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# Optimal control and machine learning

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# Outline

Calculus of variations

Optimal control

Hamilton-Jacobi equations

Reinforcement learning

Variational problems in the space of maps

Infinite dimensional control

Control formulation of (deep) supervised learning

Control formulation of (deep) unsupervised learning

Further mathematical issues



# The calculus of variations problem

Given  $L : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ , find a curve  $\mathbf{x} : [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  with  $\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{x}_I$ ,  $\mathbf{x}(T) = \mathbf{x}_T$  that minimizes

$$\int_0^T L(\mathbf{x}(s), \dot{\mathbf{x}}(s)) ds.$$



Variational problems like this arise in multiple contexts

- ▶ Geodesics (shortest path)
- ▶ Brachistochrone problem (shortest time)
- ▶ Classical mechanics (minimal action principle)
- ▶ Elasticity...



# Shortest path problem

The length of a curve  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})$  between two points in the plane,  $(x_I, y_I)$  and  $(x_T, y_T)$ , is given by the integral

$$\int_0^T \sqrt{\dot{\mathbf{x}}(s)^2 + \dot{\mathbf{y}}(s)^2} ds.$$



# Euler-Lagrange equation

Let  $\mathbf{x} : [0, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  be a  $C^2$  minimizer of the calculus of variations problem. Let  $\mathbf{z}$  be a  $C^2$  function with  $\mathbf{z}(0) = \mathbf{z}(T) = 0$ . Then

$$i(\epsilon) = \int_0^T L(\mathbf{x}(s) + \epsilon \mathbf{z}(s), \dot{\mathbf{x}}(s) + \epsilon \dot{\mathbf{z}}(s)) ds.$$

has a minimum when  $\epsilon = 0$ . Hence,  $i'(0) = 0$ .



Differentiating and setting  $\epsilon = 0$ , we get

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \int_0^T D_x L(\mathbf{x}(t), \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)) \mathbf{z}(t) + D_v L(\mathbf{x}(t), \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)) \dot{\mathbf{z}}(t) dt \\ &= \int_0^T \left[ D_x L(\mathbf{x}(t), \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)) - \frac{d}{dt} D_v L(\mathbf{x}(t), \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)) \right] \mathbf{z}(t) ds \end{aligned}$$

Because  $\mathbf{z}$  is arbitrary, we deduce the Euler-Lagrange equation

$$D_x L(\mathbf{x}(t), \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)) - \frac{d}{dt} D_v L(\mathbf{x}(t), \dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)) = 0.$$



## The shortest path may be a line

For the minimal length problem, if  $\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2 \neq 0$ , the Euler-Lagrange equation reads

$$\begin{cases} \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\dot{x}}{\sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2}} = 0 \\ \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\dot{y}}{\sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2}} = 0. \end{cases}$$

Thus,

$$\frac{\dot{x}}{\sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2}} = \cos \theta, \quad \frac{\dot{y}}{\sqrt{\dot{x}^2 + \dot{y}^2}} = \sin \theta,$$

for some constant angle  $\theta$ . Hence, the velocity vector has constant direction; that is, **if there is a  $C^2$  trajectory of shortest length between two points**, it must be a straight line.





# Questions

- ▶ is there in fact a  $C^2$  trajectory of shortest length?
- ▶ is this trajectory unique?
- ▶ can we just prove directly that a straight line is the shortest length path



## Convexity and optimality - real case

Consider a real-valued  $C^1$  function,  $f$ .

- ▶ Any minimizer  $\bar{x}$  of  $f$  is a critical point,  $Df(\bar{x}) = 0$ .
- ▶ If  $f$  is **convex** any critical point is a minimizer.

Proof: for any  $x$  and  $y$ , convexity gives

$$f(y) \geq f(x) + Df(x)(y - x).$$

If  $x = \bar{x}$  is a critical point  $Df(\bar{x}) = 0$  and so

$$f(y) \geq f(\bar{x}).$$



# Convexity and optimality

Suppose  $L$  is convex. **Then any solution to the Euler-Lagrange equation is a minimizer.**



## Convexity and optimality - proof

Let  $\mathbf{x}$  solve the Euler-Lagrange equation, and  $\mathbf{w}$  any trajectory with  $\mathbf{x}(0) = \mathbf{w}(0)$ ,  $\mathbf{x}(T) = \mathbf{w}(T)$ . Then convexity gives

$$\int_0^T L(\mathbf{w}, \dot{\mathbf{w}}) \geq \int_0^T L(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}}) + D_{\mathbf{x}}L(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}})(\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{x}) + D_{\mathbf{v}}L(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}})(\dot{\mathbf{w}} - \dot{\mathbf{x}}).$$

Because  $\mathbf{x}$  solves the Euler-Lagrange equation, taking into account the boundary conditions and integrating by parts gives

$$\int_0^T (D_{\mathbf{x}}L(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}}) - \frac{d}{dt}D_{\mathbf{v}}L(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}}))(\mathbf{w} - \mathbf{x}) = 0.$$

But then

$$\int_0^T L(\mathbf{w}, \dot{\mathbf{w}}) \geq \int_0^T L(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}}).$$



# The shortest path is a line

- ▶  $L(\dot{\mathbf{x}}, \dot{\mathbf{y}}) = \sqrt{\dot{\mathbf{x}}^2 + \dot{\mathbf{y}}^2}$  is convex....



## Key concepts and ideas

- ▶ First-order optimality conditions (Euler-Lagrange equations)
- ▶ Convexity and optimality



# Key questions in calculus of variations

- ▶ Rigorous setting (functional spaces, technical conditions on  $L...$ )
- ▶ Existence of minimizers
- ▶ Necessary and sufficient conditions
- ▶ Solving Euler-Lagrange equations



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# The optimal control problem

The standard terminal value problem in control theory seeks to minimize

$$\int_0^T L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) ds + \psi(\mathbf{x}(T))$$

under the constraint

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}).$$

The variable  $\mathbf{x}$  is called the state and  $\mathbf{a}$  is the control.



# Linear-Quadratic control problem

A particular relevant problem is the linear quadratic problem, given matrices  $A, B, C, M, N$ , minimize

$$\int_0^T \mathbf{x}^T A \mathbf{x} + \mathbf{a}^T B \mathbf{a} ds + \mathbf{x}^T(T) C \mathbf{x}(T)$$

under the constraint

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = M \mathbf{x} + N \mathbf{a}.$$



# Bolza vs Meyer problem

By applying a simple transformation is always possible to transform a control problem in either

- ▶ Bolza form:  $\psi = 0$
- ▶ Meyer form  $L = 0$ .



## Necessary optimality conditions

In optimal control, the Euler-Lagrange equations are replaced by the Pontryagin maximum principle. Let  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})$  be an optimal trajectory/control. Then

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\mathbf{x}} = f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) \\ \dot{\mathbf{p}} = -\mathbf{p}D_{\mathbf{x}}f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) - D_{\mathbf{x}}L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) \end{cases}$$

and  $\mathbf{a}$  maximizes  $-\mathbf{p}f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) - L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})$ . Moreover,  $\mathbf{p}(T) = D_{\mathbf{x}}\psi(\mathbf{x}(T))$ .



## Sufficiency of PMP

Suppose  $L$  is uniformly convex and  $f$  is affine and terminal cost vanishes.

- ▶  $L(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{\mathbf{a}}) \geq L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) + D_x L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})(\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}) + D_a L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})(\tilde{\mathbf{a}} - \mathbf{a})$
- ▶ There exists a unique  $\mathbf{a}$  maximizing  $-\mathbf{p}f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) - L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})$
- ▶  $D_a L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) = -\mathbf{p}D_a f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})$
- ▶  $f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) - f(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{\mathbf{a}}) = D_x f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})(\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}) + D_a f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})(\tilde{\mathbf{a}} - \mathbf{a})$
- ▶  $\mathbf{p}(T) = 0$



## Sufficiency of PMP

(Suppose  $L$  is convex and  $f$  is affine and terminal cost vanishes. )  
 Consider a triplet satisfying PMP,  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{p})$ , let  $(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{\mathbf{a}})$  be a competing trajectory. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int_0^T L(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{\mathbf{a}}) &\geq \int_0^T L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) + D_{\mathbf{x}}L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})(\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}) + D_{\mathbf{a}}L(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})(\tilde{\mathbf{a}} - \mathbf{a}) \\
 &\geq \int_0^T -(\dot{\mathbf{p}} + \mathbf{p}D_{\mathbf{x}}f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}))(\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{p}D_{\mathbf{a}}f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})(\tilde{\mathbf{a}} - \mathbf{a}) \\
 &= \int_0^T \mathbf{p}(f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a}) - f(\tilde{\mathbf{x}}, \tilde{\mathbf{a}})) - \mathbf{p}D_{\mathbf{x}}f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})(\tilde{\mathbf{x}} - \mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{p}D_{\mathbf{a}}f(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{a})(\tilde{\mathbf{a}} - \mathbf{a}) \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$



# Hamiltonian dynamics

If  $f(x, v) = v$ , then

$$H(x, p) = \sup_v -pv - L(x, v)$$

is called the Hamiltonian. Then,  $D_p H = -v$  and  $D_x H = -D_x L(x, v)$ . Thus, the necessary optimality conditions become

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\mathbf{x}} = -D_p H(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}) \\ \dot{\mathbf{p}} = D_x H(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{p}), \end{cases}$$

the Hamiltonian dynamics, which is equivalent to the Euler-Lagrange equation (**exercise**).



## LQ case

In the particular LQ case

$$L = \frac{|x|^2}{2} + \frac{|v|^2}{2} \quad f(x, v) = v,$$

we have  $H = \frac{|p|^2}{2} - \frac{|x|^2}{2}$

$$\begin{cases} \dot{\mathbf{x}} = -\mathbf{p} \\ \dot{\mathbf{p}} = -\mathbf{x}; \end{cases}$$

that is,

$$\ddot{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}.$$





# Key concepts and ideas

- ▶ Pontryagin maximum principle
- ▶ LQ control problems



# Key questions in optimal control

- ▶ Existence of optimal trajectories
- ▶ Computation of optimal trajectories
- ▶ Controllability issues



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# The value function

To simplify, consider the calculus of variations setting. The value function is

$$u(x, t) = \inf \int_t^T L(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}}) ds + \psi(\mathbf{x}(T)),$$

where the infimum is taken over all  $C^1$  trajectories  $\mathbf{x} : [t, T] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  with  $\mathbf{x}(t) = x$ .



# Dynamic programming principle

For  $h > 0$  such that  $t + h < T$ , we have

$$u(x, t) = \inf \int_t^{t+h} L(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}}) ds + u(\mathbf{x}(t+h), t+h).$$



# The Hamilton–Jacobi equation (formal)

We have

$$\begin{aligned}u(x, t) &= \inf_{\mathbf{x}} \int_t^{t+h} L(\mathbf{x}, \dot{\mathbf{x}}) ds + u(\mathbf{x}(t+h), t+h) \\ &\simeq \inf_{\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t)} hL(x, \dot{\mathbf{x}}) ds + u(\mathbf{x}(t), t) + hD_x u(x, t)\dot{\mathbf{x}}(t) + hu_t(x, t) \\ &= u(x, t) - hH(x, D_x u(x, t)) + hu_t(x, t)\end{aligned}$$

from which we deduce the Hamilton–Jacobi equation

$$-u_t + H(x, D_x u(x, t)) = 0.$$



## Verification theorem

Suppose  $L$  is uniformly convex. Let  $u$  solve

$$-u_t + H(x, D_x u(x, t)) = 0$$

with  $u(x, T) = \psi(x)$ . Then,  $u$  is the value function. Moreover, the optimal dynamics is

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = -D_p H(\mathbf{x}, D_x u(\mathbf{x}(t), t)).$$



## Riccati equation and the LQ problem

For our LQ example problem,  $H = \frac{p^2}{2} - \frac{x^2}{2}$ , the Hamilton-Jacobi equation becomes

$$-u_t + \frac{u_x^2}{2} - \frac{x^2}{2} = 0$$

which admits quadratic solutions of the form  $u(x, t) = \alpha(t)x^2$  where  $\alpha$  solves the Riccati equation

$$-\dot{\alpha} + 2\alpha^2 - \frac{1}{2} = 0.$$





## Lack of smooth solutions for HJ equations

Unfortunately Hamilton-Jacobi may fail to admit solutions.  
Consider the HJ equation

$$-u_t + \frac{u_x^2}{2} = 0.$$

Let  $v = u_x$ . Then

$$-v_t + vv_x = 0.$$

Consider the ODE

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = -v(\mathbf{x}, t).$$

Then,  $v$  is constant along  $\mathbf{x}$  because

$$\frac{d}{dt}v(\mathbf{x}, t) = v_t(\mathbf{x}, t) + v_x(\mathbf{x}, t)\dot{\mathbf{x}} = 0.$$

But different initial conditions can cross...



## Key concepts and ideas

- ▶ Value function and dynamic programming principle
- ▶ Hamilton–Jacobi equation



# Key questions in optimal control

- ▶ Solution of the Hamilton–Jacobi equation
- ▶ Extended notions of solution (viscosity solutions)



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## The (deterministic) reinforcement learning setting

- ▶ Agents have a state  $s$  and a possible action  $a$
- ▶ In state  $s$ , the action  $a$  corresponds to a reward  $r(s, a)$
- ▶ Actions change the state to a new state according to the discrete dynamics  $s_{n+1} = f(s_n, a_n)$
- ▶ Rewards are discounted in time (now is better than later) by a parameter  $0 < \theta < 1$
- ▶ Agents want to maximize the long-term reward

$$\sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \theta^i r(s_i, a_i)$$

**This is a control problem!**



# Applications of reinforcement learning

- ▶ Solving games (chess, go, ...)
- ▶ Finding the shortest path
- ▶ Traffic light control
- ▶ Bidding, advertising, personalized recommendations....
- ▶ Theorem proving



# Value function

We define the value function

$$Q(s) = \inf_{a_i} \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \theta^i r(s_i, a_i)$$



# Dynamic programming/discrete HJ equation

We have the

$$Q(s) = \sup_a [r(s, a) + \theta Q(f(s, a))].$$





# Learning the value function

- ▶ The key problem in reinforcement learning is to approximate the value function, usually by iterative methods
- ▶ A popular method is the Q-learning algorithm



# Q-learning

Let  $0 < \gamma < 1$  (learning rate). Given a an approximation  $Q^n$ , choose a state  $s$  and let

$$Q^{n+1}(s) = Q^n(s) + \gamma \sup_a [r(s, a) + \theta Q^n(f(s, a)) - Q^n(s)].$$



# The continuous analog

A continuous analog to  $Q$  learning is

$$u_t = \alpha u + H(x, Du).$$

The convergence of  $Q$  learning is replaced by the convergence as  $t \rightarrow \infty$  of  $u(x, t)$ .



## Approximation of the value function

- ▶ If the state space is very large (think all possible positions in chess), the function may not be representable in a computer.
- ▶ In this case, the value function must to be approximated. For example as a linear combination of feature maps

$$V(s) = \sum w_i \phi_i(s)$$

- ▶ This is similar to what chess players use, queen=10, rook=5, bishop and king=3, pawn =1...
- ▶ Alternatively deep neural networks can be used to approximate the value function.



## Key concepts and ideas

- ▶ Dynamic programming principle and Bellman equation
- ▶ Q-learning algorithm



# Key questions in reinforcement learning

- ▶ Approximation of value function: features vs deep NN
- ▶ Training algorithms



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# Monge problem

- ▶ "How best to move a pile of soil or rubble to an excavation or fill with the least amount of work."





# Probability measures

- ▶ If you know what a measure is, you know what a probability measure is.
- ▶ If you don't know measure theory, today, a probability measure is a non-negative function that integrates to 1.



## Push-forward and transport of measures

Given a map  $T : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  and a probability measure  $m$  in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ , the pushforward of  $m$  by  $T$ ,  $T\#m$ , is the probability measure given by

$$\int f(y)(T\#m)(y)dy = \int f(Tx)m(x)dx.$$



# Optimal transport

The Monge problem can be formulated as follows. Given two probability measures  $m_0$  and  $m_1$ , find a map  $T$  that

- ▶  $T\#m_0 = m_1$
- ▶  $T$  minimizes  $\int |x - T(x)|^2 dm$  among all possible maps that satisfy the preceding condition.



- ▶  $T\#m_0 = m_1$  means for all  $f$

$$\int f(T(x))m_0(x) = \int f(y)m_1(y)$$

- ▶ By the change of variables formula

$$\int f(y)m_1(y) = \int f(T(x))m_1(T(x)) \det T$$

- ▶ Accordingly

$$m_0(x) = m_1(T(x)) \det T.$$



# Monge-Ampère equation

- ▶ It turns out that if  $m_0$  and  $m_1$  are positive smooth functions then  $T = Du(x)$  for some function  $u$
- ▶ By the change of variables formula,  $u$  satisfies the Monge-Ampere equation

$$m_1(\nabla u) \det D^2 u = m_0(x).$$



## Lack of solutions

- ▶ The Monge problem may not have a solution for singular measures.
- ▶ For example, there is no map  $T$  that transports  $\delta_0$  into  $\frac{1}{2}\delta_{-1} + \frac{1}{2}\delta_1$ .
- ▶ The Kantorowich problem is a relaxation of Monge's problem to address this lack of solutions.



Given a map that transports  $m_0$  into  $m_1$ , we build the probability measure  $\pi$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{2d}$  as follows

$$\int \phi(x, y) d\pi = \int \phi(x, T(x)) dm_0.$$

In particular,

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^{2d}} \varphi(x) d\pi = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \varphi(x) dm_0 \quad \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2d}} \varphi(y) d\pi = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \varphi(y) dm_1.$$

In the Kantorowich problem, the mass at a point  $x$  is sent not to a point  $T(x)$  but to a distributed plan according to  $\pi(x, y)$ .



# Kantorowich problem

Find a probability measure  $\pi(x, y)$  that minimizes

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^{2d}} |x - y|^2 d\pi$$

under the marginal constraints

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^{2d}} \varphi(x) d\pi = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \varphi(x) dm_0 \quad \int_{\mathbb{R}^{2d}} \varphi(y) d\pi = \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} \varphi(y) dm_1.$$





## Wasserstein distance

- ▶ The solution  $\pi^*$  to the previous problem is called an optimal mass transfer plan.
- ▶ The 2-Wasserstein distance between  $m_0$  and  $m_1$  is

$$W_2^2(m_0, m_1) = \int |x - y|^2 d\pi^*.$$

- ▶ The 2-Wasserstein distance are often better to measure distances between probability measures than the  $L^p$  distances

$$\|m_0 - m_1\|_{L^p}^p = \int |m_0(x) - m_1(x)|^p.$$

- ▶  $p$ -Wasserstein distances are defined analogously.



# Wasserstein and integration

Let  $f$  be a Lipschitz function,  $m_0$  and  $m_1$  probability measures.  
Then

$$\begin{aligned} \left| \int f m_0 - \int f m_1 \right| &= \left| \int f(x) - f(y) d\pi^* \right| \\ &\leq C \int |x - y| d\pi^* \leq CW_1(m_0, m_1). \end{aligned}$$



# Data and probability measures

Often in machine learning, data is

- ▶ Data is a (large) collection of points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ ,  $x_i$ , sampled independently from a common distribution (often unknown)  $m$
- ▶ Data can be identified with the empirical measure

$$\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \delta_{x_i}$$

- ▶ Empirical measures approximate (eg in Wasserstein sense) the common distribution.



## More distances on probability measures

There a number of useful distances on probability measures that sometimes are simpler to compute than Wasserstein. One of them is the Kullback Leibler divergence

$$\mathcal{D}_{KL}(m_0, m_1) = \int m_0 \log \frac{m_0}{m_1}.$$



## Generative problem

Given a reference probability distribution  $m_0$  (let's say a Gaussian) and a target distribution  $m_1$  (let's say images of persons). We would like to find a map  $T$

$$T\#m_0 = m_1.$$

Thus "a random point sampled from  $m_0$  becomes a random image of a person  $T(x)$  sampled according to  $m_1$ ".



- ▶ We can think as the points sampled according to  $m_0$  as a vector of features
- ▶ The map  $T$  transforms features into images.



# The generative models

The previous problem is intractable because  $m_1$  is often not known, rather only samples are available. Furthermore, the set of all maps is too large. Rather, we fix an admissible set of maps  $\mathcal{A}$  and seek to find

$$\min_{T \in \mathcal{A}} \mathcal{D}_{KL}(T \# m_0, m_1).$$



- ▶ Neural networks provide a good way to construct large classes of maps  $\mathcal{A}$
- ▶  $\mathcal{D}_{KL}$  is computed through sampling methods.





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## Control in the space of maps

- ▶ A velocity field (control),  $v(x, t)$  induces a trajectory in the space of maps (flow)

$$\dot{T}(x; t) = v(T(x; t), t).$$

- ▶ We seek to find  $v$  that minimizes

$$\int_0^T L(T, v) dt + \psi(T(\cdot, T)).$$

- ▶ This is an infinite dimensional control problem! **Here  $L$  takes a map and a vector field and returns a real number, so  $L$  is not a function in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ !**



# Benamou-Brenier formulation of optimal transport

Given  $m_0$  and  $m_1$ , find velocity field (control),  $v(x, t)$  that:

- ▶  $T(\cdot, 1) \# m_0 = m_1$ .
- ▶ minimizes

$$\int_0^1 \int \frac{|v(T(x; t), t)|^2}{2} m_0(x) dx dt$$

It turns out this problem is equivalent to the optimal transport problem and  $T(\cdot, 1)$  is an optimal transport map.



## Euler-Arnold variational problem

Given a Lebesgue measure-preserving map  $\bar{T}$ , find a **divergence-free** velocity field (control),  $v(x, t)$  that:

- ▶  $T(\cdot, 1) = \bar{T}$ ,  $T(\cdot, 0) = I$
- ▶ minimizes

$$\int_0^1 \int \frac{|v(T(x; t), t)|^2}{2} dx dt,$$

among all such divergence-free velocities.

It turns out a solution to this variational problem solves the Euler equation in fluid mechanics

$$v_t + v \nabla v = \nabla p \quad \operatorname{div} v = 0.$$



# Deep learning as a (discrete) control problem

- ▶ Deep learning is a discrete control problem in spaces of maps.
- ▶ A layer is a parametrized map  $N_{\theta_i}$
- ▶ The goal in deep learning is to choose  $m$  parameters such that the map

$$T = N_{\theta_m} \circ \dots \circ N_{\theta_1}$$

minimizes some functional.



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# Supervised learning problem - data-centered formulation

Given pairs  $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^{2d}$  find a map

$$T = N_{\theta_m} \circ \dots \circ N_{\theta_1}$$

that minimizes

$$\sum |y_i - T(x_i)|^2.$$



# Supervised learning problem - abstract version

Given a probability measure  $\mu$  in  $\mathbb{R}^{2d}$  find a transformation

$$T = N_{\theta_m} \circ \dots \circ N_{\theta_1}$$

that minimizes

$$\int |y - T(x)|^2 d\mu(x, y).$$





# Deep linear learning

We consider the **linear** neural networks

$$N_{b_n}(x) = Ax + b_n$$

Then, the composition

$$T = N_{b_m} \circ \dots \circ N_{b_1}(x)$$

gives the flow map corresponding to

$$x_{n+1} = Ax_n + b_n.$$



## LQ control problem - recap

Consider the discrete dynamics with control  $b_n$

$$x_{n+1} = Ax_n + b_n.$$

and consider the problem of minimizing

$$|x_m|^2$$

(here,  $L = 0$ ).



# LQ control problem as a deep learning (supervised) problem

Let  $N_{b_n}(x) = Ax + b_n$ , and consider the linear NN

$$T = N_{b_m} \circ \dots \circ N_{b_1}(x),$$

to minimize

$$\int |T[x] - y|^2 \delta_{x_0}(x) \delta_0(y) dx dy.$$

This is equivalent to minimize  $|T(x_0)|^2 = |x_m|^2$ .



# ResNets

A Residual Network (ResNet) is a NN architecture of the form

$$N_{\theta}(x) = x + hf(x, \theta).$$

For example

$$N_{A,b}(x) = x + h\sigma(Ax + b)$$

Where  $\sigma(z) = z^+$  (taken coordinatewise).



## Resnet continuous limit

The ResNet dynamics is

$$x_{n+1} = x_n + h\sigma(A_n x_n + b_n)$$

which is the Euler discretization of the ODE

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = \sigma(A(t)\mathbf{x} + b(t)).$$



## Resnet limit

Given the controls  $A(t)$  and  $b(t)$  the limit map is determined by

$$\frac{d}{dt} T(x; t) = \sigma(A(t)T(x; t) + b(t)).$$



## Supervised learning problem

Find  $A(t)$  and  $b(t)$  that minimize

$$\int |y - T(x, 1)|^2 d\mu(x, y).$$

with

$$\frac{d}{dt} T(x; t) = \sigma(A(t) T(x; t) + b(t)),$$

and  $T(x, 0) = x$ .



## Key concepts and ideas

- ▶ Supervised learning can be set up as control problem in spaces of maps
- ▶ Resnets are particularly suitable to obtain continuous limits





## Key questions in supervised learning

- ▶ Controllability (what maps can be generated by a particular architecture)
- ▶ Convergence
- ▶ Approximation - can we use continuous limits to design better neural networks.



# Outline

Calculus of variations

Optimal control

Hamilton-Jacobi equations

Reinforcement learning

Variational problems in the space of maps

Infinite dimensional control

Control formulation of (deep) supervised learning

**Control formulation of (deep) unsupervised learning**

Further mathematical issues



# Unsupervised learning - clustering

The clustering problem can set up as follows. Find a map

$$T : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \{1, \dots, n\}$$

that minimizes some measure of dissimilarity among data.



## Example - center of mass clustering

Given a probability measure in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  find

$$\min_T \sum_i \int_{\Omega_i} |x - \bar{x}_i|^2 d\mu(x),$$

where  $\Omega_i = T^{-1}(i)$  and

$$\bar{x}_i = \frac{\sum_i \int_{\Omega_i} x d\mu}{\sum_i \int_{\Omega_i} 1 d\mu}.$$



# Auto-Encoders

Given a probability measure  $\mu$  in  $\mathbb{R}^d$  find two maps  $T_E : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^r$  and  $T_D : \mathbb{R}^r \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$  that minimize

$$\int |x - T_D \circ T_E(x)|^2 d\mu.$$

When  $r < d$  the encoder map  $T_E$  provides a low-dimensional representation of the data.



## Key concepts and ideas

- ▶ Many unsupervised learning can be set up as variational problems or control problems in the space of maps.
- ▶ Measures of dissimilarity are functionals on spaces of maps.



## Key questions in unsupervised learning

- ▶ Good measures of dissimilarity for clustering
- ▶ Choice of admissible classes of maps



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## Choice of architectures

- ▶ Approximation properties (finite-element spaces and piecewise linear NN)
- ▶ Group invariance (eg translation invariance in convolutional NN)



# Training

- ▶ Training refers to the process of finding the optimal set of parameters
- ▶ Stochastic gradient descent and its variants seem to be the tool of choice. But better global minimizers may be possible.



# Temporal structure

- ▶ Here, our data was taken as points in  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . But there are other interesting classes of data that are important in applications, for example, infinite sequences.
- ▶ Probability concepts such as independence, Markov property, ergodicity, are of great relevance for the formulation of the problems.
- ▶ Structure of NN must take into account the data structure (eg recurrent NN preserve non-anticipatory character)



## Applications in PDEs

- ▶ Dataless training is also an area of great interest to solving high-dimensional PDEs where few numerical methods are available.
- ▶ This is often formulated as a minimization problem such as

$$\min_T \|F(x, T(x), DT(x), \dots)\|$$

- ▶ Here, the choice of the norm is crucial and new questions arise - for example, what are good choices of the norm  $\|\cdot\|$  that ensure that whenever the previous minimization problem gives a small number we have that  $T$  is close to the solution of the problem

$$F(x, u, Du, \dots) = 0.$$



## Implementation issues

- ▶ We did not discuss any implementation issues, but this is in fact a crucial matter in applications.
- ▶ Neural networks and machine learning exist for quite a while but only became popular once powerful enough computers were available and flexible implementations (Keras, Tensor flow, ...) were built.



## Take home message

- ▶ Many problems in machine learning are variational or control problems similar to well known and well studied mathematical problems.
- ▶ Calculus of variations and control theory give important insights in understanding machine learning problems



## Further references (just names and highlights)

- ▶ Jinchao Xu (KAUST, AMCS) - approximation properties of Neural Networks
- ▶ Peter Markowich (KAUST, AMCS) - ResNets and control theory
- ▶ Peter Richtarik (KAUST, CS/AMCS) - Stochastic gradient descent, optimization...
- ▶ J. Schmidhuber (KAUST) - foundations of machine learning
- ▶ E. Zuazua - connection with control theory, see recent works
- ▶ Weinan E - high-dimensional PDE, dynamical system approach
- ▶ Carola Schönlieb and co-authors.... dynamical systems based NN, structure preservation

