A Fast Scale-Invariant Algorithm for Non-negative Least Squares with Non-negative Data

Abstract

Nonnegative (linear) least square problems are a fundamental class of problems that is well-studied in statistical learning and for which solvers have been implemented in many of the standard programming languages used within the machine learning community. The existing off-the-shelf solvers view the non-negativity constraint in these problems as an obstacle and, compared to unconstrained least squares, perform additional effort to address it. However, in many of the typical applications, the data itself is nonnegative as well, and we show that the nonnegativity in this case makes the problem easier. In particular, while the oracle complexity of unconstrained least squares problems necessarily scales with one of the data matrix constants (typically the spectral norm) and these problems are solved to additive error, we show that nonnegative least squares problems with nonnegative data are solvable to multiplicative error and with complexity that is independent of any matrix constants. The algorithm we introduce is accelerated and based on a primal-dual perspective. We further show how to provably obtain linear convergence using adaptive restart coupled with our method and demonstrate its effectiveness on large-scale data via numerical experiments.

1 Introduction

Nonnegative least squares (NNLS) problems, defined by $\min_{\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}} \ \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{b}\|_2^2$, where $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, are fundamental problems and have been studied for decades in optimization and statistical learning [17, 5, 16], with various off-the-shelf solvers available in standard packages of MATLAB (as `lsqnonneg`), Python (as `optimize.nnls` in the SciPy package), and Julia (as `nnls.jl`). Within machine learning, NNLS problems arise whenever having negative labels is not meaningful, for example, when labels represent quantities like prices, age, pixel intensities, chemical concentrations, or frequency counts. NNLS is also widely used as a subroutine in nonnegative matrix factorization to extract sparse features in applications like image processing, computational biology, clustering, collaborative filtering, and community detection [14].

From a statistical perspective, NNLS problems can be shown to possess a regularization property that enforces sparsity similar to LASSO [35], while being comparatively simpler, without the need to tune a regularization parameter or perform cross-validation [33, 6, 13].

From an algorithmic standpoint, the nonnegativity constraint in NNLS problems is typically viewed as an obstacle: most NNLS algorithms need to perform additional work to handle it, and the problem is considered harder than unconstrained least squares. However, in many applications that use NNLS, the data is also nonnegative. This is true, for example, in problems arising in image processing, computational genomics, functional MRI, and in applications traditionally addressed using nonnegative matrix factorization. We argue in this paper that when the data for NNLS is nonnegative, it is in fact possible to obtain *stronger* guarantees than for traditional least squares.

Submitted to 36th Conference on Neural Information Processing Systems (NeurIPS 2022). Do not distribute.

Contributions. We study NNLS problems with (element-wise) nonnegative data matrix $\mathbf{A}$, to which we refer as the NNLS+ problems, through the lens of the (equivalent) quadratic problems:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}\geq\mathbf{0}} \left\{ \bar{f}(\mathbf{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 - \mathbf{c}^\top\mathbf{x} \right\}, \tag{P}$$

where $\mathbf{c} = \mathbf{A}^\top\mathbf{b}$ may be assumed element-wise positive. This assumption is without loss of generality, since if there were a coordinate j of $\mathbf{c}$ such that $c_j \leq 0$, then the jth coordinate of the gradient of $\bar{f}$ would be nonnegative, implying an optimal solution $\mathbf{x}^\star$ with $x_j^\star = 0$. Hence, we could fix $x_j = 0$ and optimize over only the remaining coordinates.

We further assume that the matrix $\mathbf{A}$ is non-degenerate: none of its rows or columns has all elements equal to zero. This assumption is without loss of generality because (1) if such a row exists, we could remove it without affecting the objective, and (2) if the jth column had all elements equal to zero, the optimal value of (P) would be $-\infty$, obtained for $\mathbf{x}$ with $x_j \to \infty$. Having established our assumptions and setup, we now proceed to state our contributions, which are three-fold.

(1) A scale-invariant, ε-multiplicative algorithm. We design an algorithm based on coordinate descent that, in total cost $O(\frac{\text{nnz}(\mathbf{A})}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}})$, constructs an ε-*multiplicative* approximate solution to (P). Our algorithm capitalizes on structural properties of (P) that arise as a result of the nonnegativity of $\mathbf{A}$.

Theorem 1.1 (Informal; see Theorem 3.5). *Given a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m\times n}$ and $\varepsilon > 0$, define $f(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 - \mathbf{c}^\top\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{x}^\star \in \arg\min_{\mathbf{x}\geq\mathbf{0}} f(\mathbf{x})$. Then, there exists an algorithm that in $K = O(n\log n + \frac{n}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}})$ iterations and $O\big(nnz(\mathbf{A})\big(\log n + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}\big)\big)$ arithmetic operations returns $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K \in \mathbb{R}_+^n$ such that $\mathbb{E}\left[\langle\nabla f(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K), \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K - \mathbf{x}^\star\rangle\right] \leq \varepsilon|f(\mathbf{x}^\star)|$.*

The application of our structural observations on (P) to Theorem 4.6 of [10] enables the recovery of our guarantee on the optimality gap; however, we provide a guarantee on the primal-dual gap, and this is *stronger* than the one on the optimality gap stated in Theorem 1.1. What is significant about Theorem 1.1 is the *invariance* of the computational complexity to the scale of $\mathbf{A}$—it does not depend on any matrix constants. This cost stands in stark contrast to that of traditional least squares, where the dependence of (oracle) complexity on matrix constants (specifically, the spectral norm of $\mathbf{A}$ in the Euclidean case) is *unavoidable* [25, 26], and multiplicative approximation is *not possible in general*.[1] On the conceptual front, our algorithm is a new acceleration technique inspired by the variance-reduced primal-dual algorithm of [34].

(2) Linear convergence with restart. By incorporating adaptive restart in (P), we improve the guarantee of Theorem 1.1 to one with linear convergence (with $\log(1/\varepsilon)$ complexity). Thus, we establish the first theoretical guarantee for NNLS+ that simultaneously satisfies the properties of being *scale-invariant, accelerated, and linearly-convergent*.

Theorem 1.2 (Informal; see Theorem 4.1). *Consider the setup of Theorem 1.1. Then, there is an algorithm that in expected $O(nnz(\mathbf{A})(\log n + \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\mu})\log(\frac{1}{\varepsilon}))$ arithmetic operations returns $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K \in \mathbb{R}_+^n$ with $f(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K) - f(\mathbf{x}^\star) \leq \varepsilon|f(\mathbf{x}^\star)|$, where μ is the constant in a local error bound for (P).*

Proving this bound requires bounding the expected number of iterations between restarts in conjunction with careful technical work in identifying an appropriate local error bound for NNLS+.

(3) Numerical experiments. We consolidate our theoretical contributions with a demonstration of the empirical advantage of our restarted method over state-of-the-art solvers using numerical experiments on datasets from LibSVM with sizes up to 19996×1355191. Figure 1 shows that, when combined with the restart strategy, our algorithm significantly outperforms the compared algorithms.

Related work. NNLS has seen a large body of work on the empirical front. The first method that was widely adopted in practice (including in the `lsqnonneg` implementation of MATLAB) is due to the seminal work of [17] (originally published in 1974). This method, based on active sets, solves NNLS via a sequence of (unconstrained) least squares problems and has been followed up by [5, 36, 24, 8] with improved empirical performance. While these variants are generally effective on small to mid-scale problem instances, they are not suitable for extreme-scale problems ubiquitous

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[1]To see why multiplicative approximation is not possible for general problems that are not nonnegative, consider the case where the optimal objective value of the problem is equal to zero. Then any problem with a multiplicative guarantee of the form in Theorem 1.1 would necessarily return an optimal solution.

in machine learning. For example, in the experiments reported in [24], Fast NNLS [5] took 6.63 days to solve a problem of size 45000×45000, while the TNT-NN algorithm [24] took 2.45 hours. However, the latter requires computing the Cholesky decomposition of $\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{A}$ at initialization, which can be prohibitively expensive both in computation and in memory. Further, the experiments reported are for problems with strong convexity, a property not satisfied by *underdetermined* systems, where NNLS is typically used. Another prominent work on the empirical front is that of [16], which performs projected gradient descent with modified Barzilai-Borwein steps [3] and step sizes given by a carefully designed sequence of diminishing scalars.

Another, separate, line of work concerns optimization algorithms with multiplicative error guarantees. Of interest to us are first-order algorithms that run in time that is near-linear in the input size and are thus applicable to large-scale setting (for multiplicative-error algorithms applicable to broad classes of problems but that run in time that is superlinear in the input size, see [31, Chapter 7]). Most of the existing literature in this domain concerns positive (packing and covering) linear programs (e.g., [20, 37, 1, 21]). Results also exist for positive semidefinite programs [2], (nonlinear) fair packing and covering problems [23, 11], and fair packing problems under Schatten norms for matrices [15]. With the exception of [11] (discussed below), none of these results are directly applicable to (P).

To the best of our knowledge, theoretical guarantees explicitly published for (P) have been scarce. For instance, [16] and [24] mentioned in the preceding paragraph provide only asymptotic convergence guarantees. In an orthogonal line of work, the result on 1-fair covering by [11] solves the problem dual to NNLS+, which also gives a multiplicative guarantee for NNLS+, but with the overall complexity $\tilde{O}(\frac{\text{nnz}(\mathbf{A})}{\varepsilon})$, where $\tilde{O}(\cdot)$ hides poly-log factors.

Since our algorithm is based on the coordinate descent algorithm, we highlight some results of other coordinate descent algorithms when specialized to the closely related problem of *unconstrained linear regression*. The pioneering work of [27] proposed a coordinate descent method called RCDM, which in our setting has an iteration cost $O\big(\frac{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \|\mathbf{A}_{:j}\|_2^2 \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^\star\|^2}{\varepsilon}\big)$, where $\|\mathbf{A}_{:j}\|_2$ is the Euclidean norm of the jth column of $\mathbf{A}$. This was improved by [18], in an algorithm termed ACDM, by combining Nesterov's estimation technique [29] and coordinate sampling, giving an iteration complexity of $O\big(\frac{\sqrt{n \sum_{j=1}^{n} \|\mathbf{A}_{:j}\|_2^2} \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^\star\|}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}\big)$ for solving (P). The latest results in this line of work by [2, 32, 30] perform non-uniform sampling atop a framework of [27] and achieve iteration complexity of $O\big(\frac{\sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^{n} \|\mathbf{A}_{:j}\|_2^2} \|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^\star\|}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}\big)$, with [9] dropping the dependence on $\max_{1 \le j \le n} \|\mathbf{A}_{:j}\|_2$. Additionally, the work of [19] develops an accelerated randomized proximal coordinate gradient (APCG) method to minimize composite convex functions.

As remarked earlier, [9], coupled with insights on NNLS+ problems provided in this work, can recover our guarantee for the optimality gap from Theorem 3.5. However, our work is the first to bring to the fore the properties of NNLS+ *required* to get such a guarantee, and our choice of primal-dual perspective allows for a stronger guarantee in terms of an upper bound on the primal-dual gap. Further, our algorithm is a novel type of acceleration, with our primal-dual perspective transparently illustrating our use of the aforementioned properties. We believe that these technical contributions, along with our techniques to obtain vastly improved theoretical guarantees with the restart strategy applied to this problem, are valuable to the broader optimization and machine learning communities.

2   Notation and preliminaries

Throughout the paper, we use bold lowercase letters to denote vectors and bold uppercase letters for matrices. For vectors and matrices, the operator $' \ge'$ is applied element-wise, and $\mathbb{R}_+$ is the non-negative part of the real line. We use $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle$ to denote the inner product of vectors $\mathbf{a}$ and $\mathbf{b}$ and ∇ for the gradient of a function. Given a matrix $\mathbf{A}$, we use $\mathbf{A}_{:j}$ for its jth column vector, and for a vector $\mathbf{x}$, x_j denotes its jth coordinate. We use $\mathbf{x}_k$ for the vector in the kth iteration and, to disambiguate indexing, use $[\mathbf{x}_k]_j$ to mean the jth coordinate of $\mathbf{x}_k$. The ith standard basis vector is denoted by $\mathbf{e}_i$. For an n-dimensional vector $\mathbf{x}$ and $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, we define $\mathbf{\Lambda} = \text{diag}([\|\mathbf{A}_{:1}\|_2^2, \ldots, \|\mathbf{A}_{:n}\|_2^2])$ and $\|\mathbf{x}\|_{\mathbf{\Lambda}}^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i^2 \|\mathbf{A}_{:i}\|_2^2$. Finally, $[n] \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$.

A differentiable function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex if for any $\mathbf{x}, \widehat{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have $f(\widehat{\mathbf{x}}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}), \widehat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x} \rangle$. A differentiable function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to be μ-strongly convex w.r.t. the

ℓ_2-norm if for any $\mathbf{x}, \widehat{\mathbf{x}} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, we have that $f(\widehat{\mathbf{x}}) \geq f(\mathbf{x}) + \langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}), \widehat{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x} \rangle + \frac{\mu}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \widehat{\mathbf{x}}\|_2^2$. We have analogous definitions for concave and strongly concave functions, which flip the inequalities noted.

Problem setup. As discussed in the introduction, our goal is to solve (P), with $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{m \times n}$. For notational convenience, we work with the problem in the following scaled form:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^n} \left\{ f(\mathbf{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 - \mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{x} \right\}, \tag{2}$$

This assumption is w.l.o.g. since any (P) can be brought to this form by a simple change of variable $\hat{x}_j = c_j x_j$ (see also e.g., [1, 11] for similar scaling ideas). The scaling need not be explicit in the algorithm since the change of variable $\hat{x}_j = c_j x_j$ is easily reversible.

Properties of the objective. To kick off our analysis, we highlight some properties inherent to the objective defined in (2). These are central to obtain a scale-invariant algorithm for (P).

Proposition 2.1. *Given $f : \mathbb{R}_+^n \to \mathbb{R}$ as defined in (2) and $\mathbf{x}^\star \in \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^n} f(\mathbf{x})$, the following statements all hold.*

a) $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^\star) \geq \mathbf{0}$.
b) $f(\mathbf{x}^\star) = -\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^\star\|_2^2 = -\frac{1}{2}\mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{x}^\star$.
c) for all $j \in [n]$, we have $x_j^\star \in \left[0, \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{A}_{:j}\|_2^2}\right]$.
d) $-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{j \in [n]} \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{A}_{:j}\|_2^2} \leq f(\mathbf{x}^\star) \leq -\frac{1}{2 \min_{j \in [n]} \|\mathbf{A}_{:j}\|_2^2}$.

The validity of division by $\|\mathbf{A}_{:j}\|_2$ in the preceding proposition is by the non-degeneracy of $\mathbf{A}$ discussed in the introduction. We prove this proposition in Section 6.1.

An important consequence of Proposition 2.1 (c) is that (P) can be restricted to the hyperrectangle $\mathcal{X} = \left\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n : 0 \leq x_j \leq \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{A}_{:j}\|_2^2}\right\}$ without affecting its optimal solution, but effectively reducing the search space. Thus, going forward, we replace the constraint $\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}$ in (P) by $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$.

Primal-dual gap perspective. As alluded earlier, our algorithm is analyzed through a primal-dual perspective. For this reason, it is useful to consider the Lagrangian

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \langle \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle - \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{y}\|_2^2 - \mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{x} \tag{3}$$

from which we can derive our rescaled problem (2) as the primal problem $\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}} \mathcal{P}(\mathbf{x})$, where

$$\mathcal{P}(\mathbf{x}) = \max_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = -\mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{x} + \max_{\mathbf{y} \geq \mathbf{0}} \left[-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{y}\|_2^2 + \langle \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \rangle \right] = -\mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{x} + \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}\|^2.$$

Similar to [34], we use Eq. (3) to define the following relaxation of the primal-dual gap, for arbitrary but fixed $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{X}$, and $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$:

$$\operatorname{Gap}_{\mathcal{L}}^{(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{v}) - \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}). \tag{4}$$

The significance of this relaxed gap function is that for a candidate solution $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}$ and an arbitrary $\widetilde{\mathbf{y}} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, a bound on $\operatorname{Gap}_{\mathcal{L}}^{(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}})$ translates to one on the primal error, as follows. First select $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{x}^\star, \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}$. Then, by observing that $\mathcal{L}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}) = f(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}})$ and $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}^\star, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^\star) = f(\mathbf{x}^\star)$, we have

$$f(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}) - f(\mathbf{x}^\star) = \mathcal{L}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}) - \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}^\star, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^\star).$$

For a fixed $\mathbf{x}$, $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \cdot)$ is 1-strongly concave and minimized at $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}$. Thus, $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}^\star, \mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}) \leq \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}^\star, \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}^\star) - \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{A}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}^\star)\|^2$. Hence, we have the following primal bound:

$$f(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}) - f(\mathbf{x}^\star) + \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{A}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}^\star)\|^2 \leq \mathcal{L}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}) - \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}^\star, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}) = \operatorname{Gap}_{\mathcal{L}}^{(\mathbf{x}^\star, \mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}})}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}). \tag{5}$$

In light of this connection, our algorithm for bounding the primal error is one that generates iterates that can be used to construct bounds on $\operatorname{Gap}_{\mathcal{L}}^{(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}})$, as we detail next.

3 Our algorithm and convergence analysis

Our algorithm, Scale Invariant NNLS+ (SI-NNLS+), is an iterative algorithm with conceptual iterations $k \geq 1$ consisting of primal and dual updates

$$
\begin{aligned}
\mathbf{x}_k &= \underset{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \, \phi_k(\mathbf{x}), \\
\mathbf{y}_k &= \underset{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m}{\operatorname{argmax}} \, \psi_k(\mathbf{y}),
\end{aligned}
\tag{6}
$$

where $\phi_k(\mathbf{x})$ and $\psi_k(\mathbf{y})$ are the estimate sequences used in our analysis and derived in Section 3.1.

We use our algorithm's iterates from Eq. (6) to construct G_k, an upper estimate of $\operatorname{Gap}_{\mathcal{L}}^{(\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v})}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k)$, where $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k$ are convex combinations of the iterates and $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{X}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}_+^m$, where $\mathbf{u}$ is fixed and $\mathbf{v}$ is arbitrary. Our motivation for constructing $\mathrm{G}_k(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) \geq \operatorname{Gap}_{\mathcal{L}}^{(\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v})}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k)$ is to obtain a bound on the primal error, using Inequality (5). The main goal in the analysis is to show that $\mathrm{G}_k \leq \frac{Q}{A_k}$, where A_k is a sequence of positive numbers and Q is bounded. To obtain the claimed multiplicative approximation, we use Inequality (5) and argue that for $\mathbf{u} = \mathbf{x}^\star, \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k$, we have $Q \leq O\big(|f(\mathbf{x}^*)|\big)$.

Our algorithm can be interpreted as a variant of the VRPDA^2 algorithm [34], and our analysis technique is inspired by the approximate duality gap technique from [10]; however, our construction of G_k is novel and based on the primal-dual gap (instead of the primal gap). A variant of SI-NNLS+ suitable for the analysis is provided in Algorithm 1, with proofs in Section 6.2 and Section 6.3. We give an implementation version of *Lazy* SI-NNLS+ and associated analysis in Section 7.

Algorithm 1 Scale Invariant Non-negative Least Squares with Non-negative Data (SI-NNLS+)

1: **Input:** Matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{m \times n}$ with $n \geq 4$, accuracy ε, initial point $\mathbf{x}_0$
2: Initialize: $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_0 = \mathbf{x}_0, \overline{\mathbf{y}}_0 = \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_0, K = \frac{5}{2}n \log n + \frac{6n}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}, a_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}n^{1.5}}, a_2 = \frac{a_1}{n-1}, A_0 = 0,$
$\quad A_1 = a_1, \phi_0(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}^2.$
3: **for** $k = 1, 2, \ldots, K$ **do**
4: $\quad$ Sample j_k uniformly at random from $\{1, 2, \ldots, n\}$
5: $\quad \mathbf{x}_k \leftarrow \underset{\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}}{\arg\min} \, \phi_k(\mathbf{x})$, for $\phi_k(\mathbf{x})$ defined by Eq. (12) and Eq. (15)
6: $\quad \mathbf{y}_k \leftarrow \underset{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m}{\arg\max} \, \psi_k(\mathbf{y})$, for $\psi_k(\mathbf{y})$ defined by Eq. (9)
7: $\quad \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k = \frac{1}{A_k}\left[A_{k-1}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_{k-1} + a_k\big(n\mathbf{x}_k - (n-1)\mathbf{x}_{k-1}\big)\right].$
8: $\quad \overline{\mathbf{y}}_k \leftarrow \mathbf{y}_k + \frac{a_k}{a_{k+1}}(\mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{y}_{k-1})$
9: $\quad A_{k+1} \leftarrow A_k + a_{k+1}, \; a_{k+2} = \min\{\frac{na_{k+1}}{n-1}, \frac{\sqrt{A_{k+1}}}{2n}\}$
10: **end for**
11: Return $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K$

3.1 Gap estimate construction

The gap estimate G_k is constructed as the difference $\mathrm{G}_k(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = \mathrm{U}_k(\mathbf{v}) - \mathrm{L}_k(\mathbf{u})$, where $\mathrm{U}_k(\mathbf{v}) \geq \mathcal{L}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \mathbf{v})$ and $\mathrm{L}_k(\mathbf{u}) \leq \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{u}, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k)$ are, respectively, upper and lower bounds we construct on the Lagrangian. It then follows by Eq. (4) that $\mathrm{G}_k(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ is a valid upper estimate of $\operatorname{Gap}_{\mathcal{L}}^{(\mathbf{u},\mathbf{v})}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k)$.

We first introduce a technical component our constructions L_k and U_k crucially hinge on: we define two positive sequences of numbers $\{a_i\}_{i \geq 1}$ and $\{a_i^k\}_{1 \leq i \leq k}$, with one of their properties being that both sum up to $A_k > 0$ for $k \geq 1$. Specifically, we define $A_0 = 0$ and $\{a_i\}_{i \geq 1}$ as $a_i = A_i - A_{i-1}$. The sequence $\{a_i^k\}$ changes with k and for $k = 1$ is defined by $a_1^1 = a_1$, while for $k \geq 2$:

$$
a_i^k = \begin{cases} a_1 - (n-1)a_2, & \text{if } i = 1, \\ na_i - (n-1)a_{i+1}, & \text{if } 2 \leq i \leq k-1, \\ na_k, & \text{if } i = k. \end{cases}
\tag{7}
$$

Summing over $i \in [k]$ verifies that $A_k = \sum_{i=1}^k a_i^k$. For the sequence $\{a_i^k\}_{1 \leq i \leq k}$ to be non-negative, we further require that $a_1 - (n-1)a_2 \geq 0$ and $\forall i \geq 2, na_i - (n-1)a_{i+1} \geq 0$.

The significance of these two sequences lies in defining the algorithm's primal-dual output pair by

$$\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k = \frac{1}{A_k} \sum_{i \in [k]} a_i^k \mathbf{x}_i \quad \text{and} \quad \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k = \frac{1}{A_k} \sum_{i \in [k]} a_i \mathbf{y}_i. \tag{8}$$

The intricate interdependence of $\{a_i\}$ and $\{a_i^k\}$ enables expressing $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k$ in terms of only $\{a_i\}$. This expression further simplifies to a cheaper recursive one, which is used in Algorithm 1.

With the sequences $\{a_i\}_{i \geq 1}$ and $\{a_i^k\}_{1 \leq i \leq k}$ in tow, we are now ready to show the construction of an upper bound $\mathrm{U}_k(\mathbf{v})$ on $\mathcal{L}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \mathbf{v})$ and a lower bound $\mathrm{L}_k(\mathbf{u})$ on $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{u}, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k)$.

Upper bound. To construct an upper bound, first observe that by Eq. (3) and Eq. (8),

$$\mathcal{L}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \mathbf{v}) = \langle \mathbf{A}\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \mathbf{v} \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{v}\|_2^2 - \mathbf{1}^\top \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k = \frac{1}{A_k} \sum_{i \in [k]} a_i^k \Big[\langle \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{v} \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{v}\|_2^2 - \mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{x}_i \Big].$$

Consider the primal estimate sequence defined for $k = 0$ as $\psi_0 = 0$ and for $k \geq 1$ by

$$\psi_k(\mathbf{v}) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \sum_{i \in [k]} a_i^k \Big[\langle \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{v} \rangle - \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{v}\|_2^2 - \mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{x}_i \Big], \tag{9}$$

which ensures that $\mathcal{L}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \mathbf{v}) = \frac{1}{A_k} \psi_k(\mathbf{v})$. A key upshot of constructing $\psi_k(\mathbf{v})$ as in Eq. (9) is that the quadratic term implies A_k-strong concavity of ψ_k for $k \geq 1$, which in turn ensures that the vector $\mathbf{y}_k = \arg\max_{\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m} \psi_k(\mathbf{y})$ from Eq. (6) is unique. This property, coupled with the first-order optimality condition in Inequality (1), gives that for any $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $\psi_k(\mathbf{y}) \leq \psi_k(\mathbf{y}_k) - \frac{A_k}{2} \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_k\|_2^2$. We are now ready to define the following upper bound by:

$$\mathrm{U}_k(\mathbf{v}) \overset{\text{def}}{=} \frac{1}{A_k} \psi_k(\mathbf{y}_k) - \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{y}_k\|_2^2. \tag{10}$$

The preceding discussion immediately implies that U_k is a valid upper bound for the Lagrangian.

Lemma 3.1. *For U_k as defined in Eq. (10), Lagrangian defined in Eq. (3) and $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k \in \mathbb{R}_+^n$ in Eq. (8), we have, for all $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, the upper bound $\mathrm{U}_k(\mathbf{y}) \geq \mathcal{L}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_k, \mathbf{y})$.*

Lower bound. Analogous to the preceding section, we now obtain a *lower bound* on the Lagrangian, completing the bound on the gap estimate. However, the construction becomes more technical. We start with the same approach as for the upper bound. Since $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{u}, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k)$ is convex in $\widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k$, by Jensen's inequality: $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{u}, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k) \geq \frac{1}{A_k} \sum_{i \in [k]} a_i \Big(\langle \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_i \rangle - \mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{u} - \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y}_i\|_2^2 \Big)$. Were we to define the dual estimate sequence ϕ_k in the same way as we did for the primal estimate sequence ψ_k, we would now simply define it as A_k times the right-hand side in the last inequality. However, doing so would make ϕ_k depend on $\mathbf{y}_k$, which is updated *after* $\mathbf{x}_k$, which in Eq. (6) is defined as the minimizer of the ϕ_k.

To avoid such a circular dependency, we add and subtract a linear term $\sum_{i \in [k]} \langle \mathbf{A}\overline{\mathbf{y}}_{i-1}, \mathbf{u} \rangle$, where $\overline{\mathbf{y}}_{i-1}$, defined later, are extrapolation points that depend only on $\mathbf{y}_1, \dots \mathbf{y}_{i-1}$. We thus have

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{u}, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k) \geq \frac{1}{A_k} \sum_{i \in [k]} a_i \Big[\langle \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}, \overline{\mathbf{y}}_{i-1} \rangle - \mathbf{1}^\top \mathbf{u} - \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{y}_i\|_2^2 \Big] + \frac{1}{A_k} \sum_{i \in [k]} a_i \langle \mathbf{A}\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{y}_i - \overline{\mathbf{y}}_{i-1} \rangle.$$

If we now defined ϕ_k based on the first term in the above inequality, we run into another obstacle: the linearity of the resulting estimate sequence is insufficient for cancelling all the error terms in the analysis. Hence, as is common, we introduce strong convexity by adding and subtracting an appropriate strongly convex function. Our chosen strongly convex function is motivated by the box-constrained property of the optimum from Proposition 2.1 (c) and crucial in bounding the initial gap estimate. It coincides with ϕ_0: for any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}_+^n$, define the function

$$\phi_0(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0\|_{\mathbf{\Lambda}}^2. \tag{11}$$

This function is 1-strongly convex with respect to $\| \cdot \|_{\mathbf{\Lambda}}$ and used in defining ϕ_1 as:

$$\phi_1(\mathbf{u}) = a_1 \langle \mathbf{A}^\top \overline{\mathbf{y}}_0 - \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \phi_0(\mathbf{u}). \tag{12}$$

The definition of ϕ_1 is driven by the purpose of cancelling initial error terms. Next, we choose ϕ_k so that for any fixed $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{X}$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[\phi_k(\mathbf{u})] = \mathbb{E}\Big[\sum_{i \in [k]} a_i \langle \mathbf{A}^\top \overline{\mathbf{y}}_{i-1} - \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{u} \rangle + \phi_0(\mathbf{u})\Big], \tag{13}$$

where the expectation is with respect to all the randomness in the algorithm. This construction is used to reduce the per-iteration complexity, for which we employ a *randomized* coordinate update on $\mathbf{x}_k$ for $k \geq 2$. To support such updates, we relax the lower bound to hold only *in expectation*.

Concretely, let j_i be the coordinate sampled uniformly at random from $[n]$ in the ith iteration of SI-NNLS+, independent of history. Fix $\mathbf{y}_i$ for $i = 1, \ldots, k-1$ and for $k \geq 2$ and $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{X}$, define

$$\phi_k(\mathbf{x}) = \phi_1(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i=2}^{k} n a_i \langle \mathbf{A}^\top \overline{\mathbf{y}}_{i-1} - \mathbf{1}, x_{j_i} \mathbf{e}_{j_i} \rangle. \tag{14}$$

For $k \geq 2$, $\phi_k(\mathbf{u})$ can also be defined recursively via

$$\phi_k(\mathbf{x}) = \phi_{k-1}(\mathbf{x}) + n a_k \langle \mathbf{A}^\top \overline{\mathbf{y}}_{k-1} - \mathbf{1}, x_{j_k} \mathbf{e}_{j_k} \rangle. \tag{15}$$

The function ϕ_k inherits the strong convexity of ϕ_0. This property, together with Eq. (6) and first-order optimality from Inequality (1), give

$$\phi_k(\mathbf{x}) \geq \phi_k(\mathbf{x}_k) + \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_k\|_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}^2. \tag{16}$$

Along with strong convexity, our choice of ϕ_k in Eq. (15) leads to the following properties essential to our analysis: (1) ϕ_k is separable in its coordinates; (2) the primal variable $\mathbf{x}_k$ is updated only at its j_k^{th} coordinate; (3) Eq. (13) is true. These are formally stated in Proposition 6.2.

With the dual estimate sequence ϕ_k defined in Eq. (15), we now define the sequence L_k by

$$\mathrm{L}_k(\mathbf{x}) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \frac{\phi_k(\mathbf{x}_k) + \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_k\|_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}^2 - \phi_0(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i \in [k]} a_i(\langle \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}_i - \overline{\mathbf{y}}_{i-1}\rangle - \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{y}_i\|_2^2)}{A_k}. \tag{17}$$

We conclude this section by justifying our choice of L_k as a valid expected lower bound on $\mathbb{E}\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{x}, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k)$.

Lemma 3.2. *For L_k defined in Eq. (17), for the Lagrangian in Eq. (3) and $\widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k$ in Eq. (8), we have, for a fixed $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{X}$, the lower bound $\mathbb{E}\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{u}, \widetilde{\mathbf{y}}_k) \geq \mathbb{E}\mathrm{L}_k(\mathbf{u})$, where the expectation is with respect to all the random choices of coordinates in Algorithm 1.*

3.2 Bounding the gap estimate

With the gap estimate G_k constructed as in the preceding section and combining Eq. (10) and Eq. (17), we now achieve our goal of bounding $A_k \mathrm{G}_k$ (to obtain a convergence rate of the order $1/A_k$) by bounding the change in $A_k \mathrm{G}_k$ and the initial scaled gap $A_1 \mathrm{G}_1$.

Lemma 3.3. *Consider the iterates $\{\mathbf{x}_k\}$ and $\{\mathbf{y}_k\}$ evolving according to Algorithm 1. Let $n \geq 2$ and assume that $a_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}n^{1.5}}$ and $a_1 \geq (n-1)a_2$, while for $k \geq 3$,*

$$a_k \leq \min\Big(\frac{na_{k-1}}{n-1}, \frac{\sqrt{A_{k-1}}}{2n}\Big). \tag{18}$$

Then, for fixed $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{X}$, any $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, and all $k \geq 2$, the gap estimate $\mathrm{G}_k = \mathrm{U}_k - \mathrm{L}_k$ satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}(A_k \mathrm{G}_k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) - A_{k-1}\mathrm{G}_{k-1}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}))$$
$$\leq -\mathbb{E}\left(\frac{A_k}{2}\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_k\|_2^2 - \frac{A_{k-1}}{2}\|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{y}_{k-1}\|_2^2\right) - \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_k\|_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}^2 + \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{k-1}\|_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}^2$$
$$- a_k \mathbb{E}\langle \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_k), \mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{y}_{k-1}\rangle + a_{k-1}\mathbb{E}\langle \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_{k-1}), \mathbf{y}_{k-1} - \mathbf{y}_{k-2}\rangle$$
$$- \frac{1}{4}A_{k-1}\mathbb{E}\|\mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{y}_{k-1}\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{4}A_{k-2}\mathbb{E}\|\mathbf{y}_{k-1} - \mathbf{y}_{k-2}\|_2^2.$$

Lemma 3.4. *Given a fixed $\mathbf{u} \in \mathcal{X}$, any $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $\overline{\mathbf{y}}_0 = \mathbf{y}_0$, and $\mathbf{x}_1$ and $\mathbf{y}_1$ from Algorithm 1, we have*

$$A_1 \mathrm{G}_1(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = a_1 \langle \mathbf{A}^\top(\mathbf{y}_1 - \mathbf{y}_0), \mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{u}\rangle + \phi_0(\mathbf{u}) - \phi_0(\mathbf{x}_1) - \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{x}_1\|_{\boldsymbol{\Lambda}}^2 - \frac{A_1}{2}\|\mathbf{v} - \mathbf{y}_1\|_2^2.$$

251 Combining the two lemmas, we now bound G_K and deduce our final result on the primal error.

252 **Theorem 3.5.** *[Main Result] Assume that $n \geq 4$. Given a matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}_+^{m \times n}$, $\varepsilon > 0$, an arbitrary*
253 $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathcal{X}$ *and $\bar{\mathbf{y}}_0 = \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x}_0$, let $\mathbf{x}_k$ and A_k evolve according to SI-NNLS+ (Algorithm 1) for $k \geq 1$.*
254 *For f defined in (2), define $\mathbf{x}^\star \in \arg\min_{\mathbf{x} \geq \mathbf{0}} f(\mathbf{x})$. Then, for all $K \geq 2$, we have*

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\langle \nabla f(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K), \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K - \mathbf{x}^\star \rangle + \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{A}(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K - \mathbf{x}^\star)\|^2\right] \leq \frac{2\phi_0(\mathbf{x}^\star)}{A_K} = \frac{\|\mathbf{x}_0 - \mathbf{x}^\star\|_{\mathbf{\Lambda}}^2}{A_K}.$$

255 *When $K \geq \frac{5}{2}n \log n$, we have $A_K \geq \frac{(K - \frac{5}{2}n \log n)^2}{36n^2}$. If $\phi_0(\mathbf{x}^\star) \leq |f(\mathbf{x}^\star)|$, then for $K \geq \frac{5}{2}n \log n +$*
256 $\frac{6n}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}$*, we have $\mathbb{E}[f(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K) - f(\mathbf{x}^\star)] \leq \varepsilon |f(\mathbf{x}^\star)|$. The total cost is $O\big(nnz(\mathbf{A})\big(\log n + \frac{1}{\sqrt{\varepsilon}}\big)\big)$.*

257 The assumption $\phi_0(\mathbf{x}^\star) \leq |f(\mathbf{x}^\star)|$ in the theorem is satisfied by $\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{0}$, which can be seen by
258 Proposition 2.1 and Eq. (11).

259 *Remark 3.6.* SI-NNLS+ (Algorithm 1) and Theorem 3.5 also generalize to a mini-batch version.
260 Increasing the batch size grows our bounds and number of data passes by a factor of at most square-
261 root of the batch size s, by relating the spectral norm of the s columns of $\mathbf{A}$ corresponding to a batch
262 to the Euclidean norms of individual columns of $\mathbf{A}$ from the same batch. However, due to efficient
263 available implementations of vector operations, mini-batch variants of our algorithm with small batch
264 sizes can have lower total runtimes on some datasets (see Section 5).

265 4   Adaptive restart

266 We now describe how SI-NNLS+ can be combined with adaptive restart to obtain linear convergence
267 rate. To apply the restart strategy, we need suitable upper and lower bounds on the measure of
268 convergence rate. Our measure of optimality is the *natural residual* $r(\mathbf{x}) = \|\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})\|_{\mathbf{\Lambda}}$ [22] for

$$\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x} - \Pi_{\mathbb{R}_+^n}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1}\nabla f(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{x} - (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{\Lambda}^{-1}\nabla f(\mathbf{x}))_+, \tag{19}$$

269 where $\Pi_{\mathbb{R}_+^n}$ is the projection operator onto $\mathbb{R}_+^n$ and $\mathbf{\Lambda}$ is as defined in Section 2. For $\mathbf{\Lambda} = \mathbf{I}$, $\mathbf{R}(\mathbf{x})$ is
270 the natural map as defined in, e.g., [12]. Due to space constraints, we only state the main result of
271 this section in the following theorem, while full technical details are deferred to Section 6.4.

272 **Theorem 4.1.** *Given an error parameter $\varepsilon > 0$ and $\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{0}$, consider the following algorithm $\mathcal{A}$:*

273
> $\mathcal{A}$: **SI-NNLS+ with Restarts**
> *Initialize: $k = 1$.*
> *Initialize Lazy SI-NNLS+ at $\mathbf{x}_{k-1}$.*
> *Run Lazy SI-NNLS+ until the output $\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K^k$ satisfies $r(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K^k) \leq \frac{1}{2}r(\mathbf{x}_{k-1})$.*
> *Restart Lazy SI-NNLS+ initializing at $\mathbf{x}_k = \widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K^k$.*
> *Increment k.*
> *Repeat until $r(\widetilde{\mathbf{x}}_K^k) \leq \varepsilon$.*

274 *Then, the expected number of arithmetic operations of $\mathcal{A}$ is $O\big(\mathrm{nnz}(\mathbf{A})\big(\log n + \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\mu}\big)\log\big(\frac{r(\mathbf{x}_0)}{\varepsilon}\big)\big)$.*
275 *As a consequence, given $\bar{\varepsilon} > 0$, the total expected number of arithmetic operations until a point with*
276 $f(\mathbf{x}) - f(\mathbf{x}^\star) \leq \bar{\varepsilon}|f(\mathbf{x}^\star)|$ *can be constructed by $\mathcal{A}$ is $O\big(\mathrm{nnz}(\mathbf{A})\big(\log n + \frac{\sqrt{n}}{\mu}\big)\log\big(\frac{n}{\mu\bar{\varepsilon}}\big)\big)$.*

277 5   Numerical experiments and discussion

278 We conclude our paper by presenting the numerical performance of SI-NNLS+ and its restart versions
279 (see the efficient implementation version in Algorithm 2) against FISTA [4, 28], a general-purpose
280 large-scale optimization algorithm, and OA+DS designed by [16] specifically for large-scale NNLS
281 problems. As an accelerated algorithm, FISTA has the optimal $1/k^2$ convergence rate; OA+DS, while
282 often efficient in practice, has only an asymptotic convergence guarantee. For FISTA, we compute
283 the tightest Lipschitz constant (i.e., the spectral norm $\|\mathbf{A}\|$); for OA+DS, we follow the best practices
284 laid out by [16]. For our SI-NNLS+ algorithm and its restart version with batch size bs $= 1$, we

Figure 1: Algorithm comparison for NNLS+ on `real-sim`, `news20` and `E2006train` datasets.

follow Algorithm 2 and the restart strategy in Section 4.[2] For the restart version with batch size
larger than 1, we choose the best batch size in $\{10, 50, 300, 500\}$ and compute the block coordinate
Lipschitz constants as the spectral norms of the corresponding block matrices. All algorithms were
implemented in Julia and run on a server with 16 AMD EPYC 7402P 24-Core Processors.

We evaluated the performance of the algorithms on the large-scale sparse datasets `real-sim`, `news20`,
and `E2006train` from the LibSVM library [7]. Both `real-sim` and `news20` datasets have non-
negative data matrices, but the labels may be negative. When there exist negative labels, it is possible
for the elements of $\mathbf{A}^\top \mathbf{b}$ to be negative. In such cases, per the discussion from the introduction, we
can simply remove the corresponding columns of $\mathbf{A}$ and solve an equivalent problem with smaller
dimension. On the other hand, the data matrix in `E2006train` dataset is not non-negative, which
means that this dataset does not satisfy the assumption required for the analysis of Algorithm 1.
However, Algorithm 1 can still be run by keeping only the non-negativity constraints for primal
updates. This example is provided solely for illustration of empirical performance.

Results. To compare all implemented algorithms, we plot the natural residual/objective value gap
versus number of data passes/time in Figure 1. Figure 1(a)-(d) shows that SI+NNLS+ is better than
FISTA and OA+DS in terms of number of data passes on the `real-sim` dataset. Note that all of
them have only sublinear convergence, but all the SI-NNLS+ algorithms with restart strategy achieve
linear convergence and thus are much faster in obtaining a high-accuracy solution. Specifically, with
bs $= 1$, we have a much better coordinate Lipschitz constant than the case of bs $= 10$ and thus
the case of bs $= 1$ dominates bs $= 10$. As FISTA and OA+DS take less time accessing the full
dataset once, they have lower runtimes than SI-NNLS+ but are beaten by SI-NNLS+ with restart and
bs $= 1$. In Figure 1(e)-(h), on the `news20` dataset, in terms of number of data passes, SI-NNLS+ and
its restart version with bs $= 1$ are dominant. However, as `news20` is a very sparse dataset, letting
bs $= 1$ significantly increases the total time to access the full data once due to the overhead per
iteration. As a result, both the SI-NNLS+ with bs $= 1$ and its restart version have the worst runtimes,
while SI-NNLS+ with bs $= 10$ still attains the best runtime. Figure 1(i)-(l) shows the performance
comparison on the `E2006train` dataset. On this dataset, both FISTA and OA+DS ran for 4 hours
without visibly reducing the function value, whereas our (block) coordinate algorithm outperforms
them in both number of data passes and time. Further experiments are left for future work.

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[2]The algorithm is implemented for the non-scaled version of the problem, (P); see Section 2.

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