# Machine Learning Theory Notes

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# Contents

# Part I Generalization Theory

# Supervised Learning Framework

#### 1.1 Basic Setups

In a supervised learning problem, we have a goal to predict a label given an input. Let S denote the dataset  $\{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$  for

- $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$ , the inputs in the input space.
- $y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$ , the label associated with  $x_i$  in the label space.

We assume that the data are drawn **i.i.d.** from an unknown probability distribution  $\mathcal{P}$  over  $\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ . We aim at learning a function mapping  $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$  (aka hypothesis, predictor, model).

To evaluate the performance of h, we specify a loss function. A loss function  $\ell \colon \mathcal{Y}, \mathcal{Y} \to \mathbb{R}$  measures the difference between the predicted label and the groundtruth label.

**Definition 1.1.1** (population risk). The population risk of a hypothesis h is its expected loss over the data distribution  $\mathcal{P}: L_{\mathcal{P}}(h) = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y) \sim \mathcal{P}}[\ell(h(x),y)]$ 

**Example.** Examples of Loss Functions

- Classification: 0-1 loss  $\ell(\hat{y}, y) = \mathbb{1}(\hat{y} \neq y)$ .
- Regression: squared loss  $\ell(\hat{y}, y) = (\hat{y} y)^2$

It is often impossible to consider all possible function mappings from  $\mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ . We usually only consider a hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H}$ .

**Example.** Examples of  $\mathcal{H}$ .

- Linear function class:  $\mathcal{H} = \{h_{\theta} | h_{\theta}(x) = \theta^T x, \theta \in \mathbb{R}\}$
- General parametric function class:  $\mathcal{H} = \{h_{\theta} | h_{\theta}(x) = f(x, \theta), \theta \in \mathbb{R}^p\}$

#### 1.2 Empirical Risk Minimization

**Definition 1.2.1** (Empirical Risk). The *empirical risk* of a hypothesis h is its average loss over the dataset S

$$L_s(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(h(x_i), y_i)$$

Empirical risk minimization (ERM) is any algorithm that minimizes the empirical risk over the hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H}$ . We denote a hypothesis returned by ERM as  $\hat{h}_{ERM}$ , *i.e.*:

$$\hat{h}_{ERM} \in \operatorname{argmin}_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L_S(h)$$

If we assume h is independent of S, then  $\mathbb{E}_S[L_S(h)] = L_P(h)$ . But in reality h and S are not independent.

# 1.3 Questions

In the supervised learning part of this course, we are mainly interested in the following two fundamental problems:

- Statistical: What guarantee do we have about  $L_P(\hat{h}_{ERM})$ ?
- Optimization: When may ERM be achieved efficiently?

# Concentration Inequality

Concentration inequalities are a mathematical tool to study the relation between population and empirical quantities. Consider the following main question: for i.i.d. random variables  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ , how does  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i$  relate to  $\mathbb{E}[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n X_i] = \mu$ ?

### 2.1 Chebyshev's Inequality

**Lemma 2.1.1** (Markov's Inequality). Let X be a non-negative random variable, then for all t > 0,

$$\Pr(X \ge t) \le \frac{\mathbb{E}(x)}{t}$$

Proof.

$$\mathbb{E}(X) \ge \Pr(X < t) * 0 + \Pr(X > t) * t$$

**Theorem 2.1.1** (Chebyshev's Inequality). Let X be a random variable with finite expected value  $\mu$  and finite non-zero variance  $\sigma^2$ . Then for any real number t > 0,

$$\Pr[|X - \mathbb{E}(X)| \ge t] \le \frac{\operatorname{Var}(X)}{t}$$

Proof.

$$\begin{split} \Pr\left[X - \mathbb{E}[X] \geq t\right] &= \Pr\left[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2 \geq t^2\right] \\ &= \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[(X - \mathbb{E}[X])^2\right]}{t^2} \\ &= \frac{\operatorname{Var}[X]}{t^2} \end{split}$$

Remark.

$$\Pr\left[|X - \mathbb{E}[X]| \ge t\right] \le \frac{\mathbb{E}[|X - \mathbb{E}[X]|^P]}{t^P}$$

**Corollary 2.1.1.** Let  $x_1, \ldots, x_n$  be i.i.d. random variables such that  $\mathbb{E}[x_i] = \mu$ ,  $\text{Var}[x_i] = \sigma^2$ . Then:

$$\Pr\left[\left|\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}x_{i}-\mu\right| \geq t\right] \leq \frac{\sigma^{2}}{nt^{2}}$$

#### 2.2 Hoeffding Inequality

**Lemma 2.2.1.** If  $X \in [0, 1]$  a.s. Then,

$$\mathbb{E}\left[e^{\lambda(X-\mathbb{E}[X])}\right] \leq e^{\frac{\lambda^2}{8}}$$

for all  $\lambda \in \mathbb{R}$ .

**Proof.** Let  $Z = X - \mathbb{E}[X]$ , then  $\mathbb{E}[Z] = 0$ .

Define  $\psi(\lambda) := \log \mathbb{E} \left[ e^{\lambda Z} \right]$ .

Using the Taylor expansion to get that  $\psi(\lambda) = \psi(0) + \lambda \psi'(0) + \frac{\lambda^2}{2} \psi''(\lambda')$  where  $\lambda'$  is between 0 and  $\lambda$ .

Here the first term  $\psi(0) = \log 1 = 0$ , and the second term  $\lambda \psi'(0) = \mathbb{E}[Z] = 0$ . The only thing we need to is to compute the third term. The idea is to bound the third term by 1/4.

Then

$$\psi'(\lambda) = \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[e^{\lambda Z}Z\right]}{e^{\lambda Z}} = \mathbb{E}[Y]$$

$$\psi''(\lambda) = \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[e^{\lambda Z}Z^2\right]}{e^{\lambda Z}} - \left(\frac{\mathbb{E}\left[e^{\lambda Z}Z\right]}{\mathbb{E}[e^{\lambda Z}]}\right)^2$$

$$= \mathbb{E}[Y^2] - (\mathbb{E}[Y])^2$$

$$= \text{Var}[Y]$$

Where we can think of Y as a reweighted version of Z, and we have that

$$dP_Y(x) = \frac{e^{\lambda x}}{\mathbb{E}\left[e^{\lambda Z}\right]} dP_Z(x)$$

not finished yet...

**Remark.** We also call such random variables **subgaussian** random variables. Another interpretation is that bounded random variables are subgaussian.

Another reminder is that the expectation is in the form of **Moment Generating Function**, where  $e^x = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^k}{k!}$ .

**Theorem 2.2.1** (Hoeffding Inequality). Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be i.i.d. random variables such that for each  $i, X_i \in [0,1]$  a.s. Then for all t > 0:

$$\Pr\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i} - \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i}\right] \ge t\right] \le e^{-2nt^{2}}$$

$$\Pr\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i} - \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}X_{i}\right] \le -t\right] \le e^{-2nt^{2}}$$

**Proof.** Let us use  $\bar{X}$  to denote  $\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ . Then we have that

$$\Pr\left[\bar{X} - \mathbb{E}[\bar{X}] \ge t\right] = \Pr\left[e^{\lambda(\bar{X} - \mathbb{E}[\bar{X}])} \ge e^{\lambda t}\right] \qquad \lambda > 0$$

$$\le \frac{\mathbb{E}\left[e^{\lambda(\bar{X} - \mathbb{E}[\bar{X}])}\right]}{e^{\lambda t}} \qquad \text{Markov}$$

$$= e^{-\lambda t} \cdot \mathbb{E}\left[e^{\frac{\lambda}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}(X_i - \mathbb{E}[X_i])}\right]$$

$$= e^{-\lambda t} \cdot \mathbb{E}\left[\prod_{i=1}^{n} e^{\frac{\lambda}{n}(X_i - \mathbb{E}[X_i])}\right]$$

$$= e^{-\lambda t} \prod_{i=1}^{n} \mathbb{E}\left[e^{\frac{\lambda}{n}(X_i - \mathbb{E}[X_i])}\right] \qquad \text{Independence}$$

$$\le e^{-\lambda t} \left(e^{\frac{1}{8}(\frac{\lambda}{n})^n}\right)$$

$$= e^{-\lambda t + \frac{\lambda^2}{8n}}$$

$$= e^{-2nt^2} \qquad \text{let } \lambda = 4nt$$

By symmetry, we complete the proof.

**Remark** (Equivalent Definition of Hoeffding Inequality). Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n \in [0,1]$  a.s. and independent,

$$\forall \delta \in (0, 1), \text{ w.p.} \ge 1 - \delta \colon \quad \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i - \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i\right] \le \sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2n}}$$

$$\text{w.p.} \ge 1 - \delta \colon \quad \mathbb{E}\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i\right] - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i \le \sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2n}}$$

### 2.3 Bounded Difference Concentration Inequality

We are concerned with diffeormorphism (i.e. change in one coordinate) and formally

$$f(X_1, \cdots, X_n) \mapsto \mathbb{E}\left[f(X_1, \cdots, X_n)\right]$$

**Theorem 2.3.1** (Mcdiarmid's inequality). Suppose  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  are independent random variables taking values in a set A. Let  $f: A^n \to \mathbb{R}$  be a function that satisfies the *bounded difference* condition:

$$\exists c_1, \dots, c_n > 0 \text{s.t.} \forall x_1, \dots, x_n \in A, x_i' \in A | f(x_1, \dots, x_n) - f(x_1, \dots, x_{i-1}, x_i', x_{i+1}, \dots, x_n) | \le c_i$$

Then, for all t > 0,

$$\Pr[f(X_1,...,X_n) - \mathbb{E}[f(X_1,...,X_n)] \ge t] \le e^{-\frac{2t^2}{\sum_{i=1}^n e_i^2}}$$

**Remark.** If  $f(X_1, ..., X_n) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n x_i$  and A = [0, 1], then  $c_i = \frac{1}{n}$  and the bound recovers the Hoeffding inequality as  $e^{-2nt^2}$ .

# Rademacher Complexity

#### 3.1 Uniform Convergence

Motivation: we want to study  $L(\hat{h}_{ERM})$  and compare it against  $h^* \in \operatorname{argmin}_{h \in \mathcal{H}} L(h)$ . We want to bound the difference  $L(\hat{h}_{ERM}) - L(h^*)$ , which is also referred to as the "**excess risk**".

$$L(\hat{h}_{ERM}) - L(h^*) = \left(L(\hat{h}_{ERM}) - L_S(\hat{h}_{ERM})\right) + \left(L_S(\hat{h}_{ERM}) - L_S(h^*)\right) + \left(L_S(h^*) - L(h^*)\right)$$

where the second term is smaller or equal to 0 by definition, and the third term can be bounded using the Hoeffding inequality as  $h^*$  does not depend on S.

Consequently, our aim becomes bounding the first term and we define the following **generalization** gap:

**Definition 3.1.1** (Uniform Convergence).

$$L(\hat{h}_{ERM}) - L_S(\hat{h}_{ERM}) \le \sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} (L(h) - L_S(h))$$

, where the bounded difference is called the generalization gap.

**Theorem 3.1.1** (Generalization Bound for finite hypothesis class). If  $\mathcal{H}$  is finite, then for any  $\delta \in (0,1)$ , we have

w.p. 
$$\geq 1 - \delta$$
,  $\sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} (L(h) - L_S(h)) \leq \sqrt{\frac{\log |\mathcal{H}| + \log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2n}}$ 

**Remark.** If  $n >> \log |\mathcal{H}|$ , excess risk  $\to 0$ .

What if  $\mathcal{H}$  is infinite?

- Idea: Reduce infinite case to finite case.

# 3.2 Rademacher Complexity

**Notation**: Given  $\mathcal{H}$  and  $\ell$ , define the family of loss mappings:

$$\mathcal{G} = \{ g_h \colon (x, y) \mapsto \ell(h(x), y), h \in \mathcal{H} \}$$

where 
$$z = (x, y) \sim P$$
,  $z_i = (x_i, y_i)$ ,  $\mathcal{Z} = \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ , and  $L(h) = \mathbb{E}_{z \sim P}[g_h(z)]$ ,  $L_S(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g_h(z_i)$ .

$$\sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \left( L(h) - L_S(h) \right) = \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left( \mathbb{E}_{z \sim P}[g(z)] - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n g(z_i) \right)$$

**Definition 3.2.1** (Empirical Rademacher Complexity). Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a set of functions mapping  $\mathcal{Z} \to \mathbb{R}$ . Let  $S = \{z_1, \dots, z_n\} \subseteq \mathcal{Z}$ .

The empirical Rademacher complexity of  $\mathcal{G}$  with respect to the simple set S is:

$$R_S(\mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}_{\sigma_1, \dots, \sigma_n} \left[ \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i g(z_i) \right]$$

where  $\sigma_i = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{w.p.} \frac{1}{2} \\ -1 & \text{w.p.} \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$  i.i.d (called Rademacher random variables).

Remark. Rademacher complexity measures the ability of a function class to fit random noise

$$R_S(\mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \frac{1}{n} < \vec{\sigma}, \vec{g}_s > \right]$$

**Definition 3.2.2** (Rademacher Complexity). Let P be a distribution over  $\mathcal{Z}$ .

For an integer  $n \geq 1$ , the **Rademacher complexity** of  $\mathcal{G}$  is

$$R_n(\mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}_{S \sim P^n} \left[ R_S(\mathcal{G}) \right]$$

**Theorem 3.2.1** (Generalization Bound using Rademacher Complexity). Let  $\mathcal{G}$  be a function class mapping  $\mathcal{Z}$  to  $[0,1], S = \{z_1,\ldots,z_n\} \sim P^n$ . Then for any  $\delta \in (0,1)$ :

w.p. 
$$\geq 1 - \delta$$
,  $\sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left( \mathbb{E}_{z \sim P} \left[ g(z) \right] - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z_i) \right) \leq 2R_n(\mathcal{G}) + \sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2n}}$ 

w.p. 
$$\geq 1 - \delta$$
,  $\sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left( \mathbb{E}_{z \sim P} \left[ g(z) \right] - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z_i) \right) \leq 2R_S(\mathcal{G}) + 3\sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{2}{\delta}}{2n}}$ 

Proof. Step 1: Relate the sup terms to the expectation of sups using Mcdiarmid's ineq

Define  $f(z_1, \dots, z_n) = \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left( \mathbb{E}_{z \sim P} \left[ g(z) \right] - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z_i) \right)$ .

Consider  $\{z_1, \ldots, z_n\}$  and  $\{z'_1, \ldots, z'_n\}$  that only differs by 1 point (i.e.  $z_k \neq z'_k, z_i = z'_i \ \forall i \neq k$ ).

$$f(z_{1},...,z_{n}) = \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left( \mathbb{E}\left[g(z)\right] - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z'_{i}) + \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z'_{i}) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z_{i}) \right)$$

$$\leq \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left( \mathbb{E}\left[g(z)\right] - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z'_{i}) \right) + \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left( \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z'_{i}) - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z_{i}) \right)$$

$$= f(z'_{1},...,z'_{n}) + \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left( \frac{1}{n} g(z'_{k}) - \frac{1}{n} g(z_{k}) \right)$$

$$\leq f(z'_{1},...,z'_{n}) + \frac{1}{n}$$

Similarly,  $f(z_i', \ldots, z_n') - f(z_1, \ldots, z_n) \leq \frac{1}{n}$ . Combining them we can get that  $|f(z_1, \ldots, z_n) - f(z_1', \ldots, z_n')| \leq \frac{1}{n}$ .

Applying the Mcdiarmid's inequality, we can get the following bound:

w.p. 
$$\geq 1 - \delta, f(z_1, \dots, z_n) - \mathbb{E}\left[f(z_1, \dots, z_n)\right] \leq \sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2n}}$$

Step 2: Bound  $\mathbb{E}_S\left[\sup_{g\in\mathcal{G}}\left(\mathbb{E}_{z\sim P}\left[g(z)\right]-\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^ng(z_i)\right)\right]$  by Rademacher Complexity Draw a fresh set of n samples  $S'=\{z'_1,\ldots,z'_n\}\sim P^n$ . Fix S, we have

$$\begin{split} \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left( \mathbb{E}_{z \sim P} \left[ g(z) \right] - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z_i) \right) &= \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left( \mathbb{E}_{S'} \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z_i) \right] - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z_i) \right) \\ &= \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \left( \mathbb{E}_{S'} \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( g(z'_i) - g(z_i) \right) \right] \right) \\ &\leq \mathbb{E}_{S'} \left[ \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( g(z'_i) - g(z_i) \right) \right] \end{split}$$

Taking expectation over S on both sides generate that

$$\mathbb{E}_{S} \left[ \sup_{g \in G} \left( \mathbb{E}_{z \sim P} \left[ g(z) \right] - \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} g(z_{i}) \right) \right] \leq \mathbb{E}_{S,S'} \left[ \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( g(z'_{i}) - g(z_{i}) \right) \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{S,S',\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i} \left( g(z'_{i}) - g(z_{i}) \right) \right]$$

$$\leq \mathbb{E}_{S,S',\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i} g(z'_{i}) \right] + \mathbb{E}_{S,S'\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{g \in \mathcal{G}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} -\sigma_{i} g(z_{i}) \right]$$

$$= 2R_{n}(\mathcal{G})$$

Combining the result from step 1 and step 2, we prove the first inequality in the theorem.

Step 3: Prove  $R_n(\mathcal{G})$  and  $R_S(\mathcal{G})$  are close Similar to step 1, we can verify that  $R_S(\mathcal{G})$  satisfies the bounded difference property.

Apply Mcdiarmid's inequality, we can get that

w.p. 
$$\geq 1 - \delta, R_n(\mathcal{G}) \leq R_S(\mathcal{G}) + \sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2n}}$$

Combining the outputs from step 1 - 3 and replacing  $\delta$  with  $\delta/2$  gives the second inequality.

# VC-Dimension

In this chapter, we only consider the binary classification case with the 0-1 loss, i.e.  $y = \{\pm 1\}$  and  $\mathcal{G} = \{(x,y) \mapsto \mathbb{1} [h(x) \neq y] : h \in \mathcal{H}\}.$ 

#### 4.1 Growth Function Bounds

Lemma 4.1.1.  $R_n(\mathcal{G}) = \frac{1}{2}R_n(\mathcal{H})$ 

**Proof.** Given  $S = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$ , we have

$$R_{S}(\mathcal{G}) = \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{n} \sigma_{i} \mathbb{1} \left[ h(x_{i}) \neq y_{i} \right] \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i} \frac{1 - y_{i} h(x_{i})}{2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i} + \sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i} (-y_{i}) h(x_{i}) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i} h(x_{i}) \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} R_{S}(\mathcal{H})$$

**Remark.** It then becomes natural to bound  $R_n(\mathcal{H})$ .

**Definition 4.1.1** (Growth Function). The growth function  $\Pi_{\mathcal{H}} \colon \mathbb{N} \to \mathbb{N}$  for a hypothesis class  $\mathcal{H}$  that maps to  $y = \{\pm 1\}$  is defined as

$$\Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = \sup_{x_1, \dots, x_n \in \mathcal{X}} |\{(h(x_1), \dots, h(x_n)) : h \in \mathcal{H}\}|$$

Remark. This definition defines the set of all possible predictions on a given set of inputs.

**Theorem 4.1.1** (Generalization bound using VC-dimension). Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a hypothesis class taking values  $y = \{\pm 1\}$ . Then

$$R_n(\mathcal{H}) \le \sqrt{\frac{2\log \Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(n)}{n}}$$

**Proof.** Let  $S = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}, Q = Q_S = \{(h(x_1), \dots, h(x_n) : h \in \mathcal{H})\}.$ 

We want to show that  $R_S(\mathcal{H}) \leq \sqrt{\frac{2 \log |Q|}{n}}$ 

$$R_S(\mathcal{H}) = \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i h(x_i) \right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{\vec{v} \in Q} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i v_i \right]$$
 Apply Hoeffding

Then for all  $\lambda > 0$ ,

$$\begin{split} e^{\lambda R_S(\mathcal{H})} &= e^{\lambda \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{\vec{v} \in Q} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i v_i \right]} \\ &\leq \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ e^{\lambda \sup_{\vec{v} \in Q} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i v_i} \right] & \text{Jensen's ineq} \\ &\leq \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sum_{\vec{v} \in Q} e^{\lambda \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i v_i} \right] \\ &= \sum_{\vec{v} \in Q} \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ e^{\lambda \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \sigma_i v_i} \right] \\ &\leq \sum_{\vec{v} \in Q} e^{\frac{\lambda^2}{2n}} & \text{by Hoeffding} \\ &= |Q| e^{\frac{\lambda^2}{2n}} \end{split}$$

This gives that  $R_S(\mathcal{H}) \leq \frac{1}{\lambda} \log |Q| + \frac{\lambda}{2n}$ 

Choose 
$$\lambda = \sqrt{2n \log |Q|}$$
 and we can get that  $R_S(\mathcal{H}) \leq \sqrt{\frac{2 \log |Q|}{n}}$ 

Remark. Discussions about the growth function:

• When  $\mathcal{H}$  is finite, we have that  $\Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(n) \leq |\mathcal{H}|$ 

$$R_n(\mathcal{H}) \le \sqrt{\frac{2\log|\mathcal{H}|}{n}}$$
 recovers Thm 1

• When  $\mathcal{H}$  is "super power",  $\Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n$ , i.e. overfitting.

$$R_n(\mathcal{H}) \le \sqrt{\frac{2\log 2^n}{n}} = \sqrt{2\log 2}$$

• What if the growth function is in-between, a polynomial function? Suppose  $\Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(n) \leq n^d$ , we have that

$$R_n(\mathcal{H}) \le \sqrt{\frac{2d\log n}{n}} \to 0 \text{ if } n >> d\log d$$

**Definition 4.1.2** (VC-dimension). The VC-dimension of a class of hypothesis function  $\mathcal{H}$  is

$$VC(\mathcal{H}) = \max\{n : \Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(n) = 2^n\}$$

**Definition 4.1.3** (Shatter).  $S = \{x_1, \dots, x_n\}$  can be shattered by  $\mathcal{H}$  if  $\forall y_1, \dots, y_n \in \{\pm 1\}, \exists h \in \mathcal{H}$ s.t. $h(x_i) = y_i$  for all  $i = \{1, \dots, n\}$ .

**Remark.** The VC-dimension is the maximum size of a sample set S that can be shattered by  $\mathcal{H}$ .

**Example** (Threshold Function). Let 
$$\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}, \mathcal{H} = \{h_a : a \in \mathbb{R}\}, h_a \in \mathcal{H}, h_a(x) = \begin{cases} +1, & \text{if } x \geq a \\ -1, & \text{if } x < a \end{cases}$$

Then 
$$VC - dim(\mathcal{H}) = 1$$

**Proof.** 1. any input  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  can be shattered

$$h_{x-1}(x) = +1, \quad h_{x+1} = -1$$

2. any inputs  $x_1, x_2 \in \mathbb{R}$  cannot be shattered

 $x_1 \leq x_2$ , impossible to label (+1, -1)

**Theorem 4.1.2** (growth function bound). Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a hypothesis class with VC-dimension d. Then,

$$\forall n >> d \colon \Pi_{\mathcal{H}}(n) << \left(\frac{e^n}{d}\right)^d \leq n^d \text{ if } d \geq 3$$

**Theorem 4.1.3** (Generalization Bound Using VC-Dimension). Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a hypothesis class taking values in  $y = \{\pm 1\}$  and has VC-dim d. Consider the 0-1 loss.

Then, for all  $\delta \in (0,1)$ ,

w.p. 
$$\geq 1 - \delta$$
,  $\sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} (L(h) - L_S(h)) \leq \sqrt{\frac{2d \log e^n}{d}} + \sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2n}}$ 

**Remark.** This VC-dimension bound requires n >> d. In other words, it is effective when the hypothesis class is relatively less expressive.

#### 4.2 More on VC-Dimension

First we look at more examples illustrating the concept of VC-dimension.

**Example** (Axis-aligned rectangles). Let  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathcal{H} = \{h_{a,b,c,d} : a,b,c,d \in \mathbb{R}\}$ , and  $h \in \mathcal{H}$  be the form

$$h_{a,b,c,d}(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x_1 \in [a,b], x_2 \in [c,d] \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Then we have **Vc-dim**  $\mathcal{H} = 4$ .

**Proof.** 1. there exists 4 points that can be shattered exists or for all?

2. Any 5 points cannot be shattered Choose the minimum axis-aligned rectangle that contains all 5 points, then it is impossible to label the sides +1 while labeling inside one -1

**Example** (Linear Functions). Let  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathcal{H} = \{h_w : w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$ , and

$$h_w(x) = \operatorname{sign}(w^T x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } w^T x \ge 0\\ -1 & \text{if } w^t x < 0 \end{cases}$$

Then  $Vc\text{-dim}(\mathcal{H}) = d$ .

**Proof.** 1.  $\exists d$  points that can be shattered Same Question exists or for all?

Choose  $x_1, \ldots, x_d \in \mathbb{R}^d$  that are linearly independent.

Then for all  $y_1, \ldots, y_d \in \{\pm 1\}$ , we can find a  $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$  such that  $w^T x_i = y_i$ , for all  $i = 1, \ldots, d$  by solving the set of linear equations.

2. Any d+1 point cannot be shattered

Assume for the sake of contradiction that there exists d+1 points:  $x_1, \ldots, x_d$  that can be shattered.

In formal terms,  $\exists \alpha = (\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{d+1})$  s.t.  $\sum_{i=1}^{d+1} \alpha_i x_i = 0, \ \alpha \neq 0, \ i.e. \ \exists \text{ a coordinate } k \in \{1, \dots, d+1\}$  s.t.  $\alpha_k \neq 0$ . WLOG we can assume  $\alpha_k > 0$ .

For all  $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , we must have  $\sum_{i=1}^{d+1} \alpha_i w^T x_i = 0$ . why?

Then let  $y_i = \operatorname{sign}(\alpha_i), i = 1, \dots, d+1$ .  $\exists w \in \mathbb{R}^d$  s.t.  $\operatorname{sign}(w^T x_i) = y_i$ .

Then we find the contradiction:

$$0 = \sum_{i=1}^{d+1} \alpha_i(w^T x_i) < 0$$
 opposite sign

**Example** (Sine Function). Let  $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}$ ,  $\mathcal{H} = \{h_\omega : \omega \in \mathbb{R}\}$ , and  $h = \text{sign}(\sin(\omega x))$ 

Then  $Vc\text{-dim}(\mathcal{H}) = \infty$ .

**Proof.** It suffices to show that  $\exists$  n points that can be shattered, for any n. Consider n points,  $x_i = 2^{-i}$  (i = 1, ..., n) and any labeling  $y_1, ..., y_n \in \{\pm 1\}$ .

Define  $\frac{\omega}{\pi} = \left(y_n' y_{n-1}' \dots y_1' 1\right)_2$  in terms of binary integer, where  $y_i' = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y_i = 1 \\ 1 & \text{if } y_i = -1 \end{cases}$ 

WTS sign  $(\sin(\omega x_i)) = y_i$ ,

which can be realized through

$$\frac{\omega x_i}{\pi} = \frac{\omega}{\pi} 2^{-i} = (y'_n y'_{n-1} \dots y'_1 1)_2$$

Not fully understand

**Theorem 4.2.1** (VC-dimension in finite precision). Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be parametrized by p parameters, with each stored in k bits.  $\mathcal{H} = \{h_{\theta}, \theta \in \mathbb{R}^P\}$ , then VC-dim $(\mathcal{H}) \leq k \cdot p$ .

**Proof.** There are  $(2^k)^p$  choices for  $\theta = (\theta_1, \dots, \theta_p)$ , and then

$$2^{\text{Vc-dim}(\mathcal{H})} \le |\mathcal{H}| \le 2^{kp}$$

Remark (Limitation of VC-dimension).

$$L(h) - L_S(h) \le \tilde{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{VC - dim(\mathcal{H})}{n}}\right)$$

$$\le \tilde{O}\left(\sqrt{\frac{\#params}{n}}\right)$$

If # params » # samples, the bound will become vacuous.

# Margin Theory

We focus on the binary classification setting where  $y = \{\pm 1\}$ .

#### 5.1 Basic Setups

**Definition 5.1.1** (Margin). The margin of a function  $h: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$  at a point  $x \in \mathcal{X}$  labeled with  $y \in \{\pm 1\}$  is yh(x).

**Remark.** We have  $\hat{y} = \text{sign}(h(x))$ ; and a classification is correct when yh(x) > 0.

**Definition 5.1.2** (Margin Loss). For any  $\gamma > 0$ , define  $\gamma$ -margin loss as

$$\ell_{\gamma}(y',y) = \ell_{\gamma}(yy') = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } yy' \leq 0\\ 1 - \frac{yy'}{\gamma} & \text{if } 0 < yy' < \gamma\\ 0, & \text{if } yy' \geq \gamma \end{cases}$$

**Remark.** Margin Loss  $\geq 0$ -1 loss (in terms of their graphs).

Definition 5.1.3 (Population & Empirical Risk for Margin Loss).

$$L_{\gamma}(h) = \mathbb{E}_{(x,y)\sim P} \left[\ell_{\gamma}\left(h(x),y\right)\right]$$

$$L_{\gamma,S}(h) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell_{\gamma} \left( h(x_i), y_i \right)$$

**Remark.**  $\ell_{\gamma}(\cdot)$  is  $\frac{1}{\gamma}$ -Lipschitz.

SideNote: We say  $f: \mathbb{R} \to R$  is C-Lipschitz if  $|f(x) - f(x')| \le C|x - x'|$  for all  $x, x' \in \mathbb{R}$ . OR equivalently,  $|f'(x)| \le C, \forall x \in R$ .

**Lemma 5.1.1** (Talagrend's Lemma). Let  $\phi \colon \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a C-Lipschitz function. Then,

$$R_S(\phi \circ \mathcal{H}) \leq C \cdot R_S(\mathcal{H})$$

where  $\phi \circ \mathcal{H} = \{z \mapsto \phi(h(z)) : h \in \mathcal{H}\}.$ 

**Theorem 5.1.1** (Margin-based generalization bound for binary classification). Let  $\mathcal{H}$  be a function class mapping  $\mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$ . Fix  $\gamma > 0$ . Then, for any  $\delta \in (0,1)$ , with probability  $\geq 1 - \delta$  we have:

$$\sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \left( L_{\gamma}(h) - L_{\gamma,S}(h) \right) \le \frac{2}{\gamma} R_n(\mathcal{H}) + \sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2n}}$$

Also with probability  $\geq 1 - \delta$ , we have:

$$\sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \left( L_{\gamma}(h) - L_{\gamma,S}(h) \right) \le \frac{2}{\gamma} R_{S}(\mathcal{H}) + 3\sqrt{\frac{\log \frac{1}{\delta}}{2n}}$$

Proof.

$$G_{\gamma} = \{(x, y) \mapsto \ell_{\gamma}(yh(x)) \colon h \in \mathcal{H}\}$$
$$= \{(x, y) \mapsto \ell_{\gamma}(\hat{h}(x, y)) \colon \hat{h} \in \hat{\mathcal{H}}\}$$
$$= \ell_{\gamma} \circ \hat{\mathcal{H}}$$

where  $\hat{\mathcal{H}} = \{(x, y) \to yh(x) \colon h \in \mathcal{H}\}.$ 

$$R_{S}(\hat{\mathcal{H}}) = \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i} y_{i} h(x_{i}) \right]$$
$$= \mathbb{E}_{\vec{\sigma}} \left[ \sup_{h \in \mathcal{H}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma_{i} h(x_{i}) \right]$$
$$= R_{S}(\mathcal{H})$$

By Talagrend's lemma,  $R_S(G_\gamma) \leq \frac{1}{\gamma} R_S(\hat{\mathcal{H}}) = \frac{1}{\gamma} R_S(\mathcal{H})$ .

Completes the proof by applying the generalization bound for  $G_{\gamma}$ 

What generalization bound?

# Part II Optimization

# Gradient descent and Convex Optimization

Please refer to appendix 1 and 2 for a basic calculus and linear algebra recap at first.

Gradient Descent is an iterative algorithm, where we are concerned with

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(x)$$

The algorithm starts at  $x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and iteratively update the variable  $x_1, x_2, \ldots$ 

When the point is at  $x_t$ , we can do 1st-order Taylor expansion:

$$f(x_t + \Delta x) \approx f(x_t) + \langle \nabla f(x_t), \Delta x \rangle + \cdots$$

In order to decrease f as much as possible, we can choose  $\Delta x//-\nabla f(x_t)$ .

#### Remark

$$\inf_{\|\Delta x\|_2 \leq \epsilon} \langle a, \Delta x \rangle = -\epsilon \|a\|_2$$

the optimum occurs at  $\Delta x = \epsilon \frac{a}{\|a\|_2}$ 

This motivates **Gradient Descent**(GD).

$$x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta \nabla f(x_t), \ t = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

where  $\eta > 0$  is called step size or learning rate.

In order for GD to do what it's supposed to do, we want the 1st-order Taylor expansion to be accurate.

Error of 1st-order Taylor:

$$f(x) - f(x_t) - \langle \nabla f(x_t), x - x_t \rangle = \frac{1}{2} (x - x_t)^T \nabla^2 f(\xi) (x - x_t)$$
  
 
$$\leq \frac{1}{2} \|\nabla^2 f(\xi)\|_2 + \|x - x_t\|_2^2$$

**Definition 6.0.1** (smoothness). A differentiable function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is  $\beta$ -smooth  $(\beta > 0)$  if

$$\|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\|_2 \le \beta \|x - y\|_2, \ \forall \ x, y$$

In other words, gradient of f is  $\beta$ -Lipschitz.

**Remark.** When f is twice differentiable,  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is equivalent to

$$\|\nabla^2 f(x)\|_2 \le \beta, \ \forall \ x$$

**Lemma 6.0.1.** If f is  $\beta$ -smooth, then:

$$|f(y) - f(x) - \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle| \le \frac{\beta}{2} ||x - y||_2^2$$

Proof.

$$\begin{split} |f(y)-f(x)-\langle \nabla f(x),y-x\rangle| &= |\int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x+t(y-x)),y-x\rangle - \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x),y-x\rangle dt| \qquad \text{FTC} \\ &= |\int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x+t(y-x))-\nabla f(x),y-x\rangle dt| \\ &\leq \int_0^1 \|\nabla f(x+t(y-x))-\nabla f(x)\|_2 \|y-x\|_2 \quad \text{Cauchy-Schwardz} \\ &\leq \int_0^1 \beta \cdot \|t(y-x)\|_2 \cdot \|y-x\|_2 dt \qquad \text{beta - smooth} \\ &= \beta \|y-x\|_2^2 \cdot \int_0^1 t dt \\ &= \frac{\beta}{2} \|y-x\|_2^2 \end{split}$$

**Lemma 6.0.2** (Descent Lemma). If f is  $\beta$ -smooth and  $\eta \leq \frac{1}{\beta}$ , then GD with step size  $\eta$  ( $x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta \nabla f(x_t)$ ) satisfies

$$f(x_{t+1}) \le f(x_t) - \frac{\eta}{2} \|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2^2$$

Proof.

$$f(x_{t+1}) \leq f(x_t) + \langle f(x_t), t_1 - t \rangle + \frac{\beta}{2} ||t_1 - t||_2^2$$
 previous lemma
$$= f(x_t) + \langle f(x_t), -\eta \nabla f(x_t) \rangle + \frac{\beta}{2} ||-\eta \nabla f(x_t)||_2^2$$

$$= f(x_t) - \left(\eta - \frac{\beta}{2} \eta^2\right) ||f(x_t)||_2^2$$

$$\leq f(x_t) - \frac{\eta}{2} ||f(x_t)||_2^2$$

**Remark.** Descent Lemma shows that every step in a  $\beta$ -smooth function f decreases the function value.

**Corollary 6.0.1.** If f is  $\beta$ -smooth, then GD with step size  $\eta \leq \frac{1}{\beta}$  must satisfy:

- $\lim_{t\to\infty} f(x_t)$  exists
- $\lim_{t\to\infty} \|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2 = 0$ , since function converges and  $f(x_t) f(x)$  is bounded by it.

## 6.1 Convex Optimization

**Definition 6.1.1** (convexity). We present the following definitions:

**convex set**: A set  $X \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$  is convex if

$$\forall x, y \in X, \ \forall \gamma \in (0,1) \colon (1-\gamma)x + \gamma y \in X$$

**convex function**: A function  $f: X \to \mathbb{R}$  is convex if X is convex and

$$\forall x, y \in X, \ \forall \gamma \in (0,1) \colon f((1-\gamma)x + \gamma y) \le (1-\gamma)f(x) + \gamma f(y)$$

**Example.** Common Convex Functions

- linear function
- squared norm

Example (Examples that preserve convexity). E.g.

- non-negative weighted sum
- composition with affine mapping
- pointwise supreme

**Example** (Linear Model). Given dataset  $S = \{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ ,  $\mathcal{H} = \{x \mapsto w^T x \colon w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$ . Empirical risk  $L_S(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \ell(w^T x_i, y_i)$ 

claim: If  $\ell(y',y)$  is convex in its first argument (for any fixed y), then  $L_S$  is convex.

Let's see the common loss functions that are convex in first argument.  $(y \in \{\pm 1\})$ 

- squared loss:  $\ell(y', y) = (y y')^2$  Convex
- 0-1 loss:  $\ell(y', y) = \mathbb{1}[yy' \le 0]$  not Convex
- Margine loss: not convex
- Hinge loss: convex
- logistic loss:  $\ell(y', y) = \log(1 + e^{-yy'})$  convex

**Lemma 6.1.1** (first-order & second-order characterization of convex functions). First, if f is differentiable, then f is convex if and only if

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle, \ \forall x, y$$

Second, if f is twice-continuously differentiable, then f is convex if and only if

$$\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0, \ \forall x$$

**Definition 6.1.2** (Local Minimum). A local minimum of a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is a point  $x \in \mathbb{R}$  such that  $\exists \epsilon > 0$ :

$$f(x) \le f(y), \ \forall \ y \ \text{satisfying} \ \|y - x\|_2 \le \epsilon$$

**Lemma 6.1.2.** Every local minimum of a convex function is a global minimum.

**Proof.** Suppose x is a local minimum but not global minimum, i.e.,  $\exists y \text{ s.t. } f(y) < f(x)$ .

By convexity, for all  $\gamma \in (0,1)$ ,

$$f((1-\gamma)x + \gamma y) \le (1-\gamma)f(x) + \gamma f(y)$$
  
$$\le (1-\gamma)f(x) + \gamma f(x)$$
  
$$= f(x)$$

As we take  $\gamma \to 0$ , we have  $\|(1-\gamma)x + \gamma y - x\|_2 \to 0$ , yielding a contraction.

**Remark.** Isn't it "As we take  $\gamma \to 1$ , we have  $||f((1-\gamma)x+\gamma y)-f(x)||_2 \to 0$ , yielding a contraction."

**Lemma 6.1.3.** If  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is convex and differentiable, and  $\nabla f(x) = 0$  (*i.e.* x is a stationary point), then x is a global minimum.

**Proof.** 
$$\forall y, f(y) \ge f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle = f(x)$$

**Lemma 6.1.4.** If  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable, and x is a local minimum, then  $\nabla f(x) = 0$ .

**Corollary 6.1.1.** If f is convex and differentiable, then x is a global minimum if and only if  $\nabla f(x) = 0$ .

#### 6.2 Convergence of GD for Smooth Convex Functions

**Lemma 6.2.1** (contraction lemma). If f is convex and  $\beta$ -smooth, and  $\eta \leq \frac{1}{\beta}$ , then:

$$||x_{t+1} - x^*||_2 \le ||x_t - x^*||_2, \ \forall \ t$$

Proof.

$$||x_{t+1} - x^*||_2^2 = ||(x_t - x^*) - \eta \nabla f(x)||_2^2$$

$$= ||x_t - x^*||_2^2 - 2\eta \langle x_t - x^*, \nabla f(x_t) \rangle + \eta^2 ||\nabla f(x)||_2^2$$

$$\leq ||x_t - x^*||_2^2 - 2\eta (f(x_t) - f(x^*)) + 2\eta (f(x_t) - f(x^{t+1}))$$

$$= ||x_t - x^*||_2^2 - 2\eta (f(x_{t+1}) - f(x^*))$$

$$\leq ||x_t - x^*||_2^2$$

Where the step from 2nd to 3rd line relies on the convexity assumption and the descent lemma.

**Remark.** In addition to the descent lemma, contraction lemma tells us that not only the function value decreases, the next step's x always gets closer to the optimum point.

**Theorem 6.2.1** (GD convergence for smooth convex functions). If f is convex and  $\beta$ -smooth, and  $\eta \leq \frac{1}{\beta}$ , then:

$$f(x_t) - f(x^*) \le \frac{2\|x_0 - x^*\|_2^2}{nt}, \quad \forall t \ge 1$$

**Proof.** Let  $\delta_t = f(x_t) - f(x^*)$ .

By the descent lemma,

$$\delta_{t+1} \le \delta_t - \frac{\eta}{2} \|\nabla f(x)\|_2^2 \tag{1}$$

By convexity and contraction lemma,

$$\delta_{t} \leq \langle \nabla f(x_{t}), x_{t} - x^{*} \rangle \leq \|\nabla f(x_{t})\| \|x_{t} - x^{*}\|$$

$$\leq \|\nabla f(x_{t})\| \|x_{0} - x^{*}\|$$
(2)

By putting (1) and (2) together, we have

$$\delta_{t+1} \le \delta_t - \frac{\eta}{2} \left( \frac{\delta_t}{\|x_0 - x^*\|_2} \right)^2$$

Diving this inequality by  $\delta_t \cdot \delta_{t+1}$ , we can get the following:

$$\frac{1}{\delta_t} \le \frac{1}{\delta_{t+1}} - \frac{\eta}{2\|x_0 - x^*\|_2} \cdot \frac{\delta_t}{\delta_{t+1}} \le \frac{1}{\delta_{t+1}} - \frac{\eta}{\|x_0 - x^*\|_2}$$

Taking the sum over  $t = 0, 1, \dots, t - 1$ :

$$\sum_{s=0}^{t-1} \left( \frac{1}{\delta_s} - \frac{1}{\delta_{s+1}} \right) \le -\frac{\eta t}{2 \|x_0 - x^*\|_2}$$

which gives to the desired inequality:

$$\delta_t \le \frac{2\|x_0 - x^*\|_2^2}{\eta t}$$

**Remark.** Let  $\eta = \frac{1}{\beta}$ , we get  $\delta_t \leq \frac{2\beta \|x_0 - x^*\|_2^2}{t}$ .

To get  $\delta_t \leq \epsilon$ , we need the step size  $t \geq \frac{2\beta \|x_0 - x^*\|_2^2}{\epsilon}$ 

# Convergence of GD Under Certain Conditions

#### 7.1 For Smooth and Convex Functions

**Definition 7.1.1** (strong convexity).  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is  $\alpha$ -strongly convex  $(\alpha > 0)$  if  $f(x) - \frac{\alpha}{2} ||x||_2^2$  is convex.

**Lemma 7.1.1** (first-order & second-order characterization of strong convexity). 1. first-order: If  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is differentiable, then f is  $\alpha$ -SC if and only if:

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{\alpha}{2} ||y - x||_2^2 \ \forall \ x, y$$

2. second-order: If  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  is twice continuously differentiable, then f is  $\alpha$ -SC if and only if:

$$\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq \alpha I, \ \forall x$$

**Example.**  $f(x) = \frac{1}{2}x^T Ax$  for symmetric A. Then we know  $\nabla^2 f(x) = A$ .

If  $\lambda_{\min}(A) > 0$ , then f is  $\lambda_{\min}(A) - SC$ , and  $\lambda_{\min} - \text{smooth}$ .

**Theorem 7.1.1** (GD convergence for smooth and strongly-convex functions). If f is  $\beta$ -smooth and  $\alpha - SC$ , and  $\alpha \leq \frac{1}{\beta}$ , then

1. 
$$||x_{t+1} - x^*||_2^2 \le (1 - \alpha \eta) \cdot ||x_t - x^*||_2^2, \forall t.$$

2. 
$$f(x_t) - f(x^*) \leq \frac{\beta}{2} (1 - \alpha \eta)^t ||x_0 - x^*||_2^2$$

Proof.

$$||x_{t+1} - x^*||_2^2 = ||(x_t - x^*) - \eta \nabla f(x_t)||_2^2$$

$$= ||x_t - x^*||_2^2 - 2\eta \langle x_t - x^*, \nabla f(x_t) \rangle + \eta^2 ||\nabla f(x_t)||_2^2$$

$$\leq ||x_t - x^*||_2^2 - 2\eta \left( f(x_t) - f(x^*) + \frac{\alpha}{2} ||x_t - x^*||_2^2 \right) + 2\eta \left( f(x_t) - f(x_{t+1}) \right)$$

$$= (1 - \alpha \eta) ||x_t - x^*||_2^2 - 2\eta \left( f(x_{t+1}) - f(x^*) \right)$$

$$\leq (1 - \alpha \eta)$$

which finishes (1). To see how we prove (2), we proceed as follows:

By (1), we have  $||x_t - x^*||_2^2 \le (1 - \alpha \eta)^t ||x_0 - x^*||_2^2$ , then:

$$f(x_t) - f(x^*) \le \langle \nabla f(x^*), x_t - x^* \rangle + \frac{\beta}{2} ||x_t - x^*||_2^2$$
$$\le \frac{\beta}{2} (1 - \alpha \eta)^t ||x_0 - x^*||_2^2$$

Remark. If  $\eta = \frac{1}{\beta}$ :

$$||x_t - x^*||_2^2 \le \left(1 - \frac{\alpha}{\beta}\right) ||x_0 - x^*||_2^2$$

$$= \left(1 - \frac{1}{\kappa}\right) ||x_0 - x^*||_2^2$$

$$\le e^{-\frac{t}{\kappa}} ||x_0 - x^*||_2^2$$

where we set  $\kappa = \frac{\beta}{\alpha}$  to be the "condition number" and the last line comes from  $1 - \frac{1}{\kappa} \le e^{-\frac{1}{\kappa}}$ .

Alternatively, if we want  $\|x_t - x^*\|_2^2 \le \epsilon$ , we need to set the step size  $t \ge \kappa \log \frac{\|x_0 - x^*\|_2^2}{\epsilon}$ .

**Example** (Linear Regression).  $x_1,...,x_n \in \mathbb{R}^d, \ y_1,...,y_n \in \mathbb{R}, \ \mathcal{H} = \{x \mapsto w^Tx : w \in \mathbb{R}^d\}$ 

ERM minimizes:

$$L(w) = \frac{1}{2n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w^{T} x_{i} - y)^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2n} ||XW - y||_{2}^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2n} (w^{T} X^{T} X w - 2y^{T} X w + y^{T} y)$$

where  $X = [x_1^T \dots x_n^T]^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times d}, y = [y_1 \dots y_n]^T \in \mathbb{R}^n$ .

We can calculate gradient and Hessian of L(w) as follows:

$$\nabla L(w) = \frac{1}{2n} \left( 2X^T X W - 2y^T X + y^T y \right)$$
$$\nabla^2 L(w) = \frac{1}{n} X^T X \succeq 0$$

Let  $\beta = \lambda_{\max}(\frac{1}{n}X^TX)$  and  $\alpha = \lambda_{\min}(\frac{1}{n}X^TX)$ 

Then L is  $\beta$ -smooth and  $\alpha$ -SC (if  $\alpha > 0$ ).

**Example** (Logistic Regression).  $y_i \in \{\pm 1\}$ 

$$L(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log \left( 1 + e^{-y_i w^T x_i} \right)$$

We calculate the gradient and Hessian as above:

$$\nabla L(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{e^{-y_i w^T x_i (-y_i x_i)}}{1 + e^{-y_i w^T x_i}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

Note that  $\left(\frac{e^z}{1-e^z}\right)' = \frac{e^z}{(1+e^z)^2}$ 

$$\nabla^2 L(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{e^{-y_i w^T x_i}}{(1 + e^{-y_i w^T x_i})^2} (-y_i x_i) (-y_i x_i)^T$$
$$= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{e^{-y_i w^T x_i}}{(1 + e^{-y_i w^T x_i})^2} x_i x_i^T$$

It turns out that  $\frac{e^{-y_i w^T x_i}}{(1+e^{-y_i w^T x_i})^2} \leq \frac{1}{4}$ . Therefore,

$$\nabla^2 L(w) \leq \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{4} x_i x_i^T = \frac{1}{4n} X^T X$$

and we conclude that L is  $\beta$ -smooth with  $\beta = \lambda_{max}(\frac{1}{4n}X^TX)$ .

What about strong convexity? As  $\|w\|_2 \to \infty$  and  $w^T x_i \neq 0$ , then  $\frac{e^{-y_i w^T x_i}}{(1 + e^{-y_i w^T x_i})^2} \to 0$ . Therefore,  $\exists w \text{ s.t. } \nabla^2 L(w) \prec \alpha I, \forall \alpha > 0$ 

#### 7.2 Linear Convergence under PL condition

**Definition 7.2.1** (Poly-Lojasiewicz(PL) condition). A differentiable function  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$  satisfies  $\alpha - PL$  condition  $(\alpha > 0)$  if

$$\|\nabla f(x)\|_{2}^{2} \geq 2\alpha \left(f(x) - f(x^{*})\right), \ \forall \ x \in \mathbb{R}^{d}$$

where  $x^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(x)$ .

**Lemma 7.2.1** ( $\alpha - SC \Rightarrow \alpha - PL$ ). If f is differentiable and  $\alpha - SC$ , then f is  $\alpha - PL$ .

**Proof.** By the 1st-order characterization of  $\alpha - SC$ :

$$\begin{split} f(y) &\geq f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{\alpha}{2} \|y - x\|_2^2, \forall \ x, y \\ \min_y \{f(y)\} &\geq \min_y \{f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{\alpha}{2} \|y - x\|_2^2\} \\ f(x^*) &\geq f(x) + \langle \nabla f(x), -\frac{1}{\alpha} \nabla f(x) \rangle + \frac{\alpha}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{\alpha^2} \|\nabla f(x)\|_2^2 \\ &= f(x) - \frac{1}{2\alpha} \|\nabla f(x)\|_2^2 \end{split}$$

where the second last line comes from the fact that optimal  $y = x - \frac{1}{\alpha} \nabla f(x)$ . why?

**Remark.**  $\alpha - PL$  is a weaker condition than  $\alpha - SC$ , where the latter is a necessary condition for the former.

**Theorem 7.2.1** (Convergence of GD for smooth and PL functions). If f is  $\beta$ -smooth and  $\alpha$ -PL, and

 $\eta \leq \frac{1}{\beta}$ , then:

$$f(x_t) - f(x^*) \le (1 - \alpha \eta)^t (f(x_0) - f(x^n))$$

Proof.

$$f(x_{t+1}) - f(x^*) \le f(x_t) - f(x^*) - \frac{\eta}{2} \|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2^2$$
 Descent Lemma  

$$\le f(x_t) - f(x^*) - \frac{\eta}{2} \cdot 2\alpha (f(x_t) - f(x^*))$$
 alpha-PL  

$$= (1 - \eta \alpha)(f(x_t) - f(x^*))$$

#### Properties of PL functions

- 1. Not necessarily convex, e.g.,  $f(x) = x^2 + 3\sin^2 x$
- 2. Can have multiple global minima (This is on the contrary to  $\alpha SC$  functions, where its global minima is unique)
- 3. All stationary points are global minima

$$\nabla f(x) = 0 \Rightarrow 0 = \|\nabla f(x)\|_{2}^{2} \ge 2\alpha \left(f(x) - f(x^{*})\right)$$
$$\Rightarrow f(x) \le f(x^{*})$$
$$\Rightarrow f(x) = f(x^{*})$$

**Example** (Overparametrized Linear Regression). We start off in same setting as the previous linear regression example (that is, the same symbols, gradient, and Hessian), etc. However, here n << d – there are many more parameters than observations.

In order for L to be SC, we need  $\lambda_{\min}(X^TX) > 0$ , where  $X^TX$  is a  $d \times d$  matrix.

But if n < d,  $X^TX$  is not full-rank – we have  $\operatorname{rank}(XX^T) \le n < d$ . As non-full-rank matrices have at least one zero singular value, this implies that  $\lambda_{\min} = 0$  and thus L is not SC.

Fortunately, we can still show the PL condition in this case.

Assume rank $(X) = n, (x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  are linearly independent, then

$$\exists w^* \in \mathbb{R}^d \text{ s.t. } (w^*)^T x_i = y_i, \forall i$$

In fact, infinite  $w^*$  of this form exist and lie in the same subspace of  $\mathbb{R}^d$ . We will show, where  $XX^T \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ , that:

$$\|\nabla L(W)\|_{2}^{2} \ge 2\lambda_{\min}(\frac{1}{n}XX^{T}) \cdot (L(w) - L(w^{*}))$$

To prove this,

$$\|\nabla L(W)\|_{2}^{2} = \frac{1}{n} \|X^{T}(Xw - y)\|_{2}^{2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{n^{2}} (Xw - y)^{T} X X^{T} (Xw - y)$$

$$\geq \frac{1}{n^{2}} \lambda_{\min} (XX^{T}) \cdot \|Xw - y\|_{2}^{2}$$

$$= \frac{2}{n} \lambda_{\min} (XX^{T}) \cdot (L(w) - L(w^{*}))$$

and so L satisfies the PL condition.

the second last line why?

# Non-Convex Optimization

#### 8.1 Basics

We focus on unconstrained optimization problems

$$\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^d} f(x)$$

Assume: f is  $\beta$ -smooth and twice continuously differentiable.

**Definition 8.1.1** (stationary point). x is a stationary point of f if  $\nabla f(x) = 0$ . x is an  $\epsilon$ -stationary point if  $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 \leq \epsilon$ .

**Theorem 8.1.1** (Convergence of GD to an  $\epsilon$ -stationary point). If f is  $\beta$ -smooth, then for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , GD with  $\eta \leq \frac{1}{\beta}$  finds an  $\epsilon$ -stationary point within  $T = \frac{2(f(x_0) - f(x^*))}{\eta \epsilon^2}$ , *i.e.*:

$$\min_{0 \le t \le T} \|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2 \le \epsilon$$

**Proof.** By descent lemma:

$$f(x_t) - f(x_{t+1}) \ge \frac{\eta}{2} \|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2^2$$

Sum over t = 0, 1, ..., T - 1:

$$f(x_0) - f(x^*) \ge f(x_0) - f(x_T) \ge \frac{\eta}{2} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2^2$$

$$\frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=0}^{T-1} \|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2^2 \le \frac{2}{\eta T} (f(x_0) - f(x^*)) = \epsilon^2$$

$$\min_{0 \le t \le T-1} \left\| \nabla f(x_t) \right\|_2^2 \le \epsilon$$

and this gives us our result. Note when  $\eta = \frac{1}{\beta}$ , we have that  $T = \frac{2\beta(f(x_0) - f(x^*))}{\epsilon^2}$ .

Remark. What does this mean for non-convex functions?

- Gradient descent is unlikely to go to a local maximum.
- Local minima are likely the best we can hope for in general.

**Definition 8.1.2** (saddle point). A saddle point is a stationary point but not a local minimum or local maximum. Equivalently, x is a saddle point of f if  $\nabla f(x) = 0$ , and  $\forall \ \epsilon > 0$ ,  $\exists y, z \text{ s.t. } \|y - x\|_2 \le \epsilon$ ,  $\|z - x\|_2 \le \epsilon$  and f(y) < f(x) < f(z).

**Definition 8.1.3** (strict saddle point). A saddle point x of f is strict if  $\lambda_{\min}(\nabla^2 f(x)) < 0$ 

**Example.** We have the following two functions:

$$f_1(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - x_2^2$$
  
 $f_2(x_1, x_2) = x_1^2 - x_2^3$ 

With some calculations, we get that

$$\nabla f_1(x_1, x_2) = (2x_1 - 2x_2)^T$$
$$\nabla^2 f_1(x_1, x_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$$

At (0,0), the gradient is 0, but  $\lambda_{min}(\nabla^2 f_1(0,0)) < 0$ . So (0,0) is a strict saddle point of  $f_1$ . But with  $f_2$ ,

$$\nabla f_2(x_1, x_2) = (2x_1 - 3x_2^2)^T$$
$$\nabla^2 f_2(x_1, x_2) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0\\ 0 & -6x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

At (0,0), the gradient is 0, but  $\lambda_{min}(\nabla^2 f_2(0,0)) = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \succeq 0$ . So (0,0) is a non-strict saddle point of  $f_2$ .

## 8.2 Second-order stationary point

**Definition 8.2.1** (second-order stationary point). x is a second-order stationary point (SOSP) of f if  $\nabla f(x) = 0$  and  $\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq 0$ . x is an  $(\epsilon_1, \epsilon_2)$ -SOSP if  $\|\nabla f(x)\|_2 \leq \epsilon_1$ ,  $\nabla^2 f(x) \succeq -\epsilon_2 I$ 

**Definition 8.2.2** (Hessian-Lipschitzness). f is  $\rho$ -Hessian-Lipschitz if

$$\left\|\nabla^2 f(x) - \nabla^2 f(y)\right\|_2 \leq \rho \|x - y\|_2, \ \forall \ x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

Equivalently,

$$|f(y) - \left( \langle \nabla f(x), y - x \rangle + \frac{1}{2} (y - x)^T \nabla^2 f(x) (y - x) \right)| \le \frac{\rho}{6} ||x - y||_2^3, \ \forall \ x, y \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

#### Finding $\epsilon$ -SOSP using Hessian information

Suppose  $\|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2 < \epsilon$  and  $\lambda_{\min}(\nabla^2 f(x_t)) < -\epsilon_2$ 

$$f(x_t + v) = f(x_t) + \langle \nabla f(x_t), v \rangle + \frac{1}{2} v^T \nabla^2 f(x_t) v \pm \frac{\rho}{6} ||v||_2^3$$

We want to find v such that  $v^T \nabla^2 f(x_t) v$  is minimized. An intuitive solution is to use the bottom eigenvector.

Recap: 
$$\sup_{\|v\|_2=1} v^T A v = \lambda_{\max}(A), \text{ achieved by top eigenvector}$$
 
$$\inf_{\|v\|_2=1} v^T A v = \lambda_{\min}(A), \text{ achieved by bottom eigenvector}$$

#### Algorithm 1 GD + Eigenvector Computation

```
1: Initialize x_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d
2: for t = 0, 1, 2... do
3: if ||\nabla f(x_t)||_2 > \epsilon then
4: x_{t+1} := x_t - \eta \nabla f(x_t)
5: else
6: v_t := \text{Eigenvector of } \nabla^2 f(x_t) \text{ corresponding to the smallest eigenvalue}
7: v_t := v_t / ||v_t||_2
8: x_{t+1} := \begin{cases} x_t + \gamma v_t & \text{if } f(x_t + \gamma v_t) \leq f(x_t - \gamma v_t) \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
9: end if
10: end for
```

**Theorem 8.2.1** (GD + eigenvector finds SOSP). Assume that f is  $\beta$ -smooth and  $\rho$ -Hessian Lipschitz. Fix  $\epsilon > 0$ . Let  $\eta = \frac{1}{\beta}$  and  $\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{\epsilon}{\rho}}$ .

Then within  $T = \frac{3\beta(f(x_0) - f(x^*))}{\epsilon^2}$  iterations, at least one of the iterates  $x_t$   $0 \le t \le T$  is an  $(\epsilon, \sqrt{\rho\epsilon})$ -SOSP.

**Proof.** Proof by contradiction. Assume that all iterates  $x_0, \ldots, x_T$  are not  $(\epsilon, \sqrt{\rho \epsilon})$ -SOSP. Then we want to show we will have a sufficient decrease of  $f(x_t)$  in every iteration, and reach a contradiction.

Case 1:  $\|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2 > \epsilon$ .

By descent lemma:  $f(x_{t+1}) - f(x_t) \le -\frac{\eta}{2} \|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2^2 < -\frac{1}{2}\epsilon^2 = \frac{1}{2\beta}\epsilon^2$ 

Case 2:  $\|\nabla f(x_t)\|_2 \le \epsilon$ .

By our assumption that  $x_t$  is not an  $(\epsilon, \sqrt{\rho \epsilon})$ -SOSP, we know  $\lambda_{\min}(\nabla^2 f(x_t)) < -\sqrt{\rho \epsilon}$ 

By choice of  $v_t$ :  $v_t^T \nabla^2 f(x_t) v_t = \lambda_{\min}(\nabla^2 f(x_t)) < -\sqrt{\rho \epsilon}$ .

$$f(x_{t+1}) = \min\{f(x_t + \gamma v_t), f(x_t - \gamma v_t)\}$$

$$\leq f(x_t) + \min\{\langle \nabla f(x_t), \gamma v_t \rangle, \langle \nabla f(x_t), -\gamma v_t \rangle\} + \frac{1}{2}(\gamma v_t)^T \nabla^2 f(x_t)(\gamma v_t) + \frac{\rho}{6} \|\gamma v_t\|_2^3$$

$$\leq f(x_t) + 0 + \frac{\gamma^2}{2}(-\sqrt{\rho \epsilon}) + \frac{\rho}{6}\gamma^3$$

$$= f(x_0) - \frac{1}{3}\sqrt{\frac{\epsilon^3}{\rho}}$$

$$= f(x_0) - \frac{\epsilon^2}{3\beta}$$

$$\text{let gamma} = \text{sqrt}(\text{ep/rho})$$

$$\leq f(x_t) - \frac{\epsilon^2}{3\beta}$$

$$\text{beta} >= \text{sqrt}(\text{rho ep})$$

In either case, function value decreases  $\geq \frac{\epsilon^2}{3\beta}$ . Then

$$T \le \frac{f(x_0) - f(x^*)}{\frac{\epsilon^2}{3\beta}} = \frac{3\beta(f(x_0) - f(x^*))}{\epsilon^2}$$

#### Finding $\epsilon$ -SOSP without using Hessian information

**Perturbed GD**:  $x_{t+1} = x_t - \eta(\nabla f(x_t) + \xi_t)$  where  $\xi_t \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \frac{r^2}{d}I)$ .

**Theorem 8.2.2** (Perturbed GD finds SOSP). Assume f is  $\beta$ -smooth and  $\rho$ -Hessian-Lipschitz.

Fix  $\epsilon > 0, \delta \in (0, 1)$ .

If we choose  $\eta = \frac{1}{\beta}$ ,  $r = \tilde{O}(\epsilon)$  and run perturbed GD for  $T = O\frac{\beta(f(x_0) - f(x^*))}{\epsilon^2}$  iterations, then w.p.  $\geq 1 - \delta$ , at least one of the iterates is an  $(\epsilon, \sqrt{\rho \epsilon})$  SOSP.

Intuition: a random perturbation will have a component that aligns with the bottom eigenvector of  $\nabla^2 f(x_t)$ .

Part III

Appendix

# Calculus

#### 9.1 Taylor Expansion

In 1-dimension, for a function  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ , the taylor expansion of f at a point  $x_0$  can be expressed as:

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{1}{2}f''(x_0)(x - x_0)^2 + \dots + \frac{1}{k!}f^{(k)}(x_0)(x - x_0)^k + \dots$$

In particular, we call the approximation error, or equivalently, remainder as:

$$f(x) - f_{k,x_0}(x) = \frac{1}{(k+1)!} f^{(k+1)}(\xi)(x - x_0)$$

where  $\xi$  is between  $x_0$  and x.

Let's do some extension to **multivariate** functions where  $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ .

The taylor expansion at  $x_0$  can be expressed as:

$$f(x) \approx f(x_0) + \langle \nabla f(x_0), x - x_0 \rangle + \frac{1}{2} (x - x_0)^T \nabla^2 f(x_0) (x - x_0) + \cdots$$

Similarly, we can also have remainder:

$$f(x) - f(x_0) - \langle \nabla f(x_0), x - x_0 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} (x - x_0)^T \nabla^2 f(\xi) (x - x_0)$$

where  $\xi = x_0 + t(x - x_0)$ , for some  $t \in [0, 1]$ .

#### Fundamental Theorem of Calculus

in 1-d:

$$f(x) - f(x_0) = \int_{x_0}^{x} f'(t)dt$$

in multivariate:

$$f(x) - f(x_0) = \int_0^1 \langle \nabla f(x_0 + t(x - x_0)), x - x_0 \rangle dt$$

# 9.2 Linear Algebra

**Definition 9.2.1.** Let  $A \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ 

- Eigenvalue, eigenvector:  $A\vec{v} = \lambda \vec{v}, \ \vec{v} \neq 0$
- If A is symmetric, it has d real eigenvalues:

$$\lambda_{\max}(A) = \lambda_1(A) \ge \lambda_2(A) \ge \dots \ge \lambda_d(A) = \lambda_{\min}(A)$$

- Spectral norm:  $||A||_2 = \sup_{||v||=1} ||Av||_2 = \sup_{||u||=||v||=1} |u^T A v|$ If A is symmetric,  $||A||_2 = \max_i |\lambda_i(A)| = \max\{|\lambda_1(A), \lambda_d(A)|\}$
- PSD matrix:  $A \succeq 0$  if A is symmetric and  $\lambda_{\min}(A) \geq 0$ , or equivalently: A is symmetric and  $v^T A v \geq 0$ , for all  $v \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .

Moreover, we write  $A \succeq B$  if  $A - B \succeq 0$ ,  $\lambda_{\min}(A) \cdot I \preceq A\lambda_{\max}(A) \cdot I$