

Introduction to AI for postgraduate students

Lecture Note 3
Optimization





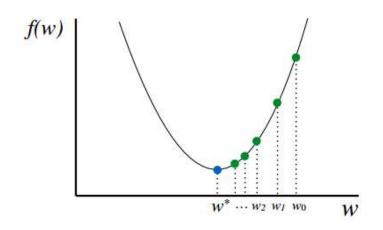
Reading Materials



- http://www.deeplearningbook.org/contents/linear_algebra.html
- http://www.stat.cmu.edu/~ryantibs/convexopt/lectures/stochastic-gd.pdf

Gradient Descent: Univariate

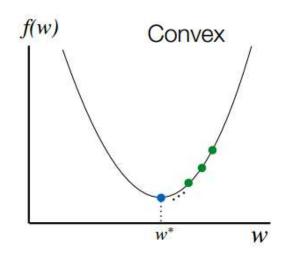


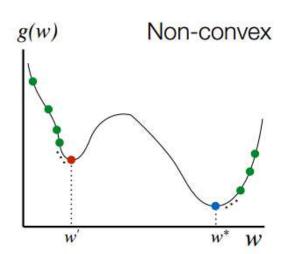


At a random point Start Repeat

- Determine a descent direction
- Choose a step size Choose
- Update

Until some criterion is satisfied

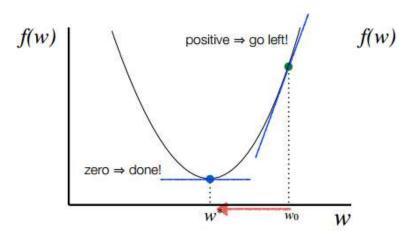


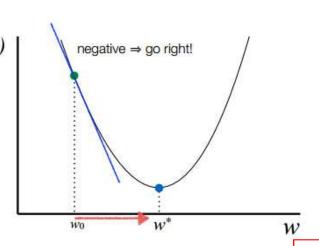


Gradient Descent: Univariate

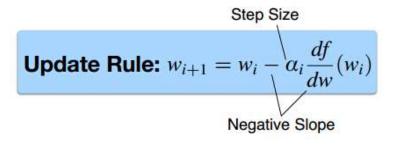


Choosing the descent direction



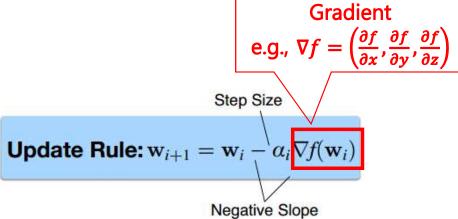


Update



Multivariate extension

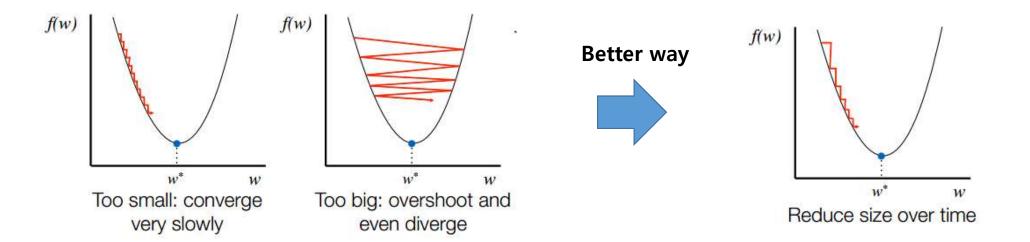




Gradient Descent: Univariate



Choosing the step size

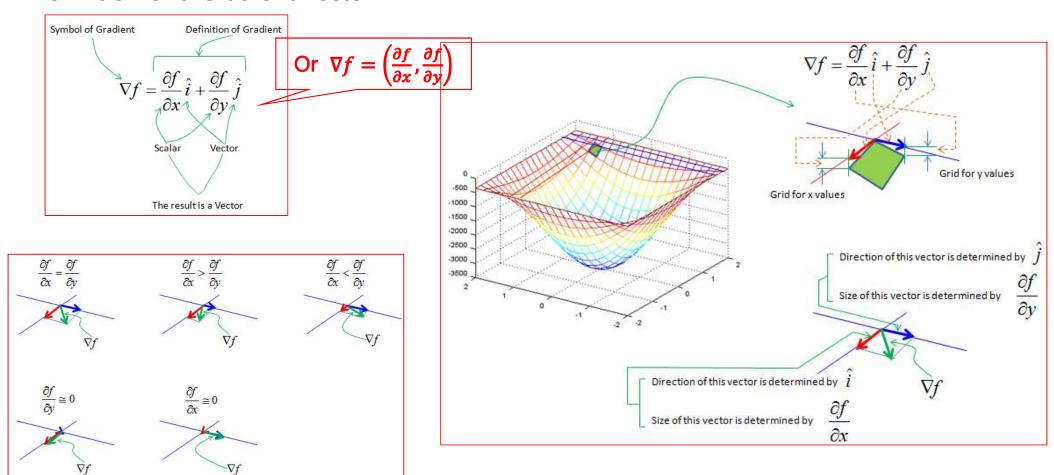


Gradient Descent: Multivariate



Definition of a Gradient vector

*Fig. from http://www.sharetechnote.com/html/Calculus_Gradient.html



Gradient Descent: Multivariate



- Consider a 3-D function: T(x, y, z)
- Gradient vector is defined by: $grad T \equiv \left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial T}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial T}{\partial z}\right)$.
- By the chain rule:

$$dT = \frac{\partial T}{\partial x} dx + \frac{\partial T}{\partial y} dy + \frac{\partial T}{\partial z} dz.$$

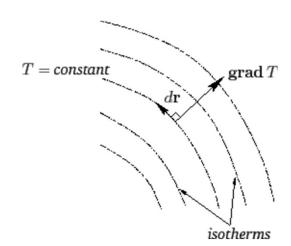
$$d\mathbf{r} \equiv (dx, dy, dz)$$



$$dT = \textbf{grad}\,T\cdot d\textbf{r}.$$

■ Suppose that dT=0 for some dr:

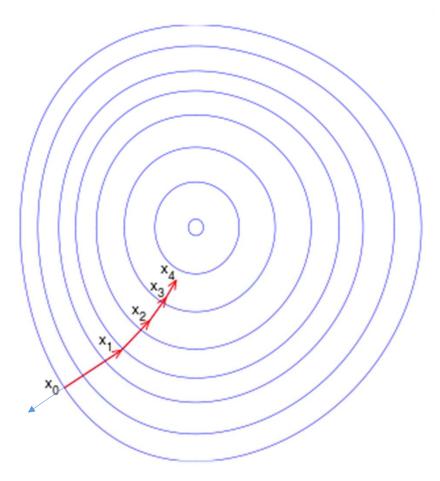
$$dT = \mathbf{grad} \, T \cdot d\mathbf{r} = 0.$$



Gradient Descent: Multivariate

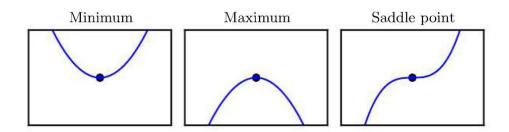


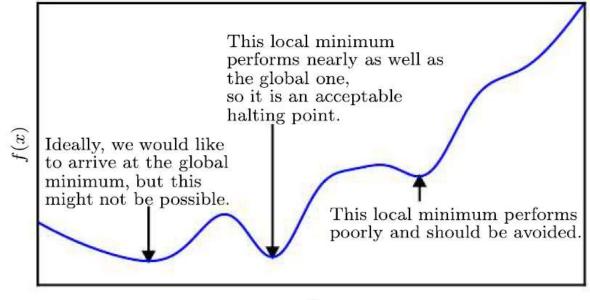
Illustration of gradient vectors and contours



Limitations of Gradient Descent







 \boldsymbol{x}

Second Derivation Method: Gradient Descent



- Directional derivative in direction "u" (unit vector)
 - > Slope of the function f in direction **u**

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} f(\boldsymbol{x} + \alpha \boldsymbol{u})$$

> By the chain rule:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} f(\boldsymbol{x} + \alpha \boldsymbol{u})$$



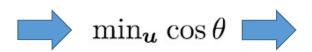
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} f(\boldsymbol{x} + \alpha \boldsymbol{u})$$
 $\boldsymbol{u}^{\top} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} f(\boldsymbol{x}) \text{ when } \alpha = 0$

■ We find the unit vector "u" such that the directional derivative is minimized → for steepest descent

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{u},\boldsymbol{u}^{\top}\boldsymbol{u}=1}\boldsymbol{u}^{\top}\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}}f(\boldsymbol{x})$$

$$= \min_{\boldsymbol{u}, \boldsymbol{u}^{\top} \boldsymbol{u} = 1} ||\boldsymbol{u}||_2 ||\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} f(\boldsymbol{x})||_2 \cos \theta$$

where θ is the angle between \boldsymbol{u} and the gradient



Solution: vector u should be in the opposite direction of the Gradient

Second Derivation Method: Gradient Descent



Steepest descent update

$$oldsymbol{x}' = oldsymbol{x} - \epsilon
abla_{oldsymbol{x}} f(oldsymbol{x})$$
 Learning rate or Step size

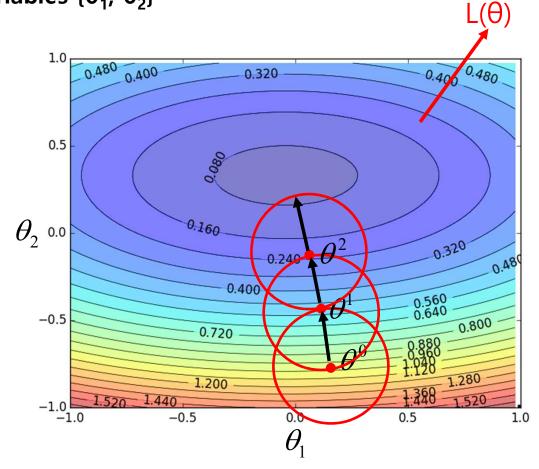
Analytical discussion on choosing the step size

➤ Read "4.3.1 Beyond the Gradient: Jacobian and Hessian Matrices"



• Suppose that θ has two variables $\{\theta_1, \theta_2\}$

Given a point, we want to find the point with the smallest value nearby.





Multivariate Taylor series

$$h(x,y) = h(x_0, y_0) + \frac{\partial h(x_0, y_0)}{\partial x} (x - x_0) + \frac{\partial h(x_0, y_0)}{\partial y} (y - y_0)$$

+ something related to $(x-x_0)^2$ and $(y-y_0)^2$

+

When x and y are close to x_0 and y_0



$$h(x,y) \approx h(x_0,y_0) + \frac{\partial h(x_0,y_0)}{\partial x} (x - x_0) + \frac{\partial h(x_0,y_0)}{\partial y} (y - y_0)$$



Based on Taylor Series:

If the red circle is *small enough*, in the red circle

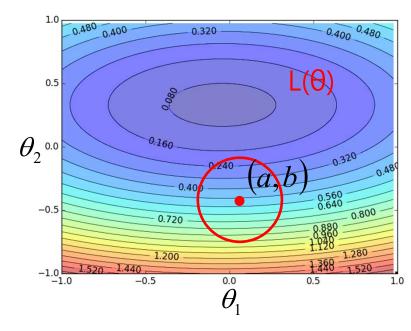
$$L(\theta) \approx L(a,b) + \frac{\partial L(a,b)}{\partial \theta_1} (\theta_1 - a) + \frac{\partial L(a,b)}{\partial \theta_2} (\theta_2 - b)$$

$$s = L(a,b)$$

$$u = \frac{\partial L(a,b)}{\partial \theta_1}, v = \frac{\partial L(a,b)}{\partial \theta_2} \qquad \theta_2^{0.5}$$

$$L(\theta)$$

$$\approx s + u(\theta_1 - a) + v(\theta_2 - b)$$





Based on Taylor Series:

If the red circle is **small enough**, in the red circle s = L(a,b)

$$L(\theta) \approx s + u(\theta_1 - a) + v(\theta_2 - b)$$

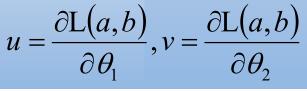
Find θ_1 and θ_2 in the red circl

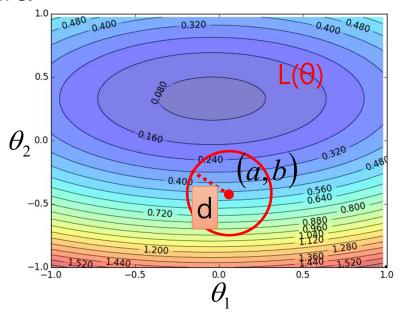
e *minimizing* $L(\theta)$

$$(\theta_1 - a)^2 + (\theta_2 - b)^2 \le d^2$$

constant

$$s = L(a,b)$$







Red Circle:(If the radius is small)

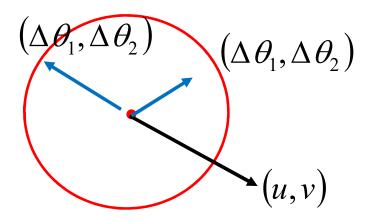
$$L(\theta) \approx s + u(\underline{\theta_1 - a}) + v(\underline{\theta_2 - b})$$

$$\Delta \theta_1 \qquad \Delta \theta_2 \qquad (\Delta \theta_1, \Delta \theta_2)$$
Find θ_1 and θ_2 in the rad sirely

Find θ_1 and θ_2 in the red circle $\boldsymbol{minimizing} L(\theta)$

$$\frac{\left(\underline{\theta_1} - a\right)^2 + \left(\underline{\theta_2} - b\right)^2 \le d^2}{\Delta \theta_1}$$

$$\Delta \theta_2$$



To minimize $L(\theta)$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \Delta \theta_1 \\ \Delta \theta_2 \end{bmatrix} = -\eta \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} \quad \longrightarrow \quad \begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} - \eta \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix}$$



Based on Taylor Series:

If the red circle is **small enough**, in the red circle s = L(a,b)

$$L(\theta) \approx s + u(\theta_1 - a) + v(\theta_2 - b)$$

$$L(\theta) \approx s + u(\theta_1 - a) + v(\theta_2 - b)$$

$$u = \frac{\partial L(a, b)}{\partial \theta_1}, v = \frac{\partial L(a, b)}{\partial \theta_2}$$

Find θ_1 and θ_2 yielding the smallest value of $L(\theta)$ in the circle

circle
$$\begin{bmatrix} \theta_1 \\ \theta_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} - \eta \begin{bmatrix} u \\ v \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} - \eta \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial L(a,b)}{\partial \theta_1} \\ \frac{\partial L(a,b)}{\partial \theta_2} \end{bmatrix}$$
 This is gradient descent.

Not satisfied if the red circle (learning rate) is not small enough You can consider the second order term, e.g. Newton's method.

Stochastic Gradient Descent



Consider minimizing an average of functions

$$\min_{x} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} f_i(x)$$

Gradient descent would repeat

$$x^{(k)} = x^{(k-1)} - t_k \cdot \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \nabla f_i(x^{(k-1)}), \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

■ In Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) (a.k.a. incremental gradient descent)

$$x^{(k)} = x^{(k-1)} - t_k \cdot \nabla f_{i_k}(x^{(k-1)}), \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

where $i_k \in \{1, \dots, m\}$ is some chosen index at iteration k

Stochastic Gradient Descent



- Two rules for choosing *i*_k at iteration *k*:
 - \triangleright Randomized rule: choose i_k from {1, ..., m} uniformly at random
 - \triangleright Cyclic rule: choose $i_k=1, 2, ..., m, 1, 2, ..., m, ...$

Main appeal of SGD

- \triangleright Iteration cost is independent of m, the number of functions
- > Can also be a big savings in terms of memory usage

Stochastic Gradient Descent

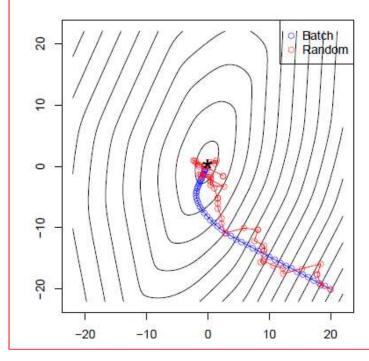


Given $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^p \times \{0, 1\}$, i = 1, ..., n, recall logistic regression:

$$\min_{\beta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \underbrace{\left(-y_i x_i^T \beta + \log(1 + \exp(x_i^T \beta))\right)}_{f_i(\beta)}$$

Standard in SGD is to use diminishing step sizes, e.g., $t_k=1/k$

Small example with n=10, p=2 to show the "classic picture" for batch versus stochastic methods:



Blue: batch steps, O(np)Red: stochastic steps, O(p)

Rule of thumb for stochastic methods:

- generally thrive far from optimum
- generally struggle close to optimum

Mini-Batches Stochastic Gradient Descent



• We choose a random subset $I_k \subseteq \{1, \dots, m\}$, $|I_k| = b \ll m$, to repeat

$$x^{(k)} = x^{(k-1)} - t_k \cdot \frac{1}{b} \sum_{i \in I_k} \nabla f_i(x^{(k-1)}), \quad k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Example) Consider the problem

$$\min_{\beta} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(-y_i x_i^T \beta + \log(1 + e^{x_i^T \beta}) \right) + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|\beta\|_2^2$$

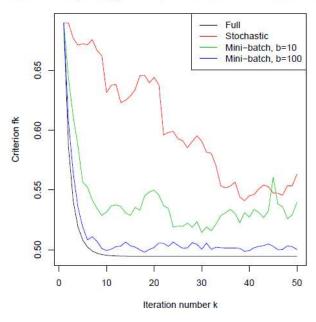
Full gradient computation is $\nabla f(\beta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - p_i(\beta)) x_i + \lambda \beta$. Comparison between methods:

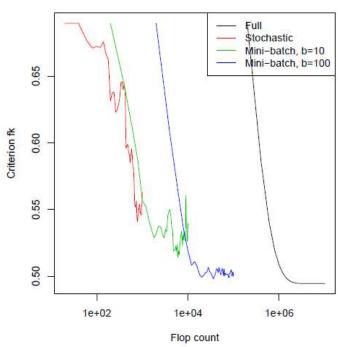
- One batch update costs O(np)
- One mini-batch update costs O(bp)
- One stochastic update costs O(p)

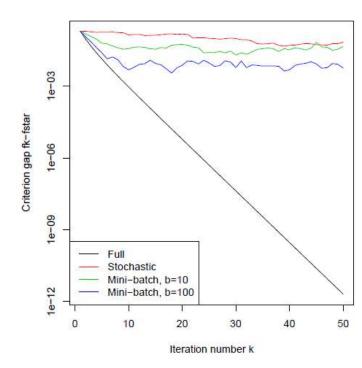
Comparison of Gradient Descent Methods



Example with n = 10,000, p = 20, all methods use fixed step sizes:







Read More About



- Constraint optimization and KKT conditions
- Numerical optimization methods
 - ➤ Genetic algorithm
 - ➤ Simulated annealing
 - ➤ Newton-Raphson method