# **Machine Learning:**

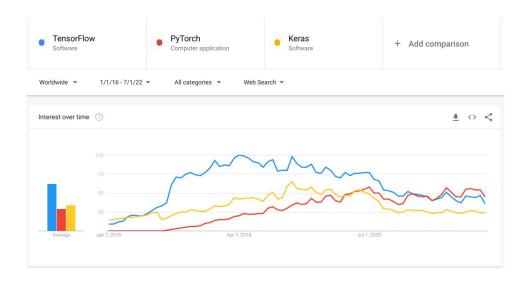
Introduction to Deep Learning, Convolutional Neural Networks

### Schedule for This Part

- Introduction to Machine Learning, Decision Trees
- Introduction to Deep Learning, Convolutional Neural Networks:
  - Artificial (Deep) Neural Networks
  - Convolutional Neural Networks
- Unsupervised Machine Learning, Autoencoders
- Introduction to Graph Neural Networks

### Frameworks

- We will work with **PyTorch**.
- Alternatively TensorFlow and Keras are a popular choice.



## Brief History of Artificial Neural Networks

- 1943: McCulloch & Pitts: simple neural networks with electrical circuits
- 1958: Rosenblatt: works on **perceptron**
- 1959: Widrow & Hoff: first neural network applied to real world problem (**ADALINE**)
- 1969: Minsky & Papert: proved limitations of perceptron
- 1986: Rumelhart, Hinton & Wiliams: **backpropagation** for multi-layer perceptron
- 2012: Krizhevsky: CNN (AlexNet) wins image recognition competition













You've just learned about BDTs.

What about highly non-linear data?

Big datasets?

Data with many input features (like images)?

• We can transform the input space but we often don't know how *a priori* 

#### **Universal Approximation Theorem**

A single hidden layer neural network with a linear output unit can approximate any continuous function arbitrary well, given enough hidden units

Hornik 1991

#### **Universal Approximation Theorem**

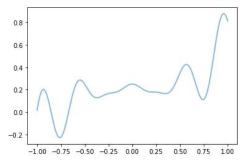
A single hidden layer neural network with a linear output unit can approximate any continuous function arbitrary well, given enough hidden units

Hornik 1991

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import numpy as np

f = lambda x: 0.2 + 0.4*x**3 + 0.3*x*np.sin(15*x) + 0.05*np.cos(20*x)
X = np.linspace(-1,1., 1024)
y = f(X)

plt.plot(X, y, '-', alpha=0.5, lw=2);
```



#### **Universal Approximation Theorem**

A single hidden layer neural network with a linear output unit can approximate any continuous function arbitrary well, given enough hidden units

```
import torch
from utils import ShallowNN

model = ShallowNN()
model.load_state_dict(torch.load('./media/universal_approximator'))
model.eval()
print(model)

ShallowNN(
    (regressor): Sequential(
        (0): Linear(in_features=1, out_features=2000, bias=True)
        (1): ReLU(inplace=True)
        (2): Linear(in_features=2000, out_features=1, bias=True)
    )
}
```

Hornik 1991

#### **Universal Approximation Theorem**

-1.00 -0.75 -0.50 -0.25 0.00 0.25 0.50 0.75 1.00

A single hidden layer neural network with a linear output unit can approximate any continuous function arbitrary well, given enough hidden units

Hornik 1991

```
y_pred = model(torch.Tensor(X).unsqueeze(1))
plt.plot(X, y, '-', alpha=0.5, lw=2);
plt.plot(X, y_pred.data.squeeze().numpy(), lw=2);

10
08
06
04
02
00
-02
```

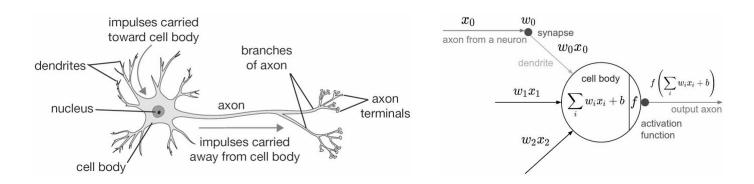
Neural networks are inspired by biological neurons.

x: neuron (node) input;

w: neuron weight;

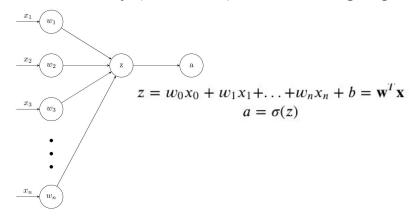
b: bias;

f: activation function



Credit

- Neural networks are inspired by biological neurons.
- Affine transformation of the input data.
- Followed by (non-linear) activation, e.g. sigmoid function  $\frac{1}{1+exp(-z)}$



z = np.linspace(-10,10., 1024)
y = torch.sigmoid(torch.tensor(z)).numpy()
plt.plot(z, y, '-', alpha=0.5, lw=2);

10
08
06
04
02
00
-10.0 -7.5 -5.0 -2.5 0.0 25 5.0 7.5 10.0

Nodes are combined into layers.

### From Neuron to Network

- A shallow neural network, given wide enough hidden layer should approximate well a given function *f*. In practice this is quite difficult...
- Stacking more layers instead improves performance. Why?
- Space folding:

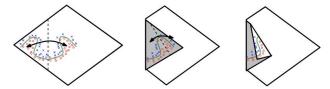
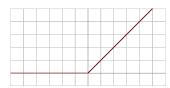


Figure 3: Space folding of 2-D space in a non-trivial way. Note how the folding can potentially identify symmetries in the boundary that it needs to learn.

Source

### More Activation Functions

- Sigmoid. Expensive, saturates for low and high output.
- ReLU. Non-negative, cheap but dies for x < 0.



• Leaky ReLU. Non-zero for negative values.

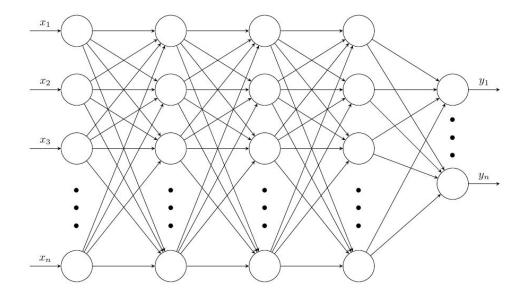


• Softmax,  $\frac{e^{x_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^{J} e^{x_j}}$ . Produces probability over classes, i.e. use it for classification.

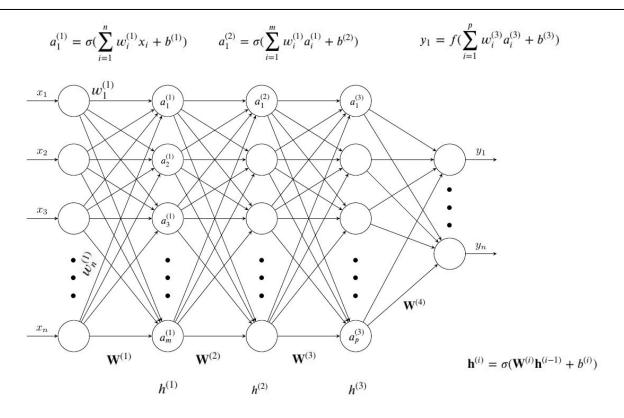
Visualizations from Wikipedia

## Question Interlude

• How many hidden layers does this network have?



## Inference (Feed-forward Pass)



## Training Neural Network

- For the pair of input  $x_i$  and corresponding label  $y_i$ . We want to **minimize the loss function** E.
- Loss function quantifies how well the model is achieving the learning objective, e.g. mean squared error  $\sum_{i=1}^{D} (\hat{y}_i y_i)^2$  or cross-entropy loss  $-(y \log(p) + (1-y) \log(1-p))$ .
- Model parameters  $\theta$ : weights and biases.
- Object can be described by a vector of variables, aka features

#### Solution:

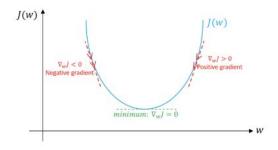
- Inefficient: Random search of  $\theta$ , for which we minimize E.
- Much better: Neural networks layers are differentiable, we can use gradient descent.
- Another alternative: hebbian learning.

### Gradient Descent

- We normally minimize things by evaluating the derivatives (direction towards minimum).
- Gradient descent computes the gradient of the cost function w.r.t. to the current parameters  $\theta$  for the entire training dataset.
- At each training step k update model parameters to move towards steepest decline:

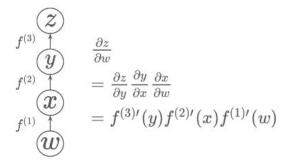
$$\theta_{k+1} \leftarrow \theta_k - \eta + \nabla \theta_k J(\theta_k)$$
, where  $J(\theta_k)$  is the Jacobian and  $\eta$  is the step size

• Adjustment step is determined by learning rate  $\eta$  (hyperparameter).



### Chain Rule

• Computing derivatives of a *base* function: decompose composite function into a set of base ones and differentiate them one by one.



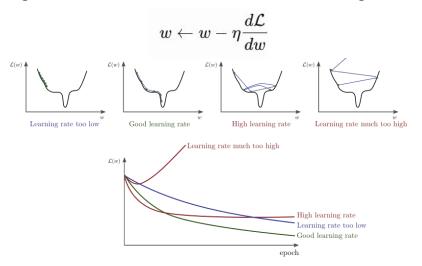
## Backpropagation

#### Backward propagation of errors

- Make forward pass through the network to calculate the output and the corresponding loss.
- Do a backward pass go back through the network to calculate gradients for all weights.
- Updates to parameters are propagated from the output of the network using the chain rule.
- Update parameters with their gradients and repeat until convergence.
- Use dynamic programming: collect derivatives at each step without recalculating them.
- One epoch is a forward and backward pass over the full-dataset.
- Simple: inputs forward, errors go backward.

## Practise: Choices of the Learning Rate

• Choice of the learning rate is critical for the successful training.



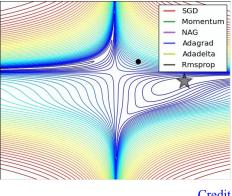
Credit

• There is no fixed rule: depends on the dataset, network.

### **Gradient Descent Variants:**

- (mini-batch) Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD): use random minibatch of examples.
- Adagrad: adjusts the learning rate to individual features.
- Momentum: add a fraction of previous gradient to update vector.
- RMSprop: use a moving average of squared past gradients.
- Adam: RMSProp with momentum and bias correction.

Just use Adam.

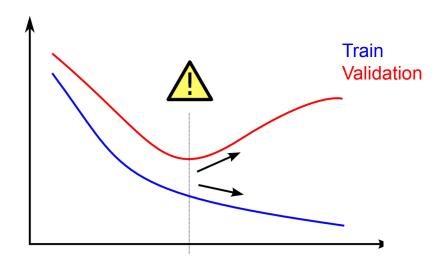


### Hyperparameters

- Single change in optimization procedure, network architecture or data pre-processing can make or break your model.
- Rules are loose, it is more like art to adjust the hyperparameters.
- How:
  - o manual (experience and/or luck),
  - o grid searches (random),
  - surrogate models (bayesian optimization, reinforcement learning),
  - specialized software: <u>Ray</u> / <u>AutoKeras</u>.
- What:
  - number of epochs,
  - batch size, learning rate,
  - o initialization,
  - choice of activation layers, network depth/width (architecture)
  - o and many more...

## Question Interlude

• Can you describe this situation?



## Overfitting

Underfitting (low variance, high bias) with poor train and test results.

- Model is too simple or it can't capture underlying data structure.
- Solution is to increase model capacity or train longer.

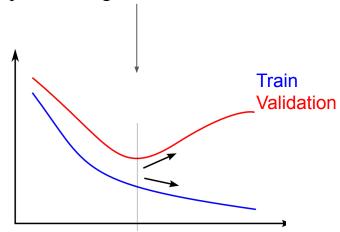
Overfitting (high variance, low bias) with good training error but bad test results.

- Model captures noise instead of the input structure (low generalization).
- Model has too much capacity.
- Solution 1: terminate training before this happens, i.e. early stopping.
- Solution 2: limit capacity of the model by regularization, reduce generalization error but not the training error.
  - Lasso or ridge regularization.
  - o Dropout.
  - Data augmentations, transformations of input, e.g. rotations. etc.

## Early Stopping

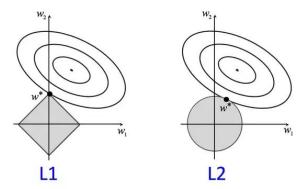
#### Early stopping is beautiful free lunch Source

- When to stop training? After predefined number of steps? Can be too late or too early.
- Early stopping: stop your training (with some patience) if your validation error does not improve enough.



### L1/L2 Regularization

- Limit the capacity of the model by penaling the value of weights.
- L1 regularization (Tikhonov): absolute value of weights for sparsity (feature selection):  $\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} |\theta_i|$
- L2 regularization (LASSO): penalize square of weights:  $\lambda \sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_i^2$
- $\lambda$  is a hyperparameter.
- In Pytorch L2 regularization is called weight decay.



## Dropout (Paper)

- Adding noise to hidden layers makes networks more robust to initialization, and results in better generalization.
- Dropout is a simple way to execute that by randomly set some neuron weights to zero with probability *p*.
- Another interpretation: at each step train a new subnetwork to break co-adaptation of nodes

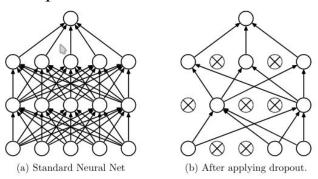


Figure 1: Dropout Neural Net Model. Left: A standard neural net with 2 hidden layers. Right:
An example of a thinned net produced by applying dropout to the network on the left.
Crossed units have been dropped.

## Weight Initialization

- Another way to address vanishing and exploding gradients is through weight initialization.
- We initialize the weights randomly, sampling from a normal distribution,  $\mu=0$  and  $\sigma=1$ .
- This results in a wide range.
- We can ensure that the weights are closer to 1, which works better.
- Xavier initialization normal distribution with  $\mu$ =0 and  $\sigma$ <sup>2</sup>=n-1, where n is the number of inputs, use it for non-ReLU blocks.
- He initialization:  $\mu=0$  and  $\sigma^2=2n^{-1}$ , use for blocks with ReLU.

## Batch Normalization (Paper)

- When training, parameters update in different scale, and the initial normalization is lost.
- When the input distribution to a learning system changes, it is said to experience covariate shift.
- Training procedure is sensitive to the scale of gradients:
  - Vanishing gradients: gradients getting smaller and smaller as the backpropagation progresses: no updates.
  - Exploding gradients: gradients getting larger and larger as the backpropagation progresses: very large updates.
- Add an operation just before or after the activation function of each hidden layer.
- The layer lets the model learn the optimal scale and mean of each of the layer's inputs using running mean and standard deviation of the input over the current mini-batch.

$$y = \frac{x - \mathrm{E}[x]}{\sqrt{\mathrm{Var}[x] + \epsilon}} * \gamma + \beta$$

• Less sensitivity to initialization parameters.

## Computer Vision

A huge subfield of deep learning dealing with image classification, object detection, segmentation or tracking, depth estimation, 3d reconstruction etc.

#### Challenges:

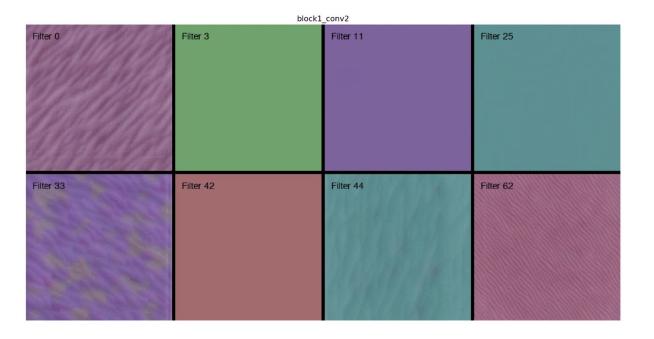
- Large dimensionality of the input, e.g. HD image has close to 1M pixels.
- Results must be invariant to shifts, rotation, different light conditions etc.
- Images can contain several objects from multiple categories or multiple instances from one.

### Convolutional Neural Networks

- General idea: sliding window, i.e. slide a matrix (kernel or filter) across input image to check for a specific object (activations will be high).
  - Reduction in trainable parameters through parameter sharing.
  - Location invariance through the use of the sliding window.
- Hand-engineered features are difficult to define.
- We can learn filters instead: create multiple transformed representations of the image and use those as input features to a next layer.

### Convolutional Neural Networks

• Each layer becomes more and more expressive.

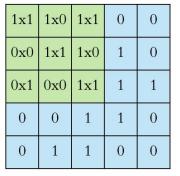


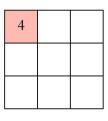
## Convolution Operation

- Output is a dot product between a filter and portion of the input image.
- Hyperparameters: Kernel size, Stride, Padding.

1	1	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0
0	0	1	1	1
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	1	0	0

1	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	1





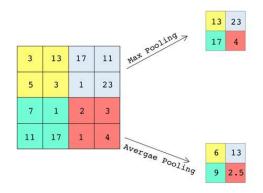
32

Input

Filter / Kernel

## Pooling Operation

- Pooling operation down-samples feature maps.
- Two types of operations: averaging (torch.nn.AvgPool2d) or max torch.nn.MaxPool2d



- Lowers computational load of training and inference.
- Avoids overfitting.
- Hyperparameters to chose: type, kernel size and stride.

### Data Augmentation

- This is **not** data preprocessing such as image resizing or normalization.
- The performance of CNNs improves with more data.
- If we can't collect more data, we can artificially create new variants of existing **training** data with augmentations.
- Augmentations include a operations such as *rotations*, shifts, flips, zooms, contrast or hue adjustments.
- You should always consider domain-specific techniques.
- In PyTorch use torchvision.transforms.Compose, e.g.:











## Transfer Learning

- In practice you won't train a big CNN from random initialization when you have insufficient data points.
- Transfer learning: apply the knowledge that one model holds to a new task.
  - o Download a model that has been trained on, for instance, Imagenet (real-world images).
  - Add new layers or adjust existing ones to the shape of your input and output.
  - Train only first and last layer on your data, or more (fine-tuning).
- In PyTorch you can freeze or freeze layers using:

```
param.requires_grad = False
```

Adjust your learning rate!