#### One Fourth Labs

#### The idea of stochastic and mini-batch gradient descent

How many updates are we making?

1. Let us consider vanilla gradient descent

- 2. From the above image, we can see that we make one update(w,b) for one pass/epoch over the data
- 3. It can be exemplified as follows
  - a. Consider a training set with 1 million data points
  - b. With Gradient Descent, we calculate the derivatives for each of these points
  - c. Once we're done, we update the parameters
  - d. Thus, we pass over all 1 million points to make a single update to w & b
  - e. It can also be called batch gradient descent, as the entire dataset is used as a single batch
- 4. However, we can choose to make an approximation based on looking at a smaller portion(batch) of the data points instead of analysing the whole dataset each time.
- 5. This is called mini-batch gradient descent and can be described as follows
  - a. Consider a training set of 1 million data points
  - b. Select a batch size of 100 data points
  - c. What this means is that every batch, the algorithm calculates all of the 100 derivatives and updates the parameters
  - d. Thus, passing over all 1 million data points results in 10000 updates to w & b.
- 6. **Stochastic gradient descent** is when the batch size is 1, i.e. an update to the parameters after each single data point
- 7. One key thing to note is that both stochastic and mini-batch gradient descent are approximations of the true derivative obtained by batch gradient descent.
- 8. However it is advantageous as it allows is to make updates faster and achieve quicker progress.

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#### Running stochastic gradient descent

Can we make stochastic updates

1. Let's do a side by side comparison of batch GD and stochastic GD

```
Batch GD
                                                                 Stochastic GD
                                                  def do stochastic gradient descent():
 def do_gradient_descent():
                                                      w, b, eta, max epochs = -2, -2, 1.0, 1000
                                                      for i in range(max epochs):
     max epochs = 1000
     for i in range(max epochs):
                                                          for x, y in zip(X, Y):
                                                              dw = grad w(w,b,x,y)
          for x, y in zip(X, Y):
                                                              db = grad b(w,b,x,y)
              dw += grad_w(w, b, x, y)
              db += grad_b(w, b, x, y)
           = b - eta * db
                                                   0
0
                                                  -2
-2
                                                  -4
                                                  -6 <del>|</del>
-4
```

- 2. Some of the advantages of Stochastic GD are
  - a. Quicker updates
  - b. Many updates in one pass of the data
- 3. Some of the disadvantages of Stochastic GD are
  - a. Approximate(stochastic) gradient
  - b. Almost like tossing a coin once and computing P(heads)
- 4. From the Gradient descent visualization, we can see that it oscillates during movement. However, this oscillation is different from Momentum GD or NAG.
- 5. In stochastic GD, the oscillations are due to redirection after every point, as every point behaves as an individual greedy entity influencing w & b, thus leading to fluctuations right from the start.
- 6. In MGD or NAG, the oscillations appear the value approaches the minima as a result of overshooting the intended destination.

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#### Running mini-batch gradient descent

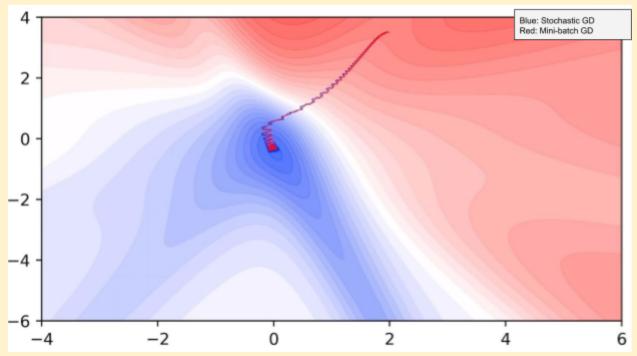
Doesn't it make sense to use more than one point or a mini-batch of points?

1. Let's look at the python implementation of mini-batch GD

```
def do_mini_batch_gradient_descent():
    w, b, eta, max_epochs = -2, -2, 1.0, 1000
    mini_batch_size = 10
    num_points_seen = 0
    for i in range(max_epochs):
        dw, db = 0, 0
        for x, y in zip(X, Y):
            dw += grad_w(w,b,x,y)
            db += grad_b(w,b,x,y)
            num_points_seen += 1

        if num_points_seen % mini_batch_size == 0:
            w = w - eta * dw
            b = b - eta * db
```

2. Now let us look at the 2D visualisation of mini-batch superimposed over stochastic GD



- 3. Here, we can observe that even though the plot oscillates for mini-batch GD, it is still considerably less than with stochastic GD, evidenced by the red plot lying entirely within the blue plot.
- 4. As we increase the batch size, the stability of the curve also improves, resulting in better estimates of the gradient
- 5. Recommended batch size is 32, 64, 128 etc.
- 6. The higher the batch size (k), the more accurate the estimates.

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#### **Epochs and Steps**

What is an epoch and what is a step?

- 1. Let us go over the definitions of an epoch and a step
  - a. 1 epoch = one pass over the entire data
  - b. 1 step = one update of the parameters
  - c. N = number of data points
  - d. B = mini-batch size
- 2. Let's analyse the algorithms using epochs and steps

Algorithm	Number of steps in one epoch
Batch Gradient Descent	1
Stochastic Gradient Descent	N
Mini-Batch Gradient Descent	N/B

3. Let's look at stochastic version of NAG and Momentum based GD

```
def do_stochastic_momentum_gradient_descent():
    w, b, eta, max_epochs = -2, -2, 1.0, 1000
    v_w, v_b = 0.0, 0.0
    gamma = 0.7
    for i in range(max_epochs):
        dw, db = 0, 0
        for x, y in zip(X, Y):
        dw += grad_b(w, b, x, y)
        db += grad_b(w, b, x, y)
        v_w = gamma*v_w + eta*dw
        v_b = gamma*v_b + eta*db

        w = w - v_w
        b = b - v_b
```

#### Stochastic NAG

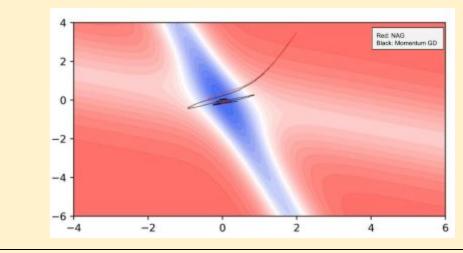
```
def do_stochastic_nag_gradient_descent():
    w, b, eta, max_epochs = -2, -2, 1.0, 1000
    v_w, v_b = 0, 0
    gamma = 0.9
    for i in range(max_epochs):
        dw, db = 0, 0

        #Compute the lookahead value
        w = w - gamma*v_w
        b = b - gamma*v_b

        for x, y in zip(X, Y):
        #Compute the derivatives using the lookahead value
        dw += grad_w(w, b, x, y)
        db += grad_b(w, b, x, y)

#Now move further in the direction of that gradient
        w = w - eta*dw
        b = b - eta*db

#Now update the history
        v_w = gamma * v_w + eta * dw
        v_b = gamma * v_b + eta * db
```



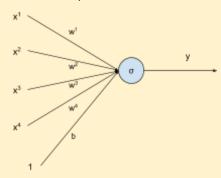
4. Since there is a history component, NAG and Momentum GD have slightly smoother oscillations.

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### Why do we need an adaptive learning rate?

Why do we need an adaptive learning rate for every feature?

1. Consider input data with 4 features being processed through a sigmoid neuron



- 2. Here  $y = f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(wx+b)}}$ 
  - a.  $x = \{x^1, x^2, x^3, x^4\}$
  - b.  $w = \{w^1, w^2, w^3, w^4\}$
- 3. From our gradient formula, we know that the value of the input feature plays a role in the gradient calculation i.e.  $\nabla w^n = (f(x) y) * f(x) * (1 f(x)) * x^n$
- 4. In real world scenarios, many features in the data are **sparse**, i.e. they take on a 0 value for most of the training inputs. Therefore, the derivatives corresponding to these 0 valued points are also 0, and the weight update is going to be 0.
- 5. To aid these sparse features, a larger learning rate can be applied to the **non-zero valued points** of these sparse features.
- 6. Example:
  - a. Consider a subject at college that you are taught for only 5 minutes a day
  - b. For those 5 minutes, maximising your attention span would allow for maximum knowledge retention
  - c. In this case, the 5-minute subject would be a sparse feature i.e. a feature that does not occur very often in the training data
  - d. And the attention span would be our learning rate. A high learning rate for the sparse features allows us to maximise the learning (weight updation) we get from it.
- 7. Conversely, **dense** features are those with non-zero values for most of the data points. They must be dealt with by using a lower learning rate.
- 8. Can we have a different learning rate for each parameter(weights) which takes care of the frequency(sparsity/density) of features?

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#### **Introducing Adagrad**

How do we convert the adaptive learning rate intuition into an equation?

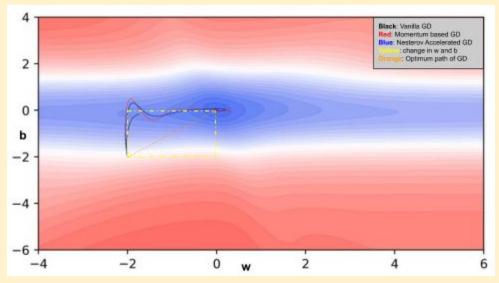
- 1. **Intuition**: Decay the learning rate for parameters in proportion to their update history (fewer updates, lesser decay)
- 2. The Adagrad (Adaptive Gradient) is an algorithm which satisfies the above intuition
- 3. Adagrad
  - a.  $v_t = v_{t-1} + (\nabla \omega_t)^2$ 
    - i. This value increments based on the gradient of that particular iteration, i.e. the value of the feature is non-zero.
    - ii. In the case of dense features, it increments for most iterations, resulting in a larger  $v_t$  value
  - iii. For sparse features, does not increment much as the gradient value is often 0, leading to a lower  $v_i$  value.
  - b.  $\omega_{t+1} = \omega_t \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{(\upsilon_t) + \varepsilon}} \nabla \omega_t$ 
    - i. The denominator term  $\sqrt{(v_t)}$  serves to regulate the learning rate  $\eta$
  - ii. For dense features,  $v_t$  is larger,  $\sqrt{(v_t)}$  becomes larger thereby lowering  $\eta$
  - iii. For sparse features,  $v_t$  is smaller,  $\sqrt{(v_t)}$  becomes smaller and lowers  $\eta$  to a smaller extent.
  - iv. The  $\varepsilon$  term is added to the denominator  $\sqrt{(v_t)} + \varepsilon$  to **prevent** a **divide-by-zero error** from occurring in the case of very sparse features i.e. where all the data points yield zero up till the measured instance.

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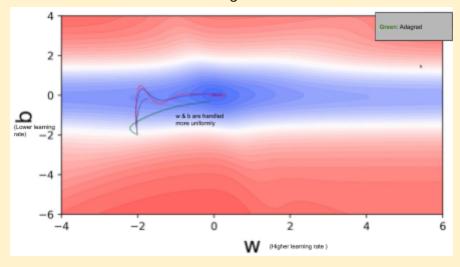
#### **Running and Visualizing Adagrad**

Let's compare this to vanilla, momentum based, NAG gradient descent

1. Let's plot the 2D visualisation of vanilla, momentum based, NAG gradient descent



- 2. Here, w & b behave as two features of the input  $(x_0, x_1)$ . b is a dense feature and is always a non-zero value. w is deliberately chosen as a sparse feature with 80% of the values as 0.
- 3. Thus, we would need a higher learning rate for w and a lower learning rate for b, if not, we will end up with sub-optimal paths as shown by the previous 3 types of GD from the figure.
- 4. Let's look at a visualisation of Adagrad



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### A limitation of Adagrad

What do we observe?

- 1. Advantage: Parameters corresponding to sparse features get better updates
- 2. **Disadvantage**: The learning rate decays very aggressively as the denominator grows (not good for parameters corresponding to dense features)

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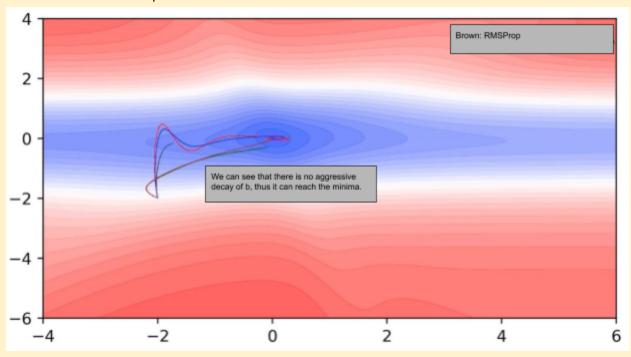
### Running and Visualizing RMSProp

Can we overcome aggressively decaying denominators?

- 1. Intuition: Why not decay the denominator and prevent its rapid growth?
- 2. We can consider the RMSProp algorithm

a. 
$$v_t = \beta * v_{t-1} + (1 - \beta)(\nabla \omega_t)^2$$

- i. Here we are taking an exponentially decaying sum
- ii. Let  $\beta = 0.9$  and consider the 4th iteration  $v_4$
- iii.  $v_0 = 0$
- iv.  $v_1 = 0.1(\nabla \omega_1)^2$
- v.  $v_2 = (0.9)(0.1)(\nabla \omega_1)^2 + 0.1(\nabla \omega_2)^2$
- vi.  $v_3 = (0.9)^2 (0.1) (\nabla \omega_1)^2 + (0.9) (0.1) (\nabla \omega_2)^2 + 0.1 (\nabla \omega_3)^2$
- vii.  $v_4 = (0.9)^3 (0.1) (\nabla \omega_1)^2 + (0.9)^2 (0.1) (\nabla \omega_2)^2 + (0.9) (0.1) (\nabla \omega_3)^2 + 0.1 (\nabla \omega_4)^2$
- viii. We can see from this that our value  $v_4$  is much smaller than in the case of Adagrad, due the history of the gradients being multiplied by the decay ratio.
- ix. The relative difference between dense and sparse features is still maintained.
- b.  $\omega_{t+1} = \omega_t \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{(\upsilon_t)} + \varepsilon} \nabla \omega_t$ 
  - i. This is the same as in Adagrad
- 3. Let's visualise RMSProp in 2D



- 4. Adagrad got stuck when it was close to convergence (it was no longer able to move in the vertical (b) direction because of the decayed learning rate)
- 5. RMSProp overcomes this problem by being less aggressive on the decay

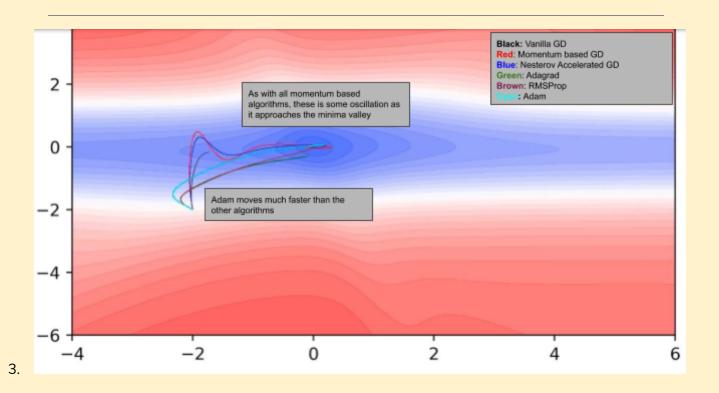
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### **Running and Visualizing Adam**

Does it make sense to use a cumulative history of gradients?

- 1. We have already looked at a algorithms that make use of a history term
  - a. Momentum based GD: Makes use of the history of the gradients
    - i.  $v_t = \gamma * v_{t-1} + \eta \nabla \omega_t$
  - ii.  $\omega_{t+1} = \omega_t \upsilon_t$
  - iii. Here, history is used to calculate the current update
  - b. RMSProp: Makes use of the history of the square of the gradients
  - i.  $v_t = \beta * v_{t-1} + (1 \beta)(\nabla \omega_t)^2$
  - ii.  $\omega_{t+1} = \omega_t \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{(\upsilon_t)} + \varepsilon} \nabla \omega_t$
  - iii. Here, history is used to adjust the learning-rate
  - c. Can we combine these two ideas?
  - d. Yes, in the form of Adam, which uses both of those history terms
- 2. Adam
  - a.  $m_t = \beta_1 * v_{t-1} + (1 \beta_1)(\nabla \omega_t)$ 
    - i. This is very similar to the history that Momentum based GD maintains
  - ii. It's a running sum of all the updates done
  - b.  $v_t = \beta_2 * v_{t-1} + (1 \beta_2)(\nabla \omega_t)^2$ 
    - i. This is similar to the history that RMSProp maintains
  - ii. It is used to regulate the learning-rate
  - c.  $\omega_{t+1} = \omega_t \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{(\upsilon_t) + \varepsilon}} m_t$ 
    - i. Here, the first history  $m_t$  is used to make the update, ensuring that the history of derivatives is used to calculate the current update
  - ii. The second derivative  $v_t$  is used to regulate the learning rate based on density or sparsity of the feature
  - d. In addition to the above points, Adam performs bias correction by using the following equations
  - i.  $m_t = \frac{m_t}{1-\beta_1^t}$
  - ii.  $v_t = \frac{v_t}{1 \beta_1^t}$
  - iii. It ensures that the training is smoother and also prevents erratic updates in beginning of training.

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#### **Summary**

Which algorithm do we use in practice?

#### 1. Algorithms:

- a. GD
- b. Momentum based GD
- c. Nesterov Accelerated GD
- d. AdaGrad
- e. RMSProp
- f. Adam

#### 2. Strategies:

- a. Batch
- b. Mini-Batch (32, 64, 128)
- c. Stochastic
- 3. Up till this point, we have been using GD with Batch update
- 4. In practice, Adam with Mini-Batch is the most popular choice
- 5. However, GD with Stochastic update is also used along with the use of special strategies to adjust the learning rate.