

Composing stochastic quasi-Newton-type algorithms

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Joint work with Adrian Wills at the University of Newcastle, Australia.

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Mindset — Numerical methods are inference algorithms

A numerical method **estimates** a certain **latent** property **given** the result of computations.

Computation is inference meaning that numerical methods can be interpreted as estimation/learning algorithms.

Basic numerical methods and basic statistical models are deeply connected in formal ways!

Poincaré, H. Calcul des probabilités. Paris: Gauthier-Villars, 1896.

Diaconis, P. Bayesian numerical analysis. Statistical decision theory and related topics, IV(1), 163-175, 1988.

O'Hagan, A. Some Bayesian numerical analysis. Bayesian Statistics, 4, 345-363, 1992.

Hennig, P., Osborne, M. A., and Girolami, M. Probabilistic numerics and uncertainty in computations. Proceedings of the Royal Society of London A: Mathematical, Physical and Engineering Sciences, 471(2179), 2015.

Mindset — Numerical methods are inference algorithms

The task of a numerical algorithm is

to estimate unknown quantities from known ones.

Ex) basic algorithms that are equivalent to Gaussian MAP inference:

- Conjugate Gradients for linear algebra
- BFGS for nonlinear optimization
- Gaussian quadrature rules for integration
- Runge-Kutta solvers for ODEs

The structure of num. algs. is similar to statistical inference where

- The tractable quantities play the role of "data"/"observations".
- The intractable quantities relate to "latent"/"hidden" quantities.

Problem formulation

If computation is inference maybe it is possible to use this in deriving new (and possibly more capable) algorithms.

What? Solve the non-convex stochastic optimization problem $\max f(x)$

when we only have access to **noisy** evaluations of f(x) and its derivatives.

Why? These stochastic optimization problems are common:

- The cost function cannot be evaluated on the entire dataset.
- When numerical methods approximate f(x) and $\nabla^i f(x)$.
- . . .

How? — our contribution

How? Learn a probabilistic nonlinear model of the Hessian.

Provides a local approximation of the cost function f(x).

Use this local model to compute a search direction.

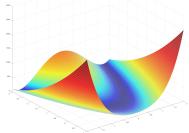
Captures second-order information (curvature) which opens up for better performance compared to a pure gradient-based method.

Intuitive preview example — Rosenbrock function

Let
$$f(x) = (a - x_1)^2 + b(x_2 - x_1^2)^2$$
, where $a = 1$ and $b = 100$.

Deterministic problem

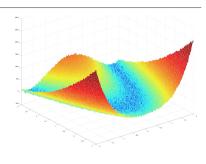
$$\max_{x} f(x)$$



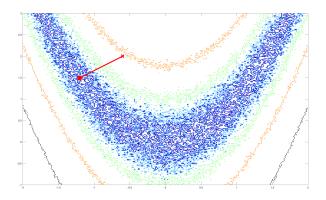
Stochastic problem

$$\max_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})$$

when we only have access to noisy versions of the cost function $(\tilde{f}(x) = f(x) + e, e = \mathcal{N}(0, 30^2))$ and its gradients.



fminunc at work



Terminates at the wrong solution after 3 iterations.

The true solution is (1,1).

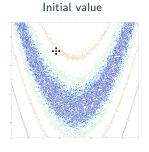
Adam at work

By not using the curvature information we expose ourself to the "banana-problem".

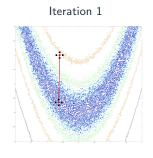
New algorithm at work — iteration 1

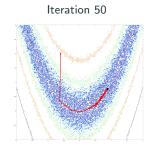
New algorithm at work — iteration 2

New algorithm at work — overall result



Iteration 2





Outline

Aim: Derive a stochastic quasi-Newton algorithm.

Spin-off: Combine it with particle filters for maximum likelihood identification in nonlinear state space models.

- 1. Mindset (probabilistic numerics) and problem formulation
- 2. A non-standard take on quasi-Newton
- 3. μ on the Gaussian process (GP)
- 4. Assembling a new stochastic optimization algorithm
 - a. Representing the Hessian with a GP
 - b. Learning the Hessian
- 5. Testing ground maximum likelihood in SSMs
- 6. Some ongoing research (if there is time)

Quasi-Newton — A non-standard take

Our problem is of the form

$$\max_{x} f(x)$$

Idea underlying (quasi-)Newton methods: Learn a local quadratic model $q(x_k, \delta)$ of the cost function f(x) around the current iterate x_k

$$q(\mathbf{x}_k, \delta) = f(\mathbf{x}_k) + g(\mathbf{x}_k)^{\mathsf{T}} \delta + \frac{1}{2} \delta^{\mathsf{T}} H(\mathbf{x}_k) \delta$$

A second-order Taylor expansion around x_k , where

$$g(x_k) = \nabla f(x)\big|_{x=x_k},$$

$$H(x_k) = \nabla^2 f(x)\big|_{x=x_k},$$

$$\delta = x - x_k.$$

Available data

We have measurements of the

- cost function $f_k = f(x_k)$
- and its gradient $g_k = g(x_k)$.

Question: How do we update the Hessian model?

Line segment connecting two adjacent iterates x_k and x_{k+1} :

$$r_k(\tau) = x_k + \tau(x_{k+1} - x_k), \qquad \tau \in \{0, 1\}.$$

Useful basic facts

The fundamental theorem of calculus states that

$$\int_0^1 \frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \nabla f(r_k(\tau)) d\tau = \nabla f(r_k(1)) - \nabla f(r_k(0)) = \underbrace{\nabla f(x_{k+1})}_{g_{k+1}} - \underbrace{\nabla f(x_k)}_{g_k}$$

and the chain rule tells us that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \tau} \nabla f(r_k(\tau)) = \nabla^2 f(r_k(\tau)) \frac{\partial r_k(\tau)}{\partial \tau} = \nabla^2 f(r_k(\tau)) (x_{k+1} - x_k).$$

$$\underbrace{g_{k+1}-g_k}_{=y_k}=\int_0^1\frac{\partial}{\partial\tau}\nabla f(r_k(\tau))d\tau=\int_0^1\nabla^2 f(r_k(\tau))d\tau\underbrace{(x_{k+1}-x_k)}_{s_k}.$$

Result — the quasi-Newton integral

With the definitions $y_k \triangleq g_{k+1} - g_k$ and $s_k \triangleq x_{k+1} - x_k$ we have

$$y_k = \int_0^1
abla^2 f(r_k(au)) \mathrm{d} au s_k.$$

Interpretation: The difference between two consecutive gradients (y_k) constitute a *line integral observation of the Hessian*.

Problem: Since the Hessian is unknown there is no functional form available for it.

Solution 1 — recovering existing quasi-Newton algorithms

Existing quasi-Newton algorithms (e.g. BFGS, DFP, Broyden's method) assume the Hessian to be constant

$$abla^2 f(r_k(\tau)) \approx H_{k+1}, \qquad \tau \in \{0,1\},$$

implying the following approximation of the integral (secant condition)

$$y_k=H_{k+1}s_k.$$

Find H_{k+1} by regularizing H:

$$H_{k+1} = \min_{H} \quad ||H - H_k||_W^2,$$

s.t. $H = H^T, \quad Hs_k = y_k,$

Equivalently, the existing quasi-Newton methods can be interpreted as particular instances of Bayesian linear regression.

Solution 2 — use a flexible nonlinear model

Our approach is fundamentally different.

Recall that the problem is **stochastic** and **nonlinear**.

Hence, we need a model that can deal with such a problem.

Idea: Represent the Hessian using a **Gaussian process** learnt from data.

Two of the remaining challenges:

- 1. Can we use line integral observations when learning a GP?
- 2. How do we ensure that the resulting GP represents a Hessian?

 μ on the Gaussian process (GP)

The Gaussian process is a model for nonlinear functions

Q: Why is the Gaussian process used everywhere?

It is a non-parametric and probabilistic model for nonlinear functions.

- Non-parametric means that it does not rely on any particular parametric functional form to be postulated.
- Probabilistic means that it takes uncertainty into account in every aspect of the model.

An abstract idea

In probabilistic (Bayesian) linear regression

$$y_t = \underbrace{\theta^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}_t}_{f(\mathbf{x}_t)} + e_t, \qquad e_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2),$$

we place a prior on θ , e.g. $\theta \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \alpha^2 I)$.

(Abstract) idea: What if we instead place a prior directly on the function $f(\cdot)$

$$f \sim p(f)$$

and look for $p(f | y_{1:T})$ rather than $p(\theta | y_{1:T})$?!

One concrete construction

Well, one (arguably simple) idea on how we can reason probabilistically about an unknown function f is by assuming that f(x) and f(x') are jointly Gaussian distributed

$$\begin{pmatrix} f(x) \\ f(x') \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N}(m, K).$$

If we accept the above idea we can without conceptual problems generalize to any *arbitrary* finite set of input values $\{x_1, x_2, \dots, x_T\}$.

$$\begin{pmatrix} f(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ f(x_T) \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \begin{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} m(x_1) \\ \vdots \\ m(x_N) \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} k(x_1, x_1) & \dots & k(x_1, x_T) \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ k(x_T, x_1) & \dots & k(x_T, x_T) \end{pmatrix} \end{pmatrix}$$

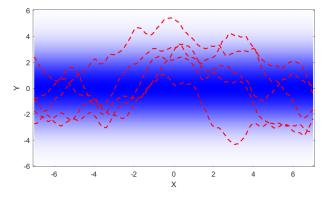
Definition

Definition: (Gaussian Process, GP) A GP is a (potentially infinite) collection of random variables such that any finite subset of it is jointly distributed according to a Gaussian.

We now have a prior!

$$f \sim \mathcal{GP}(m, k)$$

The GP is a generative model so let us first sample from the prior.



GP regression – illustration

Stochastic optimization

GP prior for the Hessian

Stochastic quasi-Newton integral

$$y_k = \int_0^1 \underbrace{B(r_k(\tau))}_{=\nabla^2 f(r_k(\tau))} s_k d\tau + e_k,$$

corresponds to noisy (e_k) gradient observations.

Since $B(x)s_k$ is a column vector, the integrand is given by

$$\operatorname{vec}(B(x)s_k) = (s_k^{\mathsf{T}} \otimes I) \operatorname{vec}(B(x)) = (s_k^{\mathsf{T}} \otimes I) \operatorname{vec}(B(x)),$$

where
$$\operatorname{vec}(B(x)) = D \underbrace{\operatorname{vech}(B(x))}_{\widetilde{B}(x)}$$
.

Let us use a GP model for the unique elements of the Hessian

$$\widetilde{B}(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(\mu(\mathbf{x}), \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')).$$

Resulting stochastic qN integral and Hessian model

Summary: resulting stochastic quasi-Newton integral:

$$y_k = \underbrace{(s_k^\mathsf{T} \otimes I)D}_{=\bar{D}_k} \int_0^1 \widetilde{B}(r_k(\tau)) d\tau + e_k,$$

with the following model for the Hessian

$$\widetilde{B}(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(\mu(\mathbf{x}), \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x'})).$$

The Hessian can now be estimated using tailored GP regression.

Linear transformations (such as an integral or a derivative) of a GP results in a new GP.

Resulting stochastic optimization algorithm

Standard non-convex numerical optimization loop with **non-standard components**.

Algorithm 1 Probabilistic optimization

- 1. Initialization (k = 1)
- 2. while not terminated do
 - (a) Compute a search direction p_k using the current approximation of the gradient g_k and Hessian B_k .
 - (b) Probabilistic line search to find a step length α_k and set

$$\mathbf{x}_{k+1} = \mathbf{x}_k + \alpha_k \mathbf{p}_k.$$

- (c) Set k := k + 1
- (d) Update the Hessian estimate (tailored GP regression)
- 3. end while

Testing ground – nonlinear sys.id.

Probabilistic modelling of dynamical systems

$$\begin{aligned} x_t &= f(x_{t-1}, \theta) + w_t, \\ y_t &= g(x_t, \theta) + e_t, \\ x_0 &\sim p(x_0 \mid \theta), \\ (\theta &\sim p(\theta)). \end{aligned} \qquad \begin{aligned} x_t \mid (x_{t-1}, \theta) \sim p(x_t \mid x_{t-1}, \theta), \\ y_t \mid (x_t, \theta) \sim p(y_t \mid x_t, \theta), \\ x_0 &\sim p(x_0 \mid \theta), \\ (\theta &\sim p(\theta)). \end{aligned}$$

Corresponding full probabilistic model:

$$p(x_{0:T}, \theta, y_{1:T}) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} \underbrace{p(y_t \mid x_t, \theta)}_{\text{observation}} \underbrace{\prod_{t=1}^{T} \underbrace{p(x_t \mid x_{t-1}, \theta)}_{\text{dynamics}} \underbrace{p(x_0 \mid \theta)}_{\text{state}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{param.}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{prior}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{prior}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{prior}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{param.}} \underbrace{p(\theta)}_{\text{param.}$$

Model = probability distribution!

Maximum likelihood nonlinear system identification

Maximum likelihood – model the unknown parameters as a deterministic variable θ and solve

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} p(y_{1:T} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta}),$$

Challenge: The optimization problem is stochastic!

Cost function - the likelihood

Each element $p(y_t | y_{1:t-1}, \theta)$ in the likelihood

$$p(y_{1:T} | \theta) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} p(y_t | y_{1:t-1}, \theta),$$

can be computed by averaging over all possible values for the state x_t ,

$$p(y_t \mid y_{1:t-1}, \boldsymbol{\theta}) = \int p(y_t \mid x_t, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \underbrace{p(x_t \mid y_{1:t-1}, \boldsymbol{\theta})}_{\text{approx. by PF}} dx_t.$$

Non-trivial fact: The likelihood estimates obtained from the particle filter (PF) are **unbiased**.

Tutorial paper on the use of the PF (an instance of sequential Monte Carlo, SMC) for nonlinear system identification

ex) Simple linear toy problem

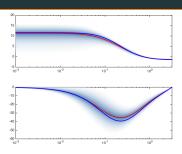
Identify the parameters $\theta = (a, c, q, r)^T$ in

$$egin{aligned} x_{t+1} &= \mathbf{a} \mathbf{x}_t + w_t, & w_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{q}), \ y_t &= \mathbf{c} \mathbf{x}_t + \mathbf{e}_t, & e_t \sim \mathcal{N}(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{r}). \end{aligned}$$

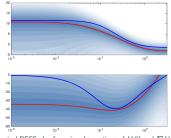
Observations:

- The likelihood $L(\theta) = p(y_{1:T} | \theta)$ and its gradient $\nabla_{\theta} L(\theta)$ are available in closed form via standard Kalman filter equations.
- Standard gradient-based search algorithms applies.
- Deterministic optimization problem $(L(\theta), \nabla_{\theta} L(\theta))$ noise-free).

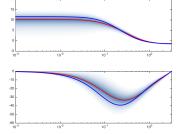
ex) Simple linear toy problem



Both alg. for in the noise-free case.

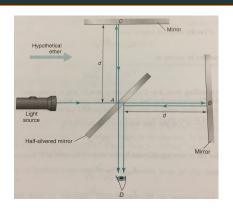


Classical BFGS alg. for noisy observations of $L(\theta)$ and $\nabla L(\theta)$.



GP-based BFGS alg. with noisy observations of $L(\theta)$ and $\nabla L(\theta).31/40$

ex) laser interferometry



The classic Michelson-Morley experiment from 1887.

Idea: Merge two light sources to create an interference pattern by superposition.

Two cases:

- 1. Mirror B and C at the same distance from mirror A.
- 2. Mirror B and C at different distances from mirror A.

ex) laser interferometry

Dynamics: constant velocity model (with unknown force w)

$$\begin{pmatrix} \dot{p} \\ \dot{v} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} p \\ v \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ w \end{pmatrix}.$$

Measurements: generated using two detectors

$$\begin{aligned} y_1 &= \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \cos(\kappa p) + e_1, & e_1 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2), \\ y_2 &= \beta_0 + \beta_1 \sin(\kappa p + \gamma) + e_2, & e_2 \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2). \end{aligned}$$

Unknown parameters: $\theta = \begin{pmatrix} \alpha_0 & \alpha_0 & \beta_0 & \beta_1 & \gamma & \sigma \end{pmatrix}^T$.

Resulting maximum likelihood system identification problem

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} p(y_{1:T} \mid \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

ex) laser interferometry

Snapshots of some related ongoing research

Snapshot 1 – scaling up to large problems

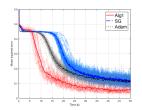
What is the key limitation of our GP-based optimization algorithm?

It does not scale to large-scale problems!

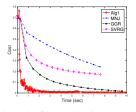
It is still highly useful and competitive for **small to medium** sized problems involving up to a coupled of hundred parameters or so.

We have developed a **new** technique that scales to **very large** problems.

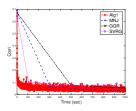
Snapshot 1 – scaling up to large problems



Training a deep CNN for MNIST data.



Logistic loss function with an L2 regularizer, gisette, 6 000 observations and 5 000 unknown variables.



Logistic loss function with an L2 regularizer, URL, 2 396 130 observations and 3 231 961 unknown variables.

Key innovations

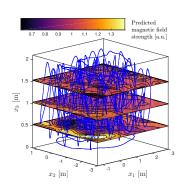
- Replace the GP with a matrix updated using fast Cholesky routines.
- Exploit a receding history of iterates and gradients akin to L-BFGS.
- An auxiliary variable Markov chain construction.

Snapshot 2 – A linearly constrained GP

Innovation: Modification of the covariance function in a GP to correctly account for **known linear operator** constraints.

Contribution:

- A probabilistic model that is guaranteed to fulfil known linear operator constraints.
- A constructive procedure for designing the transformation.



Snapshot 3 – GP-based nonlinear state space model

"Inspired by the Gaussian process, enabled by the particle filter"

$$\begin{aligned} x_{t+1} &= f(x_t) + w_t, & \text{s.t.} \quad f(x) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, \kappa_{\eta, f}(x, x')), \\ y_t &= g(x_t) + e_t, & \text{s.t.} \quad g(x) \sim \mathcal{GP}(0, \kappa_{\eta, g}(x, x')). \end{aligned}$$

Results in a **flexible** non-parametric model where the GP prior takes on the **role of a regularizer**.

We can now find the posterior distribution

$$p(f, g, Q, R, \eta | y_{1:T}),$$

via some approximation (we use particle MCMC).

Frigola, Roger, Fredrik Lindsten, Thomas B. Schön, and Carl Rasmussen. Bayesian inference and learning in Gaussian process state-space models with particle MCMC. In Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems (NIPS), 2013.

Snapshot 4 – The ASSEMBLE project and Birch

Aim: Automate probabilistic modeling of dynamical systems (and their surroundings) via a formally defined probabilistic modeling language.



Keep the model and the learning algorithms separated.

Create a market place for SMC-based learning algorithms (think CVX).

Birch — Our prototype probabilistic programming language.

Lawrence M. Murray, Daniel Lundén, Jan Kudlicka, David Broman and Thomas B. Schön. **Delayed sampling and automatic Rao-Blackwellization of probabilistic programs**. In *Proceedings of the 21st International Conference on Artificial Intelligence and Statistics (AISTATS)*, Lanzarote, Spain, April, 2018.

Conclusions

Derived a **probabilistic** quasi-Newton algorithm that can be used with **noisy** observations of the cost function and its derivatives.

- Non-standard interpretation of quasi-Newton.
- Represent the Hessian using a Gaussian process.
- Application: Maximum likelihood estimation in nonlinear SSMs.
- We can scale up to large problems.

Remember to talk to people who work on different problems with different tools!!

Backup slides

Tailoring GP regression for Hessian estimation

Setting: We put a GP prior on part of the Hessian

$$\widetilde{B}(\mathbf{x}) \sim \mathcal{GP}(\mu(\mathbf{x}), \kappa(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}')),$$

which is then updated using the measurements via the stochastic quasi-Newton integral:

$$y_k = \underbrace{(s_k^\mathsf{T} \otimes I)D}_{=\bar{D}_k} \int_0^1 \widetilde{B}(r_k(\tau)) d\tau + e_k.$$

The Gaussian process is closed under linear operators implying that

$$y_k \sim \mathcal{N}\left(m_k, K_{kk}\right),$$

where

$$m_k = \bar{D}_k \int_0^1 \mu(r_k(\tau)) d\tau,$$
 $K_{kk} = \bar{D}_k \int_0^1 \int_0^1 \kappa(r_k(\tau), r_k(t)) d\tau dt \bar{D}_k^\mathsf{T} + R.$

Hessian posterior distribution

Setting: We have training data available in the form $\{s_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^N$.

Model assumptions:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \widetilde{B}_{\star} \\ \mathbf{y} \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} m_{s_{\star}} \\ m_{s} \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} K_{s_{\star}s_{\star}} & K_{s_{\star}s} \\ K_{ss_{\star}} & K_{ss} \end{pmatrix} \right).$$

$$\mathbf{y} = \begin{pmatrix} y_1 & y_2 & \cdots & y_N \end{pmatrix}^\mathsf{T}, \qquad \mathbf{s} = \begin{pmatrix} s_1 & s_2 & \cdots & s_N \end{pmatrix}^\mathsf{T}.$$

Result of using the new Hessian information

$$\widetilde{B}_{\star} \mid \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N}\left(m_{\mathsf{p}}, K_{\mathsf{p}}\right),$$

$$m_{\mathsf{p}} = m_{s_{\star}} - K_{s_{\star}s} K_{\mathsf{ss}}^{-1} (\mathbf{y} - m_{\mathsf{s}}),$$

$$K_{\mathsf{p}} = K_{s_{\star}s_{\star}} - K_{s_{\star}s} K_{\mathsf{ss}}^{-1} K_{\mathsf{ss}_{\star}}.$$

GP regression – general

Remaining problem: Given training data $\mathcal{T} = \{x_t, y_t\}_{i=1}^T$ and our GP prior $f \sim \mathcal{GP}(m, k)$ compute $p(f_* \mid \mathbf{y})$ for an arbitrary test point (x_*, y_*) .

$$\begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{y} \\ \mathbf{f}_{\star} \end{pmatrix} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\begin{pmatrix} m(\mathbf{x}) \\ m(\mathbf{x}_{\star}) \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) + \sigma^{2} I_{T} & k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_{\star}) \\ k(\mathbf{x}_{\star}, \mathbf{x}) & k(\mathbf{x}_{\star}, \mathbf{x}_{\star}) \end{pmatrix} \right),$$

The conditioning theorem for partitioned Gaussians results in

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{f_{\star}} \mid \mathbf{y} \sim \mathcal{N} \left(\mu_{\star}, k_{\star} \right), \\ & \mu_{\star} = m(\mathbf{x_{\star}}) + \mathbf{s}^{\mathsf{T}} (\mathbf{y} - m(\mathbf{x})), \\ & k_{\star} = k(\mathbf{x_{\star}}, \mathbf{x_{\star}}) - \mathbf{s}^{\mathsf{T}} k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x_{\star}}), \end{aligned}$$

where
$$\mathbf{s}^{\mathsf{T}} = k(\mathbf{x}_{\star}, \mathbf{x})(k(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}) + \sigma^2 I_T)^{-1}$$
.