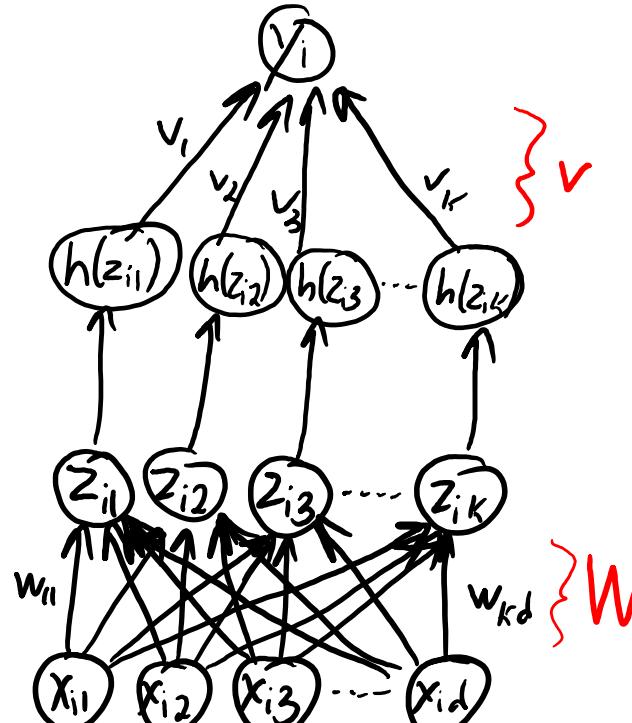


# CPSC 340: Machine Learning and Data Mining

More Deep Learning

Fall 2018

Neural network:

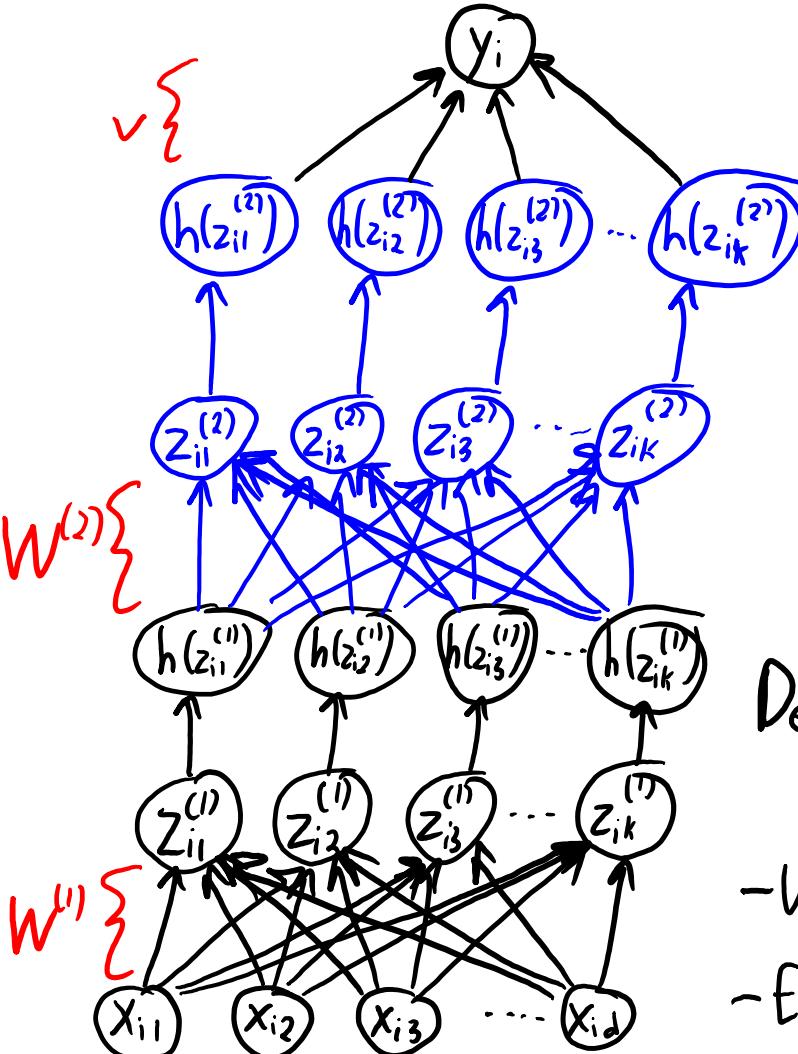


$$y_i = v^T h(Wx_i)$$

Learn ' $W$ ' and ' $v$ ' together.

- learn features for supervised learning.
- Non-linear ' $h$ ' makes it a universal approximator for large ' $K$ '

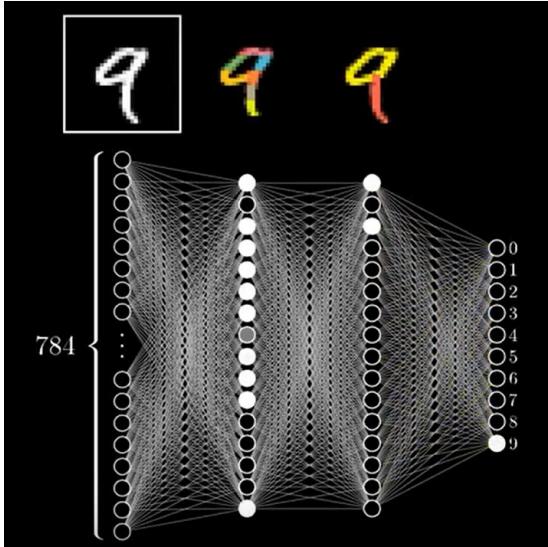
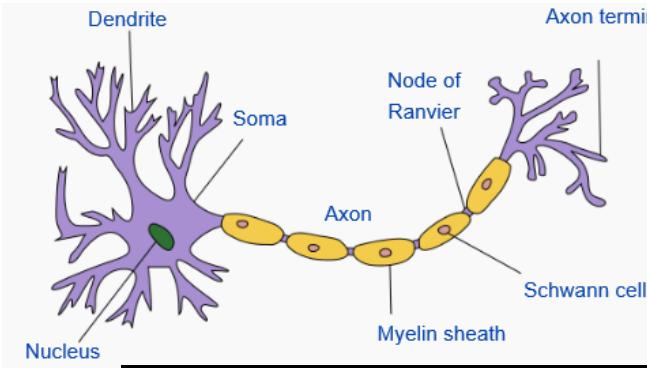
# Last Time: Deep Learning



Deep neural networks:

$$y_i = v^T h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i))$$

- Unprecedented performance on difficult problems.
- Each layer combines "parts" from previous layer.



# Deep Learning

Linear model:

$$\hat{y}_i = w^\top x_i$$

Neural network with 1 hidden layer:

$$\hat{y}_i = v^\top h(Wx_i)$$

Neural network with 2 hidden layers:

$$\hat{y}_i = v^\top h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i))$$

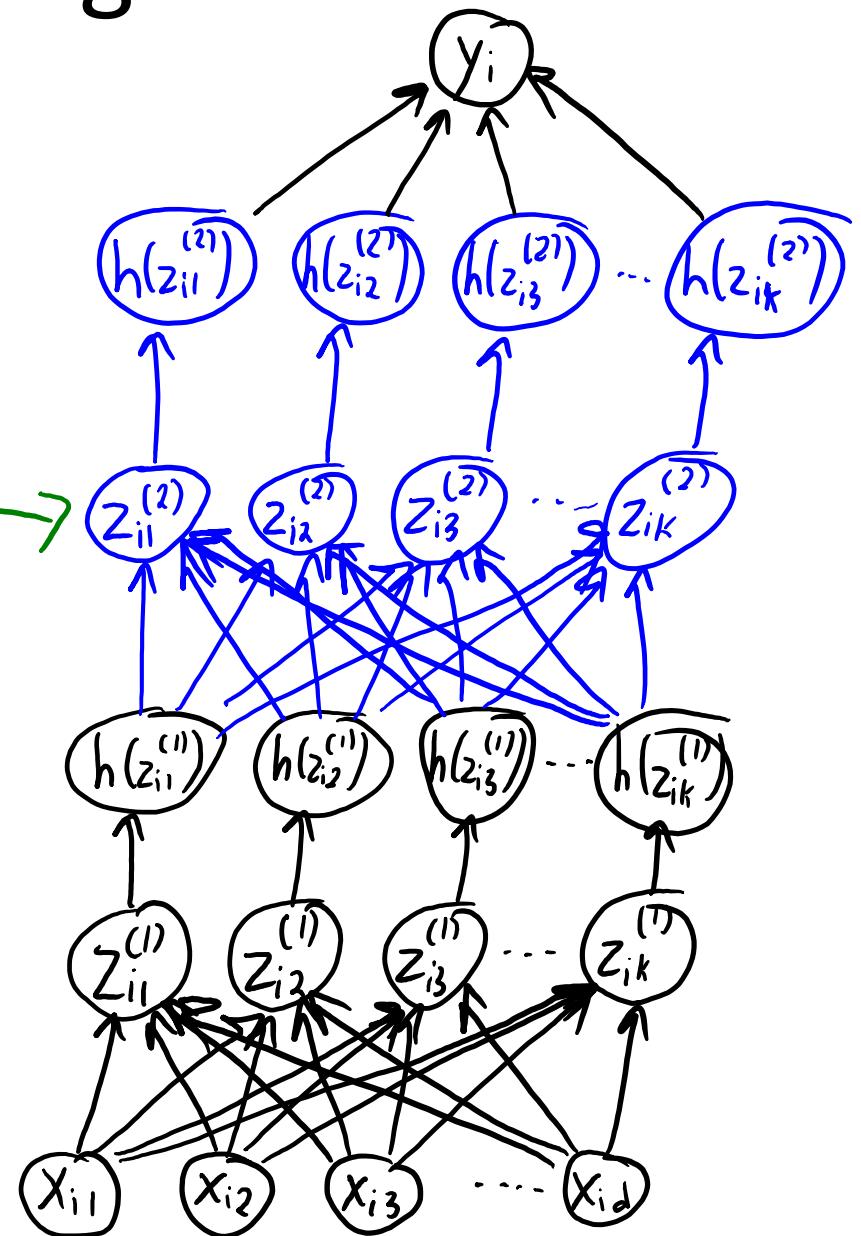
Neural network with 3 hidden layers

$$\hat{y}_i = v^\top h(W^{(3)} h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i)))$$

Deep learning:

Second "layer" of latent features

You can add more "layers" to go "deeper"



# Deep Learning

- For 4 layers, we could write the prediction as:

$$\hat{y}_i = v^T h(W^{(4)} h(W^{(3)} h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i))))$$

Symbol:

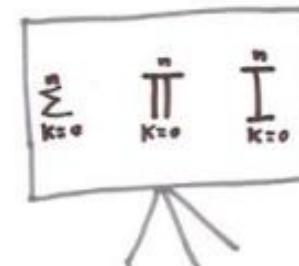
$$\prod_{k=0}^n f_k(+)$$

- For 'm' layers, we could use:

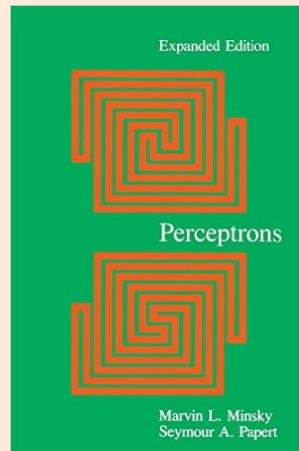
Meaning:

$$f_n \circ f_{n-1} \circ f_{n-2} \circ \dots \circ f_z \circ f_1 \circ f_0(+)$$

$$\hat{y}_i = w^T \left( \prod_{l=1}^m h(W^{(l)} x_i) \right)$$

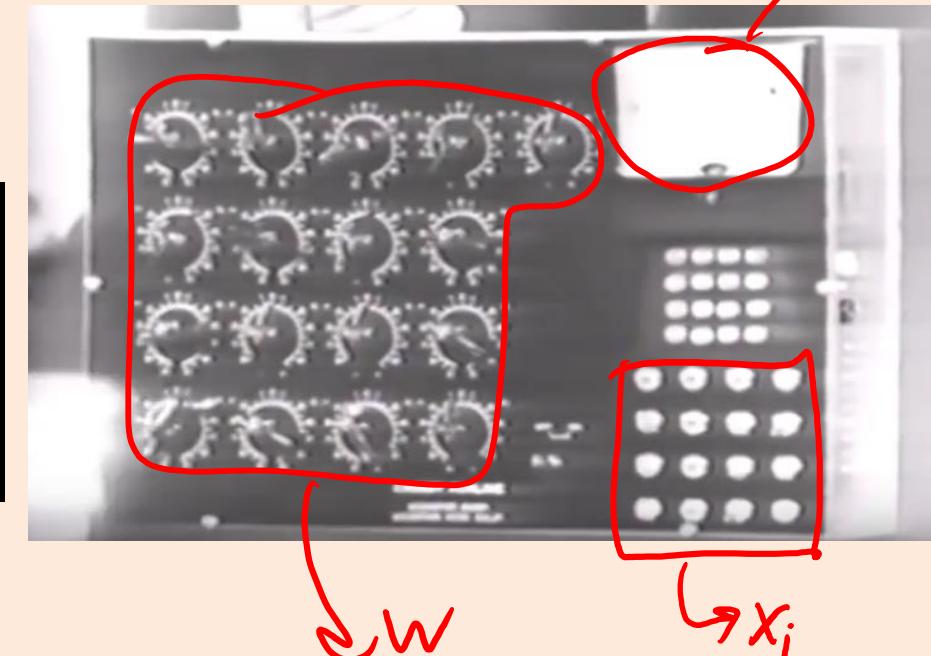
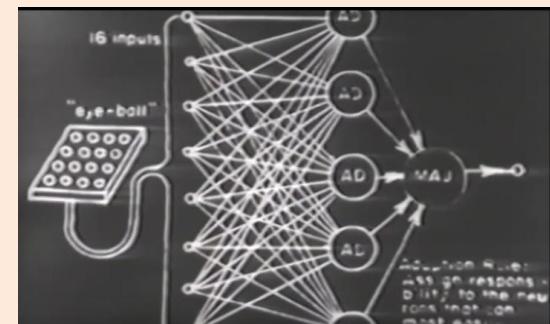


- I knew something was missing!



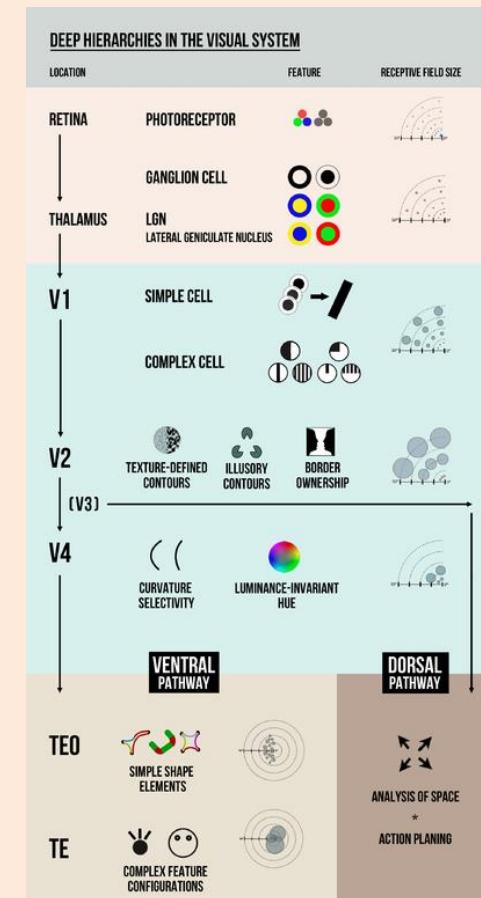
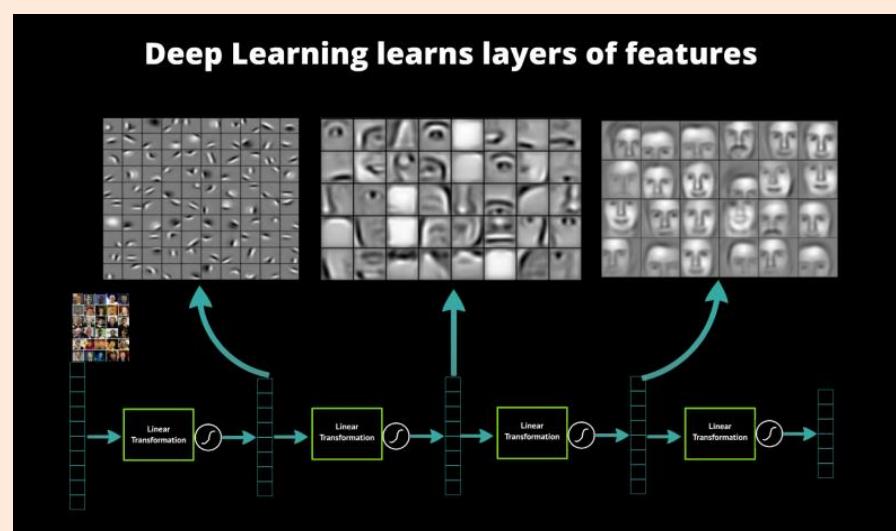
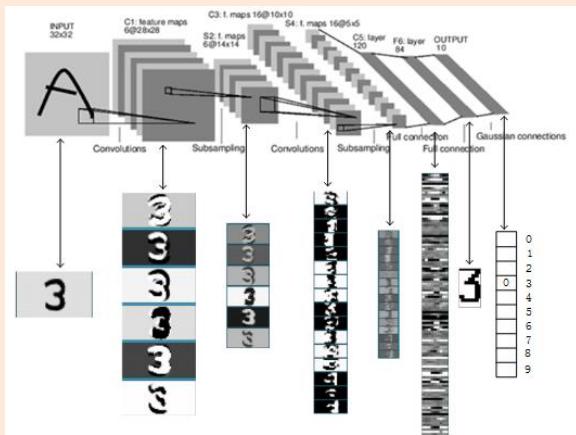
# ML and Deep Learning History

- 1950 and 1960s: Initial excitement.
  - Perceptron: linear classifier and stochastic gradient (roughly).
  - “the embryo of an electronic computer that [the Navy] expects will be able to walk, talk, see, write, reproduce itself and be conscious of its existence.” New York Times (1958).
    - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IEFRtz68m-8>
  - Marvin Minsky assigns object recognition to his students as a summer project
- Then drop in popularity:
  - Quickly realized **limitations of linear models.**



# ML and Deep Learning History

- 1970 and 1980s: **Connectionism** (brain-inspired ML)
  - Want “connected networks of simple units”.
    - Use **parallel computation** and **distributed representations**.
  - Adding hidden layers  $z_i$  increases expressive power.
    - With 1 layer and enough sigmoid units, a **universal approximator**.
  - Success in optical character recognition.



[https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Sensory\\_Systems/Visual\\_Signal\\_Processing](https://en.wikibooks.org/wiki/Sensory_Systems/Visual_Signal_Processing)

<http://www.datarobot.com/blog/a-primer-on-deep-learning/>

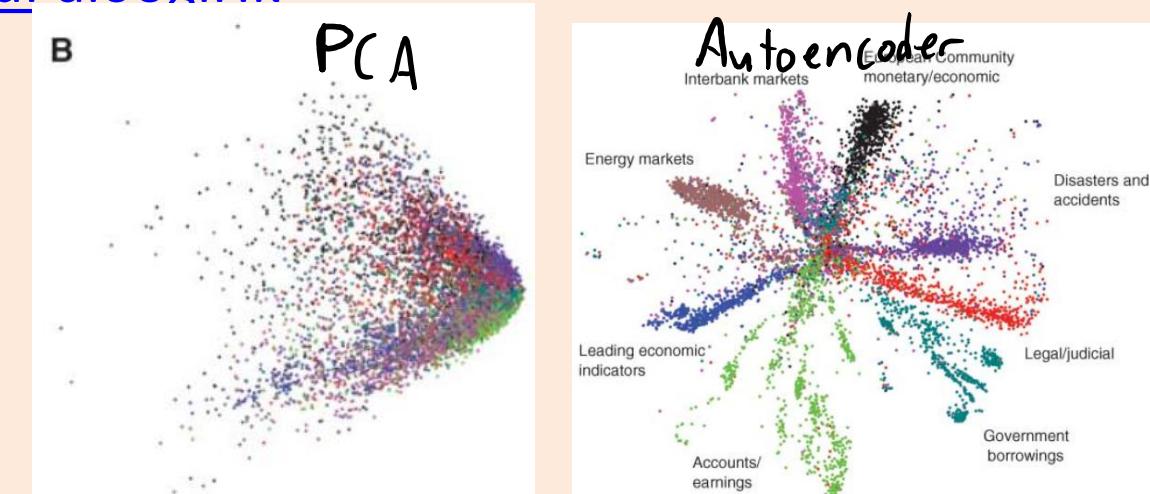
<http://blog.csdn.net/strint/article/details/44163869>

# ML and Deep Learning History

- 1990s and early-2000s: drop in popularity.
  - It proved really difficult to get multi-layer models working robustly.
  - We obtained similar performance with simpler models:
    - Rise in popularity of logistic regression and SVMs with regularization and kernels.
  - ML moved closer to other fields (CPSC 540):
    - Numerical optimization.
    - Probabilistic graphical models.
    - Bayesian methods.

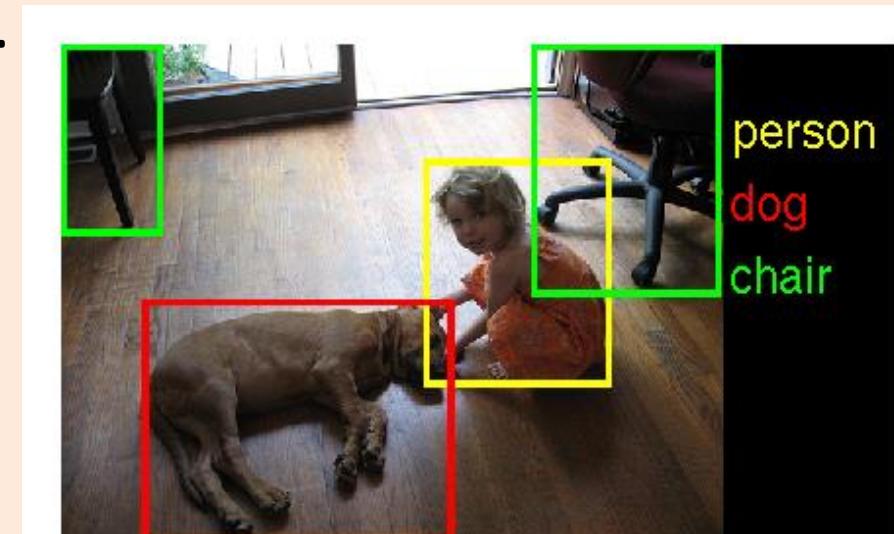
# ML and Deep Learning History

- Late 2000s: push to revive connectionism as “deep learning”.
  - Canadian Institute For Advanced Research (CIFAR) NCAP program:
    - “Neural Computation and Adaptive Perception”.
    - Led by Geoff Hinton, Yann LeCun, and Yoshua Bengio (“Canadian mafia”).
  - Unsupervised successes: “deep belief networks” and “autoencoders”.
    - Could be used to initialize deep neural networks.
    - <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=KuPai0ogiHk>



# 2010s: DEEP LEARNING!!!

- Bigger datasets, bigger models, parallel computing (GPUs/clusters).
  - And some tweaks to the models from the 1980s.
- Huge improvements in automatic speech recognition (2009).
  - All phones now have deep learning.
- Huge improvements in computer vision (2012).
  - Changed computer vision field almost instantly.
  - This is now finding its way into products.

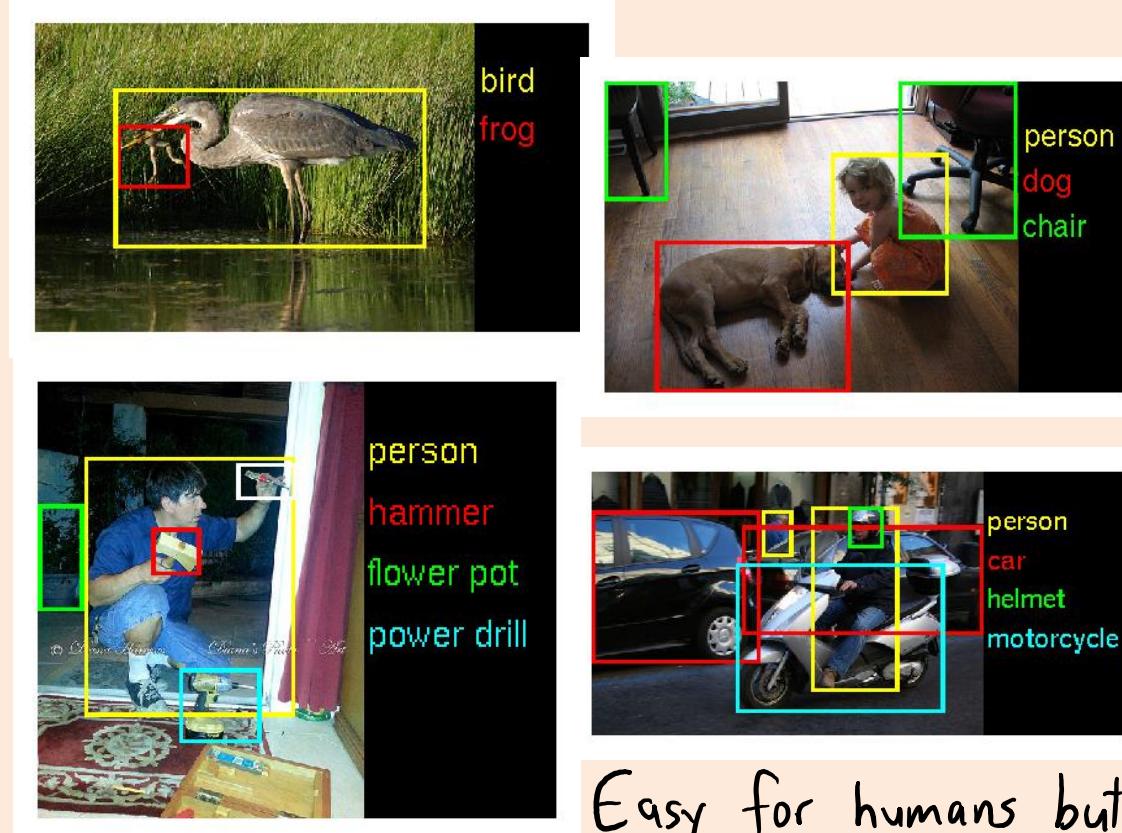


# 2010s: DEEP LEARNING!!!

- Media hype:
  - “How many computers to identify a cat? 16,000”  
New York Times (2012).
  - “Why Facebook is teaching its machines to think like humans”  
Wired (2013).
  - “What is ‘deep learning’ and why should businesses care?”  
Forbes (2013).
  - “Computer eyesight gets a lot more accurate”  
New York Times (2014).
- 2015: huge improvement in language understanding.

# ImageNet Challenge

- Millions of labeled images, 1000 object classes.



Easy for humans but  
hard for computers.

# ImageNet Challenge

- Object detection task:
  - Single label per image.
  - Humans: ~5% error.

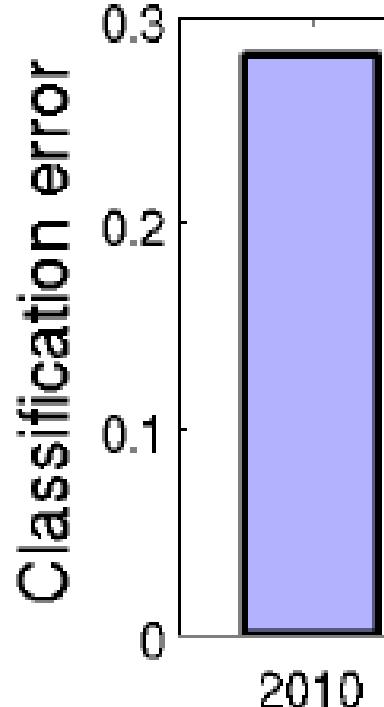


(a) Siberian husky



(b) Eskimo dog

## Image classification



# ImageNet Challenge

- Object detection task:
  - Single label per image.
  - Humans: ~5% error.

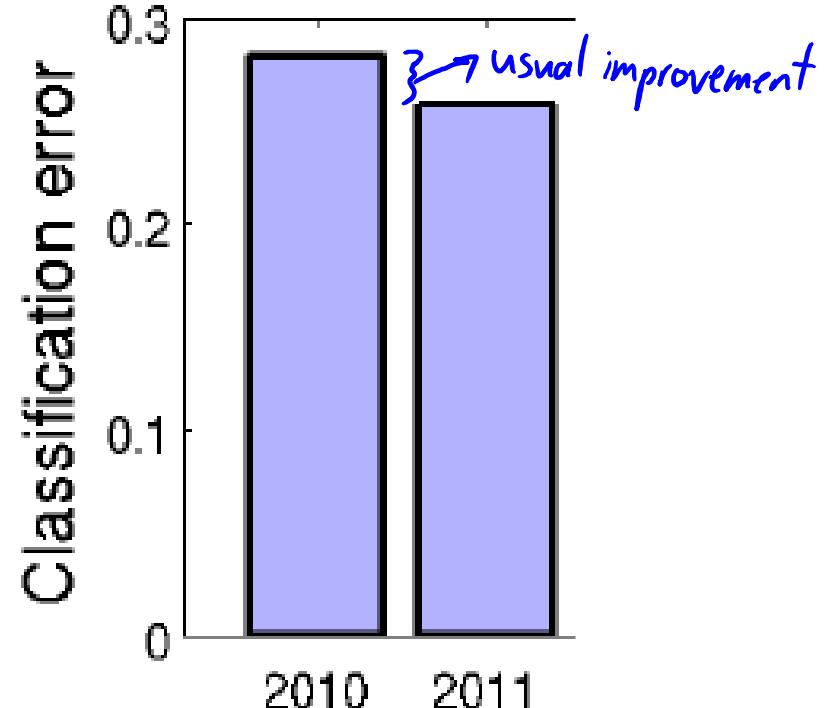


(a) Siberian husky



(b) Eskimo dog

## Image classification



<https://ischlag.github.io/2016/04/05/important-ILSVRC-achievements/>

<http://arxiv.org/pdf/1409.0575v3.pdf>

<http://arxiv.org/pdf/1409.4842v1.pdf>

# ImageNet Challenge

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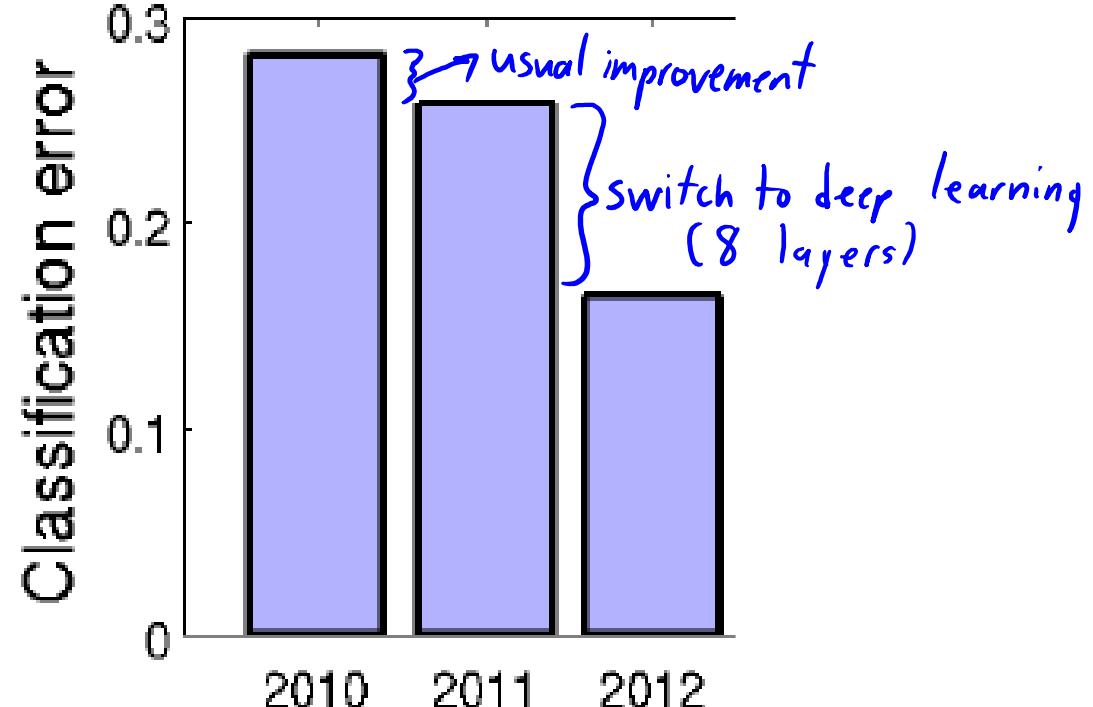


(a) Siberian husky



(b) Eskimo dog

## Image classification



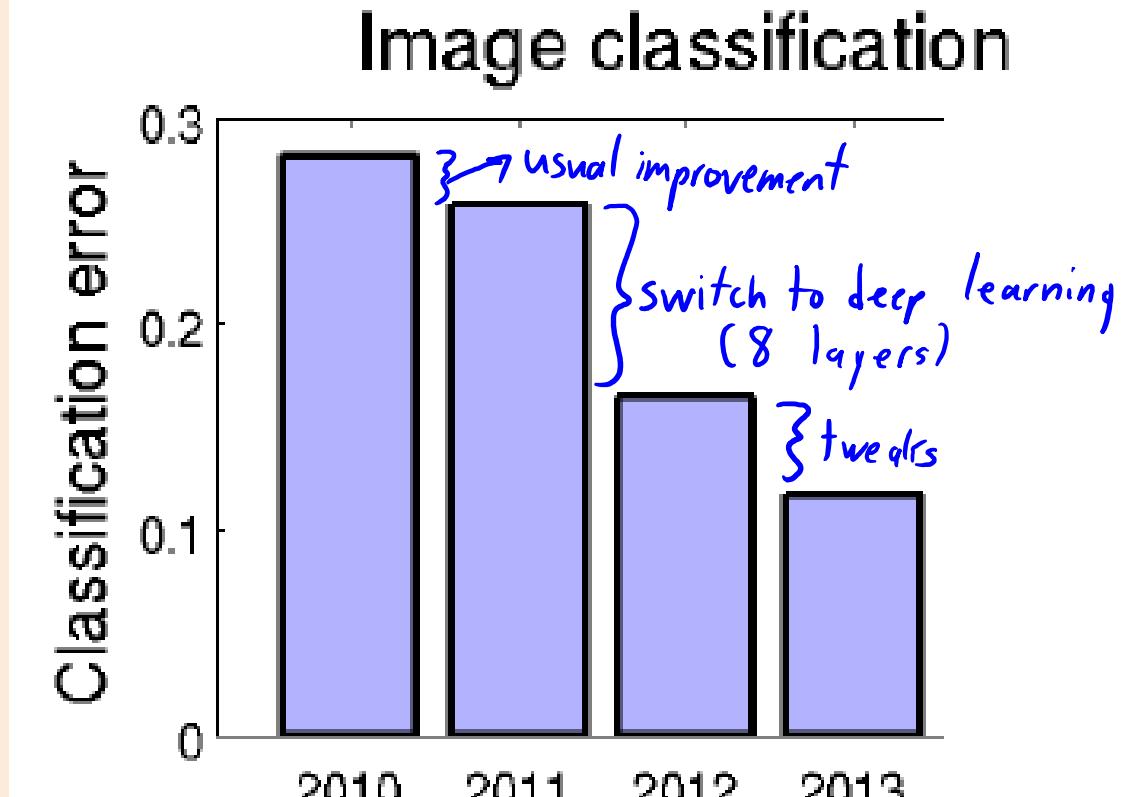
<https://ischlag.github.io/2016/04/05/important-ILSVRC-achievements/>

<http://arxiv.org/pdf/1409.0575v3.pdf>

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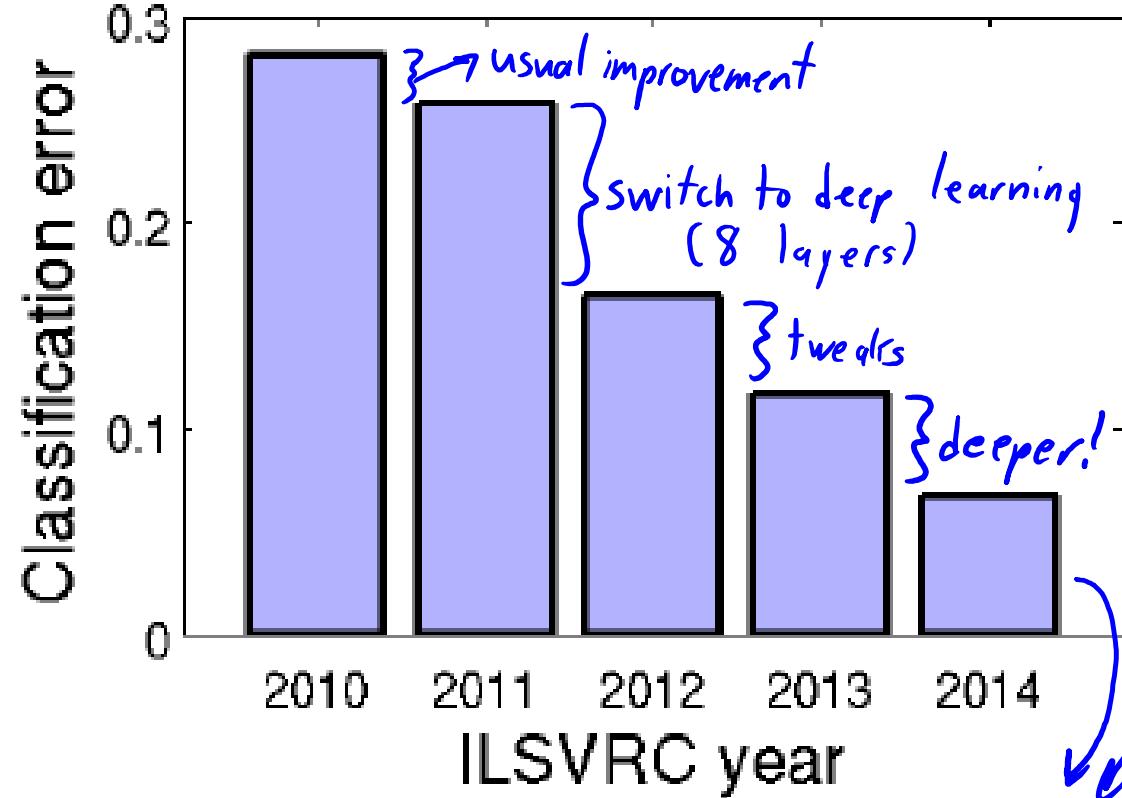


(a) Siberian husky

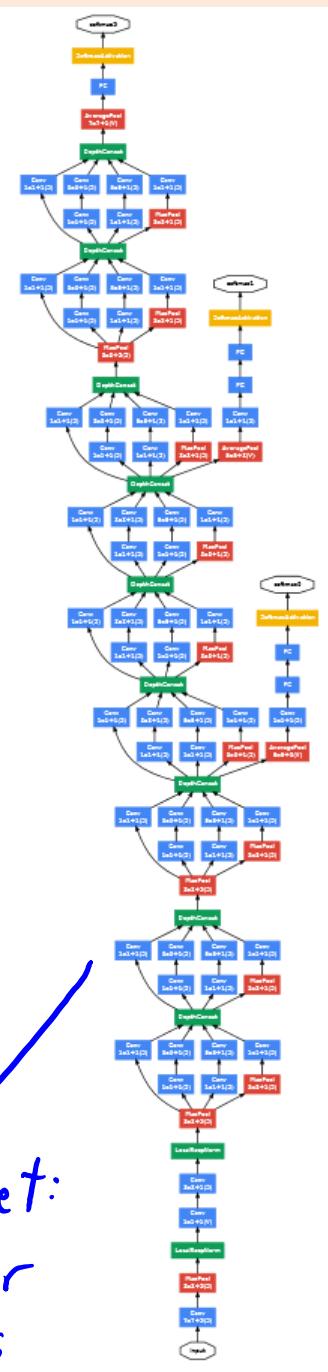


(b) Eskimo dog

## Image classification

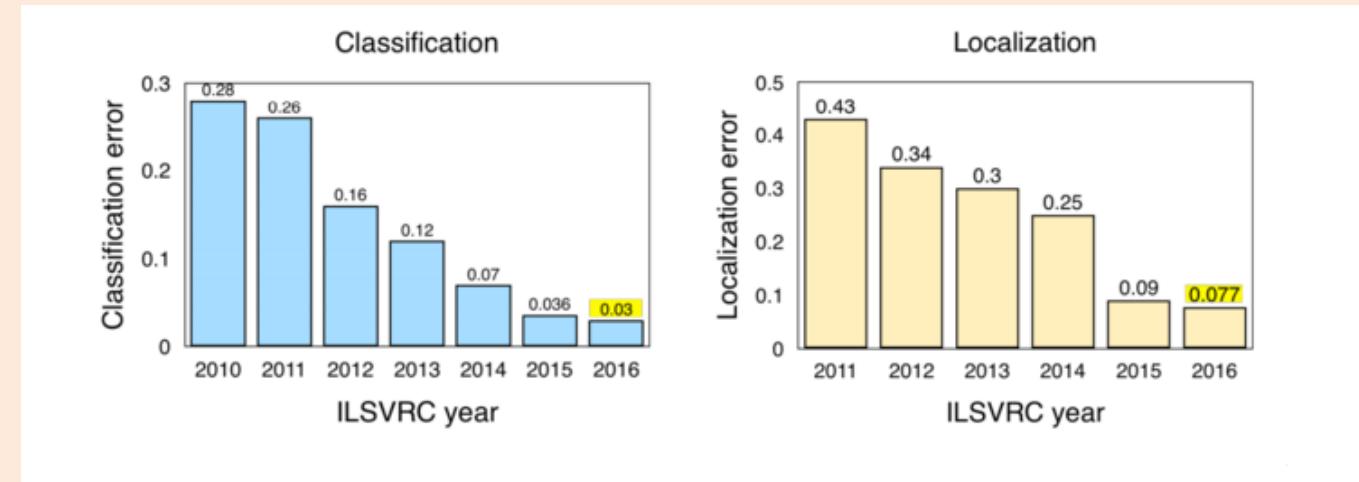


GoogLe Net:  
6.7% error  
22 layers



# ImageNet Challenge

- Object detection task:
  - Single label per image.
  - Humans: ~5% error.
- 2015: Won by Microsoft Asia
  - 3.6% error.
  - 152 layers, “resnet” architecture.
  - Also won “localization” (finding location of objects in images).
- 2016: Chinese University of Hong Kong:
  - Ensembles of previous winners and other existing methods.
- 2017: fewer entries, organizers decided this would be last year.



(pause)

# Deep Learning Practicalities

- This lecture focus on deep learning practical issues:
  - Backpropagation to compute gradients.
  - Stochastic gradient training.
  - Regularization to avoid overfitting.
- Next lecture:
  - Special ‘W’ restrictions to further avoid overfitting.

# But first: Adding Bias Variables

- Recall fitting line regression with a **bias**:

$$\hat{y}_i = \sum_{j=1}^d w_j x_{ij} + \beta$$

- We avoided this by **adding a column of ones** to  $X$ .
- In neural networks we often want a **bias on the output**:

$$\hat{y}_i = \sum_{c=1}^k v_c h(w_c^\top x_i) + \beta$$

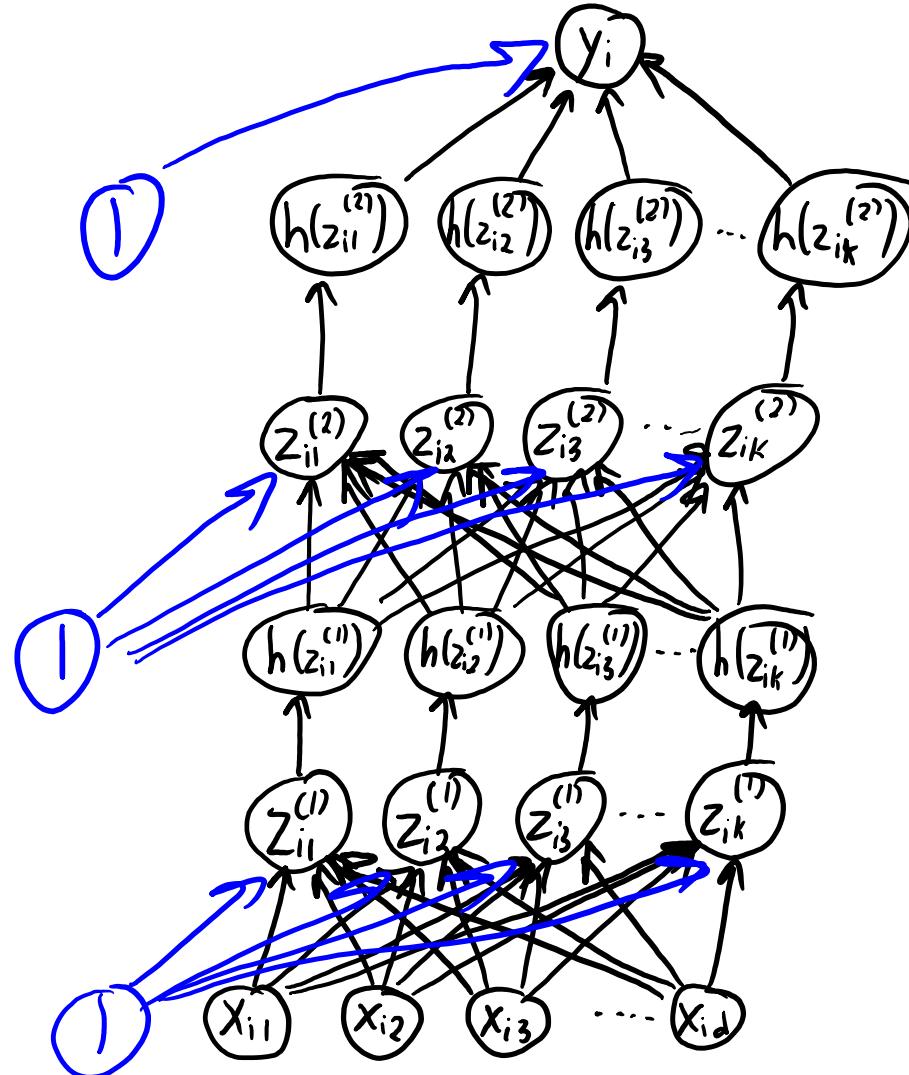
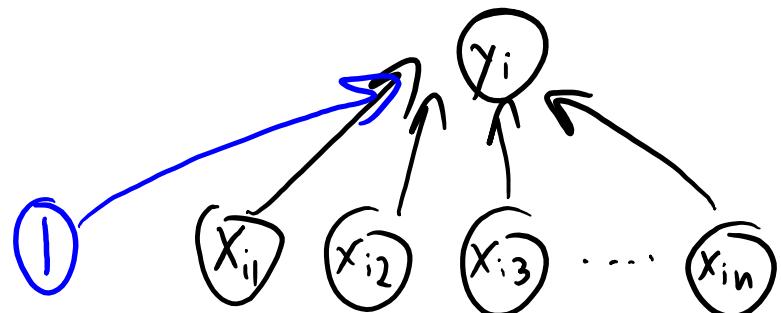
- But we also often also include **biases on each  $z_{ic}$** :

$$\hat{y}_i = \sum_{c=1}^k v_c h(w_c^\top x_i + b_c) + \beta$$

- A **bias towards this  $h(z_{ic})$**  being either 0 or 1.
- Equivalent to adding to vector  $h(z_i)$  an extra value that is always 1.
  - For sigmoids, you could equivalently make one row of  $w_c$  be equal to 0.

# But first: Adding Bias Variables

Linear model with bias:



# Artificial Neural Networks

- With squared loss, our objective function is:

$$f(w, W) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (v^\top h(Wx_i) - y_i)^2$$

- Usual training procedure: **stochastic gradient**.
  - Compute gradient of random example ‘i’, update both ‘v’ and ‘W’.
  - Highly non-convex and can be difficult to tune.
- Computing the gradient is known as “**backpropagation**”.
  - Video giving motivation [here](#).

# Backpropagation

- Overview of how we compute neural network gradient:

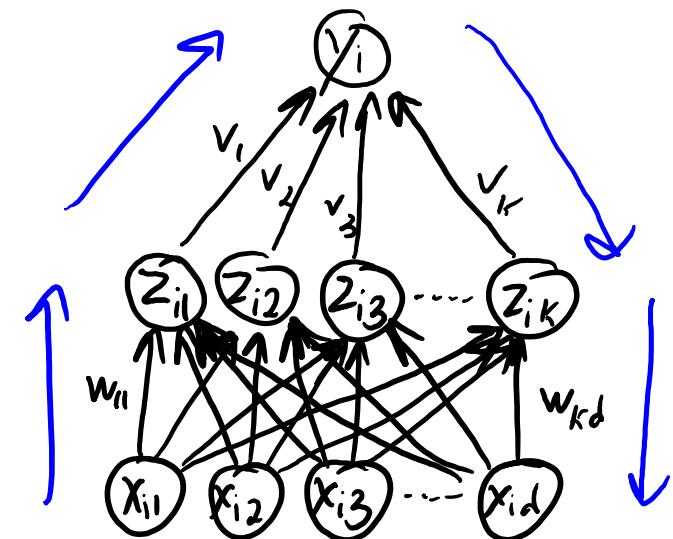
- Forward propagation:

- Compute  $z_i^{(1)}$  from  $x_i$ .
    - Compute  $z_i^{(2)}$  from  $z_i^{(1)}$ .
    - ...
    - Compute  $\hat{y}_i$  from  $z_i^{(m)}$ , and use this to compute error.

- Backpropagation:

- Compute gradient with respect to regression weights ‘v’.
    - Compute gradient with respect to  $z_i^{(m)}$  weights  $W^{(m)}$ .
    - Compute gradient with respect to  $z_i^{(m-1)}$  weights  $W^{(m-1)}$ .
    - ...
    - Compute gradient with respect to  $z_i^{(1)}$  weights  $W^{(1)}$ .

- “Backpropagation” is the chain rule plus some bookkeeping for speed.



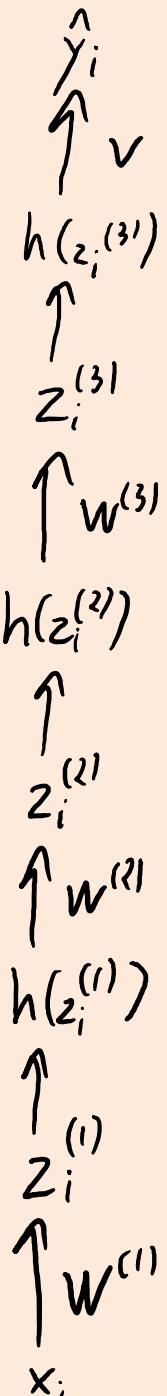
# Backpropagation

- Let's illustrate backpropagation in a simple setting:
  - 1 training example, 3 hidden layers, 1 hidden “unit” in layer.

$$f(W^{(1)}, W^{(2)}, W^{(3)}, v) = \frac{1}{2} (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2 \quad \text{where} \quad \hat{y}_i = v h(W^{(3)} h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i)))$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial v} = r h(W^{(3)} h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i))) = r h(z_i^{(3)})$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial W^{(3)}} = r v h'(W^{(3)} h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i))) h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i)) = r v h'(z_i^{(3)}) h(z_i^{(2)})$$



# Backpropagation

- Let's illustrate backpropagation in a simple setting:
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$$f(W^{(1)}, W^{(2)}, W^{(3)}, v) = \frac{1}{2} (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2 \quad \text{where} \quad \hat{y}_i = v h(W^{(3)} h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i)))$$

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$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial W^{(3)}} = r v h'(W^{(3)} h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i))) h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i)) = r v h'(z_i^{(3)}) h(z_i^{(2)})$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial W^{(2)}} = r v h'(W^{(3)} h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i))) W^{(3)} h'(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i)) h(W^{(1)} x_i) = r^{(3)} W^{(3)} h'(z_i^{(2)}) h(z_i^{(1)})$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial W^{(1)}} = r v h'(W^{(3)} h(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i))) W^{(3)} h'(W^{(2)} h(W^{(1)} x_i)) W^{(2)} h'(W^{(1)} x_i) x_i = r^{(2)} W^{(2)} h'(z_i^{(1)}) x_i$$

# Backpropagation

- Let's illustrate backpropagation in a simple setting:
  - 1 training example, 3 hidden layers, 1 hidden “unit” in layer.

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial v} = r h(z_i^{(3)})$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial w^{(3)}} = r v h'(z_i^{(3)}) h(z_i^{(2)})$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial w^{(2)}} = r^{(3)} W^{(3)} h'(z_i^{(2)}) h(z_i^{(1)})$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial w^{(1)}} = r^{(2)} W^{(2)} h'(z_i^{(1)}) x_i$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial v_c} = r h(z_{ic}^{(3)})$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{cc}^{(3)}} = r v_c h'(z_{ic}^{(3)}) h(z_{ic}^{(2)})$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{cc}^{(2)}} = \left[ \sum_{c'=1}^k r_{c'}^{(3)} W_{cc'}^{(3)} \right] h'(z_{ic'}^{(2)}) h(z_{ic}^{(1)})$$

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{cj}^{(1)}} = \left[ \sum_{c''=1}^k r_{c''}^{(2)} W_{c''c}^{(2)} \right] h'(z_{ic''}^{(1)}) x_j$$

– Only the first ‘r’ changes if you use a different loss.

– With multiple hidden units, you get extra sums.

- Efficient if you store the sums rather than computing from scratch.

# Backpropagation

- I've marked those backprop math slides as bonus.
- Do you need to know how to do this?
  - Exact details are probably not vital (there are many implementations).
  - “[Automatic differentiation](#)” is becoming standard and has same cost.
  - But understanding basic idea helps you know what can go wrong.
    - Or give hints about what to do when you run out of memory.
  - See discussion [here](#) by a neural network expert.
- You should know cost of backpropagation:
  - Forward pass dominated by matrix multiplications by  $W^{(1)}$ ,  $W^{(2)}$ ,  $W^{(3)}$ , and ‘v’.
    - If have ‘m’ layers and all  $z_i$  have ‘k’ elements, cost would be  $O(dk + mk^2)$ .
  - Backward pass has same cost as forward pass.
- For multi-class or multi-label classification, you replace ‘v’ by a matrix:
  - Softmax loss is often called “[cross entropy](#)” in neural network papers.

# Deep Learning Vocabulary

- “Deep learning”: Models with many hidden layers.
  - Usually neural networks.
- “Neuron”: node in the neural network graph.
  - “Visible unit”: feature.
  - “Hidden unit”: latent factor  $z_{ic}$  or  $h(z_{ic})$ .
- “Activation function”: non-linear transform.
- “Activation”:  $h(z_i)$ .
- “Backpropagation”: compute gradient of neural network.
  - Sometimes “backpropagation” means “training with SGD”.
- “Weight decay”: L2-regularization.
- “Cross entropy”: softmax loss.
- “Learning rate”: SGD step-size.
- “Learning rate decay”: using decreasing step-sizes.
- “Vanishing gradient”: underflow/overflow during gradient calculation.

(pause)

# ImageNet Challenge and Optimization

- ImageNet challenge:
  - Use millions of images to recognize 1000 objects.
- ImageNet organizer visited UBC summer 2015.
- “Besides huge dataset/model/cluster, what is the most important?”
  1. Image transformations (translation, rotation, scaling, lighting, etc.).
  2. Optimization.
- Why would optimization be so important?
  - Neural network objectives are **highly non-convex** (and worse with depth).
  - Optimization has huge influence on quality of model.

# Stochastic Gradient Training

- Standard training method is **stochastic gradient (SG)**:
  - Choose a random example ‘i’.
  - Use backpropagation to get gradient with respect to all parameters.
  - Take a small step in the negative gradient direction.
- **Challenging to make SG work:**
  - Often doesn’t work as a “black box” learning algorithm.
  - But people have developed a lot of tricks/modifications to make it work.
- **Highly non-convex**, so are the problem local mimima?
  - Some empirical/theoretical evidence that **local minima are not the problem**.
  - If the network is “deep” and “wide” enough, we think all local minima are good.
  - But it can be hard to get SG to close to a local minimum in reasonable time.

# Parameter Initialization

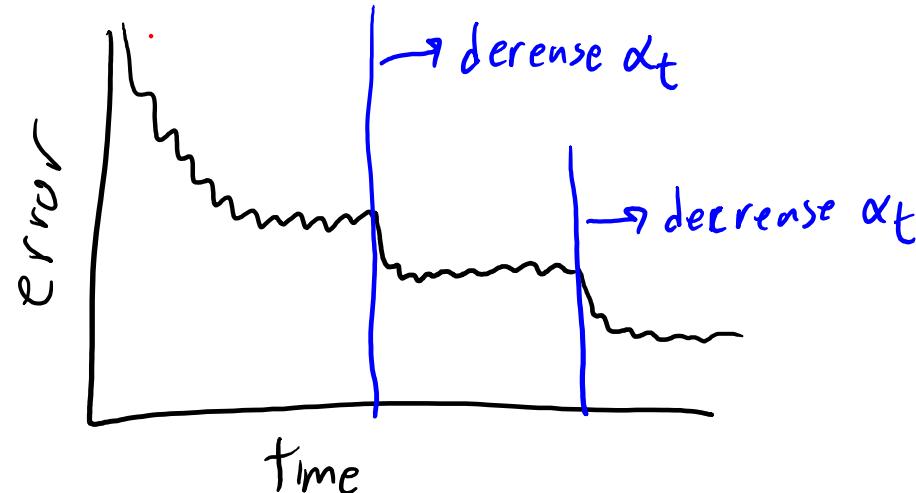
- Parameter initialization is crucial:
  - Can't initialize weights in same layer to same value, or they will stay same.
  - Can't initialize weights too large, it will take too long to learn.
- A traditional random initialization:
  - Initialize bias variables to 0.
  - Sample from standard normal, divided by  $10^5$  ( $0.00001 * \text{randn}$ ).
    - $w = .00001 * \text{randn}(k, 1)$
  - Performing multiple initializations does not seem to be important.
- Popular approach from 10 years ago:
  - Initialize with deep unsupervised model (like “autoencoders” – see bonus).

# Parameter Initialization

- Parameter initialization is crucial:
  - Can't initialize weights in same layer to same value, or they will stay same.
  - Can't initialize weights too large, it will take too long to learn.
- Also common to standardize data:
  - Subtract mean, divide by standard deviation, “whiten”, standardize  $y_i$ .
- More recent initializations try to standardize initial  $z_i$ :
  - Use different initialization in each layer.
  - Try to make variance of  $z_i$  the same across layers.
  - Use samples from standard normal distribution, divide by  $\sqrt{2 * n_{\text{Inputs}}}$ .
  - Use samples from uniform distribution on  $[-b, b]$ , where  $b = \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{k^{(m)} + k^{(m-1)}}}$

# Setting the Step-Size

- Stochastic gradient is **very sensitive to the step size** in deep models.
- Common approach: **manual “babysitting”** of the step-size.
  - Run SG for a while with a fixed step-size.
  - Occasionally measure error and plot progress:



- If error is not decreasing, decrease step-size.

# Setting the Step-Size

- Stochastic gradient is **very sensitive to the step size** in deep models.
- **Bias step-size multiplier:** use bigger step-size for the bias variables.
- **Momentum** (stochastic version of “heavy-ball” algorithm):
  - Add term that moves in previous direction:

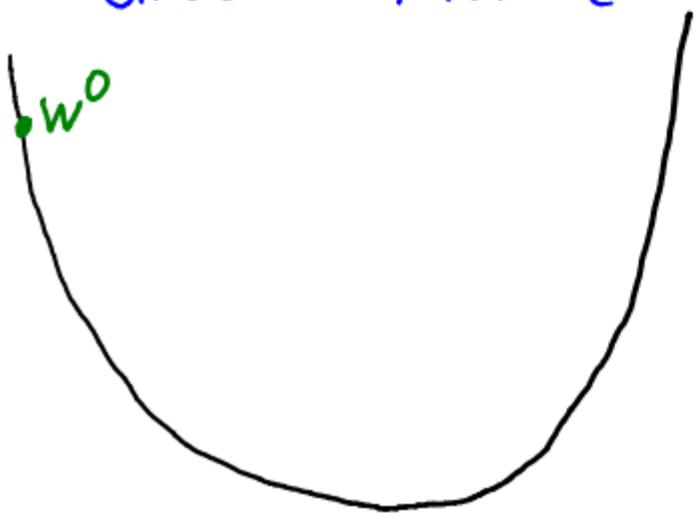
$$w^{t+1} = w^t - \alpha^t \nabla f_i(w^t) + \beta^t (w^t - w^{t-1})$$

*Keep going in the old direction*

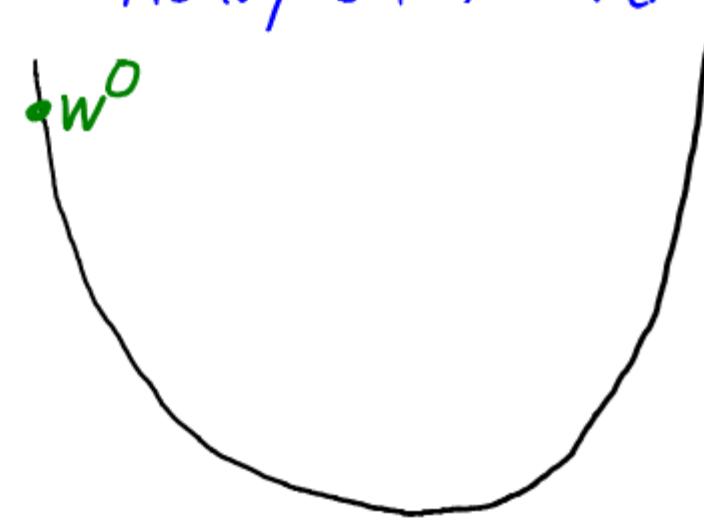
- Usually  $\beta^t = 0.9$ .

# Gradient Descent vs. Heavy-Ball Method

Gradient Method

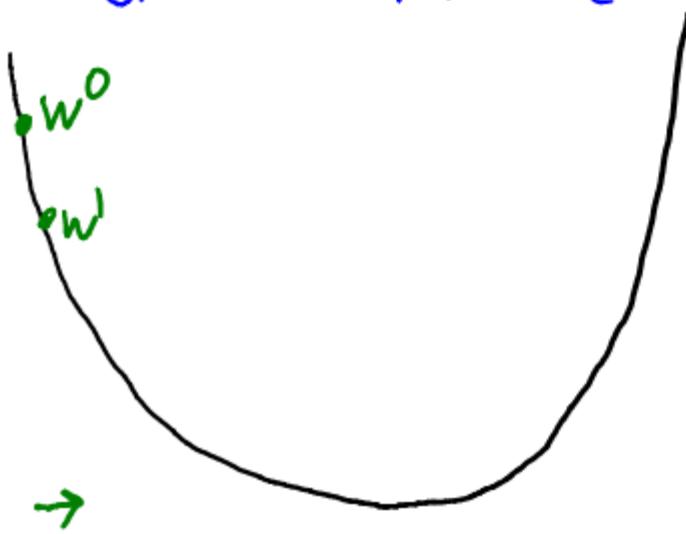


Heavy-ball Method

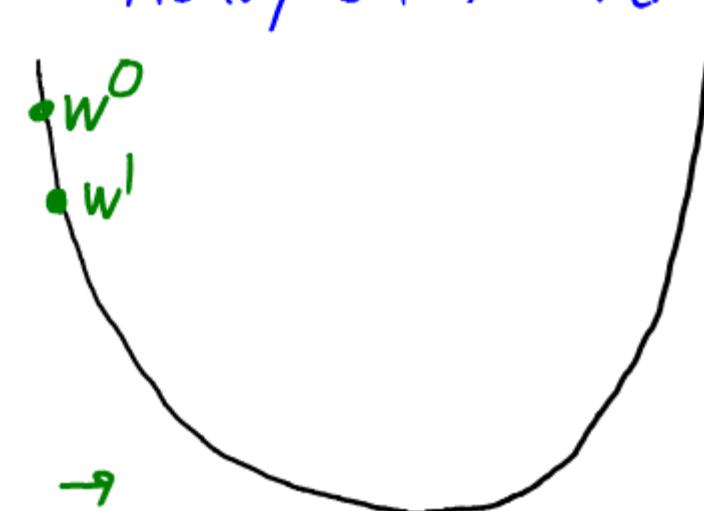


# Gradient Descent vs. Heavy-Ball Method

Gradient Method

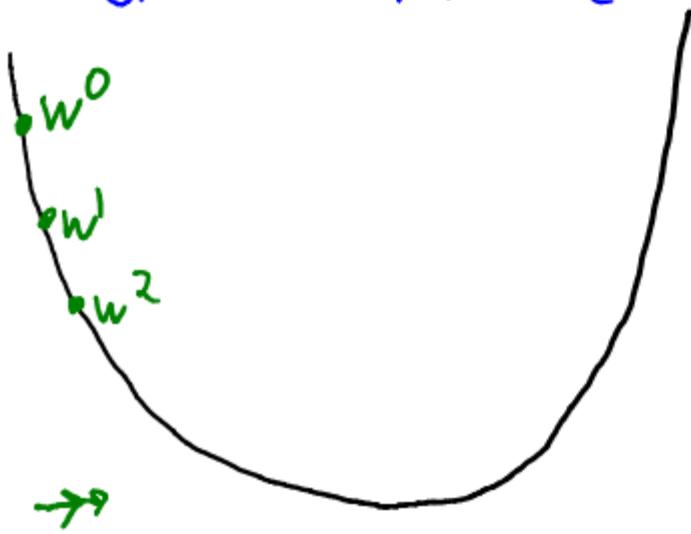


Heavy-ball Method

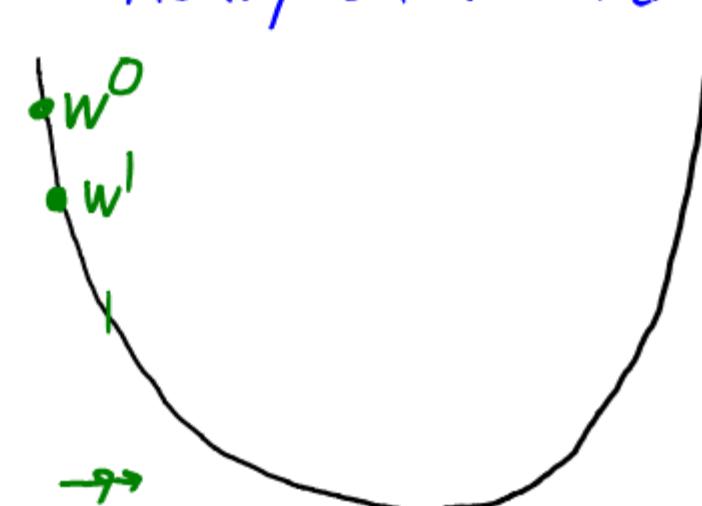


# Gradient Descent vs. Heavy-Ball Method

Gradient Method

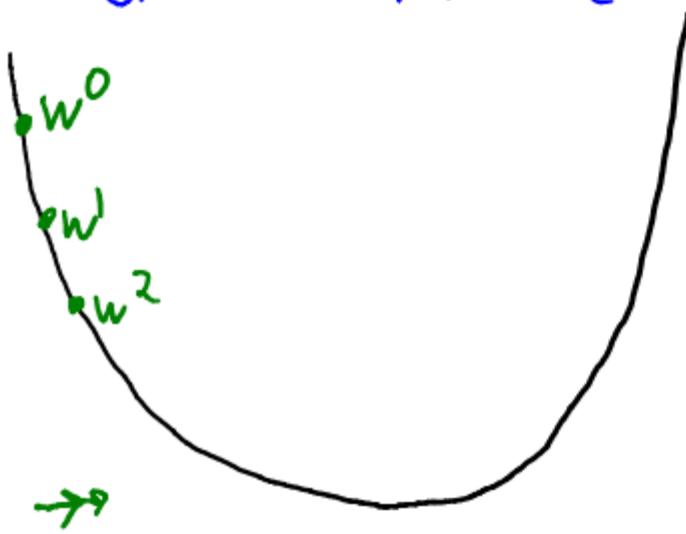


Heavy-ball Method

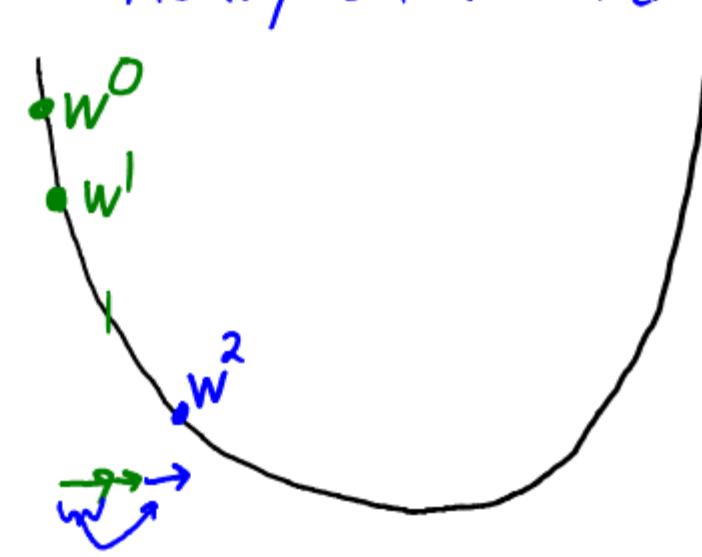


# Gradient Descent vs. Heavy-Ball Method

Gradient Method



Heavy-ball Method

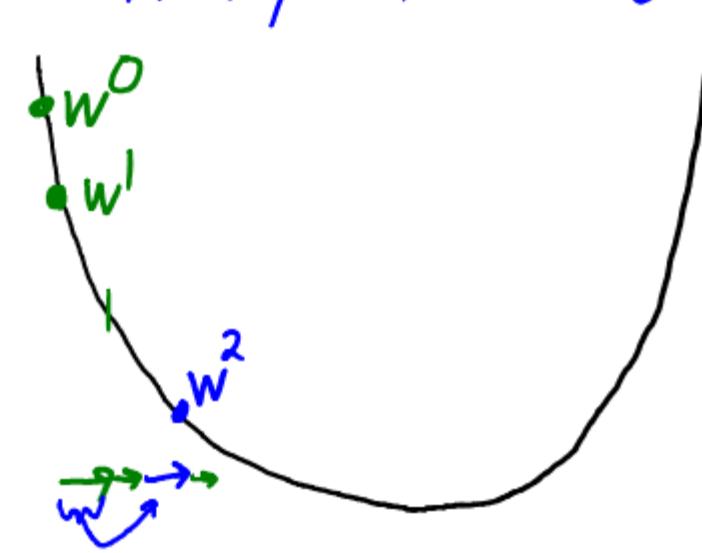


# Gradient Descent vs. Heavy-Ball Method

Gradient Method



Heavy-ball Method

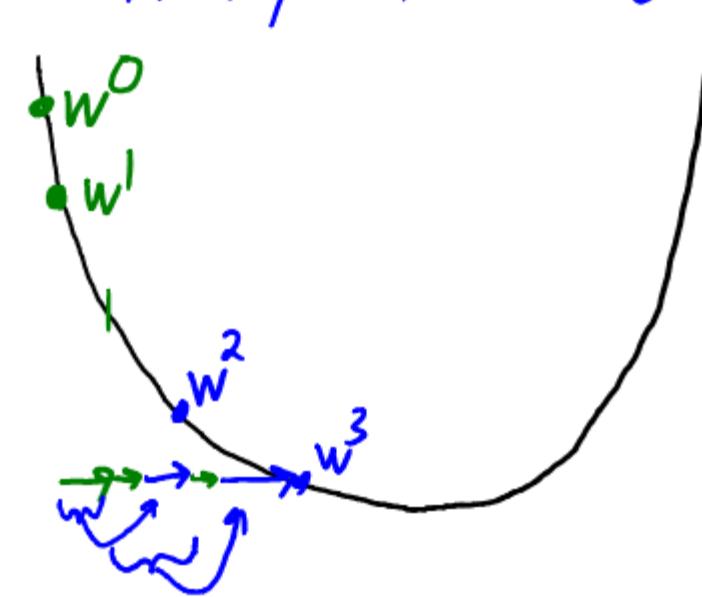


# Gradient Descent vs. Heavy-Ball Method

Gradient Method

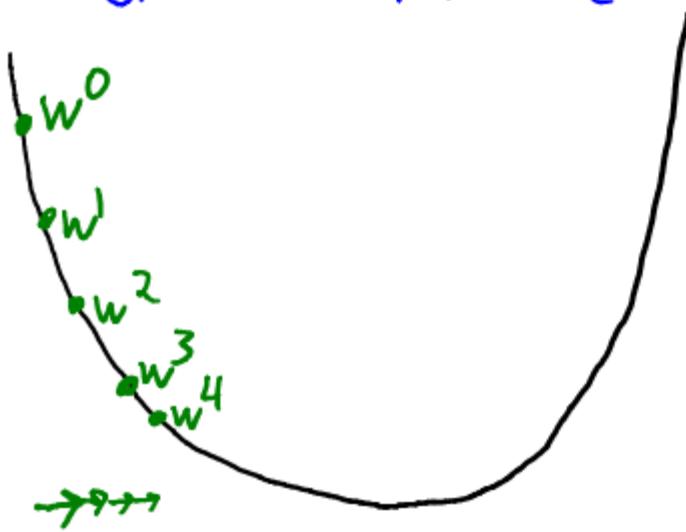


Heavy-ball Method

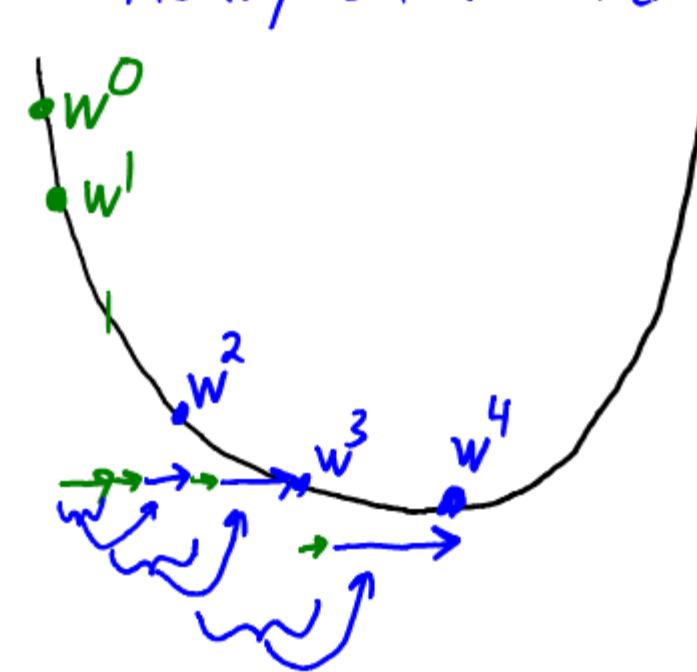


# Gradient Descent vs. Heavy-Ball Method

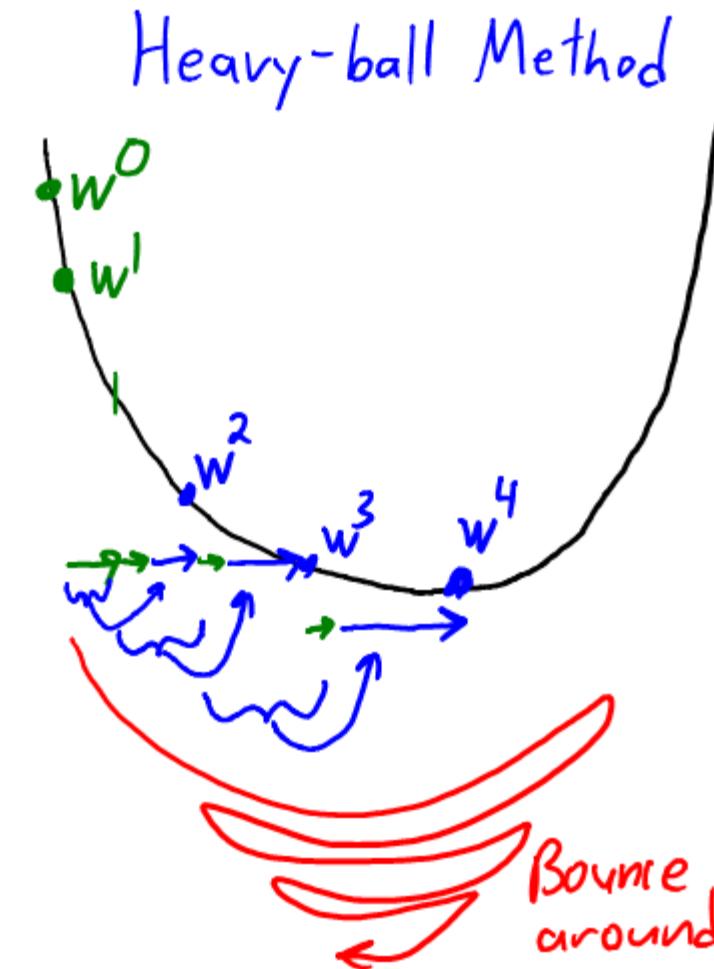
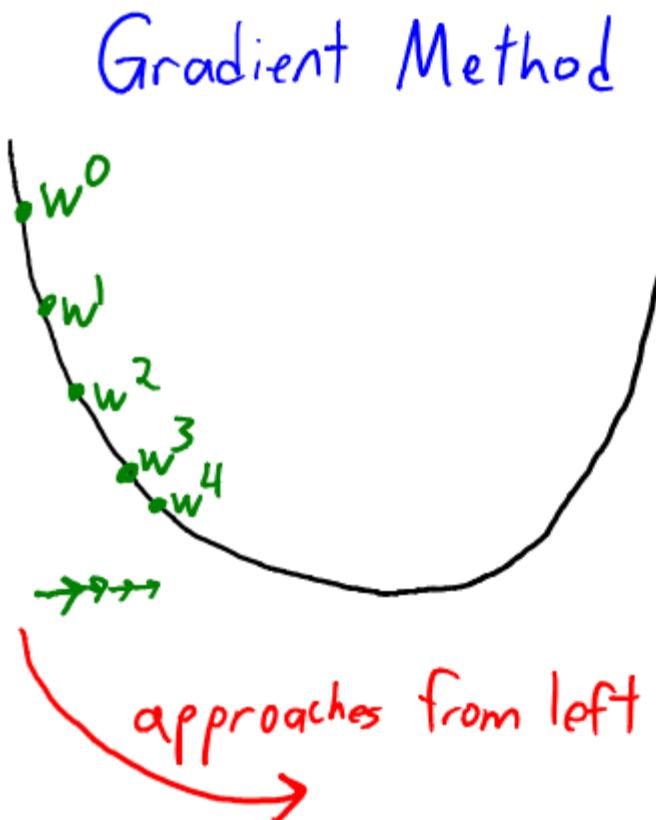
Gradient Method



Heavy-ball Method



# Gradient Descent vs. Heavy-Ball Method

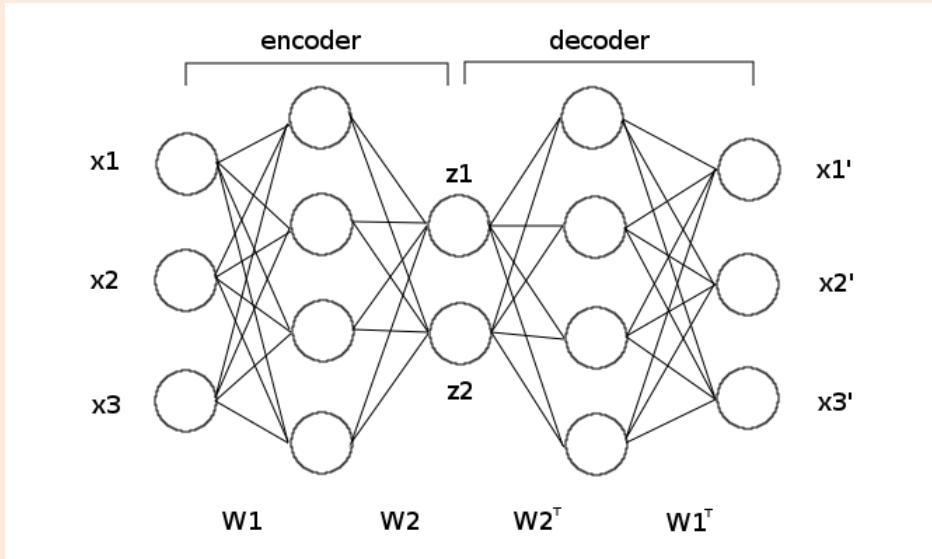


# Summary

- Unprecedented performance on difficult pattern recognition tasks.
- Backpropagation computes neural network gradient via chain rule.
- Parameter initialization is crucial to neural net performance.
- Optimization and step size are crucial to neural net performance.
  - “Babysitting”, momentum.
- Next time:
  - Regularization, and getting these working for vision problems.

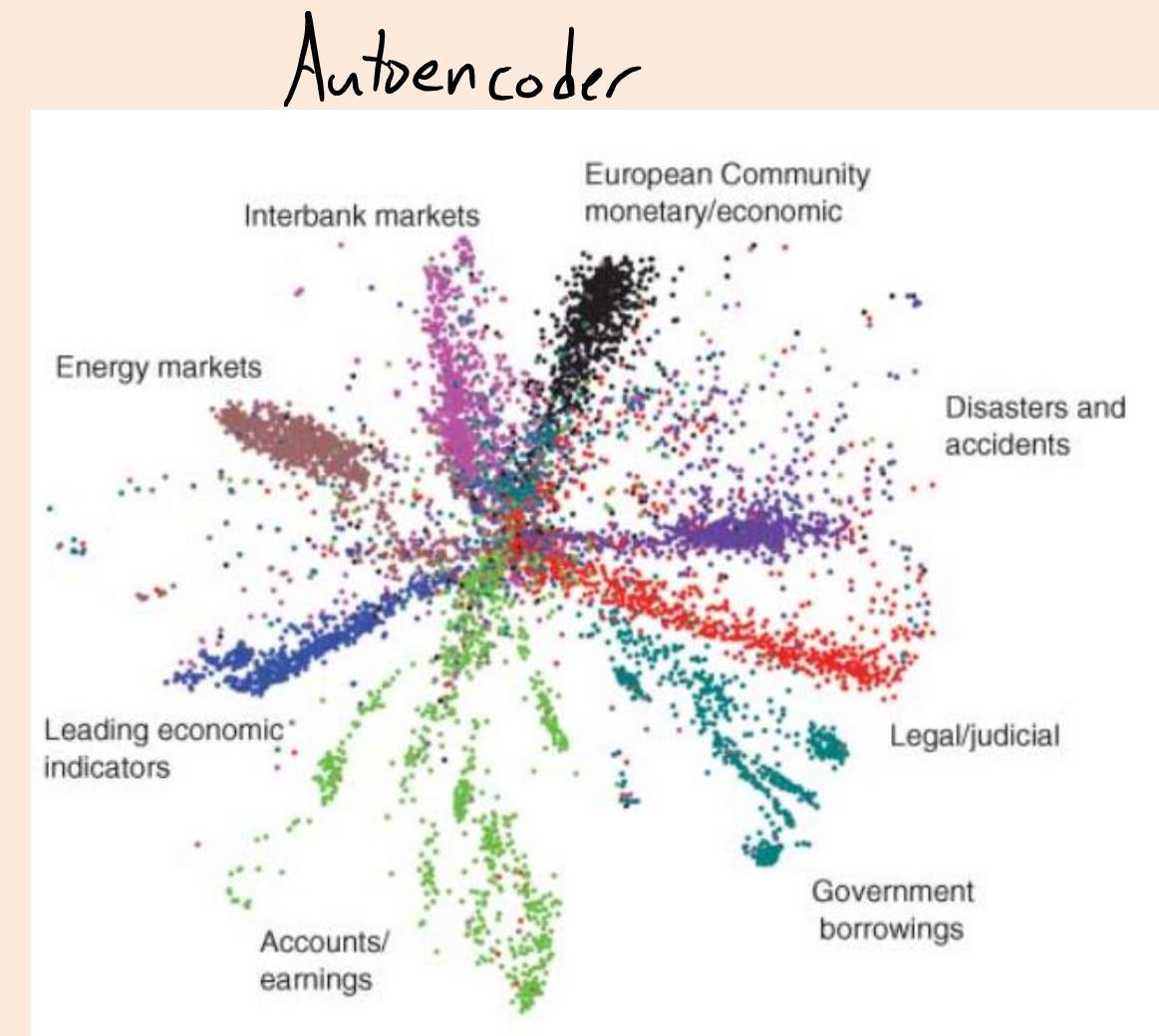
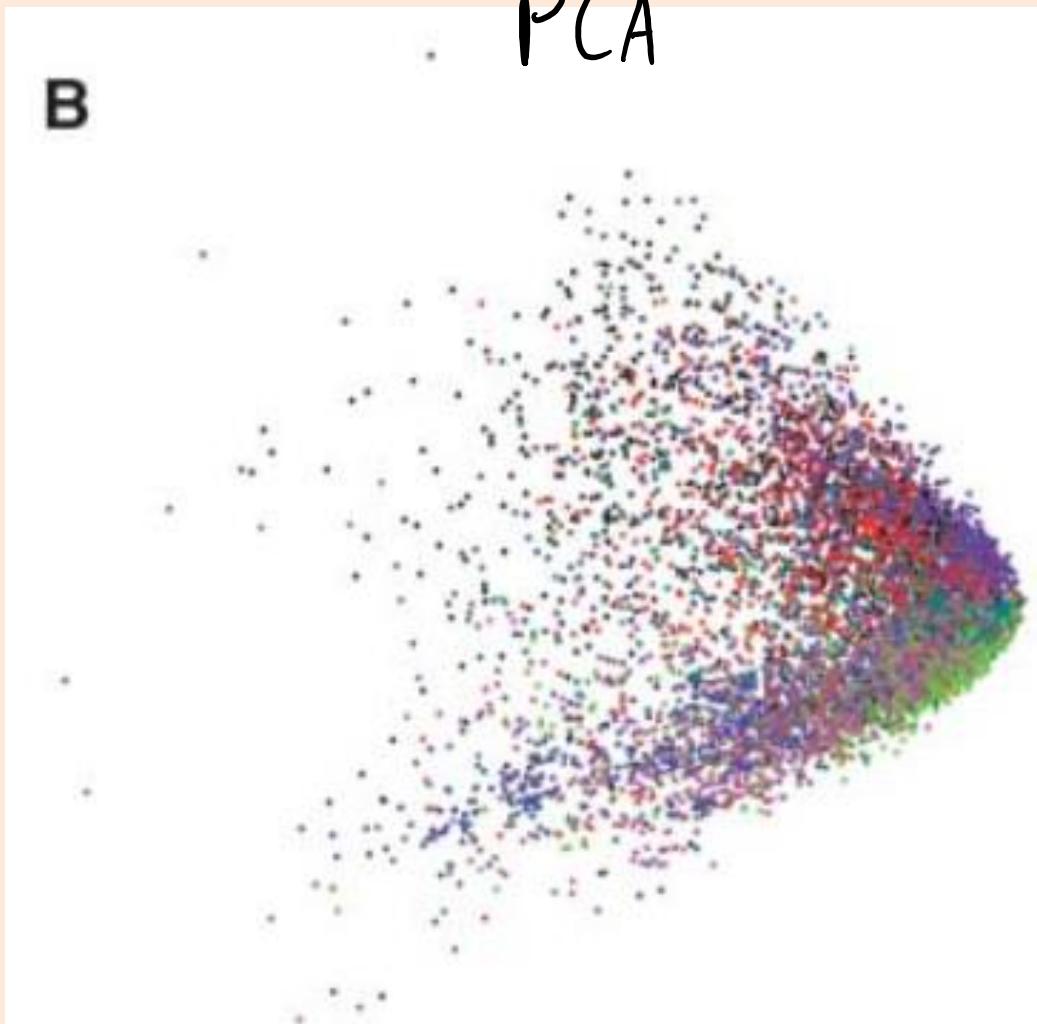
# Autoencoders

- Autoencoders are an unsupervised deep learning model:
  - Use the inputs as the output of the neural network.



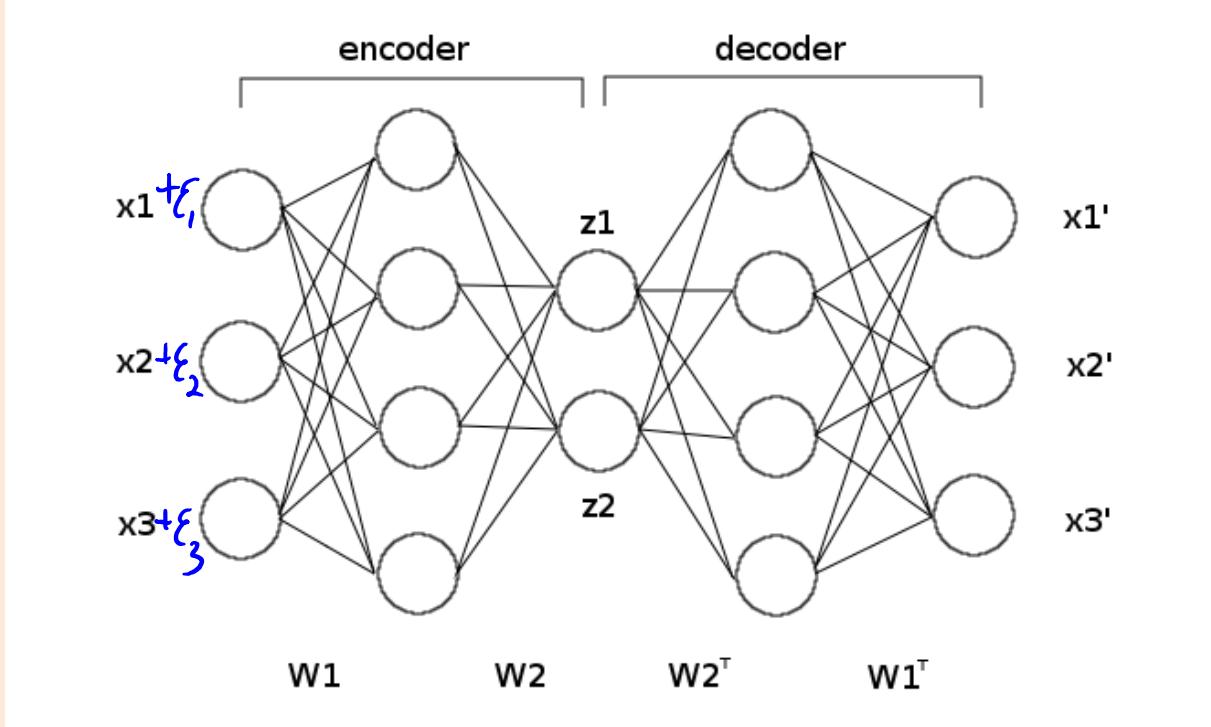
- Middle layer could be latent features in non-linear latent-factor model.
  - Can do outlier detection, data compression, visualization, etc.
- A non-linear generalization of PCA.
  - Equivalent to PCA if you don't have non-linearities.

# Autoencoders



# Denoising Autoencoder

- Denoising autoencoders add noise to the input:



- Learns a model that can remove the noise.