

Deep Forward Networks

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Feedforward Computations

Output and Hidden Units

Back-propagation

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Deep Forward Networks Introduction



What is a Deep Forward Network (DFN)?

► Feedforward networks, feedforward neural networks or multilayer perceptrons

- \blacktriangleright Given a function $y=f^*(x)$ that maps input x to category y
- ► A DFN defines a parametric mapping $\mathbf{\hat{y}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$ with parameters θ
- Aim is to learn θ such as $f(x, \theta)$ best approximates $f^*(x)$!

Why Feedforward?



- Given a Feedforward Network $\mathbf{\hat{y}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$
 - \blacktriangleright Input x, then pass through a chain of steps before outputting y
- No feedback exists between the chains of steps
 - ► Feedback connections yield the **Recurrent Neural Network**
- Example $f^1(x)$, $f^2(x)$ and $f^3(x)$ can be chained as:
 - $f(x) = f^3(f^2(f^1(x)))$
 - f^1 is the first layer, or the **input** layer
 - f^2 is the second layer, or a **hidden** layer
 - ► *f*³ is the last layer, or the **output** layer
- ► Number of hidden layers define the **depth** of the network
- Dimensionality of the hidden layers defines the width of the network

Why Neural?



- ► Loosely inspired by neuroscience, hence Artificial Neural Network
- ► Each hidden layer node resembles a neuron
- Input to a neuron are the synaptic connections from the previous attached neuron
- Output of a neuron is an aggregation of the input vector
- Signal propagates forward in a chain of "Neuron"-to-"Neuron" transmissions
- However, modern Deep Learning research is steered mainly by mathematical and engineering principles!

Why Network?



- ► A feed-forward network is an acyclic directed graph, but
 - Graph nodes are structured in layers
 - Directed links between nodes are parameters/weights
 - Each node is a computational functions
 - ► No inter-layer and intra-layer connections (but possible)
 - Input to the first layer is given (the features x)
 - \blacktriangleright Output is the computation of the last laver (the target $\boldsymbol{\hat{y}})$

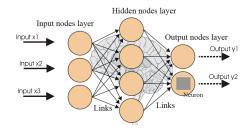


Figure 1 : FNN, Source www.analyticsvidhya.com

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Nonlinear Mapping



- ► We can easily solve linear regression, but not every problem is linear.
- ► Can the function f(x) = (x + 1)² be approximated through a linear function?

Nonlinear Mapping



- ► We can easily solve linear regression, but not every problem is linear.
- ► Can the function f(x) = (x + 1)² be approximated through a linear function?
- ► Yes, but only if we **map** the feature x into a new space:

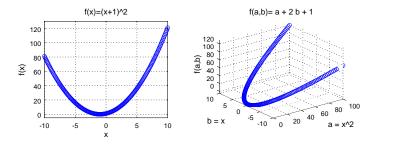


Figure 2 : Mapping feature x into a new dimensionality $x \to \phi(x) = (a, b)$

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Nonlinear Mapping (II)



• Which mapping $\phi(x)$ is the best?

There are various ways of designing $\phi(x)$:

- 1. Hand-craft (manually engineer) $\phi(\mathbf{x})$
- 2. Use a very generic $\phi(\mathbf{x})$, RBF or polynomial expansion
- 3. Parametrize and learn the mapping $\mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}; \theta, \mathbf{w}) := \phi(\mathbf{x}, \theta)^{\mathsf{T}} \mathbf{w}$

Deep Forward Networks follow the third approach, where:

- ► the hidden layers (weights θ) learn the mapping $\phi(x, \theta)^T$
- ▶ the output layer (weights w) learns the function $f(x; \theta, w)$

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Deep Forward Networks Feedforward Computations

An example - Learn XOR

► XOR is a function:

| <i>x</i> ₁ | <i>x</i> ₂ | $y = f^*(x)$ |
|-----------------------|-----------------------|--------------|
| 0 | 0 | 0 |
| 0 | 1 | 1 |
| 1 | 0 | 1 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 |

- Can we learn a DFN $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \mathbf{f}(\mathbf{x}, \theta)$ such that f resembles f^* ?
- Our dataset $\mathcal{X} = \{[0, 0]^T, [1, 0]^T, [0, 1]^T, [1, 1]^T\}$
- Leading to the optimization:

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An example - Learn XOR (2)

► We will learn a simple DFN with one hidden layer:



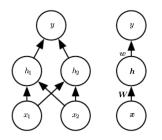


Figure 3 : Left: Detailed, Right: Compact, Source: Goodfellow et al., 2016

- Two functions are chained $h = f^1(x; W, c)$ and $y = f^2(y, w, b)$
 - ► For n-th instance: Hidden-layer $h_i^{(n)} = g\left(W_{:,i}^T x^{(n)} + c_i\right)$
 - For n-th instance: output layer: $\hat{y}_n = w^T h^{(n)} + b$
 - $W \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 2}, c \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 1}, w \in \mathbb{R}^{2 \times 1}, b \in \mathbb{R}$

Rectified Linear Unit



The rectified linear unit (ReLU) is defined by the activation function $g(z) = \max\{0, z\}$, i.e.:

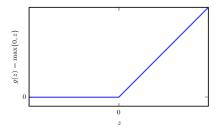


Figure 4 : The ReLU activation, Source: Goodfellow et al., 2016

Yielding the overall function:

$$\hat{y} = w^T \max\left\{0, W^T x + c\right\} + b$$

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"Deus ex machina" solution?



Suppose I magically found out that:

$$W = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \ c = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \ w = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \ b = 0$$

We would later on see an optimization technique called back-propagation to learn the network parameters.

XOR Solution - Hidden Layer Computations

$$\begin{aligned} h_{1}^{(1)} &= g\left(W_{:,1}^{T}x_{1}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}0\\0\end{bmatrix}+0\right) = g\left(0\right) = 0 \\ h_{2}^{(1)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{1}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}0\\0\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(-1\right) = 0 \\ h_{1}^{(2)} &= g\left(W_{:,1}^{T}x_{2}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}+0\right) = g\left(1\right) = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(2)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{2}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}0\\1\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(0\right) = 0 \\ h_{1}^{(3)} &= g\left(W_{:,1}^{T}x_{3}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\0\end{bmatrix}+0\right) = g\left(1\right) = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(3)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{3}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\0\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(0\right) = 0 \\ h_{1}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,1}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix}+0\right) = g\left(2\right) = 2 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(1\right) = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(1\right) = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(1\right) = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(1\right) = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(1\right) = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(1\right) = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(1\right) = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(1\right) = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix}-1\right) = g\left(1\right) = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix} = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix} = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix} = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix} = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix} = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix} = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix} = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix} = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(\begin{bmatrix}1 & 1\end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix}1\\1\end{bmatrix} = 1 \\ h_{2}^{(4)} &= g\left(W_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(U_{:,2}^{T}x_{4}+c\right) = g\left(U_{:,2$$

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XOR Solution - Output Layer Computations

$$\hat{y}^{(1)} = w^{T} h^{(1)} + b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 0 = 0$$
$$\hat{y}^{(2)} = w^{T} h^{(2)} + b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 0 = 1$$
$$\hat{y}^{(3)} = w^{T} h^{(3)} + b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} + 0 = 1$$
$$\hat{y}^{(4)} = w^{T} h^{(4)} + b = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} + 0 = 0$$

The computations of the final layer match exactly those of the XOR function.

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Gradient-Based Learning - Maximum Likelihood

The loss/cost can be expressed in probabilistic terms as

$$J(\theta) = -\mathbf{E}_{x, y \sim \hat{p}_{data}} \log p_{\text{model}}(y \mid x)$$

We early saw that assuming normality $p_{model}(y \mid x) = \mathcal{N}(y; f(x, \theta), I)$

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{E}_{x, y \sim \hat{p}_{data}} ||y - f(x, \theta)||^2 + \text{const}$$

Solving for the optimal DFN parameters:

$$\theta^{\mathsf{opt}} =: \underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \mathbf{E}_{x, y \sim \hat{p}_{data}} ||y - f(x, \theta)||^2$$

Yields a function that outputs the mean: $f(x, \theta^{\text{opt}}) = \mathsf{E}_{x, y \sim \hat{p}_{data}(y|x)}[y]$

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Output Units - Gaussian Output Distribution



- ► Affine transformation with no nonlinearity
 - Given features h, produces $\hat{y} = w^T h + b$

- ► Used to produce the mean of a conditional Gaussian distribution
 - $p(y | x) = \mathcal{N}(y; \hat{y}, I)$

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Bernoulli Output Distributions

- ► Binary target variables follow a Bernoulli distribution P(y = 1) = p, P(y = 0) = 1 - p
- Train a DFN such that $\hat{y} = f(x, \theta) \in [0, 1]$
- ► Naive Option: Clip a linear output layer:
 - $P(y = 1 | x) = \max \{0, \min \{1, w^T h + b\}\}$
- What is the problem with the clipped linear output layer?

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Bernoulli Output Distributions (2)



► Use a smooth sigmoid output unit:

$$\hat{y} = \sigma(z) = \frac{e^z}{e^z + 1}$$
$$z = w^T h + b$$

• The loss for a DFN $f(x, \theta)$ with a sigmoid output is:

$$J(\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} -y_n \log(f(x_n, \theta)) - (1 - y_n) \log(1 - f(x_n, \theta))$$

► Also called as Cross-entropy Cost Function

Multinoulli Output Distribution

- ▶ For multi-category targets $\hat{y}_i = P(y = i | x), i \in \{1, ..., C\}$
- Let the unnormalized log probability be defined as

$$z_i = w_i^T h + b$$

 $z_i = log \tilde{P}(y = i | x)$

► Yielding the normalized probability estimation:

$$P(y=i|x) pprox ext{softmax}(z_i) = rac{e^{z_i}}{\sum\limits_i e^{z_j}}$$

• Minimizing the log-likelihood loss:

$$J(\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} -1_{y_n=i} \log P(y=i|x)$$

$$J(\theta) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} 1_{y_n=i} \left(z_i - \log \sum_{\substack{i \in \mathbb{D} \\ i \in \mathbb{D} > j \in \mathbb{D} \\ i \in \mathbb{D} > j \in \mathbb{D} } e^{z_j} \right)_{z \in \mathbb{D} < i \in \mathbb{D} > j \in \mathbb{D}}$$

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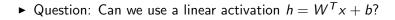


Types of Hidden Units



• Question: Can we use a linear activation $h = W^T x + b$?

Types of Hidden Units



► Remember the most used hidden layer is ReLU:

$$h = g(W^T x + b) = \max(0, W^T x + b)$$

Alternatively, the sigmoid function:

$$h = \sigma(z)$$

► or, the hyperbolic tangent:

$$h = \tanh(z) = 2\sigma(2z) - 1$$

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Architecture of Hidden Layers

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A DFN with L hidden layers:

$$h^{(1)} = g^{(1)}(W^{(1)^{T}}x + b^{(1)})$$

$$h^{(2)} = g^{(2)}(W^{(2)^{T}}h^{(1)} + b^{(2)})$$

...

$$h^{(L)} = g^{(L)}(W^{(L)^{T}}h^{(L-1)} + b^{(L)})$$

Different layers can have different activation functions.

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Computational Graphs



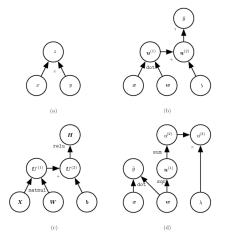


Figure 5 : a) multiplication, b) logistic regression prediction, c) ReLU, d) linear regression prediction and regularization, Source: Goodfellow et al., 2016

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Chain-rule of Calculus

► Suppose
$$y = g(x)$$
 and $z = f(g(x)) = f(y)$, then

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy}\frac{dy}{dx}$$

▶ In the vector case, suppose $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $y \in \mathbb{R}^n$, and $y = g(x), g : \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n$ together with $z = f(y), f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x_i} = \sum_{j=1}^n \frac{\partial z}{\partial y_j} \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial x_i}$$

• Compactly written using the Jacobian matrix $\frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times m}$ as

$$\nabla_{\mathsf{X}} z = \left(\frac{\partial y}{\partial x}\right)^T \nabla_{\mathsf{Y}} z$$

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Deep Forward Networks Back-propagation

Backpropagation in Computational Graphs



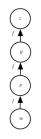


Figure 6 : x=f(w), y=f(x), z=f(y), Source: Goodfellow et al., 2016

Subexpression f(w) is repeated:

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial w}$$

$$= f'(y)f'(x)f'(w)$$

$$= f'(f(f(w)))f'(f(w))f'(w)$$

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Backpropagation in Computational Graphs (2)

- Assume we want to compute a scalar $u^{(n)}$, e.g. loss of an instance
- ▶ Need to compute gradient w.r.t. n_i input nodes $u^{(1)}, \ldots, u^{(n_i)}$, i.e.
- Need to compute $\frac{\partial u^{(n)}}{\partial u^{(i)}}, i \in \{1, \dots, n_i\}$
- ► We assume the nodes are ordered such that the computations are sequential, i.e. starting from u^(n_i+1) until u⁽ⁿ⁾
- Let A⁽ⁱ⁾ be the set of parent/predecessor nodes to u⁽ⁱ⁾:
 A⁽ⁱ⁾ ← {u^(j) | j ∈ Pa(u⁽ⁱ⁾)}

Deep Forward Networks Back-propagation



Backpropagation in Computational Graphs (3)

The feed-forward steps are:

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{for} \ i = 1, \dots, n_i \ \mathbf{do} \\ u^{(i)} \leftarrow x_i \\ \mathbf{end} \ \mathbf{for} \\ \mathbf{for} \ i = n_i + 1, \dots, n \ \mathbf{do} \\ \mathbb{A}^{(i)} \leftarrow \{u^{(j)} \mid j \in Pa(u^{(i)})\} \\ u^{(i)} \leftarrow f^{(i)}(\mathbb{A}^{(i)}) \\ \mathbf{end} \ \mathbf{for} \\ \mathbf{return} \ u^{(n)} \end{array}$$

Figure 7 : Feedforward in Computational Graphs, Source: Goodfellow et al., 2016

Deep Forward Networks Back-propagation



Backpropagation in Computational Graphs (4)

• The back-propagation is based on the chain-rule:

$$\frac{\partial u^{(n)}}{\partial u^{(j)}} = \sum_{i:j \in \mathsf{Pa}(u^{(i)})} \frac{\partial u^{(n)}}{\partial u^{(i)}} \frac{\partial u^{(i)}}{\partial u^{(j)}}$$

- In that way, gradients of final node with respect to successor nodes are not re-computed

Back-propagation in Computational Graphs (5)



Run forward propagation (algorithm 6.1 for this example) to obtain the activations of the network

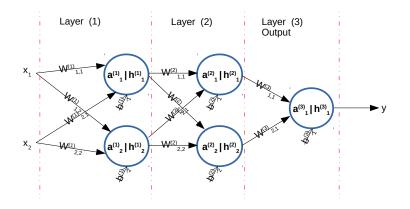
Initialize grad_table, a data structure that will store the derivatives that have been computed. The entry grad_table[$u^{(i)}$] will store the computed value of $\frac{\partial u^{(n)}}{\partial n^{(i)}}$.

$$\begin{split} & \text{for } j = n - 1 \text{ down to } 1 \text{ do} \\ & \text{ The next line computes } \frac{\partial u^{(n)}}{\partial u^{(j)}} = \sum_{i:j \in Pa(u^{(i)})} \frac{\partial u^{(n)}}{\partial u^{(j)}} \frac{\partial u^{(i)}}{\partial u^{(j)}} \text{ using stored values:} \\ & \text{grad_table}[u^{(j)}] \leftarrow \sum_{i:j \in Pa(u^{(i)})} \text{grad_table}[u^{(i)}] \frac{\partial u^{(i)}}{\partial u^{(j)}} \\ & \text{end for} \\ & \text{return } \{\text{grad_table}[u^{(i)}] \mid i = 1, \dots, n_i\} \end{split}$$

Figure 8 : Back-propagation in Computational Graphs, Source: Goodfellow et al., 2016



From Computational Graphs to MLP - An example

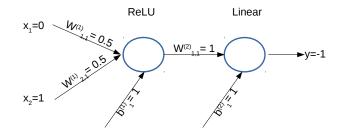


- ► Lets derive on the board ...

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Motivating Back-propagation



- Apply one gradient descent update on $W_{2,1}^{(1)}$ with a learning rate 0.5.
- ► Lets see the reduction of loss on the board

Forward Computations in MLP

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Require: Network depth, l **Require:** $W^{(i)}, i \in \{1, \ldots, l\}$, the weight matrices of the model **Require:** $b^{(i)}, i \in \{1, \ldots, l\}$, the bias parameters of the model **Require:** \boldsymbol{x} , the input to process **Require:** y, the target output $h^{(0)} = x$ for $k = 1, \ldots, l$ do $a^{(k)} = b^{(k)} + W^{(k)} h^{(k-1)}$ $\boldsymbol{h}^{(k)} = f(\boldsymbol{a}^{(k)})$ end for $\hat{\boldsymbol{u}} = \boldsymbol{h}^{(l)}$ $J = L(\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}, \boldsymbol{y}) + \lambda \Omega(\theta)$

Figure 9 : Forward Computations for MLP, Source: Goodfellow et al., 2016

Back-propagation in MLP



After the forward computation, compute the gradient on the output layer: $\boldsymbol{g} \leftarrow \nabla_{\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}} J = \nabla_{\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}} L(\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}, \boldsymbol{y})$ for $k = l, l-1, \ldots, 1$ do

Convert the gradient on the layer's output into a gradient into the prenonlinearity activation (element-wise multiplication if f is element-wise):

$$\boldsymbol{g} \leftarrow \nabla_{\boldsymbol{a}^{(k)}} J = \boldsymbol{g} \odot f'(\boldsymbol{a}^{(k)})$$

Compute gradients on weights and biases (including the regularization term, where needed):

$$\begin{split} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{b}^{(k)}} J &= \boldsymbol{g} + \lambda \nabla_{\boldsymbol{b}^{(k)}} \Omega(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ \nabla_{\boldsymbol{W}^{(k)}} J &= \boldsymbol{g} \ \boldsymbol{h}^{(k-1)\top} + \lambda \nabla_{\boldsymbol{W}^{(k)}} \Omega(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \\ \text{Propagate the gradients w.r.t. the next lower-level hidden layer's activations:} \\ \boldsymbol{g} \leftarrow \nabla_{\boldsymbol{h}^{(k-1)}} J &= \boldsymbol{W}^{(k)\top} \ \boldsymbol{g} \\ \text{end for} \end{split}$$

Figure 10 : Back-propagation for MLP, Source: Goodfellow et al., 2016

Symbol-to-Symbol Derivatives

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- ► A software engineering strategy for learning deep networks
- Add nodes in a computational graph to provide a symbolic description of the derivatives (Theano, Tensorflow)

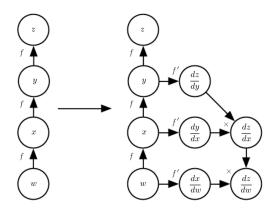


Figure 11 : Symbol-to-Symbol derivative, Source: Goodfellow et al., 2016

Dr. Josif Grabocka, ISMLL, University of Hildesheim Deep Learning

Implementing General Back-propagation



- ► Each variable **V** is associated with three subroutines:
 - \blacktriangleright get_operation (V): Get the operation that produced V
 - ▶ get_consumers (V, G): Get the children of V in graph G
 - ▶ get_inputs (V, G): Get the parents of V in graph G
- Every operation op has a bprop operation:
 - op.bprob(inputs, X, G) = $\sum_{i} (\nabla_{\mathbf{X}} \circ \mathbf{p}.f(inputs)_{i}) \mathbf{G}_{i}$
 - \blacktriangleright where \boldsymbol{G} is the gradient of the loss w.r.t. the output of the operation
 - where inputs are an abstraction for operation parameters
 - ► where X is the specific input for which we would like to compute the gradient of the loss w.r.t. it
 - where op.f is the function that this operation performs

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General Back-propagation - Start Method (I)

Require: \mathbb{T} , the target set of variables whose gradients must be computed. **Require:** \mathcal{G} , the computational graph **Require:** z, the variable to be differentiated Let \mathcal{G}' be \mathcal{G} pruned to contain only nodes that are ancestors of z and descendents of nodes in \mathbb{T} . Initialize grad_table, a data structure associating tensors to their gradients grad_table[z] $\leftarrow 1$ for V in \mathbb{T} do build_grad($V, \mathcal{G}, \mathcal{G}', \text{grad_table}$) end for Return grad_table restricted to \mathbb{T}

Figure 12 : Interface to General Back-prop, Source: Goodfellow et al., 2016

General Back-propagation - Recursion (II)



```
Require: V, the variable whose gradient should be added to \mathcal{G} and grad_table.
Require: \mathcal{G}, the graph to modify.
Require: \mathcal{G}', the restriction of \mathcal{G} to nodes that participate in the gradient.
Require: grad_table, a data structure mapping nodes to their gradients
  if V is in grad_table then
     Return grad table[V]
  end if
  i \leftarrow 1
  for C in get consumers(V, G') do
     op \leftarrow get operation(\mathbf{C})
     D \leftarrow \text{build grad}(C, G, G', \text{grad table})
     \mathbf{G}^{(i)} \leftarrow \texttt{op.bprop}(\texttt{get inputs}(\mathbf{C}, \mathcal{G}'), \mathbf{V}, \mathbf{D})
     i \leftarrow i + 1
  end for
  \mathbf{G} \leftarrow \sum_{i} \mathbf{G}^{(i)}
  grad table [V] = G
  Insert G and the operations creating it into \mathcal{G}
  Return G
```

Figure 13 : Recursive General Back-prop, Source: Goodfellow et a ⊨, 2016 ∽ ດ ↔ Dr. Josif Grabocka, ISMLL, University of Hildesheim Deep Learning 35 / 35