Train, Validate, Test

# Recap of Basic Neural Networks

(and some Deep Network Fundamentals)

#### Jonathon Hare

Vision, Learning and Control University of Southampton

# Types of Learning

- Supervised Learning learn to predict an output when given an input vector
- Unsupervised Learning discover a good internal representation of the input
- Reinforcement Learning learn to select an action to maximize the expectation of future rewards (payoff)
- Self-supervised Learning learn with targets induced by a prior on the unlabelled training data
- Semi-supervised Learning learn with few labelled examples and many unlabelled ones

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  - Multiclass classification target is one of the k classes
  - Multilabel classification target is some number of the k classes
  - In both cases, the machine is a function  $f: \mathbb{R}^n \to \{1, ..., k\}$  (although it is most common for the learning algorithm to actually learn  $\hat{f}: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^k$ ).

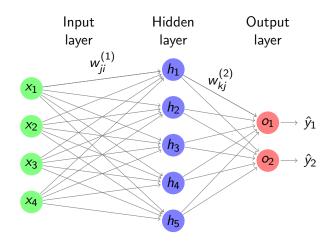
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- Note that there are lots of exceptions in the form the inputs (and outputs) can take though! We'll see lots of variations in the coming weeks.

# How Supervised Learning Typically Works

- Start by choosing a model-class:  $\hat{y} = f(x; W)$  where the model-class f is a way of using some numerical parameters, W, to map each input vector x to a predicted output  $\hat{y}$ .
- Learning means adjusting the parameters to reduce the discrepancy between the true target output y on each training case and the output  $\hat{y}$ , predicted by the model.

# Let's look at a Multilayer Perceptron (without biases)...



Without loss of generality, we can write the above as:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = g(f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{W}^{(1)}); \mathbf{W}^{(2)}) = g(\mathbf{W}^{(2)}f(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x}))$$

where f and g are activation functions.

#### Common Activation Functions

- Identity
- Sigmoid (aka Logistic)
- Hyperbolic Tangent (tanh)
- Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) (aka Threshold Linear)

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- What form should the final layer function g take?
- It depends on the task (and on the chosen loss function)...
  - For regression it is typically linear (e.g. identity), but you might choose others if you say wanted to clamp the range of the network.
  - For binary classification (MLP has a single output), one would choose Sigmoid
  - For multilabel classification, typically one would choose Sigmoid
  - For multiclass classification, typically you would use the Softmax function

#### Softmax

The softmax is an activation function used at the output layer of a neural network that forces the outputs to sum to 1 so that they can represent a probability distribution across a discrete mutually exclusive alternatives.

$$\mathsf{softmax}(\mathbf{z})_i = rac{e^{\mathbf{z}_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^K e^{\mathbf{z}_j}} \qquad orall i = 1, 2, \dots, K$$

- Note that unlike the other activation functions you've seen, softmax makes reference to all the elements in the output.
- The output of a softmax layer is a set of positive numbers which sum up to 1 and can be thought of as a probability distribution.
- Note:

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{z})_{i}}{\partial z_{i}} = \operatorname{softmax}(z_{i})(1 - \operatorname{softmax}(z_{i}))$$

$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{z})_{i}}{\partial z_{j}} = \operatorname{softmax}(z_{i})(1(i = j) - \operatorname{softmax}(z_{j}))$$

$$= \operatorname{softmax}(z_{i})(\delta_{ij} - \operatorname{softmax}(z_{j}))$$

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  - Some classification losses require raw outputs (e.g. a linear layer) of the network as their input
    - These are often called unnormalised log probabilities or logits
    - An example would be hinge-loss used to create a Support Vector Machine that maximises the margin e.g.:
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- There are many different loss functions we might encounter (MSE, Cross-Entropy, KL-Divergence, huber, L1 (MAE), CTC, Triplet, ...) for different tasks.

# The Cost Function (measure of discrepancy)

#### Recall from Foundations of Machine Learning:

- Mean Squared Error (MSE) loss for a single data point (here assumed to be a vector, but equally applicable to a scalar) is given by  $\ell_{MSE}(\hat{\boldsymbol{y}}, \boldsymbol{y}) = \sum_{i} (\hat{y}_{i} y_{i})^{2} = (\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} \boldsymbol{y})^{\top} (\hat{\boldsymbol{y}} \boldsymbol{y})$
- We often multiply this by a constant factor of  $\frac{1}{2}$  can anyone guess/remember why?

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- $\ell_{MSE}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}, \mathbf{y})$  is the predominant choice for regression problems with linear activation in the last layer
- For a classification problem with Softmax or Sigmoidal (or really anything non-linear) activations, MSE can cause slow learning, especially if the predictions are very far off the targets
  - Gradients of  $\ell_{MSE}$  are proportional to the difference in target and predicted multiplied by the gradient of the activation function<sup>1</sup>
  - The Cross-Entropy loss function is generally a better choice in this case

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### Binary Cross-Entropy

For the binary classification case:

$$\ell_{BCE}(\hat{y}, y) = -y \log(\hat{y}) - (1 - y) \log(1 - \hat{y})$$

- ullet The cross-entropy cost function is non-negative,  $\ell_{BCE}>0$
- $\ell_{BCE} \approx 0$  when the prediction and targets are equal (i.e. y=0 and  $\hat{y}=0$  or when y=1 and  $\hat{y}=1$ )
- With Sigmoidal final layer,  $\frac{\partial \ell_{BCE}}{\partial \boldsymbol{W}_{i}^{(2)}}$  is proportional to just the error in the output  $(\hat{y} y)$  and therefore, the larger the error, the faster the network will learn!
- Note that the BCE is the negative log likelihood of the Bernoulli Distribution

### Binary Cross-Entropy — Intuition

- The cross-entropy can be thought of as a measure of surprise.
- Given some input  $x_i$ , we can think of  $\hat{y}_i$  as the estimated probability that  $x_i$  belongs to class 1, and  $1 \hat{y}_i$  is the estimated probability that it belongs to class 0.
- Note the extreme case of infinite cross-entropy, if your model believes that a class has 0 probability of occurrence, and yet the class appears in the data, the 'surprise' of your model will be infinitely great.

# Binary Cross-Entropy for multiple labels

In the case of multi-label classification with a network with multiple sigmoidal outputs you just sum the BCE over the outputs:

$$\ell_{BCE} = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} [y_k \log(\hat{y}_k) + (1 - y_k) \log(1 - \hat{y}_k)]$$

where K is the number of classes of the classification problem,  $\hat{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$ .

$$\ell_{BCE}(\hat{y}, y) = -y \log(\hat{y}) - (1 - y) \log(1 - \hat{y})$$

 Consider what might happen early in training when the model might confidently predict a positive example as negative

• 
$$\hat{y} = \sigma(z) \approx 0 \implies z << 0$$

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- To tackle this problem implementations usually combine the sigmoid computation and BCE into a single loss function that you would apply to a network with linear outputs (e.g. BCEWithLogitsLoss).
- Internally, a trick called 'log-sum-exp' is used to shift the centre of an exponential sum so that only numerical underflow can potentially happen, rather than overflow<sup>2</sup>.
  - Ultimately this means you'll always get a numerically reasonable result (and will avoid NaNs and Infs originating from this point).

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- In such a case, the obvious loss function is the negative log likelihood of the Categorical distribution (aka Multinoulli, Generalised Bernoulli, Multinomial with one sample)<sup>3</sup>:  $\ell_{NLL} = -\sum_{k=1}^{K} y_k \log \hat{y}_k$ 
  - Note that in practice as  $y_k$  is zero for all but one class you don't actually do this summation, and if y is an integer class index you can write  $\ell_{NLL} = -\log \hat{y}_y$ .

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  - Note that in practice as  $y_k$  is zero for all but one class you don't actually do this summation, and if y is an integer class index you can write  $\ell_{NLL} = -\log \hat{y}_v$ .
- Analogously to what we saw for BCE, Log-Sum-Exp can be used for better numerical stability.
  - PyTorch combines LogSoftmax with NLL in one loss and calls this "Categorical Cross-Entropy" (so you would use this with a linear output layer)

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#### Reminder: Gradient Descent

- Define total loss as  $\mathcal{L} = \sum_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \in \mathbf{D}} \ell(g(\mathbf{x}, \boldsymbol{\theta}), \mathbf{y})$  for some loss function  $\ell$ , dataset  $\mathbf{D}$  and model g with learnable parameters  $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ .
- Define how many passes over the data to make (each one known as an Epoch)
- Define a learning rate  $\eta$

Gradient Descent updates the parameters  $\theta$  by moving them in the direction of the negative gradient with respect to the **total loss**  $\mathcal L$  by the learning rate  $\eta$  multiplied by the gradient:

for each Epoch: 
$$\boldsymbol{\theta} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{\theta} - \eta \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}$$

#### Reminder: Stochastic Gradient Descent

- Define loss function  $\ell$ , dataset D and model g with learnable parameters  $\theta$ .
- Define how many passes over the data to make (each one known as an Epoch)
- Define a learning rate  $\eta$

Stochastic Gradient Descent updates the parameters  $\theta$  by moving them in the direction of the negative gradient with respect to the loss of a **single** item  $\ell$  by the learning rate  $\eta$  multiplied by the gradient:

```
for each Epoch: for each (\pmb{x}, \pmb{y}) \in \pmb{D}: \pmb{\theta} \leftarrow \pmb{\theta} - \eta \nabla_{\pmb{\theta}} \ell
```

#### A Quick Introduction to Tensors

Broadly speaking a tensor is defined as a linear mapping between sets of algebraic objects<sup>4</sup>.

A tensor T can be thought of as a generalization of scalars, vectors and matrices to a single algebraic object.

We can just think of this as a multidimensional array<sup>5</sup>.

- A 0D tensor is a scalar
- A 1D tensor is a vector
- A 2D tensor is a matrix
- ullet A 3D tensor can be thought of as a vector of identically sized matrices
- A 4D tensor can be thought of as a matrix of identically sized matrices or a sequence of 3D tensors

• ...

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>This statement is always entirely true

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>This statement will upset mathematicians and physicists because its not always true for them (but it is for us!).

#### Aside: Tensor Decompositions

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- Just in the same way a matrix can be decomposed into a product of matrices (EVD, SVD, QR, LU, Cholesky, ...), there are tensor decompositions:
  - PARAFAC / Canonical polyadic / HO-SVD / Tucker
  - These have found their way into some deep learning models as a form of structural regularisation or weight reduction

# Operations on Tensors in PyTorch

- PyTorch lets you do all the standard matrix operations on 2D tensors
  - including important things you might not yet have seen like the hadamard product of two  $N \times M$  matrices:  $A \odot B$ )
- You can do element-wise add/divide/subtract/multiply to ND-tensors
  - and even apply scalar functions element-wise (log, sin, exp, ...)
- you can slice, reshape, and even index a single element (generally don't do that!)
- PyTorch often lets you broadcast operations (just like in numpy)
  - if a PyTorch operation supports broadcast, then its Tensor arguments can be automatically expanded to be of equal sizes (without making copies of the data).<sup>6</sup>

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Important - read and understand this after the lab next week: https://pytorch.org/docs/stable/notes/broadcasting.html

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- Broadcasting is used to apply operations/functions to all the samples in the batch tensor in parallel to compute a loss vector
- the loss vector is summed/averaged using a vectorised method (e.g. .sum())

### Tensor implementation

It's important to understand something about how tensors are implemented in software and particularly how memory copies can be avoided...

#### We are siamese...

An important and clever trick:

#### Homework

#### PyTorch Tensor 101:

https://colab.research.google.com/gist/jonhare/d98813b2224dddbb234d2031510878e1/notebook.ipynb