



**PennState**  
College of the  
Liberal Arts

**C-SODA**  
Center for Social Data Analytics

## **Day 4/5 - Introduction to Neural Nets / Deep Learning for NLP**

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Advanced Text as Data: Natural Language Processing  
Essex Summer School in Social Science Data Analysis

Burt L. Monroe (Instructor) & Sam Bestvater (TA)  
Pennsylvania State University

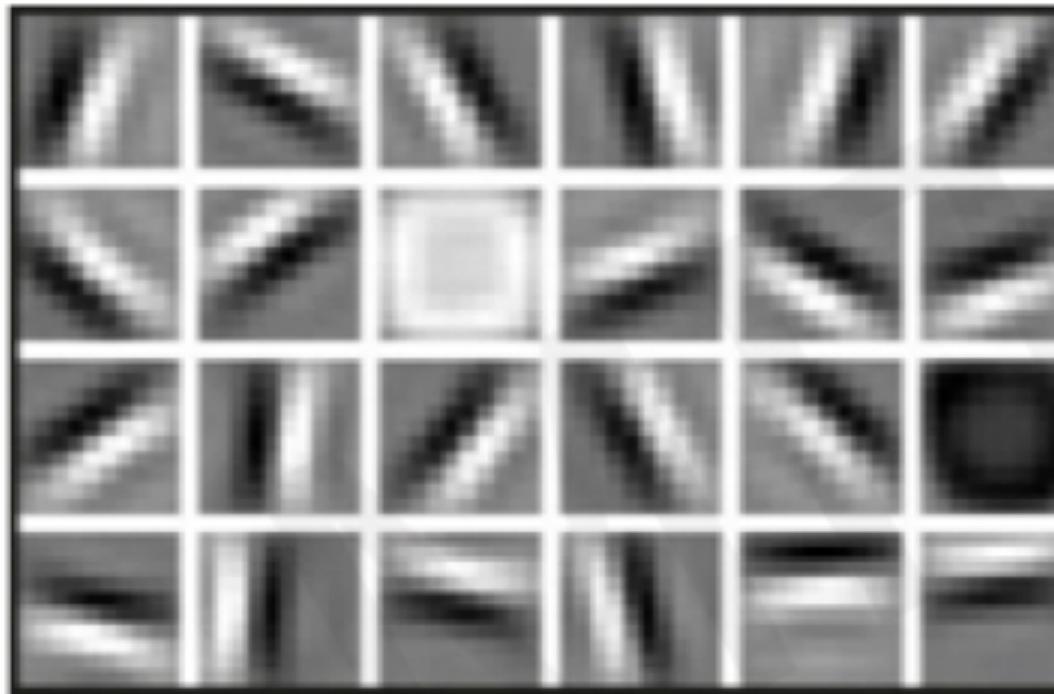
July 29-30, 2021

# Why Deep Learning?

Hand engineered features are time consuming, brittle, and not scalable in practice

Can we learn the **underlying features** directly from data?

Low Level Features



Lines & Edges

Mid Level Features



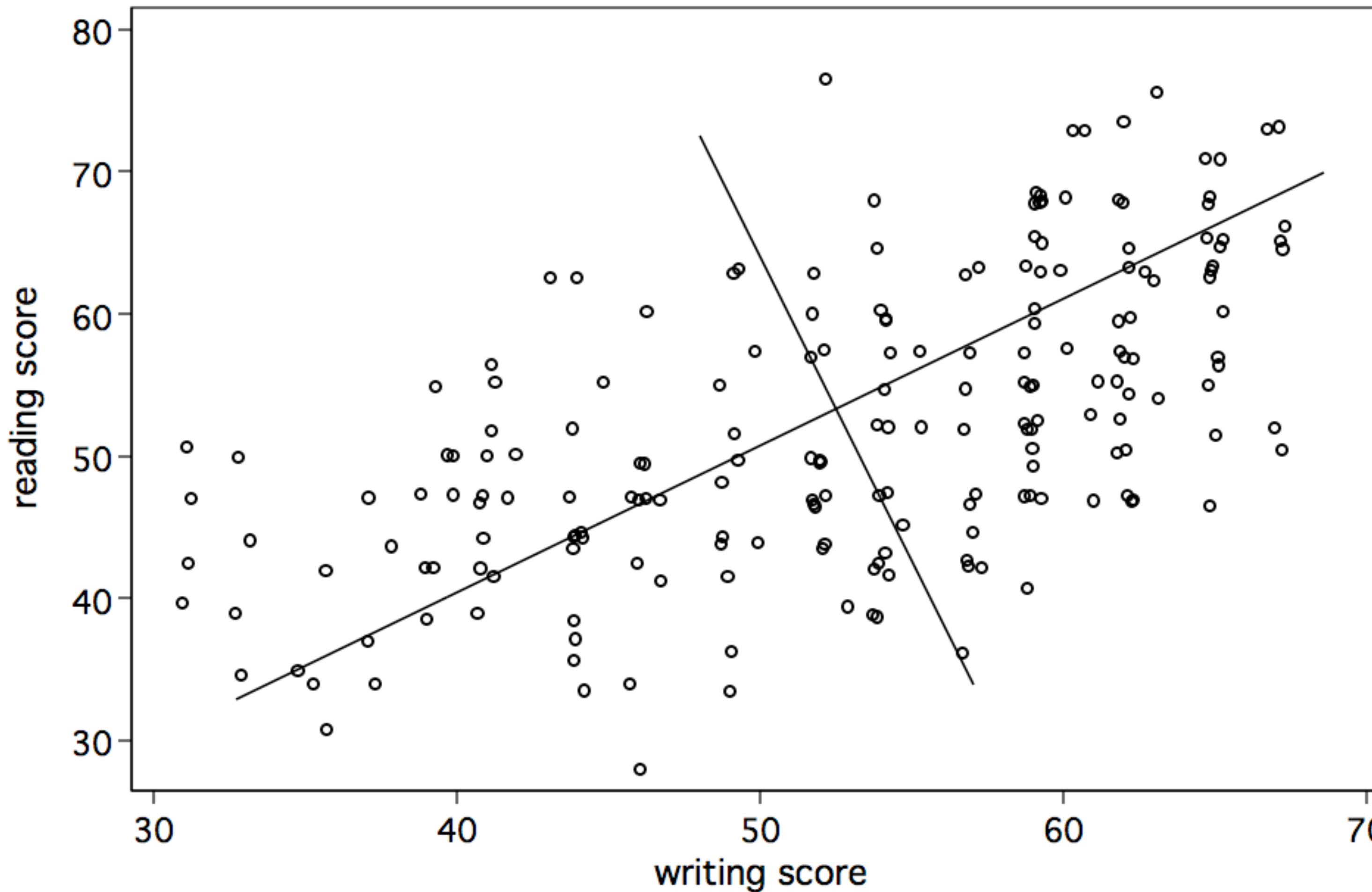
Eyes & Nose & Ears

High Level Features



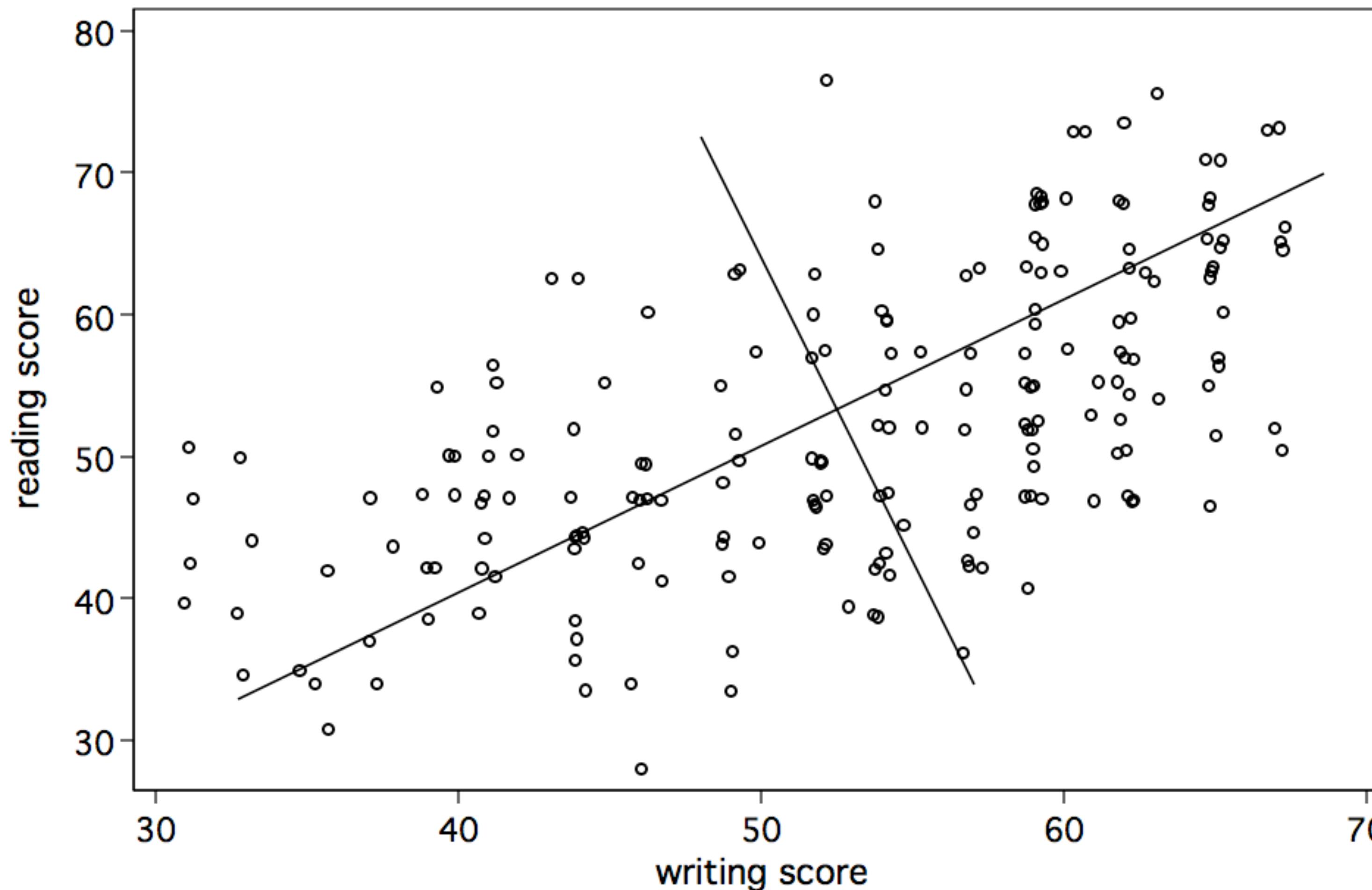
Facial Structure

You've probably seen a lot of linear approaches to finding new feature representations:



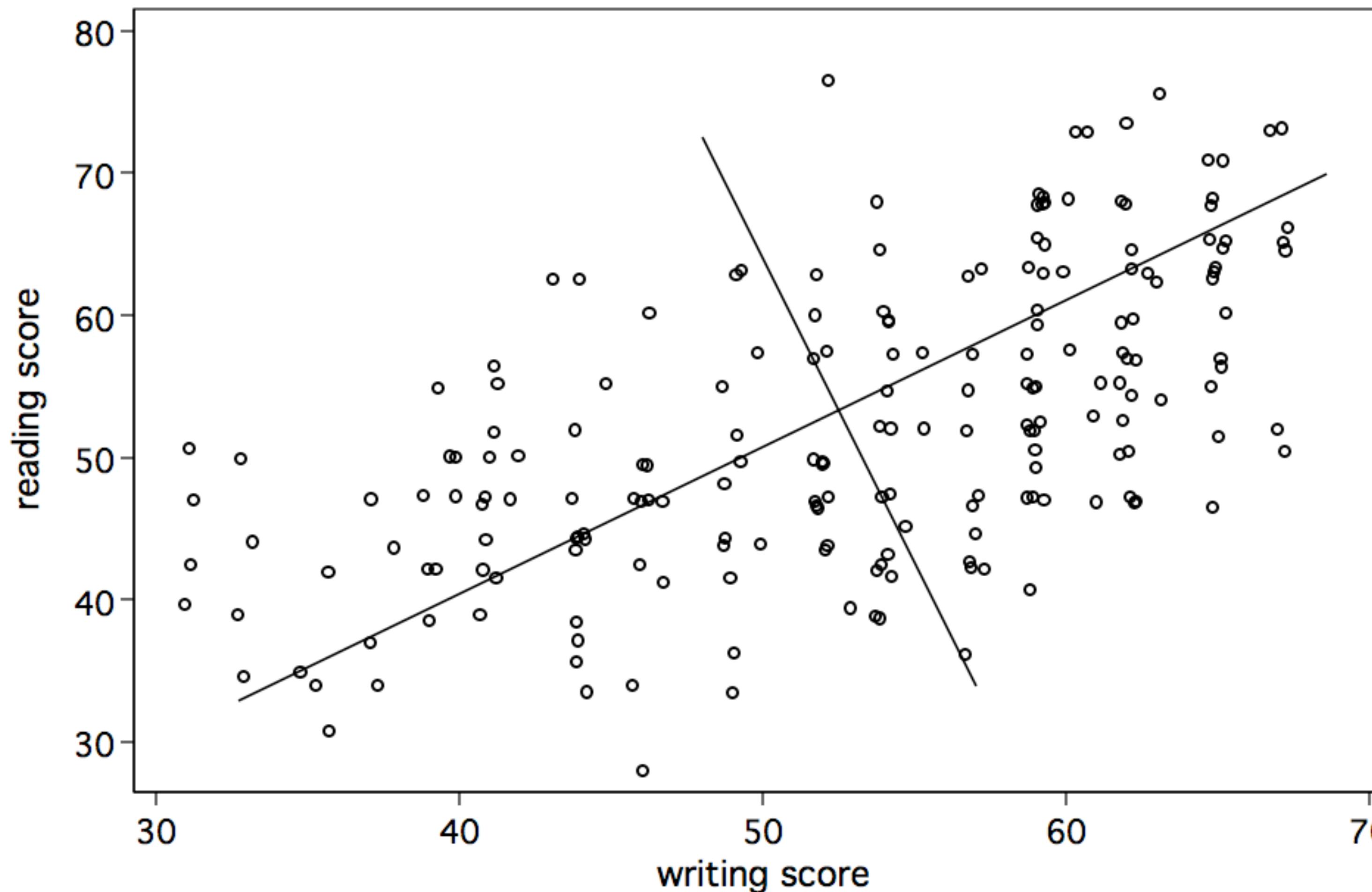
You've probably seen a lot of linear approaches to finding new feature representations:

We might do this to find interpretable or intuitive latent concepts.



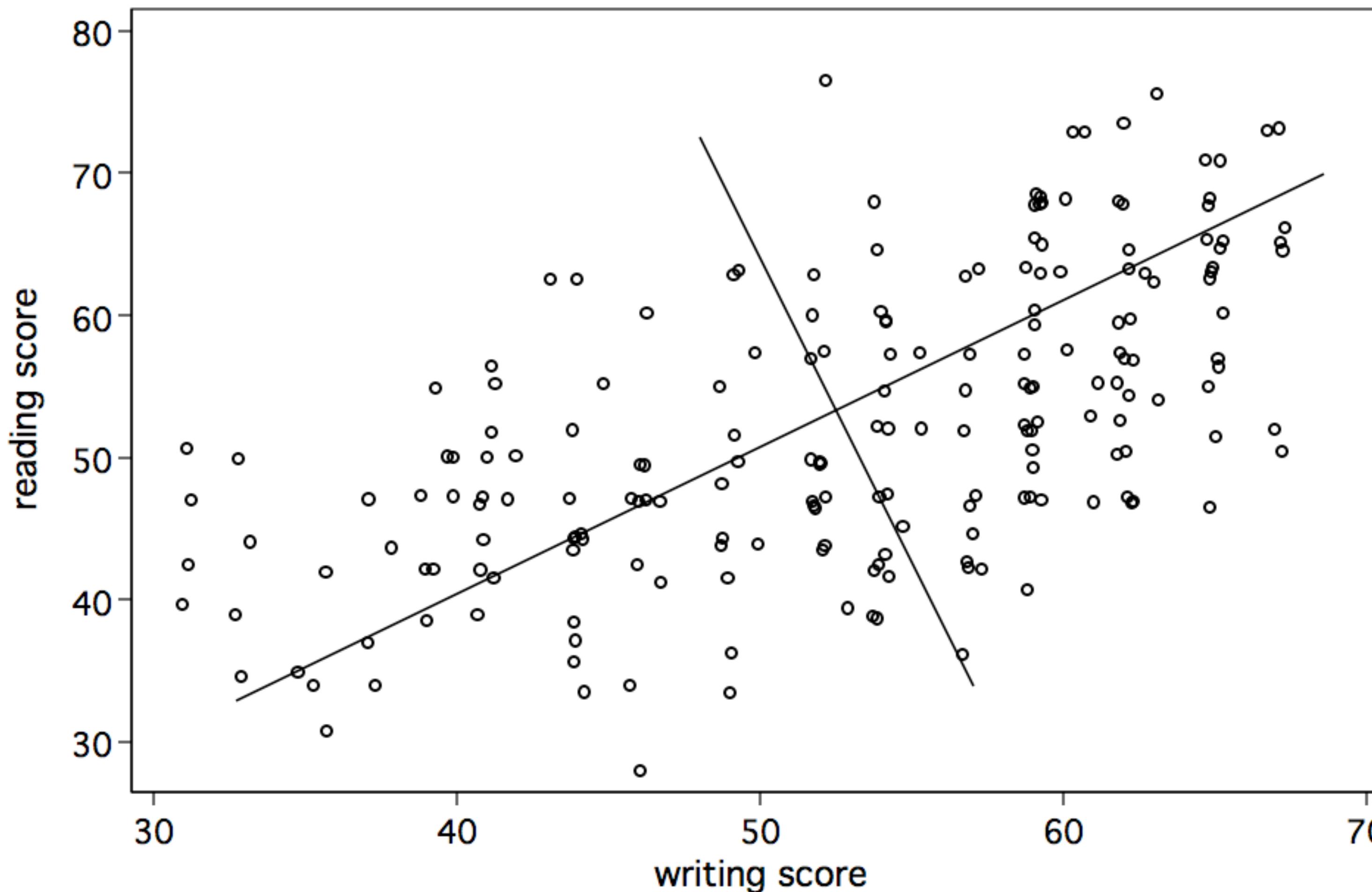
You've probably seen a lot of linear approaches to finding new feature representations:

We might do this to make computing more efficient (e.g., orthogonalization).



You've probably seen a lot of linear approaches to finding new feature representations:

We might do this to reduce dimensionality for generalizability or compression



Domain knowledge may allow us to do successful *feature engineering*.

**Figure 4.3. Feature engineering for reading the time on a clock**

Raw data:  
pixel grid



---

Better  
features:  
clock hands'  
coordinates

{x1: 0.7,  
y1: 0.7}  
{x2: 0.5,  
y2: 0.0}

{x1: 0.0,  
y2: 1.0}  
{x2: -0.38,  
y2: 0.32}

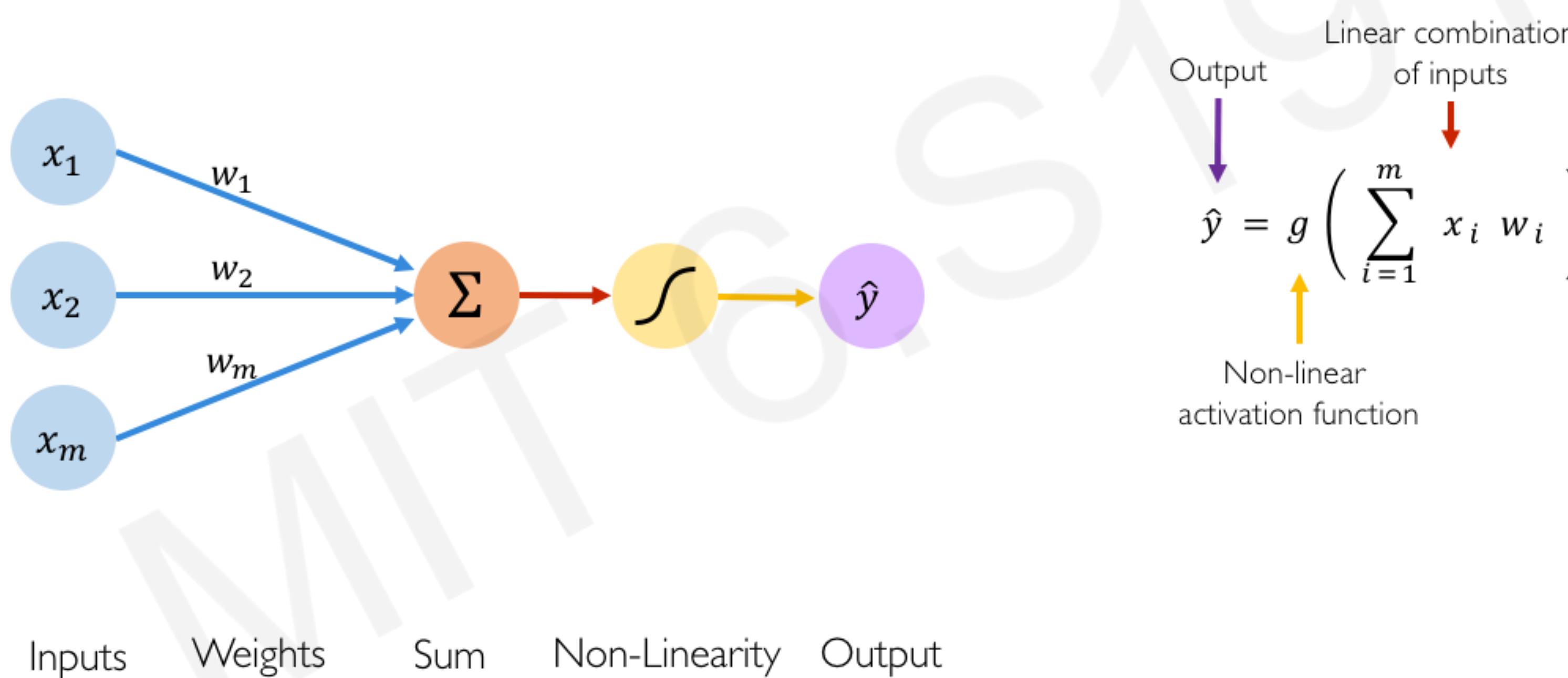
---

Even better  
features:  
angles of  
clock hands

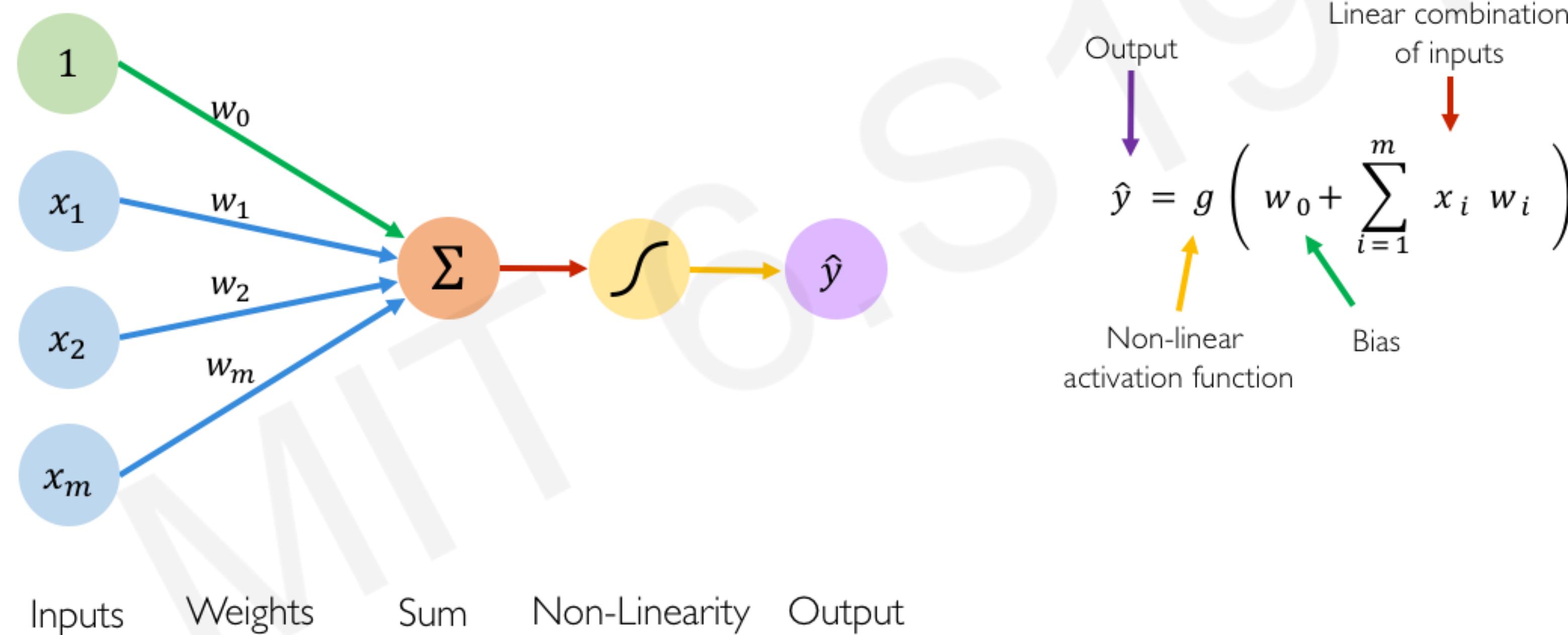
theta1: 45  
theta2: 0

theta1: 90  
theta2: 140

# The Perceptron: Forward Propagation



# The Perceptron: Forward Propagation



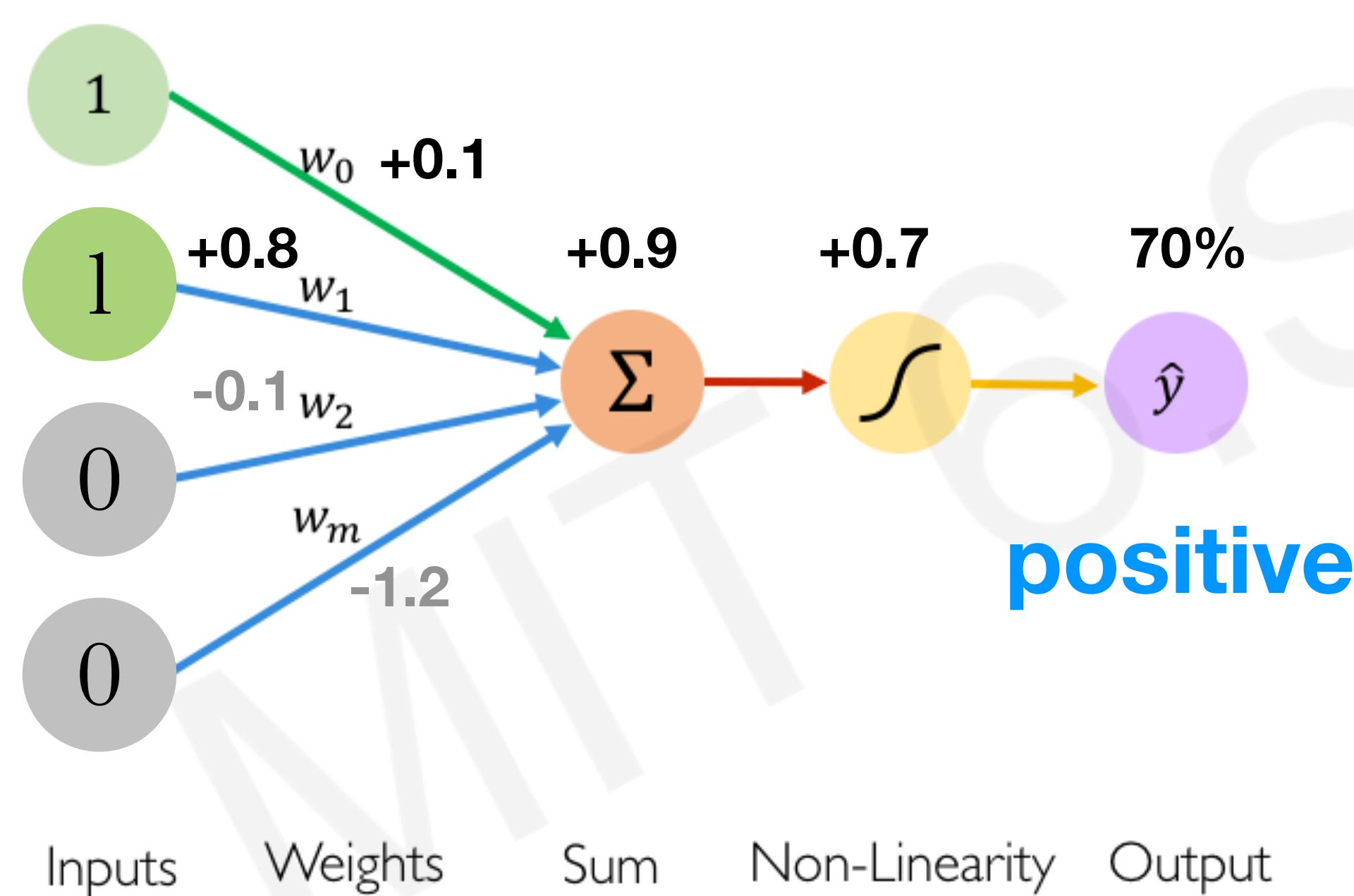
# The Perceptron: Forward Propagation

“It was great.”

great

banana

worst



$$\hat{y} = g \left( w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m x_i w_i \right)$$

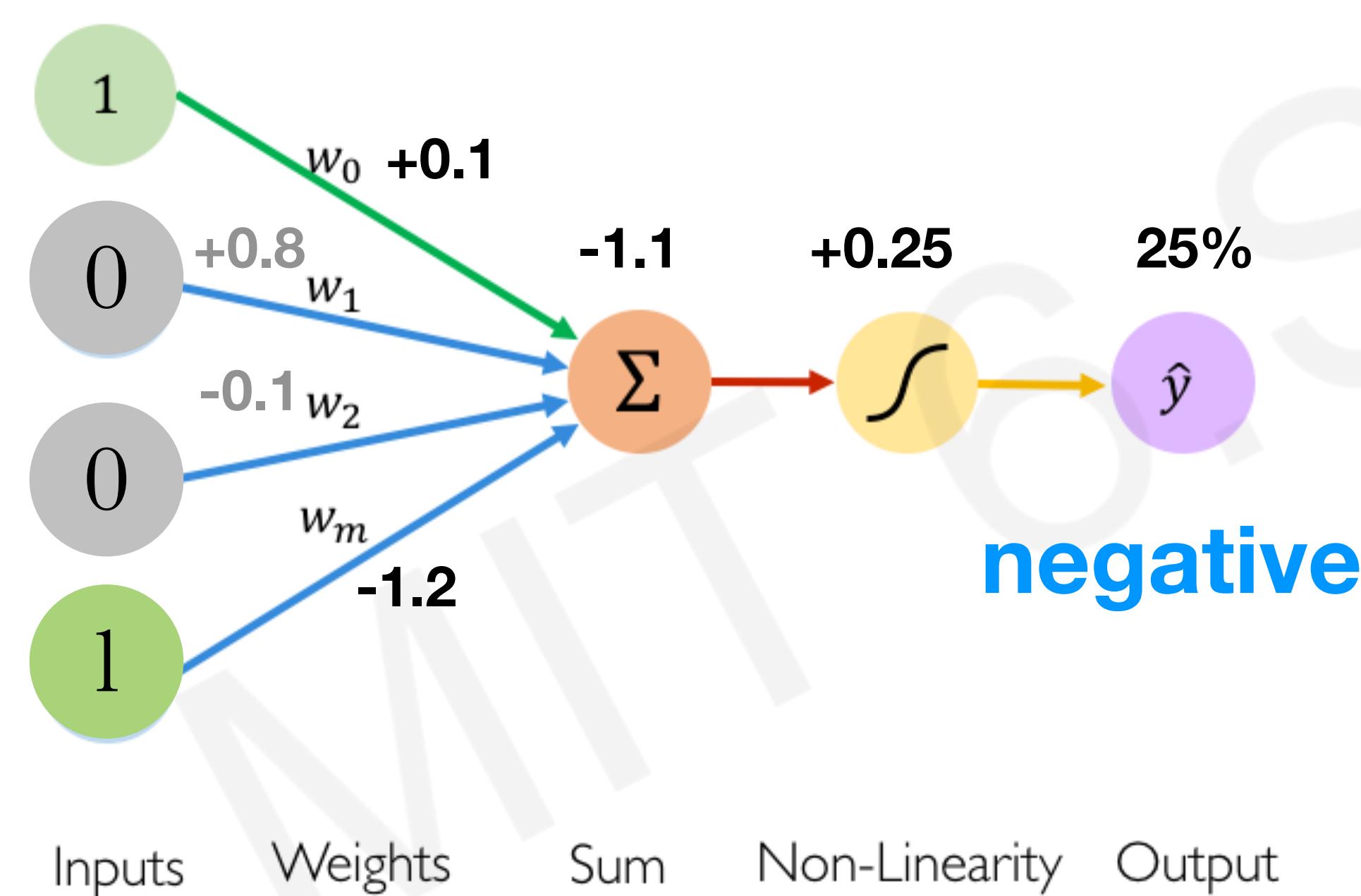
Output  
Linear combination of inputs  
Non-linear activation function  
Bias

# The Perceptron: Forward Propagation

“The **worst.**”

great  
banana

worst



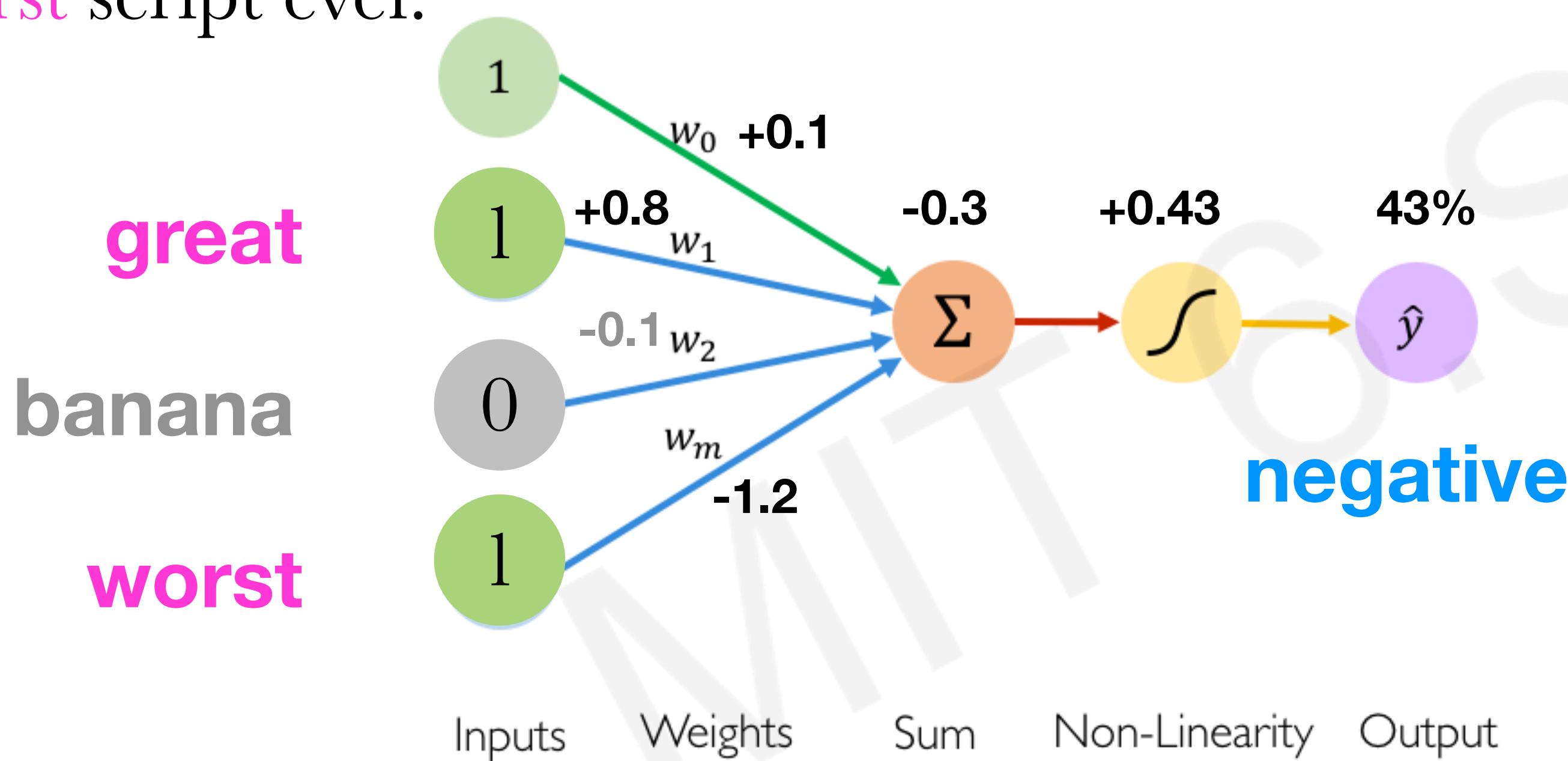
$$\hat{y} = g \left( w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m x_i w_i \right)$$

Annotations explain the components of the equation:

- Output:** Points to the final output  $\hat{y}$ .
- Linear combination of inputs:** Points to the term  $w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m x_i w_i$ .
- Bias:** Points to the term  $w_0$ .
- Non-linear activation function:** Points to the term  $g$ .

# The Perceptron: Forward Propagation

“Acting was **great**.  
Worst script ever.”



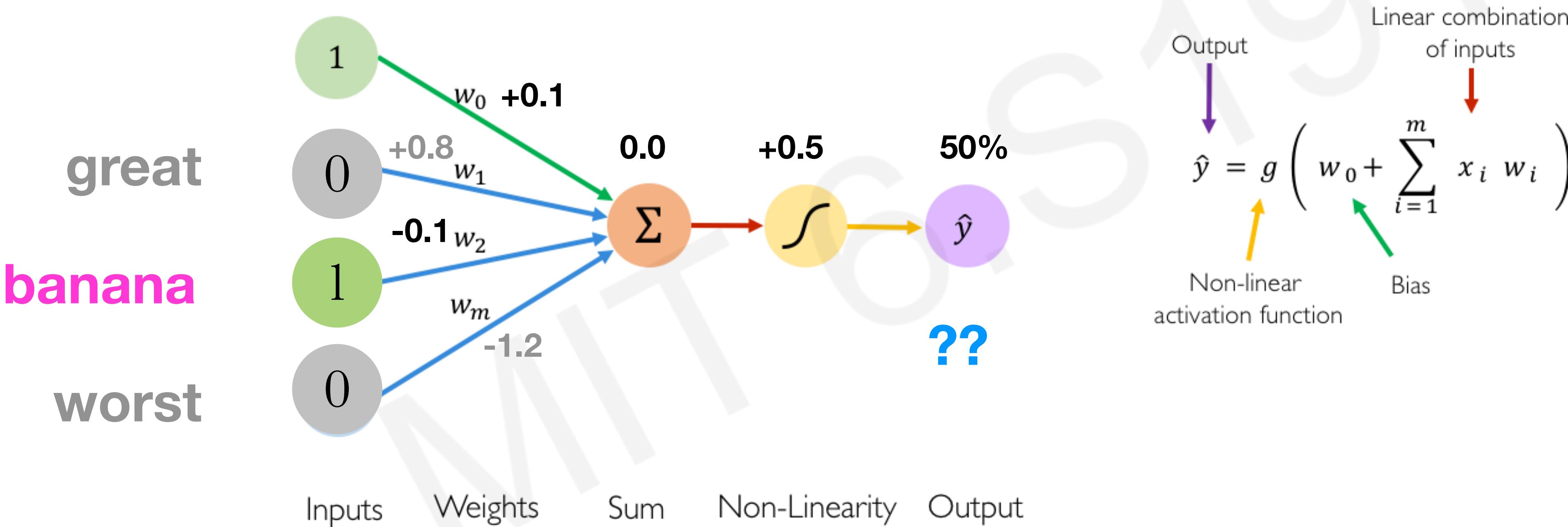
$$\hat{y} = g \left( w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m x_i w_i \right)$$

Annotations explain the components of the equation:

- Output:** Points to the final output  $\hat{y}$ .
- Linear combination of inputs:** Points to the term  $w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m x_i w_i$ .
- Bias:** Points to the term  $w_0$ .
- Non-linear activation function:** Points to the term  $g(\dots)$ .

# The Perceptron: Forward Propagation

“I want a banana.”



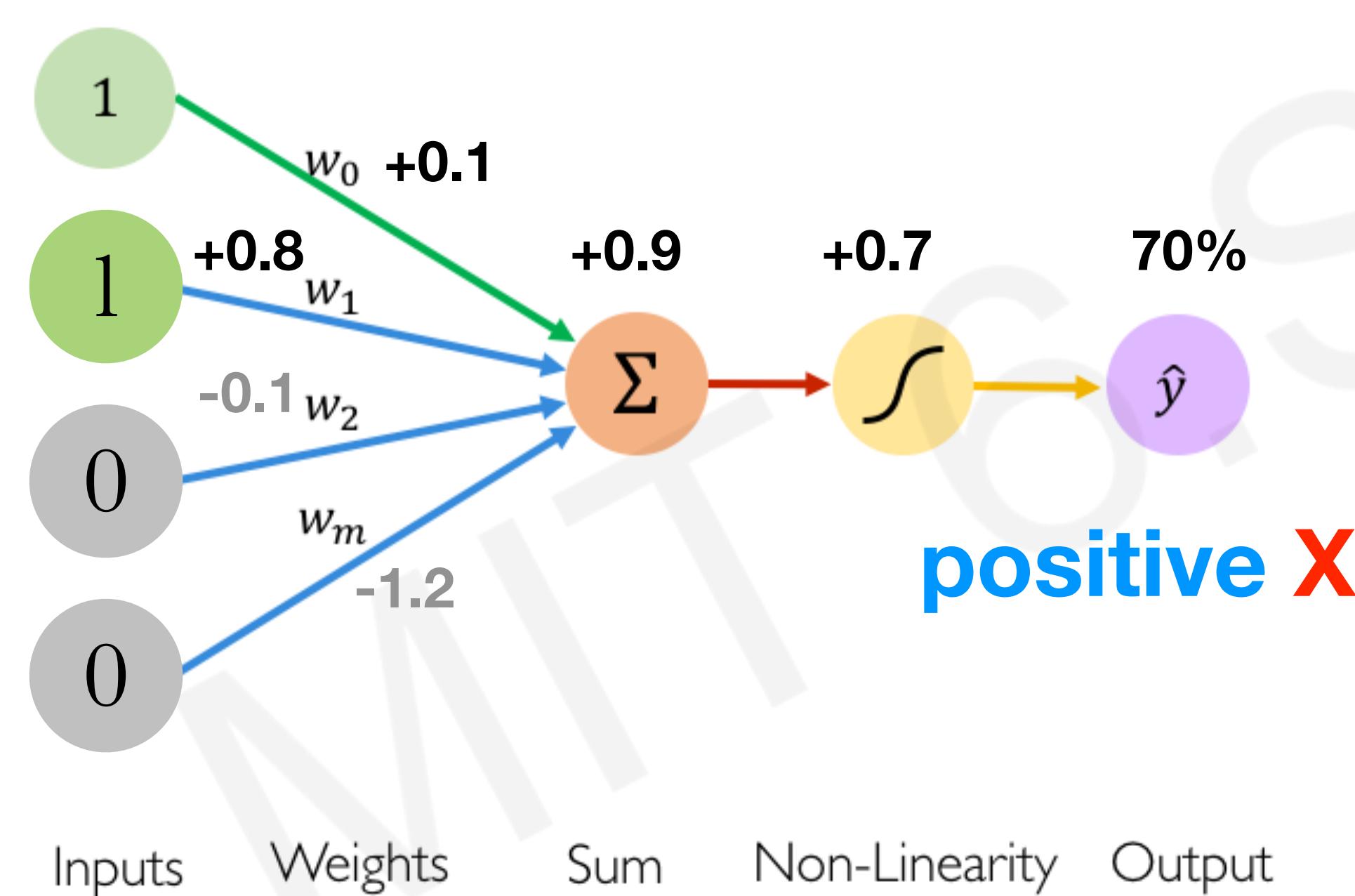
# The Perceptron: Forward Propagation

“Not great.”

great

banana

worst

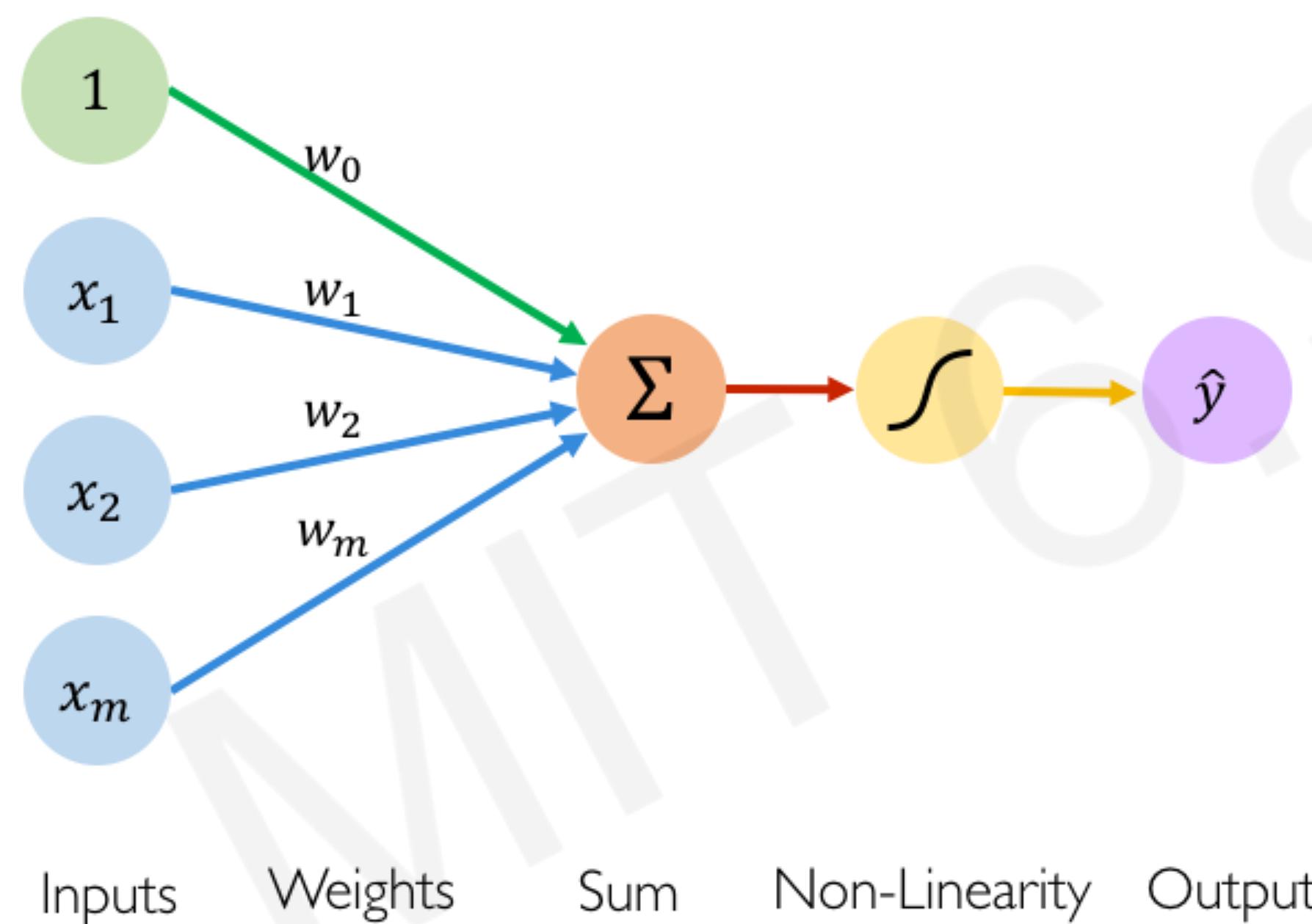


$$\hat{y} = g \left( w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m x_i w_i \right)$$

Annotations explain the components of the equation:

- Output:** Points to the output node  $\hat{y}$ .
- Linear combination of inputs:** Points to the summation term  $\sum_{i=1}^m x_i w_i$ .
- Bias:** Points to the bias term  $w_0$ .
- Non-linear activation function:** Points to the sigmoid function  $g$ .

# The Perceptron: Forward Propagation

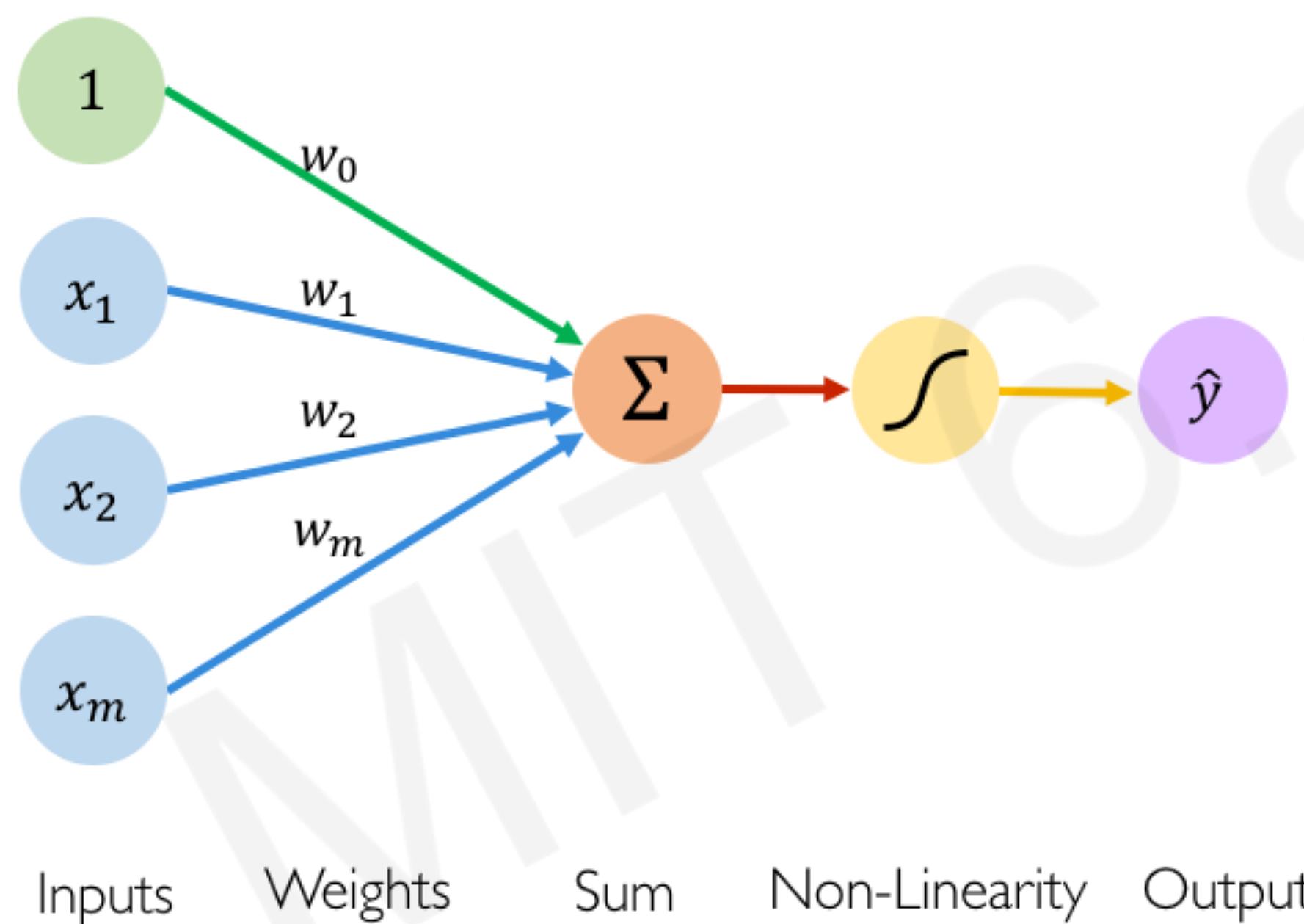


$$\hat{y} = g \left( w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^m x_i w_i \right)$$

$$\hat{y} = g ( w_0 + \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W} )$$

where:  $\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_m \end{bmatrix}$  and  $\mathbf{W} = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ \vdots \\ w_m \end{bmatrix}$

# The Perceptron: Forward Propagation

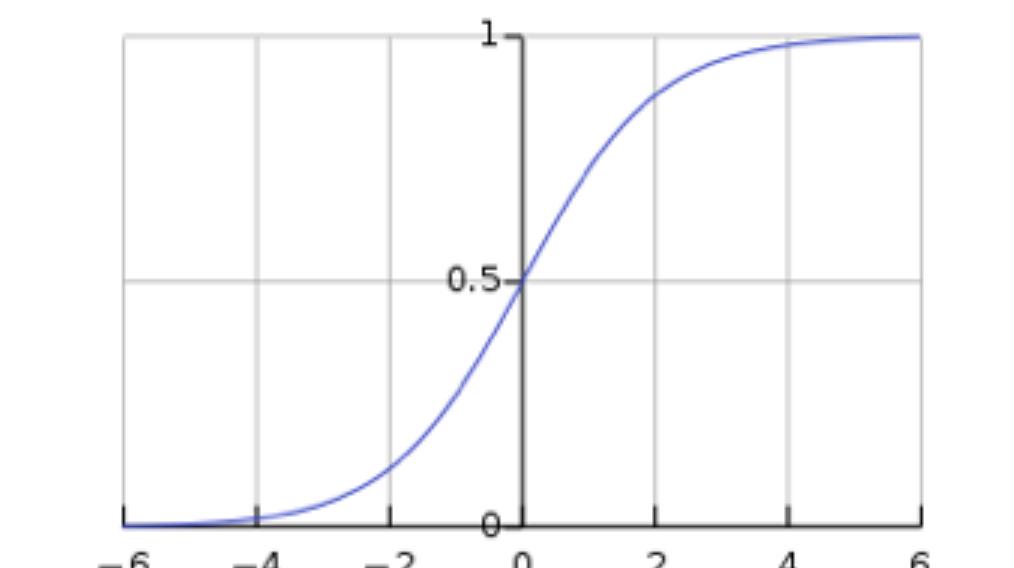


## Activation Functions

$$\hat{y} = g(w_0 + X^T W)$$

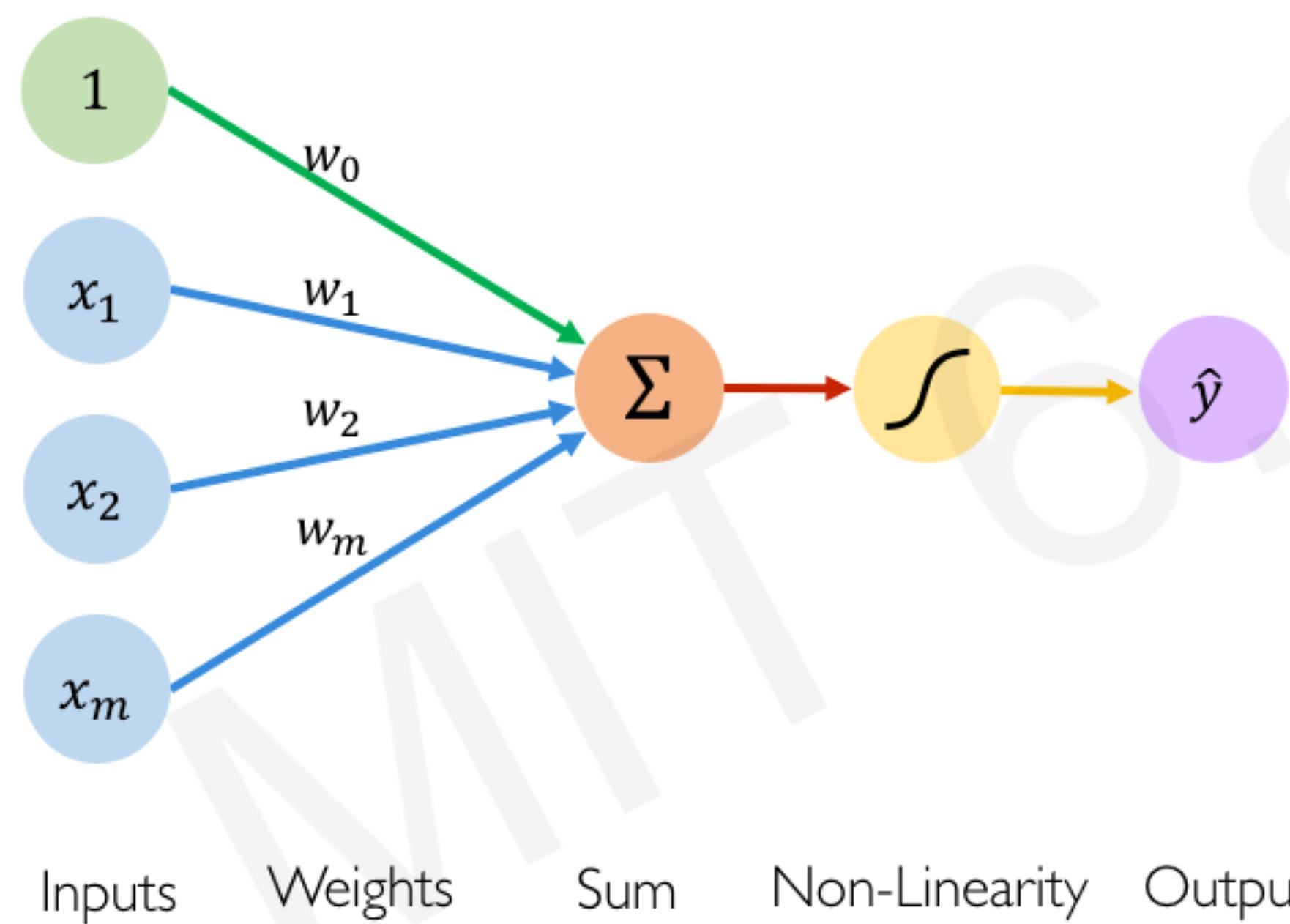
- Example: sigmoid function

$$g(z) = \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$



This is exactly the same as the logit / logistic regression “inverse link function.”

# The Perceptron: Forward Propagation

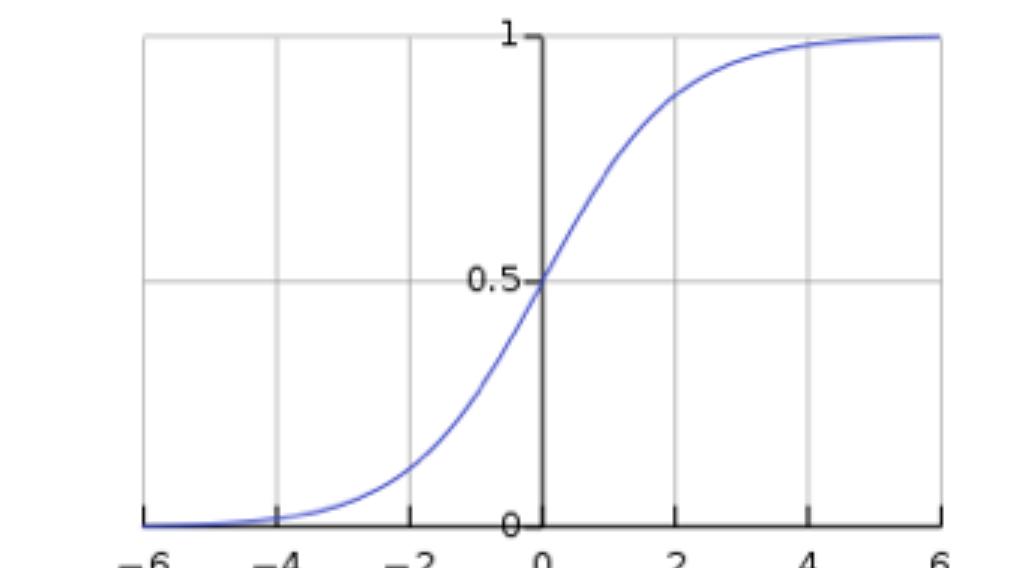


## Activation Functions

$$\hat{y} = g(w_0 + X^T W)$$

- Example: sigmoid function

$$g(z) = \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

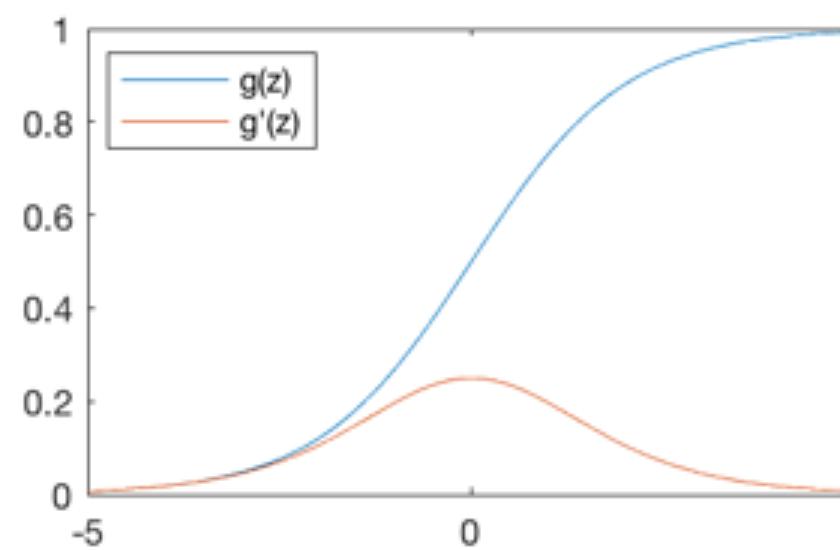


# Machine learning in one slide

Social science (inference)	Machine learning (prediction)
GLM inverse link function	Activation function
$\mathbb{E}(y) = f(\mathbf{x}'\boldsymbol{\beta})$	$\mathbb{E}(y) = f(\mathbf{x}'\boldsymbol{\beta})$
Preferred objective function	
Log-likelihood	Cross-entropy
$\log \mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^n \log P(y_i \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})$	$-\log \mathcal{L} = -\sum_{i=1}^n \log P(y_i \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})$
Solving algorithm	
Newton-Raphson	Gradient descent
$\boldsymbol{\beta}_t := \boldsymbol{\beta}_{t-1} - [\mathbf{H} \log \mathcal{L}]^{-1} \nabla \log \mathcal{L}$	$\boldsymbol{\beta}_t := \boldsymbol{\beta}_{t-1} - \eta \nabla (-\log \mathcal{L})$
Quantities of interest	
$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}; \text{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$	$\hat{\mathbf{y}}; \sum \mathbf{1}(\hat{y} = y)/n$

# Common Activation Functions

Sigmoid Function

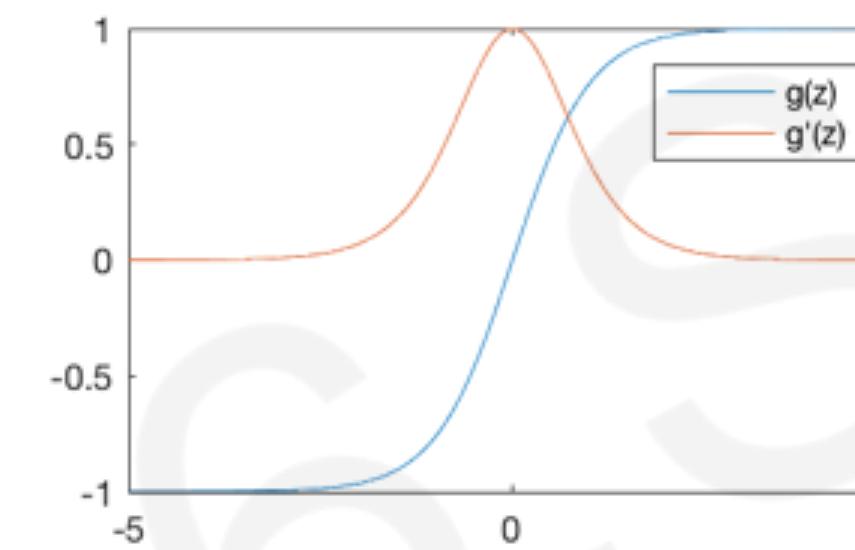


$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

$$g'(z) = g(z)(1 - g(z))$$

`tf.math.sigmoid(z)`

Hyperbolic Tangent

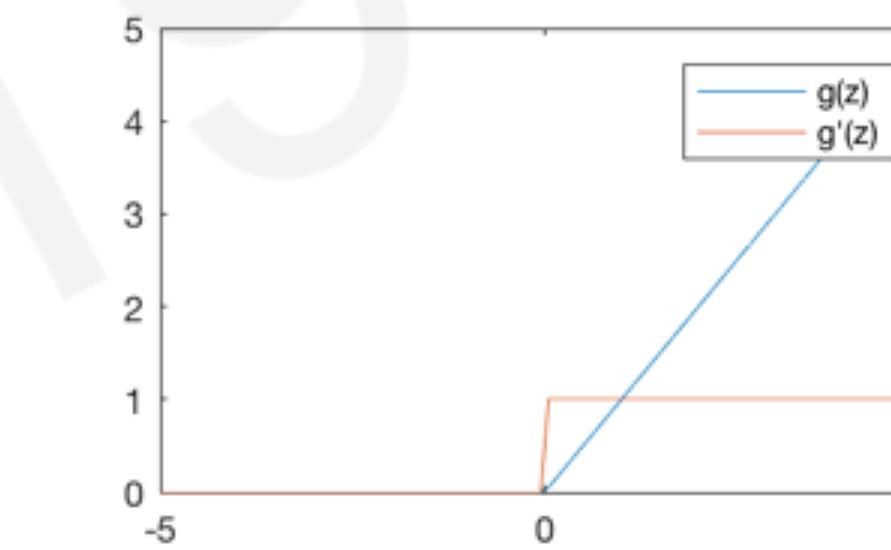


$$g(z) = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}}$$

$$g'(z) = 1 - g(z)^2$$

`tf.math.tanh(z)`

Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)



$$g(z) = \max(0, z)$$

$$g'(z) = \begin{cases} 1, & z > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

`tf.nn.relu(z)`

TensorFlow code blocks

Massachusetts  
Institute of  
Technology

NOTE: All activation functions are non-linear

# Common Activation Functions

```
model = models.Sequential()
model.add(layers.Dense(16, activation = 'relu', input_shape=(5000,)))
model.add(layers.Dense(16, activation = 'relu'))
model.add(layers.Dense(1, activation= 'sigmoid'))

model.compile(optimizer='adam',
              loss='binary_crossentropy',
              metrics=[ 'accuracy'])

history = model.fit(partial_x_train,
                     partial_y_train,
                     epochs=4,
                     batch_size=512,
                     validation_data=(x_val,y_val))
```



TensorFlow code blocks



Massachusetts  
Institute of  
Technology

NOTE: All activation functions are non-linear

6.S191 Introduction to Deep Learning

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1/27/20

```

```{r}
model <- keras_model_sequential() %>%
  layer_dense(units = 16, activation = "relu", input_shape = c(5000)) %>%
  layer_dense(units = 16, activation = "relu") %>%
  layer_dense(units = 1, activation = "sigmoid")

model %>% compile(
  optimizer = "adam",
  loss = "binary_crossentropy",
  metrics = c("accuracy"))

model %>% fit(x_train, y_train, epochs = 4, batch_size = 512)
results <- model %>% evaluate(x_test, y_test)
```

```

Sig (ReLU)  $z$

$$g'(z) = g(z)(1 - g(z))$$

$$g'(z) = 1 - g(z)^2$$

$$g'(z) = \begin{cases} 1, & z > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

 `tf.math.sigmoid(z)`

 `tf.math.tanh(z)`

 `tf.nn.relu(z)`

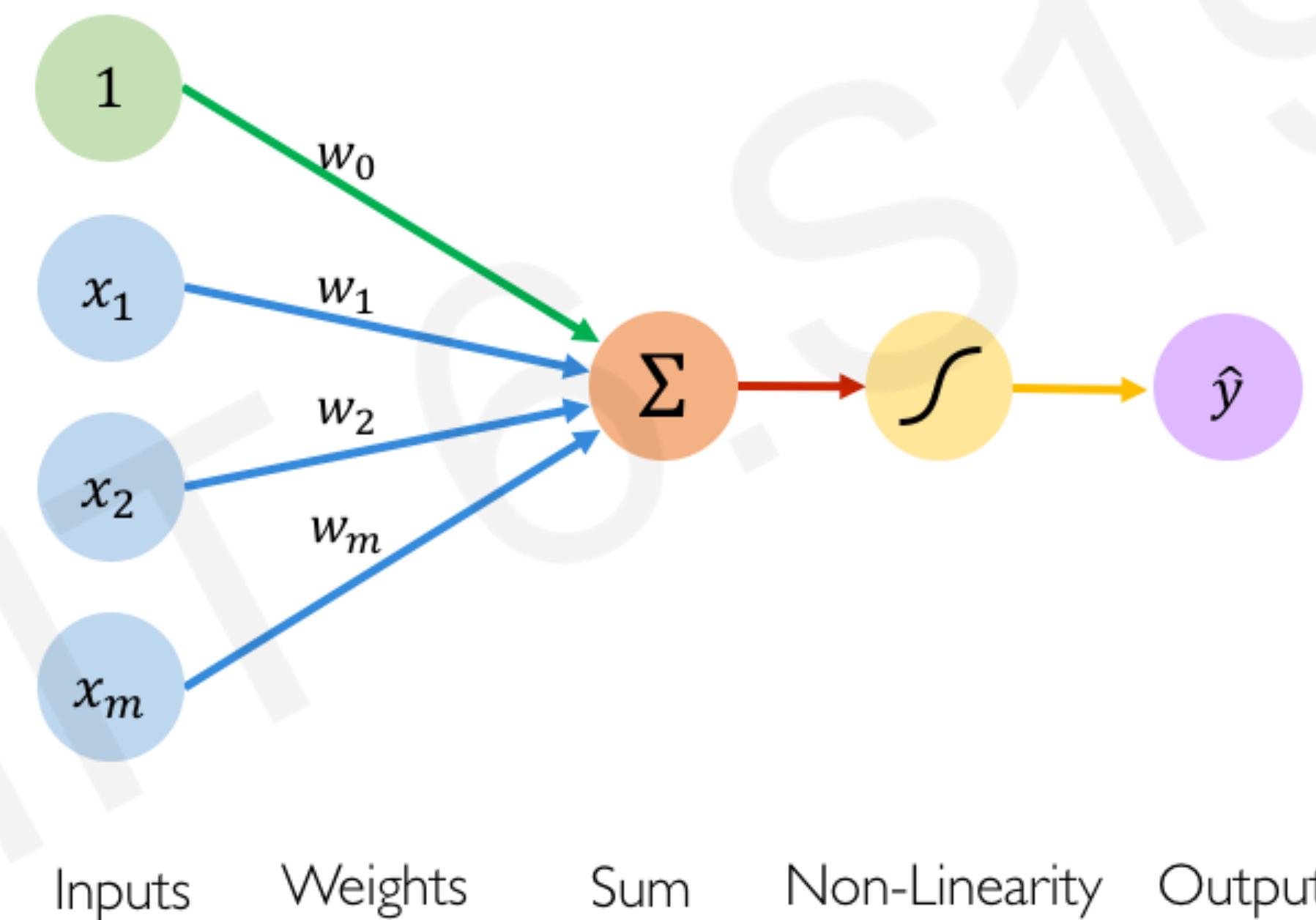
 TensorFlow code blocks

NOTE: All activation functions are non-linear

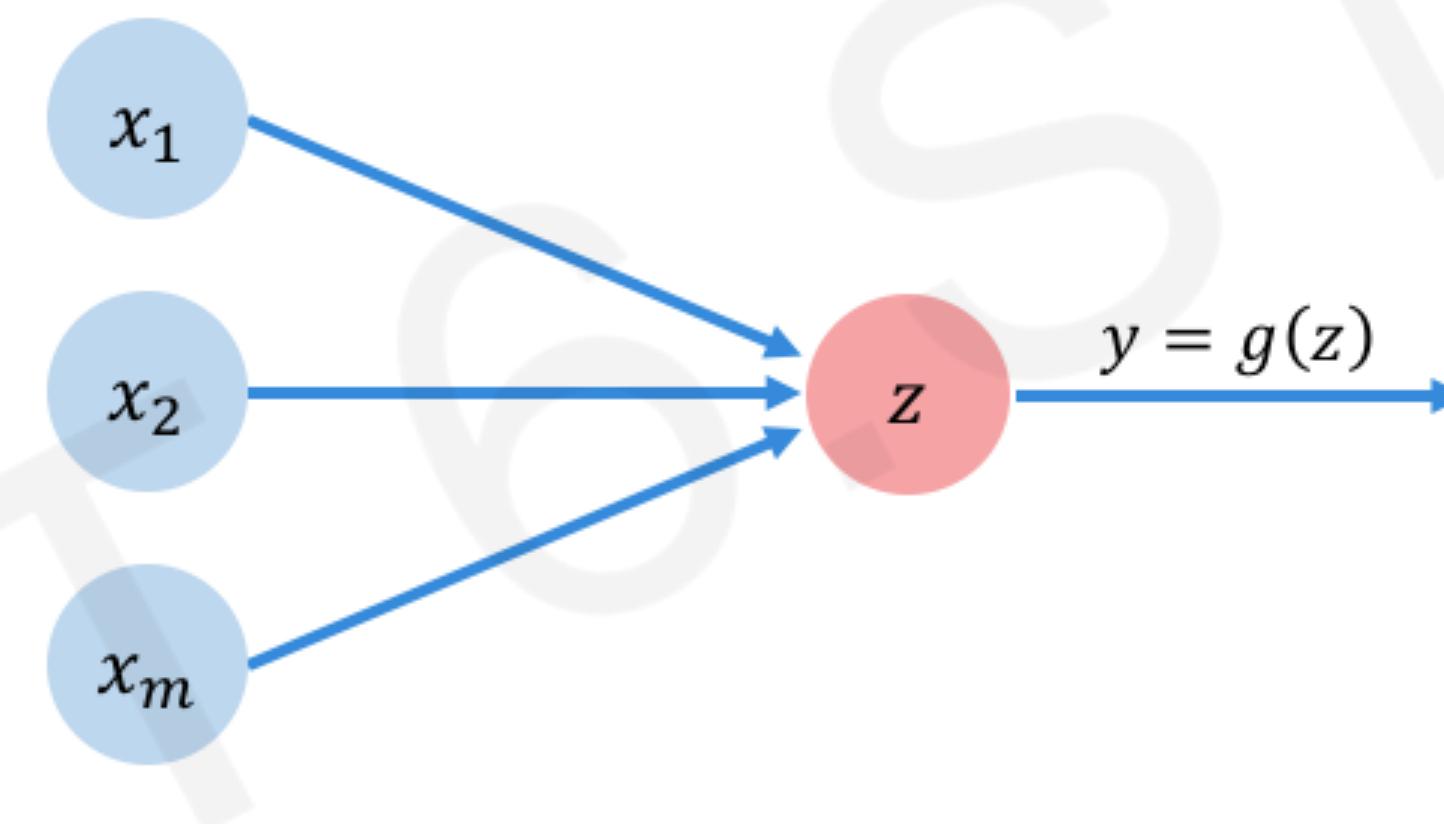
# Building Neural Networks with Perceptrons

# The Perceptron: Simplified

$$\hat{y} = g(w_0 + \mathbf{X}^T \mathbf{W})$$



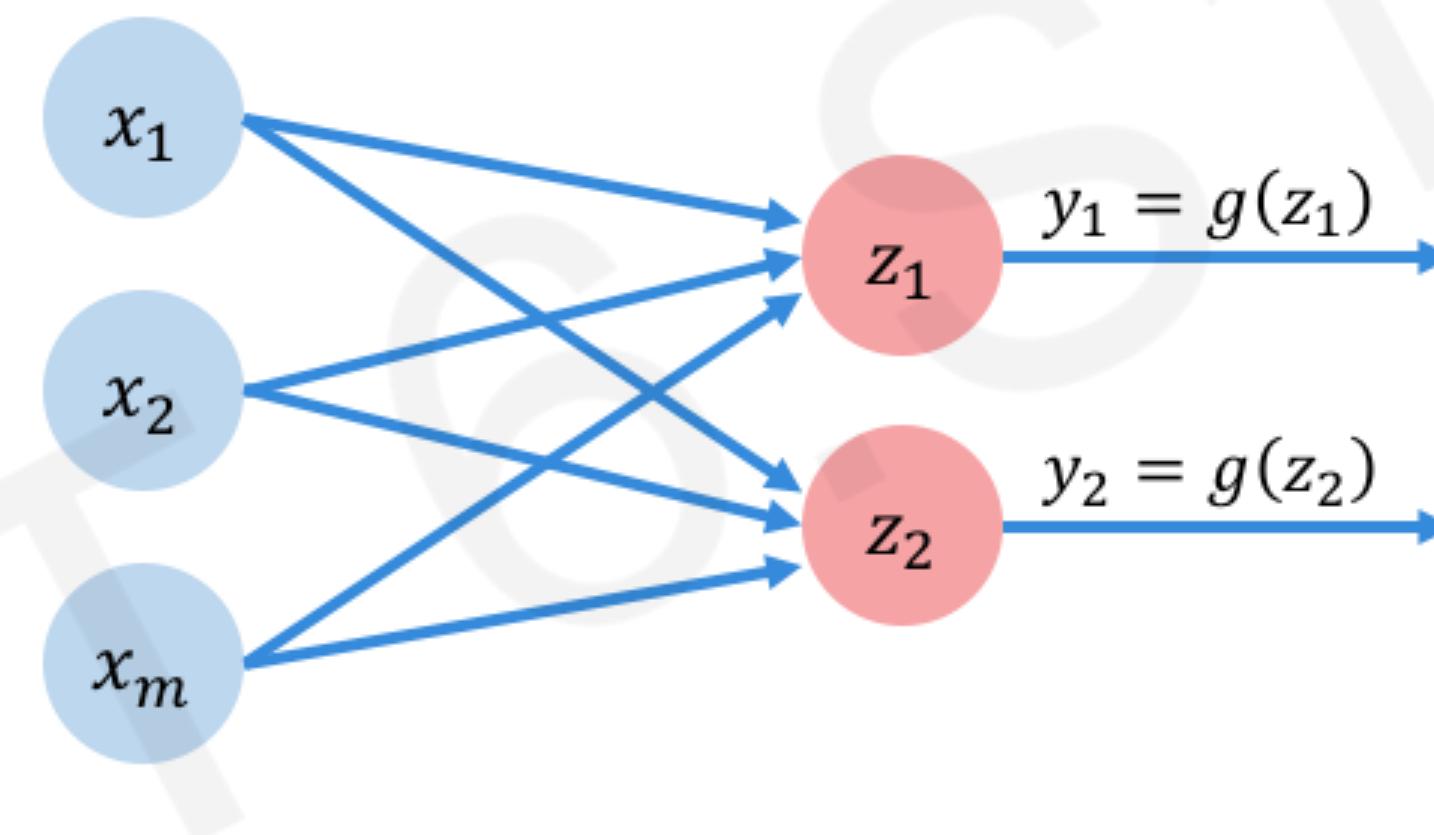
# The Perceptron: Simplified



$$z = w_0 + \sum_{j=1}^m x_j w_j$$

# Multi Output Perceptron

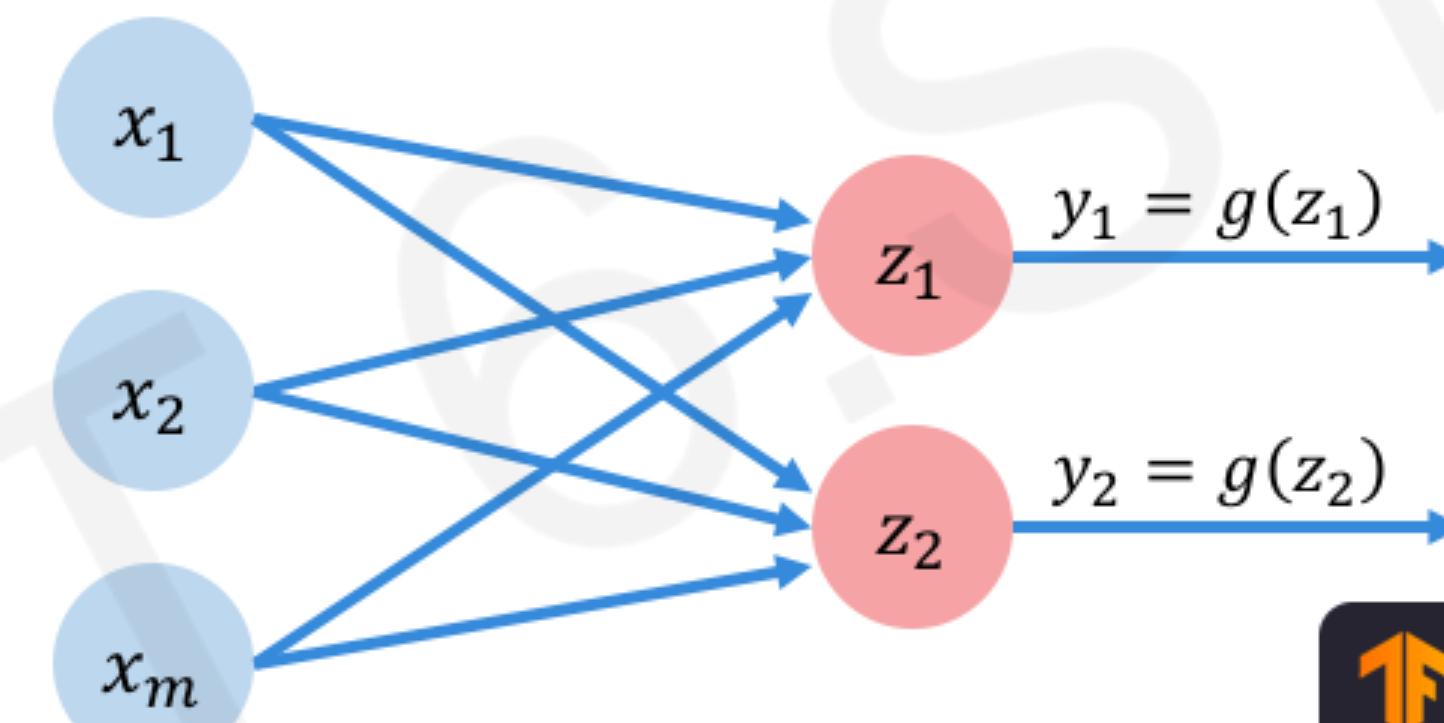
Because all inputs are densely connected to all outputs, these layers are called **Dense** layers



$$z_i = w_{0,i} + \sum_{j=1}^m x_j w_{j,i}$$

# Multi Output Perceptron

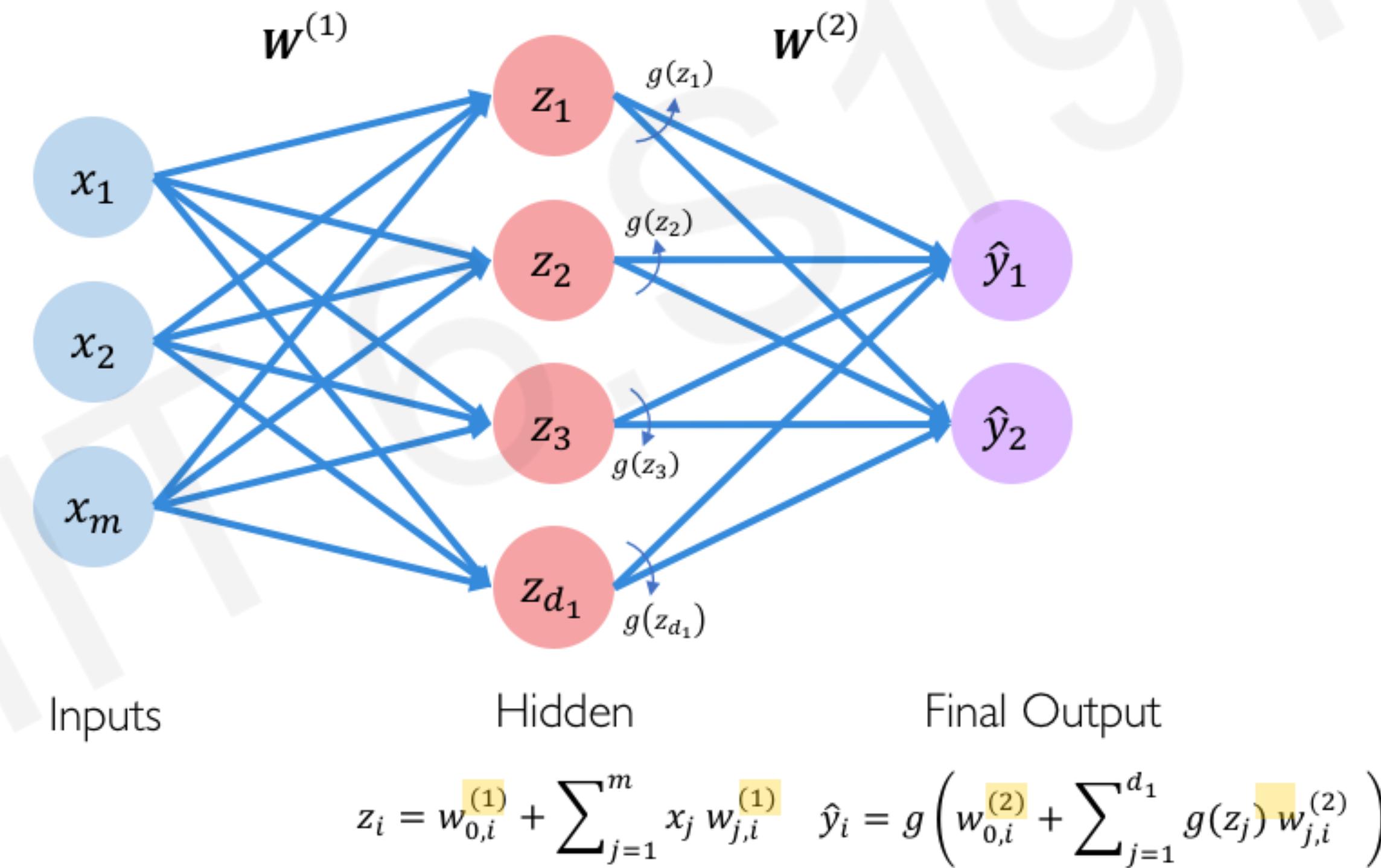
Because all inputs are densely connected to all outputs, these layers are called **Dense** layers



```
import tensorflow as tf  
layer = tf.keras.layers.Dense(  
    units=2)
```

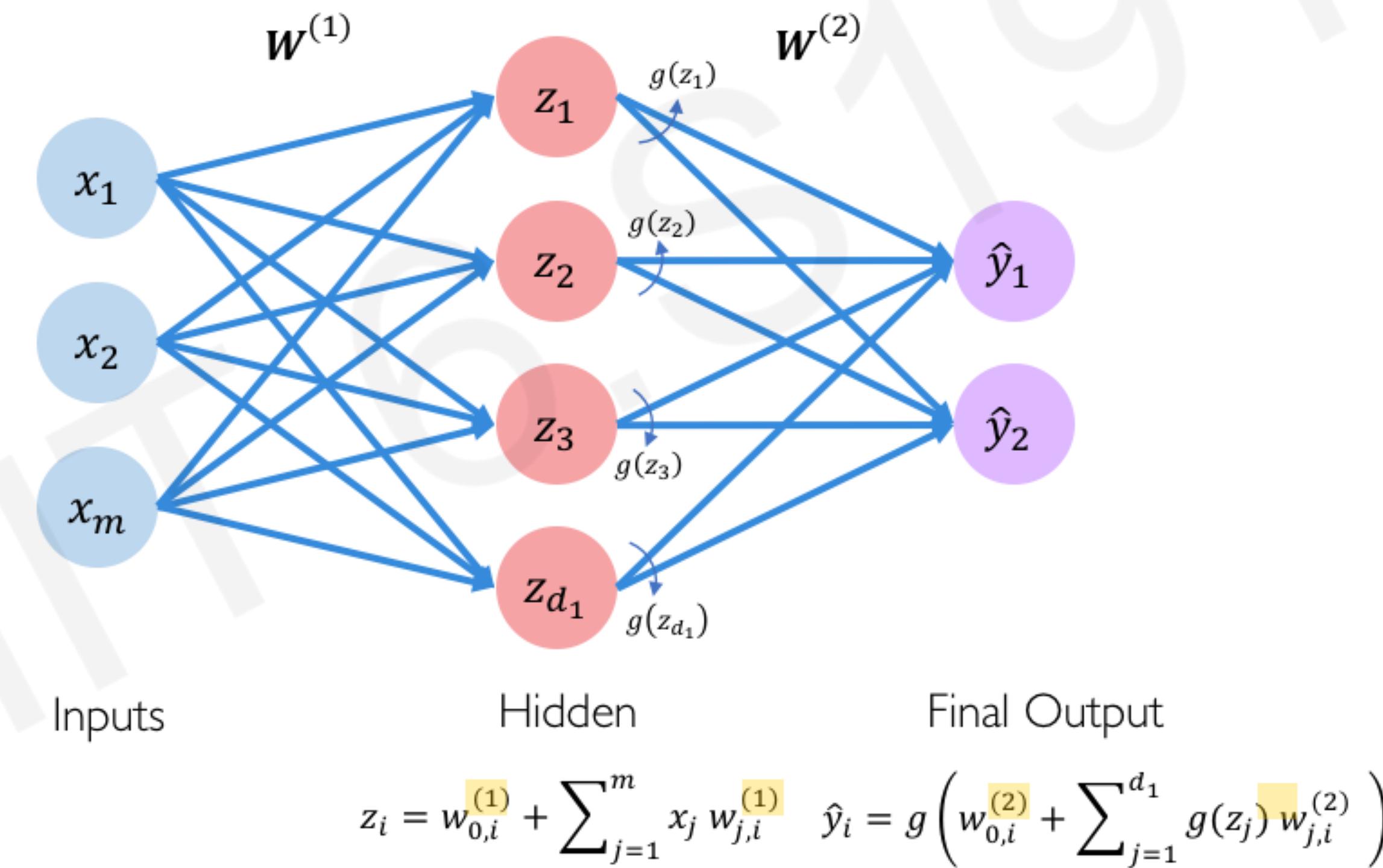
$$z_i = w_{0,i} + \sum_{j=1}^m x_j w_{j,i}$$

# Single Layer Neural Network

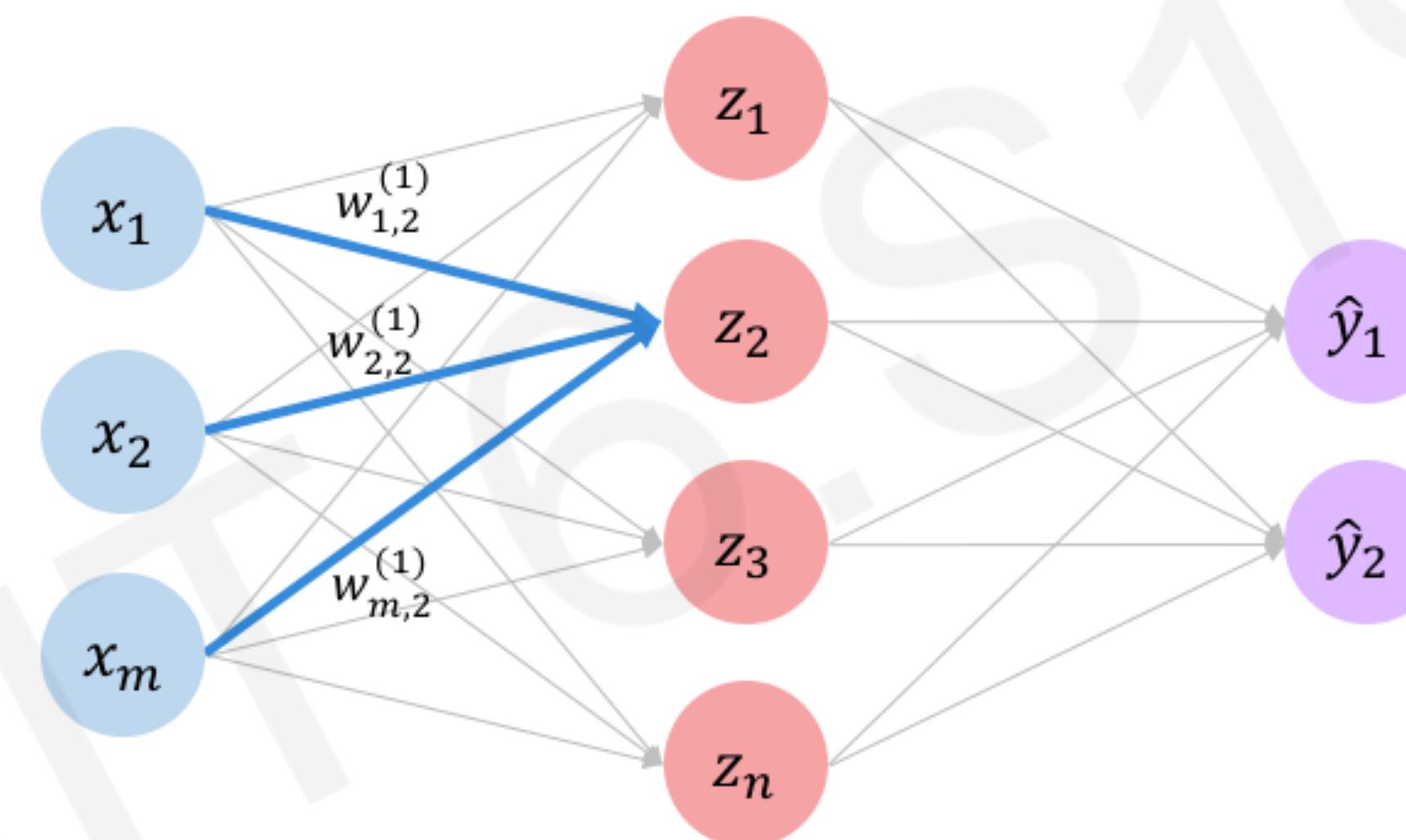


There are important contexts — like modeling with Keras — where we would refer to this as a “two-layer” neural network

# Single Layer Neural Network

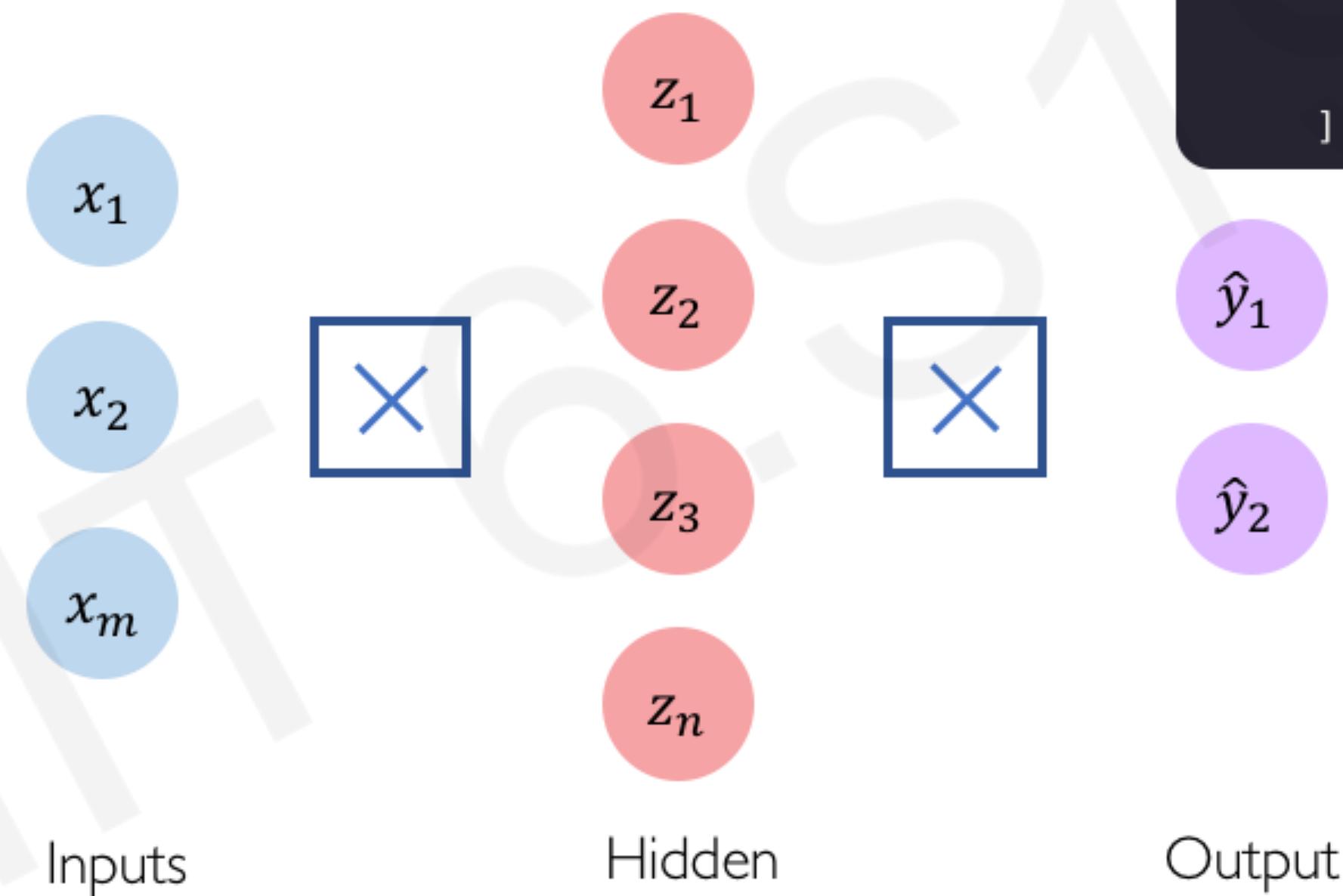


# Single Layer Neural Network



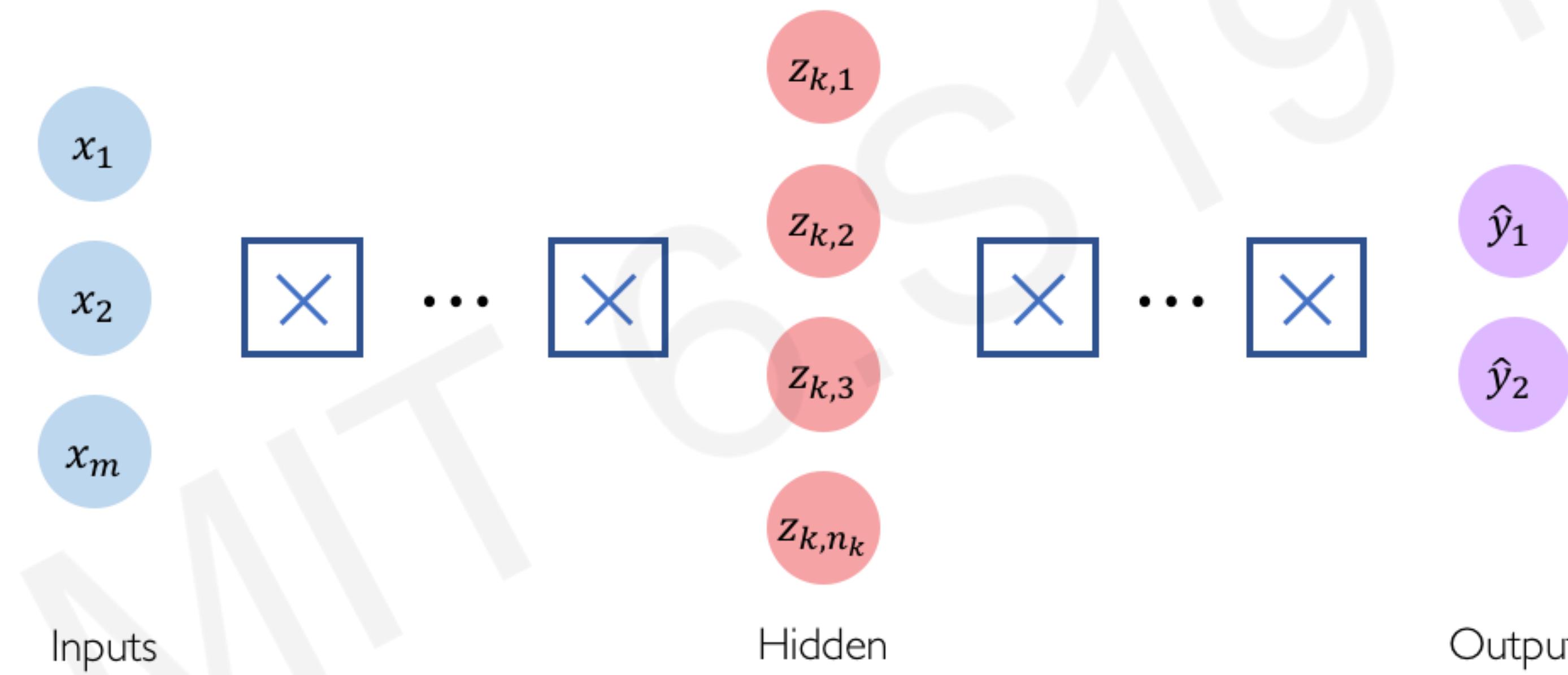
$$\begin{aligned} z_2 &= w_{0,2}^{(1)} + \sum_{j=1}^m x_j w_{j,2}^{(1)} \\ &= w_{0,2}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{1,2}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{2,2}^{(1)} + x_m w_{m,2}^{(1)} \end{aligned}$$

# Multi Output Perceptron



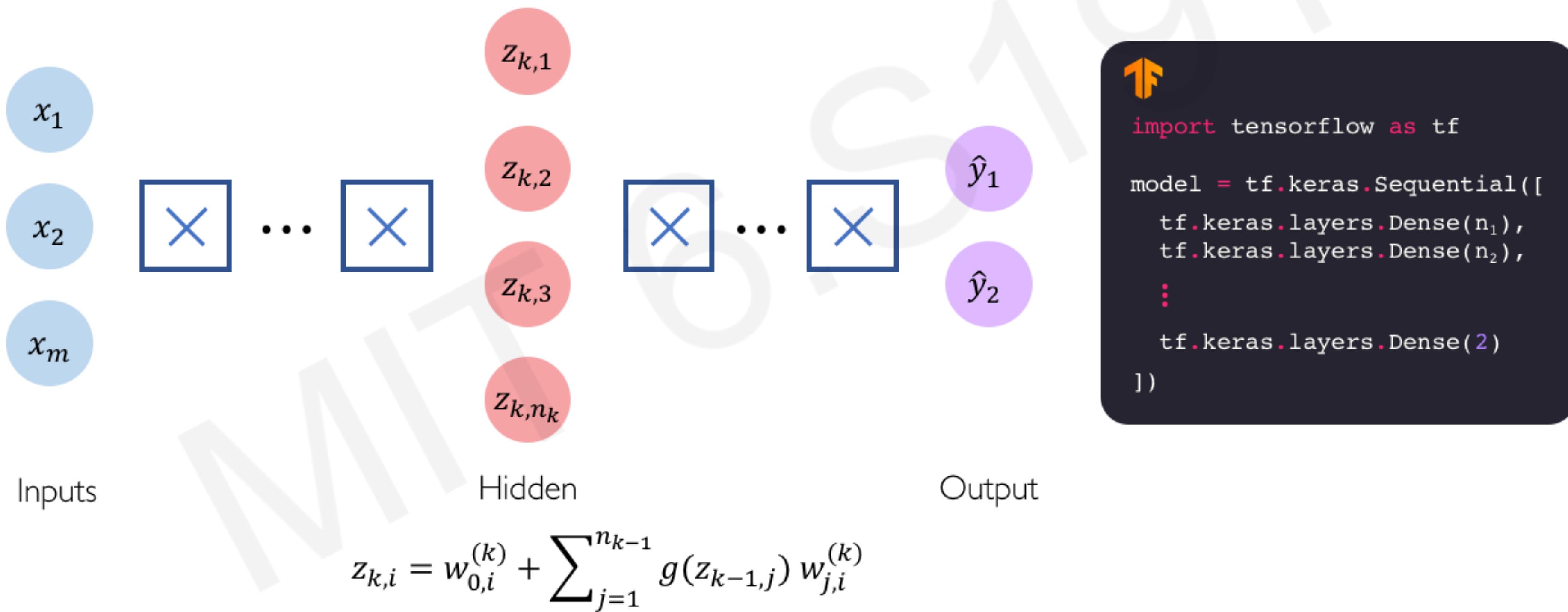
```
import tensorflow as tf  
  
model = tf.keras.Sequential([  
    tf.keras.layers.Dense(n),  
    tf.keras.layers.Dense(2)  
])
```

# Deep Neural Network



$$z_{k,i} = w_{0,i}^{(k)} + \sum_{j=1}^{n_{k-1}} g(z_{k-1,j}) w_{j,i}^{(k)}$$

# Deep Neural Network



# Deep Neural Network

```
model = models.Sequential()  
model.add(layers.Dense(16, activation = 'relu', input_shape=(5000,)))  
model.add(layers.Dense(16, activation = 'relu'))  
model.add(layers.Dense(1, activation= 'sigmoid'))  
  
x1  
model.compile(optimizer='adam',  
              loss='binary_crossentropy',  
              metrics=[ 'accuracy'])  
  
x2  
  
xm  
  
Input  
history = model.fit(partial_x_train,  
                     partial_y_train,  
                     epochs=4,  
                     batch_size=512,  
                     validation_data=(x_val,y_val))
```

$$z_{k,i} = w_{0,i}^{(k)} + \sum_{j=1}^{n_{k-1}} g(z_{k-1,j}) w_{j,i}^{(k)}$$

# Deep Neural Network

```
```{r}
model <- keras_model_sequential() %>%
  layer_dense(units = 16, activation = "relu", input_shape = c(5000)) %>%
  layer_dense(units = 16, activation = "relu") %>%
  layer_dense(units = 1, activation = "sigmoid")

model %>% compile(
  optimizer = "adam",
  loss = "binary_crossentropy",
  metrics = c("accuracy")
)

model %>% fit(x_train, y_train, epochs = 4, batch_size = 512)
results <- model %>% evaluate(x_test, y_test)
```

```



```
import tensorflow as tf

model = tf.keras.Sequential([
    tf.keras.layers.Dense(n1),
    tf.keras.layers.Dense(n2),
    :
    tf.keras.layers.Dense(2)
])
```



$$z_{k,i} = w_{0,i}^{(k)} + \sum_{j=1}^{n_{k-1}} g(z_{k-1,j}) w_{j,i}^{(k)}$$

# Applying Neural Networks

# Example Problem

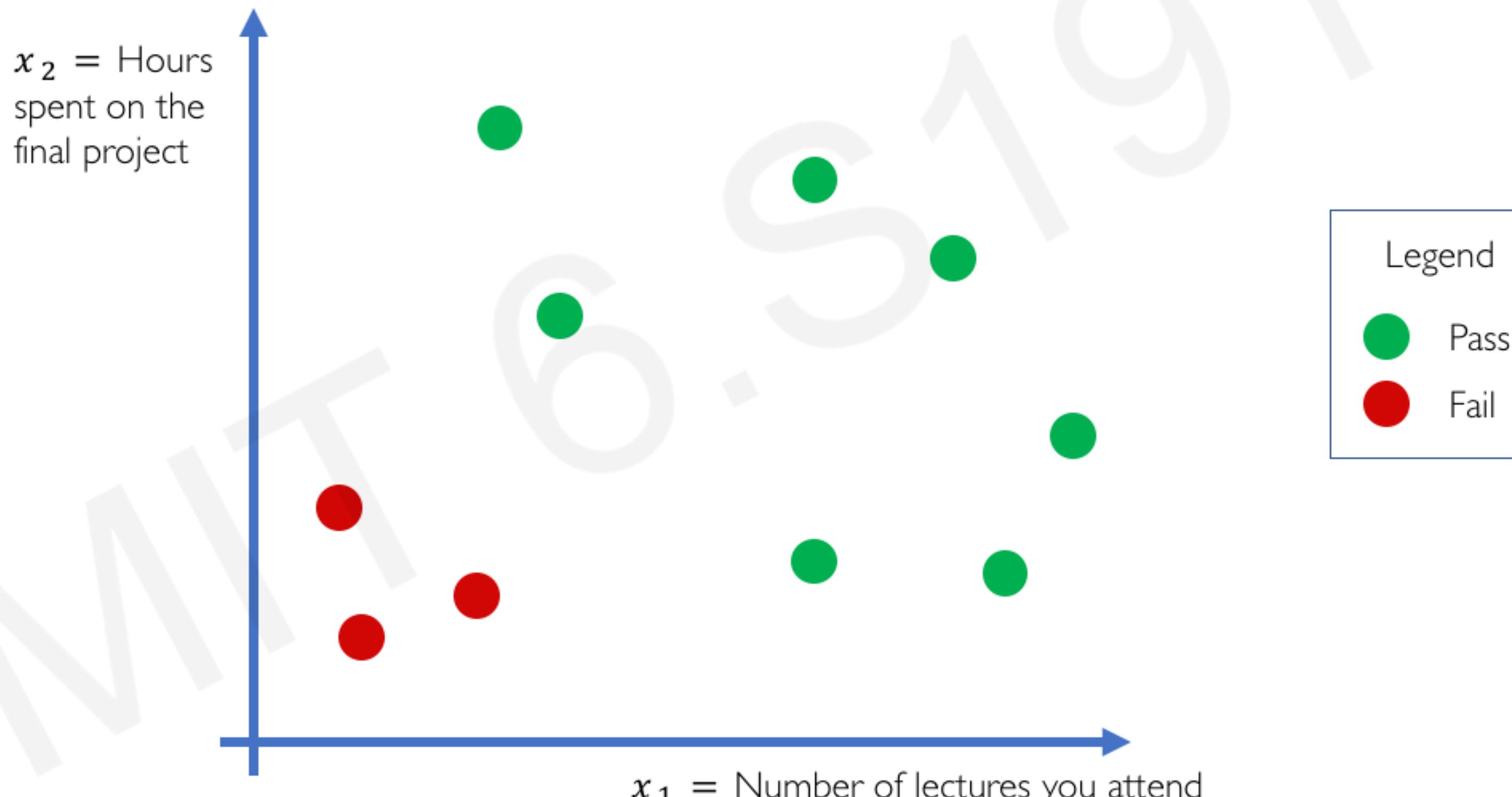
Will I pass this class?

Let's start with a simple two feature model

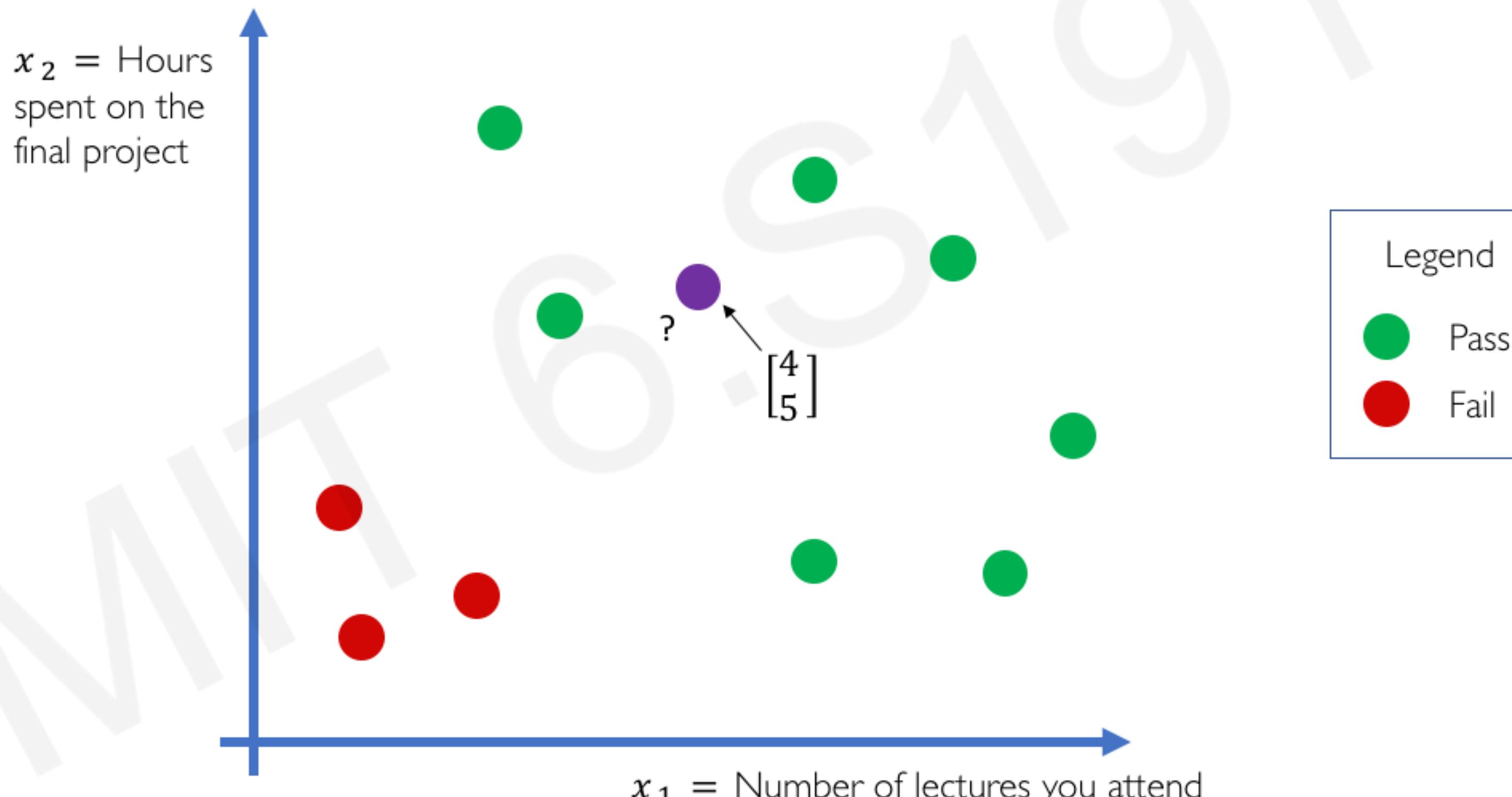
$x_1$  = Number of lectures you attend

$x_2$  = Hours spent on the final project

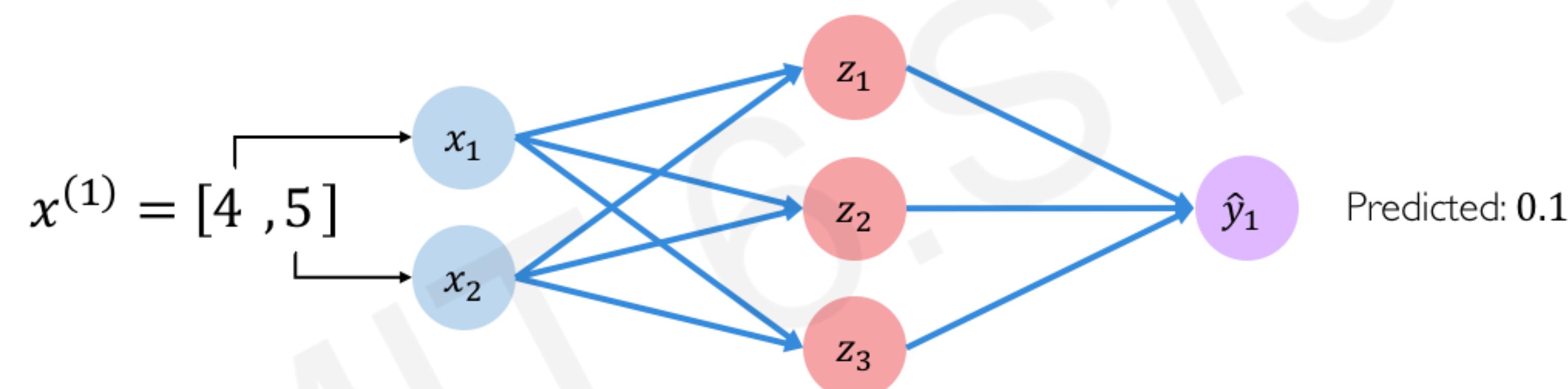
# Example Problem: Will I pass this class?



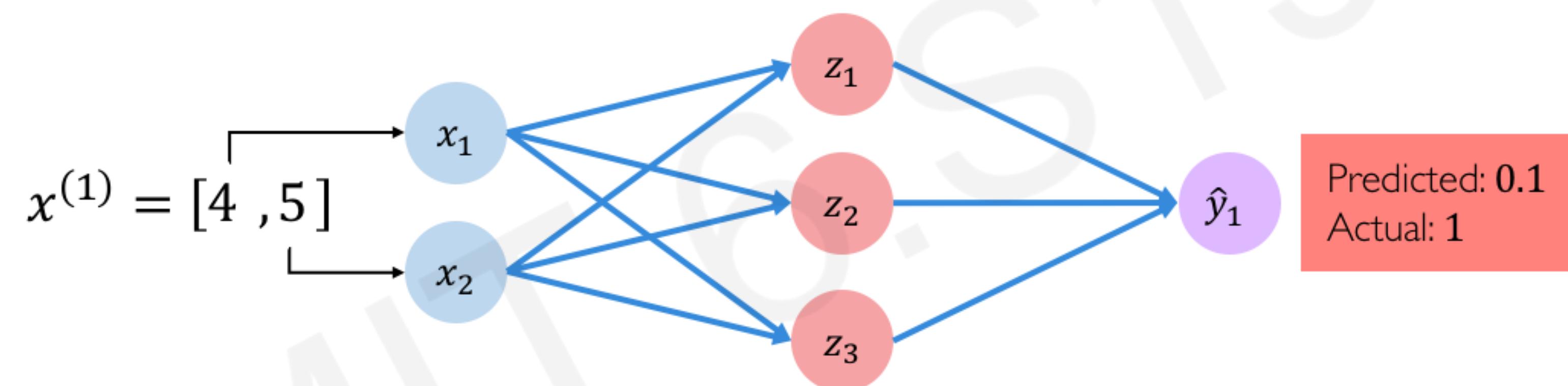
# Example Problem: Will I pass this class?



# Example Problem: Will I pass this class?

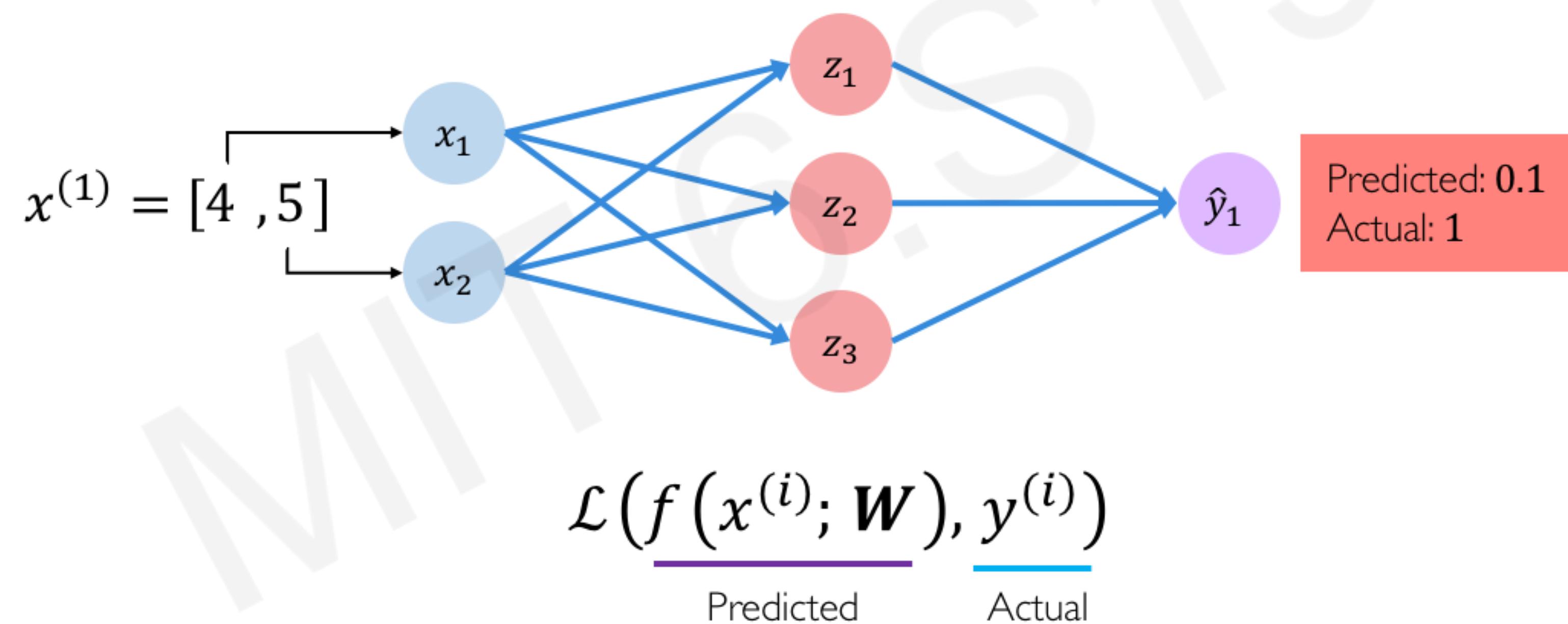


# Example Problem: Will I pass this class?



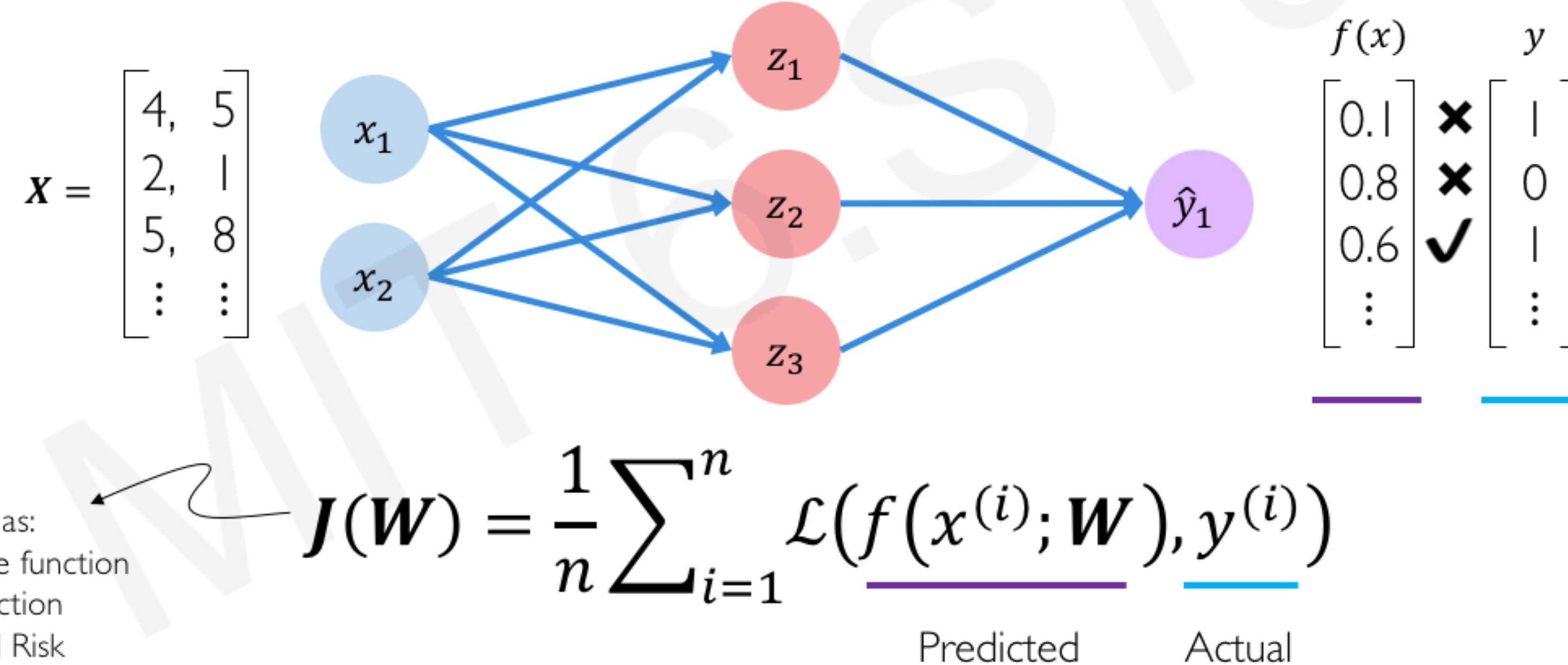
# Quantifying Loss

The **loss** of our network measures the cost incurred from incorrect predictions



# Empirical Loss

The **empirical loss** measures the total loss over our entire dataset



- Objective function
  - Cost function
  - Empirical Risk

$$J(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathcal{L}(f(x^{(i)}; \mathbf{W}), y^{(i)})$$

|           |        |
|-----------|--------|
| Predicted | Actual |
|-----------|--------|

# Binary Cross Entropy Loss

```
model = models.Sequential()
model.add(layers.Dense(16, activation = 'relu', input_shape=(5000,)))
model.add(layers.Dense(16, activation = 'relu'))
model.add(layers.Dense(1, activation= 'sigmoid'))

model.compile(optimizer='adam',
              loss='binary_crossentropy',
              metrics=[ 'accuracy'])

history = model.fit(partial_x_train,
                     partial_y_train,
                     epochs=4,
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                     validation_data=(x_val,y_val))
```

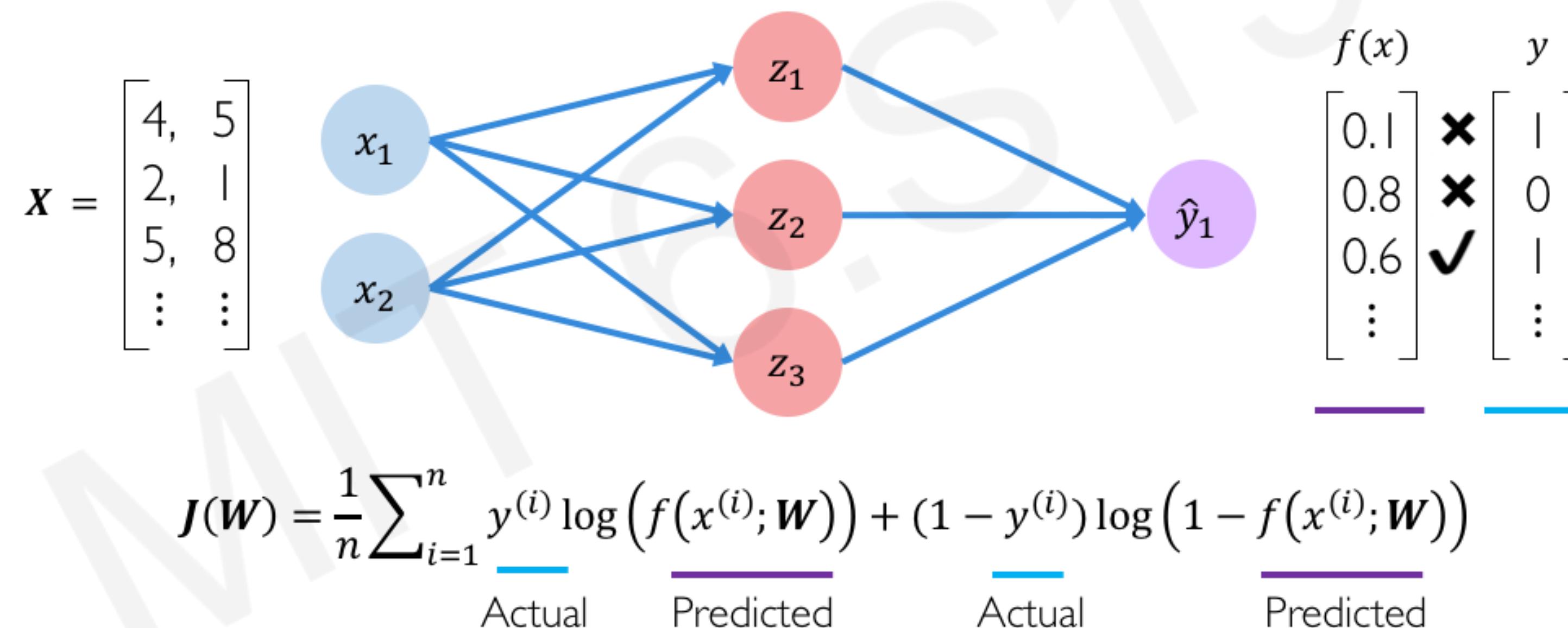
Actual      Predicted      Actual      Predicted



```
loss = tf.reduce_mean( tf.nn.softmax_cross_entropy_with_logits(y, predicted) )
```

# Binary Cross Entropy Loss

Cross entropy loss can be used with models that output a probability between 0 and 1



```
loss = tf.reduce_mean( tf.nn.softmax_cross_entropy_with_logits(y, predicted) )
```

# Binary Cross Entropy Loss

```
```{r}
CrossEntropyLoss <- function(x_train, y_train, x_test, y_test) {
  model <- keras_model_sequential() %>%
    layer_dense(units = 16, activation = "relu", input_shape = c(5000)) %>%
    layer_dense(units = 16, activation = "relu") %>%
    layer_dense(units = 1, activation = "sigmoid")

  model %>% compile(
    optimizer = "adam",
    loss = "binary_crossentropy",
    metrics = c("accuracy")
  )

  model %>% fit(x_train, y_train, epochs = 4, batch_size = 512)
  results <- model %>% evaluate(x_test, y_test)
}

CrossEntropyLoss(x_train, y_train, x_test, y_test)
```

Actual Predicted Actual Predicted

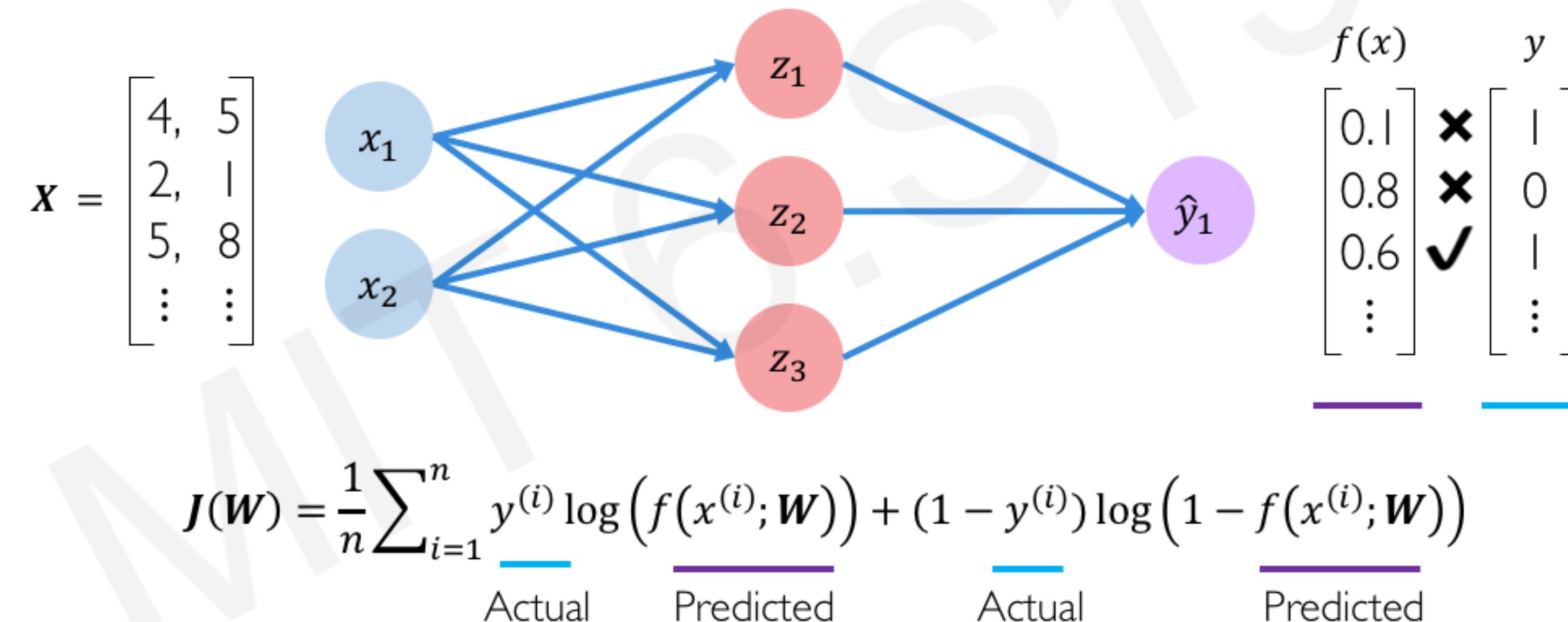


```
loss = tf.reduce_mean( tf.nn.softmax_cross_entropy_with_logits(y, predicted) )
```

This is exactly equivalent to the negative log-likelihood.  
So this is so far identical to logit/logistic regression.

## Binary Cross Entropy Loss

**Cross entropy loss** can be used with models that output a probability between 0 and 1



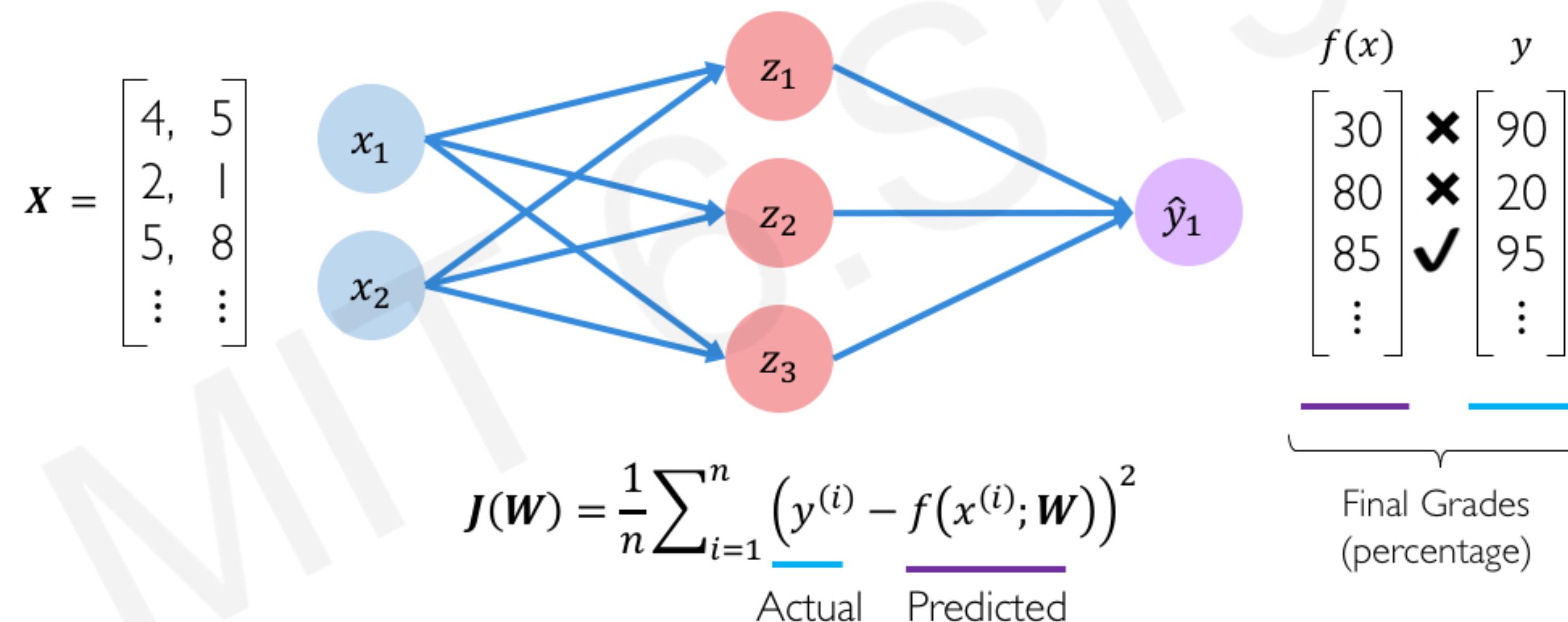
```
loss = tf.reduce_mean( tf.nn.softmax_cross_entropy_with_logits(y, predicted) )
```

# Machine learning in one slide

Social science (inference)	Machine learning (prediction)
GLM inverse link function	Activation function
$\mathbb{E}(y) = f(\mathbf{x}'\boldsymbol{\beta})$	$\mathbb{E}(y) = f(\mathbf{x}'\boldsymbol{\beta})$
Preferred objective function	
Log-likelihood	Cross-entropy
$\log \mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^n \log P(y_i \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})$	$-\log \mathcal{L} = -\sum_{i=1}^n \log P(y_i \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})$
Solving algorithm	
Newton-Raphson	Gradient descent
$\boldsymbol{\beta}_t := \boldsymbol{\beta}_{t-1} - [\mathbf{H} \log \mathcal{L}]^{-1} \nabla \log \mathcal{L}$	$\boldsymbol{\beta}_t := \boldsymbol{\beta}_{t-1} - \eta \nabla (-\log \mathcal{L})$
Quantities of interest	
$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}; \text{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$	$\hat{\mathbf{y}}; \sum \mathbf{1}(\hat{y} = y)/n$

# Mean Squared Error Loss

*Mean squared error loss* can be used with regression models that output continuous real numbers



```
loss = tf.reduce_mean( tf.square(tf.subtract(y, predicted)) )
```

# Training Neural Networks

# Loss Optimization

We want to find the network weights that *achieve the lowest loss*

$$\mathbf{W}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{W}} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathcal{L}(f(x^{(i)}; \mathbf{W}), y^{(i)})$$

$$\mathbf{W}^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\mathbf{W}} J(\mathbf{W})$$

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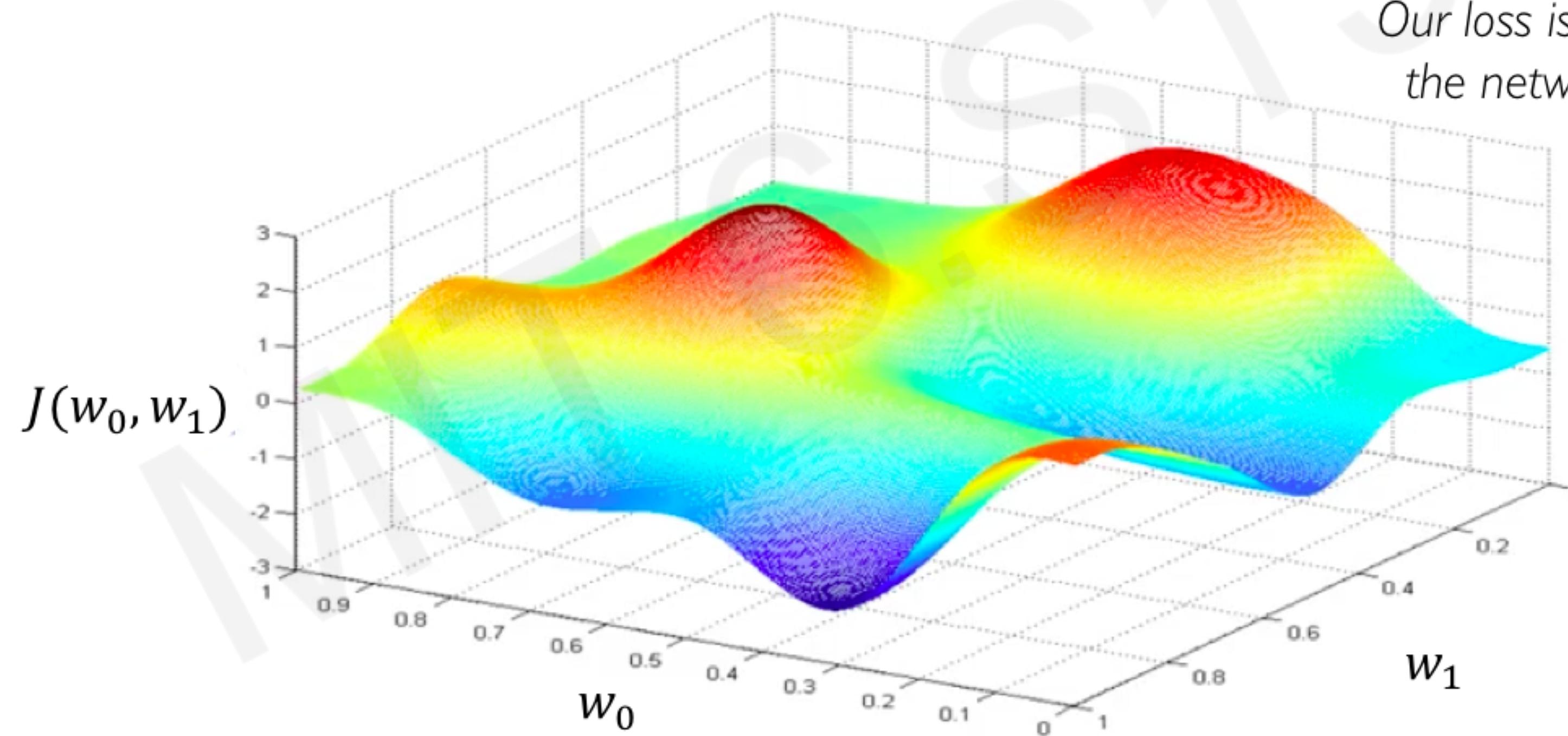


Remember:

$$\mathbf{W} = \{\mathbf{W}^{(0)}, \mathbf{W}^{(1)}, \dots\}$$

# Loss Optimization

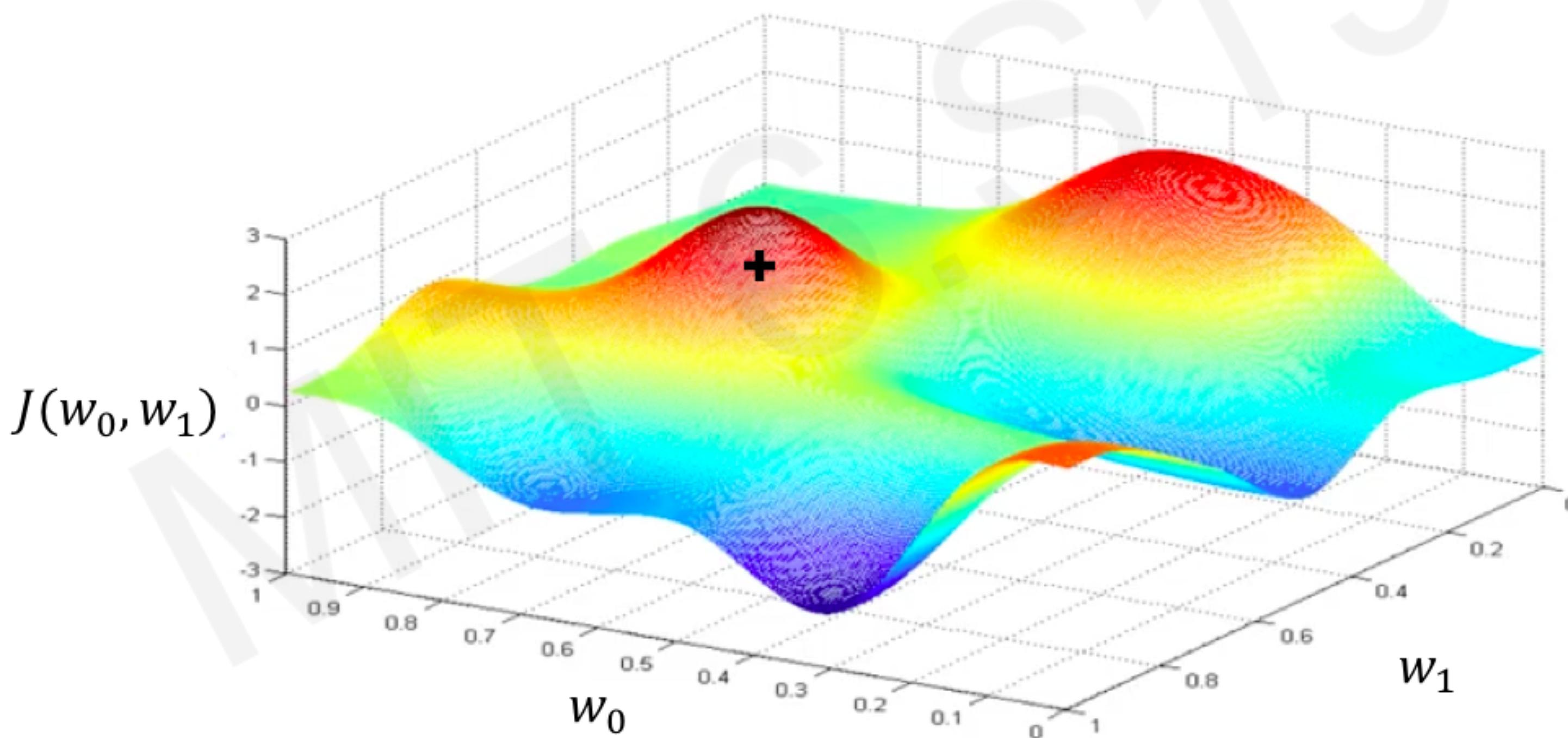
$$\mathbf{W}^* = \underset{\mathbf{W}}{\operatorname{argmin}} J(\mathbf{W})$$



Remember:  
Our loss is a function of  
the network weights!

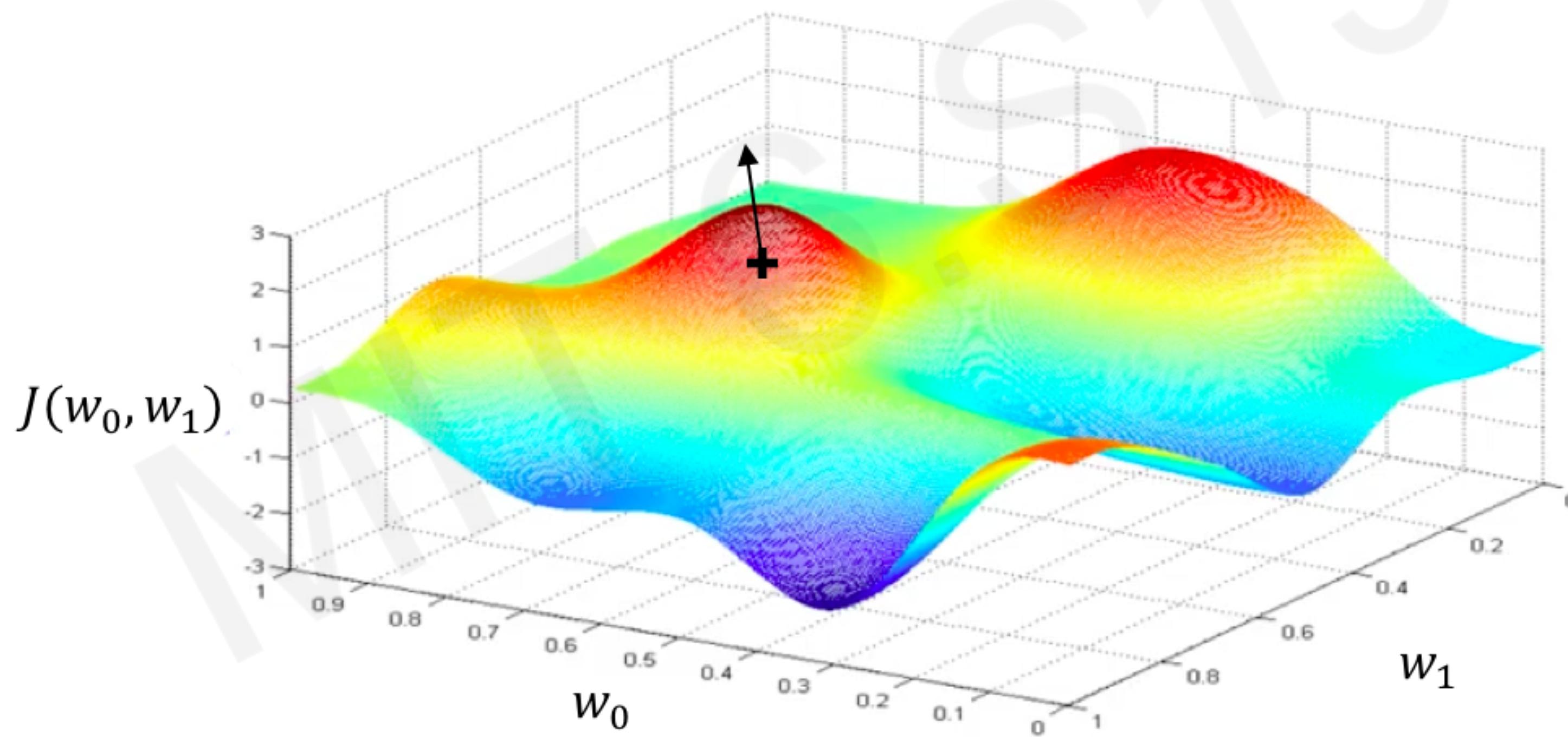
# Loss Optimization

Randomly pick an initial  $(w_0, w_1)$



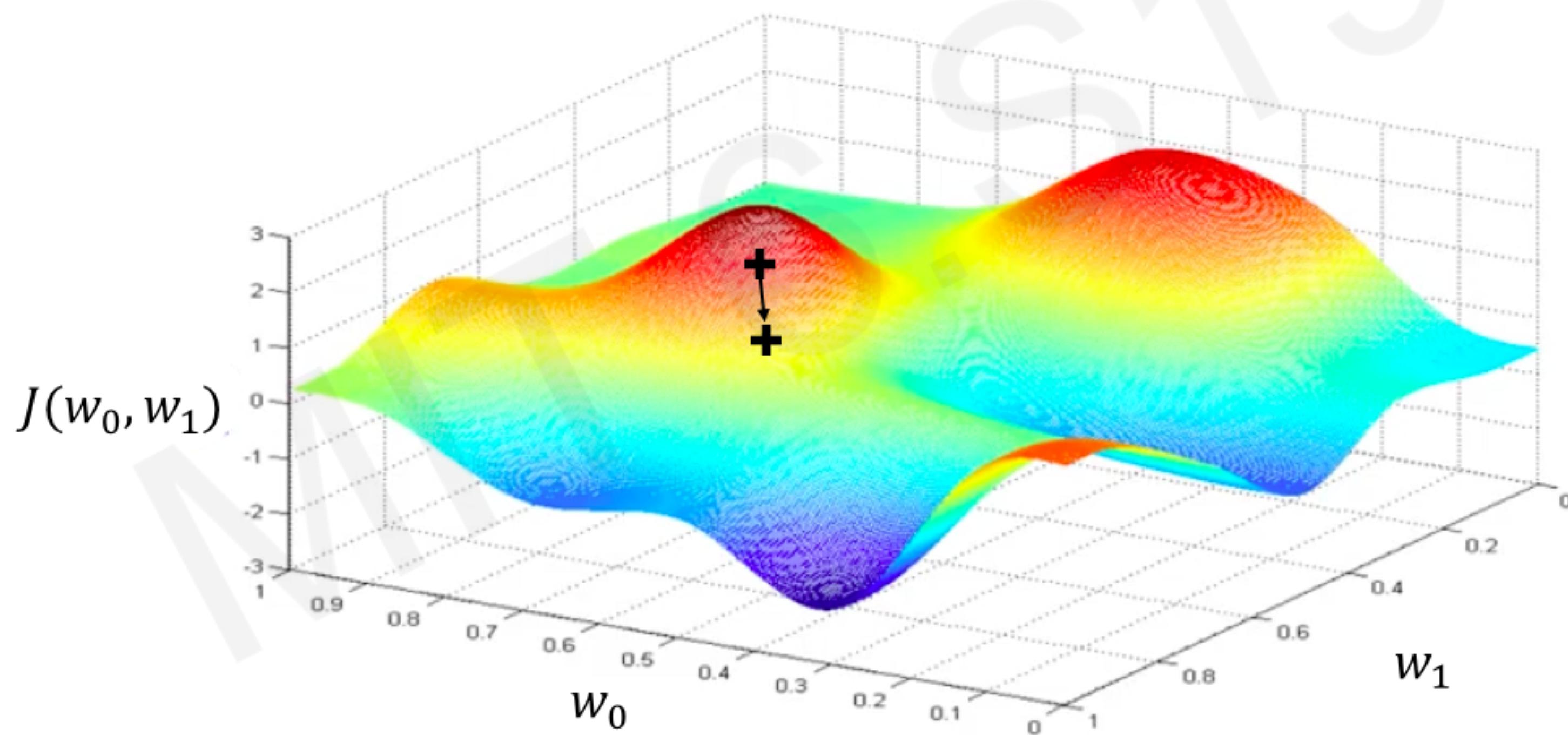
# Loss Optimization

Compute gradient,  $\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{w})}{\partial \mathbf{w}}$



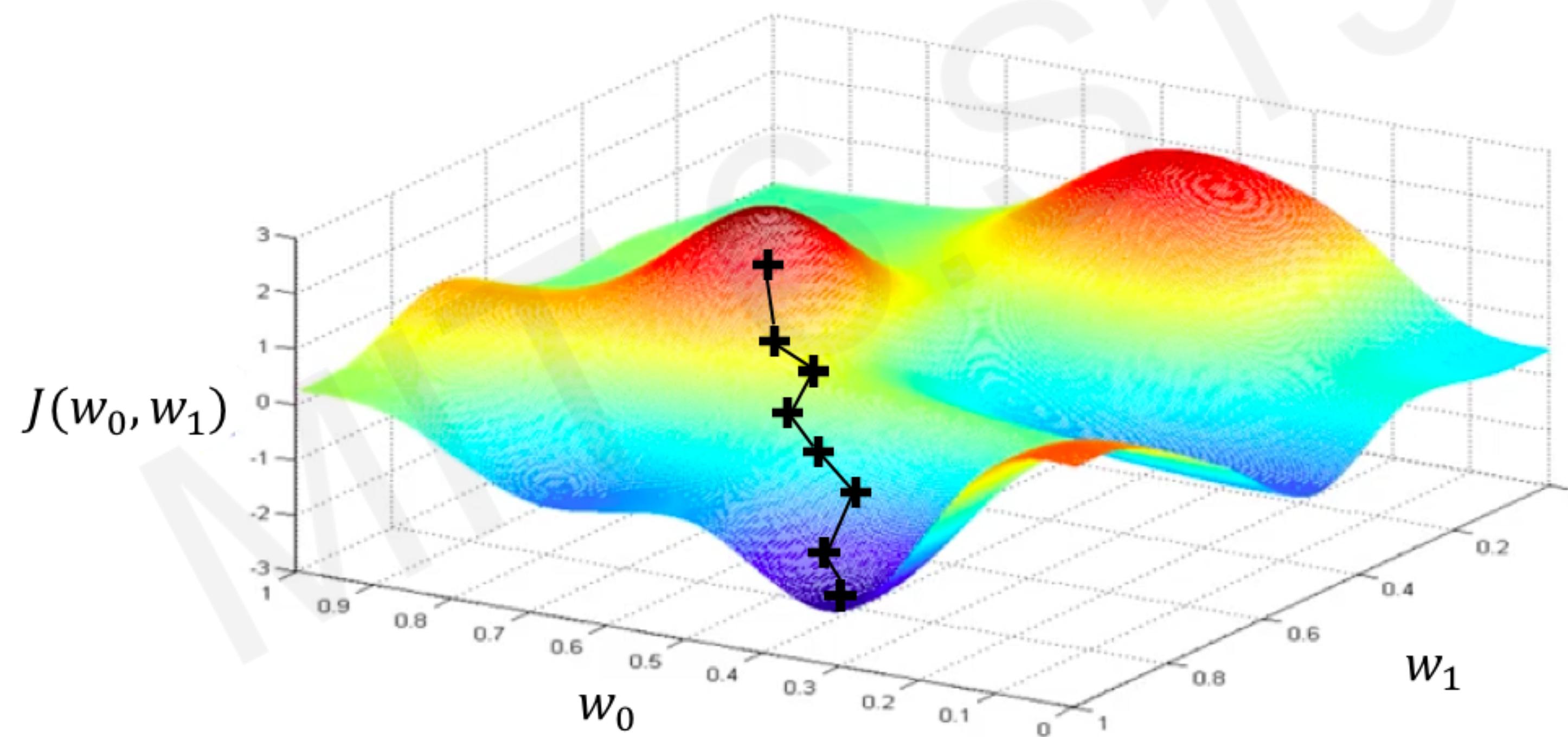
# Loss Optimization

Take small step in opposite direction of gradient



# Gradient Descent

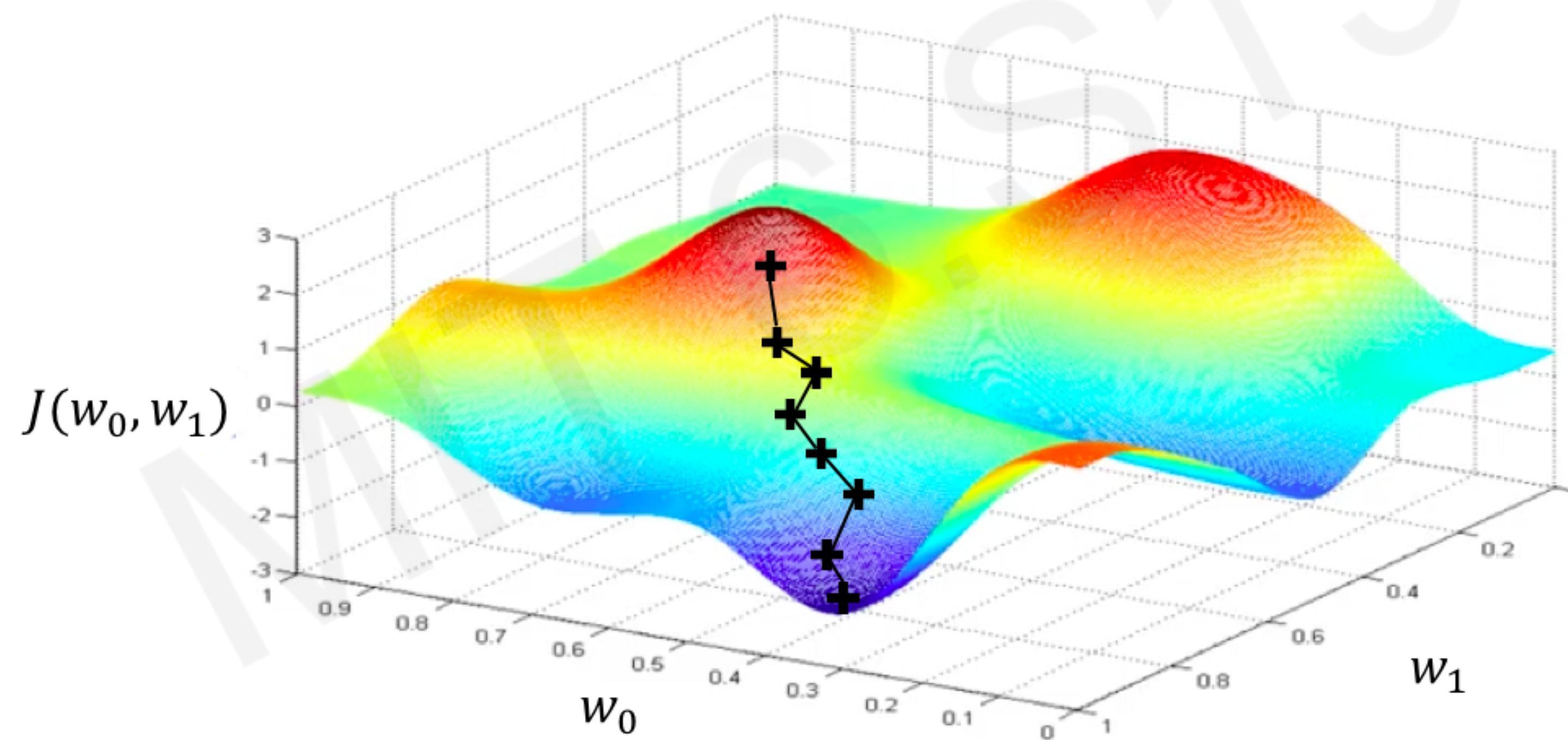
Repeat until convergence



Contrast with Newton-Raphson, which also uses second derivative (Hessian)

# Gradient Descent

Repeat until convergence



# Machine learning in one slide

Social science (inference)	Machine learning (prediction)
GLM inverse link function	Activation function
$\mathbb{E}(y) = f(\mathbf{x}'\boldsymbol{\beta})$	$\mathbb{E}(y) = f(\mathbf{x}'\boldsymbol{\beta})$
Preferred objective function	
Log-likelihood	Cross-entropy
$\log \mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^n \log P(y_i \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})$	$-\log \mathcal{L} = -\sum_{i=1}^n \log P(y_i \mathbf{x}_i, \boldsymbol{\beta})$
Solving algorithm	
Newton-Raphson	Gradient descent
$\boldsymbol{\beta}_t := \boldsymbol{\beta}_{t-1} - [\mathbf{H} \log \mathcal{L}]^{-1} \nabla \log \mathcal{L}$	$\boldsymbol{\beta}_t := \boldsymbol{\beta}_{t-1} - \eta \nabla (-\log \mathcal{L})$
Quantities of interest	
$\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}}; \text{Var}(\hat{\boldsymbol{\beta}})$	$\hat{\mathbf{y}}; \sum \mathbf{1}(\hat{y} = y)/n$

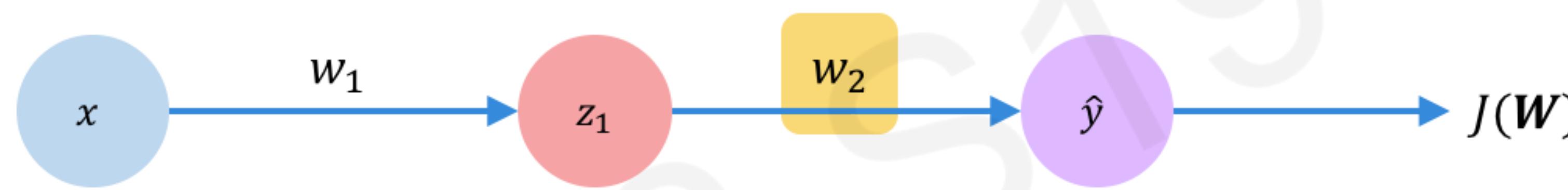
# Gradient Descent

## Algorithm

1. Initialize weights randomly  $\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
2. Loop until convergence:
3. Compute gradient,  $\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}}$
4. Update weights,  $\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} - \eta \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}}$
5. Return weights

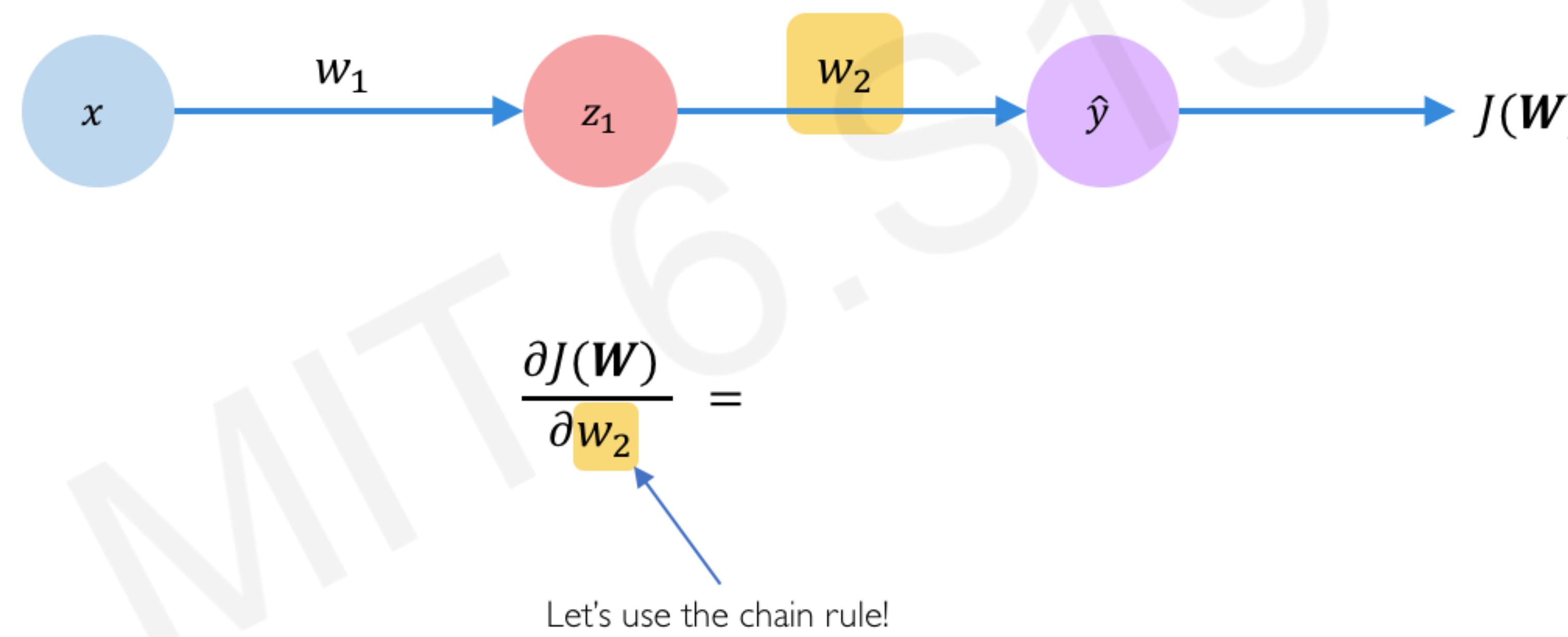


# Computing Gradients: Backpropagation

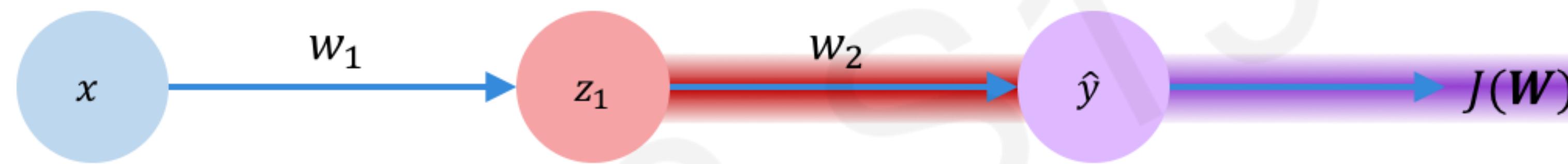


How does a small change in one weight (ex.  $w_2$ ) affect the final loss  $J(\mathbf{W})$ ?

# Computing Gradients: Backpropagation

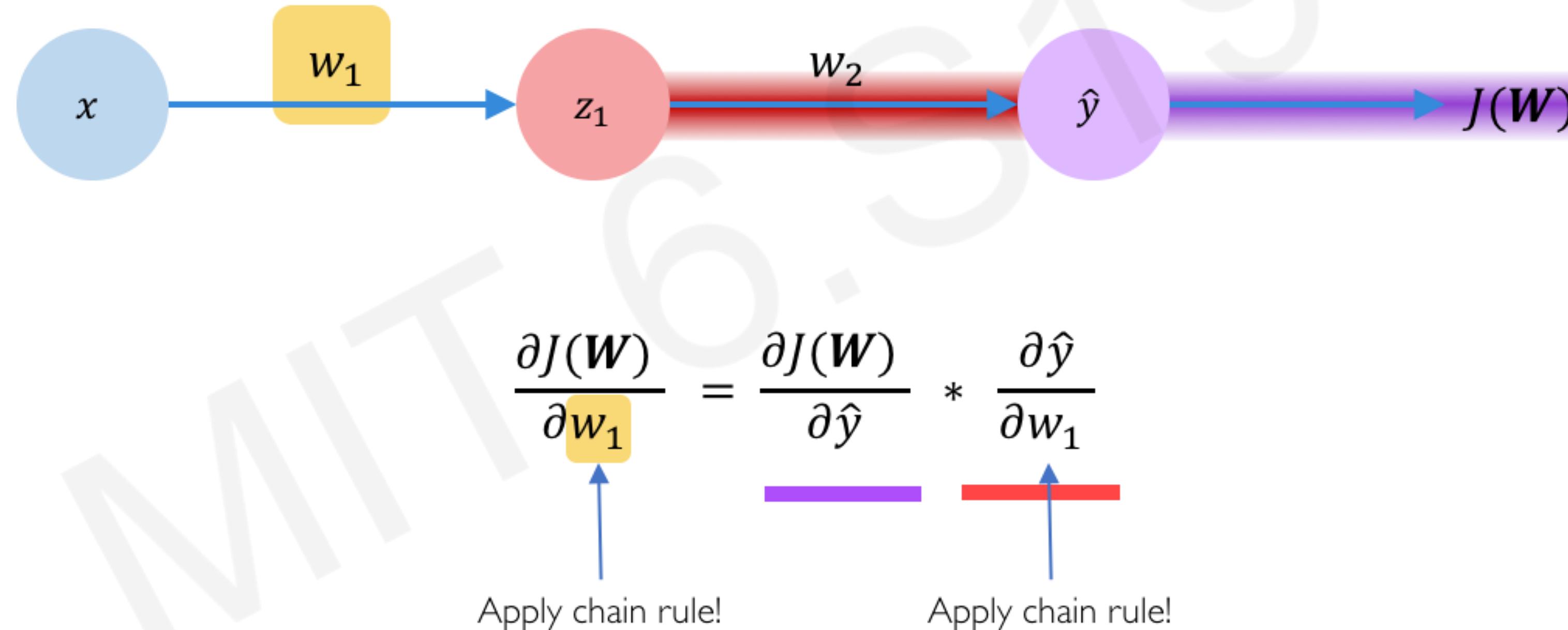


# Computing Gradients: Backpropagation

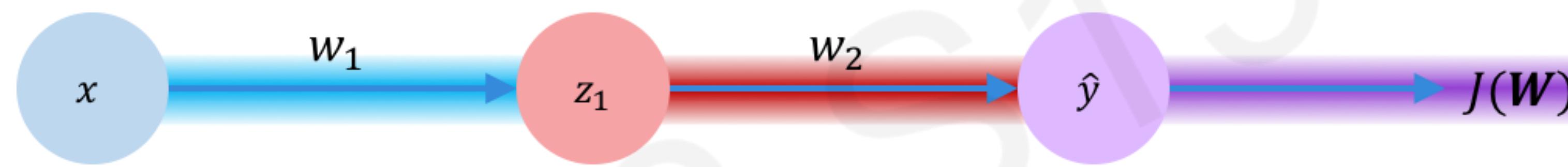


$$\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial w_2} = \underline{\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \hat{y}}} * \overline{\frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial w_2}}$$

# Computing Gradients: Backpropagation

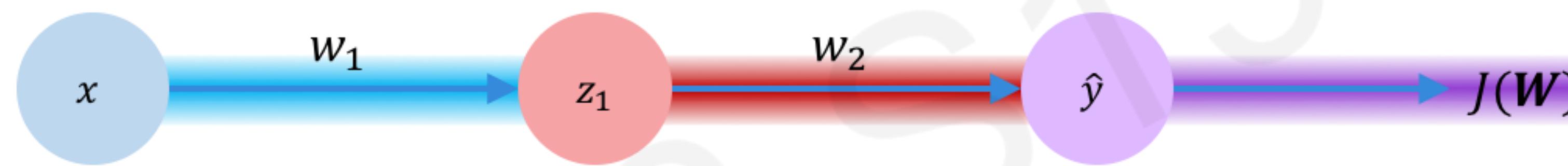


# Computing Gradients: Backpropagation



$$\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial w_1} = \underline{\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \hat{y}}} * \underline{\frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z_1}} * \underline{\frac{\partial z_1}{\partial w_1}}$$

# Computing Gradients: Backpropagation

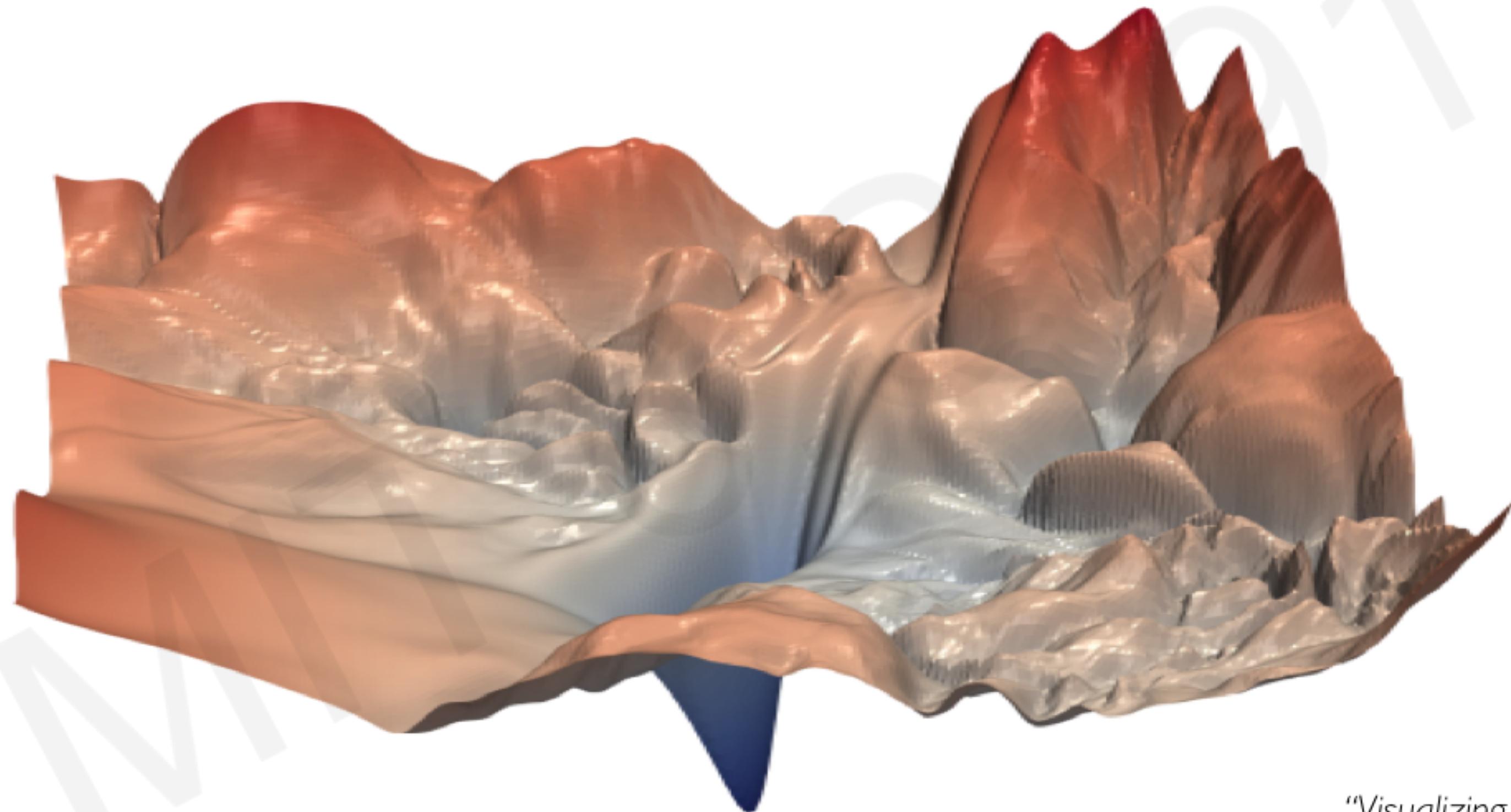


$$\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial w_1} = \underline{\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \hat{y}}} * \underline{\frac{\partial \hat{y}}{\partial z_1}} * \underline{\frac{\partial z_1}{\partial w_1}}$$

Repeat this for **every weight in the network** using gradients from later layers

# Neural Networks in Practice: Optimization

# Training Neural Networks is Difficult



*"Visualizing the loss landscape  
of neural nets". Dec 2017.*

# Loss Functions Can Be Difficult to Optimize

**Remember:**

Optimization through gradient descent

$$\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} - \eta \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}}$$

# Loss Functions Can Be Difficult to Optimize

**Remember:**

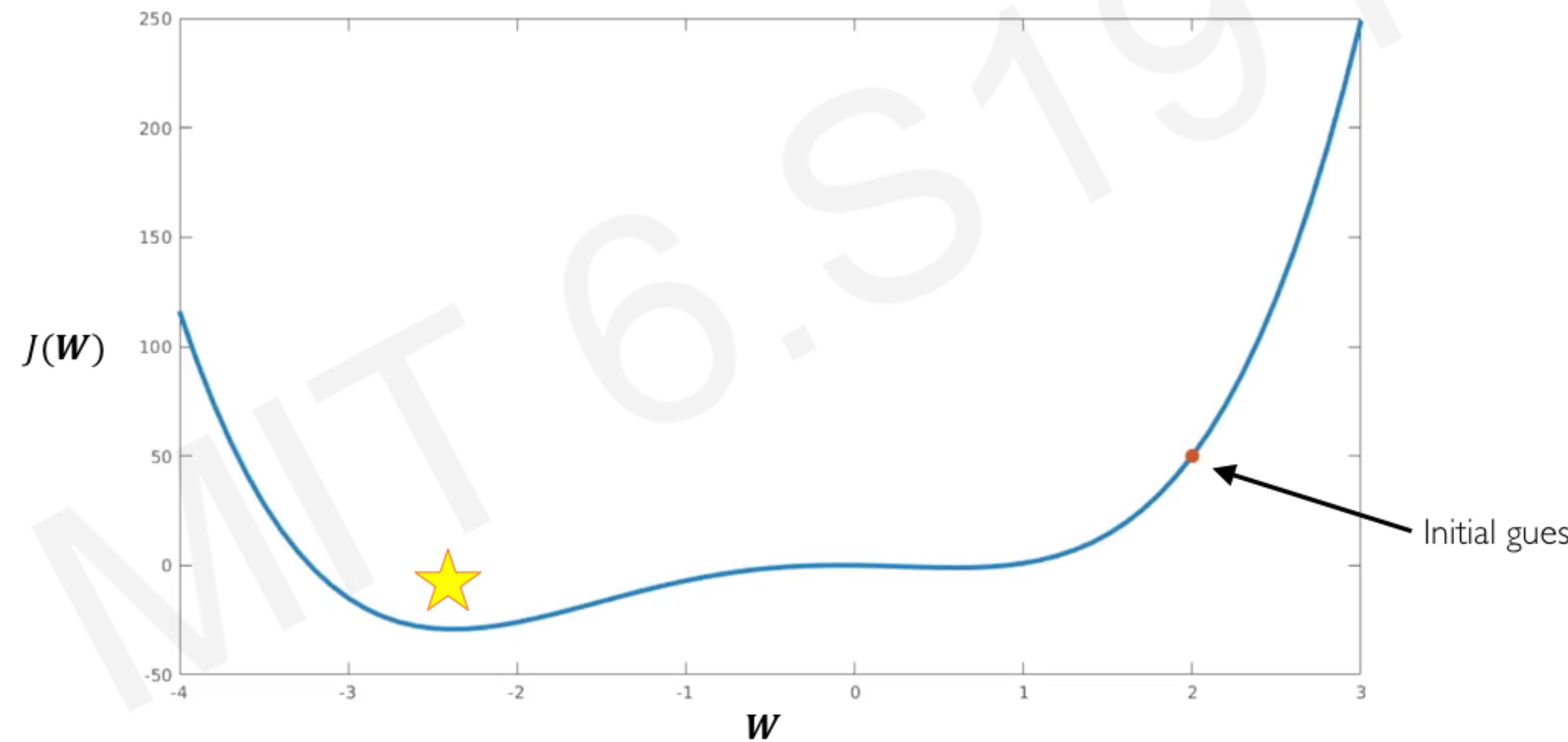
Optimization through gradient descent

$$\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} - \eta \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}}$$

How can we set the  
learning rate?

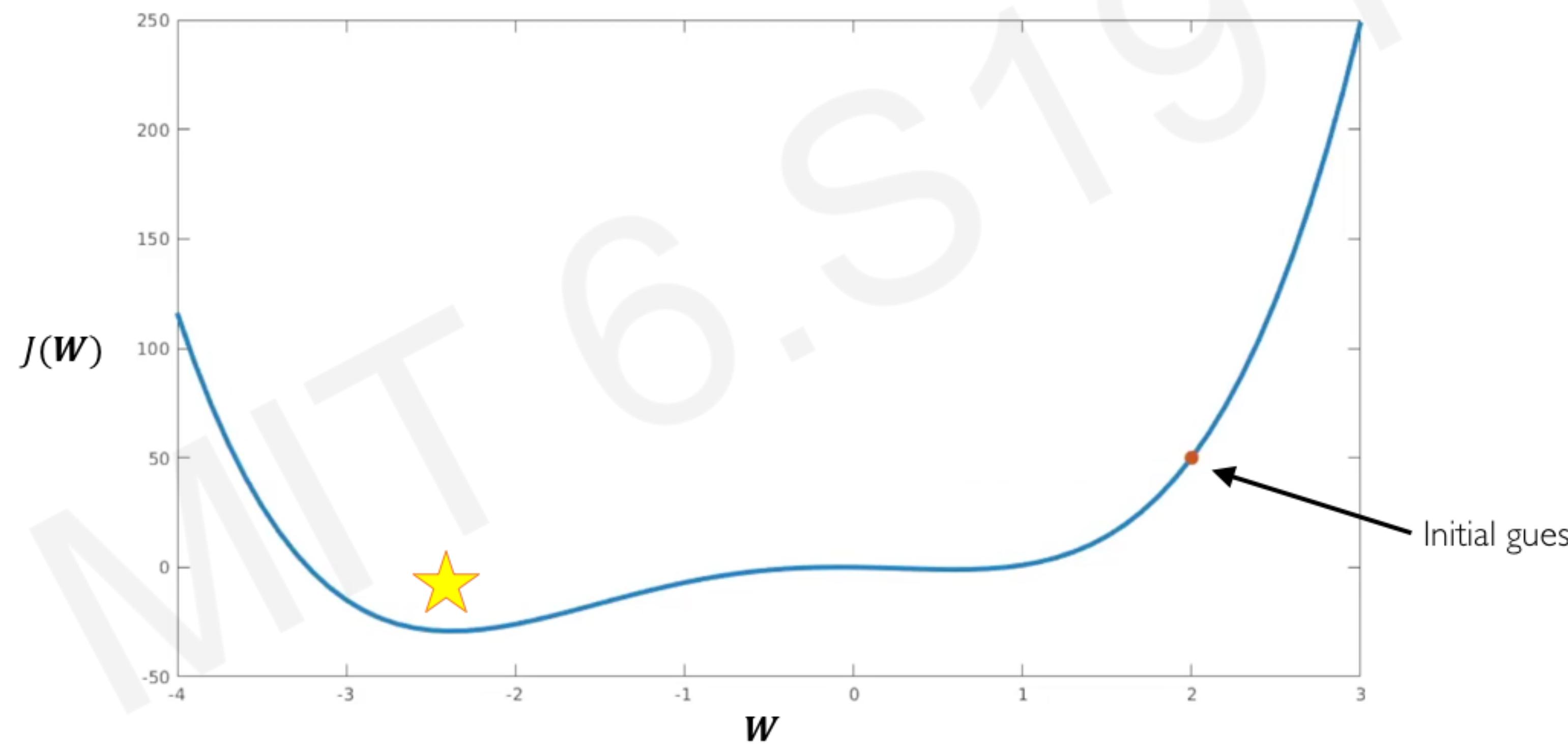
# Setting the Learning Rate

*Small learning rate* converges slowly and gets stuck in false local minima



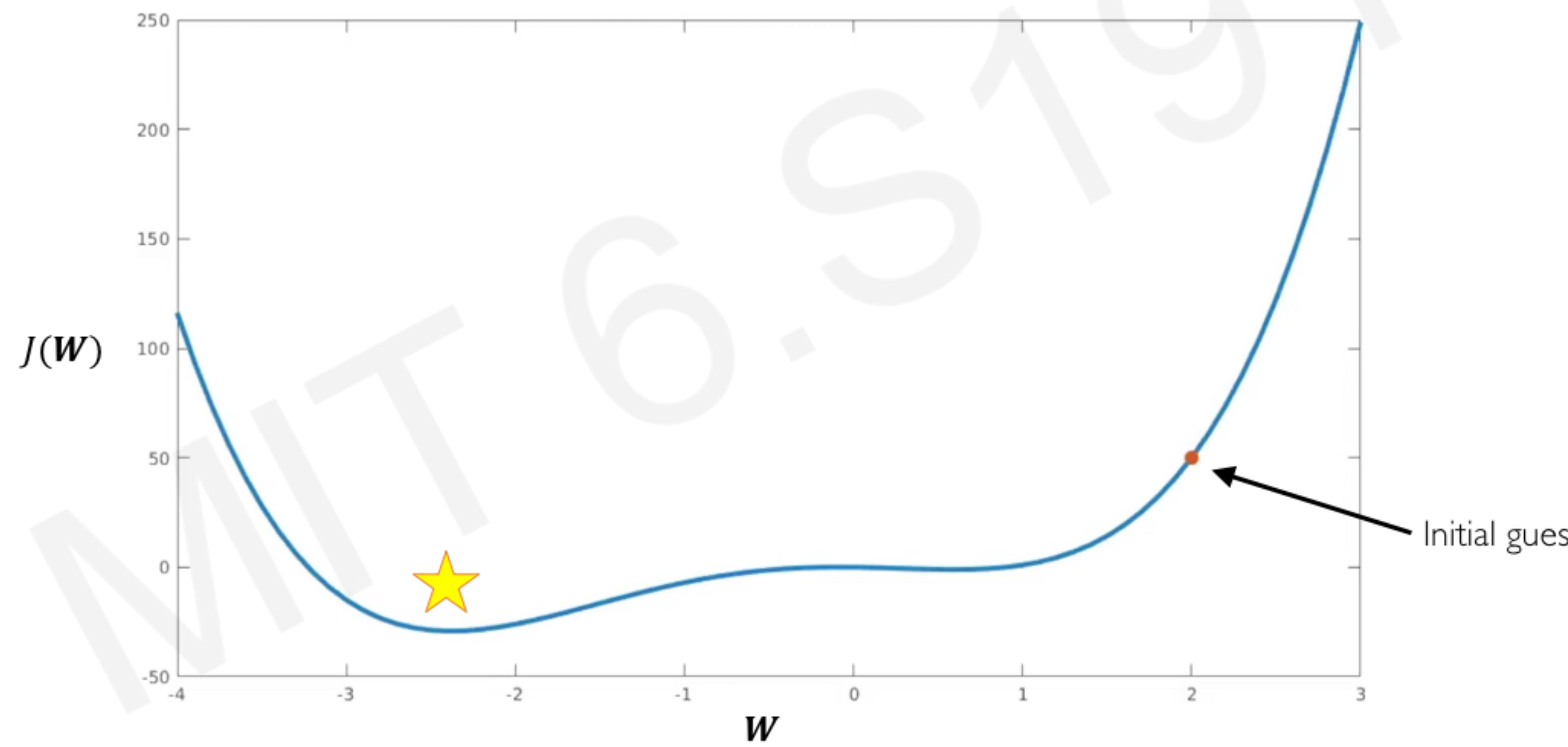
# Setting the Learning Rate

*Large learning rates* overshoot, become unstable and diverge



# Setting the Learning Rate

*Stable learning rates* converge smoothly and avoid local minima



# How to deal with this?

## Idea I:

Try lots of different learning rates and see what works “just right”

# How to deal with this?

## Idea 1:

Try lots of different learning rates and see what works “just right”

## Idea 2:

Do something smarter!

Design an adaptive learning rate that “adapts” to the landscape

# Adaptive Learning Rates

- Learning rates are no longer fixed
- Can be made larger or smaller depending on:
  - how large gradient is
  - how fast learning is happening
  - size of particular weights
  - etc...

# Gradient Descent Algorithms

## Algorithm

- SGD
- Adam
- Adadelta
- Adagrad
- RMSProp

## TF Implementation

 tf.keras.optimizers.SGD
 tf.keras.optimizers.Adam
 tf.keras.optimizers.Adadelta
 tf.keras.optimizers.Adagrad
 tf.keras.optimizers.RMSProp

## Reference

Kiefer & Wolfowitz. "Stochastic Estimation of the Maximum of a Regression Function." 1952.

Kingma et al. "Adam: A Method for Stochastic Optimization." 2014.

Zeiler et al. "ADADELTA: An Adaptive Learning Rate Method." 2012.

Duchi et al. "Adaptive Subgradient Methods for Online Learning and Stochastic Optimization." 2011.

Additional details: <http://ruder.io/optimizing-gradient-descent/>

# Gradient Descent Algorithms

```
model = models.Sequential()
model.add(layers.Dense(16, activation = 'relu', input_shape=(5000,)))
model.add(layers.Dense(16, activation = 'relu'))
model.add(layers.Dense(1, activation= 'sigmoid'))
```

```
model.compile(optimizer='adam',
              loss='binary_crossentropy',
              metrics=[ 'accuracy'])
```

Rate

```
history = model.fit(partial_x_train,
                     partial_y_train,
                     epochs=4,
                     batch_size=512,
                     validation_data=(x_val,y_val))
```

Online

Additional details: <http://ruder.io/optimizing-gradient-descent/>

# Gradient Descent Algorithms

```
```{r}
Alg
• S
• A
• A
• A
• R
```
model <- keras_model_sequential() %>%
  layer_dense(units = 16, activation = "relu", input_shape = c(5000)) %>%
  layer_dense(units = 16, activation = "relu") %>%
  layer_dense(units = 1, activation = "sigmoid")
model %>% compile(
  optimizer = "adam",
  loss = "binary_crossentropy",
  metrics = c("accuracy"))
model %>% fit(x_train, y_train, epochs = 4, batch_size = 512)
results <- model %>% evaluate(x_test, y_test)
```

```

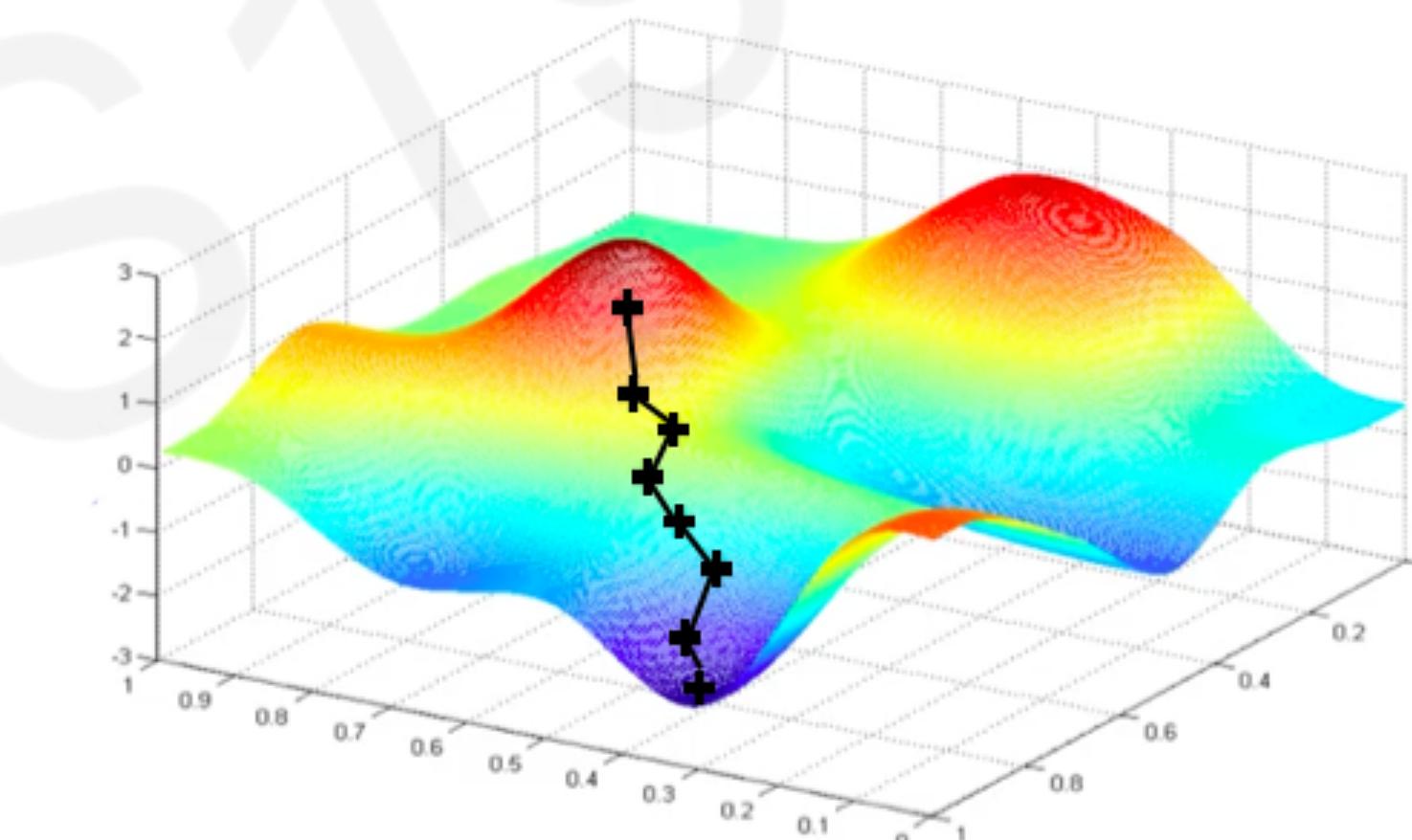
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# Neural Networks in Practice: Mini-batches

# Gradient Descent

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2. Loop until convergence:
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5. Return weights

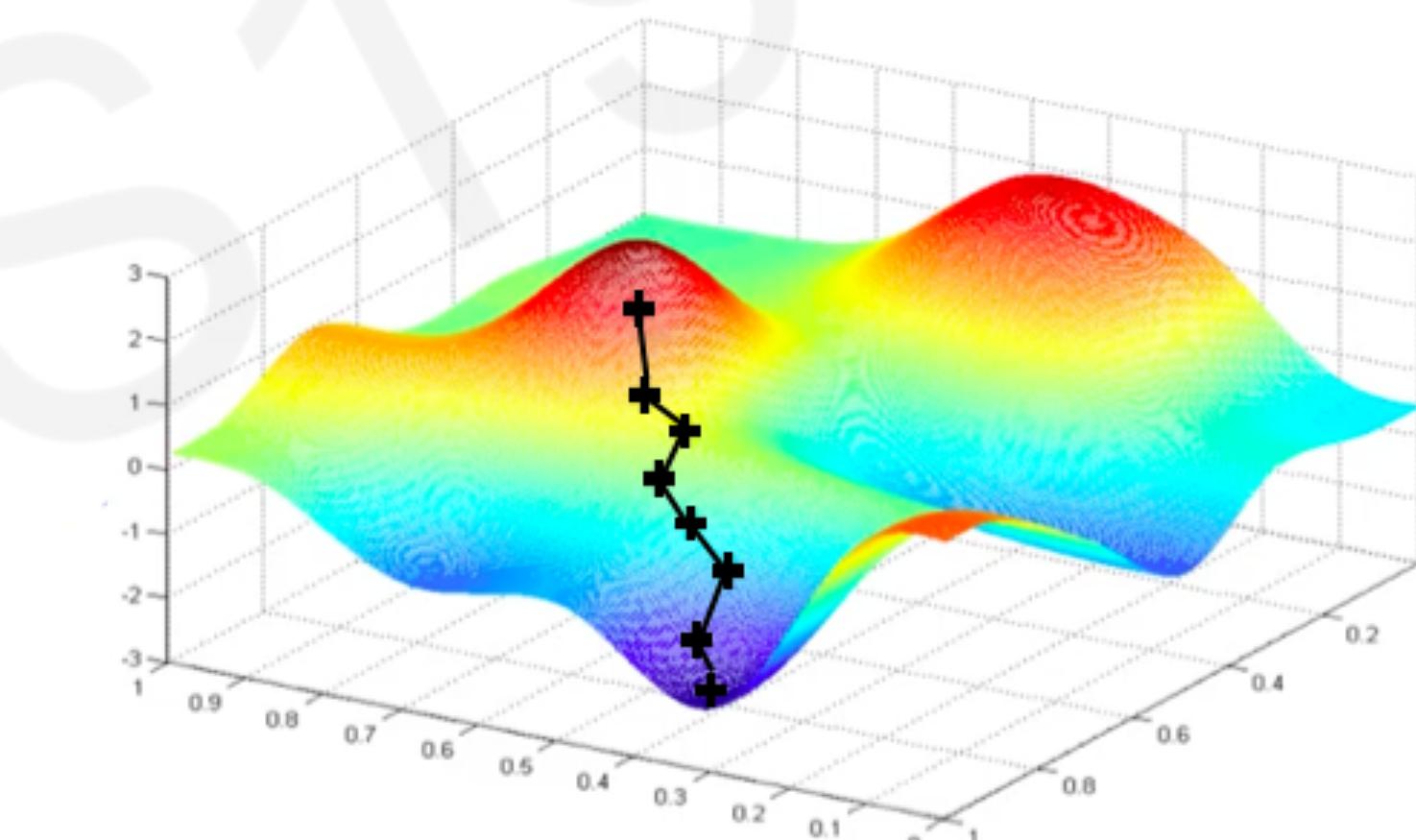


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5. Return weights



Can be very  
computationally  
intensive to compute!

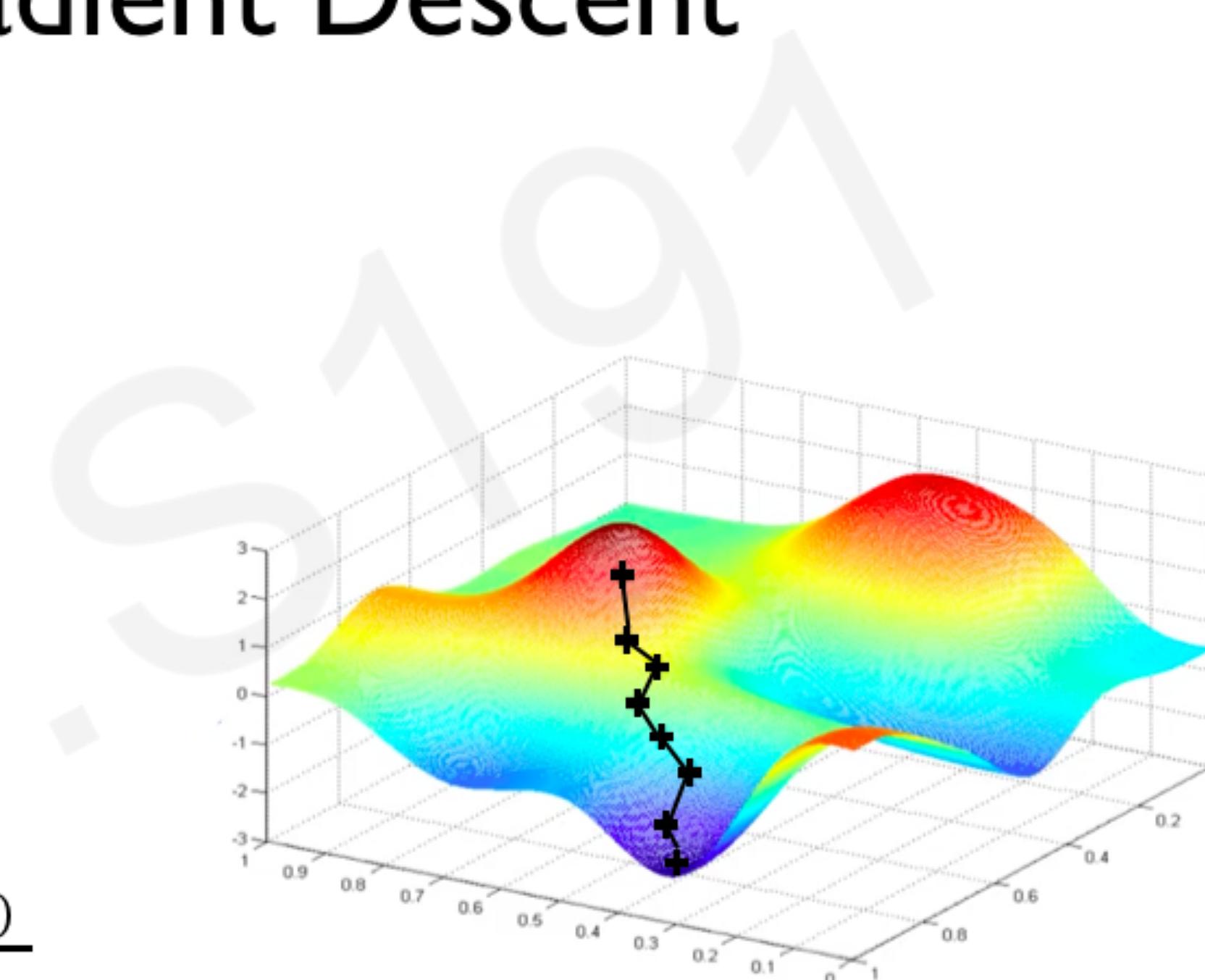


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# Stochastic Gradient Descent

## Algorithm

1. Initialize weights randomly  $\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
2. Loop until convergence:
3. Pick single data point  $i$
4. Compute gradient,  $\frac{\partial J_i(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}}$
5. Update weights,  $\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} - \eta \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}}$
6. Return weights



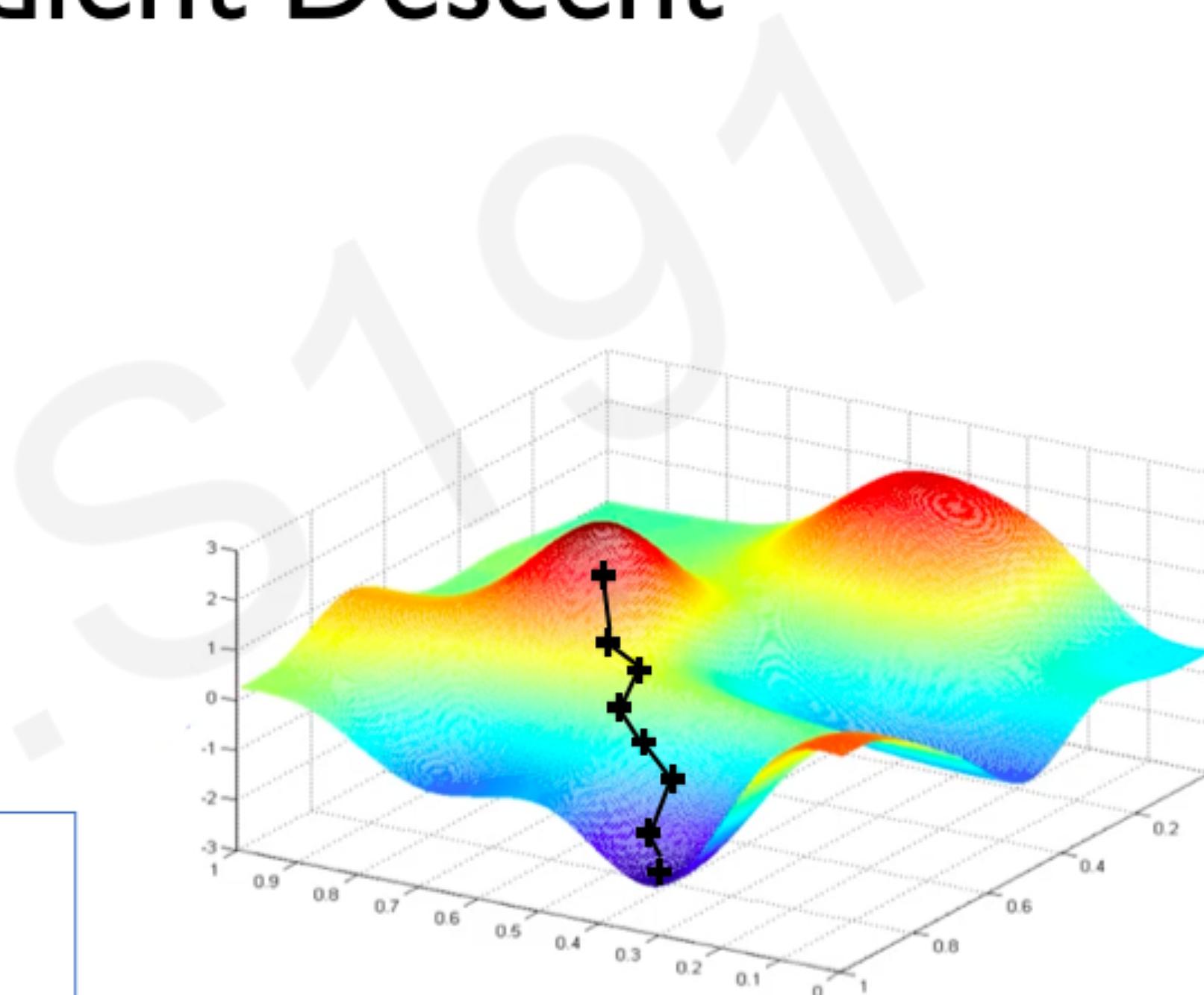
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6. Return weights

Easy to compute but  
**very noisy** (stochastic)!

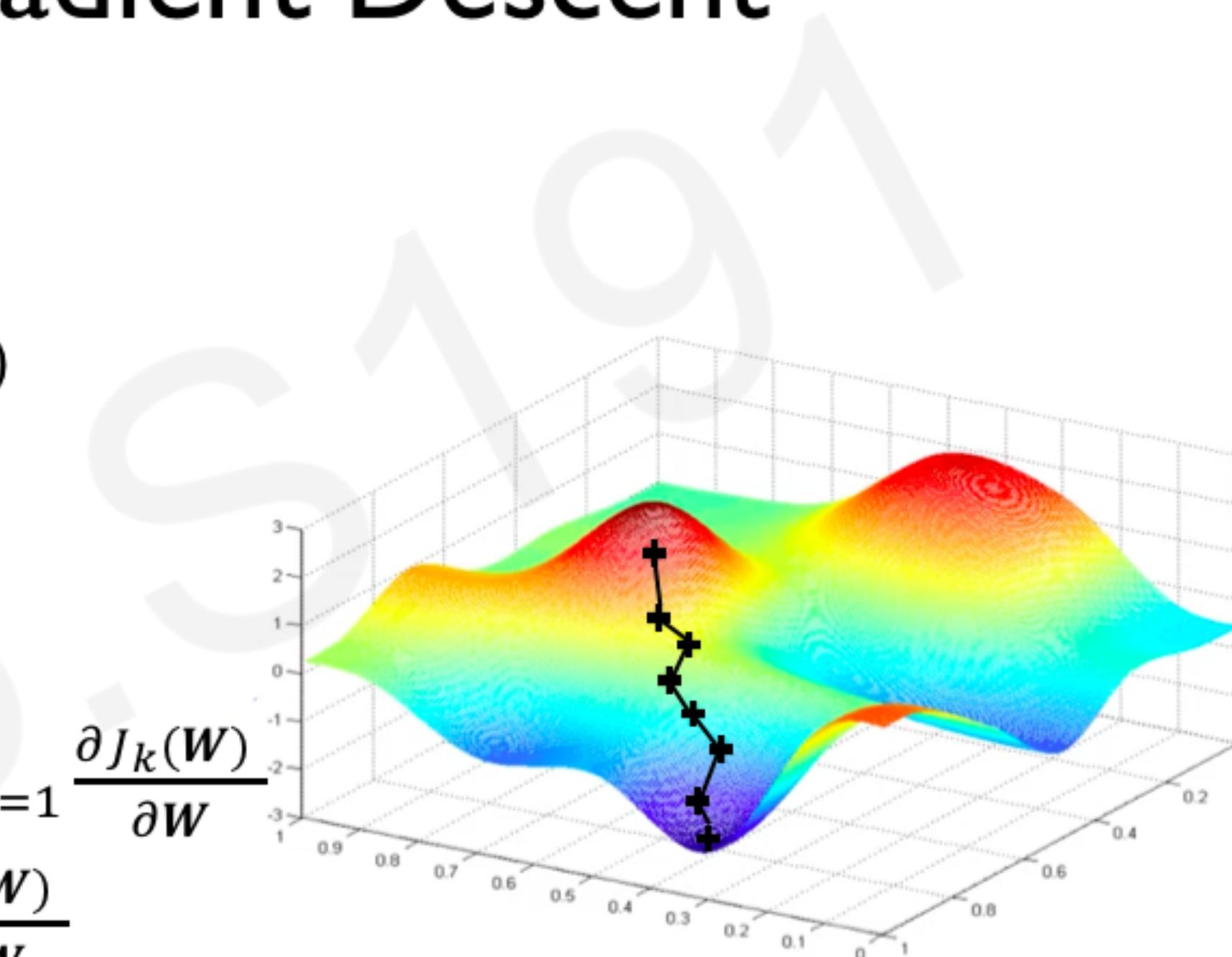


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# Stochastic Gradient Descent

## Algorithm

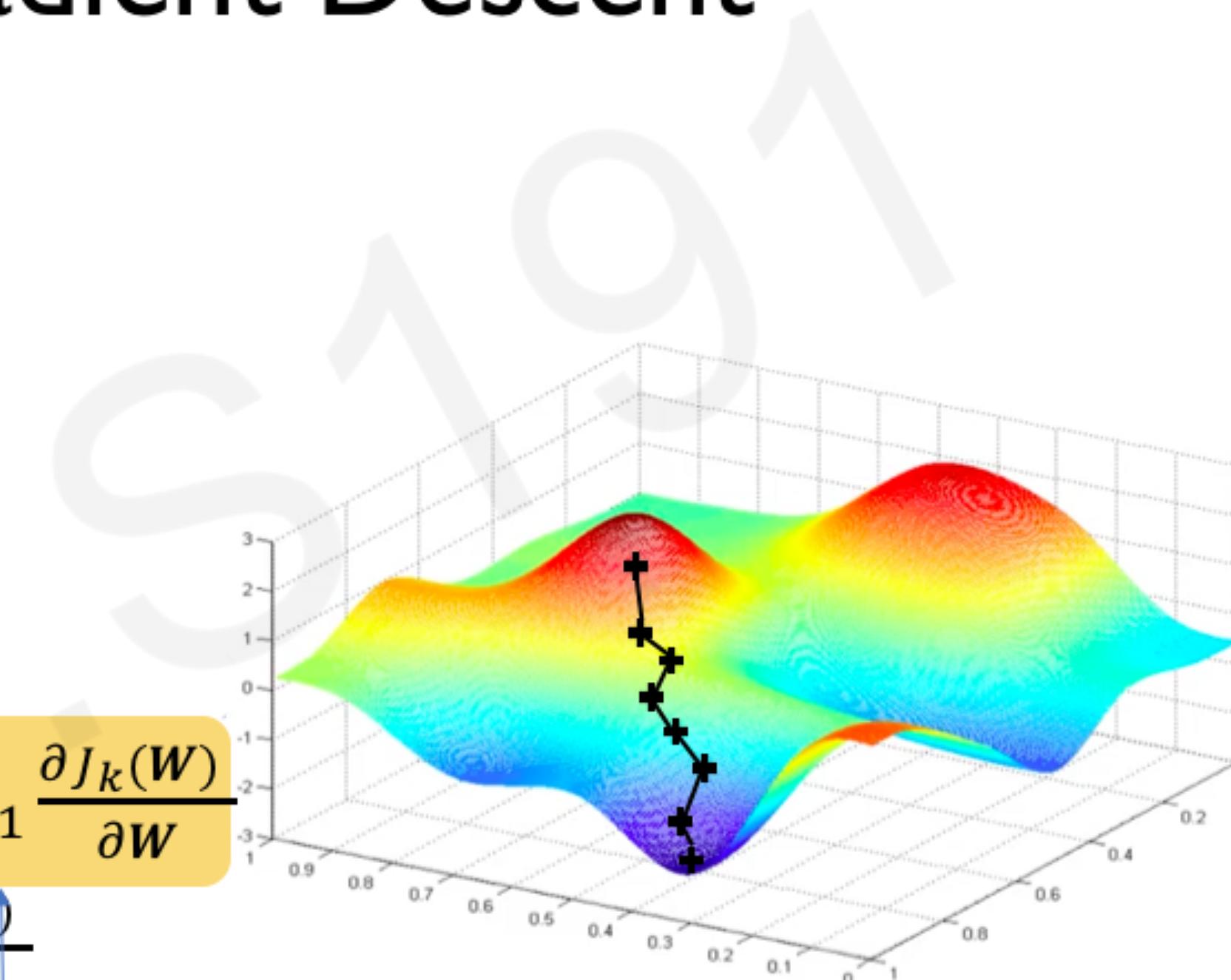
1. Initialize weights randomly  $\sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
2. Loop until convergence:
3. Pick batch of  $B$  data points
4. Compute gradient,  $\frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{k=1}^B \frac{\partial J_k(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}}$
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# Stochastic Gradient Descent

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$$\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} - \eta \frac{\partial J(\mathbf{W})}{\partial \mathbf{W}}$$
6. Return weights



Fast to compute and a much better  
estimate of the true gradient!



# Stochastic Gradient Descent

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model = models.Sequential()  
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model.add(layers.Dense(16, activation = 'relu'))  
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model.compile(optimizer='adam',  
              loss='binary_crossentropy',  
              metrics=[ 'accuracy'])  
  
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                     epochs=4,  
                     batch_size=512,  
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Fast to compute and a much better  
estimate of the true gradient!



# Stochastic Gradient Descent

```
```{r}
Algorithm 1. Import libraries
1. Import keras
2. Load dataset
3. Preprocess data
4. Build model
5. Train model
6. Evaluate model
```
model <- keras_model_sequential() %>%
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# Mini-batches while training

## More accurate estimation of gradient

Smoother convergence  
Allows for larger learning rates

# Mini-batches while training

More accurate estimation of gradient

Smoother convergence  
Allows for larger learning rates

**Mini-batches lead to fast training!**

Can parallelize computation + achieve significant speed increases on GPU's

So, SGD is different from Newton-Raphson in derivative information used, and in its optimization over small subsets of the data at a time and in parallel.

## Mini-batches while training

### More accurate estimation of gradient

Smoother convergence  
Allows for larger learning rates

### Mini-batches lead to fast training!

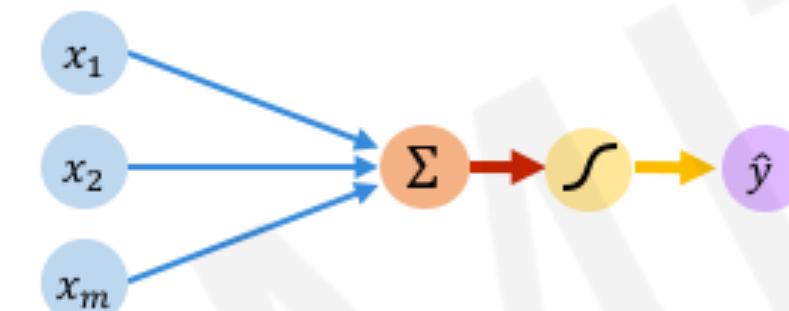
Can parallelize computation + achieve significant speed increases on GPU's

<https://playground.tensorflow.org>

# Core Foundation Review

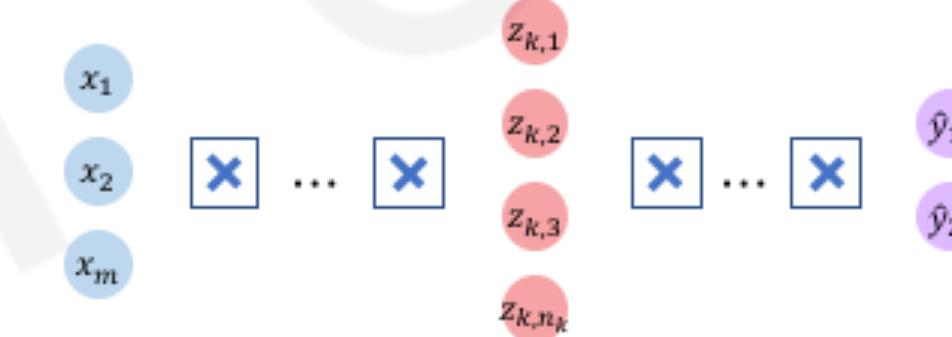
## The Perceptron

- Structural building blocks
- Nonlinear activation functions



## Neural Networks

- Stacking Perceptrons to form neural networks
- Optimization through backpropagation



## Training in Practice

- Adaptive learning
- Batching
- Regularization

