# Mathematics of Deep Learning 

Non-convex optimization

Lessons: Kevin Scaman

## Dauphine $\mid$ PSL

## Class overview

1. Introduction and general overview 03/01
2. Non-convex optimization 10/01
3. Structure of ReLU networks and group invariances

17/01
4. Approximation guarantees 24/01
5. Stability and robustness 31/01
6. Infinite width limit of NNs 07/02
7. Generative models 14/02
8. Exam 21/02

## First-order optimization

Gradient descent and co.

## First-order optimization

- Find a minimizer $\theta^{\star} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ of a given objective function $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$,

$$
\theta^{\star} \in \underset{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{d}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \mathcal{L}(\theta)
$$

- Using an iterative algorithm relying on the gradient $\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)$ at each iteration $t \geqslant 0$.

source: https://distill.pub/2017/momentum/


## First-order optimization

## Iterative optimization algorithms

- Initialization: $\theta_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ (important in practice!).
- Iteration: Usually $\theta_{t+1}=\varphi_{t}\left(\theta_{t}, \nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right), s_{t}\right)$ where $s_{t}$ is a hidden variable that is also updated at each iteration.
- Stopping time: $T>0$ (also important in practice!).


## First-order optimization

## Iterative optimization algorithms

- Initialization: $\theta_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ (important in practice!).
- Iteration: Usually $\theta_{t+1}=\varphi_{t}\left(\theta_{t}, \nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right), s_{t}\right)$ where $s_{t}$ is a hidden variable that is also updated at each iteration.
- Stopping time: $T>0$ (also important in practice!).


## Main difficulties in neural network training

## First-order optimization

## Iterative optimization algorithms

- Initialization: $\theta_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ (important in practice!).
- Iteration: Usually $\theta_{t+1}=\varphi_{t}\left(\theta_{t}, \nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right), s_{t}\right)$ where $s_{t}$ is a hidden variable that is also updated at each iteration.
- Stopping time: $T>0$ (also important in practice!).


## Main difficulties in neural network training

- Non-convexity: If $\mathcal{L}$ is convex, i.e. $\forall \theta, \theta^{\prime}, \mathcal{L}\left(\frac{\theta+\theta^{\prime}}{2}\right) \leqslant \frac{\mathcal{L}(\theta)+\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\prime}\right)}{2}$, the optimization problem is simple. Most theoretical results use this assumption to prove convergence.


## First-order optimization

## Iterative optimization algorithms

- Initialization: $\theta_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ (important in practice!).
- Iteration: Usually $\theta_{t+1}=\varphi_{t}\left(\theta_{t}, \nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right), s_{t}\right)$ where $s_{t}$ is a hidden variable that is also updated at each iteration.
- Stopping time: $T>0$ (also important in practice!).


## Main difficulties in neural network training

- Non-convexity: If $\mathcal{L}$ is convex, i.e. $\forall \theta, \theta^{\prime}, \mathcal{L}\left(\frac{\theta+\theta^{\prime}}{2}\right) \leqslant \frac{\mathcal{L}(\theta)+\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\prime}\right)}{2}$, the optimization problem is simple. Most theoretical results use this assumption to prove convergence.
- High dimensionality: number of parameters $d \gg 1000$.


## Iterative optimization algorithms

- Initialization: $\theta_{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ (important in practice!).
- Iteration: Usually $\theta_{t+1}=\varphi_{t}\left(\theta_{t}, \nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right), s_{t}\right)$ where $s_{t}$ is a hidden variable that is also updated at each iteration.
- Stopping time: $T>0$ (also important in practice!).


## Main difficulties in neural network training

- Non-convexity: If $\mathcal{L}$ is convex, i.e. $\forall \theta, \theta^{\prime}, \mathcal{L}\left(\frac{\theta+\theta^{\prime}}{2}\right) \leqslant \frac{\mathcal{L}(\theta)+\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\prime}\right)}{2}$, the optimization problem is simple. Most theoretical results use this assumption to prove convergence.
- High dimensionality: number of parameters $d \gg 1000$.
- Access to the gradient: the gradient of $\mathcal{L}$ is too expensive to compute! In practice, $\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)$ is replaced by a stochastic or mini-batch approximation $\widetilde{\nabla}_{t}$.


## Loss landscape

Training a neural network requires solving a difficult non-convex optimization problem

$$
\min _{\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{d}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ell\left(g_{\theta}\left(x_{i}\right), y_{i}\right)
$$

Ex: loss landscape around the optimum for ResNet-56 trained on CIFAR10.

(a) without skip connections

(b) with skip connections
source: Visualizing the Loss Landscape of Neural Nets. Li et.al., 2018.

## Types of irregularities

- Non-convexity,


## Types of irregularities

- Non-convexity,
- Multiple local minima,


## Types of irregularities

- Non-convexity,
- Multiple local minima,
- Spurious stationary points (e.g. saddle points),


## Types of irregularities

- Non-convexity,
- Multiple local minima,
- Spurious stationary points (e.g. saddle points),
- Sharp variations (high curvature),


## Types of irregularities

- Non-convexity,
- Multiple local minima,
- Spurious stationary points (e.g. saddle points),
- Sharp variations (high curvature),
- Local explosion (large values),


## Types of irregularities

- Non-convexity,
- Multiple local minima,
- Spurious stationary points (e.g. saddle points),
- Sharp variations (high curvature),
- Local explosion (large values),
- Plateaux (flat regions),


## Types of irregularities

- Non-convexity,
- Multiple local minima,
- Spurious stationary points (e.g. saddle points),
- Sharp variations (high curvature),
- Local explosion (large values),
- Plateaux (flat regions),
- ...

In general, the regularity of the objective will depend on the architecture of the neural network, and part of DL research is devoted to finding architecture that are easy to train.

- Should provide fast gradient computation for composition of modules.
- Should explain performances of non-convex SGD (and its variants).
- Should work in high-dimensional spaces.
- Should extend to non-smooth objectives.
- Should have assumptions that are reasonable for neural networks.


## Next steps

1. Understand how the gradient is computed in Pytorch.
2. Understand why stochastic gradient works.

## Some warnings about optimization in deep learning

Our final goal is to reduce the population risk, i.e. $\mathbb{E}\left(\ell\left(g_{\theta}(X), Y\right)\right)$ !

- We need to pay attention to overfitting in addition to using the optimization algorithm to reduce the training error.
- In this class, we focus specifically on the performance of the optimization algorithm in minimizing the objective function, rather than the model's generalization error.
- In the next lessons, we will see techniques to avoid overfitting.


## Automatic differentiation

## A short recap on differentiating composite functions

## Existing approaches to compute gradients

- Finite differences: small perturbations $g^{\prime}(x) \approx \frac{g(x+\varepsilon)-g(x)}{\varepsilon}$. Leads to round-off errors.


## Existing approaches to compute gradients

- Finite differences: small perturbations $g^{\prime}(x) \approx \frac{g(x+\varepsilon)-g(x)}{\varepsilon}$. Leads to round-off errors.
- Symbolic differentiation: keeps symbolic expressions at each step of the process.


## Existing approaches to compute gradients

- Finite differences: small perturbations $g^{\prime}(x) \approx \frac{g(x+\varepsilon)-g(x)}{\varepsilon}$. Leads to round-off errors.
- Symbolic differentiation: keeps symbolic expressions at each step of the process.
- Automatic differentiation: clever use of the chain rule.


## Existing approaches to compute gradients

- Finite differences: small perturbations $g^{\prime}(x) \approx \frac{g(x+\varepsilon)-g(x)}{\varepsilon}$. Leads to round-off errors.
- Symbolic differentiation: keeps symbolic expressions at each step of the process.
- Automatic differentiation: clever use of the chain rule.

Chain rule (simple version)
Let $f, g: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ differentiable, then

$$
(f \circ g)^{\prime}=\left(f^{\prime} \circ g\right) \cdot g^{\prime}
$$

## Recap: derivatives of multi-dimensional functions

## Definition (Jacobian matrix)

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ a differentiable function. Its Jacobian $J_{f}(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is the matrix whose coordinates are the partial derivatives:

$$
J_{f}(x)=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\nabla f_{1}(x)^{\top} \\
\cdots \\
\nabla f_{m}(x)^{\top}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{\partial f_{1}(x)}{\partial x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{1}(x)}{\partial x_{n}} \\
\cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\
\frac{\partial f_{m}(x)}{\partial x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{m}(x)}{\partial x_{n}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Recap: derivatives of multi-dimensional functions

## Definition (Jacobian matrix)

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ a differentiable function. Its Jacobian $J_{f}(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$ is the matrix whose coordinates are the partial derivatives:

$$
J_{f}(x)=\left[\begin{array}{c}
\nabla f_{1}(x)^{\top} \\
\cdots \\
\nabla f_{m}(x)^{\top}
\end{array}\right]=\left[\begin{array}{ccc}
\frac{\partial f_{1}(x)}{\partial x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{1}(x)}{\partial x_{n}} \\
\cdots & \cdots & \cdots \\
\frac{\partial f_{m}(x)}{\partial x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_{m}(x)}{\partial x_{n}}
\end{array}\right]
$$

## Chain rule (multi-dimensional version)

Let $f: \mathbb{R}^{n} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m}$ and $g: \mathbb{R}^{p} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{n}$ differentiable, then

$$
J_{f \circ g}=\left(J_{f} \circ g\right) \times J_{g}
$$

## Derivative of a composition of functions



Composite function

- Let $f^{(l)}: \mathbb{R}^{d^{(l-1)}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d^{(l)}}$ and $g(x)=g^{(L)}(x)$ where

$$
g^{(l)}(x)=f^{(l)} \circ \cdots \circ f^{(2)} \circ f^{(1)}(x)
$$

## Derivative of a composition of functions



## Composite function

- Let $f^{(l)}: \mathbb{R}^{d^{(l-1)}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d^{(l)}}$ and $g(x)=g^{(L)}(x)$ where

$$
g^{(l)}(x)=f^{(l)} \circ \cdots \circ f^{(2)} \circ f^{(1)}(x)
$$

- Then, the Jacobian matrix (i.e. matrix of derivatives) of $g$ is

$$
J_{g}(x)=J_{f^{(L)}}\left(g^{(L-1)}(x)\right) \times \cdots \times J_{f^{(2)}}\left(g^{(1)}(x)\right) \times J_{f^{(1)}}(x)
$$

## Derivative of a composition of functions



## Composite function

- Let $f^{(l)}: \mathbb{R}^{d^{(l-1)}} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{d^{(l)}}$ and $g(x)=g^{(L)}(x)$ where

$$
g^{(l)}(x)=f^{(l)} \circ \cdots \circ f^{(2)} \circ f^{(1)}(x)
$$

- Then, the Jacobian matrix (i.e. matrix of derivatives) of $g$ is

$$
J_{g}(x)=J_{f^{(L)}}\left(g^{(L-1)}(x)\right) \times \cdots \times J_{f^{(2)}}\left(g^{(1)}(x)\right) \times J_{f^{(1)}}(x)
$$

- What is the computational complexity to compute the Jacobian matrix?


## Computational complexity

## Finite differences

- The gradient of $g$ can be approximated by finite differences: $\nabla g(x)_{i} \approx \frac{g\left(x+\varepsilon e_{i}\right)-g(x)}{\varepsilon}$
- Computational complexity: proportional to input dimension.


## Computational complexity

## Finite differences

- The gradient of $g$ can be approximated by finite differences: $\nabla g(x)_{i} \approx \frac{g\left(x+\varepsilon e_{i}\right)-g(x)}{\varepsilon}$
- Computational complexity: proportional to input dimension.


## Matrix product

- We have $\nabla g(x)^{\top}=J_{L} \times \cdots \times J_{2} \times J_{1}$ where $J_{l}=J_{f^{(l)}}\left(g^{(l-1)}(x)\right)$.


## Computational complexity

## Finite differences

- The gradient of $g$ can be approximated by finite differences: $\nabla g(x)_{i} \approx \frac{g\left(x+\varepsilon e_{i}\right)-g(x)}{\varepsilon}$
- Computational complexity: proportional to input dimension.


## Matrix product

- We have $\nabla g(x)^{\top}=J_{L} \times \cdots \times J_{2} \times J_{1}$ where $J_{l}=J_{f^{(l)}}\left(g^{(l-1)}(x)\right)$.
- There are $(L-1)$ ! ways to compute this product of $L$ matrices.


## Computational complexity

## Finite differences

- The gradient of $g$ can be approximated by finite differences: $\nabla g(x)_{i} \approx \frac{g\left(x+\varepsilon e_{i}\right)-g(x)}{\varepsilon}$
- Computational complexity: proportional to input dimension.


## Matrix product

- We have $\nabla g(x)^{\top}=J_{L} \times \cdots \times J_{2} \times J_{1}$ where $J_{l}=J_{f^{(l)}}\left(g^{(l-1)}(x)\right)$.
- There are $(L-1)$ ! ways to compute this product of $L$ matrices.
- Forward propagation: Compute $\nabla g(x)^{\top}=\left(J_{L} \times\left(J_{L-1} \times \cdots \times\left(J_{2} \times J_{1}\right)\right)\right)$. Requires computation intensive matrix-matrix products.


## Computational complexity

## Finite differences

- The gradient of $g$ can be approximated by finite differences: $\nabla g(x)_{i} \approx \frac{g\left(x+\varepsilon e_{i}\right)-g(x)}{\varepsilon}$
- Computational complexity: proportional to input dimension.


## Matrix product

- We have $\nabla g(x)^{\top}=J_{L} \times \cdots \times J_{2} \times J_{1}$ where $J_{l}=J_{f^{(l)}}\left(g^{(l-1)}(x)\right)$.
- There are $(L-1)$ ! ways to compute this product of $L$ matrices.
- Forward propagation: Compute $\nabla g(x)^{\top}=\left(J_{L} \times\left(J_{L-1} \times \cdots \times\left(J_{2} \times J_{1}\right)\right)\right)$. Requires computation intensive matrix-matrix products.
- Backward propagation: Compute $\nabla g(x)^{\top}=\left(\left(\left(J_{L} \times J_{L-1}\right) \times \cdots \times J_{2}\right) \times J_{1}\right)$. If output is 1 -dimensional, only needs matrix-vector products!


## Which algorithm is faster?

Complexity for gradients of MLPs

- Let $g_{\theta}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ an MLP of width $w \geqslant d$ and depth $L \geqslant 1$.
- Function value:
- Finite differences:
- Forward propagation:
- Backward propagation:


## Which algorithm is faster?

## Complexity for gradients of MLPs

- Let $g_{\theta}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ an MLP of width $w \geqslant d$ and depth $L \geqslant 1$.
- Function value: $O\left(w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Finite differences:
- Forward propagation:
- Backward propagation:


## Which algorithm is faster?

## Complexity for gradients of MLPs

- Let $g_{\theta}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ an MLP of width $w \geqslant d$ and depth $L \geqslant 1$.
- Function value: $O\left(w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Finite differences: $O\left(d w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Forward propagation:
- Backward propagation:


## Which algorithm is faster?

## Complexity for gradients of MLPs

- Let $g_{\theta}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ an MLP of width $w \geqslant d$ and depth $L \geqslant 1$.
- Function value: $O\left(w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Finite differences: $O\left(d w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Forward propagation: $O\left(d w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Backward propagation:


## Which algorithm is faster?

## Complexity for gradients of MLPs

- Let $g_{\theta}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ an MLP of width $w \geqslant d$ and depth $L \geqslant 1$.
- Function value: $O\left(w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Finite differences: $O\left(d w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Forward propagation: $O\left(d w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Backward propagation: $O\left(w^{2} L\right)$ operations.


## Which algorithm is faster?

## Complexity for gradients of MLPs

- Let $g_{\theta}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ an MLP of width $w \geqslant d$ and depth $L \geqslant 1$.
- Function value: $O\left(w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Finite differences: $O\left(d w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Forward propagation: $O\left(d w^{2} L\right)$ operations.
- Backward propagation: $O\left(w^{2} L\right)$ operations.


## Intuition for gradients w.r.t. parameters

- Finite differences requires two function calls per parameter.
- Backprop requires $\mathbf{O}(1)$ function calls for the whole gradient.
- Interpretation as parameter testing:
- Each partial derivative w.r.t. a parameter indicates if this parameter can describe the data.
- With backprop, we can test all parameters at once.


## Computation graphs: intuition

Complex neural network architecture (e.g. AlphaFold)


## Computation graphs: intuition

Complex neural network architecture (e.g. AlphaFold)


Code (e.g. Python)


## Computation graphs: intuition

Complex neural network architecture (e.g. AlphaFold)


Code (e.g. Python)


Computation graph (DAG of mathematical operations)


## Computation graphs: formal definition

Definition (computation graph)

- Let $G=(V, E)$ be a directed acyclic graph (DAG) encoding a function $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.


## Computation graphs: formal definition

## Definition (computation graph)

- Let $G=(V, E)$ be a directed acyclic graph (DAG) encoding a function $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- Parameters: For any root $r \in R$, let $x^{(r)}=\theta^{(r)}$ be an input or parameter.


## Computation graphs: formal definition

## Definition (computation graph)

- Let $G=(V, E)$ be a directed acyclic graph (DAG) encoding a function $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- Parameters: For any root $r \in R$, let $x^{(r)}=\theta^{(r)}$ be an input or parameter.
- Layers: For any other node $v \in V / R$, let $x^{(v)}=f^{(v)}\left(\left(x^{(w)}\right)_{w \in \operatorname{Parents}(v)}\right)$.


## Computation graphs: formal definition

## Definition (computation graph)

- Let $G=(V, E)$ be a directed acyclic graph (DAG) encoding a function $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- Parameters: For any root $r \in R$, let $x^{(r)}=\theta^{(r)}$ be an input or parameter.
- Layers: For any other node $v \in V / R$, let $x^{(v)}=f^{(v)}\left(\left(x^{(w)}\right)_{w \in \operatorname{Parents}(v)}\right)$.
- Output: The output of the leaf node $x^{(f)}=\mathcal{L}(\theta) \in \mathbb{R}$ where $\theta=\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)_{r \in R}$.


## Computation graphs: formal definition

## Definition (computation graph)

- Let $G=(V, E)$ be a directed acyclic graph (DAG) encoding a function $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- Parameters: For any root $r \in R$, let $x^{(r)}=\theta^{(r)}$ be an input or parameter.
- Layers: For any other node $v \in V / R$, let $x^{(v)}=f^{(v)}\left(\left(x^{(w)}\right)_{w \in \operatorname{Parents}(v)}\right)$.
- Output: The output of the leaf node $x^{(f)}=\mathcal{L}(\theta) \in \mathbb{R}$ where $\theta=\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)_{r \in R}$.


## Properties

- Essentially all programmable functions can be decomposed this way.


## Computation graphs: formal definition

## Definition (computation graph)

- Let $G=(V, E)$ be a directed acyclic graph (DAG) encoding a function $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$.
- Parameters: For any root $r \in R$, let $x^{(r)}=\theta^{(r)}$ be an input or parameter.
- Layers: For any other node $v \in V / R$, let $x^{(v)}=f^{(v)}\left(\left(x^{(w)}\right)_{w \in \operatorname{Parents}(v)}\right)$.
- Output: The output of the leaf node $x^{(f)}=\mathcal{L}(\theta) \in \mathbb{R}$ where $\theta=\left(\theta^{(r)}\right)_{r \in R}$.


## Properties

- Essentially all programmable functions can be decomposed this way.
- Chain rule: partial gradient $\frac{\partial x^{(f)}}{\partial x^{(v)}}$ for a node $v \in V$ from that of its children.

$$
\frac{\partial x^{(f)}}{\partial x^{(v)}}=\sum_{w \in \operatorname{Children}(v)} \frac{\partial f^{(w)}\left(\left(x^{\left(w^{\prime}\right)}\right)_{w^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Parents}(w)}\right)^{\top}}{\partial x^{(v)}} \frac{\partial x^{(f)}}{\partial x^{(w)}}
$$

## The backpropagation algorithm (Rumelhart et al., 1986)

- Composed of 2 steps: a forward pass (FP) and a backward pass (BP).


## The backpropagation algorithm (Rumelhart et al., 1986)

- Composed of 2 steps: a forward pass (FP) and a backward pass (BP).
- FP: For all $r \in R$, let $y^{(r)}=x_{r}$ the inputs (or parameters), and, for all $v \in V / R$, we compute iteratively from roots to leaf,

$$
y^{(v)}=f^{(v)}\left(\left(y^{(w)}\right)_{w \in \operatorname{Parents}(v)}\right)
$$

## The backpropagation algorithm (Rumelhart et a.., 1986)

- Composed of 2 steps: a forward pass (FP) and a backward pass (BP).
- FP: For all $r \in R$, let $y^{(r)}=x_{r}$ the inputs (or parameters), and, for all $v \in V / R$, we compute iteratively from roots to leaf,

$$
y^{(v)}=f^{(v)}\left(\left(y^{(w)}\right)_{w \in \operatorname{Parents}(v)}\right)
$$

- BP: Let $z^{(f)}=1$ and, for $v \in V / F$, we compute iteratively from leaf to roots,

$$
z^{(v)}=\sum_{w \in \text { Children }(v)} \frac{\partial f^{(w)}\left(\left(y^{\left(w^{\prime}\right)}\right)_{w^{\prime} \in \operatorname{Parents}(w)}\right)^{\top}}{\partial x^{(v)}} z^{(w)}
$$

- Then, for all $r \in R$, we have $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial \theta^{(r)}}=z^{(r)}$.


## Non-convex optimization

Convergence to local/global minima

## Optimizing non-convex functions is hard.

## Assumptions

- The objective function is non-convex, differentiable and $\beta$-smooth, i.e. $\forall \theta, \theta^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$,

$$
\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta)-\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\prime}\right)\right\|_{2} \leqslant \beta\left\|\theta-\theta^{\prime}\right\|_{2}
$$

- We access unbiased noisy gradients $\widetilde{\nabla}_{t}$ where $\mathbb{E}\left(\widetilde{\nabla}_{t}\right)=\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)$ and $\operatorname{var}\left(\widetilde{\nabla}_{t}\right) \leqslant \sigma^{2}$.


## Optimizing non-convex functions is hard.

## Assumptions

- The objective function is non-convex, differentiable and $\beta$-smooth, i.e. $\forall \theta, \theta^{\prime} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$,

$$
\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta)-\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\prime}\right)\right\|_{2} \leqslant \beta\left\|\theta-\theta^{\prime}\right\|_{2}
$$

- We access unbiased noisy gradients $\tilde{\nabla}_{t}$ where $\mathbb{E}\left(\widetilde{\nabla}_{t}\right)=\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)$ and $\operatorname{var}\left(\widetilde{\nabla}_{t}\right) \leqslant \sigma^{2}$.


## Proposition (worst-case convergence to global optimum)

For any first-order algorithm, there exists a smooth function $\mathcal{L}$ such that approx. error is at least

$$
\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)=\Omega\left(t^{-2 / d}\right)
$$

This is prohibitive for large dimensional spaces (i.e. $d \geqslant 100$ )!

## Convergence of SGD... to a stationary point

## Theorem (convergence of non-convex SGD)

Let $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function and $\Delta=\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{0}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)$. Then, SGD with step-size $\eta \leqslant \frac{1}{\beta}$ achieves the error

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\min _{t \leqslant T}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \leqslant \frac{2 \Delta}{\eta T}+\beta \eta \sigma^{2}
$$

## Convergence of SGD... to a stationary point

## Theorem (convergence of non-convex SGD)

Let $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function and $\Delta=\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{0}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)$. Then, SGD with step-size $\eta \leqslant \frac{1}{\beta}$ achieves the error

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\min _{t \leqslant T}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \leqslant \frac{2 \Delta}{\eta T}+\beta \eta \sigma^{2}
$$

- Convergence in expectation implies cv. with high probability using Markov inequality.
- Convergence of the best iterate (i.e. smallest gradient norm). :(


## Convergence of SGD... to a stationary point

## Theorem (convergence of non-convex SGD)

Let $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function and $\Delta=\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{0}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)$. Then, SGD with step-size $\eta \leqslant \frac{1}{\beta}$ achieves the error

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\min _{t \leqslant T}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \leqslant \frac{2 \Delta}{\eta T}+\beta \eta \sigma^{2}
$$

- Convergence in expectation implies cv. with high probability using Markov inequality.
- Convergence of the best iterate (i.e. smallest gradient norm). :(
- Without noise, a constant step-size $\eta=1 / \beta$ is optimal.


## Convergence of SGD... to a stationary point

## Theorem (convergence of non-convex SGD)

Let $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function and $\Delta=\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{0}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)$. Then, SGD with step-size $\eta \leqslant \frac{1}{\beta}$ achieves the error

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\min _{t \leqslant T}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \leqslant \frac{2 \Delta}{\eta T}+\beta \eta \sigma^{2}
$$

- Convergence in expectation implies cv. with high probability using Markov inequality.
- Convergence of the best iterate (i.e. smallest gradient norm). :(
- Without noise, a constant step-size $\eta=1 / \beta$ is optimal.
- Gradient noise adds a constant term. If constant step-size, no convergence.


## Convergence of SGD... to a stationary point

## Theorem (convergence of non-convex SGD)

Let $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ be a smooth function and $\Delta=\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{0}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)$. Then, SGD with step-size $\eta \leqslant \frac{1}{\beta}$ achieves the error

$$
\mathbb{E}\left[\min _{t \leqslant T}\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right] \leqslant \frac{2 \Delta}{\eta T}+\beta \eta \sigma^{2}
$$

- Convergence in expectation implies cv. with high probability using Markov inequality.
- Convergence of the best iterate (i.e. smallest gradient norm). :(
- Without noise, a constant step-size $\eta=1 / \beta$ is optimal.
- Gradient noise adds a constant term. If constant step-size, no convergence.
- Convergence only possible for decreasing step-sizes, with optimal cv. in $O(1 / \sqrt{T})$.


## Convergence to a local minimum

## How to obtain local minimum?

- A local minimum can be defined using second order derivatives:

1. Stationarity: $\nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta)=0$
2. Convexity: the Hessian $H_{\mathcal{L}}(x)$ is SDP.

## Convergence to a local minimum

## How to obtain local minimum?

- A local minimum can be defined using second order derivatives:

1. Stationarity: $\nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta)=0$
2. Convexity: the Hessian $H_{\mathcal{L}}(x)$ is SDP.

## Convergence to a local minimum (Jin et.al., 2017)

- Adding a small noise allows the parameter to escape saddle points.
- Additional assumption: the Hessian $H_{\mathcal{L}}$ is $\rho$-Lipschitz w.r.t. spectral norm.
- With probability at least $1-\delta$, the number of iterations to reach a gradient norm $\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\| \leqslant \varepsilon$ and near-convexity $\lambda_{1}\left(H_{\mathcal{L}}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right) \geqslant-\sqrt{\rho \varepsilon}$ is bounded by

$$
O\left(\frac{\beta \Delta}{\varepsilon^{2}} \log \left(\frac{d \beta \Delta}{\varepsilon \delta}\right)^{4}\right)
$$

- The loss landscape of DL training is non-convex and potentially difficult to optimize.
- Convergence to a global minimum prohibitive in high-dimensional spaces.
- GD converges to a stationary point with constant step-sizes.
- SGD converges (more slowly) to a stationary point with decreasing step-sizes.
- Adding noise is necessary to converge to a local minimum (Jin et.al., 2017).
- The loss landscape of DL training is non-convex and potentially difficult to optimize.
- Convergence to a global minimum prohibitive in high-dimensional spaces.
- GD converges to a stationary point with constant step-sizes.
- SGD converges (more slowly) to a stationary point with decreasing step-sizes.
- Adding noise is necessary to converge to a local minimum (Jin et.al., 2017).
- We need stronger assumptions on the objective function to go beyond...


## Beyond local minimisation

## The Łojasiewicz condition

## A look at the proof of convergence of SGD

- By smoothness, we have, for $\theta_{t+1}=\theta_{t}-\eta G_{t}$,

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t+1}\right)\right)-\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right) \leqslant-\eta\left(1-\frac{\beta \eta}{2}\right) \mathbb{E}\left(\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right)+\frac{\beta \eta^{2} \sigma^{2}}{2}
$$

## A look at the proof of convergence of SGD

- By smoothness, we have, for $\theta_{t+1}=\theta_{t}-\eta G_{t}$,

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t+1}\right)\right)-\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right) \leqslant-\eta\left(1-\frac{\beta \eta}{2}\right) \mathbb{E}\left(\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right)+\frac{\beta \eta^{2} \sigma^{2}}{2}
$$

- If the gradient is large, then the gradient step improves the function value.


## A look at the proof of convergence of SGD

- By smoothness, we have, for $\theta_{t+1}=\theta_{t}-\eta G_{t}$,

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t+1}\right)\right)-\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right) \leqslant-\eta\left(1-\frac{\beta \eta}{2}\right) \mathbb{E}\left(\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right)+\frac{\beta \eta^{2} \sigma^{2}}{2}
$$

- If the gradient is large, then the gradient step improves the function value.
- When $\mathcal{L}$ is $\alpha$-strongly convex, we have $\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2} \geqslant 2 \alpha\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)\right)$.


## A look at the proof of convergence of SGD

- By smoothness, we have, for $\theta_{t+1}=\theta_{t}-\eta G_{t}$,

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t+1}\right)\right)-\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right) \leqslant-\eta\left(1-\frac{\beta \eta}{2}\right) \mathbb{E}\left(\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2}\right)+\frac{\beta \eta^{2} \sigma^{2}}{2}
$$

- If the gradient is large, then the gradient step improves the function value.
- When $\mathcal{L}$ is $\alpha$-strongly convex, we have $\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2} \geqslant 2 \alpha\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)\right)$.
- If $\eta \leqslant 1 / \beta$, this implies, for $\varepsilon_{t}=\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right)-\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)\right)$,

$$
\varepsilon_{t+1} \leqslant(1-\alpha \eta) \varepsilon_{t}+\frac{\beta \eta^{2} \sigma^{2}}{2}
$$

## The Polyak-Lojasiewicz condition

## Definition (Polyak \& Łojasiewicz, 1963)

A function $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to verify the $\mu$-Polyak-Łojasiewicz (PL) condition iff

$$
\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2} \geqslant 2 \mu\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)\right)
$$

where $\theta^{\star} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is a global minimum of the function $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mu>0$ is a constant.

## The Polyak-Lojasiewicz condition

## Definition (Polyak \& Łojasiewicz, 1963)

A function $\mathcal{L}: \mathbb{R}^{d} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is said to verify the $\mu$-Polyak-Łojasiewicz (PL) condition iff

$$
\left\|\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)\right\|^{2} \geqslant 2 \mu\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{t}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)\right)
$$

where $\theta^{\star} \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$ is a global minimum of the function $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mu>0$ is a constant.

## Theorem (convergence of SGD under $\mu$-PL)

If $\mathcal{L}$ is $\beta$-smooth and verifies the PL condition, then, with $\eta \leqslant \frac{1}{\beta}$, SGD achieves the precision

$$
\mathbb{E}\left(\mathcal{L}\left(\theta_{T}\right)-\mathcal{L}\left(\theta^{\star}\right)\right) \leqslant \Delta(1-\mu \eta)^{T}+\frac{\beta \eta \sigma^{2}}{2 \mu}
$$

Exponential convergence rate $O\left(e^{-T}\right)$ without noise, and $O(\ln (T) / T)$ otherwise.

## Beyond strongly convex functions

Is the PL condition satisfied for more than strongly-convex functions?

## Examples

- For $\mathcal{L}(\theta)=\left(\theta_{1}-\cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)\right)^{2}$, we have $\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta)\|^{2}=$


## Beyond strongly convex functions

Is the PL condition satisfied for more than strongly-convex functions?

## Examples

- For $\mathcal{L}(\theta)=\left(\theta_{1}-\cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)\right)^{2}$, we have $\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta)\|^{2}=4 \mathcal{L}(\theta)\left(1+\sin \left(\theta_{2}\right)^{2}\right) \geqslant 4 \mathcal{L}(\theta)$.


## Beyond strongly convex functions

Is the PL condition satisfied for more than strongly-convex functions?

## Examples

- For $\mathcal{L}(\theta)=\left(\theta_{1}-\cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)\right)^{2}$, we have $\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta)\|^{2}=4 \mathcal{L}(\theta)\left(1+\sin \left(\theta_{2}\right)^{2}\right) \geqslant 4 \mathcal{L}(\theta)$.
- More gl. if $\mathcal{L}(\theta)=g(\theta)^{2}$ and $\|\nabla g(\theta)\| \geqslant c$ for any $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, then $\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta)\|^{2} \geqslant 4 c^{2} \mathcal{L}(\theta)$.


## Beyond strongly convex functions

Is the PL condition satisfied for more than strongly-convex functions?

## Examples

- For $\mathcal{L}(\theta)=\left(\theta_{1}-\cos \left(\theta_{2}\right)\right)^{2}$, we have $\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta)\|^{2}=4 \mathcal{L}(\theta)\left(1+\sin \left(\theta_{2}\right)^{2}\right) \geqslant 4 \mathcal{L}(\theta)$.
- More gl. if $\mathcal{L}(\theta)=g(\theta)^{2}$ and $\|\nabla g(\theta)\| \geqslant c$ for any $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$, then $\|\nabla \mathcal{L}(\theta)\|^{2} \geqslant 4 c^{2} \mathcal{L}(\theta)$.


## Theorem (PL condition for compositions)

Let $\mathcal{L}(\theta)=(f \circ g)(\theta)$ where $f$ satisfies the $\mu$-PL condition and $g$ is such that, $\forall \theta \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$

$$
\sigma_{\min }\left(J_{g}(\theta)^{\top}\right) \geqslant \varepsilon
$$

where $\sigma_{\min }(M)=\min _{x \neq 0}\|M x\| /\|x\|$ is the smallest singular value of the matrix $M$. Then $\mathcal{L}$ verifies the $\mu^{\prime}$-PL condition with $\mu^{\prime}=\mu \varepsilon^{2}$.

## PL for neural networks

## Theorem (PL condition for MSE loss)

Let $\mathcal{L}(\theta)=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ell\left(g_{\theta}\left(x_{i}\right), y_{i}\right)$ where $\ell\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}$ and the model $g_{\theta}$ is such that

$$
\sigma_{\min }\left(\left(J_{g, \theta}\left(x_{1}, \theta\right)^{\top}|\cdots| J_{g, \theta}\left(x_{N}, \theta\right)^{\top}\right)\right) \geqslant \varepsilon
$$

then $\mathcal{L}$ verifies the $\mu$-PL condition with $\mu=4 \varepsilon^{2} / N$.

## PL for neural networks

## Theorem (PL condition for MSE loss)

Let $\mathcal{L}(\theta)=\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ell\left(g_{\theta}\left(x_{i}\right), y_{i}\right)$ where $\ell\left(y, y^{\prime}\right)=\left\|y-y^{\prime}\right\|_{2}^{2}$ and the model $g_{\theta}$ is such that

$$
\sigma_{\min }\left(\left(J_{g, \theta}\left(x_{1}, \theta\right)^{\top}|\cdots| J_{g, \theta}\left(x_{N}, \theta\right)^{\top}\right)\right) \geqslant \varepsilon
$$

then $\mathcal{L}$ verifies the $\mu$-PL condition with $\mu=4 \varepsilon^{2} / N$.

- For over-parameterized neural networks, this quantity is usually controlled for $\theta=\theta_{0}$ (if the weights are properly initialized, see lesson 5), and valid on a neighborhood around initialization (linked with the Neural Tangent Kernel, see lesson 6). For example, uniform conditioning (Liu et al., 2020) assumes that the singular value is lower bounded for all $\theta \in \mathcal{B}\left(\theta_{0}, R\right)$.
- The loss lanscape of DL training is non-convex and potentially difficult to optimize.
- Convergence to a global minimum for any smooth function is prohibitive in high-dimensional spaces (exponential in $d / 2$ ).
- SGD (+ noise) can converge, within an error $\varepsilon>0$, to a local minimum of any smooth function in roughly $O\left(\varepsilon^{-2}\right)$ iterations.
- By relaxing the convexity constraint to a PL condition, one can obtain convergence to the global optimum.
- The PL condition is verified for neural networks whose singular values of the Jacobian are bounded from below.

