Deep Learning

Gradient Descent Variations

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Rprop Taylor Series Newton's Method Quickprop

So far ...

- Neural Networks are universal approximators.
- Backpropagation allows computation of derivatives in hidden layers.
- Gradient descent finds weights corresponding to local minimum of loss surface.
- In this lecture: alternative methods of finding local minima of loss surface.
 - First-order methods
 - Rprop
 - Second-order methods
 - Taylor series approximation
 - Newton's method
 - Quickprop
- Next lecture:
 - Momentum-based first-order methods

▶ Let $\Delta \mathbf{w}^{\tau+1}$ denote the step at time $\tau + 1$.

$$w^{\tau+1} = w^{\tau} + \Delta w^{\tau+1}$$

For gradient descent

$$\Delta \mathbf{w}^{\tau+1} = -\eta \nabla_{\mathbf{w}}^{\tau} L$$

For gradient descent in 1D,

$$\Delta w^{\tau+1} = -\eta \left. \frac{dL}{dw} \right|_{\tau}$$

The only issue is determining learning rate η .

Gradient Descent in Higher Dimensions

Δ = delta = change Δx = change in n

▶ Let $\Delta \mathbf{w}^{\tau+1}$ denote the stepat time $\tau+1$.

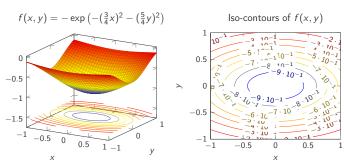
$$\underline{w^{\tau+1}} = \underline{w^{\tau}} + \underline{\Delta w^{\tau+1}}_{\mathbf{Step}}$$

V= nabla = Yate of Change

► For gradient descent

For gradient descent in
$$1D$$
,
$$\Delta \underline{w}^{\tau+1} = -\eta \frac{dL}{dw}$$

The only issue is determining learning rate η .



A function that changes faster in y-direction.

- ▶ In higher dimensions, if $\left|\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}\right| >> \left|\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_j}\right|$ then using the same η can result in overshooting in the direction of w_i and very slow convergence in the direction of w_j .
- ▶ Solution: separate learning rate η_i for each direction w_i .

- ► In Rprop¹, each direction is handled independently.
- ▶ Increase learning rate for direction *i* if current derivative has same sign as previous derivative.
- Otherwise, you just overshot a minimum.
 - So go back to previous location.
 - ▶ Decrease learning rate for that direction.
 - Update parameter with this smaller step.

$$\eta_{i} = \begin{cases} \alpha \eta_{i} & \text{if } \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \right|_{\tau} * \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \right|_{\tau-1} > 0 \\ \beta \eta_{i} & \text{if } \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \right|_{\tau} * \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \right|_{\tau-1} < 0 \\ \eta_{i} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

▶ Hyperparameters should follow the constraint $\alpha > 1$ and $\beta < 1$.

¹Riedmiller and Braun, 'A direct adaptive method for faster backpropagation learning: The RPROP algorithm'.

Resilient Propagation (Rprop)

- In Rprop¹, each direction is handled independently.
- Increase learning rate for direction i if current derivative has same sign as previous derivative.
- Otherwise, you just overshot a minimum.
 - So go back to previous location.
 - Decrease learning rate for that direction.
- Update parameter with this smaller step.
- $\eta_{i} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{\alpha \eta_{i}} & \text{if } \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \Big|_{\tau} * \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \Big|_{\tau-1} > 0 & \longleftarrow \frac{\text{derivatives}}{\text{had the same}} \\ \frac{\beta \eta_{i}}{\beta < i} & \text{if } \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \Big|_{\tau} * \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \Big|_{\tau-1} < 0 & \longleftarrow \frac{\text{derivatives}}{\text{direction}} \\ \frac{\beta < i}{\beta < i} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$

Hyperparameters should follow the constraint $\alpha > 1$ and $\beta < 1$.

¹Riedmiller and Braun, 'A direct adaptive method for faster backpropagation learning: The RPROP algorithm'.

Resilient Propagation (Rprop)

- ▶ Typical values are $\alpha = 1.2$ and $\beta = 0.5$.
 - ▶ Increase learning rate slowly but decrease quickly when you overshoot.
- lacktriangle In practice, learning rates are bounded via η_{min} and η_{max} .

$$\eta_{i} = \begin{cases} \min(\alpha \eta_{i}, \eta_{\text{max}}) & \text{if } \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \right|_{\tau} * \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \right|_{\tau-1} > 0 \\ \max(\beta \eta_{i}, \eta_{\text{min}}) & \text{if } \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \right|_{\tau} * \left. \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i}} \right|_{\tau-1} < 0 \\ \eta_{i} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Rprop converges much faster than gradient descent.
- ▶ But it works well when derivatives are accumulated over large batches.

Taylor Series Approximation

▶ If values of a function f(a) and its derivatives $f'(a), f''(a), \ldots$ are known at a value a, then we can approximate f(x) for x close to a via the Taylor series expansion

$$f(x) \approx f(a) + (x-a)^{1} \frac{f'(a)}{1!} + (x-a)^{2} \frac{f''(a)}{2!} + (x-a)^{3} \frac{f'''(a)}{3!} + O((x-a)^{4})$$

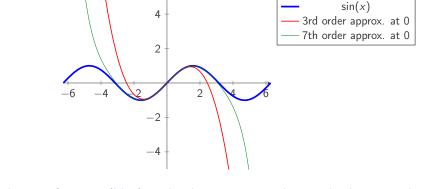
▶ Using $\Delta x = x - a$, Taylor series can be equivalently expressed as

$$f(a + \Delta x) \approx f(a) + (\Delta x)^{1} \frac{f'(a)}{1!} + (\Delta x)^{2} \frac{f''(a)}{2!} + (\Delta x)^{3} \frac{f'''(a)}{3!} + O((\Delta x)^{4})$$
$$= \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{n!} f^{n}(a) (\Delta x)^{n}$$

Taylor Series Approximation Examples

- For x around a = 0
 - ► $\sin(x) \approx x \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^5}{5!} \frac{x^7}{7!} + \dots$ ► $e^x \approx 1 + \frac{x^1}{1!} + \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^3}{3!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} + \dots$

Taylor Series Approximation *Not very useful for x not close to a*



The sine function (blue) is closely approximated around 0 by its Taylor polynomials. The 7th order approximation (green) is good for a full period centered at 0. However, it becomes poor for $|x-0|>\pi$.

▶ It is often convenient to use the first-order Taylor expansion

$$f(a + \Delta x) \approx f(a) + \Delta x f'(a)$$

or the second order Taylor expansion

$$f(a + \Delta x) \approx f(a) + \Delta x f'(a) + \frac{1}{2} (\Delta x)^2 f''(a)$$

▶ In d-dimensional input space

$$f(\mathsf{a} + \Delta \mathsf{x}) \approx f(\mathsf{a}) + \Delta \mathsf{x}^T \nabla f + \frac{1}{2} \Delta \mathsf{x}^T \mathsf{H} \Delta \mathsf{x}$$

where $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ is the Hessian matrix composed from second derivatives.

$$H = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_d} \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_d} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d \partial x_1} & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d \partial x_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d \partial x_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

- Starting from a_0 , we want to find a stationary point of f.
- Instead of actual function f, use a quadratic approximation (second-order Taylor expansion) of f at a_0 .
- ightharpoonup Find a step Δx such that $a_0 + \Delta x$ minimizes the quadratic approximation of f.

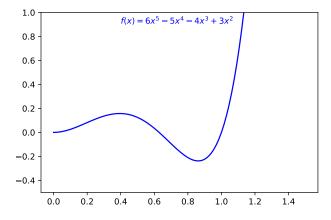
$$\frac{d}{d\Delta x} \left(f(a_0) + f'(a_0) \Delta x + \frac{1}{2} f''(a_0) (\Delta x)^2 \right) = 0$$

$$f'(a_0) + f''(a_0) \Delta x = 0$$

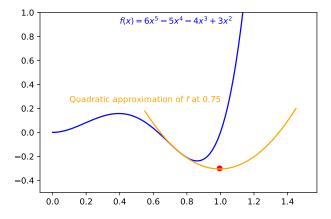
$$\Delta x = -\frac{f'(a_0)}{f''(a_0)}$$

- Move to $a_1 = a_0 + \Delta x$ and repeat the process at a_1 .
- Continue until convergence to a stationary point a_n .

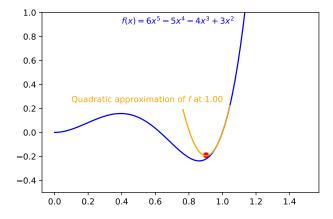
Rprop Taylor Series Newton's Method



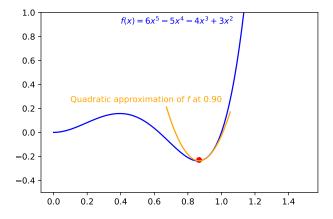
iD Rprop Taylor Series Newton's Method Quickprop



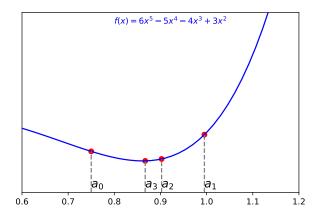
Rprop Taylor Series Newton's Method



D Rprop Taylor Series Newton's Method Quickprop.



iD Rprop Taylor Series Newton's Method Quickprop



Role of the 2nd-derivative

For weights of a neural network, Newton's update corresponds to

$$w^{\tau+1} = w^{\tau} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial w^2}\right)^{-1} \frac{\partial L}{\partial w}$$

- ln other words, gradient descent learning rate η corresponds to inverse of 2nd-derivative.
- Division by 2nd-derivative can also be viewed as normalising the gradient.
- In higher dimensions

$$\mathbf{w}^{\tau+1} = \mathbf{w}^{\tau} - \mathbf{H}^{-1} \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L$$

The inverse Hessian matrix normalises the gradient vector.

Newton's Method

Newton's Method

Role of the 2nd-derivative

- Complete Hessian matrix is rarely used because of its size and computational cost of inverting it.
- Common assumption: diagonal Hessian matrix.

$$\mathbf{H} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_1 \partial x_1} & 0 & \dots & 0 \\ 0 & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_2 \partial x_2} & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & \dots & \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x_d \partial x_d} \end{bmatrix}$$

Inverse of diagonal matrix is cheap (reciprocal of entries on the diagonal).

Quickprop

- Decouple all directions.
- Perform Newton updates in each direction.

$$w_i^{\tau+1} = w_i^{\tau} - \left(\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial w_i^2}\right)^{-1} \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}$$

 Approximate 2nd-derivative numerically by finite difference of 1st-derivatives.

$$\frac{\partial^2 L}{\partial w_i^2} \approx \frac{\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i} \Big|_{\tau} - \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i} \Big|_{\tau-1}}{\Delta w_i^{\tau-1}}$$

- Leads to very fast convergence.
- Some instability where loss is non-convex since everything is based on assumptions of convexity (quadratic approximation in Newton's method).

Fahlman, An empirical study of learning speed in back-propagation networks.

prop Taylor Series Newton's Method Quickprop

Summary

► For complex and non-convex loss functions of deep networks, vanilla gradient descent can get stuck in poor local minima and saddle points.

- It can also converge very slowly.
- ▶ Different directions require different learning rates.
- Adaptive learning rates are very important.
- Next lecture: momentum-based first-order methods.