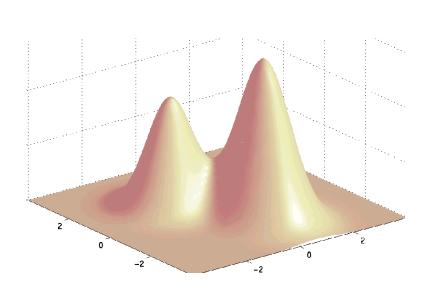
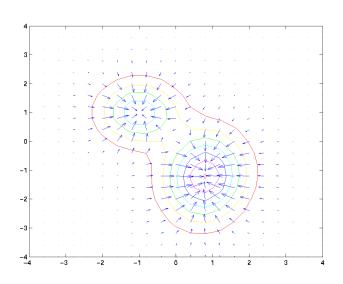
Advanced Machine Learning

Optimisation



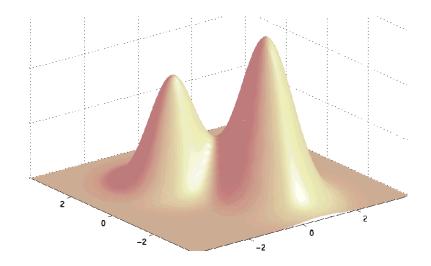


$$z = e^{-(x+1)^2 - (y-1)^2} + 0.6e^{-(x-1)^2 - 0.5(y+1)^2 + 0.1(x-3)(y-3)}$$

Gradient descent, quadratic minima, differing length scales

Outline

- 1. Motivation
- 2. Gradient Descent
- 3. Why Gradient Descent is Difficult



$$\hat{y} = f(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{w})$$
 (or more generally $\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} = \boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{w})$)

- ullet Given an input pattern (set of features) $oldsymbol{x}$ the learning machine makes a prediction \hat{y}
- ullet We try to choose the parameters $oldsymbol{w}$ so that the predictions are good
- In practice training a learning machine comes down to optimising some loss function

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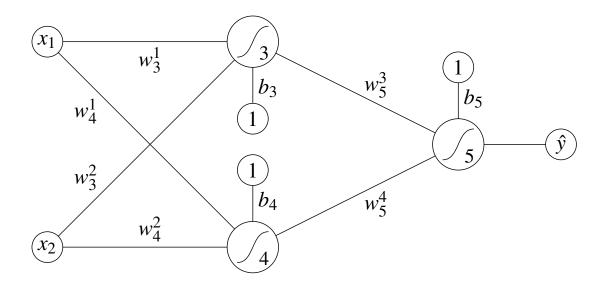
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MLP

We can depict a neural network such as an MLP by a diagram



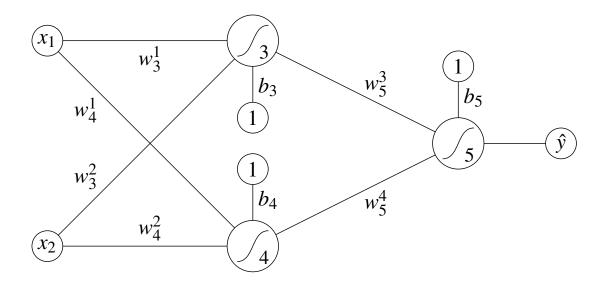
• Stands for the function $(\hat{y} = f(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{w}))$

$$\hat{y} = g(w_5^3 g(w_3^1 x_1 + w_3^2 x_2 + b_3) + w_5^4 g(w_4^1 x_1 + w_4^2 x_2 + b_4) + b_5)$$

where, for example,
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Training

• Given a (labelled) training dataset

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_k, y_k) | k = 1, \dots, m\}$$

• We define an error or loss function that we want to minimise

$$L(\boldsymbol{w}|\boldsymbol{\mathcal{D}}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{k=1}^{m} (f(\boldsymbol{x}_k|\boldsymbol{w}) - y_k)^2$$

• We then use the machine with the weights ${m w}^*$ which minimise $L({m w}|\mathcal{D})$

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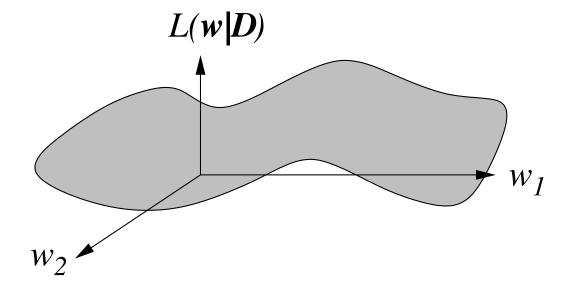
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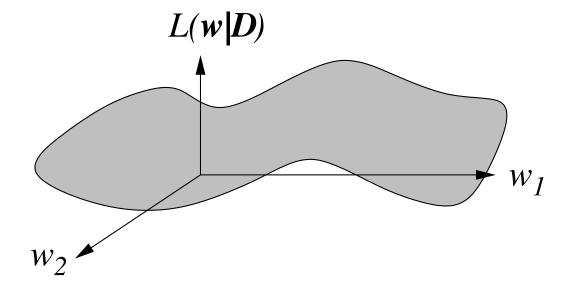
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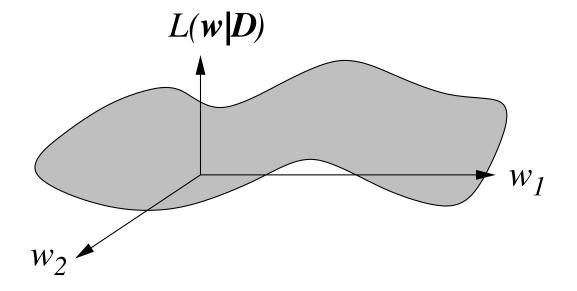
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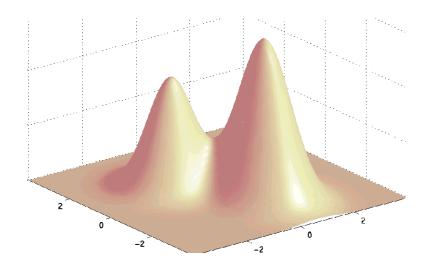
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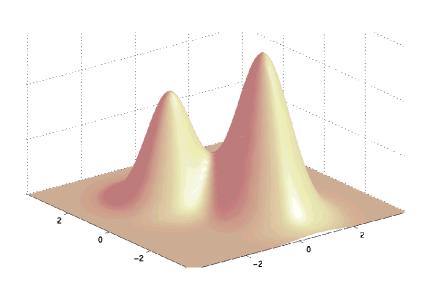
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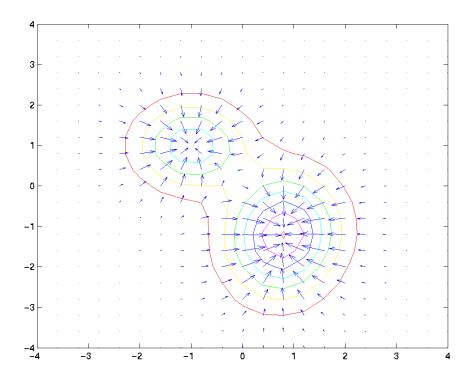


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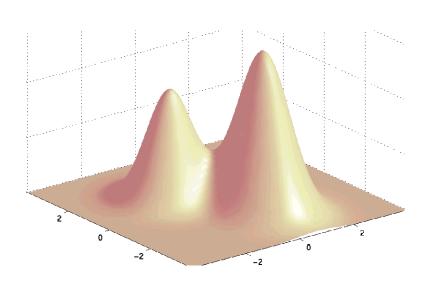


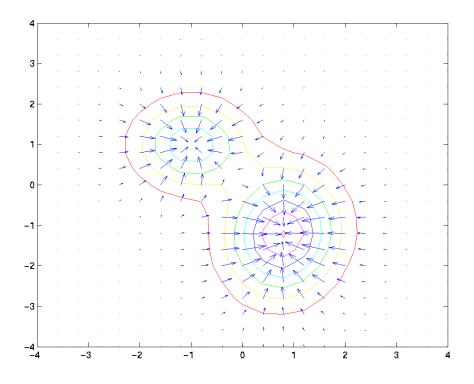


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- For a simple function $L(\boldsymbol{w}|\mathcal{D})$ we can solve $\nabla L(\boldsymbol{w}|\mathcal{D}) = \mathbf{0}$ explicitly. E.g. the linear perceptron
- For a non-linear functions we usually can't solve this set of simultaneous equations
- We can find a maximum or minimum iteratively
- If we know the gradient then we can follow the gradient
 - \star Maximisation: $\boldsymbol{w} \to \boldsymbol{w}' = \boldsymbol{w} + r \boldsymbol{\nabla} L(\boldsymbol{w}|\mathcal{D})$
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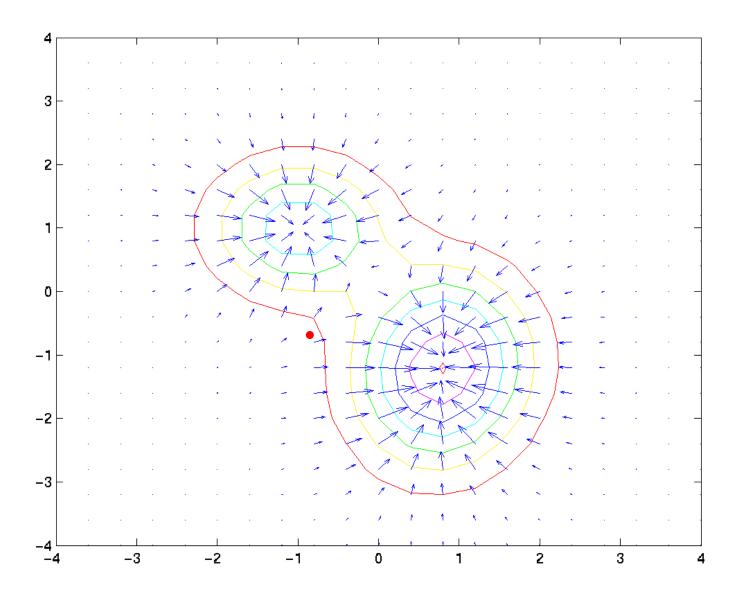
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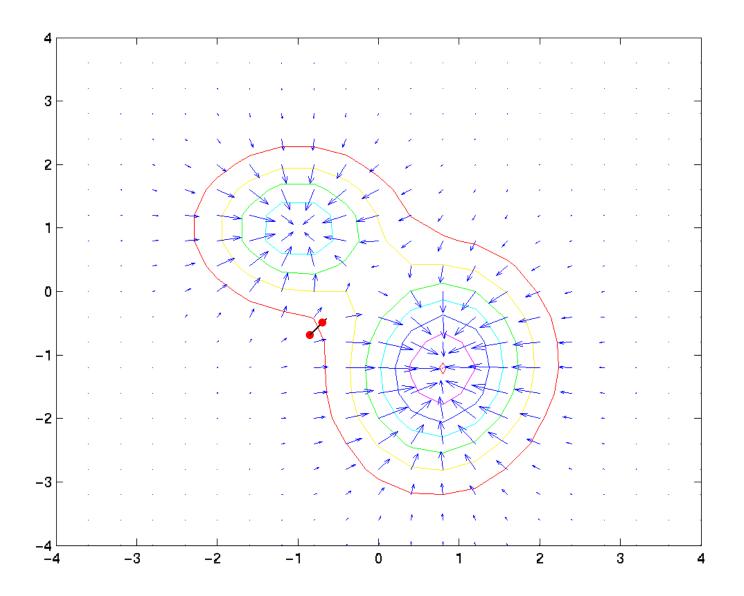
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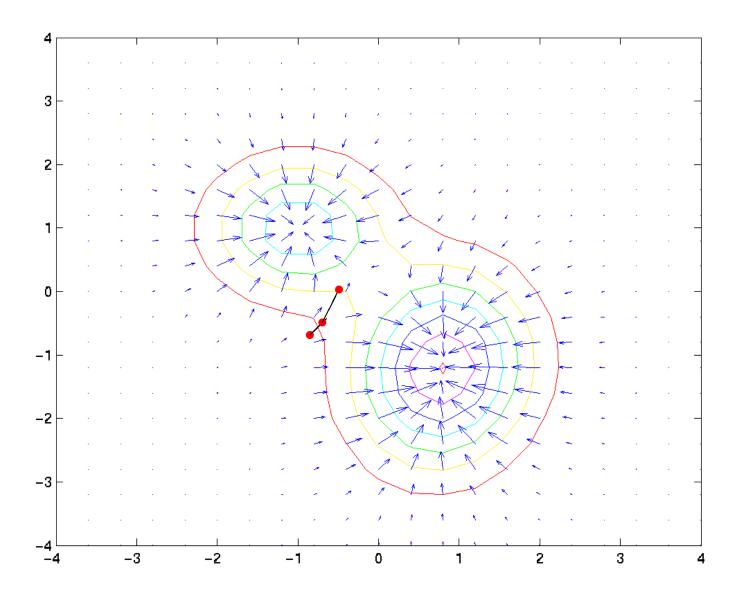
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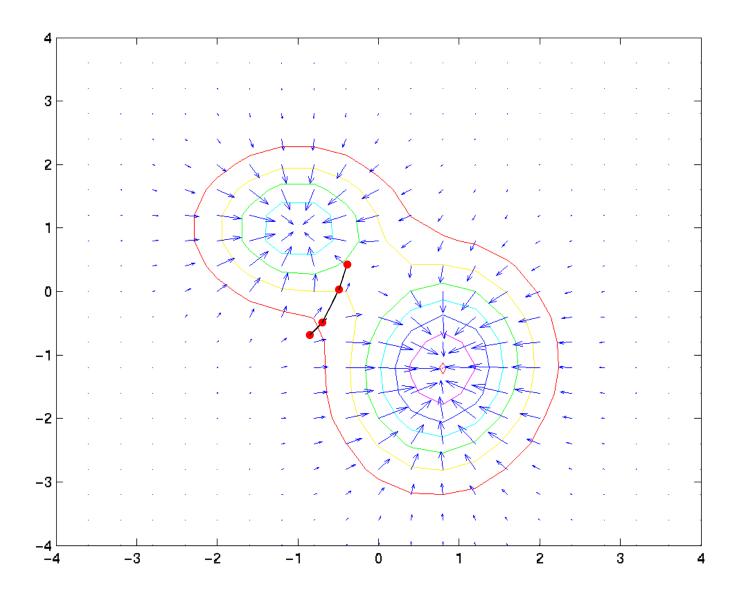
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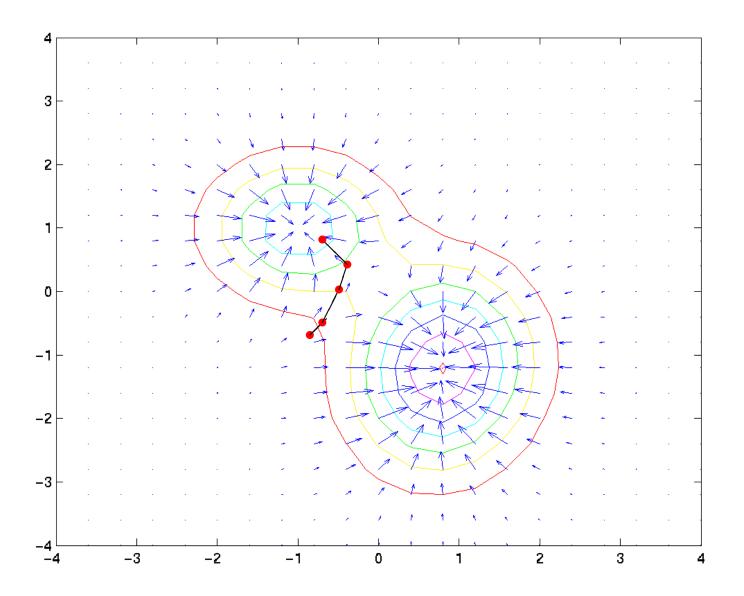
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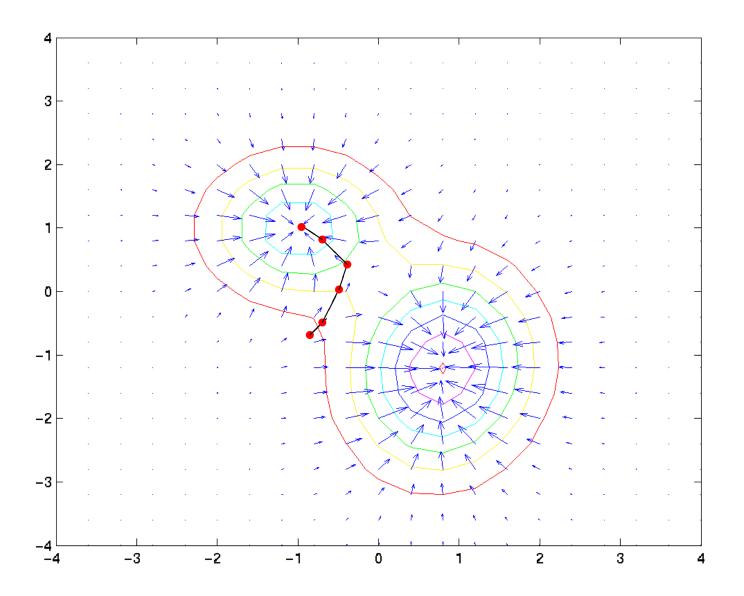




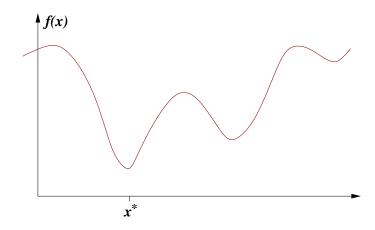








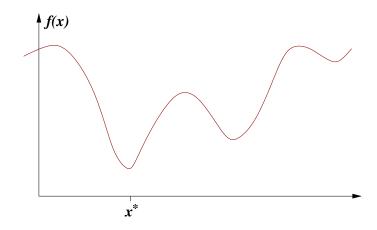
Almost all minima are quadratic (Morse's theorem)



• Taylor expanding around a minimum x^*

$$f(x) = f(x^*) + (x - x^*)f'(x^*) + \frac{1}{2}(x - x^*)^2 f''(x^*) + \cdots$$
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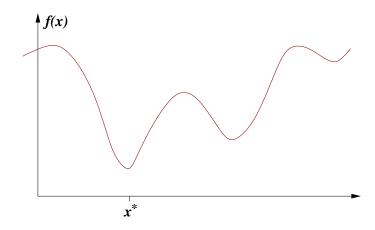
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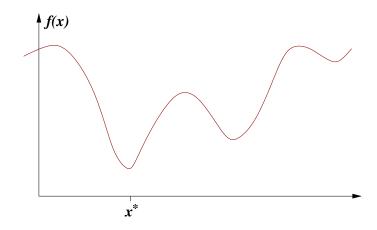
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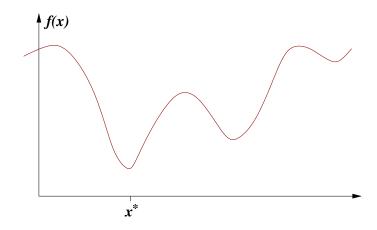
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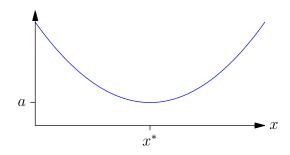
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Newton's Method

• If we were in a quadratic minimum

$$f(x) = a + \frac{b}{2}(x - x^*)^2$$



then

$$f'(x) = b(x - x^*), \qquad f''(x) = b$$

SO

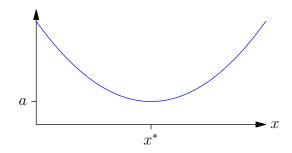
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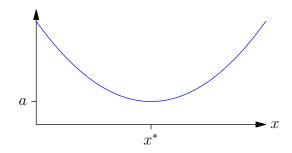
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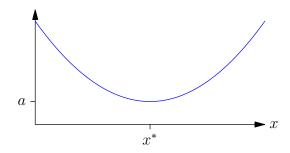
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- This is Newton's methods
- For non-quadratic functions Newtons method converges
 quadratically provided we are sufficiently close to a minimum
- If we are at a distance $x-x^*=\epsilon$ from the minima then after one cycle we will be a distance ϵ^2 after two cycles we will be at a distance ϵ^4 , etc.
- If we are too far from a minimum we might go anywhere!
- We should follow the gradient until we are near the minimum

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- We can generalise these results to many dimensions
- ullet The Taylor expansion of a function $f(oldsymbol{x})$ about $oldsymbol{x}_0$

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}) = f(\boldsymbol{x}_0) + (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}_0)^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\nabla} f(\boldsymbol{x}_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}_0)^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\mathsf{H}} (\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{x}_0) + \cdots$$

where H is the Hessian matrix with elements

$$H_{ij} = \frac{\partial^2 f(\boldsymbol{x}_0)}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}$$

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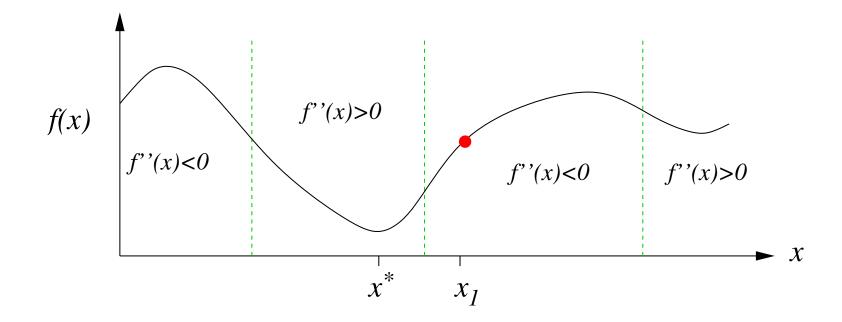
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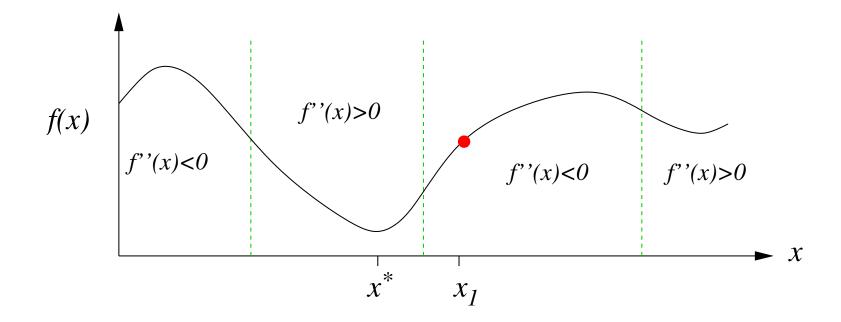
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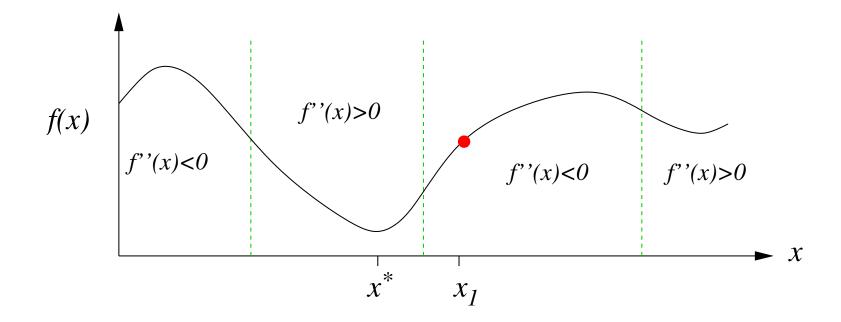
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- It is time-consuming to compute (and prone to errors when coding)
- Away from minima they can be misleading



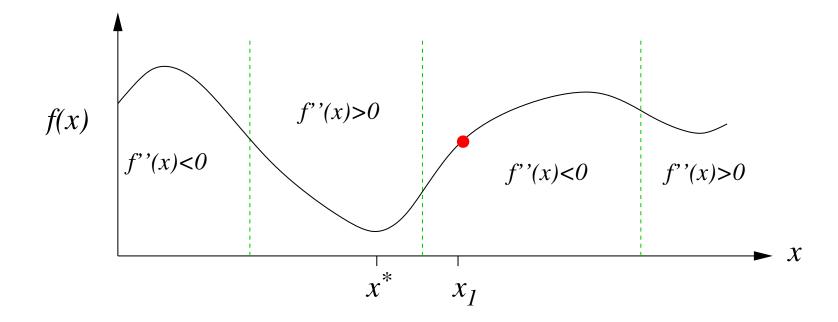
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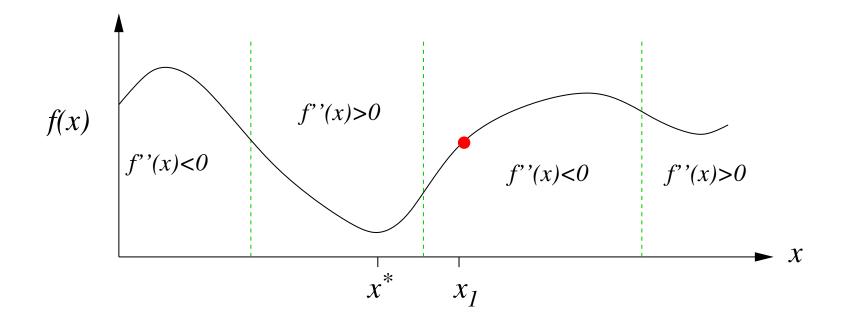
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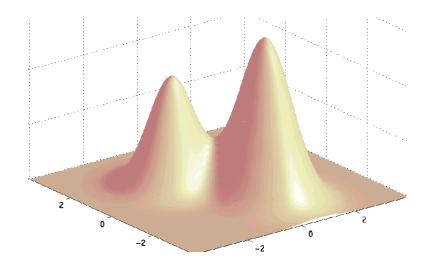


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Outline

- 1. Motivation
- 2. Gradient Descent
- 3. Why Gradient Descent is Difficult



$$\boldsymbol{x}' = \boldsymbol{x} - r \boldsymbol{\nabla} f(\boldsymbol{x})$$

- ullet Need to choose the learning rate of step size, r
- Too small steps takes lots of time
- Too large steps takes you away from a minimum

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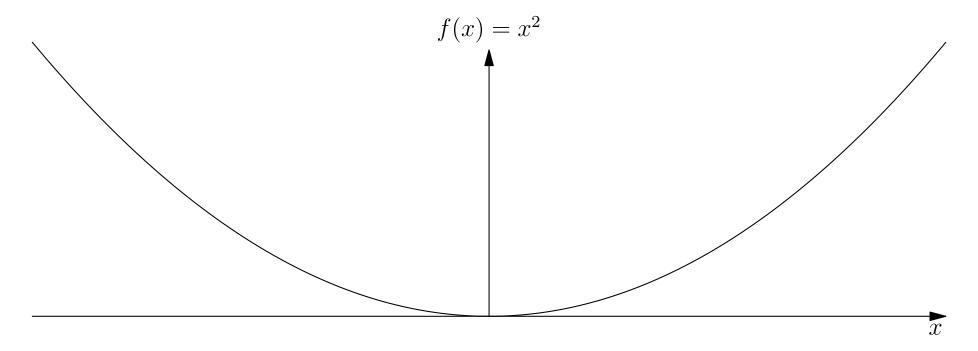
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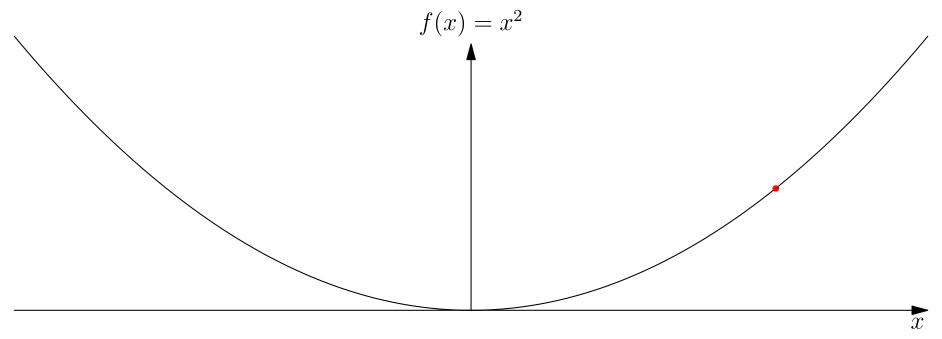
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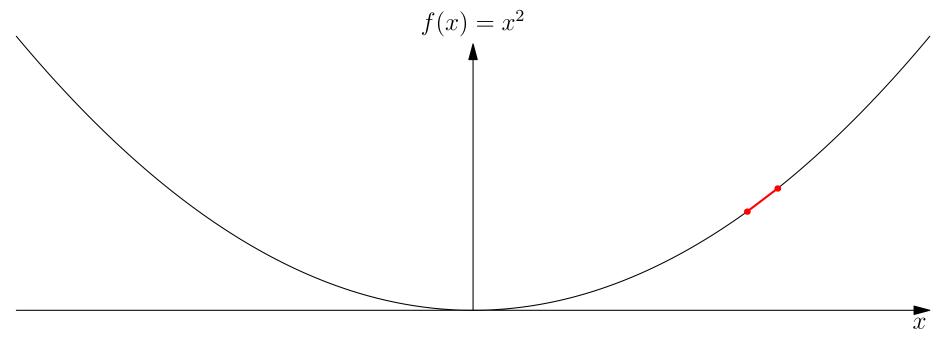




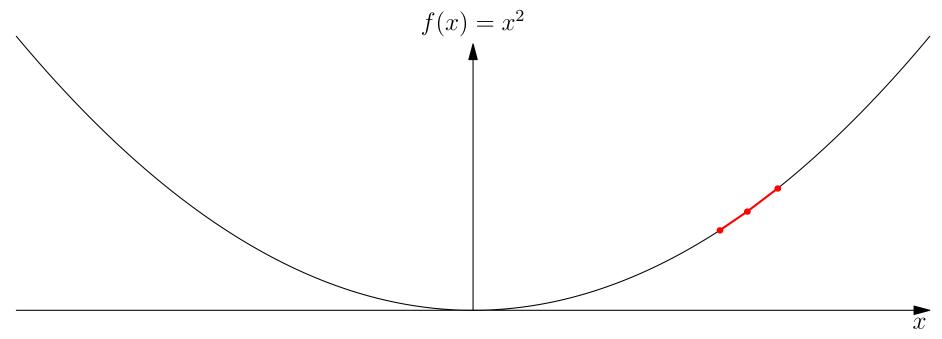




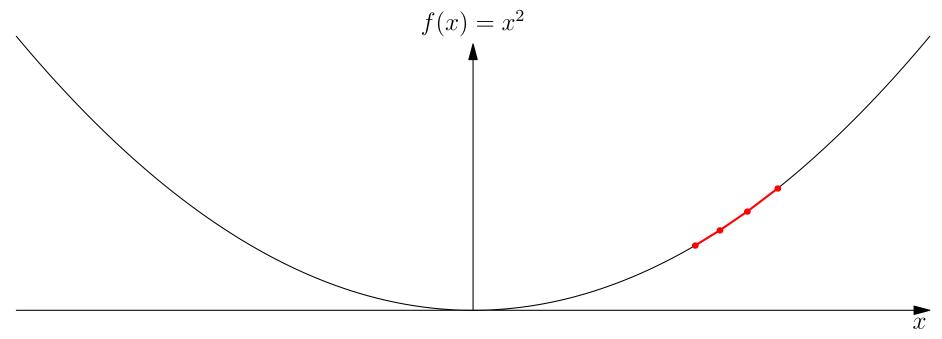




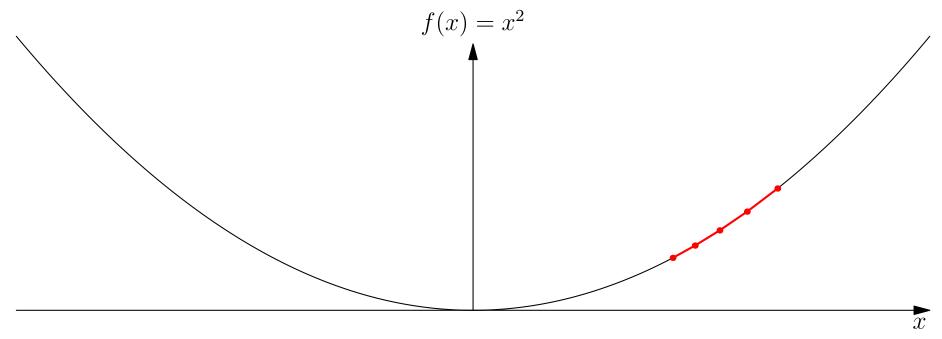




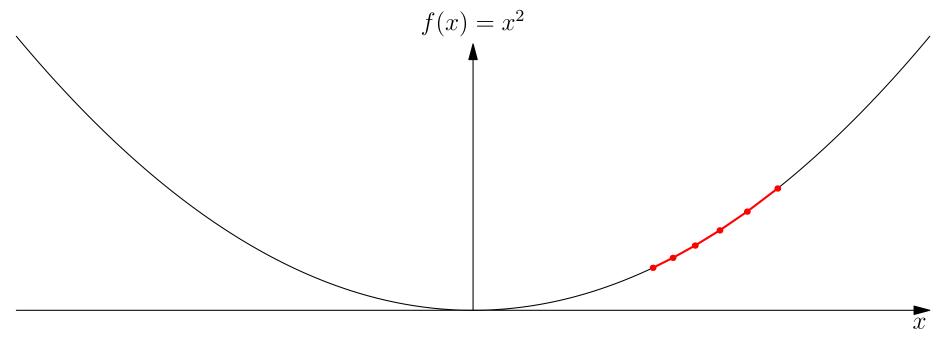




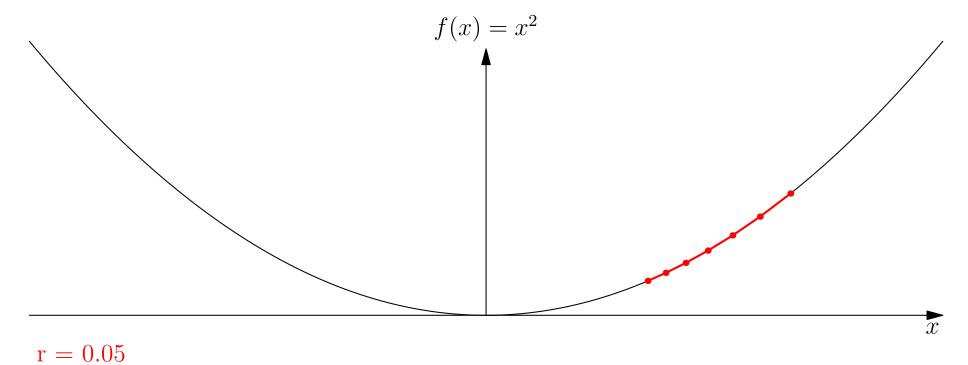




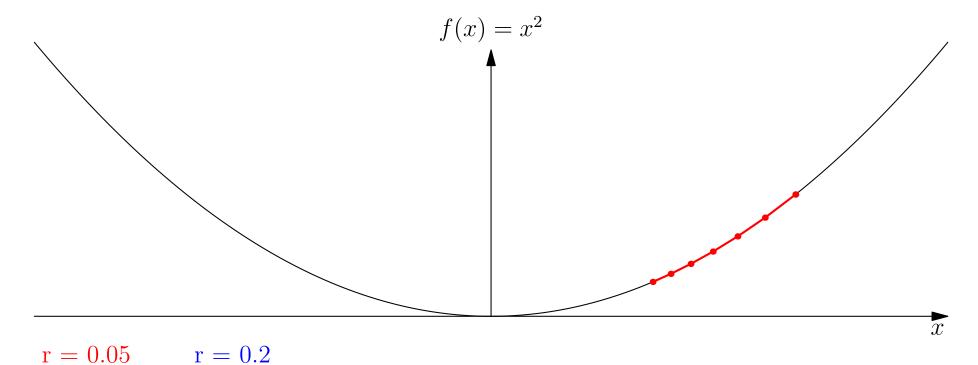




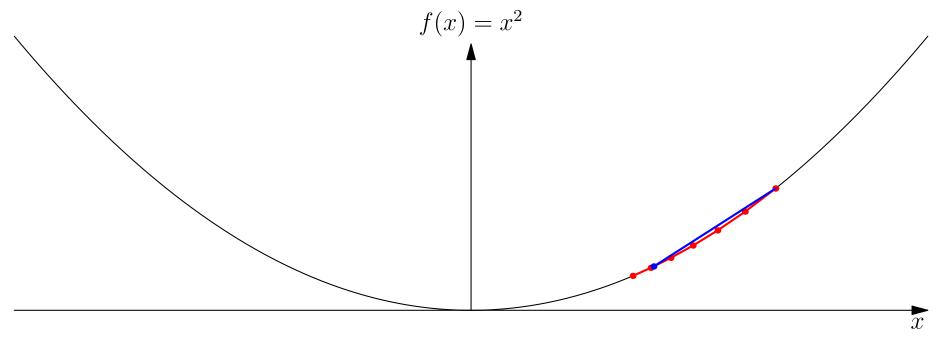








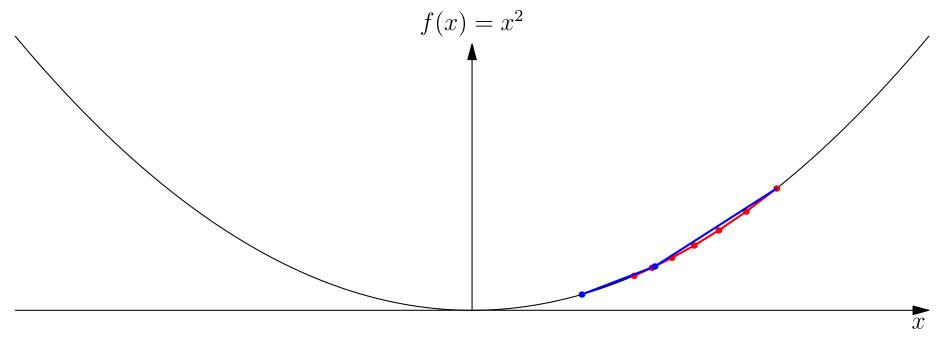




$$r = 0.05$$
 $r = 0.2$

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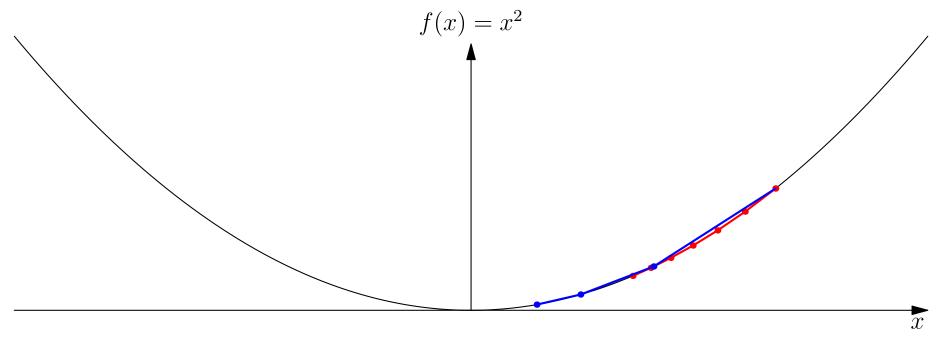




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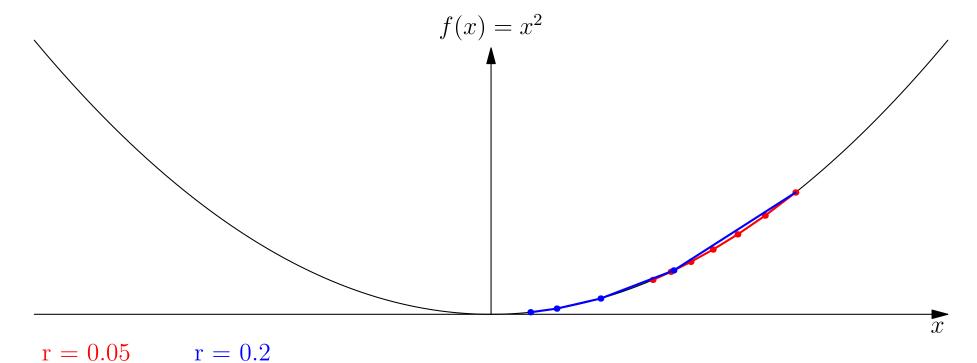




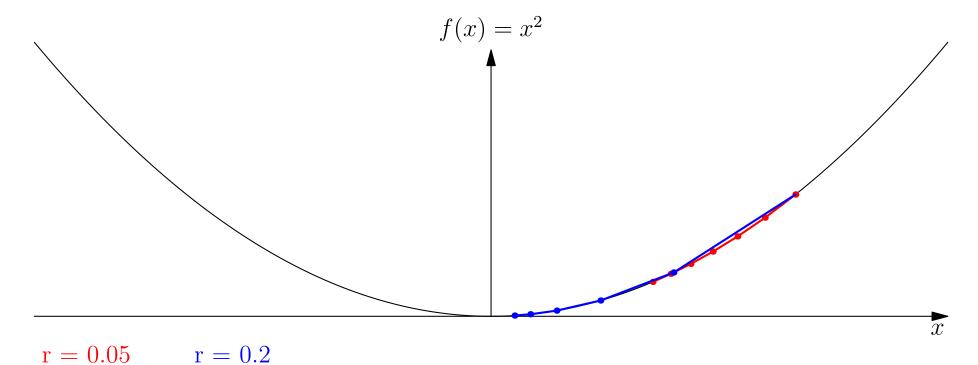
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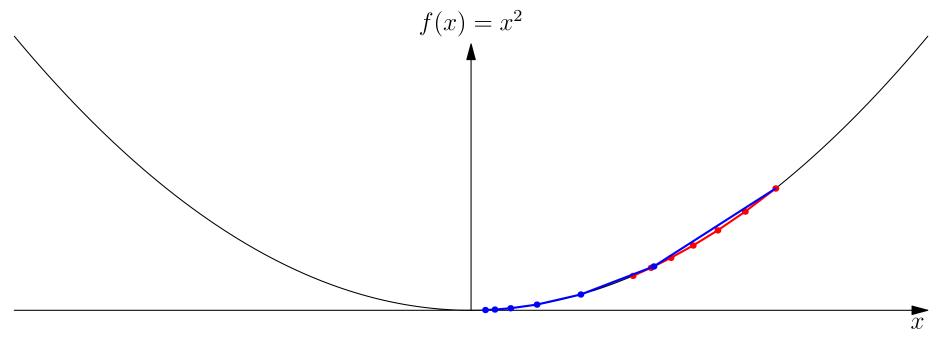






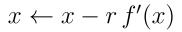


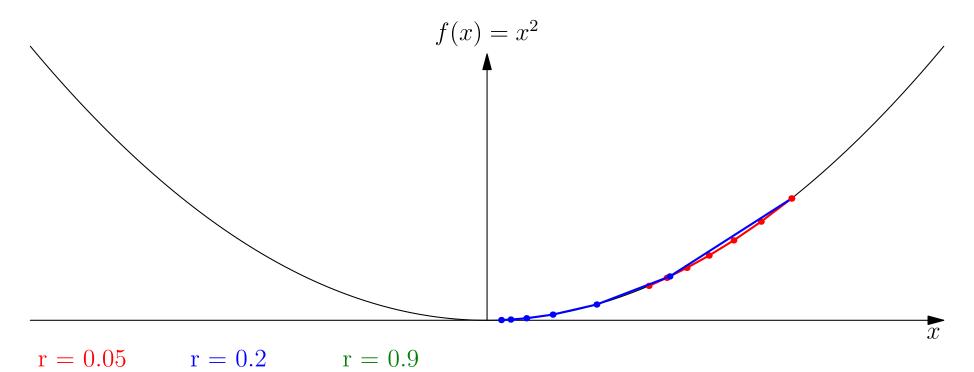


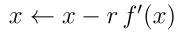


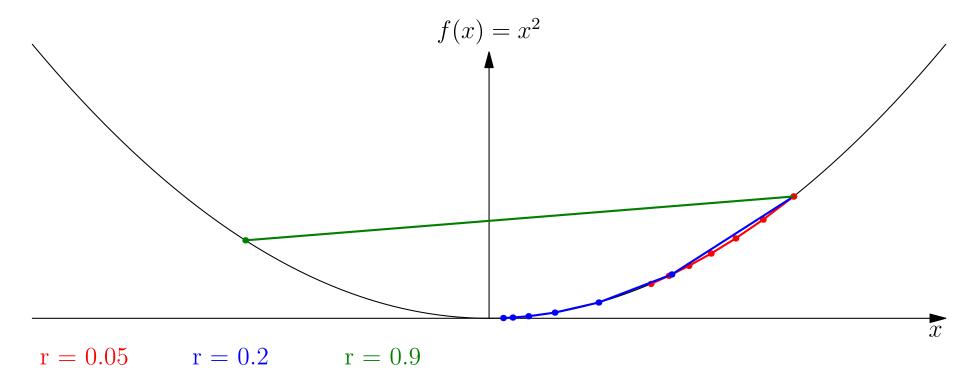
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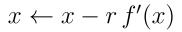
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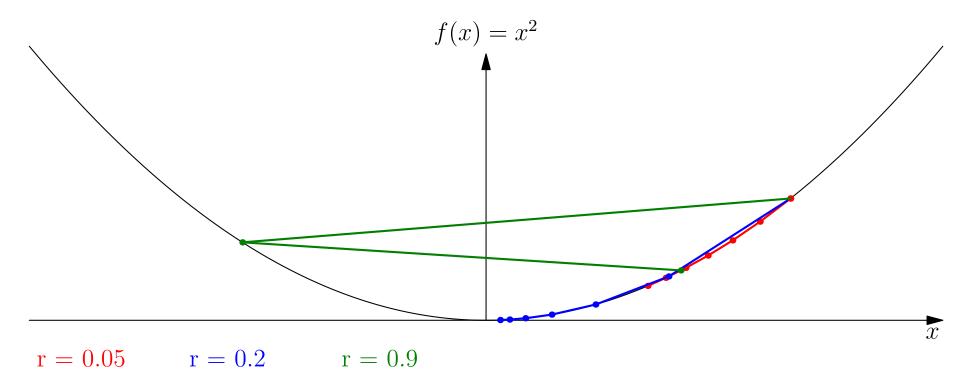


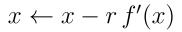


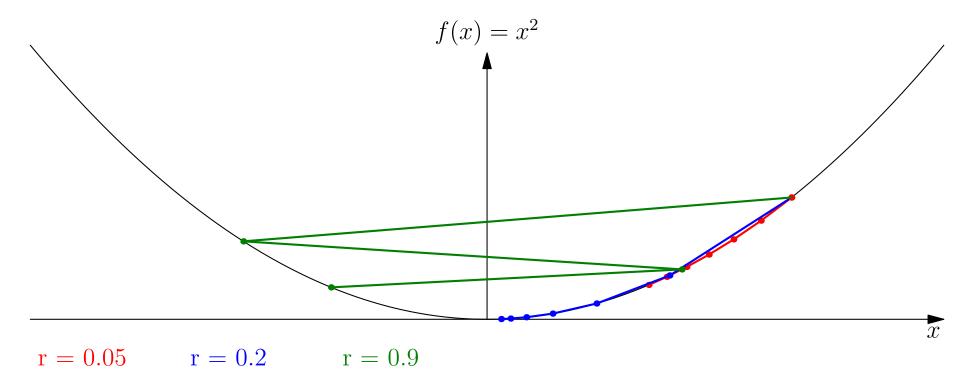


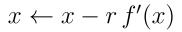


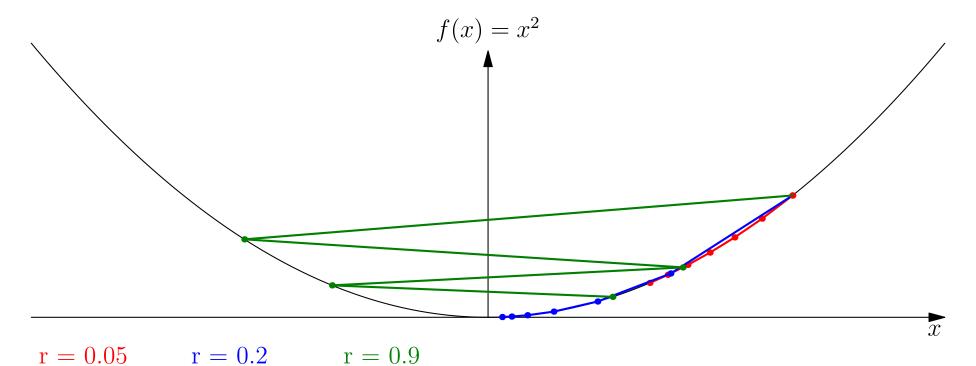


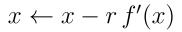


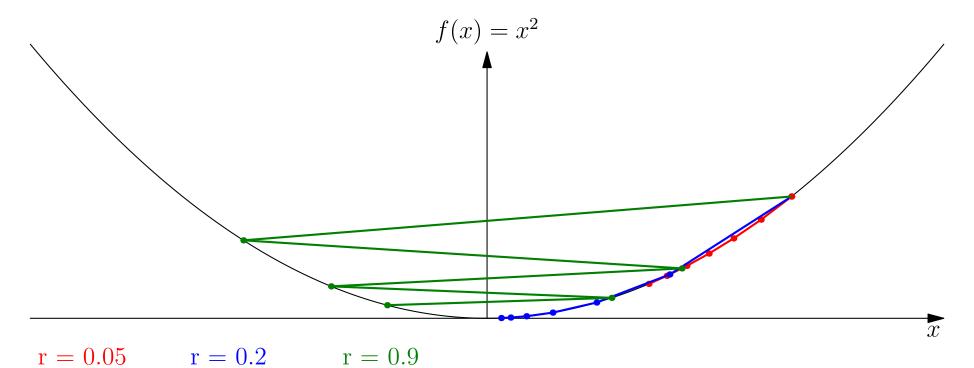


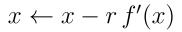


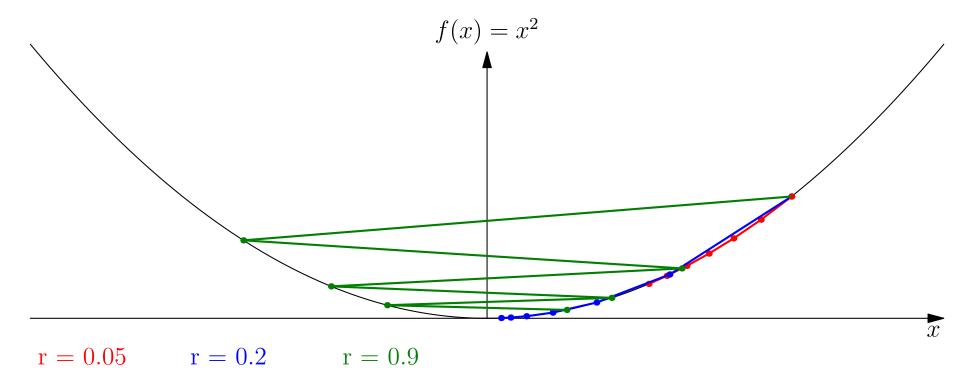




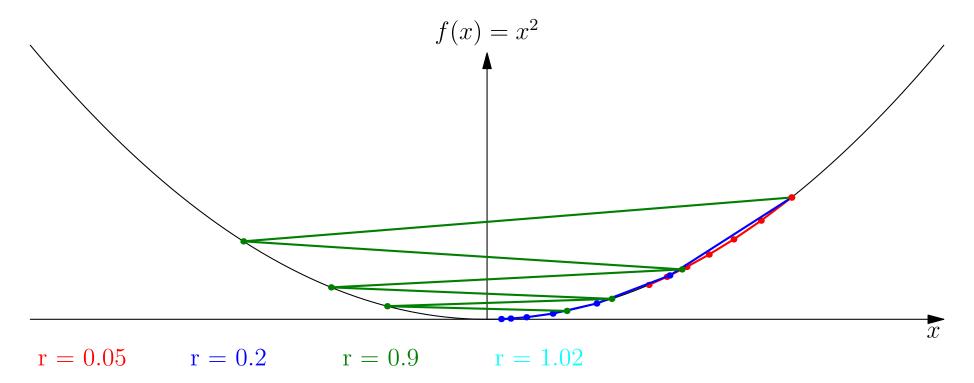




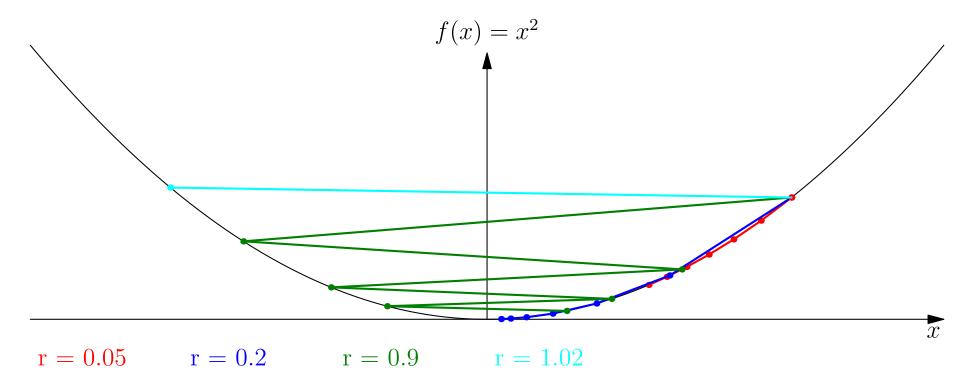




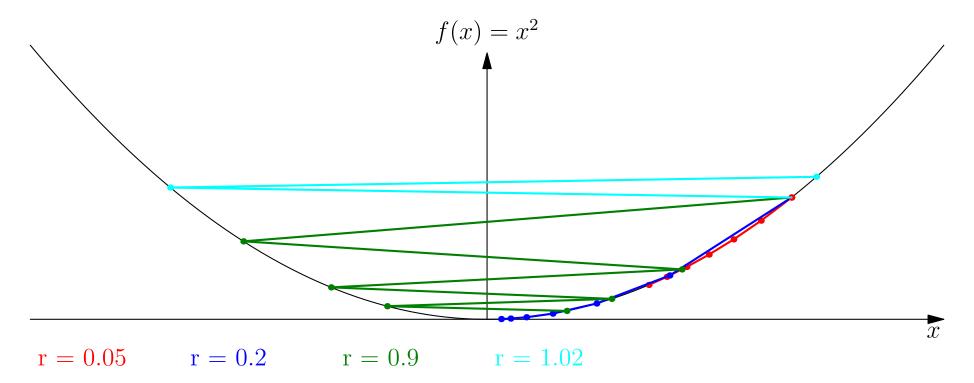




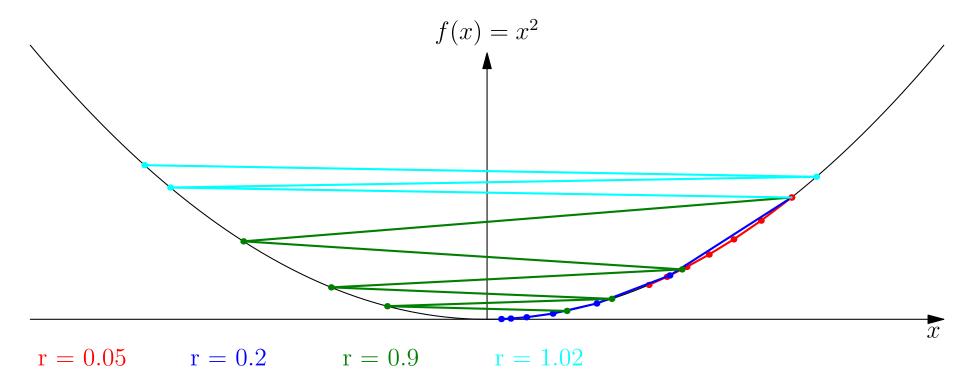




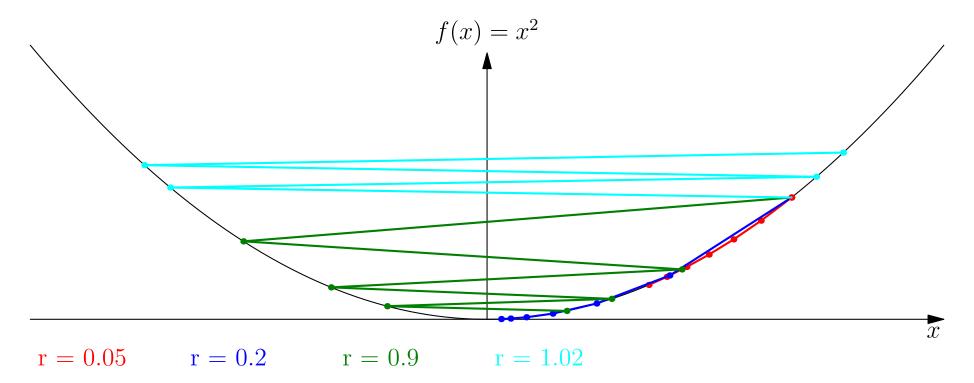




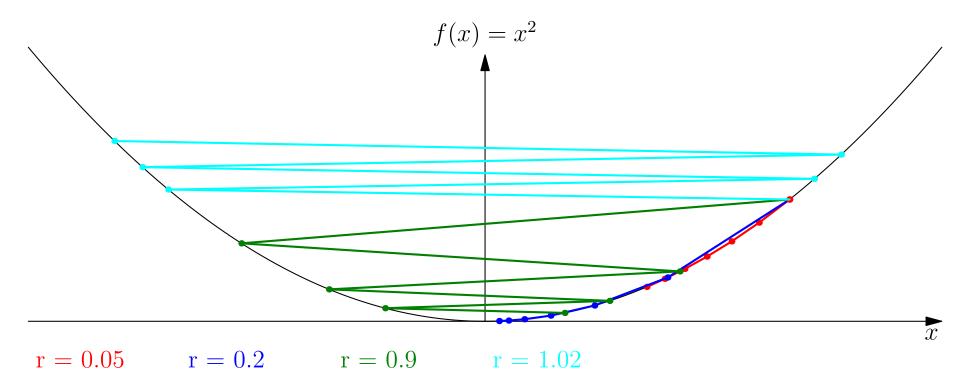




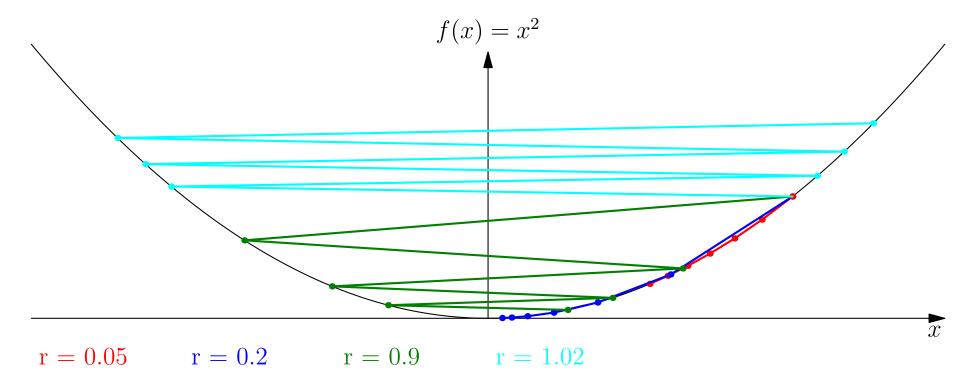


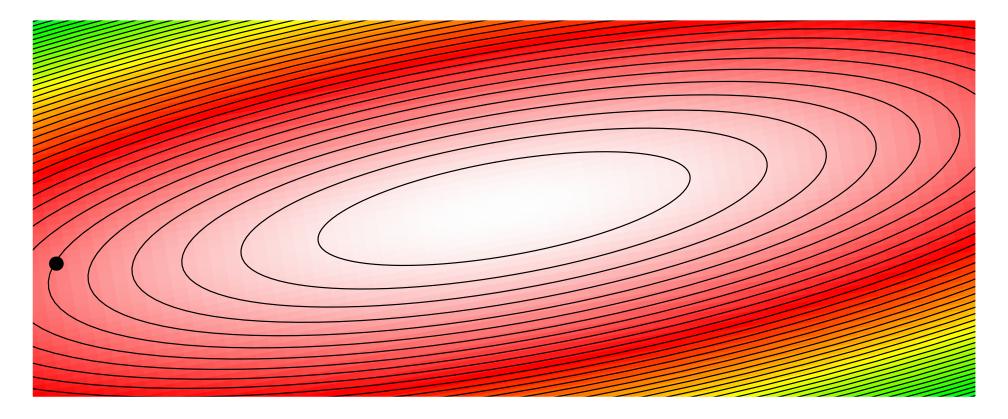


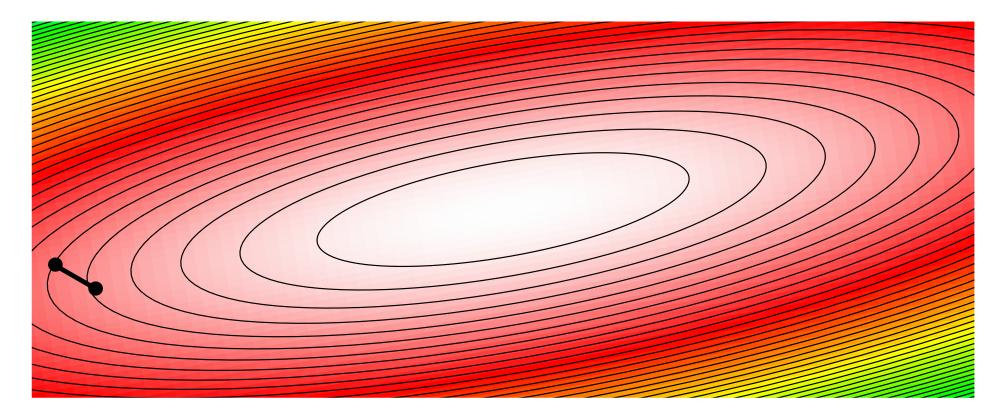


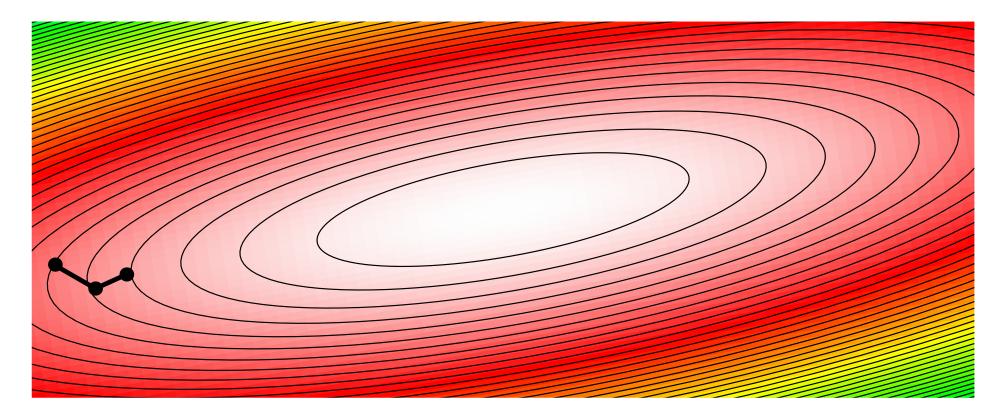


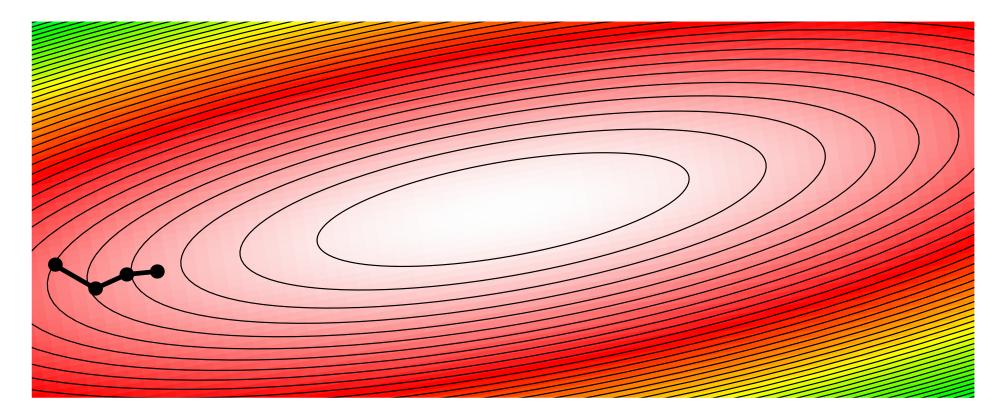


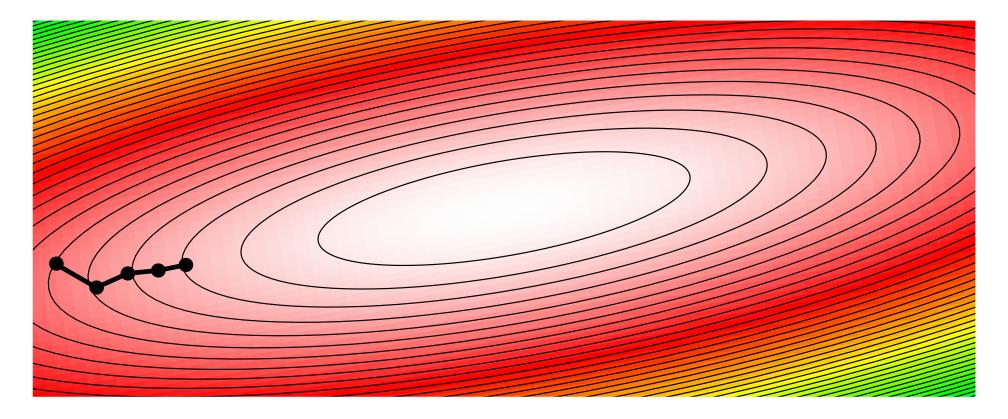


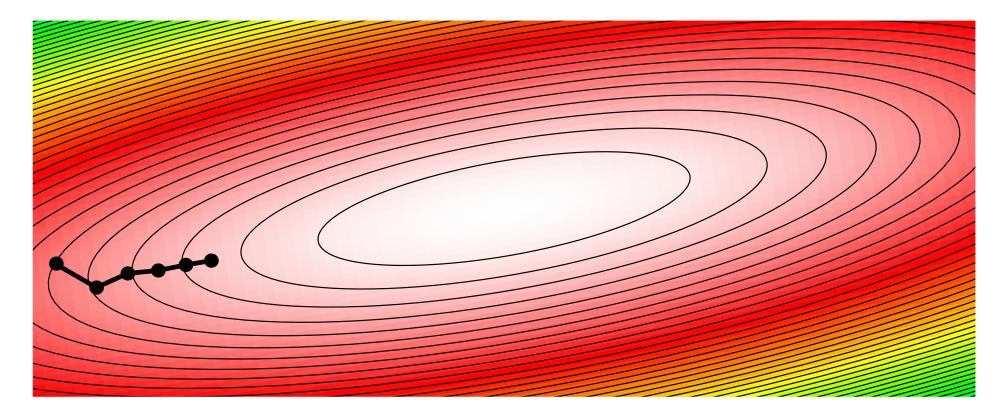


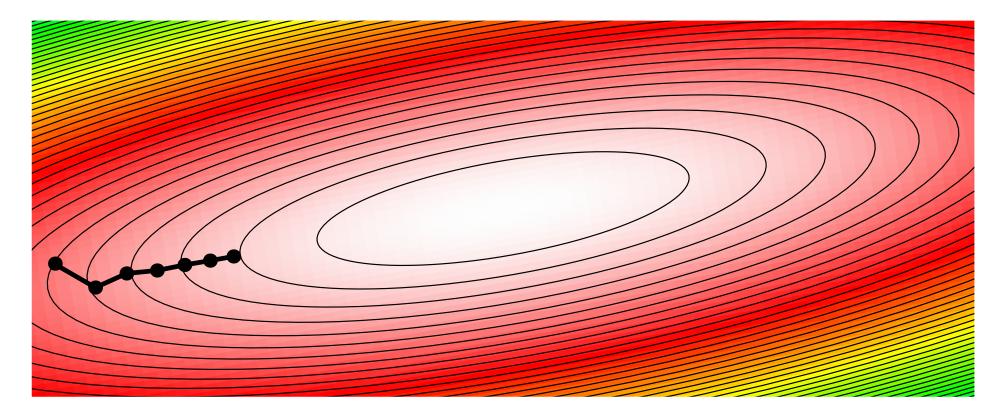


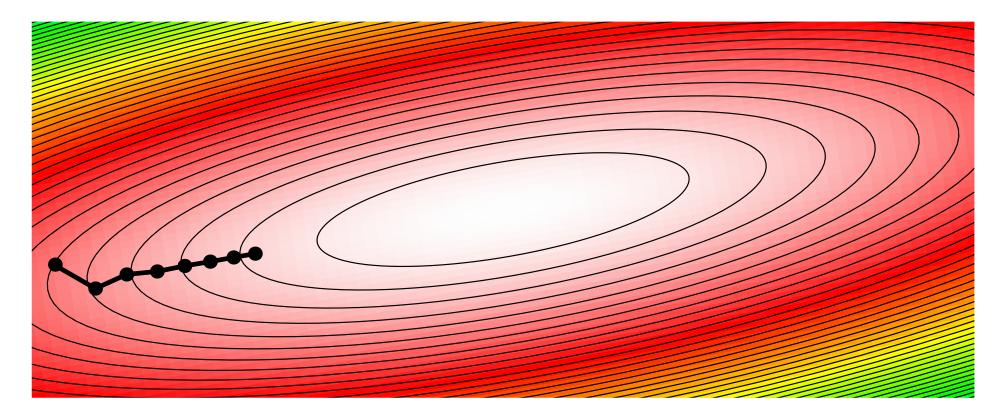


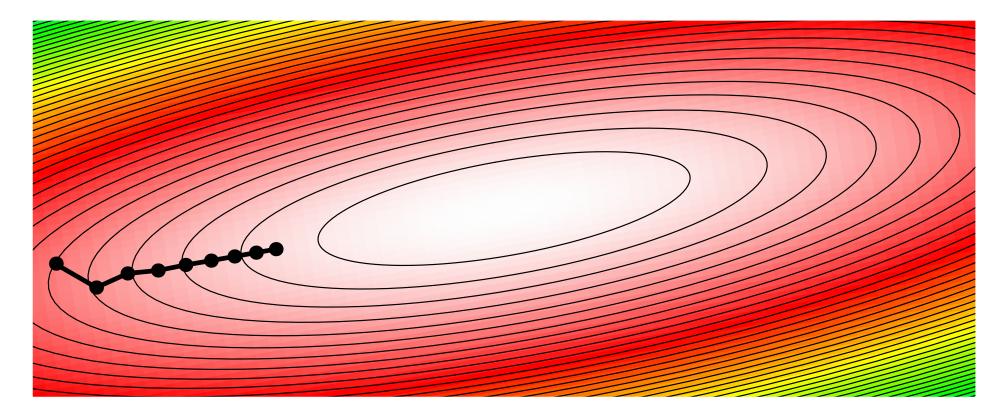


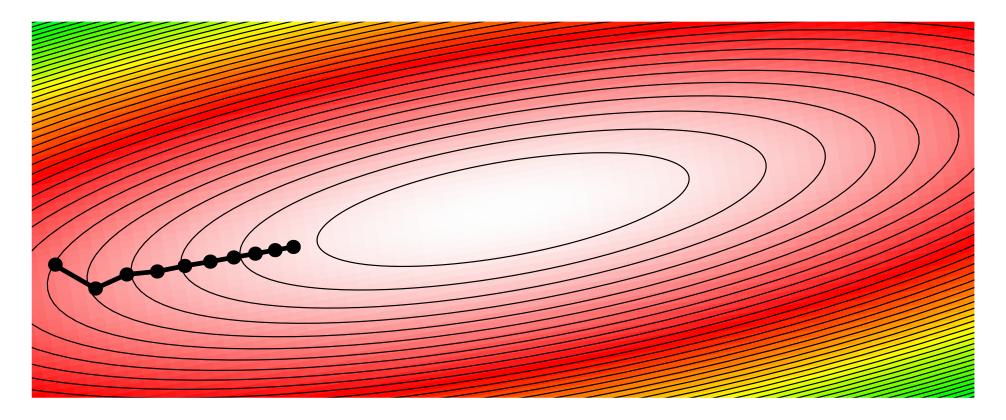


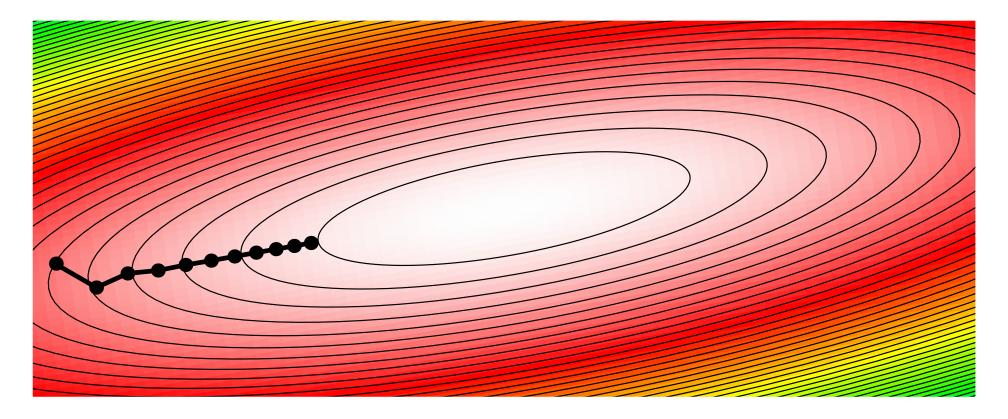


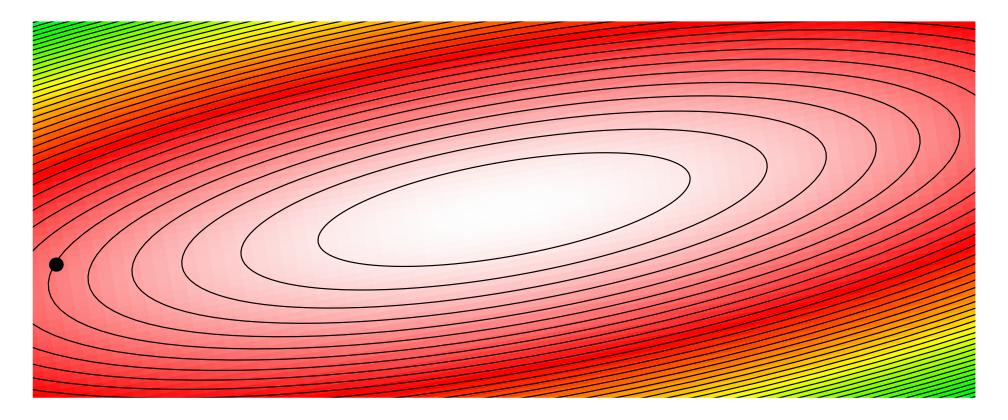


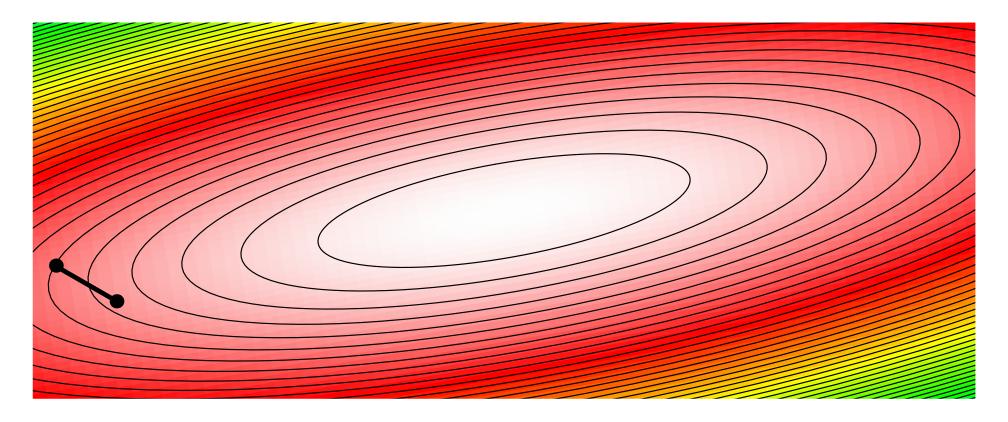


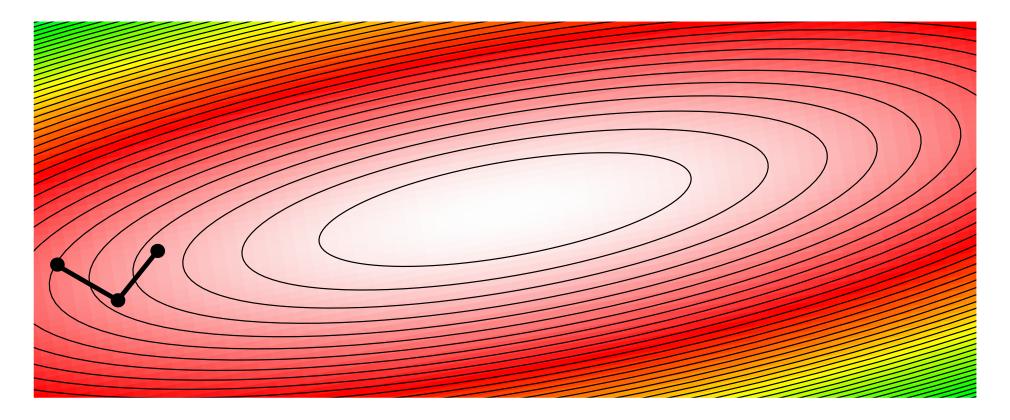


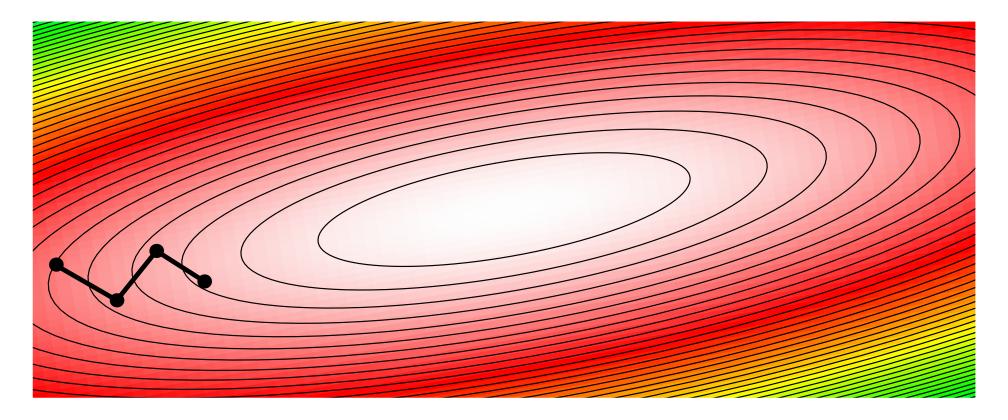


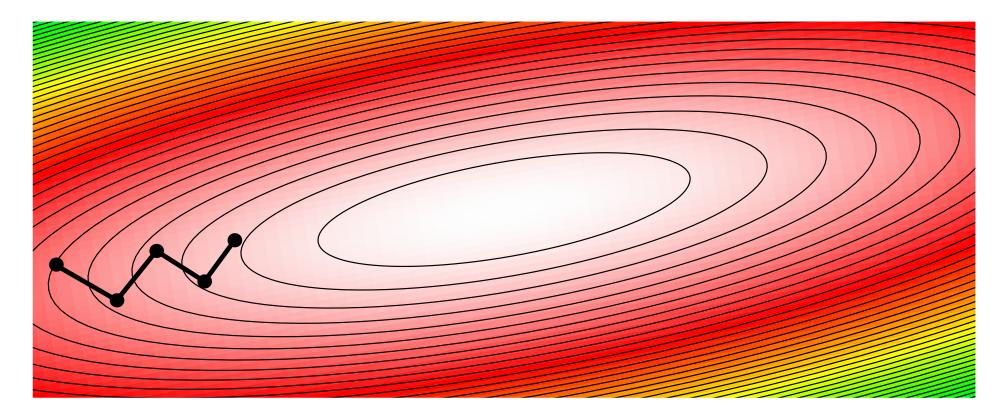


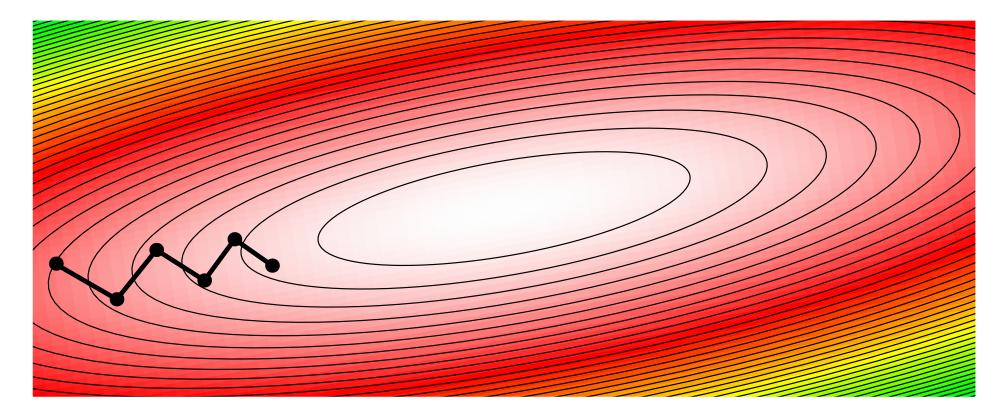


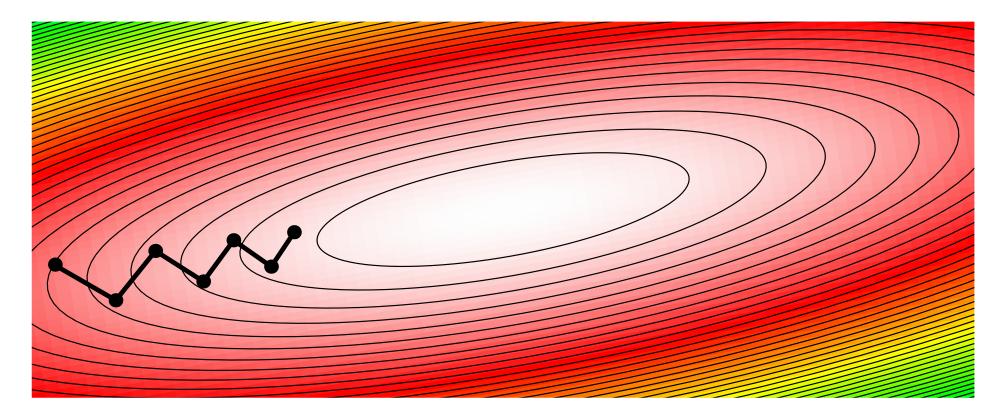


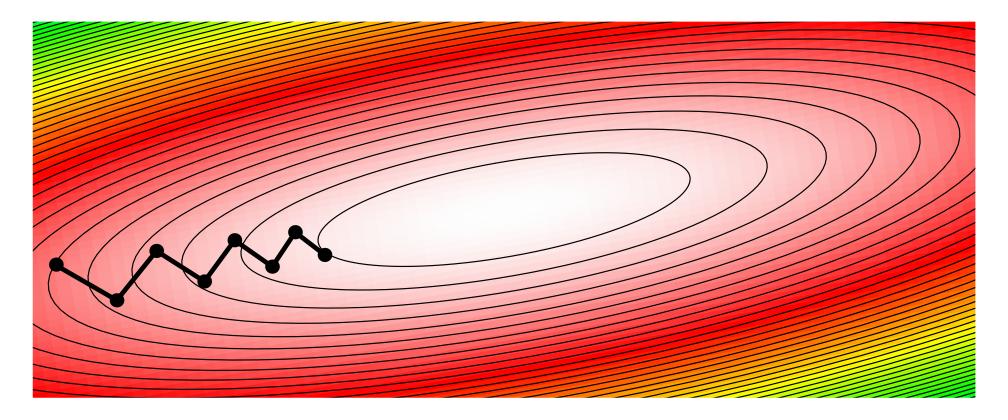


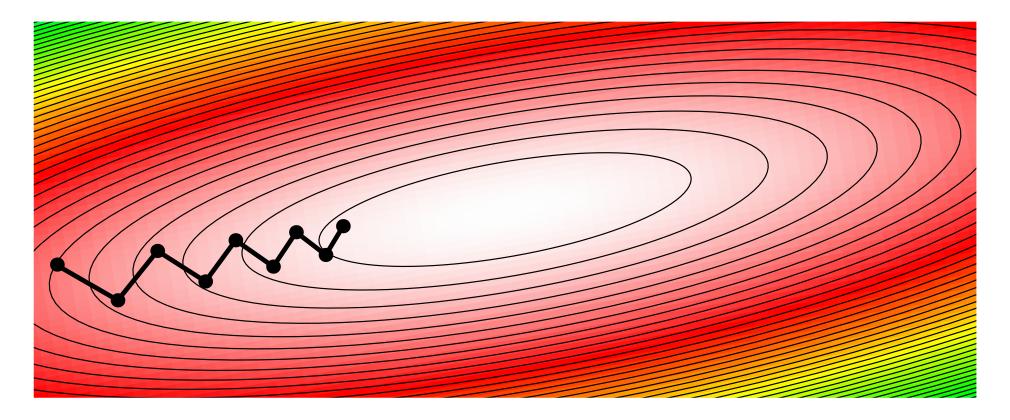


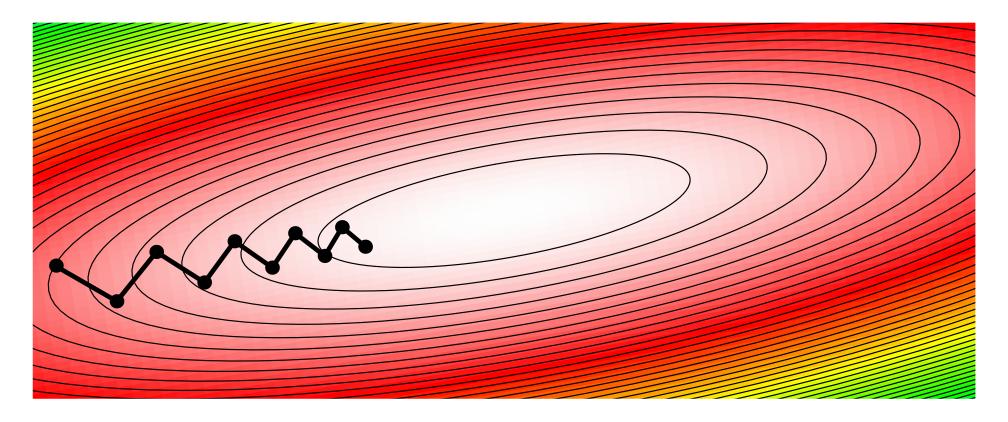


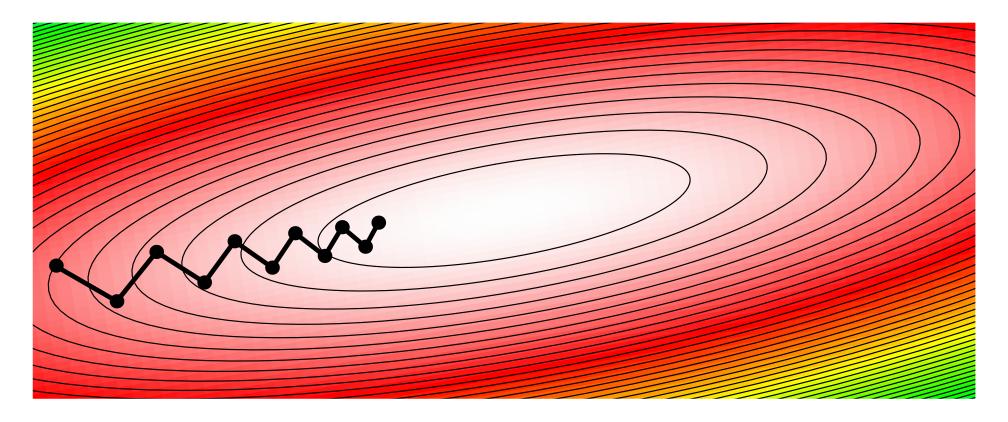


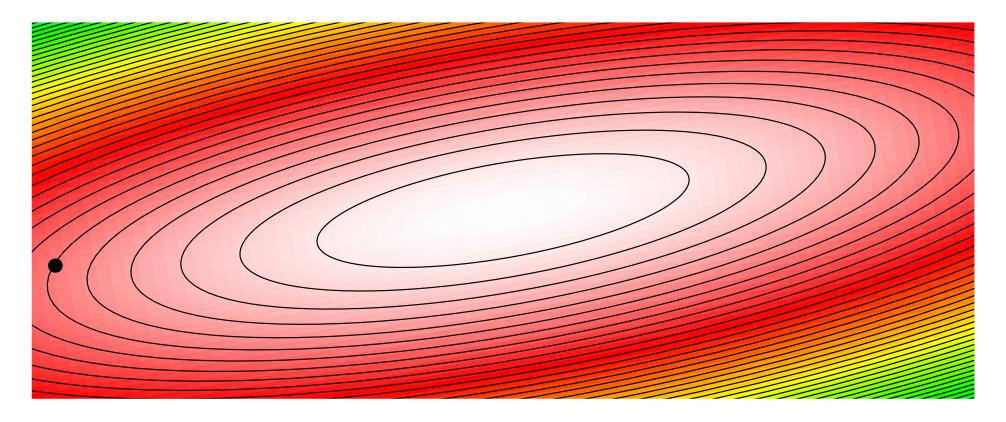


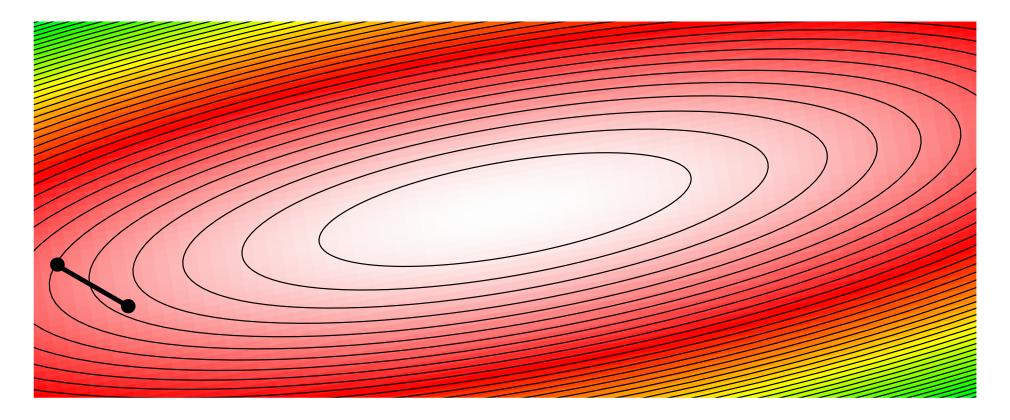


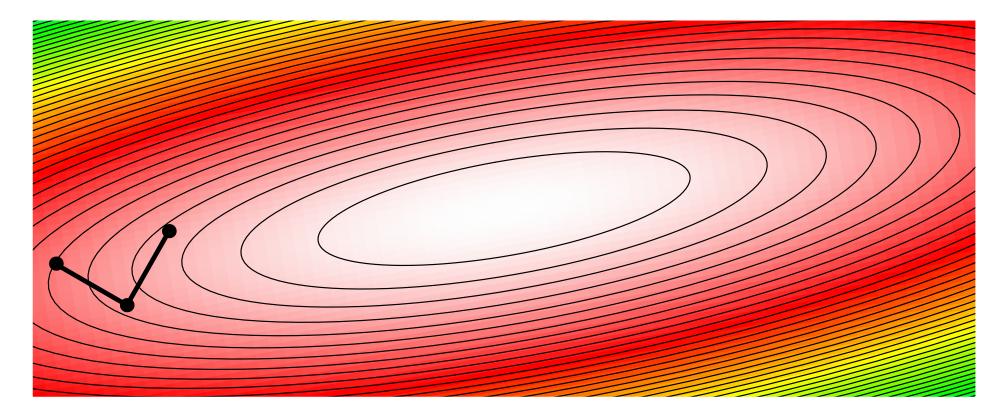


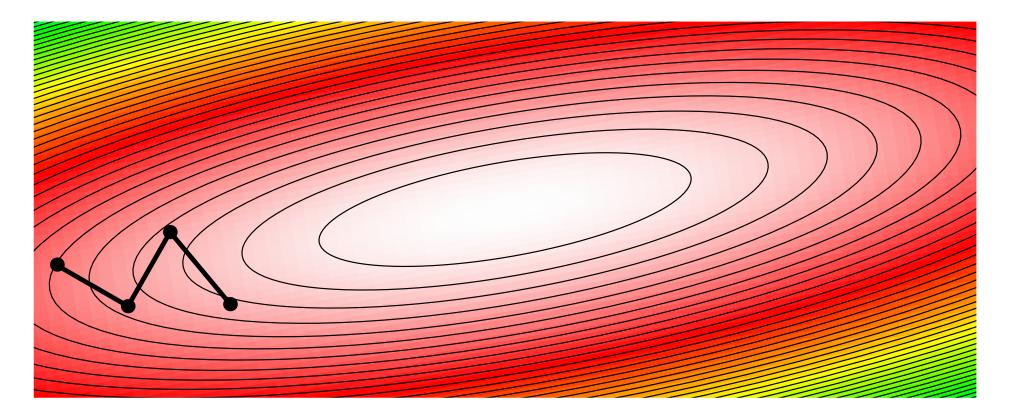


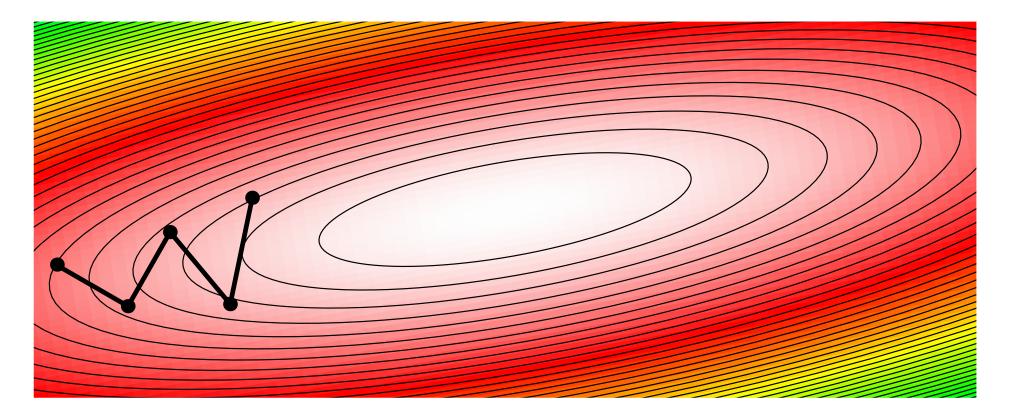


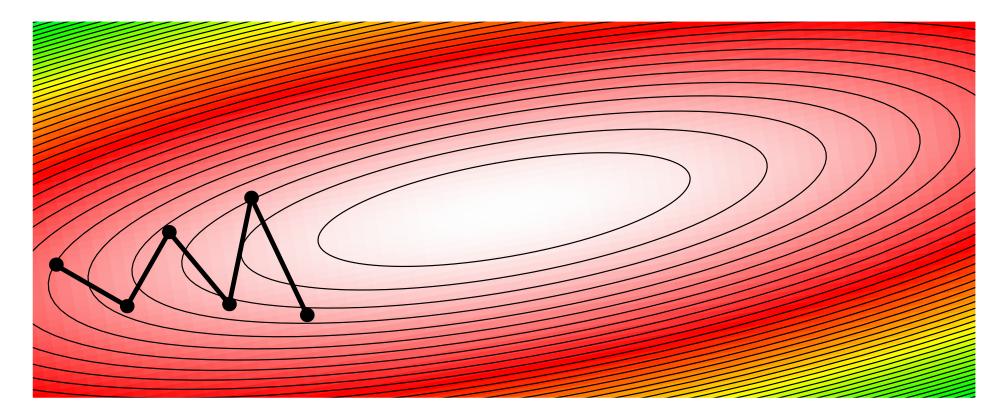


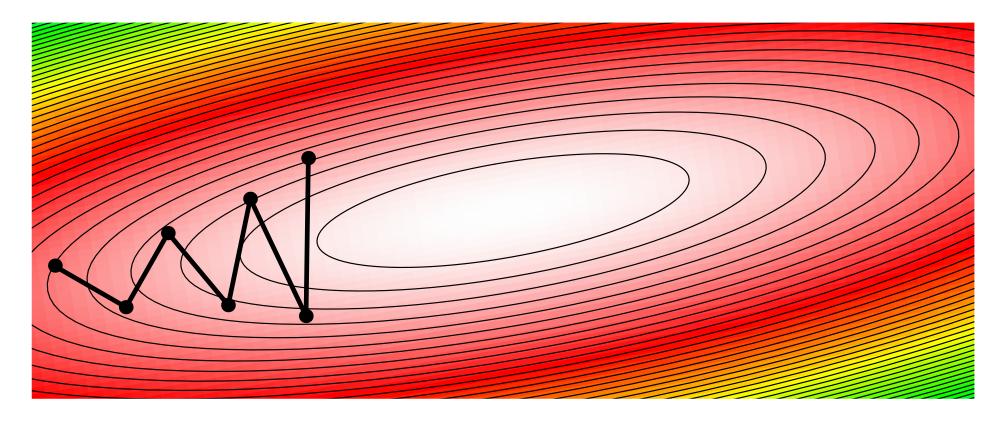


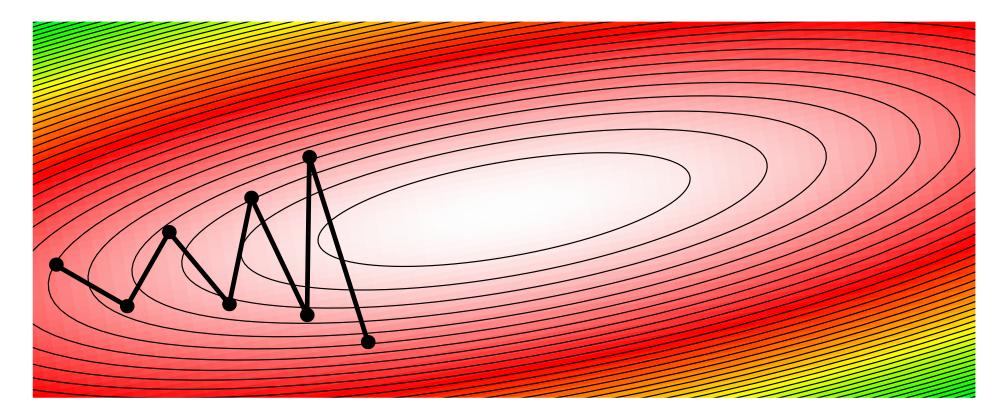


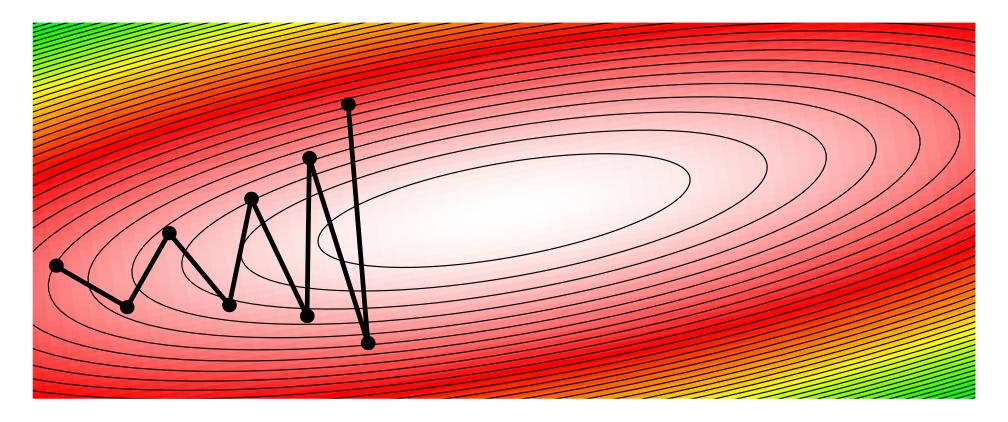


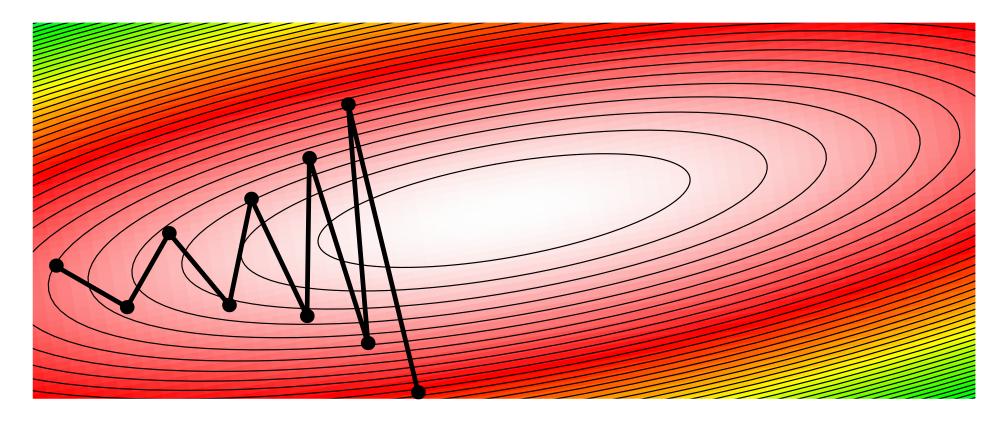


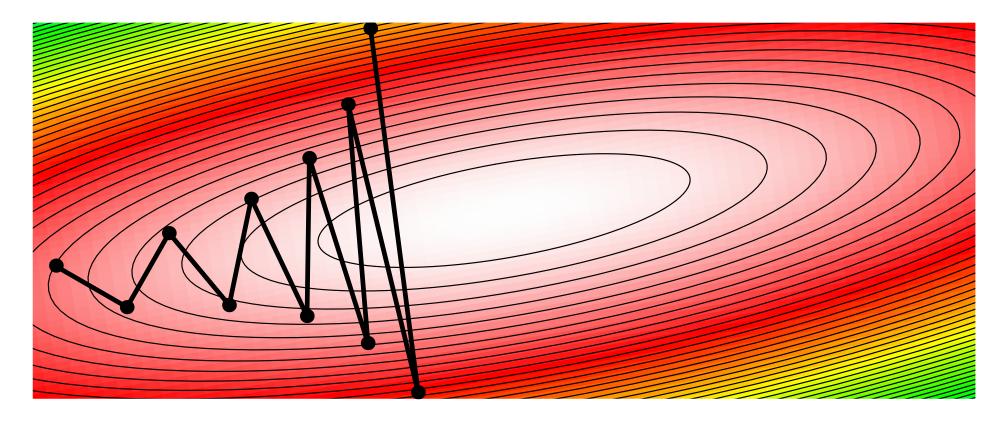


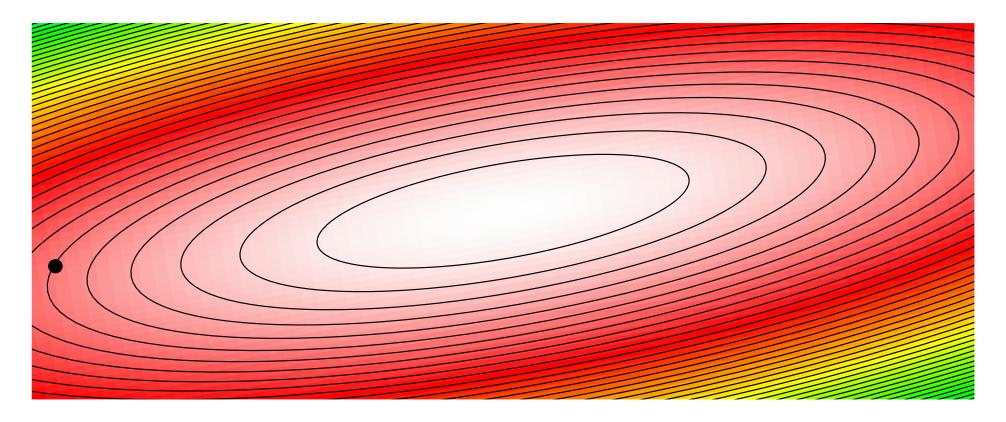


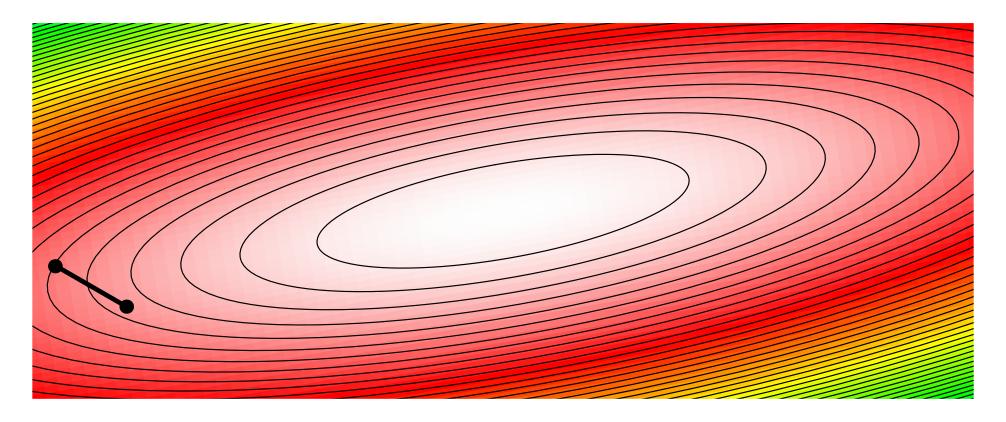


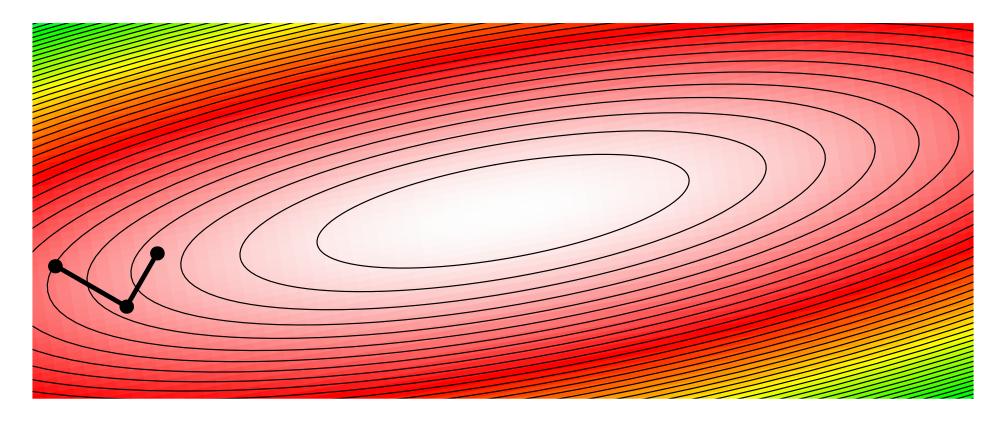


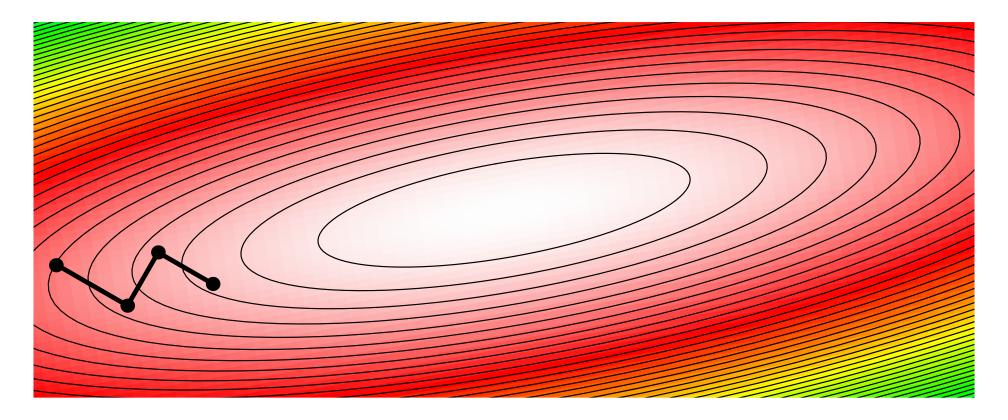


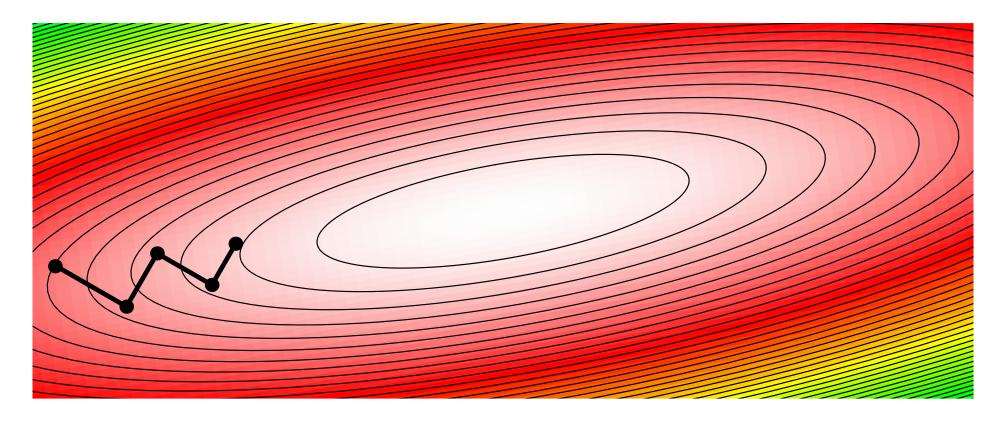


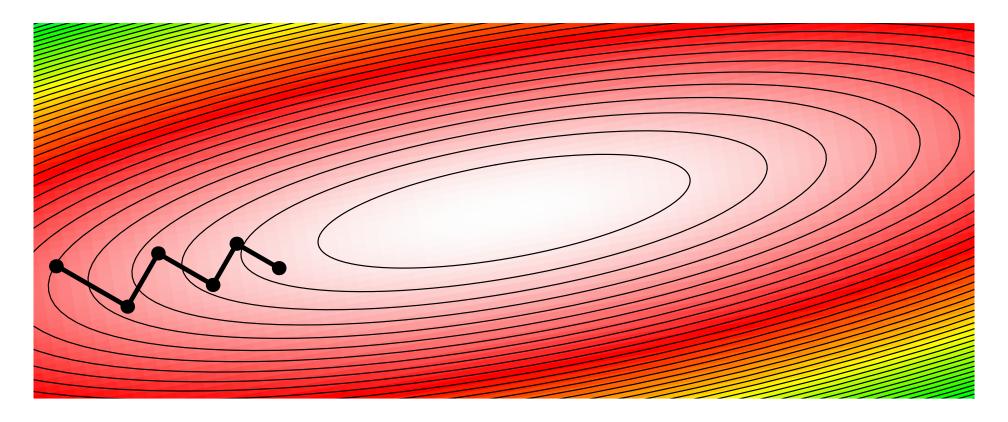


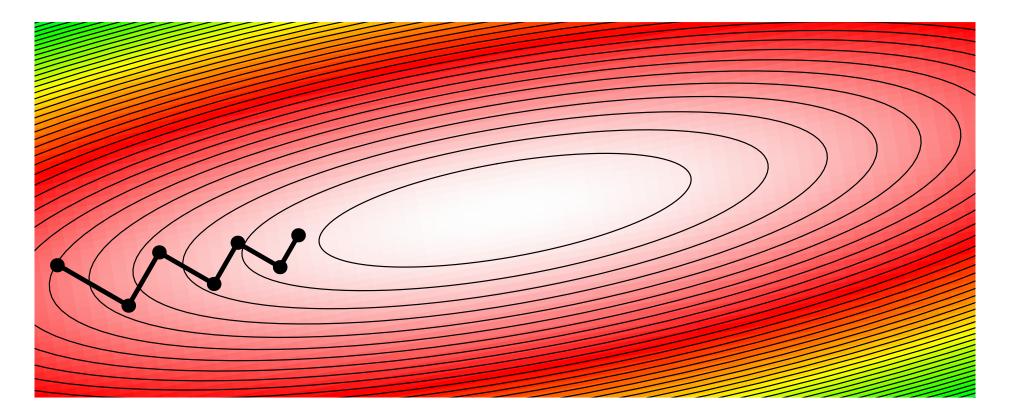


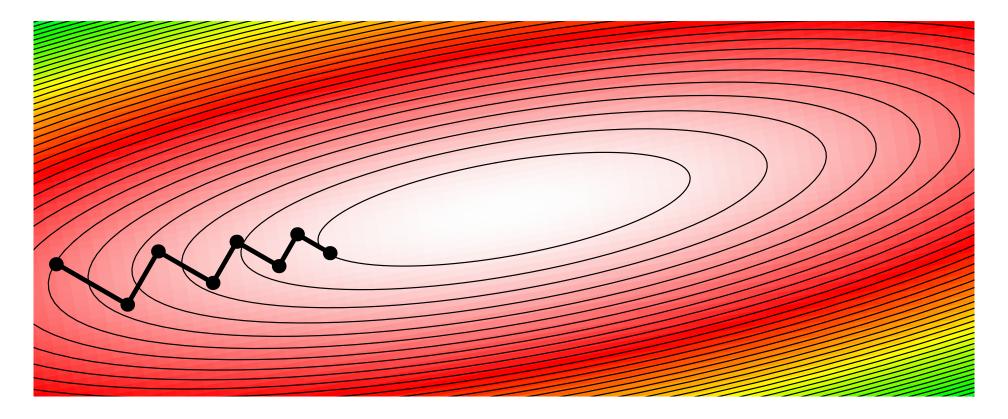


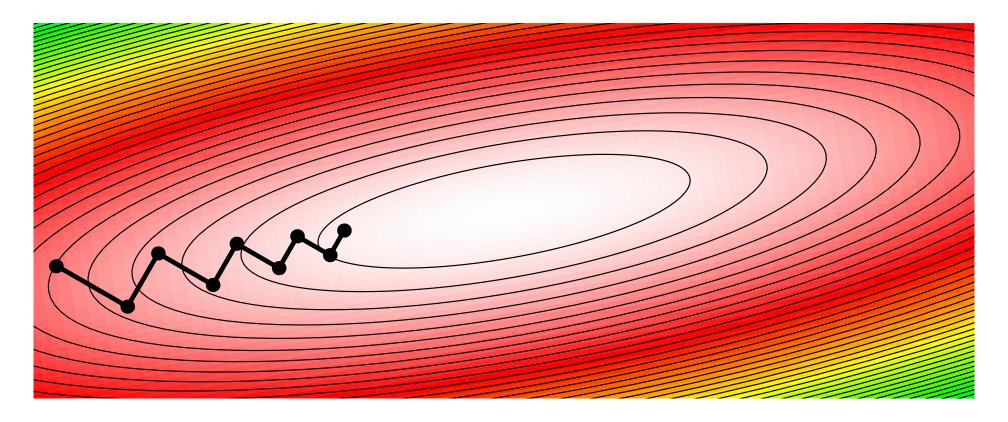


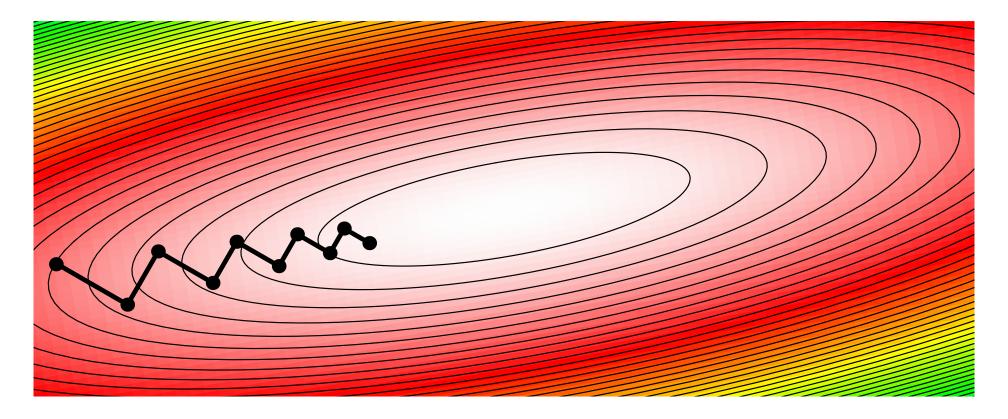


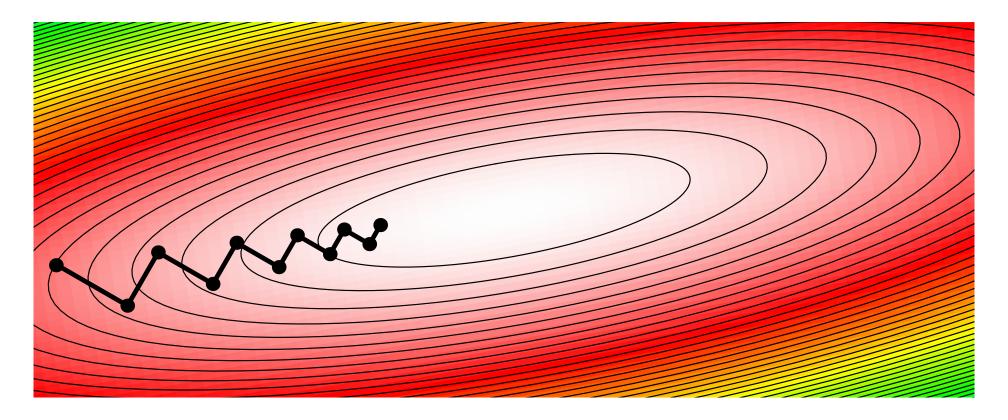


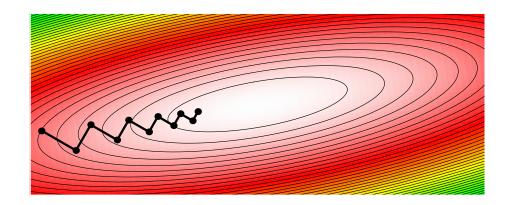




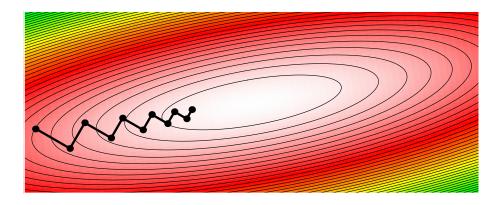




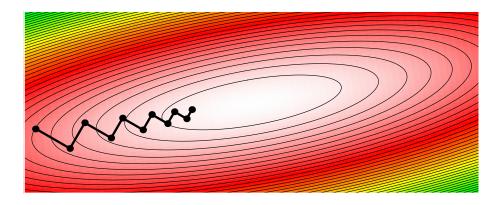




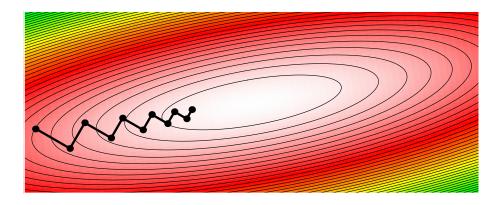
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- Good optimisation algorithms often compute an approximation of the Hessian
- E.g. Conjugate gradient
 - Performs Line Minimisation
 - ★ Uses gradient, but does not go along it.
 - \star For a quadratic minimum in d dimensions it reaches the minimum in d steps
- E.g. Levenberg-Marquardt
 - ★ Used on least squares problem only
 - ★ Uses linear approximation of function to approximate Hessian
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Levenberg-Marquardt

- Want to minimise $\|\boldsymbol{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{w})\|^2$ where $\epsilon_i(\boldsymbol{w}) = f(\boldsymbol{x}_i|\boldsymbol{w}) y_i$
- Use linear approximation

$$\epsilon_i(m{w})pprox \epsilon_i(m{w}^{(k)})+(m{w}-m{w}^{(k)})m{
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• Solve quadratic minimisation of approximate error $\operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{w}} L_{approx}(\boldsymbol{w})$ with $\mathbf{J} = \boldsymbol{\nabla} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{w}^{(k)})$

$$L_{approx}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \|\boldsymbol{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{w}^{(k)}) + \mathbf{J}(\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(k)})\|^{2}$$

$$= \boldsymbol{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{w}^{(k)})^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{w}^{(k)}) + 2(\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(k)})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{J}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{w}^{(k)})$$

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$$\boldsymbol{w}^{(k+1)} = \boldsymbol{w}^{(k)} - \left(\boldsymbol{\mathsf{J}}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\mathsf{J}} \right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{\mathsf{J}}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{w}^{(k)})$$

- Can lead us in the wrong direction
- Instead use $\boldsymbol{w}^{(k+1)} = \operatorname{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{w}} L_{approx}(\boldsymbol{w}) + \nu \|\boldsymbol{w} \boldsymbol{w}^{(k)}\|^2$

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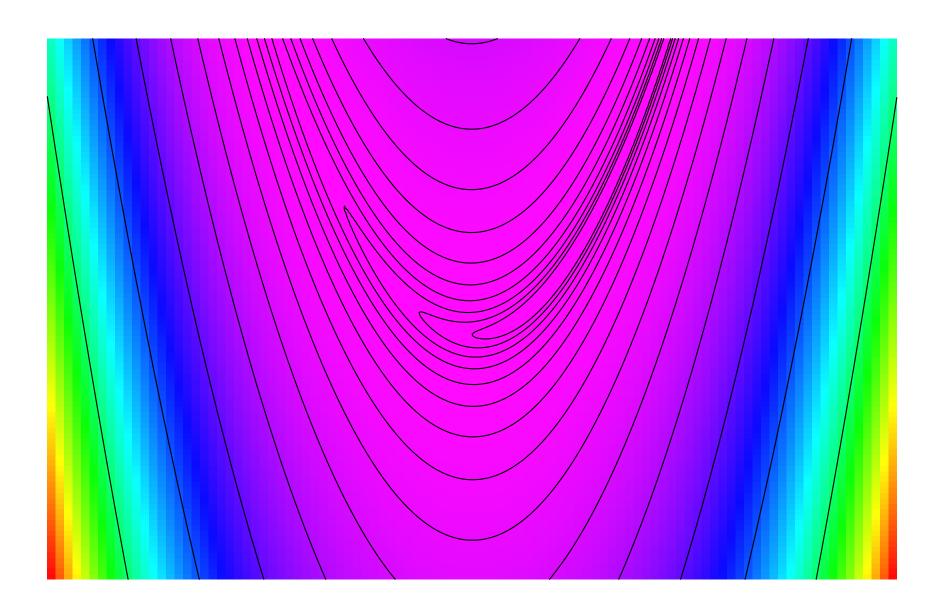
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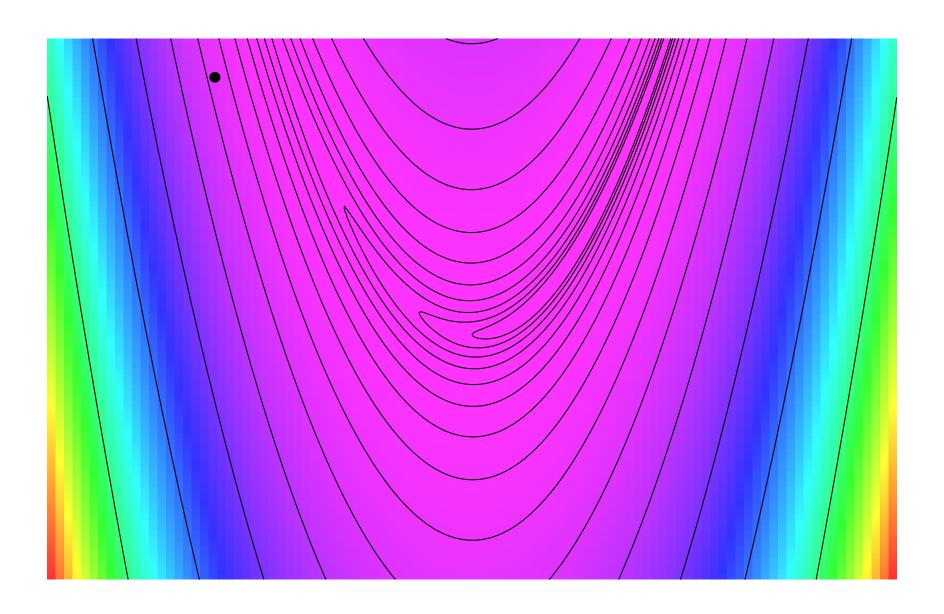
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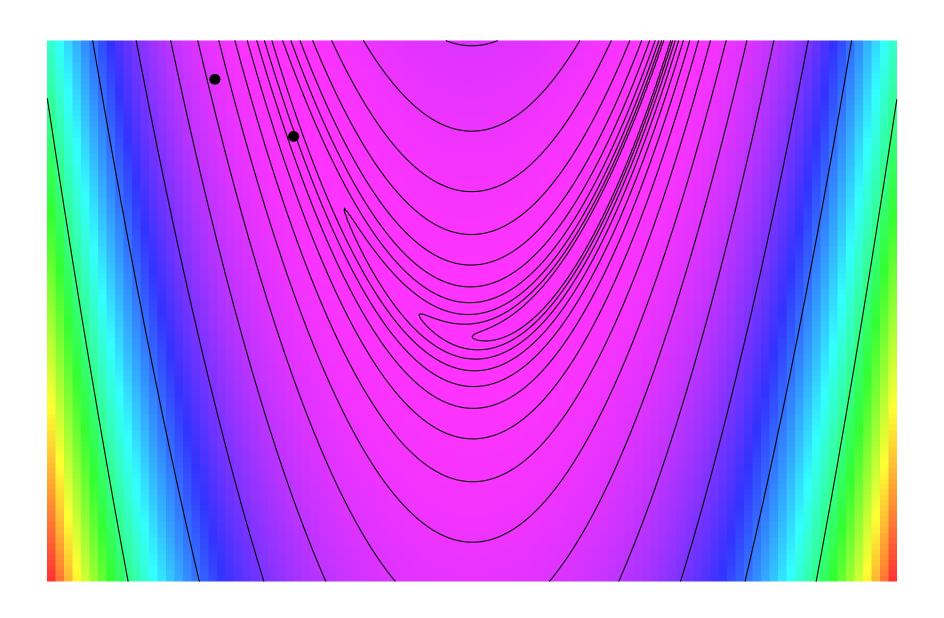
$$\epsilon_1 = 10(x_2 - x_1^2)$$
 and $\epsilon_2 = 1 - x_1$



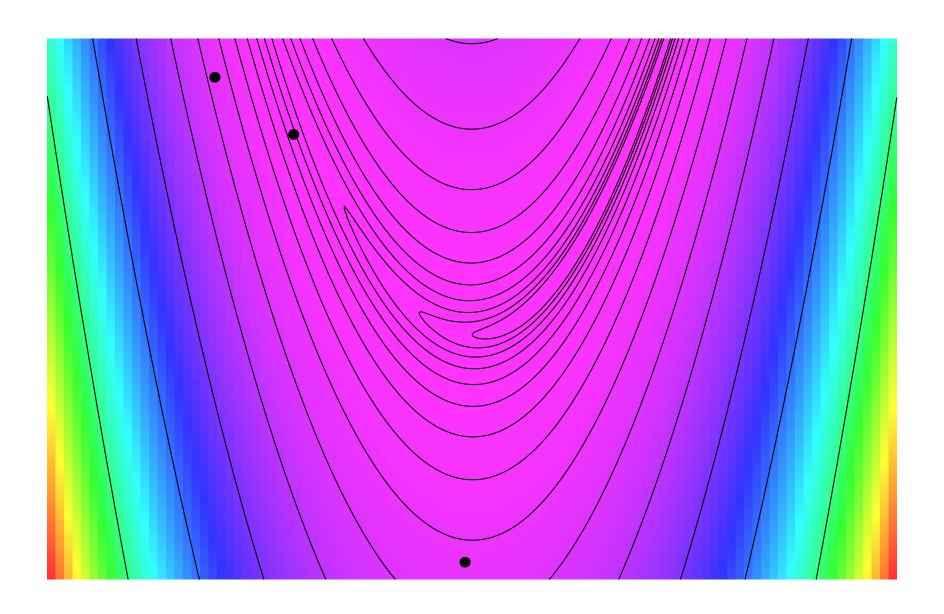
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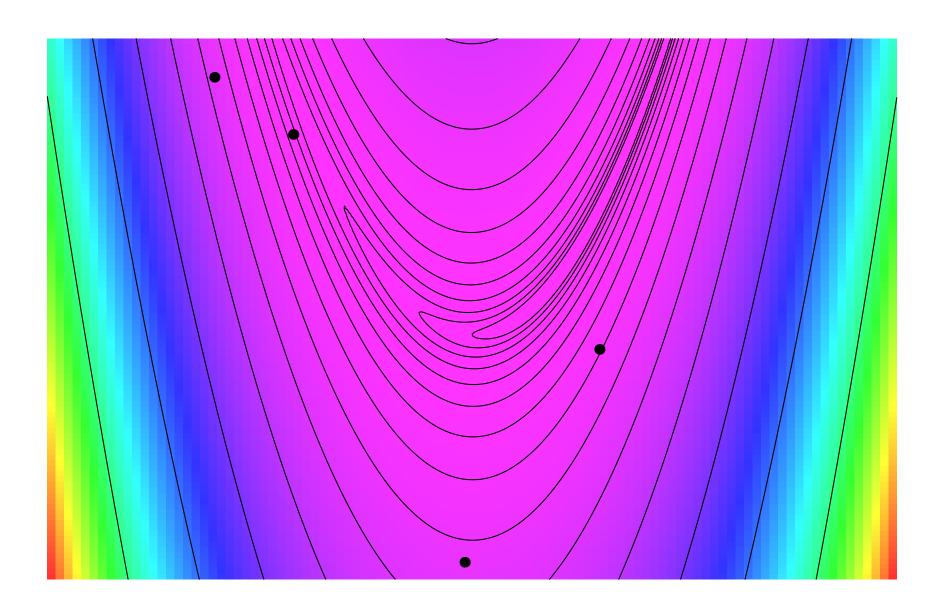
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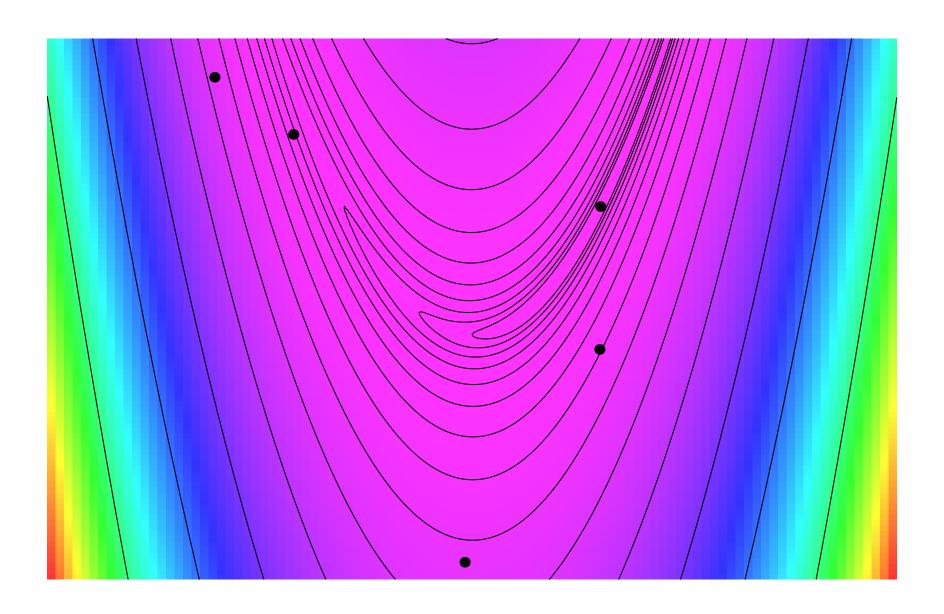
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- There are gradient methods (first order methods) that suffer from the problem of having to choose a single step size with conflicting requirements in different directions
- **Newton's method** (a second order method) requires computing the Hessian matrix, gives very fast convergent, but can take you in the wrong direction if you are not sufficiently close to a minimum
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