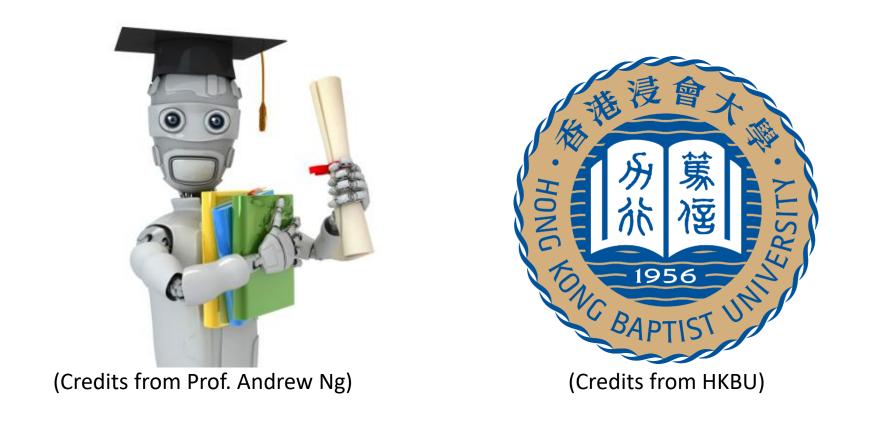
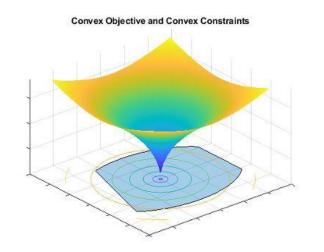
COMP7180: Quantitative Methods for DAAI

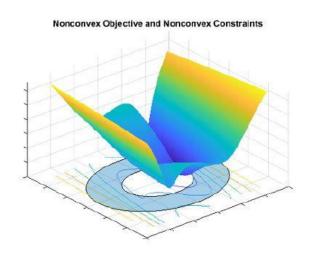


Course Instructors: Dr. Yang Liu and Dr. Bo Han Teaching Assistant: Mr. Minghao Li

Course Contents

- Continuous and Discrete Random Variables (Week 7)
- Conditional Probability and Independence (Week 8)
- Maximum Likelihood Estimation (Week 9)
- Mathematical Optimization (Week 10)
- Convex and Non-Convex Optimization (Week 11) Our Focus
- Quiz and Course Review (Week 12)





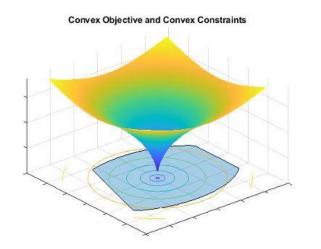
General optimization problem

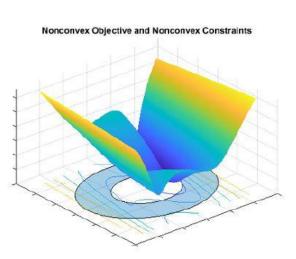
- very difficult to solve
- methods involve some compromise, e.g., very long computation time, or not always finding the solution (which may not matter in practice)

Exceptions: certain problem classes can be solved efficiently and reliably:

- linear optimization problems
- convex optimization problems

- Convex optimization problems are far more general than linear optimization (LO) problems
 - Linear optimization is a special case of convex optimization (Page 28).
- Convex optimization share the desirable properties of LO problems:
 They can be solved quickly and reliably up to very large size -- hundreds of thousands of variables and constraints.





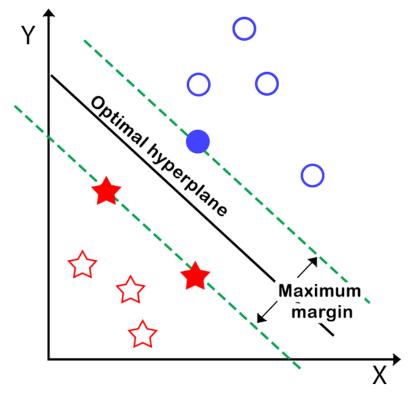
Why Convex Optimization matters in Machine Learning?

Answer: Many machine learning problems can be summarized into Convex Optimation problems.

Examples:

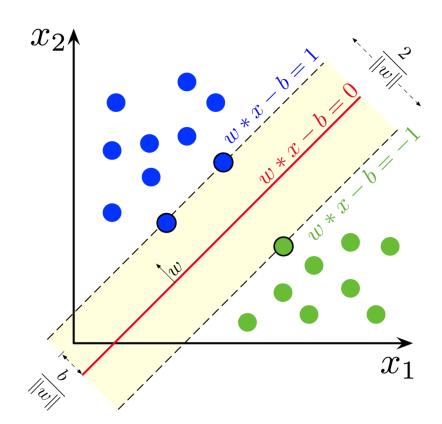
Support vector machine (SVM)

Kernel ridge regression (KRR)



• Support vector machine (SVM) In machine learning, SVM are supervised learning models with associated learning algorithms that analyze data for classification and regression analysis.

More formally, a SVM constructs a hyperplane or set of hyperplanes in a high or infinite-dimensional space, which can be used for classification, regression, or other tasks like outliers detection.

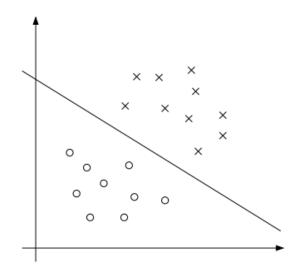


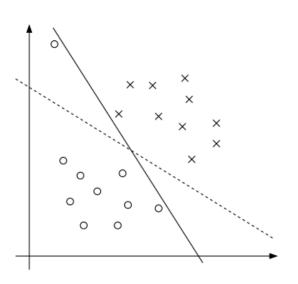
Intuitively, a good separation is achieved by the hyperplane that has the largest distance to the nearest training-data point of any class (so-called functional margin)

SVM: An Example of Convex Optimization

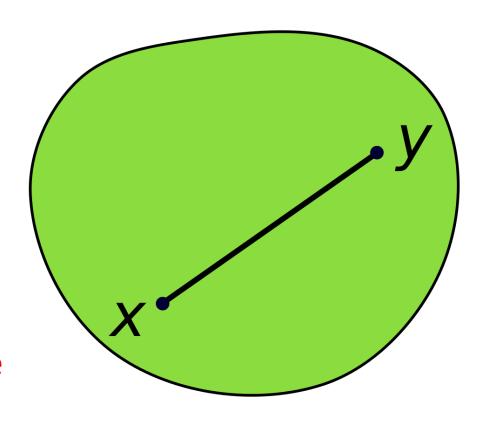
$$\min_{w,b} \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^n \varepsilon_i$$
s.t. $y^{(i)} (w^T x^{(i)} + b) \ge 1 - \varepsilon_i, i = 1, \cdots, n$

$$\varepsilon_i \ge 0, i = 1, \cdots, n$$





- What is convex optimization?
- Before introducing convex optimization, we need to introduce two concepts: convex set and convex function.
- Convex Set is a set that the line segment between any two points in the set lies in the set: C is a convex set, if for any two points x, y in C, then $tx + (1-t)y \in C$, where $0 \le t \le 1$.



Example of Convex Set: the solution set of linear equation Ax=b is a convex set.

Proof. Let x and y be the solutions of Ax=b, then we need to show that tx+(1-t)y is also a solution:

$$A(tx+(1-t)y) = tAx+(1-t)Ay$$

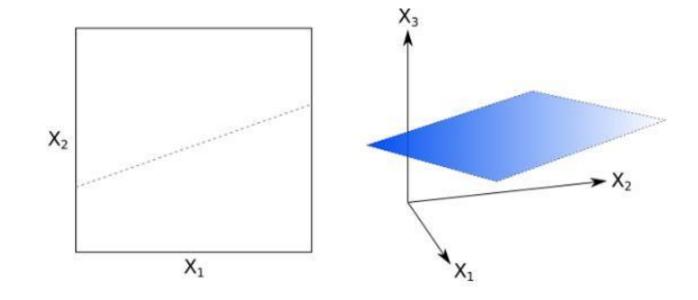
= tb+(1-t)b = b

Therefore, the solution set of linear equation is a convex set.

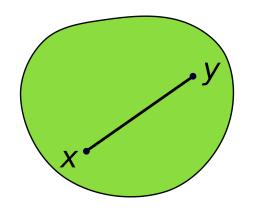
Note:

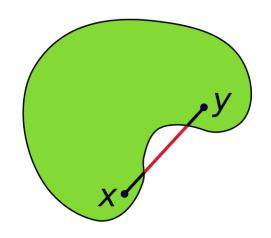
In this class x and y represent real values in R

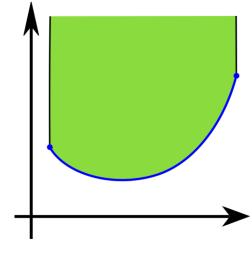
x represents a vector
$$\begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_d \end{pmatrix}$$

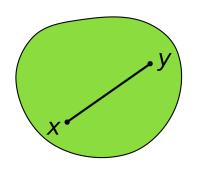


Please answer whether the green area is a convex set or not.

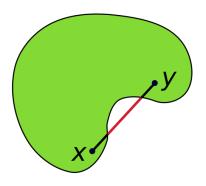




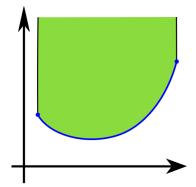




• It is a convex set, because the line segment between any two points in the set lies in the set



• It is not a convex set, because the line segment between x and y in the set does not lie in the set



• It is a convex set, because the line segment between any two points in the set lies in the set

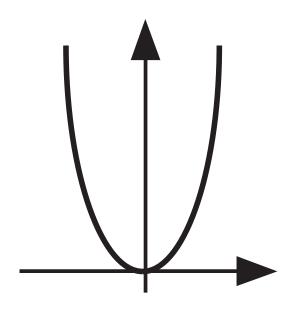
- Convex function: a function f is a convex function, if f meets the following two conditions:
 - 1. the domain of f is a convex set C, that is f: $C \rightarrow R$

2. for any points \mathbf{x} , $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{C}$ and $0 \le t \le 1$,

$$f(tx+(1-t)y) \leq tf(x)+(1-t)f(y)$$

The graph of a convex function is similar to a bowl.





convex function

What is meaning of the following inequality?

$$f(tx+(1-t)y) \leq tf(x)+(1-t)f(y)$$

f(x) $tf(x_1) + (1-t)f(x_2)$ $f(tx_1 + (1-t)x_2)$ $x_1 \quad tx_1 + (1-t)x_2 \qquad x_2$

The line segment between any two points $(\mathbf{x}, f(\mathbf{x}))$ and $(\mathbf{y}, f(\mathbf{y}))$ is above the convex function. Please see the purple line and black curve.

Convex Optimization: Examples

Linear functions are convex fucntions:

Linear function is $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$, where **A** is a matrix and the domain is $R^{\mathbf{d}}$

Firstly, the domain is a convex set, because R^d is a convex set.

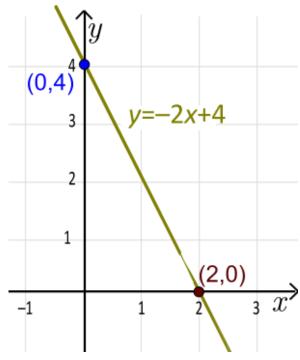
Secondly, for any $0 \le t \le 1$, and any x, y, then

$$f(tx+(1-t)y) = A(tx+(1-t)y)+b = A(tx+(1-t)y)+tb+(1-t)b$$

= $tAx+tb+(1-t)Ay+(1-t)b = tf(x)+(1-t)f(y)$

Therefore, $f(t\mathbf{x}+(1-t)\mathbf{y}) = tf(\mathbf{x})+(1-t)f(\mathbf{y})$.

So $f(\mathbf{x})$ is a convex function.

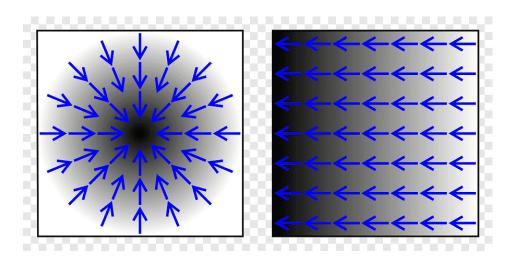


When f(x) is differential, can we check whether f(x) is convex by the gradient?

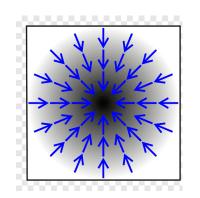
Answer: Yes

Recall what is gradient? Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)^T$, then the gredient of $f(\mathbf{x})$ is

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_d} \end{bmatrix}$$



What is meaning of gradient?



The gradient can be interpreted as the direction and rate of fastest increase.

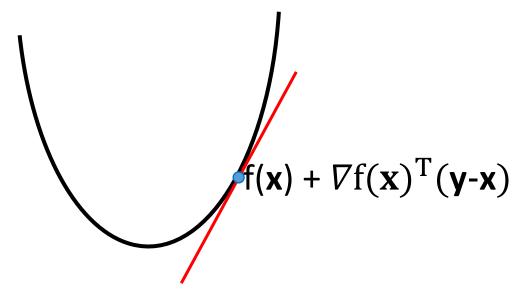
Example:
$$f(x_1, x_2) = -(x_1^2 + x_2^2)$$
. Then,

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = \begin{bmatrix} -2\mathbf{x}_1 \\ -2\mathbf{x}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

When $f(\mathbf{x})$ is differential, can we check whether $f(\mathbf{x})$ is convex by the gradient? Following theorem gives the answer:

Assume that f(x) is differential, then f(x) is convex if and only if

the domain C is convex and $f(y) \ge f(x) + \nabla f(x)^{T}(y-x)$.



Theorem 1. Assume that f(x) is differential, then f(x) is convex if and only if

the domain C is convex and $f(y) \ge f(x) + \nabla f(x)^{T}(y-x)$. The proof can be found in Proposition 4 in

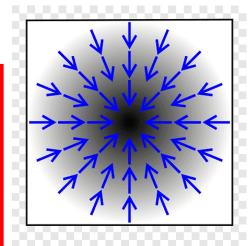
https://wiki.math.ntnu.no/_media/tma4180/2016v/note2.pdf

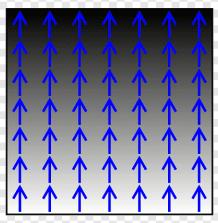
We still use the linear function to check the result.

$$f(x) = Ax+b$$
, then $\nabla f(x)^T = A$.

$$f(x) + \nabla f(x)^{T}(y-x) = Ax+b+A(y-x) = Ay+b$$

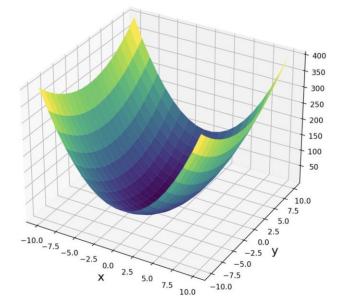
So
$$f(y)=f(x) + \nabla f(x)^{T}(y-x)$$





When $f(\mathbf{x})$ is twice differentiable, can we check whether $f(\mathbf{x})$ is convex by Hessian Matrix? Answer: Yes

Recall what is Hessian Matrix? Let $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_d)^T$, then the Hessian Matrix $f(\mathbf{x})$ is the Hessian Matrix is a dxd matrix, for the ij-th element in the matrix is the second-order partial derivatives of $f: \frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i \partial x_i}$



$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{1} \partial x_{d}} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{d} \partial x_{1}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_{d} \partial x_{d}} \end{bmatrix}$$



• If the second-order partial derivatives are continuous functions, then the Hessian Matrix is symmetric, i.e., $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x})^{\mathrm{T}}$

Example: $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + x_2^2$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} = 2, \qquad \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2} = 2, \qquad \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} = 0, \qquad \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} = 0$$

So

$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

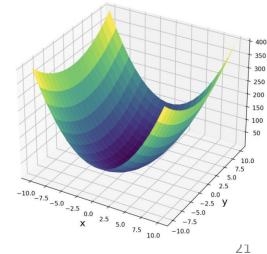


Please Compute:

the Hessian Matrix of $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + 2x_1x_2 + x_2^2$



the Hessian Matrix of $f(x_1, x_2) = 2x_1^3 + 6x_1x_2 + x_2^2 + x_2^3$



Solution:

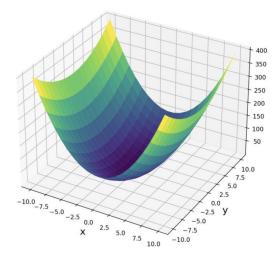
• the Hessian Matrix of $f(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 + 2x_1x_2 + x_2^2$

$$\frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} = 2, \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2} = 2, \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} = 2, \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} = 2$$



So

$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$



Solution:

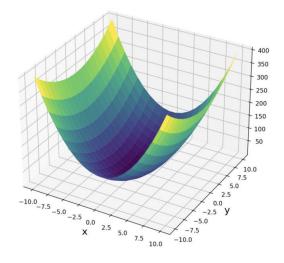
the Hessian Matrix of $f(x_1, x_2) = 2x_1^3 + 6x_1x_2 + x_2^2 + x_2^3$



$$\frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} = 12x_1, \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2} = 2 + 6x_2, \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} = 6, \frac{\partial^2 f(x)}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} = 6$$

So

$$\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{bmatrix} 12\mathbf{x}_1 & 6\\ 6 & 2 + 6\mathbf{x}_2 \end{bmatrix}$$



Theorem 2. Assume that f(x) is twice differential, then f(x) is convex if and only if

the domain C is convex and the Hessian Matrix $\mathbf{H}(\mathbf{x})$ is positive semi-definite. The proof can be found in Proposition 7 in https://wiki.math.ntnu.no/_media/tma4180/2016v/note2.pd

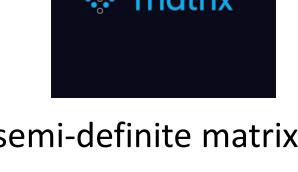
What is positive semi-definite matrix M?

Positive semi-definite matrix \mathbf{M} is a nxn sysmetric matrix $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}^{T}$ and for any real n-dimensional vector \mathbf{z} , $\mathbf{z}^{T}\mathbf{M}\mathbf{z} \geq 0$.

Examples of positive semi-definite matrix:

• $\mathbf{M} = \begin{bmatrix} a & 0 \\ 0 & h \end{bmatrix}$ is a positive semi-definite matrix, if $a \ge 0$ and $b \ge 0$

Because for any (x,y), $(x,y)M(x,y)^T = ax^2 + by^2 \ge 0$



• Please check that
$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$$
 is a positive semi-definite matrix

• Please check that $\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}$ is a positive semi-definite matrix

For any (x,y,z), we can check that

$$(x,y,z) \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} (x,y,z)^{T} = 2x^{2}-2xy+2y^{2}-2yz+2z^{2}$$

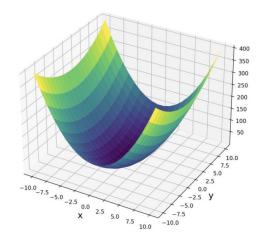
$$= x^{2} + (x-y)^{2} + (z-y)^{2} + z^{2} \ge 0$$

Theorem 3. $f(x) = x^T Mx + bx$ is a convex function, if M is a positive semi-definite matrix.

Proof. The Hessian Matrix of f(x) is 2M

(The details about how to compute the matrix derivatives can be found in https://cloud.tencent.com/developer/article/1551901).

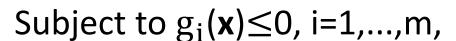
Because **M** is a positive semi-definite matrix, 2**M** is positive semi-definite





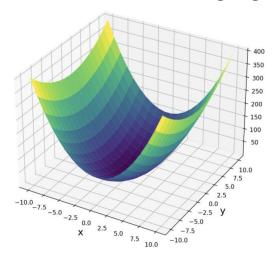
Definition of Convex Optimization Problem:

Minimize f(x)



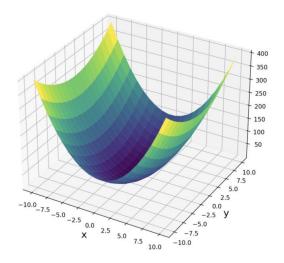
$$h_j(x) = 0, j = 1,...,n.$$

- $g_i(x)$ is convex function, i=1,...,m
- $h_j(x)$ is linear function A_jx+b_j , j=1,...,n
- f(x) is a convex function



Examples of Convex Optimization:

Linear optimization belongs to Convex Optimization.
 Because linear functions are also convex function.



• Minimize $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} \mathbf{x}$ is a Convex Optimization problem without constraints, if \mathbf{M} is a positive semi-definite matrix.

We first introduce how to address convex optimization without constraints: that is

Minimize f(x), where f(x) is convex

We want to ask some issues:

Issue 1. Whether we can find a solution to this issue?

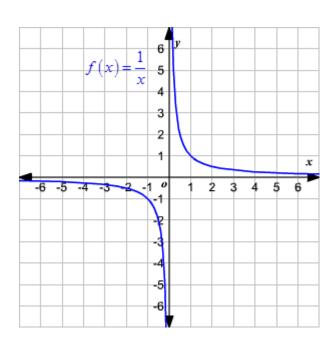
Issue 2. Whether the solution is unique.

• Issue 1. Whether we can find a solution to convex optimization without constraints? (解的存在性)

Not all Minimize f(x) has a solution such as

f(x) = 1/x, where the domain is $(0,+\infty)$

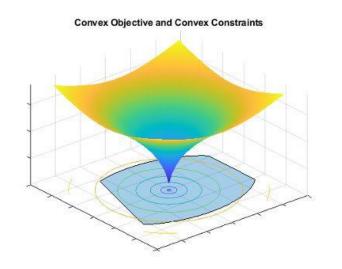
Because f(x) gets close to 0, when x gets close to $+\infty$. So the optimal solution should be $+\infty$, but we cannot obtain it.

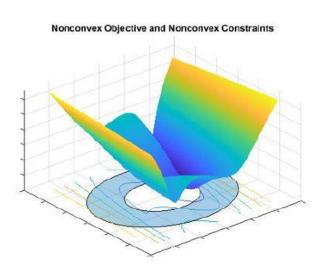


Theorem 4. Assume that $f(\mathbf{x})$ is differential, then \mathbf{x}_0 is the optimal solution of Convex optimization problem Minimize $f(\mathbf{x})$ if and only if $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{0}$.

The proof can be found in Section 4.2.3 in https://web.stanford.edu/~boyd/cvxbook/bv_cvxbook.pdf

This theorem implies an important fact that: if we want to address Minimize f(x), we only need to check its gradient.





Theorem 4. Assume that $f(\mathbf{x})$ is differential and the domain is $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{d}}$, then \mathbf{x}_0 is the optimal solution of Convex optimization problem Minimize $f(\mathbf{x})$ if and only if $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) = \mathbf{0}$.

The proof can be found in Section 4.2.3 in https://web.stanford.edu/~boyd/cvxbook/bv_cvxbook.pdf

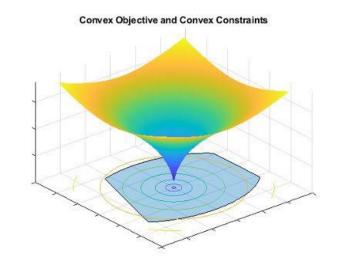
Application of Theorem 4:

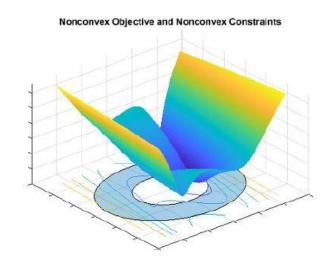
$$f(x,y) = ax^2 + by^2$$
, where a>0, b>0. Then

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0) = \begin{bmatrix} 2a\mathbf{x}_0 \\ 2b\mathbf{y}_0 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$
, where $\mathbf{x}_0 = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_0 \\ \mathbf{y}_0 \end{bmatrix}$, so the optimal solution is $\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$.

Exercise:
$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{b} = (1,0,0)$$

what is the solution of Minimize $f(x) = x^T Mx + bx$?



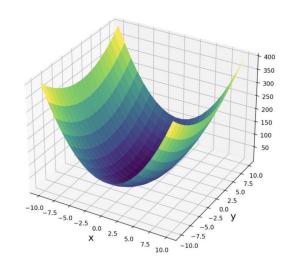


Solution: Firstly, we note that **M** is an inverse matrix, and the inverse is

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.75 & 0.5 & 0.25 \\ 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.25 & 0.5 & 0.75 \end{pmatrix}$$

Secondly, we need to compute the gradient $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$

How to compute the gradient?

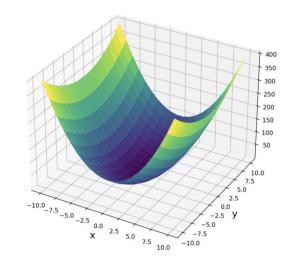


How to compute the gredient?

We introduce the Matrix derivatives:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{M}^{\mathrm{T}}) \mathbf{x},$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{b} \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{b}^{\mathrm{T}},$$

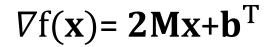


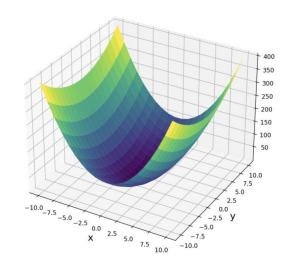
More details can be found in https://cloud.tencent.com/developer/article/1551901

Because **M** is sysmetric, then

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{x}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{x}}{\partial \mathbf{x}} = (\mathbf{M} + \mathbf{M}^{\mathrm{T}}) \mathbf{x} = 2 \mathbf{M} \mathbf{x}.$$

So we obtain that





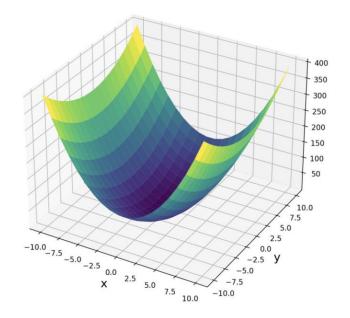
Then according to Theorem 4, the optimal solution sholud satisfy that $2Mx_0+b^T=0$

Then according to Theorem 4, the optimal solution sholud satisfy that

$$2\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x_0} + \mathbf{b}^{\mathrm{T}} = \mathbf{0}$$

The solution of
$$2Mx_0 + b^T = 0$$
 is $\frac{-M^{-1}b^T}{2} = \frac{-1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0.75 & 0.5 & 0.25 \\ 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.25 & 0.5 & 0.75 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

So the optimal solution is $\begin{pmatrix} -3/8 \\ -1/4 \\ -1/8 \end{pmatrix}$

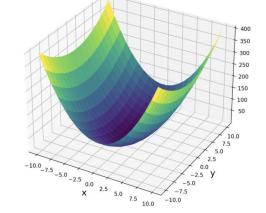


Issue 2. Whether the solution is unique.

Theorem 5. Considering Minimize f(x), if f(x) is strictly convex, the optimal solution is unique.

What is strictly convex?

$$f(tx+(1-t)y) < tf(x)+(1-t)f(y)$$



- x^2 is strictly convex. Why? we will show it in page 40
- Linear function is not strictly convex but convex. Why? Because

$$f(tx+(1-t)y)=tf(x)+(1-t)f(y)$$

The methods to check whether a function is strictly convex.

Theorem 6. Assume that $f(\mathbf{x})$ is differential, then $f(\mathbf{x})$ is strictly convex if and only if the domain C is convex and $f(\mathbf{y}) > f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x})^{\mathrm{T}}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})$.

See Section 3.1 in

https://www.princeton.edu/~aaa/Public/Teaching/ORF523/S16/ORF523_S16_Lec7_gh.pdf

Theorem 7. Assume that $f(\mathbf{x})$ is twice differential, then if the domain C is convex and the Hessian matrix of $f(\mathbf{x})$ is positive definite, then $f(\mathbf{x})$ is strictly convex.

See Section 3.1 in

https://www.princeton.edu/~aaa/Public/Teaching/ORF523/S16/ORF523_S16_Lec7_gh.pdf

What is a positive definite matrix?

Positive definite matrix **M** is a nxn symmetric matrix **M** = \mathbf{M}^{T} and for any real n-dimensional vector \mathbf{z} ($\mathbf{z} \neq \mathbf{0}$), $\mathbf{z}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{M} \mathbf{z} > 0$.

Compare to Positive semi-definite:

- Positive semi-definite: $z^T M z \ge 0$.
- Positive definite: $\mathbf{z}^{T}\mathbf{M}\mathbf{z} > 0$, if $\mathbf{z} \neq \mathbf{0}$.

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} \text{ is } \mathbf{positive definite},$$

because
$$(x,y,z)$$
 $\begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix} (x,y,z)^{T}$
= $x^{2} + (x - y)^{2} + (z - y)^{2} + z^{2} > 0$

if (x,y,z) is not **0**.

How to check whether a matrix is a positive definite matrix?

- First, the matrix should be symmetric $\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{M}^{\mathrm{T}}$.
- Second, the eigenvalues are larger than 0.

For example,

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 5 & 1 \\ 1 & 5 \end{pmatrix}$$
 is symmetric and the eigenvalues are 4 and 6.

So **M** is a positive definite matrix

According to Theorems 5 and 7, we know that $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{M} \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} \mathbf{x}$ has an unique solution, if \mathbf{M} is positive definite.

Proof. The Hessian Matrix of f is 2M (The details about how to compute the matrix derivatives can be found in https://cloud.tencent.com/developer/article/1551901).

So if **M** is positive definite, then 2**M** is positive definite.

By Theorem 7, f(x) is a strictly convex function.

By Theorem 5, $f(x) = x^T Mx + bx$ has an unique solution

We next introduce convex optimization with constraints: that is

Minimize
$$f(x)$$
,

Subject to
$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0$$
, $i=1,...,m$,

$$h_j(x) = 0, j = 1,...,n.$$

We want to ask an issue:

Issue. Whether we can find a solution to this issue? (解的存在性)

Issue. Whether we can find a solution to this issue? (解的存在性)

Following theorem gives the answer:

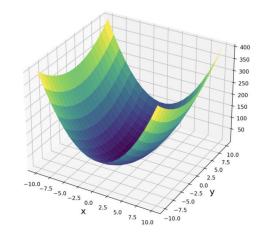
Theorem 8. Assume that $f(\mathbf{x})$ is differential, then \mathbf{x}_0 is the optimal solution of the Convex optimization problem with constraints if and only if

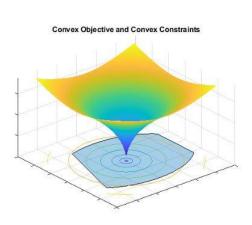
$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^{\mathrm{T}}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}_0) \ge 0$$
,

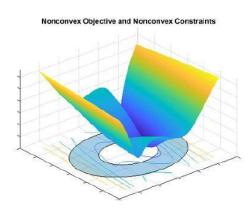
for all **y** satisfy the constraints.

The proof can be found in Section 4.2.3 in https://web.stanford.edu/~boyd/cvxbook/bv_cvxbook.pdf

- Due to the complexity of constraints, it is complex and difficult to introduce the common solutions of convex optimization with constraints.
- In this class, we only address a popular examples to help us understand
 Theorem 8. If you are interested in deeper theory with respect to Convex
 Optimization with Constraints, you can read Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 in
 the book https://web.stanford.edu/~boyd/cvxbook/bv_cvxbook.pdf







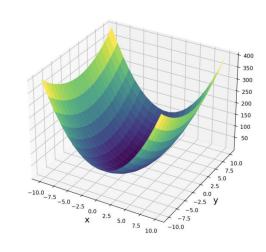
We consider a conic form problem

Minimize **bx**

Subject to $\mathbf{x}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{M}\mathbf{x} - c \leq 0$,

where

$$\mathbf{M} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 & -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 2 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 & 2 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{b} = (1,0,0), \mathbf{c} = 1$$



We firstly transform this problem to a simple form

Note that **M** is positive definite. According to the property of positive definite matrix, **M** can be decomposed as folloing form:

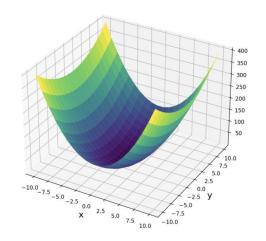
$$\mathbf{M} = \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{D} \mathbf{U},$$

where U is the orthogonal matrix and D is the diagonal matrix whose elements in the diagonal elements are M's eigenvalues.

This decomposition is called singular value decomposition, see https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Singular_value_decomposition

D can be written as follows:

$$\begin{pmatrix} a_1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & a_d \end{pmatrix},$$



where $a_i > 0$ (i=1,...,d), because **M** is positive definite.

D can be written as follows:

$$\sqrt{D}^{T}\sqrt{D}$$
 ,

where \sqrt{D} is the diagonal matrix whose elements in the square roots of diagonal elements

$$\sqrt{\mathbf{D}} = \begin{pmatrix} \sqrt{a_1} & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \cdots & \sqrt{a_d} \end{pmatrix}$$

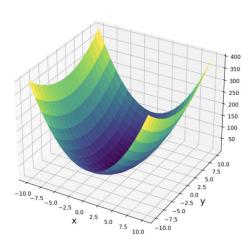
Then if we set (We transform this problem to a simple form as follows)

$$y = \sqrt{D} U x$$
, so $U^T \sqrt{D}^{-1} y = x$ and $x^T M x = y^T y$

Then, the problem will be transformed into

Minimize **b** $U^T \sqrt{D}^{-1} y$

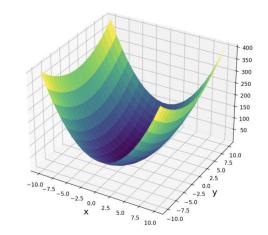
Subject to $\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{c} \leq 0$.



Now we address this simpler issue

Minimize **b**
$$U^T \sqrt{D}^{-1}$$
 y

Subject to $\mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{c} \leq 0$.

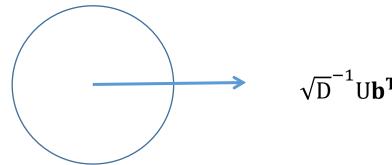


Using **Theorem 8**, we obtain that: if $\mathbf{y_0}$ is the optimal solution, then

$$\nabla f(y_0)^T(y-y_0) \ge 0$$
, for all y satisfy $y^Ty - c \le 0$.

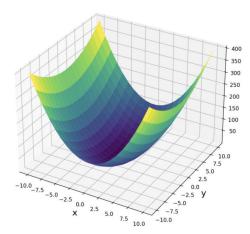
which is equal to
$$\mathbf{b} \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \mathbf{y} \ge \mathbf{b} \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \mathbf{y}_{0}$$

Note that $\mathbf{y}^T\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{c} \leq 0$ means a ball with radius $\sqrt{\mathbf{c}}$.



$$\mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \ \mathbf{y} \ge \mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \mathbf{y}_{0}$$

means that inner product between the optimal solution \mathbf{y}_0 and $\mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{U}^T \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1}$ should be smallest in the ball.



Cauchy inequality: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Cauchy%E2%80%93Schwarz_inequality

 $x^{T} y \ge - ||x|| ||y|| (||*|| is L2 norm)$

and $\mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{y} = -\|\mathbf{x}\| \|\mathbf{y}\|$ if and only if $\mathbf{x} = -k\mathbf{y}$, where k is any positive

constant.

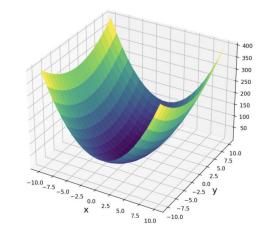
Using Cauchy inequality

$$\mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \mathbf{y} \ge \mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \mathbf{y}_{0} \ge - \left\| \mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \right\| \|\mathbf{y}_{0}\| \ge - \sqrt{c} \left\| \mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \right\|$$

So

$$\mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \mathbf{y} \geq -\sqrt{\mathbf{c}} \ \left\| \mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \right\|$$

If we take
$$\mathbf{y}_0 = -\sqrt{c}\sqrt{D}^{-1}U\mathbf{b}^T/\left\|\mathbf{b}\ U^T\sqrt{D}^{-1}\right\|$$
 ,



Then, it is clear that
$$\mathbf{b} \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \mathbf{y}_0 = -\sqrt{\mathbf{c}} \| \mathbf{b} \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \|.$$

So
$$\mathbf{y}_0 = -\sqrt{c}\sqrt{D}^{-1}U\mathbf{b}^{\mathrm{T}}/\left\|\mathbf{b} \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}}\sqrt{D}^{-1}\right\|$$
 is the optimal solution.

So
$$\mathbf{x}_0 = \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \mathbf{y}_0 = -\sqrt{\mathbf{c}} \, \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \mathbf{U} \mathbf{b}^{\mathsf{T}} / \left\| \mathbf{b} \, \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \right\|$$
$$= -\sqrt{\mathbf{c}} \, \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{b}^{\mathsf{T}} / \left\| \mathbf{b} \, \mathbf{U}^{\mathsf{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \right\|$$

$$\left\| \mathbf{b} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \right\| = \sqrt{\mathbf{b} \ \mathbf{U}^{\mathrm{T}} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \sqrt{\mathbf{D}}^{-1} \mathbf{U} \mathbf{b}^{\mathrm{T}}} = \sqrt{\mathbf{b} \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{b}^{\mathrm{T}}}$$

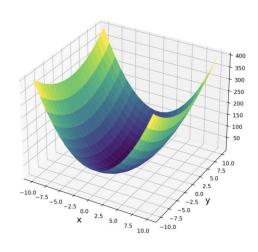
So, the optimal solution should be $-\sqrt{c} \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{b^T} / \sqrt{\mathbf{b} \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{b^T}}$

$$\mathbf{M}^{-1} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.75 & 0.5 & 0.25 \\ 0.5 & 1 & 0.5 \\ 0.25 & 0.5 & 0.75 \end{pmatrix}, \mathbf{b} = (1,0,0), \mathbf{c} = 1$$

So the solution

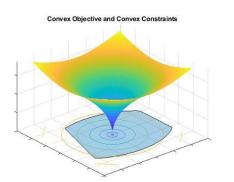
$$-\sqrt{c} \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{b}^{\mathrm{T}} / \sqrt{\mathbf{b} \mathbf{M}^{-1} \mathbf{b}^{\mathrm{T}}}$$

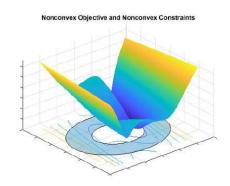
is equal to
$$\begin{pmatrix} -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{3} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{6} \end{pmatrix}$$



General optimization problem

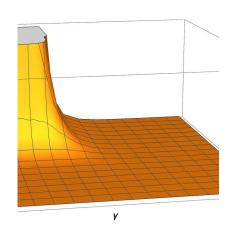
- very difficult to solve
- methods involve some compromise, e.g., very long computation time, or not always finding the solution (which may not matter in practice)
- The non-convex optimization is difficult to address.
- But it is very impratant in machine learning, because of the deep neural networks.

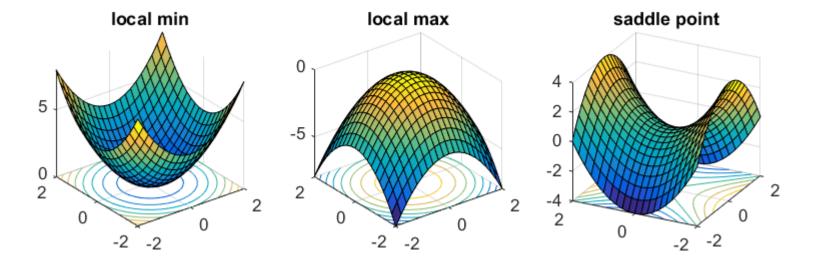




Why is non-convex optimization hard?

- Potentially many local minimal points
- Saddle points
- Very flat regions



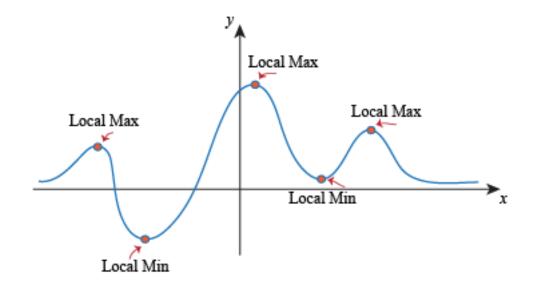


Global minimum point:

A real-valued function f defined on a domain Ω has a global maximum point at x*, if $f(x*) \leq f(x)$ for all x in Ω .

Local minimum point:

A real-valued function f defined on a domain Ω has a local maximum point at x*, if there exists some $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $f(x*) \le f(x)$ for all x in Ω within distance ε of x*

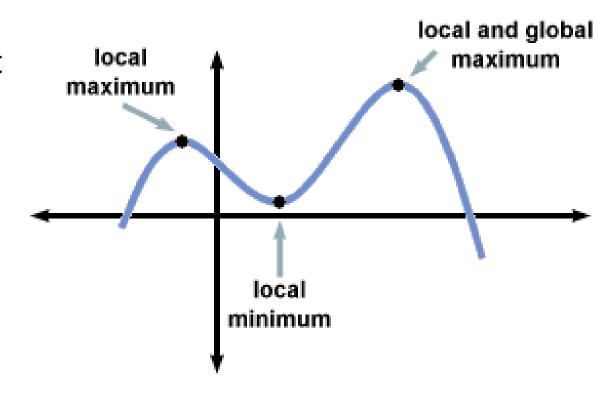


Global maximum point:

A real-valued function f defined on a domain Ω has a global maximum point at x*, if $f(x*) \ge f(x)$ for all x in Ω .

Local maximum point:

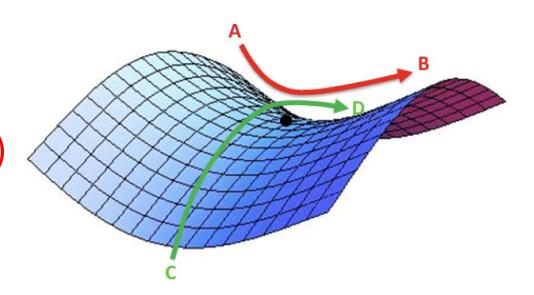
A real-valued function f defined on a domain Ω has a local maximum point at x*, if there exists some $\varepsilon > 0$ such that $f(x*) \ge f(x)$ for all x in Ω within distance ε of x*



Saddle Point:

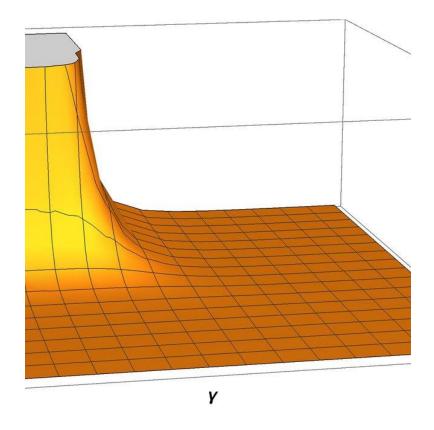
A saddle point or minimax point is a point on the surface of the graph of a function where the slopes (derivatives) in orthogonal directions are all zero (a critical point), but which is not a local extremum (local minimal point or local maximal point) of the function.

For example, x^2 -y² (see the figure). (0,0) is a saddle point, because the gradient at (0,0) is zero, but it is not the local extremum

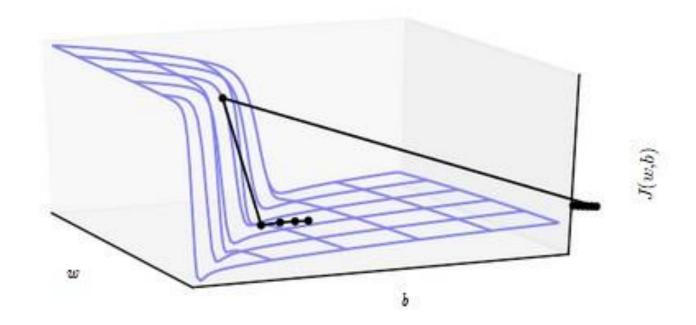


Very Flat Regions:

Very Flat Regions is an area on the surface of the graph of a function where the gredients (derivatives) in orthogonal directions are very close to zero, but which is not a local extremum of the function.



Cliffs and Exploding Gradients



Neural networks with many layers will have cliffs and exploding gradients. Therefore, gradient clipping is useful

Two Sum Problem



[2, 4, 7, 8, 9]

Why is non-convex optimization hard?

Non-convex optimization is at least NP-hard

Example: subset sum problem Given a set of integers, is there a non-empty subset whose sum is zero? Known to be NP-complete.

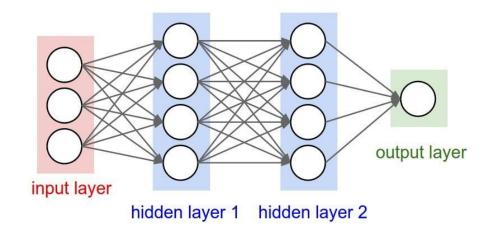
https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Subset sum problem

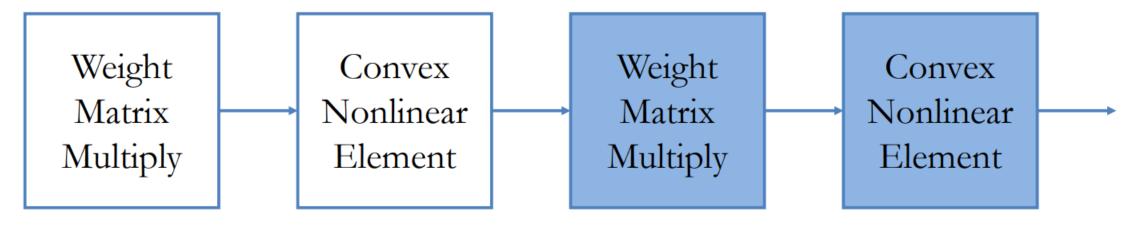
output layer input layer hidden layer 2 hidden layer 1

Examples of non-convex problems

- Matrix completion, principle component analysis
- Low-rank models and tensor decomposition
- Maximum likelihood estimation with hidden variables (Usually non-convex)
- The big one: deep neural networks

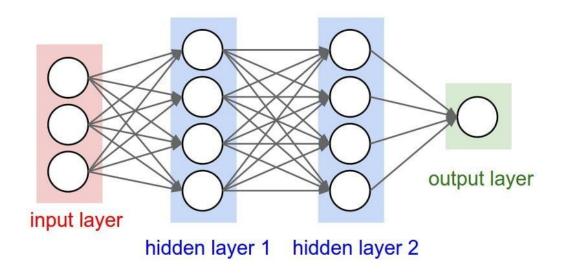
Why are neural networks non-convex?





- Composition of convex functions is not convex
- So deep neural networks also aren't convex

Why do neural nets need to be non-convex?

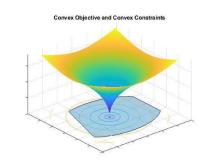


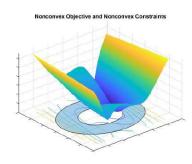
- Neural networks are universal function approximators That is with enough neurons, they can learn to approximate any function arbitrarily well
- To do this, they need to be able to approximate non-convex functions Convex functions can't approximate non-convex ones well.

How to solve non-convex problems?

- Gradient descent
- Stochastic gradient descent https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Stochastic_gradient_descent
- Adaptive gradient algorithm https://conferences.mpi-inf.mpg.de/adfocs/material/alina/adaptive-L1.pdf
- RMSprop https://optimization.cbe.cornell.edu/index.php?title=RMSProp
- Momentum https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Momentum

How to solve non-convex problems?





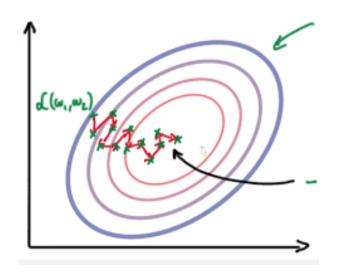
There are also specialized methods for solving non-convex problems

- Alternating minimization methods https://web.eecs.umich.edu/~fessler/course/598/l/n-06-alt.pdf
- Branch-and-bound methods

 http://web.tecnico.ulisboa.pt/mcasquilho/compute/_linpro/TaylorB_module_c.pdf
- These generally aren't very popular for machine learning problems

How to solve non-convex problems?

 If you are interested in different optimization strategies related to deep learning and machine learning, you can watch the following video as a begining. https://mofanpy.com/tutorials/machine-learning/torch/optimizer



In this class, we mainly introduce Gradient descent

Gradient Descent

Consider the following non-convex optimization problem:

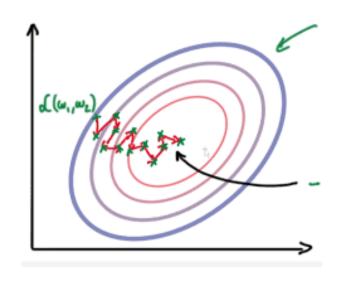
Minimize
$$f(x)$$
,

where f is non-convex and is defined in R^d.

Given an inital point x_0 (which is also called initial weight)

Then the next updated point should be

$$\mathbf{x_1} = \mathbf{x_0} - \mathbf{t} \nabla \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x_0})$$



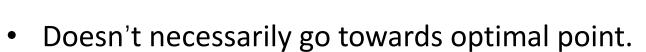
where t (t>0) is called learning rate.

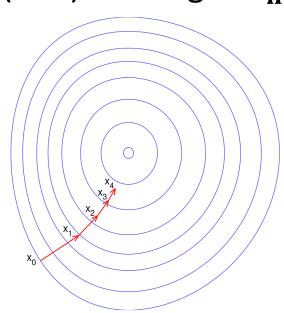
After we obtain the n-th weight x_n , then the (n+1)-th weight x_{n+1} is

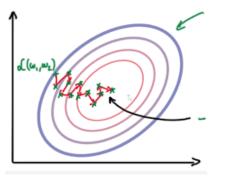
$$\mathbf{x_{n+1}} = \mathbf{x_n} - \mathsf{t} \nabla f(\mathbf{x_n})$$

Motivation 1. We hope the final point \mathbf{x} will get close to the a critical point $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$.

Motivation 2. to take repeated steps in the opposite direction of the gradient (or approximate gradient) of the function at the current point, because this is the direction of steepest descent (下降最快的方向).



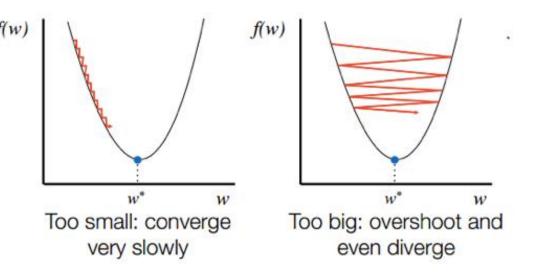




- The convergent point is the optimal point if the function is convex!
- The hardware doesn't care whether our gradients are from a convex function or not.
- This means that all our intuition about computational efficiency from the convex case directly applies to the non-convex case.

The influence of Step Size (Learning Rate t)

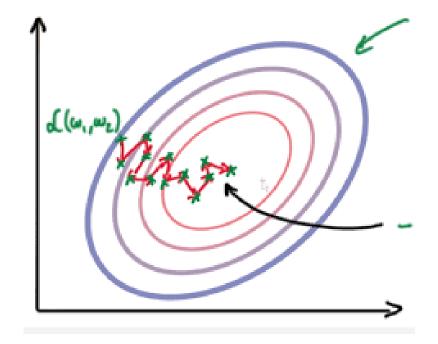
 Choosing a good Learning Rate is important in gradient descent



- Heuristics
 - When the function value increases after a gradient step, the step-size was too large. Undo the step and decrease the step-size.
 - When the function value decreases the step could have been larger. Try to increase the step-size.

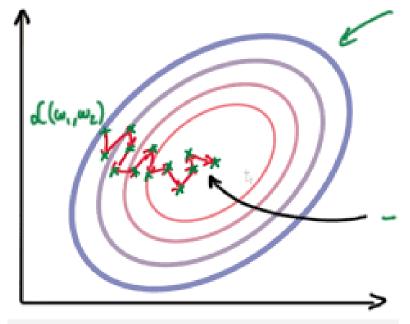
What points can Gradient Descent converge?

- Local minimal points
- Saddle points
- Miminal points
- Points in Very Flat Regions



Exercises

• Minimize f(x), where $f(x) = x^3$. Initial weight $x_0 = 1$, learning rate t = 1/3. Then what is the convergent point?



Solution

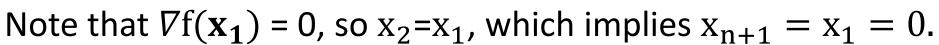
• Minimize f(x), where $f(x) = x^3$.

Then the grendent descent formula is

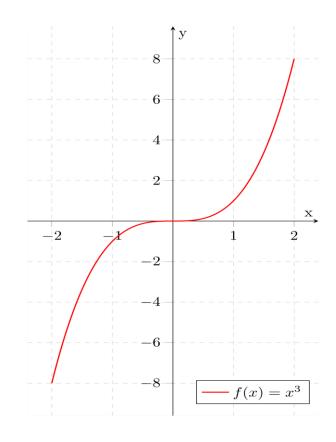
$$x_{n+1} = x_n - 3tx_n^2$$

Because $x_0 = 1$, t = 1/3, then

$$x_1 = 0$$



So 0 is the convergent point. But 0 is a saddle point of f(x).



Stochastic Gradient Descent

```
Algorithm 8.1 Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) update

Require: Learning rate schedule \epsilon_1, \epsilon_2, \ldots

Require: Initial parameter \theta

k \leftarrow 1

while stopping criterion not met do

Sample a minibatch of m examples from the training set \{x^{(1)}, \ldots, x^{(m)}\} with corresponding targets y^{(i)}.

Compute gradient estimate: \hat{g} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{i} L(f(x^{(i)}; \theta), y^{(i)})

Apply update: \theta \leftarrow \theta - \epsilon_k \hat{g}

k \leftarrow k + 1

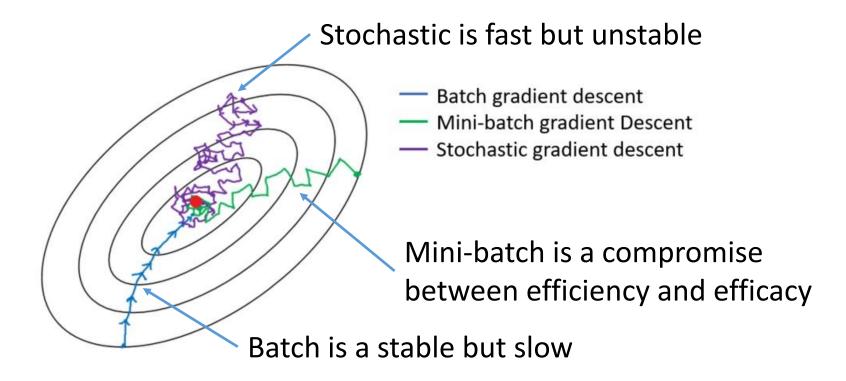
end while
```

Sample i uniformly from $\{1, \dots, n\}$, and update θ by

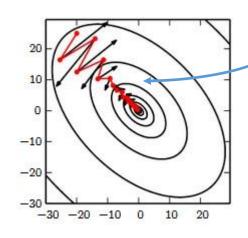
$$\theta = \theta - \epsilon \nabla_{\theta} J^{(i)}(\theta)$$

Mini-batch SGD

- When B=1, we conduct stochastic gradient descent
- When B=n, we conduct full-batch gradient desecent



Momentum



$$v \leftarrow \alpha v - \epsilon \nabla_{\theta} J^{(i)}(\theta)$$
$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + v$$

Algorithm 8.2 Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) with momentum

Require: Learning rate ϵ , momentum parameter α

Require: Initial parameter θ , initial velocity v

while stopping criterion not met do

Sample a minibatch of m examples from the training set $\{x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)}\}$ with corresponding targets $y^{(i)}$.

Compute gradient estimate: $\mathbf{g} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{i} L(f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \mathbf{y}^{(i)}).$

Compute velocity update $v \leftarrow \alpha v - \epsilon g$

Apply update: $\theta \leftarrow \theta + v$.

end while

Nesterov Momentum

$$v \leftarrow \alpha v - \epsilon \nabla_{\theta} J^{(i)}(\theta + \alpha v)$$
$$\theta \leftarrow \theta + v$$

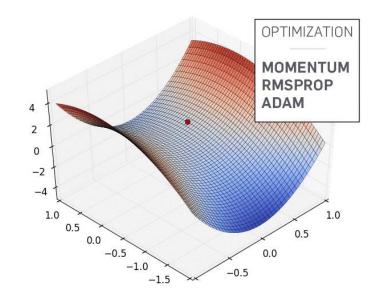
```
Algorithm 8.3 Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) with Nesterov momentum Require: Learning rate \epsilon, momentum parameter \alpha Require: Initial parameter \theta, initial velocity v while stopping criterion not met do Sample a minibatch of m examples from the training set \{x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)}\} with corresponding labels y^{(i)}. Apply interim update: \tilde{\theta} \leftarrow \theta + \alpha v. Compute gradient (at interim point): g \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \nabla_{\tilde{\theta}} \sum_{i} L(f(x^{(i)}; \tilde{\theta}), y^{(i)}). Compute velocity update: v \leftarrow \alpha v - \epsilon g. Apply update: \theta \leftarrow \theta + v. end while
```

Adaptive Algorithms

AdaGrad

• RMSProp

• Adam



AdaGrad

```
Algorithm 8.4 The AdaGrad algorithm

Require: Global learning rate \epsilon

Require: Initial parameter \theta

Require: Small constant \delta, perhaps 10^{-7}, for numerical stability

Initialize gradient accumulation variable r=0

while stopping criterion not met do

Sample a minibatch of m examples from the training set \{x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)}\} with corresponding targets y^{(i)}.

Compute gradient: g \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \nabla \theta \sum_i L(f(x^{(i)}; \theta), y^{(i)}).

Accumulate squared gradient: r \leftarrow r + g \odot g.

Compute update: \Delta \theta \leftarrow \frac{\epsilon}{\delta + \sqrt{r}} \odot g. (Division and square root applied element-wise)

Apply update: \theta \leftarrow \theta + \Delta \theta.
```

$$g_t = \nabla_{\theta_t} J(\theta_t)$$
 AdaGrad: $\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{G_t + \epsilon}} \odot g_t$

RMSProp

```
Algorithm 8.5 The RMSProp algorithm Require: Global learning rate \epsilon, decay rate \rho Require: Initial parameter \theta Require: Small constant \delta, usually 10^{-6}, used to stabilize division by small numbers Initialize accumulation variables r=0 while stopping criterion not met \mathbf{do} Sample a minibatch of m examples from the training set \{x^{(1)},\ldots,x^{(m)}\} with corresponding targets y^{(i)}. Compute gradient: g \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{i} L(f(x^{(i)};\theta),y^{(i)}). Accumulate squared gradient: r \leftarrow \rho r + (1-\rho)g \odot g Compute parameter update: \Delta \theta = -\frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{\delta+r}} \odot g. (\frac{1}{\sqrt{\delta+r}} applied element-wise) Apply update: \theta \leftarrow \theta + \Delta \theta. end while
```

Changing the gradient accumulation into an exponentially weighted moving average

Adam

```
Algorithm 8.7 The Adam algorithm
Require: Step size \epsilon (Suggested default: 0.001)
Require: Exponential decay rates for moment estimates, \rho_1 and \rho_2 in [0,1).
  (Suggested defaults: 0.9 and 0.999 respectively)
Require: Small constant \delta used for numerical stabilization (Suggested default:
  10^{-8})
Require: Initial parameters \theta
   Initialize 1st and 2nd moment variables s = 0, r = 0
   Initialize time step t = 0
   while stopping criterion not met do
     Sample a minibatch of m examples from the training set \{x^{(1)}, \dots, x^{(m)}\} with
     corresponding targets y^{(i)}.
     Compute gradient: \mathbf{g} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{i} L(f(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{\theta}), \mathbf{y}^{(i)})
     t \leftarrow t + 1
     Update biased first moment estimate. s \leftarrow \rho_1 s + (1 - \rho_1)g
     Update biased second moment estimate: r \leftarrow \rho_2 r + (1 - \rho_2) g \odot g
     Correct bias in first moment: \hat{s} \leftarrow \frac{s}{1}
     Correct bias in second moment: \hat{r} \leftarrow \frac{r}{1-r}
     Compute update: \Delta \theta = -\epsilon \frac{\hat{s}}{\sqrt{\hat{r}} + \delta} (operations applied element-wise)
     Apply update: \theta \leftarrow \theta + \Delta \theta
   end while
```

$$\begin{split} g_t &= \nabla_{\theta_t} J(\theta_t) \\ \text{Adam: } \theta_{t+1} &= \theta_t - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_t + \epsilon}} \, \widehat{m}_t \text{ ,} \\ \text{where } \widehat{m}_t &= \frac{m_t}{1 - \beta_1^t} \\ \text{and } \widehat{v}_t &= \frac{v_t}{1 - \beta_2^t} \\ m_t &= \beta_1 m_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_1) g_t \\ \text{and } v_t &= \beta_2 v_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_2) g_t^2 \end{split}$$

Using Adam when you are unfamiliar about optimization; while using momentum SGD when you are familiar about optimization

Thank You!