Lecture No. 7 – Artificial Neural Networks

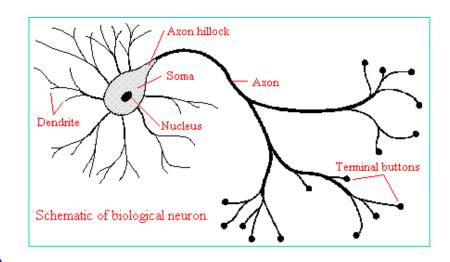
Overview

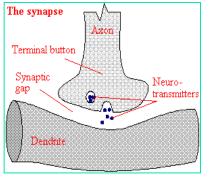


- Classification by Backpropagation
- Deep Neural Networks

Artificial Neural Networks Biological Motivation

- Human brain contains about 10¹¹ neurons
- Each neuron is connected, on average, to 10⁴ other neurons
- Neuron switching times: about 10⁻³ seconds (computers: 10⁻¹⁰ seconds)
- Complex human decisions (e.g., face recognition): very fast (~0.1 sec.)
- Massive Parallel Computation





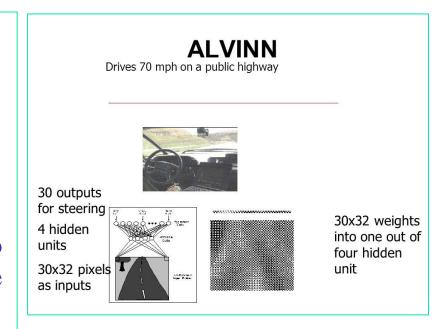


Properties of Artificial Neural Networks

- Many neural-like threshold switching units
- Many weighted interconnections among units
- Highly parallel, distributed process
- Emphasis on tuning weights automatically
- Basic idea
 - Model the target as a nonlinear function of multiple features (also known as ...)

Neural Network Representation Example: Autonomous Vehicle

- Input image: 30 X 32 = 960 pixels
- Each input node is associated with one pixel
- There are four hidden units and 30 output units
- Each input node is connected to each hidden unit with a positive / negative weight
- Each output unit is associated with a command (left, straight, right, etc.)



ALVINN (Autonomous Land Vehicle In a Neural Network)

Appropriate Problems for ANN

- Input and target attributes can be discrete or real-valued (have to be numeric)
- Output may include more than one target attribute ("a vector of attributes")
- The training data may contain errors
- Each target attribute is a smooth, continuous function of input attributes
- Form of target function is unknown
- Long training times are acceptable
- Human readability of results is unimportant

Sample Applications of ANN

(Define inputs and outputs)

- Optical Character Recognition (OCR)
- Voice Recognition
- Image Classification
- Information Retrieval
- Financial Prediction
- Natural Language Processing (Word Embedding)

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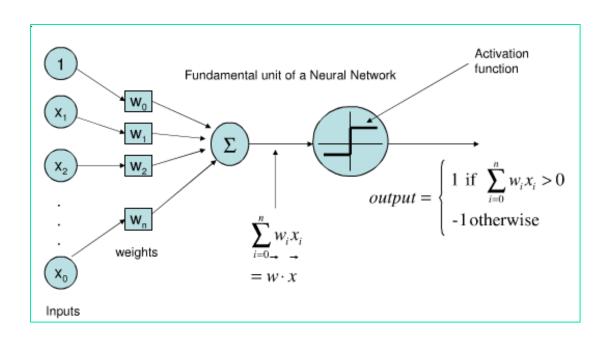
- Overview
- Classification by Backpropagation

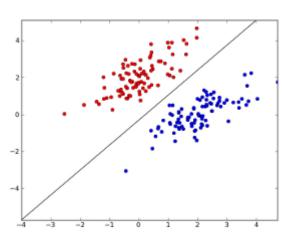


Deep Neural Networks

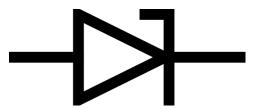
Classification by Backpropagation

- A neural network: A set of connected input/output units (*neurons*) where each connection has a **weight** associated with it
- During the learning phase, the network learns by adjusting the weights
- Also referred to as connectionist learning

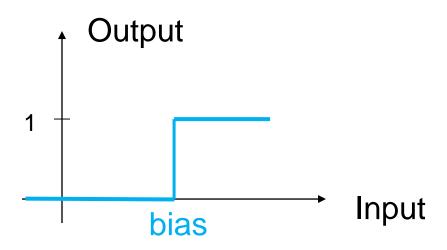




Node Biases



Recall: A node's output is weighted function of its inputs and a 'bias' term



These biases also need to be learned!

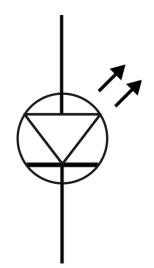
Training Biases (Θ's)

A node's output (assume 'step function' for simplicity)

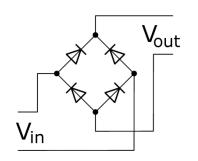
1 if
$$W_1 X_1 + W_2 X_2 + ... + W_n X_n \ge \Theta$$

0 otherwise

Rewriting

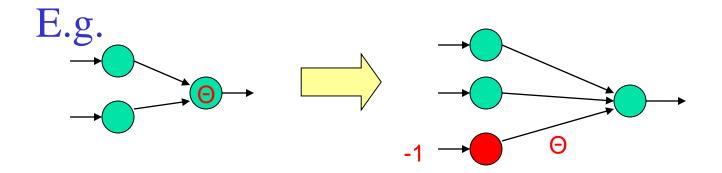


Training Biases (cont.)



Hence, add another unit whose activation is always -1

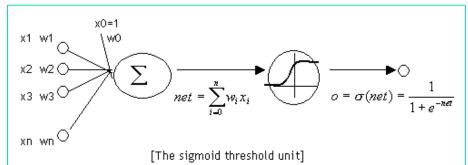
The bias is then just another weight!

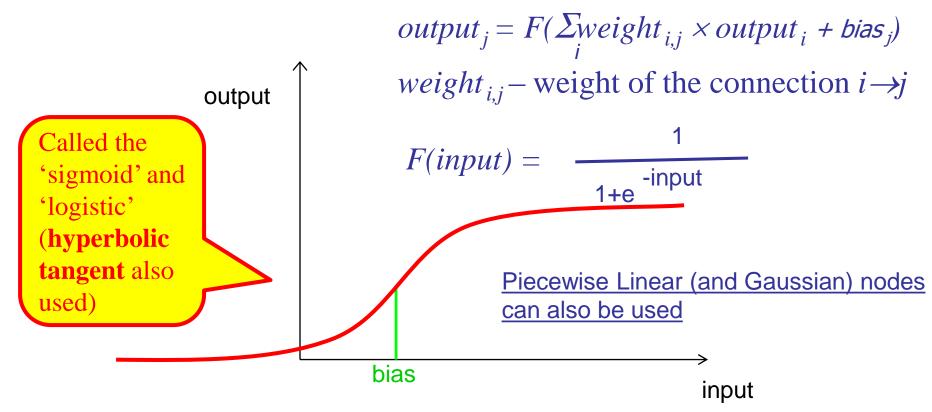


Sigmoid Activation Units

(Input: ? Output: ?)

Individual Units' Computation





Neural Network as a Classifier

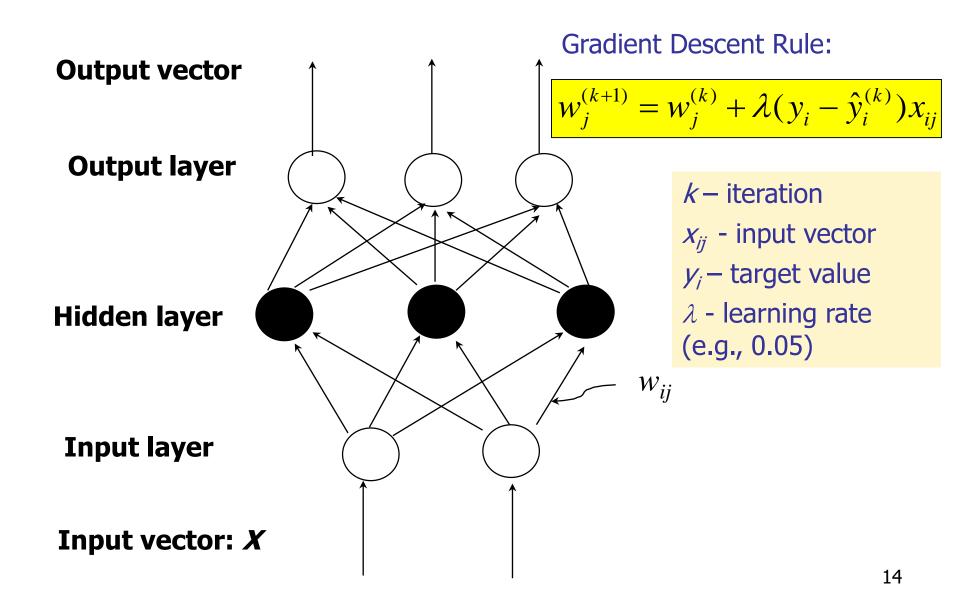
Weakness

- Long training time
- Require a number of parameters typically best determined empirically
- Poor interpretability

Strength

- High tolerance to noisy data
- Ability to classify untrained patterns
- Well-suited for continuous-valued inputs and outputs
- Successful on an array of real-world data, e.g., hand-written letters
- Algorithms are inherently parallel
- Techniques have recently been developed for the extraction of rules from trained neural networks

A Multi-Layer Feed-Forward Neural Network



How A Multi-Layer Neural Network Works

- The **inputs** to the network correspond to the attributes measured for each training tuple
- Inputs are fed simultaneously into the units making up the input layer
- They are then weighted and fed simultaneously to a hidden layer
- The number of hidden layers is arbitrary (one, two, or more)
- The weighted outputs of the last hidden layer are input to units making up the **output layer**, which emits the network's prediction
- The network is **feed-forward**: None of the weights cycles back to an input unit or to an output unit of a previous layer
- From a statistical point of view, networks perform nonlinear regression:
 Given enough hidden units and enough training samples, they can closely approximate any function

Defining a Network Topology

- Decide the **network topology:** Specify # of units in the *input layer*, # of *hidden layers* (if > 1), # of units in *each hidden layer*, and # of units in the *output layer*
- Normalize the input values for each attribute measured in the training tuples to [0.0—1.0]
- One input unit per domain value, each initialized to 0
- Output, if for classification and more than two classes, one output unit per class is used
- Once a network has been trained and its accuracy is unacceptable, repeat the training process with a different network topology or a different set of initial weights

Backpropagation

- Iteratively process a set of training tuples & compare the network's prediction with the actual known target value
- For each training tuple, the weights are modified to minimize the mean
 squared error between the network's prediction and the actual target value
- Modifications are made in the "backwards" direction: from the output layer, through each hidden layer down to the first hidden layer, hence "backpropagation"
- Steps
 - Initialize weights to small random numbers, associated with biases
 - Propagate the inputs forward (by applying activation function)
 - Backpropagate the error (by updating weights and biases)
 - Terminating condition (when error is very small, etc.)

Backpropagation Algorithm

Algorithm: Backpropagation. Neural network learning for classification or prediction, using the backpropagation algorithm.

Input:

- D, a data set consisting of the training tuples and their associated target values;
- l, the learning rate;
- · network, a multilayer feed-forward network.

Output: A trained neural network.

Method:

```
(1)
       Initialize all weights and biases in network;
 (2)
       while terminating condition is not satisfied {
 (3)
             for each training tuple X in D {
 (4)
                      // Propogate the inputs forward:
 (5)
                      for each input layer unit j {
                              O_i = I_i; // output of an input unit is its actual input value
 (6)
                      for each hidden or output layer unit j {
 (7)
 (8)
                              I_i = \sum_i w_{ii} O_i + \theta_i; // compute the net input of unit j with respect to the previous layer, i
                              O_i = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-I_j}}; } // compute the output of each unit j
 (9)
                      // Backpropogate the errors;
(10)
(11)
                      for each unit j in the output layer
                              Err_i = O_i(1 - O_i)(T_i - O_i); // compute the error
(12)
                      for each unit j in the hidden layers, from the last to the first hidden layer
(13)
                              Err_i = O_i(1 - O_i)\Sigma_k Err_k w_{ik}, // compute the error with respect to the next higher layer, k
(14)
(15)
                      for each weight wij in network {
                              \Delta w_{ii} = (l)Err_iO_i; // weight increment
(16)
                              w_{ij} = w_{ij} + \Delta w_{ij}; } // weight update
(17)
(18)
                      for each bias \theta_i in network {
(19)
                              \Delta\theta_{j} = (l)Err_{j}; // bias increment
                              \theta_i = \theta_i + \Delta \theta_i; } // bias update
(20)
                      } }
(21)
```

Weight Space

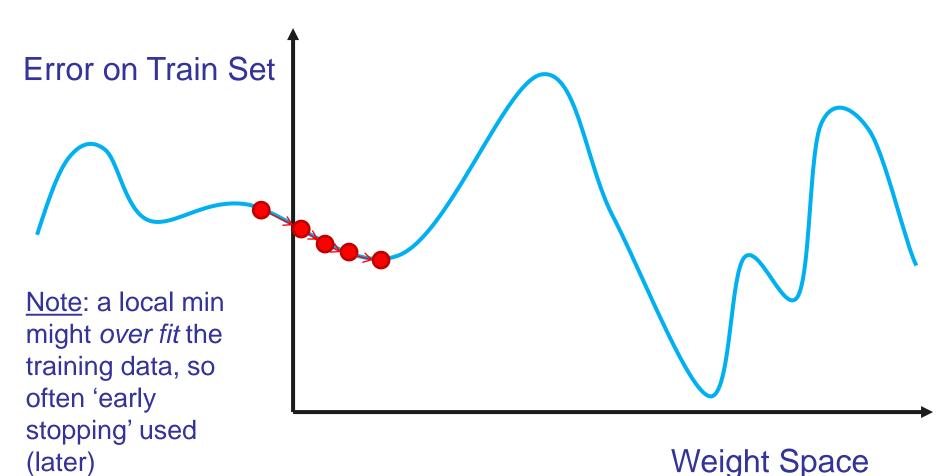
- Given a neural-network layout, the weights and biases are free parameters that <u>define a space</u>
- Each point in this Weight Space specifies a network

weight space is a continuous space we search

- Associated with each point is an <u>error rate</u>, E, over the training data
- Backprop performs gradient descent in weight space

Backprop Seeks LOCAL Minima

(in a continuous space)



The Gradient-Descent Rule

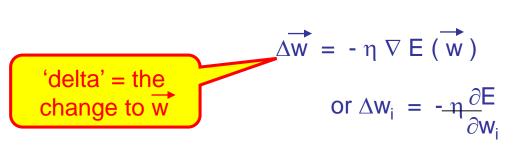
$$\nabla E(\overrightarrow{w}) \equiv \begin{bmatrix} \partial E & \partial E & \partial E \\ \partial w_0 & \partial w_1 & \partial \overline{w}_2 & -\partial w_N \end{bmatrix} - , \dots, \dots$$

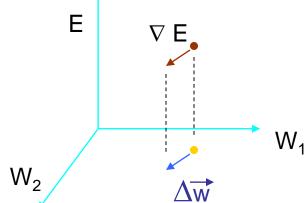
The gradient'

This is a *N*+1 dimensional vector (ie, the 'slope' in weight space)

Since we want to reduce errors, we want to go 'down hill'

We'll take a finite step in weight space:





'On Line' vs. 'Batch' Backprop



- Technically, we should look at the error gradient for the entire training set, before taking a step in weight space ('batch' backprop)
- However, in practice we take a step after each example ('on-line' backprop)
 - Much faster convergence (learn after each example)
 - Called '<u>stochastic</u>' gradient descent
 - Stochastic gradient descent quite popular at Google, Facebook, Microsoft, etc. due to easy parallelism

Gradient Descent for the Perceptron

(for the simple case of <u>linear</u> output units)

$$Error \equiv \frac{1}{2} \times (T - o)$$
Network's **o**utput
$$Teacher's answer (a constant wrt the weights)$$

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_{k}} = (T - o) \quad \frac{\partial (T - o)}{\partial W_{k}} = -(T - o) \frac{\partial o}{\partial W_{k}}$$

Continuation of Derivation



$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial W_k} = -(T - o) \frac{\partial (\sum w_j \times x_j)}{\partial W_k}$$

$$= - (T - 0) x_k$$

Recall
$$\Delta W_k \equiv -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial W_k}$$

So
$$\Delta W_k = \eta (T - o) x_k$$

The Perceptron Rule

Stick in formula

for output

We'll use for both LINEAR and STEP-FUNCTION activation

Also known as the **delta rule** and other names
(with some variation in the calculation)

Perceptron Example: Autonomous Vehicle

Training Set

Current Speed	Speed Limit	Correct Output
40	50	1 (acceleration)
55	50	0 (deceleration)
75	90	1 (acceleration)

 $W_2 = 0.2$

 $W_0 = 0.5$

Correct solution?

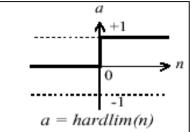
Perceptron Learning Rule

$$\Delta W_k = \eta (T - Out) x_k$$

$$\eta = 0.01$$

Out = Step Function:

Cur_Sp*w₁ + Sp_Limit*w₂ - w₀ =
$$40*-0.1 + 50*0.2 - 1*0.5 = 5.5 => 1$$



No wgt changes, since correct

Perceptron Example: Autonomous Vehicle

Training Set

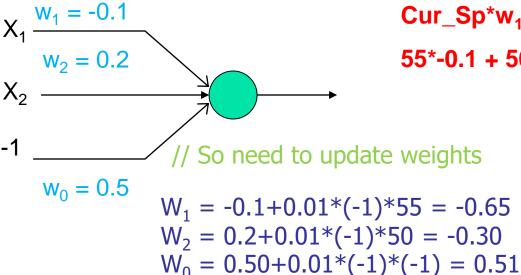
Current Speed	Speed Limit	Correct Output
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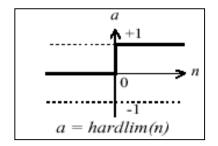
Perceptron Learning Rule

$$\Delta W_k = \eta (T - Out) x_k$$
$$\eta = 0.01$$

Out = Step Function:

$$Cur_Sp^*w_1 + Sp_Limit^*w_2 - w_0 =$$





Perceptron Example: Autonomous Vehicle

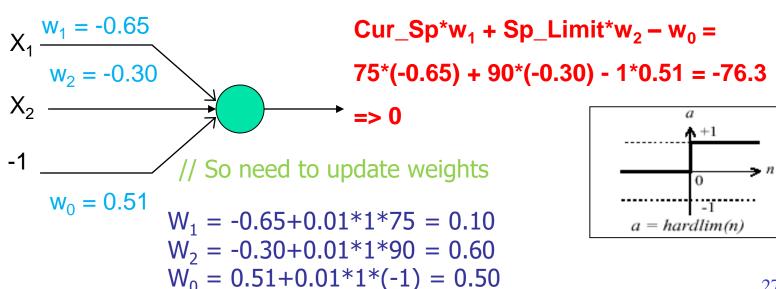
Training Set

Current Speed	Speed Limit	Correct Output
40	50	1 (acceleration)
55	50	0 (deceleration)
75	90	1 (acceleration)

Perceptron Learning Rule

$$\Delta W_k = \eta \ (T - Out) \ x_k$$
$$\eta = 0.01$$

Out = Step Function:



Efficiency and Interpretability

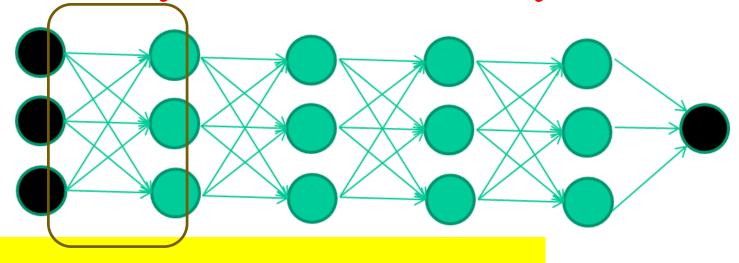
- Efficiency of backpropagation: Each epoch (one iteration through the training set) takes O(|D| * w), with |D| tuples and w weights, but # of epochs can be exponential to n, the number of inputs, in worst case
- For easier comprehension: **Rule extraction** by network pruning
 - Simplify the network structure by removing weighted links that have the least effect on the trained network
 - Then perform link, unit, or activation value clustering
 - The set of input and activation values are studied to derive rules describing the relationship between the input and hidden unit layers
- Sensitivity analysis: assess the impact that a given input variable has on a network output. The knowledge gained from this analysis can be represented in rules

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- Classification by Backpropagation
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The new way to train multi-layer NNs...

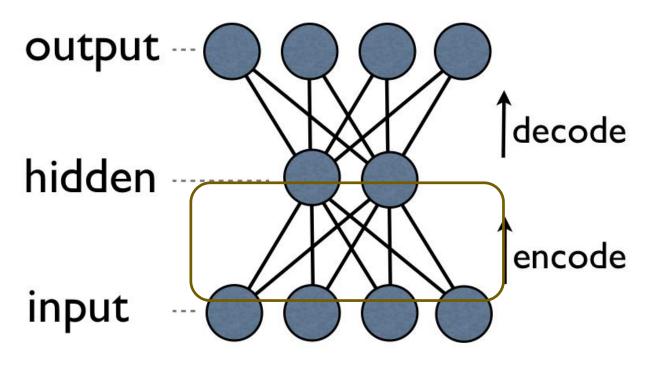


EACH of the (non-output) layers is

trained to be an auto-encoder

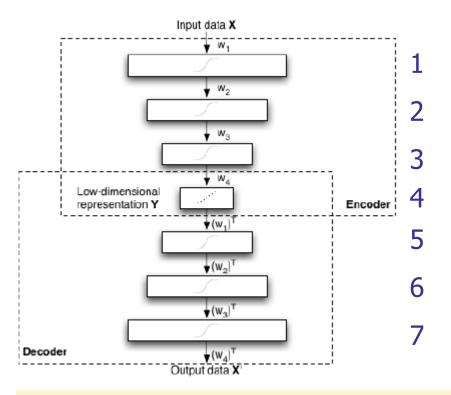
Basically, it is forced to learn good features that describe what comes from the previous layer

An auto-encoder is trained, with an absolutely standard weight-adjustment algorithm to <u>reproduce the input</u>



By making this happen with (many) fewer units than the inputs, this forces the 'hidden layer' units to become good feature detectors

Intermediate layers are each trained to be auto encoders (or similar)



The number of units in the k-th layer is the same as that in the (M - k + 1) th layer. Aggarwal, Charu C.. Neural Networks and Deep Learning: A Textbook. 2018

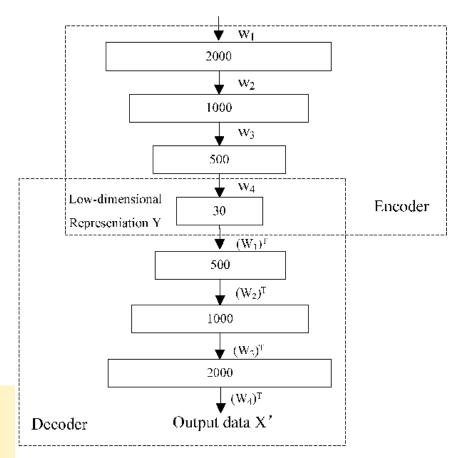


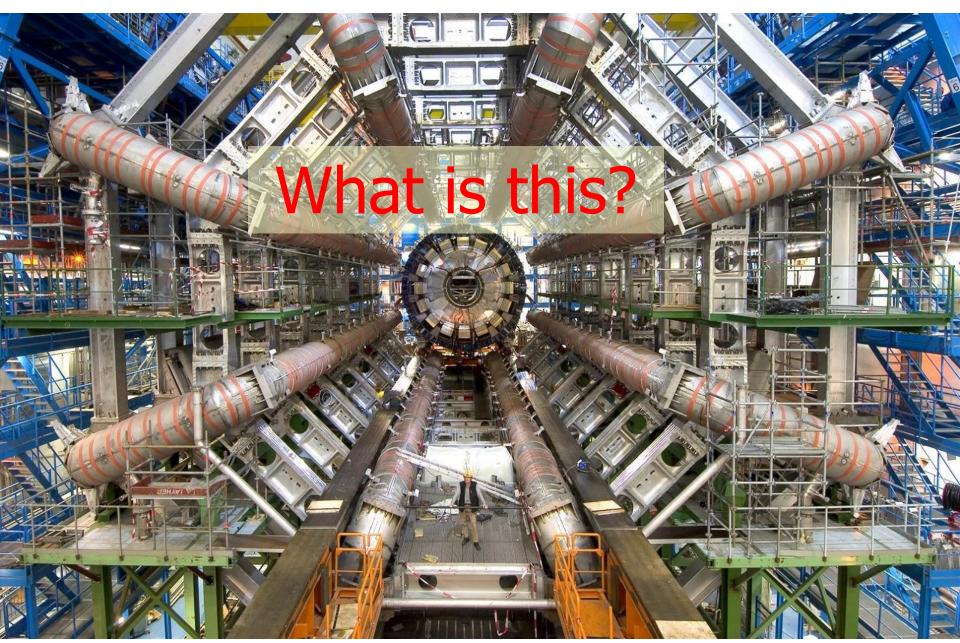
Figure 1. Structure of an autoencoder

Training Deep Neural Networks

Source: Aggarwal, 2018

- *Mini-batch stochastic gradient descent* often provides the best trade-off between stability, speed, and memory requirements.
 - Commonly used sizes of a mini-batch: 32, 64, 128, or 256.
- Use a *validation set* for tuning hyperparameters (e.g., network topology) and a separate *training set* for gradient descent . Why?
 - Hyperparameter optimization: coarse-to-fine-grained grid search
- Feature pre-processing
 - *Normalize* the values of each input feature
 - Apply *whitening*: extract a new set of de-correlated features (using ... ?)
- Initialize each weight to a value drawn from a Gaussian distribution with standard deviation $\sqrt{\frac{1}{r}}$, where r is the number of inputs to that neuron. Why?
- Use ReLU activation function $(f(x) = x, x \ge 0, f'(x) = ?)$
- Use decaying learning rate
- Training acceleration and model compression. How?

Data Mining (BGU) Prof. Mark Last







Daniel Whiteson

ARTICLE

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Searching for exotic particles in high-energy physics with deep learning

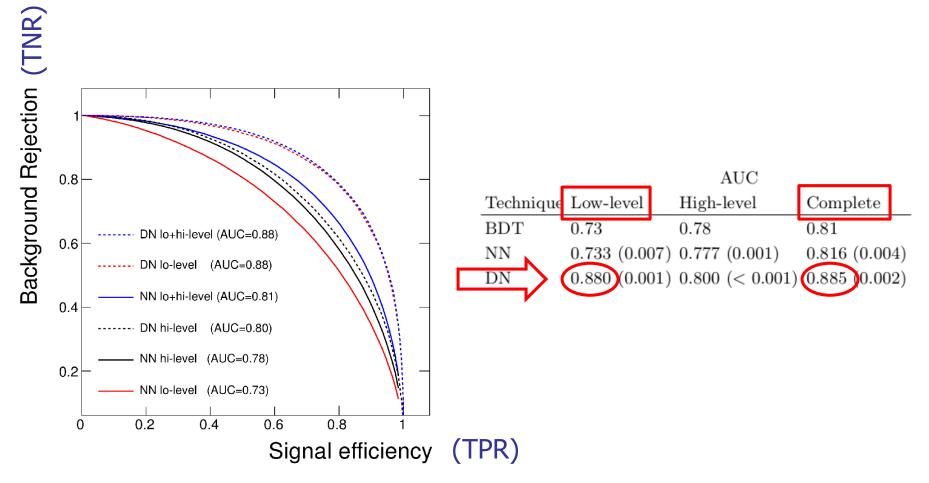
P. Baldi¹, P. Sadowski¹ & D. Whiteson²

Collisions at high-energy particle colliders are a traditionally fruitful source of exotic particle discoveries. Finding these rare particles requires solving difficult signal-versus-background classification problems, hence machine-learning approaches are often used. Standard approaches have relied on 'shallow' machine-learning models that have a limited capacity to learn complex nonlinear functions of the inputs, and rely on a painstaking search through manually constructed nonlinear features. Progress on this problem has slowed, as a variety of techniques have shown equivalent performance. Recent advances in the field of deep learning make it possible to learn more complex functions and better discriminate between signal and background classes. Here, using benchmark data sets, we show that deep-learning methods need no manually constructed inputs and yet improve the classification metric by as much as 8% over the best current approaches. This demonstrates that deep-learning approaches can improve the power of collider searches for exotic particles.



Peter Sadowski

Higgs Boson Detection



Deep network improves AUC by 8%