

# DEEP LEARNING FOR ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE

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+ info: <http://dlai.deeplearning.barcelona>

Day 2 Lecture 1

# Multilayer Perceptron



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# Acknowledgements



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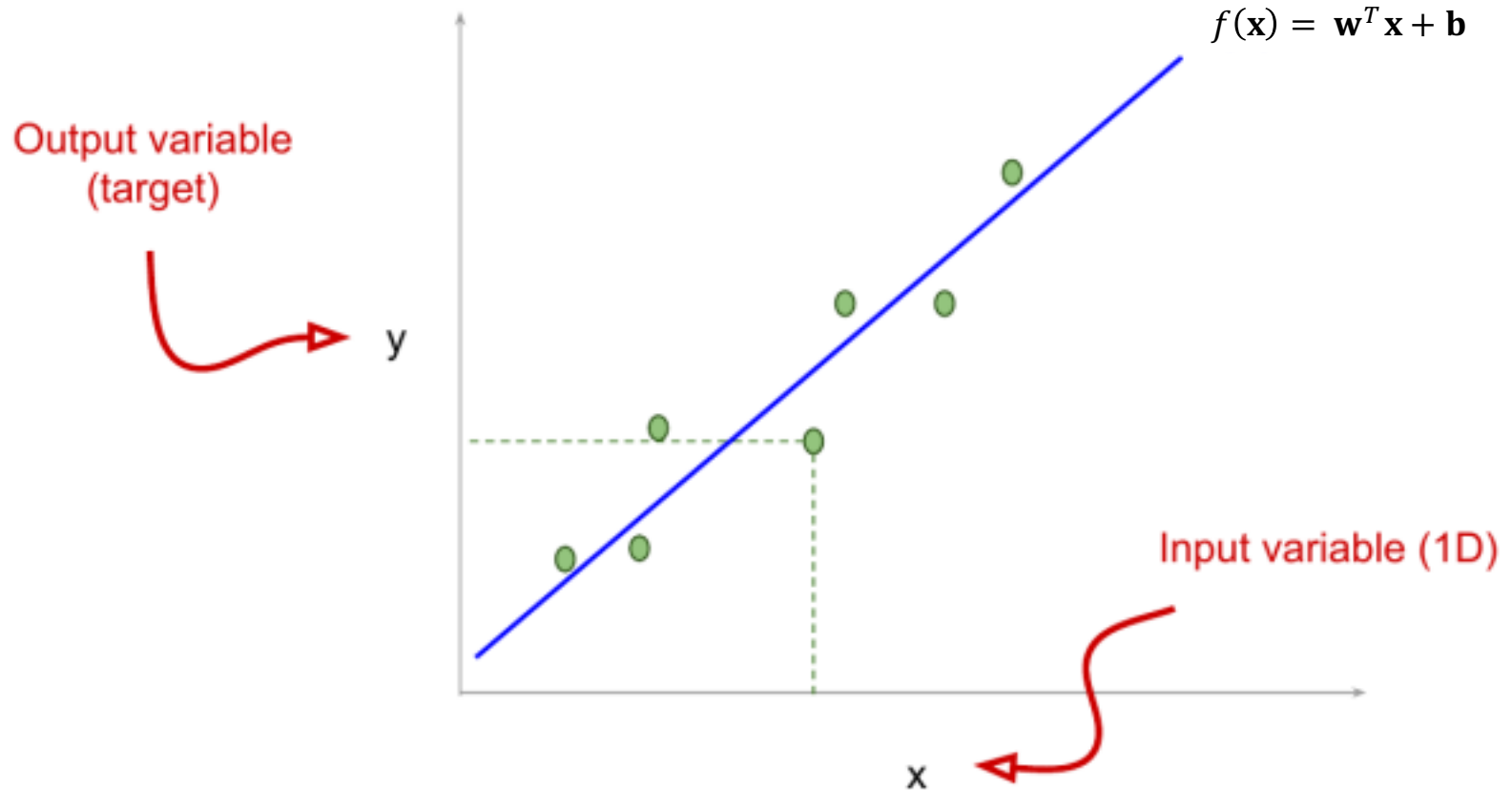
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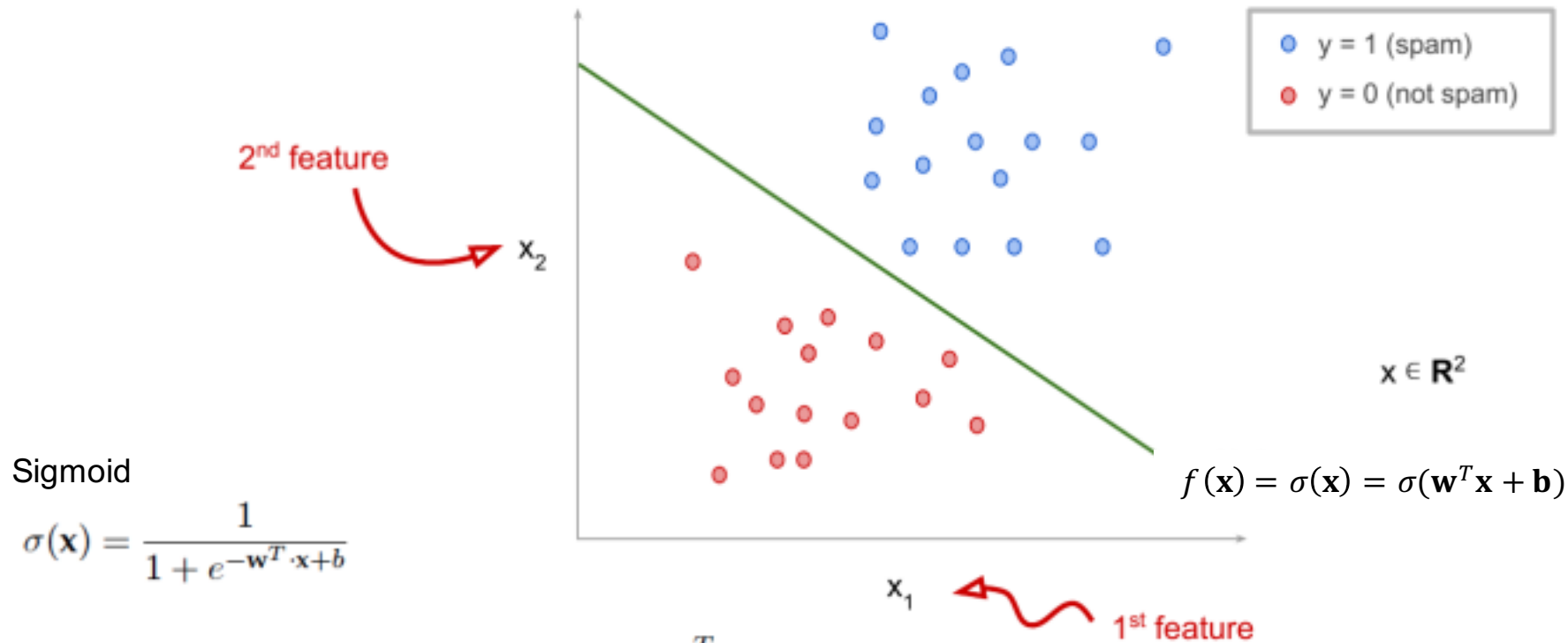


...in our last lecture

# Linear Regression (eg. 1D input - 1D output)



# Binary Classification (eg. 2D input, 1D output)



Sigmoid

$$\sigma(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{x} + b}}$$

MultiClass: Softmax

$$P(y = k|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w}_k}{\sum_{n=1}^N \exp \mathbf{x}^T \mathbf{w}_n}$$

# Non-linear decision boundaries

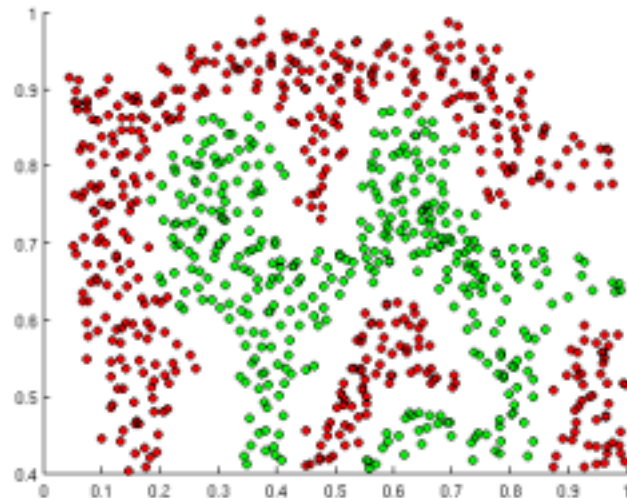
Linear models can only produce linear decision boundaries

Real world data often needs a non-linear decision boundary

Images

Audio

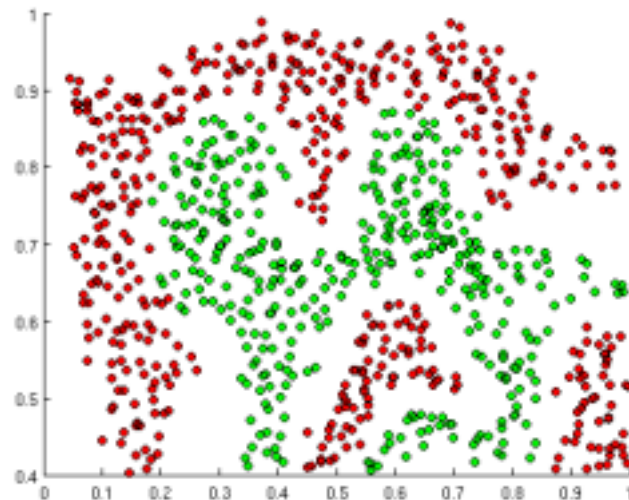
Text



# Non-linear decision boundaries

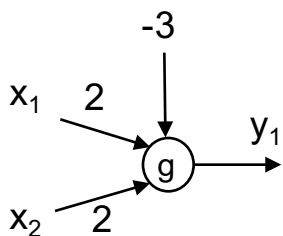
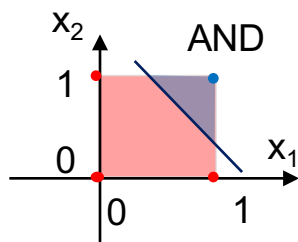
## What can we do?

1. Use a non-linear classifier
  - Decision trees (and forests)
  - K nearest neighbors
2. Engineer a suitable representation
  - One in which features are more linearly separable
  - Then use a linear model
3. Engineer a kernel
  - Design a kernel  $K(x_1, x_2)$
  - Use kernel methods (e.g. SVM)
4. Learn a suitable representation space from the data
  - Deep learning, deep neural networks
  - Boosted cascade classifiers like Viola Jones also take this approach



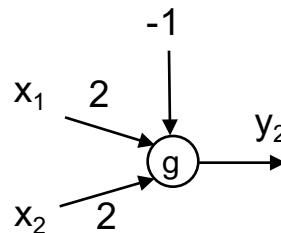
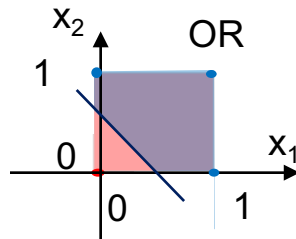
## Example: X-OR.

AND and OR can be generated with a single perceptron



Input vector ( $x_1, x_2$ )	Class AND
(0,0)	0
(0,1)	0
(1,0)	0
(1,1)	1

$$y_1 = g(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b) = u((2 \ 2) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} - 3)$$



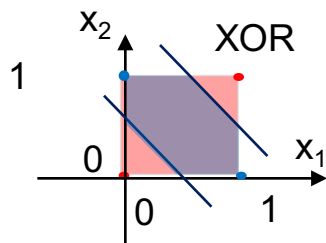
Input vector ( $x_1, x_2$ )	Class OR
(0,0)	0
(0,1)	1
(1,0)	1
(1,1)	1

$$y_2 = g(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b) = u((2 \ 2) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} - 1)$$



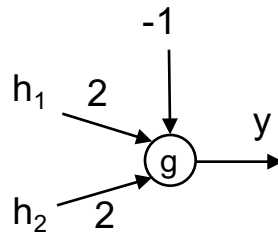
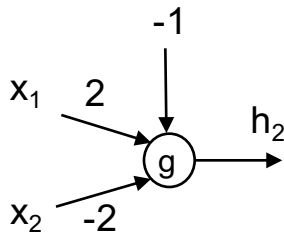
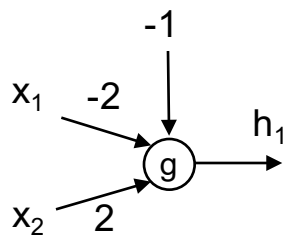
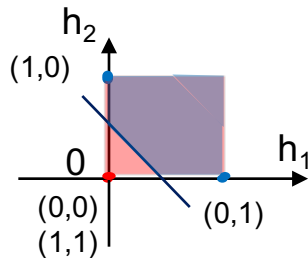
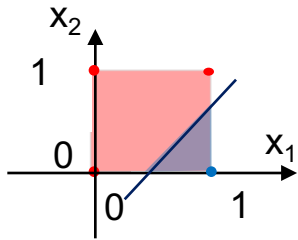
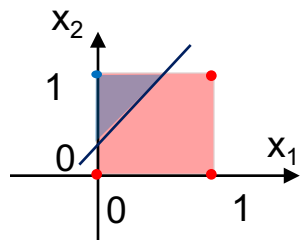
## Example: X-OR

X-OR a Non-linear separable problem can not be generated with a single perceptron



Input vector ( $x_1, x_2$ )	Class XOR
(0,0)	0
(0,1)	1
(1,0)	1
(1,1)	0

# Example: X-OR. However.....

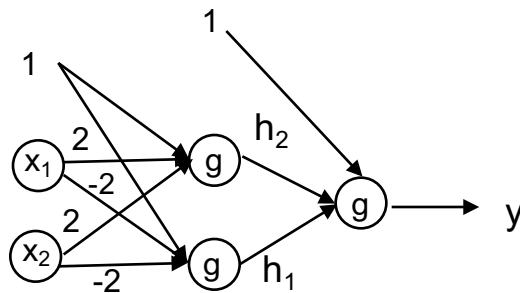
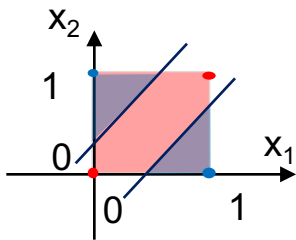


$$h_1 = g(\mathbf{w}_{11}^T \mathbf{x} + b_{11}) = u((-2 \ 2) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} - 1)$$

$$h_2 = g(\mathbf{w}_{12}^T \mathbf{x} + b_{12}) = u((2 \ -2) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} + 1)$$

$$y = g(\mathbf{w}_2^T \mathbf{h} + b_2) = u((2 \ -2) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \end{pmatrix} + 1)$$

# Example: X-OR. Finally



Input layer      Hidden layer      Output Layer

Three layer Network:

- Input Layer
- Hidden Layer
- Output Layer

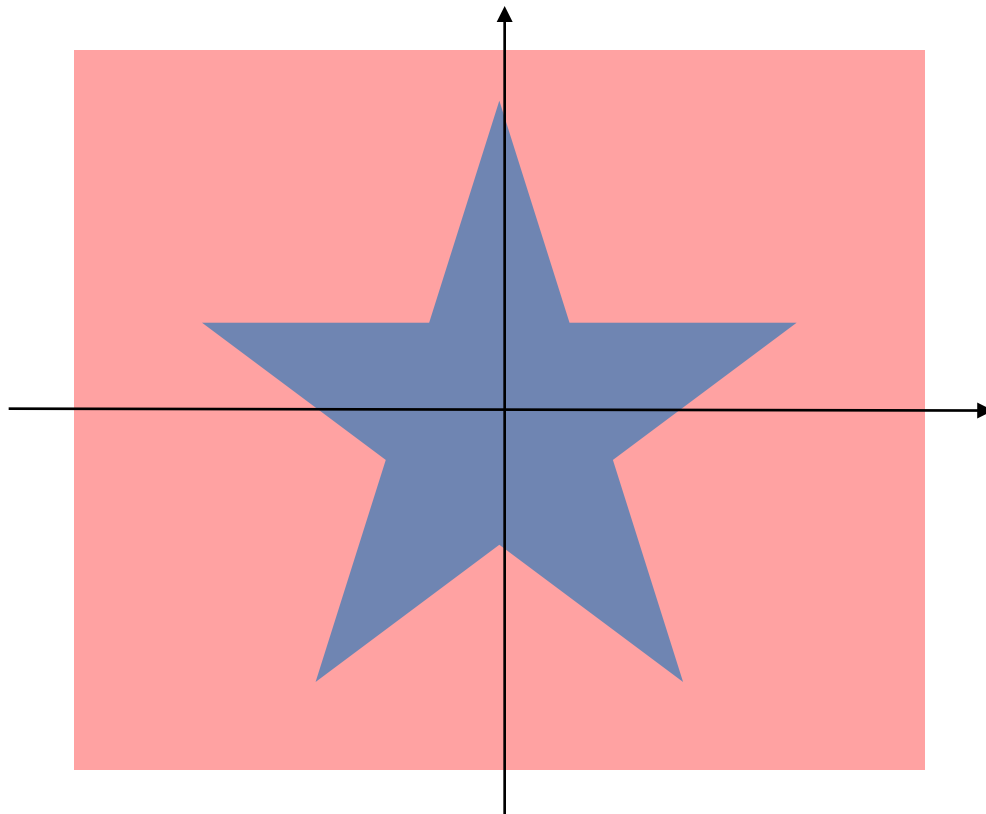
2-2-1 Fully connected topology  
(all neurons in a layer connected  
Connected to all neurons in the  
following layer)

$$h_1 = g(\mathbf{w}_{11}^T \mathbf{x} + b_{11}) = u((-2 \quad -2) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} - 1)$$

$$h_2 = g(\mathbf{w}_{12}^T \mathbf{x} + b_{12}) = u((2 \quad -2) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} + 1)$$

$$y = g(\mathbf{w}_2^T \mathbf{h} + b_2) = u((2 \quad -2) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \end{pmatrix} + 1)$$

## Another Example: Star Region (Univ. Texas)



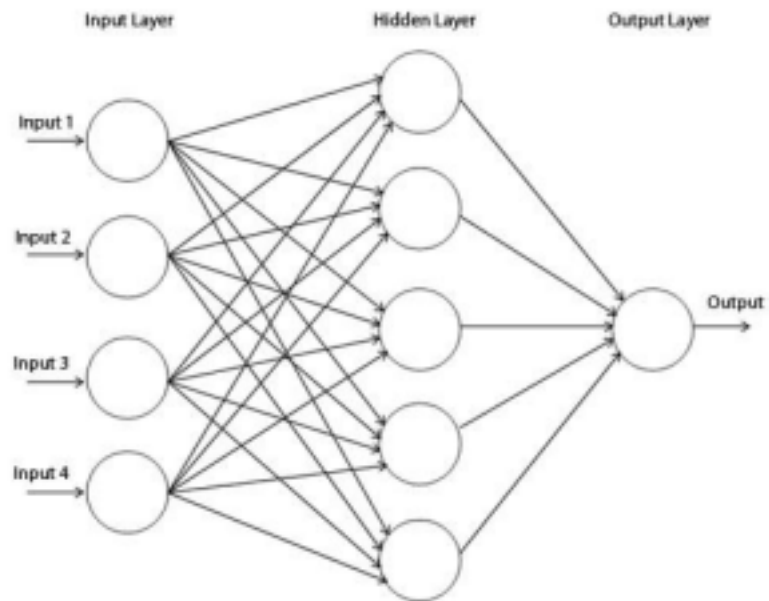
# Neural networks

A neural network is simply a **composition** of simple neurons into several layers

Each neuron simply computes a **linear combination** of its inputs, adds a bias, and passes the result through an **activation function**  $g(x)$

The network can contain one or more **hidden layers**. The outputs of these hidden layers can be thought of as a new **representation** of the data (new features).

The final output is the **target** variable ( $y = f(x)$ )



# Multilayer perceptrons

When each node in each layer is a linear combination of **all inputs from the previous layer** then the network is called a multilayer perceptron (MLP)

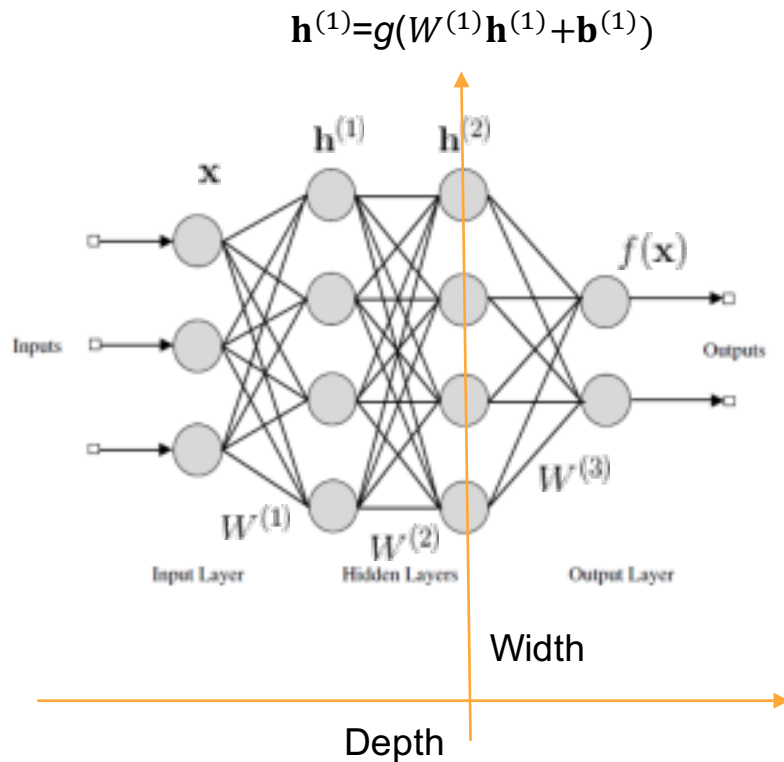
Weights can be organized into matrices.

**Forward pass** computes

$$\mathbf{h}_0 = \mathbf{x}$$

$$\mathbf{h}^{(t)} = g(W^{(t)}\mathbf{h}^{(t-1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(t)})$$

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{h}^{(L)}$$



# Activation functions

(AKA. transfer functions, nonlinearities, units)

Question:

Why do we need these nonlinearities at all? Why not just make everything linear?

.....composition of linear transformations would be equivalent to one linear transformation

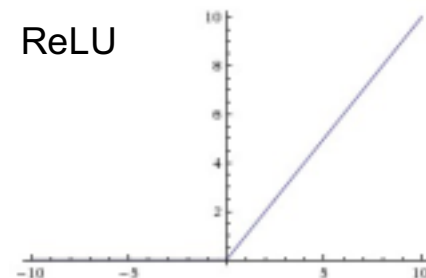
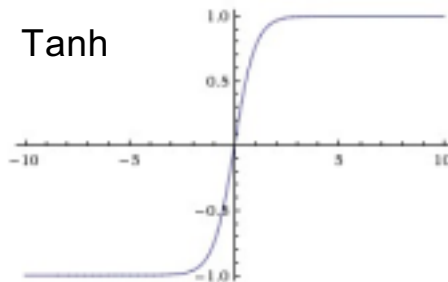
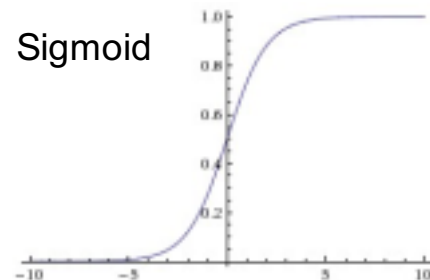
Desirable properties

Mostly smooth, continuous, differentiable

Fairly linear

Common nonlinearities

Sigmoid    Tanh     $\text{ReLU} = \max(0, x)$     LeakyReLU



# Universal approximation theorem

[Universal approximation theorem](#) states that “the standard multilayer feed-forward network with a **single hidden layer**, which contains **finite number of hidden neurons**, is a **universal approximator** among continuous functions on compact subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ , under mild assumptions on the activation function.”

**If a 2 layer NN is a universal approximator, then why do we need deep nets??**

**The universal approximation theorem:**

Says nothing about the how easy/difficult it is to fit such approximators

Needs a “finite number of hidden neurons”: finite may be extremely large

*In practice, deep nets can usually represent more complex functions with less total neurons (and therefore, less parameters)*



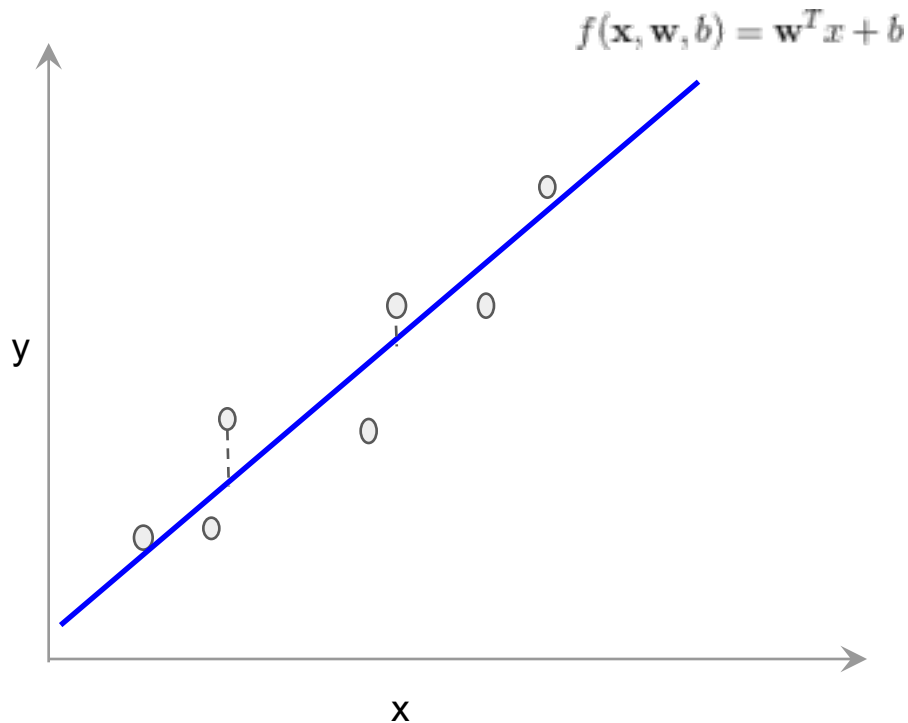
...Learning

# Linear regression – Loss Function

$$X = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}_1^T \\ \mathbf{x}_2^T \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{x}_N^T \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D} \quad \mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^N$$

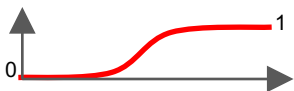
Loss function is square (Euclidean) loss

$$L(X, y, \mathbf{w}, b) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - f(x_i, \mathbf{w}, b))^2$$



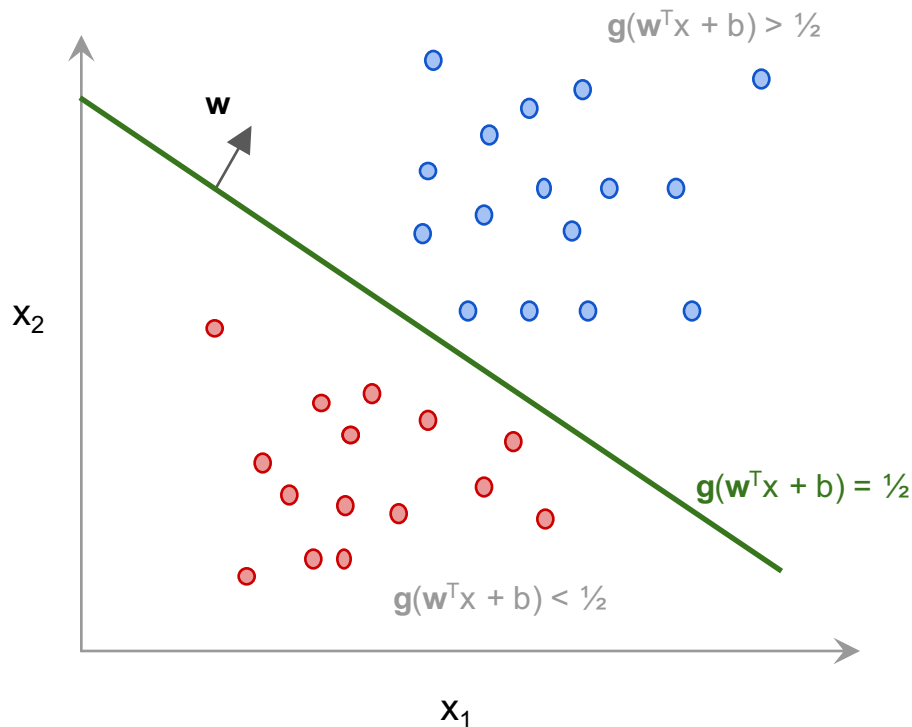
# Logistic regression

Activation function is the sigmoid

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


Loss function is cross entropy

$$L = -\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N y_i \log f(\mathbf{x}_i) + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - f(\mathbf{x}_i))$$



# Fitting linear models

E.g. linear regression

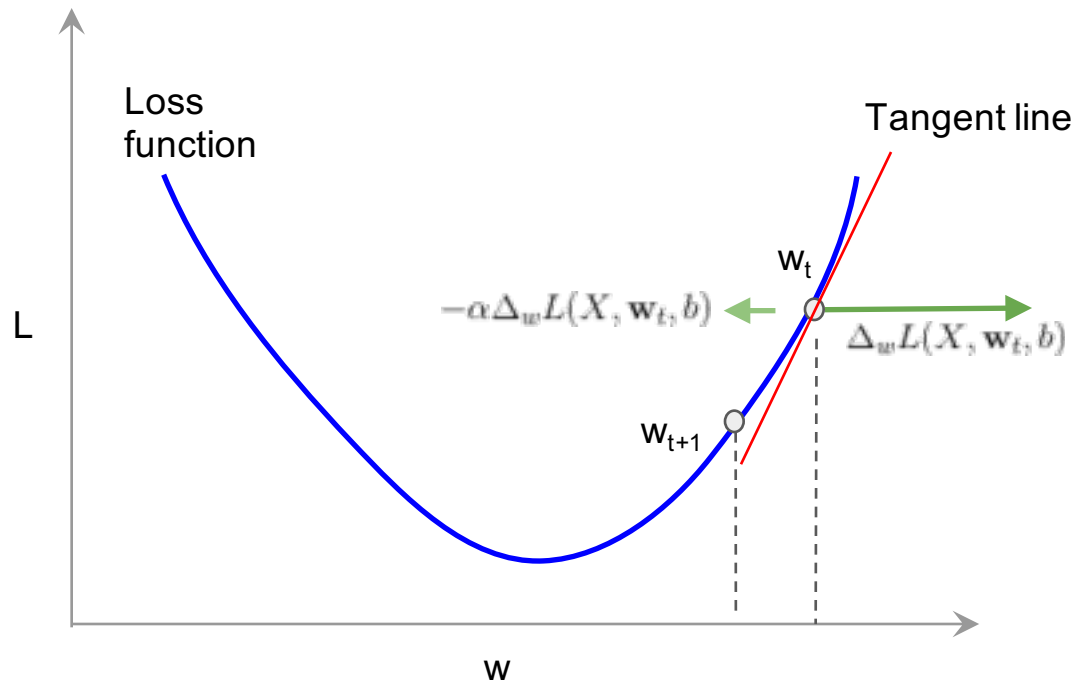
$$L(X, y, \mathbf{w}, b) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_i - f(x_i, \mathbf{w}, b))^2$$

Need to **optimize**  $L$

Gradient descent

$$\Delta_w L = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (f(x_i) - y_i) x_i$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{t+1} = \mathbf{w}_t - \alpha \Delta_w L(X, \mathbf{w}_t, b)$$



# Choosing the learning rate

For **first order** optimization methods, we need to choose a learning rate (aka **step size**)

Too large: overshoots local minimum, loss increases

Too small: makes very slow progress, can get stuck

Good learning rate: makes steady progress toward local minimum

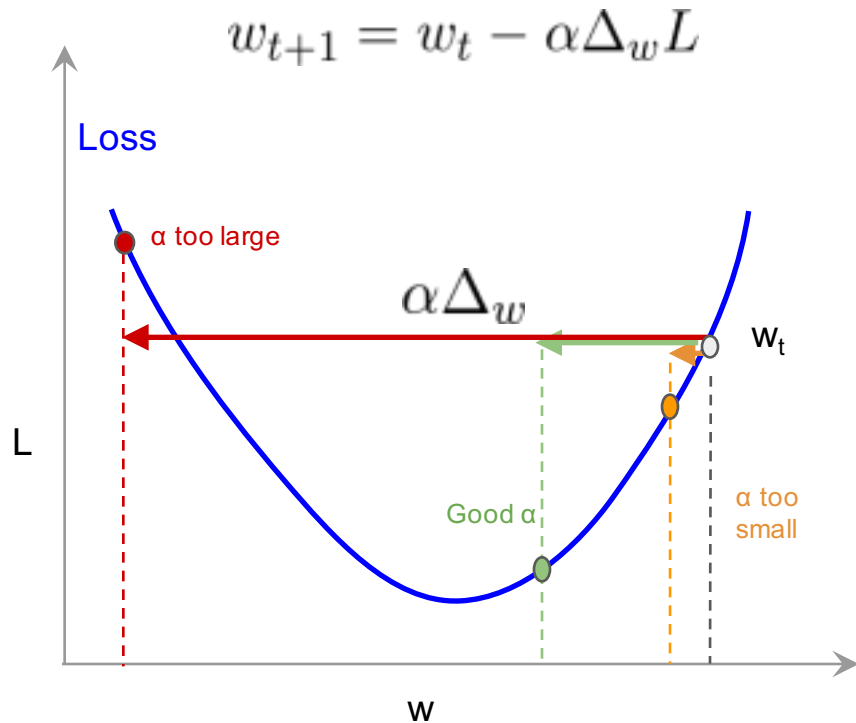
Usually want a higher learning rate at the start and a lower one later on.

Common strategy in practice:

Start off with a high LR (like 0.1 - 0.001),

Run for several **epochs** (1 - 10)

Decrease LR by multiplying a constant factor (0.1 - 0.5)



# Training

Estimate parameters  $\theta(W^{(k)}, b^{(k)})$  from training examples

Given a Loss Function  $W^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(f_{\theta}(x), y)$

In general no close form solutions:

- Iteratively adapt each parameter, numerical approximation

Basic idea: **gradient descent**.

- Dependencies are very complex.

Global minimum: challenging. Local minima: can be good enough.

- Initialization influences in the solutions.

# Training

Gradient Descent: Move the parameter  $\theta_j$  in small steps in the direction opposite sign of the derivative of the loss with respect  $j$ .

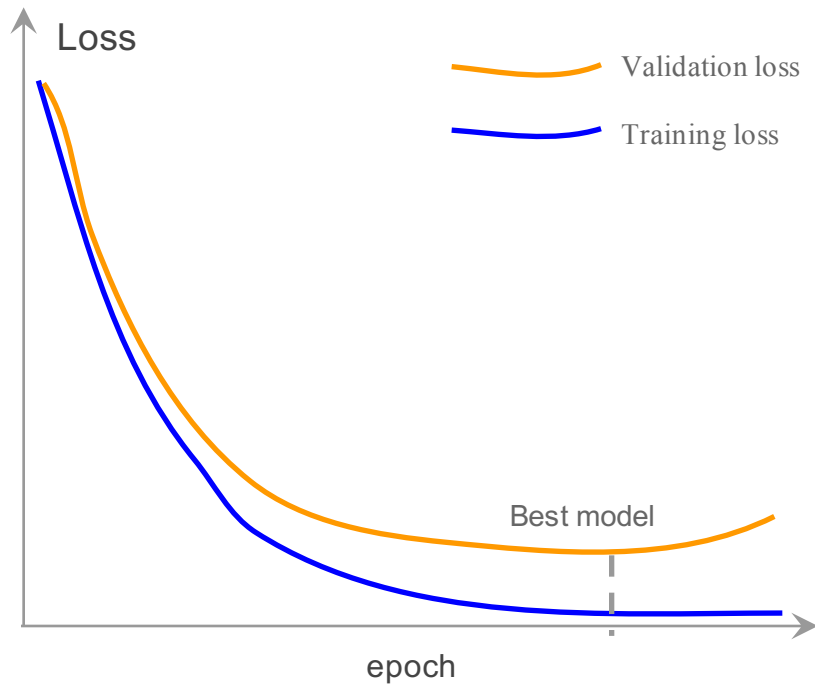
$$\theta^{(n)} = \theta^{(n-1)} - \alpha^{(n-1)} \cdot \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}(y, f(x))$$

- Stochastic gradient descent (SGD): estimate the gradient with one sample, or better, with a **minibatch** of examples.
- **Momentum**: the movement direction of parameters averages the gradient estimation with previous ones.

Several strategies have been proposed to update the weights: Adam, RMSProp, Adamax, etc. known as: **optimizers**

# Training and monitoring progress

1. Split data into train, validation, and test sets  
Keep 10-30% of data for validation
2. Fit model parameters on train set using SGD
3. After each epoch:  
**Test model on validation set** and compute loss  
Also compute whatever **other metrics** you are interested in  
Save a snapshot of the model
4. Plot **learning curves** as training progresses
5. Stop when validation loss starts to increase
6. Use model with minimum validation loss





# Gradient descent examples



## Linear regression

[http://nbviewer.jupyter.org/github/kevinmcguinness/ml-examples/blob/master/notebooks/GD\\_Regression.ipynb](http://nbviewer.jupyter.org/github/kevinmcguinness/ml-examples/blob/master/notebooks/GD_Regression.ipynb)

[https://github.com/kevinmcguinness/ml-examples/blob/master/notebooks/GD\\_Regression.ipynb](https://github.com/kevinmcguinness/ml-examples/blob/master/notebooks/GD_Regression.ipynb)

## Logistic regression

[http://nbviewer.jupyter.org/github/kevinmcguinness/ml-examples/blob/master/notebooks/GD\\_Classification.ipynb](http://nbviewer.jupyter.org/github/kevinmcguinness/ml-examples/blob/master/notebooks/GD_Classification.ipynb)

[https://github.com/kevinmcguinness/ml-examples/blob/master/notebooks/GD\\_Classification.ipynb](https://github.com/kevinmcguinness/ml-examples/blob/master/notebooks/GD_Classification.ipynb)

# MNIST Example

## Handwritten digits

- 60.000 examples
- 10.000 test examples
- 10 classes (digits 0-9)
- 28x28 grayscale images(784 pixels)
- <http://yann.lecun.com/exdb/mnist/>



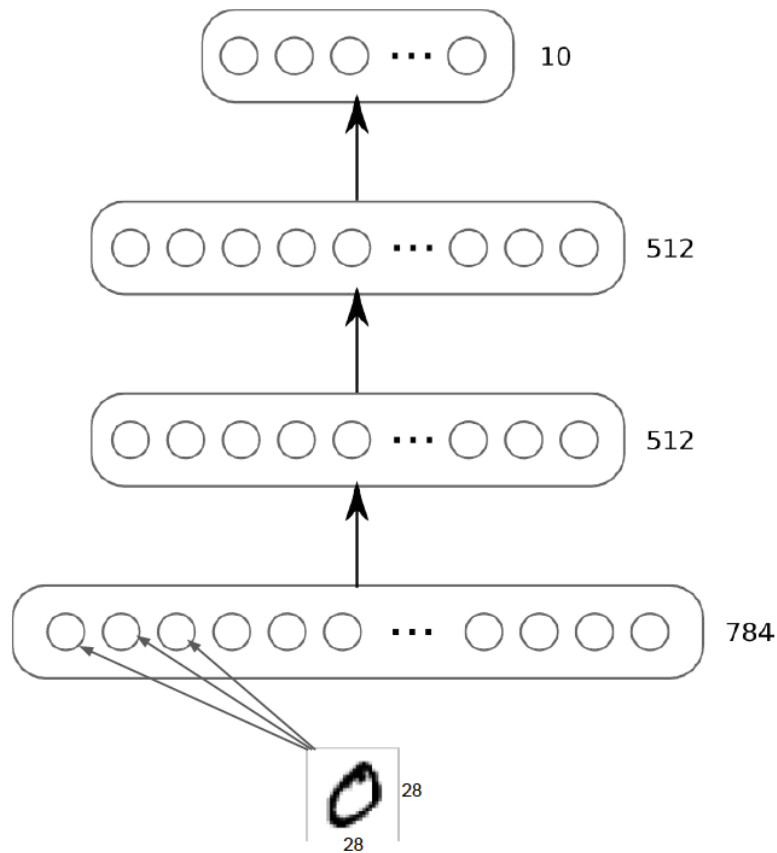
The objective is to learn a function that predicts the digit from the image

# MNIST Example

## Model

- 3 layer neural-network ( 2 hidden layers)
- Tanh units (activation function)
- 512-512-10
- Softmax on top layer
- Cross entropy Loss

Layer	#Weights	#Biases	Total
1	784 x 512	512	401,920
2	512 x 512	512	262,656
3	512 x 10	10	5,130
			<b>669,706</b>



# MNIST Example

## Training

- 40 epochs using min-batch SGD
- Batch Size: 128
- Learning Rate: 0.1 (fixed)
- Takes 5 minutes to train on GPU

## Accuracy Results

- 98.12% (188 errors in 10.000 test examples)

there are ways to improve accuracy...

## Metrics

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

there are other metrics....

# Training MLPs

With Multiple layers we need to find the gradient of the loss function with respect to all the parameters of the model ( $W^{(k)}$ ,  $b^{(k)}$ )

These can be found using the **chain rule** of differentiation.

The calculations reveal that the gradient wrt. the parameters in layer  $k$  only depends on the error from the above layer and the output from the layer below.

This means that the gradients for each layer can be computed iteratively, starting at the last layer and propagating the error back through the network. This is known as the **backpropagation** algorithm.