Machine Learning

Multi-layer perceptron and back-propagation

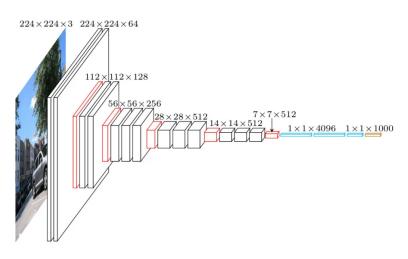
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2nd semester a.y. 2023/2024 · March 26, 2024

A glimpse into neural networks

In deep learning, we deal with highly parametrized models called deep neural networks:



The simplest example of a nonlinear parametric model:

$$f \circ f(\mathbf{x})$$

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$$\underbrace{f \circ f}_{\text{linear}}(\mathbf{x})$$

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More in general, consider other activation functions:

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \qquad \sigma(x) = \max\{0, x\}$$

tinuous discontinuous gradient

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$$(\sigma \circ f) \circ (\sigma \circ f) \circ \cdots \circ (\sigma \circ f)(\mathbf{x})$$

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Each layer outputs an intermediate hidden representation:

$$\mathbf{x}_{\ell+1} = \sigma_{\ell}(\mathbf{W}_{\ell}\mathbf{x}_{\ell} + \mathbf{b}_{\ell})$$

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The hidden representations are also called the activations at layer $\ell+1$.

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We have two interpretations:

① Each layer is a vector-to-vector function $\mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}^q$.

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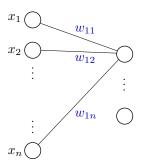
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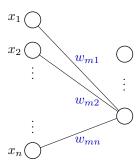
- **1** Each layer is a vector-to-vector function $\mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}^q$.
- ② Each layer has q neurons acting in parallel. Each neuron acts as a scalar function $\mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$.

$$\sigma(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}) = \sigma \circ \begin{pmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & \cdots & w_{1n} \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & \cdots & w_{2n} \\ \vdots & \cdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ w_{m1} & w_{m2} & \cdots & w_{mn} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ \vdots \\ x_n \end{pmatrix} = \sigma \circ \begin{pmatrix} y_1 \\ y_2 \\ \vdots \\ y_m \end{pmatrix}$$

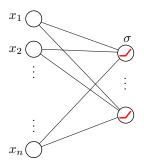
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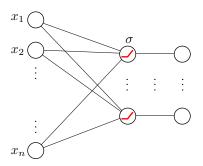
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It is common to have a linear layer at the output:

$$\mathbf{y} = f \circ (\sigma \circ f) \circ \cdots \circ (\sigma \circ f)(\mathbf{x})$$

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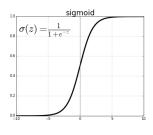
Then, y is a combination of "ridge functions" $\sigma(\cdots)$.

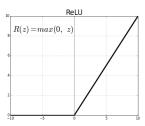
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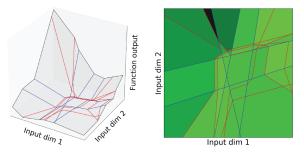


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The blue and red edges are produced by the first and second layer.

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Universal Approximation Theorem For any compact set $\Omega \subset \mathbb{R}^p$, the space spanned by the functions $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b})$ is dense in $\mathcal{C}(\Omega)$ for the uniform convergence.

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For large enough q, the training error can be made arbitrarily small.

Other UAT theorems for ReLUs and locally bounded non-polynomials.

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In general, we deal with nonconvex functions. Empirical results show that large q + gradient descent leads to very good approximations.

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- One layer, no activation, MSE loss (⇒ linear regression).
- One layer, sigmoid activation, cross-entropy loss (⇒ logistic regression).

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We want to automatize this computational step efficiently.

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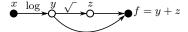
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Example:

$$f(x) = \log x + \sqrt{\log x}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
x & \log y \\
\hline
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
z \\
\hline
\end{array}$$

$$f = y + z$$

$$f(x) = \frac{\log(x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1})}{x^2} - \frac{\log^3(x + \sqrt{x^2 + 1})}{\sqrt{x^2 + 1}}$$



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$$\begin{array}{c}
x \\ x^2
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$$\begin{array}{c}
y \\ \sqrt{y+1} \\ z
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
z \\ y \\ z
\end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{c}
r = \log(x+z)
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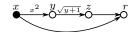
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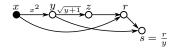
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Consider a generic function $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$.

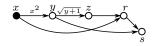
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Example:

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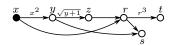
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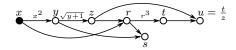
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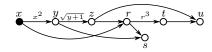
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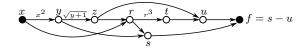
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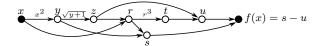
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The evaluation of f(x) corresponds to a forward traversal of the graph:



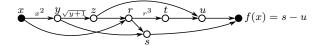
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The graph is constructed programmaticaly, for example:

$$z = sqrt(sum(square(x), 1));$$

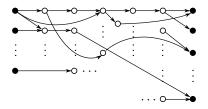
The evaluation of f(x) corresponds to a forward traversal of the graph:



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$$z = sqrt(sum(square(x), 1));$$

For high-dimensional input/output, the graph may be more complex:



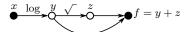
The computational graph gets big quickly.



Poplar visualization, see https://www.graphcore.ai/products/poplar

Automatic differentiation: Forward mode

$$f(x) = \log x + \sqrt{\log x}$$



Automatic differentiation: Forward mode

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$$\begin{array}{c}
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 & \downarrow \\
 & \downarrow$$

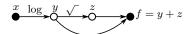
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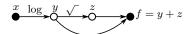
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x & \log y & z \\
 & & \\
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Assumption: Each partial derivative is a "primitive" accessible in closed form and can be computed on the fly.

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cost of computing
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}(x) = \cos t$$
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x & \log y \\
\hline
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However, if the input is high-dimensional, i.e. $f: \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$:

cost of computing
$$\nabla f(\mathbf{x}) = p \times \text{cost of computing } f(\mathbf{x})$$

since partial derivatives must be computed w.r.t. each input dimension.

Computes all partial derivatives $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial z}{\partial x}, \dots$ with respect to the input x.

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We accumulate values during code execution, to get numerical evaluations rather than expressions for the derivative.

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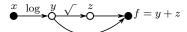
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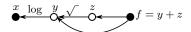
$$\begin{array}{c}
x & \log y & \sqrt{z} \\
 & \downarrow & \downarrow \\
 & \downarrow & \downarrow$$

Reverse mode: compute all the partial derivatives $\frac{\partial f}{\partial z},\ldots,\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$ with respect to the inner nodes.

$$f(x) = \log x + \sqrt{\log x}$$

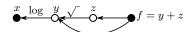


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$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$$

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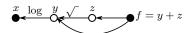
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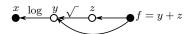
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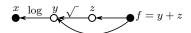
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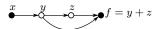
Before computing the derivatives, we must compute the values of the internal nodes first:

$$\begin{split} &\frac{\partial f}{\partial f}\!=\!1\\ &\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\!=\!\frac{\partial f}{\partial f}\,\frac{\partial (y\!+\!z)}{\partial z}\!=\!\frac{\partial f}{\partial f}\\ &\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\!=\!\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\,\frac{\partial \sqrt{y}}{\partial y}\!+\!\frac{\partial f}{\partial f}\,\frac{\partial (y\!+\!z)}{\partial f}\!=\!\frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\,\frac{1}{2\sqrt{y}}\!+\!\frac{\partial f}{\partial f}\\ &\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\!=\!\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\,\frac{\partial \log x}{\partial x}\!=\!\frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\,\frac{1}{\mathbf{x}} \end{split}$$

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① Forward pass to evaluate all the interior nodes y, z, \ldots

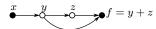


Remark: This is not forward-mode autodiff, since we are only computing function values.

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① Forward pass to evaluate all the interior nodes y, z, \ldots



Remark: This is not forward-mode autodiff, since we are only computing function values.

2 Backward pass to compute the derivatives.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}$$

When training NNs, we compute the gradient of a loss

$$\ell: \mathbb{R}^p \to \mathbb{R}$$

where $p\gg 1$ is the number of weights.

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Instead of simple derivatives we must compute gradients and Jacobians.

$$\ell = \epsilon(\sigma \circ f \circ \sigma \circ f \circ \dots \circ f)$$

 ϵ computes the actual scalar error for the loss.

When training NNs, we compute the gradient of a loss

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Instead of simple derivatives we must compute gradients and Jacobians.

$$\ell = \epsilon(f_{t-1} \circ f_{t-2} \circ \cdots \circ f_2 \circ f_1)$$

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Denote by J_k the Jacobian at layer k.

Forward-mode autodiff:

$$\nabla \ell = \mathbf{J}_{t-1}(\mathbf{J}_{t-2}(\cdots(\mathbf{J}_3(\mathbf{J}_2\mathbf{J}_1))))$$

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Forward-mode autodiff:

$$\nabla \ell = \mathbf{J}_{t-1}(\mathbf{J}_{t-2}(\cdots(\mathbf{J}_3(\mathbf{J}_2\mathbf{J}_1))))$$

Reverse-mode autodiff:

$$\nabla \ell = ((((\mathbf{J}_{t-1}\mathbf{J}_{t-2})\mathbf{J}_{t-3})\cdots)\mathbf{J}_2)\mathbf{J}_1$$

When training NNs, we compute the gradient of a loss

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where $p \gg 1$ is the number of weights.

Instead of simple derivatives we must compute gradients and Jacobians.

$$\ell = \epsilon(f_{t-1} \circ f_{t-2} \circ \cdots \circ f_2 \circ f_1)$$

Denote by J_k the Jacobian at layer k.

Forward-mode autodiff:

$$\nabla \ell = \mathbf{J}_{t-1}(\mathbf{J}_{t-2}(\cdots(\mathbf{J}_3(\mathbf{J}_2\mathbf{J}_1)))) \qquad \text{# ops: } \mathbf{p} \sum_{k=2}^{t-1} d_k d_{k+1}$$

Reverse-mode autodiff:

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$$\nabla \ell = ((((\mathbf{J}_{t-1}\mathbf{J}_{t-2})\mathbf{J}_{t-3})\cdots)\mathbf{J}_2)\mathbf{J}_1 \quad \text{# ops: } 1\sum_{k=1}^{t-2} d_k d_{k+1}$$

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Backprop through computational graph of the loss



Backprop "through the network"

Suggested reading

Nice, accessible survey on automatic differentiation: https://arxiv.org/abs/1502.05767