# Chapter ML:IV (continued)

#### IV. Neural Networks

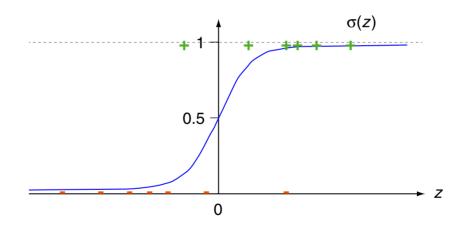
- Perceptron Learning
- □ Multilayer Perceptron Basics
- □ Multilayer Perceptron with Two Layers
- □ Multilayer Perceptron at Arbitrary Depth
- Advanced MLPs
- □ Automatic Gradient Computation

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

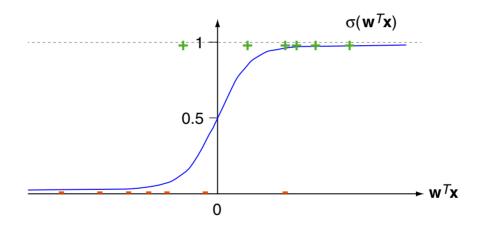


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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

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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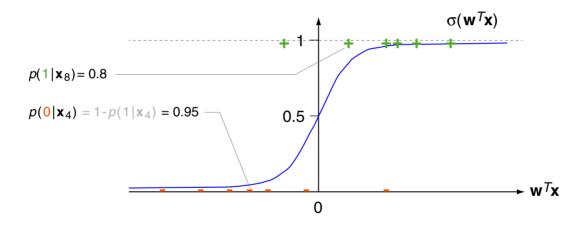


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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

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

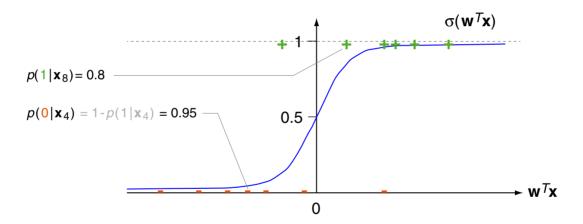


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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

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

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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:

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

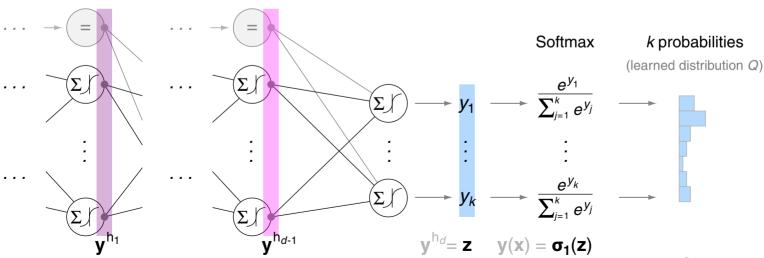
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Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

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

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

#### General case for *k* classes:



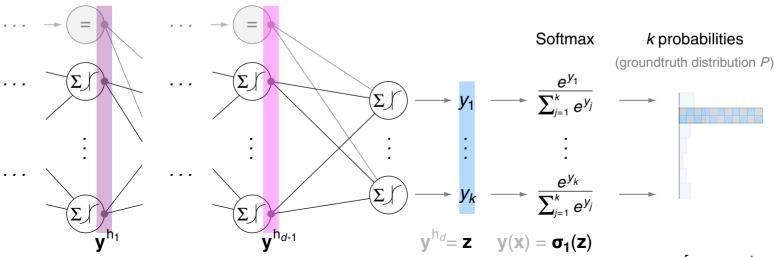
[cross-entropy loss]

Output Normalization: Softmax (continued)

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

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

#### General case for *k* classes:



[cross-entropy loss]

#### Remarks:

 $\Box$  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:

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

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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:

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

- □ 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.

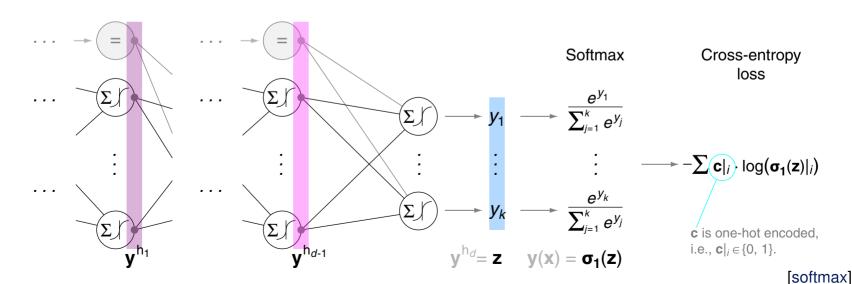
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Loss Function: Cross-Entropy (continued)

## **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:

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Cross-Entropy in Classification Settings

[logistic loss: definition, derivation]

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

- $\square$  Random variable C denotes a class.
- 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.
- $\Box$  Class labels  $C = \{c_1, \ldots, c_k\}.$

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

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

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

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

Cross-Entropy in Classification Settings (continued)

[logistic loss: definition, derivation]

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

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  $C = \{c_1, \dots, c_k\}$ .

$$l_{\sigma}(z) = -c \cdot \log(\sigma(z)) - (1-c) \cdot \log(1-\sigma(z))$$
  $\square$  Two classes encoded as  $c, c \in \{0, 1\}$ .  $\square$  Example with groundtruth  $(\mathbf{x}, c) \in D$ .

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

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

$$l_{oldsymbol{\sigma}_1}(\mathbf{z}) = -\sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{c}|_i \cdot \log \left(oldsymbol{\sigma}_1(\mathbf{z})|_i
ight)$$

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

$$\Box$$
 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.
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- $\Box$  Example with groundtruth  $(\mathbf{x}, c) \in D$ .
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$$l_{oldsymbol{\sigma_1}}(\mathbf{z}) = -\sum_{i=1}^k \mathbf{c}|_i \cdot \log \left(oldsymbol{\sigma_1}(\mathbf{z})|_i
ight)$$

- $\mathbf{c}^T \in \{(1,0,\ldots,0),\ldots,(0,\ldots,0,1)\}.$
- 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  $\underline{\phantom{a}}$ .
- □ Synonyms: cross-entropy loss function, logarithmic loss, log loss, logistic loss.

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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  $\alpha$ ,  $0 \le \alpha < 1$ , 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  $\alpha$ ,  $0 \le \alpha < 1$ , 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  $\infty$  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
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- □ Advanced MLPs
- Automatic Gradient Computation

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## The IGD Algorithm

```
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.
                   \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}))
   \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{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.
```

ML:IV-146 Neural Networks

ENDDO

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

**UNTIL**( $convergence(D, y(\cdot), t)$ )

9.

10.

**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.
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                  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
```

ML:IV-147 Neural Networks

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  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{R}^p$ ,  $\mathbf{c} \in \{0, 1\}^k$ .

 $\eta$ , 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 $(W^{\mathsf{h}_s})$  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.

9. ENDDO

- Parameter vector update  $\hat{=}$  one gradient step down.
- 10. UNTIL(convergence $(D,\mathbf{y}(\,\cdot\,),t)$ )
- 11. return $(W^{\mathsf{h}_1},\ldots,W^{\mathsf{h}_d})$

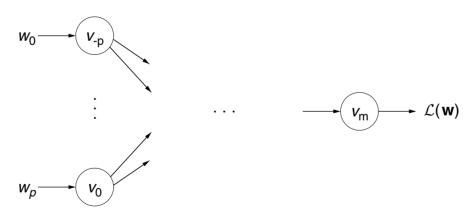
8.

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.

$$(1) \qquad \qquad \smile v_{\mathsf{m}} \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$$

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

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

$$\nabla^{v_j} \mathcal{L} \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_j} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_k} \cdot \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_j} = \nabla^{v_k} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_k}{\partial v_j}$$

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

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

#### Remarks:

- $\Box$  Adjoints are computed in reverse, starting from  $\nabla^{v_m} \mathcal{L}$ .
- $\Box$  For any step  $v_j=g(\dots,v_i,\dots)$  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: 
$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = L_2(\mathbf{w}) = \sum_{(\mathbf{x},c)\in D} (c - y(\mathbf{x}))^2$$

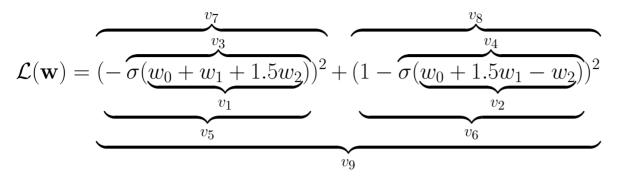
 $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w})$  is the objective function to be minimized, and hence what we want to compute the derivative of; everything except  $\mathbf{w}$  is held constant.

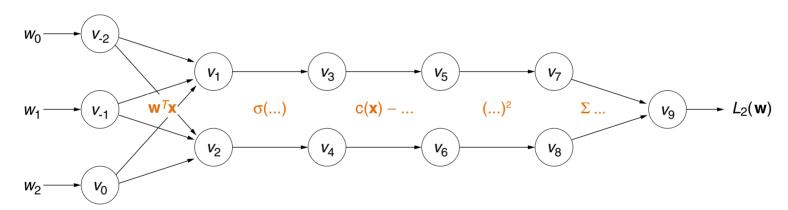
Given the setting above, we can rewrite  $\mathcal{L}$  as:

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

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

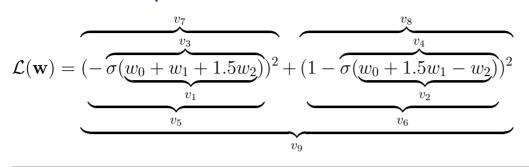
Autodiff Example: Computational Graph





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## Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace



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

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	

ML:IV-154 Neural Networks

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

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	$\nabla^{v_9} \mathcal{L} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_9} = 1$	

ML:IV-155 Neural Networks

Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

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

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

at

Forward primal trace		Reverse adjoint trace	
$v_0 = w_0$	= -1		
$v_{-1} = w_1$	= 1.5		
$v_{-2} = w_2$	= 0.5		
$v_1 = v_0 + v_{-1} + 1.5 \cdot v$	$_{-2} = 1.25$		
$v_2 = v_0 + 1.5 \cdot v_{-1} - v$	$t_{-2} = 0.75$		
$v_3 = \sigma(v_1)$	= 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$	=1
		$ abla^{v_7}\mathcal{L} =  abla^{v_9}\mathcal{L} \cdot rac{\partial^{v_8}_{v_9}}{\partial v_7} = 1 \cdot 1$	=1
$\mathcal{L} = v_9$	= 0.71	$ abla^{v_9}\mathcal{L} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_9}$	= 1

ML:IV-156 Neural Networks

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

Reverse adjoint trace		Forward primal trace
	= -1	$v_0 = w_0$
	= 1.5	$v_{-1} = w_1$
	= 0.5	$v_{-2} = w_2$
	= 1.25	$v_1 = v_0 + v_{-1} + 1.5 \cdot v_{-2}$
	= 0.75	$v_2 = v_0 + 1.5 \cdot v_{-1} - v_{-2}$
	= 0.5 $= 1.25$	$v_{-2} = w_2$ $v_1 = v_0 + v_{-1} + 1.5 \cdot v_{-2}$

Autodiff Example: Forward and Reverse Trace (continued)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{(-\sigma(\underbrace{w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2}_{v_3}))^2 + (1 - \sigma(\underbrace{w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2}_{v_2}))^2}_{v_5}$$

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

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)

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{w}) = \underbrace{(-\sigma(\underbrace{w_0 + w_1 + 1.5w_2}_{v_3}))^2 + (1 - \sigma(\underbrace{w_0 + 1.5w_1 - w_2}_{v_2}))^2}_{v_5}$$

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

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	$ \overline{\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	$\nabla^{v_8}\mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_9}\mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial v_9}{\partial v_9} = 1 \cdot 1$	=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} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_9}$	= 1

ML:IV-159 Neural Networks

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	$\nabla^{v_{-2}}\mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_2}\mathcal{L} \cdot (-1)$	= 0.14
		$\nabla^{v_{-1}}\mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_2}\mathcal{L} \cdot 1.5$	=-0.28
		$ 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	$\nabla^{v_8} \mathcal{L} = \nabla^{v_9} \mathcal{L} \cdot \frac{\partial^{v_9}}{\partial v_8} = 1 \cdot 1$	=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	$ abla^{v_9}\mathcal{L} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial v_9}$	= 1

ML:IV-160 Neural Networks

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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 
$$v_i \in \{w_1, \dots, w_n\}$$
 THEN

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

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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