# **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  $x_{old}$  be our current value.

Update 
$$x_{new}$$
 as  $x_{new} = x_{old} - \eta \left. \frac{df}{dx} \right|_{x_{old}}$ 

The steeper the slope, the bigger the move.

 $\eta$ : 'step-size' or 'learning rate'.

Choosing  $\eta$  requires care (not too large or too small):



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

#### **GRADIENT DESCENT IN HIGHER-DIMENSIONS**

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

Alternately, at each step, set  $\eta$  by minimizing along  $\nabla f$ 

 $\cdot$  Note: even the optimal step-size  $\eta$  can be inefficient:



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

· What is decent?

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Avoid (2): Final rate is greater than some fraction of initial rate:

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

# WOLFE CONDITIONS



Permissible  $\delta x$ 's under condition 1

# WOLFE CONDITIONS



A simple way to satisfy Wolfe conditions:

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

Start with  $\eta = 1$ , and while condition *i* is not satisfied, set  $\eta = \beta_i \eta$  (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  $\mathbf{x}_t$  for the position of a particle at time *t*, evolving as

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

 $\mathbf{x}_t$  converges to  $\mathbf{x}^*$ , the minimum of f as t increases

• At minimum,  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^*) = 0$ .

Typically, not easy to solve the differential eq. for  $\mathbf{x}_t$ 

Different algs can be seen as approximations to this ideal

### FORWARD AND BACKWARD METHODS

$$\begin{split} & \frac{\Delta \mathbf{x}_t}{\Delta t} \approx \frac{\mathrm{d} \mathbf{x}_t}{\mathrm{d} t} = -\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t) \quad \text{(forward Euler approximation)} \\ \implies \quad \mathbf{x}_{t+\Delta t} = \mathbf{x}_t - \Delta t \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_t) \end{split}$$

This is just gradient descent with stepsize  $\eta = \Delta t$ 

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

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Backward Euler approx  $\implies$   $\mathbf{x}_{t+\Delta t} = \mathbf{x}_t - \Delta t \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{t+\Delta t})$ For a step size  $\eta$ , the iterates are:

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

The updates are implicit ( $\mathbf{x}_{i+1}$  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

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

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Now, we see that:

- f(x<sub>i+1</sub>) ≤ f(x<sub>i</sub>), unlike gradient descent. Has faster convergence.
- This works even if  $\nabla f$  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  $Hf(\mathbf{x}_i)$  for the Hessian of f at  $\mathbf{x}_i$ ,

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

Intuition:

- Stepsize is small when gradient is changing rapidly
- Each iteration uses  $f(\mathbf{x}_i)$ ,  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_i)$  and  $\mathbf{H}f(\mathbf{x}_i)$  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  $X = (x_1, \cdots, x_N)$ .

Assume  $x_i \sim p(x| heta)$ 

$$\theta_{MLE} = \operatorname{argmax} \ell(\theta) := \operatorname{argmax} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p(x_i | \theta)$$

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  $\theta_0$ , iterate:

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

# GRADIENT DESCENT (CONTD.)

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

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  $\widehat{\nabla \ell}$ .

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

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

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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).
- Often, you get better solutions.
- Useful for online systems, tracking heta that varies over time .

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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

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

E.g.  $\eta_i = \frac{a}{b+i}$ 

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):  $\gamma_i = \beta_i$

*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  $H_i$  is some combination of all previous gradients. E.g.

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

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