# Follow the Gradient



#### The power of differentiation

Jonathon Hare

Vision, Learning and Control University of Southampton

#### **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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- 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  $a_{n+1} = a_n \alpha \nabla F(a_n)$  until convergence from some initial point  $a_0$ .

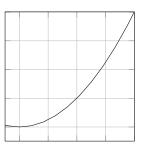
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<sup>2</sup>not necessarily global or unique

The derivative in 1D

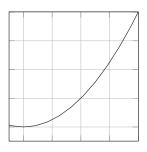
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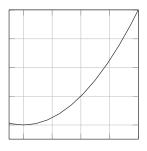
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- Recall that the gradient of a straight line is  $\frac{\Delta y}{\Delta x}$ .
- For an arbitrary real-valued function, f(a), we can approximate the derivative, f'(a) using the gradient of the secant line defined by (a, f(a)) and a point a small distance, h, away (a + h, f(a + h)):  $f'(a) \approx \frac{f(a+h)-f(a)}{h}$ .



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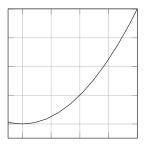
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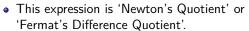
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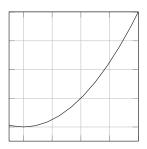


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- As *h* becomes smaller, the approximated derivative becomes more accurate.
- If we take the limit as  $h \to 0$ , then we have an exact expression for the derivative:  $\frac{df}{da} = f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) f(a)}{h}.$



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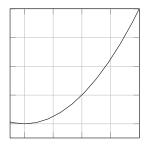
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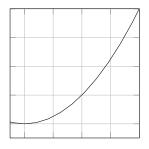
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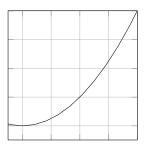
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  - For small values of h this has less error than the standard one-sided difference quotient.



- If you are going to use 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!

# 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:
  - $\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy} \frac{dy}{dx}$

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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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  - 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 variables<sup>3</sup> (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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$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a_1,\ldots,a_n) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a_1,\ldots,a_i+h,\ldots,a_n)-f(a_1,\ldots,a_i,\ldots,a_n)}{h}.$$

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  - This is the **gradient** of *f* at *a*.

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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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  - 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?

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

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

- 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  $\mathbf{W}$ ?

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

• 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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- 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  $\boldsymbol{X}$  and column j of  $\boldsymbol{W}$ .

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

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- 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  $\boldsymbol{X}$  and column j of  $\boldsymbol{W}$ .
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$$\therefore \frac{\partial D_{iv}}{\partial W_{uv}} = X_{iu}$$

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• 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:  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{W}} = \boldsymbol{X}^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \boldsymbol{D}}$ .

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- 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:

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

- 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  $\mathbf{A}\mathbf{A}^{\top}$  and  $\mathbf{A}^{\top}\mathbf{A}$ .

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  - Computing the Moore-Penrose Pseudoinverse
    - for real  $\mathbf{A}$ :  $\mathbf{A}^+ = \mathbf{V} \mathbf{\Sigma}^+ \mathbf{U}^\top$  where  $\mathbf{\Sigma}^+$  is formed by taking the reciprocal of every non-zero diagonal element and transposing the result.

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    - for real A:  $A^+ = V \Sigma^+ U^\top$  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  $\rho$  columns of  $\boldsymbol{U}$ , and the  $\rho$  rows of  $\boldsymbol{V}^{\top}$  corresponding to the  $\rho$  largest singular values, you can form the matrix  $\boldsymbol{A}_{\rho} = \boldsymbol{U}_{\rho} \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_{\rho} \boldsymbol{V}_{\rho}^{\top}$  which will be the *best* rank- $\rho$  approximation of the original  $\boldsymbol{A}$  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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- 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- $\rho$  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- $\rho$  SVD of a matrix  $\boldsymbol{A}$  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  $\hat{\mathbf{V}}^\top = \Sigma^{0.5}\mathbf{V}^\top$ .

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

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Deriving a gradient-descent solution to SVD

Start by expanding our optimisation problem:

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

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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.

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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.
- It was both fast and memory efficient