

## Section 2: Optimization

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# Motivation

- Why is optimization relevant?
  - Regression as minimizing the loss function (OLS):

$$\hat{\beta}_{\text{OLS}} = \arg \min_{\beta} \left( \frac{1}{2} \sum_{n=1}^N (y_n - \beta^{\top} \mathbf{x}_n)^2 \right)$$

- Similarly, MLE (Olivella, Pratt, and Imai, 2022):

$$\begin{aligned}
 & P(\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{L} \mid \beta, \gamma, \mathbf{B}, \mathbf{X}) \\
 & \propto \prod_{m=1}^M \left[ \frac{\Gamma(M\eta)}{\Gamma(M\eta + U_m)} \prod_{n=1}^M \frac{\Gamma(\eta + U_{mn})}{\Gamma(\eta)} \right] \\
 & \times P(\mathbf{s}_1) \prod_{t=2}^T \prod_{m=1}^M \prod_{it \in V_t} \left[ \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_{it-m})}{\Gamma(\alpha_{it-m} + 2N_t)} \prod_{k=1}^K \frac{\Gamma(\alpha_{itmk} + C_{itk})}{\Gamma(\alpha_{itmk})} \right]^{I(S_t=m)} \\
 & \times \prod_{t=1}^T \prod_{p,q \in V_t} \prod_{g,h=1}^K (\theta_{pqgh}^{y_{pqt}} (1 - \theta_{pqgh})^{1-y_{pqt}})^{z_{p \rightarrow q,t,g} \times w_{q \leftarrow p,t,h}}
 \end{aligned}$$

**Figure:** A likelihood function that you might end up working with

# Roadmap for today

- Gradient Descent: Generalization of univariate differentiation
- Newton-Raphson: Root-searching Algorithm
- Difference between GD and NR
  
- Some coding exercise (Rmd file available on course website)

## Gradient Descent: Basic Setup

- Geometric intuition behind GD: For one-dimensional  $x$ , the line that passes through a given point  $(x^t, f(x^t))$  with a given slope  $f'(x^t)$  can be written as

$$y - f(x^t) = f'(x^t) (x - x^t)$$

- Generalizing this to the multi-dimensional case, we have:

$$y - f(\mathbf{x}^t) = (\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^t))^{\top} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t) \equiv \langle \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t, \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^t) \rangle$$

which can also be written as  $y = f(\mathbf{x}^t) + (\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^t))^{\top} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^t)$

# Gradient Descent: Formalization

- Gradient descent/ascent (Cauchy, 1947) for **mode finding**:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(t)} \pm \eta \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(t)})$$

, where  $\eta$  is called the "learning rate". A key challenge is to choose  $\eta$  properly, and perhaps adaptively. Selecting too small of an  $\eta$  can make the algorithm too slow, and too large the algorithm can be too unstable!

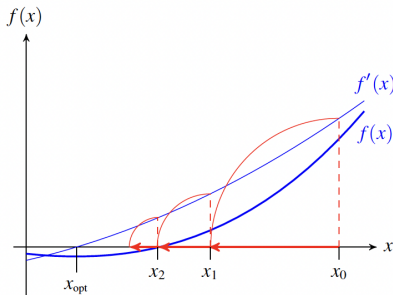
- $+/-$ : Recall that the gradient vector points in the direction of steepest **ascent** in  $f(\mathbf{x})$ . So when doing gradient ascent, we take the plus sign to indicate a step **towards** the next larger value; and conversely, we take the minus sign when doing gradient descent.

# Gradient Descent: An One-Dimensional Example

- Algorithm: Gradient Descent (searches for a minimum of  $f(\cdot)$ )
  - Start with some point  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and fix a precision  $\varepsilon > 0$
  - Repeat for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$ :

$$x_{n+1} := x_n - \eta \times f'(x_n)$$

- Terminate when  $|f'(x_n)| < \varepsilon$



## Newton-Raphson: Basic Setup

- Note that finding a mode of  $f(x)$  is (almost) equivalent to finding a root of  $f'(x)$ . So alternative to GD, we can also try to find the solution of  $0 = g(x) \triangleq f'(x)$ , which, in 1D, gives:

$$x^{(t+1)} = x^{(t)} - \frac{g(x^{(t)})}{g'(x^{(t)})} \equiv x^{(t)} - \frac{f'(x^{(t)})}{f''(x^{(t)})}$$

- Multi-dimensional:

$$\mathbf{x}^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(t)} - \frac{\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}^{(t)})}{J(\mathbf{x}^{(t)})} \equiv \mathbf{x}^{(t)} - \frac{\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^{(t)})}{\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}^{(t)})}$$

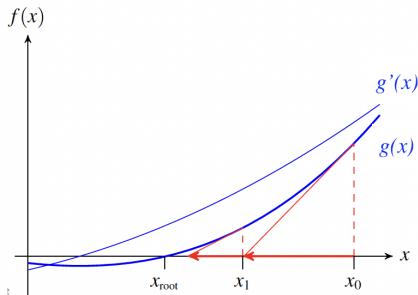
where  $J(\mathbf{x})$  is the Jacobian matrix (Hessian of function  $f(\mathbf{x})$ )

# Newton-Raphson: An One-Dimensional Example

- Algorithm: NR method (root searching)
  - Start with some point  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  and fix a precision  $\varepsilon > 0$
  - Repeat for  $n = 1, 2, \dots$

$$x_{n+1} := x_n - f'(x_n) / f''(x_n)$$

- Terminate when  $|f'(x_n)| < \varepsilon$





## GD vs. NR: Which one to use? (1)

- Consider, for example, the case of OLS, whose target function (the function to be minimized) can be written as:

$$g(\beta) = \frac{1}{2} \left\| \underbrace{X}_{n \times p} \underbrace{\beta}_{p \times 1} - \underbrace{\mathbf{y}}_{n \times 1} \right\|_2^2$$

- Gradient:  $\nabla g(\beta) = X^\top (X\beta - \mathbf{y})$ ; Hessian  $\nabla^2 g(\beta) = X^\top X$
- GD Update:  $\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^{(t)} - \eta X^\top (X\beta^{(t)} - \mathbf{y})$
- Newton-Raphson:

$$\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^{(t)} - (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top (X\beta^{(t)} - \mathbf{y}) = (X^\top X)^{-1} X^\top \mathbf{y}$$

- In other words, NR converges in one step to the OLS solution.

## GD vs. NR: Which one to use? (2)

- Consider now, the case of logistic regression:

$$y_i \stackrel{\text{iid}}{\sim} \text{Bern}(\theta_i); \theta_i = \frac{\exp(\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta})}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta})}, \mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ip})^\top$$

- Let  $\boldsymbol{\theta} = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_n)^\top$ ,  $\mathbf{X}_{n \times p} = (\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n)^\top$ , and  $\mathbf{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_n)^\top$
- Log-likelihood:  $\ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}) = \sum_{i=1}^n [y_i \mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta} - \log(1 + \exp(\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta}))]$
- Gradient:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla \ell(\boldsymbol{\beta}) &= \sum_{i=1}^n \left( y_i \mathbf{x}_i - \frac{\exp(\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta})}{1 + \exp(\mathbf{x}_i^\top \boldsymbol{\beta})} \mathbf{x}_i \right) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \theta_i) \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{X}^\top (\mathbf{y} - \boldsymbol{\theta}) \end{aligned}$$

## GD vs. NR: Which one to use? (3)

- Hessian matrix:

$$H(\beta) = -X^T (\nabla_{\beta} \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n \mathbf{x}_i \theta_i (1 - \theta_i) \mathbf{x}_i^T \equiv X^T D_w X$$

- GD moves:  $\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^{(t)} + \epsilon X^T (\mathbf{y} - \theta^{(t)})$
- NR moves:  $\beta^{(t+1)} = \beta^{(t)} + (X^T D_w X)^{-1} X^T (\mathbf{y} - \theta^{(t)})$ 
  - which can be understood as iterative weighted least squares.
- High-level takeaway: Compared to GD, NR converges very fast when it works, but may be unstable and the involved computation is heavy.