

# **Introduction to Optimization**

**WIMLDS Accra and AIMS Mathematics Bootcamp** 

#### **AIMS Ghana**

African Institute for Mathematical Sciences Ghana









## **Overview**

- 1. Introduction
- 2. Cost Functions
- 3. Gradient descent
- 4. Example
- 5. Conclusion





## Introduction

**Optimization** is defined as the process of selecting the best possible solution with regard to some criterion/criteria from some set of available alternatives. **The purpose of optimization** is to maximize a desired result and minimise an unwanted outcome.

#### Types of Optimization

- **Discrete Optimization**: Deals with problems where variables take on distinct values. Combinatorial optimization, integer programming and constraint programming are areas under discrete optimization.
- **Continuous Optimization**: Deals with problems where variables take on values in a specific range. It also allows the use of calculus techniques.

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# **Applications of optimization**

- **Transportation**: It is used to find the shortest possible route for delivery and traffic congestion
- Finance: Used in building investment portfolios and manage risk.
- Machine Learning: Used to train algorithms to perform tasks with the highest accuracy or efficiency.

#### Optimization in Machine Learning

The most common optimization algorithm is **gradient descent** which updates parameters iteratively until it finds an optimal set of values for the model being optimized.

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# **Cost Functions**





# **Definition**

The **Cost function** is a mathematical function used to quantify the error produced by a machine learning model. It is expressed as the difference between the actual and predicted values.

#### Uses of the cost function

- Used for the quantification of errors produced by predictions made using a model.
- Reduction of errors.

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# **Calculus review**

#### **Definition: Partial derivative**

Consider a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ . The partial derivative of f with respect to  $\theta_i$  is

$$\frac{\partial f(\theta)}{\partial \theta_i} = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{f(\theta + \varepsilon \mathbf{e_i}) - f(\theta)}{\epsilon} \tag{1}$$

• We often use the notation  $\partial_{\theta_i} f$  for  $\frac{\partial f(\theta)}{\partial \theta_i}$ 

For example, let  $f: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}$  where  $f(\theta) = \theta_1^2 + 2\theta_1\theta_2$ ,

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_1} = 2\theta_1 + 2\theta_2; \ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_2} = 2\theta_1$$

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## **Calculus review**

#### Convexity

To put it simply, a real-valued function f is **convex** if the line segment (or chord) between any two points f(x) and f(y) lies above the function graph.

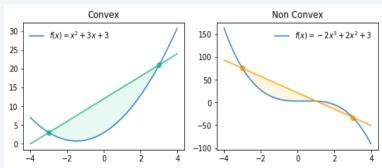


Figure: Convex and Non convex functions (rhome, Medium 2020)





## **Cost Functions in ML**

The type of cost function to be used is largely dependent on the type of machine learning problem.

#### Types of Machine Learning Problems

- Regression Problems: Dealing with continuous values such as price housing makes use of the the mean error or of the mean squared error(MSE) cost functions
- Classification Problems: For tasks where the motive is to predict discrete outputs(e.g; yes or no, cat or dog) appropriate cost functions to use are the log loss/cross-entropy loss function for binary classification and categorical-cross entropyfor multi classification.

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# **Cost Functions in ML**

Computing the predictions of a Machine learning model on a data set of **n samples**  $(\mathbf{x_i}, \mathbf{y_i})$  can be considered as computing a function  $f(x_i, \theta)$ , where  $\theta = (\theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3, \cdots)$  are the parameters of the model.

#### Mean error and MSE cost functions

Mean error

$$L(x;\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} |y_i - f(x_i,\theta)|$$

Mean squared error

$$L(x;\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - f(x_i,\theta))^2$$



# **Cost Functions in ML**

#### Log loss/cross entropy cost function

$$L(x,\theta) = -\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[ y_i log(f(x_i,\theta)) + (1-y_i) log(1-f(x_i,\theta)) \right]$$

Main properties of cost functions:

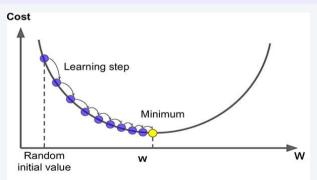
- Differentiable
- Convex

Essentially, cost functions act as guideposts for machine learning models, helping them navigate the learning process and achieve optimal performance.

# **Gradient descent**

#### What is Gradient Descent?

- Gradient descent is an optimization algorithm used to find the values of parameters (coefficients) of a function, f that minimizes the cost function (cost).
- Gradient descent is best used when the parameters cannot be calculated analytically for example by using linear algebra and thus must be searched for by an optimization algorithm.







## **Calculus review**

#### **Definition: Gradient vector**

Again, consider a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ . The gradient vector of f is

$$\nabla f(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_n} \end{pmatrix}$$

• **Note**: The gradient points in the direction where the function increases the most rapidly.

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# **Calculus review**

#### **Properties**

Consider a family of functions  $E_i$  ( $E_1, E_2, \cdots, E_m$ ) :  $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ 

• Additivity:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} (E_1 + E_2) = \frac{\partial E_1}{\partial \theta_j} + \frac{\partial E_2}{\partial \theta_j}$$

More generally,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \sum_{i=1}^m E_i(\theta_j) = \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\partial E_i}{\partial \theta_j}$$

• Chain rule: Given a function  $Z: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ 

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} E(Z(\theta)) = \frac{\partial E(Z)}{\partial Z} \times \frac{\partial Z}{\partial \theta_j}$$





## **Gradient descent**

#### Application in ML: Minimize Error (cost)

Gradient descent determines a weight vector  $\theta$  that minimizes the error,  $L(\theta)$  by:

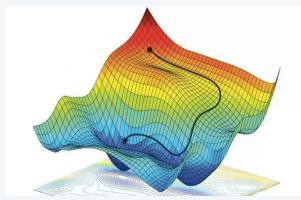
- Starting with an arbitrary initial weight vector.
- Repeatedly modify the weight vector in small steps.
- At each step, the wieght vector is modified in the direction that produces the steepest descent along the error surface.
- The gradient points directly uphill and the negative gradient points directly downhill.

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- ullet We can decrease the function L by moving in the direction of negative gradient. This is the method of Steepest descent.
- Given an initial  $\theta_0$ , then:

$$\theta^{k+1} = \theta^k - \eta \nabla L(\theta^{(k)}),$$

where  $\eta$  is the step size (learning rate).







# **Choosing the Learning Rate**

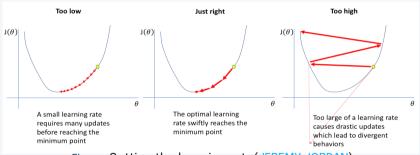


Figure: Setting the learning rate(JEREMY JORDAN)

#### When does the algorithm stop

- When the maximum number of epochs(iterations) is reached.
- When  $\partial_{\theta} L(\theta^{(k)})$  is sufficiently small.

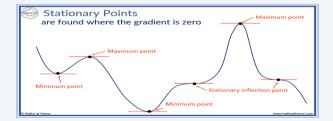
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## **Gradient Descent**

#### Stationary points, Local Optima

- $\star$  When f'(x) = 0 derivative provides no information about direction of move.
- $\star$  Points where f'(x) = 0 are known as stationary or critical points
- Local minimum/maximum: a point where f(x) lower/ higher than all its neighbors.
- Saddle/Inflexion Points: neither maxima nor minima.

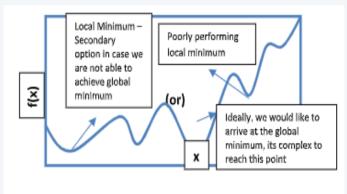






# **Presence of Multiple Minima**

- \* Optimization algorithms may fail to find global minimum.
- ★ Generally accept such solutions;







# **Types of Gradient Descent Algorithms**

• Batch Gradient Descent Algorithm:

Uses the whole dataset to make an update for of the coefficients.

• Stochastic Gradient Descent Algorithm(SDG):

Updates the values of coefficients for each observation in the dataset. These frequent updates of the coefficient provide a good rate of improvement.

• Mini-Batch Gradient Descent:

It is a combination of the SGD and BGD. It splits the dataset into smaller batches and the coefficients are updated at the end of each of these batches. • Then at each iteration SGD implements GD on random subset of the training set (minibatch).

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# **Stochastic Gradient descent**

#### **Benefits of SGD**

- \* It can (in principal) escape local minima.
- $\star$  Some evidence suggest that SGD finds the parameter for NN that improve generalization performance.
- \* SGD Computationally less expensive.

#### (S)GD performance can be improved by;

 $\star$  Normalization and scaling the data

$$x_{new} = \frac{x - \bar{x}}{\sigma}$$

where  $\bar{x}$  is the average, and  $\sigma$  the standard deviation  $\star$  Change learning rate (adaptively).



Using the data provided 'Data\_Week3.out', implement the gradient descent algorithm to find the parameters  $\theta_0$  and  $\theta_1$  that minimizes the cost function squared loss

$$L(x; \theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i)^2$$
 (2)

#### • Steps:

- 1. Write the cost function and gradients using matrix form
- 2. Choose the number of iteration N
- 3. Set initial values of  $\theta_0$  and  $\theta_1$
- 4. Run the update



Let consider

$$X = egin{pmatrix} 1 & x_1 \ 1 & x_2 \ dots & dots \ 1 & x_m \end{pmatrix}, \quad y = egin{pmatrix} y_1 \ y_2 \ dots \ y_m \end{pmatrix} \quad ext{and} \quad heta = egin{pmatrix} heta_0 \ heta_1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

These quantities will help to simplify our expressions using vector and matrices operations.

Loss function

$$L(X; \theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i)^2 = \frac{1}{m} ||y - X\theta||^2$$

Where ||.|| is the norm (2 norm) operator



#### Gradients

We compute first the partial derivatives with respect to  $\theta_0$  and  $\theta_1$ , which give respectively

$$\partial_{\theta_0} L(X; \theta) = \frac{-2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i); \ \partial_{\theta_1} L(X; \theta) = \frac{-2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m x_i (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i)$$
 (3)

Then, we can observe that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i) = (1 \ 1 \ 1 \cdots 1 \ 1) \cdot (y - X\theta)$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i) = (x_1 \ x_2 \ x_3 \cdots x_m) \cdot (y - X\theta)$$

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#### Gradient vector

Using the expressions established earlier, we find the gradient vector as follows

$$\nabla_{\theta} L(X; \theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \partial_{\theta_0} L(X; \theta) \\ \partial_{\theta_1} L(X; \theta) \end{pmatrix}$$
$$= \frac{-2}{m} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & \cdots & 1 \\ x_1 & x_2 & x_3 & \cdots & x_m \end{pmatrix} \cdot (y - X\theta)$$

Therefore,

$$\nabla_{\theta} L(X; \theta) = \frac{2}{m} X^{T} (X\theta - y) \tag{4}$$

Let's get coding!!

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# **Conclusion**

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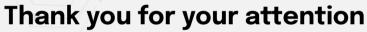




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