

Online vs. Offline Learning, Variance Reduction, and SVRG

CS6787 Lecture 5 — Fall 2017

Recall from Lecture 2

- Gradient descent
 - Computationally slow to run
 - Statistically converges at a linear rate

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\|x_t - x^*\|^2 \right] = O(\gamma^t)$$

- Stochastic gradient descent (SGD)
 - Computationally fast iterations, **no dependence on dataset size**
 - Statistically **converges at a slower rate** — or to a noise ball

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\|x_t - x^*\|^2 \right] = O(1/t)$$

Can We Do Better?

- Is there an algorithm that has the **computational structure of SGD**, but still gets the **fast linear rates of gradient descent**?
- Intermediate question: can we find problems for which vanilla SGD already converges at a linear rate, rather than converging to a noise ball?
 - If we find such a problem, we can **understand why it happens**.

Matrix Completion

- Suppose you have some **rank-1 matrix** $A = xx^T$
- Carelessly, **you lost most of the entries** of **A**
 - You only have access to a sparse, randomly-chosen subset of the entries
- Goal: **recover the original matrix A** from the sparse samples.
 - Applications include recommender systems, principle component analysis, etc.

Matrix Completion as Optimization

- Simplest thing: minimize squared error between model and samples.

$$\text{minimize}_x \sum_{(i,j) \in \text{samples}} (e_i^T x x^T e_j - e_i^T A e_j)^2$$

- Is this convex?
- We can try to solve this with SGD: randomly choose **(i, j)** and run

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - 2\alpha(e_i^T x x^T e_j - e_i^T A e_j)(e_i e_j^T x + e_j e_i^T x)$$

Aside: What is the cost of SGD here?

- Update rule is

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - 2\alpha(e_i^T x x^T e_j - e_i^T A e_j)(e_i e_j^T x + e_j e_i^T x)$$

- Suppose we have \mathbf{K} samples and $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$.
- What is the **time complexity** of computing an iteration of SGD?
- It's really fast: **$\mathbf{O}(1)$** — this makes SGD very attractive here

Demo

A Linear Rate for SGD? Why?

- Variance of the gradient estimator **goes to zero over time**.
- What is the variance at a particular point \mathbf{x} ?

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E} \left[\left\| \tilde{\nabla} f(x) \right\|^2 \right] &= \frac{4}{K} \sum_{(i,j) \in \text{samples}} \left\| (e_i^T x x^T e_j - e_i^T A e_j) (e_i e_j^T x + e_j e_i^T x) \right\|^2 \\ &= \frac{4}{K} \sum_{(i,j) \in \text{samples}} (e_i^T x x^T e_j - e_i^T A e_j)^2 ((e_j^T x)^2 + (e_i^T x)^2)\end{aligned}$$

- At an optimal point, $\mathbf{x}\mathbf{x}^T = \mathbf{A}$, the **variance is zero**!

The Role of Variance

- Hypothesis: if the variance becomes small when we get close to the optimum, we converge at a linear rate.
- In fact, we can prove that we get a linear rate if for some \mathbf{C}

$$\mathbf{Var} \left(\nabla \tilde{f}(x) \right) \leq C \|x - x^*\|^2$$

- Or more generally

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\left\| \nabla \tilde{f}(x) \right\|^2 \right] \leq C \left\| \mathbf{E} \left[\nabla \tilde{f}(x) \right] \right\|^2 = C \left\| \nabla f(x) \right\|^2$$

Can we make this happen for any objective?

- One way to do it:

$$\nabla \tilde{g}(x) = \nabla \tilde{f}(x) - \nabla \tilde{f}(x^*)$$

- In expectation, this is the same since

$$\mathbf{E} [\nabla \tilde{g}(x)] = \nabla f(x) - \nabla f(x^*) = \nabla f(x) - 0$$

- And if the samples are Lipschitz continuous with parameter L ,

$$\|\nabla \tilde{g}(x)\|^2 = \|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(x^*)\|^2 \leq L^2 \|x - x^*\|^2$$

Does this mean we can always get a linear rate?

- **Yes!** ...for any problem for which we already know the solution.
- **Doesn't seem very useful.**
- What if we can **approximate the solution**? For $\hat{x} \approx x^*$

$$\nabla \tilde{g}(x) = \nabla \tilde{f}(x) - \nabla \tilde{f}(\hat{x})$$

- But now our **gradients are biased** — SGD converges to \hat{x} not x^*

Unbiased gradients with approximate solutions

- We can force the gradient to be unbiased by letting

$$\nabla \tilde{g}(x) = \nabla \tilde{f}(x) - \nabla \tilde{f}(\hat{x}) + \mathbf{E} \left[\nabla \tilde{f}(\hat{x}) \right]$$

- Using a **full gradient as an anchor** to lower the variance
- But what is the **computational cost** of doing this?
 - Is it feasible to compute the full gradient in every setting?
 - Is it worth it to get a linear rate?

Online and Offline Learning

Two Types of Settings for ML Problems

- **Online learning**

- The training examples arrive one-at-a-time as we are learning
- We don't have access to all the training examples
- Not even necessarily a finite training set — new training examples may be generated in real time in response to e.g. changes in the environment

- **Offline learning**

- We have access to all the training examples upfront
- The objective is a finite sum over the given training set

Online Learning

- Have some **distribution of training examples**, and goal is to

$$\text{minimize}_w \mathbf{E}_{\tilde{x} \sim \text{distribution}} [\text{loss}(w; \tilde{x})]$$

- But we **don't actually have an expression** for the distribution
- All we can do is **draw samples from it**

$$\tilde{x}_1, \tilde{x}_2, \tilde{x}_3, \dots$$

Advantages of Online Learning

- Online learning **generally doesn't overfit**
 - Why? The training distribution is the same as the test distribution.
- Online learning **easily handles new data** from the environment
- Systems benefit: we don't need to materialize the entire training set
 - Great for **scaling up** to problems that don't fit in memory

Disadvantages of Online Learning

- **Can't compute exact/full objectives and gradients**
 - Because we don't even know distribution
- **Difficult to evaluate** convergence
- Generally **don't reuse training examples** multiple times
 - So don't make efficient use of the cache for the training set
- Neural networks sometimes **catastrophically forget older examples.**

Limitations on Online Learning

- 1-D least squares regression: for some distribution μ over \mathbf{R} ,

$$\text{minimize}_x \mathbf{E}_{u \sim \mu} \left[\frac{1}{2} (x - u)^2 \right]$$

- Optimal solution is just the **mean**, regardless of what μ is

$$x^* = \mathbf{E}_{u \sim \mu} [u]$$

Limitations on Online Learning (continued)

- Suppose there were an online learning algorithm that converged at a linear rate for this 1-D least squares problem. Using \mathbf{t} samples:

$$\mathbf{E} \left[(x_t - x^*)^2 \right] = O(\gamma^t)$$

- But we know (from statistics) the lowest-variance estimator for the mean of a distribution, given \mathbf{t} samples, is just the **sample mean**

$$\bar{u} = \frac{1}{t} \sum_{i=1}^t u_t \Rightarrow \mathbf{Var}(\bar{u}) = \frac{1}{t} \mathbf{Var}(u_t)$$

- **Contradiction.** No online algorithm can be this good!

Limitations on Online Learning (continued)

- Conclusion: there's **no online learning algorithm that converges at a linear rate** for general convex problems.
- This doesn't mean that online SGD never converges at a linear rate
 - We saw that the matrix completion example did
- But it does suggest that if we want to make SGD converge at a linear rate, **we need more information than what we have in the online setting**.

Aside: Online Learning in Research

- Online learning is an **active area of research**.
- Just from a search of the titles, there were **18 papers** mentioning online learning in this year's ICML and **28 papers** in this year's NIPS.
 - And many more if we look at the abstracts.
- Particularly interesting to us because of the **computational benefits** of being able to run online.

Offline Learning

- **Offline or batch learning** is the more traditional setting of minimizing a finite sum of training losses

$$\text{minimize}_w \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n l(w; x_i, y_i)$$

- Offline learning is often just defined as “not online learning”
- We have access to everything:
 - The loss function l
 - The training examples \mathbf{x}
 - The training labels \mathbf{y}

Benefits of Offline Learning

- Can compute exact/full objectives and gradients
- Consequence: it's trivially possible to converge at a linear rate
 - Just use gradient descent
- Can we leverage this to make an SGD-like algorithm fast?

Stochastic Variance-Reduced Gradient (SVRG)

Recall: Unbiased low-variance samples

- From a few slides ago, we were looking at using samples of the form

$$\nabla \tilde{g}(x) = \nabla \tilde{f}(x) - \nabla \tilde{f}(\hat{x}) + \mathbf{E} \left[\nabla \tilde{f}(\hat{x}) \right]$$

- These samples have **reduced variance** when \hat{x} is close to x^*
- We asked when we could do this, and now we have an answer:
 - **Only in the offline setting!**
- Question: **how do we use this in an algorithm?**

How much did we reduce the variance?

- If the gradient samples are \mathbf{L} -Lipschitz continuous

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{Var}(\nabla \tilde{g}(x)) &= \mathbf{Var}\left(\nabla \tilde{f}(x) - \nabla \tilde{f}(\hat{x}) + \mathbf{E}\left[\nabla \tilde{f}(\hat{x})\right]\right) \\ &= \mathbf{Var}\left(\nabla \tilde{f}(x) - \nabla \tilde{f}(\hat{x})\right) \\ &\leq \mathbf{E}\left[\left\|\nabla \tilde{f}(x) - \nabla \tilde{f}(\hat{x})\right\|^2\right] \\ &\leq L^2 \|x - \hat{x}\|^2.\end{aligned}$$

Is this enough for a linear rate for SGD?

- **No**, variance at the optimum is reduced, but still not zero!

$$\mathbf{Var} \left(\nabla \tilde{g}(x^*) \right) \leq L^2 \|x^* - \hat{x}\|^2.$$

- Idea: what if we used a sequence of \hat{x} that approaches the optimum?
- Then **the variance would go to zero over time!**
 - Intuition: if the variance goes to zero at a linear rate, then SGD should also converge at a linear rate.

Is this enough? (continued)

- If we have a sequence of \hat{x} that converges to the optimum at a linear rate, then we can use it to reduce the variance of SGD so that it converges to the optimum at a linear rate.
- **This also doesn't seem useful.**
- Critical insight: **use the iterates of SGD** as \hat{x}
 - So, if SGD converges at a linear rate, then SGD will converge at a linear rate
 - Seems circular — but we can make it rigorous

How often to use full gradient samples?

- Can we use every iteration of SGD as an anchor point \hat{x} ?
- We could...but this would **just be gradient descent**.

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \tilde{g}(x) &= \nabla \tilde{f}(x) - \nabla \tilde{f}(x) + \mathbf{E} \left[\nabla \tilde{f}(x) \right] \\ &= \nabla f(x).\end{aligned}$$

- Instead, use a full gradient sample every \mathbf{K} iterations of SGD.
 - Called an **epoch**.

Stochastic Variance-Reduced Gradient (SVRG)

- Initialize $\mathbf{x}_{0,T}$ arbitrarily
- Outer loop: **for** $\mathbf{k} = 1$ **to** \mathbf{K}

$$\hat{x}_k \leftarrow x_{k-1,T}$$

$$\hat{g}_k \leftarrow \nabla f(\hat{x}_k) = \mathbf{E} \left[\nabla \tilde{f}(\hat{x}_k) \right]$$

$$x_{k,0} \leftarrow \hat{x}_k$$

- Inner loop: **for** $\mathbf{t} = 1$ **to** \mathbf{T}
 - Sample $\mathbf{f}_{k,t}$ at random from training set losses

$$x_{k,t} \leftarrow x_{k,t-1} - \alpha \left(\nabla \tilde{f}_{k,t}(x_{k,t-1}) - \nabla \tilde{f}_{k,t}(\hat{x}_k) + \hat{g}_k \right)$$

Computational Cost of SVRG

- Each inner loop runs for \mathbf{T} iterations
 - Has a computational cost of $\mathbf{O(T)}$
- If we have \mathbf{n} examples, the outer loop gradient computation has a computational cost of $\mathbf{O(n)}$
- Over \mathbf{K} total outer loop iterations, total time is $\mathbf{O(Kn + KT)}$

Memory Burden of SVRG

- In addition to the copy of the model that needs to be stored for vanilla SGD, we also need to store
 - An additional copy of the model vector for the anchor point \hat{x}
 - An additional vector to store its exact/full gradient
- If the model is of size \mathbf{d} , we will need to store a total of $3\mathbf{d}$ numbers
 - Plus the training set, which is usually much larger
- Takeaway: **no significant memory cost to run SVRG**

Linear Rates for SVRG

Very Simple Proof that SVRG Converges

- Strategy: run the inner loop of SVRG long enough that for some $\gamma < 1$

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\|x_{k,T} - x^*\|^2 \middle| x_{k,0} \right] \leq \gamma \|x_{k,0} - x^*\|^2 .$$

- Show that a fixed \mathbf{T} suffices for every epoch \mathbf{k}
 - This is enough to show convergence at a linear rate. **Why?**
- You'll see a tighter version of this proof in **this week's paper**.

Analysis of an Inner Iterate of SVRG

- Starting with the iterate:

$$x_{k,t} = x_{k,t-1} - \alpha \left(\nabla \tilde{f}_{k,t}(x_{k,t-1}) - \nabla \tilde{f}_{k,t}(\hat{x}_k) + \hat{g}_k \right)$$

- Let's simplify it a little by abusing notation to drop the \mathbf{k} subscripts

$$x_t = x_{t-1} - \alpha \left(\nabla \tilde{f}_t(x_{t-1}) - \nabla \tilde{f}_t(\hat{x}) + \nabla f(\hat{x}) \right)$$

Analysis (continued)

- Expected distance to the optimum:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{E} \left[\|x_t - x^*\|^2 \middle| x_{t-1} \right] &= \mathbf{E} \left[\left\| x_{t-1} - x^* - \alpha \left(\nabla \tilde{f}_t(x_{t-1}) - \nabla \tilde{f}_t(\hat{x}) + \nabla f(\hat{x}) \right) \right\|^2 \middle| x_{t-1} \right] \\ &= \|x_{t-1} - x^*\|^2 - 2\alpha(x_{t-1} - x^*)^T \mathbf{E} \left[\nabla \tilde{f}_t(x_{t-1}) - \nabla \tilde{f}_t(\hat{x}) + \nabla f(\hat{x}) \middle| x_{t-1} \right] \\ &\quad + \alpha^2 \mathbf{E} \left[\left\| \nabla \tilde{f}_t(x_{t-1}) - \nabla \tilde{f}_t(\hat{x}) + \nabla f(\hat{x}) \right\|^2 \middle| x_{t-1} \right] \\ &= \|x_{t-1} - x^*\|^2 - 2\alpha(x_{t-1} - x^*)^T \nabla f(x_{t-1}) + \alpha^2 \|\nabla f(x_{t-1})\|^2 \\ &\quad + \alpha^2 \mathbf{Var} \left(\nabla \tilde{f}_t(x_{t-1}) - \nabla \tilde{f}_t(\hat{x}) + \nabla f(\hat{x}) \middle| x_{t-1} \right)\end{aligned}$$

- To proceed, need to **bound the second order/variance term**

Analysis (continued)

- Important property: for constant \mathbf{c} , $\mathbf{Var}(X + c) = \mathbf{Var}(X)$
- We can use this to simplify the second order term:

$$\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{Var} \left(\nabla \tilde{f}_t(x_{t-1}) - \nabla \tilde{f}_t(\hat{x}) + \nabla f(\hat{x}) \middle| x_{t-1} \right) \\ &= \mathbf{Var} \left(\nabla \tilde{f}_t(x_{t-1}) - \nabla \tilde{f}_t(\hat{x}) \middle| x_{t-1} \right) \\ &\leq \mathbf{E} \left[\left\| \nabla \tilde{f}_t(x_{t-1}) - \nabla \tilde{f}_t(\hat{x}) \right\|^2 \middle| x_{t-1} \right] \\ &\leq L^2 \|x_{t-1} - \hat{x}\|^2 \leq 2L^2 \|x_{t-1} - x^*\|^2 + 2L^2 \|\hat{x} - x^*\|^2 \end{aligned}$$

Analysis (continued)

- Substituting this back, we get

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\|x_t - x^*\|^2 \middle| x_{t-1} \right] \leq \|x_{t-1} - x^*\|^2 - 2\alpha(x_{t-1} - x^*)^T \nabla f(x_{t-1}) + \alpha^2 \|\nabla f(x_{t-1})\|^2 \\ + \alpha^2 \left(2L^2 \|x_{t-1} - x^*\|^2 + 2L^2 \|\hat{x} - x^*\|^2 \right)$$

- Now we can reduce the first part using **strong convexity/Lipschitz**

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\|x_t - x^*\|^2 \middle| x_{t-1} \right] \leq \|x_{t-1} - x^*\|^2 - 2\alpha\mu \|x_{t-1} - x^*\|^2 + \alpha^2 L^2 \|x_{t-1} - x^*\|^2 \\ + \alpha^2 \left(2L^2 \|x_{t-1} - x^*\|^2 + 2L^2 \|\hat{x} - x^*\|^2 \right)$$

Analysis (continued)

- We can now take the full expectation, given the anchor point

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\|x_t - x^*\|^2 \middle| \hat{x} \right] \leq (1 - 2\alpha\mu + 3\alpha^2 L^2) \mathbf{E} \left[\|x_{t-1} - x^*\|^2 \middle| \hat{x} \right] + 2\alpha^2 L^2 \|\hat{x} - x^*\|^2$$

- Next, for simplicity, let $\rho_t = \mathbf{E} \left[\|x_t - x^*\|^2 \middle| \hat{x} \right]$

$$\rho_t \leq (1 - 2\alpha\mu + 3\alpha^2 L^2) \rho_{t-1} + 2\alpha^2 L^2 \rho_0$$

- Suppose we want to contract by a factor of \mathbf{e} . As long as $\mathbf{e} \mathbf{p}_{t-1} > \mathbf{p}_0$:

$$\rho_t \leq (1 - 2\alpha\mu + 3\alpha^2 L^2) \rho_{t-1} + 2\alpha^2 L^2 e \rho_{t-1}$$

Analysis (continued)

- Now we have

$$\begin{aligned}\rho_t &\leq (1 - 2\alpha\mu + 3\alpha^2 L^2)\rho_{t-1} + 2\alpha^2 L^2 e \rho_{t-1} \\ &\leq (1 - 2\alpha\mu + 5\alpha^2 L^2 e)\rho_{t-1}\end{aligned}$$

- Setting the step size such that $\alpha\mu = 5\alpha^2 L^2 e$

$$\rho_t \leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu^2}{5L^2 e}\right) \rho_{t-1} \Rightarrow \rho_t \leq \left(1 - \frac{\mu^2}{5L^2 e}\right)^t \rho_0 \leq \exp\left(-\frac{\mu^2}{5L^2 e} t\right)^t \rho_0$$

Analysis (continued)

- Now, this was all contingent upon $\mathbf{e} \mathbf{p}_{t-1} > \mathbf{p}_0$.
- **How many iterations** do we need to get there?
 - Need t such that

$$\exp\left(-\frac{\mu^2}{5L^2e}t\right) \leq \frac{1}{e}$$

- It suffices to pick any

$$t \geq \frac{5L^2e}{\mu^2}$$

Analysis of Inner Loop Is Done!

- We've shown that if we run for $t \geq \frac{5L^2e}{\mu^2}$ iterations,

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\|x_t - x^*\|^2 \middle| \hat{x} \right] \leq \frac{1}{e} \|\hat{x} - x^*\|^2$$

- In particular, this means that across outer loop iterations,

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\|\hat{x}_{k+1} - x^*\|^2 \right] \leq \frac{1}{e} \mathbf{E} \left[\|\hat{x}_k - x^*\|^2 \right]$$

Outer Loop Analysis

- Applying this recursively,

$$\mathbf{E} \left[\|\hat{x}_k - x^*\|^2 \right] \leq e^{-k} \|\hat{x}_0 - x^*\|^2$$

- So, to get down to error ϵ we need k iterations, where

$$k \geq \log \left(\frac{\|\hat{x}_0 - x^*\|^2}{\epsilon} \right)$$

Bringing it Together

- Total number of stochastic gradient iterations needed is

$$tk \geq \frac{5L^2e}{\mu^2} \log \left(\frac{\|\hat{x}_0 - x^*\|^2}{\epsilon} \right) = O \left(\log \left(\frac{1}{\epsilon} \right) \right)$$

- **This is a linear rate!**

Demo

Issues with Variance Reduction

- Computational cost
- Overfitting
- Interaction with other techniques
- Choosing parameters
 - **Metaparameter optimization**

Other Methods for Variance Reduction

SAG

- Stochastic average gradient
- At each step, randomly update a single example's gradient estimate using the current iterate, like SGD
- But, use the **sum of all gradient estimates** to perform an update

Systems Comparison: SAG vs SVRG

- SAG requires us to store a gradient sample **for each training example**
- What is the memory cost of doing this, if we have n training examples and our model has dimension d ?
- Answer: it's $O(nd)$
- Compare to SVRG which required $O(3d)$

Many other variance reduction methods

- SAG
- SAGA
- SVRG
- SDCA – stochastic dual coordinate ascent
- Etc.

Questions?

- Upcoming things
 - Paper Presentation #4 **on Wednesday** — read paper before class
 - **Paper Review #3 due Today.**