Advanced Computational Statistics Lecture 2 – Stochastic gradient based optimisation



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- Focus on unconstrained optimization
- Second-order methods (Newton, Quasi-Newton)
- First-order method: gradient ascent
- Properties of functions
 - convex
 - strong-convex
 - *L*-smooth
 - gradient ascent

 $\begin{aligned} f((1-\alpha)x + \alpha y) &\leq (1-\alpha)f(x) + \alpha f(y) \\ f(y) &\geq f(x) + \nabla f(x)^{\mathsf{T}}(y-x) + \frac{m}{2} \|x-y\|_2^2 \\ \|\nabla f(x) - \nabla f(y)\| &\leq L \|x-y\| \\ \text{for max., gradient descent for min.} \end{aligned}$

- 1. Get function f with gradient ∇f and step-size α_k
- 2. Initialize x^0
- 3. For k = 1 to ...
- 4. $x^{k+1} = x^k \alpha_k \nabla f(x^k)$

Theorem

Suppose that f is convex and L-smooth, and suppose that $\min_{x \in \mathbb{R}^n} f(x)$ has solution x*. Then the steepest-descent method with step-length $\alpha_k = \frac{1}{L}$ generates a sequence $\{x^k\}_{k=0}^{\infty}$ that satisfies

$$f(x^{T}) - f(x^{*}) \le \frac{L}{2T} ||x^{0} - x^{*}||^{2}, \quad T = 1, 2, \dots$$

The majority of this lecture is based on the following book:

Wright, S. J. and Recht, B. (2022). Optimization for data analysis. Cambridge University Press.



Recommended reading: Sections 5.1-5.5 (and 6)

Today:

- Stochastic gradient descent (SGD)
- SGD in deep learning
- Differential private SGD
- \cdot Coordinate descent

Stochastic gradient descent (SGD)

Consider the minimization of $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$.

Assume *f* to be convex and smooth.

Many interesting objective functions are of the following form

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f_i(x)$$
 with $\nabla f(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla f_i(x).$ (5.5)

Examples include linear regression and logistic regression.

Recall: The sum of convex functions is convex!

Motivation

The problem is that running gradient descent

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x^k), \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
 (3.2)

requires the computation of the gradient $\nabla f(x)$ which might be expensive in the large-scale case (meaning that either N or n is very large).

Central question:

Is it possible to approximate the gradient $\nabla f(x)$?

Ideas:

(i) Approximate ∇f (think of a sum) using a subset of terms (shrink N)
(ii) Approximate ∇f (think of a vector) using a subset of dimensions (shrink n)

Idea: Use $g(x,\xi) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ instead of $\nabla f(x)$ which is a function of x and a random variable ξ such that

$$\nabla f(x) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}[g(x,\xi)]. \tag{5.1}$$

Some observations:

- We obtain an *unbiased* estimate of $\nabla f(x)$.
- Descent direction is in expectation equal to the one in gradient descent.
- Ideally, computing $g(x,\xi)$ is computationally cheaper than computing $\nabla f(x)$.
- We cannot rely on a fixed step-length of $\alpha_k = \frac{1}{L}$ anymore. Why?

How to choose $g(x, \xi)$?

We could set

$$g(x,\xi) = \nabla f(x) + \xi \tag{5.3}$$

which is unbiased for $\mathbb{E}[\xi] = 0$.

- No computational savings!
- Relevant in differential privacy!

More later...

Incremental gradient method

• Let ξ determine an index $i_k \in [N] = \{1, 2, ..., N\}$ and set $g(x, \xi) = \nabla f_{i_k}(x)$. Thus, if ξ has a uniform distribution over [N], we retain unbiasedness:

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi}[g(x,\xi)] = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \frac{1}{N} \nabla f_i(x) = \nabla f(x).$$

- Alternatively, we could also cycle through the components iteratively, i.e., setting $i_k = (k \mod N) + 1$ for k = 0, 1, 2, ...
- In both cases, we approximate the sum of gradients in Equation (5.5) by only a single term!
- The convergence analysis of the former is straightforward and the latter one is more involved and the guarantees are weaker.

- 1. Get function f and step-sizes α_k
- 2. Initialize x^0
- 3. For k = 1 to . . .
- 4. Sample ξ and obtain $g(x^k, \xi)$
- 5. $x^{k+1} = x^k \alpha_k g\left(x^k, \xi^k\right)$

Consider the cost per iteration:

- Gradient descent has $\mathcal{O}(Nn)$ per iteration.
- Stochastic gradient descent has only $\mathcal{O}(n)$.

Motivations and examples from machine learning such as the *perceptron classifier* and the general framework of *empirical risk minimization* are considered in Sections 5.1.3 and 5.1.4 for the interested reader.

Example: Perceptron classifier

```
Input data: \{a_1, a_2, ..., a_N\}
Targets: y_i \in \{\pm 1\}
Model: h(a) = x^T a
Classifier: sign h(a)
```

Per-point loss: $f_i(x) = \max\{-y_i h(a_i), 0\}$

1. Get function h and step-sizes α_k 2. Initialize x^0 3. For k = 1 to ... 4. For i = 1 to N5. If $y_i h(a_i) < 0$ 6. $x^{k+1} = x^k + \alpha_k y_i a_i$

// Iterations // Loop over data set // If misclassification // Model update

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Stochastic Gradient Descent: Choosing the step-lengths

How to choose the step-lengths α_k ?

Online demo: https://fa.bianp.net/teaching/2018/COMP-652/stochastic_gradient.html

Let us consider the following example of computing a mean:

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (x - \omega_i)^2, \qquad (5.11)$$

where we have data $\{\omega_i\}_{i=1}^N \subset \mathbb{R}$ and set $f_i(x) = \frac{1}{2}(x - \omega_i)^2$.

The gradient per-term is given by $\nabla f_i(x) = x - \omega_i$.

Stochastic Gradient Descent: Discrete example

- Start with $x^0 = 0$
- Apply incremental gradient
- Step through the indices in order
- Use a step-length of $\alpha_k = \frac{1}{k+1}$

$$x^{1} = x^{0} - \frac{1}{1}(x^{0} - \omega_{1}) = \omega_{1}$$

$$x^{2} = x^{1} - \frac{1}{2}(x^{1} - \omega_{2}) = \frac{1}{2}\omega_{1} + \frac{1}{2}\omega_{2}$$

$$x^{3} = x^{2} - \frac{1}{3}(x^{2} - \omega_{3}) = \frac{1}{3}\omega_{1} + \frac{1}{3}\omega_{2} + \frac{1}{3}\omega_{3}$$

$$\vdots$$

$$x^{k} = \left(\frac{k - 1}{k}x^{k - 1} + \frac{1}{k}\omega_{k}\right) = \frac{1}{k}\sum_{j=1}^{k}\omega_{j}$$

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(5.12)

Some observations:

- $\alpha_k = \frac{1}{k+1}$ makes sense in this scenario
- Due to $\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k+1} = \infty$ we can travel arbitrarily far
- $\alpha_k = \frac{1}{k+1}$ shrink to zero, thus, if we reach a neighborhood of x^* , we stay there
- Global optimum achieved after N steps
- \cdot Works for the incremental case, not for the random one

Let us now consider the *continuous* version of Equation (5.11)

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\omega} \left[(x - \omega_i)^2 \right], \qquad (5.13)$$

where ω is a random variable with mean μ and variance σ^2 .

At every SGD step, we sample $\omega_{j+1} \sim p(\omega)$ iid of the previous iterations and take a step of length $\frac{1}{i+1}$ in direction $x^j - \omega_{j+1}$.

After k steps, starting from $x^0 = 0$, we have x^k as in Equation (5.12)

We now plug this value into Equation (5.13) and obtain

$$f(x^{k}) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbb{E}_{\omega_{1},\dots,\omega_{k},\omega} \left[\left(\frac{1}{k} \sum_{j=1}^{k} \omega_{j} - \omega \right)^{2} \right] = \frac{1}{2k} \sigma^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sigma^{2}.$$
(5.14)

For Equation (5.13) we can compute the minimizer directly. We rephrase it as

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\left[(x-\omega)^2\right] = \frac{1}{2}\mathbb{E}\left[x^2 - 2\omega x + \omega^2\right] = \frac{1}{2}x^2 - \mu x + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2 + \frac{1}{2}\mu^2$$

and see that $x^* = \mu$ is a minimizer. Thus, $f(x^*) = \frac{1}{2}\sigma^2$. How?

Comparing the minimizer with Equation (5.14) yields

$$f(x^{k}) - f(x^{\star}) = \frac{1}{2k}\sigma^{2} + \frac{1}{2}\sigma^{2} - \frac{1}{2}\sigma^{2} = \frac{1}{2k}\sigma^{2}.$$

Thus, the sequence of differences $\{f(x^k) - f(x^*)\}$ shrinks like $\frac{1}{k}$.

This demonstrates a limitation of stochastic gradient descent: We cannot expect linear convergence rates in general!

Stochastic Gradient Descent: Convergence analysis: Key assumptions

Apply SGD to a convex function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ with steps of the form of

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \alpha_k g(x^k, \xi^k) \tag{5.2}$$

and search directions $g(x,\xi)$ satisfying condition (5.1), i.e., $\nabla f(x) = \mathbb{E}_{\xi}[g(x,\xi)]$. We need to assume bounds on the gradient estimates and thus non-negative constants L_q and B such that for all x

$$\mathbb{E}_{\xi}\left[\|g(x,\xi)\|_{2}^{2}\right] \leq L_{g}^{2}\|x-x^{\star}\|^{2} + B^{2}.$$
(5.19)

Remarks:

- This bounds the expectation over ξ for each x!
- When $L_g = 0$, f cannot be strongly convex over an unbounded domain.

The book considers four cases

- Case 1: Bounded Gradients: $L_g = 0$
- Case 2: Randomized Kaczmarz: $B = 0, L_g > 0$
- Case 3: Additive Gaussian Noise
- Case 4: Incremental Gradient

In this lecture, we consider **Case 1**.

Case 1 applies to logistic regression. The objective function is

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} -y_i x^{\mathsf{T}} a_i + \log(1 + \exp(x^{\mathsf{T}} a_i)), \qquad (5.21)$$

where the data are $\{(a_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$ with $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$ for $i \in [N]$.

Following Equation (5.5), we draw ξ uniformly from [N] and

$$g(x,i) = \left(-y_i + \frac{\exp(x^{\mathsf{T}}a_i)}{1 + \exp(x^{\mathsf{T}}a_i)}\right)a_i.$$

Thus, Equation (5.19) holds with $L_g = 0$ and $B = \sup_{i \in [N]} ||a_i||_2$. Why?

We can measure the error in two ways.

- $\mathbb{E}[||x x^*||^2]$, where x^* is the solution and the expectation is over all ξ^k . This measure is most appropriate when f is strongly convex.
- $f(x) f^*$ can be used when f is convex.

Suitable choices of step-lengths α_k in Equation (5.2) depend on L_g and B and so do the convergence rates.

Using (5.2) for updating the iterates, we can expand the distance to x^* as follows:

$$\|x^{k+1} - x^{\star}\|^{2} = \|x^{k} - \alpha_{k}g(x^{k}, \xi^{k}) - x^{\star}\|^{2}$$

= $\|x^{k} - x^{\star}\|^{2} - 2\alpha_{k}\langle g(x^{k}, \xi^{k}), x^{k} - x^{\star} \rangle + \alpha_{k}^{2}\|g(x^{k}, \xi^{k})\|^{2}.$ (5.23)

In the following, we take the expectation wrt all random variables encountered up to iteration k (i_0, i_1, \ldots, i_k) and **analyze each term separately**.

Note that x^k depends on $\xi^0, \xi^1, \ldots, \xi^{k-1}$ but not ξ^k .

We obtain

$$\begin{split} \mathbb{E}[\langle g(x^k,\xi^k), x^k - x^* \rangle] &= \mathbb{E}\big[\mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[\langle g(x^k,\xi^k), x^k - x^* \rangle | \xi^0,\xi^1,\dots,\xi^{k-1}]\big] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\big[\langle \mathbb{E}_{\xi_k}[g(x^k,\xi^k) | \xi^0,\xi^1,\dots,\xi^{k-1}], x^k - x^* \rangle\big] \\ &= \mathbb{E}\big[\langle \nabla f(x^k), x^k - x^* \rangle\big]. \end{split}$$

By a similar argument we can bound the last term using Equation (5.19) as

$$\mathbb{E}[\|g(x^{k},\xi^{k})\|^{2}] = \mathbb{E}[\mathbb{E}_{\xi_{k}}[\|g(x^{k},\xi^{k})\|^{2}|\xi^{0},\xi^{1},\ldots,\xi^{k-1}]]$$

$$\leq \mathbb{E}[L_{g}^{2}\|x-x^{*}\|^{2}+B^{2}].$$

Let us define $A_k = \mathbb{E}[||x^k - x^*||^2]$ and write the expectation of Equation (5.23) as

$$A_{k+1} \le (1 + \alpha_k^2 L_g^2) A_k - 2\alpha_k \mathbb{E} \left[\langle \nabla f(\mathbf{x}^k), \mathbf{x}^k - \mathbf{x}^\star \rangle \right] + \alpha_k^2 B^2.$$
(5.25)

What follows depends again on the cases where we focus again on the first case. Due to $L_q = 0$, Equation (5.25) simplifies to

$$A_{k+1} \le A_k - 2\alpha_k \mathbb{E}\left[\langle \nabla f(x^k), x^k - x^* \rangle\right] + \alpha_k^2 B^2.$$
(5.26)

We define

$$\lambda_k = \sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j \quad \text{and} \quad \bar{x}^k = \frac{\sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j x^j}{\sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j} = \lambda_k^{-1} \sum_{j=0}^k \alpha_j x^j. \quad (5.27)$$

We now analyze $f(\bar{x}^k)$ given an initial point x^0 and any solution x^* .

Let $D_0 = ||x^0 - x^*||$.

Stochastic Gradient Descent: Convergence analysis

After T iterations, we have

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\bar{x}^{T}) - f(x^{*})] \leq \mathbb{E}\left[\lambda_{T}^{-1}\sum_{j=0}^{T}\alpha_{j}(f(x^{j}) - f(x^{*}))\right]$$
(5.28a)
$$\leq \lambda_{T}^{-1}\sum_{j=0}^{T}\alpha_{j}\mathbb{E}\left[\langle \nabla f(x^{j}), x^{j} - x^{*}\rangle\right]$$
(5.28b)
$$\leq \lambda_{T}^{-1}\sum_{j=0}^{T}\left[\frac{1}{2}(A_{j} - A_{j+1}) + \frac{1}{2}\alpha_{j}^{2}B^{2}\right]$$
(5.28c)
$$= \frac{1}{2}\lambda_{T}^{-1}\left[\frac{1}{2}A_{0} - A_{T+1} + B^{2}\sum_{j=0}^{T}\alpha_{j}^{2}\right] \leq \frac{D_{0}^{2} + B^{2}\sum_{j=0}^{T}\alpha_{j}^{2}}{2\sum_{j=0}^{T}\alpha_{j}}.$$
(5.28d)

Here, (5.28a) follows from the convexity of f and the definition of \bar{x}^{T} ; (5.28b) uses again the convexity of f; (5.28c) follows from (5.26); and $A_0 = D_0^2$.

Stochastic Gradient Descent: Convergence analysis

We now consider a fixed step-length $\alpha_k = \alpha > 0$ for all k and show

Proposition

Suppose we run SGD on a convex function f with $L_g = 0$ for T steps with fixed step-length $\alpha > 0$. Define

$$\alpha_{opt} = \frac{D_0}{B\sqrt{T+1}}$$
 and $\theta = \frac{\alpha}{\alpha_{opt}}$

Then, we have the following bound

$$\mathbb{E}[f(\bar{x}^{T}) - f(x^{*})] \le \frac{D_{0}^{2} + B^{2}(T+1)\alpha^{2}}{2(T+1)\alpha} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\theta^{-1} + \frac{1}{2}\theta\right)\frac{BD_{0}}{\sqrt{T+1}}.$$
 (5.29)

For $\theta = 1$, the bound is tightest and the decrease approx. linear! The bound critically depends on the choice of α !

Stochastic Gradient Descent: Convergence analysis

Consider the case where both B and L_q are non-zero.

Let *f* be *m*-strongly convex. Then

$$A_{k+1} \le \left(1 - 2m\alpha_k + \alpha_k^2 L_g^2\right) A_k + \alpha_k^2 B^2.$$
(5.34)

For a fix step-length $\alpha \in (0, 2m/L_q^2)$, we obtain

$$A_{k+1} \le (1 - 2m\alpha + \alpha^2 L_g^2)^k D_0 + \frac{\alpha B^2}{2m - \alpha L_g^2}.$$
 (5.35)

 \implies Even for large k, we get trapped in a ball around the optimum.

Idea: Reduce the radius of the ball by reducing α !

SGD in deep learning

Computational challenge 2: N is big

At each optimization step we need to compute the gradient

$$\boldsymbol{d}^{(t)} = \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_{i}, y_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}).$$

Computational challenge: N big

We typically use a lot of training data *N* for training the neural network. Computing the gradient is costly.

Solution: For each iteration, we only use a small part of the data set to compute the gradient $d^{(t)}$. This is called the **stochastic gradient descent**.

A big data set is often redundant = many data points are similar. Training data

X 1	x ₂	X 3	X 4	X 5	x 6	X 7	X 8	X 9	X 10	X 11	X ₁₂	X 13	X 14	X 15	X 16	X 17	X 18	X 19	x ₂₀
<i>Y</i> 1	<i>y</i> ₂	<i>y</i> ₃	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>y</i> 5	<i>У</i> 6	У 7	<i>У</i> 8	<i>y</i> 9	У 10	<i>Y</i> 11	У 12	У 13	<i>У</i> 14	У 15	У 16	У 17	У 18	У 19	<i>y</i> ₂₀

A big data set is often redundant = many data points are similar.

Training data

 x1
 x2
 x3
 x4
 x5
 x6
 x7
 x8
 x9
 x10
 x11
 x12
 x13
 x14
 x16
 x16
 x17
 x18
 x19
 x20

 y1
 y2
 y3
 y4
 y5
 y6
 y7
 y8
 y9
 y10
 y10
 y12
 y13
 y14
 y15
 y16
 y17
 y18
 y19
 y20

If the training data is big, consider

 $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{N}{2}} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}) \text{ and } \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \sum_{i=\frac{N}{2}+1}^{N} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}).$

A big data set is often redundant = many data points are similar.

Training data

 x1
 x2
 x3
 x4
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 x7
 x8
 x9
 x10
 x11
 x12
 x13
 x14
 x15
 x16
 x17
 x18
 x19
 x20

 y1
 y2
 y3
 y4
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 y18
 y19
 y20

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 and $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} J(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \approx \sum_{i=\frac{N}{2}+1}^{N} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i, \boldsymbol{\theta})$.

We can do the update with only half the computation cost!

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} - \gamma \frac{1}{N/2} \sum_{i=1}^{\frac{N}{2}} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}),$$
$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+2)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)} - \gamma \frac{1}{N/2} \sum_{i=\frac{N}{2}+1}^{N} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)})$$

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	Training data																		
x ₁	x ₂	X 3	X 4	X 5	X 6	X 7	X 8	X 9	x ₁₀	X ₁₁	X ₁₂	X 13	X ₁₄	X 15	X 16	X 17	X 18	X 19	X ₂₀
<i>V</i> 1	<i>y</i> ₂	<i>y</i> ₃	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>y</i> ₅	<i>У</i> 6	<i>У</i> 7	У ₈	у 9	У ₁₀	<i>Y</i> ₁₁	У ₁₂	<i>Y</i> ₁₃	<i>y</i> ₁₄	У ₁₅	У ₁₆	У ₁₇	У ₁₈	У ₁₉	<i>Y</i> ₂₀

 $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(1)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)} - \gamma \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{y}_1, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)})$

• The extreme version of this strategy is to use only one data point at each training step (called **online learning**)
								Т	rainir	ng da	ata								
K 1	X 2	X 3	X 4	X 5	x 6	X 7	X 8	X 9	X 10	X 11	X ₁₂	X 13	X 14	X 15	X 16	X 17	X 18	X 19	x ₂₀
/1		<i>y</i> ₃	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>Y</i> 5	<i>У</i> 6	<i>У</i> 7	У ₈	<i>y</i> 9	У ₁₀	У ₁₁	У ₁₂	У ₁₃	У ₁₄	У ₁₅	У ₁₆	У ₁₇	У18	У ₁₉	У ₂₀

 $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(2)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(1)} - \gamma \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_2, \mathbf{y}_2, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(1)})$

• The extreme version of this strategy is to use only one data point at each training step (called **online learning**)

_								Т	rainii	ng da	ata								
X 1	x ₂	X 3	X 4	X 5	x ₆	X 7	X 8	X 9	X 10	X 11	X 12	X 13	X 14	X 15	X 16	X 17	X 18	X 19	x ₂₀
<i>У</i> 1	<i>y</i> ₂	У 3	<i>у</i> 4	<i>y</i> ₅	У ₆	<i>У</i> 7	У ₈	<i>У</i> 9	У ₁₀	<i>У</i> 11	У ₁₂	У ₁₃	У ₁₄	У ₁₅	<i>У</i> 16	У ₁₇	У ₁₈	У ₁₉	<i>y</i> ₂₀

 $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(3)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(2)} - \gamma \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_3, \mathbf{y}_3, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(2)})$

• The extreme version of this strategy is to use only one data point at each training step (called **online learning**)

								Т	raini	ng da	ata								
X1	X 2	X 3	X /	Xs	Xe	X 7	Xg	Xa	X 10	X 11	X 12	X 13	X 1/i	X 15	X 16	X 17	X 18	X 10	X 20
V ₁	V ₂	V ₃	V.	V ₅	Ve	V7	Vs	Va	V10	V11	V12	V13	V1/	V15	V16	V17	V18	V10	V20
1	12	15	2.4	15	10	, ,	10	,,	10		12	15	7 14	15	10	11	10	11	120

 $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(4)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(3)} - \gamma \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_4, \mathbf{y}_4, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(3)})$

• The extreme version of this strategy is to use only one data point at each training step (called **online learning**)



$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(1)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)} - \gamma \frac{1}{5} \sum_{i=1}^{5} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_{i}, y_{i}, \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)})$$

- The extreme version of this strategy is to use only one data point at each training step (called **online learning**)
- We typically do something in between (not one data point, and not all data). We use a smaller set called **mini-batch**.



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- One pass through the training data is called an **epoch**.

								Т	rainii	ng da	ata									
X 1	x ₂	X 3	X 4	X 5	x 6	X 7	X 8	X 9	X 10	X 11	X 12	X 13	X 14	X 15	X 16	X 17	X 18	X 19	x ₂₀	
<i>Y</i> 1	<i>y</i> ₂	<i>y</i> ₃	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>y</i> ₅	<i>Y</i> 6	<i>У</i> 7	У ₈	у 9	<i>Y</i> ₁₀	<i>У</i> 11	У ₁₂	У ₁₃	<i>Y</i> ₁₄	У ₁₅	У ₁₆	У ₁₇	У ₁₈	У 19	<i>y</i> ₂₀	
tera	tion																			

Epoch:

• If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.

								Т	rainii	ng da	ata									
(1	x ₂	X 3	X 4	X 5	x 6	X 7	x 8	X 9	X 10	X 11	X ₁₂	X 13	X 14	X 15	X 16	X 17	X 18	X 19	x ₂₀	-
' 1	<i>y</i> ₂	<i>y</i> ₃	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>Y</i> 5	<i>Y</i> 6	<i>Y</i> 7	У ₈	<i>y</i> 9	<i>Y</i> ₁₀	<i>Y</i> ₁₁	<i>Y</i> ₁₂	У ₁₃	<i>Y</i> ₁₄	У ₁₅	У ₁₆	У ₁₇	У ₁₈	У ₁₉	У ₂₀	
era	tion	:																		

Epoch:

It

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.

								Т	rainii	ng da	ata								
۲ ₁	x ₂	X 3	X 4	X 5	x 6	X 7	X 8	X 9	X 10	X 11	X 12	X 13	X 14	X 15	X 16	X 17	X 18	X 19	x ₂₀
' 1	У ₂	<i>y</i> ₃	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>y</i> ₅	<i>У</i> 6	<i>У</i> 7	У ₈	<i>y</i> 9	<i>У</i> 10	У ₁₁	У ₁₂	У ₁₃	У ₁₄	У ₁₅	У 16	У ₁₇	У ₁₈	У ₁₉	У ₂₀
era	tion	:																	

Epoch:

It

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.

Training data (reshuffled)

X 7	X 10	X 3	x ₂₀	X 16	x ₂	X 1	X 18	X 19	X ₁₂	x 6	X 11	X 17	X 15	X 5	X 14	X 4	X 9	X 13	X 8
<i>У</i> 7	<i>Y</i> ₁₀	<i>y</i> ₃	<i>Y</i> ₂₀	У 16	У ₂	<i>Y</i> ₁	У ₁₈	У 19	У ₁₂	<i>Y</i> 6	<i>Y</i> ₁₁	У ₁₇	<i>Y</i> 15	<i>Y</i> 5	<i>Y</i> ₁₄	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>y</i> 9	У ₁₃	У ₈
Itera	tion:																		

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.

Training data (reshuffled)

				x 2	X 1	X 18	X 19	X ₁₂	x 6	X 11	X 17	X 15	X 5	X 14	X_4	X 9	X 13	x 8
У 7	y ₁₀ y ₃	У ₂₀	У16	У ₂	<i>Y</i> ₁	У ₁₈	<i>Y</i> 19	<i>Y</i> ₁₂	<i>У</i> 6	<i>Y</i> ₁₁	У ₁₇	У ₁₅	<i>Y</i> 5	<i>Y</i> ₁₄	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>y</i> 9	У ₁₃	У ₈

Iteration: 1

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.

Training data (reshuffled)

x7 x10 x3 x20 x16 x2 x1 x10 x12 x6 x11 x17 x15 x5 x14 x4 x9 x13 x8 y7 y10 y3 y20 y16 y2 y11 y18 y10 y12 y6 y11 y17 y15 y5 y14 y4 y9 y13 y8																				-
Y7 Y10 Y3 Y20 Y16 Y2 Y18 Y19 Y12 Y6 Y11 Y17 Y15 Y5 Y14 Y4 Y9 Y13 Y8	X 7	X ₁₀	X 3	x ₂₀	X 16						x 6	X 11	X 17	X 15	X 5	X 14	X 4	X 9	X 13	X 8
	<i>Y</i> ₇	<i>Y</i> ₁₀	<i>y</i> ₃	<i>y</i> ₂₀	У ₁₆	<u>У</u> 2	<i>Y</i> 1	У18	<i>Y</i> 19	<i>Y</i> ₁₂	<i>У</i> 6	<i>Y</i> ₁₁	У ₁₇	<i>Y</i> 15	<i>Y</i> 5	<i>Y</i> ₁₄	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>y</i> 9	<i>Y</i> ₁₃	У ₈

Iteration: 2

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.

Training data (reshuffled)

X 7	X 10	X 3	x ₂₀	X 16	x ₂	X 1	X 18	X 19	X ₁₂			X 14	X 4	X 9	X 13	X 8
<i>У</i> 7	<i>Y</i> ₁₀	<i>y</i> ₃	<i>y</i> ₂₀	У ₁₆	У ₂	<i>Y</i> 1	У ₁₈	У 19	<i>Y</i> ₁₂			<i>Y</i> ₁₄	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>y</i> 9	<i>Y</i> ₁₃	У ₈

Iteration: 3

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.

Training data (reshuffled)

X 7	X 10	X 3	x ₂₀	X 16	x ₂	X 1	X 18	X 19	X ₁₂	x 6	X 11	X 17	X 15	X 5			
<i>У</i> 7	<i>Y</i> ₁₀	<i>y</i> ₃	<i>y</i> ₂₀	У 16	У ₂	<i>Y</i> 1	У ₁₈	У 19	<i>Y</i> ₁₂	<i>Y</i> 6	<i>Y</i> ₁₁	У ₁₇	У ₁₅	<i>Y</i> 5			

Iteration: 4

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.

Training data (reshuffled)

X 7	X 10	X 3	x ₂₀	X 16	x ₂	X 1	X 18	X 19	X ₁₂	x 6	X 11	X 17	X 15	X 5			
<i>У</i> 7	<i>Y</i> ₁₀	<i>y</i> ₃	<i>y</i> ₂₀	У 16	У ₂	<i>Y</i> 1	У ₁₈	У 19	<i>Y</i> ₁₂	<i>У</i> 6	<i>Y</i> ₁₁	У ₁₇	У ₁₅	<i>Y</i> 5			

Iteration: 4

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.
- After each epoch we do another reshuffling and another pass through the data set.

Training data (reshuffled)

X 19	X 16	X 18	x 6	X 9	X 13	X 1	X 14	X 20	X 11	X 3	X 8	X 7	X ₁₂	X 4	X 17	X 5	X 10	x ₂	X 15
У ₁₉	<i>У</i> 16	У ₁₈	<i>Y</i> ₆	<i>y</i> 9	<i>Y</i> ₁₃	<i>У</i> 1	<i>Y</i> ₁₄	У ₂₀	У ₁₁	<i>y</i> ₃	У ₈	<i>У</i> 7	<i>Y</i> ₁₂	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>Y</i> ₁₇	У ₅	<i>У</i> 10	У ₂	У ₁₅
Itera	tion:																		

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.
- After each epoch we do another reshuffling and another pass through the data set.

Training data (reshuffled)

					X 13	X 1	X 14	x ₂₀	X 11	X 3	X 8	X 7	X ₁₂	X 4	X 17	X 5	X 10	X 2	X 15
Y 19	<u>У</u> 16	<u>У</u> 18	<u>У</u> 6	У9	У ₁₃	<i>Y</i> 1	У ₁₄	<i>y</i> ₂₀	<i>У</i> 11	<i>y</i> ₃	<i>У</i> 8	<i>У</i> 7	<i>Y</i> ₁₂	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>Y</i> ₁₇	У ₅	<i>У</i> 10	У ₂	У ₁₅

Iteration: 5

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.
- After each epoch we do another reshuffling and another pass through the data set.

Training data (reshuffled)

x19 x16 x18 x6 x9 x13 x16 x20 x11 x3 x8 x7 x12 x4 x17 x5 x10 x2 x15 y19 y16 y18 y6 y9 y13 y14 y20 y11 y3 y8 y7 y12 y4 y17 y5 y10 y2 y15																		
<i>Y</i> 19 <i>Y</i> 16 <i>Y</i> 18 <i>Y</i> 6 <i>Y</i> 9 <i>Y</i> 13 <i>Y</i> 1 <i>Y</i> 16 <i>Y</i> 20 <i>Y</i> 17 <i>Y</i> 3 <i>Y</i> 8 <i>Y</i> 7 <i>Y</i> 12 <i>Y</i> 4 <i>Y</i> 17 <i>Y</i> 5 <i>Y</i> 10 <i>Y</i> 2 <i>Y</i> 15	X 19	X 16	X 18	x 6	X 9	X ₁₃			X 3	X 8	X 7	X ₁₂	X 4	X 17	X 5	X 10	x ₂	X 15
	У ₁ 9	y ₁₆	<i>Y</i> ₁₈	<i>Y</i> 6	<i>y</i> 9	<i>Y</i> ₁₃			<i>У</i> 3	У ₈	<i>У</i> 7	<i>Y</i> ₁₂	<i>y</i> ₄	<i>Y</i> ₁₇	<i>Y</i> 5	<i>Y</i> ₁₀	<i>y</i> ₂	<i>Y</i> ₁₅

Iteration: 6

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.
- After each epoch we do another reshuffling and another pass through the data set.

Training data (reshuffled)

X 19	X 16	X 18	x 6	X 9	X 13	X 1	X 14	x ₂₀	X 11			X 17	X 5	X 10	X 2	X 15
<i>Y</i> 19	<i>У</i> 16	У ₁₈	У6	<i>y</i> 9	У ₁₃	<i>Y</i> ₁	<i>Y</i> ₁₄	У ₂₀	<i>Y</i> ₁₁			У ₁₇	У ₅	<i>У</i> 10	У ₂	У ₁₅
		7														

Iteration: /

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.
- After each epoch we do another reshuffling and another pass through the data set.

Training data (reshuffled)

X 19	X 16	X 18	x 6	X 9	X 13	X 1	X 14	x ₂₀	X 11	X 3	X 8	X 7	X ₁₂	X 4			X 15
<i>Y</i> 19	У 16	У ₁₈	<i>Y</i> 6	<i>y</i> 9	<i>Y</i> ₁₃	<i>Y</i> ₁	<i>Y</i> ₁₄	У ₂₀	<i>Y</i> ₁₁	<i>y</i> ₃	У ₈	<i>У</i> 7	<i>Y</i> ₁₂	<i>y</i> ₄			<i>У</i> 15
Itera	tion:	8															

- If we pick the mini-batches in order, they might be unbalanced and not representative for the whole data set.
- Therefore, we pick data points **at random** from the training data to form a mini-batch.
- One implementation is to randomly reshuffle the data before dividing it into mini-batches.
- After each epoch we do another reshuffling and another pass through the data set.

Mini-batch gradient descent

The full **stochastic gradient descent** algorithm (a.k.a **mini-batch gradient descent**) is as follows

- 1. Initialize $\theta^{(0)}$, set $t \leftarrow 1$, choose batch size n_b and number of epochs n_e .
- 2. For i = 1 to n_e
 - (a) Randomly shuffle the training data $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$.

(b) For
$$j = 1$$
 to $\frac{n}{n_b}$
(i) Approximate the gradient of the loss function using the mini-batch
 $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=(j-1)n_b+1}^{in_b}, \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i, \boldsymbol{\theta})\Big|_{\boldsymbol{\theta}=\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)}}.$
(ii) Do a gradient step $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t+1)} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(t)} - \gamma \hat{\boldsymbol{d}}^{(t)}.$
(iii) Update the iteration index $t \leftarrow t + 1$.

At each time we get a stochastic approximation of the true gradient $\hat{d}^{(t)} \approx \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \nabla_{\theta} L(\mathbf{x}_{i}, y_{i}, \theta) \Big|_{\theta = \theta^{(t)}}$, hence the name.

\cdot Learning rate.

Recall that decreasing the learning rates during training helps to converge. Let γ be the learning rate and $\eta \in (0, 1)$ a shrinkage-factor. One approach is to use $\gamma \eta^{k-1}$ in the *k*th epoch.

· Momentum.

For example, replace (5.2) with

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \alpha_k g\left(x^k, \xi^k\right) + \beta_k \left(x^k - x^{k-1}\right)$$
(5.37)

Adam is a popular optimizer in deep learning: Kingma, Diederik P., and Jimmy Ba. "Adam: A method for stochastic optimization." International Conference on Learning Representations (2015).

Differential private SGD

Can we train models while preserving privacy?

Differential privacy offers a framework for publishing trained models in a way that respects the individual privacy of every user.

Definition

A randomized mechanism $\mathcal{M} : \mathcal{D} \to \mathcal{R}$ with domain \mathcal{D} and range \mathcal{R} satisfies (ϵ, δ) -differential privacy if for any two adjacent inputs $d, d' \in \mathcal{D}$ and for any subset of outputs $S \subseteq \mathcal{R}$ it holds that

$$\mathcal{P}\left[\mathcal{M}(d)\in\mathcal{S}
ight]\leq\exp(\epsilon)\mathcal{P}\left[\mathcal{M}(d')\in\mathcal{S}
ight]+\delta.$$

Dwork, Cynthia, Frank McSherry, Kobbi Nissim, and Adam Smith. "Calibrating noise to sensitivity in private data analysis." In Theory of Cryptography: Third Theory of Cryptography Conference, TCC 2006, New York, NY, USA, March 4-7, 2006. Proceedings 3, pp. 265-284. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2006. Can we train models while preserving privacy?

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ight]\leq\exp(\epsilon)\mathcal{P}\left[\mathcal{M}(d')\in\mathcal{S}
ight]+\delta.$$

Dwork, Cynthia, Frank McSherry, Kobbi Nissim, and Adam Smith. "Calibrating noise to sensitivity in private data analysis." In Theory of Cryptography: Third Theory of Cryptography Conference, TCC 2006, New York, NY, USA, March 4-7, 2006. Proceedings 3, pp. 265-284. Springer Berlin Heidelberg, 2006.

Differentially Private Stochastic Gradient Descent

Algorithm 1 Differentially private SGD (Outline)

Input: Examples $\{x_1, \ldots, x_N\}$, loss function $\mathcal{L}(\theta) =$ $\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i} \mathcal{L}(\theta, x_i)$. Parameters: learning rate η_t , noise scale σ , group size L, gradient norm bound C. **Initialize** θ_0 randomly for $t \in [T]$ do Take a random sample L_t with sampling probability L/N**Compute** gradient For each $i \in L_t$, compute $\mathbf{g}_t(x_i) \leftarrow \nabla_{\theta_t} \mathcal{L}(\theta_t, x_i)$ Clip gradient $\mathbf{\bar{g}}_t(x_i) \leftarrow \mathbf{g}_t(x_i) / \max\left(1, \frac{\|\mathbf{g}_t(x_i)\|_2}{C}\right)$ Add noise $\tilde{\mathbf{g}}_t \leftarrow \frac{1}{T} \left(\sum_i \bar{\mathbf{g}}_t(x_i) + \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2 C^2 \mathbf{I}) \right)$ Descent $\theta_{t+1} \leftarrow \theta_t - \eta_t \tilde{\mathbf{g}}_t$ **Output** θ_T and compute the overall privacy cost (ε, δ) using a privacy accounting method.

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Abadi, Martin, Andy Chu, Ian Goodfellow, H. Brendan McMahan, Ilya Mironov, Kunal Talwar, and Li Zhang. "Deep learning with differential privacy." In Proceedings of the 2016 ACM SIGSAC conference on computer and communications security, pp. 308-318. 2016.

Coordinate descent

Motivation

The problem is that running gradient descent

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \alpha_k \nabla f(x^k), \quad k = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$
 (3.2)

requires the computation of the gradient $\nabla f(x)$ which might be expensive in the large-scale case (meaning that either N or n is very large).

Central question:

Is it possible to approximate the gradient $\nabla f(x)$?

Ideas:

(i) Approximate ∇f (think of a sum) using a subset of terms (shrink N)
(ii) Approximate ∇f (think of a vector) using a subset of dimensions (shrink n)

Instead of approximating

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f_i(x)$$
 with $\nabla f(x) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla f_i(x)$ (5.5)

with a single term, we now consider isolated dimensions of $\nabla f(x)$, i.e.,

$$x^{k+1} = x^k - \alpha_k \nabla_{i_k} f(x^k) e_{i_k}, \tag{6.2}$$

where e_{i_k} is the i_k th unit vector.

We now consider smooth convex functions.

Coordinate Descent

Let L_i be a coordinate-wise Lipschitz constant, i.e.,

$$\nabla_i f(x + \gamma e_i) - \nabla_i f(x) | \le L_i |\gamma|, \quad \text{for } i = 1, \dots, n \tag{6.4}$$

and

$$L_{\max} = \max_{i} L_{i}.$$
 (6.5)

We further assume that f is convex and uniformly Lipschitz continuously differentiable and attains a minimum at the set S.

There exists an $0 < R_0 < \infty$ such that

$$\max_{x} \min_{x^* \in \mathcal{S}} \|x - x^*\| \le R_0.$$

Theorem

Given the assumptions from the previous slide and that i_k in (6.2) is selected uniformly at random from $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$, and that $\alpha_k = L_{\max}^{-1}$.

Then for all k > 0, we have

$$\mathbb{E}\left[f(x^k)\right] - f^* \le \frac{2nL_{\max}R_0^2}{k}.$$
(6.7)

If f is also strongly convex with m > 0, we have

$$\mathbb{E}\left[f(x^{k})\right] - f^{\star} \le \left(1 - \frac{m}{nL_{\max}}\right)^{k} \left(f(x^{0}) - f^{\star}\right).$$
(6.8)

Cyclic Coordinate Descent

Example:
$$\min_{x_1, x_2} f(x_1, x_2) = \frac{1}{2}(x_1^2 + x_2^2)$$



Theorem

Given the assumptions from some slides ago and that i_k in (6.2) is selected cyclically via $i_k = (k \mod n) + 1$, and that $\alpha_k = L_{\max}^{-1}$.

Then for all $k = n, 2n, 3n, \ldots$, we have

$$f(x^{k}) - f^{\star} \le \frac{\frac{4n}{\alpha_{k}} (1 + nL^{2}\alpha_{k}^{2})R_{0}^{2}}{k + 8}.$$
(6.20)

If f is also strongly convex with m > 0, we have

$$f(x^{k}) - f^{\star} \le \left(1 - \frac{m}{\frac{2}{\alpha_{k}}(1 + nL^{2}\alpha_{k}^{2})}\right)^{\frac{k}{n}} \left(f(x^{0}) - f^{\star}\right).$$
(6.21)

Matrix Norms, Assignment & Summary

Lipschitz Continuous Functions and Matrix Norms

- Most often when writing $\|\cdot\|$, we have a norm for a vector inside the norm (and $\|x\|_2$ can be interpreted as the length of vector x)
- There are also matrix-norms, and the spectral norm is one example: $||A||_{\text{spectral}} = \sqrt{\lambda_{\max}(A^{T}A)}$, where $\lambda_{\max}(\cdot)$ is the largest eigenvalue of $A^{T}A$.
- Spectral norm and Euclidean norm are *compatible* in the sense that for any $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n}$, we have $||Ax||_2 \leq ||A||_{\text{spectral}} ||x||_2$.
- If *f* has a Hessian matrix *f*" with a bounded spectral norm (by *L*), the gradient *f*' is Lipschitz continuous with *L*:

 $||f''(x)||_{\text{spectral}} \leq L$ for all $x \implies f'$ Lipschitz continuous with L
- The second assignment is mainly about Lecture 2.
- For the programming task, use a programming language of your choice.
- Deadline: March 31st, submission via e-mail to Sebastian.
- You will be assigned a peer-review.
 - Grade the assignment of your peer.
 - Provide constructive feedback.
 - Recommend acceptance/rejection with a brief justification.
- Submit your peer-review until April 14th via e-mail to Sebastian.

Stochastic gradient descent (SGD): A version of gradient descent where we at each iteration we only use a small part of the training data (a single data point or a mini-batch).

Learning rate (a.k.a step-length): A scalar tuning parameter deciding the length of each gradient step in GD/SCG/CD.

Mini-batch: The group of training data that we use at each iteration in SGD.

Batch size: The number of data points in one mini-batch.

Epoch: One complete pass though the entire training data set using SGD.

Adam: A state-of-the-art optimizer based on SGD and momentum which is popular in deep learning.

Differential privacy (DP): A probabilistic framework that allows us to publish models that respect individual user privacy.

Coordinate descent (CD): A version of gradient descent where we at each iteration we only update a single dimension of the parameter vector.