

# AIMS Course 4: Machine Learning

## Assignment On Automatic Differentiation

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## 1 Introduction

Automatic differentiation refers to an approach to numerical programming in which operations on numbers (or arrays of numbers) are recorded in a computation graph, with the numbers being represented by nodes, and the operations on those numbers being represented by edges. This allows gradients of the results of those computations to be calculated automatically by applying the chain rule along the edges of the computation graph, assuming that the local derivative of each operation in the computation graph is known.

This approach is very powerful, and of particular relevance to the field of machine learning, because once a model and loss function have been expressed in terms of a computation graph, assuming the model and loss function are differentiable, parameters of the model can be optimised with respect to the loss function using gradient-based methods, in which the gradients are calculated using automatic differentiation, without having to derive the gradients explicitly. One popular framework for automatic differentiation is PyTorch [9], which was used during all the experiments described in this report.

## 2 Multi Layer Perceptron

A multi layer perceptron (MLP) is a simple but powerful machine learning model, which maps an input vector to an output vector by applying successive "layers" of parameterised linear transformations followed by element-wise nonlinear functions to the input vector. The parameters of the linear transformations can be learnt in such a way as to minimise a loss function appropriate to a specific dataset using gradient-based methods, with gradients being calculated using automatic differentiation. For the experiments in this section, various different types of MLPs were trained on the MNIST dataset of handwritten digits [8], using a softmax cross-entropy loss function which is appropriate for multi-class classification tasks.

There are various design decisions to consider when implementing a MLP, including the choice of method used to initialise parameters in the model, and the choice of optimisation method. The parameters of the models used in this section were initialised following [4], by sampling initial weight parameters in each layer from a zero-mean Gaussian distribution whose standard deviation is equal to  $\sqrt{2/n_l}$ , where  $n_l$  is the dimension of the input to the layer, and initialising all bias parameters to zero. This choice of standard deviation ensures that when using rectified linear unit (relu) activation functions, the outputs from each layer do not grow or shrink exponentially. For optimising MLPs, stochastic gradient descent with momentum was used following [12] and [10], in which the parameters  $w_t$  at time  $t$  are chosen to minimise a loss function  $f$  by maintaining an estimate for the momentum  $b_t$  of the parameter gradients at each time step, and updating the parameters and momentum as follows (where  $\mu$  and  $\alpha$  are hyperparameters to be chosen):

$$b_t \leftarrow \mu b_{t-1} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial w} \quad (1)$$

$$w_t \leftarrow w_{t-1} - \alpha b_t \quad (2)$$

Figure 1 shows the loss function against time for two different MLPs trained on MNIST for 5 epochs, with both MLPs being trained on both an Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-1065G7 CPU @ 1.30GHz and an NVIDIA GeForce MX250 GPU for comparison. The figures show the loss function decreasing over time in all four cases, with the GPU performing faster than the CPU for both models, however the speed up offered by the GPU is more significant for the larger model (figure 1b). In fact, the GPU is only 6.8% slower for the larger model, despite having to perform significantly more computation, whereas the CPU is 82.2% slower. Figure 2 shows analogous results for the same two models being trained on a server with Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 5120 CPU @ 2.20GHz and NVIDIA TITAN V GPU, showing that the server is significantly faster in all cases (both for larger and smaller models being trained on the CPU and

the GPU), with the GPU actually being marginally slower for the small model, but marginally faster for the larger model.

Figure 3 shows how the learning curves and final generalisation performance of a MLP trained using gradient descent vary with respect to the momentum hyperparameter (3a), batch size (3b), number of hidden layers (3c), dimension of the hidden layers (3d), and hidden layer activation function (3e). Figure 4 shows the predictions of a trained MLP on different unseen examples of each digit from the test set.

### 3 Adversarial Examples

Adversarial examples are "inputs formed by applying small but intentionally worst-case perturbations to examples from the dataset, such that the perturbed input results in the model outputting an incorrect answer with high confidence" [3]. Adversarial examples provide a measure of robustness for a given model, because a robust model should be insensitive to adversarial examples. Given a fixed model  $f$ , loss function  $\mathcal{L}$ , input  $x$ , label  $t$ , adversarial target label  $t_{adv} \neq t$ , and maximum perturbation  $\alpha$ , a simple approach for generating an adversarial example  $x_{adv} = x + z$  is to solve the following optimisation problem:

$$\begin{aligned} \underset{z}{\text{Minimise}} \quad & \mathcal{L}(f(x + z), t_{adv}) \\ \text{Subject to} \quad & \|z\|_{\infty} \leq \alpha \end{aligned} \quad (3)$$

A simple approach for solving this optimisation problem is to iteratively update  $z_t$  on time step  $t$  as follows:

$$z'_t \leftarrow z_{t-1} - \frac{\partial}{\partial z_{t-1}} \left[ \mathcal{L}(f(x + z_{t-1}), t_{adv}) \right] \quad (4)$$

$$z_t \leftarrow \alpha \frac{z'_t}{\|z'_t\|_{\infty}} \quad (5)$$

Using automatic differentiation makes it trivially straightforward to calculate the gradient in equation 4 and therefore to generate an adversarial example according to equation 3. A plot showing the loss function against time when performing this optimisation procedure using automatic differentiation is shown in figure 5a, starting with the same example of the digit 0 from the MNIST test set and the same trained MLP whose predictions are shown in figure 4. The resulting adversarial example, and the model's predictions for the adversarial example, compared with the original test set example from which the adversarial example was generated, are shown in figure 5b.

### 4 Sequence Models

Neural networks such as the MLP can be adapted for sequence prediction simply by concatenating the input  $x_t$  to the model at time  $t$  with a hidden state  $h_t$ , using a neural network to calculate both an output from the model  $y_t$  and a new hidden state  $h_{t+1}$ , and then using the new hidden state as the input hidden state for the next time step, when a new input/output pair is processed by the model. This type of model is known as a recurrent neural network (RNN). A particular type of recurrent neural network is the long short-term memory (LSTM) model [5], which uses gates to learn to control the flow of information from one time step to the next. Using automatic differentiation makes it very straightforward (in principle) to optimise the parameters of a RNN, simply by defining a loss function for the network, averaging that loss function over time steps and over batches of training data within a time step, and then using the automatically computed gradients of the average loss function to optimise the parameters of the model.

Figure 6 shows the loss functions over time while training both an RNN and an LSTM for 8 hours on the complete works of Shakespeare<sup>1</sup>, with the objective of minimising the cross-entropy between the models' predictions of the next character and the actual next character, given a substring of text from the training data. This approach also allows the model to generate new strings of text from its predicted distribution over future characters, and an example of these predictions are included in appendix A. Unfortunately, despite training for 8 hours, the models were not able to generate coherent text in the style of Shakespeare. Possible improvements to the models include looking at different parameter initialisation methods (because the parameters were initialised according to [4], which assumes relu activation functions, but the LSTM in particular uses sigmoid and tanh activation functions at the gate outputs), using dropout [11] [2], batch normalisation [6], layer normalisation [1], different optimisers (such as Adam [7]), different network architectures, and other types of regularisation (such as weight decay).

<sup>1</sup>Freely downloaded from <https://ocw.mit.edu/ans7870/6/6.006/s08/lecturenotes/files/t8.shakespeare.txt>

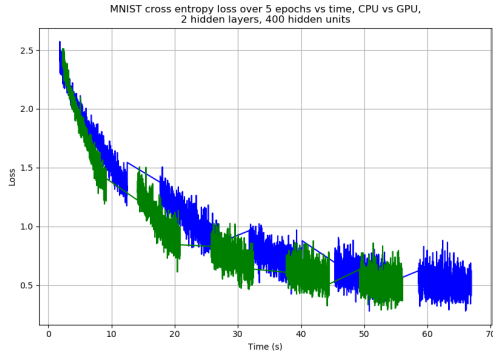
## References

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- [12] Ilya Sutskever, James Martens, George Dahl, and Geoffrey Hinton. On the importance of initialization and momentum in deep learning. In *International conference on machine learning*, pages 1139–1147. PMLR, 2013.

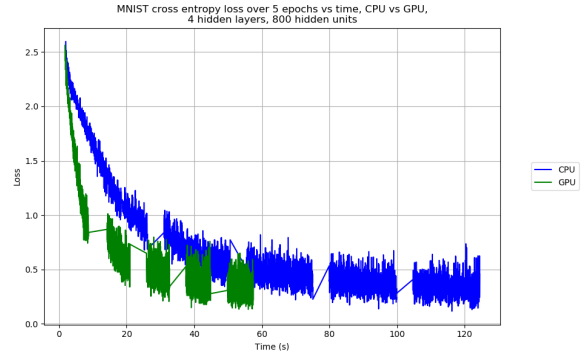
## A Sample from a RNN trained on the complete works of Shakespeare

koly hi[ be. lyen  
sharlse.  
nonk i wins? what soms,  
burubtine, eud, whon yours at that pelm  
boyd  
bleethowerbarvass.  
hath deet where wi  
my deit witsoney and gedbyour abkres  
to, not kerthurg, hitthe. youlls o urlsnous. anclovod abeeksss fours fartars thae all leo tay, if thre in i hat in to  
lmith'ny;  
come nof he dius.  
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sthenr  
biov, werrets, shame;

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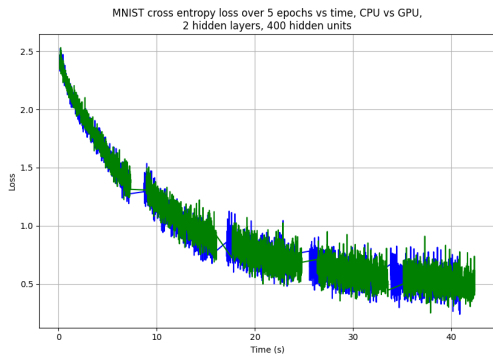


(a) Small model (2 hidden layers, 400 hidden units)

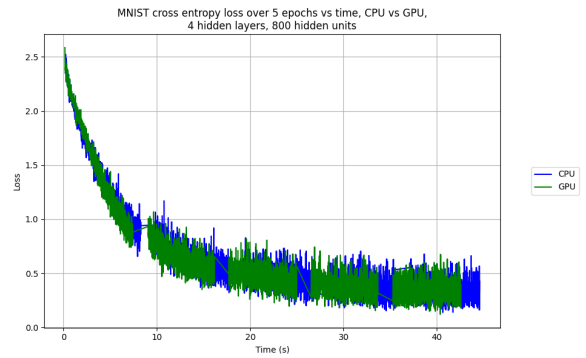


(b) Larger model (4 hidden layers, 800 hidden units)

Figure 1: Learning curves for different sized models trained on MNIST over 5 epochs, comparing training times between an Intel(R) Core(TM) i7-1065G7 CPU @ 1.30GHz and an NVIDIA GeForce MX250 GPU. Gaps in the training curves are due to evaluating test set accuracy once per epoch.



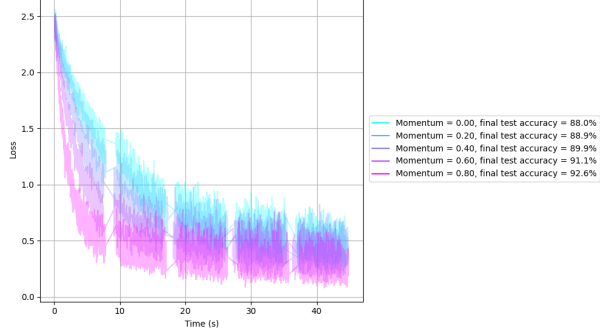
(a) Small model (2 hidden layers, 400 hidden units)



(b) Larger model (4 hidden layers, 800 hidden units)

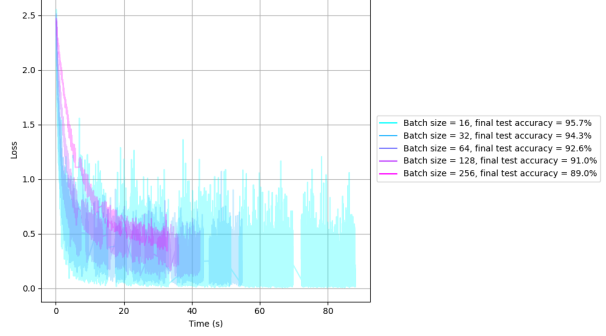
Figure 2: As for figure 1, performed on a server with Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 5120 CPU @ 2.20GHz and NVIDIA TITAN V GPU

MNIST cross entropy loss over 5 epochs vs time, comparing momentum parameters



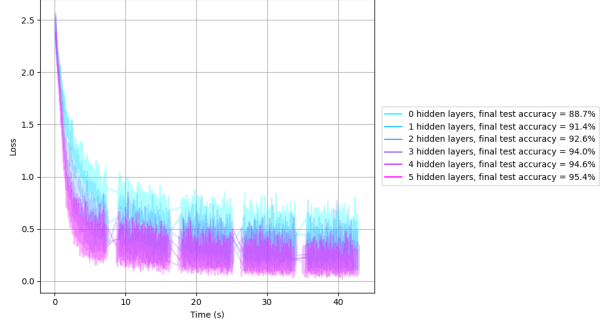
(a) Comparing momentum optimisation hyperparameter

MNIST cross entropy loss over 5 epochs vs time, comparing batch size



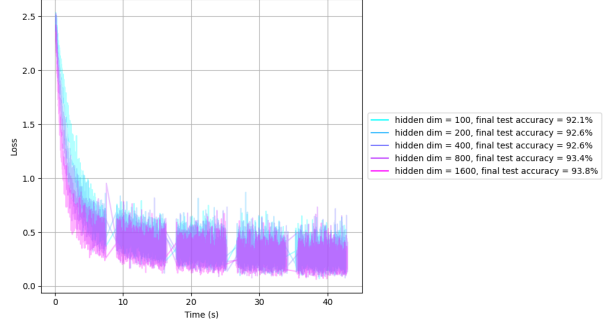
(b) Comparing batch size

MNIST cross entropy loss over 5 epochs vs time, comparing number of hidden layers



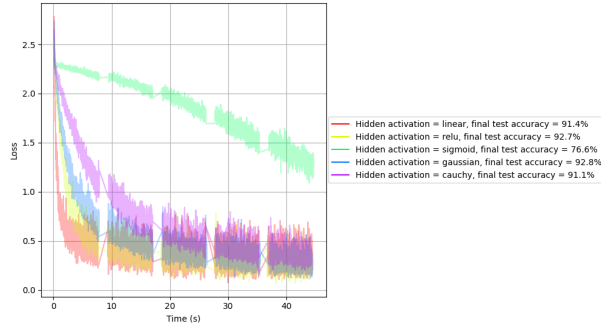
(c) Comparing number of hidden layers

MNIST cross entropy loss over 5 epochs vs time, comparing dimension of hidden layers



(d) Comparing dimension of hidden layers

MNIST cross entropy loss over 5 epochs vs time, comparing hidden activation functions



(e) Comparing hidden layer activation functions

Figure 3: Comparing the effect of different hyperparameters on training a MLP on MNIST. Test set prediction accuracies are included in legends.

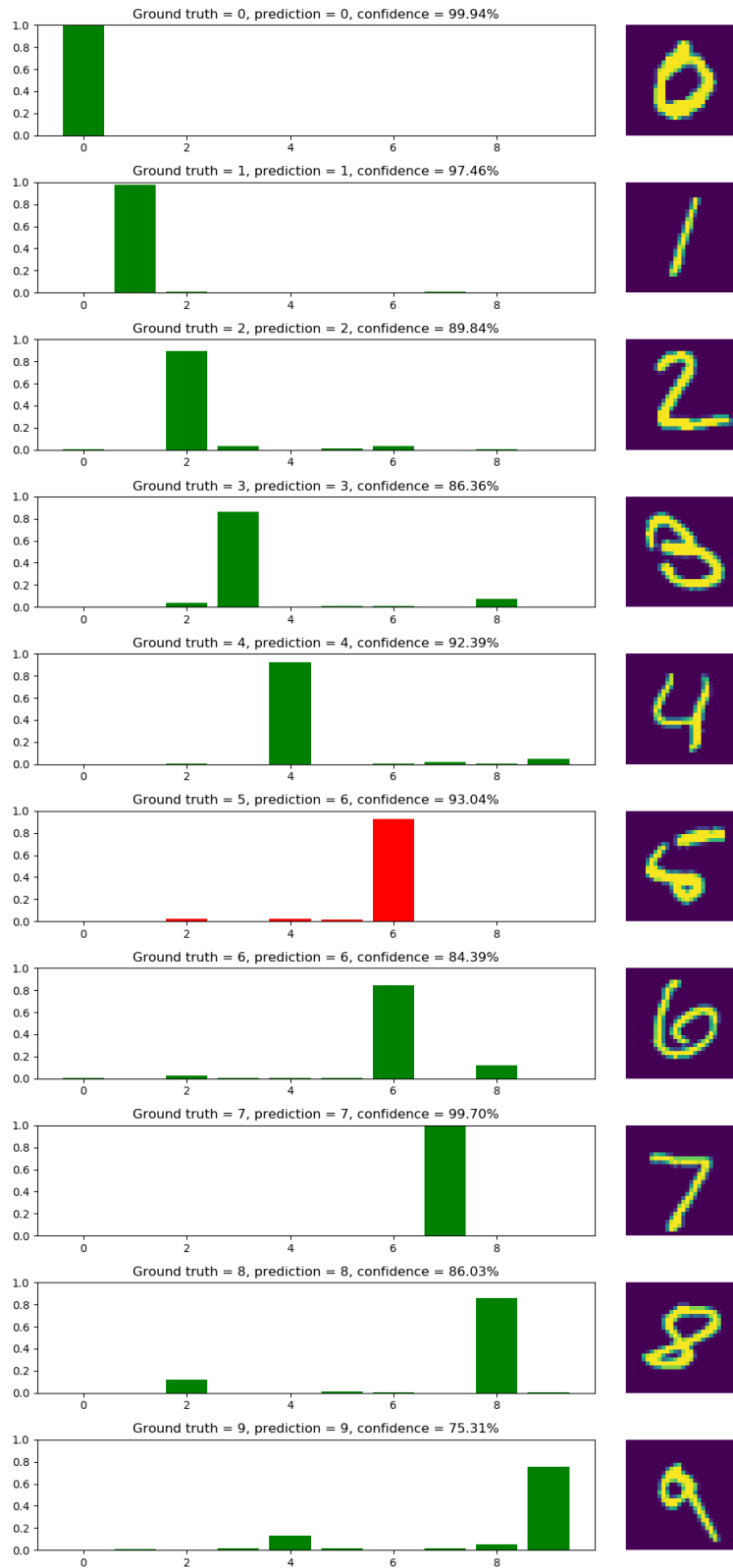
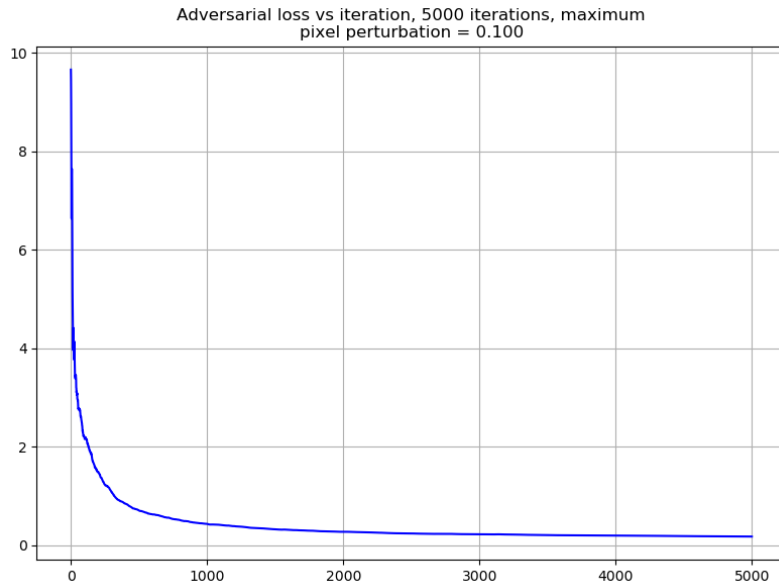
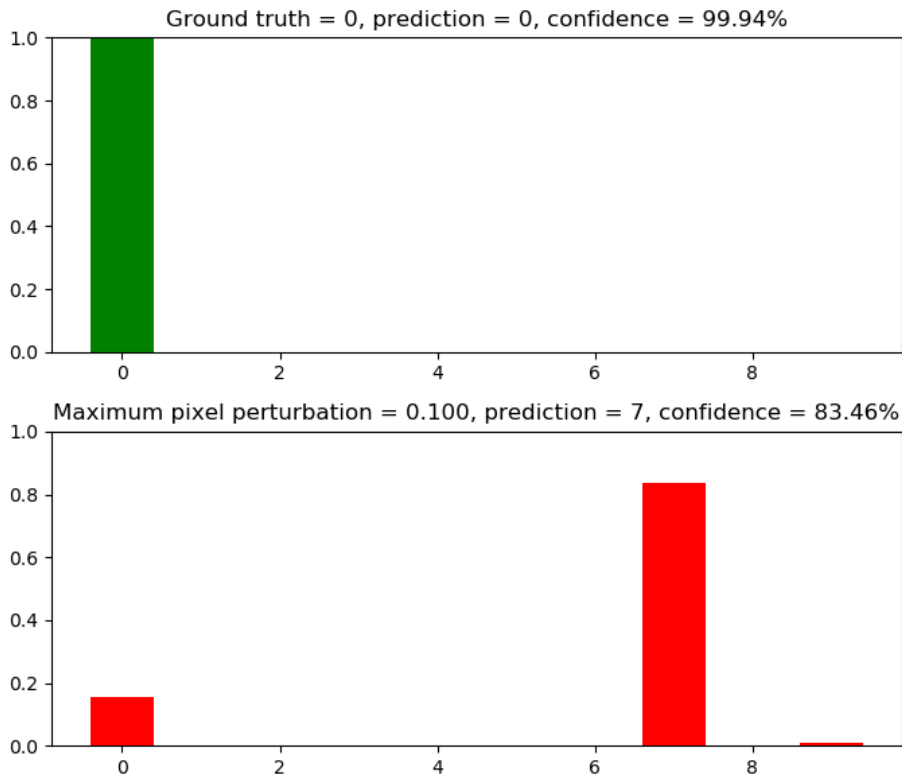


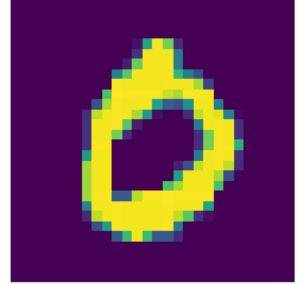
Figure 4: Predictions of a MLP trained on MNIST for 5 epochs on unseen examples of each digit from the test set



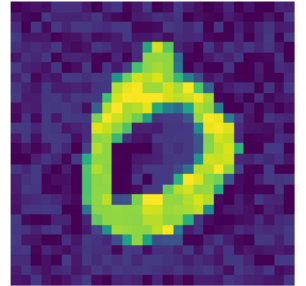
(a) Adversarial loss (equation 3) vs iteration



Test set example image

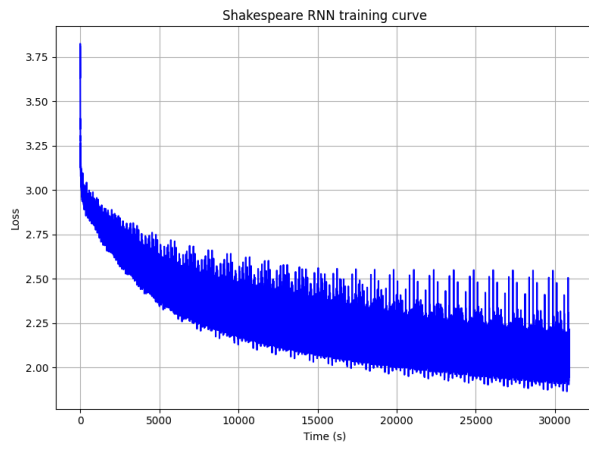


Perturbed test set example image

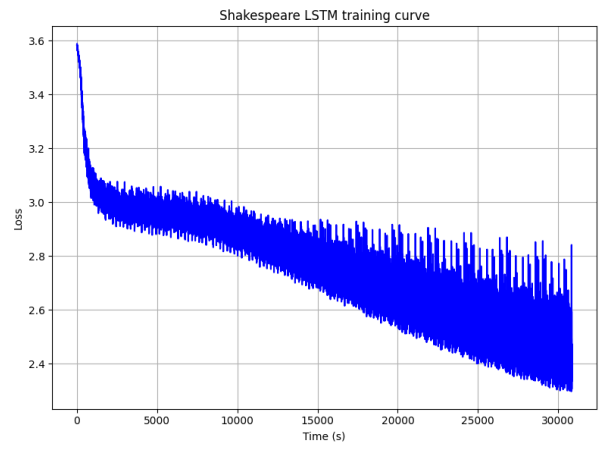


(b) Trained MLP predictions for adversarial example

Figure 5: Training curve and predictions for an adversarial example



(a) RNN



(b) LSTM

Figure 6: Loss functions over time while training different sequence models on the complete works of Shakespeare, to predict the next character given a string of training data