# 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

#### 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

#### The big idea: optimisation by following gradients

- 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  $F(\mathbf{x})$  has a minima<sup>2</sup> (or a saddle-point) 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  $\mathbf{a}_0$ .

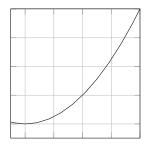
### Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them?

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

<sup>&</sup>lt;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.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>not necessarily global or unique



The derivative of  $y = x^2$  from first principles

$$y = x^{2}$$

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

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

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

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

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

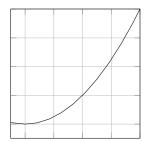
### Recap: what are gradients and how do we find them?

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.



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

Aside: numerical approximation of the derivative

- 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!

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!

$$z = x4$$

$$z = (x2)2 = y2 \text{ where } y = x2$$

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy} \frac{dy}{dx} = (2y)(2x) = (2x2)(2x) = 4x3$$

Equivalently, from first principles:

$$z = x^4$$

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

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

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

#### 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:  $y(t) = (y_1(t), \dots, y_n(t))$ .
  - 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,  $y'(t) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{y(t+h) y(t)}{h}$  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 (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.
- In general, the partial derivative of a function  $f(x_1, \ldots, x_n)$  at a point  $(a_1, \ldots, a_n)$  is given by:  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i}(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a_1, \ldots, a_i + h, \ldots, a_n) f(a_1, \ldots, a_i, \ldots, a_n)}{h}$ .
- 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:  $\nabla f(a_1, \ldots, a_n) = \left(\frac{\partial f}{\partial x_1}(a_1, \ldots, a_n), \ldots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_n}(a_1, \ldots, a_n)\right)$ .
  - 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>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>A multivariate function

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  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , 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:

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

where  $\frac{\partial \boldsymbol{y}}{\partial \boldsymbol{x}}$  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  $\nabla_{\mathbf{X}}z$ .
  - 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  $\frac{\partial z}{\partial \mathbf{X}_i}$ .
  - Thus, if  $\mathbf{Y} = g(\mathbf{X})$  and  $z = f(\mathbf{Y})$  then  $\nabla_{\mathbf{X}} z = \sum_{j} (\nabla_{\mathbf{X}} \mathsf{Y}_{j}) \frac{\partial z}{\partial \mathsf{Y}_{i}}$ .

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

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

- 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.
- What are the derivatives of  $\mathcal{L}$  with respect to the weights  $\mathbf{W}$ ?

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

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

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

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

$$D_{iv} = \sum_{k=1}^{m} X_{ik} W_{kv}$$

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

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

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

- Putting every together, we have:  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_{uv}} = \sum_{i} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{iv}} X_{iu}$ .
- 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  $X_{ui}^{\top}$ :  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_{vv}} = \sum_{i} X_{ui}^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D_{iv}}.$
- We can then see that if we want this for all values of W it simply generalises to:  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W} = X^{\top} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial D}$ .

### 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). [1em] For complex A:

$$A = U\Sigma V^*$$

where  $V^*$  is the *conjugate transpose* of V.[1em] For real A:

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

# Recap: Singular Value Decomposition and its applications

- SVD has many uses:
  - Computing the Eigendecomposition:
    - \* Eigenvectors of  $AA^{\top}$  are columns of U,
    - \* Eigenvectors of  $A^{\top}A$  are columns of 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:  $A^+ = V \Sigma^+ U^\top$  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 U, and the  $\rho$  rows of  $V^{\top}$  corresponding to the  $\rho$  largest singular values, you can form the matrix  $A_{\rho} = U_{\rho} \Sigma_{\rho} V_{\rho}^{\top}$  which will be the *best* rank- $\rho$  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...

# 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  $\boldsymbol{A}$  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  $\hat{\mathbf{V}}^{\top} = \Sigma^{0.5}\mathbf{V}^{\top}$ .
- Then we can define the decomposition as finding  $\min_{\hat{U},\hat{V}}(\|A-\hat{U}\hat{V}^{\top}\|_{\mathrm{F}}^2)$

#### Example: Computing SVD using gradients - The Netflix Challenge

Deriving a gradient-descent solution to SVD

Start by expanding our optimisation problem:

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

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

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

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

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

### 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  $\hat{V}_{cq}$ :

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial J}{\partial \hat{U}_{rq}} &= \sum_r \sum_c 2e_{rc} \frac{\partial e}{\partial \hat{U}_{rq}} = -2 \sum_r \sum_c \hat{V}_{cq} e_{rc} \\ \frac{\partial J}{\partial \hat{V}_{cq}} &= \sum_r \sum_c 2e_{rc} \frac{\partial e}{\partial \hat{V}_{cq}} = -2 \sum_r \sum_c \hat{U}_{rq} e_{rc} \end{split}$$

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

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

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

# 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  $\boldsymbol{A}$  at a time) helped win the Netflix Challenge competition in 2009.
- It was both fast and memory efficient