CEE 616: Probabilistic Machine Learning Foundations: Optimization

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Thu, Sep 18, 2025

Outline

- Inroduction
- First-order methods
- Second-order methods
- 4 Application: MLE
- **5** Constrained optimization
- Outlook

Inroduction •00000

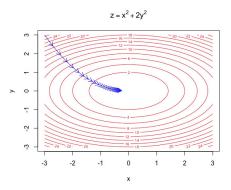
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Inroduction •00000

Optimization is the body of mathematics that deals with the theory and algorithms for characterizing the maximum/minimum values of functions.

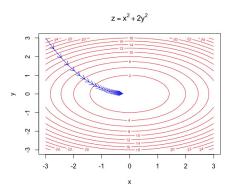
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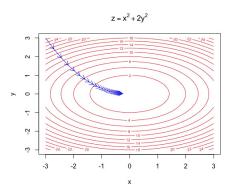
We will consider two widely-used approaches in machine learning:

First-order methods Second-order methods Application: MLE Constrained optimization Outlool

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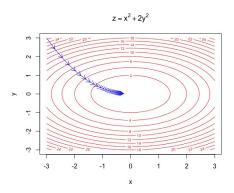


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• First-order methods (e.g. gradient descent)

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We will consider two widely-used approaches in machine learning:

- First-order methods (e.g. gradient descent)
- Second-order methods (e.g. Newton's method)

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Inroduction

• Minimum of convex function



Inroduction

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Inroduction

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Second-order derivative:



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Optimality conditions

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Optimality conditions

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General approach



Optimality conditions

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Optimality conditions

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General approach

- ullet Begin with an initial value $oldsymbol{ heta}_0$
- At each iteration t, update $heta_{t+1}$
- Terminate when $\mathcal{L}(\theta_{t+1}) \mathcal{L}(\theta_t) = \epsilon$

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Quadratic form

Given $f(x) = x^{\top} A x$:

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Quadratic form

Given $f(x) = x^{\top} Ax$:

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Inroduction

Given a convex function $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$, $\mathbf{g} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a subgradient of f at $\mathbf{x} \in \text{dom}(f)$ if:

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Subdifferential of ReLU

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Its subdifferential is:

$$\partial \mathsf{ReLU}(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z < 0\\ [0,1] & \text{if } z = 0\\ 1 & \text{if } z > 0 \end{cases} \tag{10}$$

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The classic first-order method is gradient descent

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A vector d is considered a descent direction if a nonzero step size ρ moved in its direction yields a decrease in the objective:

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The direction of steepest descent is given by the negative gradient:

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$$-\mathbf{g}_t = -\nabla \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t) \tag{13}$$

Descent direction

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The choice of step size impacts the convergence of an optimization routine. It determines how far along in the descent direction the variable is updated at each step.

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- Adaptive step size: ρ_t is modified at each iteration to satisfy certain conditions (e.g. line search methods)
- Sequence $\{\rho_t\}$ in an optimization algorithm is known as the learning rate schedule

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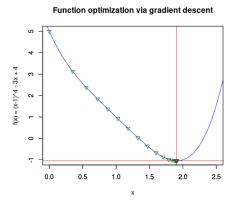
$$f'(x) = 4(x-1)^3 - 3$$

 $x_{k+1} = x_k - \lambda [4(x_k - 1)^3 - 3]$

We choose $\lambda = 0.05$ and a random starting point between 0 and 1.

Example: Gradient descent (cont.)

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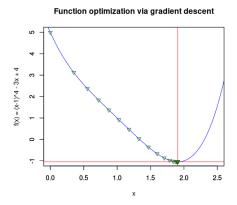


Using the gradient-descent.ipynb notebook, we find the optimal point as (1.908, -1.044).

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First-order methods Second-order methods Application: MLE Constrained optimization Outlook 0000 0000 0000 000 000 000

Example: Gradient descent (cont.)



Using the gradient-descent.ipynb notebook, we find the optimal point as (1.908, -1.044). How does the learning rate impact the solution process?

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Finds optimal ρ_t by:

$$\rho_t^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{\rho > 0} \phi_t(\rho)$$

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Finds optimal ρ_t by:

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This approach introduces additional computational expense

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where $c \in [0,1]$ is typically chosen as 10^{-4}

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Momentum

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Momentum

Momentum methods are used to improve convergence.



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In the Nesterov method, the momentum update computes the gradient at the new location, which can speed up convergence:

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This method is also called **Nesterov accelerated gradient**

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• Finite sum: $\mathcal{L}(\theta_t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}_n(\theta_t)$

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 (27)

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Taylor-expand $\mathcal{L}(\theta)$ around θ_t :

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Thus, we set the descent diretion d_t as $-H_t^{-1}g_t$

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BFGS

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 $Broyden-Fletcher-Gold farb-Shanno\ method.$



Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno method. Approximates $extbf{\emph{H}}_t pprox extbf{\emph{B}}_t$:

$$\boldsymbol{B}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{B}_t + \frac{\boldsymbol{y}_t \boldsymbol{y}_t^{\top}}{\boldsymbol{y}_t^{\top} \boldsymbol{s}_t} - \frac{(\boldsymbol{B}_t \boldsymbol{s}_t)(\boldsymbol{B}_t \boldsymbol{s}_t)^{\top}}{\boldsymbol{s}_t^{\top} \boldsymbol{B}_t \boldsymbol{s}_t}$$
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$$\mathbf{s}_t = \boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \boldsymbol{\theta}_{t-1} \tag{33}$$

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- B_0 is typically intialized as I (positive definite)
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- **B**₀ is typically intialized as **I** (positive definite)
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Broyden-Fletcher-Goldfarb-Shanno method. Approximates $extbf{\emph{H}}_t pprox extbf{\emph{B}}_t$:

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BFGS

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- The update can be reduced to a recurrence relation that depends explicitly on C_0 and the history of s_t and y_t
- ullet For computational efficiency, the M most recent $oldsymbol{s}_t, \, oldsymbol{y}_t$ may be used instead
- M is typically $\in [5, 20]$
- This approach is termed L-BFGS (limited memory BFGS)

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$$L(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n; \theta)$$

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And the MLE's would be found by simultaneously solving the partial derivatives set to 0 for each parameter.

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The log-likelihood function for the binomial logistic regression case is

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The log-likelihood function for the binomial logistic regression case is

$$\ell(\beta) = \sum_{i} \left[y_i \left(\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i \right) - \log \left(1 + e^{\beta_0 + \beta_1 x_i} \right) \right] \tag{41}$$

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Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) in logistic regression

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We can use either Newton-Raphson or gradient ascent to maximize ℓ .

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Because the log-likelihood is *concave*, and thus a *maximization* problem, we *ascend* the function and thus *add* the scaled derivative.

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- As we can see, the gradient ascent method does not require a second derivative
- However, it may require more iterations to converge than Newton-Raphson

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$$\beta_{k+1} = \beta_k - \mathbf{H}_{\beta_k}^{-1}(\ell) \nabla_{\beta_k} \ell(\beta_k)$$
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We can work out each component of the second derivative:

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The complete update can then be shown as:

We can work out each component of the second derivative:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta_0^2} = -\sum_i p(x_i)(1 - p(x_i)) \tag{48}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta_0 \beta_1} = -\sum_i x_i p(x_i) (1 - p(x_i)) \tag{49}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta_1^2} = -\sum_i x_i^2 p(x_i) (1 - p(x_i))$$
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The complete update can then be shown as:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0,k+1} \\ \beta_{1,k+1} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \beta_{0,k} \\ \beta_{1,k} \end{pmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta_0^2} & \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta_0 \partial \beta_1} \\ \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta_1 \partial \beta_0} & \frac{\partial^2 \ell(\beta)}{\partial \beta_1^2} \end{pmatrix}^{-1} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \beta_0} \\ \frac{\partial \ell}{\partial \beta_1} \end{pmatrix} \right]_{\beta_k}$$
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Deals with problems where we seek to minimize an objective:



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$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta} \in \mathcal{C}} \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \tag{53}$$

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where:

- C: constraint/feasible set
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$$\mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}, \lambda) := \mathcal{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) + \sum_{j=1}^{m} \lambda_{j} h_{j}(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$
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- Stationarity of solution: $\nabla_{\theta,\mu,\lambda} L = \mathbf{0}$
- Dual feasibility: $\mu > 0$

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When \mathcal{L} and g are convex, then the KKT conditions are necessary and sufficient for global optimality:

- Feasibility: constraints satisfied
- Stationarity of solution: $\nabla_{\theta,\mu,\lambda} L = \mathbf{0}$
- Dual feasibility: $\mu \geq \mathbf{0}$
- Complementary slackness: $\mu \odot \mathbf{g} = \mathbf{0}$

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Further topics

Some to be covered in Advanced Probabilistic ML:



Outlook

Further topics

Some to be covered in Advanced Probabilistic ML:

- Linear programming (simplex algorithm)
- Quadratic programming
- Proximal gradient method
- Bound optimization (majorize-minimize algorithms)
- Expectation maximization (EM); for MLE/MAP estimation

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Reading assignments

- PMLI 8
- PMLCE 5

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