Chapter ML:IV (continued)

IV. Neural Networks

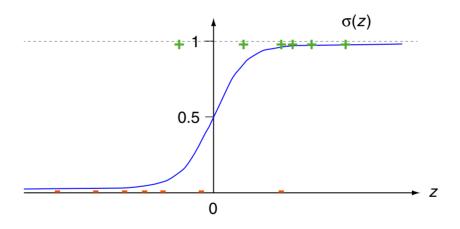
- Perceptron Learning
- □ Multilayer Perceptron Basics
- □ Multilayer Perceptron with Two Layers
- □ Multilayer Perceptron at Arbitrary Depth
- Advanced MLPs
- □ Automatic Gradient Computation

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

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

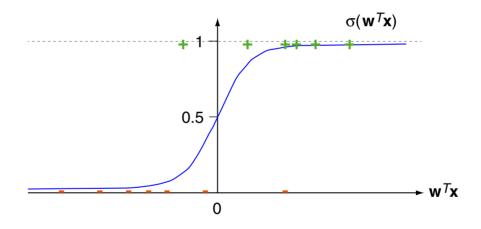


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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

For two classes (k=2), the scalar sigmoid output $\sigma(z)$ determines both class probabilities for \mathbf{x} : $p(1\mid\mathbf{x}):=\sigma(z)$ and $p(0\mid\mathbf{x}):=1-\sigma(z)$.

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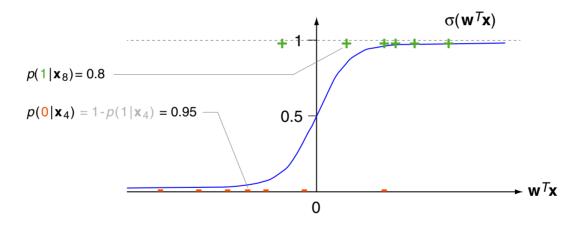


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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

For two classes (k=2), the scalar sigmoid output $\sigma(z)$ determines both class probabilities for \mathbf{x} : $p(1 \mid \mathbf{x}) := \sigma(z)$ and $p(0 \mid \mathbf{x}) := 1 - \sigma(z)$.

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

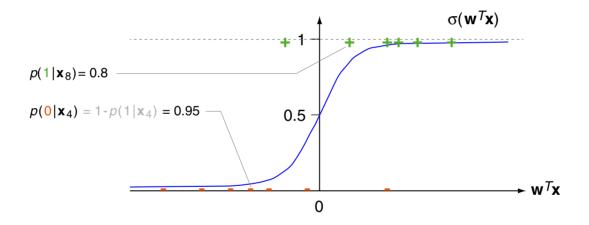


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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

For two classes (k=2), the scalar sigmoid output $\sigma(z)$ determines both class probabilities for \mathbf{x} : $p(1\mid\mathbf{x}):=\sigma(z)$ and $p(0\mid\mathbf{x}):=1-\sigma(z)$.

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



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 (to k exclusive classes) [Wikipedia]:

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

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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

The class probabilities for the two-class setting can be represented as an equivalent softmax vector:

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

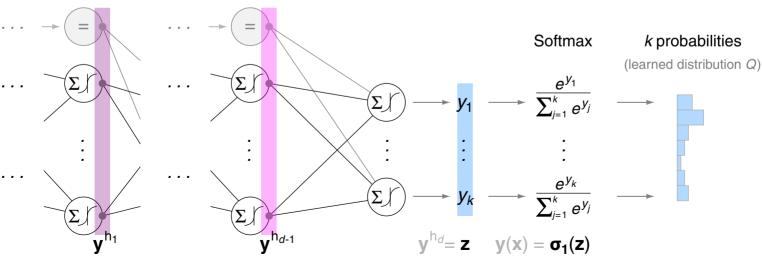
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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

The class probabilities for the two-class setting can be represented as an equivalent softmax vector:

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

General case for *k* classes:



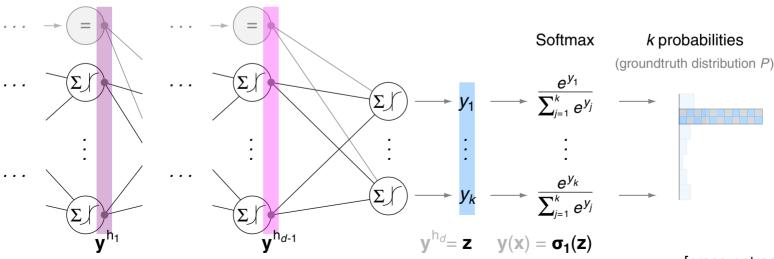
[cross-entropy loss]

Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

The class probabilities for the two-class setting can be represented as an equivalent softmax vector:

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

General case for *k* classes:



[cross-entropy loss]

Remarks:

The standard k-1-simplex contains all k-tuples with non-negative elements that sum to 1:

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

☐ The softmax function ensures Axiom I (positivity) and Axiom II (unitarity) of Kolmogorov.

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:

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

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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:

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

- \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.
- \Box 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.

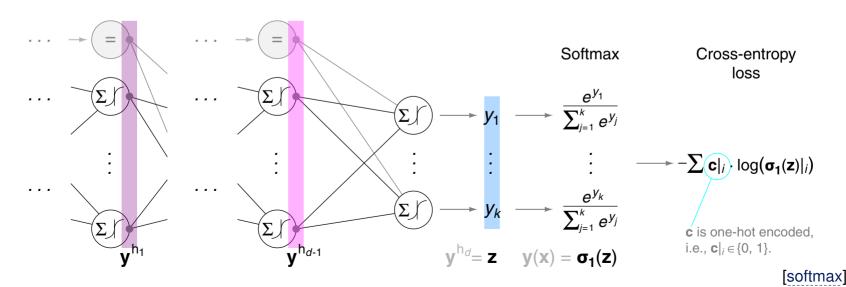
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Loss Function: Cross-Entropy (continued)

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:

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



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Cross-Entropy in Classification Settings

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

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

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

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

$$\Box$$
 Probability functions p,q related to P,Q .

Class labels
$$C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_k\}.$$

I two classes encoded as
$$c, c \in \{0, 1\}$$

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

$$\Box \quad \text{Classifier output } \sigma(z) \quad z = u(\mathbf{x})$$

$$l_{oldsymbol{\sigma}_1}(\mathbf{z}) = -\sum^k \mathbf{c}|_i \cdot \log \left(oldsymbol{\sigma}_1(\mathbf{z})|_i
ight)$$

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

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)

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

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

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

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

$$\Box$$
 Probability functions p, q related to P, Q .

Class labels
$$C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_k\}.$$

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

$$\Box$$
 Two classes encoded as $c, c \in \{0, 1\}$.

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

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

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

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

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

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

Cross-Entropy in Classification Settings (continued)

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

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

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

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

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

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

 \Box k classes, hot-encoded as \mathbf{c}^T .

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

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

Remarks:

- \Box If not stated otherwise, log means log $\underline{}$.
- □ Synonyms: cross-entropy loss function, logarithmic loss, log loss, logistic loss.

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Activation Function: Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)

 $\sim \mathcal{BOARD}$

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Regularization: Dropout

 $ightsquigarrow \mathcal{BOARD}$

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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:

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

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

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
- □ Multilayer Perceptron at Arbitrary Depth
- □ Advanced MLPs
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The IGD Algorithm

```
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.
                 D
                                          Learning rate, a small positive constant.
                  \eta
                  l, \lambda, R loss and regularization terms.
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^{\mathsf{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}) \end{pmatrix} // forward propagation; \mathbf{x} is extended by x_0 = 1
                 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{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_1(W^{\mathsf{h}_d} \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{h}_{d-1}}(\mathbf{x}))
        \ell(\mathbf{w}) = l(\mathbf{c}, y(\mathbf{x})) + \frac{\lambda}{n} R(\mathbf{w}) // backpropagation (Steps 6+7)
   6.
           FOR s=1 to d do {}_{\Delta}W^{\mathsf{h}_s}=\eta\cdot(?) ENDDO
   7.
                 FOR s=1 TO d DO W^{\mathsf{h}_s}=W^{\mathsf{h}_s}+{}_{\vartriangle}W^{\mathsf{h}_s} ENDDO
   8.
   9.
             ENDDO
```

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

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

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

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

The IGD Algorithm (continued)

```
Algorithm: IGD<sub>MI P*</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.
                  D
                                            Learning rate, a small positive constant.
                   \eta
                   l, \lambda, R loss and regularization terms.
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}) = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{tanh}(W^{h_1}\mathbf{x}) \end{pmatrix} // forward propagation; \mathbf{x} is extended by x_0 = 1
                  FOR s=2 TO d-1 DO \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{h}_s}(\mathbf{x}) = \left( \frac{1}{\mathsf{Rel} \bigcup_{(W^{\mathsf{h}_s} \mathbf{v}^{\mathsf{h}_{s-1}}(\mathbf{x}))}} \right) ENDDO
                 \mathbf{y}(\mathbf{x}) = \boldsymbol{\sigma}_1(W^{\mathsf{h}_d} \mathbf{y}^{\mathsf{h}_{d-1}}(\mathbf{x}))
   6. \ell(\mathbf{w}) = \ell(\mathbf{c}, y(\mathbf{x})) + \frac{\lambda}{n} R(\mathbf{w}) // backpropagation (Steps 6+7)
                \nabla \ell(\mathbf{w}) = \mathsf{autodiff}(\ell, \mathbf{w})
            FOR s=1 to d do {\scriptscriptstyle \Delta}W^{\mathsf{h}_s}=\eta\cdot(
abla^{\mathsf{h}_s}\ell(\mathbf{w})) Enddo
   7.
                 FOR s=1 TO d DO W^{\mathsf{h}_s}=W^{\mathsf{h}_s}+{}_{\vartriangle}W^{\mathsf{h}_s} ENDDO
   8.
   9.
              ENDDO
```

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The IGD Algorithm (continued)

Algorithm: IGD_{MLP*} IGD for the *d*-layer MLP with arbitrary model and objective functions. Input: Multiset of examples (\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^p$, $\mathbf{c} \in \{0, 1\}^k$. DLearning rate, a small positive constant. η l, λ, R loss and regularization terms. W^{h_1}, \ldots, W^{h_d} Weight matrices of the d layers. (= hypothesis) Output: 1. FOR s=1 TO d DO initialize random weights (W^{h_s}) ENDDO, t=02.. REPEAT 3. t = t + 1FOREACH $(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{c}) \in D$ DO 4. 5. Model function evaluation. 6. Calculation of <Todo> at all layers. 7. Calculation of derivatives. 8. Parameter vector update = one gradient step down. 9. **ENDDO UNTIL**(convergence $(D, \mathbf{y}(\cdot), t)$) 10.

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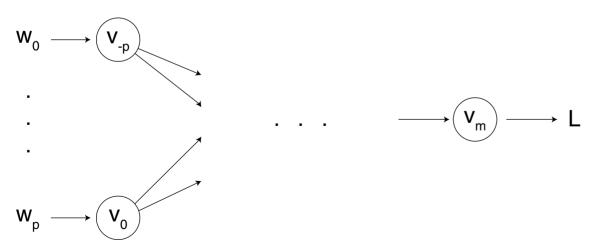
 $return(W^{\mathsf{h}_1},\ldots,W^{\mathsf{h}_d})$

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.

floor 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 $\nabla^{v_i} \mathcal{L} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_i}$ is computed based on its descendants in the computation graph.

$$(1) \qquad \qquad . \quad . \quad . \quad \longrightarrow \stackrel{\frown}{(v_m)} \longrightarrow L$$

$$\overline{V}_{m} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial V_{m}} = \frac{\partial V_{m}}{\partial V_{m}} = 1$$

$$(2)$$

$$v_{i}$$

$$v_{k}$$

$$\cdot \cdot \cdot \longrightarrow L$$

$$\overline{\mathbf{v}}_{i} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{L}}{\partial \mathbf{v}_{i}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{L}}{\partial \mathbf{v}_{k}} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}_{k}}{\partial \mathbf{v}_{i}} = \overline{\mathbf{v}}_{k} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}_{k}}{\partial \mathbf{v}_{i}}$$

$$\overline{\mathbf{v}}_{j} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{L}}{\partial \mathbf{v}_{j}} = \frac{\partial \mathbf{L}}{\partial \mathbf{v}_{k}} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}_{k}}{\partial \mathbf{v}_{j}} = \overline{\mathbf{v}}_{k} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{v}_{k}}{\partial \mathbf{v}_{j}}$$

$$(3) \qquad v_{j} \qquad \cdots \qquad \longrightarrow L$$

$$\overline{V}_{i} = \overline{V}_{j} \frac{\partial V_{j}}{\partial V_{i}} + \overline{V}_{k} \frac{\partial V_{k}}{\partial V_{i}}$$

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.

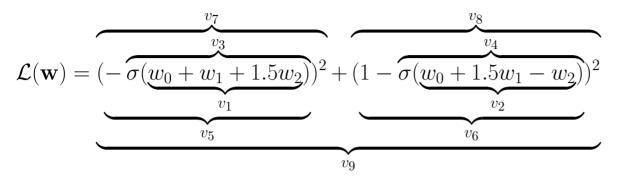
Given the setting above, we can rewrite \mathcal{L} as:

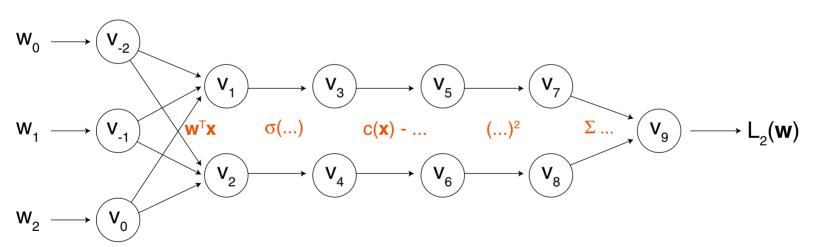
$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = (c_1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_1))^2 + (c_2 - \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_2))^2$$

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

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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Example: Forward and Reverse Trace

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

= 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	

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

= 0.71

 $\mathcal{L} = v_9$

Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{(-\underbrace{\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2)}^{v_7})^2 + (1 - \underbrace{\sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2)}^{v_8})^2}_{v_9}$$

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

Forward Primal Trace		Reverse Adjoint T	race	
$v_0 = w_0$	= -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			
2 0 1 1 1 1 2				
$v_3 = \sigma(v_1)$	= 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	$ abla^{v_9}\mathcal{L}=rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_9}$		= 1

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Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

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

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_9} = 1 \cdot 1 $
$\mathcal{L} = v_9$	= 0.71	$\nabla^{v_9} \mathcal{L} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_9} \qquad = 1$

Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

= 0.75

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_1} \underbrace{(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_9}$$

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

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	

$$v_{2} = v_{0} + 1.5 \cdot v_{-1} - v_{-2} = 0.75$$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

$$v_{1} = 0.75$$

$$\nabla^{v_{3}} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_{5}} \mathcal{L} \cdot (-1) = 1.55$$

$$\nabla^{v_{4}} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_{6}} \mathcal{L} \cdot (-1) = -0.64$$

$$\nabla^{v_{5}} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_{7}} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_{7}}{\partial v_{5}} = \nabla^{v_{7}} \mathcal{L} \cdot 2v_{5} = -1.55$$

$$\nabla^{v_{8}} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_{8}} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_{8}}{\partial v_{6}} = \nabla^{v_{8}} \mathcal{L} \cdot 2v_{6} = 0.64$$

$$\nabla^{v_{8}} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_{9}} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_{9}}{\partial v_{9}} = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$$

$$\nabla^{v_{7}} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_{9}} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_{9}}{\partial v_{7}} = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$$

$$\nabla^{v_{9}} \mathcal{L} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_{9}} = 1 \cdot 1 = 1$$

Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_1} \underbrace{(-\sigma(w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2))^2 + (1 - \sigma(w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2))^2}_{v_9}$$

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

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		

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

Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

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

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

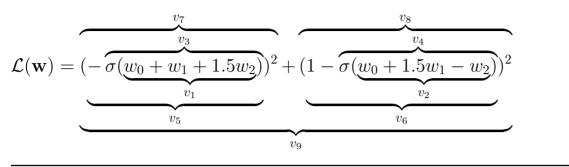
at

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	$\nabla^{v-2}\mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v-2}\mathcal{L} + \nabla^{v_1}\mathcal{L} \cdot 1.5$	= 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		=-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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Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)



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

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	$ 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	$\nabla^{v_8} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_9} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial^2 v_9}{\partial v_8} = 1 \cdot 1$	=1
		$ abla^{v_7}\mathcal{L} = abla^{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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