An introduction to optimization for machine learning

Rodolphe Le Riche¹, Dédji Brian Whannou², Espéran Padonou³

¹ CNRS LIMOS at Mines Saint-Etienne, France

² KPMG France

³ Fondation Vallet

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Course outline

An introduction to optimization for machine learning

- Introduction
 - Objectives, acknoledgements
 - Optimization problem formulation
 - Examples of optimization usages
 - Basic mathematical concepts for optimization
- Steepest descent algorithm
 - Fixed step steepest descent algorithm
 - Line search
- Improved gradient based searches
 - Search directions for acceleration
 - A word on constraints
 - Making it more global: restarts
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Objectives of this course

- Provides basic concepts for numerical optimization
- for an audience interested in machine learning
- with a background corresponding to 1 year after high school
- through examples coded in R/python from scratch.
- Limitation: the algorithms are not exactly those used in state-of-the-art deep learning, but the main concepts will be presented.

Bibliographical references for the class

This course is based on

- [Ravikumar and Singh, 2017] : a detailed up-to-date presentation of the main convex optimization algorithms for machine learning (level end of undergraduate, bac +3)
- [Minoux, 2008]: a classic textbook for optimization, written before the ML trend but still useful (level end of undergraduate / bac+3)
- [Bishop, 2006]: a reference book for machine learning with some pages on optimization (level end of undergraduate / bac+3)
- [Schmidt et al., 2007] : L1 regularization techniques (research article)
- [Sun, 2019]: review of optimization methods for tuning neural nets, gradient backpropagation (research article)

The content of these references will be simplified for this class.

Optimization = a quantitative formulation of decision

Optimization is a¹ way of mathematically modeling decision.

$$\min_{x \in \mathcal{S}} f(x)$$



- x vector of decision parameters (variables):
 dimensions, investment, tuning of a
 machine / program, . . .
 - f(x): decision cost x
 - $oldsymbol{\circ}$ ${\mathcal S}$: set of possible values for x, search space

¹non unique, incomplete when considering human beings_or life → ◆ ≥ → ∞ 0

Optimization example: design

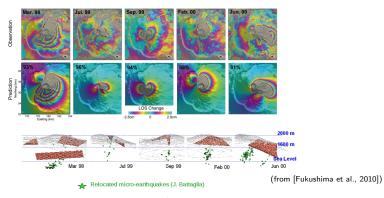


(from [Sgueglia et al., 2018])

x= aircraft parameters (here distributed electrical propulsion) $f()=-1\times$ performance metric (agregation of $-1\times$ range, cost, take-off length, ...)

At the minimum, the design is "optimal".

Optimization example: model identification



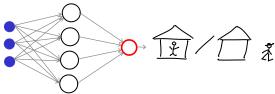
x = dike position, geometry, internal pressure

f()= distance between measures (from RADARSAT-1 satellite) and model (boundary elements, non trivial computation)

At the minimum, the model best matches measurements and should correspond to the underground phenomenon.

Optimization example: neural net classification

Predict if a person stays at home or goes out based on longitude, latitude and temperature = a 2 classes classification problem.



x = neural network (NN) weights and biases f() = an error of the NN predictions (a cross-entropy error):

- ullet e entries: e_1 longitude, e_2 latitude, e_3 temperature
- t = 1 if person stays, t = 0 otherwise
- Observed data set: (e^i, t^i) , i = 1, ..., N
- y(e; x): output of the NN, the probability that t(e) = 1
- $f(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} \{t^{i} \log(y(e^{i}; x)) + (1 t^{i}) \log(1 y(e^{i}; x))\}$

(a word on the classification cross-entropy error)

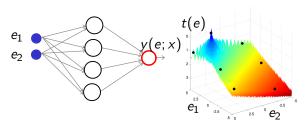
- View the relationship between the entry e and the class t as probabilistic (generalizes deterministic functions): t(e) is a Bernoulli variable with a given probability that t(e) = 1
- The NN models this probability: y(e;x) is the probability that t(e) = 1, 1 - y(e; x) is the probat hat t(e) = 0, 0 < v(e; x) < 1.
- The probability of t knowing e can be written $v(e;x)^{t} + (1-v(e;x))^{1-t}$
- The likelihood of the N i.i.d observations is $\prod_{i=1}^{N} \left[y(e^{i}; x)^{t^{i}} + (1 - y(e^{i}; x))^{1-t^{i}} \right]$, to be maximized
- The likelihood is turned into an error, to be minimized, by taking log(likelihood),

$$f(x) = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} \{t^{i} \log(y(e^{i}; x)) + (1 - t^{i}) \log(1 - y(e^{i}; x))\}$$

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Optimization example: neural net regression

learn a function from a discrete limited set of observations



x = neural network (NN) weights and biases f() = an error of the NN predictions (sum-of-squares error):

- \bullet e entries, t(e) target function to learn
- observed data set, "." : (e^i, t^i) , i = 1, ..., N
- y(e; x): output of the NN, the expected value of t(e)
- $f(x) = 1/2 \sum_{i=1}^{N} (t^{i} y(e^{i}; x))^{2}$



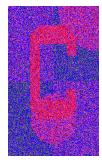
Optimization example: image denoising

$$\min_{x} f(x) \quad , \quad f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{pixels}}} (y_i - x_i)^2 + \lambda \sum_{i=1}^{N_{\text{pixels}}} \sum_{j \text{ near } i} |x_i - x_j|$$

 $\lambda > 0$ regularization constant



target image



noisy (observed)





denoised (optimized)

 $= x^*$

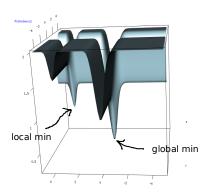
Basic mathematical concepts for optimization

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Local versus global optimum

$$\min_{x \in \mathcal{S} \subset \mathbb{R}^d} f(x)$$



R code to generate the plot given in the project folder



Gradient of a function

Gradient of a function = direction of steepest ascent = vector of partial derivatives

$$\nabla f(x) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(x) \\ \dots \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d}(x) \end{pmatrix}$$

Numerical approximation of the gradient

By forward finite differences

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}f(x) \approx \frac{f(x + he^i) - f(x)}{h}$$

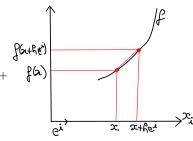
Proof: by Taylor,

$$f(x + he^{i}) = f(x) + he^{i} \nabla f(x) + h^{2}/2e^{i} \nabla^{2}f(x + he^{i})$$

$$ho he^i)e^i$$
 , $ho \in]0,1[$

$$\nabla f(x) = \frac{f(x+he^i) - f(x)}{h} - h/2e^{i} \nabla^2 f(x+\rho he^i)e^i$$

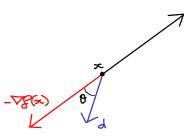
and make h very small \square



Other (better but more difficult to implement) schemes: central differences, automatic differentiation (e.g., in TensorFlow or PyTorch), (semi-)analytic differentiation (e.g., backpropagation in NN).

Descent direction

A search direction d which makes an acute angle with $-\nabla f(x)$ is a descent direction, i.e., for a small enough step f is guaranteed to de-



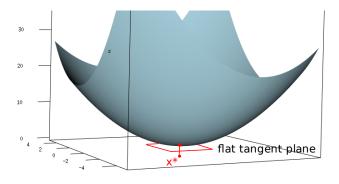
Proof: by Taylor,
$$\forall \alpha \leq 0$$
, $\exists \epsilon \in [0,1]$ such that $f(x + \alpha d) = f(x) + \alpha d^{\top} \nabla f(x) + \frac{\alpha^2}{2} d^{\top} \nabla^2 f(x + \alpha \epsilon d) d$ $\lim_{\alpha \to 0^+} \frac{f(x + \alpha d) - f(x)}{\alpha} = d^{\top} \nabla f(x) = -1 \times \|\nabla f(x)\| \cos(d, -\nabla f(x))$ is negative if the cosine is positive \Box

Necessary optimality condition (1)

y

A necessary condition for a differentiable function to have a minimum at x^* is that it is flat at this point, i.e., its gradient is null

$$x^{\star} \in \arg\min_{x \in \mathcal{S}} f(x) \Rightarrow \nabla f(x^{\star}) = 0$$

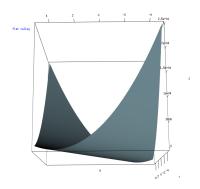


Necessary optimality condition (2)



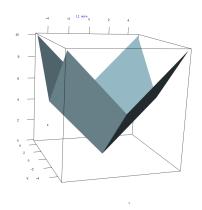
necessary is not sufficient (works with a max)

Necessary optimality condition (3)



 $\nabla f(x^*) = 0$ does not make x^* unique (flat valley)

Necessary optimality condition (4)



 $\nabla f()$ not defined everywhere, example with L1 norm $=\sum_{i=1}^{d} |x_i|$

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Optimizers as iterative algorithms

We look for
$$x^* \in \arg\min_{x \in \mathcal{S}} f(x)$$
 , $\mathcal{S} = \mathbb{R}^d$

- Except for special cases (e.g., convex quadratic problems), the solution is not obtained analytically through the optimality conditions ($\nabla f(x^*) = 0$ + higher order conditions).
- We typically use iterative algorithms: x^{i+1} depends on previous iterates, x^1, \ldots, x^i and their f's.
- Often calculating $f(x^i)$ takes more computation than the optimization algorithm itself.
- Qualities of an optimizer: robustness, speed of convergence.
 Often have to strike a compromise between them.



Fixed step steepest descent algorithm (1)

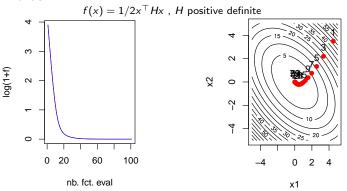
Repeat steps along the steepest descent direction, $-\nabla f(x^t)$. The size of the steps is proportional to the gradient norm.

```
Require: f(), \alpha \in ]0,1], x^1, \epsilon^{\text{step}}, \epsilon^{\text{grad}}, i^{\text{max}}
   i \leftarrow 0. f^{\text{best so far}} \leftarrow \text{max\_double}
    repeat
        i \leftarrow i + 1
        calculate f(x^i) and \nabla f(x^i)
       if f(x^i) < f^{\text{best so far}} then
           update x^{\text{best so far}} and f^{\text{best so far}} with current iterate
        end if
        direction: d^i = -\nabla f(x^i)/\|\nabla f(x^i)\|
        step: x^{i+1} = x^i + \alpha \|\nabla f(x^i)\| d^i
   until i > i^{\max} or ||x^i - x^{i-1}|| < \epsilon^{\text{step}} or ||\nabla f(x^i)|| < \epsilon^{\text{grad}}
   return x^{\text{best so far}} and f^{\text{best so far}}
```

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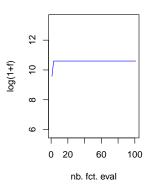
Fixed step steepest descent algorithm (2)

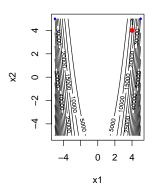
- The choice of the step size factor α is critical: the steeper the function, the smaller α . Default value = 0.1
- The true code (cf. project) is much longer and filled with instructions for reporting the points visited and doing plots afterwards.



Fixed step steepest descent algorithm (3)

 $\alpha=0.1$ on f(x)= Rosenbrock (banana shaped) function in d=2 dimensions, example of divergence:





Descent with line search

At each iteration, search for the best step size in the descent² direction d^i (which for now is $-\nabla f(x^i)/\|\nabla f(x^i)\|$ but it is general). Same algorithm as before, just change the **step** instruction:

```
Require: ...
  initializations but no \alpha now ...
  repeat
     increment i, calculate f(x^i) and \nabla f(x^i) ...
     direction: d^i = -\nabla f(x^i)/\|\nabla f(x^i)\| or any other descent
     direction
     step: \alpha^i = \arg\min_{\alpha>0} f(x^i + \alpha d^i)
                x^{i+1} = x^i + \alpha^i d^i
  until stopping criteria
  return best so far
```

²if d^i is not a descent direction, $-d^i$ is. Proof left as exercise.

Approximate line search (1)

Notation: during line search i,

$$x = x^{i} + \alpha d^{i}$$

$$f(\alpha) = f(x^{i} + \alpha d^{i})$$

$$\frac{df(0)}{d\alpha} = \sum_{j=1}^{d} \frac{\partial f(x^{i})}{\partial x_{j}} \frac{\partial x_{j}}{\partial \alpha} = \sum_{j=1}^{d} \frac{\partial f(x^{i})}{\partial x_{j}} d_{j}^{i} = \nabla f(x^{i})^{T} d^{i}$$

In practice, perfectly optimizing for α^i is too expensive and not useful \Rightarrow approximate the line search by a sufficient decrease condition:

find
$$\alpha^i$$
 such that $f(x^i + \alpha^i d^i) < f(x^i) + \delta \alpha^i \nabla f(x^i)^\top d^i$

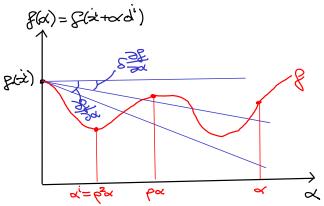
where $\delta \in [0,1],$ i.e., achieve a δ proportion of the progress promised by order 1 Taylor expansion.

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Approximate line search (2)

Sufficient decrease condition rewritten with line search notation:

find
$$\alpha^i$$
 such that $f(\alpha^i) < f(x^i) + \delta \alpha^i \frac{df(0)}{d\alpha}$



Approximate line search (3)

At iteration *i*:

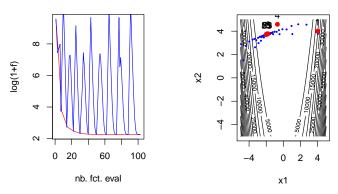
Backtracking line search (Armijo)

```
Require: d a descent direction, x^i, \delta \in [0,1], \rho \in ]0,1[, C>0 (defaults: \delta=0.1, \rho=0.5, C=1) initialize step size: \alpha=\max(C\times\|\nabla f(x^i)\|, \sqrt{d}/100) while f(x^i+\alpha d^i)\geq f(x)+\delta\alpha\nabla f(x^i)^\top d do decrease step size: \alpha\leftarrow\rho\times\alpha end while return \alpha^i\leftarrow\alpha
```

Note: from now on, use line search, and the number of calls to f is no longer equal to the iteration number since many function calls can be done during a line search within a single iteration.

Approximate line search (4)

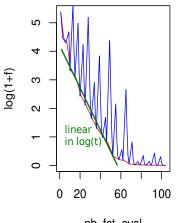
Look at what line search does to f(x) = Rosenbrock where fixed step size diverged



Better, but not perfect: oscillations make progress very slow.

Gradient convergence speed

 $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^{T}Hx$ in d = 10 dimensions, $H \ge 0$, not aligned with the axes, condition number = 10.



nb. fct. eval

Empirically (for proofs and more info cf. [Ravikumar and Singh, 2017]): on convex and differentiable functions, gradient search with line search progresses at a speed such that $f(x^t) \propto \xi \gamma^t$ where $\gamma \in [0,1[$. Equivalently, to achieve $f(x^t) < \varepsilon, \ t > \mathcal{O}(\log(1/\varepsilon))$

 $\log f(x^t) \propto t \log(\gamma) + \log(\xi) \implies \log(\gamma) < 0$ slope of the green curve.

$$\begin{split} \xi \gamma^t &< \varepsilon \Leftrightarrow t > \frac{\log(\varepsilon) - \log(\xi)}{\log(\gamma)} = \frac{-1}{\log(\gamma)} \log(\xi/\varepsilon) \\ \Rightarrow & t > \mathcal{O}(\log(1/\varepsilon)) \; . \end{split}$$

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Gradient with momentum

(work in progress)

Nesterov accelerated gradient (NAG)

(work in progress)

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Bound constraints

(work in progress)

Constraints handling by penalization

(work in progress)

Comments on gradient based descent algorithms

(work in progress) flaws: no convergence on nondifferentiable functions, gets trapped in local minima

Restarted local searches

(work in progress) (make a simple flow chart)

Conclusions

- L'optimisation numérique est une technique fondamentale associée à la décision optimale et à la modélisation statistique (machine learning).
- Avec l'enthousiasme autour du machine learning, de nombreux algorithmes ont été conçus que nous n'avons pas couverts ici: l'optimisation bayésienne (Bayesian optimization) pour le réglage des hyper-paramètres (paramètres de régularisation, nombre de couches du réseau de neurone, type de neurones, paramètres de l'algorithme d'optimisation des poids).

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