additionally have that  $\mathbb{E}[\|g_t\|^2] \leq nL^2$ . This implies the first result:

**Proposition 13.1.** Let f be convex and L-Lipschitz on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ . Then coordinate descent with step size  $\eta = \frac{1}{nR}$  has convergence rate

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T}x_t)] - \min_{x \in \Omega}f(x) \leqslant 2LR\sqrt{n/T}$$
(11)

# 13.1 Importance Sampling

In the above, we decided on using the uniform distribution to sample a coordinate. But suppose we have more fine-grained information. In particular, what if we knew that we could bound  $\sup_{x\in\Omega}\|\nabla f(x)_i\|_2 \le L_i$ ? An alternative might be to sample in a way to take  $L_i$  into account. This motivates the "importance sampled" estimator of  $\nabla f(x)$ , given by

$$g_t = \frac{1}{p_{i_t}} \cdot \partial_{i_t} f(x_t) \text{ where } i_t \sim \text{Cat}(p_1, \dots, p_n)$$
 (12)

Note then that  $\mathbb{E}[g_t] = \nabla f(x_t)$ , but

$$\mathbb{E}[\|g_t\|_2^2] = \sum_{i=1}^n (\partial_{i_t} f(x_t))^2 / p_i^2$$
 (13)

$$\leqslant \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_i^2 / p_i^2 \tag{14}$$

In this case, we can get rates

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\frac{1}{T}\sum_{t=1}^{T}x_{t})] - \min_{x \in \Omega}f(x) \leqslant 2R\sqrt{1/T} \cdot \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n}L_{i}^{2}/p_{i}^{2}}$$
(15)

In many cases, if the values of  $L_i$  are heterogenous, we can optimize the values of  $p_i$ .

## 13.2 Importance Sampling For Smooth Coordinate Descent

In this section, we consider coordinate descent with an *biased* estimator of the gradient. Suppose that we have, for  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$ , the inequality

$$|\partial_{x_i} f(x) - \partial_{x_i} f(x + \alpha e_i)| \leqslant \beta_i |\alpha| \tag{16}$$

where  $\beta_i$  are possibly heterogenous. Note that if that f is twice-continuously differentiable, the above condition is equivalently to  $\nabla^2_{ii}f(x) \leq \beta_i$ , or that  $\text{Diag}(\nabla^2 f(x)) \leq \text{diag}(\beta)$ . Define the distribution  $p^{\gamma}$  via

$$p_i^{\gamma} = \frac{\beta_i^{\gamma}}{\sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j^{\gamma}} \tag{17}$$

We consider gradient descent with the rule called RCD( $\gamma$ )

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \frac{1}{\beta_{i_t}} \cdot \partial_{i_t}(x_t) \cdot e_{i_t}, \text{ where } i_t \sim p^{\gamma}$$
(18)

Note that as  $\gamma \to \infty$ , coordinates with larger values of  $\beta_i$  will be selected more often. Also note that this is *not generally* equivalent to SGD, because

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{\beta_{i_t}}\partial_{i_t}(x_t)e_i\right] = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j^{\gamma}} \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^{\gamma-1}\partial_i f(x_t)e_i = \frac{1}{\sum_{j=1}^n \beta_j^{\gamma}} \cdot \nabla f(x_t) \circ (\beta_i^{\gamma-1})_{i \in [n]} \quad (19)$$

which is only a scaled version of  $\nabla f(x_t)$  when  $\gamma = 1$ . Still, we can prove the following theorem:

**Theorem 13.2.** *Define the weighted norms* 

$$\|x\|_{[\gamma]}^2 := \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \beta_i^{\gamma} \text{ and } \|x\|_{[\gamma]}^{*2} := \sum_{i=1}^n x_i^2 \beta_i^{-\gamma}$$
 (20)

and note that the norms are dual to one another. We then have that the rule  $RCD(\gamma)$  produces iterates satisfying

$$\mathbb{E}[f(x_t) - \arg\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)] \leqslant \frac{2R_{1-\gamma}^2 \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^{\gamma}}{t-1}, \tag{21}$$

where  $R_{1-\gamma}^2 = \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : f(x) \leqslant f(x_1)} \|x - x^*\|_{[1-\gamma]}$ .

*Proof.* Recall the inequality that for a general  $\beta_g$ -smooth convex function g, one has that

$$g\left(u - \frac{1}{\beta_g}\nabla g(u)\right) - g(u) \leqslant -\frac{1}{2\beta_g}\|\nabla g\|^2 \tag{22}$$

Hence, considering the functions  $g_i(u;x) = f(x + ue_i)$ , we see that  $\partial_i f(x) = g'_i(u;x)$ , and thus  $g_i$  is  $\beta_i$  smooth. Hence, we have

$$f\left(x - \frac{1}{\beta_i}\nabla f(x)e_i\right) - f(x) = g_i(0 - \frac{1}{\beta_g}g_i'(0;x)) - g(0;x) \leqslant -\frac{g_i'(u;x)^2}{2\beta_i} = -\frac{\partial_i f(x)^2}{2\beta_i}.$$
(23)

Hence, if  $i p^{\gamma}$ , we have

$$\mathbb{E}[f(x - \frac{1}{\beta_i}\partial_i f(x)e_i) - f(x)] \leqslant \sum_{i=1}^n p_i^{\gamma} \cdot -\frac{\partial_i f(x)^2}{2\beta_i}$$
(24)

$$= -\frac{1}{2\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i}^{\gamma}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta^{\gamma-1} \partial_{i} f(x)^{2}$$
 (25)

$$= -\frac{\|\nabla f(x)\|_{[1-\gamma]}^{*2}}{2\sum_{i=1}^{n} \beta_{i}^{\gamma}}$$
 (26)

Hence, if we define  $\delta_t = \mathbb{E}[f(x_t) - f(x^*)]$ , we have that

$$\delta_{t+1} - \delta_t \leqslant -\frac{\|\nabla f(x_t)\|_{[1-\gamma]}^{*2}}{2\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^{\gamma}}$$
 (27)

Moreover, with probability 1, one also has that  $f(x_{t+1}) \le f(x_t)$ , by the above. We now continue with the regular proof of smooth gradient descent. Note that

$$\delta_{t} \leqslant \nabla f(x_{t})^{\top} (x_{t} - x_{*}) 
\leqslant \|\nabla f(x_{t})\|_{[1-\gamma]}^{*} \|x_{t} - x_{*}\|_{[1-\gamma]} 
\leqslant R_{1-\gamma} \|\nabla f(x_{t})\|_{[1-\gamma]}^{*}.$$

Putting these things together implies that

$$\delta_{t+1} - \delta_t \leqslant -\frac{\delta_t^2}{2R_{1-\gamma}^2 \sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^{\gamma}} \tag{28}$$

Recall that this was the recursion we used to prove convergence in the non-stochastic case.

**Theorem 13.3.** *If* f *is in addition*  $\alpha$ -*strongly convex w.r.t to*  $\|\cdot\|_{[1-\gamma]}$ , *then we get* 

$$\mathbb{E}[f(x_{t+1}) - \arg\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)] \leqslant \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^{\gamma}}\right)^t (f(x_1) - f(x^*)). \tag{29}$$

*Proof.* We need the following lemma:

**Lemma 13.4.** Let f be an  $\alpha$ -strongly convex function w.r.t to a norm  $\|\cdot\|$ . Then,  $f(x) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{1}{2\alpha} \|\nabla f(x)\|_*^2$ .

Proof.

$$f(x) - f(y) \leq \nabla f(x)^{\top} (x - y) - \frac{\alpha}{2} ||x - y||_{2}^{2}$$

$$\leq ||\nabla f(x)||_{*} ||x - y||^{2} - \frac{\alpha}{2} ||x - y||_{2}^{2}$$

$$\leq \max_{t} ||\nabla f(x)||_{*} t - \frac{\alpha}{2} t^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\alpha} ||\nabla f(x)||_{*}^{2}.$$

Lemma 13.4 shows that

$$\|\nabla f(x_s)\|_{[1-\gamma]}^{*2} \geqslant 2\alpha\delta_s$$
.

On the other hand, Theorem 13.2 showed that

$$\delta_{t+1} - \delta_t \leqslant -\frac{\|\nabla f(x_t)\|_{[1-\gamma]}^{*2}}{2\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^{\gamma}}$$
(30)

Combining these two, we get

$$\delta_{t+1} - \delta_t \leqslant -\frac{\alpha \delta_t}{\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^{\gamma}} \tag{31}$$

$$\delta_{t+1} \leqslant \delta_t \left( 1 - \frac{\alpha}{\sum_{i=1}^n \beta_i^{\gamma}} \right) .$$
 (32)

Applying the above inequality recursively and recalling that  $\delta_t = \mathbb{E}[f(x_t) - f(x^*)]$  gives the result.

What's surprising is that  $RCD(\gamma)$  is a descent method, despite being random. This is not true of normal SGD.

#### 13.3

When does RCD( $\gamma$ ) actually do better? If  $\gamma = 1$ , the savings are proportional to the ration of  $\sum_{i=1} \beta_i / \beta \cdot (T_{coord} / T_{grad})$ . When f is twice differentiable, this is the ratio of

$$\frac{\operatorname{tr}(\max_{x} \nabla^{2} f(x))}{\|\max_{x} \nabla^{2} f(x)\|_{\operatorname{op}}} (T_{coord} / T_{grad})$$
(33)

#### 13.4 Other Extensions

- 1. Non-Stochastic, Cyclic SGD
- 2. Sampling w/ Replacement
- 3. Strongly Convex + Smooth!?
- 4. Strongly Convex (generalize SGD)
- 5. Acceleration? See Tu et al. Breaking Locality Accelerates Block Gauss-Seidel

### 13.5 Duality and Coordinate Descent

#### 13.6 The Fenchel Dual

**Definition 13.5.** Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a convex function. Then its Fenchel dual is defined as

$$f^*(w) := \sup_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \langle w, x \rangle - f(x) \tag{34}$$

Observe that  $f^*(w)$  is convex, being a supremum of affine functions. Moreover, since  $x \mapsto \langle w, x \rangle - f(x)$  is concae, the inner supremum is convex, and is optimized if and only if

$$w \in \partial f(x) \tag{35}$$

Note moreover that, by Danksin's Theorem,

$$\partial f^*(w) := \{ x \in \arg\sup\langle w, x \rangle - f(x) \} = \{ x : w \in \partial f(x) \}$$
 (36)

In particular,  $\partial f^*(0)$  is the set of minimizers of f.

#### 13.7 Duals of Coordinate Functions

Suppose that

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \phi_i(c_i^T x) + R(x)$$
(37)

Consider the substitution  $\alpha_i = c_i^T x$ , so that  $z = C^T x$ . Then, we can write

$$\arg \min_{x} f(x) = \arg \min_{x,z} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \phi_{i}(\alpha_{i}) + \lambda R(x) : C^{T}x = z$$

$$= \arg \min_{x,z} \max_{w} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \phi_{i}(\alpha_{i}) + R(x) - w^{T}(C^{T}x - z)$$

$$\geqslant \max_{w} \arg \min_{x,z} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \phi_{i}(z_{i}) + R(x) - w^{T}(C^{T}x - z)$$

$$= \max_{w} - \arg \min_{x,z} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \phi_{i}(z_{i}) - \alpha_{i}w_{i} + R(x) - (Cw)^{T}x$$

$$= \max_{w} - \arg \max_{z} \sum_{i=1}^{n} z_{i}w_{i} - \phi_{i}(\alpha_{i}) \arg \max_{x} + (Cw)^{T}x - R(x)$$

$$= \max_{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \phi_{i}^{*}(w_{i}) + R^{*}(Cw)$$

We can call the above objective  $D(w) := -\sum_{i=1}^n \phi_i^*(w_i) + \arg\max_x (Cw)^\top x - R(x)$ . Observe that by weak duality, we have that for any pair of points  $(w, x) \in \mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R}^n$ , we

$$f(x) \geqslant f(x^*) \geqslant D(w^*) \geqslant D(w) \tag{38}$$

Hence, if we can maintain a pair of points  $(w_t, x_t)$  such that  $f(x_t) - D(w_t) \le \epsilon$ , then we get for free that  $f(x_t) - f(x^*) \le \epsilon$ . Moreover, the objective D(w) is *concave* so it can be efficiently optimized.

#### 13.8

A natural pair of (w, x). In general, one should hope that the pair  $(w_t, x_t)$  are related by some easy to compute correspondence. Suppose that we have a rule x(w), which maps any point w to a point x, so that  $x_t = x(w_t)$ . We should hope that  $x(w_*) \in \arg\min_x f(x)$ , for any  $w^* \in \arg\max_w D(w)$ . More generally, this can be solved by noting for a dual optimal pair  $(w^*, x^*)$ , one must have that

$$x^* \in \arg\min_{x} R(x) - (Cw)^{\top} x \tag{39}$$

When R(x) is differentiable, this implies that  $\nabla R(x) = Cw$  and if R(x) is strictly convex,  $\nabla R(x)$  is invertible, and so we would generally take our pair ato be  $(w, (\nabla R)^{-1}(Cw))$ .

In general,  $(\nabla R)^{-1}$  might be hard to compute. But for ridge-penalties, if  $R(x) = \frac{\lambda}{2} ||x||^2$ , then  $\nabla R(x) = \lambda x$ , so we have that  $\lambda x = Cw$ , whence  $x = \frac{1}{\lambda} Cw$ , which isn't so bad.

Note that this implies that whenever you have a square loss penalty, any optimal  $x^*$  is always in the span of the data, which is powerful when the number of features n greatly exceeds the number of examples N.

#### 13.9 SDCA

1. s

**Lemma 13.6.** Suppose that  $\phi$  is  $\beta$ -smooth. Then  $\phi^*$  is  $\alpha = 1/\beta$ -strongly convex.

**Lemma 13.7.** Let g be a  $\alpha$ -strongly convex (for  $\alpha \geqslant 0$ ), and let  $w_0, x_0 \in \mathbb{R}$ . Then, for any  $u \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and any

$$\min_{w} \{g(w) + \frac{L}{2}(w - x_0)^2\} - \{g(w_0) - \frac{L}{2}(w_0 - x_0)^2\} \leqslant s\{g(u) + u(w_0 - x_0) - g(w_0) - w_0(w_0 - x_0) - (\frac{\alpha(1 - s) + Ls}{2})(w_0 - u)^2\} \tag{40}$$

*Proof.* Observe that we have (this is another definition of strong convexity):

$$g(w_0 + s(u - w_0)) \leqslant (1 - s)g(w_0) + sg(u) - \frac{\alpha}{2}s(1 - s)(w_0 - u)^2$$
(41)

Hence,

$$\min_{w} \{ g(w) + \frac{L}{2} (w - x_0)^2 \} - \{ g(w_0) - \frac{\lambda}{2} (w_0 - x_0)^2 \}$$
(42)

$$\leq g(w_0 + s(u - w_0)) + \frac{L}{2}(w_0 + s(u - w_0) - x_0)^2 - -\{g(w_0) - \frac{L}{2}(w_0 - x_0)^2\}$$
(43)

$$= g(w_0 + s(u - w_0)) - g(w_0) + \frac{L}{2} \{ (s(u - w_0))^2 + s(u - w_0)(w_0 - x_0) \}$$
(44)

$$= (1-s)g(w_0) + sg(u) - \frac{\alpha}{2}s(1-s)(w_0-u)^2 - g(w_0) + \frac{L}{2}\{(s(u-w_0))^2 + s(u-w_0)(w_0-x_0)\}$$

$$= s\{g(u) + u(w_0 - x_0) - g(w_0) - w_0(w_0 - x_0) - (\frac{\alpha(1-s) + Ls}{2})(w_0 - u)^2\}$$
(46)

Theorem 13.8 (SCDA).

# References

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