18AIC301J: DEEP LEARNING TECHNIQUES

B. Tech in ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE, 5th semester

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Section: A, slot:D

Venue: TP 804

Academic Year: 2022-22

UNIT-2

Limitations of gradient descent

learning algorithm, Contour maps,

Momentum based gradient descent, Nesterov accelerated gradient

Descent, AdaGrad, RMSProp, Adam learning

Algorithm, Stochastic gradient descent

Implement linear regression with stochastic gradient descent

Mini-batch gradient descent, Bias Variance tradeoff, Overfitting in deep neural networks,

Hyperparameter tuning, Regularization: L2 regularization, Dataset Augmentation and Early stopping

Implement linear regression with

stochastic mini-batch gradient

descent and compare the results with

previous exercise.

Dimensionality reduction, Principal Component Analysis, Singular value decomposition

Autoencoders, Relation between PCA and

Autoencoders, Regularization in Autoencoders

Optimizing neural networks using

L2 regularization, Dropout, data

augmentation and early stopping.

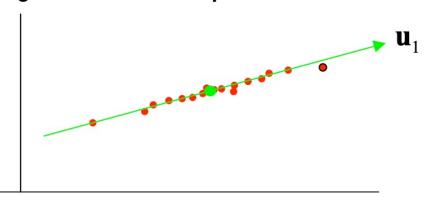
Usage

- Have data of dimension d
- □ Reduce dimensionality to k<d</p>
 - Discard unimportant features
 - Combine several features in one
- Use resulting k-dimensional data set for
 - Learning for classification problem (e.g. parameters of probabilities $P(x \mid C)$
 - Learning for regression problem (e.g. parameters for model y=g(x | Thetha)

Subspace Models

Probability & Bayesian Inference

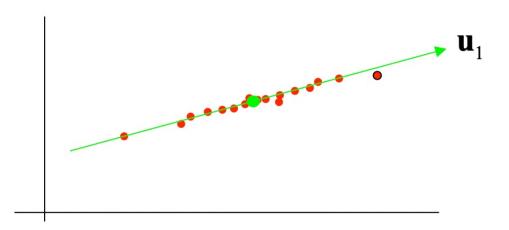
- Often in machine learning problems, input vectors have high dimensionality D
 - \Box for an 1800 x 1200 colour image, D≅6.5 million.
 - \square for a 1-second acoustic voice signal sampled at 5kHz, D=5,000
- There is typically insufficient training data to learn a probabilistic model in such a high-dimensional space.
- Fortunately, these signals usually live in a much smaller subspace, or manifold, of this high-dimensional space.

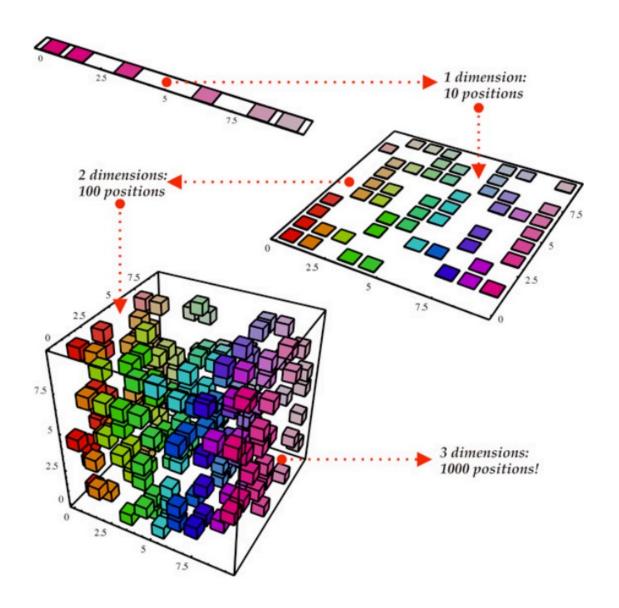


Subspace Models

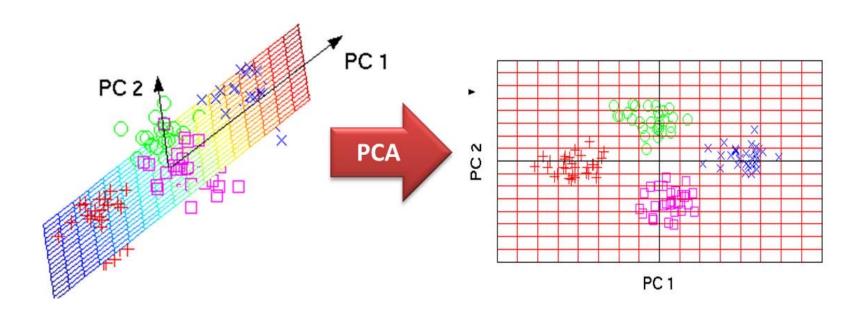
Probability & Bayesian Inference

The goal of subspace methods is to discover the low-dimensional subspace in which the data lie and exploit the lower-dimensionality to allow efficient and detailed modeling.





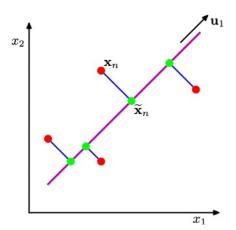
Principal Component Analysis



Principal Component Analysis

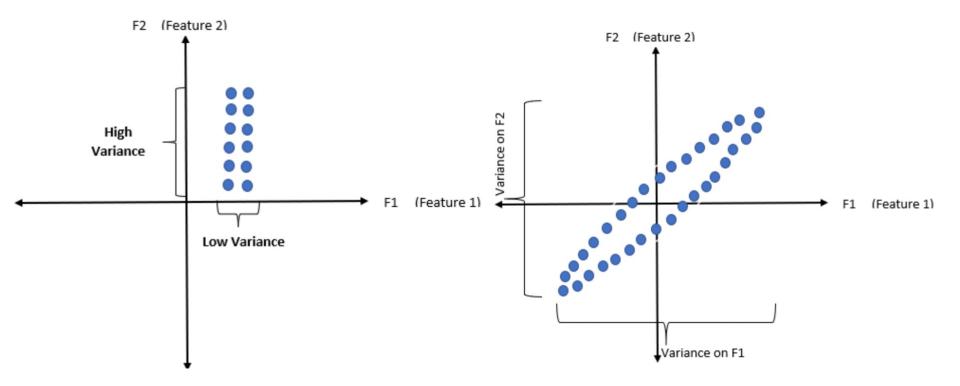
Probability & Bayesian Inference

- PCA finds the linear subspace that
 - maximizes the explained variance
 - equivalently, minimizes the unexplained variance
- PCA can be applied to any multidimensional dataset
 - (data do not have to be Gaussian)

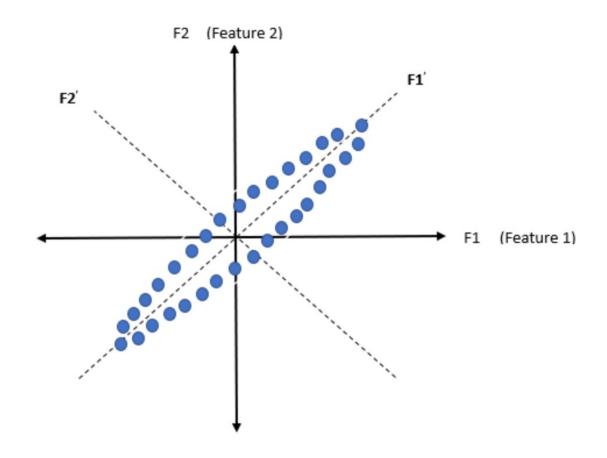


PCA Intuition.

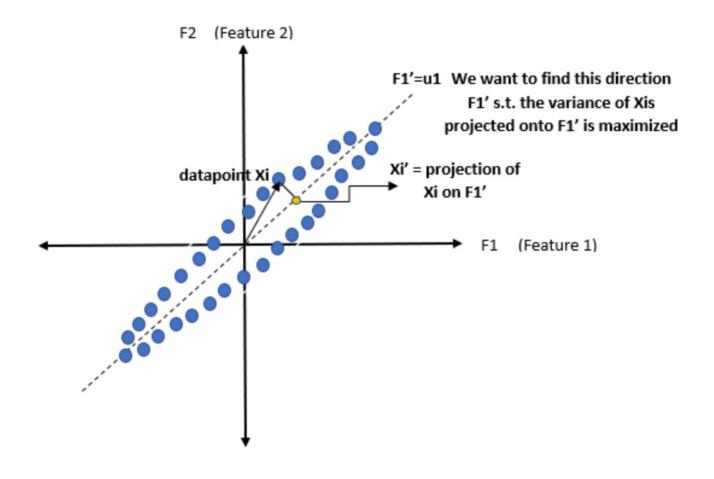
PCA is a linear dimensionality reduction technique which converts a set of correlated features in the high dimensional space into a series of uncorrelated features in the low dimensional space. These uncorrelated features are also called principal components. PCA is an orthogonal linear transformation which means that all the principal components are perpendicular to each other. It transforms the data in such a way that the first component tries to explain maximum variance from the original data. It is an unsupervised algorithm i.e. it does not take into consideration the class labels.



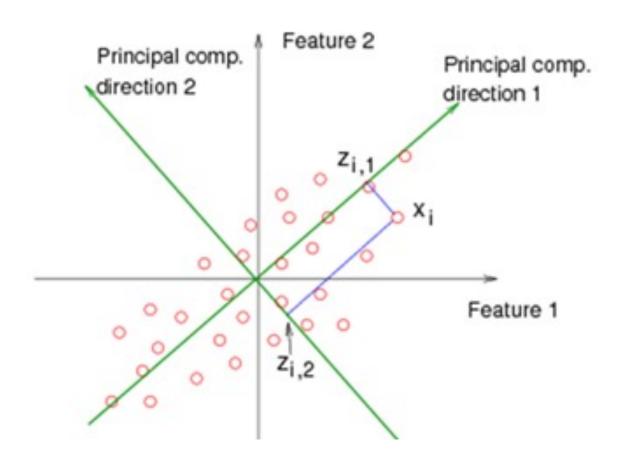
Here, PCA comes into the picture

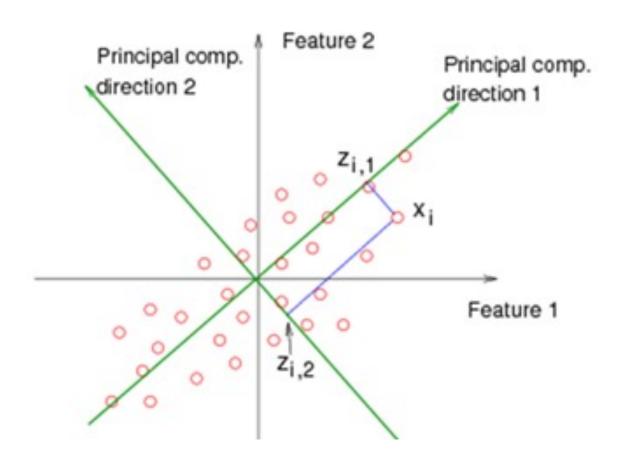


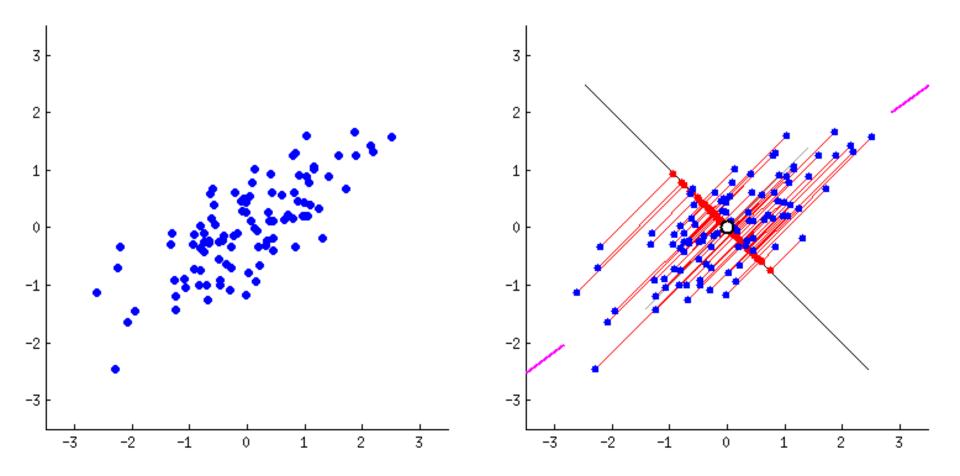
PCA performs linear orthogonal transformation on the data to find features F1' and F2' such that the variance on F1' >> variance on F2'.



PCA tries to find a direction F1' such that the variance of point Xis projected onto F1' is maximized.







Principal Component Analysis

- Choose directions such that a total variance of data will be maximum
 - Maximize Total Variance

- Choose directions that are orthogonal
 - Minimize correlation

 Choose k<d orthogonal directions which maximize total variance

PCA

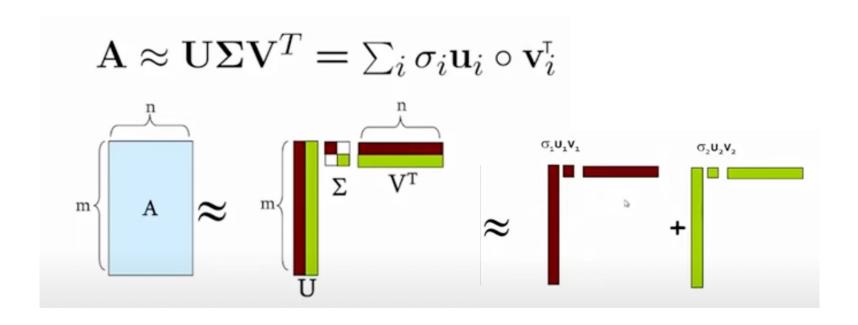
- d-dimensional feature space
- □ d by d symmetric covariance matrix estimated from samples $Cov(x) = \Sigma$,
- Select k largest eigenvalue of the covariance matrix and associated k eigenvectors
- The first eigenvector will be a direction with largest variance

Singular value decomposition

$$\mathbf{A}_{[\mathbf{m} \times \mathbf{n}]} = \mathbf{U}_{[\mathbf{m} \times \mathbf{r}]} \Sigma_{[\mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{r}]} (\mathbf{V}_{[\mathbf{n} \times \mathbf{r}]})^{\mathsf{T}}$$

- A: Input data matrix
 - m x n matrix (e.g., m documents, n terms)
- U: Left singular vectors
 - m x r matrix (m documents, r concepts)
- Σ: Singular values
 - r x r diagonal matrix (strength of each 'concept') (r: rank of the matrix A)
- V: Right singular vectors
 - n x r matrix (n terms, r concepts)

Singular value decomposition



Singular value decomposition

- It is **always** possible to decompose a real matrix \boldsymbol{A} into $\boldsymbol{A} = \boldsymbol{U} \boldsymbol{\Sigma} \boldsymbol{V}^{\mathsf{T}}$, where
- **U**, Σ, **V**: unique
- U, V: column orthonormal
 - $U^T U = I$; $V^T V = I$ (I: identity matrix)
 - (Columns are orthogonal unit vectors)
- Σ: diagonal
 - Entries (singular values) are positive, and sorted in decreasing order ($\sigma_1 \ge \sigma_2 \ge ... \ge 0$)

Learning Resources

- Charu C. Aggarwal, Neural Networks and Deep Learning, Springer, 2018.
- Eugene Charniak, Introduction to Deep Learning, MIT Press, 2018.
- Ian Goodfellow, Yoshua Bengio, Aaron Courville, Deep Learning, MIT Press, 2016.
- Michael Nielsen, Neural Networks and Deep Learning, Determination Press, 2015.
- Deng & Yu, Deep Learning: Methods and Applications, Now Publishers, 2013.
- https://www.analyticsvidhya.com/blog/2018/04/fundamentals-deep-learningregularization-techniques/

Thank you