

# 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**

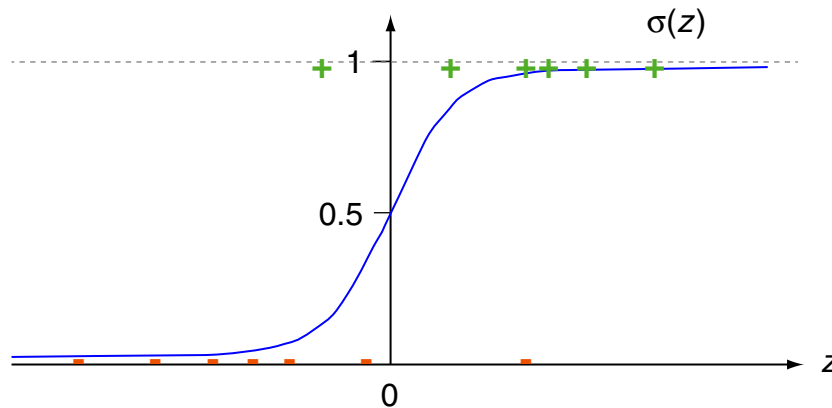
# Advanced MLPs

## Output Normalization: Softmax

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

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

$z$  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  $z = \mathbf{w}_d^T \mathbf{y}^{h_{d-1}}$ .



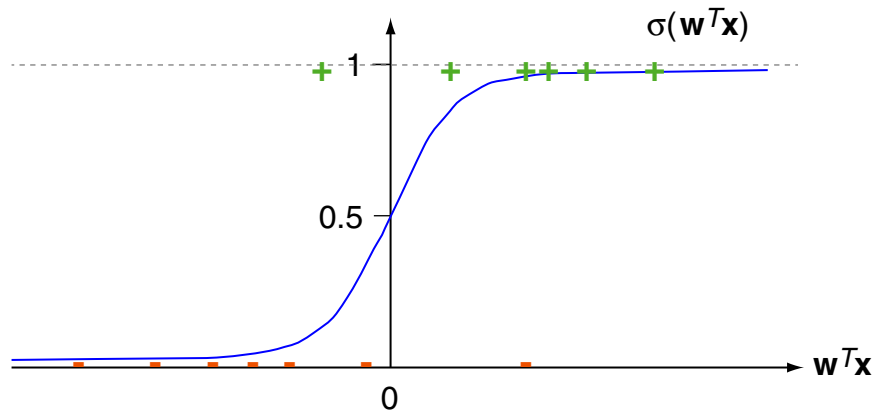
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## Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

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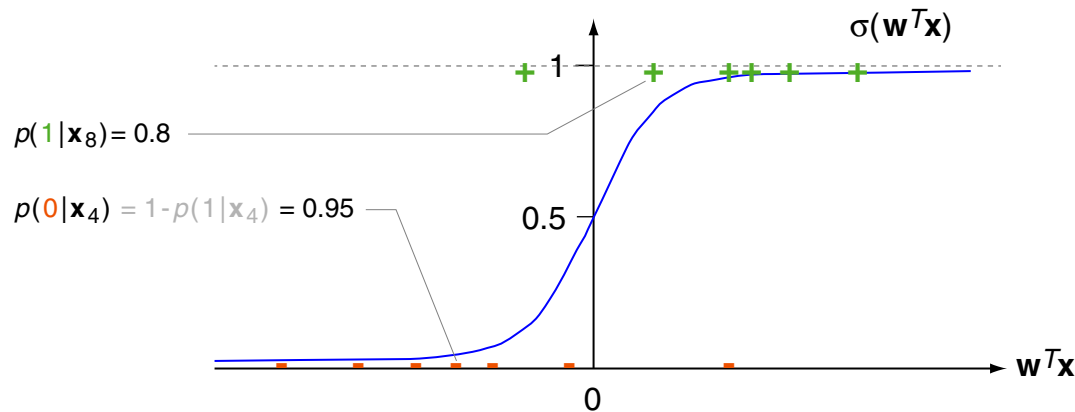
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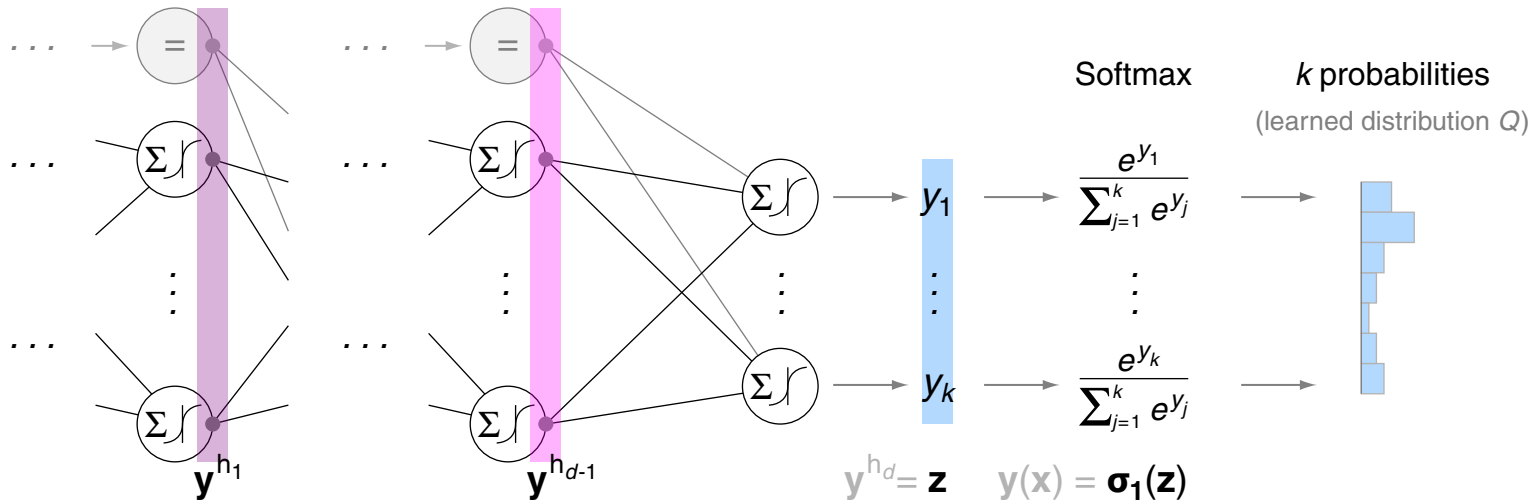
# Advanced MLPs

## Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

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

$$\sigma_1(\mathbf{z})|_i = \frac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^k e^{z_j}}$$

Multi-layer perceptron for  $k$  classes:



[\[cross-entropy loss\]](#)

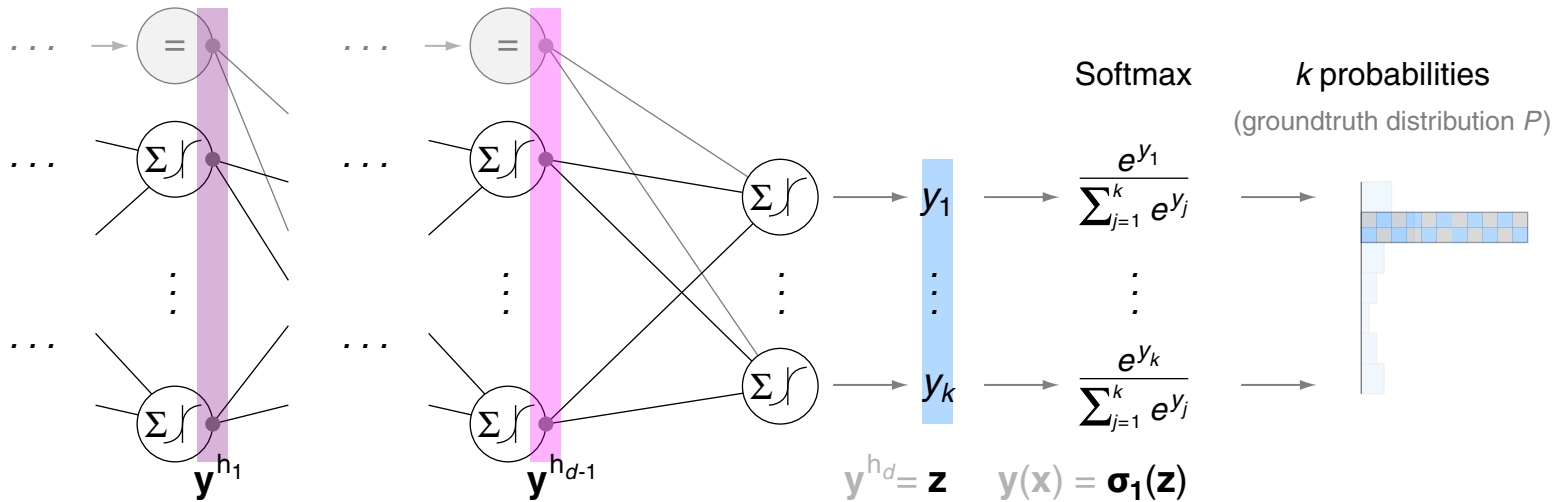
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Multi-layer perceptron for  $k$  classes:



[\[cross-entropy loss\]](#)

## Remarks:

- The standard  $k-1$ -simplex, denoted as  $\Delta^{k-1}$ , 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.
- 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:

$$\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} p(1 | \mathbf{x}) \\ p(0 | \mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma(z) \\ 1 - \sigma(z) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \\ \sigma(-z) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{e^z}{1 + e^z} \\ \frac{1}{1 + e^z} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{e^z}{e^0 + e^z} \\ \frac{e^0}{e^0 + e^z} \end{bmatrix} = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_1\left(\begin{pmatrix} z \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}\right)$$

# Advanced MLPs

## Loss Function: Cross-Entropy

### Definition 2 (Cross Entropy)

Let  $C$  be a random variable with distribution  $P$  and a finite number of realizations  $\mathcal{C}$ . 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:

$$H(P, Q) = - \sum_{c \in \mathcal{C}} P(\mathbf{C}=c) \cdot \log (Q(\mathbf{C}=c))$$



# Advanced MLPs

## Loss Function: Cross-Entropy (continued)

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- 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  $P$ .

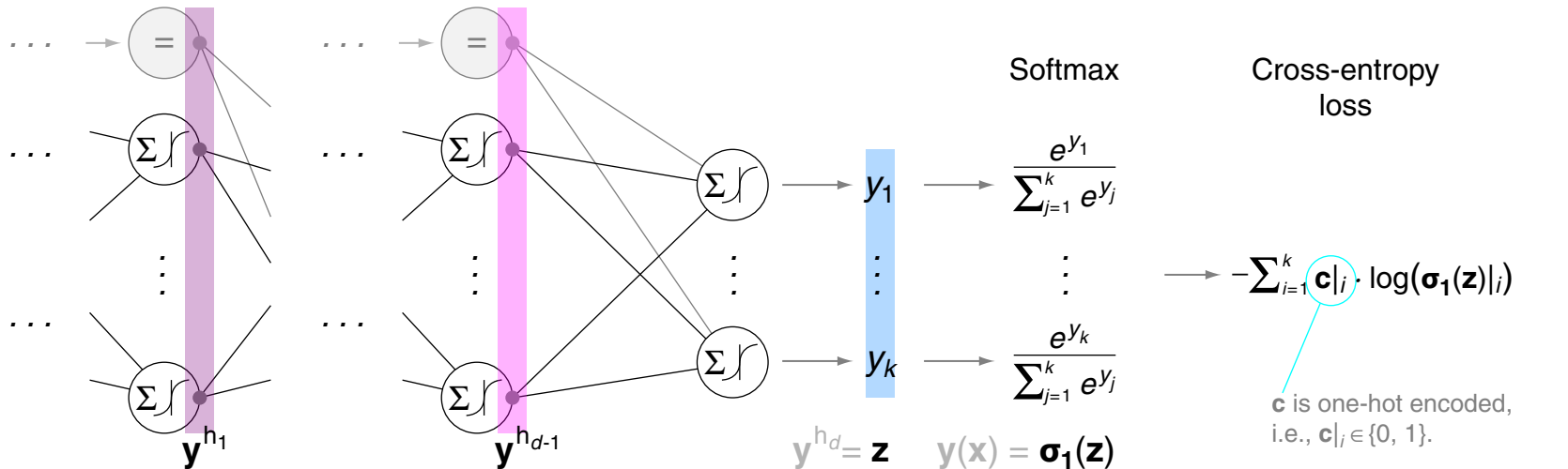
# Advanced MLPs

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[softmax]

# Advanced MLPs

## Cross-Entropy in Classification Settings

[logistic loss: definition, derivation]

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

- ❑ Random variable  $\mathbf{C}$  denotes a class.
- ❑ Realizations of  $\mathbf{C}$ :  $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_k\}$ .
- ❑  $P, Q$  define distributions of  $\mathbf{C}$ .

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

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

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

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

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

- ❑  $k$  classes, hot-encoded as  $\mathbf{c}^T$ ,  
 $\mathbf{c}^T \in \{(1, 0, \dots, 0), \dots, (0, \dots, 0, 1)\}$ .
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# Advanced MLPs

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[logistic loss: definition, derivation]

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# Advanced MLPs

## Cross-Entropy in Classification Settings (continued)

[logistic loss: [definition](#), [derivation](#)]

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## 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  $c|_i$  (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):

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

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

- ❑  $\mathbf{c}|_i$  denotes the projection operator, which returns the  $i$ th vector component (dimension) of  $\mathbf{c}$ ,  $\mathbf{c} = (c_1, \dots, c_k)$ .
- ❑ If not stated otherwise,  $\log$  means  $\log_2$ .

# Advanced MLPs

Activation Function: Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)

[*TODO*]

# Advanced MLPs

Regularization: Dropout

[*TODO*]



# Advanced MLPs

## Learning Rate Adaptation: Momentum

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

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

$$\underline{\Delta W^h(t)} = \eta \cdot (\boldsymbol{\delta}^h \otimes \mathbf{x}) + \alpha \cdot \Delta W^h(t-1)$$

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

$$\underline{\Delta W^{h_1}(t)} = \eta \cdot (\boldsymbol{\delta}^{h_1} \otimes \mathbf{x}) + \alpha \cdot \Delta W^{h_1}(t-1)$$

The term  $\alpha$ ,  $0 \leq \alpha < 1$ , is called “momentum”.

# Advanced MLPs

## Learning Rate Adaptation: Momentum (continued)

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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  $\gg \otimes \ll$  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:  $\mathbf{v} \otimes \mathbf{w} \equiv \mathbf{vw}^T$ . [[Wikipedia](#)]

# Chapter ML:IV (continued)

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- ❑ Advanced MLPs
- ❑ Automatic Gradient Computation

# Automatic Gradient Computation

## The IGD Algorithm

Algorithm:  $\text{IGD}_{\text{MLP}^*}$  IGD for the  $d$ -layer MLP with arbitrary model and objective functions.  
Input:  $D$  Multiset of examples  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c})$  with  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^p$ ,  $\mathbf{c} \in \{0, 1\}^k$ .  
 $\eta, l(), R(), \lambda$  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
5.      $\mathbf{y}^{h_1}(\mathbf{x}) = (\tanh_{(W^{h_1} \mathbf{x})}^1)$  // forward propagation;  $\mathbf{x}$  is extended by  $x_0 = 1$ 
     FOR  $s = 2$  TO  $d-1$  DO  $\mathbf{y}^{h_s}(\mathbf{x}) = (\text{ReLU}_{(W^{h_s} \mathbf{y}^{h_{s-1}}(\mathbf{x}))}^1)$  ENDDO
      $\mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma_1(W^{h_d} \mathbf{y}^{h_{d-1}}(\mathbf{x}))$ 
6.      $\delta = \mathbf{c} - \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x})$ 
7a.     $\ell(\mathbf{w}) = l(\delta) + \frac{\lambda}{n} R(\mathbf{w})$  // backpropagation (Steps 7a+7b)
         $\nabla \ell(\mathbf{w}) = \text{autodiff}(\ell(), \mathbf{w})$ 
7b.    FOR  $s = 1$  TO  $d$  DO  $\Delta W^{h_s} = \eta \cdot \nabla^{h_s} \ell(\mathbf{w})$  ENDDO
8.    FOR  $s = 1$  TO  $d$  DO  $W^{h_s} = W^{h_s} + \Delta W^{h_s}$  ENDDO
9.   ENDDO
10. UNTIL(convergence( $D, \mathbf{y}(\cdot), t$ ))
11. return( $W^{h_1}, \dots, W^{h_d}$ )
```

# Automatic Gradient Computation

## The IGD Algorithm (continued)

Algorithm:  $\text{IGD}_{\text{MLP}^*}$  IGD for the  $d$ -layer MLP with arbitrary model and objective functions.  
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# Automatic Gradient Computation





## The IGD Algorithm (continued)

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2. REPEAT
3.    $t = t + 1$ 
4.   FOREACH  $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) \in D$  DO
5.      Model function evaluation.
6.      Calculation of residual vector.
7a.     Calculation of derivative of the loss.
7b.     Parameter vector update  $\hat{=}$  one gradient step down.
8.   ENDDO
9. UNTIL(convergence( $D, \mathbf{y}(\cdot), t$ ))
11. return( $W^{h_1}, \dots, W^{h_d}$ )
```

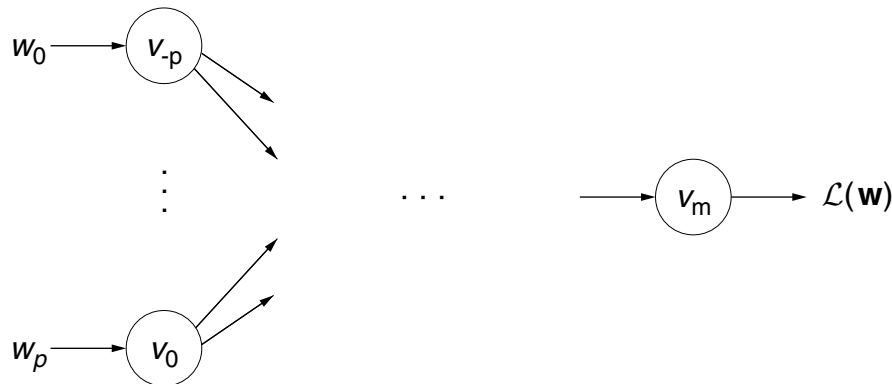
# Automatic Gradient Computation

## Reverse-Mode Automatic Differentiation in Computational Graphs

Reverse-mode AD corresponds to a generalized backpropagation algorithm.

Let  $\mathcal{L}(w_1, \dots, w_p)$  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)

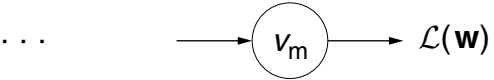


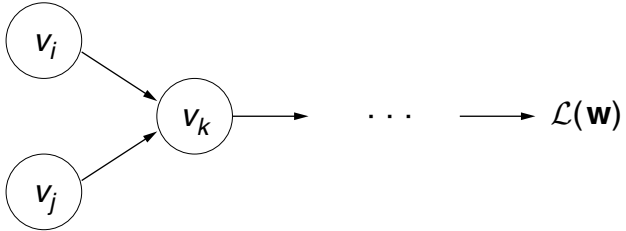


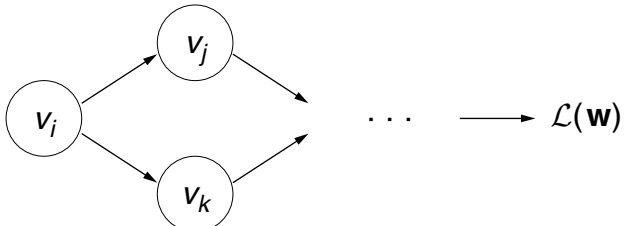
# Automatic Gradient Computation

## 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)   $\nabla^{v_m} \mathcal{L} \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_m} = \frac{\partial v_m}{\partial v_m} = 1$

(2)  
$$\nabla^{v_i} \mathcal{L} \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_i} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_k} \cdot \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_i} = \nabla^{v_k} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_i}$$
$$\nabla^{v_j} \mathcal{L} \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_j} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_k} \cdot \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_j} = \nabla^{v_k} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_j}$$

(3)  
$$\nabla^{v_i} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_j} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial v_i} + \nabla^{v_k} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_i}$$

## Remarks:

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

# Automatic Gradient Computation

## 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:

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) &= (c_1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_1))^2 + (c_2 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_2))^2 \\ &= (-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2\end{aligned}$$

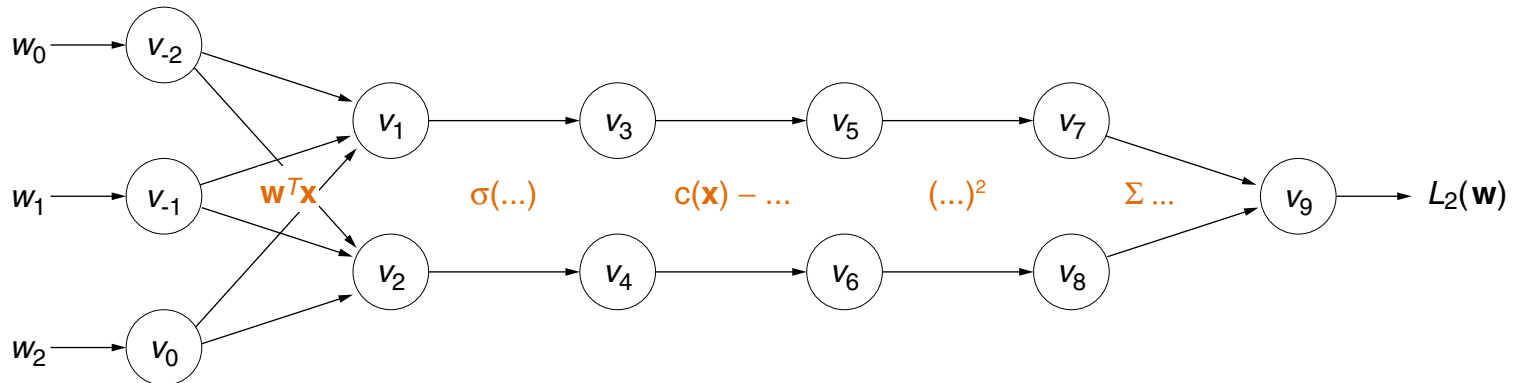
Using reverse-mode automatic differentiation, we'll simultaneously evaluate the loss and its derivative at  $\mathbf{w} = (-1, 1.5, 0.5)^T$ .

# Automatic Gradient Computation

## Autodiff Example: Computational Graph

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{v_7}_{v_3}}_{v_1}}_{v_5}}_{v_9}^2 + \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{v_8}_{v_4}}_{v_2}}_{v_6}}_{v_9}^2$$

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



# Automatic Gradient Computation

## Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2}_{v_1}}_{v_3}}_{v_5}}_{v_7}^2 + \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2}_{v_2}}_{v_4}}_{v_6}}_{v_8}^2$$

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

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

# Automatic Gradient Computation

## Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2}_{v_1}}_{v_3}}_{v_5}}_{v_7}^2 + \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2}_{v_2}}_{v_4}}_{v_6}}_{v_8}^2$$

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

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

# Automatic Gradient Computation

## Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2}_{v_1}}_{v_3}}_{v_5}}_{v_7}^2 + \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2}_{v_2}}_{v_4}}_{v_6}^2$$

at

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

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

# Automatic Gradient Computation

## Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2}_{v_1}}_{v_3}}_{v_5}}_{v_9}^2 + \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2}_{v_2}}_{v_4}}_{v_6}^2$$

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

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



# Automatic Gradient Computation

## Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{v_7}_{w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2}}_{v_3}}_{v_1}}_{v_5}^2 + \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{v_8}_{w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2}}_{v_4}}_{v_2}}_{v_6}^2$$

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

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

# Automatic Gradient Computation

## Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{v_7}_{v_3}}_{v_1}}_{v_5}}_{v_9}^2 + \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{v_8}_{v_4}}_{v_2}}_{v_6}}_{v_9}^2 \quad \text{at} \quad \mathbf{w} = (-1, 1.5, 0.5)^T$$

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

# Automatic Gradient Computation

## Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{v_7}_{v_3}}_{v_1}}_{v_5}}_{v_9}^2 + \underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{\underbrace{v_8}_{v_4}}_{v_2}}_{v_6}}_{v_9}^2 \quad \text{at} \quad \mathbf{w} = (-1, 1.5, 0.5)^T$$

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

## 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.,  $v_1 = -z$ ,  $v_2 = \exp(v_1)$ ,  $v_3 = 1 + v_2$ ,  $v_4 = \frac{1}{v_3}$ . 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.

# Automatic Gradient Computation

## Reverse-mode Autodiff Algorithm for Scalar-valued Functions

Algorithm: autodiff      Reverse-mode automatic differentiation

Input:  $f : \mathbf{R}^p \rightarrow \mathbf{R}$       Function to differentiate.  
 $(w_1, \dots, w_p)^T$       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.  $v_1, \dots, v_k = \text{operands}(f)$ 
3.  $\frac{\partial f}{\partial v_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_k} = \text{gradients}(f)$     // gradient of  $f$  wrt. its immediate operands
4. FOREACH  $j = 1, \dots, k$  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.          $(\bar{w}_1, \dots, \bar{w}_p)^T += \frac{\partial f}{\partial v_j} \cdot \text{autodiff}(v_j, (w_1, \dots, w_p)^T)$ 
9. RETURN  $(\bar{w}_1, \dots, \bar{w}_p)^T$ 
```

## Remarks:

- There exists also a forward mode of automatic differentiation. One key difference is in the runtime complexity; for a function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^m$ , 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 [\[Baydin et al., 2018\]](#).