

# Optimization Introduction

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Slides mostly by Andrew Ng

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# Outline

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# Formulas in this note

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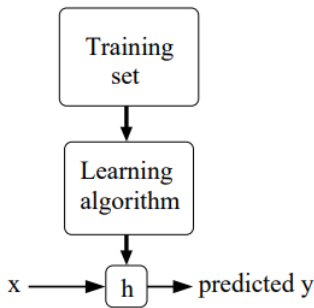
Newton's  
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- **Features:**  $x^{(i)}$
- “Output” or **target** variable:  $y^{(i)}$
- A pair  $(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$  is called a **training example**
- A list of  $m$  training examples  $\{(x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) : i = 1, \dots, m\}$  is called a **training set**



# Supervised Learning Problem

In supervised learning problems, our goal is, given a training set, to learn function  $h : \mathcal{X} \mapsto \mathcal{Y}$  so that  $h(x)$  is a “good” predictor for the corresponding value of  $y$ .



For historical reasons,  $h$  is called a **hypothesis**.



# Example: regression problem

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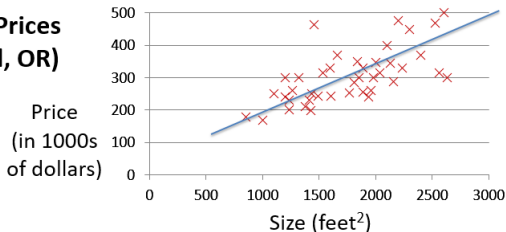
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When  $y$  is continuous, we call the learning problem a **regression** problem.

## Housing Prices (Portland, OR)





# Example: classification problem

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When  $y$  takes on only a small number of discrete values, we call the learning problem a **classification** problem.





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# Learning Regression

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We want to predict the house price using living area and number of bedrooms. Here,  $x$ 's are 2-dimensional.

- $x_1^{(i)}$  is the living area of  $i$ -th house in the training set
- $x_2^{(i)}$  is its number of bedrooms

| Living area (feet <sup>2</sup> ) | #bedrooms | Price (1000\$) |
|----------------------------------|-----------|----------------|
| 2104                             | 3         | 400            |
| 1600                             | 3         | 330            |
| 2400                             | 3         | 369            |
| 1416                             | 2         | 232            |
| 3000                             | 4         | 540            |
| $\vdots$                         | $\vdots$  | $\vdots$       |



# Learning Regression

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If we approximate  $y$  as a linear function of  $x$ :

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x_1 + \theta_2 x_2.$$

- $\theta_i$ 's are the **parameters** (also called **weights**)
- By letting  $x_0 = 1$  (**intercept**), we simplify the notation as

$$h(x) = \sum_{i=0}^n \theta_i x_i = \theta^T x.$$

To quantify how close  $h(x^{(i)})$ 's are to the corresponding  $y^{(i)}$ 's, we define the **cost function**:

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2.$$



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## Target: Minimizing $J(\theta)$

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Let's use a search algorithm that starts with some initial guess for  $\theta$ , and that repeatedly changes  $\theta$  to make  $J(\theta)$  smaller, until hopefully we converge to a value of  $\theta$  that minimizes  $J(\theta)$ .

### Gradient Descent

Starting with some initial  $\theta$ , the Gradient Descent algorithm repeatedly performs the update:

$$\theta_j := \theta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta).$$

This update is simultaneously performed for all  $\theta_j$   $j = 0, \dots, n$ . Here,  $\alpha$  is called the **learning rate**.

# Logic for 1-dimensional GD

Supervised Learning

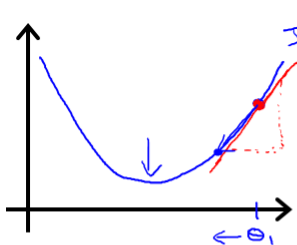
Learning Regression

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Logistic Regression

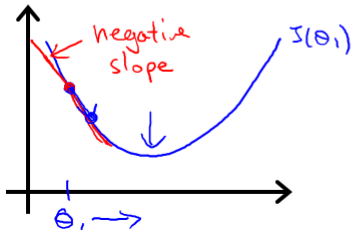
Newton's Method



$$\theta_1 := \theta_1 - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta_1)$$

where  $\alpha \geq 0$  (positive number)

$$\theta_1 := \theta_1 - \alpha \cdot (\text{positive number})$$



$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta_1) \leq 0$$

$$\theta_1 := \theta_1 - \alpha (\text{negative number})$$



# Calculate $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta)$

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In order to update, we need  $\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta)$ .

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} J(\theta) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2 \\&= \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) \\&= \sum_{i=1}^m (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)}) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \left[ \sum_{k=0}^n \theta_k x_k^{(i)} - y^{(i)} \right] \\&= \sum_{i=1}^m (\theta^T x^{(i)} - y^{(i)}) x_j^{(i)}\end{aligned}$$

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# Gradient Descent for LMS

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## Batch Gradient Descent for LMS

Repeat until convergence {

$$\theta_j := \theta_j + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)} - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})) x_j^{(i)} \quad \text{for every } j$$

}

This method looks at every example in the entire training set on every step, and is called **batch gradient descent**.



# Local minimum in 2-dimensional $J(\theta)$

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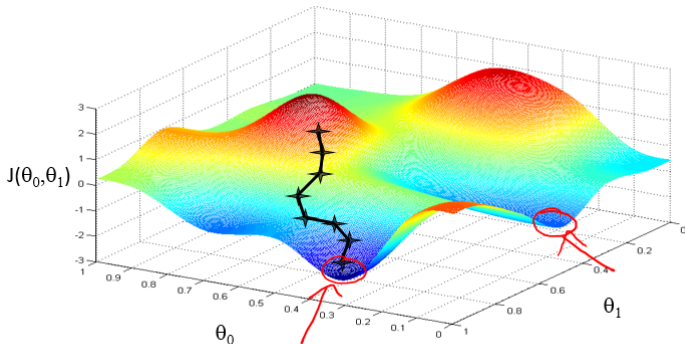
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# Local minimum in 2-dimensional $J(\theta)$

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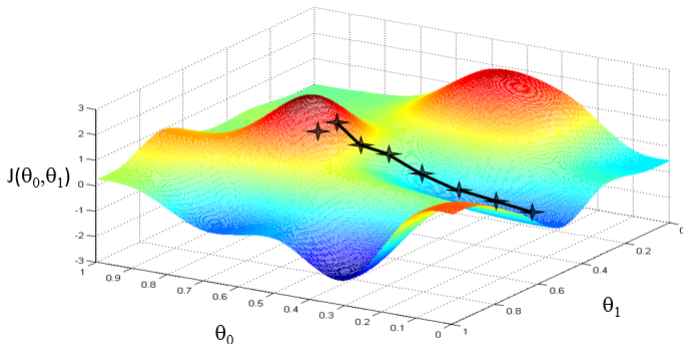
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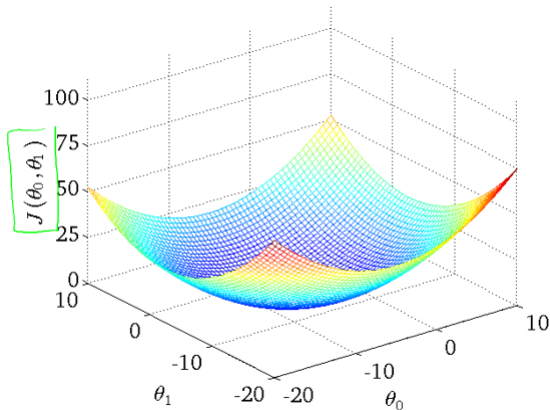
Newton's  
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# Global minimum in 2-dimensional $J(\theta)$

In order to avoid the local minimum,  $J(\theta)$  needs to be “**convex**” (or “**convex downward**” or “**concave upward**”).



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# Learning Rate

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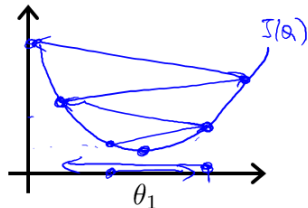
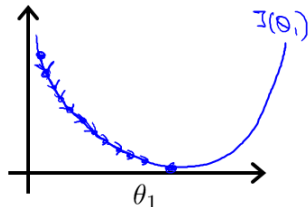
Logistic Regression

Newton's Method

$$\theta_1 := \theta_1 - \alpha \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_1} J(\theta_1)$$

If  $\alpha$  is too small, gradient descent can be slow.

If  $\alpha$  is too large, gradient descent can overshoot the minimum. It may fail to converge, or even diverge.





# Learning Rate

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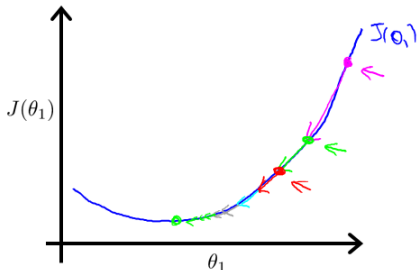
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Gradient descent can converge to a local minimum, even with the learning rate  $\alpha$  fixed.

$$\theta_1 := \theta_1 - \alpha \frac{d}{d\theta_1} J(\theta_1)$$

As we approach a local minimum, gradient descent will automatically take smaller steps. So, no need to decrease  $\alpha$  over time.





# Stochastic Gradient Descent for LMS

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## Stochastic Gradient Descent (Mini Batch GD) for LMS

Repeat until convergence {  
  for  $i = 1$  to  $m$  {

$$\theta_j := \theta_j + \alpha(y^{(i)} - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}))x_j^{(i)} \quad \text{for every } j$$

  }  
}

## Batch Gradient Descent for LMS

Repeat until convergence {

$$\theta_j := \theta_j + \alpha \sum_{i=1}^m (y^{(i)} - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}))x_j^{(i)} \quad \text{for every } j$$



# Stochastic Gradient Descent for LMS

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## Stochastic Gradient Descent for LMS

Repeat until convergence {  
for  $i = 1$  to  $m$  {

$$\theta_j := \theta_j + \alpha(y^{(i)} - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}))x_j^{(i)} \quad \text{for every } j$$

}

}

Whereas **batch gradient descent** has to scan the entire training set before taking a single step (a costly operation if  $m$  is large), **stochastic gradient descent** starts making progress right away.

# SGD vs. batch gradient descent

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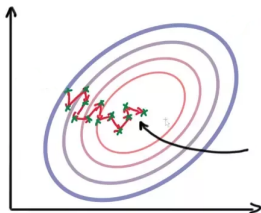


Figure: SGD

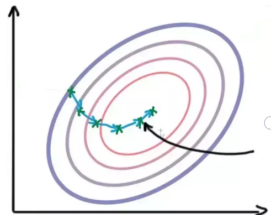


Figure: batch gradient descent



## More on SGD

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- Often, **SGD** is much faster than **batch gradient descent**.
- Note however that **SGD** may never “converge” to the minimum, and the parameters  $\theta$  will keep oscillating around the minimum of  $J(\theta)$ .
- In practice, **SGD** often performs better than **batch gradient descent**.
- An alternative is **mini-batch gradient descent** which seeks a balance between **SGD** and **batch GD**.
  - **mini-batch gradient descent** splits the training set into batches, and apply **SGD** on each batch.





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# LMS Revisit

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We all learned the closed form solution to LMS in STA 603.  
Let  $X$  be the design matrix, then

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}(X\theta - y)^T(X\theta - y)$$
$$\nabla_{\theta} J(\theta) = X^T X\theta - X^T y.$$

To minimize  $J(\theta)$ , we set the derivatives to zero and obtain the **normal equations**:

$$X^T X\theta = X^T y.$$

Thus the value of  $\theta$  that minimizes  $J(\theta)$  is given in a closed form by the equation

$$\theta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T y.$$



# Gradient Descent vs. Normal Equation

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$m$  training examples,  $n$  features.

## Gradient Descent

- Need to choose  $\alpha$ .
- Needs many iterations.
- Works well even when  $n$  is large.

## Normal Equation

- No need to choose  $\alpha$ .
- Don't need to iterate.
- Need to compute  $(X^T X)^{-1}$
- Slow if  $n$  is very large, sometimes even unable to compute.



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# Logistic Regression

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## Logistic Regression Model

Want  $0 \leq h_{\theta}(x) \leq 1$

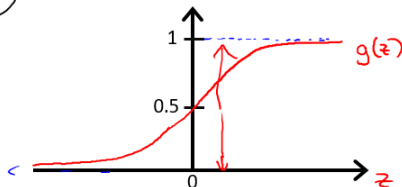
$$h_{\theta}(x) = g(\theta^T x)$$

$$\rightarrow g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

$\theta^T x$

→ Sigmoid function  
→ Logistic function

$$h_{\theta}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\theta^T x}}$$



Parameters  $\theta$



# Logistic Regression

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Useful property of the sigmoid function:

$$\begin{aligned}g'(z) &= \frac{d}{dz} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \\&= \frac{e^{-z}}{(1 + e^{-z})^2} \\&= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \cdot \left(1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}\right) \\&= g(z)(1 - g(z)).\end{aligned}$$



# Logistic Regression

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Question: Which cost function should we use? Same as the square loss in linear regression?



# Logistic Regression

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Assume that

$$P(y = 1|x, \theta) = h_{\theta}(x)$$

$$P(y = 0|x, \theta) = 1 - h_{\theta}(x).$$

Then we can write down the likelihood as

$$\ell(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^m \left( h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) \right)^{y^{(i)}} \left( 1 - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) \right)^{1-y^{(i)}}.$$

The log likelihood is

$$\ell(\theta) = \log \ell(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^m y^{(i)} \log h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) + (1-y^{(i)}) \log(1-h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})).$$

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# Logistic Regression

Calculate the derivative of  $\ell(\theta)$ :

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \ell(\theta) &= \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ y^{(i)} \frac{1}{g(\theta^T x^{(i)})} - (1 - y^{(i)}) \frac{1}{1 - g(\theta^T x^{(i)})} \right] \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} g(\theta^T x^{(i)}) \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m \left[ y^{(i)} \frac{1}{g(\theta^T x^{(i)})} - (1 - y^{(i)}) \frac{1}{1 - g(\theta^T x^{(i)})} \right] \\ &\quad \cdot g(\theta^T x^{(i)}) [1 - g(\theta^T x^{(i)})] \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \theta^T x^{(i)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m [y^{(i)} (1 - g(\theta^T x^{(i)})) - (1 - y^{(i)}) g(\theta^T x^{(i)})] x_j^{(i)} \\ &= \sum_{i=1}^m [y^{(i)} - h_{\theta}(x^{(i)})] x_j\end{aligned}$$

Then we could apply batch gradient descent to calculate the MLE for logistic regression. But in practice, people use BFGS or L-BFGS instead, why?

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# Newton's Method

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Suppose we have some function  $f : \mathbb{R} \mapsto \mathbb{R}$ , and we wish to find a value of  $\theta$  so that  $f(\theta) = 0$  ( $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$ ). Newton's Method performs the following update:

$$\theta := \theta - \frac{f(\theta)}{f'(\theta)}.$$

Logic:

- Approximate  $f$  via a linear function that is tangent to  $f$  at the current guess  $\theta$ .
- Solving for where that linear function equals to zero.
- Let the next guess for  $\theta$  be where that linear function is zero.



# Newton's Method

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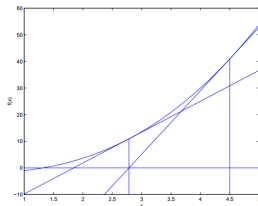
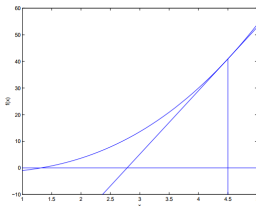
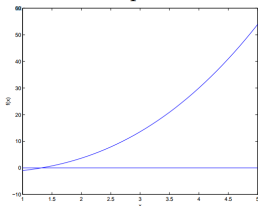
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## Apply Newton's method to log likelihood

We can use Newton's method to solve for  $\ell'(\theta) = 0$  in order to get the maxima. Then the update rule is:

$$\theta := \theta - \frac{\ell'(\theta)}{\ell''(\theta)}.$$

We can generalize this to multidimensional setting (called **Newton-Raphson method**):

$$\theta := \theta - H^{-1} \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta).$$

Here,  $\nabla_{\theta} \ell(\theta)$  is, as usual, the vector of partial derivatives of  $\ell(\theta)$  with respect to  $\theta_i$ 's. And  $H$  is called the **Hessian** matrix, whose entries are given by

$$H_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\theta)}{\partial \theta_i \partial \theta_j}.$$

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# Newton's method vs. Gradient Descent

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## Newton's Method:

### Pros:

- Faster convergence than (batch) gradient descent
- Requires many fewer iterations to get very close to the minimum.

### Cons:

- Requires finding and inverting an  $n$ -by- $n$  Hessian
- Slower when  $n$  becomes larger.

[6pt] Different quasi Newton's method (BFGS, L-BFGS) varies in how they calculate and update the (local) Hessian matrix at each step.