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- Introduction
- Feed-Forward Neural Networks
 - Feed-Forward Neural Networks
 - Hyper-parameters
- Regularization
- Optimization of Neural Networks
 - Local minima
 - Plateaus and Saddle Points
 - Cliffs, exploding and vanishing gradients
- Parameter initialization
- Neural Networks in Practice

Machine learning - Block 3

Måns Magnusson Department of Statistics, Uppsala University

Autumn 2022



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Neural Networks in Practice

Evaluation assignment 2

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This week's lecture

- Feed-Forward Neural Networks
- Regularization of Neural Networks
- Neural Network Optimization



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Section 2

Introduction

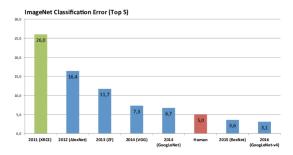


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The Hype: Computer Vision

Figure: ImageNet performance (Roessler, 2019)





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The Hype: Speech Recognition

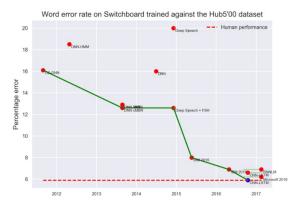


Figure: Speech recognition performance (source: https://eff.org/ai/metrics)



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The Hype: Natural Language Processing

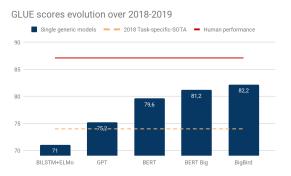


Figure: General Language Understanding (source: https://www.programmersought.com/article/4251948498/)

Work is very much ongoing:

https://gluebenchmark.com/leaderboard



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The Hype

Although - Neural Networks is not a silver bullet



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The Hype

- Although Neural Networks is not a silver bullet
- Remember the Bayes error



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The Hype

- Although Neural Networks is not a silver bullet
- Remember the Bayes error
- Some times a linear regression (or Random Forest) is enough



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Section 3

Feed-Forward Neural Networks



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The Feed-Forward Network

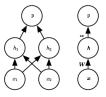


Figure 6.2: An example of a feedforward network, drawn in two different styles. Specifically, this is the feedforward network we use to solve the XOR example. It has a single hidden layer containing two units. (Left/lin this style, we draw every unit as a node in the graph. This style is very explicit and unambiguous but for networks larger than this example it can consume too much space. (Right/lin this style, we draw a node in the graph for each entire vector representing a layer's activations. This style is much more compact.

Figure: A simple feed-forward network (Goodfellow et al, 2017)

Important concepts:

Layers, neurons, input, output, weights, bias, architecture



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Different Architectures for Different Purposes

- Different networks for different purposes
 - Convolutional Neural Networks: Computer Vision



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Different Architectures for Different Purposes

- Different networks for different purposes
 - Convolutional Neural Networks: Computer Vision
 - Recurrent Neural Networks: Speech Audio (?)



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Different Architectures for Different Purposes

- Different networks for different purposes
 - Convolutional Neural Networks: Computer Vision
 - Recurrent Neural Networks: Speech Audio (?)
 - Transformers/Attention: Textual data
- The Neural Network Zoo: https: //www.asimovinstitute.org/neural-network-zoo/



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Areas of Use: All fields

- Supervised learning
- Unsupervised learning
- Reinforcement learning



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Why and when neural nets?

- Learning feature representations
- Needs a lot of data to learn complex representations
- Good for sensor data (high-dimensional)



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Why and when neural nets?

- Learning feature representations
- Needs a lot of data to learn complex representations
- Good for sensor data (high-dimensional)
- When should we not use neural networks?



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Learning Representations

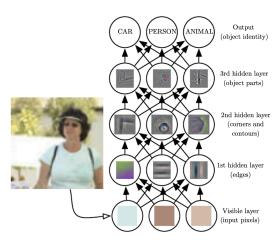


Figure: Learning representations can be crucial (Goodfellow et al, 2017, Fig. 1.2)



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The Feed-Forward Network

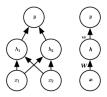


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Figure: A simple feed-forward network (Goodfellow et al, 2017, Fig. 6.2)

In mathematical notation:

$$y_i = \mathbf{w}^T g(\mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{b}_1) + \mathbf{b}_2$$



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The Feed-Forward Network

$$y_i = \mathbf{w}^T g(\mathbf{W}^T \mathbf{x}_i + \mathbf{b}_1) + \mathbf{b}_2$$

$$W=egin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 , $w=egin{pmatrix} 1 \ -2 \end{pmatrix}$, $b_1=egin{pmatrix} 1 \ -1 \end{pmatrix}$, $b_2=egin{pmatrix} 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$$g(z) = ReLU(z) = max(0, z), x_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix},$$

$$y_i = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}^T g(\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}) + (0)$$
$$y_i = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}^T \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + (0) = 1$$





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The Feed-Forward Network

A feed-forward network for one observation (x_i) .

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{h}_{1}}_{1 \times k_{1}} = g_{1}(\underbrace{\mathbf{x}^{T}}_{1 \times p} \underbrace{\mathbf{W}_{1}}_{p \times k_{1}} + \underbrace{\mathbf{b}_{1}}_{1 \times k_{1}})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\underbrace{\mathbf{h}_{l}}_{1 \times k_{l}} = g_{l}(\underbrace{\mathbf{h}_{l-1}^{T}}_{1 \times k_{l-1}} \underbrace{\mathbf{W}_{l}}_{k_{l-1} \times k_{l}} + \underbrace{\mathbf{b}_{l}}_{1 \times k_{l}})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\underbrace{\hat{\mathbf{y}}}_{1 \times m} = g_{L}(\underbrace{\mathbf{h}_{L-1}^{T}}_{1 \times k_{l-1}} \underbrace{\mathbf{W}_{L}}_{k_{l-1} \times m} + \underbrace{\mathbf{b}_{L}}_{1 \times m})$$

$$\hat{y} = f_L(f_{L-1}(...f_1(x)...))$$



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Activation functions (g_l)

• Sometimes use notation σ as in $\sigma(Wh+b)$



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Activation functions (g_l)

- Sometimes use notation σ as in $\sigma(Wh + b)$
- Historically g(z) has been the sigmoid or or hyperbolic tangent (tanh)

$$g_{\text{sigmoid}}(z) = \frac{e^z}{e^z + 1} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

$$g_{tanh}(z) = \frac{\sinh z}{\cosh z} = \frac{e^{2z} - 1}{e^{2z} + 1}$$



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 $\sinh z = e^{2z} - 1$

$$g_{tanh}(z) = \frac{\sinh z}{\cosh z} = \frac{e^{2z} - 1}{e^{2z} + 1}$$

Now, usually variants of Rectified linear unit (ReLU)

$$g_{ReLU}(z) = \max(0, z)$$

- Easier to estimate with SGD
- Easier for deep models
- Last activation is the output function g_L, usually a softmax (if classification)

$$f(z_i) = \frac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^J e^{z_j}}$$



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Activation functions (g_l)

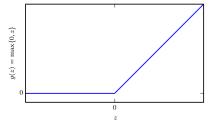


Figure: Rectified Linear Unit (Goodfellow et al, 2017, Fig. 6.3)



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Universal Approximation Theorem

"A feed-forward neural network with a linear output layer and at least one hidden layer with any 'squashing' activation function can approximate any Borel measurable function from one finite-dimensional space to another with any desired non-zero amount of error, provided that the network is given enough hidden units." (Goodfellow et al. 2017, p. 198)

- Also holds for ReLU
- No garantuee we can learn the network
- No garantuee that it will generalize
- No indication of how large the network need to be



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Hyper-parameters in feed-forward networks

- The number of layers
- The number of neurons
- Activation functions
- The type of layers (CNN, MaxPooling, Multi-head attention)



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Practice

How to choose parameters

- Trial and error on validation sets
- Art rather than science
- Specialized approaches (Bayesian Optimization)



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How to choose parameters

- Trial and error on validation sets
- Art rather than science
- Specialized approaches (Bayesian Optimization)
- Grid search (combinatorical explosion)
 - Really bad with many parameters with less effects
 - If we have 5 irrelevant parameters we try 3 values for: 125 training per relevant run
 - Instead use...



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 - Instead use...
- Random search



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Grid search vs. Random Search

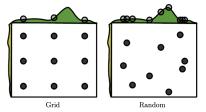


Figure: Grid search and random search (Goodfellow et al, 2017, Fig. 11.2)



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Regularization



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Regularization of Neural Networks

Reduce traing error but improve test/validation error



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Regularization of Neural Networks

- Reduce traing error but improve test/validation error
- Neural Networks are extremely flexible / high model capacity



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Regularization of Neural Networks

- Reduce traing error but improve test/validation error
- Neural Networks are extremely flexible / high model capacity
- Regularization is crucial for good generalizability of NN



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Weight decay / Norm penalty

Let

$$\tilde{J}(W, b) = J(W, b) + \alpha \Omega(W),$$

where J(W, b) is the cost function and $\alpha\Omega(W)$ is the penalty for the weight matrices.

• α is the strength of the penalty.





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Weight decay / Norm penalty

Let

$$\Omega_1(W) = \sum_i \sum_j |w|_{i,j},$$

and

$$\Omega_2(W) = \sum_i \sum_j w_{i,j}^2$$

be the L_1 and L_2 regularization respectively.

We can then get the cost function

$$\tilde{J}(W,b) = J(W,b) + \sum_{l} \alpha_{l} \Omega_{2}(W_{l}),$$



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Weight decay / Norm penalty

Lets define the cost function as

$$\tilde{J}(w) = J(w) + \alpha \Omega_2(w)$$
$$= J(w) + \alpha w^T w$$

Then the gradient update becomes

$$\nabla_w \tilde{J}(w) = \nabla_w J(w) + 2\alpha w$$

• To update our weights with gradient descent

$$w \leftarrow w - \epsilon(\nabla_w J(w) + 2\alpha w)$$

$$w \leftarrow (1 - 2\alpha \epsilon)w - \epsilon \nabla_w J(w)$$





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Weight decay / Norm penalty

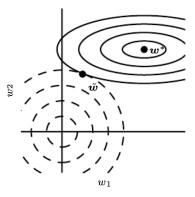


Figure: L_2 regularization (Goodfellow et al. 2017, Fig. 7.1)



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Neural Networks in Practice

Early Stopping

- Stop optimization early based on validation error
- Rerun to that number of epochs (hyperparameter)
- Can be shown to be quivalent (under strict assumptions) to L₂ regularization

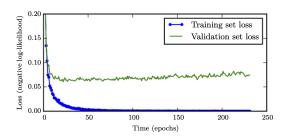


Figure: Early Stopping (Goodfellow et al, 2017, Fig. 7.3)



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Early Stopping

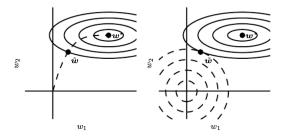


Figure: Early Stopping (Goodfellow et al, 2017, Fig. 7.4)



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Dropout

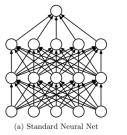
- In each iteration:
 - Sample an indicator I_i for each node i
 - Set the value h_i to 0 with probability p
- The dropout probability is typically 0.8 for input nodes and 0.5 for hidden nodes
- Forces the network to
 - not rely on individual nodes
 - spread out the weights over more nodes
- Can be seen as an ensamble method

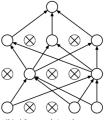


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Dropout





(b) After applying dropout.

Figure 1: Dropout Neural Net Model. Left: A standard neural net with 2 hidden layers. Right: An example of a thinned net produced by applying dropout to the network on the left. Crossed units have been dropped.

Figure: Dropout (Srivastava et al, 2014)



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Other regularization techniques

- In CNN: Dataset augmentation
- Get more data...



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Optimization of Neural Networks



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Neural Network Learning

ullet Usually, a lot of data and many parameters (heta=(W,b))



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Neural Network Learning

- Usually, a lot of data and many parameters $(\theta = (W, b))$
- We usually minimize our training cost function

$$J(\theta) = \sum_{i}^{N} L(NN(x_i), y_i) + \Omega(\theta),$$

where L is the observation level loss, NN() is our neural network and Ω is the regularization term.



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• Learning Target: Find $\hat{\theta}$ that minimize the generalization error



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Optimization of Neural Networks

• Stochastic Gradient Descent methods

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \eta_t \hat{\nabla} J(\theta_{t-1})$$

- In practice, better optimizers are used:
 - Adam
 - RMSprop



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Optimization of Neural Networks

Stochastic Gradient Descent methods

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \eta_t \hat{\nabla} J(\theta_{t-1})$$

- In practice, better optimizers are used:
 - Adam
 - RMSprop
- To compute gradients $(\hat{\nabla} J(\theta_{t-1}))$:
 - Backpropagation algorithm (chain-rule for derivatives)



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- Neural Networks cost function $J(\theta)$ are (usually) not a convex function
- We can have local minima
- When will this be a problem?



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Problems: Plateaus and Saddle Points

Another problem is saddle points

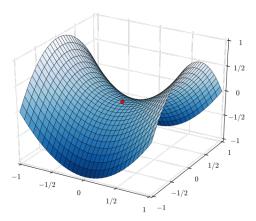


Figure: Saddle point for $z = x^2 - y^2$ (Wikipedia)

• What is the gradient in a saddle point?





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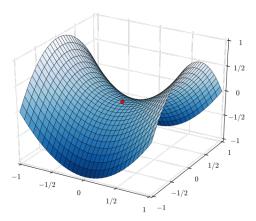


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Problems: Plateaus and Saddle Points

 In a saddle point the Hessian is indefinite, both positive and negative eigen values



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- In a saddle point the Hessian is indefinite, both positive and negative eigen values
- A local minimum: Hessian is positive definite, only positive eigen values



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- In a saddle point the Hessian is indefinite, both positive and negative eigen values
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- In random functions of high dimension: most points are saddle points
- Intuition: In random functions the sign of the eigen values of the Hessian is random



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- The problem of saddle points:
 - Probably a reason why second order methds (using the Hessian) has not succeed
 - Empirically, (stochastic) gradient descent seem to escape saddle points



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Problems: Cliffs

Another problem is "cliffs" or large changes in gradients

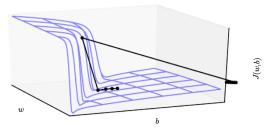


Figure: Cliff (Goodfellow et al., 2017, Fig. 8.3)

- Can undo many iterative steps
- Common in Recurrent neural networks
- Mitigation: Gradient clipping



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Problems: Explodig and vanishing gradients

- In deep neural networks, gradients can vanish or explode
- As an example: We want to compute the gradient for a situation where thw weights are multiplied t times. Then using eigendecomposition

$$W^t = V \operatorname{diag}(\lambda)^t V^T$$

• The gradient is scaled wrt diag $(\lambda)^t$



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Initial values

We need to have starting values for gradient descent



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- We need to have starting values for gradient descent
- Initialization can be seen as a hyperparameter



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- We need to have starting values for gradient descent
- Initialization can be seen as a hyperparameter
- Bad initial values might
 - Bad convergence (local optimum)
 - Numerical problems



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- We want to break symmetry between layers
 - Otherwise the same units will be updated in the same way (deterministically)



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- We want to break symmetry between layers
 - Otherwise the same units will be updated in the same way (deterministically)
- Good practice
 - Initialize values randomly close to zero (uniform or normal)



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TensorFlow

- Framework for large-scale machine learning and Neural Networks
- Developed by Google
- Can be used both from R and Python
- Used in both research and production
- What Tesorflow does:
 - Computing gradients (autodiff) for Neural Networks
 - Enable use of graphical processing units (GPU) and Tensor processing Units (TPU)
 - Enable training using common optimizers (such as Adam, RMSprop)
- Tesorflow Probability is a probabilistic programming framework using TF





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(Py)Torch

- Similar to TensorFlow
- Developed by Meta Al
- Can be used both from R and Python
- Used in both research and production
- pyro is a probabilistic programming framework using torch





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Keras

- Syntax for 'building' Neural Networks
- Available both in R and Python
- TensorFlow or Torch as backend

