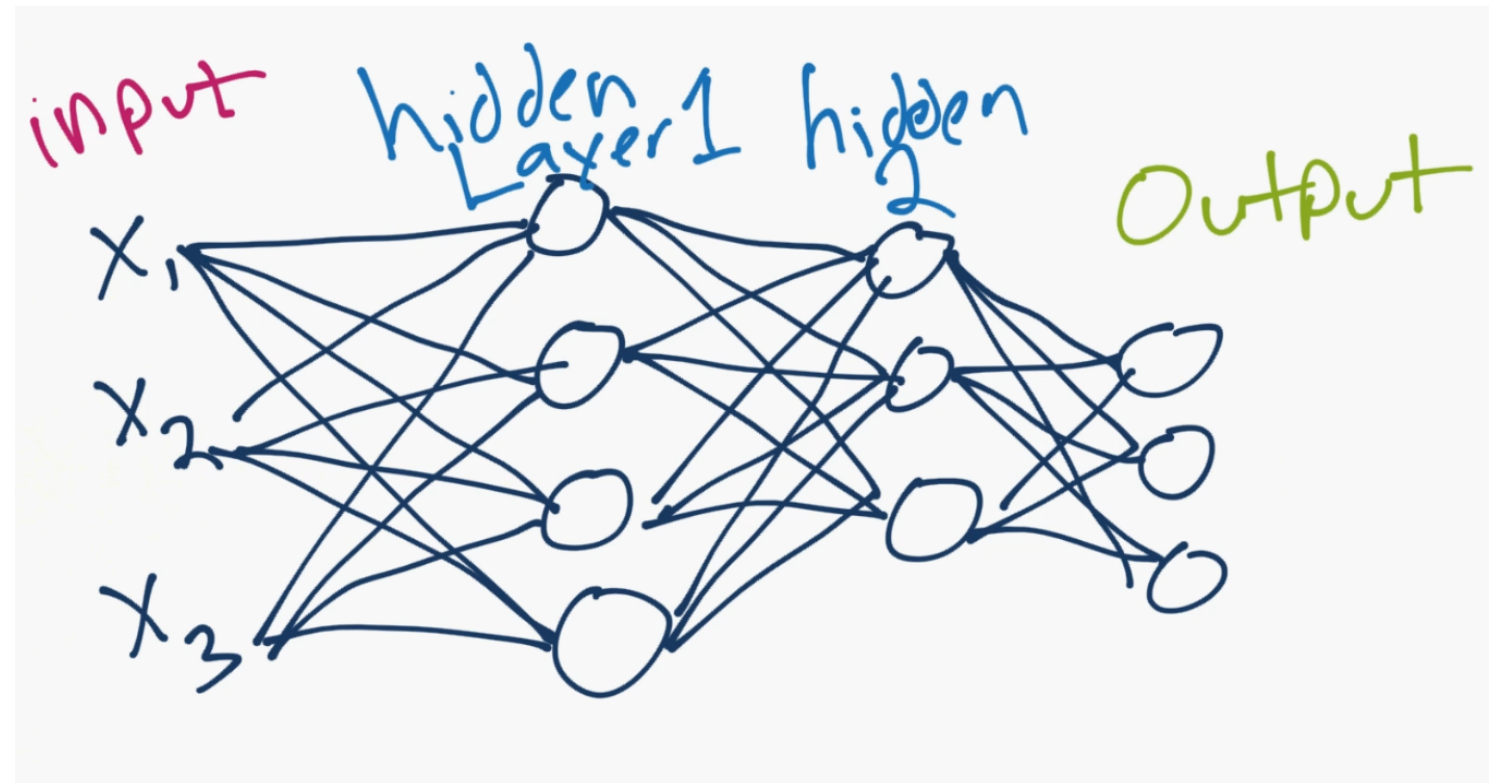


# Deep Learning

---

# Deep Networks

In the last lecture we have mentioned that:



- A NN with more than one hidden layer is called **deep**
- Deep networks can encode **more complex relations** than shallow ones
- I.e. they can have higher variance

**So why has Deep Learning become a thing only in the last decade?**

# Enablers for Deep Learning

**There are three main reasons:**

1. Learning complex relations is viable only with **abundant data**
  - With small datasets, high variance models risk overfitting
  - ...And for complex relations low-variance models are enough
  - Only recently larger data collection have become widely available
2. Handling abundant data may require considerable **computational power**
  - Deep nets for many industrial problems are actually not too hard to train
  - ...At least with modern hardware
  - ...But the "famous" models take up to millions of \$ to train!
3. Historically, there was **no good training algorithm** for deep nets
  - This is worth explaining more in detail...

# Vanishing Gradient Problem

A network with  $n$  hidden layers can be seen as something like:

$$f(x, w) = g(w_g \cdot h(w_n \cdot h(w_{n-1} \cdot h(\dots))))$$

- Where  $h_k$  is the activation function for  $k$ -th hidden layer
- And  $g$  is the activation function for the output layer.

**When we apply gradient computation to the formula**

...With some abuse of notation we get:

$$f'(x, w) = g' w_n^T h' w_{n-1}^T h' \dots$$

- Historically, **sigmoid** activation functions were used in all hidden layers
- ...And for a sigmoid we have  $|h'| < 1$

**Therefore, the more layers we have, the weaker the gradient becomes!**

# Vanishing Gradient Problem

**This problem is now usually solved with a very simple trick**

I.e. by **always using ReLUs** in the hidden layers

- ReLUs are almost everywhere differentiable
- When they are inactive, their derivative is 0
  - ...Which kill the gradient completely
- ...But when they are active, their derivative is 1
  - ...Which does not dampen the gradient at all!

**There are cases when other activation functions are used**

...But there must be a good reason for doing that

- In most cases, sticking to ReLU is fine

# Loading the Data

We will now see how to use deep networks in practice

Let's start by loading the housing dataset (again):

```
In [2]: data = pd.read_csv('data/real_estate.csv', sep=',')
in_cols = [c for c in data.columns if c != 'price per area']
X = data[in_cols]
y = np.log(data[['price per area']])
X_tr, X_ts, y_tr, y_ts = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.34, random_state=42)

data.head()
```

```
Out[2]:
```

	house age	dist to MRT	#stores	latitude	longitude	price per area
0	14.8	393.2606	6	24.96172	121.53812	7.6
1	17.4	6488.0210	1	24.95719	121.47353	11.2
2	16.0	4066.5870	0	24.94297	121.50342	11.6
3	30.9	6396.2830	1	24.94375	121.47883	12.2
4	16.5	4082.0150	0	24.94155	121.50381	12.8

- The task is still estimating "price per area"
- It's boring, but it will make for an easier comparison w.r.t. other approaches

# Standardization

## Then we standardize the data

Once more: *never* forget this step unless you know your input is already fine

```
In [3]: x_scaler, y_scaler = StandardScaler(), StandardScaler()
X_tr_s = pd.DataFrame(data=x_scaler.fit_transform(X_tr), columns=X_tr.columns)
X_ts_s = pd.DataFrame(data=x_scaler.transform(X_ts), columns=X_ts.columns)
y_tr_s = pd.DataFrame(data=y_scaler.fit_transform(y_tr), columns=y_tr.columns)
y_ts_s = pd.DataFrame(data=y_scaler.transform(y_ts), columns=y_ts.columns)
X_tr_s.describe()
```

Out [3]:

	house age	dist to MRT	#stores	latitude	longitude
count	2.730000e+02	2.730000e+02	2.730000e+02	2.730000e+02	2.730000e+02
mean	1.236292e-16	6.100127e-17	-1.187491e-16	1.263361e-13	-5.604015e-13
std	1.001837e+00	1.001837e+00	1.001837e+00	1.001837e+00	1.001837e+00
min	-1.539647e+00	-8.473385e-01	-1.391448e+00	-3.039301e+00	-4.045428e+00
25%	-7.664720e-01	-6.297593e-01	-1.054688e+00	-4.965293e-01	-4.071818e-01
50%	-1.479322e-01	-4.600779e-01	-4.440791e-02	1.446702e-01	3.410575e-01
75%	9.774665e-01	3.180448e-01	6.291121e-01	6.316881e-01	6.357777e-01
max	2.016957e+00	4.476150e+00	1.976152e+00	3.692478e+00	2.194834e+00

# Building a Network

Now, we can build a deep network by simply **stacking more layers**

```
In [4]: def build_nn(input_shape, hidden):  
        mdl = keras.Sequential()  
        mdl.add(keras.Input(shape=input_shape))  
        for k, h in enumerate(hidden):  
            mdl.add(Dense(h, activation='relu'))  
        mdl.add(Dense(1, activation='linear'))  
        return mdl
```

We will build several networks, so we are using a function

- We explicitly build an `Input` layer
  - ...So that we don't have to worry about that in the rest of the code
- We can control the size and number of layers with the `hidden` parameters
  - E.g. with `hidden = [16, 8]`
  - ...We get one hidden layer with 16 neurons, then one with 8



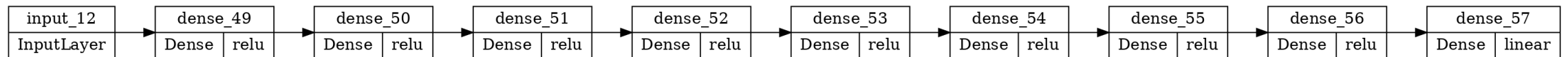
# Building a Network

## Let's try to build a few networks

A deeper network:

```
In [17]: nns = {}  
nns['81'] = build_nn(input_shape=(len(in_cols), ), hidden=[16] * 8)  
keras.utils.plot_model(nns['81'], rankdir='LR', show_layer_activations=True, dpi=150)
```

Out[17]:



And a few less deep network for comparison:

```
In [18]: nns['41'] = build_nn(input_shape=(len(in_cols), ), hidden=[16] * 4)  
nns['21'] = build_nn(input_shape=(len(in_cols), ), hidden=[16] * 2)  
nns['11'] = build_nn(input_shape=(len(in_cols), ), hidden=[16])  
nns['01'] = build_nn(input_shape=(len(in_cols), ), hidden=[])
```

■ nn1 is shallow and nn0 is just a linear regressor!

# Training the Networks

Now, let's prepare the code to train the networks

```
In [19]: def train_nn(nn, X_tr, y_tr, batch_size, epochs, verbose=1):
nn.compile(loss='mse', optimizer='adam')
history = nn.fit(X_tr, y_tr, batch_size=batch_size, epochs=epochs, verbose=verbose)
cols = [k for k in history.history.keys()]
vals = np.array([history.history[c] for c in cols]).T
return pd.DataFrame(data=vals, columns=cols)
```

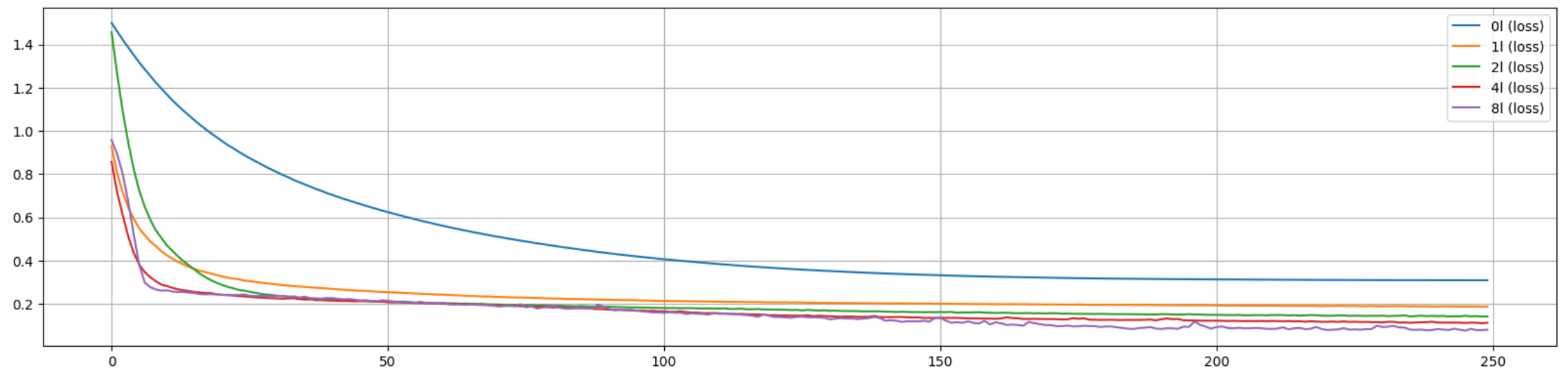
...And let's train all of them:

```
In [20]: histories = []
for l, nn in sorted(nns.items()):
    history = train_nn(nn, X_tr_s, y_tr_s, batch_size=32, epochs=250, verbose=0)
    histories.append(history.rename(columns={c: f'{l} ({c})' for c in history.columns}))
histories = pd.concat(histories, axis=1)
```

# Training Histories

Let's have a look at the training history

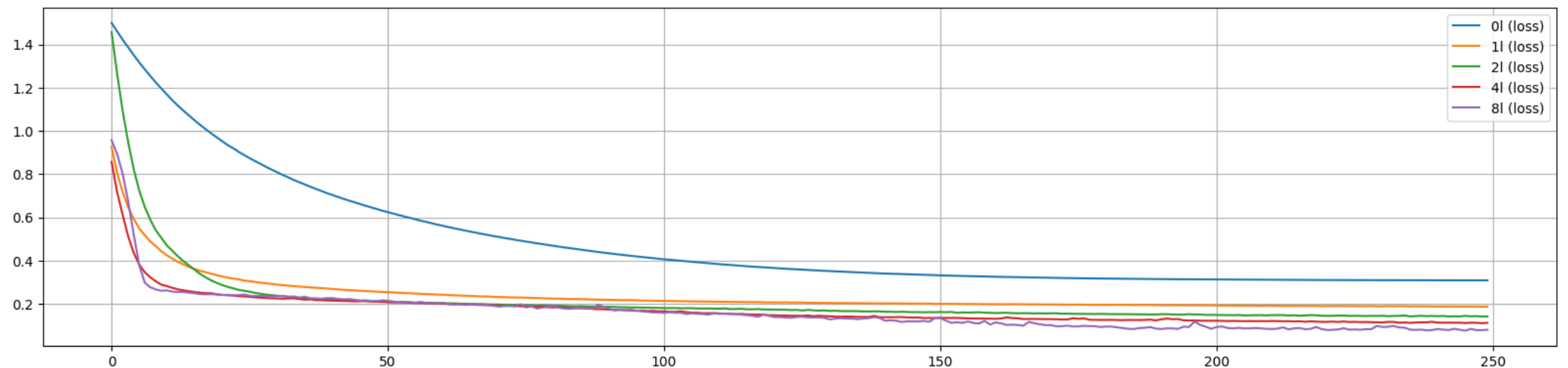
```
In [21]: histories.plot(figsize=figsize, grid=':');
```



# Training Histories

Let's have a look at the training history

```
In [21]: histories.plot(figsize=figsize, grid=':');
```



- Deeper networks tend to converge faster and to lower loss values
- ...But they also often **start** from a lower value (right after random initialization)
- This behavior is even now not completely understood

# Evaluation

## Let's have a look at the prediction quality

```
In [22]: pred_tr = {k: y_scaler.inverse_transform(nn.predict(X_tr_s, verbose=0)) for k, nn in sorted(nns)}
pred_ts = {k: y_scaler.inverse_transform(nn.predict(X_ts_s, verbose=0)) for k, nn in sorted(nns)}

r2_tr = {k: r2_score(y_tr, preds) for k, preds in sorted(pred_tr.items())}
r2_ts = {k: r2_score(y_ts, preds) for k, preds in sorted(pred_ts.items())}

for k in sorted(r2_tr.keys()):
    print(f'r2 score for {k}: {r2_tr[k]:.3f} (training), {r2_ts[k]:.3f} (test)')

r2 score for 0l: 0.690 (training), 0.646 (test)
r2 score for 1l: 0.813 (training), 0.692 (test)
r2 score for 2l: 0.859 (training), 0.719 (test)
r2 score for 4l: 0.891 (training), 0.680 (test)
r2 score for 8l: 0.928 (training), 0.648 (test)
```

- Adding layers improves the behavior on the training set
- Too many layers may lead to overfitting

**This is actually expected, since deeper networks have higher variance**

# Keeping Overfitting at Bay

## How do we reduce overfitting for deep networks?

- We can of course tune the number of layers (and that's a good solution)
- ...But we lose some of the advantage of depth by doing that

...So what else can we do?

## The first ingredient is **Stochastic** Gradient Descent

Let's see what happens if we switch to classical Gradient Descent

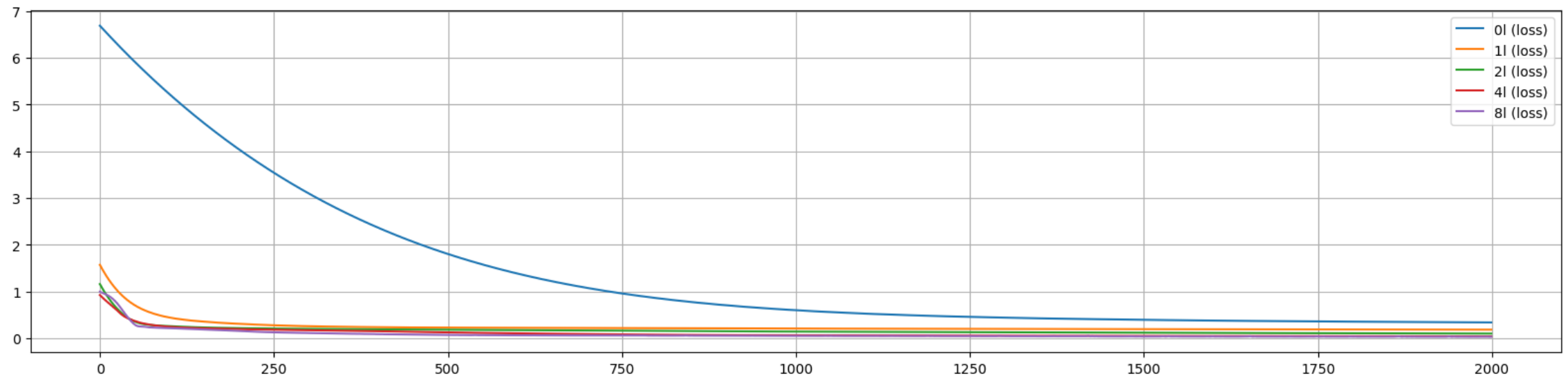
```
In [23]: nns_gd = {f'{k}l': build_nn(input_shape=(len(in_cols), ), hidden=[16] * k) for k in (8, 4, 2, 1),
          histories_gd = []
          for l, nn in sorted(nns_gd.items()):
              history = train_nn(nn, X_tr_s, y_tr_s, batch_size=len(X_tr), epochs=250*8, verbose=0)
              histories_gd.append(history.rename(columns={c:f'{l} ({c})' for c in history.columns}))
          histories_gd = pd.concat(histories_gd, axis=1)
```

- We need to rebuild the networks since keras **does not reset weights**
- Since we are making fewer iterations per epoch, we need to use more epochs

# Training Histories wit Classical GD

Let's have a look at the new training histories

```
In [24]: histories_gd.plot(figsize=figsize, grid=':');
```



- These are not unlike the previous ones
- ...And in all cases we are reasonably close to convergence

# Quality Evaluation with Classical GD

...But the prediction quality is considerably worse on unseen data!

```
In [25]: pred_tr_gd = {k: y_scaler.inverse_transform(nn.predict(X_tr_s, verbose=0)) for k, nn in sorted(rn.items())}
pred_ts_gd = {k: y_scaler.inverse_transform(nn.predict(X_ts_s, verbose=0)) for k, nn in sorted(rn.items())}
r2_tr_gd = {k: r2_score(y_tr, preds) for k, preds in sorted(pred_tr_gd.items())}
r2_ts_gd = {k: r2_score(y_ts, preds) for k, preds in sorted(pred_ts_gd.items())}
for k in sorted(r2_tr_gd.keys()):
    print(f'r2 score for {k}: {r2_tr_gd[k]:.3f} (training), {r2_ts_gd[k]:.3f} (test)')
```

```
r2 score for 01: 0.663 (training), 0.610 (test)
r2 score for 11: 0.818 (training), 0.702 (test)
r2 score for 21: 0.902 (training), 0.684 (test)
r2 score for 41: 0.961 (training), 0.459 (test)
r2 score for 81: 0.969 (training), 0.387 (test)
```



# Quality Evaluation with Classical GD

...But the prediction quality is considerably worse on unseen data!

```
In [25]: pred_tr_gd = {k: y_scaler.inverse_transform(nn.predict(X_tr_s, verbose=0)) for k, nn in sorted(rn.items())}
pred_ts_gd = {k: y_scaler.inverse_transform(nn.predict(X_ts_s, verbose=0)) for k, nn in sorted(rn.items())}
r2_tr_gd = {k: r2_score(y_tr, preds) for k, preds in sorted(pred_tr_gd.items())}
r2_ts_gd = {k: r2_score(y_ts, preds) for k, preds in sorted(pred_ts_gd.items())}
for k in sorted(r2_tr_gd.keys()):
    print(f'r2 score for {k}: {r2_tr_gd[k]:.3f} (training), {r2_ts_gd[k]:.3f} (test)')
```

r2 score for 01: 0.663 (training), 0.610 (test)  
r2 score for 11: 0.818 (training), 0.702 (test)  
r2 score for 21: 0.902 (training), 0.684 (test)  
r2 score for 41: 0.961 (training), 0.459 (test)  
r2 score for 81: 0.969 (training), 0.387 (test)

**Deep networks have many local optima**

- Using randomize mini-batches tends to lead the training process
- ...Toward local optima that are robust to perturbations

# Early Stopping

A simple, but effective, option consists in using an **early stopping callback**

- At training time, we monitor the performance on a validation set
- ...And we stop training if we don't improve enough on that one

```
In [26]: def train_nn_es(nn, X_tr, y_tr, batch_size, epochs, verbose=1, patience=30):
nn.compile(loss='mse', optimizer='adam')
cb = [keras.callbacks.EarlyStopping(monitor='val_loss', patience=patience, restore_best_weights=True)]
history = nn.fit(X_tr, y_tr, batch_size=batch_size, epochs=epochs, verbose=verbose,
                 callbacks=cb, validation_split=0.2)
cols = [k for k in history.history.keys()]
vals = np.array([history.history[c] for c in cols]).T
return pd.DataFrame(data=vals, columns=cols)

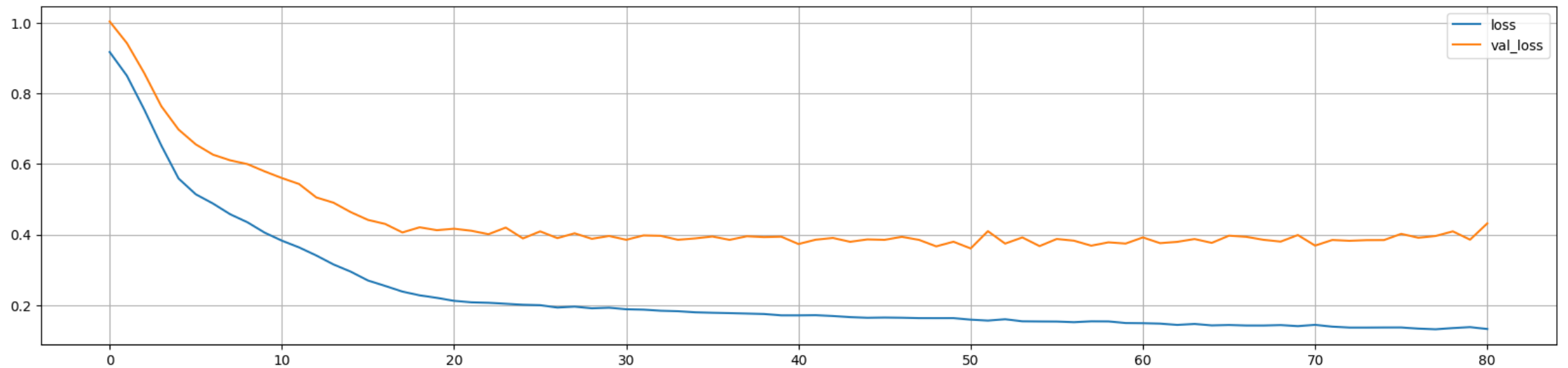
nn8_es = build_nn(input_shape=(len(in_cols), ), hidden=[16] * 8)
history8_es = train_nn_es(nn8_es, X_tr_s, y_tr_s, batch_size=32, epochs=250, verbose=0)
```

- Typically, the callback waits for a number of epochs (patience)
- If no improvement is achieved within that time frame, training is stopped

# Training History with Early Stopping

Let's have a look at the training for the 8-level network

```
In [27]: history8_es.plot(figsize=figsize, grid=':');
```



- We stopped far earlier than the 250 epochs limit

# Prediction Quality with Early Stopping

## Let's check the prediction quality

```
In [28]: pred_tr_nn8_es = y_scaler.inverse_transform(nn8_es.predict(X_tr_s, verbose=0))
pred_ts_nn8_es = y_scaler.inverse_transform(nn8_es.predict(X_ts_s, verbose=0))

r2_tr_nn8_es = r2_score(y_tr, pred_tr_nn8_es)
r2_ts_nn8_es = r2_score(y_ts, pred_ts_nn8_es)

print(f'r2 score for 8l (original): {r2_tr["8l"]:.3f} (training), {r2_ts["8l"]:.3f} (test)')
print(f'r2 score for 8l (es): {r2_tr_nn8_es:.3f} (training), {r2_ts_nn8_es:.3f} (test)')

r2 score for 8l (original): 0.928 (training), 0.648 (test)
r2 score for 8l (es): 0.801 (training), 0.682 (test)
```

- We are doing worse on the training data
- ...But a bit better on unseen examples!

# Dropout

Another consists in using the **dropout** regularization technique

Dropout consists in removing network arcs at random a training time

- At each gradient descent iteration, arcs are removed with a rate  $p$
- Once the iteration is over, everything is restored

**The approach forces the network to develop some redundancy**

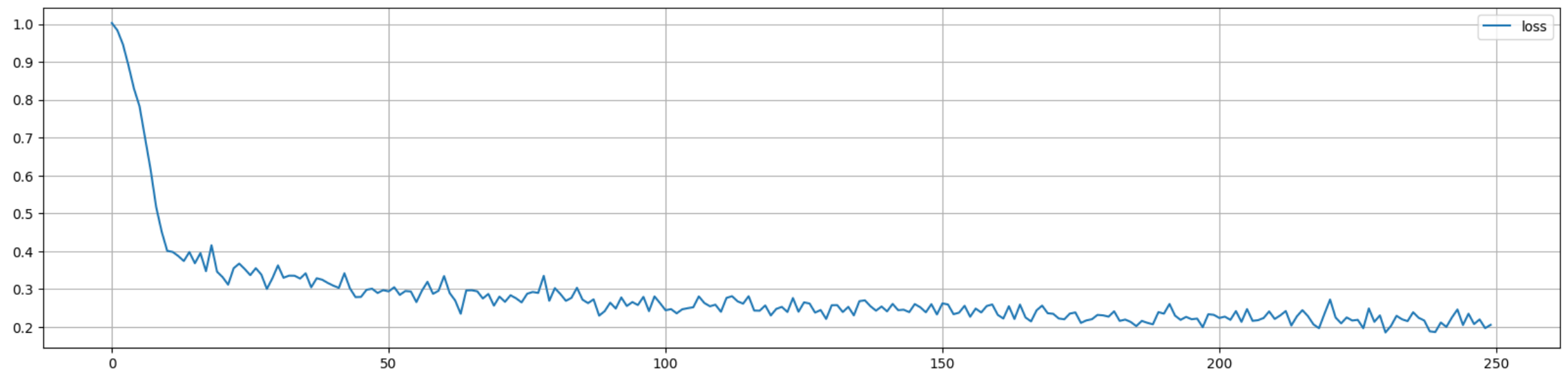
In Keras, dropout is implemented as a special layer:

```
In [29]: def build_nn_do(input_shape, hidden, rate=0.05):  
    mdl = keras.Sequential()  
    mdl.add(keras.Input(shape=input_shape))  
    for k, h in enumerate(hidden):  
        mdl.add(Dense(h, activation='relu'))  
        mdl.add(keras.layers.Dropout(rate))  
    mdl.add(Dense(1, activation='linear'))  
    return mdl
```

# Training a Network with Dropout

## Let's train our deeper network with dropout

```
In [30]: nn8_do = build_nn_do(input_shape=(len(in_cols), ), hidden=[16] * 8)
history8_do = train_nn(nn8_do, X_tr_s, y_tr_s, batch_size=32, epochs=250, verbose=0)
history8_do.plot(figsize=figsize, grid=':');
```



- We will not use an early stopping callback in this case
- ...So preventing overfitting is totally up to the dropout layer

# Quality Evaluation with Dropout

Let's check (one last time) the prediction quality

```
In [31]: pred_tr_nn8_do = y_scaler.inverse_transform(nn8_do.predict(X_tr_s, verbose=0))
pred_ts_nn8_do = y_scaler.inverse_transform(nn8_do.predict(X_ts_s, verbose=0))

r2_tr_nn8_do = r2_score(y_tr, pred_tr_nn8_do)
r2_ts_nn8_do = r2_score(y_ts, pred_ts_nn8_do)

print(f'r2 score for 8l (original): {r2_tr["8l"]:.3f} (training), {r2_ts["8l"]:.3f} (test)')
print(f'r2 score for 8l (es): {r2_tr_nn8_es:.3f} (training), {r2_ts_nn8_es:.3f} (test)')
print(f'r2 score for 8l (dropout): {r2_tr_nn8_do:.3f} (training), {r2_ts_nn8_do:.3f} (test)')

r2 score for 8l (original): 0.928 (training), 0.648 (test)
r2 score for 8l (es): 0.801 (training), 0.682 (test)
r2 score for 8l (dropout): 0.825 (training), 0.702 (test)
```

- Dropout is considerably improving our test score
- Even without any access to unseen examples at training time
- ...Since we are not using a validation set!

# Considerations and Take Home Messages

## **Deep network are a powerful tool**

- They dramatically improve the variance of NN models
- ...And allow to tweak the bias/variance trade off by adjusting the depth

## **DNs should use ReLUs in the hidden layers**

...Due to the vanishing gradient problem

- Unless of course there a very good reason to do otherwise

## **DNs should always be trained with stochastic gradient descent**

...Since that helps reducing overfitting

- There are of course exceptions
- ...But those need to be well motivated

## **Other techniques to control overfitting include**

...Early stopping callbacks and dropout