## Newton's and Quasi-Newton Methods

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- Introduction
- 2 Newton's method
- Convergence analysis
- Quasi-Newton methods

Convergence analysis

# 1-dimensional case: Newton-Raphson method

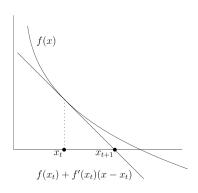
Objective: Find zero of differentiable  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ .

Strategy: Solve

$$f(x_k)+f'(x_k)(x-x_k)=0.$$

Method: Gives

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}$$



# The Babylonian method

- ⋄ compute square root of  $R \in \mathbb{R}_+$
- $\diamond \text{ find zero of } f(x) = x^2 R$
- use Newton-Raphson:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)} = x_k - \frac{x_k^2 - R}{2x_k} = \frac{1}{2} \left( x_k + \frac{R}{x_k} \right)$$

 $\diamond$  Starting from  $x_0 > 0$  we have

$$x_{k+1} = \frac{1}{2} \left( x_k + \frac{R}{x_k} \right) \ge \frac{x_k}{2}.$$

⋄ Starting from  $x_0 = R \ge 1$ , it takes  $\mathcal{O}(\log R)$  steps to get to  $x_k - \sqrt{R} < \frac{1}{2}$ .

# The Babylonian method - Takeoff

Note that

$$x_{k+1} - \sqrt{R} = \frac{1}{2} \left( x_k + \frac{R}{x_k} \right) - \sqrt{R} = \frac{x_k}{2} + \frac{R}{2x_k} - \sqrt{R} = \frac{1}{2x_k} \left( x_k - \sqrt{R} \right)^2$$

For simplicity  $R \ge 1/4$ , then  $x_k \ge \sqrt{R} \ge 1/2$ . Hence

$$x_{k+1} - \sqrt{R} = \frac{1}{2x_k} \left( x_k - \sqrt{R} \right)^2 \le \left( x_k - \sqrt{R} \right)^2$$

If  $x_0 - \sqrt{R} < \frac{1}{2}$  (ensured after  $\mathcal{O}(\log R)$  steps).

$$x_k - \sqrt{R} \le \left(x_0 - \sqrt{R}\right)^{2^k} \le \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2^k}$$

To achieve  $x_k - \sqrt{R} < \epsilon$  we only need  $k = \log \log(\epsilon^{-1})$  steps!

# The Babylonian method - Example

R = 1000, in double arithmetic

- ⋄ 7 steps to get to  $x_7 \sqrt{1000} < 1/2$
- $\diamond$  3 steps to get to  $\sqrt{1000}$  up to machine precision
- ♦ First phase: ≈ one more correct digit per iteration
- $\diamond$  Second phase:  $\approx$  double the number of correct digits per iteration

In practice:  $\log \log x \le 5$ .

# Newton's method for optimization

Goal: Find global minimum  $x^*$  of convex, differentiable function f. Strategy: Search for zero of derivative.

1-dimensional case: Apply Newton-Raphson method to f':

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f'(x_k)}{f''(x_k)} = x_k - f''(x_k)^{-1}f(x_k)$$

(requires twice differentiable and f'' > 0)

d-dimensional case: Newtons methods for minimizing convex

$$f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$$
:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \nabla^2 f(x_k) \nabla f(x_k)$$

# Newton's method as adaptive gradient descent

General update scheme:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - H(x_k) \nabla f(x_k)$$

for some matrix  $H(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ .

- $\diamond$  Newton's method:  $H = \nabla^2 f(x_k)^{-1}$ .
- $\diamond$  Gradient descent:  $H = \alpha \operatorname{Id}$

Newton's methods **adapts** to the local geometry of f at  $x_k \rightarrow no$  need for choosing a stepsize.

# Convergence in one step on quadratic functions

A quadratic function

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T M x + q^T x + c$$

is called *nondegenerate* if  $M \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  is invertible.

- $\diamond x^* := M^{-1}q$  is the unique solution of  $\nabla f(x) = 0$
- $\diamond x^*$  is the unique global minimum if f is convex

#### Lemma

On nondegenerate quadratic functions with arbitrary starting point  $x_0$ , Newtons method yields  $x_1 = x^*$ 

### Proof.

We have  $\nabla f(x) = Mx - q$  and  $\nabla^2 f(x) = M$ . Therefore

$$x_1 = x_0 - \nabla^2 f(x_0) \nabla f(x_0) = x_0 - M^{-1} (Mx_0 - q) = M^{-1} q = x^*.$$

### Affine Invariance

Newton's method is affine invariant (invariant under any invertible affine transformation): Denote the Newton step for h by

$$N_h(x) := x - \nabla^2 h^{-1} \nabla h(x).$$

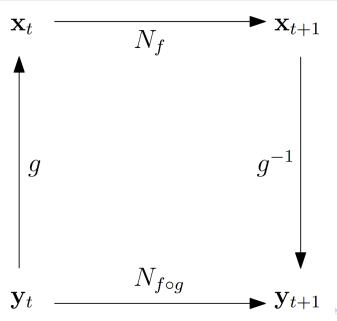
#### Lemma

Let  $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  be twice differentiable,  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  an invertible matrix and  $b \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

$$g(x) = Ax + b.$$

Then

$$N_{f \circ g} = g^{-1} \circ N_f \circ g$$



# Minimizing the second-order Taylor approximation

Alternative interpretation of Newton's method: Minimize (local) quadratic model of f.

#### Lemma

Let f be conve, twice differentiable and  $\nabla^2 f(x) \succ 0$ . Then  $x_{k+1}$  resulting from **Newton's step** satisfies

$$x_{k+1} = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(x_k) + \langle \nabla f(x_k), x - x_k \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \langle x - x_k, \nabla^2 f(x_k)(x - x_k) \rangle$$

# Local Convergence

We will prove:

Under suitable conditions on f and close to the minimum Newton's method approximates solution up to an error  $\epsilon$  in  $\log \log (1/\epsilon)$  iterations.

- much faster than anything so far...
- only locally

We call this a local convergence result.

Global convergence statements are more difficult to obtain (some only recently).

## Theorem + Technical conditions

#### **Theorem**

Let f be convex with unique global minimum  $x^*$ , and X a ball around  $x^*$  s.t.

(i) Bounded inverse Hessians: There exists  $\mu > 0$ 

$$\|\nabla^2 f(x)^{-1}\| \le \frac{1}{\mu}, \quad \forall x \in X$$

(ii) Lipschitz continuous Hessians: There exists B > 0

$$\|\nabla^2 f(x) - \nabla^2 f(y)\| \le B\|x - y\|, \quad \forall x, y \in X$$

Then, for  $x_{k+1} = N_f(x_k)$  we have

$$||x_{k+1} - x^*|| \le \frac{B}{2u} ||x_k - x^*||^2$$

# Super-exponential speed

### Corollary

In the setting of previous theorem, if

$$||x_k - x^*|| \le \frac{\mu}{B},$$

then

$$||x_k - x^*|| \le \frac{\mu}{B} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2^k - 1}$$

Close to the global minimum, we will reach distance to the minumum less than  $\epsilon$  in at most  $\log\log(1/\epsilon)$  steps. As for the last phase of Babylonian method.

# Super-exponential speed - intuition

- Almost constant Hessians close to optimality...
- ⋄ so f behaves almost like a quadratic
- on which Newton's converge in one step

#### Lemma

Ιf

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

the Hessians in Newton's method satisfy the relative error bound

$$\frac{\|\nabla^2 f(x_k) - \nabla^2 f(x^*)\|}{\|\nabla^2 f(x^*)\|} \le \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{2^k - 1}.$$

# Proof of convergence theorem

We abbreviate 
$$H = \nabla^2 f(x_k)$$
,  $x = x_k$ ,  $x^+ = x_{k+1}$   
 $x^+ - x^* = x - x^* - H^{-1} \nabla f(x)$   
 $= x - x^* + H^{-1} (\nabla f(x^*) - \nabla f(x))$   
 $= x - x^* + H^{-1} \int_0^1 H(x + t(x^* - x))(x^* - x) dt$ ,

where we used the fundamental theorem of calculus

$$\int_a^b h'(t) \, \mathrm{d}t$$

with

$$h(t) = \nabla f(x + t(x^* - x))$$
  
$$h'(t) = \nabla^2 f(x + t(x^* - x))(x^* - x)$$

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# Proof of convergence theorem II

So far

$$x^{+} - x^{*} = x - x^{*} + H^{-1} \int_{0}^{1} H(x + t(x^{*} - x))(x^{*} - x) dt$$

With

$$x - x^* = H(x)^{-1} \int_0^1 -H(x)(x^* - x)$$

we get

$$x^{+} - x^{*} = H^{-1} \int_{0}^{1} (H(x + t(x^{*} - x)) - H(x))(x^{*} - x) dt.$$

Using norms

$$||x^+ - x^*|| \le ||H^{-1}|| \left\| \int_0^1 H(x + t(x^* - x)) - H(x)(x^* - x) dt \right\|$$

# Proof of convergence theorem III

$$||x^{+} - x^{*}|| = ||H^{-1}|| \left\| \int_{0}^{1} (H(x + t(x^{*} - x)) - H(x))(x^{*} - x) dt \right\|$$

$$\leq ||H^{-1}|| ||x^{*} - x|| \int_{0}^{1} ||(H(x + t(x^{*} - x)) - H(x))|| dt$$

Use **bounded inverse Hessians** and **Lipschitz continuity** of the Hessian to conclude

$$||x^{+} - x^{*}|| \le \frac{1}{\mu} ||x^{*} - x|| \int_{0}^{1} B||t(x^{*} - x)|| dt$$
$$= \frac{B}{\mu} ||x^{*} - x||^{2} \int_{0}^{1} t dt = \frac{B}{2\mu} ||x - x^{*}||^{2}.$$

### Downside of Newton's method

### Computational bottleneck in every step:

- compute Hessian
- $\diamond$  invert Hessian or solve  $\nabla^2 f(x_k) \Delta x = -\nabla f(x_k)$

Matrix has size  $d \times d$ , taking  $\mathcal{O}(d^3)$  to invert. In many applications the dimension d is large (too large to even store Hessian).

When training a ML model d is the number or parameters of our ML model (number of features for linear model).

### The secant method

Another iterative method for finding zeros in 1-d. Recall Newton-Raphson:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{f(x_k)}{f'(x_k)}$$

Convergence analysis

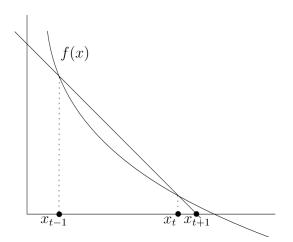
Use finite difference approximation of  $f'(x_k)$ :

$$f'(x_k) \approx \frac{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})}{x_k - x_{k-1}}.$$

We obtain the secant method:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - f(x_k) \frac{x_k - x_{k-1}}{f(x_k) - f(x_{k-1})}.$$

## The secant method II



Constructs the line through  $(x_{k-1}, f(x_{k-1}))$  and  $(x_k, f(x_k))$ 

## The secant method III

- is a derivative-free version of the Newton-Raphson method.
- $\diamond$  For optimization: Apply secant method to f' to optimize f:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - f'(x_k) \frac{x_k - x_{k-1}}{f'(x_k) - f'(x_{k-1})}.$$

vields a second-derivative free version of Newton's method.

What abouthigher dimensions? Can't divide vectors.

## The secant method III

- ♦ is a *derivative-free* version of the Newton-Raphson method.
- $\diamond$  For optimization: Apply secant method to f' to optimize f:

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### The secant condition

In 1-d:

$$H_{k} := \frac{f'(x_{k}) - f'(x_{k-1})}{x_{k} - x_{k-1}} \approx f''(x_{k})$$
  
 
$$\Leftrightarrow f'(x_{k}) - f'(x_{k-1}) = H_{k}(x_{k} - x_{k-1}),$$

the secant condition.

- $\diamond$  Newton's method:  $x_{k+1} = x_k f''(x_k)^{-1} f'(x_k)$
- $\diamond$  Secant method:  $x_{k+1} = x_k H_k^{-1} f'(x_k)$

# Quasi-Newton methods

$$\nabla f(x_k) - \nabla f(x_{k-1}) = H_k(x_k - x_{k-1}) \approx \nabla^2 f(x_k)(x_k - x_{k-1})$$

We therefore hope that  $H_k \approx \nabla^2 f(x_k)$ .

Secant: 
$$x_{k+1} = x_k = H_k^{-1} \nabla f(x_k)$$

- $\diamond d = 1$ : unique number  $H_k$  satisfying the secant condition
- ♦ d > 0: secant condition  $\nabla f(x_k) \nabla f(x_{k-1}) = H_k(x_k x_{k-1})$  has infinitely many symmetric solutions

Any scheme of choosing in each step of the secant method a symmetric  $H_k$  that satisfies the secant condition defines a Quasi-Newton method.

# Quasi-Newton methods II

- Newton's method is a Quasi-Newton method if and only if f is a nondegenerate quadratic function.
- I Hence, Quasi-Newton methods do not generalize Newton's method but form a family of related algorithms.
- The first Quasi-Newton method by William C. Davidon in 1956;
- But the paper got rejected for lacking a convergence analysis,
- was finally officially published in 1991, with a foreword giving the historical context
- methods of choice in a number of relevant machine learning applications

# Developing a Quasi-Newton method

- $\diamond$  We want to avoid matrix inversion  $\Rightarrow$  directly deal with the inverse  $H_{\nu}^{-1}$
- $\diamond$  Given: iterates  $x_{k-1}, x_k$  and matrix  $H_{k-1}^{-1}$
- $\diamond$  Seeking: next matrix  $H_k^{-1}$  needed in next Quasi-Newton step

$$x_{k+1} = x_k = H_k^{-1} \nabla f(x_k)$$

- $\diamond$  How to choose  $H_k^{-1}$ ?
- ♦ Newton's method:  $\nabla^2 f(x_k)$  fluctuates only very little in the region of very fast convergence.
- $\diamond$  Makes sense to have  $H_k \approx H_{k-1}$  or  $H_k^{-1} \approx H_{k-1}^{-1}$

# Greenstadt's family of Quasi-Newton methods

Greenstadt [Gre70]: Update

$$H_k^{-1} = H_{k-1}^{-1} + E_k,$$

with  $E_k$  an error matrix.

⋄ Try to minimize error subject to H<sub>k</sub> satisfying the secant condition!

Simple error measure: Frobenius norm

$$||E||_F^2 := \sum_{i=1}^d \sum_{j=1}^d E_{ij}^2$$

### BFGS method

- special version of Greenstadt
- is named after Broyden, Fletcher, Goldfarb and Shanno who all came up with it independently around 1970. Greenstadt's name is mostly forgotten.
- $\diamond$  Newton's method needs to compute and invert Hessians  $\to$  cost of  $\mathcal{O}(d^3)$  per iteration
- any method in Greenstadt's family avoids computation of Hessian. Only gradients are needed.
- $\diamond$  In the BFGS method, the cost per iteration drops to  $\mathcal{O}(d^2)$ .
- $\diamond$  even this can be prohibitive  $\rightarrow$  limited memory BFGS
- $\diamond$  uses observation that we do not need  $H_k^{-1}$ , only  $H_k^{-1} \nabla f(x_k)$