## An Introduction to Deep Learning

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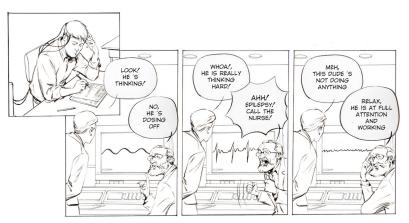
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#### Outline

- 1 Introduction to feed-forward networks
- 2 Relation to logistic regression
- 3 Notes on implementation
- 4 Illustration using synthetic and real data

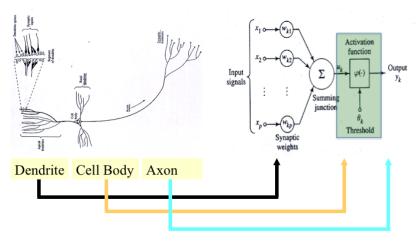
### Motivation



The idea: Human intelligence may be due to a learning algorithm. We aim to build algorithms that mimic the brain.<sup>1</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>image: https://backyardbrains.com/experiments/EEG

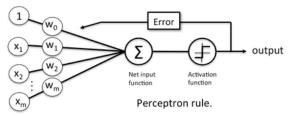
### Imitate neurons in the brain: Artificial Neurons



Artificial Neuron (AN): input, weights, and output

#### Activation functions

The Perceptron (Rosenblatt et al. 1957 & 1962) computes a step function as an activation function.



$$\mathrm{step}(z) = \begin{cases} 1 & z \geq t \\ 0 & z < t \end{cases}, \text{ where } t \text{ is a threshold}$$

As each input is applied to the perceptron its output is compared to the target. To keep the output closer to the target the **learning rule** adjusts the network parameters.

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### What can a single AN compute?

The Perceptron output is given by  $y = \text{step}(b + \sum_{j=1}^{p} w_j x_j)$ .

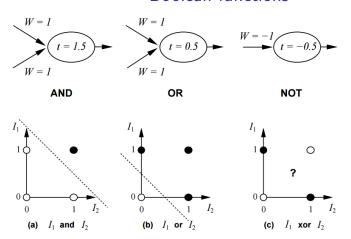
Perceptron can divide the input space into two regions.

The decision boundary is given by:  $b + \sum_{j=1}^{p} w_j x_j = 0$ .

Perceptron can learn to classify any linearly separable set of inputs—convergence theorem (Rosenblatt 1962)

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### Boolean functions



Examples<sup>2</sup> of linearly separable and non separable problems

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Veloso, 2001

### Learning the XOR function

Consider this as a regression problem and use the MSE loss function:

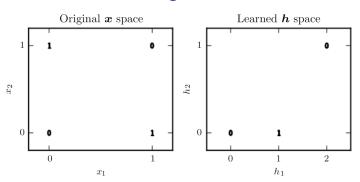
$$\mathsf{MSE}(\theta) = \frac{1}{4} \sum_{\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathcal{X}} (y - f_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}))^2$$

where  $\theta = (\boldsymbol{w}, b)$  and  $f_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}) = b + \sum_{j=1}^{p} w_{j} x_{j}$ —a linear model.

Using the normal equations we can minimize  $\mathsf{MSE}(\theta)$  w.r.t.  $\boldsymbol{w}$  and b in closed form. It gives  $\boldsymbol{w}=0$  and b=.5—This gives the model output .5 everywhere.

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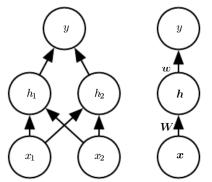
### Learning the XOR function



- When  $x_1 = 0$ , the model's output must increase as  $x_2$  increases
- When  $x_1 = 1$ , the model's output must decrease as  $x_2$  increases
- A linear model applies a fixed coefficient  $w_2$  to  $x_2$ . It cannot use the value of  $x_1$  to change the coefficient  $w_2$  on  $x_2$  and cannot solve this problem.

## Intuition behind multilayer neural network

One way to solve the XOR problem is to transform the input by introducing a feed-forward network:



The complete model will then be, in a function form:

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{W}, \boldsymbol{w}, b, \boldsymbol{c}) = f^{(2)} \left( f^{(1)}(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{W}, \boldsymbol{c}); \boldsymbol{w}, b \right)$$

## What function should $f^{(1)}$ be?

We consider  $f^{(2)}$  as a linear function.

We can write the hidden layer output as

$$\boldsymbol{h} = f^{(1)}(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{W}, \boldsymbol{c}) = g(\boldsymbol{W}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{c})$$

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If  $f^{(1)}$  is also linear, then the network as a whole would remain a linear function of its input.

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So we must use a nonlinear activation function for g. A popular nonlinear activation function g is rectified linear unit (ReLU)

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

### A feed-forward network solution to XOR

We wish the network to perform well on the four cases

$$m{X} = egin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 \ 0 & 1 \ 1 & 0 \ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, m{y} = egin{bmatrix} 0 \ 1 \ 1 \ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

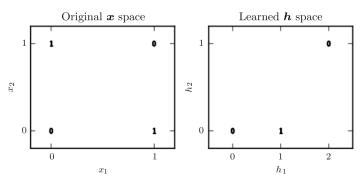
We can specify a two-layer network solution to XOR as

$$\boldsymbol{W} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{c} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}, \boldsymbol{w} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, b = 0$$

The complete network is given by

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{W}, \boldsymbol{w}, b, \boldsymbol{c}) = \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \max\{0, \boldsymbol{W}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x} + \boldsymbol{c}\} + b$$

### A feed-forward network solution to XOR



In the proposed network, the nonlinear hidden layer has mapped both  $\boldsymbol{x}=[1,0]$  and  $\boldsymbol{x}=[0,1]$  to a single point in feature space,  $\boldsymbol{h}=[1,0].$ 

A linear model can now describe the function as increasing in  $h_1$  and decreasing in  $h_2$ .

#### Activation functions

Modern ANs use a variety of activation functions that are smoother than the step function.

Linear - no input squashing

$$y = x$$

Logistic sigmoid - squash input into [0,1]

$$y = \operatorname{sigmoid}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)}$$

Hyperbolic tangent - squash input into  $\left[-1,1\right]$ 

$$y = \tan(x) = \frac{\exp(x) - \exp(-x)}{\exp(x) + \exp(-x)}$$

Rectified linear unit

$$y = \max\{0, x\}$$

### Relation to logistic regression

Let  $p(y=1\,|\,X=x)=p(x;w)$  be the conditional probability that a particular sample belongs to class 1 given its predictors x. We write the logistic regression model as

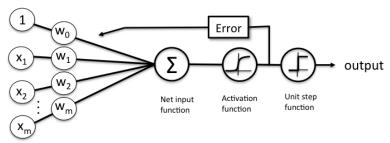
$$\mathsf{logit}\left(p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w})\right) = w_0 + \boldsymbol{w}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}$$

Solving for  $p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w})$  gives

$$p(\boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w}) = \operatorname{sigmoid}\left(w_0 + \boldsymbol{w}^\mathsf{T} \boldsymbol{x}\right)$$

To minimize misclassification rate, one should predict y=1 when  $p\geq .5$ , and vice versa.—i.e. guess 1 whenever  $w_0+\boldsymbol{w}^\mathsf{T}\boldsymbol{x}\geq 0$  and 0 otherwise. So logistic regression gives a linear classifier.

### Relation to logistic regression



#### Schematic of a logistic regression classifier.

Learning parameters  $\boldsymbol{w}$  and b: maximum likelihood estimation

- Perceptron algorithm: online and error-driven.
- Logistic regression: batch algorithms—e.g. gradient descent, limited-memory BFGS, or online algorithms—stochastic gradient descent.

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 $<sup>^3</sup> http://rasbt.github.io/mlxtend/user\_guide/classifier/LogisticRegression/\\$ 

### Gradient-based learning

The nonlinearity of a neural network causes most interesting loss functions to become non-convex

- Optimization procedure using iterative, gradient-based optimizers that drive the cost function to a very low value
- Cost function,  $C(\theta)$  they are more or less the same as those for other parametric models, such as linear models

#### Cost function

We define the loss functional  $\mathcal{L}(f_{\theta},z)$  based on the network, e.g., squared error, the negative conditional log-likelihood. Here, z=(x,y) and  $f_{\theta}(x)$  is the predictive function for y given  $\theta$ .

We define the cost function as

$$C(\theta) = \int \mathcal{L}(f_{\theta}, z) P(z) dz$$

We typically write this as an average—training loss

$$C(\theta) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \mathcal{L}(f_{\theta}, z)$$

# Gradient descent (GD) algorithm<sup>4</sup>

We find a  $\theta$  that minimizes the cost

- By solving  $\frac{\partial C(\theta)}{\partial \theta}=0$  we can find the minima, maxima, and saddle points.
- In general, we cannot find the solutions of this equation. So we seek numerical optimization methods
- local descent: iteratively modify  $\theta$  so as to decrease  $C(\theta)$ , until we reach a local minima

$$\theta^{(t+1)} = \theta^{(t)} - \epsilon \frac{\partial C(\theta^{(t)})}{\partial \theta^{(t)}},$$

 $\epsilon$  is the learning rate

<sup>4</sup>http://www.iro.umontreal.ca/~pift6266/H10/notes/gradient.html

## Stochastic gradient descent (SGD) algorithm

- We use the fact that  $C(\theta)$  is an average over i.i.d. samples
- Make updates much often

$$\theta^{(t+1)} = \theta^{(t)} - \epsilon \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta^{(t)}, z)}{\partial \theta^{(t)}},$$

z is an the next sample from the training set.—It can be implemented online

• The update direction is a random variable whose expectation is the true gradient of interest.

### Output units

The output layer provides additional transformation from the hidden features  $\boldsymbol{h}$  to complete the network's indented task.

**Linear** units for Gaussian output distributions: the output units based on an affine transformation with no nonlinearity

- Given hidden features h, we define outputs  $f_{\theta}(x) = w^{\mathsf{T}}h + b$
- It's typically used to produce the mean of a conditional Gaussian distribution  $p(y|\boldsymbol{x},\theta) = \mathcal{N}(f_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}), \mathbf{I})$

## Cost function: the negative log-likelihood

The neural network defines a conditional distribution  $p(y | x, \theta)$ .

Suppose we use MLE for parameter estimation. Then, it's natural to use the cost function as the negative log-likelihood:

$$C(\theta) = -\mathsf{E}_{\boldsymbol{x},y} \log p_{\mathsf{model}}(y|\boldsymbol{x},\theta)$$

### Example

if  $p_{\mathsf{model}}(y|\boldsymbol{x},\theta) = \mathcal{N}(f_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x}),\mathsf{I})$ , then we have

$$C(\theta) = \frac{1}{2} \mathsf{E}_{\boldsymbol{x},y} \|y - f_{\theta}(\boldsymbol{x})\|^2 + \mathsf{const.}$$

### Output units

**Sigmoid** units for Bernoulli output distributions: e.g. a binary classification problem

Given hidden features h, we define the output as

$$\mu = \mathsf{sigmoid}(\eta) = \mathsf{sigmoid}\left(\boldsymbol{w}^\mathsf{T}\boldsymbol{h} + b\right)$$

## Bernoulli distribution and logistic sigmoid

For a Bernoulli distribution with  $y\in\{0,1\}$  that represents either success of failure, and  $0\leq\mu\leq1$  representing the probability of success, we have

$$p(y \mid \mu) = \mu^{y} (1 - \mu)^{(1-y)}$$

$$= \exp\{y \log \mu + (1 - y) \log(1 - \mu)\}$$
(2)

$$= \exp\left\{y\log\frac{\mu}{1-\mu} + \log(1-\mu)\right\} \tag{3}$$

Comparing this expression with the density of an exponential family distribution  $p(y \mid \eta) = h(x) \exp{\{\eta \, \mathsf{T}(y) - \mathsf{A}(\eta)\}}$ ,

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Comparing this expression with the density of an exponential family distribution  $p(y \mid \eta) = h(x) \exp\{\eta \, \mathsf{T}(y) - \mathsf{A}(\eta)\}$ , where  $\eta$  is the natural parameter,  $\mathsf{T}(y)$  is the sufficient statistic,  $\mathsf{A}(\eta)$  is the log partition function, and h(x) is a normalizing constant,

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Comparing this expression with the density of an exponential family distribution  $p(y \mid \eta) = h(x) \exp\{\eta \, \mathsf{T}(y) - \mathsf{A}(\eta)\}$ , we have

$$\eta = \log \frac{\mu}{1-\mu} - \log \text{ odds} \tag{4}$$

$$\rightarrow \mu = \operatorname{sigmoid}(\eta) \tag{5}$$

#### Parameter estimation via MLE

We assume we have a training set  $\mathcal{X} = (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Our goal is to maximize the log likelihood:

$$\log p(\mathcal{X} \mid \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log p(\boldsymbol{x}_i, y_i \mid \theta).$$

We factor the log likelihood into an unconditional term p(x) that we ignore and a conditional term  $p(y \mid x)$  that we focus.

Let  $z_i = I(y_i == 1)$  and  $p_i = p(y_i = 1 \mid x_i)$ —a logistic linear function of  $x_i$  for a single layer network. We can write the conditional density of the dataset as

$$\mathcal{L} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} p_i^{z_i} (1 - p_i)^{1 - z_i}$$

#### Parameter estimation via MLE

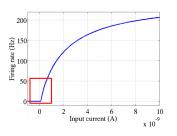
We wish to maximize the log likelihood:

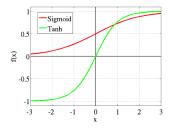
$$\log \mathcal{L} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} z_i \log p_i + (1 - z_i) \log (1 - p_i)$$

The negative of this log likelihood is a *cross entropy* between the indicator variables z and the posterior probabilities p.

This also shows that the cross entropy is a natural cost function for binary classification problem (Jordan 1995)

## Hidden units: sigmoid and hyperbolic tangent<sup>5</sup>

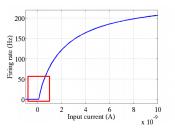


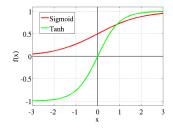


Common neural activation function motivated by biological data (left) and sigmoid and hyperbolic tangent (right).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Glorot (2011)

## Hidden units: sigmoid and hyperbolic tangent<sup>5</sup>

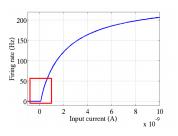


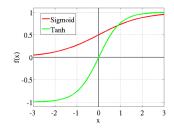


During training sigmoidal units saturate across most of their domain—they saturate to a high value when z is very positive and vice versa. It can make gradient-based learning very difficult.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Glorot (2011)

# Hidden units: sigmoid and hyperbolic tangent<sup>5</sup>



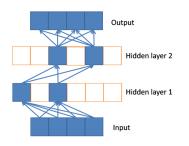


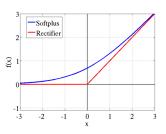
The hyperbolic tangent has a steady state at 0, hence is preferred from the optimization standpoint. It forces an antisymmetry around 0 which is absent in biological neurons.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Glorot (2011)

A popular choice of activation function for hidden units<sup>6</sup>

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

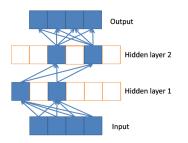


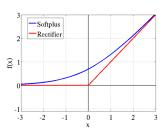


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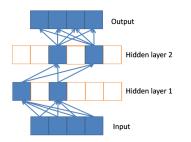


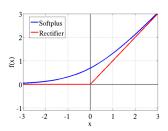
One can safely disregard nonlinearity (Goodfellow et al. 2016): "... neural network training algorithms do not usually arrive at a local minimum of the cost function, but instead merely reduce its value significantly"

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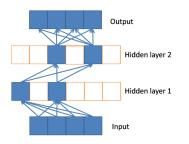


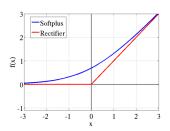
Non-linearity in the network comes from the path selection associated with individual neurons being active or not. Once this subset of neurons is selected, the output is a linear function of the input.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Glorot (2011)

A popular choice of activation function for hidden units<sup>6</sup>

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





ReLU allows a network to easily obtain sparse representations.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Glorot (2011)

## An overview of back-propagation algorithm

Computing an analytical expression for the gradient is straightforward, but numerical evaluation of such an expression can be expensive over the network.—**backprop** gives an inexpensive procedure to evaluate this gradient.

**backprop** uses the chain rule of calculus: Suppose  $\boldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^m, \boldsymbol{y} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $g: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}^n, f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ . If  $\boldsymbol{y} = g(\boldsymbol{x}), z = g(\boldsymbol{y})$ , then

$$\frac{\partial z}{\partial x_i} = \sum_j \frac{\partial z}{\partial y_j} \cdot \frac{\partial y_j}{\partial x_i}$$

We can generalize this procedure to vectors and tensors in a multilayer neural network.

#### Notes on architectural considerations

In practice, the overall structure of the network is important: how many units it should have and how these units should be connected to each other.

Alternatives to feed-forward networks

- Convolutional Neural Networks imitates human memory
- Auto Encoders unsupervised learning and dimensionality reduction

### Hands on experiments

#### Datasets

- A synthetic spiral dataset with multiple classes
- The MNIST data set with 0-9 handwritten characters

Algorithm: A basic back-propagation algorithm implementation with one hidden layer

Link to R scripts: http://bit.ly/deep-learning-stats

### Links to serious implementations

Deep learning frameworks, which uses CPU and GPU

- TensorFlow with R https://rstudio.github.io/tensorflow/index.html
- Theano with python http://deeplearning.net/software/theano

#### Available R packages

- neuralnet
- deepnet
- h2o

