

# **Gradient Descent**

**DS 4400 | Machine Learning and Data Mining I**

**Zohair Shafi**

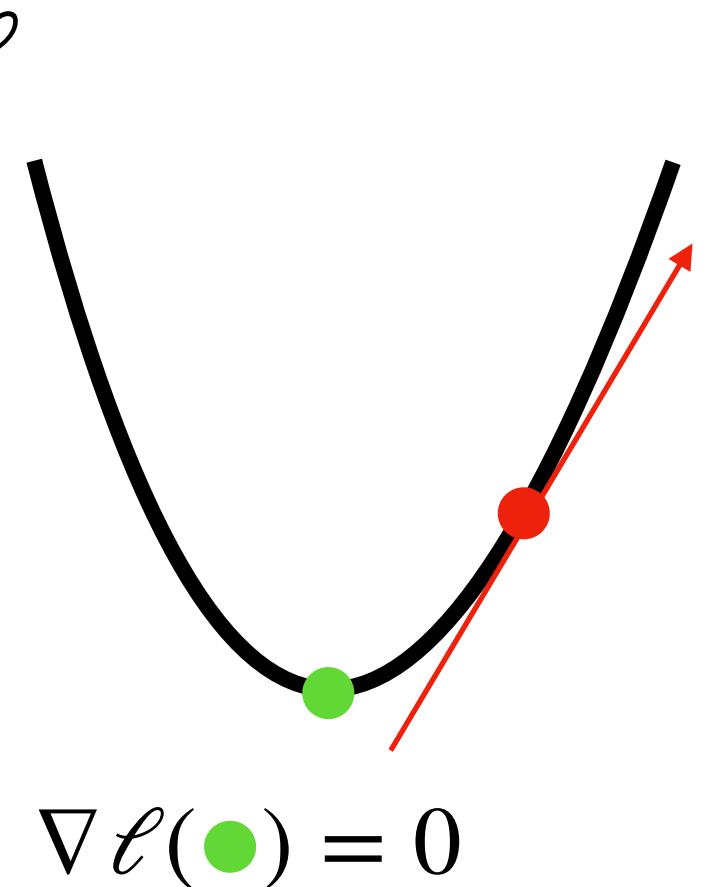
**Spring 2026**

**Wednesday | January 21, 2026**

# Optimizing Loss Functions

- For any loss function  $\ell(\theta)$ 
  - To find minimum, set  $\nabla \ell = 0$  and solve for  $\theta$

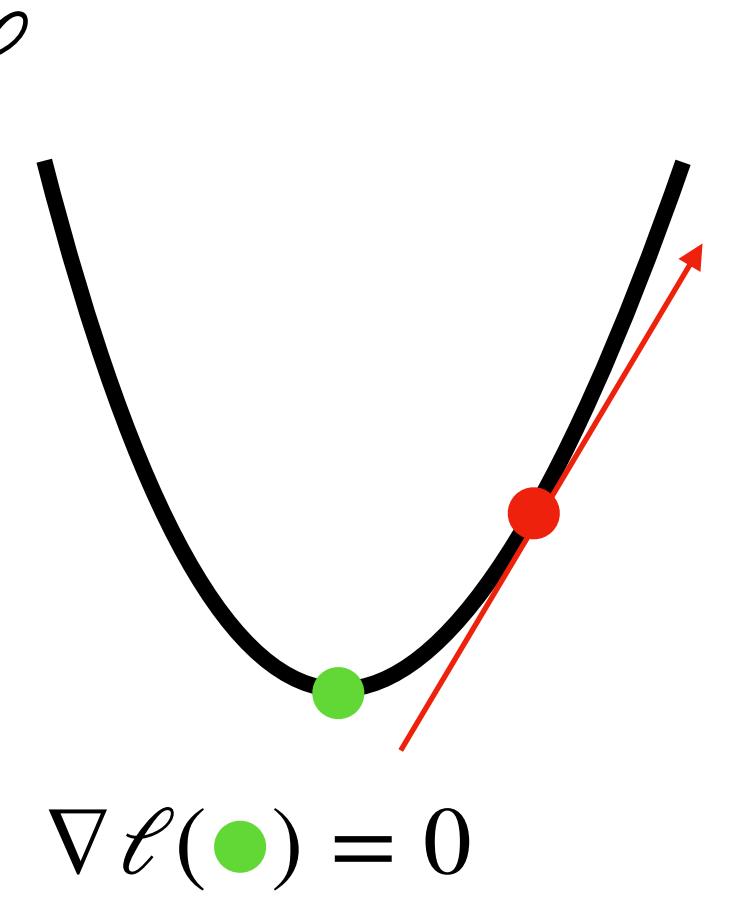
$\nabla \ell(\bullet)$  points in direction of steepest ascent



# Optimizing Loss Functions

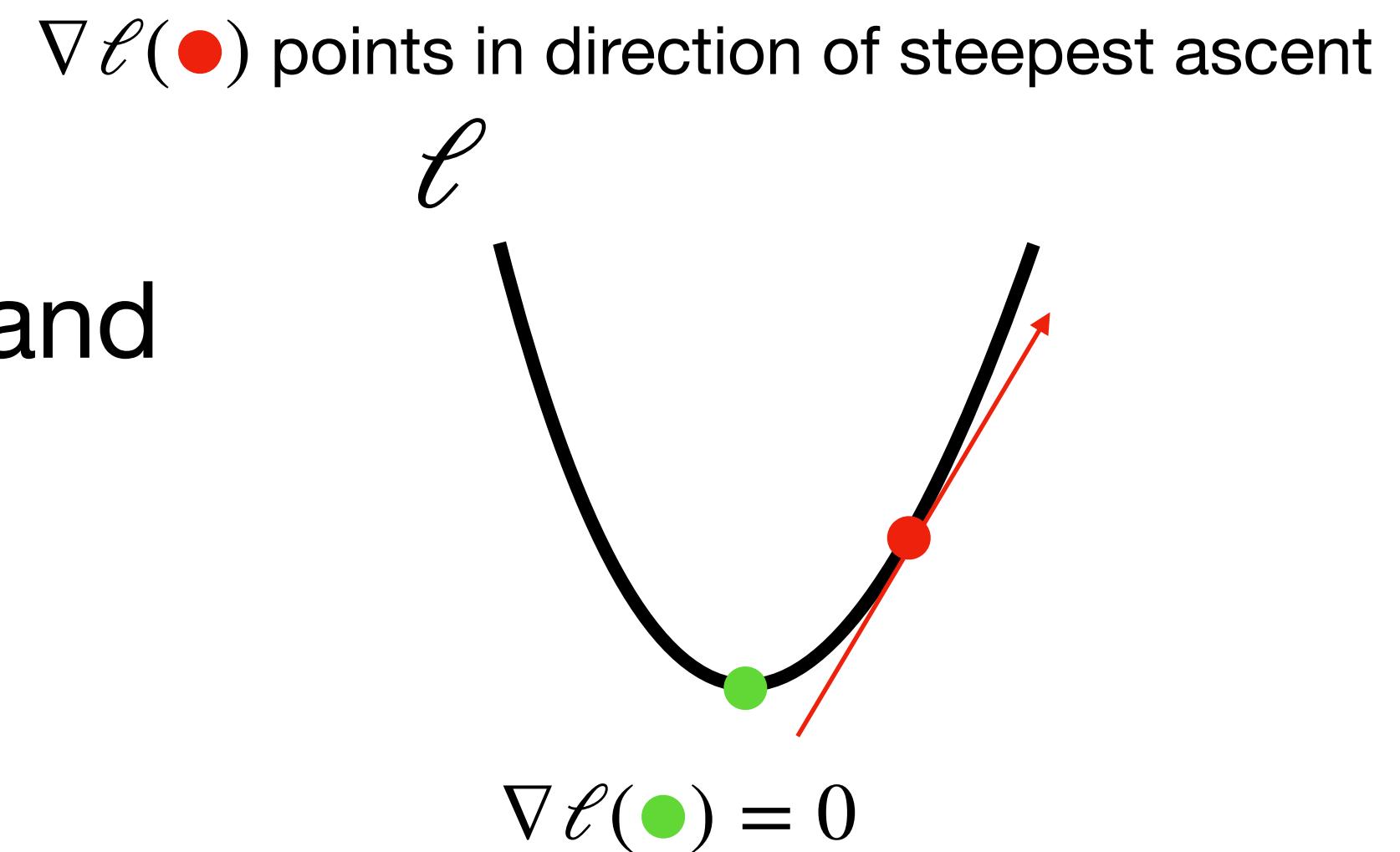
- For any loss function  $\ell(\theta)$ 
  - To find minimum, set  $\nabla \ell = 0$  and solve for  $\theta$
  - This is called the **closed form solution**
  - But it's not always possible to find closed form solutions, especially when there are a large number of parameters
  - Inverting a matrix is a costly operation - most common methods have complexity  $O(n^3)$

$\nabla \ell(\bullet)$  points in direction of steepest ascent



# Optimizing Loss Functions

- This is where Gradient Descent comes in
  - Practical and efficient - has  $O(mTn)$  where  $m$  is number of training points,  $T$  is number of epochs and  $n$  is number of features
  - Generally applicable to different loss functions
  - Convergence guarantees for certain types of loss functions (e.g., convex functions)

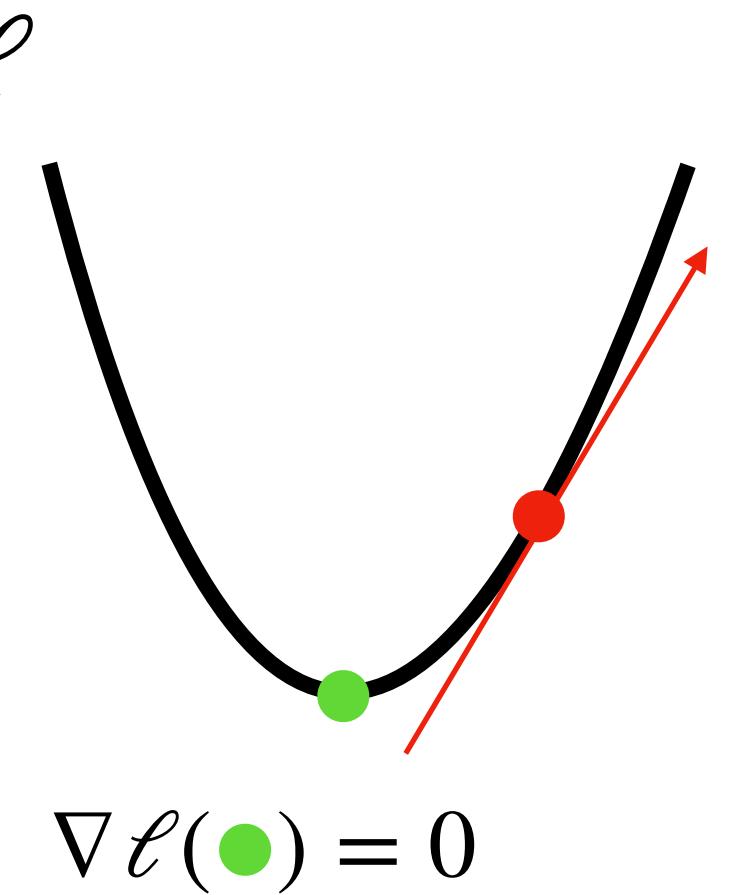


# Optimizing Loss Functions

- What is gradient descent?



$\nabla \ell(\bullet)$  points in direction of steepest ascent

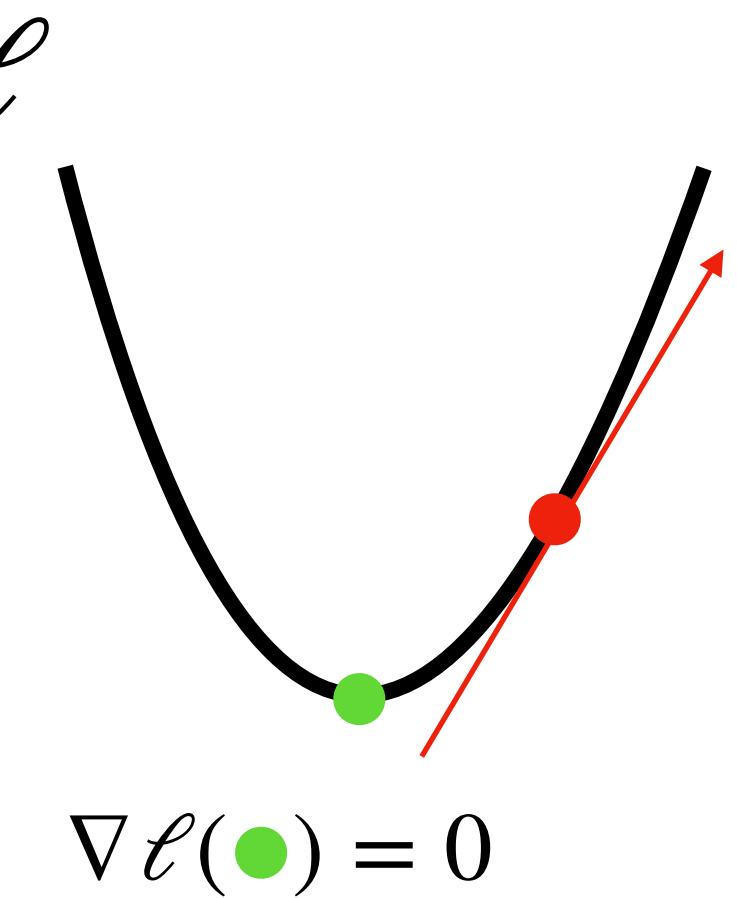


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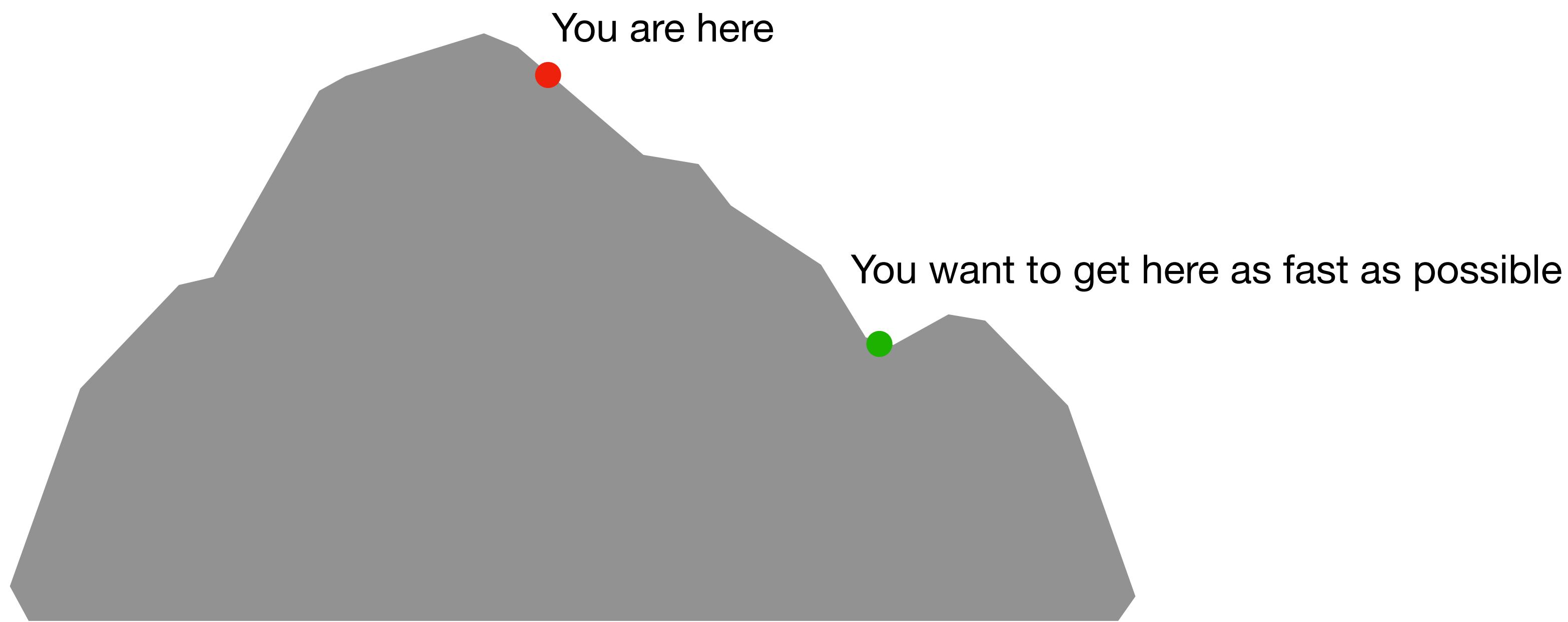


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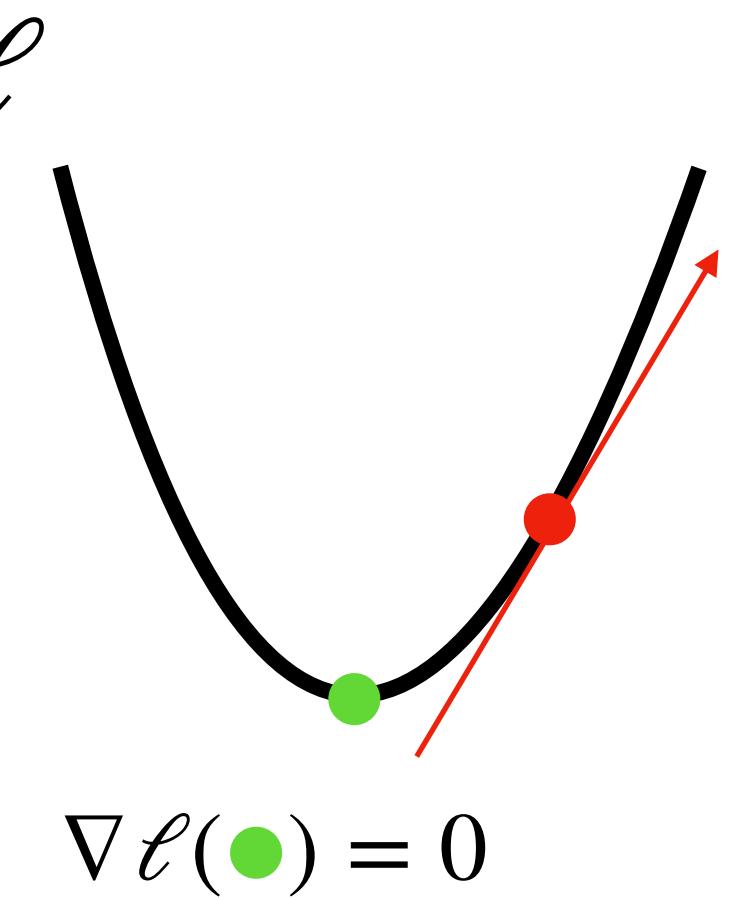


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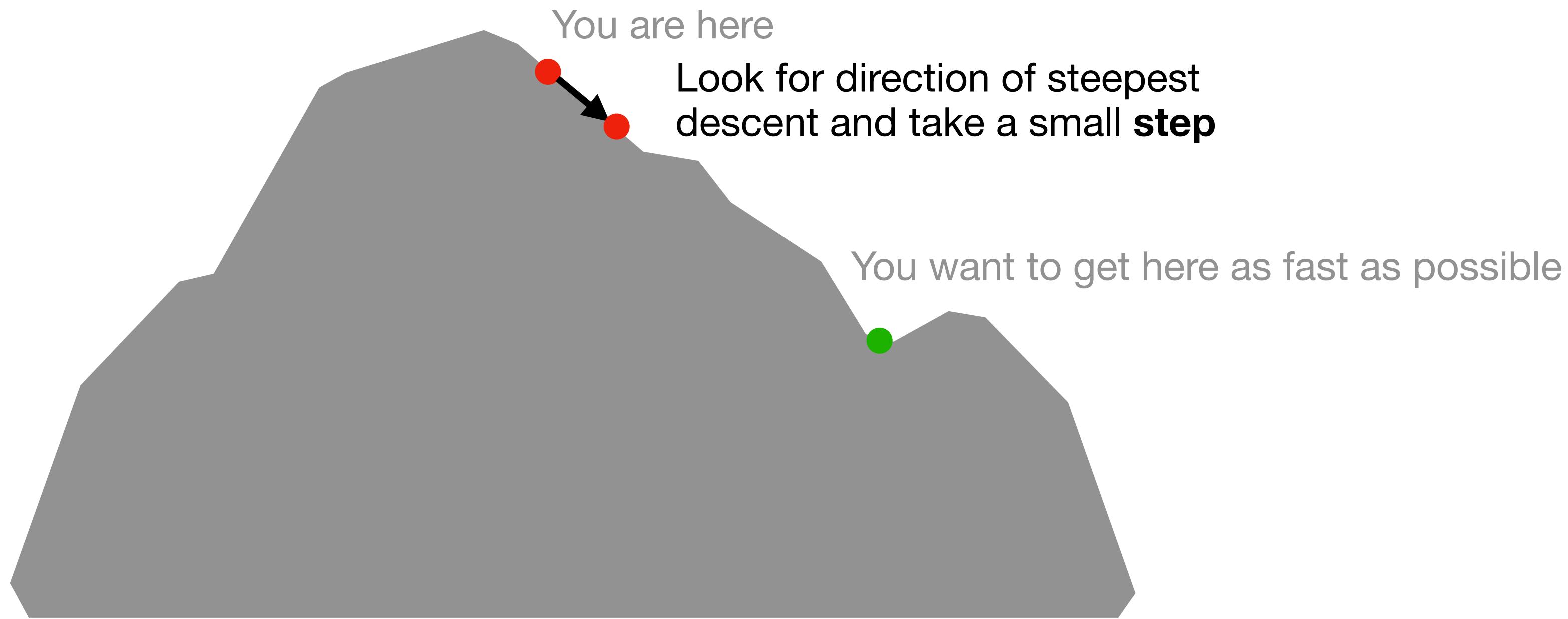


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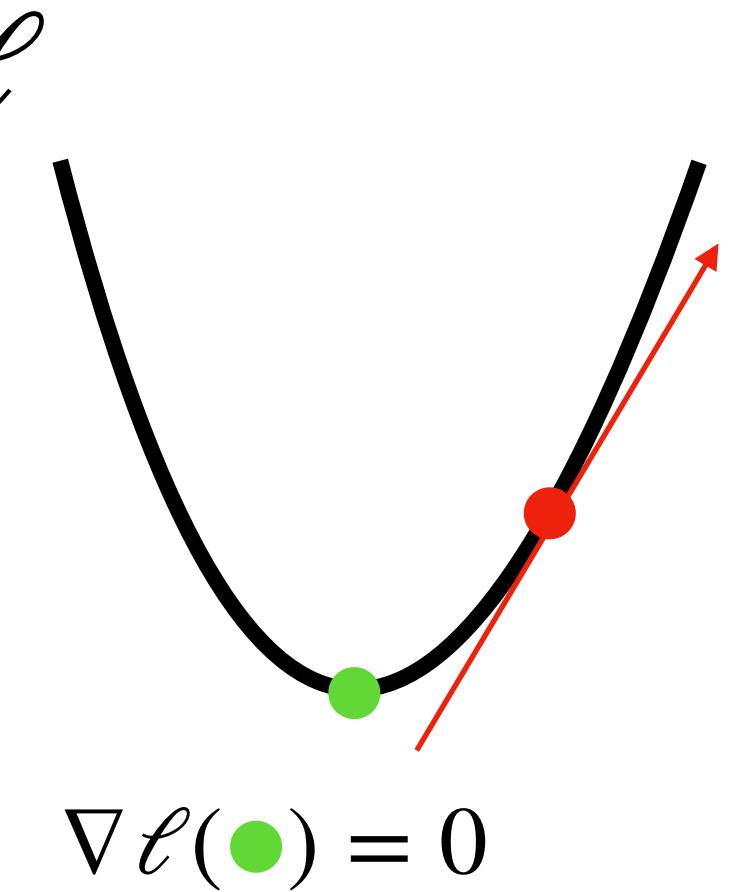


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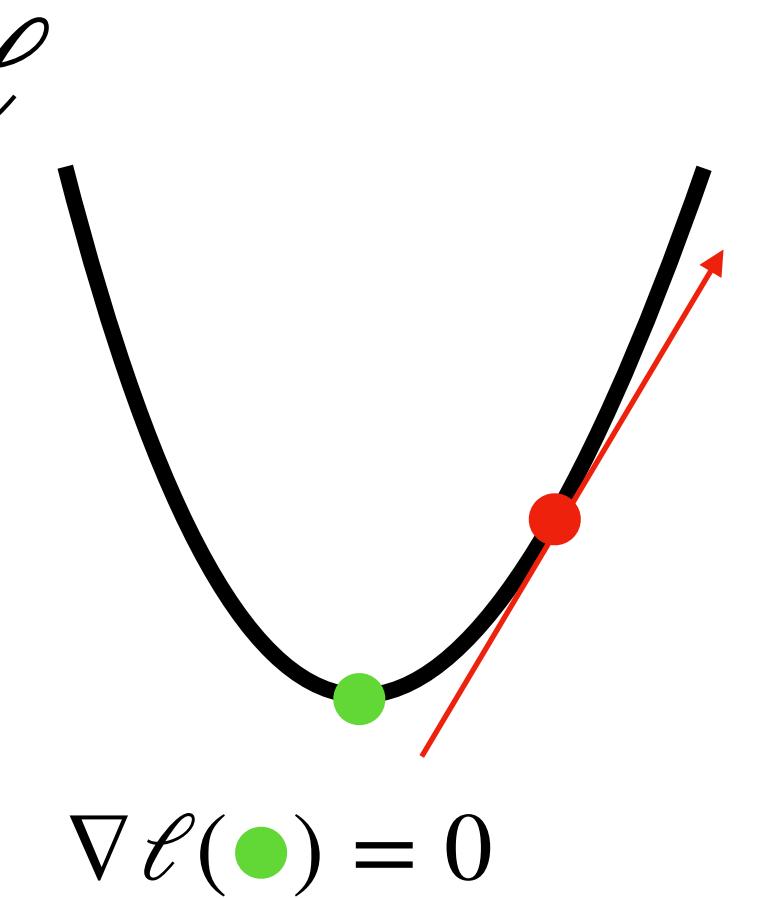


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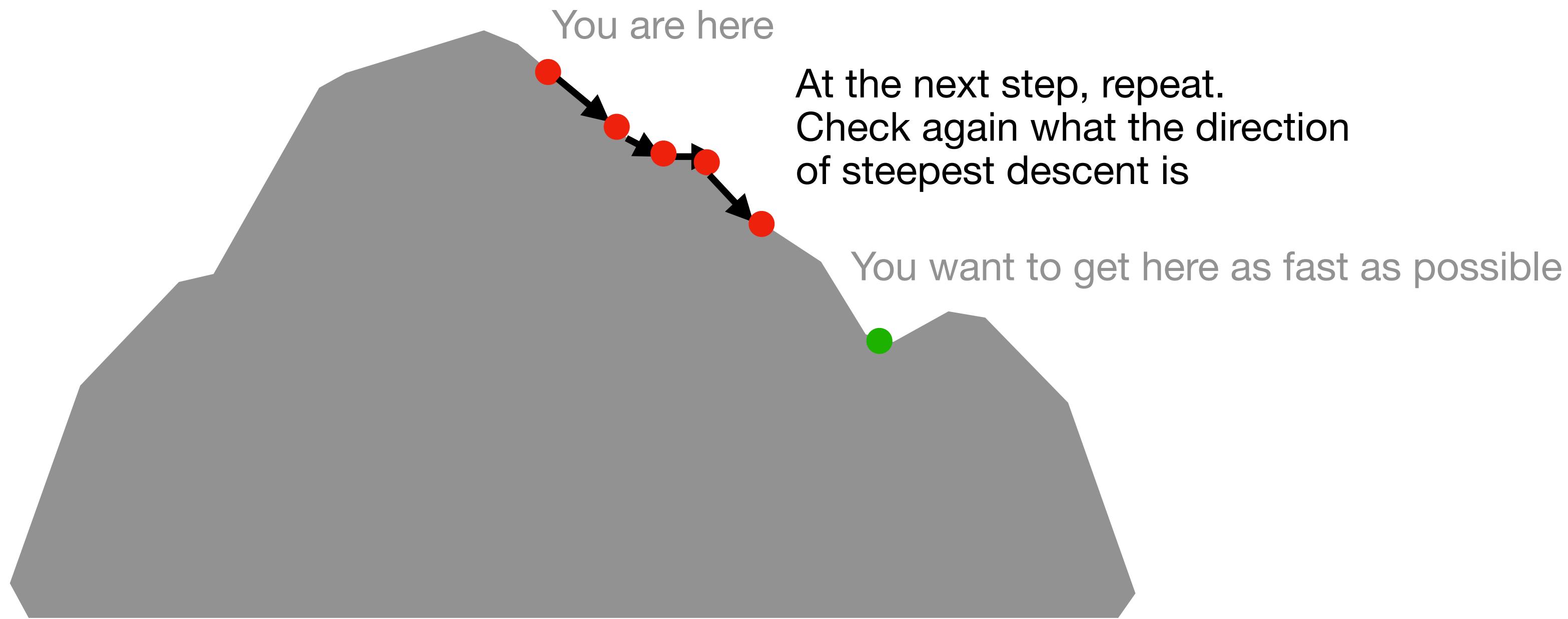


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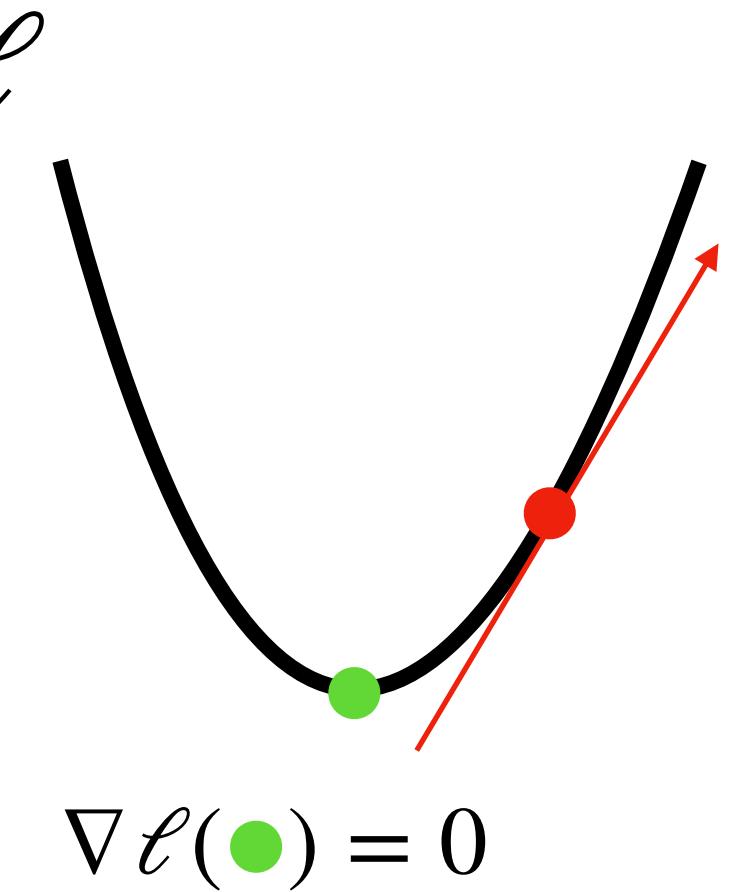


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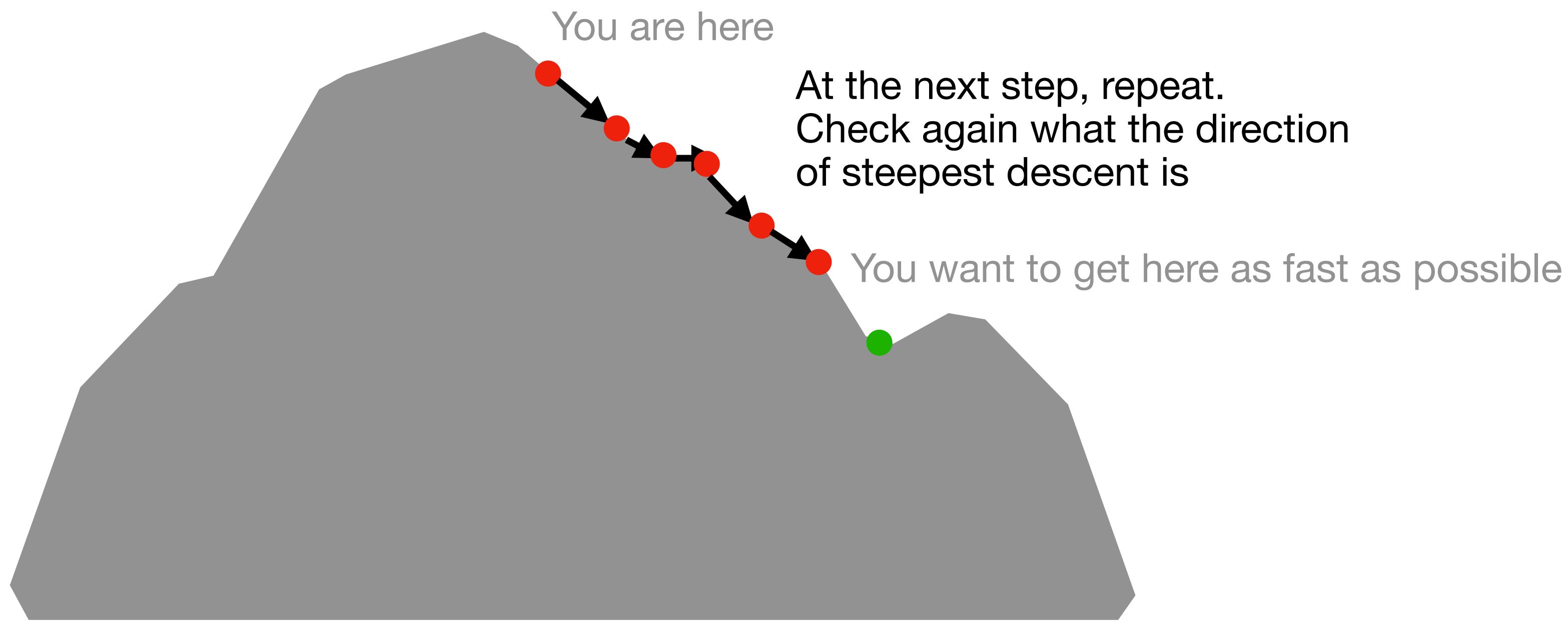


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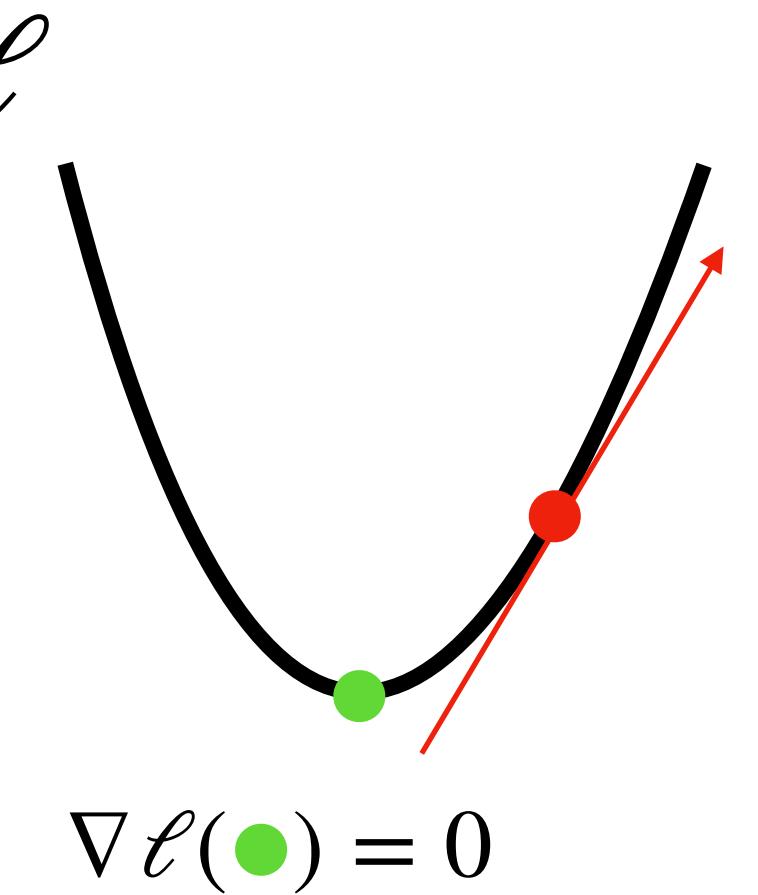


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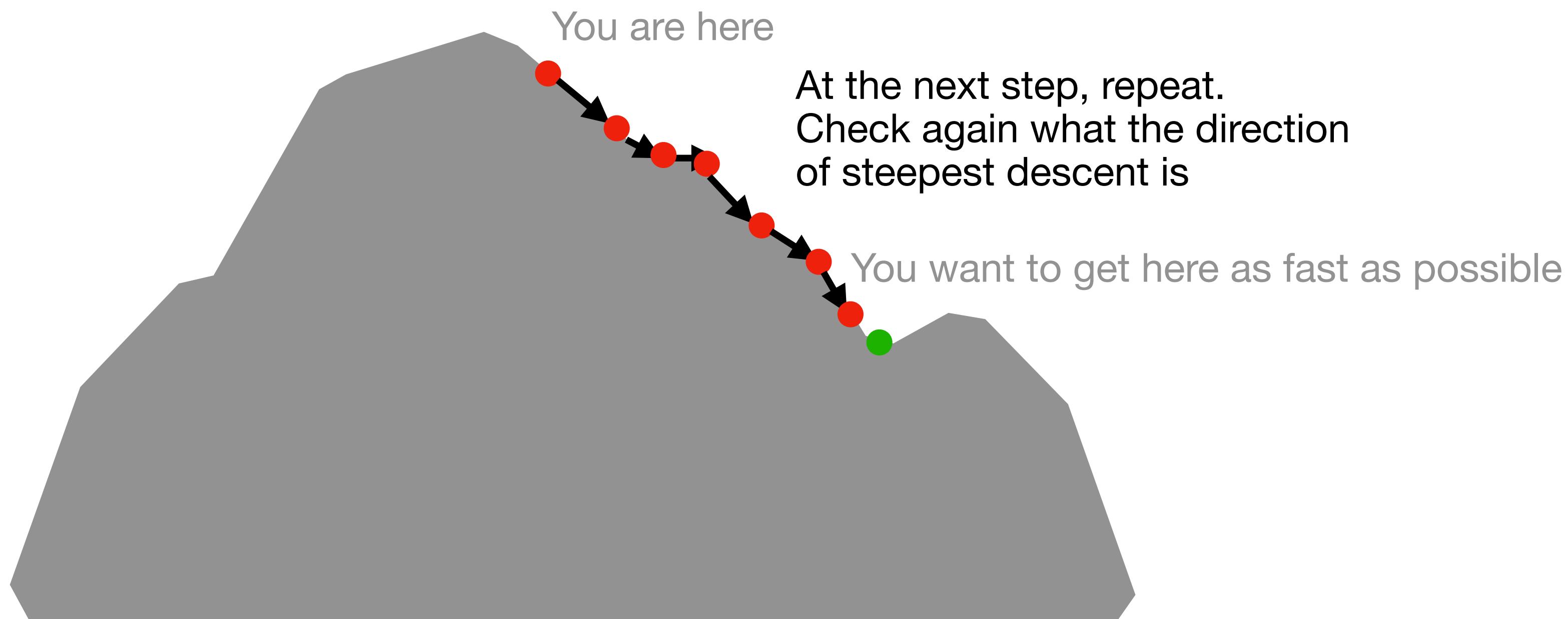


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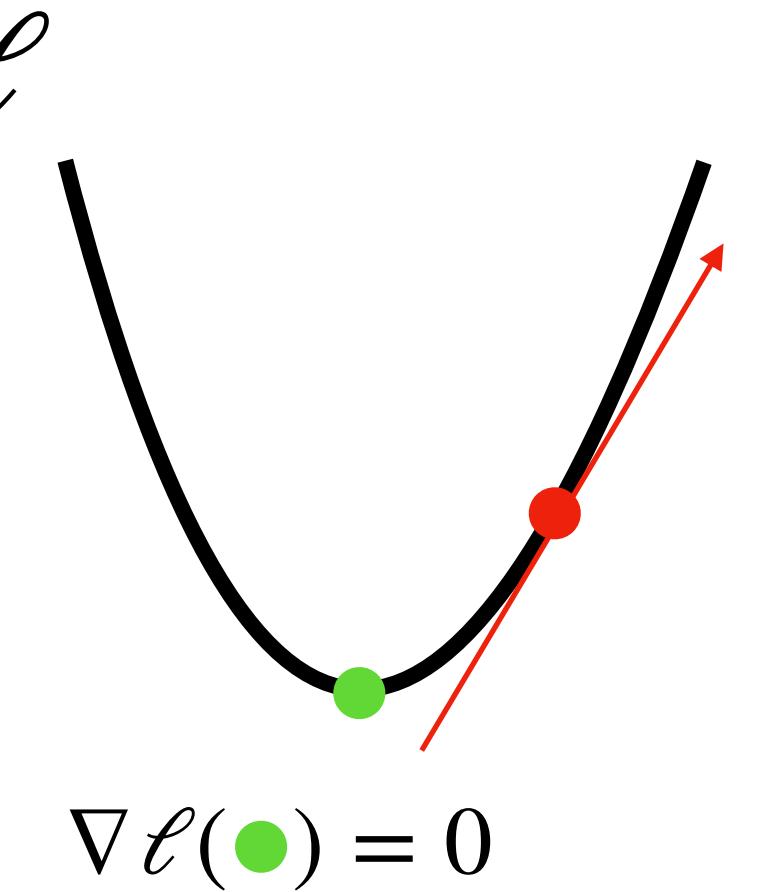


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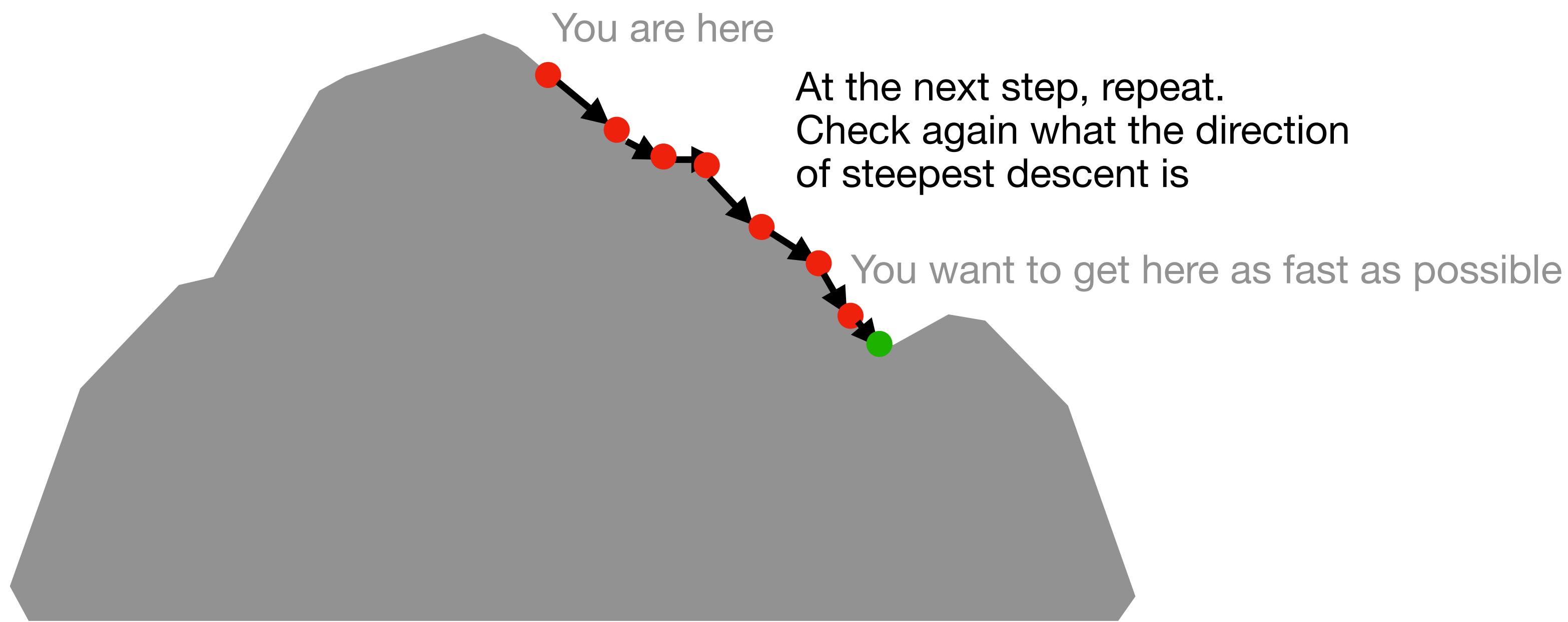


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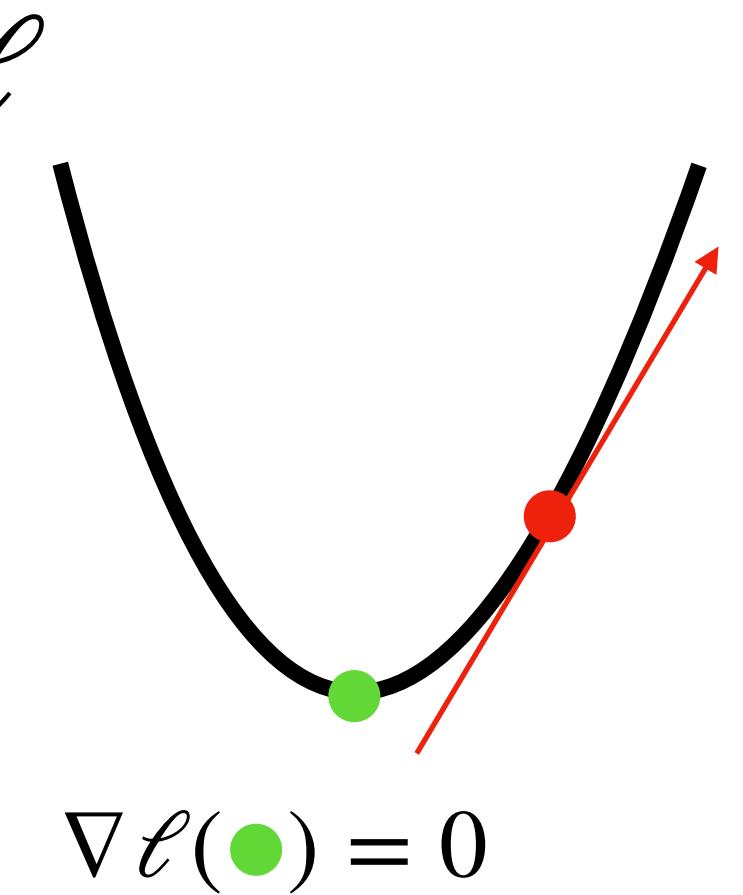


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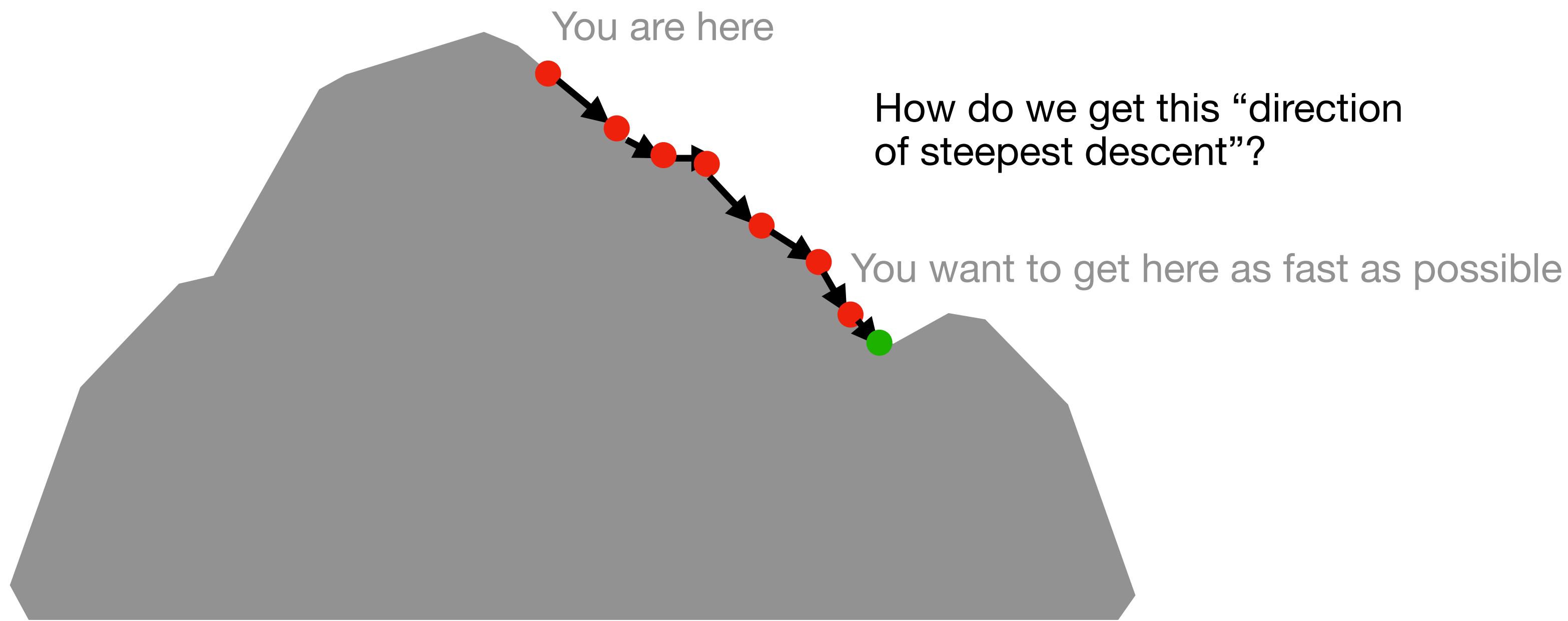


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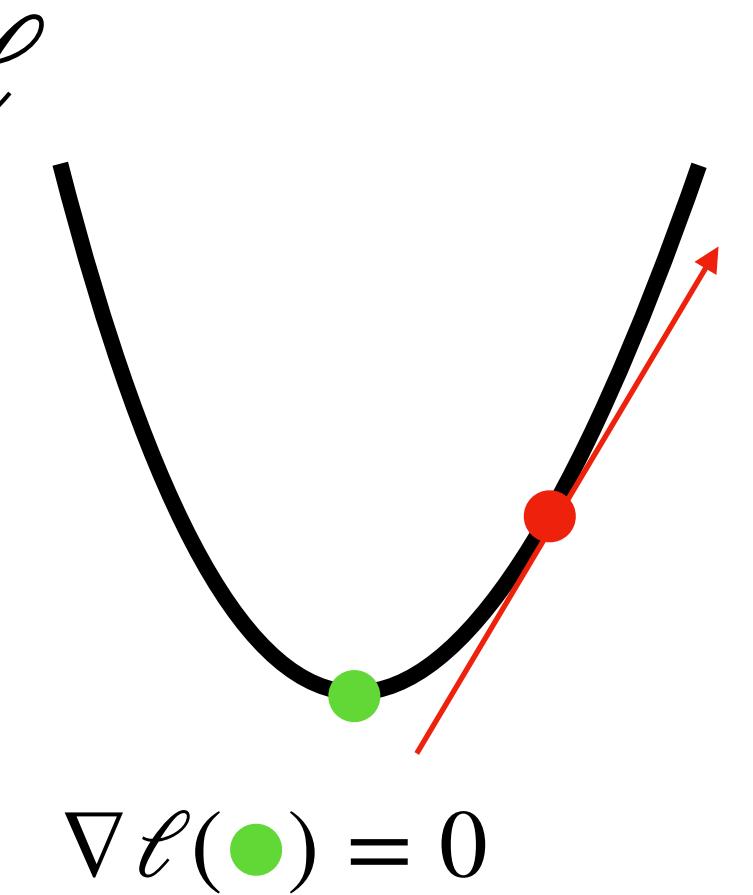


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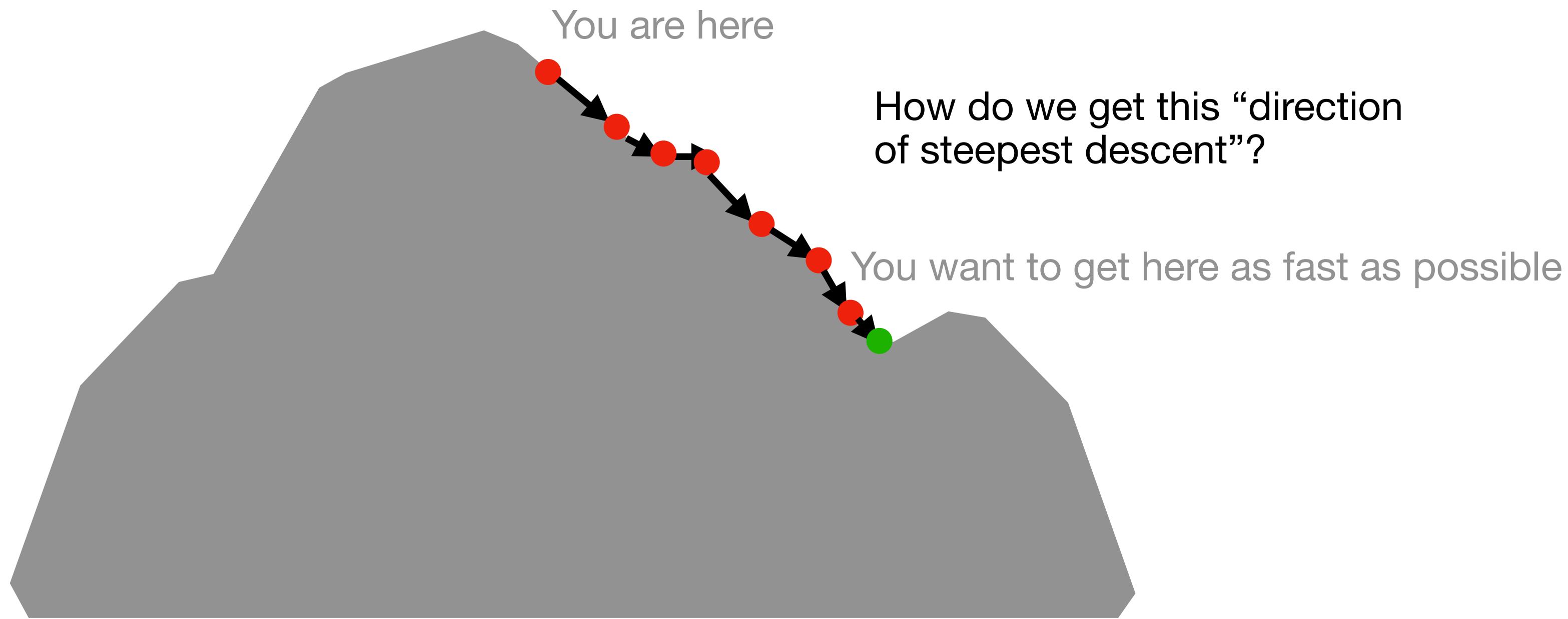


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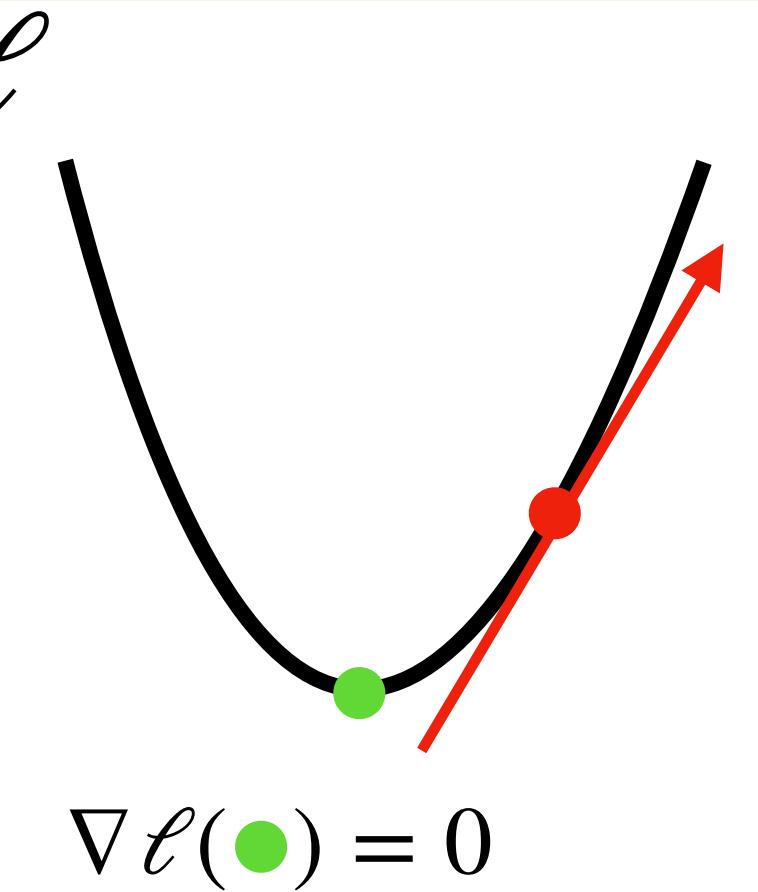


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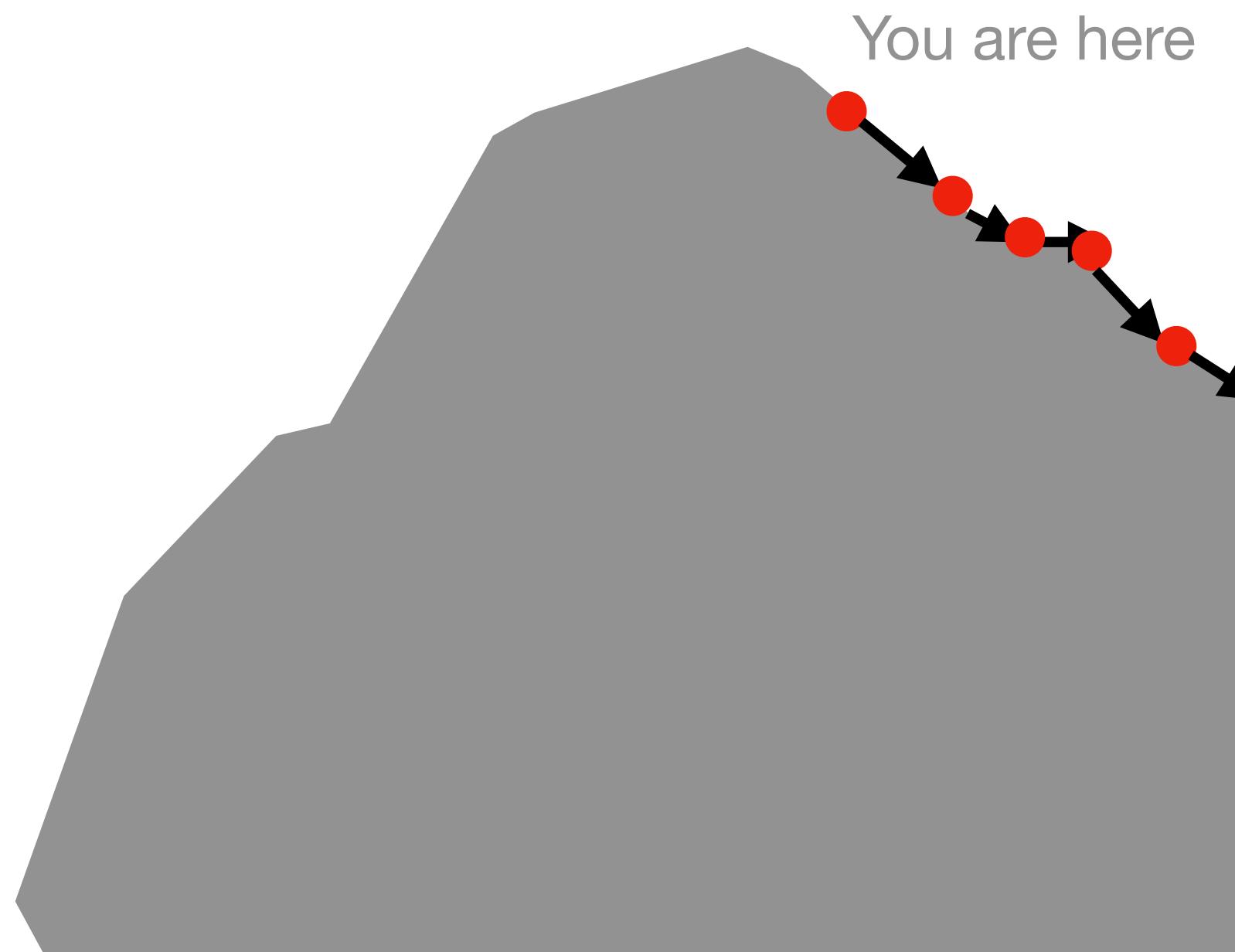


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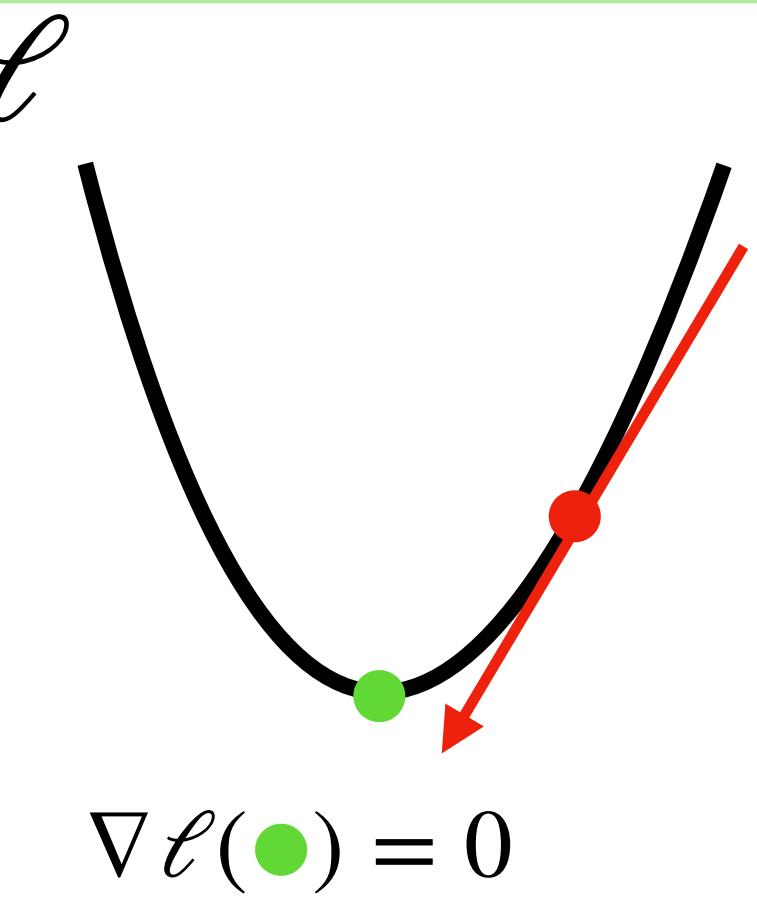
# Optimizing Loss Functions

- What is gradient descent?



How do we get this “direction of steepest **descent**”?

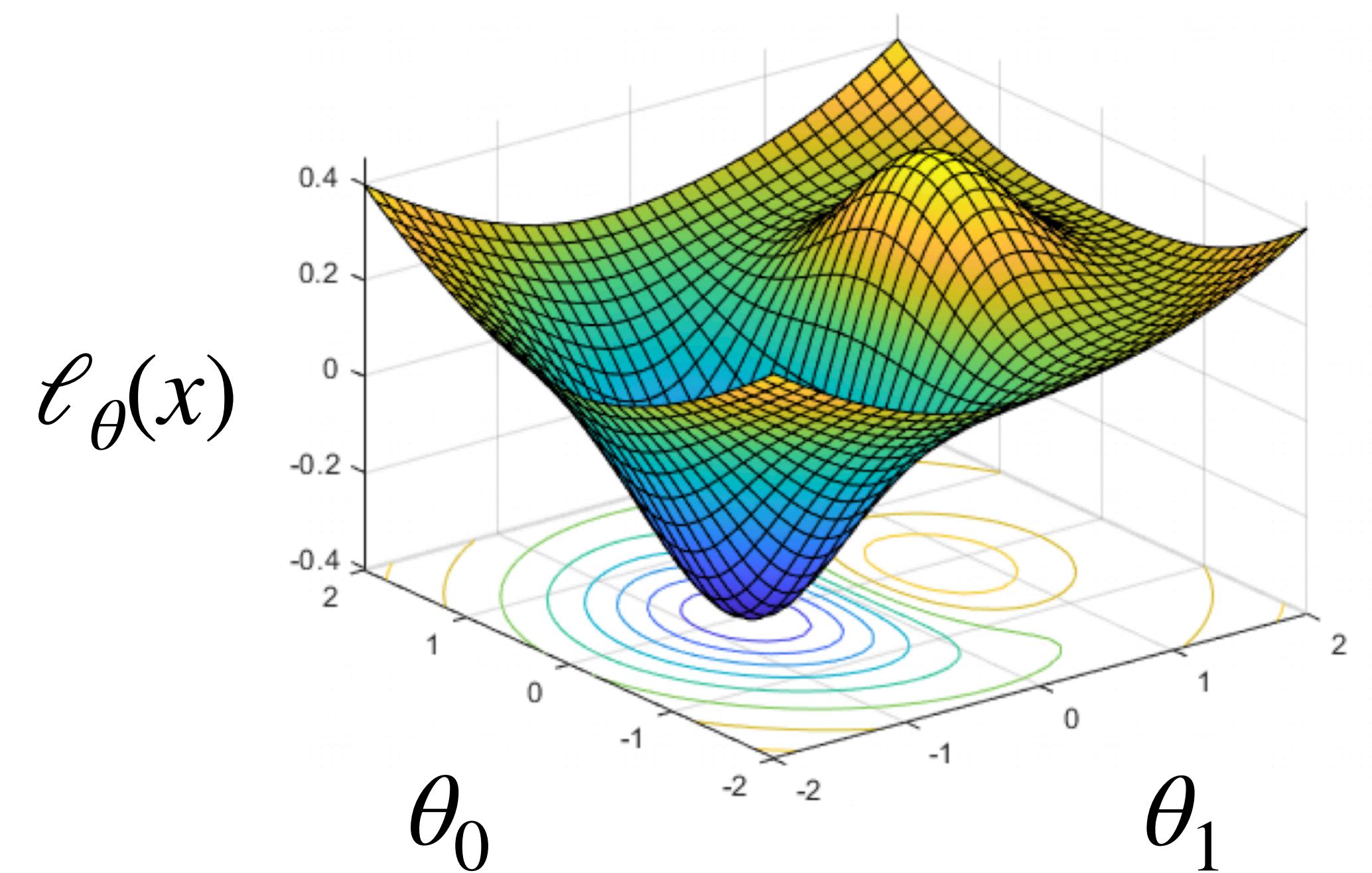
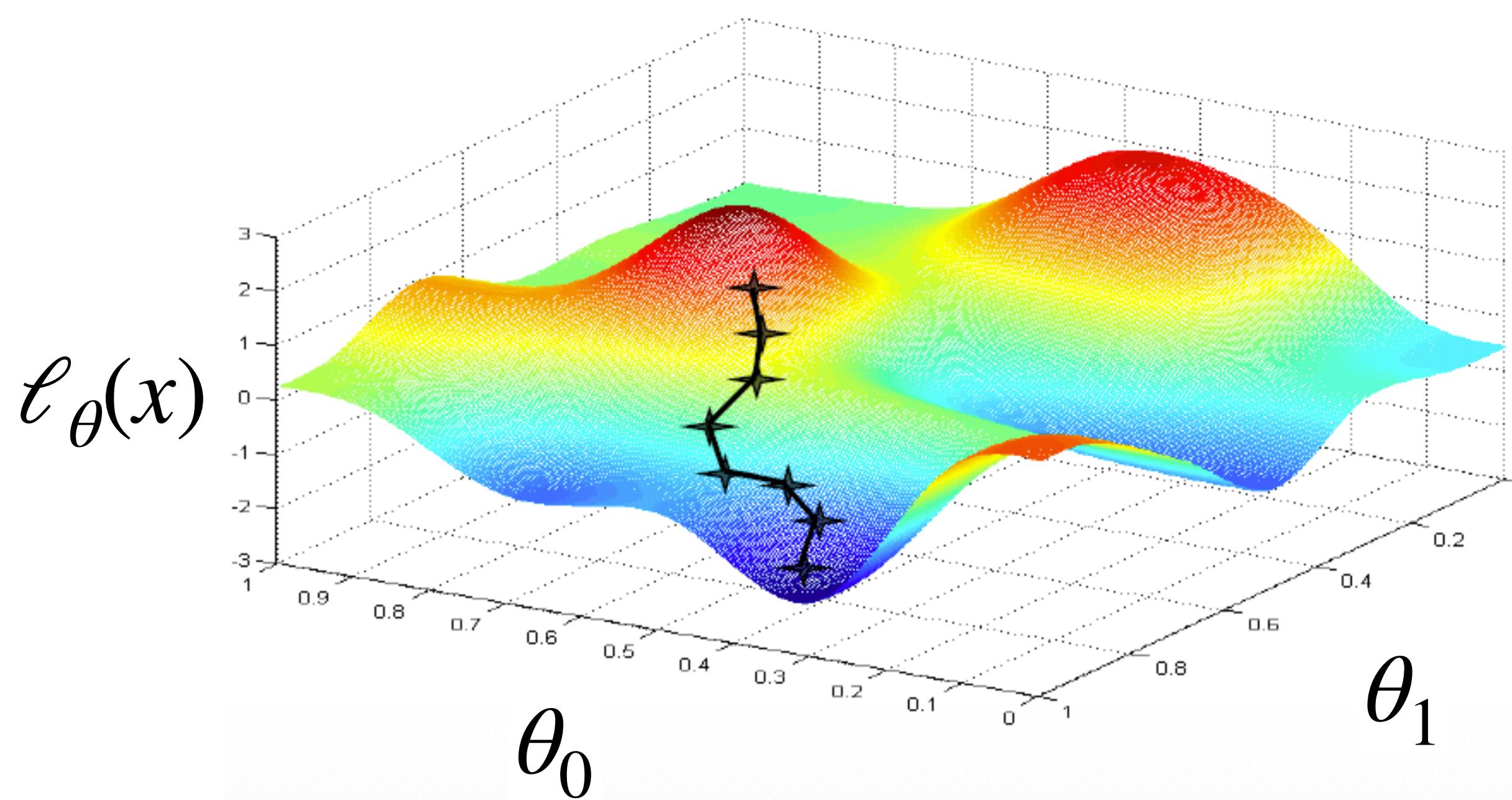
$-\nabla \ell(\bullet)$  points in direction of steepest **descent**



In the plot above, you have a **single** parameter  $\theta$

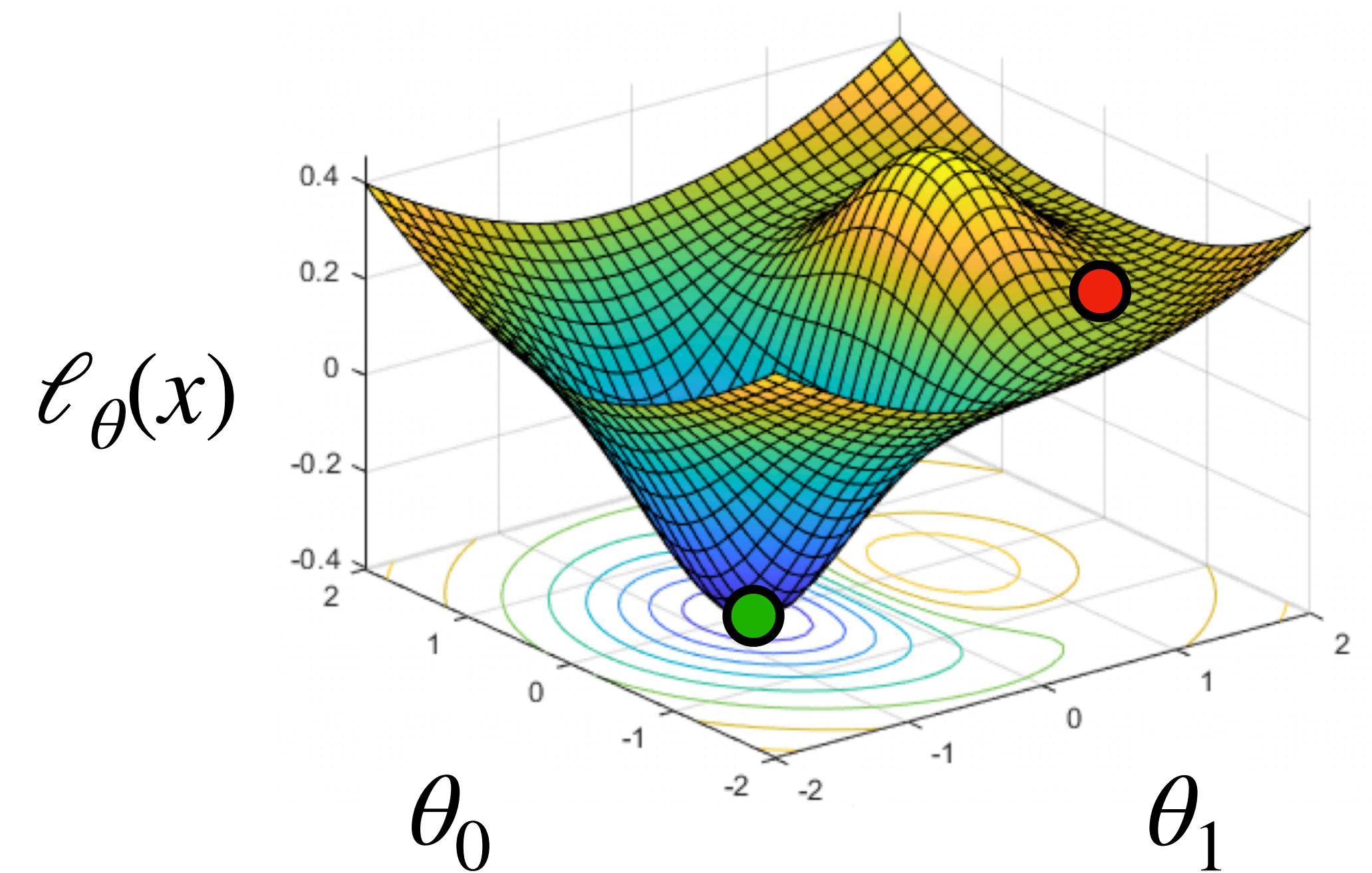
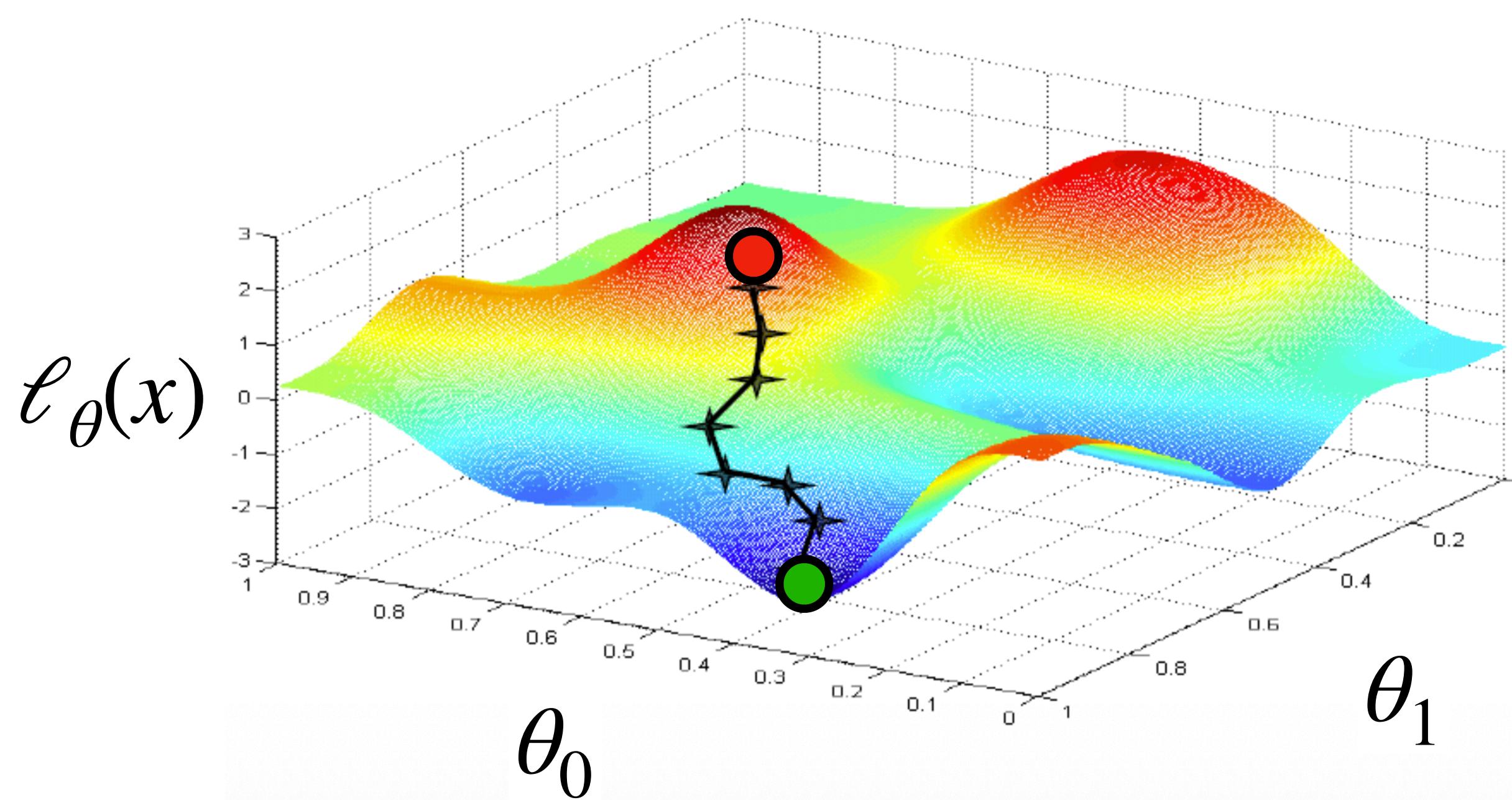
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- What does the loss landscape look like with multiple learnable parameters?



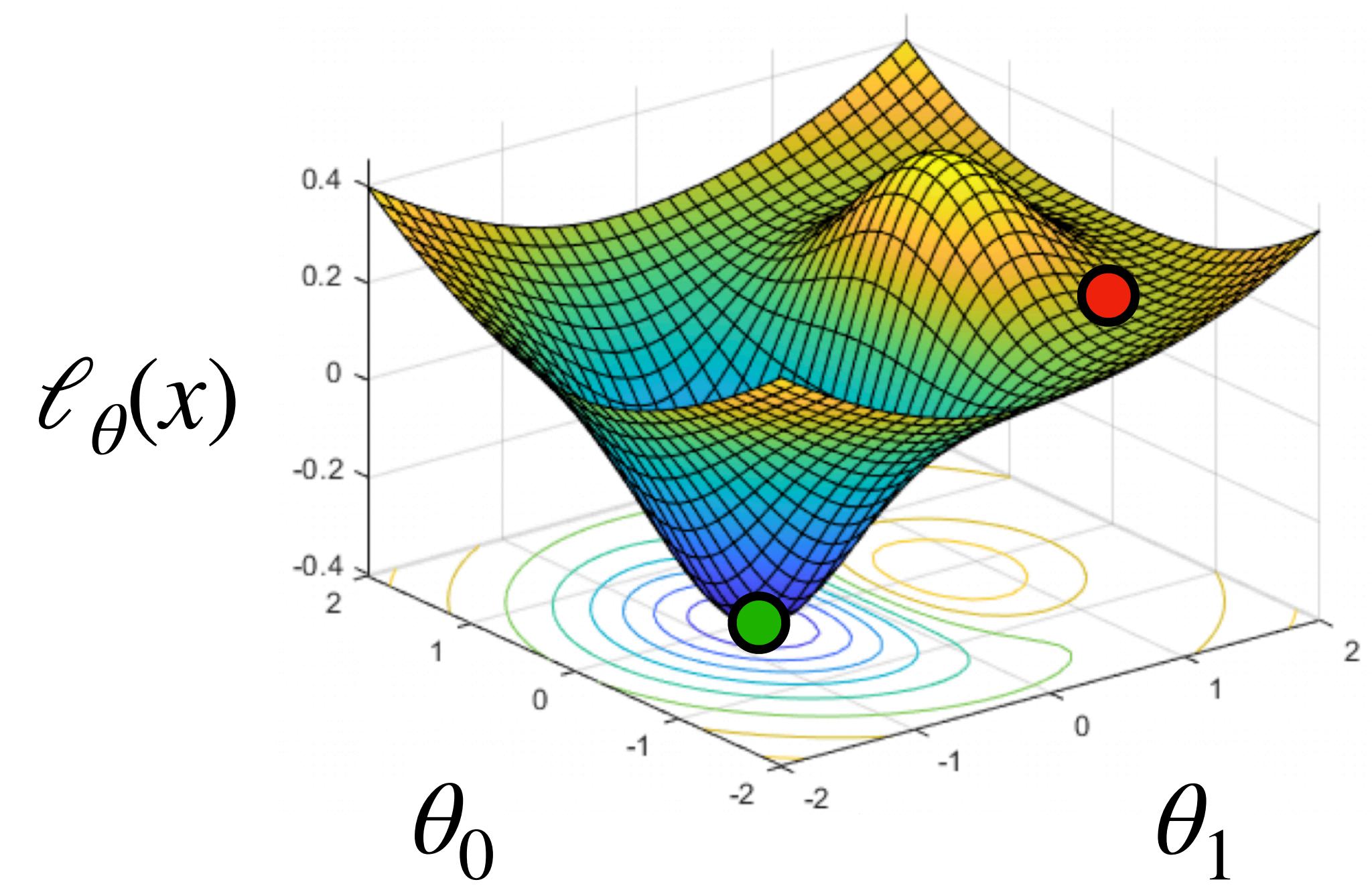
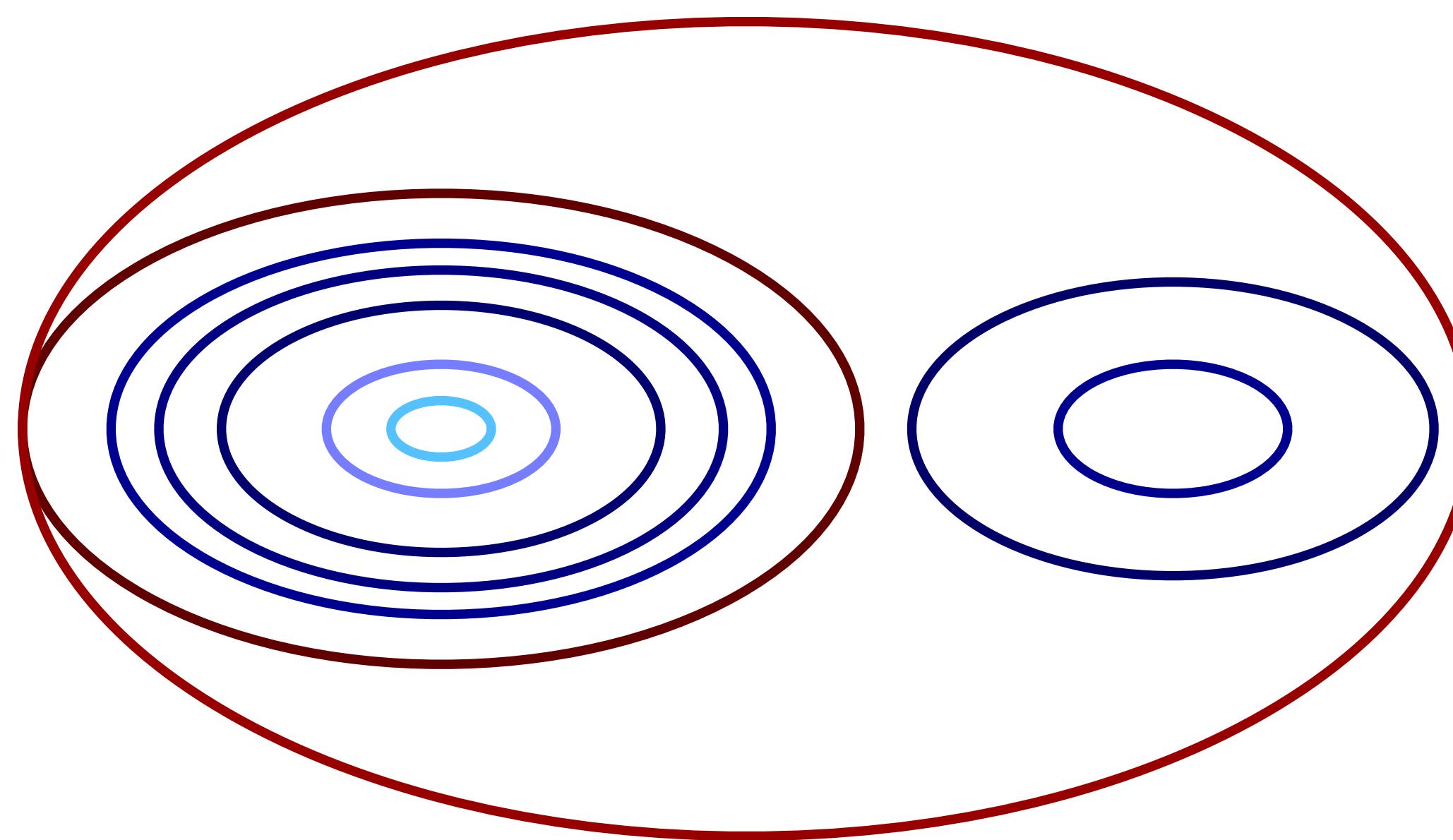
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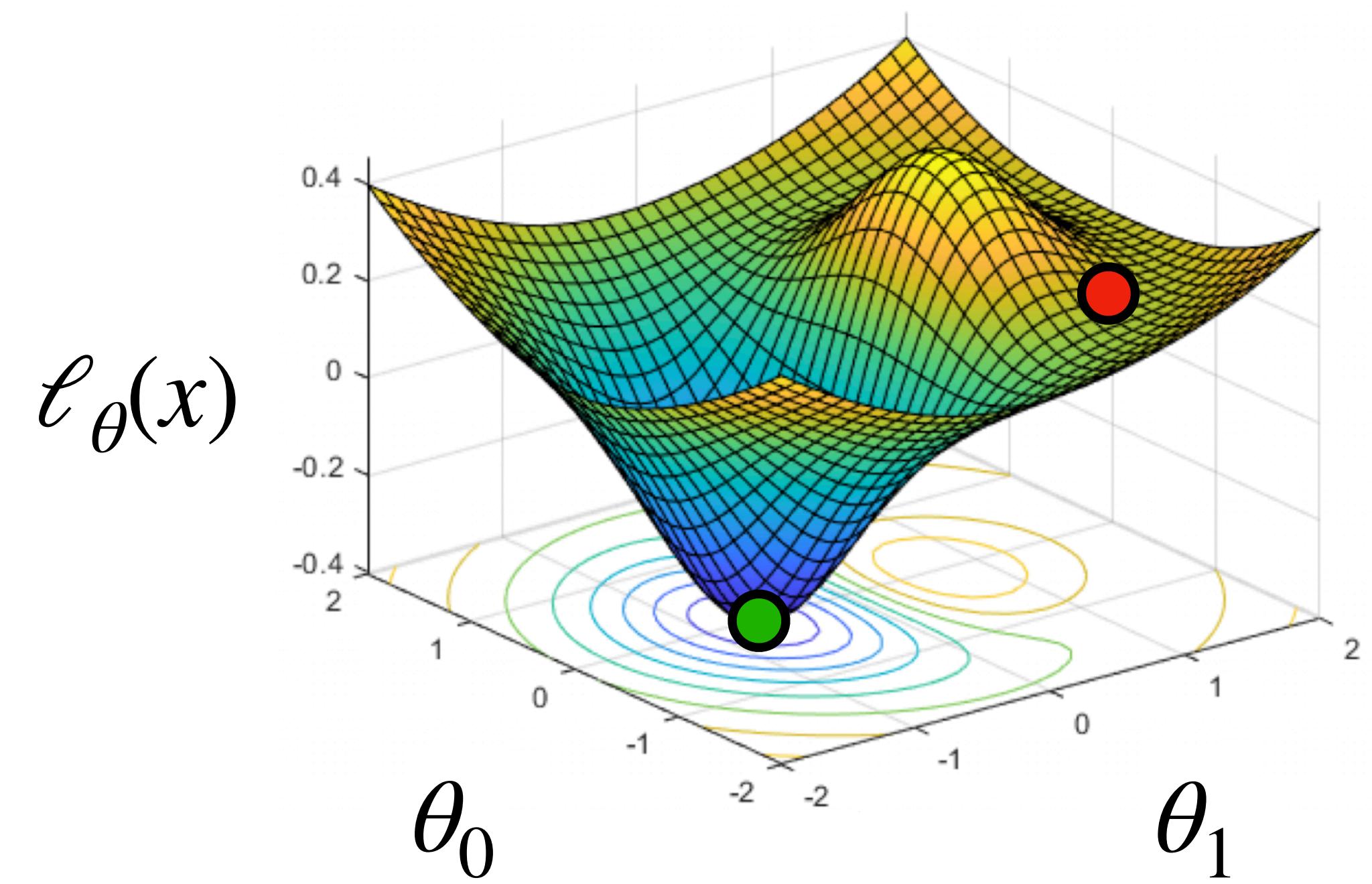
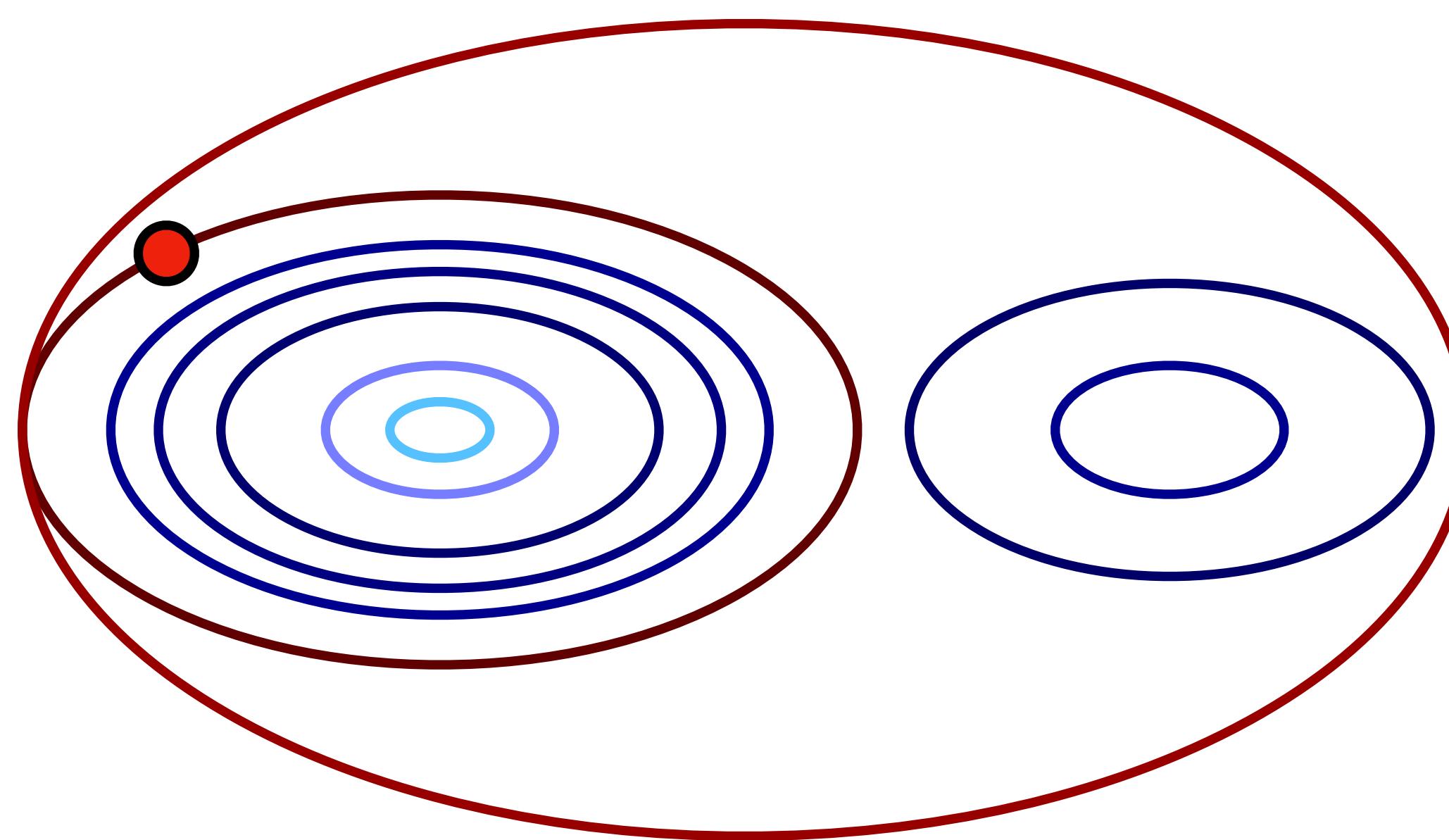
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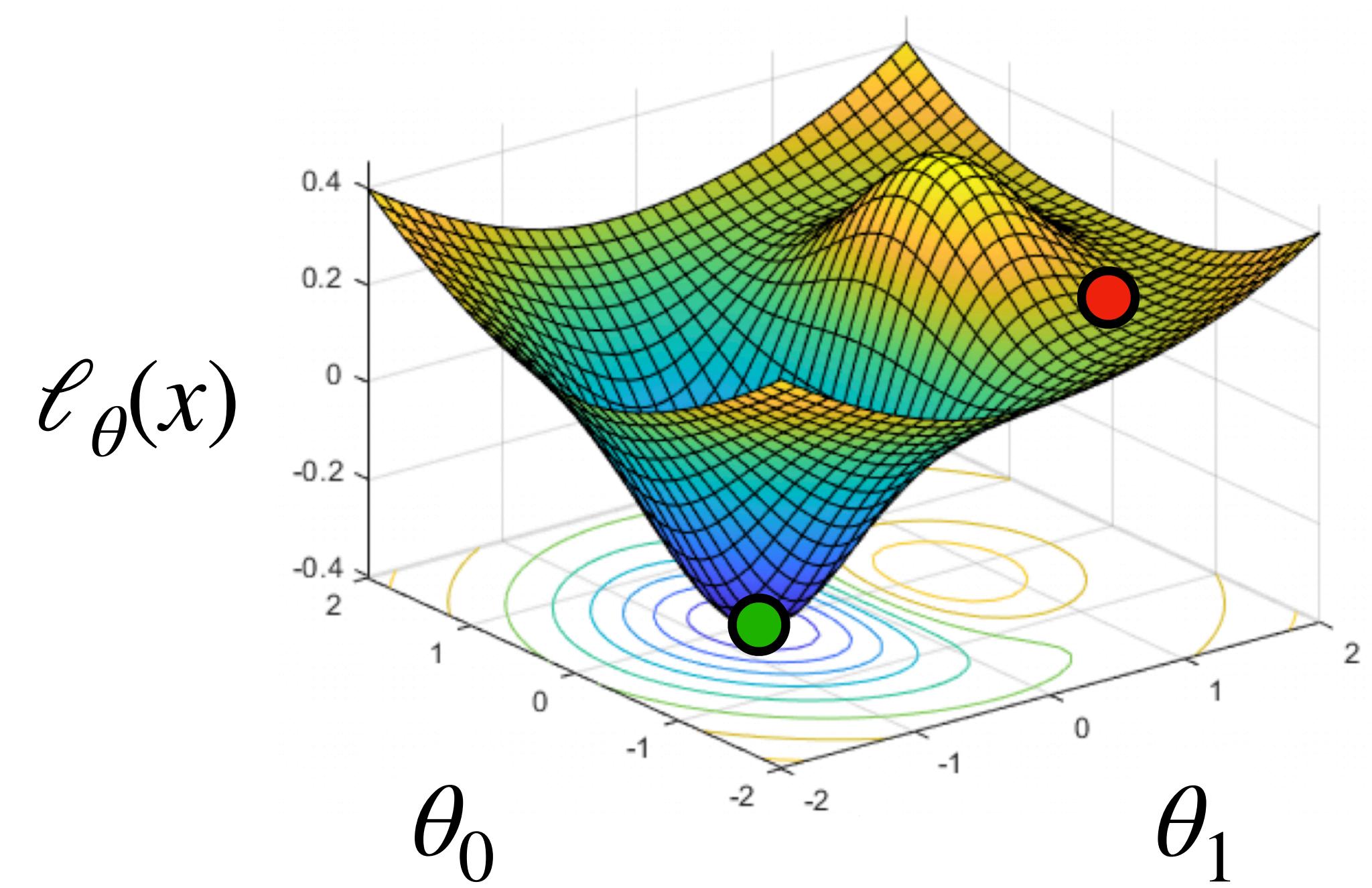
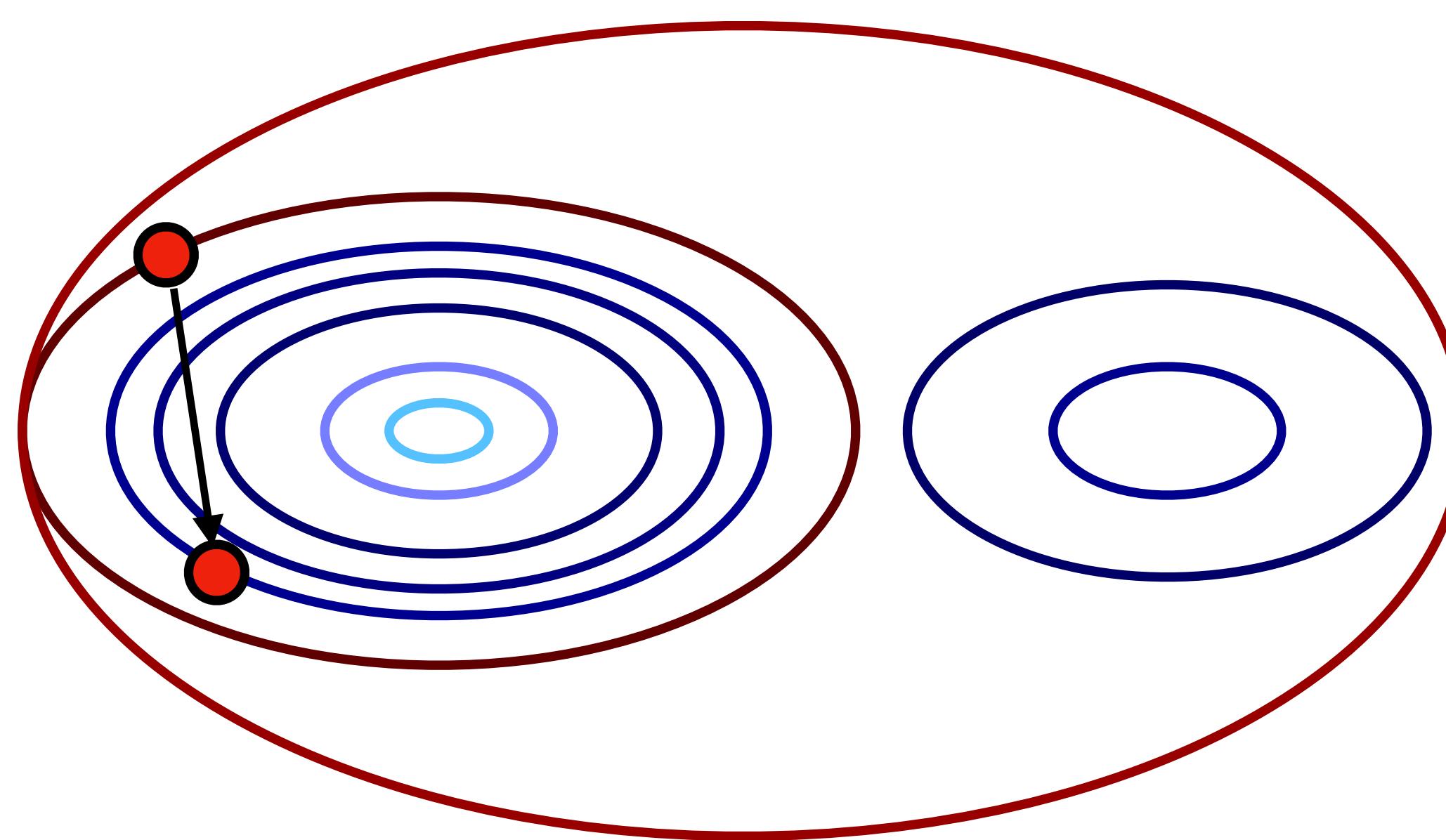
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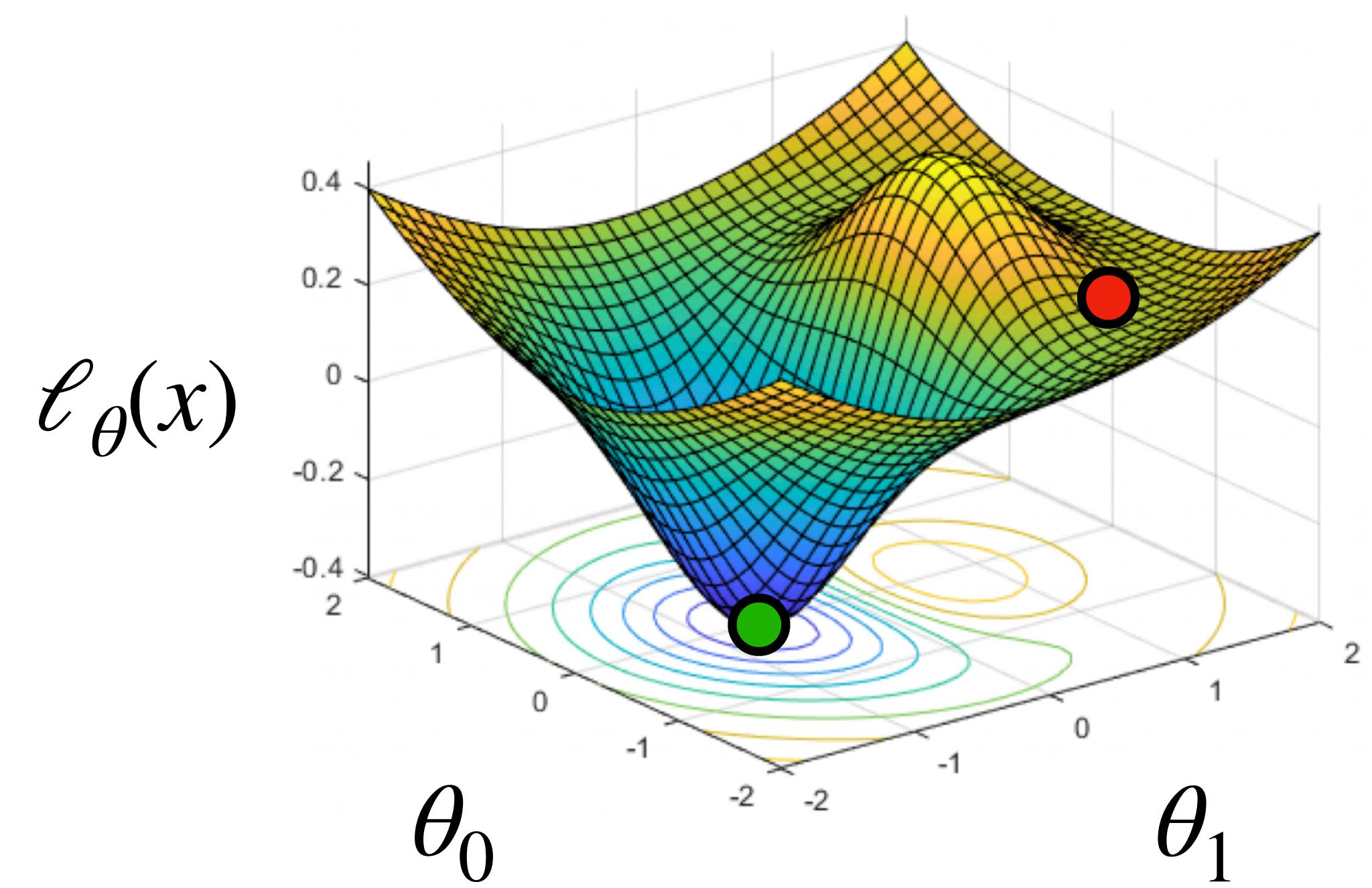
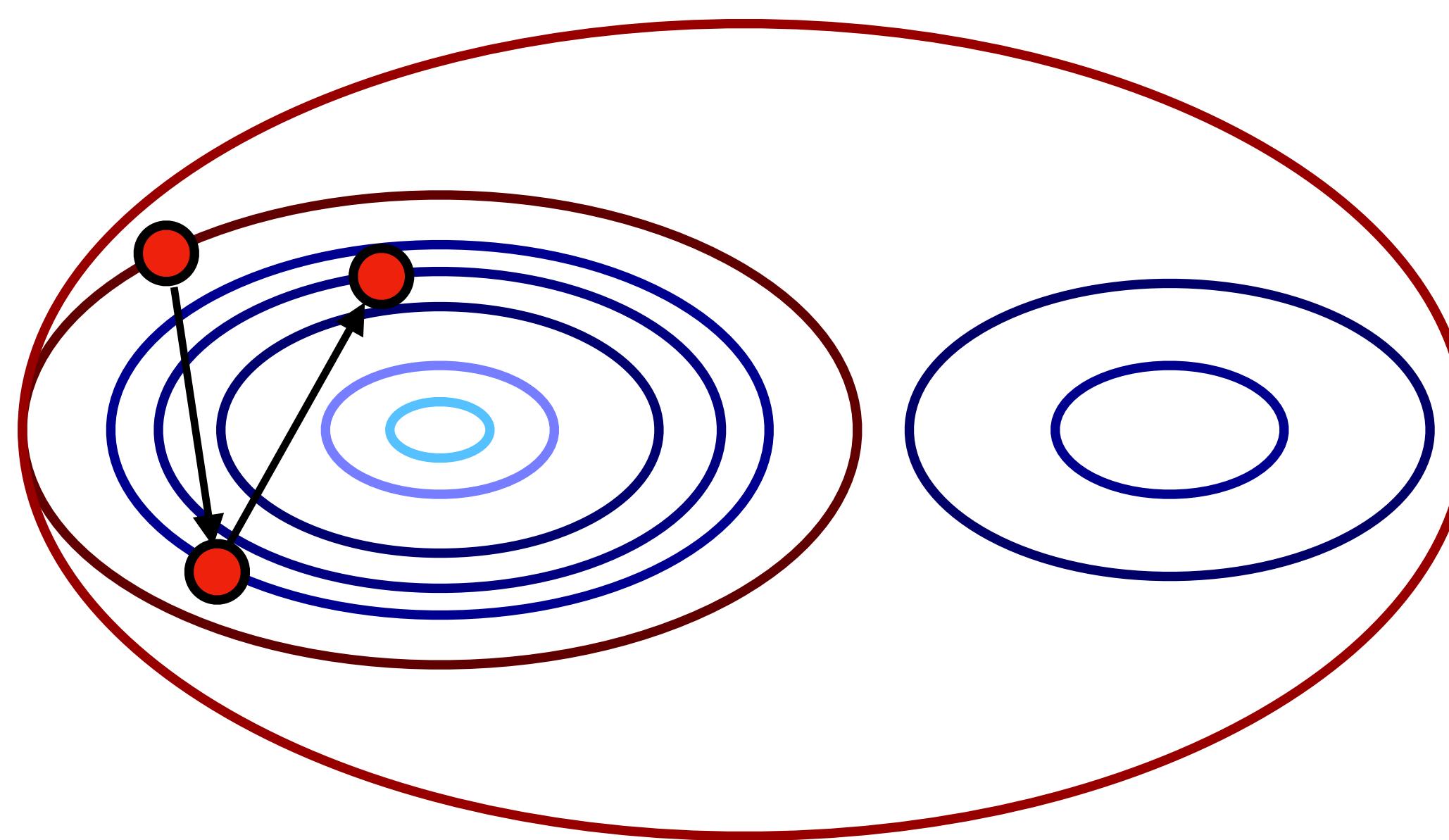
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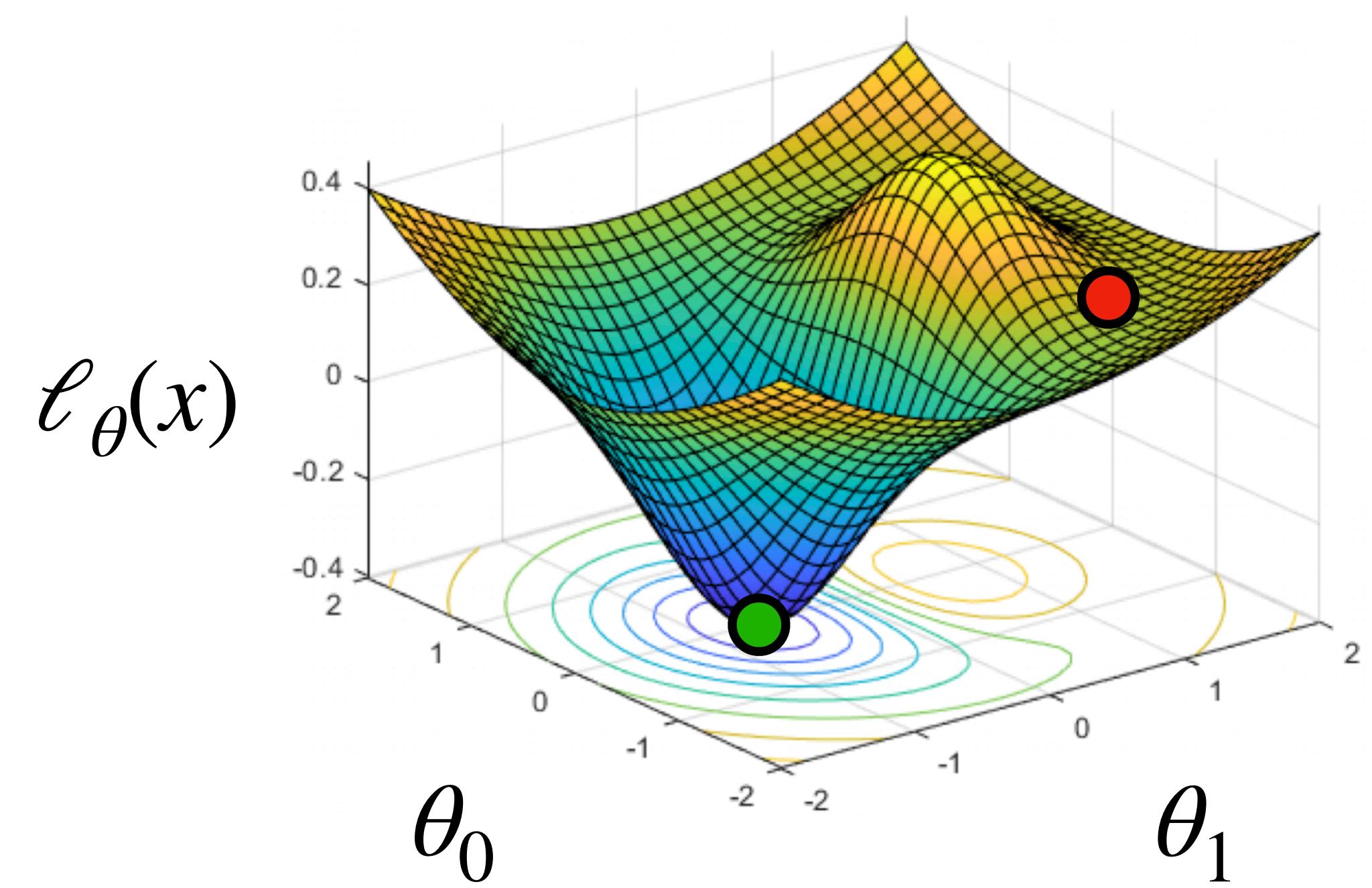
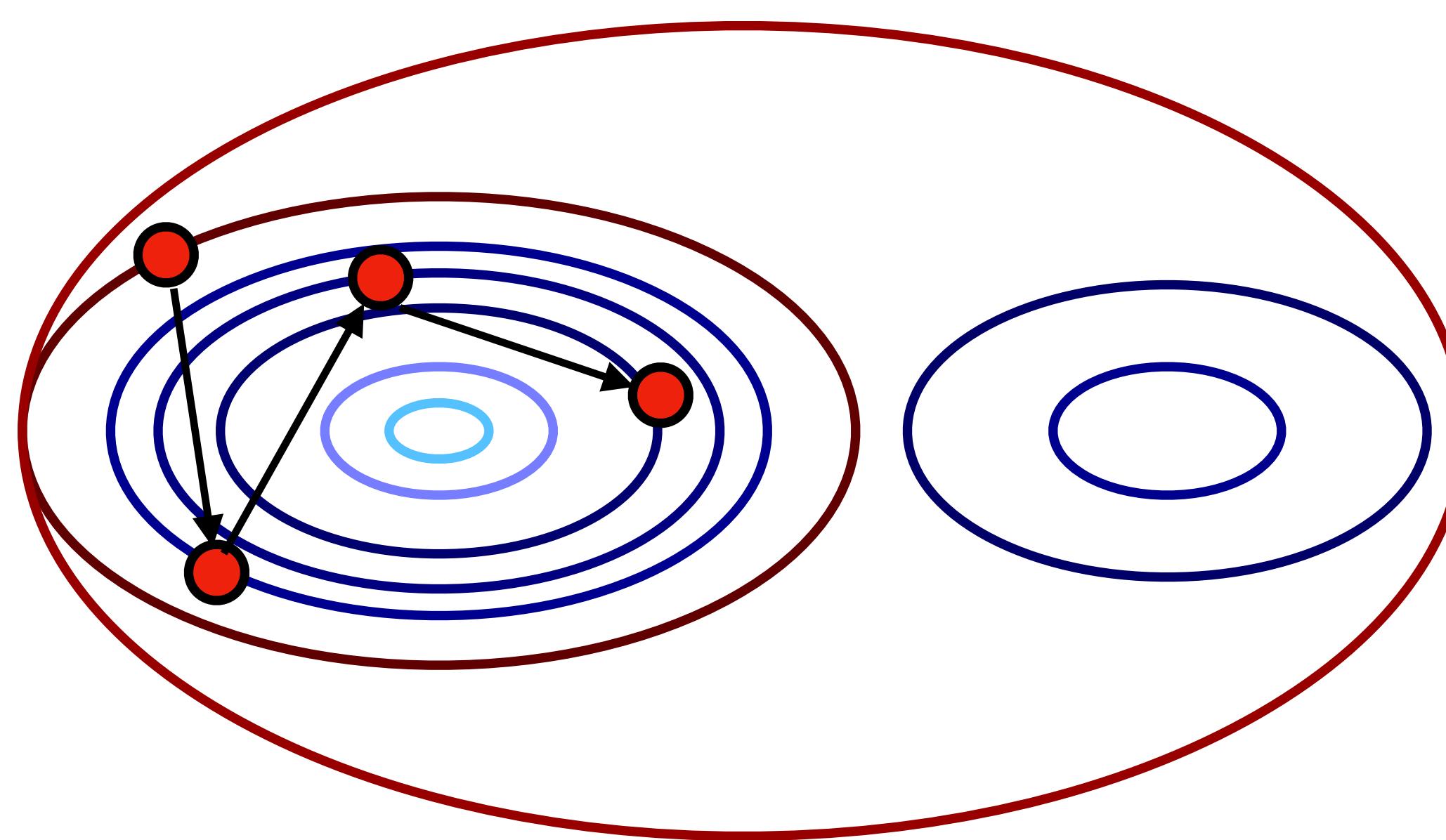
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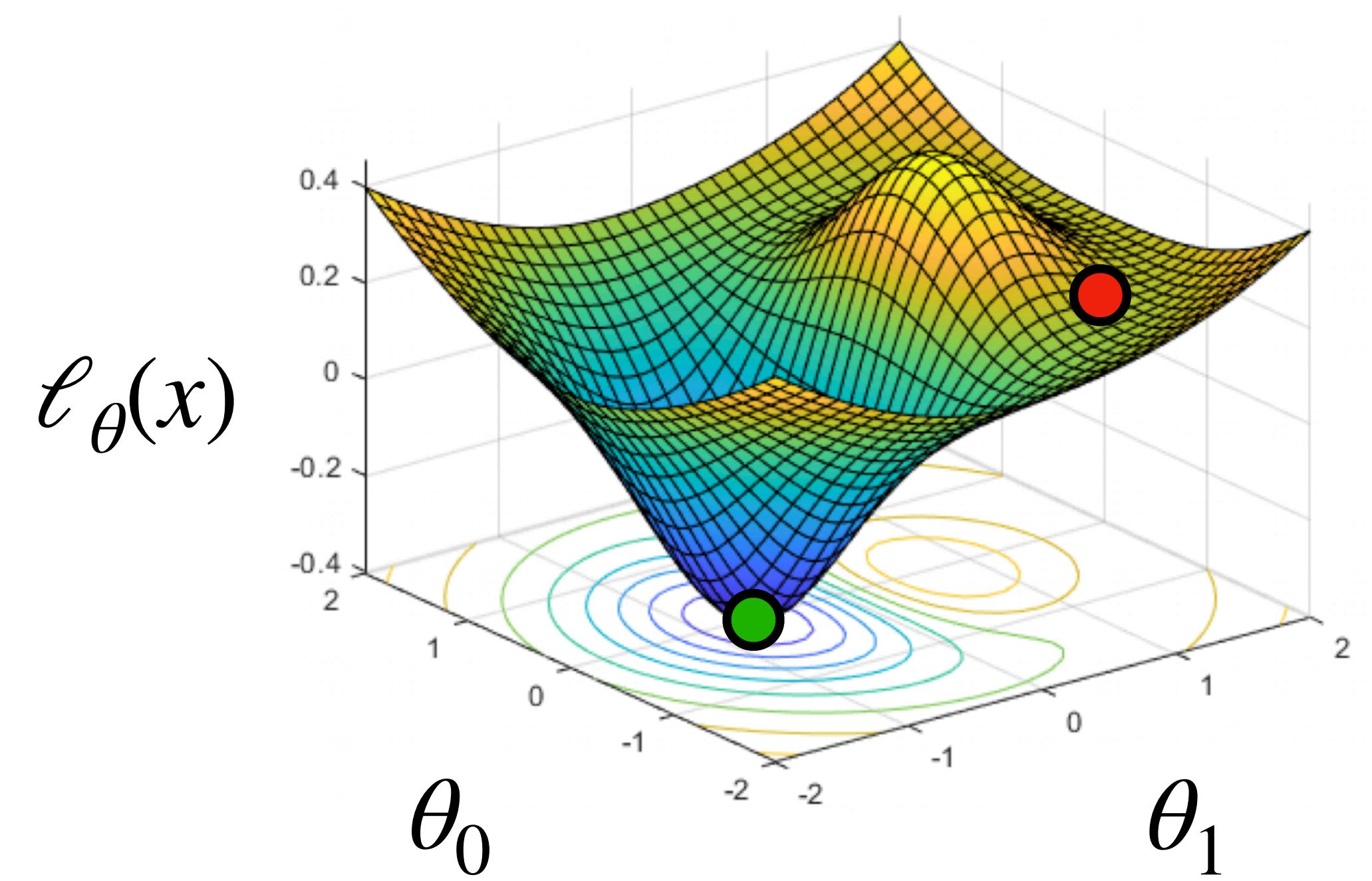
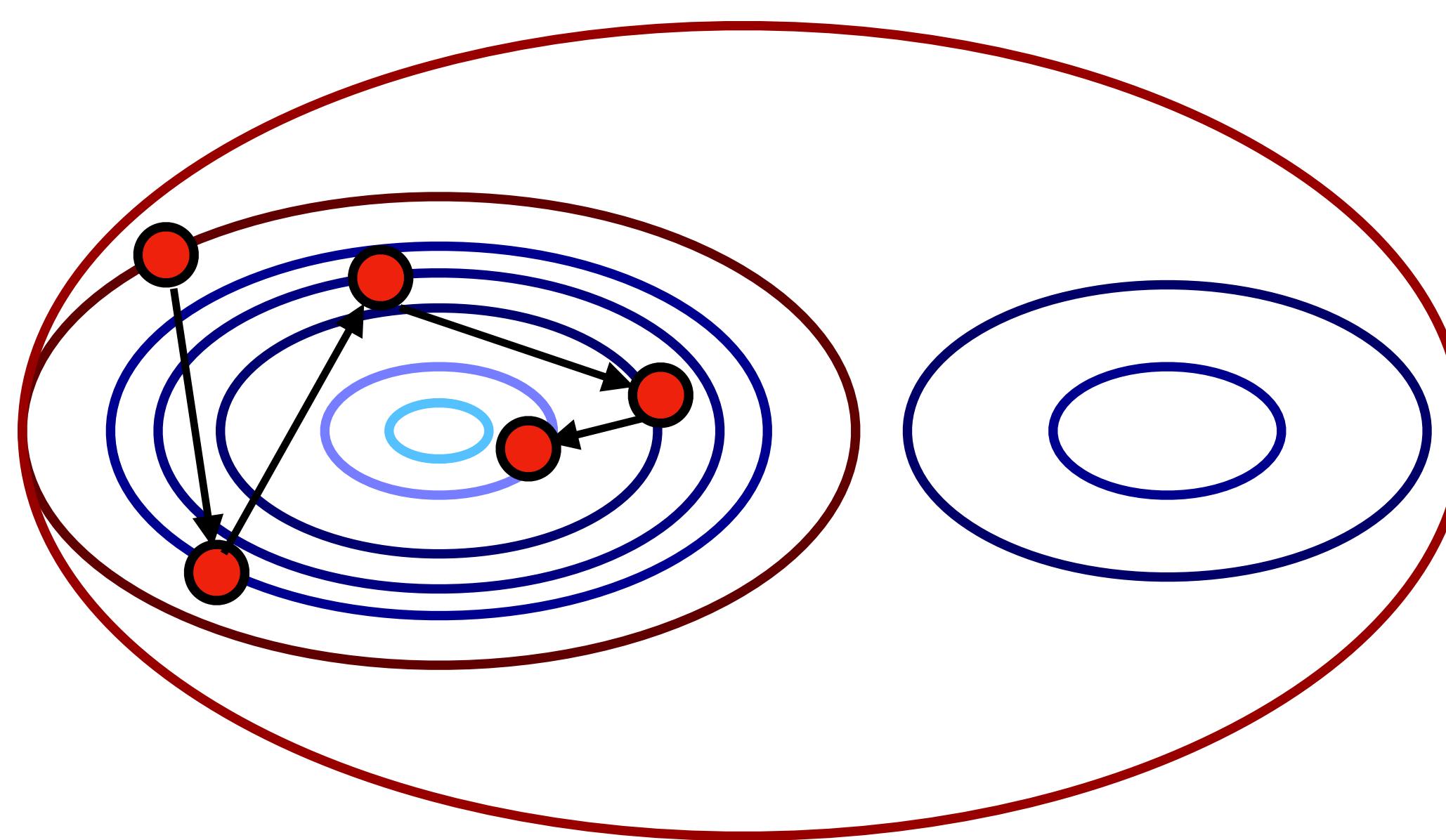
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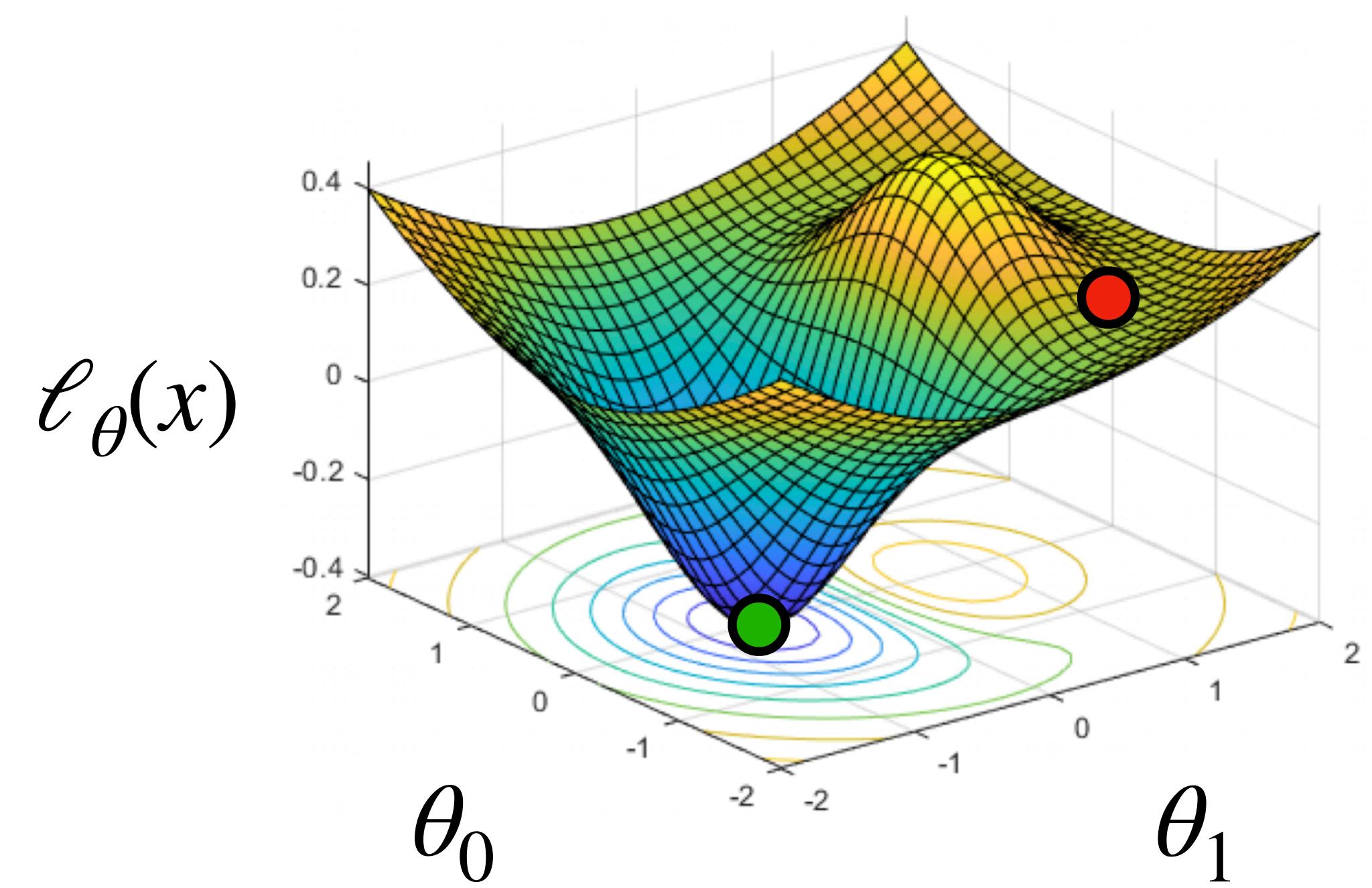
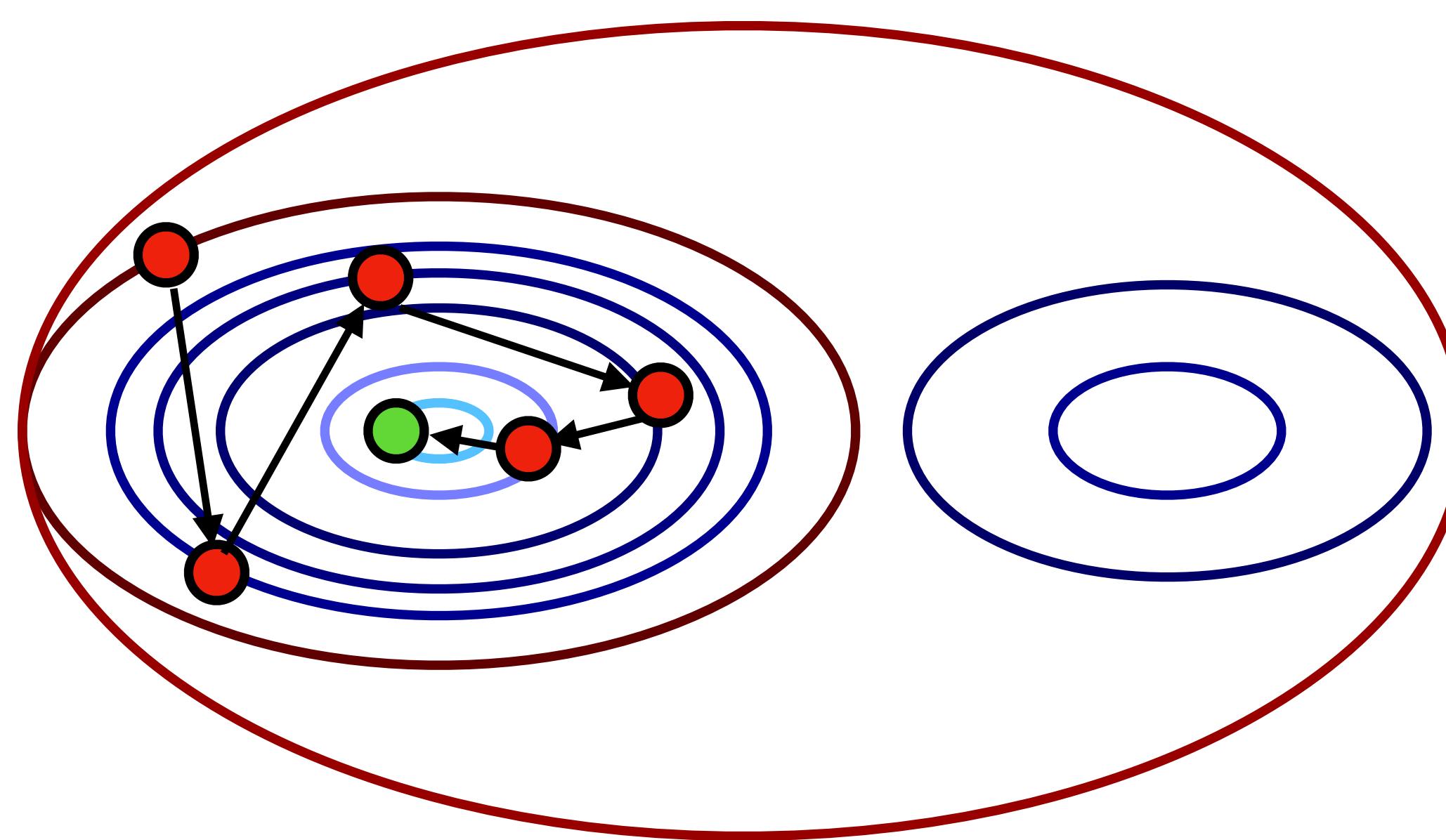
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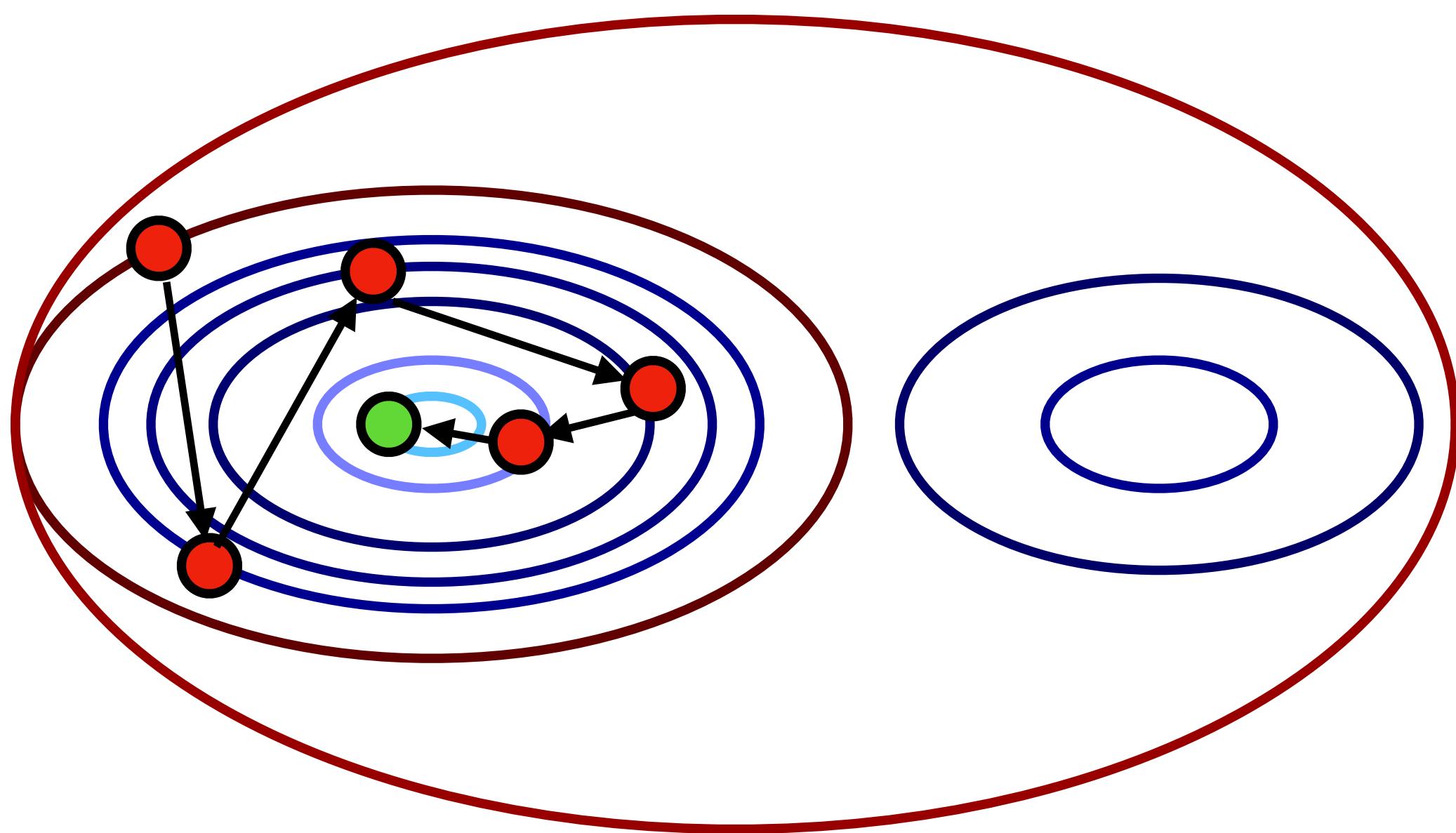
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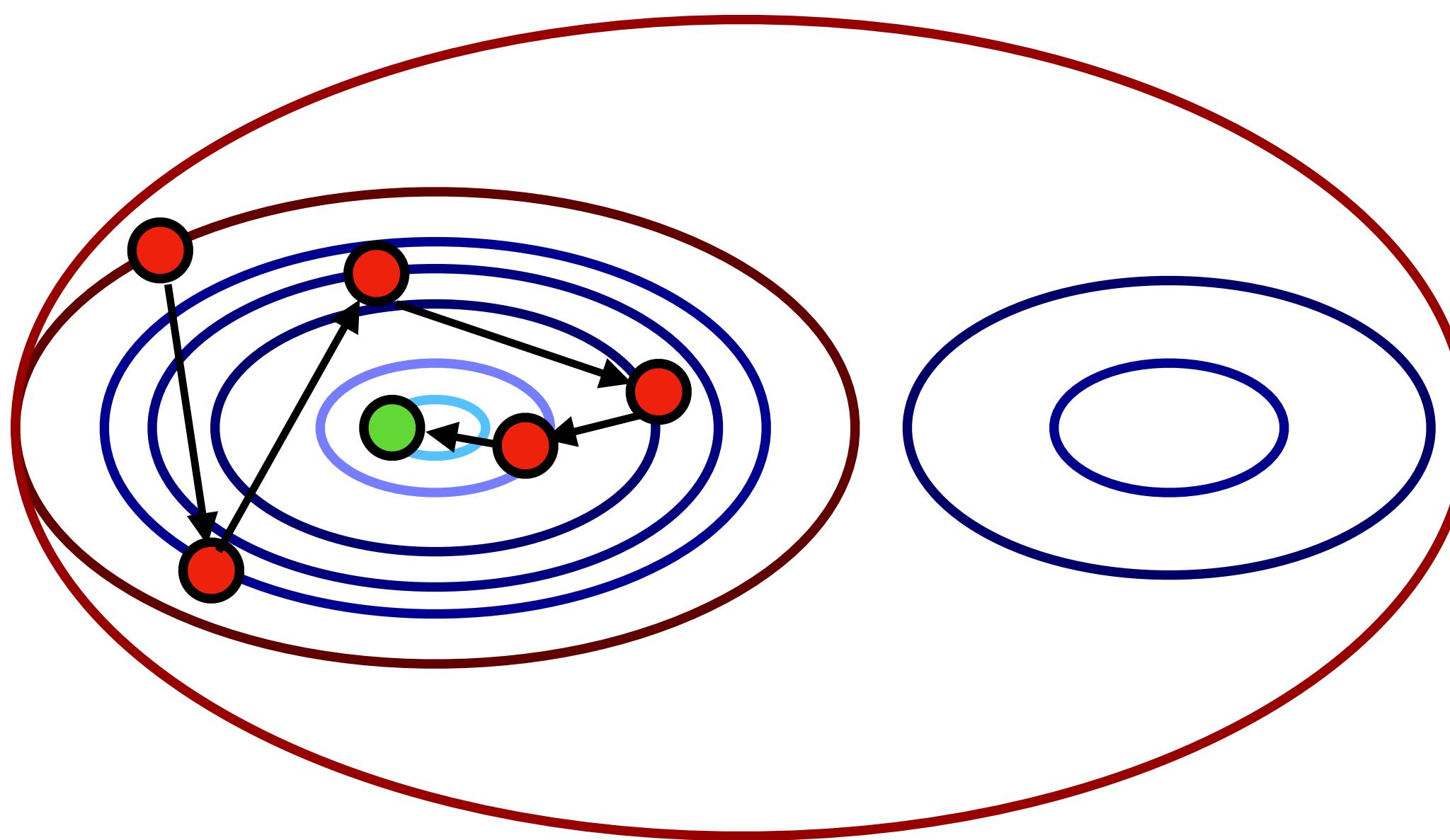
## Gradient Descent - Formulation



$$\ell_{\theta}(x) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_i (y_i - \theta_0 - \theta_1 x_i)^2$$

# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Formulation

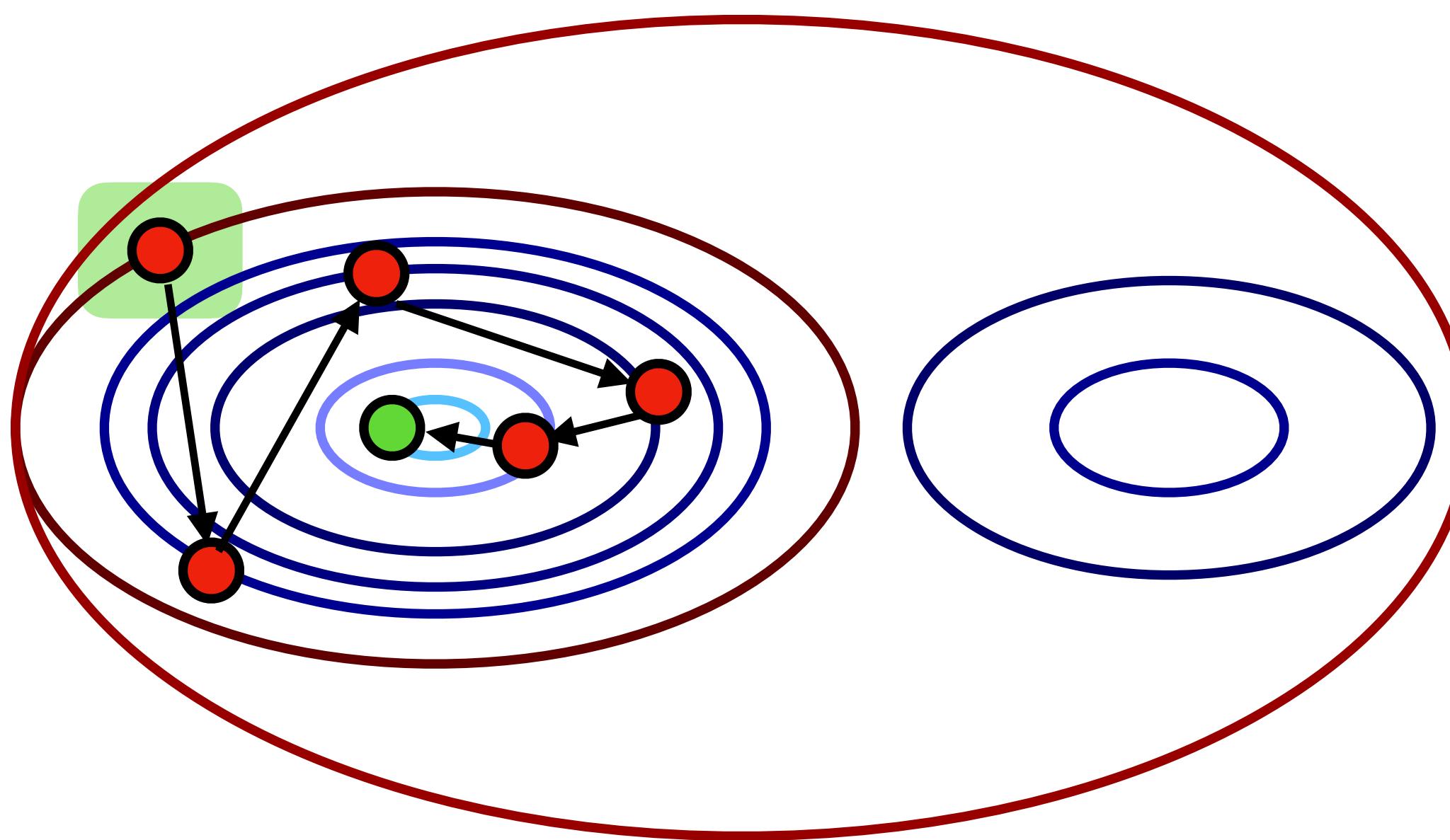


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**Step 1:** Initialize  $\theta_0, \theta_1$

# Optimizing Loss Functions

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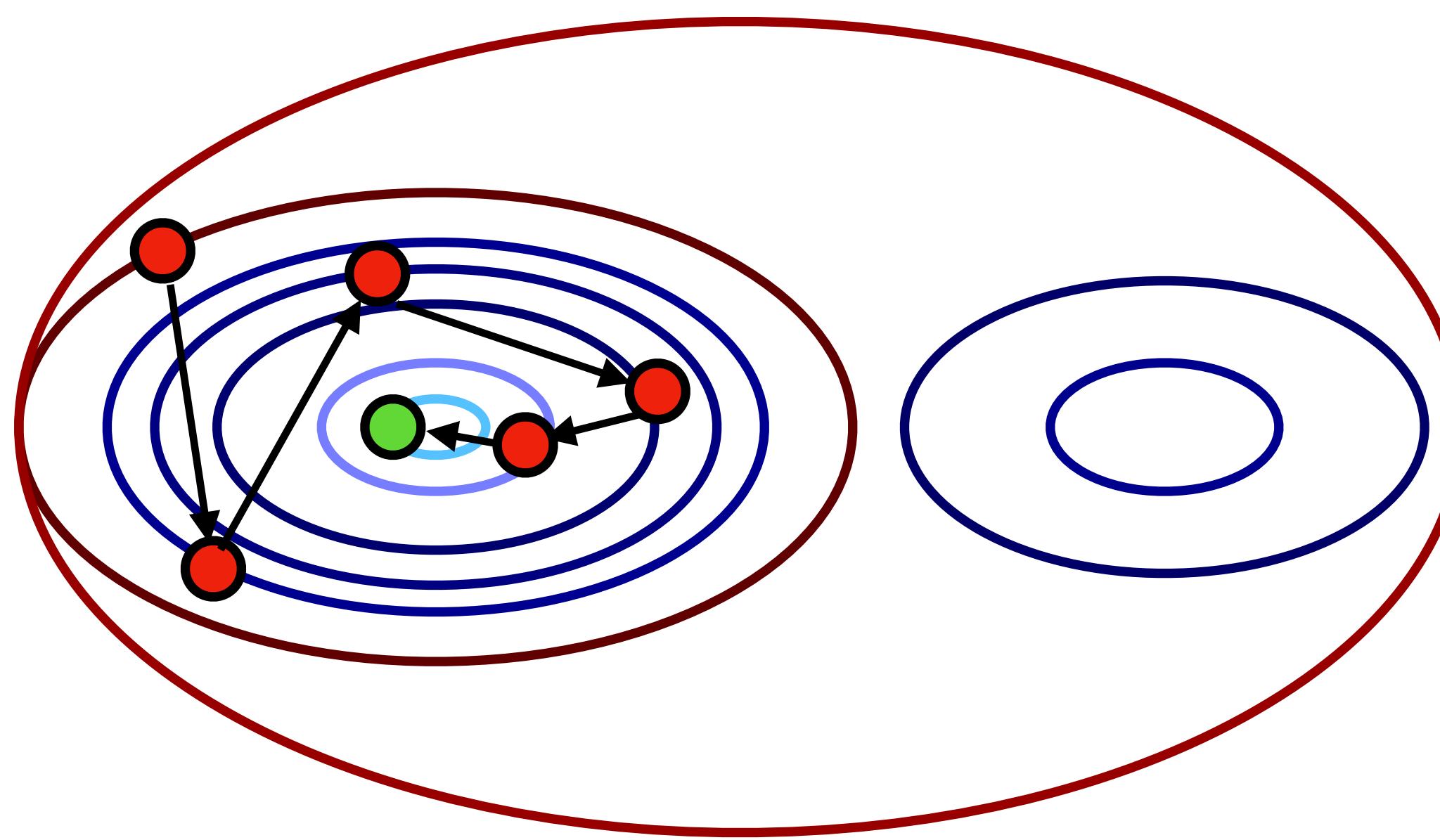
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This is going to be your “starting point” on the loss landscape

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## Gradient Descent - Formulation



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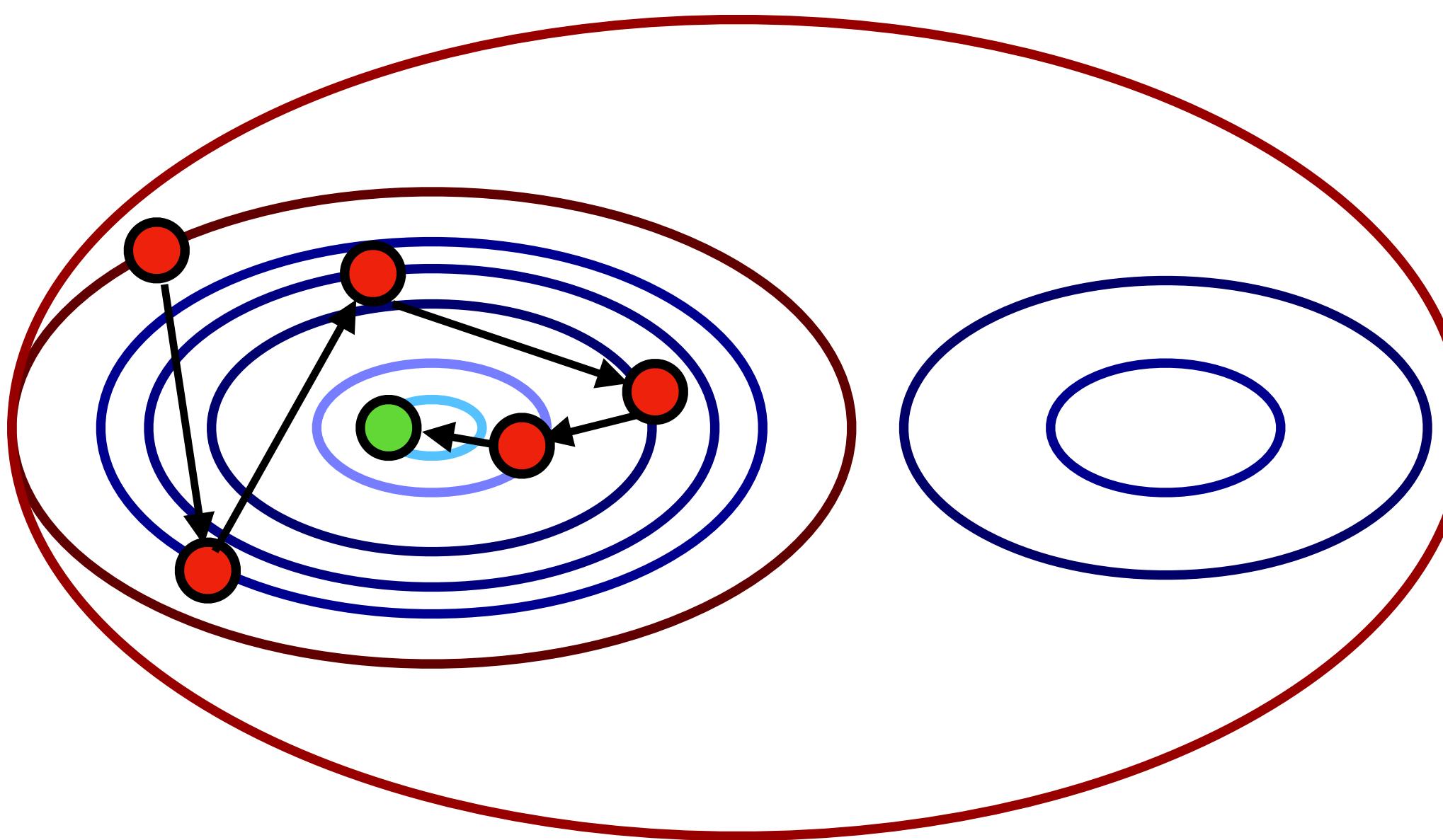
**Step 1:** Initialize  $\theta_0, \theta_1$

**Step 2:** Repeat Until Convergence

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j - \alpha \cdot \frac{\partial \ell_{\theta}(x)}{\partial \theta_j}$$

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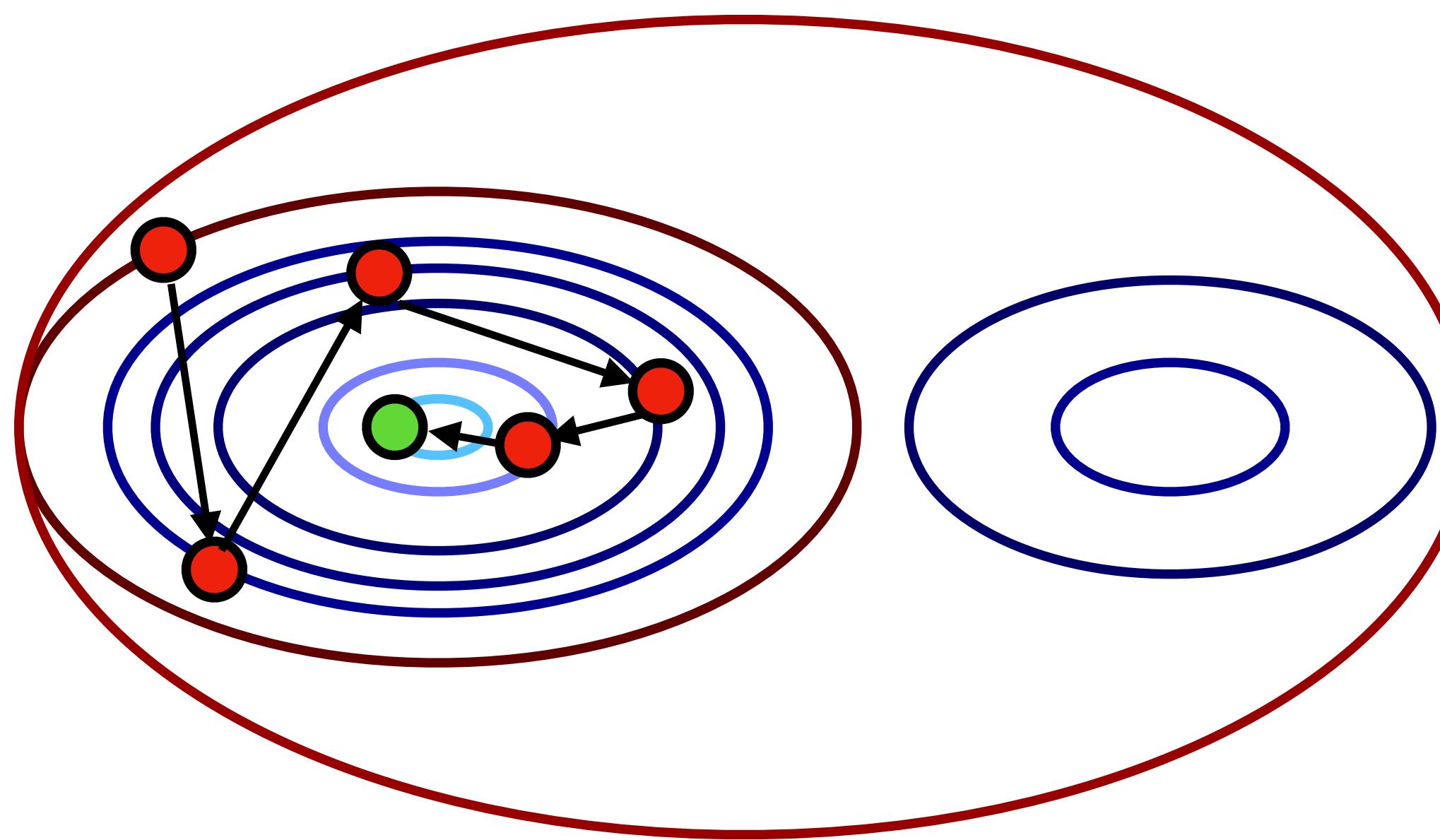
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Negative of partial derivative points  
in the direction of steepest descent

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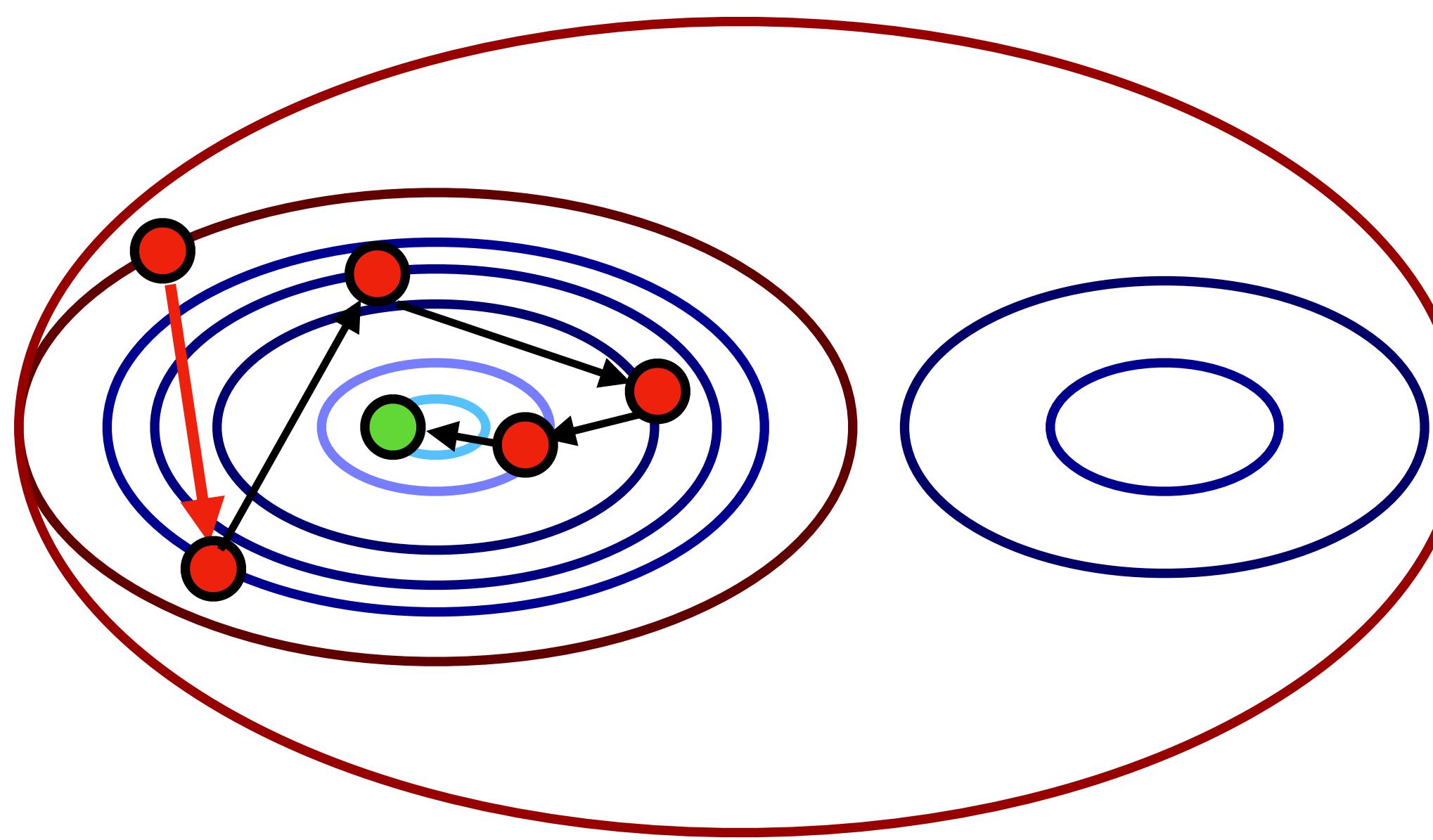
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$\alpha$  : Learning Rate

# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Formulation

$\alpha$  controls how big a step to take



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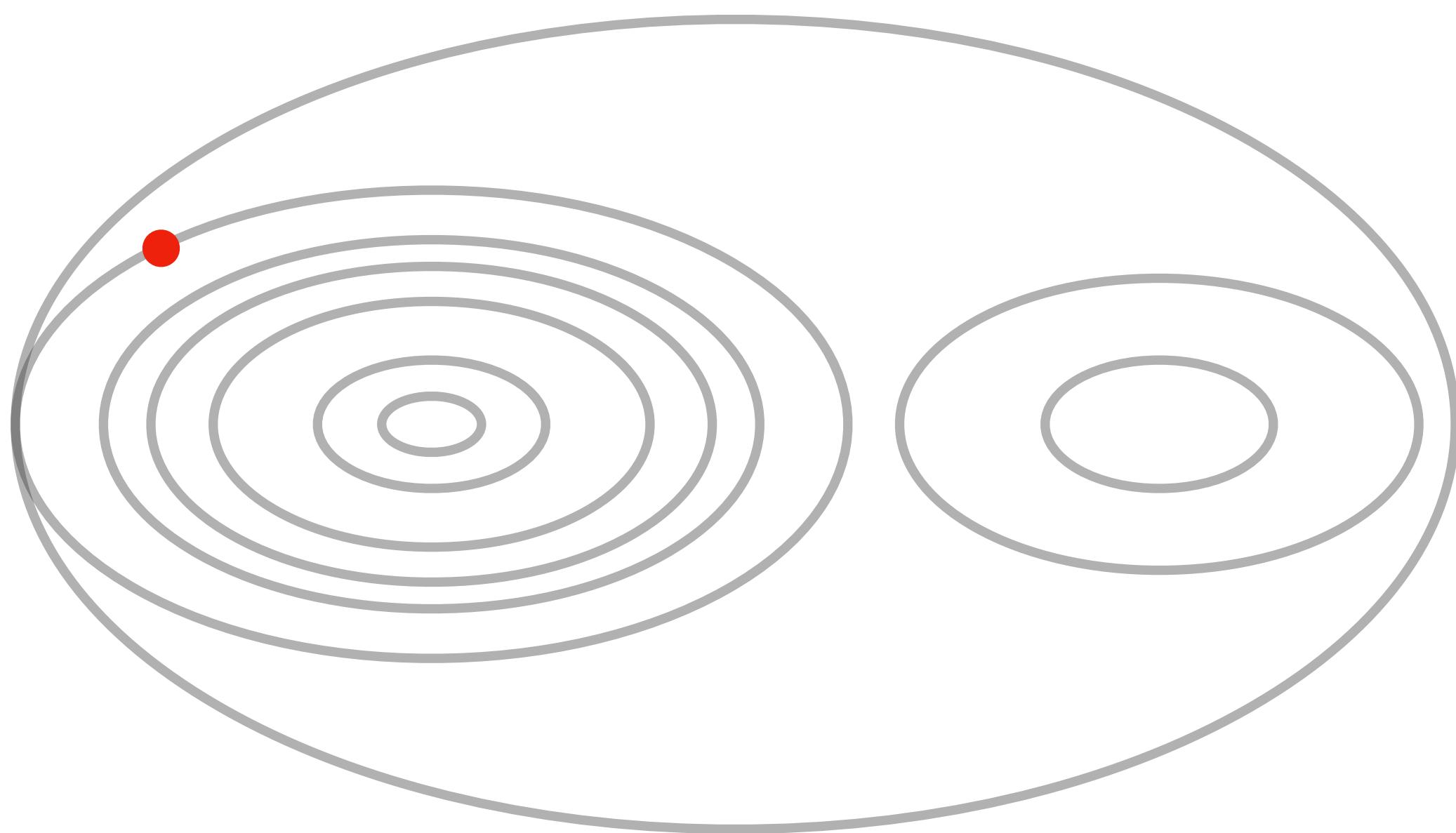
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# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Effect of Learning Rate

What happens when  $\alpha$  is too small?

Say  $\alpha = 10^{-5}$



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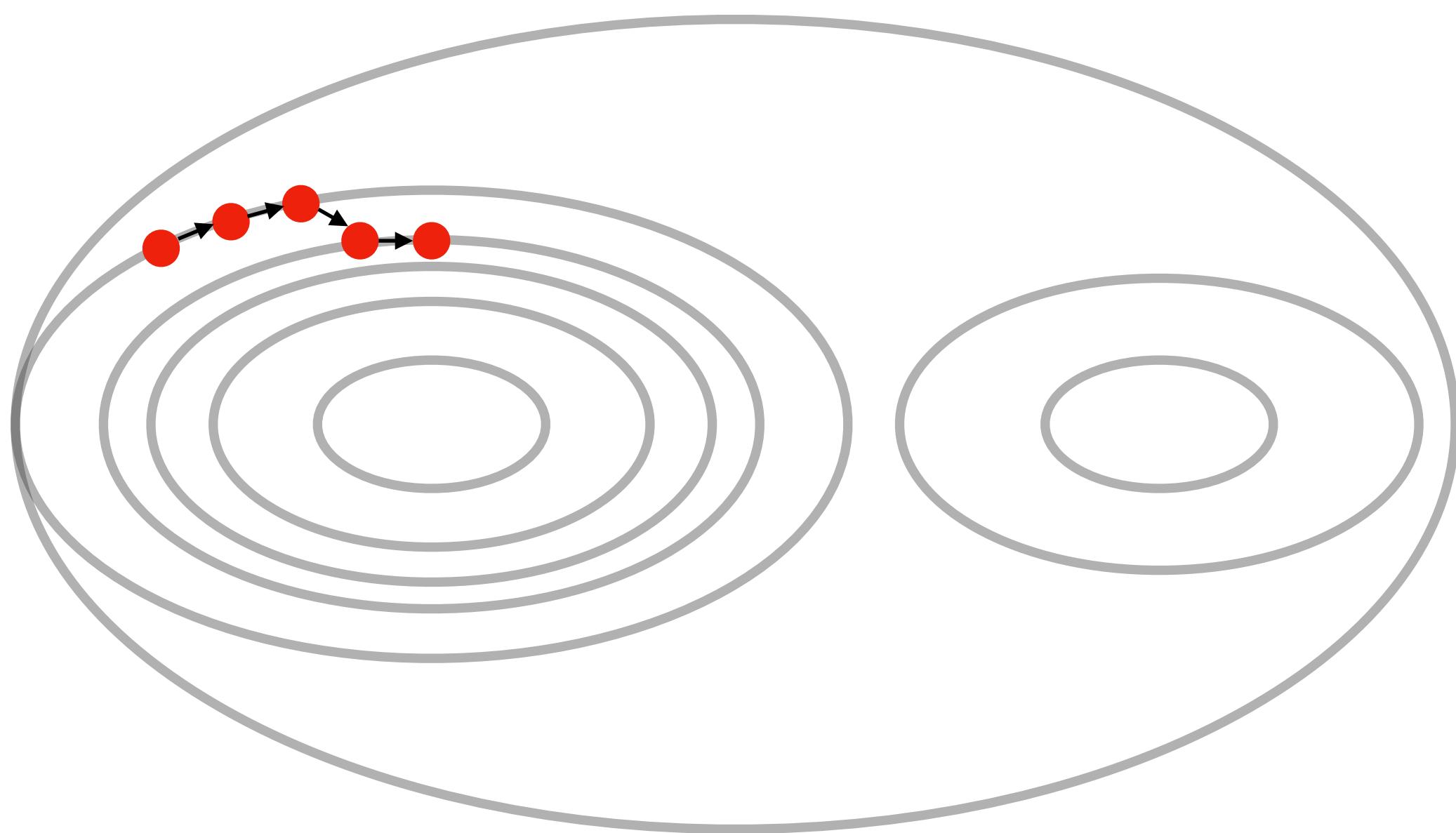
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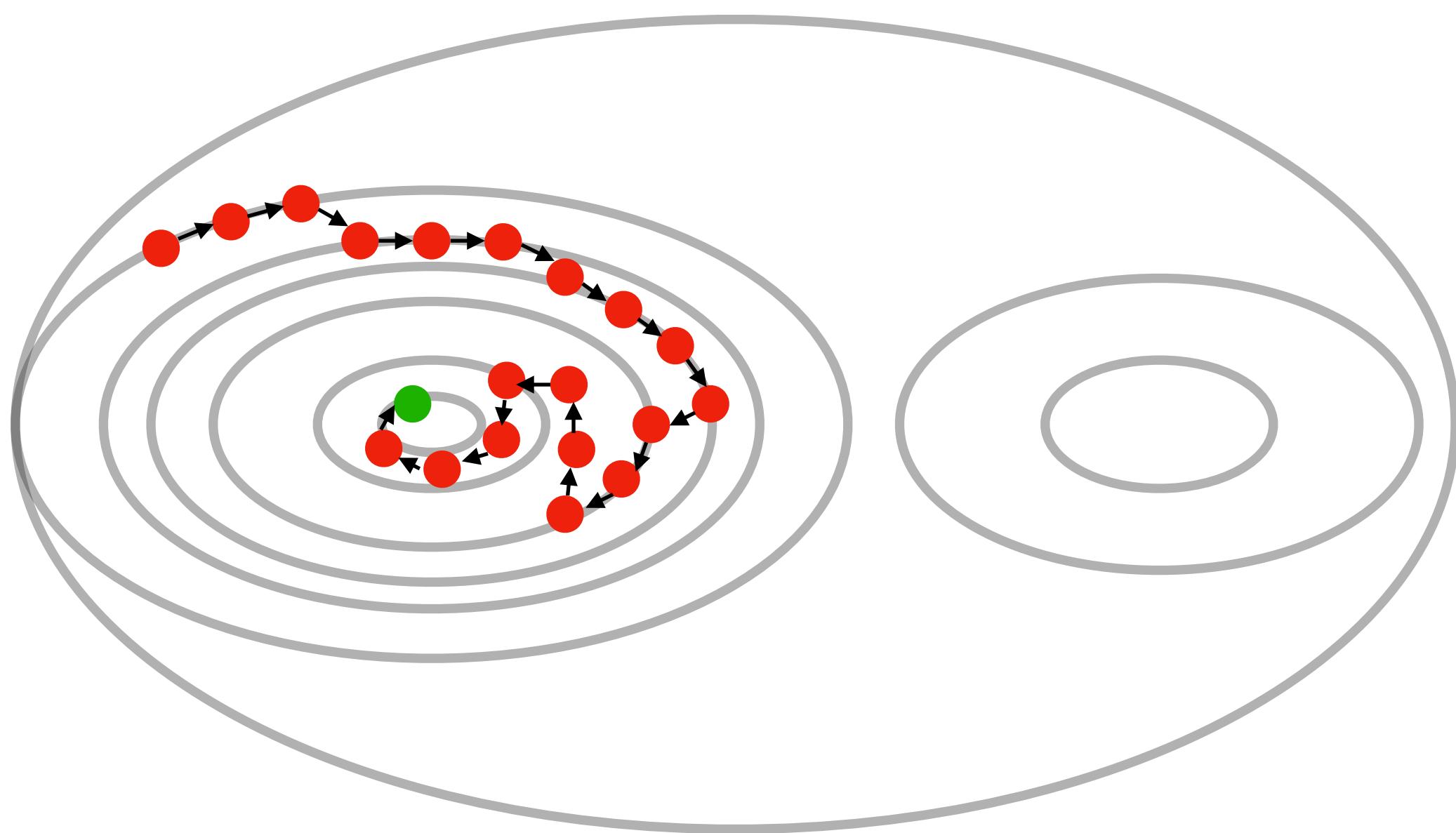
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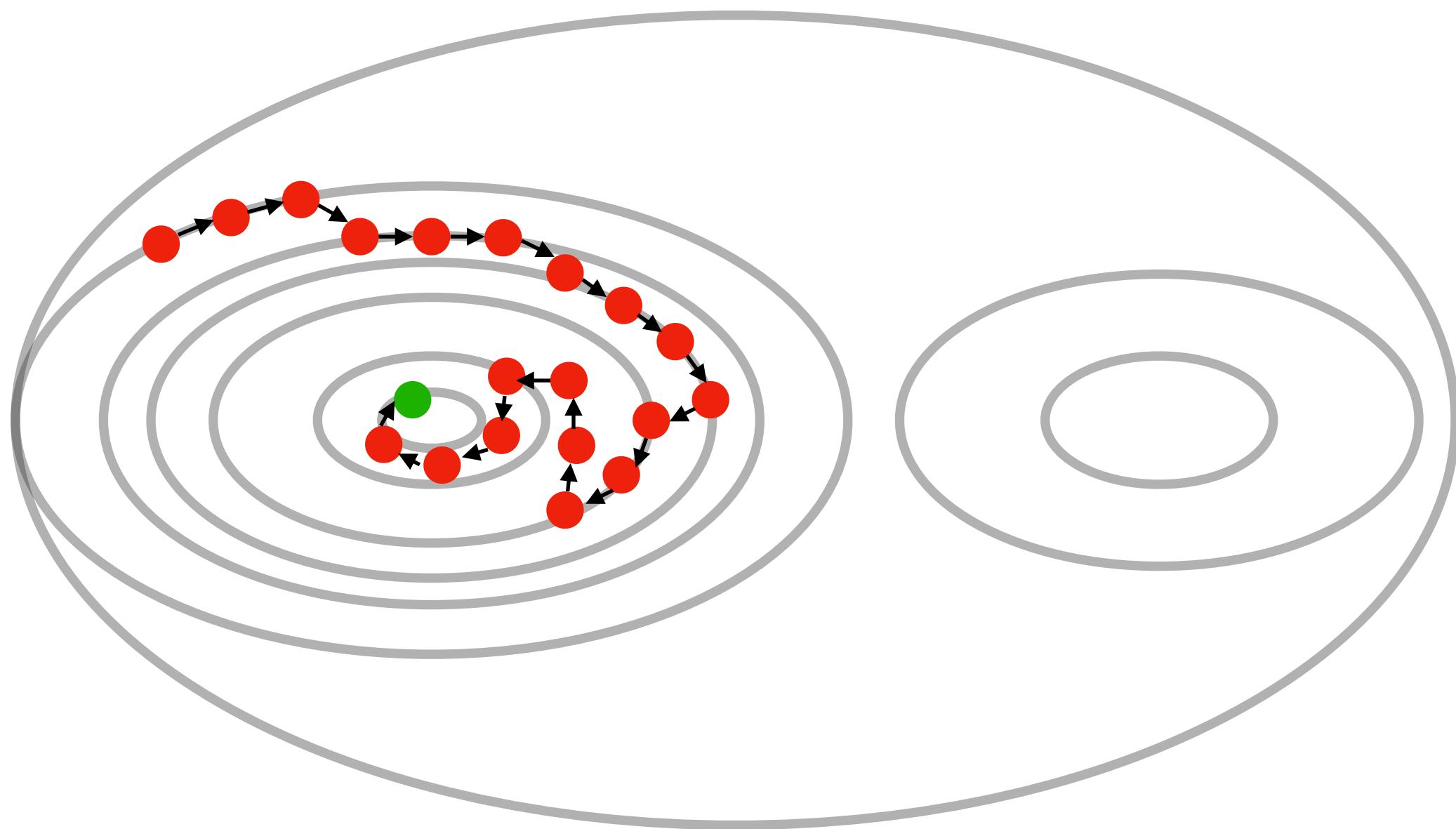
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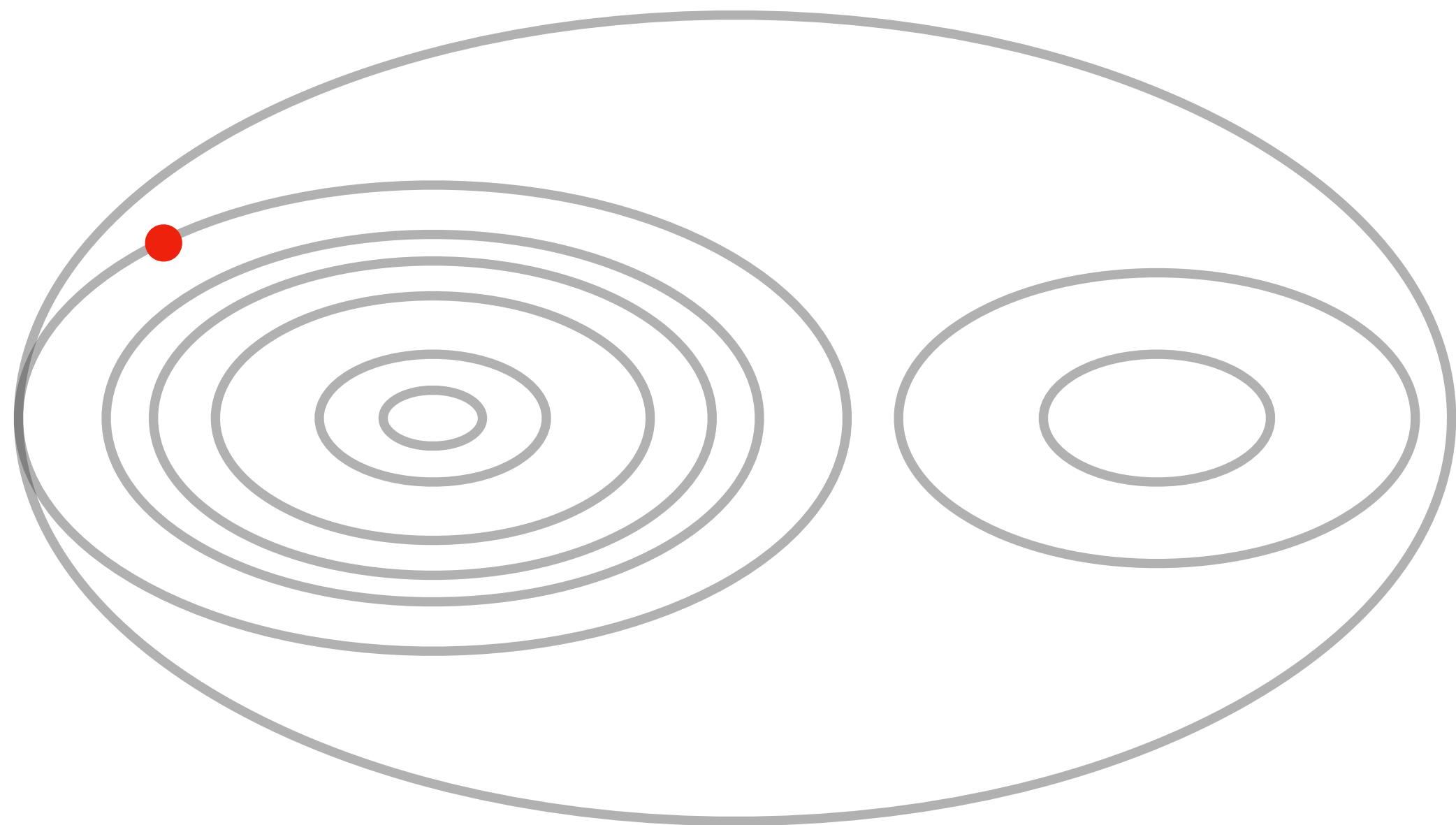
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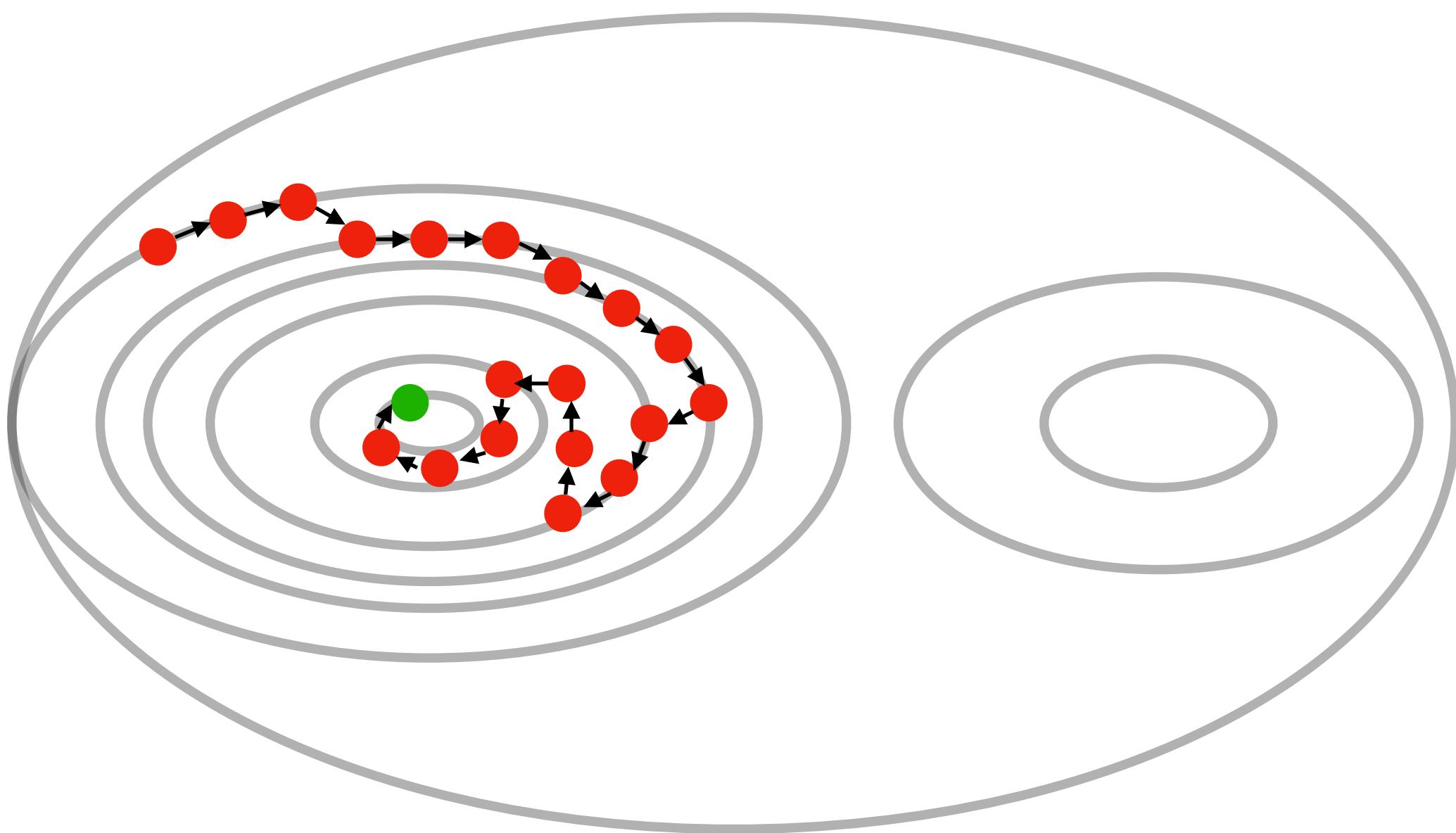
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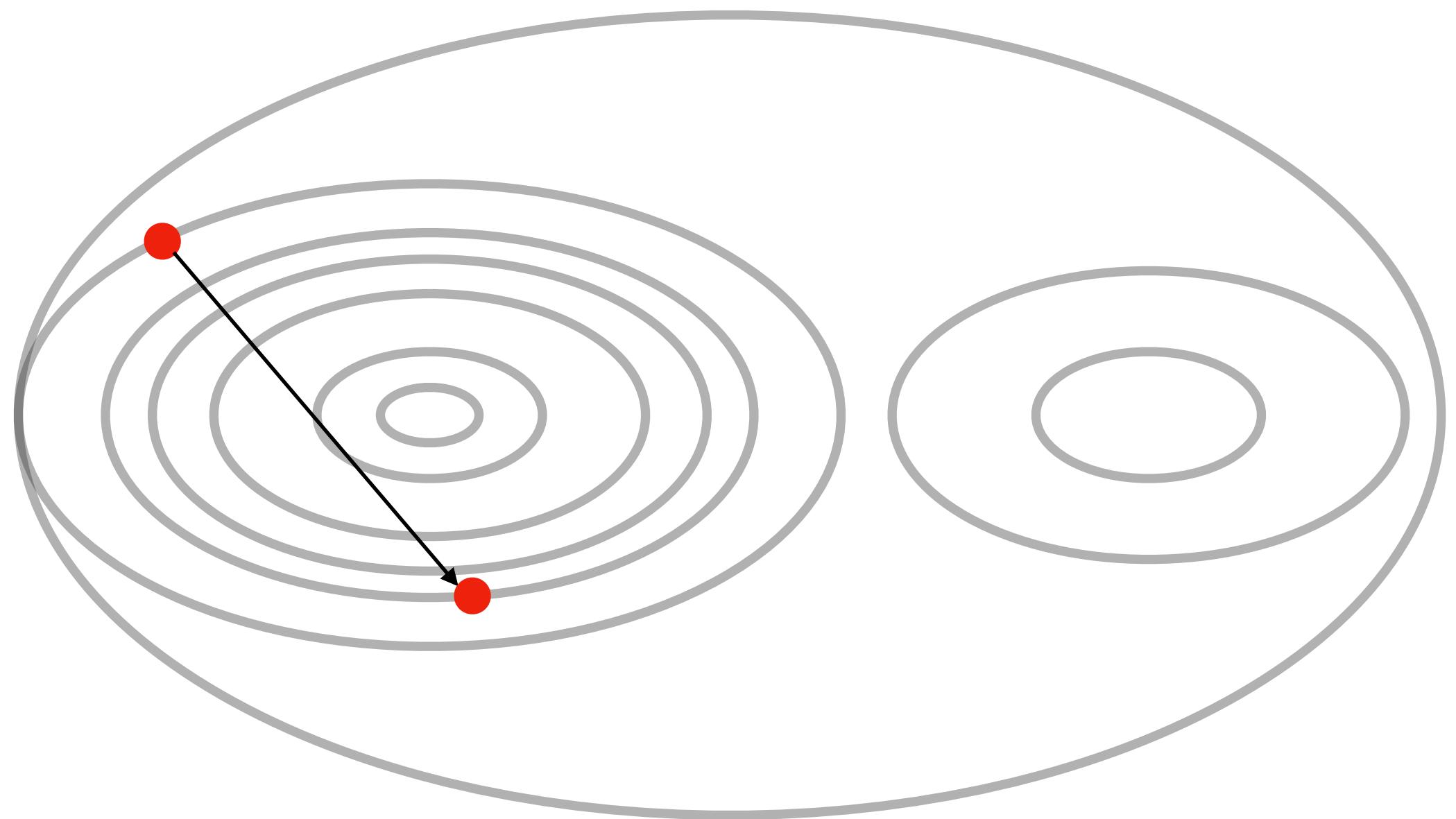
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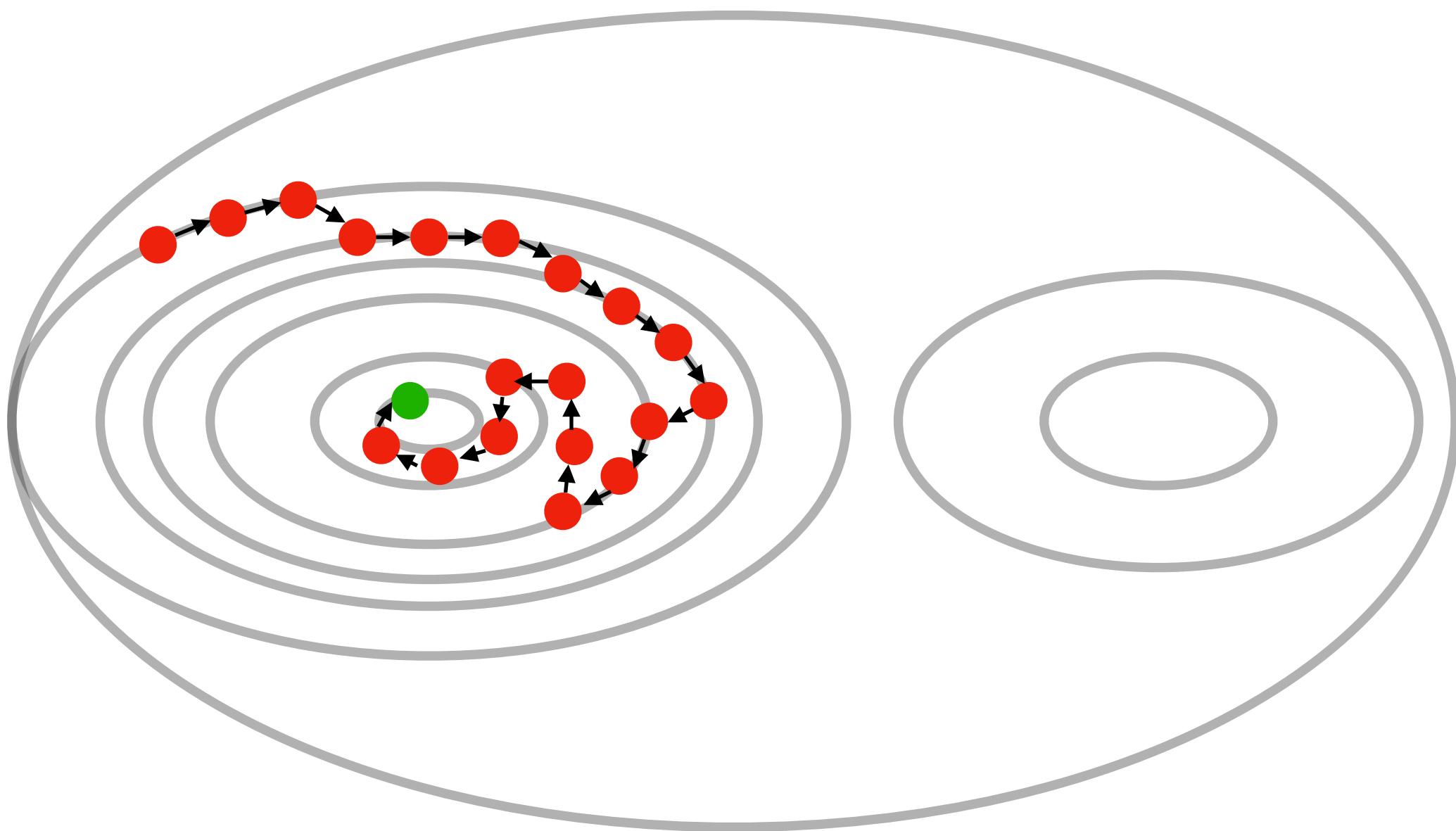
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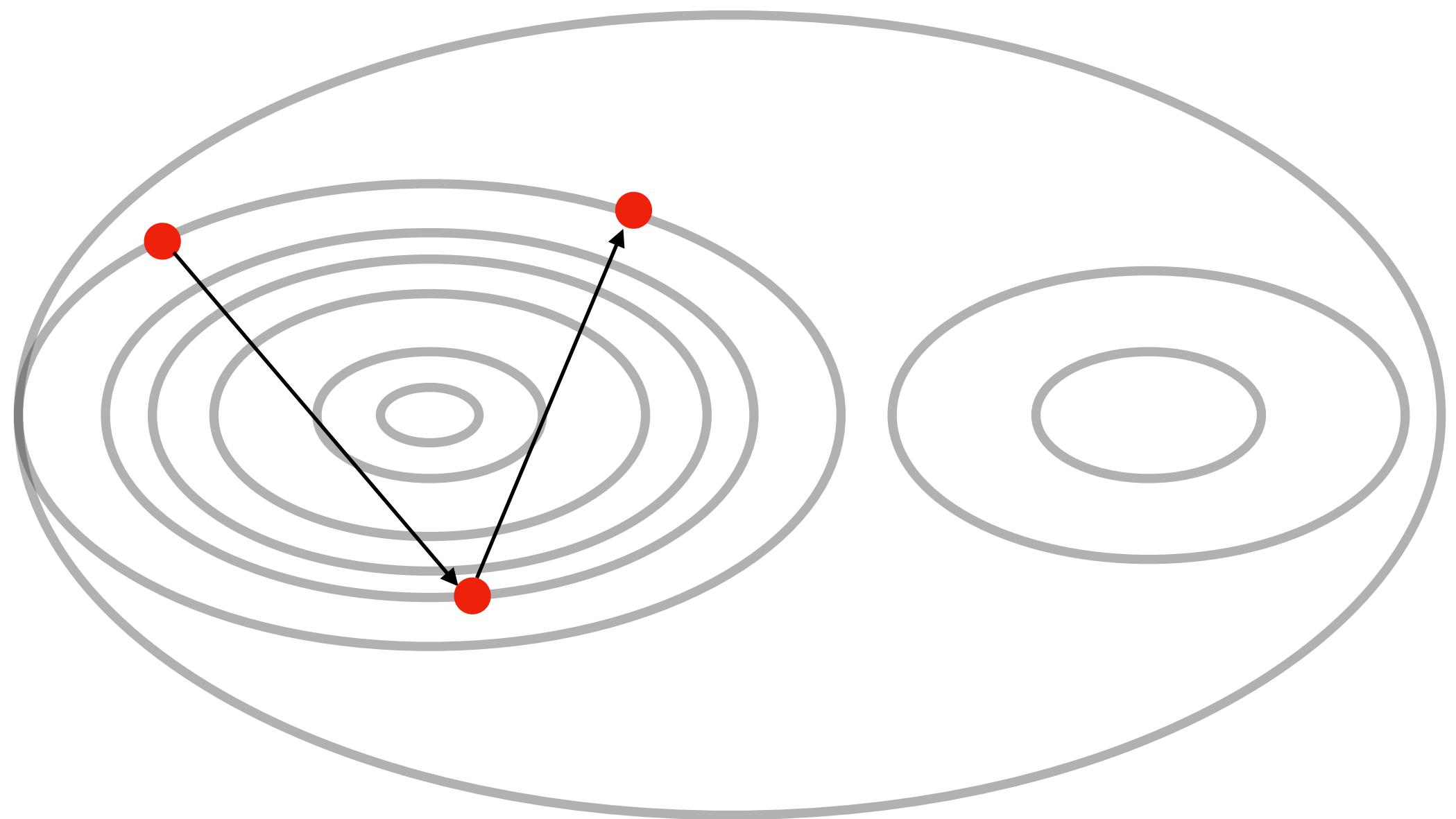
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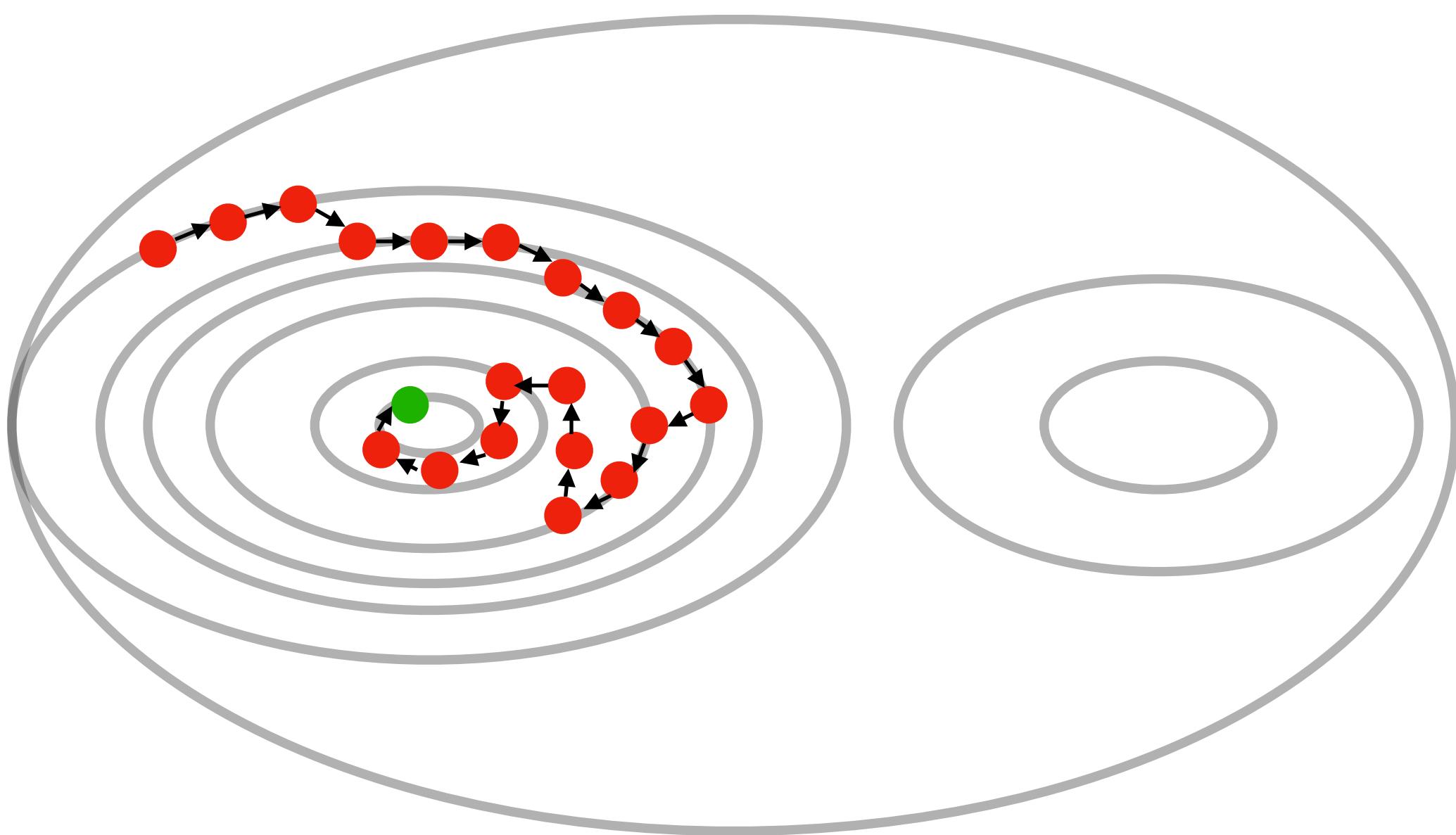
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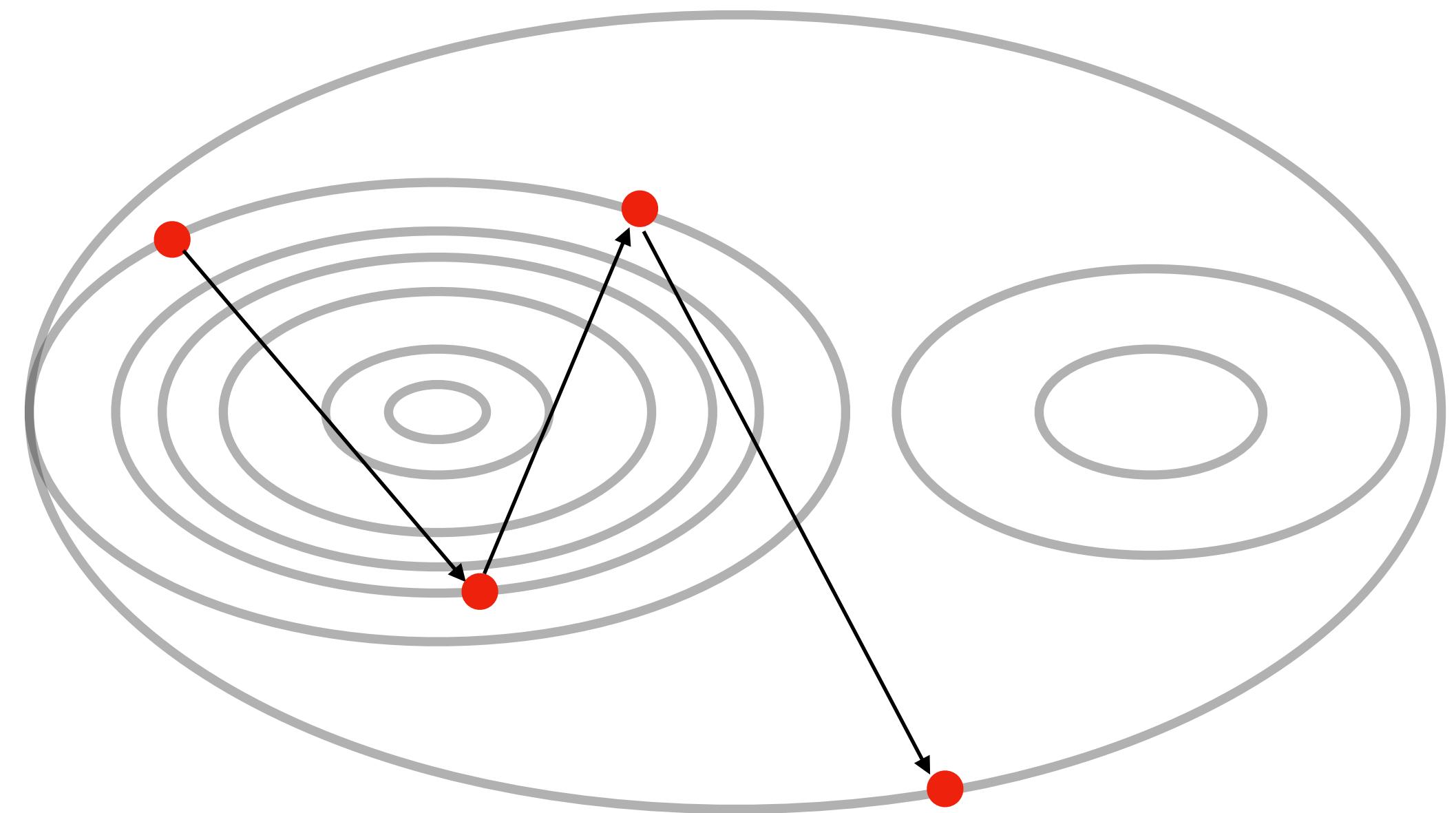
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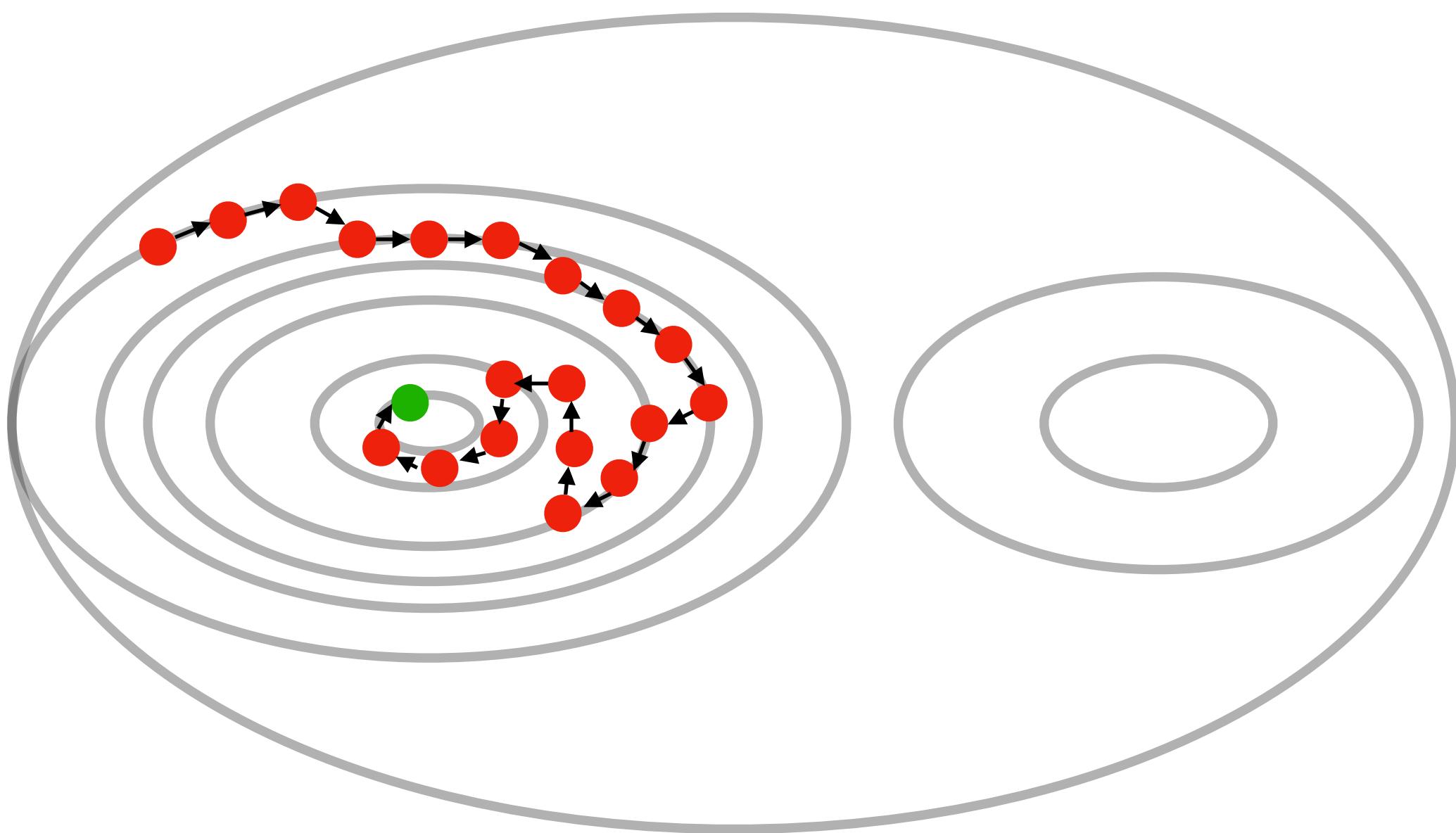


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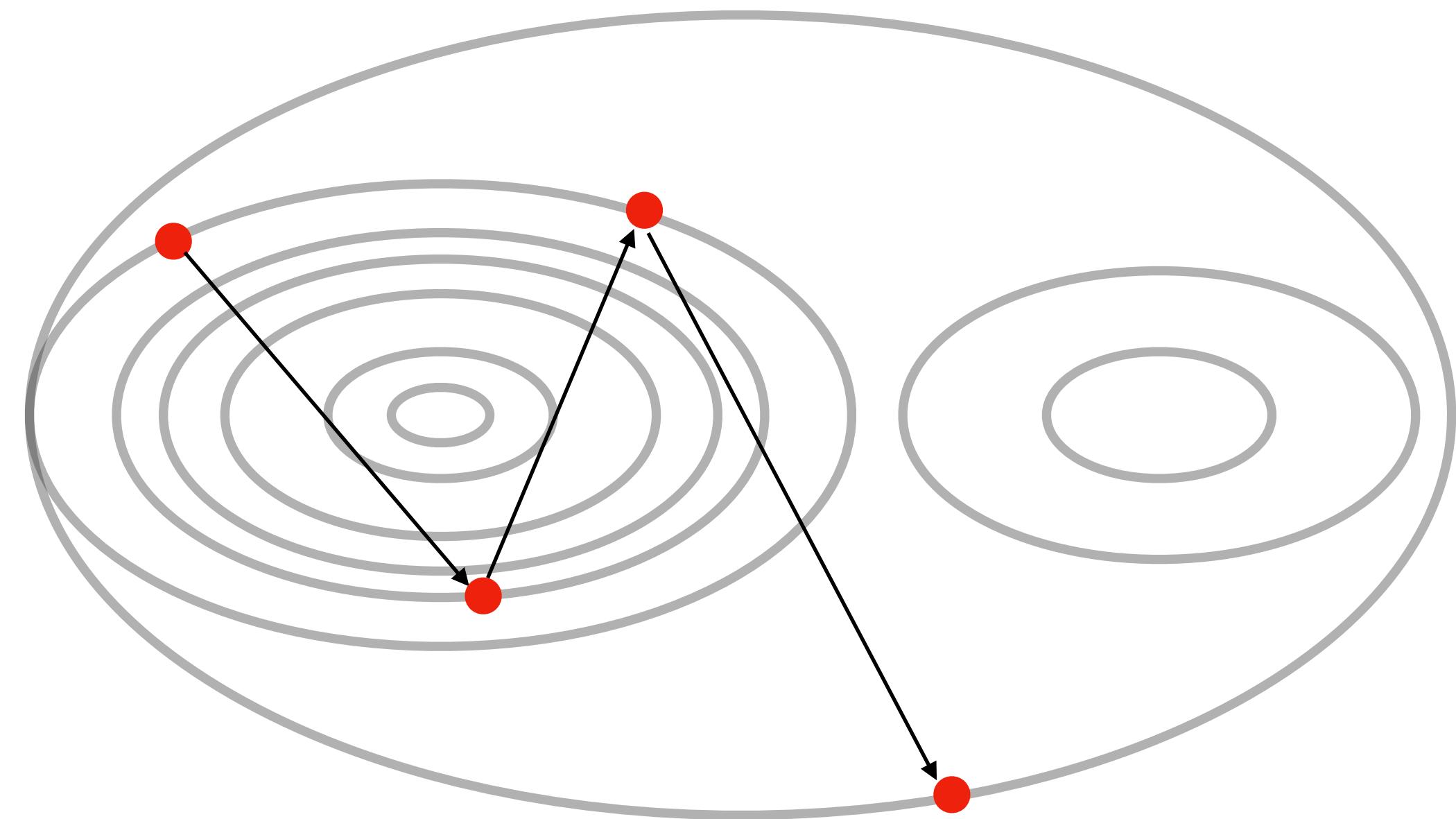
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With a small learning rate  $\alpha$ , if the loss function is convex, the optimization will eventually **converge**



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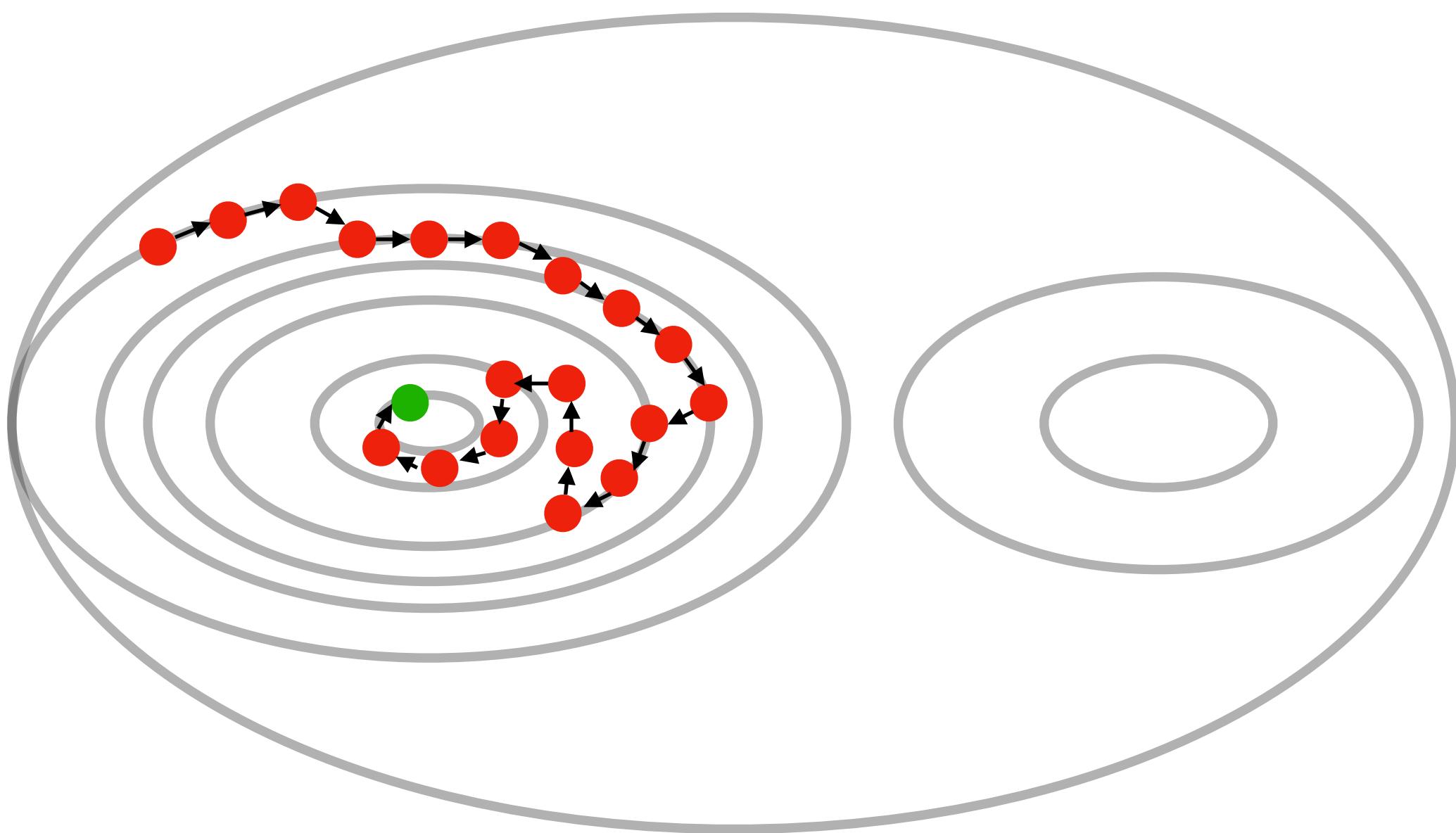
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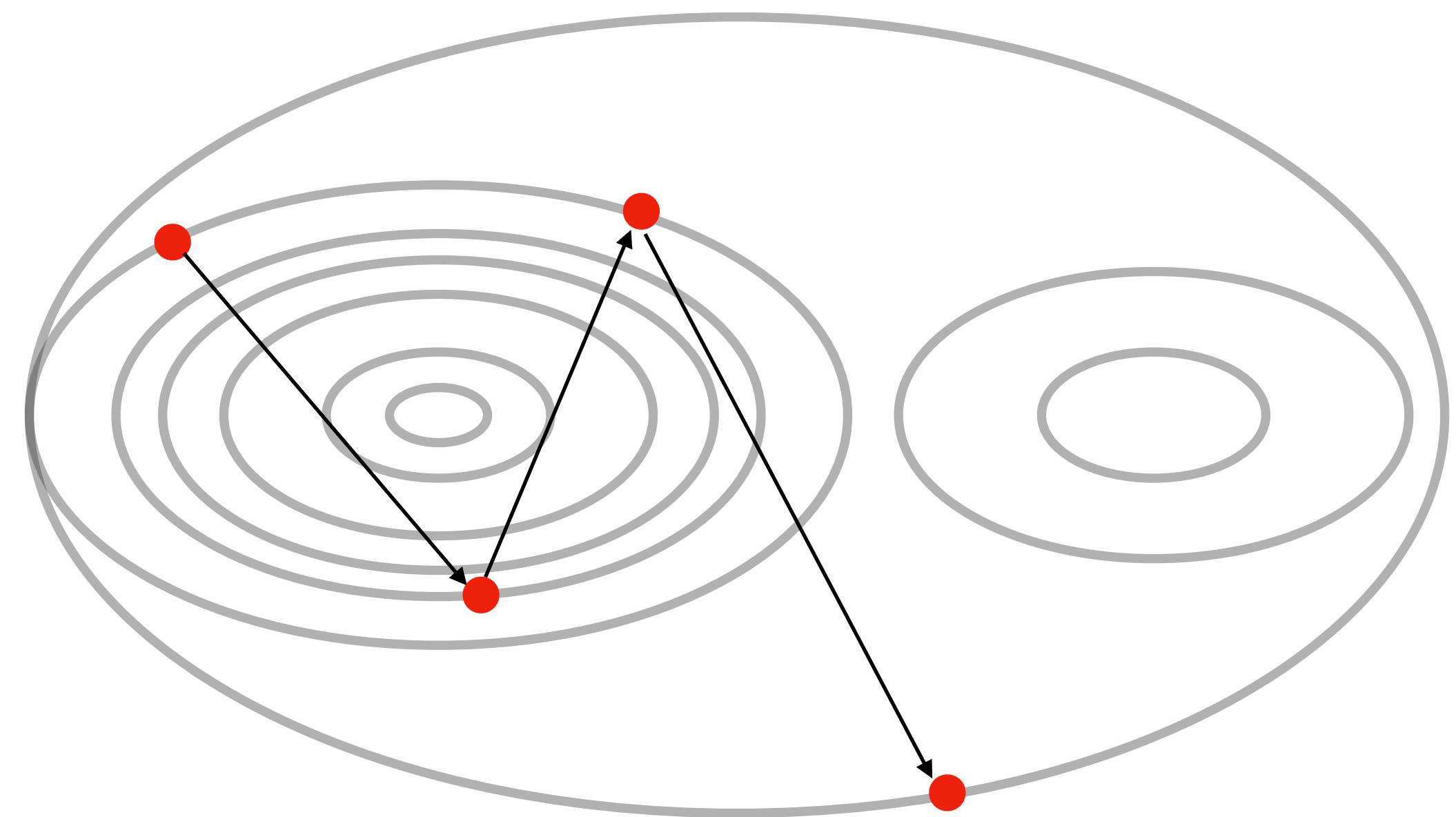
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What happens when  $\alpha$  is too large?

Say  $\alpha = 10$

With a large learning rate  $\alpha$ , if the loss function is convex, the optimization could possibly start **diverging** and never converge



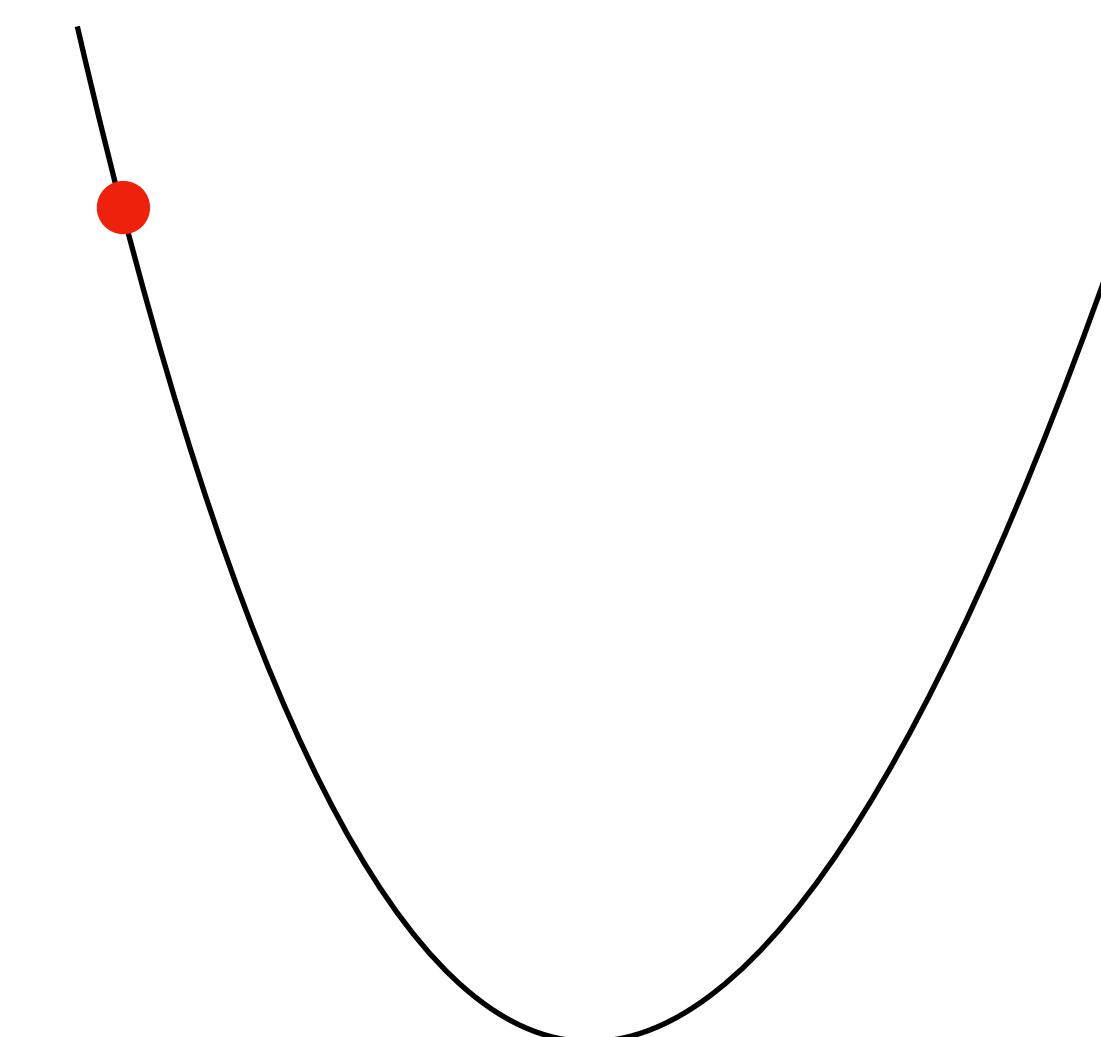
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Say  $\alpha = 10^{-5}$

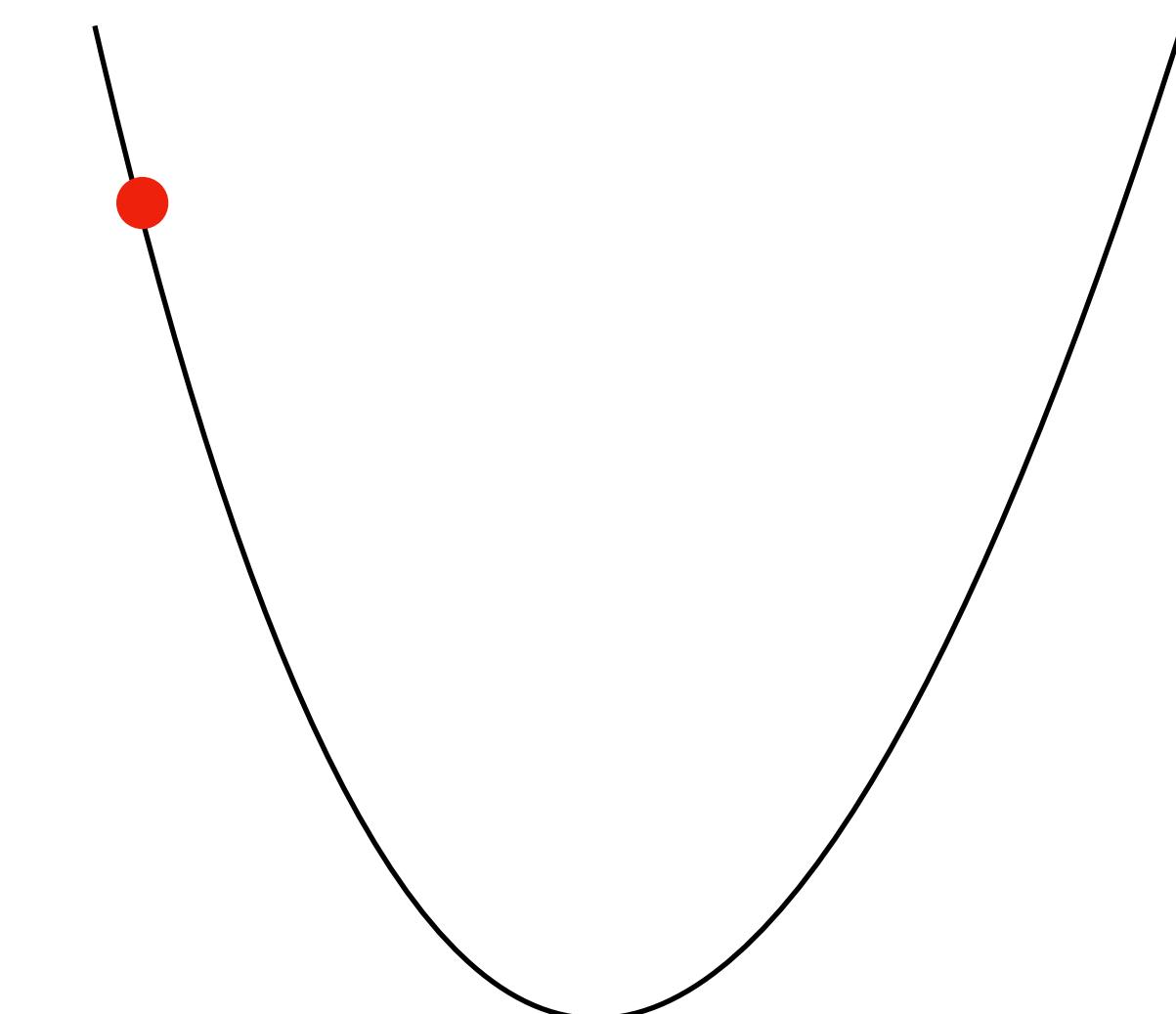
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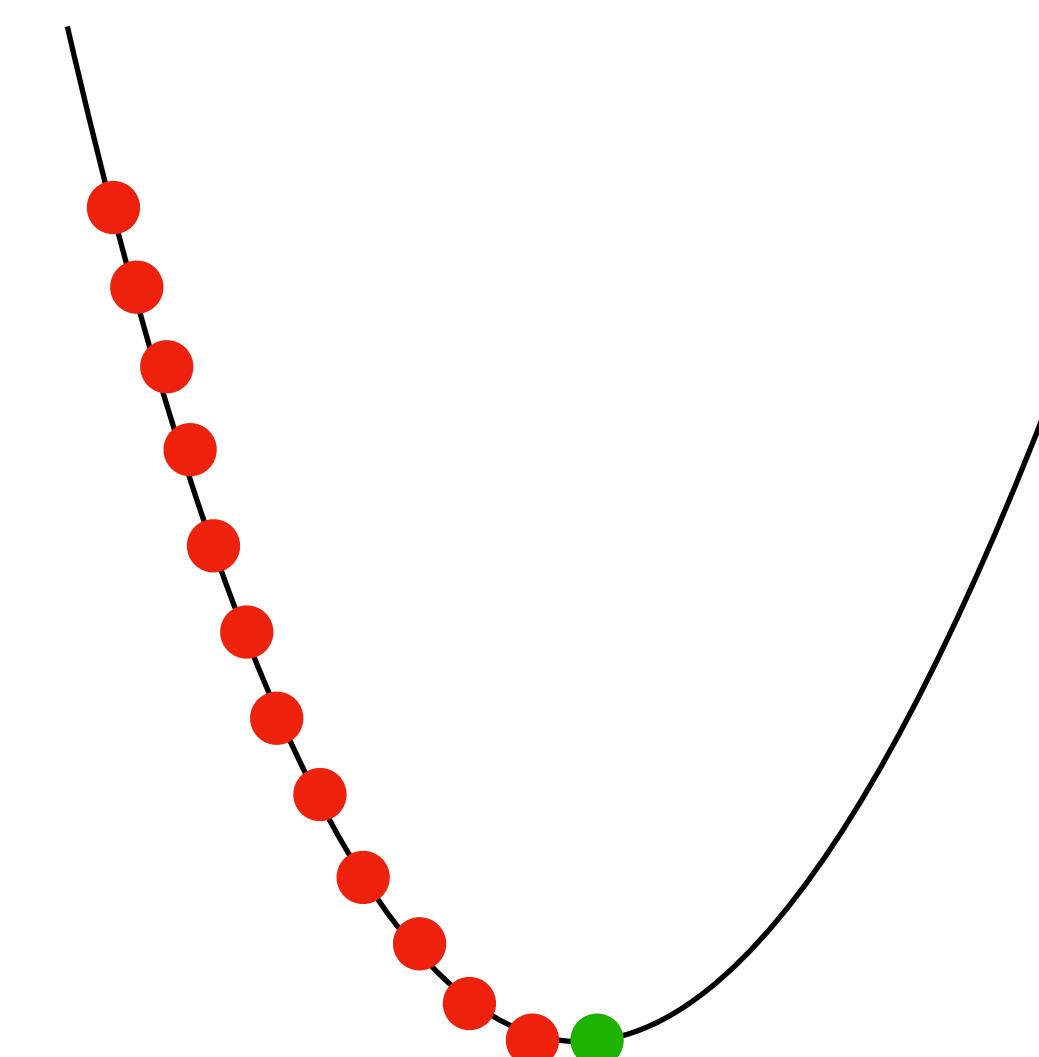
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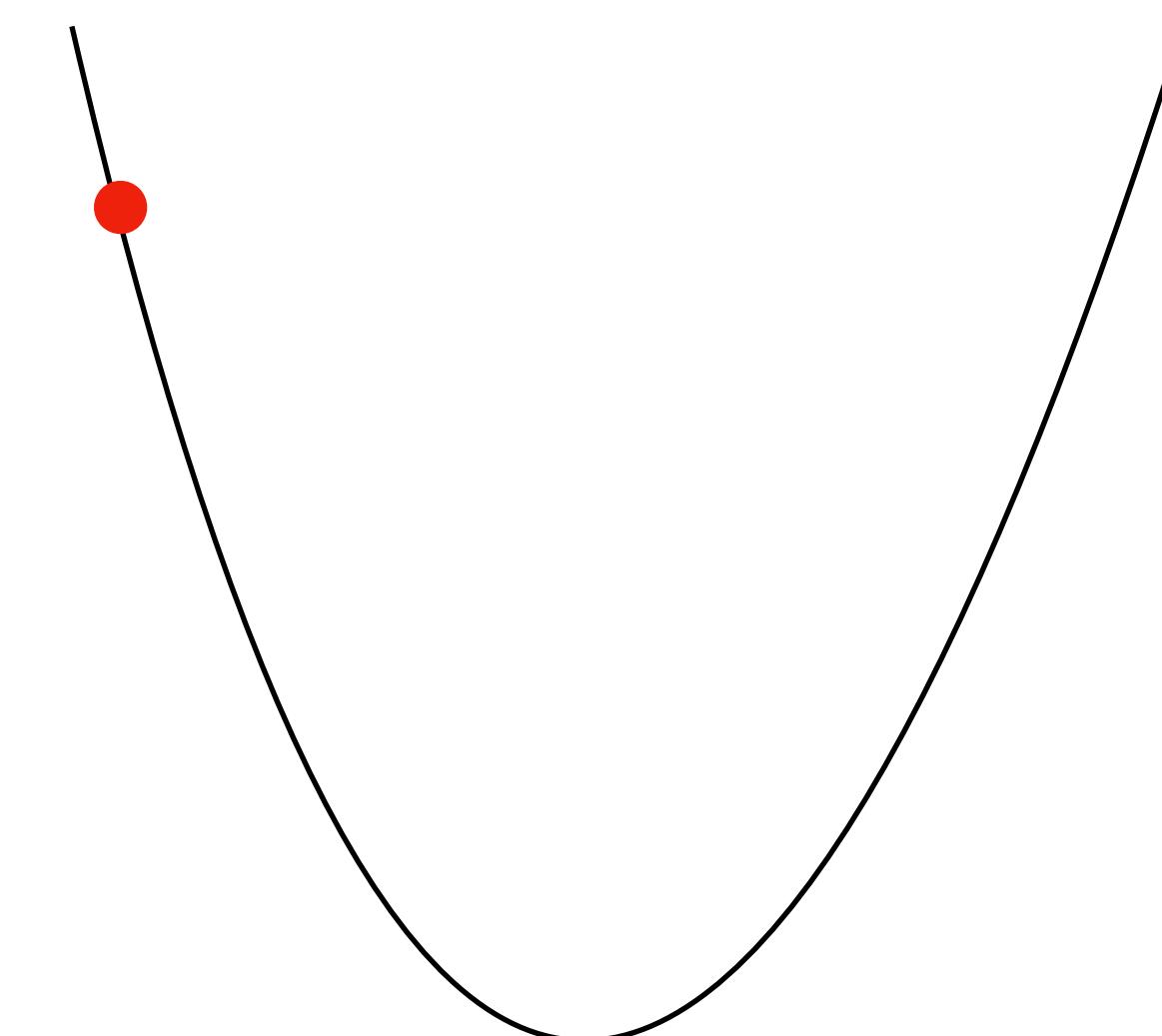
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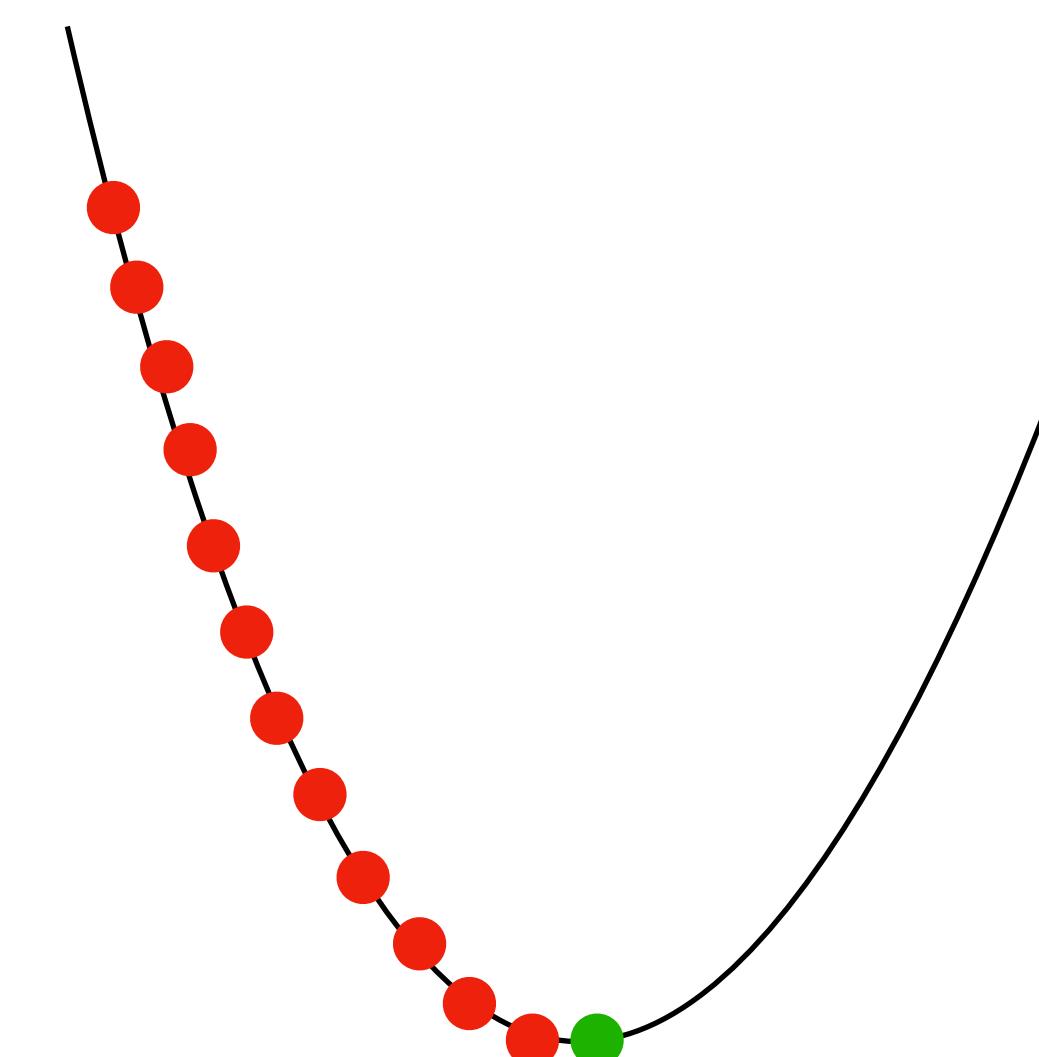
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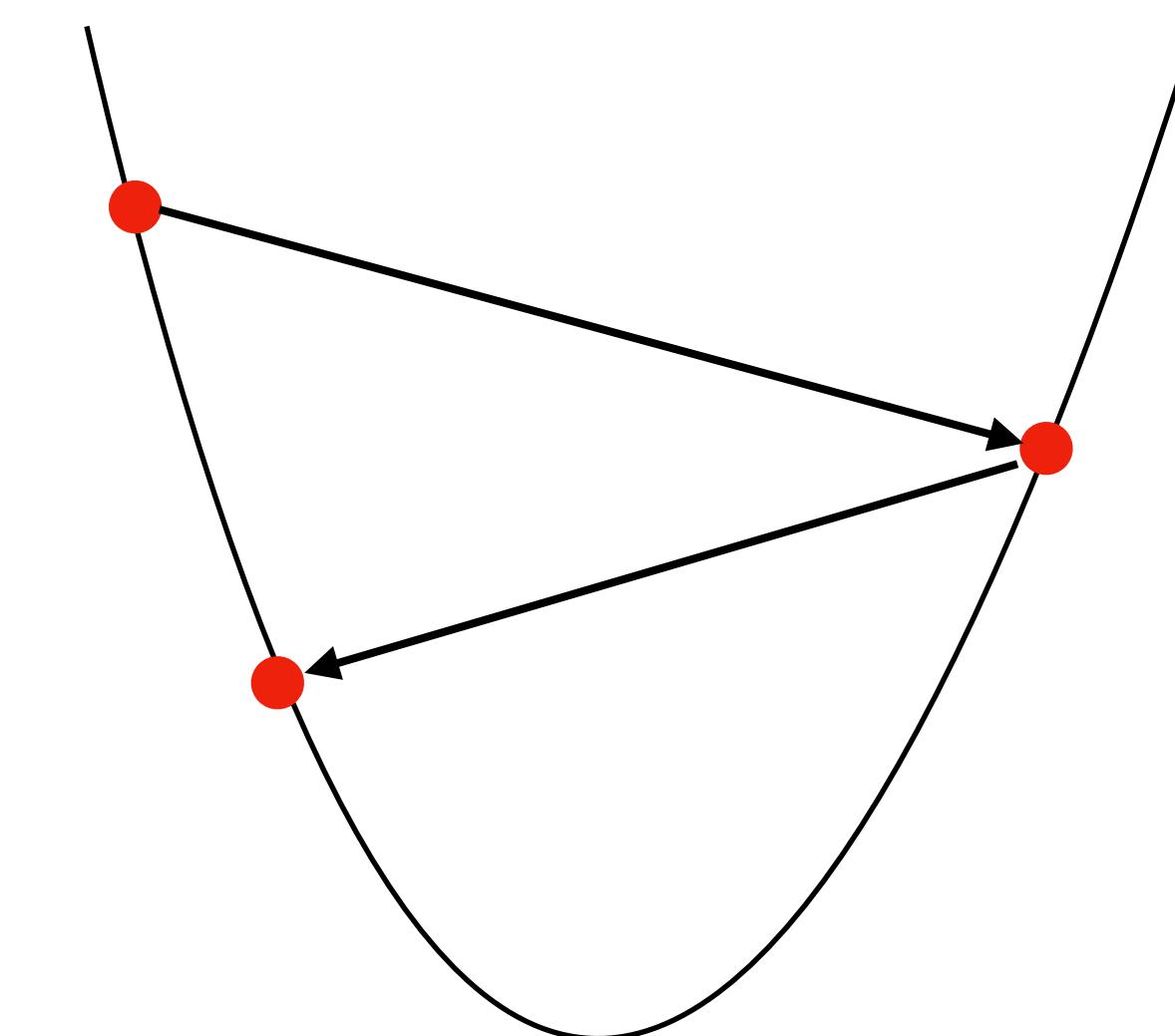
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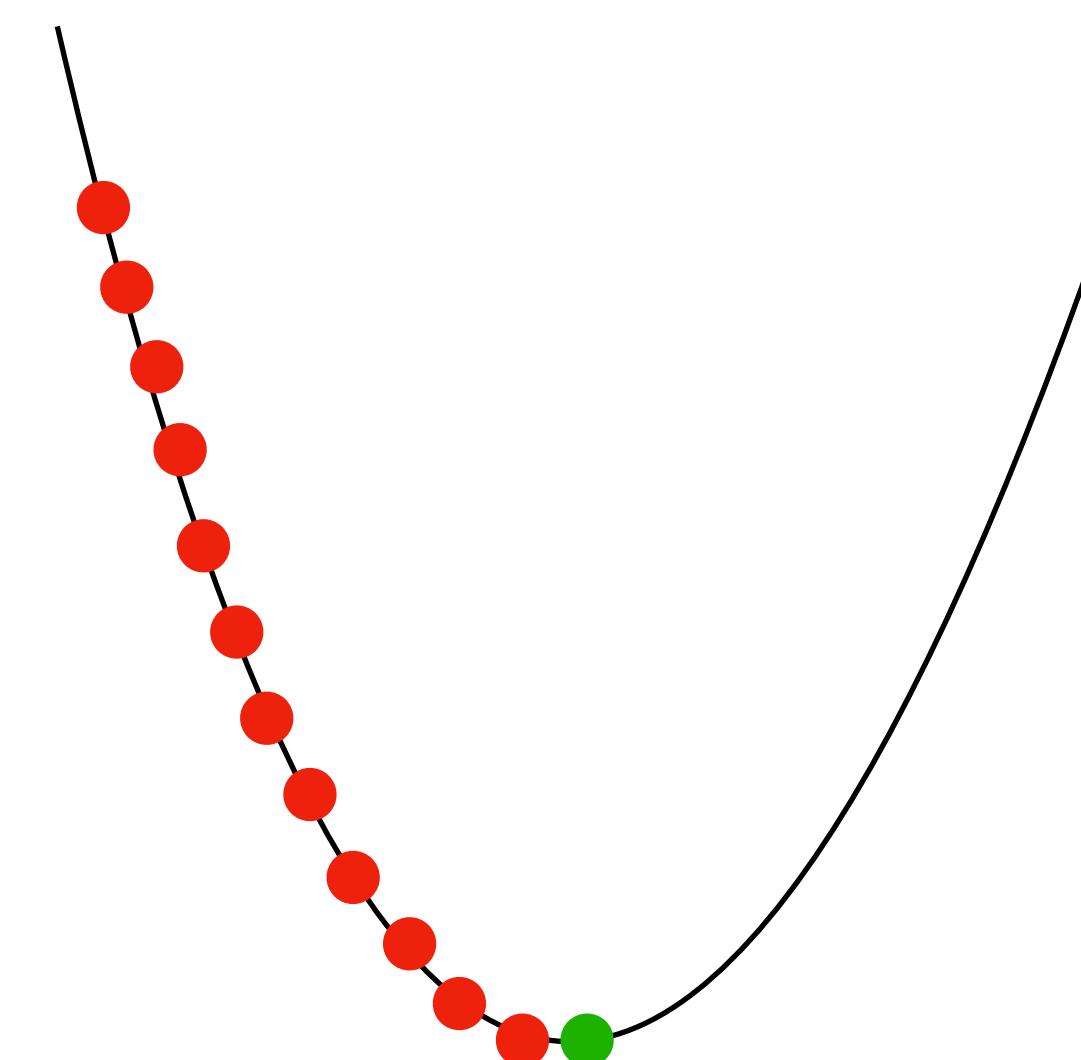
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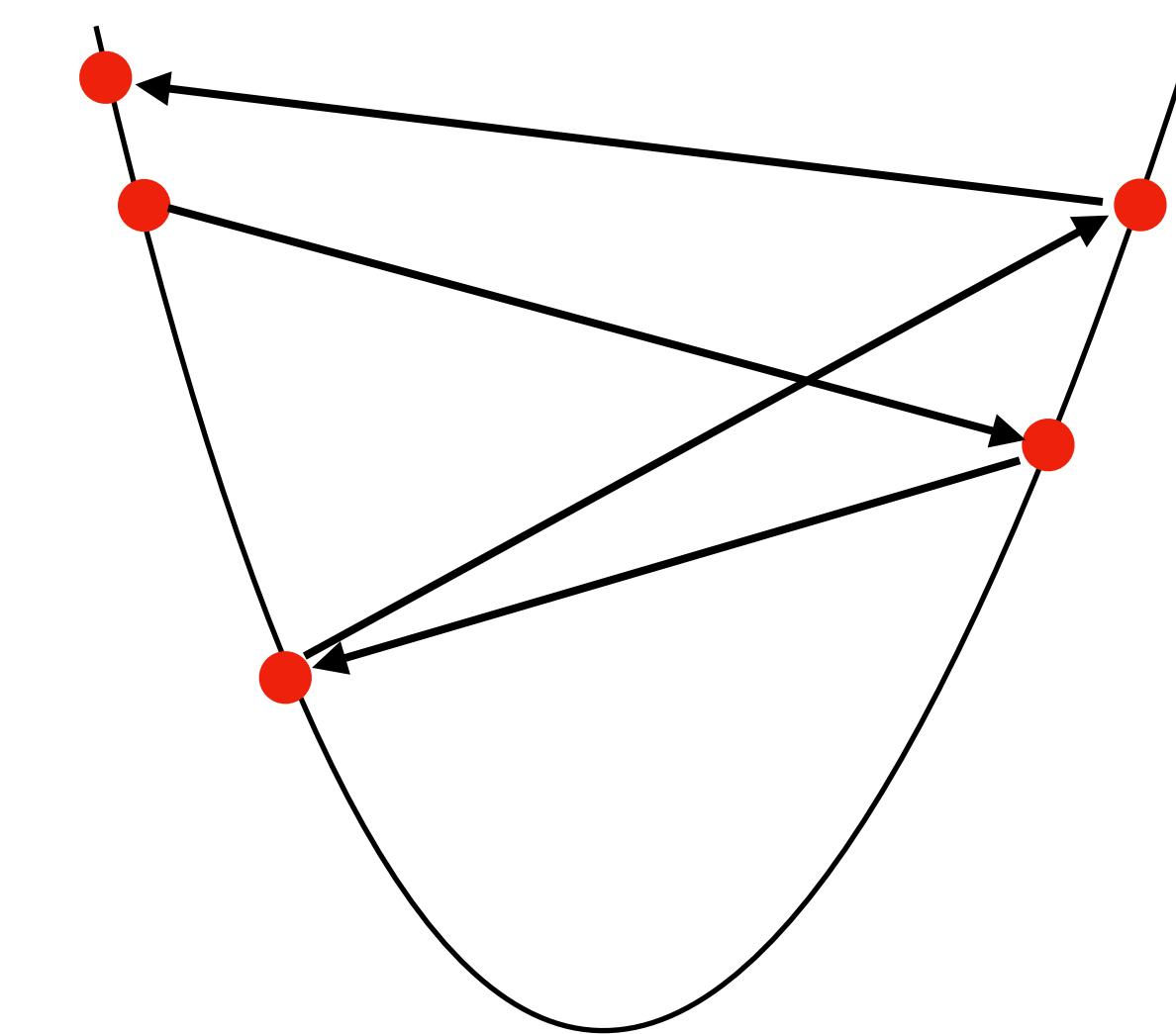
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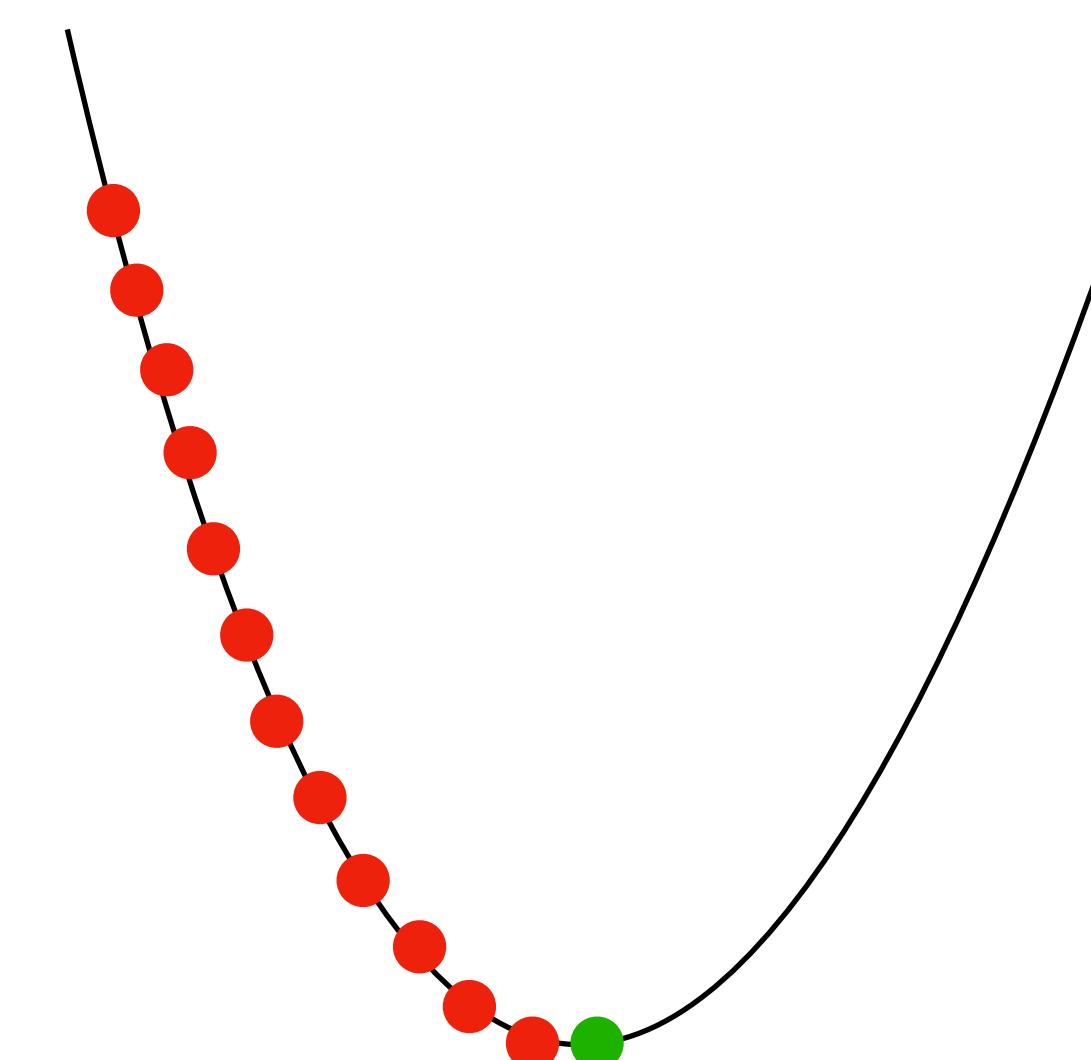
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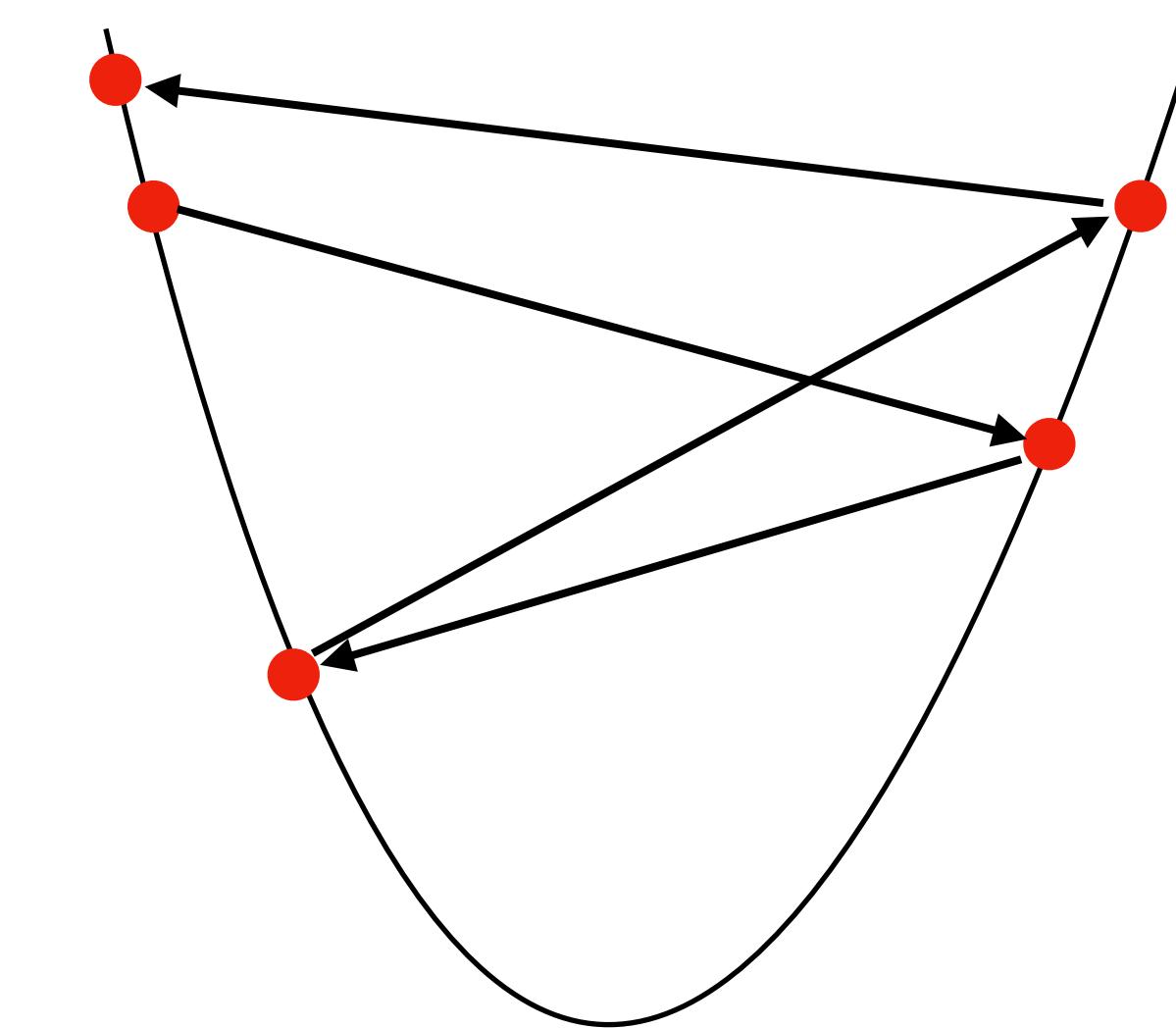
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You might not always diverge, but converging might still not be possible

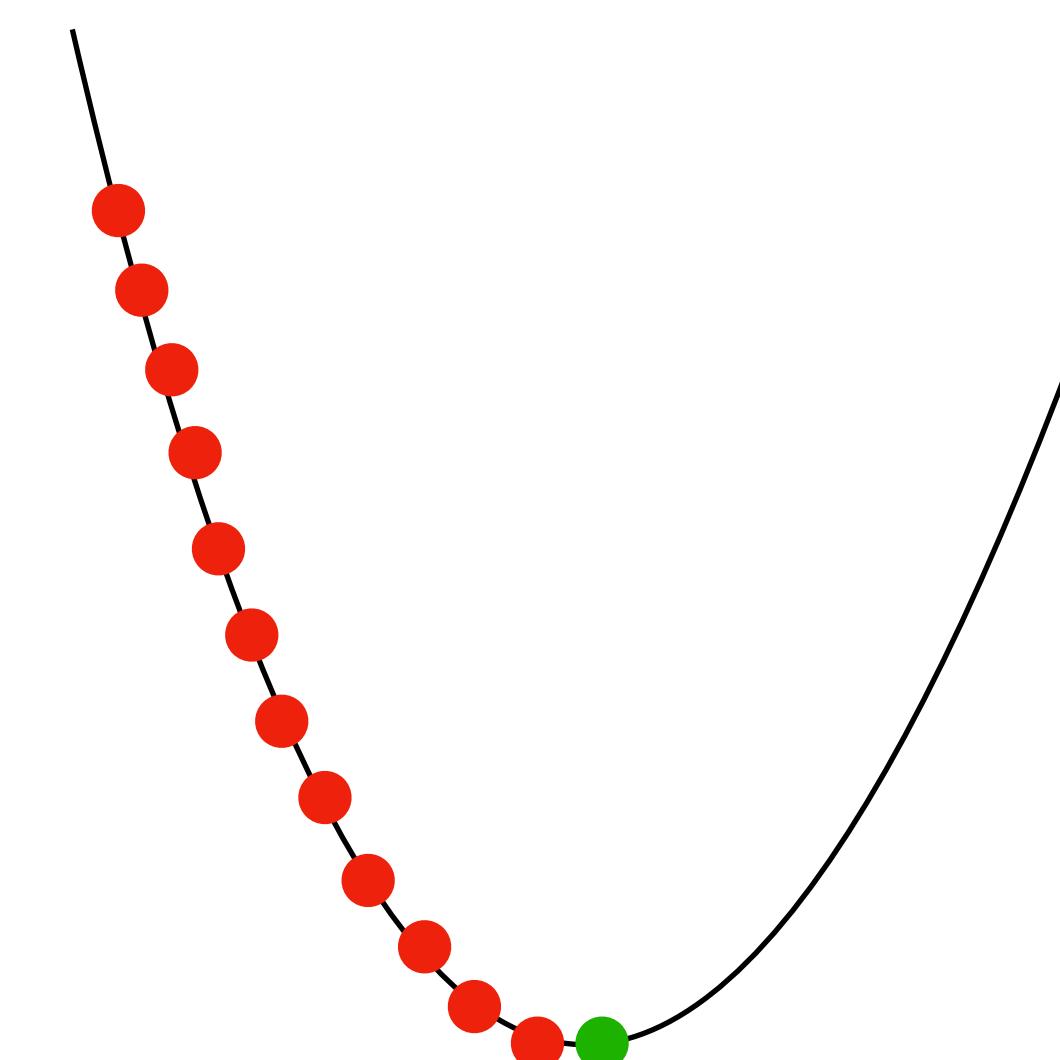
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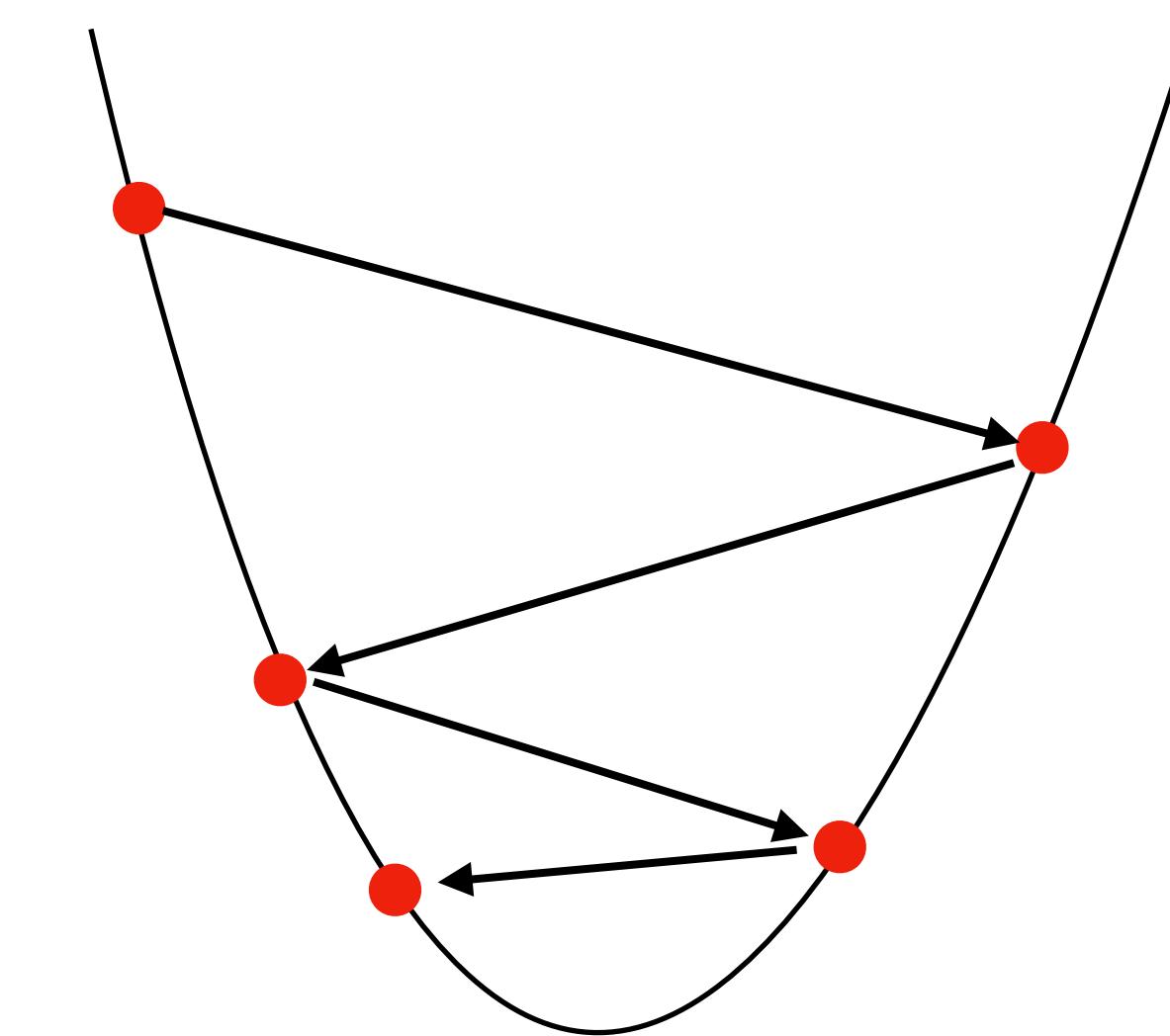
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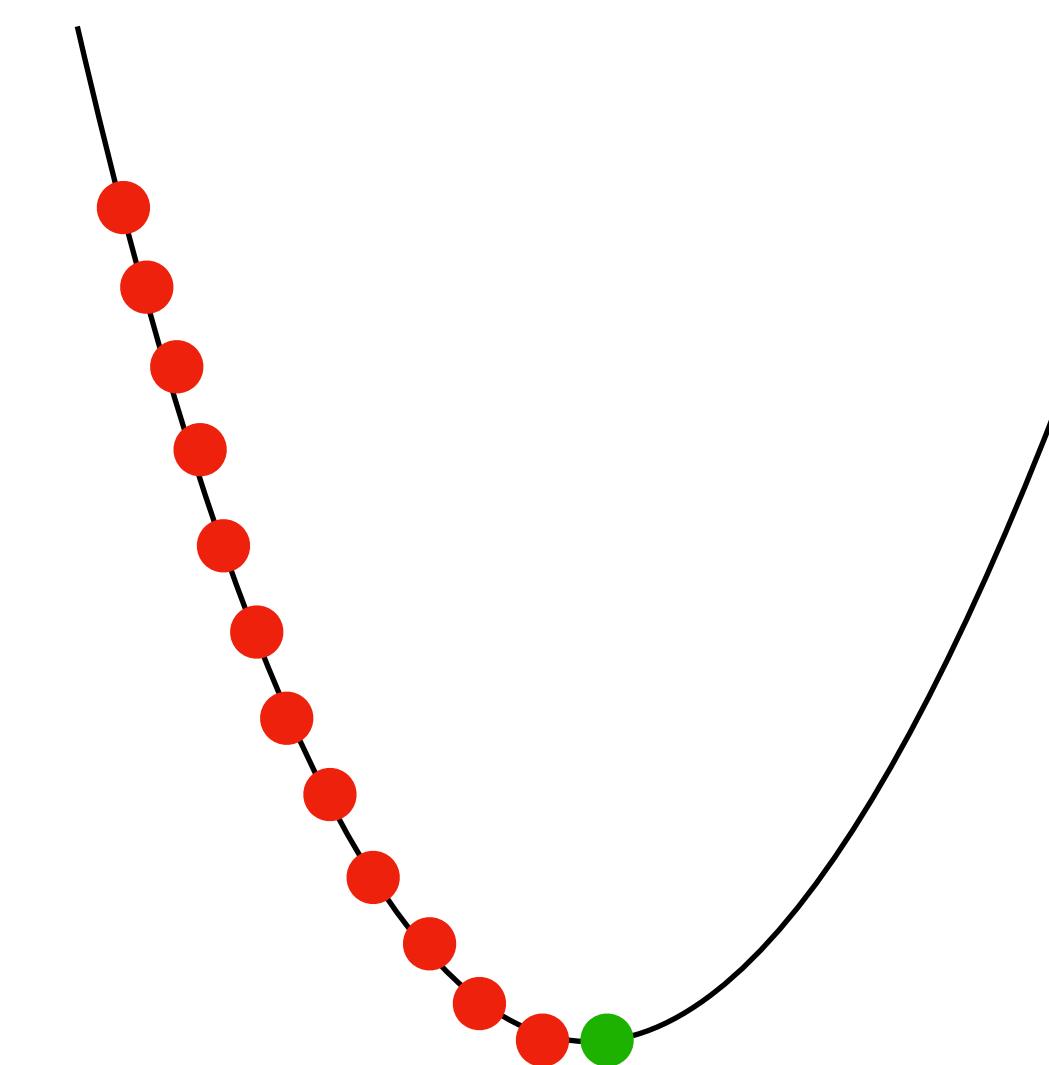
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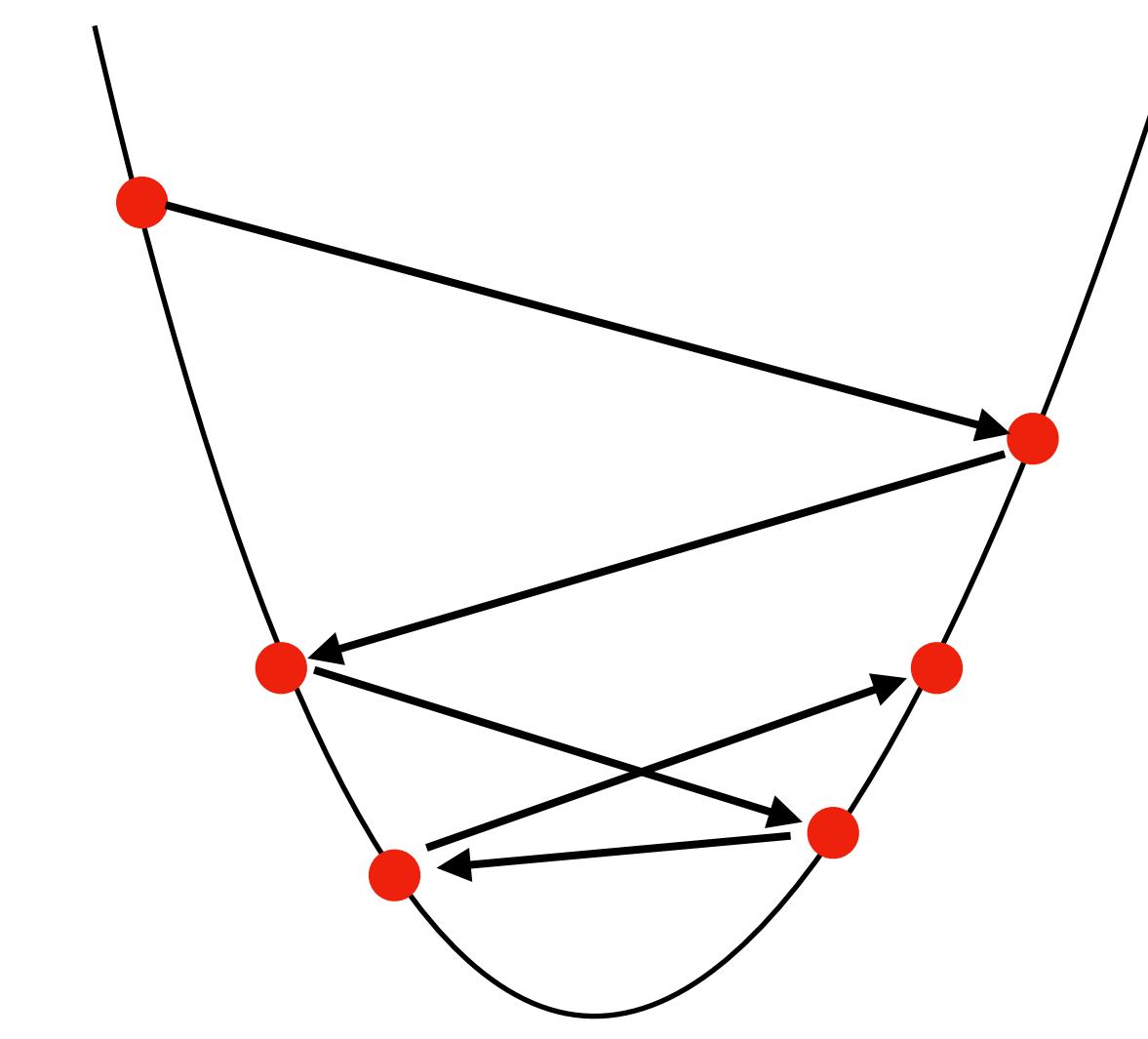
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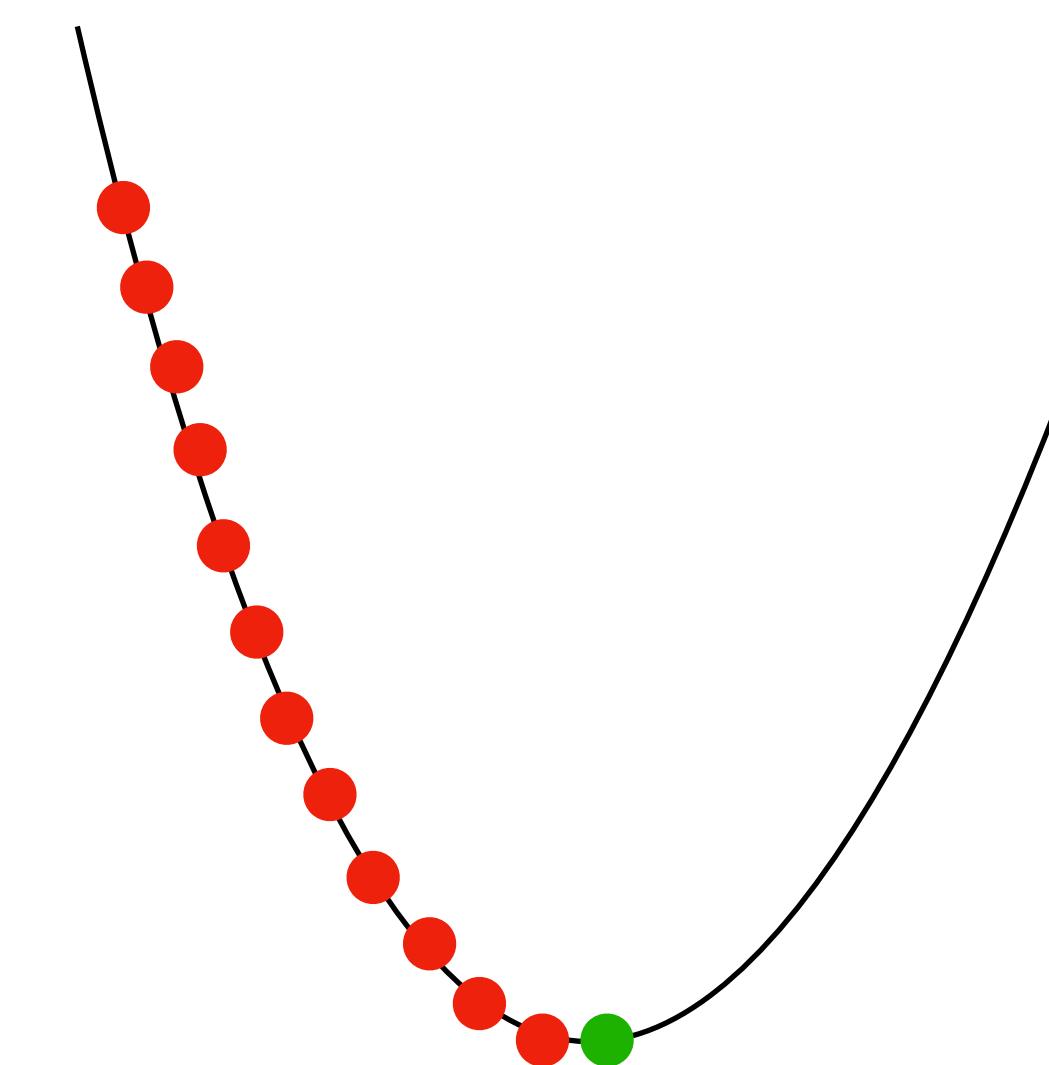
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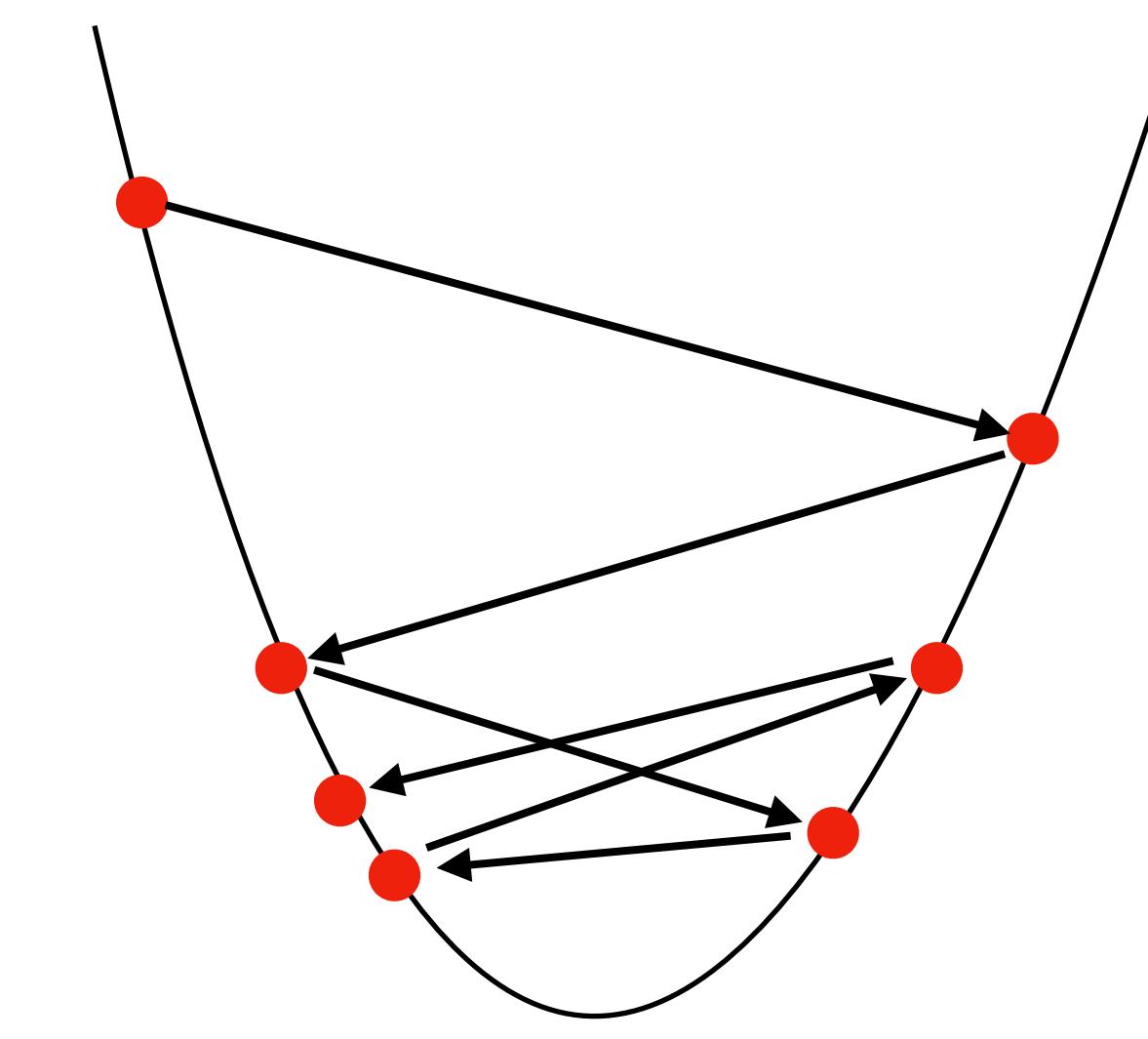
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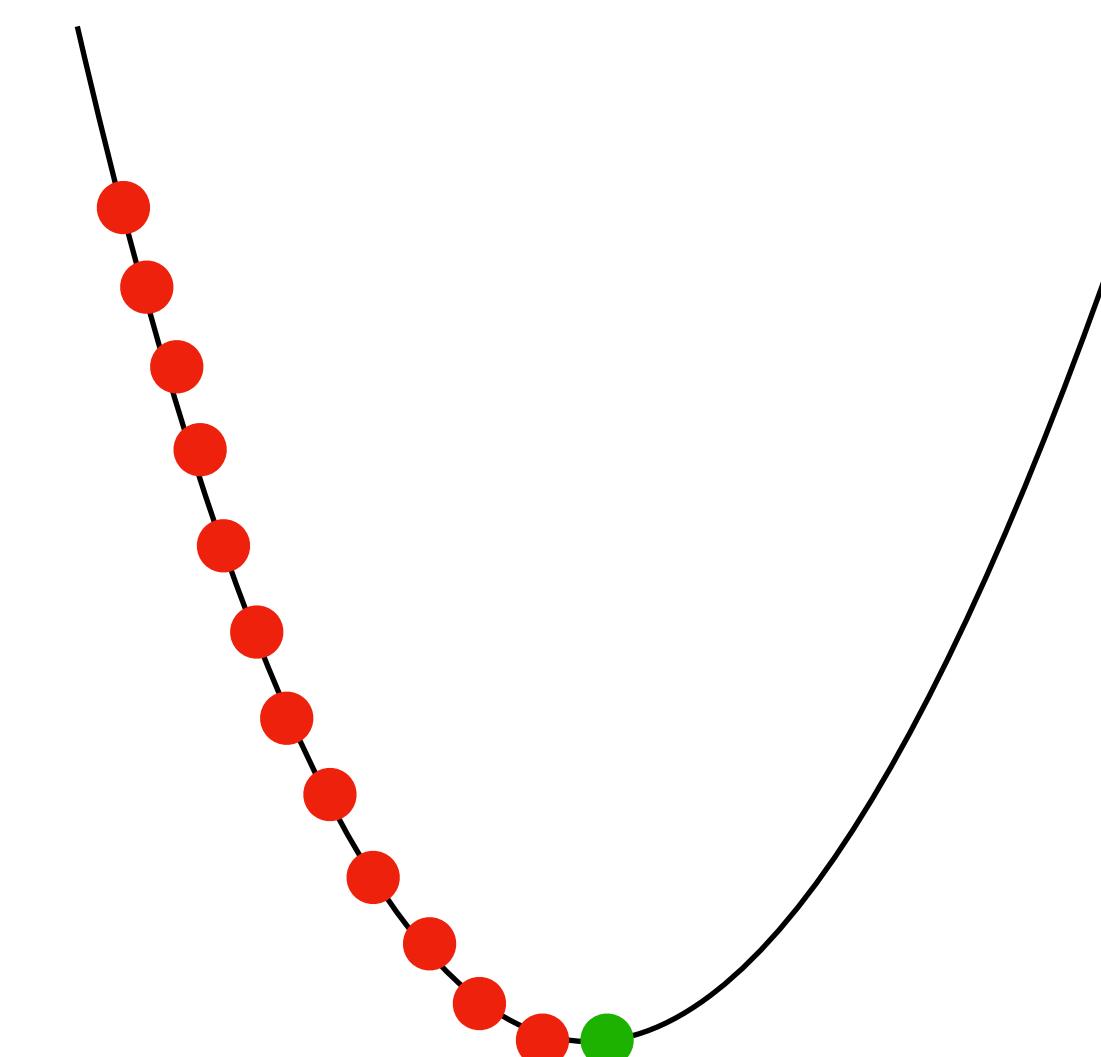
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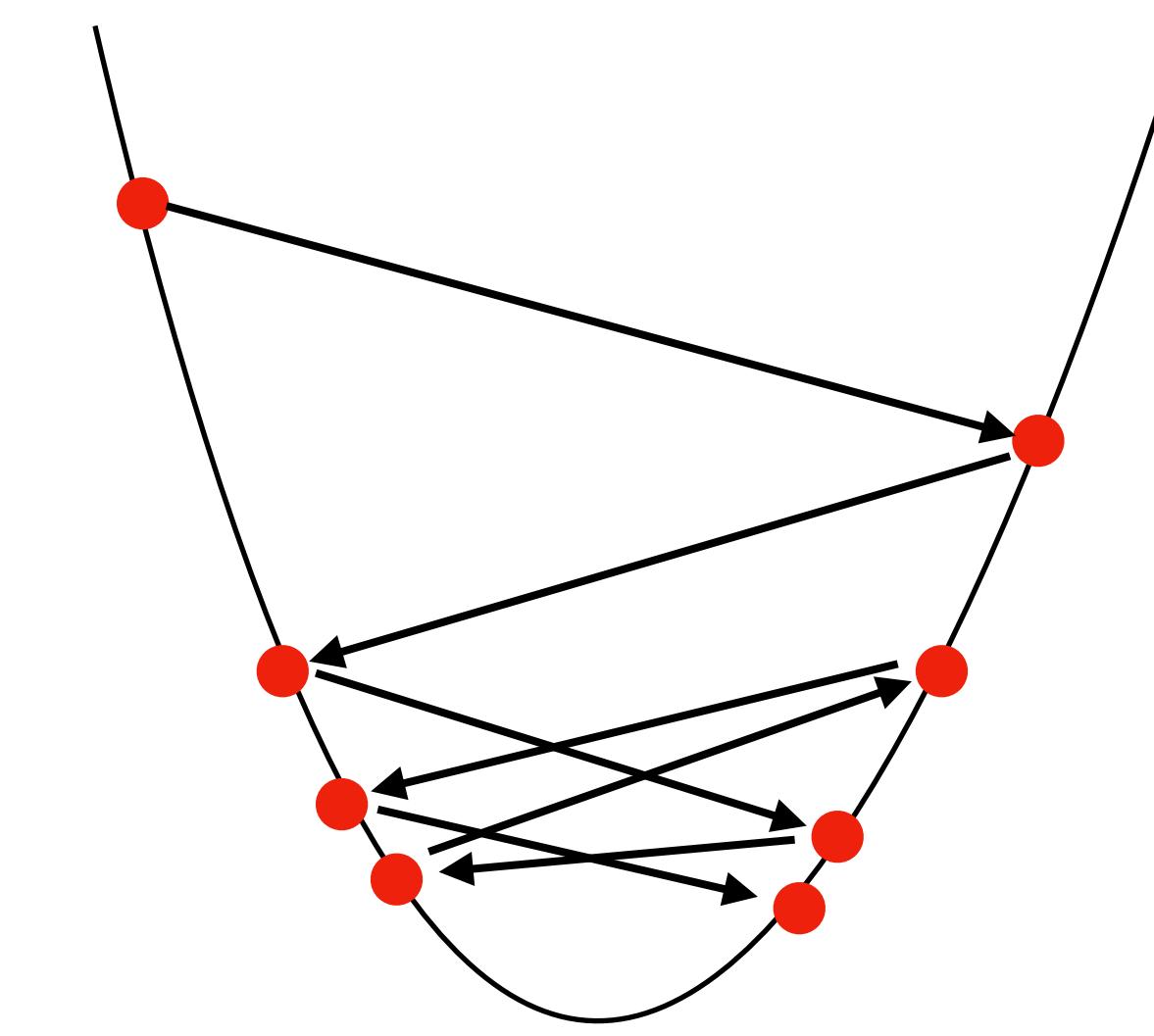
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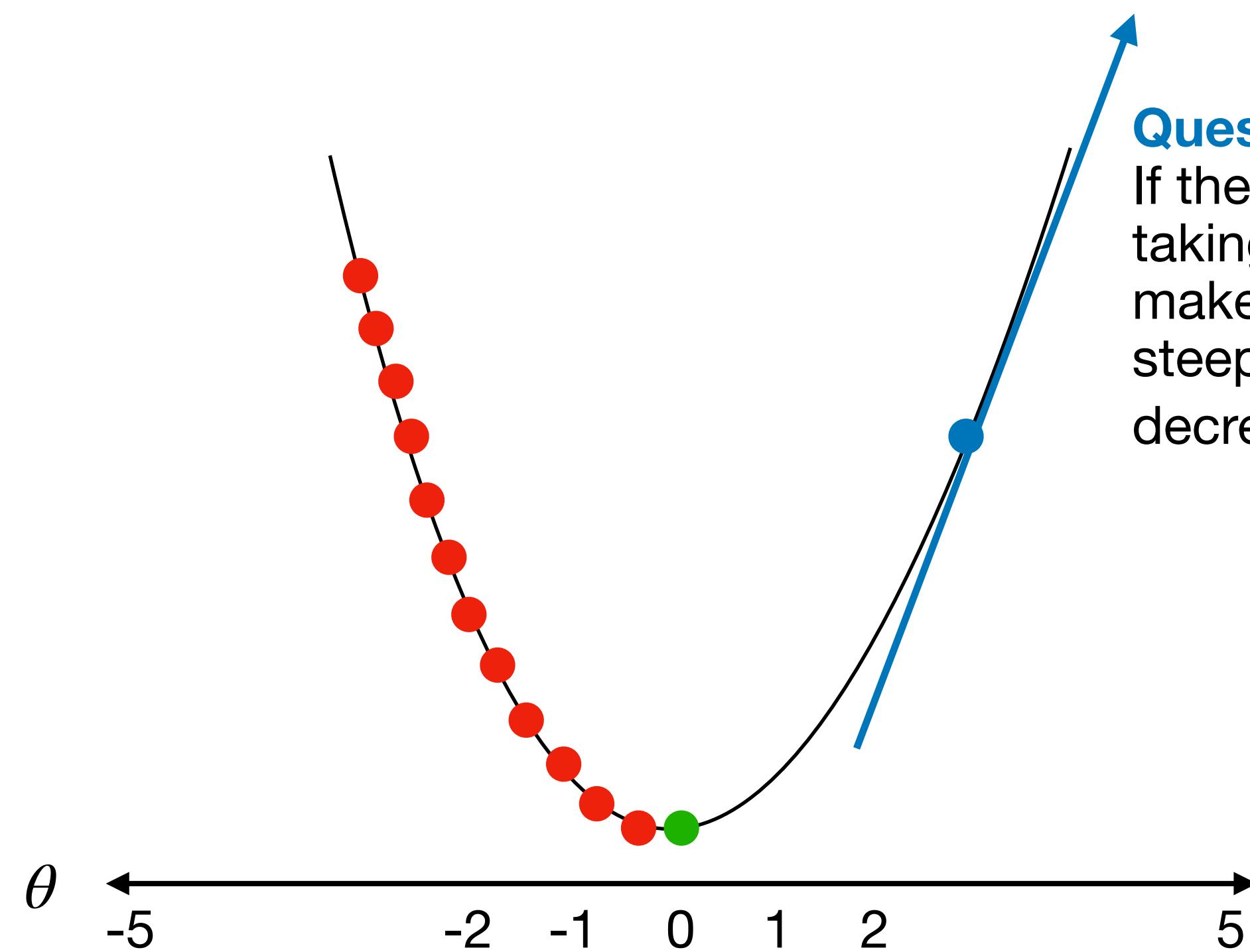
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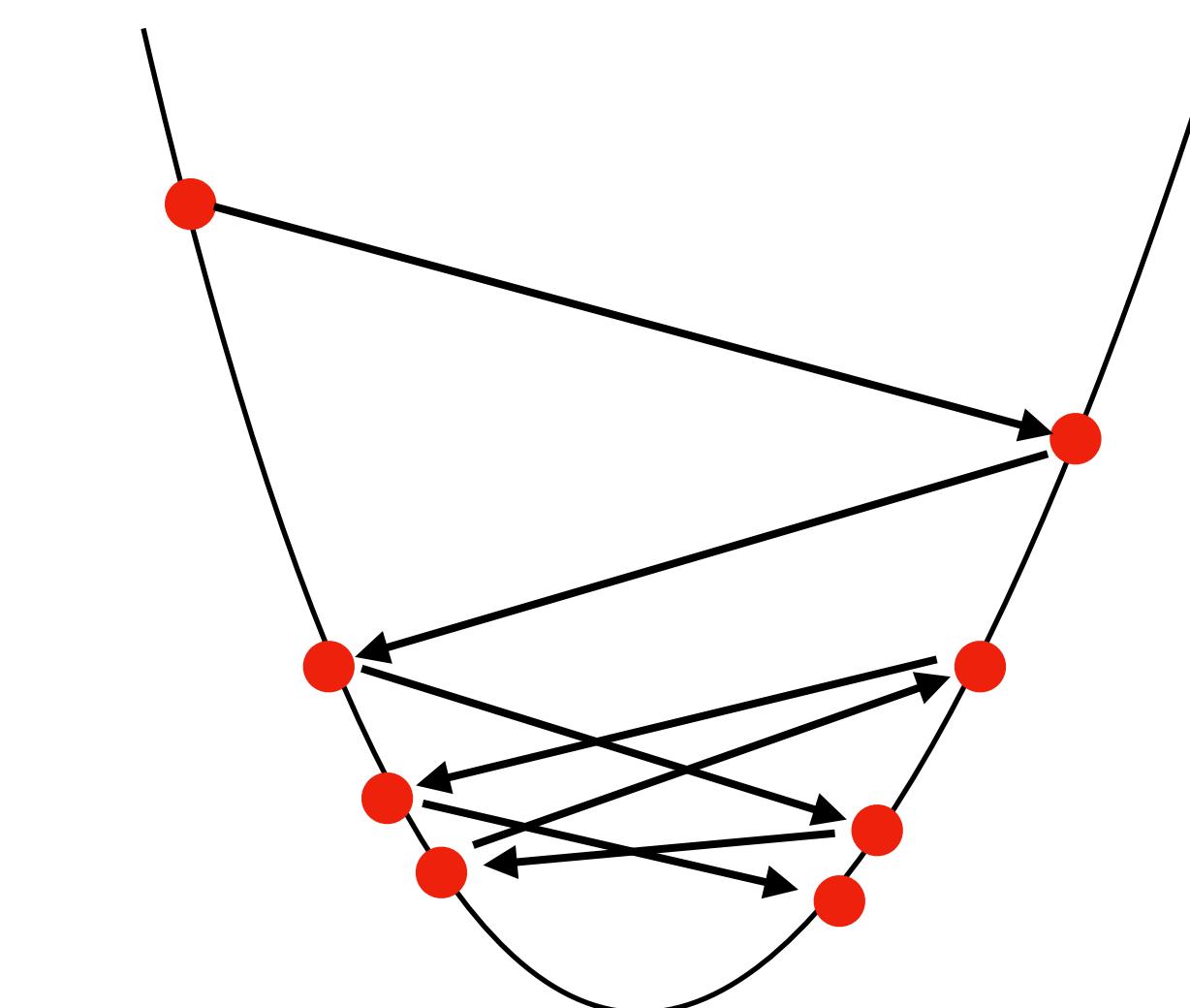


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**Question:**  
If the gradient here is positive, taking the negative of the gradient makes sense to get direction of steepest descent - i.e., we decrease the value of  $\theta$

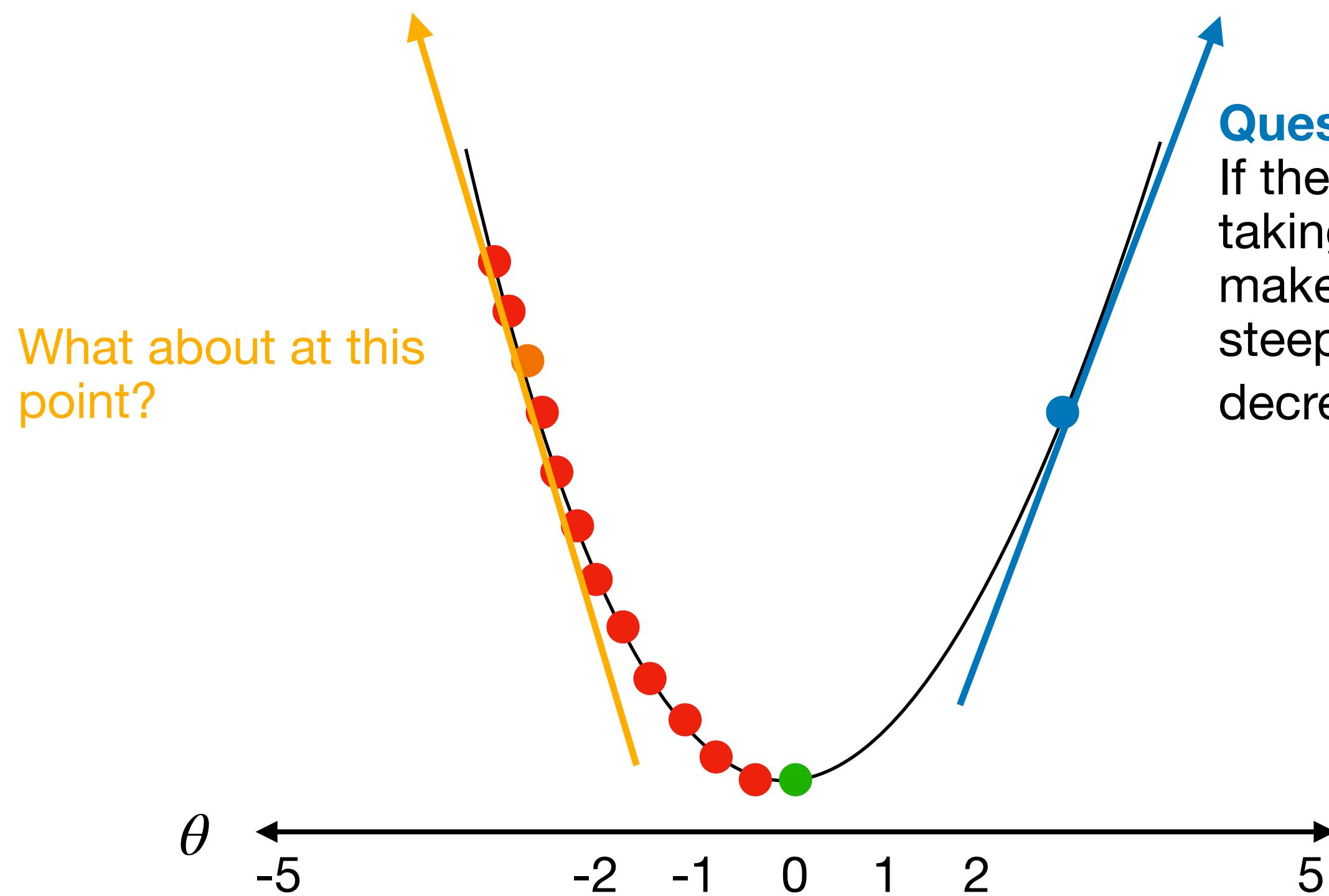


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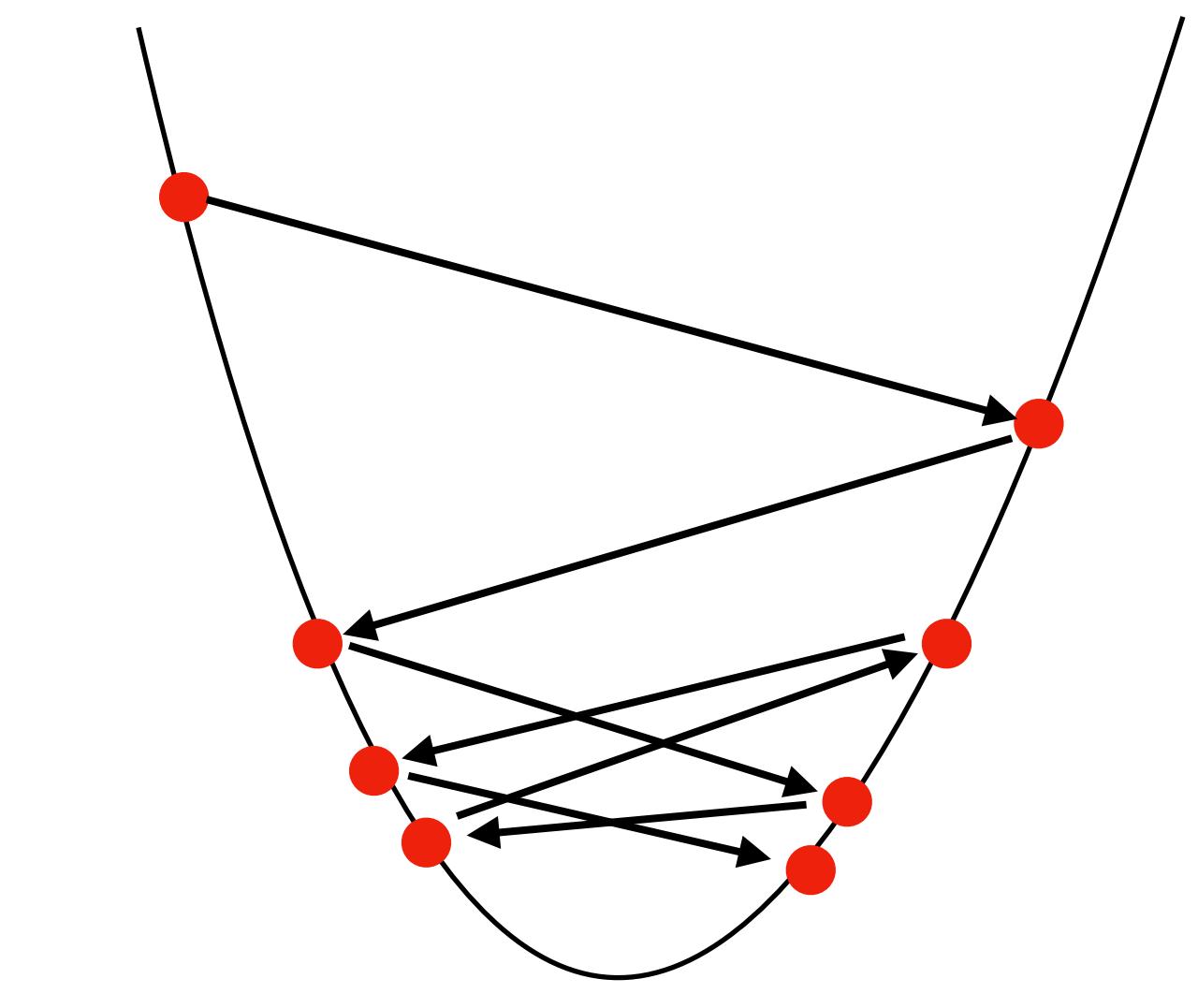
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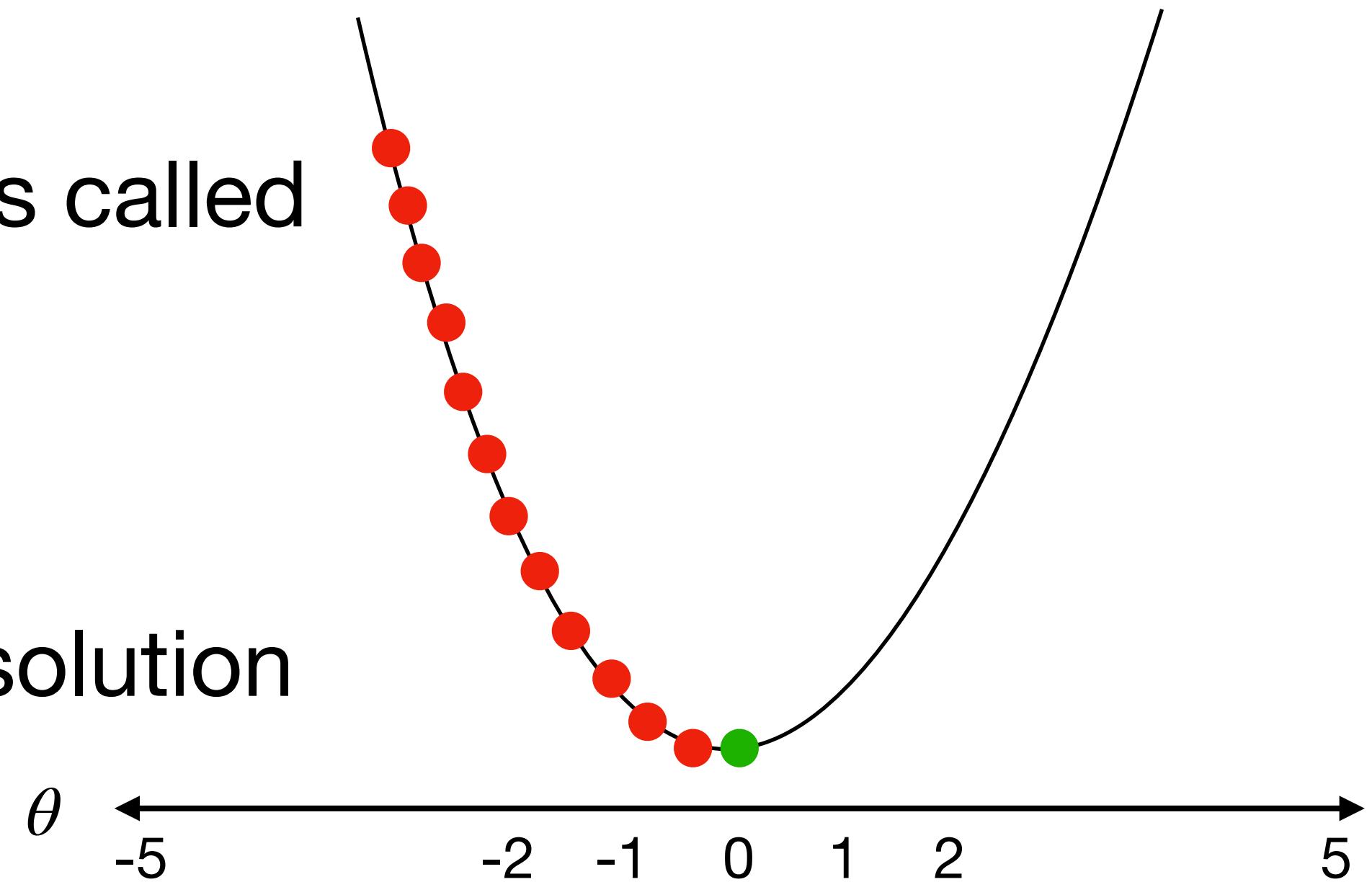
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# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Stopping Criterion

- When do you stop your iterations?
  - Maximum Iteration
    - Each iteration through the training dataset is called an “epoch”
    - Terminate after a fixed number of epochs
    - Simple, but provides no guarantees about solution quality

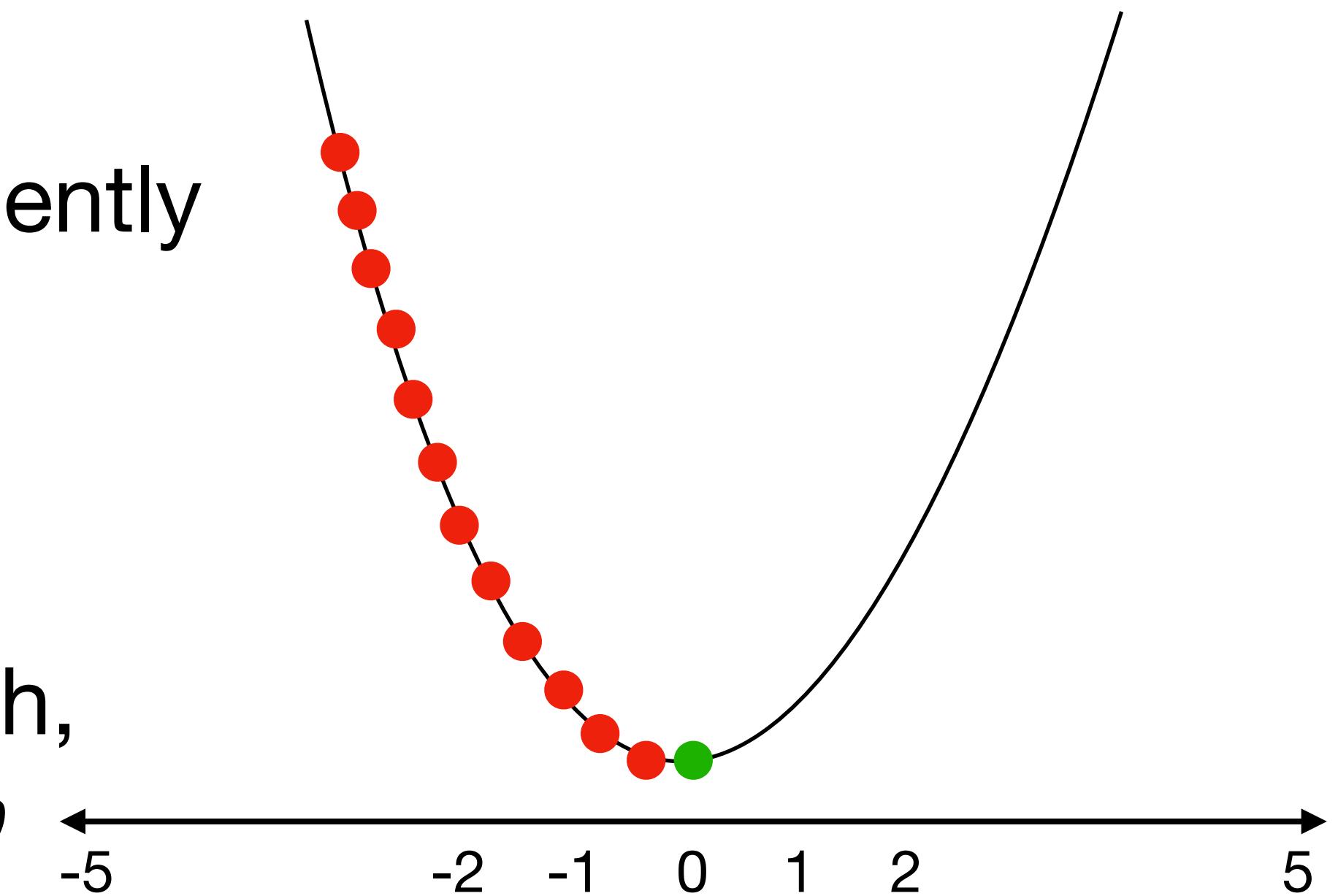


# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Stopping Criterion

- When do you stop your iterations?
  - Gradient Norm Threshold
    - Terminate when the gradient becomes sufficiently small
    - At this point, if the gradients are small enough, the parameters won't move much anyway

$$\|\nabla \ell_\theta(x)\|_2 \leq \epsilon$$

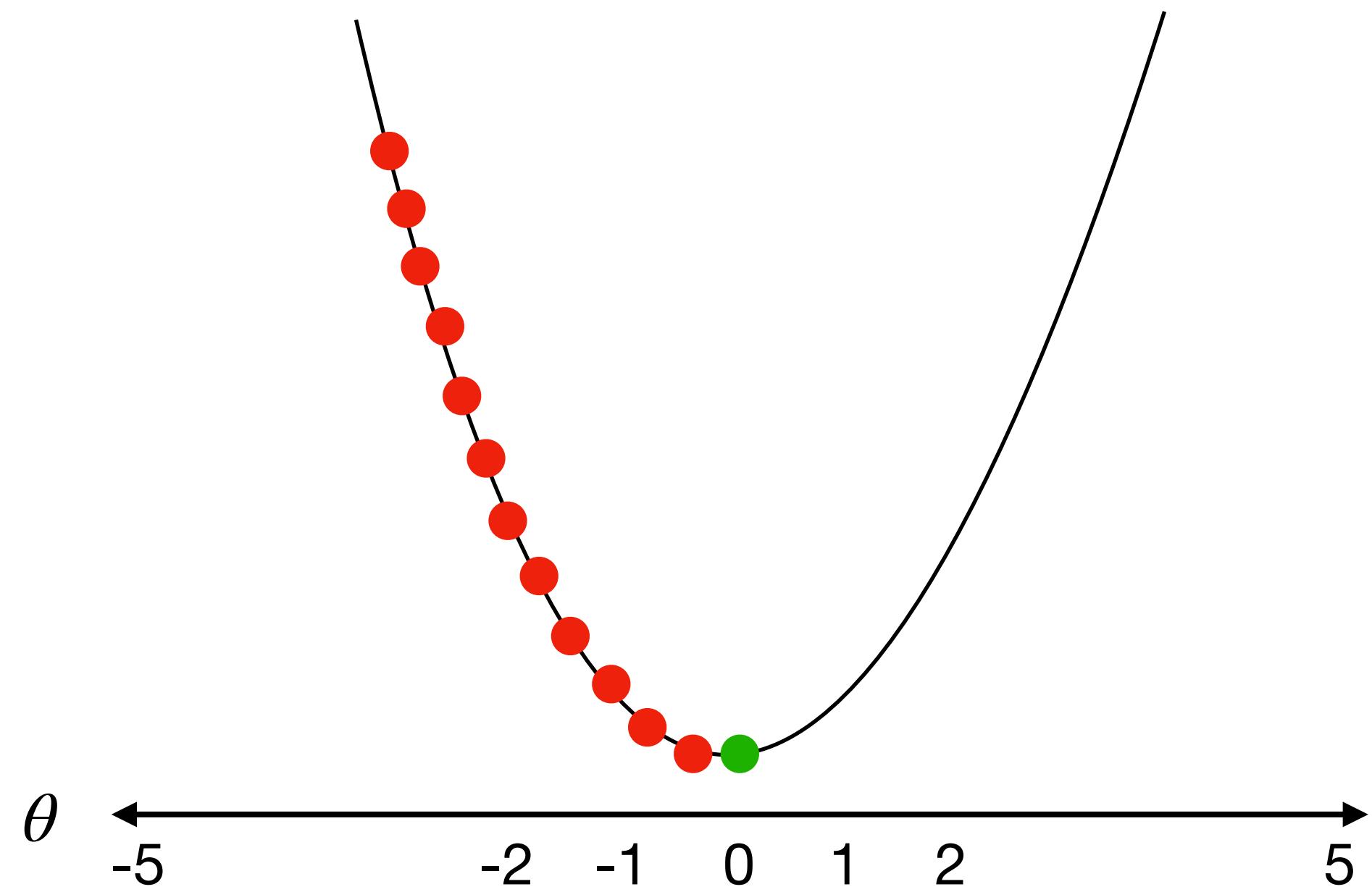


# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Stopping Criterion

- When do you stop your iterations?
  - Function Value Change
    - Terminate when the loss stops changing meaningfully

$$|\ell_{\theta_t}(x) - \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}(x)| \leq \epsilon$$

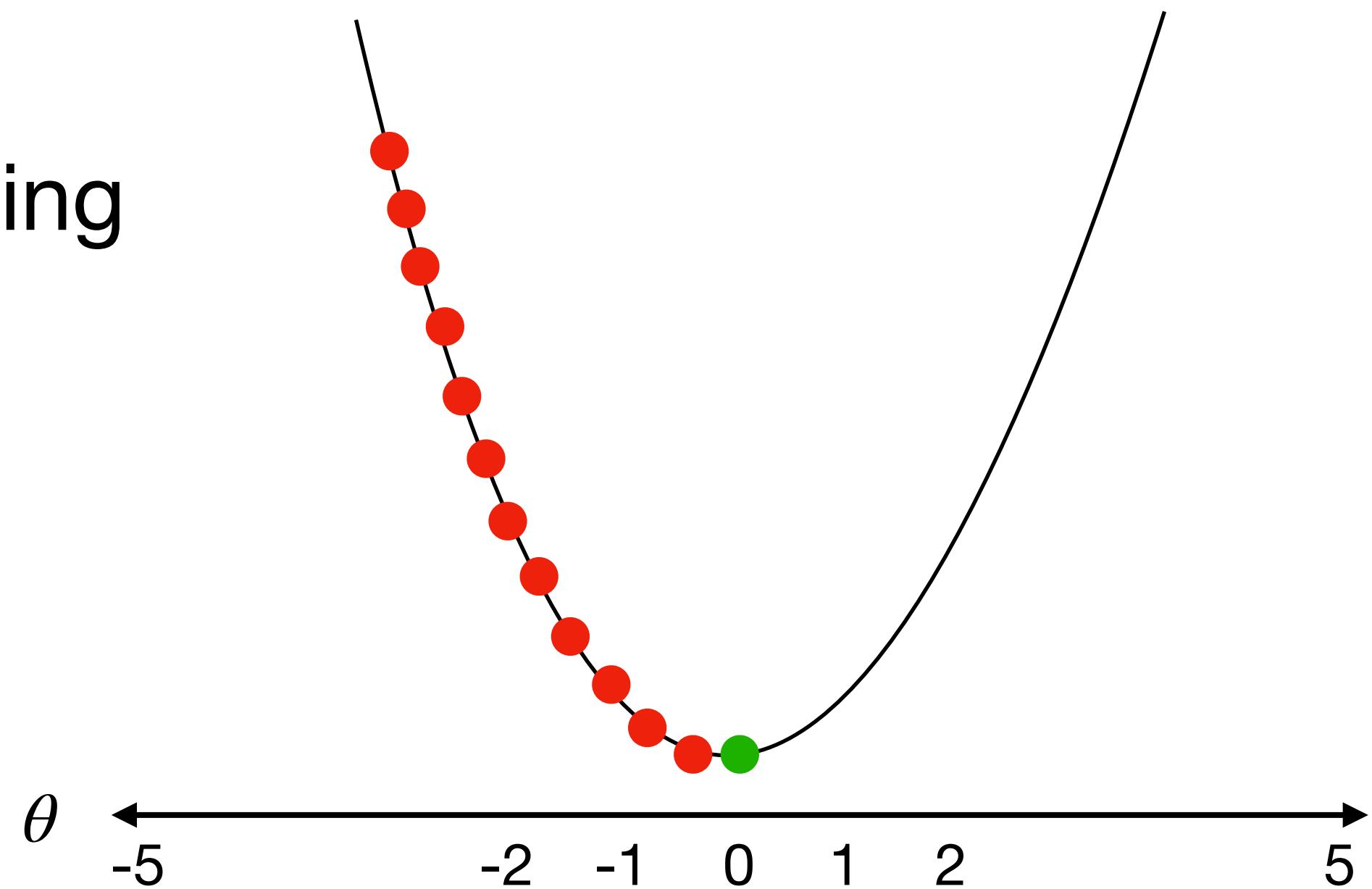


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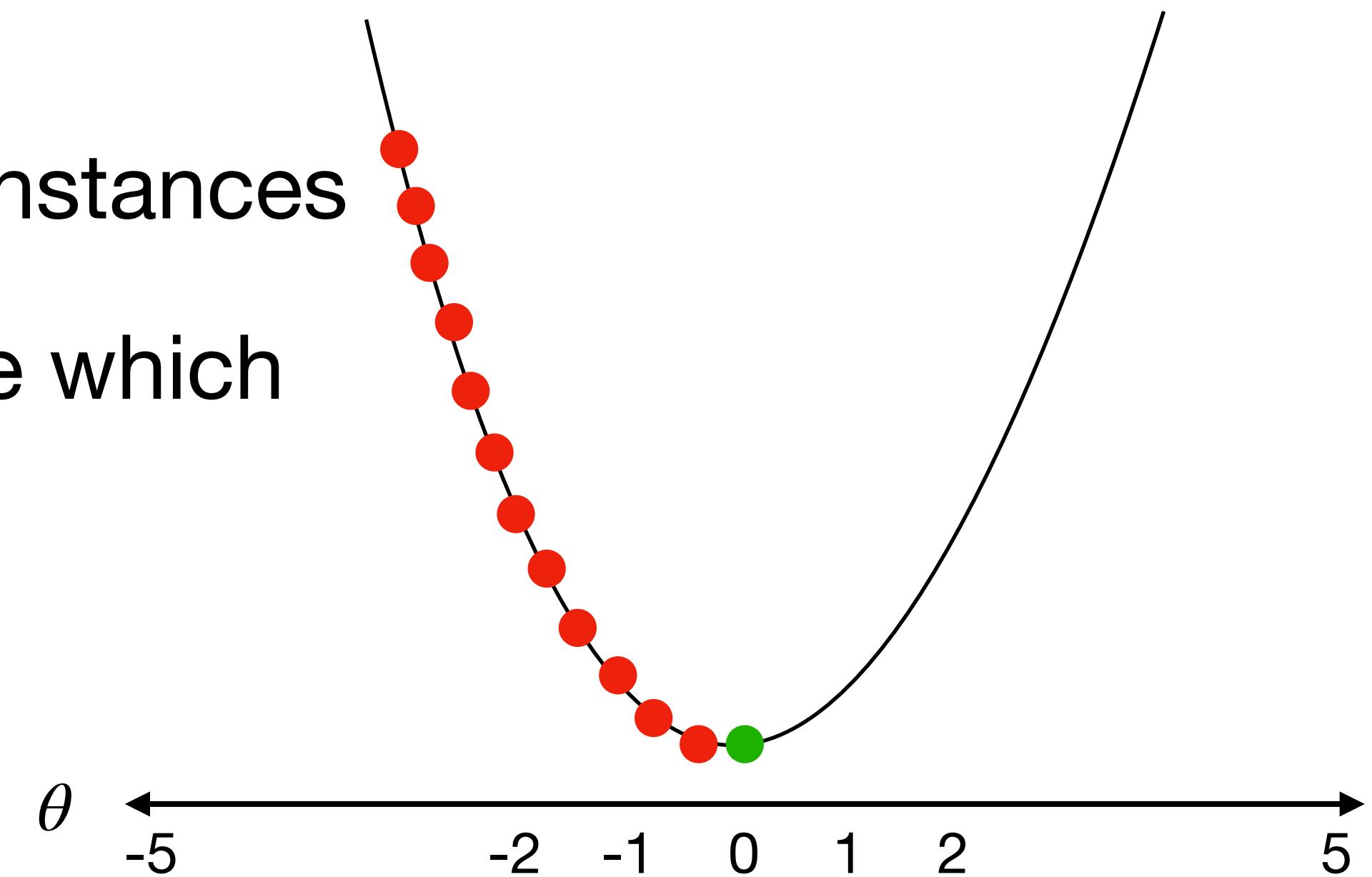
$$|\theta_t - \theta_{t-1}| \leq \epsilon$$



# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Stopping Criterion

- When do you stop your iterations?
  - Validation Based Stopping (Early Stopping)
    - Monitor performance on a validation set of instances
    - Stop when validation loss begins to increase which signals overfitting
    - Serves as both stopping criterion and regularization

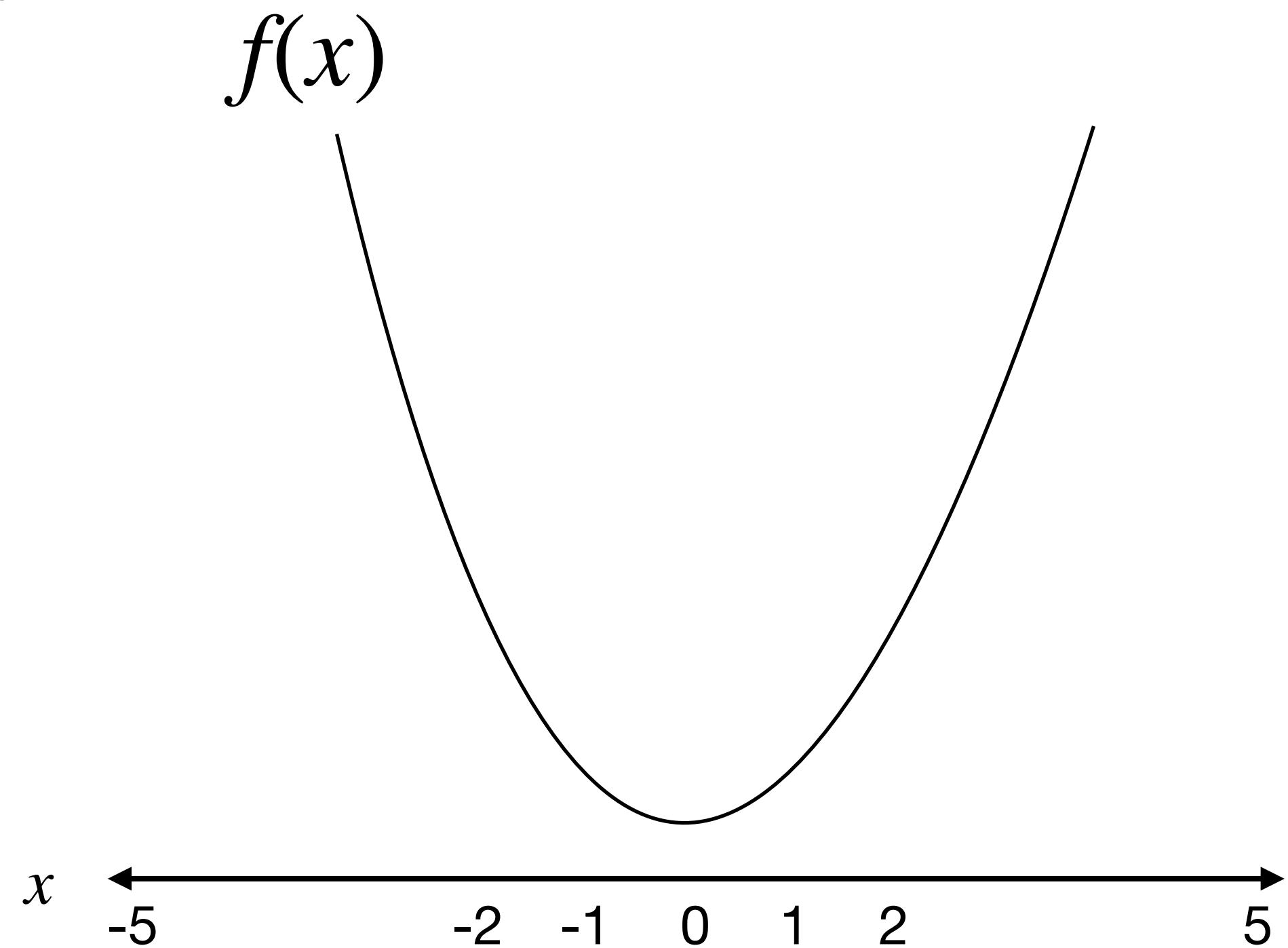


# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Convexity

- A function  $f$  is convex if for all points in its domain (input) and for all  $\lambda \in [0,1]$

$$f(\lambda x + (1 - \lambda)y) \leq \lambda f(x) + (1 - \lambda)f(y)$$

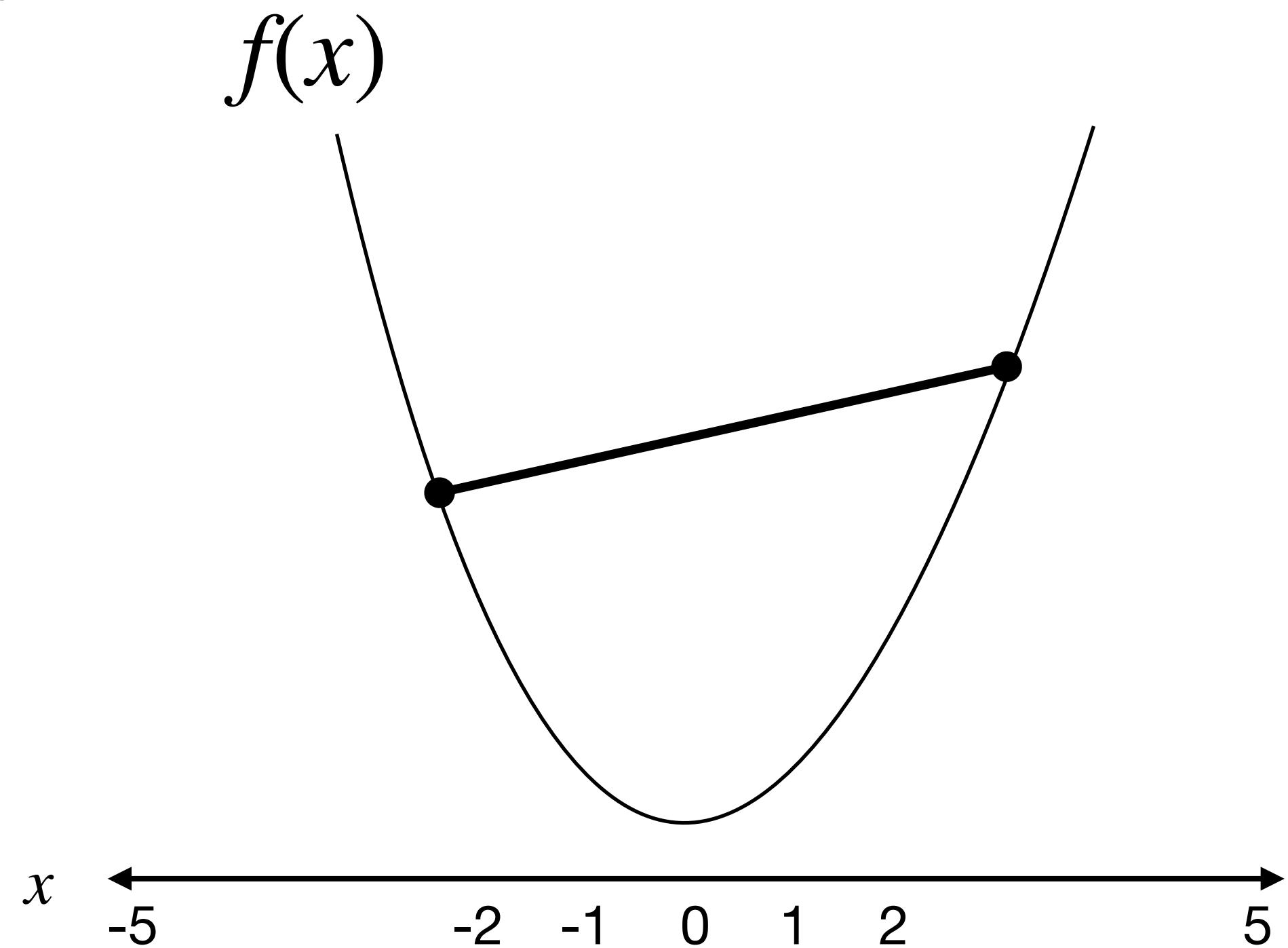


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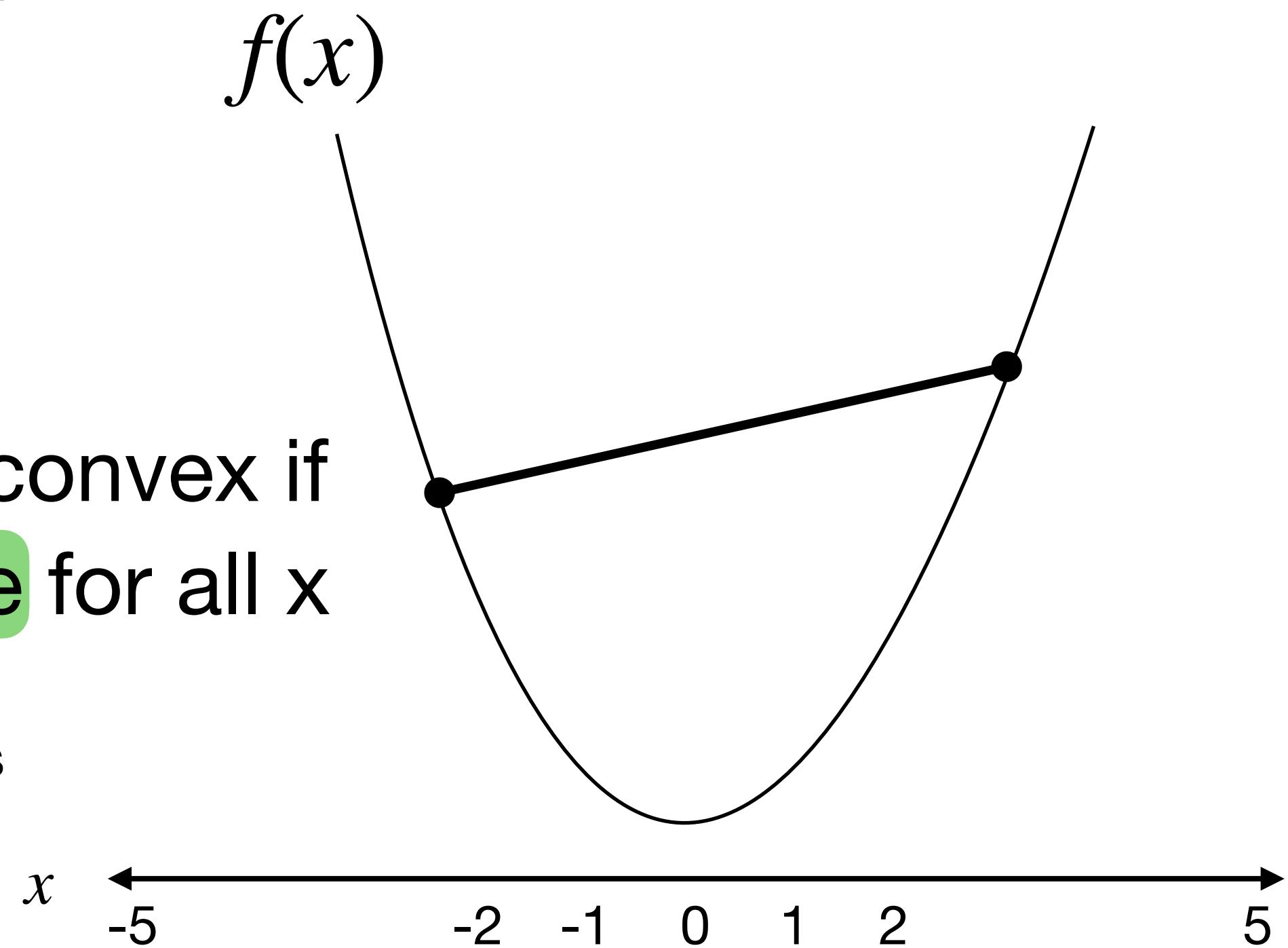
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- For more complicated functions, a function  $f$  is convex if the Hessian matrix  $H(x)$  is positive semi-definite for all  $x$

Second order derivative or derivative of the Jacobian

A matrix is positive semi-definite if and only if all of its eigenvalues are strictly greater than 0



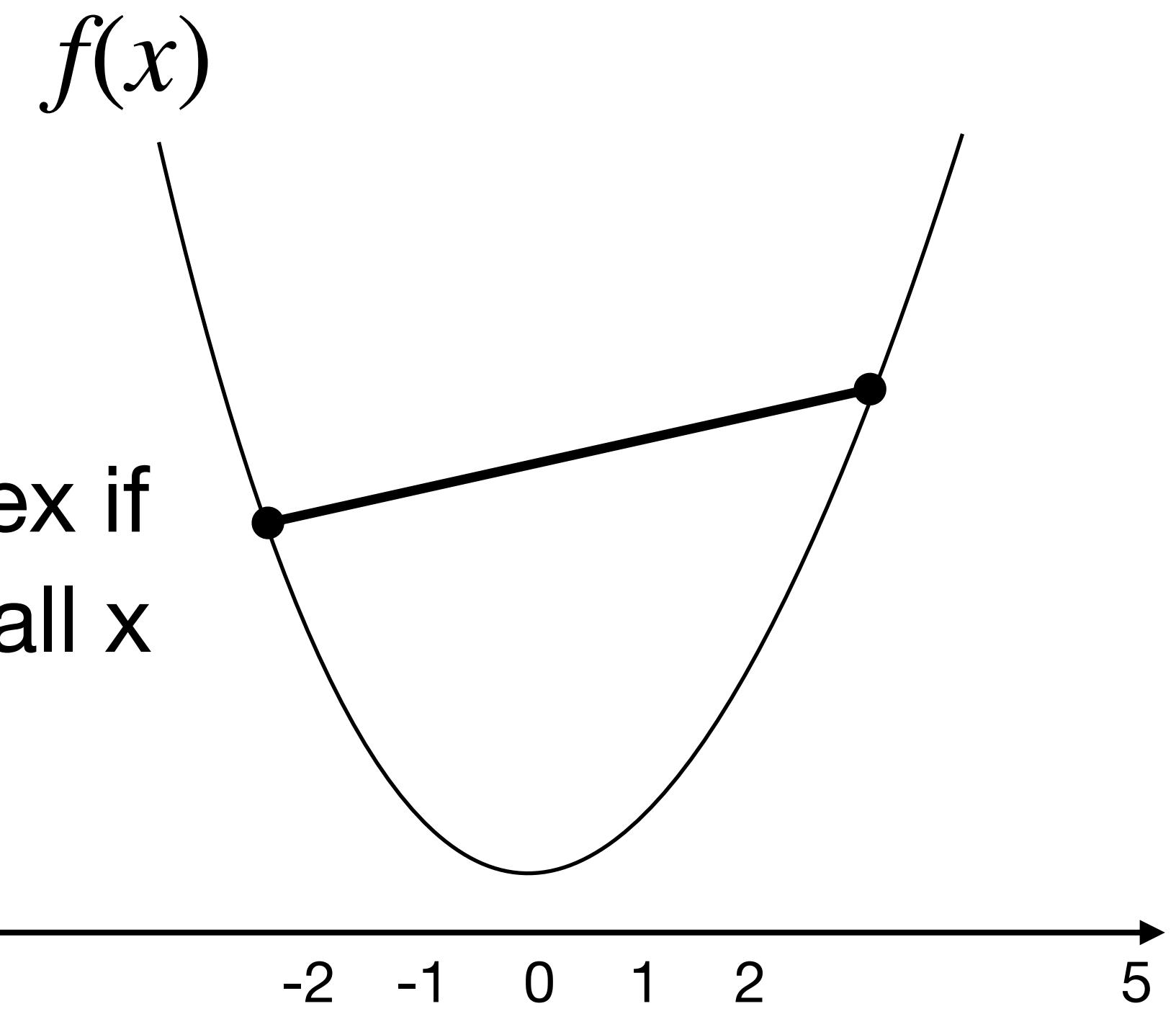
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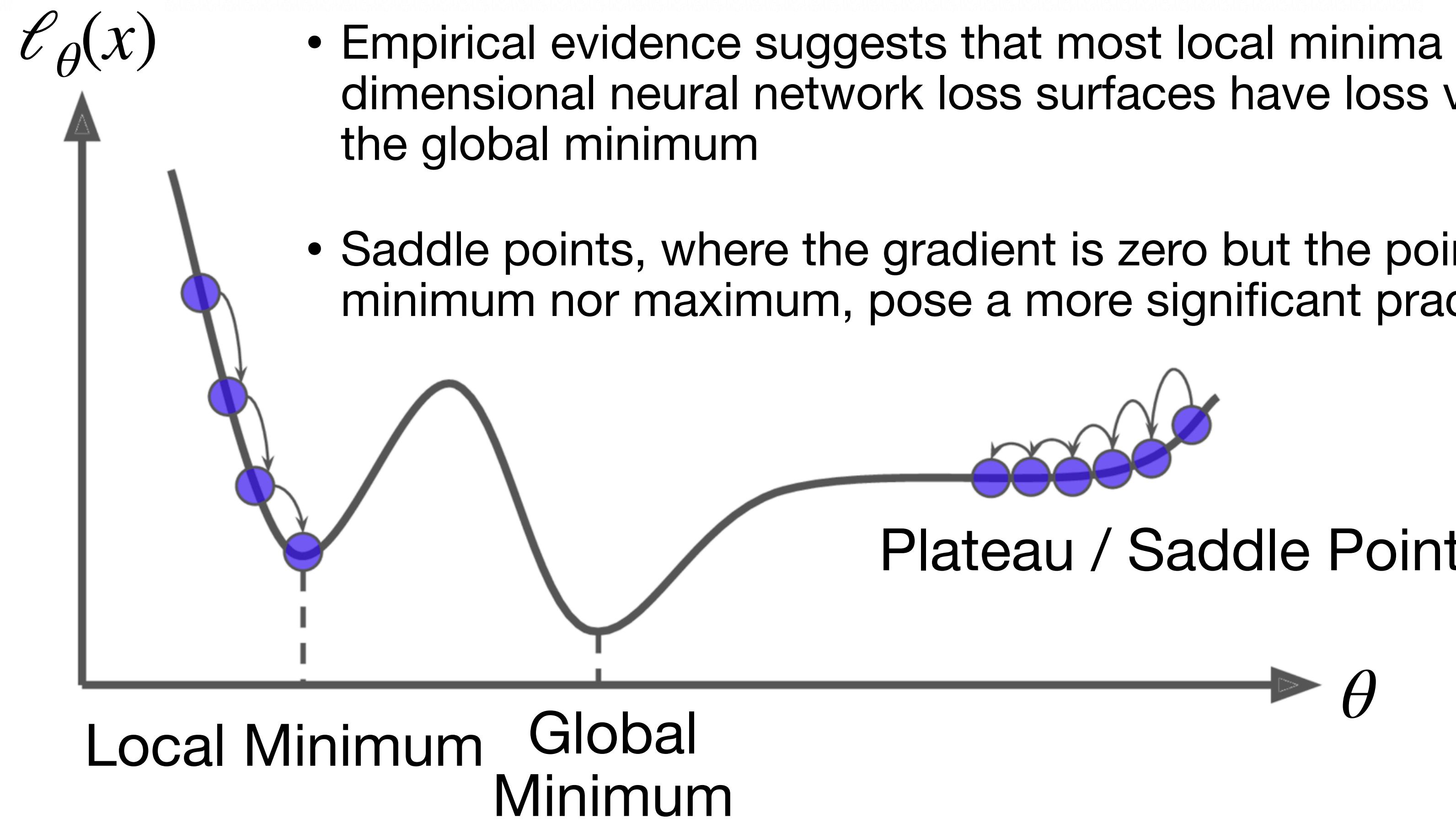
- For more complicated functions, a function  $f$  is convex if the Hessian matrix  $H(x)$  is positive semi-definite for all  $x$
- If a function is convex, gradient descent is guaranteed to converge given the right learning rate since every local minimum is a global minimum



# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - More Complicated Functions

- Most deep learning models however have **highly non-convex** loss landscapes
- Empirical evidence suggests that most local minima in high-dimensional neural network loss surfaces have loss values close to the global minimum
- Saddle points, where the gradient is zero but the point is neither a minimum nor maximum, pose a more significant practical challenge.

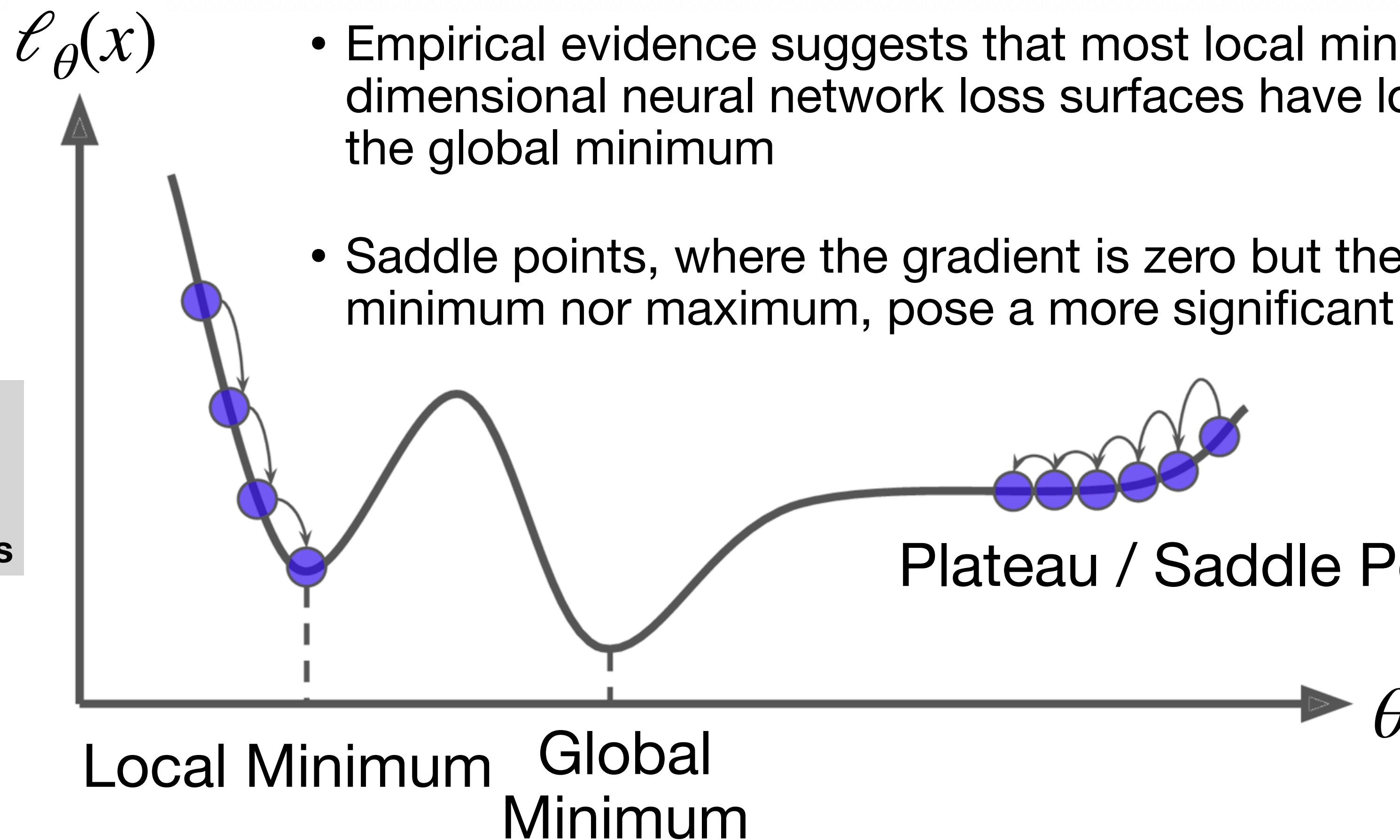


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Initialization is an issue.  
We will talk about it when we get to neural networks



# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Convergence Issues

- **Oscillation:** When the learning rate is **too large** or the loss surface has regions of high curvature, the algorithm oscillates around the minimum rather than converging smoothly.
- **Slow convergence in flat regions:** When gradients are small, parameter updates become negligible, leading to extremely slow progress.
- **Divergence:** If the learning rate exceeds a certain value for convex functions, the algorithm can **diverge** entirely, with the loss increasing without bound.
- Saddle points: In high dimensions, saddle points are ubiquitous. The **gradient at a saddle point is zero**, causing standard gradient descent to stall.

# Optimizing Loss Functions

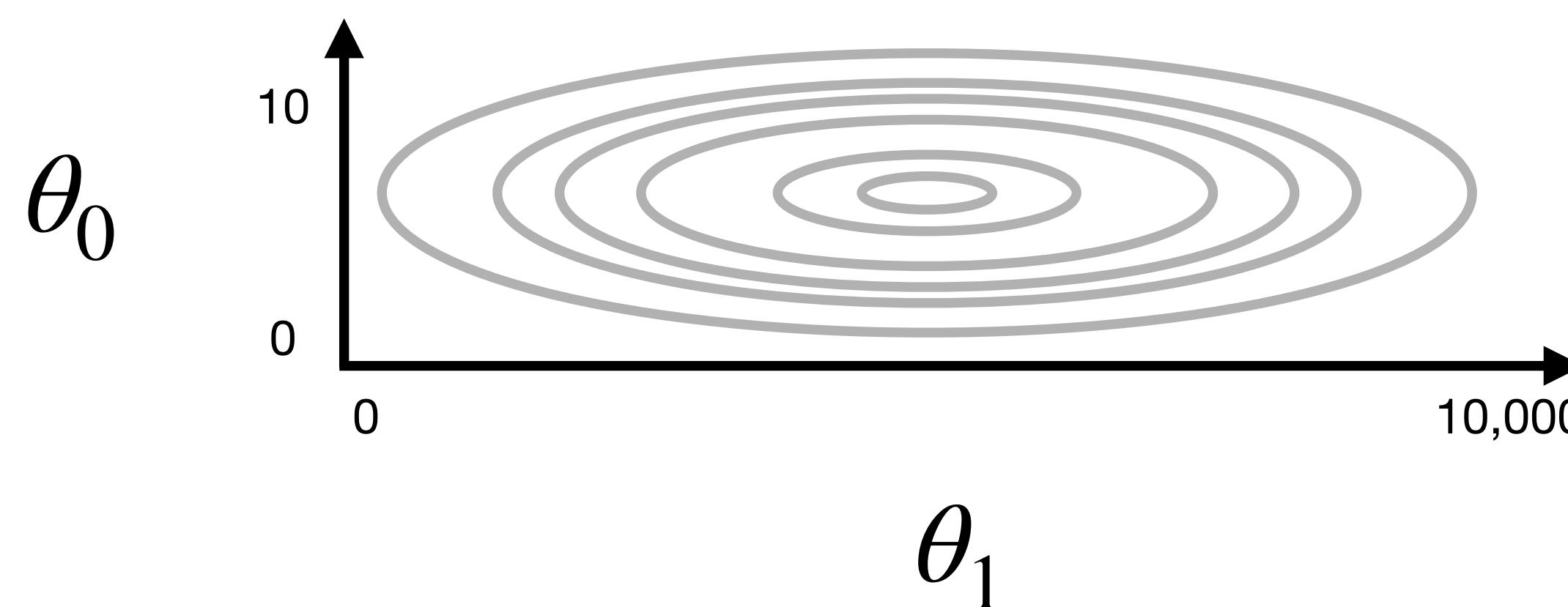
## Gradient Descent - Practical Fixes

- Feature Scaling
  - Remember we want all input features  $x_1, x_2 \dots x_n$  to be in similar ranges
  - When features have different scales, the loss surface becomes elongated (ill-conditioned).

# Optimizing Loss Functions

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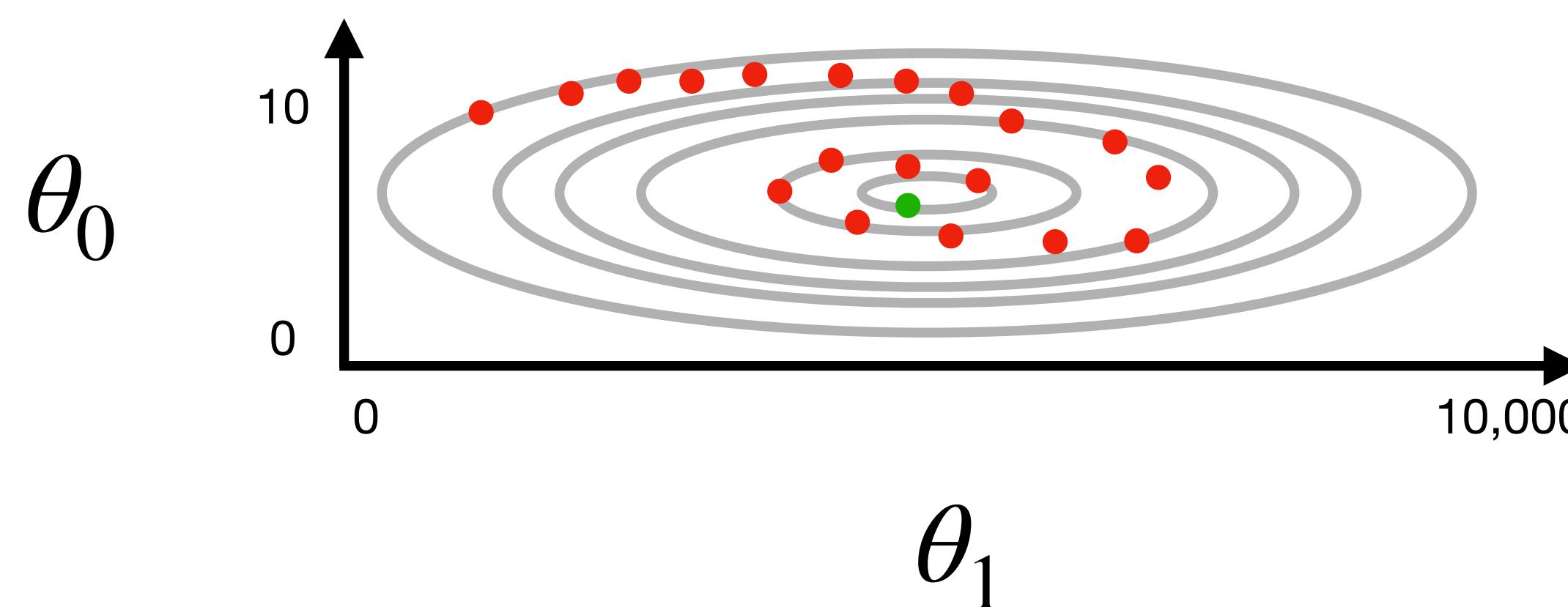
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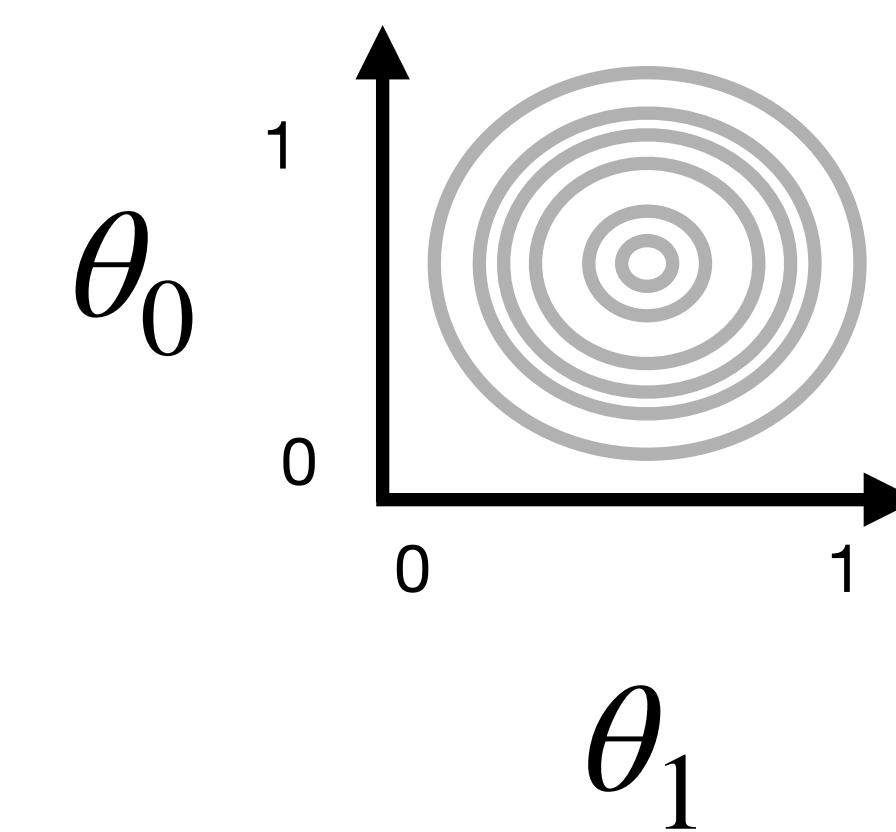
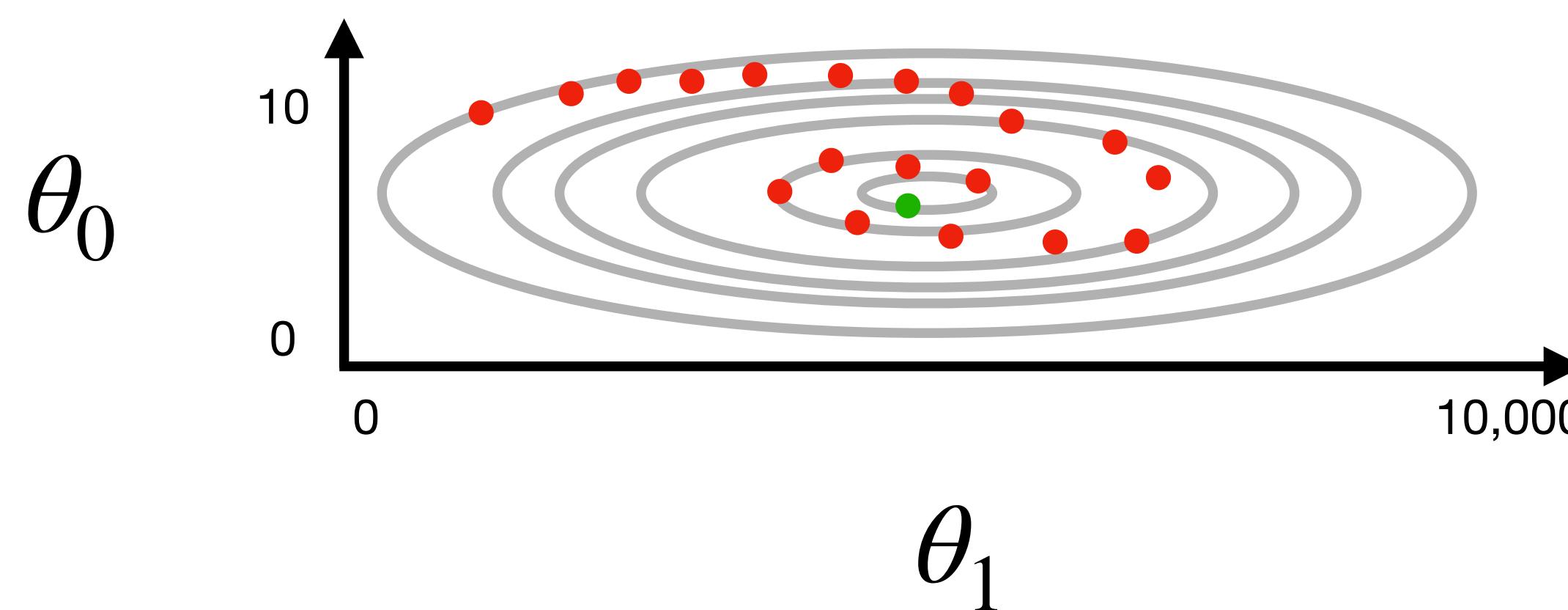
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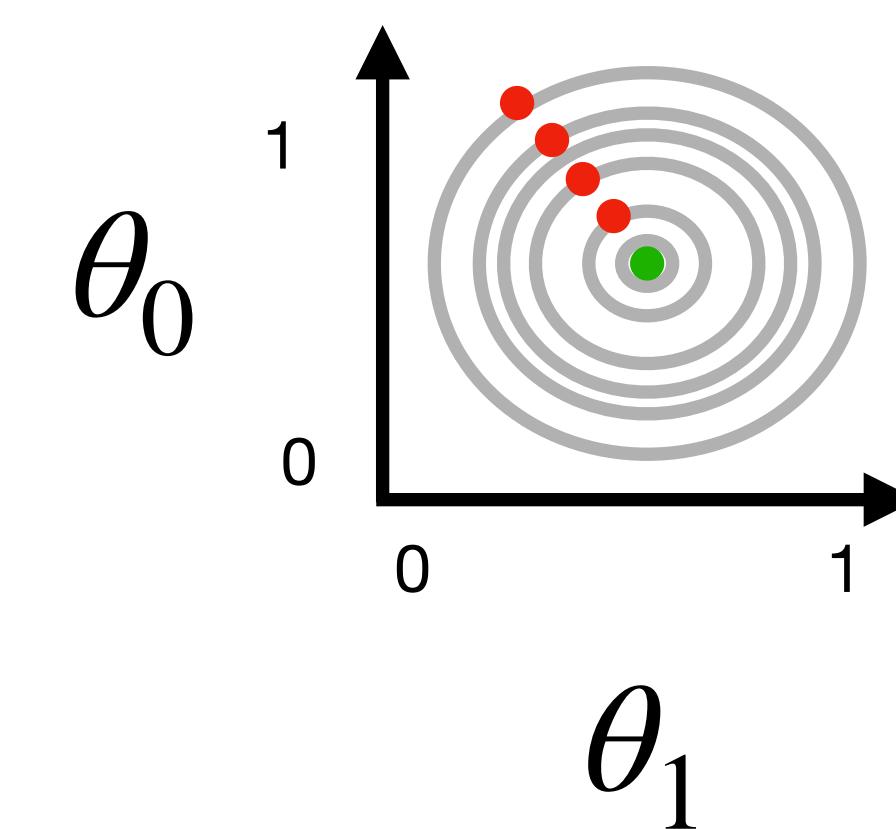
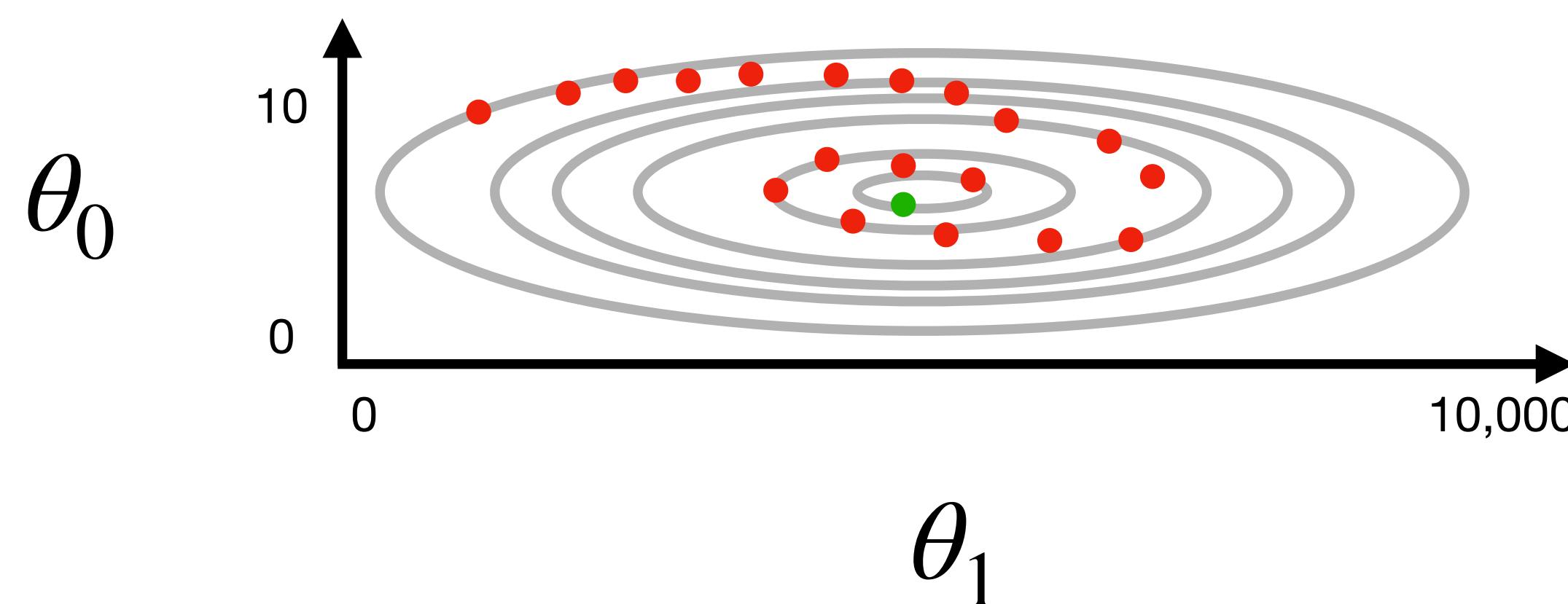
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This dramatically accelerates the optimization process

This also allows having one single learning rate for all parameters

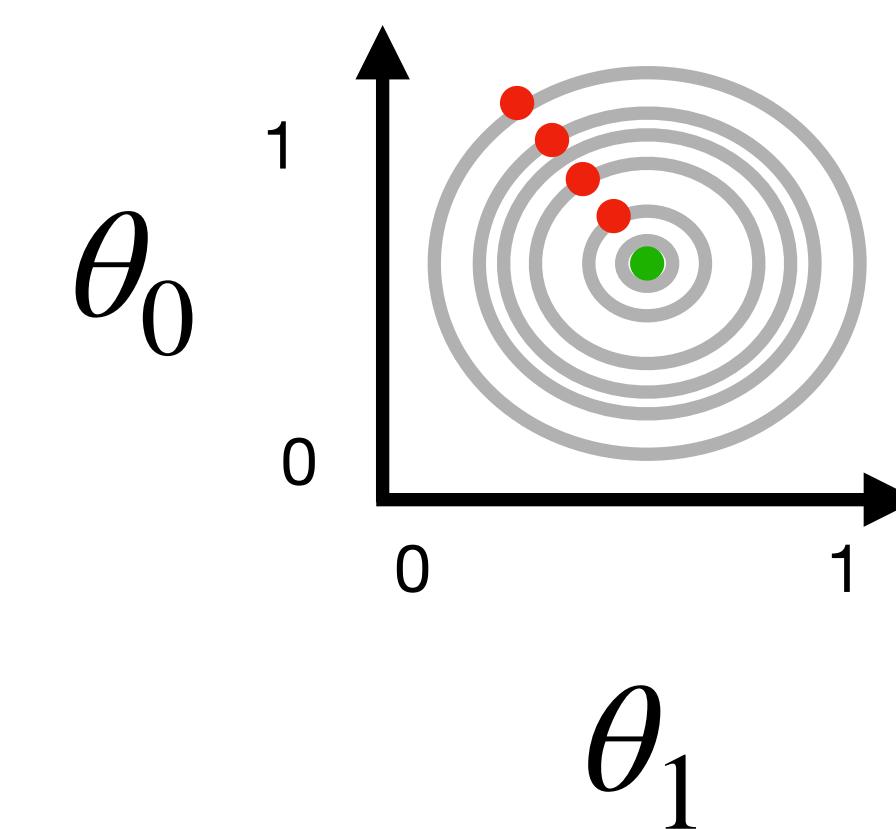
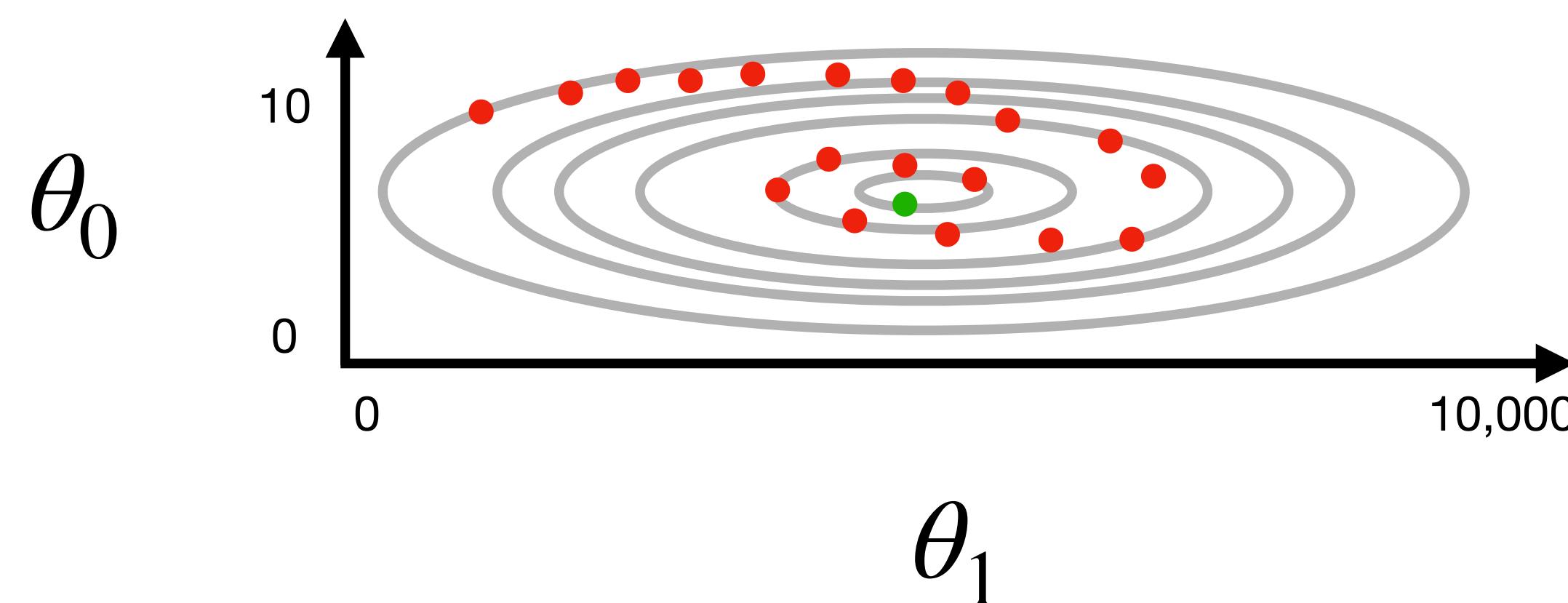
# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Practical Fixes

- Feature Scaling

**NOTE:** Scaling parameters (mean, standard deviation, min, max) must be computed only on training data and then applied to validation and test data to prevent data leakage.

- Remember we want all input features  $x_1, x_2 \dots x_n$  to be in similar ranges
- When features have different scales, the loss surface becomes elongated (ill-conditioned).



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# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Momentum

- Standard gradient descent can oscillate in ravines
  - Areas where the surface curves **more steeply in one dimension** than another
  - Or they can get stuck in plateau / saddle points
- Momentum helps accelerate gradient descent by accumulating velocity in **directions of consistent gradient**

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j - \alpha \cdot \frac{\partial \ell_{\theta}(x)}{\partial \theta_j}$$

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}$$

# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Momentum

- Momentum helps accelerate gradient descent by accumulating velocity in **directions of consistent gradient**

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}$$

**With Momentum**

$$v_t = \beta \cdot v_{t-1} + \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}$$

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \cdot v_t$$

# Optimizing Loss Functions

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**With Momentum**

Velocity Vector  $v_t = \beta \cdot v_{t-1} + \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}$

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# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Momentum

- Momentum helps accelerate gradient descent by accumulating velocity in **directions of consistent gradient**

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}$$

### With Momentum

$\beta$  is the momentum coefficient, typically set to 0.9

$$v_t = \beta \cdot v_{t-1} + \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}$$

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \cdot v_t$$

# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Momentum

- Momentum helps accelerate gradient descent by accumulating velocity in **directions of consistent gradient**

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}$$

### With Momentum

If  $\beta = 0$ , you get back standard gradient descent  $v_t = \beta \cdot v_{t-1} + \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}$

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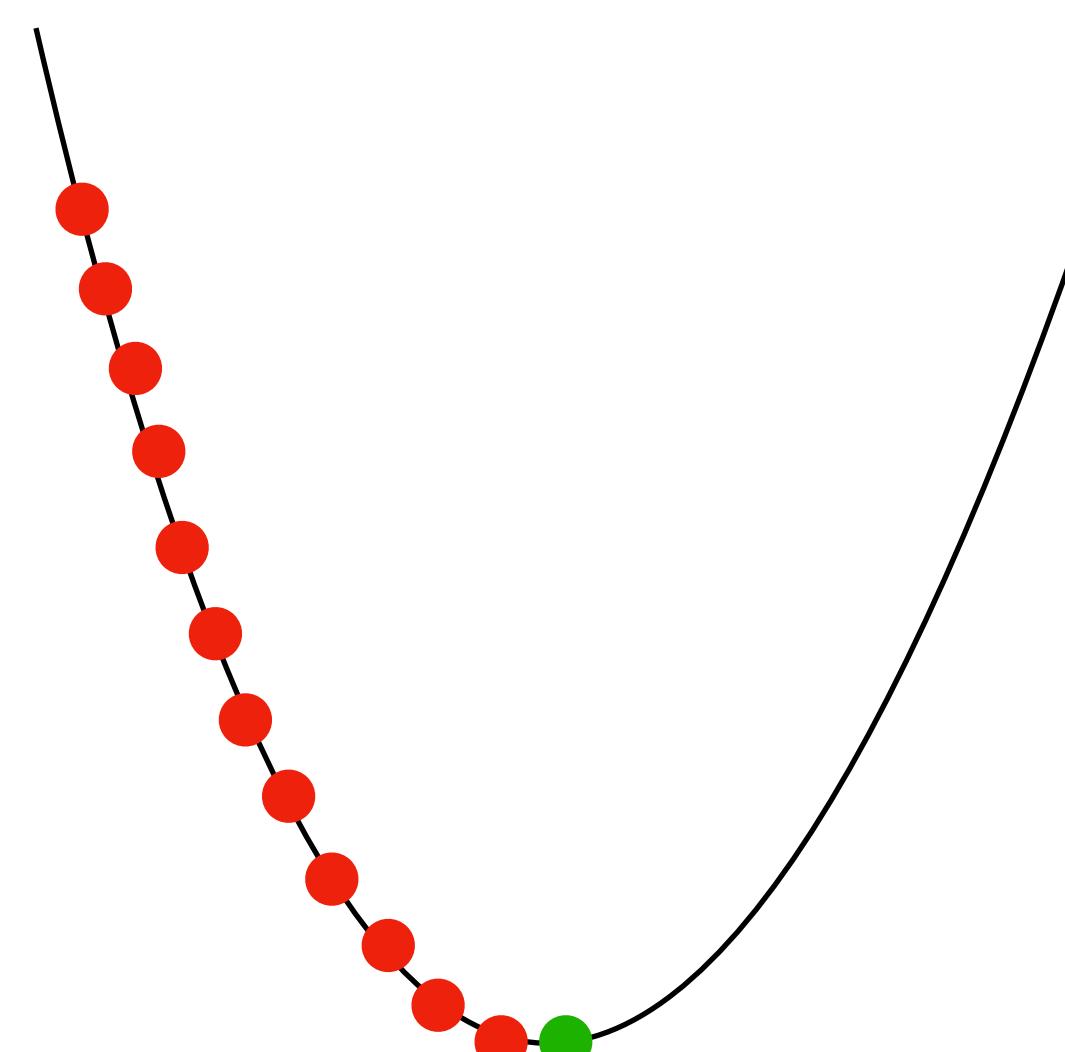
$$v_t = \beta \cdot v_{t-1} + \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}$$

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Think of momentum as gravity pulling a ball down a hill, the momentum will carry the ball through any flat or even small uphill regions

# Optimizing Loss Functions

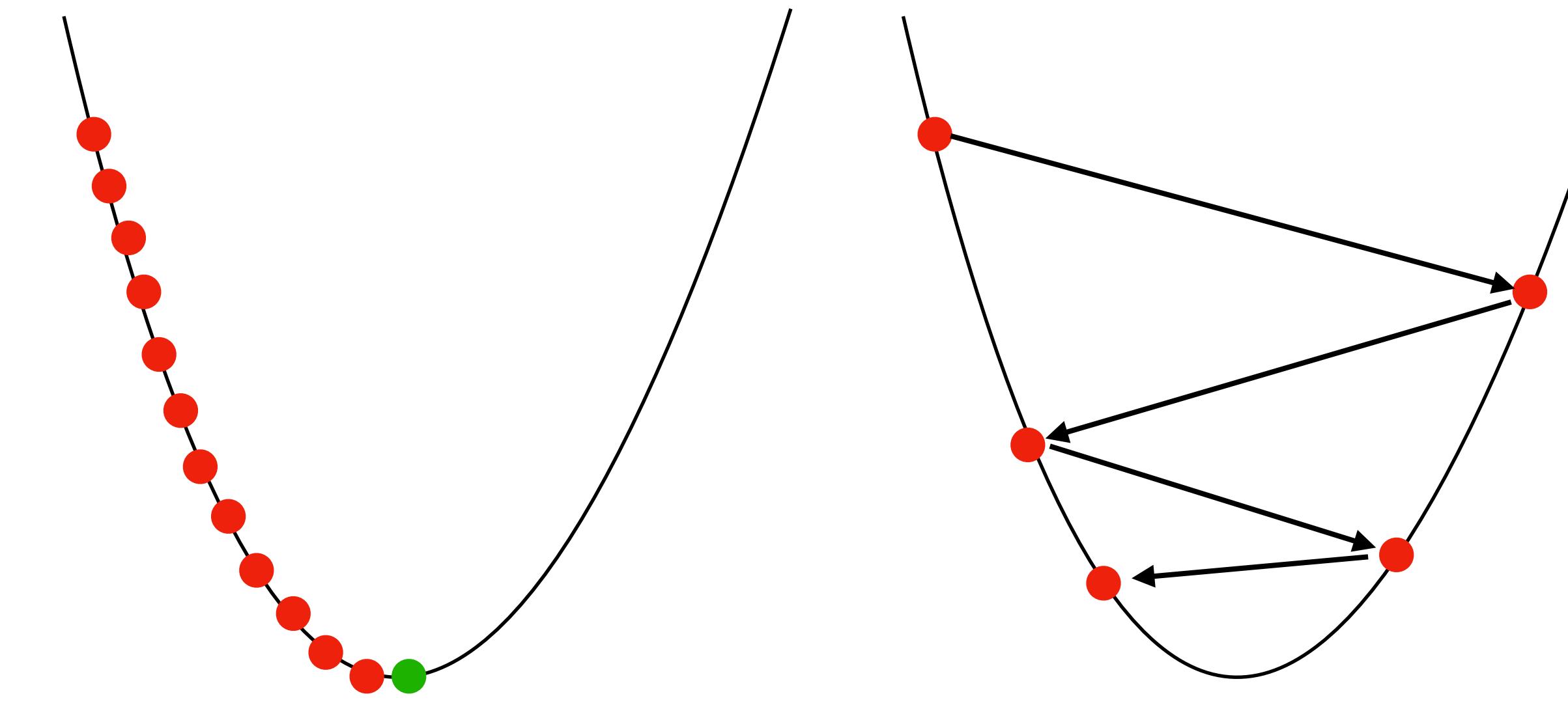
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$\alpha$  is too small  
Finds the optimal but too slow

# Optimizing Loss Functions

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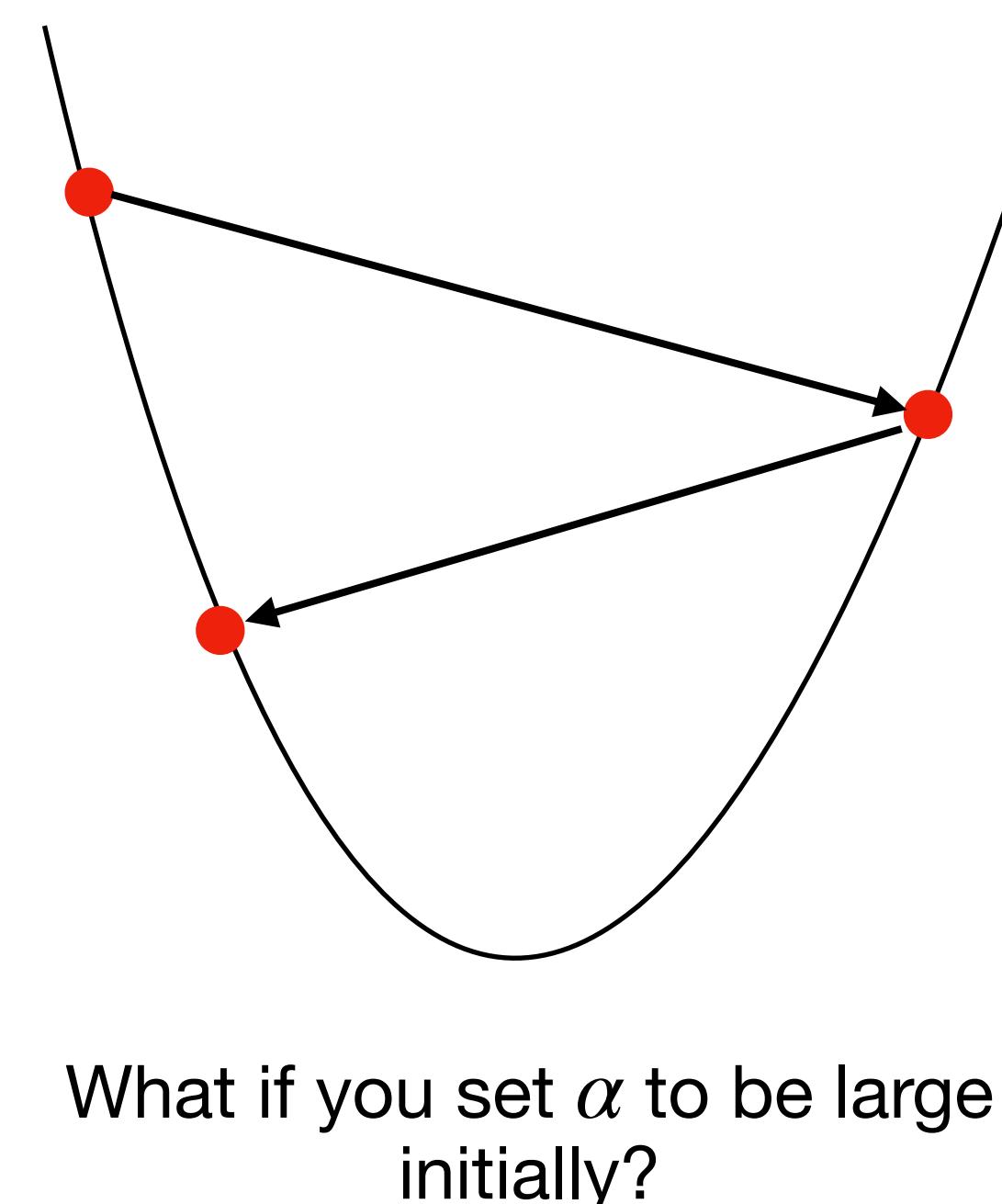
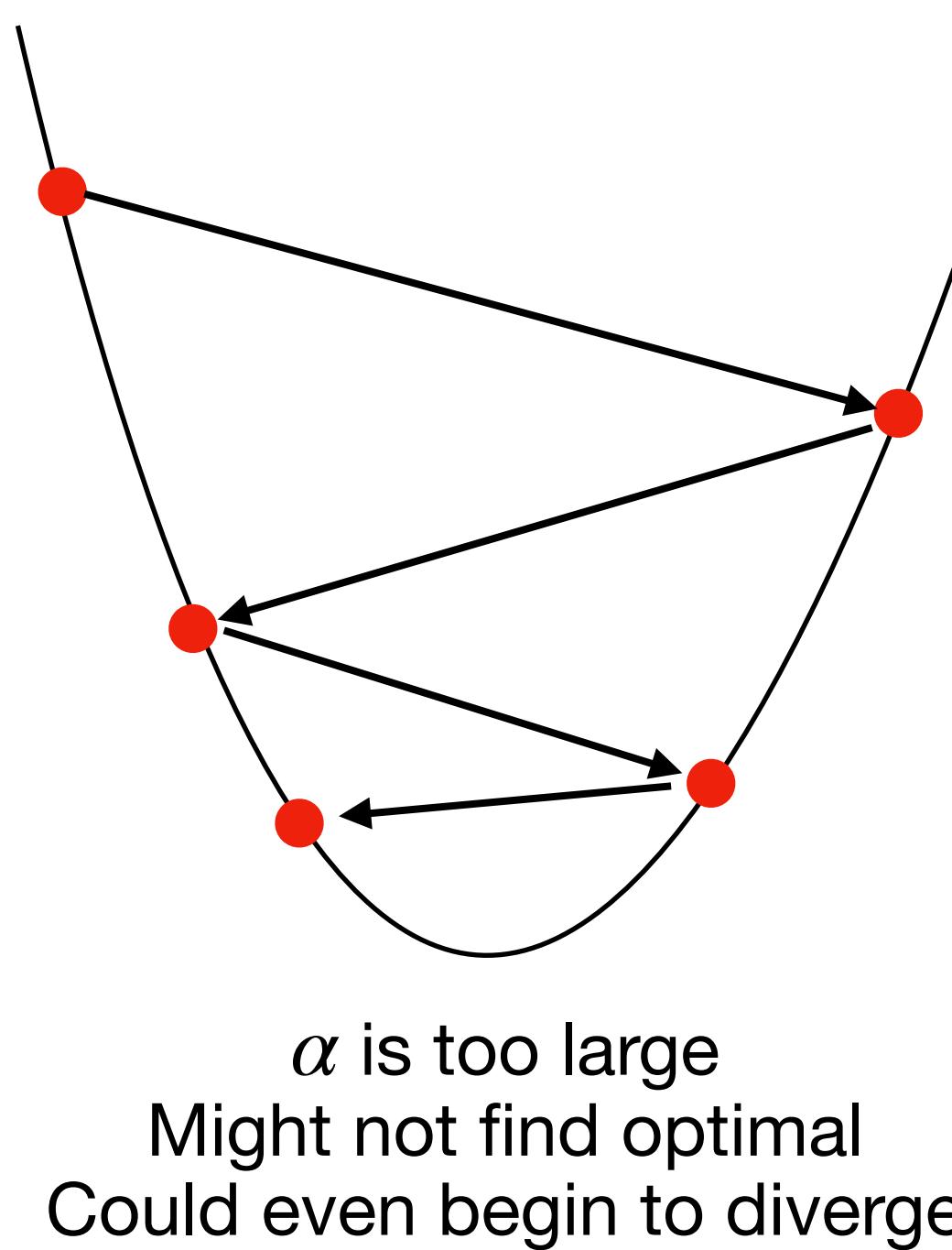
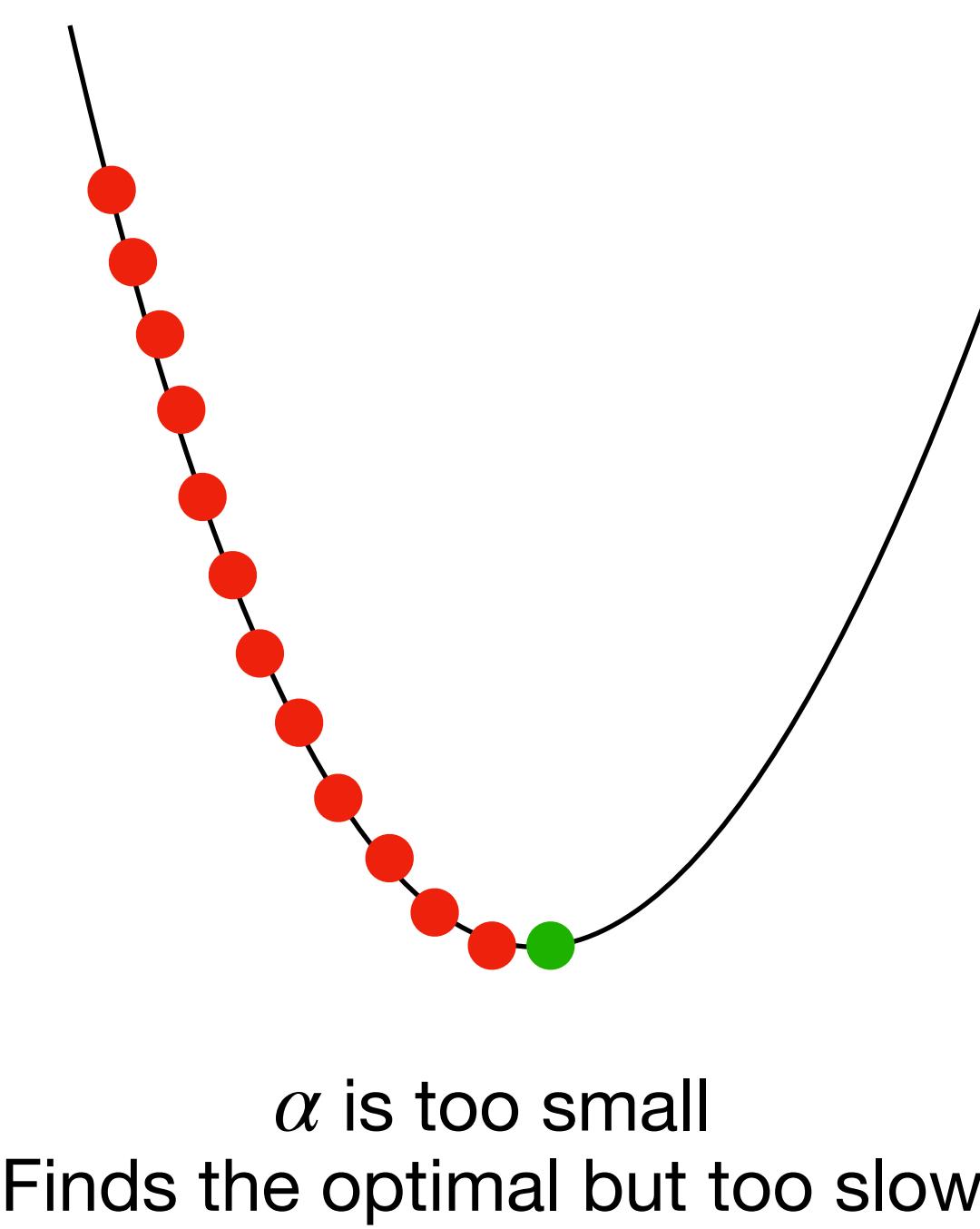


$\alpha$  is too small  
Finds the optimal but too slow

$\alpha$  is too large  
Might not find optimal  
Could even begin to diverge

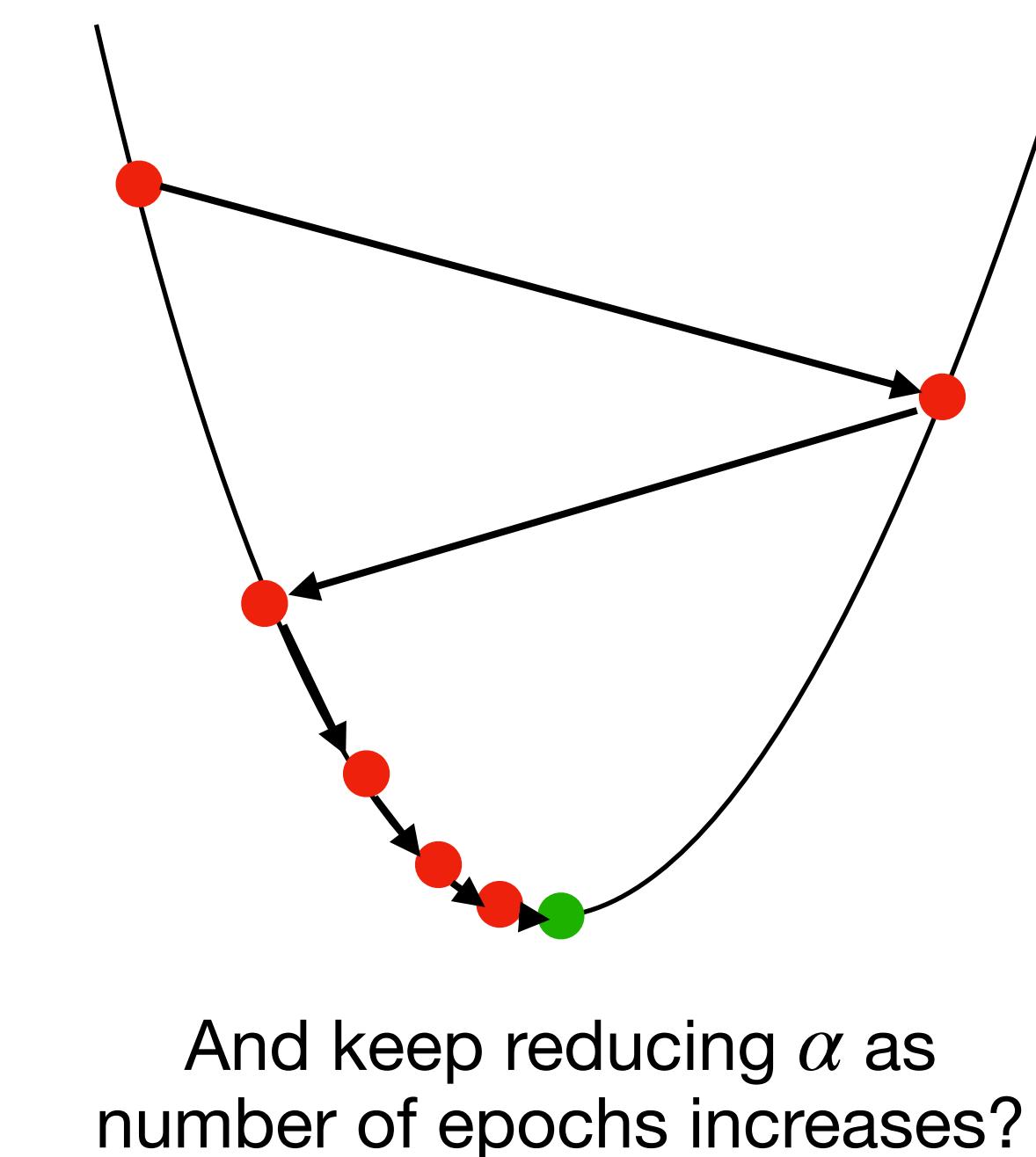
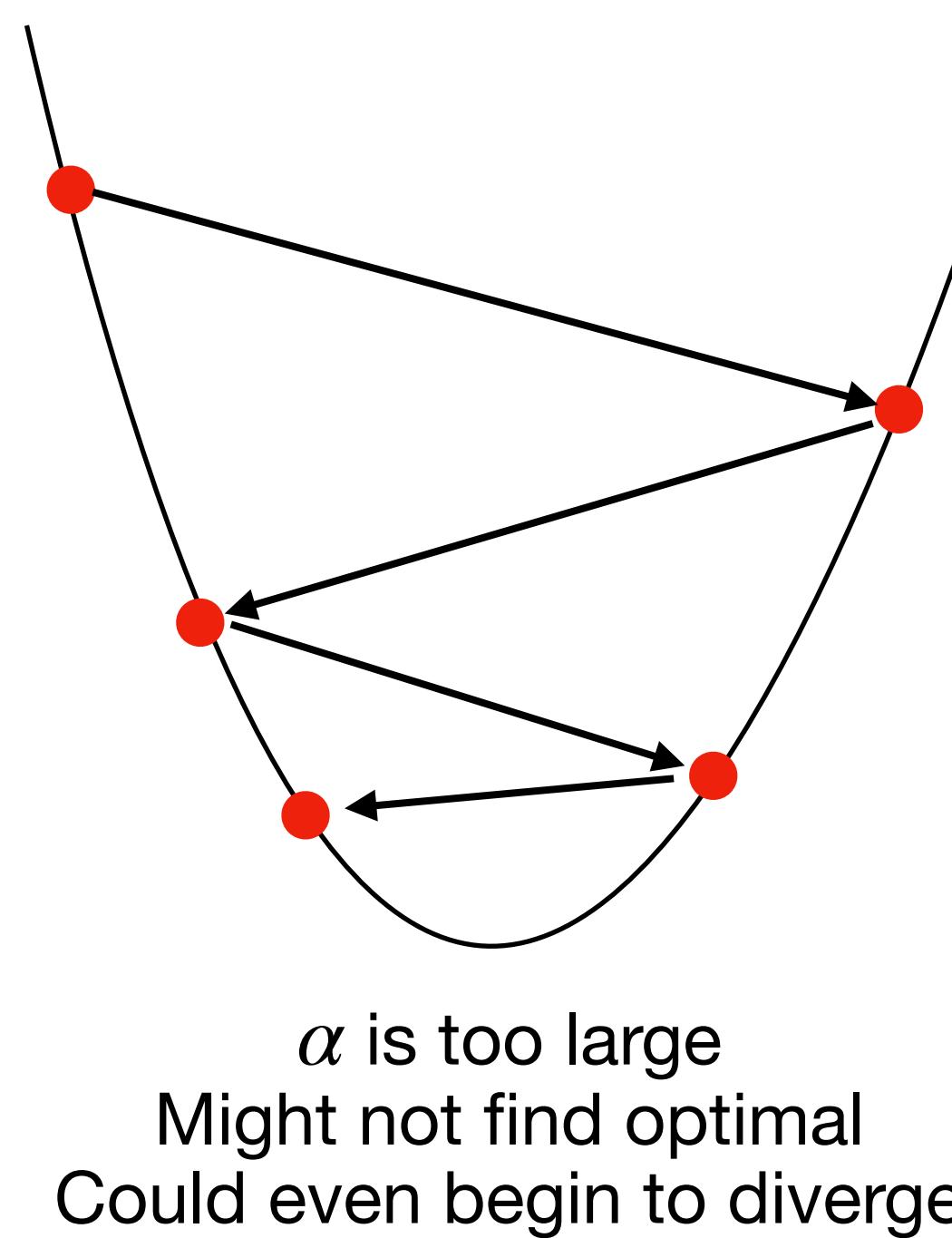
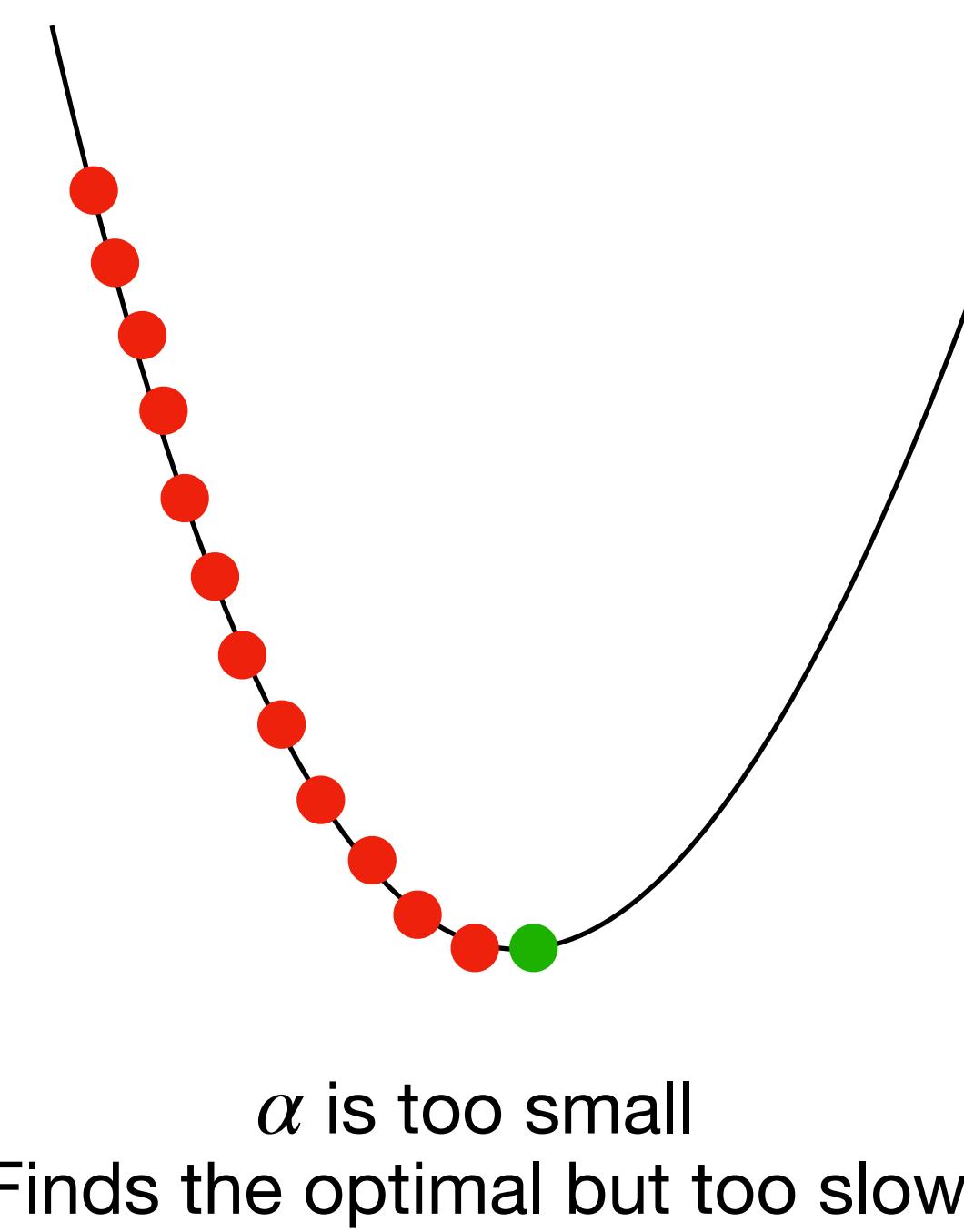
# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Adaptive Step Sizes



# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Adaptive Step Sizes



# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - Per Parameter Adaptive Learning Rates

- A single global learning rate may be suboptimal
  - Some parameters might benefit from larger updates while others need smaller ones.
  - Adaptive methods adjust the learning rate for each parameter individually based on historical gradient information.

# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - AdaGrad

- AdaGrad adapts the learning rate for **each parameter** based on the sum of squared historical gradients

$$G_t = G_{t-1} + (\nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}})^2$$

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{G_t} + \epsilon} \cdot \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}$$

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- Parameters with small historical gradients receive larger updates
- The limitation is that the accumulated sum  $G_t$  grows monotonically, eventually making the learning rate vanishingly small.

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# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - RMSProp

- RMSprop addresses AdaGrad's diminishing learning rate by using an exponentially decaying average of squared gradients

$$G_t = \rho \cdot G_{t-1} + (1 - \rho) \cdot (\nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}})^2$$

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \frac{\alpha}{\sqrt{G_t} + \epsilon} \cdot \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}$$

- The decay rate  $\rho$  is typically set to 0.9.
- This prevents the learning rate from decaying to zero while still adapting to the gradient scale.

# Optimizing Loss Functions

## Gradient Descent - ADAM

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**Bias Correction:**  
Important for early iterations when estimates are biased towards 0

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**Default Hyperparameters:**  $\beta_1 = 0.9, \beta_2 = 0.999, \alpha = 10^{-3}$

# Gradient Descent

## Batch vs Mini-Batch vs Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Batch Gradient Descent
  - Use **entire training set per epoch**
  - The whole training dataset is used to compute a single parameter update

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}(x_i, y_i)$$

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Sum over the whole training dataset

# Gradient Descent

## Batch vs Mini-Batch vs Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Stochastic Gradient Descent
  - Use **one** randomly selected training data point at each step
  - Parameters are updated after looking at each data point
  - One epoch leads to **m** parameter updates

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}(x_i, y_i)$$

# Gradient Descent

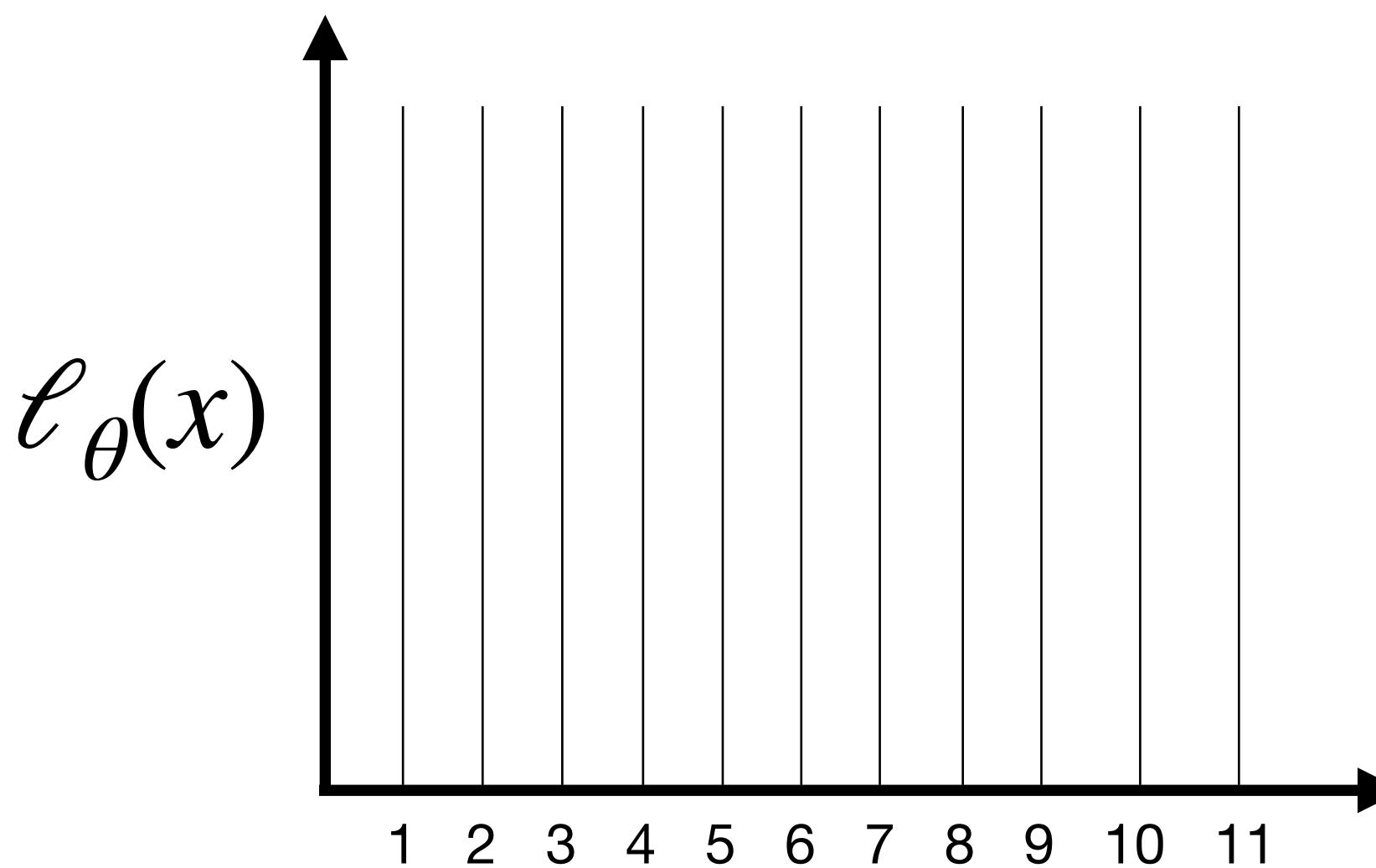
## Batch vs Mini-Batch vs Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Mini-Batch Gradient Descent
  - A compromise between batch and stochastic variants
  - Use a small batch of randomly sampled training data points
  - Typical batch sizes are  $B = 32, 64, 128, 256, 512, 1024$

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \alpha \frac{1}{B} \sum_{i=1}^B \nabla \ell_{\theta_{t-1}}(x_i, y_i)$$

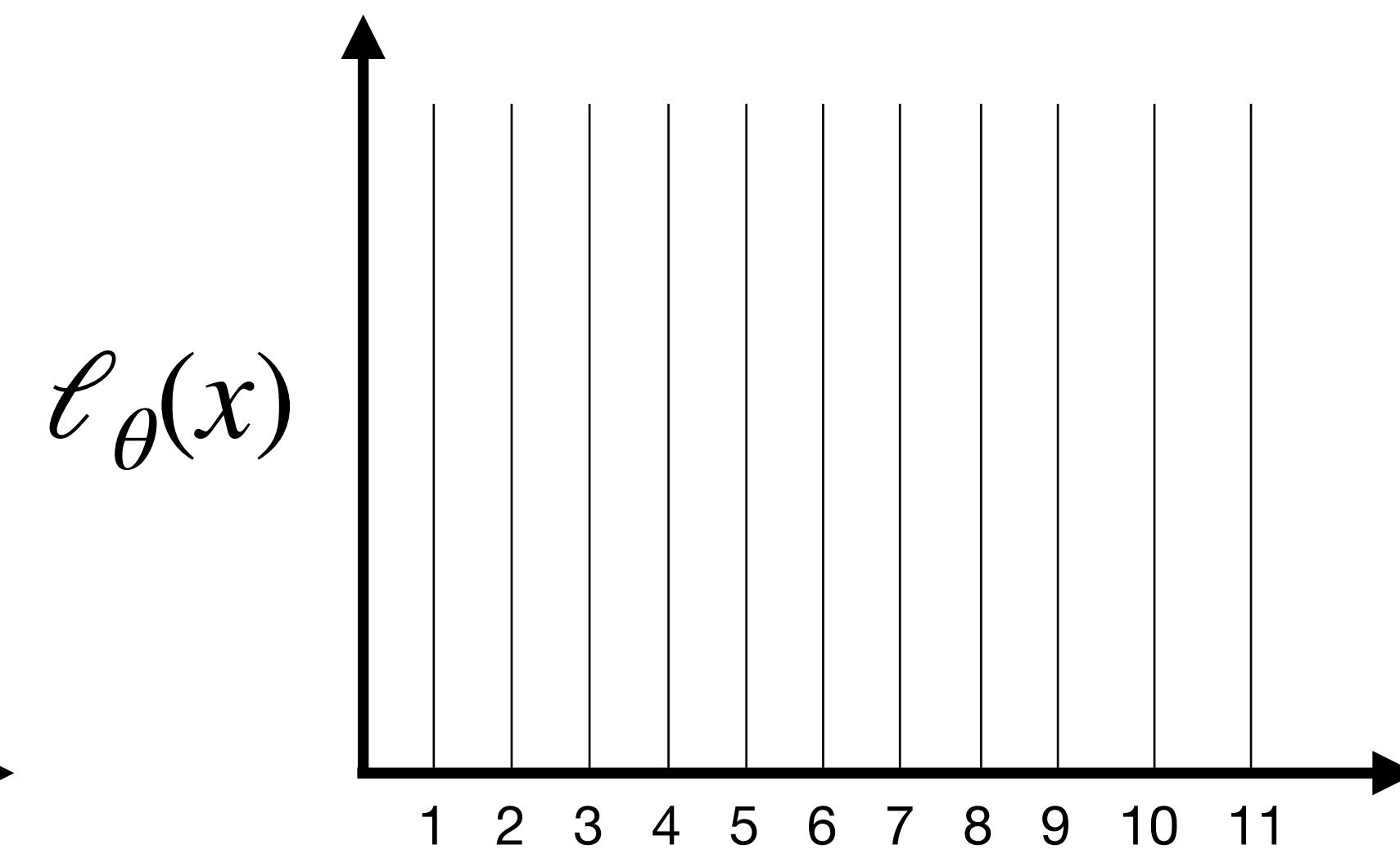
# Gradient Descent

## Batch vs Mini-Batch vs Stochastic Gradient Descent



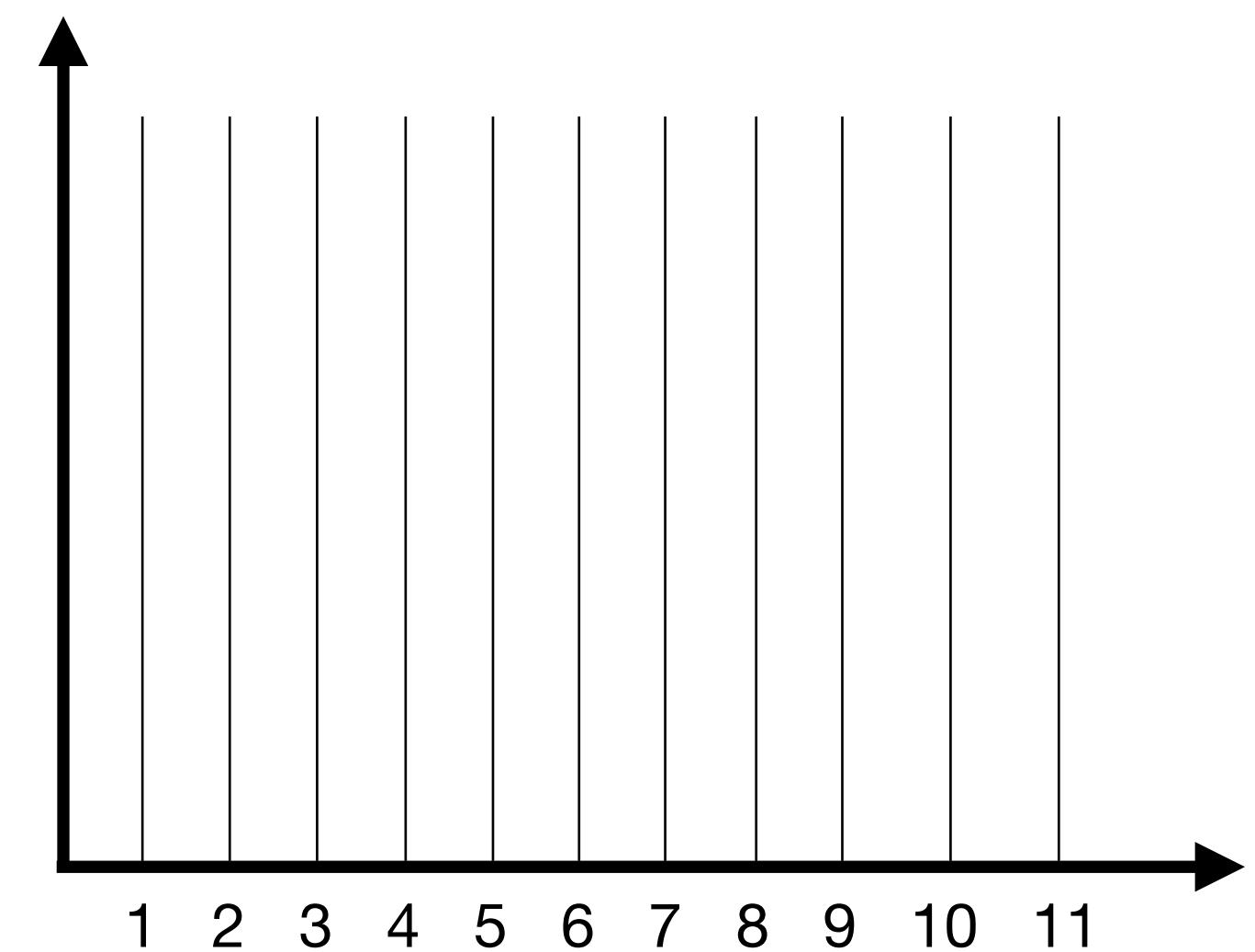
Epochs

Batch GD



Epochs

Mini-Batch GD



Epochs

SGD

# Gradient Descent

## Batch vs Mini-Batch vs Stochastic Gradient Descent

### Batch Pros:

**Stable Convergence:** No noise in gradient estimates means smooth, predictable progress toward the minimum

**Guaranteed Descent:** Each update is guaranteed to reduce the loss (with appropriate learning rate)

**Simple learning rate selection:** The lack of noise means you can often use larger learning rates without instability

**Parallelizable Gradient Computation:** The sum over all samples can be computed in parallel across multiple processors

### Stochastic Pros:

**Fast Updates:** Each parameter update is computationally cheap, allowing rapid initial progress.

**Memory Efficient:** Only one sample needs to be in memory at a time.

**Escapes Local Minima:** The inherent noise helps the algorithm escape shallow local minima and saddle points. The stochasticity acts as implicit regularization

**Online Learning:** Can naturally incorporate new data as it arrives - just perform an update on each new sample

**Better Generalization:** The noise can prevent overfitting to the training set.

# Gradient Descent

## Batch vs Mini-Batch vs Stochastic Gradient Descent

### Batch Cons:

**Computationally Expensive:** For large datasets, computing the full gradient is very slow. A dataset with 10 million samples requires processing all 10 million before a single update.

**Memory Intensive:** The entire dataset must fit in memory.

**Redundant Computation:** Many datasets contain redundant or similar samples. BGD computes gradients for all of them even when a subset would provide nearly the same information.

**Poor Escape From Local Minima:** The **deterministic** nature means the algorithm follows the same path every time and can get permanently stuck in local minima or saddle points.

**Slow for Online Learning:** Cannot incorporate new data without reprocessing everything.

### Stochastic Cons:

**High Variance:** Individual gradient estimates can be very noisy, causing erratic updates.

**Unstable Convergence:** The loss curve is noisy. The algorithm may step away from the minimum even when near it.

**Requires Learning Rate Decay:** To converge to a minimum (rather than oscillating around it), the **learning rate must decrease** over time, adding hyperparameters.

**Poor Hardware Utilization:** Modern GPUs are optimized for **parallel operations on batches**, not sequential single-sample operations. SGD fails to exploit this.

**Sensitive to Sample Ordering:** The order in which samples are presented can affect results, requiring careful shuffling.

# Gradient Descent

## Batch vs Mini-Batch vs Stochastic Gradient Descent

### Mini-Batch

**Variance Reduction:** Averaging over  $B$  samples reduces gradient variance by a factor of  $B$  compared to pure SGD, while still maintaining some beneficial noise

**Hardware Efficiency:** GPUs perform matrix operations in parallel. A batch size of 64 is nearly as fast as a batch size of 1 on modern hardware, giving essentially 64× speedup over SGD

**Memory-Computation Tradeoff:** Batch size can be tuned to maximize GPU memory utilization without requiring the full dataset

**Balances Exploration and Exploitation:** Enough noise to escape poor regions, enough signal to make consistent progress.

# Gradient Descent

## Gradient Descent vs Closed Form

### Gradient Descent

- + Linear increase in  $m$  (# training data) and  $n$  (# features)
- + Generally applicable to multiple models
- + Guaranteed to reach global optimum for convex functions and appropriate learning rate
- Need to choose learning rate  $\alpha$  and stopping conditions
- Need to choose optimization method (Adam, RMSProp etc..)
- Might get stuck in local optima / saddle point
- Needs feature scaling

### Closed Form

$$\theta = (X^T X)^{-1} X^T Y$$

- + No parameter tuning
- + Gives global optimum
- Not generally applicable to any learning algorithm
- Slow computation - scales with  $n^3$  where  $n$  is number of features

# Summary and Next Class

- Summary
  - We saw how gradient descent works
  - We saw issues with gradient descent and how to address them
  - We saw multiple optimizers commonly used in gradient descent
  - We saw types of gradient descent (batch, mini-batch, stochastic)
- Next Class - Classification, cross-validation and logistic regression