ECE 1508S2: Applied Deep Learning

Chapter 2: Feedforward Neural Networks

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Winter 2024

Various Architectures for NNs

Let's abbreviate the term Neural Network from now on with NN

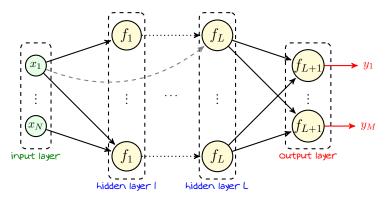
Now that we know what they are and how to train them, we are going through the famous architectures for NNs which are

- 1 Feedforward NNs abbreviated as FNNs
 - Some people call them also Multi-Layer Perceptrons (MLPs): you may say that this is a misnomer and you are right! Check the wikipedia page
- 2 Convolutional NNs abbreviated as CNNs
- 3 Recurrent NNs abbreviated as RNNs

In this chapter, we start with FNNs which are known to be *vanilla NNs*, i.e., the most basic architecture we could think for a NN

FNNs: Architecture

In FNNs, the *inputs flow in one direction*: each layer's output is connected to the next layers, and thus we do not have any feedback



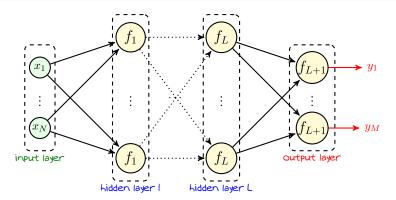
Though it is not a must, we usually use same activation for all neurons in a layer

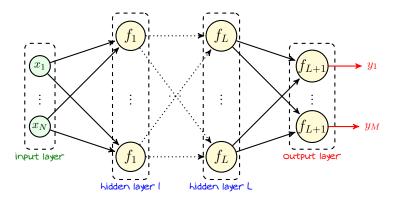
Fully-Connected FNNs

We start with the most straightforward FNNs: fully-connected FNNs

Fully-Connected FNNs

In a fully-connected FNN, each node is connected to all nodes in the next layer





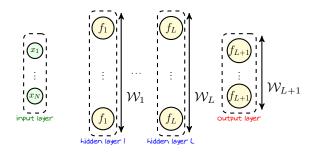
In this FNN, we have L hidden layers; thus, its depth is L+1

Recall: this network is Deep if L > 1

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Width of a Layer

The width of layer ℓ is the number of neurons in layer ℓ



Some people call the largest width, the width of the network, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{W} = \max_{\ell \in \{1, \dots, L+1\}} \mathcal{W}_{\ell}$$



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Fully-Connected FNNs: Looking as a Model

- + We should look at a fully-connected FNN as a model. Then, what are the hyperparameters and learnable parameters?
- I am glad that you ask! Let's take a look

Assume that someone tells us that we should use a fully-connected FNN with only ReLU activation. Now, we could say

- To write down the model, we need to know the number of hidden layers L and width of each layer \mathcal{W}_{ℓ} : these are the hyperparameters
- If we set the L and \mathcal{W}_{ℓ} , we can specify the learnable parameters
 - ullet in hidden layer 1, we have \mathcal{W}_1 neurons each having N weights and a bias
 - in hidden layer 2, we have \mathcal{W}_2 neurons each having \mathcal{W}_1 weights and a bias

ullet in output layer, we have \mathcal{W}_{L+1} neurons each having \mathcal{W}_L weights and a bias

model parameters $= (N+1)\,\mathcal{W}_1 + \sum_{\ell=1}^L \left(\mathcal{W}_\ell + 1\right)\mathcal{W}_{\ell+1}$

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Let us first see how a given data-point propagates through the FNN: we want to write the outputs y_1, \ldots, y_M when inputs x_1, \ldots, x_N are given

this is called forward propagation through the network

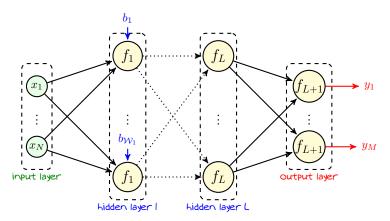
or simply

the forward pass

which tracks values passed through the NN from the input to output layer

To present the forward pass compactly, we need to define some notations and apply some modifications in the network

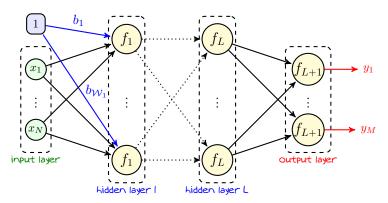
We can get rid of biases by defining a new constant node in each layer Let's look at the first layer: we have W_1 neurons and each has a bias



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We can get rid of biases by defining a new constant node in each layer

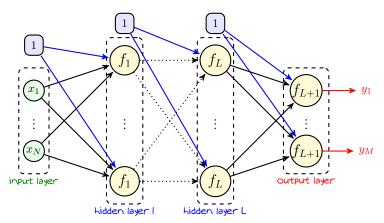
We introduce a constant input and let these biases being the weights of its links



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We can get rid of biases by defining a new constant node in each layer

We do the same in all layers: now neurons have no biases

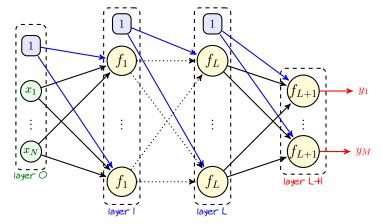


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We next give an index to each layer each layer

▶ Input layer is layer 0 ▶ Hidden layer ℓ is layer ℓ ▶ Output layer is layer L+1



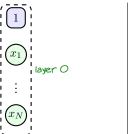
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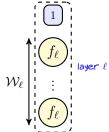
We next give an index to each layer each layer

So, our layers are indexed by $\ell \in \{0, \dots, L+1\}$

- We denote the width of layer ℓ with \mathcal{W}_{ℓ}

 - \rightarrow For $\ell = 0$ this is the number of inputs, i.e., $\mathcal{W}_0 = N$
- In layer ℓ , we have $\mathcal{W}_{\ell} + 1$ nodes
 - \downarrow \mathcal{W}_{ℓ} neurons (or inputs if $\ell = 0$)
 - \rightarrow One constant node that always returns 1

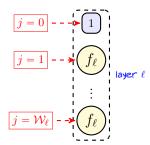




We next index the nodes in each layer

In layer ℓ : we have $\mathcal{W}_{\ell} + 1$ nodes

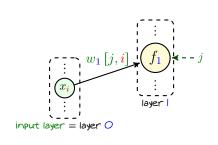
- \rightarrow One constant node \equiv node j = 0
- \downarrow \mathcal{W}_{ℓ} neurons/inputs \equiv node $j = 1, \dots, \mathcal{W}_{\ell}$

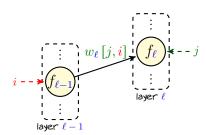




We next give weights to the links

Weight of the link connecting node i in layer $\ell-1$ to node j in layer ℓ is denoted by $w_{\ell}[j,i]$





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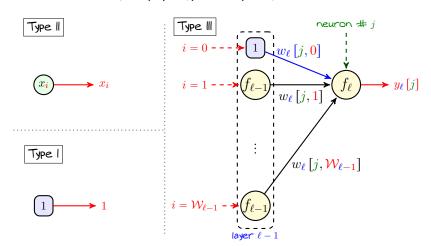
$$w_{\ell}\left[j, \mathbf{0}
ight]$$
 is the bias of neuron j in layer ℓ

- $i = 0, \dots, \mathcal{W}_{\ell-1}$
- $j = 1, \ldots, \mathcal{W}_{\ell}$

This means that there exists no such a weight $w_{\ell}[0, i]$



We finally specify the output of each node



We finally specify the output of each node

We represent the output of node j in layer ℓ with $y_{\ell}[j]$

- \downarrow Since j=0 is the constant node: $y_{\ell}[0]=1$ for $\ell=0,\ldots,L+1$
- \downarrow Since $\ell = 0$ is the input layer: $y_0[j] = x_j$ for j = 1, ..., N
- \rightarrow For neuron j in layer ℓ we can write

$$y_{\ell}[j] = f_{\ell}(z_{\ell}[j])$$

where $z_{\ell}[j]$ is the output of the affine function in neuron j



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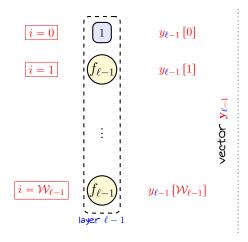
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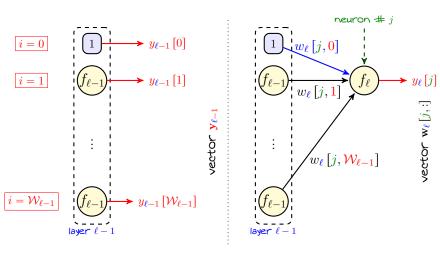
$$z_{\ell}[j] = w_{\ell}[j, 0] + \sum_{i=1}^{W_{\ell-1}} w_{\ell}[j, i] y_{\ell-1}[i]$$
$$= \sum_{i=0}^{W_{\ell-1}} w_{\ell}[j, i] y_{\ell-1}[i]$$

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We finally specify the output of each node

We can represent $z_j[\ell]$ more compactly via vectorized notation

$$z_{\ell}[j] = \sum_{i=0}^{\mathcal{W}_{\ell-1}} w_{\ell}[i, j] y_{\ell-1}[i]$$

$$= \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} w_{\ell}[j, 0] & w_{\ell}[j, 1] & \dots & w_{\ell}[j, \mathcal{W}_{\ell-1}] \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{w}_{\ell}[j, :]^{\mathsf{T}}} \underbrace{\begin{bmatrix} y_{\ell-1}[0] \\ y_{\ell-1}[1] \\ \vdots \\ y_{\ell-1}[\mathcal{W}_{\ell-1}] \end{bmatrix}}_{\mathbf{y}_{\ell}}$$

$$= \mathbf{w}_{\ell}[j, :]^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y}_{\ell-1}$$

We finally specify the output of each node

We can further extend vectorized notation by defining

$$\mathbf{z}_{\ell} = \begin{bmatrix} z_{\ell} [1] \\ \vdots \\ z_{\ell} [\mathcal{W}_{\ell}] \end{bmatrix}$$

and thus writing \mathbf{y}_{ℓ} as

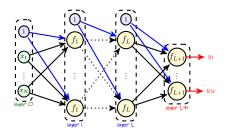
$$\mathbf{y}_{\ell} = f_{\ell}(\mathbf{z}_{\ell})$$

where $f_{\ell}\left(\cdot\right)$ is applied entry-wise

and don't forget to add the dummy input 1, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{y}_{\ell} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \mathbf{y}_{\ell} \end{bmatrix}$$

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```
1: Initiate the output of the first layer as \mathbf{y}_0 = x

2: for \ell = 0, \dots, L do

3: for j = 1, \dots, \mathcal{W}_{\ell} do

4: Add \mathbf{y}_{\ell}[0] = 1 and set z_{\ell+1}[j] = \mathbf{w}_{\ell+1}[j,:]^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{y}_{\ell} # affine function

5: end for

6: Compute \mathbf{y}_{\ell+1} = f_{\ell+1}(\mathbf{z}_{\ell+1}) # activation

7: end for

8: for \ell = 1, \dots, L+1 do

9: Return \mathbf{y}_{\ell} and \mathbf{z}_{\ell}

10: end for
```

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We can present everything even more compactly: let's write down \mathbf{z}_{ℓ}

$$\mathbf{z}_{\ell} = \begin{bmatrix} z_{\ell} [1] \\ \vdots \\ z_{\ell} [\mathcal{W}_{\ell}] \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_{\ell} [1,:]^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y}_{\ell-1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}_{\ell} [\mathcal{W}_{\ell},:]^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y}_{\ell-1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_{\ell} [1,:]^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}_{\ell} [\mathcal{W}_{\ell},:]^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}_{\ell-1}$$

Now, we can define the matrix \mathbf{W}_ℓ as

$$\mathbf{W}_{\ell} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_{\ell} \begin{bmatrix} 1, : \end{bmatrix}^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}_{\ell} \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{W}_{\ell}, : \end{bmatrix}^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{\ell} \begin{bmatrix} 1, 0 \end{bmatrix} & \dots & w_{\ell} \begin{bmatrix} 1, \mathcal{W}_{\ell-1} \end{bmatrix} \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ w_{\ell} \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{W}_{\ell}, 0 \end{bmatrix} & \dots & w_{\ell} \begin{bmatrix} \mathcal{W}_{\ell}, \mathcal{W}_{\ell-1} \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix}$$

This matrix collects all learning parameters of layer ℓ

Note that \mathbf{W}_{ℓ} has \mathcal{W}_{ℓ} rows and $\mathcal{W}_{\ell-1}+1$ columns

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Forward Propagation: Pseudo Code

So, we can compactly present the forward propagation algorithm as follow

```
ForwardProp(): 

1: Initiate with \mathbf{y}_0 = x

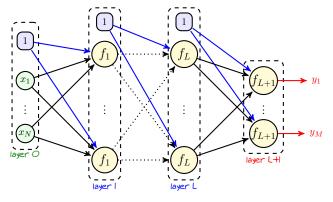
2: \mathbf{for} \ \ell = 0, \dots, L \ \mathbf{do}

3: Add \mathbf{y}_\ell[0] = 1 and determine \mathbf{z}_{\ell+1} = \mathbf{W}_{\ell+1} \mathbf{y}_\ell # forward affine 4: Determine \mathbf{y}_{\ell+1} = f_{\ell+1}(\mathbf{z}_{\ell+1}) # forward activation 5: end for 6: \mathbf{for} \ \ell = 1, \dots, L+1 \ \mathbf{do} 7: Return \mathbf{y}_\ell and \mathbf{z}_\ell 8: end for
```

After getting data-point x, we convert it to x by adding an entry 1 at its index zero. We then pass it through a linear layer whose weights are learnable and a nonlinear transform that is specified by activation. The output of this layer passes forward to the next layer till we get to the output.

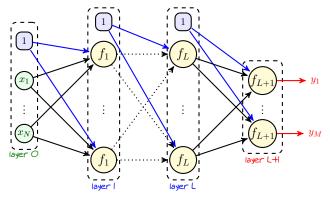
Forward Propagation: Compact Diagram

Inspired by forward propagation, we can represent the FNN

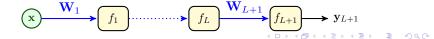


Forward Propagation: Compact Diagram

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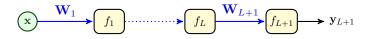


by the following compact diagram



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Forward Propagation: Compact Diagram



Here, we compactly represent layer ℓ as

$$\mathbf{y}_{\ell-1} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}} \mathbf{z}_{\ell} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{y}_{\ell}}$$

- The link \mathbf{W}_{ℓ} represents the affine function of layer ℓ
- The block f_ℓ represents the activation of layer ℓ and adding $y_\ell[0] = 1$
 - \rightarrow The input of this block can be considered z_{ℓ}
 - $\,\,\,\,\,\,\,\,\,\,\,\,\,\,$ The output of this block can be considered y_ℓ

This compact diagram will come in handy when we derive backpropagation!

- + So, what do we do with forward pass?
- Say the FNN is fixed and all the weights and biases are given. Forward
 pass determines the label of a given data-point x.
- + Well! But we need to train the network! Right?!
- Yes! We define the loss and then train it via gradient descent
- + Then, we need to determine the gradient! It sounds complicated!
- Well! there is an efficient algorithm for that called backpropagation

Let's see what backpropagation is!

Let's recall how we train the network: in our FNN, we considered M outputs; thus, we could assume that the dataset is of the form

$$\mathbb{D} = \{ (\boldsymbol{x}_b, \boldsymbol{v_b}) \text{ for } b = 1, \dots, B \}$$

Here, we have denoted the true labels by $v_b = [v_{b,1}, \dots, v_{b,M}]^\mathsf{T}$ to avoid confusion with the FNN's outputs.

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Here, we have denoted the true labels by $v_b = [v_{b,1}, \dots, v_{b,M}]^\mathsf{T}$ to avoid confusion with the FNN's outputs. Now, let's denote the forward pass by $\textit{PassF}(x_b|\mathbf{w})$ with \mathbf{w} is a vector collecting $\{\mathbf{W}_\ell\}$ for $\ell=1,\dots,L+1$

Given data-point x_b , by forward pass we get output PassF $(x_b|\mathbf{w})$ from FNN with weights \mathbf{w} . This output is desired to be the true label v_b

How do we do the training?

$$\mathbf{w}^{\star} = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \, \hat{R}\left(\mathbf{w}\right) = \underset{\mathbf{w}}{\operatorname{argmin}} \, \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \mathcal{L}\left(\textit{PassF}\left(x_{b} \middle| \mathbf{w}\right), \boldsymbol{v_{b}}\right) \quad \text{(Training)}$$

Let's recall how we train the network

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Also, we recall the gradient descent algorithm

```
1: Initiate at some \mathbf{w}^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^D and deviation \Delta = +\infty
```

- 2: Choose some small ϵ and η , and set t=1
- 3: while $\Delta > \epsilon$ do
- 4: Update weights as $\mathbf{w}^{(t)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^{(t-1)} \eta \nabla \hat{R}(\mathbf{w}^{(t-1)})$
- 5: Update the deviation $\Delta = |\hat{R}(\mathbf{w}^{(t)}) \hat{R}(\mathbf{w}^{(t-1)})|$
- 6: end while

In this algorithm, the main challenge is to calculate $\nabla \hat{R}(\mathbf{w}^{(t-1)})$

The main challenge is to calculate $\nabla \hat{R}(\mathbf{w})$

First, let's see what are the entries of \mathbf{w} : \mathbf{w} contains all weights and biases. Following our notations, we can say

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_1 \left[1, : \right] \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}_1 \left[\mathcal{W}_1, : \right] \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}_{L+1} \left[1, : \right] \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{w}_{L+1} \left[\mathcal{W}_{L+1}, : \right] \end{bmatrix} \text{layer } \ell = 1$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{\ell} \left[j, 0 \right] \\ w_{\ell} \left[j, 1 \right] \\ \vdots \\ w_{\ell} \left[j, \mathcal{W}_{\ell-1} \right] \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{\ell} \left[j, 0 \right]$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{\ell} \left[j, 1 \right]$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{\ell} \left[j, \mathcal{W}_{\ell-1} \right]$$

So, the entries of w are $w_{\ell}[j, i]$ for different choices of i, j and ℓ

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The main challenge is to calculate $\nabla \hat{R}(\mathbf{w})$

Let's try to open up the gradient: we need partial derivatives of $\hat{R}(\mathbf{w})$ with respect to $w_{\ell}[j,i]$ for $i=0,\ldots,\mathcal{W}_{\ell-1}$ and $j=1,\ldots,\mathcal{W}_{\ell}$ as ℓ runs over $\ell=1,\ldots,L+1$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{\ell}[j, \mathbf{i}]} \hat{R}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{\ell}[j, \mathbf{i}]} \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \mathcal{L} \left(\mathsf{PassF} \left(x_b | \mathbf{w} \right), \mathbf{v}_b \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{\mathbf{i}, j}[\ell]} \mathcal{L} \left(\mathsf{PassF} \left(x_b | \mathbf{w} \right), \mathbf{v}_b \right) \right]$$

So, it's enough to develop an algorithm that determined the partial derivative for a single data-point. The partial derivative is then the average of these point-wise derivatives.



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Let's make an agreement: we consider a data-point x with label v and write

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{\ell}\left[j, \emph{\textbf{i}}\right]} \mathcal{L}\left(\mathsf{PassF}\left(x \middle| \mathbf{w}\right), \textcolor{red}{\mathbf{v}}\right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{\ell}\left[j, \emph{\textbf{i}}\right]} \mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{y}, \textcolor{red}{\mathbf{v}}\right)$$

while keeping in mind that ${f y}$ is a function of ${f w}$

To determine the partial derivatives, we note that

y is a nested function of w

so, we can determine the derivative via chain rule. Let's recall the chain rule and see how we can apply it on a graph



Assume z=g(x) and y=f(z): y is a nested function of x, as we can write

$$y = f(g(x))$$

Intuitively, we can say: if at point x we move with tiny step dx, z varies as

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}z}{\dot{g}(x)\mathrm{d}x}$$

This variation also varies y: moving from z = g(x) with tiny step dz leads to

$$\mathrm{d}y = \dot{f}(z)\mathrm{d}z$$



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$$dz = \dot{g}(x)dx$$

This variation also varies y: moving from z = g(x) with tiny step dz leads to

$$\mathrm{d}y = \dot{f}(z)\mathrm{d}z$$

So, we have

$$\mathrm{d}y = \dot{f}(z)\dot{g}(x)\mathrm{d}x$$



We have concluded that by moving x with dx, we get

$$\mathrm{d}y = \dot{f}(z)\dot{g}(x)\mathrm{d}x$$

On the other hand, we know that

$$\mathrm{d}y = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} f(g(x)) \mathrm{d}x$$

This concludes the chain rule



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This concludes the chain rule

Chain Rule: Scalar Form

The derivative of nested function y = f(g(x)) with respect to x is given by

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} f(g(x)) = \dot{f}(z)\dot{g}(x) = \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z}\frac{\mathrm{d}z}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

We can extend this idea to deeper nested functions:

Let $z_1=g_1(x)$ and $z_{n+1}=g_{n+1}(z_n)$ for $n=1,\ldots,N$; then, derivative of $y=f(z_N)$ with respect to x is given by

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_j} = \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_N} \left(\prod_{n=1}^{N-1} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_{n+1}}{\mathrm{d}z_n} \right) \frac{\mathrm{d}z_1}{\mathrm{d}x} = \dot{f}(z_N) \left(\prod_{n=1}^{N-1} \dot{g}_{n+1}(z_n) \right) \dot{g}_1(x)$$

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Let $z_1=g_1(x)$ and $z_{n+1}=g_{n+1}(z_n)$ for $n=1,\ldots,N$; then, derivative of $y=f(z_N)$ with respect to x is given by

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_j} = \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_N} \left(\prod_{n=1}^{N-1} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_{n+1}}{\mathrm{d}z_n} \right) \frac{\mathrm{d}z_1}{\mathrm{d}x} = \dot{f}(z_N) \left(\prod_{n=1}^{N-1} \dot{g}_{n+1}(z_n) \right) \dot{g}_1(x)$$

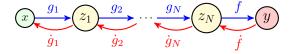
We can represent the chain rule, using a computation graph: for the deep nested function given above, the computation graph is given by



In this graph, we start from x and pass forward to $z_1 \to z_2 \to \dots$ until we get to y. In each pass, we determine next variable via the function on the link

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The derivative of y with respect to any variable on this graph is determined by a backward pass from y towards the variable

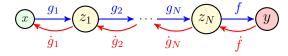


Let's start from the last node

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_N} = \dot{f}\left(z_N\right)$$



The derivative of y with respect to any variable on this graph is determined by a backward pass from y towards the variable

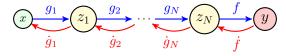


Let's start from the last node

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_N} = \dot{f}(z_N)$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_{N-1}} = \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_N} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_N}{\mathrm{d}z_{N-1}} = \dot{f}(z_N) \dot{g}_N(z_{N-1})$$

The derivative of y with respect to any variable on this graph is determined by a backward pass from y towards the variable



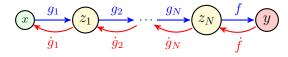
Let's start from the last node

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_{N}} = \dot{f}(z_{N})$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_{N-1}} = \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_{N}} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_{N}}{\mathrm{d}z_{N-1}} = \dot{f}(z_{N}) \dot{g}_{N}(z_{N-1})$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_{1}} = \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_{N}} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_{N}}{\mathrm{d}z_{N-1}} \dots \frac{\mathrm{d}z_{2}}{\mathrm{d}z_{1}} = \dot{f}(z_{N}) \dot{g}_{N}(z_{N-1}) \dots \dot{g}_{2}(z_{2})$$

The derivative of y with respect to any variable on this graph is determined by a backward pass from y towards the variable



Let's start from the last node

$$\begin{split} \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_N} &= \dot{f}\left(z_N\right) \\ \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_{N-1}} &= \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_N} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_N}{\mathrm{d}z_{N-1}} = \dot{f}\left(z_N\right) \dot{g}_N\left(z_{N-1}\right) \\ \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_1} &= \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_N} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_N}{\mathrm{d}z_{N-1}} \dots \frac{\mathrm{d}z_2}{\mathrm{d}z_1} = \dot{f}\left(z_N\right) \dot{g}_N\left(z_{N-1}\right) \dots \dot{g}_2\left(z_2\right) \\ \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} &= \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_N} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_N}{\mathrm{d}z_{N-1}} \dots \frac{\mathrm{d}z_2}{\mathrm{d}z_1} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_1}{\mathrm{d}x} = \dot{f}\left(z_N\right) \dot{g}_N\left(z_{N-1}\right) \dots \dot{g}_2\left(z_2\right) \dot{g}_1\left(x\right) \end{split}$$

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Example: y is a nested function of x through the following chain of functions:

$$z_1 = 2x$$
 $z_2 = z_1^2$ $z_3 = e^{z_2}$ $y = \log z_3$

Determine the derivative of y with respect to x at x = 0.5.



Example: y is a nested function of x through the following chain of functions:

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Determine the derivative of y with respect to x at x = 0.5.

Let's first plot the computation graph

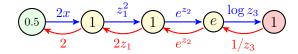
During the forward pass we get

$$z_1 = 2 \times 0.5 = 1 \rightarrow z_2 = 1^2 = 1 \rightarrow z_3 = e^1 = e \rightarrow y = \log e = 1$$

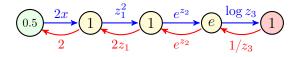
$$0.5 \xrightarrow{2x} 1 \xrightarrow{z_1^2} 1 \xrightarrow{e^{z_2}} e \xrightarrow{\log z_3} 1$$

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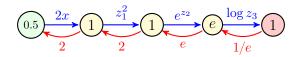
Now, we pass backward to determine the derivative



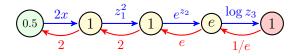
Now, we pass backward to determine the derivative



Let's first enter the values into the backward links



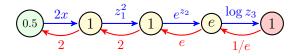
We now navigate backward to each variable that we want to determine the derivative y with respect to it



The derivatives are easily determined recursively

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_3} = \frac{1}{e}$$



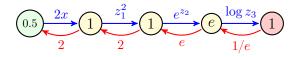


The derivatives are easily determined recursively

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_3} = \frac{1}{e}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_2} = \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_3} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_3}{\mathrm{d}z_2} = \frac{e}{e} = 1$$

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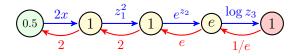


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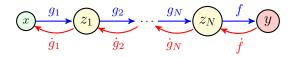
$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_1} = \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_2} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_2}{\mathrm{d}z_1} = 1 \times 2 = 2$$



The derivatives are easily determined recursively

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_3} &= \frac{1}{e} \\ \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_2} &= \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_3} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_3}{\mathrm{d}z_2} = \frac{e}{e} = 1 \\ \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_1} &= \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_2} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_2}{\mathrm{d}z_1} = 1 \times 2 = 2 \\ \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} &= \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z_1} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_1}{\mathrm{d}x} = 2 \times 2 = 4 \end{aligned}$$

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In the example, we had to first determine the value of each variable, in order to be able to determine the values of the backward links.

This is an important fact that we should remember

Backward pass is only possible if we have already taken the forward pass



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The nested function can be a multivariate: assume for n = 1, ..., N

$$z_n = g_n(x)$$

and let the nested function be

$$y=f(z_1,\ldots,z_N)$$

Let's follow the same logic: starting from point x, we move with tiny step dx. This leads to

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}z_n}{\mathrm{d}z_n} = \dot{g}_n(x)\frac{\mathrm{d}x}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

These variations lead to variation dy in the nested function

$$dy = \nabla f(\mathbf{z})^{\mathsf{T}} d\mathbf{z} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z_{n}} dz_{n} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \dot{f}_{n}(\mathbf{z}) dz_{n}$$

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We can hence write

$$dy = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \dot{f}_n(\mathbf{z}) \, dz_n = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \dot{f}_n(\mathbf{z}) \, \dot{g}_n(x) dx$$

This concludes the vector form of the chain rule



We can hence write

$$dy = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \dot{f}_n(\mathbf{z}) \, d\mathbf{z}_n = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \dot{f}_n(\mathbf{z}) \, \dot{g}_n(x) dx$$

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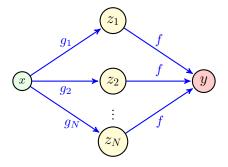
Chain Rule: Vector Form

Let $\mathbf{z} = [z_1, \dots, z_N]^T$ and $z_n = g_n(x)$. The derivative of nested function $y = f(\mathbf{z})$ with respect to x is given by

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z_n} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_n}{\mathrm{d}x} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \dot{f}_n(\mathbf{z}) \dot{g}_n(x)$$



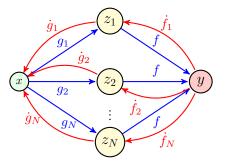
We can again represent the vector form via its computation graph



In this graph, we start from x and pass forward to $\mathbf{z} = [z_1, z_2, \dots, z_N]$. We then pass forward \mathbf{z} to y. In each pass, we determine next variable via the function on the link.

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The derivative with respect to any node is then given by backward pass towards the node on the computation graph



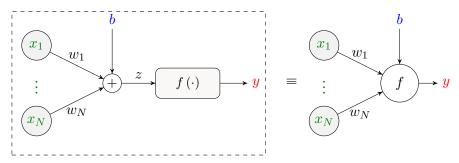
We add all backward passes towards x to determine the derivative

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z_n} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_n}{\mathrm{d}x} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \dot{f}_n(\mathbf{z}) \dot{g}_n(x)$$

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Computation Graph: Single Neuron

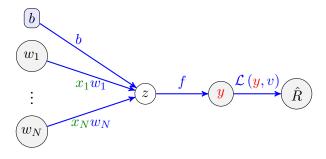
Let's now plot the *computation graph* of a single neuron and determine the gradient of the loss by *backward pass*



After passing the data-point x through the neuron, we get y and we calculate the loss for the *true label* v as $\mathcal{L}(y, v)$

Computation Graph: Single Neuron

The computation graph is hence given by

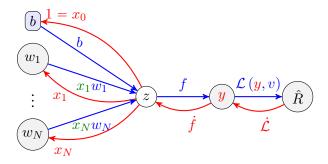


Here, the computation nodes are the weights and bias of the neuron once we fix them, we can pass forward and get to the loss \hat{R}

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Computation Graph: Single Neuron

Once passed forward, we can move backward to determine the derivatives



For a particular weight w_n , we can write (we drop arguments whenever clear)

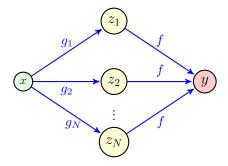
$$\frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial w_n} = \frac{\mathrm{d}\hat{R}}{\mathrm{d}y} \frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_n} = \dot{\mathcal{L}}\dot{f}x_n$$

We can extend it to a deeper and wider network

ve can externalit to a deeper and wider network

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Let's get back to the following computation graph



We define vector-valued functions, and show the graph compactly: let's define

$$\mathbf{g}\left(x\right) = \begin{bmatrix} g_{1}\left(x\right) \\ \vdots \\ g_{N}\left(x\right) \end{bmatrix}$$



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Function $\mathbf{g}\left(\cdot\right)$ gets x as the input and returns all z_{n} 's in a vector \mathbf{z} , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{g}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} g_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ g_N(x) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_N \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{z}$$

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$$\mathbf{g}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} g_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ g_N(x) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_N \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{z}$$

We now use this vectorized notation to simplify the computation graph as



The forward pass on this graph is exactly the same: we give x to the vectorized function $\mathbf{g}\left(\cdot\right)$ to get \mathbf{z} which is then passed forward to $f\left(\cdot\right)$ to get y

How does the backward pass look like then?

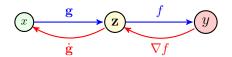


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We could define the derivative $\dot{\mathbf{g}}\left(\cdot\right)$ as the vector of derivatives $\dot{g}\left(\cdot\right)$

$$\dot{\mathbf{g}}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{g}_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ \dot{g}_N(x) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_1}{\mathrm{d}x} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\mathrm{d}z_N}{\mathrm{d}x} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{z}}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

Let's show this vectorized derivative and gradient of f on the backward links

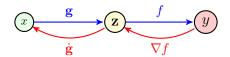


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We could define the derivative $\dot{\mathbf{g}}(\cdot)$ as the vector of derivatives $\dot{q}(\cdot)$

$$\dot{\mathbf{g}}(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \dot{g}_1(x) \\ \vdots \\ \dot{g}_N(x) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_1}{\mathrm{d}x} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\mathrm{d}z_N}{\mathrm{d}x} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{\mathrm{d}\mathbf{z}}{\mathrm{d}x}$$

Let's show this vectorized derivative and gradient of f on the backward links



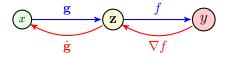
Well, we can pass backward as follows

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z_n} \frac{\mathrm{d}z_n}{\mathrm{d}x} = \nabla f(\mathbf{z})^{\mathsf{T}} \dot{\mathbf{g}}(x)$$



- + What can we conclude then?
- We can sketch the computation graph very compactly using vectorized derivatives and gradients
- + Does it mean that we should then pass backward exactly the same as in a computation graph with scalar variables and derivatives?
- Pretty much Yes! Only one delicate detail: we should know how to multiply those gradients and vectorized derivatives!

- + What can we conclude then?
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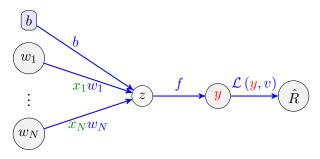
In our example, we determined the inner product

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}x} = \nabla f^{\mathsf{T}} \dot{\mathbf{g}}$$



- + How do we know which type of product we should use?
- Well! If you were in doubt, we could always do it by expanding in terms of entries; however, we are going to practice all key functions that appear in NN computation graphs!

Before we start with all key functions, let's get back to a single neuron



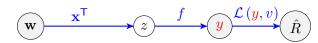
Let's define, as we did earlier, the following vectors

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 = 1 \\ x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} w_0 = b \\ w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_N \end{bmatrix}$$

Recall that output of the neuron is determined as y = f(z) for

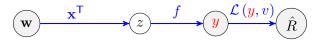
$$z = \mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w}$$

So, we can show the computation graph compactly as



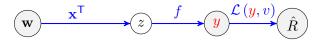
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Let's look at each link carefully: we pass backward, so we start with last link



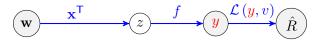
- \hat{R} is a scalar function of scalar y, i.e., $\hat{R}=\mathcal{L}\left(y,v\right)$
 - $\,\,\,\downarrow\,\,$ the backward link contains the scalar derivative $\dot{\mathcal{L}}$

Let's look at each link carefully: we pass backward, so we start with last link



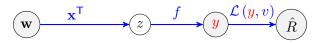
- \hat{R} is a scalar function of scalar y, i.e., $\hat{R} = \mathcal{L}(y, v)$ \rightarrow the backward link contains the scalar derivative $\dot{\mathcal{L}}$
- y is a scalar function of scalar z, i.e., $\mathbf{y}=f\left(z\right)$
 - $\,\,\,\,\downarrow\,\,$ the backward link contains the <code>scalar</code> derivative \dot{f}

Let's look at each link carefully: we pass backward, so we start with last link



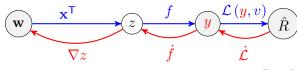
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- z is a scalar function of vector \mathbf{w} , i.e., $z = \mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w}$
 - \mathrel{ullet} the backward link contains the gradient abla z

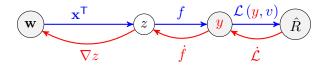
Let's look at each link carefully: we pass backward, so we start with last link



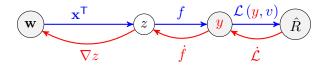
- \hat{R} is a scalar function of scalar y, i.e., $\hat{R} = \mathcal{L}(y,v)$ \downarrow the backward link contains the scalar derivative $\dot{\mathcal{L}}$
- y is a scalar function of scalar z, i.e., y = f(z) \downarrow the backward link contains the scalar derivative \dot{f}
- z is a scalar function of vector \mathbf{w} , i.e., $z = \mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{w}$ \Rightarrow the backward link contains the gradient ∇z

So, the graph with the backward links looks like





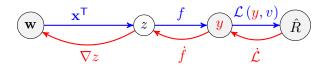
We are almost complete; only we need to calculate ∇z



We are almost complete; only we need to calculate ∇z

$$z = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \ldots + w_N x_N \leadsto \nabla z = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_0} \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_1} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_1} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 = x_0 \\ x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{x}$$

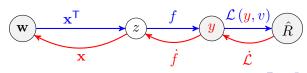
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We are almost complete; only we need to calculate ∇z

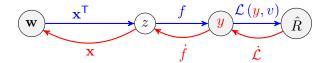
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So, we are complete! Here is the vectorized computation graph of the neuron

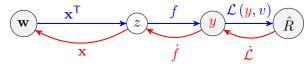


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Now, how do we pass backward on this graph?



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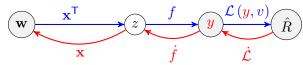
We arrived at y at the end of forward pass: at this point, we can determine

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\hat{R}}{\mathrm{d}y} = \dot{\mathcal{L}}(y, v) = \dot{\mathcal{L}}$$

and we are at the computing node y. We then pass backward $\dot{\mathcal{L}}$.



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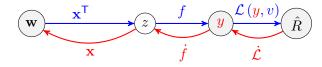
and we are at the computing node y. We then pass backward $\dot{\mathcal{L}}$. At node z, we can compute $\dot{f}(z)$, and use what we received from y to compute

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\hat{R}}{\mathrm{d}z} = \frac{\mathrm{d}L}{\mathrm{d}y}\frac{\mathrm{d}y}{\mathrm{d}z} = \dot{f}\dot{\mathcal{L}}$$

and pass it backward



Now, how do we pass backward on this graph?



Arriving at ${\bf w}$, we can determine $\nabla z = {\bf x}$ and use what we received from z to compute what we want

$$\nabla \hat{R}$$
 w.r.t. $\mathbf{w} \equiv \nabla_{\mathbf{w}} \hat{R} = \frac{\mathrm{d}\hat{R}}{\mathrm{d}z} \nabla z = \dot{f} \dot{\mathcal{L}} \mathbf{x}$

- + Well! That seems easier!
- Right! Let's now try some important cases

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Let's consider a general problem: an objective scalar \hat{R} is a function of K-dimensional vector $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^K$. Clearly in this case, we have a gradient

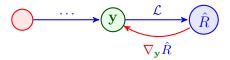
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial \hat{R}/\partial y_1 \\ \vdots \\ \partial \hat{R}/\partial y_K \end{bmatrix}$$

Applied Deep Learning

Let's consider a general problem: an objective scalar \hat{R} is a function of K-dimensional vector $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^K$. Clearly in this case, we have a gradient

$$abla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R} = egin{bmatrix} \partial \hat{R}/\partial y_1 \ dots \ \partial \hat{R}/\partial y_K \end{bmatrix}$$

Assume that we know this gradient. The vector \mathbf{y} is also function of another variable. We want to compute gradient of \hat{R} with respect to this other variable



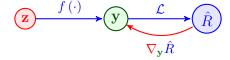
We now consider different cases for the other variable and its link to y

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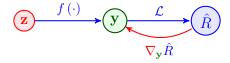
Entry-wise Functional Operation

 $\mathbf{y}\in\mathbb{R}^{K}$ is a function of $\mathbf{z}\in\mathbb{R}^{K}$ as $\mathbf{y}=f\left(\mathbf{z}\right)$ with $f\left(\cdot\right)$ operating entry-wise



Entry-wise Functional Operation

 $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$ is a function of $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$ as $\mathbf{y} = f\left(\mathbf{z}\right)$ with $f\left(\cdot\right)$ operating entry-wise



For this case, we note that y_k is only a function of z_k ; thus we have

$$\frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial z_{k}} = \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_{k}} \frac{\partial y_{k}}{\partial z_{k}} = \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_{k}} \dot{f}(z_{k})$$

So, we can use entry-wise product \odot to get from $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R}$ to $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}}\hat{R}$

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{z}}\hat{R} = \nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R} \odot \dot{f}\left(\mathbf{z}\right)$$



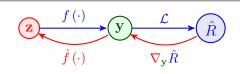
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Reminder: Entry-wise product of two vectors of the same size is

$$\mathbf{z}\odot\mathbf{y}\begin{bmatrix}z_1\\\vdots\\z_K\end{bmatrix}\odot\begin{bmatrix}y_1\\\vdots\\y_K\end{bmatrix}=\begin{bmatrix}y_1z_1\\\vdots\\y_Kz_K\end{bmatrix}$$

So, we can compactly perform this local operation as follows



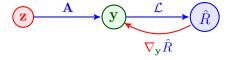
with the backward step

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{z}}\hat{R} = \nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R} \odot \dot{f}(\mathbf{z})$$

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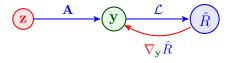
Linear Vector-to-Vector Operation

 $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^K$ is a function of $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ as $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{z}$ with $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}$



Linear Vector-to-Vector Operation

 $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^K$ is a function of $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ as $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A}\mathbf{z}$ with $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}$



Here, y_k is a linear function of z_1, \ldots, z_N

$$y_k = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \mathbf{A} [k, n] \mathbf{z_n}$$

where A[k, n] is entry of A at row k and column n. We thus can write

$$\frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial \mathbf{z_n}} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_k} \frac{\partial y_k}{\partial \mathbf{z_n}} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_k} \mathbf{A} \left[k, n \right]$$

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Let's denote column n of $\mathbf A$ by notation $\mathbf A$ [:,n]; so, we can write

$$\frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial z_{n}} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_{k}} \mathbf{A} [k, n] = \nabla_{\mathbf{y}} \hat{R}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} [:, n] = \mathbf{A} [:, n]^{\mathsf{T}} \nabla_{\mathbf{y}} \hat{R}$$



Applied Deep Learning

Let's denote column n of \mathbf{A} by notation $\mathbf{A}[:,n]$; so, we can write

$$\frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial z_{n}} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_{k}} \mathbf{A} [k, n] = \nabla_{\mathbf{y}} \hat{R}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{A} [:, n] = \mathbf{A} [:, n]^{\mathsf{T}} \nabla_{\mathbf{y}} \hat{R}$$

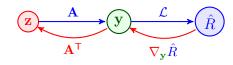
Now, if we collect them in a vector form we get

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{z}}\hat{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial \hat{R}/\partial z_1 \\ \vdots \\ \partial \hat{R}/\partial z_N \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{A} \begin{bmatrix} :, 1 \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{A} \begin{bmatrix} :, N \end{bmatrix}^\mathsf{T} \end{bmatrix} \nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R} = \mathbf{A}^\mathsf{T} \nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R}$$

This makes sense! Since we are changing dimensions fro K to N, we need a product that does such dimensionality change for us

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Long story short . . .



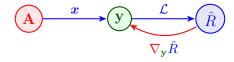
with backward step

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{z}}\hat{R} = \mathbf{A}^\mathsf{T}\nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R}$$



Linear Matrix-to-Vector Operation

 $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^K$ is a function of $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}$ as $\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{A} x$ with $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$



- + Wait a moment! The other variable is a matrix! How do we define $\nabla_{\mathbf{A}} \hat{R}$?
- Right! Let's first extend the definition

Assume scalar \hat{R} is a function of matrix $\mathbf{A} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times N}$, we define

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{A}}\hat{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial \hat{R}/\partial \mathbf{A} [1,1] & \dots & \partial \hat{R}/\partial \mathbf{A} [1,N] \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \partial \hat{R}/\partial \mathbf{A} [K,1] & \dots & \partial \hat{R}/\partial \mathbf{A} [K,N] \end{bmatrix}$$

with $\mathbf{A}[k,n]$ being the entry of \mathbf{A} at row k and column n

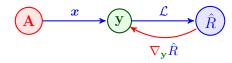
It is worth to also think of gradient descent in this case: assume we are minimizing \hat{R} over \mathbf{A} using gradient descent with learning rate η . At iteration t we got point $\mathbf{A}^{(t)}$; now, in the next iteration we can readily write

$$\mathbf{A}^{(t+1)} = \mathbf{A}^{(t)} - \nabla_{\mathbf{A}} \hat{R}|_{\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A}^{(t)}}$$

so apparently everything is as before!



Back to our problem, we can write



Entry k of y is a linear function of the k-th row of A, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{y_k} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n \mathbf{A} \left[k, n \right]$$

So, we can write

$$\frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial \mathbf{A}[j,n]} = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_k} \frac{\partial y_k}{\partial \mathbf{A}[j,n]} = \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_k} x_n$$

Let's now put them in a matrix

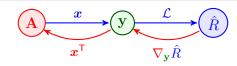
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{A}} \hat{R} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_1} x_1 & \dots & \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_1} x_N \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_K} x_1 & \dots & \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_K} x_N \end{bmatrix} = \nabla_{\mathbf{y}} \hat{R} \boldsymbol{x}^{\mathsf{T}}$$

So, we should now apply outer product!

This again makes sense! We have a K-dimensional gradient $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R}$ and an N-dimensional vector \mathbf{x} , we need an outer product to convert it into the $K \times N$ matrix $\nabla_{\mathbf{A}}\hat{R}$



So, we could conclude



with the backward step

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{A}}\hat{R} = \nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R}x^{\mathsf{T}}$$

Now, we are ready to "backpropagate" over an FNN



Let's recall the compact diagram of an FNN with ${\cal L}$ hidden layers

$$x \xrightarrow{W_1} f_1 \xrightarrow{W_2} \cdots \xrightarrow{W_L} f_L \xrightarrow{W_{L+1}} f_{L+1} \longrightarrow y_{L+1}$$

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Let's recall the compact diagram of an FNN with ${\cal L}$ hidden layers

We can easily expand it into a computation graph

$$(\mathbf{x}) \xrightarrow{\mathbf{W}_{1}} (\mathbf{z}_{1}) \xrightarrow{f_{1}(\cdot)} (\mathbf{y}_{1}) \rightarrow \cdots \rightarrow (\mathbf{z}_{L}) \xrightarrow{f_{L}(\cdot)} (\mathbf{y}_{L}) \xrightarrow{\mathbf{W}_{L+1}} (\mathbf{z}_{L+1}) \xrightarrow{f_{L+1}(\cdot)} (\mathbf{y}_{L+1}) \xrightarrow{f_{L+$$

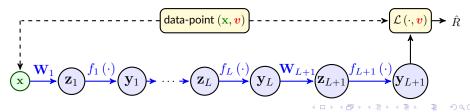
Let's recall the compact diagram of an FNN with ${\cal L}$ hidden layers

$$(x)$$
 W_1 W_2 W_L f_L W_{L+1} f_{L+1} f_{L+1} f_{L+1}

We can easily expand it into a computation graph

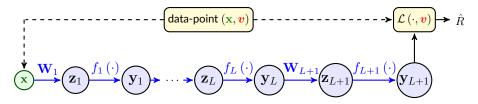
$$\underbrace{\mathbf{w}_{1}}_{1}\underbrace{\left(\mathbf{z}_{1}\right)}_{f_{1}}\underbrace{\left(\cdot\right)}_{f_{2}}\underbrace{\left(\mathbf{y}_{1}\right)}_{f_{2}}\cdots\underbrace{\left(\mathbf{z}_{L}\right)}_{f_{L}}\underbrace{\left(\cdot\right)}_{f_{L}}\underbrace{\left(\mathbf{y}_{L}\right)}_{f$$

Our objective is the empirical risk; so let's include it also in the graph



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Given data-point x and its true label v, we once complete a forward pass

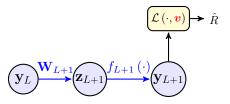


At the end of forward pass,

we know the value of all variables, i.e., \mathbf{z}_ℓ and \mathbf{y}_ℓ for all ℓ

Now, let's assume we want to find $\nabla_{\mathbf{W}_{L+1}} \hat{R}$

We now cut the graph at the link \mathbf{W}_{L+1}



Let's recall . . .

- + what is the variable here?
- It's \mathbf{W}_{L+1}
- + Can we modify the graph such that it becomes a node?
- Sure! We note that $\mathbf{z}_{L+1} = \mathbf{W}_{L+1}\mathbf{y}_L$. We can look at it as a linear *matrix-to-vector* operation; so, we could modify the graph as



Let's now move backward to \mathbf{W}_{L+1}

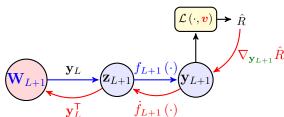
- **1** We have \mathbf{y}_{L+1} , so we compute $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}_{L+1}} \hat{R}$, and pass it to \mathbf{z}_{L+1}
- 2 We have \mathbf{z}_{L+1} , so we compute $\dot{f}_{L+1}(\mathbf{z}_{L+1})$, and then we get

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{z}_{L+1}} \hat{R} = \nabla_{\mathbf{y}_{L+1}} \hat{R} \odot \dot{f}_{L+1}$$

We now pass $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}_{L+1}} \hat{R}$ to \mathbf{W}_{L+1}

3 We have \mathbf{y}_L , so we compute $\nabla_{\mathbf{W}_{L+1}}\hat{R}$ from the last pass as

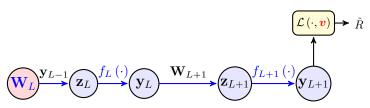
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{W}_{L+1}} \hat{R} = \nabla_{\mathbf{z}_{L+1}} \hat{R} \; \mathbf{y}_L^\mathsf{T}$$



We can propagate backward deeper and deeper

- We cut at the link that we want to compute the gradient with respect to
- We exchange the liner vector-to-vector function at that particular link to a linear matrix-to-vector function
- We move backwards till we get to the source of this graph

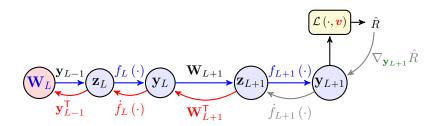
Let's see the example for \mathbf{W}_L



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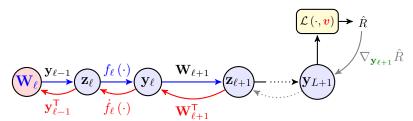
We already have passed backward messages till \mathbf{z}_{L+1}

- 1 We now pass $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}_{L+1}} \hat{R}$ to \mathbf{y}_L : $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}_L} \hat{R} = \mathbf{W}_{L+1}^\mathsf{T} \nabla_{\mathbf{z}_{L+1}} \hat{R}$
- 2 We then pass $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}_L} \hat{R}$ to \mathbf{z}_L : $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}_L} \hat{R} = \nabla_{\mathbf{y}_L} \hat{R} \odot \dot{f}_L$
- 3 We finally pass $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}_L} \hat{R}$ to \mathbf{W}_L : $\nabla_{\mathbf{W}_L} \hat{R} = \nabla_{\mathbf{z}_L} \hat{R} \ \mathbf{y}_{L-1}^\mathsf{T}$



As we arrive backward at layer ℓ , we already have messages till $\mathbf{z}_{\ell+1}$

- 1 We pass $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}_{\ell+1}} \hat{R}$ to \mathbf{y}_{ℓ} : $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}_{\ell}} \hat{R} = \mathbf{W}_{\ell+1}^{\mathsf{T}} \nabla_{\mathbf{z}_{\ell+1}} \hat{R}$
- 2 We then pass $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}_{\ell}}\hat{R}$ to \mathbf{z}_{ℓ} : $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}_{\ell}}\hat{R} = \nabla_{\mathbf{y}_{\ell}}\hat{R}\odot\dot{f}_{\ell}$
- 3 We finally pass $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}_\ell} \hat{R}$ to \mathbf{W}_ℓ : $\nabla_{\mathbf{W}_\ell} \hat{R} = \nabla_{\mathbf{z}_\ell} \hat{R} \mathbf{y}_{\ell-1}^\mathsf{T}$



Once we propagate back to the input, i.e., $\ell = 1$, then we have all gradients!

Backpropagation: Few Notations

To formally present backpropagation, let us define a few notations

For $\ell=1,\ldots,L+1$, we define

$$\dot{\mathbf{y}}_{\ell} = \nabla_{\mathbf{y}_{\ell}} \hat{R}
\dot{\mathbf{z}}_{\ell} = \nabla_{\mathbf{z}_{\ell}} \hat{R}$$

and keep in mind that

- \mathbf{y}_{ℓ} and \mathbf{y}_{ℓ} are totally different things
- \mathbf{z}_{ℓ} and \mathbf{z}_{ℓ} are totally different things



Backpropagation: Pseudo Code

```
1: Initiate with \mathbf{y}_{L+1} = \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_{L+1}, v) and \mathbf{z}_{L+1} = \mathbf{y}_{L+1} \odot \dot{f}_{L+1}(\mathbf{z}_{L+1})
2: \mathbf{for} \ \ell = L, \dots, 1 \ \mathbf{do}
3: Determine \mathbf{y}_{\ell} = \mathbf{W}_{\ell+1}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{z}_{\ell+1}  and \mathsf{drop} \ \mathbf{y}_{\ell} [0] # backward affine
4: Determine \mathbf{z}_{\ell} = \dot{f}_{\ell}(\mathbf{z}_{\ell}) \odot \mathbf{y}_{\ell} # backward activation
5: \mathsf{end} \ \mathsf{for}
6: \mathsf{for} \ \ell = 1, \dots, L+1 \ \mathsf{do}
7: Return \nabla_{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}} \hat{R} = \mathbf{z}_{\ell} \mathbf{y}_{\ell-1}^{\mathsf{T}}
8: \mathsf{end} \ \mathsf{for}
```

- + This looks very similar to forward propagation! Right?!
- Yeah! Just we go backward! That's the whole point of backpropagation

You need to go once forth and then back to determine all gradients

Let's put them next to each other

Backpropagation: Pseudo Code

```
ForwardProp(): 

1: Initiate with \mathbf{y}_0 = \mathbf{x}

2: \mathbf{for} \ \ell = 0, \dots, L \ \mathbf{do}

3: Add \mathbf{y}_{\ell}[0] = 1 and determine \mathbf{z}_{\ell+1} = \mathbf{W}_{\ell+1} \mathbf{y}_{\ell} # forward affine 4: Determine \mathbf{y}_{\ell+1} = f_{\ell+1}(\mathbf{z}_{\ell+1}) # forward activation 5: end for 6: \mathbf{for} \ \ell = 1, \dots, L+1 \ \mathbf{do} 7: Return \mathbf{y}_{\ell} and \mathbf{z}_{\ell} 8: end for
```

```
BackProp():

1: Initiate with \mathbf{y}_{L+1} = \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}_{L+1}, v) and \mathbf{z}_{L+1} = \mathbf{y}_{L+1} \odot \dot{f}_{L+1}(\mathbf{z}_{L+1})

2: \mathbf{for} \ \ell = L, \ldots, 1 \ \mathbf{do}

3: Determine \mathbf{y}_{\ell} = \mathbf{W}_{\ell+1}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{z}_{\ell+1} and \mathbf{drop} \mathbf{y}_{\ell} [0] # backward affine

4: Determine \mathbf{z}_{\ell} = \dot{f}_{\ell}(\mathbf{z}_{\ell}) \odot \mathbf{y}_{\ell} # backward activation

5: end for

6: \mathbf{for} \ \ell = 1, \ldots, L+1 \ \mathbf{do}

7: Return \nabla_{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}} \hat{R} = \mathbf{z}_{\ell} \mathbf{y}_{\ell-1}^{\mathsf{T}}

8: end for
```

Complete Training Loop via Gradient Descent

- + Say we use backpropagation; then, how does gradient descent look?
- Well! We should go back and forth foo all data-points

Say we have dataset

$$\mathbb{D} = \{(\boldsymbol{x}_b, \boldsymbol{v_b}) \text{ for } b = 1, \dots, B\}$$

```
GradientDescent():
 1: Initiate with some initial values \{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(0)}\} and set a learning rate \eta
 2: while weights not converged do
          for b = 1, \ldots, B do
               NN. values \leftarrow ForwardProp (x_b, \{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)}\})
 4:
                                                                                                                      # forward
               \{\nabla_{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}(t)} \hat{R}_b\} \leftarrow \texttt{BackProp}(x_b, \mathbf{v}_b, \{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)}\}, \texttt{NN.values})
 5:
                                                                                                                   # backward
 6:
          end for
 7:
          for \ell = 1, \ldots, L+1 do
               \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)} - \eta \ \operatorname{mean}(\nabla_{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)}} \hat{R}_1, \dots, \nabla_{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)}} \hat{R}_B)
 8:
 9:
          end for
10: end while
```

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Binary Classification via FNN

Let's now design a deep FNN for binary classification

We have a set of images of hand-written numbers, something like this^a

We intend to train a fully-connected FNN that given a new hand-written image, it finds out whether it is "2" or not

This is a binary classification!

^aSource: Wikipedia

Binary Classification via FNN: Data

Let's get clear about the data: our dataset looks like

$$\mathbb{D} = \{ (\boldsymbol{x}_b, \boldsymbol{v_b}) \text{ for } b = 1, \dots, B \}$$

where in this set each component is defined as follows:

- B is the number of images we have
- ullet $oldsymbol{x}_b \in \mathbb{R}^N$ is the pixel vector of image b
- $v_b \in \{0,1\}$ is a binary label indicating whether it is "2" or not
 - \rightarrow if the image is a hand-written "2" we set $v_b = 1$
 - \rightarrow if the image is **not** a hand-written "2" we set $v_b = 0$

Let's now set the model: we use a fully-connected FNN

What are the hyperparameters?

- We want it to be deep; so, we consider 2 hidden layers
 - \downarrow the depth is hence 3
- We specify the width of each hidden layer
 - \downarrow first hidden layer has width K
 - \rightarrow second hidden layer has width J
- All hidden neurons use ReLU activation

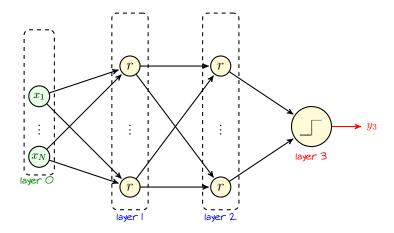
$$\downarrow$$
 $f_1(\cdot) = f_2(\cdot) = \text{ReLU}(\cdot)$: let's show ReLU by r , i.e.,

$$r(x) = \text{ReLU}(x)$$

Output layer has a single perceptron

We can now write down the model!





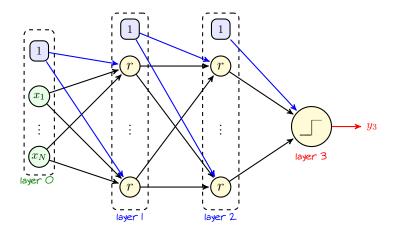


Let's now set the model: we use a fully-connected FNN

What are the learnable parameters?

- Layer 1 has (N+1)K links
 - $\rightarrow NK$ of them are weights
 - \downarrow K of them are biases \equiv weights of dummy node $x_0 = 1$
- Layer 2 has (K+1)J links

 - \downarrow J of them are biases \equiv weights of dummy node $y_1 [0] = 1$
- Output layer has J+1 links
 - \downarrow J of them are weights
 - \rightarrow one is bias \equiv weight of dummy node $y_2[0] = 1$





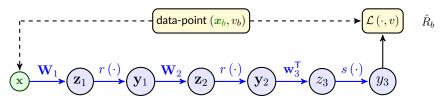
How to calculate the loss? Let's do what we did before

We use the error indicator as the loss function

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y_b}, v_b) = \mathbb{1}\left\{\mathbf{y_b} \neq v_b\right\} = \begin{cases} 1 & \mathbf{y_b} \neq v_b \\ 0 & \mathbf{y_b} = v_b \end{cases}$$

- + Wait a moment! Didn't you say that this was a bad choice?
- Yeah! So said I also for the perceptron's activation! Let's try it out to find out really why they are bad! We should be able to understand it now

Let's look at the computation graph: for a given data-point (x_b, v_b) , we have

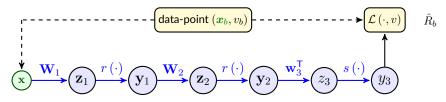


Here, we have 3 linear operations

- First operation is $\mathbf{z}_1 = \mathbf{W}_1 \mathbf{x}$ with $\mathbf{W}_1 \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times (N+1)}$
 - \downarrow first column of \mathbf{W}_1 is bias and the remaining columns are weights
- Second operation is $\mathbf{z}_2 = \mathbf{W}_2 \mathbf{y}_1$ with $\mathbf{W}_2 \in \mathbb{R}^{J \times (K+1)}$
 - \downarrow first column of \mathbf{W}_2 is bias and the remaining columns are weights
- Last operation is $z_3 = \mathbf{w}_3^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}$ with $\mathbf{w}_3 \in \mathbb{R}^{J+1}$

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Let's look at the computation graph: for a given data-point (x_b, v_b) , we have



We have 3 functional operations

- The first two are $\mathbf{y}_1 = r(\mathbf{z}_1)$ and $\mathbf{y}_2 = r(\mathbf{z}_2)$
- The last one is $y_3 = s(z_3)$, and recall that $s(\cdot)$ is the step function

$$y_3 = s(z_3) = \begin{cases} 1 & z_3 \ge 0 \\ 0 & z_3 < 0 \end{cases}$$



Let's write gradient descent for training of our model

```
GradientDescent():
 1: Initiate with some initial values \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(0)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(0)}, \mathbf{w}_3^{(0)}\} and set a learning rate \eta
 2: while weights not converged do
 3:
            for b = 1, \ldots, B do
                  NN.values \leftarrow ForwardProp (x_b, \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(t)}, \mathbf{w}_3^{(t)}\})
 4:
                  \{\mathbf{G}_{1,b}, \mathbf{G}_{2,b}, \mathbf{g}_{3,b}\} \leftarrow \mathtt{BackProp}\,(x_b, \mathbf{v_b}, \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(t)}\}, \mathtt{NN.values})
 5:
 6:
           end for
 7:
            Update
                                       \mathbf{W}_{1}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{1}^{(t)} - n \operatorname{mean}(\mathbf{G}_{1,1}, \dots, \mathbf{G}_{1,B})
                                       \mathbf{W}_{2}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{2}^{(t)} - \eta \operatorname{mean}(\mathbf{G}_{2,1}, \dots, \mathbf{G}_{2,B})
                                         \mathbf{w}_{3}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_{3}^{(t)} - \eta \operatorname{mean}(\mathbf{g}_{3,1}, \dots, \mathbf{g}_{3,B})
 8: end while
```

Let's look at forward and backward propagation!



Forward pass is very straightforward: say we are at iteration t

1 For each pixel vector x_b , we determine z_1 as

$$\mathbf{x} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_b \end{bmatrix} \leadsto \mathbf{z}_1 = \mathbf{W}_1^{(t)} \mathbf{x}$$

The output of first layer is then given by $\mathbf{y}_1 = r(\mathbf{z}_1)$: $r(\cdot)$ is ReLU, so

we keep positive entries of z_1 and replace negative ones with zero



Applied Deep Learning

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$$\mathbf{y}_1 \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \mathbf{y}_1 \end{bmatrix} \leadsto \mathbf{z}_2 = \mathbf{W}_2^{(t)} \mathbf{y}_1$$

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3 We add 1 at index 0 of y_2 and determine z_3 as

$$\mathbf{y}_2 \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \mathbf{y}_2 \end{bmatrix} \leadsto z_3 = \mathbf{w}_3^{(t)^\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y}_2$$

The network output is given by $y_3 = s(z_3)$: $s(\cdot)$ is step function, so

it's 0 if z_3 is negative, and 1 if it is not negative



Applied Deep Learning

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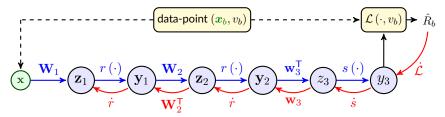
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At this point, we have all that we need, i.e.,

$$x, z_1, y_1, z_2, y_2, z_3$$
 and y_3



How does the graph look like on the backward pass?



Let's move backward!

We know all the derivatives, i.e.,

$$\dot{\mathcal{L}}(y, v_b) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}y} \mathbb{1} \{ y \neq v_b \} \qquad \dot{s}(z) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}z} s(z) \qquad \dot{r}(z) = \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}z} r(z)$$

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For backward pass we start at node y_3 :

1 We find derivative w.r.t. output $\dot{y}_3 = \dot{\mathcal{L}}(y_3, v_b)$ and set

$$z_3 = \overline{y}_3 \dot{s}(z_3)$$



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$$z_3 = \overline{y}_3 \dot{s}(z_3)$$

2 We compute $\mathbf{y}_2 = \mathbf{w}_3 \mathbf{z}_3$ and drop its first entry; then, compute

$$\mathbf{\dot{y}}_{2} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\dot{y}}{y_{2}} [\theta] \\ \mathbf{\dot{y}}_{2} [1:] \end{bmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \mathbf{\dot{z}}_{2} = \dot{r}(\mathbf{z}_{2}) \odot \mathbf{\dot{y}}_{2}$$



3 We compute $\mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{W}_2^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{z}_2$ and drop its first entry; then, compute

$$\overset{\leftarrow}{\mathbf{y}}_{1} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} \overset{\leftarrow}{y}_{1}[\theta] \\ \overset{\leftarrow}{\mathbf{y}}_{1}[1:] \end{bmatrix} \leadsto \overset{\leftarrow}{\mathbf{z}}_{1} = \dot{r}(\mathbf{z}_{1}) \odot \overset{\leftarrow}{\mathbf{y}}_{1}$$

Applied Deep Learning

Chapter 2: FNNs

3 We compute $\mathbf{y}_1 = \mathbf{W}_2^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{z}_2$ and drop its first entry; then, compute

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At this point, we can calculate all gradients

$$\mathbf{G}_{1,b} = \nabla_{\mathbf{W}_1} \hat{R}_b = \mathbf{z}_1 \mathbf{y}_0^\mathsf{T} = \mathbf{z}_1 \mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T}$$

$$\mathbf{G}_{2,b} = \nabla_{\mathbf{W}_2} \hat{R}_b = \mathbf{z}_2 \mathbf{y}_1^\mathsf{T}$$

$$\mathbf{g}_{3,b}^\mathsf{T} = \nabla_{\mathbf{w}_3^\mathsf{T}} \hat{R}_b = \mathbf{z}_3 \mathbf{y}_2^\mathsf{T}$$

All done! We repeat it for every image in the batch and then average gradients. Finally, we move one step in gradient descent and find the weights of the next iteration



Applied Deep Learning

- + Where is then the issue with perceptron and indicator error?
- $\dot{\mathcal{L}}\left(\mathbf{\emph{y}},v_{b}\right)$ and $\dot{s}\left(z\right)$ are not well-defined!
 - □ Recall that they are discontinuous

In fact, the empirical risk is not a smooth function of the weights and biases; therefore, using gradient descent we do not end up with a well-trained network

- + How can we get over it?
- Well! There is a very well-established trick!



We first replace the perceptron with a neuron whose activation is a good approximation of step function and differentiable¹

We already have seen the sigmoid function $\sigma\left(x\right) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$ which looks pretty close to step function x

Using sigmoid instead of step function resolves the differentiability issue

¹Or at least, we can easily calculate a sub-gradient for it ←□→←♂→←≧→←≧→ ≥ ◆○へ

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But, replacing perceptron by sigmoid-activated neuron makes a new problem

The output of the network is now not binary!

How can we address this problem?

We now interpret the output as probability, i.e.,

 y_3 is the probability of the label being 1



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- + OK! But how can we define the loss now?
- Well! We could look at the true label from the same point of view

Say $v \in \{0, 1\}$ is true label: if v = 1 then the true label is 1 with probability 1; if v = 0 then the true label is 1 with probability 0. So, we could say

the true label is 1 with probability $oldsymbol{v}$

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true label is 1 with probability $v \longleftrightarrow y_3$ is probability of the label being 1

Apparently, v and y_3 are of the same nature: we can still define a loss that evaluates the difference between y_3 and v

- + What should be the loss then?
- Definitely not the indicator error!



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Apparently, v and y_3 are of the same nature: we can still define a loss that evaluates the difference between y_3 and v

- + What should be the loss then?
- Definitely not the indicator error!

Indicator error is not suitable because

- 1 we already now that it is not differentiable
- 2 more importantly, with sigmoid activation becomes useless

$$\mathbb{1}\{\sigma(z_3) \neq 1\} = \mathbb{1}\{\sigma(z_3) \neq 0\} = 1$$



One may suggest that we use the squared error, i.e.,

$$\mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{y_3},v\right) = \left(\mathbf{y_3} - v\right)^2$$

in this case the empirical risk is called

Mean Squared Error (MSE)

This loss is differentiable

$$\dot{\mathcal{L}}\left(\mathbf{y_3},v\right) = 2\left(\mathbf{y_3} - v\right)$$

and proportional to the distance between y_3 and v

It's a good choice but not best



Binary Classification via FNN: Cross-Entropy

A better choice is to determine the cross-entropy loss

$$\mathcal{L}(y_3, v) = \text{CE}(y_3, v) = -v \log y_3 - (1 - v) \log (1 - y_3)$$

$$= \begin{cases} \log \frac{1}{y_3} & v = 1\\ \log \frac{1}{(1 - y_3)} & v = 0 \end{cases}$$

This loss function is sometimes wrongly called KL-divergence: it is proportional to the Kullback-Leibler divergence but it's different

This loss is again differentiable

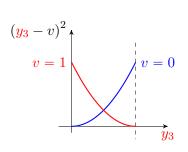
$$\dot{\mathcal{L}}(y_3, v) = \dot{\text{CE}}(y_3, v) = -\frac{v}{y_3} + \frac{1 - v}{1 - y_3}$$

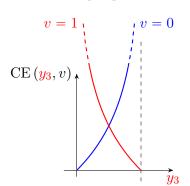
Note: The logarithm is usually in natural base, i.e., $\log x = \ln x$



Binary Classification via FNN: Cross-Entropy

- + But why cross-entropy is a better loss?
- It pushes y_3 more towards the edges of interval [0,1]





Cross entropy returns much higher loss when y_3 is different from v

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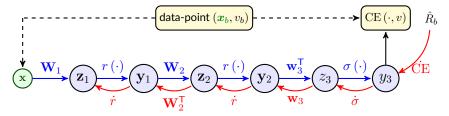
Binary Classification via FNN: Training with Cross-Entropy

- + What changes in the training loop in this case?
- Pretty much nothing! Just replace
 - $\mathcal{L}(y_3, v)$ with $CE(y_3, v)$
 - $\dot{\mathcal{L}}(y_3, v)$ with $\dot{\mathrm{CE}}(y_3, v)$
 - $s(z_3)$ with $\sigma(z_3)$
 - $\dot{s}(z_3)$ with $\dot{\sigma}(z_3)$



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 - $\dot{s}\left(z_{3}\right)$ with $\dot{\sigma}\left(z_{3}\right)$



Binary Classification via FNN: Training with Cross-Entropy

- + How do we use the output of network then, when we give a new image to it for classification? It's not binary!
- Just follow the interpretation

 y_3 gives the probability of the image being hand-written "2"; therefore, $(1-y_3)$ gives the probability of image being any other hand-written number. So, we select the outcome with higher chance, i.e.,

- if $y_3 \ge 0.5$, we label the new image as a hand-written "2"
- if $y_3 < 0.5$, we label the new image as not being a hand-written "2"
- + Can't we classify more classes? Like hand-written "0", "1", ..., "9"?
- Now that we have this nice interpretation: Yes! We can!



Multiclass Classification

We initially saw that any multiclass classification can be seen as *a sequence* of binary classifications; however, for that, we need multiple NNs!

- + Why not follow the same idea and determine the probability of input belonging to each class?
- Yes! That's actually the effective way!

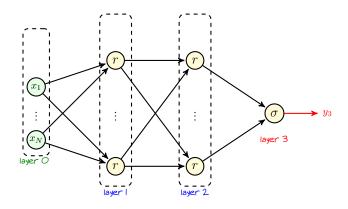
Let's get back to our image recognition, but now with multiple classes!

We have images of hand-written numbers from "0" to "9" and want to train a NN that recognizes any hand-written number

We first draw our earlier FNN



Multiclass Classification via FNN



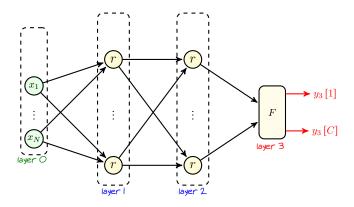
In this FNN, y_3 is interpreted as a probability of label being 1

probability of label being 0 is hence $1 - y_3$

This was done by a standard single-output neuron, since we had only 2 classes

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Multiclass Classification via FNN



With ${\cal C}$ classes, we need a module that computes probabilities of all ${\cal C}$ classes

this module can be seen as a neuron with vector output

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Multiclass Classification: Vector-Activated Neuron

Vector-Activated Neuron

A vector-activated neuron is an artificial neuron with multivariate activation function: let $x \in \mathbb{R}^N$ be the input to this neuron and C be its output dimension; then, the output vector $\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^C$ is given by

$$\mathbf{y} = F\left(\tilde{\mathbf{W}}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}\right)$$

for weight matrix $\tilde{\mathbf{W}} \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times N}$, bias $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^C$ and activation $F(\cdot) : \mathbb{R}^C \mapsto \mathbb{R}^C$

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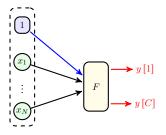
First thing first: let's get rid of the bias before we go on

$$\mathbf{y} = F(\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b} \ \tilde{\mathbf{W}} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \mathbf{x} \end{bmatrix}) = F(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x})$$

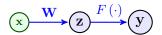
So, we keep on with our dummy 1 input here as well



Multiclass Classification: Vector-Activated Neuron



Next, let's see how its computation graph looks

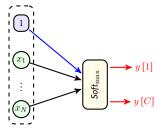


This looks exactly like a standard layer with a minor difference

 $F(\cdot)$ does not necessarily perform entry-wise

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A very well-known example of vector activation is softmax



Softmax Function

For $\mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^C$, softmax function returns $\mathsf{Soft}_{\max}\left(\mathbf{z}\right) = \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^C$ whose entry c is

$$y[c] = \frac{e^{z[c]}}{\sum_{j=1}^{C} e^{z[j]}}$$

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Softmax always returns a probability distribution on the set of classes

$$\sum_{c=1}^{C} y[c] =$$

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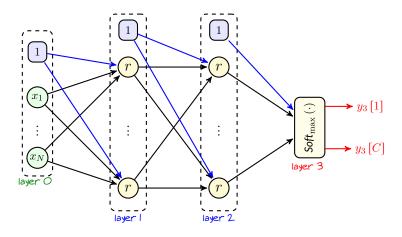
We can hence use it to extend our FNN to a multiclass classifier

We replace <u>layer 3</u> with a softmax-activated multivariate neuron and treat its outcome as the chance of input belonging to each class; then, we select the class with highest chance

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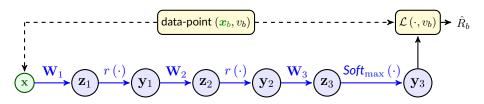
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Let's try again the forward pass



Let's look at the computation graph: for a given data-point (x_b, v_b) , we have

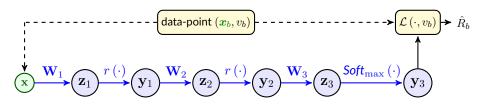


Note that the output layer has been changed

- We now have a vector $\mathbf{z}_3 \in \mathbb{R}^C$
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- We get from z_3 to y_3 via softmax

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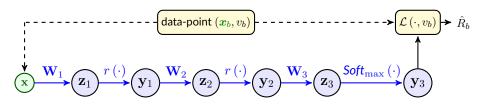
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The network output is given by $\mathbf{y}_3 = \mathsf{Soft}_{\max}(\mathbf{z}_3)$



- + How can we define the loss now? On one side we have a vector of probabilities; one the other side an integer label!
- Again we need to convert true labels to probabilities



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Let's say we have C classes: the vector of probabilities contains C entries

$$\mathbf{p} = \begin{bmatrix} p_1 \\ \vdots \\ p_C \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Pr\left\{\text{image belongs to class 1}\right\} \\ \vdots \\ \Pr\left\{\text{image belongs to class C}\right\} \end{bmatrix}$$

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If we know that the image b belongs to class v_b , we could say that

$$\mathbf{p} \text{ of image } b = \begin{bmatrix} p_1 \\ \vdots \\ p_{v_b} \\ \vdots \\ p_C \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \Pr\left\{ \text{image } b \text{ belongs to class } \mathbf{1} \right\} \\ \vdots \\ \Pr\left\{ \text{image } b \text{ belongs to class } \boldsymbol{v_b} \right\} \\ \vdots \\ \Pr\left\{ \text{image } b \text{ belongs to class } \boldsymbol{C} \right\} \\ \end{bmatrix}$$

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So, we could say that label v is corresponding to a vector of size C whose entry v is 1 and the remaining entries are all 0: this vector is called a one-hot vector



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One-hot Vector

The one-hot vector $\mathbf{1}_v \in \{0,1\}^C$ is a C-dimensional vector whose entry v is 1 and all remaining entries are 0

For instance: say C=3; then, we have

$$\mathbf{1}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{1}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{1}_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

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Moral of Story

We can interpret true label v as a probability vector $\mathbf{1}_v$



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Now for image b with label v_b we compare network's output \mathbf{y}_3 to $\mathbf{1}_{v_b}$

$$\hat{R}_b = \mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{y}_3, \mathbf{1}_{v_b}\right)$$

for loss $\mathcal{L}\left(\cdot\right)$ that determines distance between two probability vectors



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- + What kind of loss functions do we use usually?
- Like binary case: squared error is good, cross-entropy is the best
- + How do we define them in this case?
- Just extend them to multi-dimensional vectors



We can extend squared error to vector form as

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{1}_v) = \|\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{1}_v\|^2 = \sum_{c=1}^C (y [c] - \mathbb{1}\{c = v\})^2$$
$$= \sum_{c=1, c \neq v}^C y [c]^2 + (y [v] - 1)^2$$

This gradient of this loss is

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{1}_{v}) = 2 \begin{bmatrix} y \begin{bmatrix} 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ \vdots \\ y \begin{bmatrix} v \end{bmatrix} - 1 \\ \vdots \\ y \begin{bmatrix} C \end{bmatrix} \end{bmatrix} = 2 (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{1}_{v})$$

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Cross entropy can also be extended as follows

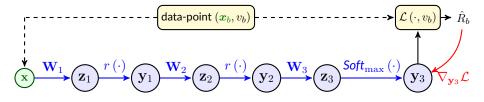
$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{1}_v) = \mathbf{CE}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{1}_v) = -\sum_{c=1}^{C} \mathbb{1}\{c = v\} \log y (c)$$
$$= -\log y [v]$$

The gradient of this loss is

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{1}_{v}\right) = \nabla \mathbf{CE}\left(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{1}_{v}\right) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ \vdots \\ -1/y \begin{bmatrix} v \end{bmatrix} \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = -\frac{1}{y \begin{bmatrix} v \end{bmatrix}} \mathbf{1}_{v}$$

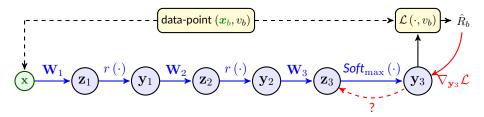
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How can we backpropagate through this neural network?



1 Compute $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}_3} \hat{R}_b = \nabla_{\mathbf{y}_3} \mathcal{L}\left(\mathbf{y}_3, \mathbf{1}_{v_b}\right)$

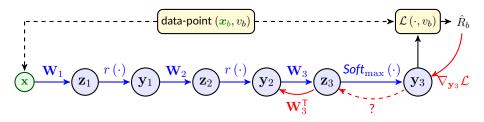
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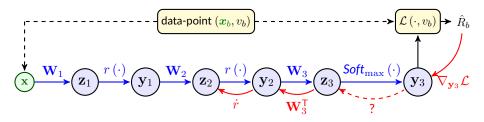
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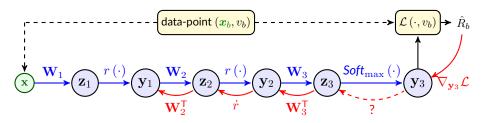
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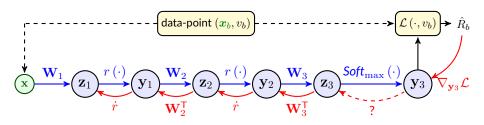
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How can we backpropagate through this neural network?

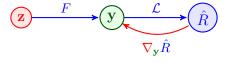


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- **6** Remove entry at index 0 of $\nabla_{\mathbf{y_1}} \hat{R}_b$ and compute $\nabla_{\mathbf{z_1}} \hat{R}_b = \dot{r}(\mathbf{z_1}) \odot \nabla_{\mathbf{y_1}} \hat{R}_b$

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How is $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}_3} \hat{R}_b$ related to $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}_3} \hat{R}_b$? Let's do what we did before

In this graph, $F\left(\cdot\right)$ is a **vector activation**. We know $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R}$



We want to find $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}}\hat{R}$

As mentioned before: we can always extend things entry-wise

With vector activation, we need to use the notion of Jacobian

Recap: Jacobian Matrix

Consider vector activation $F(\cdot)$ that maps C-dimensional \mapsto C-dimensional

$$\begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_C \end{bmatrix} = F(\begin{bmatrix} z_1 \\ \vdots \\ z_C \end{bmatrix})$$

When we use this function, we can say

Any entry y_i is function of all^a z_1, \ldots, z_C , so we have

$$abla_{\mathbf{z}} y_{j} = egin{bmatrix} \partial y_{j} / \partial z_{1} \ dots \ \partial y_{j} / \partial z_{C} \end{bmatrix}$$

^aIt is not any more an entry-wise functional operation

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When we use this function, we can say

We can collect all these gradients into a matrix

$$\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{z}}\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{z}}F = \begin{bmatrix} \nabla_{\mathbf{z}}y_1^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \vdots \\ \nabla_{\mathbf{z}}y_C^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \partial y_1/\partial z_1 & \dots & \partial y_1/\partial z_C \\ \vdots & & \vdots \\ \partial y_C/\partial z_1 & \dots & \partial y_C/\partial z_C \end{bmatrix}$$

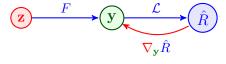
and we call it the Jacobian matrix

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Now, let's get back to our problem

In this graph, $F\left(\cdot\right)$ is a **vector activation**. We know $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}}\hat{R}$



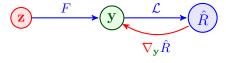
We want to find $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}}\hat{R}$: let's write down a partial derivative \hat{R} w.r.t. z_c

$$\frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial \mathbf{z_c}} = \sum_{j=1}^{C} \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_j} \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial \mathbf{z_c}} =$$

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$$\frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial z_c} = \sum_{j=1}^C \frac{\partial \hat{R}}{\partial y_j} \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial z_c} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial z_c} & \dots & \frac{\partial y_C}{\partial z_c} \end{bmatrix} \qquad \nabla_{\mathbf{y}} \hat{R}$$

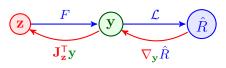
transpose of column c of $\mathbf{J_z}\mathbf{y} \equiv \mathsf{row} \ c$ of $\mathbf{J_z}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{y}$

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So, the gradient of \hat{R} w.r.t. \mathbf{z} is given by

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{z}} \hat{R} \begin{bmatrix} \partial \hat{R} / \partial z_1 \\ \vdots \\ \partial \hat{R} / \partial z_C \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \operatorname{row} 1 \text{ of } \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{z}}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y} \nabla_{\mathbf{y}} \hat{R} \\ \vdots \\ \operatorname{row} C \text{ of } \mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{z}}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y} \nabla_{\mathbf{y}} \hat{R} \end{bmatrix} = \left(\mathbf{J}_{\mathbf{z}}^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{y} \right) \nabla_{\mathbf{y}} \hat{R}$$

So, we can complete the computation graph as follows

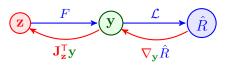


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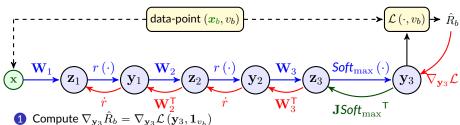


Backward Pass of Vector Activation

To pass backward on a vector activation, we use the transpose of its Jacobian

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How can we backpropagate through this neural network? Let's complete



- Compute $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}_3} \hat{R}_b = (\mathbf{JSoft}_{\max})^\mathsf{T} \nabla_{\mathbf{y}_3} \hat{R}_b$
- Compute $\nabla_{\mathbf{v}_2} \hat{R}_b = \mathbf{W}_3^\mathsf{T} \nabla_{\mathbf{z}_3} \hat{R}_b$
- Remove entry at index 0 of $\nabla_{\mathbf{y}_2} \hat{R}_b$ and compute $\nabla_{\mathbf{z}_2} \hat{R}_b = \dot{r}(\mathbf{z}_2) \odot \nabla_{\mathbf{y}_2} \hat{R}_b$
- Compute $\nabla_{\mathbf{v}_1} \hat{R}_b = \mathbf{W}_2^\mathsf{T} \nabla_{\mathbf{z}_2} \hat{R}_b$
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Multiclass Classification via FNN: Training

Let's now recall gradient descent for training of multiclass classifier

```
GradientDescent():
 1: Initiate with some initial values \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(0)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(0)}, \mathbf{W}_3^{(0)}\} and set a learning rate \eta
 2: while weights not converged do
 3:
            for b = 1, \ldots, B do
                 NN.values \leftarrow ForwardProp (x_b, \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_3^{(t)}\})
 4:
                  \{\mathbf{G}_{1,b}, \mathbf{G}_{2,b}, \mathbf{G}_{3,b}\} \leftarrow \text{BackProp}(x_b, v_b, \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_3^{(t)}\}, \text{NN.values})
 5:
 6:
            end for
 7:
            Update
                                      \mathbf{W}_{1}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{1}^{(t)} - n \operatorname{mean}(\mathbf{G}_{1,1}, \dots, \mathbf{G}_{1,B})
                                      \mathbf{W}_{2}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{2}^{(t)} - \eta \operatorname{mean}(\mathbf{G}_{2,1}, \dots, \mathbf{G}_{2,B})
                                      \mathbf{W}_{3}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{3}^{(t)} - \eta \operatorname{mean}(\mathbf{G}_{3,1}, \dots, \mathbf{G}_{3,B})
 8: end while
```

We call this form of gradient descent full-batch

Full-Batch Training

Batch \equiv the dataset reserved for training

In full-batch training, we calculate the gradient for all data-points in the batch: so, we need to wait till forward and backward pass are over for all B data-points

This can be a huge burdensome!

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This can be a huge burdensome!

- + Wait a moment! Don't we use all the dataset for training?
- No! As you may have noticed in the assignments, we reserve a part of it for testing
- + And, why should it be a burdensome?
- OK! Let's get more into datasets!



Public Datasets

Let's consider our example of image recognition: we want to recognize the hand-written number in an image. For this, we need to have access to images of hand-written numbers. This has been done before by people at National Institute of Standards and Technology and collected in a database called

Modified National Institute of Standards and Technology (MNIST)

that is available for public on internet

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There are several of such public databases; some well-known examples are

- CIFAR-10 and CIFAR-100 by Canadian Institute For Advanced Research
- ImageNet initiated by Fei-Fei Li at Princeton University
- Caltech-101 and Caltech-256 compiled at Caltech
- Fashion MNIST that collects fashion images and labels them

You can find out more about public datasets online



Public Datasets: Accessing via PyTorch

PyTorch provides us a simple tool to access these public datasets, e.g.,

```
>> import torchvision.datasets as DataSets
>> dataset = DataSets.MNIST( ... )
>> dataset = DataSets.CIFAR10( ... )
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```

In the example of MNIST, we load the dataset which contains the pixel vectors of the images of size 28×28 . This means that we load a list of pairs were each pair contains

a 784-dimensional vector of pixel values and a label that is in $\{0, 1, \dots, 9\}$

Public Datasets: How Do They Look?

Public datasets include a large amount of data-points with their labels

MNIST includes 70,000 images of hand-written numbers with their true labels: from these 70,000 we use 60,000 for training and 10,000 for test

This means that once we load the MNIST dataset, we make a batch of 60,000 images to train our FNN. Once the training is over, we test the performance of the trained FNN on the remaining 10,000 images

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This means that once we load the MNIST dataset, we make a batch of 60,000 images to train our FNN. Once the training is over, we test the performance of the trained FNN on the remaining 10,000 images

Back to our problem, this means that our full-batch training performs each iteration of the gradient descent after

60,000 forward and backward passes over the FNN

which sounds a lot!



Full-Batch Training: Complexity

Given the example of MNIST, let's see roughly how long it takes to do a full-batch training: if we need 100 iterations of gradient descent, we need to pass back and forth for 6×10^6 times!

- + But do we really need to do this much? This sounds impossible in large NNs!
- No! We really don't need! We can do the training much faster

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The full-batch training is really not practical: in practice, we use stochastic (mini-batch) gradient descent to train our NN with feasible complexity

Let's take a look at these approaches!

Sample-Level Training

The most primary idea is to apply one step of gradient descent after each forward and backward pass: in our FNN this means that we do the following

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```
SymbLevel_GradientDescent():
 1: Initiate with some initial values \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(0)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(0)}, \mathbf{W}_3^{(0)}\} and set a learning rate \eta
 2: Start at b=1
 3: while weights not converged do
 4:
       if h > B then
 5: Update b \leftarrow 1
                                                                  # start over with the dataset
 6:
       end if
 7: NN.values \leftarrow ForwardProp (x_b, \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_3^{(t)}\})
 8: \{\mathbf{G}_{1,b}, \mathbf{G}_{2,b}, \mathbf{G}_{3,b}\} \leftarrow \text{BackProp}(\mathbf{x}_b, v_b, \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_3^{(t)}\}, \text{NN.values})
        Update \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)} - \eta \; \mathbf{G}_{\ell,b}
                                                                            # symbol_level update
10:
         Update b \leftarrow b + 1
                                                                           # go for next data-point
11: end while
```

We call this approach symbol-level training

- But what does it mean in the sense of empirical risk minimization? Aren't we now doing something different from the standard gradient descent?!
- Yes! We are in fact performing an approximative gradient descent

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- Yes! We are in fact performing an approximative gradient descent

Consider the an ideal scenario in which

$$\mathbf{G}_{\ell,\mathbf{1}} = \mathbf{G}_{\ell,\mathbf{2}} = \ldots = \mathbf{G}_{\ell,\mathbf{B}}$$

In this case, we do not need to wait for the batch to be fully over, since

$$\mathbf{G}_{\ell,1} = \mathtt{mean} \ (\mathbf{G}_{\ell,1}, \mathbf{G}_{\ell,2}, \dots, \mathbf{G}_{\ell,\underline{B}})$$

In other words, in this case

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symbol-level training ≡ full-batch training

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In practice, at each data-point we calculate a noisy-version of full-batch gradient^a. In other words, we can think of $G_{\ell,b}$ for each b as

$$\mathbf{G}_{\ell,b} = \mathtt{mean}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell,1},\mathbf{G}_{\ell,2},\ldots,\mathbf{G}_{\ell,B}) + \mathsf{Noise}$$

^aFull-batch gradient means the average of gradients over the whole batch.

In practice, at each data-point we calculate a noisy-version of full-batch gradient^a. In other words, we can think of $G_{\ell,b}$ for each b as

$$\mathbf{G}_{\ell,b} = \mathtt{mean}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell,1},\mathbf{G}_{\ell,2},\ldots,\mathbf{G}_{\ell,B}) + \mathsf{Noise}$$

If this noise is small enough, we can say that

$$\mathbf{G}_{\ell,b} pprox \mathtt{mean}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell,1},\mathbf{G}_{\ell,2},\ldots,\mathbf{G}_{\ell,B})$$

and therefore, we can conclude that

symbol-level training ≈ full-batch training

In this case, we say that $G_{\ell,h}$ is an estimator of the full-batch gradient

^aFull-batch gradient means the average of gradients over the whole batch.

Sample-Level Training: Repetitive Cycle Issue

Naive sample-level update can trap us into a repetitive cycle: in simple words, we can end up with our initial point at the end of the batch.

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Naive sample-level update can trap us into a repetitive cycle: in simple words, we can end up with our initial point at the end of the batch. For instance, consider the following dummy (but possible) scenario in our three-layer FNN

We start with $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(0)}$ and get into the batch for the first time

- We update $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(0)}$ after the first data-point to $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(1)}$
- We update $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(1)}$ after the second data-point to $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(2)}$
- We update $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(B-1)}$ after the last data-point to $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(B)}$

Now, assume that $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(B)} = \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(0)}$ for all layers again!

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- We update $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(1)}$ after the second data-point to $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(2)}$
- We update $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(B-1)}$ after the last data-point to $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(B)}$

Now, assume that $\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(B)} = \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(0)}$ for all layers again!

In the above dummy example, further looping over the batch is useless, since we always get back to the initial point: this is the most basic example of the repetitive cycle issue

Stochastic Sample-Level Training: SGD

- + How can we avoid such cyclic behaviors?
- We can use Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)



Applied Deep Learning

Stochastic Sample-Level Training: SGD

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Each time we are to loop over our training batch, we shuffle the data-points randomly: this way we avoid next loop behave like the previous one

This idea is called Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

SGD is the most common algorithm for training of NNs!

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SGD is the most common algorithm for training of NNs!

What does random shuffling mean?

It means randomly permuting the data-points

Stochastic Gradient Descent

```
SGD():
 1: Initiate with some initial values \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(0)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(0)}, \mathbf{W}_3^{(0)}\} and set a learning rate \eta
 2: Randomly shuffle the batch and start at b = 1
 3: while weights not converged do
 4:
         if b > B then
 5:
             Randomly shuffle the batch and set b \leftarrow 1
                                                                                     # random shuffling
 6:
       end if
 7: NN.values \leftarrow ForwardProp (x_b, \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_3^{(t)}\})
 8: \{\mathbf{G}_{1,b}, \mathbf{G}_{2,b}, \mathbf{G}_{3,b}\} \leftarrow \text{BackProp}(\mathbf{x}_b, v_b, \{\mathbf{W}_1^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_2^{(t)}, \mathbf{W}_3^{(t)}\}, \text{NN.values})
 9: Update \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)} - n \mathbf{G}_{\ell,h}
                                                                            # symbol_level update
10:
        Update b \leftarrow b + 1
                                                                          # go for next data-point
11: end while
```

Stochastic Gradient Descent

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                                                                           # symbol_level update
10:
         Update b \leftarrow b + 1
                                                                         # go for next data-point
11: end while
```

- + But, doesn't sample-level training lead to any drawback?
- Sure! But we accept this drawback as a cost we pay for less complexity Let's see how this trade-off looks like

For random variable x with mean μ , the variance is defined as

$$\operatorname{Vor}\left\{x\right\} = \mathbb{E}\left\{\left(x - \mu\right)^2\right\} = \mathbb{E}\left\{x^2\right\} - \mu^2$$

Clearly, when x is zero-mean, we can say $Vor\{x\} = \mathbb{E}\{x^2\}$

Applied Deep Learning

Chapter 2: FNNs

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Clearly, when x is zero-mean, we can say $\mathbb{Var}\{x\} = \mathbb{E}\{x^2\}$

Properties of Variance

For any random variable x and constant c, we have

$$\operatorname{Var}\left\{ cx\right\} =c^{2}\operatorname{Var}\left\{ x\right\}$$

Let x_1, \ldots, x_N be N independent random variables; then, we have

$$\operatorname{Vor}\left\{\sum_{n=1}^N x_n\right\} = \sum_{n=1}^N \operatorname{Vor}\left\{x_n\right\}$$

Now, assume x_1, \ldots, x_N are N independent zero-mean random variables all with variance σ^2 : let \bar{x} be the arithmetic average of x_1, \ldots, x_N , i.e.,

$$ar{x} = exttt{mean}\left(x_1, \dots, x_N
ight) = rac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_n$$

We could then say

$$\operatorname{Var}\left\{\bar{x}\right\} = \operatorname{Var}\left\{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}x_{n}\right\}$$

Applied Deep Learning

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$$\operatorname{Vor}\left\{\bar{x}\right\} = \operatorname{Vor}\left\{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}x_n\right\} \\ = \frac{1}{N^2}\operatorname{Vor}\left\{\sum_{n=1}^{N}x_n\right\}$$

Recap: Variance

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Recap: Variance

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$$\begin{split} \operatorname{Var}\left\{\bar{x}\right\} &= \operatorname{Var}\left\{\frac{1}{N}\sum_{n=1}^{N}x_{n}\right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{N^{2}}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\underbrace{\operatorname{Var}\left\{x_{n}\right\}}_{\sigma^{2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{N^{2}}\sum_{n=1}^{N}\underbrace{\operatorname{Var}\left\{x_{n}\right\}}_{\sigma^{2}} \\ &= \frac{\sigma^{2}}{N} \quad \text{variance of average drops by } 1/\# \text{ samples} \end{split}$$

Now, let's get back to our problem: when we talked about the meaning of symbol level update, we said

In practice, at each data-point we calculate a noisy-version of full-batch gradient. In other words, we can think of $G_{\ell,b}$ for each b as

$$\mathbf{G}_{\ell,b} = \mathtt{mean}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell,1},\mathbf{G}_{\ell,2},\ldots,\mathbf{G}_{\ell,B}) + \mathsf{Noise}$$

and called $G_{\ell,h}$ an estimator of the mean.

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Let's make the above statement a bit more formal: we assume that Noise for each b is a matrix with independent zero-mean entries all with variance σ^2 , i.e.,

$$\mathbf{G}_{\ell, \mathbf{b}} = \bar{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell} + \mathbf{N}_{\ell, \mathbf{b}}$$

where we define $\bar{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell}$ to be the gradient of the true risk

What is the true risk? If you remember, when we started with training

Our goal was to minimize the risk $R(\mathbf{w})$

However, we could not do this: since we did not know (1) the true function, and (2) the data distribution. Thus,

we approximated the true risk $R(\mathbf{w})$ with empirical risk $\hat{R}(\mathbf{w})$

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we approximated the true risk $R(\mathbf{w})$ with empirical risk $\hat{R}(\mathbf{w})$

We assume that $\bar{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell}$ is the gradient of true risk with respect to \mathbf{W}_{ℓ} , i.e.,

$$\bar{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell} = \nabla_{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}} R\left(\mathbf{w}\right)$$

- + Can we determine this gradient?
- Of course not! We can only approximate it with $abla_{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}}\hat{R}\left(\mathbf{w}
 ight)$

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Let's see accurate the gradient is approximated, when we do full-batch training

In full-batch training, we determine the gradient as

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell}^{\text{batch}} = \text{mean}(\mathbf{G}_{\ell,1}, \mathbf{G}_{\ell,2}, \dots, \mathbf{G}_{\ell,B}) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{b=1}^{B} \bar{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell} + \mathbf{N}_{\ell,b}$$

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Recall that by arithmetic averaging variance drops by 1/# of samples

In full-batch training the approximated gradient is different from the true gradient by an error whose variance drops as σ^2/B

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In full-batch training the approximated gradient is different from the true gradient by an error whose variance drops as σ^2/B

Now, let's compare it to SGD

In SGD, we approximate the gradient with a sample gradient, i.e.,

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell}^{SGD} = \mathbf{G}_{\ell,b} = \bar{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell} + \mathbf{N}_{\ell,b}$$

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Now, let's compare it to SGD

In SGD, we approximate the gradient with a sample gradient, i.e.,

$$\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell}^{\mathrm{SGD}} = \mathbf{G}_{\ell,b} = \bar{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell} + \mathbf{N}_{\ell,b}$$

As we see, SGD is still approximating the true gradient but with much larger variance: entries of $N_{\ell,b}$ have all variance σ^2

For instance, consider MNIST with 60,000 samples: by full-batch training we get gradient values whose difference from the entries of the true gradient is approximately 1.67×10^{-5} times smaller that those gradient entries calculated by SGD!

In the context of ML, we often say: in the analyses of last slides,

SGD and full-batch training are both unbiased estimators of $\bar{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell}$

We call them unbiased, since
$$\mathbb{E}\left\{\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell}^{SGD}\right\} = \mathbb{E}\left\{\hat{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell}^{batch}\right\} = \bar{\mathbf{G}}_{\ell}$$

Applied Deep Learning

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Complexity-Accuracy Trade-off

Assume that a forward and backward pass takes time T and that gradient of the risk at each sample be an unbiased estimators of the true gradient; then,

- $oldsymbol{1}$ each step of SGD takes time T while each step of full-batch training takes BT with B being the batch size
- 2 if we denote the variance of estimation given by SGD by σ^2 , the variance of full-batch estimator is σ^2/B

Training via Mini-Batches

- + But, can't we play with this trade-off? For instance, increase a bit the complexity to improve the accuracy!
- Yes! This is the idea of mini-batch training

Training via Mini-Batches

- But, can't we play with this trade-off? For instance, increase a bit the complexity to improve the accuracy!
- Yes! This is the idea of mini-batch training

In mini-batch training, we divide the whole batch of data into mini-batches:

- after each mini-batch is over, we average the gradients over the mini-batch
- we apply one step of gradient descent using this averaged gradient

To avoid cyclic behavior, we still shuffle the dataset randomly each time we start a new loop over it. This training approach is hence often called

Mini-Batch Stochastic Gradient Descent = Mini-Batch SGD

Mini-Batch SGD

```
mBatchSGD():
 1: Initiate with some initial values \{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(0)}\} and set a learning rate \eta
 2: Randomly shuffle the batch and divide it into mini-batches of size \Omega
 3: Denote the number of mini-batches by \Xi = [B/\Omega] and start at \xi = 1
 4: while weights not converged do
 5:
        if \xi > \Xi then
             Randomly shuffle the batch and divide it into mini-batches of size \Omega
 6:
 7: Set \xi \leftarrow 1
                                                                  # start over with the dataset
 8:
       end if
         for \omega = 1, \ldots, \Omega do
              NN.values \leftarrow ForwardProp (\boldsymbol{x}_{\omega}, \{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)}\})
10:
              \{\mathbf{G}_{\ell,\omega}\} \leftarrow \mathsf{BackProp}(\boldsymbol{x}_{\omega}, v_{\omega}, \{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)}\}, \mathsf{NN.values})
11:
12:
          end for
       Update \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)} - \eta \; \operatorname{mean} \left( \mathbf{G}_{\ell,1}, \dots, \mathbf{G}_{\ell,\Omega} \right)
13:
          Update \xi \leftarrow \xi + 1
                                                                           # go for next mini-batch
14:
15: end while
```

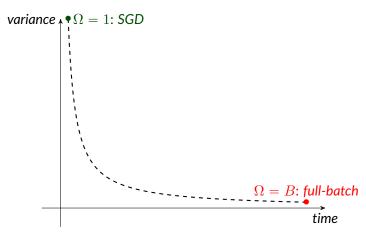
It is easy to see that

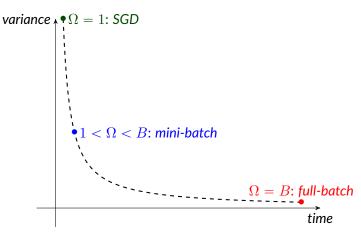
- mini-batch training reduces to full-batch training when we set the size of mini-batches to B, i.e., $\Omega = B$
- mini-batch training reduces to SGD when we set the size of mini-batches to 1, i.e., $\Omega=1$

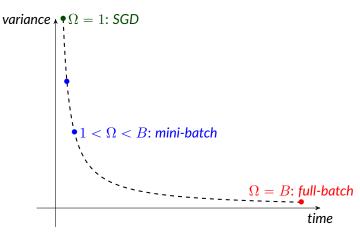
Complexity-Accuracy Trade-off

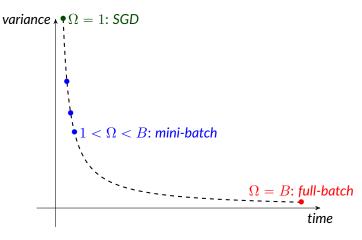
Assume that a forward and backward pass takes time T and that gradient of the risk at each sample be an unbiased estimators of the true gradient; then,

- 1 each step of SGD takes time T while each step of mini-batch training takes ΩT with Ω being the mini-batch size
- 2 if we denote the variance of estimation given by SGD by σ^2 , the variance of mini-batch estimator is σ^2/Ω

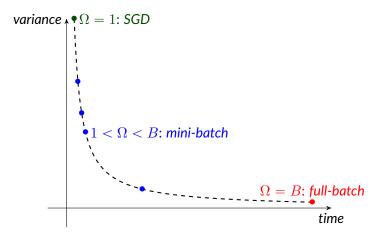








The complete trade-off can be visualized as



Mini-batch size is what specifies the trade-off point

Few Definitions: Epoch and Iteration

In the language of deep learning there are few terms that we must know

Batch Size

Through time, the term mini-batch has been transformed to batch, and the complete batch is referred to as training dataset or the full batch. People hence call the size of each mini-batch, i.e., Ω , the batch size

Iteration

When we take one step of gradient descent, we take one iteration. So, one iteration is over when we finish with a mini-batch

Epoch

An epoch is over when we finish once with the whole training dataset

Few Definitions: Epoch and Iteration

We can annotate these definitions in our algorithm

```
mBatchSGD():
 1: Initiate with some initial values \{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(0)}\} and set a learning rate \eta
 2: Randomly shuffle training dataset and make mini-batches of size \Omega = \text{Batch-size}
 3: Denote the number of mini-batches by \Xi = [B/\Omega] and start at \xi = 1
 4: while weights not converged do
 5:
         if \xi > \Xi then
             Randomly shuffle the batch and divide it into mini-batches of size \Omega
 6:
 7:
            Set \xi \leftarrow 1 \leftarrow one epoch is over, we start another epoch
         end if
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 9:
         for \omega = 1, \dots, \Omega do
             NN. values \leftarrow ForwardProp (x_{\omega}, \{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)}\}) going through a Min-Batch
10:
             \{\mathbf{G}_{\ell,\omega}\} \leftarrow \mathsf{BackProp}\left(\boldsymbol{x}_{\omega}, v_{\omega}, \{\mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)}\}, \mathsf{NN.values}\right)
11:
12:
         end for
         Update \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{W}_{\ell}^{(t)} - \eta mean (\mathbf{G}_{\ell,1}, \dots, \mathbf{G}_{\ell,\Omega}) \leftarrow one iteration
13:
14:
         Update \xi \leftarrow \xi + 1
                                                                        # go for next mini-batch
15: end while
```

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Few Definitions: Epoch and Iteration

We can consider a simple example: say we train our FNN over MNIST using mini-batch SGD with batch size $\Omega=100$. Our training dataset has 60,000 data-points; thus, we have

$$\Xi = \frac{60,000}{100} = 600$$

mini-batches. Each time we finish with a mini-bacth, we do one iteration of gradient descent. After 600 iterations, we finish with a single epoch

So, if we have trained the FNN for 10 epochs, it means that

we have done $600 \times 10 = 6000$ iterations of gradient descent

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Testing NNs with New Data-Point

- + Say we are over with the training; then, what should we do?
- We need to test it with the data we reserved for testing

After training, we need to test our trained NN: say we get a new data-point $x_{\rm new}$ with label $v_{\rm new}$. We can test our NN for this new test data-point by evaluating classical metrics

- 1 Test Risk also called Test Loss: we pass x_{new} forward through our trained NN and get y_{new} . We then calculate the test loss as $\mathcal{L}\left(y_{\text{new}}, v_{\text{new}}\right)$ using the same loss function \mathcal{L} we used for training
- **2 Test Accuracy**: we use y_{new} to classify x_{new} . We then compare it to the true class of x_{new} . If they are the same; then, the test accuracy is 1, if not, it is 0

Testing NNs over Test Dataset

Testing for a single new point is not reliable: this is why we had reserved the test dataset.

Given the test dataset, we go through every single test data-point

- we pass the data-point forward through the trained NN
- we compute the test loss and test accuracy
- we average them over the whole test dataset

Therefore, we get

- an average loss that approximates the risk
- a test accuracy between 0 and 1 that says how accurate our trained NN is

Learning Curves

- + What you said gives us two numbers! But, I have seen curves!
- Yes! They are learning curves

In practice, the SGD can take very long to converge, i.e., to stop iterating

it needs too many iterations to get too close to the minimum

But, it might be not really needed to get that close! So,

we test our NN once every epoch

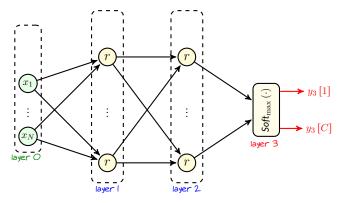
We then plot the test risk and test accuracy against number of epochs in a curve: these curves are often called learning curves

if we see that learning curves are saturating, we can stop the training

In practice: we always perform the training for a fixed number of epochs

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Let's see an example: recall our three-layer FNN. Say, we train it for image classification over MNIST which has 60,000 data-points for and 10,000 for test



In MNIST, we have 10 classes, so C=10. We use cross-entropy as loss function

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We agree to do the following: we use mini-batch SGD with batch size $\Omega = 100$ and train the FNN for 100 epochs.

In epoch $\xi = 1, ..., 100$

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In epoch \xi = 1, ..., 100
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- 2 we fix the weights to what we computed at last iteration of the epoch

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In epoch \xi = 1, ..., 100
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- $oldsymbol{1}$ we perform 600 iterations of gradient descent
- we fix the weights to what we computed at last iteration of the epoch
- $oldsymbol{3}$ for each test data-point: we pass it forward and determine \mathbf{y}_3
 - 1 we compute $CE(\mathbf{y}_3, \mathbf{1}_v)$, where v is the true class of test data-point
 - 2 we find the index of maximum term in y_3 and compare it to v
 - \downarrow if they are the same, we set accuracy to 1; otherwise, we set it 0

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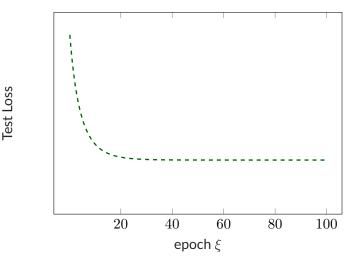
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Now, for each epoch

we have a test loss and test accuracy: we plot them against ξ

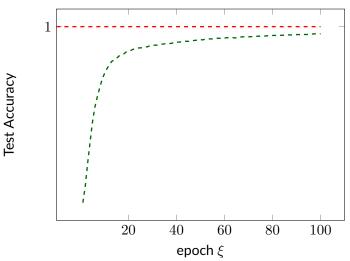


How should the learning curves look? A typical curve for test loss is



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How should the learning curves look? A typical curve for test accuracy is



Summary of This Chapter

- To train a NN we need gradients

 - → In FNNs, forward propagation uses simple linear and nonlinear operations
 - □ Backpropagation is readily derived using computation graph



Summary of This Chapter

- To train a NN we need gradients

 - \downarrow In FNNs, forward propagation uses simple linear and nonlinear operations
 - □ Backpropagation is readily derived using computation graph
- We tried Classification via FNNs

 - → For multiclass classification, we should use vector-activated neurons

Summary of This Chapter

- To train a NN we need gradients

 - → In FNNs, forward propagation uses simple linear and nonlinear operations
 - □ Backpropagation is readily derived using computation graph
- We tried Classification via FNNs
- To minimize the exact empirical risk, we have to do full-batch training

 - □ SGD versus full-batch describes a complexity-accuracy trade-off