Chapter ML:IV (continued)

IV. Neural Networks

- Perceptron Learning
- □ Multilayer Perceptron Basics
- □ Multilayer Perceptron with Two Layers
- □ Multilayer Perceptron at Arbitrary Depth
- Advanced MLPs
- □ Automatic Gradient Computation

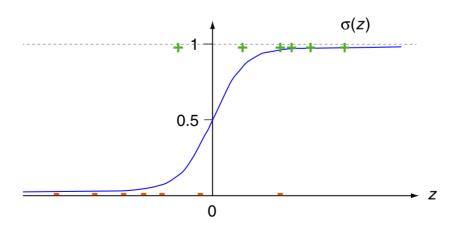
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Output Normalization: Softmax

For two classes (k = 2), the scalar sigmoid output $\sigma(z)$ determines both class probabilities for \mathbf{x} :

- $p(0 \mid \mathbf{x}) := 1 \sigma(z)$

z is the dot product of the final layer's weights with the previous layer's output. I.e., for networks with one active layer $z = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$; for d active layers $z = \mathbf{w}_d^T \mathbf{y}^{h_{d-1}}$.



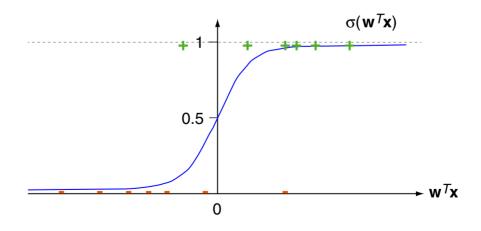
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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

For two classes (k=2), the scalar sigmoid output $\sigma(z)$ determines both class probabilities for ${\bf x}$:

- $p(0 \mid \mathbf{x}) := 1 \sigma(z)$

z is the dot product of the final layer's weights with the previous layer's output. I.e., for networks with one active layer $z = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$; for d active layers $z = \mathbf{w}^T_d \mathbf{y}^{h_{d-1}}$.



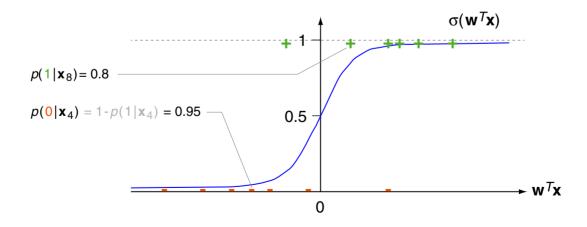
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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

For two classes (k=2), the scalar sigmoid output $\sigma(z)$ determines both class probabilities for ${\bf x}$:

- $p(0 \mid \mathbf{x}) := 1 \sigma(z)$

z is the dot product of the final layer's weights with the previous layer's output. I.e., for networks with one active layer $z = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}$; for d active layers $z = \mathbf{w}_d^T \mathbf{y}^{h_{d-1}}$.



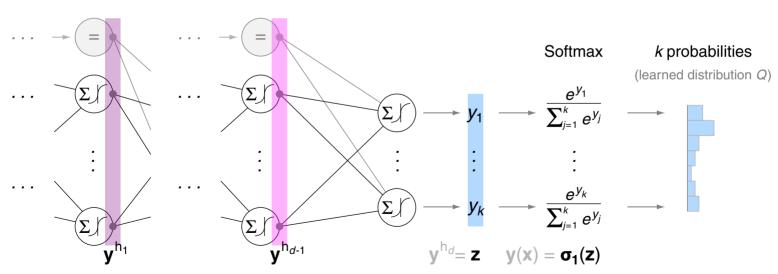
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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

The softmax function $\sigma_1 : \mathbf{R}^k \to \underline{\Delta^{k-1}}$, $\Delta^{k-1} \subset \mathbf{R}^k$, generalizes the logistic (sigmoid) function to k dimensions or k exclusive classes [Wikipedia]:

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{1}(\mathbf{z})|_{i} = \frac{e^{z_{i}}}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{z_{j}}}$$

Multi-layer perceptron for *k* classes:



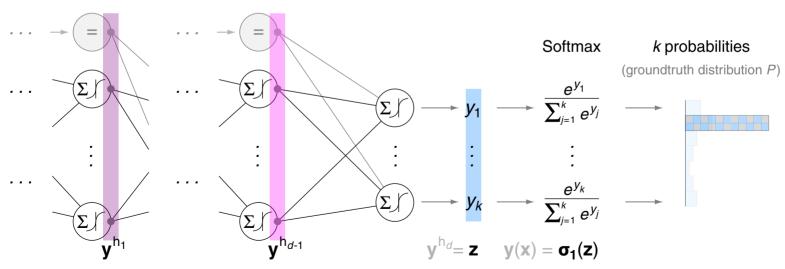
[cross-entropy loss]

Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

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$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{1}(\mathbf{z})|_{i} = \frac{e^{z_{i}}}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} e^{z_{j}}}$$

Multi-layer perceptron for *k* classes:



[cross-entropy loss]

Remarks:

The standard k-1-simplex, denoted as Δ^{k-1} , contains all k-tuples with non-negative elements that sum to 1:

$$\Delta^{k-1} = \left\{ (p_1, \dots, p_k) \in \mathbf{R}^k : \sum_{i=1}^k p_i = 1 \text{ and } p_i \geq 0 \text{ for all } i \right\}$$

- ☐ The softmax function ensures Axiom I (positivity) and Axiom II (unitarity) of Kolmogorov.
- \Box The single output in the two-class setting, the class 1 probability $\sigma(z)$, can be rewritten as softmax vector that comprises both class probabilities:

$$\mathbf{x} \to \begin{bmatrix} p(1 \mid \mathbf{x}) \\ p(0 \mid \mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma(z) \\ 1 - \sigma(z) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \\ \sigma(-z) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{e^z}{1 + e^z} \\ \frac{1}{1 + e^z} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{e^z}{e^0 + e^z} \\ \frac{e^0}{e^0 + e^z} \end{bmatrix} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_1(\binom{z}{0})$$

Loss Function: Cross-Entropy

Definition 2 (Cross Entropy)

Let C be a random variable with distribution P and a finite number of realizations C. Let Q be another distribution of C. Then, the cross entropy of distribution Q relative to the distribution P, denoted as H(P,Q), is defined as follows:

$$H(P,Q) = -\sum_{c \in C} P(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c) \cdot \log \big(Q(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c)\big)$$

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Loss Function: Cross-Entropy (continued)

Definition 2 (Cross Entropy)

Let C be a random variable with distribution P and a finite number of realizations C. Let Q be another distribution of C. Then, the cross entropy of distribution Q relative to the distribution P, denoted as H(P,Q), is defined as follows:

$$H(P,Q) = -\sum_{c \in C} P(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c) \cdot \log \big(Q(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c)\big)$$

- \Box The cross entropy H(P,Q) is the average number of *total* bits to represent an event C=c under the distribution Q instead of under the distribution P.
- The relative entropy, also called Kullback-Leibler divergence, is the average number of additional bits to represent an event under Q instead of under P.

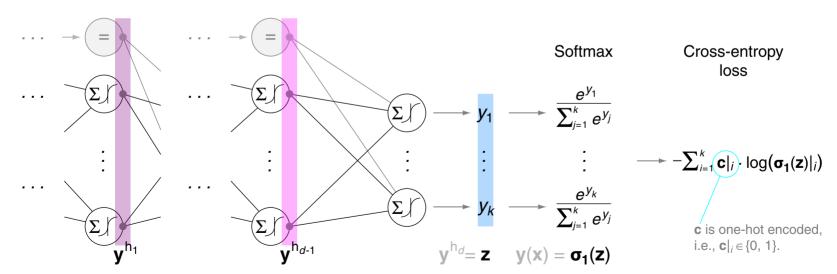
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Loss Function: Cross-Entropy (continued)

Definition 2 (Cross Entropy)

Let C be a random variable with distribution P and a finite number of realizations C. Let Q be another distribution of C. Then, the cross entropy of distribution Q relative to the distribution P, denoted as H(P,Q), is defined as follows:

$$H(P,Q) = -\sum_{c \in C} P(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c) \cdot \log \big(Q(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c)\big)$$



[softmax]

Cross-Entropy in Classification Settings

[logistic loss: definition, derivation]

$$H(P,Q) = -\sum_{c \in C} P(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c) \cdot \log \big(Q(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c)\big)$$

- \supset Random variable C denotes a class.
- Realizations of $C: C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_k\}.$
- \Box P,Q define distributions of C.

$$H(p,q) = -\sum_{c \in C} p(c) \cdot \log \big(q(c)\big)$$

- figcup Probability functions p, q related to P, Q.
- \Box Class labels $C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_k\}.$

$$l_{\sigma}(z) = -c \cdot \log \left(\sigma(z)\right) - (1 - c) \cdot \log \left(1 - \sigma(z)\right)$$

- Two classes encoured as $c, c \in \{0, 1\}$
- Example with groundtruth $(\mathbf{x},c)\in D$
- Classifier output $\sigma(z)$, $z = y(\mathbf{x})$.

$$l_{\sigma_1}(\mathbf{z}) = -\sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{c}|_i \cdot \log \left(\sigma_1(\mathbf{z})|_i\right)$$

- $\mathbf{c}^T \in \{(1,0,\ldots,0),\ldots,(0,\ldots,0,1)\}$
 - Example with groundtruth $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) \in D$.
 - Classifier output $\sigma_1(z)$, z = v(x)

Cross-Entropy in Classification Settings (continued)

[logistic loss: definition, derivation]

$$H(P,Q) = -\sum_{c \in C} P(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c) \cdot \log \big(Q(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c)\big)$$

 $l_{\sigma}(z) = -c \cdot \log (\sigma(z)) - (1-c) \cdot \log (1-\sigma(z))$

Realizations of
$$C$$
: $C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_k\}$.

$$P, Q$$
 define distributions of C .

$$H(p,q) = -\sum_{c \in C} p(c) \cdot \log \big(q(c)\big)$$

□ Probability functions
$$p, q$$
 related to P, Q .
□ Class labels $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_k\}$.

□ Two classes encoded as
$$c, c \in \{0, 1\}$$
.
□ Example with groundtruth $(\mathbf{x}, c) \in D$.

$$\Box$$
 Classifier output $\sigma(z), z = y(\mathbf{x}).$

$$l_{\sigma_1}(\mathbf{z}) = -\sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{c}|_i \cdot \log \left(\sigma_1(\mathbf{z})|_i\right)$$

$$\mathbf{c}^T \in \{(1, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, (0, \dots, 0, 1)\}.$$

$$\Box$$
 Example with groundtruth $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) \in D$.

Classifier output
$$\sigma_1(\mathbf{z})$$
, $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x})$

Cross-Entropy in Classification Settings (continued)

[logistic loss: definition, derivation]

$$H(P,Q) = -\sum_{c \in C} P(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c) \cdot \log \big(Q(\textbf{\textit{C}}{=}c)\big)$$

- Random variable *C* denotes a class.
- Realizations of C: $C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_k\}$.
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- \square Probability functions p, q related to P, Q.
 - Class labels $C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_k\}$.

$$l_{\sigma}(z) = -c \cdot \log \left(\sigma(z)\right) - (1-c) \cdot \log \left(1 - \sigma(z)\right)$$

- Two classes encoded as $c, c \in \{0, 1\}$.
- \Box Example with groundtruth $(\mathbf{x}, c) \in D$.
- Classifier output $\sigma(z)$, $z = y(\mathbf{x})$.

$$l_{oldsymbol{\sigma_1}}(\mathbf{z}) = -\sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{c}|_i \cdot \log \left(oldsymbol{\sigma_1}(\mathbf{z})|_i
ight)$$

- $\mathbf{c}^T \in \{(1,0,\ldots,0),\ldots,(0,\ldots,0,1)\}.$
- ullet Example with groundtruth $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) \in D$.
- Classifier output $\sigma_1(z)$, z = y(x).

Remarks:

- □ We have already encountered the cross-entropy loss function in logistic regression, under the name logistic loss (function). Other synonyms are logarithmic loss and log loss (function).
- Note that c (in the two-class setting) or $\mathbf{c}|_i$ (in the general case) are either 0 or 1, and that they can be interpreted as probability for the occurrence of the respective class; a similar argument applies to the functions $\sigma()$ and $\sigma_1()$, which are interpreted as class probabilities as well.

Under this interpretation, the logistic loss can be rewritten as cross entropy (and vice versa):

$$\begin{split} l_{\sigma}(z) &= -c \cdot \log(\sigma(z)) - (1-c) \cdot \log(1-\sigma(z)) \\ &= -(c \cdot \log(\sigma(z)) + (1-c) \cdot \log(1-\sigma(z))) \\ &= -(p(c_1) \cdot \log(q(c_1)) + p(c_2) \cdot \log(q(c_2))) \\ &= -\sum_{c \in C} p(c) \cdot \log(q(c)) &= H(p,q) \end{split}$$

Similarly, the cross-entry loss in the MLP illustration is written as logistic loss.

- c | c | denotes the projection operator, which returns the *i*th vector component (dimension) of c, $c = (c_1, \ldots, c_k)$.
- ☐ If not stated otherwise, log means log 2.

Activation Function: Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)

 $[\mathcal{T}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{D}\mathcal{O}]$

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Regularization: Dropout

 $[\mathcal{T}\mathcal{O}\mathcal{D}\mathcal{O}]$

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Learning Rate Adaptation: Momentum

Momentum principle: a weight adaptation in iteration t considers the adaptation in iteration t-1:

$$\underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{o}}(t)} = \eta \cdot (\boldsymbol{\delta}^{\mathsf{o}} \otimes \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{h}}(\mathbf{x})|_{1,\dots,l}) + \alpha \cdot \underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{o}}(t-1)}
\underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{h}}(t)} = \eta \cdot (\boldsymbol{\delta}^{\mathsf{h}} \otimes \mathbf{x}) + \alpha \cdot \underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{h}}(t-1)}
\underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{h}_s}(t)} = \eta \cdot (\boldsymbol{\delta}^{\mathsf{h}_s} \otimes \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{h}_{s-1}}(\mathbf{x})|_{1,\dots,l_{s-1}}) + \alpha \cdot \underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{h}_s}(t-1)}, \quad s = d, d-1, \dots, 2
\underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{h}_1}(t)} = \eta \cdot (\boldsymbol{\delta}^{\mathsf{h}_1} \otimes \mathbf{x}) + \alpha \cdot \underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{h}_1}(t-1)}$$

The term α , $0 \le \alpha < 1$, is called "momentum".

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Learning Rate Adaptation: Momentum (continued)

Momentum principle: a weight adaptation in iteration t considers the adaptation in iteration t-1:

$$\underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{o}}(t)} = \eta \cdot (\boldsymbol{\delta}^{\mathsf{o}} \otimes \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{h}}(\mathbf{x})|_{1,\dots,l}) + \alpha \cdot \underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{o}}(t-1)}
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\underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{h}_1}(t)} = \eta \cdot (\boldsymbol{\delta}^{\mathsf{h}_1} \otimes \mathbf{x}) + \alpha \cdot \underline{\Delta W^{\mathsf{h}_1}(t-1)}$$

The term α , $0 \le \alpha < 1$, is called "momentum".

Effects:

- Due the "adaptation inertia" local minima can be overcome.
- If the direction of the descent does not change, the adaptation increment and, as a consequence, the speed of convergence is increased.

Remarks:

Recap. The symbol ∞ denotes the dyadic product, also called outer product or tensor product. The dyadic product takes two vectors and returns a second order tensor, called a dyadic in this context: $\mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{w} \equiv \mathbf{v} \mathbf{w}^T$. [Wikipedia]

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Chapter ML:IV (continued)

IV. Neural Networks

- Perceptron Learning
- □ Multilayer Perceptron Basics
- □ Multilayer Perceptron with Two Layers
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- □ Advanced MLPs
- Automatic Gradient Computation

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The IGD Algorithm

Algorithm: $\mathsf{IGD}_{\mathsf{MLP}^*}$ IGD for the d-layer MLP with arbitrary model and objective functions.

Multiset of examples (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^p$, $\mathbf{c} \in \{0, 1\}^k$

Input: D Multiset of examples (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^p$, $\mathbf{c} \in \{0, 1\}^k$.

 η , l(), R(), λ Learning rate, loss and regularization functions and parameters.

Output: W^{h_1}, \dots, W^{h_d} Weight matrices of the d layers. (= hypothesis)

```
1. FOR s=1 TO d DO <code>initialize_random_weights</code>(W^{\mathbf{h}_s}) ENDDO, t=0
```

- 2. REPEAT
- 3. t = t + 1
- 4. FOREACH $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) \in D$ DO
- 5. $\mathbf{y}^{h_1}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{tanh}_{(W^{h_1}\mathbf{x})}^1 \end{pmatrix}$ // forward propagation; \mathbf{x} is extended by $x_0 = 1$ FOR s = 2 TO d-1 DO $\mathbf{y}^{h_s}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{ReLU}_{(W^{h_s}\mathbf{y}^{h_{s-1}}(\mathbf{x}))}^1 \end{pmatrix}$ ENDDO $\mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_1(W^{h_d}\mathbf{v}^{h_{d-1}}(\mathbf{x}))$
- $\mathbf{\delta} = \mathbf{c} \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})$
- 7a. $\ell(\mathbf{w}) = l(\delta) + \frac{\lambda}{n} R(\mathbf{w})$ // backpropagation (Steps 7a+7b) $\nabla \ell(\mathbf{w}) = \operatorname{autodiff}(\ell(), \mathbf{w})$
- 7b. FOR s=1 TO d DO $\Delta W^{\mathsf{h}_s}=\eta\cdot\nabla^{\mathsf{h}_s}\mathscr{E}(\mathbf{w})$ ENDDO
 - 8. FOR s=1 TO d DO $W^{\mathsf{h}_s}=W^{\mathsf{h}_s}+{}_{^\Delta}W^{\mathsf{h}_s}$ ENDDO
 - 9. ENDDO
- 10. UNTIL(convergence $(D, \mathbf{y}(\cdot), t)$)
- 11. return $(W^{\mathsf{h}_1},\ldots,W^{\mathsf{h}_d})$

UNTIL(convergence $(D, \mathbf{y}(\cdot), t)$)

 $return(W^{\mathsf{h}_1},\ldots,W^{\mathsf{h}_d})$

The IGD Algorithm (continued)

```
Algorithm: IGD<sub>MLP*</sub>
                                            IGD for the d-layer MLP with arbitrary model and objective functions.
Input:
                                            Multiset of examples (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) with \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^p, \mathbf{c} \in \{0, 1\}^k.
                   \eta, l(), R(), \lambda Learning rate, loss and regularization functions and parameters.
Output: W^{h_1}, \dots, W^{h_d} Weight matrices of the d layers. (= hypothesis)
   1. FOR s=1 TO d DO initialize random weights (W^{h_s}) ENDDO, t=0
   2.
          REPEAT
   3.
         t = t + 1
   4. FOREACH (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) \in D DO
                \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{h}_1}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{tanh}_{(W^{\mathsf{h}_1}\mathbf{x})} \end{pmatrix} // forward propagation; \mathbf{x} is extended by x_0 = 1
   5.
                  FOR s=2 TO d-1 DO \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{h}_s}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ \mathsf{RelU}(W^{\mathsf{h}_s} \mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{h}_{s-1}}(\mathbf{x})) \end{pmatrix} ENDDO
                 \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_1(W^{\mathsf{h}_d} \mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{h}_{d-1}}(\mathbf{x}))
   \delta = \mathbf{c} - \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{x})
         \ell(\mathbf{w}) = l(\boldsymbol{\delta}) + \frac{\lambda}{n}R(\mathbf{w}) // backpropagation (Steps 7a+7b)
 7a.
              \nabla \ell(\mathbf{w}) = \text{autodiff}(\ell(\mathbf{v}), \mathbf{w})
          FOR s=1 to d do \Delta W^{\mathsf{h}_s}=\eta\cdot\nabla^{\mathsf{h}_s}\mathscr{E}(\mathbf{w}) enddo
 7b.
                  FOR s=1 to d do W^{\mathsf{h}_s}=W^{\mathsf{h}_s}+{}_{\Delta}W^{\mathsf{h}_s} enddo
   8.
   9.
              ENDDO
```

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10.

The IGD Algorithm (continued)

Algorithm: IGD_{MLP^*} IGD for the d-layer MLP with arbitrary model and objective functions.

Input: D Multiset of examples (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^p$, $\mathbf{c} \in \{0, 1\}^k$.

 η , l(), R(), λ Learning rate, loss and regularization functions and parameters.

Output: W^{h_1}, \dots, W^{h_d} Weight matrices of the d layers. (= hypothesis)

- 1. FOR s=1 TO d DO initialize_random_weights (W^{h_s}) ENDDO, t=0
- 2. REPEAT
- 3. t = t + 1
- 4. FOREACH $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) \in D$ DO



Model function evaluation.

6. 7a.

Calculation of residual vector.

7b.

Calculation of derivative of the loss.

8.

Parameter vector update $\hat{=}$ one gradient step down.

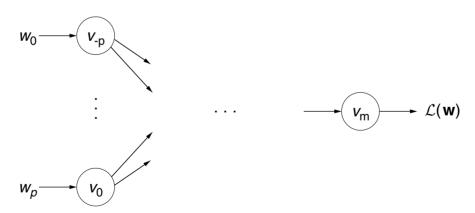
- 9. ENDDO
- 10. UNTIL(convergence $(D, \mathbf{y}(\cdot), t)$)
- 11. $return(W^{h_1}, \ldots, W^{h_d})$

Reverse-Mode Automatic Differentiation in Computational Graphs

Reverse-mode AD corresponds to a generalized backpropagation algorithm.

Let $\mathcal{L}(w_1,\ldots,w_p)$ be the function to be differentiated.

Consider $\mathcal L$ as a computational graph of elementary operations, assigning each intermediate result to a variable v_i with $-p \leq i \leq m$ (naming convention: $v_{-p\dots 0}$ for inputs, $v_{1\dots m-1}$ for intermediate variables, $v_m \equiv \mathcal L$ for the output)



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Reverse-Mode Automatic Differentiation in Computational Graphs (continued)

For each intermediate variable v_i , an adjoint value $\nabla^{v_i} \mathcal{L} \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_i}$ is computed based on its descendants in the computation graph.

$$(1) \qquad \qquad \cdots \qquad \qquad \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$$

(2)
$$v_i$$
 v_k \cdots $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$

$$abla^{v_i} \mathcal{L} \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_i} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_k} \cdot \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_i} =
abla^{v_k} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_i}$$

$$abla^{v_j} \mathcal{L} \equiv rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_j} = rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_k} \cdot rac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_j} =
abla^{v_k} \mathcal{L} \cdot rac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_j}$$

(3)
$$v_{i} \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$$

$$\nabla^{v_j}$$
 \cdots $\nabla^{v_i}\mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_j}\mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial v_i} + \nabla^{v_k}\mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_i}$

Remarks:

- \Box Adjoints are computed in reverse, starting from $\nabla^{v_m} \mathcal{L}$.
- \Box For any step $v_j=g(\ldots,v_i,\ldots)$ in the graph, the local gradients $\frac{\partial g}{\partial v_i}$ must be computable.

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Autodiff Example: Setting

Consider the RSS loss for a simple logistic regression model and a very small dataset.

Dataset:
$$D = \{((1, 1.5)^T, 0), ((1.5, -1)^T, 1)\}$$

Model function: $y(x) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x})$

Loss function:
$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = L_2(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{(\mathbf{x},c)\in D} (c - y(\mathbf{x}))^2$$

 $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$ is the objective function to be minimized, and hence what we want to compute the derivative of; everything except \mathbf{w} is held constant.

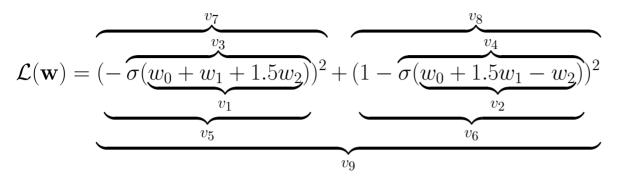
Given the setting above, we can rewrite \mathcal{L} as:

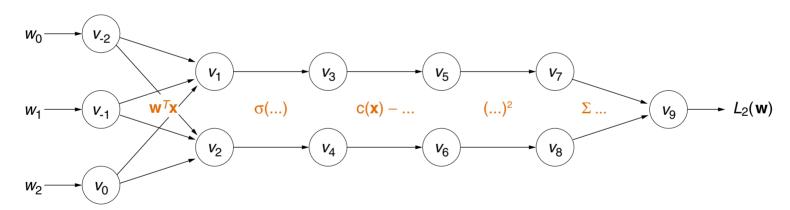
$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = (c_1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_1))^2 + (c_2 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_2))^2$$

= $(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2$

Using reverse-mode automatic differentiation, we'll simultaneously evaluate the loss and its derivative at $\mathbf{w} = (-1, 1.5, 0.5)^T$.

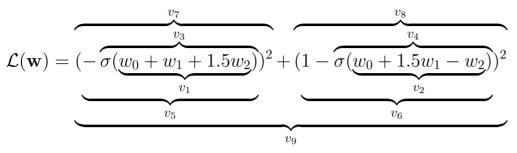
Autodiff Example: Computational Graph





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Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace



= 0.75

at $\mathbf{w} = (-1, 1.5, 0.5)^T$

Forward primal trace		Reverse adjoint trace
$v_0 = w_0$	= -1	
$v_{-1} = w_1$	= 1.5	
$v_{-2} = w_2$	= 0.5	
$v_1 = v_0 + v_{-1} + 1.5 \cdot v_{-2}$	= 1.25	

$$v_{3} = \sigma(v_{1}) = 0.78$$

$$v_{4} = \sigma(v_{2}) = 0.68$$

$$v_{5} = 0 - v_{3} = -0.78$$

$$v_{6} = 1 - v_{4} = 0.32$$

$$v_{7} = v_{5}^{2} = 0.61$$

$$v_{8} = v_{6}^{2} = 0.1$$

$$v_{9} = v_{7} + v_{8} = 0.71$$

$$\mathcal{L} = v_{9} = 0.71$$

 $v_2 = v_0 + 1.5 \cdot v_{-1} - v_{-2}$

= 0.71 = 0.71

Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_1} + \underbrace{(1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_2}$$

 $\mathbf{w} = (-1, 1.5, 0.5)^T$

at

orward primal trace		Reverse adjoint trace	
$v_0 = w_0$	= -1		
$v_{-1} = w_1$	= 1.5		
$v_{-2} = w_2$	= 0.5		
$v_1 = v_0 + v_{-1} + 1.5 \cdot v_{-2}$	= 1.25		
$v_2 = v_0 + 1.5 \cdot v_{-1} - v_{-2}$	= 0.75		
$v_3 = \sigma(v_1)$	= 0.78		
$v_4 = \sigma(v_2)$	= 0.68		
$v_5 = 0 - v_3$	= -0.78		
$v_6 = 1 - v_4$	= 0.32		
$v_7 = v_5^2$	= 0.61		
$v_8 = v_6^2$	= 0.1		
$v_9 = v_7 + v_8$	= 0.71		
$\mathcal{L} = v_9$	= 0.71	$\nabla^{v_9} \mathcal{L} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_9} = 1$	

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Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_1} \underbrace{(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_2}$$

 $\mathbf{w} = (-1, 1.5, 0.5)^T$

at

Forward primal trace		Reverse adjoint trace
$v_0 = w_0$	= -1	
$v_{-1} = w_1$	= 1.5	
$v_{-2} = w_2$	= 0.5	
$v_1 = v_0 + v_{-1} + 1.5 \cdot v_{-2}$	= 1.25	
$v_2 = v_0 + 1.5 \cdot v_{-1} - v_{-2}$	= 0.75	
$v_3 = \sigma(v_1)$	= 0.78	
$v_4 = \sigma(v_2)$	=0.68	
$v_5 = 0 - v_3$	=-0.78	
$v_6 = 1 - v_4$	=0.32	
$v_7 = v_5^2$	= 0.61	
$v_8 = v_6^2$	= 0.1	
$v_9 = v_7 + v_8$	= 0.71	$ abla^{v_8}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_9}\mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_9}{\partial v_8} = 1 \cdot 1 \qquad = 1$
		$\nabla^{v_7} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_9} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_9}{\partial v_7} = 1 \cdot 1 $ = 1
$\mathcal{L} = v_9$	= 0.71	$\nabla^{v_9} \mathcal{L} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_9} \qquad = 1$

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Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_1} \underbrace{(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_2}$$

= 0.75

 $\mathbf{w} = (-1, 1.5, 0.5)^T$

at

Forward primal trace		Reverse adjoint trace
$v_0 = w_0$	= -1	
$v_{-1} = w_1$	= 1.5	
$v_{-2} = w_2$	= 0.5	
$v_1 = v_0 + v_{-1} + 1.5 \cdot v_{-2}$	= 1.25	

 $v_2 = v_0 + 1.5 \cdot v_{-1} - v_{-2}$

Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{(-\sigma(\underbrace{w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2}^{v_3}))^2 + (1 - \sigma(\underbrace{w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2}^{v_8}))^2}_{v_1}$$

 $\mathbf{w} = (-1, 1.5, 0.5)^T$

at

Forward primal trace		Reverse adjoint trace
$v_0 = w_0$	=-1	
$v_{-1} = w_1$	= 1.5	
$v_{-2} = w_2$	= 0.5	
$v_1 = v_0 + v_{-1} + 1.5 \cdot v_{-2}$	= 1.25	

$$v_2 = v_0 + 1.5 \cdot v_{-1} - v_{-2} = 0.75$$

Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_1} + \underbrace{(1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_2}$$

 $\mathbf{w} = (-1, 1.5, 0.5)^T$

at

Forward primal trace		Reverse adjoint trace	
$v_0 = w_0$	= -1		
$v_{-1} = w_1$	= 1.5		
$v_{-2} = w_2$	= 0.5		
$v_1 = v_0 + v_{-1} + 1.5 \cdot v_{-2}$	= 1.25	$\nabla^{v_{-2}}\mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_{-2}}\mathcal{L} + \nabla^{v_1}\mathcal{L} \cdot 1.5$	= 0.54
		$ abla^{v_{-1}}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_{-1}}\mathcal{L} + abla^{v_{1}}\mathcal{L}$	= 0.06
		$ abla^{v_0}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_0}\mathcal{L} + abla^{v_1}\mathcal{L}$	= 0.13
$v_2 = v_0 + 1.5 \cdot v_{-1} - v_{-2}$	= 0.75	$ abla^{v_{-2}}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_2}\mathcal{L} \cdot (-1)$	= 0.14
		$ abla^{v_{-1}}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_2}\mathcal{L} \cdot 1.5$	= -0.28
		$ abla^{v_0}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_2}\mathcal{L}$	= -0.14
$v_3 = \sigma(v_1)$	= 0.78	$\nabla^{v_1} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_3} \mathcal{L} \cdot \sigma(v_1) \cdot (1 - \sigma(v_1))$	= 0.27
$v_4 = \sigma(v_2)$	= 0.68	$\nabla^{v_2} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_4} \mathcal{L} \cdot \sigma(v_2) \cdot (1 - \sigma(v_2))$	= -0.14
$v_5 = 0 - v_3$	= -0.78	$ abla^{v_3}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_5}\mathcal{L} \cdot (-1)$	= 1.55
$v_6 = 1 - v_4$	= 0.32	$ abla^{v_4}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_6}\mathcal{L} \cdot (-1)$	=-0.64
$v_7 = v_5^2$	= 0.61	$\nabla^{v_5} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_7} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_7}{\partial v_5} = \nabla^{v_7} \mathcal{L} \cdot 2v_5$	= -1.55
$v_8 = v_6^2$	= 0.1	$\nabla^{v_6} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_8} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_8}{\partial v_6} = \nabla^{v_8} \mathcal{L} \cdot 2v_6$	= 0.64
$v_9 = v_7 + v_8$	= 0.71	$\nabla^{v_8}\mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_9}\mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial^2 v_9}{\partial v_9} = 1 \cdot 1$	=1
		$\nabla^{v_7} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_9} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_9}{\partial v_7} = 1 \cdot 1$	=1
$\mathcal{L} = v_9$	= 0.71	$ abla^{v_9}\mathcal{L} = rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_9}$	= 1

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Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_1} + \underbrace{(1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_2}$$

 $\mathbf{w} = (-1, 1.5, 0.5)^T$

at

Forward primal trace		Reverse adjoint trace	
$v_0 = w_0$	= -1	$ abla^{w_0}\mathcal{L} = rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_0} = abla^{v_0}\mathcal{L}$	= 0.13
$v_{-1} = w_1$	= 1.5	$ abla^{w_1}\mathcal{L} = rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_1} = abla^{v_{-1}}\mathcal{L}$	= 0.06
$v_{-2} = w_2$	= 0.5	$ abla^{w_2}\mathcal{L} = rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_2} = abla^{v_{-2}}\mathcal{L}$	=0.54
$v_1 = v_0 + v_{-1} + 1.5 \cdot v_{-2}$	= 1.25	$\nabla^{v_{-2}}\mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_{-2}}\mathcal{L} + \nabla^{v_1}\mathcal{L} \cdot 1.5$	= 0.54
		$ abla^{v_{-1}}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_{-1}}\mathcal{L} + abla^{v_{1}}\mathcal{L}$	= 0.06
		$ abla^{v_0}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_0}\mathcal{L} + abla^{v_1}\mathcal{L}$	= 0.13
$v_2 = v_0 + 1.5 \cdot v_{-1} - v_{-2}$	= 0.75	$ abla^{v_{-2}}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_2}\mathcal{L} \cdot (-1)$	= 0.14
		$\nabla^{v_{-1}}\mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_2}\mathcal{L} \cdot 1.5$	=-0.28
		$ abla^{v_0}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_2}\mathcal{L}$	= -0.14
$v_3 = \sigma(v_1)$	= 0.78	$\nabla^{v_1} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_3} \mathcal{L} \cdot \sigma(v_1) \cdot (1 - \sigma(v_1))$	= 0.27
$v_4 = \sigma(v_2)$	= 0.68	$\nabla^{v_2} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_4} \mathcal{L} \cdot \sigma(v_2) \cdot (1 - \sigma(v_2))$	= -0.14
$v_5 = 0 - v_3$	= -0.78	$ abla^{v_3}\mathcal{L} = abla^{v_5}\mathcal{L} \cdot (-1)$	= 1.55
$v_6 = 1 - v_4$	= 0.32	$\nabla^{v_4} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_6} \mathcal{L} \cdot (-1)$	= -0.64
$v_7 = v_5^2$	= 0.61	$\nabla^{v_5} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_7} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_7}{\partial v_5} = \nabla^{v_7} \mathcal{L} \cdot 2v_5$	= -1.55
$v_8 = v_6^2$	= 0.1	$\nabla^{v_6} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_8} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial^{v_8}}{\partial v_6} = \nabla^{v_8} \mathcal{L} \cdot 2v_6$	= 0.64
$v_9 = v_7 + v_8$	= 0.71	$\nabla^{v_8} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_9} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial^{v_9}}{\partial v_9} = 1 \cdot 1$	=1
		$\nabla^{v_7}\mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_9}\mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_9}{\partial v_7} = 1 \cdot 1$	=1
$\mathcal{L} = v_9$	= 0.71	$ abla^{v_9}\mathcal{L} = rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_9}$	= 1

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Remarks:

- For brevity, in the example, we assumed that the derivative $\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\sigma(z)=\sigma(z)\cdot(1-\sigma(z))$ is already known. We could also have decomposed $\sigma(z)=\frac{1}{1+\exp(-z)}$ into e.g., $v_1=-z, v_2=\exp(v_1),$ $v_3=1+v_2, v_4=\frac{1}{v_2}$. In this case, only the four atomic derivatives would need to be known.
- ☐ The function to be automatically differentiated need not have a closed-form representation; it only has to be composed of computable and differentiable atomic steps. Thus, AD can also compute derivatives for various algorithms that may take different branches depending on the input.

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Reverse-mode Autodiff Algorithm for Scalar-valued Functions

Algorithm: autodiff Reverse-mode automatic differentiation

Input: $f: \mathbf{R}^p \to \mathbf{R}$ Function to differentiate.

 $(w_1,\ldots,w_p)^T$ Point at which the gradient should be evaluated

Output: $(\bar{w}_1, \dots, \bar{w}_p)^T$ Gradient of f at the point $(w_1, \dots, w_p)^T$.

1.
$$\bar{w}_i = 0$$
 for i in $1 \dots p$

// initialize gradients

2.
$$v_1, \ldots, v_k = operands(f)$$

3.
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial v_1}, \ldots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_k} = gradients(f)$$
 // gradient of f wrt. its immediate operands

4. FOREACH
$$i = 1, \ldots, k$$
 DO

5. IF
$$v_j \in \{w_1, \dots, w_p\}$$
 THEN

6.
$$\bar{v}_j += \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_j}$$

7. ELSE

8.
$$(\bar{w}_1,\ldots,\bar{w}_p)^T += \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_i} \cdot autodiff(v_j,(w_1,\ldots,w_p)^T)$$

9. RETURN $(\bar{w}_1,\ldots,\bar{w}_p)^T$

Remarks:

There exists also a forward mode of automatic differentiation. One key difference is in the runtime complexity; for a function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$, to compute all $n \cdot m$ partial derivatives in the Jacobian matrix requires O(n) iterations in forward mode and O(m) iterations in reverse mode. Reverse mode is usually preferred in machine learning, where we typically have m=1 (a scalar loss), and n arbitrarily large (e.g., billions of parameters of a deep neural network). See also [Baydin et al., 2018].

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