Statistical Models & Computing Methods

Lecture 3: Advanced Gradient Descent



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Overview

- ▶ While gradient descent is simple and intuitive, it has many problems as well.
 - Saddle-point problem
 - ▶ Not applicable to non-differentiable objectives
 - ► Could be slow
 - ▶ How to scale to big data problems
- ▶ In this lecture, we will discuss some advanced techniques that can alleviate these problems



▶ Introduced in 1964 by Polyak, momentum method is a technique that can accelerate gradient descent by taking accounts of previous gradients in the update rule at each iteration.

$$m^{(k)} = \mu m^{(k-1)} + (1-\mu)\nabla f(x^{(k)})$$
$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \alpha m^{(k)}$$

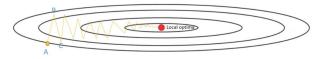
where $0 \le \mu < 1$

• When $\mu = 0$, gradient descent is recovered.

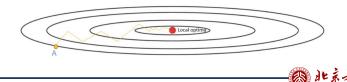


How Does Momentum Work?

▶ The vanilla gradient descent may suffer from oscillations when the magnitudes of gradient varies a lot across different directions.



► Using the exponential weighted gradient (momentum), those oscillations are more likely to be damped out, resulting in faster rate of convergence.



Nesterov's Acceleration

• Choose any initial $x^{(0)} = x^{(-1)}, \forall k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

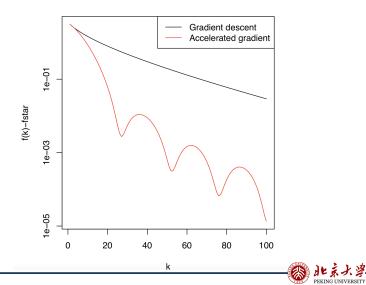
$$y = x^{(k-1)} + \frac{k-2}{k+1}(x^{(k-1)} - x^{(k-2)})$$
$$x^{(k)} = y - t_k \nabla f(y)$$

The first two steps are the usual gradient updates
 After that, y = x^(k-1) + k-2/k+1 (x^(k-1) - x^(k-2)) carries some "momentum" from previous iterations, and x^(k) = y - t_k∇f(y) uses *lookahead* gradient at y.



Example

Logistic regression



Convergence Rate of Gradient Methods

Assumptions

- f is convex and continuously differentiable on \mathbb{R}^n
- ▶ $\nabla f(x)$ is *L*-Lipschitz continuous w.r.t Euclidean norm: for any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

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

• optimal value $f^* = \inf_x f(x)$ is finite and attained at x^* .

Theorem: Gradient descent with $0 < t \le 1/L$ satisfies

$$f(x^{(k)}) - f^* \le \frac{1}{2kt} \|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2$$



Some Useful Lemma and Strong Convexity

▶ If f is L-smooth, then for any $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$f(y) \le f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{L}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

• If f is differentiable and m-strongly convex, then

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y - x) + \frac{m}{2} \|y - x\|^2$$

If m = 0, we cover the standard(weak) convexity

In other words, f is sandwiched between two quadratic functions



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► If
$$x^+ = x - t\nabla f(x)$$
 and $0 < t \le 1/L$
 $f(x^+) \le f(x) - t \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 + \frac{t^2 L}{2} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2$
 $\le f(x) - \frac{t}{2} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2$

► From convexity

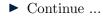
$$f(x) \le f^* + \nabla f(x)^T (x - x^*) - \frac{m}{2} ||x - x^*||^2$$

▶ Add the above two inequalities

$$f(x^{+}) - f^{*} \leq \nabla f(x)^{T}(x - x^{*}) - \frac{t}{2} \|\nabla f(x)\|^{2} - \frac{m}{2} \|x - x^{*}\|^{2}$$



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$$\leq \frac{1}{2t} (\|x - x^*\|^2 - \|x^+ - x^*\|^2) - \frac{m}{2} \|x - x^*\|^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2t} \left((1 - mt) \|x - x^*\|^2 - \|x^+ - x^*\|^2 \right)$$
(1)
$$\leq \frac{1}{2t} (\|x - x^*\|^2 - \|x^+ - x^*\|^2)$$
(2)

▶ For gradient descent updates

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} (f(x^{(i)}) - f^*) \le \frac{1}{2t} \sum_{i=1}^{k} (\|x^{(i-1)} - x^*\|^2 - \|x^{(i)} - x^*\|^2)$$
$$= \frac{1}{2t} (\|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2 - \|x^{(k)} - x^*\|^2)$$



• Since $f(x^{(i)})$ is non-increasing

$$f(x^{(k)}) - f^* \le \frac{1}{2kt} \|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2$$

• If f is m-strongly convex, and m > 0, from (1)

$$|x^{(i)} - x^*||^2 \le (1 - mt) ||x^{(i-1)} - x^*||^2, \quad \forall i = 1, 2, \dots$$

▶ Therefore

$$||x^{(k)} - x^*||^2 \le (1 - mt)^k ||x^{(0)} - x^*||^2$$

i.e., linear convergence if f is strongly convex (m > 0)



Oracle Lower Bound of First-order Methods

▶ First order method: any iterative algorithm that selects $x^{(k+1)}$ in the set

$$x^{(0)} + \operatorname{span}\{\nabla f(x^{(0)}), \nabla f(x^{(1)}), \dots, \nabla f(x^{(k)})\}$$

▶ Theorem (Nesterov): for every integer $k \le (n-1)/2$ and every $x^{(0)}$, there exist functions that satisfy the assumptions such that for any first-order method

$$f(x^{(k)}) - f^* \ge \frac{3}{32} \frac{L ||x_0 - x^*||^2}{(k+1)^2}$$

► Therefore, 1/k² is the best convergence rate for all first-order methods.



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• Accelerated gradient descent with fixed step size $t \leq 1/L$ satisfies

$$f(x^{(k)}) - f^* \le \frac{2\|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2}{t(k+1)^2}$$

Nesterov's accelerated gradient (NAG) descent achieve the oracle convergence rate of first-order methods!



Reformulation of NAG

Initialize
$$x^{(0)} = u^{(0)}$$
, and for $k = 1, 2, ...$
 $y = (1 - \theta_k)x^{(k-1)} + \theta_k u^{(k-1)}$
 $x^{(k)} = y - t_k \nabla f(y)$
 $u^{(k)} = x^{(k-1)} + \frac{1}{\theta_k}(x^{(k)} - x^{(k-1)})$

with $\theta_k = 2/(k+1)$.

▶ This is equivalent to the formulation of NAG presented earlier (slide 5), and makes convergence analysis easier



• If
$$y = (1 - \theta)x + \theta u$$
, $x^+ = y - t\nabla f(y)$, and $0 < t \le 1/L$
 $f(x^+) \le f(y) + \nabla f(y)^T (x^+ - y) + \frac{1}{2t} ||x^+ - y||^2$

▶ From convexity, $\forall z \in \mathbb{R}^n$

$$f(y) \le f(z) + \nabla f(y)^T (y - z)$$

► Add these together

$$f(x^{+}) \le f(z) + \frac{1}{t}(x^{+} - y)(z - x^{+}) + \frac{1}{2t} \|x^{+} - y\|^{2}$$
 (3)



• Let
$$u^+ = x + \frac{1}{\theta}(x^+ - x)$$
, using bound (3) at $z = x$ and $z = x^*$

$$f(x^{+}) - f^{*} - (1 - \theta)(f(x) - f^{*})$$

$$\leq \frac{1}{t}(x^{+} - y)^{T}(\theta x^{*} + (1 - \theta)x - x^{+}) + \frac{1}{2t}||x^{+} - y||^{2}$$

$$= \frac{\theta^{2}}{2t} \left(||u - x^{*}||^{2} - ||u^{+} - x^{*}||^{2}\right)$$

▶ *i.e.*, at iteration k

$$\frac{t}{\theta_k^2} (f(x^{(k)}) - f^*) + \frac{1}{2} ||u^{(k)} - x^*||^2
\leq \frac{(1 - \theta_k)t}{\theta_k^2} (f(x^{(k-1)}) - f^*) + \frac{1}{2} ||u^{(k-1)} - x^*||^2$$



► Using $(1 - \theta_i)/\theta_i^2 \le 1/\theta_{i-1}^2$, and iterating this inequality

$$\frac{t}{\theta_k^2} (f(x^{(k)}) - f^*) + \frac{1}{2} \|u^{(k)} - x^*\|^2
\leq \frac{(1 - \theta_1)t}{\theta_1^2} (f(x^{(0)}) - f^*) + \frac{1}{2} \|u^{(0)} - x^*\|^2
= \frac{1}{2} \|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2$$



$$f(x^{(k)}) - f^* \le \frac{\theta_k^2}{2t} \|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2 = \frac{2}{t(k+1)^2} \|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2$$



- Although the algebraic manipulations of the proof is beautiful, the acceleration effect in NAG has been mysterious and hard to understand
- Recent works reinterpreted the NAG algorithm from different point of views, including Zhu et al (2017) and Su et al (2014)
- ► Here we introduce the ODE explanation from Su et al (2014)



An ODE Explanation

▶ Su et al (2014) proposed an ODE based explanation where NAG can be viewed as a discretization of the following ordinary differential equation

$$\ddot{X} + \frac{3}{t}\dot{X} + \nabla f(X) = 0, \quad t > 0$$
 (4)

with initial conditions $X(0) = x^{(0)}, \dot{X}(0) = 0.$

▶ **Theorem** (Su et al): For any $f \in \mathcal{F}_{\infty} \triangleq \cap_{L>0} \mathcal{F}_L$ and any $x^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the ODE (4) with initial conditions $X(0) = x^{(0)}, \dot{X}(0) = 0$ has a unique global solution $X \in C^2((0,\infty); \mathbb{R}^n) \cap C^1([0,\infty); \mathbb{R}^n).$



Convergence Rate of The ODE Solution

▶ **Theorem** (Su et al): For any $f \in \mathcal{F}_{\infty}$, let X(t) be the unique global solution to (4) with initial conditions $X(0) = x^{(0)}, \dot{X}(0) = 0$. For any t > 0,

$$f(X(t)) - f^* \le \frac{2\|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2}{t^2}$$

▶ Consider the energy functional defined as

$$\mathcal{E}(t) \triangleq t^2(f(X(t)) - f^*) + 2\|X + \frac{t}{2}\dot{X} - x^*\|^2$$

▶ The derivative of the energy function is

$$\dot{\mathcal{E}} = 2t(f(X) - f^*) + t^2 \langle \nabla f, \dot{X} \rangle + 4 \langle X + \frac{t}{2} \dot{X} - x^*, \frac{3}{2} \dot{X} + \frac{t}{2} \ddot{X} \rangle$$



Convergence Rate of The ODE Solution

▶ Substituting $3\dot{X}/2 + t\ddot{X}/2$ with $-t\nabla f(X)/2$

$$\dot{\mathcal{E}} = 2t(f(X) - f^*) + 4\langle X - x^*, -\frac{t}{2}\nabla f(X)\rangle$$

= $2t(f(X) - f^*) - 2t\langle X - x^*, \nabla f(X)\rangle$
 ≤ 0

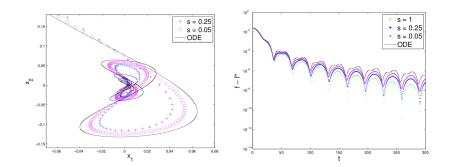
where the last inequality follows from the convexity of f. \blacktriangleright Therefore,

$$f(X(t)) - f^* \le \mathcal{E}(t)/t^2 \le \mathcal{E}(0)/t^2 = \frac{2\|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2}{t^2}$$



Example

$$f(x) = 0.02x_1^2 + 0.005x_2^2, \quad x^{(0)} = (1,1)$$





The objective in many unconstrained optimization problems can be split in two components

minimize
$$f(x) = g(x) + h(x)$$

• g is convex and differentiable on \mathbb{R}^n

 $\blacktriangleright\ h$ is convex and simple, but may be non-differentiable **Examples**

 \blacktriangleright Indicator function of closed convex set C

$$h(x) = \mathbf{1}_C(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \in C \\ +\infty, & x \notin C \end{cases}$$

► L_1 regularization (LASSO): $h(x) = ||x||_1$



Proximal Mapping

The **proximal mapping** (or **proximal-operator**) of a convex function h is defined as

$$\operatorname{prox}_{h}(x) = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{u} \left(h(u) + \frac{1}{2} \|u - x\|_{2}^{2} \right)$$

Examples

▶ $h(x) = ||x||_1$: prox_h is the "soft-threshold" (shrinkage) operation

$$\operatorname{prox}_{h}(x)_{i} = \begin{cases} x_{i} - 1 & x_{i} \ge 1\\ 0 & |x_{i}| \le 1\\ x_{i} + 1 & x_{i} \le -1 \end{cases}$$

Proximal gradient algorithm

$$x^{(k+1)} = \operatorname{prox}_{t_k h}(x^{(k)} - t_k \nabla g(x^{(k)})), \quad k = 0, 1, \dots$$

▶ Interpretation. If $x^+ = \text{prox}_{th}(x - t\nabla g(x))$, from the definition of proximal mapping

$$x^{+} = \arg\min_{u} \left(h(u) + \frac{1}{2t} \|u - x + t\nabla g(x)\|_{2}^{2} \right)$$

=
$$\arg\min_{u} \left(h(u) + g(x) + \nabla g(x)^{T} (u - x) + \frac{1}{2t} \|u - x\|_{2}^{2} \right)$$

▶ x^+ minimizes h(u) plus a simple quadratic local approximation of g(u) around x



Examples

• Gradient Descent: special case with h(x) = 0

$$x^+ = x - t\nabla g(x)$$

- ▶ Projected Gradient Descent: special case with $h(x) = \mathbf{1}_C(x)$ $x^+ = P_C(x - t\nabla q(x))$
- ▶ **ISTA** (Iterative Shrinkage-Thresholding Algorithm): special case with $h(x) = ||x||_1$

$$x^+ = \mathcal{S}_t(x - t\nabla g(x))$$

where

$$\mathcal{S}_t(u) = (|u| - t)_+ \operatorname{sign}(u)$$



Convergence Rate of Proximal Gradient Descent 27/45

• If h is convex and closed,

$$\operatorname{prox}_{h}(x) = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{u} \left(h(u) + \frac{1}{2} \|u - x\|_{2}^{2} \right)$$

exists and is unique for all x. Moreover, it has the following useful properties

$$u = \operatorname{prox}_{h}(x) \iff x - u \in \partial h(u)$$
$$\iff h(z) \ge h(u) + (x - u)^{T}(z - u), \ \forall z$$

▶ Proximal gradient descent has the same convergence rate as gradient descent when $0 < t \leq 1/L$

$$f(x^{(k)}) - f^* \le \frac{1}{2kt} \|x^{(0)} - x^*\|_2^2$$



Accelerated Proximal Gradient Descent

▶ Similarly, we can apply Nesterov's acceleration for proximal gradient descent. Choose any initial x⁽⁰⁾ = x⁽⁻¹⁾, ∀ k = 1,...

$$y = x^{(k-1)} + \frac{k-2}{k+1} (x^{(k-1)} - x^{(k-2)})$$
$$x^{(k)} = \operatorname{prox}_{t_k h} (y - t_k \nabla g(y))$$

▶ Convergence rate is the same with NAG if $0 < t \le 1/L$

$$f(x^{(k)}) - f^* \le \frac{2\|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2}{t(k+1)^2}$$

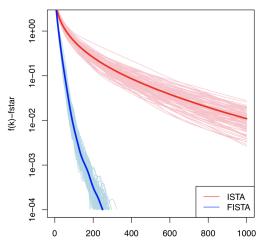
▶ When applied to LASSO, this is called **FISTA** (Fast Iterative Shrinkage-Thresholding Algorithm)



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Example: ISTA vs FISTA

LASSO Logistic regression: 100 instances





Stochastic Optimization

Consider the following stochastic optimization problem

$$\min_{x} f(x) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}(F(x,\xi)) = \int F(x,\xi)p(\xi)d\xi$$

• ξ is a random variable

► The challenge: evaluation of the expectation/integration **Example**

Supervised Learning

$$\min_{w} f(w) = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim D(x,y)}(\ell(h_w(x), y))$$

where D(x, y) is the data distribution, $\ell(\cdot, \cdot)$ is certain loss, w is the model parameter



Stochastic Gradient Descent

▶ Gradient descent with stochastic approximation (SA)

$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - t_k g(x^{(k)})$$

where $\mathbb{E}(g(x)) = \nabla f(x), \ \forall x$

• Example. Consider supervised learning with observations $\mathcal{D} = \{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^N$ $: f(x_i) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i, y_i) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N f(x_i, y$

$$\min_{w} f(w) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ell(h_w(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}))$$

 SGD

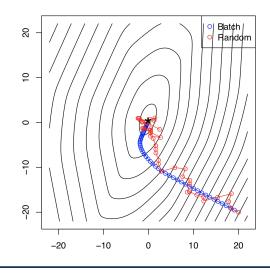
$$w^{(k+1)} = w^{(k)} - t_k \nabla \ell(h_w(x^{(i_k)}, y^{(i_k)}))$$

where $i_k \in \{1, \ldots, m\}$ is some chosen index at iteration k.



Example

Stochastic logistic regression





Convergence Rate of SGD

► Assume that $\mathbb{E}(||g(x)||^2) \le M^2$ and f(x) is convex

$$\mathbb{E}f(\tilde{x}^{[0:k]}) - f^* \le \frac{\|x^{(0)} - x^*\|_2^2 + M^2 \sum_{j=0}^k t_j^2}{2\sum_{j=0}^k t_k}$$

where $\tilde{x}^{[0:k]} = \sum_{j=1}^{k} t_j x^{(j)} / \sum_{j=1}^{k} t_j$

Fix the number of iterations K and constant step sizes $t_j = \frac{\|x^{(0)} - x^*\|}{M\sqrt{K}}, \ j = 0, 1, \dots, K$, we have

$$\mathbb{E}(f(\bar{x}^{K})) - f^{*} \leq \frac{\|x^{(0)} - x^{*}\|M}{\sqrt{K}}$$

where $\bar{x}^{K} = \frac{1}{K+1} \sum_{j=0}^{K} x^{(j)}$



By convexity, we have $f(x^{(k)}) - f^* \leq \nabla f(x^{(k)})^T (x^{(k)} - x^*)$

$$t_{k}\mathbb{E}(f(x^{(k)})) - t_{k}f^{*} \leq t_{k}\mathbb{E}(g(x^{(k)})^{T}(x^{(k)} - x^{*}))$$

= $\frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{E}||x^{(k)} - x^{*}||_{2}^{2} - \mathbb{E}||x^{(k+1)} - x^{*}||_{2}^{2}) + \frac{1}{2}t_{k}^{2}\mathbb{E}||g(x^{(k)})||_{2}^{2}$
 $\leq \frac{1}{2}(\mathbb{E}||x^{(k)} - x^{*}||_{2}^{2} - \mathbb{E}||x^{(k+1)} - x^{*}||_{2}^{2}) + \frac{1}{2}t_{k}^{2}M^{2}$

 $\forall k \geq 0$. Therefore

$$\sum_{j=0}^{k} t_j \mathbb{E}(f(x^{(j)})) - \sum_{j=0}^{k} t_j f^* \le \frac{1}{2} \|x^{(0)} - x^*\|_2^2 + \frac{M^2}{2} \sum_{j=0}^{k} t_j^2$$

Dividing both size with $\sum_{j=0}^{k} t_j$ together with convexity complete the proof



Pros and Cons of Vanilla SGD

What We Love About SGD

- Efficient in computation and memory usage, naturally scalable for big data problems
- Less likely to be trapped at local modes

What Needs to Be Improved

- ▶ In general, vanilla SGD is slow to converge (only 1/k even with strong convexity). Variance reduction seems to be a good remedy, see algorithms like SVRG, SAGA, etc.
- Choosing a proper learning rate can be difficult, require much effort in hyperparameter tuning to get good results
- ▶ The same learning rate applies to all parameter updates



• Assume that f can be related to a probabilistic model, *i.e.*

$$f(\theta) = -\mathbb{E}_{y \sim P_{data}} L(y|\theta) = -\mathbb{E}_{y \sim P_{data}} \log p(y|\theta)$$

Recall that Fisher information is defined as

$$\mathcal{I}(\theta) = \mathbb{E}_{y \sim p(y|\theta)} (\nabla L(y|\theta) (\nabla L(y|\theta))^T)$$
(5)

• We can use Fisher information to adapt the learning rate according to the local curvature. (5) inspire us to use some average of $g(\theta^{(t)})(g(\theta^{(t)}))^T$



Adaptive Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Previously, we performed an update for all parameters using the same learning rate
- Duchi et al (2011) proposed an improved version of SGD, AdaGrad, that adapts the learning rate to the parameters, according to the frequencies of their associated features
- Denote the vector of parameters as θ and the gradient at iteration t as g_t . Let η be the usual learning rate for SGD. AdaGrad's update rule:

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{G_t + \epsilon}} \odot g_t$$

where G_t is a diagonal matrix where each diagonal element is the sum of the squares of the corresponding gradients up to time step t



RMSprop

- ► A potential weakness about AdaGrad is its accumulation of the squared gradients in G_t, which in turn cause the learning rate to shrink and eventually become very small
- RMSprop (Geoff Hinton): resolve AdaGrad's diminishing learning rate via the exponentially decaying average

$$\mathbb{E}(g^2)_t = 0.9\mathbb{E}(g^2)_{t-1} + 0.1g_t^2$$
$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\mathbb{E}(g^2)_t + \epsilon}}g_t$$



Adam

- Presumably the most popular stochastic gradient methods in machine learning, proposed by D.P. Kingma et al (2014).
- ▶ In addition to the squared gradients, Adam also keeps an exponentially decaying average of the past gradients

$$m_t = \beta_1 m_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_1) g_t, \quad v_t = \beta_2 v_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_2) g_t^2$$

▶ Bias correction for zero initialization

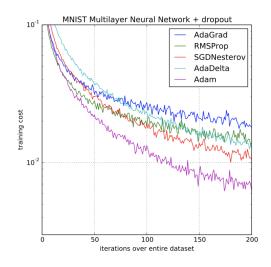
$$\hat{m}_t = \frac{m_t}{1 - \beta_1^t}, \quad \hat{v}_t = \frac{v_t}{1 - \beta_2^t}$$

► Adam uses the same update rule

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_t + \epsilon}} \hat{m}_t$$



Test on MNIST Images





Pros and Cons for Adaptive Methods

Pros

- ▶ Faster training speed and smoother learning curve
- ▶ Easier to choose hyperparameters
- ▶ Better when data are very sparse

Cons

- ▶ Worse performance on unseen data (Wilson et al., 2017)
- Convergence issue: non-decreasing learning rates, extreme learning rates

Some recent proposals for improvement: AMSGrad (Reddi et al., 2018), AdaBound (Luo et al., 2019), AdaBelief (Zhuang et al., 2020), etc.



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