

NN for sequential data cntd.

Quantify prediction uncertainties

Beate Sick

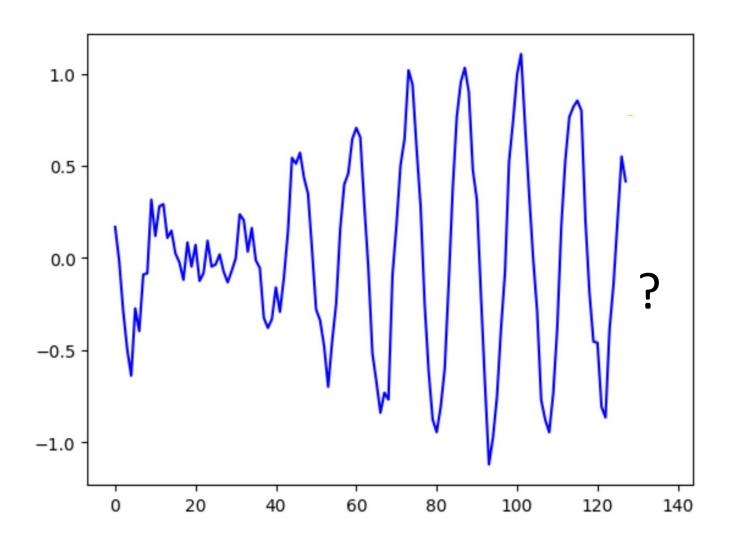
sick@zhaw.ch

Remark: Much of the material has been developed together with Elvis Murina and Oliver Dürr

Topics

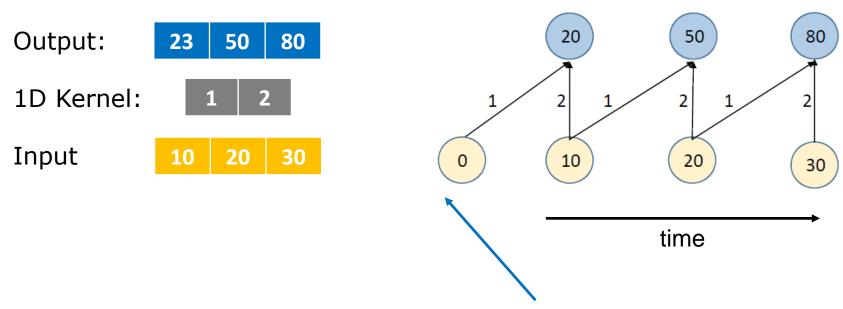
- Recap architectures for sequential data
 - 1D convolution
 - RNN
- Recurrent NN with better memory
 - GRU
 - LSTM
- How reliable are predicted probablilities?
 - Calibration
 - Quantifying prediction uncertain via Dropout

Task in homework: Predict how series will continue



Recap 1D "causal" convolution for ordered data

Toy example:

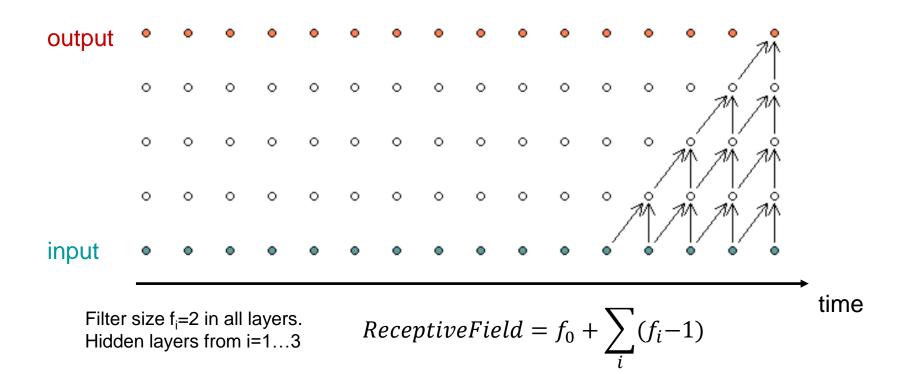


To make all layers the same size, a zero padding is added to the beginning of the input layers

"causal" networks, because the architecture ensured that no information from the future is used.

Stacking 1D "causal" convolutions without dilation

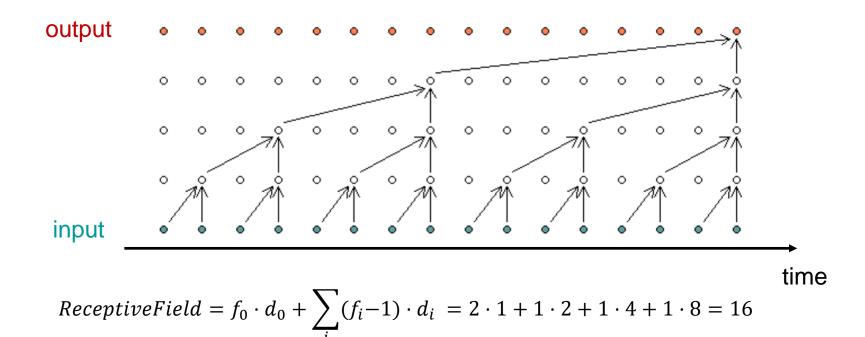
Non dilated Causal Convolutions



Stacking k causal 1D convolutions with kernel size 2 allows to look back k time-steps. After 4 layers each neuron has a "memory" of 5 time-steps (1 presence and 4 past).

Dilation allows to increase "memory" = receptive field

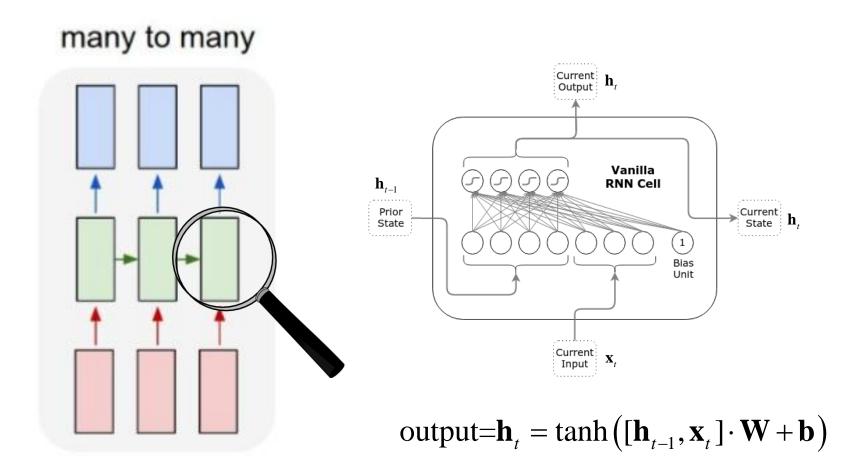
To increase the memory of neurons in the output layer, you can use "dilated" convolutions:



Here the filter f_i=2 for all layer, but dilation is d_i starts with 1 and doubles from layer to layer

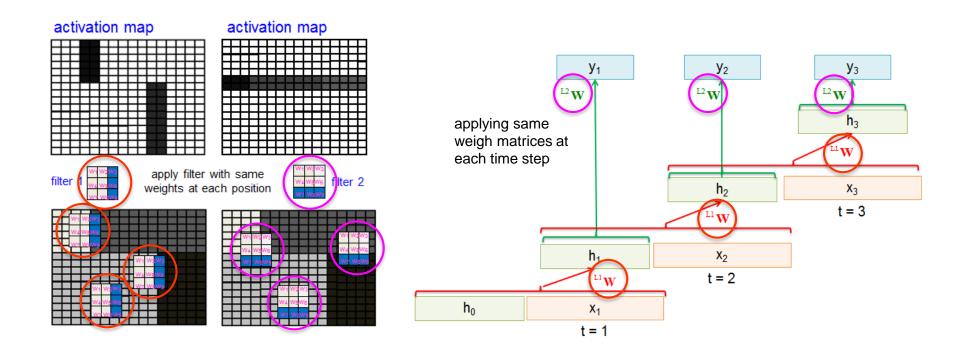
After 4 layers each neuron has a receptive field of 16 input neurons.

Recap the architecture of a simple RNN



Common tricks in RNN & CNN and some differences

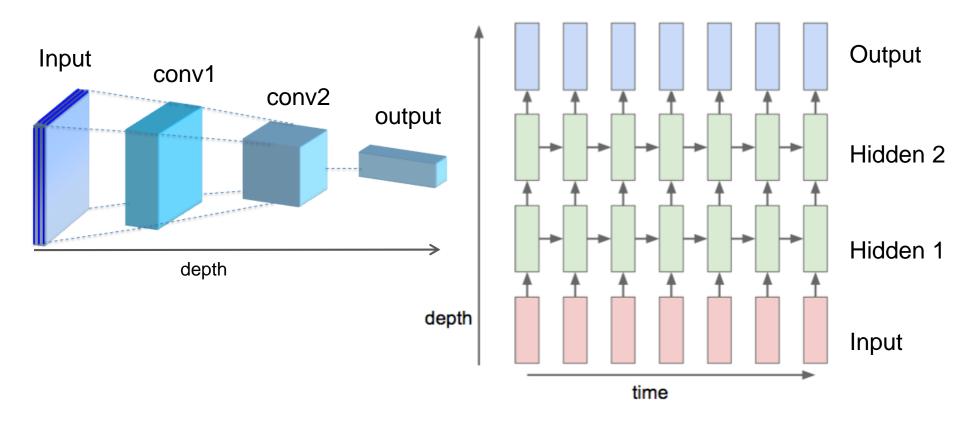
CNN and Recurrent Network share weights



CNN share weights between different local regions of the image

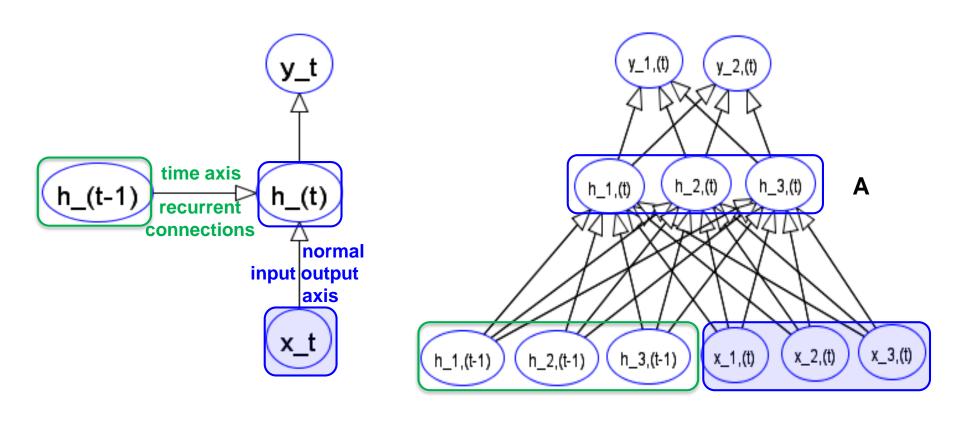
RNN share weights between time steps

Also in RNN we can go deep for hierarchical features



Usually we see only 1-4 hidden layers in an RNN compared to usually 4-100 stacked hidden convolutional blocks in CNNs.

Dropout in recurrent architectures allow to choose different different dropout rates for recurrent and normal connections



$$\mathbf{A} = f_{\mathbf{W}}(\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t}) = \tanh\left([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t}] \cdot \mathbf{W} + \mathbf{b}\right) = \tanh\left(\mathbf{h}_{t-1} \cdot \mathbf{W}_{h} + \mathbf{x}_{t} \cdot \mathbf{W}_{x} + \mathbf{b}\right)$$

$$\mathbf{W} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{W}_{h} \\ \mathbf{W} \end{pmatrix} \quad \text{Dimensions in example: W:6x3, W}_{h:3x3, W}_{x:3x3}$$

Dropout in recurrent architectures

It is important to use identical dropout masks (marked by arrows with same color) at different time steps in recurrent architectures like GRU or LSTM.

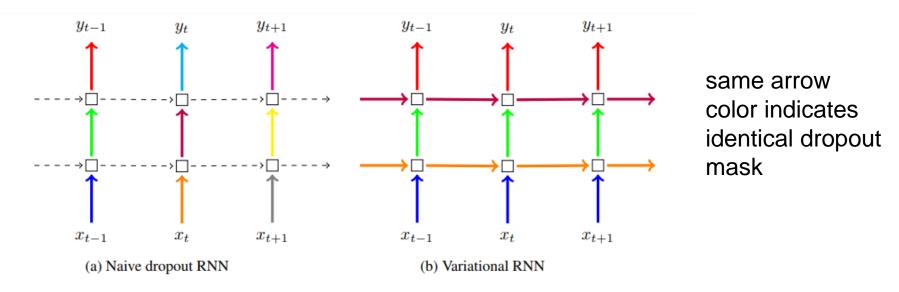


Figure 1: Depiction of the dropout technique following our Bayesian interpretation (right) compared to the standard technique in the field (left). Each square represents an RNN unit, with horizontal arrows representing time dependence (recurrent connections). Vertical arrows represent the input and output to each RNN unit. Coloured connections represent dropped-out inputs, with different colours corresponding to different dropout masks. Dashed lines correspond to standard connections with no dropout. Current techniques (naive dropout, left) use different masks at different time steps, with no dropout on the recurrent layers. The proposed technique (Variational RNN, right) uses the same dropout mask at each time step, including the recurrent layers.

Gal2016

In keras:

model.add(layers.GRU(32, dropout=0.2, recurrent dropout=0.2, input shape=(None, ...)))

Dropout can fight overfitting in CNN and recurrent NN

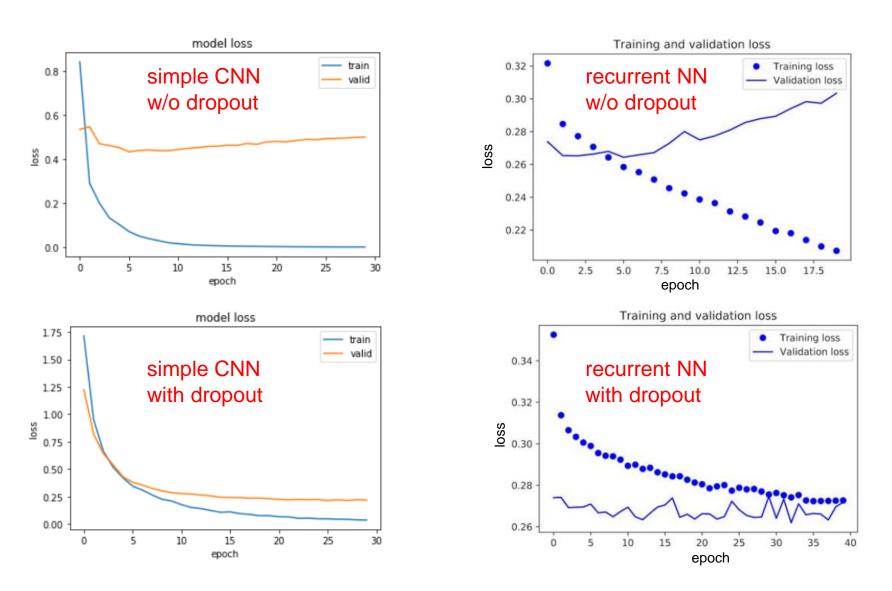
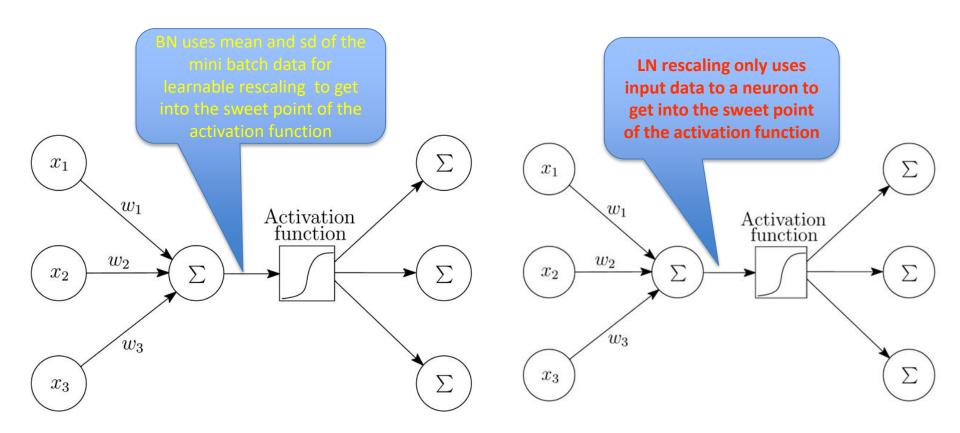


Image credits: F Chollet's book: DL with Python

Batchnormalization is crucial to train deep CNNs Layernormalization is benefial in RNN: $LN \neq BN$



Applying BN to RNN would not take into account the recurrent architecture of the NN over which statistics of the input to a neuron might change considerable within the same mini batch. In LN the mean and variance from all of the summed inputs to the neurons in a layer on a single training case are used for normalization .

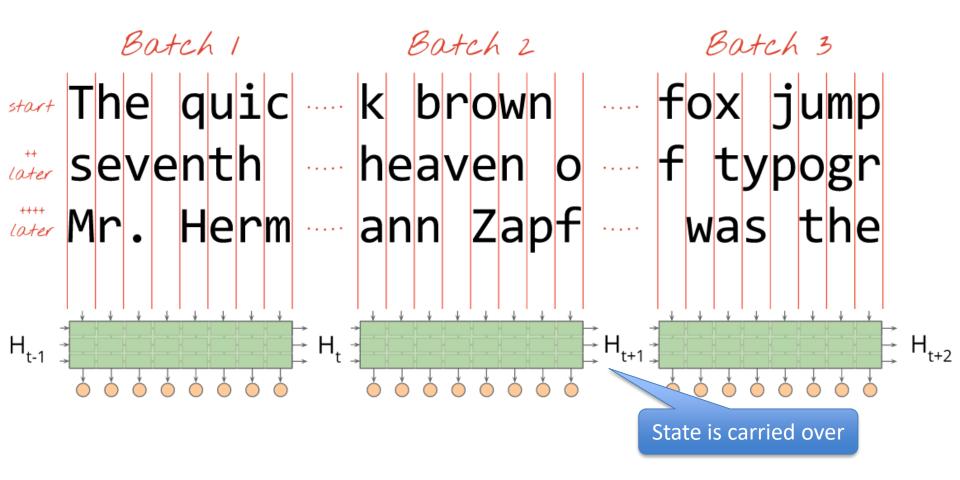
Stateful RNN model

Training a stateful RNNs

- RNN are often trained on sequence data with inherent order
- Sequences are often very long and need to be cut between minibatches
- By default the hidden state is initialized with zeros in each mini-batch
- In stateful RNN we connect sequences in the right order between mini-batches allowing to make use of the hidden state learned so far
- This requires a careful construction of the mini-batches and an appropriate transfer of the hidden state between mini-batches

Mini-batches in statefull RNN

The gradient is propagated back a fixed amount of steps defined by the size of a mini-batch. In stateful RNNs the hidden state is carried over between mini-batches and hence between connecting sequences given appropriate batches.



Vanishing/Exploding Gradient problem during training a RNN

Recall: Loss of a mini-batch is used to determine update

mini-batch of size M=8

train data input (S=len(seq)=3):

instance_id	seq_t1	seq_t2	seq_t3
1	X ₁₁	X ₁₂	X ₁₃
2	X ₂₁	X ₂₂	X ₂₃
3	X ₃₁	X ₃₂	X 33
I	I	ı	I
8	X ₈₁	X 82	X 83

train data target (2 classes, K=2):

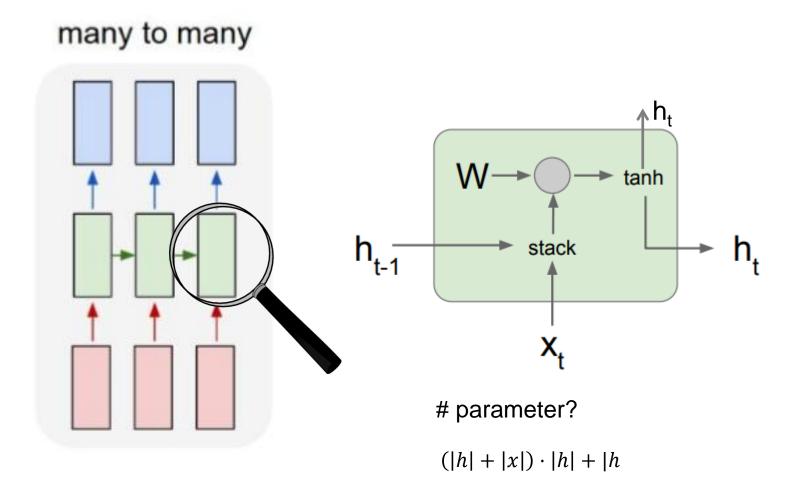
instance_id	y_t1	y_t2	y_t3
1	(1,0)	(1,0)	(0,1)
2	(0,1)	(1,0)	(0,1)
3	(0,1)	(0,1)	-1
I	I	I	I
8	(1,0)	(1,0)	(1,0)

Cost C or Loss is given by the cross-entropy averaged over all instances in mini-batch:

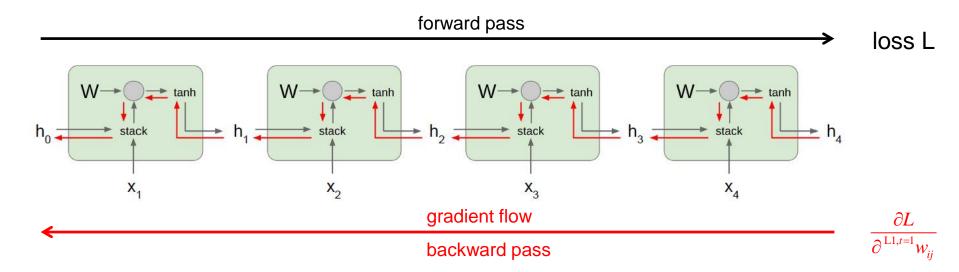
Loss =
$$\frac{1}{8} \sum_{m=1}^{8} \left[\sum_{s=1}^{3} \left(-\sum_{k=1}^{2} y_{msk} \cdot \log(p_{msk}) \right) \right]$$

Based on the mini-batch loss the weights in the tow weight matrices of layer 1 and layer 2 are updated.

Recall: Design of a RNN "cell"



Backpropagation in RNNs: Gradient is multiplied at each time step with same factor: Gradient explosion/vanishing



Propagating the gradient of the cost function via chain rule to the first time point involves multiplying at each time step with \mathbf{W}^{T} (and the derivation of tanh).

- \Rightarrow Vanishing gradient if we multiply at each time step with a number <1 (more precisely we have only a number if W is a scalar, otherwise we need to look on the first singular value of \mathbf{W}^{T})
- \Rightarrow Exploding gradient if we multiply at each time step with a number >1 (more precisely we have only a number if W is a scalar, otherwise we need to look on the first singular value of \mathbf{W}^{T})

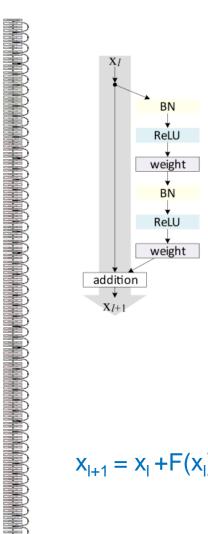
Solution: gradient clipping (hack), or use better architecture like LSTM or GRU!

GRU and LSTM cells to avoid vanishing/exploding gradients

Recall: ResNet

use ResNet like architectures allowing for a gradient highway

(in CNN also batch-normalization and ReLU helped to train deep NN, but cannot naively transfered to recurrent NN)



$$X_{l+1} = X_l + F(X_l)$$

ResNet basic design (VGG-style)

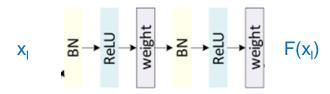
- add shortcut connections every two
- all 3x3 conv (almost)

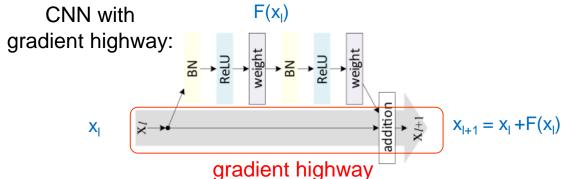
152 layers: Why does this train at all?

This deep architecture could still be trained, since the gradients can skip layers which diminish the gradient!

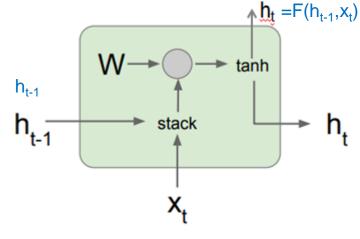
Provide gradient highway also in recurrent NN: GRU, LSTM

CNN classic:

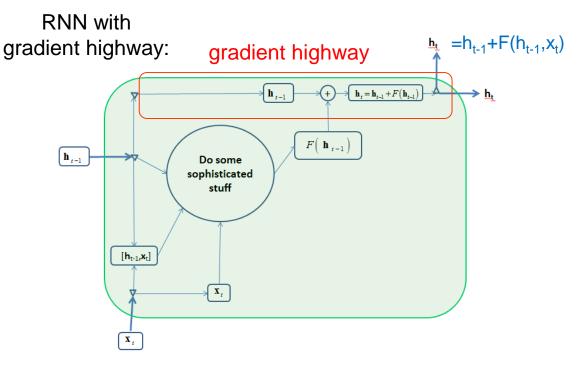




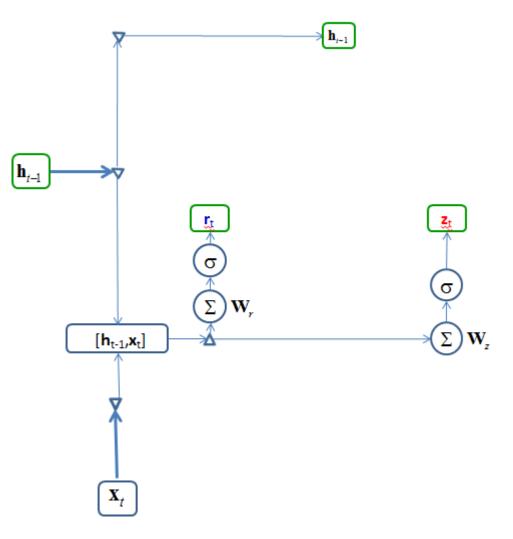
RNN classic:



 $\mathbf{h}_{t} = \tanh\left([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t}] \cdot \mathbf{W} + \mathbf{b}\right)$



Towards Gated Recurrent Units (GRU)



$$\mathbf{r}_{t} = \text{gate}_{r,t} = \text{sigmoid}([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t}] \cdot \mathbf{W}_{r} + \mathbf{b}_{r})$$

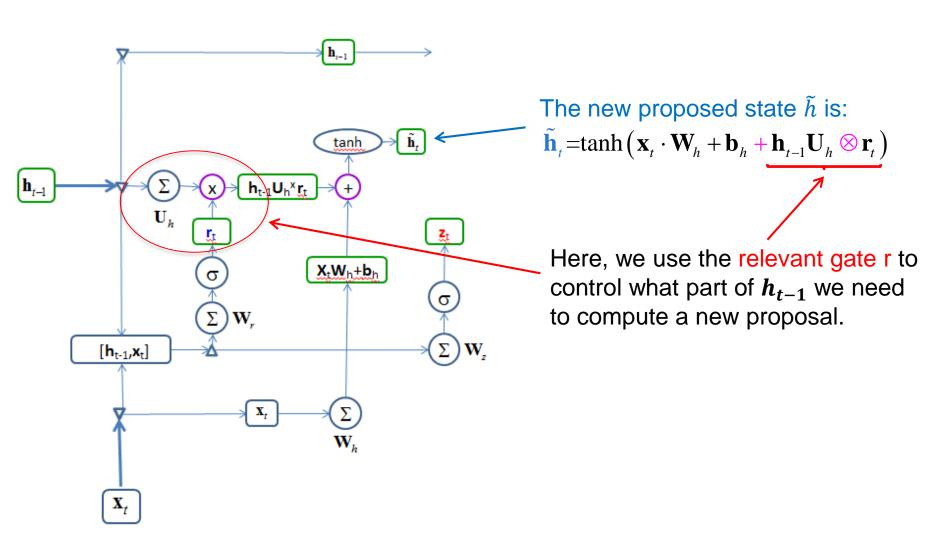
$$\mathbf{z}_{t} = \text{gate}_{\text{update}} = \text{sigmoid}([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t}] \cdot \mathbf{W}_{z} + \mathbf{b}_{z})$$

Idea:

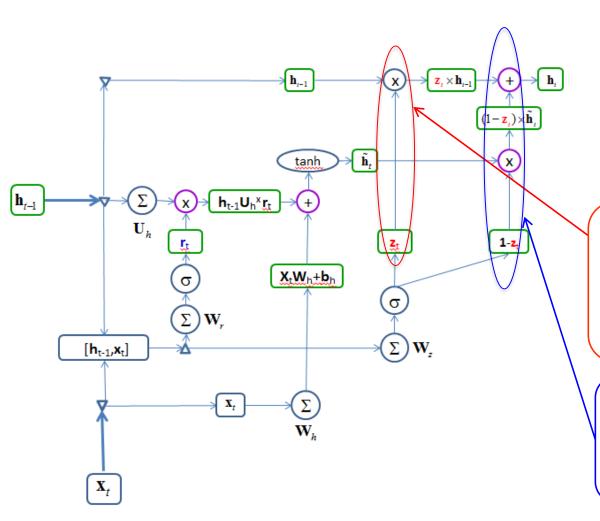
The relevant gate r controls which part of the previous hidden state is relevant for making a prediction or should be dropped

The **updated gate z** controls how much information from the previous hidden layer h_{i-1} and the new input should be propagated to the current hidden layer h_i .

Towards Gated Recurrent Units (GRU)



The Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU)



The new hidden state is:

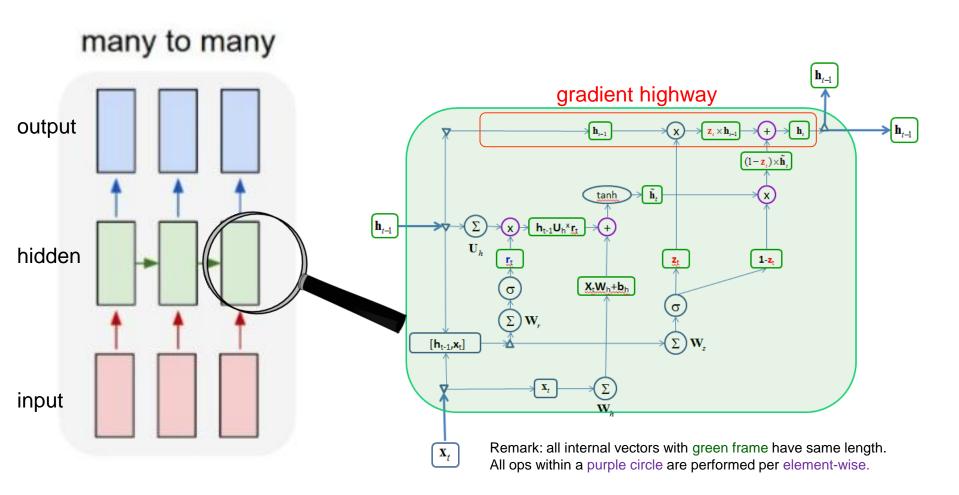
$$\mathbf{h}_{t} = (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{z}_{t}) \otimes \tilde{\mathbf{h}}_{t} \oplus \mathbf{z}_{t} \otimes \mathbf{h}_{t-1}$$

If all elements of \mathbf{z}_t are 1 then the hidden state stays unchanged.

The updated gate \mathbf{z}_t controls how much of the previous hidden state \mathbf{h}_{t-1} and the new input \mathbf{x}_t should be propagated to the current hidden state \mathbf{h}_t

The updated gate \mathbf{z}_{t} controls also how much information from proposed new state $\widetilde{\boldsymbol{h}}$ is entering the new state

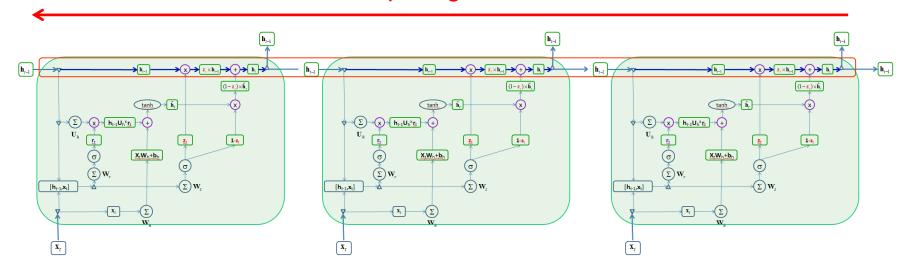
Solution via "highway allowing" architecture: GRU



The gradient high-way avoids gradient vanishing. The GRU also avoids gradient explosion since the element-wise operations on vector-elements that change over the time steps, avoids multiplying the gradients with the same number in each step.

The Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU): Gradient Flow

Uninterrupted gradient flow!



Relevant gate: $\mathbf{r}_{t} = \sigma([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t}] \cdot \mathbf{W}_{t} + \mathbf{b}_{r})$

Update gate: $\mathbf{z}_{t} = \sigma([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t}] \cdot \mathbf{W}_{z} + \mathbf{b}_{z})$

Proposed hidden state: $\tilde{\mathbf{h}}_{t} = \tanh(\mathbf{x}_{t} \cdot \mathbf{W}_{h} + \mathbf{b}_{h} + \mathbf{h}_{t-1}\mathbf{U}_{h} \otimes \mathbf{r}_{t})$

New hidden state is: $\mathbf{h}_{t} = (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{z}_{t}) \otimes \tilde{\mathbf{h}}_{t} \oplus \mathbf{z}_{t} \otimes \mathbf{h}_{t-1}$

parameter?

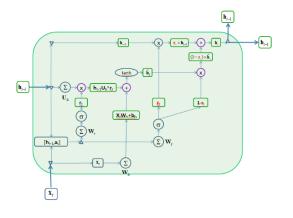
 $(|h| + |x|) \cdot |h| + |h|$

 $+(|h|+|x|)\cdot |h|+|h|$

 $+ (|x|) \cdot |h| + |h| + (|h|) \cdot |h|$

 $= 3 \cdot [(|h| + |x|) \cdot |h| + |h|]$

GRU in keras



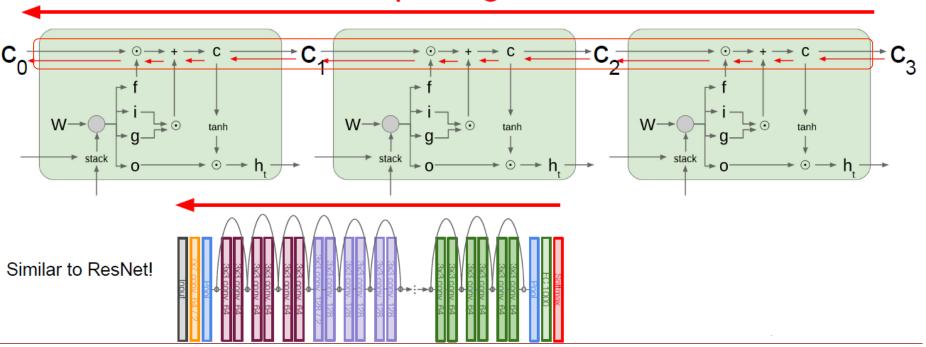
All internal vectors within GRU green frame have same length.

All ops within a purple circle are performed per element-wise on the ingoing vectors

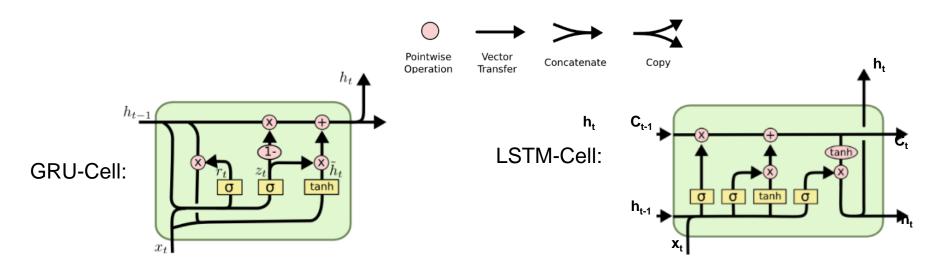
Long Short Term Memory (LSTM): Gradient Flow

LSTM has an additional cell state C for a "long term memory".

Uninterrupted gradient flow!



Long Short Term Memory cell (LSTM) as GRU-extension



2 gates, 1 cell states (h)

Relevant gate: $\mathbf{r}_{t} = \sigma([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t}] \cdot \mathbf{W}_{t} + \mathbf{b}_{r})$

Update gate: $\mathbf{z}_{t} = \sigma([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t}] \cdot \mathbf{W}_{z} + \mathbf{b}_{z})$

Proposed hidden state: $\tilde{\mathbf{h}}_{t} = \tanh(\mathbf{x}_{t} \cdot \mathbf{W}_{h} + \mathbf{b}_{h} + \mathbf{h}_{t-1}\mathbf{U}_{h} \otimes \mathbf{r}_{t})$

New hidden state is: $\mathbf{h}_{t} = (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{z}_{t}) \otimes \tilde{\mathbf{h}}_{t} \oplus \mathbf{z}_{t} \otimes \mathbf{h}_{t-1}$

3 gates, 2 cell states (S:h, L:C)

Forget gate: $\mathbf{f}_t = \sigma([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t] \cdot \mathbf{W}_f + \mathbf{b}_f)$

Input gate: $\mathbf{i}_{t} = \sigma([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_{t}] \cdot \mathbf{W}_{t} + \mathbf{b}_{t})$

Output gate: $\mathbf{o}_t = \sigma([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t] \cdot \mathbf{W}_o + \mathbf{b}_o)$

Proposed cell state: $\tilde{\mathbf{C}}_t = \tanh([\mathbf{h}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t] \cdot \mathbf{W}_C + \mathbf{b}_C)$

New L cell state: $\mathbf{C}_{t} = \mathbf{f}_{t} \otimes \mathbf{C}_{t-1} \oplus \mathbf{i}_{t} \otimes \tilde{\mathbf{C}}_{t}$

New S hidden state: $\mathbf{h}_t = \mathbf{o}_t \otimes \tanh(\mathbf{C}_t)$

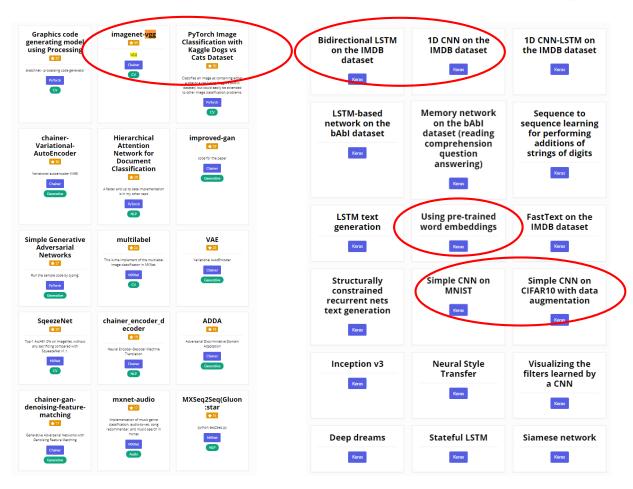
Long Short Term Memory (LSTM) in keras

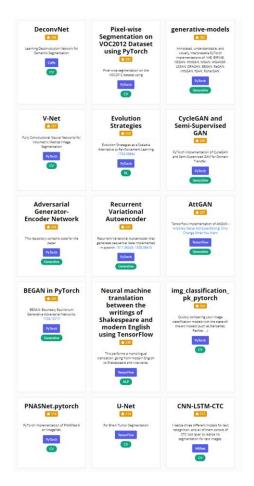
```
dimension of
                                  vocabulary
from keras.layers import LSTM
                                        dimension of
                                        embedding
model = Sequential()
model.add(Embedding(max features, 32))
model.add(LSTM(32))
model.add(Dense(1, activation='sigmoid'))
model.compile(optimizer='rmsprop',
               loss='binary crossentropy',
              metrics=['acc'])
history = model.fit(input_train, y_train,
                     epochs=10,
                     batch size=128,
                     validation_split=0.2)
```

Model zoo: many pretrained NN are out there

https://modelzoo.co/

Base pretrained models and datasets in pytorch (MNIST, SVHN, CIFAR10, CIFAR100, STL10, AlexNet, VGG16, VGG19, ResNet, Inception, SqueezeNet)





Can LSTM improve your conv1D series predictions?

 Work through the instructions in the second exercise in day 6 using https://github.com/tensorchiefs/dl_course_2018/blob/master/notebooks/12_LSTM_vs_1DConv.ipynb

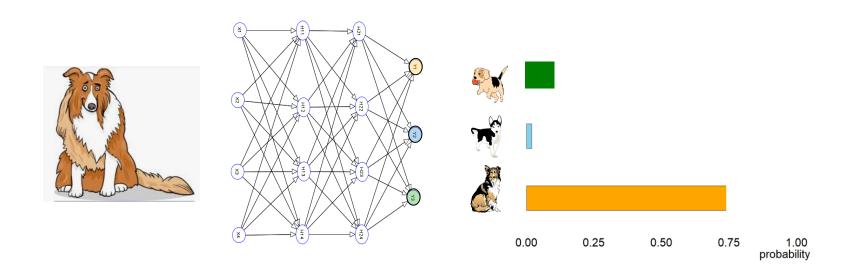


NN can predict class-labels and numeric values, but...

How sure is the NN?

What do we get from a Deep Learning model?

Suppose you train a classifier to discriminate between 3 dog breeds



The prediction is "collie" because it gets the highest probability: p_{max} =0.75

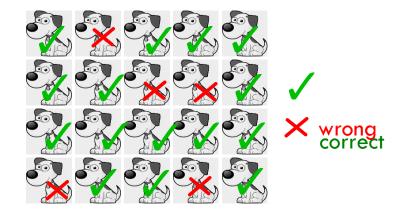
What is the probability telling?

$$p_{max} = 0.75$$

Among many predications that had p_{max} =0.75, we expect that on average 75% of these predictions are correct and only 25% predictions are wrong

→ Then the classifier produces calibrated probabilities

Sample of images where the predicted class got p=0.75:



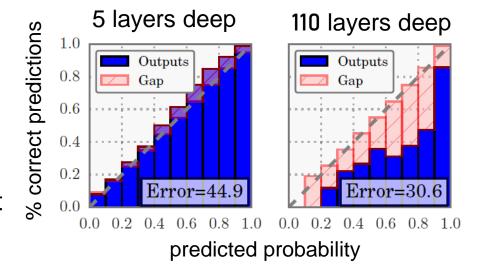
Do CNNs produce calibrated probabilities?

Guo et al. (2017)

On Calibration of Modern NN

The deeper CNNs get

- the fewer miss-classifications
- the less well calibrated they get

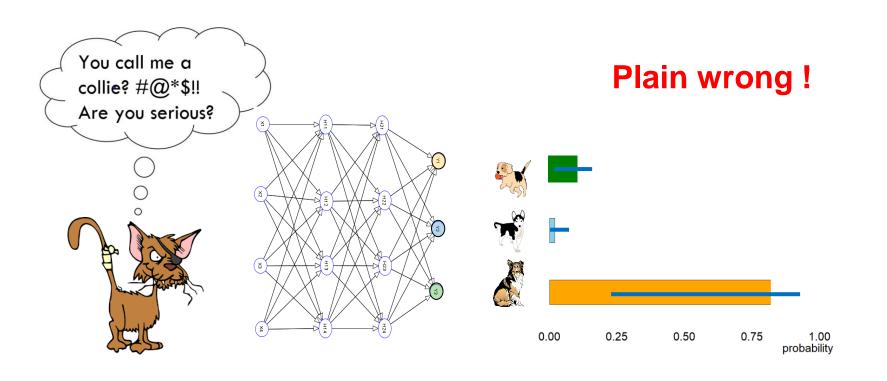


Good news:

deep NN can be "recalibrated" and then we get calibrated probabilities.

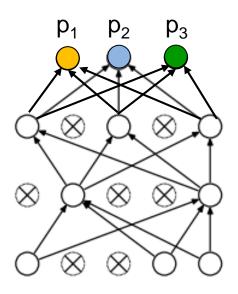
CNNs yield high accuracy and calibrated probabilities, but...

What happens if a novel class is presented to the CNN?



We need some error bars!

MC Dropout and Bayesian Neural Networks

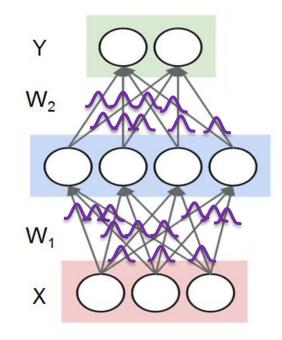


MC Dropout
Randomly drop
nodes in each run
→ Ususally done
during training

Dropout in test time

Yarin Gal* (2015): we learn a whole weight distribution

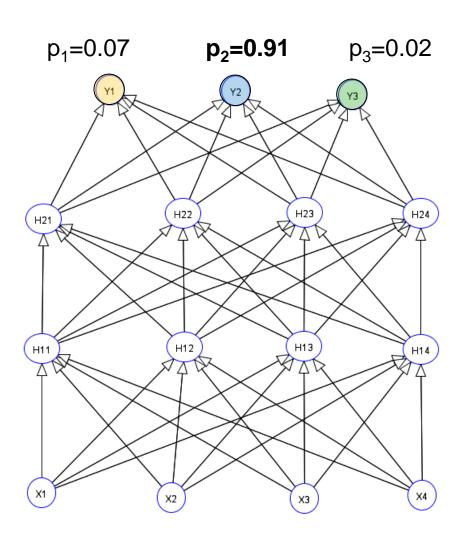




Bayesian NN

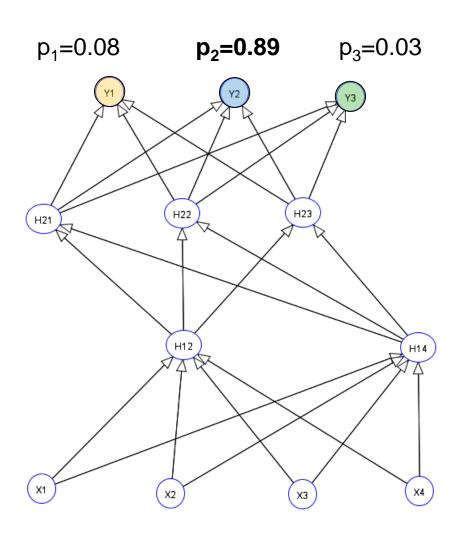
→ We should sample from weight distribution during test time

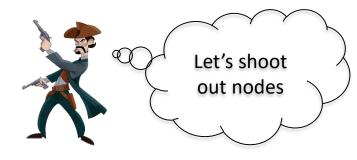
No MC Dropout



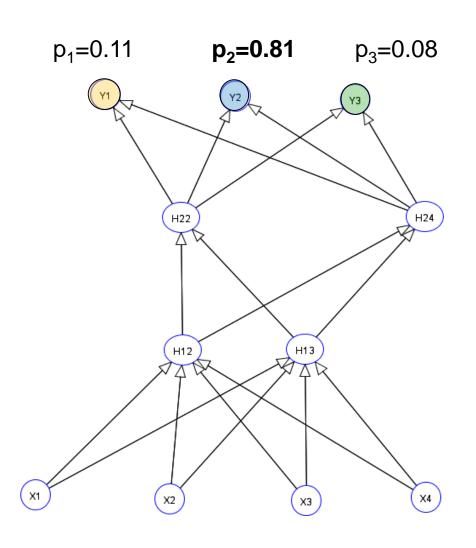
Probability of predicted class: \mathbf{p}_{max}

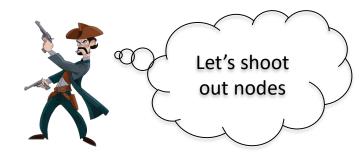
Input: image pixel values



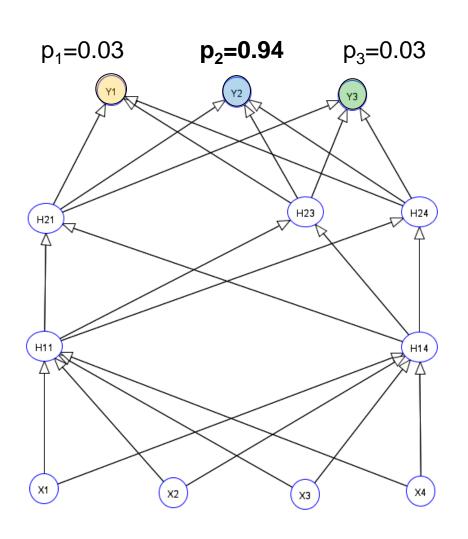


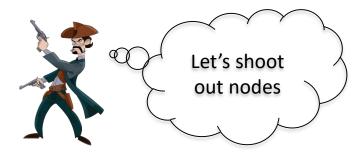
Stochastic dropout of units



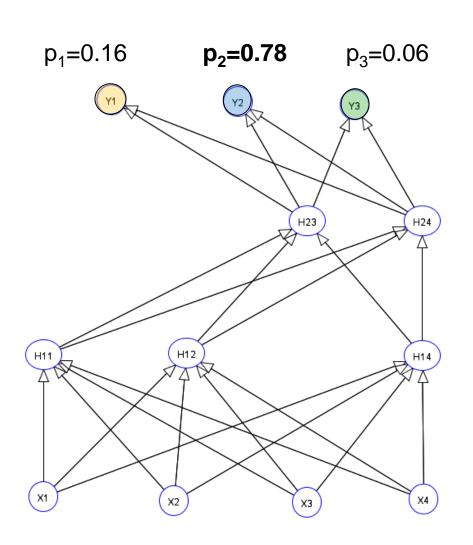


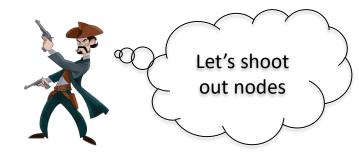
Stochastic dropout of units





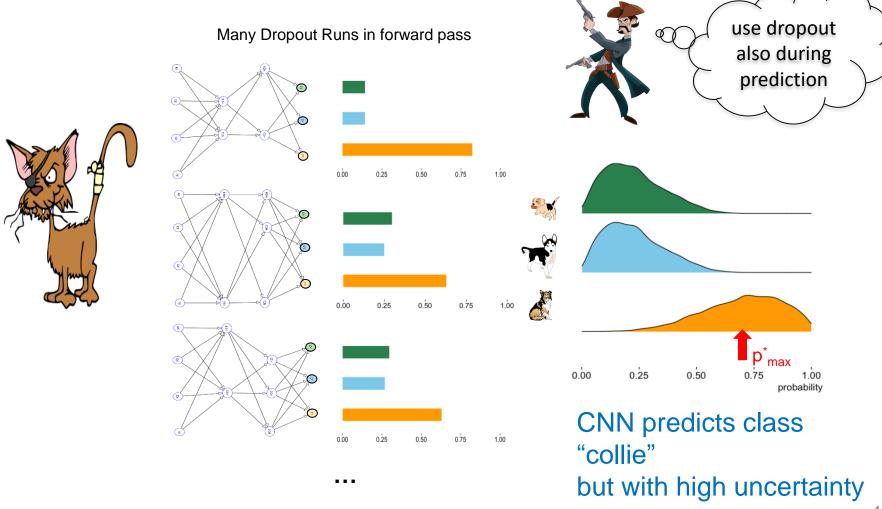
Stochastic dropout of units





Stochastic dropout of units

MC probability prediction



Remark: Mean of marginal give components of mean in multivariate distribution.

What to get from the MC* probability distribution

The center of mass quatifies the predicted probablilty

 p_{max}^*

The spread quantifies in addition the uncertainty of the predicted probability

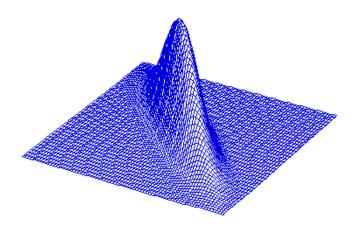
σ* total standard deviation

PE* entropy,

MI* mutual information

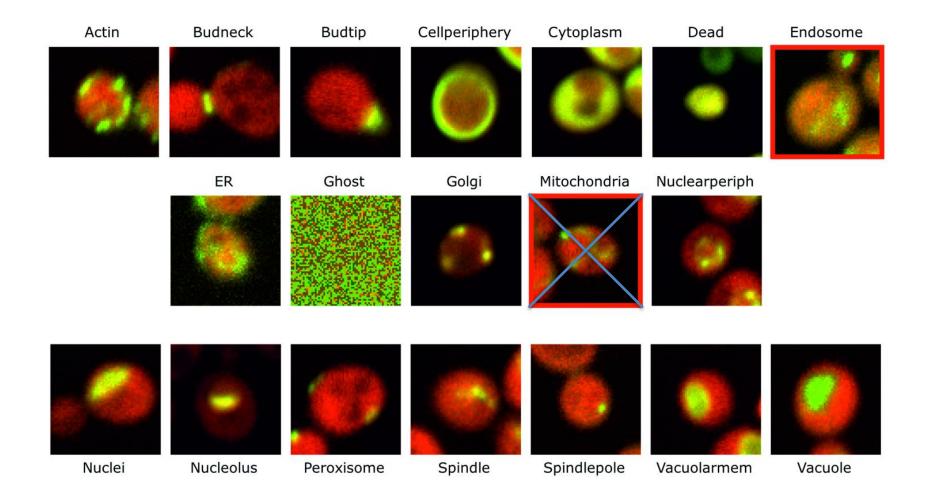
VR* variation ratio

f* vote ratio



Evaluate method on some real data

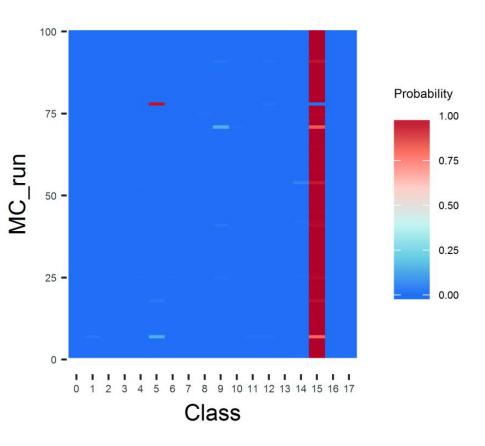
Experiment with unknown phenotype



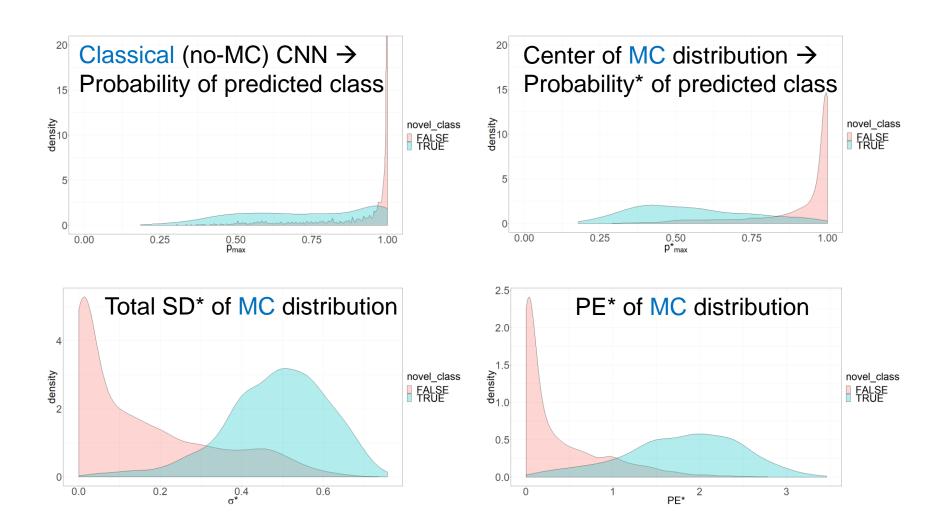
Probability distribution from MC dropout runs

Image with known class 15

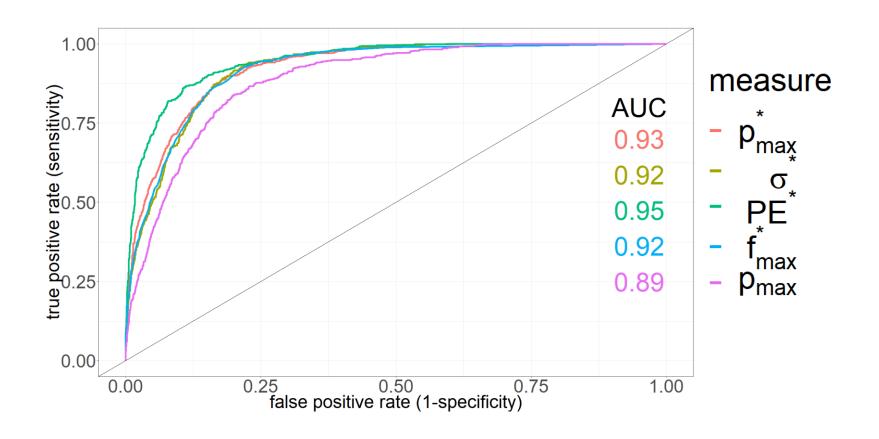
100 MC predictions for an image with known phenotype 15



Do known/novel classes yield different values for probability and uncertainty measures?

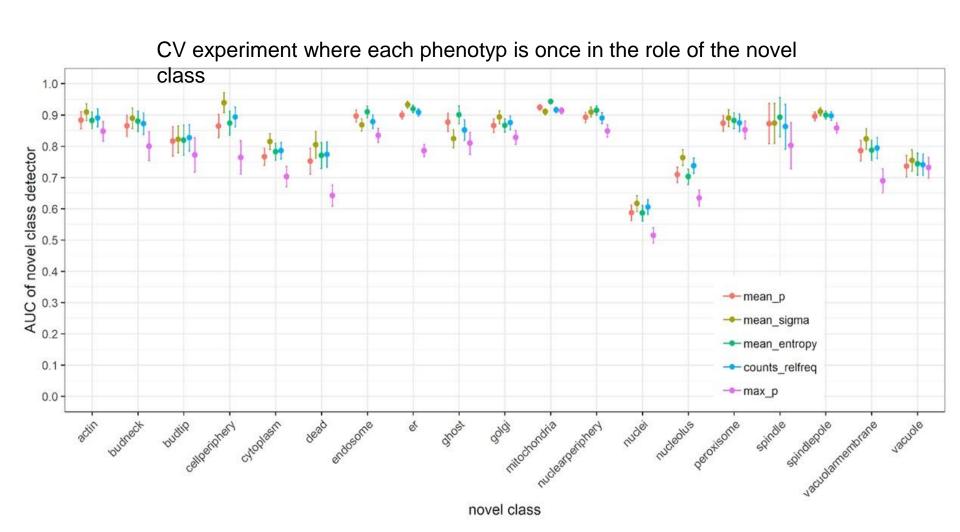


How good are novel/unusual classes identifiable?



All MC Dropout based appoaches are superior compared to the non-MC approach.

Dropout uncertainty measures outperform traditional CNN probability



Creating custom layers in keras

```
from keras.layers.core import Lambda # needed to build the custom layer
from keras import backend as K #Now we have access to the backend (could be tensorflow,
```

Define your custom function

```
def mcdropout(x):
    #return tf.nn.dropout(x=x, keep_prob=0.33333) #using TensorFlow
    return K.dropout(x, level=0.5) # beeing agnostic of the backend

    Here you could do anything possible in TF
    tf.add(x, 10)
```

•••

Include your custom function as a layer

```
model = Sequential()
model.add(Lambda(mcdropout, input_shape=(5,)))
#model.add(Dense(10))
#... Usually you would have many more layers
model.compile(loss='categorical_crossentropy',optimizer='adam')
```

Conclusion

MC Dropout during test time

- → yields uncertainty measures for each individual classification
- → helps to identify uncertain cases
- → allows to indicate novel classes
- → yields new probability estimates leading to higher accuracy