

Introduction to Deep Learning

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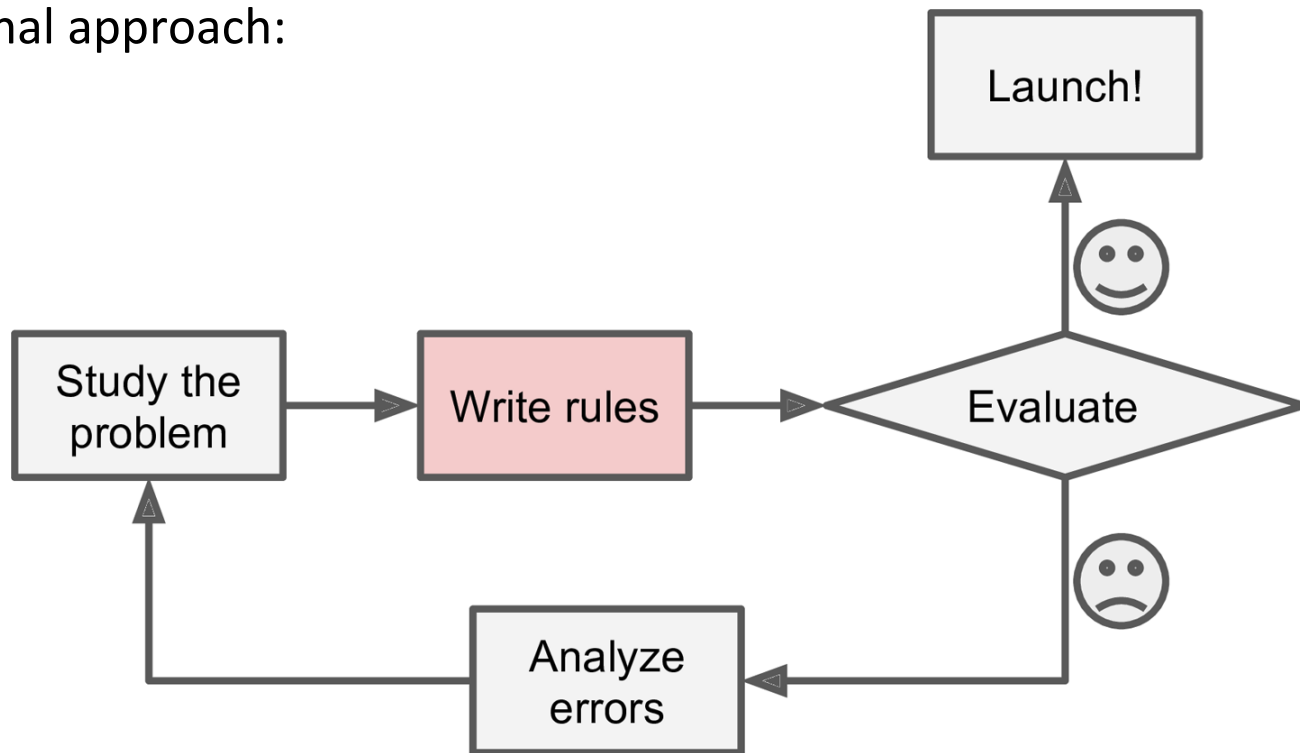
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What is AI?

The science (and art) of programming computers so they can *“learn from and make predictions on data”*

Traditional approach:

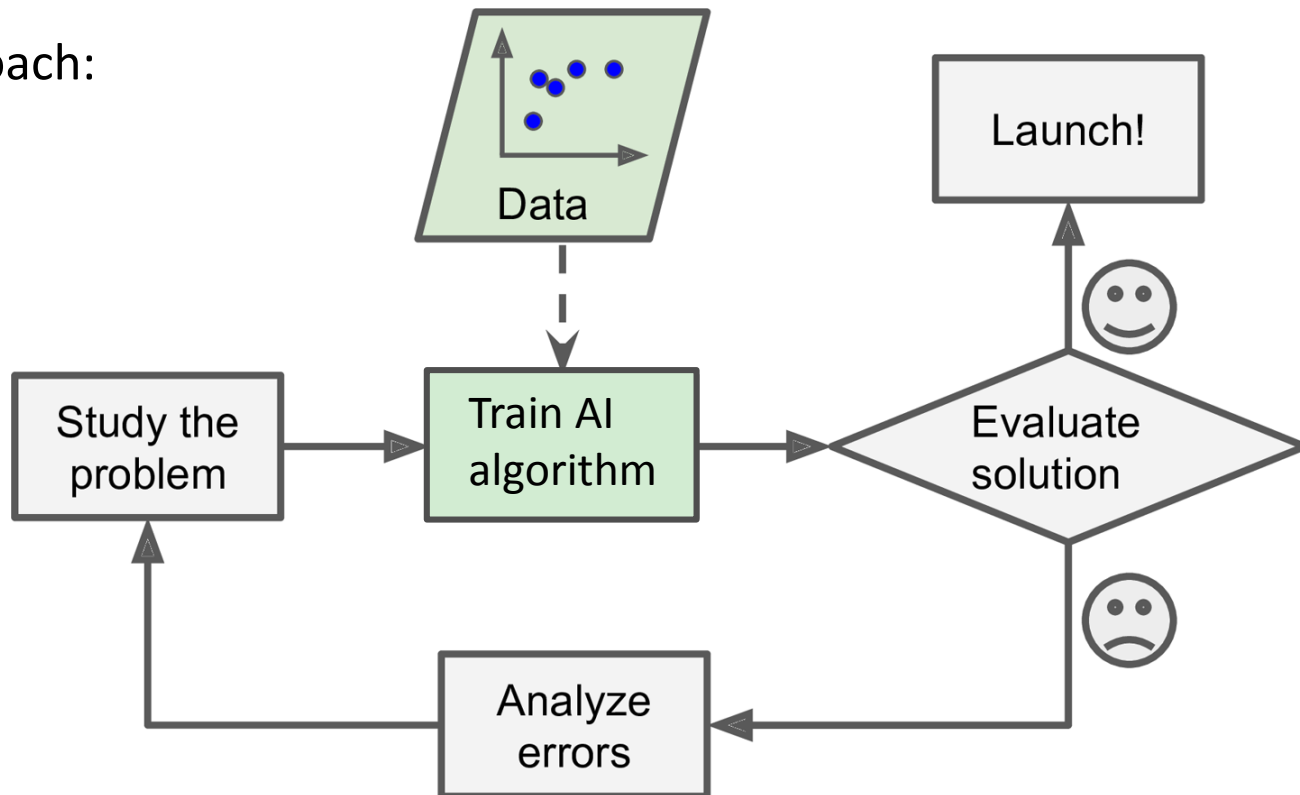




What is AI?

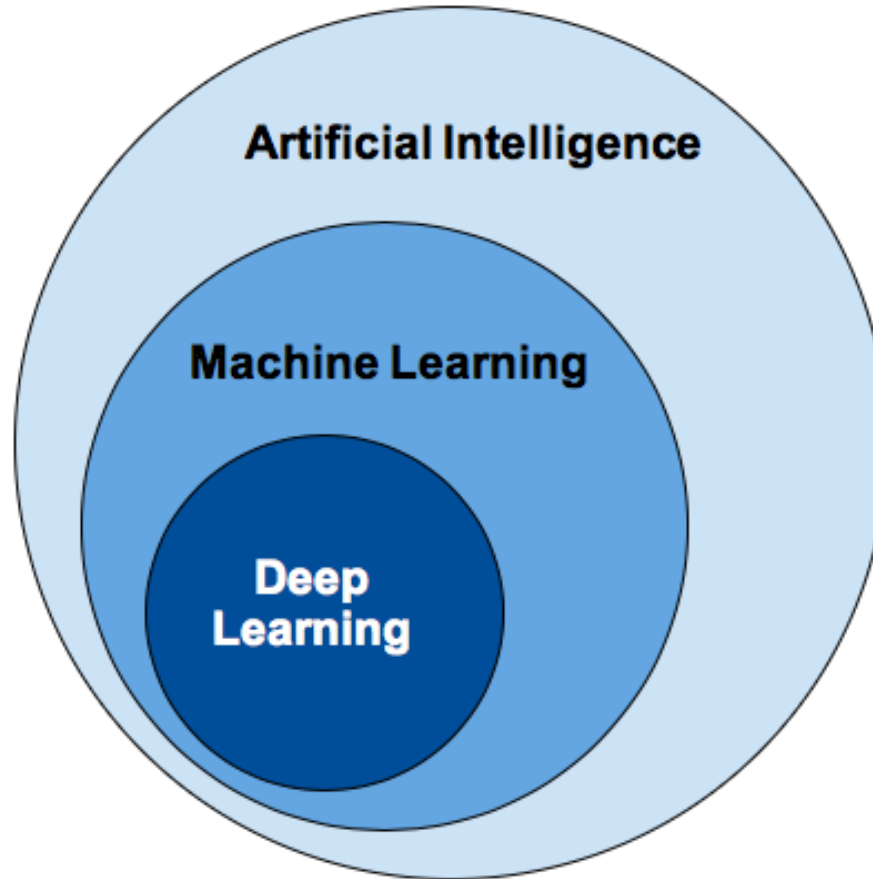
The science (and art) of programming computers so they can *“learn from and make predictions on data”*

AI approach:





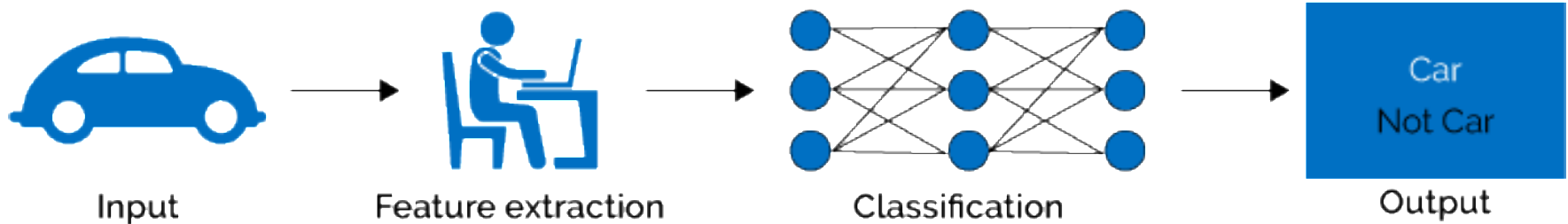
AI, Machine Learning and Deep Learning:



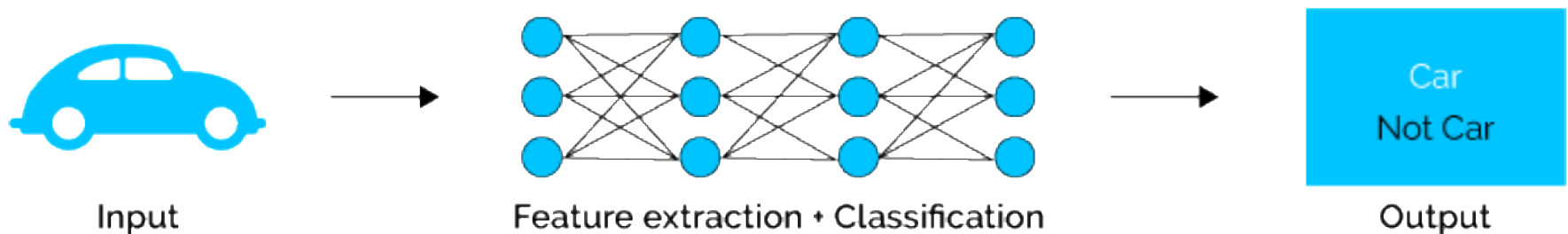


AI, Machine Learning and Deep Learning:

Machine Learning



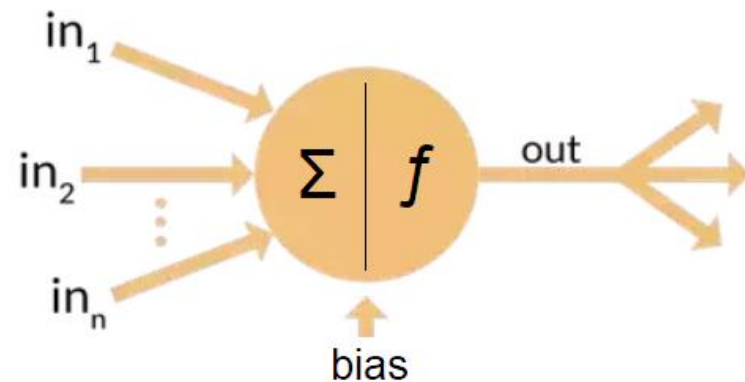
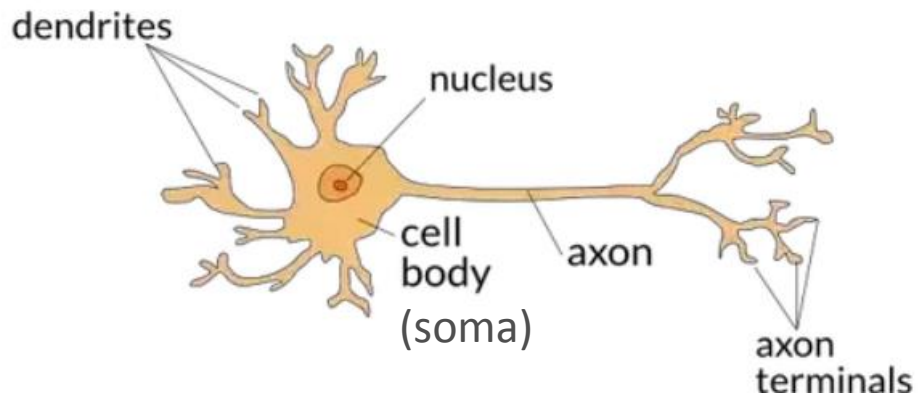
Deep Learning





Artificial neural network (ANN)

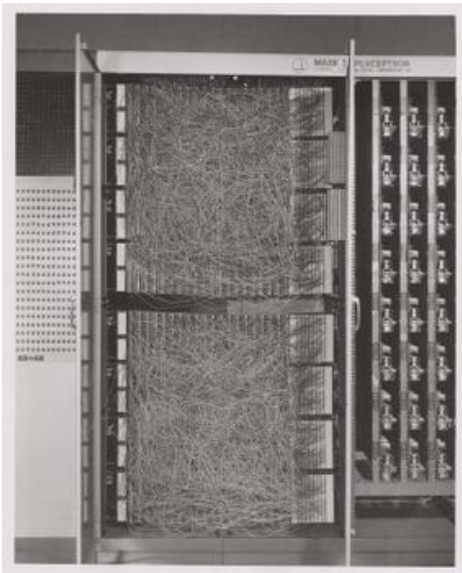
- Machine learning has been around for decades
- First machine learning methods were inspired by how the brain works:





Perceptron

The first neural network (Frank Rosenblatt, 1957)



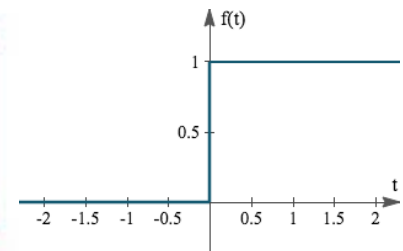
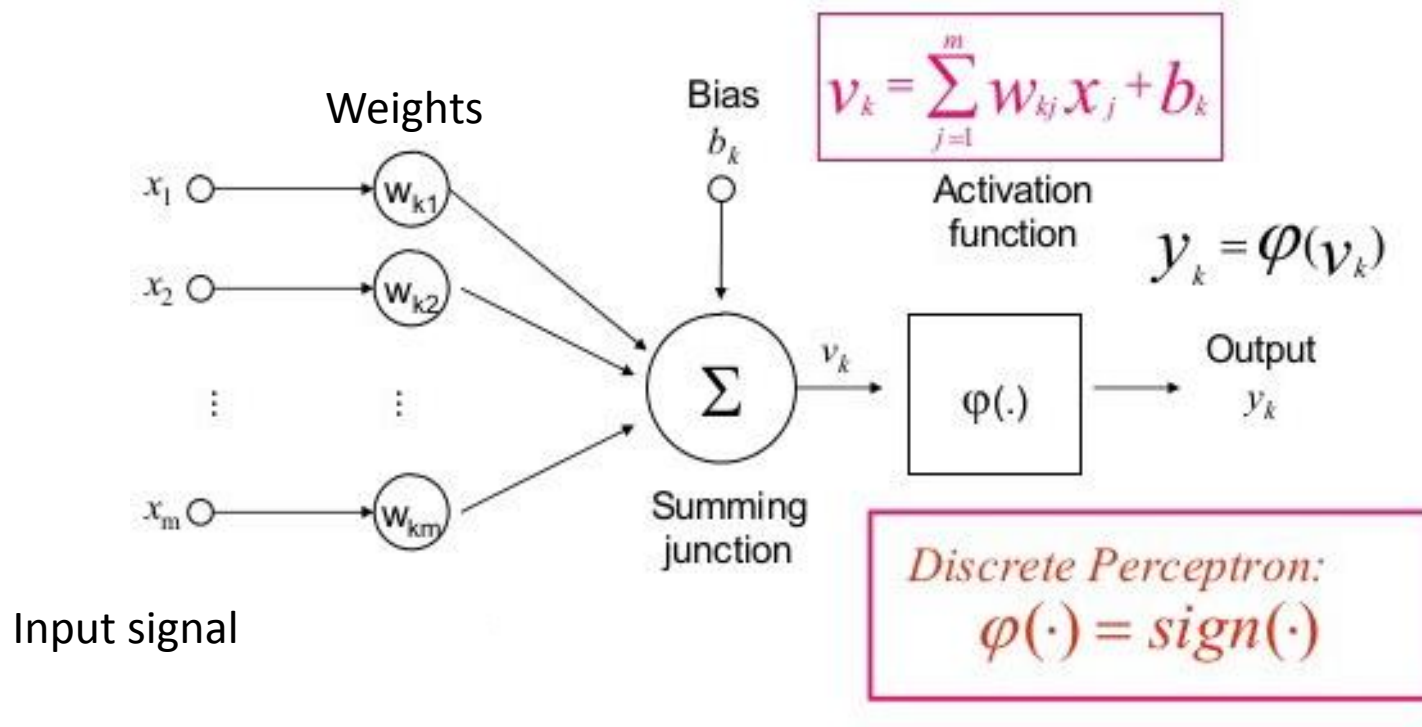
$$f(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sum_i w_i \cdot x_i > b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

"Mark 1 perceptron" - machine designed for image recognition: it had an array of 400 [photocells](#), randomly connected to the "neurons". Weights were encoded in [potentiometers](#), and weight updates during learning were performed by electric motors



A single-layer perceptron

A single-layer perceptron looks as follows:



*This and the following slides follow the example on <https://hackernoon.com/a-hands-on-introduction-to-neural-networks-6a03afb468b1>

A single-layer perceptron

Input:

- Each input to the neuron (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) is known as a **feature**

Weights:

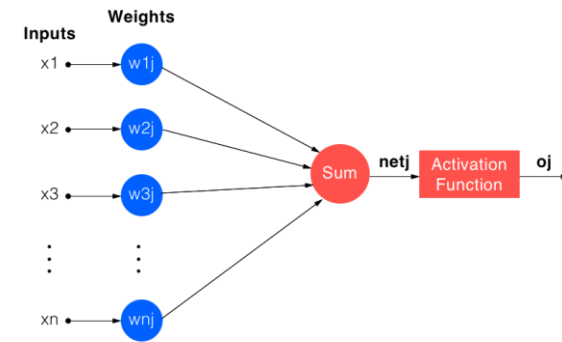
- Each feature is weighted with a number to represent the strength of that input ($w_{k1}, w_{k2}, \dots, w_{km}$).

Bias:

- Additional parameter (b_k) which is used to adjust the output along with the weighted sum of the inputs to the neuron.

Activation function:

- Calculate weighted sum of inputs (v_k), pass through an **activation function** and threshold result y_k to 0 or 1



Activation function

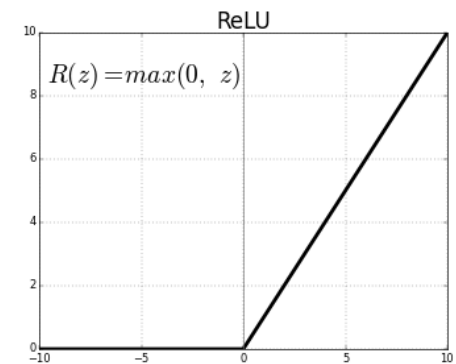
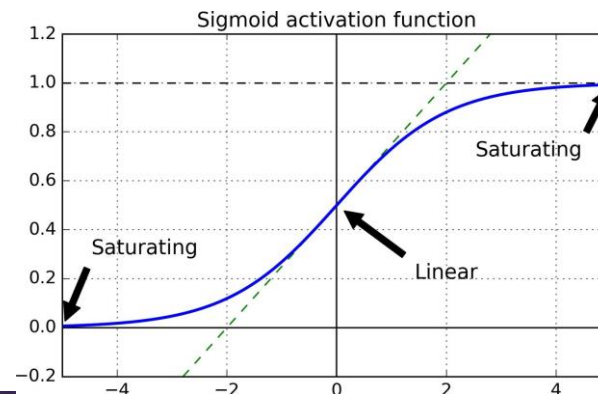
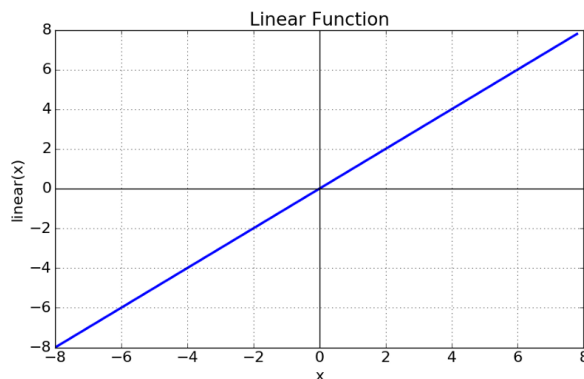
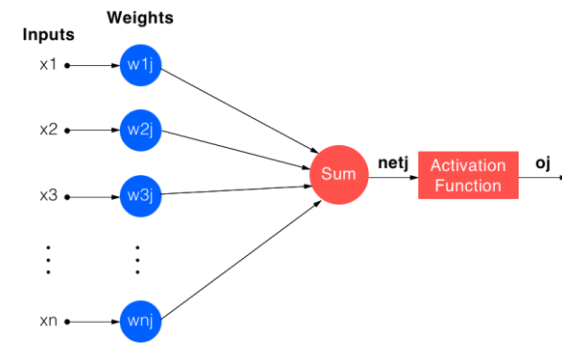
Added to the output end of any neural network

- Can be regarded as a **Transfer Function**

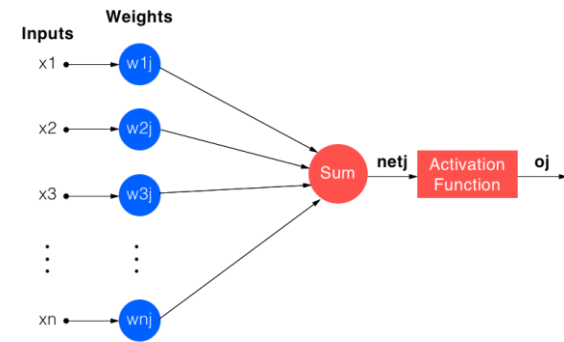
Used to determine whether the output of a neural network is 'yes' or 'no' (or something in between).

- Maps the resulting values in between 0 to 1 or -1 to 1 (depending upon the activation function)

We distinguish between (piecewise) linear and nonlinear activation functions

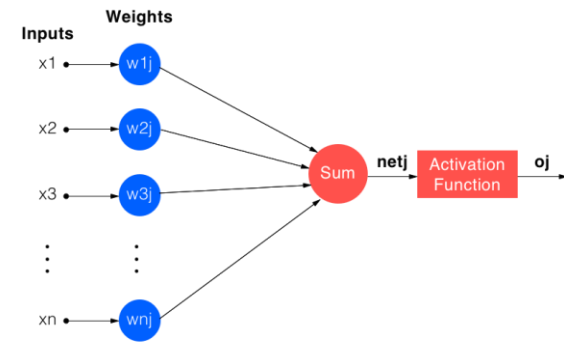


Training a perceptron



- Now that we see how a perceptron works, we need to train it
- **Training** a perceptron refers to iteratively updating the weights and bias associated with each of its inputs
- This allows to progressively approximate the underlying relationship in the given training dataset
- Once properly trained, it can be used to **classify** entirely new samples

Training a perceptron



What else do we need?

- We need **an error function (cost function or loss function)**:
 - Measure “how good” a neural network did with respect to it's given training sample and the expected output. The cost function must be able to be written as an average over cost functions E_i for individual training examples x_i :

$$E = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N E_i$$

- Examples of loss function: L^1 norm $\rightarrow E = \sum_i |E_i|$
- We want to minimize the cost function \rightarrow need an **optimisation method** (e.g. gradient descent)
- Our activation function should be **differentiable**



Training a perceptron - Overview

A single-layer perceptron can be trained as follows:

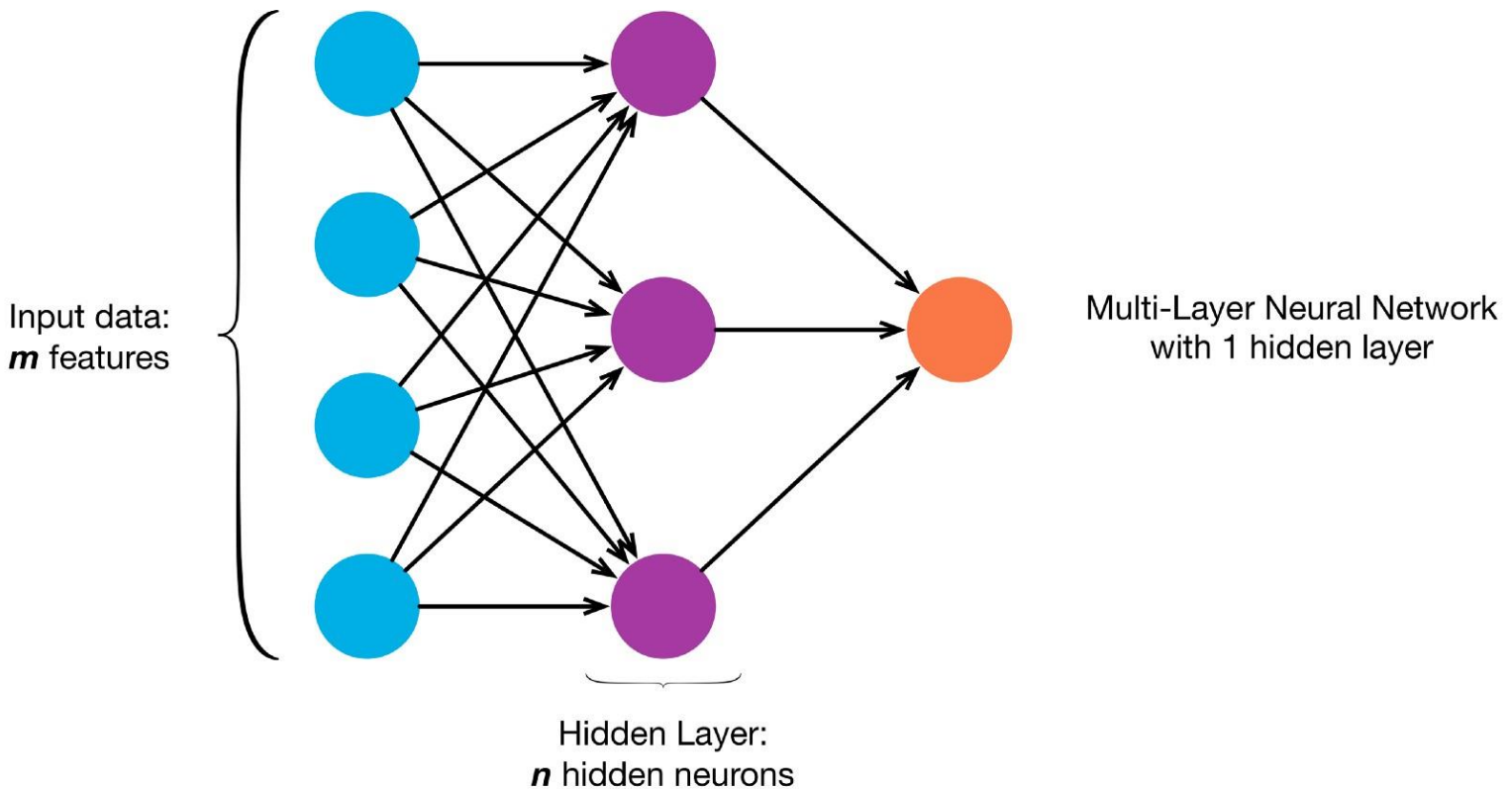
1. Ask the neuron* to classify a sample (**forward pass**)
2. Update the neuron's weights based on how wrong the prediction is.
3. Repeat for a set number of times (=epochs).

*A perceptron is a neuron with a binary output



From single-layer to multi-layer perceptron

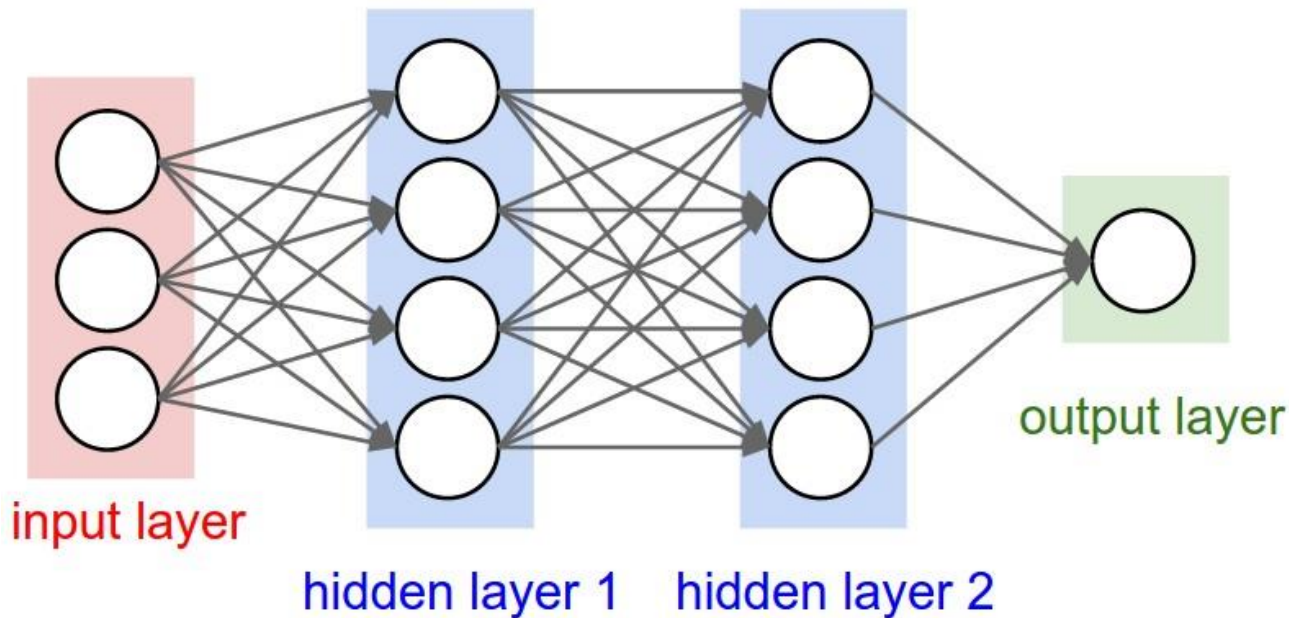
A more complex MLP is shown below (still only 1 hidden layer):





Multi-layer perceptron

We have stacked multiple perceptrons to generate hidden layers:

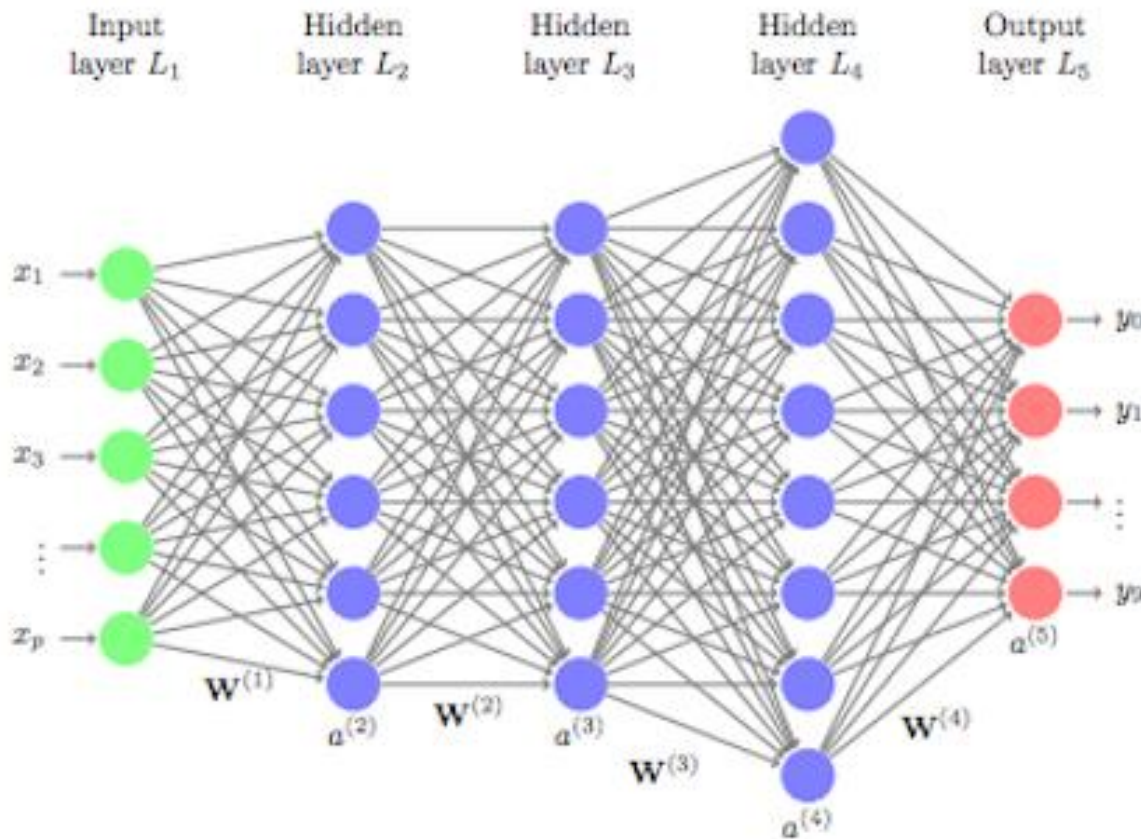


If we have more than one hidden layer, the neural network is considered to be “deep” and we move into **deep learning**



Deep fully connected networks (FCN)

Compare this to a deep fully-connected network with N hidden layers:





From FCN to Convolutional neural network

Disadvantages of FCN:

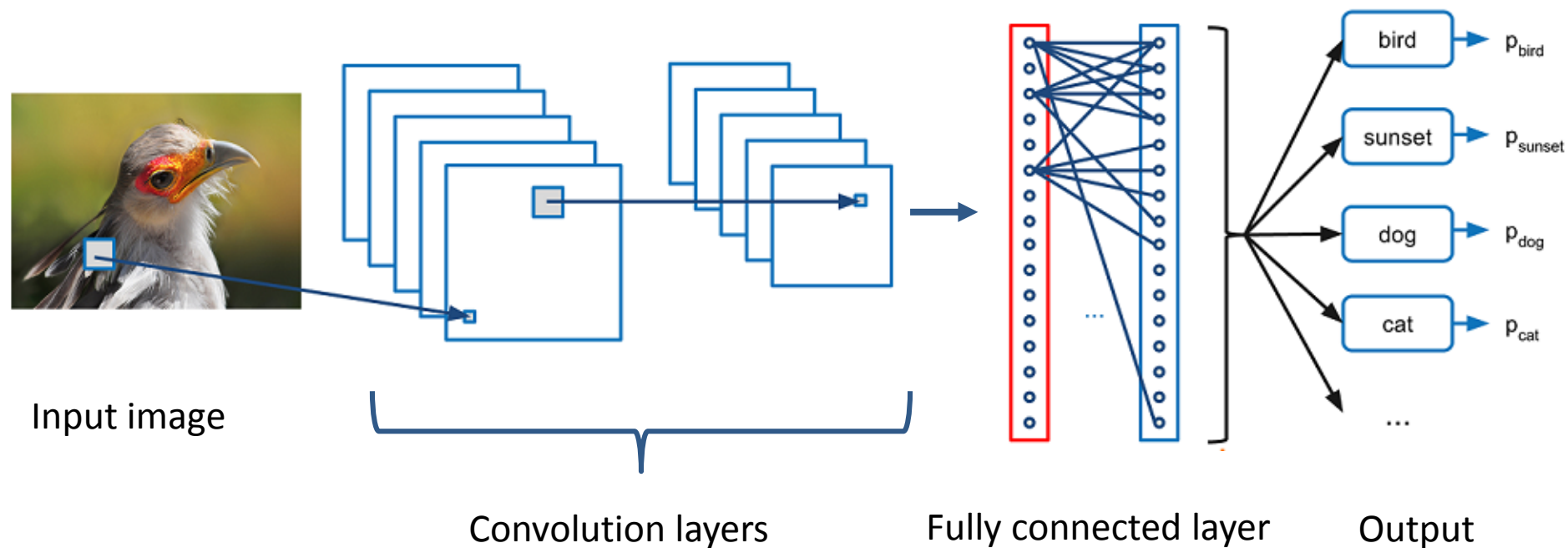
- Large number of parameters to be learn
- Incredibly computationally expensive.
- Slow
- Prone to overfitting data

Convolutional neural network (CNN):

- Regularized versions of multilayer perceptrons.
- Fully connected layers are replaced by one or more convolutional layers



Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)





Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)

CNNs have several important **building blocks**:

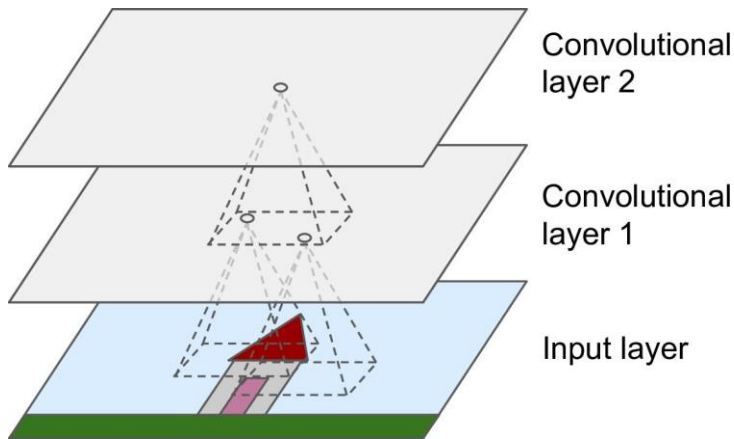
1. **2D (or 3D) input layer**
2. **Convolutional layer**
 - Neurons in the first convolutional layer are not connected to every single pixel, **but only to pixels in their receptive fields**
 - Neurons in the second convolutional layer are only connected to neurons within a small rectangular region in the first layer
3. **Pooling layer**
 - Goal is to **subsample** the input image to reduce computational load, memory usage, numbers of parameters (limits risk of overfitting)
4. **Fully-connected output layer**
 - This is a **regular feed-forward network** which produces final output prediction
 - E.g. **softmax layer** that outputs estimated class probabilities



Convolutional layer

Convolutional layers allow the network to:

- Concentrate on low-level features in the first hidden layer
- Assemble them to higher-level features in the next hidden layer



Filter:
$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

1 <small>x1</small>	1 <small>x0</small>	1 <small>x1</small>	0	0
0 <small>x0</small>	1 <small>x1</small>	1 <small>x0</small>	1	0
0 <small>x1</small>	0 <small>x0</small>	1 <small>x1</small>	1	1
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	1	0	0

Image

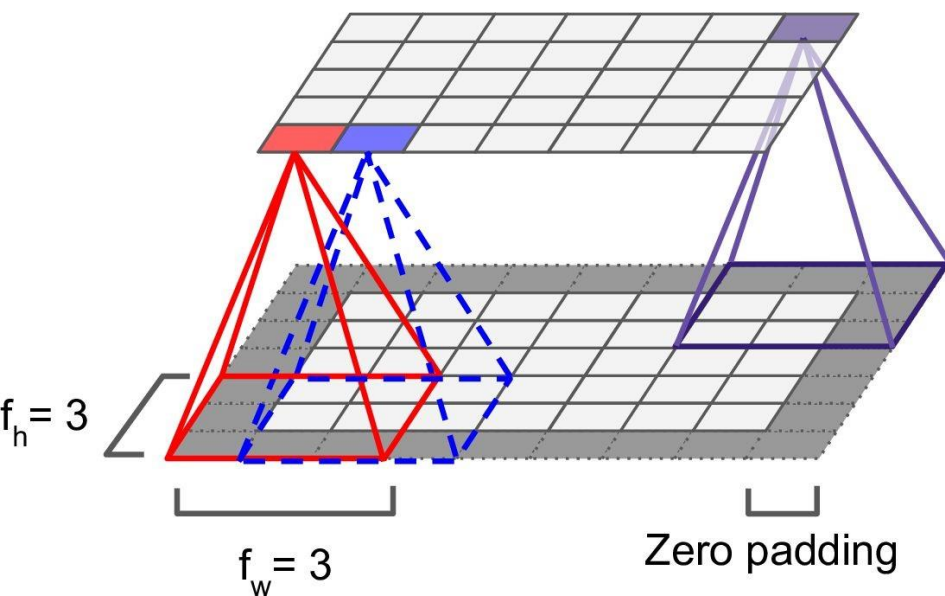
4		

Convolved
Feature

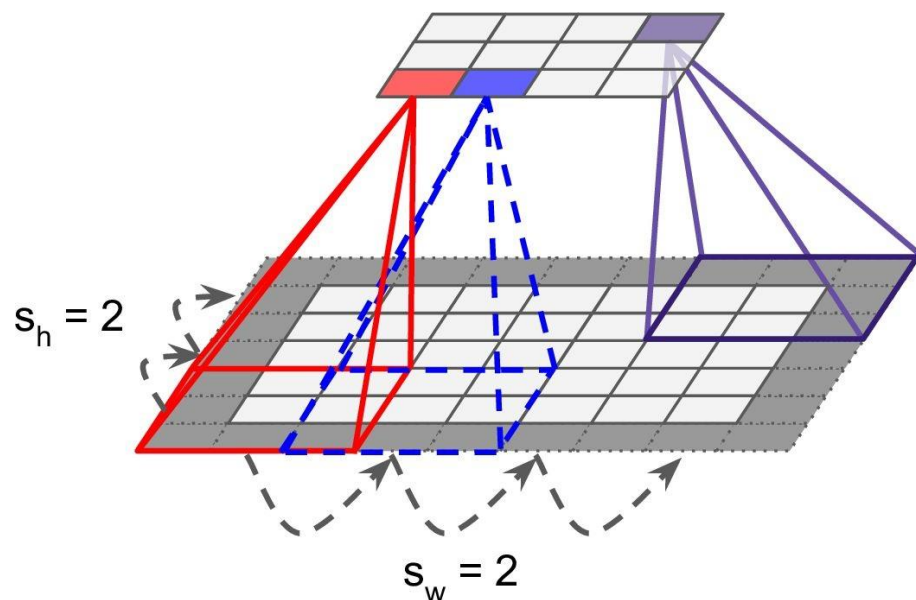


Convolutional layer

Need to apply **zero-padding** at each layer and also apply a stride for further dimensionality reduction:



Connections between layers and zero padding

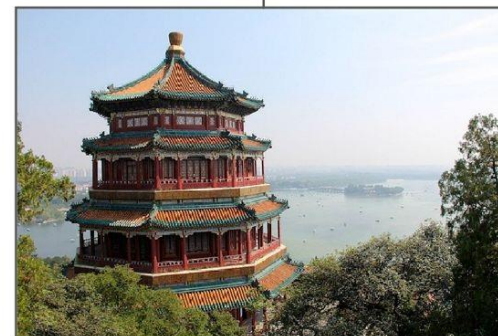
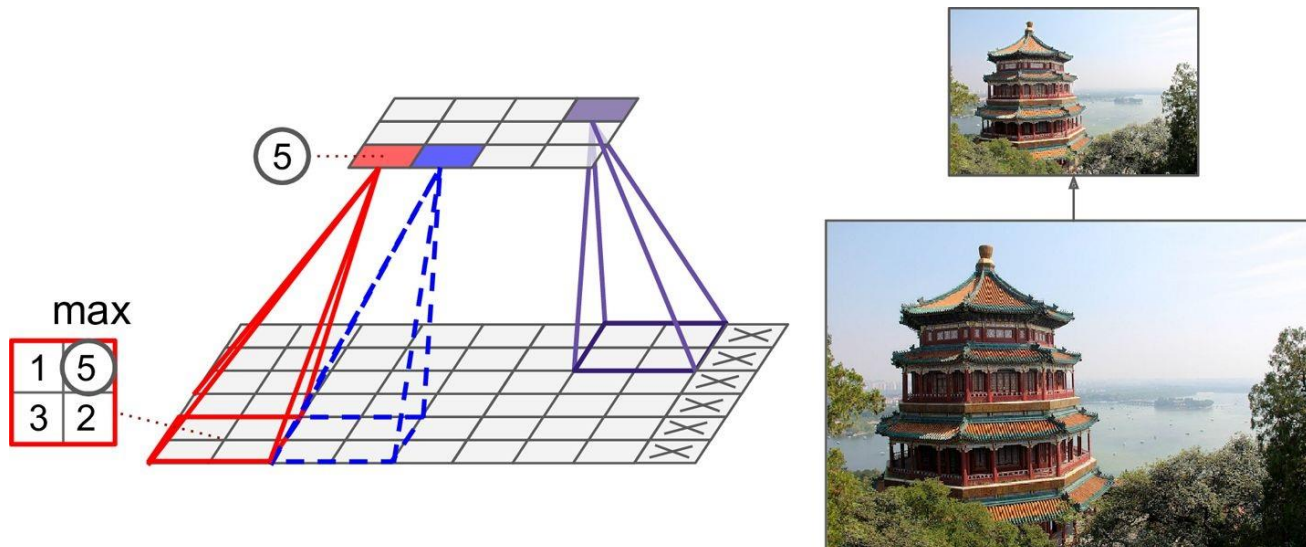


Reducing dimensionality using a stride



Pooling layer

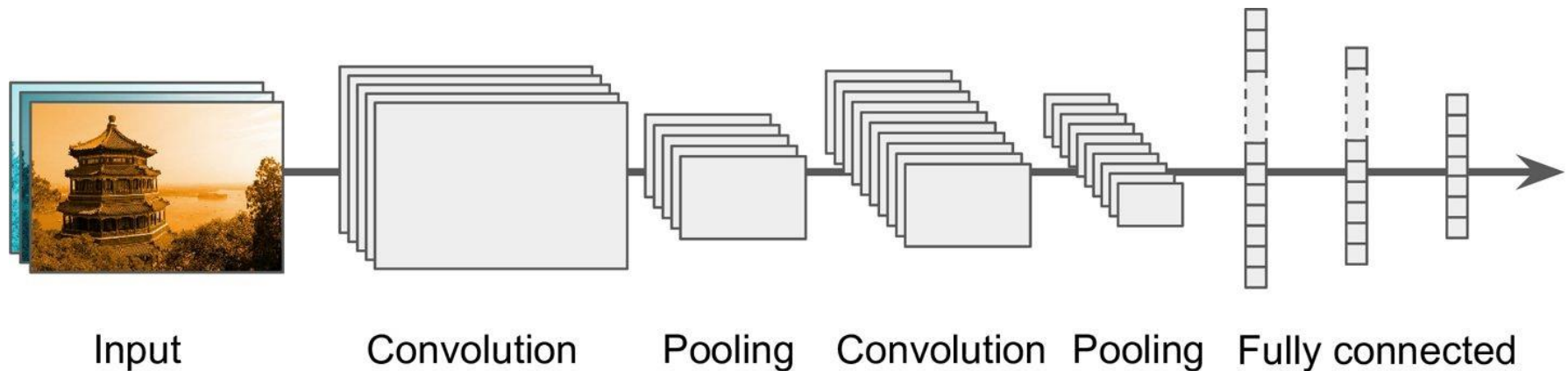
- Goal is to **subsample** the input image to reduce computational load, memory usage, numbers of parameters (limits risk of overfitting)
- Each neuron in pooling layer is connected to the outputs of limited number of neurons in previous layer, again located within a small rectangular receptive field
- Most common type is **max pooling**





Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)

Putting it all together:



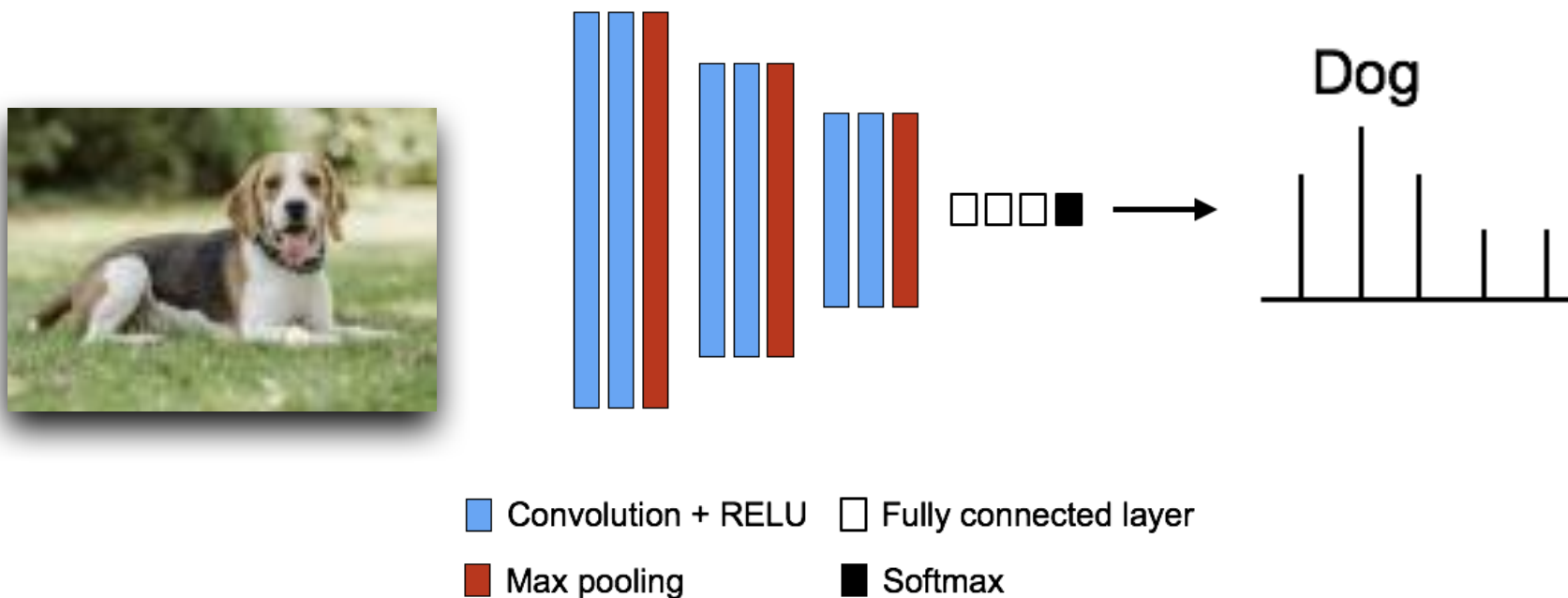
In this case, 3-channel RGB image)

Many variants of CNN exist and have been boosted by the advent of **ImageNet** in 2010



CNNs for image classification

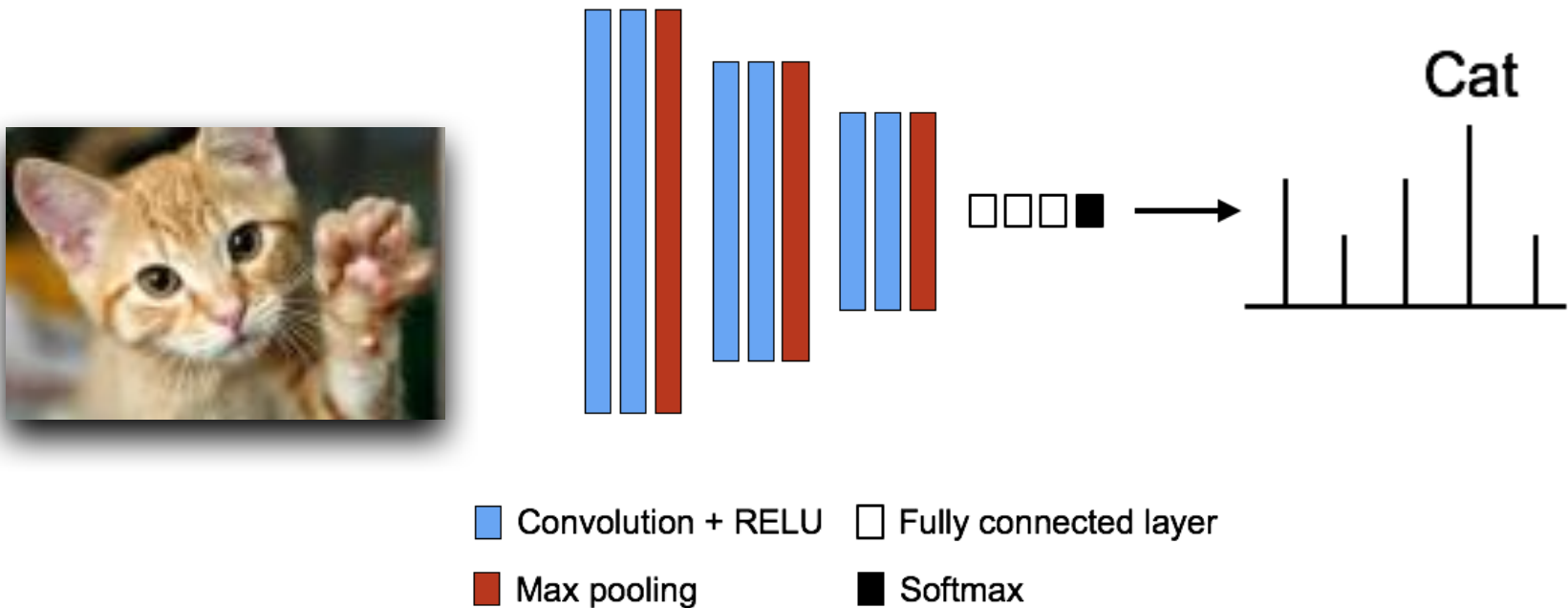
First rewind and look at a simple CNN applied to real image classification





CNNs for image classification

First rewind and look at a simple CNN applied to real image classification

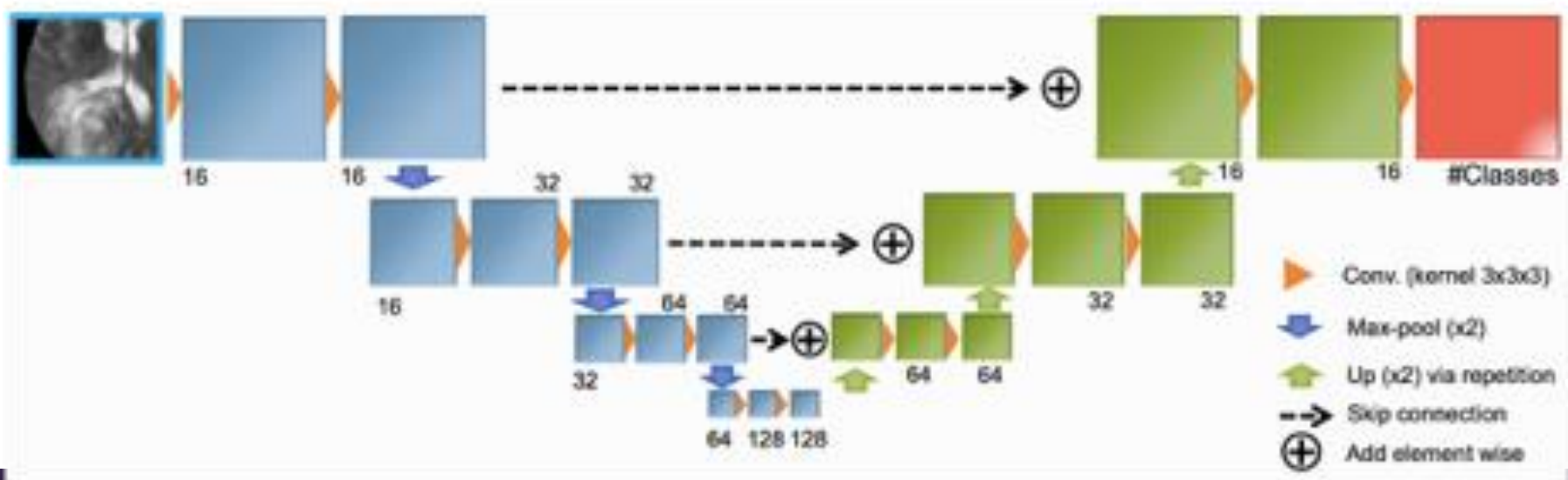




CNNs for image segmentation

One major focus in computer vision and medical imaging is on **image segmentation**

- Challenging in medical imaging due to variability in patient anatomy & pathology, patient pose and motion, image artefacts
- U-net is the most common used network , which was proposed by Ronneberger (Google DeepMind) in 2015:





Bits & Bobs

All of the networks so far (deep neural networks, with or without convolutional layers), need to be carefully designed and trained:

Choice of:

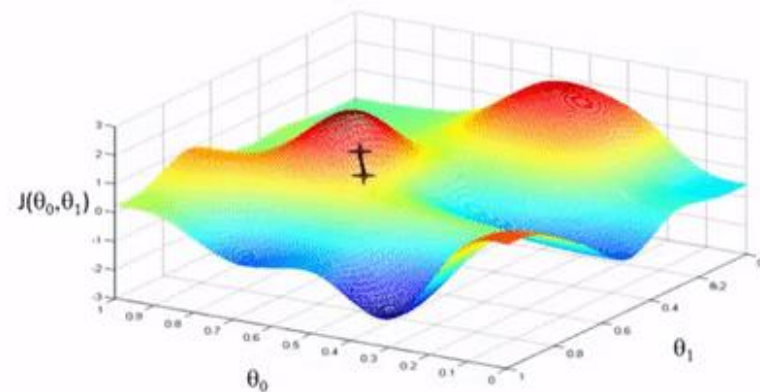
- Number of hidden layers and neurons, stacking (AE)
- Loss function, activation function, learning rate, epochs
- **Optimisation methods**
- **Regularisation methods**



Optimisation

Choice of faster gradient-based optimisation methods for use with backpropagation:

1. Gradient Descent
2. Momentum optimisation
3. Nesterov Accelerated Gradient
4. AdaGrad
5. RMSProp
6. Adam Optimiser



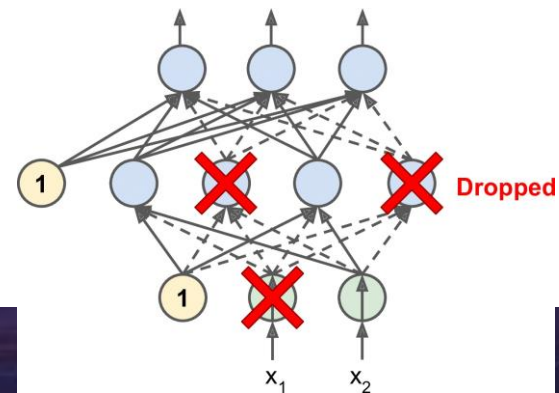
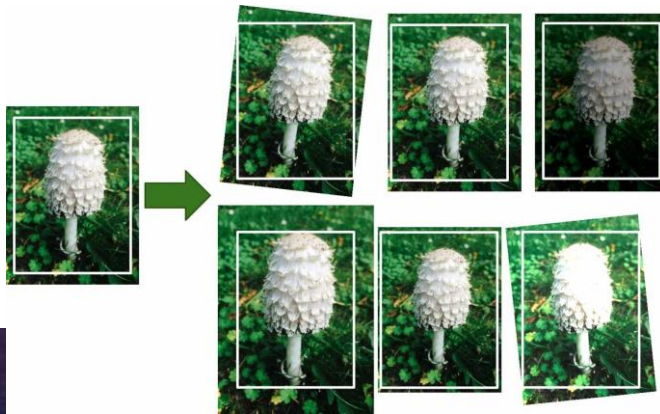


Regularisation

To avoid **overfitting**, we can do the following:

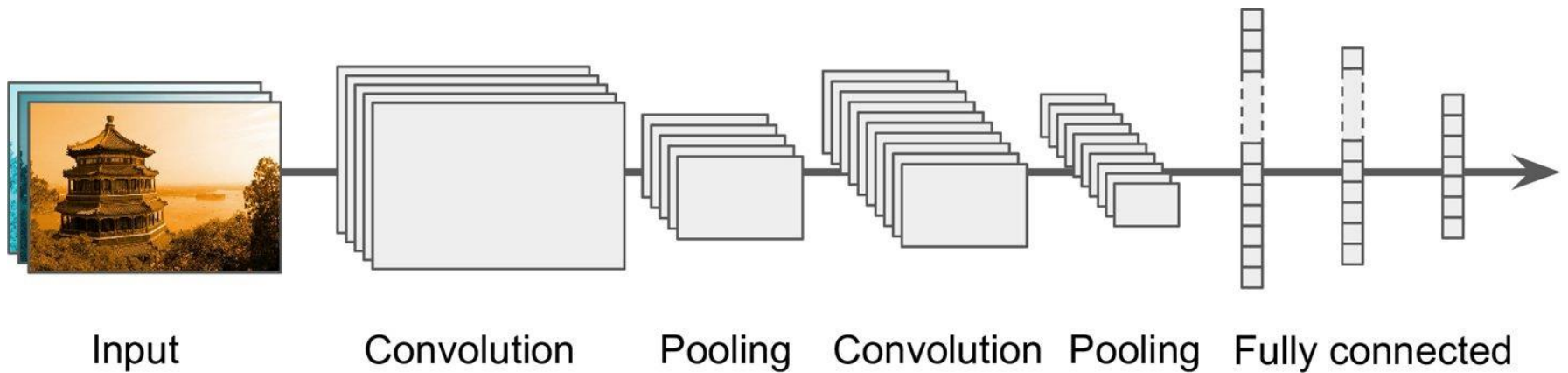
1. **Early stopping:** Interrupt training when its performance on the validation set starts dropping
2. **l_1 and l_2 regularization:** Add a regularization term in the cost function.
3. **Dropout:** At every training step, every neuron (input or hidden) has a probability p of being temporarily “dropped out”
4. **Data augmentation:** Generate new training instances from existing ones, artificially boosting the size of the training set.

E.g. you can rotate, shift (translate), resize (scale), flip (reflect)





Summary



Hyperparameters:

- Number of layers
- Number of epochs
- Kernel size
- Stride
- Learning rate
- Dropout
- Optimisation method

Questions?

Slides adapted from the Machine Learning for
Biomedical Application course from King's College of
London