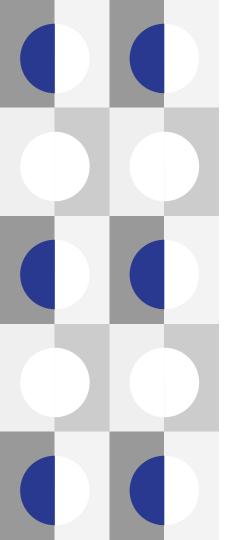


iTrain (M) Sdn Bhd KL: C-19-8, KL Trillion, 338 Jalan Tun Razak, 50400 Kuala Lumpur. Tel: +603 2733 0337 Website: www.itrain.com.my

## Introduction to Deep Architectures of Neural Networks

By: Fares Hasan



What is Artificial Intelligence?

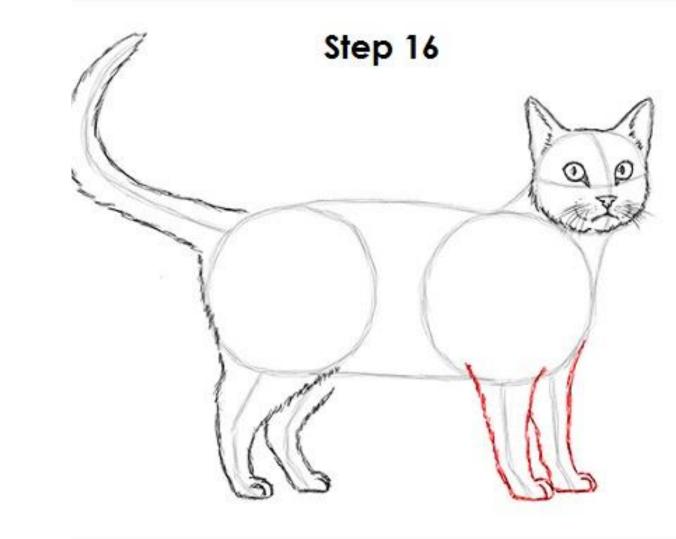
How does a machine learn to recognize objects?

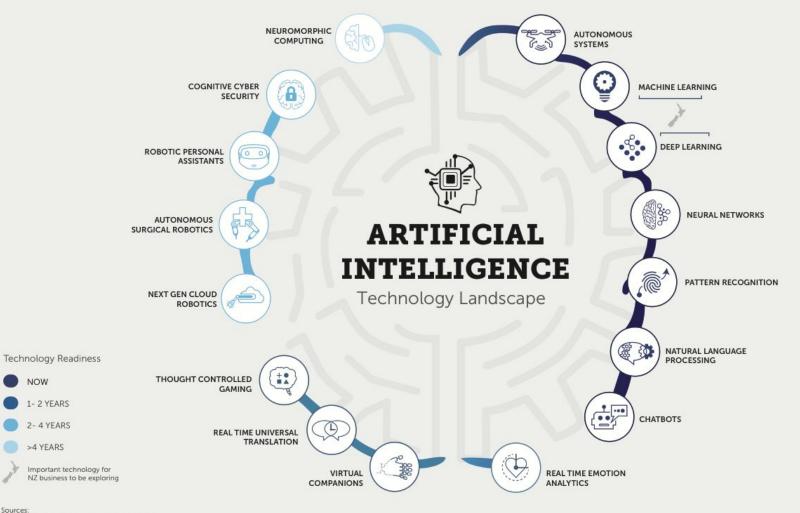
How do we humans learn?

How did you learn to recognize blue color?

How did you recognize cars/dogs/cats?

How does a machine learn to recognize objects?





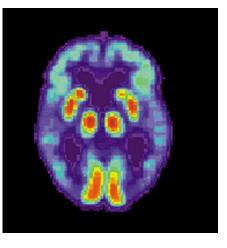
Frost & Sullivan "Artificial Intelligence- R&D and Applications Road Map\* (Dec 2016), Harvard Business Review- The competitive landscape for Machine Intelligence (Nov 2016). Shiwon Zilis and James Chan 'The State of Machine

## Machine defeating human in Alphago

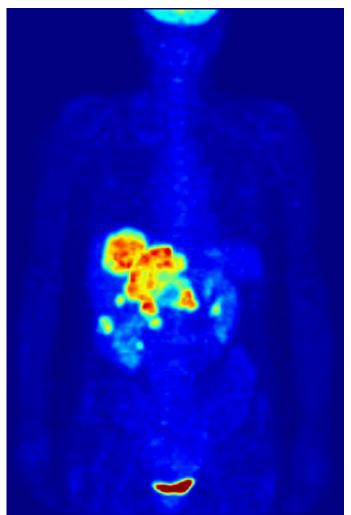








Ai in Healthcare

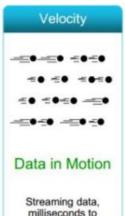


## **Big Data**

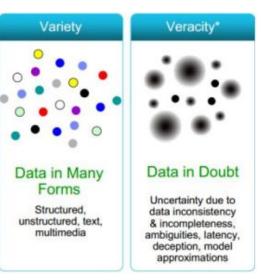


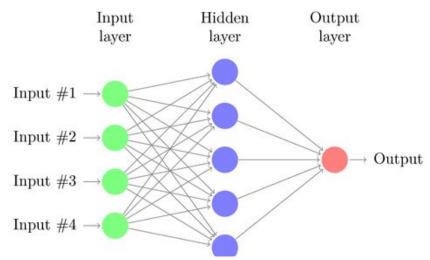


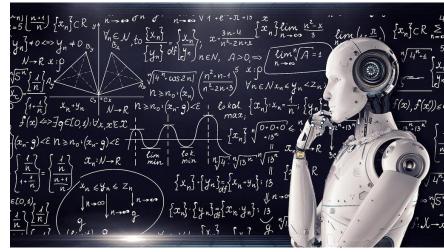
data to process











## **Artificial Intelligence**

If-else, search theory, reasoning, fuzzy logic,

## **Preface**

## Agenda

- Definition of machine learning
- Prospects in learning
- Artificial neural networks
- Activation functions
- Multilayer neural networks
- Backpropagation
- Underfitting vs Overfitting
- Evaluation metrics

## Major approaches in Al

#### Logic & rule based:

- Representing processes or systems using logical rules.
- Top down rules are created for the computer.
- Computers reason about those rules.
- Can be used to automate processes.
- Example: expert systems.

#### Pattern recognition (Machine learning):

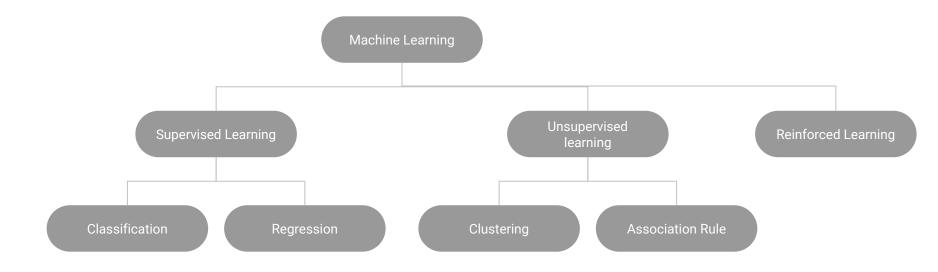
We gonna talk about this for the rest of the day

# Machine Learning Definition

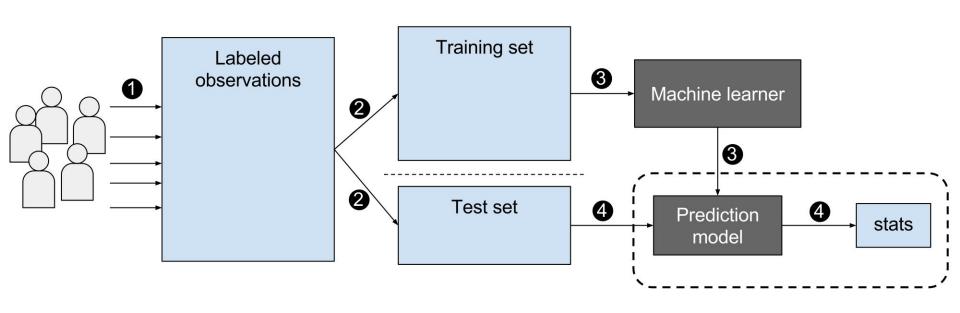
Arthur 1959: The subfield of computer science that gives computers the ability to learn without being explicitly programmed.

Mitchel 1997: A computer program is said to learn from experience E with respect to some class of tasks T and performance measure P if its performance at tasks in T, as measured by P, improves with experience E.

## **Types of Learning**

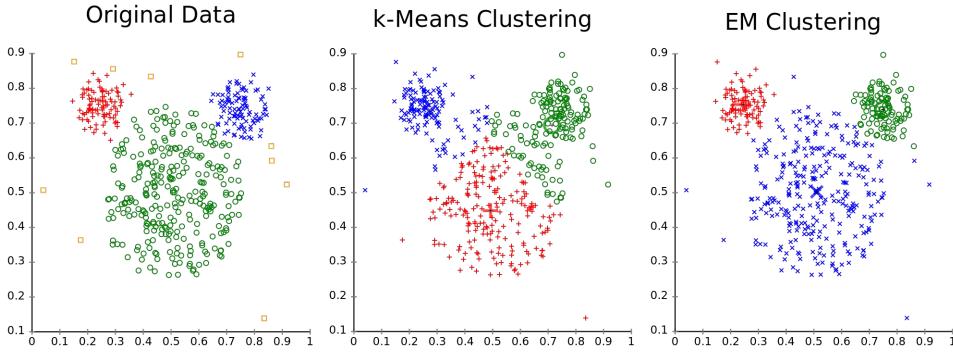


## **Supervised Learning**

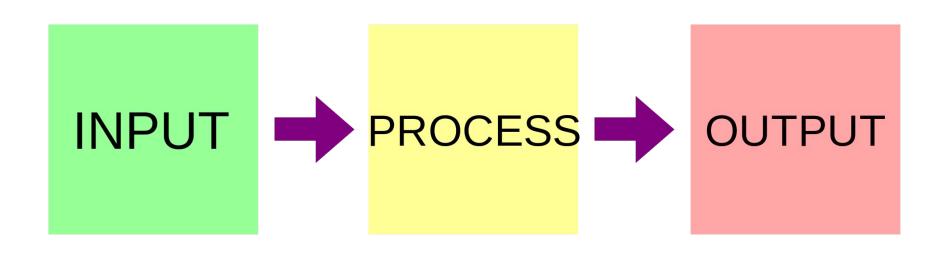


## **Unsupervised Learning**

Different cluster analysis results on "mouse" data set:



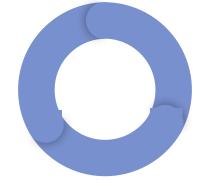
#### The difference between ML and Sequential logic



#### **Machine learning Paradigm**

Input

Training



#### Output

Input: the training data, features the represent an entity in our real world.

Output: the target that we want predict/detect. Basically we want to train the machine to figure out this part on it own.

Based on any model the training is the process of autonomously recognize the patterns and the relationship that connects the input to the output. Mathematically, figuring out the coefficients of an equation.

This model is a trained algorithm to perform certain type of tasks in its own without being explicitly programmed.



#### New input

New data coming from our business (user profiles)



The trained model will predict the type of the input value.

#### Output

Classification of the new user profiles.



## **Supervised Learning**

## Classification

#### **Predicting Categories**

#### Types of an entity

- Bad Good Medium
- Sick not sick
- Hot dog- not hot dog
- Sad happy surprised angry

## Regression

#### **Predicting values**

#### **Continuous values**

- Sales
- Coordinates
- Time
- Age
- Power
- pressure

#### **Artificial Neural Networks**

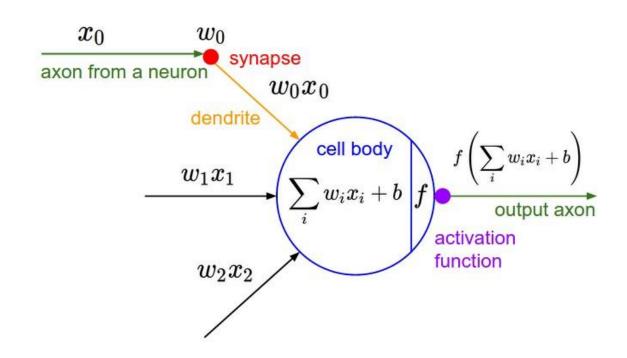
In 1943, neurophysiologist Warren McCulloch and mathematician Walter Pitts wrote a paper on how neurons might work. In order to describe how neurons in the brain might work, they modeled a simple neural network using electrical circuits.

In 1949, Donald Hebb wrote *The Organization of Behavior*, a work which pointed out the fact that neural pathways are strengthened each time they are used, a concept fundamentally essential to the ways in which humans learn. If two nerves fire at the same time, he argued, the connection between them is enhanced.

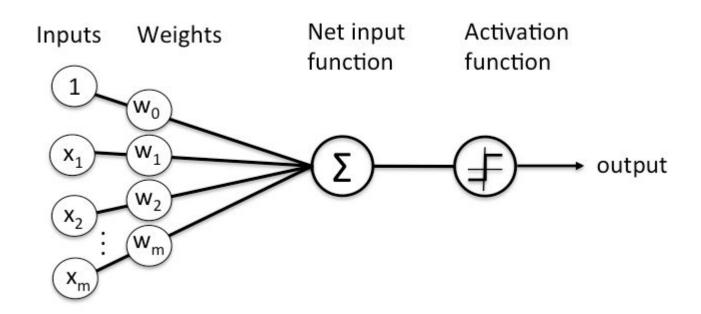
The first multi layered network was developed in 1975, an unsupervised network.

**Stanford Courses** 

## **Single Perceptron**



## **Single Perceptron**



#### The Winter of Ai

The neural networks weren't great and sooner they faced many challenges the most prominent was that they weren't able to learn the XOR function. This have set to freeze for funding and publication for Ai projects after a wave of hype. This is called the winter of Ai.

So, things were not good for neural nets. But why? The idea, after all, was to combine a bunch of simple mathematical neurons to do complicated things, not to use a single one. In other terms, instead of just having one output layer, to send an input to arbitrarily many neurons which are called a hidden layer because their output acts as input to another hidden layer or the output layer of neurons. Only the output layer's output is 'seen' - it is the answer of the neural net - but all the intermediate computations done by the hidden layer(s) can tackle vastly more complicated problems than just a single layer.

## Let's Train a perceptron:

$$Y = \sum \omega x$$

$$W0 = 0.3$$

$$W1 = 0.5$$

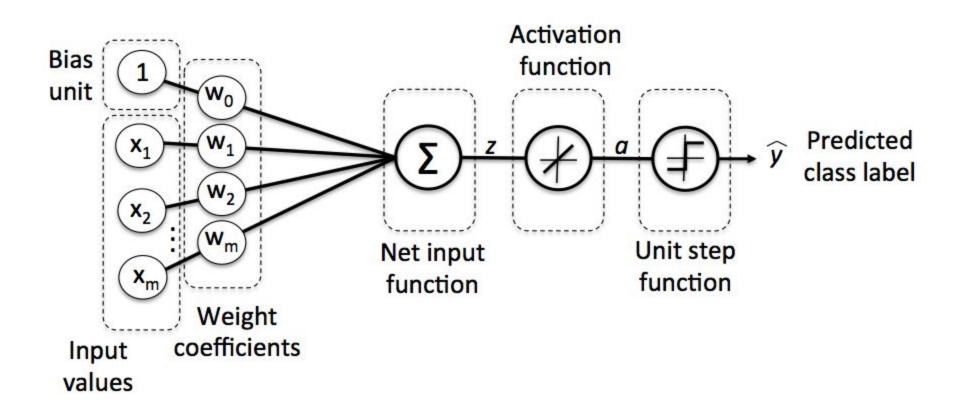
$$W2 = -0.4$$

Hint: (-1\*0.3)+(0\*0.5)+(0\*-0.4)

in1	in2	in3	Output
-1	0	0	0
-1	0	1	0
-1	1	0	1
-1	1	1	0

## **Evolution of Machine Learning and ANN**

Neural networks	1960
Multilayer Perceptrons	1985
Restricted Boltzmann Machine	1986
Support Vector Machine	1995
Hinton presents the Deep Belief Network (DBN)  New interests in deep learning and RBM  State of the art MNIST	2005
Deep Recurrent Neural Network	2009
Convolutional DBN	2010
Max-Pooling CDBN	2011



#### **Activation Functions**

#### **Activation Functions**

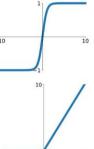
#### **Sigmoid**

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



#### tanh

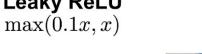
tanh(x)



#### ReLU

 $\max(0,x)$ 

## Leaky ReLU



#### **Maxout**

$$\max(w_1^T x + b_1, w_2^T x + b_2)$$

$$x$$
  $x \ge 0$   $\alpha(e^x - 1)$   $x < 0$ 

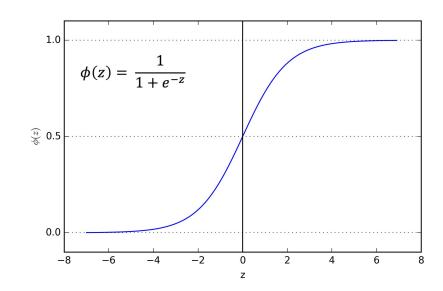
## **Sigmoid**

Squashes numbers between [0,1]

Its popularity comes from it's nice interpretation.

Exp() is computationally expensive.

Outputs are not zero centered.

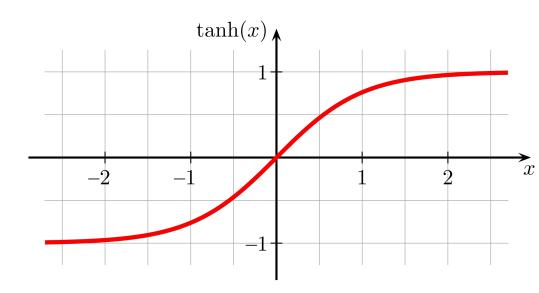


### Tanh(x)

Squashes numbers between [-1,1]

Zero centered.

Kills gradient when saturated.



#### **ReLU - Rectified Linear Unit**

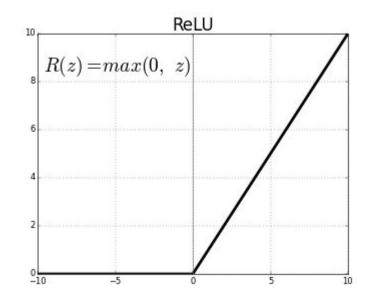
Doesn't saturate.

Computationally efficient.

Converges 6x times faster than tanh and sigmoid.

Not Zero Centered.

Can die.



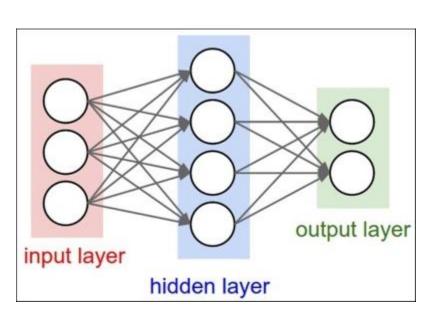
#### General lines

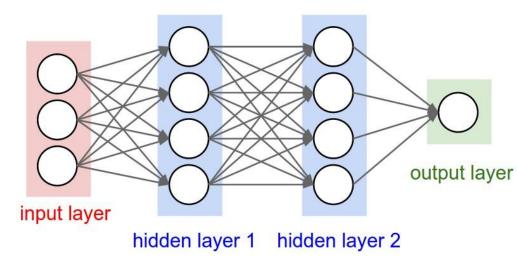
- Use ReLU with attention to the learning rate.
- Try the other variations of ReLU.
- People hate Sigmoid.
- Low expectations on tanh.

### Multilayer Neural Networks

The reason hidden layers are good, in basic terms, is that the hidden layers can find features within the data and allow following layers to operate on those features rather than the noisy and large raw data. For example, in the very common neural net task of finding human faces in an image, the first hidden layer could take in the raw pixel values and find lines, circles, ovals, and so on within the image. The next layer would receive the position of these lines, circles, ovals, and so on within the image and use those to find the location of human faces - much easier! And people, basically, understood this. In fact, until recently machine learning techniques were commonly not applied directly to raw data inputs such as images or audio. Instead, machine learning was done on data after it had passed through feature extraction - that is, to make learning easier machine learning was done on preprocessed data from which more useful features such as angles or shapes had been already extracted.

### Multilayer Feedforward Neural Networks





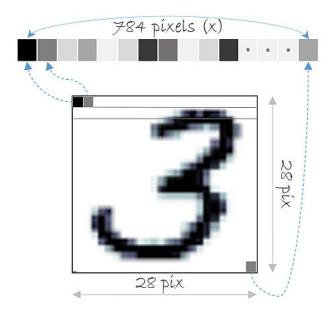
# The size of a neural network

**Total number of neurons** = neurons in the hidden layer + neurons in the output layer

**Total weights** = [neurons in the input layer \* neurons in the hidden layer] + [neurons in the hidden layer \* neurons in the output layer]

#### Feedforward Neural network

The design of the input and output layers in a network is often straightforward. For example, suppose we're trying to determine whether a handwritten image depicts a "3" or not. A natural way to design the network is to encode the intensities of the image pixels into the input neurons. If the image is a 28 by 28 greyscale image, then we'd have  $784=28\times28$  input neurons, with the intensities scaled appropriately between 0 and 1. The output layer will contain just a single neuron, with output values of less than 0.5 indicating "input image is not a 3", and values greater than 0.5 indicating "input image is a 3".



# **Learning Neuron Error**

It is clear to you by now that neural networks are functions trying to proximate the weights. The delta rule is the most common way to adjust the weights of the neuron.

If t is the desired output and y is the predicted one, the error  $\delta$  can be calculated by:

$$\delta = t - y$$

The formula to measure the change in weights  $\Delta$ w that results in error is:

$$\Delta w = \eta \delta x$$

The new weights formula is:

$$W$$
 (new weight) =  $W$ (old weight) -  $\Delta W$ 

## **Backpropagation**

The back propagation algorithm is a generalization of the delta rule for training multilayer networks (MLN). This algorithm updates the weights wi of the network by means of successive iterations, that minimize the cost function of the error E. The minimization of the error is obtained using the gradient of the cost function, which consists of the first derivative of the function with respect to all the weights winamely:

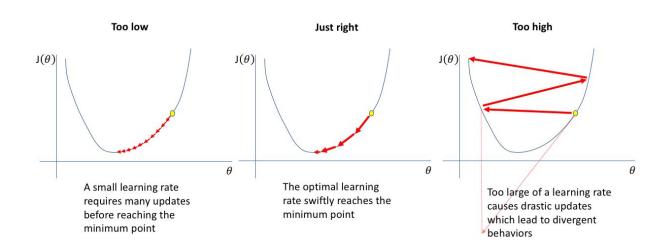
 $\frac{\partial}{\partial w_i}(E)$ 

On the basis of this gradient the weights will be updated with the following mechanism:

$$w_i = w^{\scriptscriptstyle 0}{}_i - \eta \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{\scriptscriptstyle i}} (E)$$

# **Learning Rate**

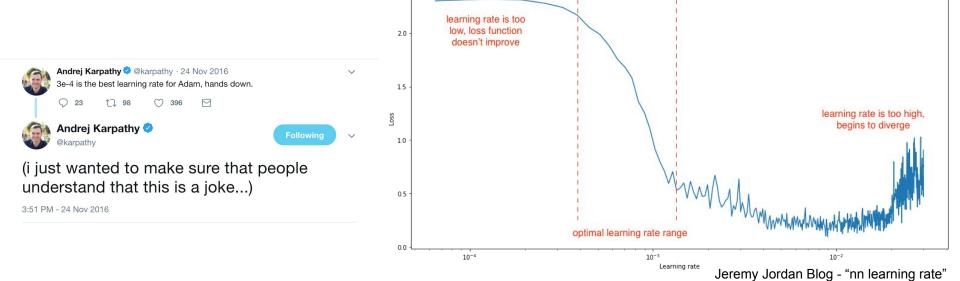
Learning rate is a hyper-parameter that controls how much we are adjusting the weights of our network with respect to the loss gradient. A low learning rate means slow movement in adjusting the weights.



# **Determine Learning Rate value**

Ultimately, we'd like a learning rate which results is a *steep decrease* in the network's loss. We can observe this by performing a simple experiment where we gradually increase the learning rate after each mini batch, recording the loss at each increment. This gradual increase can be on either

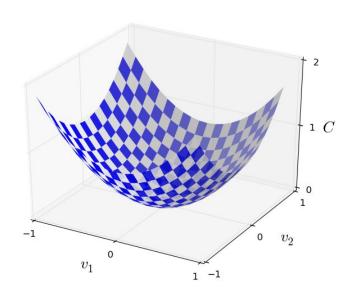
a linear or exponential scale.



## **Gradient Descent**

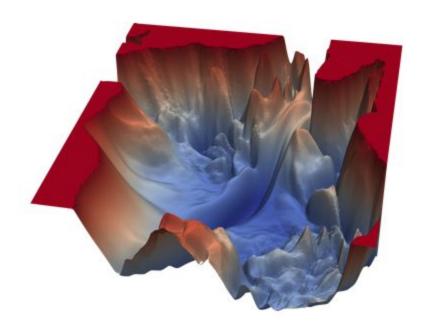
In any context be neural networks or otherwise, if we are trying to minimize a function say C(v1,v2). Gradient descent is a minimization technique that we use to find the global minima. The graph on the side is an easy example where you can identify the global minima with your eyes. In most cases our function C will have several variables and it won't be possible to find global minimum with our eyes.

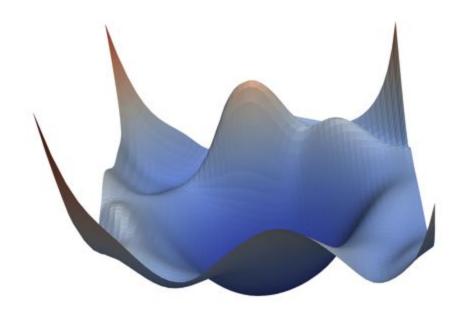
To be honest this is an oversimplification of the problem but it is necessary to imagine C as function of two variables and use calculus to find the minimization solution analytically. In real life it's more complicated.



#### No residual connections

#### With residual connections





## Same general network architecture

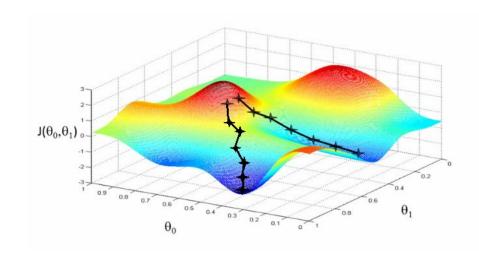
Jeremy Jordan Blog - "nn learning rate"

# Solving the minimization problem

If calculus doesn't work then how to solve the problem. Let's make an analogy, imagine the function space as it looks in the image. There is a valley somewhere on this space. Imagine the solution as a ball if we have just started randomly on any point and let the ball rolling, we know for fact that the ball will rest in a low point at the valley.

We can do this simulation by calculating the derivative and second derivative of the function C.

This analogy is to make us imagine the simulation but not to put a constraint on our thinking and hustle with physics law.



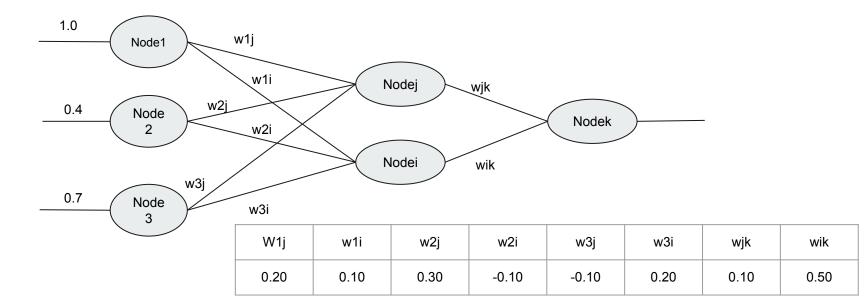
What happens when we move the ball a small amount  $\Delta v1$  in the v1 direction and small amount of  $\Delta v2$  in the v2 direction. Then our C functions will change accordingly by:

$$\Delta C \approx \frac{\partial C}{\partial v_1} \Delta v_1 + \frac{\partial C}{\partial v_2} \Delta v_2.$$

You should ask then why do we have a learning rate and a gradient at the same time. The gradient is showing the ball which direction to roll into, whereas learning rate is the step size.

# **Calculate Backpropagation**

Assume we have an input of [1.0, 0.4, 0.7] with an output value of [0.65] in the dataset. Feed this into a network of two hidden layers and compute the network output, (output = 0.582) then compute the error using the delta role and squared error function. E (total) =  $\Sigma \frac{1}{2}$  (target - output)<sup>2</sup>



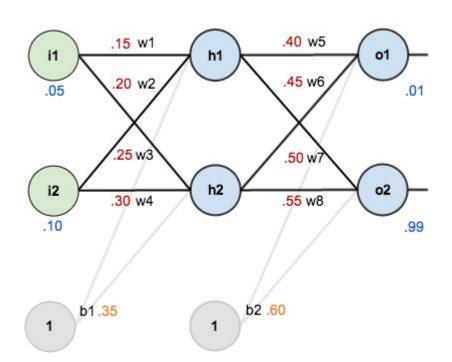
# **Backpropagation**

 $Net_{h1} = w1*i1 + w2+i2 + b1*1$ 

Calculate  $Net_{h1}$ ,  $out_{h1}$ ,  $Net_{h2}$ , and  $out_{h2}$ 

Calculate Net<sub>o1</sub>, out<sub>o1</sub>, Net<sub>o2</sub>, and out<sub>o2</sub>

Calculate the error at o1, o2, and total error using squared error function.



Complete solution from here: steps

## **Gradient Descent**

Cool and solves many issues that were face in the past but it came with it's own problems:

- May stop at local minima.
- Local minima can be worst that global minima.
- There exist many local minimas.

#### Possible solution:

Training with different initial weights, train different networks architectures.

# Regularization in neural networks

Machine learning models are vulnerable to overfitting and underfitting syndrome. The model overfit when it try too hard to learn and it captures noise. This noise is data points and details that are irrelevant or doesn't contribute to the knowledge of the model. Balancing variance and bias is one of the famous approaches to solving overfitting.

The regularizer is a regression technique that shrinks the coefficient estimates towards zero. In simple words it discourage the model from learning too much to avoid the risk of overfitting.

$$Y \approx \beta O + \beta 1X1 + \beta 2X2 + ... + \beta pXp$$

 $oldsymbol{eta}$  is the coefficient estimate for different variables (X) and Y is the learned relationship

# **Residual Sum of Squares RSS**

The fitting procedure involves a loss function, known as residual sum of squares or RSS. The coefficients are chosen, such that they minimize this loss function.

RSS = 
$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \left( y_i - \beta_0 - \sum_{j=1}^{p} \beta_j x_{ij} \right)^2$$
.

Now, this will adjust the coefficients based on your training data. If there is noise in the training data, then the estimated coefficients won't generalize well to the future data. This is where regularization comes in and shrinks or regularizes these learned estimates towards zero.

# What does Regularization achieve?

A standard model tend to have some variance and therefore it doesn't generalize in a data that is different than training dataset, it overfits. **Regularization significantly reduces the variance of the model without substantial increase its bias.** 

By reducing the variance and avoiding increase in the bias the regularizer prevents the model from capturing the noise and maintains it's useful knowledge. But the value of the regularizer have to be carefully selected as it can harm the model by discouraging it's learning if it's set to be high.

In most machine learning implementations and particularly in scikit-learn there exist a parameter alpha for the regularization term which helps in avoiding overfitting by penalizing weights with large magnitudes.

# Model Evaluation & Performance Analysis

How to evaluate our model?

What measure to use?

What is the objective state?

How to improve the performance of the model?

# The desirable state to achieve: Good Generalization.

We consider the model to perform well if and only if it can generalize well.

Two states the model could fall into:

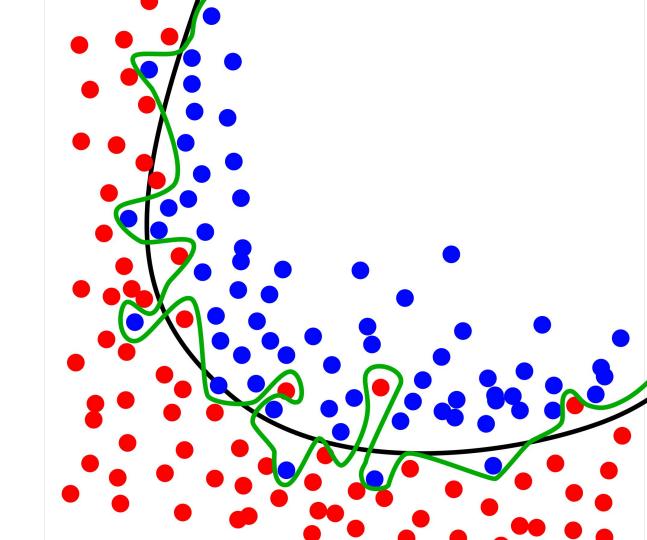
- 1. Overfitting.
- Underfitting.

Both are considered ae error that result in an unsatisfactory performance and predictions.

# **Overfitting**

&

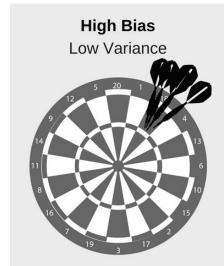
# Underfitting

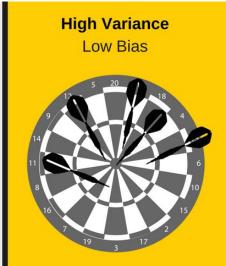


Both errors are the result of the tradeoffs between variance and bias.

**Overfitting** is when the model learns all the details and noise about your data to the extent that it performs 100% accurate in your training data, but when you test on a new data the model performs poorly.

**Underfitting** is when the model is not able to perform well in the dataset. The poor performance in both training and testing sets is an indicator of the underfitting error.





# How to prevent this?

- Cross validation.
- 2. Using Ensemble or bagging methods.
- Add more data.
- Reduce features (via feature selection or PCA).
- 5. Start with simple method.
- 6. Early stopping.
- 7. Regularization.

# Evaluation of classification models.

Accuracy

Precision

Sensitivity/Recall

F1-Score

AUC (Area Under the ROC Curve)

## **Precision**

Spam Detection: you may lose few emails because you classify them as spam.

How precise your model is? Out of the predicted positive instances how many are actually positive.

$$Precision = \frac{True\ Positive}{True\ Positive + False\ Positive}$$

		Predicted		
		Negative	Positive	
Actual	Negative	True Negative	False Positive	
Actual	Positive	False Negative	True Positive	
		II.		

Dradicted

# Recall Sensitivity

Intrusion Detection: if the model misclassify an intrusion a harmful attach will cost the organization millions and sensitive data.

How many of the actual positives are classified as so. How sensitive is the model in detecting the right class.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Recall} &= \frac{\textit{True Positive}}{\textit{True Positive} + \textit{False Negative}} \\ &= \frac{\textit{True Positive}}{\textit{Total Actual Positive}} \end{aligned}$$

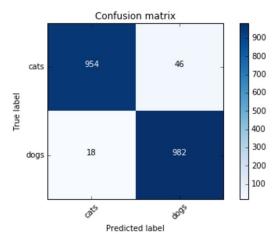
# Actual Negative Positive Negative True Negative False Positive Positive False Negative True Positive

Predicted

# Tools in scikit learn

#### **Confusion Matrix**





### **Classification Report**

support	f1-score	recall	precision	precision	
543	0.88	0.90	0.86	0.0	
342	0.79	0.76	0.83	1.0	
885	0.85	0.85	0.85	avg / total	

# Evaluation of Regression models.

Root Mean Squared Error.

Relative Squared Error.

Mean Absolute Error.

# Regression Evaluation Metrics

**RMSE:** measure the error rate of a regression model. However, it can only be compared between models whose errors are measured in the same units.

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (p_i - a_i)^2}{n}} \qquad RSE = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (p_i - a_i)^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (\overline{a} - a_i)^2}$$

**RSE:** relative squared error (RSE) can be compared between models whose errors are measured in the different units.

**MAE:** has the same unit as the original data, and it can only be compared between models whose errors are measured in the same units.

# Model Optimization Fine Tuning

**Decision Trees.** 

Artificial Neural Networks.

Support Vector Machines.

## **Parameters**

Entropy OR Gini Index

Number of branches allowed, levels.

**Activation Functions** 

Number of layers

Regularization term

**Error Functions** 

**Kernel functions** 

**Epsilon values** 

# Grid Search Method

### Read more

#### A search consists of:

- an estimator (regressor or classifier such as sklearn.svm.SVC());
- a parameter space;
- a method for searching or sampling candidates;
- a cross-validation scheme; and
- a <u>score function</u>.

```
param_grid = [
    {'C': [1, 10, 100, 1000], 'kernel': ['linear']},
    {'C': [1, 10, 100, 1000], 'gamma': [0.001, 0.0001], 'kernel':
['rbf']},]
```

# **Tips on Practical Use**

- MLP is sensitive to feature scaling, so always make sure you scale your data.
- Apply the same scaling method for testing data as well.
- Find a reasonable regularizer using Gridsearch.
- Empirically observed that L-BFGS converges faster and with better solutions on small datasets. For relatively large datasets, however, Adam is very robust. It usually converges quickly and gives pretty good performance. SGD with momentum or nesterov's momentum, on the other hand, can perform better than those two algorithms if learning rate is correctly tuned.

