

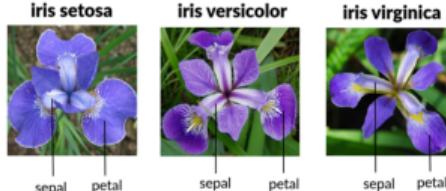
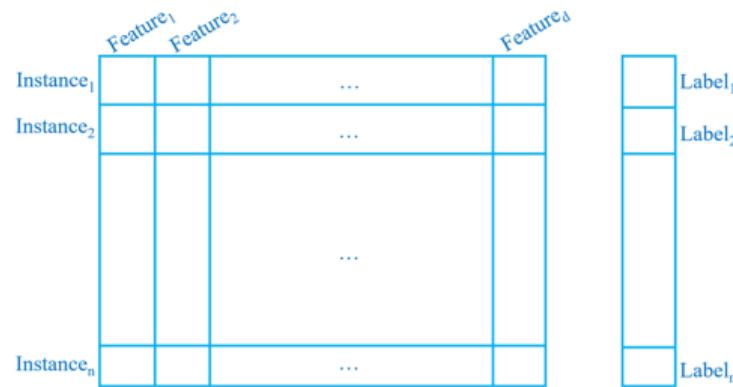
# Machine Learning

## 20 – RNNs, Imbalanced Classification

November 25, 2022

# Data Matrix

Data Matrix view of a data set: The data instances  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$  are present in the rows of the data matrix  $X = [x_1, \dots, x_n]^T$ , the features are present along the columns.



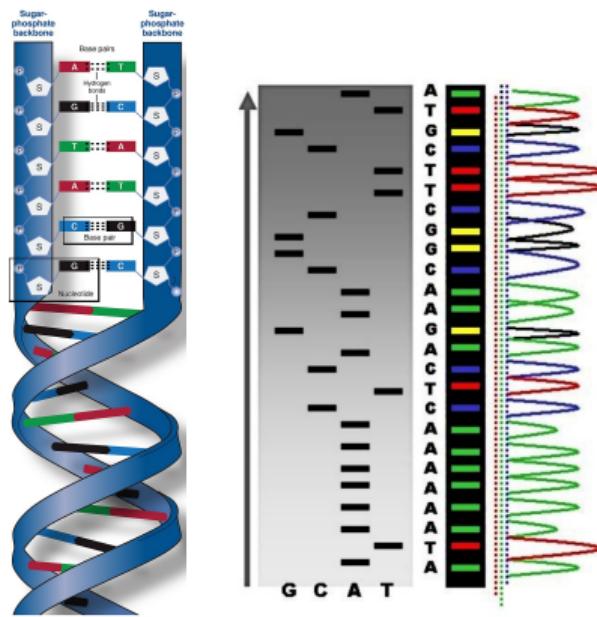
	Petal Length	Petal Width	Sepal Length	Sepal Width	
Iris Instance <sub>1</sub>	5.1	3.5	1.4	0.2	0 Iris Species <sub>1</sub>
Iris Instance <sub>2</sub>	4.9	3.0	1.4	0.2	0 Iris Species <sub>2</sub>
Iris Instance <sub>3</sub>	4.7	3.2	1.3	0.2	0 Iris Species <sub>3</sub>
...					...

# Sequential Data

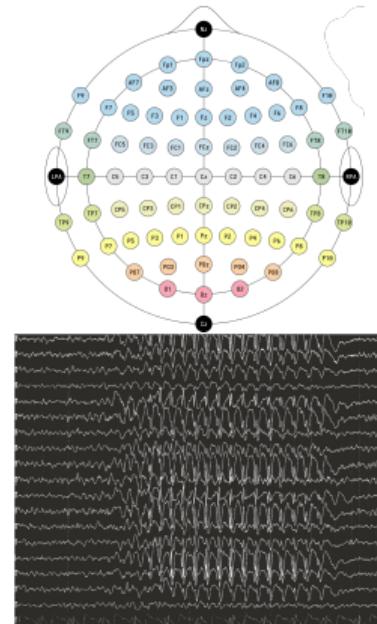
For **Sequential Data**, there may be dependencies between a data instance  $x_i$  and previous instances  $x_{i-1}, x_{i-2}, \dots, x_{i-k}$ , which we should also try to model.

Some examples:

1. Modeling DNA sequences



2. Modeling brain EEG signals

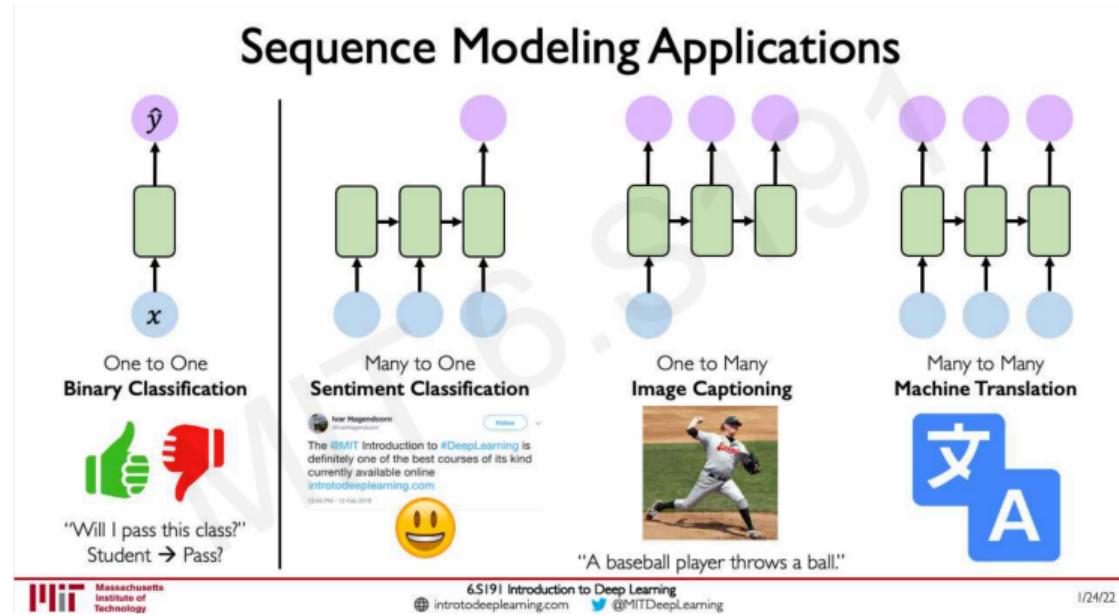


# Sequential Data

## 3. Modeling audio and natural language



Figure: A speech signal



## Sequential Data

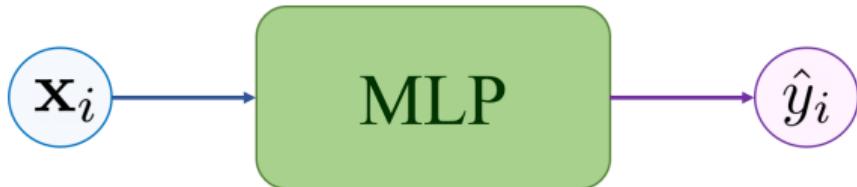
Modeling natural language

The boy ate a \_\_\_\_\_



pizza  
cake  
apple  
banana  
car  
laptop  
biryani  
desk  
...

## Modeling Sequential Data

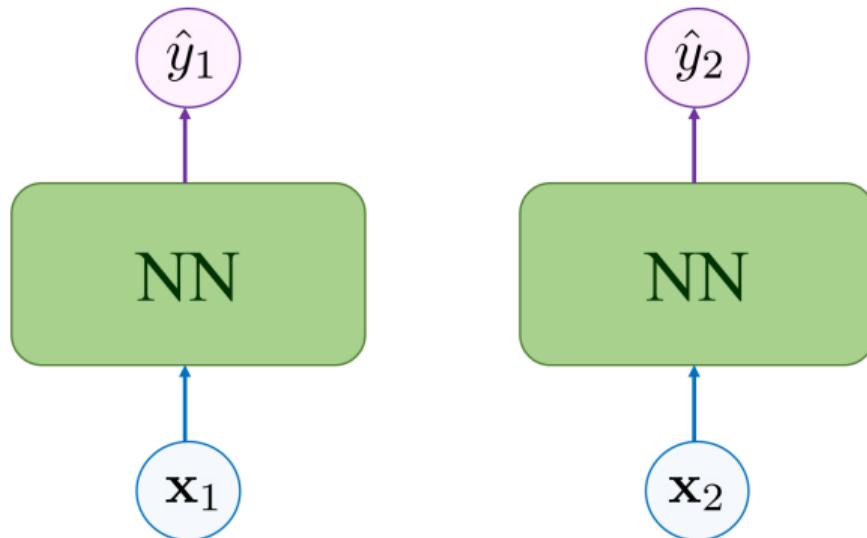


The problems with modeling with conventional machine learning models (like MLPs):

- A model is defined to work on an input of fixed size  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .
- If a sequence is broken down into  $d$ -sized sub-sequences, conventional models still do not consider the dependencies between sequence instances.

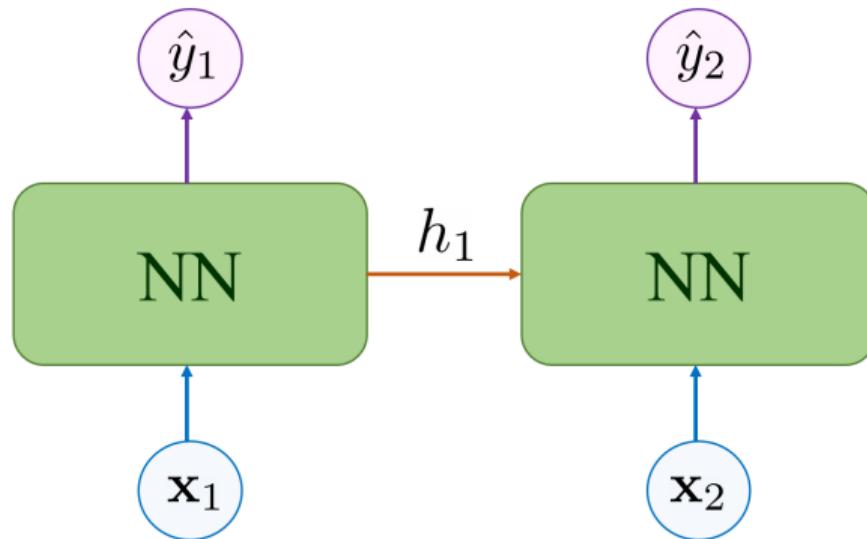
## Modeling Sequential Data

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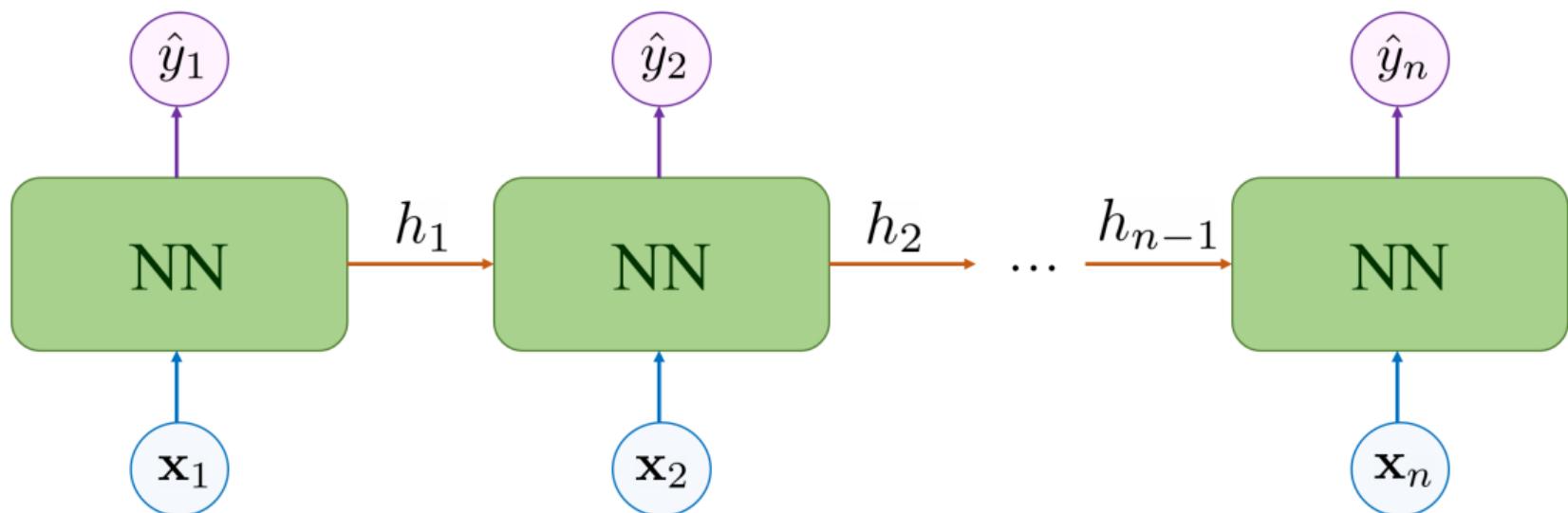
## Modeling Sequential Data

Consider  $h_i$  which carries previous information from  $x_i$ .



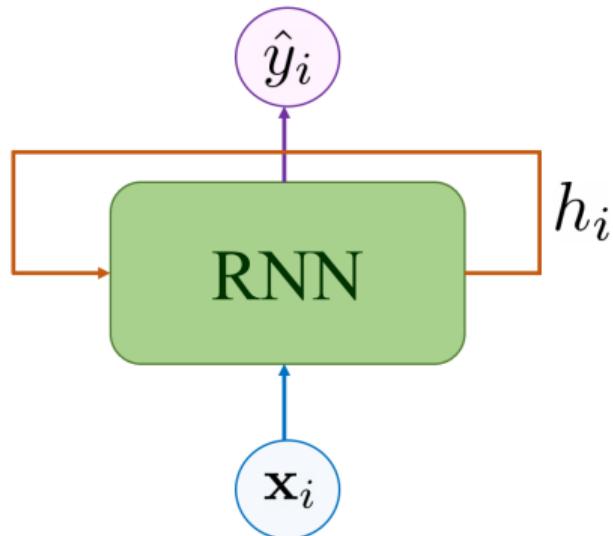
## Modeling Sequential Data

Consider  $h_i$  which carries previous information from  $x_i$ . A sequence of  $n$  terms can then be modeled with the help of information carried over by  $h_i$ .



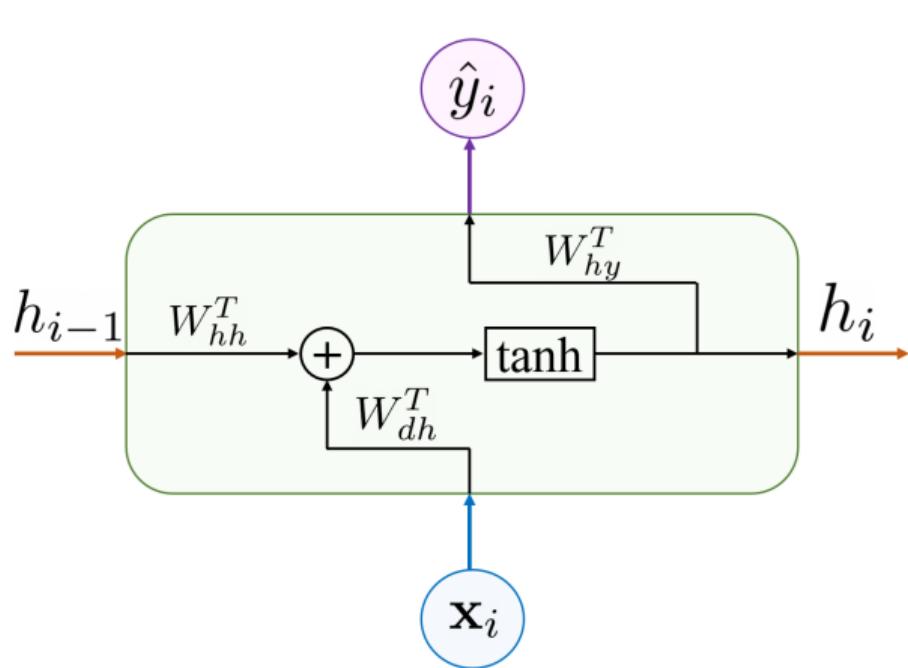
## Recurrent Neural Network

A Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) cell takes as input  $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , and produces two outputs: a cell state  $h_i$  which takes into account past information, and the output of the cell  $\hat{y}_i$ .



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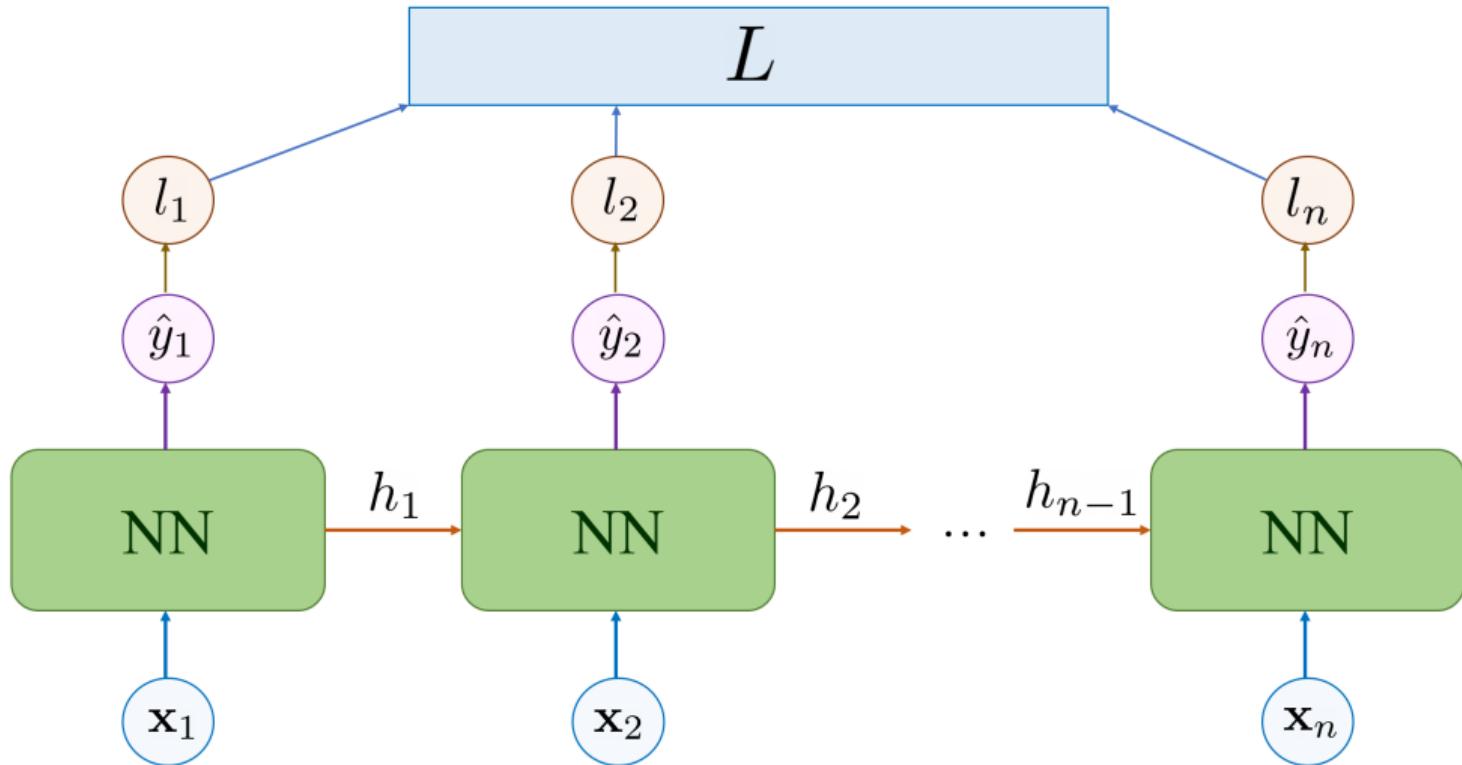


$$h_i = \tanh(W_{hh}^T h_{i-1} + W_{dh}^T x_i)$$

$$\hat{y}_i = W_{hy}^T h_i$$

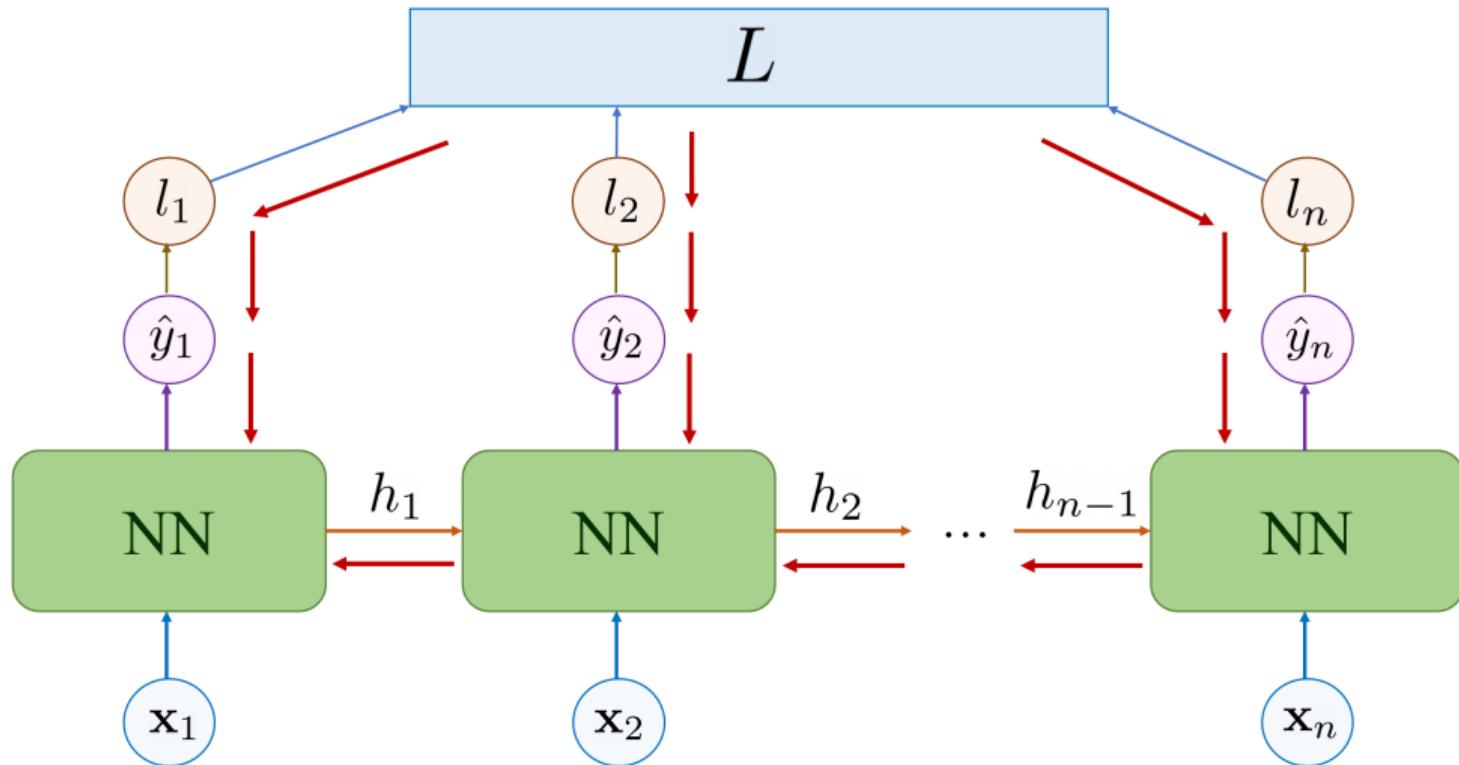
## RNN Forward Propagation

From the predicted  $\hat{y}_i$ , losses can be calculated  $l_i$ , all of which combined form a total loss  $L$ .

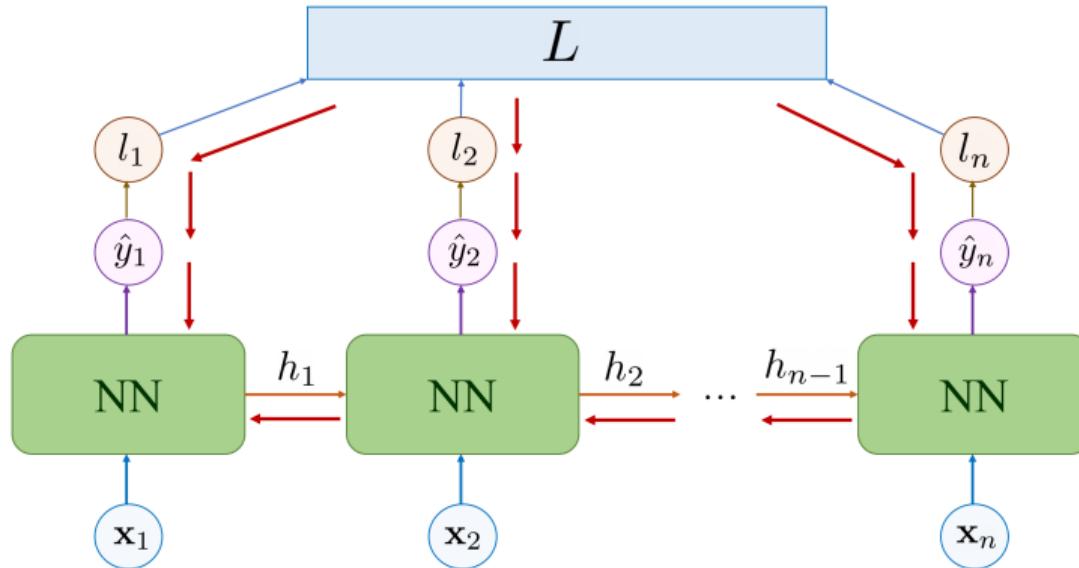


## RNN Backpropagation Through Time

Through backpropagation, the network parameters  $W_{dh}, W_{hh}, W_{hy}$  can be updated.



# RNN Backpropagation Through Time Challenges

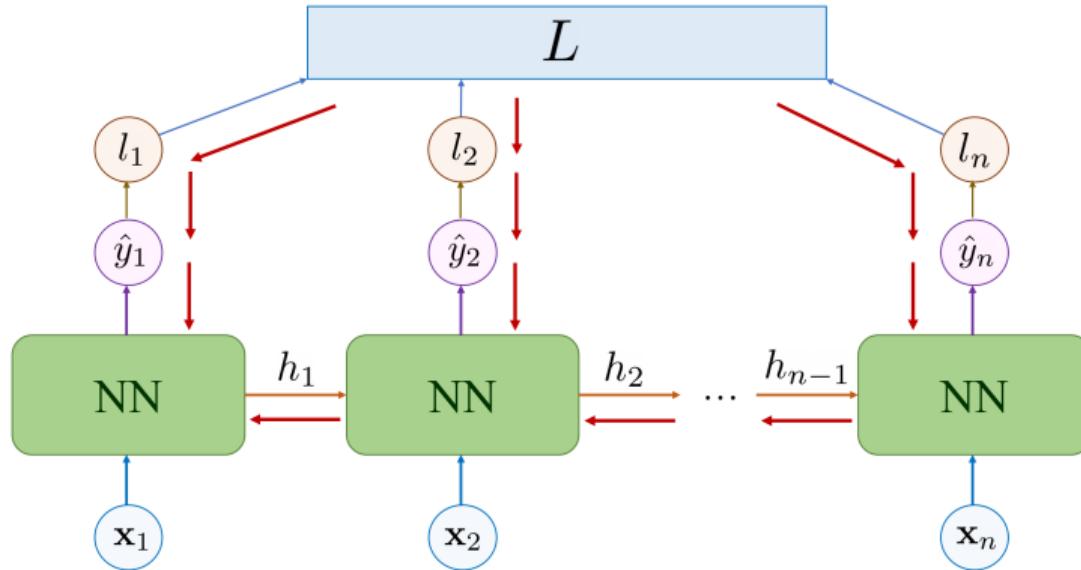


Updating  $W_{hy}$  can be done with ease.

$$\hat{y}_i = W_{hy}^T h_i, \quad l_i = f(\hat{y}_i), \quad L = \sum_i f(l_i)$$

The computation of  $\nabla_{W_{hy}} L$  involves the sum of  $\nabla_{W_{hy}} \hat{y}_i$ .

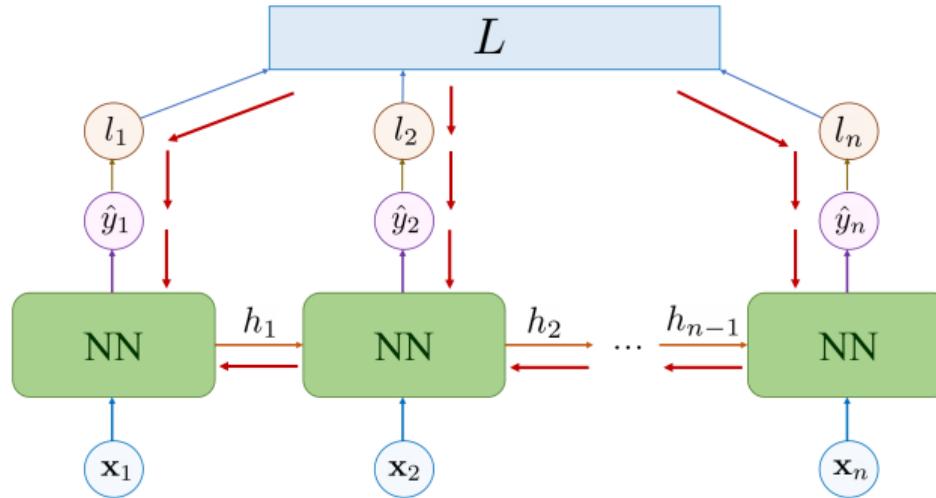
# RNN Backpropagation Through Time Challenges



Updating  $W_{hh}$  can be difficult. Ignoring the tanh activation,

$$\begin{aligned} h_n &= W_{hh}^T h_{n-1} + W_{dh}^T x_n = (W_{hh}^T \{W_{hh}^T h_{n-2} + W_{dh}^T x_{n-1}\} + W_{dh}^T x_n) \\ &= (W_{hh}^T)^2 h_{n-2} + W_{hh}^T W_{dh}^T x_{n-1} + W_{dh}^T x_n = (W_{hh}^T)^n h_0 + \dots \end{aligned}$$

## RNN Backpropagation Through Time Challenges

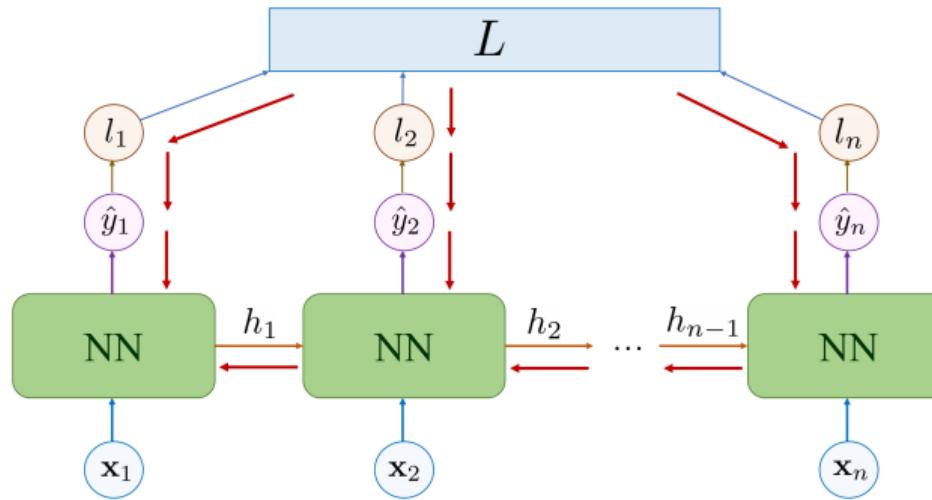


The terms  $(W_{hh}^T)^n$  with large  $n$  can cause two kinds of problems:

1. **Exploding Gradients:** If  $W_{hh}$  has several values  $> 1$ , then  $(W_{hh}^T)^n$  will have extremely large values.

A solution: Use **Gradient Clipping** to limit the magnitude of the gradients.

## RNN Backpropagation Through Time Challenges

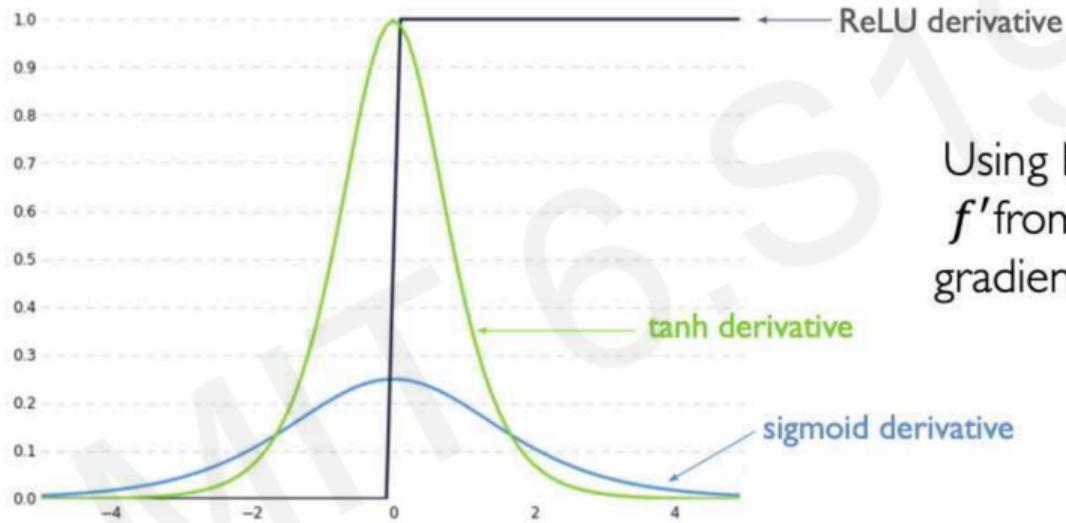


The terms  $(W_{hh}^T)^n$  with large  $n$  can cause two kinds of problems:

2. **Vanishing Gradients:** If  $W_{hh}$  has several values  $< 1$ , then gradients that involve computing  $(W_{hh}^T)^n$  will become zero.

Solutions: Find suitable (i) Activation Functions (ii) Weight initializations (iii) Network Architectures.

## Trick #1: Activation Functions



Using ReLU prevents  
 $f'$  from shrinking the  
gradients when  $x > 0$

## Trick #2: Parameter Initialization

Initialize **weights** to identity matrix

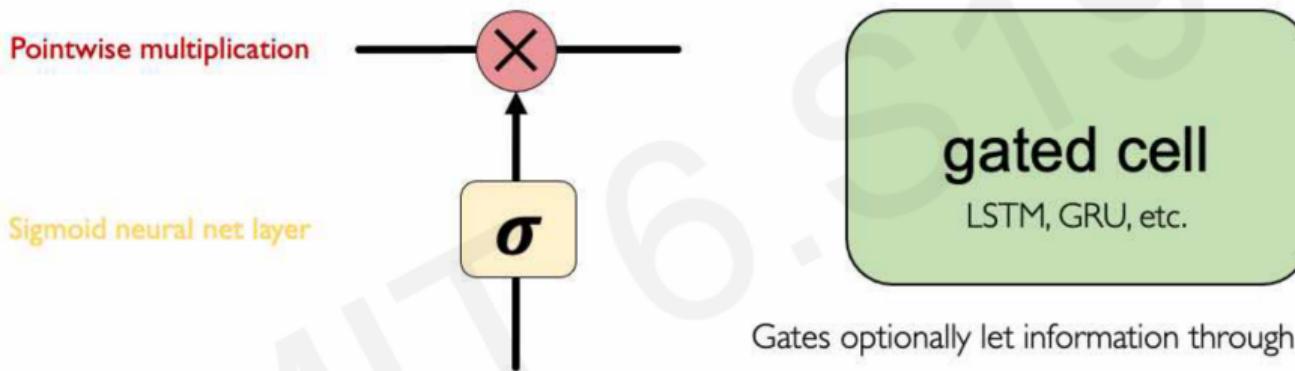
Initialize **biases** to zero

$$I_n = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & \cdots & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & \cdots & 0 \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \cdots & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

This helps prevent the weights from shrinking to zero.

## Trick #3: Gated Cells

Idea: use **gates** to selectively **add** or **remove** information within **each recurrent unit** with



**Long Short Term Memory (LSTMs)** networks rely on a gated cell to track information throughout many time steps.

## Networks for Sequence Modeling

Subsequent networks for sequence modeling:

- Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) networks
- Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) networks
- Transformers

# Imbalanced Classification

## Imbalanced Classification

Let us consider a contingency table for a binary classification problem.

Size of class 1 is 10000.

Size of class 2 is 100.

	$R_1$	$R_2$
$D_1$	9990	10
$D_2$	90	10

It may be beneficial for the classifier to consider misclassifying the minority class as more severe than misclassifying the majority class.

## Cost-Sensitive Learning

**Cost-Sensitive Learning:** In the cost function of a classifier, weigh the cost of misclassification of each class  $j$  by a weight  $w_j = \frac{n}{2n_j}$ , where  $n$  is the total number of instances, and  $n_j$  is the number of instances of class  $j$ .

---

Example: For Logistic Regression:

Loss of Logistic Regression:

$$-\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n y_i \ln(\hat{y}_i) + (1 - y_i) \ln(1 - \hat{y}_i)$$

The first term is the cost for the minority class ( $y_i = 1$ ), the second term is the cost for the majority class ( $y_i = 0$ ).

$$-\frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n w_1 y_i \ln(\hat{y}_i) + w_0 (1 - y_i) \ln(1 - \hat{y}_i)$$

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For a balanced class  $n_0 = n_1 = \frac{n}{2}$ ,

$$w_1 = \frac{n}{2\frac{n}{2}} = 1, \quad w_0 = \frac{n}{2\frac{n}{2}} = 1$$

Hence  $w_1 = w_0$ .

For an imbalanced class  $n_1 = \frac{n}{10}, n_0 = \frac{9n}{10}$ ,

$$w_1 = \frac{n}{2\frac{n}{10}} = 5, \quad w_0 = \frac{n}{2\frac{9n}{10}} = \frac{10}{18} < 1$$

Hence  $w_1 > w_0$ .

## Synthetic Minority Oversampling TEchnique (SMOTE)

Idea: In order to reduce the difference in the sizes of the majority class and the minority class, generate more synthetic minority class data instances.

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SMOTE algorithm:

1. Draw a random instance  $\mathbf{x}_i$  from the minority class.
2. Identify the  $k$  nearest neighbors of this instance  $\mathbf{x}_i$ . Randomly select one of these  $k$  nearest neighbors (say  $\mathbf{x}_j$ )
3. Obtain as a new instance, an instance on the vector joining  $\mathbf{x}_i$  and  $\mathbf{x}_j$ , i.e. the new instance  $\mathbf{x}_k^s$  is,

$$\mathbf{x}_k^s = \lambda \mathbf{x}_i + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{x}_j, \quad \lambda \in (0, 1).$$

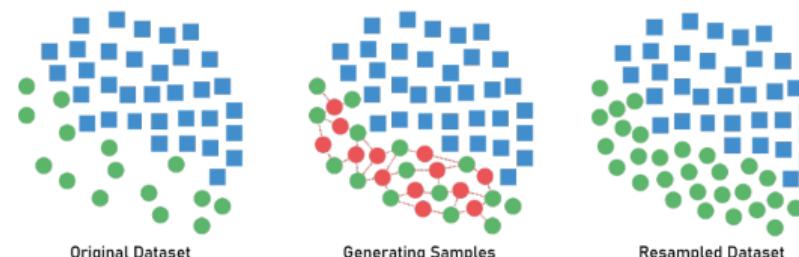
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## Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique



## References

- [1] Introduction to Deep Learning, MIT 6.S191.  
<http://introtodeeplearning.com/>
- [2] MIT 6.S191: Recurrent Neural Networks and Transformers.  
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=QvkQ1B3FBqA>
- [3] Chawla, Nitesh V., et al. “SMOTE: synthetic minority over-sampling technique”. Journal of artificial intelligence research 16 (2002): 321-357.

### Image Sources:

- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/DNA#/media/File:Phosphate\\_backbone.jpg](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/DNA#/media/File:Phosphate_backbone.jpg)
- [https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/DNA\\_sequencing#/media/File:Radioactive\\_Fluorescent\\_Seq.jpg](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/DNA_sequencing#/media/File:Radioactive_Fluorescent_Seq.jpg)
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