

OUTLINE

I. Introduction

II. Background

- Multi-valued Multi-variate Functions
- Tensors
- Differential Calculus
- The Chain Rule

III. Fitting a Model

IV. Supervised Learning

V. Unsupervised Learning

VI. Fantastic DNNs: How to choose them, how to train them

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II. Background

III. Fitting a Model

- How to minimize a function?
- Backpropagation
- Improved Gradient Descent
- The PyTorch Framework

IV. Supervised Learning

V. Unsupervised Learning

VI. Fantastic DNNs: How to choose them, how to train them

Recap: the *model fitting* approach to Machine Learning



- $f_\theta = a\text{ jean}$
- $\theta = \text{its (width, length)}$
- $\mathcal{F} = \{f_\theta\}_{\theta \in \Theta}$ the shelves

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→ We want to **minimize** the loss with respect to the **parameters** $\theta \in \Theta$:

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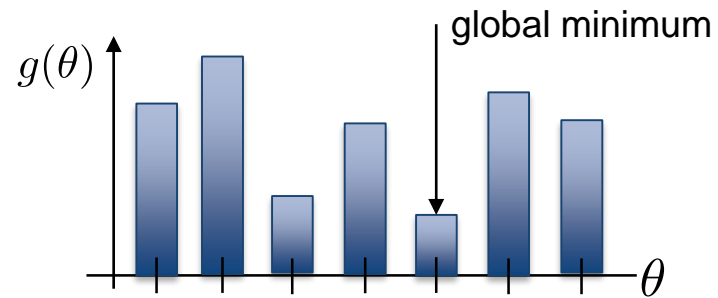
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For conciseness we will use $g(\theta) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} L(f_\theta, \mathcal{T})$ ($g : \Theta \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$) in the next slides.

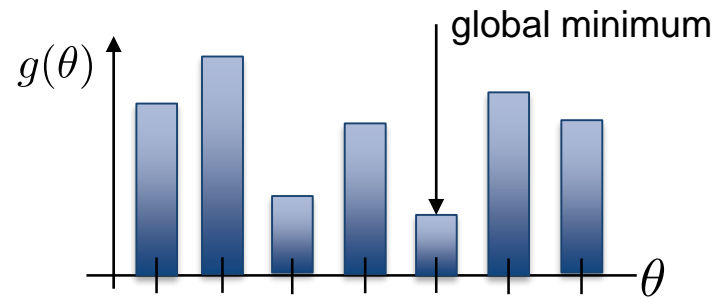
Domain of the function

Discrete: $\theta \in \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_C\}$

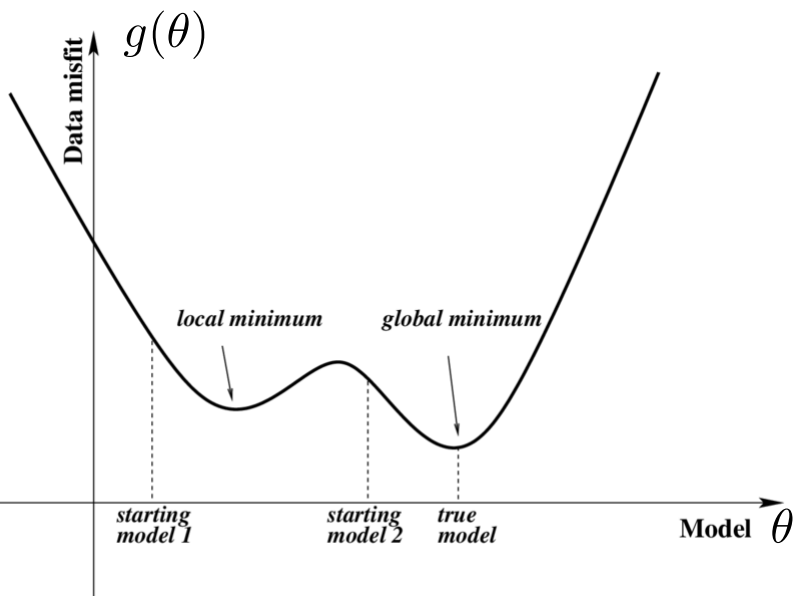


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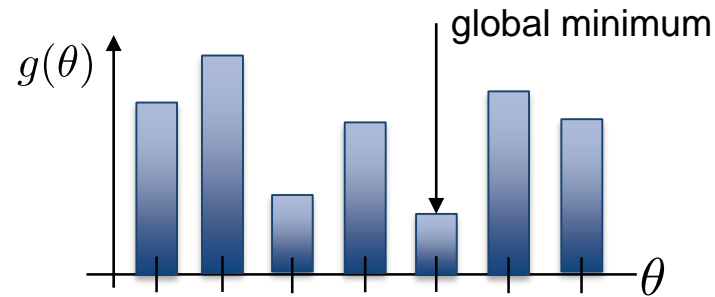


1D continuous: $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$

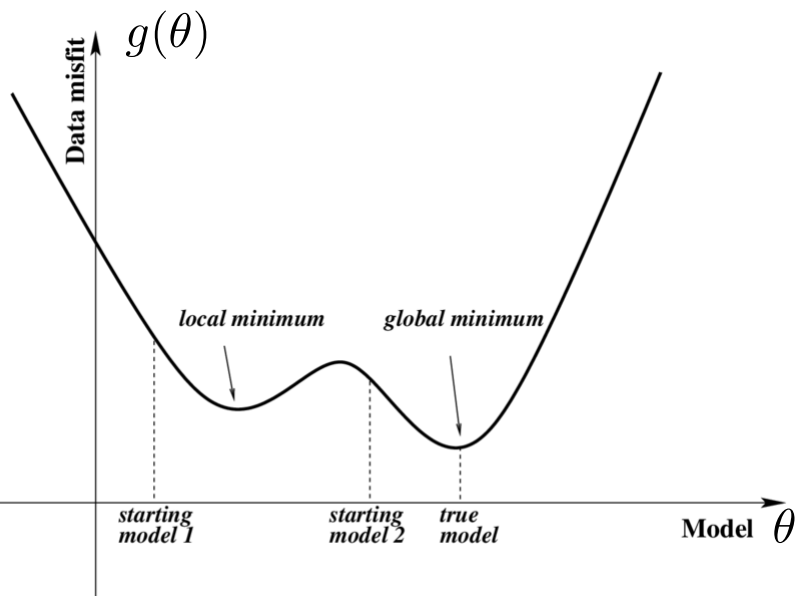


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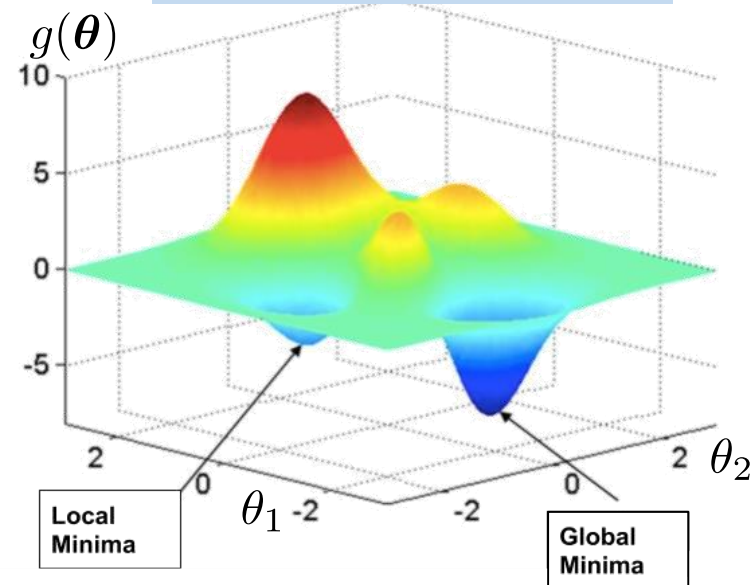
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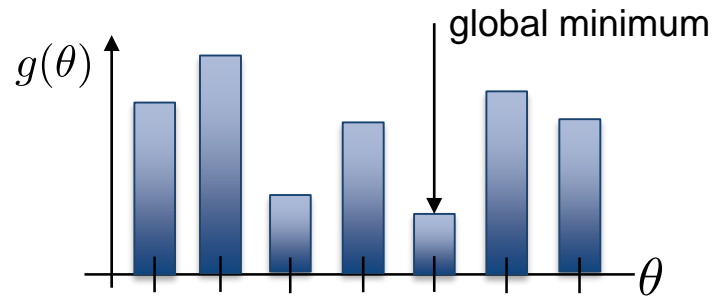


2D continuous: $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^2$

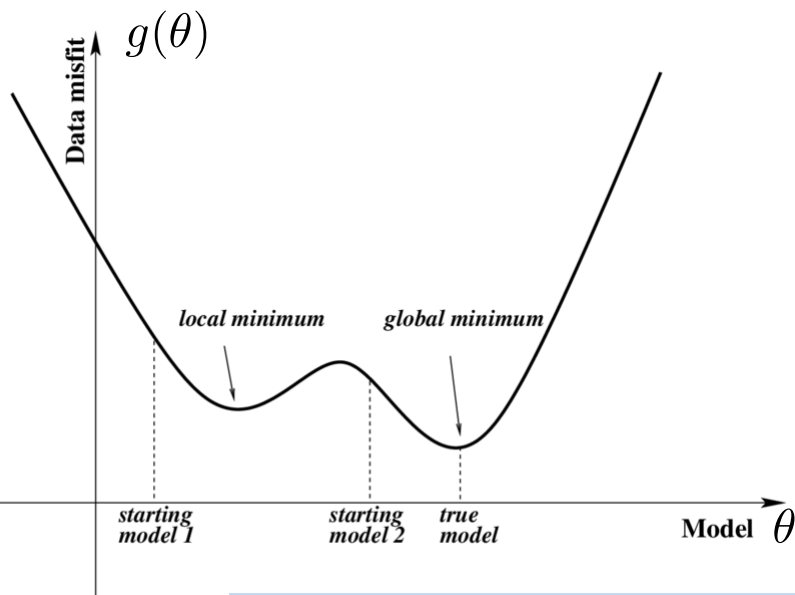


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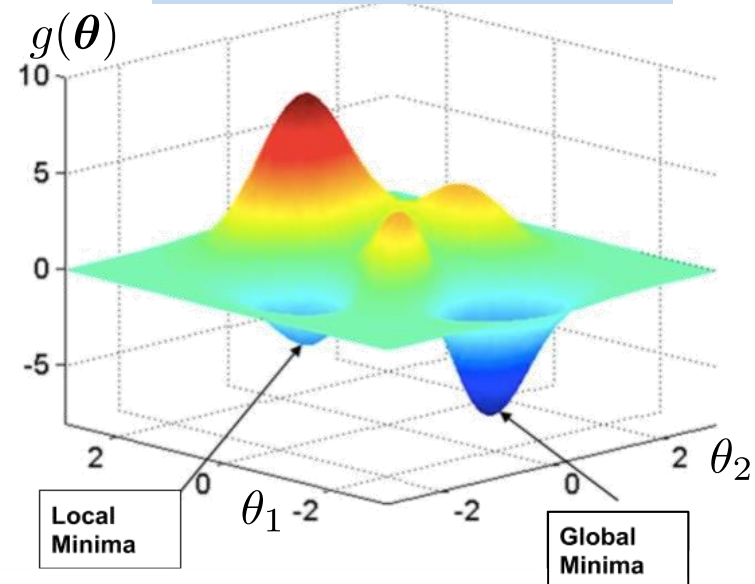
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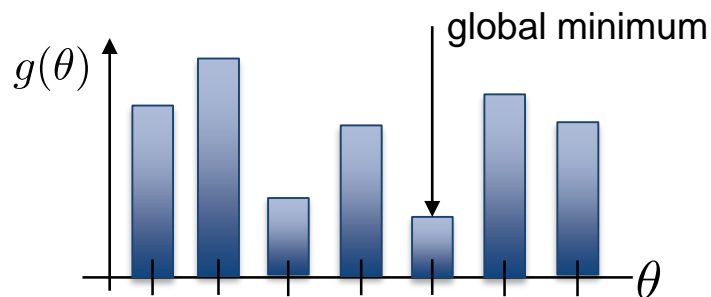
2D continuous: $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^2$



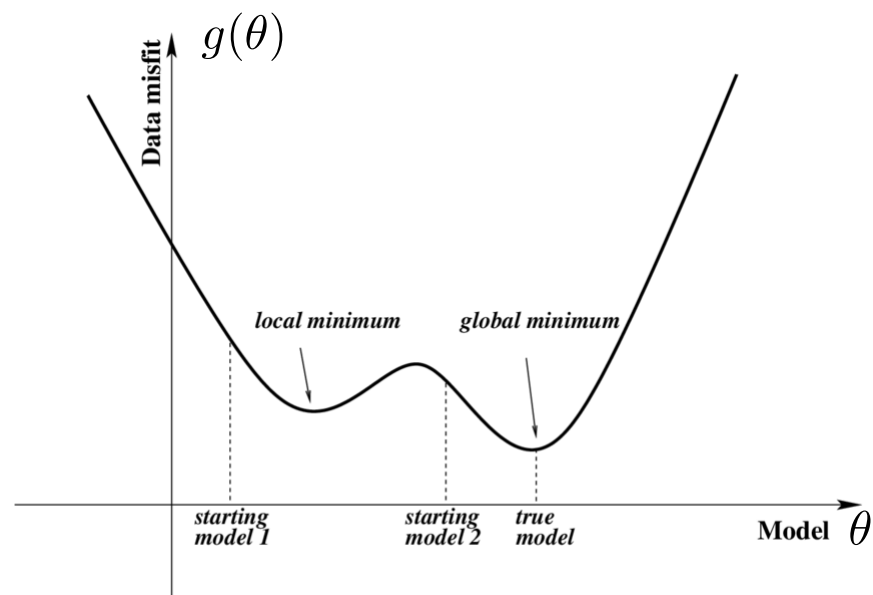
D -D continuous: $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^D$

Domain of the function

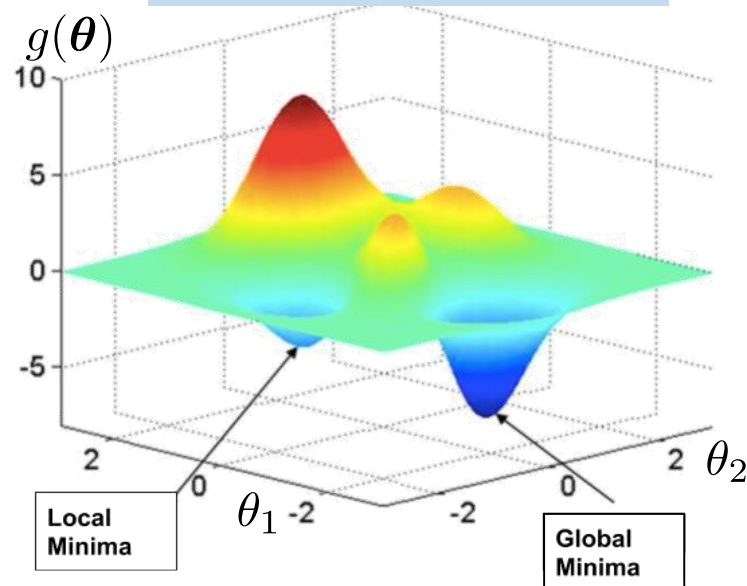
Discrete: $\theta \in \{\theta_1, \dots, \theta_C\}$



1D continuous: $\theta \in \mathbb{R}$



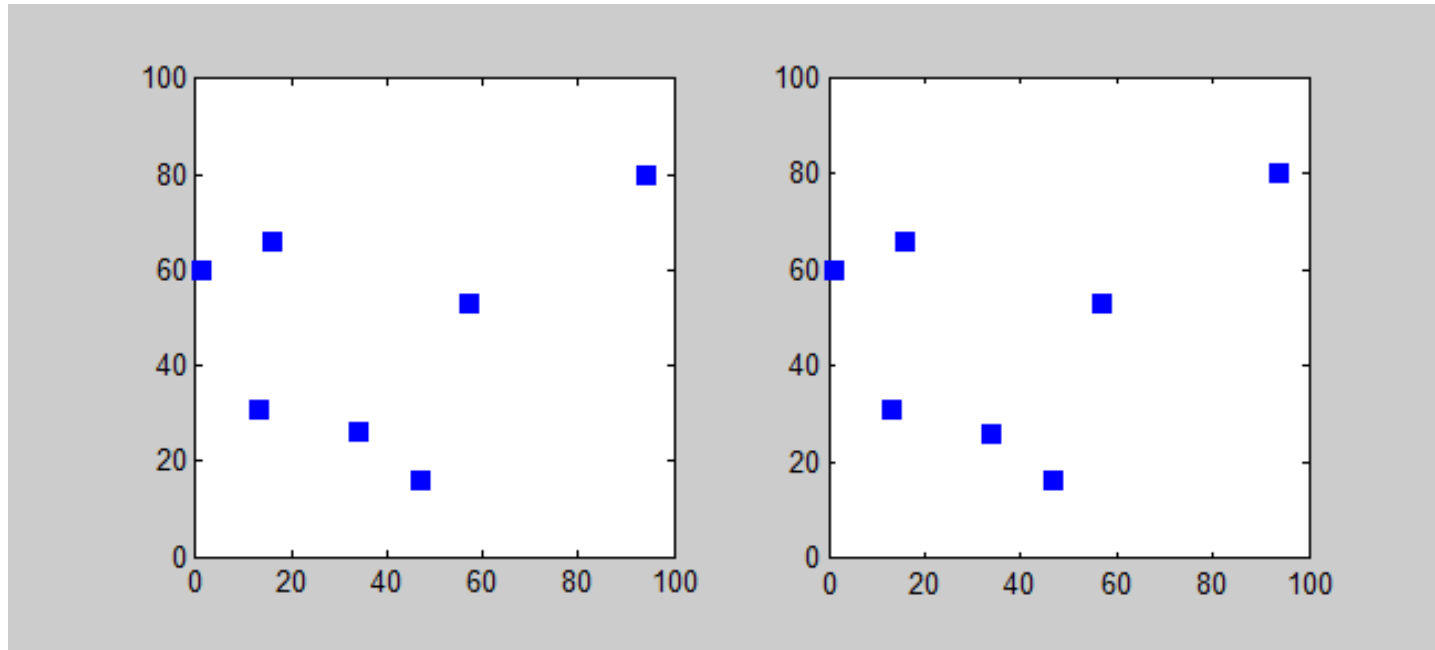
2D continuous: $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^2$



D-D continuous: $\theta \in \mathbb{R}^D$

Mixed: $\theta \in \{0, 1\} \times \mathbb{R}^D \times [0, 1] \times \mathbb{R}^+ \dots$

1. Brute Force / Random / Grid Search

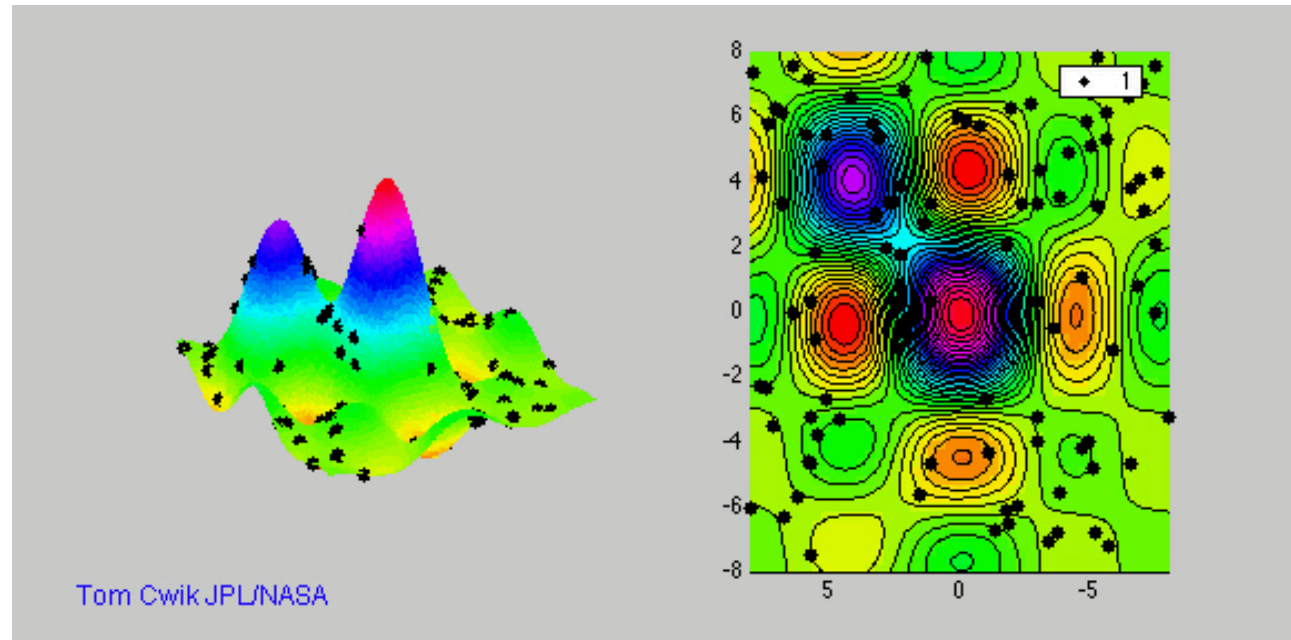


What is g ? What is θ ? What is Θ ?

- Sometimes best when optimizing on a **small discrete set** of parameters
- **Ex:** DNN **architectures** or *hyperparameters*

2. “Population-Based” Algorithms

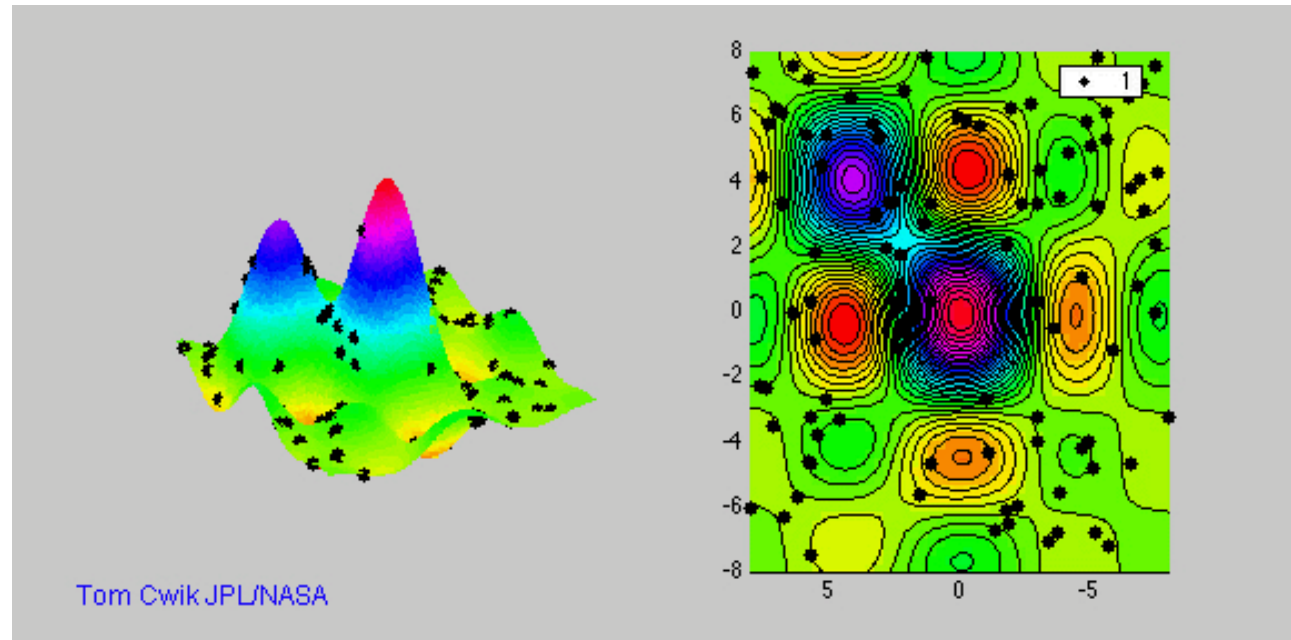
- Evolutionary/Genetic algorithms
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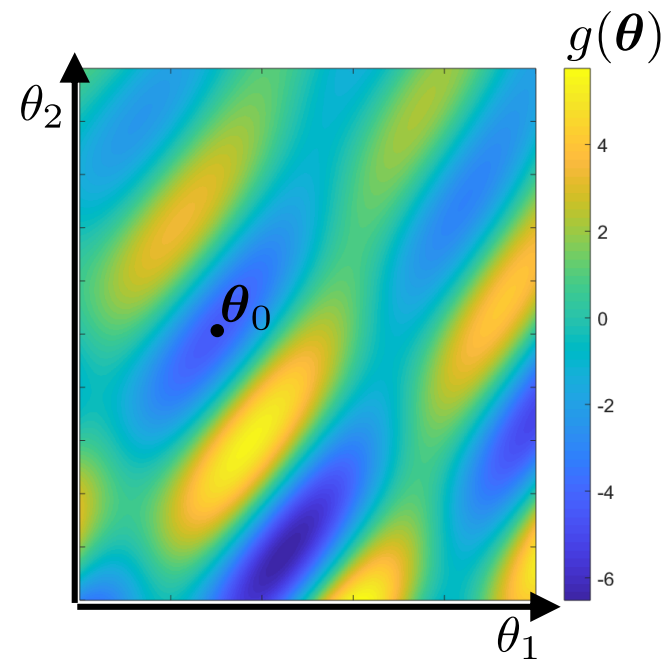


What is g ? What is θ ? What is Θ ?

- Principle = Evolve a population.
- Strongly inspired by **nature** or **physics**
- Can be powerful and work on very general functions, but **heuristic**

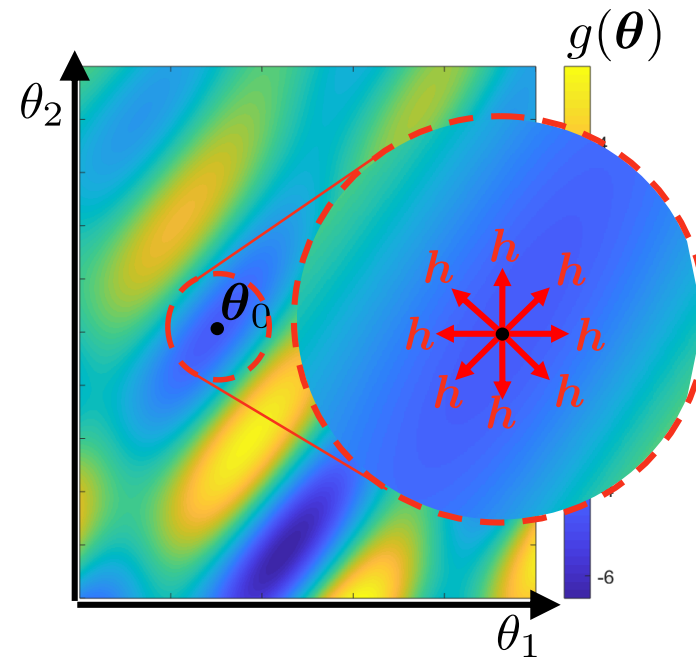
3. Calculating “zeroes” of the gradient

- We call **zero** of the gradient a point $\theta_0 \in \mathbb{R}^P$ such that $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}}g(\theta_0) = \mathbf{0}_P$.



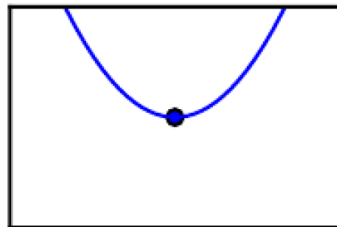
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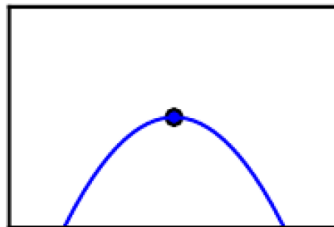


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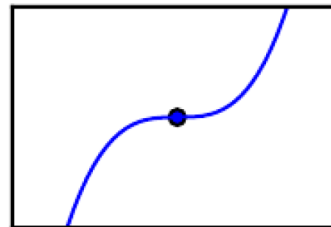
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- They may correspond to:



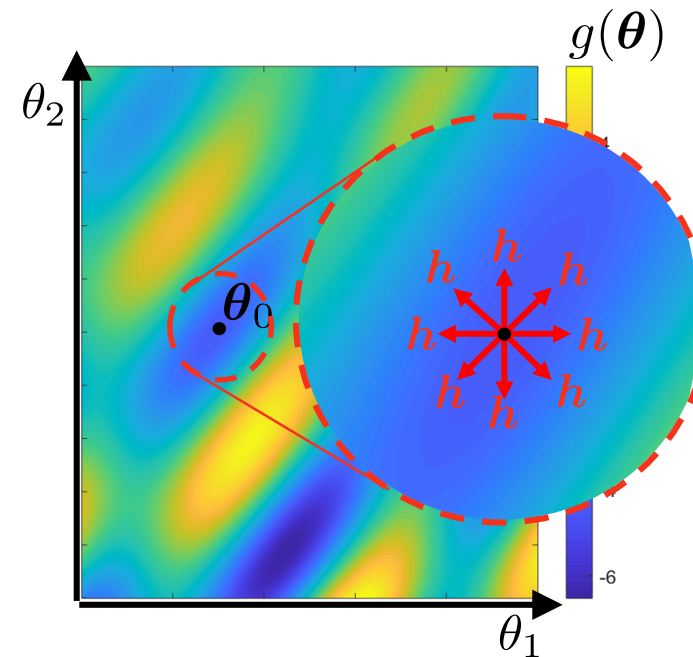
local minimum



local maximum

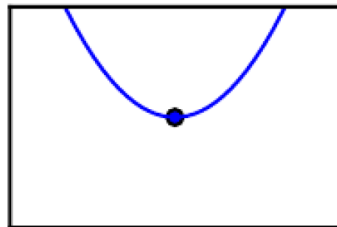


saddle point

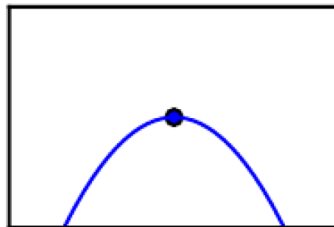


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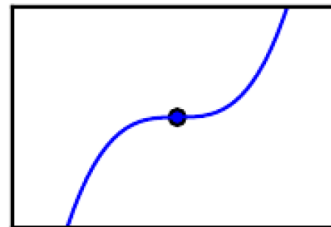
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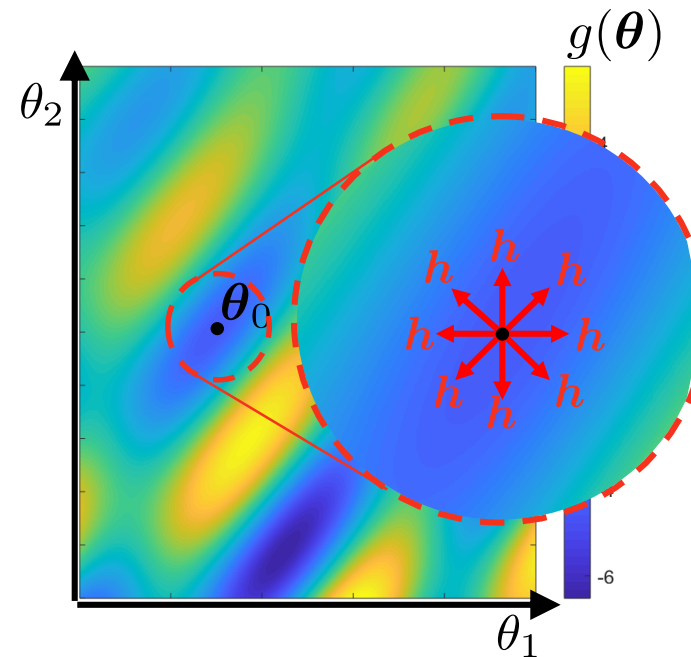
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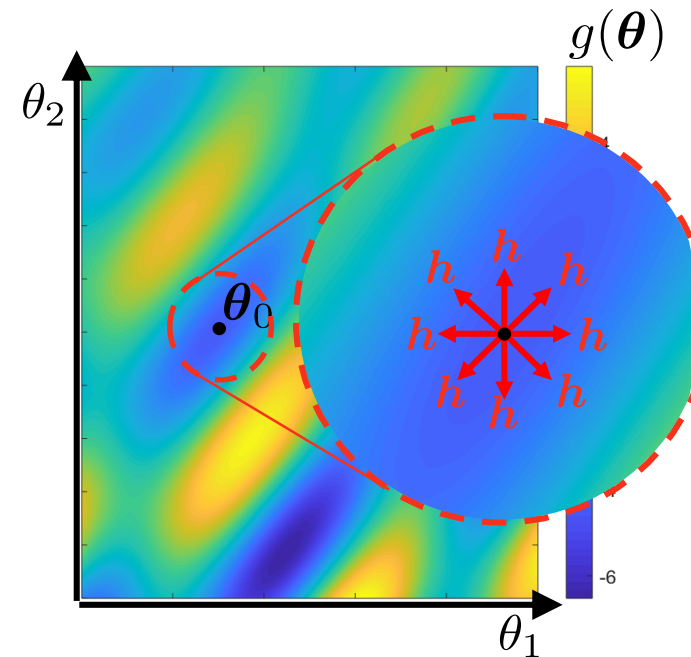
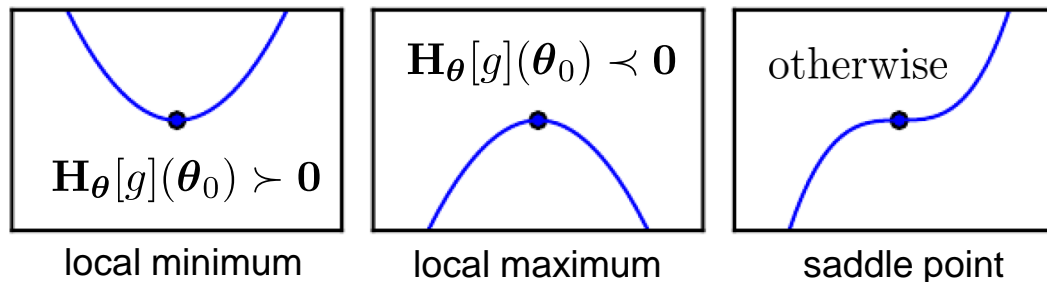
- In case of doubt, it is possible to distinguish between the 3 by looking at the **Hessian** $\mathbf{H}_{\theta}[g](\theta_0) \in \mathbb{R}^{P \times P}$ of g at θ_0 :

$$\mathbf{H}_{\theta}[g](\theta_0) \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \mathbf{J}_{\theta}[\nabla_{\theta}g](\theta_0) \quad \text{“Second order derivative of } g \text{”}$$



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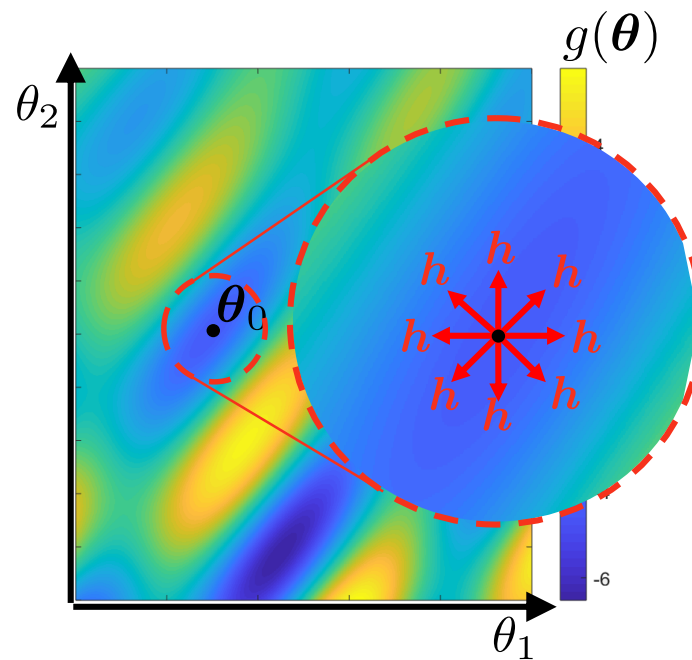
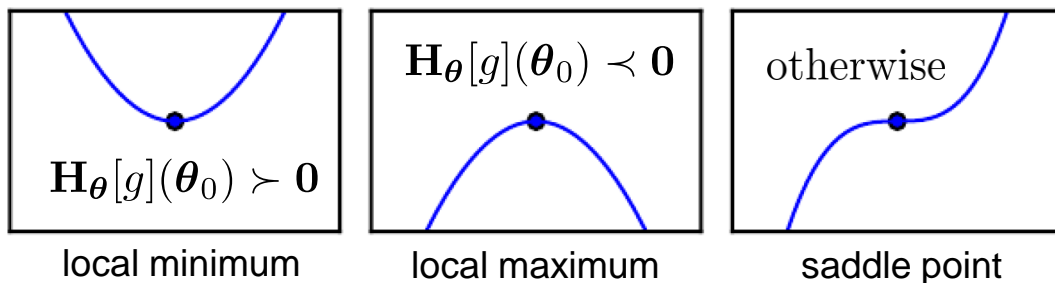


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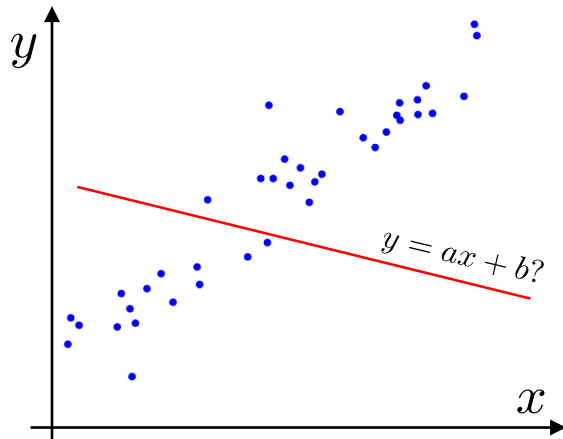
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“Second order derivative of g ”

Only works if $\text{Det } \mathbf{H}_{\theta}[g](\theta_0) \neq 0$

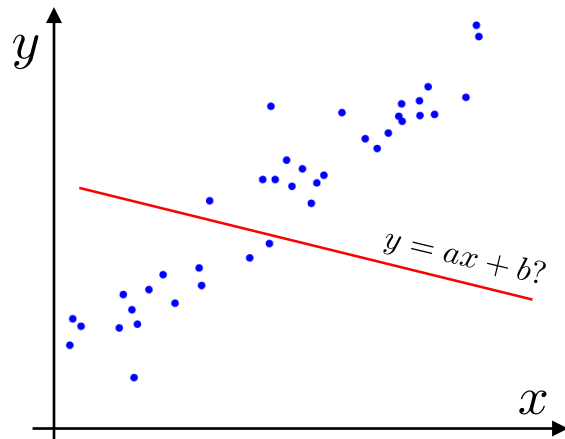
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Exercise: Fitting an **affine model** via *least squares*



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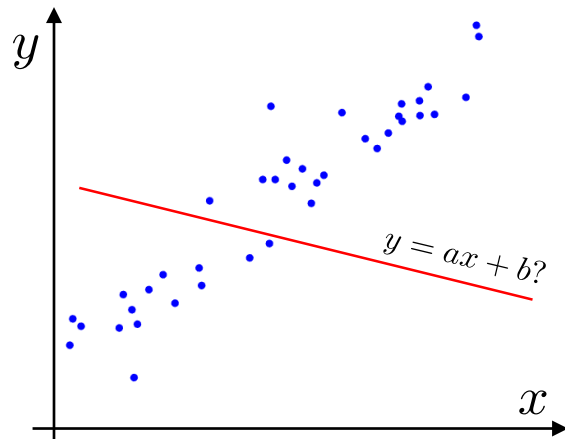
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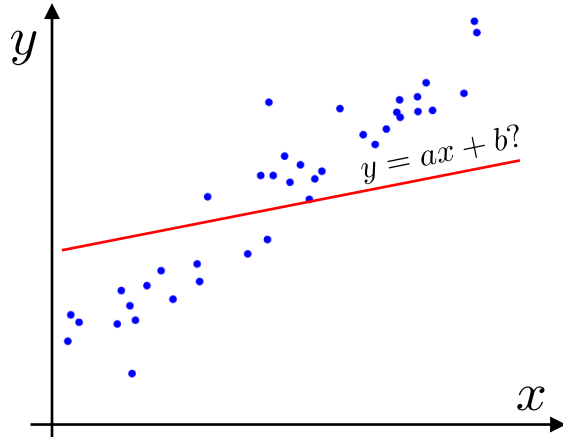
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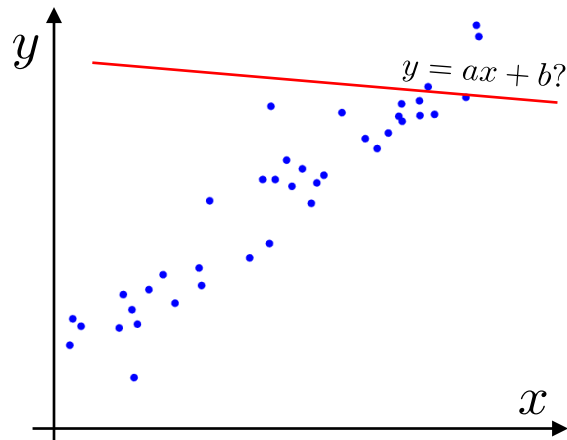
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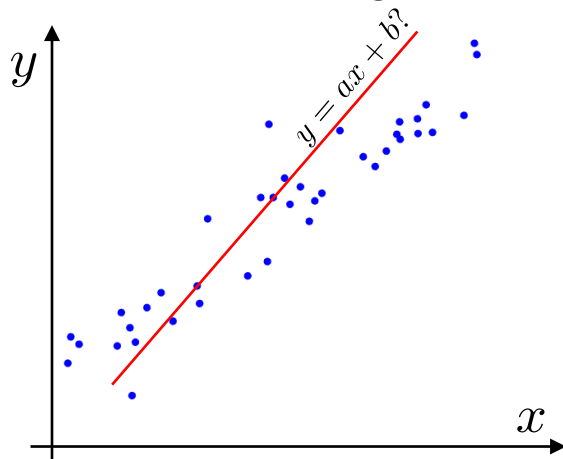
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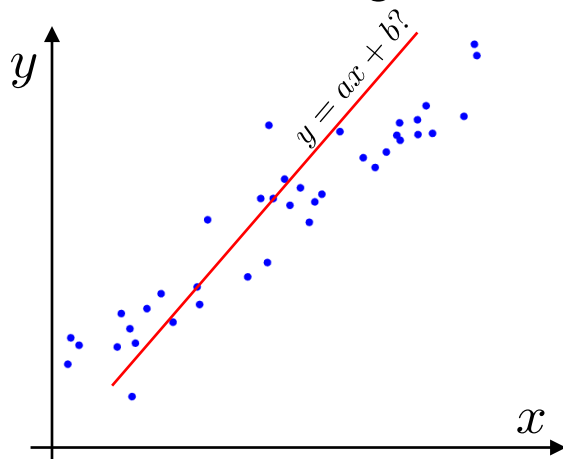
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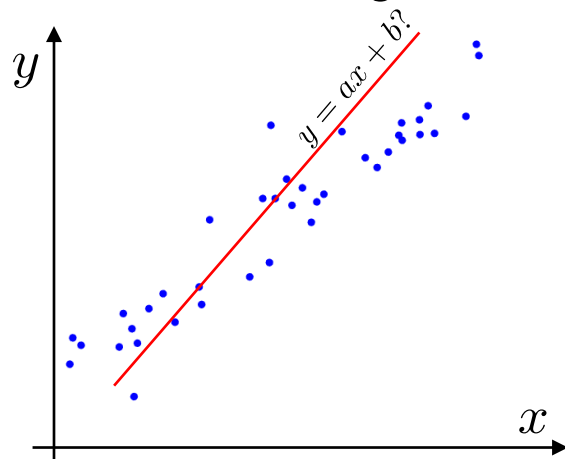
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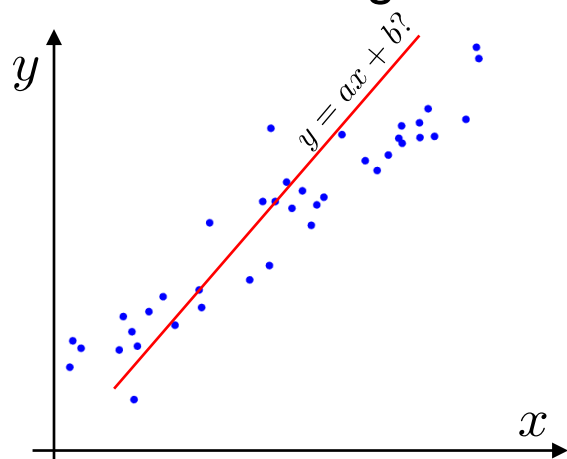
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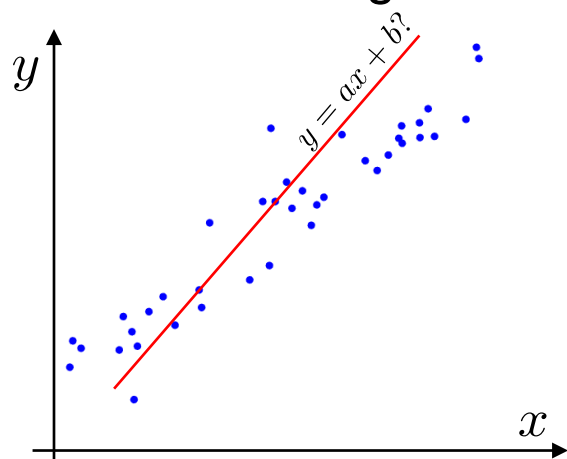
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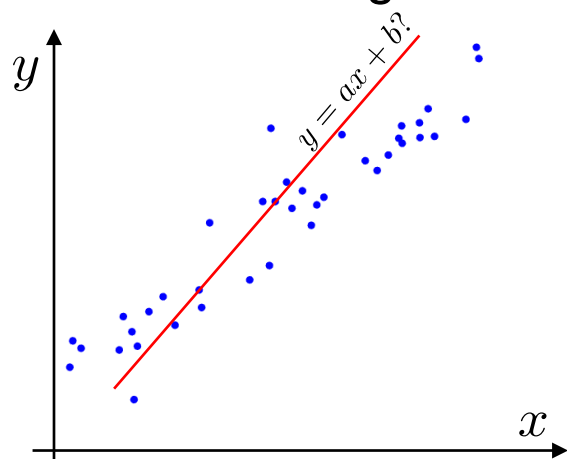
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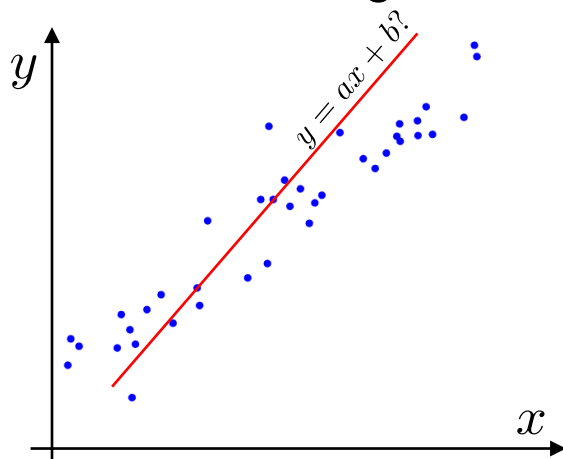
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$$g(\theta) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T (ax_t + b - y_t)^2 = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \left([x_t, 1]^{\top} \begin{bmatrix} a \\ b \end{bmatrix} - y_t \right)^2$$

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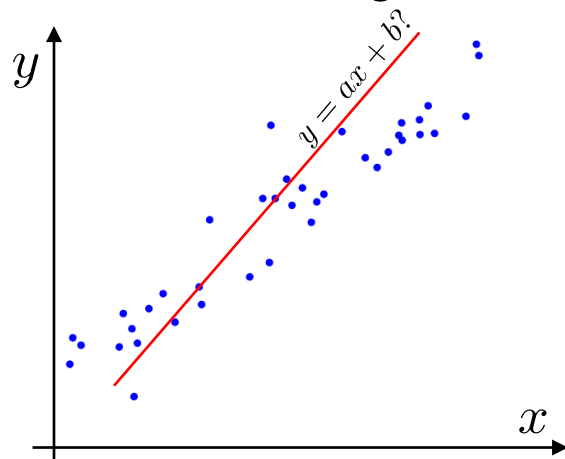
- Find θ_0 such that $\nabla_{\theta} g(\theta_0) = \mathbf{0}_2$ **Hint:** we *already* calculated $\nabla_{\theta} g(\theta_0)$!

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3. Calculating “zeroes” of the gradient

Exercise: Fitting an **affine model** via *least squares*



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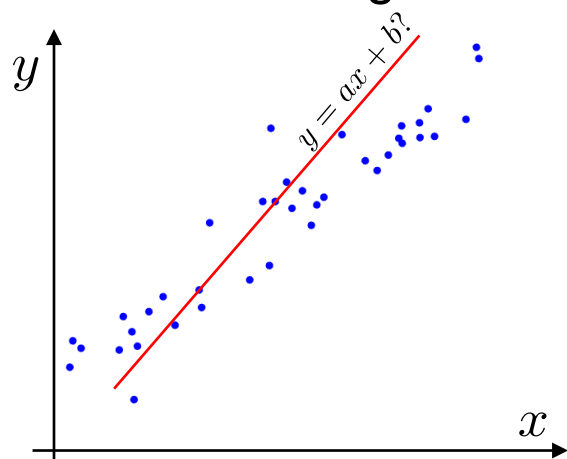
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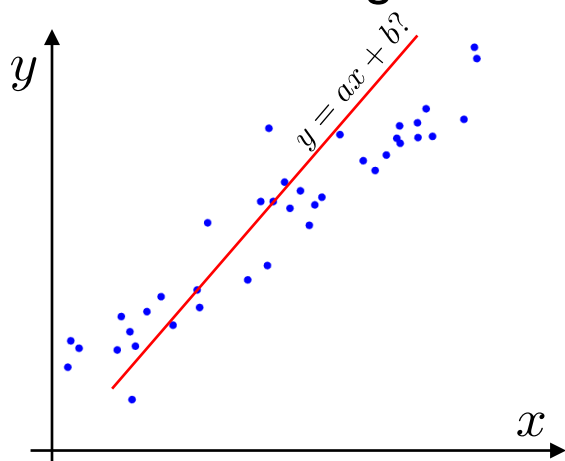
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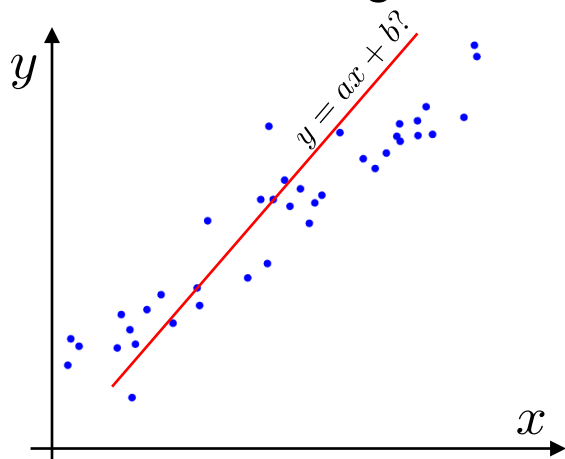
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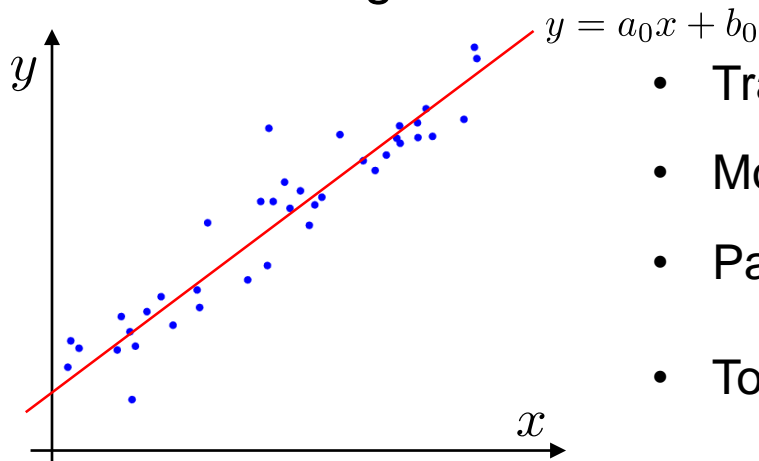
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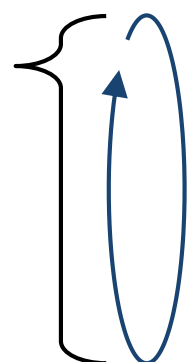
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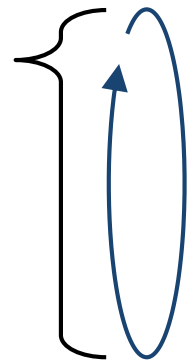


$$\begin{aligned} \theta_1^{(i+1)} &= \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta_1} g(\theta_1, \theta_2^{(i)}, \dots, \theta_P^{(i)}) \\ \theta_2^{(i+1)} &= \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta_2} g(\theta_1^{(i+1)}, \theta_2, \dots, \theta_P^{(i)}) \\ &\vdots \\ \theta_P^{(i+1)} &= \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta_P} g(\theta_1^{(i+1)}, \theta_2^{(i+1)}, \dots, \theta_P) \end{aligned}$$

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Converges, but not necessarily to the global minimum



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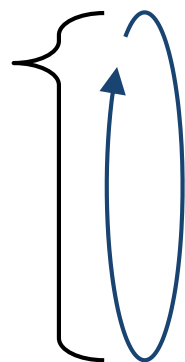
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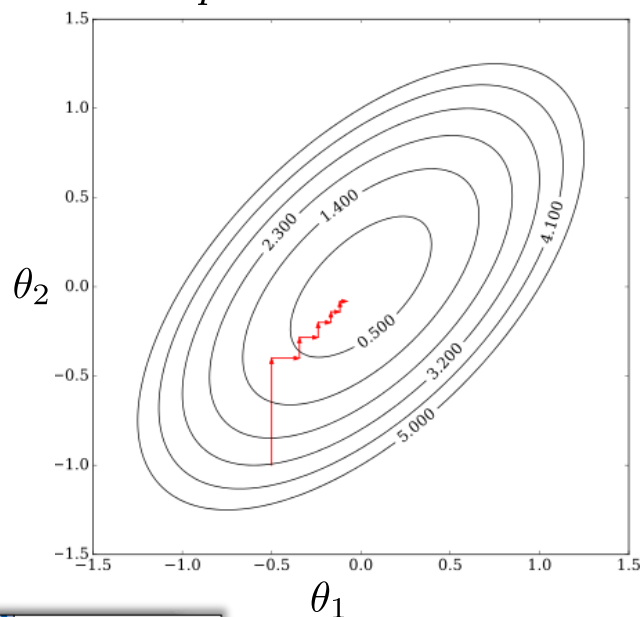
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⋮

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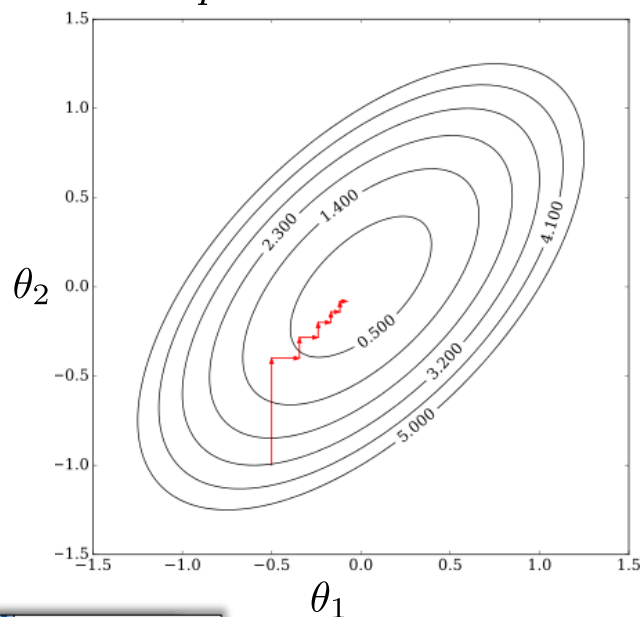
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 - Variables are mixed discrete / continuous
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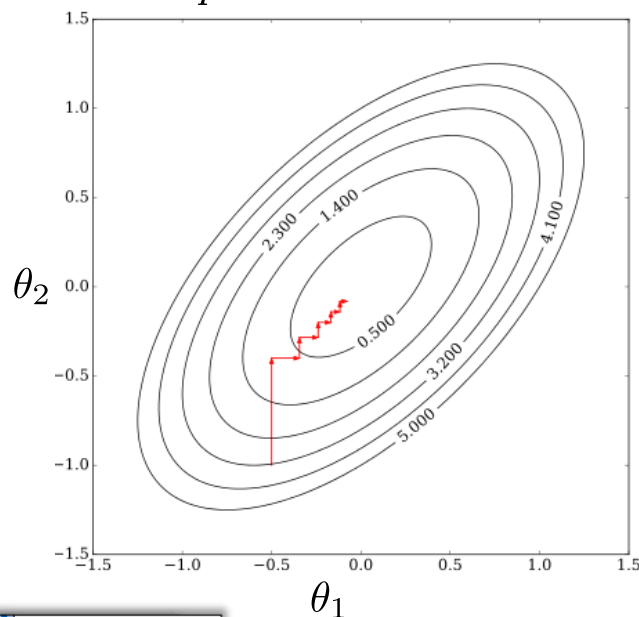
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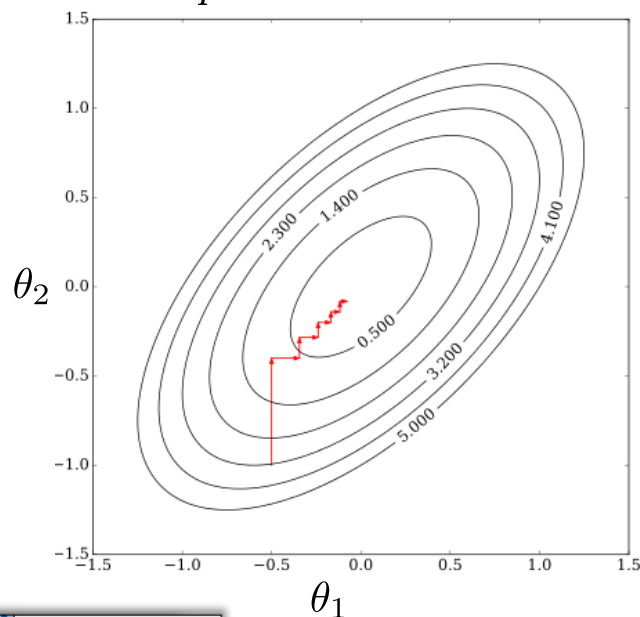
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- Sometimes, introducing **new variables** and then performing AM yields efficient algorithms, e.g., *Expectation-Maximization (EM)* or *ADMM*
- Variant: Alternate between **minimization** and **projection** onto *constraints* (e.g.: $\theta \geq 0$)

5. Gradient Descent

Intuition:

- Start from an initial **parameter vector** $\theta^{(0)} \in \mathbb{R}^P$
- From here, follow the ***direction of steepest descent***
- Stop when things look ***flat***



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↓

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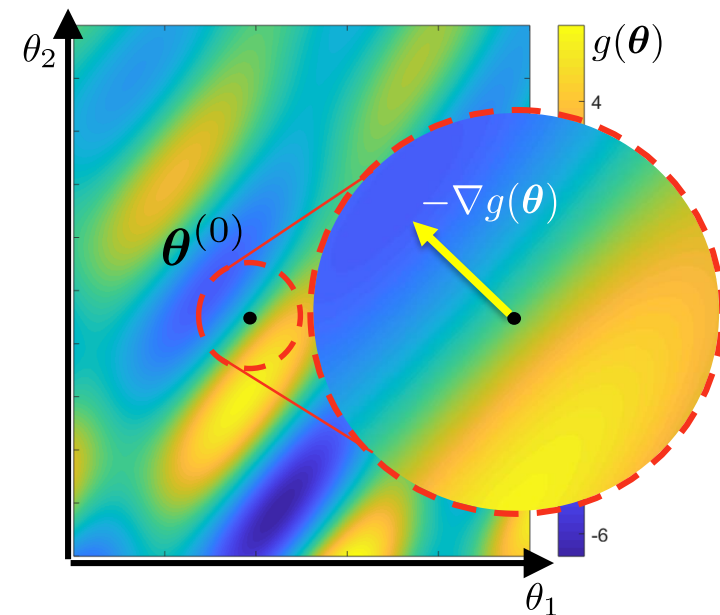


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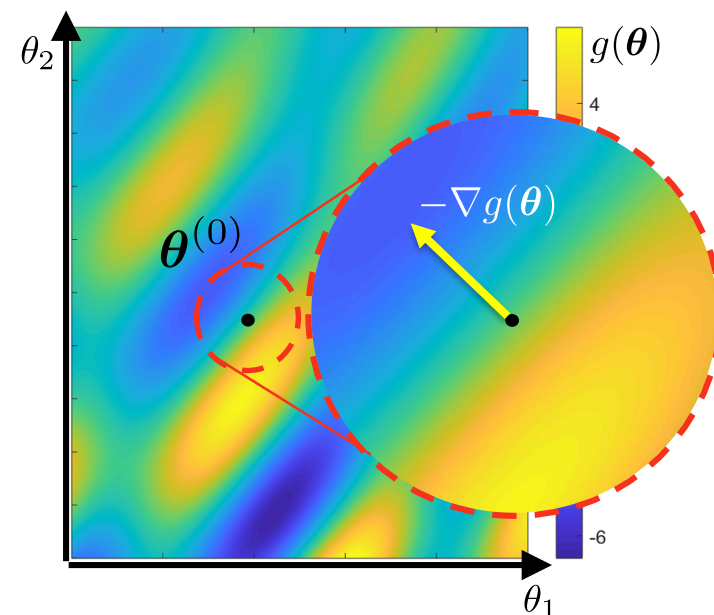
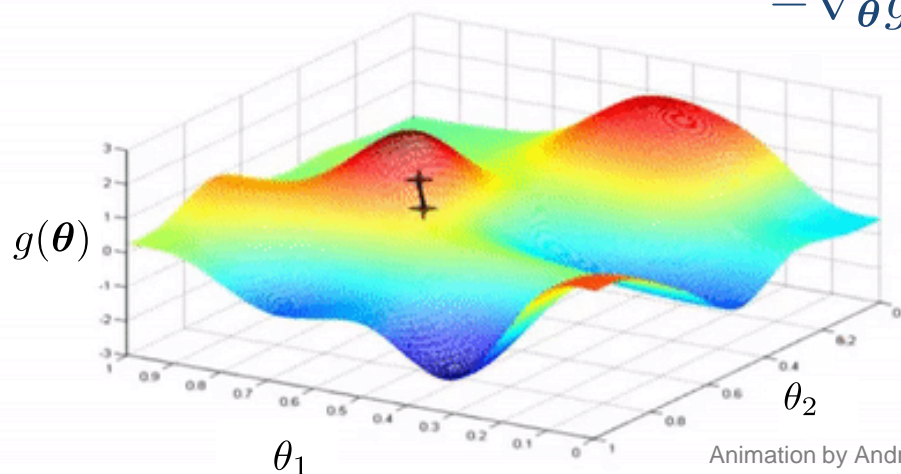


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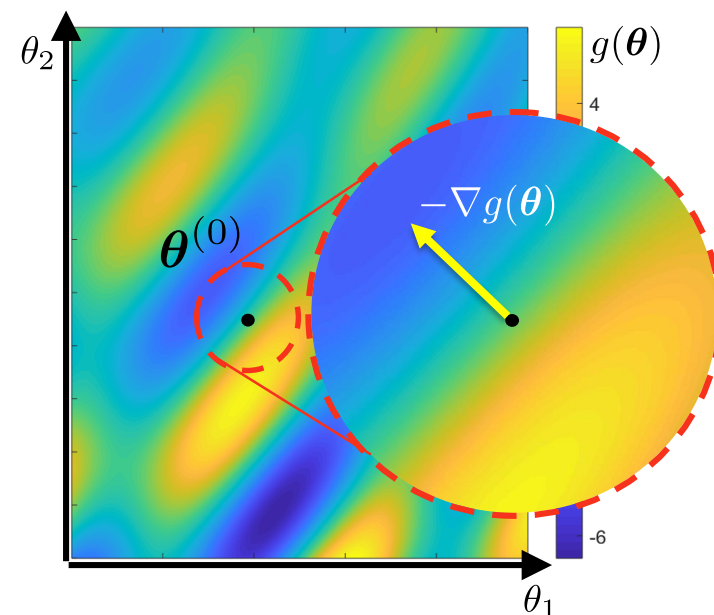
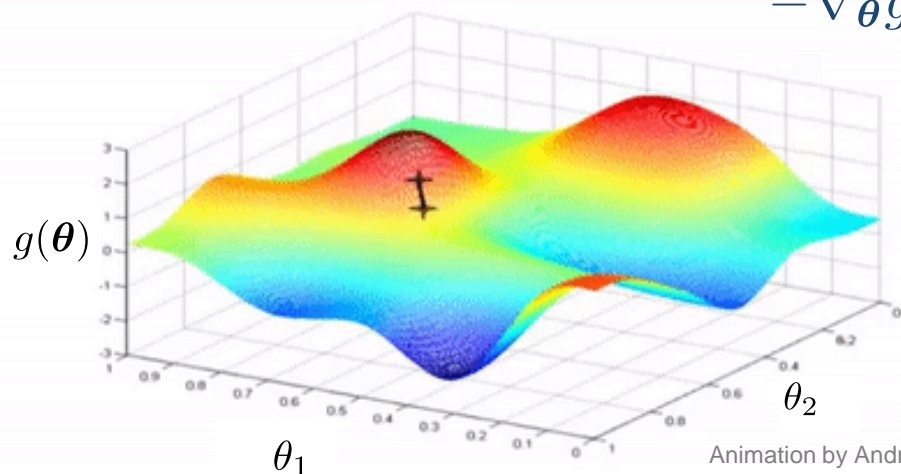


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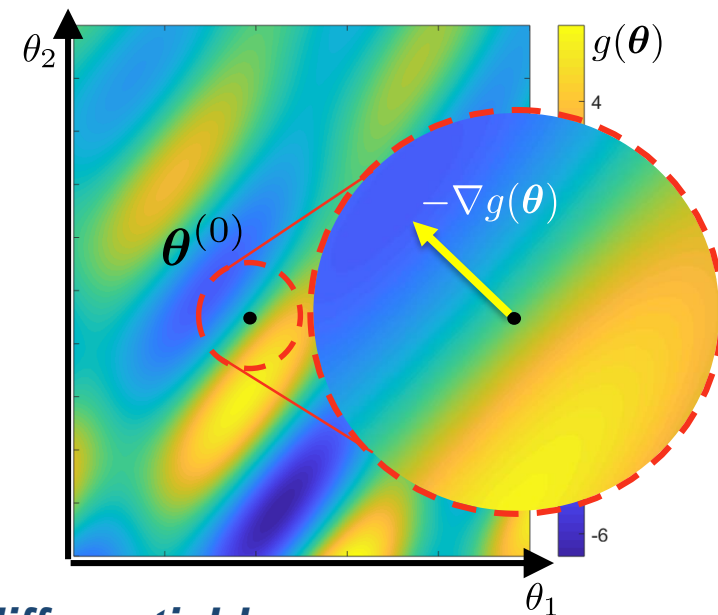
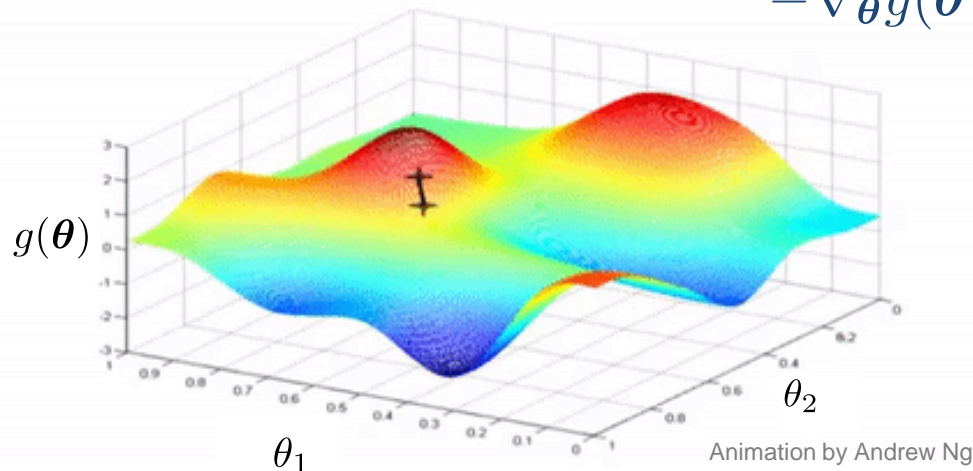
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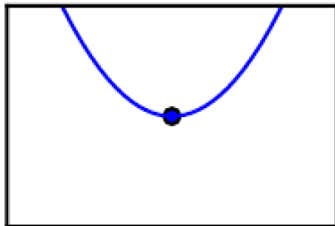
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- Requires the function to be (almost everywhere) **differentiable**

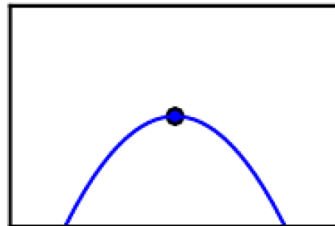
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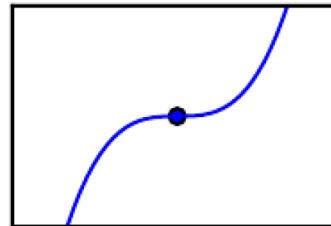
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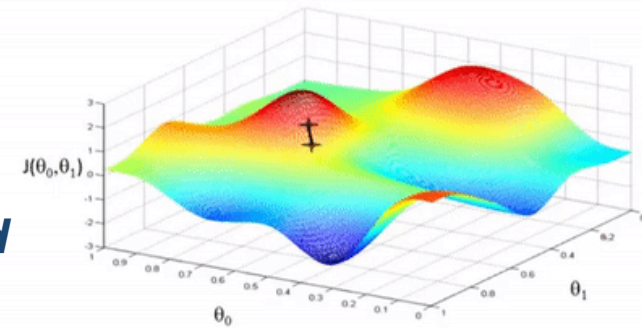
local minimum



local maximum



saddle point

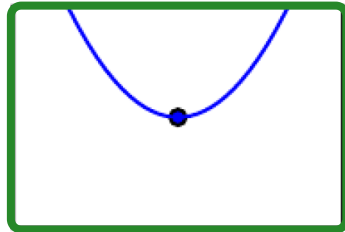


Animation by Andrew Ng

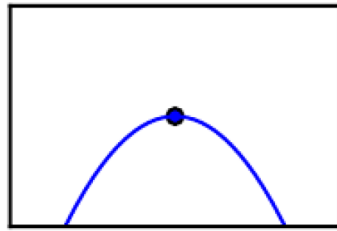
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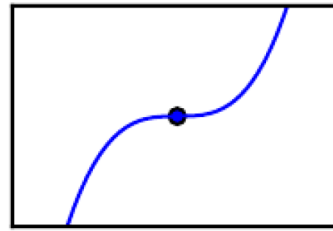
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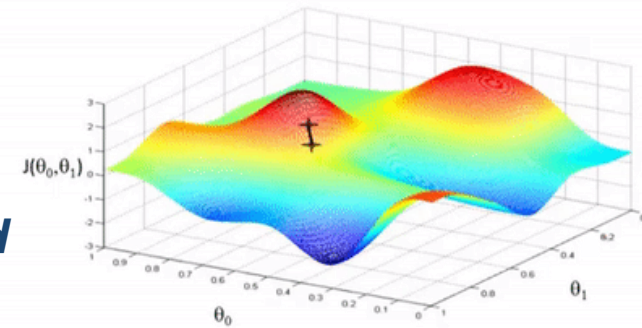
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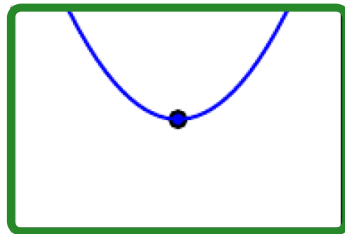
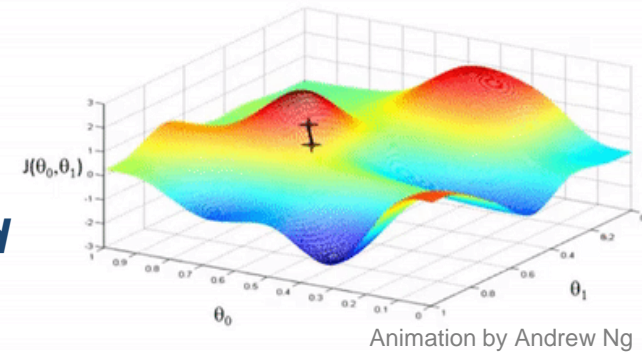
Animation by Andrew Ng

→ **The algorithm converges to local minima under mild assumptions** 😊

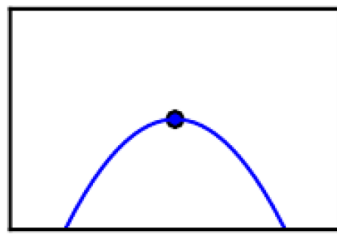
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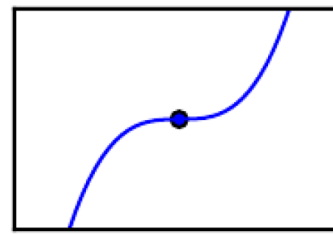
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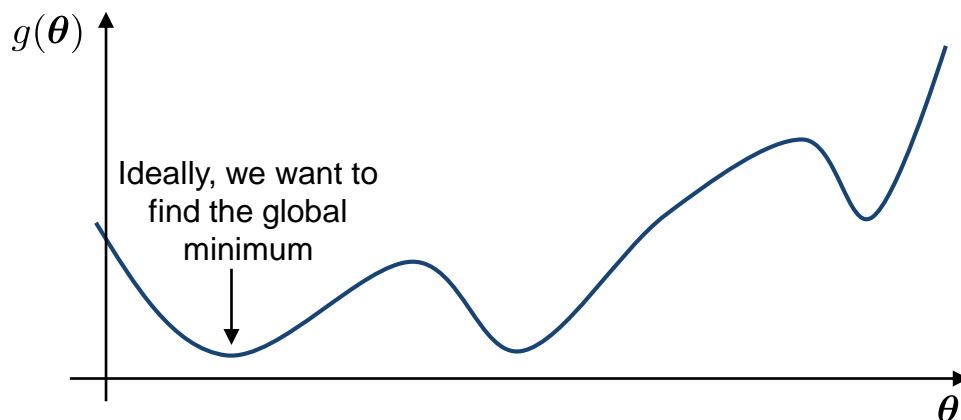


local maximum



saddle point

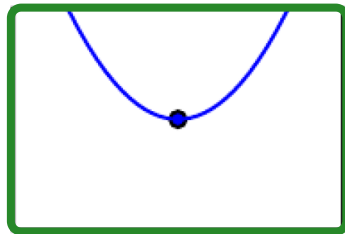
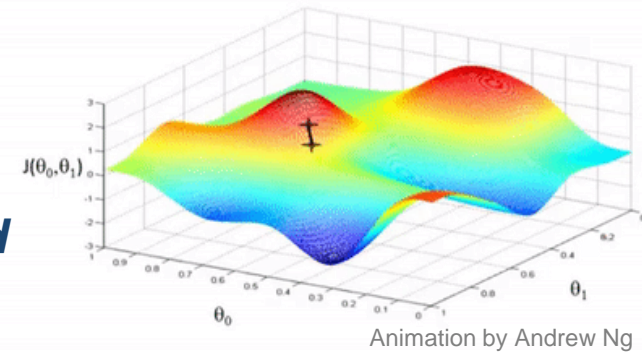
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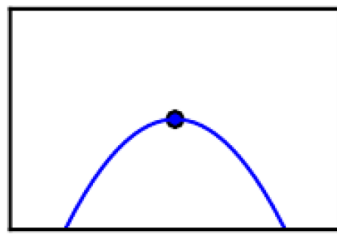
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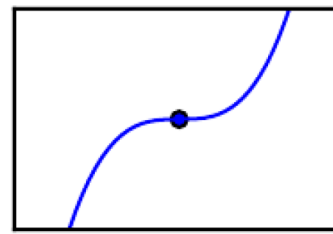
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local minimum

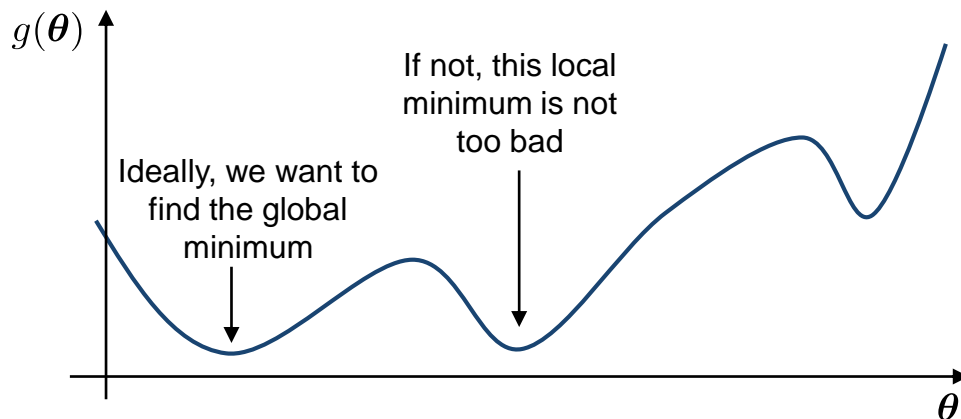


local maximum



saddle point

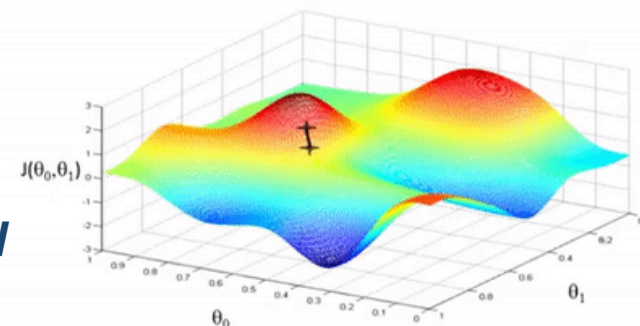
→ **The algorithm converges to local minima under mild assumptions** 😊



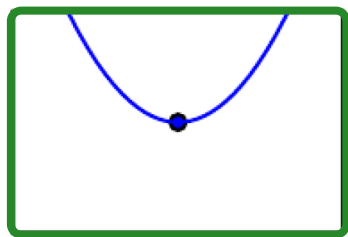
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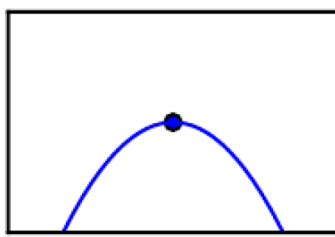
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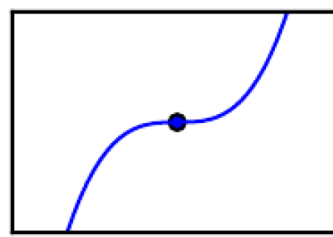
Animation by Andrew Ng



local minimum

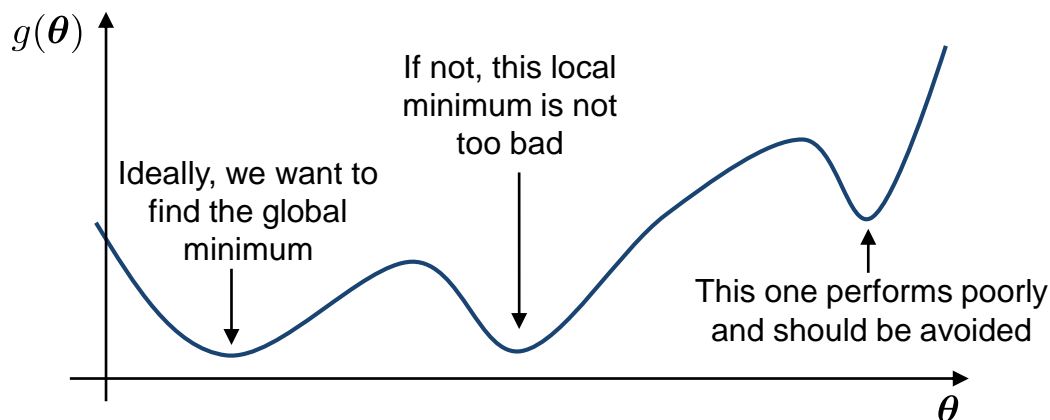


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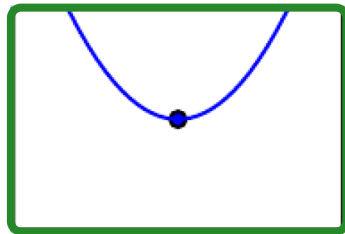
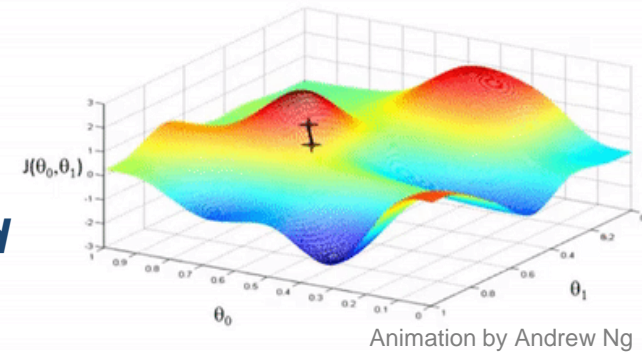
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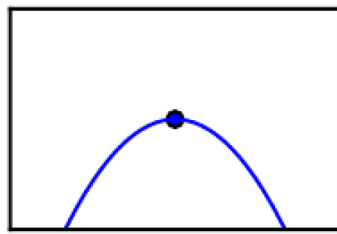
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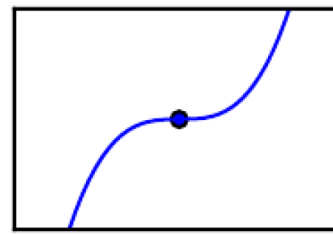
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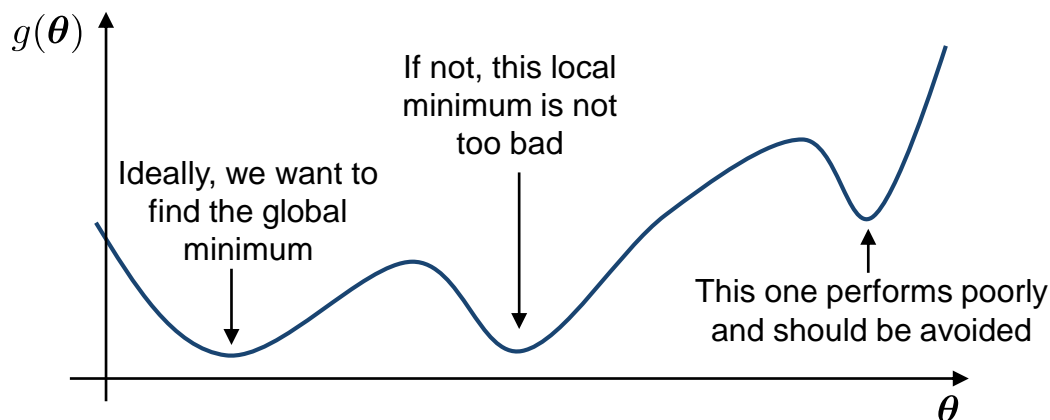


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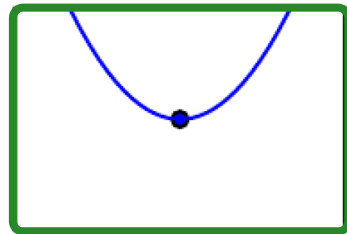
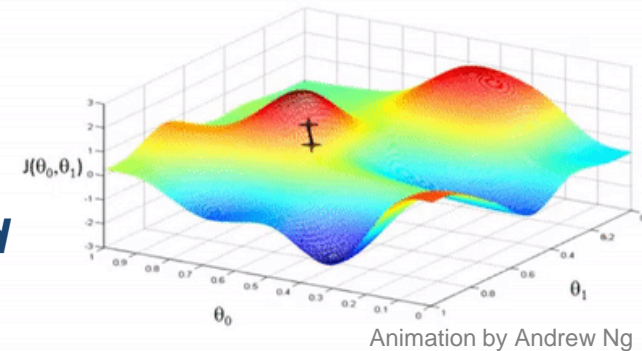


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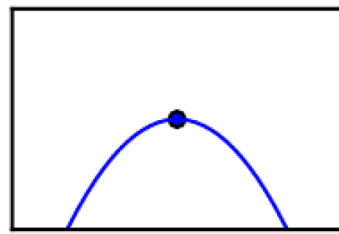
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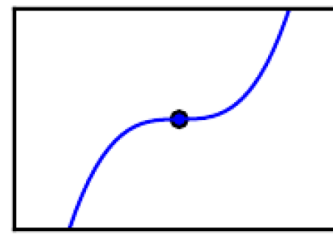
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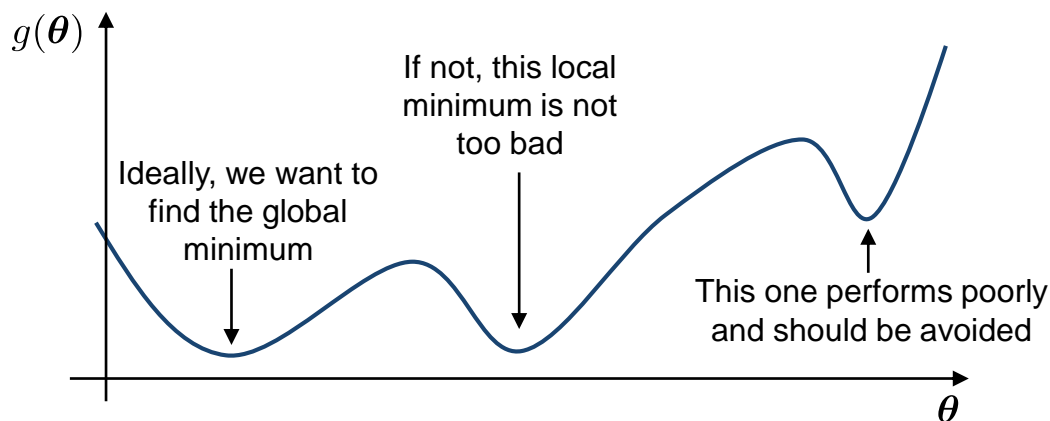


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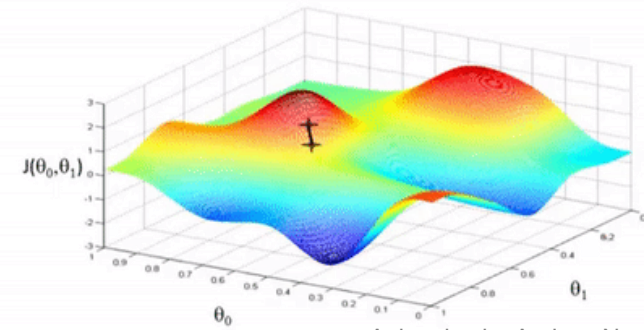


- Spurious local minima** cannot always be avoided
- Many variants have been derived to limit them, and to speed up convergence

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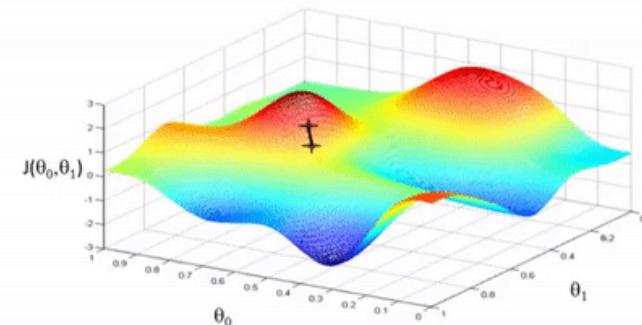


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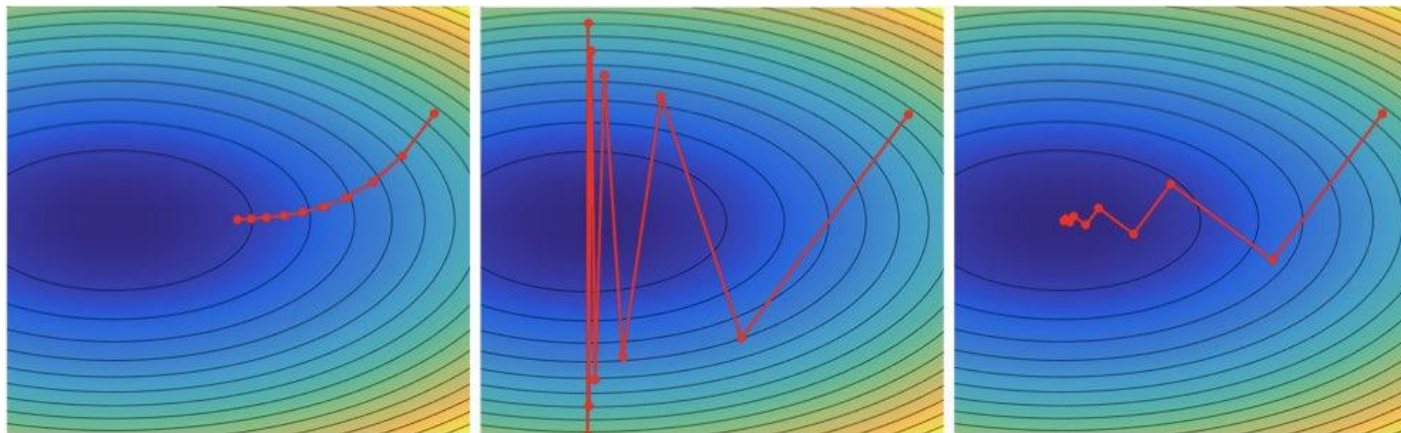
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Animation by Andrew Ng



Small ϵ

Large ϵ

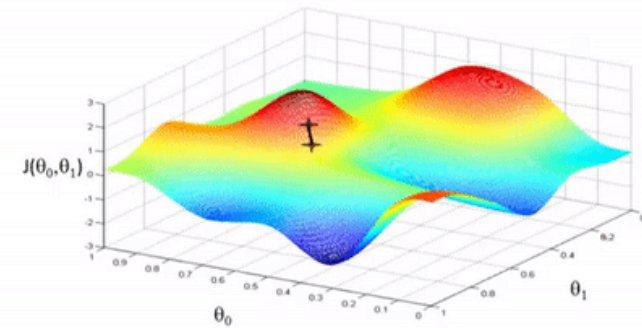
Optimal ϵ

Image by
Gabriel Peyre

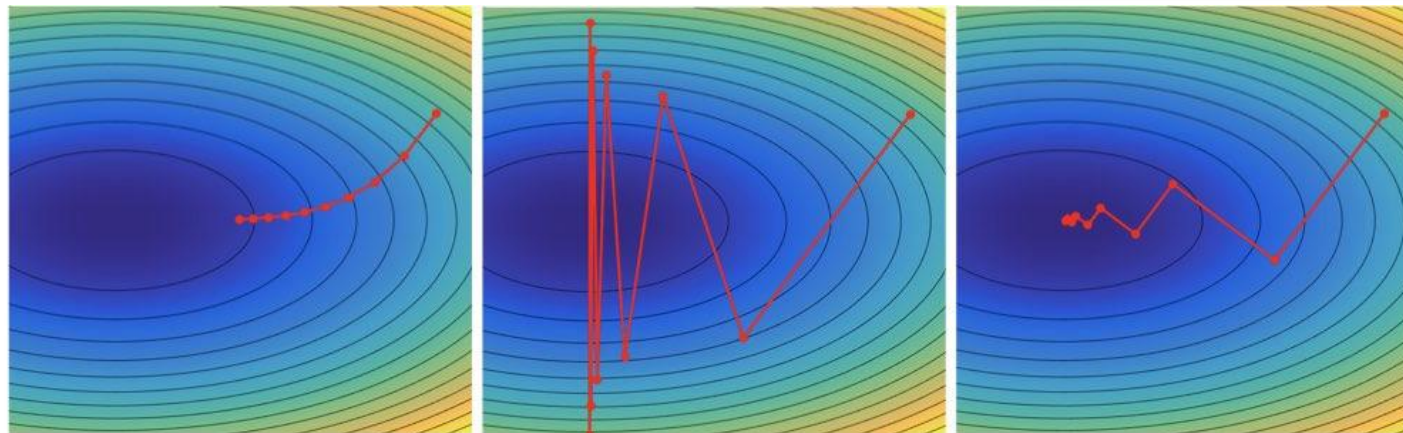
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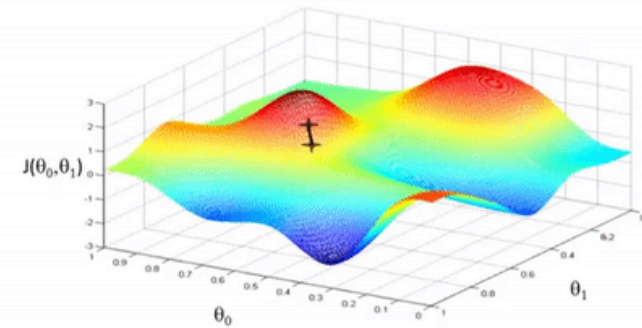
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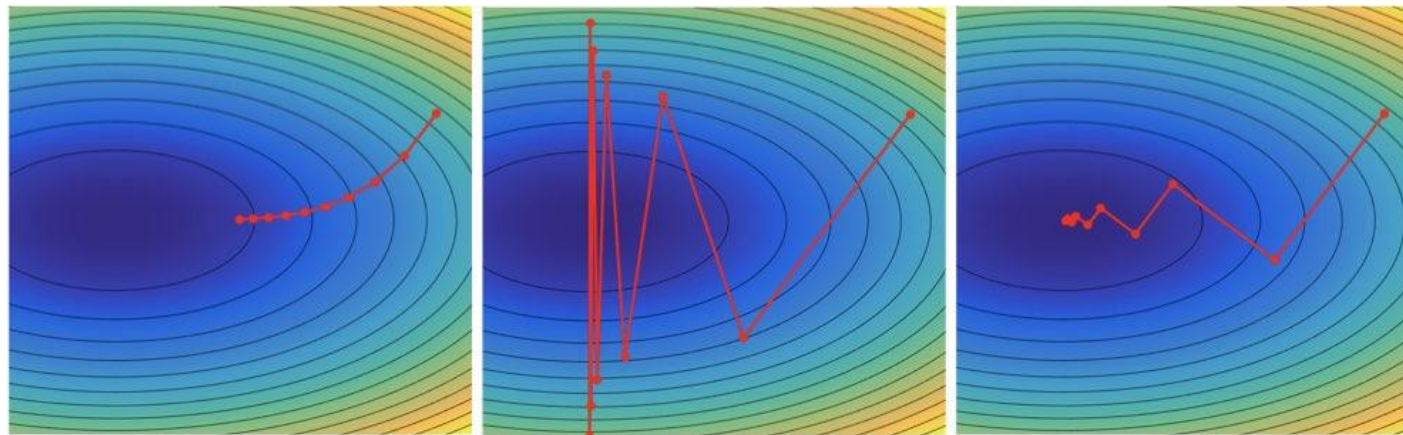


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- There exists many variations on gradient descent. We will cover some of them later in this chapter.

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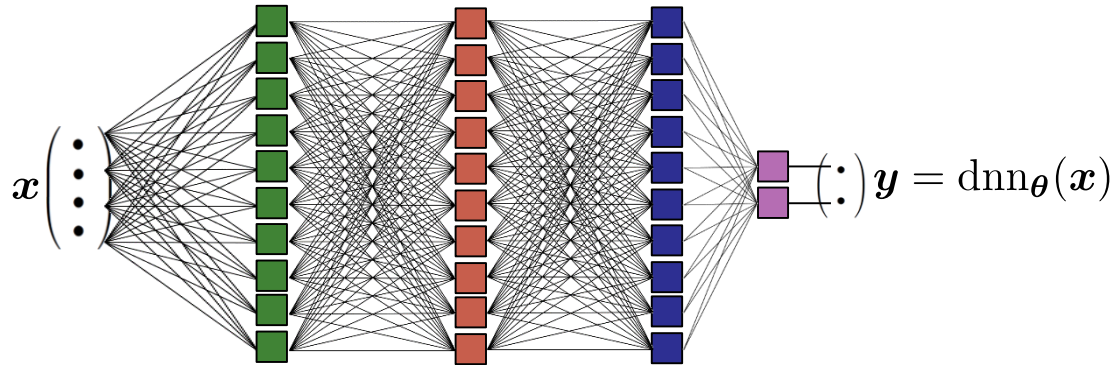
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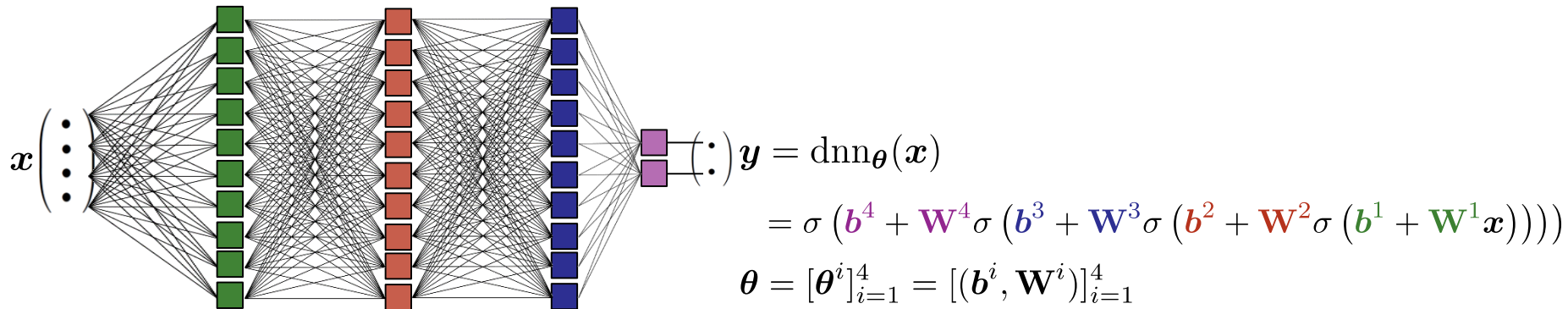
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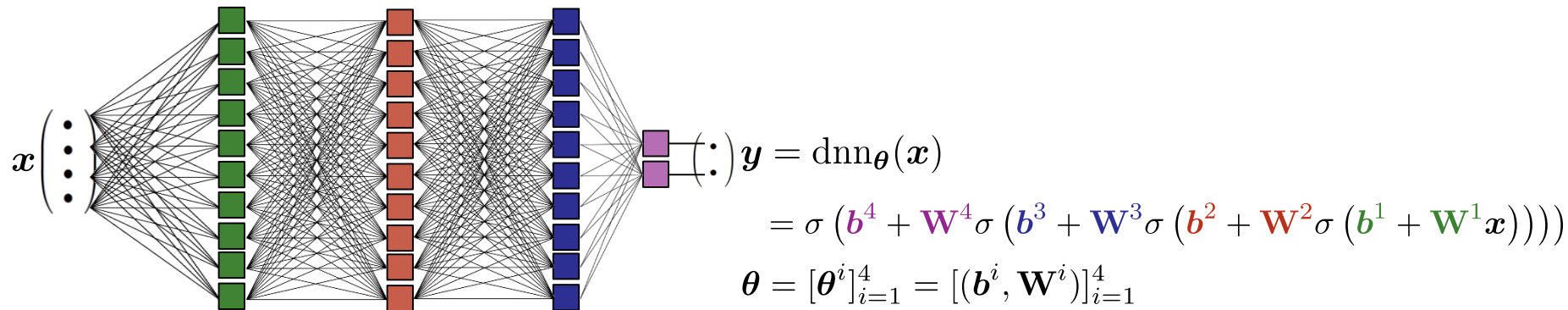
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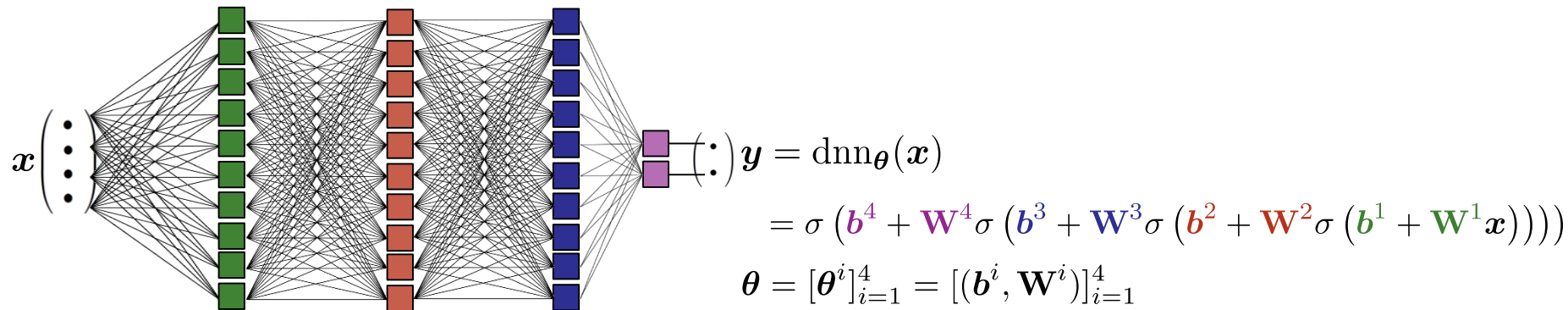


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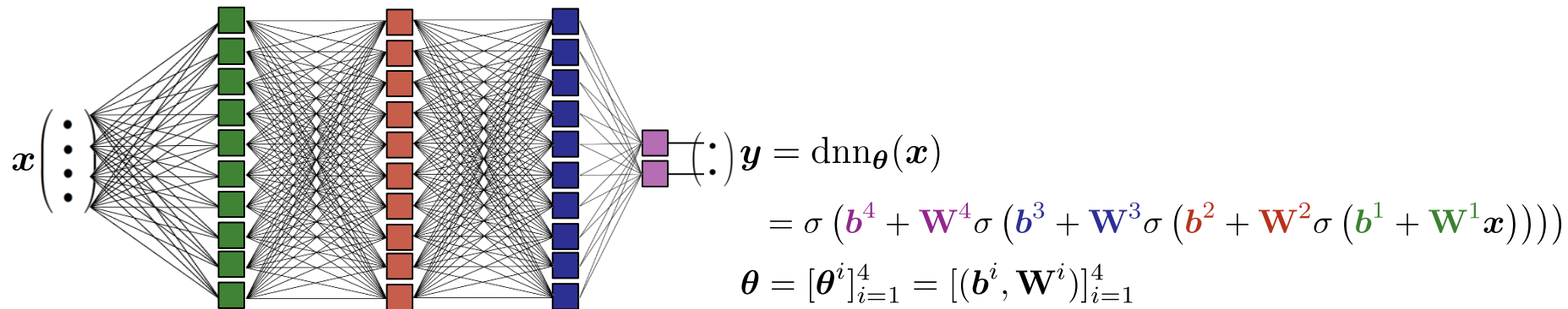


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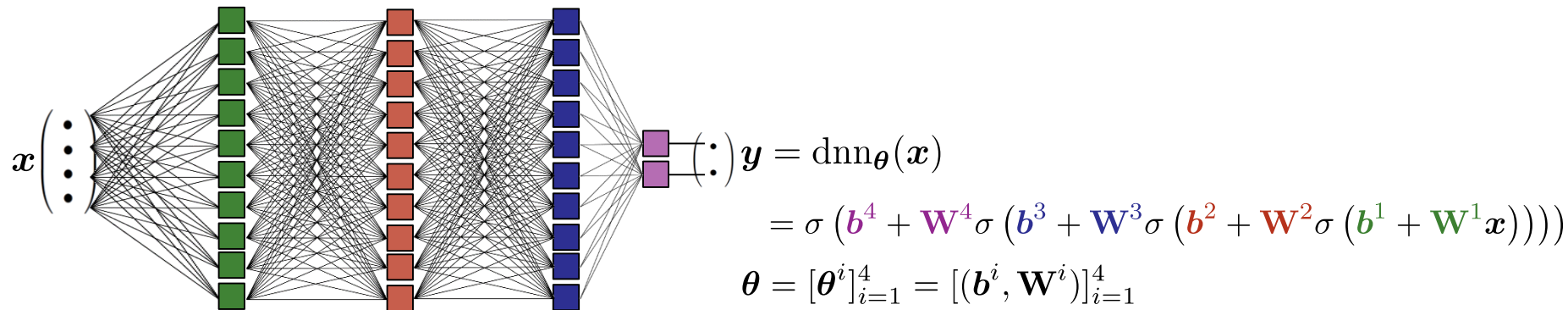
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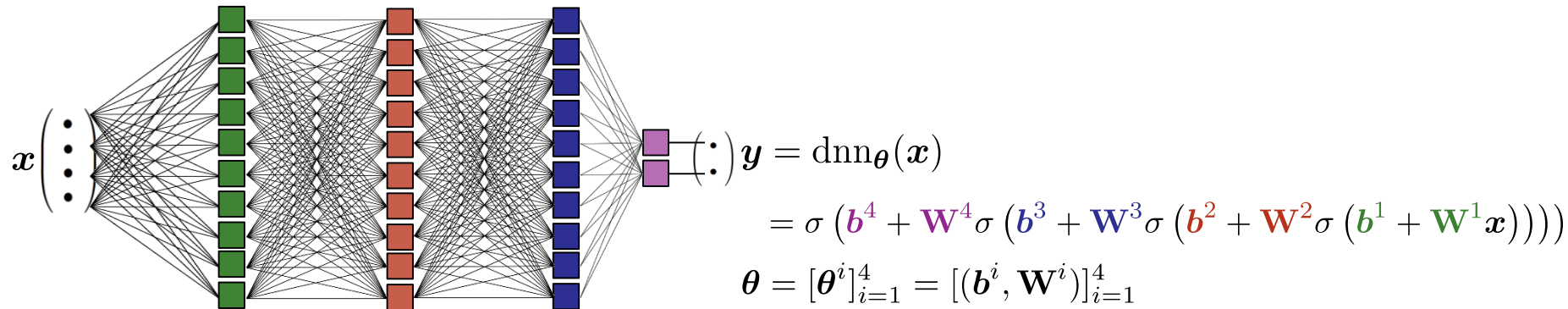
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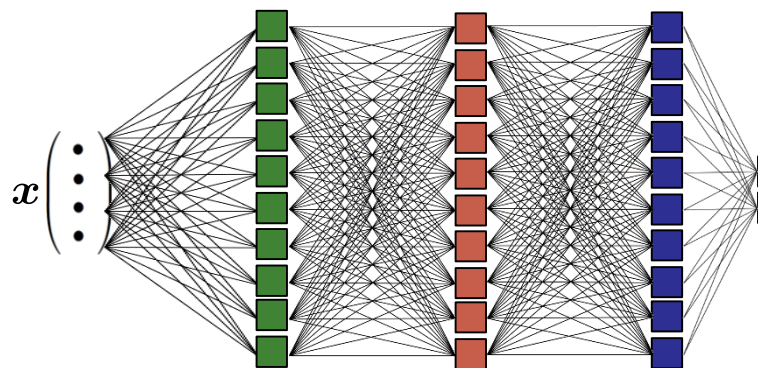
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How to compute $\nabla_{\theta} L(\text{dnn}_{\theta}, \mathcal{T})$?!



$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{x} \begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} & \rightarrow \mathbf{y} = \text{dnn}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) \\ & = \sigma(\mathbf{b}^4 + \mathbf{W}^4 \sigma(\mathbf{b}^3 + \mathbf{W}^3 \sigma(\mathbf{b}^2 + \mathbf{W}^2 \sigma(\mathbf{b}^1 + \mathbf{W}^1 \mathbf{x})))) \\ \theta & = [\theta^i]_{i=1}^4 = [(\mathbf{b}^i, \mathbf{W}^i)]_{i=1}^4 \end{aligned}$$

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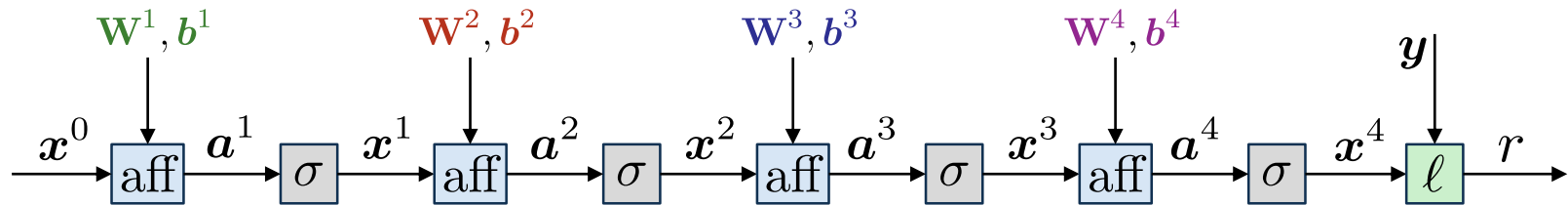
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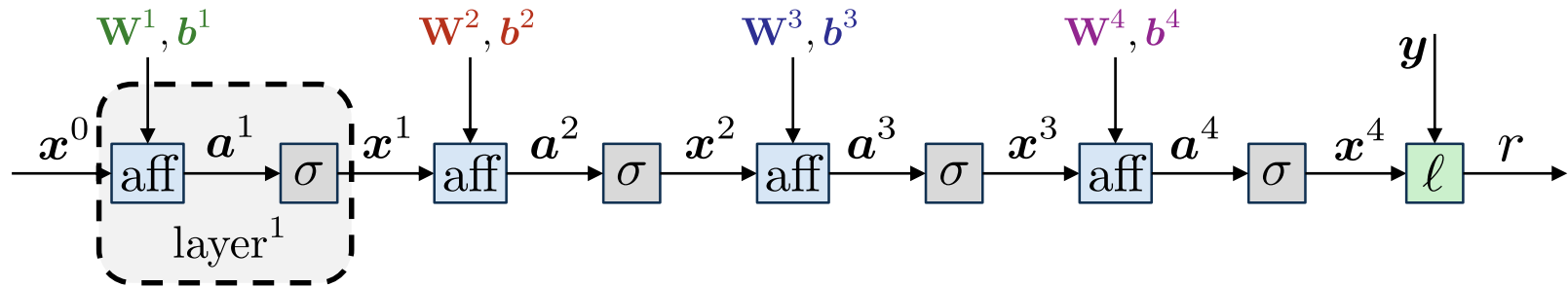
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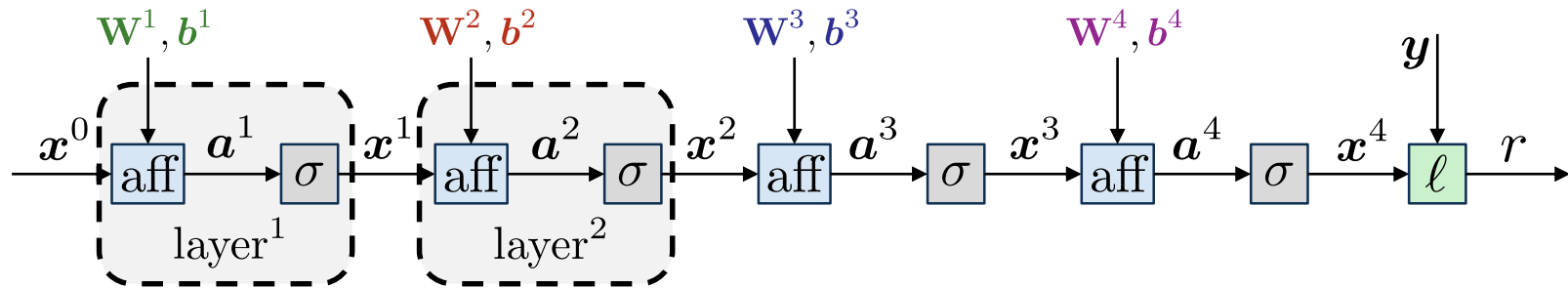
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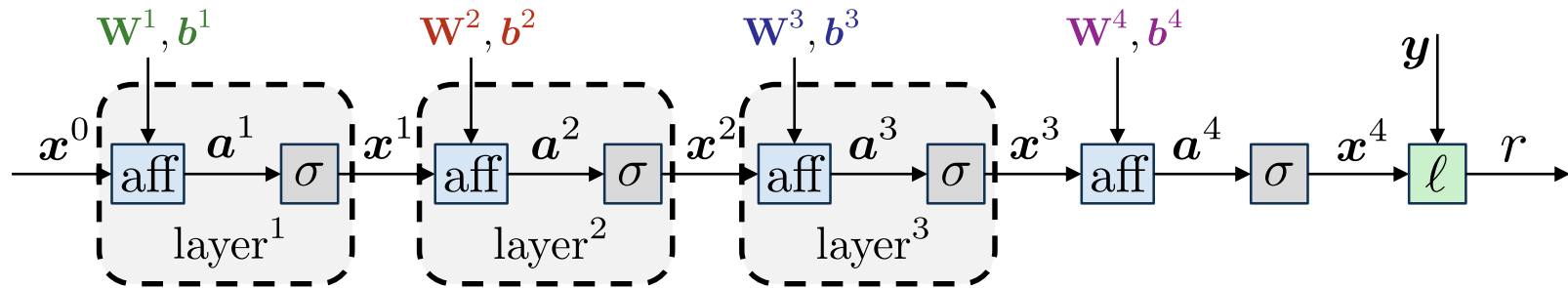
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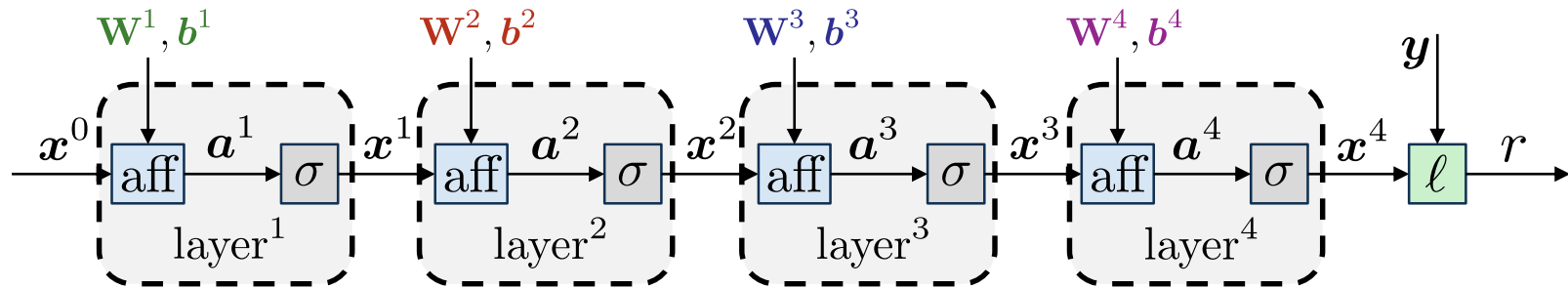
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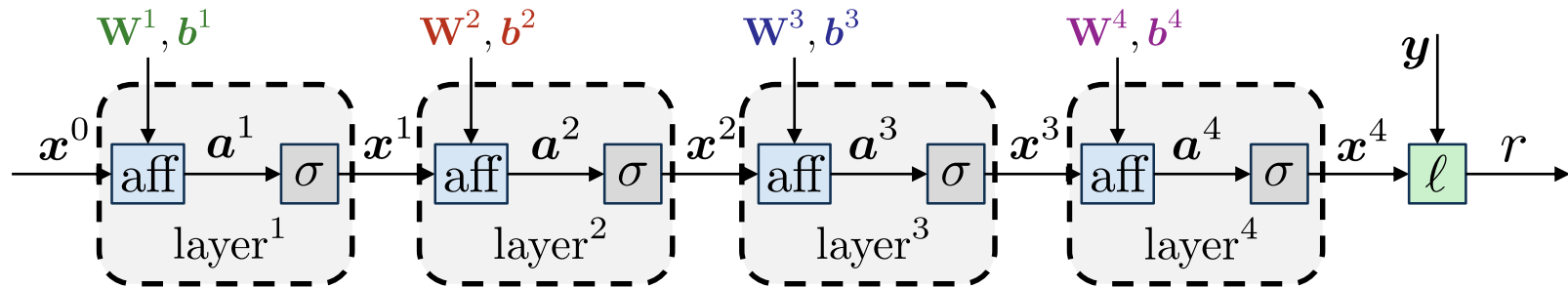
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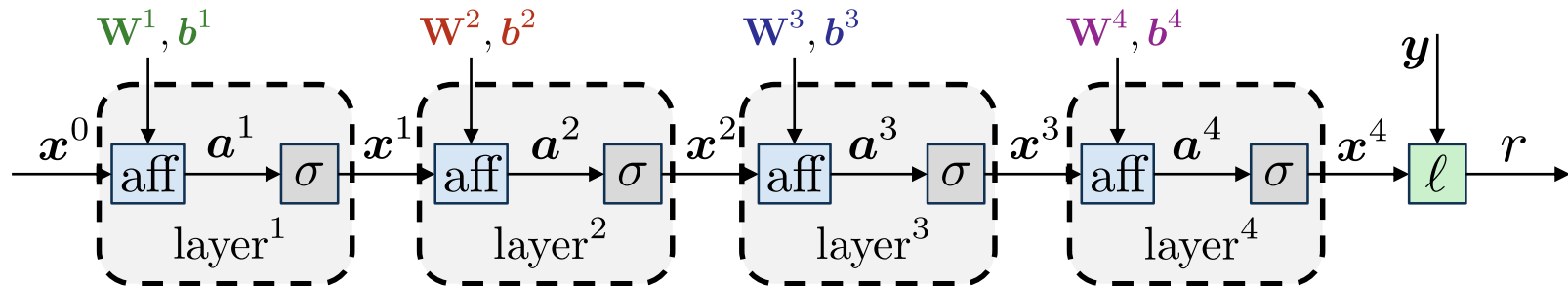
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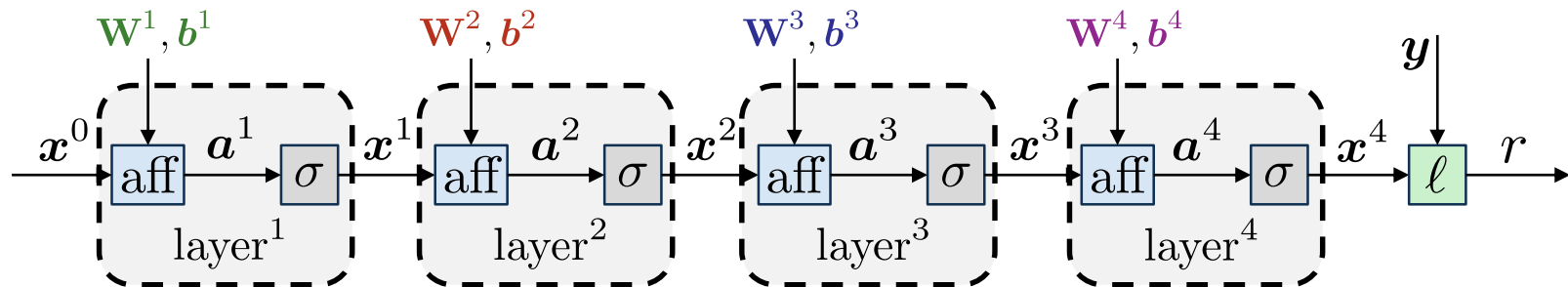
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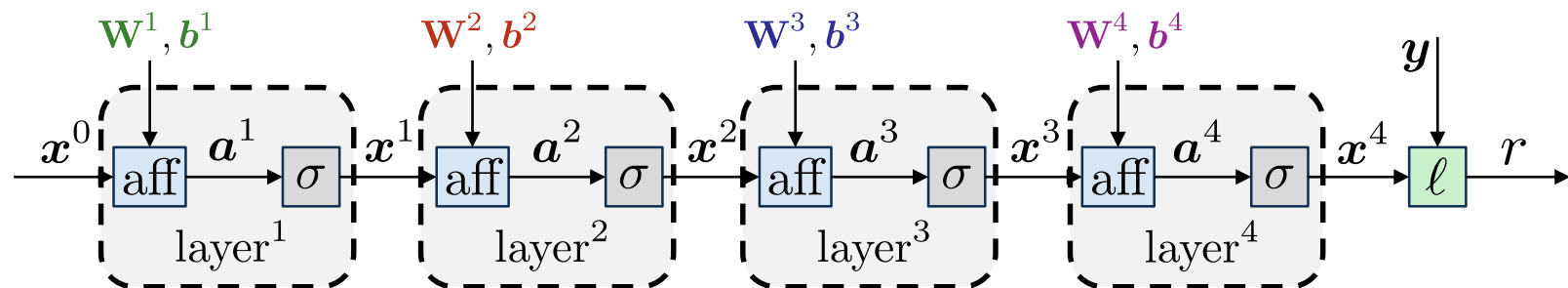
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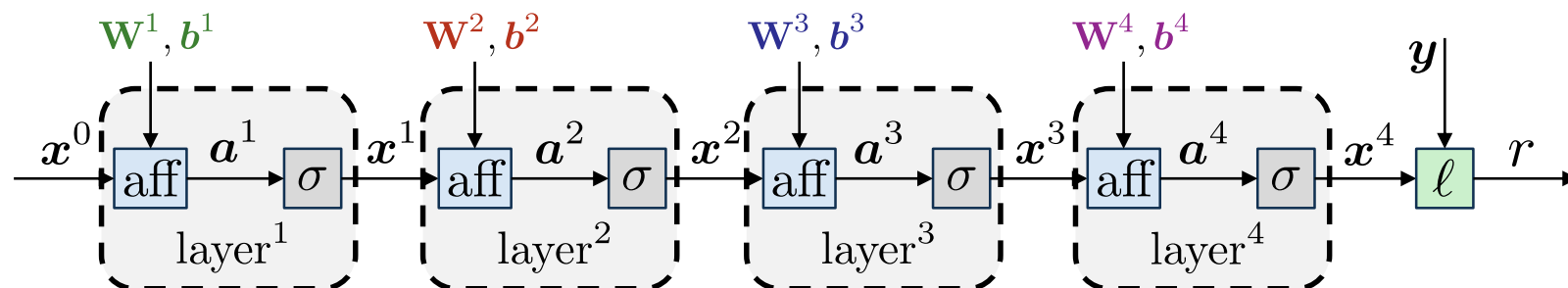
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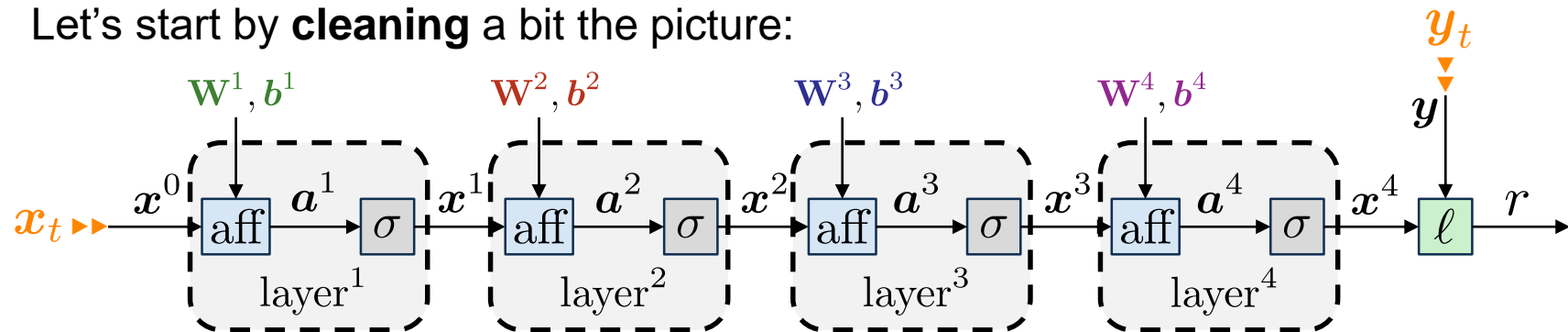
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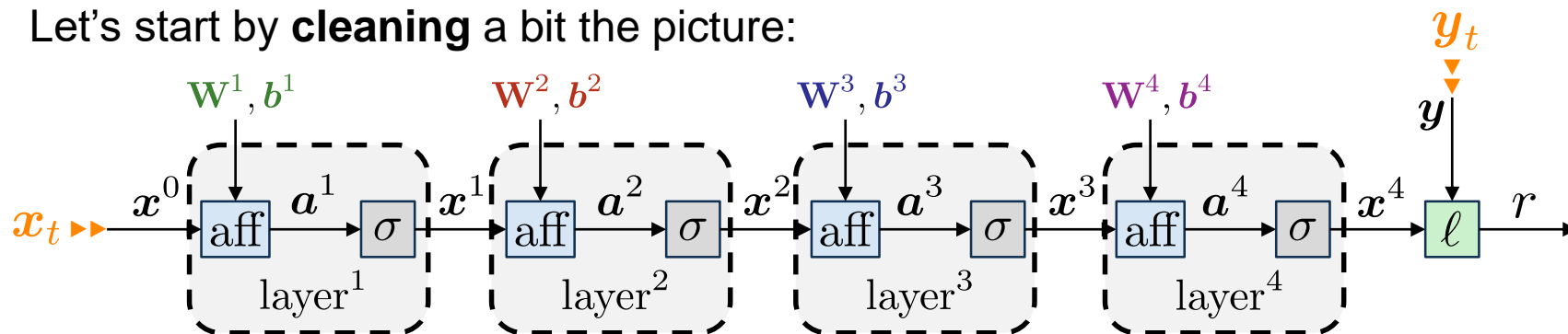
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- By **linearity** of the gradient, we have: $\nabla_{\theta} L(\text{dnn}_{\theta}, \mathcal{T}) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\text{dnn}_{\theta}(x_t), y_t)$.
- Hence, it is enough to calculate the gradient of the loss for **one sample** (x_t, y_t) , i.e., $G_{\theta} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\text{dnn}_{\theta}(x_t), y_t)$.

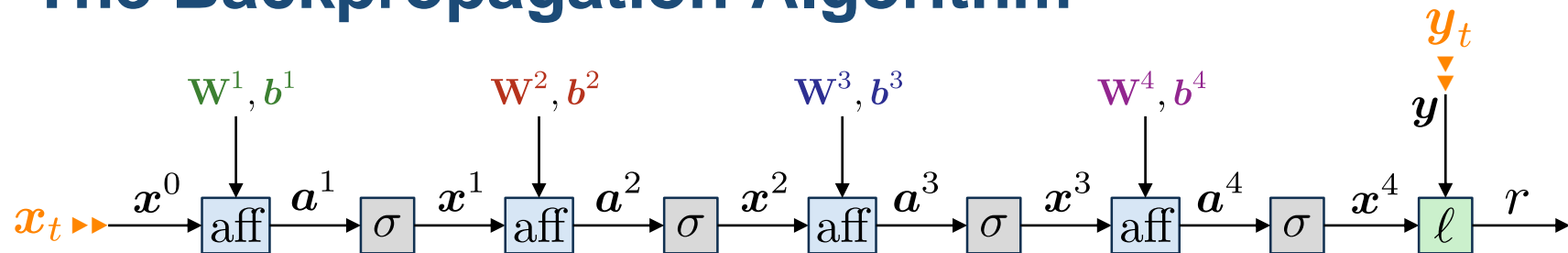
The Backpropagation Algorithm

Let's start by **cleaning** a bit the picture:



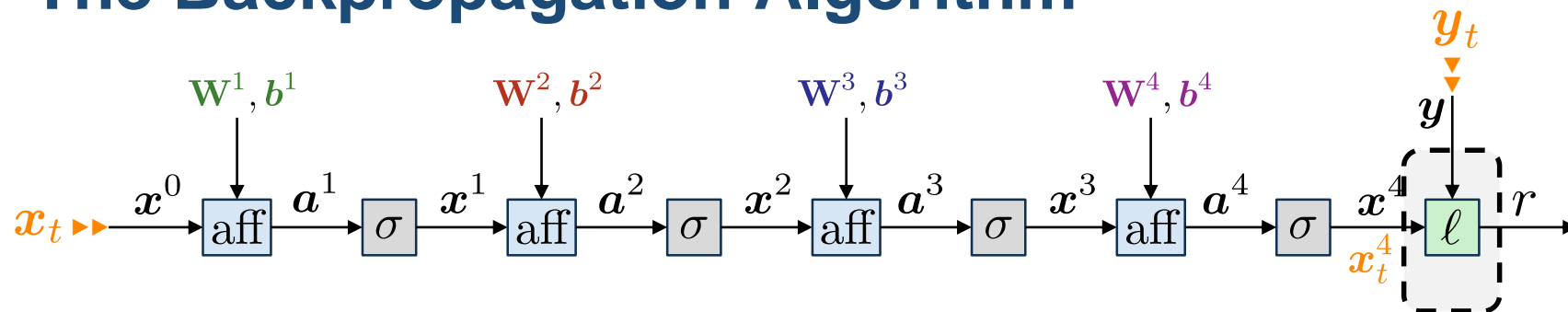
- $a^i = \text{aff}_{\theta^i}(x^{i-1}) = \mathbf{W}^i x^{i-1} + b^i$ are the **pre-activations**.
- $x^i = \sigma(a^i) = \sigma(\text{aff}_{\theta^i}(x^{i-1})) = \text{layer}^i(x^{i-1})$ are the **activations**.
- The **loss** ℓ can be viewed as another layer, with **real output** r (the “residual”).
- By **linearity** of the gradient, we have: $\nabla_{\theta} L(\text{dnn}_{\theta}, \mathcal{T}) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\text{dnn}_{\theta}(x_t), y_t)$.
- Hence, it is enough to calculate the gradient of the loss for **one sample** (x_t, y_t) , i.e., $G_{\theta} \stackrel{\text{def}}{=} \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\text{dnn}_{\theta}(x_t), y_t)$.
- The **Backpropagation Algorithm** (“Backprop”) is an efficient way to do this.

The Backpropagation Algorithm



The trick is to **recursively calculate** the gradient of the **loss** with respect to both the **parameters** and **activations**, going **backwards** from the end, using the **chain rule**.

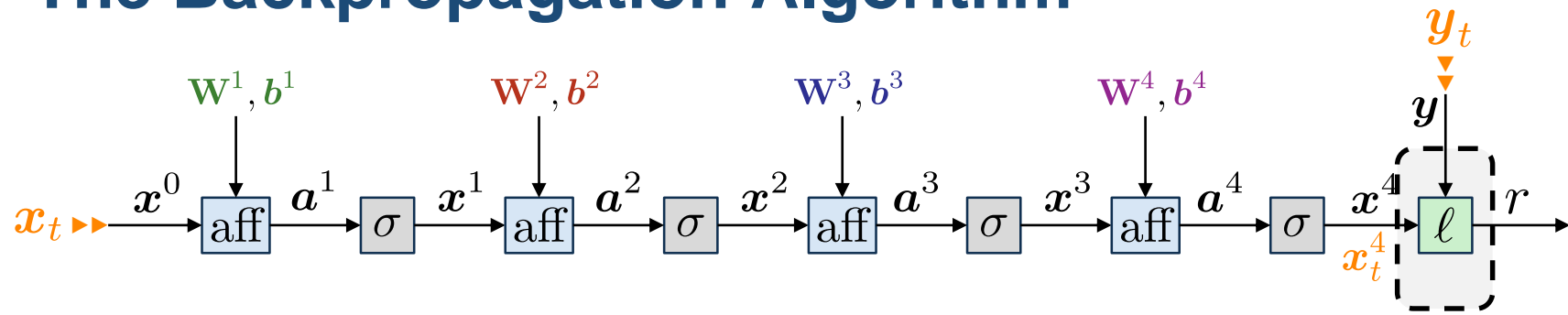
The Backpropagation Algorithm



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$$G_{x^4} = \left. \frac{\partial r}{\partial x^4} \right|_{x_t^4}^\top$$

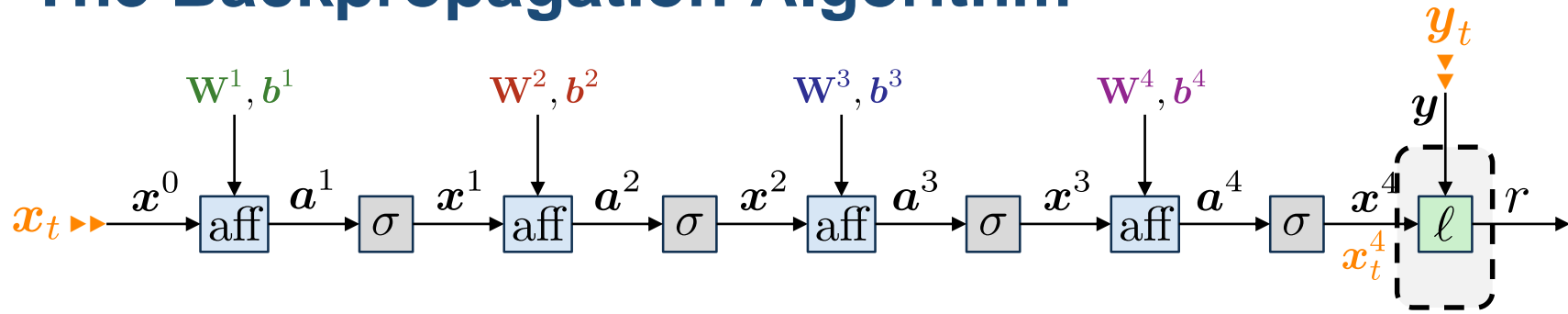
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The Backpropagation Algorithm

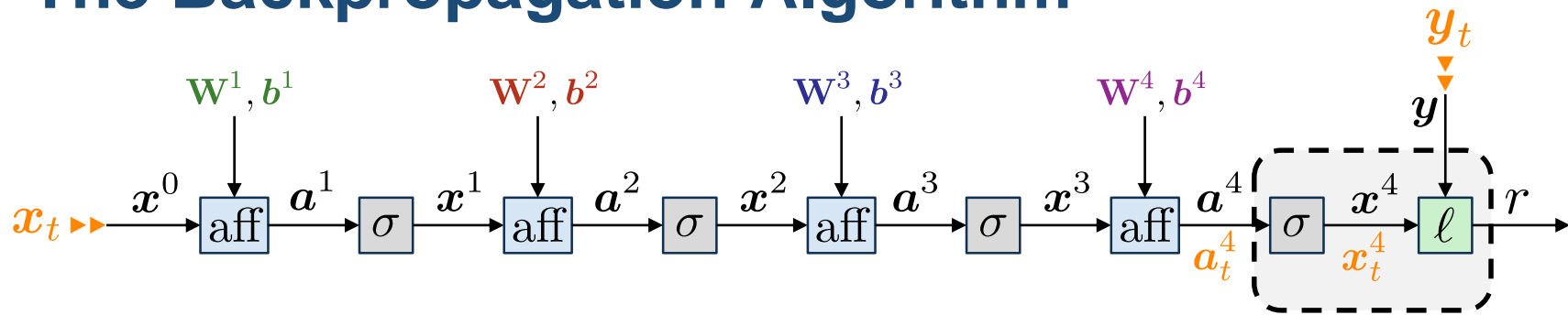


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For example, for the L2 loss $\ell(x^4, y_t) = \|x^4 - y_t\|_2^2$, we have $G_{x^4} = 2(x_t^4 - y_t)$, the **difference** between the network **prediction** and the **target**.

The Backpropagation Algorithm



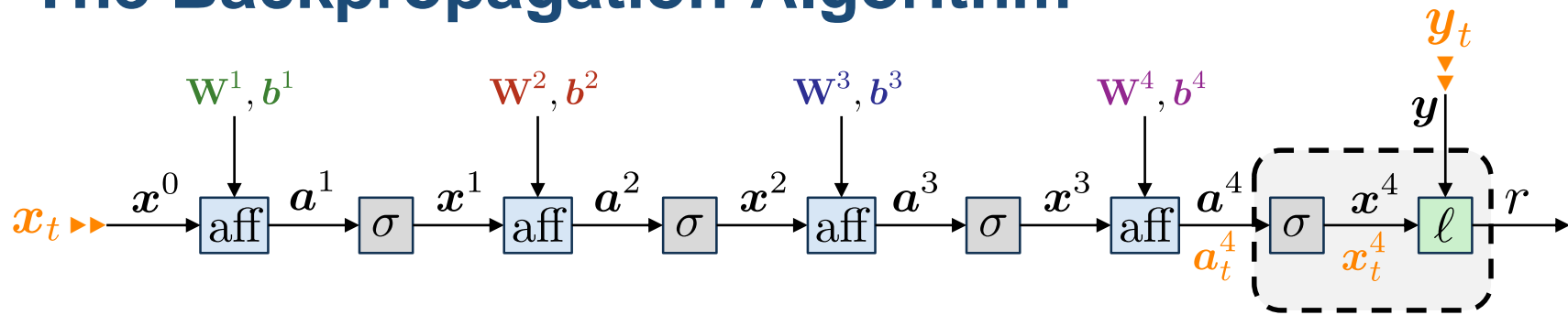
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



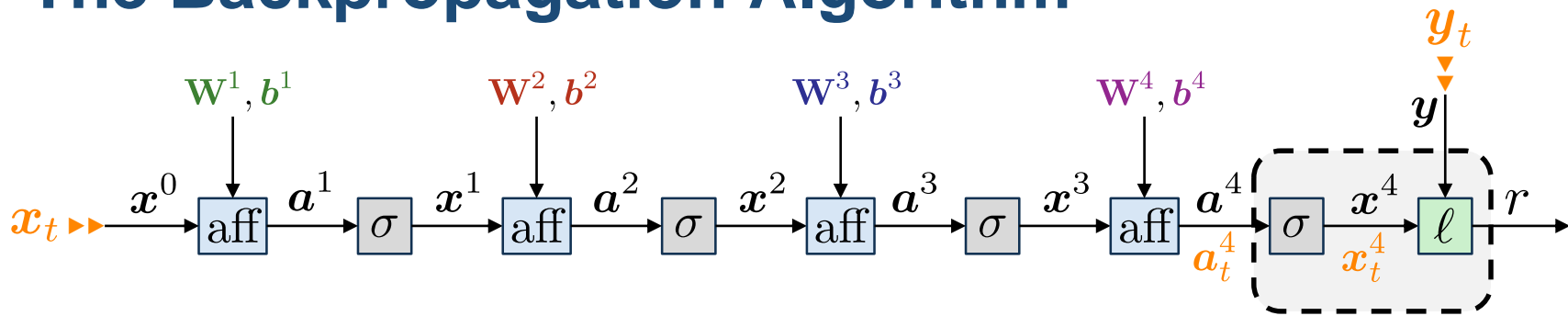
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



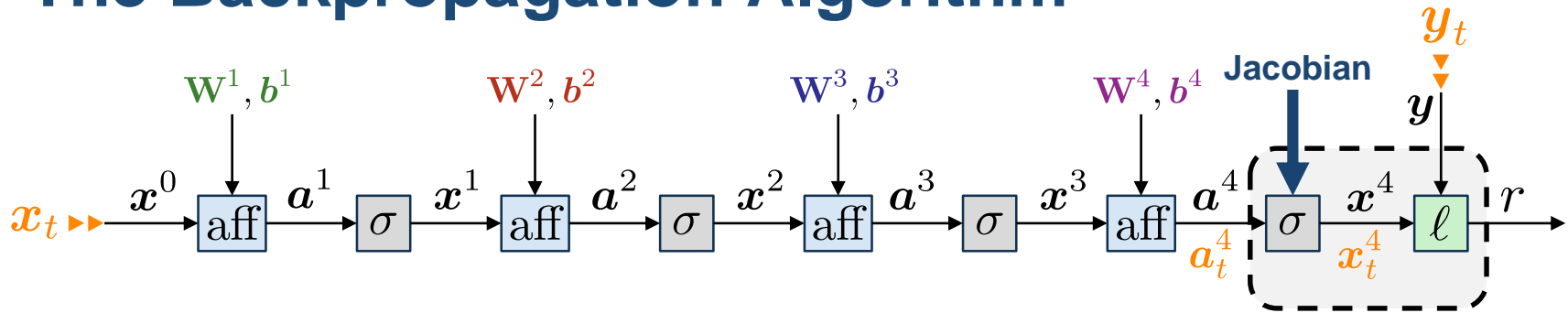
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



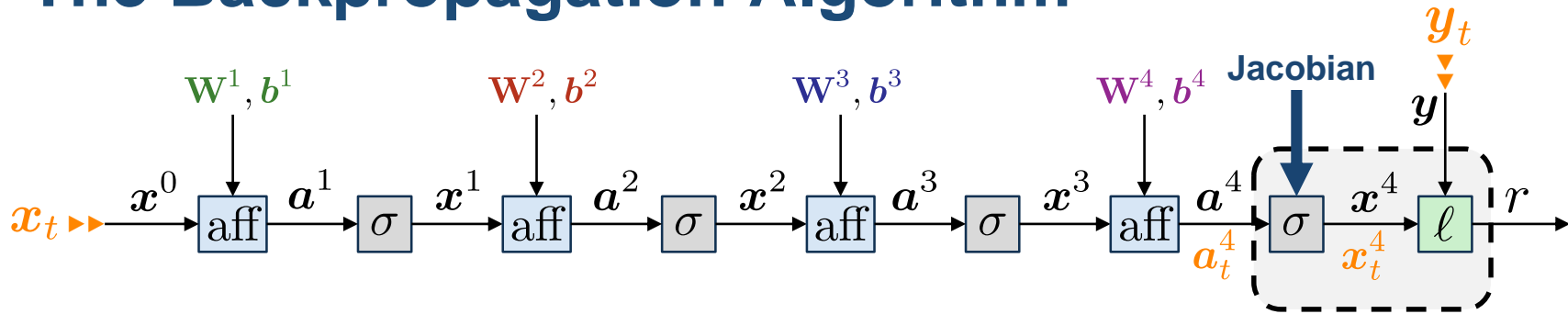
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 ↘ $\text{diag}[\sigma'(a_t^4)] !$

The Backpropagation Algorithm



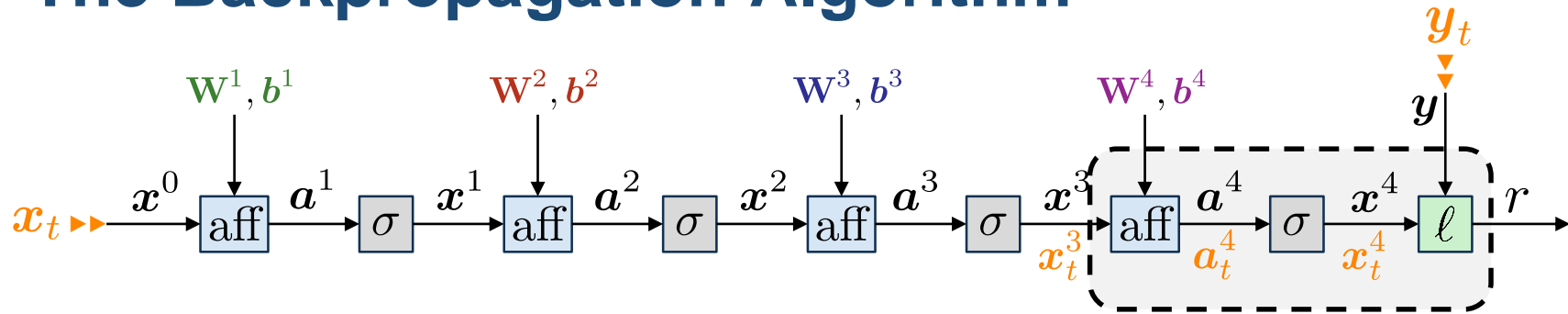
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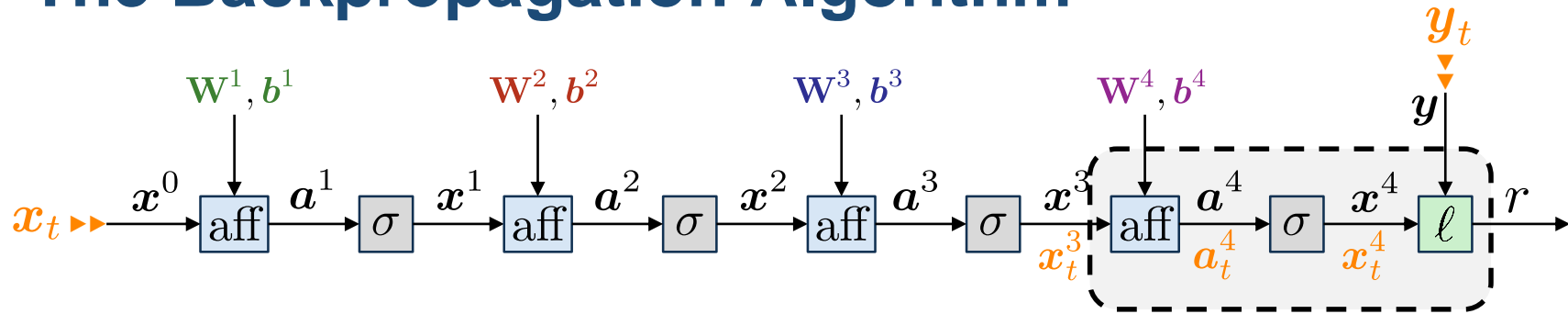
The Backpropagation Algorithm



2) Then:

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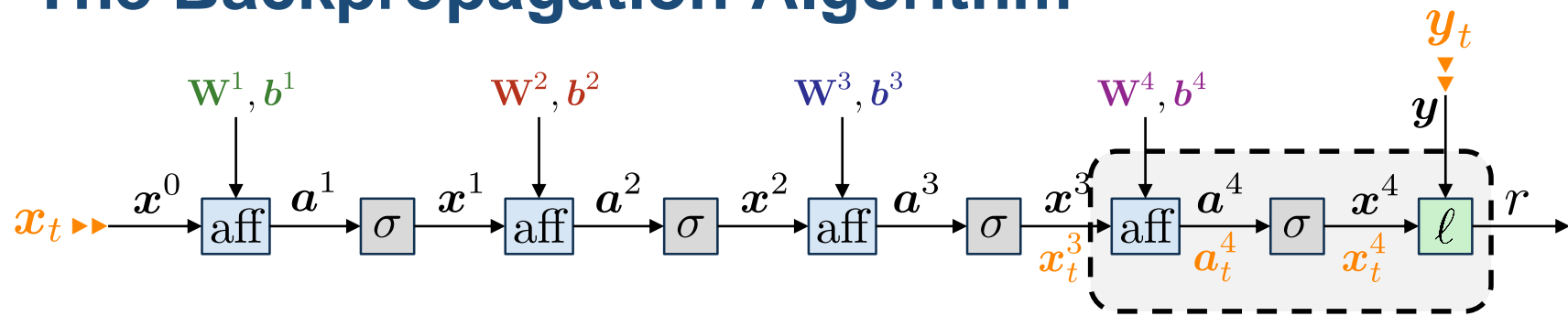
The Backpropagation Algorithm



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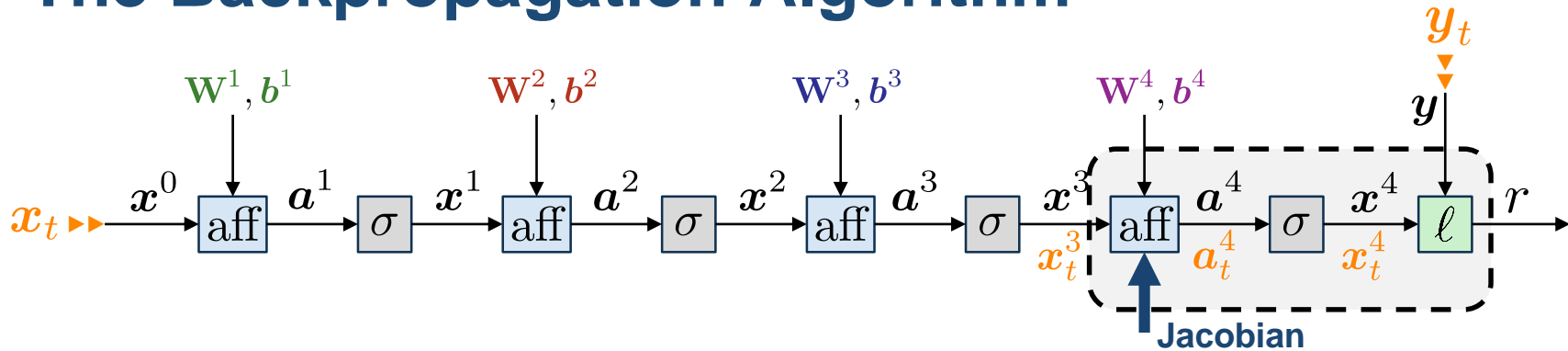
The Backpropagation Algorithm



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The Backpropagation Algorithm

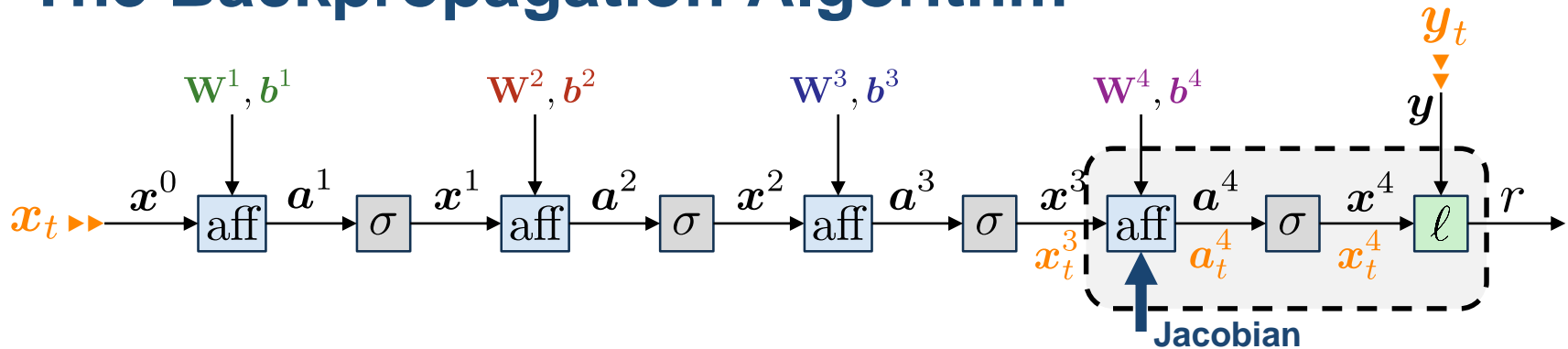


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$\curvearrowright W^4$

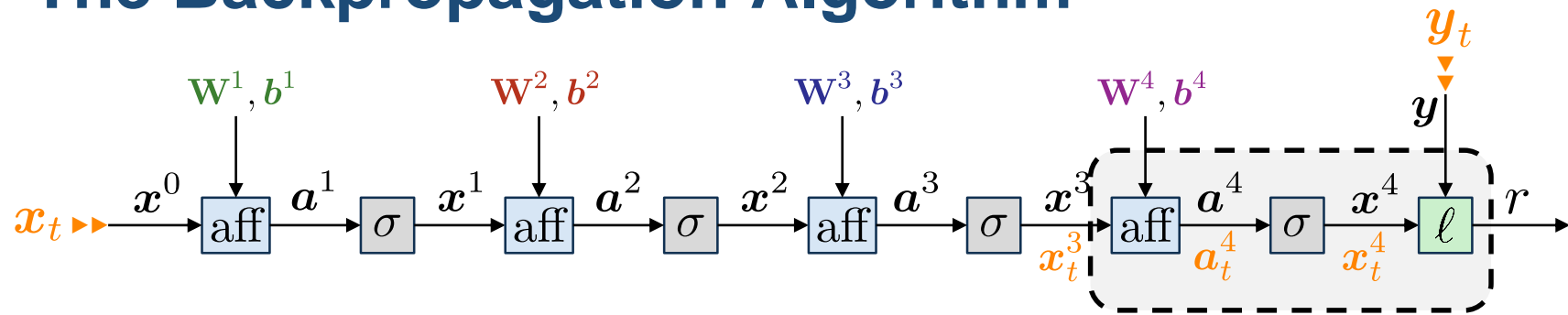
The Backpropagation Algorithm



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The Backpropagation Algorithm

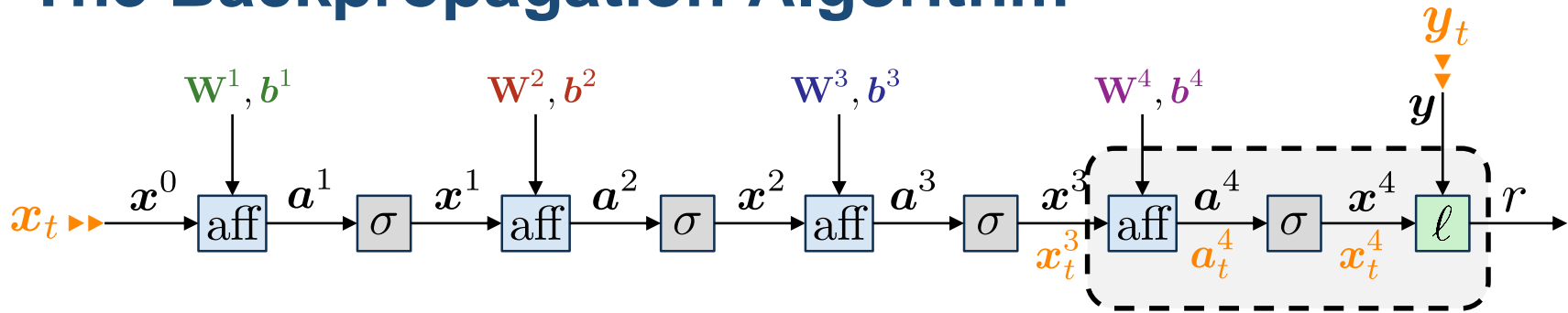


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The Backpropagation Algorithm

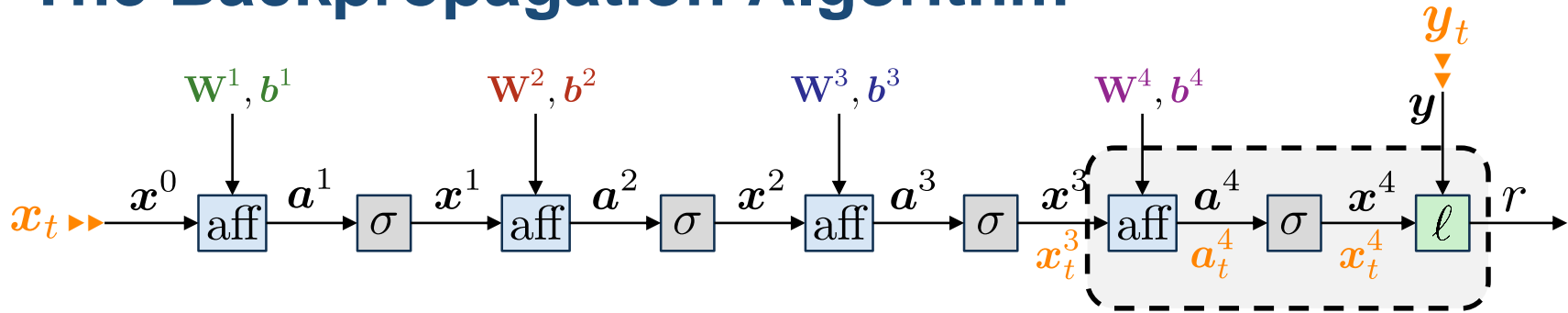


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The Backpropagation Algorithm

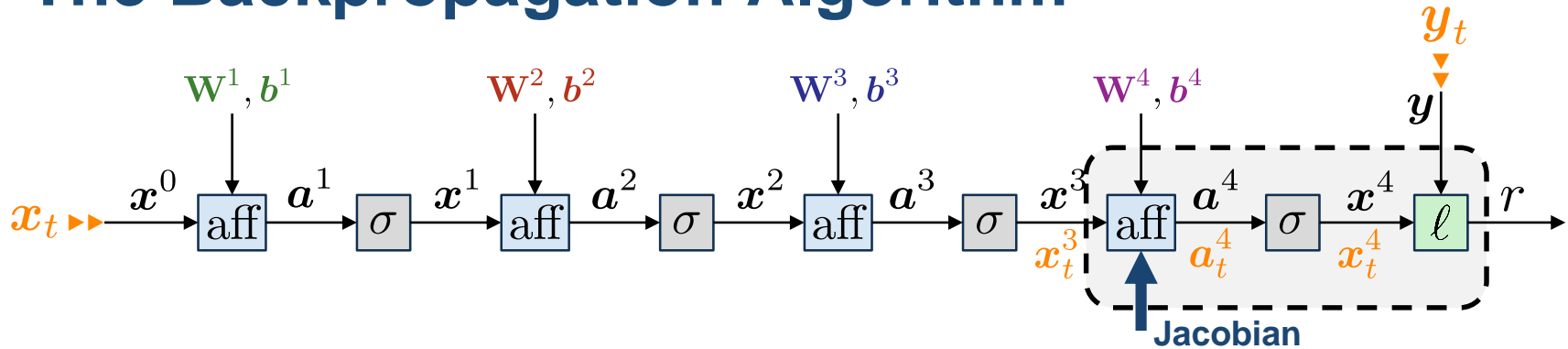


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The Backpropagation Algorithm



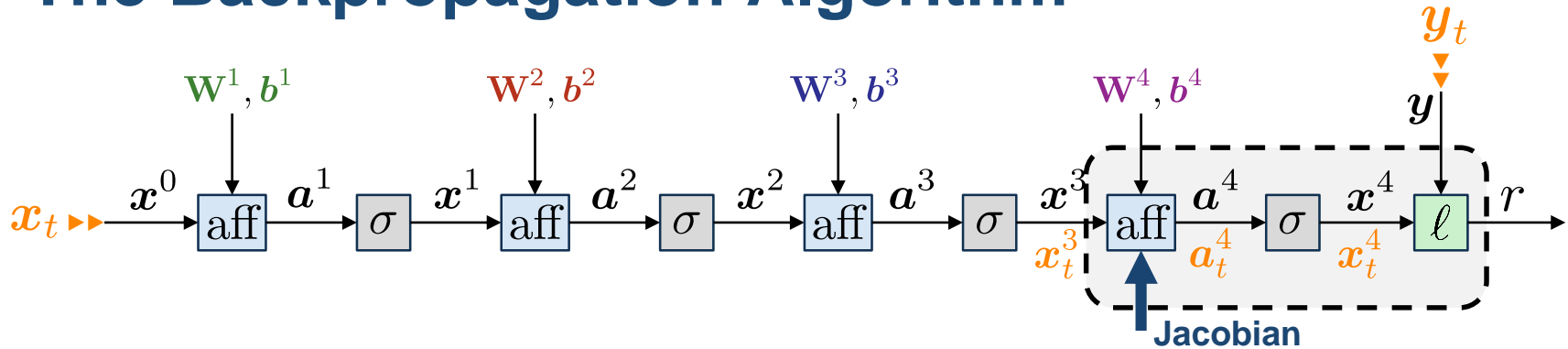
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↘ **I**

The Backpropagation Algorithm



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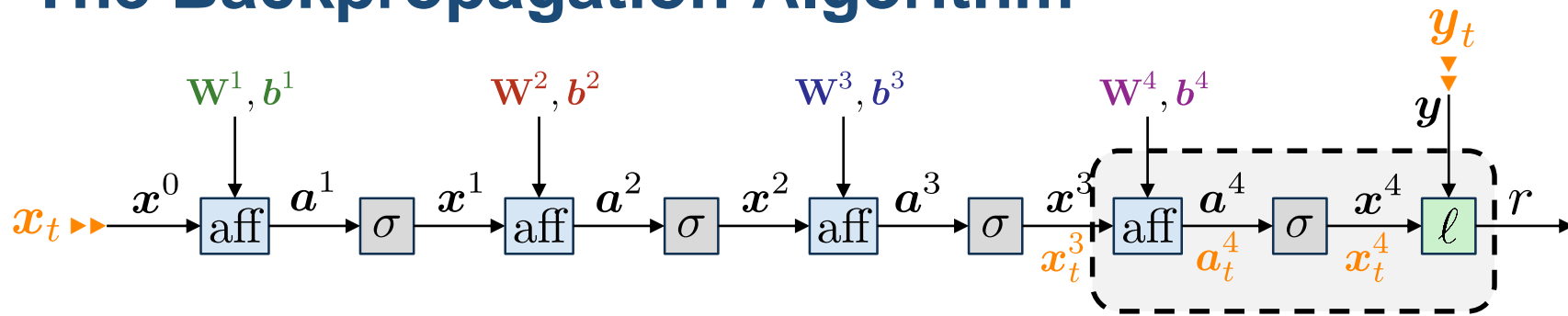
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$\left. \frac{\partial a^4}{\partial b^4} \right|_{b^4}^\top$

↘ **I**

The Backpropagation Algorithm



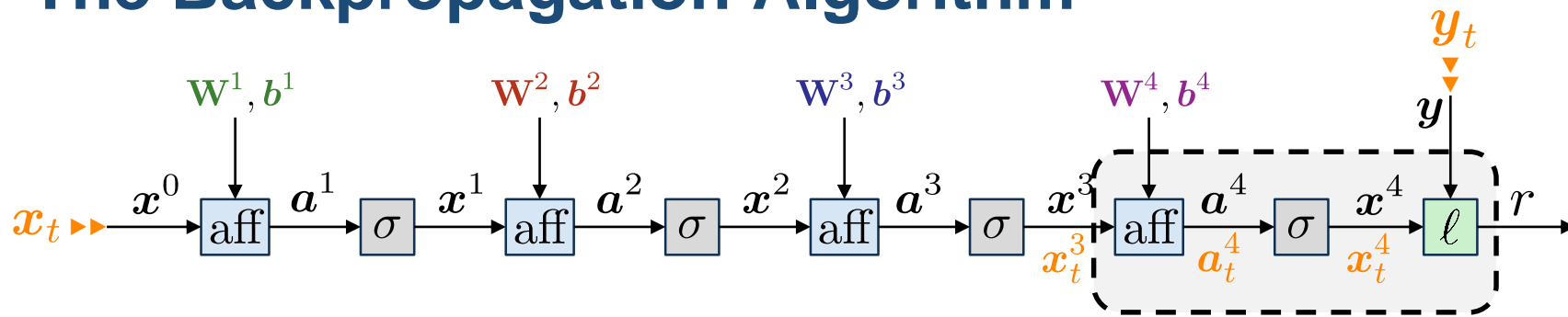
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



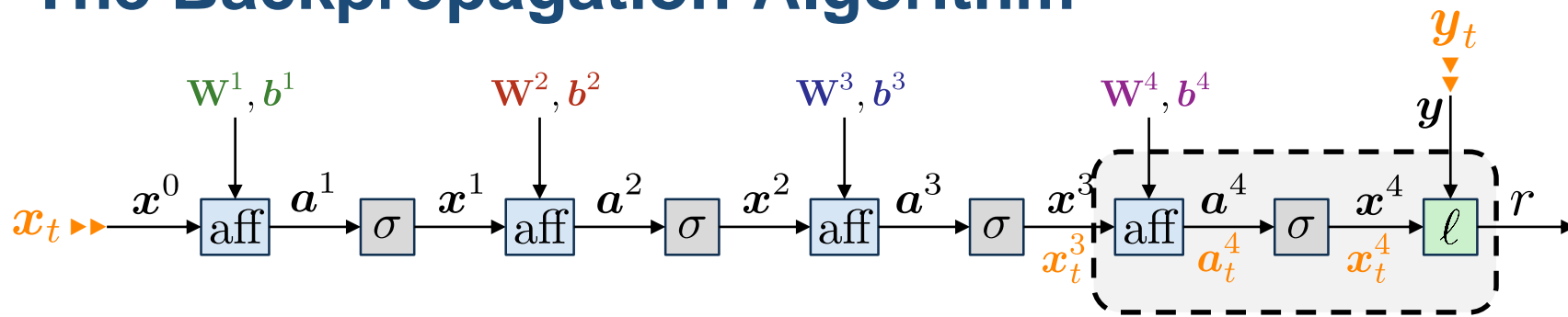
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



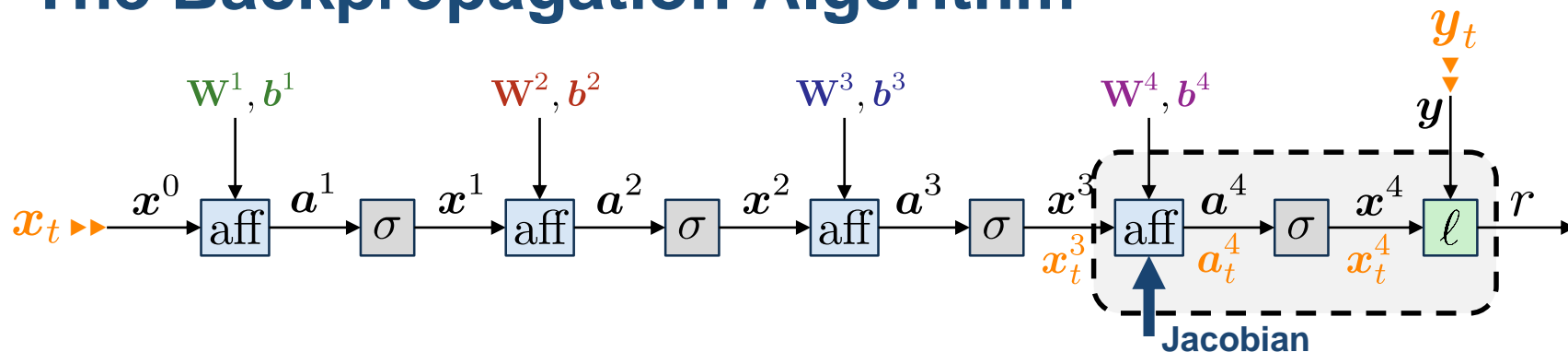
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



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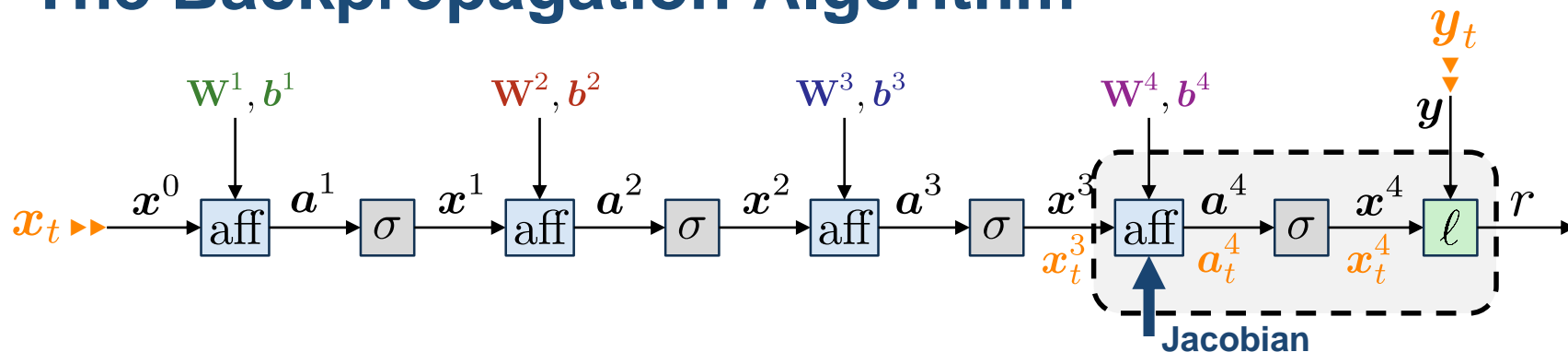
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$x_{t,d}^3 \mathbf{I}$

The Backpropagation Algorithm



2) Then:

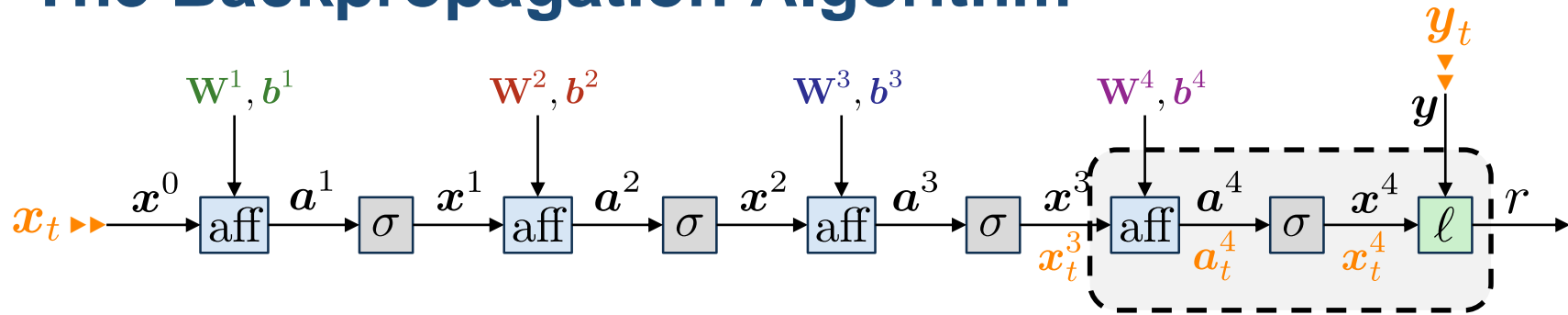
$$\bullet G_{x^3} = \left. \frac{\partial r}{\partial x^3} \right|_{x_t^3}^\top = \left(\left. \frac{\partial r}{\partial a^4} \right|_{a_t^4} \times \left. \frac{\partial a^4}{\partial x^3} \right|_{x_t^3} \right)^\top = \left. \frac{\partial a^4}{\partial x^3} \right|_{x_t^3}^\top \times G_{a^4} = \mathbf{W}^4{}^\top G_{a^4} .$$

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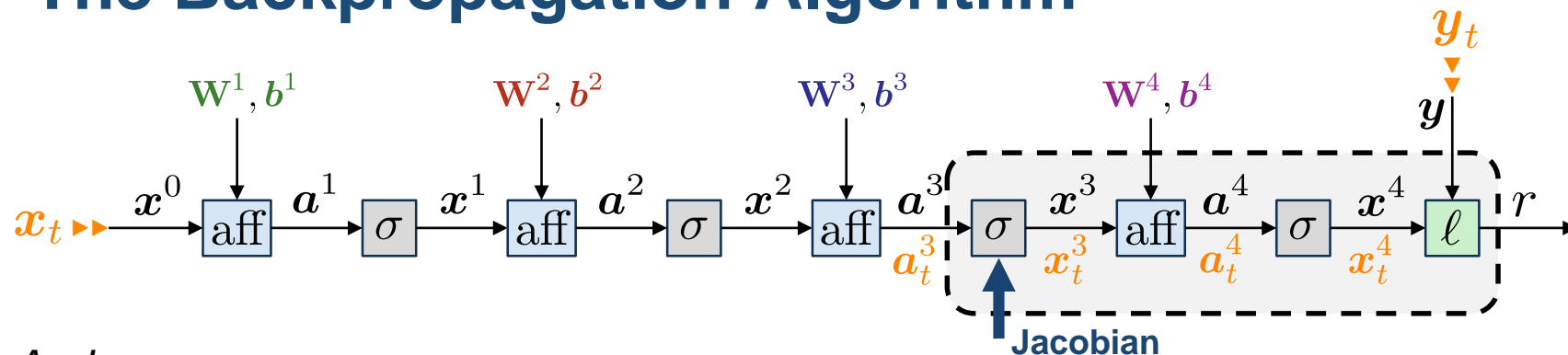
$x_{t,d}^3 \mathbf{I}$

The Backpropagation Algorithm



And so on...

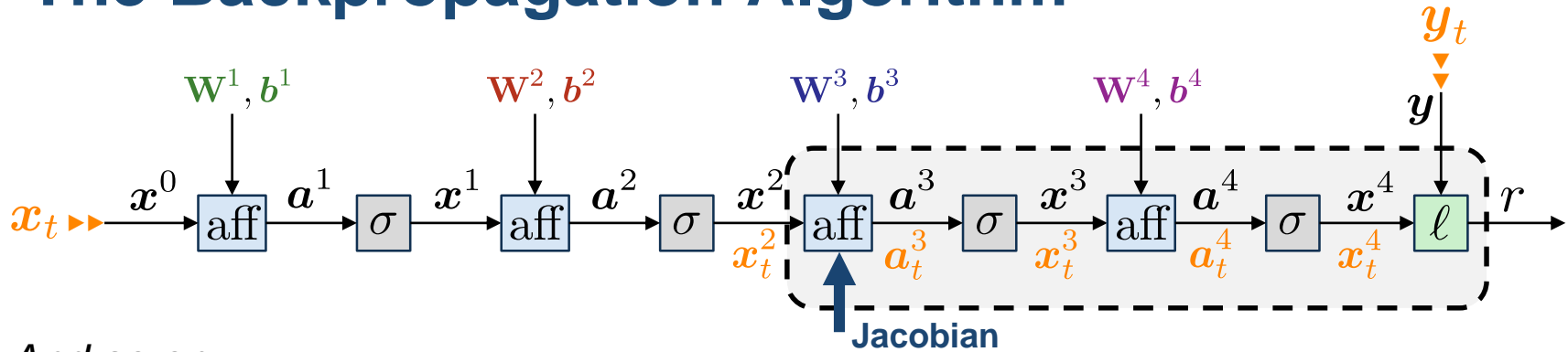
The Backpropagation Algorithm



And so on...

$$3) G_{a^3} = \sigma'(a_t^3) \odot G_{x^3} .$$

The Backpropagation Algorithm



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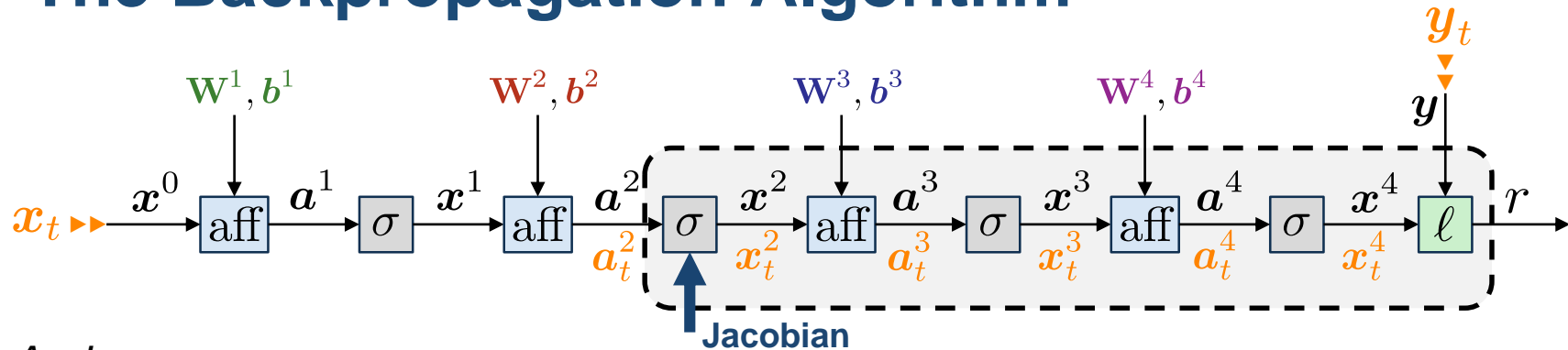
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



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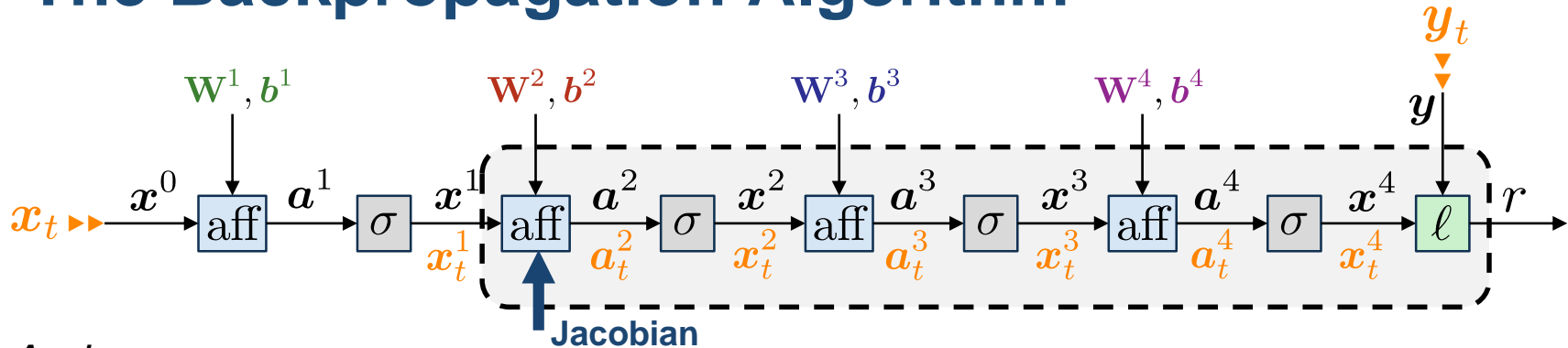
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



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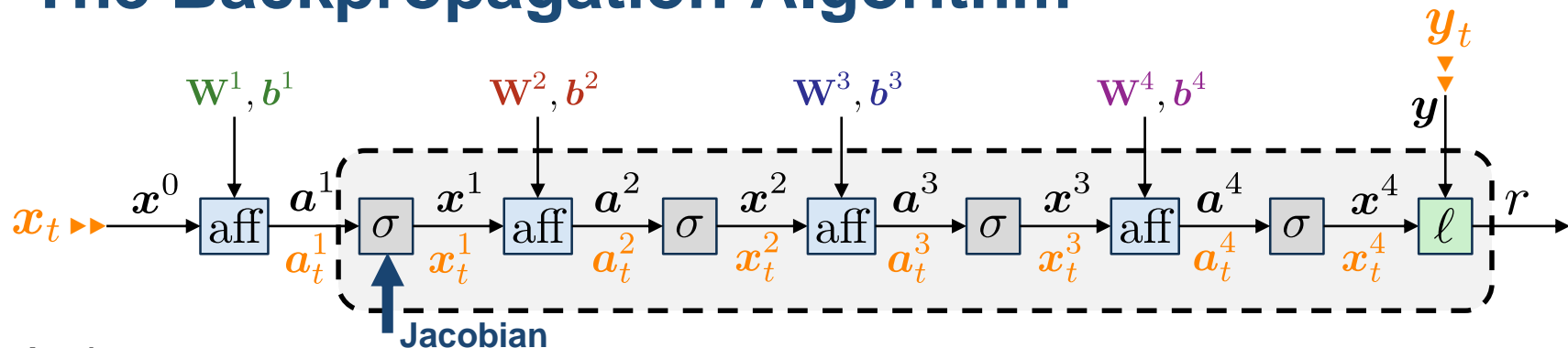
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



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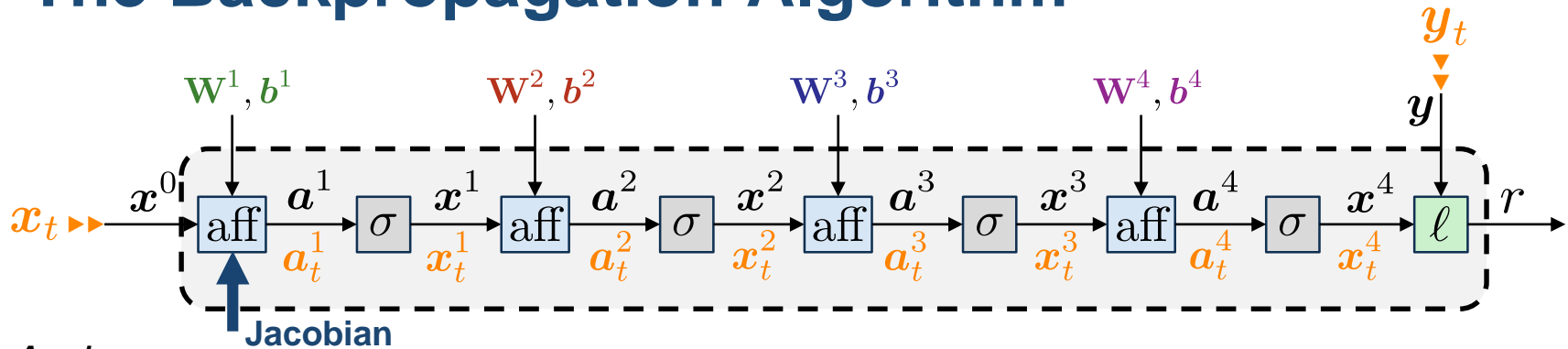
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



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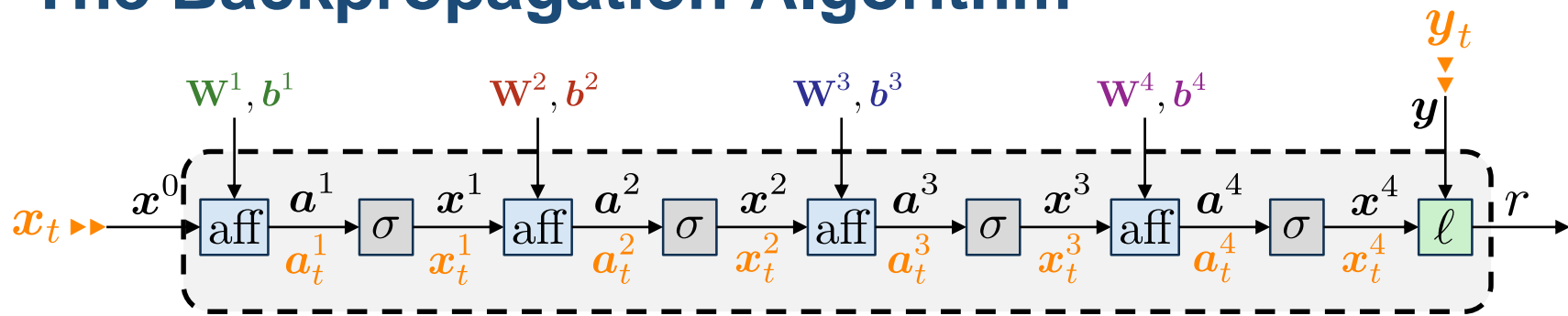
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



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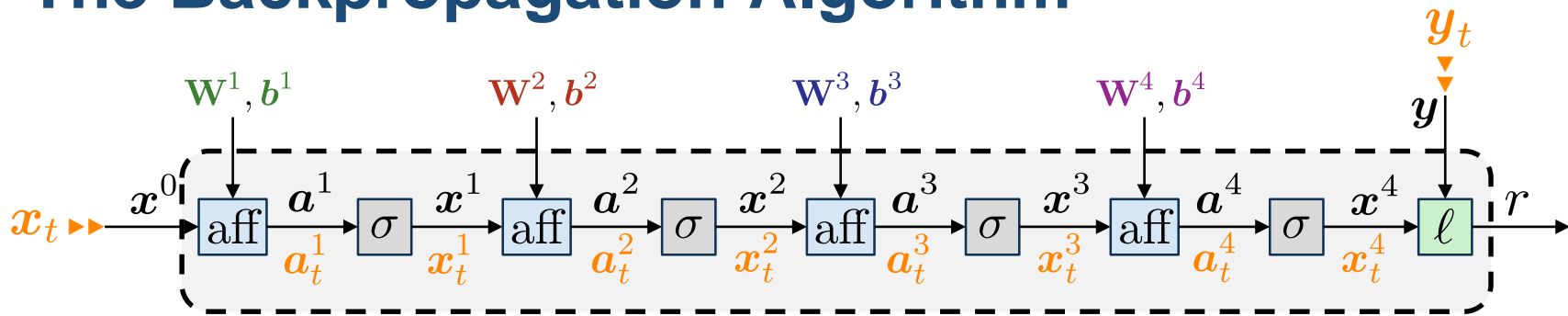
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In Fine:

$$G_{x^0} = W^1 \top \sigma'(a_t^1) \odot W^2 \top \sigma'(a_t^2) \odot W^3 \top \sigma'(a_t^3) \odot W^4 \top \sigma'(a_t^4) \odot \nabla_{x^4} \ell(x_t^4, y_t) .$$

The Backpropagation Algorithm



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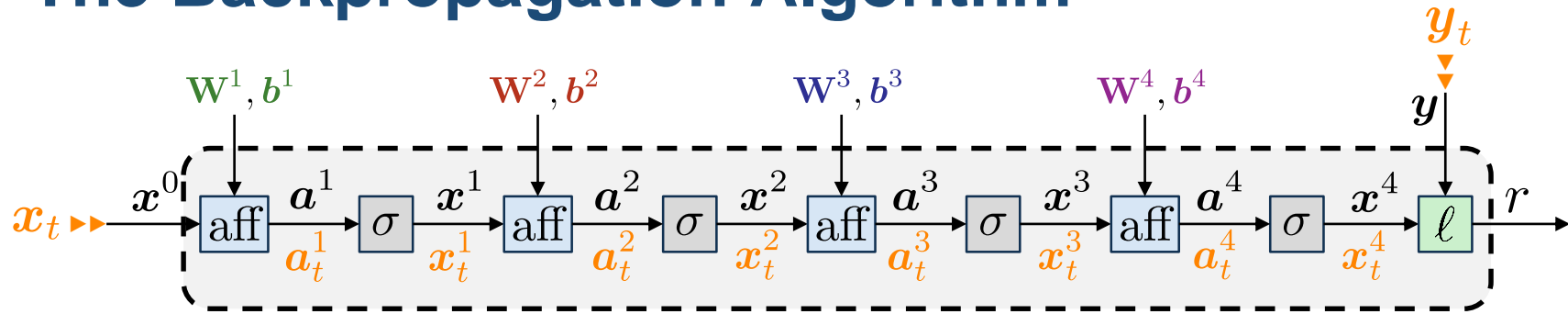
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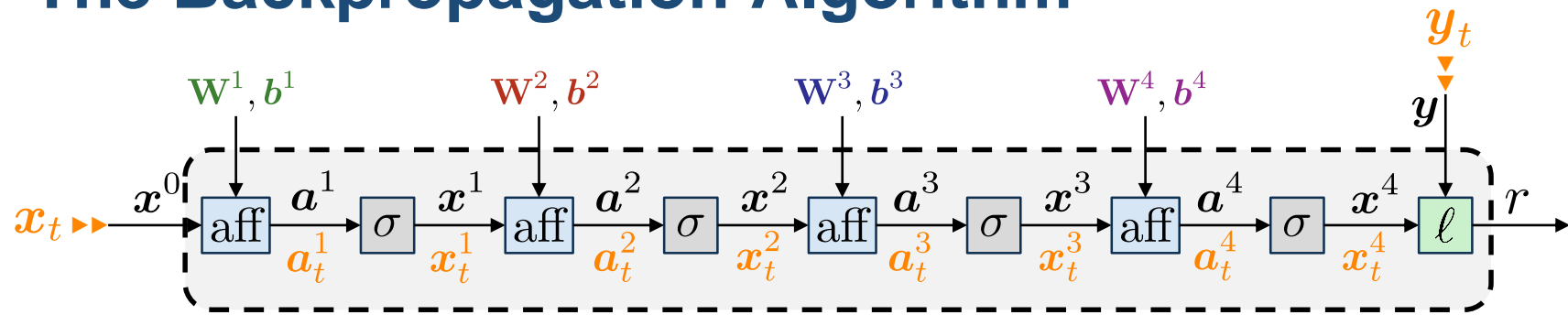
⇒ Using the parameters' gradients, we **update** them via **gradient descent**.

The Backpropagation Algorithm



Conclusions

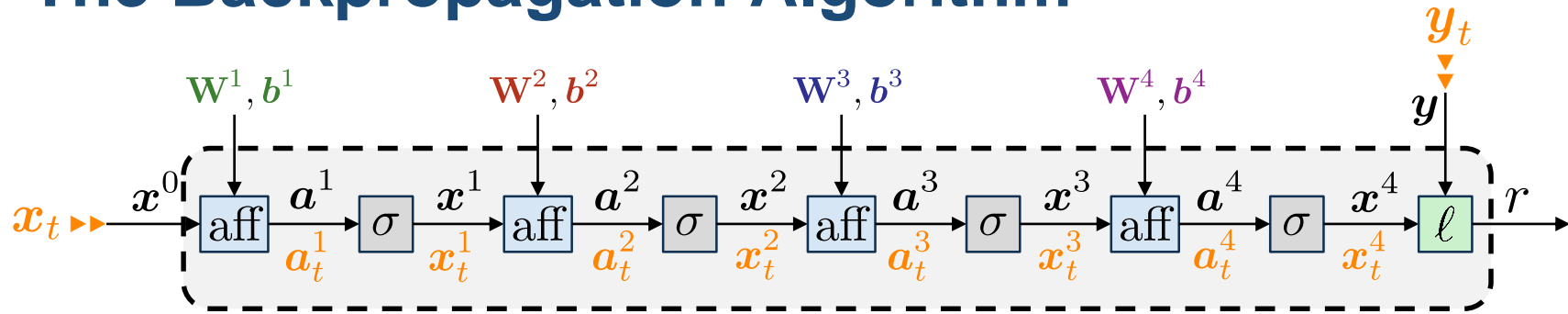
The Backpropagation Algorithm



Conclusions

- The idea is **very general** and can be applied to **any feedforward** neural network architecture

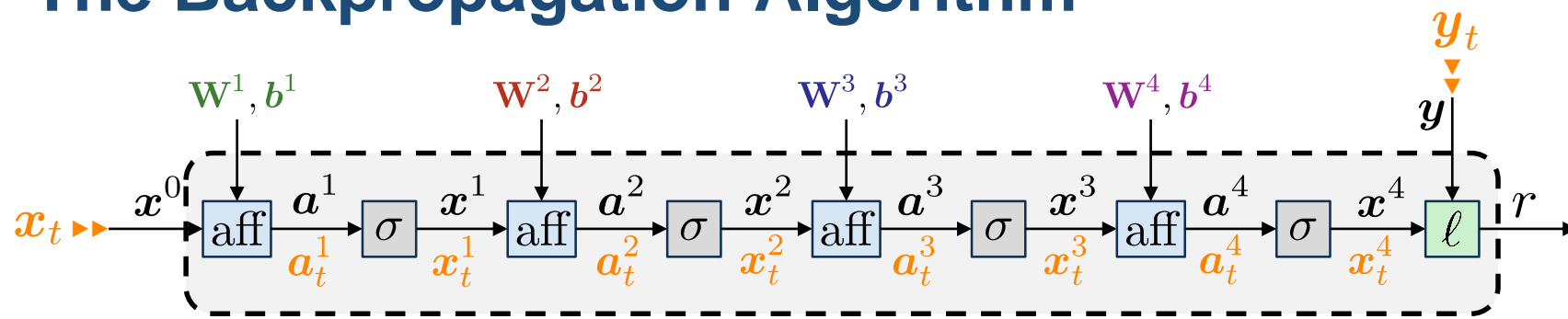
The Backpropagation Algorithm



Conclusions

- The idea is **very general** and can be applied to **any feedforward** neural network architecture
- **There are 4 key ingredients:**
 - the **data** (constants)
 - the **parameters** (*free variables to optimize*)
 - the **activations / layer outputs** (*dependent variables*)
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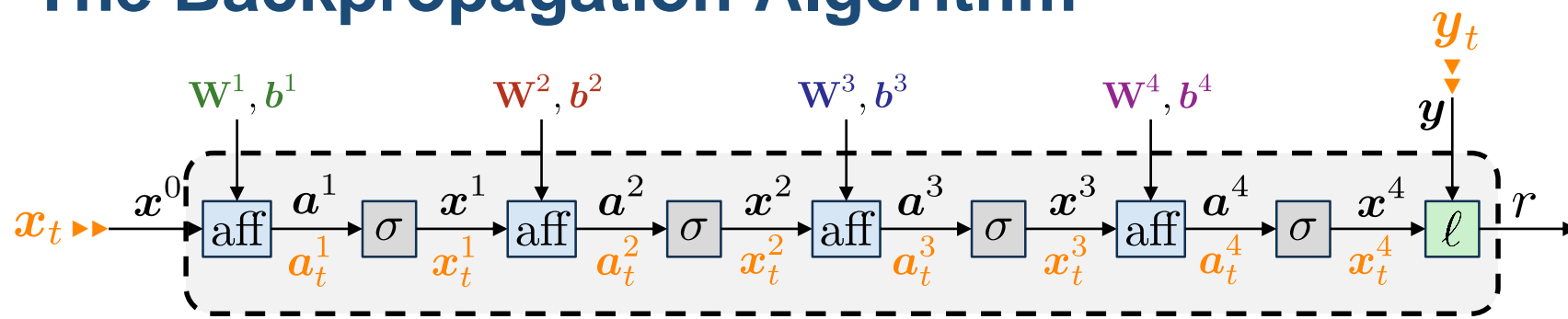
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The Backpropagation Algorithm



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- The data flows **forwards** while the gradient propagates **backwards**, a bit like another neural network, with only vector/matrix multiplications
- All we need are the **forward operators** and **Jacobians** of each module

Back to gradient descent

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i)} - \epsilon \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} g(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i)})$$

- Remember that we train DNNs using Empirical Risk Minimization:

$$L(\text{dnn}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}, \mathcal{T}) = \frac{1}{T} \sum_{t=1}^T \ell(\text{dnn}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}_t), \mathbf{y}_t) \approx \mathbb{E}_{\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}} \{ \ell(\text{dnn}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{X}), \mathbf{Y}) \}$$

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- But doing so across the **entire dataset** (e.g.: 1 million images) for **every gradient step** would be very expensive.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

(The SGD algorithm)

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i+1)} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i)} - \epsilon \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} g(\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(i)})$$

- At each iteration (i), compute the gradient over a **random subset** $\mathcal{T}^{(i)} \subseteq \mathcal{T}$ and perform one step of gradient descent:

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*More iterations but fewer epochs
= less total computation*

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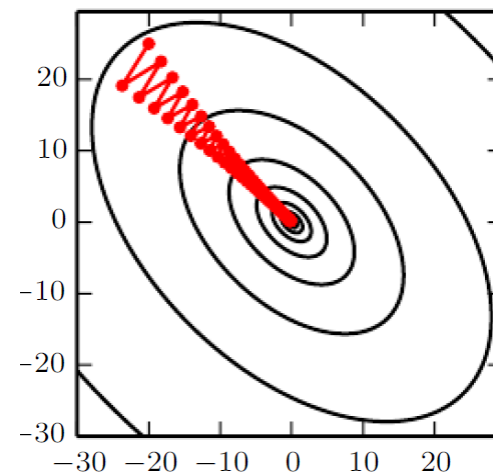
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- Typical minibatch sizes: from 32 to 256.
- **Limit of SGD:** Tends to “zigzag” when descending a “canyon”, which increases the number of iterations



SGD with Momentum

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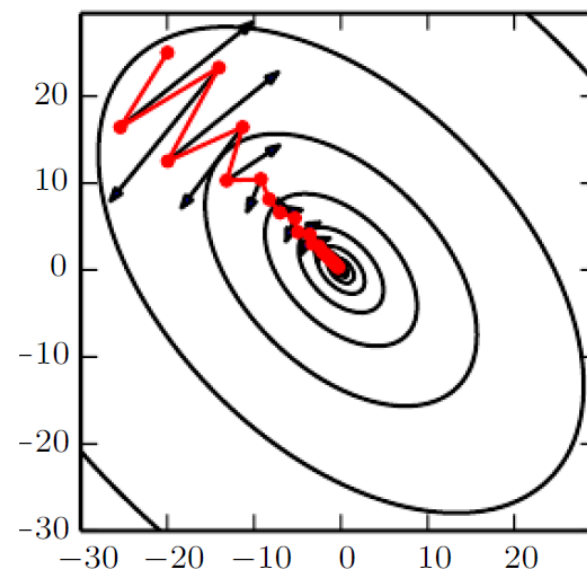
$$\begin{cases} v^{(i+1)} \leftarrow \alpha v^{(i)} - \epsilon \cdot \frac{1}{T} \sum_{(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{y}_t) \in \mathcal{T}_i} \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\text{dnn}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t), \mathbf{y}_t) \\ \theta^{(i+1)} \leftarrow \theta^{(i)} + v^{(i)} \end{cases}$$

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$$\begin{cases} v^{(i+1)} \leftarrow \alpha v^{(i)} - \epsilon \cdot \frac{1}{T} \sum_{(\mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{y}_t) \in \mathcal{T}_i} \nabla_{\theta} \ell(\text{dnn}_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}_t), \mathbf{y}_t) \\ \theta^{(i+1)} \leftarrow \theta^{(i)} + v^{(i)} \end{cases}$$



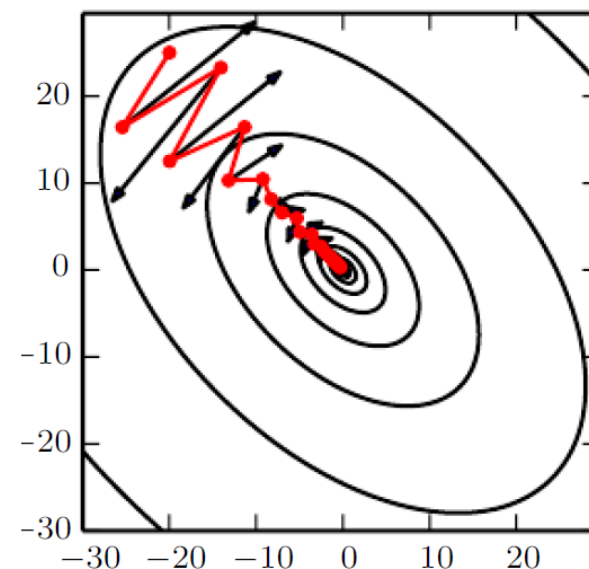
Converges faster than SGD

SGD with Momentum

$$\theta^{(i+1)} \leftarrow \theta^{(i)} - \epsilon \nabla_{\theta} g(\theta^{(i)})$$

- **Solution:** “smooth” the gradient estimates across several iterations.
- **Momentum** = vector v representing the direction and speed at which the parameters move through parameter space.
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- The very popular **ADAM optimizer** (140k citations since 2014!) extends this idea by also averaging **squared** gradients.



Converges faster than SGD

Local Minima

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→ This creates a large or infinite number of local minima, but they are **all equivalent** to each other (not a problem).

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- SGD manages to avoid them in practice
- Most local minima correspond to a **low value** of the cost function

The PyTorch framework



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The PyTorch framework

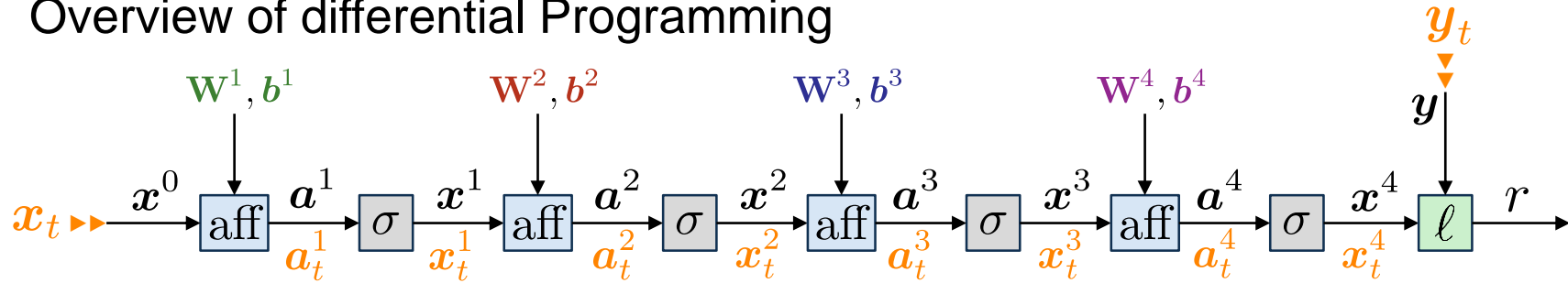


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- Competing framework: **TensorFlow**, initially developed by Google Brain.
≈ TensorFlow → Production / PyTorch → R&D.

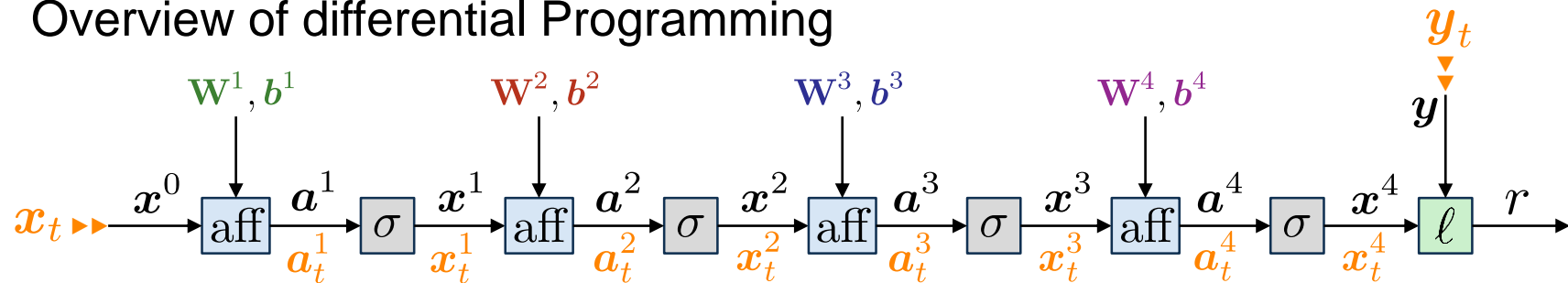
The PyTorch framework

Overview of differential Programming



The PyTorch framework

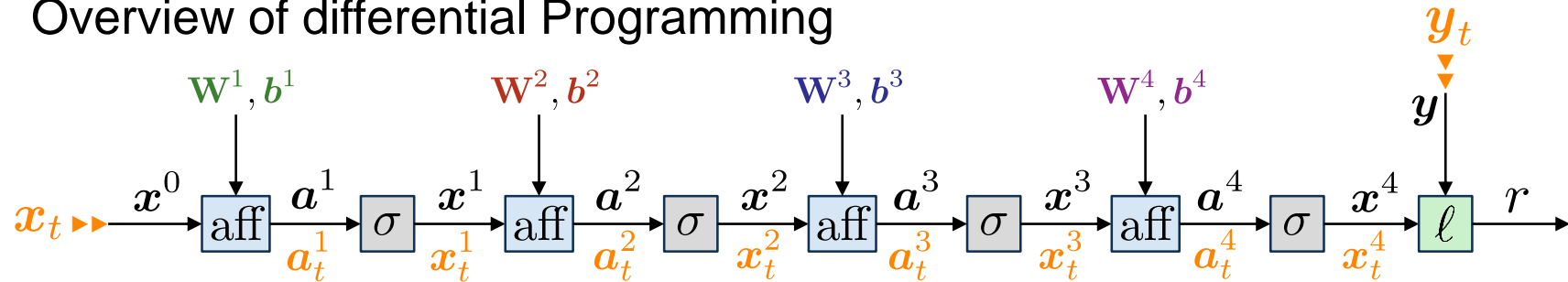
Overview of differential Programming



- Model the network as an **acyclic computational flow graph**

The PyTorch framework

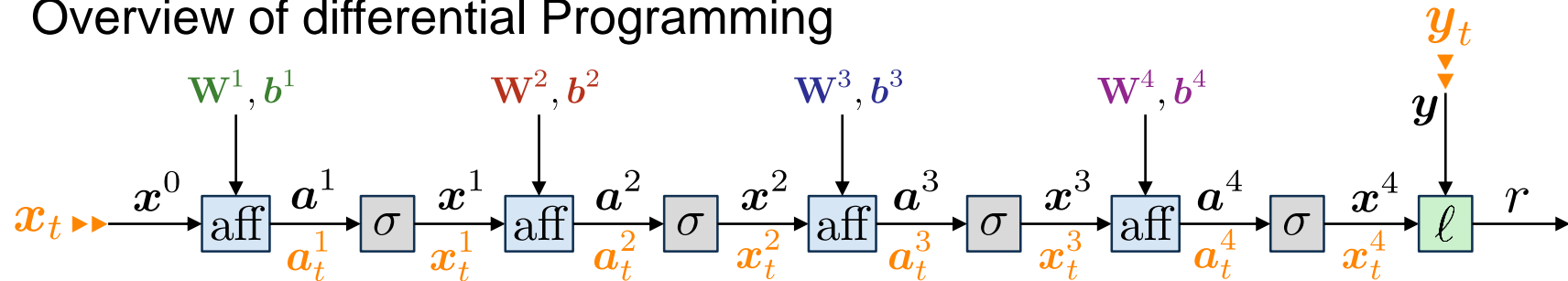
Overview of differential Programming



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The PyTorch framework

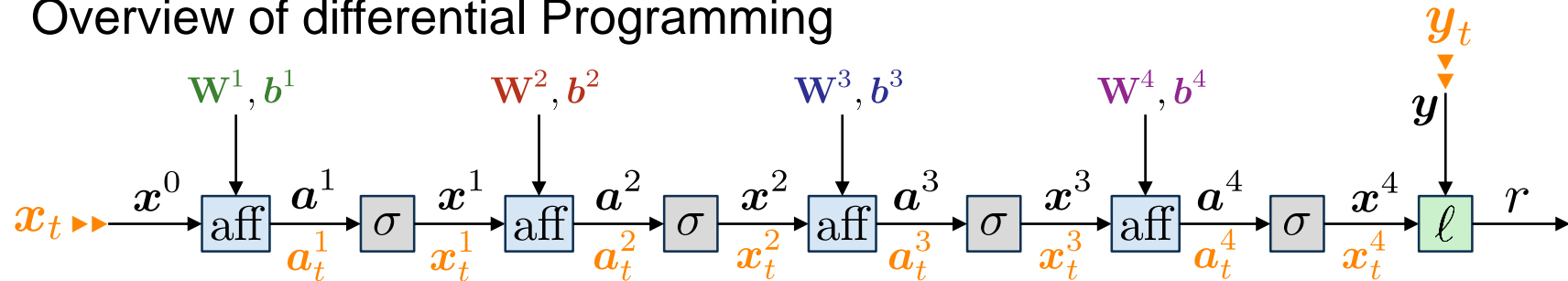
Overview of differential Programming



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- Associate each box with a **forward** method, that computes the value of the box given its children
- Call the **forward** method of each box in **left->right** order

The PyTorch framework

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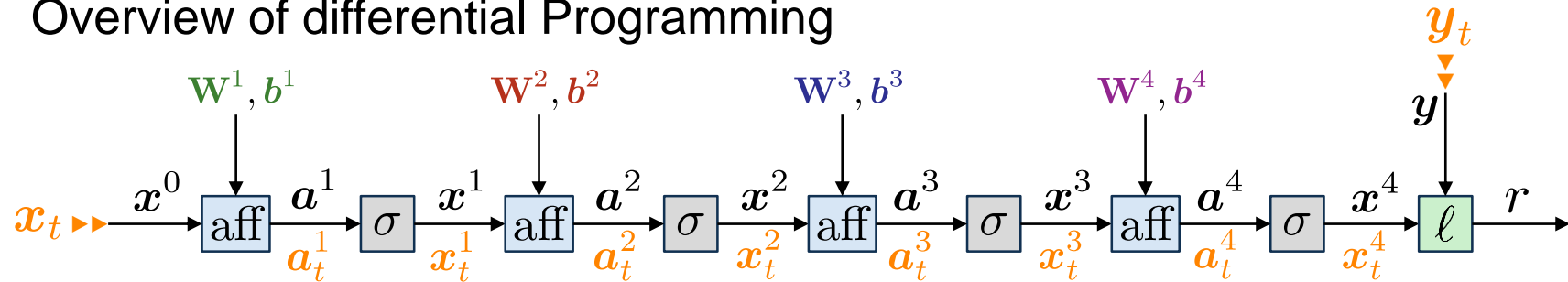


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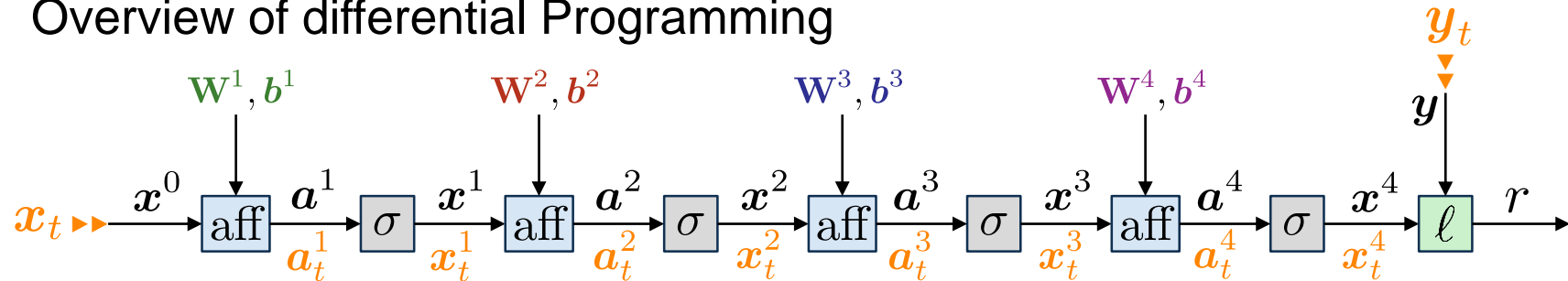
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Similarly for backpropagation:

- Associate each box with a **backward** method, that computes the gradient with respect to each child box
- Call the **backward** method of each box in reverse, **right->left** order

The PyTorch framework



- Tensors (Data)

```
import torch
a = torch.Tensor([[1,2],[3,4]])
print(a)

1 2
3 4

[torch.FloatTensor of size 2x2]
```

<https://cs230.stanford.edu/blog/pytorch/>

The PyTorch framework



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```
import torch
a = torch.Tensor([[1,2],[3,4]])
print(a)
1 2
3 4
[torch.FloatTensor of size 2x2]
print(a**2)
1 4
9 16
[torch.FloatTensor of size 2x2]
```

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The PyTorch framework

- Variables, Functions and Autograd

```
from torch.autograd import Variable
a = Variable(torch.Tensor([[1,2],[3,4]]), requires_grad=True)
print(a)
```

```
Variable containing:
```

```
1 2
```

```
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 3  4
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y = torch.sum(a**2) # 1 + 4 + 9 + 16
print(y)

Variable containing:
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[torch.FloatTensor of size 1]
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y = torch.sum(a**2) # 1 + 4 + 9 + 16
print(y)

Variable containing:
30
[torch.FloatTensor of size 1]

y.backward() # compute gradients of y wrt a
print(a.grad) # print dy/da_ij = 2*a_ij for a_11, a_12, a21, a22

Variable containing:
 2  4
 6  8
[torch.FloatTensor of size 2x2]
```

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The PyTorch framework



- Loss

```
loss_fn = nn.CrossEntropyLoss()  
loss = loss_fn(out, target)
```

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The PyTorch framework



- Loss

```
loss_fn = nn.CrossEntropyLoss()
loss = loss_fn(out, target)

def myCrossEntropyLoss(outputs, labels):
    batch_size = outputs.size()[0] # batch_size
    outputs = F.log_softmax(outputs, dim=1) # compute the log of softmax values
    outputs = outputs[(batch_size), labels] # pick the values corresponding to the labels
    return -torch.sum(outputs)/num_examples
```

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The PyTorch framework

- Models / Neural Network Modules

```
import torch.nn as nn
import torch.nn.functional as F
class TwoLayerNet(nn.Module):
    def __init__(self, D_in, H, D_out):
        """ Constructor. Instantiate two nn.Linear modules and assign them as member variables.
        D_in: input dimension, H: dimension of hidden layer, D_out: output dimension
        """
        super(TwoLayerNet, self).__init__()
        self.linear1 = nn.Linear(D_in, H)
        self.linear2 = nn.Linear(H, D_out)
```

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The PyTorch framework

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        super(TwoLayerNet, self).__init__()
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        self.linear2 = nn.Linear(H, D_out)

    def forward(self, x):
        """ In the forward function we accept a Variable of input data and we must return a
        Variable of output data. We can use Modules defined in the constructor as well as arbitrary
        operators on Variables.
        """
        h_relu = F.relu(self.linear1(x))
        y_pred = self.linear2(h_relu)
        return y_pred
```

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The PyTorch framework

- Using Models / Neural Network Modules

```
#N is batch size; D_in is input dimension;
#H is the dimension of the hidden layer; D_out is output dimension.
N, D_in, H, D_out = 32, 100, 50, 10

#Create random Tensors to hold inputs and outputs, and wrap them in Variables
x = Variable(torch.randn(N, D_in)) # dim: 32 x 100

#Construct our model by instantiating the class defined above
model = TwoLayerNet(D_in, H, D_out)

#Forward pass: Compute predicted y by passing x to the model
y_pred = model(x) # dim: 32 x 10
```

The PyTorch framework



- Core Training Step

```
output_batch = model(train_batch) # compute model output
loss = loss_fn(output_batch, labels_batch) # calculate loss

#pick an SGD optimizer
optimizer = torch.optim.SGD(model.parameters(), lr = 0.01, momentum=0.9)

#or pick ADAM
optimizer = torch.optim.Adam(model.parameters(), lr = 0.0001)

optimizer.zero_grad() # clear previous gradients
loss.backward() # compute gradients of all variables wrt loss
optimizer.step() # perform updates using calculated gradients
```

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