Machine Learning II

(Stochastic) Gradient descent

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Table of contents

Introduction

Gradient descent

Stochastic gradient descent

Other optimization methods

How to minimize E_{in}

For logistic regression,

$$E_{\mathrm{in}}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ln \left(1 + e^{-y_n \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{x}_n} \right) \qquad \longleftarrow \text{ iterative solution}$$

Compare to linear regression:

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18/24

Optimization for machine learning

Much of machine learning can be written as the following optimization problem:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} e_n(\mathbf{w}; (y_n, \mathbf{x}_n)) \equiv \ell(\mathbf{w})$$

where e_n is the error on the nth data point.

Types of optimization problems:

Convex optimization

- Many classes of convex optimization problems admit polynomial-time algorithms
- Includes logistic regression, linear regression, etc.

Non-convex optimization

- NP-hard in general
- Includes neural networks (deep learning)

Table of contents

Introduction

Gradient descent

Stochastic gradient descent

Other optimization methods

Optimization for machine learning

We want to minimize a convex and differentiable loss function $\ell(\mathbf{w})$ or $\mathsf{E}_{\mathsf{in}}(\mathbf{w})$. In some cases, it is possible to **analytically** compute \mathbf{w}^* such that $\nabla \ell(\mathbf{w}^*) = 0$.

More commonly the condition that the gradient equal zero will not have an analytical solution. We will need **iterative methods**.

How can you minimize a function if you don't know much about it? The trick is to assume it is much simpler than it really is. This can be done by approximating the function using **Taylor's approximation** and **minimizing this approximation**.

Taylor's approximation

Let us approximate the function $\ell(\cdot)$ around \boldsymbol{w} , i.e. we want to approximate $\ell(\boldsymbol{w}+\boldsymbol{s})$ where $\|\boldsymbol{s}\|_2$ is small (i.e. $\boldsymbol{w}+\boldsymbol{s}$ is very close to \boldsymbol{w}). In that case, we can approximate the function $\ell(\boldsymbol{w}+\boldsymbol{s})$ by its first derivatives as

$$\ell(\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{s}) \approx \ell(\mathbf{w}) + g(\mathbf{w})^T \mathbf{s},$$

where $g(\mathbf{w}) = \nabla \ell(\mathbf{w})$ is the gradient.

Using its first and second derivatives, we can also write

$$\ell(\mathbf{w} + \mathbf{s}) \approx \ell(\mathbf{w}) + g(\mathbf{w})^T \mathbf{s} + \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{s}^T H(\mathbf{w}) \mathbf{s},$$

where $H(\mathbf{w}) = \nabla^2 \ell(\mathbf{w})$ is the Hessian of ℓ .

Both approximations are valid if $\|s\|_2$ is small, but the second one assumes that ℓ is **twice differentiable** and is more expensive to compute but also more accurate than only using gradient.

6

Table of contents

Introduction

Gradient descent

Stochastic gradient descent

Other optimization methods

Gradient descent

In an iterative method, given w(t), we want to find w(t+1) = w(t) + s such that $\ell(w(t+1)) - \ell(w(t))$ is minimized.

Let us write $\mathbf{s} = \eta \mathbf{v}$ where $\eta > 0$ is the step-size in the direction \mathbf{v} with $\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = 1$. We want to find the direction \mathbf{v} which minimizes $\ell(\mathbf{w}(t) + \eta \mathbf{v}) - \ell(\mathbf{w}(t))$, i.e.

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{v}, \|\boldsymbol{v}\|_{2}=1} \ell(\boldsymbol{w}(t) + \eta \boldsymbol{v}) - \ell(\boldsymbol{w}(t)) \equiv \min_{\boldsymbol{v}, \|\boldsymbol{v}\|_{2}=1} g(\boldsymbol{w}(t))^{T} \boldsymbol{v}$$

$$\equiv \min_{\boldsymbol{v}, \|\boldsymbol{v}\|_{2}=1} \|g(\boldsymbol{w}(t))\| \|\boldsymbol{v}\| \cos(\theta)$$

$$\equiv \min_{\boldsymbol{v}, \|\boldsymbol{v}\|_{2}=1} \cos(\theta),$$

where θ is the angle between the vectors $g(\mathbf{w}(t))$ and \mathbf{v} .

Gradient descent

This quantity is minimized when $\cos(\theta) = -1$, i.e. $\theta = 180^\circ$, where \mathbf{v} is pointing in the opposite direction of the gradient, i.e. $-g(\mathbf{w}(t))$, and since \mathbf{v} is a unit vector, we can write

$$\mathbf{v} = \frac{-g(\mathbf{w}(t))}{\|g(\mathbf{w}(t))\|}.$$

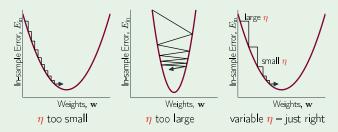
In other words, we have

$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) - \eta \frac{g(\mathbf{w}(t))}{\|g(\mathbf{w}(t))\|}$$

9

Fixed-size step?

How η affects the algorithm:



 η should increase with the slope

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21/24

Gradient descent - from step size to learning rate

Instead of

$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) - \eta \frac{g(\mathbf{w}(t))}{\|g(\mathbf{w}(t))\|},$$

we use

$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) - \eta_t \frac{\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{w}(t))}{\|\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{w}(t))\|},$$

where $\eta_t = \eta \|g(\mathbf{w}(t))\|$, i.e. the step size is proportional to the length of the gradient.

We obtain

$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) - \eta \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{w}(t)),$$

where η is now a (redefined) fixed **learning rate**.

Gradient descent algorithm

Fixed learning rate gradient descent:

- 1: Initialize the weights at time step t = 0 to $\mathbf{w}(0)$.
- 2: **for** $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ **do**
- 3: Compute the gradient $\mathbf{g}_t = \nabla E_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{w}(t))$.
- 4: Set the direction to move, $\mathbf{v}_t = -\mathbf{g}_t$.
- 5: Update the weights: $\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) + \eta \mathbf{v}_t$.
- 6: Iterate to the next step until it is time to stop.
- 7: Return the final weights.

 \mathbf{v}_t is a direction that is no longer restricted to unit length.

Logistic regression algorithm

- Initialize the weights at t = 0 to $\mathbf{w}(0)$
- 2: for $t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ do
- 3: Compute the gradient

$$\nabla E_{\text{in}} = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{y_n \mathbf{x}_n}{1 + e^{y_n \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}(t) \mathbf{x}_n}}$$

- 4: Update the weights: $\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) \eta \nabla E_{\mathrm{in}}$
- 5: Iterate to the next step until it is time to stop
- $_{6:}$ Return the final weights ${f w}$

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23/24

Gradient descent (another interpretation)

Another way to retrieve the gradient descent algorithm consists in minimizing a specific quadratic approximation of the function¹.



¹Note that trying to directly minimize a linear approximation to our function wouldn't be very useful since the solution is infinity.

Gradient descent (another interpretation)

The second-order Taylor expansion of ℓ is given by

$$\ell(\mathbf{w}(t+1)) \approx \ell(\mathbf{w}(t)) + g(\mathbf{w}(t))^T (\mathbf{w}(t+1) - \mathbf{w}(t)) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{w}(t+1) - \mathbf{w}(t))^T H(\mathbf{w}(t)) (\mathbf{w}(t+1) - \mathbf{w}(t)).$$

Consider the quadratic approximation of ℓ , replacing $H(\mathbf{w}(t))$ by $\frac{1}{\eta}I$ (replacing the curvature given by the Hessian with a much simpler notion of curvature). We can write

$$egin{aligned} \ell(oldsymbol{w}(t+1)) &pprox \ell(oldsymbol{w}(t)) + g(oldsymbol{w}(t))^T (oldsymbol{w}(t+1) - oldsymbol{w}(t)) \ &+ rac{1}{2\eta} \left\| (oldsymbol{w}(t+1) - oldsymbol{w}(t))
ight\|^2. \end{aligned}$$

Gradient descent (another interpretation)

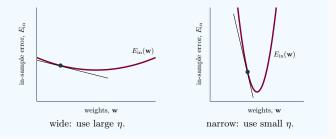
 $\ell(\mathbf{w}(t+1))$ is approximated by a convex quadratic, so we know we can minimize it just by setting its gradient to 0.

We have

$$egin{aligned}
abla \ell(oldsymbol{w}(t+1)) &pprox g(oldsymbol{w}(t)) + rac{1}{\eta}(oldsymbol{w}(t+1) - oldsymbol{w}(t)) &= 0. \ &\Longrightarrow oldsymbol{w}(t+1) = oldsymbol{w}(t) - \eta g(oldsymbol{w}(t)) \end{aligned}$$

Choosing the learning rate

In gradient descent, the learning rate η multiplies the negative gradient to give the move $-\eta\nabla E_{\rm in}$. The size of the step taken is proportional to η . The optimal step size (and hence learning rate η) depends on how **wide** or **narrow** the error surface is near the minimum.



When the surface is wider, we can take larger steps without overshooting; since $\|\nabla E_{\rm in}\|$ is small, we need a large η . Since we do not know ahead of time how wide the surface is, it is easy to choose an inefficient value for η .

Variable learning rate gradient descent

A simple heuristic that adapts the learning rate to the error surface works well in practice. If the error drops, increase η ; if not, the step was too large, so reject the update and decrease η .

Variable Learning Rate Gradient Descent:

```
1: Initialize \mathbf{w}(0), and \eta_0 at t=0. Set \alpha>1 and \beta<1.
```

2: while stopping criterion has not been met do

3: Let
$$\mathbf{g}(t) = \nabla E_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{w}(t))$$
, and set $\mathbf{v}(t) = -\mathbf{g}(t)$.

4: if $E_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{w}(t) + \eta_t \mathbf{v}(t)) < E_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{w}(t))$ then

5: accept:
$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) + \eta_t \mathbf{v}(t)$$
; $\eta_{t+1} = \alpha \eta_t$

6: **else**

7: reject:
$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t); \, \eta_{t+1} = \beta \eta_t.$$

8: Iterate to the next step, $t \leftarrow t + 1$.

I is also called *Backtracking line search*.

Steepest descent – gradient descent with (exact) line search

Once the direction in which to move, \mathbf{v}_t , has been determined, why not simply continue along that direction until the error stops decreasing? This leads us to steepest descent – gradient descent with (exact) line search.

Steepest Descent (Gradient Descent + Line Search):

- 1: Initialize $\mathbf{w}(0)$ and set t = 0;
- 2: while stopping criterion has not been met do
- 3: Let $\mathbf{g}(t) = \nabla E_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{w}(t))$, and set $\mathbf{v}(t) = -\mathbf{g}(t)$.
- 4: Let $\eta^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\eta} E_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{w}(t) + \eta \mathbf{v}(t))$.
- 5: $\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) + \eta^* \mathbf{v}(t)$.
- 6: Iterate to the next step, $t \leftarrow t + 1$.

Stopping criterion

Typically the initial point w(0) is picked randomly, or we use prior knowledge about the problem. But when to stop the algorithm?

Some common choices (ϵ is a small prescribed threshold):

- $\|\nabla E_{\mathsf{in}}(\boldsymbol{w}(t))\| < \epsilon$
- $|E_{\mathsf{in}}(\boldsymbol{w}(t+1)) E_{\mathsf{in}}(\boldsymbol{w}(t))| < \epsilon$
- $\|\mathbf{w}(t+1) \mathbf{w}(t)\| < \epsilon$
- $\bullet \ \frac{|E_{\mathsf{in}}(\boldsymbol{w}(t+1)) E_{\mathsf{in}}(\boldsymbol{w}(t))|}{\max\{1, |E_{\mathsf{in}}(\boldsymbol{w}(t))|\}} < \epsilon$
- t > T

Table of contents

Introduction

Gradient descent

Stochastic gradient descent

Other optimization methods

About gradient descent

Many machine learning problems involve the following optimization problem The in-sample error is given by

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} E_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} e(y_n, h(\mathbf{x}_n)), \tag{1}$$

e.g. for logistic regression, we have $e(y_n, h(\mathbf{x}_n)) = \ln(1 + e^{-y_n \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_n})$.

Minimizing (1) using **gradient descent** requires to compute

$$\nabla E_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \nabla e(y_n, h(\mathbf{x}_n)),$$

In other words, $\nabla E_{in}(\mathbf{w})$ is based on <u>all</u> examples (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n) , also called **batch GD**.

- Computing the full gradient is slow for big data
- Stuck at stationary points (non-convex optimization)

Stochastic gradient descent

- 1. Pick one (x_n, y_n) at a time (uniformly at random)
- 2. Apply GD to $e(y_n, h(\mathbf{x}_n))$, i.e. compute

$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) - \nabla e(y_n, h(\mathbf{x}_n)).$$

What is the average direction?

$$\mathbb{E}_{n}[-\nabla e(y_{n}, h(\mathbf{x}_{n}))] = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{1}{N} [-\nabla e(y_{n}, h(\mathbf{x}_{n}))]$$
$$= -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \nabla e(y_{n}, h(\mathbf{x}_{n}))$$
$$= -\nabla E_{\text{in}}(\mathbf{w})$$

Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) is an unbiased estimate of GD with a **higher variance**.

Benefits of SGD

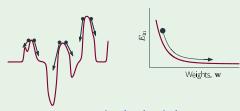
- Cheaper computation
- Randomization
- Simple

Benefits of SGD

- 1. cheaper computation
- 2. randomization
- 3. simple

Rule of thumb:

$$\eta = 0.1$$
 works



randomization helps

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5/21

Mini-batch gradient descent

Compute the gradient using $1 \le b \le N$ data points.

- 1. Pick b data points $(1 \le b \le N)$
- 2. Apply batch GD to these b points
 - b = N is GD and b = 1 is SGD
 - Bias and variance tradeoff
 - A single pass through the entire training data is called an epoch. With mini-batches of size b, we update the parameters N/b times per epoch.
 - We often need multiple epochs to obtain a good training accuracy.

Table of contents

Introduction

Gradient descent

Stochastic gradient descent

Other optimization methods

Newton's method

Let us assume ℓ is twice differentiable, and minimize the second-order Taylor expansion of ℓ , given by

$$\ell(\mathbf{w}(t+1)) \approx \ell(\mathbf{w}(t)) + g(\mathbf{w}(t))^T (\mathbf{w}(t+1) - \mathbf{w}(t)) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{w}(t+1) - \mathbf{w}(t))^T H(\mathbf{w}(t)) (\mathbf{w}(t+1) - \mathbf{w}(t)).$$

We have

$$\nabla \ell(\mathbf{w}(t+1)) = g(\mathbf{w}(t)) + H(\mathbf{w}(t))(\mathbf{w}(t+1) - \mathbf{w}(t)) :$$

$$\Longrightarrow g(\mathbf{w}(t)) + H(\mathbf{w}(t))(\mathbf{w}(t+1) - \mathbf{w}(t)) = 0$$

$$\Longrightarrow \mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) - H(\mathbf{w}(t))^{-1}g(\mathbf{w}(t))$$

The damped Newton's method with a small step size $0 < \eta < 1$:

$$\mathbf{w}(t+1) = \mathbf{w}(t) - \eta \ H(\mathbf{w}(t))^{-1} g(\mathbf{w}(t)).$$

See also Quasi-Newton methods which approximate the Hessian.

Other optimization methods

- Momentum and Acceleration
- Adaptive Gradient Algorithm (AdaGrad), Root Mean Square Propagation (RMSProp), Adam
- Stochastic Average Gradient (SAG), Stochastic Variance Reduced Gradient (SVRG)
- Conjugate gradient
- ...

An overview of gradient descent optimization algorithms: $\verb|https:|/ruder.io/optimizing-gradient-descent/|$

Additional considerations

Gradient descent

- Simple idea, and each iteration is (usually) cheap
- Fast for well-conditioned, strongly convex problems
- Can often be slow, because many interesting problems aren't strongly convex or well-conditioned
- Can't handle nondifferentiable functions

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- In many ML problems we don't care about optimizing to high accuracy, it doesn't pay off in terms of statistical performance
- Can be super effective in terms of iteration cost, memory.
- Can be slow to converge.
- Popular in large-scale, continous, nonconvex optimization, but it is still not well-understood (e.g. implicit regularization)

Newton's method

- Requires more memory and computation per iteration
- Not affected by a problem's conditioning,