# Deep Learning Fundamentals

Mihai DOGARIU

www.mdogariu.aimultimedialab.ro







#### Summary

- M1. Introduction
- M2. The basic process of learning
- M3. Terminology
- M4. Practical considerations
- M5. Supervised Deep Learning
- M6. Classification
- M7. Unsupervised Deep Learning



## Identifying the problems

Need for process automation (redundant ones, most of the time).

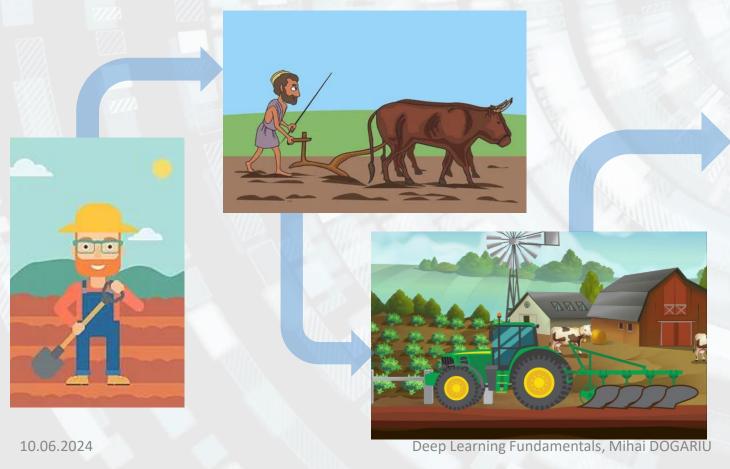
➤ Human capacity is limited and prone to erros, especially after longer time periods (approx. 6h).

➤ Increasing cost/efficiency ratio.



## Solving the problems

> Externalizing/replacing human effort.



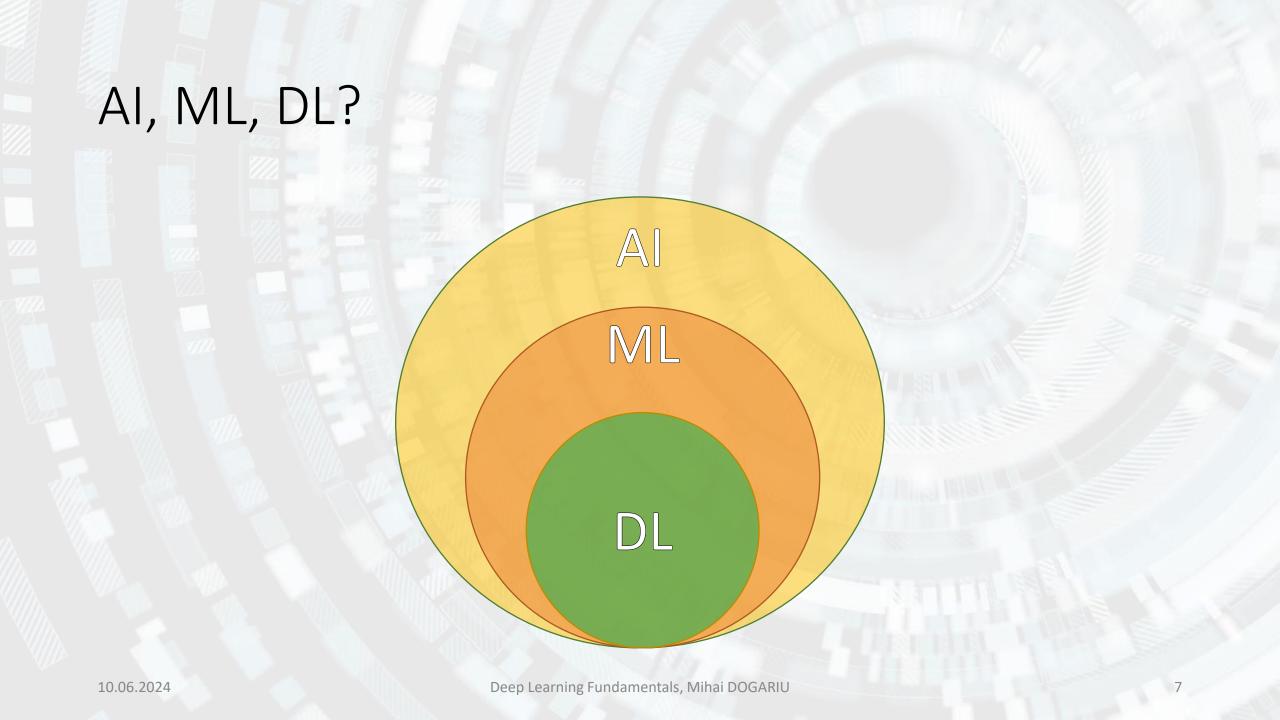


#### AI, ML, DL?

Artificial Intelligence (AI) = the ability of computer systems to perform tasks normally requiring human intelligence.

Machine Learning (ML) = AI subdomain in which systems are designed with the ability to learn based on previous examples.

Deep Learning (DL) = ML subdomain in which systems are designed based on the human neural network model.

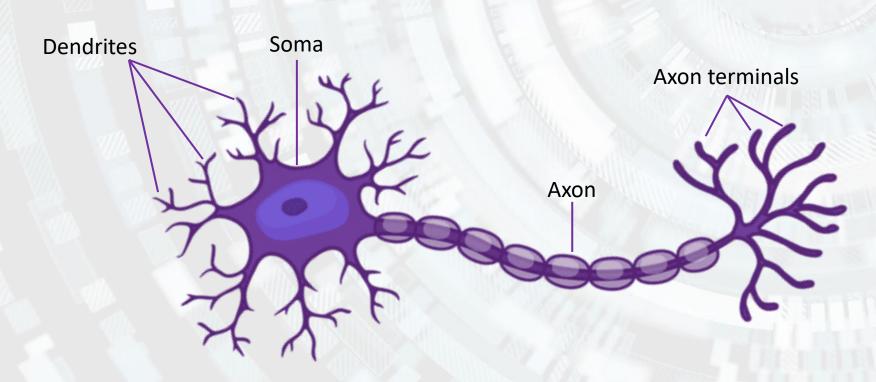


#### The Deep Learning Boom

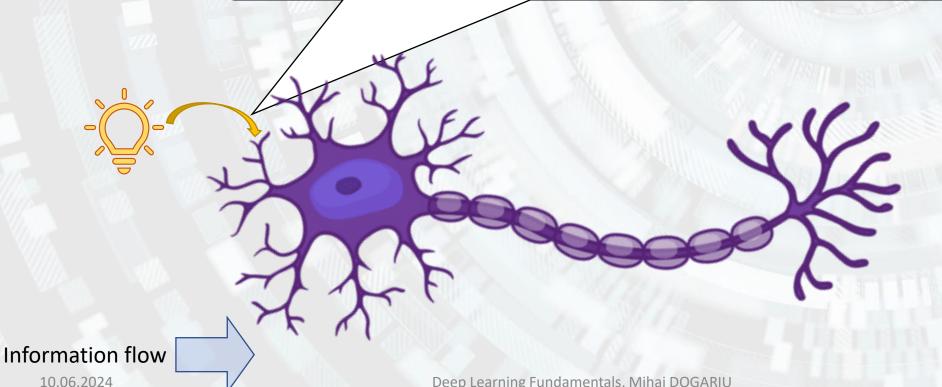
What lead to the current exponential advancement of deep learning?

- 1. Higher computing power (hardware) GPU Let's test it out unit #1
- 2. A lot more data => better results
- 3. Optimized frameworks (software): Tensorflow, PyTorch, Caffe, MXNet, DeepLearning4J etc.
- 4. Attention and financial influx from the industry: Facebook AI Research (FAIR), Google Deepmind, NVIDIA, OpenAI, Microsoft Research, AWS Deep Learning etc.

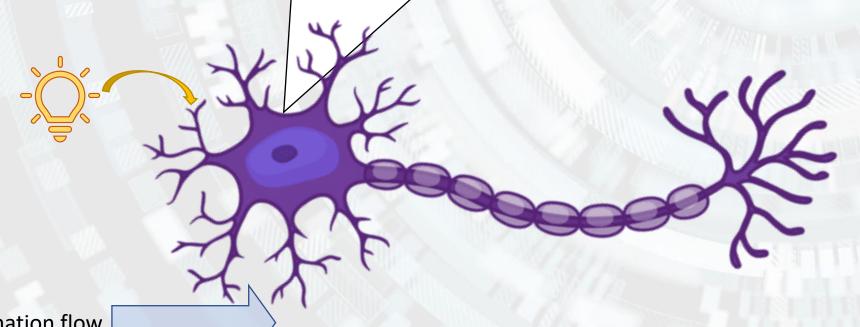
The fundamental cell of the nervous system



Dendrites are the input gate for neurons. They are connected to and receive signals from other neurons (>1000). Each dendrite weights the signal that it receives in a different manner (inhibit or excite).



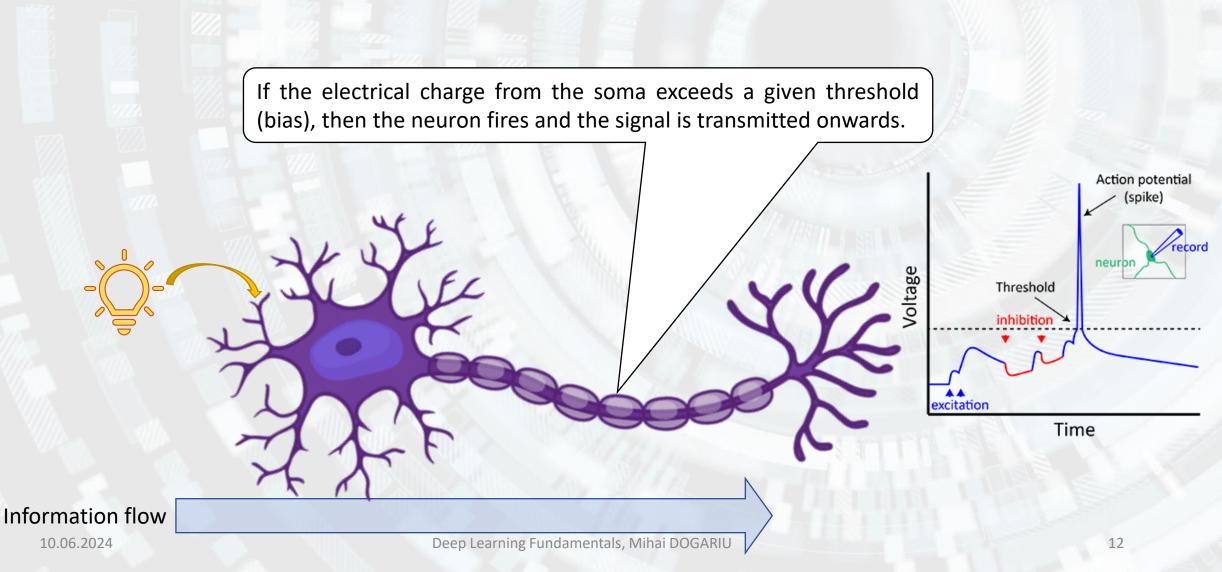
The soma gathers all synaptic signals and sums their electrical potentials.



Information flow

10.06.2024

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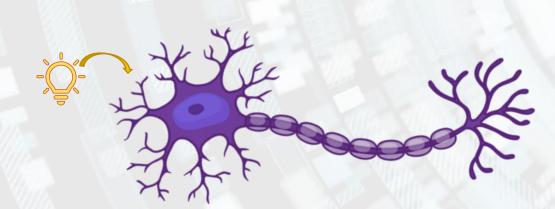


If the neuron was activated, its signal is sent to all other neurons connected to its axon terminals.



Information flow

Represents a mathematical model of the biologic neuron.



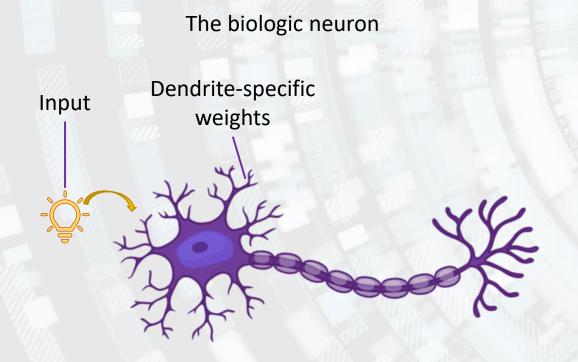
The biologic neuron Input











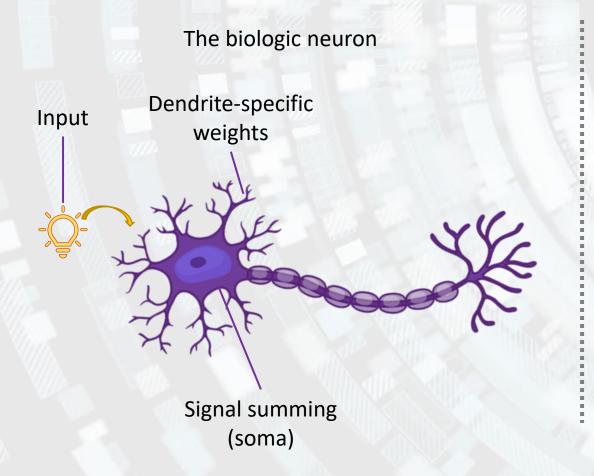
$$(x_1) \approx (w_1)$$

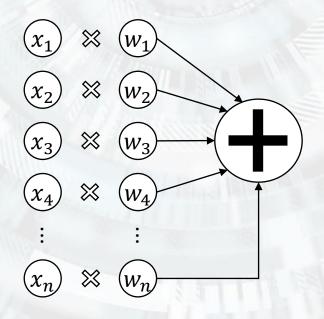
$$(x_2) \approx (w_2)$$

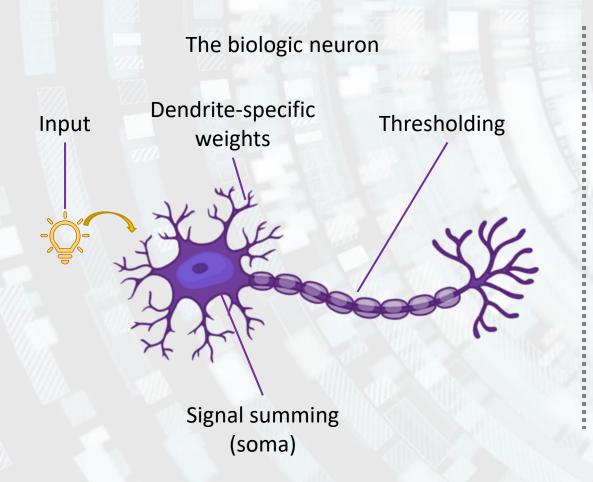
$$(x_3) \approx (w_3)$$

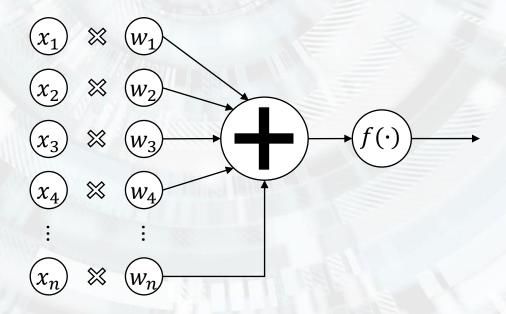
$$(x_4) \approx (w_4)$$

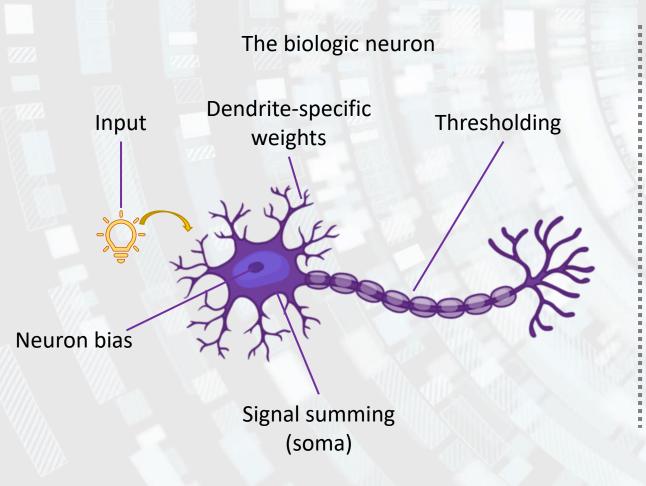
$$(x_N) \approx n$$

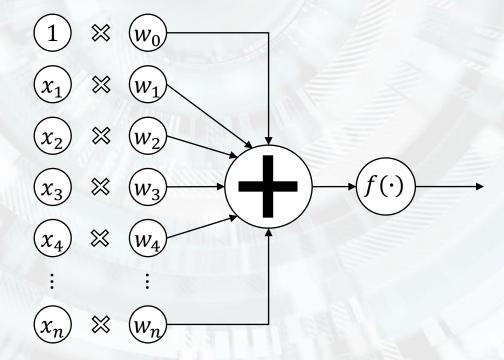










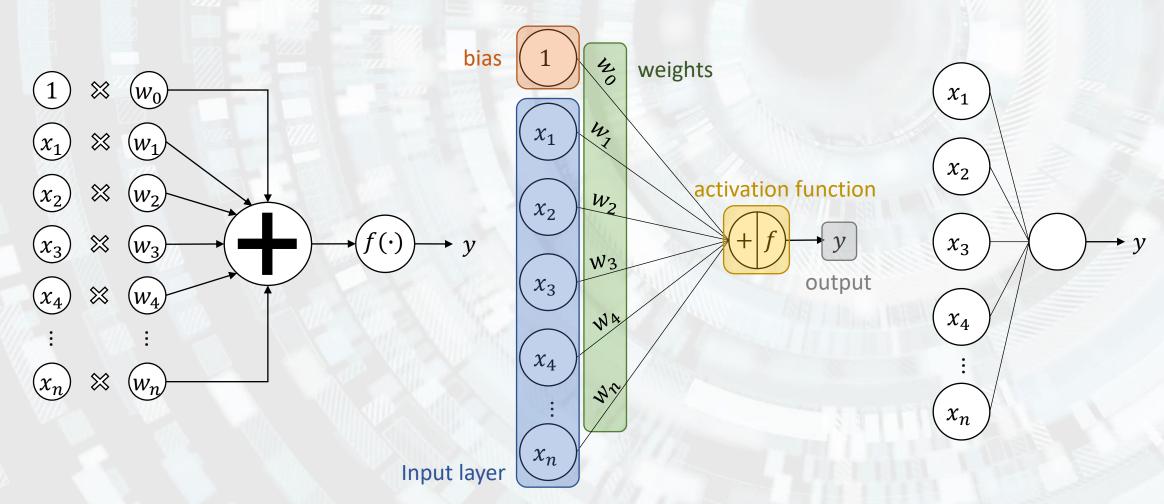


The mathematical model:

$$y = f\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} w_i x_i\right) = f\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i + b\right) = f(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)$$

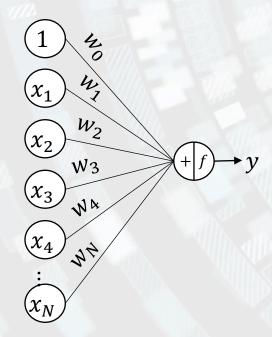
 $w_i$  – weights;  $w_0 \rightarrow b$  - bias  $x_i$  – input vector;  $x_0 = 1$  n – input vector dimension  $f(\cdot)$  – activation function y – neuron output.

## The artificial neuron – graphical representation



#### Learning of an artificial neuron

Learning = iterative process through which all parameters belonging to the neuron are learned such that the model correctly classifies the input data.



What are the fixed parameters?

- input
- output
- transfer function

What are the adjustable parameters?

- weights
- bias



#### Learning of an artificial neuron

#### Algorithm:

- 1. initialize weights with a low enough value.
- 2. for each input-output pair  $(x_j, \widehat{y}_j)$  from the training set:
  - 2.1. compute the output of the system:

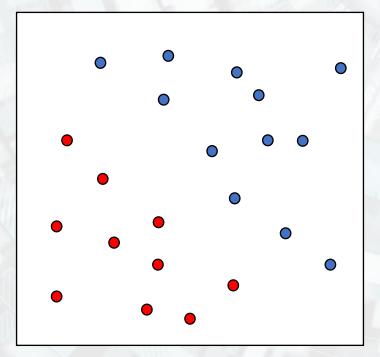
$$y_j(t) = f\left(\sum_{i=0}^n w_i x_{j,i}\right)$$

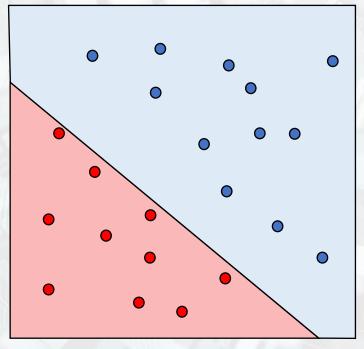
2.2. update the weights,  $\forall i, 0 \leq i \leq n$ :

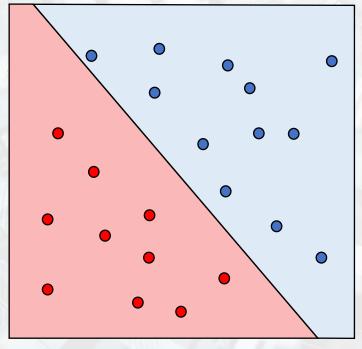
$$w_i(t+1) = w_i(t) + \alpha * (\widehat{y}_j - y_j(t)) * x_{j,i}$$

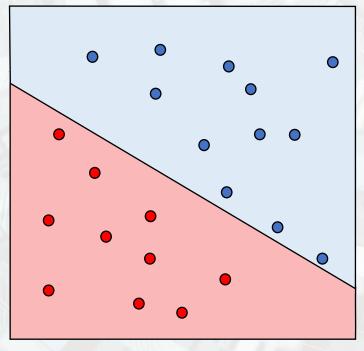
3. repeat step 2 until the iteration error is lower than a given threshold or until sufficient iterations have been run.

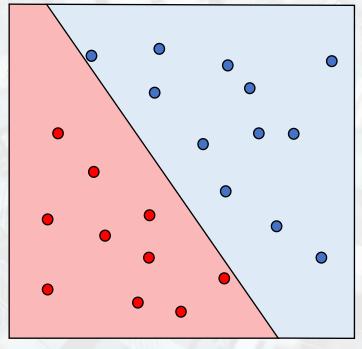
Let's test it out – unit #2







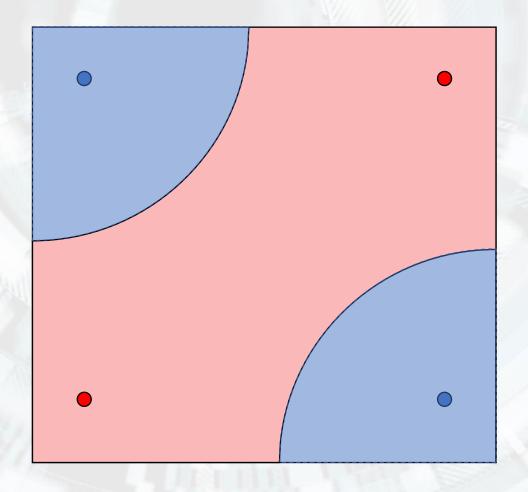




#### Non-linear separable space

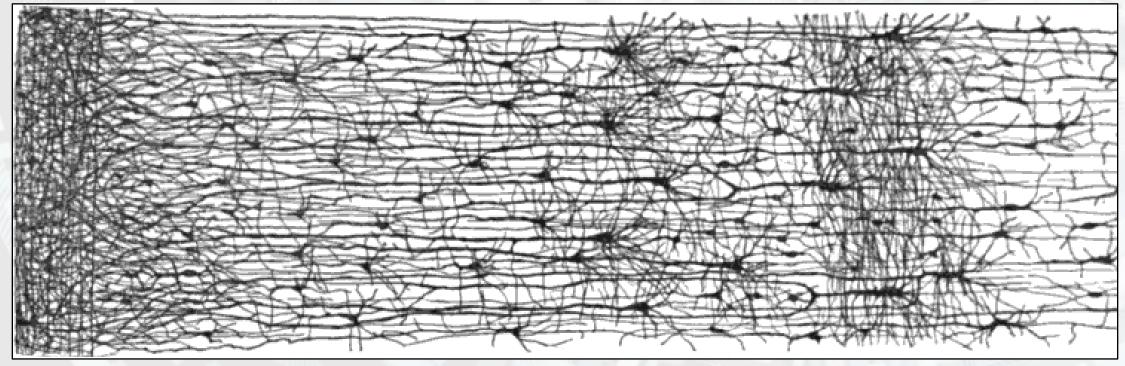
What if the space is not linearly separable (e.g. XOR function)?

- 1. Combine several linear functions in cascade?
- 2. Apply non-linearities?
- 3. Combine several non-linear functions in cascade?

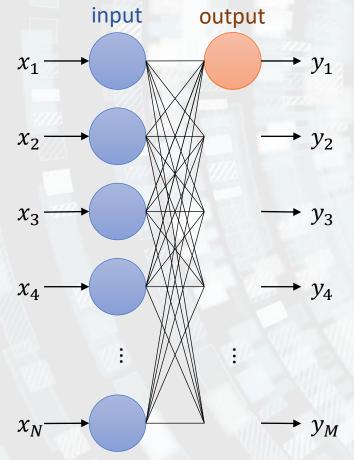


#### The neuron network

The nervous system is formed of an entire network of neurons. Total number is estimated to be  $86.1 \pm 8.1$  bn.



#### Single-layer neuron network



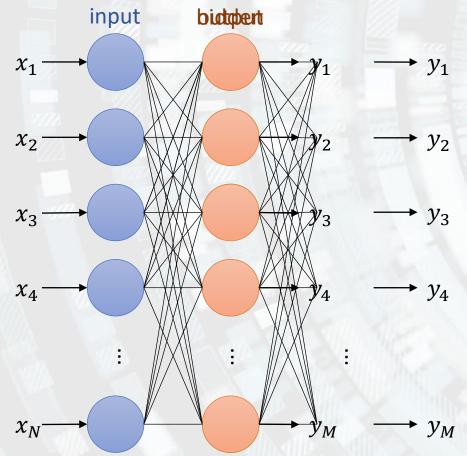
Given a thresholding function, a single neuron can classify information in only 2 classes. Moreover, this is a "hard" decision.

A partial solution: a network formed of several neurons, placed in parallel, at the same level.

- + can be adapted to multi-class problems;
- still can't model non-linear separable spaces;
- every output is binary

N can be (and usually is) different from M

#### Multi-layer neuron network



- + a multi-layer neuron network can classify more complex data, e.g. XOR function.
- every output is binary

N can be (and usually is) different from M

# M2. The basic process of learning

#### The learning process

**Machine learning** = we say that a system "learns" from experience E regarding a set of tasks T and a performance measure P, if the performance in solving the tasks T, measured by P, grows with the experience E.

**Goal**: finding a function that associates an input dataset with their correct output, in the best way possible (smallest error; ideally – 0).

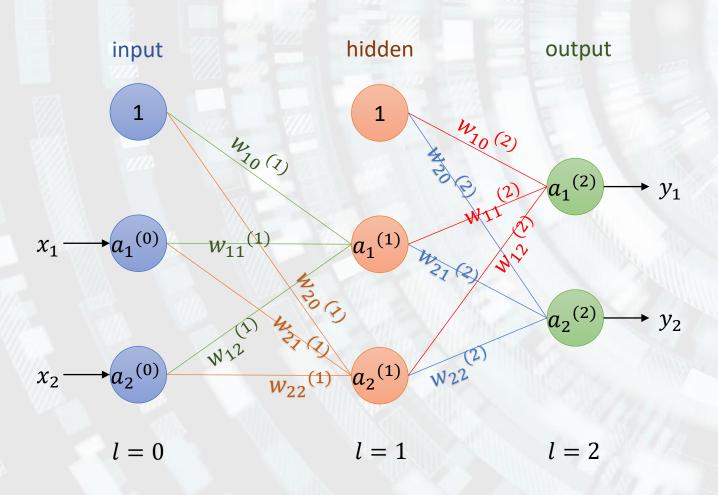
Consists of 2 steps:

- 1. Forward propagation;
- 2. Backpropagation.

#### Forward propagation

- **≻Goal**: obtaining the output y = M(x);
- ➤M = transfer function of the neural network, obtained by composition off all transfer functions associated to the network's layers.
- >It involves passing the neural network from the input to the output.
- It breaks down to computing the activations for each neuron inside the network, from the lower layers towards the higher ones.

#### Forward propagation

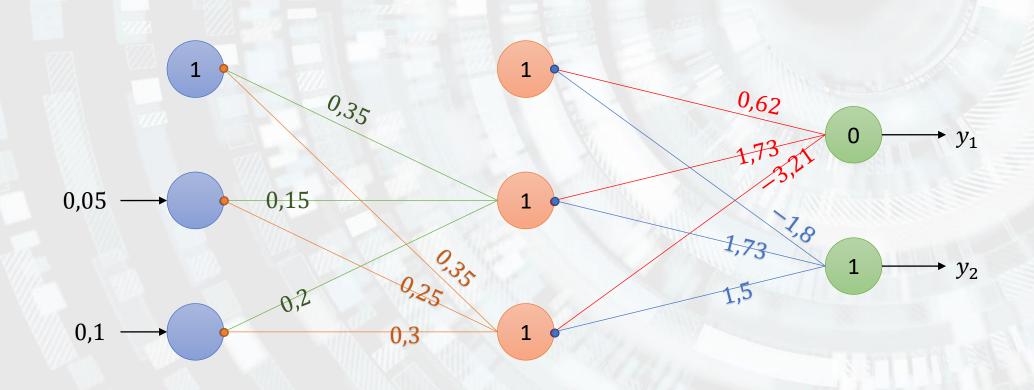


$$a_i^{(l)} = f\left(\sum_{j=0}^n w_{i,j}^{(l)} a_i^{(l-1)}\right)$$

$$a_0^{(l)} = 1$$

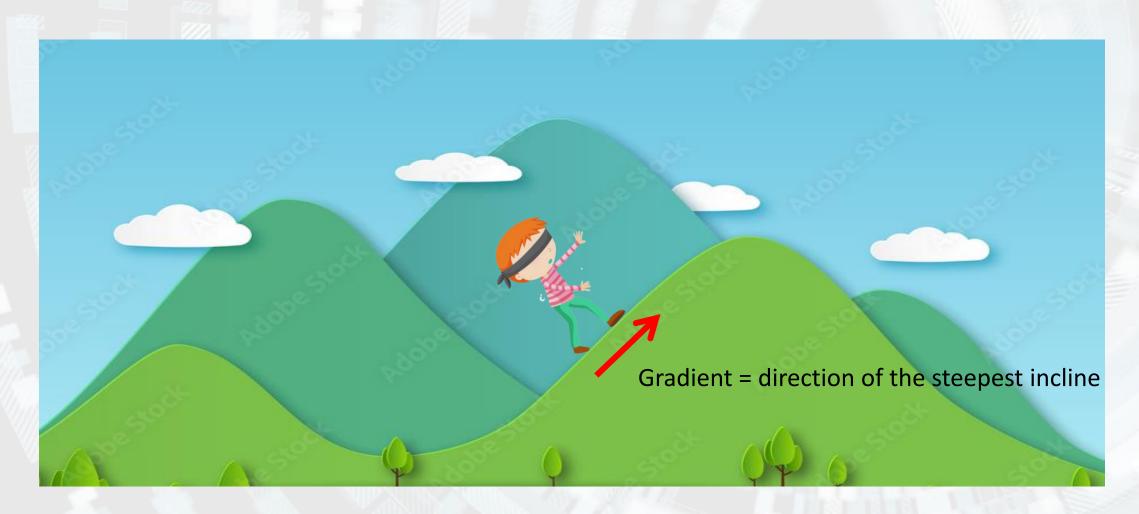
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1, x \ge 0 \\ 0, x < 0 \end{cases}$$

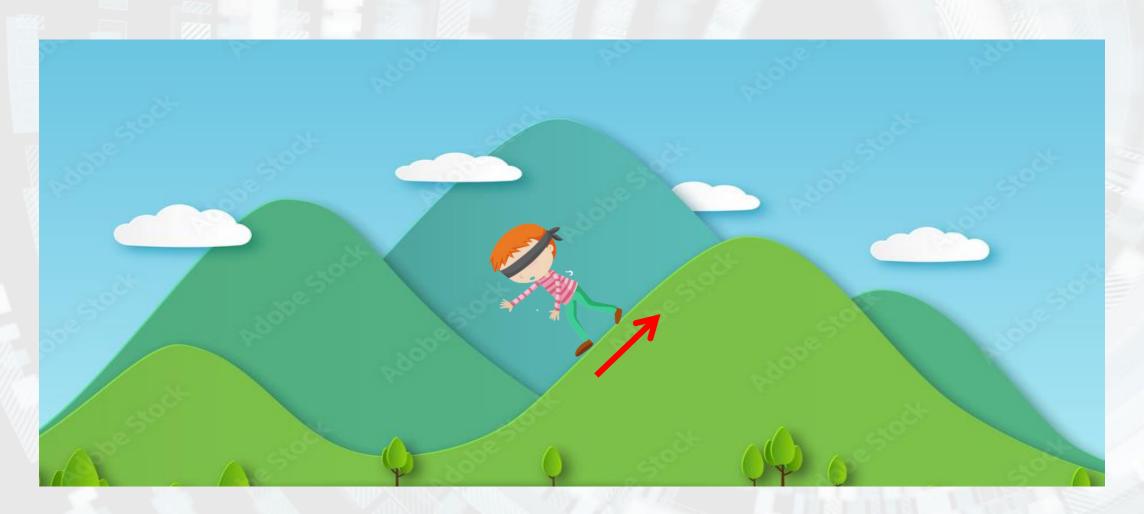
## Forward propagation – numerical example

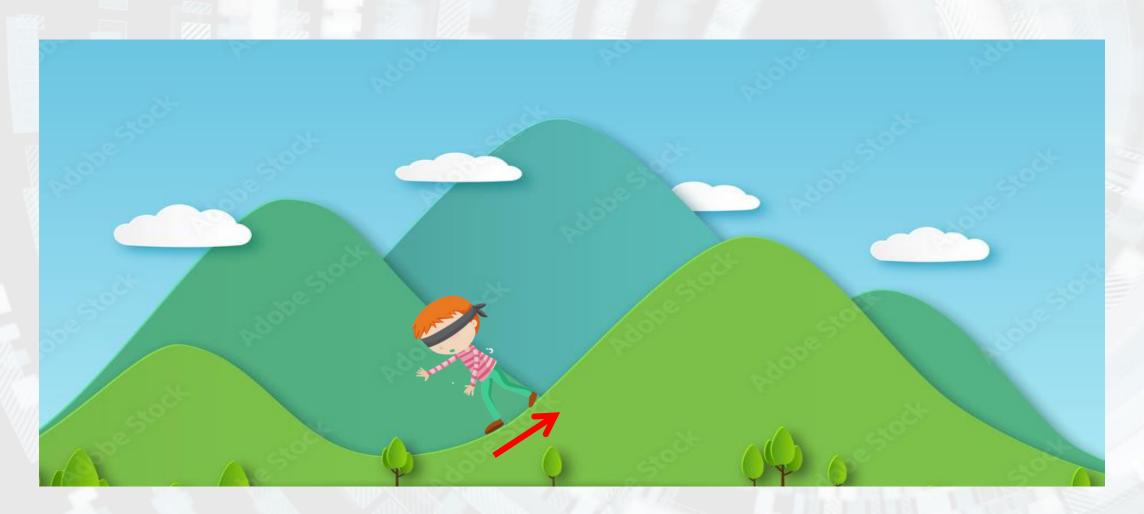


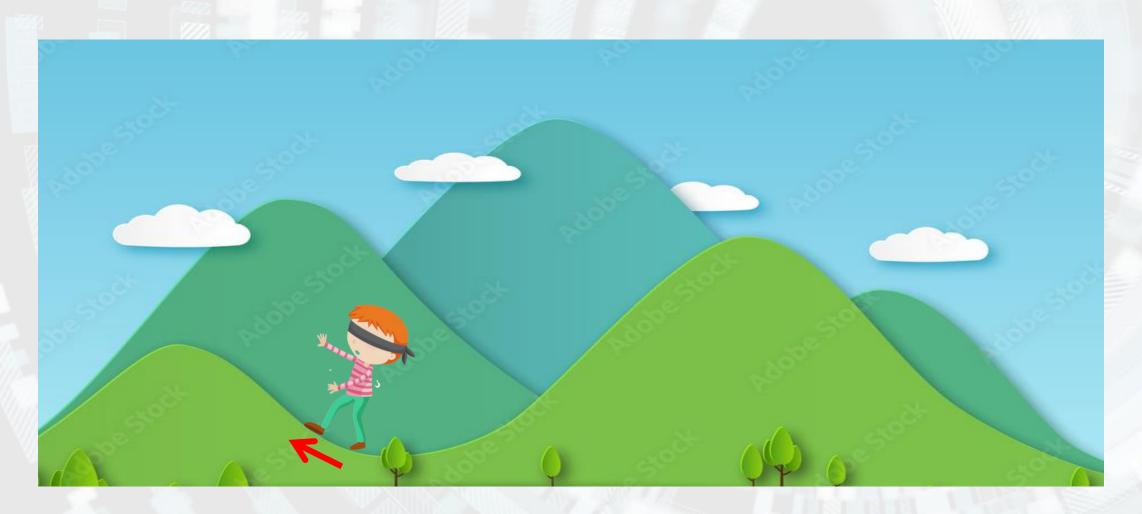
#### Backpropagation

- ➤ Goal: learning the internal representation of a neural network. It involves computing all weights (and biases) which bring the model's output tu a form as close as possible, ideally identical, to the desired/real output (groundtruth).
- ➤ How do we measure what it means to be "as close as possible"?
  - >A: by using a cost function, e.g. mean square error.
- ➤ What rule do we use to adjust the weights?
  - ➤ A: gradient descent.











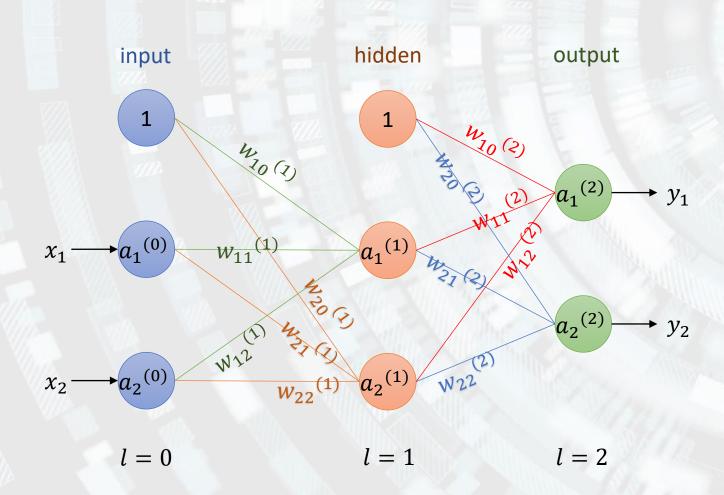
> Method to compute the gradient for a neural network's parameters.

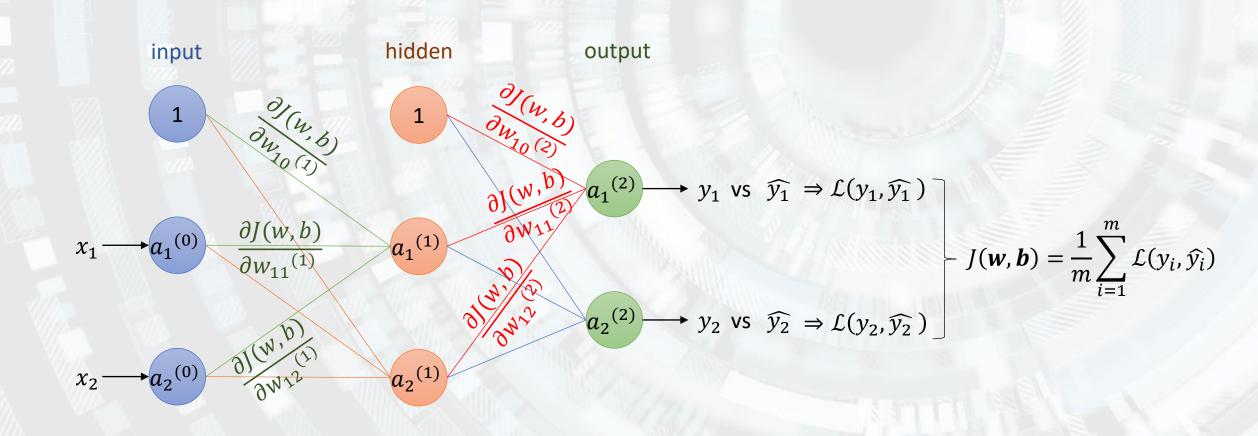
$$y = f(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b) = f(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b)$$

Funcție de pierdere (se calculează pe o singură pereche de eșantioane) 
$$\mathcal{L}(y,\hat{y}) \overset{e.g.}{\Longrightarrow} \mathcal{L}(y,\hat{y}) = (y-\hat{y})^2$$

Funcție de cost (se calculează pe un set de perechi de eșantioane)

$$J(\boldsymbol{w}, \boldsymbol{b}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathcal{L}(y_i, \widehat{y}_i)$$





l = 0

l=2

l = 1

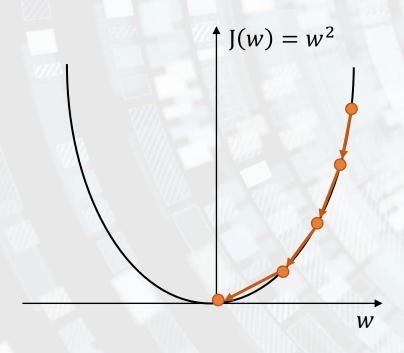
➤ Weights update follows this rule:

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} - \alpha \frac{\partial J(w)}{\partial w^{(t)}}$$

Simplified writing:

$$w \coloneqq w - \alpha \frac{\partial J(w)}{\partial w}$$

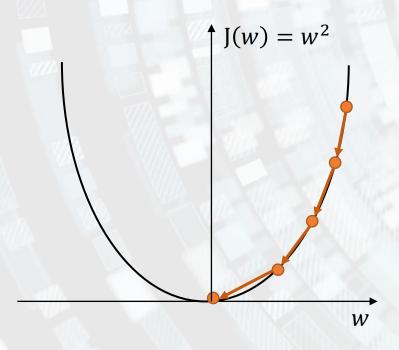
➤ Graphical example: consider the simplified case in which the cost function depends on a single variable and we choose MSE.



$$w \coloneqq w - \alpha \frac{\partial J(w)}{\partial w}$$

Ideally, we find w s.t. J(w) = 0, but, in practice, this almost never happens.

➤ Graphical example: consider the simplified case in which the cost function depends on a single variable and we choose MSE.

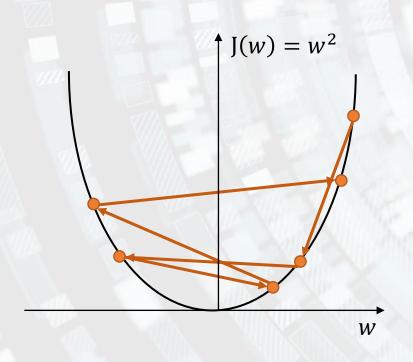


$$w \coloneqq w - \alpha \frac{\partial J(w)}{\partial w}$$

- $\frac{\partial J(w)}{\partial w}$  indicates the direction of the steepest increase
- $\alpha$  indicates the amplitude of the modification = learning rate

## Gradient descent – learning rate impact

Same example as before, but with a **high learning rate**.

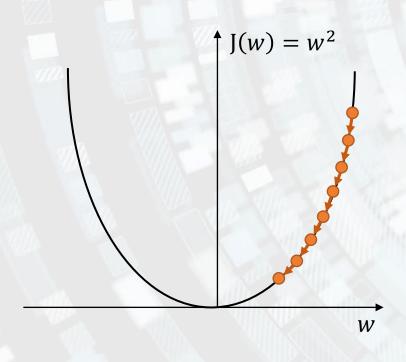


$$w \coloneqq w - \alpha \frac{\partial J(w)}{\partial w}$$

- The algorithm may miss the optimum, because each iteration brings a high displacement.
- + Due to the large steps taken, the distance to optimum is travelled faster => faster training.

## Gradient descent – learning rate impact

➤ Same example as before, but with a **low learning rate**.



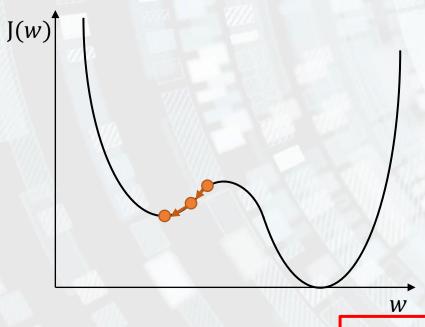
$$w \coloneqq w - \alpha \frac{\partial J(w)}{\partial w}$$

- The algorithm performs small updates => slower training.
- + Low probability to miss the optimum dure to the small steps.

Why not always use small learning rate?

### Gradient descent – learning rate impact

Cost function that is not convex (local minimum is not necessarily global minimum), low learning rate.



$$w \coloneqq w - \alpha \frac{\partial J(w)}{\partial w}$$

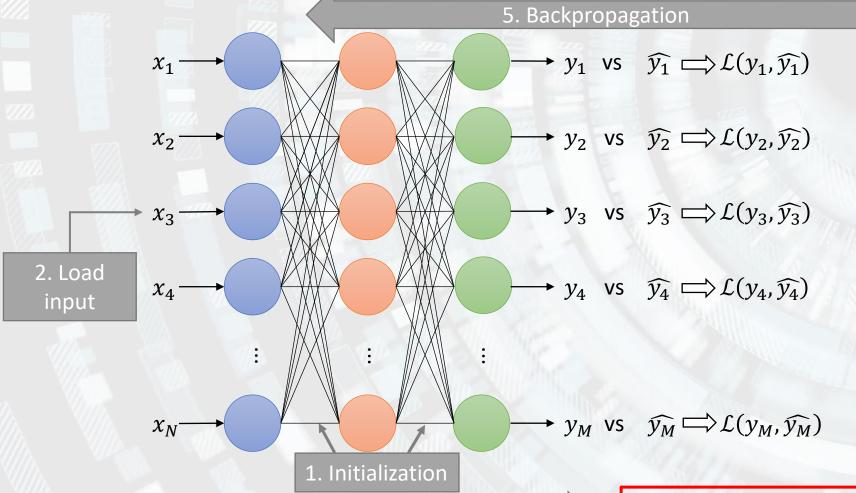
- There is a possibility that the algorithm gets stuck in a local minimum (saddle point)

Let's test it out – unit #3

### General steps for neural network learning

- 1. Initialize network parameters
- 2. Load input data
- 3. Forward propagation
- 4. Compute cost function by comparing output data with groundtruth
- 5. Backpropagation + parameters update
- 6. Repeat steps 3-5 until convergence.

## General steps for neural network learning



J(w,b)

4. Cost function

3. Forward propagation

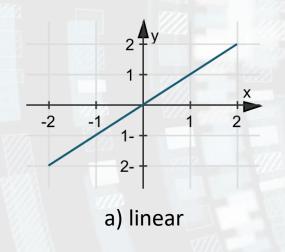
Let's test it out – unit #4

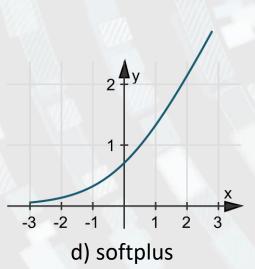


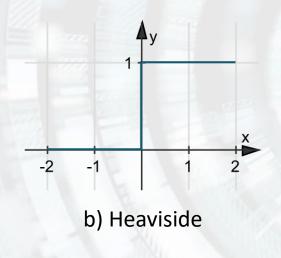
### Terminology

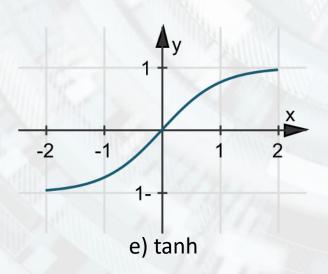
- 1. Activation functions
- 2. Cost functions
- 3. Learning rate
- 4. Parameters vs hyper-parameters
- 5. Datasets
- 6. Optimizers
- 7. Regularizers
- 8. Popular layers

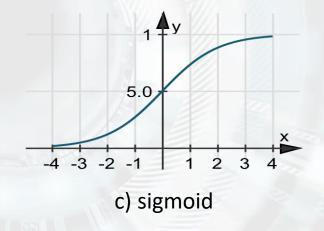
#### 1. Activation functions

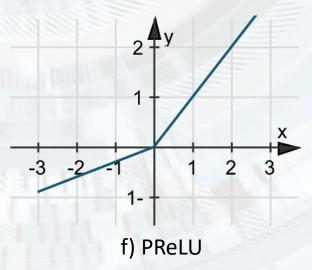












#### 2. Cost functions

Loss function = function computed in a **single point** which measures the penalty of taking a decision (distance between predicted and groundtruth value).

Cost function = loss function computed at the **entire dataset level**. Is more general than the loss function.

Objective function = function which needs to be optimized, either by minimizing (cost function), or by maximizing.

#### 2. Cost functions – examples

Loss functions:

Cost functions:

Objective functions:

$$\mathcal{L}(y_i, \widehat{y_i}) = (y_i - \widehat{y_i})^2$$

$$\mathcal{L}(y_i) = \max(0, 1 - t_i y_i), t \in \{-1, 1\}, y = wx + b$$

$$MSE = \left[\frac{1}{N}\right] L2 = J(y_i, \widehat{y}_i) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} (y_i - \widehat{y}_i)^2$$

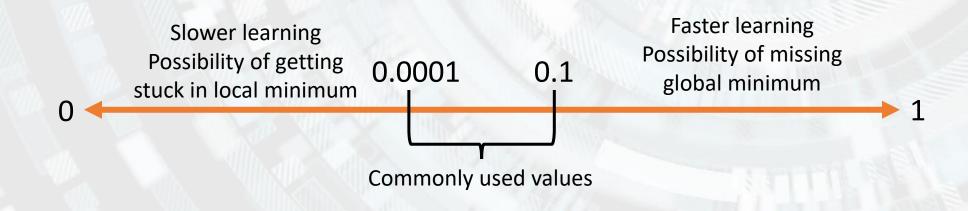
$$L1 = J(y_i, \widehat{y}_i) = \left[\frac{1}{N}\right] \sum_{i=1}^{N} |y_i - \widehat{y}_i|$$

$$CE = -\sum_{c=1}^{M} \mathbb{1}_{[y \equiv \widehat{y}]} \log(p(y \equiv \widehat{y}))$$

$$w = \arg\max_{w} \sum_{i=1}^{M} \log p_{model}(\widehat{y}_i | x_i, w)$$

#### 3. Learning rate

Learning rate = adjustable parameter which determines the step size when advancing towards minimizing the cost function, at each iteration. It represents the "speed" with which an algorithm learns.



### 4. Parameters vs hiper-parameters

Parameters = adjustable variables representing the internal state of the model. They are deducted from the training data through learning. Example: model weights.



Hyper-parameters = configurable variables, external to the model, influencing the learning process. They are set by the user. Example: learning rate, number of epochs, batch size etc.



#### 5. Datasets

Dataset = a group of elements with common properties. It represents the "experience" that an algorithm makes use of when learning a certain task (according to the definition).

$$D = \{((x_i, y_i) | T), 1 \le i \le M\}$$
  
input output task dimension







#### 5. Datasets

- They usually contain examples of input-output data. Their purpose is to help the model find an association law between input and output.
- ➤ A good dataset contains sufficient examples (10 x no. param.) and is uniformely distributed among its classes:
  - ➤ for regression: 10 examples/prediction variable
  - ➤ for classification: 1000 examples/class

#### 5. Datasets – splits

During model training, the training is done on a subset of the datasets, called "train". Hyper-parameter optimization is done by looking at the results obtained when testing the model on another subset, called "val"  $\Leftrightarrow$  we optimize w.r.t. "val".

train (70%) val (15%) test (15%)

After finding the best set of hyper-parameters, the model is trained again on the "train+val" subset and its generalizing ability is checked by testing it on the "test" subset, unseen up until that point by the model. The reported performance is the one obtained on "test".

train + val (85%)

test (15%)

#### 5. Datasets – browsing

Iteration = the set of processes done between two successive weight updates during training.

Batch = group of instances from the dataset which can be run by the model at the same time, in parallel.

Batch size = number of instances inside a batch.

Epoch = a term which signals a complete pass of the entire dataset through the learning algorithm.

#### 6. Optimizers

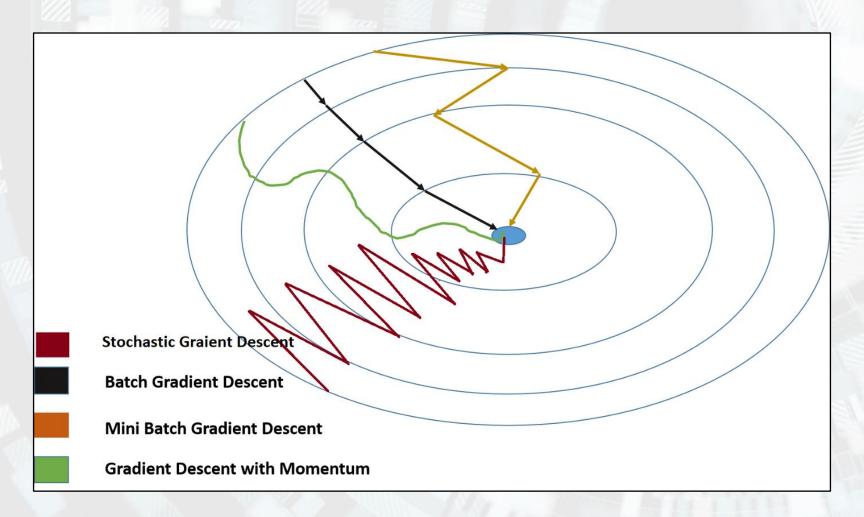
Optimizer = algorithm used for optimizing (minimizing or maximizing) an objective function.

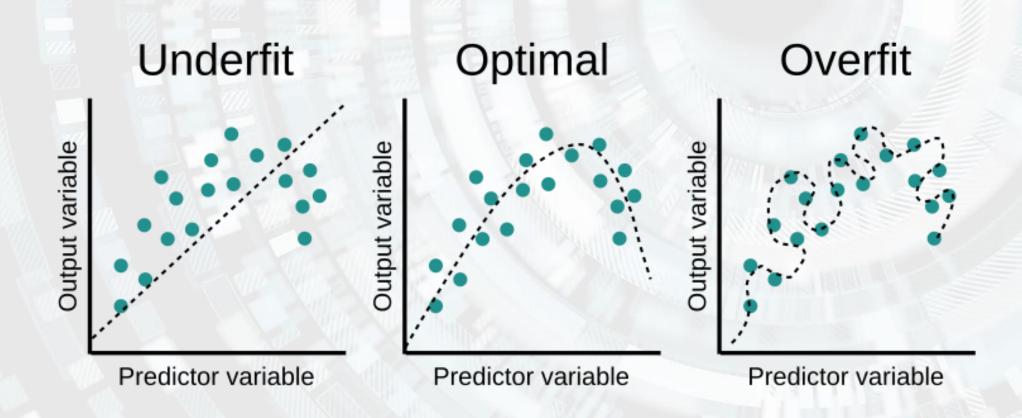
- > (Batch, Stochastic, Mini-batch) Gradient Descent
- **Momentum**
- > Learning rate scheduling
- **≻**Adagrad
- **≻**RMSProp
- > Adam

#### 6. Optimizers

- ➤ Batch gradient descent loads the entire dataset, runs forward propagation and updates the weights accordingly => best model approximation, requires storing the dataset in memory.
- Stochastic gradient descent loads one sample, runs forward propagation, updates the weights, repeats for next sample => best sample approximation, poor model approximation, loads a single sample at a time.
- ➤ Mini-batch gradient descent loads a batch of samples, runs forward propagation, updates the weights, repeats for next batch => best compromise between memory and model approximation.

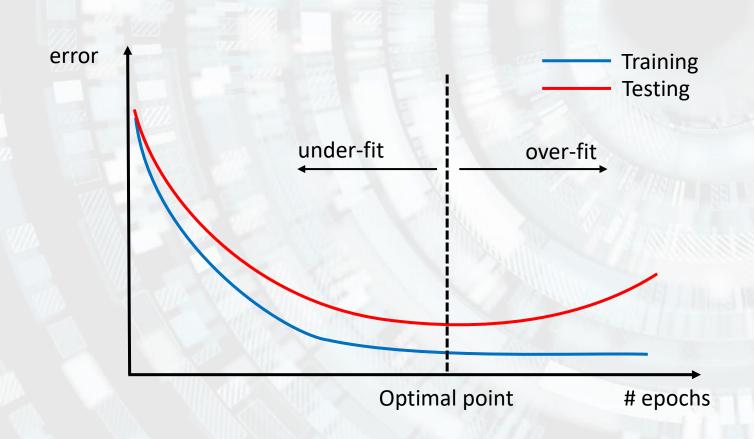
# 6. Optimizers – comparison





- ➤ Model learning has 2 phases:
  - 1. Training the model on the training dataset optimization;
  - 2. Testing the predictive capacity on the (unseen) test dataset generalization.

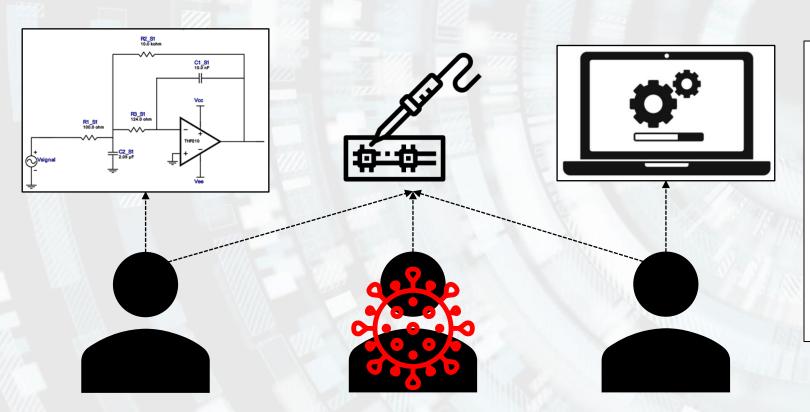
- >A high performant model is characterized by 2 aspects:
  - 1. Low training error
  - 2. Small difference between training and testing errors.



Regularization = modifying the learning algorithm such that it increases the generalization capacity and prevents overfitting.

- > Types of regularization:
  - 1. L1, L2;
  - 2. Dropout;
  - 3. Early stopping;
  - 4. Dataset augmentation.

# 7. Regularization – dropout



#### <u>Scenario – building a robot:</u>

- Team of 3 students;
- Each students specializes in a different field;
- One of the students cannot work at the project anymore;
- The other 2 students must take over his task;
- The knowledge of the 2 remaining students increases.

Layer = fundamental topological component composed of nodes, which is part of a neural network. Layers take information from previous layers and transmit it to the next ones. Chaining several layers forms a neural network.

- > Input
- > Dense
- > Convolutional
- > Pooling
- > Recurrent

- Activations
- > Dropout
- ➤ Batch normalization
- ➤ Output

#### ➤Input layer:

- First layer of any network;
- >We load the input data in this layer;
- $\triangleright$  Can have more dimensions:  $num \times width \times height \times channel$ .

#### ➤ Dense / fully-connected layer:

- Each input neuron is connected to each output neuron;
- ➤One of the most commonly used layers, especially at the end of a network;
- ➤ Described in the multi-layer network.

#### ➤ Convolutional layer:

- ➤ Performs "convolution" between an input signal and a set of features, named kernel/filter;
- Traditionally, it is applied on 2D data, but it also has support for 1D and 3D;
- >It is the main layer for most computer vision applications;
- >Its purpose is to extract relevan features and reduce input dimension;
- $\triangleright$  Special cases: dilated convolutions,  $1 \times 1$  convolutions.
- > Convolutions are invariant to translations

#### padding=1

0       0       0       0       0       0         0       2       1       0       1       1       0         0       1       1       0       2       0       0         0       0       0       1       1       1       0							
0     1     1     0     2     0     0       0     0     0     1     1     1     0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
0 0 0 1 1 0	0	2	1	0	1	1	0
	0	1	1	0	2	0	0
	0	0	0	1	1	1	0
0 1 2 2 0 2 0	0	1	2	2	0	2	0
0 2 0 1 2 1 0	0	2	0	1	2	1	0
0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

0	1	-1
-1	1	0
0	1	1

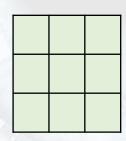
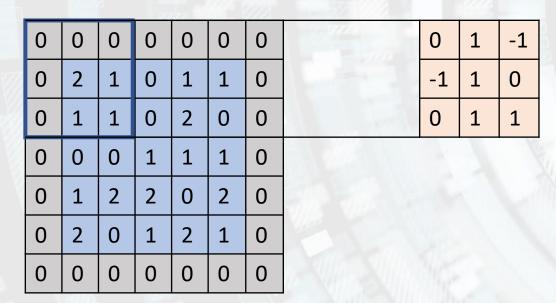


Image features (image)

Filter (kernel)

Trăsături de ieșire



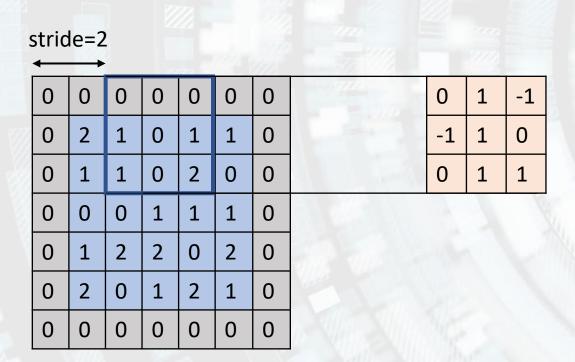
4	

0	0	0
0	2	1
0	1	1



0	1	-1
-1	1	0
0	1	1

$$\stackrel{\Sigma}{\longrightarrow}$$



4	1	

0	0	0
1	0	1
1	0	2



0	1	-1
-1	1	0
0	1	1

$$\stackrel{\Sigma}{\longrightarrow}$$

			100						
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	700	0	1
0	2	1	0	1	1	0		-1	1
0	1	1	0	2	0	0	A STATE OF THE STA	0	1
0	0	0	1	1	1	0		1	Y
0	1	2	2	0	2	0			
0	2	0	1	2	1	0			
0	0	0	0	0	0	0			

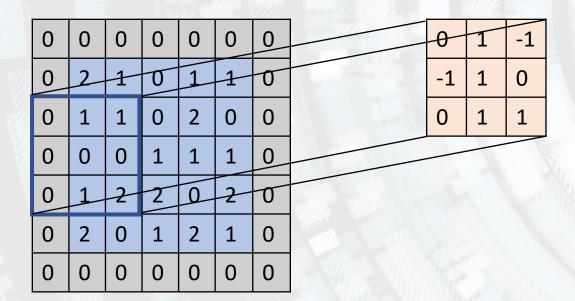
4	1	0

0	0	0
1	1	0
2	0	0



0	1	-1
-1	1	0
0	1	1

$$\stackrel{\Sigma}{\longrightarrow}$$



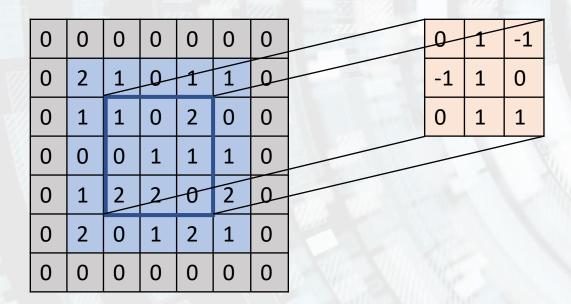
4	1	0
3		
		·

0	1	1
0	0	0
0	1	2

X

0	1	-1	
-1	1	0	
0	1	1	

$$\stackrel{\Sigma}{\longrightarrow}$$



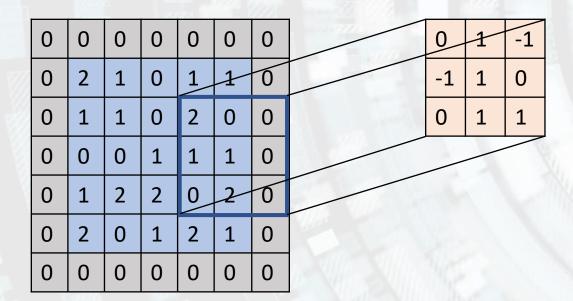
4	1	0
3	1	

1	0	2
0	1	1
2	2	0



0	1	-1
-1	1	0
0	1	1

$$\stackrel{\Sigma}{\longrightarrow}$$



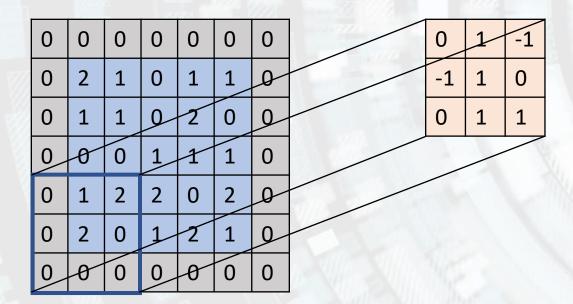
4	1	0
3	1	2

2	0	0
1	1	0
0	2	0



0	1	-1	
-1	1	0	
0	1	1	

$$\stackrel{\Sigma}{\longrightarrow}$$



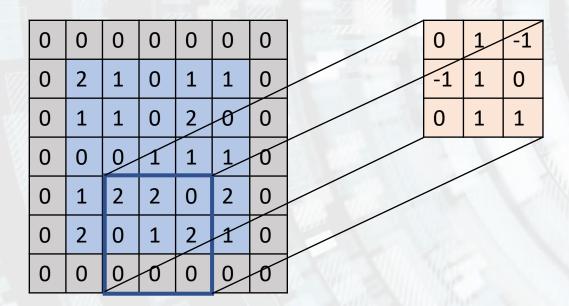
4	1	0
3	1	2
1		

0	1	2
0	2	0
0	0	0

X

0	1	-1
-1	1	0
0	1	1

$$\stackrel{\Sigma}{\longrightarrow}$$



4	1	0
3	1	2
1	3	

2	2	0
0	1	2
0	0	0

X

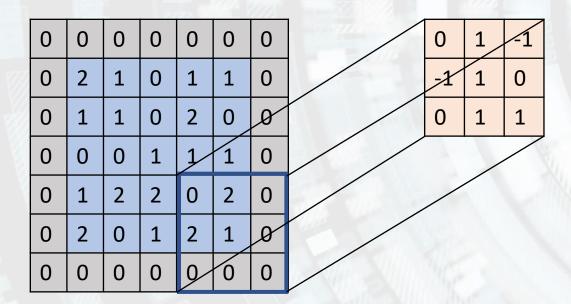
0	1	-1
-1	1	0
0	1	1

 0
 2
 0

 0
 1
 0

 0
 0
 0





4	1	0
3	1	2
1	3	1

0	2	0
2	1	0
0	0	0



0	1	-1
-1	1	0
0	1	1

$$\stackrel{\Sigma}{\longrightarrow}$$

- ➤ Pooling layer
  - ➤ Can be max/average pooling similar concept.
  - $\triangleright$  Hyper-parameters similar to conv layer: filter size F, stride S, padding P

2	13	S	1
1	20	2	3
15	14	7	1
10	2	2	9

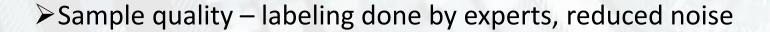


20	3
15	9

# M4. Practical considerations

#### 1. Choosing data

- ➤ Number of examples in the dataset:
  - ➤ General: 10x no. of model parameters
  - Regression: 10 examples / prediction variable
  - ➤ Classification: 1000 examples / class





- https://archive.ics.uci.edu/ml/index.php
- https://www.kaggle.com/datasets
- https://paperswithcode.com/datasets
- https://datasetsearch.research.google.com/



#### 2. Data pre-processing

- ➤ Dataset split: train (70%), val (15%), test (15%)
- > All subsets contain similar data
- ➤ Data formatting, switching between various formats:
- .csv <-> .pkl <-> .json <-> database;
- ➤ Missing data (Null, NaN) what should we replace them with?
- ➤ Dataset is too large use just a statistically relevant subset for training
- ➤ Class imbalance different weights for the results, repeat input from under-represented class, reduce input from over-represented class, etc.
- ➤ Normalization bring features in the same range of values





#### 3. Model training

- ➤ Initialize weights
- **≻**Load data
- > Forward propagation
- ➤ Compute cost function
- **▶** Backpropagation
- ➤ Update weights
- ➤ Rinse & repeat



#### 4. Model validation

- > Test the model on the validation subset to test its generalizing ability
- ➤ This validation is not run at each iteration, but at a multiple of it (N=30, 100 etc.).

#### 5. Model optimization

- > Hyperparameter tuning: adjusting model hyperparameters
- ➤ Solve over-fitting with regularization methods: L1, L2, dropout, early stopping, dataset augmentation, etc.
- ➤ Pre-train + fine-tune
- > Feature transfer
- At the end of the optimization process we run the model one last time, on the test set. The metrics obtained on this subset are the officially reported ones.

Let's test it out – unit #5

**Machine learning** = we say that a system "learns" from experience E regarding a set of tasks T and a performance measure P, if the performance in solving the tasks T, measured by P, grows with the experience E.

**Dataset** = a group of elements with common properties. It represents the "experience" that an algorithm makes use of when learning a certain task.

$$D = \{((x_i, y_i) | T), 1 \le i \le M\}$$
  
input output task dimension

$$D = \{((x_i, y_i)|T), 1 \le i \le M\} = \{(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), (x_3, y_3), \dots, (x_M, y_M)\}$$

$$f(x_1) = y_1$$

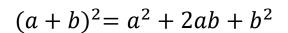
$$f(x_2) = y_2$$

$$f(x_3) = y_3$$

$$\dots$$

$$f(x_M) = y_M$$

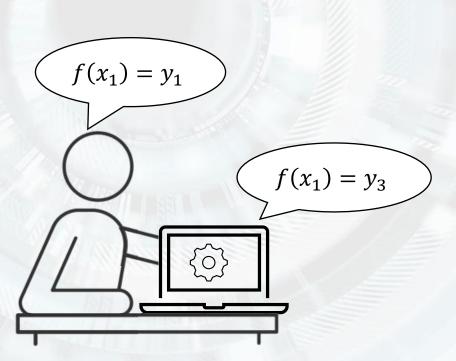
- $\triangleright$  Each  $(x_M, y_M)$  pair is called a training sample;
- $> x_M = \text{input vector};$
- $> y_M = \text{real output/label}.$





$$(a+b)^2 = a^2 + b^2$$

VS



**Supervised Learning** = machine learning paradigm in which training data is labeled. Each training sample is composed of a descriptor and a label. The goal of supervised learning is to learn the association between the input features and their corresponding labels.

**Supervised Deep Learning** = supervised machine learning paradigm applied to deep neural networks (deep = several (>3, >7, >30, >50) layers).

> All training samples contain a label of their own;

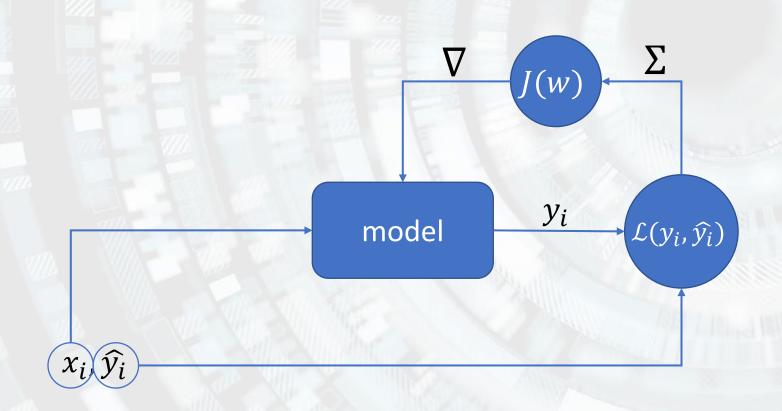
#### ➤ 2 main subcategories:

- 1. Regression we would like to predict continuous values, adapted to the model that describes the dataset.
- 2. Classification we would like to predict a discrete value, representing the class to which an input sample belongs.

#### > Definition collision:

- A classifier can predict a continuous value under the form of a probability distribution.
- >A regressor cand predict a discrete value under the form of an integer quantity.

Let's test it out – unit #6





# Classification

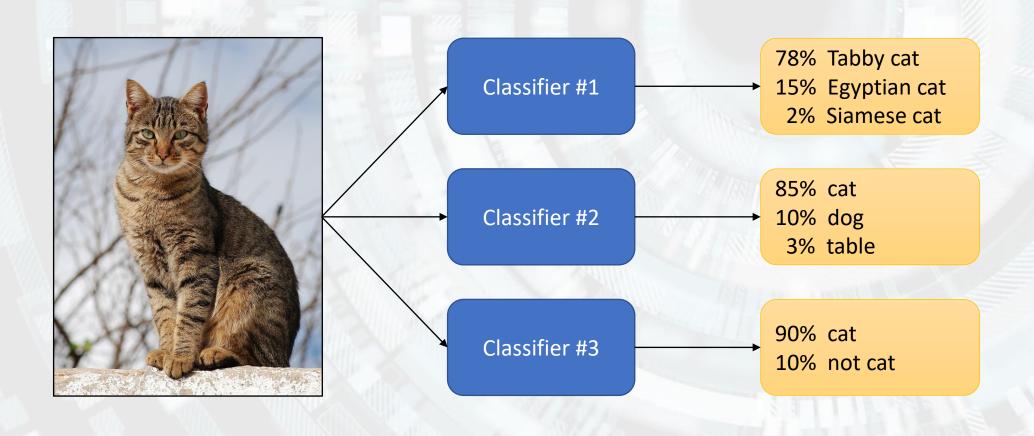
**Classification** = the task of assigning a label to a sample.

#### Characteristics:

- ➤ The content of the sample is treated as a whole ⇔ the label describes the entire input, not just a part of it.
- Any sample belongs to a single class.
- The output of a classifier is usually a probability, not a categorical decision.
- >Usually, we classify samples where the object of interest takes up most, if not all, of the sample.
- >Strongly depends on the qualitative and quantitative aspects of the training dataset.
- ➤ Multi-class classifiers usually have the last layer fully connected and a softmax activation.

# Classification

Dataset

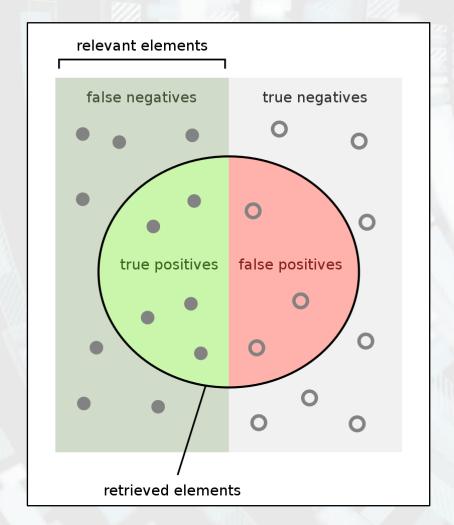


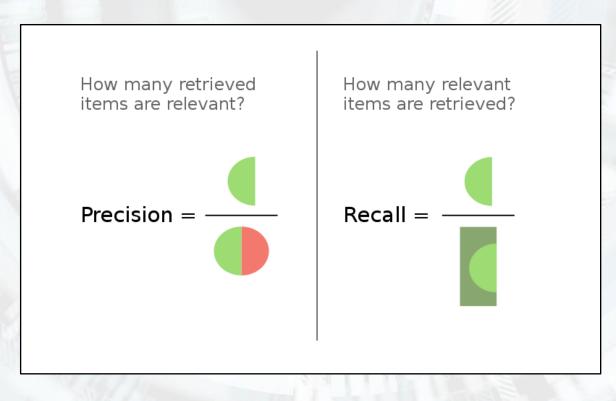
Models

Metrics

**Metric** = quantitative method that is used to measure the performance of a system. It offers sortable numerical values such that we can quantify the progress made by a trainable model.

- It is calculated at the end of an epoch, on the entire dataset (train, val, test).
- ➤ It depends on the workload different metrics for different types of systems.
- >It is usually not differentiable, so it cannot be used to drive the learning process.
- ➤In some cases, it can be synonymous with the cost function (e.g. MAE, MSE).
- ➤ It must be interpreted in context. Usually, the values/ranges of values that represent the desired situation are mentioned.





\*Only for binary classification!

#### Confusion matrix:

#### Predicted

	Positive	Negative
Positive	True positive (tp)	False negative (fn)
Negative	False positive (fp)	True negative (tn)

$$precision(P) = \frac{tp}{tp + fp}$$

$$recall(R) = \frac{tp}{tp + fn} = rata TP (TPR)$$

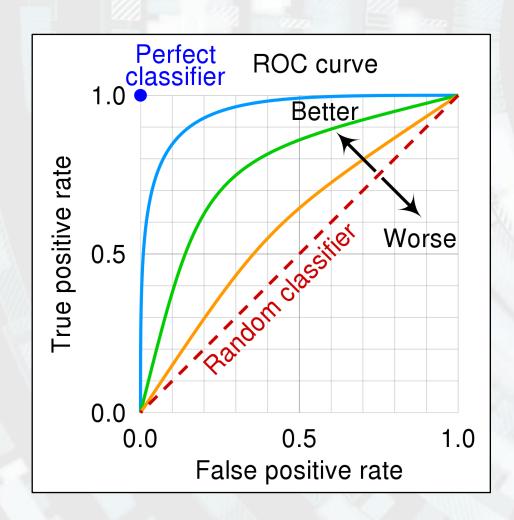
$$TN \ rate (TNR) = \frac{tn}{tn + fp}$$

$$FP \ rate(FPR) = \frac{fp}{tn + fp}$$

$$accuracy (ACC) = \frac{tp + tn}{tp + tn + fp + fn}$$

$$F - score (F) = 2\frac{PR}{P + R}$$

#### \*Only for binary classification!



ROC = Receiver Operating Characteristic

AUC = Area Under the (ROC) Curve

AUC=1 => perfect classifier

AUC=0.5 => random classifier

AUC=0 => anti-perfect classifier

#### **Accuracy for imbalanced datasets**

For a binary classifier, the accuracy is defined as:

$$ACC = \frac{tp + tn}{tp + tn + fp + fn}$$

#### >Scenario:

- Consider a dataset with 95 negative examples and 5 positive examples.
- ➤ A classifier which predicts the negative class in 100% of the cases will score a 95% accuracy, which is deceiving.
- ➤ Solution: use balanced accuracy.

#### **Accuracy for imbalanced datasets**

➤ Balanced accuracy is defined as:

$$ACC = \frac{\text{TPR} + \text{TNR}}{2} = \frac{\frac{tp}{tp + fn} + \frac{tn}{tn + fp}}{2}$$

#### >Scenario:

- Consider a dataset with 95 negative examples and 5 positive examples.
- >A classifier which predicts the negative class in 100% of the cases

#### Predicted

	10///	Positive	Negativ
Keal	Positive	tp = 0	fn = 5
	Negative	fp = 0	tn = 95

$$ACC = \frac{\text{TPR} + \text{TNR}}{2} = \frac{\frac{0}{0+5} + \frac{95}{95+0}}{2} = 0.5$$

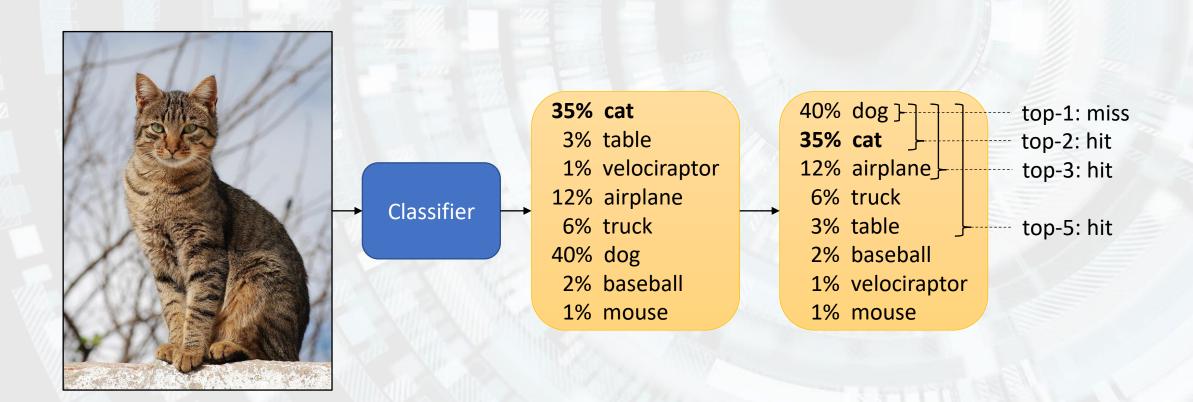
#### **Accuracy for multi-class classification:**

$$ACC = \frac{\#correct\ classifications}{\#total\ classifications}$$

➤ E.g.: from 100 analyzed examples, 83 were correctly classified => 83% accuracy.

#### Top-k accuracy

- For an example from the database, the relative probability of belonging to each class is calculated.
- The output probabilities are ordered.
- ➤ If n among the first k best rated classes is also the real class => correct classification.



# M7. Unsupervised Deep Learning Deep Learning Fundamentals, Mihai DOGARIU 10.06.2024

**Supervised Learning** = machine learning paradigm in which training data is labeled. Each training sample is composed of a descriptor and a label. The goal of supervised learning is to learn the association between the input features and their corresponding labels.

**Unsupervised Learning** = machine learning paradigm in which training data is unlabeled. The goal of unsupervised learning is to learn the inherent mode of the training samples through imitation. This is done through self-organization, which captures information relative to the behavior/probability distribution of the training data.

**Unsupervised Learning** 

#### **Un-probabilistic models**

- Sparse Coding
- Autoencoders
- Others (e.g. k-means)

Probabilistic models (generative)

#### **Tractable models**

- Deep Belief Nets
- NADE
- PixelRNN

#### **Un-tractable models**

- Boltzmann Machines
- Variational Autoencoders
- Helmholtz Machines

- Generative Adversarial Networks
- Moment Matching Networks