



Advanced Stochastic Gradient Methods

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Optimization methods. MIPT

Finite-sum problem

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We consider classic finite-sample average minimization:

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} f(x) = \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^p} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x)$$

The gradient descent acts like follows:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \frac{\alpha_k}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla f_i(x) \quad (\text{GD})$$

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Let's/ switch from the full gradient calculation to its unbiased estimator, when we randomly choose i_k index of point at each iteration uniformly:

$$x_{k+1} = x_k - \alpha_k \nabla f_{i_k}(x_k) \quad (\text{SGD})$$

With $p(i_k = i) = \frac{1}{n}$, the stochastic gradient is an unbiased estimate of the gradient, given by:

$$\mathbb{E}[\nabla f_{i_k}(x)] = \sum_{i=1}^n p(i_k = i) \nabla f_i(x) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{n} \nabla f_i(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla f_i(x) = \nabla f(x)$$

This indicates that the expected value of the stochastic gradient is equal to the actual gradient of $f(x)$.

Results for Gradient Descent

Stochastic iterations are n times faster, but how many iterations are needed?

If ∇f is Lipschitz continuous then we have:

Assumption	Deterministic Gradient Descent	Stochastic Gradient Descent
PL	$O(\log(1/\varepsilon))$	$O(1/\varepsilon)$
Convex	$O(1/\varepsilon)$	$O(1/\varepsilon^2)$
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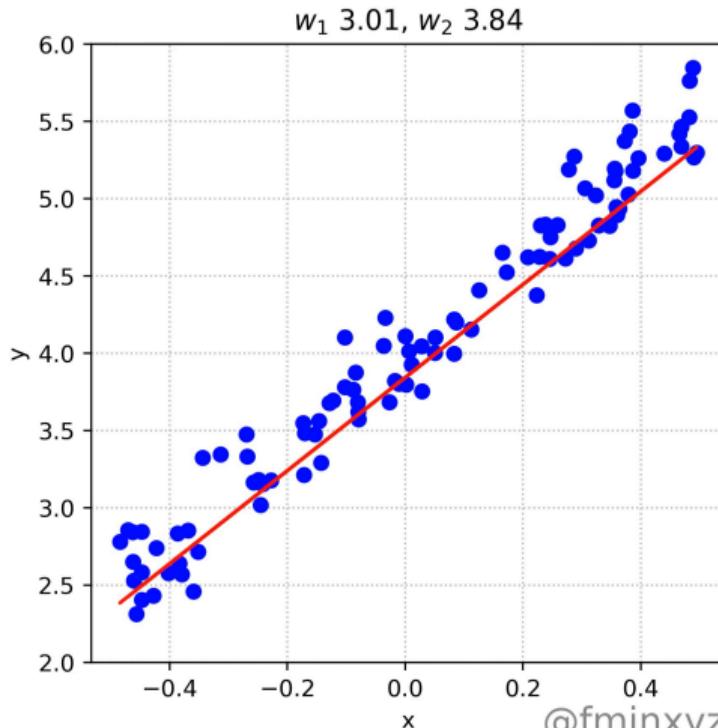
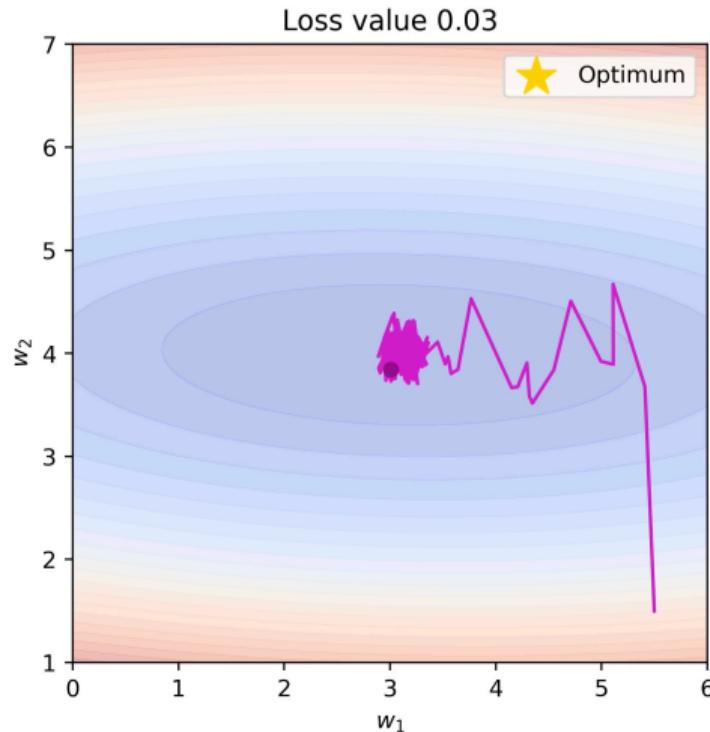
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 - Sublinear rate even in strongly-convex case.
 - Bounds are unimprovable under standard assumptions.
 - Oracle returns an unbiased gradient approximation with bounded variance.
- Momentum and Quasi-Newton-like methods do not improve rates in stochastic case. Can only improve constant factors (bottleneck is variance, not condition number).

SGD with constant stepsize does not converge

Stochastic Gradient Descent. Batch = 2

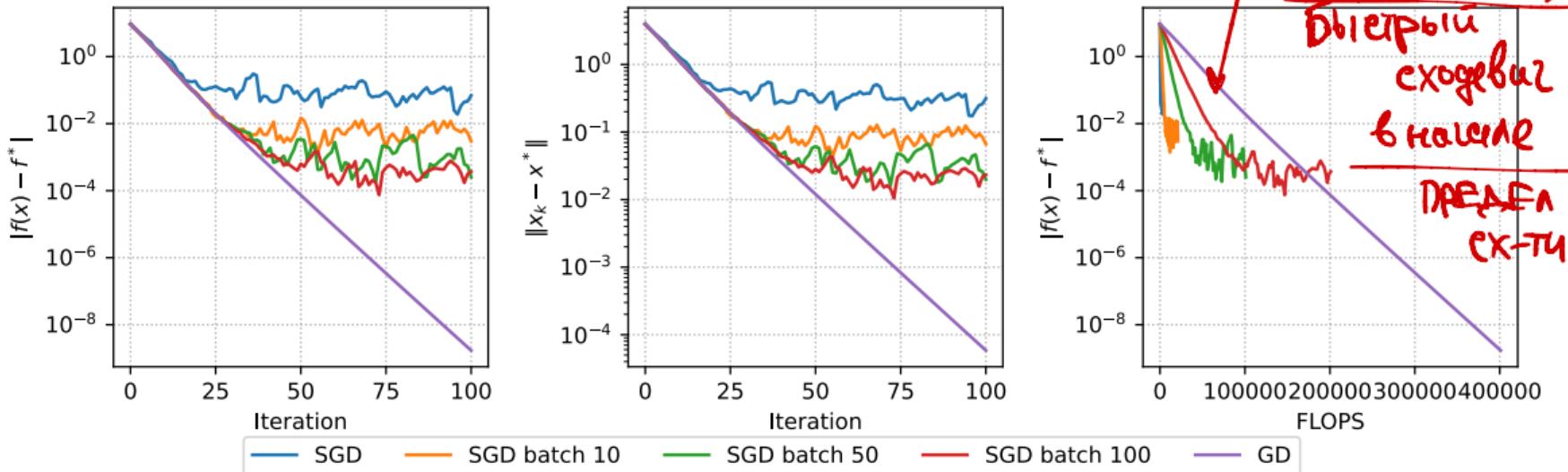


@fminxyz

Main problem of SGD

$$f(x) = \frac{\mu}{2} \|x\|_2^2 + \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \log(1 + \exp(-y_i \langle a_i, x \rangle)) \rightarrow \min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n}$$

Strongly convex binary logistic regression. m=200, n=10, mu=1.



Variance reduction methods

Key idea of variance reduction

Principle: reducing variance of a sample of X by using a sample from another random variable Y with known expectation:

$$Z_\alpha = \alpha(X - Y) + \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

- $\mathbb{E}[Z_\alpha] = \alpha\mathbb{E}[X] + (1 - \alpha)\mathbb{E}[Y]$

even $\alpha=1$ $\mathbb{E} Z = \mathbb{E} X$
 $\text{Var}(Z) < \text{Var}(X)$

$$\text{Var}(Z_\alpha) =$$

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- $\text{var}(Z_\alpha) = \alpha^2 (\text{var}(X) + \text{var}(Y) - 2\text{cov}(X, Y))$

$$\text{var}(Z) = \mathbb{E} Z^2 - (\mathbb{E} Z)^2 = \dots$$

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Application to gradient estimation ?

- **SVRG:** Let $X = \nabla f_{i_k}(x^{(k-1)})$ and $Y = \nabla f_{i_k}(\tilde{x})$, with $\alpha = 1$ and \tilde{x} stored.

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CTOX (prob)
Бб1AO:
 $\nabla f(x^{k-1})_{i_k}$

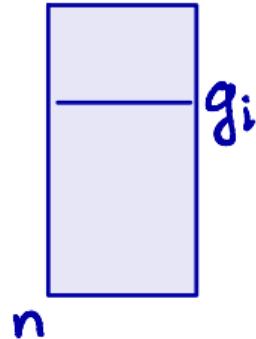
CTANO:
 $\nabla f_{i_k}(x^{k-1}) - \nabla f_{i_k}(\tilde{x}) +$
 $+ \nabla f(\tilde{x})$

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- $\mathbb{E}[Y] = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla f_i(\tilde{x})$ full gradient at \tilde{x} ;
- $X - Y = \nabla f_{i_k}(x^{(k-1)}) - \nabla f_{i_k}(\tilde{x})$

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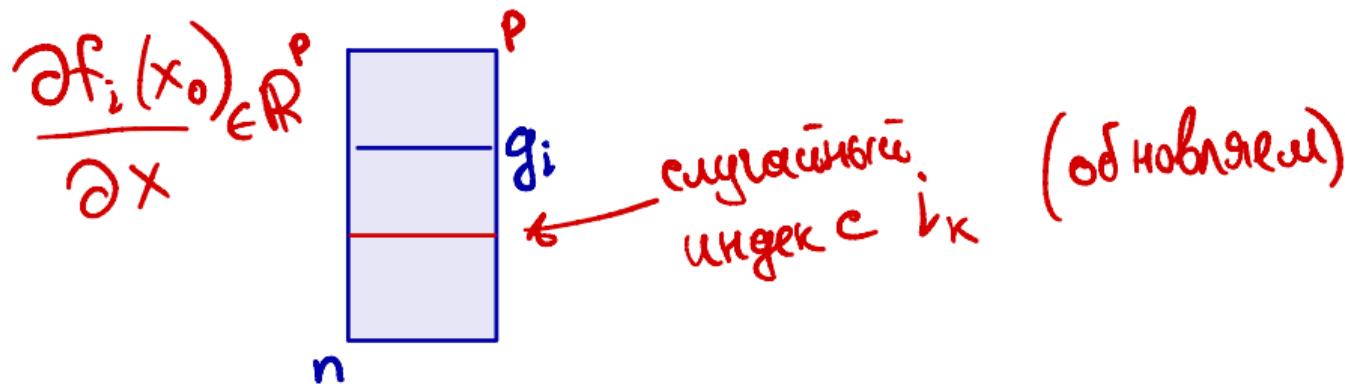
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- At steps $k = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, pick random $i_k \in \{1, \dots, n\}$, then let

$$g_{i_k}^{(k)} = \nabla f_{i_k}(x^{(k-1)}) \quad (\text{most recent gradient of } f_{i_k})$$

Set all other $g_i^{(k)} = g_i^{(k-1)}$, $i \neq i_k$, i.e., these stay the same



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- SAG gradient estimates are no longer unbiased, but they have greatly reduced variance
- Isn't it expensive to average all these gradients? Basically just as efficient as SGD, as long we're clever:

$$x^{(k)} = x^{(k-1)} - \alpha_k \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{n} g_i^{(k)} - \frac{1}{n} g_i^{(k-1)} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g_i^{(k-1)}}_{\text{old table average}} \right)}_{\text{new table average}}$$

SAG convergence

Assume that $f(x) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x)$ where each f_i is differentiable, and ∇f_i is Lipschitz with constant L .

Denote $\bar{x}^{(k)} = \frac{1}{k} \sum_{l=0}^{k-1} x^{(l)}$, the average iterate after $k - 1$ steps.

i Theorem

SAG, with a fixed step size $\alpha = \frac{1}{16L}$, and the initialization

$$g_i^{(0)} = \nabla f_i(x^{(0)}) - \nabla f(x^{(0)}), \quad i = 1, \dots, n$$

satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\bar{x}^{(k)})] - f^\star \leq \frac{48n}{k} [f(x^{(0)}) - f^\star] + \frac{128L}{k} \|x^{(0)} - x^\star\|^2$$

$$\sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{k}}$$

where the expectation is taken over random choices of indices.

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 - SAG: $\frac{48n[f(x^{(0)}) - f^*] + 128L\|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2}{k}$
- So the first term in SAG bound suffers from a factor of n ; authors suggest smarter initialization to make $f(x^{(0)}) - f^*$ small (e.g., they suggest using the result of n SGD steps).

SAG convergence

Assume further that each f_i is strongly convex with parameter μ .

i Theorem

SAG, with a step size $\alpha = \frac{1}{16L}$ and the same initialization as before, satisfies

$$\mathbb{E}[f(x^{(k)})] - f^* \leq \left(1 - \min\left(\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8n}\right)\right)^k \left(\frac{3}{2}(f(x^{(0)}) - f^*) + \frac{4L}{n} \|x^{(0)} - x^*\|^2\right)$$

Notes:

SMOL DATA

BIG DATA

- This is linear convergence rate $\mathcal{O}(\gamma^k)$ for SAG. Compare this to $\mathcal{O}(\gamma^k)$ for GD, and only $\mathcal{O}\left(\frac{1}{k}\right)$ for SGD.

$$\left(1 - \frac{\mu}{16L}\right)^k < \frac{1}{8n}$$

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- Like GD, we say SAG is adaptive to strong convexity.
- Proofs of these results not easy: 15 pages, computed-aided!

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 - Increase L , until the following satisfies

$$f_{i_k}(x^{k+1}) \leq f_{i_k}(x^k) + \nabla f_{i_k}(x^k)(x^{k+1} - x^k) + \frac{L}{2} \|x^{k+1} - x^k\|_2^2$$

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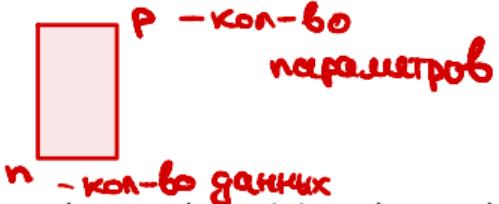
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- Since stochastic gradient $g(x^k) \rightarrow \nabla f(x^k)$ you can use its norm to track convergence (which is not true for SGD!)
- For the generalized linear models (this includes LogReg, LLS) you need to store much less memory $\mathcal{O}(n)$ instead of $\mathcal{O}(pn)$.

$$f_i(w) = \varphi(w^T x_i) \leftrightarrow \nabla f_i(w) = \varphi'(w^T x_i) x_i$$

$\varphi: \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ $\varphi' \in \mathbb{R}$

SAG non-uniform sampling

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- To generate with probabilities $L_i / \sum_j L_j$, there is an algorithm with complexity $O(\log N)$.

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- Two parameters: length of epochs + step-size α .
- Linear convergence rate, simple proof.

Adaptivity or scaling

Adagrad (Duchi, Hazan, and Singer 2010)

Very popular adaptive method. Let $g^{(k)} = \nabla f_{i_k}(x^{(k-1)})$, and update for $j = 1, \dots, p$:

$$v_j^{(k)} = v_j^{k-1} + (g_j^{(k)})^2$$
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- The constant ϵ is typically set to 10^{-6} to ensure that we do not suffer from division by zero or overly large step sizes.

RMSProp (Tieleman and Hinton, 2012)

An enhancement of AdaGrad that addresses its aggressive, monotonically decreasing learning rate. Uses a moving average of squared gradients to adjust the learning rate for each weight. Let $g^{(k)} = \nabla f_{i_k}(x^{(k-1)})$ and update rule for $j = 1, \dots, p$:

$$v_j^{(k)} = \gamma v_j^{(k-1)} + (1 - \gamma)(g_j^{(k)})^2$$

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- Commonly used in training neural networks, particularly in recurrent neural networks.

Adadelta (Zeiler, 2012)

An extension of RMSProp that seeks to reduce its dependence on a manually set global learning rate. Instead of accumulating all past squared gradients, Adadelta limits the window of accumulated past gradients to some fixed size w . Update mechanism does not require learning rate α :

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- The method does not require an initial learning rate setting, making it easier to configure.
- Often used in deep learning where parameter scales differ significantly across layers.

Adam (Kingma and Ba, 2014) ¹ ²

Combines elements from both AdaGrad and RMSProp. It considers an exponentially decaying average of past gradients and squared gradients.

EMA:

$$m_j^{(k)} = \beta_1 m_j^{(k-1)} + (1 - \beta_1) g_j^{(k)}$$

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- Гораздо лучше работает для языковых моделей, чем для задач компьютерного зрения - почему?

¹Adam: A Method for Stochastic Optimization

²On the Convergence of Adam and Beyond

AdamW (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2017)

Addresses a common issue with ℓ_2 regularization in adaptive optimizers like Adam. Standard ℓ_2 regularization adds $\lambda\|x\|^2$ to the loss, resulting in a gradient term λx . In Adam, this term gets scaled by the adaptive learning rate $(\sqrt{\hat{v}_j} + \epsilon)$, coupling the weight decay to the gradient magnitudes.

AdamW decouples weight decay from the gradient adaptation step.

Update rule:

$$m_j^{(k)} = \beta_1 m_j^{(k-1)} + (1 - \beta_1) g_j^{(k)}$$
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$$\hat{m}_j = \frac{m_j^{(k)}}{1 - \beta_1^k}, \quad \hat{v}_j = \frac{v_j^{(k)}}{1 - \beta_2^k}$$

$$x_j^{(k)} = x_j^{(k-1)} - \alpha \left(\frac{\hat{m}_j}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_j} + \epsilon} + \lambda x_j^{(k-1)} \right)$$

Notes:

- The weight decay term $\lambda x_j^{(k-1)}$ is added after the adaptive gradient step.

AdamW (Loshchilov & Hutter, 2017)

Addresses a common issue with ℓ_2 regularization in adaptive optimizers like Adam. Standard ℓ_2 regularization adds $\lambda\|x\|^2$ to the loss, resulting in a gradient term λx . In Adam, this term gets scaled by the adaptive learning rate $(\sqrt{\hat{v}_j} + \epsilon)$, coupling the weight decay to the gradient magnitudes.

AdamW decouples weight decay from the gradient adaptation step.

Update rule:

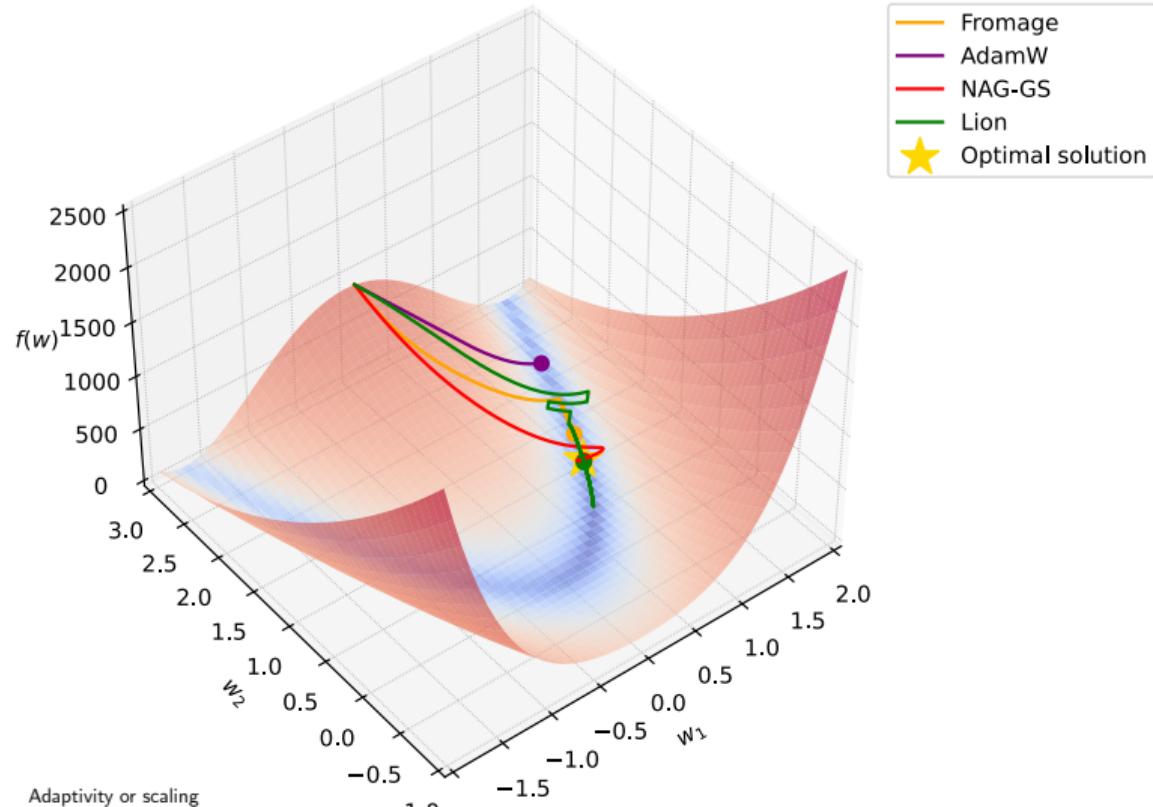
$$\begin{aligned}m_j^{(k)} &= \beta_1 m_j^{(k-1)} + (1 - \beta_1) g_j^{(k)} \\v_j^{(k)} &= \beta_2 v_j^{(k-1)} + (1 - \beta_2) (g_j^{(k)})^2 \\\hat{m}_j &= \frac{m_j^{(k)}}{1 - \beta_1^k}, \quad \hat{v}_j = \frac{v_j^{(k)}}{1 - \beta_2^k} \\x_j^{(k)} &= x_j^{(k-1)} - \alpha \left(\frac{\hat{m}_j}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_j} + \epsilon} + \lambda x_j^{(k-1)} \right)\end{aligned}$$

Notes:

- The weight decay term $\lambda x_j^{(k-1)}$ is added after the adaptive gradient step.
- Widely adopted in training transformers and other large models. Default choice for huggingface trainer.

A lot of them

Rosenbrock Function.
Adaptive stochastic gradient algorithms.
Learning rate 0.003

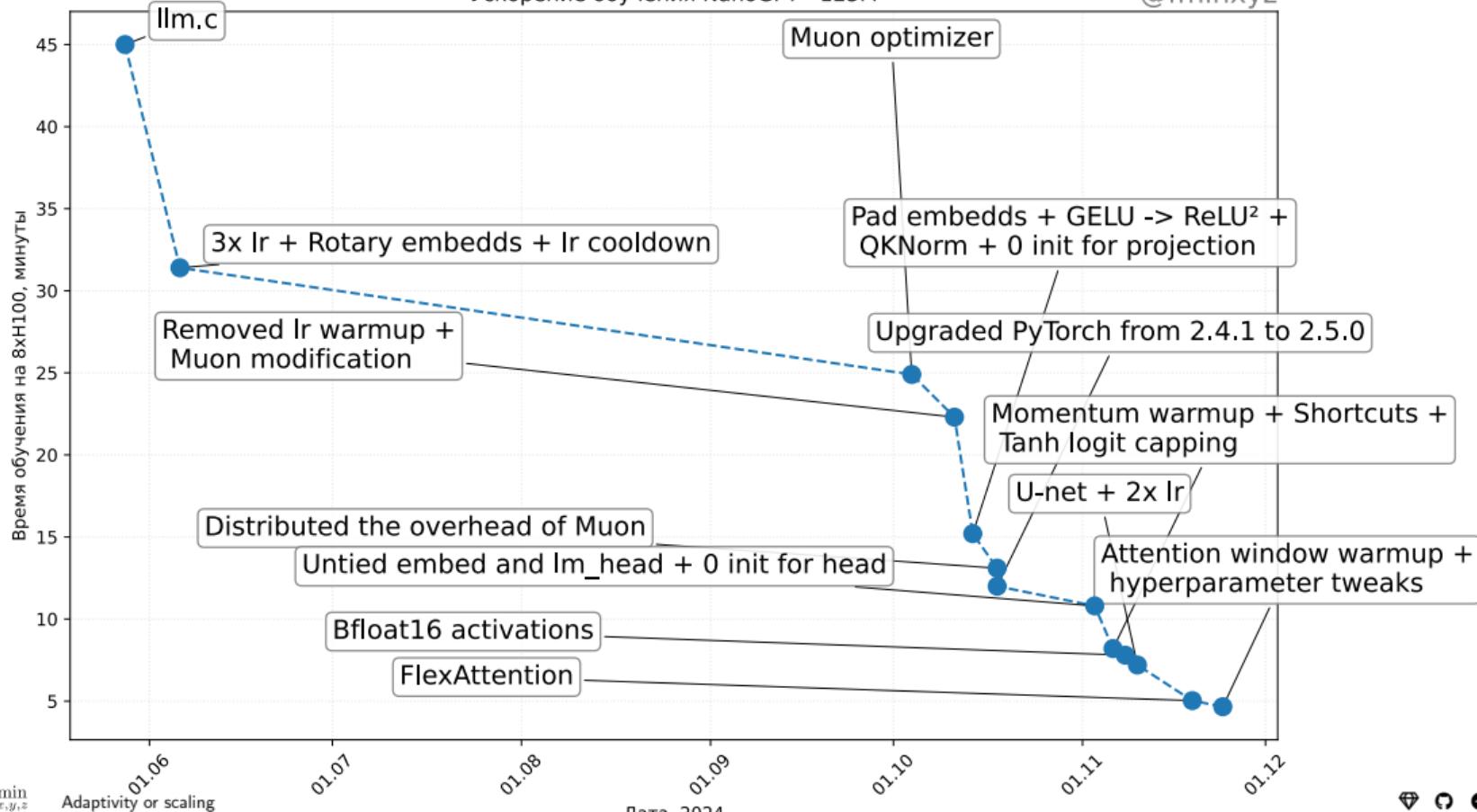


How to compare them? AlgoPerf benchmark

NanoGPT speedrun

Ускорение обучения NanoGPT - 125M

@fminxyz



Shampoo (Gupta, Anil, et al., 2018; Anil et al., 2020)

Stands for **S**tochastic **H**essian-**A**pproximation **M**atrix **P**reconditioning for **O**ptimization **O**f deep networks. It's a method inspired by second-order optimization designed for large-scale deep learning.

Core Idea: Approximates the full-matrix AdaGrad pre conditioner using efficient matrix structures, specifically Kronecker products.

For a weight matrix $W \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times n}$, the update involves preconditioning using approximations of the statistics matrices $L \approx \sum_k G_k G_k^T$ and $R \approx \sum_k G_k^T G_k$, where G_k are the gradients.

Simplified concept:

1. Compute gradient G_k .

Notes:

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- Variants exist for different tensor shapes (e.g., convolutional layers).

$$\begin{aligned}W_{t+1} &= W_t - \eta(G_t G_t^\top)^{-1/4} G_t (G_t^\top G_t)^{-1/4} \\&= W_t - \eta(US^2U^\top)^{-1/4}(USV^\top)(VS^2V^\top)^{-1/4} \\&= W_t - \eta(US^{-1/2}U^\top)(USV^\top)(VS^{-1/2}V^\top) \\&= W_t - \eta US^{-1/2} S S^{-1/2} V^\top \\&= W_t - \eta U V^\top\end{aligned}$$

³Deriving Muon