Optimus II

CS771: Introduction to Machine Learning

Purushottam Kar

Announcements

Quiz/exam copies shall be graded on Gradescope
Will create accounts for you – no action needed from your side
It may take a week or so for grading (many graders are on leave)
Will release Assignment 1 this week as well



Recap of Last Lecture

- Notions of (local/global) extrema, derivatives (first, second)
- Multivariate analogues of these (gradient, Hessian)
- Stationary points and the (multivariate) second derivative test
- Gradient as offering the directions of *steepest* ascent/descent
- Convex sets and convex functions
- Several examples and exercises in course notes (see GitHub repo)



A Toy Example – Function Values

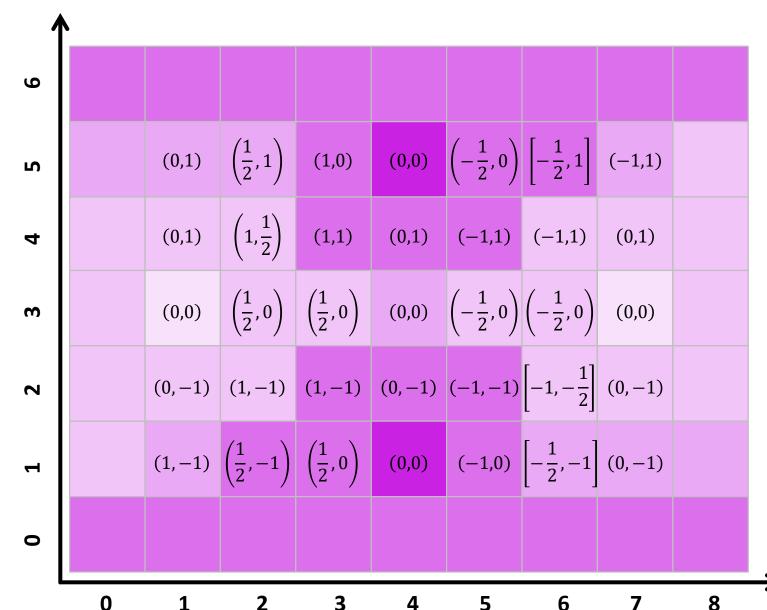
•	0	1	2	3	<u></u>	5	6	7	8
0	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
1	1	2	3	3	4	3	2	2	2
2	1	1	1	3	3	3	1	1	1
3	1	0	1	1	2	1	1	0	1
4	1	1	1	3	3	3	1	1	1
2	2	2	2	3	4	3	3	2	1
9	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
1	\								

In this discrete toy example, we can calculate gradient at a point (x_0, y_0) as

$$\nabla f(x_0, y_0) = \left(\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x}, \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta y}\right)$$
 where

$$\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x} = \frac{f(x_0 + 1, y_0) - f(x_0 - 1, y_0)}{2}$$
$$\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta y} = \frac{f(x_0, y_0 + 1) - f(x_0, y_0 - 1)}{2}$$





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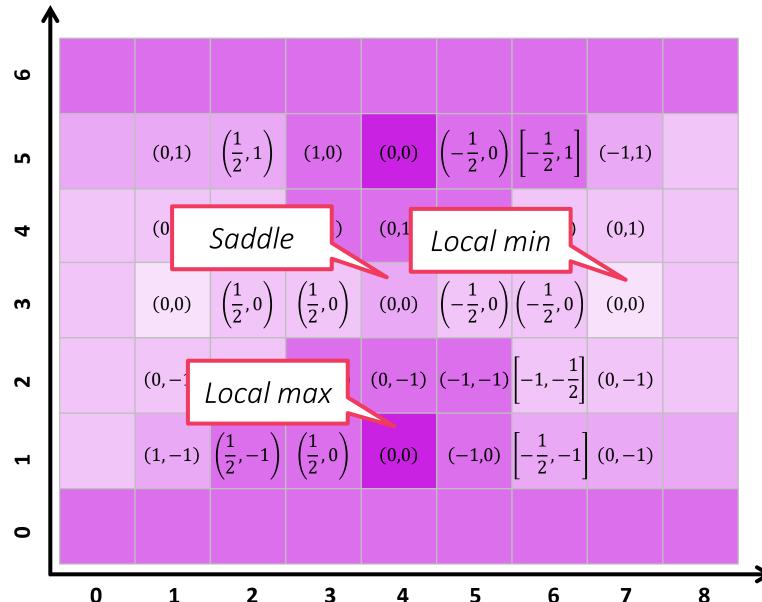
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We can visualize these gradients using simple arrows as well





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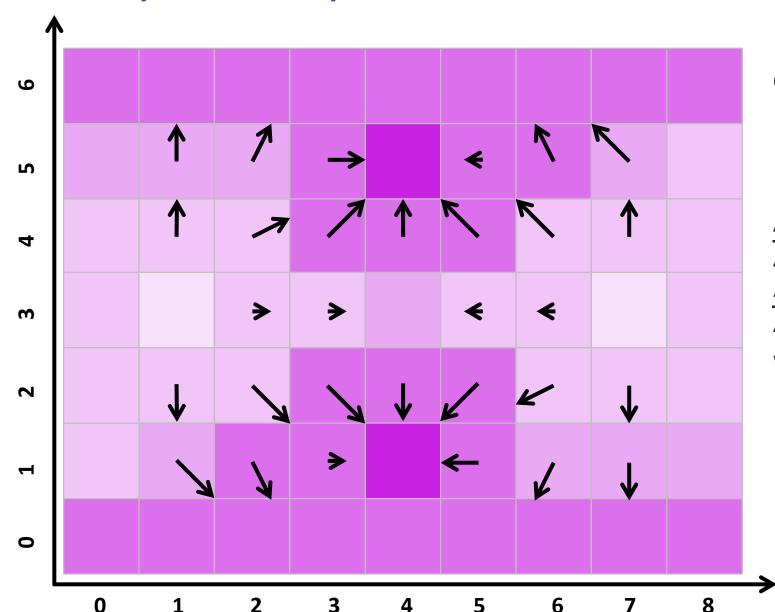
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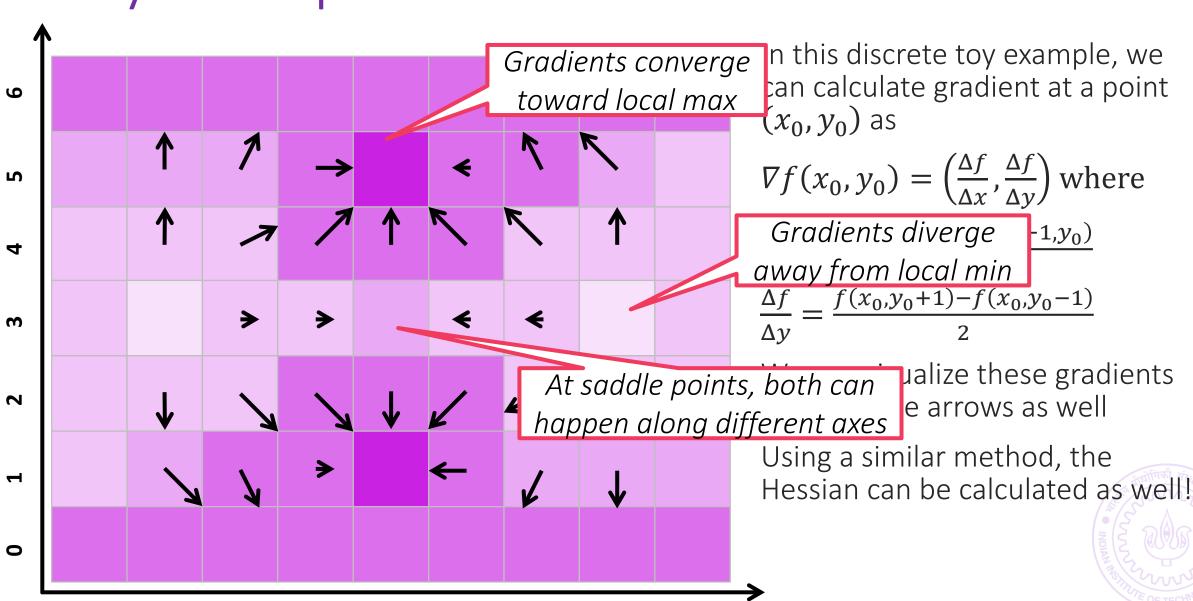
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We can visualize these gradients using simple arrows as well

Using a similar method, the Hessian can be calculated as well!



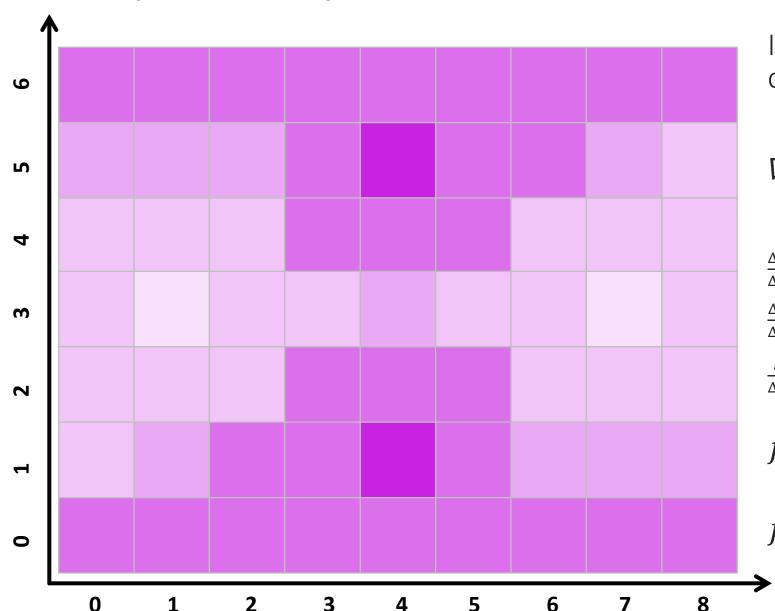


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CS771: Intro to M

A Toy Example – Hessians





In this discrete toy example, we can calculate Hessian at (x_0, y_0) as

$$\nabla^2 f(x_0, y_0) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\Delta^2 f}{\Delta x^2} & \frac{\Delta^2 f}{\Delta x \Delta y} \\ \frac{\Delta^2 f}{\Delta x \Delta y} & \frac{\Delta^2 f}{\Delta y^2} \end{bmatrix} \text{ where}$$

$$\frac{\Delta^2 f}{\Delta x^2} = f(x_0 + 1, y_0) + f(x_0 - 1, y_0) - 2f(x_0, y_0)$$

$$\frac{\Delta^2 f}{\Delta y^2} = f(x_0, y_0 + 1) + f(x_0, y_0 - 1) - 2f(x_0, y_0)$$

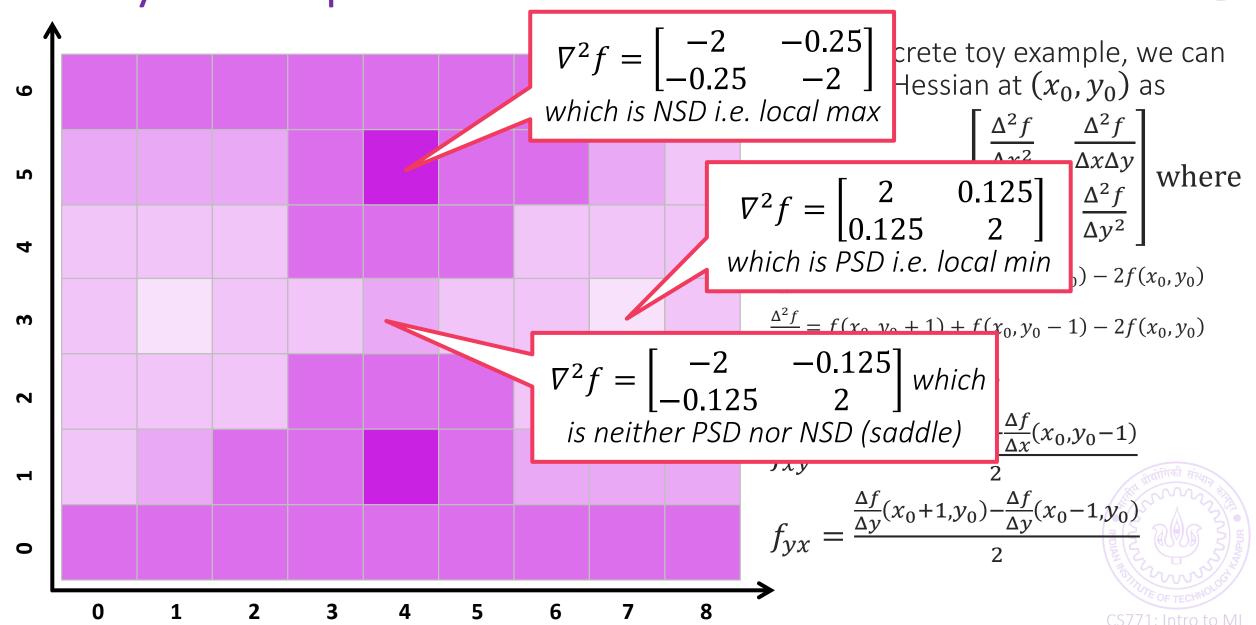
$$\frac{\Delta^2 f}{\Delta x \Delta y} = \frac{(f_{xy} + f_{yx})}{2}$$
 where

$$f_{xy} = \frac{\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x}(x_0, y_0 + 1) - \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta x}(x_0, y_0 - 1)}{2}$$

$$f_{yx} = \frac{\frac{\Delta f}{\Delta y}(x_0 + 1, y_0) - \frac{\Delta f}{\Delta y}(x_0 - 1, y_0)}{2}$$

A Toy Example – Hessians





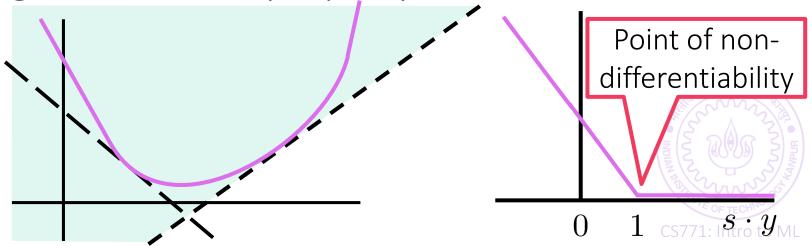
The hinge loss function is not differentiable everywhere 😊

Can we define some form of gradient for non-diff functions as well?

Yes, if a function is convex, then no matter if it is non-differentiable, a notion of gradient called *subgradient* can always be defined for it

Recall that for differentiable functions, the gradient defines a tangent hyperplane at every point and the function must lie above this plane

Subgradients exploit and generalize this property ©



Tangents of a convex differentiable function $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ are uniquely linked to its gradients

The tangent at \mathbf{x}^0 is the hyperplane $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^0)^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^0) + f(\mathbf{x}^0)$ Convex functions lie above all tangents $f(\mathbf{x}) \geq \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^0)^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^0) + f(\mathbf{x}^0)$

Trick: turn the definition around and say that gradient at \mathbf{x}^0 is a vector \mathbf{g} so that the hyperplane $\mathbf{g}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^0) + f(\mathbf{x}^0) = 0$ is tangent to f at \mathbf{x}^0

Subgradients: given a (possibly non-differentiable but convex) function $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ and a point \mathbf{x}^0 , any vector \mathbf{g} that satisfies $f(\mathbf{x}) \geq \mathbf{g}^\mathsf{T}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^0) + f(\mathbf{x}^0)$

is called a subgradient of f at \mathbf{x}^0

Subdifferential: the set of all subgradients of f at a point \mathbf{x}^0 is known as the subdifferential of f at \mathbf{x}^0 and denoted by $\partial f(\mathbf{x}^0)$

How can I find out the subgradients of a function?

Wait! Does this mean a function can have more than one subgradient at a point \mathbf{x}^0

of a convex differentiable fundable fundable fundaments f(f) = f(f)

If f is non-differentiable at \mathbf{x}^0 then it can indeed have multiple subgradients at \mathbf{x}^0 . However, if f is differentiable at \mathbf{x}^0 , then it can have only one subgradient at \mathbf{x}^0 ,

and that is the gradient $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}^0)$ itself \odot

The tangent at \mathbf{x}^0 is the hyperp Convex functions lie above all to

Trick: turn the definition arour

g so that the hyperplane $\mathbf{g}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^0) + f(\mathbf{x}^0) = 0$ is tangent to f at \mathbf{x}^0

$$\partial f(\mathbf{x}^0) \triangleq \{\mathbf{g}: f(\mathbf{x}) \geq \mathbf{g}^{\mathsf{T}}(\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}^0) + f(\mathbf{x}^0) \ \forall \mathbf{x}\}$$

Subgradient Calculus

Gradient Calculus

Subgradient Calculus

$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$
, $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $b, c \in \mathbb{R}$

Scaling Rule
$$\nabla(c \cdot f)(\mathbf{x}) = c \cdot \nabla f(\mathbf{x})$$

$$\partial(c \cdot f)(\mathbf{x}) = c \cdot \partial f(\mathbf{x})$$
$$= \{c \cdot \mathbf{v} : \mathbf{v} \in \partial f(\mathbf{x})\}$$

 $= \{c \cdot \mathbf{a} : c \in \partial f(\mathbf{a}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x} + b)\}\$

$$\nabla (f+g)(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla g(\mathbf{x}) \qquad \partial (f+g)(\mathbf{x}) = \partial f(\mathbf{x}) + \partial g(\mathbf{x})$$
$$= \{\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} : \mathbf{u} \in \partial f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{v} \in \partial g(\mathbf{x})\}$$

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b) = f'(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b) \cdot \mathbf{a} \quad \partial f(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b) = \partial f(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b) \cdot \mathbf{a}$$

Sum Rule

Chain Rule

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \max \{f(\mathbf{x}), g(\mathbf{x})\}\$$

If
$$f(\mathbf{x}^0) > g(\mathbf{x}^0)$$
, $\partial h(\mathbf{x}^0) = \partial f(\mathbf{x}^0)$. If $g(\mathbf{x}^0) > f(\mathbf{x}^0)$, $\partial h(\mathbf{x}^0) = \partial g(\mathbf{x}^0)$

If
$$f(\mathbf{x}^0) = g(\mathbf{x}^0)$$
, $\partial h(\mathbf{x}^0) = {\lambda \mathbf{u} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{v} : \mathbf{u} \in \partial f(\mathbf{x}^0), \mathbf{v} \in \partial g(\mathbf{x}^0), \lambda \in [0,1]}$



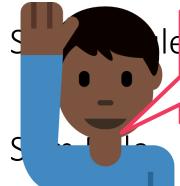
What about stationary points?

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Good point! In subgradient calculus, a point \mathbf{x}^0 is a stationary point for a function f if the zero vector is a part of the subdifferential i.e. $\mathbf{0} \in \partial f(\mathbf{x}^0)$



$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$
, $\mathbf{a} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $b, c \in \mathbb{R}$



Local minima/maxima must be stationary in this sense even for non-differentiable functions

$$\nabla (f + g)(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla g(\mathbf{x})$$

$$\partial(c \cdot f)(\mathbf{x}) = c \cdot \partial f(\mathbf{x})$$

$$= \{c \cdot \mathbf{v} : \mathbf{v} \in \partial f(\mathbf{x})\}$$

$$\partial(\mathbf{x}) \quad \partial(f + g)(\mathbf{x}) = \partial f(\mathbf{x}) + \partial g(\mathbf{x})$$

$$= \{\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} : \mathbf{u} \in \partial f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{v} \in \partial g(\mathbf{x})\}\$$

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b) = f'(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b) \cdot \mathbf{a}$$

$$\partial f(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b) = \partial f(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b) \cdot \mathbf{a}$$
$$= \{c \cdot \mathbf{a} : c \in \partial f(\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b)\}$$

Max Rule

No counterpart in general

$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \max \{f(\mathbf{x}), g(\mathbf{x})\}$$

If
$$f(\mathbf{x}^0) > g(\mathbf{x}^0)$$
, $\partial h(\mathbf{x}^0) = \partial f(\mathbf{x}^0)$. If $g(\mathbf{x}^0) > f(\mathbf{x}^0)$, $\partial h(\mathbf{x}^0) = \partial g(\mathbf{x}^0)$

If
$$f(\mathbf{x}^0) = g(\mathbf{x}^0)$$
, $\partial h(\mathbf{x}^0) = {\lambda \mathbf{u} + (1 - \lambda)\mathbf{v} : \mathbf{u} \in \partial f(\mathbf{x}^0), \mathbf{v} \in \partial g(\mathbf{x}^0), \lambda \in [0,1]}$

Example: subgradient for hinge loss

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$$\ell_{\text{hinge}}(x) = \max\{1 - x, 0\} = \max\{f(x), g(x)\}$$

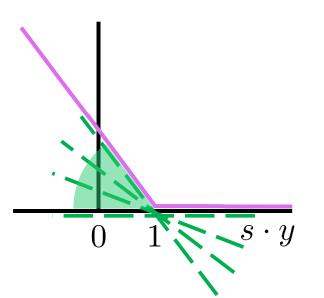
 ℓ_{hinge} is differentiable at all points except x=1 Thus, $\partial \ell_{\mathrm{hinge}}(x) = \ell'_{\mathrm{hinge}}(x)$ if $x \neq 1$

At x = 1 use subdifferential calculus

$$f(x) = 1 - x$$
 (differentiable) i.e. $\partial f(x) = f'(x) = -1$

$$g(x) = 0$$
 (differentiable) i.e. $\partial g(x) = g'(x) = 0$

Thus,
$$\partial \ell_{\text{hinge}}(1) = \{\lambda \cdot (-1) + (1 - \lambda) \cdot 0 : \lambda \in [0,1]\} = [-1,0]$$





$$\ell_{\text{hinge}}(x) = \max\{1 - x, 0\} = \max\{f(x), g(x)\}$$

 ℓ_{hinge} is differentiable at all points except x=1

Thus,
$$\partial \ell_{\text{hinge}}(x) = \ell'_{\text{hinge}}(x)$$
 if $x \neq 1$

Applying subgradient chain rule gives us

$$\ell_{\text{hinge}}(y^i, \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^i \rangle) = [1 - y^i \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^i \rangle]_+$$

Need $\mathbf{v}^i \in \partial \ell_{\text{hinge}}(y^i, \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^i \rangle)$

$$\mathbf{v}^{i} = \begin{cases} \mathbf{0} & \text{if } y^{i} \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^{i} \rangle > 1 \\ -y^{i} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{i} & \text{if } y^{i} \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^{i} \rangle < 1 \\ c \cdot y^{i} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{i} & \text{if } y^{i} \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}^{i} \rangle = 1 \\ c \in [-1, 0] \end{cases}$$

$$c) = -1 0 1 s \cdot y \\ 0 \\ \in [0,1] \} = [-1,0]$$



From calculUS to OPTIMization

Method 1: First order optimality Condition

Exploits the fact that gradient must vanish at a local optimum

Also exploits the fact that for convex functions, local minima are global

Warning: works only for convex functions and that too relatively simple ones

To Do: given a convex function that we wish to minimize, try finding all the stationary points of the function (set gradient to zero)

If you find only one, that has to be the global minimum ©

Example: $f(x) = x^4 - 2x$

$$f'(x) = 4x^3 - 2 = 0$$
 only at $x^* = \sqrt[3]{0.5}$

$$f''(x) = 12x^2 \ge 0$$
 i.e. $f(x)$ is cvx i.e. x^* is global min



Method 2: Perform (sub)gradient descent

Recall that direction opposite to gradient offers steepest descent

(SUB)GRADIENT DESCENT

- 1. Given: obj. func. $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ to minimize How to choose η_t
- 2. Initialize $\mathbf{w}^0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$
- 3. For t = 0, 1, ...
 - 1. Obtain a (sub)gradient $\mathbf{g}^t \in \partial f(\mathbf{w}^t)$
 - 2. Choose a step length η_t
 - 3. Update $\mathbf{w}^{t+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^t \eta_t \cdot \mathbf{g}^t$
 - 4. Repeat until convergence

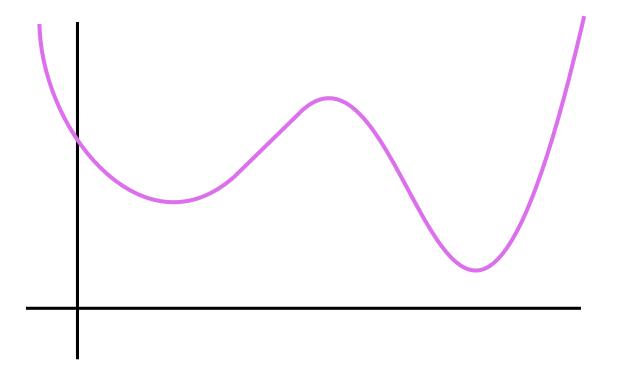
How to initialize \mathbf{w}^0 ?

How to choose η_t Often called step length or learning rate

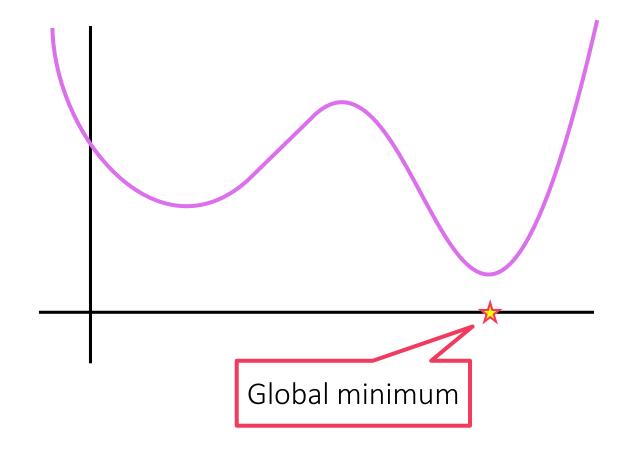
How to decide if we have converged?

What does convergence even mean?

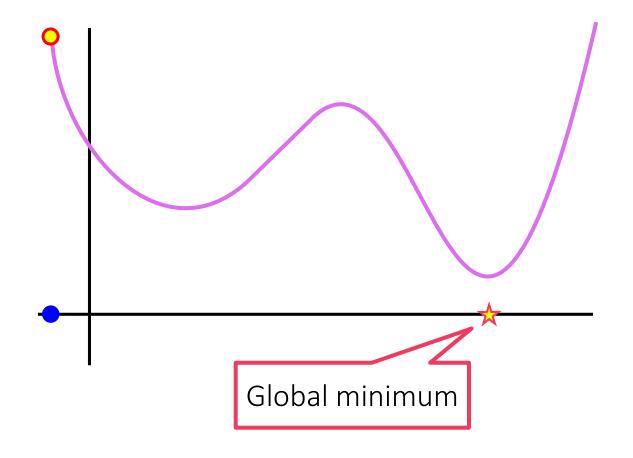






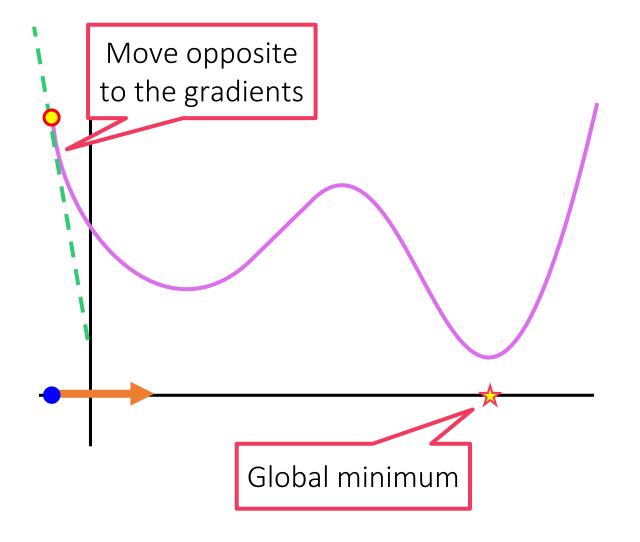




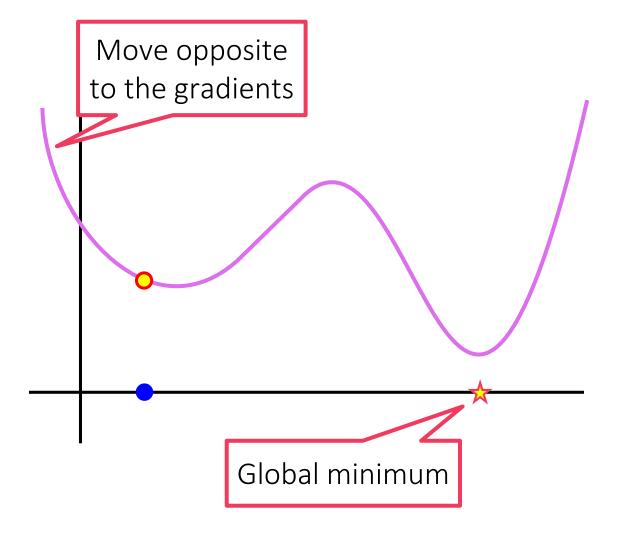




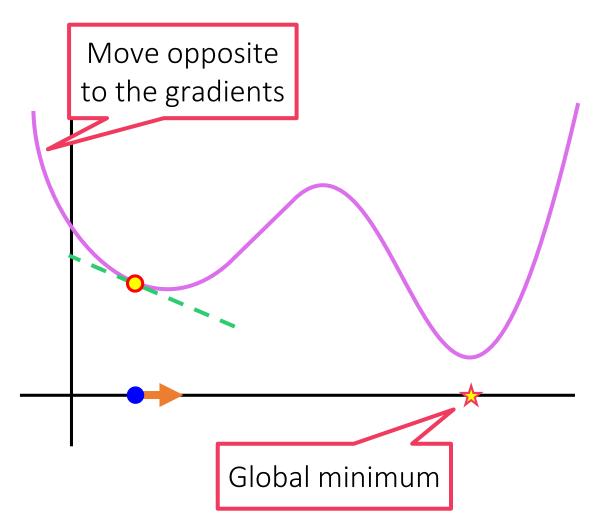








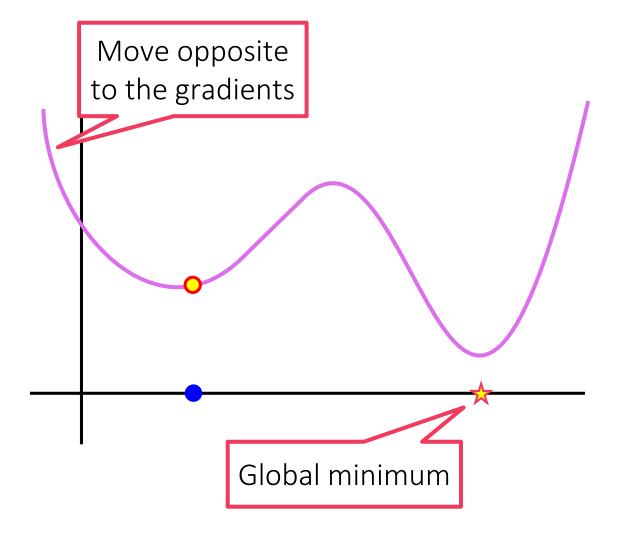






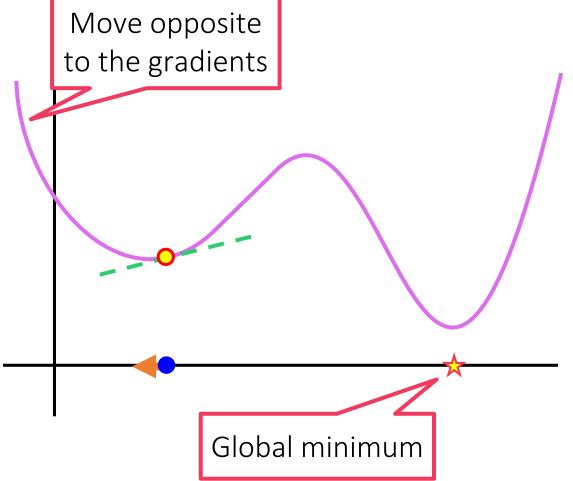






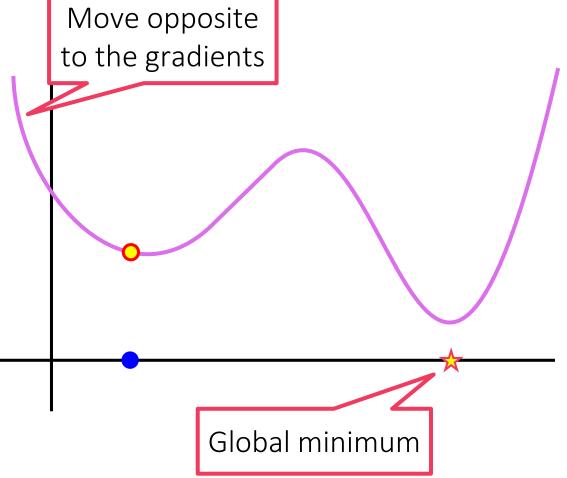






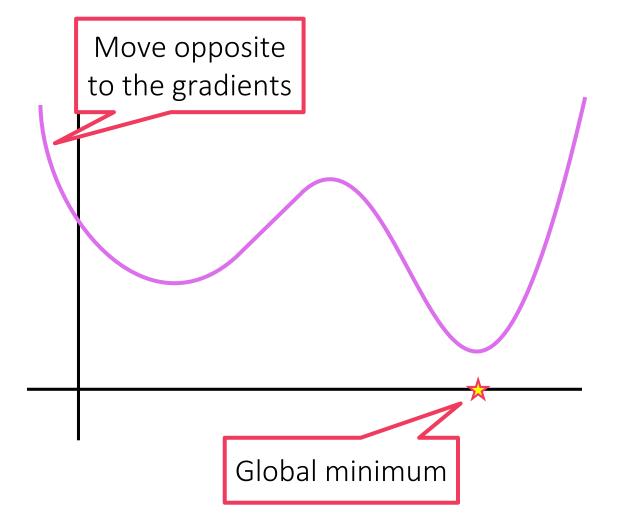




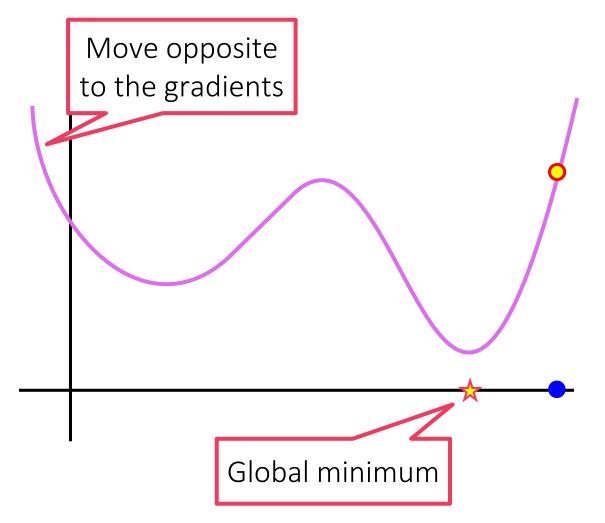






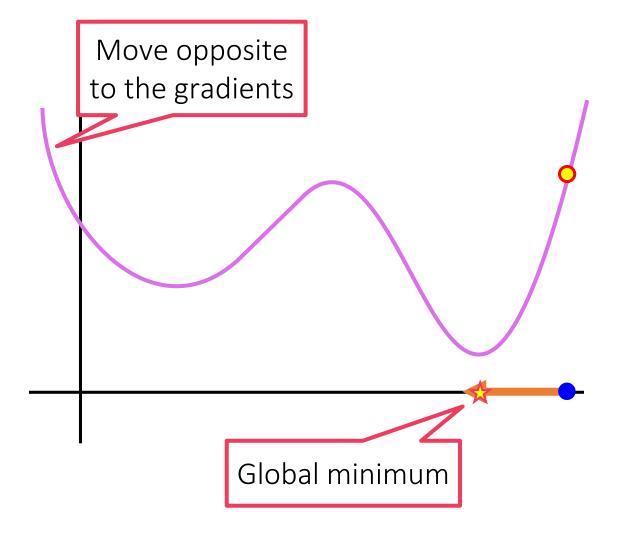




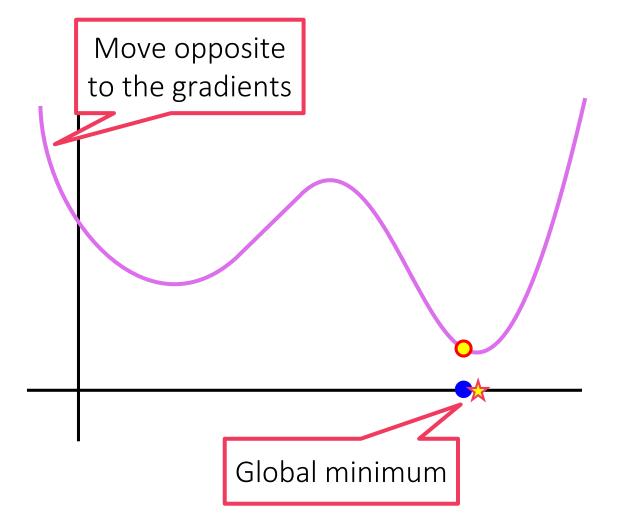






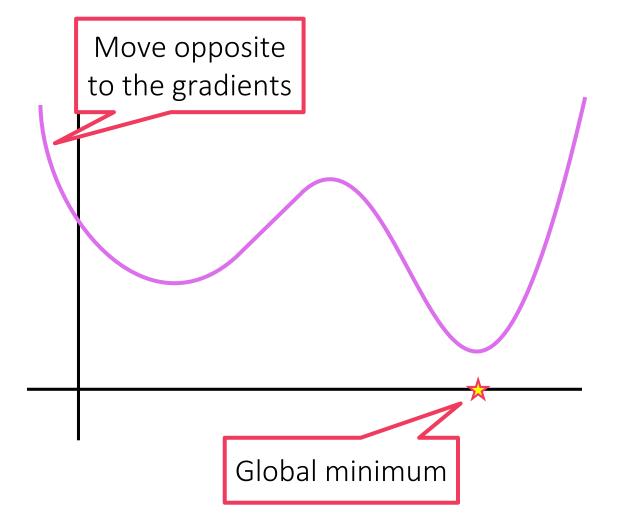




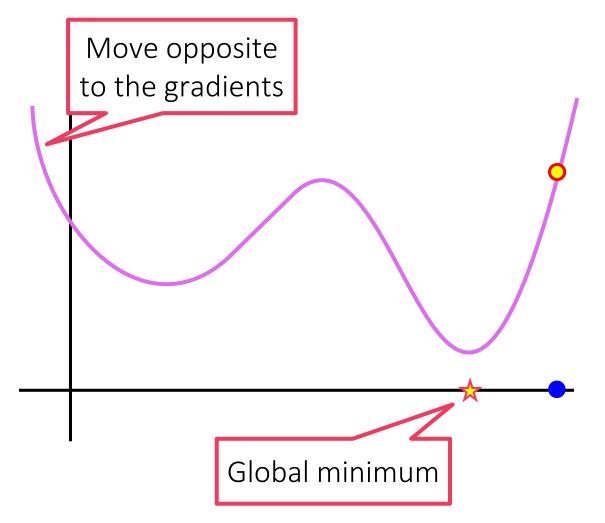








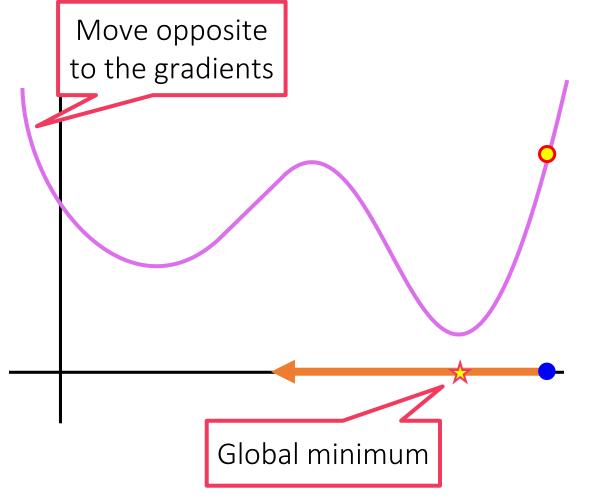






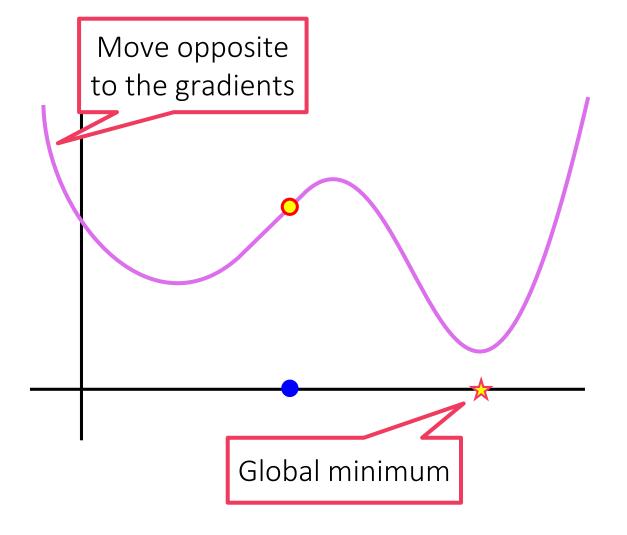




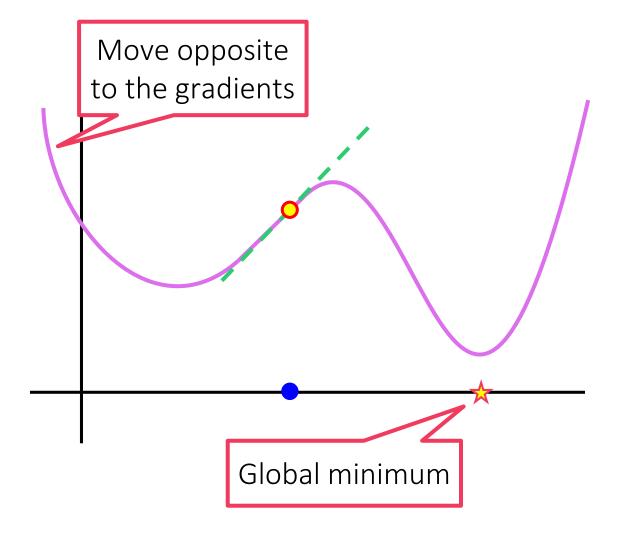




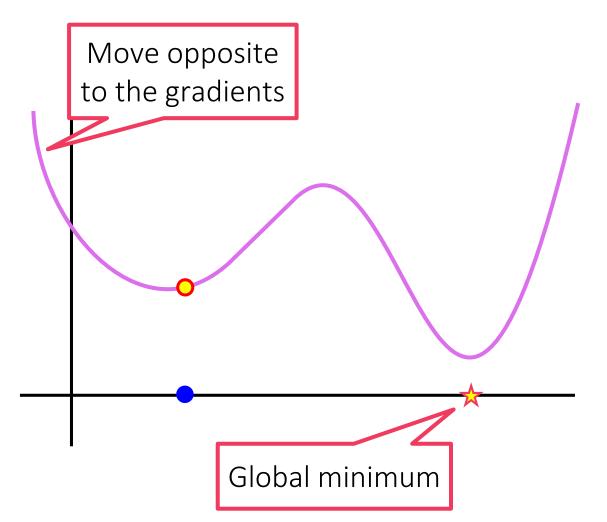






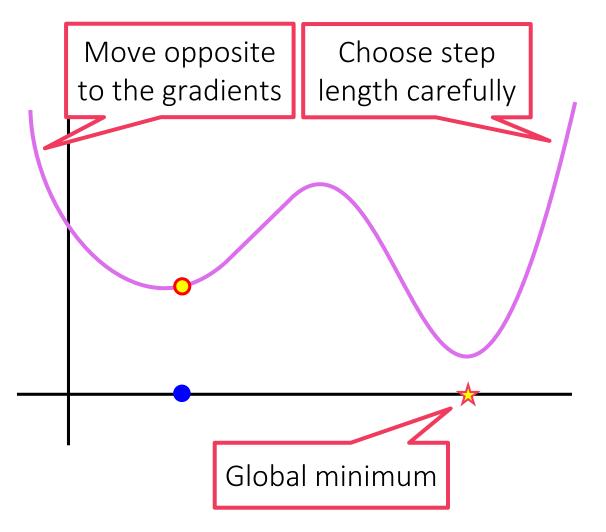






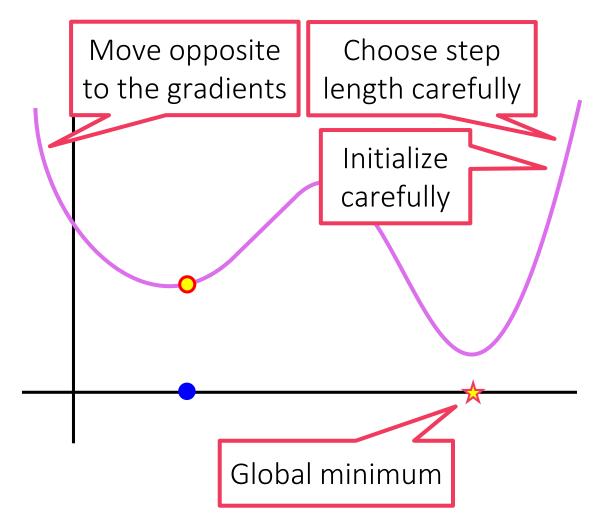








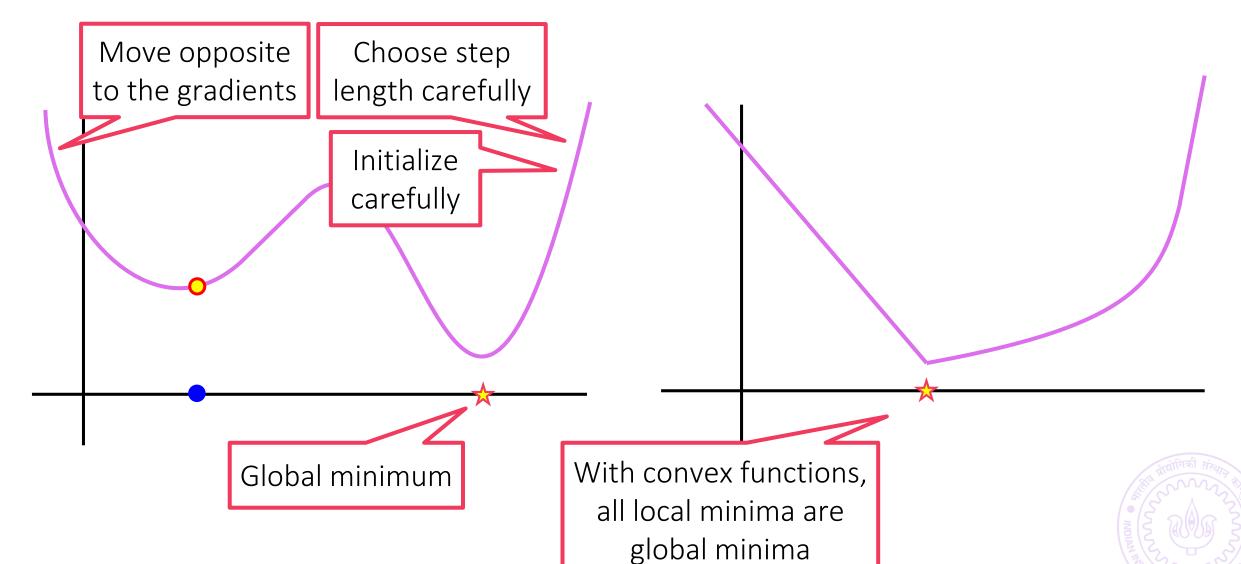


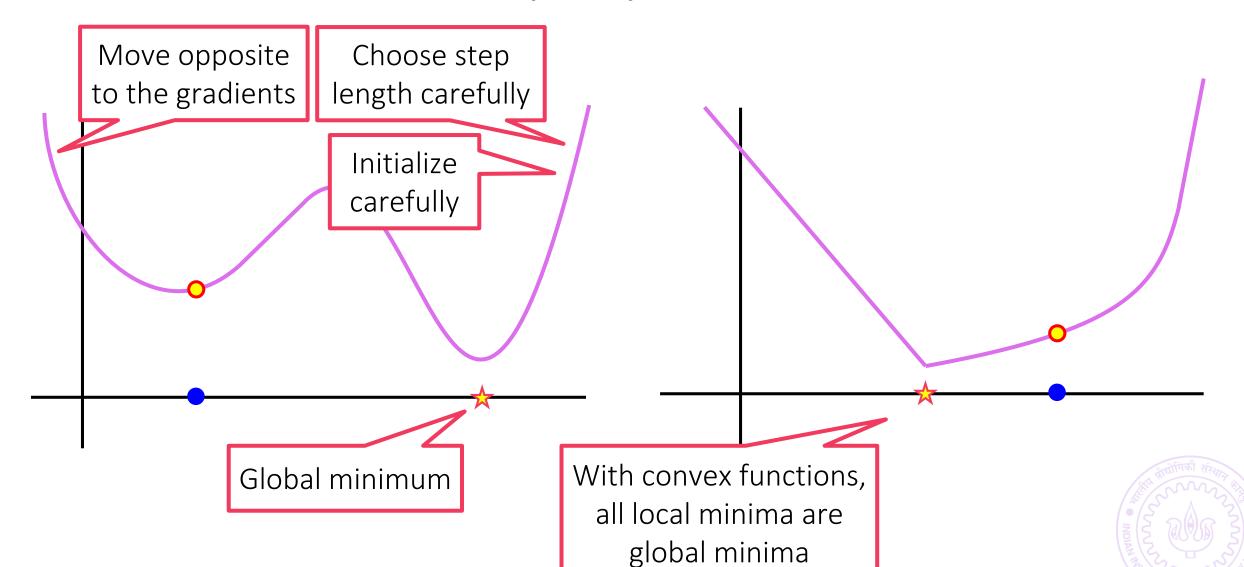




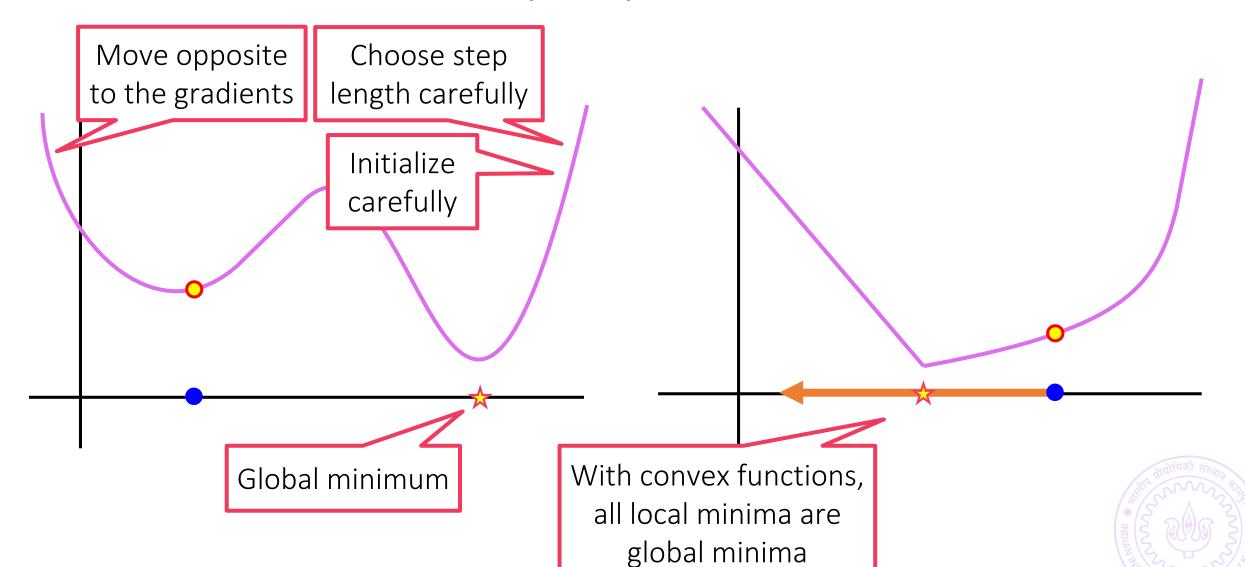


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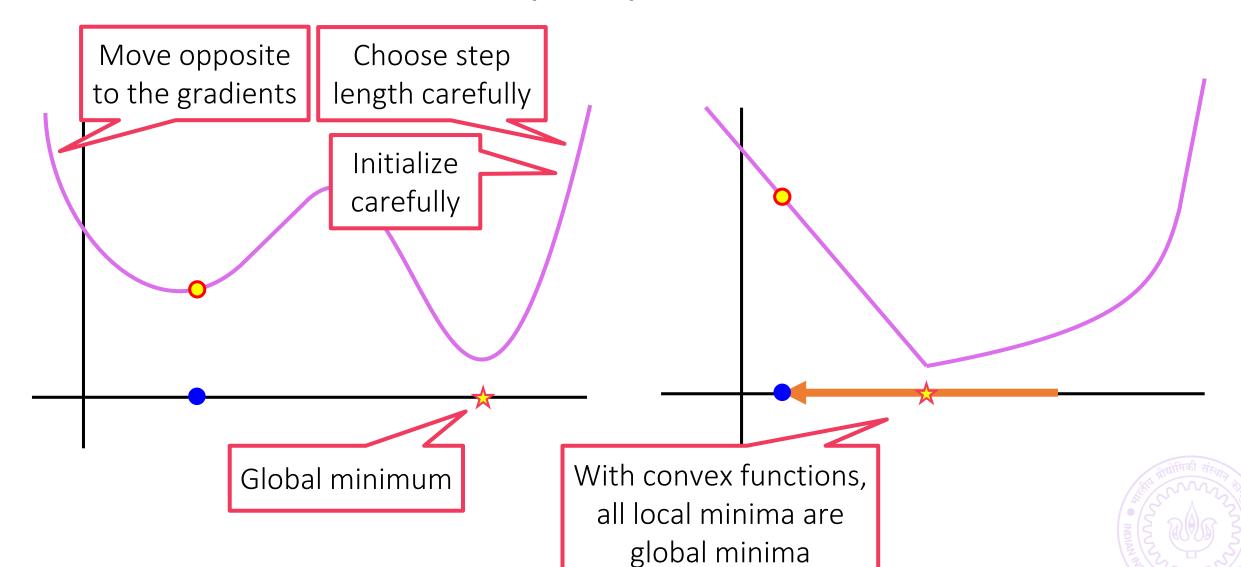


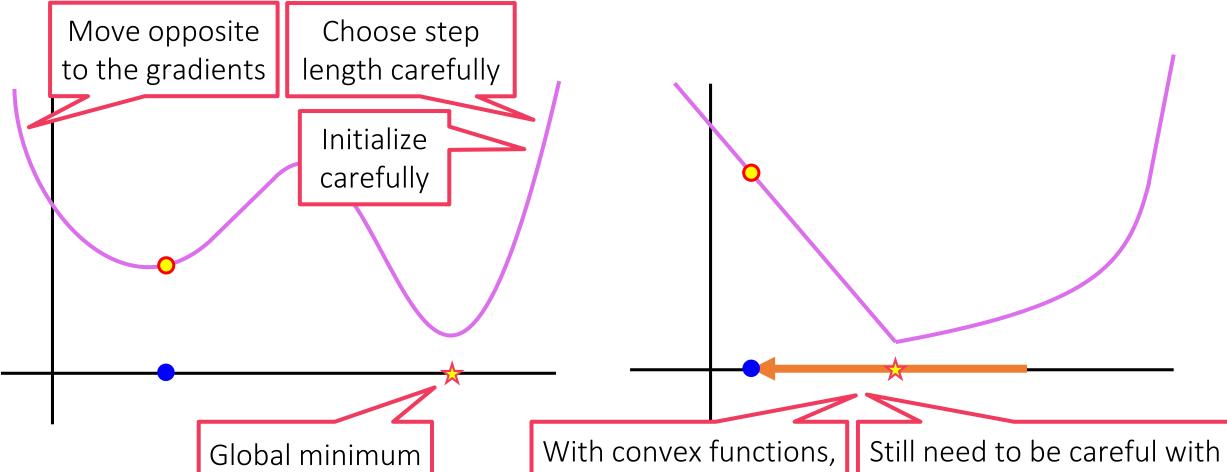


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With convex functions all local minima are global minima

Still need to be careful with step lengths otherwise may overshoot global minima

How to choose Step Length?

For "nicely behaved" convex functions, have formulae for step length

Set $\eta_t = \eta/\sqrt{t}$ or else $\eta_t = \eta/t$ where η These are guaranteed to work for these nice convex functions Details beyond scope of CS771 (usually a part of CS77X, X = 3,4,7)

For not so well behaved convex functions and non-convex functions, there exist several heuristics − no guarantee they will always work ⊗

Armijo Rule: try a value of η_t , if not "nice" reduce η_t and try again

Adagrad: uses a different step length for each dimension of w

 η_t replaced with a diagonal matrix E^t i.e. $\mathbf{w}^{t+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^t - E^t \mathbf{g}^t$

Adam: uses *momentum* methods (essentially infuses previous gradients into the current gradient)

How to decide Convergence?

In optimization, convergence can refer to a couple of things

The algorithm has gotten within a small distance of a global/local optima ("small" depends on application)

The algorithm has stopped making progress e.g. $\|\mathbf{w}^{t+1} - \mathbf{w}^t\| \to 0$

GD stops making progress when it reaches a stationary point i.e. can stop making progress even without having reached a global optimum (e.g. if it has reached a saddle point)

Usually a few heuristics used to decide when to stop executing GD

```
If \|\mathbf{g}^t\|_2 has become too small

If \|\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{w}^{t+1}) - f(\mathbf{w}^t)\| has become too small

If f(\mathbf{w}^t) is small enough that I don't care to reduce it further

The assignment submission deadline is 5 minutes away
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Initializing close to the global optimum is obviously preferable ©

For convex functions, bad initialization may mean slow convergence, but if step lengths are nice then GD should converge eventually

For non-convex functions (e.g. while training deepnets), bad initialization may mean getting stuck at a very bad saddle point

Random restarts used to overcome this problem

For some nice non-convex problems, we do know very good ways to provably initialize close to the global optimum (e.g. collaborative filtering in recommendation systems) – details beyond scope of CS771