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Advanced Machine Learning Lecture 13

Backpropagation

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This Lecture: *Advanced Machine Learning*

- Regression Approaches
 - Linear Regression
 - Regularization (Ridge, Lasso)
 - Gaussian Processes
- Learning with Latent Variables
 - Prob. Distributions & Approx. Inference
 - Mixture Models
 - EM and Generalizations
- Deep Learning
 - Linear Discriminants
 - Neural Networks
 - Backpropagation
 - CNNs, RNNs, RBMs, etc.

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Recap: Perceptrons

- One output node per class

Output layer
Weights
Input layer

- Outputs
 - Linear outputs

$$y_k(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=0}^d W_{ki} x_i$$

With output nonlinearity

$$y_k(\mathbf{x}) = g\left(\sum_{i=0}^d W_{ki} x_i\right)$$

⇒ Can be used to do multidimensional linear regression or multiclass classification.

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Recap: Non-Linear Basis Functions

- Straightforward generalization

Output layer
Weights
Feature layer
Mapping (fixed)
Input layer

- Outputs
 - Linear outputs

$$y_k(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=0}^d W_{ki} \phi(x_i)$$

with output nonlinearity

$$y_k(\mathbf{x}) = g\left(\sum_{i=0}^d W_{ki} \phi(x_i)\right)$$

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Recap: Non-Linear Basis Functions

- Straightforward generalization

Output layer
Weights
Feature layer
Mapping (fixed)
Input layer

- Remarks
 - Perceptrons are generalized linear discriminants!
 - Everything we know about the latter can also be applied here.
 - Note: feature functions $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ are kept fixed, not learned!

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Recap: Perceptron Learning

- Process the training cases in some permutation
 - If the output unit is correct, leave the weights alone.
 - If the output unit incorrectly outputs a zero, add the input vector to the weight vector.
 - If the output unit incorrectly outputs a one, subtract the input vector from the weight vector.
- Translation

$$w_{kj}^{(\tau+1)} = w_{kj}^{(\tau)} - \eta (y_k(\mathbf{x}_n; \mathbf{w}) - t_{kn}) \phi_j(\mathbf{x}_n)$$
 - This is the Delta rule a.k.a. LMS rule!

⇒ Perceptron Learning corresponds to 1st-order (stochastic) Gradient Descent of a quadratic error function!

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Recap: Loss Functions

- We can now also apply other loss functions
 - L_2 loss \Rightarrow Least-squares regression

$$L(t, y(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_n (y(\mathbf{x}_n) - t_n)^2$$
 - L_1 loss: \Rightarrow Median regression

$$L(t, y(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_n |y(\mathbf{x}_n) - t_n|$$
 - Cross-entropy loss \Rightarrow Logistic regression

$$L(t, y(\mathbf{x})) = -\sum_n \{t_n \ln y_n + (1 - t_n) \ln(1 - y_n)\}$$
 - Hinge loss \Rightarrow SVM classification

$$L(t, y(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_n [1 - t_n y(\mathbf{x}_n)]_+$$
 - Softmax loss \Rightarrow Multi-class probabilistic classification

$$L(t, y(\mathbf{x})) = -\sum_n \sum_k \{ \mathbb{I}(t_n = k) \ln \frac{\exp(y_k(\mathbf{x}))}{\sum_j \exp(y_j(\mathbf{x}))} \}$$

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Recap: Multi-Layer Perceptrons

- Adding more layers
- Output

$$y_k(\mathbf{x}) = g^{(2)} \left(\sum_{i=0}^h W_{ki}^{(2)} g^{(1)} \left(\sum_{j=0}^d W_{ij}^{(1)} x_j \right) \right)$$

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Topics of This Lecture

- Learning with Hidden Units
- Obtaining the Gradients
 - Naive analytical differentiation
 - Numeric differentiation
 - Backpropagation
 - Computational graphs
 - Automatic differentiation
- Practical Issues
 - Nonlinearities
 - Sigmoid outputs and the L_2 loss
 - Implementing Softmax correctly

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Learning with Hidden Units

- How can we train multi-layer networks efficiently?
 - Need an efficient way of adapting all weights, not just the last layer.
- Idea: Gradient Descent
 - Set up an error function

$$E(\mathbf{W}) = \sum_n L(t_n, y(\mathbf{x}_n; \mathbf{W})) + \lambda \Omega(\mathbf{W})$$
 with a loss $L(\cdot)$ and a regularizer $\Omega(\cdot)$.
 - E.g., $L(t, y(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{W})) = \sum_n (y(\mathbf{x}_n; \mathbf{W}) - t_n)^2$ L_2 loss
 - $\Omega(\mathbf{W}) = \|\mathbf{W}\|_F^2$ L_2 regularizer ("weight decay")
 - \Rightarrow Update each weight $W_{ij}^{(k)}$ in the direction of the gradient $\frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{ij}^{(k)}}$

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Gradient Descent

- Two main steps
 - Computing the gradients for each weight today
 - Adjusting the weights in the direction of the gradient Thursday

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Obtaining the Gradients

- Approach 1: Naive Analytical Differentiation

$$\frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{10}^{(2)}} \cdots \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{kh}^{(2)}} \quad \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{10}^{(1)}} \cdots \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{hd}^{(1)}}$$

- Compute the gradients for each variable analytically.
- What is the problem when doing this?

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Excursion: Chain Rule of Differentiation

- One-dimensional case: Scalar functions

$$\Delta z = \frac{dz}{dy} \Delta y$$

$$\Delta y = \frac{dy}{dx} \Delta x$$

$$\Delta z = \frac{dz}{dy} \frac{dy}{dx} \Delta x$$

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

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Excursion: Chain Rule of Differentiation

- Multi-dimensional case: Total derivative

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial z}{\partial y_1} \frac{\partial y_1}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial z}{\partial y_2} \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial x} + \dots$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{\partial z}{\partial y_i} \frac{\partial y_i}{\partial x}$$

⇒ Need to sum over all paths that lead to the target variable x .

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Obtaining the Gradients

- Approach 1: Naive Analytical Differentiation

$$\frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{10}^{(2)}} \cdots \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{kh}^{(2)}} \quad \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{10}^{(1)}} \cdots \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{hd}^{(1)}}$$

- Compute the gradients for each variable analytically.
- What is the problem when doing this?

⇒ With increasing depth, there will be exponentially many paths!
⇒ Infeasible to compute this way.

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Obtaining the Gradients

- Approach 2: Numerical Differentiation

- Given the current state $\mathbf{W}^{(v)}$, we can evaluate $E(\mathbf{W}^{(v)})$.
- Idea: Make small changes to $\mathbf{W}^{(v)}$ and accept those that improve $E(\mathbf{W}^{(v)})$.

⇒ Horribly inefficient! Need several forward passes for each weight. Each forward pass is one run over the entire dataset!

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Obtaining the Gradients

- Approach 3: Incremental Analytical Differentiation

$$\frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial y_j} \rightarrow \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{ij}^{(2)}}$$

$$\frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial z_i} \rightarrow \frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial W_{ij}^{(1)}}$$

$$\frac{\partial E(\mathbf{W})}{\partial x_i}$$

- Idea: Compute the gradients layer by layer.
- Each layer below builds upon the results of the layer above.
- ⇒ The gradient is propagated backwards through the layers.
- ⇒ **Backpropagation** algorithm

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Backpropagation Algorithm

- Core steps

1. Convert the discrepancy between each output and its target value into an error derivative.

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{j \in \text{output}} (t_j - y_j)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j} = -(t_j - y_j)$$
2. Compute error derivatives in each hidden layer from error derivatives in the layer above.
3. Use error derivatives w.r.t. activities to get error derivatives w.r.t. the incoming weights

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j} \rightarrow \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ik}}$$

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Backpropagation Algorithm

E.g. with sigmoid output nonlinearity

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial z_j} \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j} = y_j(1 - y_j) \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j}$$

- Notation
 - y_j Output of layer j
 - z_j Input of layer j

Connections: $z_j = \sum_i w_{ij} y_i$
 $y_j = g(z_j)$

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Backpropagation Algorithm

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial z_j} \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j} = y_j(1 - y_j) \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial y_i} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = \sum_j w_{ij} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}$$

- Notation
 - y_j Output of layer j
 - z_j Input of layer j

Connections: $z_j = \sum_i w_{ij} y_i$
 $\frac{\partial z_j}{\partial y_i} = w_{ij}$

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Backpropagation Algorithm

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial z_j} \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j} = y_j(1 - y_j) \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial y_i} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = \sum_j w_{ij} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial w_{ij}} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = y_i \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}$$

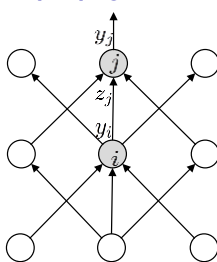
- Notation
 - y_j Output of layer j
 - z_j Input of layer j

Connections: $z_j = \sum_i w_{ij} y_i$
 $\frac{\partial z_j}{\partial w_{ij}} = y_i$

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Backpropagation Algorithm



$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial z_j} \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j} = y_j(1 - y_j) \frac{\partial E}{\partial y_j}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial y_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial y_i} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = \sum_j w_{ij} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial w_{ij}} \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j} = y_i \frac{\partial E}{\partial z_j}$$

- Efficient propagation scheme**
 - y_i is already known from forward pass! (Dynamic Programming)
 - ⇒ Propagate back the gradient from layer j and multiply with y_i .

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Summary: MLP Backpropagation

- Forward Pass**

```

y(0) = x
for k = 1, ..., l do
  z(k) = W(k)y(k-1)
  y(k) = gk(z(k))
endfor
y = y(l)
E = L(t, y) + λΩ(W)

```

- Backward Pass**

```

h ← ∂E/∂y = ∂/∂y L(t, y) + λ ∂/∂y Ω
for k = l, l-1, ..., 1 do
  h ← ∂E/∂z(k) = h ⊙ g'(k)(y(k))
  ∂E/∂W(k) = h y(k-1)T + λ ∂Ω/∂W(k)
  h ← ∂E/∂y(k-1)} = W(k)T h
endfor

```

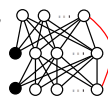
- Notes**
 - For efficiency, an entire batch of data X is processed at once.
 - \odot denotes the element-wise product

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Analysis: Backpropagation

- Backpropagation is the key to make deep NNs tractable
 - However...
- The Backprop algorithm given here is specific to MLPs
 - It does not work with more complex architectures, e.g. skip connections or recurrent networks!
 - Whenever a new connection function induces a different functional form of the chain rule, you have to derive a new Backprop algorithm for it. ⇒ Tedious...
- Let's analyze Backprop in more detail
 - This will lead us to a more flexible algorithm formulation

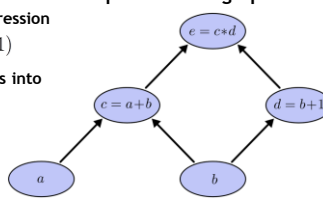


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Computational Graphs

- We can think of mathematical expressions as graphs
 - E.g., consider the expression $e = (a + b) * (b + 1)$
 - We can decompose this into the operations
 - $c = a + b$
 - $d = b + 1$
 - $e = c * d$
 - and visualize this as a computational graph.
- Evaluating partial derivatives $\frac{\partial Y}{\partial X}$ in such a graph
 - General rule: sum over all possible paths from Y to X and multiply the derivatives on each edge of the path together.

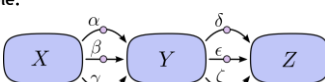


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Factoring Paths

- Problem: Combinatorial explosion**
 - Example:


 - There are 3 paths from X to Y and 3 more from Y to Z .
 - If we want to compute $\frac{\partial Z}{\partial X}$, we need to sum over 3×3 paths:

$$\frac{\partial Z}{\partial X} = \alpha\delta + \alpha\epsilon + \alpha\zeta + \beta\delta + \beta\epsilon + \beta\zeta + \gamma\delta + \gamma\epsilon + \gamma\zeta$$
 - Instead of naively summing over paths, it's better to factor them

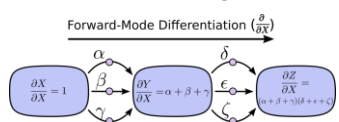
$$\frac{\partial Z}{\partial X} = (\alpha + \beta + \gamma) * (\delta + \epsilon + \zeta)$$

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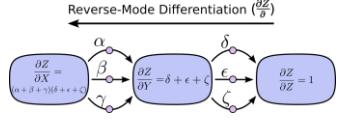
Efficient Factored Algorithms

Forward-Mode Differentiation ($\frac{\partial}{\partial X}$)



Apply operator $\frac{\partial}{\partial X}$ to every node.

Reverse-Mode Differentiation ($\frac{\partial Z}{\partial Y}$)



Apply operator $\frac{\partial Z}{\partial Y}$ to every node.

- Efficient algorithms for computing the sum**
 - Instead of summing over all of the paths explicitly, compute the sum more efficiently by merging paths back together at every node.

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Why Do We Care?

- Let's consider the example again
 - Using forward-mode differentiation from b up...
 - Runtime: $\mathcal{O}(\#\text{edges})$
 - Result: derivative of every node with respect to b .

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Why Do We Care?

- Let's consider the example again
 - Using reverse-mode differentiation from e down...
 - Runtime: $\mathcal{O}(\#\text{edges})$
 - Result: derivative of e with respect to every node.

⇒ This is what we want to compute in Backpropagation!

- Forward differentiation needs one pass per node. With backward differentiation can compute all derivatives in one single pass.
- ⇒ Speed-up in $\mathcal{O}(\#\text{inputs})$ compared to forward differentiation!

Slide inspired by Christopher Olah. B. Leibe. Image source: Christopher Olah, colah.github.io

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 - Naive analytical differentiation
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 - Automatic differentiation
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Obtaining the Gradients

- Approach 4: Automatic Differentiation

- Convert the network into a computational graph.
- Each new layer/module just needs to specify how it affects the forward and backward passes.
- Apply reverse-mode differentiation.
- ⇒ Very general algorithm, used in today's Deep Learning packages

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Modular Implementation (e.g., Torch)

- Solution in many current Deep Learning libraries
 - Provide a limited form of automatic differentiation
 - Restricted to "programs" composed of "modules" with a predefined set of operations.
- Each module is defined by two main functions
 - Computing the outputs y of the module given its inputs x

$$y = \text{module.fprop}(x)$$

where x , y , and intermediate results are stored in the module.
 - Computing the gradient $\partial E / \partial x$ of a scalar cost w.r.t. the inputs x given the gradient $\partial E / \partial y$ w.r.t. the outputs y

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial x} = \text{module.bprop}\left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial y}\right)$$

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 - Efficient batch processing

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Commonly Used Nonlinearities

- Sigmoid

$$g(a) = \sigma(a) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp\{-a\}}$$
- Hyperbolic tangent

$$g(a) = \tanh(a) = 2\sigma(2a) - 1$$
- Softmax

$$g(\mathbf{a}) = \frac{\exp\{-a_i\}}{\sum_j \exp\{-a_j\}}$$

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Commonly Used Nonlinearities (2)

- Hard tanh

$$g(a) = \max\{-1, \min\{1, a\}\}$$
- Rectified linear unit (ReLU)

$$g(a) = \max\{0, a\}$$
- Maxout

$$g(\mathbf{a}) = \max_i \{\mathbf{w}_i^\top \mathbf{a} + b_i\}$$

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Usage

- Output nodes
 - Typically, a sigmoid or tanh function is used here.
 - Sigmoid for nice probabilistic interpretation (range [0, 1]).
 - tanh for regression tasks
- Internal nodes
 - Historically, tanh was most often used.
 - tanh is better than sigmoid for internal nodes, since it is already centered.
 - Internally, tanh is often implemented as piecewise linear function (similar to hard tanh and maxout).
 - More recently: ReLU often used for classification tasks.

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Another Note on Error Functions

$t_n \in \{1, -1\}$

$z_n = t_n y(x_n)$

- Squared error on sigmoid/tanh output function
 - Avoids penalizing “too correct” data points.
 - But: zero gradient for confidently incorrect classifications!

⇒ Do not use L_2 loss with sigmoid outputs (instead: cross-entropy)!

Image source: Bishop, 2006

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Implementing Softmax Correctly

- **Softmax output**

- De-facto standard for multi-class outputs

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = - \sum_{n=1}^N \sum_{k=1}^K \left\{ \mathbb{I}(t_n = k) \ln \frac{\exp(\mathbf{w}_k^T \mathbf{x})}{\sum_{j=1}^K \exp(\mathbf{w}_j^T \mathbf{x})} \right\}$$

- **Practical issue**

- Exponentials get very big and can have vastly different magnitudes.
 - Trick 1: Do not compute first softmax, then log, but instead directly evaluate log-exp in the denominator.
 - Trick 2: Softmax has the property that for a fixed vector \mathbf{b}

$$\text{softmax}(\mathbf{a} + \mathbf{b}) = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{a})$$
- ⇒ Subtract the largest weight vector \mathbf{w}_j from the others.

References and Further Reading

- More information on Backpropagation can be found in Chapter 6 of the Goodfellow & Bengio book

Ian Goodfellow, Aaron Courville, Yoshua Bengio
Deep Learning
MIT Press, in preparation



<https://goodfeli.github.io/dlbook/>