#### CS 4644-DL / 7643-A DANFEI XU (SLIDE CREDIT: PROF. ZOLT KIRA)

Topics:

- Backpropagation
- Computation Graph and Automatic Differentiation

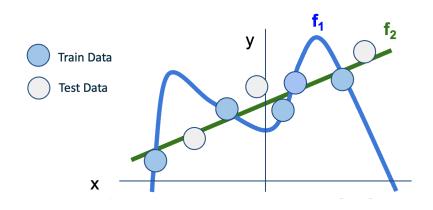
#### **Recap: Multiclass SVM loss**

Loss = 0: margin Given an example  $(x_i, y_i)$ score where  $x_i$  is the image and scores for other classes score for correct class where  $y_i$  is the (integer) label, and using the shorthand for the "Hinge Loss" scores vector:  $s = f(x_i, W)$ the SVM loss has the form:  $L_i = \sum_{i \neq y_i} \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } s_{y_i} \ge s_j + 1 \\ s_j - s_{y_i} + 1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$  $s_{y_i}$  $= \sum max(0, s_j - s_{y_i} + 1)$ İ≠Yi

#### **Recap: Regularization**

Q: How do we pick between W and 2W? A: Opt for simpler functions to avoid overfit

#### **How? Regularization!**



$$L(W) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} L_i(f(x_i, W), y_i) + \lambda R(W)}_{(i=1)} \quad \begin{array}{l} \lambda_i = \text{regularization strength} \\ (hyperparameter) \end{array}$$

**Data loss**: Model predictions should match training data

**Regularization**: Prevent the model from doing *too* well on training data

#### **Recap: Softmax Classifier and Cross Entropy Loss**

#### Want to interpret raw classifier scores as probabilities



How do we optimize the classifier? We maximize the probability of  $p_{\theta}(y_i|x_i)!$ 

**1. Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE):** Choose weights to maximize the likelihood of observed data. In this case, the loss function is the **Negative Log-Likelihood (NLL)**.

Finding a set of weights  $\theta$  that maximizes the probability of correct prediction:  $\underset{\theta}{\operatorname{argmax}} \prod p_{\theta}(y_i|x_i)$ 

This is equivalent to:

$$\operatorname{argmax}_{\theta} \sum \ln p_{\theta}(y_i | x_i)$$
$$L_i = -\ln p_{\theta}(y_i | x_i) = -\ln \left(\frac{e^{s_{y_i}}}{\sum_j e^{s_j}}\right)$$

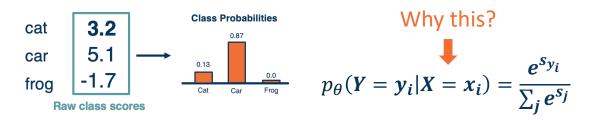
**2. Information theory view:** 

Derive NLL from the cross entropy measurement. Also known as the cross-entropy loss

**Cross Entropy:**  $H(p,q) = -\sum p(x) \ln q(x)$ 

Cross Entropy Loss -> NLL

$$H_{i}(\boldsymbol{p}, \boldsymbol{p}_{\theta}) = -\sum_{\boldsymbol{y} \in Y} \boldsymbol{p}(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) \ln \boldsymbol{p}_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{y}|\boldsymbol{x}_{i})$$
$$= -\ln \boldsymbol{p}_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{y}_{i}|\boldsymbol{x}_{i})$$
$$L = \sum H_{i}(\boldsymbol{p}, \boldsymbol{p}_{\theta}) = -\sum \ln \boldsymbol{p}_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{y}_{i}|\boldsymbol{x}_{i}) \equiv NLL$$

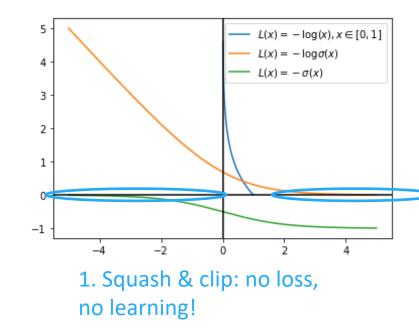


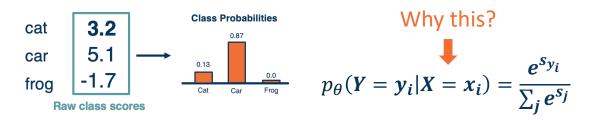
Use logistic function as example. Same as softmax but for binary classification

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{e^x}{1 + e^x}$$

Consider the following three basis for NLL:

- 1. Squash and clip value to (0, 1]
- 2. Logistic function
- 3. Logistic function but no log (just negative likelihood)



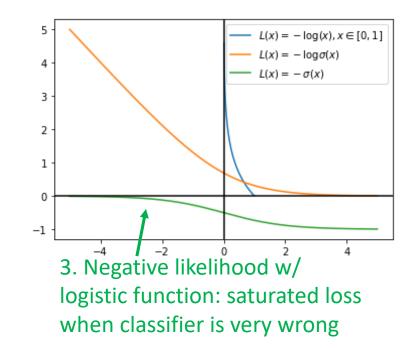


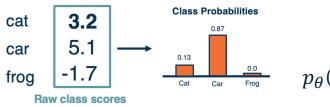
Use logistic function as example. Same as softmax but for binary classification

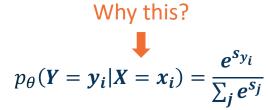
$$\sigma(x) = \frac{e^x}{1 + e^x}$$

Consider the following three basis for NLL:

- 1. Squash and clip value to (0, 1]
- 2. Logistic function
- 3. Logistic function but no log (just negative likelihood)







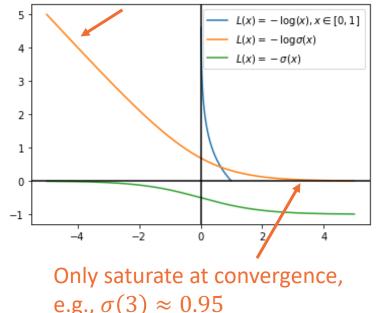
Use logistic function as example. Same as softmax but for binary classification

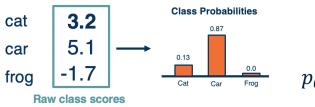
$$\sigma(x) = \frac{e^x}{1 + e^x}$$

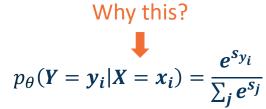
Consider the following three basis for NLL:

- 1. Squash and clip value to (0, 1]
- 2. Logistic function
- 3. Logistic function but no log (just negative likelihood)

2. NLL w/ logistic: Strong guidance when classifier is wrong







Use logistic function as example. Same as softmax but for binary classification

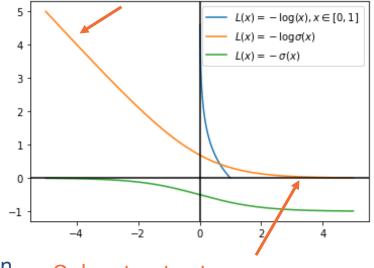
$$\sigma(x) = \frac{e^x}{1 + e^x}$$

Consider the following three basis for NLL:

- 1. Squash and clip value to (0, 1]
- 2. Logistic function
- 3. Logistic function but no log (just negative likelihood)

**A:** Many ways to get probabilities. Logistic function / softmax make the NLL loss behave well for optimization.

2. NLL w/ logistic: Strong guidance when classifier is wrong



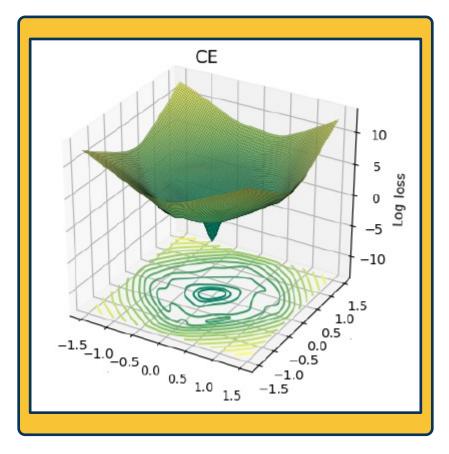
Only saturate at convergence, e.g.,  $\sigma(3) \approx 0.95$ 

#### **Recap: gradient-based optimization**

# As weights change, the gradients change as well

 This is often somewhatsmooth locally, so small changes in weights produce small changes in the loss

We can therefore think about iterative algorithms that take current values of weights and modify them a bit



#### **Recap: The gradient descent algorithm**

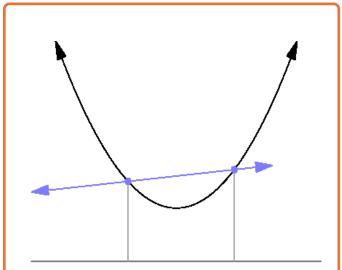
- 1. Choose a model: f(x, W) = Wx
- 2. Choose loss function:  $L_i = |y Wx_i|^2$
- 3. Calculate partial derivative for each parameter:  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}$
- 4. Update the parameters:  $w_i = w_i \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}$
- 5. Add learning rate to prevent too big of a step:  $w_i = w_i \alpha \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}$
- Repeat 3-5

#### **Recap: calculating gradients**

We can find the steepest descent direction by computing the **derivative**:

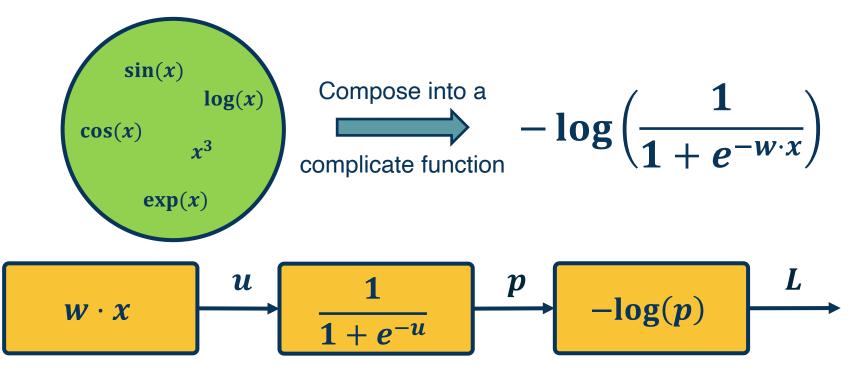
$$f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

- Gradient is multi-dimensional derivatives
- Steepest descent direction is the negative gradient
- Intuitively: Measures how the function changes as the argument a changes by a small step size
- In Machine Learning: Want to know how to minimize loss by changing parameters
  - Can consider each parameter separately by taking partial derivative of loss function with respect to that parameter

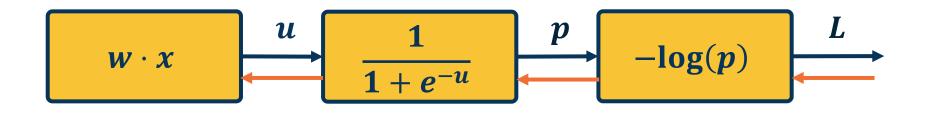


#### $\Delta x$

Image and equation from: https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Derivative #/media/File:Tangent\_animation.gif Hard to calculate analytical gradients for complex functions!



Adapted from slides by: Marc'Aurelio Ranzato, Yann LeCun



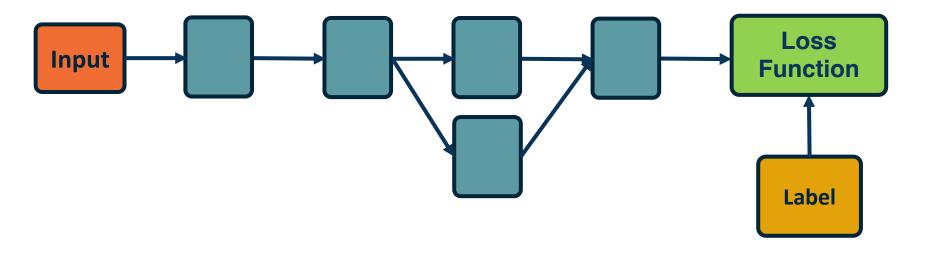
$\frac{\partial L}{\Delta L}$	$\partial L$	$\partial p$	ди
$\frac{\partial w}{\partial w}$	$\overline{\partial p}$	ди	∂w

#### This time: Chain rule and Backpropagation!

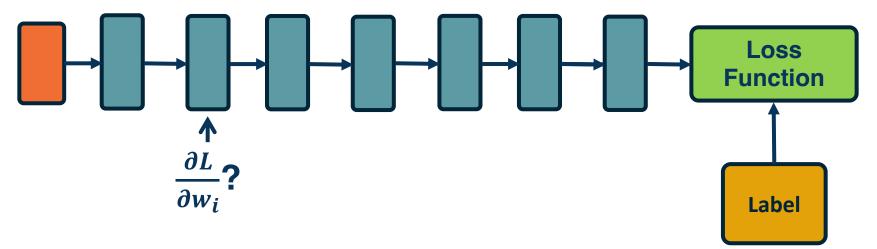
Functions can be made **arbitrarily complex** (subject to memory and computational limits), e.g.:

 $f(x, W) = \sigma(W_5 \sigma(W_4 \sigma(W_3 \sigma(W_2 \sigma(W_1 x))$ 

We can use any type of differentiable function (layer) we want!



- We are learning complex models with significant amount of parameters (millions or billions)
- How do we compute the gradients of the loss (at the end) with respect to internal parameters?
- Intuitively, want to understand how small changes in weight are propagated to affect the loss function at the end

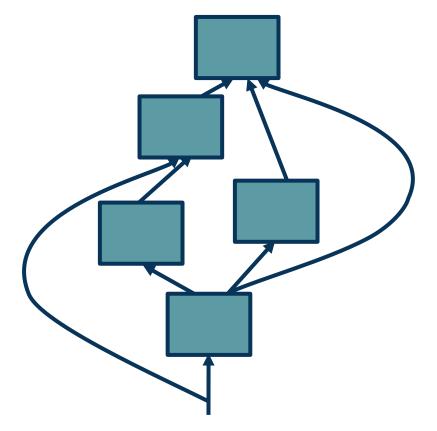


To develop a general algorithm for this, we will view the function as a **computation graph** 

Graph can be any **directed acyclic** graph (DAG)

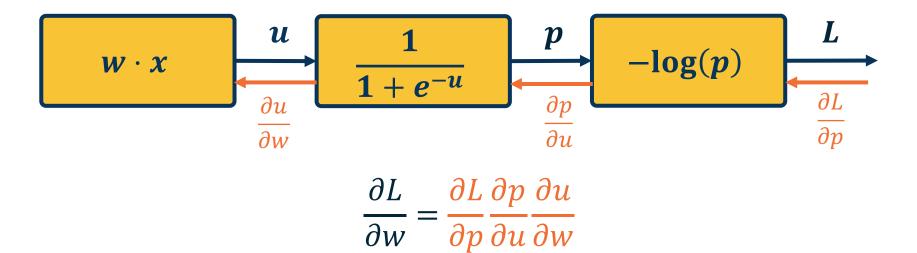
 Modules must be differentiable to support gradient computations for gradient descent

The **backpropagation algorithm** will then process this graph, **one module at a time** 



Adapted from figure by Marc'Aurelio Ranzato, Yann LeCun

### This is a computation graph!



Backpropagation (roughly):

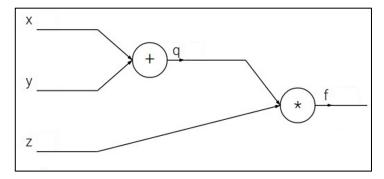
- 1. Calculate local gradients for each node (e.g.,  $\frac{\partial u}{\partial w}$ )
- 2. Trace the computation graph (backward) to calculate the global gradients for each node w.r.t. to the loss function.

$$f(x,y,z) = (x+y)z$$



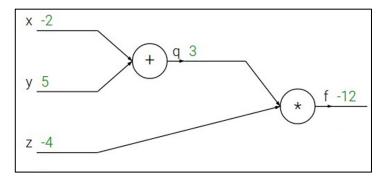


$$f(x,y,z)=(x+y)z$$



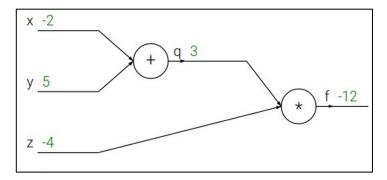


$$f(x, y, z) = (x + y)z$$
  
e.g. x = -2, y = 5, z = -4





$$f(x, y, z) = (x + y)z$$
  
e.g. x = -2, y = 5, z = -4



Want: 
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$$



$$f(x, y, z) = (x + y)z$$
  
e.g. x = -2, y = 5, z = -4  
$$q = x + y \quad \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} = 1, \frac{\partial q}{\partial y} = 1$$
  
1. Calculate local gradients

Want: 
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}$$



$$f(x, y, z) = (x + y)z|$$
e.g.  $x = -2, y = 5, z = -4$ 

$$q = x + y \quad \frac{\partial q}{\partial x} = 1, \frac{\partial q}{\partial y} = 1$$

$$f = qz \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial q} = z, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = q$$
Want:  $\left|\frac{\partial f}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial f}{\partial z}\right|$ 

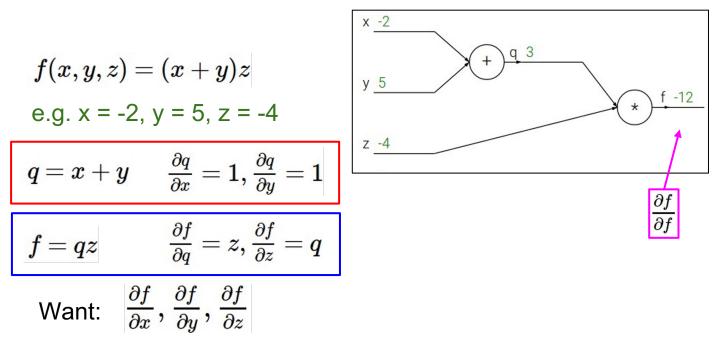
$$x = -2$$

$$y = 5$$

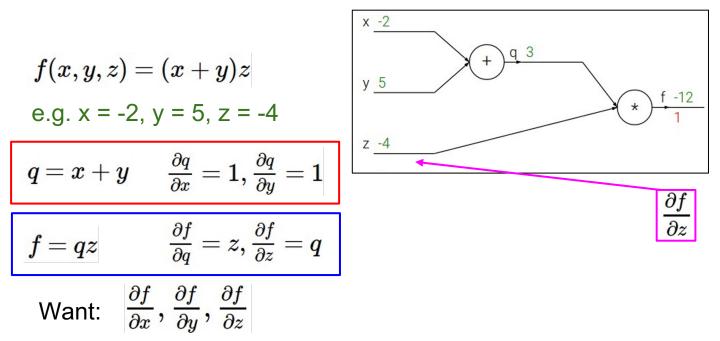
$$y = 5$$

$$z = -4$$
1. Calculate local gradients

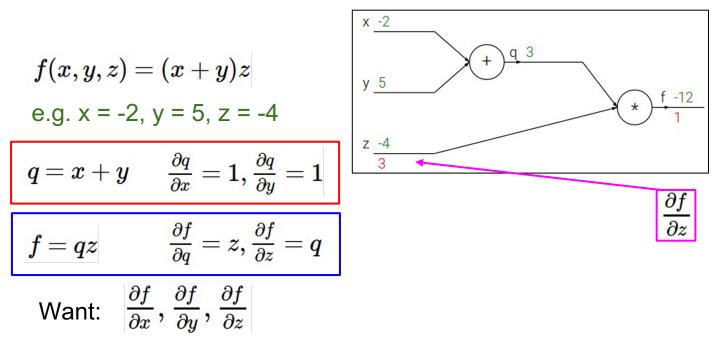




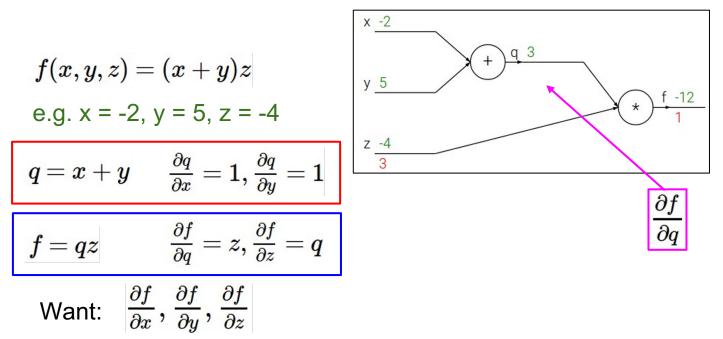




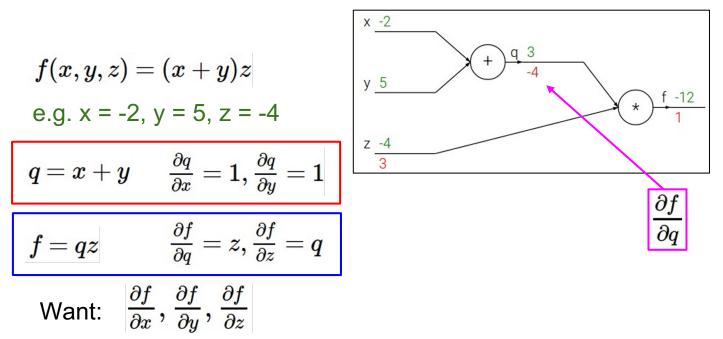




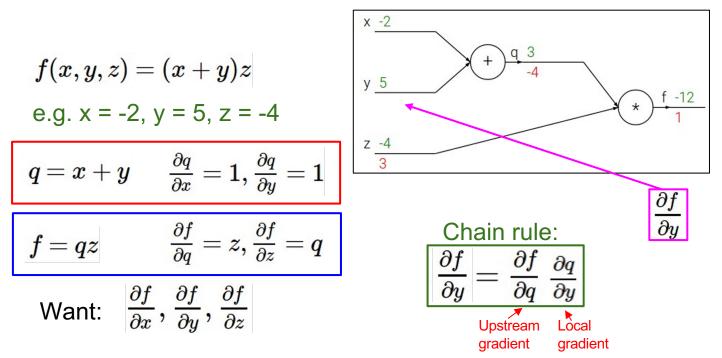






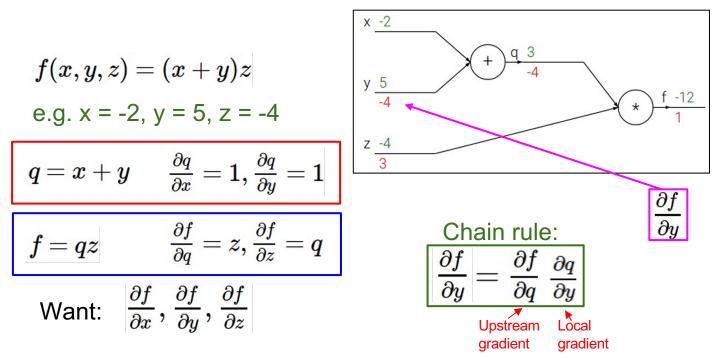






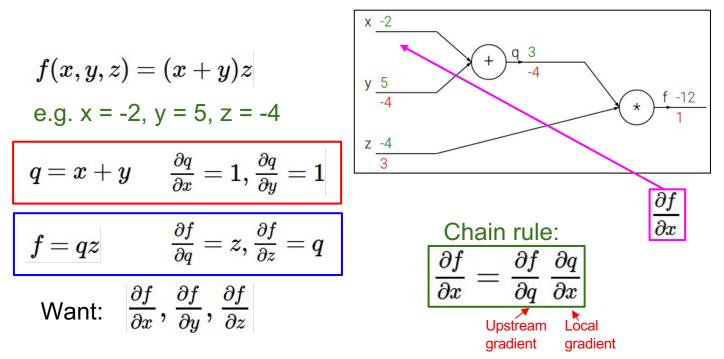






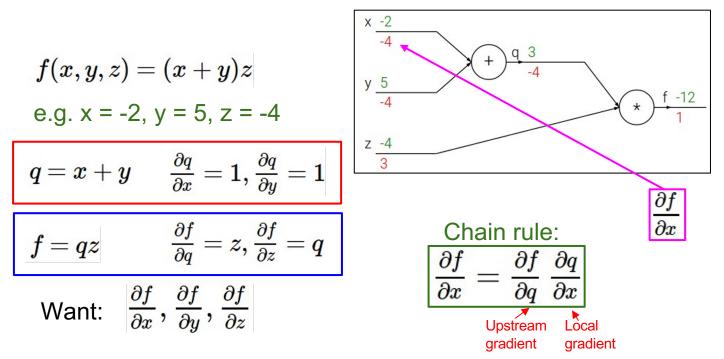






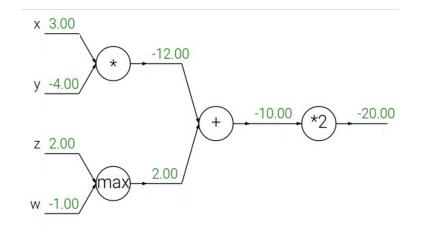






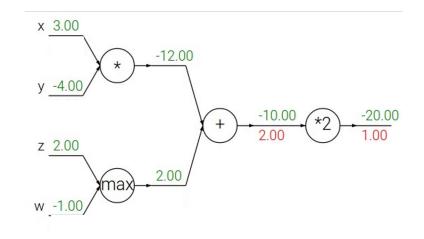








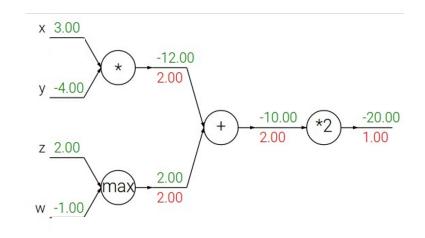
Q: What is an **add** gate?





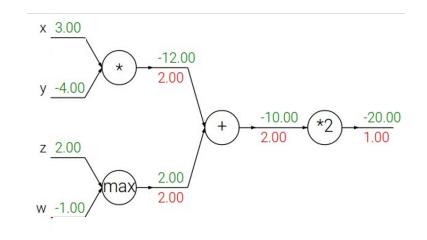
add gate: gradient distributor

$$\begin{aligned} f &= a + b\\ \frac{\partial f}{\partial a} &= \frac{\partial f}{\partial b} = 1 \end{aligned}$$





add gate: gradient distributor Q: What is a max gate?

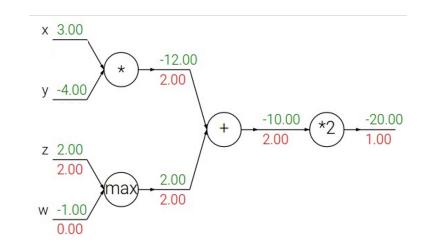




# Patterns in backward flow

add gate: gradient distributor max gate: gradient router

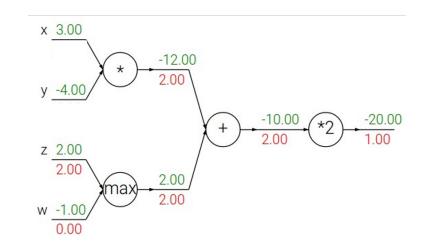
only the path selected by the max operator gets the upstream gradient





# Patterns in backward flow

add gate: gradient distributormax gate: gradient routerQ: What is a mul gate?

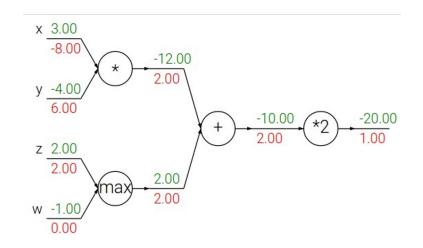




# Patterns in backward flow

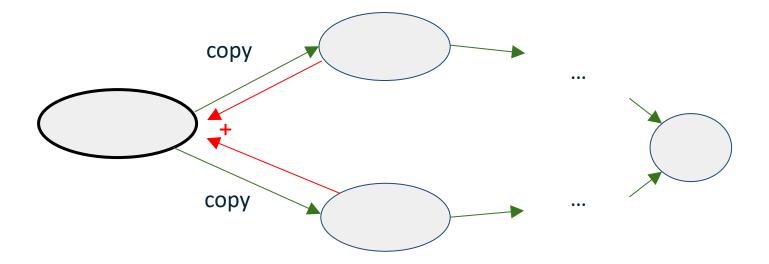
add gate: gradient distributormax gate: gradient routermul gate: gradient switcher

$$f = a \cdot b$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial a} = b \quad \frac{\partial f}{\partial b} = a$$





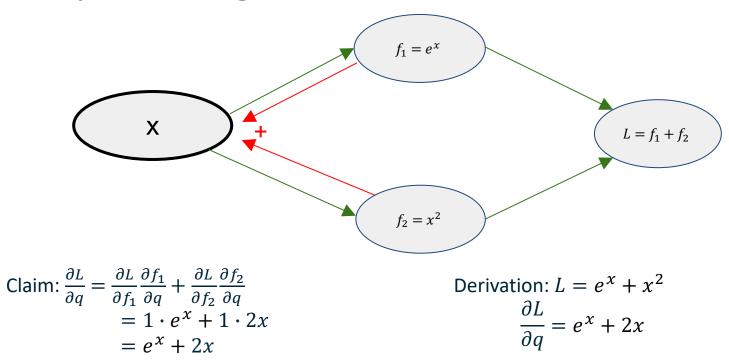
# Upstream gradients add at fork branches



... as long as the branches join at some point in the graph

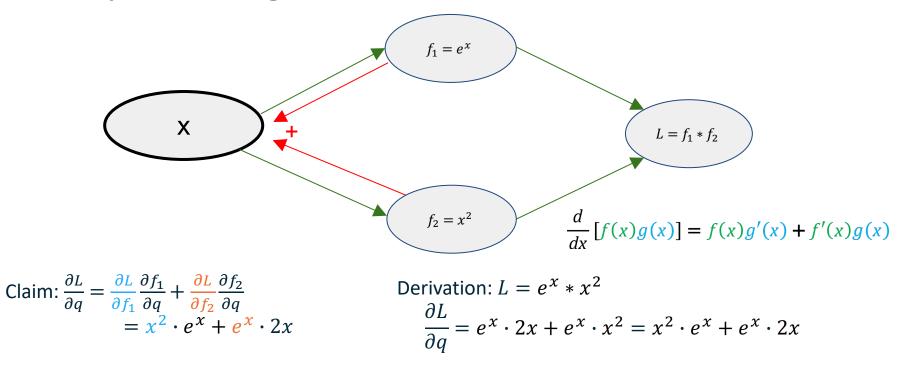


# Upstream gradients add at fork branches



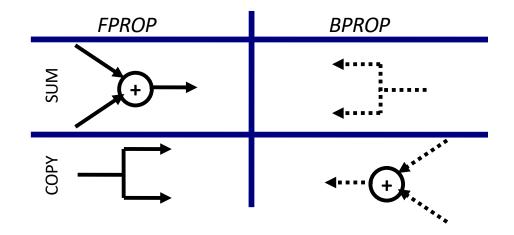


# Upstream gradients add at fork branches





# Duality in F(orward)prop and B(ack)prop





(C) Dhruv Batra

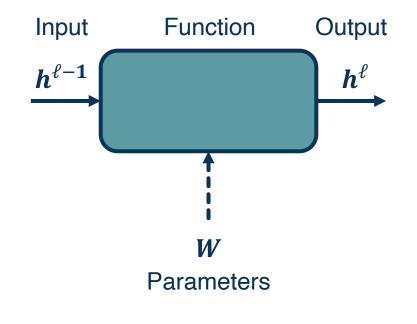
Given this computation graph, the training algorithm will:

- Calculate the current model's outputs (called the **forward pass**)
- Calculate the gradients for each module (called the **backward pass**)

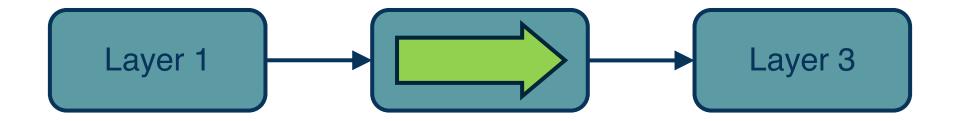
Backward pass is a recursive algorithm that:

- Starts at loss function where we know how to calculate the gradients
- Progresses back through the modules
- Ends in the input layer where we do not need gradients (no parameters)

This algorithm is called **backpropagation** 





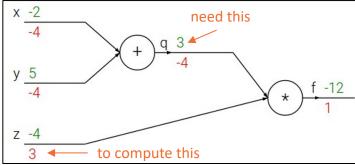




Note that we must store the **intermediate outputs of all layers**!

This is because we will need them to compute the gradients (the gradient equations will have terms with the output values in them)

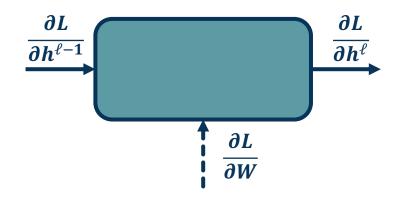




ermediate outputs of all layers! d them to compute the gradients (the gradient with the output values in them)

In the **backward pass**, we seek to calculate the gradients of the loss with respect to the module's parameters

- Assume that we have the gradient of the loss with respect to the module's outputs (given to us by upstream module)
- We will also pass the gradient of the loss with respect to the module's inputs
  - This is not required for update the module's weights, but passes the gradients back to the previous module
  - Becomes the upstream gradient for the previous module



## **Problem:**

• We can compute local gradients:  $\{\frac{\partial h^{\ell}}{\partial h^{\ell-1}}, \frac{\partial h^{\ell}}{\partial W}\}$ 

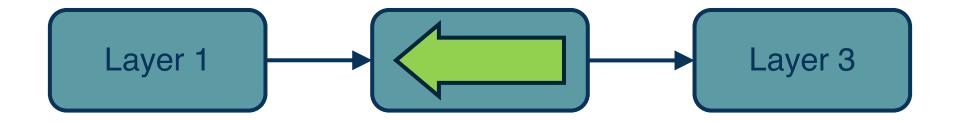
• We are given: 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{\ell}}$$

• Compute:  $\{\frac{\partial L}{\partial h^{\ell-1}}, \frac{\partial L}{\partial W}\}$ 

Step 2: Compute Gradients wrt parameters: Backward Pass



Step 2: Compute Gradients wrt parameters: Backward Pass



Step 2: Compute Gradients wrt parameters: Backward Pass



Step 1: Compute Loss on Mini-Batch: Forward Pass
Step 2: Compute Gradients wrt parameters: Backward Pass
Step 3: Use gradient to update all parameters at the end



$$w_i = w_i - \alpha \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}$$

Backpropagation is the application of gradient descent to a computation graph via the chain rule!

Backpropagation does not really spell out how to **efficiently** carry out the necessary computations

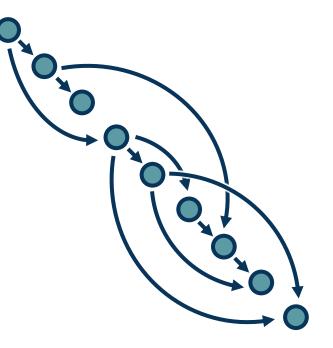
But the idea can be applied to **any directed acyclic graph** (DAG)

 Graph represents an ordering constraining which paths must be calculated first

Given an ordering, we can then iterate from the last module backwards, **applying the chain rule** 

- We will store, for each node, its gradient outputs for efficient computation
- We will do this automatically by tracing the entire graph, aggregate and assign gradients at each function / parameters, from output to input.

This is called reverse-mode automatic differentiation







## **Computation = Graph**

- Input = Data + Parameters
- Output = Loss
- Scheduling = Topological ordering

## **Auto-Diff**

 A family of algorithms for implementing chain-rule on computation graphs





Deep Learning Framework = Differentiable Programming Engine

- Computation = Graph
  - Input = Data + Parameters
  - Output = Loss
  - Scheduling = Topological ordering
- What do we need to do?
  - Generic code for representing the graph of modules
  - Specify modules (both forward and backward function)



## Modularized implementation: forward / backward API



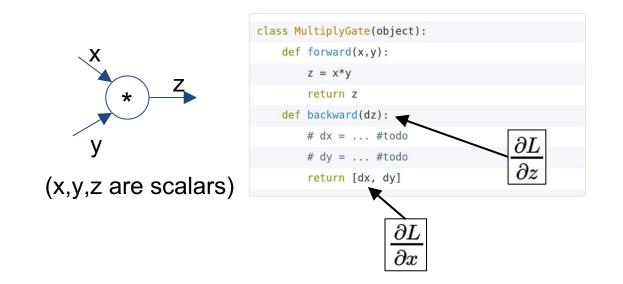
#### Graph (or Net) object (rough psuedo code)

class Co	<pre>omputationalGraph(object):</pre>
#	
def	<pre>forward(inputs):</pre>
	<pre># 1. [pass inputs to input gates]</pre>
	# 2. forward the computational graph:
	<pre>for gate in self.graph.nodes_topologically_sorted():</pre>
	gate.forward()
	<pre>return loss # the final gate in the graph outputs the loss</pre>
def	backward():
	<pre>for gate in reversed(self.graph.nodes_topologically_sorted()):</pre>
	<pre>gate.backward() # little piece of backprop (chain rule applied)</pre>
	<pre>return inputs_gradients</pre>



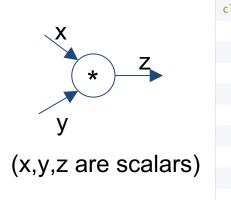


## Modularized implementation: forward / backward API





## Modularized implementation: forward / backward API



<pre>class MultiplyGate(object):</pre>						
<pre>def forward(x,y):</pre>						
$z = x^*y$						
<pre>self.x = x # must keep these around!</pre>						
self.y = y						
return z						
<pre>def backward(dz):</pre>						
dx = self.y * dz # [dz/dx * dL/dz]						
dy = self.x * dz # [dz/dy * dL/dz]						
return [dx, dy]						





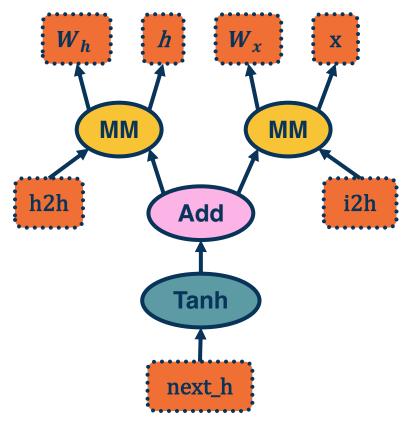
## Writing code == building graph

from torch.autograd import Variable

```
x = Variable(torch.randn(1, 20))
prev_h = Variable(torch.randn(1, 20))
W_h = Variable(torch.randn(20, 20))
W_x = Variable(torch.randn(20, 20))
```

```
i2h = torch.mm(W_x, x.t())
h2h = torch.mm(W_h, prev_h.t())
next_h = i2h + h2h
next_h = next_h.tanh()
```

```
next_h.backward(torch.ones(1, 20))
```



From pytorch.org

## **Computation Graphs in PyTorch**



# **Neural Turing Machine**

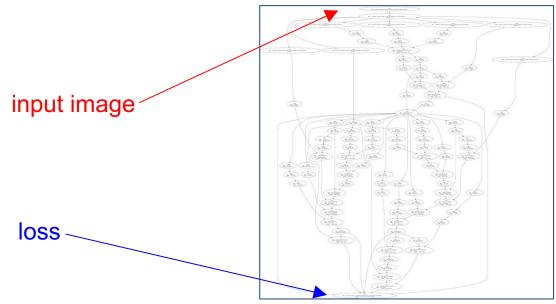
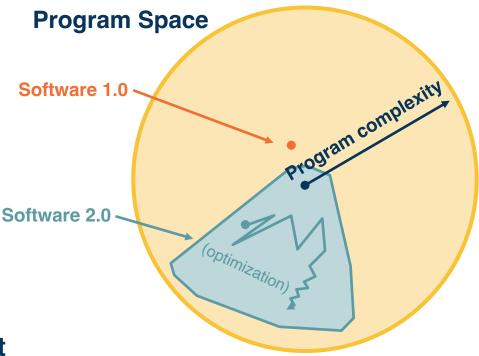


Figure reproduced with permission from a Twitter post by Andrej Karpathy.



- Computation graphs are not limited to mathematical functions!
- Can have control flows (if statements, loops) and backpropagate through algorithms!
- Can be done dynamically so that gradients are computed, then nodes are added, repeat



Adapted from figure by Andrej Karpathy

**Power of Automatic Differentiation** 



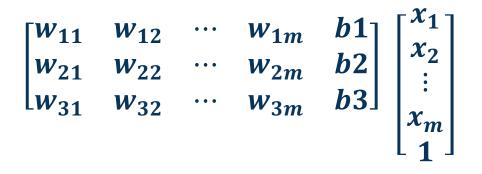
## Autodiff from scratch: <u>micrograd repo</u>, <u>video tutorial</u>





Linear **Algebra** View: **Vector and Matrix Sizes** 







Sizes:  $[c \times (d + 1)]$   $[(d + 1) \times 1]$ 

Where c is number of classes

d is dimensionality of input



**Closer Look at a Linear Classifier** 



## **Conventions:**

Size of derivatives for scalars, vectors, and matrices: Assume we have scalar  $s \in \mathbb{R}^1$ , vector  $v \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , i.e.  $v = [v_1, v_2, ..., v_m]^T$ and matrix  $M \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times \ell}$ 

• What is the size of  $\frac{\partial v}{\partial s}$  ?  $\mathbb{R}^{m \times 1}$  (column vector of size *m*)

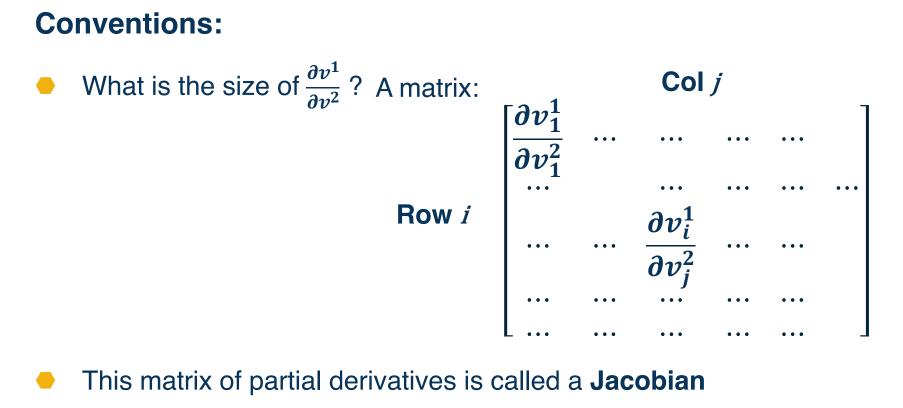
• What is the size of  $\frac{\partial s}{\partial v}$  ?  $\mathbb{R}^{1 \times m}$  (row vector of size *m*)

$$\left[\frac{\partial s}{\partial v_1} \frac{\partial s}{\partial v_1} \cdots \frac{\partial s}{\partial v_m}\right]$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial v_1}{\partial s} \\ \frac{\partial v_2}{\partial s} \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial v_m}{\partial s} \end{bmatrix}$$







This matrix of partial derivatives is called a **Jacobian** 

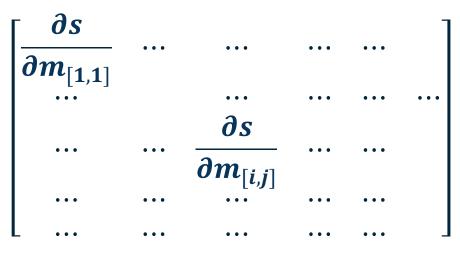
(Note this is slightly different convention than on Wikipedia)

## **Dimensionality of Derivatives**



## **Conventions:**

• What is the size of  $\frac{\partial s}{\partial M}$ ? A matrix:







- What is the size of  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial W}$ ?
  - Remember that loss is a scalar and W is a matrix:

Jacobian is also a matrix:

W

∂ <i>L</i>	ðL		<b>∂L</b>	ן <i>∂L</i>
$\overline{\partial w_{11}}$	$\partial w_{12}$	• • •	$\partial w_{1m}$	$\overline{\partial b_1}$
ðL			<b>∂</b> L	<b>∂</b> L
$\partial w_{21}$	• • •	• • •	$\partial w_{2m}$	$\partial b_2$
			<b>∂</b> L	∂L
• • •	• • •	• • •	$\partial w_{3m}$	$\overline{\partial b_3}$





 $\begin{bmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & \cdots & w_{1m} & b1 \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & \cdots & w_{2m} & b2 \\ w_{31} & w_{32} & \cdots & w_{3m} & b3 \end{bmatrix}$ 

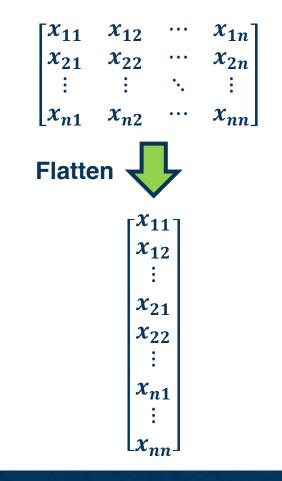
Batches of data are **matrices** or **tensors** (multidimensional matrices)

## Examples:

- Each instance is a vector of size m, our batch is of size  $[B \times m]$
- Each instance is a matrix (e.g. grayscale image) of size  $W \times H$ , our batch is  $[B \times W \times H]$
- Each instance is a multi-channel matrix (e.g. color image with R,B,G channels) of size  $C \times W \times H$ , our batch is  $[B \times C \times W \times H]$

## Jacobians become tensors which is complicated

- Instead, flatten input to a vector and get a vector of derivatives!
- This can also be done for partial derivatives between two vectors, two matrices, or two tensors



## **Jacobians of Batches**

