# lecture 2: function minimization STAT 545: Intro. to Computational Statistics

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## Global and local minima

Find minimum of some function  $f : \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}$ . (maximization is just minimizing *−f*).

No global information (e.g. only function values, derivatives).



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Finding global minima is hard! Usually settle for local minima.

Even finding local minima is not easy. Usually need iterative algorithms. (Exceptions?)

# Gradient descent (iterative method)

Consider 1-d case. Let *xold* be our current value.

Update  $x_{new}$  as  $x_{new} = x_{old} - \eta \frac{df}{dx}$  $\frac{\mathrm{d}f}{\mathrm{d}x}\Big|_{x_{old}}$ 

The steeper the slope, the bigger the move.

*η*: 'step-size' or 'learning rate'.

Choosing *η* requires care (not too large or too small):



Better methods adapt step-size according to the curvature of *f*.

### Gradient descent in higher-dimensions

 $\Delta$ lso applies to higher dimensions:  $x_{new} = x_{old} - \eta \nabla f|_{x_{old}}$ Again, need care choosing *η*

Alternately, at each step, set *η* by minimizing along *∇f*

*·* Note: even the optimal step-size *η* can be inefficient:



Save computation and find decent (rather than best) step-size

*·* What is decent? <sup>3</sup>*/*<sup>15</sup>

### WOLFE CONDITIONS TO DECIDE STEP-SIZE



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Avoid (1): Avg. decrease at least some fraction of initial rate:

$$
f(\mathbf{x} + \eta \mathbf{p}) \leq f(\mathbf{x}) + \eta c_1(\nabla f \cdot \mathbf{p}), \qquad c_1 \in (0, 1) \text{ e.g. } 0.1
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Avoid (2): Final rate is greater than some fraction of initial rate:

$$
\nabla f(\mathbf{x} + \eta \mathbf{p}) \cdot \mathbf{p} \ge c_2 \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{p}, \qquad c_2 \in (0, 1) \text{ e.g. } 0.9
$$

## WOLFE CONDITIONS



Permissible  $\delta x$ 's under condition 1

# WOLFE CONDITIONS



A simple way to satisfy Wolfe conditions:

Set 
$$
p = -\nabla f
$$
,  $c_1 = .1$ ,  $c_2 = .9$ 

Start with  $\eta = 1$ , and while condition *i* is not satisfied, set *n* =  $\beta_i \eta$  (for  $\beta_1 \in (0, 1), \beta_2 > 1$  and  $\beta_1 * \beta_2 < 1$ )

One way to understand/improve gradient descent is to view it as an approximation to 'gradient flow'.

Write x*<sup>t</sup>* for the position of a particle at time *t*, evolving as

$$
\frac{\mathrm{d} \mathbf{x}_t}{\mathrm{d} t} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t), \quad \text{for some initialization at } t = 0.
$$

x*<sup>t</sup>* converges to x *∗* , the minimum of *f* as *t* increases

*·* At minimum, *∇f*(x *∗* ) = 0.

Typically, not easy to solve the differential eq. for x*<sup>t</sup>*

Different algs can be seen as approximations to this ideal

#### Forward and backward methods

$$
\frac{\Delta \mathbf{x}_t}{\Delta t} \approx \frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{x}_t}{\mathrm{d}t} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t) \quad \text{(forward Euler approximation)}
$$
\n
$$
\implies \quad \mathbf{x}_{t+\Delta t} = \mathbf{x}_t - \Delta t \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t)
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This is just gradient descent with stepsize  $\eta = \Delta t$ 

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$$

Backward Euler approx  $\implies$   $x_{t+\Lambda t} = x_t - \Delta t \nabla f(x_{t+\Lambda t})$ 

For a step size *η*, the iterates are:

$$
\mathbf{x}_{i+1} = \mathbf{x}_i - \eta \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{i+1})
$$

The updates are implicit (**x**<sub>i+1</sub> is on both LHS and RHS). Why do we care?

## Backward Euler method

Backward method:  $\mathbf{x}_{i+1} = \mathbf{x}_i - \eta \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{i+1})$ 

Claim: this is the same as solving

$$
x_{i+1} = \arg \min f(x) + \frac{1}{2\eta}(x - x_i)^2
$$

Also called a proximal point method

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Now, we see that:

- *f*(x*i*+<sup>1</sup> ) *≤ f*(x*<sup>i</sup>* ), unlike gradient descent. Has faster convergence.
- This works even if *∇f* is not defined!
- Can be generalized to different distance functions:

$$
\mathbf{x}_{i+1} = \arg \min \ f(\mathbf{x}) + \frac{1}{2\eta} d(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_i)
$$

Newton's method: uses second derivatives/Hessians:

$$
x_{i+1}=x_i-f'(x_i)/f''(x_i)
$$

For vector-valued x, writing H*f*(x*<sup>i</sup>* ) for the Hessian of *f* at x*<sup>i</sup>* ,

$$
\mathbf{x}_{i+1} = \mathbf{x}_i - [\mathbf{H}f(\mathbf{x}_i)]^{-1} \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_i)
$$

Intuition:

- Stepsize is small when gradient is changing rapidly
- Each iteration uses *f*(x*<sup>i</sup>* )*, ∇f*(x*<sup>i</sup>* ) and H*f*(x*<sup>i</sup>* ) to construct a quadratic approximation to *f*, which is then minimized

#### Back to simple gradient descent

MLE: maximum likelihood estimation

Consider a set of observations  $X = (x_1, \dots, x_N)$ .

Assume *x<sup>i</sup> ∼ p*(*x|θ*)  $\theta_{MLE} = \text{argmax} \ \ell(\theta) := \text{argmax} \sum \log p(x_i|\theta)$ *N i*=1

The gradient of the log-likelihood is  $\nabla \ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla \log p(x_i | \theta)$ (The average of the gradients of each datapoint.)

Starting with an initial θ<sub>0</sub>, iterate:

$$
\theta_{i+1} = \theta_i + \eta_i \nabla \ell(\theta_i)
$$

# Gradient descent (contd.)

$$
\nabla \ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla \log p(x_i | \theta)
$$

Cons:

- Calculating gradient requires evaluating likelihood *N* times. (Each iteration must cycle through all datapoints.)
- *Lots* of redundancy, esp. for large *N*.

Pros:

• Convergence is better understood.

Use a noisy gradient *<sup>∇</sup>*c*ℓ*.

Typically split data into *N/B* batches of size *B*. Each iteration, calculate gradient on one of the batches *B<sup>i</sup>* :

$$
\widehat{\nabla \ell}(\theta) = \sum_{j \in B_i} \nabla \log p(x_j|\theta)
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$$

Pros:

- Calculating the gradient is *O*(*B*). (Often, each batch is just a single datapoint)
- Much faster convergence (just one sweep through the data can get you a decent solution).
- $\cdot$  Often, you get better solutions.
- Useful for online systems, tracking *θ* that varies over time .

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$$
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$$

Cons:

- Convergence analysis is harder.
- Noisy gradients mean the algorithm will never converge. Typically need to reduce the step size every iteration. We want

$$
\eta_i \to 0, \quad \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \eta_i = \infty
$$

E.g.  $\eta_i = \frac{a}{b+1}$ *b*+*i* One way to accelarate convergence is to include a momentum term:

$$
\theta_{i+1} = \theta_i + \eta_i \widehat{\nabla \ell}(\theta_i) + \beta_i \underbrace{(\theta_i - \theta_{i-1})}_{\text{momentum}}
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More generally,

$$
\theta_{i+1} = \theta_i + \eta_i \widehat{\nabla \ell}(\theta_i + \gamma(\theta_i - \theta_{i-1})) + \beta_i(\theta_i - \theta_{i-1})
$$

Include many popular algorithms:

- Polyak's heavy ball method (HB):  $\gamma = 0$
- Nesterov's accelerated gradient (NAG): *γ<sup>i</sup>* = *β<sup>i</sup>*

*Adaptive methods* accelerate convergence by using the entire history of iterates to determine step-sizes.

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Often take the general form

$$
\theta_{i+1} = \theta_i + \eta_i H_i^{-1} \widehat{\nabla \ell} (\theta_i + \gamma (\theta_i - \theta_{i-1})) + \beta_i H_i^{-1} H_{i-1} (\theta_i - \theta_{i-1})
$$

where *H<sup>i</sup>* is some combination of all previous gradients. E.g.

$$
H_i = \text{diag}\left(\sum_{j=1}^i g_j \circ g_j\right),
$$

with  $g_j = \nabla \ell(\theta_j + \gamma(\theta_j - \theta_{j-1}))$ , and  $\circ$  element-wise product. Examples are AdaGrad, Adam etc.