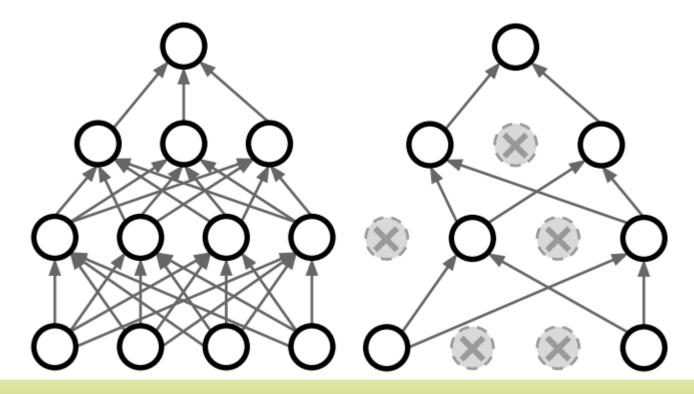


Deep Learning

Mohammad Reza Mohammadi 2021

Dropout

- In each forward pass, randomly set some neurons to zero
- Probability of dropping is a hyperparameter; 0.5 is common

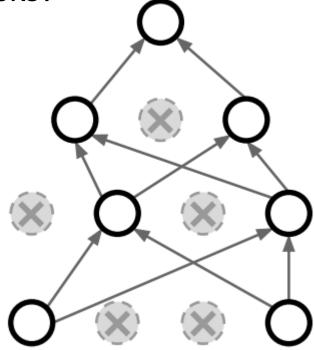


Dropout

- Dropout is training a large ensemble of models (that share parameters)
- Each binary mask is one model

• An FC layer with 4096 units has $2^{4096} \sim 10^{1233}$ possible masks!



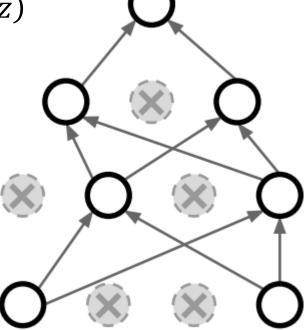


Dropout: Test time

- Dropout makes our output random!
- Want to "average out" the randomness at test-time

$$y = f(x) = E_z[f(x,z)] = \sum_{z} p(z)f(x,z)$$

But this summation is very time-consuming



Dropout: Test time

- Want to approximate the expected value
- Consider a single neuron

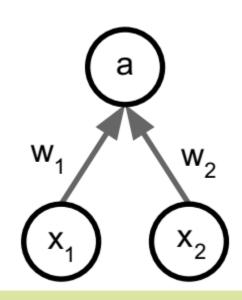
$$y = f(x) = E_z[f(x,z)] = \sum_{z} p(z)f(x,z)$$

$$E[a] = p^{2}(w_{1}x_{1} + w_{2}x_{2}) + p(1-p)(w_{1}x_{1} + w_{2}0)$$

$$+ (1-p)p(w_{1}0 + w_{2}x_{2}) + (1-p)^{2}(w_{1}0 + w_{2}0)$$

$$= p(w_{1}x_{1} + w_{2}x_{2})$$

At test time, multiply by dropout probability



Dropout: Test time

- Want to approximate the expected value
- Consider a single neuron

$$y = f(x) = E_z[f(x,z)] = \sum_{z} p(z)f(x,z)$$

```
E[a] = p^{2}(w_{1}x_{1} + w_{2}x_{2}) + p(1-p)(w_{1}x_{1} + w_{2}0)
+ (1-p)p(w_{1}0 + w_{2}x_{2}) + (1-p)^{2}(w_{1}0 + w_{2}0)
= p(w_{1}x_{1} + w_{2}x_{2})
```

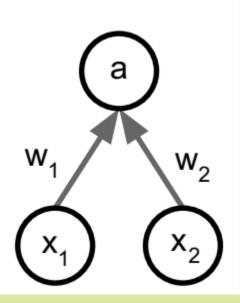
def predict(X):

```
# ensembled forward pass

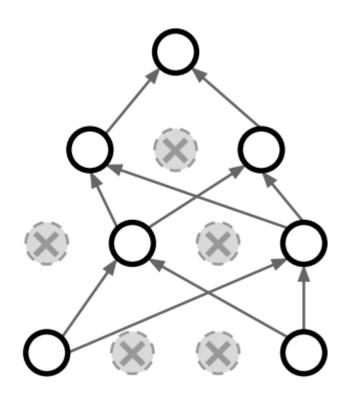
H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1) * p # NOTE: scale the activations

H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2) * p # NOTE: scale the activations

out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
```

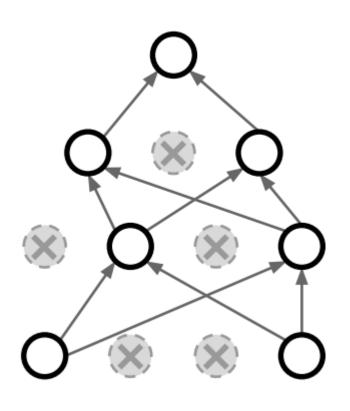


Dropout



```
p = 0.5 # probability of keeping a unit active. higher = less dropout
def train step(X):
 # forward pass for example 3-layer neural network
 H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1)
 U1 = (np.random.rand(*H1.shape) < p) # first dropout mask.
 H1 *= U1 # drop!
 H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2)
 U2 = (np.random.rand(*H2.shape) < p) # second dropout mask.
 H2 *= U2 # drop!
 out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
                             drop in forward pas
 # backward pass: compute gradients... (not shown)
 # perform parameter update... (not shown)
def predict (X):
                                           scale at test time
 # ensembled forward pass
 H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1) * p # scale the activations
 H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2) * p # scale the activations
 out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
```

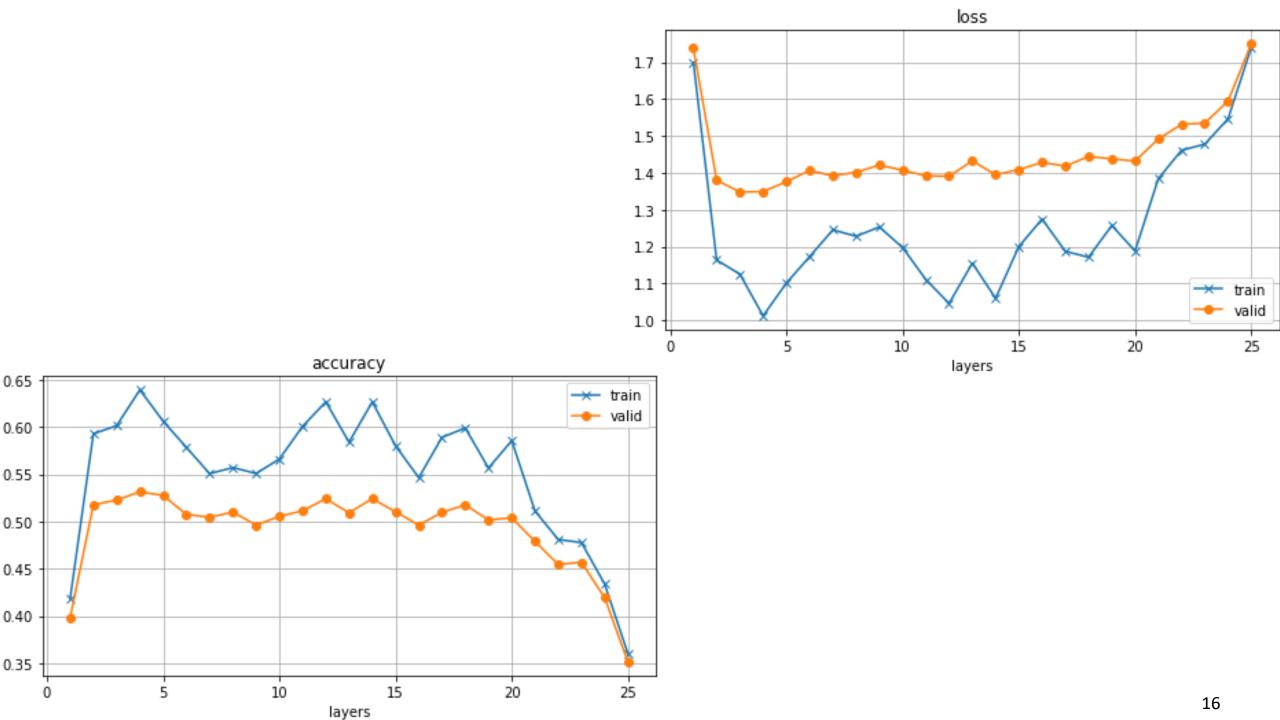
Inverted Dropout



```
p = 0.5 # probability of keeping a unit active. higher = less dropout
def train step(X):
  # forward pass for example 3-layer neural network
 H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1)
 U1 = (np.random.rand(*H1.shape) < p) / p # first dropout mask. Notice /p!
 H1 *= U1 # drop!
  H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2)
 U2 = (np.random.rand(*H2.shape) < p) / p # second dropout mask. Notice /p!
 H2 *= U2 # drop!
 out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
                                            drop in forward pass
  # backward pass: compute gradients... (not shown)
  # perform parameter update... (not shown)
def predict(X):
                                      test time is unchanged
 # ensembled forward pass
 H1 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W1, X) + b1) # no scaling necessary
 H2 = np.maximum(0, np.dot(W2, H1) + b2)
 out = np.dot(W3, H2) + b3
```

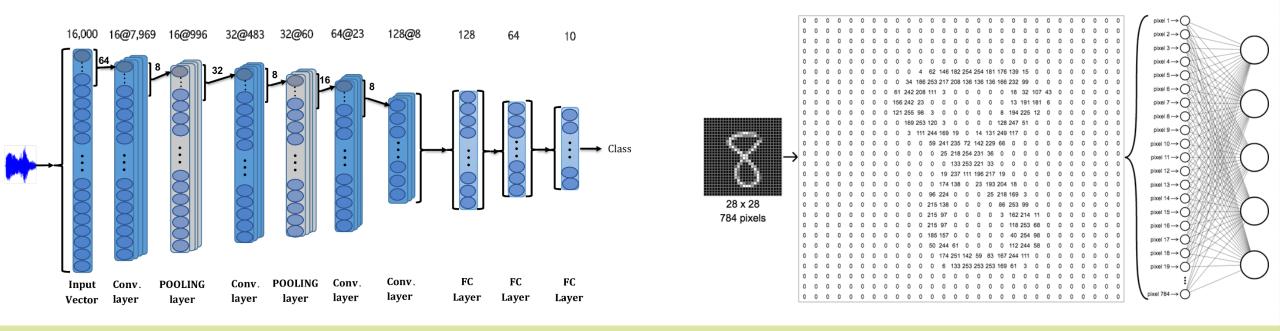
Convolutional Networks

```
early stopping = keras.callbacks.EarlyStopping(monitor="val loss",
                                               min delta=0,
                                               patience=5,
                                               restore best weights=True)
for idx, num layers in enumerate (range (25)):
    # define model
   model = keras.Sequential()
   model.add(keras.layers.Input(shape=x train[0].shape))
    model.add(keras.layers.Flatten())
    for l in range(num layers):
        model.add(keras.layers.Dense(units=512, activation='elu'))
    model.add(keras.layers.Dense(units=num classes, activation='softmax'))
    # compile model
   model.compile(loss='categorical crossentropy', optimizer='adam', metrics=['accuracy'])
    # train model
    history = model.fit(x train, y_train,
                        batch size=256,
                        epochs=100,
                        validation_data=(x_test, y_test),
                        callbacks=[early stopping])
    #
    train loss[idx], train acc[idx] = model.evaluate(x_train, y_train, verbose=0)
    valid loss[idx], valid acc[idx] = model.evaluate(x test, y test, verbose=0)
```



Convolutional Networks

- CNNs, are a specialized kind of NN for processing data that has a known, grid-like topology
- Convolution is a specialized kind of linear operation



Locally Connected Layers

Many features that the human eye can easily detect are local features

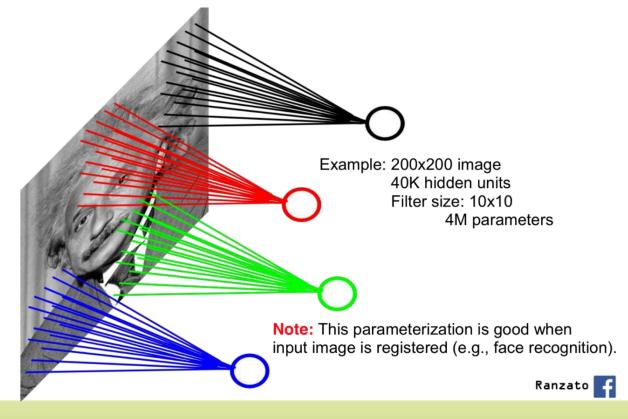
• We can detect edges, textures, and even shapes using pixel intensities in a

small region of an image

 If we wanted to detect a feature, we can use the same detector on the bottom-left corner of an image and on the top right of the image

 We can reuse the same weights everywhere else in the image

weight sharing

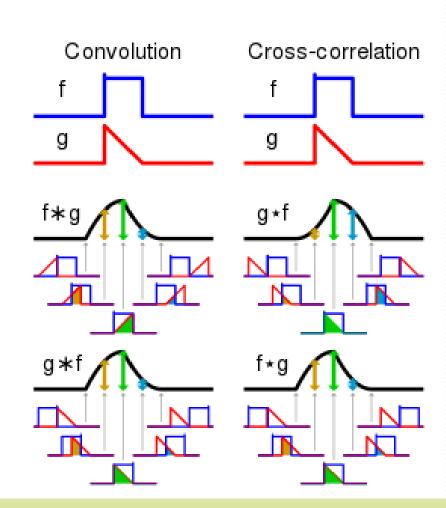


Convolution vs Correlation

- Many ML libraries implement cross-correlation but call it convolution!
- The learning algorithm will learn the appropriate values of the kernel in the appropriate place

$$S(i,j) = (I \star K)(i,j) = \sum_{m} \sum_{n} I(i+m,j+n)K(m,n)$$

$$S(i,j) = (I * K)(i,j) = \sum_{m} \sum_{n} I(i-m,j-n)K(m,n)$$



Convolution



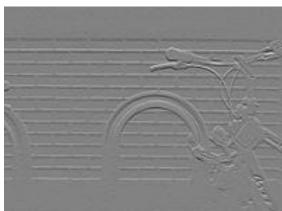
$G_{\mathcal{Y}}$					
+1	0	-1			
+2	0	-2			
+1	0	-1			



30	3,	22	1	0
0_2	02	10	3	1
30	1,	22	2	3
2	0	0	2	2
2	0	0	0	1

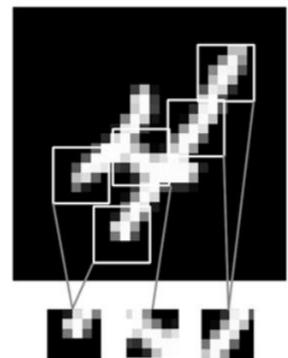
12.0	12.0	17.0
10.0	17.0	19.0
9.0	6.0	14.0

G_{x}					
+1	+2	+1			
0	0	0			
-1	-2	-1			



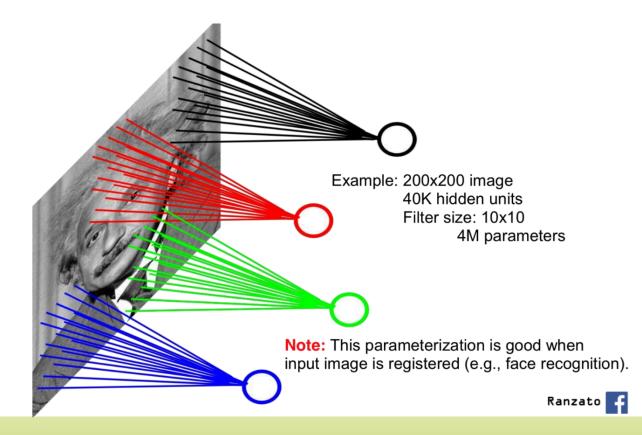
Dense layer vs Convolution layer

- Dense layers learn global patterns in their input feature space (for example, for a MNIST digit, patterns involving all pixels)
- Convolution layers learn local patterns



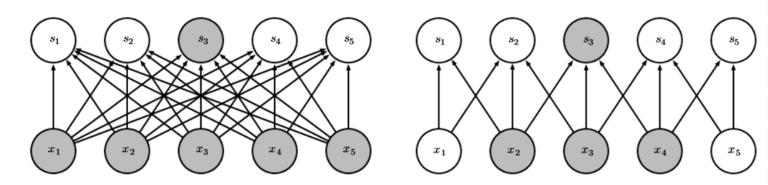
Convolution

- Sparse interactions
- Parameter sharing
- Equivariant representations
- Working with inputs of variable size



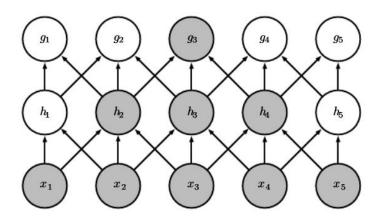
Sparse interactions

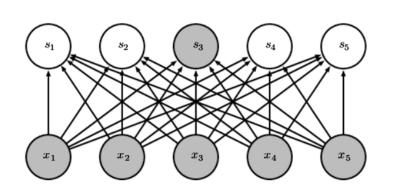
- In traditional NN layers, every output unit interacts with every input unit
- Convolutional networks, typically have sparse interactions
- For example, when processing an image, the input image might have thousands or millions of pixels, but we can detect small, meaningful features such as edges with kernels that occupy only tens or hundreds of pixels
 - We need to store fewer parameters

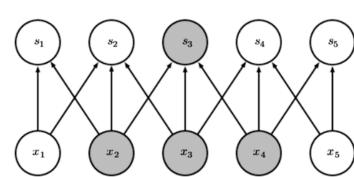


Sparse interactions

- In a deep convolutional network, units in the deeper layers may indirectly interact with a larger portion of the input
- This allows the network to efficiently describe complicated interactions between many variables by constructing such sparse interactions
- The receptive field of the units in the deeper layers can be very large







Parameter sharing

- Parameter sharing refers to using the same parameter for more than one function in a model
- In a convolutional neural net, each member of the kernel is used at every position of the input
- The parameter sharing means that rather than learning a separate set of parameters for every location, we learn only one set



