# CS60021: Scalable Data Mining

## Large Scale Machine Learning

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#### Much of ML is optimization

#### **Linear Classification**

$$\arg\min_{w} \sum_{i=1}^{n} ||w||^{2} + C \sum_{i=1}^{n} \xi_{i}$$
s.t. 
$$1 - y_{i} x_{i}^{T} w \leq \xi_{i}$$

$$\xi_{i} \geq 0$$

#### **Maximum Likelihood**

$$\arg\max_{\theta} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p_{\theta}(x_i)$$

#### **K-Means**

$$\arg \min_{\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k} J(\mu) = \sum_{j=1}^k \sum_{i \in C_j} ||x_i - \mu_j||^2$$

#### Stochastic optimization

- Goal of machine learning :
  - Minimize expected loss

$$\min_{h} L(h) = \mathbf{E} \left[ loss(h(x), y) \right]$$

given samples  $(x_i, y_i)$  i = 1, 2...m

- This is Stochastic Optimization
  - Assume loss function is convex

#### Batch (sub)gradient descent for ML

Process all examples together in each step

$$w^{(k+1)} \leftarrow w^{(k)} - \eta_t \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial L(w, x_i, y_i)}{\partial w} \right)$$

where L is the regularized loss function

- Entire training set examined at each step
- Very slow when n is very large

### Stochastic (sub)gradient descent

- "Optimize" one example at a time
- Choose examples randomly (or reorder and choose in order)
  - Learning representative of example distribution

for 
$$i = 1$$
 to  $n$ :
$$w^{(k+1)} \leftarrow w^{(k)} - \eta_t \frac{\partial L(w, x_i, y_i)}{\partial w}$$

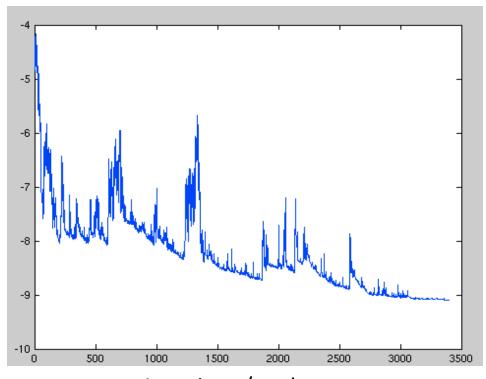
where L is the regularized loss function

### Stochastic (sub)gradient descent

for 
$$i = 1$$
 to  $n$ :
$$w^{(k+1)} \leftarrow w^{(k)} - \eta_t \frac{\partial L(w, x_i, y_i)}{\partial w}$$

where L is the regularized loss function

- Equivalent to online learning (the weight vector w changes with every example)
- Convergence guaranteed for convex functions (to local minimum)



Iterations / updates

### Stochastic gradient descent

- Given dataset  $D = \{(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_m, y_m)\}$
- Loss function:  $L(\theta, D) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} l(\theta; x_i, y_i)$
- For linear models:  $l(\theta; x_i, y_i) = l(y_i, \theta^T \phi(x_i))$
- Assumption D is drawn IID from some distribution  $\mathcal{P}$ .
- Problem:

$$\min_{\theta} L(\theta, D)$$

#### Stochastic gradient descent

- Input: *D*
- Output:  $\bar{\theta}$

#### Algorithm:

- Initialize  $\theta^0$
- For  $t=1,\ldots,T$   $\theta^{t+1}=\theta^t-\eta_t\nabla_\theta l(y_t,\theta^T\phi(x_t))$
- $\bar{\theta} = \frac{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \eta_t \theta^t}{\sum_{t=1}^{T} \eta_t}$ .

#### SGD convergence

- Expected loss:  $s(\theta) = E_{\mathcal{P}}[l(y, \theta^T \phi(x))]$
- Optimal Expected loss:  $s^* = s(\theta^*) = \min_{\theta} s(\theta)$
- Convergence:

$$E_{\overline{\theta}}[s(\overline{\theta})] - s^* \le \frac{R^2 + L^2 \sum_{t=1}^T \eta_t^2}{2 \sum_{t=1}^T \eta_t}$$

- Where:  $R = \|\theta^0 \theta^*\|$
- $L = \max \nabla l(y, \theta^T \phi(x))$

### SGD convergence proof

- Define  $r_t = \|\theta^t \theta^*\|$  and  $g_t = \nabla_{\theta} l(y_t, \theta^T \phi(x_t))$
- $r_{t+1}^2 = r_t^2 + \eta_t^2 ||g_t||^2 2\eta_t (\theta^t \theta^*)^T g_t$
- Taking expectation w.r.t  $\mathcal{P}, \bar{\theta}$  and using  $s^* s(\theta^t) \ge g_t^T(\theta^* \theta^t)$ , we get:  $E_{\bar{\theta}}[r_{t+1}^2 r_t^2] \le \eta_t^2 L^2 + 2\eta_t(s^* E_{\bar{\theta}}[s(\theta^t)])$
- Taking sum over t = 1, ..., T and using

$$E_{\overline{\theta}}[r_{t+1}^2 - r_0^2] \le L^2 \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \eta_t^2 + 2 \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \eta_t (s^* - E_{\overline{\theta}}[s(\theta^t)])$$

#### SGD convergence proof

Using convexity of s:

$$\left(\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \eta_t\right) E_{\bar{\theta}}\left[s(\bar{\theta})\right] \leq E_{\bar{\theta}}\left[\sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \eta_t s(\theta^t)\right]$$

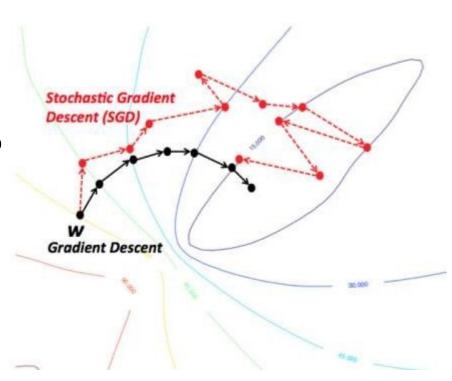
• Substituting in the expression from previous slide: T-1

$$E_{\overline{\theta}}[r_{t+1}^2 - r_0^2] \le L^2 \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \eta_t^2 + 2 \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \eta_t (s^* - E_{\overline{\theta}}[s(\overline{\theta})])$$

Rearranging the terms proves the result.

#### SGD - Issues

- Convergence very sensitive to learning rate
  - $(\eta_t)$  (oscillations near solution due to probabilistic nature of sampling)
    - Might need to decrease with time to ensure the algorithm converges eventually
- Basically SGD good for machine learning with large data sets!



#### Mini-batch SGD

- Stochastic 1 example per iteration
- Batch All the examples!
- Mini-batch SGD:
  - Sample m examples at each step and perform SGD on them
- Allows for parallelization, but choice of m based on heuristics

#### **Example: Text categorization**

- Example by Leon Bottou:
  - Reuters RCV1 document corpus
    - Predict a category of a document
      - One vs. the rest classification
  - n = 781,000 training examples (documents)
  - 23,000 test examples
  - d = 50,000 features
    - One feature per word
    - Remove stop-words
    - Remove low frequency words

#### **Example: Text categorization**

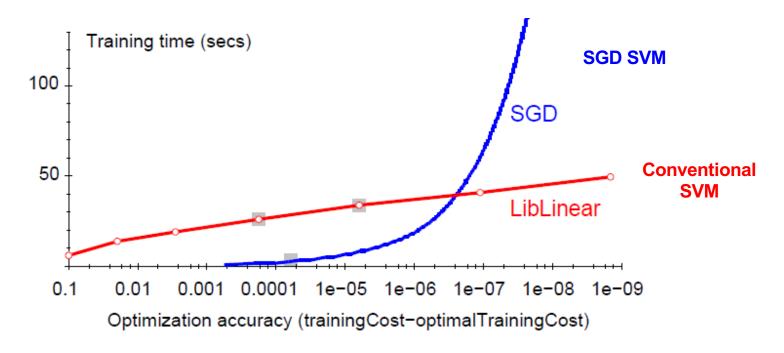
#### Questions:

- (1) Is SGD successful at minimizing f(w,b)?
- (2) How quickly does SGD find the min of f(w,b)?
- (3) What is the error on a test set?

	Training time	Value of f(w,b)	Test error
Standard SVM	23,642 secs	0.2275	6.02%
"Fast SVM"	66 secs	0.2278	6.03%
SGD SVM	1.4 secs	0.2275	6.02%

- (1) SGD-SVM is successful at minimizing the value of f(w,b)
- (2) SGD-SVM is super fast
- (3) SGD-SVM test set error is comparable

## **Optimization "Accuracy"**



Optimization quality:  $| f(w,b) - f(w^{opt},b^{opt}) |$ 

For optimizing *f*(*w*,*b*) *within reasonable* quality *SGD-SVM* is super fast

#### Learning Rate / Step-size schedule

Need to choose learning rate η and t<sub>0</sub>

$$w_{t+1} \leftarrow w_t - \frac{\eta_0}{t + t_0} \left( \frac{\partial L(x_i, y_i)}{\partial w} \right); \quad \eta = \frac{\eta_0}{t + t_0}$$

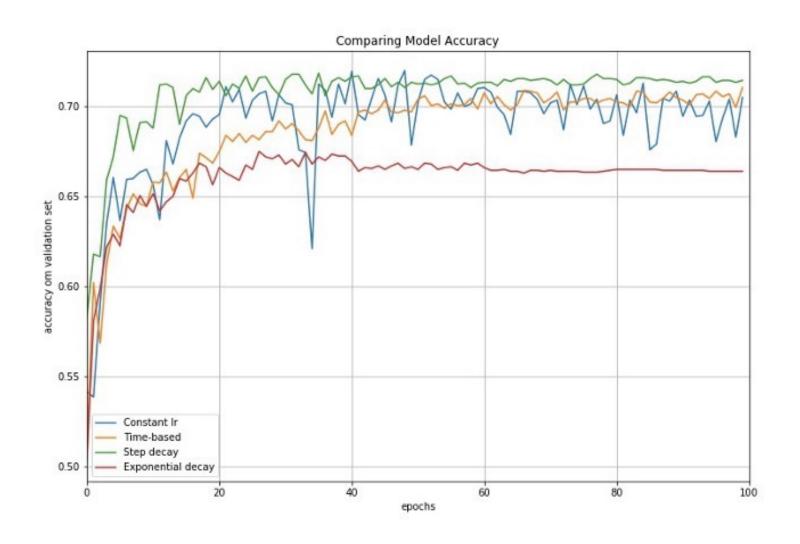
- Leon suggests:
  - Choose t₀ so that the expected initial updates are comparable with the expected size of the weights
  - Choose  $\eta_0$ :
    - Select a small subsample
    - Try various rates  $\eta_0$  (e.g., 10, 1, 0.1, 0.01, ...)
    - · Pick the one that most reduces the cost
    - Use  $\eta$  for next 100k iterations on the full dataset
  - Alternative form:

$$\eta = \frac{\eta_0}{1 + (decay * t)}$$

- Step decay schedule:
  - Drop the learning rate by half every 10 epochs.

• 
$$\eta = \eta_0 * (drop)^{floor(\frac{t}{t_{drop}})}$$

## Learning rate comparison



## **ACCELERATED GRADIENT DESCENT**

#### Stochastic gradient descent

Idea: Perform a parameter update for each training example x(i) and label y(i)

Update:  $\theta = \theta - \eta \cdot \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta; x(i), y(i))$ 

Performs redundant computations for large datasets

#### Momentum gradient descent

Idea: Overcome ravine oscillations by momentum

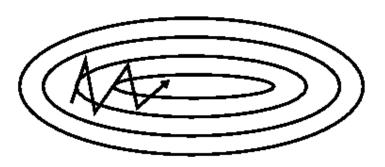
Update:

• 
$$V_t = \gamma V_{t-1} + \eta \cdot \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta)$$

•  $\theta = \theta - V_t$ 

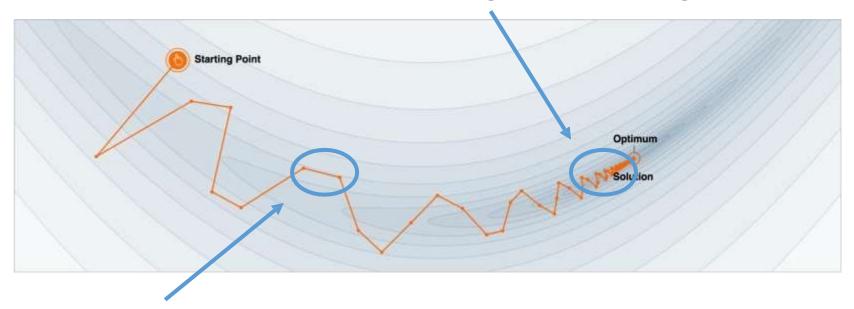
SGD with momentum





# Why Momentum Really Works

The momentum term reduces updates for dimensions whose gradients change directions.



The momentum term increases for dimensions whose gradients point in the same directions.

Demo: http://distill.pub/2017/momentum/

 However, a ball that rolls down a hill, blindly following the slope, is highly unsatisfactory.

 We would like to have a smarter ball that has a notion of where it is going so that it knows to slow down before the hill slopes up again.

Nesterov accelerated gradient gives us a way of it.

$$v_{t} = \gamma v_{t-1} + \eta \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta - \gamma v_{t-1})$$

$$\theta = \theta - v_{t}$$

Approximation of the next position of the parameters' gradient(correction)

$$v_{t} = \gamma v_{t-1} + \eta \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta - \gamma v_{t-1})$$

$$\theta = \theta - v_{t}$$



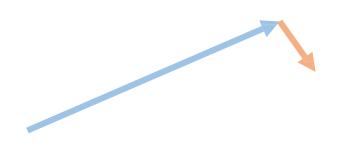
Blue line: predict

**Red line: correction** 

Approximation of the next position of the parameters' gradient(correction)

$$v_t = \gamma v_{t-1} + \eta \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta - \gamma v_{t-1})$$
$$\theta = \theta - v_t$$

**Green line :accumulated gradient** 



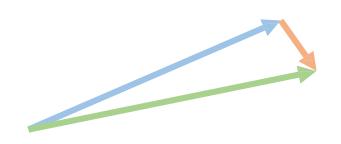
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Blue line: predict

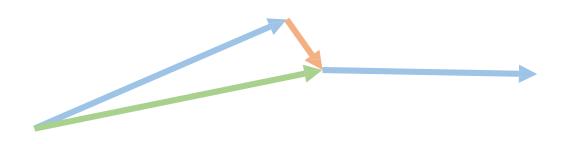
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**Red line: correction** 

$$v_{t} = \gamma v_{t-1} + \eta \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta - \gamma v_{t-1})$$

$$\theta = \theta - v_{t}$$

**Green line :accumulated gradient** 



Blue line : predict

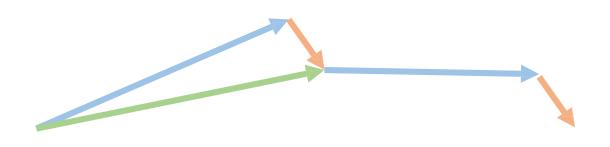
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Blue line: predict

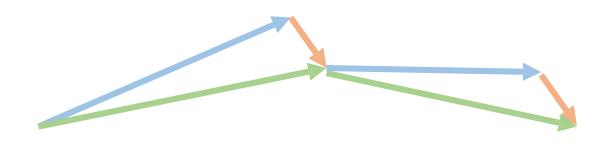
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$$\theta = \theta - v_{t}$$

**Green line :accumulated gradient** 



Blue line : predict

Approximation of the next position of the parameters' gradient(correction)

**Red line: correction** 

$$v_{t} = \gamma v_{t-1} + \eta \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta - \gamma v_{t-1})$$

$$\theta = \theta - v_{t}$$

**Green line :accumulated gradient** 

 This anticipatory update prevents us from going too fast and results in increased responsiveness.

 Now, we can adapt our updates to the slope of our error function and speed up SGD in turn.

## What's next...?

- We also want to adapt our updates to each individual parameter to perform larger or smaller updates depending on their importance.
  - Adagrad
  - Adadelta
  - RMSprop
  - Adam

# Adagrad

- Adagrad adapts the learning rate to the parameters
  - Performing larger updates for infrequent
  - Performing smaller updates for frequent parameters.
- Ex.
  - Training large-scale neural nets at Google that learned to recognize cats in Youtube videos.

# Different learning rate for every parameter

- Previous methods :
  - we used the same learning rate  $\eta$  for all parameters  $\theta$

- Adagrad :
  - It uses a different learning rate for every parameter  $\theta_i$  at every time step t

## Adagrad

SGD 
$$heta_{t+1,i} = heta_{t,i} - oldsymbol{\eta} \cdot g_{t,i}$$



Adagrad modifies the general learning rate  $\eta$  based on the past gradients that have been computed for  $\theta_i$ 

#### **Adagrad**

$$\theta_{t+1,i} = \theta_{t,i} - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{G_{t,ii} + \epsilon}} \cdot g_{t,i}$$

$$g_{t,i} = \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta_i)$$

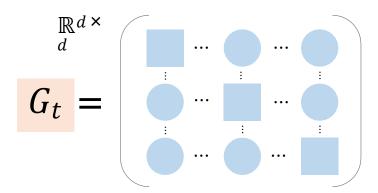
Vectorize

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{G_t + \epsilon}} \odot g_t.$$

## Adagrad

**SGD** 

$$\theta_{t+1,i} = \theta_{t,i} - \eta \cdot g_{t,i}$$





 $G_t$  is a diagonal matrix where each diagonal element (i,i) is the sum of the squares of the gradients  $\theta_i$  up to time step t.

**Adagrad** 

$$\theta_{t+1,i} = \theta_{t,i} - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{G_{t,ii} + \epsilon}} \cdot g_{t,i}$$

$$G_{t,ii} = \sum_{k=1}^{t} g_{t,i}^2$$

$$g_{t,i} = 
abla_{ heta} J( heta_i)$$

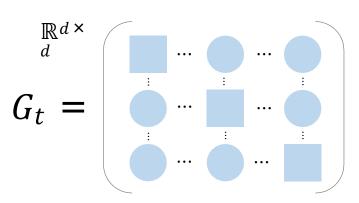
Vectorize

$$heta_{t+1} = heta_t - rac{\eta}{\sqrt{G_t + \epsilon}} \odot g_t.$$

## Adagrad

#### **SGD**

$$\theta_{t+1,i} = \theta_{t,i} - \eta \cdot g_{t,i}$$





 $\varepsilon$  is a smoothing term that avoids division by zero (usually on the order of 1e-8).

#### Adagrad

$$\theta_{t+1,i} = \theta_{t,i} - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{G_{t,ii} + \epsilon}} \cdot g_{t,i}$$

$$g_{t,i} = \nabla_{\theta} J(\theta_i)$$

Vectorize

$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{G_t + \epsilon}} \odot g_t.$$

## Adagrad's advantages

- Advantages :
  - It is well-suited for dealing with sparse data.
  - It greatly improved the robustness of SGD.
  - It eliminates the need to manually tune the learning rate.

## Adagrad's disadvantage

- Disadvantage :
  - Main weakness is its accumulation of the squared gradients in the denominator.

## Adagrad's disadvantage

 The disadvantage causes the learning rate to shrink and become infinitesimally small. The algorithm can no longer acquire additional knowledge.

- The following algorithms aim to resolve this flaw.
  - Adadelta
  - RMSprop
  - Adam

 The expected square sum of gradients is recursively defined as a decaying average of all past squared gradients.

$$E[g^2]_t = \gamma E[g^2]_{t-1} + (1-\gamma)g_t^2$$

- $E[g^2]_t$ : The running average at time step t.
- $\gamma$  : A fraction similarly to the Momentum term, around 0.9

#### **Adagrad**

$$\Delta heta_t = -rac{\eta}{\sqrt{G_t + \epsilon}} \odot g_t$$

#### \$GD

$$egin{aligned} \Delta heta_t &= - \eta \cdot g_{t,i} \ heta_{t+1} &= heta_t + \Delta heta_t \end{aligned}$$



#### **Adadelta**

$$\Delta\theta_t = -\frac{\eta}{\sqrt{E[g^2]_t + \epsilon}} g_t$$

#### Adagrad

$$\Delta heta_t = -rac{\eta}{\sqrt{G_t + \epsilon}} \odot g_t$$

#### \$GD

$$\Delta heta_t = -\eta \cdot g_{t,i} \ heta_{t+1} = heta_t + \Delta heta_t$$



Replace the diagonal matrix  $G_t$  with the decaying average over past squared gradients  $E[g^2]_t$ 

#### **Adadelta**

$$\Delta heta_t = -rac{\eta}{\sqrt{E[g^2]_t + \epsilon}} g_t$$

#### **Adagrad**

$$\Delta heta_t = -rac{\eta}{\sqrt{G_t + \epsilon}} \odot g_t$$

#### **SGD**

$$\Delta heta_t = -\eta \cdot g_{t,i}$$
 $heta_{t+1} = heta_t + \Delta heta_t$ 



Replace the diagonal matrix  $G_t$  with the decaying average over past squared gradients  $E[g^2]_t$ 

#### **Adadelta**

$$\Delta\theta_t = -\frac{\eta}{\sqrt{E[g^2]_t + \epsilon}} g_t$$



#### Adadelta

$$\Delta heta_t = -rac{\eta}{RMS[g]_t}g_t$$

## Update units should have the same hypothetical units

- The units in this update do not match and the update should have the same hypothetical units as the parameter.
  - As well as in SGD, Momentum, or Adagrad

 To realize this, first defining another exponentially decaying average

$$E[\Delta \theta^2]_t = \gamma E[\Delta \theta^2]_{t-1} + (1 - \gamma) \Delta \theta_t^2$$

## Adadelta update rule

• Replacing the learning rate  $\eta$  in the previous update rule with  $RMS[\Delta\theta]_{t-1}$  finally yields the Adadelta update rule:

$$\Delta heta_t = -rac{RMS[\Delta heta]_{t-1}}{RMS[g]_t}g_t$$
  $heta_{t+1} = heta_t + \Delta heta_t$ 

 Note: we do not even need to set a default learning rate

### **RMSprop**

RMSprop and Adadelta have both been developed independently around the same time to resolve Adagrad's radically diminishing learning rates.

#### RMSprop

$$\begin{split} E[g^2]_t &= 0.9 E[g^2]_{t-1} + 0.1 g_t^2 \\ \theta_{t+1} &= \theta_t - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{E[g^2]_t + \epsilon}} g_t \end{split}$$

### **RMSprop**

RMSprop as well divides the learning rate by an exponentially decaying average of squared gradients.

RMSprop 
$$E[g^2]_t = 0.9E[g^2]_{t-1} + 0.1g_t^2$$
 
$$\theta_{t+1} = \theta_t - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{E[g^2]_t + \epsilon}}g_t$$

Hinton suggests  $\gamma$  to be set to 0.9, while a good default value for the learning rate  $\eta$  is 0.001.

#### Adam

- Adam's feature :
  - Storing an exponentially decaying average of past squared gradients  $v_t$  like Adadelta and RMSprop
  - Keeping an exponentially decaying average of past gradients  $m_t$ , similar to momentum.

$$m_t = \beta_1 m_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_1) g_t$$
 — The first moment (the mean)

$$v_t = \beta_2 v_{t-1} + (1 - \beta_2) g_t^2$$
 The second moment (the uncentered variance)

#### Adam

- As  $m_t$  and  $v_t$  are initialized as vectors of 0's, they are biased towards zero.
  - Especially during the initial time steps
  - Especially when the decay rates are small
    - (i.e. β1 and β2 are close to 1).
- Counteracting these biases in Adam

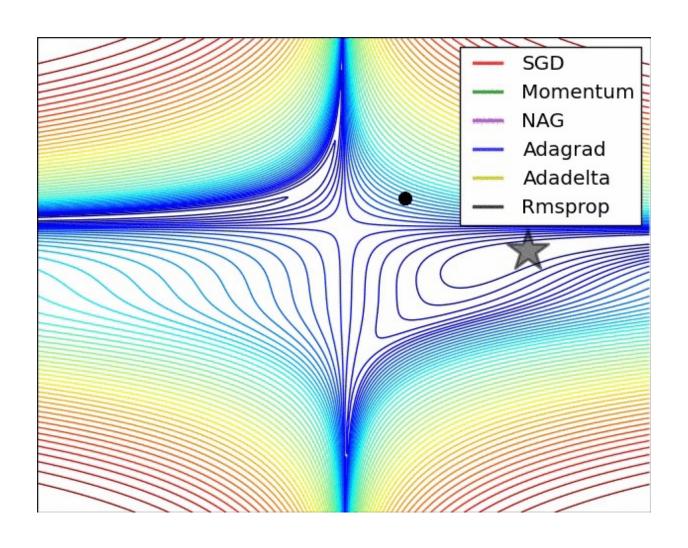
$$\hat{m}_t = rac{m_t}{1-eta_1^t} \ \hat{v}_t = rac{v_t}{1-eta_2^t}$$

#### **Adam**

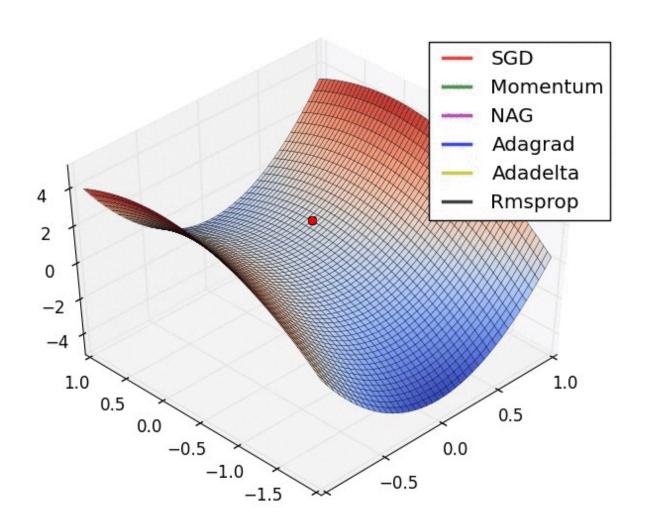
$$heta_{t+1} = heta_t - rac{\eta}{\sqrt{\hat{v}_t} + \epsilon} \hat{m}_t$$

Note : default values of 0.9 for  $\beta_1$ , 0.999 for  $\beta_2$ , and 10<sup>-8</sup> for  $\varepsilon$ 

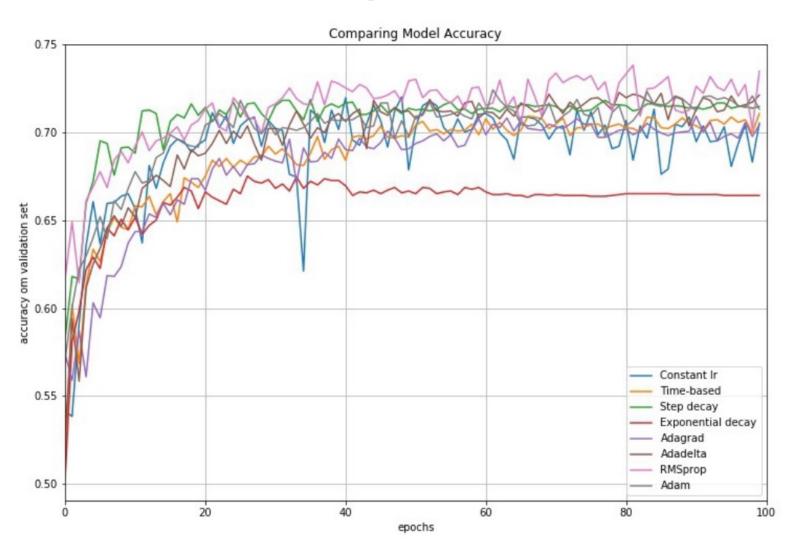
#### Visualization



#### Visualization



#### **Enhancements comparison**



#### Summary

- There are two main ideas at play:
  - Momentum: Provide consistency in update directions by incorporating past update directions.
  - Adaptive gradient: Scale the scale updates to individual variables using the second moment in that direction.
  - This also relates to adaptively altering step length for each direction.

#### THEORETICAL GUARRANTEES

## Convergence Rate and Assumptions

A sequence  $\{x^k\}$  is said to convergence at the rate  $\gamma^k$ , if:

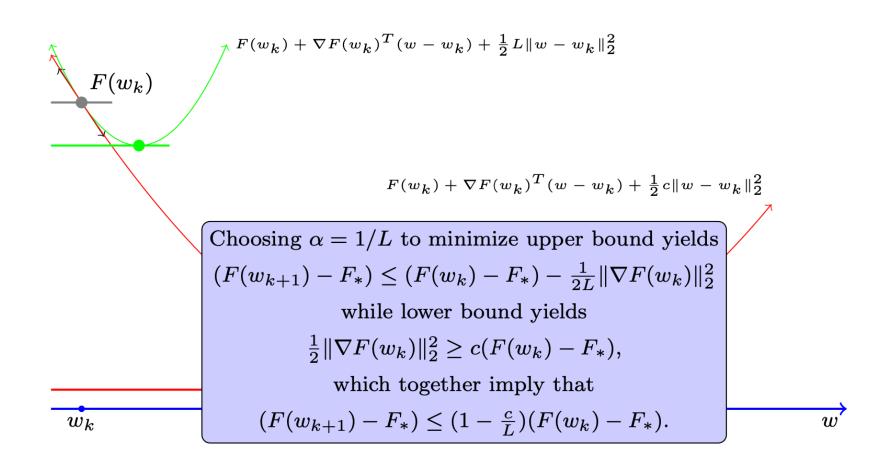
$$\|\mathbf{x}^{k+1} - \mathbf{x}^*\| \le \gamma \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*\| \quad (\Rightarrow \|\mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^*\| \le \gamma^k \|\mathbf{x}^0 - \mathbf{x}^*\|),$$

#### Assumption $\langle L/c \rangle$

The objective function  $F: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is

- ightharpoonup c-strongly convex ( $\Rightarrow$  unique minimizer) and
- ▶ L-smooth (i.e.,  $\nabla F$  is Lipschitz continuous with constant L).

## **Gradient Descent Convergence**



### Convergence Rate and Computational Complexity

#### Overall Complexity ( $\epsilon$ ) = Convergence Rate<sup>-1</sup>( $\epsilon$ ) \* Complexity of each iteration

	Strongly Convex + Smooth			Convex + Smooth		
	Convergence Rate	Complexity of each iteration	Overall Complexity	Convergence Rate	Complexity of each iteration	Overall Complexity
GD	$O\left(\exp\left(-\frac{t}{Q}\right)\right)$	$O(n \cdot d)$	$O\left(nd \cdot Q \cdot \log\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)\right)$	$o\left(\frac{\beta}{t}\right)$	$O(n \cdot d)$	$O\left(nd \cdot \beta \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)\right)$
SGD	$O\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)$	0(d)	$O\left(\frac{d}{\epsilon}\right)$	$o\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{t}}\right)$	0(d)	$O\left(\frac{d}{\epsilon^2}\right)$

## SGD Analysis

THEOREM 14.8 Let  $B, \rho > 0$ . Let f be a convex function and let  $\mathbf{w}^* \in \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{w}: \|\mathbf{w}\| \leq B} f(\mathbf{w})$ . Assume that SGD is run for T iterations with  $\eta = \sqrt{\frac{B^2}{\rho^2 T}}$ . Assume also that for all t,  $\|\mathbf{v}_t\| \leq \rho$  with probability 1. Then,

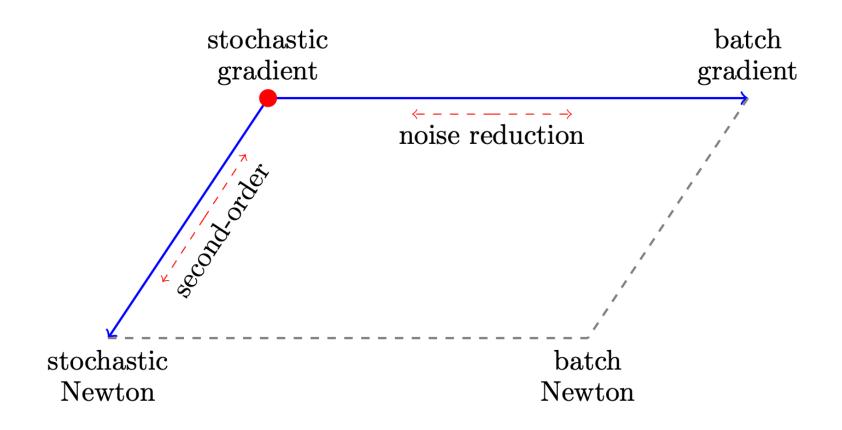
$$\mathbb{E}\left[f(\bar{\mathbf{w}})\right] - f(\mathbf{w}^{\star}) \le \frac{B \rho}{\sqrt{T}}.$$

Therefore, for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , to achieve  $\mathbb{E}[f(\bar{\mathbf{w}})] - f(\mathbf{w}^*) \le \epsilon$ , it suffices to run the SGD algorithm for a number of iterations that satisfies

$$T \ge \frac{B^2 \rho^2}{\epsilon^2}$$
.

#### LINEAR RATE METHODS

## Improving SGD



Slides taken from Jorge Nocedal

## Stochastic Averaged Gradient

- Can we have a rate of  $O(\rho^t)$  with only 1 gradient evaluation per iteration?
  - YES! The stochastic average gradient (SAG) algorithm:
    - Randomly select  $i_t$  from  $\{1, 2, ..., N\}$  and compute  $f'_{i_t}(x^t)$ .

$$x^{t+1} = x^t - \frac{\alpha^t}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \mathbf{y_i^t}$$

- Memory:  $y_i^t = \nabla f_i(x^t)$  from the last t where i was selected. [Le Roux et al., 2012]
- Stochastic variant of increment average gradient (IAG).
   [Blatt et al., 2007]
- Assumes gradients of non-selected examples don't change.
- Assumption becomes accurate as  $||x^{t+1} x^t|| \to 0$ .

### SAG Convergence Rate

• If each  $f_i'$  is L-continuous and f is strongly-convex, with  $\alpha_t=1/16L$  SAG has

$$\mathbb{E}[f(x^t) - f(x^*)] \leqslant \left(1 - \min\left\{\frac{\mu}{16L}, \frac{1}{8N}\right\}\right)^t C,$$

where

$$C = [f(x^0) - f(x^*)] + \frac{4L}{N} ||x^0 - x^*||^2 + \frac{\sigma^2}{16L}.$$

- Linear convergence rate but only 1 gradient per iteration.
  - For well-conditioned problems, constant reduction per pass:

$$\left(1 - \frac{1}{8N}\right)^N \le \exp\left(-\frac{1}{8}\right) = 0.8825.$$

ullet For ill-conditioned problems, almost same as deterministic method (but N times faster).

## SAG Implementation

- Basic SAG algorithm:
  - while(1)
  - Sample i from  $\{1, 2, ..., N\}$ .
  - Compute  $f'_i(x)$ .
  - $d = d y_i + f_i'(x)$ .
  - $y_i = f_i'(x)$ .
  - $x = x \frac{\alpha}{N}d$ .
- Practical variants of the basic algorithm allow:
  - Regularization.
  - Sparse gradients.
  - Automatic step-size selection.
    - Common to use adaptive step-size procedure to estimate L.
  - Termination criterion.
    - Can use  $||x^{t+1} x^t||/\alpha = \frac{1}{n}d \approx ||\nabla f(x^t)||$  to decide when to stop.
  - Acceleration [Lin et al., 2015].
  - Adaptive non-uniform sampling [Schmidt et al., 2013].

## SAG Implementation

- Does re-shuffling and doing full passes work better?
  - For classic SG: Maybe?
    - Noncommutative arithmetic-geometric mean inequality conjecture.

[Recht & Ré, 2012]

- For SAG: NO.
- Performance is intermediate between IAG and SAG.
- Can non-uniform sampling help?
  - For classic SG methods, can only improve constants.
  - ullet For SAG, bias sampling towards Lipschitz constants  $L_i$ ,

$$\|\nabla f_i(x) - \nabla f_i(y)\| \le L_i \|x - y\|.$$

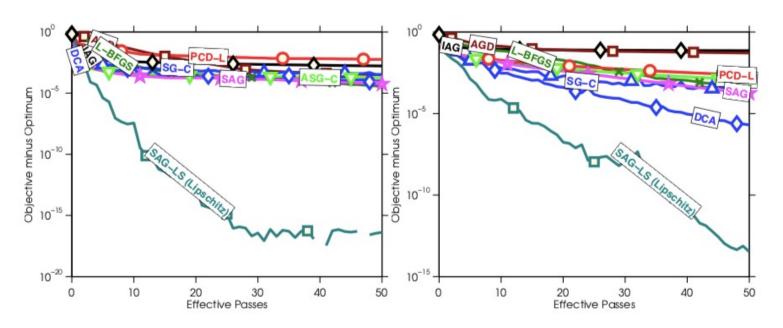
improves rate to depend on  $L_{\sf mean}$  instead of  $L_{\sf max}$ .

(with bigger step size)

- Adaptively estimate  $L_i$  as you go. (see paper/code).
- Slowly learns to ignore well-classified examples.

#### SAG with Non-Uniform Sampling

• protein (n = 145751, p = 74) and sido (n = 12678, p = 4932)



Adaptive non-uniform sampling helps a lot.

#### Stochastic Variance Reduced GD

#### **SVRG** algorithm:

- Start with  $x_0$
- for  $s = 0, 1, 2 \dots$ 
  - $d_s = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f'_i(x_s)$
  - $x^0 = x_s$
  - for t = 1, 2, ... m
    - Randomly pick  $i_t \in \{1, 2, \dots, N\}$
    - $x^t = x^{t-1} \alpha_t (f'_{i_t}(x^{t-1}) f'_{i_t}(x_s) + d_s).$
  - $x_{s+1} = x^t$  for random  $t \in \{1, 2, ..., m\}$ .

Requires 2 gradients per iteration and occasional full passes, but only requires storing  $d_s$  and  $x_s$ .

Practical issues similar to SAG (acceleration versions, automatic step-size/termination, handles sparsity/regularization, non-uniform sampling, mini-batches).

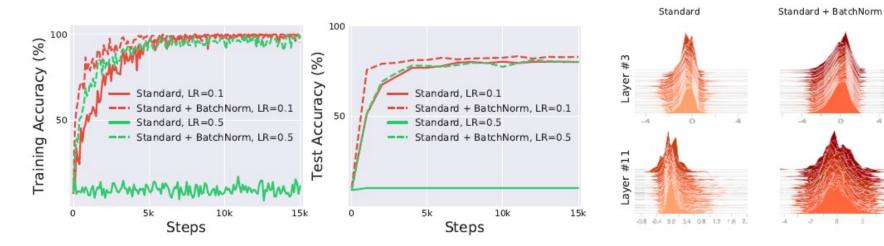
#### **BATCH NORMALIZATION**

Slides taken from Jude Shavlik: <a href="http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~shavlik/cs638\_cs838.html">http://pages.cs.wisc.edu/~shavlik/cs638\_cs838.html</a>

## Batch normalization: Other benefits in practice

- BN reduces training times. (Because of less Covariate Shift, less exploding/vanishing gradients.)
- BN reduces demand for regularization, e.g. dropout or L2 norm.
  - Because the means and variances are calculated over batches and therefore every normalized value depends on the current batch. I.e. the network can no longer just memorize values and their correct answers.)
- BN allows higher learning rates. (Because of less danger of exploding/vanishing gradients.)
- BN enables training with saturating nonlinearities in deep networks, e.g. sigmoid. (Because the normalization prevents them from getting stuck in saturating ranges, e.g. very high/low values for sigmoid.)

#### Internal Covariate Shift



# Why the naïve approach Does not work?

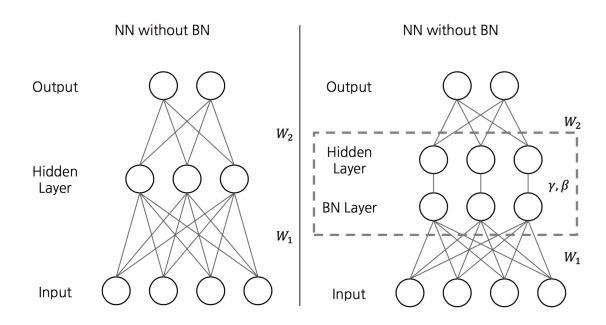
- Normalizes layer inputs to zero mean and unit variance. whitening.
- Naive method: Train on a batch. Update model parameters. Then normalize. Doesn't work: Leads to exploding biases while distribution parameters (mean, variance) don't change.
  - If we do it this way gradient always ignores the effect that the normalization for the next batch would have
  - i.e.: "The issue with the above approach is that the gradient descent optimization does not take into account the fact that the normalization takes place"

## The proposed solution:

To add an extra regularization layer

we introduce, for each activation  $x^{(k)}$ , a pair of parameters  $\gamma^{(k)}, \beta^{(k)}$ , which scale and shift the normalized value:

$$y^{(k)} = \gamma^{(k)} \hat{x}^{(k)} + \beta^{(k)}$$
.



A new layer is added so the gradient can "see" the normalization and make adjustments if needed.

## Algorithm Summary: Normalization via Mini-Batch Statistics

- Each feature (component) is normalized individually
- Normalization according to:
  - componentNormalizedValue = (componentOldValue -E[component]) / sqrt(Var(component))
- A new layer is added so the gradient can "see" the normalization and made adjustments if needed.
  - The new layer has the power to learn the identity function to denormalize the features if necessary!
  - Full formula: newValue = gamma \* componentNormalizedValue + beta (gamma and beta learned per component)
- E and Var are estimated for each mini batch.
- BN is fully differentiable.

#### The Batch Transformation: formally from the paper.

```
Input: Values of x over a mini-batch: \mathcal{B} = \{x_{1...m}\};
                 Parameters to be learned: \gamma, \beta
Output: \{y_i = BN_{\gamma,\beta}(x_i)\}
  \mu_{\mathcal{B}} \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i // mini-batch mean \sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}})^2 // mini-batch variance
   \widehat{x}_i \leftarrow \frac{x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}}}{\sqrt{\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 + \epsilon}}
                                                                                                // normalize
     y_i \leftarrow \gamma \widehat{x}_i + \beta \equiv BN_{\gamma,\beta}(x_i)
                                                                       // scale and shift
```

#### The full algorithm as proposed in the paper

Input: Network N with trainable parameters  $\Theta$ ; subset of activations  $\{x^{(k)}\}_{k=1}^{K}$ 

Output: Batch-normalized network for inference,  $N_{\rm BN}^{\rm inf}$ 

- N<sup>tr</sup><sub>BN</sub> ← N // Training BN network
- 2: **for** k = 1 ... K **do**
- 3: Add transformation  $y^{(k)} = BN_{\mathcal{N}^{(k)}, \mathcal{D}^{(k)}}(x^{(k)})$  to  $N_{BN}^{tr}$  (Alg. 1)
- Modify each layer in N<sup>tr</sup><sub>BN</sub> with input x<sup>(k)</sup> to take y<sup>(k)</sup> instead
- 5: end for
- 6: Train  $N_{\text{BN}}^{\text{tr}}$  to optimize the parameters  $\Theta \cup \{\gamma^{(k)}, \beta^{(k)}\}_{k=1}^{K}$
- 7: N<sup>inf</sup><sub>BN</sub> ← N<sup>tr</sup><sub>BN</sub> // Inference BN network with frozen // parameters
- 8: for k = 1 ... K do
- 9: // For clarity,  $x \equiv x^{(k)}$ ,  $\gamma \equiv \gamma^{(k)}$ ,  $\mu_B \equiv \mu_B^{(k)}$ , etc.
- 10: Process multiple training mini-batches B, each of size m, and average over them:

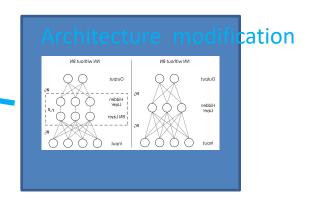
$$E[x] \leftarrow E_{\mathcal{B}}[\mu_{\mathcal{B}}]$$
  
 $Var[x] \leftarrow \frac{m}{m-1} E_{\mathcal{B}}[\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2]$ 

11: In  $N_{\text{BN}}^{\text{inf}}$ , replace the transform  $y = \text{BN}_{\gamma,\beta}(x)$  with  $y = \frac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[x] + \epsilon}} \cdot x + \left(\beta - \frac{\gamma \, \text{E}[x]}{\sqrt{\text{Var}[x] + \epsilon}}\right)$ 

12: end for

Algorithm 2: Training a Batch-Normalized Network

Alg 1 (previous slide)



## Note that BN(x) is different during test...

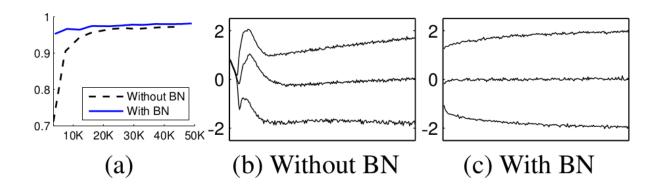
$$\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2 \leftarrow \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (x_i - \mu_{\mathcal{B}})^2$$

Var $[x] \leftarrow \frac{m}{m-1} E_{\mathcal{B}}[\sigma_{\mathcal{B}}^2]$ 

## Batch normalization: Other benefits in practice

- BN reduces training times. (Because of less Covariate Shift, less exploding/vanishing gradients.)
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  - Because the means and variances are calculated over batches and therefore every normalized value depends on the current batch. I.e. the network can no longer just memorize values and their correct answers.)
- BN allows higher learning rates. (Because of less danger of exploding/vanishing gradients.)
- BN enables training with saturating nonlinearities in deep networks, e.g. sigmoid. (Because the normalization prevents them from getting stuck in saturating ranges, e.g. very high/low values for sigmoid.)

# Batch normalization: Better accuracy, faster.



BN applied to MNIST (a), and activations of a randomly selected neuron over time (b, c), where the middle line is the median activation, the top line is the 15th percentile and the bottom line is the 85th percentile.

#### References:

- SGD proof by Yuri Nesterov.
- MMDS <a href="http://www.mmds.org/">http://www.mmds.org/</a>
- Blog of Sebastian Ruder <a href="http://ruder.io/optimizing-gradient-descent/">http://ruder.io/optimizing-gradient-descent/</a>
- Learning rate comparison <a href="https://towardsdatascience.com/learning-rate-schedules-and-adaptive-learning-rate-methods-for-deep-learning-2c8f433990d1">https://towardsdatascience.com/learning-rate-schedules-and-adaptive-learning-rate-methods-for-deep-learning-2c8f433990d1</a>