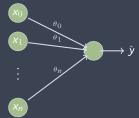
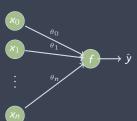
» Neural Networks

- * Linear model: $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \theta^T \mathbf{x} = \theta_0 \mathbf{x}_0 + \theta_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \theta_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \dots$
- * Draw this schematically as:



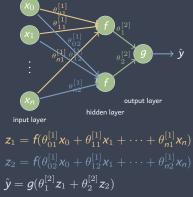
* A small generalisation: $\hat{y} = f(\theta^T x)$ where f is some function e.g. sign



NB:We first take the weighted sum of the inputs x_1 , x_2 etc and then apply function f to result.

» Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP)

* To get an MLP we add an extra "layer". E.g.



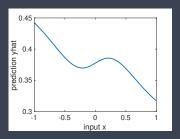
- MLP is a three layer network: (i) an input layer, (ii) a hidden layer,
 (iii) an output layer
- * Not restricted to two nodes in hidden layer, can have many nodes.
- Not restricted to one output, can have many outputs
- * The parameters $\theta_{01}^{[2]}$ etc are called *weights*. It quickly gets messy indexing all the weights, often they're omitted from these schematics
- * The function f is called the *activation* function, g is the output function.

» Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP)

Example

* One input, two nodes in hidden layer, activation function is sigmoid $f(x)=g(x)=rac{e^x}{1+e^x}$.

$$z_1 = f(5x), z_2 = f(2x), \hat{y} = f(z_1 - 2z_2) = f(f(5x) - 2f(2x))$$

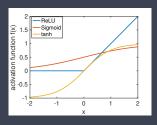


* By varying the number of hidden nodes and the weights the MLP can generate a wide range of functions mapping input x to output \hat{y} .

» Choices of Activation & Output Function

* ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit)
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} x & x \ge 0 \\ 0 & x < 0 \end{cases}$$

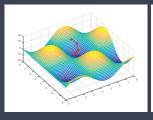
- * Popular in *hidden layer*. Quick to compute, observed to work pretty well.
- $\ast\,$ But can lead to "dead" neurons where output is always zero $\to\,$ leaky ReLU
- * Sigmoid $g(x) = \frac{e^x}{1+e^x}$
 - * Sigmoid used in *output layer* when output is a probability (so between 0 and 1). For classification problems predict +1 when $\frac{e^{\chi}}{1+e^{\chi}} > 0.5$, -1 when $\frac{e^{\chi}}{1+e^{\chi}} < 0.5$
- * tanh $g(x) = \frac{e^x e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}$
 - * Used to be common for hidden layers, not so much now.

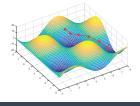


» Cost Function & Regularisation

Cost function:

- * Typically use logistic loss function for classification problems
- * And square loss $\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_{\theta}(x^{(i)}) y^{(i)})^2$ for regression problems
- In both cases the cost function is non-convex in the neural net weights/parameters → training a neural net can be tricky





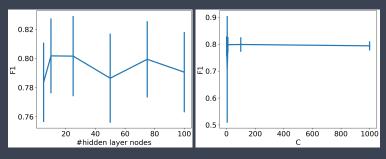
Regularisation

- st L_2 penalty i.e. the sum of the squared weights/parameters
- * Nowadays more common to use *dropout* regularisation
 - Set the outputs of randomly selected set of nodes in hidden layer to zero at each gradient descent step
 - * Typically remove about 50% of nodes
 - * This is similar¹ to a weighted L_2 penalty $\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i \theta_i$

¹papers.nips.cc/paper/4882-dropout-training-as-adaptive-regularization.pdf

» Movie Review Example

Apply MLP to movie review example. Use cross-validation to select (i) #hidden nodes, (ii) L_2 penalty weight C.



- Performance not too sensitive to #hidden nodes, so choose a small number e.g. 5
 - Ups and downs in plot likely due to failure to find global minimum of cost function (the wiggles change from run to run as initial condition for optimisation changes)
- * Performance insensitive to penalty weight C, so long as $C \geq 5$ or thereabouts

» Movie Review Example

MLP settings:

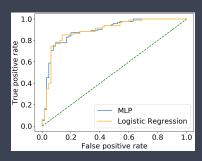
st hidden layer has 5 nodes, penalty weight $\emph{C}=5$, ReLU activation function

Confusion matrix:

true positive	60	5
true negative	28	67
	predicted positive	predicted negative

with $\emph{m}=160$ data points (20% test split from full data set of 800 points).

ROC Curve:



» Python Code For MLP Movie Example

```
plt.rc('font', size=18);plt.rcParams['figure.constrained layout.use'] = True
       hidden layer range = [5,10,25,50,75,100]
       for n in hidden layer range:
               print("hidden layer size %d\n"%n)
               model = MLPClassifier(hidden layer sizes=(n), max iter=300)
               from sklearn.model selection import cross val score
               scores = cross val score(model, X, y, cv=5, scoring='f1')
       plt.errorbar(hidden layer range.mean error.verr=std error.linewidth=3)
mean error=[1: std error=[1
       print("C %d\n"%Ci)
       model = MLPClassifier(hidden layer sizes=(5), alpha = 1.0/Ci)
       scores = cross val score(model, X, v, cv=5, scoring='f1')
       std error.append(np.array(scores).std())
plt.errorbar(C range,mean error,yerr=std error,linewidth=3)
plt.xlabel('C'); plt.ylabel('F1')
```

» Python Code For MLP Movie Example (cont)

```
model = MLPClassifier(hidden layer sizes=(5), alpha=1.0/5).fit(Xtrain, ytrain)
dummy = DummyClassifier(strategy="most frequent").fit(Xtrain, ytrain)
preds = model.predict proba(Xtest)
print(model.classes )
from sklearn.linear model import LogisticRegression
```

Recall gradient descent to minimise cost function $J(\theta)$:

- * Start with some parameter vector θ of size n
- * Repeat:

$$heta_j := heta_j - lpha rac{\partial J}{\partial heta_i}(heta_j)$$
 for j =0 to n

Cost function is a sum over prediction error at each training point, e.g. $J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) - \mathbf{y}^{(i)})^2$. Rewrite as

$$J(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} l_i(\theta)$$

where e.g. $l_i(\theta) = (h_\theta(x^{(i)}) - y^{(i)})^2$. Then

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial \theta_j}(\theta) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial I_i}{\partial \theta_j}(\theta)$$

When m is large then calculating this sum becomes slow to calculate.

Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) to minimise cost function $J(\theta)$:

- * Pseudo-code:
 - * Start with some parameter vector θ of size n
 - * Repeat:

Pick training data point *i*,

e.g. randomly or by cycling through all data points.

$$heta_j := heta_j - lpha rac{\partial l_i}{\partial heta_i} (heta_j)$$
 for j =0 to n

 At each update we use just one point from the training data, so avoid sum over all points i.e. SGD update is:

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j - \alpha \frac{\partial l_i}{\partial \theta_i}(\theta_j)$$

instead of gradient descent update:

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j - \alpha \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \frac{\partial l_i}{\partial \theta_j}(\theta_j)$$

- * Each SGD update is fast to compute
- * But need more iterations to minimise $J(\theta)$.

Now add mini-batches and parallelise ...

Stochastic gradient descent with mini-batches of size *q*:

* SGD update with mini-batch size q:

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j - \alpha \frac{1}{q} \sum_{i \in I_q} \frac{\partial l_i}{\partial \theta_j}(\theta_j)$$

where I_q is a set of q training data points.

- st Choose I_q by shuffling training data and then cycling through it or by selecting q points randomly from training data
- * Pseudo-code:
 - * Training data with m points, mini-batch size q
 - * Repeat:
 - shuffle training data
 - * for k = 1 to m step q:
 - $\delta_{\pmb{i}} = 0$ for \pmb{j} =0 to \pmb{n}
 - * for i = 1 to q: # k'th mini-batch

$$\delta_j := \delta_j + rac{\partial l_{k+j}}{\partial heta_j}(heta_j)$$
 for j =0 to n $heta_j := heta_j - rac{lpha}{a}\delta_j$ for j =0 to n

If have *k* processors and mini-batch size *q*:

- * Divide q into k batches of size q/k.
- * Parallelise the for i=1 to q loop i.e. split into k for i=1 to q/k loops and run each on one processor $\rightarrow q$ loop now runs k times faster.

How to choose mini-batch size *q*?

- * Typical values of q are 32-256
- too small (can't exploit parallelism as well, communication and synchronization costs between processors are amortised by using larger q/k)

 * Small batches provide a sort of regularisation. Using large batches is often observed to lead to over-fitting (poor

* Computation time tends to increase when batch size q gets

- predictions for new data).
 * This aspect remains poorly understood, best we have are heuristics²
- * Note: choosing batch size q = m the training data size then mini-batch SGD = gradient descent

²See "On Large-Batch Training For Deep Learning", ICLR 2017 https://openreview.net/pdf?id=H1oyRIYgg

» Some Terminology

When using SGD in sklearn and other packages you might see the following terms:

- st Epoch.
 - * SGD update with mini-batch size q:

$$\theta_j \leftarrow \theta_j - \alpha \frac{1}{q} \sum_{i \in I_q} \frac{\partial I_i}{\partial \theta_j}(\theta)$$

where I_q is a set of q training data points.

- If shuffle training data and then cycle through it, then one cycle
 an epoch i.e. one iteration of repeat loop in our pseudo-code
- After first epoch each training data point has been used once, in second epoch twice, and so on
- * Often train for a fairly small number of epochs, e.g. 1-25
- * Momentum. With SGD the gradient updates are "noisy". So can average out this "noise" to try to find a good downhill direction.
- * Adam. An approach for automatically choosing the step-size α plus using momentum. Currently the default in most packages, its ok to leave it that way for assignments in this module.

For those of you taking optimization module in semester 2 we'll go into these in a lot more detail.

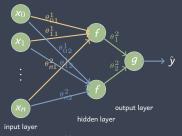
» Some Terminology

Early stopping:

- * An old idea is to try to achieve regularisation by stopping SGD early i.e. before cost function as converged to its minimum \rightarrow early stopping
 - * Repeat:
 - Keep a hold-out test set from training data e.g. 10% of data
 - Run SGD for a while, e.g. 1 epoch, on remaining training data
 - Evaluate cost function on (i) held-out test data and (ii) on training data used for SGD
 - Stop when cost function of test data stops decreasing and/or when these two values start to diverge
- Often used with SGD in combination with a penalty or dropouts for regularisation

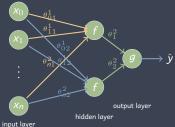
Calculating gradient $\frac{\partial l_i}{\partial heta_j}$ for neural nets

 Calculate output ŷ of neural network → forward propagation (the sorts of neural nets we're considering are sometimes called feedforward networks



Apply training data input $x^{(i)}$ to hidden layer and calculate outputs of hidden layer, then apply outputs from hidden layer to output layer and calculate output \hat{y} .

- * To calculate derivatives $\frac{\partial l_i}{\partial \theta_j}$ for all weights/parameters j efficiently use backpropagation.
 - * Calculate difference between neural network output \hat{y} and training data output $y^{(i)}$. Adjust weights θ_1^2 , θ_2^2 connecting hidden layer and output layer to reduce this error.
 - * Now calculate how hidden layer outputs should be adjusted to reduce error. Adjust weights θ^1_{01} etc connecting input layer to hidden layer accordingly.



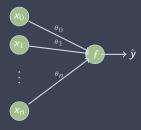
- Backpropagation = process for calculating $\frac{\partial l_i}{\partial \theta_j}$ for all weights θ_j . But often backpropagation is also used as shorthand for the whole process of stochastic gradient descent.
- * Details of calc don't matter for us, all we need to know is that output is the $\frac{\partial l_i}{\partial \theta}$'s

» Summary

- A neural net is just another model i.e. a function mapping from input to prediction. Biological analogies are generally spurious and just confusing hype.
- * Hard to interpret what the weights mean → its a black box model
- * Can be tricky/slow to train → cost function is non-convex in weights/parameters, plus often many weights/parameters that need to be learned
- * Popular in 1990s, then less so. Resurgence of interest from around 2010 due to use in image processing \rightarrow mainly relates to their use for feature engineering and especially the use of convolutional layers.

» SoftMax Layer: Expressing Logistic Regression In NN Terminology

* One layer of a neural net is $\hat{y} = f(\theta^T x)$:



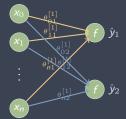
- st Select $\mathit{f}(\cdot)$ to be sign function and we're back to logistic regression/SVM model
- * Alternatively, recall that in logistic regression with two classes we map from $\theta^T x$ to a confidence value using:

» SoftMax Layer: Expressing Logistic Regression In NN Terminology

- * Define two outputs $\hat{y}_1 = f(\theta^T x) = \frac{e^{\theta^T x}}{e^{\theta^T x} + 1}$, $\hat{y}_2 = \frac{1}{e^{\theta^T x} + 1}$. If $\hat{y}_1 > \hat{y}_2$ predict class 1, else predict class 2.
- * What about if have K > 2 classes?
 - * Train a separate linear model for each k = 1, ..., K, so have $z_k = \theta_k^T x$ where θ_k is vector of parameters for class k.
 - * Probabilities have to sum to 1, so then normalise:

$$\hat{y}_k = Prob(y = k) = \frac{e^{z_k}}{\sum_{k=1}^K e^{z_k}}$$

- st Predict class based on which output \hat{y}_k is largest
- * This is called *softmax* function. Can draw schematically as:



 Called a softmax layer → its identical to a multi-class logistic regression model, despite NN terminology