Is Greedy Coordinate Descent a Terrible Algorithm?

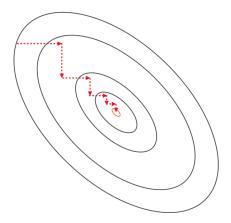
Julie Nutini, Mark Schmidt, Issam Laradji, Michael Friedlander, Hoyt Koepke

University of British Columbia

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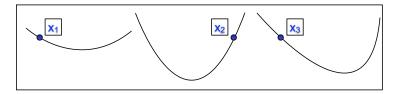
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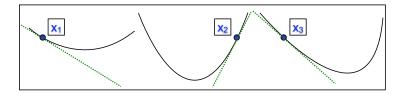
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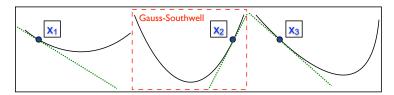
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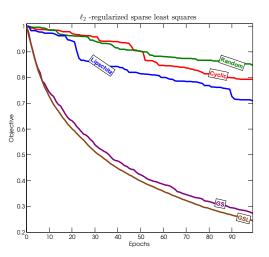
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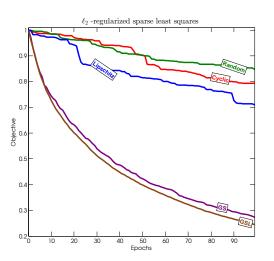
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- But this theory disagrees with practice...



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- This work: refined analysis of GS.

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- There are basically two problems where this is true:

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 h₂ includes quadratics, graph-based label propagation, and probabilistic graphical models.

E.g.,
$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} \frac{1}{2} x^T A x + b^T x = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{i=1}^n a_{ij} x_i x_j + \sum_{i=1}^n b_i x_i.$$

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- Examples:
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- Dense quadratic: max degree = (n-1), average degree = (n-1).
- Facebook graph: max degree < 7000, average is ≈ 200 .

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GS can be approximated as nearest neighbour problem.

[Dhillon et al., 2011, Shrivastava & Li, 2014].

Notation and Assumptions

We focus on the convex optimization problem

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

where ∇f is coordinate-wise *L*-Lipschitz continuous,

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• If twice-differentiable, equivalent to

$$\nabla^2_{ii}f(x) \leq L, \quad \nabla^2 f(x) \succeq \mu I.$$

Convergence of Randomized Coordinate Descent

• Coordinate descent with constant step size $\frac{1}{I}$ uses

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \frac{1}{L} \nabla_{i_k} f(x^k) e_{i_k},$$

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• With i_k chosen uniformly from $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ [Nesterov, 2010],

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Compare this to the rate of gradient descent,

$$f(x^{k+1}) - f(x^*) \le \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{L_f}\right) [f(x^k) - f(x^*)].$$

• Since $Ln \ge L_f \ge L$, coordinate descent is slower *per iteration*, but n coordinate iterations are faster than one gradient iteration.

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$$f(x^{k+1}) - f(x^*) \le \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{\ln n}\right) [f(x^k) - f(x^*)],$$

same rate as randomized [Boyd & Vandenberghe, 2004, §9.4.3].

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- GS bound is the same as random when $\mu_1 = \mu/n$.
- Otherwise, GS can be faster by as large as n.

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 - But GS and random are still similar ($\mu_1 \approx \mu/n$).
- With one very small λ_i :
 - Here GS bound can be better by a factor of $n (\mu_1 \approx \mu)$.
 - In this case, GS can actually be faster than gradient descent.
- μ_1 is harmonic mean of λ_i divided by n, $H(\lambda)/n$:
 - $H(\lambda)$ is dominated by minimum of its arguments.
 - If each worker takes λ_i time to finish a task on their own, $H(\lambda)/n$ is time needed when 'working together' [Ferger, 1931].

Fast Convergence with Bias Term

• Consider the linear-prediction framework in statistics,

$$\underset{x,\beta}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(a_{i}^{T}x + \beta) + \frac{\lambda}{2} ||x||^{2} + \frac{\sigma}{2}\beta^{2},$$

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where we've included a bias β .

- Typically $\sigma << \lambda$ to avoid biasing against a global shift.
- This is an instance of h_1 where GS has the most benefit.

Rates with Different Lipschitz Constants

• Consider the case where we have an *L_i* for each coordinate,

$$|\nabla_i f(\mathbf{x} + \alpha \mathbf{e}_i) - \nabla_i f(\mathbf{x})| \leq L_i |\alpha|,$$

and we use a coordinate-dependent stepsize,

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \frac{1}{L_{i_k}} \nabla_{i_k} f(x^k) e_{i_k}.$$

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In this setting, we get a rate of

$$f(x^k) - f(x^*) \le \left| \prod_{j=1}^k \left(1 - \frac{\mu_1}{L_{i_j}} \right) \right| [f(x^0) - f(x^*)].$$

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- Since $L = \max_i L_i$, this is faster if $L_{i_k} < L$ for any i_k .
- But rate is the same in the worst case, even if L_i are distinct.
- Let's consider the effect of exact coordinate optimization on L_{i_k} .

Gauss-Southwell with Exact Optimization

- Exact coordinate optimization chooses the stepsize minimizing f.
- We can get the same rates for randomized/GS because

$$f(x^{k+1}) = \min_{\alpha} \{ f(x^k - \alpha \nabla_{i_k} f(x^k) e_{i_k}) \}$$

$$\leq f\left(x^k - \frac{1}{L_{i_k}} \nabla_{i_l} f(x^k) e_{i_k}\right)$$

$$\leq f(x^k) - \frac{1}{2L_{i_k}} [\nabla_{i_k} f(x^k)]^2,$$

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- But theory again disagrees with practice:
 - Empirically, exact optimization is much faster.

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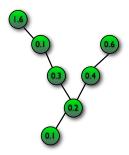
$$\nabla f(x^k) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.67 \\ -1.21 \\ 0.72 \\ \mathbf{1.63} \\ 0.49 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad \nabla f(x^{k+1}) = \begin{bmatrix} 0.65 \\ -\mathbf{1.31} \\ 0.81 \\ 0 \\ 0.53 \end{bmatrix}.$$

• If L_i are distinct, worst case is alternating between largest two L_i .

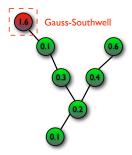
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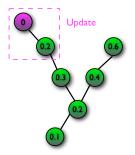
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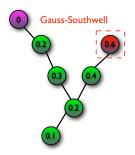
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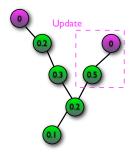
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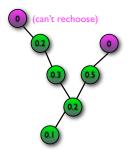
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- L_2^G is the largest average between neighbours.
- L_3^G is the largest average 3-node path.
- This is much faster if the large L_i are not neighbours.
- Similar for h₁: edges between variables non-zero in same row.

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- Faster than uniform sampling when the L_i are disinct.
- This could be faster or slower than the GS rule.
- In the separalbe quadratic case:
 - With one large λ_i , Lipschitz sampling is faster.
 - With one small λ_i , GS is faster.
- So which should we use?

Gauss-Southwell-Lipschitz Rule

We obtain a faster rate by using L_i in the GS rule,

$$i_k = \underset{i}{\operatorname{argmax}} \frac{|\nabla_i f(x^k)|}{\sqrt{L_i}},$$

which we call the Gauss-Southwell-Lipschitz (GSL) rule.

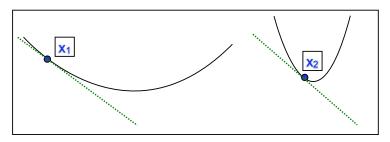
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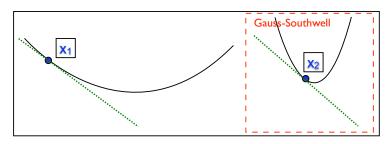


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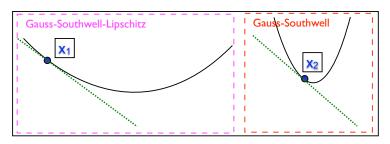


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 Analysis gives tighter bound on maximum improvement rule, used in certain applications.

[Della Pietra et al., 1997, Lee et al., 2006]

• Consider a special case of h_1 ,

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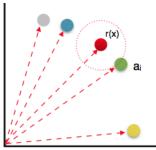
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- Using $L_i = \gamma ||a_i||^2$, exact GSL as a nearest neighbour problem,

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With additive error,

$$|\nabla_{i_k} f(x^k)| \ge \|\nabla f(x^k)\|_{\infty} - \epsilon_k,$$

we have a fast rate if $\epsilon_k \to 0$ fast enough.

With constant additive error, only get a certain solution accuracy.

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$$\min_{x\in\mathbb{R}^n}F(x)\equiv f(x)+\sum_ig_i(x_i),$$

where f is smooth and g_i might be non-smooth.

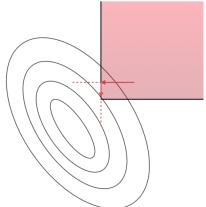
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- GS-q: Maximize progress under quadratic approximation of f.

$$i_k = \operatorname*{argmin}_i \left\{ \min_d f(x^k) + \nabla_i f(x^k) d + \frac{Ld^2}{2} + g_i(x_i^k + d) - g_i(x_i^k) \right\}.$$

- Least intuitive, but has the best theoretical properties.
- Generalizes GSL if you use L_i instead of L.

• For the GS-q rule, we show that

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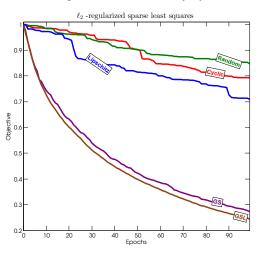
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- But one final time theory disagrees with practice:
 - All three rules seem to work pretty well.
 - Though GS-r works badly if you use the L_i .

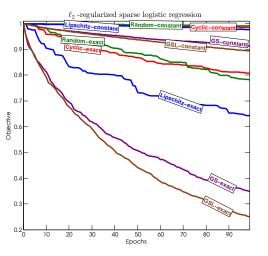
Experiment 1: Sparse ℓ_2 -Regularized Least Squares

Least squares with ℓ_2 -regularization and very sparse matrix.



Experiment 2: Sparse ℓ_2 -Regularized Logistic

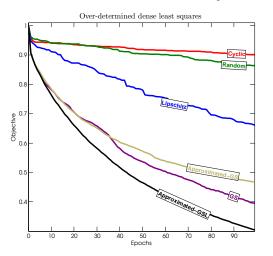
Logistic regression with ℓ_2 -regularization and very sparse matrix.



Exact optimization makes a bigger difference than coordinate selection.

Experiment 3: Over-determined least squares

Least squares with dense matrix and nearest neighbour GS.



Approximate GS is still faster than random sampling.

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- We've given a justification for line-search in certain scenarios.
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- Analysis extends to block updates.
- Could be used for accelerated/parallel methods [Fercocq & Richtárik, 2013], primal-dual methods [Shalev-Schwartz & Zhang, 2013], and without strong-convexity [Luo & Tseng, 1993].