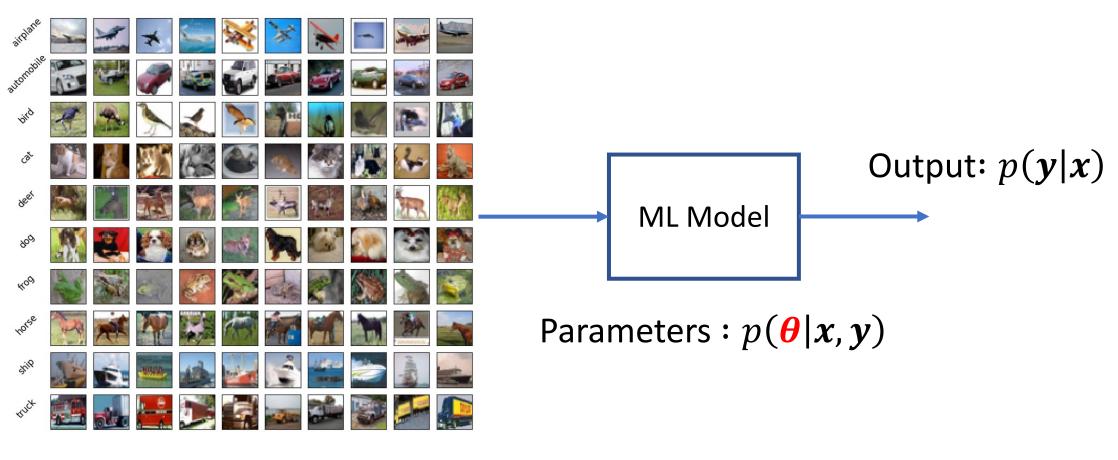
# Optimization

CoE197M/EE298M (Foundations of Machine Learning)
Rowel Atienza, Ph.D.
rowel@eee.upd.edu.ph

Reference: "Mathematics for Machine Learning". Copyright 2020 by Marc Peter Deisenroth, A. Aldo Faisal, and Cheng Soon Ong. Published by Cambridge University Press.

# Model Optimization: Finding $\theta$ that explains the dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{x, y\}$



Input : p(x)

# What to optimize to find $\theta$ that explains $\mathcal{D}$ ?

By minimizing a metric, distance or loss function between the model prediction and ground truth labels:

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = L(\boldsymbol{y}^{true}, \boldsymbol{y}^{pred} | \boldsymbol{\theta}) = d(\boldsymbol{y}^{true}, \boldsymbol{y}^{pred} | \boldsymbol{\theta})$$

Let 
$$y^{error} = y^{true} - y^{pred}$$

L1 Norm: For  $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

$$\|\boldsymbol{y}^{error}\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^n |y_i^{error}|$$

e.g. n is the number of classes Some cases use a factor  $\frac{1}{n}$  to normalize L1 Mean Absolute Error (MAE):

#### L2 Norm: For $L \in \mathbb{R}^n$ :

$$\|\mathbf{y}^{error}\|_{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i}^{error})^{2}$$
$$= \sqrt{\mathbf{y}^{error}} \mathbf{y}^{error}$$

e.g. n is the number of classes

Some cases use a factor  $\frac{1}{n}$  to normalize L2

Mean Squared Error (MSE):

 $= \frac{1}{batch\_size} \sum_{b=1}^{batch\_size} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_{i,b}^{error})^{2}$ 

#### Cross-Entropy:

$$CE = \langle \mathbf{y}^{true}, -\log \mathbf{y}^{pred} \rangle$$
$$= -\int_{a}^{b} \mathbf{y}^{true} \log \mathbf{y}^{pred} d\mathbf{y}$$

Categorical Cross-Entropy:

$$CE = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} y_i^{true} \log y_i^{pred}$$

CE per batch

$$CE = \frac{1}{batch\_size} \sum_{b=1}^{batch\_size} CE_b$$

#### Binary Cross-Entropy (BCE):

$$BCE = -y_i^{true} \log y_i^{pred} - (1 - y_i^{true}) \log(1 - y_i^{pred})$$

BCE per batch

$$CE = \frac{1}{batch\_size} \sum_{b=1}^{batch\_size} BCE_b$$

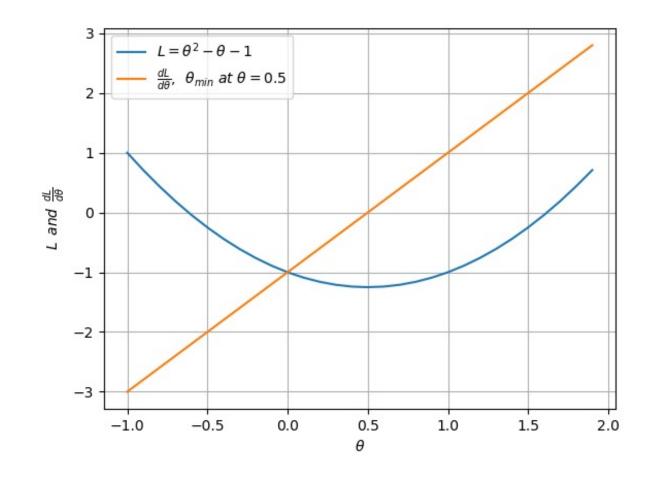
# 1-Min Loss Function : $L = \theta^2 - \theta - 1$

Can be solved analytically by:

$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = 2\theta - 1 = 0$$
$$\therefore \theta = \frac{1}{2}$$

Verify as (global) minimum:

$$\frac{d^2L}{d\theta^2}\bigg|_{\theta=\frac{1}{2}} = \theta\bigg|_{\theta=\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{1}{2} > 0$$



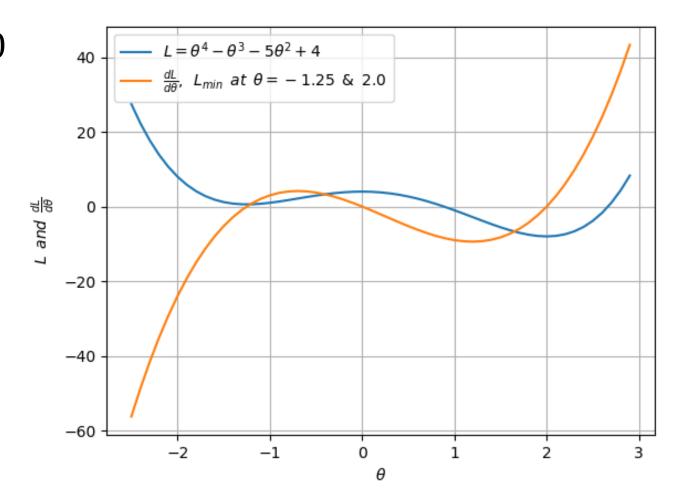
# 2-Mins Loss Function: $L = \theta^4 - \theta^3 - 5\theta^2 + 4$

$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = 4\theta^3 - 3\theta^2 - 10\theta = 0$$

$$L_{min} \ at \ \theta = -1.25, 2.0$$

(Global) min at  $\theta = 2.0$ 

$$\left. \frac{d^2L}{d\theta^2} \right|_{\theta=2} = 26 > 0$$



#### Issues

Many ML Models do not have simple loss functions as a function of parameters that can be solved analytically in closed form

Use a numerical solution that can be solved iteratively

# Gradient Descent

Numerical Algorithm for Optimization

#### **Gradient Descent**

To find the minimum, adjust the parameters in the direction opposite the gradient (ie negative gradient) of the loss function:

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} = \boldsymbol{\theta} - \varepsilon \big( \nabla L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \big)^T$$

 $\varepsilon$  a small learning rate or step size:  $\varepsilon \in (0, \infty)$  typically  $\varepsilon \in [1e - 6, 1.0]$ 

# Gradient Descent on Loss Function : $L = \theta^2 - \theta - 1$

**Gradient:** 

$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = 2\theta - 1$$

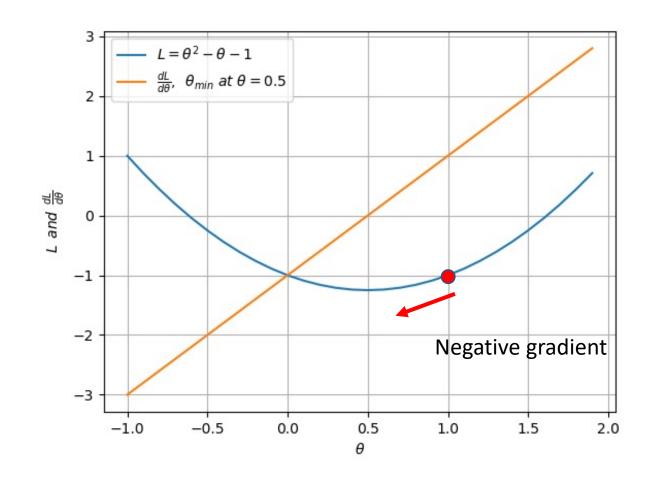
Let us say the initial state is  $\theta_0 = 1 \& \varepsilon = 0.1$ 

$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = 1$$

$$\theta = 1 - 0.1(1) = 0.9$$

As we move down the bowl, we will eventually hit the minimum of L at:

$$\theta = 0.5$$



# Effect of Learning Rate

## Learning rate $\varepsilon = 0.01$

**Gradient:** 

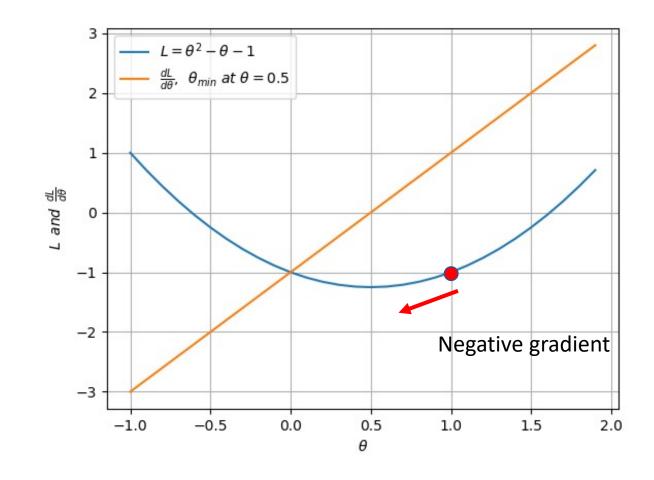
$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = 2\theta - 1$$

Let us say  $\theta_0=1~\&~\varepsilon=0.01$ 

$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = 1$$

$$\theta = 1 - 0.01(1) = 0.99$$

As we move down the bowl, we will eventually hit the minimum of L at:  $\theta = 0.5$  but with a bigger number of steps



## Learning rate $\varepsilon = 1$

**Gradient:** 

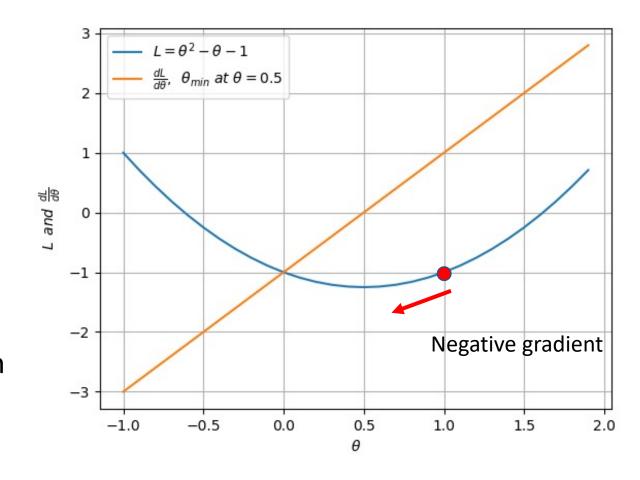
$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = 2\theta - 1$$

Let us say  $\theta_0 = 1 \& \varepsilon = 1$ 

$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = 1$$

$$\theta = 1 - 1(1) = 0$$

We will always miss the the minimum of L at:  $\theta=0.5$ 



# Right Learning Rate to Overcome Local Minima

## Learning rate $\varepsilon = 0.01$

Gradient:

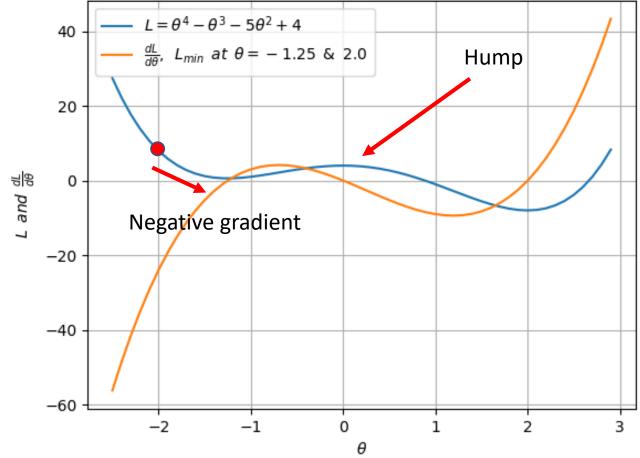
$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = 4\theta^3 - 3\theta^2 - 10\theta$$

Let us say  $\theta_0 = -2 \& \varepsilon = 0.01$ 

$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = -24$$

$$\theta = -2 - 0.01(-24) = -1.76$$

We get stuck in the local convex bowl and find minimum at  $\theta=-1.25$ . No way we can over the hump and discover a smaller minimum at  $\theta=2$ .



## Learning rate $\varepsilon = 0.1$

Gradient:

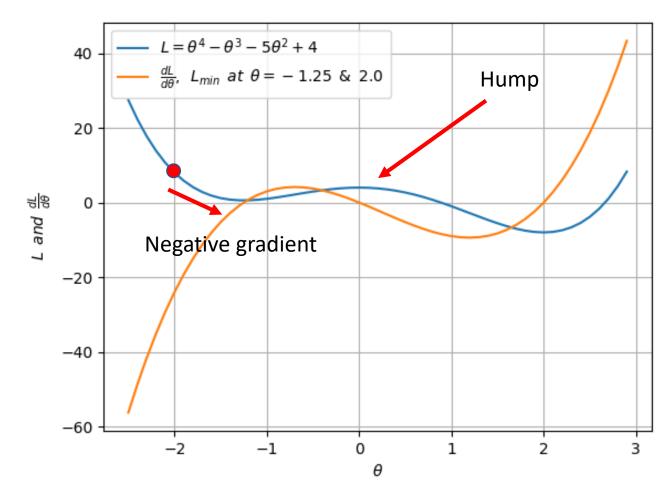
$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = 4\theta^3 - 3\theta^2 - 10\theta$$

Let us say  $\theta_0 = -2 \& \varepsilon = 0.1$ 

$$\frac{dL}{d\theta} = -24$$

$$\theta = -2 - 0.1(-24) = 0.4$$

We went over the hump and may eventually discover the global minimum at  $\theta=2$ .



# Learning Rate Scheduler

Decreasing Learning Rate Near the Minimum

## 10-step update at learning rate $\varepsilon = 0.1$

 $\theta$ , Updated  $\theta$ 

-2.00, 0.40

0.40, 0.82

0.82, 1.63

1.63, 2.33

2.33, 1.24

1.24, 2.18

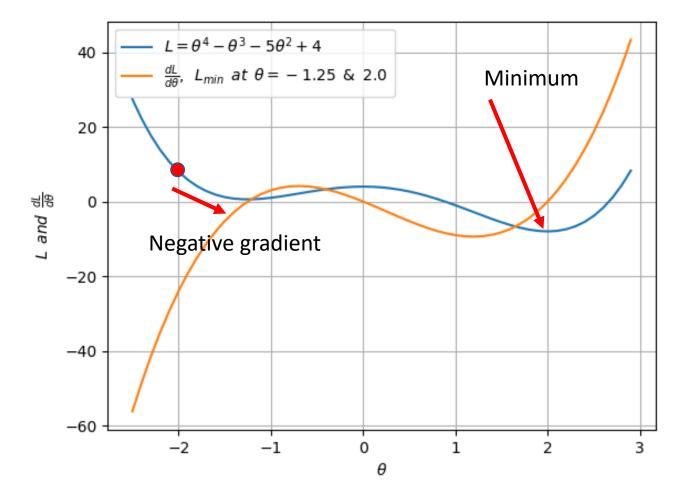
2.18, 1.64

1.64, 2.32

2.32, 1.25

1.25, 2.19

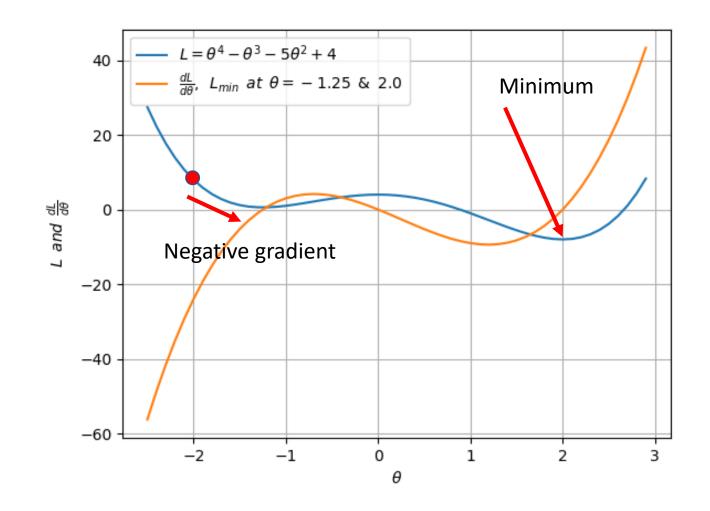
We will always miss the global minimum at  $\theta = 2$ .



#### $\theta$ , Updated $\theta$ -2.00, 0.40 0.40, 0.82 0.82, 1.63 1.63, 2.33 2.33, 1.24 1.24, 2.18 2.18, 2.13 2.13, 2.09 2.09, 2.07 2.07, 2.05 2.05, 2.03

At step=18, we hit the minimum at  $\theta = 2$ .

20-step update at learning rate 
$$\varepsilon = \begin{cases} 0.005 & step > 15 \\ 0.01 & step > 5 \\ 0.1 & else \end{cases}$$



# Gradient Descent with Momentum

**Accelerated Learning** 

#### Gradient Descent with Momentum

Rationale: Add contribution of past gradients to the current update to accelerate learning (ie faster convergence)

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{i+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_i - \varepsilon (\nabla L(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i))^T + \alpha g$$
$$g = \boldsymbol{\theta}_i - \boldsymbol{\theta}_{i-1}$$

g is the momentum term,  $\alpha \in [0,1]$ 

#### Gradient Descent with Momentum $\alpha$ =0.1

#### $\theta$ , Updated $\theta$ -2.00, 0.40 0.40, 1.06 1.06, 2.05 2.05, 2.01 2.01, 1.97 1.97, 2.04 2.04, 2.03

2.03, 2.02

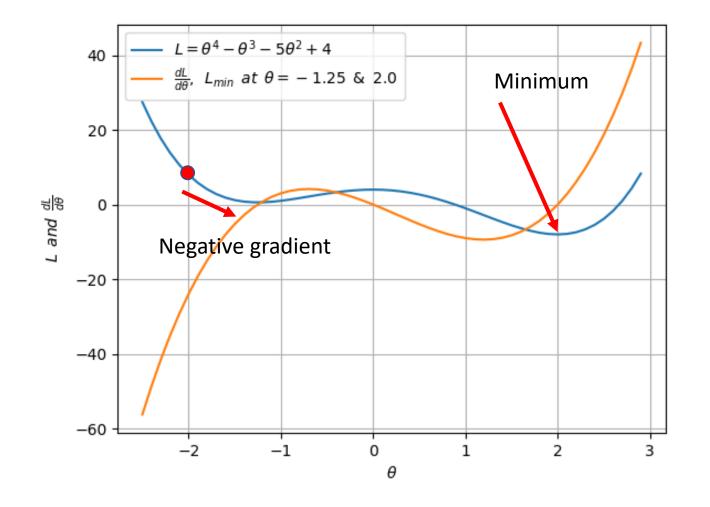
2.02, 2.01

2.01, 2.01

#### $\theta$ , Updated $\theta$

At step=12, we hit the minimum at  $\theta = 2$ .

20-step update at learning rate 
$$\varepsilon = \begin{cases} 0.005 & step > 15 \\ 0.01 & step > 5 \\ 0.1 & else \end{cases}$$



```
import numpy as np
import argparse
def gd(theta, lr=0.1, momentum=0.):
    grad = 4*theta**3 - 3*theta**2 - 10*theta
    theta = theta - lr*grad
    theta += momentum
    return theta
if name == ' main ':
   parser = argparse.ArgumentParser()
   parser.add argument('--momentum',
                        default=False,
                        action='store true',
                        help='use momentum')
   parser.add argument('--schedule',
                        default=False,
                        action='store true',
                        help='use learning rate schedule')
   parser.add argument('--lr',
                        default=0.1,
                        type=float,
                        help='use learning rate schedule')
    args = parser.parse args()
```

```
theta 0 = -2
lr = args.lr
momentum = 0
alpha = 0.1
for i in range (20):
    if args.schedule:
        if i > 15:
            lr = 0.005
        elif i > 5:
            lr = 0.01
    theta 1 = gd(theta 0, lr=lr,
           momentum=alpha*momentum)
    print("%0.2f, %0.2f" %
           (theta 0, theta 1))
    if args.momentum:
        momentum = theta 1 - theta 0
    theta 0 = theta 1
```

# Stochastic Gradient Descent

An Estimate of Gradient Descent

## Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

In gradient descent, we use the entire dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{x, y\}$  to estimate the gradient

If the dataset  $\mathcal{D} = \{x, y\}$  is huge (eg hundreds or millions points), the computation is expensive

Estimating the gradient by a small sample of the dataset called *mini-batch* usually leads to a good approximation

Gradient Descent : Use entire dataset to compute  $\nabla L(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i)$  for 1 update

Dataset

Stochastic Gradient Descent : Use random samples from dataset (small mini-batches) to compute  $\nabla L(\boldsymbol{\theta}_i)$  for n updates

 $batch_0$   $batch_1$   $batch_2$   $batch_3$   $batch_4$  ...  $batch_{n-1}$ 

**Dataset** 

#### SGD

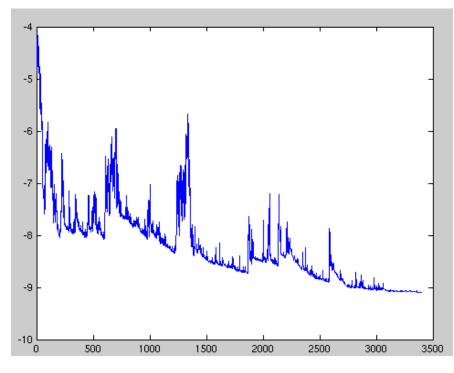
Pros

Many gradient updates – faster convergence

Can be done in parallel

Cons

Since it is a mini-batch, SGD is susceptible to noise



Wikipedia

# Visualization

Navigating the loss surface

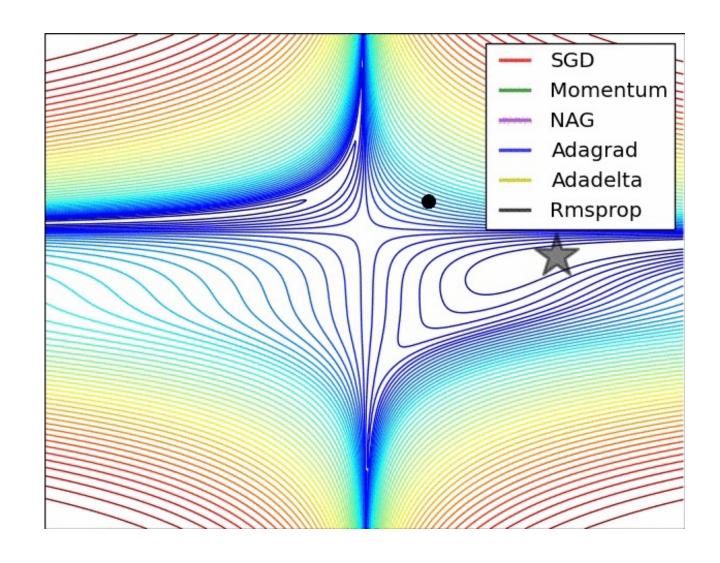


Image: Alec Radford

Navigating a saddle point

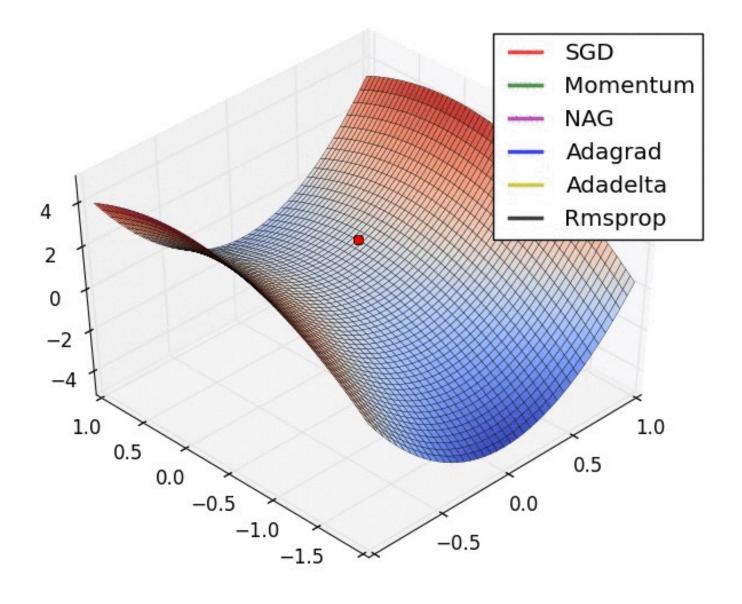


Image: Alec Radford

# Constrained Optimization

**Optional** 

# Constrained Optimization

Unconstrained Optimization,  $f : \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})$$

For example,  $\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\boldsymbol{\theta})$ .

Constrained Optimization,  $f : \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}$ :  $\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})$ 

subject to 
$$g_i(x) \leq 0$$
  $i = 1, 2, ..., m$ 

# Lagrange Multiplier

Merging the constraint and target function:

$$\mathfrak{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \sum_{i=1}^{m} \lambda_i g_i(\mathbf{x})$$

$$\mathfrak{L}(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda}) = f(\mathbf{x}) + \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T g(\mathbf{x})$$

 $\lambda_i \geq 0$  are called Lagrange Multipliers

Note that f(x) and g(x) can be non-convex functions

### Lagrange Duality

Duality: convert the optimization in one set of variables (e.g. x) called primal variables into another set of variables (e.g.  $\lambda$ ) called dual variables

Constrained Optimization, 
$$f : \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}$$
:  

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})$$

subject to 
$$g_i(\mathbf{x}) \leq 0$$
  $i = 1, 2, ..., m$ 

is called the primal problem corresponding to primal variable x

### Lagrange Duality

The corresponding dual problem:

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\lambda}\in\mathbb{R}^m}\mathfrak{D}(\boldsymbol{\lambda})$$

subject to 
$$\lambda \geq 0$$

Where the dual variable is  $\lambda$  and  $\mathfrak{D}(\lambda) = \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)$ 

### MinMax Inequality

For any function with 2 arguments  $\varphi(x, y)$ , the maximin is less than the minimax:

$$\max_{\mathbf{y}} \min_{\mathbf{x}} \varphi(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \leq \min_{\mathbf{x}} \max_{\mathbf{y}} \varphi(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$$

### Weak Duality

In Lagrange Multiplier, the objective is:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} \max_{\mathbf{\lambda} \geq 0} \mathfrak{L}(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{\lambda})$$

Since  $\mathfrak{L}(x, \lambda)$  is a lower bound of J(x):

$$J(x) = \max_{\lambda \ge 0} \mathfrak{L}(x, \lambda)$$

### Weak Duality

Using minmax inequality, we arrive at weak duality:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \max_{\lambda \ge 0} \mathfrak{L}(\mathbf{x}, \lambda) \ge \max_{\lambda \ge 0} \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \mathfrak{L}(\mathbf{x}, \lambda)$$

#### Modified Constrained Optimization

Equality Constrained Optimization,  $f: \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}$ :

$$\min_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})$$

subject to 
$$g_i(x) \le 0$$
  $i = 1, 2, ..., m$   
and  $h_i(x) = 0$   $i = 1, 2, ..., n$ 

# Convex Optimization

Global optimization guarantee

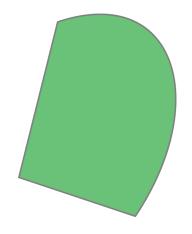
#### Convex Set

A set  $\mathcal{C}$  is a convex set if for any  $x, y \in \mathcal{C}$  and for any scalar  $0 \le \theta \le 1$ :

$$\theta x + (1 - \theta)y \in \mathcal{C}$$

Straight line connecting 2 elements are in the set

**Figure 7.5** Example of a convex set.



### Convex Function: Jensen's Inequality

Let  $f: \mathbb{R}^D \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function whose domain in a convex set. The function is a convex function if for all x, y in the the domain of f and for any scalar  $0 \le \theta \le 1$ :

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \le \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(x)$$

A concave function is the negative of a convex function

### Epigraph

Imagine filling up a bowl (a convex function) with water, the resulting filled in set is called an epigraph

### Convexity

A function f is convex if and only if 2 points x and y, it holds that:

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})$$

If the Hessian,  $\nabla_x^2 f$ , exists then it is positive semidefinite.

### Example: $f(x) = x \log x$

For  $\theta = 0.5$ , x = 2 and y = 4 prove:

$$f(\theta x + (1 - \theta)y) \le \theta f(x) + (1 - \theta)f(x)$$

Alternatively, prove:

$$f(\mathbf{y}) \ge f(\mathbf{x}) + \nabla_{\mathbf{x}} f(\mathbf{x})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x})$$

### Linear Programming

### Linear Programming

All functions are linear. Primal Problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(\mathbf{x}) = \min_{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \mathbf{c}^T \mathbf{x}$$

subject to 
$$Ax \leq b$$

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$$
,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $c \in \mathbb{R}^d$ 

$$\mathfrak{L}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \boldsymbol{c}^T \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T (\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{b})$$

$$\mathfrak{L}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = (\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{A}^T \boldsymbol{\lambda})^T \boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T \boldsymbol{b}$$

Where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^m$  are the Lagrange multipliers.

$$\frac{d\Omega(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\lambda})}{d\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{A}^T \boldsymbol{\lambda} = \mathbf{0}$$

Substituting the zero term  $\mathfrak{L}(x, \lambda)$ , the dual is  $\mathfrak{D}(\lambda) = -\lambda^T b$ 

### **Dual Optimization**

#### **Dual Problem:**

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \mathfrak{D}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \max_{\boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathbb{R}^d} -\boldsymbol{\lambda}^T \boldsymbol{b}$$

subject to 
$$c + A^T \lambda = 0$$

$$\lambda \geq 0$$

# Quadratic Programming

### Quadratic Programming

Convex quadratic objective function. Primal Problem:

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \min_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \frac{1}{2} \boldsymbol{x}^T \boldsymbol{Q} \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{c}^T \boldsymbol{x}$$

subject to 
$$Ax \leq b$$

$$A \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$$
,  $b \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $c \in \mathbb{R}^d$ 

 $\mathbf{Q} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$  is symmetric positive definite square matrix

$$\mathfrak{L}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{x}^T\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{c}^T\boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T(\boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{b})$$

$$\mathfrak{L}(\boldsymbol{x},\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \frac{1}{2}\boldsymbol{x}^T\boldsymbol{Q}\boldsymbol{x} + (\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{A}^T\boldsymbol{\lambda})^T\boldsymbol{x} - \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T\boldsymbol{b}$$

Where  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}^m$  are the Lagrange multipliers.

$$\frac{d\Omega(\mathbf{x},\boldsymbol{\lambda})}{d\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{Q}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{c} + \mathbf{A}^T\boldsymbol{\lambda} = \mathbf{0}$$

Assuming **Q** is invertible:

$$\boldsymbol{x} = -\boldsymbol{Q}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{A}^T\boldsymbol{\lambda})$$

Substituting into the primal problem, the dual and its optimization problem is:

$$\mathfrak{D}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = -\frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{A}^T\boldsymbol{\lambda})^T\boldsymbol{Q}^{-1}(\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{A}^T\boldsymbol{\lambda}) - \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T\boldsymbol{b}$$

$$\max_{\boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \mathfrak{D}(\boldsymbol{\lambda}) = \max_{\boldsymbol{\lambda} \in \mathbb{R}^d} -\frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{A}^T \boldsymbol{\lambda})^T \boldsymbol{Q}^{-1} (\boldsymbol{c} + \boldsymbol{A}^T \boldsymbol{\lambda}) - \boldsymbol{\lambda}^T \boldsymbol{b}$$

$$\lambda \geq 0$$

# End