

IFT6390 Fondements de l'apprentissage machine

Optimization Basic principles and techniques

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Optimization?

- The training phase of a learning algorithm often involves optimization
- That is, finding the values of the parameters θ of the function f_{θ} that minimize (or maximize) some objective $J(\theta)$
- Objective example: empirical risk (or «mean error») on the training data:

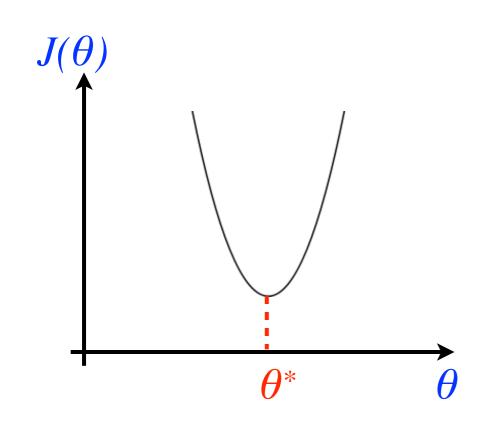
$$J(\theta) = \hat{R}(f_{\theta}, D_n)$$

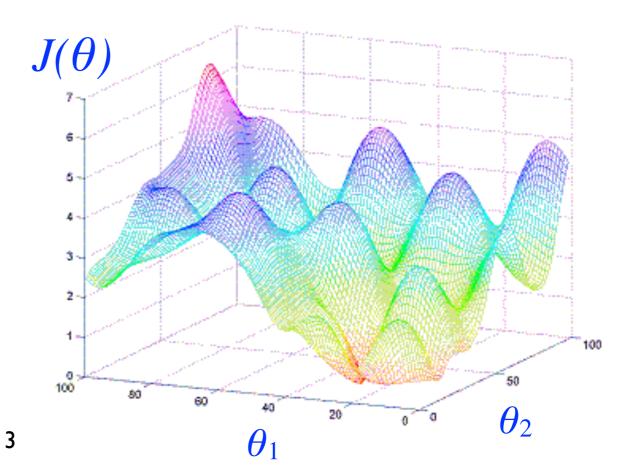
The optimization problem

$$heta^* = rg \min_{ heta} J(heta)$$
Optimal value of the parameters

How to find it ???

Landscape of the loss function:



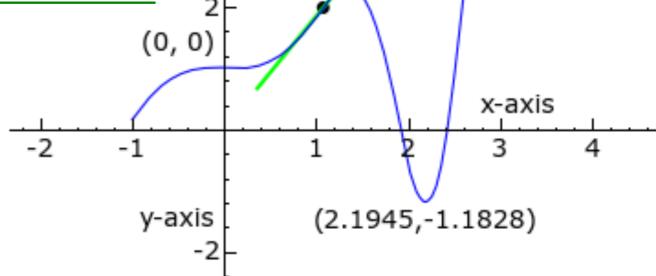


Reminder: derivative

- Measures the **sensitivity** of a function f to a change of its input (at a point x).
- Let $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$. At a point x, if we add a small ε to x, how much will f(x) move (in multiples of ε)?

 $f'(x) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x)$

Geometrically: this is the **slope** of the curve at each point.

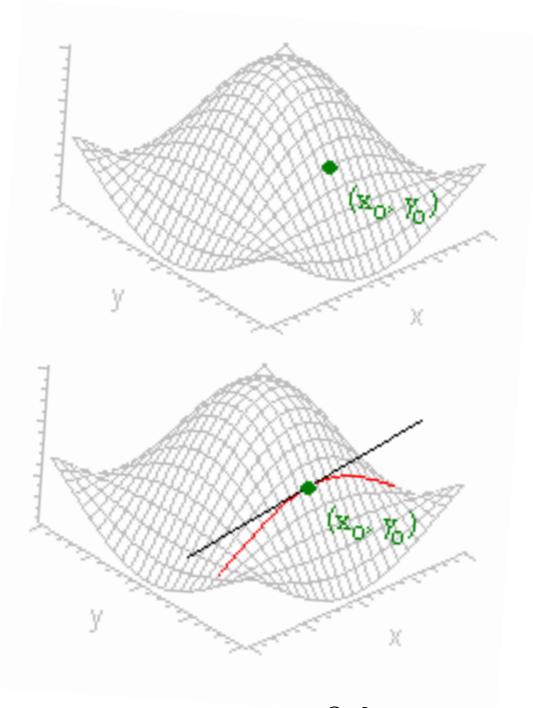


Ex:

 $f(x) = x * sin(x^2) + 1$

 $f'(x) = sin(x^2) + 2x^2 *cos(x^2)$

(2.8137, 3.8081)



$f'_{x_k}(x) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_k}(x)$

Partial derivative

• For a function taking vectors (i.e. several parameters) as input.

$$f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$$

• We can evaluate it at x:

$$f(x) = f(x_1, ..., x_m)$$

 And measure how sensitive it is to each of its input separately (assuming the others fixed)

partial derivative of f with respect to x_k , evaluated at x

$$= \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{f(x_1, \dots, x_k + \epsilon, \dots, x_m) - f(x_1, \dots, x_k, \dots, x_m)}{\epsilon}$$

Gradient

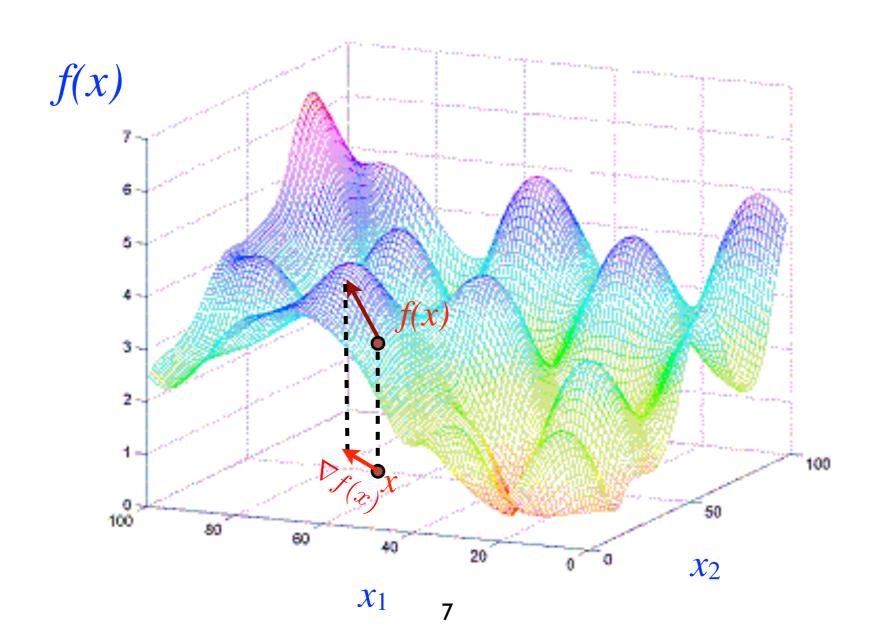
• The gradient is the vector of partial derivatives:

$$\nabla f(x) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_m} \end{pmatrix} (x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x) \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}(x) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_m}(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

if
$$f:\mathbb{R}^m o \mathbb{R}$$
 then $\nabla f:\mathbb{R}^m o \mathbb{R}^m$

Gradient: geometry

 The gradient points in the direction of the steepest slope (uphill/ascending)

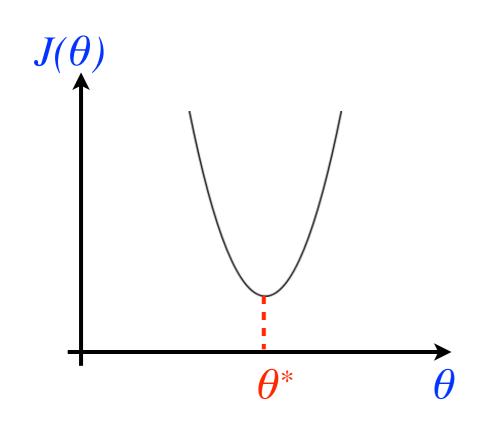


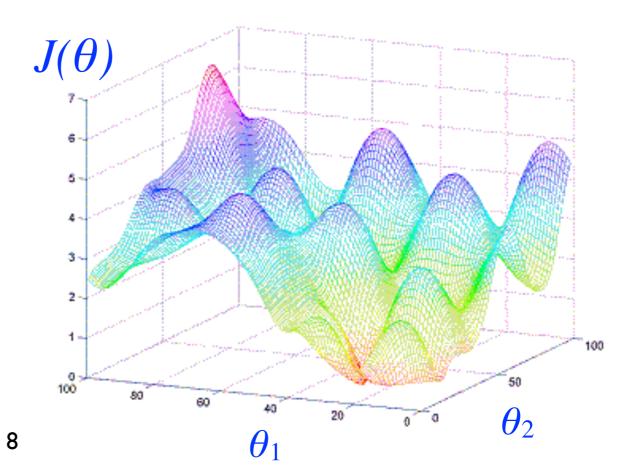
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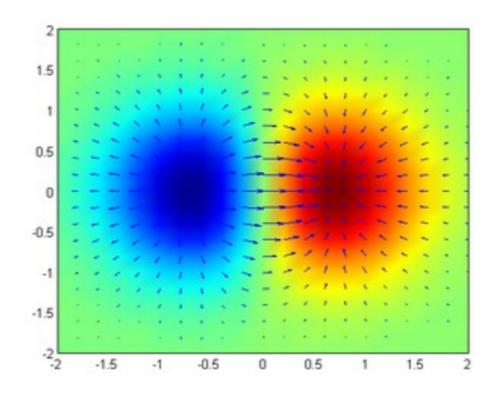


Gradient

- Let $\theta = (\theta_1, ..., \theta_m)$ be a vector of parameters.
- Let $J(\theta)$ be a scalar function: the objective function to minimize.
- The gradient is the vector of the partial derivatives:

$$\nabla J(\theta) = \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_1} \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_2} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_m} \end{pmatrix} (\theta) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_1}(\theta) \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_2}(\theta) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_m}(\theta) \end{pmatrix}$$

Properties of the gradient



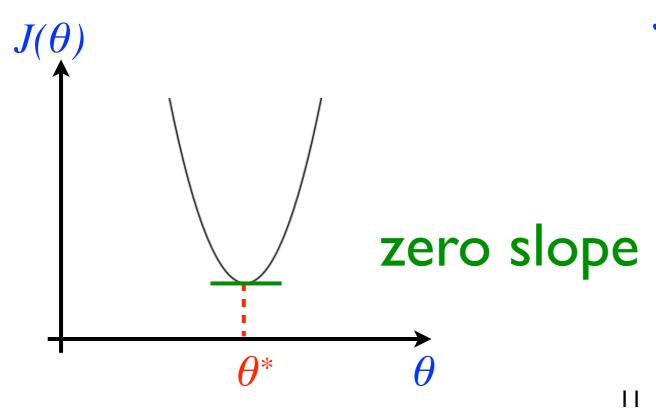
- The inner product $\langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}), \mathbf{v} \rangle$ between the gradient of f at \mathbf{x} and any unit vector $\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the *directional derivative* of f in the direction of \mathbf{v} (i.e. the rate at which f changes at \mathbf{x} in the direction \mathbf{v}).
- $ightarrow
 abla f(\mathbf{x})$ points towards the direction of greatest increase of f at \mathbf{x} .
- \rightarrow Points such that $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ are called stationary points.
- \rightarrow The gradient $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ is orthogonal to the contour line passing through \mathbf{x} .

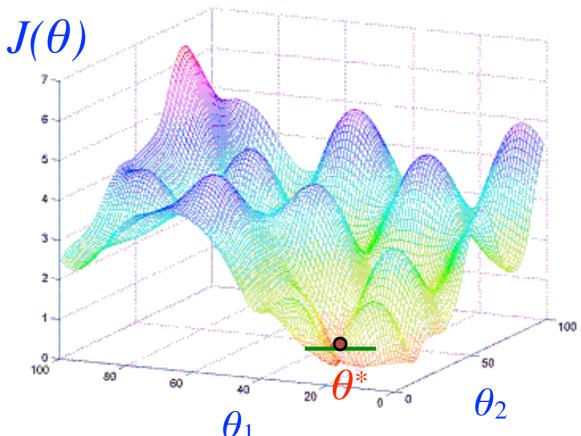
The main property

At the optimum, the **gradient** is zero: the «slope»

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta^*) = 0$$

Landscape of the loss function:





Analytical solution

• Sometimes we can solve the equation (system) analytically to find the optimal θ :

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta} = 0 \qquad \begin{cases} \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_1} = 0 \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_2} = 0 \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_m} = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\theta = \dots$$

- Examples of problem with analytical solutions:
 - Maximum likelihood to estimate the parameters of a Gaussian
 - Linear regression / Ridge regression

Search algorithm

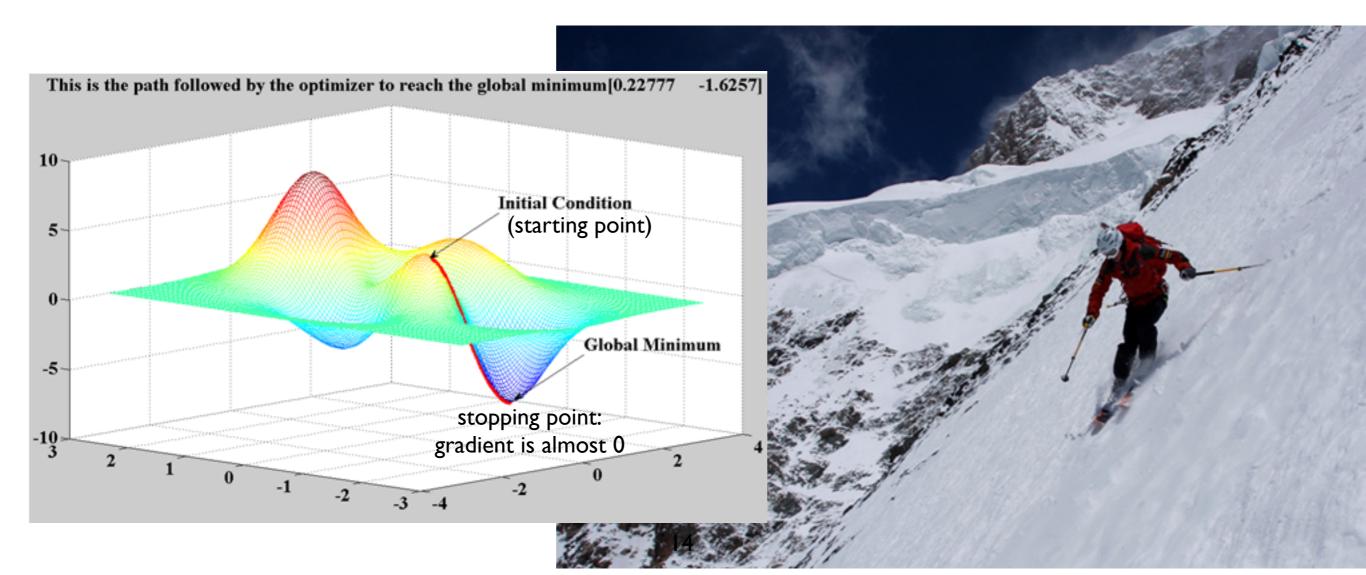
• In most cases, there is no analytical solution to the equation $\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}=0$

- In this case we can use an **iterative algorithm** to search for an optimal solution.
- Method 1: exhaustive search! try all possible values of θ (or fine grid search) and keep the best one...
 - => NOT POSSIBLE FOR HIGH-DIMENSIONAL θ (m>4).
- Method 2: gradient descent!

Gradient descent

- Initialize θ randomly (using an appropriate heuristic)
- Until convergence, repeat $\theta \leftarrow \theta \eta \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta)$

We update θ by taking a step in the direction opposite to the gradient (direction of the steepest descent).



Gradient descent learning rate

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta)$$

- η is a positive real number called the *«learning rate»* or *«step size»*.
 - It controls the size of the steps in parameter space (how much we update θ).
- This is a crucial hyper-parameter for the optimization procedure (needs to be chosen carefully).
- Often, we slightly decrease the learning rate at each iteration. Ex.: at iteration t, we set the learning rate to $\eta(t) = \frac{\lambda}{t_0 + t}$

Here t_0 and λ are hyper-parameters (to be carefully chosen...).

Gradient descent stopping criteria

$$\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta)$$

- We stop the gradient descent iterations when the updates leave θ almost unchanged.
- That is, when the norm of the gradient gets smaller than some small threshold: $\left\|\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta)\right\| < \epsilon$
- We may even want to stop earlier, before reaching the optimal point (for example to prevent overfitting and generalize better) => early stopping (use an other criterion to decide when to stop, for example using a validation set; more on that later...)

Gradient descent what solution do we get in the end?

Gradient descent converges to a point where the **gradient** is (almost) zero:

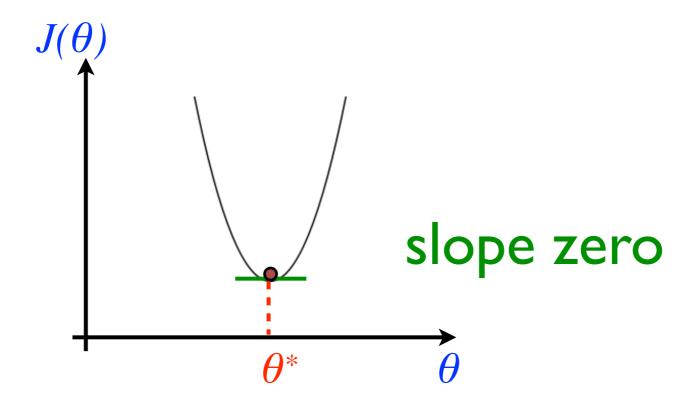
$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta) \approx 0$$

Gradient descent Convex objective

Gradient descent converges to a point where the **gradient** is (almost) zero:

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta) \approx 0$$

Landscape of the loss function:



For a convex objective, we reach the global minimum

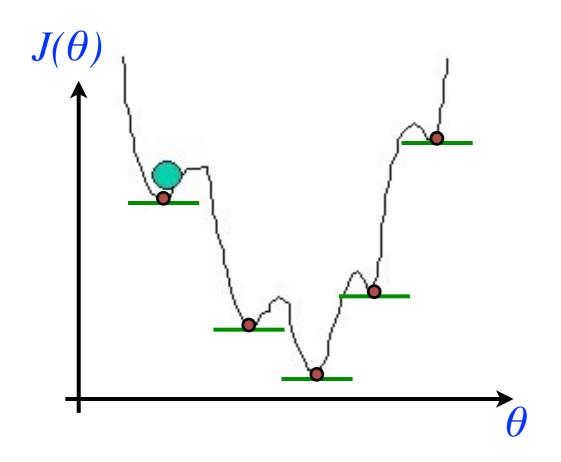
Gradient descent

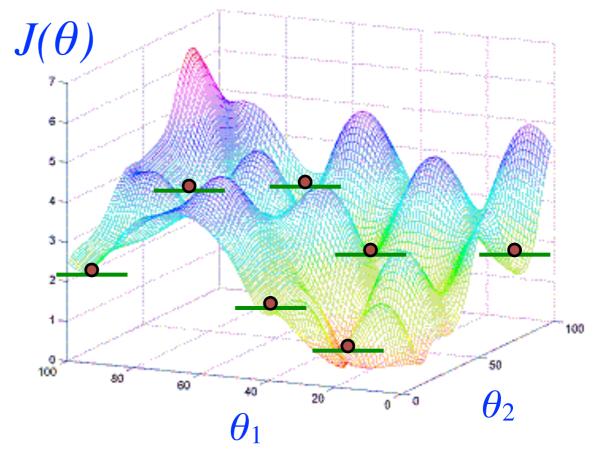
objective is non-convex

Gradient descent converges to a point $\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta) \approx 0$ where the **gradient** is (almost) zero:

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta) \approx 0$$

For a non convex objective function there can be many such points: all local extrema (minima, maxima saddle points).





In practice, we converge to a local minimum (rather than a global one) which depends on the starting point.

Typical minimization objective for learning tasks

• In machine learning, the objective function to minimize is often a sum or a mean over the n examples of the training set $D_n = \{z^{(1)}, \dots, z^{(n)}\}$

of a loss/cost function L (empirical risk):

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(z^{(i)}; \theta)$$

 Remark: minimizing the sum or the mean are equivalent (they have the same minima).

Typical gradient for learning tasks

Gradient of the mean = mean of the gradients:

$$J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(z^{(i)}; \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta) = \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L(z^{(i)}; \theta) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(z^{(i)}; \theta)$$

Gradient descent batch, mini-batch

• In wbatch» gradient descent, we compute the mean of the gradients over all n examples in D_n

$$\nabla(\theta) = \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(z^{(i)}; \theta) = \underset{z \in D_n}{\text{mean}} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(z^{(i)}; \theta) \right]$$

before each update of the parameters: $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta \nabla(\theta)$

• In «mini-batch» gradient descent with batch size n, approximate the mean of the gradients by computing the mean over only n examples in D_n

$$\nabla(\theta) = \underset{z \in \text{minibatch}}{\text{mean}} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(z ; \theta) \right] \approx \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta}(\theta)$$

(these n' examples, different each time, are called a mini batch)

Gradient descent batch, mini-batch, stochastic/online

- Before each computation of ∇ the n' examples of the mini-batch should ideally be drawn randomly from D_n .
- But for efficiency, we often take examples sequentially in D_n to construct the mini-batches (starting with the first n' examples, then the following n', etc., and we repeat).
- Remark: with n'=n we fall back onto the batch gradient descent.
- The case n'=1 (we use only one examples for each gradient computation) is called online/stochastic gradient descent.

Gradient descent variants

There exist a lot of optimization algorithms based on gradient descent:

- Momentum technique
- Conjugate gradient
- Second-order methods. (use information about the «curvature» of the objective by taking second-order derivatives into account: the Hessian)
 Ex: Newton's method.

• ...

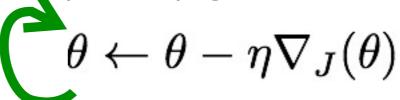
All these are for continuous parameters and assume we can efficiently compute a «gradient».

Newton's method

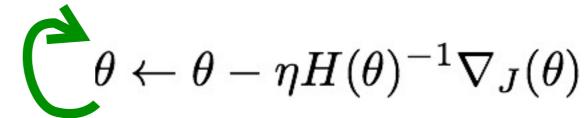
Gradient: vector of firstorder derivatives

$$\nabla_{J} = \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_{1}} \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_{2}} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_{m}} \end{pmatrix}$$

Simple (batch) gradient descent:



Newton's method (batch):



Hessian: matrix of second-order derivatives

$$H = \frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial \theta^2} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial \theta_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial \theta_1 \partial \theta_m} \\ \frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial \theta_2 \partial \theta_1} & \frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial \theta_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial \theta_2 \partial \theta_m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial \theta_m \partial \theta_1} & \frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial \theta_m \partial \theta_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 J}{\partial \theta_m^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Not straightforward for minibatch

H⁻¹: difficult and costly to compute

Constrained optimization

- In what we saw, there were no constraints on the parameters
- Sometimes, we also want the parameters to satisfy one or more constraints (ex: positive, sum to1, ...)
- Constrained optimization => more complex algorithms.
 - Ex: linear/quadratic 'programming', ...