## **Lecture 06:**

# **Optimization**



Markus Hohle
University California, Berkeley

Machine Learning Algorithms
MSSE 277B, 3 Units



Lecture 1: Course Overview and Introduction to Machine Learning

**Lecture 2: Bayesian Methods in Machine Learning** 

classic ML tools & algorithms

**Lecture 3: Dimensionality Reduction: Principal Component Analysis** 

**Lecture 4: Linear and Non-linear Regression and Classification** 

Lecture 5: Unsupervised Learning: K-Means, GMM, Trees

#### **Lecture 6: Adaptive Learning and Gradient Descent Optimization Algorithms**

Lecture 7: Introduction to Artificial Neural Networks - The Perceptron

**ANNs/AI/Deep Learning** 

**Lecture 8: Introduction to Artificial Neural Networks - Building Multiple Dense Layers** 

Lecture 9: Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) - Part |

Lecture 10: CNNs - Part II

Lecture 11: Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) and Long Short-Term Memory (LSTMs)

**Lecture 12: Combining LSTMs and CNNs** 

Lecture 13: Running Models on GPUs and Parallel Processing

**Lecture 14: Project Presentations** 

**Lecture 15: Transformer** 

Lecture 16: GNN



BUT AT SOME POINT, THE COST OF THE TIME IT TAKES ME TO UNDERSTAND THE OPTIONS OUTWEIGHS THEIR DIFFERENCE IN VALUE.



SO I NEED TO FIGURE OUT WHERE THAT POINT IS, AND STOP BEFORE I REACH IT.

BUT...WHEN I FACTOR IN THE TIME TO CALCULATE THAT, IT CHANGES THE OVERALL ANSWER.



# <u>Outline</u>

- The Problem
- Gradient Descent
  - Vanilla
  - Learning Rate Schedule
  - Momentum
  - L1 and L2
  - More Finetuning



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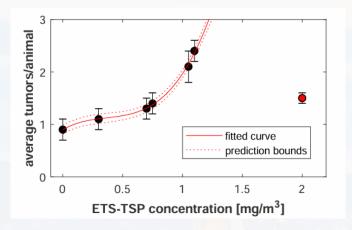
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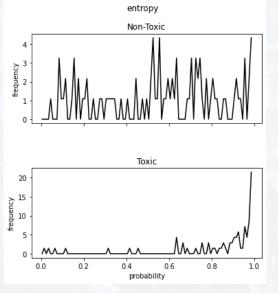
regression, e. g. curve fitting

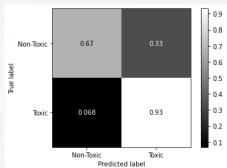


minimize:

$$\chi_{red}^{2} = \frac{1}{N - p - 1} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(\hat{y}(model)_{i} - y_{i})^{2}}{\sigma_{i}^{2}}$$

classification





maximize: accuracy

$$S = -\sum_{i} p(true)_{i} \cdot \ln p(model)_{i}$$



Any algorithm needs a "goal" aka objective function that has to be optimized (finding an extreme)

Often, the extreme of the objective function is subject to **constrains** 

$$S = -\sum_{i} p(true)_{i} \cdot \ln p(model)_{i}$$
 constrain:  $\sum_{i} p_{i} = 1$ 

→ Lagrangian Multipliers and variational calculus

→ mathematically:

Free Energy like term = Energy like term – Entropy term

examples:

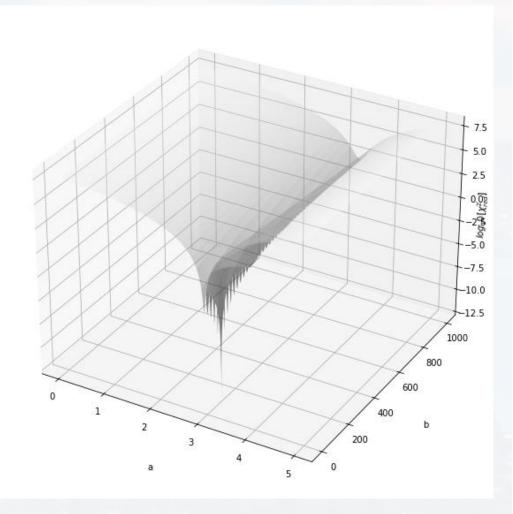
- Evidence Lower Bound
- Lasso method (linear regression)
- actual energy → Boltzmann distribution

etc

These functions are very complicated, not analytical ( = no mathematical equation) at all

#### two most common approaches:

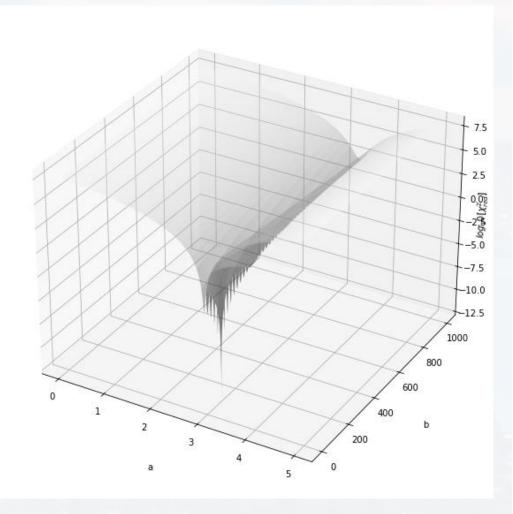
- gradient descent
- simulated annealing



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- gradient descent
- simulated annealing

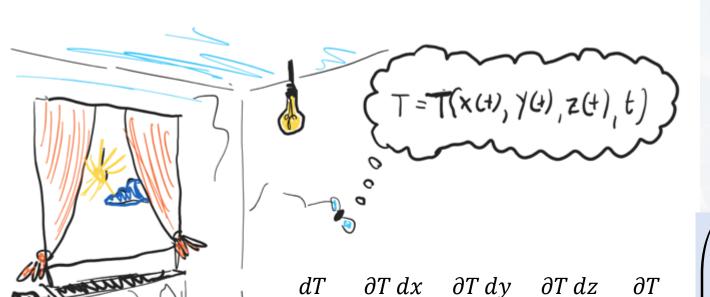




Any algorithm needs a "goal" aka **objective function** that has to be **optimized** (finding an **extreme**)  $\rightarrow$  extreme of an objective function

gradient descent

temperature profile in space and time



*T*: temperature

$$\frac{dT}{dt} = \frac{\partial T}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}\frac{dz}{dt} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial t} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} \frac{dx}{dt} \\ \frac{dy}{dt} \\ \frac{dz}{dt} \end{pmatrix} + \frac{\partial T}{\partial t}$$

 $= grad(T) \circ \vec{v}$ 

If *T* doesn't change with time!



Any algorithm needs a "goal" aka **objective function** that has to be **optimized** (finding an **extreme**)  $\rightarrow$  extreme of an objective function

gradient descent

concentration profile in space and time

E. Coli

c: concentration

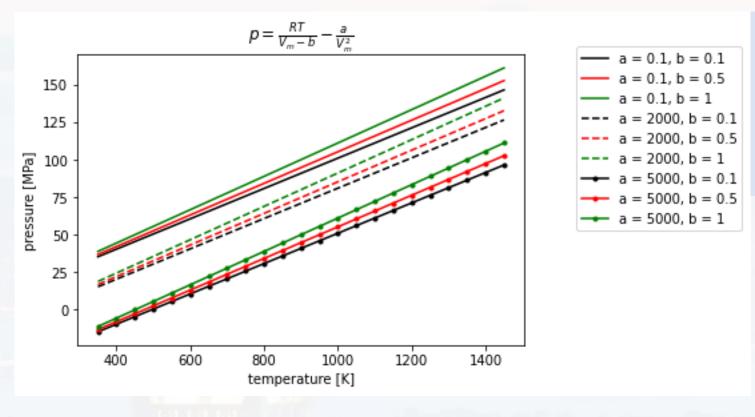
$$\frac{dc}{dt} = \frac{\partial c}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial c}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt} + \frac{\partial c}{\partial z}\frac{dz}{dt} + \frac{\partial c}{\partial t}$$

$$= \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial c}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial c}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial c}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix} \circ \begin{pmatrix} \frac{dx}{dt} \\ \frac{dy}{dt} \\ \frac{dz}{dt} \end{pmatrix} + \frac{\partial c}{\partial t}$$

$$= grad(c) \circ \vec{v}$$
 If  $c$  doesn't change with time!

Any algorithm needs a "goal" aka objective function that has to be optimized (finding an extreme)

gradient descent

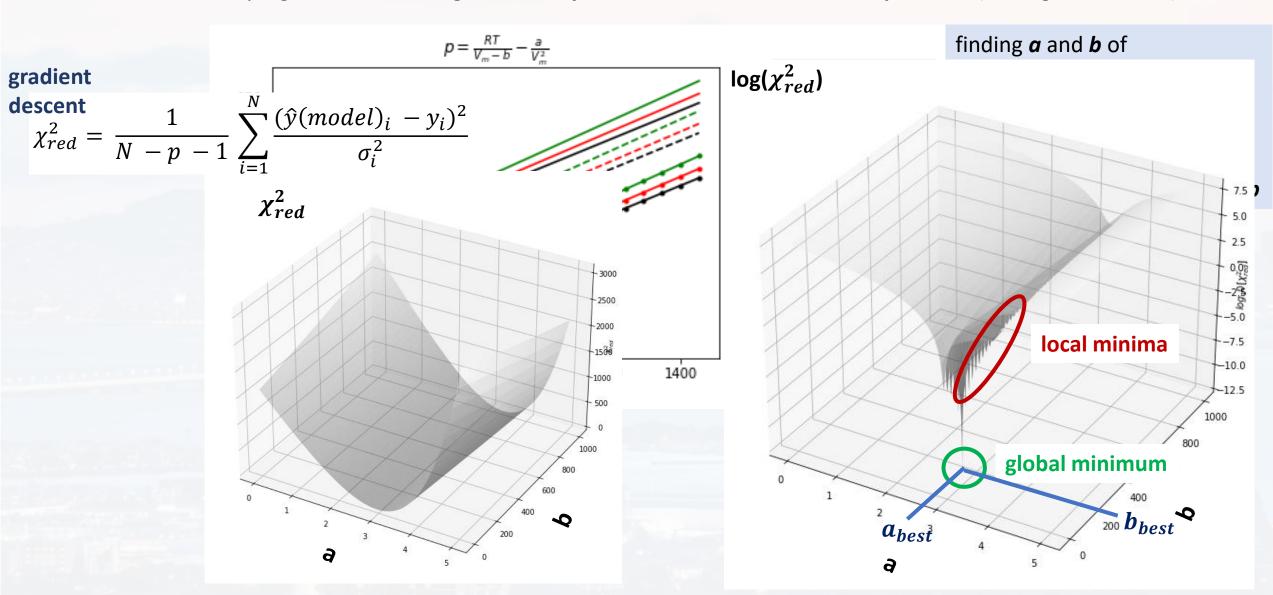


finding **a** and **b** of a van-der-Waals gas

if critical points are not accessible

→ fitting curve, finding **a** and **b** 

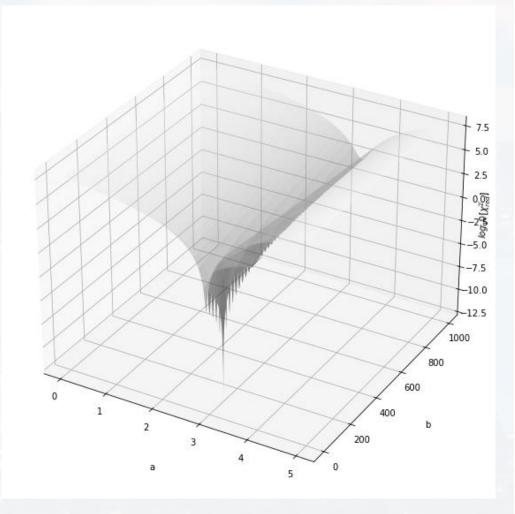


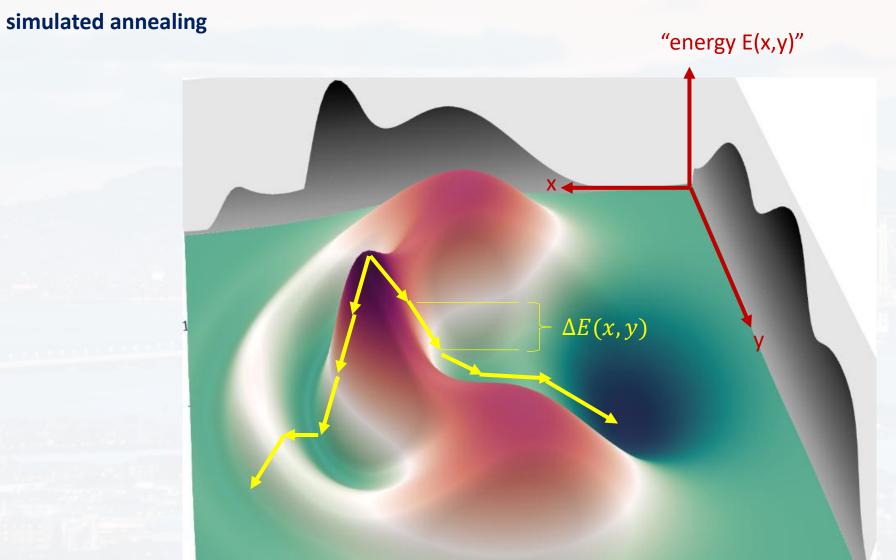


These functions are very complicated, not analytical ( = no mathematical equation) at all

#### two most common approaches:

- gradient descent
- simulated annealing





If  $\Delta E(x, y)$  is **negative**:

→ always move

(a ball always rolls down the hill)

If  $\Delta E(x, y)$  is **positive**:

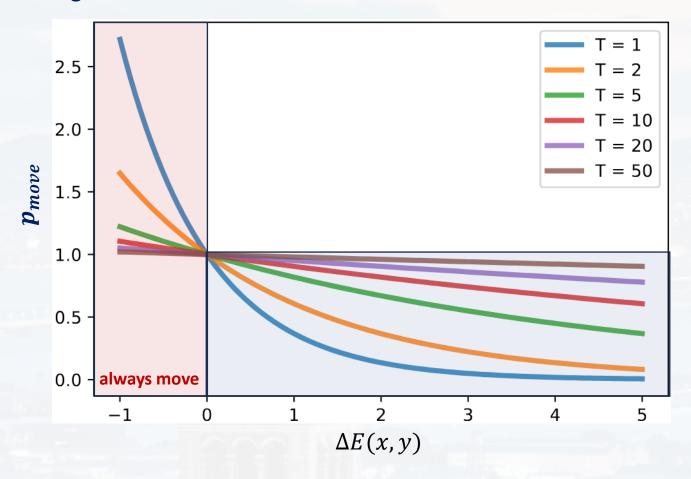
- → calculate the **probability to move**
- → leaves some chance to escape local minimum

*T*: temperature

Boltzmann factor

$$p_{move} \sim \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta E(x,y)}{T}\right]$$

#### simulated annealing



slowly reducing T  $\rightarrow$  making larger jumps ( $\Delta E(x, y)$ ) less likely over time

If  $\Delta E(x, y)$  is **negative**:  $\rightarrow$  **always move** (a ball always rolls down the hill)

If  $\Delta E(x, y)$  is **positive**:  $\rightarrow$  calculate the **probability to move**  $\rightarrow$  leaves some chance to

*T*: temperature

escape local minimum

Boltzmann factor

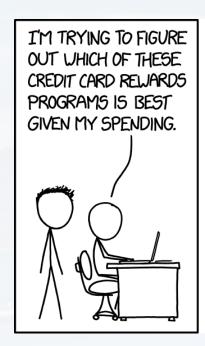
$$p_{move} \sim \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta E(x,y)}{T}\right]$$

#### simulated annealing

#### Metropolis (Chem 273):

- 1) suggest a random move  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$
- 2) calculate  $\Delta E(x, y)$  based on  $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta y$
- 3) move or not:
  - a) move if  $\Delta E(x, y) < 0$
  - b) if  $\Delta E(x, y) > 0$ 
    - draw a  $\operatorname{random\ number} \rho$  from a  $\operatorname{uniform\ distribution}$  in the interval (0,1)
    - move if  $\rho < \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta E(x,y)}{T}\right]$
- 4) reduce *T* and repeat

# Berkeley Machine Learning Algorithms:

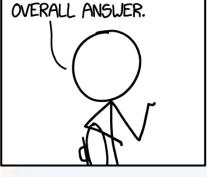


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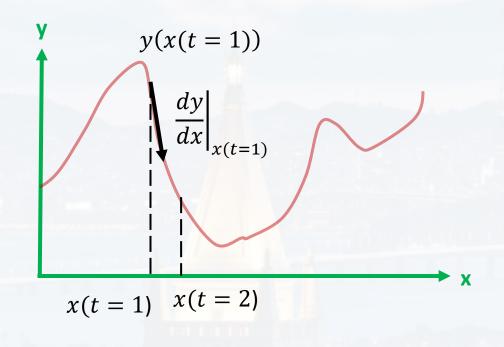
## main application: ANN!



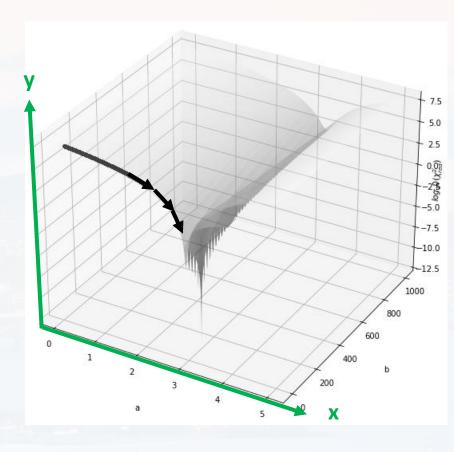




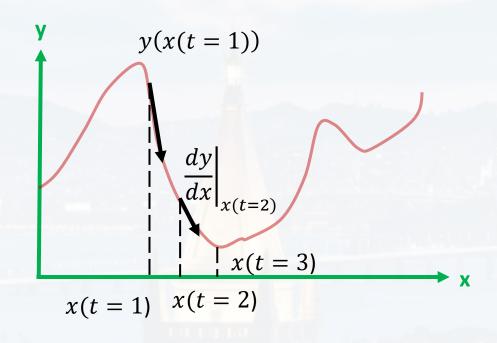
$$\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x_0} \approx \frac{y(x_0 + \Delta x) - y(x_0 - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$$



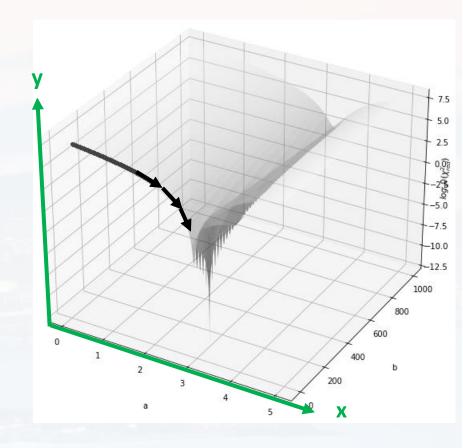
$$x(t=2) = x(t=1) - \varepsilon \frac{dy}{dx} \Big|_{x(t=1)}$$



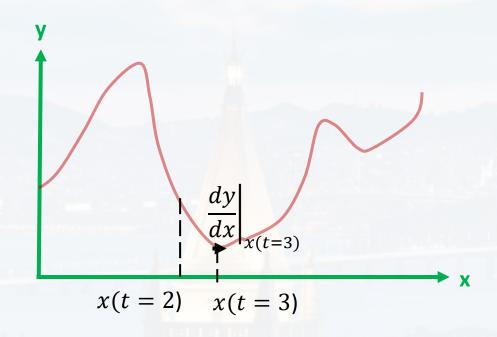
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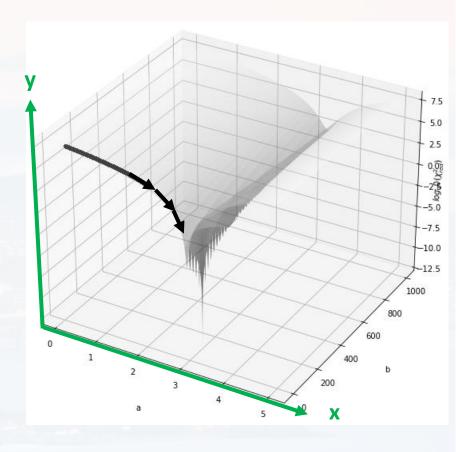
$$x(t=3) = x(t=2) - \varepsilon \frac{dy}{dx} \Big|_{x(t=2)}$$



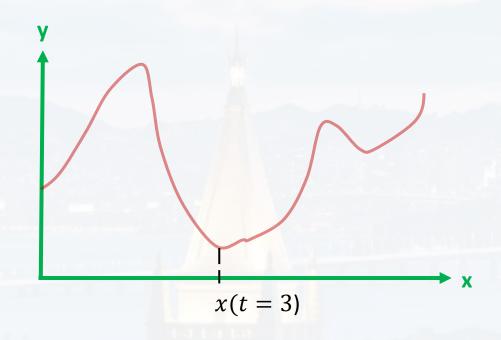
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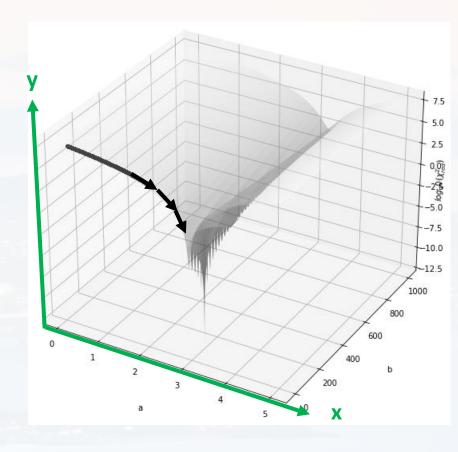
$$x(t = 4) = x(t = 3) - \varepsilon \frac{dy}{dx} \Big|_{x(t=3)}$$



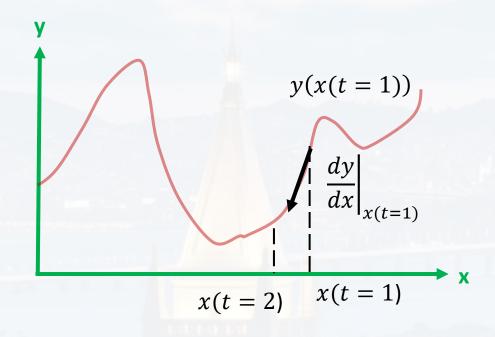
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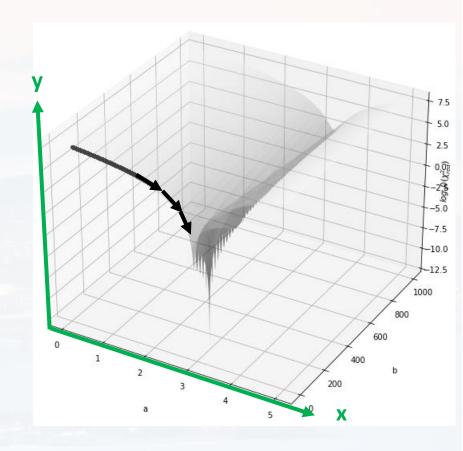
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$$\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x_0} \approx \frac{y(x_0 + \Delta x) - y(x_0 - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$$

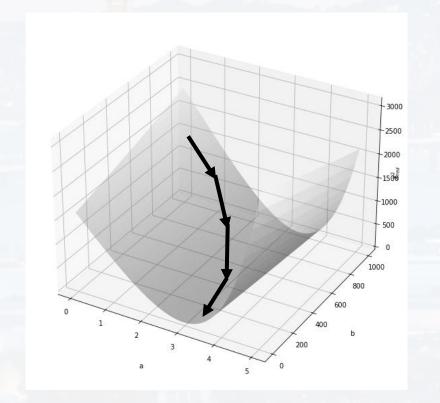


$$x(t=2) = x(t=1)$$
 
$$\left. - \right|_{x(t=1)} \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t=1)}$$

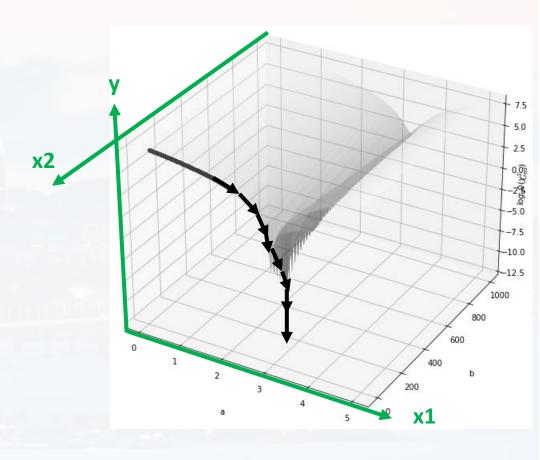


# $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1}\Big|_{x_1^*; x_2^*} \approx \frac{y(x_1^* + \Delta x_1, x_2^*) - y(x_1^* - \Delta x_1, x_2^*)}{2\Delta x_1}$

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_2}\Big|_{x_1^*; x_2^*} \approx \frac{y(x_1^*, x_2^* + \Delta x_2) - y(x_1^*, x_2^* - \Delta x_2)}{2\Delta x_2}$$







$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1}\bigg|_{\substack{x_1^*; \, x_2^*; \dots; \, x_N^*}} \approx \frac{y(x_1^* + \Delta x_1, \, x_2^*, \dots, x_N^*) - y(x_1^* - \Delta x_1, \, x_2^*, \dots, x_N^*)}{2\Delta x_1}$$

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_2}\bigg|_{\substack{x_1^*; \, x_2^*; \dots; \, x_N^*}} \approx \frac{y(x_1^*, x_2^* + \Delta x_2, \dots, x_N^*) - y(x_1^*, x_2^* - \Delta x_2, \dots, x_N^*)}{2\Delta x_2}$$

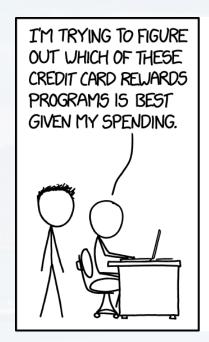
$$\left. \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i} \right|_{x_1^*; x_2^*; \dots; x_N^*} \approx \frac{y(\dots, x_i^* + \Delta x_i, \dots, x_N^*) - y(\dots, x_i^* - \Delta x_i, \dots, x_N^*)}{2\Delta x_i}$$

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial x_N}\bigg|_{\substack{x_1^*; \, x_2^*; \dots; \, x_N^*}} \approx \frac{y(x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_N^* + \Delta x_N) - y(x_1^*, x_2^*, \dots, x_N^* - \Delta x_N)}{2\Delta x_N}$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{c|c} \left. \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_1} \right|_{x_1^*; \, x_2^*; \dots; \, x_N^*)} \\ \cdots \\ \left. \frac{\partial y}{\partial x_i} \right|_{x_1^*; \, x_2^*; \dots; \, x_N^*} \\ & = grad(y)_x \\ \text{gradient of } \end{array}$$

**gradient** of y wrt x

# Berkeley Machine Learning Algorithms:

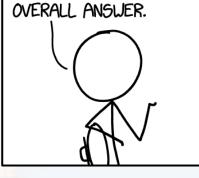


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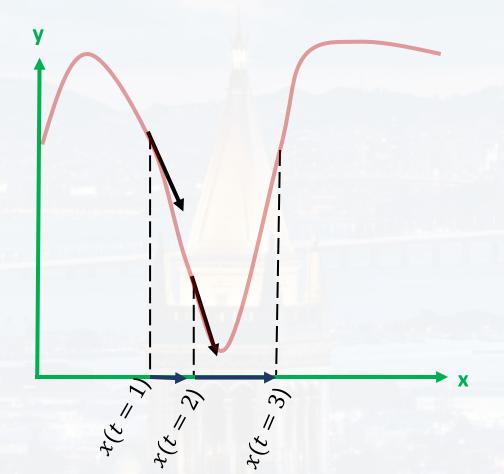


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$$\frac{dy}{dx}\Big|_{x_0} \approx \frac{y(x_0 + \Delta x) - y(x_0 - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$$

$$x(t+1) = x(t) - \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$

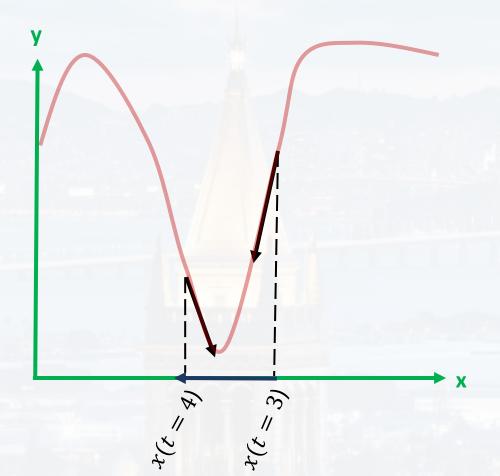


$$\Delta x = -\left. \frac{e}{x} \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$

defines how large the leap  $\Delta x$  is

$$\frac{dy}{dx}\Big|_{x_0} \approx \frac{y(x_0 + \Delta x) - y(x_0 - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$$

$$x(t+1) = x(t) - \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$



$$\Delta x = -\left. \frac{\epsilon}{\epsilon} \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$

defines how large the leap  $\Delta x$  is

$$\frac{dy}{dx}\Big|_{x_0} \approx \frac{y(x_0 + \Delta x) - y(x_0 - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$$

$$x(t+1) = x(t) - \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$



x(t = 5)

**2** > 0

called *learning rate* 

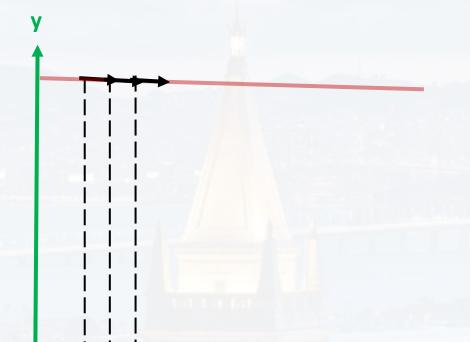
$$\Delta x = -\left. \frac{e}{\varepsilon} \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$

defines how large the leap  $\Delta x$  is

$$\rightarrow$$
 smaller  $\varepsilon$ ?

$$\frac{dy}{dx}\bigg|_{x_0} \approx \frac{y(x_0 + \Delta x) - y(x_0 - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$$

$$x(t+1) = x(t) - \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$



**e** > 0

called *learning* rate

$$\Delta x = -\left. \frac{e}{x} \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$

defines how large the leap  $\Delta x$  is

... and so on...

 $\rightarrow$  smaller  $\varepsilon$ ?

Takes too long!



$$\frac{dy}{dx}\Big|_{x_0} \approx \frac{y(x_0 + \Delta x) - y(x_0 - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$$

$$x(t+1) = x(t) - \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$

<u>learning rate as function of t:</u>

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(t) = \frac{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_0}{1 + \kappa t}$$
 decay rate  $\kappa$ 

$$\Delta x = -\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$

**2** > 0

defines how large the leap  $\Delta x$  is

called *learning rate* 



$$\frac{dy}{dx}\Big|_{x_0} \approx \frac{y(x_0 + \Delta x) - y(x_0 - \Delta x)}{2\Delta x}$$

$$x(t+1) = x(t) - \left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$

learning rate as function of t:

$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(t) = \frac{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_0}{1 + \kappa t}$$
 decay rate  $\kappa$ 

$$\Delta x = -\left. \frac{dy}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$

**2** > 0

defines how large the leap  $\Delta x$  is

called *learning rate* 

can also be a stepwise function (learning rate schedule)

### <u>learning rate as function of t:</u>

## **Learning Rate Schedule**

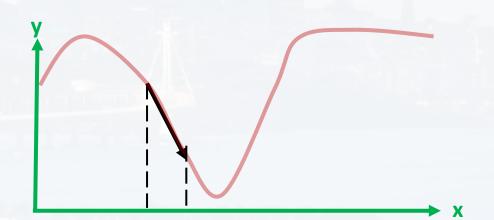
$$\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}(t) = \frac{\boldsymbol{\varepsilon}_0}{1 + \kappa t} \qquad \text{decay rate } \kappa$$

$$\Delta x = -\left. \frac{e}{dx} \right|_{x(t)}$$

defines how large the leap  $\Delta x$  is

can also be a stepwise function (learning rate schedule)





$$\epsilon \to \frac{\epsilon}{\sqrt{grad(y)_x}}$$

adaptive gradient, aka AdaGrad



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150 125

pressure [MPa] 22 20 20

25

400

600

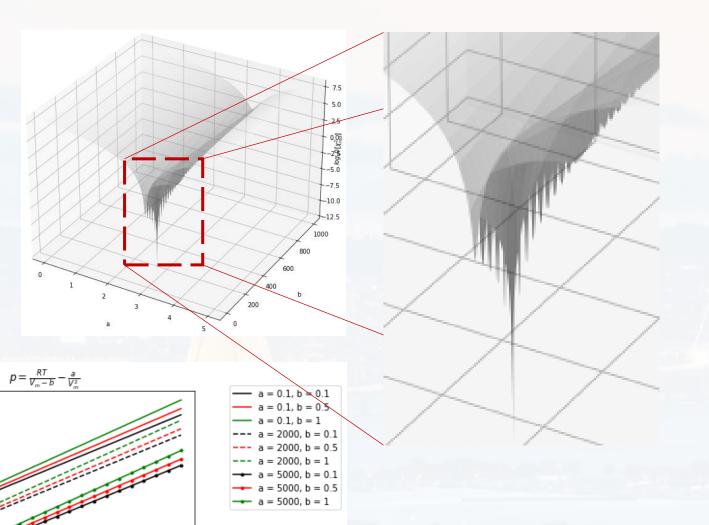
800

temperature [K]

1000

1200

1400



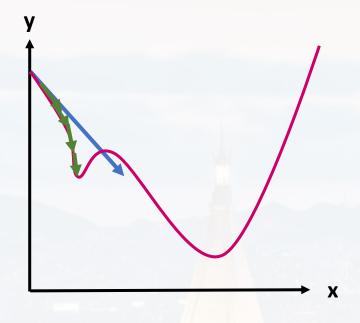
#### Momentum

even with AdaGrad and learning rate schedule

→ would get stuck in local minimum

need to roll over → momentum





taking the **average** of **N** previous gradients

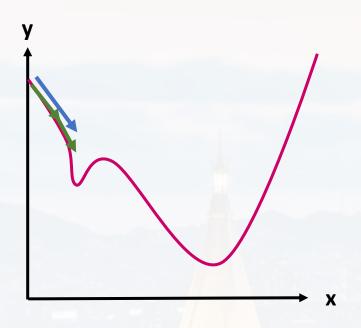
$$\langle grad(y)_{x(t)} \rangle = \frac{1}{N} [grad(y)_{x(t-1)} + grad(y)_{x(t-2)} + \dots + grad(y)_{x(t-N)}]$$

but we want more recent gradients to contribute more than older gradients

 $\rightarrow$  weighted average with weighting factor  $\mu_k$ 

$$\langle grad(y)_{x(t)} \rangle = \sum_{k=t-N}^{t-1} \mu_k \cdot grad(y)_{x(k)}$$

Finding a clever way to adjust  $\mu_k$  during every iteration t



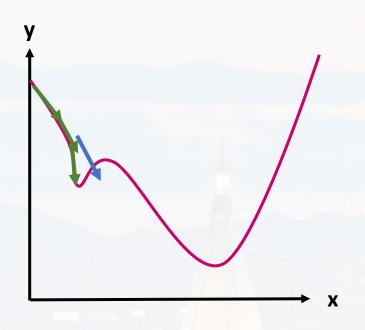
weighted average with weighting factor  $\mu_k$ 

Momentum

Finding a clever way to adjust  $\mu_k$  during every iteration t

$$\langle grad(y)_{x(0)} \rangle = grad(y)_{x(0)}$$
  $\mu_0 = (0,1)$ 

$$\langle \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(1)} \rangle = \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(1)} + \mu_0 \cdot \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(0)}$$



weighted average with weighting factor  $\mu_k$ 

Momentum

Finding a clever way to adjust  $\mu_k$  during every iteration t

$$\langle grad(y)_{x(0)} \rangle = grad(y)_{x(0)}$$
  $\mu_0 = (0,1)$ 

$$\langle \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(1)} \rangle = \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(1)} + \mu_0 \cdot \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(0)}$$

$$\langle \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(2)} \rangle = \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(2)} + \mu_0 \left[ \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(1)} + \mu_0 \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(0)} \right]$$

$$\mu_{k=2} = \mu_0 \ \mu_0 = \mu_0^2$$

$$\langle \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(3)} \rangle = \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(3)} + \mu_0 \left[ \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(2)} + \mu_0 \left[ \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(1)} + \mu_0 \cdot \operatorname{grad}(y)_{x(0)} \right] \right]$$

... and so on...

#### weighted average with weighting factor $\mu_k$

$$\mu_0 = (0,1)$$
 called "momentum"

$$\langle \operatorname{grad}(y)_{\chi(3)} \rangle = \operatorname{grad}(y)_{\chi(3)} +$$

$$\mu_0 \left[ grad(y)_{x(2)} + \mu_0 \left[ grad(y)_{x(1)} + \mu_0 \cdot grad(y)_{x(0)} \right] \right]$$
 ... and so on...

# Momentum

#### class Optimizer:



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L1 and L2

Often, the extreme of the objective function is subject to **constrains** 

sometimes we have some prior knowledge about the independent variables

#### recall: linear regression

finding best  $\beta$  by

$$\min_{\beta} \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \| Y - X\beta \|^2 \right\}$$

now:

constrain: encourages sparsity of  $oldsymbol{eta}$ 

$$\min_{\beta} \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \| Y - X\beta \|^2 + \lambda \| \beta \|^1 \right\}$$

λ Lagrangian Multiplier

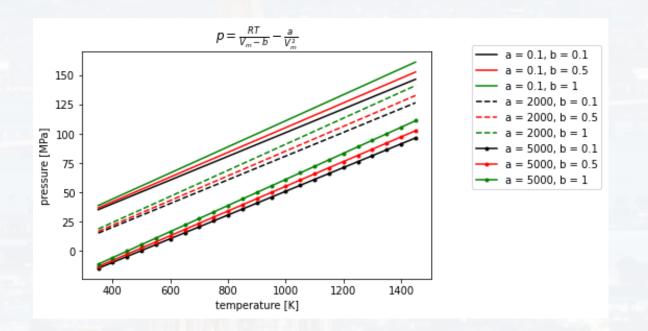
called L1 regularization, or LASSO

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#### L1 regularization



We often have even hard constrains based on the laws of physics!

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L1 and L2

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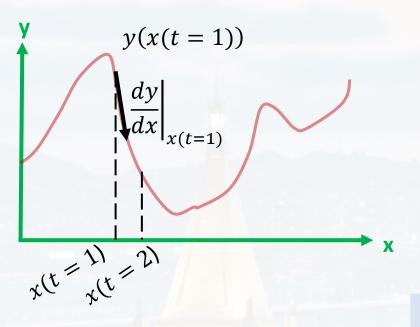
now:

$$\hat{\beta} = (X^T X + \lambda I)^{-1} X^T Y \longrightarrow \min_{\beta} \left\{ \frac{1}{N} \|Y - X\beta\|^2 + \lambda \|\beta\|^2 \right\}$$

Lagrangian Multiplier

called L2 regularization, or RIDGE penalizes large  $\beta$ 

#### L1 and L2 regularization



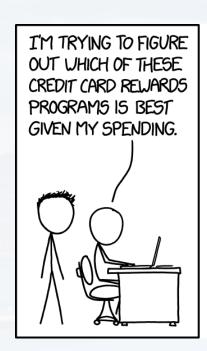
#### L1 and L2

$$x(t=2) = x(t=1) - \varepsilon \frac{d[y + \lambda_1 || x ||^1 + \lambda_2 || x ||^2]}{dx} \Big|_{x(t=1)}$$

$$x(t=2) = x(t=1) - \varepsilon \frac{dy}{dx} \Big|_{x(t=1)}$$

$$-\left.\varepsilon\frac{\lambda_1 d\|x\|^1}{dx}\right|_{x(t=1)} -\left.\varepsilon\frac{\lambda_2 d\|x\|^2}{dx}\right|_{x(t=1)}$$

- gradient descent does not stop if values for x are too large and prefers sparsity
- note: the derivative of  $||x||^1$  returns the sign (i. e. direction)
- usually  $\lambda \ll ||x||^n$
- will be important for ANNs later



BUT AT SOME POINT, THE COST OF THE TIME IT TAKES ME TO UNDERSTAND THE OPTIONS OUTWEIGHS THEIR DIFFERENCE IN VALUE.



SO I NEED TO FIGURE OUT WHERE THAT POINT IS, AND STOP BEFORE I REACH IT.

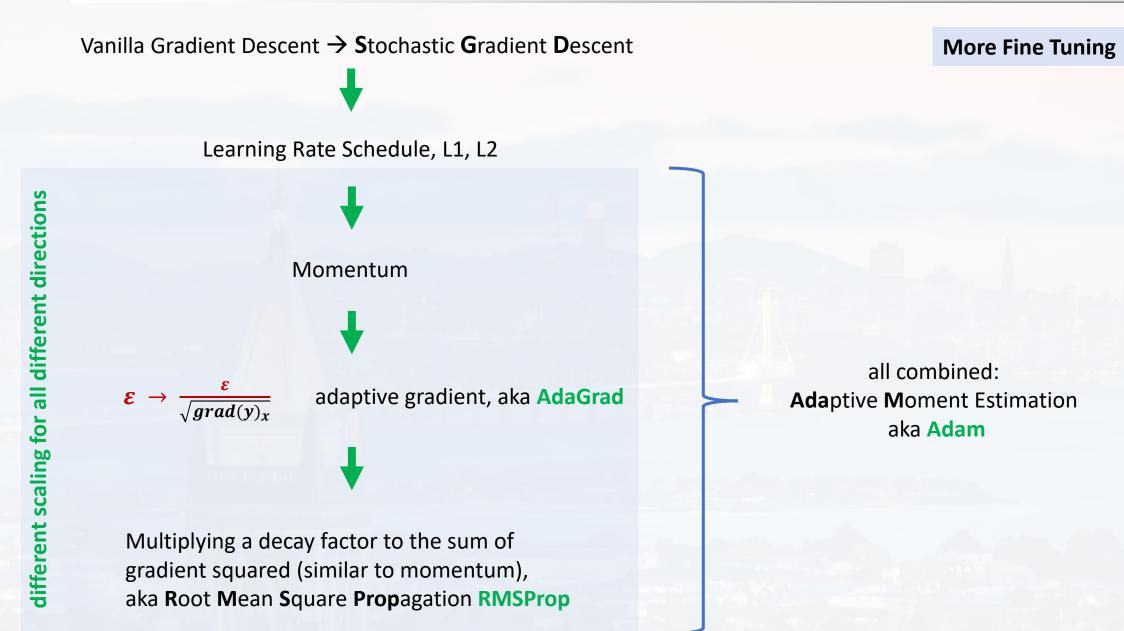
BUT... WHEN I FACTOR IN THE TIME TO CALCULATE THAT, IT CHANGES THE OVERALL ANSWER.



### <u>Outline</u>

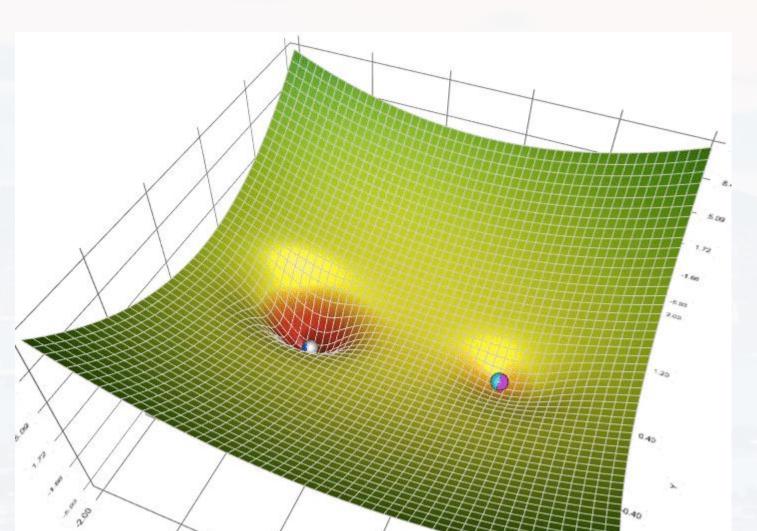
- The Problem
- Gradient Descent
  - Vanilla
  - Learning Rate Schedule
  - Momentum
  - L1 and L2
  - More Finetuning











**More Fine Tuning** 

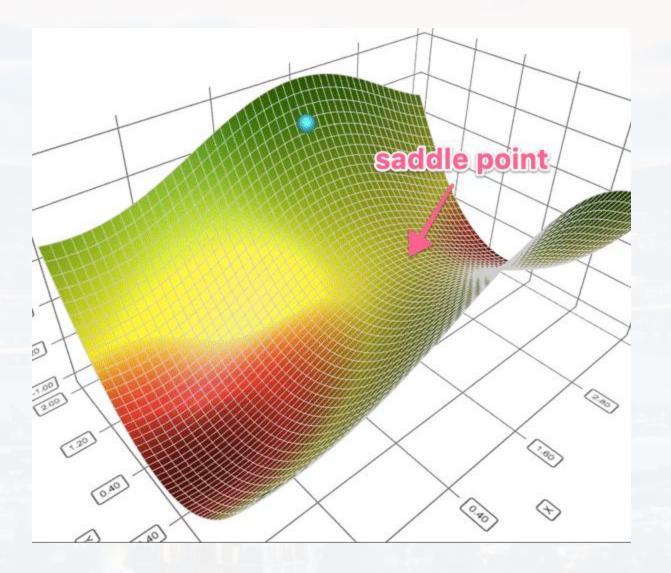
gradient descent (cyan), momentum (magenta), RMSProp (green), Adam (blue)

## Berkeley Optimization:



#### <u>TowardsDataScience</u>





gradient descent (cyan), momentum (magenta), AdaGrad (white), RMSProp (green), Adam (blue)



### Berkeley Machine Learning Algorithms:

#### Thank you very much for your attention!



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