## Stochastic Gradient Descent

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Review: Statistical Learning Theory Framework

# Our Setup from Statistical Learning Theory

## The Spaces

•  $\mathfrak{X}$ : input space

• y: outcome space

A: action space

### Prediction Function (or "decision function")

A prediction function (or decision function) gets input  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  and produces an action  $a \in \mathcal{A}$ :

$$f: \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}$$
 $x \mapsto f(x)$ 

#### Loss Function

A loss function evaluates an action in the context of the outcome y.

$$\ell: \mathcal{A} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$$
 $(a,y) \mapsto \ell(a,y)$ 

# Risk and the Bayes Prediction Function

#### Definition

The **risk** of a prediction function  $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A}$  is

$$R(f) = \mathbb{E}\ell(f(x), y).$$

In words, it's the expected loss of f on a new exampe (x,y) drawn randomly from  $P_{X\times y}$ .

#### Definition

A Bayes prediction function  $f^*: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A}$  is a function that achieves the *minimal risk* among all possible functions:

$$f^* \in \operatorname*{arg\,min}_f R(f)$$
,

where the minimum is taken over all functions from  $\mathfrak{X}$  to  $\mathcal{A}$ .

• The risk of a Bayes prediction function is called the Bayes risk.

# The Empirical Risk

Let 
$$\mathfrak{D}_n = ((x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n))$$
 be drawn i.i.d. from  $\mathfrak{P}_{\mathfrak{X} \times \mathfrak{Y}}$ .

#### Definition

The **empirical risk** of  $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A}$  with respect to  $\mathcal{D}_n$  is

$$\hat{R}_n(f) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f(x_i), y_i).$$

- But we saw that the unconstrained empirical risk minimizer overfits.
  - i.e. if we minize  $\hat{R}_n(f)$  over all functions, we overfit.

## Constrained Empirical Risk Minimization

#### Definition

A hypothesis space  $\mathcal{F}$  is a set of functions mapping  $\mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A}$ .

- It is the collection of prediction functions we are choosing from.
- ullet Empirical risk minimizer (ERM) in  ${\mathcal F}$  is

$$\hat{f}_n \in \underset{f \in \mathcal{F}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f(x_i), y_i).$$

- From now on "ERM" always means "constrained ERM".
- So we should always specify the hypothesis space when we're doing ERM.

# Example: Linear Least Squares Regression

## Setup

- Input space  $\mathfrak{X} = \mathbf{R}^d$
- Output space  $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbf{R}$
- Action space y = R
- Loss:  $\ell(\hat{y}, y) = (y \hat{y})^2$
- Hypothesis space:  $\mathcal{F} = \{ f : \mathbf{R}^d \to \mathbf{R} \mid f(x) = w^T x, w \in \mathbf{R}^d \}$

- Given data set  $\mathfrak{D}_n = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\},\$ 
  - Let's find the ERM  $\hat{f} \in \mathcal{F}$ .

# Example: Linear Least Squares Regression

### Objective Function: Empirical Risk

The function we want to minimize is the empirical risk:

$$\hat{R}_n(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (w^T x_i - y_i)^2,$$

where  $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$  parameterizes the hypothesis space  $\mathcal{F}$ .

• Now let's think more generally...

Gradient Descent for Empirical Risk - Scaling Issues

# Gradient Descent for Empirical Risk and Averages

- Suppose we have a hypothesis space of functions  $\mathcal{F} = \{f_w : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{A} \mid w \in \mathbf{R}^d\}$ 
  - Parameterized by  $w \in \mathbf{R}^d$ .
- ERM is to find w minimizing

$$\hat{R}_n(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(f_w(x_i), y_i)$$

- Suppose  $\ell(f_w(x_i), y_i)$  is differentiable as a function of w.
- Then we can do gradient descent on  $\hat{R}_n(w)$ ...

## Gradient Descent: How does it scale with n?

• At every iteration, we compute the gradient at current w:

$$\nabla \hat{R}_n(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla_w \ell(f_w(x_i), y_i)$$

- We have to touch all n training points to take a single step. [O(n)]
- Will this scale to "big data"?
- Can we make progress without looking at all the data?

## Stochastic Gradient Descent

## "Noisy" Gradient Descent

- We know gradient descent works.
- But the gradient may be slow to compute.
- What if we just use an estimate of the gradient?
- Turns out that can work fine.
- Intuition:
  - Gradient descent is an interative procedure anyway.
  - At every step, we have a chance to recover from previous missteps.

### Minibatch Gradient

• The full gradient is

$$\nabla \hat{R}_n(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \nabla_w \ell(f_w(x_i), y_i)$$

- It's an average over the **full batch** of data  $\mathcal{D}_n = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}.$
- Let's take a random subsample of size *N* (called a **minibatch**):

$$(x_{m_1}, y_{m_1}), \ldots, (x_{m_N}, y_{m_N})$$

The minibatch gradient is

$$\nabla \hat{R}_N(w) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla_w \ell(f_w(x_{m_i}), y_{m_i})$$

• What can we say about the minibatch gradient? It's random. What's its expectation?

### Minibatch Gradient

• What's the expected value of the minibatch gradient?

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\nabla \hat{R}_{N}(w)\right] = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{E}\left[\nabla_{w} \ell(f_{w}(x_{m_{i}}), y_{m_{i}})\right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}\left[\nabla_{w} \ell(f_{w}(x_{m_{1}}), y_{m_{1}})\right]$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{P}(m_{1} = i) \nabla_{w} \ell(f_{w}(x_{i}), y_{i})$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla_{w} \ell(f_{w}(x_{i}), y_{i})$$

$$= \nabla \hat{R}_{n}(w)$$

• Technical note: We only assumed that each point in the minibatch is equally likely to be any of the *n* points in the batch – no independence needed. So still true if we're sampling without replacement. Still true if we sample one point randomly and reuse it *N* times.

## Minibatch Gradient Properties

• Minibatch gradient is an unbiased estimator for the [full] batch gradient:

$$\mathbb{E}\left[\nabla\hat{R}_{N}(w)\right] = \nabla\hat{R}_{n}(w)$$

• The bigger the minibatch, the better the estimate.

### Minibatch Gradient - In Practice

- Tradeoffs of minibatch size:
  - Bigger  $N \implies$  Better estimate of gradient, but slower (more data to touch)
  - Smaller  $N \implies$  Worse estimate of gradient, but can be quite fast
- Even N = 1 works, it's traditionally called **stochastic gradient descent** (SGD).
- These days, people use SGD to refer to minibatch SGD as well.
- If someone says "SGD", you ask "What's your [mini]batch size?", to avoid ambiguity.

# Terminology Review (Rough)

- Gradient descent or "full-batch" gradient descent
  - Use full data set of size *n* to determine step direction
- Minibatch gradient descent
  - Use a random subset of size N to determine step direction
  - Yoshua Bengio says<sup>1</sup>:
    - N is typically between 1 and few hundred
    - N = 32 is a good default value
    - With  $N \ge 10$  we get computational speedup (per datum touched)
- Stochastic gradient descent
  - Minibatch with m=1.
  - Use a single randomly chosen point to determine step direction.

But these days terminology isn't used so consistently, so always clarify the [mini]batch size.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>See Yoshua Bengio's "Practical recommendations for gradient-based training of deep architectures" http://arxiv.org/abs/1206.5533.

### Minibatch Gradient Descent

## Minibatch Gradient Descent (minibatch size N)

- initialize w=0
- repeat
  - randomly choose N points  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N \subset \mathcal{D}_n$   $w \leftarrow w \eta \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \nabla_w \ell(f_w(x_i), y_i)\right]$

# Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

#### Stochastic Gradient Descent

- initialize w = 0
- repeat
  - randomly choose training point  $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{D}_n$
  - $w \leftarrow w \eta$   $\nabla_{w} \ell(f_{w}(x_{i}), y_{i})$

Grad(Loss on i'th example)

## Step Size: In practice

- For SGD, fixed step size can work well in practice.
- *Typical approach:* Fixed step size reduced by constant factor whenever validation performance stops improving.
- But no theorem for this giving performance guarantees (to my knowledge).

### Robbins-Monro conditions

- For convergence guarantee, use decreasing step sizes (dampens noise in step direction).
- Let  $\eta_t$  be the step size at the t'th step.

#### Robbins-Monro Conditions

Many classical convergence results depend on the following two conditions:

$$\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \eta_t^2 < \infty$$
  $\sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \eta_t = \infty$ 

- As fast as  $\eta_t = O\left(\frac{1}{t}\right)$  would satisfy this... but should be faster than  $O\left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{t}}\right)$ .
- A useful reference for practical techniques: Leon Bottou's "Tricks": http://research.microsoft.com/pubs/192769/tricks-2012.pdf

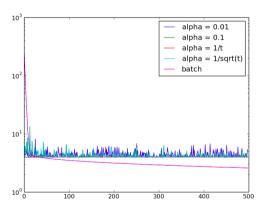
Practical Comparison of GD vs SGD

## Practical Comparison of GD vs SGD

- For huge data, GD isn't practical.
- In a theoretical sense, GD is much faster than SGD... (i.e. better convergence rates)
  - but most of that benefit happens once you're already pretty close to the solution
  - much faster to add an extra decimal place of accuracy on the minimum

## Does SGD Catch Up to GD?

• Ridge regression objective function value for GD and SGD with various stepsizes



- Why doesn't SGD catch up to batch GD? It does, just takes a very long time.
- Is it worth the wait? As we discuss in next module, probably not...