# 10707
# Deep Learning: Spring 2021

Andrej Risteski

Machine Learning Department

## Lecture 5: Intro to optimization

# Supervised learning

**Empirical risk minimization approach**:
minimize a **training** loss $l$ over a class of **predictors** $\mathcal{F}$:

$$\hat{f} = \underset{f \in \mathcal{F}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \sum_{(x,y):\text{training samples}} l(f(x), y)$$

**Three pillars:**

(1) How expressive is the class $\mathcal{F}$? (**Representational power**)

(2) How do we minimize the training loss efficiently? (**Optimization**)

(3) How does $\hat{f}$ perform on unseen samples? (**Generalization**)

# The world of continuous optimization

The typical training task in ML can be cast as: $\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} \quad f(x)$

Usually, it is cheap to calculate f$(x)$, $\nabla f(x)$, but (more) expensive to calculate higher-order derivatives.

Most algorithms we will look at are iterative: they progressively pick points $x_1, x_2, \ldots$ that are supposed to bring "improvement".

Non-exhaustive coverage: entire field of optimization, with applications vastly beyond ML. We focus on deep-learning-relevant methods.

# The mother of all optimization algorithms: gradient descent

The simplest optimization algorithm: Taylor expand and find the direction of "steepest" descent. More precisely:

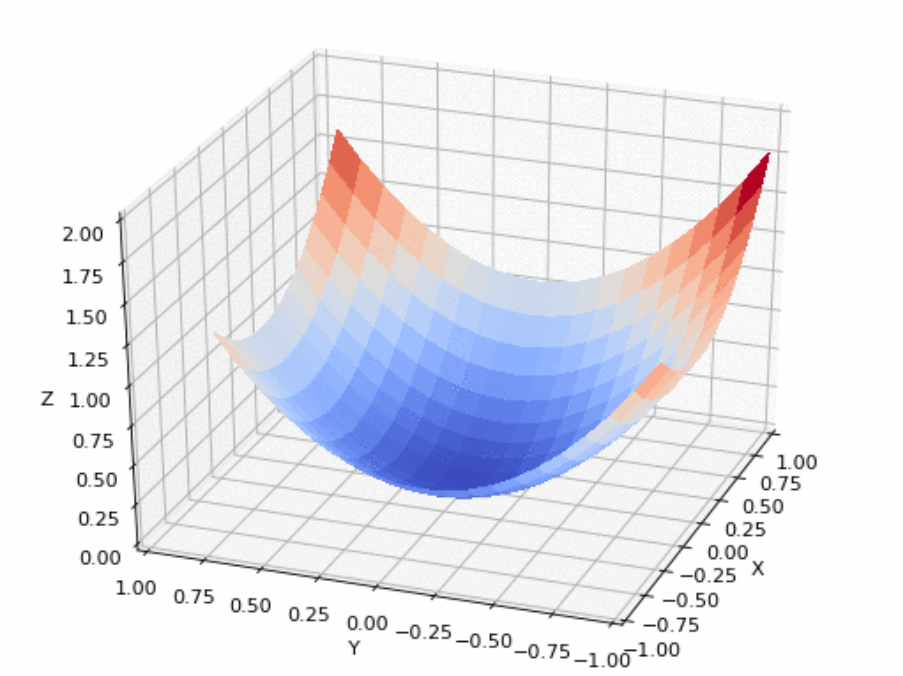
By Taylor's theorem, we have $f(x+\Delta) \approx f(x) + \Delta^T \nabla f(x) + O(||\Delta||^2)$

So, if we ignore higher-order effects, we have

$$\underset{\Delta, ||\Delta|| \leq \epsilon}{\operatorname{argmin}} \{ f(x+\Delta) - f(x) \} = -\epsilon \frac{\nabla f(x)}{||\nabla f(x)||}$$

i.e. we should move (appropriately scaled) opposite of the gradient

# Gradient descent, pictorially

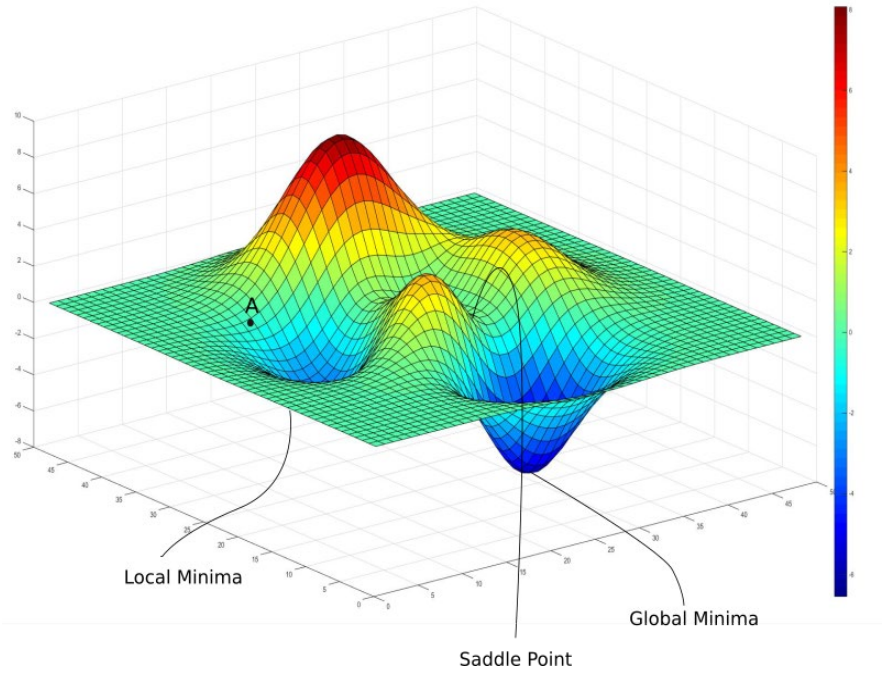



What can we hope for, in the case that $||\Delta|| \to 0$?

We stop moving when $\nabla f(\hat{x}) \approx 0$: these care called **stationary points**.

**What kinds of stationary points are there?**

# Types of stationary points



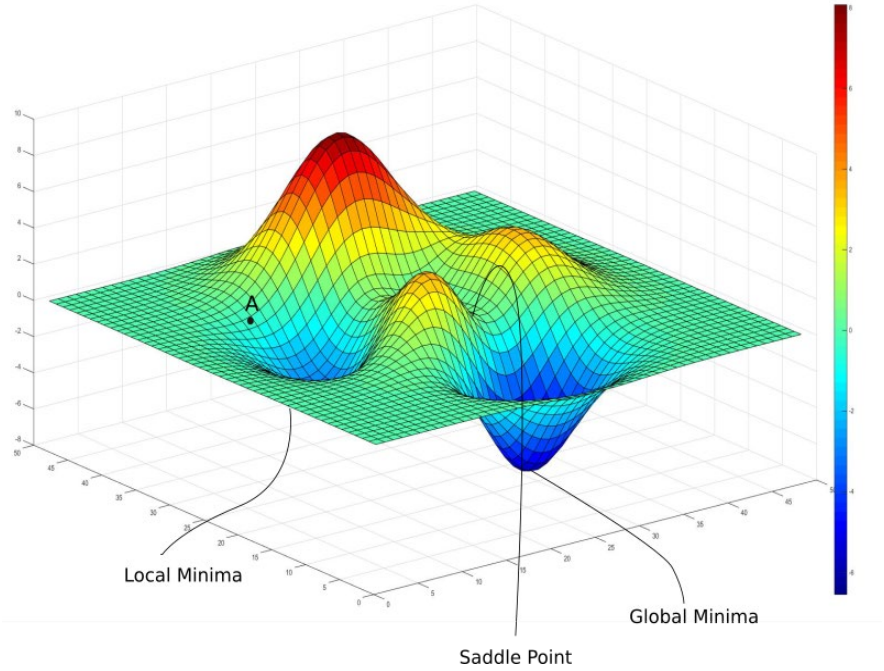

**Global minimum**: actual minimizer, namely $f(\hat{x}) \leq f(x), \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^d$

**Local minimum**: $f(\hat{x}) \leq f(x),\ \forall x \text{ s.t. } ||x - \hat{x}|| \leq \epsilon$ for some $\epsilon > 0$

**Local maximum**: $f(\hat{x}) \geq f(x),\ \forall x \text{ s.t. } ||x - \hat{x}|| \leq \epsilon$ for some $\epsilon > 0$

**Saddle points**: stationary point that is *not* a local min/max.

# Types of stationary points




**Global minimum**: finding these in general is very hard (both in theory – NP-hard, as well as in practice)

**Local minimum**: seem to work quite well often. Some theoretical understanding of why in very restricted cases.

**Saddle points**: typically bad, arise from invariances in input. Want to avoid these. (Stay tuned.)

# Checking for local minima?

**Second order checks**: Hessian approximates a function to second order

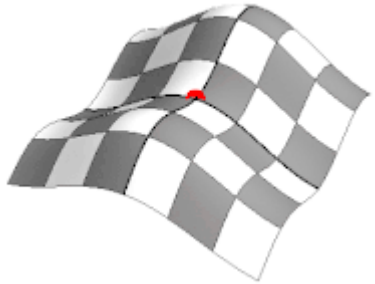
**Taylor's thm**: $f(x+\Delta) \approx f(x) + \Delta^T \nabla f(x) + \frac{1}{2}\Delta^T \nabla^2 f(x)\Delta + O(||\Delta||^3)$

$$\approx f(x) + \frac{1}{2}\Delta^T \nabla^2 f(x)\Delta + O(||\Delta||^3)$$

If $\nabla^2 f(x) \succ 0$: for any direction $\Delta$, and small enough $||\Delta||$

$\Delta^T \nabla^2 f(x)\Delta + O(||\Delta||^3) \geq 0$, so $f(x+\Delta) > f(x)$

**Local minimum**! (Flipped for local maximum)



If $\nabla^2 f(x)$ has both positive and negative eigenvalues:

**Saddle point** (not a local minimum/maximum)

**If neither of these attains, test is inconclusive!**

# The descent lemma: analyzing gradient descent

So far, we've only considered the limit $||\Delta|| \to 0$.

If$||\Delta||$ is too large, the Taylor expansion will be invalid (and gradient descent can "jump over" local minima).

If$||\Delta||$ is too small, the runtime of the algorithm will suffer.
The descent lemma characterizes the "sweet spot":

**Theorem (descent lemma)**: Let $f$ be twice differentiable, and $||\nabla^2 f(x)||_2 \leq \beta$. Then, setting $\eta = 1/\beta$, and calling $x_t$ the iterates of gradient descent, namely $x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta \nabla f(x_t)$, we have:

$$f(x_t) - f(x_{t+1}) \geq \frac{1}{2\beta} ||\nabla f(x_t)|\Big|_2^2$$

# Using the descent lemma: Lyapunov functions

**Theorem (descent lemma)**: Let $f$ be twice differentiable, and $||\nabla^2 f(x)||_2 \leq \beta$. Then, setting $\eta = 1/\beta$, and calling $x_t$ the iterates of gradient descent, namely $x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta \nabla f(x_t)$, we have:

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Suppose $f$ is lower bounded (e.g. $f \geq 0$), and $f(x_0) \leq M$

Suppose we want point $x_t$, s.t. $\big||\nabla f(x_t)\big|| \leq \epsilon$.

**Lyapunov (potential) fn argument**: suppose $\forall t \in [0, T], \big||\nabla f(x_t)\big|| \geq \epsilon$

Then, $f(x_T) \leq f(x_0) - T\frac{1}{2\beta}\epsilon \leq M - T\frac{1}{2\beta}\epsilon$. Also, $f(x_T) \geq 0$.

Putting these together, we get $T \leq 2M\beta/\epsilon$

# Proving the Descent Lemma

**Theorem (descent lemma)**: Let $f$ be twice differentiable, and $||\nabla^2 f(x)||_2 \leq \beta$. Then, setting $\eta = 1/\beta$, and calling $x_t$ the iterates of gradient descent, we have:

$$f(x_t) - f(x_{t+1}) \geq \frac{1}{2\beta} ||\nabla f(x_t)|\Big|_2^2$$

**Proof:** By Taylor expansion and the mean value theorem, we have

$$f(x + \Delta) = f(x) + \Delta^T \nabla f(x) + \frac{1}{2}\Delta^T \nabla^2 f(y)\Delta$$

Moreover, $\Delta^T \nabla^2 f(y)\Delta \leq ||\nabla^2 f(y)||_2 ||\Delta||_2^2 \leq \beta ||\Delta||_2^2$. Plugging in $\Delta = -\eta \nabla f(x_t)$:

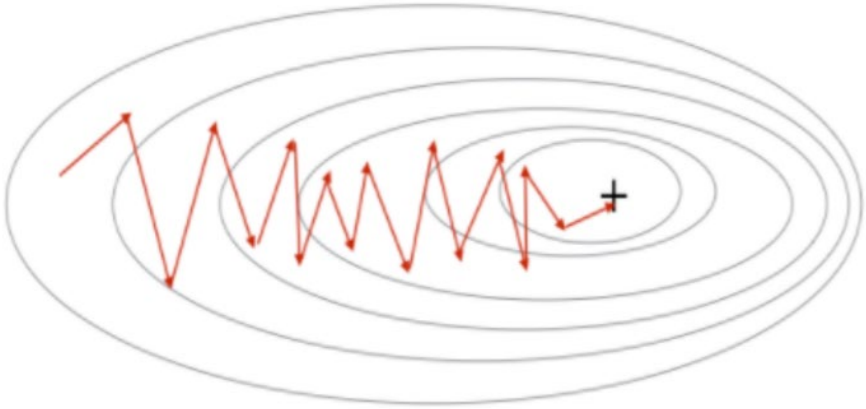
$$f(x_{t+1}) \leq f(x_t) - \eta \big||\nabla f(x_t)|\big|^2 + \frac{1}{2}\beta\eta^2 \big||\nabla f(x_t)|\big|^2$$

$$= f(x_t) - 1/\beta \big||\nabla f(x_t)|\big|^2 + \frac{1}{2} 1/\beta \big||\nabla f(x_t)|\big|^2$$

$$= f(x_t) - 1/2\beta \big||\nabla f(x_t)|\big|^2$$

# Understanding gradient descent locally

Let's consider $f$'s that are quadratic. (Close to local minima, this will be "true" due to Taylor). What quadratics are bad/good for gradient descent?



**Bad behavior**: gradients don't point towards minimizer – a lot of zig-zaging until we reach minimizer.

**Intuitively**: ellipsoidal contours (level sets) should be worse than spherical level sets.

**Question**: Let $f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A\, x$, can we characterize convergence time of gradient descent more precisely? What does it depend on?

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**Thm**: Let $A$ be a symmetric positive-definite matrix with minimum and maximum eigenvalues $\lambda_{\min}$ and $\lambda_{\max}$ and denote $\kappa = \lambda_{\max} / \lambda_{\min}$ (**condition number**).

The iterates of gradient descent with $\eta = \frac{2}{\lambda_{\max} + \lambda_{\min}}$ satisfy:

$$||x_t|| \leq \left(\frac{\kappa - 1}{\kappa + 1}\right)^t ||x_0||$$

$= ||x_t - 0||$, *i.e. distance from optimum*

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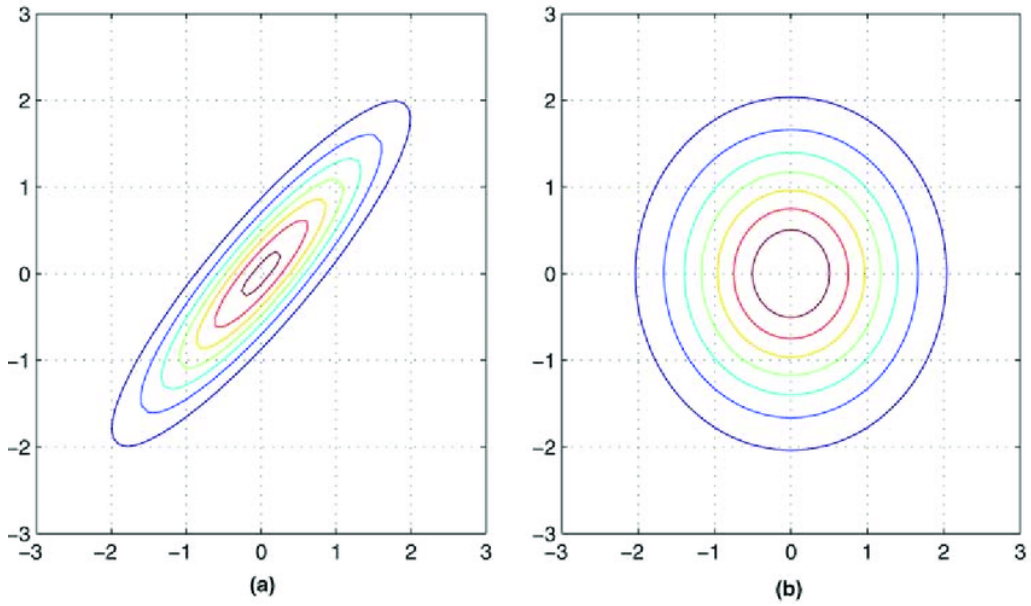


$$||x_t|| \leq \left(\frac{\kappa - 1}{\kappa + 1}\right)^t ||x_0||$$

$$= \left(1 - \frac{2}{\kappa + 1}\right)^t ||x_0||$$

*κ large => slower convergence*

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**Proof**:

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

$$= ||x_t - \eta A x_t|| = ||(I - \eta A) x_t|| \leq \left|\left|I - \eta A\right|\right|_2 \left|\left|x_t\right|\right|_2$$

$$\leq \max(|1 - \eta \lambda_{max}|, |1 - \eta \lambda_{\min}|) \left|\left|x_t\right|\right|_2$$

$$= \frac{\lambda_{\max} - \lambda_{\min}}{\lambda_{\max} + \lambda_{\min}} \left|\left|x_t\right|\right|_2 = \frac{\kappa - 1}{\kappa + 1} \left|\left|x_t\right|\right|_2$$

# Fixes to the conditioning problem

What can we do for poorly conditioned problems?

Quadratic problem suggests solution: we can solve it in closed form!!

If $f(x) = \frac{1}{2} x^T A\, x + b^T x + c$, minimizer is $A^{-1} b$ . (Just take derivatives, set to 0.)

What do we do for arbitrary f? Approximate function to second order!!

By Taylor's thm: $f(x + \Delta) \approx f(x) + \Delta^T \nabla f(x) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta^T \nabla^2 f(x) \Delta + O(||\Delta||^3)$

Ignoring 3rd and higher order terms, and using the above observation for quadratics:

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

**Newton's method.**

# Fixes to the conditioning problem

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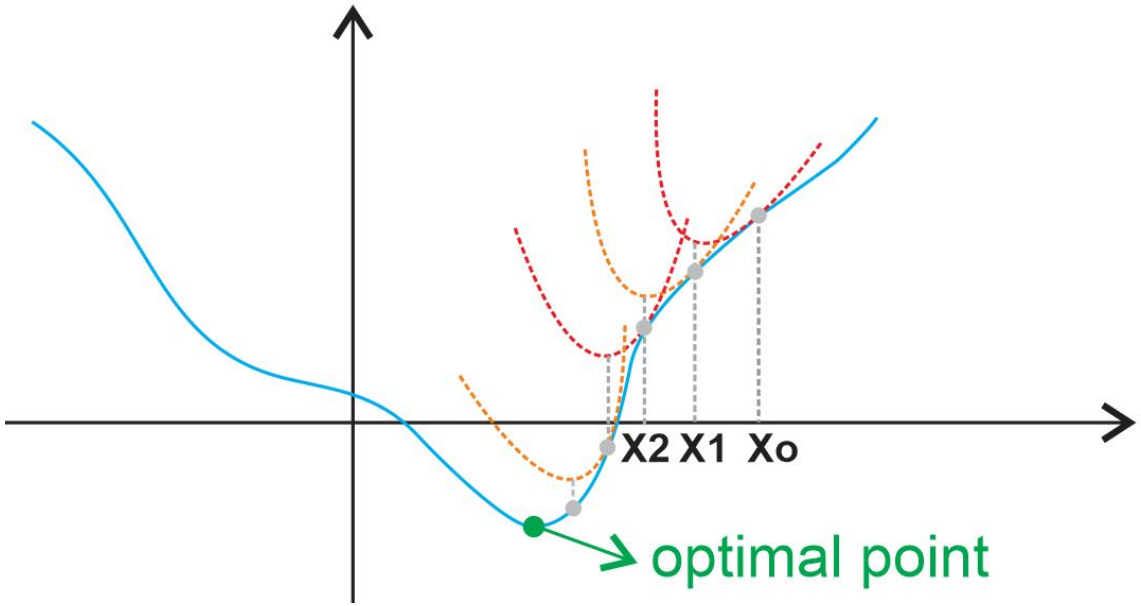
**Newton's method.**




**Problem**: need to invert a $d \times d$ matrix => $d^3$ runtime. Way too expensive.

# Momentum (Polyak '64)

**Alternative fix**: instead of using the gradient at the current step, use a linear combination of the gradients at prior steps. "Smooths" out zig-zagging, but not relying too much on current gradient.

*Linear combination of prior gradients + current one*

$$v_{t+1} = -\nabla f(x_t) + \beta v_t$$
$$x_{t+1} = x_t + \eta v_{t+1}$$

**Helps provably!** You'll show in homework that for the quadratic case we considered, i.e. $f(x) = x^T A\, x$ :

$$||x_t|| \leq \left(\frac{\sqrt{\kappa} - 1}{\sqrt{\kappa} + 1}\right)^t ||x_0||$$

# Momentum (Nesterov '83)

**Nesterov acceleration** is a *lookahead* variant of momentum, which has provable benefits for *any* convex function. (And is in a certain precise sense, the optimal first-order optimization algorithm).

*Evaluate gradient at a "lookahead" point*

$$v_{t+1} = -\nabla f(x_t + \beta v_t) + \beta v_t$$
$$x_{t+1} = x_t + \eta v_{t+1}$$

**Magical!** There's been a mini cottage industry to "explain" Nesterov acceleration.

# Taking gradients of neural networks: backpropagation

The workhorse for training neural networks: an algorithm that for a network with V nodes and E edges calculates the gradient in **linear time** O(V+E).

The name **backpropagation** was introduced by *Rumelhart, Hinton, Williams '86*, but so natural that it was rediscovered multiple times (as early as 60s). Algorithm seems to first be mentioned in *Werbos'* thesis '74 in the context of neural networks.

In **control theory**: Kelley '60, Bryson '61 [cast as dynamic programming];

In **theoretical computer science**: Baur-Strassen lemma '83 [in the context of algebraic circuits]

# Taking gradients of neural networks: backpropagation

The main tool for deriving backprop: **chain rule**

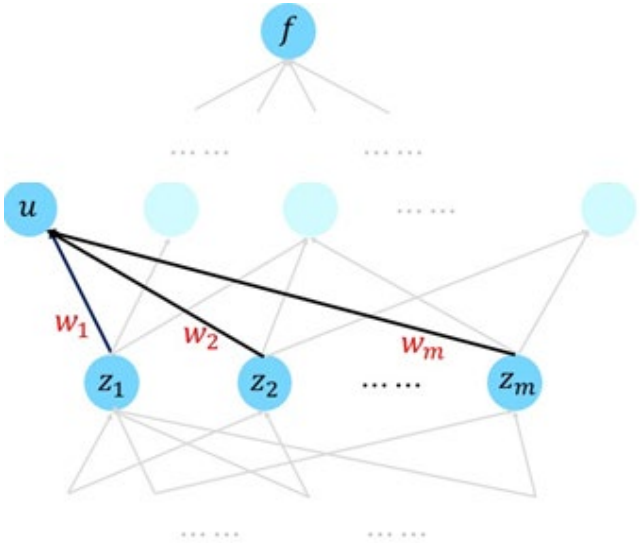
Suppose $f(y) = f(x_1(y), x_2(y), \ldots, x_n(y))$

Then, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}\frac{\partial x}{\partial y}$

**Observation 1**: It suffices to take derivatives with respect to node functions.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial w_1} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}\frac{\partial u}{\partial w_1} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}\frac{\partial \sigma(\langle w, z\rangle + b)}{\partial w_1}$$

$$= \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}\sigma'(u)z_1$$



# Taking gradients of neural networks: backpropagation

**Observation 2**: The obvious forward propagation algorithms results in runtime of $\Omega(V^2)$. (Bad! We want O(V+E))

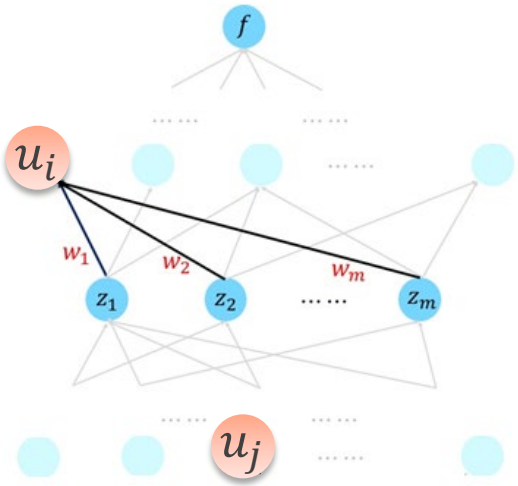
Obvious algorithm? Calculate inductively $\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial u_j}$, for all pairs $(u_i, u_j)$ where $u_j$ is lower than $u_i$ (obviously, this includes $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}$ which we want)

$$\frac{\partial u_i}{\partial u_j} = \sum_k \frac{\partial u_i}{\partial z_k} \frac{\partial z_k}{\partial u_j}$$

Easy as in prior slide

Have these by inductive hypothesis.

t+1



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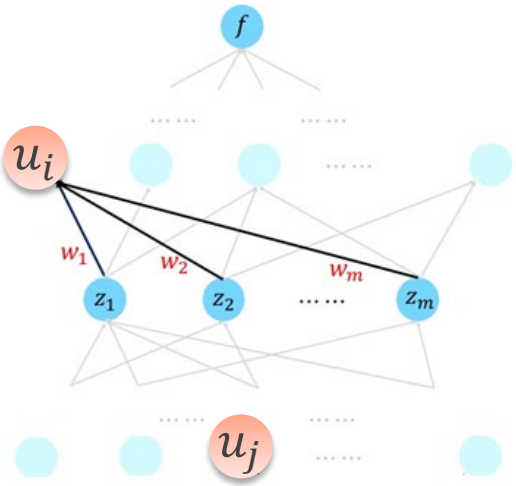



***Bad*** *– this will end up with* $\Omega(V^2)$ *algorithm.*

# Taking gradients of neural networks: backpropagation

**Observation 3**: The better way to do this is in a backward fashion.

**Message passing algorithm [dynamic programming]:** each node $u$ receives messages (real numbers) from its neighbors on top. Let their sum be $S$. The node passes to downward neighbors z: $S\frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$. Proceed from top to down.

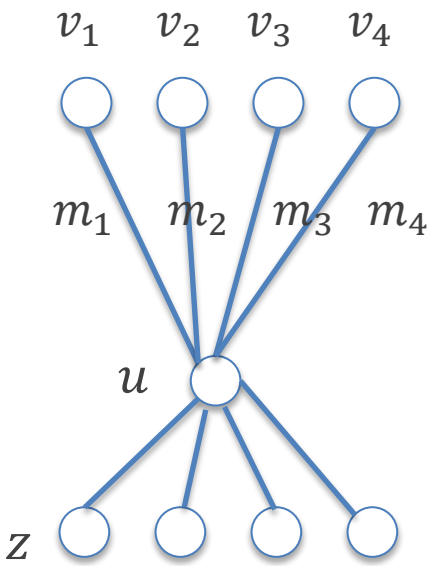
**Claim:** The sum of the messages that each node u computes S is equal to $\frac{\partial f}{\partial u}$.

**Proof:** By induction.

Suppose u is at layer t, and inductive hypothesis holds for layers t+1 and above. Sum of messages to u satisfies:

$$S = \sum_k m_k = \sum_k \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_i}\frac{\partial v_i}{\partial u} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial u}$$

*Inductive hypothesis* *Def. of messages*



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**Amount of work:** each node u needs to sum its upward neighbor messages (at most deg(u) of them), and pass a message to its downward neighbors (at most deg(u) of them).

Each downward message just takes an extra $\frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$ calculation (easy const. time), so each node does O(deg(u)) amount of work.

Hence, **total amount of work** for all nodes is $O(\sum_u \deg(u)) = O(E)$

**Amount of memory:** for calculating $\frac{\partial u}{\partial z}$, we need the activation values of intermediate nodes – so **memory** $O(V)$.

[Important! If recalculating these, runtime would be quadratic]