Gradient Descent: The Foundation of Machine Learning Optimization

From Taylor Series to Modern Deep Learning

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Key Points: G

radient descent is the workhorse of modern machine learning!

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

You can only feel the slope beneath your feet

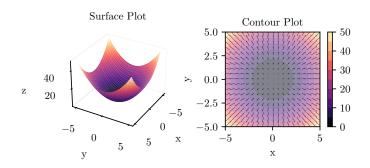
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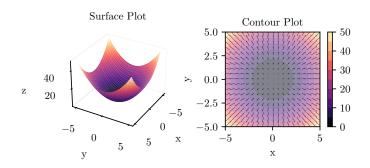
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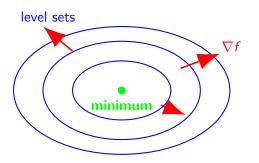
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Geometric Intuition with Level Sets



Key Points: K

ey insight: Gradient \bot level sets, points toward steepest ascent

Taylor Series: The Mathematical Foundation

Definition: The Core Idea

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

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Taylor series expansion around point x_0 :

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_0) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \dots$$
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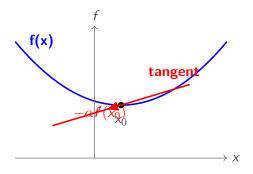
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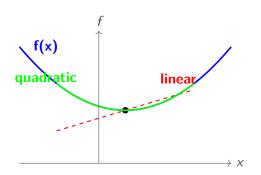
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- **Second-order:** Includes curvature via Hessian $\nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_0)$

Univariate Taylor: Visual Understanding



Adding Quadratic Term



Important: Key Insight

Higher-order terms give better approximations, but first-order is often sufficient for optimization!

•
$$f(0) = \cos(0) = 1$$

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Let's approximate $f(x) = \cos(x)$ around $x_0 = 0$:

•
$$f(0) = \cos(0) = 1$$

•
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•
$$f''(0) = -\cos(0) = -1$$

•
$$f''(0) = \sin(0) = 0$$

•
$$f^{(4)}(0) = \cos(0) = 1$$

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)

Multivariate Taylor Series

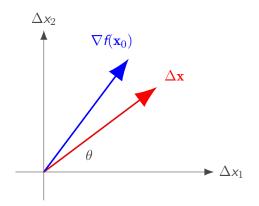
Extension to multiple variables:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f(\mathbf{x}_0) + \nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0)^T \nabla^2 f(\mathbf{x}_0) (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_0) + \dots$$
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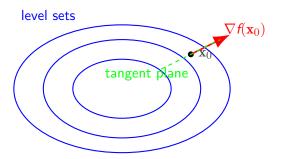
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Linear term: $\nabla f(\mathbf{x}_0)^T \Delta \mathbf{x} = |\nabla f| |\Delta \mathbf{x}| \cos \theta$

Visual: Multivariate Case with Level Sets



Key: Gradient \bot level sets, tangent plane \bot gradient

From Taylor Series to Gradient Descent

Goal: Find Δx such that $f(x_0 + \Delta x) < f(x_0)$

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Example: Vector Geometry Insight

For vectors **a** and **b**: $\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{b} = |\mathbf{a}| |\mathbf{b}| \cos(\theta)$

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

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

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Definition: Gradient Descent Update Rule

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

Pop Quiz #1: Taylor Series Understanding

Answer this!

Given $f(x) = x^2 + 2$ and expansion point $x_0 = 2$: **Questions:**

- 1. What is $f(x_0)$?
- 2. What is $f(x_0)$?
- 3. Write the first-order Taylor approximation
- 4. If we take a step $\Delta x = -0.1 \cdot f(x_0)$, what is our new x?

Pop Quiz #1: Solutions

Example: Solutions

Given
$$f(x) = x^2 + 2$$
 and $x_0 = 2$:

- 1. f(2) = 4 + 2 = 6
- 2. f(x) = 2x, so f(2) = 4
- 3. $f(x) \approx 6 + 4(x-2) = 4x 2$
- 4. $\Delta x = -0.1 \times 4 = -0.4$, so $x_{new} = 2 0.4 = 1.6$

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An iterative first-order optimization algorithm for finding local minima of differentiable functions

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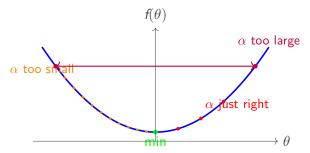
Key Points:

Key Properties:

• First-order method (uses gradients, not Hessians)

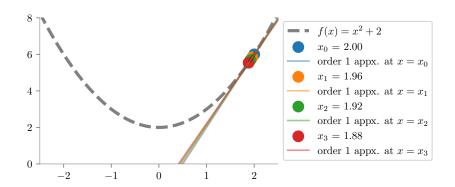
The Learning Rate: Your Step Size

The learning rate α controls how big steps we take



Learning Rate: Too Small ($\alpha = 0.01$)

Convergence is slow but stable

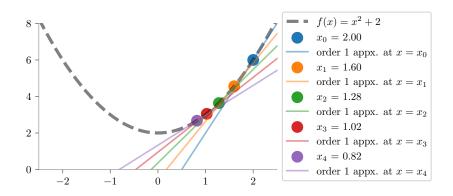


Important: Problem

Takes many iterations to reach the minimum. Computationally expensive!

Learning Rate: Just Right ($\alpha = 0.1$)

Good balance: Fast and stable convergence

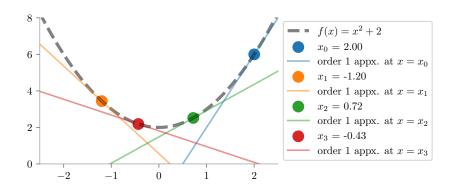


Key Points: T

his is often the sweet spot for many problems!

Learning Rate: Too Large ($\alpha = 0.8$)

Fast but may overshoot

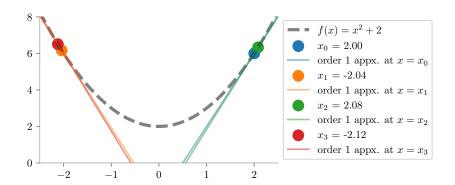


Important: Warning

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!

Gradient Descent for Linear Regression

Linear Regression: Our First Real Application

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

Х	у
1	1
2	2
3	3

Linear Regression: Our First Real Application

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Cost Function (Mean Squared Error):

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

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

Computing Gradients for Linear Regression

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

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

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

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(8)

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

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

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

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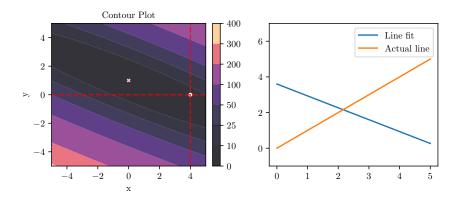
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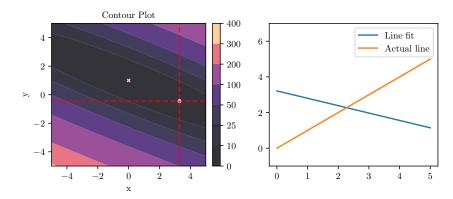
- Predictions: $\hat{y}_1 = 4, \hat{y}_2 = 4, \hat{y}_3 = 4$
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- $\frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_0} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 2 1) = 4$
- $\frac{\partial MSE}{\partial \theta_1} = -\frac{2}{3}(-3 \cdot 1 2 \cdot 2 1 \cdot 3) = 6.67$
- $\theta_0 = 4 0.1 \times 4 = 3.6$
- $\theta_1 = 0 0.1 \times 6.67 = -0.67$

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

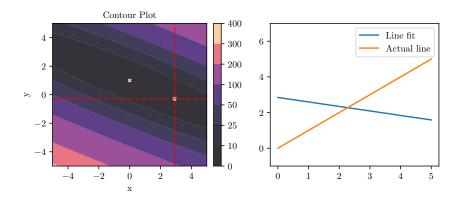
Let's watch gradient descent navigate the loss landscape:



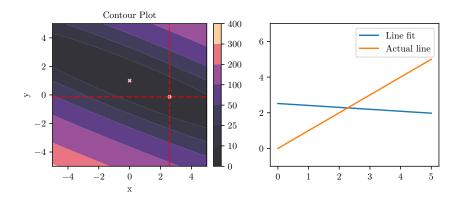
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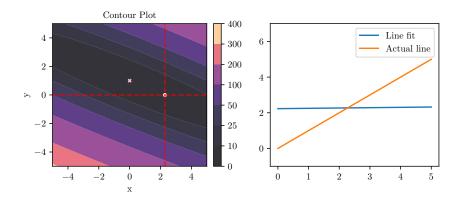
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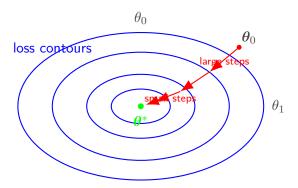
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Let's watch gradient descent navigate the loss landscape:



Visual: GD Path on Loss Surface (TikZ Version)



Notice: Algorithm takes larger steps when gradient is large!

Variants of Gradient Descent

The Gradient Descent Family

Three main variants based on how much data we use per update:

Definition: Batch Gradient Descent (GD)

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 (MBGD)

Use a small batch of samples to compute each gradient

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Trade-offs: Computational cost vs. convergence stability vs. memory usage

Batch vs Stochastic vs Mini-batch

Method	Data per update	Updates per epoch	Converg
Batch GD	n (all)	1	Smoo
SGD	1	n	Nois
Mini-batch GD	b (batch size)	n/b	Balan

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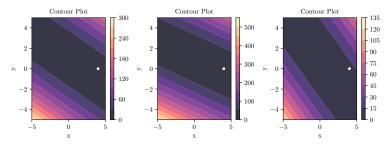
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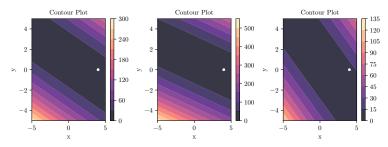
Modern ML: Mini-batch GD with batch sizes 32-256 is most common

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

SGD uses one sample at a time for updates

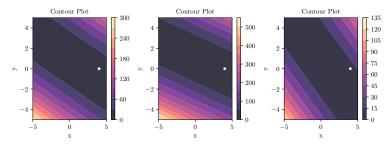


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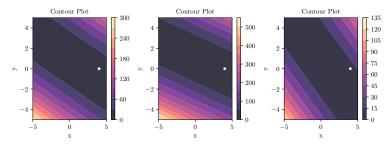
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- Pro: Fast updates, can escape local minima due to noise
- Con: Noisy convergence, may never reach exact minimum
- Key insight: The noise can be beneficial for non-convex problems!

Definition: Iteration

One parameter update step (one gradient computation and update)

Definition: Epoch

One complete pass through the entire training dataset

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Important: Important

Mathematical Properties

True gradient:
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Unbiased means: On average, SGD points in the right direction!

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Why Unbiasedness Matters

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Example: Intuitive Analogy

Imagine asking random people for directions to a destination:

• Individual answers might be slightly off

Computational Complexity

For linear regression, we have two options:

Important: Normal Equation

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

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

Key Points: Gradient Descent

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

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- Non-linear models: Only gradient descent works

Gradient Descent per iteration:

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Normal Equation (one-time):

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

Pop Quiz #2: Complexity Comparison

Answer this!

You have a dataset with $n=10^6$ samples and $d=10^3$ features.

Questions:

- 1. What's the complexity of normal equation?
- 2. What's the complexity of 100 GD iterations?
- 3. Which method would you choose and why?
- 4. What if $d = 10^6$ instead?

Pop Quiz #2: Solutions

Example: Solutions

For $n = 10^6$, $d = 10^3$:

1. Normal equation:

$$O(d^2n + d^3) = O(10^{12} + 10^9) = O(10^{12})$$

- 2. 100 GD iterations: $O(100 \cdot dn) = O(10^{11})$
- 3. Choose GD ($10 \times$ faster)
- 4. If $d=10^6$: Normal equation becomes ${\it O}(10^{18})$, GD becomes ${\it O}(10^{14})$ definitely choose GD!

Advanced Topics and Extensions

Modern deep learning uses advanced optimizers:

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

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Example: Why These Improvements?

- Handle different parameter scales automatically
- Accelerate convergence in relevant directions
- Reduce oscillations in narrow valleys
- Better performance on non-convex landscapes

Key Points: E

very modern deep learning framework uses gradient descent variants!

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Key extensions:

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Key extensions:

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- Automatic differentiation: PyTorch, TensorFlow handle gradients automatically
- GPU acceleration: Parallel computation of mini-batch gradients
- Mixed precision: Use both 16-bit and 32-bit arithmetic

Practical Considerations

Key Points: L

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Common strategies:

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

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Important: Warning Signs

- Loss exploding \rightarrow Learning rate too high
- Very slow convergence → Learning rate too low
- Oscillating loss \rightarrow Try smaller learning rate or

Common stopping criteria:

• Gradient magnitude: $||\nabla f(\theta)|| < \epsilon$

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Example: Practical Advice

- Always set a maximum iteration limit
- Monitor multiple criteria simultaneously
- Use validation set performance in practice
- Early stopping prevents overfitting

Common Pitfalls and How to Avoid Them

Important: Pitfall 1: Poor Initialization

Problem: Starting at bad points (e.g., all zeros)

Solution: Use Xavier/He initialization for neural networks

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Important: Pitfall 3: Poor Feature Scaling

Problem: Different parameter scales cause poor conver-

gence

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

Summary and Key Takeaways

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Core concepts:

Mathematical foundation: Taylor series approximation

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- Geometric intuition: Follow steepest descent direction
- Algorithm variants: Batch, SGD, mini-batch
- Theoretical properties: SGD is unbiased estimator
- Practical considerations: Learning rates, convergence criteria

Practice opportunities:

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aster gradient descent first - it's the building block for everything else!

Pop Quiz #3: Comprehensive Review

Answer this!

True or False?

- SGD always converges faster than batch gradient descent
- 2. The learning rate should decrease as training progresses
- 3. SGD gradient estimates are unbiased
- 4. Normal equation is always better than gradient descent
- 5. Gradient descent can only find global minima

Pop Quiz #3: Solutions

Example: Solutions

- False SGD converges faster per epoch but may need more epochs
- 2. **True** Learning rate schedules often improve convergence
- 3. True This is the key theoretical property of SGD
- 4. **False** Normal equation only works for linear problems and small *d*
- False GD finds local minima; global minima only guaranteed for convex functions

What's next in optimization?

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- Meta-learning: Learning to optimize

Additional Resources: SGD Deep Dive

For detailed mathematical analysis and proofs:

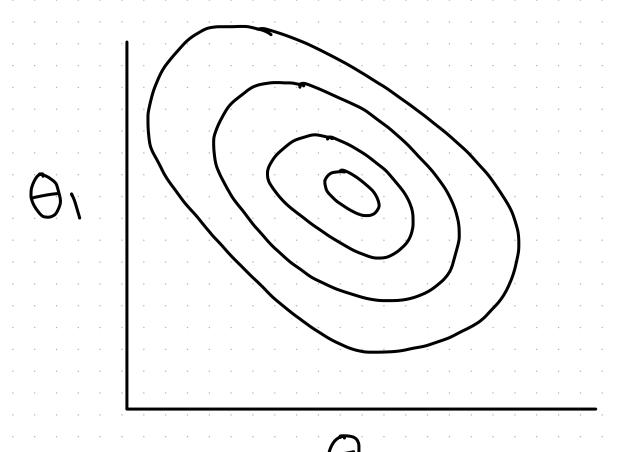
Important: Reference Material

See SGD.pdf in the assets folder for:

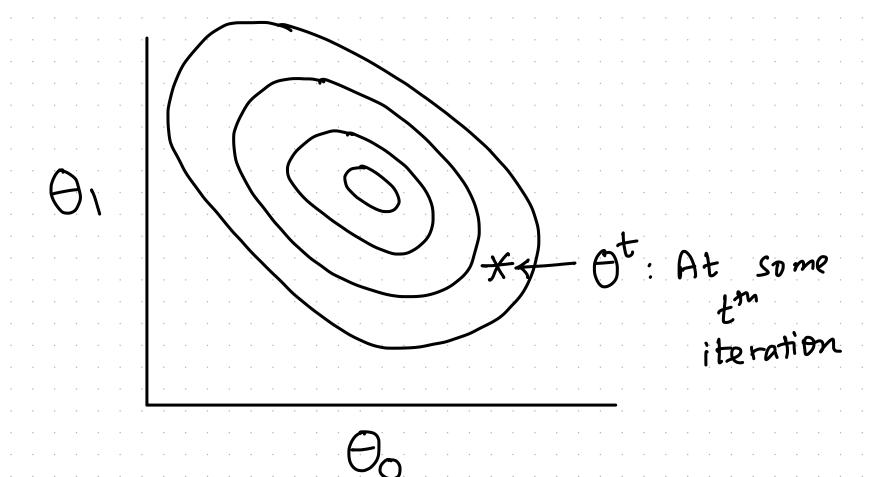
- · Formal convergence proofs
- Variance analysis of SGD
- Advanced theoretical properties
- Comparison with other optimization methods

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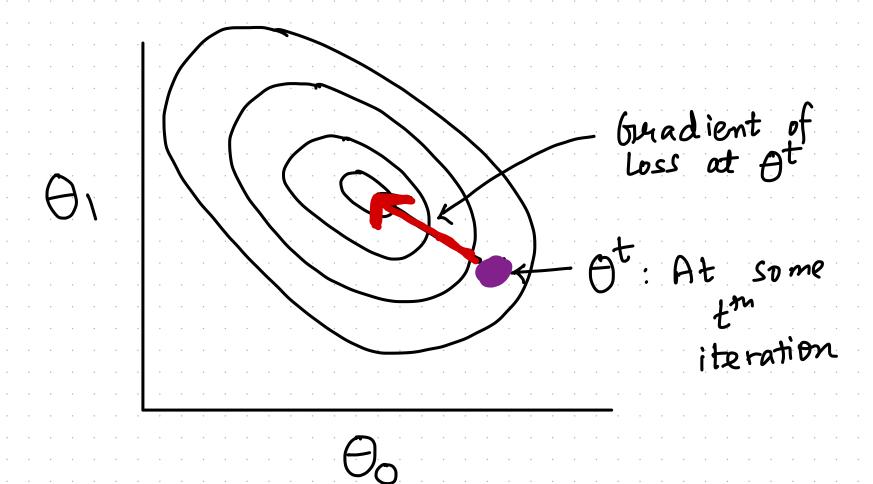
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LOSS SURFACE OVER 6N° EXAMPLES



LOSS SURFACE OVER 6N° EXAMPLES



LOSS SURFACE OVER 6N° EXAMPLES

Thank You!

Questions?

Next: Advanced Optimization Techniques

Practice: Implement gradient descent for your favorite ML

model!