# Gradient Descent: The Foundation of Machine Learning Optimization

From Taylor Series to Modern Deep Learning

Nipun Batra and the teaching staff

IIT Gandhinagar

August 28, 2025

### Table of Contents

- 1. Mathematical Foundations
- 2. Taylor Series: The Mathematical Foundation
- 2.1 Univariate Taylor Series
- 2.2 Multivariate Taylor Series
- 3. From Taylor Series to Gradient Descent
- 4. The Gradient Descent Algorithm
- 5. Gradient Descent for Linear Regression
- 6. Variants of Gradient Descent
- 7. Mathematical Properties
- 8. Computational Complexity
- 9. Advanced Topics and Extensions
- 10. Practical Considerations
- 11. Summary and Key Takeaways

Mathematical Foundations

## **Key Points:**

Core ML Problem: Find best parameters  $\theta^*$  for our model

### **Key Points:**

**Core ML Problem:** Find best parameters  $\theta^*$  for our model

### **Examples everywhere:**

• Linear regression: Minimize  $(y - X\theta)^2$ 

### **Key Points:**

**Core ML Problem:** Find best parameters  $\theta^*$  for our model

### **Examples everywhere:**

- Linear regression: Minimize  $(y X\theta)^2$
- Neural networks: Minimize classification/regression loss

### **Key Points:**

**Core ML Problem:** Find best parameters  $\theta^*$  for our model

### **Examples everywhere:**

- Linear regression: Minimize  $(y X\theta)^2$
- Neural networks: Minimize classification/regression loss
- Logistic regression: Minimize cross-entropy loss

### **Key Points:**

**Core ML Problem:** Find best parameters  $\theta^*$  for our model

### **Examples everywhere:**

- Linear regression: Minimize  $(y X\theta)^2$
- Neural networks: Minimize classification/regression loss
- Logistic regression: Minimize cross-entropy loss

### **Key Points:**

**Core ML Problem:** Find best parameters  $\theta^*$  for our model

### **Examples everywhere:**

- Linear regression: Minimize  $(y X\theta)^2$
- Neural networks: Minimize classification/regression loss
- Logistic regression: Minimize cross-entropy loss

### Important: The Challenge

Most ML problems have **no closed-form solution!** 

Imagine you're hiking in dense fog and want to reach the valley:

You can only feel the slope beneath your feet

- You can only feel the slope beneath your feet
- Strategy: Always step in the steepest downhill direction

- You can only feel the slope beneath your feet
- Strategy: Always step in the steepest downhill direction
- Gradient = Direction of steepest uphill (ascent)

- You can only feel the slope beneath your feet
- Strategy: Always step in the steepest downhill direction
- Gradient = Direction of steepest uphill (ascent)
- Negative gradient = Direction of steepest downhill (descent)

- You can only feel the slope beneath your feet
- Strategy: Always step in the steepest downhill direction
- Gradient = Direction of steepest uphill (ascent)
- Negative gradient = Direction of steepest downhill (descent)

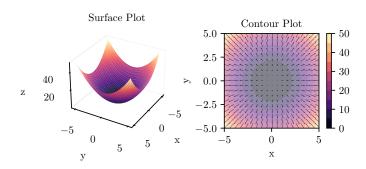
Imagine you're hiking in dense fog and want to reach the valley:

- You can only feel the slope beneath your feet
- Strategy: Always step in the steepest downhill direction
- Gradient = Direction of steepest uphill (ascent)
- Negative gradient = Direction of steepest downhill (descent)

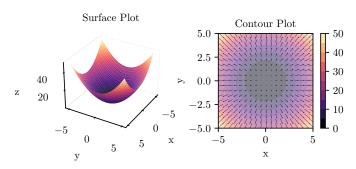
### **Key Points:**

**Key insight:** Gradient points in direction of steepest ascent So  $-\nabla f$  points in direction of steepest descent!

### Geometric Intuition with Level Sets



### Geometric Intuition with Level Sets



**Mathematical definition:** 
$$\nabla f(x,y) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Taylor Series: The Mathematical Foundation

### **Example: The Core Idea**

If we can't solve  $\min f(\mathbf{x})$  exactly, let's approximate  $f(\mathbf{x})$  locally!

### **Example: The Core Idea**

If we can't solve  $\min f(\mathbf{x})$  exactly, let's approximate  $f(\mathbf{x})$  locally!

### Strategy:

Replace complicated function with simpler approximation

### **Example: The Core Idea**

If we can't solve  $\min f(\mathbf{x})$  exactly, let's approximate  $f(\mathbf{x})$  locally!

### Strategy:

- Replace complicated function with simpler approximation
- Optimize the approximation instead

### **Example: The Core Idea**

If we can't solve  $\min f(\mathbf{x})$  exactly, let's approximate  $f(\mathbf{x})$  locally!

### Strategy:

- Replace complicated function with simpler approximation
- Optimize the approximation instead
- Move to new point and repeat

### **Example: The Core Idea**

If we can't solve  $\min f(\mathbf{x})$  exactly, let's approximate  $f(\mathbf{x})$  locally!

### Strategy:

- Replace complicated function with simpler approximation
- Optimize the approximation instead
- Move to new point and repeat

### **Example: The Core Idea**

If we can't solve  $\min f(\mathbf{x})$  exactly, let's approximate  $f(\mathbf{x})$  locally!

### Strategy:

- Replace complicated function with simpler approximation
- Optimize the approximation instead
- Move to new point and repeat

### **Important: Taylor Series Power**

Any smooth function can be approximated by polynomials!

Taylor series expansion around point  $x_0$ :

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)(x - x_0)^2 + \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)(x - x_0)^3 + \dots$$
(1)

### Taylor series expansion around point $x_0$ :

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)(x - x_0)^2 + \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)(x - x_0)^3 + \dots$$
(1)

### Different orders of approximation:

• **Zero-order:**  $f(x) \approx f(x_0)$  (constant)

### Taylor series expansion around point $x_0$ :

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)(x - x_0)^2 + \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)(x - x_0)^3 + \dots$$
(1)

### Different orders of approximation:

- **Zero-order:**  $f(x) \approx f(x_0)$  (constant)
- First-order:  $f(x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x x_0)$  (linear)

### Taylor series expansion around point $x_0$ :

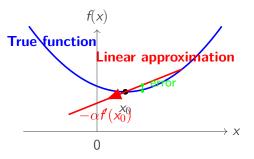
$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)(x - x_0)^2 + \frac{1}{6}f'''(x_0)(x - x_0)^3 + \dots$$
(1)

### Different orders of approximation:

- **Zero-order:**  $f(x) \approx f(x_0)$  (constant)
- First-order:  $f(x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x x_0)$  (linear)
- **Second-order:** adds  $\frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)(x-x_0)^2$  (quadratic)

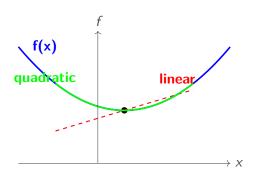
# Visual: Tangent Line Approximation

**Linear approximation:** Use tangent line to approximate function locally



Key insight: Tangent gives best local linear approximation!

# Adding Quadratic Term



## **Key Points:**

Higher-order = better approximation, but 1st-order is often sufficient!

• 
$$f(0) = \cos(0) = 1$$

- $f(0) = \cos(0) = 1$
- $f(0) = -\sin(0) = 0$

- $f(0) = \cos(0) = 1$
- $f(0) = -\sin(0) = 0$
- $f'(0) = -\cos(0) = -1$

- $f(0) = \cos(0) = 1$
- $f(0) = -\sin(0) = 0$
- $f'(0) = -\cos(0) = -1$
- $f''(0) = \sin(0) = 0$

- $f(0) = \cos(0) = 1$
- $f(0) = -\sin(0) = 0$
- $f'(0) = -\cos(0) = -1$
- $f''(0) = \sin(0) = 0$
- $f^{(4)}(0) = \cos(0) = 1$

- $f(0) = \cos(0) = 1$
- $f(0) = -\sin(0) = 0$
- $f'(0) = -\cos(0) = -1$
- $f''(0) = \sin(0) = 0$
- $f^{(4)}(0) = \cos(0) = 1$

## Concrete Example: $f(x) = \cos(x)$ at $x_0 = 0$

## Let's compute the derivatives:

• 
$$f(0) = \cos(0) = 1$$

• 
$$f(0) = -\sin(0) = 0$$

• 
$$f'(0) = -\cos(0) = -1$$

• 
$$f''(0) = \sin(0) = 0$$

• 
$$f^{(4)}(0) = \cos(0) = 1$$

## **Taylor approximations:**

Oth order: 
$$f(x) \approx 1$$
 (2)

2nd order: 
$$f(x) \approx 1 - \frac{x^2}{2}$$
 (3)

4th order: 
$$f(x) \approx 1 - \frac{x^2}{2} + \frac{x^4}{24}$$
 (4)

For function f(x) around point  $x_0$ :

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_0) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \dots$$
(5)

#### For function $f(\mathbf{x})$ around point $\mathbf{x}_0$ :

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_0) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \dots$$
(5)

#### Where:

•  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  is the **gradient** (vector of partial derivatives)

## For function $f(\mathbf{x})$ around point $\mathbf{x}_0$ :

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_0) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \dots$$
(5)

#### Where:

- $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  is the **gradient** (vector of partial derivatives)
- $abla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  is the **Hessian** (matrix of second derivatives)

## For function $f(\mathbf{x})$ around point $\mathbf{x}_0$ :

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_0) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \dots$$
(5)

#### Where:

- $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  is the **gradient** (vector of partial derivatives)
- $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  is the **Hessian** (matrix of second derivatives)
- $(\mathbf{x} \mathbf{x}_0) = \Delta \mathbf{x}$  is the step vector

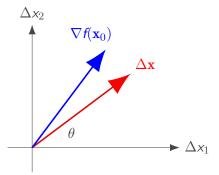
## Understanding the Linear Term

The first-order term:  $\nabla f(x_0)^T \Delta x$  where  $\Delta x = x - x_0$ 

## Understanding the Linear Term

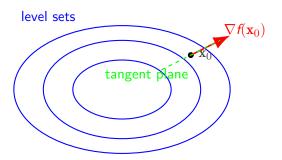
The first-order term:  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x}$  where  $\Delta \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0$  $\begin{bmatrix} \Delta \mathbf{x}_1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1 - \mathbf{x}_0 \end{bmatrix}$ 

For 2D case: 
$$\Delta \mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} \Delta x_1 \\ \Delta x_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 - x_{0,1} \\ x_2 - x_{0,2} \end{bmatrix}$$



**Geometric interpretation:**  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x} = |\nabla f| |\Delta \mathbf{x}| \cos \theta$ 

## Visual: Multivariate Case with Level Sets



## **Key Points:**

Gradient  $\perp$  level sets, tangent plane  $\perp$  gradient

**Mathematical insight:** Level set  $= \{x : f(x) = c\}$  for constant c

**Mathematical insight:** Level set  $= \{x : f(x) = c\}$  for constant c

On level sets: Moving along the level curve keeps f(x) constant

- If  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  parameterizes level curve:  $f(\mathbf{x}(t)) = c$  (constant)
- Taking derivative:  $\frac{\textit{d}}{\textit{dt}}\textit{f}(\mathbf{x}(\textit{t})) = \nabla\textit{f}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{x}'(\textit{t}) = 0$

**Mathematical insight:** Level set  $= \{x : f(x) = c\}$  for constant c

**On level sets:** Moving along the level curve keeps f(x) constant

- If  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  parameterizes level curve:  $f(\mathbf{x}(t)) = c$  (constant)
- Taking derivative:  $\frac{d}{dt}f(\mathbf{x}(t)) = \nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{x}'(t) = 0$

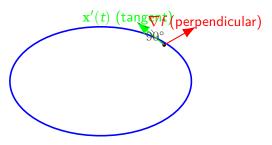
**Conclusion:**  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \perp \mathbf{x}'(t)$  for any tangent direction  $\mathbf{x}'(t)$ 

**Mathematical insight:** Level set  $= \{x : f(x) = c\}$  for constant c

On level sets: Moving along the level curve keeps f(x) constant

- If  $\mathbf{x}(t)$  parameterizes level curve:  $f(\mathbf{x}(t)) = c$  (constant)
- Taking derivative:  $\frac{d}{dt} \mathit{f}(\mathbf{x}(t)) = \nabla \mathit{f}(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \mathbf{x}'(t) = 0$

**Conclusion:**  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) \perp \mathbf{x}'(t)$  for any tangent direction  $\mathbf{x}'(t)$ 



# From Taylor Series to Gradient Descent

**Goal:** Find  $\Delta x$  such that  $\mathit{f}(x_0 + \Delta x) < \mathit{f}(x_0)$ 

Goal: Find  $\Delta x$  such that  $f(x_0 + \Delta x) < f(x_0)$  Using first-order Taylor approximation:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_0 + \Delta \mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x}$$
 (6)

Goal: Find  $\Delta x$  such that  $f(x_0 + \Delta x) < f(x_0)$  Using first-order Taylor approximation:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_0 + \Delta \mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x}$$
 (6)

For the function to decrease:

$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x} < 0$$

**Goal:** Find  $\Delta x$  such that  $f(x_0 + \Delta x) < f(x_0)$  Using first-order Taylor approximation:

$$f(\mathbf{x}_0 + \Delta \mathbf{x}) \approx f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x}$$
 (6)

For the function to decrease:

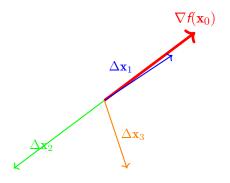
$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x} < 0$$

## **Important: Vector Geometry Reminder**

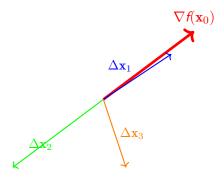
For vectors  $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \colon \mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos(\theta)$ 

Most negative when:  $cos(\theta) = -1$  (opposite directions!)

## Visual Derivation: Finding the Best Direction



## Visual Derivation: Finding the Best Direction



#### Dot products tell us the direction:

- $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x}_1 > 0$  (increases function)
- $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x}_2 < 0$  (decreases function good!)
- $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x}_3 < 0$  (decreases function)

## **Definition: Optimal Choice**

$$\Delta \mathbf{x} = -\alpha \nabla \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}_0), \quad \alpha > 0$$

## **Definition: Optimal Choice**

$$\Delta \mathbf{x} = -\alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0), \quad \alpha > 0$$

#### Why this choice?

•  $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  points in direction of steepest descent

## **Definition: Optimal Choice**

$$\Delta \mathbf{x} = -\alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0), \quad \alpha > 0$$

#### Why this choice?

- $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  points in direction of steepest descent
- $\alpha > 0$  controls the step size

## **Definition: Optimal Choice**

$$\Delta \mathbf{x} = -\alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0), \quad \alpha > 0$$

#### Why this choice?

- $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  points in direction of steepest descent
- $\alpha > 0$  controls the step size
- Guarantees  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x} < 0$  (function decrease)

## **Definition: Optimal Choice**

$$\Delta \mathbf{x} = -\alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0), \quad \alpha > 0$$

#### Why this choice?

- $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  points in direction of steepest descent
- $\alpha > 0$  controls the step size
- Guarantees  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x} < 0$  (function decrease)

## **Definition: Optimal Choice**

$$\Delta \mathbf{x} = -\alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0), \quad \alpha > 0$$

#### Why this choice?

- $-\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)$  points in direction of steepest descent
- $\alpha > 0$  controls the step size
- Guarantees  $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x} < 0$  (function decrease)

#### **Key Points:**

This gives us the fundamental gradient descent step!

This gives us the gradient descent update:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}} = \mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}} - \alpha \nabla \mathit{f}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}})$$

This gives us the gradient descent update:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}} = \mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}} - \alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}})$$

#### **Definition: Gradient Descent Algorithm**

An iterative first-order optimization method for finding local minima

#### This gives us the gradient descent update:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}} = \mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}} - \alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}})$$

#### **Definition: Gradient Descent Algorithm**

An iterative first-order optimization method for finding local minima

#### **Key properties:**

Uses only first derivatives (gradients)

#### This gives us the gradient descent update:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}} = \mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}} - \alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}})$$

#### **Definition: Gradient Descent Algorithm**

An iterative first-order optimization method for finding local minima

#### **Key properties:**

- Uses only first derivatives (gradients)
- Greedy local search

#### This gives us the gradient descent update:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}} = \mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}} - \alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}})$$

#### **Definition: Gradient Descent Algorithm**

An iterative first-order optimization method for finding local minima

#### **Key properties:**

- Uses only first derivatives (gradients)
- Greedy local search
- Guaranteed convergence for convex functions

#### This gives us the gradient descent update:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{new}} = \mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}} - \alpha \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_{\mathsf{old}})$$

#### **Definition: Gradient Descent Algorithm**

An iterative first-order optimization method for finding local minima

#### **Key properties:**

- Uses only first derivatives (gradients)
- Greedy local search
- Guaranteed convergence for convex functions
- Foundation of modern machine learning

## Pop Quiz #1: Understanding the Derivation

#### **Answer this!**

Consider  $f(x) = x^2 + 2$  at point  $x_0 = 2$ .

#### **Questions:**

- 1. What is  $f(x_0)$  and  $f'(x_0)$ ?
- 2. Write the 1st-order Taylor approximation
- 3. If we take step  $\Delta x = -0.1 \cdot f(x_0)$ , what is our new x?
- 4. Will the function value decrease?

## The Gradient Descent Algorithm

## The Complete Algorithm

## **Algorithm Steps:**

1. Initialize: Choose starting point  $oldsymbol{ heta}_0$ 

## The Complete Algorithm

## **Algorithm Steps:**

- 1. Initialize: Choose starting point  $heta_0$
- 2. Repeat until convergence:

## The Complete Algorithm

## **Algorithm Steps:**

- 1. **Initialize:** Choose starting point  $\theta_0$
- 2. Repeat until convergence:
  - $oldsymbol{\circ}$  Compute gradient:  $\mathbf{g}_t = 
    abla \mathit{f}(oldsymbol{ heta}_t)$

## Algorithm Steps:

- 1. **Initialize:** Choose starting point  $\theta_0$
- 2. Repeat until convergence:
  - $_{\circ}$  Compute gradient:  $\mathbf{g}_{t} = 
    abla \mathit{f}(oldsymbol{ heta}_{t})$
  - $_{\circ}$  Update parameters:  $oldsymbol{ heta}_{t+1} = oldsymbol{ heta}_{t} lpha \mathbf{g}_{t}$

## Algorithm Steps:

- 1. **Initialize:** Choose starting point  $\theta_0$
- 2. Repeat until convergence:
  - $_{\circ}$  Compute gradient:  $\mathbf{g}_{t} = 
    abla \mathit{f}(oldsymbol{ heta}_{t})$
  - $_{\circ}$  Update parameters:  $oldsymbol{ heta}_{t+1} = oldsymbol{ heta}_{t} lpha \mathbf{g}_{t}$
  - Check stopping criterion

## Algorithm Steps:

- 1. **Initialize:** Choose starting point  $\theta_0$
- 2. Repeat until convergence:
  - $_{\circ}$  Compute gradient:  $\mathbf{g}_{t} = 
    abla \mathit{f}(oldsymbol{ heta}_{t})$
  - $_{\circ}$  Update parameters:  $oldsymbol{ heta}_{t+1} = oldsymbol{ heta}_{t} lpha \mathbf{g}_{t}$
  - Check stopping criterion

## Algorithm Steps:

- 1. **Initialize:** Choose starting point  $\theta_0$
- 2. Repeat until convergence:
  - $_{\circ}$  Compute gradient:  $\mathbf{g}_{t} = 
    abla \mathit{f}(oldsymbol{ heta}_{t})$
  - $m{\theta}$  Update parameters:  $m{ heta}_{t+1} = m{ heta}_t lpha \mathbf{g}_t$
  - Check stopping criterion

Key hyperparameter: Learning rate  $\alpha$ 

## Algorithm Steps:

- 1. **Initialize:** Choose starting point  $\theta_0$
- 2. Repeat until convergence:
  - $_{\circ}$  Compute gradient:  $\mathbf{g}_{t} = 
    abla \mathit{f}(oldsymbol{ heta}_{t})$
  - $m{\theta}$  Update parameters:  $m{ heta}_{t+1} = m{ heta}_t lpha \mathbf{g}_t$
  - Check stopping criterion

Key hyperparameter: Learning rate  $\alpha$ 

## **Key Points:**

Learning rate selection is crucial for success!

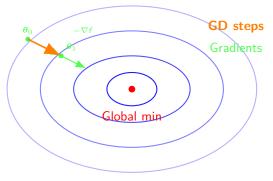
## Watch how gradient descent finds the minimum:



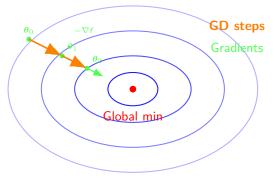
## Watch how gradient descent finds the minimum:



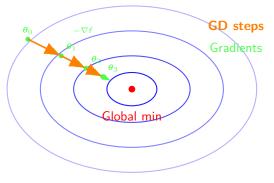
## Watch how gradient descent finds the minimum:



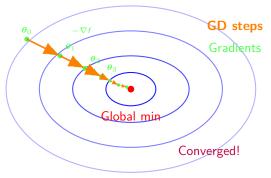
## Watch how gradient descent finds the minimum:



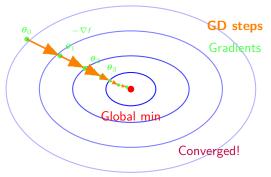
# Watch how gradient descent finds the minimum:



#### Watch how gradient descent finds the minimum:



#### Watch how gradient descent finds the minimum:



Loss surface  $f(\theta)$ 

## Theorem: Key Insight

Steps get **smaller** as we approach the minimum because  $|\nabla f| \to 0!$ 

The learning rate  $\alpha$  controls how big steps we take:

• Too small  $\alpha$ : Slow convergence

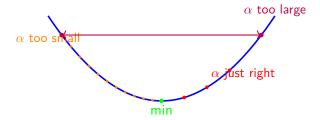
- Too small  $\alpha$ : Slow convergence
- **Good**  $\alpha$ : Fast, stable convergence

- Too small  $\alpha$ : Slow convergence
- Good  $\alpha$ : Fast, stable convergence
- **Too large**  $\alpha$ **:** Overshooting, instability

- **Too small**  $\alpha$ **:** Slow convergence
- Good  $\alpha$ : Fast, stable convergence
- **Too large**  $\alpha$ **:** Overshooting, instability
- Way too large  $\alpha$ : Divergence!

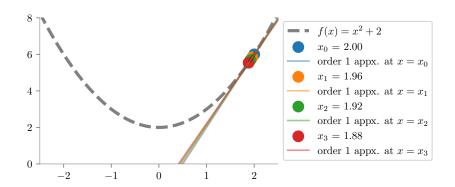
- **Too small**  $\alpha$ **:** Slow convergence
- Good  $\alpha$ : Fast, stable convergence
- **Too large**  $\alpha$ **:** Overshooting, instability
- Way too large  $\alpha$ : Divergence!

- **Too small**  $\alpha$ **:** Slow convergence
- Good  $\alpha$ : Fast, stable convergence
- **Too large**  $\alpha$ : Overshooting, instability
- Way too large  $\alpha$ : Divergence!



# Learning Rate Visualization: Too Small

 $\alpha = 0.01$ : Convergence is slow but stable

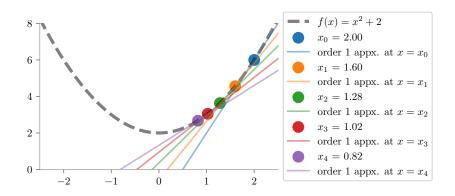


## Important: Problem

Takes many iterations to reach the minimum. Computationally expensive!

# Learning Rate: Just Right

#### $\alpha=0.1$ : Good balance: Fast and stable convergence

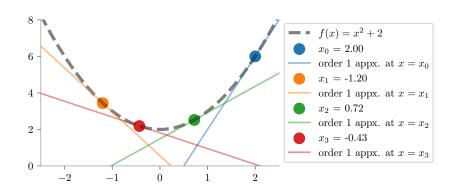


## **Key Points:**

Perfect balance: Fast convergence + Stability

# Learning Rate: Too Large

 $\alpha = 0.8$ : Fast but may overshoot

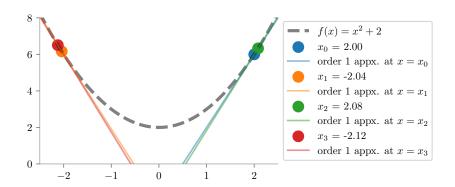


## Important: Warning

Quick convergence but risk of instability. Watch out for oscillations!

# Learning Rate: Disaster

#### $\alpha = 1.01$ : Divergence! Function values explode

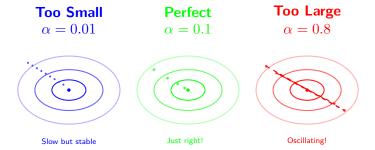


## Important: Disaster Zone

The algorithm diverges. Always monitor your loss curves!

# Learning Rate Showdown: All Together

#### Compare different learning rates side by side:



## Theorem: Goldilocks Principle

Not too small, not too large - learning rate must be just right!

#### **Key Points:**

# Gradient Descent for Linear Regression

# Linear Regression: Our First Application

**Problem:** Learn  $y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$  from data

X	у
1	1
2	2
3	3

# Linear Regression: Our First Application

**Problem:** Learn  $y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$  from data

х	у
1	1
2	2
3	3

## **Cost Function (Mean Squared Error):**

$$MSE(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i)^2$$

# Linear Regression: Our First Application

**Problem:** Learn  $y = \theta_0 + \theta_1 x$  from data

X	у
1	1
2	2
3	3

#### **Cost Function (Mean Squared Error):**

$$MSE(\theta_0, \theta_1) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2 = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i)^2$$

**Goal:** 
$$(\theta_0^*, \theta_1^*) = \arg\min_{\theta_0, \theta_1} \mathrm{MSE}(\theta_0, \theta_1)$$

# Computing Gradients for Linear Regression

We need: 
$$\nabla MSE = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_0} \\ \frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_1} \end{bmatrix}$$

# Computing Gradients for Linear Regression

We need: 
$$\nabla MSE = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_0} \\ \frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Let's compute each partial derivative:

$$\frac{\partial \text{MSE}}{\partial \theta_0} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i)(-1) \tag{7}$$

$$= -\frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \epsilon_i \tag{8}$$

# Computing Gradients for Linear Regression

We need: 
$$\nabla MSE = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_0} \\ \frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_1} \end{bmatrix}$$

Let's compute each partial derivative:

$$\frac{\partial \text{MSE}}{\partial \theta_0} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i)(-1)$$
 (7)

$$= -\frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \epsilon_i \tag{8}$$

$$\frac{\partial \text{MSE}}{\partial \theta_1} = \frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i)(-x_i)$$
 (9)

$$= -\frac{2}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \epsilon_i x_i \tag{10}$$

where  $\epsilon_i = y_i - \hat{y}_i$  is the residual.

Initial values:  $\theta_0=4, \theta_1=0$ , Learning rate:  $\alpha=0.1$ 

• 
$$\hat{y}_1 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 1 = 4 + 0 \cdot 1 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_1 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 1 = 4 + 0 \cdot 1 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_2 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 2 = 4 + 0 \cdot 2 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_1 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 1 = 4 + 0 \cdot 1 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_2 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 2 = 4 + 0 \cdot 2 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_3 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 3 = 4 + 0 \cdot 3 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_1 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 1 = 4 + 0 \cdot 1 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_2 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 2 = 4 + 0 \cdot 2 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_3 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 3 = 4 + 0 \cdot 3 = 4$$

Initial values:  $\theta_0 = 4, \theta_1 = 0$ , Learning rate:  $\alpha = 0.1$  Iteration 1 - Predictions:

• 
$$\hat{\mathbf{y}}_1 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 1 = 4 + 0 \cdot 1 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_2 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 2 = 4 + 0 \cdot 2 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_3 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 3 = 4 + 0 \cdot 3 = 4$$

## Errors (residuals):

• 
$$\epsilon_1 = y_1 - \hat{y}_1 = 1 - 4 = -3$$

## Step-by-Step Example: Setup

Initial values:  $\theta_0 = 4, \theta_1 = 0$ , Learning rate:  $\alpha = 0.1$  Iteration 1 - Predictions:

• 
$$\hat{y}_1 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 1 = 4 + 0 \cdot 1 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_2 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 2 = 4 + 0 \cdot 2 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_3 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 3 = 4 + 0 \cdot 3 = 4$$

## Errors (residuals):

• 
$$\epsilon_1 = y_1 - \hat{y}_1 = 1 - 4 = -3$$

• 
$$\epsilon_2 = y_2 - \hat{y}_2 = 2 - 4 = -2$$

## Step-by-Step Example: Setup

Initial values:  $\theta_0 = 4, \theta_1 = 0$ , Learning rate:  $\alpha = 0.1$  Iteration 1 - Predictions:

• 
$$\hat{y}_1 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 1 = 4 + 0 \cdot 1 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_2 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 2 = 4 + 0 \cdot 2 = 4$$

• 
$$\hat{y}_3 = \theta_0 + \theta_1 \cdot 3 = 4 + 0 \cdot 3 = 4$$

## Errors (residuals):

• 
$$\epsilon_1 = y_1 - \hat{y}_1 = 1 - 4 = -3$$

• 
$$\epsilon_2 = y_2 - \hat{y}_2 = 2 - 4 = -2$$

• 
$$\epsilon_3 = y_3 - \hat{y}_3 = 3 - 4 = -1$$

#### **Compute gradients:**

• 
$$\frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_0} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 - 2 - 1) = -\frac{2}{3}(-6) = 4$$

#### Compute gradients:

• 
$$\frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_0} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 - 2 - 1) = -\frac{2}{3}(-6) = 4$$

• 
$$\frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_1} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 2 - 1 \cdot 3) = -\frac{2}{3}(-10) = 6.67$$

#### Compute gradients:

• 
$$\frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_0} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 - 2 - 1) = -\frac{2}{3}(-6) = 4$$

• 
$$\frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_1} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 2 - 1 \cdot 3) = -\frac{2}{3}(-10) = 6.67$$

#### **Compute gradients:**

• 
$$\frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_0} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 - 2 - 1) = -\frac{2}{3}(-6) = 4$$

• 
$$\frac{\partial \text{MSE}}{\partial \theta_1} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 2 - 1 \cdot 3) = -\frac{2}{3}(-10) = 6.67$$

#### Parameter updates:

• 
$$\theta_0 = 4 - 0.1 \times 4 = 3.6$$

#### **Compute gradients:**

• 
$$\frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_0} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 - 2 - 1) = -\frac{2}{3}(-6) = 4$$

• 
$$\frac{\partial \text{MSE}}{\partial \theta_1} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 2 - 1 \cdot 3) = -\frac{2}{3}(-10) = 6.67$$

#### Parameter updates:

• 
$$\theta_0 = 4 - 0.1 \times 4 = 3.6$$

• 
$$\theta_1 = 0 - 0.1 \times 6.67 = -0.67$$

#### **Compute gradients:**

• 
$$\frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_0} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 - 2 - 1) = -\frac{2}{3}(-6) = 4$$

• 
$$\frac{\partial \text{MSE}}{\partial \theta_1} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 \cdot 1 - 2 \cdot 2 - 1 \cdot 3) = -\frac{2}{3}(-10) = 6.67$$

#### Parameter updates:

• 
$$\theta_0 = 4 - 0.1 \times 4 = 3.6$$

• 
$$\theta_1 = 0 - 0.1 \times 6.67 = -0.67$$

#### **Compute gradients:**

- $\frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_0} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 2 1) = -\frac{2}{3}(-6) = 4$
- $\frac{\partial \text{MSE}}{\partial \theta_1} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 \cdot 1 2 \cdot 2 1 \cdot 3) = -\frac{2}{3}(-10) = 6.67$

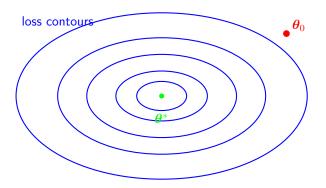
#### Parameter updates:

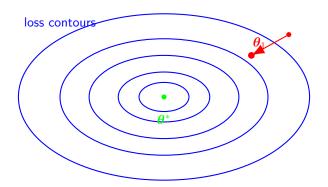
- $\theta_0 = 4 0.1 \times 4 = 3.6$
- $\theta_1 = 0 0.1 \times 6.67 = -0.67$

## **Key Points:**

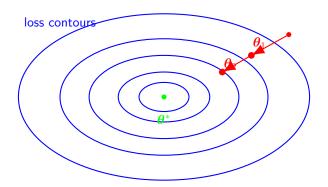
New parameters:  $(\theta_0, \theta_1) = (3.6, -0.67)$ 

We moved closer to the true solution (0,1)!

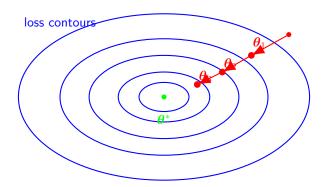




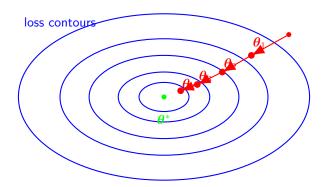
## **Key Points:**



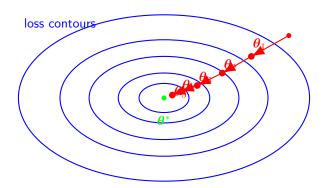
## **Key Points:**



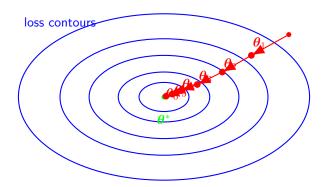
#### **Key Points:**



#### **Key Points:**



#### **Key Points:**



## **Key Points:**

## Variants of Gradient Descent

## The Gradient Descent Family

#### Three main variants based on data usage:

#### **Definition: Batch Gradient Descent**

Use all training data to compute each gradient

## **Definition: Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)**

Use one sample to compute each gradient

#### **Definition: Mini-batch Gradient Descent**

Use a small batch of samples to compute each gradient

## Comparison: Batch vs SGD vs Mini-batch

Method	Data/update	Updates/epoch	Convergence
Batch GD	n (all)	1	Smooth
SGD	1	n	Noisy
Mini-batch	b	n/b	Balanced

## Comparison: Batch vs SGD vs Mini-batch

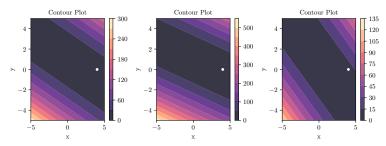
Method	Data/update	Updates/epoch	Convergence
Batch GD	n (all)	1	Smooth
SGD	1	n	Noisy
Mini-batch	b	n/b	Balanced

## **Key Points:**

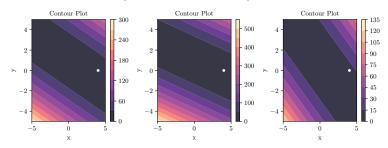
## **Modern ML Standard:** Mini-batch GD with batch sizes 32-256

- · Good balance of stability and efficiency
- Enables parallel computation (GPUs!)
- Better gradient estimates than pure SGD

## SGD uses one sample at a time for updates



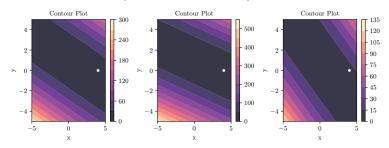
#### SGD uses one sample at a time for updates



#### **Trade-offs:**

Pro: Fast updates, can escape local minima

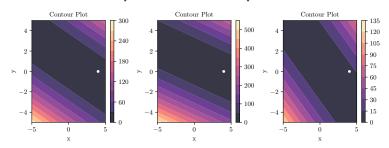
#### SGD uses one sample at a time for updates



#### **Trade-offs:**

- Pro: Fast updates, can escape local minima
- Con: Noisy convergence, may not reach exact minimum

#### SGD uses one sample at a time for updates



#### Trade-offs:

- Pro: Fast updates, can escape local minima
- Con: Noisy convergence, may not reach exact minimum
- Key insight: Noise can be beneficial for non-convex problems!

# Mathematical Properties

## SGD as an Unbiased Estimator

## True gradient (what we want):

$$\nabla L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \nabla \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_i) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_i)$$
 (linearity of gradient) (12)

## SGD as an Unbiased Estimator

## True gradient (what we want):

$$\nabla L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \nabla \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_i) \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_i) \qquad \text{(linearity of gradient)} \qquad (12)$$

## SGD gradient estimate (what we compute):

$$\nabla \tilde{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \nabla \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_j; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_j)$$

where  $(\mathbf{x}_j, y_j)$  is sampled uniformly from  $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ 

## The Unbiased Property: Mathematical Proof

## **Theorem: SGD Unbiased Estimator Property**

$$\mathbb{E}[\nabla \tilde{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})] = \nabla L(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

## The Unbiased Property: Mathematical Proof

## Theorem: SGD Unbiased Estimator Property

$$\mathbb{E}[\nabla \tilde{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})] = \nabla L(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

#### **Detailed Proof:**

$$\mathbb{E}[\nabla \tilde{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})] = \mathbb{E}\left[\nabla \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_j; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_j)\right]$$
(13)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(\text{sample } i) \cdot \nabla \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_i)$$
 (14)

$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{1}{n}\cdot\nabla\ell(f(\mathbf{x}_{i};\boldsymbol{\theta}),y_{i})$$
(15)

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_i) \qquad \text{(linearity of expectation)}$$

(16)

## The Unbiased Property: Mathematical Proof

## Theorem: SGD Unbiased Estimator Property

$$\mathbb{E}[\nabla \tilde{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})] = \nabla L(\boldsymbol{\theta})$$

#### **Detailed Proof:**

$$\mathbb{E}[\nabla \tilde{L}(\boldsymbol{\theta})] = \mathbb{E}\left[\nabla \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_j; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_j)\right]$$
(13)

$$= \sum_{i=1}^{n} P(\text{sample } i) \cdot \nabla \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_i)$$
 (14)

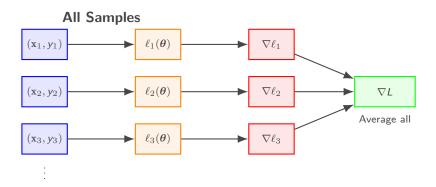
$$=\sum_{i=1}^{n}\frac{1}{n}\cdot\nabla\ell(f(\mathbf{x}_{i};\boldsymbol{\theta}),y_{i})$$
(15)

$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla \ell(f(\mathbf{x}_i; \boldsymbol{\theta}), y_i) \qquad \text{(linearity of expectation)}$$

(16)

## SGD Computational Graph: Batch Gradient Descent

#### How Batch GD computes the true gradient:

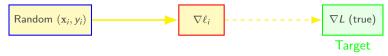


## **Key Points:**

Batch GD uses **all** samples to compute the exact gradient:  $\nabla L = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla \ell_i$ 

## SGD Computational Graph: Stochastic Sampling

#### How SGD randomly picks one gradient:



SGD estimate

#### Important: Unbiased Property

 $\mathbb{E}[\nabla \ell_i] = \nabla L \Rightarrow \mathsf{SGD}$  points toward true gradient **on average** 

## **Key Points:**

Individual SGD steps may be "wrong", but they're unbiased estimates of the true direction!

## **Key Points:**

 $\textbf{Key insight:} \ \, \textbf{On average, SGD points in the correct direct}$ 

## **Key Points:**

**Key insight:** On average, SGD points in the correct direction!

#### **Practical implications:**

• Individual SGD steps may be "wrong"

## **Key Points:**

**Key insight:** On average, SGD points in the correct direction!

#### **Practical implications:**

- Individual SGD steps may be "wrong"
- But they average to the correct direction over time

## **Key Points:**

**Key insight:** On average, SGD points in the correct direction!

#### **Practical implications:**

- Individual SGD steps may be "wrong"
- But they average to the correct direction over time
- Theoretical guarantee that justifies SGD's effectiveness

# Why Unbiasedness Matters

### **Key Points:**

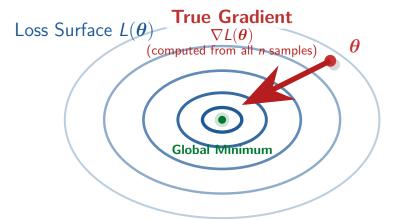
**Key insight:** On average, SGD points in the correct direction!

### **Practical implications:**

- Individual SGD steps may be "wrong"
- But they average to the correct direction over time
- Theoretical guarantee that justifies SGD's effectiveness
- The "noise" helps escape local minima in non-convex problems

# Visual Intuition 1: Overall Loss Surface

True loss function using all data points:





41 / 55

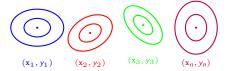
# Visual Intuition 2: Individual Sample Loss Surfaces

Loss for individual data points (different shapes):



# Visual Intuition 2: Individual Sample Loss Surfaces

# Loss for individual data points (different shapes):

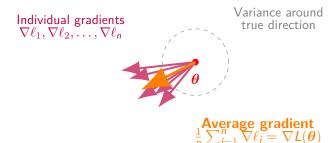


### Important: Key Observation

Each individual gradient points in a **different direction** - some variation!

# Visual Intuition 3: Averaging Individual Gradients

The magic: Average of individual gradients = True gradient



### Theorem: Visual Proof of Unbiasedness

Even though individual gradients vary, their average equals the true gradient!

# Visual Intuition 4: SGD Sampling Process

### SGD randomly picks one gradient at a time:

All possible individual gradients

True average  $\nabla L(\theta)$ 



SGD picks one randomly:  $\nabla \ell_j$ 

# **Key Points:**

**Key insight:** Sometimes SGD goes "wrong" direction, but on average it's correct!

# Why Unbiasedness Matters in Practice

# Why Unbiasedness Matters in Practice

### **Example: Intuitive Analogy**

Like asking random people for directions:

- · Each person's answer might be slightly off
- But if there's no systematic bias, the average is correct
- SGD does the same with gradient estimates!

**Computational Complexity** 

# GD vs Normal Equation: Complexity

### For linear regression:

# **Important: Normal Equation**

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

Time:  $\mathcal{O}(d^2n + d^3)$ 

 $\textbf{Space: } \mathcal{O}(\textit{d}^{2})$ 

# GD vs Normal Equation: Complexity

### For linear regression:

# **Important: Normal Equation**

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = (\mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{X})^{-1} \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{y}$$

Time:  $\mathcal{O}(d^2n + d^3)$ 

Space:  $\mathcal{O}(d^2)$ 

### **Key Points: Gradient Descent**

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \alpha \mathbf{X}^T (\mathbf{X} \boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \mathbf{y})$$

**Time:**  $\mathcal{O}(T \cdot nd)$  for T iterations

**Space:** O(nd)

# **Key Points:**

Modern ML: Gradient descent dominates due to:

- High-dimensional data (d very large)
- Non-linear models (no normal equation exists)
- Large datasets (n very large)

### **Key Points:**

### Modern ML: Gradient descent dominates due to:

- High-dimensional data (d very large)
- Non-linear models (no normal equation exists)
- Large datasets (n very large)

### Decision criteria:

• Few features (d < 1000): Consider normal equation

### **Key Points:**

### Modern ML: Gradient descent dominates due to:

- High-dimensional data (d very large)
- Non-linear models (no normal equation exists)
- Large datasets (n very large)

### Decision criteria:

- Few features (d < 1000): Consider normal equation
- Many features (d > 10000): Gradient descent

### **Key Points:**

### Modern ML: Gradient descent dominates due to:

- High-dimensional data (d very large)
- Non-linear models (no normal equation exists)
- Large datasets (n very large)

### Decision criteria:

- Few features (d < 1000): Consider normal equation
- Many features (d > 10000): Gradient descent
- Non-linear models: Only gradient descent works

# **Key Points:**

### Modern ML: Gradient descent dominates due to:

- High-dimensional data (d very large)
- Non-linear models (no normal equation exists)
- Large datasets (n very large)

### **Decision criteria:**

- Few features (d < 1000): Consider normal equation
- Many features (d > 10000): Gradient descent
- Non-linear models: Only gradient descent works
- Online learning: Only gradient descent works

# Advanced Topics and Extensions

# Modern optimizers improve upon vanilla GD:

• Momentum:  $\mathbf{v}_{t+1} = \beta \mathbf{v}_t + (1 - \beta)\mathbf{g}_t$ 

- Momentum:  $\mathbf{v}_{t+1} = \beta \mathbf{v}_t + (1 \beta)\mathbf{g}_t$
- AdaGrad: Adaptive per-parameter learning rates

- Momentum:  $\mathbf{v}_{t+1} = \beta \mathbf{v}_t + (1 \beta)\mathbf{g}_t$
- AdaGrad: Adaptive per-parameter learning rates
- Adam: Combines momentum + adaptive rates

- Momentum:  $\mathbf{v}_{t+1} = \beta \mathbf{v}_t + (1 \beta)\mathbf{g}_t$
- AdaGrad: Adaptive per-parameter learning rates
- Adam: Combines momentum + adaptive rates
- RMSprop: Exponential moving average of squared gradients

- Momentum:  $\mathbf{v}_{t+1} = \beta \mathbf{v}_t + (1 \beta)\mathbf{g}_t$
- AdaGrad: Adaptive per-parameter learning rates
- Adam: Combines momentum + adaptive rates
- RMSprop: Exponential moving average of squared gradients

# Modern optimizers improve upon vanilla GD:

- Momentum:  $\mathbf{v}_{t+1} = \beta \mathbf{v}_t + (1 \beta)\mathbf{g}_t$
- AdaGrad: Adaptive per-parameter learning rates
- Adam: Combines momentum + adaptive rates
- RMSprop: Exponential moving average of squared gradients

### Why these improvements?

Handle different parameter scales automatically

# Modern optimizers improve upon vanilla GD:

- Momentum:  $\mathbf{v}_{t+1} = \beta \mathbf{v}_t + (1 \beta)\mathbf{g}_t$
- AdaGrad: Adaptive per-parameter learning rates
- Adam: Combines momentum + adaptive rates
- RMSprop: Exponential moving average of squared gradients

### Why these improvements?

- · Handle different parameter scales automatically
- Accelerate convergence in relevant directions

# Modern optimizers improve upon vanilla GD:

- Momentum:  $\mathbf{v}_{t+1} = \beta \mathbf{v}_t + (1 \beta)\mathbf{g}_t$
- AdaGrad: Adaptive per-parameter learning rates
- Adam: Combines momentum + adaptive rates
- RMSprop: Exponential moving average of squared gradients

### Why these improvements?

- · Handle different parameter scales automatically
- Accelerate convergence in relevant directions
- Reduce oscillations in narrow valleys

# **Key Points:**

Every deep learning framework uses gradient descent variants!

# **Key Points:**

Every deep learning framework uses gradient descent variants!

### Key modern extensions:

• Backpropagation: Efficient gradient computation

# **Key Points:**

Every deep learning framework uses gradient descent variants!

### Key modern extensions:

- Backpropagation: Efficient gradient computation
- Automatic differentiation: PyTorch/TensorFlow magic

# **Key Points:**

Every deep learning framework uses gradient descent variants!

### Key modern extensions:

- Backpropagation: Efficient gradient computation
- Automatic differentiation: PyTorch/TensorFlow magic
- GPU acceleration: Parallel mini-batch processing

# **Key Points:**

Every deep learning framework uses gradient descent variants!

### Key modern extensions:

- Backpropagation: Efficient gradient computation
- Automatic differentiation: PyTorch/TensorFlow magic
- GPU acceleration: Parallel mini-batch processing
- **Mixed precision:** 16-bit + 32-bit arithmetic

# Practical Considerations

# Common approaches:

• Grid search: Try  $\{0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0\}$ 

- **Grid search:** Try  $\{0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0\}$
- Learning rate schedules: Start high, decay over time

- **Grid search:** Try  $\{0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0\}$
- Learning rate schedules: Start high, decay over time
- Adaptive methods: Let algorithm adjust automatically

- Grid search: Try  $\{0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0\}$
- Learning rate schedules: Start high, decay over time
- Adaptive methods: Let algorithm adjust automatically
- Learning rate finder: Gradually increase and monitor

- Grid search: Try  $\{0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0\}$
- Learning rate schedules: Start high, decay over time
- Adaptive methods: Let algorithm adjust automatically
- Learning rate finder: Gradually increase and monitor

## Learning Rate Selection Strategies

#### Common approaches:

- Grid search: Try  $\{0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0\}$
- Learning rate schedules: Start high, decay over time
- Adaptive methods: Let algorithm adjust automatically
- Learning rate finder: Gradually increase and monitor

#### Warning signs:

• Loss exploding  $\rightarrow \alpha$  too high

## Learning Rate Selection Strategies

#### Common approaches:

- Grid search: Try  $\{0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0\}$
- Learning rate schedules: Start high, decay over time
- · Adaptive methods: Let algorithm adjust automatically
- Learning rate finder: Gradually increase and monitor

#### Warning signs:

- Loss exploding  $ightarrow \alpha$  too high
- Very slow progress ightarrow lpha too low

## Learning Rate Selection Strategies

#### Common approaches:

- Grid search: Try  $\{0.001, 0.01, 0.1, 1.0\}$
- Learning rate schedules: Start high, decay over time
- Adaptive methods: Let algorithm adjust automatically
- Learning rate finder: Gradually increase and monitor

#### Warning signs:

- Loss exploding  $\rightarrow \alpha$  too high
- Very slow progress ightarrow lpha too low
- Oscillating loss o Try momentum or smaller lpha

#### When to stop training?

- Gradient magnitude:  $||\nabla \mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\theta})|| < \epsilon$ 

- Gradient magnitude:  $||\nabla \mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\theta})|| < \epsilon$
- Function change:  $|\mathit{f}(\theta_{t+1}) \mathit{f}(\theta_t)| < \epsilon$

- Gradient magnitude:  $||\nabla \mathbf{f}(\boldsymbol{\theta})|| < \epsilon$
- Function change:  $|\mathit{f}(\theta_{t+1}) \mathit{f}(\theta_t)| < \epsilon$
- Parameter change:  $||\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} \boldsymbol{\theta}_t|| < \epsilon$

- Gradient magnitude:  $||\nabla f(\theta)|| < \epsilon$
- Function change:  $|f(\theta_{t+1}) f(\theta_t)| < \epsilon$
- Parameter change:  $||\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} \boldsymbol{\theta}_t|| < \epsilon$
- Maximum iterations: Always set an upper bound

- Gradient magnitude:  $||\nabla f(\theta)|| < \epsilon$
- Function change:  $|f(\theta_{t+1}) f(\theta_t)| < \epsilon$
- Parameter change:  $||\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} \boldsymbol{\theta}_t|| < \epsilon$
- Maximum iterations: Always set an upper bound

#### When to stop training?

- Gradient magnitude:  $||\nabla f(\theta)|| < \epsilon$
- Function change:  $|f(\theta_{t+1}) f(\theta_t)| < \epsilon$
- Parameter change:  $||\theta_{t+1} \theta_t|| < \epsilon$
- Maximum iterations: Always set an upper bound

#### **Key Points:**

**Best practice:** Use multiple criteria + validation performance

#### Common Pitfalls

### Important: Pitfall 1: Poor Initialization

**Problem:** Bad starting points **Solution:** Xavier/He initialization

#### Common Pitfalls

#### Important: Pitfall 1: Poor Initialization

**Problem:** Bad starting points **Solution:** Xavier/He initialization

#### Important: Pitfall 2: Wrong Learning Rate

**Problem:** Divergence or slow convergence

Solution: Learning rate schedules, adaptive optimizers

#### Common Pitfalls

#### Important: Pitfall 1: Poor Initialization

**Problem:** Bad starting points **Solution:** Xavier/He initialization

#### Important: Pitfall 2: Wrong Learning Rate

**Problem:** Divergence or slow convergence

**Solution:** Learning rate schedules, adaptive optimizers

#### Important: Pitfall 3: Poor Feature Scaling

**Problem:** Different scales cause poor convergence

**Solution:** Standardize features:  $(x - \mu)/\sigma$ 

# Summary and Key Takeaways

#### **Key Points:**

Gradient descent is the backbone of modern machine learning!

#### **Key Points:**

Gradient descent is the backbone of modern machine learning!

#### Journey recap:

Mathematical foundation: Taylor series derivation

#### **Key Points:**

Gradient descent is the backbone of modern machine learning!

- Mathematical foundation: Taylor series derivation
- Geometric intuition: Steepest descent direction

#### **Key Points:**

Gradient descent is the backbone of modern machine learning!

- Mathematical foundation: Taylor series derivation
- · Geometric intuition: Steepest descent direction
- Algorithm variants: Batch, SGD, mini-batch

#### **Key Points:**

Gradient descent is the backbone of modern machine learning!

- Mathematical foundation: Taylor series derivation
- · Geometric intuition: Steepest descent direction
- Algorithm variants: Batch, SGD, mini-batch
- Theoretical properties: Unbiased estimator guarantees

#### **Key Points:**

Gradient descent is the backbone of modern machine learning!

- Mathematical foundation: Taylor series derivation
- · Geometric intuition: Steepest descent direction
- Algorithm variants: Batch, SGD, mini-batch
- Theoretical properties: Unbiased estimator guarantees
- Practical wisdom: Learning rates, scaling, diagnostics

#### Next steps for mastery:

• Implement gradient descent from scratch

- Implement gradient descent from scratch
- Experiment with different learning rates

- Implement gradient descent from scratch
- Experiment with different learning rates
- Compare batch vs SGD vs mini-batch

- Implement gradient descent from scratch
- Experiment with different learning rates
- Compare batch vs SGD vs mini-batch
- Try advanced optimizers (Adam, momentum)

- Implement gradient descent from scratch
- Experiment with different learning rates
- Compare batch vs SGD vs mini-batch
- Try advanced optimizers (Adam, momentum)
- Apply to real datasets

- Implement gradient descent from scratch
- Experiment with different learning rates
- Compare batch vs SGD vs mini-batch
- Try advanced optimizers (Adam, momentum)
- Apply to real datasets

#### Next steps for mastery:

- Implement gradient descent from scratch
- Experiment with different learning rates
- Compare batch vs SGD vs mini-batch
- Try advanced optimizers (Adam, momentum)
- Apply to real datasets

#### **Key Points:**

Master gradient descent first - it's the foundation for everything else!

## Final Pop Quiz #2

#### **Answer this!**

#### True or False?

- 1. SGD always converges faster than batch GD
- 2. Learning rates should decrease during training
- 3. SGD gradient estimates are unbiased
- 4. Normal equation always beats gradient descent
- 5. GD guarantees global minimum for any function

Deep Dive: Advanced Theory

#### For comprehensive mathematical analysis:

#### **Important: Reference Materials**

- SGD.pdf: Detailed convergence proofs
- Florian's estimators: https://florian.github.io/estimators/
- Interactive notebooks for hands-on practice

## Pop Quiz Solutions

#### Quiz #1 Solutions:

- 1. f(2) = 6, f'(2) = 4
- 2.  $f(x) \approx 6 + 4(x-2)$
- 3. New  $x = 2 0.1 \times 4 = 1.6$
- 4. Yes, function decreases!

## Pop Quiz Solutions

#### Quiz #1 Solutions:

- 1. f(2) = 6, f'(2) = 4
- 2.  $f(x) \approx 6 + 4(x-2)$
- 3. New  $x = 2 0.1 \times 4 = 1.6$
- 4. Yes, function decreases!

#### Quiz #2 Solutions:

- 1. False SGD faster per epoch, may need more epochs
- 2. True schedules often improve convergence
- 3. True key theoretical property
- 4. False only for linear problems, small d
- 5. False only local minima; global for convex only

## Thank You!

Questions?

Next: Advanced Optimization Techniques

**Practice:** Implement GD for your favorite ML model!