# First-Order Optimization Algorithms for Machine Learning Convergence of Gradient Descent

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Summer 2020

# Last Time: Progress Bound for Gradient Descent

• We discussed gradient descent,

$$w^{k+1} = w^k - \alpha_k \nabla f(w^k).$$

assuming that the gradient was Lipschitz continuous (weak assumption),

$$\|\nabla f(w) - \nabla f(v)\| \le L\|w - v\|,$$

ullet We showed that setting  $lpha_k=1/L$  gives a progress bound of

$$f(w^{k+1}) \le f(w^k) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2,$$

- We discussed practical  $\alpha_k$  values that give similar bounds.
  - "Try a big step-size, and decrease it if isn't satisfying a progress bound."

# Cost of L2-Regularizd Least Squares

- Two strategies from 340 for L2-regularized least squares:
  - Closed-form solution,

$$w = (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} (X^T y),$$

which costs  $O(nd^2 + d^3)$ .

- This is fine for d = 5000, but may be too slow for d = 1,000,000.
- Run t iterations of gradient descent,

$$w^{k+1} = w^k - \alpha_k \underbrace{(X^T(Xw^k - y) + \lambda w^k)}_{\nabla f(w^k)},$$

which costs O(ndt).

- I'm using t as total number of iterations, and k as iteration number.
- Gradient descent is faster if t is not too big:
  - If we only need  $t < \max\{d, d^2/n\}$  iterations.

# Cost of Logistic Regression

• Gradient descent can also be applied to other models like logistic regression,

$$f(w) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log(1 + \exp(-y^{i}w^{T}x^{i})),$$

which we can't formulate as a linear system.

- Setting  $\nabla f(w) = 0$  gives a system of transcendental equations.
- But this objective function is convex and differentiable.
  - So gradient descent converges to a global optimum.
- Alternately, another common approach is Newton's method.
  - Requires computing Hessian  $\nabla^2 f(w^k)$ , and known as "IRLS" in statistics.

# Cost of Logistic Regression

- Gradient descent costs O(nd) per iteration to for logistic regression.
- Newton costs  $O(nd^2 + d^3)$  per iteration to compute and invert  $\nabla^2 f(w^k)$ .
- Newton typically requires substantially fewer iterations.
- But for datasets with very large *d*, gradient descent might be faster.
  - If  $t < \max\{d, d^2/n\}$  then we should use the "slow" algorithm with fast iterations.
- So, how many iterations t of gradient descent do we need?

#### Outline

- Gradient Descent Convergence Rate
- Rates of Convergence

- In 340, we claimed that  $\nabla f(w^k)$  converges to zero as k goes to  $\infty$ .
  - For convex functions, this means it converges to a global optimum.
  - However, we may not have  $\nabla f(w^k) = 0$  for any finite k.
- Instead, we're usually happy with  $\|\nabla f(w^k)\| \le \epsilon$  for some small  $\epsilon$ .
  - ullet Given an  $\epsilon$ , how many iterations does it take for this to happen?
- We'll first answer this question only assuming that
  - **1** Gradient  $\nabla f$  is Lipschitz continuous (as before).
  - ② Step-size  $\alpha_k = 1/L$  (this is only to make things simpler).
  - **3** Function f can't go below a certain value  $f^*$  ("bounded below").
- Most ML objectives f are bounded below (like the squared error being at least 0).
  - We're not assuming convexity (but only showing convergence to a stationary point).

- Key ideas:
  - We start at some  $f(w^0)$ , and at each step we decrease f by at least  $\frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2$ .
  - 2 But we can't decrease  $f(w^k)$  below  $f^*$ .
  - 3 So  $\|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2$  must be going to zero "fast enough".
- Let's start with our guaranteed progress bound,

$$f(w^k) \le f(w^{k-1}) - \frac{1}{2L} \|\nabla f(w^{k-1})\|^2.$$

• Since we want to bound  $\|\nabla f(w^k)\|$ , let's rearrange as

$$\|\nabla f(w^{k-1})\|^2 \le 2L(f(w^{k-1}) - f(w^k)).$$

ullet So for each iteration k, we have

$$\|\nabla f(w^{k-1})\|^2 \le 2L[f(w^{k-1}) - f(w^k)].$$

• Let's sum up the squared norms of all the gradients up to iteration t,

$$\sum_{k=1}^{t} \|\nabla f(w^{k-1})\|^2 \le 2L \sum_{k=1}^{t} [f(w^{k-1}) - f(w^k)].$$

- Now we use two tricks:
  - **1** On the left, use that all  $\|\nabla f(w^{k-1})\|$  are at least as big as their minimum.
  - 2 On the right, use that this is a telescoping sum:

$$\sum_{k=1}^{t} [f(w^{k-1}) - f(w^{k})] = f(w^{0}) - \underbrace{f(w^{1}) + f(w^{1})}_{0} - \underbrace{f(w^{2}) + f(w^{2})}_{0} - \dots f(w^{t})$$
$$= f(w^{0}) - f(w^{t}).$$

With these substitutions we have

$$\sum_{k=1}^t \min_{\substack{j \in \{0,\dots,t-1\} \\ \text{no dependence on } k}} \left\{ \|\nabla f(w^j)\|^2 \right\} \leq 2L[f(w^0) - f(w^t)].$$

• Now using that  $f(w^t) \ge f^*$  we get

$$t \min_{k \in \{0,1,\dots,t-1\}} \left\{ \|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2 \right\} \le 2L[f(w^0) - f^*],$$

and finally that

$$\min_{k \in \{0,1,\dots,t-1\}} \left\{ \|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2 \right\} \le \frac{2L[f(w^0) - f^*]}{t} = O(1/t),$$

so if we run for t iterations, we'll find  $\underbrace{\text{at least one } k}_{\text{the minimum}}$  with  $\|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2 = O(1/t)$ .

• Our "error on iteration t" bound:

$$\min_{k \in \{0,1,\dots,t-1\}} \left\{ \|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2 \right\} \le \frac{2L[f(w^0) - f^*]}{t}.$$

• We want to know when the norm is below  $\epsilon$ , which is guaranteed if:

$$\frac{2L[f(w^0) - f^*]}{t} \le \epsilon.$$

Solving for t gives that this is guaranteed for every t where

$$t \ge \frac{2L[f(w^0) - f^*]}{\epsilon},$$

so gradient descent requires  $t = O(1/\epsilon)$  iterations to achieve  $\|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2 \le \epsilon$ .

#### Outline

- Gradient Descent Convergence Rate
- Rates of Convergence

# Discussion of O(1/t) and $O(1/\epsilon)$ Results

• We showed that after t iterations, there will be a k such that

$$\|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2 = O(1/t).$$

• If we want to have a k with  $\|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2 \le \epsilon$ , number of iterations we need is

$$t = O(1/\epsilon)$$
.

- ullet So if computing gradient costs O(nd), total cost of gradient descent is  $O(nd/\epsilon)$ .
  - O(nd) per iteration and  $O(1/\epsilon)$  iterations.
- This also be shown for practical step-size strategies from last time.
  - Just changes constants.

# Discussion of O(1/t) and $O(1/\epsilon)$ Results

ullet Our precise "error on iteration t" result was

$$\min_{k=0,1,\dots,t-1} \{ \|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2 \} \le \frac{2L[f(w^0) - f^*]}{t}.$$

- This is a non-asymptotic result:
  - It holds on iteration 1, there is no "limit as  $t \to \infty$ " as in classic results.
  - But if t goes to  $\infty$ , argument can be modified to show that  $\nabla f(w^t)$  goes to zero.
- This convergence rate is called "dimension-independent":
  - It does not directly depend on dimension d.
  - ullet Though L might grow as dimension increases.
- Consider least squares with a fixed L and  $f(w^0)$ , and an accuracy  $\epsilon$ :
  - ullet There is dimension d beyond which gradient descent is faster than normal equations.

# Discussion of O(1/t) and $O(1/\epsilon)$ Results

ullet We showed that after t iterations, there is always a k such that

$$\min_{k=0,1,\dots,t-1} \{ \|\nabla f(w^k)\|^2 \} \le \frac{2L[f(w^0) - f^*]}{t}.$$

- It isn't necessarily the last iteration t that achieves this.
  - But iteration t does have the lowest value of  $f(w^k)$ .
- For real ML problems optimization bounds like this are often very loose.
  - In practice gradient descent converges much faster.
  - There is a practical and theoretical component to developing optimization methods.
- This does not imply that gradient descent finds global minimum.
  - We could be minimizing an NP-hard function with bad local optima.

# Faster Convergence to Global Optimum?

- What about finding the global optimum of a non-convex function?
- Fastest possible algorithms requires  $O(1/\epsilon^d)$  iterations for Lipschitz-continuous f.
  - This is actually achieved by by picking  $w^k$  values randomly (or by "grid search").
  - You can't beat this with simulated annealing, genetic algorithms, Bayesian optim,...
- Without some assumption like Lipschitz f, getting within  $\epsilon$  of  $f^*$  is impossible.
  - Due to real numbers being uncountable.
  - "Math with Bad Drawings" sketch of proof here.
- These issues are discussed in post-lecture bonus slides.

## Convergence Rate for Convex Functions

- For convex functions we can get to a global optimum much faster.
- This is because  $\nabla f(w) = 0$  implies w is a global optimum.
  - So gradient descent will converge to a global optimum.
- Using a similar proof (with telescoping sum), for convex f you can show

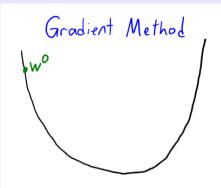
$$f(w^t) - f(w^*) = O(1/t),$$

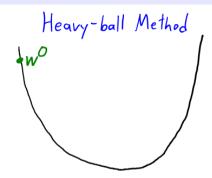
if there exists a global optimum  $w^{*}$  and  $\nabla f$  is Lipschitz.

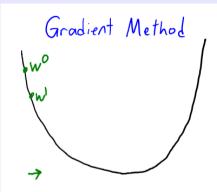
• So we need  $O(1/\epsilon)$  iterations to get  $\epsilon$ -close to global optimum, not  $O(1/\epsilon^d)$ .

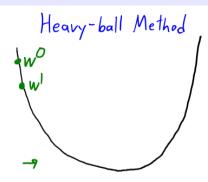
# Faster Convergence to Global Optimum?

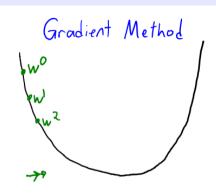
- Is  $O(1/\epsilon)$  the best we can do for convex functions?
- No, there are algorithms that only need  $O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})$ .
  - This is optimal for any algorithm based only on functions and gradients.
    - And restricting to dimension-independent rates.
- First algorithm to achieve this: Nesterov's accelerated gradient method.
  - A variation on what's known as the "heavy ball' method (or "momentum").

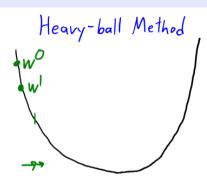


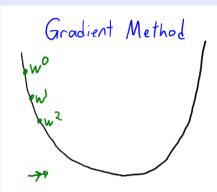


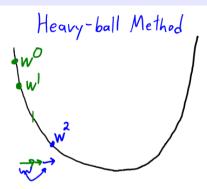


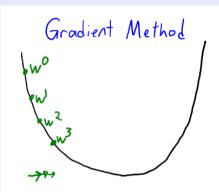


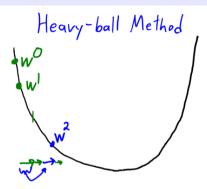


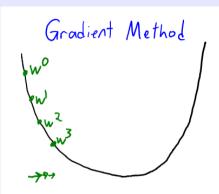


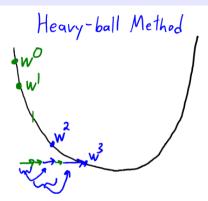


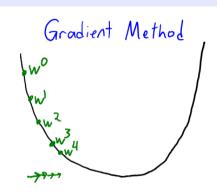


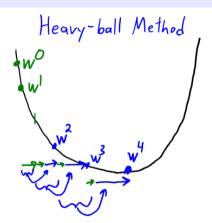


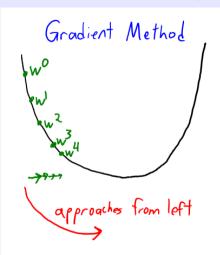


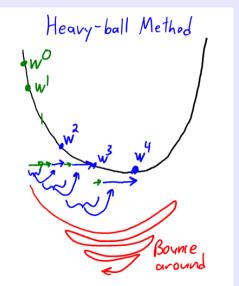












## Heavy-Ball, Momentum, CG, and Accelerated Gradient

• The heavy-ball method (called momentum in neural network papers) is

$$w^{k+1} = w^k - \alpha_k \nabla f(w^k) + \beta_k (w^k - w^{k-1}).$$

- For strictly-convex quadratics, achieves faster rate (for appropriate  $\alpha_k$  and  $\beta_k$ ).
  - With the optimal  $\alpha_k$  and  $\beta_k$ , we obtain conjugate gradient.
- Variation is Nesterov's accelerated gradient method,

$$w^{k+1} = v^k - \alpha_k \nabla f(v^k),$$
  
$$v^{k+1} = w^k + \beta_k (w^{k+1} - w^k),$$

- Has an error of  $O(1/t^2)$  after t iterations instead of O(1/t) for convex functions.
  - So it only needs  $O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})$  iterations to get within  $\epsilon$  of global opt.
  - Can use  $\alpha_k = 1/L$  and  $\beta_k = \frac{k-1}{k+2}$  to achieve this.

# Iteration Complexity

• Iteration complexity: smallest t such that algorithm guarantees  $\epsilon$ -solution.

• Iteration complexities we have discussed so far:

Assumption	Quantity	Algorithm	Iteration Complexity
Lips. $f$ , bounded domain	$f(w) - f^*$	Random	$O(1/\epsilon^d)$
Lips. $\nabla f$ , bounded below	$\ \nabla f(w)\ ^2$	Gradient	$O(1/\epsilon)$
Lips. $\nabla f$ , convex $f$	$f(w) - f^*$	Gradient	$O(1/\epsilon)$
Lips. $\nabla f$ , convex $f$	$f(w) - f^*$	Nesterov	$O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})$

- A lot of optimization research takes these types of forms:
  - Can we get a faster iteration complexity with more assumptions?
  - Can we get the same iteration complexity with fewer assumptions?
  - Can we get the same iteration complexity with cheaper iterations?

# Iteration Complexity

- ullet Think of  $\log(1/\epsilon)$  as "number of digits of accuracy" you want.
  - We want iteration complexity to grow slowly with  $1/\epsilon$ .
- Is  $O(1/\epsilon)$  a good iteration complexity?
- Not really, if you need 10 iterations for a "digit "of accuracy then:
  - You might need 100 for 2 digits.
  - You might need 1000 for 3 digits.
  - You might need 10000 for 4 digits.
- We would normally call this exponential time.

# Rates of Convergence

A way to measure rate of convergence is by limit of the ratio of successive errors,

$$\lim_{k \to \infty} \frac{f(w^{k+1}) - f(w^*)}{f(w^k) - f(w^*)} = \rho.$$

- Different  $\rho$  values of give us different rates of convergence:
  - **1** If  $\rho = 1$  we call it a sublinear rate.
  - 2 If  $\rho \in (0,1)$  we call it a linear rate.
  - **3** If  $\rho = 0$  we call it a superlinear rate.
- Having  $f(w^t) f(w^*) = O(1/t)$  gives sublinear convergence rate:
  - "The longer you run the algorithm, the less progress it makes".

# Sub/Superlinear Convergence vs. Sub/Superlinear Cost

- As a computer scientist, what would we ideally want?
  - Sublinear rate is bad, we don't want O(1/t) ("exponential" time:  $O(1/\epsilon)$  iterations).
  - Linear rate is ok, we're ok with  $O(\rho^t)$  ("polynomial" time:  $O(\log(1/\epsilon))$  iterations).
  - Superlinear rate is great, amazing to have  $O(\rho^{2^t})$  ("constant":  $O(\log(\log(1/\epsilon)))$ ).
- Notice that terminology is backwards compared to computational cost:
  - Superlinear cost is bad, we don't want  $O(d^3)$ .
  - Linear cost is ok, having O(d) is ok.
  - Sublinear cost is great, having  $O(\log(d))$  is great.
- Ideal algorithm: superlinear convergence and sublinear iteration cost.

# Summary

- Error on iteration t of O(1/t) for functions that are bounded below.
  - Implies that we need  $t = O(1/\epsilon)$  iterations to have  $\|\nabla f(x^k)\|^2 \le \epsilon$ .
- Convergence to global min for non-convex (slow) and convex (faster) functions.
  - Nesterov's accelerated gradient method has better bound than gradient descent.
- Iteration complexity measures number of iterations to reach accuracy  $\epsilon$ .
- Sublinear/linear/superlinear convergence measure speed of convergence.
- Post-lecture slides: Cover various related issues.
  - $\bullet$  L for logistic regression, non-convex iteration complexity, smoothing non-smooth?
- Next time: didn't I say that regularization makes gradient descent go faster?

# Digression: Logistic Regression Gradient and Hessian

• With some tedious manipulations, gradient for logistic regression is

$$\nabla f(w) = X^T r.$$

where vector r has  $r_i = -y^i h(-y^i w^T x^i)$  and h is the sigmoid function.

- We know the gradient has this form from the multivariate chain rule.
  - Functions for the form f(Xw) always have  $\nabla f(w) = X^T r$  (see bonus slide).
- With some more tedious manipulations we get

$$\nabla^2 f(w) = X^T D X.$$

where D is a diagonal matrix with  $d_{ii} = h(y_i w^T x^i) h(-y^i w^T x^i)$ .

- The f(Xw) structure leads to a  $X^TDX$  Hessian structure.
- For other problems D may not be diagonal.

# Convexity of Logistic Regression

Logistic regression Hessian is

$$\nabla^2 f(w) = X^T D X.$$

where D is a diagonal matrix with  $d_{ii} = h(y_i w^T x^i) h(-y^i w^T x^i)$ .

ullet Since the sigmoid function is non-negative, we can compute  $D^{rac{1}{2}}$ , and

$$v^T X^T D X v = v^T X^T D^{\frac{1}{2}} D^{\frac{1}{2}} X v = (D^{\frac{1}{2}} X v)^T (D^{\frac{1}{2}} X v) = \|X D^{\frac{1}{2}} v\|^2 \ge 0,$$

so  $X^TDX$  is positive semidefinite and logistic regression is convex.

• It becomes strictly convex if you add L2-regularization, making solution unique.

# Lipschitz Continuity of Logistic Regression Gradient

• Logistic regression Hessian is

$$\nabla^2 f(w) = \sum_{i=1}^n \underbrace{h(y_i w^T x^i) h(-y^i w^T x^i)}_{d_{ii}} x^i (x^i)^T$$

$$\leq 0.25 \sum_{i=1}^n x^i (x^i)^T$$

$$= 0.25 X^T X.$$

- In the second line we use that  $h(\alpha) \in (0,1)$  and  $h(-\alpha) = 1 \alpha$ .
  - This means that  $d_{ii} \leq 0.25$ .
- So for logistic regression, we can take  $L = \frac{1}{4} \max\{\text{eig}(X^TX)\}.$

#### Multivariate Chain Rule

• If  $g: \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ , then h(x) = f(g(x)) has gradient

$$\nabla h(x) = \nabla g(x)^T \nabla f(g(x)),$$

where  $\nabla g(x)$  is the Jacobian (since g is multi-output).

• If g is an affine map  $x \mapsto Ax + b$  so that h(x) = f(Ax + b) then we obtain

$$\nabla h(x) = A^T \nabla f(Ax + b).$$

• Further, for the Hessian we have

$$\nabla^2 h(x) = A^T \nabla^2 f(Ax + b) A.$$

## First-Order Oracle Model of Computation

- Should we be happy with an algorithm that takes  $O(\log(1/\epsilon))$  iterations?
  - Is it possible that algorithms exist that solve the problem faster?
- To answer questions like this, need a class of functions.
  - For example, strongly-convex with Lipschitz-continuous gradient.
- We also need a model of computation: what operations are allowed?
- We will typically use a first-order oracle model of computation:
  - On iteration k, algorithm choose an  $x^k$  and receives  $f(x^k)$  and  $\nabla f(x^k)$ .
  - To choose  $x^k$ , algorithm can do anything that doesn't involve f.
- Common variation is zero-order oracle where algorithm only receives  $f(x^k)$ .

# Complexity of Minimizing Real-Valued Functions

Consider minimizing real-valued functions over the unit hyper-cube,

$$\min_{x \in [0,1]^d} f(x).$$

- You can use any algorithm you want.
   (simulated annealing, gradient descent + random restarts, genetic algorithms, Bayesian optimization,...)
- How many zero-order oracle calls t before we can guarantee  $f(x^t) f(x^*) \le \epsilon$ ?
   Impossible!
- Given any algorithm, we can construct an f where  $f(x^k) f(x^*) > \epsilon$  forever.
  - $\bullet \ \ {\rm Make} \ f(x) = 0 \ {\rm except \ at} \ x^* \ {\rm where} \ f(x) = -\epsilon 2^{\rm whatever}.$

(the  $x^*$  is algorithm-specific)

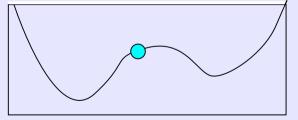
• To say anything in oracle model we need assumptions on f.

 $\bullet$  One of the simplest assumptions is that f is Lipschitz-continuous,

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le L||x - y||.$$

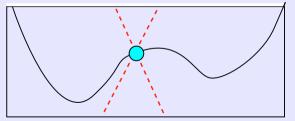
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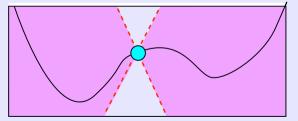
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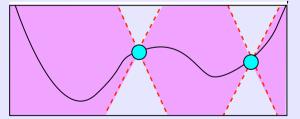
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ullet One of the simplest assumptions is that f is Lipschitz-continuous,

$$|f(x) - f(y)| \le L||x - y||.$$

- ullet Function can't change arbitrarily fast as you change x.
- ullet Under only this assumption, any algorithm requires at least  $\Omega(1/\epsilon^d)$  iterations.
- ullet An optimal  $O(1/\epsilon^d)$  worst-case rate is achieved by a grid-based search method.
- You can also achieve optimal rate in expectation by random guesses.
  - Lipschitz-continuity implies there is a ball of  $\epsilon$ -optimal solutions around  $x^*$ .
  - The radius of the ball is  $\Omega(\epsilon)$  so its area is  $\Omega(\epsilon^d)$ .
  - ullet If we succeed with probability  $\Omega(\epsilon^d)$ , we expect to need  $O(1/\epsilon^d)$  trials.

(mean of geometric random variable)

# Complexity of Minimizing Convex Functions

- Life gets better if we assume convexity.
  - ullet We'll consider first-order oracles and rates with no dependence on d.
- Subgradient methods (next week) can minimize convex functions in  $O(1/\epsilon^2)$ .
  - This is optimal in dimension-independent setting.
- If the gradient is Lipschitz continuous, gradient descent requires  $O(1/\epsilon)$ .
  - With Nesterov's algorithm, this improves to  $O(1/\sqrt{\epsilon})$  which is optimal.
  - Here we don't yet have strong-convexity.
- What about the CPSC 340 approach of smoothing non-smooth functions?
  - Gradient descent still requires  $O(1/\epsilon^2)$  in terms of solving original problem.
  - Nesterov improves to  $O(1/\epsilon)$  in terms of original problem.