Optimization by Gradient Descent

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Supervised Machine Learning

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- Supervised ML : predict the value of a partially observed variable using an explanatory variable
- Probabilistic model for supervised ML:
 - Input variable (= explanatory variable) : $X \in \mathcal{X}$
 - Output variable (= variable to predict) : $Y \in \mathcal{Y} \subset \mathbb{R}$ → Observations = realizations of these variables
 - *Unknown* joint probability distribution :

$$\rho:(x,y)\mapsto \mathbb{P}(X=x,Y=y)$$

- Goal : Find a function $\theta: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ such that $\theta(X)$ is a good predictor for Y
- Tool : Loss function $L: \mathcal{Y} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}_+$ such that $L(y, \theta(x))$ is the "loss"/"cost" associated with estimating y using $\theta(x)$

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 θ is a linear function. Define

- lacksquare a vector of parameters : $oldsymbol{ heta} = (heta_1,..., heta^d)^{ au} \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- a transformation Φ of the input variable(s) :

$$X \in \mathcal{X} \mapsto \Phi(X) = (\Phi_1(X), ..., \Phi_d(X))^T \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

Then

$$heta(X) = \langle oldsymbol{ heta}, \Phi(X)
angle = \sum_{i=1}^d heta_i \Phi_i(X)$$

2 applications

■ Multivariate regression : Quadratic loss function

$$L(y, \theta(x)) = (y - \theta(x))^2$$

■ Logistic regression (classifier) : Sigmoid loss function

$$L(y, \theta(x)) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-y\theta(x))}$$

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■ The "quality" of $\theta(X)$ as a predictor of Y can be measured by the Generalization risk (or true risk):

$$\mathcal{R}(\theta) := \mathbb{E}_{
ho}[\mathcal{L}(Y, heta(X))] = \int_{\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}} \mathcal{L}(y, heta(x))
ho(x, y) dx dy$$

i.e. the "mean" loss from predicting an output y with an observed input $\theta(x)$

- \rightarrow The smaller, the better!
 - \Rightarrow Find θ that minimizes the risk

Problem : ρ is unknown $\Rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ is unknown... You can't minimize a function that you don't know...

 \blacksquare In supervised ML setting, we have a set of *n* observations:

$$(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}, i \in \llbracket 1, n \rrbracket$$

Working hypothesis: the observations are i.i.d. samples from ρ

The Generalization risk is in practise estimated by the **Empirical** risk

$$\widehat{\mathcal{R}}(\theta) := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(y_i, \theta(x_i))$$

■ A Regularisation function $\Omega(\theta)$ must be introduced to avoid over-fitting (due to the fact that the Generalized risk is approximated)

A classical optimization problem

Supervised ML searches the best prediction law θ^* "risk-wise":

$$\theta^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\theta} \left[\widehat{\mathcal{R}}(\theta) + \mu \Omega(\theta) \right] = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\theta} \left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n L(y_i, \theta(x_i)) + \mu \Omega(\theta) \right]$$

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- Widely used first order optimization algorithm
- Based on the computation of the gradient of the function

Algorithm 1: Vanilla Gradient Descent

Number of iterations N_{iter} , initial state $oldsymbol{ heta}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ for k=1 to N_{iter} do

$$g^{(k-1)} = \nabla \widehat{\mathcal{R}} \left(\theta^{(k-1)} \right) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla L(y_i, \Phi(x_i)^T \theta^{(k-1)})$$
$$\theta^{(k)} \leftarrow \theta^{(k-1)} - \gamma_k \times g^{(k-1)}$$

- Cost of each iteration : $\mathcal{O}(nd)$ operations (d- derivatives for each sample) \rightarrow expensive for large datasets
- Convergence to at least a local minimum is guaranteed

Stochastic Gradient Descent

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Idea : replace the costly computation of the gradient $\nabla\widehat{\mathcal{R}}\left(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k-1)}\right)$ by a noisy "proxy" $g^{(k-1)}$ that is cheaper to compute and is equal to the real gradient "in average".

$$\widehat{\mathcal{R}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f_i(\boldsymbol{\theta}), \quad f_i : \theta L(y_i, \Phi(x_i)^T \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Take

$$g^{(k-1)} := \nabla f_{i_k}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k-1)}), i_k \sim \mathcal{U}\{1, ..., n\}$$

Algorithm 2: Stochastic Gradient Descent

Number of iterations N_{iter} , initial state $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$

for k = 1 to N_{iter} do

Draw an index
$$i_k \sim \mathcal{U}\{1, ..., n\}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k-1)} - \gamma_k \nabla f_{i_k}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k-1)})$$

Return $\theta^{N_{\text{iter}}}$

The best of both worlds

Algorithm 3: Stochastic Gradient Descent

Number of iterations $N_{ ext{iter}}$, initial state $oldsymbol{ heta}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, batch size M

for
$$k = 1$$
 to N_{iter} do

Draw (w/o replacement)
$$M$$
 indices $i_k^{(1)},...,i_k^{(M)} \sim \mathcal{U}\{1,...,n\}$
$$g^{(k-1)} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \nabla f_{i_k^{(m)}}(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k-1)})$$
 $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(k-1)} - \gamma_k \times g^{(k-1)}$

Return $\theta^{N_{\rm iter}}$

■ Usual batch size : 50 - 256 samples but for deep learning : 16 samples (due to GPU computations)



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- To reduce noise effect: take the average of all states $\theta^{(k)}$ as an estimator of the optimum, instead of just last one.
- "On line" computation trick of this average $\bar{\theta}^{(k)}$

Algorithm 4: Stochastic Gradient Descent (bis)

Number of iterations N_{iter} , initial state $\theta^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$

for k = 1 to N_{iter} do

Draw an index
$$i_k \sim \mathcal{U}\{1, ..., n\}$$

 $\theta^{(k)} \leftarrow \theta^{(k-1)} - \gamma_k \nabla f_{i_k}(\theta^{(k-1)})$
 $\bar{\theta}^{(k)} \leftarrow \frac{1}{k} (\theta^{(k)} + (k-1)\bar{\theta}^{(k-1)})$

Return $\bar{\theta}^{N_{\rm iter}}$

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Convergence |

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Аппе

Assume the following properties for the loss function L:

- L is I-smooth, i.e. I is a lower bound of the eigenvalues of the Hessian matrix of L at any point
- L is μ -strongly convex, i.e. μ is a upper bound of the eigenvalues of the Hessian matrix of L at any point

Assume that the observations $\Phi(x_i)$ have bounded variance and invertible experimental covariance matrix

Importance of the learning rate γ_k

For smooth and convex problems, it was shown that almost surely, $\theta_{\nu} \to \theta^*$ if

$$\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \gamma_k = \infty \quad \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \gamma_k^2 < \infty$$



Convergence II

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Convergence rate = the speed of convergence of towards the solution of the problem, i.e., the minimum of $\widehat{\mathcal{R}}$

	GD		SGD
Step size	Constant	Decreasing	Decreasing
Convex function	$\mathcal{O}(rac{1}{k})$	$\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{\log k})$	$\mathcal{O}(\frac{1}{\sqrt{k}})$
	$(\gamma_k = \frac{1}{L})$	$(\gamma_k = \frac{1}{k})$	$(\gamma_k \propto rac{1}{\sqrt{k}})$
Strongly convex	$\mathcal{O}\left(e^{-\frac{4\mu}{L+\mu}k}\right)$	$\mathcal{O}\left(k^{-\frac{2L\mu}{L+\mu}}\right)$	$\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{\mu k}\right)$
function	$(\gamma_k = rac{1}{L+\mu})$	$(\gamma_k = \frac{1}{k})$	$(\gamma_k \propto rac{1}{\mu k})$

Table: Comparison of convergence rates for several algorithms, using a quadratic loss function $L(y,\theta(x))=(y-\theta^T\Phi(x))^2$

- GD can converge much faster than SGD.
- BUT, each iteration of GD is more costly (by a factor n) than an iteration of SGD

Stochastic averaged gradient descent

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■ Variation of SGD in which at each iteration, the full gradient

$$g^{(k)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla f_i(\theta^{(k_i)}), \quad k_i \in [0, k-1]$$

is updated through i_k -th term of the sum, where $i_k \sim \mathcal{U}\{1,...,n\}$

■ Same update cost as SGD, BUT $g^{(k)}$ has a smaller variance

Algorithm 5: Stochastic Averaged Gradient Descent

Number of iterations $N_{ ext{iter}}$, initial state $heta^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$

$$g^{(0)} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla f_i(\theta^{(0)})$$

for k = 1 to N_{iter} do

Draw an index
$$i_k \sim \mathcal{U}\{1, ..., n\}$$

$$g^{(k)} = \frac{1}{n} \left(n g^{(k-1)} - \nabla f_{i_k}(\theta^{(k_{i_k})}) + \nabla f_{i_k}(\theta^{(k-1)}) \right)$$

$$\theta^{(k)} \leftarrow \theta^{(k-1)} - \gamma_k g^{(k)}$$

Return $\theta^{N_{\text{iter}}}$

- Convergence rate : $\mathcal{O}((1-\frac{1}{8Ln})^k)$ (for step size $\gamma_k=\frac{1}{2nL}$)
- Required to store at all time n elementary gradients $\nabla f_i(\theta^{(k_i)})$

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Generalization risk I

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Some cons of Empirical risk:

- To avoid over-fitting, a regularisation function must be set
- The number of iterations needed to achieve the optimum is hard to predict
- ⇒ Generalisation risk yields a more general approach given that it measures how accurately we may predict outcome values for previously unseen data (through the expectation).
- \Rightarrow SGD can be used to minimise the generalisation risk, even though its expression is unknown.

Idea : Considering that the examples $(x_i, y_i)_{1 \le i \le n}$ are i.i.d from ρ ,

$$g^{(k)}(\theta^{(k-1)}) = \nabla L(y_k, \langle \theta^{(k-1)}, \Phi(x_k) \rangle)$$

is a good proxy for

$$\nabla \mathcal{R}(\theta^{(k-1)}) = \nabla \mathbb{E}_{\rho}[L(Y, \langle \theta^{(k-1)}, \Phi(X) \rangle)]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{\rho}[\nabla L(Y, \langle \theta^{k-1}, \Phi(X) \rangle)]$$



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Algorithm 6: Stochastic Gradient Descent for Generalisation risk

Number of iterations $N_{ ext{iter}}$, initial state $heta^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^d$

for
$$k = 1$$
 to N_{iter} do
$$| \theta^{(k)} \leftarrow \theta^{(k-1)} - \gamma_k \nabla L(\gamma_k, \langle \theta^{(k-1)}, \Phi(\chi_k) \rangle)$$

Return $\theta^{N_{\rm iter}}$

- There is a **single** pass through the data: sometimes, due to the size of the problem, we can't do more than that
- Well fitted for online learning
- With a convex (resp. strongly convex) loss function and a constant step size, it has a convergence rate of $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{n})$ (resp. $\mathcal{O}(1/(\mu n))$)
- Working hypothesis when minimizing Generalisation risk: you have enough data sample to accurately represent the distribution ρ , i.e. every possibility of values for the couple (X, Y)

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A random walk interpretation I

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For general loss functions, SGD does not necessarily converge towards the optimum of the risk. Why is that?

Updates of SGD with constant step size γ can be written :

$$\theta_{\gamma}^{(k)} = \theta_{\gamma}^{(k-1)} - \gamma \underbrace{\left(\nabla \mathcal{R}(\theta_{\gamma}^{(k-1)}) + \varepsilon^{(k)}(\theta_{\gamma}^{(k-1)})\right)}_{=g^{(k)}(\theta_{\gamma}^{(k-1)})}$$

where $(\varepsilon^{(k)})_{k>0}$ are i.i.d. "zero-mean" random noises.

 $\Rightarrow (\theta_{\gamma}^{(k)})_{k\geq 0}$ is a homogeneous Markov chain \Rightarrow There exists a distribution π_{γ} such that asymptotically, $\theta_{\gamma}^{(k)} \sim \pi_{\gamma}, \forall k$ Some consequences :

- $(\theta_{\gamma}^{(k)})_{k\geq 0}$ does not converge to a point, but rather will (asymptotically) oscillate around the mean $\bar{\theta}_{\gamma}=\mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\gamma}}[\theta]$ with an average magnitude $\gamma^{1/2}$
- The average $\bar{\theta}_{\gamma}^{(k)}$ of the k+1 states $\{\theta^{(i)}: 0 \leq i \leq k\}$, converges towards this mean with rate $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{k})$ (central limit theorem)
- This mean is not necessarily equal to the optimum parameters!



A random walk interpretation II

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The error between the output of the SGD $\theta_{\gamma}^{(k)}$ and the optimum can be decomposed:

$$\bar{\theta}_{\gamma}^{(k)} - \theta^* = \underbrace{\bar{\theta}_{\gamma}^{(k)} - \bar{\theta}_{\gamma}}_{\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{k})} + \underbrace{\bar{\theta}_{\gamma} - \theta^*}_{\text{independent of k}}$$

We can prove that :

- \blacksquare For quadratic loss function : $\bar{\theta}_{\gamma}=\theta^*$, i.e. the output of SGD is the risk optimum
- In the general case, we have :

$$\bar{\theta}_{\gamma} = \theta^* + \gamma C + \mathcal{O}(\gamma^2)$$

where C is a constant independent of γ . Therefore the averaged SGD will only converge to a point "near" the optimum.

Note: Sometimes it is sufficient to remain "near" the optimum, as the optimum can be an over-fitted solution of the problem. Moreover, for large dimension problems, SGD tends to converge to a solution that is quite near the optimum...



A random walk interpretation III

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Figure: Convergence of iterates $\theta_{\gamma}^{(k)}$ and averaged iterates $\bar{\theta}_{\gamma}^{(k)}$ to the mean $\bar{\theta}_{\gamma}$ under the stationary distribution π_{γ} .

Richardson-Romberg Extrapolation

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and SGD Annex Goal : To get a better estimate of θ^* in the general case.

For instance, for two terms:

- 1. Run SGD with rate $\gamma o ar{ heta}_{\gamma}$
- 2. Run SGD with rate $2\gamma o ar{ heta}_{2\gamma}$
- 3. Return

$$2\bar{\theta}_{\gamma} - \bar{\theta}_{2\gamma} = \theta^* + \mathcal{O}(\gamma^2)$$

which is a better estimate of θ^* .

This approach can simply be generalized to more terms (runs of the SGD).

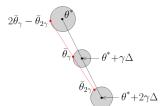


Figure: Richardson-Romberg extrapolation, the disks are of radius $\mathcal{O}(\gamma^2)$.

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Proof that $ar{ heta}_{\gamma}= heta^*$ for quadratic loss

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Notice that if we take $\theta_{\gamma}^{(0)} \sim \pi_{\gamma}$, then by definition of π_{γ} ,

$$\theta_{\gamma}^{(0)} - \gamma \left(\nabla \mathcal{R}(\theta_{\gamma}^{(0)}) + \varepsilon^{(1)}(\theta_{\gamma}^{(0)}) \right) = \theta_{\gamma}^{(1)} \sim \pi_{\gamma}$$

Hence, by taking the expectation under π_γ we get :

$$\mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\gamma}}[\nabla \mathcal{R}(\theta_{\gamma}^{(0)})] = 0$$

and recalling the expression of $\ensuremath{\mathcal{R}}$ we get

$$\mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\gamma}}[\nabla \mathcal{R}(\theta)] = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\gamma}}\left[\mathbb{E}_{\rho}[\nabla I(Y, \Phi(X)^{T}\theta)]\right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{\rho}\left[\mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\gamma}}[\nabla I(Y, \Phi(X)^{T}\theta)]\right] = 0$$

In particular, in the quadratic loss case, given that

$$\theta \mapsto \nabla I(Y, \Phi(X)^T \theta) = 2(Y - \Phi(X)^T \theta)\Phi(X)$$

is a linear function of θ , we have

$$\mathbb{E}_{\rho} \left[\mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\gamma}} \left[\nabla I(Y, \Phi(X)^{T} \theta) \right] \right] = \mathbb{E}_{\rho} \left[\nabla I(Y, \Phi(X)^{T} \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\gamma}} [\theta]) \right] \\ = \nabla \mathcal{R} (\mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\gamma}} [\theta]) = 0$$

And therefore,

$$\bar{\theta}_{\gamma} = \mathbb{E}_{\pi_{\gamma}}[\theta] = \theta^*$$

We retrieve the fact that in the quadratic loss case, the averaged SGD converges to the optimum at rate $\mathcal{O}(1/\sqrt{k})$.