Optimization for machine learning

Smooth optimization

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Course overview

Introduction to numerical optimization		
Constrained Optimization and Standard Optimization problems		
Smooth optimization Gradient descent	4 4	
Smooth function and solution Gradient descent algorithm Linesearch method		
Newton and Quasi-Newton Quadratic approximation Newton method Quasi-Newton	14	
Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) Gradient approximation and SGD Accelerations of SGD	21	
Conclusion	27	
Non-smooth optimization	29	
Conclusion	29	

Full course overview

1. Introduction to numerical optimization

- 1.1 Optimization problem formulation and principles
- **1.2** Properties of optimization problems
- **1.3** Machine learning as an optimization problem

2. Constrained Optimization and Standard Optimization problems

- 2.1 Constraints, Lagrangian and KKT
- 2.2 Linear Program (LP)
- 2.3 Quadratic Program (QP)
- 2.4 Other Classical problems (MIP,QCQP,SOCP,SDP)

3. Smooth Optimization

- 3.1 Gradient descent
- **3.2** Newton, quasi-Newton and Limited memory
- 3.3 Stochastic Gradient Descent

4. Non-smooth Optimization

- 4.1 Proximal operator and proximal methods
- 4.2 Conditional gradient

5. Conclusion

- **5.1** Other approaches (Coordinate descent, DC programming)
- 5.2 Optimization problem decision tree
- **5.3** References an toolboxes

Smooth Optimization problem



Optimization problem

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

(1)

2/31

- ▶ F is smooth (at least differentiable).
- \blacktriangleright When F is convex \mathbf{x}^* is a solution of the problem if

 $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} F(\mathbf{x}^{\star}) = \mathbf{0}$

 \blacktriangleright When F is non convex \mathbf{x}^* is a local minimizer of the problem if

 $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} F(\mathbf{x}^{\star}) = \mathbf{0}$ and $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}^2 F(\mathbf{x}^{\star}) \succeq 0$

Example optimization problem



1D Logistic regression

$$\min_{w,b} \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(-y_i(wx_i + b))) + \lambda \frac{w^2}{2}$$

- Linear model : f(x) = wx + b
- Training data (x_i, y_i) : (1, -1), (2, -1), (3, 1), (4, 1).
- Problem solution for $\lambda = 1$: $\mathbf{x}^* = [w^*, b^*] = [0.96, -2.40]$
- Initialization : $\mathbf{x}^{(0)} = [1, -0.5].$
- Complexity : Cost and gradient both O(nd)

Gradient descent algorithm

Gradient descent algorithm (steepest descent)

1: Initialize $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ 2: for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ do 3: $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} \leftarrow -\nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ 4: $\rho^{(k)} \leftarrow$ Choose stepsize 5: $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \rho^{(k)} \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

6: end for

For a step small enough, each iteration decreases the cost : $F(\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}) \leq F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$

Convergence of gradient descent algorithm

Sufficient conditions for convergence are the Wolfe conditions:

1.
$$F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \rho^{(k)}\mathbf{d}^{(k)}) \le F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + c_1\rho^{(k)}\nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$$

2. $-\nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \rho^{(k)}\mathbf{d}^{(k)})^T\mathbf{d}^{(k)} \le -c_2\nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T\mathbf{d}^{(k)}$

With $0 < c_1 < c_2 < 1$ (typically $c_1 = 10^{-4}, c_2 = 0.9$) The first condition is called the **Armijo rule** and the second the **curvature condition**.

More details on convergence in [Nocedal and Wright, 2006, Chapter 3] and [Bertsekas, 1999].

Descent algorithm for smooth optimization

General iterative algorithm

- 1: Initialize $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$
- 2: for $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ do
- 3: $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} \leftarrow \mathsf{Compute descent direction from } \mathbf{x}^{(k)}$
- 4: $\rho^{(k)} \leftarrow \text{Choose stepsize}$
- 5: $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \dot{\rho}^{(k)} \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$
- 6: end for
- $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a descent direction if $\mathbf{\nabla} F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T \mathbf{d}^{(k)} < 0$.
- The conditions for convergence are discussed more in details in [Bertsekas, 1999, Nocedal and Wright, 2006].

Algorithms and variants (seen in this course)

- Steepest descent : $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})$
- Newton algorithm : $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\nabla \mathbf{H}^{-1} \nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})$
- Quasi-Newton : $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\nabla \hat{\mathbf{H}}^{-1} \nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})$.
- Stochastic Gradient Descent : $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} = -\nabla \hat{F}(\mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})$

Example of steepest descent



Discussion

- Steepest descent with fixed step $\rho^{(k)} = 0.1$
- Slow convergence around the solution (small gradients).
- After 1000 iterations, still not converged.
- **Complexity** $\mathcal{O}(nd)$ per iteration.

Gradient descent as Majorization Minimization

Gradient Lispschitz function

A function ${\cal F}$ is gradient Lispchitz if there exists a constant ${\cal K}$ such that

$$\|\boldsymbol{\nabla} F_1(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{p}) - \boldsymbol{\nabla} F_1(\mathbf{x})\| \le K \|\mathbf{p}\|, \qquad \forall \mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$
(2)

The constant K is called the Lipschitz constant of ∇F (and $\|\nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x})\|^2$). Note that if F is gradient Lipschitz, we have the following second order majorization of function F around x, also called descent Lemma:

$$F(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{p}) \le F(\mathbf{x}) + \boldsymbol{\nabla} F(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{p} + \frac{K}{2} \|\mathbf{p}\|^2, \qquad \forall \mathbf{p} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \forall \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n.$$
(3)

Gradient descent update as majorization minimization (MM)

At iteration k we can do a majorization of F around $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$:

$$F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{p}) \le F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + \boldsymbol{\nabla} F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T \mathbf{p} + \frac{K}{2} \|\mathbf{p}\|^2$$

Minimizing the equation above w.r.t. p leads to

$$\mathbf{p}^{\star} = -\frac{1}{K} \boldsymbol{\nabla} F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$$

which corresponds exatly to an update of gradient decsent with step $\rho = \frac{1}{K}$.

Impact of line search



Discussion

- Linesearch speedup is important *w.r.t.* fixed step.
- Be careful of the number of function call (necessary for linesearch).
- Complexity $\mathcal{O}(knd)$ per iteration where k is the nb of function call.

Linesearch methods

- For gradient Lischitz functions, a small enough step $\rho^{(k)} = \frac{1}{K}$ ensures a decrease of the cost but convergence is slow.
- We would like to select the "best" step at each iteration :

$$\rho^{\star(k)} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \quad F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \rho \mathbf{d}^{(k)})$$

- In practice one seeks for a step respecting the Wolfe conditions.
- scipy.optimize.line_search implements such a linesearch following [Nocedal and Wright, 2006, Sec 3.5].
- Backtracking linesearch

Initialization of ρ and $0 < \tau < 1$. repeat

 $\rho \leftarrow \rho \tau$

until
$$F(\mathbf{x} + \rho \mathbf{d}) < F(\mathbf{x}) + \rho c_1 \mathbf{d}^T \nabla F(\mathbf{x})$$

At the end the Armijo rule is respected, since we select the first step the respects it, we usually suppose that the second condition is also respected.

 Note that linesearch can also be used for all gradient descent algorithms (newton, Quasi-newton)

10/31

Convergence of gradient descent and acceleration

Convergence speed of gradient descent

If function F is convex and differentiable and its gradient has a Lipschitz constant L, then the gradient descent with fixed step $\rho^{(k)} = \rho \leq \frac{1}{L}$ converges to a solution \mathbf{x}^* of the optimization problem with the following speed:

$$F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) - F(\mathbf{x}^{\star}) \le \frac{\|\mathbf{x}^{(0)} - \mathbf{x}^{\star}\|^2}{2\rho k}$$
(4)

- We say the the gradient descent has a convergence $O(\frac{1}{k})$.
- When the function is strongly convex it has a linear convergence $O(e^{-k/\kappa})$
- Yuri Nesterov proposed acceleration procedures for convex functions [Nesterov, 1983, Nesterov, 2013] that has a O(¹/_{k²}) convergence.

Accelerated gradient descent (AGD)

- 1: Initialize $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}, \mathbf{y}^{(0)} = \mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ and $\rho \leq \frac{1}{L}$ 2: for k = 0, 1, 2, ... do 3: $\mathbf{y}^{(k)} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \frac{k-1}{k+2}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \mathbf{x}^{(k-1)})$ 4: $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{y}^{(k)} + \rho \nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ 5: end for
- Use momentum.
- Compute interpolated position y.
- Do gradient update of y.

Example of Accelerated Gradient Descent



Discussion

- both GD and AGD use fixed step $\rho^{(k)} = 0.1$.
- Acceleration speedup is important w.r.t. steepest descent step.
- The momentum due the the Nesterov acceleration can be seen in the trajectory.
- Complexity $\mathcal{O}(nd)$ per iteration when no line search.

Quadratic approximation of the function

Gradient descent is equivalent to Majorization Minimization when the function in approximated locally by its aupper bound:

$$F(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{p}) \approx F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + \nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T \mathbf{p} + \frac{K}{2} \|\mathbf{p}\|^2$$

- ▶ Where *K* is the Lipschitz constant of the gradient. *K* is also an upper bond on the eigenvalues of the Hessian matrix $(||\nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x})|| \le K)$.
- A better local approximation of the function is:

$$F(\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{p}) \approx F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) + \nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})^T \mathbf{p} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{p}^T \mathbf{H} \mathbf{p}$$

where $\mathbf{H} = \nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ is the Hessian matrix in $\mathbf{x}^{(k)}$.

Minimizing the approximation above w.r.t. p leads to the following solution:

$$\mathbf{p}^{\star} = -\mathbf{H}^{-1}\boldsymbol{\nabla}F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$$

Note that the approximation above is not a majorization so the update may not decrease the loss.

14/31

Newton Method

Algorithm of the Newton method

1: Initialize $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$ 2: for k = 0, 1, 2, ... do 3: $\mathbf{g}^{(k)}, \mathbf{H}^{(k)} \leftarrow \text{Compute gradient } \nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \text{ and Hessian matrix } \nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ 4: $\mathbf{p}^{(k)} \leftarrow \text{Solve linear system } \mathbf{H}^{(k)}\mathbf{p} = -\mathbf{g}^{(k)}$. 5: $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{p}^{(k)}$ 6: end for

- **•** Requires the resolution of a size d linear system at each iteration $(O(d^3))$.
- Newton method has a quadratic $O(e^{-2^k})$ convergence speed.
- Can also be used with linesearch to ensure cost decrease.
- ▶ If *F* is quadratic, convergence un 1 iteration.
- Levenberg-Marquardt Modification : use $\tilde{\mathbf{H}} = \mathbf{H} + \lambda \mathbf{I}$
- Allows to interpolate between Newton ($\lambda = 0$) and gradient descent with small step (large λ).

Example of Newton method



Discussion

- ▶ No linesearch, step is 1.
- Very fast convergence (converged in 4 iterations).
- When initial point is far from the solution firsts steps can increase the cost.
- Complexity $\mathcal{O}(nd + d^3)$ per iteration when no line search.

Quasi-Newton and BFGS

Quasi Newton method [Dennis and Moré, 1977]

1: Initialize $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$, $\hat{\mathbf{B}}^{(0)} = \sigma \mathbf{I}$

- 2: for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ do
- 3: $\mathbf{p}^{(k)} \leftarrow -\rho^{(k)} \mathbf{B}^{(k)} \nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ with $\rho^{(k)}$ satisfying the Wolfe conditions.
- 4: $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \mathbf{p}^{(k)}$
- 5: $\mathbf{y}^{(k)} \leftarrow \nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)}) \nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$
- 6: $\mathbf{B}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathsf{Update} \ \mathbf{B}^{(k)}$ using previous gradients $\mathbf{y}^{(k)}$ and step $\mathbf{p}^{(k)}$.

$7: \ \textbf{end for}$

- The problem with Newton: Solving the linear equations is O(d³)
- ▶ Principle: estimate and update an inverse matrix approximation **B** with efficient $O(d^2)$ updates (Sherman-Morrison formula).
- Most common update strategy is BFGS (Broyden–Fletcher–Goldfarb–Shanno):

$$\mathbf{B}^{(k+1)} = \left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{p}\mathbf{y}^T}{\mathbf{y}^T\mathbf{p}}\right)\mathbf{B}^{(k)}\left(\mathbf{I} - \frac{\mathbf{y}\mathbf{p}^T}{\mathbf{y}^T\mathbf{p}}\right) + \frac{\mathbf{p}\mathbf{p}^T}{\mathbf{y}^T\mathbf{p}}$$

where \mathbf{p} and \mathbf{y} are expressed without the $^{(k)}$ index.

- Other update strategy include : Broyden, SFP, SR1
- Convergence speed is super-linear (faster than GD, slower than Newton).
- Implemented in scipy.optimize.minimize with method='BFGS'.

Limited Memory BFGS (L-BFGS)

L-BFGS method [Liu and Nocedal, 1989]

- The problem with BFGS: the inverse hessian matrix **B** is $O(n^2)$ in memory.
- Limited Memory BFGS only store the last $m \leq d$ updates of **B** (**p** and **y**).
- Usually m < 10 so memory complexity is O(d).
- Compute the descent direction $\mathbf{B}^{(k)} \nabla F(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ recursively.
- Considered one of the most efficient solver for optimization problems maximizing entropy [Malouf, 2002] (our example).
- Implemented in scipy.optimize.minimize with method='L-BFGS-B'.

L-BFGS variants

- L-BFGS-B [Zhu et al., 1997] : Allows to solve smooth optimization problem with box constraints (implemented in scipy)
- OWL-QN [Andrew and Gao, 2007] : A variant of L-BFGS dedicated to solve smooth problems with L1 regularization.

Example of BFGS



Discussion

- Very fast convergence (converged in 11 iterations, VS 4 for Newton).
- First step is Steepest descent (because $\mathbf{B}^{(0)} = \sigma \mathbf{I}$)
- Complexity $\mathcal{O}(nd + d^2)$ per iteration when no line search.

17/31

Example of L-BFGS



Discussion

- Very fast convergence (nearly as fast as BFGS).
- But requires linesearch.
- First step is Steepest descent (because $\mathbf{B}^{(0)} = \sigma \mathbf{I}$).
- Complexity O(nd + md) per iteration when no line search.

Optimization in machine learning

Optimization problem

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}\in\mathbb{R}^d} \qquad F(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(\mathbf{w}) \tag{5}$$

- Standard ML problem (supervised or unsupervised learning).
- d is the number of parameter in the model, n the number of training samples.
- Can handle both ERM and regularized learning:
 - Empirical Risk Minimization : f_i(**w**) = (y_i **x**_i^T**w**)²
 Regularization : f_i(**w**) = (y_i **x**_i^T**w**)² + λ/2 ||**w**||²
- Gradient of F is: $\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} F(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} f_i(\mathbf{w})$

Large sale optimization

- Both n and d can be very large.
- Computation of F and ∇F is O(nd).
- Dataset may not fit in memory.

 \Rightarrow Stochastic Gradient Descent.

Example of stochastic gradient descent



Discussion

- Decreasing step size : $\rho^{(k)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}$
- Slow convergence (especially $\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)}$)
- One GD iter $\equiv 4$ SGD iter (since n = 4).
- \blacktriangleright Complexity $\mathcal{O}(d)$ per iteration.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) algorithm

- 1: Initialize $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}$
- 2: for $k = 0, 1, 2, \ldots$ do
- $i^{(k)} \leftarrow$ randomly pick an index $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$ 3:
- $\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{d}^{(k)} \leftarrow -\nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f_{i^{(k)}}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \\ \mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \rho^{(k)} \mathbf{d}^{(k)} \end{array}$ 4:
- 5.
- 6: end for
- $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is an approximation of the full gradient.
- Iteration complexity is O(d) VS O(nd) for GD.
- Polyak-Ruppert averaging : $\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)} = \frac{1}{k+1} \sum_{u=0}^{k} \mathbf{x}^{(u)}$
- Convergence speed (e.g. $\rho^{(k)} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}$) [Nemirovski et al., 2009]

$$E[F(\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)}) - F(\mathbf{x}^{\star})] = \begin{cases} O(\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}) & \text{for } F \text{ convex} \\ O(\frac{1}{k}) & \text{for } F \text{ strongly convex} \end{cases}$$

• A function F is strongly convex if : $\nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) \succeq l$ for l > 0.

Accelerated stochastic gradients

Stochastic Average Gradient (SAG) [Roux et al., 2012]

- 1: Initialize $\mathbf{x}^{(0)}, \mathbf{y}_i = \mathbf{0} \ \forall i$
- 2: for $k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ do
- 3: $i^{(k)} \leftarrow$ randomly pick an index $i \in \{1, \ldots, n\}$
- 4: $\mathbf{y}_{i^{(k)}} \leftarrow \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f_{i^{(k)}}(\mathbf{x})$ 5: $\mathbf{d}^{(k)} \leftarrow -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i}$

6:
$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{x}^{(k)} + \rho^{(k)} \mathbf{d}^{(k)}$$

7: end for

- \blacktriangleright Keep in memory all previous computed gradients **v**, update only for sample $i^{(k)}$.
- lteration is O(d), memory space is O(nd) (same size as data).
- Convergence speed [Roux et al., 2012]

$$E[F(\bar{\mathbf{x}}^{(k)}) - F(\mathbf{x}^{\star})] = \begin{cases} O(\frac{1}{k}) & \text{for } F \text{ convex} \\ O(e^{-Ck}) & \text{for } F \text{ strongly convex} \end{cases}$$

Other accelerations

- Stochastic Variance Reduced Gradient (SVRG) : [Johnson and Zhang, 2013]
- **SAGA**: Better constant than SAG + proximal operators [Defazio et al., 2014]

Example of Stochastic Average Gradient (SAG)



Discussion

- Constant step size : $\rho^{(k)} = 0.1$
- Fast convergence because the problem is strongly convex...
- One GD iter $\equiv 4$ SGD iter (since n = 4).
- SAG complexity $\mathcal{O}(d)$ per iteration (but O(nd) in memory).

Example convergence of GD methods



Discussion

- Comparison of all methods as a function of computational time.
- Rank of methods (fastest left):

 $\mathsf{BFGS} \approx \mathsf{Newton} \approx \mathsf{L}\text{-}\mathsf{BFGS} < \mathsf{SAG} < \mathsf{AGD} < \mathsf{SGD} < \mathsf{GD}$

▶ Very small dataset, so SGD/SAG do not have an advantage (n = 4, d = 2).

SGD in machine learning

Large scale optimization

- Used for training linear and non-linear models on very large datasets.
- Sate of the art algorithm for linear SVM, logistic regression, least square.
- Use minibatches (compute stochastic gradient on multiple samples).
- Classification (SVM,Logistic) : sklearn.linear_model.SGDClassifier.
- Regression (lesta square, huber) : sklearn.linear_model.SGDRegressor.

Training Neural Networks with SGD

- Usually use fixed step (against theory).
- Use early stopping as regularization (avoid overfitting).
- Works very well on continuous, nonconvex problems but not very well understood.
- Several momentum averaging and adaptive step size strategies:
 - RMSPROP [Tieleman and Hinton, 2012].
 - Adaptive gradient step ADAGRAD [Duchi et al., 2011].
 - Adaptive Moment estimation ADAM [Kingma and Ba, 2014].

25/31

Running time complexity of GD methods

Method	Iteration	Convergence	Running time
GD	nd	1/k	dn/ϵ
AGD	nd	$1/k^{2}$	$dn/\sqrt{\epsilon}$
Newton	$nd^{2} + d^{3}$	$\exp(-2^k)$	$d(nd + d^2) \log \log(1/\epsilon)$
BFGS	$nd + d^2$	$< \exp(-k)$	$< d(n+d)\log(1/\epsilon)$
L-BFGS	nd + md	$< \exp(-k)$	$< d(n+m)\log(1/\epsilon)$
SGD	d	$1/\sqrt{k}$	d/ϵ^2
SAG	d	1/k	$d\sqrt{n}/\epsilon$

- ▶ For a convex function *F*, with *K* Lisphitz gradients.
- Running time for reaching e optimality is provided.
- ▶ When *F* is *l* strongly convex we have the following running times:
 - **GD** : $O(dnc \log(1/\epsilon))$
 - AGD : $O(dn\sqrt{c}\log(1/\epsilon))$
 - **SGD** : $O(dc \log(1/\epsilon))$
 - SAG : $O(d(n+c)\log(1/\epsilon))$

with $c = \frac{K}{l}$ the condition number of the problem and $\nabla^2 F(\mathbf{x}) \succeq l$.

28/31

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