

# On Regularized Square-root Regression Problems: Distributionally Robust Interpretation and Fast Computations

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## Abstract

Square-root (loss) regularized models have recently become popular in linear regression due to their nice statistical properties. Moreover, some of these models can be interpreted as the distributionally robust optimization counterparts of the traditional least-squares regularized models. In this paper, we give a unified proof to show that any square-root regularized model whose penalty function being the sum of a simple norm and a seminorm can be interpreted as the distributionally robust optimization (DRO) formulation of the corresponding least-squares problem. In particular, the optimal transport cost in the DRO formulation is given by a certain dual form of the penalty. To solve the resulting square-root regularized model whose loss function and penalty function are both nonsmooth, we design a proximal point dual semismooth Newton algorithm and demonstrate its efficiency when the penalty is the sparse group Lasso penalty or the fused Lasso penalty. Extensive experiments demonstrate that our algorithm is highly efficient for solving the square-root sparse group Lasso problems and the square-root fused Lasso problems.

**Keywords:** square-root regularized model, distributionally robust optimization, proximal point algorithm, semismooth Newton, group Lasso

## 1. Introduction

Variable selection in high dimensional feature space has played a pivotal role in contemporary statistical and machine learning studies. Let  $(X_1, Y_1), \dots, (X_N, Y_N)$  be data generated from a linear regression model

$$Y_i = X_i^T \beta_0 + \sigma \epsilon_i, \quad (1)$$

where  $X_i = (X_{i1}, \dots, X_{in})^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the  $i$ th predictor vector,  $Y_i \in \mathbb{R}$  is the corresponding response variable, and  $\epsilon_i$ 's are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) noises such that  $E(\epsilon_i) = 0$  and  $E(\epsilon_i^2) = 1$ . The vector  $\beta_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is the unknown true regression vector, and  $\sigma > 0$  is the unknown noise level. We let  $X := (X_1, \dots, X_N)^T \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times n}$  be the matrix of features and  $Y := (Y_1, \dots, Y_N)^T \in \mathbb{R}^N$  be the response vector. In high dimensional regression problems, the dimension of predictors  $n$  is usually much larger than the sample size  $N$ . With such a large number of predictors, one often prefers to select a smaller subset that is significant and highly correlated to the response for the ease of interpreting the model, as well as to avoid the issue of overfitting. One of the most popular methods for variable selection is the classic Lasso model (Tibshirani, 1996), which minimizes the residual sum of squared errors plus an  $\ell_1$  norm penalty term. Further imposing problem-specific assumptions on the structures of the variables, various variants of the classic Lasso model have been proposed. These variants are referred to as the Lasso-type models, and they include for example, the (sparse) group Lasso model (Yuan and Lin, 2006; Friedman et al., 2010), the fused Lasso model (Tibshirani et al., 2005), and the clustered Lasso model (Petry et al., 2011; She, 2010), to mention only a few. To date, large amount of research have been conducted on Lasso-type models, and they have been widely applied in real applications; see for example (Xu et al., 2010b; Muthukrishnan and Rohini, 2016; Yang et al., 2010; Jacob et al., 2009; Angelosante and Giannakis, 2009; Rao et al., 2015; Bazerque et al., 2011), just to name a few. Most Lasso-type models incorporate different regularizers for achieving different underlying sparsity structures in the regression vector and they solve the following generic squared-loss convex optimization problem:

$$\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{ \|Y - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda p(\beta) \}, \quad (2)$$

where  $\|\cdot\|$  is the Euclidean norm,  $p$  is the regularizer, and  $\lambda > 0$  is the tuning parameter.

The theoretically optimal values of the tuning parameter  $\lambda$  in the Lasso and group Lasso models have been well estimated in (Bickel et al., 2009; Lounici et al., 2011; Meinshausen and Yu, 2009; Zhang and Huang, 2008). However, an outstanding problem is that the choice of  $\lambda$  will depend on the unknown noise level  $\sigma$ , which is typically nontrivial to estimate. An alternative for choosing a suitable  $\lambda$  for good generalization performance is by cross validation, but this procedure can be time-consuming in practice. To eliminate the need to know or estimate  $\sigma$ , Belloni et al. (2011) introduced the square-root Lasso model, and subsequently Bunea et al. (2013) extended it to the square-root group Lasso model. The square-root (loss) regularized model takes the square-root of the residual sum of squared errors as the loss function and any sparsity inducing norm as the regularizer. From now on we refer to the following optimization problem as the square-root regularized model and its solution as the square-root regularized estimator

$$\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{ \|Y - X\beta\| + \lambda p(\beta) \}. \quad (3)$$

An important general step forward has been made by Stucky and van de Geer (2017), who proved the nice statistical property that the theoretically optimal  $\lambda$  for an estimator given by (3) will be independent of the unknown noise level  $\sigma$  for any penalty  $p$  that is a weakly decomposable norm (van de Geer, 2014, Definition 4.1). Such an estimator is quite general

in that  $p$  can be an arbitrary weakly decomposable norm. In fact, it was stated in (Stucky and van de Geer, 2017) that the nice statistical property is applicable for the square-root Lasso, the square-root (sparse) group Lasso, and the square-root SLOPE (Bogdan et al., 2015) estimators. In addition, it has been also shown by Jiang et al. (2021) that the choice of  $\lambda$  in the square-root fused Lasso model is independent of  $\sigma$ . Thus far, we can see that the square-root regularized model (3) is more preferable over the Lasso-type model (2) in terms of their statistical properties.

Recently, there has been renewed interest in the square-root regularized model (3) and its interpretation from the perspective of distributionally robust optimization (DRO). This connection gives a new probabilistic explanation of the penalty level  $\lambda$  based on the DRO formulation. A DRO problem aims to find a regression vector  $\beta$  that minimizes the worst-case loss over an uncertainty set, namely  $\sup_{\mathbb{P} \in \mathcal{U}} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}[\ell(X, Y; \beta)]$ . Here,  $\ell$  denotes a loss function,  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}[\cdot]$  denotes the expectation with respect to a probability distribution  $\mathbb{P}$  of  $(X, Y)$ , and  $\mathcal{U}$  denotes the uncertainty set of probability measures. The uncertainty set  $\mathcal{U}$  specifies prior distributional information about  $\mathbb{P}$ , and it is usually constructed to include the unknown true distribution with a probabilistic guarantee. Let us now introduce some notation and give the DRO formulation related to (3). We denote the Dirac distribution at  $(X_i, Y_i)$  by  $\mathbf{1}_{\{(X_i, Y_i)\}}$ , the empirical distribution by  $\mathbb{P}_N(dx, dy) := \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{1}_{\{(X_i, Y_i)\}}(dx, dy)$ , and the squared-loss function by  $\ell(x, y; \beta) := (y - \beta^T x)^2$ . Therefore, we have that  $\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}_N}[\ell(X, Y; \beta)] = \frac{1}{N} \|Y - X\beta\|^2$ , and (3) takes an equivalent form

$$\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \sqrt{\mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}_N}[\ell(X, Y; \beta)]} + \frac{\lambda}{\sqrt{N}} \cdot p(\beta) \right\}. \quad (4)$$

When  $p(\beta) = \|\beta\|_q := (\sum_{i=1}^n |\beta_i|^q)^{1/q} \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $q \in [1, \infty)$ , (4) has the following equivalent DRO representation, as shown in (Blanchet et al., 2019a),

$$\inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sup_{\mathbb{P}} \left\{ \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}[\ell(X, Y; \beta)] \mid \mathcal{D}_c(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{P}_N) \leq \frac{\lambda^2}{N} \right\} \quad (5)$$

where  $\mathcal{D}_c(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q})$  is an optimal transport cost between two probability measures  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  based on a suitably chosen cost function  $c$  (see (9) for the definition of  $\mathcal{D}_c$ ), and  $\{\mathbb{P} \mid \mathcal{D}_c(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{P}_N) \leq \frac{\lambda^2}{N}\}$  is the uncertainty set centered at the empirical distribution  $\mathbb{P}_N$  with radius  $\frac{\lambda^2}{N}$ . The inner maximization problem of (5) accounts for all the probability measures that are plausible variations of  $\mathbb{P}_N$ . The problem (5) tries to minimize the worst-case loss and consequently it is likely to perform uniformly well around the empirical distribution. Furthermore, we can interpret from (5) that the regularization parameter  $\lambda$  fully quantifies the radius of the uncertainty set  $\{\mathbb{P} \mid \mathcal{D}_c(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{P}_N) \leq \frac{\lambda^2}{N}\}$ . In fact, when  $p$  is the  $\ell_q$  norm, Blanchet et al. (2019a) proved that an associated cost function  $c$  defined by the dual norm of the  $\ell_q$  norm will give rise to the equivalence between (4) and (5). Besides, Blanchet and Kang (2017) provided a DRO representation for the square-root group Lasso model, i.e., (3) with  $p$  being the group Lasso penalty function. The problem (3) also admits a DRO representation when the regularizer is given by  $p(\beta) = \|\beta\|_{\Lambda} := \sqrt{\beta^T \Lambda \beta} \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$  with  $\Lambda$  being a given symmetric positive definite matrix, as shown in (Blanchet et al., 2019b, Theorem 1). Additionally, the connections between regularization and robust optimization have been

extensively studied in the literature, e.g., (El Ghaoui and Le Bret, 1997; Xu et al., 2010a, 2009; Shafieezadeh-Abadeh et al., 2015; Bertsimas and Copenhaver, 2018).

One of our contributions in this paper is to provide a DRO representation for a general class of square-root regularized models where the regularizer can take the general form as the sum of a simple norm and a seminorm. This broad class of regularizers can include most of the popular penalty functions in statistics and machine learning. As a key ingredient in the DRO formulation, the optimal transport cost is given by a certain dual form of the regularizer. Despite the superior statistical properties, square-root regularized models are more complex and challenging to solve compared to their squared-loss counterparts because now the loss function and the penalty function are both nonsmooth. Thus designing efficient algorithms that are capable of solving high-dimensional square-root regularized models is an important task for making these models practically useful. Here we develop a proximal point dual semismooth Newton algorithmic framework for solving a generic square-root regularized model. Specifically, we illustrate how the general framework can be adopted to solve the square-root sparse group Lasso and the square-root fused Lasso models, i.e., for solving (3) when  $p$  is one of the following regularizers:

- the sparse group Lasso regularizer (Friedman et al., 2010)

$$p(\beta) = w_1 \|\beta\|_1 + w_2 \sum_{l=1}^g \omega_l \|\beta_{G_l}\| \quad \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (6)$$

where  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  are nonnegative regularization parameters,  $\omega_l > 0$  is the weight for the  $l$ th group,  $G_l$ 's form a partition of  $\{1, \dots, n\}$ , and  $\beta_{G_l}$  is the subvector of  $\beta$  restricted to  $G_l$ ;

- the fused Lasso regularizer (Tibshirani et al., 2005)

$$p(\beta) = w_1 \|\beta\|_1 + w_2 \sum_{i=1}^{n-1} |\beta_i - \beta_{i+1}| \quad \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (7)$$

where  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  are nonnegative regularization parameters.

We should mention that although the square-root regularized models of the form (3) enjoy nice statistical properties and insightful DRO interpretation, there is currently no efficient unified algorithmic framework for solving such models, possibly due to challenge posed by the nonsmoothness of the square-root loss function in addition to the nonsmoothness of the penalty function. In fact, existing algorithms are limited to solving special cases such as the square-root Lasso model, and they are not efficient enough for solving large-scale problems. Belloni et al. (2011) reformulated the square-root Lasso model into a second order cone programming (SOCP), and then applied TFOCS (Becker et al., 2011) (first order conic solvers), SDPT3 (Toh et al., 1999; Tütüncü et al., 2003) (interior point methods), and coordinatewise methods for solving the reformulated SOCP. However, this SOCP reformulation will at least double the number of variables—thereby increasing the computational cost substantially, and those off-the-shelf methods are not efficient enough for solving large-scale problems. Additionally, an alternating direction method of multipliers was applied in (Li et al., 2015) for solving the square-root Lasso model. But this approach

may not be efficient for large-scale problems, as can be seen from the numerical experiments in (Tang et al., 2020). Moreover, proximal gradient descent and proximal Newton methods were proposed in (Li et al., 2020) for solving the square-root Lasso model. For solving the square-root group Lasso model, Bunea et al. (2013) proposed a scaled thresholding-based iterative selection procedure. This method highly depends on the choice of the scaling parameter, and it usually requires many iterations for solving large-scale problems, as shown later in our numerical experiments. Moreover, we found that the convergence of the method (Bunea et al., 2013, Theorem 3.1) is based on a regularity condition that depends on the sequence of iterates generated by the method and it may not hold generally. In a recent work, Tang et al. (2020) proposed a semismooth Newton (SSN) based proximal majorization-minimization algorithm for solving nonconvex square-root-loss regression problems, and they demonstrated its efficiency for solving the square-root Lasso model. To the best of our knowledge, an efficient and robust algorithm for solving the square-root regularized model that allows for a general regularizer is still in great demand but not yet available. Inspired by the algorithm of (Tang et al., 2020), we propose in this paper a proximal point dual semismooth Newton algorithm (PPDNA) for solving (3) with regularizer  $p$  having the property that its proximal mapping and the associated generalized Jacobian can be computed efficiently. In particular, we implement the PPDNA algorithmic framework to solve the square-root regularized model (3) with the sparse group Lasso regularizer (6) or the fused Lasso regularizer (7). In contrast to the algorithm in (Tang et al., 2020) which does not impose structured sparsity, our algorithm will incorporate structured sparsity imposed by the sparse group Lasso or fused Lasso regularizer. We should add that our PPDNA framework, just like the one in (Tang et al., 2020), is inspired by the highly efficient SSN based proximal point algorithmic (PPA) framework developed solving many squared-loss Lasso-type problems (Li et al., 2018b,c; Lin et al., 2019; Luo et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020). The key difference between our current framework and the one developed for a squared-loss Lasso-type problem is that the latter is applied to the dual problem having an essentially smooth strongly convex term in the objective function, but such a property is not present for our square-root regularized models. Fortunately, as we shall see later, the desirable properties of the PPA and SSN, such as the fast convergence speed of the PPA and the ability to exploit second order sparsity in the SSN method, are preserved in our current PPDNA framework when there is no overfitting of the data.

The remaining parts of the paper are organized as follows. In Section 2 we show that the square-root regularized model (3) has an equivalent DRO representation. We design a proximal point dual semismooth Newton algorithm for solving the square-root regularized model (3) in Section 3, and we elucidate the computational details of two cases where the regularizer is chosen to be the sparse group Lasso regularizer (6) or the fused Lasso regularizer (7). We conduct numerical experiments on synthetic and real data sets in Section 4, and give the conclusion in Section 5.

**Notation** Throughout the paper any vector is understood to be a column vector. We denote the inner product of two vectors  $x$  and  $y$  in  $\mathbb{R}^n$  by  $\langle x, y \rangle := x^T y$ . We denote the Euclidean norm by  $\|\cdot\|$  and the unit ball of Euclidean norm by  $\mathcal{B} := \{x \in \mathbb{R}^n \mid \|x\| \leq 1\}$ . For a matrix  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ , we denote the operator norm of  $X$  by  $\|X\| := \inf \{c \mid \|Xv\| \leq c\|v\| \forall v \in \mathbb{R}^n\}$ . We denote the elementwise multiplication by  $\odot$ . We adopt the conventions of extended

arithmetic, whereby  $\infty \cdot 0 = 0 \cdot \infty = 0/0 = 0$  and  $\infty - \infty = -\infty + \infty = 1/0 = \infty$ . For any subset  $A \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$ , we denote the cardinality of  $A$  as  $|A|$ . We denote the vector of all ones by  $\mathbf{1}$  and the identity matrix by  $I$ . We denote the vector (or the matrix) of all zeros by  $\mathbf{0}$ . For a matrix  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$  and an index set  $G \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , we denote the range space (resp. null space) of  $X$  by  $\text{Range}(X)$  (resp.  $\text{Null}(X)$ ) and the submatrix formed by the columns of  $X$  corresponding to  $G$  by  $X_G$ . We denote the square diagonal matrix with the elements of vector  $v$  on the main diagonal by  $\text{Diag}(v)$ . For a vector  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we denote the positive part of  $\beta$  by  $\beta^+ := \max\{\beta, 0\}$ , the vector with the signs of the corresponding elements of  $\beta$  by  $\text{sign}(\beta)$  (the sign of a real number is 1, 0, or  $-1$  if the number is positive, zero, or negative, respectively), the restricted vector of  $\beta$  to an index set  $G \subseteq \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$  by  $\beta_G$ , the support of  $\beta$  by  $\text{supp}(\beta) := \{i \mid \beta_i \neq 0\}$ . Given a vector space  $\mathcal{V}$ , a norm on  $\mathcal{V}$  is a nonnegative valued function  $p : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with the following properties: for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x, y \in \mathcal{V}$ , (1) (triangle inequality)  $p(x + y) \leq p(x) + p(y)$ , (2) (absolute homogeneity)  $p(\lambda x) = |\lambda|p(x)$ , (3) (positive definiteness)  $p(x) = 0$  implies  $x = 0$ . A seminorm on  $\mathcal{V}$  is a function  $p : \mathcal{V} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  with the properties (1) and (2) above. For a seminorm  $p$  on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , we define  $p_* : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$  by  $p_*(y) := \sup_x \{\langle y, x \rangle \mid p(x) \leq 1\} \forall y \in \mathbb{R}^n$  (if  $p$  is a norm then  $p_*$  is also a norm, called its dual norm). For a closed proper convex function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow (-\infty, +\infty]$ , we denote its effective domain by  $\text{dom}(f) := \{x \mid f(x) < +\infty\}$ , its Fenchel conjugate by  $f^*(x) := \sup_{y \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{\langle y, x \rangle - f(y)\}$ , the proximal mapping of  $f$  at  $x$  by  $\text{prox}_f(x) := \arg \min_y \{f(y) + \frac{1}{2}\|x - y\|^2\}$ , and the Moreau envelope (Moreau, 1965; Yosida, 1964) of  $f$  at  $x$  by  $\text{M}_f(x) := \min_y \{f(y) + \frac{1}{2}\|x - y\|^2\}$ . The Moreau envelope is continuously differentiable with the gradient  $\nabla \text{M}_f(x) = x - \text{prox}_f(x) \forall x$ . The multivariate normal distribution with mean vector  $\mu$  and covariance matrix  $\Sigma$  is denoted by  $\mathcal{N}(\mu, \Sigma)$ .

## 2. DRO Formulation of Squared-loss Linear Regression Problems

In this section, we will show that the square-root regularized model (3) is equivalent to a DRO formulation of a squared-loss linear regression problem, namely,

$$\inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sup_{\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{D}_c(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{P}_N) \leq \delta} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}[\ell(X, Y; \beta)]. \quad (8)$$

In the above,  $c$  is an appropriate optimal transport cost function that will be defined explicitly later, and  $\delta$  can be regarded as the radius of the uncertainty set centered at  $\mathbb{P}_N$ . Later we will show that the penalty parameter  $\lambda$  in (3) will fully quantify the radius  $\delta$ .

### 2.1 Optimal Transport Costs

We introduce in this section some notation and recall the optimal transport cost between probability measures; see (Villani, 2008, Chapter 6) for more details. For any two probability measures  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ ,  $\Pi(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q})$  denotes the set of all joint probability measures on  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1} \times \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  whose marginals are  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$ . For a given cost function  $c : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \times \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow [0, \infty]$ , where  $c(u, v)$  is the cost for transporting one unit of mass from  $u$  to  $v$ , the optimal transport cost between  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$  is defined as

$$\mathcal{D}_c(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q}) := \inf_{\pi \in \Pi(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{Q})} \int c(u, v) d\pi(u, v). \quad (9)$$

We assume that  $c(u, u) = 0$  for any  $u \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$ . For any nonnegative lower semicontinuous cost function  $c$ , it is shown in (Villani, 2008, Theorem 4.1) that the infimum in (9) is attainable. Intuitively, one can regard (9) as a kind of distance between two measures  $\mathbb{P}$  and  $\mathbb{Q}$ , but strictly speaking, it is not guaranteed to satisfy the axioms of a distance. However, one can obtain a distance from (9) when the cost is defined in terms of a distance. For example, if the cost function is defined by the  $\ell_q$ -norm as  $c(u, v) = \|u - v\|_q^\rho$ ,  $q \geq 1$ ,  $\rho \geq 1$ , then  $\mathcal{D}_c(\cdot, \cdot)$  is the well known Wasserstein distance of order  $\rho$  (also known as the optimal transport distance or the earth mover's distance). Wasserstein distances and Wasserstein barycenters have recently become very popular and are widely applied in many applications (Yang et al., 2021; Bigot and Klein, 2018; Cuturi and Doucet, 2014; Li and Wang, 2008; Ye et al., 2017; Rabin et al., 2011). In contrast to standard Wasserstein distances, the cost function  $c$  in our analysis are more general in that we allow for lower semicontinuous cost functions that may take infinite values. As we will see in Theorem 4, a judicious choice of  $c$  will give rise to the equivalence between (3) and (8).

## 2.2 DRO Formulation

In this section, we will give a DRO representation of the square-root regularized model (3) for a broad class of regularizers  $p$  expressed as the sum of a simple norm and a seminorm as follows. Let  $P : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  and  $Q : \mathbb{R}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be two given norms. We consider  $p : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  defined by

$$p(\beta) := w_1 P(\beta) + w_2 Q(B\beta), \quad \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (10)$$

where  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times n}$  is a given matrix, and  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  are nonnegative scalars adding up to one. Such a regularizer  $p$  and the corresponding dual function  $p_*$  are essential ingredients in the definition of the optimal transport cost in the DRO formulation. In Proposition 1, we give a relatively explicit form of  $p_*$ .

**Proposition 1** *Let  $p : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be the function defined in (10). Then the function*

$$p_*(\alpha) := \sup_{\beta} \{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \mid p(\beta) \leq 1\}, \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n \quad (11)$$

*admits the form*

$$p_*(\alpha) = \inf_{\tilde{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \bar{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^s} \sup_{t \in [0, 1]} \left\{ t \frac{P_*(\tilde{\alpha})}{w_1} + (1 - t) \frac{Q_*(\bar{\alpha})}{w_2} \mid \tilde{\alpha} + B^T \bar{\alpha} = \alpha \right\}, \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n. \quad (12)$$

Before presenting the proof, we would like to give an explanation of this proposition. By virtue of the convention of extended arithmetic ( $0/0 = 0$ ,  $1/0 = \infty$ ), the formula (12) can also include the special cases with  $w_1 = 0$  or  $w_2 = 0$ , namely,

$$p_*(\alpha) = \begin{cases} P_*(\alpha), & \text{if } w_1 = 1, w_2 = 0, \\ \inf_{\bar{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^s} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \mid B^T \bar{\alpha} = \alpha\}, & \text{if } w_1 = 0, w_2 = 1. \end{cases} \quad (13)$$

The convention of extended arithmetic allows us to have a uniform expression (12) without having to separately write out different cases. Additionally, one can see that  $p_*$  in the

second case of (13) will have finite values if and only if  $\alpha \in \text{Range}(B^T)$ . Note that in this case  $p(\cdot) = Q(B\cdot)$  may only be a seminorm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and therefore  $p_*$  may take infinite values. We will further characterize the properties of  $p_*$  when  $p(\cdot) = Q(B\cdot)$  is a seminorm later in Proposition 2.

**Proof** For positive coefficients  $w_1 > 0$  and  $w_2 > 0$ , take an arbitrary  $\mathbf{0} \neq \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . We have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_*(\alpha) &= \sup_{\beta} \{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \mid p(\beta) \leq 1\} \\
 &= \sup_{\beta} \inf_{u \geq 0} \{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle + u(1 - p(\beta))\} \\
 &= \inf_{u \geq 0} \sup_{\beta} \{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle + u - uw_1 P(\beta) - uw_2 Q(B\beta)\} \\
 &= \inf_{u \geq 0} \sup_{\beta} \{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle + u - uw_1 \sup_{\tilde{\alpha}: P_*(\tilde{\alpha}) \leq 1} \langle \beta, \tilde{\alpha} \rangle - uw_2 \sup_{\bar{\alpha}: Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq 1} \langle B\beta, \bar{\alpha} \rangle\} \\
 &= \inf_{u \geq 0} \{u + \sup_{\beta} \inf_{\tilde{\alpha}: P_*(\tilde{\alpha}) \leq 1, \bar{\alpha}: Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq 1} \langle \beta, \alpha - u(w_1 \tilde{\alpha} + w_2 B^T \bar{\alpha}) \rangle\} \\
 &= \inf_{u \geq 0} \{u + \inf_{\tilde{\alpha}: P_*(\tilde{\alpha}) \leq 1, \bar{\alpha}: Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq 1} \sup_{\beta} \langle \beta, \alpha - u(w_1 \tilde{\alpha} + w_2 B^T \bar{\alpha}) \rangle\}.
 \end{aligned}$$

The third equality follows from the strong duality theorem (Rockafellar, 1970, Theorem 28.2 and 28.4); the fourth equality applies the definition of a dual norm; and the last equality follows from a standard minimax theorem (Sion, 1958, Corollary 3.3). The supremum over  $\beta$  renders that  $\alpha - u(w_1 \tilde{\alpha} + w_2 B^T \bar{\alpha}) = \mathbf{0}$ . Therefore, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\inf_{u \geq 0} \{u + \inf_{\tilde{\alpha}: P_*(\tilde{\alpha}) \leq 1, \bar{\alpha}: Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq 1} \sup_{\beta} \langle \beta, \alpha - u(w_1 \tilde{\alpha} + w_2 B^T \bar{\alpha}) \rangle\} \\
 &= \inf_{u, \tilde{\alpha}, \bar{\alpha}} \{u \mid u \geq 0, P_*(\tilde{\alpha}) \leq 1, Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq 1, u(w_1 \tilde{\alpha} + w_2 B^T \bar{\alpha}) = \alpha\} \\
 &= \inf_{u, \tilde{\alpha}, \bar{\alpha}} \{u \mid u > 0, P_*(\tilde{\alpha}) \leq uw_1, Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq uw_2, \tilde{\alpha} + B^T \bar{\alpha} = \alpha\} \\
 &= \inf_{\tilde{\alpha}, \bar{\alpha}} \{\max(P_*(\tilde{\alpha})/w_1, Q_*(\bar{\alpha})/w_2) \mid \tilde{\alpha} + B^T \bar{\alpha} = \alpha\} \\
 &= \inf_{\tilde{\alpha}, \bar{\alpha}} \sup_{t \in [0,1]} \left\{ t \frac{P_*(\tilde{\alpha})}{w_1} + (1-t) \frac{Q_*(\bar{\alpha})}{w_2} \mid \tilde{\alpha} + B^T \bar{\alpha} = \alpha \right\},
 \end{aligned}$$

where the second equality holds since  $\alpha \neq \mathbf{0}$ ,  $w_1 > 0$ ,  $w_2 > 0$ , and we can simply replace the variable  $\tilde{\alpha}$  by  $\tilde{\alpha}/(uw_1)$  and the variable  $\bar{\alpha}$  by  $\bar{\alpha}/(uw_2)$ . Therefore, (12) holds for  $w_1 > 0$  and  $w_2 > 0$ .

For the case when  $w_1 = 1$  and  $w_2 = 0$ , the required result follows trivially.

Next, we prove the result for case when  $w_1 = 0$  and  $w_2 = 1$ , where  $p(\cdot) = Q(B\cdot)$  is a seminorm but it is not necessarily a norm. Take an arbitrary  $\mathbf{0} \neq \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . We have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 p_*(\alpha) &= \sup_{\beta} \{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle \mid Q(B\beta) \leq 1\} = \sup_{\beta} \inf_{u \geq 0} \{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle + u(1 - Q(B\beta))\} \\
 &\leq \inf_{u \geq 0} \sup_{\beta} \{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle + u(1 - Q(B\beta))\} \\
 &= \inf_{u \geq 0} \sup_{\beta} \{\langle \alpha, \beta \rangle + u - u \sup_{\bar{\alpha}: Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq 1} \langle B\beta, \bar{\alpha} \rangle\} \\
 &= \inf_{u \geq 0} \{u + \sup_{\beta} \inf_{\bar{\alpha}: Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq 1} \langle \beta, \alpha - uB^T \bar{\alpha} \rangle\} \\
 &= \inf_{u \geq 0} \{u + \inf_{\bar{\alpha}: Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq 1} \sup_{\beta} \langle \beta, \alpha - uB^T \bar{\alpha} \rangle\}.
 \end{aligned}$$



The third inequality follows from the exchange of sup and inf (Rockafellar, 1970, Lemma 36.1); the fourth equality applies the definition of a dual norm; and the last equality follows from a standard minimax theorem (Sion, 1958, Corollary 3.3). The supremum over  $\beta$  renders that  $\alpha - uB^T\bar{\alpha} = \mathbf{0}$ . Therefore, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \inf_{u \geq 0} \{u + \inf_{\bar{\alpha}: Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq 1} \sup_{\beta} \langle \beta, \alpha - uB^T\bar{\alpha} \rangle\} &= \inf_{u, \bar{\alpha}} \{u \mid u \geq 0, Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq 1, uB^T\bar{\alpha} = \alpha\} \\ &= \inf_{u, \bar{\alpha}} \{u \mid u > 0, Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \leq u, B^T\bar{\alpha} = \alpha\} = \inf_{\bar{\alpha}} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \mid B^T\bar{\alpha} = \alpha\}, \end{aligned}$$

where the second equality holds since  $\alpha \neq \mathbf{0}$  and we can simply replace the variable  $\bar{\alpha}$  by  $\bar{\alpha}/u$ .

When  $\mathbf{0} \neq \alpha \in \text{Range}(B^T)$ ,  $\inf_{\bar{\alpha}} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \mid B^T\bar{\alpha} = \alpha\}$  is finite. This, together with the strong duality theorem (Rockafellar, 1970, Theorem 28.2 and 28.4), implies that equality holds in the above inequality (\*). Namely,  $p_*(\alpha) = \inf_{\bar{\alpha}} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \mid B^T\bar{\alpha} = \alpha\} < +\infty$  for  $\mathbf{0} \neq \alpha \in \text{Range}(B^T)$ .

When  $\mathbf{0} \neq \alpha \notin \text{Range}(B^T)$ ,  $\inf_{\bar{\alpha}} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \mid B^T\bar{\alpha} = \alpha\}$  is infinite. We can have an orthogonal decomposition of  $\alpha$ :  $\alpha = \alpha_r + \alpha_n$ ,  $\alpha_r \in \text{Range}(B^T)$ ,  $\mathbf{0} \neq \alpha_n \in \text{Null}(B)$ . Note that  $p(\alpha_n) = 0$ , and by (11) it holds that  $p_*(\alpha) \geq \langle \alpha, k\alpha_n \rangle = k\|\alpha_n\|^2 \rightarrow +\infty$ , as  $k \rightarrow +\infty$ . Therefore,  $p_*(\alpha) = \inf_{\bar{\alpha}} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \mid B^T\bar{\alpha} = \alpha\} = +\infty$  for  $\mathbf{0} \neq \alpha \notin \text{Range}(B^T)$ .

Together with  $p_*(0) = 0$ , the proof is completed.  $\blacksquare$

For a seminorm  $p$ , we specify some properties of  $p$  and  $p_*$ . Note that if  $p$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , then  $p_*$  is also a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and the following properties (b) and (c) are standard.

**Proposition 2** *Let  $B \in \mathbb{R}^{s \times n}$  be a given matrix,  $Q : \mathbb{R}^s \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be a norm, and  $p : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  be defined by*

$$p(\beta) = Q(B\beta), \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n. \quad (14)$$

*Then  $p_*$  defined by (11) admits the expression*

$$p_*(\alpha) = \inf_{\bar{\alpha} \in \mathbb{R}^s} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \mid B^T\bar{\alpha} = \alpha\}, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n, \quad (15)$$

*and the following holds:*

- (a)  $\text{dom}(p_*) = \text{Range}(B^T)$  and  $p_* : \text{Range}(B^T) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a norm on the vector space  $\text{Range}(B^T)$ ;
- (b)  $\alpha^T \beta \leq p(\beta)p_*(\alpha) \forall \alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ;
- (c)  $p(\beta) = \sup_{\alpha} \{\alpha^T \beta \mid p_*(\alpha) \leq 1\} \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Moreover, this supremum is achievable. Namely, there exists  $\alpha_\beta \in \text{Range}(B^T)$  such that  $p_*(\alpha_\beta) = 1$  and  $p(\beta) = \alpha_\beta^T \beta$ .

**Proof** (15) follows from Proposition 1, and it implies that  $\text{dom}(p_*) = \text{Range}(B^T)$ . First, we prove that  $p_* : \text{Range}(B^T) \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$  is a norm on  $\text{Range}(B^T)$ . The triangle inequality is inherited from that of  $Q_*$ :  $p_*(\alpha + \beta) = \inf_{\gamma} \{Q_*(\gamma) \mid B^T\gamma = \alpha + \beta\} \leq \inf_{\bar{\alpha}, \bar{\beta}} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha} + \bar{\beta}) \mid B^T\bar{\alpha} = \alpha, B^T\bar{\beta} = \beta\} \leq \inf_{\bar{\alpha}} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \mid B^T\bar{\alpha} = \alpha\} + \inf_{\bar{\beta}} \{Q_*(\bar{\beta}) \mid B^T\bar{\beta} = \beta\} = p_*(\alpha) + p_*(\beta)$ . The absolute homogeneity is obvious from that of  $Q_*$ . If  $p_*(\alpha) = 0$ , then by the

property of infimum there exist a sequence  $\bar{\alpha}_k, k = 1, 2, \dots$  such that  $B^T \bar{\alpha}_k = \alpha$  and  $Q_*(\bar{\alpha}_k) < 1/k$ . Since  $Q_*$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^s$ , the latter further implies that  $\bar{\alpha}_k \rightarrow 0$  and hence  $\alpha = 0$ . Therefore,  $p_*$  is a norm on  $\text{Range}(B^T)$ .

Second, we prove (b). For any  $\alpha, \beta$ , and  $\bar{\alpha}$  satisfying  $B^T \bar{\alpha} = \alpha$ , we have the inequality  $\alpha^T \beta = (B\beta)^T \bar{\alpha} \leq Q(B\beta)Q_*(\bar{\alpha})$  since  $Q$  is a norm. We can deduce (b) by taking infimum over  $\bar{\alpha}$ .

Third, we prove (c). On one hand, it follows from (b) that  $\sup_{\alpha} \{\alpha^T \beta \mid p_*(\alpha) \leq 1\} \leq \sup_{\alpha} \{p(\beta)p_*(\alpha) \mid p_*(\alpha) \leq 1\} \leq p(\beta) \forall \beta$ . On the other hand, we have that  $\sup_{\alpha} \{\alpha^T \beta \mid p_*(\alpha) \leq 1\} = \sup_{\alpha \in \text{Range}(B^T)} \{\alpha^T \beta \mid \inf_{\bar{\alpha}} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \mid B^T \bar{\alpha} = \alpha\} \leq 1\} = \sup_{\gamma} \{(B\beta)^T \gamma \mid \inf_{\bar{\alpha}} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \mid B^T \bar{\alpha} = B^T \gamma\} \leq 1\} \geq \sup_{\gamma} \{(B\beta)^T \gamma \mid Q_*(\gamma) \leq 1\} = Q(B\beta) = p(\beta)$ , where the second last equality follows from the properties of the norm  $Q$  and its dual norm  $Q_*$ . Moreover, from (a) we know that  $p_*$  is a norm on  $\text{Range}(B^T)$  and therefore the set  $\{\alpha \mid p_*(\alpha) \leq 1\}$  is compact. Then it is easy to show that this supremum is achievable at the boundary. The proof is completed. ■

Proposition 2 includes a similar result in (Maurer and Pontil, 2012) about the operator norm  $\|\beta\|_{\mathcal{M}^*} := \sup_{1 \leq l \leq g} \{\|M_{(l)}\beta\|\} \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and its dual form, with  $\mathcal{M} := \{M_{(l)}\}_{1 \leq l \leq g}$  being a set of symmetric matrices  $M_{(l)} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ . See Appendix A for details.

The next proposition about strong duality is a direct application of (Blanchet and Murthy, 2019, Theorem 1). It shows that the inner maximization in the DRO problem (8) has a nice univariate dual problem.

**Proposition 3** (Blanchet et al., 2019a, Proposition 1) *Let  $c : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \times \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$  be a lower semicontinuous cost function satisfying  $c((x, y), (x', y')) = 0$  whenever  $(x, y) = (x', y')$ . For  $\gamma \geq 0$  and a loss function  $\ell(x, y; \beta)$  that is upper semicontinuous in  $(x, y)$  for each  $\beta$ , define*

$$\phi_{\gamma}(X_i, Y_i; \beta) := \sup_{u \in \mathbb{R}^n, v \in \mathbb{R}} \{\ell(u, v; \beta) - \gamma c((u, v), (X_i, Y_i))\}.$$

Then

$$\sup_{\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{D}_c(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{P}_N) \leq \delta} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}[\ell(X, Y; \beta)] = \inf_{\gamma \geq 0} \left\{ \gamma \delta + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \phi_{\gamma}(X_i, Y_i; \beta) \right\}.$$

Consequently, the DRO problem (8) reduces to

$$\inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sup_{\mathbb{P} : \mathcal{D}_c(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{P}_N) \leq \delta} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}[\ell(X, Y; \beta)] = \inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \inf_{\gamma \geq 0} \left\{ \gamma \delta + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \phi_{\gamma}(X_i, Y_i; \beta) \right\}.$$

Based on Proposition 3, we will prove in the next main theorem the equivalence between the square-root regularized model (3) and the DRO formulation (8) by finding an explicit form of  $\phi_{\gamma}$ . This theorem not only unifies existing results (Blanchet and Kang, 2017; Blanchet et al., 2019a) but also include a broader class of regularizers; it is applicable for any regularizer in the additive form expressed in (10).

**Theorem 4** *Consider the squared-loss function  $\ell(x, y; \beta) = (y - \beta^T x)^2$  and a regularizer  $p$  of the form (10). Let the cost function  $c : \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \times \mathbb{R}^{n+1} \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$  be defined by*

$$c((u, v), (x, y)) := \begin{cases} (p_*(u - x))^2, & \text{if } v = y, \\ +\infty, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases}$$

and the associated optimal transport cost  $\mathcal{D}_c(\cdot, \cdot)$  be defined by (9). Then it holds that

$$\inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \sup_{\mathbb{P}: \mathcal{D}_c(\mathbb{P}, \mathbb{P}_N) \leq \delta} \mathbb{E}_{\mathbb{P}}[\ell(X, Y; \beta)] = \frac{1}{N} \cdot \inf_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n} \left\{ \|Y - X\beta\| + \sqrt{\delta N} p(\beta) \right\}^2.$$

**Proof** Since  $c$  is lower semicontinuous with  $c((u, v), (u, v)) = 0$  for any  $(u, v)$ , and  $\ell(x, y; \beta)$  is upper semicontinuous in  $(x, y)$  for each  $\beta$ , based on Proposition 3, we can prove the required result via finding an explicit form of  $\phi_\gamma$ . Take  $\gamma \geq 0$  and  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$  arbitrarily. By the definitions of  $\phi_\gamma$ ,  $c$ , and  $\ell$ , we have that

$$\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) = \sup_u \left\{ (Y_i - \beta^T u)^2 - \gamma(p_*(u - X_i))^2 \mid u - X_i \in \text{dom}(p_*) \right\}.$$

For notational simplicity, we denote  $\Delta := u - X_i$  and  $Z_i = Y_i - \beta^T X_i$ . Then it holds that

$$\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) = \sup_{\Delta \in \text{dom}(p_*)} \left\{ Z_i^2 - 2Z_i\beta^T \Delta + (\beta^T \Delta)^2 - \gamma(p_*(\Delta))^2 \right\} \quad (16)$$

$$\leq Z_i^2 + \sup_{\Delta \in \text{dom}(p_*)} \left\{ 2|Z_i|p(\beta)p_*(\Delta) + ((p(\beta))^2 - \gamma)(p_*(\Delta))^2 \right\}. \quad (17)$$

By the property of a norm and Proposition 2, there exists  $\alpha_\beta \in \text{dom}(p_*)$  such that  $p_*(\alpha_\beta) = 1$  and  $p(\beta) = \alpha_\beta^T \beta$ .

If  $(p(\beta))^2 < \gamma$ , then the quadratic function in terms of  $p_*(\Delta)$  in the above supremum problem (17) is bounded by the value  $\frac{Z_i^2(p(\beta))^2}{\gamma - (p(\beta))^2}$  at the stationary point  $p_*(\Delta) = \frac{|Z_i|p(\beta)}{\gamma - (p(\beta))^2}$ . That is,  $\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) \leq Z_i^2 + \frac{Z_i^2(p(\beta))^2}{\gamma - (p(\beta))^2}$ . It is easy to check that this equality is achievable when one substitutes  $\Delta = \frac{-Z_i p(\beta)}{\gamma - (p(\beta))^2} \alpha_\beta$  into (16).

If  $(p(\beta))^2 > \gamma$ , by taking  $\Delta = k\alpha_\beta$ ,  $k > 0$  in (16), then it holds that  $\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) \geq Z_i^2 - 2kZ_i p(\beta) + k^2(p(\beta) - \gamma)$ . Since  $k$  can be arbitrarily large, we deduce that  $\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) = +\infty$ .

Lastly, we consider the case where  $(p(\beta))^2 = \gamma$ . If  $Z_i p(\beta) = 0$ , we have that  $\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) = Z_i^2$  since (16) implies that  $\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) \geq Z_i^2$  by taking  $\Delta = \mathbf{0}$  and (17) implies that  $\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) \leq Z_i^2$ . If  $Z_i p(\beta) \neq 0$ , by taking  $\Delta = -kZ_i p(\beta) \alpha_\beta$  with  $k > 0$  in (16), then it holds that  $\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) \geq Z_i^2 + 2kZ_i^2(p(\beta))^2$ . Since  $k$  can be arbitrarily large, we deduce that  $\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) = +\infty$ . Therefore, when  $(p(\beta))^2 = \gamma$ , we have that  $\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) = \begin{cases} Z_i^2, & \text{if } Z_i p(\beta) = 0, \\ +\infty, & \text{if } Z_i p(\beta) \neq 0. \end{cases}$

In summary, we can have a unified expression if we adopt the conventions of extended arithmetic given in the paragraph on notation, i.e.,

$$\phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) = \begin{cases} Z_i^2 + \frac{Z_i^2(p(\beta))^2}{\gamma - (p(\beta))^2}, & \text{if } (p(\beta))^2 < \gamma, \text{ or } (p(\beta))^2 = \gamma \text{ and } Z_i p(\beta) = 0, \\ +\infty, & \text{if } (p(\beta))^2 > \gamma, \text{ or } (p(\beta))^2 = \gamma \text{ and } Z_i p(\beta) \neq 0. \end{cases} \quad (18)$$

Next, we consider the problem

$$\inf_{\gamma \geq 0} \left\{ \gamma \delta + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) \right\}. \quad (19)$$

If  $\|Y - X\beta\| = 0$  (namely,  $Z_i = 0, \forall i$ ), or  $p(\beta) = 0$ , then it follows from (18) that (19) reduces to

$$\inf_{\gamma \geq (p(\beta))^2} \left\{ \gamma\delta + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N Z_i^2 \right\} = \frac{1}{N} \|Y - X\beta\|^2 + \delta(p(\beta))^2 = \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \|Y - X\beta\| + \sqrt{\delta} p(\beta) \right)^2.$$

If  $\|Y - X\beta\| \neq 0$  and  $p(\beta) \neq 0$ , then it follows from (18) that (19) reduces to

$$\inf_{\gamma > (p(\beta))^2} \left\{ \gamma\delta + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \left( Z_i^2 + \frac{Z_i^2 (p(\beta))^2}{\gamma - (p(\beta))^2} \right) \right\} = \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \|Y - X\beta\| + \sqrt{\delta} p(\beta) \right)^2,$$

where the minimal value is achieved at  $\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N\delta}} \|Y - X\beta\| p(\beta) + (p(\beta))^2$ . Thus far, we have that  $\inf_{\gamma \geq 0} \left\{ \gamma\delta + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \phi_\gamma(X_i, Y_i; \beta) \right\} = \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \|Y - X\beta\| + \sqrt{\delta} p(\beta) \right)^2$ . We further take minimization over  $\beta$  on both sides. This, together with Proposition 3, completes the proof.  $\blacksquare$

Theorem 4 is applicable for any regularizer of the additive form (10). This form may be a seminorm when  $p(\cdot) = Q(B\cdot)$ . In this case, one may take into consideration the effective domain of  $p_*$ , and then the cost function can be written as

$$c((u, v), (x, y)) := \begin{cases} (p_*(u - x))^2, & \text{if } v = y \text{ and } u - x \in \text{Range}(B^T), \\ +\infty, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Our equivalence result in Theorem 4 can cover a broad class of regularizers composed of a norm and a seminorm as in (10). We can obtain from Theorem 4 that the following square-root regularized estimators have equivalent DRO formulations:

- the square-root Lasso estimator (Belloni et al., 2011); a solution of (3) with  $p(\beta) = \|\beta\|_1, \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ;
- the square-root sparse group Lasso estimator (Stucky and van de Geer, 2017, Section 4.4); a solution of (3) with  $p$  given by (6);
- the square-root SLOPE estimator (Stucky and van de Geer, 2017, Section 4.3); a solution of (3) with  $p$  being the following weighted and sorted  $\ell_1$  norm with respect to a nonincreasing sequence of weights  $\omega_1 \geq \dots \geq \omega_n > 0$ :  $p(\beta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \omega_i |\beta_i^\downarrow|$ , where  $\beta^\downarrow$  is a vector obtained from  $\beta$  by sorting its entries in nonincreasing order of magnitude. This  $p$  was shown to be a norm in (Zeng and Figueiredo, 2014, Lemma 2);
- the square-root fused Lasso estimator (Jiang et al., 2021); a solution of (3) with  $p$  being given by (7);
- the SSASR estimator (Xie and Yang, 2020); a solution of (3) with  $p$  being given by  $p(\beta) = w_1 \sum_{l=1}^g \sqrt{|G_l|} \|\beta_{G_l}\| + w_2 \sum_{l=1}^g \sqrt{|G_l|} \|B_l \beta_{G_l}\|$ , where the matrix  $B_l \in \mathbb{R}^{(|G_l|-1) \times |G_l|}$  is defined as  $B_l x = (x_1 - x_2, \dots, x_{|G_l|-1} - x_{|G_l|})^T \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^{|G_l|}$  if  $|G_l| \geq 2$ ; and  $B_l = 0$  if  $|G_l| = 1$ .

### 3. A Proximal Point Dual Semismooth Newton Algorithm for Solving the Square-root Regularized Problem

In this section we aim to design a fast algorithm to solve the square-root regularized problem (3). It can be rewritten as follows with an auxiliary vector  $y \in \mathbb{R}^N$ :

$$\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n, y \in \mathbb{R}^N} \{ \|y\| + \lambda p(\beta) \mid X\beta - Y = y \}. \quad (20)$$

The dual problem of (20) is given by

$$- \min_{u \in \mathbb{R}^N} \{ \langle Y, u \rangle + (\lambda p)^*(X^T u) + \delta_{\mathcal{B}}(u) \} \quad (21)$$

where  $\mathcal{B}$  is the unit Euclidean ball.

Compared with the Lasso-type problem (2), the square-root regularized problem is more challenging to solve since both the loss function  $\|\cdot\|$  and the regularizer  $p$  are nonsmooth. We aim to use the framework of a proximal point algorithm (PPA) (Rockafellar, 1976) for solving (20). Given two sequences of positive parameters  $\{\sigma_k\}$  and  $\{\tau_k\}$  such that  $\sigma_k \downarrow \underline{\sigma} > 0$  and  $\tau_k \downarrow \underline{\tau} > 0$ , and an initial point  $(\beta^0, y^0) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^N$ , the PPA for solving (20) generates a sequence  $\{(\beta^{k+1}, y^{k+1})\}$  via

$$(\beta^{k+1}, y^{k+1}) \approx \mathcal{P}_k(\beta^k, y^k) := \arg \min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n, y \in \mathbb{R}^N} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \|y\| + \lambda p(\beta) \\ + \frac{\sigma_k}{2} \|\beta - \beta^k\|^2 + \frac{\tau_k}{2} \|y - y^k\|^2 \end{array} \middle| X\beta - Y = y \right\}. \quad (22)$$

---

#### Algorithm 1: Proximal point algorithm for solving (20)

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**Input** Data  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times n}$ ,  $Y \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , a penalty parameter  $\lambda > 0$ , and a regularizer  $p$ .

**Initialize**  $\beta^0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $y^0 = -Y$ ,  $\sigma_0 = \tau_0 = 1$ .

**while** the termination criterion is not met, **do**

    | **Step 1.** Update  $\beta^{k+1}$  and  $y^{k+1}$  by solving (22).

    | **Step 2.** Update  $\sigma_{k+1}$  and  $\tau_{k+1}$ . Set  $k \leftarrow k + 1$ .

**end**

**Output**  $\beta^k$  and  $y^k$ .

---

We use the standard criterion by Rockafellar (1976) for controlling the inexactness when solving (22) in Algorithm 1:

$$\|(\beta^{k+1}, y^{k+1}) - \mathcal{P}_k(\beta^k, y^k)\| \leq \varepsilon_k, \quad \varepsilon_k > 0, \quad \sum_{k \geq 0} \varepsilon_k < +\infty.$$

The global convergence of Algorithm 1 follows from (Rockafellar, 1976) directly. A key difficulty in Algorithm 1 is how to solve (22) efficiently. Given  $\sigma_k > 0$ ,  $\tau_k > 0$ ,  $\beta^k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $y^k \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , we recall the subproblem (22) given by

$$\begin{array}{ll} \min_{\beta, y} & \|y\| + \lambda p(\beta) + \frac{\sigma_k}{2} \|\beta - \beta^k\|^2 + \frac{\tau_k}{2} \|y - y^k\|^2 \\ \text{s.t.} & X\beta - Y = y. \end{array} \quad (23)$$

The Lagrangian function associated with (23) is given by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}(\beta, y; u) &= \|y\| + \frac{\tau_k}{2} \left\| y - y^k - \tau_k^{-1} u \right\|^2 - \langle y^k, u \rangle - \frac{1}{2\tau_k} \|u\|^2 - \langle Y, u \rangle + \lambda p(\beta) \\ &\quad + \frac{\sigma_k}{2} \left\| \beta - \beta^k + \sigma_k^{-1} X^T u \right\|^2 + \langle \beta^k, X^T u \rangle - \frac{1}{2\sigma_k} \|X^T u\|^2, \end{aligned}$$

for  $(\beta, y, u) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R}^N$ . By some simple manipulations, we can obtain that the dual problem of (23), i.e.,  $\max_u \min_{\beta, y} \mathcal{L}(\beta, y; u)$ , is given by

$$\begin{aligned} - \min_{u \in \mathbb{R}^N} \Psi(u) &:= \frac{1}{2\tau_k} \|u\|^2 + \frac{1}{2\sigma_k} \|X^T u\|^2 - \langle u, X\beta^k - y^k - Y \rangle \\ &\quad - \sigma_k \mathbf{M}_{\frac{\lambda}{\sigma_k} p} \left( \beta^k - \sigma_k^{-1} X^T u \right) - \tau_k \mathbf{M}_{\frac{1}{\tau_k} \|\cdot\|} \left( y^k + \tau_k^{-1} u \right). \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

It follows from the properties of Moreau envelope that the dual objective function  $\Psi$  is continuously differentiable and convex. Moreover, the gradient of  $\Psi$  is given by

$$\nabla \Psi(u) = -X \mathbf{prox}_{\frac{\lambda}{\sigma_k} p} \left( \beta^k - \sigma_k^{-1} X^T u \right) + \mathbf{prox}_{\frac{1}{\tau_k} \|\cdot\|} \left( y^k + \tau_k^{-1} u \right) + Y, \quad u \in \mathbb{R}^N. \quad (25)$$

Thus the problem (24) is an unconstrained smooth convex minimization problem. We let a dual optimal solution be  $\bar{u} \in \arg \min \Psi(u)$ . Then the optimal solution  $(\bar{\beta}, \bar{y})$  to (23) can be computed by

$$\bar{\beta} = \mathbf{prox}_{\frac{\lambda}{\sigma_k} p} \left( \beta^k - \sigma_k^{-1} X^T \bar{u} \right), \quad \bar{y} = \mathbf{prox}_{\frac{1}{\tau_k} \|\cdot\|} \left( y^k + \tau_k^{-1} \bar{u} \right).$$

Due to the favourable property of the dual problem (24), we propose to solve (23) via its dual. In particular, the optimal solution of (24) is nothing but the solution of the nonlinear system  $\nabla \Psi(u) = 0, u \in \mathbb{R}^N$ . The latter can be solved by a semismooth Newton (SSN) method. In order to apply the SSN method, we have to characterize a certain generalized Jacobian of  $\nabla \Psi(\cdot)$ , which in turns depends on the generalized Jacobian of  $\mathbf{prox}_{\frac{\lambda}{\sigma_k} p}(\cdot)$ . Since the proximal mappings  $\mathbf{prox}_{\frac{\lambda}{\sigma_k} p}(\cdot)$  and  $\mathbf{prox}_{\frac{1}{\tau_k} \|\cdot\|}(\cdot)$  are Lipschitz continuous, the following multifunction, which is considered as a generalized Jacobian of  $\nabla \Psi(u)$ , is well defined:

$$\widehat{\partial}(\nabla \Psi)(u) = \left\{ \sigma_k^{-1} X U X^T + \tau_k^{-1} V \left| \begin{array}{l} U \in \partial \mathbf{prox}_{\frac{\lambda}{\sigma_k} p} \left( \beta^k - \sigma_k^{-1} X^T u \right), \\ V \in \partial \mathbf{prox}_{\frac{1}{\tau_k} \|\cdot\|} \left( y^k + \tau_k^{-1} u \right) \end{array} \right. \right\}.$$

Once an element  $H \in \widehat{\partial}(\nabla\Psi)(u)$  can be constructed explicitly for any given  $u$ , the SSN method can be implemented as follows.

---

**Algorithm 2:** Semismooth Newton method for solving (24)

---

**Input** Data  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times n}$ ,  $Y \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , a penalty parameter  $\lambda > 0$ , a regularizer  $p$ .  
 $\beta^k \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $y^k \in \mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $\sigma_k > 0$ ,  $\tau_k > 0$ .  $\eta \in (0, 1)$ ,  $\varrho \in (0, 1]$ .  $\rho \in (0, 1)$ ,  $\mu \in (0, 0.5)$ .  
 $\text{tol} > 0$ .

**Initialize**  $u^0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $f^0 = \nabla\Psi(u^0)$  by (25),  $j = 0$ .

**while**  $\|f^j\| > \text{tol}$ , **do**

**Step 1.** Find an element  $H^j \in \widehat{\partial}(\nabla\Psi)(u^j)$ , and then find an approximate solution  $d^j$  to the linear system

$$H^j d = -f^j$$

such that  $\|H^j d + f^j\| \leq \min(\eta, \|f^j\|^{1+\varrho})$ .

**Step 2.** Find a step size  $\alpha_j = \rho^{m_j}$ , where  $m_j$  is the smallest nonnegative integer  $m$  for which

$$\Psi(u^j + \rho^{m_j} d^j) \leq \Psi(u^j) + \mu \rho^{m_j} \langle \nabla\Psi(u^j), d^j \rangle.$$

**Step 3.** Update  $u^{j+1} = u^j + \alpha_j d^j$  and compute  $f^{j+1} = \nabla\Psi(u^j)$  by (25).

**Step 4.** Set  $j \leftarrow j + 1$ .

**end**

**Output**  $u^j$ .

---

We can show that if the optimal solution  $(\bar{\beta}, \bar{y})$  to (23) does not overfit, i.e,  $\bar{y} = X\bar{\beta} - Y \neq \mathbf{0}$ , then at the optimal solution  $\bar{u}$  to (24), the generalized Jacobian  $\partial \text{prox}_{\frac{1}{\tau_k} \|\cdot\|}(y^k + \tau_k^{-1} \bar{u})$  is a singleton and the element is positive definite. But as the proof follows a similar argument to the one in (Tang et al., 2020, Proposition 12), we omit it here. The above property is crucial to guarantee the fast convergence of the SSN method for solving (24). We state the standard convergence result of the SSN method (Algorithm 2) without proof.

**Theorem 5** *Let  $(\bar{\beta}, \bar{y})$  be the optimal solution to the problem (23). Assume that the optimal solution does not overfit the data, i.e.,  $\bar{y} = X\bar{\beta} - Y \neq \mathbf{0}$ . Then the sequence  $\{u^j\}$  generated by Algorithm 2 converges globally to the unique solution  $\bar{u}$  of (24). Furthermore, the local rate of convergence is of order  $1 + \varrho$ , with  $\varrho \in (0, 1]$  given in Algorithm 2, i.e., for all  $j$  sufficiently large,  $\|u^{j+1} - \bar{u}\| = \mathcal{O}(\|u^j - \bar{u}\|^{1+\varrho})$ .*

From now on, we restrict our discussions to the case where the regularizer  $p$  is either the sparse group Lasso regularizer (6) or the fused Lasso regularizer (7). We will illustrate the explicit form of an element  $H \in \widehat{\partial}(\nabla\Psi)(\cdot)$  based on (Li et al., 2018b; Zhang et al., 2020). It is worth noting that the matrix  $H$  given below has (structured) sparsity inherited from that of matrices in the generalized Jacobian  $\partial \text{prox}_p(\cdot)$ , and it is known as second order sparsity. The second order sparsity will reduce substantially the computational cost in the SSN method, as demonstrated in (Li et al., 2018c,b; Lin et al., 2019; Luo et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2020).

**Sparse group Lasso regularizer.** We will first illustrate the construction of an element in  $\widehat{\partial}(\nabla\Psi)(\cdot)$  when  $p$  is the sparse group Lasso regularizer given by (6). Given positive constants  $\kappa_1, \kappa_2$  and  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , it is well known that for any  $\beta$

$$\text{prox}_{\kappa_1\|\cdot\|_1}(\beta) = (|\beta| - \kappa_1\mathbf{1})^+ \odot \text{sign}(\beta), \quad \text{prox}_{\kappa_2\|\cdot\|}(\beta) = \begin{cases} \left(1 - \frac{\kappa_2}{\|\beta\|}\right)^+ \beta, & \text{if } \beta \neq 0, \\ \mathbf{0}, & \text{if } \beta = 0. \end{cases}$$

We can construct a matrix  $\mathbf{U}_{\kappa_1}(\beta)$  in  $\partial\text{prox}_{\kappa_1\|\cdot\|_1}(\beta)$  and a matrix  $\mathbf{V}_{\kappa_2}(\beta)$  in  $\partial\text{prox}_{\kappa_2\|\cdot\|}(\beta)$  for any  $\beta$  respectively as follows

$$\begin{aligned} \partial\text{prox}_{\kappa_1\|\cdot\|_1}(\beta) &\ni \mathbf{U}_{\kappa_1}(\beta) := \text{Diag}(\mathbf{v}), \\ \partial\text{prox}_{\kappa_2\|\cdot\|}(\beta) &\ni \mathbf{V}_{\kappa_2}(\beta) := \begin{cases} \left(1 - \frac{\kappa_2}{\|\beta\|}\right) I + \frac{\kappa_2}{\|\beta\|^3} \beta\beta^T, & \text{if } \|\beta\| > \kappa_2, \\ \mathbf{0}, & \text{if } \|\beta\| \leq \kappa_2, \end{cases} \end{aligned}$$

where  $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  is defined by  $\mathbf{v}_i = 1$  if  $|\beta_i| > \kappa_1$ , and  $\mathbf{v}_i = 0$  otherwise. Let  $\tilde{\beta} := \beta^k - \sigma_k^{-1} X^T u$  and  $\tilde{y} := y^k + \tau_k^{-1} u$ . By (Zhang et al., 2020, (10) and Theorem 3.1), we can construct a matrix  $H \in \widehat{\partial}(\nabla\Psi)(\cdot)$  as follows

$$H := \sigma_k^{-1} \sum_{l=1}^g \left[ X_{G_l} \mathbf{V}_{\frac{\lambda w_2 \omega_l}{\sigma_k}} \left( \text{prox}_{\frac{\lambda w_1}{\sigma_k} \|\cdot\|_1}(\tilde{\beta}_{G_l}) \right) \mathbf{U}_{\frac{\lambda w_1}{\sigma_k}}(\tilde{\beta}_{G_l}) X_{G_l}^T \right] + \tau_k^{-1} \mathbf{V}_{\frac{1}{\tau_k}}(\tilde{y}).$$

**Fused Lasso regularizer.** Next, we illustrate the construction of an element in  $\widehat{\partial}(\nabla\Psi)(\cdot)$  when  $p$  is the fused Lasso regularizer given by (7). From (Li et al., 2018b), we can construct a matrix  $\mathbf{W}_{\kappa_2}(\beta)$  in  $\partial\text{prox}_{\kappa_2\|B\cdot\|_1}(\beta)$  for any  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$  as follows

$$\partial\text{prox}_{\kappa_2\|B\cdot\|_1}(\beta) \ni \mathbf{W}_{\kappa_2}(\beta) := I - B^T (\Sigma B B^T \Sigma)^\dagger B,$$

where  $\Sigma = \text{Diag}(\boldsymbol{\sigma})$  and  $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$  is given by

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_i = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } \left( B \text{prox}_{\kappa_2\|B\cdot\|_1}(\beta) \right)_i = 0, \\ 0, & \text{otherwise,} \end{cases} \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n-1.$$

Let  $\tilde{\beta} := \beta^k - \sigma_k^{-1} X^T u$  and  $\tilde{y} := y^k + \tau_k^{-1} u$ . By (Li et al., 2018b, (22) and Theorem 2), we can construct a matrix  $H \in \widehat{\partial}(\nabla\Psi)(\cdot)$  as follows

$$H := \sigma_k^{-1} X \mathbf{U}_{\frac{\lambda w_1}{\sigma_k}} \left( \text{prox}_{\frac{\lambda w_2}{\sigma_k} \|B\cdot\|_1}(\tilde{\beta}) \right) \mathbf{W}_{\frac{\lambda w_2}{\sigma_k}}(\tilde{\beta}) X^T + \tau_k^{-1} \mathbf{V}_{\frac{1}{\tau_k}}(\tilde{y}).$$

## 4. Numerical Experiments

In this section, we aim to evaluate the performance of our proximal point dual semismooth Newton algorithm (PPDNA) for solving the square-root regularized problem (3), when the regularizer  $p$  is chosen to be the sparse group Lasso regularizer (6) or the fused Lasso regularizer (7).



#### 4.1 Setup of the Experiments

Let `tol` be the tolerance, `maxiter` be the maximum iteration number, and `maxtime` be the maximum running time. We terminate a method at the  $k$ th iteration if the  $k$ th iterative point  $\beta^k$  satisfies one of the following conditions:

- $\|X\beta^k - Y\| \neq 0$ ,  $\bar{\beta}^k := X^T \frac{X\beta^k - Y}{\|X\beta^k - Y\|}$ , and

$$\Delta_{\text{kkt}}^k := \frac{\|\beta^k - \text{prox}_{\lambda p}(\beta^k - \bar{\beta}^k)\|}{1 + \|\beta^k\| + \|\bar{\beta}^k\|} < \text{tol}; \quad (26)$$

- $\|X\beta^k - Y\| = 0$ ; in this case, if the primal objective value in (20) (denoted as  $\text{obj}_{(20)}$ ) and the dual objective value in (21) (denoted as  $\text{obj}_{(21)}$ ) are available, we report the relative duality gap

$$\Delta_{\text{pd.gap}}^k := \frac{\text{obj}_{(20)} - \text{obj}_{(21)}}{1 + |\text{obj}_{(20)}| + |\text{obj}_{(21)}|}; \quad (27)$$

otherwise, we report the relative successive change

$$\Delta_{\text{var.gap}}^k := \frac{\|\beta^k - \beta^{k-1}\|}{1 + \|\beta^k\| + \|\beta^{k-1}\|}; \quad (28)$$

- $k > \text{maxiter}$ , or the total running time exceeds `maxtime`.

For all the algorithms, we set `tol` to be  $10^{-7}$  and `maxtime` to be 30 minutes. In addition, we set `maxiter` for our algorithm to be  $10^2$ , and for other algorithms to be  $10^6$ . All the experiments are performed in MATLAB (version 9.7) on a WINDOWS workstation (6-core, Intel Core i7-8750H @ 2.20GHz, 8 Gigabytes of RAM).

For the data matrix  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times n}$ , we require each column of  $X$  to be nonzero, i.e.,  $\sum_{i=1}^N X_{ij}^2 > 0$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . For all the data matrices in our experiments, we normalize the columns such that the diagonal entries of the matrix  $\frac{1}{N}X^T X$  are equal to one. That is, we let  $\mathbf{d} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  be defined by  $\mathbf{d}_j = \sqrt{\frac{N}{\sum_{i=1}^N X_{ij}^2}}$ ,  $j = 1, 2, \dots, n$  and then normalize  $X$  by  $X \leftarrow X \text{Diag}(\mathbf{d})$ . Such a normalization of the data has been considered in (Bunea et al., 2013; Stucky and van de Geer, 2017; Blanchet et al., 2019a; Jiang et al., 2021). For the sparse group Lasso regularizer, we always choose the weights of groups as  $\omega_l = \sqrt{|G_l|}$ .

We also give the following explanations for the entries in the tables of numerical results. We report an estimation of the number of nonzero elements in a computed vector  $\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$  as follows

$$\text{nnz}(\beta) := \arg \min_{1 \leq j \leq n} \left\{ j \mid \sum_{i=1}^j |\beta_i^\downarrow| \geq 0.999 \|\beta\|_1 \right\}, \quad (29)$$

where  $\beta^\downarrow$  is a vector obtained from  $\beta$  by sorting its entries in nonincreasing order of magnitude. When  $\beta$  has a group structure  $\{G_l\}_{l=1}^g$ , which forms a partition of  $\{1, 2, \dots, n\}$ , we define  $b \in \mathbb{R}^g$  by  $b_l := \|\beta_{G_l}\|$ ,  $l = 1, \dots, g$  and report an estimation of the number of

nonzero groups of  $\beta$  by applying (29) to the vector  $b$ :  $\text{nnzgrp}(\beta) := \text{nnz}(b)$ . Besides, we denote  $\text{nnzB}(\beta) := \text{nnz}(B\beta)$  where  $B\beta = (\beta_1 - \beta_2, \beta_2 - \beta_3, \dots, \beta_{n-1} - \beta_n)^T$ . We show the number of outer PPA iterations in Algorithm 1 and the total number of inner SSN iterations in Algorithm 2 of our PPDNA in the format of “outer iteration | inner iteration” under the iteration column. The running time is in the format of “minutes:seconds”. An entry “00” under the column “time” means that the computational time is less than 0.5 second. Based on the value of  $\|X\beta^k - Y\|$ , we report under the error column  $\Delta_{\text{kkt}}$ ,  $*\Delta_{\text{pd.gap}}$ , or  $\#\Delta_{\text{var.gap}}$ , given by (26), (27), and (28), respectively.

## 4.2 Alternating Direction Method of Multipliers for Solving the Square-root Regularized Problem

To justify the necessity of our second order based method PPDNA in Section 3, here we develop two first order methods based on the highly popular alternating direction method of multipliers (ADMM) (Glowinski and Marroco, 1975; Gabay and Mercier, 1976) framework to compare our PPDNA against them.

Now we describe the implementation of ADMM for solving an equivalent form of the square-root regularized problem (20) and its dual problem (21). By introducing slack variables  $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\xi \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , and  $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , we obtain their equivalent forms respectively as follows

$$\min_{\beta \in \mathbb{R}^n, y \in \mathbb{R}^N, \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n} \{ \|y\| + \lambda p(\alpha) \mid X\beta - Y - y = 0, \beta - \alpha = 0 \}, \quad (30)$$

$$- \min_{u \in \mathbb{R}^N, \xi \in \mathbb{R}^n, x \in \mathbb{R}^N} \{ \langle Y, u \rangle + (\lambda p)^*(\xi) + \delta_{\mathcal{B}}(x) \mid -X^T u - \xi = 0, u - x = 0 \}. \quad (31)$$

Given a positive scalar  $\mu$ , the augmented Lagrangian functions associated with (30) and (31) are respectively given by

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_\mu^{(P)}(\beta, y, \alpha; u, \xi) &= \|y\| + \lambda p(\alpha) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|X\beta - Y - y + \mu^{-1}u\|^2 + \frac{\mu}{2} \|\beta - \alpha + \mu^{-1}\xi\|^2 \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|u\|^2 - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\xi\|^2, \quad \forall (\beta, y, \alpha, u, \xi) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R}^n, \\ \mathcal{L}_\mu^{(D)}(u, \xi, x; \beta, y) &= \langle Y, u \rangle + \delta_{\mathcal{B}}(x) + (\lambda p)^*(\xi) + \frac{\mu}{2} \|-X^T u - \xi + \mu^{-1}\beta\|^2 + \frac{\mu}{2} \|u - x + \mu^{-1}y\|^2 \\ &\quad - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|\beta\|^2 - \frac{1}{2\mu} \|y\|^2, \quad \forall (u, \xi, x, \beta, y) \in \mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^N \times \mathbb{R}^n \times \mathbb{R}^N. \end{aligned}$$

The ADMM for solving the primal problem (30) and the dual problem (31) is given respectively in Algorithm 3 and Algorithm 4. For the convergence results, we refer the reader to (Chen et al., 2017; Fazel et al., 2013). We make the following remarks on techniques for solving linear systems (32) and (33), which is the most expensive part in ADMM frameworks. When  $n < N$ , we solve the  $n \times n$  linear system (32) either by the Cholesky factorization or the preconditioned conjugate gradients method, depending on  $n$ . Otherwise, we apply the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula (Golub and Van Loan, 2013)

$$(I + X^T X)^{-1} = I - X(I + X X^T)^{-1} X^T,$$

and only compute the Cholesky factorization of a smaller  $N \times N$  matrix  $I + X X^T$ . For solving the  $N \times N$  linear system (33) when  $N < n$ , we use either the Cholesky factorization

or the preconditioned conjugate gradients method, depending on  $N$ . Otherwise, we apply the Sherman-Morrison-Woodbury formula

$$(I + XX^T)^{-1} = I - X^T(I + X^T X)^{-1}X,$$

and compute the Cholesky factorization of  $I + X^T X$ . In any case, the Cholesky factorization (if needed) is only performed once at the beginning of the algorithm.

---

**Algorithm 3:** pADMM for solving (30)

---

**Input** Data  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times n}$ ,  $Y \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , a penalty parameter  $\lambda > 0$ , a regularizer  $p$ .

**Initialize**

$k = 0, y^0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^N, \alpha^0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n, u^0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^N, \xi^0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n; \rho = 1.618, \mu > 0.$

**while** the termination criterion is not met, **do**

**Step 1.** Compute  $\beta^{k+1}$  by

$$\begin{aligned} \beta^{k+1} &= \arg \min_{\beta} \frac{\mu}{2} \left\| X\beta - Y - y^k + \mu^{-1}u^k \right\|^2 + \frac{\mu}{2} \left\| \beta - \alpha^k + \mu^{-1}\xi^k \right\|^2 \\ &= (I + X^T X)^{-1} \left[ X^T(Y + y^k - \mu^{-1}u^k) + (\alpha^k - \mu^{-1}\xi^k) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (32)$$

**Step 2.** Compute  $y^{k+1}, \alpha^{k+1}$  by

$$\begin{aligned} y^{k+1} &= \arg \min_y \|y\| + \frac{\mu}{2} \left\| X\beta^{k+1} - Y - y + \mu^{-1}u^k \right\|^2 \\ &= \text{prox}_{\mu^{-1}\|\cdot\|} \left( X\beta^{k+1} - Y + \mu^{-1}u^k \right), \\ \alpha^{k+1} &= \arg \min_{\alpha} \lambda p(\alpha) + \frac{\mu}{2} \left\| \beta^{k+1} - \alpha + \mu^{-1}\xi^k \right\|^2 = \text{prox}_{\mu^{-1}\lambda p} \left( \beta^{k+1} + \mu^{-1}\xi^k \right). \end{aligned}$$

**Step 3.** Update  $u^{k+1}, \xi^{k+1}$  by

$$u^{k+1} = u^k + \rho\mu(X\beta^{k+1} - Y - y^{k+1}), \quad \xi^{k+1} = \xi^k + \rho\mu(\beta^{k+1} - \alpha^{k+1}).$$

**Step 4.** Set  $k \leftarrow k + 1$ .

**end**

**Output**  $\beta^k$ .

---

### 4.3 Comparison of Efficiency for Solving the Square-root Sparse Group Lasso Problem

In this section, we conduct extensive experiments to demonstrate the efficiency of our PPDNA for solving the square-root sparse group Lasso problem where the regularizer  $p$  is given by (6). In particular, we compare our PPDNA (Algorithm 1+Algorithm 2) with pADMM (Algorithm 3), dADMM (Algorithm 4), and the S-TISP solver (Bunea et al., 2013). Note that the S-TISP solver is limited to solving the square-root group Lasso problem where the coefficients in the expression (6) of the regularier  $p$  can only be taken as

---

**Algorithm 4:** dADMM for solving (31)

---

**Input** Data  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times n}$ ,  $Y \in \mathbb{R}^N$ , a penalty parameter  $\lambda > 0$ , a regularizer  $p$ .

**Initialize**  $k = 0$ ,  $u^0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $\xi^0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $x^0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ ,  $\beta^0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $y^0 = \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ ;  $\rho = 1.618$ ,  $\mu > 0$ .

**while** the termination criterion is not met, **do**

**Step 1.** Compute  $u^{k+1}$  by

$$\begin{aligned} u^{k+1} &= \arg \min_u u^T Y + \frac{\mu}{2} \left\| -X^T u - \xi^k + \mu^{-1} \beta^k \right\|^2 + \frac{\mu}{2} \left\| u - x^k + \mu^{-1} y^k \right\|^2 \\ &= (I + X X^T)^{-1} \left[ -\mu^{-1} Y + X(\mu^{-1} \beta^k - \xi^k) - (\mu^{-1} y^k - x^k) \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (33)$$

**Step 2.** Compute  $\xi^{k+1}, x^{k+1}$  by

$$\begin{aligned} \xi^{k+1} &= \arg \min_{\xi} (\lambda p)^*(\xi) + \frac{\mu}{2} \left\| -X^T u^{k+1} - \xi + \mu^{-1} \beta^k \right\|^2 \\ &= \text{prox}_{\mu^{-1}(\lambda p)^*} \left( -X^T u^{k+1} + \mu^{-1} \beta^k \right) \\ &= \left( -X^T u^{k+1} + \mu^{-1} \beta^k \right) - \mu^{-1} \text{prox}_{\mu \lambda p} \left( -\mu X^T u^{k+1} + \beta^k \right), \\ x^{k+1} &= \arg \min_x \delta_{\mathcal{B}}(x) + \frac{\mu}{2} \left\| u^{k+1} - x + \mu^{-1} y^k \right\|^2 = \Pi_{\mathcal{B}} \left( u^{k+1} + \mu^{-1} y^k \right). \end{aligned}$$

**Step 3.** Update  $\beta^{k+1}, y^{k+1}$  by

$$\beta^{k+1} = \beta^k + \rho \mu (-X^T u^{k+1} - \xi^{k+1}), \quad y^{k+1} = y^k + \rho \mu (u^{k+1} - x^{k+1}).$$

**Step 4.** Set  $k \leftarrow k + 1$ .

**end**

**Output**  $\beta^k$ .

---

$(w_1, w_2) = (0, 1)$  or  $(w_1, w_2) = (1, 0)$  in that solver. For all tables in this section, we denote PPDNA, pADMM, dADMM, and S-TISP by “PP”, “pA”, “dA”, and “ST”, respectively.

#### 4.3.1 SYNTHETIC DATA

We first show the results on synthetic data sets following the data generation mechanism in (Yuan and Lin, 2006; Bunea et al., 2013; Blanchet and Kang, 2017). We first choose a correlation matrix  $\Sigma$  to be a Toeplitz matrix, i.e.,  $\Sigma_{ij} = 0.5^{|i-j|}$ , the dimensions of which will be clear from the context. We construct four examples in our experiments. As can be seen from the following examples, the true regression vector  $\beta_0$  designed in Example 3 is not only groupwise sparse, but also sparse within a group. In contrast, the nonzero groups for  $\beta_0$  in Example 1 and 2 are dense. Besides, based on Example 3, we construct Example 4a/4b for which the true regression vectors are denser.

**Example 1** (Bunea et al., 2013) The dimensions of this example are set as  $N = 1000$ ,  $g = 200$  or  $2000$ ,  $n = 3g$ . We assign every three adjacent entries to be in one group,

i.e.,  $G_l = \{3l - 2, 3l - 1, 3l\}$ ,  $l = 1, \dots, g$ . The true regression vector  $\beta_0$  only contains three nonzero groups, i.e.,  $(\beta_0)_{G_l} = (2.5, 2.5, 2.5)^T$  for  $l = 1, 3, 4$  and  $(\beta_0)_{G_l} = \mathbf{0}$  otherwise. The predictor vectors  $X_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$  are generated from the multivariate normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma)$ . The response variables  $Y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$  are generated from the linear regression model (1) with  $\epsilon_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  and  $\sigma = 1$ .

**Example 2** (Yuan and Lin, 2006; Blanchet and Kang, 2017) The dimensions of this example are set as  $N = 500$  or  $10000$ ,  $g = 160$ ,  $n = 3g$ . The group structure is given by  $G_l = \{l, l + g, l + 2g\}$ ,  $l = 1, \dots, g$ . The true regression vector  $\beta_0$  only contains two nonzero groups, i.e.,  $(\beta_0)_{G_3} = (1, 1, 1)^T$ ,  $(\beta_0)_{G_6} = (2/3, -1, 1/2)^T$ , and  $(\beta_0)_{G_l} = \mathbf{0}$ ,  $l \notin \{3, 6\}$ . We generate random vectors  $Z_i \in \mathbb{R}^g$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$  from  $\mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \Sigma)$  and a random scalar  $\omega \in \mathbb{R}$  from  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ . Let  $A_i := \frac{Z_i + \omega \mathbf{1}}{\sqrt{2}} \in \mathbb{R}^g$ . Then the predictor vectors  $X_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$  are chosen to be the concatenation of three vectors constructed from  $A_i$ :  $X_i := (A_i^T, A_i^T \odot A_i^T, A_i^T \odot A_i^T \odot A_i^T)^T$ . The response variables  $Y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, N$  are generated from the linear regression model (1) with  $\epsilon_i \stackrel{\text{i.i.d.}}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  and  $\sigma = 2$ .

**Example 3** The dimensions of this example are set as  $N = 4000$ ,  $g = 2000$ ,  $n = 3g$  or  $N = 500$ ,  $g = 3000$ ,  $n = 3g$ . The true regression vector  $\beta_0$  only contains four nonzero groups, i.e.,  $(\beta_0)_{G_3} = (1, 0, 1)^T$ ,  $(\beta_0)_{G_6} = (2/3, -1, 0)^T$ ,  $(\beta_0)_{G_9} = (-1, 0, -1/2)^T$ ,  $(\beta_0)_{G_{12}} = (0, -1, 0)^T$ , and  $(\beta_0)_{G_l} = \mathbf{0}$ ,  $l \notin \{3, 6, 9, 12\}$ . The group structure  $\{G_l\}$  and the data  $\{X, Y\}$  are generated in the same way as in **Example 2**.

**Example 4a/4b** The dimensions of this example are set as  $N = 4000$ ,  $g = 2000$ ,  $n = 3g$ . Let  $\beta_0$  be the true regression vector in **Example 3**. For a positive integer  $T$ , we define  $\beta^{(T)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  as follows:

$$\beta_{G_l}^{(T)} = \begin{cases} (\beta_0)_{G_i} & \text{if } l = 12k + i, \ k \in \{0, 1, \dots, T-1\}, \ i \in \{1, 2, \dots, 12\}, \\ \mathbf{0} & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

By this construction, we have  $\text{nnz}(\beta^{(T)}) = 7T$  and  $\text{nnzgrp}(\beta^{(T)}) = 4T$ . In particular, we set  $\beta^{(10)}$  and  $\beta^{(100)}$  as the true regression vectors of **Example 4a** and **Example 4b**, respectively. The group structure  $\{G_l\}$  and the data set  $\{X, Y\}$  are generated in the same way as in **Example 3**.

We choose  $\lambda \in \{\lambda_{\text{Bun}}, \lambda_{\text{StG}}, \lambda_{\text{BIG}}\}$ , where the three tuning parameters  $\lambda_{\text{Bun}}$ ,  $\lambda_{\text{StG}}$ , and  $\lambda_{\text{BIG}}$  are theoretically optimal values given in (Bunea et al., 2013; Stucky and van de Geer, 2017; Blanchet et al., 2019a). See Appendix B for the details of the choice of the parameters. First, we set  $w_1 = 0$  and  $w_2 = 1$  so that we can compare with the S-TISP solver, and the comparison of PPDNA, pADMM, dADMM, and S-TISP on Examples 1-4 are reported in Table 1. We can see from Table 1 that our PPDNA successfully solves all instances except for Example 4b within several seconds. For Example 3 with  $(N, n) = (4000, 6000)$ , pADMM fails to achieve the prespecified accuracy within 30 minutes, dADMM takes approximately 20 minutes, and the running time of S-TISP varies from about 2 minutes to 12 minutes; however, our PPDNA merely takes 5 seconds. In addition, we set  $w_1 = w_2 = 0.5$  and compare the three methods PPDNA, pADMM, and dADMM in Table 2. It can be observed that our PPDNA outperforms both pADMM and dADMM for all instances in Table 2; our PPDNA returns accurate solutions for all instances within one minute. Even though dADMM is faster than pADMM, its running time grows significantly with the increase of dimensions. In addition, comparing Examples 3, 4a, 4b ( $N = 4000, n = 6000, g = 2000$ )

where the numbers of nonzeros of the true regression vectors are 7, 70, 700, respectively, we found that the performances of the algorithms do not vary too much. By comparing Table 1 and Table 2, one may find that the efficiency of our PPDNA remains steady for the group Lasso regularizer ( $w_1 = 0$ ) and the sparse group Lasso regularizer ( $w_1 = 0.5$ ).

#### 4.3.2 UCI DATA WITH SYNTHETIC GROUP STRUCTURE

We use the UCI repository (Asuncion and Newman, 2007; Chang and Lin, 2011) in this section. Following (Huang et al., 2010; Li et al., 2018c; Zhang et al., 2020), we expand the original features of the data sets *housing*, *bodyfat*, *pyrim*, *triazines*. The UCI data sets are not equipped with group structures, and we design the group structure as follows. We set the total number of groups as  $g = 300$ , and a feature is assigned randomly to a group with a uniform probability.

On each UCI data set, we consider two cases:  $(w_1, w_2) = (0, 1)$  and  $(w_1, w_2) = (0.5, 0.5)$ . For each case, we select three values of  $\lambda$  from the set  $\{0.5, 1, 2, 5, 7.5\}$  so that the resulting solutions do not overfit. When  $w_1 = 0$ , we compare the performances of PPDNA with pADMM, dADMM, and S-TISP. Otherwise, we compare the performances of PPDNA with pADMM and dADMM. The results are presented in Table 3. It can be seen that PPDNA is always the fastest among the compared methods for all instances in Table 3. We also find that the iteration numbers and computational time of pADMM, dADMM, and S-TISP fluctuates wildly with the changes in the dimensions or parameters. In contrast, the performances of our PPDNA are generally robust; it solves all the problems in Table 3 within 30 seconds except for *E2006.train*. In addition, we can observe that pADMM is generally slow for problems in Table 3, and it can not solve the last problem due to insufficient of memory for computing the Cholesky factorization. Compared to S-TISP, dADMM is faster for the first four problems. For the last two problems, dADMM fails to solve them within 30 minutes, which is due to the computational cost for solving the linear system (33). But note that S-TISP does not solve some of instances to the required level of accuracy. Since the dimensions of problems in UCI data sets are much larger than those of the synthetic data sets in Section 4.3.1, pADMM, dADMM, and S-TISP reach the maximum running time 30 minutes in many instances. In contrast, our PPDNA succeeds in solving all instances. We can safely conclude that our PPDNA can be more efficient than pADMM, dADMM, and S-TISP for solving large-scale square-root sparse group Lasso problems.

#### 4.3.3 REAL DATA

In this section, we present the numerical results of the square-root sparse group Lasso model on two real data sets which are equipped with natural group structures. For a given data set  $(X, Y)$  in this section, we randomly split it into the training set  $(X_{\text{train}}, Y_{\text{train}})$  and the test set  $(X_{\text{test}}, Y_{\text{test}})$  so that the number of observations  $N_{\text{train}}$  of the training data set is roughly twice larger than the number of observations  $N_{\text{test}}$  of the test set. Based on the training set, we first set  $(w_1, w_2) = (0, 1)$  and conduct 8-fold cross validation (CV) for selecting  $\lambda$  over the set

$$\lambda \in \{10^{-1}, 10^{-0.95}, 10^{-0.9}, \dots, 10^{0.95}, 10^1\}. \quad (34)$$

ON REGULARIZED SQUARE-ROOT REGRESSION PROBLEMS

problem ( $N, n$ ); $g$	$\lambda$	nnz  nnzgrp	iter				time				error			
			PP	pA	dA	ST	PP	pA	dA	ST	PP	pA	dA	ST
Example 1 (1000, 600) 200	3.485	9 3	17 70	1489	896	46	01	02	01	00	3.4e-08	4.6e-08	4.5e-08	8.8e-08
	9.193	9 3	13 41	1071	1291	123	00	01	02	00	7.7e-09	5.3e-08	1.2e-08	9.4e-08
	4.929	9 3	15 66	1489	1079	43	01	02	02	00	4.4e-09	3.3e-08	1.9e-08	7.8e-08
Example 1 (1000, 6000) 2000	3.929	9 3	13 28	14374	6235	84	04	03:27	56	00	3.0e-11	5.3e-08	2.1e-08	8.8e-08
	9.837	9 3	11 28	11054	3211	63	04	02:45	30	00	2.0e-08	2.0e-08	3.9e-08	8.5e-08
	5.605	9 3	11 24	27501	6058	77	04	06:42	54	00	5.2e-08	3.7e-08	3.3e-08	8.7e-08
Example 2 (500, 480) 160	3.462	6 2	14 48	12501	2993	2178	00	09	02	00	4.1e-09	1.6e-08	9.9e-08	1.0e-07
	9.193	6 2	13 43	6389	3041	529	00	04	02	00	6.1e-08	2.4e-08	1.9e-08	9.9e-08
	4.601	6 2	14 45	10001	3421	1860	00	07	02	00	1.1e-09	1.8e-08	2.5e-08	1.0e-07
Example 2 (10000, 480) 160	3.353	6 2	14 53	100001	9442	3527	08	09:49	01:59	14	4.5e-09	7.0e-08	1.0e-07	1.0e-07
	9.020	6 2	14 52	60001	16444	2574	08	05:54	03:28	10	1.6e-09	9.9e-08	9.9e-08	1.0e-07
	4.546	6 2	13 55	72501	10014	3053	08	07:09	02:12	12	3.6e-08	8.6e-08	9.9e-08	1.0e-07
Example 3 (500, 9000) 3000	4.026	23 8	13 37	27501	9581	27607	05	04:50	01:00	02:14	2.8e-09	7.0e-08	3.7e-08	1.0e-07
	10.008	3 1	12 28	95001	15001	5870	05	17:25	01:37	28	1.2e-09	1.7e-08	3.0e-08	1.0e-07
	17.169	0 0	1 1	1	1	1	00	00	00	00	0.0e-00	0.0e-00	0.0e-00	0.0e-00
Example 3 (4000, 6000) 2000	3.800	12 4	14 51	24123	19459	34664	05	30:00	16:50	12:51	1.7e-09	7.1e-05	7.4e-08	1.0e-07
	9.760	12 4	14 48	23646	22501	21300	05	30:00	19:52	08:07	3.6e-11	4.8e-06	1.8e-08	1.0e-07
	17.163	12 4	13 48	23978	25001	7288	05	30:00	21:48	02:54	7.6e-08	7.7e-06	6.5e-08	1.0e-07
Example 4a (4000, 6000) 2000	4.005	111 41	21 118	34205	7409	36603	06	30:00	05:21	06:45	4.1e-09	1.8e-07	1.0e-07	1.0e-07
	9.791	132 48	21 111	10001	19713	19748	03	08:49	13:57	03:35	1.3e-08	2.1e-08	3.2e-08	1.0e-07
	16.910	110 37	20 90	22501	25001	18372	02	19:51	17:40	03:20	6.3e-09	4.1e-08	4.4e-08	1.0e-07
Example 4b (4000, 6000) 2000	3.994	1256 447	18 103	33392	4233	29186	01:33	30:00	03:11	05:22	3.8e-09	4.9e-07	9.8e-08	1.0e-07
	9.791	1142 387	21 127	10001	7271	29179	26	09:04	05:22	05:21	1.4e-08	7.5e-08	1.0e-07	1.0e-07
	17.466	852 290	22 143	12501	13635	22256	20	11:13	09:51	04:04	1.6e-08	2.7e-08	2.3e-08	1.0e-07

Table 1: Square-root sparse group Lasso model on synthetic data sets Examples 1-4 with  $(w_1, w_2) = (0, 1)$ .

problem ( $N, n$ ); $g$	$\lambda$	nnz  nnzgrp	iter			time			error		
			PP	pA	dA	PP	pA	dA	PP	pA	dA
Example 1 (1000, 600) 200	3.589	9 3	14 58	1489	896	01	02	02	1.6e-08	4.5e-08	4.5e-08
	9.262	9 3	13 44	1071	1291	00	01	02	1.5e-08	4.9e-08	1.1e-08
	5.018	9 3	18 79	1489	1081	01	02	02	2.4e-09	3.2e-08	1.8e-08
Example 1 (1000, 6000) 2000	4.064	9 3	12 26	22501	6243	04	05:46	01:00	2.7e-10	8.2e-08	1.5e-08
	9.906	9 3	11 28	9581	3211	04	02:28	31	4.2e-08	3.7e-08	8.9e-08
	5.615	9 3	11 24	15001	6210	04	03:51	59	7.5e-08	2.6e-08	4.9e-09
Example 2 (500, 480) 160	3.724	6 3	14 56	10001	2892	01	08	02	5.6e-09	1.2e-08	9.9e-08
	9.298	6 2	14 51	5325	3062	01	04	02	3.2e-08	9.3e-08	1.2e-08
	4.593	6 2	14 53	10001	3286	01	08	02	1.7e-09	1.4e-08	9.0e-08
Example 2 (10000, 480) 160	3.454	6 3	18 81	52501	8454	10	05:29	01:53	1.9e-09	6.9e-08	1.0e-07
	9.039	6 2	15 60	60001	13449	08	06:15	02:57	5.0e-10	9.4e-08	4.2e-08
	4.564	6 2	16 79	72501	14916	11	07:33	03:22	6.1e-09	8.6e-08	9.9e-08
Example 3 (500, 9000) 3000	4.422	22 9	13 34	32501	7986	05	05:49	54	2.1e-11	6.1e-08	6.3e-08
	10.114	3 1	12 29	35001	11496	05	06:21	01:15	7.9e-10	6.2e-08	8.3e-08
	17.216	0 0	1 1	1	1	00	00	00	0.0e-00	0.0e-00	0.0e-00
Example 3 (4000, 6000) 2000	3.955	10 5	14 50	23062	22896	05	30:00	20:45	4.2e-10	8.0e-05	1.0e-07
	9.791	10 4	14 54	22845	22046	05	30:00	20:05	1.3e-09	6.0e-06	3.6e-08
	16.958	8 4	12 39	22889	22501	05	30:00	20:26	7.8e-08	2.7e-06	8.2e-08
Example 4a (4000, 6000) 2000	4.005	115 72	20 106	34158	11104	03	30:00	08:09	3.5e-08	1.8e-06	1.0e-07
	9.791	101 78	21 104	10001	19907	03	08:49	14:08	4.3e-08	5.6e-08	6.1e-08
	16.910	133 61	21 98	15001	17501	03	13:14	12:23	1.5e-08	3.6e-08	4.2e-08
Example 4b (4000, 6000) 2000	3.994	889 483	22 111	27501	4324	41	24:51	03:18	1.4e-08	8.2e-08	1.0e-07
	9.791	1114 403	21 100	25001	5183	21	22:35	03:51	5.6e-09	9.2e-08	1.0e-07
	17.466	884 298	18 130	7501	8190	19	06:45	05:56	8.6e-09	3.3e-08	6.9e-08

Table 2: Square-root sparse group Lasso model on synthetic data sets Examples 1-4 with  $w_1 = w_2 = 0.5$ .

problem ( $N, n$ ); $g$	$w_1 \lambda$	nnz  nnzgrp	iter				time				error			
			PP	pA	dA	ST	PP	pA	dA	ST	PP	pA	dA	ST
<i>housing</i> (253, 77520) 300	0.0 0.5	1846 8	12 32	3851	2470	86386	08	02:36	54	30:00	1.2e-08	3.8e-08	1.0e-07	1.7e-04
	0.0 1.0	1640 7	17 66	7986	4341	88088	02	05:15	01:32	30:00	1.5e-08	4.1e-08	2.0e-08	8.8e-05
	0.0 2.0	724 3	16 66	17501	7986	89932	03	11:26	02:45	30:00	1.9e-08	4.0e-08	4.2e-08	3.3e-05
	0.5 0.5	1145 11	15 39	5546	2909	—	09	03:43	01:06	—	1.5e-10	2.6e-08	1.0e-07	—
	0.5 1.0	709 7	15 61	11496	4495	—	02	07:39	01:37	—	3.5e-09	5.5e-08	3.2e-08	—
	0.5 2.0	460 4	13 48	20001	9020	—	01	12:57	03:07	—	7.6e-09	7.5e-08	2.0e-08	—
<i>bodyfat</i> (126, 116280) 300	0.0 0.5	703 2	12 25	11496	3081	104870	08	05:52	50	30:00	6.7e-11	9.9e-08	2.6e-08	6.2e-03
	0.0 1.0	349 1	12 53	45001	17501	106770	01	22:54	04:42	30:00	1.4e-08	8.8e-08	5.4e-08	4.3e-03
	0.0 2.0	348 1	12 39	60191	32501	107478	01	30:00	08:35	30:00	1.8e-11	2.2e-06	8.9e-08	3.3e-03
	0.5 0.5	84 3	14 38	47501	10772	—	08	25:02	03:21	—	9.0e-11	9.7e-08	1.0e-07	—
	0.5 1.0	85 2	13 60	56682	8317	—	02	30:00	02:24	—	5.9e-08	8.3e-07	8.7e-08	—
	0.5 2.0	227 2	13 50	59609	27501	—	01	30:00	07:20	—	7.3e-09	1.0e-05	6.4e-08	—
<i>pyrim</i> (37, 169911) 300	0.0 0.5	1072 2	13 27	45001	3211	129108	07	18:12	44	30:00	1.6e-09	6.5e-08	3.9e-08	1.3e-02
	0.0 1.0	577 1	11 41	52501	7986	62705	01	21:16	01:46	14:05	3.1e-08	7.9e-08	1.1e-08	1.0e-07
	0.0 2.0	1099 2	12 39	75001	13795	135011	01	29:58	03:03	30:00	1.9e-09	9.8e-08	1.6e-08	3.3e-03
	0.5 0.5	653 3	11 21	37501	2300	—	08	15:24	32	—	3.1e-10	3.7e-08	5.6e-08	—
	0.5 1.0	215 1	12 48	32501	12501	—	01	13:17	02:51	—	9.0e-11	6.3e-08	8.6e-08	—
	0.5 2.0	350 1	11 38	67501	9581	—	01	26:40	02:07	—	8.1e-09	9.4e-08	8.2e-08	—
<i>triazines</i> (93, 557845) 300	0.0 0.5	7040 4	18 75	7961	6656	11474	20	30:00	12:39	30:00	9.8e-09	9.9e-06	5.2e-08	5.4e-02
	0.0 1.0	3556 2	18 80	8000	14856	12325	15	30:00	30:00	30:00	7.2e-09	9.9e-06	1.1e-07	6.3e-02
	0.0 2.0	1806 1	13 57	8981	17492	13194	10	30:00	30:00	30:00	1.1e-08	8.9e-06	1.7e-07	1.9e-02
	0.5 0.5	2809 3	21 99	8630	5546	—	20	30:00	09:56	—	8.9e-08	3.7e-05	9.2e-08	—
	0.5 1.0	1987 2	21 94	8665	7986	—	16	30:00	14:25	—	2.9e-08	9.2e-06	3.0e-08	—
	0.5 2.0	2959 3	14 58	9016	17286	—	10	30:00	30:00	—	2.4e-09	8.8e-06	9.1e-08	—
<i>E2006.test</i> (1654, 72812) 300	0.0 2.0	5972 37	15 69	37501	12501	17749	03	13:23	03:18	02:06	3.6e-08	6.0e-09	5.4e-08	9.7e-08
	0.0 5.0	1395 8	14 46	11497	15001	4100	00	03:58	03:42	27	8.8e-11	7.6e-08	7.3e-08	9.9e-08
	0.0 7.5	0 0	1 1	1	1	1	00	00	00	00	0.0e-00	0.0e-00	0.0e-00	0.0e-00
	0.5 2.0	4641 65	19 82	32501	18610	—	05	12:01	05:01	—	5.6e-09	6.6e-08	4.6e-08	—
	0.5 5.0	656 22	13 49	35001	20692	—	03	12:17	05:25	—	1.3e-10	8.9e-08	1.1e-08	—
	0.5 7.5	149 6	12 42	15001	15001	—	00	05:13	03:45	—	6.5e-08	7.4e-08	8.1e-08	—
<i>E2006.train</i> (8044, 150348) 300	0.0 2.0	16098 46	19 94	—	3031	16517	05:31	—	30:00	07:44	9.3e-10	—	2.7e-01	9.6e-08
	0.0 5.0	3088 9	17 71	—	3010	11208	05	—	30:00	05:03	2.2e-08	—	4.6e-04	9.8e-08
	0.0 7.5	1092 3	14 57	—	3012	3967	02	—	30:00	01:47	1.8e-09	—	3.8e-04	1.0e-07
	0.5 2.0	10427 73	20 100	—	3015	—	33	—	30:00	—	8.3e-08	—	3.0e-01	—
	0.5 5.0	1070 23	17 71	—	3006	—	08	—	30:00	—	1.3e-08	—	6.2e-04	—
	0.5 7.5	296 9	15 60	—	2865	—	04	—	30:00	—	9.0e-09	—	2.1e-02	—

Table 3: Square-root sparse group Lasso model on UCI data sets with  $(w_1, w_2) = (0, 1)$  or  $(0.5, 0.5)$ . “—” denotes that the method is not applicable for the instance.

We then conduct 8-fold CV for selecting parameters  $w_1$ ,  $w_2$ , and  $\lambda$  over the sets

$$w_1 \in \{0, 0.1, 0.2, \dots, 0.9, 1\}, w_2 = 1 - w_1, \text{ and } \lambda \in \{10^{-1}, 10^{-0.95}, 10^{-0.9}, \dots, 10^{0.95}, 10^1\}. \quad (35)$$

Based on the test set, we report the mean squared error (MSE) for an approximate solution  $\beta$  defined by  $\|X_{\text{test}}\beta - Y_{\text{test}}\|^2/N_{\text{test}}$ .

**Climate data** (Kalnay et al., 1996) The data records climate information of 10512 locations across the globe ( $73 \times 144$  grid of latitude and longitude, resolution  $2.5^0 \times 2.5^0$ ). For each location, it records the monthly means of 7 predictor variables *Air Temperature*, *Precipitable water*, *Relative humidity*, *Pressure*, *Sea Level Pressure*, *Horizontal Wind Speed*, and *Vertical Wind Speed*. The predictor vector  $X_i \in \mathbb{R}^{73584}$  is the concatenation of the 7 predictor



variables at 10512 locations in the  $i$ th month, and we have data from 1948/1/1 to 2018/5/31 containing  $N = 814$  months. We regard the 7 predictor variables at a location as a group. The response variable is designed as follows. We first select a target location and then set  $Y_i$  to be the *Air Temperature* at the target location in the  $i$ th month. Moreover, we remove the 7 predictor variables corresponding to the selected target location in  $X$  and eventually we have the data  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{814 \times 73577}$  and  $Y \in \mathbb{R}^{814}$ .

This data has also been used in (Ndiaye et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2020), showing that the sparse group Lasso regularizer is suitable for prediction in climate data. We consider five different target locations for the diversity of experiments. We first set  $(w_1, w_2) = (0, 1)$ , and select  $\lambda$  by CV over (34). In addition, we select  $w_1, w_2$ , and  $\lambda$  by CV over (35). Table 4 shows the comparisons of PPDNA, pADMM, dADMM, and S-TISP on the climate data sets with five different target locations. As shown in Table 4, our PPDNA outperforms the other three methods pADMM, dADMM, and S-TISP by a wide margin in term of computational time. In particular, both pADMM and S-TISP fail to solve any instance within 30 minutes, and the accuracy of the solutions returned by S-TISP, approximately  $10^{-3}$ , are still far from being satisfactory. In addition, we plot the active groups predicting *Air Temperature* in a neighborhood of Dubbo, New South Wales, Australia in Figure 1. As one can expect, the active groups shown in the Figure 1 are close or contiguous to the target location Dubbo.

target location  $(N_{\text{train}}, n), g$	$w_1 \lambda$	MSE	iter				time				error			
			PP	pA	dA	ST	PP	pA	dA	ST	PP	pA	dA	ST
Dakar (15° N, 17° 30' W) (563, 73577), 10511	0.0 0.501	0.294	16 80	19469	6011	35469	17	30:00	05:56	30:00	1.3e-08	1.2e-05	9.8e-08	5.4e-03
	1.0 1.259	0.028	19 109	20467	17760	32782	09	30:00	16:21	30:00	6.3e-08	8.5e-06	1.0e-07	1.8e-02
Dubbo (32° 30' S, 147° 30' E) (563, 73577), 10511	0.0 0.282	0.059	16 45	19898	7245	35554	47	30:00	07:14	30:00	2.3e-08	1.5e-05	9.9e-08	3.8e-03
	0.7 0.562	0.021	20 140	20235	11318	–	13	30:00	11:09	–	4.5e-08	5.4e-06	1.0e-07	–
Enshi (30° N, 110° E) (563, 73577), 10511	0.0 0.282	0.031	1 186	20230	7397	35177	58	30:00	07:34	30:00	6.2e-07	8.2e-06	1.0e-07	3.9e-03
	0.8 0.794	0.023	21 123	20436	19163	–	08	30:00	18:39	–	5.3e-08	9.3e-06	1.0e-07	–
Weihai (37° 30' N, 122° 30' E) (563, 73577), 10511	0.0 0.282	0.045	19 74	20220	9667	31370	51	30:00	09:52	30:00	1.1e-10	3.6e-06	1.0e-07	4.1e-03
	0.9 0.794	0.034	20 123	20125	21605	–	11	30:00	23:44	–	4.7e-08	9.0e-06	1.0e-07	–
Bosilegrad (42° 30' N, 22° 30' E) (563, 73577), 10511	0.0 0.316	0.026	17 82	20639	6783	36771	37	30:00	06:32	30:00	3.6e-08	2.9e-06	1.0e-07	2.7e-03
	0.5 0.447	0.024	23 129	20267	9157	–	18	30:00	09:01	–	4.1e-09	4.2e-06	1.0e-07	–

Table 4: Square-root sparse group Lasso model on climate data sets with CV over (34) and (35). “–” denotes that the method is not applicable for the instance.

**Gene data** The first data we use is the *colon cancer* data (Alon et al., 1999)<sup>1</sup>. This data has been used in (Li et al., 2017) for the adaptive sparse group Lasso model. It includes

1. It is available at <http://www.weizmann.ac.il/mcb/UriAlon/download/downloadable-data>.

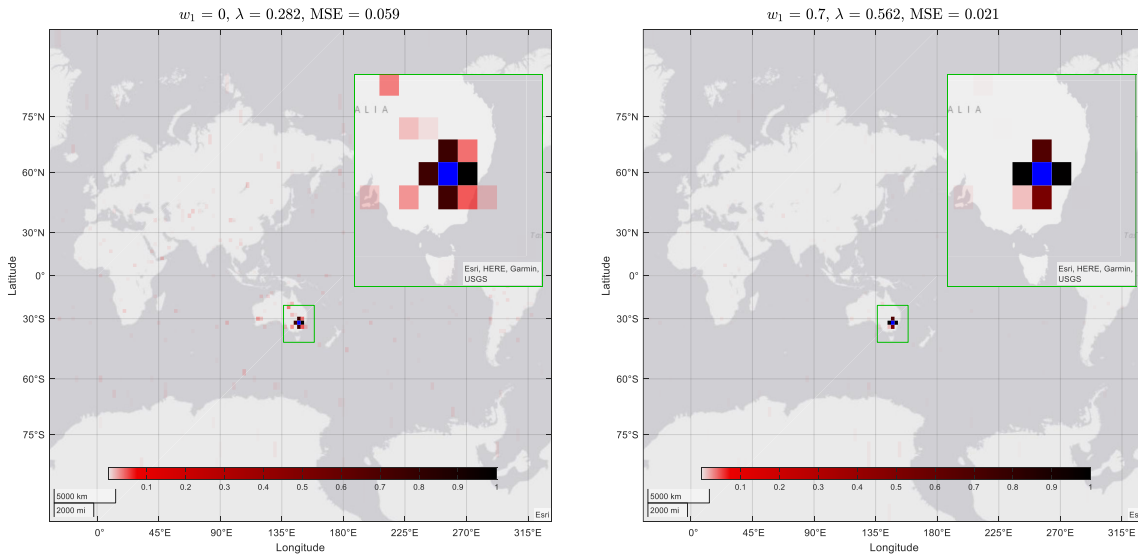


Figure 1: Active groups to predict *Air Temperature* in a neighborhood of Dubbo (in blue). Left:  $(w_1, w_2, \lambda) = (0, 1, 0.282)$ . Right:  $(w_1, w_2, \lambda) = (0.7, 0.3, 0.562)$ . At the  $l$ th location, the value of  $\|\beta_{G_l}\|/\max_{1 \leq l \leq g} \|\beta_{G_l}\|$  is displayed.

62 tissues (40 colon tumor tissues and 22 normal tissues), and each tissue  $X_i$  includes the expression profiles of 2000 genes. The response variable is assigned according to the label of the tissue:  $Y_i = 1$  if  $X_i$  is a colon tumor tissue and  $Y_i = -1$  otherwise.

In addition, we use the lung cancer data (Monti et al., 2003)<sup>2</sup>, which has also been used in (Li et al., 2017). This data includes 197 tissues, and each tissue  $X_i$  includes the expression profiles of 1000 genes. Moreover, 197 tissues are divided into four classes: 17 normal, 139 lung adenocarcinoma, 21 squamous cell carcinomas, and 20 carcinoids. Corresponding to the latter three classes, we construct three data sets by letting the binary response variables be labels. Specifically, *lung adenocarcinoma* data set has response variable  $Y_i = 1$  if  $X_i$  is a lung adenocarcinoma tissue and  $Y_i = -1$  otherwise. Similarly, we construct the *squamous cell carcinomas* and *carcinoids* data sets.

Another data tested is the acute leukemia data (Golub et al., 1999)<sup>3</sup>. This data includes 72 samples, and each sample  $X_i$  includes the expression profiles of 10713 (repeated) genes. Each sample belongs to one of the three classes: BALL, TALL, or AML. The data sets *BALL*, *TALL*, and *AML* are constructed in the same way as in the lung cancer data above.

In total, we have 7 data sets with binary response variables. For the first 4 data sets, we used the weighted gene co-expression networks (Langfelder and Horvath, 2008) to cluster gene expressions in different groups (modules), and an R package is available for this clustering. The group structures of the last 3 data sets, generated by a similar method, are provided in (Li et al., 2018a). More details about the group structures can be found in Appendix C.

2. It is available at <http://portals.broadinstitute.org/cgi-bin/cancer/publications/view/87>.

3. It is available at <https://github.com/wangyanyanwangyanyan/wangyanyan>.

Table 5 presents the results on real gene data sets, where the parameters  $w_1$ ,  $w_2$ , and  $\lambda$  are selected by CV over (35). For an approximate solution  $\beta$ , the classification accuracy is computed by  $(1 - \text{nnz}(\text{sign}(X_{\text{test}}\beta) - Y_{\text{test}})/N_{\text{test}}) \cdot 100\%$ . For problems with  $w_1 = 0$  where S-TISP is applicable, we also include S-TISP in the table. The low MSE and high classification accuracy in Table 5 suggest that the square-root sparse group Lasso model is effective in selecting (groups of) genes related to certain types of tissues and reliable in predicting the class of a tissue; see Appendix C for more details. Moreover, the selected  $w_1 \notin \{0, 1\}$  by CV (35) in 4 out of 7 data sets indicates that the sparse group Lasso regularizer can improve the performances of classification and gene selection, compared with the Lasso or group Lasso regularizer. For the *BALL* and *TALL* data sets, pADMM and dADMM return overfitting solutions. Besides, one can observe that the running time for different methods is quite similar, since the gene data sets are of small to medium size and they are pre-processed such that highly irrelevant genes were screened out.

problem $(N_{\text{train}}, n), g$	$w_1 \lambda$	MSE accur	iter				time				error			
			PP	pA	dA	ST	PP	pA	dA	ST	PP	pA	dA	ST
<i>colon cancer</i> (42, 2000), 11	0.8 0.631	0.448 90%	9 13	2676	665	—	00	00	00	—	4.9e-08	1.7e-08	9.5e-08	—
<i>lung adenocarcinoma</i> (132, 1000), 8	0.0 0.562	0.156 97%	9 13	717	613	5347	00	00	00	00	5.7e-09	1.4e-08	9.9e-08	1.0e-07
<i>squamous cell carcinomas</i> (131, 1000), 8	0.0 1.259	0.131 97%	10 15	1861	690	2783	00	00	00	00	5.4e-09	3.7e-08	9.6e-08	1.0e-07
<i>carcinoids</i> (131, 1000), 8	0.9 1.000	0.008 100%	9 12	1076	509	—	00	00	00	—	4.9e-09	2.6e-08	9.6e-08	—
<i>BALL</i> (48, 10713), 42	0.0 0.200	0.141 100%	10 19	453	404	1596	00	00	00	02	1.6e-10	*9.9e-08	*4.9e-08	#2.1e-13
<i>TALL</i> (48, 10713), 42	0.9 0.891	0.126 96%	11 25	1400	2342	—	01	02	03	—	3.9e-11	*9.1e-08	*1.0e-07	—
<i>AML</i> (48, 10713), 42	0.9 1.585	0.193 100%	12 37	18393	1755	—	00	29	02	—	2.4e-08	2.1e-08	5.7e-08	—

Table 5: Square-root sparse group Lasso model on gene data sets with CV over (35). “—” denotes that the method is not applicable for the instance. The errors reported are  $\Delta_{\text{kkt}}$ ,  $*\Delta_{\text{pd.gap}}$ , and  $\#\Delta_{\text{var.gap}}$ , given by (26), (27), and (28), respectively.

#### 4.4 Comparison of Efficiency for Solving the Square-root Fused Lasso Problem

In this section, we compare PPDNA, pADMM, and dADMM for solving the square-root fused Lasso problem when the regularizer  $p$  is the fused Lasso regularizer (7). We found that a framework of ADMM was applied in (Jiang et al., 2021) for solving the square-root fused Lasso problem. However, it seems that they applied ADMM in a non-rigorous way as their formulation of the augmented Lagrangian function might not be correct. Except (Jiang et al., 2021), there is currently no solver for solving the square-root fused Lasso problem, to the best of our knowledge. For all tables in this section, we denote PPDNA, pADMM, and dADMM by “PP”, “pA”, and “dA”, respectively.

#### 4.4.1 UCI DATA

Again, we use UCI data sets *housing*, *bodyfat*, *pyrim*, and *triazines* described in Section 4.3.1. We choose  $w_1 = w_2 = 0.5$  and  $\lambda \in \{1, 5, \lambda_{\text{Jia}}\}$ . See Appendix B for the details of  $\lambda_{\text{Jia}}$  given in (Jiang et al., 2021). The numerical results of PPDNA, pADMM, and dADMM are reported in Table 6. Table 6 shows that our PPDNA substantially outperforms both pADMM and dADMM for solving the square-root fused Lasso problem on the UCI data sets. In particular, our PPDNA takes less than 1 minute for all instances; while pADMM fails to return accurate solutions within 30 minutes for more than half of the instances. One can conclude that our algorithm is efficient for solving the square-root fused Lasso problem on the UCI data sets.

#### 4.4.2 REAL DATA

In this section, we test the square-root fused Lasso model on four real data sets used in (Jiang et al., 2021). The *inbred mouse*<sup>4</sup> data includes 60 samples, where each sample includes 22689 genes, and the response variable is the feature measured by stearoyl-coenzyme desaturase 1 with probe set ID given as 1415965\_at. The *rat eye*<sup>5</sup> data includes 120 rats samples, where each sample includes 31098 gene probes, and the response variable is selected with respect to 1389163\_at. The *credit card*<sup>6</sup> data includes 284807 transactions samples in which 492 samples are labeled as frauds, and each sample includes 29 features. The *safe driver*<sup>7</sup> data includes 595212 car insurance observations, where each observation includes 57 features. We refer the readers to (Jiang et al., 2021, Section 4.3) for detailed descriptions of the data.

Again, we choose  $w_1 = w_2 = 0.5$  and  $\lambda \in \{1, 5, \lambda_{\text{Jia}}\}$  with  $\lambda_{\text{Jia}}$  given in (Jiang et al., 2021). The comparisons of PPDNA, pADMM, and dADMM for solving the square-root fused Lasso model on the four real data sets are reported in Table 7. One can observe that our PPDNA significantly outperforms both pADMM and dADMM for all instances. In particular, both pADMM and dADMM fail to solve the problem *safe driver* within 30 minutes.

### 4.5 Simulations with Varying Noise Levels

Here we are interested in how the noise level  $\sigma$  in (1) is associated with the tuning parameter  $\lambda$  in the least-square model (2) and the square-root model (3). In particular, we let  $p$  be the sparse group Lasso regularizer (6). In this experiment, the noise level  $\sigma$  is chosen from the set  $\{10^{-1}, 10^{-0.8}, \dots, 10^1\}$ , the data is simulated from **Example 3** in Section 4.3.1 with  $N = 100, g = 50, n = 150$ , and the parameters  $w_1$  and  $w_2$  are set to be 0.5. We regard the 8-fold CV selected tuning parameters  $\lambda_{(2)}$  and  $\lambda_{(3)}$  as the optimal parameters for model (2) and model (3), respectively. We repeat the experiments 100 times, and we plot  $\lambda$  and MSE against  $\sigma$  in Figure 2.

We can observe from the left panel of Figure 2 that as  $\sigma$  varies from  $10^{-1}$  to  $10^1$ , the curve of  $\lambda_{(3)}$  roughly remains flat with the values of  $\lambda_{(3)}$  staying in the small range  $[10^{-0.5}, 10^{0.5}]$ . In contrast,  $\lambda_{(2)}$  shown in the left panel of Figure 2 varies wildly from  $10^{-1}$

4. It is available at <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE3330>.

5. It is available at <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/geo/query/acc.cgi?acc=GSE5680>.

6. It is available at <https://www.kaggle.com/mlg-ulb/creditcardfraud>.

7. It is available at <https://www.kaggle.com/c/porto-seguro-safe-driver-prediction/data>.

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problem ( $N, n$ )	$\lambda$	nnz  nnzB	iter			time			error		
			PP	pA	dA	PP	pA	dA	PP	pA	dA
<i>housing</i> (253, 77520)	1.000	336 129	19 119	35001	13873	05	25:01	05:48	5.2e-08	8.4e-08	1.0e-07
	5.000	168 28	16 81	42814	30001	03	30:00	11:40	2.6e-08	2.1e-06	5.1e-08
	9.282	141 18	14 53	42015	32501	02	30:00	12:22	4.0e-08	4.7e-07	7.5e-08
<i>bodyfat</i> (126, 116280)	1.000	295 63	24 121	27501	6125	05	15:25	02:05	2.2e-08	9.5e-08	1.0e-07
	5.000	132 12	14 56	45001	27501	02	25:36	08:34	4.3e-09	9.1e-08	6.8e-08
	8.969	79 6	13 41	54052	35001	01	30:00	10:29	2.3e-09	3.8e-07	8.1e-08
<i>pyrim</i> (37, 169911)	1.000	535 69	40 169	67611	116842	08	30:00	30:00	4.3e-07	*8.5e-05	7.8e-01
	5.000	386 14	14 52	67844	20001	02	30:00	05:10	4.5e-08	8.8e-02	3.5e-08
	7.848	669 10	15 69	60001	24828	03	26:31	06:17	6.1e-10	2.6e-08	2.5e-08
<i>triazines</i> (93, 557845)	1.000	2771 165	34 247	8176	15422	43	30:00	30:00	5.8e-08	1.3e-05	3.1e-03
	5.000	1310 57	22 117	8122	15399	22	30:00	30:00	8.9e-08	8.6e-05	1.2e-04
	9.278	196 12	13 37	8053	15716	10	30:00	30:00	1.9e-08	5.7e-04	8.2e-04

Table 6: Square-root fused Lasso model on UCI data sets with  $w_1 = w_2 = 0.5$ . The errors reported are  $\Delta_{\text{kt}}$  and  $*\Delta_{\text{pd.gap}}$ , given by (26) and (27), respectively.

problem ( $N, n$ )	$\lambda$	nnz  nnzB	iter			time			error		
			PP	pA	dA	PP	pA	dA	PP	pA	dA
<i>inbred mouse</i> (30, 22689)	1.000	85 4	11 21	2231	6626	02	05	12	2.9e-08	1.1e-08	8.8e-08
	5.000	1347 1	13 42	2043	779	00	04	01	1.2e-08	5.8e-10	8.6e-08
	6.913	3092 1	13 42	2009	601	00	05	01	2.4e-09	1.1e-09	7.4e-08
<i>rat eye</i> (60, 31098)	1.000	433 10	12 30	1861	2200	01	09	09	1.3e-08	2.2e-08	1.0e-07
	5.000	3303 4	12 40	1549	1305	00	09	05	4.4e-08	3.4e-08	1.0e-07
	7.798	7297 4	12 35	1549	666	00	08	02	2.6e-08	7.7e-08	1.0e-07
<i>credit card</i> (142404, 29)	1.000	27 26	11 24	5485	1343	02	42	21	3.5e-09	7.3e-08	8.1e-08
	5.000	25 24	16 84	15001	5210	05	01:49	01:19	6.1e-08	3.2e-08	6.9e-08
	5.683	25 24	18 96	15001	9953	06	01:52	02:28	3.2e-08	2.7e-08	7.6e-08
<i>safe driver</i> (595212, 57)	1.000	48 35	31 223	35850	14429	01:29	30:00	30:00	2.7e-08	1.9e-05	1.3e-04
	5.000	48 30	23 134	36352	14333	39	30:00	30:00	2.8e-08	5.3e-07	5.4e-05
	6.242	47 28	24 133	35173	14308	37	30:00	30:00	1.9e-08	4.6e-07	1.0e-05

Table 7: Square-root fused Lasso model on real data sets with  $w_1 = w_2 = 0.5$ .

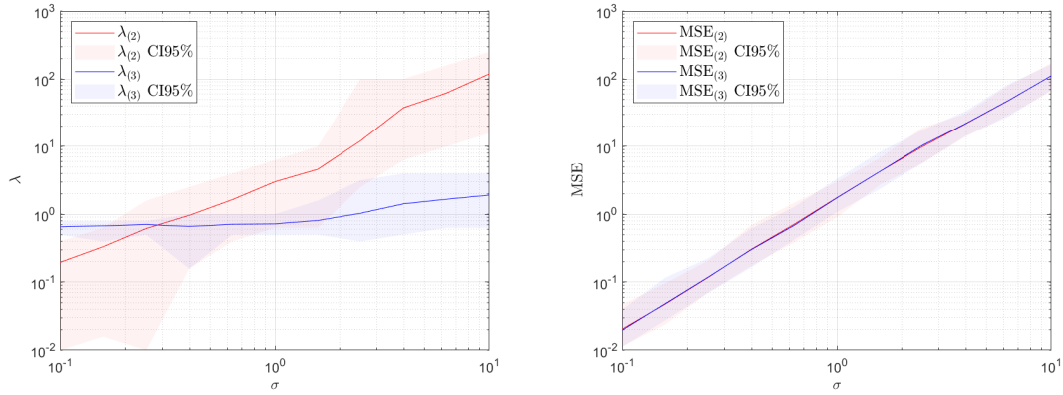


Figure 2: The mean of (left)  $\lambda$  and (right) MSE, and the 95% confidence interval (CI).

to  $10^2$ . This phenomenon verifies numerically the advantage of the square-root model (3) in terms of choosing the tuning parameters compared with the least-square model (2), namely, the parameter  $\lambda$  in the square-root model (3) can be tuned independent of the noise level  $\sigma$ . In addition, it can be observed from the slope of the MSE curves in the right panel of Figure 2 that both the MSE achieved by (2) and that by (3) are approximately quadratic in the noise level  $\sigma$ .

## 5. Conclusion

In this paper, we have given a unified proof to show that any square-root regularized model whose penalty function being the sum of a simple norm and a seminorm can be interpreted as the distributionally robust optimization formulation of the corresponding least-squares problem. For solving a generic square-root regularized model, we have developed a proximal point dual semismooth Newton algorithmic framework to efficiently solve the resulting convex minimization problem whose objective is the sum of two nonsmooth terms corresponding to the square-root loss and the regularizer respectively. We have illustrated that the general framework can be adopted to solve the square-root sparse group Lasso and the square-root fused Lasso models. Our extensive numerical experiments have shown that the proposed algorithm is indeed highly efficient for solving the square-root sparse group Lasso and the square-root fused Lasso models, as compared to popular first order methods based on the ADMM framework.

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## Appendix A. Remark on Proposition 2

Proposition 2 includes a similar result in (Maurer and Pontil, 2012). For simplicity, we show that a simplified form of their results can be derived from Proposition 2. In (Maurer and Pontil, 2012),  $\mathcal{M} := \{M_{(l)}\}_{1 \leq l \leq g}$  denotes a set of symmetric matrices  $M_{(l)} \in \mathbb{S}^n$ , and the operator  $\|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{M}} : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow [0, +\infty]$  is defined by

$$\|\alpha\|_{\mathcal{M}} := \inf_{\alpha_{(1)}, \dots, \alpha_{(g)}} \left\{ \sum_{l=1}^g \|\alpha_{(l)}\| \mid \alpha_{(l)} \in \mathbb{R}^n, \sum_{l=1}^g M_{(l)}\alpha_{(l)} = \alpha \right\} \quad \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n. \quad (36)$$

It was shown in (Maurer and Pontil, 2012) that  $\|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{M}}$  is indeed a norm on the subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^n$  where it is finite, and the dual norm is given by

$$\|\beta\|_{\mathcal{M}^*} := \sup_{1 \leq l \leq g} \{\|M_{(l)}\beta\|\} \quad \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n. \quad (37)$$

We define  $B := (M_{(1)}, \dots, M_{(g)})^T \in \mathbb{R}^{ng \times n}$  and  $Q(\bar{\alpha}) := \sup_{1 \leq l \leq g} \{\|\alpha_{(l)}\|\}$  for any  $\bar{\alpha} = (\alpha_{(1)}, \dots, \alpha_{(g)}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}^n$ .  $Q$  is a norm on  $\mathbb{R}^{ng}$ , and its dual norm is given by

$Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) := \sum_{l=1}^g \|\alpha_{(l)}\| \forall \bar{\alpha} = (\alpha_{(1)}, \dots, \alpha_{(g)}) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \dots \times \mathbb{R}^n$ . We can see from (36) that  $\|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{M}}$  coincides with  $p_*$  in (15), i.e.,  $\|\alpha\|_{\mathcal{M}} = \inf_{\bar{\alpha}} \{Q_*(\bar{\alpha}) \mid B^T \bar{\alpha} = \alpha\} \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . It is indeed a norm on  $\text{Range}(B^T)$  from Proposition 2(a). We can also see from (37) that  $\|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{M}^*}$  coincides with  $p$  in (14), i.e.,  $\|\beta\|_{\mathcal{M}^*} = Q(B\beta) \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ . Therefore, we can derive the result that  $\|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{M}}$  and  $\|\cdot\|_{\mathcal{M}^*}$  are dual to each other directly from Proposition 2.

## Appendix B. Theoretical Parameter $\lambda$

The independence of the tuning parameter  $\lambda$  on the unknown noise level  $\sigma$  is one of the nice statistical properties of the square-root regularized model. In this section, we present various selections of  $\lambda$  which has been studied in literature for the problem (3). The cumulative distribution function of the standard normal distribution  $\mathcal{N}(0, 1)$  is denoted by  $\Phi(x) := \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^x e^{-t^2/2} dt$ . The cumulative distribution function of the  $F$ -distribution with the degrees of freedom  $a$  and  $b$  is denoted by  $\mathcal{F}_{a,b}$ . The quantile function with respect to a cumulative distribution function  $F$  is denoted by  $\mathcal{Q}_F(a) := \inf\{x \in \mathbb{R} \mid a \leq F(x)\}$ .

**Sparse group Lasso regularizer** (6)  $p(\beta) = w\|\beta\|_1 + (1-w) \sum_{l=1}^g \sqrt{|G_l|} \|\beta_{G_l}\| \forall \beta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , where  $w \in [0, 1]$ . We summarize the selections of  $\lambda$  which are independent on  $\sigma$  in (Belloni et al., 2011; Bunea et al., 2013; Stucky and van de Geer, 2017; Blanchet et al., 2019a; Blanchet and Kang, 2017). In the following formulations,  $a$  is chosen to be 0.05. When  $N < 10^4$ , we calculate  $\mathbb{E}[X^T X] \approx \frac{1}{N} X^T X$ ; otherwise, we randomly sample  $10^4$  predictor vectors from  $X$  to form  $\tilde{X}$ , and estimate  $\mathbb{E}[X^T X] \approx \frac{1}{10^4} \tilde{X}^T \tilde{X}$ .

1. When  $w = 1$ ,  $\lambda$  can be selected from  $\Lambda_S := \{\lambda_{\text{Bel}}, \lambda_{\text{StS}}, \lambda_{\text{BIS}}\}$ .
  - (Belloni et al., 2011)  $\lambda_{\text{Bel}} := 1.1\Phi^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{a}{2n}\right)$ .
  - (Stucky and van de Geer, 2017) Denote  $t := \sqrt{\log\left(\frac{4}{a}\right)}$ ,  $\Delta := \sqrt{1 - t\sqrt{\frac{4}{N}}}$ , then  $\lambda_{\text{StS}} := \sqrt{2}\frac{t}{\Delta} + \sqrt{2}\left(2 + \sqrt{\log(n)}\right)$ .
  - (Blanchet et al., 2019a) Estimate  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{E}[X^T X])$  and  $F$  as the cumulative distribution of  $\frac{\pi}{\pi-2} \|Z\|_{\infty}^2$ . Let  $\hat{\eta}_{1-a} := \mathcal{Q}_F(1-a)$ , and  $\lambda_{\text{BIS}} := \sqrt{\hat{\eta}_{1-a}}$ .
2. When  $w = 0$ ,  $\lambda$  can be selected from  $\Lambda_G := \{\lambda_{\text{Bun}}, \lambda_{\text{StG}}, \lambda_{\text{BIG}}\}$ .
  - (Bunea et al., 2013) Denote  $T_{\max} := \max_{1 \leq l \leq g} \{|G_l|\}$ ,  $T_{\min} := \min_{1 \leq l \leq g} \{|G_l|\}$ ,  $\tau_0 := \mathcal{F}_{T_{\min}, N-T_{\min}}^{-1}\left(1 - \frac{a}{g}\right)$  and  $\zeta_{\max} := \max\left\{\frac{1}{N} \|X_{G_l}\|^2 \mid 1 \leq l \leq g\right\}$ . Suppose that  $T_{\min}\tau_0 + N - T_{\max} > 0$ , then  $\lambda_{\text{Bun}} := \sqrt{\frac{\zeta_{\max}\tau_0}{T_{\min}\tau_0 + N - T_{\max}}} \sqrt{N}$ .
  - (Stucky and van de Geer, 2017) Denote  $t := \sqrt{\log\left(\frac{4}{a}\right)}$ ,  $\Delta := \sqrt{1 - t\sqrt{\frac{4}{N}}}$ , then  $\lambda_{\text{StG}} := \sqrt{2}\frac{t}{\Delta} + \sqrt{2}\left(2 + \sqrt{\log(g)}\right)$ .
  - (Blanchet and Kang, 2017) Estimate  $Z \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \mathbb{E}[X^T X])$  and  $F$  as the cumulative distribution of  $\frac{\pi}{\pi-2} (p_*(Z))^2$ . Let  $\hat{\eta}_{1-a} := \mathcal{Q}_F(1-a)$ , and  $\lambda_{\text{BIG}} := \sqrt{\hat{\eta}_{1-a}}$ .

**Fused Lasso regularizer** (7) Following (Jiang et al., 2021), we let  $a = 0.05$ ,  $t = \sqrt{4\log\left(\frac{1}{a}\right)/N + 4\log\left(\frac{1}{a}\right)/N}$  and calculate  $\lambda_{\text{Jia}} = 2.2\sqrt{2\log(n)/(1+t)}$ .

## Appendix C. Gene Data Sets

In this section, we provide more details about the gene data sets used in Section 4.3.3 and their numerical results.

black	blue	brown	green	grey	magenta	pink	purple	red	turquoise	yellow
71	420	367	98	18	63	64	43	87	507	262

Table 8: The number of genes in each module in the colon cancer data.

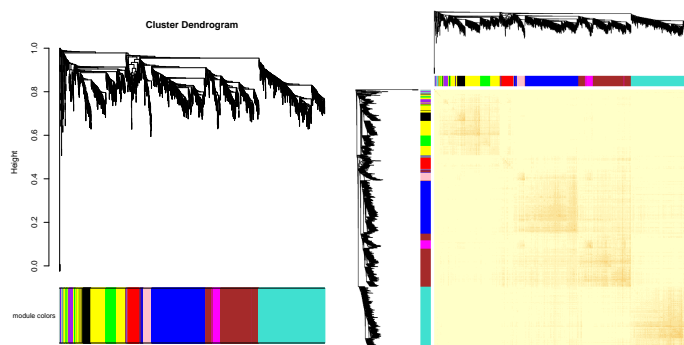


Figure 3: Left: clustering dendrogram of 2000 gene profiles from the colon cancer patients. Right: heatmap of gene-gene connectivity.

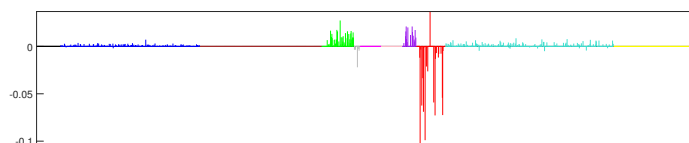


Figure 4: The value of  $\beta$  (coordinates reordered by its groups) in colon cancer data.

**Colon cancer data** This data includes 62 tissues with binary labels, and each tissue includes the expression profiles of 2000 genes. We use the R package WGCNA (Langfelder and Horvath, 2008) with the power parameter 6 to construct the weighted gene co-expression networks, and divide 2000 genes into 11 modules which are marked by 11 colors in Figure 3. The number of genes in each module is given in Table 8. The value of the approximate solution  $\beta$  (coordinates reordered by its groups) with CV (35) selected parameters is presented in Figure 4. One can observe that there are 6 active groups out of total 11 groups, which may imply that the red, green, and purple groups are key groups to classify the colon cancer patients. Moreover, we can see that  $\beta$  is also sparse within each group, which indicates the effectiveness of the square-root sparse group Lasso regularizer.

**Lung cancer data** This data includes 197 tissues, and each tissue includes the expression profiles of 1000 genes. We use the R package WGCNA (Langfelder and Horvath, 2008) with the power parameter 6 to construct the weighted gene co-expression networks,



black	blue	brown	green	grey	red	turquoise	yellow
28	186	112	58	172	38	332	74

Table 9: The number of genes in each module in the lung cancer data.

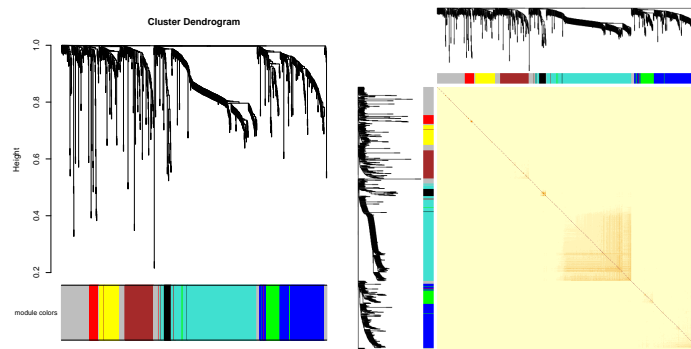


Figure 5: Left: clustering dendrogram of 1000 gene profiles from the lung cancer patients. Right: heatmap of gene-gene connectivity.

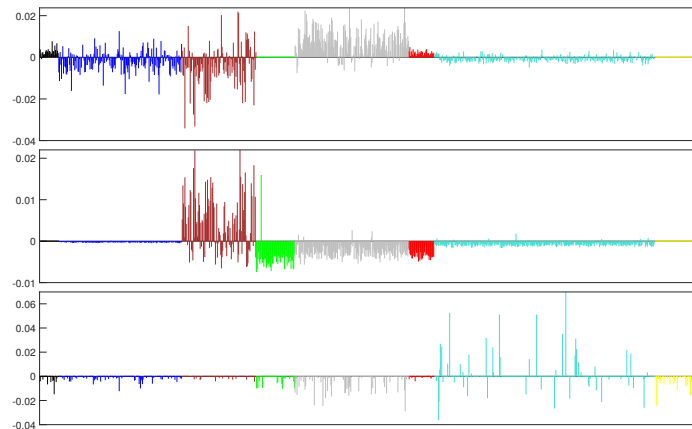


Figure 6: The value of  $\beta$  (coordinates reordered by its groups) in lung cancer data. Top: *lung adenocarcinoma*, middle: *squamous cell carcinomas*, bottom: *carcinoids*.

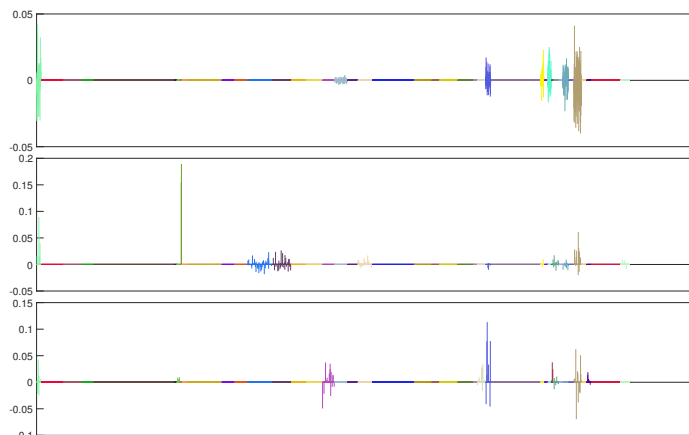


Figure 7: The value of  $\beta$  (coordinates reordered by its groups) for acute leukemia data. Top: *BALL*, middle: *TALL*, bottom: *AML*.

and divide 1000 genes into 8 modules which are marked by 8 colors in Figure 5. The number of genes in each module is given in Table 9. The value of the approximate solution  $\beta$  (coordinates reordered by its groups) with CV (35) selected parameters in *lung adenocarcinoma*, *squamous cell carcinomas*, and *carcinoids* data sets is presented in Figure 6. One can observe that the set of selected groups varies for different data sets. For example, the brown group is one of the key modules to classify lung adenocarcinoma and squamous cell carcinomas tissues, while the turquoise module is preferred in the carcinoids data set. Note that (35) returns  $w_1 = 0$  in the first two data sets and  $w_1 = 0.9$  in the last data set, which results in the sparsity of the last regression vector.

**Acute leukemia data** The raw acute leukemia data set includes 72 samples of 3571 gene expressions. Following (Li et al., 2018a), the grouping strategy with repeated genes was applied to get the data with 10713 gene expressions. The value of the approximate solution  $\beta$  (coordinates reordered by its groups) with CV (35) selected parameters in *BALL*, *TALL*, and *AML* data sets is presented in Figure 7. Similar conclusions could be made as in the lung cancer data above.

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