### 2.3 Projected Gradient Descent

In the original gradient descent formulation, we hope to optimize $\min _{x \in \mathcal{C}} f(x)$ where $\mathcal{C}$ and $f$ are convex, but we did not constrain the intermediate $x_{k}$. Projected gradient descent will incorporate this condition.

### 2.3.1 Projection onto Closed Convex Set

First we must establish that it is possible to always be able to keep $x_{k}$ in the convex set $\mathcal{C}$. One approach is to take the closest point $\pi\left(x_{k}\right) \in \mathcal{C}$.

Definition: Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a closed convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$. Then $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, let $\pi(x) \in \mathcal{C}$ be the minimizer of

$$
\|x-\pi(x)\|=\min _{z \in \mathcal{C}}\|x-z\|
$$

where $\|\cdot\|$ denotes the Euclidean norm. Then $\pi(x)$ is unique and,

$$
\begin{equation*}
\langle\pi(x)-x, \pi(x)-z\rangle \leq 0 \quad \forall z \in \mathcal{C} \tag{2.1}
\end{equation*}
$$

Proof. From the definition of $\pi:=\pi(x)$, we have $\|x-\pi\|^{2} \leq\|x-v\|^{2}$ for any $v \in \mathcal{C}$. Fix $w \in \mathcal{C}$ and define $v=(1-t) \pi+t w$ for $t \in(0,1]$. Observe that since $\mathcal{C}$ is convex we have $v \in \mathcal{C}$ so that

$$
\|x-\pi\|^{2} \leq\|x-v\|^{2}=\|x-\pi-t(w-\pi)\|^{2}
$$

Expanding the right-hand side yields

$$
\|x-\pi\|^{2} \leq\|x-\pi\|^{2}-2 t\langle x-\pi, w-\pi\rangle+t^{2}\|w-\pi\|^{2}
$$

This is equivalent to

$$
\langle x-\pi, w-\pi\rangle \leq t\|w-\pi\|^{2}
$$

Since this is valid for all $t \in(0,1)$, letting $t \rightarrow 0$ yields (2.1).
Proof of Uniqueness. Assume $\pi_{1}, \pi_{2} \in \mathcal{C}$ satisfy

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\left\langle\pi_{1}-x, \pi_{1}-z\right\rangle \leq 0 & \forall z \in C \\
\left\langle\pi_{2}-x, \pi_{2}-z\right\rangle \leq 0 & \forall z \in C
\end{array}
$$

Taking $z=\pi_{2}$ in the first inequality and $z=\pi_{1}$ in the second, we get

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \left\langle\pi_{1}-x, \pi_{1}-\pi_{2}\right\rangle \leq 0 \\
& \left\langle x-\pi_{2}, \pi_{1}-\pi_{2}\right\rangle \leq 0
\end{aligned}
$$

Adding these two inequalities yields $\left\|\pi_{1}-\pi_{2}\right\|^{2} \leq 0$ so that $\pi_{1}=\pi_{2}$.

### 2.3.2 Projected Gradient Descent

```
Algorithm 1 Projected Gradient Descent algorithm
    Input: \(x_{1} \in \mathcal{C}\), positive sequence \(\left\{\eta_{s}\right\}_{s \geq 1}\)
    for \(s=1\) to \(k-1\) do
        \(y_{s+1}=x_{s}-\eta_{s} g_{s}, \quad g_{s} \in \partial f\left(x_{s}\right)\)
        \(x_{s+1}=\pi\left(y_{s+1}\right)\)
    end for
    return Either \(\bar{x}=\frac{1}{k} \sum_{s=1}^{k} x_{s}\) or \(x^{\circ} \in \underset{x \in\left\{x_{1}, \ldots, x_{k}\right\}}{\operatorname{argmin}} f(x)\)
```

Theorem: Let $\mathcal{C}$ be a closed, nonempty convex subset of $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ such that $\operatorname{diam}(\mathcal{C}) \leq R$.
Let $f$ be a convex $L$-Lipschitz function on $\mathcal{C}$ such that $x^{*} \in \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathcal{C}} f(x)$ exists.
Then if $\eta_{s} \equiv \eta=\frac{R}{L \sqrt{k}}$ then

$$
f(\bar{x})-f\left(x^{*}\right) \leq \frac{L R}{\sqrt{k}} \quad \text { and } \quad f\left(\bar{x}^{\circ}\right)-f\left(x^{*}\right) \leq \frac{L R}{\sqrt{k}}
$$

Moreover, if $\eta_{s}=\frac{R}{L \sqrt{s}}$, then $\exists c>0$ such that

$$
f(\bar{x})-f\left(x^{*}\right) \leq c \frac{L R}{\sqrt{k}} \quad \text { and } \quad f\left(\bar{x}^{\circ}\right)-f\left(x^{*}\right) \leq c \frac{L R}{\sqrt{k}}
$$

Proof. Again we will use the identity that $2 a^{\top} b=\|a\|^{2}+\|b\|^{2}-\|a-b\|^{2}$.
By convexity, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
f\left(x_{s}\right)-f\left(x^{*}\right) & \leq g_{s}^{\top}\left(x_{s}-x^{*}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{\eta}\left(x_{s}-y_{s+1}\right)^{\top}\left(x_{s}-x^{*}\right) \\
& =\frac{1}{2 \eta}\left[\left\|x_{s}-y_{s+1}\right\|^{2}+\left\|x_{s}-x^{*}\right\|^{2}-\left\|y_{s+1}-x^{*}\right\|^{2}\right]
\end{aligned}
$$

Next,

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|y_{s+1}-x^{*}\right\|^{2} & =\left\|y_{s+1}-x_{s+1}\right\|^{2}+\left\|x_{s+1}-x^{*}\right\|^{2}+2\left\langle y_{s+1}-x_{s+1}, x_{s+1}-x^{*}\right\rangle \\
& =\left\|y_{s+1}-x_{s+1}\right\|^{2}+\left\|x_{s+1}-x^{*}\right\|^{2}+2\left\langle y_{s+1}-\pi\left(y_{s+1}\right), \pi\left(y_{s+1}\right)-x^{*}\right\rangle \\
& \geq\left\|x_{s+1}-x^{*}\right\|^{2}
\end{aligned}
$$

where we used that $\langle x-\pi(x), \pi(x)-z\rangle \geq 0 \forall z \in \mathcal{C}$, and $x^{*} \in \mathcal{C}$. Also notice that $\left\|x_{s}-y_{s+1}\right\|^{2}=\eta^{2}\left\|g_{s}\right\|^{2} \leq \eta^{2} L^{2}$ since $f$ is L-Lipschitz with respect to $\|\cdot\|$. Using this we find

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{k} \sum_{s=1}^{k} f\left(x_{s}\right)-f\left(x^{*}\right) & \leq \frac{1}{k} \sum_{s=1}^{k} \frac{1}{2 \eta}\left[\eta^{2} L^{2}+\left\|x_{s}-x^{*}\right\|^{2}-\left\|x_{s+1}-x^{*}\right\|^{2}\right] \\
& \leq \frac{\eta L^{2}}{2}+\frac{1}{2 \eta k}\left\|x_{1}-x^{*}\right\|^{2} \leq \frac{\eta L^{2}}{2}+\frac{R^{2}}{2 \eta k}
\end{aligned}
$$

Minimizing over $\eta$ we get $\frac{L^{2}}{2}=\frac{R^{2}}{2 \eta^{2} k} \Longrightarrow \eta=\frac{R}{L \sqrt{k}}$, completing the proof

$$
f(\bar{x})-f\left(x^{*}\right) \leq \frac{R L}{\sqrt{k}}
$$

Moreover, the proof of the bound for $f\left(\sum_{s=\frac{k}{2}}^{k} x_{s}\right)-f\left(x^{*}\right)$ is identical because $\left\|x_{\frac{k}{2}}-x^{*}\right\|^{2} \leq$ $R^{2}$ as well.

### 2.3.3 Examples

## Support Vector Machines

The SVM minimization as we have shown before is

$$
\min _{\substack{\alpha \in \mathbb{R} \\ \alpha^{\top} \mathbb{K} \alpha \leq \mathbb{R}^{n}}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \max \left(0,1-Y_{i} f_{\alpha}\left(X_{i}\right)\right)
$$

where $f_{\alpha}\left(X_{i}\right)=\alpha^{\top} \mathbb{K} e_{i}=\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} K\left(X_{j}, X_{i}\right)$. For convenience, call $g_{i}(\alpha)=\max \left(0,1-Y_{i} f_{\alpha}\left(X_{i}\right)\right)$. In this case executing the projection onto the ellipsoid $\left\{\alpha: \alpha^{\top} \mathbb{K} \alpha \leq C^{2}\right\}$ is not too hard, but we do not know about $C, R$, or $L$. We must determine these we can know that our bound is not exponential with respect to $n$. First we find $L$ and start with the gradient of $g_{i}(\alpha)$ :

$$
\nabla g_{i}(\alpha)=\mathbb{I}\left(1-Y_{i} f_{\alpha}\left(X_{i}\right) \geq 0\right) Y_{i} \mathbb{K} e_{i}
$$

With this we bound the gradient of the $\varphi$-risk $\hat{R}_{n, \varphi}\left(f_{\alpha}\right)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g_{i}(\alpha)$.

$$
\left\|\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \hat{R}_{n, \varphi}\left(f_{\alpha}\right)\right\|=\left\|\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla g_{i}(\alpha)\right\| \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|\mathbb{K} e_{i}\right\|_{2}
$$

by the triangle inequality and the fact that that $\mathbb{I}\left(1-Y_{i} f_{\alpha}\left(X_{i}\right) \geq 0\right) Y_{i} \leq 1$. We can now use the properties of our kernel $K$. Notice that $\left\|\mathbb{K} e_{i}\right\|$ is the $\ell_{2}$ norm of the $i^{\text {th }}$ column so $\left\|\mathbb{K} e_{i}\right\|_{2}=\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} K\left(X_{j}, X_{i}\right)^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$. We also know that

$$
K\left(X_{j}, X_{i}\right)^{2}=\left\langle K\left(X_{j}, \cdot\right), K\left(X_{i}, \cdot\right)\right\rangle \leq\left\|K\left(X_{j}, \cdot\right)\right\|_{H}\left\|K\left(X_{i}, \cdot\right)\right\|_{H} \leq k_{\max }^{2}
$$

Combining all of these we get

$$
\left\|\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \hat{R}_{n, \varphi}\left(f_{\alpha}\right)\right\| \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} k_{\max }^{2}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}=k_{\max } \sqrt{n}=L
$$

To find $R$ we try to evaluate $\operatorname{diam}\left\{\alpha^{\top} \mathbb{K} \alpha \leq C^{2}\right\}=2 \max _{\alpha^{\top} \mathbb{K} \alpha \leq C^{2}} \sqrt{\alpha^{\top} \alpha}$. We can use the condition to put bounds on the diameter

$$
C^{2} \geq \alpha^{\top} \mathbb{K} \alpha \geq \lambda_{\min }(\mathbb{K}) \alpha^{\top} \alpha \Longrightarrow \operatorname{diam}\left\{\alpha^{\top} \mathbb{K} \alpha \leq C^{2}\right\} \leq \frac{2 C}{\sqrt{\lambda_{\min }(\mathbb{K})}}
$$

We need to understand how small $\lambda_{\min }$ can get. While it is true that these exist random samples selected by an adversary that make $\lambda_{\min }=0$, we will consider a random sample of
$X_{1}, \ldots, X_{n} \stackrel{\text { i.i.d }}{\sim} \mathcal{N}\left(0, I_{d}\right)$. This we can write these $d$-dimensional samples as a $d \times n$ matrix $\mathbb{X}$. We can rewrite the matrix $\mathbb{K}$ with entries $\mathbb{K}_{i j}=K\left(X_{i}, X_{j}\right)=\left\langle X_{i}, X_{j}\right\rangle_{\mathbb{R}^{d}}$ as a Wishart matrix $\mathbb{K}=\mathbb{X}^{\top} \mathbb{X}$ (in particular, $\frac{1}{d} \mathbb{X}^{\top} \mathbb{X}$ is Wishart). Using results from random matrix theory, if we take $n, d \rightarrow \infty$ but hold $\frac{n}{d}$ as a constant $\gamma$, then $\lambda_{\min }\left(\frac{\mathbb{K}}{d}\right) \rightarrow(1-\sqrt{\gamma})^{2}$. Taking an approximation since we cannot take $n, d$ to infinity, we get

$$
\lambda_{\min }(\mathbb{K}) \simeq d\left(1-2 \sqrt{\frac{n}{d}}\right) \geq \frac{d}{2}
$$

using the fact that $d \gg n$. This means that $\lambda_{\text {min }}$ becoming too small is not a problem when we model our samples as coming from multivariate Gaussians.

Now we turn our focus to the number of iterations $k$. Looking at our bound on the excess risk

$$
\hat{R}_{n, \varphi}\left(f_{\alpha_{R}^{\circ}}\right) \leq \min _{\alpha^{\top} \mathbb{K} \alpha \leq C^{2}} \hat{R}_{n, \varphi}\left(f_{\alpha}\right)+C \sqrt{\frac{n}{k \lambda_{\min }(\mathbb{K})}} k_{\max }
$$

we notice that our all of the constants in our stochastic term can be computed given the number of points and the kernel. Since statistical error is often $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$, to be generous we want to have precision up to $\frac{1}{n}$ to allow for fast rates in special cases. This gives us

$$
k \geq \frac{n^{3} k_{\max }^{2} C^{2}}{\lambda_{\min }(\mathbb{K})}
$$

which is not bad since $n$ is often not very big.
In [Bub15], the rates for many a wide rage of problems with various assumptions are available. For example, if we assume strong convexity and Lipschitz we can get an exponential rate so $k \sim \log n$. If gradient is Lipschitz, then we get get $\frac{1}{k}$ instead of $\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}$ in the bound. However, often times we are not optimizing over functions with these nice properties.

## Boosting

We already know that $\varphi$ is $L$-Lipschitz for boosting because we required it before. Remember that our optimization problem is

$$
\min _{\substack{\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^{N} \\|\alpha| 1 \leq 1}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \varphi\left(-Y_{i} f_{\alpha}\left(X_{i}\right)\right)
$$

where $f_{\alpha}=\sum_{j=1}^{N} \alpha_{j} f_{j}$ and $f_{j}$ is the $j^{\text {th }}$ weak classifier. Remember before we had some rate like $c \sqrt{\frac{\log N}{n}}$ and we would hope to get some other rate that grows with $\log N$ since $N$ can be very large. Taking the gradient of the $\varphi$-loss in this case we find

$$
\nabla \hat{R}_{n, \varphi}\left(f_{\alpha}\right)=\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \varphi^{\prime}\left(-Y_{i} f_{\alpha}\left(X_{i}\right)\right)\left(-Y_{i}\right) F\left(X_{i}\right)
$$

where $F(x)$ is the column vector $\left[f_{1}(x), \ldots, f_{N}(x)\right]^{\top}$. Since $\left|Y_{i}\right| \leq 1$ and $\varphi^{\prime} \leq L$, we can bound the $\ell_{2}$ norm of the gradient as

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\nabla \hat{R}_{n, \varphi}\left(f_{\alpha}\right)\right\|_{2} & \leq \frac{L}{n}\left\|\sum_{i=1}^{n} F\left(X_{i}\right)\right\| \\
& \leq \frac{L}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left\|F\left(X_{i}\right)\right\| \leq L \sqrt{N}
\end{aligned}
$$

using triangle inequality and the fact that $F\left(X_{i}\right)$ is a $N$-dimensional vector with each component bounded in absolute value by 1 .

Using the fact that the diameter of the $\ell_{1}$ ball is $2, R=2$ and the Lipschitz associated with our $\varphi$-risk is $L \sqrt{N}$ where $L$ is the Lipschitz constant for $\varphi$. Our stochastic term $\frac{R L}{\sqrt{k}}$ becomes $2 L \sqrt{\frac{N}{k}}$. Imposing the same $\frac{1}{n}$ error as before we find that $k \sim N^{2} n$, which is very bad especially since we want $\log N$.

### 2.4 Mirror Descent

Boosting is an example of when we want to do gradient descent on a non-Euclidean space, in particular a $\ell_{1}$ space. While the dual of the $\ell_{2}$-norm is itself, the dual of the $\ell_{1}$ norm is the $\ell_{\infty}$ or sup norm. We want this appear if we have an $\ell_{1}$ constraint. The reason for this is not intuitive because we are taking about measures on the same space $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, but when we consider optimizations on other spaces we want a procedure that does is not indifferent to the measure we use. Mirror descent accomplishes this.

### 2.4.1 Bregman Projections

Definition: If $\|\cdot\|$ is some norm on $\mathbb{R}^{d}$, then $\|\cdot\|_{*}$ is its dual norm.

Example: If dual norm of the $\ell_{p}$ norm $\|\cdot\|_{p}$ is the $\ell_{q}$ norm $\|\cdot\|_{q}$, then $\frac{1}{p}+\frac{1}{q}=1$. This is the limiting case of Hölder's inequality.

In general we can also refine our bounds on inner products in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$ to $x^{\top} y \leq\|x\|\|y\|_{*}$ if we consider $x$ to be the primal and $y$ to be the dual. Thinking like this, gradients live in the dual space, e.g. in $g_{s}^{\top}\left(x-x^{*}\right), x-x^{*}$ is in the primal space, so $g_{s}$ is in the dual. The transpose of the vectors suggest that these vectors come from spaces with different measure, even though all the vectors are in $\mathbb{R}^{d}$.

Definition: Convex function $\Phi$ on a convex set $D$ is said to be
(i) L-Lipschitz with respect to $\|\cdot\|$ if $\|g\|_{*} \leq L \quad \forall g \in \partial \Phi(x) \quad \forall x \in D$
(ii) $\alpha$-strongly convex with respect to $\|\cdot\|$ if

$$
\Phi(y) \geq \Phi(x)+g^{\top}(y-x)+\frac{\alpha}{2}\|y-x\|^{2}
$$

for all $x, y \in D$ and for $g \in \partial f(x)$

Example: If $\Phi$ is twice differentiable with Hessian $H$ and $\|\cdot\|$ is the $\ell_{2}$ norm, then all $\operatorname{eig}(H) \geq \alpha$.

Definition (Bregman divergence): For a given convex function $\Phi$ on a convex set $\mathcal{D}$ with $x, y \in \mathcal{D}$, the Bregman divergence of $y$ from $x$ is defined as

$$
D_{\Phi}(y, x)=\Phi(y)-\Phi(x)-\nabla \Phi(x)^{\top}(y-x)
$$

This divergence is the error of the function $\Phi(y)$ from the linear approximation at $x$. Also note that this quantity is not symmetric with respect to $x$ and $y$. If $\Phi$ is convex then $D_{\Phi}(y, x) \geq 0$ because the Hessian is positive semi-definite. If $\Phi$ is $\alpha$-strongly convex then $D_{\Phi}(y, x) \geq \frac{\alpha}{2}\|y-x\|^{2}$ and if the quadratic approximation is good then this approximately holds in equality and this divergence behaves like Euclidean norm.

Proposition: Given convex function $\Phi$ on $\mathcal{D}$ with $x, y, z \in \mathcal{D}$

$$
(\nabla \Phi(x)-\nabla \Phi(y))^{\top}(x-z)=D_{\Phi}(x, y)+D_{\Phi}(z, x)-D_{\Phi}(z, y)
$$

Proof. Looking at the right hand side

$$
\begin{aligned}
& =\Phi(x)-\Phi(y)-\nabla \Phi(y)^{\top}(x-y)+\Phi(z)-\Phi(x)-\nabla \Phi(x)^{\top}(z-x) \\
& \quad-\quad\left[\Phi(z)-\Phi(y)-\nabla \Phi(y)^{\top}(z-y)\right] \\
& =\nabla \Phi(y)^{\top}(y-x+z-y)-\nabla \Phi(x)^{\top}(z-x) \\
& =(\nabla \Phi(x)-\nabla \Phi(y))^{\top}(x-z)
\end{aligned}
$$

Definition (Bregman projection): Given $x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}, \Phi$ a convex differentiable function on $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{R}^{d}$ and convex $C \subset \overline{\mathcal{D}}$, the Bregman projection of $x$ with respect to $\Phi$ is

$$
\pi^{\Phi}(x) \in \underset{z \in C}{\operatorname{argmin}} D_{\phi}(x, z)
$$

## References

[Bub15] Sébastien Bubeck, Convex optimization: algorithms and complexity, Now Publishers Inc., 2015.

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