Introduction to Deep Learning Eugene Charniak

Abhijit Kumar Baruah, Advisor: Dr. Dominique Guillot.

Department of Mathematical Sciences, University of Delaware.

20 March 2019



Outline

- Review
- Gradient Descent
 - Derivatives
 - Stochastic Gradient Descent
- Tensorflow
 - Preliminaries

 Perceptron classifies inputs by finding the dot product of feature vector and weight vector and passing that number into a step function.

- Perceptron classifies inputs by finding the dot product of feature vector and weight vector and passing that number into a step function.
- The Perceptron Learning Rule:
 - Predicts an output based on the current weights and inputs.
 - Compares it to the expected output, or label.
 - Update its weights, if the prediction != the label.
 - Iterate until the epoch threshold has been reached.

- Perceptron classifies inputs by finding the dot product of feature vector and weight vector and passing that number into a step function.
- The Perceptron Learning Rule:
 - Predicts an output based on the current weights and inputs.
 - Compares it to the expected output, or label.
 - Update its weights, if the prediction != the label.
 - Iterate until the epoch threshold has been reached.
- To update the weights during each iteration, it:
 - Finds the error by subtracting the prediction from the label.
 - Multiplies the error and the learning rate.
 - Multiplies the result to the inputs.
 - Adds the resulting vector to the weight vector.

- Perceptron classifies inputs by finding the dot product of feature vector and weight vector and passing that number into a step function.
- The Perceptron Learning Rule:
 - Predicts an output based on the current weights and inputs.
 - Compares it to the expected output, or label.
 - Update its weights, if the prediction != the label.
 - Iterate until the epoch threshold has been reached.
- To update the weights during each iteration, it:
 - Finds the error by subtracting the prediction from the label.
 - Multiplies the error and the learning rate.
 - Multiplies the result to the inputs.
 - Adds the resulting vector to the weight vector.
- For a linearly separable data, the perceptron algorithm guarantees a separating hyperplane.

Theorem 1 (Mistake Bound Theorem (Novikoff 1962, Block 1962))

Let $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), ..., (\mathbf{x}_m, y_m)\}$ be a sequence of training examples such that for all i, the feature vector $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, ||\mathbf{x}_i|| \leq R$ and the label $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$. Suppose there exists a unique vector $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that for some $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\gamma > 0$ we have $y_i(\mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{x}_i) \geq \gamma$. Then, the perceptron algorithm will make at most $(R/\gamma)^2$ mistakes on the training sequence.

Remark: The number of mistakes refers to the number of updates the perceptron algorithm makes in a training sequence.

Theorem 1 (Mistake Bound Theorem (Novikoff 1962, Block 1962))

Let $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), ..., (\mathbf{x}_m, y_m)\}$ be a sequence of training examples such that for all i, the feature vector $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, ||\mathbf{x}_i|| \le R$ and the label $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$. Suppose there exists a unique vector $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that for some $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\gamma > 0$ we have $y_i(\mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{x}_i) \ge \gamma$. Then, the perceptron algorithm will make at most $(R/\gamma)^2$ mistakes on the training sequence.

Remark: The number of mistakes refers to the number of updates the perceptron algorithm makes in a training sequence.

 The loss function associated with the Perceptron is the Zero-One Loss.

Theorem 1 (Mistake Bound Theorem (Novikoff 1962, Block 1962))

Let $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), ..., (\mathbf{x}_m, y_m)\}$ be a sequence of training examples such that for all i, the feature vector $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, ||\mathbf{x}_i|| \le R$ and the label $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$. Suppose there exists a unique vector $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that for some $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\gamma > 0$ we have $y_i(\mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{x}_i) \ge \gamma$. Then, the perceptron algorithm will make at most $(R/\gamma)^2$ mistakes on the training sequence.

Remark: The number of mistakes refers to the number of updates the perceptron algorithm makes in a training sequence.

- The loss function associated with the Perceptron is the Zero-One Loss.
- Zero-One Loss does not work with the Gradient Descent learning algorithm.

Theorem 1 (Mistake Bound Theorem (Novikoff 1962, Block 1962))

Let $\{(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), ..., (\mathbf{x}_m, y_m)\}$ be a sequence of training examples such that for all i, the feature vector $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n, ||\mathbf{x}_i|| \leq R$ and the label $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$. Suppose there exists a unique vector $\mathbf{u} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ such that for some $\gamma \in \mathbb{R}$ and $\gamma > 0$ we have $y_i(\mathbf{u}^T\mathbf{x}_i) \geq \gamma$. Then, the perceptron algorithm will make at most $(R/\gamma)^2$ mistakes on the training sequence.

Remark: The number of mistakes refers to the number of updates the perceptron algorithm makes in a training sequence.

- The loss function associated with the Perceptron is the Zero-One Loss.
- Zero-One Loss does not work with the Gradient Descent learning algorithm.
- Cross-entropy loss function is: $X(\Phi, x) = -\ln p_{\Phi}(a_x)$.



• This is what we have so far.

• This is what we have so far.

$$l_j = b_j + \mathbf{x}.\mathbf{w}_j \tag{1}$$

$$p(a) = \sigma_a(I) = \frac{e^{I_a}}{\sum_i e^{I_i}}$$
 (2)

$$X(\Phi, x) = -\ln p(a) \tag{3}$$

• This is what we have so far.

$$l_j = b_j + \mathbf{x}.\mathbf{w}_j \tag{1}$$

$$p(a) = \sigma_a(I) = \frac{e^{I_a}}{\sum_i e^{I_i}}$$
 (2)

$$X(\Phi, x) = -\ln p(a) \tag{3}$$

 This process of going from input to the loss is called the forward pass of the learning algorithm.

This is what we have so far.

$$l_j = b_j + \mathbf{x}.\mathbf{w}_j \tag{1}$$

$$p(a) = \sigma_a(l) = \frac{e^{l_a}}{\sum_i e^{l_i}}$$
 (2)

$$X(\Phi, x) = -\ln p(a) \tag{3}$$

- This process of going from input to the loss is called the forward pass of the learning algorithm.
- This computes the values to be used in the backward pass the weight adjustment pass.

This is what we have so far.

$$l_j = b_j + \mathbf{x}.\mathbf{w}_j \tag{1}$$

$$p(a) = \sigma_a(l) = \frac{e^{l_a}}{\sum_i e^{l_i}}$$
 (2)

$$X(\Phi, x) = -\ln p(a) \tag{3}$$

- This process of going from input to the loss is called the forward pass of the learning algorithm.
- This computes the values to be used in the backward pass the weight adjustment pass.
- One method is the stochastic gradient descent.



 The name comes from looking at the slope of the loss function (its gradient) and then having the system lower its loss (descend) by following the gradient.

- The name comes from looking at the slope of the loss function (its gradient) and then having the system lower its loss (descend) by following the gradient.
- The learning method as a whole is known as back propagation.

- The name comes from looking at the slope of the loss function (its gradient) and then having the system lower its loss (descend) by following the gradient.
- The learning method as a whole is known as back propagation.
- We start by looking at the simplest case of gradient estimation, that for one of the biases, b_j and error induced by a single training example.

- The name comes from looking at the slope of the loss function (its gradient) and then having the system lower its loss (descend) by following the gradient.
- The learning method as a whole is known as back propagation.
- We start by looking at the simplest case of gradient estimation, that for one of the biases, b_j and error induced by a single training example.

•
$$\frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial b_j} = \frac{\partial I_j}{\partial b_j} \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_j}$$

- The name comes from looking at the slope of the loss function (its gradient) and then having the system lower its loss (descend) by following the gradient.
- The learning method as a whole is known as back propagation.
- We start by looking at the simplest case of gradient estimation, that for one of the biases, b_j and error induced by a single training example.
- $\bullet \ \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial b_j} = \frac{\partial I_j}{\partial b_j} \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_j}$
- $\frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial l_j} = \frac{\partial p_a}{\partial l_j} \frac{X(\Phi)}{\partial p_a}$, where p_i is the probability assigned to class i by the network.

- The name comes from looking at the slope of the loss function (its gradient) and then having the system lower its loss (descend) by following the gradient.
- The learning method as a whole is known as back propagation.
- We start by looking at the simplest case of gradient estimation, that for one of the biases, b_j and error induced by a single training example.
- $\bullet \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial b_j} = \frac{\partial I_j}{\partial b_j} \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_j}$
- $\frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial l_j} = \frac{\partial p_a}{\partial l_j} \frac{X(\Phi)}{\partial p_a}$, where p_i is the probability assigned to class i by the network.
- After some derivation, we have

$$\frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial l_j} = -\frac{1}{p_a} \begin{cases} (1-p_j)p_a & \text{if } a=j\\ -p_jp_a & \text{it } a \neq j \end{cases} = \begin{cases} -(1-p_j) & \text{if } a=j\\ p_j & \text{it } a \neq j \end{cases}$$
(4

$$\Delta b_j = \mathcal{L} \begin{cases} (1 - p_j) & \text{if } a = j \\ -p_j & \text{if } a \neq j \end{cases}$$
 (5)

$$\Delta b_j = \mathcal{L} \begin{cases} (1 - p_j) & \text{if } a = j \\ -p_j & \text{if } a \neq j \end{cases}$$
 (5)

• We have similarly the equation for changing weight parameters:

$$\frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial w_{i,i}} = \frac{\partial I_j}{\partial w_{i,i}} \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_i} \tag{6}$$

$$\Delta b_j = \mathcal{L} \begin{cases} (1 - p_j) & \text{if } a = j \\ -p_j & \text{if } a \neq j \end{cases}$$
 (5)

• We have similarly the equation for changing weight parameters:

$$\frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial w_{i,j}} = \frac{\partial I_j}{\partial w_{i,j}} \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_j} \tag{6}$$

After some calculation we have our equation for weight updates as:

$$\Delta w_{i,j} = -\mathcal{L}x_i \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_i} \tag{7}$$

$$\Delta b_j = \mathcal{L} \begin{cases} (1 - p_j) & \text{if } a = j \\ -p_j & \text{if } a \neq j \end{cases}$$
 (5)

• We have similarly the equation for changing weight parameters:

$$\frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial w_{i,j}} = \frac{\partial I_j}{\partial w_{i,j}} \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_j} \tag{6}$$

After some calculation we have our equation for weight updates as:

$$\Delta w_{i,j} = -\mathcal{L}x_i \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_i} \tag{7}$$

 We have derived how the parameters of our model should change in light of a single training example.

$$\Delta b_j = \mathcal{L} \begin{cases} (1 - p_j) & \text{if } a = j \\ -p_j & \text{if } a \neq j \end{cases}$$
 (5)

• We have similarly the equation for changing weight parameters:

$$\frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial w_{i,j}} = \frac{\partial I_j}{\partial w_{i,j}} \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_j} \tag{6}$$

• After some calculation we have our equation for weight updates as:

$$\Delta w_{i,j} = -\mathcal{L}x_i \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_i} \tag{7}$$

- We have derived how the parameters of our model should change in light of a single training example.
- The gradient descent algorithm now needs to pass though all the training examples.

$$\Delta b_j = \mathcal{L} \begin{cases} (1 - p_j) & \text{if } a = j \\ -p_j & \text{if } a \neq j \end{cases}$$
 (5)

• We have similarly the equation for changing weight parameters:

$$\frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial w_{i,j}} = \frac{\partial I_j}{\partial w_{i,j}} \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_j} \tag{6}$$

After some calculation we have our equation for weight updates as:

$$\Delta w_{i,j} = -\mathcal{L}x_i \frac{\partial X(\Phi)}{\partial I_j} \tag{7}$$

- We have derived how the parameters of our model should change in light of a single training example.
- The gradient descent algorithm now needs to pass though all the training examples.
- Modify each parameter by the sum of the changes from the individual examples.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

 Because gradient descent algorithm is slow, in practice we update parameters every m (batch size) examples, for m much less than the size of the training set. This process is called stochastic gradient descent.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Because gradient descent algorithm is slow, in practice we update parameters every m (batch size) examples, for m much less than the size of the training set. This process is called *stochastic gradient* descent.
- ullet The smaller the batch size, the smaller the learning rate ${\cal L}$ should be.

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Because gradient descent algorithm is slow, in practice we update parameters every m (batch size) examples, for m much less than the size of the training set. This process is called stochastic gradient descent.
- ullet The smaller the batch size, the smaller the learning rate ${\cal L}$ should be.
- Idea: Any one example is going to push the weights toward classifying that example correctly at the expense of the others.

Pseudocode for simple feed-forward stochastic gradient descent algorithm

- 1. Set b_i randomly but close to zero.
- 2. Set weights $w_{i,i}$ similarly.
- 3. Until development accuracy stops increasing
 - (a) for each training example k in batches of m examples
 - i. do the forward pass using equations (4),(5) and (6).
 - ii. do the backward pass using equations (7),(8) and (10).
 - iii. every m examples, modify all Φ with the summand updates
 - (b) compute the accuracy of the model by running the forward pass on all examples in the development set.
- 4. output the Φ from the iteration before the decrease in development accuracy.

TensorFlow

• Tensorflow is an open-source programming language developed by Google.

- Tensorflow is an open-source programming language developed by Google.
- It is easily trainable on CPU as well as GPU for distributed computing.

- Tensorflow is an open-source programming language developed by Google.
- It is easily trainable on CPU as well as GPU for distributed computing.
- Very efficient on large scale systems.

- Tensorflow is an open-source programming language developed by Google.
- It is easily trainable on CPU as well as GPU for distributed computing.
- Very efficient on large scale systems.
- The library provides distribution functions.

- Tensorflow is an open-source programming language developed by Google.
- It is easily trainable on CPU as well as GPU for distributed computing.
- Very efficient on large scale systems.
- The library provides distribution functions.
- On Anaconda Python 3.5 (which you can find here: https://www.continuum.io/) run conda install tensorflow from a command line interface to install TensorFlow using Conda packages.

- Tensorflow is an open-source programming language developed by Google.
- It is easily trainable on CPU as well as GPU for distributed computing.
- Very efficient on large scale systems.
- The library provides distribution functions.
- On Anaconda Python 3.5 (which you can find here: https://www.continuum.io/) run conda install tensorflow from a command line interface to install TensorFlow using Conda packages.
- Traditional first program:

```
import tensorflow as tf
x=tf.constant("Hello_World")
sess=tf.Session()
print(sess.run(x))
```

- Tensorflow is an open-source programming language developed by Google.
- It is easily trainable on CPU as well as GPU for distributed computing.
- Very efficient on large scale systems.
- The library provides distribution functions.
- On Anaconda Python 3.5 (which you can find here: https://www.continuum.io/) run conda install tensorflow from a command line interface to install TensorFlow using Conda packages.
- Traditional first program:

```
import tensorflow as tf
x=tf.constant("Hello_World")
sess=tf.Session()
print(sess.run(x))
```

• This prints out "Hello World"

• TF functions define a computation that is executed only when we call the **run** command.

- TF functions define a computation that is executed only when we call the **run** command.
- TF function Session creates a session, associated with which is a graph defining a computation.

- TF functions define a computation that is executed only when we call the run command.
- TF function Session creates a session, associated with which is a graph defining a computation.
- Commands like **constant** add elements to this computation.

- TF functions define a computation that is executed only when we call the run command.
- TF function Session creates a session, associated with which is a graph defining a computation.
- Commands like **constant** add elements to this computation.
- The third line tells TF to evaluate the TF variable pointed to by x inside the graph associated with variable sess.

- TF functions define a computation that is executed only when we call the run command.
- TF function Session creates a session, associated with which is a graph defining a computation.
- Commands like **constant** add elements to this computation.
- The third line tells TF to evaluate the TF variable pointed to by x inside the graph associated with variable sess.
- Contrast this behavior if the last line is replaced with print(x).

• In CODE 2, z is a Python variable whose value is a TF placeholder.

- In **CODE 2**, **z** is a Python variable whose value is a TF placeholder.
- Like a formal variable in a programming language function

```
x = 2.0
def sillyAdd(z):
    return z+x
print(sillyAdd(3)) # Prints out 5.0
```

- In CODE 2, z is a Python variable whose value is a TF placeholder.
- Like a formal variable in a programming language function

```
x = 2.0
def sillyAdd(z):
    return z+x
print(sillyAdd(3)) # Prints out 5.0
```

• 'z' is the name of the sillyAdd function's argument.

- In CODE 2, z is a Python variable whose value is a TF placeholder.
- Like a formal variable in a programming language function

```
x = 2.0
def sillyAdd(z):
    return z+x
print(sillyAdd(3)) # Prints out 5.0
```

- 'z' is the name of the sillyAdd function's argument.
- TF placeholders are given value in a similar manner.

```
print(sess.run(comp,feed\_dict=\{z:3.0\}))
```

 We have a named argument of run which takes as possible values Python dictionaries.

- We have a named argument of run which takes as possible values Python dictionaries.
- First 'sess.run' prints out the sum of 2.0 and 3.0.

- We have a named argument of run which takes as possible values Python dictionaries.
- First 'sess.run' prints out the sum of 2.0 and 3.0.
- Second 'sess.run' prints out the sum of 2.0 and 16.0.

- We have a named argument of run which takes as possible values Python dictionaries.
- First 'sess.run' prints out the sum of 2.0 and 3.0.
- Second 'sess.run' prints out the sum of 2.0 and 16.0.
- Third 'sess.run' does not require a placeholder value for computation.

- We have a named argument of run which takes as possible values Python dictionaries.
- First 'sess.run' prints out the sum of 2.0 and 3.0.
- Second 'sess.run' prints out the sum of 2.0 and 16.0.
- Third 'sess.run' does not require a placeholder value for computation.
- Fourth 'sess.run' requires a value for computation which is not supplied, hence an error.

- We have a named argument of run which takes as possible values Python dictionaries.
- First 'sess.run' prints out the sum of 2.0 and 3.0.
- Second 'sess.run' prints out the sum of 2.0 and 16.0.
- Third 'sess.run' does not require a placeholder value for computation.
- Fourth 'sess.run' requires a value for computation which is not supplied, hence an error.
- Placeholders may be simple scalars or multidimensional tensors.

- We have a named argument of run which takes as possible values Python dictionaries.
- First 'sess.run' prints out the sum of 2.0 and 3.0.
- Second 'sess.run' prints out the sum of 2.0 and 16.0.
- Third 'sess.run' does not require a placeholder value for computation.
- Fourth 'sess.run' requires a value for computation which is not supplied, hence an error.
- Placeholders may be simple scalars or multidimensional tensors.
- Example: For Mnist digit recognition program, the image defined as placeholder will be of type 'float32' and shape [28, 28] or [784], depending on whether the program was handed a two- or one-dimensional Python list.

img=tf.placeholder(tf.float32,shape=[28,28])

 NN models are defined by their parameters and the program's architecture.

- NN models are defined by their parameters and the program's architecture.
- The parameters are initialized randomly and the NN modifies them to minimize the loss on training data.

- NN models are defined by their parameters and the program's architecture.
- The parameters are initialized randomly and the NN modifies them to minimize the loss on training data.
- Three stages to create TF parameter:
 - 1 Create a tensor with initial values.
 - 2 Turn the tensor into a variable (TF parameters).
 - 3 Initializing the variables/TF-parameter.

- NN models are defined by their parameters and the program's architecture.
- The parameters are initialized randomly and the NN modifies them to minimize the loss on training data.
- Three stages to create TF parameter:
 - 1 Create a tensor with initial values.
 - 2 Turn the tensor into a variable (TF parameters).
 - 3 Initializing the variables/TF-parameter.
- Lets create the parameters we need for the feed-forward Mnist pseudo code (as seen in the first talk).

First the bias terms 'b', then the weights 'W'

```
\label{eq:bt_state} \begin{array}{ll} b = & tf. random\_normal([10], stddev = .1) \\ b = & tf. Variable(bt) \\ W = & tf. Variable(tf. random\_normal([784,10], stddev = . \\ sess = & tf. Session() \\ sess. run(tf. initialize\_all\_variables()) \\ print(sess. run(b)) \end{array}
```

• First line creates a tensor of shape [10] with ten values randomly generated from a normal distribution with standard deviation 0.1.

First the bias terms 'b', then the weights 'W'

```
bt = tf.random_normal([10], stddev=.1)
b = tf.Variable(bt)
W = tf.Variable(tf.random_normal([784,10], stddev=.
sess=tf.Session()
sess.run(tf.initialize_all_variables())
print(sess.run(b))
```

- First line creates a tensor of shape [10] with ten values randomly generated from a normal distribution with standard deviation 0.1.
- Second line takes 'bt' and creates a piece of the TF graph that will create a variable with the same shape and values.

• First the bias terms 'b', then the weights 'W'

```
\label{eq:bt_state} \begin{array}{ll} b = & tf. random\_normal([10], stddev = .1) \\ b = & tf. Variable(bt) \\ W = & tf. Variable(tf. random\_normal([784,10], stddev = . \\ sess = & tf. Session() \\ sess. run(tf. initialize\_all\_variables()) \\ print(sess. run(b)) \end{array}
```

- First line creates a tensor of shape [10] with ten values randomly generated from a normal distribution with standard deviation 0.1.
- Second line takes 'bt' and creates a piece of the TF graph that will create a variable with the same shape and values.
- Third line combines the above two events and creates variable 'W'.

• First the bias terms 'b', then the weights 'W'

```
bt = tf.random_normal([10], stddev = .1)
b = tf. Variable(bt)
W = tf. Variable (tf. random_normal([784,10], stddev = ...
sess=tf.Session()
sess.run(tf.initialize_all_variables())
print(sess.run(b))
```

- First line creates a tensor of shape [10] with ten values randomly generated from a normal distribution with standard deviation 0.1.
- Second line takes 'bt' and creates a piece of the TF graph that will create a variable with the same shape and values.
- Third line combines the above two events and creates variable 'W'.
- Fifth line initializes 'b' and 'W' in the session before we can use them.

Reference

Eugene Charniak Introduction to Deep Learning

Anaconda 3.5 https://www.continuum.io/

Tensorflow installation guide for Anaconda https://www.anaconda.com/tensorflow-in-anaconda/

THANK YOU!