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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 - 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

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 - Primarily using variants of gradient descent: a function $F(\mathbf{x})$ has a minima² at a point $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{a}$ where \mathbf{a} is given by applying $\mathbf{a}_{n+1} = \mathbf{a}_n \alpha \nabla F(\mathbf{a}_n)$ until convergence from some initial point \mathbf{a}_0 .

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 - This expression is 'Newton'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: $\frac{df}{da} = f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) f(a)}{h}$.

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Aside: numerical approximation of the derivative

 For numerical computation of derivatives it is better to use a "centralised" definition of the derivative:

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 - For small values of *h* this has less error than the standard one-sided difference quotient.
- If you are going to use this 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!

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

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- The chain rule of calculus tells us how to differentiate compositions of functions:
 - $\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy} \frac{dy}{dx}$

Example: differentiating $z = x^4$

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Equivalently, from first principles:

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

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 - 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.

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Functions of multiple variables: partial differentiation

- What if the function we're trying to deal with has multiple variables³ (e.g. $f(x, y) = x^2 + xy + y^2$)?
 - This expression has a pair of partial derivatives, $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} = 2x + y$ and $\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = x + 2y$, computed by differentiating with respect to each variable x and y whilst holding the other(s) constant.

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- In general, the partial derivative of a function $f(x_1, ..., x_n)$ at a point $(a_1, ..., a_n)$ is given by:

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a_1,\ldots,a_n) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a_1\ldots,a_i+h,\ldots,a_n)-f(a_1\ldots,a_i,\ldots,a_n)}{h}.$$

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- The vector of partial derivatives of a scalar-value multivariate function, $f((x_1, \ldots, x_n))$ at a point (a_1, \ldots, a_n) , can be arranged into a vector: $\nabla f(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = (\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(a_1, \ldots, a_n), \ldots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(a_1, \ldots, a_n))$.

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- In the case of a vector-valued multivariate function, the partial derivatives form a matrix called the **Jacobian**.

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 - How will we find the gradients of these?

The chain rule for vectors

Suppose that $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$, \mathbf{g} maps from \mathbb{R}^m to \mathbb{R}^n and \mathbf{f} maps from \mathbb{R}^n to \mathbb{R} .

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If $\mathbf{y} = g(\mathbf{x})$ and $z = f(\mathbf{y})$, then

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Equivalently, in vector notation:

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

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

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 - 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 $\nabla_{\mathbf{X}} z = \sum_{j} (\nabla_{\mathbf{X}} Y_{j}) \frac{\partial z}{\partial Y_{j}}$.

Example: $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{W}} f(\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{W})$

- 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 $\mathcal{L} = f(\mathbf{D})$ be some scalar function of \mathbf{D} that we wish to minimise.

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- Also let $\mathcal{L} = f(\mathbf{D})$ be some scalar function of \mathbf{D} that we wish to minimise.
- What are the derivatives of \mathcal{L} with respect to the weights \mathbf{W} ?

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• Start by considering a specific weight, W_{uv} : $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_{uv}} = \sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{ij}} \frac{\partial D_{ij}}{\partial W_{uv}}$.

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- Therefore, we can simplify the summation to only consider cases where j = v: $\sum_{i,j} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{ij}} \frac{\partial D_{ij}}{\partial W_{uv}} = \sum_{i} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{iv}} \frac{\partial D_{iv}}{\partial W_{uv}}$.

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

$$\therefore \frac{\partial D_{iv}}{\partial W_{uv}} = X_{iu}$$

Example: $\nabla_{\boldsymbol{W}} f(\boldsymbol{X} \boldsymbol{W})$

• Putting every together, we have: $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_{uv}} = \sum_i \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{iv}} X_{iu}$.

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- 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} : $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_{uv}} = \sum_{i} X_{ui}^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{iv}}$.

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- We can then see that if we want this for all values of \boldsymbol{W} it simply generalises to: $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{W}} = \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{D}}$.

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:

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

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

For real A:

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

- SVD has many uses:
 - Computing the Eigendecomposition:
 - Eigenvectors of $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\top}$ are columns of \mathbf{U} ,
 - Eigenvectors of $\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}$ are columns of \mathbf{V} ,
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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 Σ are the square roots of the non-zero eigenvalues of both $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\top}$ and $\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}$.
 - Dimensionality reduction
 - ...use to compute PCA
 - Computing the Moore-Penrose Pseudoinverse
 - for real A: $A^+ = V \Sigma^+ U^\top$ where Σ^+ 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 ${\pmb U}$, and the ρ rows of ${\pmb V}^{\top}$ corresponding to the ρ largest singular values, you can form the matrix ${\pmb A}_{\rho} = {\pmb U}_{\rho} {\pmb \Sigma}_{\rho} {\pmb V}_{\rho}^{\top}$ which will be the *best* rank- ρ approximation of the original ${\pmb A}$ in terms of the Frobenius norm.

- 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

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- There are many standard ways of computing the SVD:
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- 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!
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- 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...

Deriving a gradient-descent solution to SVD

• One of the definitions of rank- ρ SVD of a matrix \boldsymbol{A} is that it minimises reconstruction error in terms of the Frobenius norm.

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Deriving a gradient-descent solution to SVD

- One of the definitions of rank- ρ 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 Σ to both $\hat{\boldsymbol{U}}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{V}}$: $\hat{\boldsymbol{U}} = \boldsymbol{U}\boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{0.5}$ and $\hat{\boldsymbol{V}}^{\top} = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{0.5}\boldsymbol{V}^{\top}$.

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- Then we can define the decomposition as finding $\min_{\hat{m{U}},\hat{m{V}}}(\|{m{A}}-\hat{m{U}}\hat{m{V}}^{\top}\|_{\mathrm{F}})$

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Deriving a gradient-descent solution to SVD

Start by expanding our optimisation problem:

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

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Deriving a gradient-descent solution to SVD

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$$\min_{\hat{\boldsymbol{U}},\hat{\boldsymbol{V}}} (\|\boldsymbol{A} - \hat{\boldsymbol{U}}\hat{\boldsymbol{V}}^{\top}\|_{F}) = \min_{\hat{\boldsymbol{U}},\hat{\boldsymbol{V}}} (\sum_{r} \sum_{c} (A_{rc} - \hat{U}_{r}\hat{V}_{c})^{2})$$

$$= \min_{\hat{\boldsymbol{U}},\hat{\boldsymbol{V}}} (\sum_{r} \sum_{c} (A_{rc} - \sum_{p=1}^{\rho} \hat{U}_{rp}\hat{V}_{cp})^{2})$$

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

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

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

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Deriving a gradient-descent solution to SVD

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

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

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