

Artificial Intelligence II: Deep learning methods

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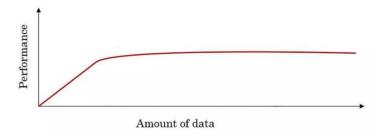
- Why Deep Learning?
- Convex Optimization Recap
- What is a neural network?
- 4 Linear Neural Networks
- Gradient descent

Why Deep Learning? ●000

Why Deep Learning?

The rise of Deep Learning

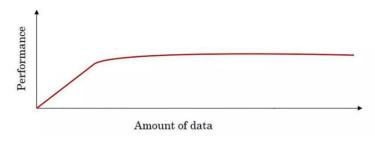
- If the basic technical idea behind deep learning neural networks has been around for decades, why are they only taking off now?
- If we plot the performance of traditional algorithms such as SVM or Logistic Regression as function of the amount of data, we will get the following curve:



The rise of Deep Learning

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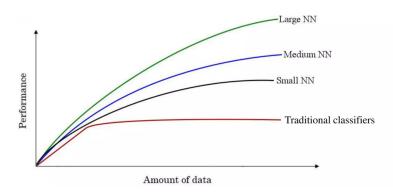
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The rise of deep learning

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• How to overcome performance plateau problem?



Why is Deep Learning working now

- Over the last 20 years we accumulated more data for applications than traditional learning algorithms were able to effectively take advantage of
- GPU (speed of processing) + Data
- Theoretical understandings of the difficulty of training deep networks (from 2006)

Libraries allow to easily implement/test/deploy neural networks :

- Torch (Lua) / PyTorch (Python/C++), Caffe(C++/Python), Caffe2 (RIP 2018)
- Microsoft CNTK
- Google Tensorflow / Keras
- Theano/Lasagne (Python, RIP 2017)
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Convex Optimization Recap

The Cauchy-Schwarz inequality

Let $\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d$. The Cauchy-Schwartz inequality reads:

$$\mid \mathbf{u}^{\top} \mathbf{v} \mid \leq \mid \mid \mathbf{u} \mid \mid \mid \mid \mathbf{v} \mid \mid$$
.

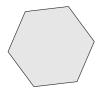
Some notations

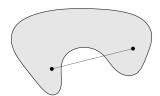
- $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_d)^{\top}$, $v = (v_1, \dots, v_d)^{\top}$ d-dimensional column vectors with real entries.
- $oldsymbol{\circ} \mathbf{u}^{\top}$, transpose of \mathbf{u} , a d-dimensional row vector
- $\mathbf{u}^{\top}\mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^{d} u_i v_i$, scalar (or inner) product of \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} .
- ullet $|\mathbf{u}^{ op}\mathbf{v}|$, absolute value of $\mathbf{u}^{ op}\mathbf{v}$
- $\bullet \mid\mid \mathbf{u}\mid\mid = \sqrt{\mathbf{u}^{\top}\mathbf{u}} = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{d}u_{i}^{2}}$, Euclidean (ℓ_{2}) norm of \mathbf{u} .

Convex Sets

A set C is **convex** if the line segment between any two points from C lies in C, i.e. for any $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} \in C$ and any $\lambda \in [0,1]$, we have:

$$\lambda \mathbf{x} + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{y} \in C$$







*Figure 2.2 from S. Boyd, L. Vandenberghe

- Let $(C_i)_{i\in I}$ be convex sets, where I is a (possibly infinite) index set. Then $\cap_{i\in I}C_i$ is a convex set.
- Projections onto nonempty closed convex sets are unique, and ususally efficient to compute

$$\mathsf{P}_C(\mathbf{x}) := \mathsf{argmin}_{y \in C} ||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{x}||$$

Convex functions

Definition: A function $f: \mathbb{R}^d \mapsto]-\infty, +\infty]$ is **convex** if:

- **dom** $(f) = \{x \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid f(x) < +\infty\} \text{ is a convex set; }$



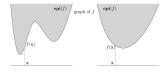
Convex functions and sets

ullet The **graph** of a function $f:\mathbb{R}^d\mapsto\mathbb{R}$ is defined as

$$\{(\mathbf{x}, f(\mathbf{x})) \mid \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{dom}(f)\}$$

ullet The **epigraph** of a function $f:\mathbb{R}^d\mapsto\mathbb{R}$ is defined as

$$\mathbf{epi}(f) := \{ (\mathbf{x}, \alpha) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R} | \mathbf{x} \in \mathbf{dom}(f), \alpha \ge f(\mathbf{x}) \}$$



A function is convex iff its epigraph is a convex set.

Examples of convex functions: $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $b \in \mathbb{R}$

- ullet Linear functions : $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{u}^{\top} \mathbf{x}$
- Affine functions : $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{u}^{\top} \mathbf{x} + b$ Question: Is norm $||\mathbf{x}||$ convex?
- Exponentials : $f(\mathbf{x}) = e^{\alpha \mathbf{x}}$

Convex Optimization Problems have the following form:

min
$$f(\mathbf{x})$$
 s.t. $\mathbf{x} \in C$,

where

- f is a convex function
- C is a convex set

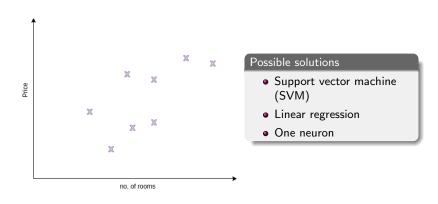
Properties:

- Every local minimizer is a global minimizer.
- For convex optimization problems, assuming f differentiable, all properly designed algorithms (Gradient Descent, Stochastic Gradient Descent, Projected and Proximal Gradient Descent) do converge to a global minimizer (which is not necessarily unique)!

What is a neural network?

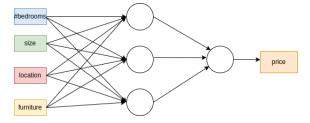
Housing price prediction – binary case

Problem: we want to predict the price of a house based on the number of rooms.



Housing price prediction – complex case

- The previous scenario was not realistic.
- Usually, there are many more factors we should take into consideration

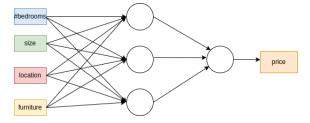


Observations

- A neural network can combine all this information
- Each factor can influence differently the final decision

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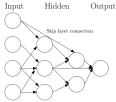
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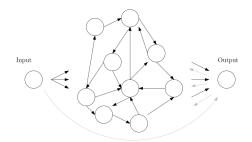
Definition

A neural network is a directed graph:

- nodes : computational units
- edges : weighted connections



Feedforward NN



Recurrent NN

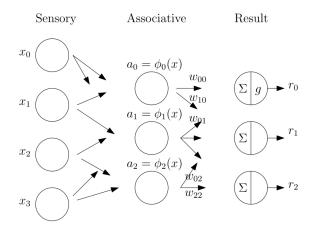
There are two possible types of graphs

- no cycle : feedforward neural network
- with at least one cycle : recurrent neural networks

Linear Neural Networks

The Perceptron (ROSENBLATT, 1958)

- Classification problem: given the pair $(x,y) \in \mathbb{R}^n \times \{-1,1\}$
- Sensory Associative Response architecture, $\phi_j(x)$ with $\phi_0(x)=1$
- The algorithm also has a geometrical interpretation



SAR Architecture

The classifier

Given fixed, predefined feature functions ϕ_i with $\phi_0(x) = 1, \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n$, the perceptron classifies the input x as:

$$y = g(w^{\top} \Phi(x)) \tag{1}$$

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$$g(x) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } x < 0 \\ +1 & \text{if } x \ge 0, \end{cases}$$
 (2)

with
$$\Phi(x) \in \mathbb{R}^{n_a+1}$$
, $\phi(x) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ \phi_1(x) \\ \phi_2(x) \\ \vdots \end{bmatrix}$.

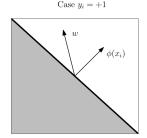
Training algorithm

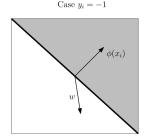
Given $(x_i, y_i), y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$ the perceptron learning rule operates as follows:

$$w \leftarrow \begin{cases} w & \text{if the input is correctly classified} \\ w + \phi(x_i) & \text{if the input is incorrectly classified as} - 1 \\ w - \phi(x_i) & \text{if the input is incorrectly classified as} + 1 \end{cases} \tag{3}$$

Correct classification – geometrical interpretation

- Decision rule : $y = g(w^{\top}\Phi(x))$
- $\bullet \text{ Algorithm}: w \leftarrow \begin{cases} w & \text{if the input is correctly classified} \\ w + \phi(x_i) & \text{if the input is incorrectly classified as} 1 \\ w \phi(x_i) & \text{if the input is incorrectly classified as} + 1 \end{cases}$





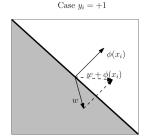
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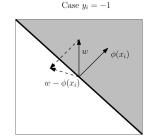
Correctly classified samples, as +1 and as -1

Incorrect classification – geometrical interpretation

• Decision rule : $y = g(w^{\top}\Phi(x))$

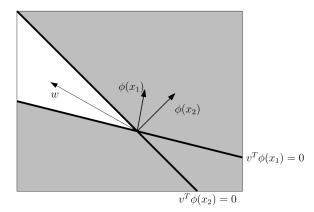
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Incorrectly classified samples, $+1 \rightarrow -1$ and $-1 \rightarrow +1$

- Decision rule : $y = g(w^{\top}\Phi(x))$
- Cone of feasibility: The intersection of the valid halfspaces (it may be empty)
- We consider two samples x_1, x_2 and $y_1 = +1, y_2 = -1$



The cone of feasibility for $y_1 = +1$ and $y_2 = -1$

Towards a canonical learning rule – **delta rule**

Given $(x_i, y_i), y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$ the perceptron learning rule operates as follows:

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$$w \leftarrow \begin{cases} w & \text{if } g(w^{\top}\phi(x_i)) = y_i \\ w + \phi(x_i) & \text{if } g(w^{\top}\phi(x_i)) = -1 \text{ and } y_i = +1 \\ w - \phi(x_i) & \text{if } g(w^{\top}\phi(x_i)) = +1 \text{ and } y_i = -1 \end{cases}$$
 (5)

$$w \leftarrow \begin{cases} w & \text{if } g(w^{\top}\phi(x_i)) = y_i \\ w + y_i\phi(x_i) & \text{if } g(w^{\top}\phi(x_i)) \neq y_i \end{cases}$$
 (6)

$$w = w + \frac{1}{2}(y_i - \hat{y}_i)\phi(x_i), \tag{7}$$

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with $\hat{y}_i = q(w^\top \phi(x_i))$. This is called the **Delta Rule**.

Convergence theorem

Definition

A binary classification problem $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \{-1, 1\}$ and $i \in [1 \dots N]$ is linearly separable if $\exists w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that

$$\forall i \quad \mathsf{sign}(w^{\top} x_i) = y_i, \tag{8}$$

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$$\forall i \quad \mathsf{sign}(w^{\top} x_i) = y_i, \tag{8}$$

Theorem (Perception convergence theorem)

A binary classification problem $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \{-1, 1\}$ and $i \in [1 \dots N]$ is linearly separable *iff* perceptron learning rule converges to an optimal solution in a finite number of steps.

Proof: \Leftarrow : easy; \Rightarrow : we upper/lower bound $\|w_t\|_2^2$, where t is the index of the current iteration

Observations

- $w_t = w_0 + \sum_{i \in S_t} y_i \phi(x_i)$, with S_t the set of misclassified samples.
- The cost function to be minimised is: $J(w) = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i} \max(0, -y_i w^{\top} \phi(x_i))$
- The solution:

$$w_t = w_0 + \sum_i \frac{1}{2} (y_i - \hat{y}_i) \phi(x_i),$$

where $(y_i - \hat{y}_i)$ is called the **prediction error**.

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ADALINE

- Introduced by Widrow & Hoff in 1962.
- Let us consider the linear regression problem analytically.

Problem: Given $(x_i, y_i), x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}, y_i \in \mathbb{R}$, minimize

$$J(w) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i} ||y_i - w^{\top} x_i||^2.$$

Here-above we assume that $\forall i \quad x_i[0] = 1$ and w[0] accounts for the bias term, $n \in \mathbb{N}^*$ is the input dimension, while $N \in \mathbb{N}^*$ is the total number of samples. Analytically, we can vectorize the expression: Assume $\mathbf{X} = [x_0 | x_1 | \dots]$, then $J(w) = || y - \mathbf{X}^{\top} w ||^2$.

$$\nabla_w J(w) = 0 \Leftrightarrow -2(y - \mathbf{X}^\top w)^\top \mathbf{X}^\top = 0 \Rightarrow \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^\top w = \mathbf{X} \mathbf{y}$$

- \bullet $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top}$ non-singular : $w = (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top})^{-1}\mathbf{X}u$
- ullet $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{ op}$ singular (e.g. points along a line in 2D) o infinite no. solutions Use regularized least square method to solve the problem:

$$min \quad G(w) = J(w) + \alpha w^{\top} w$$

$$\Box \nabla_w G(w) = 0 \Rightarrow (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top + \alpha I_d)w = \mathbf{X}y$$

\Boxed \text{if } \alpha \in (0, +\infty)[\Rightarrow (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\T + \alpha I_d) \text{ is non-singular}

Observation: We need to compute XX^{\top} over the whole training set!

Problem: Given $(x_i, y_i), x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}, y_i \in \mathbb{R}$, minimize

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Algorithm 1: Stochastic Gradient Descent Algorithm

```
Output: Trained weights w 1 Initialize w_0 randomly; 2 for t=1 to T do 3 | for i=1 to N do 4 | \hat{y}_i \leftarrow w_t^\top x_i; 5 | w_t \leftarrow w_{t-1} - \epsilon \nabla_w J(w_{t-1}) = w_{t-1} + \epsilon (y_i - \hat{y}_i) x_i; 6 | endfor 7 endfor
```

where $\epsilon \in]0, \infty[$ is the learning rate.

Gradient descent

Batch Gradient Descent

The cost function to be minimized is

$$J(w, x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(w, x_i, y_i),$$

where \mathcal{L} is the loss function, e.g. $\mathcal{L}(w, x_i, y_i) = ||y_i - w^\top x_i||^2$

Batch gradient descent

- compute the gradient of the cost J(w) over the whole training set
- performs one step in direction of $-\nabla_w J(w,x,y)$, so the update rule becomes:

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - \epsilon_t \nabla_w J(w, x, y)$$

Algorithm 2: Batch Gradient Descent Algorithm

Output: Trained weights w

- 1 Initialize w_0 randomly;
- 2 for t=1 to T do
- Compute gradient $\nabla_w J(w_t; x, y)$ using the entire dataset;
- Update $w_{t+1} \leftarrow w_t \epsilon \nabla_w J(w_t; x, y)$;
- endfor

Stochastic Gradient Descent

The cost function to be minimized is

$$J(w, x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(w, x_i, y_i),$$

where \mathcal{L} is the loss function, e.g. $\mathcal{L}(w, x_i, y_i) = ||y_i - w^\top x_i||^2$ Stochastic gradient descent (SGD)

- one sample at a time, noisy estimate of $\nabla_w J$
- performs one step in direction of $-\nabla_w \mathcal{L}(w, x_i, y_i)$

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - \epsilon_t \nabla_w \mathcal{L}(w, x, y)$$

converges faster than gradient descent

Minibatch gradient descent

The cost function to be minimized is

$$J(w, x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(w, x_i, y_i),$$

Minibatch gradient descent

- ullet noisy estimate of the true gradient with M samples, with M being the minibatch size
- randomize \mathcal{I} with $|\mathcal{I}| = M$, one set at a time

$$w_{t+1} = w_t - \epsilon_t \frac{1}{M} \sum_{j \in \mathcal{I}} \nabla_w \mathcal{L}(w, x_j, y_j)$$

- creates a smoother estimate than SGD
- great for parallel architectures (GPU)

Observation: if the batch size is too large, there is a generalization gap.

Why use gradient descent?

Convexity

A function $f: \mathbb{R}^n \leftarrow \mathbb{R}$ is convex :

- ② with f twice diff., $\iff \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, \mathbf{H} = \nabla^2 f(x)$ is positive semidefinite, i.e. $\forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n, x^\top \mathbf{H} x \geq 0$.

Observations

- ullet For a convex function f, all local minima are global minima
- Under mild conditions gradient descent and stochastic gradient descent converge
- ullet Typically, $\sum \epsilon_t = \infty$ and $\sum \epsilon_t^2 \leq \infty$

Problem: Given $(x_i, y_i), x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}, y_i \in \mathbb{R}$

- We assume that x[0] = 1 to encompass the bias term.
- We have a linear model : $\hat{y} = w^{\top} x$
- We consider ℓ_2 loss : $\mathcal{L}(\hat{y}, y) = ||\hat{y} y||^2$.
- Solve using gradient descent

$$\nabla_w \mathcal{L}(w, x_i, y_i) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \hat{y}} \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial w} = -(y_i - \hat{y}_i) x_i$$

Observations

- Other choices for the loss function may also be considered, e.g. Huber loss. MAE. MSE ...
- We can also include a regularization term (we'll discuss this later).
- Linear regression with ℓ_2 loss is convex:

$$\mathcal{L}(w) = \frac{1}{2} (w^{\top} x_i - y_i)^2$$

$$\nabla_w \mathcal{L} = (w^{\top} x_i - y_i) x_i$$

$$\nabla_w^2 \mathcal{L} = x_i x_i^{\top} \quad \forall x \in \mathbb{R}^n x^{\top} x_i x_i^{\top} x = (x_i^{\top} x)^2 \ge 0$$

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Linear classification – Recap

Consider the Maximum Likelihood in binary classification task:

Problem: Given $(x_i, y_i), x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}, y_i \in \{0, 1\}$

We consider our samples to be independent and we consider the conditional probability to be parametrized by w, P(y=1|x)=p(x,w).

The conditional likelihood of the labels is:

$$L(w) = \prod_{i} P(y = y_i | x_i) = \prod_{i} p(x_i; w)^{y_i} (1 - p(x_i; w))^{1 - y_i}$$

Usually, we prefer to minimize the averaged *negative log-likelihood*:

$$J(w) = -\frac{1}{N}\log(L(w)) = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i} -y_{i}\log(p(x_{i}; w)) - (1 - y_{i})\log(1 - p(x_{i}; w))$$

Binary classification

Problem: Given $(x_i, y_i), x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}, y_i \in \{0, 1\}$

- Linear logit model: $q(x) = w^{T}x$
- Use **Sigmoid** transfer function : $\hat{y}(x) = \sigma(g(x)) = \sigma(w^{\top}x)$, where

$$\sigma: \mathbb{R} \mapsto [0,1], \quad \sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\sigma(x) = \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$$

• Cross-entropy loss (also called negative log-likelihood):

$$\mathcal{L}(\hat{y}, y) = -y \log(\hat{y}) - (1 - y) \log(1 - \hat{y})$$

• The gradient of CE is easy to compute :

$$\nabla_w \mathcal{L}(w, x_i, y_i) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \hat{y}} \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial w} = -(y_i - \hat{y}_i) x_i$$

Question: Is this problem convex for ℓ_1 and ℓ_2 norms?

Should we use ℓ_2 as a loss?

Consider ℓ_2 loss $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}||\hat{y} - y||^2$ and the "linear" model

$$\hat{y} = \sigma \left(w^{\top} x_i \right)$$

Let us compute the gradient w.r.t. w:

$$\nabla_{w} \mathcal{L}(w, x_{i}, y_{i}) = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \hat{y}} \frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial w} = -(\hat{y}_{i} - y_{i}) \ \sigma\left(w^{\top} x_{i}\right) \left(1 - \sigma\left(w^{\top} x_{i}\right)\right) x_{i}$$

Observations

- If $x_i \to \text{strongly misclassified (e.g. } y_i = 1, w^\top x_i \to +\infty$), then $\sigma\left(w^\top x_i\right) (1 \sigma\left(w^\top x_i\right)) \approx 0$ and $\nabla_w \mathcal{L}(w, x_i, y_i) \approx 0$ \Rightarrow step-size is very small.
- If we use CE loss, then $\nabla_w \mathcal{L}(w, x_i, y_i)$ is proportional with the error.

Problem: Given $(x_i, y_i), x_i \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}, y_i \in \{0, \dots, K-1\}$, where K > 2 is the total number of classes.

Assume that the samples are independent and the conditional probability for a class c is $P(y=c|x) = \frac{e^{(w_c^\top x)}}{\sum_{l.} e^{(w_k^\top x)}}$, parameterized by $(w_k)_{1 \leq k \leq K}$.

The conditional likelihood of the labels is:

$$L(w) = \prod_{i} P(y = y_i | x_i)$$

We can also minimize the averaged negative log-likelihood:

$$J(w) = -\frac{1}{N}\log(L(w)) = -\frac{1}{N}\sum_{i}\log(P(y=y_i|x_i))$$

Usually we use one-hot encoding of the target class (i.e. $y_i = [0, \dots, 0, 1, 0 \dots 0]$), the cost function can be expressed as:

$$J(w) = -\frac{1}{N} \mathsf{log}(L(w)) = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \sum_c y_{c_i} \mathsf{log}(P(y = c_i | x_i))$$

Large exponentials

- ullet if we compute naively the softmax $ightarrow \exp(\cdot)$ may have large values
- We can use the following property:

$$\operatorname{softmax}(g_1,g_2,\dots) = \operatorname{softmax}(g_1-g',g_2-g',\dots) = \frac{e^{g_i-g'}}{\sum_j e^{g_j-g'}}$$

where g' can be a constant, but usually $g' = \max(x)$, in order to have $g_j - g' \leq 0$

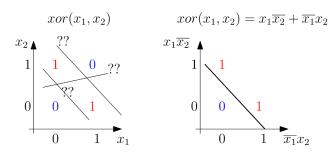
Avoiding some exponentials with the log-sum-exp trick

$$\log(\sum_{j} e^{g_j}) = g' + \log(\sum_{j} e^{g_j - g'})$$

• No need to compute $\log(\hat{y}_i) = \log(\operatorname{softmax}_j(x))$:

$$\log(\hat{y}_i) = \log\left(\frac{e^{g_i - g'}}{\sum_j e^{g_j - g'}}\right) = g_i - g' - \log\left(\sum_j e^{g_j - g'}\right)$$

 This is why in practice we use CE loss with logits rather than Softmax + negative log-likelihood. Perceptrons and logistic regression perform linear separation in a **predefined**, **fixed** feature space.



XOR and its transformation

Can we learn these features ?