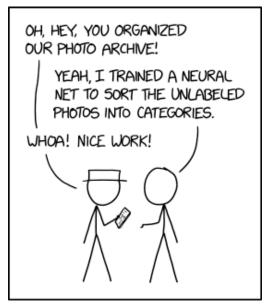
CAB420: Neural Networks and their Components

A BIT LIKE LEGO

Neural Networks

- Neural networks are a collection of layers
- In a simple network, layers connect to each other sequentially
 - Data flows from one layer to the next
- Overall structure inspired by the human brain
 - Activations cascading through the brain is mimicked by data propagating through the neural network



ENGINEERING TIP: WHEN YOU DO A TASK BY HAND, YOU CAN TECHNICALLY SAY YOU TRAINED A NEURAL NET TO DO IT.

Cartoon from XKCD

High Level Components

THE DUPLO BLOCK WAY OF LOOKING AT THINGS

Input

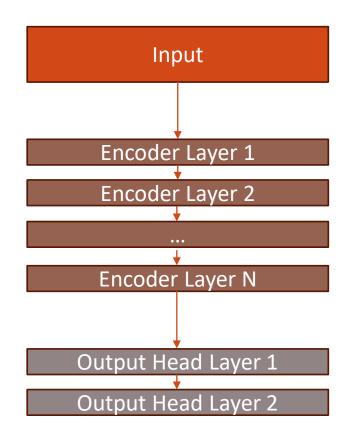
- The input to the network
- Typically, a fixed size
- Can be images, audio, text, tables
 - If you can represent it as a number, it can be used

Encoder/Backbone

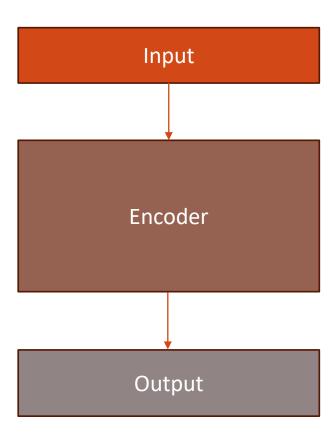
- Set of layers that encoders the input into some other representation
- Can take many forms

Output head

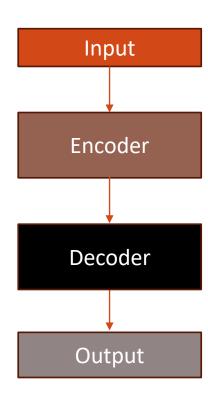
- Take the encoded representation, estimate something
 - Regression, classification, anything you can craft an objective function for
- Typically, a few layers at most
- Has a loss function attached to learn the task



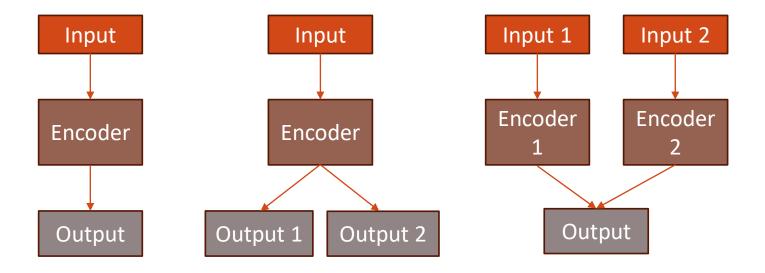
 We will often visualise and think of networks in terms of these high-level components



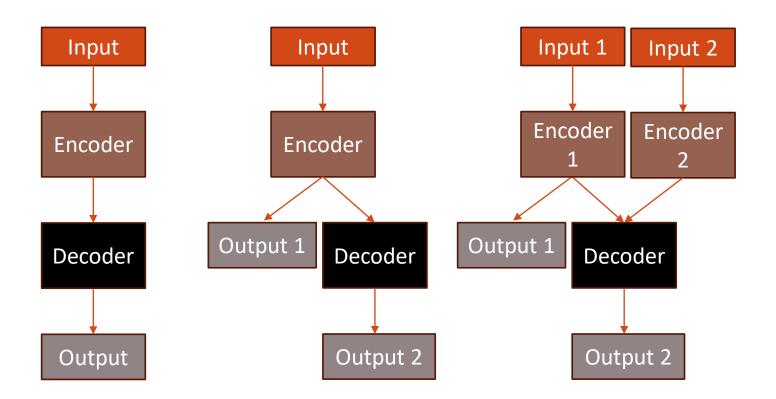
- The other type of component we'll commonly encounter is the Decoder
 - Takes some encoder representation, decodes it to something else
 - Commonly used when mapping from one domain to another
 - Language translation
 - Neural Style Transfer (i.e. making your photos look like paintings)



We can arrange components in different ways to achieve different things



We can arrange components in different ways to achieve different things



High Level Network Components

- Inputs and Outputs will typically be at least somewhat task specific
- Encoders and Decoders (or backbones) however may be quite general
- Practically this means we can take a network designed for one problem, and adapt it to a new problem by changing the input and output
 - The encoder (and decoder if there is one) stays the same

Encoder (and Decoder) Types

- Our encoders (and decoders) are a stack of layers
- Using different layers, in different ways, gives us different network types
 - Also referred to as Architectures
- Within Deep Learning, we have three common families of network types
 - Fully connected networks
 - All dense layers
 - Early approach, rarely used now
 - Convolutional neural networks (CNNs)
 - Uses convolutional layers
 - Largely responsible for the deep learning and AI boom
 - Still prominent, though no longer state of the art
 - Transformers
 - Current state of the art architecture

Encoder (and Decoder) Types

- In CAB420 we'll mostly use CNNs
- CNNs offer us:
 - Better performance than fully connected networks
 - Less computationally demanding than Transformers
 - Continue to be extremely prominent in real-world applications
- We'll look at transformers briefly towards the end of semester

Network Layers

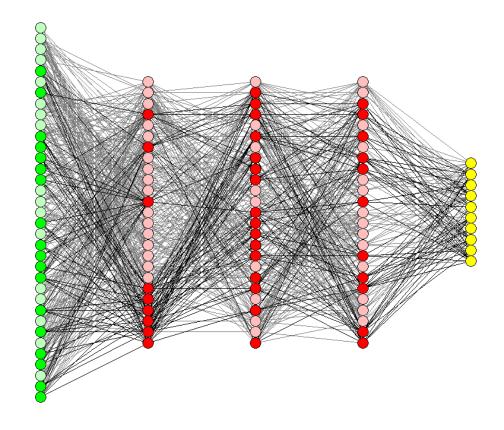
LEGO RATHER THAN DUPLO

Neural Network Components

- Networks are built from a collection of layers
 - Layers are separated by non-linearities (a non-linear function)
- There lots of layers, but the main layers we'll consider are
 - Fully Connected Layer
 - Convolutional Layer
 - Pooling
 - Activation
- These layers give us the main building blocks for
 - Fully connected networks
 - CNNs
 - Transformers

Fully Connected Layers

- Every neuron in one layer is connected to every neuron in the next
 - Doesn't really capture spatial relationships in the data
 - i.e. Spatially adjacent neurons do not necessarily give similar results
 - Essentially a matrix multiplication



Fully Connected Layers

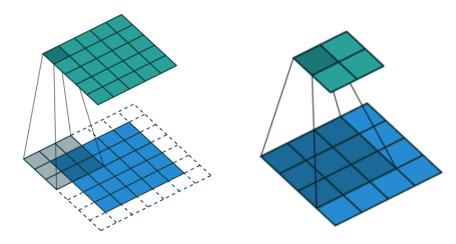
- Input: a vector of size [1 x M]
- Output: a vector of length [1 x N]
- Parameters:
 - Weight matrix, [M x N] in size
 - Bias vector, [1 x N] in size
- Computation:
 - Output = input*W + B
 - For large M and/or N, W becomes very large

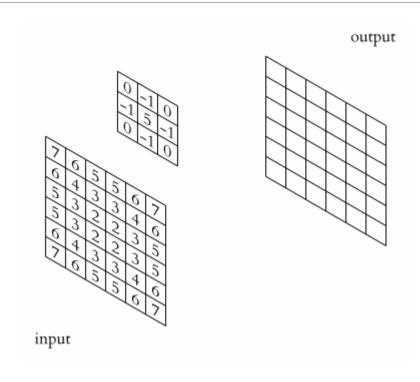
Convolutional Layer

Convolution

$$(f * g)(t) \triangleq \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(\tau)g(\tau - r)dr$$

- The integral of the product of the two functions after one is reversed and shifted
- Performs a weighted sum of one input according to the second
- Typically viewed as a filtering process





Convolution

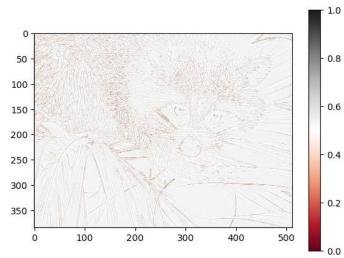
With images, can be thought of as applying a filter

Input

Convolution Kernel

Output



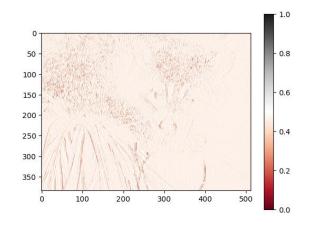


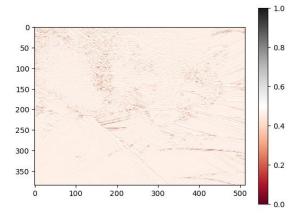
- Example kernel is an edge detection kernel
 - Detects all edges by finding pixels where there is a local change in contrast

Convolution

- Different Kernels will give different outputs
 - Vertical Edges
 - [-48-4 -48-4 -48-4]

- Horizontal Edges
 - ° [-4 -4 -4 8 8 8 -4 -4 -4]



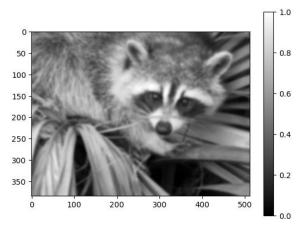


Convolution

- The output of one convolution operation can be used as the input to another
 - Stacking filters
 - Blurring kernel:
 - [0.111 0.111 0.111
 0.111 0.111 0.111
 0.111 0.111 0.111
 - Top image: after 1 blur
 - Bottom image: after 7 blurs

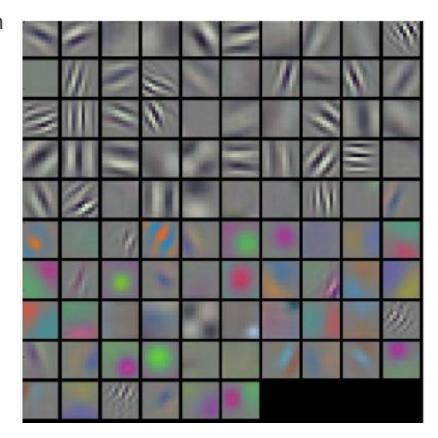
Example output taken from CAB420_DCNNs_Additional_Example_2_Convolutions.ipynb





Convolutional Layer

- You don't need to memorise a bunch of kernels!
- In neural networks
 - We learn the filters
 - Typically learn lots of filters at once
- Learned filters can
 - Represent simple shapes, edges, textures in early layers
 - Represent more complex structures in later layers
- Filters operate over all channels in the input
 - If we have a colour input, we have a colour filter

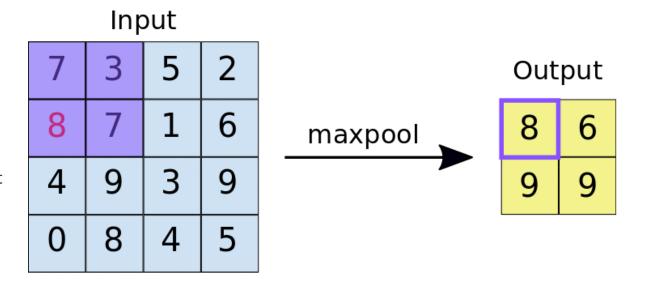


Convolution Layer

- Input: [W x H x C] image
- Output: [W x H x N] image
 - N is number of learned filters
- Parameters:
 - Each filter is [X x Y] in size, and has [X x Y x C] weights
 - 1 bias value per filter
- Computation:
 - Each filter applied at each location in target image, bias is added per filter
 - Operates over all image channels at once
 - Each filter results in one output channel in the output
- Other configuration options:
 - Stride: do we apply the filter at every pixel, or skip some?
 - Behavior at borders: do we pad such that all pixels can be used?

Pooling

- Used to aggregate features
 - Reduces dimensionality
- Multiple types of pooling
 - Min, Max, Average
 - We almost always use Max Pooling
 - Take the maximum value in a region as output
 - Typically placed after a convolution layer



Pooling

- Input: [W x H x C] image
- Output: [W' x H' x C] image
 - Output is reduced spatially, but number of channels is unchanged
- Parameters:
 - No learned parameters
 - Size and type of pooling operation is fixed when network is created

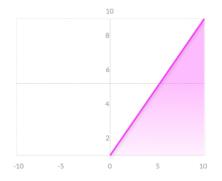
Activations

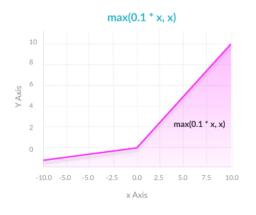
- Neural networks connect outputs of one layer to the inputs of the next
- However, we don't just feed them straight in, we pass them through an "activation function"
 - Can be seen to turn some neurons on, and others off
 - Introduces non-linearities, helpful for learning complex functions
 - Different activations let different amounts of information flow
 - Can have impacts on learning

Common Activations

ReLu

- Rectified Linear Unit
 - Linear for a values greater than 0
 - 0 for negative values
- Leaky ReLu
 - Like ReLu, but doesn't totally attenuate the values less than 0
 - Can help learning by allowing gradients to propagate with negative values





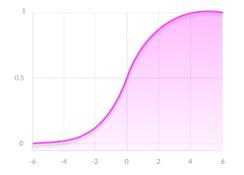
Common Activations

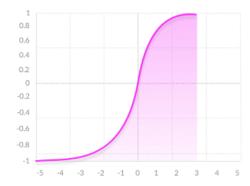
Sigmoid

- Maps input to [0, +1]
- Acts to normalise the outputs (within fixed bounds)
- Effectively learns a classifier

TanH

- Maps input [-1, +1]
- Otherwise like the Sigmoid





Common Activations

SoftMax Activation

- Normalise the output such that is sums to one
- Typically used as the output of a classification network
- Highlight the highest response, supress all others

There are lots of other activations

- Exponential Linear Unit (ELU)
- Clipped ReLu
- SoftPlus
- Swish

Network Layers and Computational Efficiency

- Neural Networks have a (well deserved) reputation for being computationally demanding. But operations can be implemented very efficiently.
- Consider convolution:
 - Each pixel in the output can be computed independently
 - Massive potential for parallelisation
 - Hence, rapid performance gains possible via GPUs
 - Huge numbers of very simple processing cores
- Many other operations can be similarly broken down
 - Fully connected layers are a matrix multiplication. Each output element can be computed independently of all others

CAB420: Building A Network for Classification

A SMALL ONE TO START WITH

A Network

- A collection of layers
 - Computation layers
 - Fully connected, convolution
 - Essentially can be expressed as y=wx+b, where all variables are matrices
 - Activation layers
 - Non-linearities between computations, regulate the flow of data
 - Pooling layers
 - Reduce dimensionality, combine activations
- Output of one layer is input to the next
 - Data propagates through the network

Network Structure

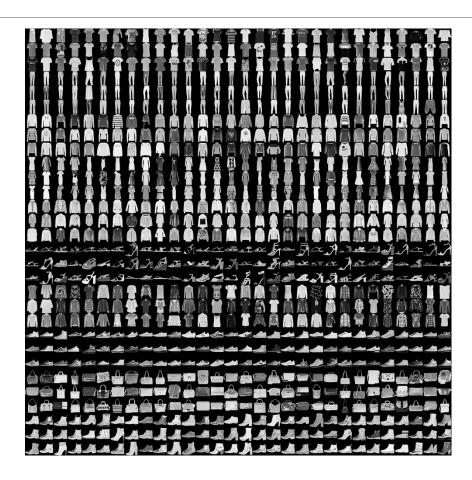
- Networks can have
 - Multiple branches
 - Multiple inputs and/or outputs
 - Skip connections
 - i.e. some layers are skipped and features are concatenated elsewhere
- We'll stick to simple networks (for now)
 - One input
 - One output
 - Feed-forward structure

A Classification Problem

Fashion MNIST

- 60,000 28x28 pixel greyscale images of clothing
- 10 types of clothes
- The task
 - Classify images into the type of clothes they show

We're using images here. If you're uncertain about images as a data type please have a look at CAB420_DCNNs_Additional_Example_1_Images_In troduction.ipynb



An Approach

- Start simple
 - A couple of fully connected layers
 - This won't work that well
- Then add complexity
 - Convolutions!
- See CAB420_DCNNs_Example_1_Classification_with_Deep_Learning.ipynb

Network Output

- We have a classification task, so our network needs to tell us which class something is. How?
 - Using a "one-hot" vector
- Consider our 10 class classification task
- We can represent this as a vector of length 10, where one element is 1 and the rest are 0', i.e.:
 - 0001000000, would be class 4
 - 1000000000, would be class 1

Network Losses

- We need a way for our network to know when it's right or wrong
 - Enter, the loss function
- Loss functions
 - Are 0 when the network get's it right
 - Usually return increasingly large values as a network becomes more wrong
- These provide the errors that are back-propagated to train the network

Binary and Categorical Cross Entropy

Use to measure the loss for classification tasks

$$CE = -\sum_{i}^{N} y_i' \log(y_i)$$

- where
 - y_i' is the true class probability, [0..1]
 - y_i is the predicted probability, [0..1]
 - N is the total number of classes
- Measures mismatch between observed and expected distributions

Cross Entropy Explored

$$CE = -\sum_{i}^{N} y_{i}' \log(y_{i})$$

- $y_i = [001], y_i' = [001]$
- $CE = -(0x\log(0) + 0x\log(0) + 1x\log(1)) = \inf + \inf + 0$
 - Problem, log(0) is undefined
- In practice
 - Our estimates are almost never 0, activation functions see to that

Cross Entropy Explored

$$CE = -\sum_{i}^{N} y_{i}' \log(y_{i})$$

- $y_i = [010], y_i' = [001]$
 - Note, we'll treat the 0's in y_i as very small positive numbers
- $CE = -(0x\log(0.000001) + 0x\log(1) + 1x\log(0.000001)) = -(0 + 0 + -6) = 6$
 - We record a high loss as our classifier was totally wrong

Cross Entropy Explored

$$CE = -\sum_{i}^{N} y_i' \log(y_i)$$

- $y_i = [0.2 \ 0.4 \ 0.4], y_i' = [001]$
- CE = $-(0x\log(0.2) + 0x\log(0.4) + 1x\log(0.4)) = -(0 + 0 + -0.39) = 0.39$
 - Our loss is not as high as we had some likelihood in the correct result

Binary vs Categorical Cross Entropy

- Categorical Cross Entropy (CCE)
 - You have N exclusive classes
- Binary Cross Entropy (BCE)
 - You have two exclusive classes
 - 2-class case of CCE
- Multi-Class Classification
 - A sample can belong to more than 1 class
 - Use BCE, effectively treat membership of class as a binary classifier

A Simple Network

Vectorise input

- [28 x 28] image becomes a [1 x 784] vector
 - Destroys spatial information
- 3 dense layers
 - Intermediate 1: 256 neurons
 - Intermediate 2: 64 neurons
 - Output: 10 neurons
 - 10 classes

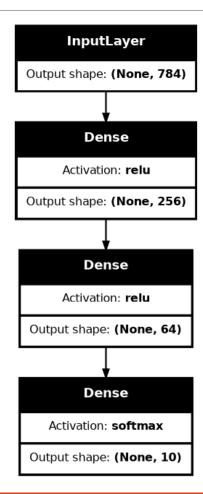
Model: "fashion_mnist_model"

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
img (InputLayer)	[(None, 784)]	0
dense (Dense)	(None, 256)	200960
dense_1 (Dense)	(None, 64)	16448
dense_2 (Dense)	(None, 10)	650

Total params: 218,058
Trainable params: 218,058
Non-trainable params: 0

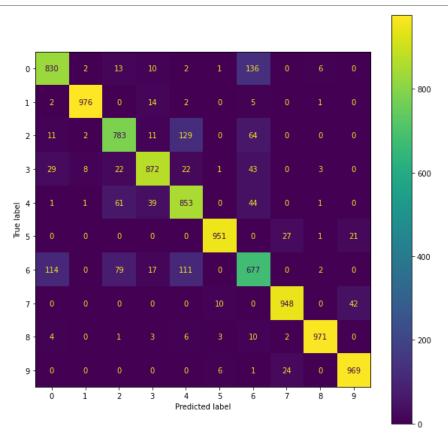
A Simple Network

- 200,000 + parameters
 - And this is a simple network
- Dense layers become smaller as we go deeper
 - Seek to discover most salient information for the task at hand
 - What is salient (important) is determined by the training



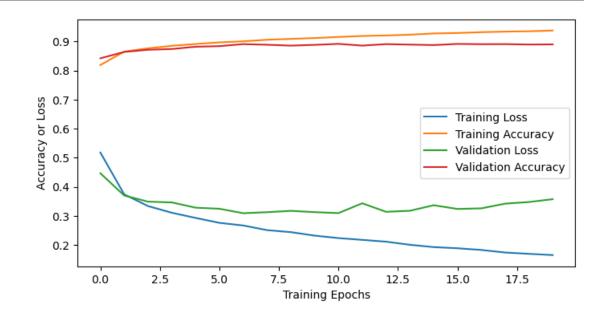
Simple Network Performance

- 88.3% accuracy on test set
- We can improve accuracy by including spatial information



Training Performance

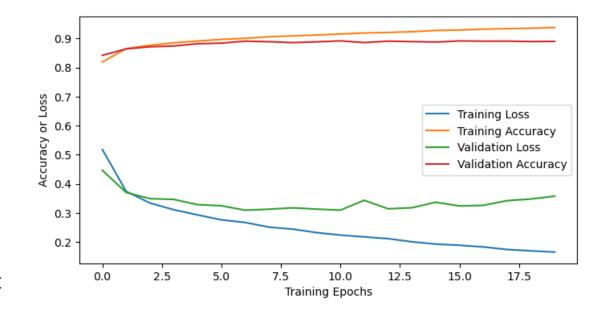
- This plot shows the network's performance as we train the network
 - Training Loss
 - Categorical cross entropy on the training data
 - The value of our loss
 - Training Accuracy
 - Accuracy on the training set
 - Validation Loss
 - Categorical cross entropy on the validation data
 - Unseen data, not used in training
 - Validation Accuracy
 - Accuracy on the unseen validation data



Training Performance

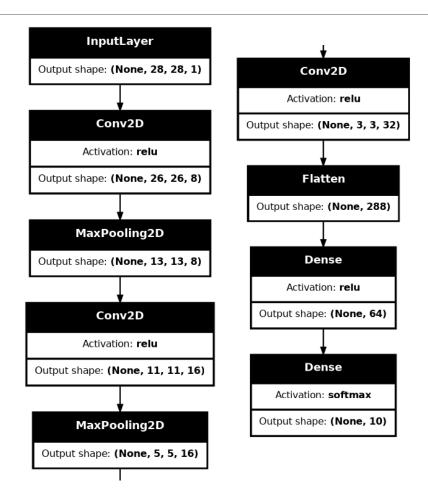
In general

- Training loss and accuracy will continue improving as we keep training
- Validation loss and accuracy will improve with the training loss and accuracy up to some point
- Beyond this point, the network will begin to overfit
- If we train for too long, performance may decline on the validation set
 - This is bad, we'd like to stop training before this happens
- In our case, around 10 epochs is a good spot to stop training
 - Validation accuracy and loss have stopped improving at this point



My First CNN

- Image shaped input
 - o 28 x 28 x 1
- Three 2D convolution layers
 - Max-pooling after first two
 - Reduce size of representation
 - Keep only the most important features
 - More filters as we go deeper
 - Learn simple filters on the raw image
 - Learn more complex filters over earlier outputs
 - Convolution output width and height are **not** the same as our input width and height
 - Boundary effects, we have no padding, so can't convolve at the image edges
 - Can change this as a layer parameter if we wish
- Two dense layers
 - Final layer for classification
 - Same final output structure as earlier network



My First CNN

- 25,000 parameters
 - ~1/8th our first network
- Convolution layers are usually more efficient in terms of parameters than fully connected layers
 - 75% of our parameters are in the dense layers
- But convolution layers are more computationally intensive
 - This network will be slower to train

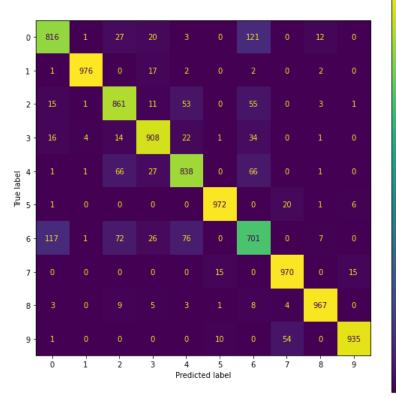
Model: "fashion_mnist_cnn_model"

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
img (InputLayer)	[(None, 28, 28, 1)]	0
conv2d (Conv2D)	(None, 26, 26, 8)	80
max_pooling2d (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 13, 13, 8)	0
conv2d_1 (Conv2D)	(None, 11, 11, 16)	1168
max_pooling2d_1 (MaxPooling2	(None, 5, 5, 16)	0
conv2d_2 (Conv2D)	(None, 3, 3, 32)	4640
flatten (Flatten)	(None, 288)	0
dense_3 (Dense)	(None, 64)	18496
dense_4 (Dense)	(None, 10)	650

Total params: 25,034 Trainable params: 25,034 Non-trainable params: 0

CNN Performance

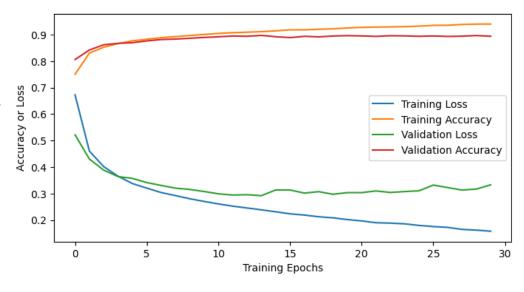
- 89.4 % accuracy on testing set
 - Small improvement over dense network
 - The dense network was already quite good
 - As we get closer to perfect, it becomes harder and harder to find gains



- 800

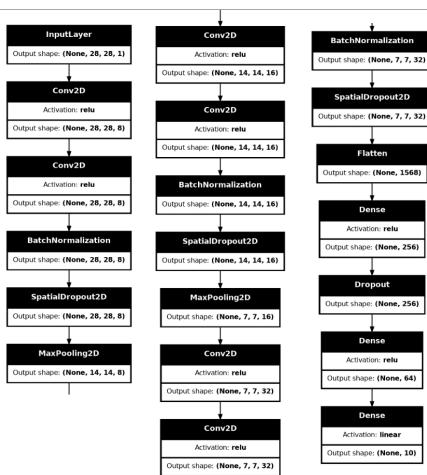
CNN Training Results

- Same shaped curves that we saw before, and the same overall performance characteristics are observed
 - Training and validation results initially improve together
 - Training results continue to improve the longer we train
 - Validation results flatten out after a while and network starts to overfit
- Network takes ~15 epochs to train
 - Point at which validation performance flattens out
 - Slightly slower than our fully connected network



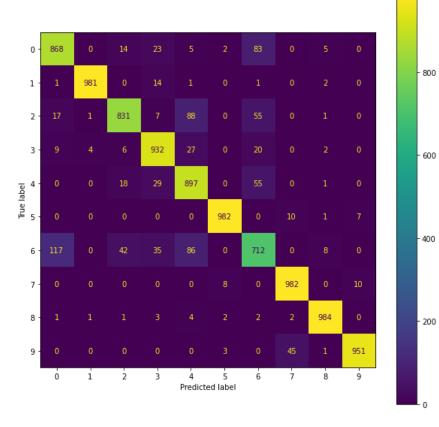
Making it Bigger

- 6 Convolution layers
 - Stacked in pairs
- 3 Dense layers
- 437,026 parameters
- Same input and output as earlier CNN
 - Just more stuff in the middle



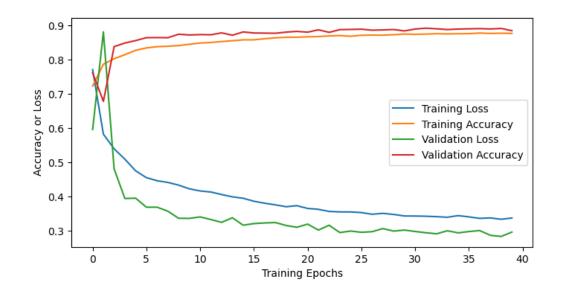
Bigger CNN Performance

- 91.2% Accuracy
- Training time has greatly increased
 - 3-4 times our earlier CNN



CNN Training Results

- Again similar, but with a twist
 - Validation accuracy and loss are ahead of training
 - Due to the dropout layer
 - More on this later
- Other broad trends still visible
 - Performance improves fast at first, then slows
 - Training continues to improve while validation tapers off
- Networks take a little longer again to train
 - Validation performance converges at around 30 epochs
 - Due to increase in complexity



Network Size and Accuracy and CAB420

- To a point, larger more complex networks will give better performance, however
 - Gains decrease as networks grow
 - Larger network take longer to train, and require more memory
 - Larger networks need more data and are more likely to overfit
 - We can go too deep and break things
- In CAB420, we are not expecting you to train models for hours at a time
- When playing with networks
 - Start small
 - Accept that you will not get state of the art performance
 - Consider using services such as the QUT hosted Jupyter Notebook, or Google Colab to access
 GPUs if you don't have one

CAB420: Regression with Deep Nets

A LOT LIKE CLASSIFICATION WITH DEEP NETS

Regression with Deep Nets

- As simple as changing our output layer
 - For classification, we have a "softmax" output
 - 0 or 1 (or somewhere in between) to indicate classification certainty
 - For regression, we want a continuous output (usually)
 - ReLu (or similar) activation
 - And a regression target to learn against
 - Can regress to multiple outputs
- Other than that, the networks are pretty similar

Regression Losses

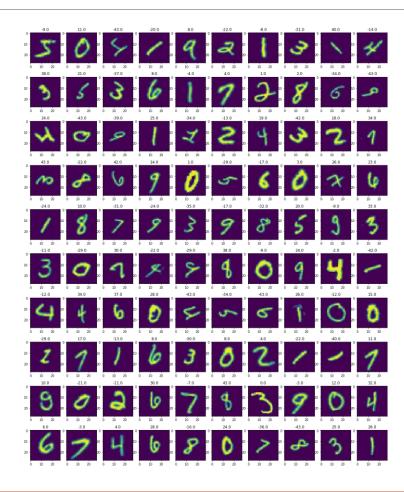
Usually, we'll use something like Mean Squared Error

$$MSE = \sum_{i}^{N} (y_i' - y_i)^2$$

- Other times we may wish to use Mean Absolute Error, or other distance measures depending on the problem and data
 - You can see a list of existing losses within tensorflow/keras here: https://keras.io/api/losses/

Regression Example

- See CAB420_DCNNs_Example_2_Re gression_with_Deep_Learning.ipynb
- Data
 - Rotated digits, digits have been randomly rotated by [-45 ... +45] degrees
- Task
 - Estimate the amount of rotation a digit has undergone
 - Single output, regressing from an input to one number



The Network

- Almost identical to "My First CNN"
 - CNN architectures are very adaptable
- One change
 - Our final dense layer is now size 1
- We also change our loss
 - MSE rather than categorical cross entropy
 - Could also use MAE (mean absolute error), or other regression loss

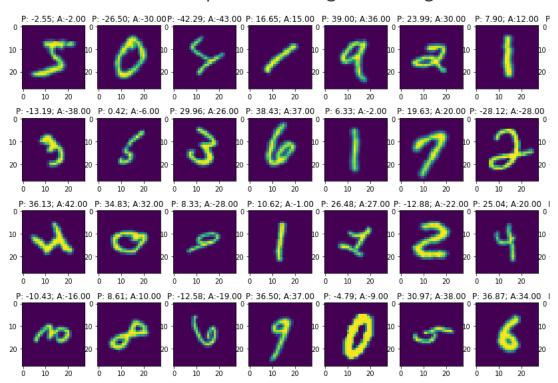
Model: "mnist angles cnn model"

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
img (InputLayer)	[(None, 28, 28, 1)]	0
conv2d (Conv2D)	(None, 26, 26, 8)	80
max_pooling2d (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 13, 13, 8)	0
conv2d_1 (Conv2D)	(None, 11, 11, 16)	1168
max_pooling2d_1 (MaxPooling2	(None, 5, 5, 16)	0
conv2d_2 (Conv2D)	(None, 3, 3, 32)	4640
flatten (Flatten)	(None, 288)	0
dense (Dense)	(None, 64)	18496
dense_1 (Dense)	(None, 1)	65

Total params: 24,449 Trainable params: 24,449 Non-trainable params: 0

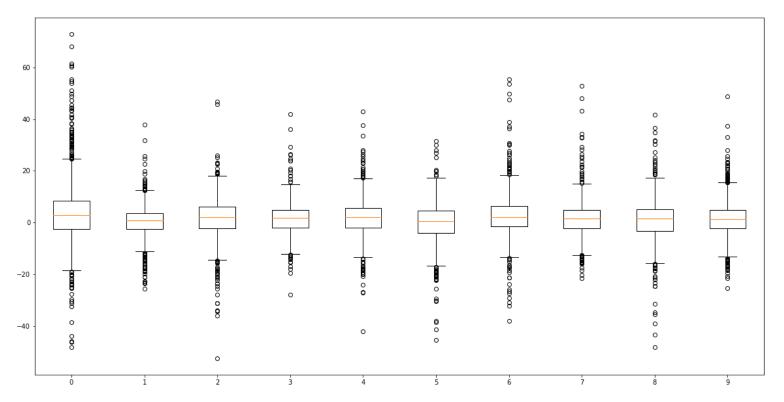
Results

- Model is fairly accurate
 - · Can estimate rotation for all digits
- Network has no explicit knowledge of the digits



Results

- Network finds 0 the hardest to correct
 - Performance broadly similar for all digits though



CAB420: What is Learned?

PARAMETERS, LOTS OF PARAMETERS

DCNNs as a "Black Box"

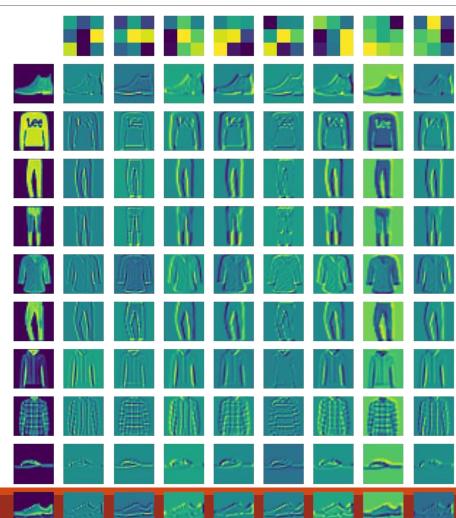
- You will often see DCNNs and Deep Learning models referred to as a "Black Box"
 - Based on the idea that such models are hard to (or even impossible to) understand or interpret
- Consider a linear regressor
 - Learned parameters are the values of β
 - \circ β define the importance and direction of influence for each variable
- For a DCNN the "meaning" of the learned parameters is less obvious
 - We can still access them all, but there are many, many more of them, which is really the problem
 - But we can access and visualize parameters if we wish
 - See CAB420 DCNNs Additional Example 3 What Does the Network Learn.ipynb

Dense Layers

- For a dense layer we have:
 - An input vector, x, of length M
 - An output vector, y, of length N
- The dense layer learns
 - y = wx + b
 - where w is a matrix of size $M \times N$, and b is a bias vector of size N
- The dense layer operation can be decomposed as follows:
 - y[0] = w[:, 0]x + b[0]
 - y[1] = w[:,1]x + b[1]
 - 0
 - y[N-1] = w[:, N-1]x + b[N-1]
- Each of the above lines is a single linear regressor
 - The values in w simply indicate the strength and direction of influence

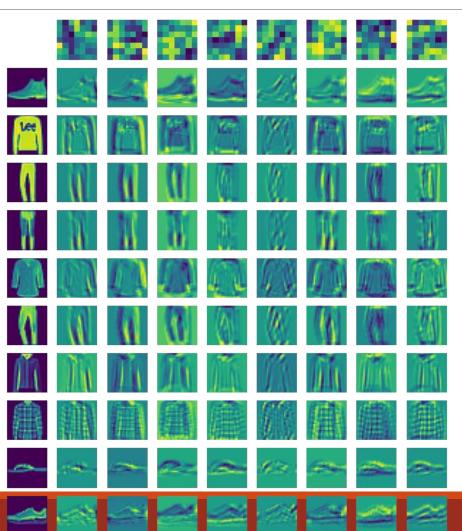
Convolution Layers

- Convolution layers learn a set of filters
 - We can visualise the filters, and their output (response)
- Left column: Input images
- Top row: Learned 3x3 filters
 - First convolutional layer
- The rest: Responses to filters
 - Notes that each image has been scaled independently
- Filters focus on edges
 - Different filters capture different edges
- Filters are unique
 - But limited 3x3 patterns are possible



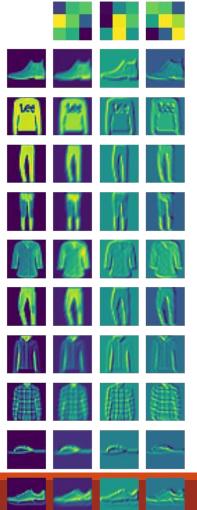
Larger Convolution Filters

- Same setup as before, but with 7x7 filters
 - More complex filters leads to more complex response maps
 - Larger filters consider a larger area of the input image
- Many more possible 7x7 patterns than 3x3



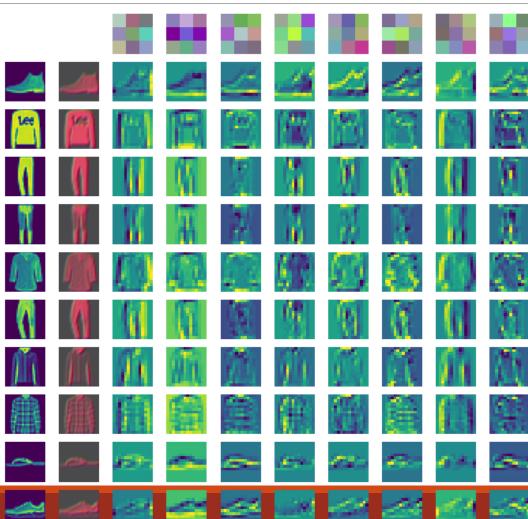
Stacking Convolution Filters

- Two convolution layers
- First layer has three 3x3 filters
 - Response maps similar to what we saw before, just less of them
 - Detecting edges in different orientations



Stacking Convolution Filters

- Left column: Input Images
- 2nd column from left: Output of first layer
- Second layer has 8 3x3 filters
- Second layer's input is the stacked responses from the first layer
 - First layer has three filters, first layer output is a three channel image
 - Second layer learns 3x3x3 filters
 - There is also a max-pooling between the two layers
- Filter responses much more complex than first layer
 - Similar in complexity to 7x7 filters
 - Filters are looking for interactions between outputs of the first layer



Interpreting DCNNs

- The challenge is not that we can't get to the parameters, it's that there's so many of them
- In practice
 - We will rarely, if ever, visualise learned weights (i.e. the filter kernels)
 - We will look at intermediate outputs at times
 - Visualise filter responses to understand what the network is looking at
 - We use other techniques to understand what a network is looking at
 - Class Activation Maps (CAM) and Gradient-weighted Class Activation Maps (Grad-CAM)
 - Indicate what regions of image contribute to the score for a class
 - Shapely Values
 - Indicate the contribution of each input dimension to a decision
 - Neural Conductance
 - Captures information flow through the neural network
 - And many, many, more
- Interpreting DCNNs is outside the scope of CAB420, but it's important to be aware that these methods exist
 - But if you are interested, see the bonus examples

CAB420: Training Your Network

CAUSE WE KIND OF IGNORED THAT BEFORE

Back Propagation and Gradient Descent

- Neural Networks are trained using Back Propagation and Gradient Descent
 - Change the weight and bias terms using gradient descent
 - Can have problems when
 - Gradients becomes very small (vanishing gradients)
 - Gradients become very big (exploding gradients
 - Partial derivatives are used to update parameters
 - Becomes very complex, for large networks
 - Occurs behind the scenes in CAB420
 - Back propagation is a crucial component of neural networks that allows for optimisation of the cost function.
 - Gradient descent allows us to approach an optimal solution over a number of iterations

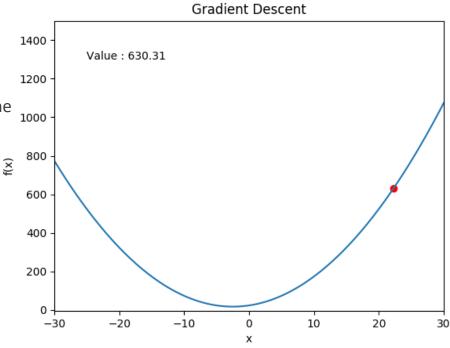
Gradient Descent

ROLLING BALLS DOWN HILLS

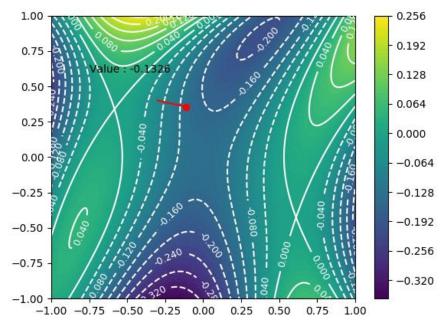
Optimisation

- Usually in machine learning we can't directly determine a model's parameters
 - i.e. we can't directly determine model coefficients
- In such cases we can use an iterative approach:
 - Make an initial estimate
 - Evaluate that estimate
 - Update the estimate and evaluate again
 - Repeat until either
 - The estimate stops changing (or only changes slightly)
 - A maximum number of steps is reached

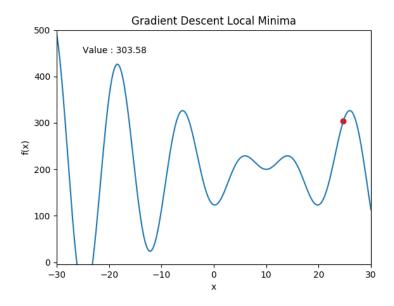
- One of the most popular optimisers is Gradient Descent
 - Start at some estimate
 - Evaluate the gradient
 - Move in a direction that minimises the gradient



- Scales to an arbitrary number of dimensions
 - Uses partial derivatives to determine gradients

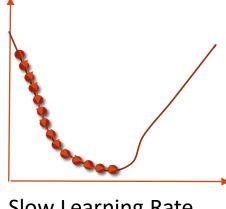


- Sensitive to starting conditions
 - Can get stuck in local minima rather than finding global minima

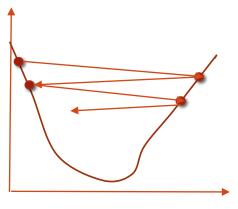


- Learning rate is important
 - How much do you change the model each step?
- Too slow
 - Takes a long time to get to a solution
 - More prone to getting stuck in local minima
- Too big
 - Can "jump over" the best solution





Slow Learning Rate



Fast Learning Rate

Training DCNNs

BY ROLLING BALLS DOWN HILLS

Terminology

- Epoch
 - One complete pass through the data
 - After one epoch, the network has seen all examples
- Batch
 - One update of the networks, based on a small sample of data
- Optimiser
 - Gradient descent approach that we use to train
- Learning Rate
 - How fast we allow the model parameters to update

Why not train on all data at once?

- Consider Fashion MNIST, we have
 - 28x28x50,000 = 39,200,000 pixels
 - That's a lot to process at once
 - And this is a "toy" dataset
- For most tasks, parsing all data at once is not practical
 - Hence, batches
- A batch is a smallish collection of inputs
 - Usually somewhere between 1-256 depending on
 - How much data you have
 - How big the network is
 - How much money you spent on hardware (or how much you can fit in memory)

Batch Size vs Epochs

- A small batch size means
 - More updates per epoch
 - Can train the network in fewer epochs because you have more updates
 - But....
 - Each batch is less representative of the overall data shape
 - Can lead to a poor fit depending on how imbalanced data is

Impacts of Batch Size

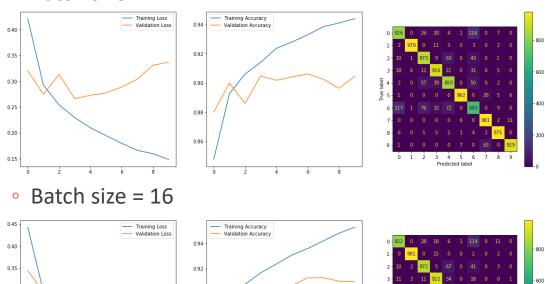
- See CAB420_DCNNs_Additional_Example_4_Training_Parameters.ipynb
- Batch size = 4

0.30

0.25 -

0.20 -

0.15



0.90

0.88

0.86

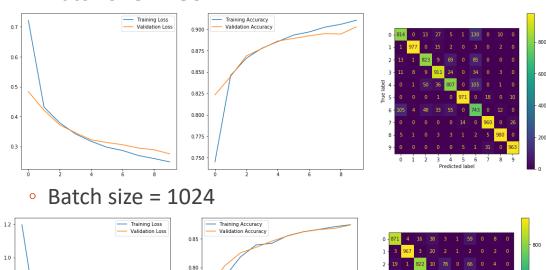
Impacts of Batch Size

• Batch size = 256

0.8

0.6

0.4 -



0.75

0.70

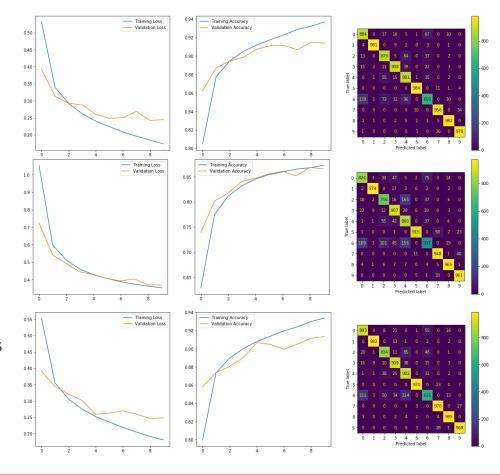
- Larger batch size leads to
 - Smoother training
 - Slower convergence (in terms of epochs)
 - Higher memory requirements

Optimisers

- All based on gradient descent to train via backpropagation
 - Propagate gradients back up the network to adjust weights
- Many options exist
 - There is no real "standard" optimiser
 - Adam is the closest thing to a default
 - Differences between optimisers are often small (see https://arxiv.org/abs/2007.01547), and the variation in performance for a single optimiser is often larger than the difference between optimisers
 - Some tasks or networks will work better a given optimiser
 - This is not consistent however

Optimisers

- Three training runs
 - RMSProp (Top)
 - SGD (Middle)
 - Adam (Bottom)
- SGD slower to learn
- All achieve similar performance
 - Our model and data are not complex and so similar performance is achieved for all
 - If you re-run this, you will see some variation. Maybe SDG will be a bit quicker next time.
 - You will likely see minimal variation in CAB420 with regards to optimiser choice
 - If in doubt, use Adam

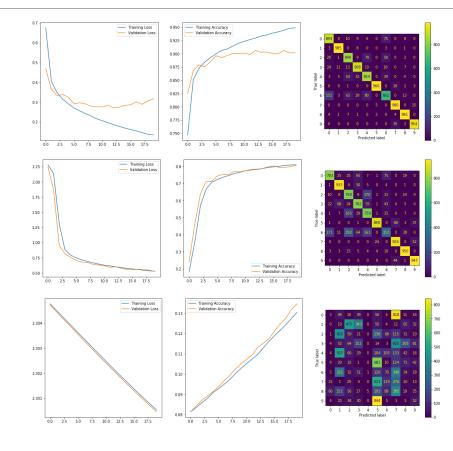


Learning Rate

- Bigger number -> Faster Learning
- Faster learning can be good early
 - You're a long way from a solution
- Slower learning is better once you have a good estimate
 - With fast learning, the danger is you "overshoot" the solution
- A good practice is to use a learning rate schedule
 - For example, start fast, drop by a factor of 10 every 10 epochs

Learning Rate

- Fast (0.1)
 - Converged after ~8 epochs
- Slow (0.001)
 - Almost converged after 20 epochs
- Glacial (0.00001)
 - Nowhere near convergence after 20 epochs



Avoiding Overfitting

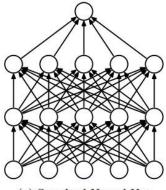
AND OTHER TRICKS AND HACKS

Overfitting with DeepNets

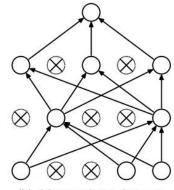
- It's really easy to overfit
 - Potentially millions of parameters
 - Almost always have more parameters than samples
- Two possible approaches
 - Modify the network to reduce overfitting chance
 - Get more data
 - Or make it up

Drop Out

- Randomly disconnect a portion of neurons each pass through the network
- Why?
 - Means we never learn on the whole network at once
 - Reduces overfitting
 - But slows training
- Can be applied at different levels
 - At neurons
 - At Convolutional Filters
 - Spatial Dropout, drops a percentage of whole filters



(a) Standard Neural Net



(b) After applying dropout.

Batch Normalisation

- Neural networks propagate information from one layer to the next
 - Layer N takes results of Layer N-1 as input
 - And N-1 takes results of N-2, and so on
 - What if the range of values coming from N-1 keeps changing?
 - This tends to happen a lot during the early stages of training
- Batch Normalisation helps address this
 - Improves training speed
 - Reduces overfitting

Batch Normalisation

- Batch normalisation normalises the output of a batch at a designated point in the network
 - By default, 0 mean and unit std.dev
 - But can learn a different mean and std.dev
- Why?
 - If we perform batch norm after layer N-1, we now know that the input to Layer N will have 0 mean and unit std.dev
 - Makes it easier to learn layer N as the layer will always get data in the same range
 - Essentially provides a model checkpoint

Batch Normalisation

- Layer placement impacts performance
 - Generally, place before an activation
 - BatchNorm will standardise outputs around a learned mean
 - If placed after an activation, outputs have been altered by the activation
 - Placing before an activation makes it easier to consider the impact of the proceeding layer
- Not needed after every layer
 - Consider adding after repeating blocks
 - i.e. after pairs of convolutions
 - Experiment with placement

Weight Regularisation

- Neural networks have lots of weights
 - Big weights can indicate overfitting
 - Much like Ridge regression, we'd prefer smaller weights
- Weight Regularisation applies a penalty to the network based on the total sum of the weights
 - Can be L2 (like Ridge regression)
 - Or L1 (like Lasso)
 - Or a combination
- In Keras/Tensorflow
 - Specified per layer on any (or all) of
 - Weights (kernal)
 - Bias
 - Activation
 - Flexible in terms of regulariser (L1, L2, L1 and L2, custom) used
 - Off on all layers by default

Demo Script

- See CAB420_DCNNs_Additional_Example_4_Layer_Order_and_Overfitting.ipynb
 - Explore in your own time
 - Don't feel you need to understand everything immediately
 - Play with the options in here over time
 - Feel free to ask questions, and try things out in different examples

DCNNs and Variation

YMMV

Network Initialisation, Training and Randomness

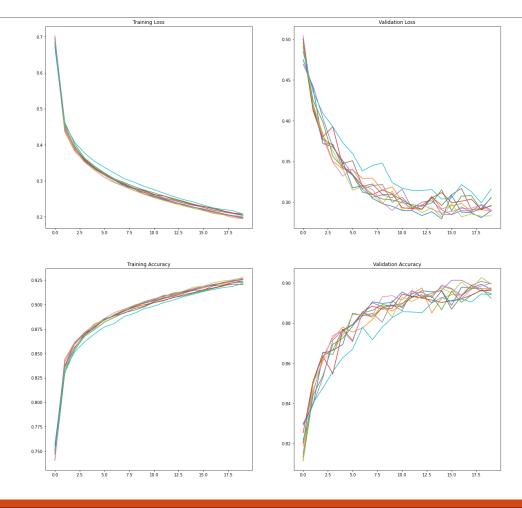
- There is lots of randomisation in a neural network training process
 - Network parameters (weights and biases) are randomly initialised
 - Data is randomly shuffled after each epoch
 - Training and validation splits may be random
- Unless controlled for, no two training runs are exactly the same
 - If you're training to convergence (or close to), they will be similar
- This is why you may have noticed variation between what's in the Git repository, and what's in some slides

An Experiment

- See CAB420_DCNNs_Additional_Example_5_Variation.ipynb
- 10 identical simple CNNs
- All trained on Fashion MNIST for the same length of time
- Same batch size, same optimiser
- Seek to see what sort of variation is observed in the models

10 Models

- Results are all similar
 - But there is variation
- More variation in validation performance than testing performance
- A note on convergence
 - Validation loss and accuracy curves have flattened out in these plots
 - Training much beyond the 20 epochs leads to overfitting
 - Training accuracy will continue to improve towards 100% if training continues



Differences in Predictions

- Let's consider some misclassified examples
 - Examples are misclassified by the first model
 - Report results for all models and the ground truth
- Different models (sometimes) make different decisions
 - Models can vary in that some may be right and wrong
 - Others may have different wrong answers
 - Even when all models make the same prediction, the SoftMax value varies

```
Index 17; True Class: 4
             Model 1, Predicted class 6 (0.708114)
             Model 2, Predicted class 4 (0.970968)
             Model 3, Predicted class 2 (0.649878)
             Model 4, Predicted class 2 (0.569351)
             Model 5, Predicted class 6 (0.894694)
             Model 6, Predicted class 4 (0.583097)
             Model 7, Predicted class 4 (0.917198)
             Model 8, Predicted class 4 (0.984307)
             Model 9, Predicted class 4 (0.945560)
             Model 10, Predicted class 2 (0.624152)
             Average Model, Predicted class 4 (0.506741)
Index 23; True Class: 9
             Model 1, Predicted class 5 (0.999711)
             Model 2, Predicted class 5 (0.999991)
             Model 3, Predicted class 5 (0.999992)
             Model 4, Predicted class 5 (0.998271)
             Model 5, Predicted class 5 (1.000000)
             Model 6, Predicted class 5 (1.000000)
             Model 7, Predicted class 5 (0.999940)
             Model 8, Predicted class 5 (0.840722)
             Model 9, Predicted class 5 (0.999996)
             Model 10, Predicted class 5 (0.999162)
             Average Model, Predicted class 5 (0.983778)
```

Averaging Models

- We can create an *ensemble* of models
 - Average the results of a set of identical models
 - "The wisdom of the crowds" for deep nets
 - Similar to Random Forests
 - Though each "tree" is a bit more complex
- Original models all perform at around 89% accuracy
 - Model 1 achieves 89.45%
- Ensemble achieves 91.53%
 - Small, but noticeable gain
- Is this worth it?
 - 2% performance gain for 10x the compute
 - However we see diminishing returns as we increase complexity anyway. Is this much worse?
 - This has the added benefit of giving us a way to measure confidence
 - This is otherwise difficult with deep networks

