Optimization in Machine Learning

Mathematical Concepts Differentiation and Derivatives





Learning goals

- Definition of smoothness
- Uni- & multivariate differentiation
- Gradient, partial derivatives
- Jacobian matrix
- Hessian matrix
- Lipschitz continuity

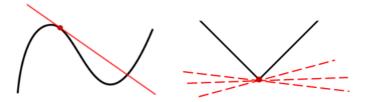


UNIVARIATE DIFFERENTIABILITY

Definition: A function $f: \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is said to be **differentiable** for each inner point $x \in \mathcal{S}$ if the following limit exists:

$$f'(x) := \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

Intuitively: f can be approxed locally by a lin. fun. with slope m = f'(x).

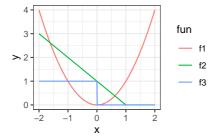


Left: Function is differentiable everywhere. **Right:** Not differentiable at the red point.



SMOOTH VS. NON-SMOOTH

- **Smoothness** of a function $f: \mathcal{S} \to \mathbb{R}$ is measured by the number of its continuous derivatives
- C^k is class of k-times continuously differentiable functions $(f \in C^k \text{ means } f^{(k)} \text{ exists and is continuous})$
- In this lecture, we call f "smooth", if at least $f \in C^1$



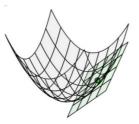
 f_1 is smooth, f_2 is continuous but not differentiable, and f_3 is non-continuous.



MULTIVARIATE DIFFERENTIABILITY

Definition: $f: \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is **differentiable** in $\mathbf{x} \in \mathcal{S}$ if there exists a (continuous) linear map $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}): \mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^d$ with

$$\lim_{\boldsymbol{h}\to 0}\frac{f(\mathbf{x}+\boldsymbol{h})-f(\mathbf{x})-\nabla f(\mathbf{x})^T\cdot\boldsymbol{h}}{||\boldsymbol{h}||}=0$$





Source: https://github.com/jermwatt/machine_learning_refined.



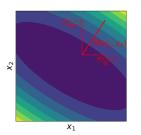
GRADIENT

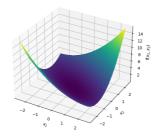
• Linear approximation is given by the **gradient**:

$$\nabla f = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} \boldsymbol{e}_1 + \dots + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d} \boldsymbol{e}_d = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_d}\right)^T$$

- Elements of the gradient are called partial derivatives.
- To compute $\partial f/\partial x_i$, regard f as function of x_i only (others fixed)

Example:
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = x_1^2/2 + x_1x_2 + x_2^2 \Rightarrow \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1 + x_2, x_1 + 2x_2)^T$$







DIRECTIONAL DERIVATIVE

The **directional derivative** tells how fast $f: S \to \mathbb{R}$ is changing w.r.t. an arbitrary direction \mathbf{v} :

$$D_{\mathbf{v}}f(\mathbf{x}) := \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(\mathbf{x} + h\mathbf{v}) - f(\mathbf{x})}{h} = \nabla f(\mathbf{x})^T \cdot \mathbf{v}.$$

Example: The directional derivative for $\mathbf{v} = (1, 1)$ is:

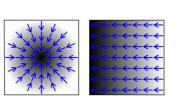
$$D_{\mathbf{v}}f(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x})^T \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_2}$$

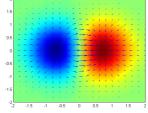
NB: Some people require that $||\mathbf{v}|| = 1$. Then, we can identify $D_{\mathbf{v}}f(\mathbf{x})$ with the instantaneous rate of change in direction \mathbf{v} – and in our example we would have to divide by $\sqrt{2}$.



PROPERTIES OF THE GRADIENT

- Orthogonal to level curves/surfaces of a function
- Points in direction of greatest increase of f





Proof: Let \mathbf{v} be a vector with $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$ and θ the angle between \mathbf{v} and $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$.

$$D_{\mathbf{v}}f(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{v} = \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\| \|\mathbf{v}\| \cos(\theta) = \|\nabla f(\mathbf{x})\| \cos(\theta)$$

by the cosine formula for dot products and $\|\mathbf{v}\| = 1$. $\cos(\theta)$ is maximal if $\theta = 0$, hence if \mathbf{v} and $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ point in the same direction.

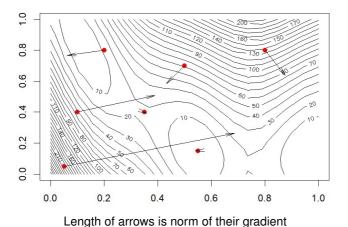
(Alternative proof: Apply Cauchy-Schwarz to $\nabla f(\mathbf{x})^T \mathbf{v}$ and look for equality.)

Analogous: Negative gradient $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x})$ points in direction of greatest *de*crease



PROPERTIES OF THE GRADIENT /2

Mod. Branin function with neg. grads.



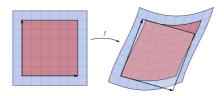
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JACOBIAN MATRIX

For vector-valued function $f = (f_1, \dots, f_m)^T$, $f_j : S \to \mathbb{R}$, the **Jacobian** matrix $J_f : S \to \mathbb{R}^{m \times d}$ generalizes gradient by placing all ∇f_j in its rows:

$$J_f(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \nabla f_1(\mathbf{x})^T \\ \vdots \\ \nabla f_m(\mathbf{x})^T \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial f_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_1(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_d} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial f_m(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_1} & \cdots & \frac{\partial f_m(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_d} \end{pmatrix}$$

Jacobian gives best linear approximation of distorted volumes



Source: Wikipedia



JACOBIAN DETERMINANT

Let $f \in \mathcal{C}^1$ and $\mathbf{x}_0 \in \mathcal{S}$.

Inverse function theorem: Let $\mathbf{y}_0 = f(\mathbf{x}_0)$. If $\det(J_f(\mathbf{x}_0)) \neq 0$, then

- f is invertible in a neighborhood of \mathbf{x}_0 ,
- 2 $f^{-1} \in \mathcal{C}^1$ with $J_{f^{-1}}(\mathbf{y}_0) = J_f(\mathbf{x}_0)^{-1}$.
- $|\det(J_f(\mathbf{x}_0))|$: factor by which f expands/shrinks volumes near \mathbf{x}_0
- If $det(J_f(\mathbf{x}_0)) > 0$, f preserves orientation near \mathbf{x}_0
- If $\det(J_f(\mathbf{x}_0)) < 0$, f reverses orientation near \mathbf{x}_0



HESSIAN MATRIX

For real-valued function $f: \mathcal{S} \to \mathbb{R}$, the **Hessian** matrix $H: \mathcal{S} \to \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ contains all their second derivatives (if they exist):

$$H(\mathbf{x}) = \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}) = \left(\frac{\partial^2 f(\mathbf{x})}{\partial x_i \partial x_j}\right)_{i,j=1,\dots,d}$$

Note: Hessian of f is Jacobian of ∇f

Example: Let $f(\mathbf{x}) = \sin(x_1) \cdot \cos(2x_2)$. Then:

$$H(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} -\cos(2x_2) \cdot \sin(x_1) & -2\cos(x_1) \cdot \sin(2x_2) \\ -2\cos(x_1) \cdot \sin(2x_2) & -4\cos(2x_2) \cdot \sin(x_1) \end{pmatrix}$$

- If $f \in C^2$, then H is symmetric
- Many local properties (geometry, convexity, critical points) are encoded by the Hessian and its spectrum (→ later)



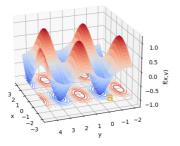
LOCAL CURVATURE BY HESSIAN

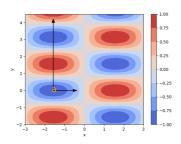
Eigenvector corresponding to largest (resp. smallest) **eigenvalue** of Hessian points in direction of largest (resp. smallest) **curvature**

Example (previous slide): For $\mathbf{a} = (-\pi/2, 0)^T$, we have

$$H(\mathbf{a}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 4 \end{pmatrix}$$

and thus $\lambda_1 = 4, \lambda_2 = 1, \mathbf{v}_1 = (0, 1)^T$, and $\mathbf{v}_2 = (1, 0)^T$.







LIPSCHITZ CONTINUITY

Function $h: S \to \mathbb{R}^m$ is **Lipschitz continuous** if slopes are bounded:

$$\|h(\mathbf{x}) - h(\mathbf{y})\| \le L\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{y}\|$$
 for each $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in \mathcal{S}$ and some $L > 0$

- **Examples** (d = m = 1): $\sin(x)$, |x|
- Not examples: 1/x (but *locally* Lipschitz continuous), \sqrt{x}
- If m = d and h differentiable:

h Lipschitz continuous with constant $L \iff J_h \preccurlyeq L \cdot I_d$

Note: $\mathbf{A} \preccurlyeq \mathbf{B} : \iff \mathbf{B} - \mathbf{A}$ is positive semidefinite, i.e., $\mathbf{v}^T (\mathbf{B} - \mathbf{A}) \mathbf{v} \geq 0 \ \forall \mathbf{v} \neq 0$

Proof of " \Rightarrow " for d = m = 1:

$$h'(x) = \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \frac{h(x+\epsilon) - h(x)}{\epsilon} \le \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} \left[\underbrace{\frac{h(x+\epsilon) - h(x)}{\epsilon}}_{\le L} \right] \le \lim_{\epsilon \to 0} L = L$$

[**Proof** of " \Leftarrow " by mean value theorem: Show that $\lambda_{\max}(J_h) \leq L$.]



LIPSCHITZ GRADIENTS

• Let $f \in C^2$. Since $\nabla^2 f$ is Jacobian of $h = \nabla f$ (m = d):

 ∇f Lipschitz continuous with constant $L \Longleftrightarrow \nabla^2 f \preccurlyeq L \cdot \mathbf{I}_d$

- Equivalently, eigenvalues of $\nabla^2 f$ are bounded by L
- Interpretation: Curvature in any direction is bounded by L
- Lipschitz gradients occur frequently in machine learning
 Fairly weak assumption
- Important for analysis of gradient descent optimization
 ⇒ Descent lemma (later)

