Statistical Models & Computing Methods

Lecture 3: Advanced Gradient Descent



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Overview 2/45

▶ 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

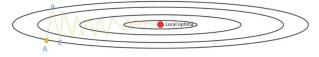
▶ Introduced in 1964 by Polyak, momentum method is a technique that can accelerate gradient descent by taking accounts of previous gradients in the update rule at each iteration.

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

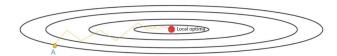
where $0 \le \mu < 1$

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

► 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.

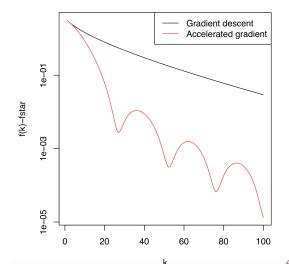


• Choose any initial $x^{(0)} = x^{(-1)}, \forall k = 1, 2, 3, ...$

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

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

Logistic regression



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 $x, y \in \mathbb{R}^n$

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

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

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

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



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

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

ightharpoonup 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

ightharpoonup In other words, f is sandwiched between two quadratic functions

▶ If $x^+ = x - t\nabla f(x)$ and 0 < t < 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

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

► Continue ...

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

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

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, $1/k^2$ is the best convergence rate for all first-order methods.



▶ Accelerated gradient descent with fixed step size $t \le 1/L$ 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!

► 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 $z = x^*$

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

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

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

 \blacktriangleright *i.e.*, at iteration k

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

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

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

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

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

$$= \frac{1}{2} \|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2$$

► Therefore

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



- ► 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)

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

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

$$\tag{4}$$

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 $X \in C^2((0,\infty); \mathbb{R}^n) \cap C^1([0,\infty); \mathbb{R}^n)$.



▶ 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

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



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

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

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

$$\leq 0$$

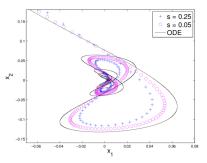
where the last inequality follows from the convexity of f.

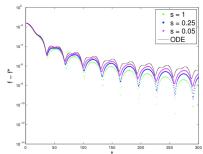
► Therefore,

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



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





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

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

- ightharpoonup g is convex and differentiable on \mathbb{R}^n
- \triangleright 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): $h(x) = ||x||_1$



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) = 0: $prox_h(x) = x$
- ▶ $h(x) = \mathbf{1}_C(x)$: prox_h is projection on C

$$\operatorname{prox}_h(x) = \underset{u \in C}{\operatorname{arg \, min}} \|u - x\|_2^2 = P_C(x)$$

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

$$prox_h(x)_i = \begin{cases} x_i - 1 & x_i \ge 1\\ 0 & |x_i| \le 1\\ x_i + 1 & x_i \le -1 \end{cases}$$



▶ Proximal gradient algorithm

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

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

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

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



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

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

▶ **Projected Gradient Descent**: special case with $h(x) = \mathbf{1}_C(x)$

$$x^{+} = P_{C}(x - t\nabla g(x))$$

▶ **ISTA** (Iterative Shrinkage-Thresholding Algorithm): special case with $h(x) = ||x||_1$

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

where

$$S_t(u) = (|u| - t) + \operatorname{sign}(u)$$



 \blacktriangleright If h is convex and closed,

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

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 $0 < t \le 1/L$

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



▶ Similarly, we can apply Nesterov's acceleration for proximal gradient descent. Choose any initial $x^{(0)} = x^{(-1)}$, $\forall k = 1, \ldots$

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

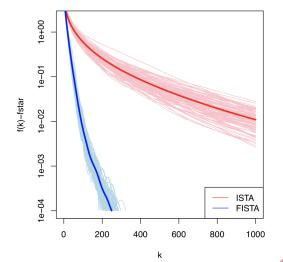
▶ Convergence rate is the same with NAG if $0 < t \le 1/L$

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

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



LASSO Logistic regression: 100 instances



Consider the following stochastic optimization problem

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

- $\triangleright \xi$ 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



► 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 $\mathcal{D} = \{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^N$

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

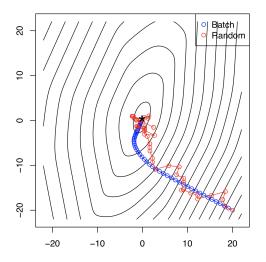
SGD

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

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



Stochastic logistic regression



▶ Assume that $\mathbb{E}(\|g(x)\|^2) \leq M^2$ 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

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

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



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

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

$$= \frac{1}{2} (\mathbb{E} \|x^{(k)} - x^*\|_2^2 - \mathbb{E} \|x^{(k+1)} - x^*\|_2^2) + \frac{1}{2} t_k^2 \mathbb{E} \|g(x^{(k)})\|_2^2$$

$$\le \frac{1}{2} (\mathbb{E} \|x^{(k)} - x^*\|_2^2 - \mathbb{E} \|x^{(k+1)} - x^*\|_2^2) + \frac{1}{2} t_k^2 M^2$$

 $\forall k \geq 0$. 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



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



ightharpoonup 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 $g(\theta^{(t)})(g(\theta^{(t)}))^T$

- ▶ 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



- ▶ 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 39/45

▶ 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

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

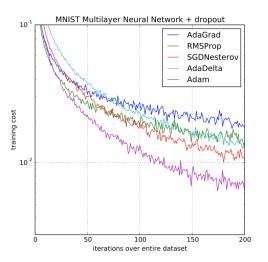
▶ Bias correction for zero initialization

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

► Adam uses the same update rule

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





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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