## Follow the Gradient



### The power of differentiation

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### Topics

- The big idea: optimisation by following gradients
- Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them?
- Recap: Singular Value Decomposition and its applications
- Example: Computing SVD using gradients The Netflix Challenge

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#### Differentiation

### The big idea: optimisation by following gradients

- Fundamentally, we're interested in machines that we train by optimising parameters
  - How do we select those parameters?
- In deep learning/differentiable programming we typically define an objective function that we *minimise* (or *maximise*) with respect to those parameters
- This implies that we're looking for points at which the gradient of the objective function is zero w.r.t the parameters

- Gradient based optimisation is a *big* field!
  - First order methods, second order methods, subgradient methods...
- With deep learning we're primarily interested in first-order methods<sup>1</sup>.
  - Primarily using variants of gradient descent: a function *F*(*x*) has *a* minima<sup>2</sup> (or a saddle-point) at a point *x* = *a* where *a* is given by applying *a*<sub>n+1</sub> = *a*<sub>n</sub> α∇*F*(*a*<sub>n</sub>) until convergence from some initial point *a*<sub>0</sub>.

<sup>1</sup>Second order gradient optimisers are potentially better, but for systems with many variables are currently impractical as they require computing the Hessian.

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<sup>2</sup>not necessarily global or unique Jonathon Hare

Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them?

The derivative in 1D

- Recall that the gradient of a straight line is  $\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}$ .
- For an arbitrary real-valued function, f(a), we can approximate the derivative, f'(a) using the gradient of the secant line defined by (a, f(a)) and a point a small distance, h, away (a + h, f(a + h)): f'(a) ≈ f(a+h)-f(a)/h.
  - This expression is 'Newton's Quotient' or 'Fermat's Difference Quotient'.
  - As *h* becomes smaller, the approximated derivative becomes more accurate.
  - If we take the limit as  $h \to 0$ , then we have an exact expression for the derivative:  $\frac{df}{da} = f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}.$



#### Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them? The derivative of $y = x^2$ from first principles

$$y = x^{2}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{(x+h)^{2} - x^{2}}{h}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{x^{2} + h^{2} + 2hx - x^{2}}{h}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{h^{2} + 2hx}{h}$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = \lim_{h \to 0} (h + 2x)$$

$$\frac{dy}{dx} = 2x$$

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### Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them? Aside: numerical approximation of the derivative

- For numerical computation of derivatives it is better to use a "centralised" definition of the derivative:
  - $f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) f(a-h)}{2h}$
  - The bit inside the limit is known as the symmetric difference quotient
  - For small values of *h* this has less error than the standard one-sided difference quotient.



- If you are going to use difference quotients to estimate derivatives you need to be aware of potential rounding errors due to floating point representations.
  - Calculating derivatives this way using less than 64-bit precision is rarely going to be useful. (Numbers are not represented exactly, so even if h is represented exactly, x + h will probably not be)
  - You need to pick an appropriate *h* too small and the subtraction will have a large rounding error!

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Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them? Derivatives of deeper functions

- Deep learning is all about optimising deeper functions; functions that are compositions of other functions
  - e.g.  $z = f \circ g(x) = f(g(x))$
- The chain rule of calculus tells us how to differentiate compositions of functions:

• 
$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy}\frac{dy}{dx}$$

#### Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them? Example: differentiating $z = x^4$

Note that this is a silly example that just serves to demonstrate the principle!

$$z = x^4$$
  

$$z = (x^2)^2 = y^2 \quad \text{where} \quad y = x^2$$
  

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy}\frac{dy}{dx} = (2y)(2x) = (2x^2)(2x) = 4x^3$$

Equivalently, from first principles:

$$z = x^{4}$$

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{(x+h)^{4} - x^{4}}{h}$$

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{h^{4} + 4h^{3}x + 6h^{2}x^{2} + 4hx^{3} + x^{4} - x^{4}}{h}$$

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \lim_{h \to 0} h^{3} + 4h^{2}x + 6hx^{2} + 4x^{3} = 4x^{3}$$

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Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them? Vector functions

- What if we're dealing with a *vector* function, y(t)?
  - This can be split into its constituent coordinate functions:
     y(t) = (y<sub>1</sub>(t),..., y<sub>n</sub>(t)).
  - Thus the derivative is a vector (the 'tangent vector'),  $\mathbf{y}'(t) = (y'_1(t), \dots, y'_n(t))$ , which consists of the derivatives of the coordinate functions.
  - Equivalently,  $\mathbf{y}'(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{\mathbf{y}(t+h) \mathbf{y}(t)}{h}$  if the limit exists.

## Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them?

Functions of multiple variables: partial differentiation

- What if the function we're trying to deal with has multiple variables<sup>3</sup> (e.g. f(x, y) = x<sup>2</sup> + xy + y<sup>2</sup>)?
  - This expression has a pair of *partial derivatives*, 
     <sup>∂f</sup>/<sub>∂x</sub> = 2x + y and
     <sup>∂f</sup>/<sub>∂y</sub> = x + 2y, computed by differentiating with respect to each variable
     x and y whilst holding the other(s) constant.
- In general, the partial derivative of a function f(x<sub>1</sub>,...,x<sub>n</sub>) at a point (a<sub>1</sub>,..., a<sub>n</sub>) is given by:

   <sup>∂f</sup>/<sub>∂x<sub>i</sub></sub>(a<sub>1</sub>,...,a<sub>n</sub>) = lim<sub>h→0</sub> f(a<sub>1</sub>...,a<sub>i</sub>+h,...,a<sub>n</sub>)-f(a<sub>1</sub>...,a<sub>i</sub>,...,a<sub>n</sub>)/h.
- The vector of partial derivatives of a scalar-value multivariate function, f(x<sub>1</sub>,...,x<sub>n</sub>) at a point (a<sub>1</sub>,..., a<sub>n</sub>), can be arranged into a vector: \(\nabla f(a\_1,...,a\_n) = (\frac{\partial f}{\partial x\_1}(a\_1,...,a\_n),...,\frac{\partial f}{\partial x\_n}(a\_1,...,a\_n)).\)
  - This is the **gradient** of *f* at *a*.
- In the case of a vector-valued multivariate function, the partial derivatives form a matrix called the **Jacobian**.

<sup>3</sup>A multivariate function Jonathon Hare

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Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them? Functions of vectors and matrices: partial differentiation

- For the kinds of functions (and programs) that we'll look at *optimising* in this course have a number of typical properties:
  - They are scalar-valued
    - We'll look at programs with *multiple losses*, but ultimately we can just consider optimising with respect to the *sum* of the losses.
  - They involve multiple variables, which are often wrapped up in the form of vectors or matrices, and more generally tensors.
  - How will we find the gradients of these?

#### Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them? The chain rule for vectors

Suppose that  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , g maps from  $\mathbb{R}^m$  to  $\mathbb{R}^n$  and f maps from  $\mathbb{R}^n$  to  $\mathbb{R}$ . If  $\mathbf{y} = g(\mathbf{x})$  and  $z = f(\mathbf{y})$ , then

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial z}{\partial y_j} \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial x_i}.$$

Equivalently, in vector notation:

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} \boldsymbol{z} = (\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{y}}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}})^\top \nabla_{\boldsymbol{y}} \boldsymbol{z}$$

where  $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$  is the  $n \times m$  Jacobian matrix of g.



Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them? The chain rule for Tensors

- Conceptually, the simplest way to think about gradients of tensors is to imagine flattening them into vectors, computing the vector-valued gradient and then reshaping the gradient back into a tensor.
  - In this way we're still just multiplying Jacobians by gradients.
- More formally, consider the gradient of a scalar z with respect to a tensor X to be denoted as ∇<sub>X</sub>z.
  - Indices into **X** now have multiple coordinates, but we can generalise by using a single variable *i* to represent the complete tuple of indices.
    - For all index tuples *i*,  $(\nabla_{\mathbf{X}} z)_i$  gives  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial X_i}$ .
  - Thus, if  $\mathbf{Y} = g(\mathbf{X})$  and  $z = f(\mathbf{Y})$  then  $\nabla_{\mathbf{X}} z = \sum_{j} (\nabla_{\mathbf{X}} \mathbf{Y}_{j}) \frac{\partial z}{\partial \mathbf{Y}_{j}}$ .

- Let D = XW where the rows of  $X \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$  contain some fixed *features*, and  $W \in \mathbb{R}^{m \times h}$  is a matrix of weights.
- Also let L = f(D) be some scalar function of D that we wish to minimise.
- What are the derivatives of  $\mathcal{L}$  with respect to the weights W?

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Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them? Example:  $\nabla_W f(XW)$ 

- Start by considering a specific weight,  $W_{uv}$ :  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_{uv}} = \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{ij}} \frac{\partial D_{ij}}{\partial W_{uv}}$ .
- We know that  $\frac{\partial D_{ij}}{\partial W_{uv}} = 0$  if  $j \neq v$  because  $D_{ij}$  is the dot product of row *i* of **X** and column *j* of **W**.
- Therefore, we can simplify the summation to only consider cases where j = v:  $\sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{ij}} \frac{\partial D_{ij}}{\partial W_{uv}} = \sum_{i} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{iv}} \frac{\partial D_{iv}}{\partial W_{uv}}$ .
- What is  $\frac{\partial D_{iv}}{\partial W_{uv}}$ ?

$$D_{iv} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} X_{ik} W_{kv}$$
$$\frac{\partial D_{iv}}{\partial W_{uv}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial W_{uv}} \sum_{k=1}^{m} X_{ik} W_{kv} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{\partial}{\partial W_{uv}} X_{ik} W_{kv}$$
$$\therefore \frac{\partial D_{iv}}{\partial W_{uv}} = X_{iu}$$

- Putting every together, we have:  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_{uv}} = \sum_i \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{iv}} X_{iu}$ .
- As we're summing over multiplications of scalars, we can change the order:  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_{uv}} = \sum_{i} X_{iu} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{iv}}$ .
- and note that the sum over *i* is doing a dot product with row *u* and column *v* if we transpose  $X_{iu}$  to  $X_{ui}^{\top}$ :  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_{uv}} = \sum_{i} X_{ui}^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{iv}}$ .
- We can then see that if we want this for all values of W it simply generalises to:  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W} = X^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D}$ .

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Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them? STOP! What does a gradient actually mean?

- In your early calculus lessons you likely had it hammered into you that gradients represent rates of change of functions.
- This is of course totally true...
- But, it isn't a particularly useful way to think about the gradients of a loss with respect to the weights of a parameterised function.
  - The gradient of the loss with respect to a parameter tells you how much the loss will change with a small perturbation to that parameter.

### Recap: Singular Value Decomposition and its applications

Let's now change direction — we're going to look at an early success story resulting from using some differentiation and the Singular Value Decomposition (SVD).

For complex **A** :

 $A = U \Sigma V^*$ 

where  $V^*$  is the *conjugate transpose* of V.

For real **A** :

$$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{U} \mathbf{\Sigma} \mathbf{V}^{ op}$$

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Recap: Singular Value Decomposition and its applications

- SVD has many uses:
  - Computing the Eigendecomposition:
    - Eigenvectors of  $AA^{\top}$  are columns of U,
    - Eigenvectors of  $\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}$  are columns of  $\mathbf{V}$ ,
    - and the non-zero values of  $\Sigma$  are the square roots of the non-zero eigenvalues of both  $AA^{\top}$  and  $A^{\top}A$ .
  - Dimensionality reduction
    - ...use to compute PCA
  - Computing the Moore-Penrose Pseudoinverse
    - for real **A**:  $\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{V} \Sigma^+ \mathbf{U}^\top$  where  $\Sigma^+$  is formed by taking the reciprocal of every non-zero diagonal element and transposing the result.
  - Low-rank approximation and matrix completion
    - if you take the ρ columns of *U*, and the ρ rows of *V*<sup>T</sup> corresponding to the ρ largest singular values, you can form the matrix *A*<sub>ρ</sub> = *U*<sub>ρ</sub>Σ<sub>ρ</sub>*V*<sub>ρ</sub><sup>T</sup> which will be the *best* rank-ρ approximation of the original *A* in terms of the Frobenius norm.

# Example: Computing SVD using gradients - The Netflix Challenge

- There are many standard ways of computing the SVD:
  - e.g. 'Power iteration', or 'Arnoldi iteration' or 'Lanczos algorithm' coupled with the 'Gram-Schmidt process' for orthonormalisation
- but, these don't necessarily scale up to really big problems
  - e.g. computing the SVD of a sparse matrix with 17770 rows, 480189 columns and 100480507 non-zero entries!
  - this corresponds to the data provided by Netflix when they launched the *Netflix Challenge* in 2006.
- OK, so what can you do?
  - The 'Simon Funk' solution: realise that there is a really simple (and quick) way to compute the SVD by following gradients...



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Example: Computing SVD using gradients - The Netflix Challenge

Deriving a gradient-descent solution to SVD

- One of the definitions of rank- $\rho$  SVD of a matrix **A** is that it minimises reconstruction error in terms of the Frobenius norm.
- Without loss of generality we can write SVD as a 2-matrix decomposition  $\mathbf{A} = \hat{\mathbf{U}}\hat{\mathbf{V}}^{T}$  by rolling in the square roots of  $\Sigma$  to both  $\hat{\mathbf{U}}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{V}}$ :  $\hat{\mathbf{U}} = \mathbf{U}\Sigma^{0.5}$  and  $\hat{\mathbf{V}}^{\top} = \Sigma^{0.5}\mathbf{V}^{\top}$ .

• Then we can define the decomposition as finding min $(\| \mathbf{A} - \hat{\mathbf{U}} \hat{\mathbf{V}}^{\top} \|_{\mathrm{F}}^2)$ 

# Example: Computing SVD using gradients - The Netflix Challenge

Deriving a gradient-descent solution to SVD

Start by expanding our optimisation problem:

$$\begin{split} \min_{\hat{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{U}}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}}} (\|\boldsymbol{A} - \hat{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{U}}} \hat{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}}^{\top} \|_{\mathrm{F}}^{2}) &= \min_{\hat{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{U}}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}}} (\sum_{r} \sum_{c} (A_{rc} - \hat{U}_{r} \hat{V}_{c})^{2}) \\ &= \min_{\hat{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{U}}}, \hat{\boldsymbol{\mathcal{V}}}} (\sum_{r} \sum_{c} (A_{rc} - \sum_{p=1}^{\rho} \hat{U}_{rp} \hat{V}_{cp})^{2}) \end{split}$$

Let  $e_{rc} = A_{rc} - \sum_{\rho=0}^{\rho} \hat{U}_{r\rho} \hat{V}_{c\rho}$  denote the error. Then, our problem becomes:

$$\text{Minimise } J = \sum_{r} \sum_{c} e_{rc}^2$$

We can then differentiate with respect to specific variables  $\hat{U}_{rq}$  and  $\hat{V}_{cq}$ 

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# Example: Computing SVD using gradients - The Netflix Challenge

Deriving a gradient-descent solution to SVD

We can then differentiate with respect to specific variables  $\hat{U}_{rq}$  and  $\hat{V}_{cq}$ :

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \hat{U}_{rq}} = \sum_{r} \sum_{c} 2e_{rc} \frac{\partial e}{\partial \hat{U}_{rq}} = -2 \sum_{r} \sum_{c} \hat{V}_{cq} e_{rc}$$
$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \hat{V}_{cq}} = \sum_{r} \sum_{c} 2e_{rc} \frac{\partial e}{\partial \hat{V}_{cq}} = -2 \sum_{r} \sum_{c} \hat{U}_{rq} e_{rc}$$

and use this as the basis for a gradient descent algorithm:

$$\hat{U}_{rq} \Leftarrow \hat{U}_{rq} + \lambda \sum_{r} \sum_{c} \hat{V}_{cq} e_{rc}$$
$$\hat{V}_{cq} \Leftarrow \hat{V}_{cq} + \lambda \sum_{r} \sum_{c} \hat{U}_{rq} e_{rc}$$

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# Example: Computing SVD using gradients - The Netflix Challenge

Deriving a gradient-descent solution to SVD

- A stochastic version of this algorithm (updates on one single item of A at a time) helped win the Netflix Challenge competition in 2009.
- It was both *fast* and *memory efficient*

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