# optimisation in neural networks 

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## What is optimisation?

We have a model $p_{\mathbf{w}}(z \mid x)$. This can, e.g., be a neural network.
We want to minimise the loss

$$
\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})=-\log \prod_{i} p_{\mathbf{w}}\left(z_{i} \mid x_{i}\right)
$$

by finding better values of $\mathbf{w}$.

## How do we do optimisation?

- if finding the best $\mathbf{w}$ is a convex problem, good methods exist (remember SVD from linear algebra).
- In general, finding the best $\mathbf{w}$ is not a convex problem. Only incremental methods are known.




## Convex optimisation problems

Practical example: $\left\{\left(x_{i}, z_{i}\right)\right\}=\{(0,1) ;(1,2.1) ;(2,2.9)\}$.
Our model: $y_{\mathbf{w}}(x)=a x+b$ with $\mathbf{w}=(a, b)$; the MLE loss is

$$
\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})=\sum_{i}\left(y_{\mathbf{w}}\left(x_{i}\right)-z_{i}\right)^{2}
$$

How do we find the minimum of $\mathcal{L}$ ? It is there where $\partial \mathcal{L} / \partial w_{i}=0$.

$$
\begin{gathered}
\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{i}(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_{1} \equiv a}=2 x_{i}\left(b+a x_{i}-z_{i}\right)=0 \\
\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{i}(\mathbf{w})}{\partial w_{2} \equiv b}=2\left(b+a x_{i}-z_{i}\right)=0
\end{gathered}
$$

We can solve that!


Numerical solution: $a=0.95, b=1.05$.

## What if. . .

$$
y_{(a, b, c)}(x)=a \exp \left(-b(\mathbf{x}-c)^{2}\right)+d
$$



We can't find a closed-form solution for that!

$$
\begin{aligned}
& 2 e^{-b c^{2}}\left(a e^{-b c^{2}}-1\right)+2 e^{-b(1-c)^{2}}\left(a e^{-b(1-c)^{2}}-2.1\right)+ \\
& 2 e^{-b(2-c)^{2}}\left(a e^{-b(2-c)^{2}}-2.9\right)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\begin{aligned}
-2 a c^{2} e^{-b c^{2}}\left(a e^{-b c^{2}}-1\right)-2 a(1-c)^{2} e^{-b(1-c)^{2}}\left(a e^{-b(1-c)^{2}}-2.1\right)- \\
2 a(2-c)^{2} e^{-b(2-c)^{2}}\left(a e^{-b(2-c)^{2}}-2.9\right)=0
\end{aligned}
$$

$-4 a b c e^{-b c^{2}}\left(a e^{-b c^{2}}-1\right)+4 a b(1-c) e^{-b(1-c)^{2}}\left(a e^{-b(1-c)^{2}}-2.1\right)+$

$$
4 a b(2-c) e^{-b(2-c)^{2}}\left(a e^{-b(2-c)^{2}}-2.9\right)=0
$$


$c=-1$

## But

We can compute $\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) / \partial w_{i}$

## the value of $\mathcal{L}$

we are interested in finding $\arg \min _{w} \mathcal{L}$


## using local information $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$

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we usually only have local information


## using local information $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ as well as $\partial \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) / \partial w$

we are interested in finding $\arg \min _{w} \mathcal{L}$
we usually only have local information


## using the gradient $\mathbf{g}$ of $\mathcal{L}$

The direction $\mathbf{u}$ in which to optimise is given by the gradient: $\mathbf{u}=-\mathbf{g}$


Searching the minimum by repeated evaluation of $\mathcal{L}$ and $\mathbf{g} \equiv \nabla \mathcal{L}$. $-\mathbf{g}$ gives us a direction $\mathbf{u}$ in which we want to optimise.
We change the parameter vector as follows:

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathbf{u}_{i} & =-\mathbf{g}_{i}  \tag{1}\\
\mathbf{w}_{i+1} & =\mathbf{w}_{i}+\alpha \mathbf{u}_{i} \tag{2}
\end{align*}
$$

we call $\mathbf{u}$ the search direction
we call $\alpha$ the learning parameter or step size
we call this method steepest descent or gradient descent
it belongs to the class of greedy algorithms

## the value of $\alpha$

a too small value for $\alpha$ has two drawbacks:

- we find the minimum more slowly
- we end up in local minima or saddle/flat points



## the value of $\alpha$

a too large value for $\alpha$ has one drawback:

- you may never find a minimum; oscillations usually occur

we only need 2 steps to overshoot!


## putting a trace on $\mathbf{u}$


a: $\mathbf{u}=-\mathbf{g}$; small $\alpha$;
b: $\mathbf{u}=-\mathbf{g}$; large $\alpha$;
c:

$$
\begin{align*}
\mathbf{u}_{0} & =-\mathbf{g}_{0}  \tag{3}\\
\mathbf{u}_{i} & =-\mathbf{g}_{i}+\beta \mathbf{u}_{i-1}  \tag{4}\\
& =-\mathbf{g}_{i}-\beta \mathbf{g}_{i-1}-\beta^{2} \mathbf{g}_{i-2}-\beta^{3} \mathbf{g}_{i-3} \cdots  \tag{5}\\
\mathbf{w}_{i+1} & =\mathbf{w}_{i}+\alpha \mathbf{u}_{i} \tag{6}
\end{align*}
$$

we call $\alpha$ the learning rate we call $\beta$ the momentum we usually take $\beta \gg \alpha$

## trick: momentum

How do we choose $\alpha$ and $\beta$ ? if, for the sake of the argument, assume that $\mathbf{g} \equiv \nabla E$ does not change:

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta \mathbf{w} & =-\alpha \mathbf{g}\left(1+\beta+\beta^{2}+\ldots\right) \\
& =-\frac{\alpha}{1-\beta} \mathbf{g}
\end{aligned}
$$

Assuming a perfect $\nabla E$, the best values for $\alpha$ and $\beta$ are when

$$
\frac{\alpha}{1-\beta}=1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha+\beta=1
$$

Typically we choose $\alpha$ small and $\beta$ large (of course, $\alpha, \beta>0$ ).

## bird's eye view



## optimising

following the gradient is not always the best choice


Close to minima, it appears that Loss functions are close to quadratic

## condition of the Hessian

Condition = largest EV / smallest EV

Condition 5


Condition 100


What does $H$ look like?
A large condition number means that some directions of $H$ are very steep compared to others. In neural networks, a condition of $10^{10}$ is not uncommon.

A class of optimisers (CG, Adam, rprop, adadelta, ...) deal with such $H$.

