Deep Learning: Introduction

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Early Learning



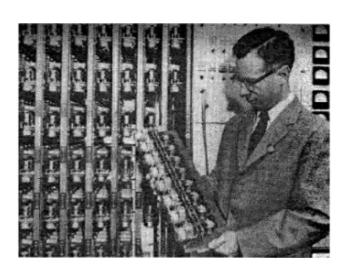
► Feature extraction



Perceptron (binary classifier). Mark 1 perceptron machine (1957) used motors, potentiometers!





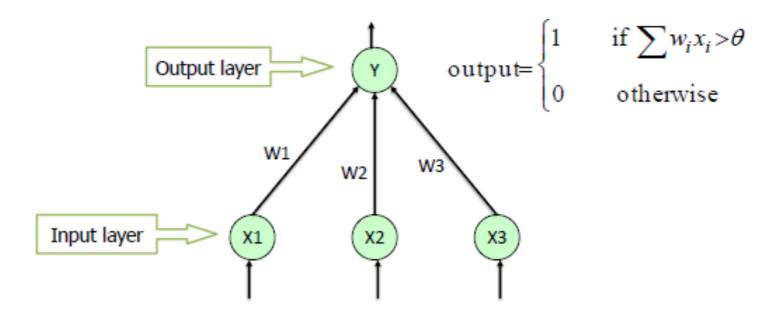


Perceptron



ightharpoonup Simplest perceptron: set of inputs x_i mapped to output \hat{y}

Single Layer Perceptron

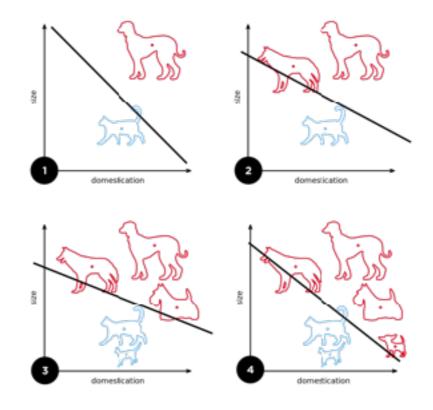


- ightharpoonup Each input has a weight w_i
- Weights are trained using supervised learning
- ▶ Training sets of $D = \{x_{i,j}, y_j\}$ where j is the sample number and y_j the desired output for that sample
- ▶ Prediction is \hat{y} and weights are updated to minimise loss $\sum_{j} (y_j \hat{y}_j)^2$

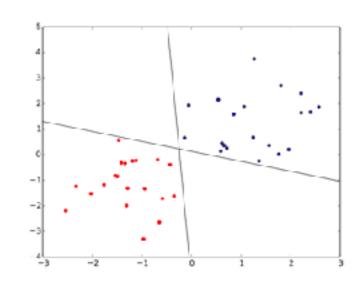
Perceptron



- ► The perceptron is only able to classify linearly separable training sets
- E.g. if two features are size and domestication

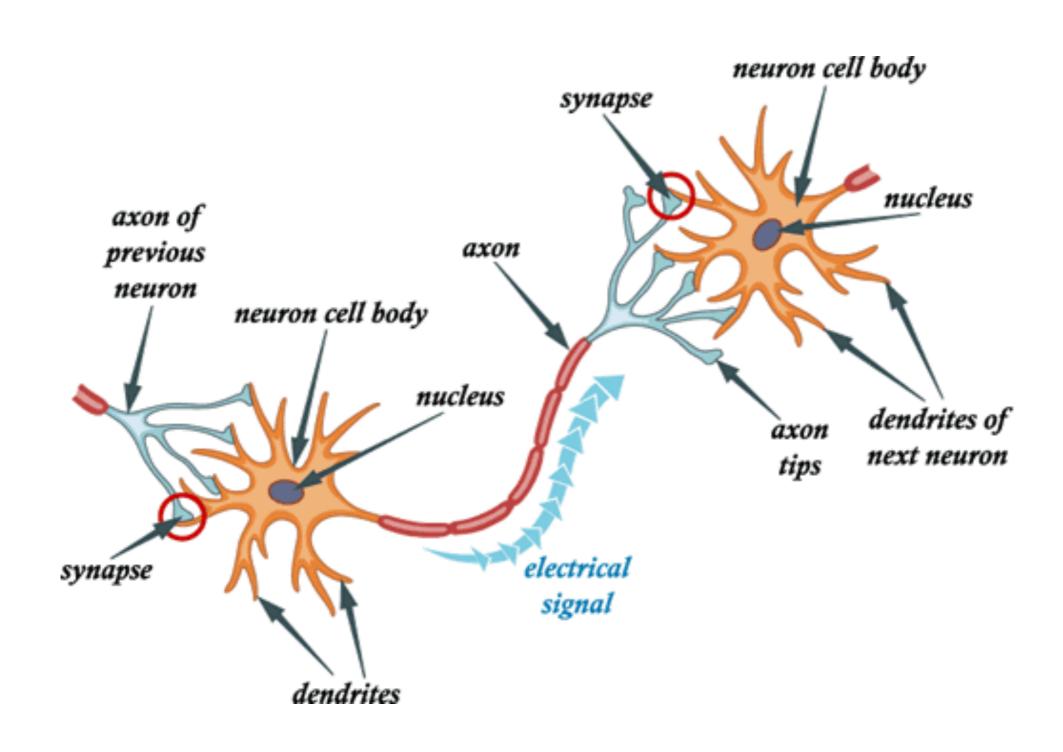


May admit solutions of different quality (general problem for machine learning if training data is not representative)



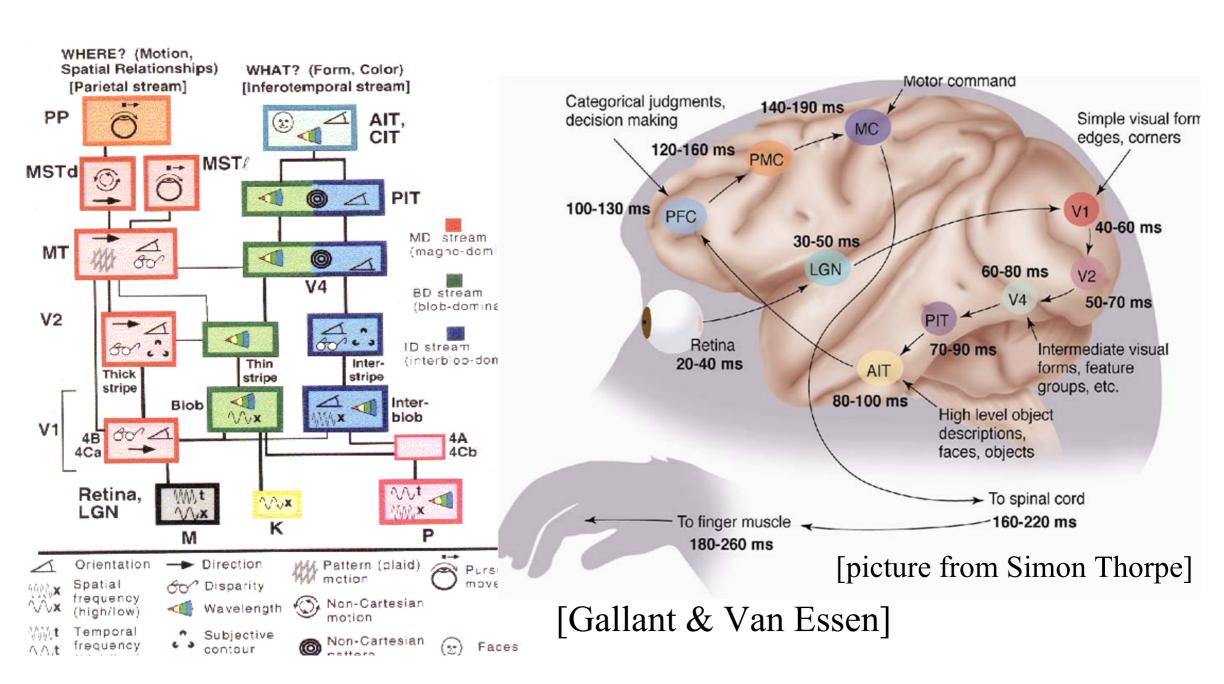
Biological Neuron





Visual Cortex





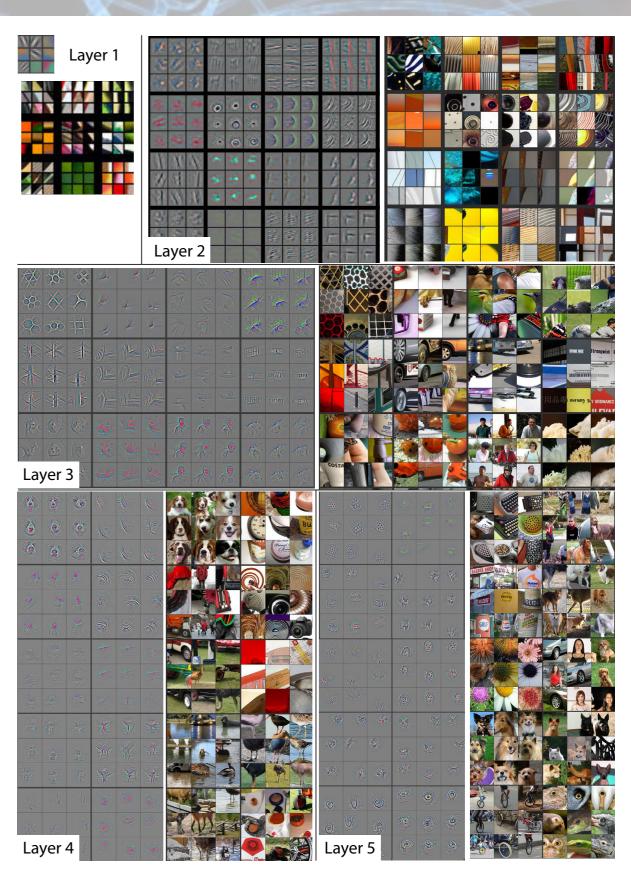
LGN=lateral geniculate nucleus

AIT=anterior inferior temporal cortex PIT=posterior inferior temporal cortex

Shallow vs Deep



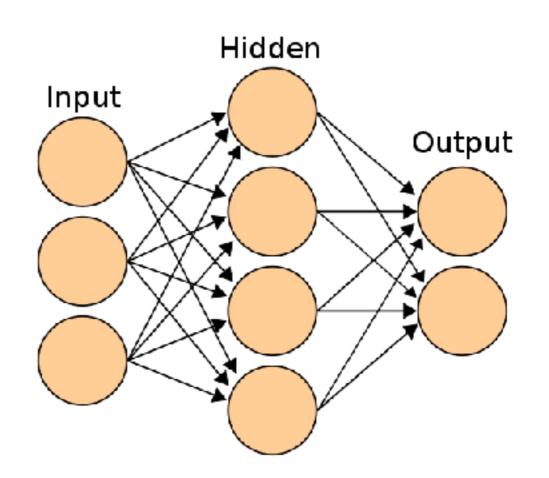
- ► A network is **deep** if it has more than one layer of nonlinear feature abstraction
- ► Hierarchy of representations with increasing levels of abstraction (e.g. pixel -> edge -> eye -> face)
- Deep networks can store more memory than equivalent number of units in a single layer



MultiLayer Perceptron

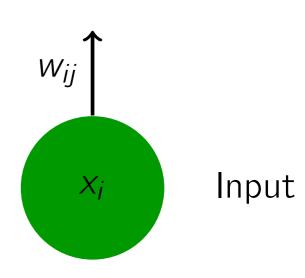


- Type of **feedforward** artificial neural network
- Can distinguish data which is not linearly separable
- Some neurons use non-linear activation functions (functions which map the weighted input to the output of a neuron)
- ► The brain is thought to work in a similar way when biological neurons are fired
- MLPs use supervised learning to update network weights using backpropagation



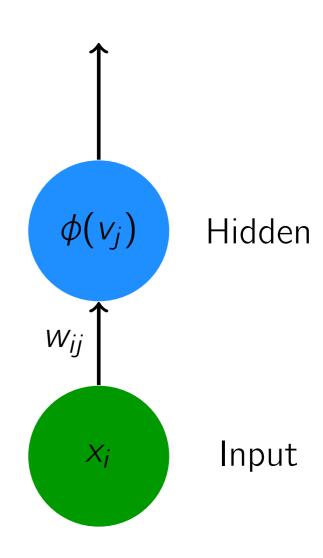


▶ Weighted inputs $v_j = w_{ij}x_i$





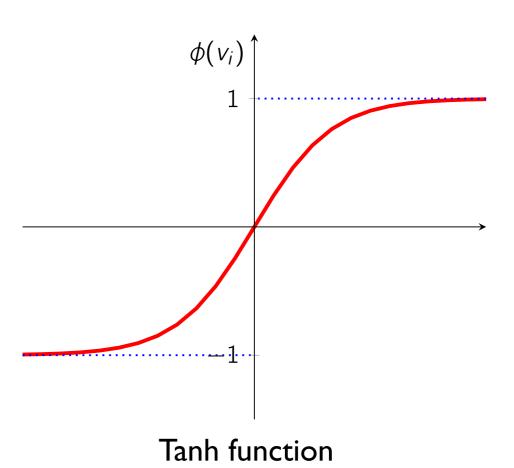
- ► Weighted inputs $v_j = w_{ij} x_i$ ► Activation function $\phi(v_j)$





- ightharpoonup Weighted inputs $v_j = w_{ij}x_i$
- ightharpoonup Activation function $\phi(v_j)$

$$\phi(v_i) = \tanh(v_i)$$

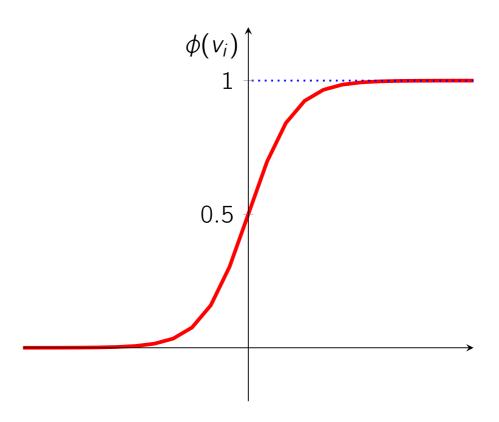




- ▶ Weighted inputs $v_j = w_{ij}x_i$
- ightharpoonup Activation function $\phi(v_j)$

$$\phi(v_i) = \tanh(v_i)$$

$$\phi(v_i) = (1 + e^{-v_i})^{-1}$$



Sigmoid function



- ightharpoonup Weighted inputs $v_j = w_{ij}x_i$
- ightharpoonup Activation function $\phi(v_j)$

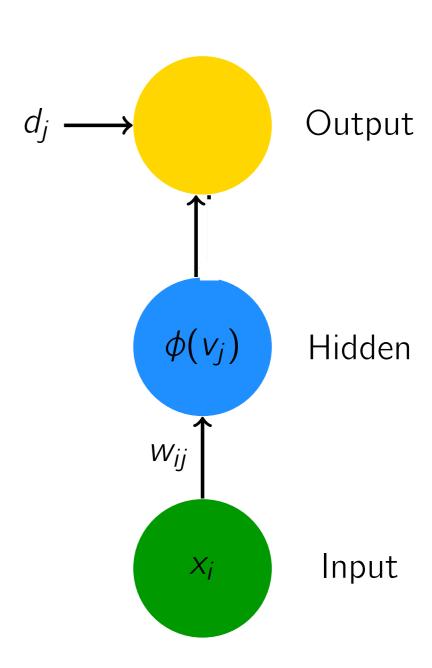
$$\phi(v_i) = \tanh(v_i)$$

$$\phi(v_i) = (1 + e^{-v_i})^{-1}$$

Loss function

$$e_j = y_j - \phi(v_j)$$

$$\mathcal{E} = \sum_{j} e_{j}^{2}$$





- Weighted inputs $v_j = w_{ij}x_i$
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Loss function

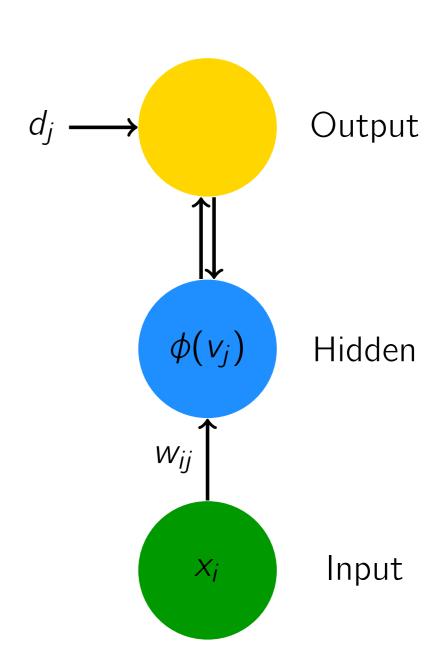
$$e_j = y_j - \phi(v_j)$$

$$\mathcal{E} = \sum_j e_j^2$$

$$\sum_{j} e_{j}$$

$$\Delta w_{ij} = -\eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{E}}{\partial w_{ij}}$$

$$\Delta w_{ij} = -\eta \frac{\partial \mathcal{E}}{\partial \phi(v_j)} \frac{\partial \phi(v_j)}{\partial v_j} \frac{\partial v_j}{\partial w_{ij}}$$





- Can the cortex do back-propagation?
- Maybe or maybe not!
- Many neuroscientists think the brain can't back-propagate
 - Source of supervision signal?
 - Neurons send all-or-nothing spikes
 - Neurons must be able to send different signals forward and backward
- ▶ But see work of Geoffrey Hinton (e.g. Lillicrap et. al., Nature Communications 7, 2016) who presents arguments how the brain can back-propagate
- How much should we be led by the function of the brain when developing deep learning algorithms?

Gradient Descent (GD)



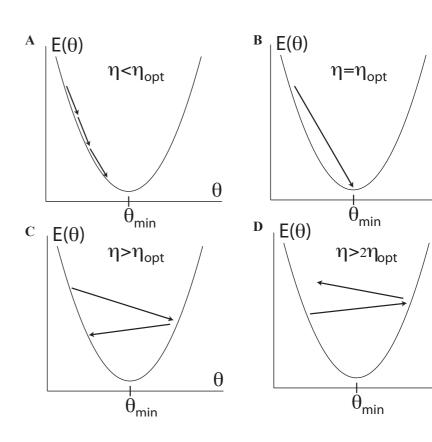
θ

- Most supervised machine learning algorithms involve finding a set of parameters **O** that minimise a cost/loss function
- Loss functions can be complicated non-convex functions with many local minima
- Simplest algorithm that attempts to minimise the loss E(Θ) is gradient descent $\mathbf{v}_t = \eta_t \nabla_{\theta} E(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t),$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \mathbf{v}_t$$

- Requires careful choice of learning rate
- Can become stuck in local minima
- Sensitive to initial conditions
- Learning rate is same for all gradients
- Long time to escape saddle points

$$\eta_t = \text{learning rate}$$



Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)



- Stochasticity is added by approximating the gradient on a subset of data called a mini batch
- Size of mini batch is smaller than dataset typically 10's to 100's of data points
- Full iteration using all mini batches of a dataset is called an epoch
- Update rule is now just

$$\mathbf{v}_t = \eta_t \nabla_{\theta} E^{MB}(\boldsymbol{\theta}),$$
$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \mathbf{v}_t.$$

- Decreases chance of becoming stuck in local minima
- Also has been shown to help alleviate over-fitting

SGD with momentum



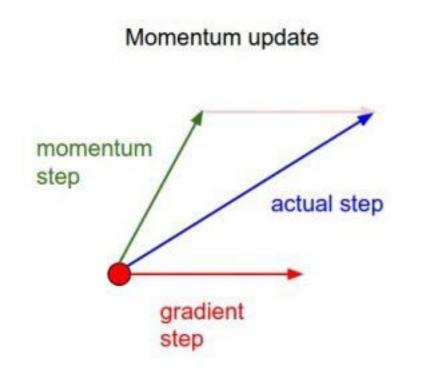
SGD with momentum adds an inertia term that retains some memory of the direction being moved in

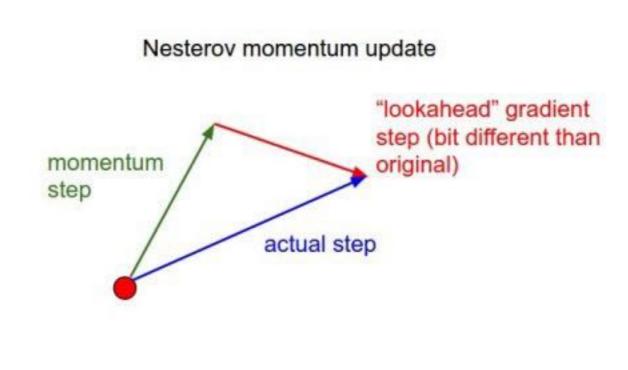
$$\mathbf{v}_t = \gamma \mathbf{v}_{t-1} + \eta_t \nabla_{\theta} E(\boldsymbol{\theta}_t)$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_t - \mathbf{v}_t,$$

$$\gamma = \text{momentum parameter}$$

SGD helps parameter updates gain 'speed' in persistent smaller gradients while suppressing oscillatory high gradients





Second order moments



- All methods so far require a schedule for the learning rate as a function of time
- ▶ Optimal learning rate is actually inverse of the Hessian $\eta_{\text{opt}} = [\partial_{\theta}^2 E(\theta)]^{-1}$.
- Expensive to compute. Second order moment methods keep track of the squared gradient
- ► Take large steps in shallow directions and small steps in steep directions
- Algorithms include RMSprop (Teileman and Hinton 2012), AdaDelta (Zeiler, 2012) and ADAM (Kingma and Ba, 2014)
- ► E.g. RMSprop update rule

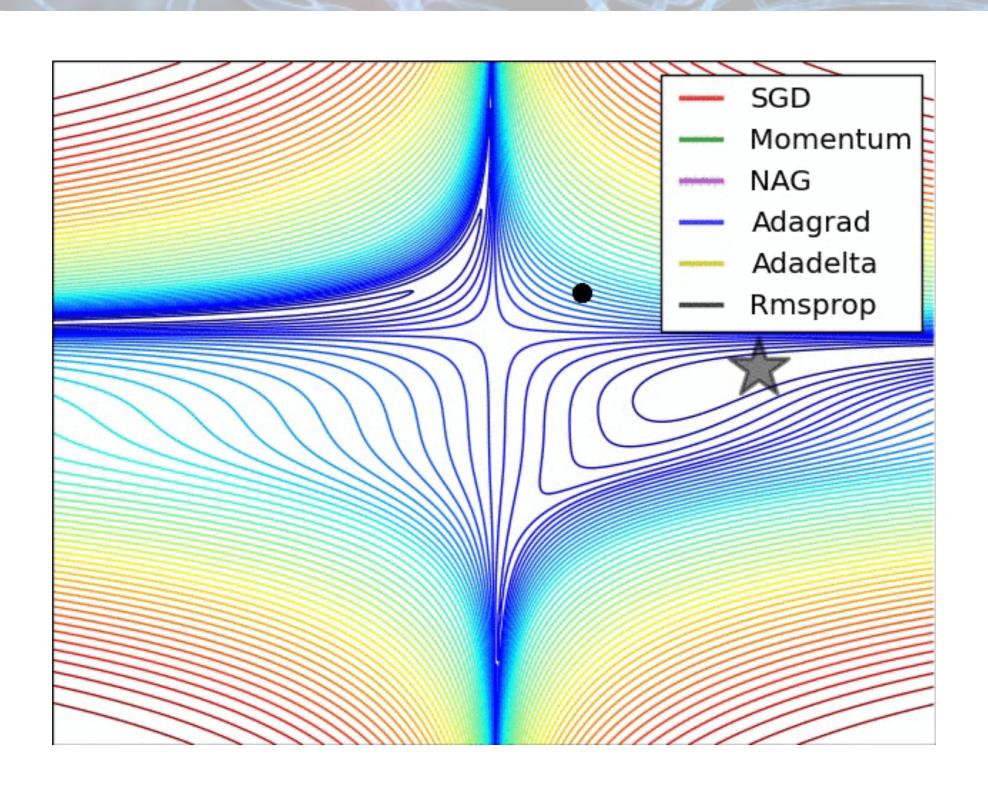
$$\mathbf{g}_{t} = \nabla_{\theta} E(\boldsymbol{\theta}) \qquad \mathbf{s}_{t} = \mathbb{E}[\mathbf{g}_{t}^{2}]$$

$$\mathbf{s}_{t} = \beta \mathbf{s}_{t-1} + (1 - \beta)\mathbf{g}_{t}^{2} \qquad \beta = \text{averaging time}$$

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}_{t+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}_{t} - \eta_{t} \frac{\mathbf{g}_{t}}{\sqrt{\mathbf{s}_{t} + \epsilon}}, \qquad \epsilon = \text{regularisation constant}$$

Second order methods





Deep learning in practice





- Created by Google
- Math library used for machine learning and neural networks
- Supports Python and C++
- Pros
 - ✓ Documentation
 - ✓ Backed by large community
 - ✓ In built monitoring for training processes (Tensorboard)
- ► Cons
 - × Static computational graphs
 - × Higher learning curve than other libraries (low level, debugging harder)
 - × Some performance issues

Deep learning in practice

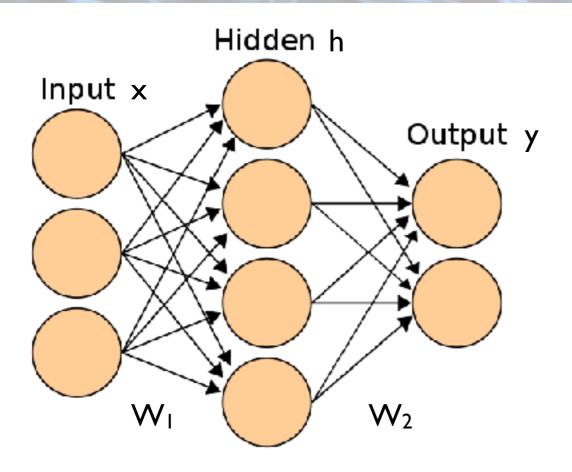


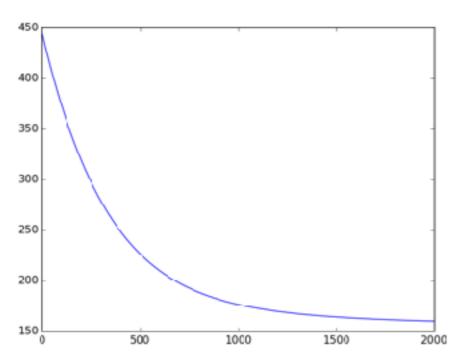
O PyTorch

- Created by Facebook
- Tensor computation (like numpy) with GPU acceleration
- Supports Python
- Pros
 - ✓ Dynamic computational graphs (useful for e.g. RNNs)
 - ✓ Lower learning curve (more pythonic, easier to debug)
 - √ Easy to write own layer types
- ► Cons
 - x Lacks in built monitoring
 - Not yet production ready (at v0.4 but less of an issue for research)
 - X Documentation not as detailed

PyTorch Example







```
autograd_example.py ×
     import torch
     import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
     device = torch.device('cpu')
     N, D_in, H, D_out = 64, 3, 4, 2
     x = torch.randn(N, D_in, device=device)
     y = torch.randn(N, D_out, device=device)
10
     w1 = torch.randn(D_in, H, device=device, requires_grad=True)
w2 = torch.randn(H, D_out, device=device, requires_grad=True)
11
12
13
     learning_rate = 1e-5
14
     loss_data = []
15
16
     for t in range(2000):
17
          h = x.mm(w\bar{1})
18
19
         phi = h.tanh()
20
         y_pred = phi.mm(w2)
21
          loss = (y_pred - y).pow(2).sum()
22
          loss_data.append(loss.item())
23
24
25
          loss.backward()
26
         with torch.no_grad():
27
28
              w1 -= learning_rate * w1.grad
              w2 -= learning_rate * w2.grad
29
              w1.grad.zero_()
30
              w2.grad.zero_()
31
32
33
     plt.plot(loss_data)
     plt.show()
34
35
```

Deep learning in practice





- Keras is built on top of TensorFlow/Theano
- Supports Python
- Pros
 - Easiest learning curve
 - Very intuitive interface for building neural networks
 - ✓ Easy to write own layer types
- ► Cons
 - X High level and not always as customisable
 - Not as many functionalities, less control

Loss Function



- ► The first thing to do to train a neural network is define a loss function
- For continuous outputs these include the mean squared error and mean absolute error

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} (y_i - \hat{y}_i(\mathbf{w}))^2 \qquad E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} |y_i - \hat{y}_i(\mathbf{w})|$$

- Full loss function can include additional regularization terms
- For categorical outputs loss function is usually the categorical crossentropy
- Last layer typically has a soft-max activation (turns M outputs into normalized probabilities)

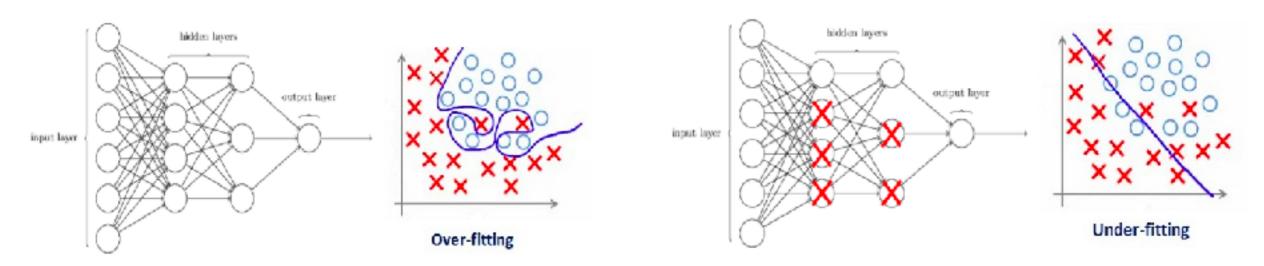
$$E((\mathbf{w})) = -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} y_{im} \log \hat{y}_{im}(\mathbf{w}) + (1 - y_{im}) \log [1 - \hat{y}_{im}(\mathbf{w})] \quad y_{im} = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } y_i = m \\ 0, & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases}$$

Loss increased when predicted probability further from actual label

Regularization



- Regularization helps ensure neural networks do not over-fit and generalise well to unseen data
- L1 and L2 regularization apply penalties on a per layer basis during optimization
- Dropout turns off random neurons with probability p for each mini batch during training



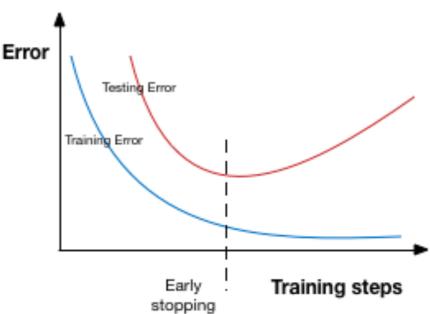
Model has too many free parameters and data is over-fitted

Too many neurons either dropped out or regularisation so high that weight matrices close to zero - under-fitting!

Training



- ► Data should first be separated into training, test and holdout datasets
 - Training data is used to fit the parameters of the network
 - Test data to to evaluate the performance of the trained model on unseen data. It can be used to tune the various hyper parameters of the network (e.g. number of layers, hidden units etc)
 - Holdout data is used to assess the final performance of the tuned model
- During training test loss can be monitoring, and training should be stopped when this increases
- Early stopping can also be seen as a type of regularization and avoids overfitting



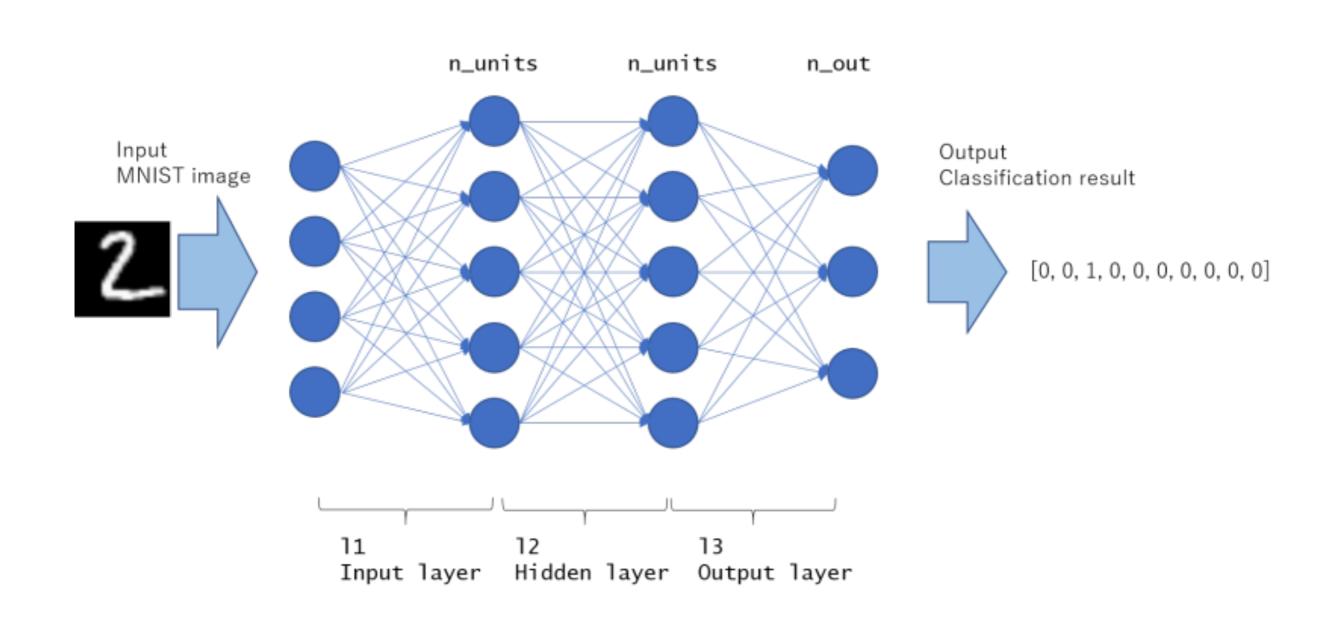
Hello World



- ► MNIST is `Hello Word' of deep learning
- Black and white images of integers from 0 to 9
- ► 28 x 28 pixel images
- ► 60,000 training images and 10,000 test images

MNIST MLP





MNIST MLP (Keras)



- Very simple API!
- 2 hidden layers each with 512 units
- Relu activation functions
- ► Dropout with p=0.2
- Final layer has softmax activation
- Gets to 98.40% test accuracy after 20 epochs
- State of the art has 99.8% accuracy

```
autograd_example.py ×
                                keras_mnist_mlp.py
      rom __future__ import print_function
          keras.datasets
                                 mnist
                               Sequential
                               Dense, Dropout
          keras.layers
          keras.optimizers
     batch size = 128
     num_classes = 10
     epochs = 20
     (x train, y train), (x test, y test) = mnist.load_data()
     x_{train} = x_{train.reshape}(60000, 784)
     x_{\text{test}} = x_{\text{test.reshape}}(10000, 784)
     x_train = x_train.astype('float32')
     x_test = x_test.astype('float32')
     x_train /= 255
     x_test /= 255
     print(x_train.shape[0], 'train samples')
     print(x_test.shape[0], 'test samples')
     # convert class vectors to binary class matrices
     y_train = keras.utils.to_categorical(y_train, num_classes)
     y_test = keras.utils.to_categorical(y_test, num_classes)
     model = Sequential()
     model.add(Dense(512, activation='relu', input_shape=(784,)))
     model.add(Dropout(0.2))
     model.add(Dense(512, activation='relu'))
     model.add(Dropout(0.2))
     model.add(Dense(num_classes, activation='softmax'))
     model.summary()
     model.compile(lass='categorical_crossentropy',
                   optimizer=RMSprop(),
                    metrics=['accuracy'])
40
     history = model.fit(x_train, y_train,
                                s=epochs,
                              dation_data=(x_test, y_test))
     score = model.evaluate(x_test, y_test, verbose=0)
     print('Test loss:', score[0])
     print('Test accuracy:', score[1])
```

MNIST MLP (pyTorch)



```
subsgred_example.py × V keres_mrist_mlp.py × V pytorch_mnist_mlp.py ×
        rom __future__ import print_function
               argparse
               torch
               torchinn as no
               torch.nn.functional as F
               tarch.aptim 85 optim
             torchvision import datasets, transforms
      class Net!nm.Module):
           def __init__(self):
    super(Net, self).__init__()
    self.fcl = nn.Linear(28*28, 512)
                self.fcl drop = nn.Dropout(0.2)
                 self.fc2 = rn.Linear(512, 512)
                self.fc2_drop = nn.Dropout(0.2)
self.fc3 = nn.Linear(512, 512)
            def forward(self, x):
                x = x.viex(-1, 28+28)
20
21
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25
26
                x = F. reluiself.fcl(x)]
x = self.fcl_drop(x)
x = F. reluiself.fc2(x)]
                x = seif.fc2_drop(x)
return F.log_softmax(self.fc3(x))
      def train(args, model, device, train_loader, optimizer, epoch):
    model.train()
29
30
                batch_idx, (data, target) in enumerate(train_loader):
                data, target = data.to(device), target.to(device)
                 optimizer.zero_grad()
33
34
                output = model(data)
loss = F.nll_loss(output, target)
35
36
37
38
39
40
41
                loss_backward()
                optimizer.step!)
                 if batch_idx % args.log_interval -- 0:
                      print('Train Epoch: {) {{}}/{}} ({:.0f}%)]\tLoss: {:.6f}'.format{
                            epoch, batch_idx * len(data), len(train_loader.dataset),
                           100. * batch_idx / len(train_loader), loss.iten()))
      def test(args, model, device, test_loader):
           model.eval()
           test_loss = 0
46
47
           correct = 0
                  torch.no_grad():
48
49
                     data, target in test_loader:
data, target = data.to(device), target.to(device)
                      output - model(data)
                     test_loss += F.nll_loss|output, target, reduction='sum').iten(|[r|sum_up_patch_lopred = output.max(1, keepdin=True)|ll[r get the index of the max_ldg_probability] correct += pred.eq(target.viev_as(pred)).sum().item()
51
52
53
54
55
           test_loss /= len(test_loader.dataset)
           print("\nTest set: Average loss: {:.4f}, Accuracy: {}/{} ({:.0f}%)\n'.forma@(
    test_loss, correct, len(test_loader.dataset),
                 100. * correct / len(test_loader.dataset)))
```

```
def main():
  # Training settings
  parser.add_argument('-seed', type=int, default=1, metavar='S',
                 help='random seed (default: 1)')
  args = parser.parse_args()
  use_cuda = not args.no_cuda and torch.cuda.is_available()
  torch.manual_seed(args.seed)
  device = torch.device("cuda" if use_cuda else "cpu")
  kwargs = {'num_workers': 1, 'pin_memory': True} if use_cuda else {}
  train_loader = torch.utils.data.DataLoader(
     transforms.ToTensor(),
                   transforms.Normalize((0.1307,), (0.3081,))
                111),
     batch_size=args.batch_size, shuffle=True, ++kwargs)
  test_loader = torch.utils.data.DataLoader(
     datasets.WNIST('../data', train=False, transform=transforms.Compose([
                   transforms.ToTensor(),
                   transforms.Normalize((0.1307,), (0.3081,))
     batch_size=args.test_batch_size, shuffle=True, ***kwargs)
  model = Net().to(device)
  optimizer = optim.SGD(model.parameters(), !r=args.lr, momentum=args.momentum)
  for epoch in range(1, args.epochs + 1):
    train(args, model, device, train_loader, optimizer, epoch)
     test(args, model, device, test_loader)
 __name__ == '__main__':
```