spectives GD, SG, and Beyond Stochastic Quasi-Newton Self-Correction Algorithm Summary

Second-Order Methods for Stochastic Optimization

Frank E. Curtis, Lehigh University

involving joint work with

Léon Bottou, Facebook AI Research
Jorge Nocedal, Northwestern University
"Optimization Methods for Large-Scale Machine Learning"
http://arxiv.org/abs/1606.04838

Columbia University, Department of IEOR

16 October 2017







erspectives GD, SG, and Beyond Stochastic Quasi-Newton Self-Correction Algorithm Summar

Outline

Perspectives on Nonconvex Optimization

GD, SG, and Beyond

Stochastic Quasi-Newton

Self-Correcting Properties of BFGS

Proposed Algorithm: SC-BFGS

Summary

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Problem statement

Consider the problem to find $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ to minimize f subject to being in $\mathcal{W} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$:

$$\min_{w \in \mathcal{W}} f(w). \tag{P}$$

Interested in algorithms for solving (P) when f might not be convex.

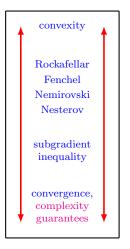
Nonconvex optimization is experiencing a heyday!

- nonlinear least squares
- training deep neural networks
- ▶ subspace clustering
- **.** . . .

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History

Nonlinear optimization has had parallel developments





These worlds are (finally) colliding! Where should emphasis be placed?

First- versus second-order

First-order methods follow a steepest descent methodology:

$$w_{k+1} \leftarrow w_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(w_k)$$

Second-order methods follow Newton's methodology:

$$w_{k+1} \leftarrow w_k - \alpha_k [\nabla^2 f(w_k)]^{-1} \nabla f(w_k),$$

which one should view as minimizing a quadratic model of f at w_k :

$$f(w_k) + \nabla f(w_k)^T (w - w_k) + \frac{1}{2} (w - w_k)^T \nabla^2 f(w_k) (w - w_k)$$

First- versus quasi-second-order

First-order methods follow a steepest descent methodology:

$$w_{k+1} \leftarrow w_k - \alpha_k \nabla f(w_k)$$

Second-order methods follow Newton's methodology:

$$w_{k+1} \leftarrow w_k - \alpha_k \underline{M_k} \nabla f(w_k),$$

which one should view as minimizing a quadratic model of f at w_k :

$$f(w_k) + \nabla f(w_k)^T (w - w_k) + \frac{1}{2} (w - w_k)^T H_k (w - w_k)$$

Might also replace the Hessian with an approximation H_k with inverse M_k

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Why second-order???

Traditional motivation:

► Fast local convergence guarantees

Recent motivation:

► Better complexity properties

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Why second-order???

Traditional motivation:

► Fast local convergence guarantees

Recent motivation:

▶ Better complexity properties

However, I believe these convey the wrong message, especially when problems

- ... involve stochasticity / randomness
- ▶ ...involve nonsmoothness

I believe there are other more appropriate motivations

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Early 2010's

Complexity guarantees for nonconvex optimization algorithms

▶ Iterations or function/derivative evaluations to achieve

$$\|\nabla f(w_k)\|_2 \le \epsilon$$

- ▶ Steepest descent (first-order): $\mathcal{O}(\epsilon^{-2})$
- ▶ Line search (second-order): $\mathcal{O}(\epsilon^{-2})$
- Trust region (second-order): $\mathcal{O}(\epsilon^{-2})$
- Cubic regularization (second-order): $\mathcal{O}(\epsilon^{-3/2})$

Cubic regularization has longer history, but picks up steam in early 2010's:

- ► Griewank (1981)
- ▶ Nesterov & Polyak (2006)
- ▶ Weiser, Deuflhard, Erdmann (2007)
- ► Cartis, Gould, Toint (2011), the ARC method

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Theory vs. practice

Researchers have been gravitating to adopt and build on cubic regularization:

- ► Agarwal, Allen-Zhu, Bullins, Hazan, Ma (2017)
- ► Carmon, Duchi (2017)
- ▶ Kohler, Lucchi (2017)
- ▶ Peng, Roosta-Khorasan, Mahoney (2017)

However, there remains a large gap between theory and practice!

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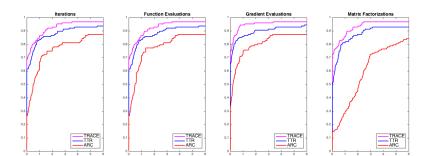
However, there remains a large gap between theory and practice!

Little evidence that cubic regularization methods offer improved performance:

- ▶ Trust region (TR) methods remain the state-of-the-art
- ▶ TR-like methods can achieve the same complexity guarantees

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Trust region methods with optimal complexity



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So, why second-order?

For better complexity properties?

- ▶ Eh, not really...
- ▶ Many are no better than first-order methods in terms of complexity
- ... and ones with better complexity aren't necessarily best in practice (yet)

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For fast local convergence guarantees?

- ► Eh, probably not...
- ▶ Hard to achieve, especially in large-scale, nonsmooth, or stochastic settings

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Then why?

- ▶ Adaptive, natural scaling (gradient descent $\approx 1/L$ while Newton ≈ 1)
- ▶ Mitigate effects of ill-conditioning
- ► Easier to tune parameters(?)
- ▶ Better at avoiding saddle points(?)
- ▶ Better trade-off in parallel and distributed computing settings

(Also, opportunities for NEW algorithms! Not analyzing the same old...)

GD, SG, and Beyond Stochastic Quasi-Newton Self-Correction Algorithm Summary

Message of this talk

People want to solve more complicated, nonconvex problems

- ... involving stochasticity / randomness
- ...involving nonsmoothness

We might waste this spotlight on nonconvex optimization if we do not...

- ▶ Make clear the gap between theory and practice (and close it!)
- ▶ Learn from advances that have already been made
- ... and adapt them appropriately for modern problems

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Stochastic optimization

Over a parameter vector $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and given

 $\ell(\cdot; y) \circ h(w; x)$ (loss w.r.t. "true label" \circ prediction w.r.t. "features"),

consider the unconstrained optimization problem

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} \ f(w), \ \text{ where } \ f(w) = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)}[\ell(h(w;x),y)].$$

Over a parameter vector $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and given

$$\ell(\cdot;y)\circ h(w;x) \ \ (\text{loss w.r.t. "true label"} \circ \text{prediction w.r.t. "features"}),$$

consider the unconstrained optimization problem

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(w), \text{ where } f(w) = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)}[\ell(h(w;x),y)].$$

Given training set $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, approximate problem given by

$$\min_{w \in \mathbb{R}^d} f_n(w), \text{ where } f_n(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(h(w; x_i), y_i).$$

Over a parameter vector $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and given

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For this talk, let's assume

- f is continuously differentiable, bounded below, and potentially nonconvex;
- ▶ ∇f is L-Lipschitz continuous, i.e., $\|\nabla f(w) \nabla f(\overline{w})\|_2 \le L\|w \overline{w}\|_2$.

${f Algorithm~GD}: {f Gradient~Descent}$

1: choose an initial point $w_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and stepsize $\alpha > 0$

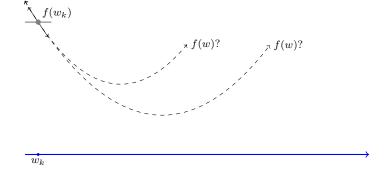
- 2: **for** $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ **do**
- 3: set $w_{k+1} \leftarrow w_k \alpha \nabla f(w_k)$
- 4: end for

$$f(w_k)$$

 w_k

Algorithm GD : Gradient Descent

- 1: choose an initial point $w_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and stepsize $\alpha > 0$
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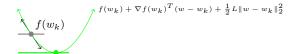
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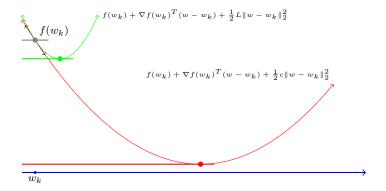
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 w_k

${\bf Algorithm~GD}: {\bf Gradient~Descent}$

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Theorem GD

If
$$\alpha \in (0, 1/L]$$
, then $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \|\nabla f(w_k)\|_2^2 < \infty$, which implies $\{\nabla f(w_k)\} \to 0$.

Proof.

$$f(w_{k+1}) \le f(w_k) + \nabla f(w_k)^T (w_{k+1} - w_k) + \frac{1}{2} L \|w_{k+1} - w_k\|_2^2$$

$$\le f(w_k) - \frac{1}{2} \alpha \|\nabla f(w_k)\|_2^2$$

Theorem GD

If
$$\alpha \in (0, 1/L]$$
, then $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \|\nabla f(w_k)\|_2^2 < \infty$, which implies $\{\nabla f(w_k)\} \to 0$.
If, in addition, f is c-strongly convex, then for all $k \ge 1$:
$$f(w_k) - f_* < (1 - \alpha c)^k (f(x_0) - f_*).$$

Proof.

$$f(w_{k+1}) \le f(w_k) + \nabla f(w_k)^T (w_{k+1} - w_k) + \frac{1}{2} L \|w_{k+1} - w_k\|_2^2$$

$$\le f(w_k) - \frac{1}{2} \alpha \|\nabla f(w_k)\|_2^2$$

$$\le f(w_k) - \alpha c(f(w_k) - f_*).$$

$$\implies f(w_{k+1}) - f_* \le (1 - \alpha c)(f(w_k) - f_*).$$

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GD illustration

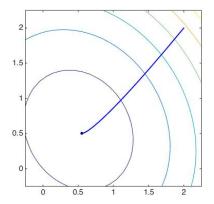


Figure: GD with fixed stepsize

Stochastic gradient descent

Approximate gradient only; e.g., random i_k and $\nabla_w \ell(h(w; x_{i_k}), y_{i_k}) \approx \nabla f(w)$.

Algorithm SG: Stochastic Gradient

- 1: choose an initial point $w_0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$ and stepsizes $\{\alpha_k\} > 0$
- 2: **for** $k \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\}$ **do**
- 3: set $w_{k+1} \leftarrow w_k \alpha_k g_k$, where $g_k \approx \nabla f(w_k)$
- 4: end for

Approximate gradient only; e.g., random i_k and $\nabla_w \ell(h(w; x_{i_k}), y_{i_k}) \approx \nabla f(w)$.

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- 4: end for

Not a descent method!

... but can guarantee eventual descent in expectation (with $\mathbb{E}_k[g_k] = \nabla f(w_k)$):

$$f(w_{k+1}) \leq f(w_k) + \nabla f(w_k)^T (w_{k+1} - w_k) + \frac{1}{2} L \|w_{k+1} - w_k\|_2^2$$

$$= f(w_k) - \alpha_k \nabla f(w_k)^T g_k + \frac{1}{2} \alpha_k^2 L \|g_k\|_2^2$$

$$\implies \mathbb{E}_k[f(w_{k+1})] \leq f(w_k) - \alpha_k \|\nabla f(w_k)\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{2} \alpha_k^2 L \mathbb{E}_k[\|g_k\|_2^2].$$

Markov process: w_{k+1} depends only on w_k and random choice at iteration k.

Theorem SG

If $\mathbb{E}_k[||g_k||_2^2] \le M + ||\nabla f(w_k)||_2^2$, then:

$$\alpha_k = \frac{1}{L} \qquad \Longrightarrow \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^k \|\nabla f(w_j)\|_2^2\right] \stackrel{k \to \infty}{\leq} M$$

$$\alpha_k = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{k}\right) \qquad \Longrightarrow \mathbb{E}\left[\sum_{j=1}^k \alpha_j \|\nabla f(w_j)\|_2^2\right] < \infty.$$

(*Assumed unbiased gradient estimates; see paper for more generality.)

Theorem SG

If $\mathbb{E}_k[||g_k||_2^2] \le M + ||\nabla f(w_k)||_2^2$, then:

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If, in addition, f is c-strongly convex, then:

$$\alpha_k = \frac{1}{L} \qquad \Longrightarrow \mathbb{E}[f(w_k) - f_*] \overset{k \to \infty}{\leq} \frac{(M/c)}{2}$$

$$\alpha_k = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{k}\right) \qquad \Longrightarrow \mathbb{E}[f(w_k) - f_*] = \mathcal{O}\left(\frac{(L/c)(M/c)}{k}\right).$$

(*Assumed unbiased gradient estimates; see paper for more generality.)

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SG illustration

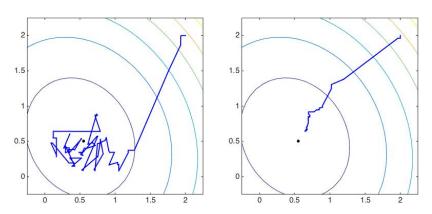


Figure: SG with fixed stepsize (left) vs. diminishing stepsizes (right)

Why SG over GD for large-scale machine learning?

We have seen:

GD:
$$\mathbb{E}[f_n(w_k) - f_{n,*}] = \mathcal{O}(\rho^k)$$
 linear convergence

SG:
$$\mathbb{E}[f_n(w_k) - f_{n,*}] = \mathcal{O}(1/k)$$
 sublinear convergence

So why SG?

Why SG over GD for large-scale machine learning?

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$$\mathbb{E}[f_n(w_k) - f_{n,*}] = \mathcal{O}(1/k)$$
 sublinear convergence

So why SG?

Motivation	Explanation
Intuitive	data "redundancy"
Empirical	SG works well in practice vs. GD
Theoretical	$\mathbb{E}[f_n(w_k) - f_{n,*}] = \mathcal{O}(1/k) \text{ and } \mathbb{E}[f(w_k) - f_*] = \mathcal{O}(1/k)$

Work complexity

Time, not data, as limiting factor; Bottou, Bousquet (2008) and Bottou (2010).

			Cost		Cost for
Convergence rate		per iteration		ϵ -optimality	
GD:	$\mathbb{E}[f_n(w_k) - f_{n,*}] = \mathcal{O}(\rho^k)$	+	$\mathcal{O}(n)$	\Longrightarrow	$n\log(1/\epsilon)$
SG:	$\mathbb{E}[f_n(w_k) - f_{n,*}] = \mathcal{O}(1/k)$	+	$\mathcal{O}(1)$	\Longrightarrow	$1/\epsilon$

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SG:	$\mathbb{E}[f_n(w_k) - f_{n,*}] = \mathcal{O}(1/k)$	+	$\mathcal{O}(1)$	\Longrightarrow	$1/\epsilon$

Considering total (estimation + optimization) error as

$$\mathcal{E} = \mathbb{E}[f(w^n) - f(w^*)] + \mathbb{E}[f(\tilde{w}^n) - f(w^n)] \sim \frac{1}{n} + \epsilon$$

and a time budget \mathcal{T} , one finds:

▶ SG: Process as many samples as possible $(n \sim T)$, leading to

$$\mathcal{E} \sim \frac{1}{\mathcal{T}}.$$

▶ GD: With $n \sim \mathcal{T}/\log(1/\epsilon)$, minimizing \mathcal{E} yields $\epsilon \sim 1/\mathcal{T}$ and

$$\mathcal{E} \sim \frac{1}{\mathcal{T}} + \frac{\log(\mathcal{T})}{\mathcal{T}}.$$

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End of the story?

SG is great! Let's keep proving how great it is!

- ▶ Stability of SG; Hardt, Recht, Singer (2015)
- ▶ SG avoids steep minima; Keskar, Mudigere, Nocedal, Smelyanskiy (2016)
- ▶ ...(many more)

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- ▶ ... (many more)

No, we should want more...

- ▶ SG requires a lot of tuning
- ▶ Sublinear convergence is not satisfactory
- ▶ ... "linearly" convergent method eventually wins
- ▶ ... with higher budget, faster computation, parallel?, distributed?

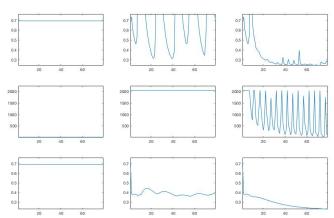
Also, any "gradient"-based method is not scale invariant.

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Stochastic Optimization: No Parameter Tuning

Limited memory stochastic gradient method (extends Barzilai-Borwein):

$$x_{k+1} \leftarrow x_k - \alpha_k g_k$$
 where $\alpha_k > 0$ chosen adaptively



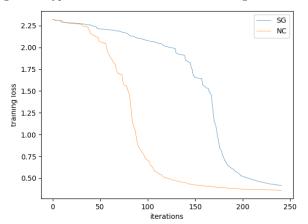
Minimizing logistic loss for binary classification with RCV1 dataset

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Stochastic Optimization: Avoiding Saddle Points / Stagnation

Training a convolutional neural network for classifying digits in ${\tt mnist}$:

Stochastic-gradient-type method versus one that follows negative curvature:



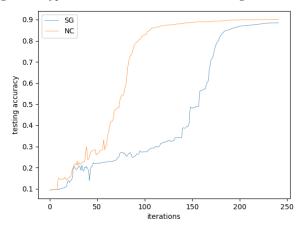
Overcomes slow initial progress by SG-type method...

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Stochastic Optimization: Avoiding Saddle Points / Stagnation

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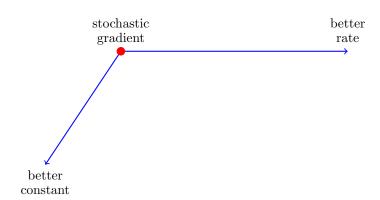
Stochastic-gradient-type method versus one that follows negative curvature:



... while still yielding good behavior in terms of testing accuracy

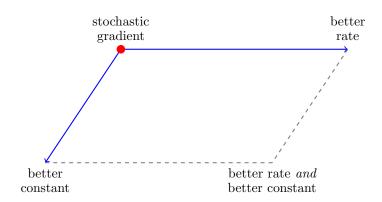
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What can be improved?



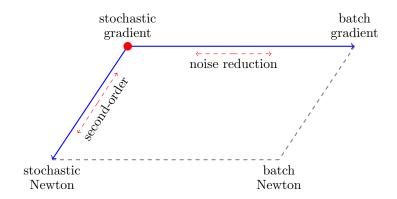
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What can be improved?



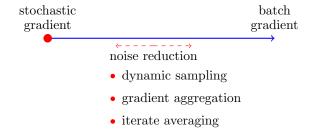
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Two-dimensional schematic of methods



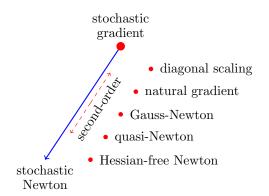
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2D schematic: Noise reduction methods



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2D schematic: Second-order methods



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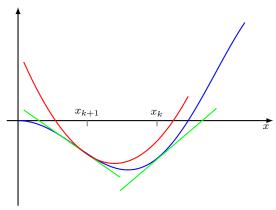
Self-Correcting Properties of BFGS

Proposed Algorithm: SC-BFGS

Summary

Quasi-Newton

Only $\it approximate$ second-order information with gradient displacements:



Secant equation $H_k v_k = s_k$ to match gradient of f at w_k , where

$$s_k := w_{k+1} - w_k$$
 and $v_k := \nabla f(w_{k+1}) - \nabla f(w_k)$

Previous work: BFGS-type methods

Much focus on the secant equation $(H_{k+1} \sim \text{Hessian approximation})$

$$H_{k+1}s_k = y_k \text{ where } \begin{cases} s_k := w_{k+1} - w_k \\ y_k := \nabla f(w_{k+1}) - \nabla f(w_k) \end{cases}$$

and an appropriate replacement for the gradient displacement:

$$y_k \leftarrow \underbrace{\nabla f(w_{k+1}, \xi_k) - \nabla f(w_k, \xi_k)}_{\text{use same seed}}$$
oLBFGS, Schraudolph et al. (2007)
SGD-QN, Bordes et al. (2009)
RES, Mokhtari & Ribeiro (2014)

or $y_k \leftarrow \underbrace{\left(\sum_{i \in \mathcal{S}_k^H} \nabla^2 f(w_{k+1}, \xi_{k+1,i})\right) s_k}_{\text{use action of step on subsampled Hessian SQN, Byrd et al. (2015)}_{\text{Goldfarb et al. (2016)}}$

Is this the right focus? Is there a better way (especially for nonconvex f)?

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Proposal

Propose a quasi-Newton method for stochastic (nonconvex) optimization

- \blacktriangleright exploit self-correcting properties of BFGS-type updates
 - ▶ Powell (1976)
 - ► Ritter (1979, 1981)
 - ▶ Werner (1978)
 - ▶ Byrd, Nocedal (1989)

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Proposed Algorithm: SC-BFGS

Summary

BFGS-type updates

Inverse Hessian and Hessian approximation updating formulas $(s_k^T v_k > 0)$:

$$M_{k+1} \leftarrow \left(I - \frac{v_k s_k^T}{s_k^T v_k}\right)^T M_k \left(I - \frac{v_k s_k^T}{s_k^T v_k}\right) + \frac{s_k s_k^T}{s_k^T v_k}$$

$$H_{k+1} \leftarrow \left(I - \frac{s_k s_k^T H_k}{s_k^T H_k s_k}\right)^T H_k \left(I - \frac{s_k s_k^T H_k}{s_k^T H_k s_k}\right) + \frac{v_k v_k^T}{s_k^T v_k}$$

► These satisfy secant-type equations

$$M_{k+1}v_k = s_k$$
 and $H_{k+1}s_k = v_k$

but these are not critical for this talk.

Geometric properties of Hessian update: Burke, Lewis, Overton (2007)

Consider the matrices (which only depend on s_k and H_k , not g_k !)

$$P_k := \frac{s_k s_k^T H_k}{s_k^T H_k s_k} \quad \text{and} \quad Q_k := I - P_k.$$

Both H_k -orthogonal projection matrices (i.e., idempotent and H_k -self-adjoint).

- $ightharpoonup P_k$ yields H_k -orthogonal projection onto span (s_k) .
- Q_k yields H_k -orthogonal projection onto span $(s_k)^{\perp}_{H_k}$.

Geometric properties of Hessian update: Burke, Lewis, Overton (2007)

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Both H_k -orthogonal projection matrices (i.e., idempotent and H_k -self-adjoint).

- ▶ P_k yields H_k -orthogonal projection onto span (s_k) .
- Q_k yields H_k -orthogonal projection onto $\operatorname{span}(s_k)^{\perp_{H_k}}$.

Returning to the Hessian update:

$$H_{k+1} \leftarrow \underbrace{\left(I - \frac{s_k s_k^T H_k}{s_k^T H_k s_k}\right)^T H_k \left(I - \frac{s_k s_k^T H_k}{s_k^T H_k s_k}\right)}_{\text{rank } n-1} + \underbrace{\frac{v_k v_k^T}{s_k^T v_k}}_{\text{rank } 1}$$

- \triangleright Curvature projected out along span (s_k)
- ▶ Curvature corrected by $\frac{v_k v_k^T}{s_t^T v_k} = \left(\frac{v_k v_k^T}{\|v_k\|_2^2}\right) \left(\frac{\|v_k\|_2^2}{v_t^T M_{k+1} v_k}\right)$ (inverse Rayleigh).

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Self-correcting properties of Hessian update

Since curvature is constantly projected out, what happens after many updates?

Self-correcting properties of Hessian update

Since curvature is constantly projected out, what happens after many updates?

Theorem 3 (Byrd, Nocedal (1989))

Suppose that, for all k, there exists $\{\eta, \theta\} \subset \mathbb{R}_{++}$ such that

$$\eta \leq \frac{s_k^T v_k}{\|s_k\|_2^2} \ \ and \ \ \frac{\|v_k\|_2^2}{s_k^T v_k} \leq \theta. \tag{\star}$$

Then, for any $p \in (0,1)$, there exist constants $\{\iota, \kappa, \lambda\} \subset \mathbb{R}_{++}$ such that, for any $K \geq 2$, the following relations hold for at least $\lceil pK \rceil$ values of $k \in \{1, \ldots, K\}$:

$$\iota \le \frac{s_k^T H_k s_k}{\|s_k\|_2 \|H_k s_k\|_2} \quad and \quad \kappa \le \frac{\|H_k s_k\|_2}{\|s_k\|_2} \le \lambda.$$

Proof technique.

Building on work of Powell (1976), involves bounding growth of

$$\gamma(H_k) = \operatorname{tr}(H_k) - \ln(\det(H_k)).$$

Self-correcting properties of inverse Hessian update

Rather than focus on superlinear convergence results, we care about the following.

Corollary 4

Suppose the conditions of Theorem 3 hold. Then, for any $p \in (0,1)$, there exist constants $\{\mu,\nu\} \subset \mathbb{R}_{++}$ such that, for any $K \geq 2$, the following relations hold for at least $\lceil pK \rceil$ values of $k \in \{1,\ldots,K\}$:

$$\mu \|\bar{g}_k\|_2^2 \le \bar{g}_k^T M_k \bar{g}_k \quad and \quad \|M_k \bar{g}_k\|_2^2 \le \nu \|\bar{g}_k\|_2^2$$

Here \bar{g}_k is the vector such that the iterate displacement is

$$w_{k+1} - w_k = s_k = -M_k \bar{g}_k$$

Proof sketch.

Follows simply after algebraic manipulations from the result of Theorem 3, using the facts that $s_k = -M_k \bar{q}_k$ and $M_k = H_k^{-1}$ for all k.

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Summary

Our main idea is to use a carefully selected type of damping:

▶ Choosing $v_k \leftarrow y_k := g_{k+1} - g_k$ yields standard BFGS, but we consider

$$v_k \leftarrow \beta_k H s_k + (1 - \beta_k) \tilde{y}_k$$
 for some $\beta_k \in [0, 1]$ and $\tilde{y}_k \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

This scheme preserves the self-correcting properties of BFGS.

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Algorithm SC: Self-Correcting BFGS Algorithm

- 1: Choose $w_1 \in \mathbb{R}^d$.
- 2: Set $q_1 \approx \nabla f(w_1)$.
- 3: Choose a symmetric positive definite $M_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$.
- 4: Choose a positive scalar sequence $\{\alpha_k\}$.
- for k = 1, 2, ... do
- 6: Set $s_k \leftarrow -\alpha_k M_k q_k$.
- Set $w_{k+1} \leftarrow w_k + s_k$. 7.
- 8: Set $q_{k+1} \approx \nabla f(w_{k+1})$.
- Set $y_k \leftarrow q_{k+1} q_k$. 9:
- Set $\beta_k \leftarrow \min\{\beta \in [0,1] : v(\beta) := \beta s_k + (1-\beta)\alpha_k y_k \text{ satisfies } (\star)\}.$ 10:
- Set $v_k \leftarrow v(\beta_k)$. 11:
- Set 12:

$$M_{k+1} \leftarrow \left(I - \frac{v_k s_k^T}{s_k^T v_k}\right)^T M_k \left(I - \frac{v_k s_k^T}{s_k^T v_k}\right) + \frac{s_k s_k^T}{s_k^T v_k}.$$

13: end for

Global convergence theorem

(Bottou, Curtis, Nocedal (2016)) Theorem

Suppose that, for all k, there exists a scalar constant $\rho > 0$ such that

$$-\nabla f(w_k)^T \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[M_k g_k] \le -\rho \|\nabla f(w_k)\|_2^2,$$

and there exist scalars $\sigma > 0$ and $\tau > 0$ such that

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[\|M_k g_k\|_2^2] \le \sigma + \tau \|\nabla f(w_k)\|_2^2.$$

Then, $\{\mathbb{E}[f(w_k)]\}\$ converges to a finite limit and

$$\liminf_{k \to \infty} \mathbb{E}[\nabla f(w_k)] = 0.$$

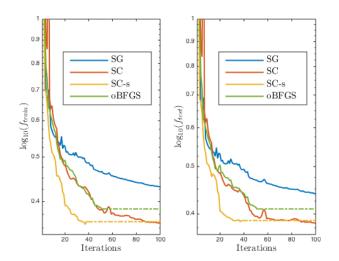
Proof technique.

Follows from the critical inequality

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi_{k}}[f(w_{k+1})] - f(w_{k}) \leq -\alpha_{k} \nabla f(w_{k})^{T} \mathbb{E}_{\xi_{k}}[M_{k}g_{k}] + \alpha_{k}^{2} L \mathbb{E}_{\xi_{k}}[\|M_{k}g_{k}\|_{2}^{2}].$$

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Numerical Experiments: a1a

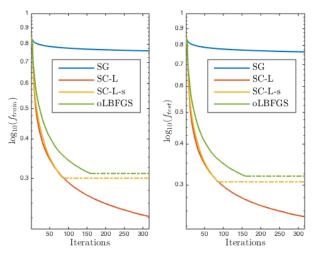


logistic regression, data ala, diminishing stepsizes

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Numerical Experiments: rcv1

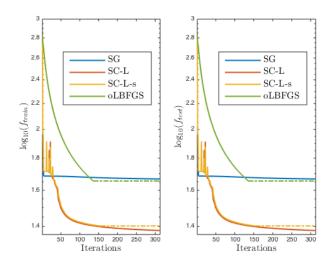
SC-L and SC-L-s: limited memory variants of SC and SC-s, respectively:



logistic regression, data rcv1, diminishing stepsizes

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Numerical Experiments: mnist



deep neural network, data mnist, diminishing stepsizes

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Why second-order?

For better complexity properties?

- ▶ Eh, not really...
- ▶ Many are no better than first-order methods in terms of complexity
- ... and ones with better complexity aren't necessarily best in practice (yet)

For fast local convergence guarantees?

- ► Eh, probably not...
- ▶ Hard to achieve, especially in large-scale, nonsmooth, or stochastic settings

Then why?

- ▶ Adaptive, natural scaling (gradient descent $\approx 1/L$ while Newton ≈ 1)
- ▶ Mitigate effects of ill-conditioning
- ► Easier to tune parameters(?)
- ▶ Better at avoiding saddle points(?)
- ▶ Better trade-off in parallel and distributed computing settings

(Also, opportunities for NEW algorithms! Not analyzing the same old...)

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Message of this talk

People want to solve more complicated, nonconvex problems

- ...involving stochasticity / randomness
- ...involving nonsmoothness

We might waste this spotlight on nonconvex optimization if we do not...

- ▶ Make clear the gap between theory and practice (and close it!)
- ▶ Learn from advances that have already been made
- ... and adapt them appropriately for modern problems

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References

For references, please see

► http://coral.ise.lehigh.edu/frankecurtis/publications

Please also visit the OptML @ Lehigh website!

ightharpoonup http://optml.lehigh.edu

