CS7301: Advanced Topics in Optimization for Machine Learning

Lecture 4.1: Newton, Quasi Newton and Second Order Methods

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Summary of Algorithms so Far

First Order Methods (Unconstrained)

- Gradient Descent
- Proximal Gradient Descent (if non-smooth function is simple i.e. proximal operator of that function can be computed efficiently.
- Accelerated Gradient versions in the unconstrained case, projected case and proximal case.

First Order Methods (Constrained)

- Projected Gradient Descent (whenever the Projection step is easy)
- Conditional Gradient Descent



Outline of this Lecture

- Newton's Algorithm
- Newton vs Quasi Newton Methods
- Barzilai-Borwein GD
- BFGS
- Conjugate Gradient Family
- LBFGS
- Understanding how these Algorithms perform in practice!



Newton Methods

Recall unconstrained convex minimization:

$$\min_{x \in \mathsf{dom}(f)} f(x)$$

Newtons Method:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \nabla^2 f(x_t)^{-1} \nabla f(x_t)$$

- Requires the convex function to be twice differentiable.
- Recall GD was:

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \alpha_t \nabla f(x_t)$$



Newton vs Gradient Descent

 Recall Gradient Descent step could be seen as solving the optimization problem:

$$x_{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{x} f(x_t) + \nabla f(x_t)^{T} (x - x_t) + \frac{1}{2\alpha_t} ||x - x_t||^2$$

• Newton step can be seen as solving:

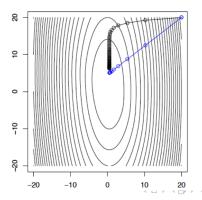
$$x_{t+1} = \operatorname{argmin}_{x} f(x_t) + \nabla f(x_t)^{T} (x - x_t) + \frac{1}{2} (x - x_t)^{T} \nabla^{2} f(x_t) (x - x_t)$$

• No need to step size in Newton.



Newton vs Gradient Descent

For $f(x) = (10x_1^2 + x_2^2)/2 + 5\log(1 + e^{-x_1 - x_2})$, compare gradient descent (black) to Newton's method (blue), where both take steps of roughly same length



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Newtons method for finding the roots - I

Goal:
$$\phi: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$$

$$\phi(x^*) = 0$$

$$x^* = ?$$

Linear Approximation (1st order Taylor approx):

$$\underbrace{\phi(\underline{x} + \underline{\Delta}\underline{x})}_{\phi(\underline{x}^*) = 0} = \phi(x) + \phi'(x)\Delta x + o(|\Delta x|)$$

Therefore,

$$0 \approx \phi(x) + \phi'(x)\Delta x$$
$$x^* - x = \Delta x = -\frac{\phi(x)}{\phi'(x)}$$
$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{\phi(x)}{\phi'(x)}$$

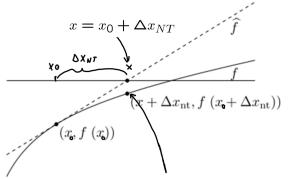




Newtons method for finding the roots - II

Goal: finding a root

$$\hat{f}(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0)$$



In the next step we will linearize here in x



Newtons method for finding the roots - Multivariate **Functions**

This can be generalized to multivariate functions

$$F: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$$

$$0_m = F(x^*) = F(x + \Delta x) = F(x) + \underbrace{\nabla F(x) \Delta x}_{\mathbb{R}^n} + o(|\Delta x|)$$
Therefore

Therefore,

$$0_m = F(x) + \nabla F(x) \Delta x$$

$$\Delta x = -[\nabla F(x)]^{-1}F(x)$$

[Pseudo inverse if there is no inverse]

$$\Delta x = x_{k+1} - x_k, \text{ and thus}$$

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - [\nabla F(x_k)]^{-1} F(x_k)$$

$$\mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{A}} \quad \mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{A}} \quad \mathbf{A}^{\mathbf{A}}$$



Newtons method for finding the roots \Rightarrow Optimization Algorithm

Newton's method for solving the optimization problem:

$$\min_{x} f(x)$$

is the same as Newton's method for finding the root of

$$\nabla f(x) = 0$$

History: The work of Newton (1685) and Raphson (1690) originally focused on finding roots for Polynomials. Simpson (1740) applied this idea to general nonlinear equations and optimization.



Local Convergence

- Under suitable conditions and starting close enough to the global minimum, Newton's method will reach ϵ close to the minimum in $\log\log(1/\epsilon)$ iterations!
- This is faster than anything we have seen so far (even strongly convex and smooth functions!)
- However this holds only if we are close to the minima (hence local convergence). Global convergence from any starting point is unknown for Newton's method.
- Local convergence is characterized by bounded inverse Hessians: There exists μ s.t. $||\nabla^2 f(x)^{-1}|| \leq \frac{1}{\mu}$ and Lipschitz continuous Hessians.

Local Convergence Theorem

Theorem

Let f be convex with a unique global minium x^* . Suppose there is a ball X with center x^* such that:

- **1** There exists a real number μ s.t $||\nabla^2 f(x)^{-1}|| \leq \frac{1}{\mu}$
- 2 There exists a real number B s.t.

$$||\nabla^2 f(x) - \nabla^2 f(y)|| \le B||x - y||$$

Then for $x_t \in X$ and x_{t+1} resulting from the Newton step, we have

$$||x_{t+1} - x^*|| \le \frac{B}{2\mu} ||x_t - x^*||^2$$

Local Convergence Theorem

If we assume that

$$||x_0-x_*||\leq \frac{\mu}{B}$$

and given the assumptions of the local convergence:

• The Newton method yields:

$$||x_T - x^*|| \le \frac{\mu}{B} (\frac{1}{2})^{2^T - 1}$$

- This is called superlinear convergence (convergence rate of $\log \log (1/\epsilon)$ iterations)!
- Intuitive reason: Once the Hessian is bounded, the function is almost quadratic, which ensures Newton's algorithm convergences very fast!

Local vs Global Convergence

- What about global convergence, i.e. if we start from any x_0 ?
- Global convergence of Newton was not known until recently (Sai Praneeth Karimireddy, Sebastian U. Stich, Martin Jaggi, Arxiv 2018).
- They only show linear global convergence (recall we had superlinear local convergence above).
- They also show it under the assumption that the Hessians are stable.



Pros and Cons of Newton's Method

- Pros: Much faster than anything we have seen so far!
- Pros: Even in practice, converges in very few iterations
- Pros: Affine Invariance and Robustness
- Cons: Requires computing the Hessian and inverting or solving a linear system (since we can solve $H_t(\Delta x) = -\nabla f(x_t)$ for the next step). Both are roughly $O(d^3)$!
- In many cases, d (number of features) is large and each step can be prohibitive!



Affine Invariance of Newtons method

Important property Newton's method: affine invariance.

Assume $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is twice differentiable and $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ is nonsingular. Let g(y) := f(Ay).

Newton step for g starting from y is

$$y^{+} = y - \left(\nabla^{2} g(y)\right)^{-1} \nabla g(y).$$

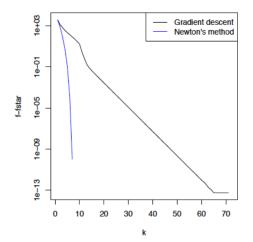
It turns out that the Newton step for f starting from x=Ay is $x^+=Ay^+.$

Therefore progress is independent of problem scaling. By contrast, this is not true of gradient descent.



Newton vs Gradient: Empirically

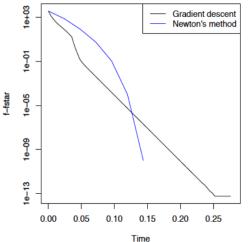
Logistic Regression example with n = 500, p = 100. Compare GD with Newtons method.





Newton vs Gradient: Empirically

Same as earlier, just x-axis being total time instead of number of iterations (since iteration complexity is $O(d^3)$ for Newton and O(d) for GD!





Secant Method

- Lets start with 1 dimension.
- Approximate the double derivative

$$f''(x_t) \approx H_t = \frac{f'(x_t) - f'(x_{t-1})}{x_t - x_{t-1}}$$

- This implies $f'(x_t) f'(x_{t-1}) = H_t(x_t x_{t-1})$
- Secant method: $x_{t+1} = x_t H_t^{-1} f'(x_t)$
- In higher dimensions, the Matrix H_t must satisfy $\nabla f(x_t) \nabla f(x_{t-1}) = H_t(x_t x_{t-1})$
- This is called the secant conditions. When d > 1, this is an under-determined linear system and can infinitely many symmetric solutions.

History of Quasi Newton Methods

- In the mid 1950s, William Davidon was a mathematician/physicist at Argonne National Lab
- He was using coordinate descent on an optimization problem and his computer kept crashing before finishing
- He figured out a way to accelerate the computation, leading to the first quasi-Newton method (soon Fletcher and Powell followed up on his work)
- Although Davidon's contribution was a major breakthrough in optimization, his original paper was rejected (for dubious notation and no convergence analysis)
- In 1991, after more than 30 years, his paper was published in the first issue of the SIAM Journal on Optimization
- In addition to his remarkable work in optimization, Davidon was a peace activist (see the book "The Burglary")

History of Quasi Newton Methods

- Davidon's original paper:
- William C Davidon, Variable Metric Method for Minimization, Technical Report, ANL, 1959
- Davidon's 1991 publication:
- William C Davidon, Variable Metric Method for Minimization, SIAM Journal of Optimization, 1(1), 1-17, 1991 (This is one of the best journals on optimization).



Quasi newton Template

Let $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $B_0 \succ 0$. For $k = 1, 2, \dots$, repeat:

- Define s_{k-1} as the descent step.
- Solve $B_{k-1}s_{k-1} = -\nabla f(x_{k-1})$
- Update $x_k = x_{k-1} + \alpha_k s_{k-1}$
- Compute B_k from B_{k-1}

Different Quasi Newton methods implement step three differently. Also it makes sense to update B_k^{-1} directly from B_{k-1}^{-1} .

Also, a reasonable requirement for B_k is the secant method discussed earlier: $\nabla f(x_k) = \nabla f(x_{k-1}) + B_k s_{k-1}$.

Additionally, we want a) B_k to be symmetric, b) B_k to be close to B_{k-1} and c) $B_{k-1} \succ 0 \Rightarrow B_k \succ 0$.



Symmetric Rank-One <u>Update</u>

Easiest choice is a rank one update of the kind:

$$B_k = B_{k-1} + \mathsf{auu}^T$$

- Denote $y_{k-1} = \nabla f(x_k) \nabla f(x_{k-1})$.
- The secant condition is $B_k s_{k-1} = y_{k-1}$ and this implies:

$$a(u^T s_{k-1})u = y_{k-1} - B_{k-1} s_{k-1}$$

• Define $u = y_{k-1} - B_{k-1} s_{k-1}$. Then solving for the above, we get: $a = 1/(v_{k-1} - B_{k-1}s_{k-1})^T s_{k-1}$ which leads:

$$B_k = B_{k-1} + \frac{(y_{k-1} - B_{k-1}s_{k-1})^T (y_{k-1} - B_{k-1}s_{k-1})}{(y_{k-1} - B_{k-1}s_{k-1})^T s_{k-1}}$$
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Symmetric Rank-One Update

- This is great! But we still need to solve for s_k : $B_k s_k = -\nabla f(x_k)$. Recall that we obtain $x_k = x_{k-1} + \alpha_k s_{k-1}$
- Fortunately, we can propogate inverses using the Sherman-Morrison formula:

$$(A + uu^T)^{-1} = \frac{A^{-1} - A^{-1}uu^TA^{-1}}{1 + v^TA^{-1}u}$$

- Symmetric Rank One Update is cheap(er) since now it is $O(d^2)$ in compute and memory!
- However, the key shortcomming is it does not preserve the positive definiteness!



Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno (BFGS) update

BFGS update is a rank two update:

$$B_k = B_{k-1} + auu^T + bvv^T$$

- Key idea is to use the Secant rule and then define $u = y_{k-1}$ and $v = B_k s_{k-1}$.
- We then get the BFGS update:

$$B_k = B_{k-1} - \frac{B_{k-1} s_{k-1} s_{k-1}^T B_{k-1}}{s_{k-1}^T B_{k-1} s_{k-1}} + \frac{y_{k-1} y_{k-1}^T}{y_{k-1}^T s_{k-1}}$$

- Similar to SR1 update, we can propogate the Inverse Matrices and the resulting update is $O(d^2)$ in time and memory!
- BFGS update also preserves the positive definiteness!



Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno (BFGS) update

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Recall BFGS update:

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BFGS Inverse Update:

$$B_{k+1}^{-1} = \big(I - \frac{s_{k-1}y_{k-1}^T}{s_{k-1}^Ty_{k-1}}\big)B_k^{-1}\big(I - \frac{y_{k-1}s_{k-1}^T}{y_{k-1}^Ts_{k-1}}\big) + \frac{s_{k-1}s_{k-1}^T}{y_{k-1}^Ts_{k-1}}$$



Positive Definiteness of BFGS

- If $y_{k-1}^T s_{k-1} > 0$, BFGS updates preserve positive definiteness of B_k
- If *f* is strictly convex, then the above condition holds.
- Intuition of the Positive Definiteness. Use the inverse formula and compute $v^T B_{k+1}^{-1} v$ and show that it is non-negative if $B_k > 0$.
- From the inverse update formula:

$$v^{T}B_{k+1}^{-1}v = \left(v - \frac{s_{k-1}^{T}v}{s_{k-1}^{T}y_{k-1}}y_{k-1}\right)^{T}B_{k}^{-1}\left(v - \frac{s_{k-1}^{T}v}{s_{k-1}^{T}y_{k-1}}y_{k-1}\right) + \frac{s_{k-1}^{T}v}{y_{k-1}^{T}s_{k-1}}$$

• Easy to now see that B_{k+1} is positive definite if B_k is positive definite!



Davidon-Fletcher-Powell (DFP) update

• We have the rank two update:

$$B_k = B_{k-1} + auu^T + bvv^T$$

- Recall in BFGS, we set: $u = y_{k-1}$ and $v = B_k s_{k-1}$.
- We can optionally also set $u = s_{k-1}$ and $v = B_k y_{k-1}$. We get an update analogous to BFGS but with s_{k-1} and y_{k-1} exchanged!

$$B_k = B_{k-1} - \frac{B_{k-1}y_{k-1}y_{k-1}^T B_{k-1}}{y_{k-1}^T B_{k-1}y_{k-1}} + \frac{s_{k-1}s_{k-1}^T}{s_{k-1}^T y_{k-1}}$$

- DFP update also preserves the positive definiteness!
- In practice, BFGS often outperforms DFP!



Convergence of BFGS

• Global Convergence: If f is strongly convex, BFGS with backtracking line search convergences from any x_0



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- Global Convergence: If f is strongly convex, BFGS with backtracking line search convergences from any x₀
- Superlinear local convergence: Under similar assumptions to the Newton's method, BFGS convergences locally at a superlinear rate!
- Empirically BFGS vs Newton: BFGS converges to the same error rate in only a constant number of iterations more than Newton, while being O(n) faster in each iteration! numerical stability, a Square root BFGS update is often used where H_k is factored as $H_k = L_k L_k^T$. The complexity is the same, but in certain cases this can be numerically more stable.



 The BFGS update can be seen as solving the following optimization problem:

minimize
$$tr(B_k^{-1}X) - \log \det(B_k^{-1}X) - n$$
 (1)

subject to
$$Xs_{k-1} = y_{k-1}$$
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- BFGS update is a least change secant update!
- This can be seen from the KKT conditions of optimality!

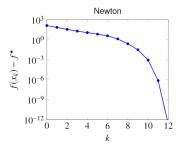


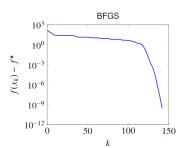
BFGS vs Newton: Empirically

Example

minimize
$$c^T x - \sum_{i=1}^m \log(b_i - a_i^T x)$$

$$n = 100, m = 500$$





- cost per Newton iteration: $O(n^3)$ plus computing $\nabla^2 f(x)$
- cost per BFGS iteration: $O(n^2)$

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- This makes the cost per iteration of O(dl) and storage also as O(dl) instead of $O(d^2)$.



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- LBFGS is an approximation to BFGS to make the algorithm linear!
- Next: Can we achieve Newton like behaviour with Gradient Descent like algorithms?



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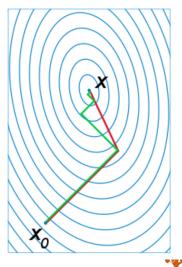
Conjugate Gradient Descent for Quadratic Functions

A comparison of

- * gradient descent with optimal step size (in green) and
- * conjugate vector (in red)

for minimizing a quadratic function.

Conjugate gradient converges in at most n steps (here n=2).



• Conjugate Gradient Framework:



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Polak–Ribière:

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• Hestenes–Stiefel:

$$\beta_k = \frac{\nabla f(x_k)^T (\nabla f(x_k) - \nabla f(x_{k-1}))}{d_k^T (\nabla f(x_k) - \nabla f(x_{k-1}))}$$



Conjugate Gradient and Quasi Newton

• Hestenes–Stiefel conjugate gradient update is equivalent to LBFGS with m = 1!



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Conjugate Gradient and Quasi Newton

- Hestenes-Stiefel conjugate gradient update is equivalent to LBFGS with m=1!
- Moreover, similar to Newton and BFGS, one can also show superlinear local convergence and global convergence results for CG!
- Advantage of CG is that the complexity is exactly identical to Gradient Descent and yet it has some of the properties of Quasi Newton algorithms!



$$f(x) \approx f(x_t) + \nabla f(x_t)^T (x - x_t) + \frac{1}{2} (x - x_t)^T \nabla^2 f(x_t) (x - x_t)$$



• Recall the quadratic expansion:

$$f(x) \approx f(x_t) + \nabla f(x_t)^T (x - x_t) + \frac{1}{2} (x - x_t)^T \nabla^2 f(x_t) (x - x_t)$$

• Compute x_{t+1} by optimizing the quadratic function above using the (linear) conjugate gradient!



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- This is the directional derivative of $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}$ in the direction of v! and can be computed numerically!



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- Typically used with non-monotone line search as convergence safeguard against non-quadratic problems (we won't cover this in class).



Recall Gradient Descent:

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- BB Gradient Descent: Choose $\alpha_t \nabla f(x_t)$ such that it approximates $H_t^{-1} \nabla f(x_t)$



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Solve this using least squares!



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- Non Monotonic line search required for convergence analysis DALLAS

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- BFGS improves it to $O(d^2)$ which is further improved to O(d) by LBFGS!
- CG and BB are variants of Gradient Descent but try to mimic Newton's methods and in practice are much faster than simple GD while maintaining the simplicity!

Next Few Lectures

- Conditional Gradient Descent (Frank Wolfe) for Constrained Optimization
- Coordinate Descent
- Stochastic Gradient Descent and Family
- Duality (Legrange Duality and Fenchel Duality)
- After Spring Break, we will start Discrete (Submodular) Optimization.

