Optimisation Combinatoire et Convexe

First Order Methods: part I

First Order Methods: Part One.

- Introduction
 - \circ Exploiting structure
 - \circ Classification
- Gradient/projection based methods
 - $\circ~$ Acceleration
 - Optimal complexity, resisting oracles

Interior Point Methods, Netwon.

- Even with efficient linear algebra, exploiting structure in the KKT system computing the Newton step, the cost of one iteration becomes prohibitive.
- The dependence on the precision target is logarithmic $O(\log(1/\epsilon))$: Newton's method produces high precision solutions, which is often unnecessary.
- Very good agreement between theoretical complexity bounds and empirical performance:
 - Two convergence phases for Newton's method (damped, quadratic).
 - Dimension independence: only precision improvement matters in Newton's iterations.
 - Very good dependence on precision target.
 - Affine invariance: immune to conditioning issues.

Unfortunately: does not scale forever. . .

First order methods.

- Dependence on precision is polynomial $O(1/\epsilon^{\alpha})$, not logarithmic $O(\log(1/\epsilon))$. This is OK in many applications (stats, etc).
- Run a much larger number of cheaper iterations. No Hessian means significantly lower memory and CPU costs per iteration.
- Lack of second order information means conditioning issues have much more impact on numerical performance.
- Much greater gap between theoretical complexity bounds and empirical performance.
- No unified analysis (self-concordance for IPM): large library of disparate methods.
- Algorithmic choices strictly constrained by problem structure.

Objective: classify these techniques, study their performance & complexity.

First order methods. Algorithmic choices based on problem structure.

- Some optimization subproblems can be solved very efficiently (thresholding, binary search, SVD, etc).
- Classify algorithms according to these subproblems:
 - Projection. Project the current iterate on a simple convex set, according to a certain norm. Iterates are mostly based on projected gradient steps.
 - **Centering.** Solve a centering problem at each iteration and compute a subgradient at the center to localize the solution.
 - Affine maximization. Solve an affine maximization problem over the feasible set.
 - **Partial optimization.** Solve the minimization problem over a subset of the variables.
- Solving large-scale programs means solving a long sequence of these subproblems.

Gradient/projection methods

Gradient/projection methods: introduction

Solve

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{minimize} & f(x) \\ \mbox{subject to} & x \in C \end{array}$

in $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, with $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ convex.

Main assumptions in the subgradient/gradient methods that follow:

- The gradient $\nabla f(x)$ or a subgradient can be computed efficiently.
- If C is not \mathbb{R}^n , for any $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the following subproblem can be solved efficiently

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{minimize} & y^T x + d(x) \\ \mbox{subject to} & x \in C \end{array}$

in the variable $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, where d(x) is a **strongly convex** function. Typically, $d(x) = \|x\|_2^2$ and this is an Euclidean projection.

We will always assume that C is simple enough so that this projection step can be solved efficiently.

Subgradient. Definition.

Suppose that f is a convex function with $\mathbf{dom} f = \mathbb{R}^n$, and that there is a vector $g \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that:

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + g^T(y - x), \text{ for all } y \in \mathbb{R}^n$$

- The vector g is called a **subgradient** of f at x, we write $g \in \partial f$.
- Of course, if f is differentiable, the gradient of f at x satisfies this condition
- The subgradient defines a supporting hyperplane for f at the point x

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{minimize} & f(x) \\ \mbox{subject to} & x \in C \end{array}$

In theory. . .

The theoretical convergence speed of gradient based methods is mostly controlled by the smoothness of the objective.

Convex objective $f(x)$	Iterations
Nondifferentiable	$O(1/\epsilon^2)$
Differentiable	$O(1/\epsilon^2)$
Smooth (Lipschitz gradient)	$O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})$
Strongly convex	$O(\log(1/\epsilon))$

Obviously, the geometry of the (convex) feasible set also has an impact.

In practice. . .

- Compared to IPM, much larger gap between theoretical complexity guarantees and empirical performance.
- Conditioning, well-posedness, etc. also have a very strong impact.

Subgradient method.

Algorithm. At each iteration k, update the current point x_k according to:

 $x_{k+1} = x_k + \alpha_k g_k$

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where g_k is a subgradient of f at x_k
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- α_k is the step size sequence
- Similar to gradient descent but, not a descent method . . .
- Instead: use the best point and the minimum function value found so far

Step size strategies:

- Constant step size: $\alpha_k = h$ for all $k \ge 0$
- Constant step length: $\alpha_k / \|g_k\| = h$ for all $k \ge 0$
- Square summable but not summable:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha_k = \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha_k^2 < \infty$$

Nonsummable diminishing:

$$\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \alpha_k = \infty \quad \text{and} \quad \lim_{k \to \infty} \alpha_k = 0$$

Convergence proof. For standard gradient descent methods, convergence is based on the function value decreasing at each step. Here, the function value often increases, but the *Euclidean distance to the optimal set* converges.

Proposition

Subgradient method complexity. Assuming $||g||_2 \leq G$, for all $g \in \partial f$, the subgradient method with step size α_i satisifes

$$f_{\text{best}} - f^{\star} \le \frac{\operatorname{dist}(x_1, x^*)^2 + G^2 \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2}{2 \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i}$$

Proof. We have

$$\begin{aligned} \|x^{(k+1)} - x^{\star}\|_{2}^{2} &= \|x^{(k)} - \alpha_{k}g^{(k)} - x^{\star}\|_{2}^{2} \\ &= \|x^{(k)} - x^{\star}\|_{2}^{2} - 2\alpha_{k}g^{(k)T}(x^{(k)} - x^{\star}) + \alpha_{k}^{2}\|g^{(k)}\|_{2}^{2} \\ &\leq \|x^{(k)} - x^{\star}\|_{2}^{2} - 2\alpha_{k}(f(x^{(k)}) - f^{\star}) + \alpha_{k}^{2}\|g^{(k)}\|_{2}^{2}, \end{aligned}$$

where $f^{\star} = f(x^{\star})$. The last line follows from the definition of subgradient, which gives

$$f(x^{\star}) \ge f(x^{(k)}) + g^{(k)T}(x^{\star} - x^{(k)}).$$

Applying the inequality above recursively, we have

$$\|x^{(k+1)} - x^{\star}\|_{2}^{2} \le \|x^{(1)} - x^{\star}\|_{2}^{2} - 2\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i}(f(x^{(i)}) - f^{\star}) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i}^{2}\|g^{(i)}\|_{2}^{2}.$$

Using $||x^{(k+1)} - x^{\star}||_2^2 \ge 0$ we have

$$2\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i(f(x^{(i)}) - f^*) \le \|x^{(1)} - x^*\|_2^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i^2 \|g^{(i)}\|_2^2.$$

Combining this with

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i (f(x^{(i)}) - f^*) \ge \left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_i\right) \min_{i=1,\dots,k} (f(x^{(i)}) - f^*),$$

we have the inequality

$$f_{\text{best}}^{(k)} - f^{\star} = \min_{i=1,\dots,k} f(x^{(i)}) - f^{\star} \le \frac{\|x^{(1)} - x^{\star}\|_{2}^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i}^{2} \|g^{(i)}\|_{2}^{2}}{2\sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i}}.$$
 (1)

Finally, using the assumption $||g^{(k)}||_2 \leq G$, we obtain the basic inequality

$$f_{\text{best}}^{(k)} - f^{\star} = \min_{i=1,\dots,k} f(x^{(i)}) - f^{\star} \le \frac{\|x^{(1)} - x^{\star}\|_{2}^{2} + G^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i}^{2}}{2 \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i}}.$$
 (2)

Since x^{\star} is any minimizer of f, we can state that

$$f_{\text{best}}^{(k)} - f^* \le \frac{\operatorname{dist}(x^{(1)}, X^*)^2 + G^2 \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2}{2 \sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i}.$$

Subgradient methods: convergence

Constant step size. If $\alpha_k = h$, we have

$$f_{\text{best}}^{(k)} - f^{\star} \le \frac{\operatorname{dist}(x^{(1)}, X^{\star})^2 + G^2 h^2 k}{2hk}.$$

To get an ϵ solution, we set $h=2\epsilon/G^2$ and

$$\frac{\operatorname{dist}(x_1, X^\star)^2}{2hk} \le \epsilon$$

hence the following bound on the number of iterations

$$k \ge \frac{\operatorname{dist}(x_1, X^\star)^2 G^2}{4\epsilon^2}.$$

Square summable but not summable. Now suppose

$$\|\alpha\|_2^2 = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k^2 < \infty, \qquad \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \alpha_k = \infty.$$

Then we have

$$f_{\text{best}}^{(k)} - f^{\star} \le \frac{\operatorname{dist}(x^{(1)}, X^{\star})^2 + G^2 \|\alpha\|_2^2}{2\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i},$$

which converges to zero as $k \to \infty$. In other words, the subgradient method converges (in the sense $f_{\text{best}}^{(k)} \to f^*$).

Subgradient Methods

If the problem has constraints:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & f(x) \\ \text{subject to} & x \in C \end{array}$

where $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ is a convex set

• Use the Euclidean projection $p_C(\cdot)$

$$x_{k+1} = p_C(x_k + \alpha_k g_k)$$

- Similar complexity analysis
- Some numerical examples on piecewise linear minimization. . . Problem instance with n = 10 variables, m = 100 terms

"In theory, there is no difference between theory and practice. In practice, there is..."

Constant step length, h = 0.05, 0.02, 0.005



Constant step size h = 0.05, 0.02, 0.005



Diminishing step rule $\alpha = 0.1/\sqrt{k}$ and square summable step size rule $\alpha = 0.1/k$.



Constant step length h = 0.02, diminishing step size rule $\alpha = 0.1/\sqrt{k}$, and square summable step rule $\alpha = 0.1/k$



Accelerated Gradient Methods

Solve

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{minimize} & f(x) \\ \mbox{subject to} & x \in C \end{array}$

in $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, with $C \subset \mathbb{R}^n$ convex.

Additional smoothness assumption: the gradient is Lipschitz continuous

$$\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\|_* \le L \|x - y\|$$
 for all $x, y \in C$

where $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm.

• We will also study the case where the function is strongly convex, i.e. there exists $\mu > 0$

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + (y - x)^T \nabla f(x) + \frac{\mu}{2} ||y - x||^2$$
 for all $x, y \in C$

where $\|\cdot\|$ is a norm. But acceleration works even when $\sigma = 0$.

Accelerated Gradient Methods

The fact that the gradient $\nabla f(x)$ is Lipschitz continuous

$$\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\|_* \le L \|x - y\| \quad \text{for all } x, y \in C$$

has important algorithmic consequences:

For any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$,

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

and we get a **quadratic upper bound** on the function f(x). This means in particular that if $y = x - \frac{1}{L}\nabla f(x)$, then

$$f(y) \le f(x) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2$$

and we get a guaranteed **decrease in the function value** at each gradient step.

Suppose we seek to solve

 $\min f(x)$

over $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, assuming $\nabla f(x)$ is Lipschitz continuous with constant L.

Consider the following method (due to Adrien Taylor), based on [Nesterov, 1983].

For $k = 1, \ldots, k^{max}$ iterate

1. Set
$$y_{k+1} = (1 - \tau_k)y_k + \tau_k z_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(y_k)$$
.

2. Set $z_{k+1} = z_k - \gamma_k \nabla f(y_{+1}k)$.

where the parameters are set using the value of a time varying sequence A_k

$$\tau_k = \frac{A_{k+1} - A_k}{A_{k+1}}, \ \alpha_k = \frac{A_k}{LA_{k+1}}, \ \gamma_k = \frac{A_{k+1} - A_k}{L}$$

Accelerated Gradient Methods

Theorem

Convergence. Let f be L-smooth and convex. For all values $A_k \ge 0$ the iterates satisfy

$$A_{k+1}(f(y_{k+1}) - f(x_{\star})) + \frac{L}{2} \|z_{k+1} - x_{\star}\|^2 \le A_k(f(y_k) - f(x_{\star})) + \frac{L}{2} \|z_k - x_{\star}\|^2,$$

if A_k is monotonically increasing and $A_{k+1} - (A_k - A_{k+1})^2 \ge 0$.

Proof. Perform a weighted sum of the following inequalities:

• smoothness and convexity between x_{\star} and y_{k+1} with weight $\lambda_1 = A_{k+1} - A_k$

$$f(x_{\star}) \ge f(y_{k+1}) + \langle \nabla f(y_{k+1}); x_{\star} - y_{k+1} \rangle + \frac{1}{2L} \| \nabla f(y_{k+1}) \|^2,$$

• smoothness and convexity between y_k and y_{k+1} with weight $\lambda_2 = A_k$

$$f(y_k) \ge f(y_{k+1}) + \langle \nabla f(y_{k+1}); y_k - y_{k+1} \rangle + \frac{1}{2L} \| \nabla f(y_{k+1}) - \nabla f(y_k) \|^2.$$

The weighted sum can be written as

$$0 \ge \lambda_1 [f(y_{k+1}) - f(x_\star) + \langle \nabla f(y_{k+1}); x_\star - y_{k+1} \rangle + \frac{1}{2L} \| \nabla f(y_{k+1}) \|^2] + \lambda_2 [f(y_{k+1}) - f(y_k) + \langle \nabla f(y_{k+1}); y_k - y_{k+1} \rangle + \frac{1}{2L} \| \nabla f(y_{k+1}) - \nabla f(y_k) \|^2],$$

which is equivalently formulated as

$$A_{k+1}(f(y_{k+1}) - f(x_{\star})) + \frac{L}{2} ||z_{k+1} - x_{\star}||^{2}$$

$$\leq A_{k}(f(y_{k}) - f(x_{\star})) + \frac{L}{2} ||z_{k} - x_{\star}||^{2} - \frac{A_{k}}{2L} ||\nabla f(y_{k})||^{2}$$

$$- \frac{A_{k+1} - (A_{k+1} - A_{k})^{2}}{2L} ||\nabla f(y_{k+1})||^{2}.$$

Therefore, we reach the desired statement as soon as we can remove the last two terms. This means $A_k \ge 0$ and $A_{k+1} - (A_{k+1} - A_k)^2 \ge 0$ (both verified by assumptions). The choice $A_{k+1} = A_k + \frac{1 + \sqrt{4A_k + 1}}{2}$ allows satisfying $A_{k+1} - (A_{k+1} - A_k)^2 = 0$ with the largest possible value of A_{k+1} .

Accelerated Gradient Methods

We get the following result, with a convergence rate of $O(1/k^2)$.

Theorem

Complexity. After k iterations, we obtain points y_k and z_k satisfying

$$f(y_k) - f(x_\star) \le \frac{L \|z_0 - x_\star\|^2}{k^2}$$

Proof. We can pick $A_k = k^2/2$ which satisfies $A_{k+1} - (A_k - A_{k+1})^2 \ge 0$ and, together with the previous theorem, yields the bound above.

Accelerated Gradient Methods

The choice of norm has a significant impact on complexity. Consider

 $\begin{array}{ll} \text{minimize} & f(x) \\ \text{subject to} & x \in C \end{array}$

Euclidean. Pick $d(x) = ||x||_2^2/2$, strongly convex with $\sigma = 1$ w.r.t. the Euclidean norm

$$f(x_k) - f^* \le \frac{2L_2 \|x^*\|_2^2}{(k+1)^2}$$

where L_2 is such that $\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\|_2 \leq L_2 \|x - y\|_2$, for all $x, y \in C$.

• Entropy. Pick $d(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i \log x_i$, strongly convex with $\sigma = 1$ w.r.t. the $\|.\|_1$ norm

$$f(x_k) - f^* \le \frac{2L_{\infty}d(x^*)}{(k+1)^2}$$

where L_e is such that $\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\|_{\infty} \leq L_{\infty} \|x - y\|_1$, for all $x, y \in C$.

Because $\|\cdot\|_{\infty} \leq \|\cdot\|_{2} \leq \|\cdot\|_{1}$, we always have $L_{\infty} \leq L_{2}$.

Accelerated Gradient Methods: optimality

Accelerated gradient methods. Can we do better than $O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})$?

Problem class. f(x) has a Lipschitz continuous gradient with constant L. At each iteration, we get a **black-box gradient oracle**, and we look for a solution satisfying $f(x) - f^* \leq \epsilon$

If we know nothing about f(x) except its gradient at certain points and its gradient Lipschitz constant L.

- We need at least $O(||x_0 x^*||_2 \sqrt{L/\epsilon})$ iterations.
- We can construct an explicit quadratic function reaching this bounds, which is hard for all schemes.

Accelerated Gradient Methods: optimality

Definition

Iterative method. We will assume that an iterative method generates a sequence of points y_k such that

$$y_k \in \mathcal{L}_k \triangleq y_0 + span \{ \nabla f(y_0), \nabla f(y_1), \dots, \nabla f(y_{k-1}) \}$$

This can be relaxed, but simplifies analysis and covers most classical algorithms.

Proof structure.

- Design a set of (quadratic) functions $f_n(x)$ whose gradients at sparse points have only one more nonzero coefficient.
- Without loss of generality, we can always start at $y_0 = 0$.
- Starting at $y_0 = 0$, any iterate y_k will have at most cardinality k, whatever the algorithm.
- These iterates poorly approximate the optimum, which has cardinality n.

Accelerated Gradient Methods: optimality

We write
$$S_{k,n} \triangleq \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n : x_i = 0, i = k+1, \dots, n\}.$$

Lemma

Worst function in class. [Nesterov, 2003, §2.1.2] Define

$$f_k(x) \triangleq \frac{L}{8} \left(x_1^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (x_i - x_{i+1})^2 + x_k^2 - 2x_1 \right)$$

then for any sequence $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$, $i = 0, \ldots, p$, such that

$$y_k \in \mathcal{L}_k \triangleq y_0 + \operatorname{span} \{ \nabla f_p(y_0), \nabla f_p(y_1), \dots, \nabla f_p(y_{k-1}) \}$$

we have $y_k \in S_{k,n}$.

Proof. We can write

$$0 \leq \frac{L}{4} \left(s_1^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} (s_i - s_{i+1})^2 + s_k^2 \right)$$

$$\leq s^T \nabla^2 f(x) s$$

$$\leq \frac{L}{4} \left(s_1^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{k-1} 2(s_i^2 + s_{i+1}^2) + s_k^2 \right) \leq L \sum_{i=1}^n s_i^2$$

which means $0 \leq \nabla^2 f_k(x) \leq L \mathbf{I}_n$, hence $\nabla f_k(x)$ is Lipschitz continuous with constant L, because $\nabla^2 f_k(x) = \frac{L}{4}A_k$ with

$$A_k = \begin{pmatrix} B & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{where} \quad B_k = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & \cdots & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & \ddots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & -1 \\ 0 & \cdots & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$

where A_k is block tridiagonal with an upper left block of dimension $B_k \in \mathbf{S}_k$. By induction now, $\nabla f_p(x_0) = (L/4)e_1 \in S_{1,n}$ and assuming $y \in S_{k,n}$, then $\nabla f_p(y) = (L/2)(A_k y - e_1) \in S_{k+1,n}$ because A_k is tridiagonal.

Theorem

Worst-case complexity. For any $1 \le k \le (n-1)/2$, there exists a function f(X) with $\nabla f(x)$ L-Lipschitz continuous, such that for any iterative method (cf. above) we have

$$f(y_k) - f^* \ge \frac{3L \|y_0 - y^*\|^2}{32(k+1)^2}$$

and

$$||y_k - y^*||^2 \ge \frac{1}{8}||y_0 - y^*||^2.$$

Proof. Without loss of generality, we can assume that $y_0 = 0$, otherwise we simply shift the function without changing its nature. We will apply an iterative method to the function $f(x) \triangleq f_{2k+1}(x)$. Let us first note that the minimizer of f(x), solving

$$\nabla f_k(x) = A_k x - e_1 = 0$$

is given by

$$y^* = \begin{cases} 1 - \frac{i}{2k+1}, & i = 1, \dots, 2k+1, \\ 0 & i = k+1, \dots, n. \end{cases}$$

and

$$f_{2k+1}^* = \frac{L}{8} \left(\frac{1}{2k+2} - 1 \right).$$
 (3)

and

$$\|y^*\|^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{2k+1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{2k+1}\right)^2 \le \frac{1}{3}(2k+2)$$
(4)

using

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} i = \frac{k(k+1)}{2} \quad \text{and} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{k} i^2 = \frac{k(k+1)(2k+1)}{6} \le \frac{(k+1)^3}{3}$$

From the form of $f_p(x)$ we have $f_p(x) = f_k(x)$ whenever $x \in S_{k,n}$ and $p \ge k$, hence in particular,

$$f(y_k) \triangleq f_{2k+1}(y_k) = f_k(y_k) \ge f^* = \frac{L}{8} \left(\frac{1}{k+1} - 1\right),$$

in view of (3) and (4), with $y_0 = 0$, $f^* \triangleq f^*_{2k+1}$ we get

$$\frac{f(y_k) - f^*}{\|y_0 - y^*\|^2} \ge \frac{\frac{L}{8}(-1 + \frac{1}{k+1} + 1 - \frac{1}{2k+2})}{(2k+2)/3} = \frac{3L}{32(k+1)^2}$$

which is the first inequality. Since $y_k \in S_{k,n}$ we have

$$||y_k - y^*||^2 \ge \sum_{i=k+1}^{2k+1} (\bar{y}_{2k+1,i}^*)^2 = \sum_{i=k+1}^{2k+1} \left(1 - \frac{i}{2k+2}\right)^2$$

hence, with $y_0 = 0$ and using again (4)

$$||y_{k} - y^{*}||^{2} \geq \frac{2k^{2} + 7k + 6}{24k + 1}$$

$$\geq \frac{2k^{2} + 7k + 6}{16(k + 1)^{2}} ||y_{0} - \bar{y}_{2k+1}^{*}||^{2}$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{8} ||y_{0} - \bar{y}_{2k+1}^{*}||^{2}$$

because

$$\frac{2k^2 + 7k + 6}{16(k+1)^2} \ge \frac{1}{8} \|y_0 - \bar{y}^*\|^2$$

for all $k \ge 0$ and $y^* \triangleq \bar{y}^*_{2k+1}$.

Gradient/projection methods for stochastic problems

Solve

minimize
$$\phi(x) \triangleq \mathbf{E}[f(x,\xi)]$$

subject to $x \in C$,

in $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, where C is a simple convex set. The key difference here is that the function we are minimizing is **stochastic.**

Batch method. A simple option is to approximate the problem by

minimize
$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} f(x, \xi_m)$$

subject to $x \in C$,

where ξ_i are sampled from the distribution of ξ .

Sampling is costly, the full batch is heavy, we can do better...

Assume we have an unbiased estimate $g(x,\xi)$ of the subgradient of $\phi(x)$, i.e.

•
$$\mathbf{E}[g(x,\xi)|x] = g(x) \in \partial \phi(x)$$

In particular

$$\phi(y) \ge \phi(x) + g(x)^T (y - x)$$

Stochastic Optimization

Let $p_C(\cdot)$ be the Euclidean projection operator on C.

Algorithm (Robust stochastic averaging)

- Choose $x_0 \in C$ and a step sequence $\gamma_j > 0$.
- For $k = 1, \ldots, k^{max}$ iterate
 - 1. Compute a subgradient

$$g \in \partial f(x_k, \xi_k)$$

2. Update the current point

$$x_{k+1} = p_C(x_k - h_k g)$$

3. Compute

$$\bar{x} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_k x_k}{\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_k}$$

Convergence proof.

Theorem

Complexity. Suppose $||x^* - x_0|| \le R$ for some $x_0 \in C$, and $\mathbf{E}[||g||_2^2] \le L^2$, then

$$\mathbf{E}[f(\bar{x})] - \min_{x \in C} \mathbf{E}[f(x,\xi)] \le \frac{R^2 + L^2 \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_k^2}{2 \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_k}$$

Proof. Let x^* be an optimal solution and define $r_k = ||x^* - x_k||$. Since x_{k+1} is the projection of $x_k - h_k g_k$ over C, it satisfies

$$\begin{aligned} r_{k+1}^2 &\leq & \|x_k - h_k g_k - x^*\|^2 \\ &= & r_k^2 - 2h_k \langle g_k, x_k - x^* \rangle + h_k^2 \|g_k\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

because x_{k+1} must be closer to $x^* \in C$ than $x_k - h_k g_k$.

Taking expectations, we get, by convexity and because ξ_k and x_k are independent.

$$\mathbf{E}[r_{k+1}^{2}] \leq \mathbf{E}[r_{k}^{2}] - 2h_{k} \mathbf{E}[\langle g_{k}, x_{k} - x^{*} \rangle] + h_{k}^{2} \mathbf{E}[||g_{k}||^{2}] \\
\leq \mathbf{E}[r_{k}^{2}] - 2h_{k} \mathbf{E}[\langle \mathbf{E}[g_{k}|x_{k}], x_{k} - x^{*} \rangle] + h_{k}^{2} L^{2} \\
\leq \mathbf{E}[r_{k}^{2}] - 2h_{k} (\mathbf{E}[\phi(x_{k})] - \phi(x^{*})) + h_{k}^{2} L^{2}$$

Summing all these inequalities and using the convexity of $\phi(\cdot)$, we finally get

$$r_0^2 + L^2 \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_k^2 \leq \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_k (\mathbf{E}[\phi(x_k)] - \phi(x^*))$$
$$\leq 2 \left(\sum_{k=0}^{N-1} h_k\right) (\mathbf{E}[\phi(\bar{x})] - \phi(x^*))$$

hence the desired result.

Stochastic Optimization

Complexity.

• If we set $h_k = R/(L\sqrt{N})$, we have

$$\mathbf{E}[f(\bar{x}) - f^*] \le \frac{LR}{\sqrt{N}}$$

Furthermore, if we assume

$$\mathbf{E}\left[\exp\left(\frac{\|g\|_2^2}{L^2}\right)\right] \le e, \quad \text{for all } g \in \partial f(x_k,\xi) \text{ and } x \in C$$

we get

$$\operatorname{Prob}\left[\phi(\tilde{x}_k) - \phi^* \ge \frac{LR}{\sqrt{N}}(12 + 2t)\right] \le 2\exp(-t).$$

References

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