Gradient descent method

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Many contents are from
Large Scale Optimization Lecture 4 & 5 by Caramanis & Sanghavi
Convex Optimization Lecture 10 by Boyd & Vandenberghe
Convex Optimization textbook Chapter 9 by Boyd & Vandenberghe

Contents

- Introduction
- Example code & Usage
- Convergence Conditions
- Methods & Examples
- Summary

Introduction

Unconstraint minimization problem, Description, Pros and Cons

Unconstrained minimization problems

- Recall: Constrained minimization problems
 - From Lecture 1, the formation of a general constrained convex optimization problem is as follows
 - $\min f(x)$ s.t. $x \in \chi$
 - Where $f: \chi \to R$ is convex and smooth
 - From Lecture 1, the formation of an unconstrained optimization problem is as follows
 - $\min f(x)$
 - Where $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ is convex and smooth
 - In this problem, the necessary and sufficient condition for optimal solution x0 is
 - $\nabla f(x) = 0$ at $x = x_0$

Unconstrained minimization problems

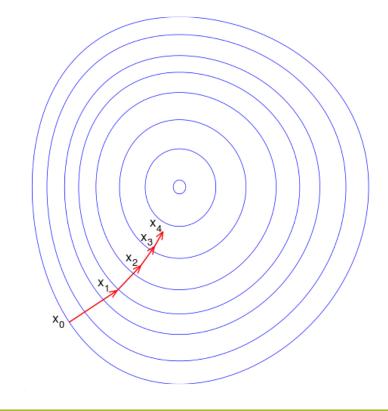
- Minimize f(x)
 - When f is differentiable and convex, a necessary and sufficient condition for a point x^* to be optimal is $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$
- Minimize f(x) is the same as fining solution of $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$
 - Min f(x): Analytically solving the optimality equation
 - $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$: Usually be solved by an iterative algorithm

Description of Gradient Descent Method

• The idea relies on the fact that $-\nabla f(x^{(k)})$ is a descent direction

•
$$x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} - \eta^{(k)} \nabla f(x^{(k)})$$
 with $f(x^{(k+1)}) < f(x^{(k)})$

- $\Delta x^{(k)}$ is the step, or search direction
- $\eta^{(k)}$ is the step size, or step length
 - Too small $\eta^{(k)}$ will cause slow convergence
 - Too large $\eta^{(k)}$ could cause overshoot the minima and diverge



Description of Gradient Descent Method

- Algorithm (Gradient Descent Method)
 - given a starting point $x \in dom f$
 - repeat
 - 1. $\Delta x := -\nabla f(x)$
 - 2. Line search: Choose step size η via exact or backtracking line search
 - 3. Update $x := x + \eta \Delta x$
 - until stopping criterion is satisfied
- Stopping criterion usually $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 \le \epsilon$
- Very simple, but often very slow; rarely used in practice

Pros and Cons

• Pros

- Can be applied to every dimension and space (even possible to infinite dimension)
- Easy to implement

Cons

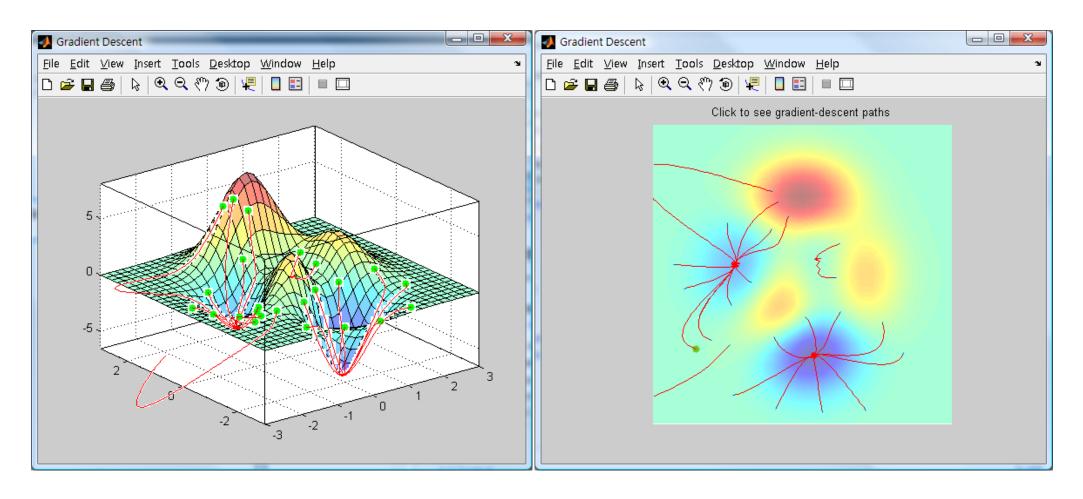
- Local optima problem
- Relatively slow close to minimum
- For non-differentiable functions, gradient methods are ill-defined

Example Code & Usage

Example Code, Usage, Questions

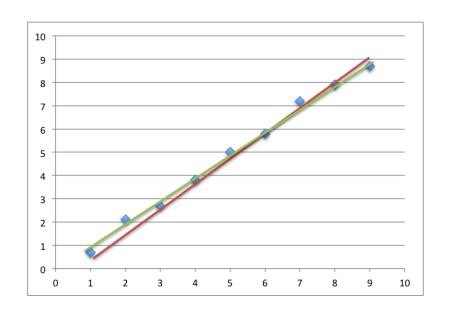
Gradient Descent Example Code

http://mirlab.org/jang/matlab/toolbox/machineLearning/



Usage of Gradient Descent Method

- Linear Regression
 - Find minimum loss function to choose best hypothesis



Example of Loss function:

$$\sum (data_{predict} - data_{observed})^2$$

Find the hypothesis (function) which minimize the loss function

Usage of Gradient Descent Method

- Neural Network
 - Back propagation
- SVM (Support Vector Machine)
- Graphical models
- Least Mean Squared Filter

...and many other applications!

Questions

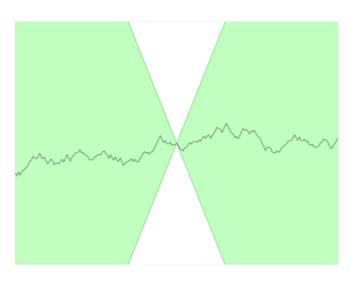
- Does Gradient Descent Method always converge?
- If not, what is condition for convergence?
- How can make Gradient Descent Method faster?
- What is proper value for step size $\eta^{(k)}$

Convergence Conditions

L-Lipschitz function, Strong Convexity, Condition number

L-Lipschitz function

- Definition
 - A function $f: R^n \to R$ is called L-Lipschitz if and only if $\|\nabla f(x) \nabla f(y)\|_2 \le L\|x y\|_2, \forall x, y \in R^n$
 - We denote this condition by $f \in C_L$, where C_L is class of L-Lipschitz functions

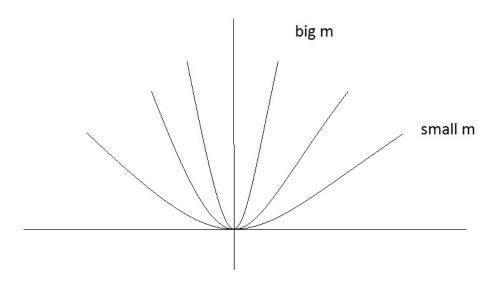


L-Lipschitz function

- Lemma 4.1
 - If $f \in C_L$, then $|f(y) f(x) \langle \nabla f(x), y x \rangle| \le \frac{L}{2} ||y x||^2$
- Theorem 4.2
 - If $f \in C_L$ and $f^* = \min_x f(x) > -\infty$, then the gradient descent algorithm with fixed step size statisfying $\eta < \frac{2}{L}$ will converge to a stationary point

Strong Convexity and implications

- Definition
 - If there exist a constant m > 0 such that $\nabla^2 f >= mI$ for $\forall x \in S$, then the function f(x) is strongly convex function on S



Strong Convexity and implications

- Lemma 4.3
 - If f is strongly convex on S, we have the following inequality:

•
$$f(y) \ge f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{m}{2} ||y - x||^2 \text{ for } \forall x, y \in S$$

Proof

For $x, y \in S$, we have

$$\begin{split} f(y) &= f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T (y-x) + \frac{1}{2} (y-x)^T \nabla^2 f(z) (y-x) \\ f(y) &\geq f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y-x \rangle + \frac{m}{2} \|y-x\|^2 \\ &\geq f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), \tilde{y}-x \rangle + \frac{m}{2} \|\tilde{y}-x\|^2 \qquad (\tilde{y}=x-(1/m)\nabla f(x)) \\ &= f(x) - \frac{1}{2m} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 \\ f^* &\geq f(x) - \frac{1}{2m} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 \quad \text{for any } y \in S. \text{ useful as stopping criterion (if you know m)} \end{split}$$

Strong Convexity and implications

Similarly, we can also derive a bound on $||x - x^*||_2$

$$||x - x^*||_2 \le \frac{2}{m} ||\nabla f(x)||_2^2 \text{ where } x^* = \arg\min_x f(x).$$

Proof

$$f^* = f(x^*) \ge f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), x^* - x \rangle + \frac{m}{2} \|x^* - x\|_2^2$$

$$\ge f(x) - \|\nabla f(x)\|_2 \|x^* - x\|_2 + \frac{m}{2} \|x^* - x\|_2^2,$$

Since
$$f^* \le f(x)$$
, $-\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 - \|x^* - x\|_2 + \frac{m}{2}\|x^* - x\|_2^2 \le 0$

Upper Bound of $\nabla^2 f(x)$

- Lemma 4.3 implies that the sublevel sets contained in S are bounded, so in particular, S is bounded. Therefore the maximum eigenvalue of $\nabla^2 f(x)$ is bounded above on S
 - There exists a constant M such that $\nabla^2 f(x) = \langle MI \text{ for } \forall x \in S \rangle$
- Lemma 4.4

• For any
$$x, y \in S$$
, if $\nabla^2 f(x) = \langle MI \text{ for all } x \in S \text{ then}$

$$f(y) \leq f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{M}{2} ||y - x||^2$$

Condition Number

- From Lemma 4.3 and 4.4 we have $mI = \langle \nabla^2 f(x) = \langle MI \ for \ \forall \ x \in S, m > 0, M > 0$
 - The ratio k=M/m is thus an upper bound on the condition number of the matrix $\nabla^2 f(x)$
 - When the ratio is close to 1, we call it well-conditioned
 - When the ratio is much larger than 1, we call it ill-conditioned
 - When the ratio is exactly 1, it is the best case that only one step will lead to the optimal solution (there is no wrong direction)

Condition Number

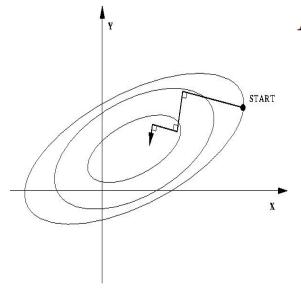
- Theorem 4.5
 - Gradient descent for a strongly convex function f and step size $\eta = \frac{1}{M}$ will converge as
 - $f(x^*) f^* \le c^k (f(x^0) f^*)$, where $c \le 1 \frac{m}{M}$
 - Rate of convergence c is known as linear convergence
- Since we usually do not know the value of M, we do line search
 - For exact line search, $c = 1 \frac{m}{M}$
 - For backtracking line search, $c=1-\min\left\{2m\alpha,\frac{2\beta\alpha m}{M}\right\}<1$

Methods & Examples

Exact Line Search, Backtracking Line Search, Coordinate Descent Method, Steepest Descent Method

Exact Line Search

• The optimal line search method in which η is chosen to minimize f along the ray $\{x - \eta \nabla f(x)\}$, as shown in below



Algorithm (Gradient descent with exact line search)

- 1. Set iteration counter k = 0, and make an initial guess x_0 for the minimum
- 2. Compute $\nabla f(x^{(k)})$
- 3. Choose $\eta^{(k)} = \underset{\eta}{\operatorname{arg min}} \{ f\left(x^{(k)} \eta \nabla f(x^{(k)})\right) \}$
- 4. Update $x^{(k+1)} = x^{(k)} \eta^{(k)} \nabla f(x^{(k)})$ and k = k + 1.
- 5. Go to 2 until $\|\nabla f(x^{(k)})\| < \epsilon$
- Exact line search is used when the cost of minimization problem with one variable is low compared to the cost of computing the search direction itself.
- It is not very practical

Exact Line Search

Convergence Analysis

•
$$f(x^{+}) \leq f(x - \frac{1}{M} \nabla f(x))$$

 $\leq f(x) - \frac{1}{M} \|\nabla f(x)\|_{2}^{2} + \frac{M}{2} (\frac{1}{M})^{2} \|\nabla f(x)\|_{2}^{2}$
 $= f(x) - \frac{1}{2M} \|\nabla f(x)\|_{2}^{2}$
 \Rightarrow

$$f(x^+) - f^* \le f(x) - f^* - \frac{1}{2M} \|\nabla f(x)\|_2^2$$

Recall the analysis for strong convexity: $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2^2 \ge 2m(f(x) - f(y))$ Thus, the following inequality holds: $f(x^+) - f^* \le \left(1 - \frac{m}{M}\right)(f(x) - f^*)$

- $|f(x^{(k)}) f^*|$ decreases by at least a constant factor in every iteration
- Converging to 0 geometric fast. (linear convergence)

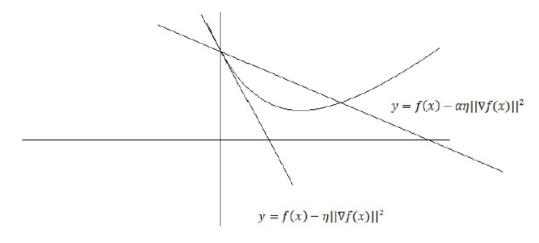
- It depends on two constants α , β with $0<\alpha<0.5$, $0<\beta<1$
- It starts with unit step size and then reduces it by the factor β until the stopping condition

$$f(x - \eta \nabla f(x)) \le f(x) - \alpha \eta \|\nabla f(x)\|^2$$

- Since $-\nabla f(x)$ is a descent direction and $-\|\nabla f(x)\|^2 < 0$, so for small enough step size η , we have $f(x \eta \nabla f(x)) \approx f(x) \eta \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 < f(x) \alpha \eta \|\nabla f(x)\|^2$
 - It shows that the backtracking line search eventually terminates
 - α is typically chosen between 0.01 and 0.3
 - β is often chosen to be between 0.1 and 0.8

• Algorithm

- 1. Set iteration counter k=0. Make an initial guess x^0 and choose initial $\eta=1$.
- 2. Update $\eta^k = \beta \eta^k$
- 3. Go to 2 until $f(x^k \eta^k \nabla f(x^k)) \le f(x^k) \alpha \eta^k ||\nabla f(x^k)||^2$.
- 4. Calculate $x^{k+1} = x^k \eta^k \nabla f(x^k)$ and update k = k + 1.
- 5. Go to 1 until $\|\nabla f(x^{(k)})\| < \epsilon$



- Convergence Analysis
 - Claim: $\eta \leq \frac{1}{M}$ always satisfies the stopping condition
 - Proof

Recall:
$$f(x^+) \le f(x) - \eta \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 + \frac{\eta^2 M}{2} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2$$

With the assumption that $\eta \leq \frac{1}{M}$, the inequality implies that:

$$f(x^+) \le f(x) - \frac{\eta}{2} \|\nabla f(x)\|^2 \Rightarrow \eta \ge \frac{\beta}{M}$$

So overall,

$$\eta \geq \min(1, \frac{\beta}{M})$$

$$f(x^{+}) \leq f(x) - \alpha \min(1, \frac{\beta}{M}) |\nabla f(x)||^{2}$$

Proof (cont)

Now, we subtract f* from both sides to get:

$$f(x^+) - f^* \le f(x) - f^* - \alpha \min(1, \frac{\beta}{M}) \|\nabla f(x)\|_2^2,$$

and combines with $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2^2 \ge 2m(f(x) - f^*)$ to obtain:

$$f(x^+) - f^* \le (1 - \alpha \min(1, \frac{\beta}{M})(f(x) - f^*),$$

where

$$c = 1 - 2m\alpha \min\{1, \frac{\beta}{M}\} < 1$$

In particular, $f(x^k)$ converges to f^* at least as fast as a geometric series with an exponent that depends (at least in part) on the condition number bound $\frac{M}{m}$. As before with exact line search, the convergence is at least linear (but with a different factor).

Line search types

Slide from Optimization Lecture 10 by Boyd

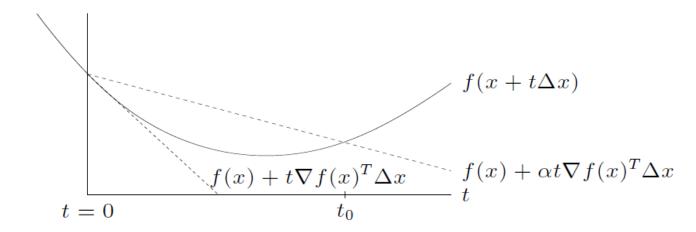
exact line search: $t = \operatorname{argmin}_{t>0} f(x + t\Delta x)$

backtracking line search (with parameters $\alpha \in (0, 1/2)$, $\beta \in (0, 1)$)

• starting at t=1, repeat $t:=\beta t$ until

$$f(x + t\Delta x) < f(x) + \alpha t \nabla f(x)^T \Delta x$$

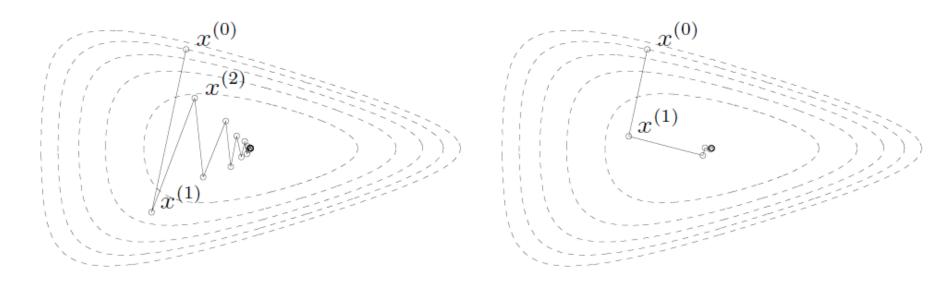
• graphical interpretation: backtrack until $t \leq t_0$



Line search example

Slide from Optimization Lecture 10 by Boyd nonquadratic example

$$f(x_1, x_2) = e^{x_1 + 3x_2 - 0.1} + e^{x_1 - 3x_2 - 0.1} + e^{-x_1 - 0.1}$$



backtracking line search

exact line search

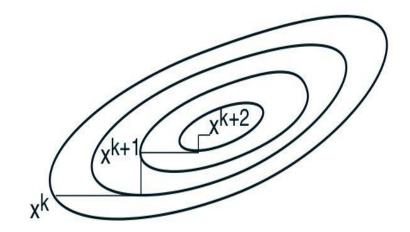
Coordinate Descent Method

- Coordinate descent belongs to the class of several non derivative methods used for minimizing differentiable functions.
- Here, cost is minimized in one coordinate direction in each iteration.

$$x_j^{(k+1)} = x_j^{(k)}, j \neq i$$

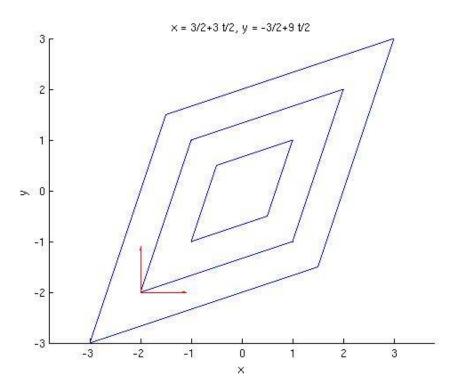
$$x_i^{(k+1)} = \arg\min_{\xi \in \mathfrak{R}} f(x_{\backslash i}^{(k)}, \xi)$$

$$x_i^{(k+1)} = x_i^{(k)} - \eta \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(x^{(k)})$$



Coordinate Descent Method

- Pros
 - It is well suited for parallel computation
- Cons
 - May not reach the local minimum even for convex function



Converge of Coordinate Descent

• Lemma 5.4

Lemma 5.4. Suppose $\nabla f(x)$ is continuous and for every x and i, $f(x_{\setminus i}, \xi)$ has a unique minimum ξ^* , and is monotonic between x_i and ξ . Then cyclic coordinate descent with exact line search will reach stationary point. (Proposition 2.7.1, Bertsekas).

Coordinate Descent Method

- Method of selecting the coordinate for next iteration
 - Cyclic Coordinate Descent
 - Greedy Coordinate Descent
 - (Uniform) Random Coordinate Descent

Steepest Descent Method

- The gradient descent method takes many iterations
- Steepest Descent Method aims at choosing the best direction at each iteration
- Normalized steepest descent direction
 - $\Delta x_{nsd} = argmin\{\nabla f(x)^T v | ||v|| = 1\}$
 - Interpretation: for small $v, f(x+v) \approx f(x) + \nabla f(x)^T v$ direction Δx_{nsd} is unit-norm step with most negative directional derivative
- Iteratively, the algorithm follows the following steps
 - Calculate direction of descent Δx_{nsd}
 - Calculate step size, t
 - $x_+ = x + t\Delta x_{nsd}$

Steepest Descent for various norms

- The choice of norm used the steepest descent direction can be have dramatic effect on converge rate
- l_2 norm
 - The steepest descent direction is as follows

•
$$\Delta x_{nsd} = \frac{-\nabla f(x)}{\|\nabla f(x)\|_2}$$

- l_1 norm
 - For $||x||_1 = \sum_i |x_i|$, a descent direction is as follows,
 - $\Delta x_{nds} = -sign\left(\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x_i^*}\right)e_i^*$
 - $i^* = arg\min_{i} \left| \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} \right|$
- l_{∞} norm
 - For $||x||_{\infty} = \underset{i}{\operatorname{argmin}} |x_i|$, a descent direction is as follows

•
$$\Delta x_{nds} = -sign(-\nabla f(x))$$

Steepest Descent for various norms

Quadratic Norm

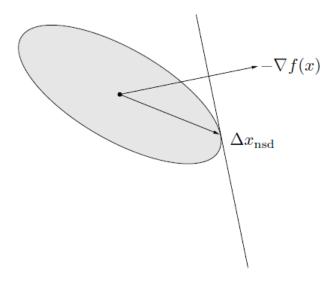


Figure 9.9 Normalized steepest descent direction for a quadratic norm. The ellipsoid shown is the unit ball of the norm, translated to the point x. The normalized steepest descent direction $\Delta x_{\rm nsd}$ at x extends as far as possible in the direction $-\nabla f(x)$ while staying in the ellipsoid. The gradient and normalized steepest descent directions are shown.

l_1 -Norm

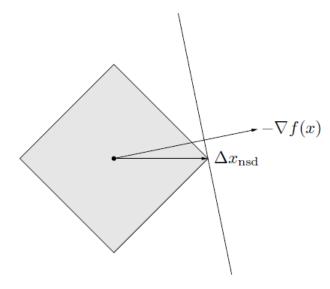


Figure 9.10 Normalized steepest descent direction for the ℓ_1 -norm. The diamond is the unit ball of the ℓ_1 -norm, translated to the point x. The normalized steepest descent direction can always be chosen in the direction of a standard basis vector; in this example we have $\Delta x_{\rm nsd} = e_1$.

Steepest Descent for various norms

• Example

$$P_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 8 \end{bmatrix}, \qquad P_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 8 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}.$$

In both cases we use a backtracking line search with $\alpha = 0.1$ and $\beta = 0.7$.

This can be explained by examining the problems after the changes of coordinates $\bar{x} = P_1^{1/2}x$ and $\bar{x} = P_2^{1/2}x$, respectively.

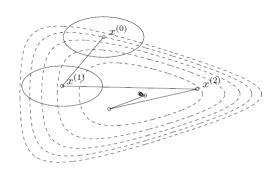


Figure 9.11 Steepest descent method with a quadratic norm $\|\cdot\|_{P_1}$. The ellipses are the boundaries of the norm balls $\{x \mid \|x-x^{(k)}\|_{P_1} \leq 1\}$ at $x^{(0)}$ and $x^{(1)}$.

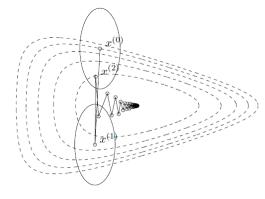


Figure 9.12 Steepest descent method, with quadratic norm $\|\cdot\|_{P_2}$.

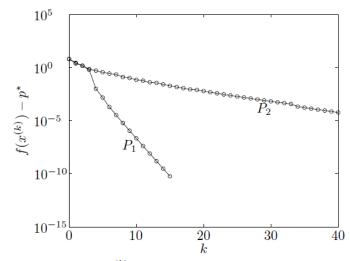


Figure 9.13 Error $f(x^{(k)}) - p^*$ versus iteration k, for the steepest descent method with the quadratic norm $\|\cdot\|_{P_1}$ and the quadratic norm $\|\cdot\|_{P_2}$. Convergence is rapid for the norm $\|\cdot\|_{P_1}$ and very slow for $\|\cdot\|_{P_2}$.

Steepest Descent Convergence Rate

- Fact: Any norm can be bounded by $\|\cdot\|_2$, i.e., $\exists \gamma, \tilde{\gamma} \in (0,1]$ such that, $\|x\| \ge \gamma \|x\|_2$ and $\|x\|_* \ge \gamma \|x\|_2$
- Theorem 5.5
 - If f is strongly convex with respect to m and M, and $\|\cdot\|_2$ has $\gamma, \tilde{\gamma}$ as above then steepest decent with backtracking line search has linear convergence with rate
 - $c = 1 2m\alpha\tilde{\gamma}^2 \min\left\{1, \frac{\beta\gamma}{M}\right\}$
- Proof: Will be proved in the lecture 6

Summary

Summary

- Unconstrained Convex Optimization Problem
- Gradient Descent Method
- Step Size Trade-off between safety and speed
- Convergence Conditions
 - L-Lipschtiz Function
 - Strong Convexity
 - Condition Number

Summary

- Exact Line Search
- Backtracking Line Search
- Coordinate Descent Method
 - Good for parallel computation but not always converge
- Steepest Descent Method
 - The choice of norm is important

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