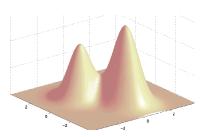
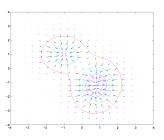
Advanced Machine Learning

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

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ML = Optimisation

• Many learning machines can be thought of as functions of the form

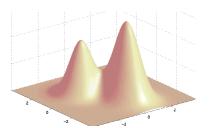
$$\hat{y} = f(\boldsymbol{x}|\boldsymbol{w})$$

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

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

Outline

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



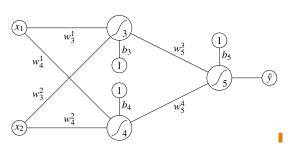
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MLP

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



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

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

where, for example, $g(V) = \frac{1}{1 + \mathrm{e}^{-V}}$

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

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

 \bullet We then use the machine with the weights \boldsymbol{w}^* which minimise $L(\boldsymbol{w}|\mathcal{D}) \mathbf{I}$

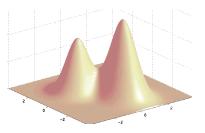
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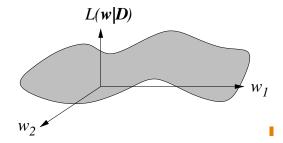
Outline

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Computing Gradients

ullet $L(oldsymbol{w}|\mathcal{D})$ is a complex function of the weights $oldsymbol{w}$



- ullet To minimise we $L(oldsymbol{w}|\mathcal{D})$ we compute the gradient $oldsymbol{
 abla} L(oldsymbol{w}|\mathcal{D})$
- In MLP an efficient algorithm for computing the gradient is known as back-propl

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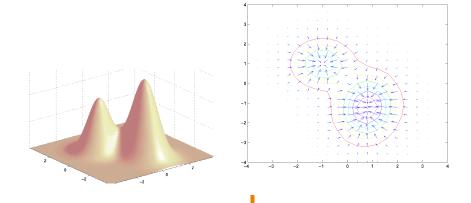
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Gradient Optimisation

- ullet A maximum or minimum occurs when $oldsymbol{
 abla} L(oldsymbol{w}|\mathcal{D}) = oldsymbol{0}$
- E.g.

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



Gradient Descent

- ullet For a simple function $L(m{w}|\mathcal{D})$ we can solve $m{\nabla} L(m{w}|\mathcal{D}) = m{0}$ 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: $w \to w' = w + r \nabla L(w|\mathcal{D})$
 - \star Minimisation: $m{w} o m{w}' = m{w} r m{\nabla} L(m{w}|\mathcal{D})$

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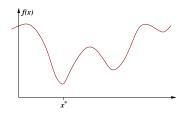
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What Goes Right

• Almost all minima are quadratic (Morse's theorem)



ullet Taylor expanding around a minimum x^*

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

$$= f(x^*) + \frac{1}{2}(x - x^*)^2 f''(x^*) + \frac{1}{3!}(x - x^*)^3 f'''(x^*) + \cdots$$

• If $x-x^*$ is sufficiently small the higher order terms are negligible

Newton's Method

Hill-Climbing

• 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

$$x - x^* = \frac{f'(x)}{b} = \frac{f'(x)}{f''(x)}$$

or

$$x^* = x - \frac{f'(x)}{f''(x)}$$

Newton's Method

- 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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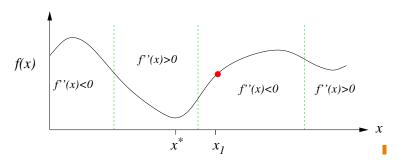
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Using the Second Derivative

- If we are optimising N parameters the Hessian is an $N \times N$ matrix
- It is time-consuming to compute (and prone to errors when coding) ← for deep learning it is impossible even to store the Hessian
- Away from minima they can be misleading



Taylor's Expansion in High Dimensions

- We can generalise these results to many dimensions
- The Taylor expansion of a function f(x) about x_0

$$f(oldsymbol{x}) = f(oldsymbol{x}_0) + (oldsymbol{x} - oldsymbol{x}_0)^{\mathsf{T}} oldsymbol{
abla} f(oldsymbol{x}_0) + rac{1}{2} (oldsymbol{x} - oldsymbol{x}_0)^{\mathsf{T}} oldsymbol{\mathsf{H}} (oldsymbol{x} - oldsymbol{x}_0) + \cdots oldsymbol{\mathsf{I}}$$

where H is the **Hessian** matrix with elements

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

• Newton's method in high dimension is

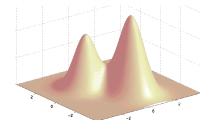
$$oldsymbol{x}^* = oldsymbol{x} - oldsymbol{\mathsf{H}}^{-1} oldsymbol{
abla} f(oldsymbol{x})$$

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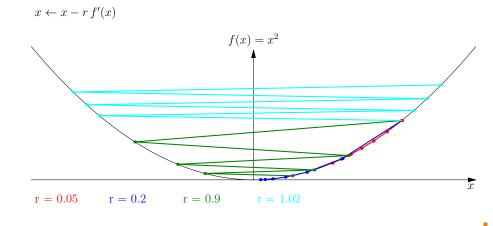
Step Size

Step Size

• Gradient descent

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

- 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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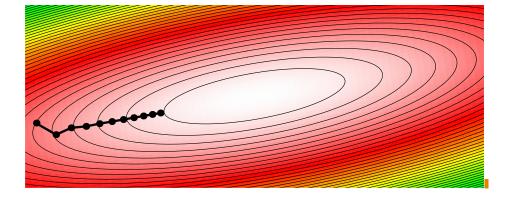
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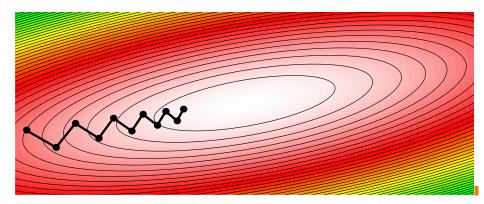
Higher Dimensions

• In higher dimensions the problem is that there are some directions you need to move a long way!



Getting There Quicker

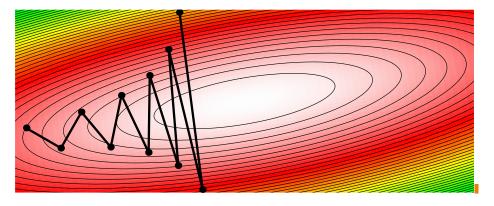
• Increasing the step size speeds up convergence, but the direction of steepest descent doesn't point to the minimum



More Haste Less Speed

Line Minimisation

• Increasing the step size, just a little further, increases the rate of converge in one direction, but . . .



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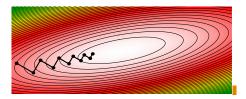
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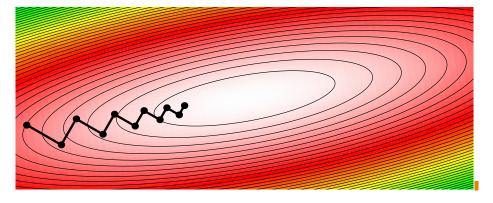
Zig-Zag

• Note that in high dimensions gradient descent tends to zigzag



- If we computed the Hessian and used Newton's method we would jump straight to the minimum if we were in a quadratic potential
- However computing the Hessian is time consuming and misleading if we are not in a quadratic potential (i.e. far from the optimum)

• We can systematically seek the minimum along a line of the gradient



Better Optimisation Algorithms

- 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
 - ★ Adapts from hill-climbing to Newton method
 - ⋆ Avoids line-minimisation

Levenberg-Marquardt

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

$$\epsilon_i(m{w})pprox \epsilon_i(m{w}^{(k)}) + (m{w}-m{w}^{(k)})m{
abla}\epsilon_i(m{w}^{(k)})$$
 with $m{
abla}\epsilon_i(m{w}^{(k)}) = m{
abla}f(m{x}_i|m{w}^{(k)})$

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

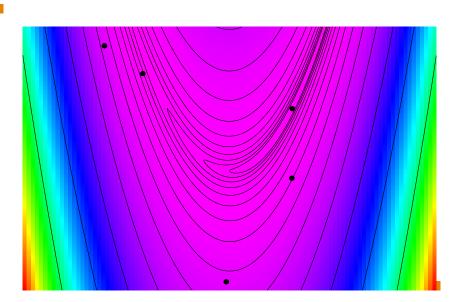
$$L_{approx}(\boldsymbol{w}) = \|\boldsymbol{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{w}^{(k)}) + \mathbf{J}(\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(k)})\|^{2}$$
$$= \boldsymbol{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{w}^{(k)})^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}(\boldsymbol{w}^{(k)}) + 2(\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}^{(k)})^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{J}^{\mathsf{T}}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

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



Trust Region

• Solution given by $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{w}} L_{approx}(\boldsymbol{w}) = 0$ gives

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

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

$$oldsymbol{w}^{(k+1)} = oldsymbol{w}^{(k)} - \left(oldsymbol{\mathsf{J}}^\mathsf{T} oldsymbol{\mathsf{J}} +
u oldsymbol{\mathsf{I}}
ight)^{-1} oldsymbol{\mathsf{J}}^\mathsf{T} oldsymbol{\epsilon}(oldsymbol{w}) oldsymbol{\mathsf{I}}$$

- \bullet ν limits the step size
- If predicted reduction in error is accurate then reduce ν , else if predicted reduction in error is very poor increase ν

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Summary

- There are some non-gradient methods (Nelder Mead, evolutionary strategies, Powell's method), but in very high dimensions these are not very competitive.
- 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.
- There exist a number of pseudo-Newton methods (conjugate gradient, Levenberg-Marquardt, etc.) that approximates Newton's method often without explicitly computing the Hessian