

# CSC 411 Tutorial: Optimization for Machine Learning

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September 19, 2016

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<sup>1</sup>Based on tutorials and slides by Ladislav Rampasek, Jake Snell, Kevin Swersky, Shenlong Wang and others

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# Overview of Optimization

## An informal definition of optimization

Minimize (or maximize) some quantity.

# Applications

- ▶ Engineering: Minimize fuel consumption of an automobile
- ▶ Economics: Maximize returns on an investment
- ▶ Supply Chain Logistics: Minimize time taken to fulfill an order
- ▶ Life: Maximize happiness

## More formally

Goal: find  $\theta^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} f(\theta)$ , (possibly subject to constraints on  $\theta$ ).

- ▶  $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^n$ : *optimization variable*
- ▶  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ : *objective function*

Maximizing  $f(\theta)$  is equivalent to minimizing  $-f(\theta)$ , so we can treat everything as a minimization problem.

# Optimization is a large area of research

The best method for solving the optimization problem depends on which assumptions we want to make:

- ▶ Is  $\theta$  discrete or continuous?
- ▶ What form do constraints on  $\theta$  take? (if any)
- ▶ Is  $f$  “well-behaved”? (linear, differentiable, convex, submodular, etc.)

# Optimization for Machine Learning

Often in machine learning we are interested in learning the parameters  $\theta$  of a model.

Goal: minimize some loss function

- ▶ For example, if we have some data  $(x, y)$ , we may want to maximize  $P(y|x, \theta)$ .
- ▶ Equivalently, we can minimize  $-\log P(y|x, \theta)$ .
- ▶ We can also minimize other sorts of loss functions

log can help for numerical reasons



# Gradient Descent

# Gradient Descent: Motivation

From calculus, we know that the minimum of  $f$  must lie at a point where  $\frac{\partial f(\theta^*)}{\partial \theta} = 0$ .

- ▶ Sometimes, we can solve this equation analytically for  $\theta$ .
- ▶ Most of the time, we are not so lucky and must resort to iterative methods.

Review

- ▶ Gradient:  $\nabla_{\theta} f = \left( \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_1}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_k} \right)$

# Outline of Gradient Descent Algorithm

Where  $\eta$  is the learning rate and  $T$  is the number of iterations:

- ▶ Initialize  $\theta_0$  randomly
- ▶ for  $t = 1 : T$ :
  - ▶  $\delta_t \leftarrow -\eta \nabla_{\theta_{t-1}} f$
  - ▶  $\theta_t \leftarrow \theta_{t-1} + \delta_t$

The learning rate shouldn't be too big (objective function will blow up) or too small (will take a long time to converge)

# Gradient Descent with Line-Search

Where  $\eta$  is the learning rate and  $T$  is the number of iterations:

- ▶ Initialize  $\theta_0$  randomly
- ▶ for  $t = 1 : T$ :
  - ▶ Finding a step size  $\eta_t$  such that  $f(\theta_t - \eta_t \nabla_{\theta_{t-1}}) < f(\theta_t)$
  - ▶  $\delta_t \leftarrow -\eta_t \nabla_{\theta_{t-1}} f$
  - ▶  $\theta_t \leftarrow \theta_{t-1} + \delta_t$

Require a line-search step in each iteration.

# Gradient Descent with Momentum

We can introduce a momentum coefficient  $\alpha \in [0, 1)$  so that the updates have “memory”:

- ▶ Initialize  $\theta_0$  randomly
- ▶ Initialize  $\delta_0$  to the zero vector
- ▶ for  $t = 1 : T$ :
  - ▶  $\delta_t \leftarrow -\eta \nabla_{\theta_{t-1}} f + \alpha \delta_{t-1}$
  - ▶  $\theta_t \leftarrow \theta_{t-1} + \delta_t$

Momentum is a nice trick that can help speed up convergence. Generally we choose  $\alpha$  between 0.8 and 0.95, but this is problem dependent

# Outline of Gradient Descent Algorithm

Where  $\eta$  is the learning rate and  $T$  is the number of iterations:

- ▶ Initialize  $\theta_0$  randomly
- ▶ Do:
  - ▶  $\delta_t \leftarrow -\eta \nabla_{\theta_{t-1}} f$
  - ▶  $\theta_t \leftarrow \theta_{t-1} + \delta_t$
- ▶ **Until convergence**

Setting a convergence criteria.

## Some convergence criteria

- ▶ Change in objective function value is close to zero:  
 $|f(\theta_{t+1}) - f(\theta_t)| < \epsilon$
- ▶ Gradient norm is close to zero:  $\|\nabla_{\theta} f\| < \epsilon$
- ▶ Validation error starts to increase (this is called *early stopping*)

## Checkgrad

- ▶ When implementing the gradient computation for machine learning models, it's often difficult to know if our implementation of  $f$  and  $\nabla f$  is correct.
- ▶ We can use finite-differences approximation to the gradient to help:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \theta_i} \approx \frac{f((\theta_1, \dots, \theta_i + \epsilon, \dots, \theta_n)) - f((\theta_1, \dots, \theta_i - \epsilon, \dots, \theta_n))}{2\epsilon}$$

Why don't we always just use the finite differences approximation?

- ▶ slow: we need to recompute  $f$  twice for each parameter in our model.
- ▶ numerical issues



# Stochastic Gradient Descent

- ▶ Any iteration of a gradient descent (or quasi-Newton) method requires that we sum over the entire dataset to compute the gradient.
- ▶ SGD idea: at each iteration, sub-sample a small amount of data (even just 1 point can work) and use that to estimate the gradient.
- ▶ Each update is noisy, but very fast!
- ▶ This is the basis of optimizing ML algorithms with huge datasets (e.g., recent deep learning).
- ▶ Computing gradients using the full dataset is called batch learning, using subsets of data is called mini-batch learning.

# Stochastic Gradient Descent

- ▶ The reason SGD works is because similar data yields similar gradients, so if there is enough redundancy in the data, the noise from subsampling won't be so bad.
- ▶ SGD is very easy to implement compared to other methods, but the step sizes need to be tuned to different problems, whereas batch learning typically “just works”.
- ▶ Tip 1: divide the log-likelihood estimate by the size of your mini-batches. This makes the learning rate invariant to mini-batch size.
- ▶ Tip 2: subsample without replacement so that you visit each point on each pass through the dataset (this is known as an epoch).

# Demo

- ▶ Logistic regression

# Convexity

## Definition of Convexity

A function  $f$  is **convex** if for any two points  $\theta_1$  and  $\theta_2$  and any  $t \in [0, 1]$ ,

$$f(t\theta_1 + (1 - t)\theta_2) \leq tf(\theta_1) + (1 - t)f(\theta_2)$$

We can *compose* convex functions such that the resulting function is also convex:

- ▶ If  $f$  is convex, then so is  $\alpha f$  for  $\alpha \geq 0$
- ▶ If  $f_1$  and  $f_2$  are both convex, then so is  $f_1 + f_2$
- ▶ *etc.*, see <http://www.ee.ucla.edu/ee236b/lectures/functions.pdf> for more

## Why do we care about convexity?

- ▶ Any local minimum is a global minimum.
- ▶ This makes optimization a lot easier because we don't have to worry about getting stuck in a local minimum.

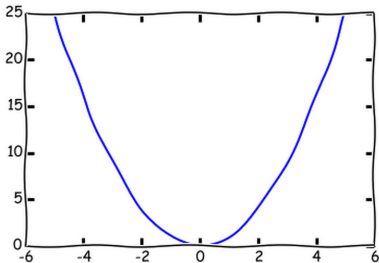
# Examples of Convex Functions

## Quadratics

In [6]:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.xkcd()
theta = linspace(-5, 5)
f = theta**2
plt.plot(theta, f)
```

Out[6]: [[matplotlib.lines.Line2D](#) at 0x3ceae90>]



# Examples of Convex Functions

## Negative logarithms

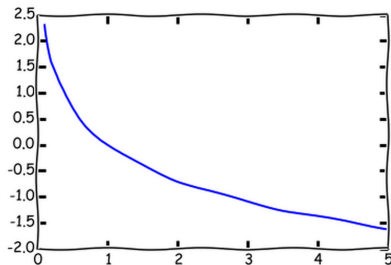
In [8]:

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
plt.xkcd()
theta = linspace(0.1, 5)
f = -np.log(theta)
plt.plot(theta, f)
```

Slide Type



Out[8]: [





## Convexity for logistic regression

**Cross-entropy** objective function for logistic regression is also convex!

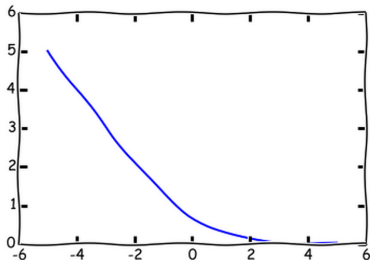
$$f(\theta) = -\sum_n t^{(n)} \log p(y = 1|x^{(n)}, \theta) + (1 - t^{(n)}) \log p(y = 0|x^{(n)}, \theta)$$

Plot of  $-\log \sigma(\theta)$

In [15]:

```
def sigmoid(x):  
    return 1 / (1 + np.exp(-x))  
  
theta = linspace(-5, 5)  
f = -np.log(sigmoid(theta))  
plt.plot(theta, f)
```

Out[15]: [matplotlib.lines.Line2D at 0x4c453d0]



## More on optimization

*Convex Optimization* by Boyd & Vandenberghe

Book available for free online at

<http://www.stanford.edu/~boyd/cvxbook/>

*Numerical Optimization* by Nocedal & Wright

Electronic version available from UofT Library