University of Canterbury Deep Learning

Deep Learning

COSC440

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Details -

Science of Arrays



Use Arrays wisely

Don't loop over elements in a array. Use numpy functions to do elementwise operations:

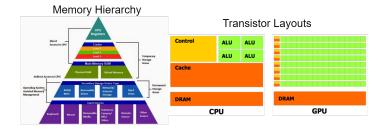
```
# Elementwise sum; both produce an array
z = x + y
z = np.add(x, y)
```

Use Boradcasting to work with arrays of different sizes:

Do **Matrix Multiplications**, remember that matrices of shape $100x20 \times 20x40$ equal a output shape of 100x40:

```
C = np.dot(A,B)
F = np.matmul(D,E)
```

Reason:



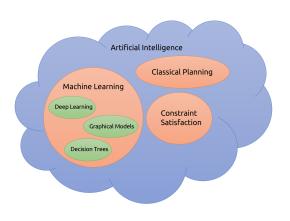
Machine Learning Concepts

Machine Learning == Function Approximation

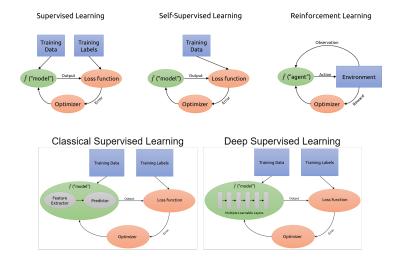


...so our goal is to *learn* approximations of these functions *from data*

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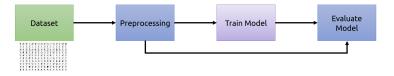


Types of Learning



Types of Problems

Maschine Learning Pipeline



Dataset

Annotated Datasets like MNIST (Handwritten digits).

Preprocessing

Split the dataset into Train, Validation, and Test sets

- Train set used to adjust the parameters of the model
- Validation set used to test how well we're doing as we develop
- Prevents overfitting, something you will learn later!
- Test set used to evaluate the model once the model is done



Train Model

- 1. **Initialization**: Set all weights w_i to 0.
- 2. **Iteration Process**:

- Repeat for *N* iterations, or until the weights no longer change:
 - For each training example \mathbf{x}^k with label a^k :
 - 1. Calculate the prediction error:
 - * If $a^k f(\mathbf{x}^k) = 0$, continue (no change to weights).
 - 2. Otherwise, update each weight w_i using:

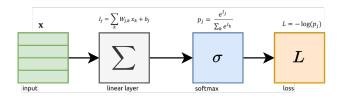
$$w_i = w_i + \lambda \left(a^k - f(\mathbf{x}^k) \right) x_i^k$$

• where λ is a value between 0 and 1, representing the learning rate.

Optimizing with Gradient Descent

Loss Function

Function *L* which measures how "wrong" a network is. We want our network to answer right with **high probability**.

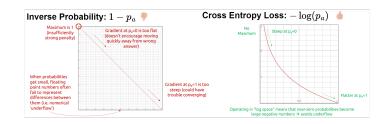


To get a probability for **binary classification**, we introduce a **probability layer**. One of the possible function is **Softmax**

$$p_j = \frac{e^{l_j}}{\sum_k e^{l_k}}$$

For every output j it takes every logit (output of network before activation/probability is applied) l_j in the exponent to ensure positivity. Dividing it by the sum of all logits ensures that $\sum_k p_k = 1$

To get the loss L we apply a loss-function, low probability \rightarrow high loss. We use **Cross Entropy Loss**



Gradient Descent

$$\Delta w_{j,i} = -\alpha \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i,i}}$$

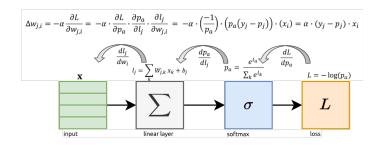
 α : learning rate (typically 0.1-0.001)

L: loss function

 $w_{j,i}$: one single weight

To compute $-\alpha \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{i,i}}$ use the chain rule

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```
## Backpropagation on batch learning
\# y = expected - (f(x)>0)
labels_OH = np.zeros((labels.size, self.num_classes),

    dtype=int)

labels_OH[np.arange(labels.size),labels] = 1 #

→ One-Hot encoding

predictions = np.argmax(outputs, axis=1)
predictions_OH = np.zeros_like(outputs)
predictions_OH[np.arange(outputs.shape[0]),
    predictions] = 1
y = labels_OH - predictions_OH
# db = y*1
gradB = np.mean(y, axis=0) # average over batch
\# dW = y*x
y = y.reshape((outputs.shape[0],1,self.num_classes))
inputs =
→ inputs.reshape((outputs.shape[0], self.input_size[0]*self.input_size[1],1))
dW = inputs*y
gradW = np.mean(dW, axis=0) # average over batch
```

Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

Train a network on batches, small subsets of training data.

```
# Stochastic Gradient Descent
for start in range(0, len(train_inputs),
   model.batch_size):
    inputs =
   train_inputs[start:start+model.batch_size]
   labels =
  train labels[start:start+model.batch size]
    # For every batch, compute then descend the

→ gradients for the model's weights

   outputs = model.call(inputs)
   gradientsW, gradientsB =
   model.back_propagation(inputs, outputs, labels)
    model.gradient_descent(gradientsW, gradientsB)
```

- Training process is *stochastic / non-deterministic*: batches are a random subsample.
- The gradient of a random-sampled batch is a unbiased estimator of the overall gradient of the dataset.
- Pick a large enough batch size for stable updates, but small enough to fit your GPU

Optimization

Automatic Differentiation

To avoid having to recalculate the whole chain every time a new layer is added, we use automatic derivation. There are several options:

Numeric differentiation

- Called finite differences
- Easy to implement
- Arbitraritly inaccurate/unstable

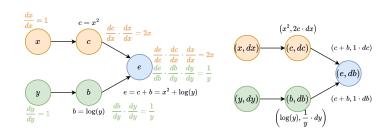
Symbolic differentiation

- Computer does algebra and simplifies expressions
- Very exact
- Complex to implement
- Only handles static expressions

Automatic differentiation

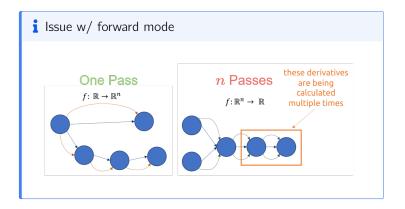
- Use the chain rule at runtime
- Gives exact results
- Handles dynamics
- Easier to implement
- Can't simplify expressions

Forward Mode Autodiff Every node stores its (value. derivative) in a tuple, called dual numbers. pute the overall derivative, each derivative can be chained up. This is implemented via **Overloading**, every function / operator has multiple definitions based on the types of the arguments. ML-Framwork functions work on these tuples.

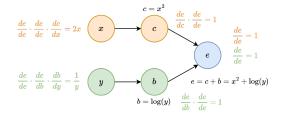


Time Effect: O(N * M) time, O(1) memory, with N = number of inputs, with M = number of nodes

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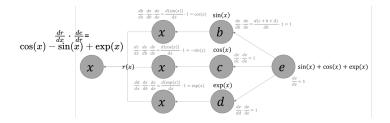


Reverse Mode Autodiff First, run the function to produce the graph, then compute the derivatives backward.



- Analog to the forward mode: overload math functions/operators
- Overloaded function return *Node* objects
- Overloaded functions build compute graph while executing
- After forward pass, the operations are recorded
- The backwards pass walks along the graph and computes the derivatives
- **Time Effect**: O(M) time, O(M) memory, with M = number of nodes

Fan-Outs (Reverse) The way to handle fan-out is to add the derivatives of the fanned-out nodes through replication r(x).



Diagnosis Problems

Deep Learning Concepts -



Common Misconception

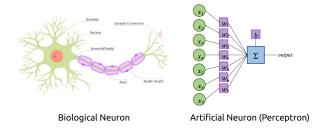
Deep Learning != AI, Just because deep learning algorithms are used doesn't mean there is any intelligence involved. Deep Learning != Brain, Modern deep nets don't depend solely on biologically mimiced neural nets any more. A fully connected layer represents such a neural net the closest. Deep Learning ==:

1. Differentiable functions, composed to more complex diff. func.

- 2. A deep net is a differentiable function, some inputs are optimizable parameters
- 3. Differentiable functions produce a computation graph, which can be traversed backwards for *gradient-based* optimization

Multi-Dimensional Arrays & Memory Models Neural Networks ·····

Perceptron



Predicting with a Perceptron:

- 1. Multiply the inputs x_i by their corresponding weight w_i
- 2. Add the bias b
- 3. Binary Classifier, greater than 0, return 1, else return 0

$$f_{\Phi}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } b + \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Parameters

Weights: "importance of the input to the output"

- Weight near 0: Input has little meaning to the output
- Negative weight: Increasing input → decreasing output

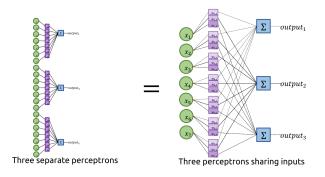
Bias: "a priori likelihood of positive class"

- Ensures that even if all inputs are 0, there is some result
- Can also be written as a weight for a constant 1 input

$$[x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n] \cdot [w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n] + b$$

= $[x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n, 1] \cdot [w_0, w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n, b]$

Multi-Class Perceptron

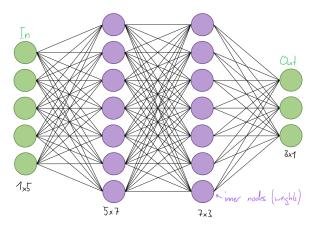


Biary Classifier: Only one output can be active $\hat{y} = \hat{y}$ $argmax(f(x^k))$, thus the update terms are

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$$\Delta w_i = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } a^k = \hat{y} \\ -x_i^k, & \text{for } \hat{y} = 1, a^k = 0 \\ x_i^k, & \text{for } \hat{y} = 0, a^k = 1 \end{cases}$$

Multi-Layer



Sequential and Recurrent Networks

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