

Optimization and Machine Learning

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Outline

- 1 Introduction
- 2 Empirical risk minimization
- 3 Optimization techniques for machine learning
- 4 Discussion and conclusions



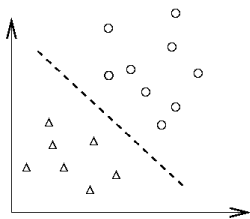
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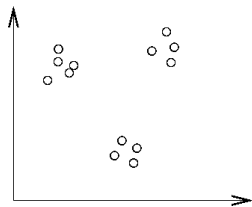


What is Machine Learning

- Extract knowledge from data
- Representative tasks: classification, clustering, and others



Classification



Clustering

- Today we will focus on **classification**



Data Classification

- Given training data in different classes (labels **known**)
Predict test data (labels **unknown**)
- Classic example
 1. Find a patient's blood pressure, weight, etc.
 2. After several years, know if he/she recovers
 3. Build a machine learning model
 4. New patient: find blood pressure, weight, etc
 5. Prediction
- Two main stages: training and testing



Why Is Optimization Used?

- Usually the goal of classification is to **minimize** the number of errors
- Therefore, many classification methods solve optimization problems
- We will discuss a topic called **empirical risk minimization** that can connect many classification methods



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Minimizing Training Errors

- Basically a classification method starts with **minimizing the training errors**

$$\min_{\text{model}} \quad (\text{training errors})$$

- That is, all or most training data with labels should be correctly classified by our model
- A model can be a decision tree, a neural network, etc.



Minimizing Training Errors (Cont'd)

- For simplicity, let's consider the model to be a vector \mathbf{w}
- That is, the decision function is

$$\text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x})$$

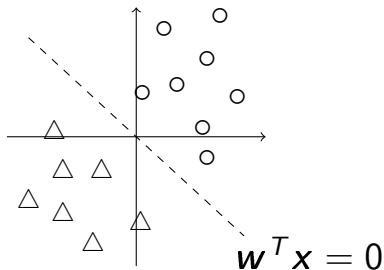
- For any data, \mathbf{x} , the predicted label is

$$\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} \geq 0 \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Minimizing Training Errors (Cont'd)

- The two-dimensional situation



- This seems to be quite restricted, but practically x is in a much **higher dimensional space**



Minimizing Training Errors (Cont'd)

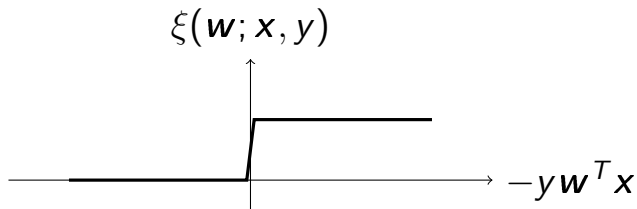
- To characterize the training error, we need a **loss function** $\xi(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{x}, y)$ for each instance (\mathbf{x}, y)
- Ideally we should use 0–1 training loss:

$$\xi(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{x}, y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } y\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} < 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Minimizing Training Errors (Cont'd)

- However, this function is **discontinuous**. The optimization problem becomes difficult



- We can do **continuous approximations**



Common Loss Functions

- Hinge loss (l1 loss)

$$\xi_{L1}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{x}, y) \equiv \max(0, 1 - y\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) \quad (1)$$

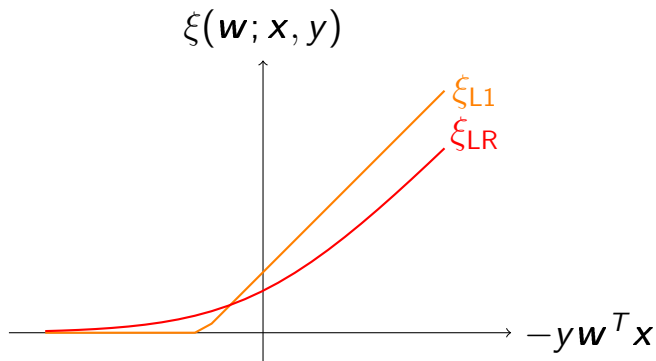
- Logistic loss

$$\xi_{LR}(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{x}, y) \equiv \log(1 + e^{-y\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}}) \quad (2)$$

- Support vector machines (SVM): Eq. (1). Logistic regression (LR): (2)
- SVM and LR are two very fundamental classification methods



Common Loss Functions (Cont'd)



- Logistic regression is very related to SVM
- Their performance is usually **similar**



Common Loss Functions (Cont'd)

- However, minimizing training losses may not give a good model for future prediction
- **Overfitting occurs**

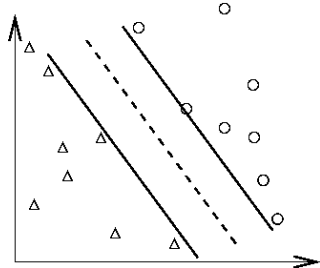
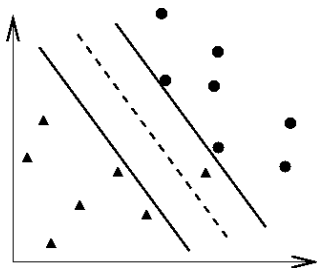
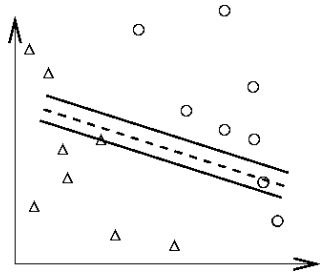
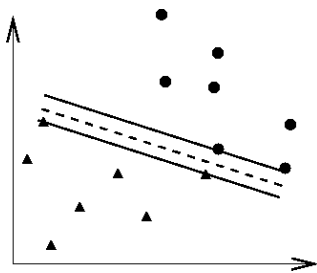


Overfitting

- See the illustration in the next slide
- For classification,
You can easily achieve 100% training accuracy
- This is useless
- When training a data set, we should
Avoid **underfitting**: small training error
Avoid **overfitting**: small testing error



● and ▲: training; ○ and △: testing



Regularization

- To minimize the training error we manipulate the \mathbf{w} vector so that it fits the data
- To avoid overfitting we need a way to make \mathbf{w} 's values **less extreme**.
- One idea is to make **\mathbf{w} values closer to zero**
- We can add, for example,

$$\frac{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}{2} \quad \text{or} \quad \|\mathbf{w}\|_1$$

to the function that is minimized



General Form of Linear Classification

- Training data $\{y_i, \mathbf{x}_i\}$, $\mathbf{x}_i \in R^n, i = 1, \dots, l, y_i = \pm 1$
- l : # of data, n : # of features

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} f(\mathbf{w}), \quad f(\mathbf{w}) \equiv \frac{\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}}{2} + C \sum_{i=1}^l \xi(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{x}_i, y_i)$$

- $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}/2$: regularization term
- $\xi(\mathbf{w}; \mathbf{x}, y)$: loss function
- C : regularization parameter (chosen by users)



Neural Networks

- We all know that recently deep learning (i.e., deep neural networks) is very hot.
- We will explain neural networks using the **the same empirical risk minimization framework**
- Among various types of networks, we consider fully-connected feed-forward networks for
multi-class classification



Neural Networks (Cont'd)

- Our training set includes $(\mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{x}_i)$, $i = 1, \dots, l$.
- $\mathbf{x}_i \in R^{n_1}$ is the feature vector.
- $\mathbf{y}_i \in R^K$ is the label **vector**.
- K : # of classes
- If \mathbf{x}_i is in class k , then

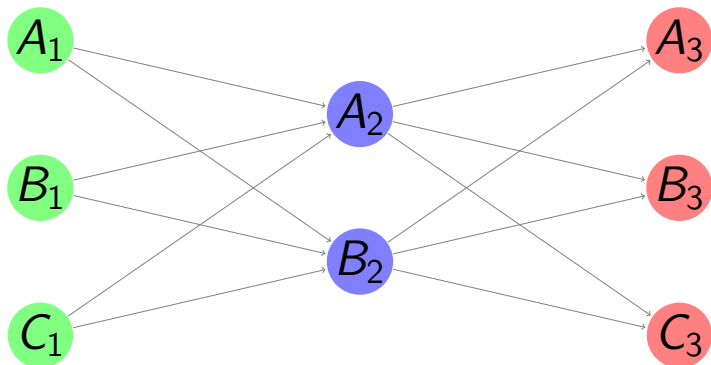
$$\mathbf{y}_i = [0, \dots, 0, 1, 0, \dots, 0]^T \in R^K$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{k-1}$



Neural Networks (Cont'd)

- A neural network maps each feature vector to one of the class labels by the connection of nodes
- Between two layers a weight matrix maps input to output



Neural Networks (Cont'd)

- The weight matrix W^m at the m th layer is

$$W^m = \begin{bmatrix} W_{11}^m & W_{12}^m & \cdots & W_{1n_m}^m \\ W_{21}^m & W_{22}^m & \cdots & W_{2n_m}^m \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ W_{n_{m+1}1}^m & W_{n_{m+1}2}^m & \cdots & W_{n_{m+1}n_m}^m \end{bmatrix}_{n_{m+1} \times n_m}$$

- n_m : # input features at layer m
- n_{m+1} : # output features at layer m , or # input features at layer $m + 1$
- L : number of layers
- $n_1 = \#$ of features, $n_{L+1} = \#$ of classes



Neural Networks (Cont'd)

Let z^m be the input of the m th layer, $z^1 = x$ and z^{L+1} be the output

From m th layer to $(m + 1)$ th layer

$$\begin{aligned} s^m &= W^m z^m, \\ z_j^{m+1} &= \sigma(s_j^m), \quad j = 1, \dots, n_{m+1}, \end{aligned}$$

$\sigma(\cdot)$ is the activation function. We collect **all variables**:

$$\theta = \begin{bmatrix} \text{vec}(W^1) \\ \vdots \\ \text{vec}(W^L) \end{bmatrix} \in R^n \quad n : \text{total } \# \text{ variables} = (n_1 + 1)n_2 + \dots + (n_L + 1)n_{L+1}$$



Neural Networks (Cont'd)

- We solve the following optimization problem,

$$\min_{\theta} f(\theta),$$

where

$$f(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \theta^T \theta + C \sum_{i=1}^l \xi(z^{L+1,j}(\theta); \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i).$$

C : regularization parameter

- $\mathbf{z}^{L+1}(\theta) \in R^{n_{L+1}}$: last-layer output vector of \mathbf{x} .
- $\xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1}; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$: loss function. Example:

$$\xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1}; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) = \|\mathbf{z}^{L+1} - \mathbf{y}\|^2$$



Neural Networks (Cont'd)

- The formulation is as before, but loss function is **more complicated**
- Note that we discussed the **simplest** type of networks
- Nowadays people use much more complicated networks
- The optimization problem is **non-convex**



Discussion

- We have seen that many classification methods are under the empirical risk minimization framework
- We also see that optimization problems must be solved



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Optimization Techniques for Machine Learning

- Standard optimization packages may be directly applied to machine learning applications
- However, efficiency and scalability are issues
- Many optimization researchers want to do machine learning
- Some are more successful, but some are not
- Very often **properties from machine learning side must be considered**
- I will illustrate this point by some examples



Differences between Optimization and Machine Learning

- The two topics may have different focuses. We give the following example
- Recall that the optimization problem for empirical risk minimization is

$$\frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + C(\text{sum of training losses})$$

- A large C means to **fit** training data
- The optimization problem becomes **more difficult**



- In contrast, if $C \rightarrow 0$,

$$\min_w \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$

is easy

- Optimization researchers may rush to solve difficult cases of large C
- It turns out that C should not be too large
- A large C causes severe overfitting and bad accuracy
- Thus knowing what is useful and what is not on the machine learning side is very important



Stochastic Gradient for Deep Learning

- In optimization, gradient descent is a basic method
- But it has slow convergence
- So in many application domains higher-order optimization methods (e.g., Newton, quasi Newton) were developed for faster convergence
- However, in deep learning people use an even **lower-order** method: stochastic gradient
- Why?



Estimation of the Gradient

- Let us rewrite the objective function as

$$f(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{1}{2C} \boldsymbol{\theta}^T \boldsymbol{\theta} + \frac{1}{I} \sum_{i=1}^I \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1,i}(\boldsymbol{\theta}); \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$$

- The gradient is

$$\frac{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{C} + \frac{1}{I} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{i=1}^I \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1,i}(\boldsymbol{\theta}); \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$$

- Going over all data is time consuming



Estimation of the Gradient (Cont'd)

- We may use a **subset** S of data

$$\frac{\theta}{C} + \frac{1}{|S|} \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{i:i \in S} \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1,j}(\theta); \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$$

- This works if data points are under **the same distribution**

$$E_{\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x}}(\nabla_{\theta} \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1,j}; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = \frac{1}{l} \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^l \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1,j}(\theta); \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$$



Stochastic Gradient Algorithm

- 1: Given an initial learning rate η .
- 2: **while do**
- 3: Choose $S \subset \{1, \dots, l\}$.
- 4: Calculate

$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} - \eta \left(\frac{\boldsymbol{\theta}}{C} + \frac{1}{|S|} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{i:i \in S} \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1,i}(\boldsymbol{\theta}); \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i) \right)$$

- 5: May adjust the learning rate η
- 6: **end while**



Issues of Stochastic Gradient Algorithm

- People often use the name SGD (stochastic gradient descent) but it is **not a descent algorithm**

Note that we didn't (and cannot) do things like line search to ensure the function-value decrease

- It's known that deciding a suitable learning rate is difficult
 - Too small learning rate: very slow convergence
 - Too large learning rate: the procedure may diverge
- Despite such drawbacks, SG is widely used in deep learning. Why?



Why Stochastic Gradient Widely Used? I

- In machine learning fast final convergence may not be important
 - An optimal solution θ^* may not lead to the best model
 - Further, we don't need a point close to θ^* . In prediction we find

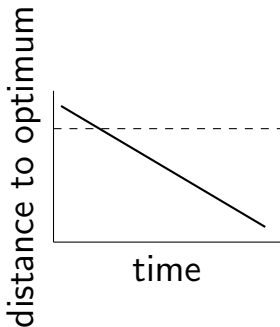
$$\arg \max_k z_k^{L+1}(\theta)$$

A not-so-accurate θ may be good enough

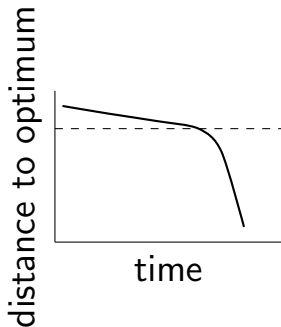
An illustration



Why Stochastic Gradient Widely Used? II



Slow final convergence



Fast final convergence



Why Stochastic Gradient Widely Used? III

- The special property of data classification is essential

$$E(\nabla_{\theta} \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1}; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = \frac{1}{I} \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^I \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1,i}(\theta); \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$$

We can cheaply get a good approximation of the gradient

Indeed stochastic gradient is less used outside machine learning



Why Stochastic Gradient Widely Used? IV

- Easy implementation. It's simpler than methods using, for example, second derivative
Now for complicated networks, (subsampled) gradient is calculated by **automatic differentiation**
- Non-convexity plays a role
 - For convex, other methods may possess advantages to more efficiently find **the global minimum**
 - But for non-convex, efficiency to reach a **stationary point** is less useful



Why Stochastic Gradient Widely Used? V

- A global minimum usually gives a good model (as loss is minimized), but for a stationary point we are less sure
- Some variants of SG have been proposed to improve the robustness or the convergence
- All these explain why SG is popular for deep learning



Subsampled 2nd-order Method

- Recall for stochastic gradient method, we use

$$E(\nabla_{\theta} \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1}; \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})) = \frac{1}{l} \nabla_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^l \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1, i}(\theta); \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$$

- Can we extend this idea to 2nd derivative? Yes, Byrd et al. (2011); Martens (2010)

$$E(\nabla_{\theta\theta}^2 \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1}; \mathbf{y}, \mathbf{x})) = \frac{1}{l} \nabla_{\theta\theta}^2 \sum_{i=1}^l \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1}; \mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{x}_i).$$



Subsampled 2nd-order Method (Cont'd)

- We can consider

$$\frac{1}{|S|} \nabla_{\theta\theta}^2 \sum_{i \in S} \xi(\mathbf{z}^{L+1}; \mathbf{y}_i, \mathbf{x}_i).$$

in designing **subsampled** Newton or quasi Newton methods



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Conclusions

- Many machine learning methods involve optimization problems
- However, designing useful optimization techniques for these applications may not be easy
- Incorporating machine learning knowledge is very essential

