



Mahidol University

Faculty of Medicine Ramathibodi Hospital

Section for Clinical Epidemiology and Biostatistics

# Neural Network



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# Prerequisite Mathematics



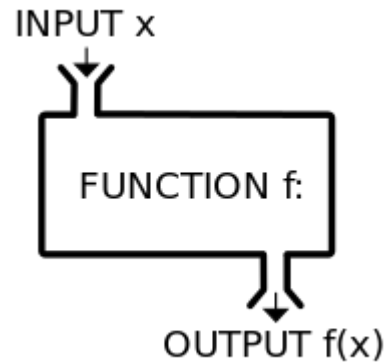
Recall your linear algebra

# Linear Algebra

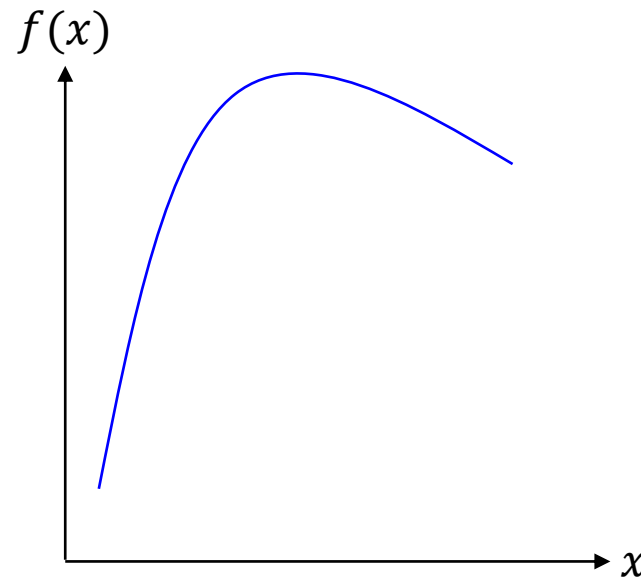
- A function of univariate is defined as

$$x \mapsto f(x)$$

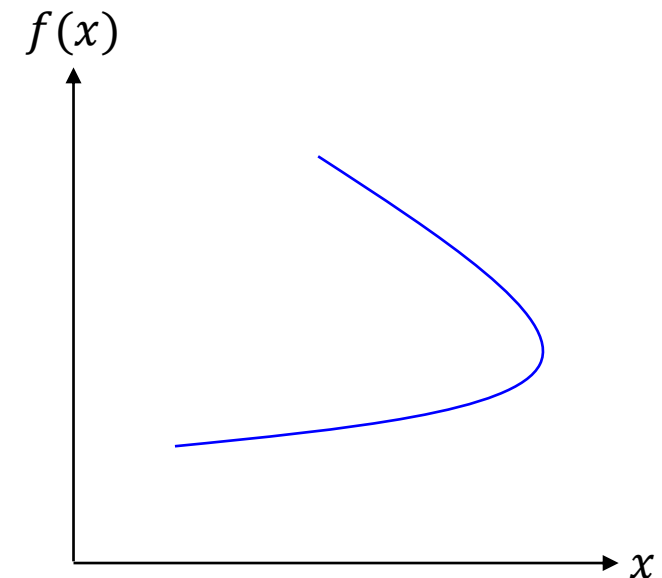
*Function*



Each input must have only one output



This is a function

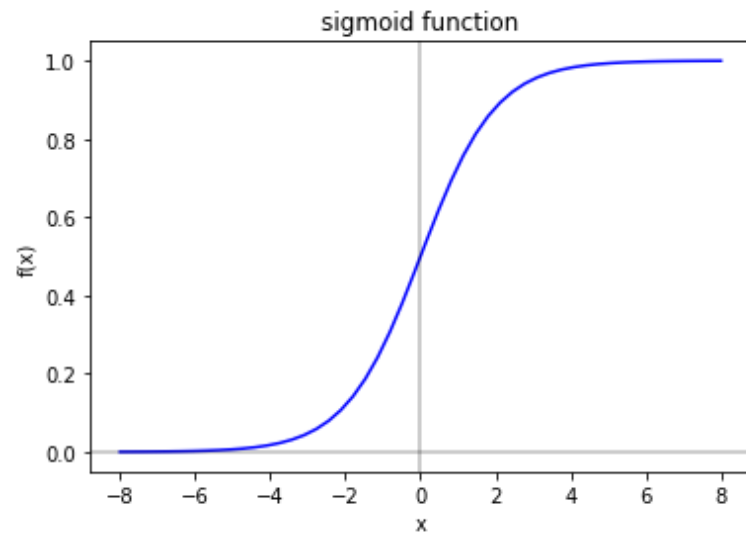


This is NOT a function

Recall the vertical line test: a function is a function if it only has one output

# Linear Algebra

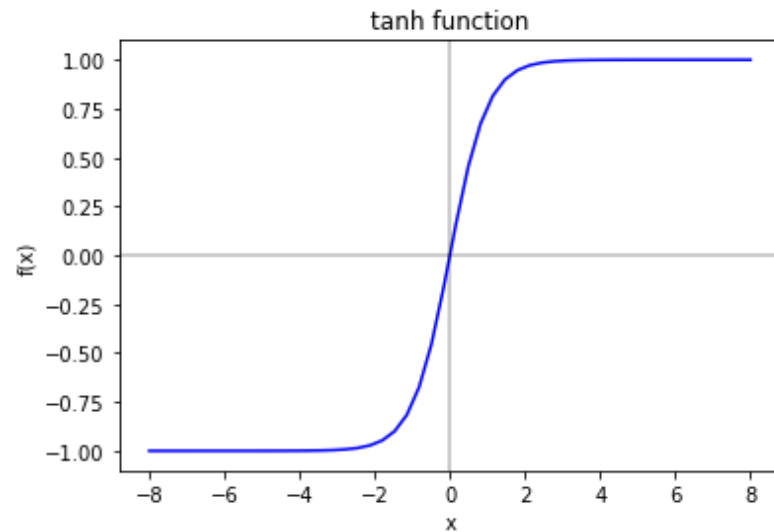
*sigmoid*



- Properties
  - $f(x) \in [0, 1]$
  - $x \in [-\infty, \infty]$
  - $x \rightarrow 0$ ,  $f(x)$  becomes linear
  - $\text{abs}(x) > 4$ ,  $f(x)$  changes slowly

# Linear Algebra

*tanh*

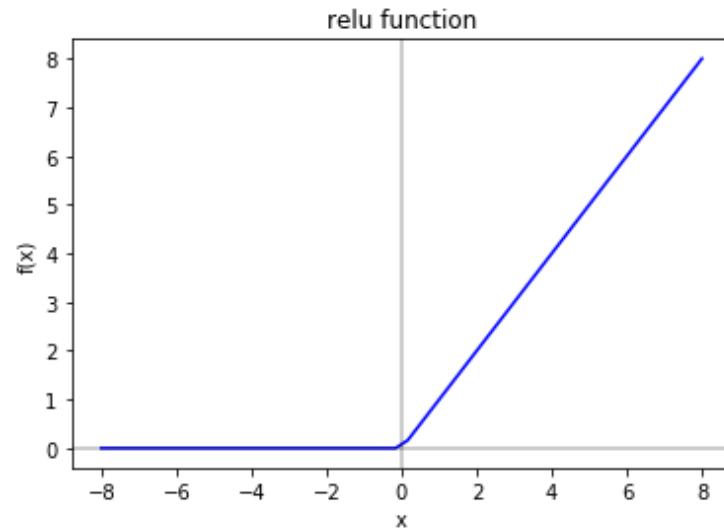


- Properties
  - $f(x) \in [-1, 1]$
  - $x \in [-\infty, \infty]$
  - $x \rightarrow 0$ ,  $f(x)$  becomes linear
  - $\text{abs}(x) > 2$ ,  $f(x)$  changes slowly

# Linear Algebra

ReLU can be modified into LeakyReLU

*ReLU (Rectifier Linear Unit)*

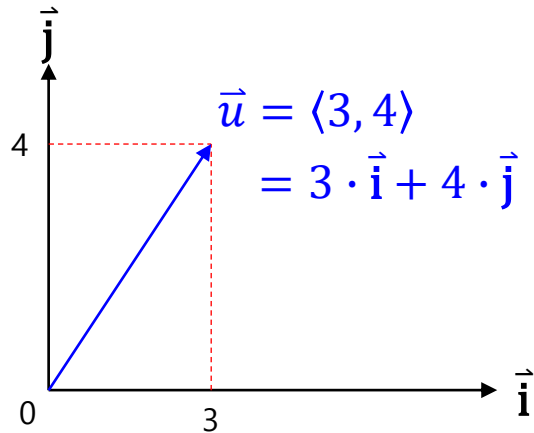


```
def relu(x):  
    y = np.maximum(0, x)  
    return y
```

- Properties
  - $f(x) \in [0, \infty]$
  - $x \in [-\infty, \infty]$
  - $x \leq 0, f(x) = 0$
  - $x > 0, f(x) = x$

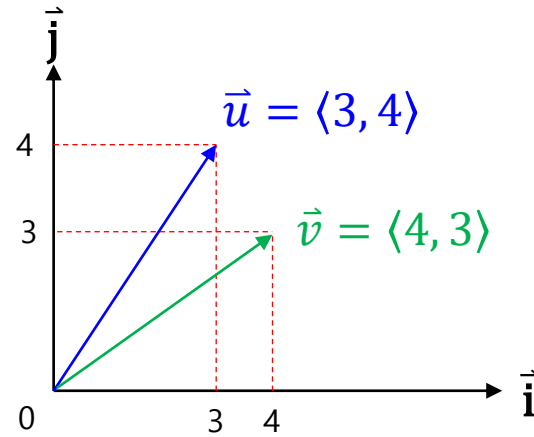
# Linear Algebra

Vector



$$\|\vec{u}\| = \sqrt{3^2 + 4^2} = 5$$

- Dot product



$$\vec{u} \cdot \vec{v} = (3 \times 4) + (4 \times 3) = 24$$

- Transpose

if

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

then

$$\mathbf{u}^T = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 4 \end{bmatrix}$$

# Linear Algebra

*Matrix*

*A stack of vectors*

- Pairwise multiplication

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 4 & 5 & 6 \end{bmatrix} \quad B = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 2 & 2 \\ 2 & 2 & 2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$A \odot B = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \times 2 & 2 \times 2 & 3 \times 2 \\ 4 \times 2 & 5 \times 2 & 6 \times 2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 & 4 & 6 \\ 8 & 10 & 12 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Transpose

$$A^T = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 4 \\ 2 & 5 \\ 3 & 6 \end{bmatrix}$$

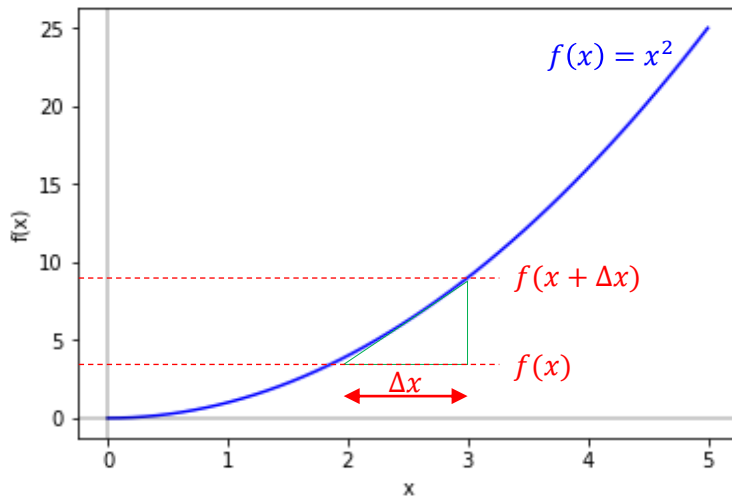


# Linear Algebra

## Calculus (Derivative)

- Derivative

$$f'(x) = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$



$\Delta x = 1$	
if $x = 2$	then $f(x) = 4$
if $x = 3$	then $f(x) = 9$

$\Delta x = 0.001$	
if $x = 2$	then $f(x) = 4$
if $x = 2.001$	then $f(x) \approx 4.004$

$$\text{if } x = 2 \text{ then slope} = \frac{\Delta f(x)}{\Delta x} = \frac{0.004}{0.001} = 4$$

$$\text{Mathematically, } \frac{d}{dx} f(x) = 2x = 2(2) = 4$$

# Linear Algebra

*Derivative of sigmoid*

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

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{d}{dz} g(z) &= \frac{d}{dz} \left[ \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \right] \\ &= \frac{d}{dz} (1 + e^{-z})^{-1} \\ &= -(1 + e^{-z})^{-2} \frac{d}{dz} (1 + e^{-z}) \\ &= -(1 + e^{-z})^{-2} \frac{d}{dz} (e^{-z})\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}&= -(1 + e^{-z})^{-2} (-e^{-z}) \\ &= \frac{e^{-z}}{(1 + e^{-z})^2} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \cdot \frac{e^{-z}}{1 + e^{-z}} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \cdot \frac{(1 + e^{-z}) - 1}{1 + e^{-z}} \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \left[ \frac{1 + e^{-z}}{1 + e^{-z}} - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \left[ 1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \right]\end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dz} g(z) = g(z)(1 - g(z))$$

# Linear Algebra

*Derivative of tanh*

$$g(z) = \tanh(z)$$

$$= \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}}$$

$$\frac{d}{dz} g(z) = \frac{(e^z + e^{-z})d(e^z - e^{-z}) - (e^z - e^{-z})d(e^z + e^{-z})}{(e^z + e^{-z})^2}$$

$$= \frac{(e^z + e^{-z})(e^z + e^{-z}) - (e^z - e^{-z})(e^z - e^{-z})}{(e^z + e^{-z})^2}$$

$$= 1 - \left( \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}} \right)^2$$

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dz} g(z) = 1 - \tanh^2(z)$$

# Linear Algebra

*Derivative of relu*

$$g(z) = \max(0, z)$$

$$\frac{d}{dz}g(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } z > 0 \\ \text{undefined} & \text{if } z = 0 \end{cases}$$

In neural network practice,  $z$  can get close to zero but never be zero, e.g. 0.00000 ...

$$\therefore \frac{d}{dz}g(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } z > 0 \end{cases}$$



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# Perceptron

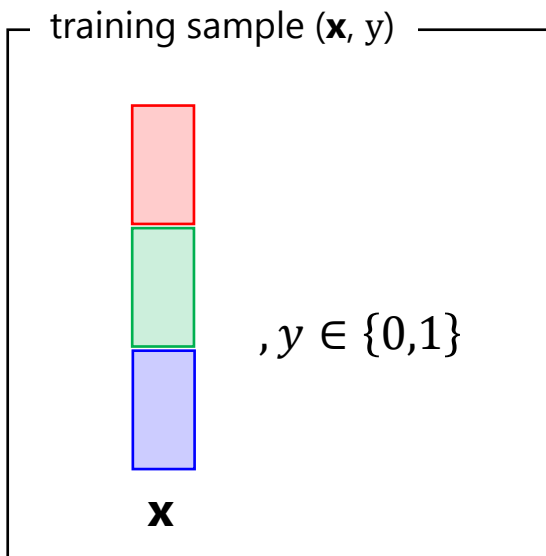


A smallest unit in neural network

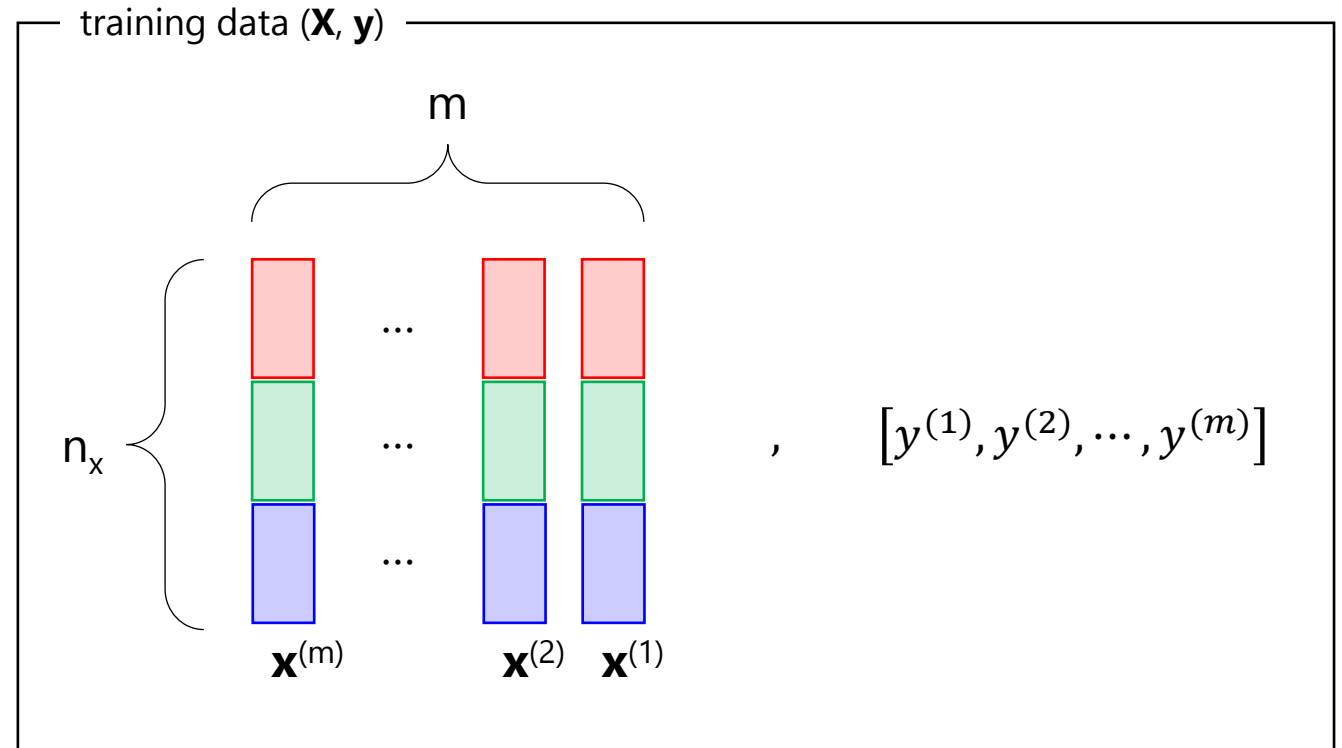
# Training Sample VS Training Data

*Training sample is a pair of feature vector  $\mathbf{x}$  and its class label*

$$(\mathbf{x}, y), \mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}, y \in \{0,1\}$$



*Training data is  $m$  pair of feature vector  $\mathbf{x}$  and its class label*



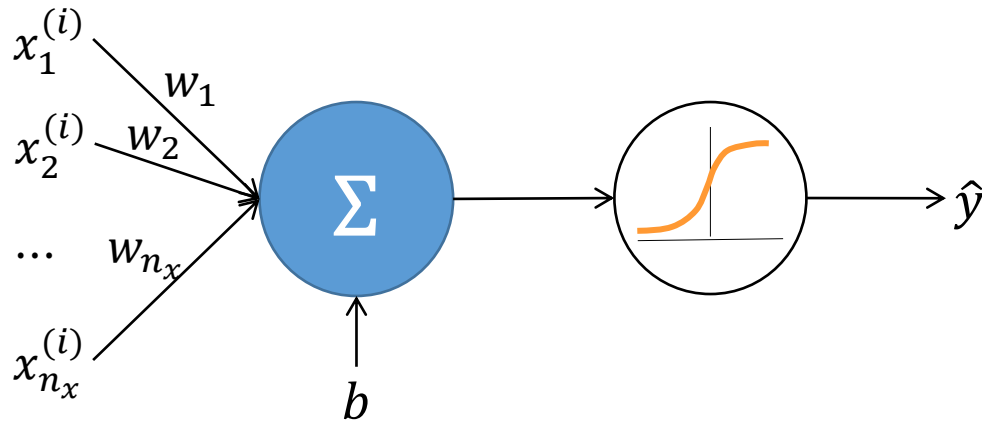
$$\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x \times 1}$$

$$\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x \times m}$$

$$\mathbf{y} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times m}$$

# A Perceptron

*The smallest unit of neural network*

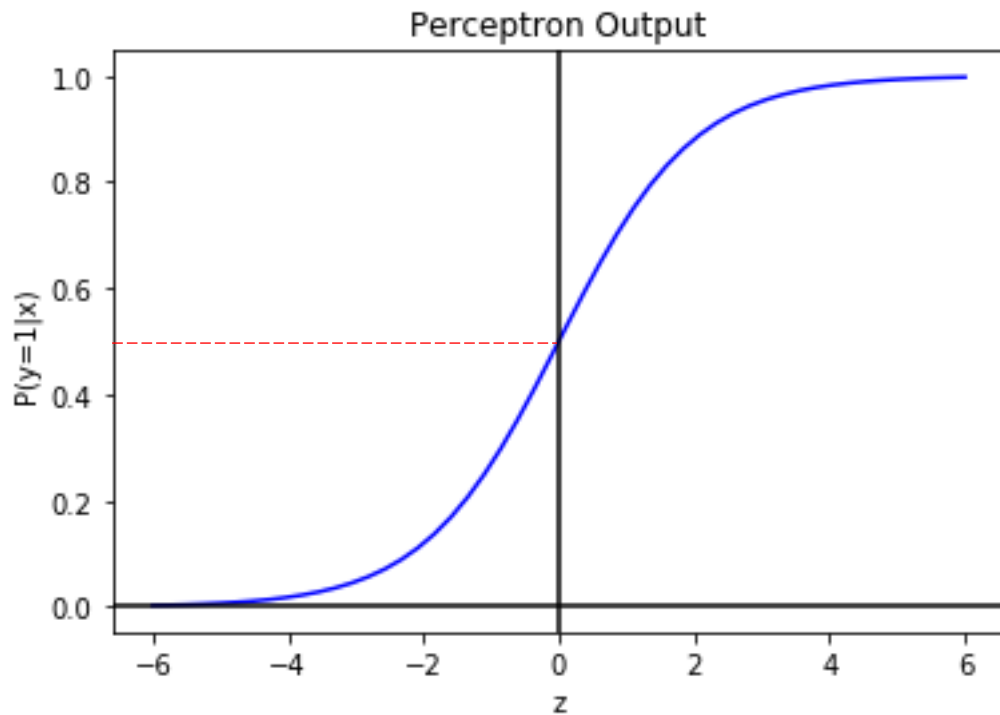


$$\hat{y} = P(y = 1 | \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b)}}$$

- Given  $\mathbf{x}^{(i)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x \times 1}$ , determine
  - $\hat{y} = P(y = 1 | \mathbf{x}^{(i)})$
- Parameters
  - $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times n_x}$
  - $b \in \mathbb{R}$
- Output
  - $\hat{y} = g(z) = g(\mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b)$

# A Perceptron

*The smallest unit of neural network*



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

- If  $z \gg 0, g(z) \rightarrow 1$
- if  $z \ll 0, g(z) \rightarrow 0$

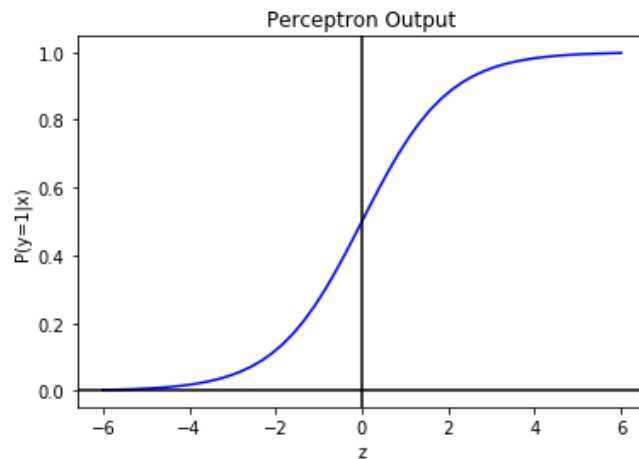


It's a method of evaluating how well your algorithm models your dataset. If your predictions are totally off, your loss function will output a higher number. If they're pretty good, it'll output a lower number.

# Loss Function

## *Error of a training sample*

The loss function  $\mathcal{L}(\hat{y}, y)$  determines how close of  $\hat{y}$  to the ground-truth  $y$



$$\mathcal{L}(\hat{y}, y) = -(y \log \hat{y} - (1 - y) \log(1 - \hat{y}))$$

$$\text{Goal: } \mathcal{L}(\hat{y}, y) \rightarrow 0$$

if  $y = 1$ ,

$$\therefore z = w^T \cdot x + b, \quad \rightarrow \infty$$

$$\hat{y} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}, \quad \rightarrow 1$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\hat{y}, y) = -\log \hat{y}, \quad \rightarrow 0$$

if  $y = 0$ ,

$$\therefore z = w^T \cdot x + b, \quad \rightarrow -\infty$$

$$\hat{y} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}, \quad \rightarrow 0$$

$$\mathcal{L}(\hat{y}, y) = -\log(1 - \hat{y}), \quad \rightarrow 0$$

Suppose  $y = f(x)$ . The derivative is  $y' = f'(x)$  where it gives the slope of  $f(x)$  at the point  $x$ . In other words, it specifies how to scale a small change in the input in order to obtain to make a small improvement in  $y$ . Suppose  $f(x - \epsilon \text{sign}(f'(x))) < f(x)$  for small enough  $\epsilon$  = learning rate.

We can reduce  $f(x)$  by moving  $x$  in small steps with opposite sign of the derivative. This technique is called gradient descent.

# Cost Function

Points where  $f'(x) = 0$  are known as critical points (stationary points).

A local minimum is a point where  $f(x)$  is lower than at all neighboring points, so it is no longer possible to decrease  $f(x)$  by making infinitesimal steps.

Some points are neither maxima nor minima. These points are called saddle points.

## Error of training data

The cost function  $J(\mathbf{w}, b)$  indicates how well the model does in entire training samples

- Training Goal
  - Find  $\mathbf{w}, b$  that minimize  $J(\mathbf{w}, b)$

$$\begin{aligned} J(\mathbf{w}, b) &= \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathcal{L}(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) \\ &= -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m [y^{(i)} \log \hat{y}^{(i)} + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - \hat{y}^{(i)})] \end{aligned}$$

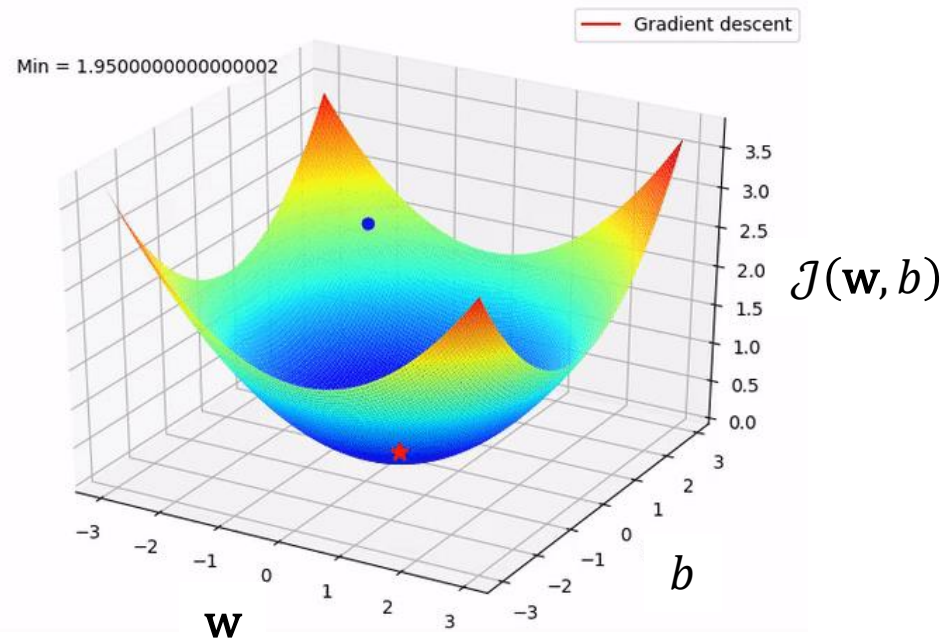
Gradient descent works to functions that are differentiable and convex.

- If a function is differentiable, it has a derivative for each point in its domain.
- The line segment connecting two function's points lays on or above its curve
  - Another way to check mathematically if a univariate function is convex is to calculate the second derivative and check if its value is always bigger than 0.

# Gradient Descent

Gradient - Intuitively it is a slope of a curve at a given point in a specified direction.

*Searching for minimum point in hyperplane*



- Goal

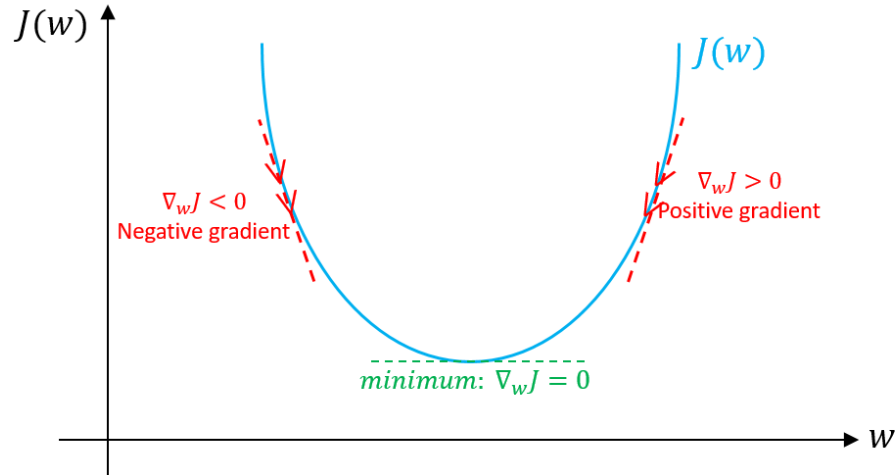
- Determine  $\mathbf{w}$ ,  $b$  that minimize  $J(\mathbf{w}, b)$

Gradient Descent Algorithm iteratively

1. Calculates the next point using gradient at the current position
2. Scales it (by a learning rate)
3. Subtracts obtained value from the current position (makes a step).
  - It subtracts the value because we want to minimise the function (to maximise it would be adding).

# Gradient Descent

*Initialize weight and adjust until the cost function approach to minimum*



- Procedure

Repeat {

$$w := w - \alpha \frac{d}{dw} J(w)$$

Until  $J(w) \rightarrow \min(J(w))$   
}

where  $\alpha$  represents the learning rate (a small positive value)

On the right

$$\frac{d}{dw} J(w) > 0, \quad \rightarrow w \text{ is adjusted by decreasing } \frac{d}{dw} J(w)$$

On the left

$$\frac{d}{dw} J(w) < 0, \quad \rightarrow w \text{ is adjusted by increasing } \frac{d}{dw} J(w)$$

Gradient Descent Algorithm iteratively

1. Calculates the next point using gradient at the current position
2. Scales it (by a learning rate)
3. Subtracts obtained value from the current position (makes a step).
  - It subtracts the value because we want to minimise the function (to maximise it would be adding).

# Gradient Descent

## Summary

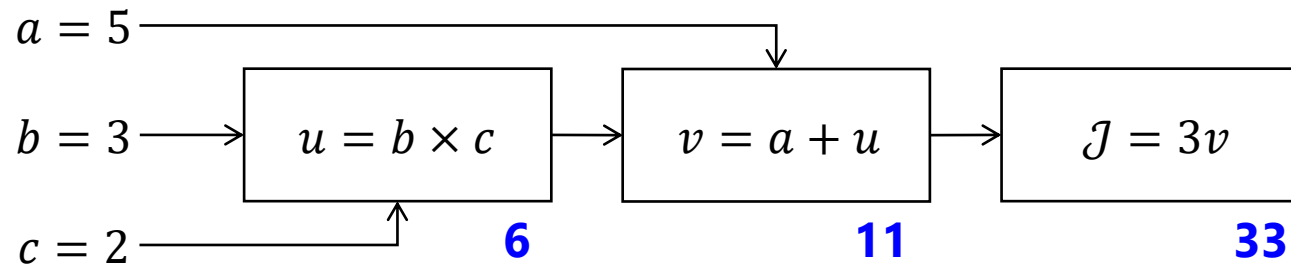
- Minimizing  $J(\mathbf{w}, b)$ 
  - $w := w - \alpha \frac{d}{dw} J(w, b),$  where  $w \in \mathbf{w}$
  - $b := b - \alpha \frac{d}{db} J(w, b)$
- In each training iteration, we need to determine

$$\frac{d}{dw} J(w, b) \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{d}{db} J(w, b)$$

# Computational Graph

## Forward path

Given a function  $J(a, b, c) = 3(a + bc)$

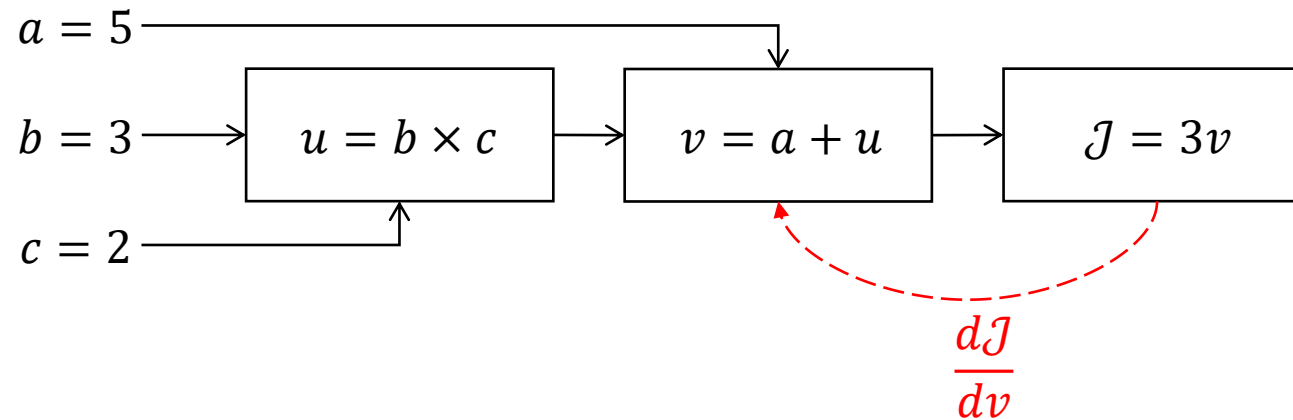


- Forward path
  - $J(a, b, c)$  can be determined
- Backward path
  - Derivative of  $J(a, b, c)$  w.r.t.  $a$  or  $b$  or  $c$  can be determined

# Computational Graph

*Backward path*

Given a function  $J(a, b, c) = 3(a + bc)$



- Finding  $\frac{dJ}{dv}$

- $v = 11$   $\xrightarrow{\text{Nudge its value}}$   $v = 11.001$

- $J = 33$   $\xrightarrow{\text{Changed by } v}$   $J = 33.003$

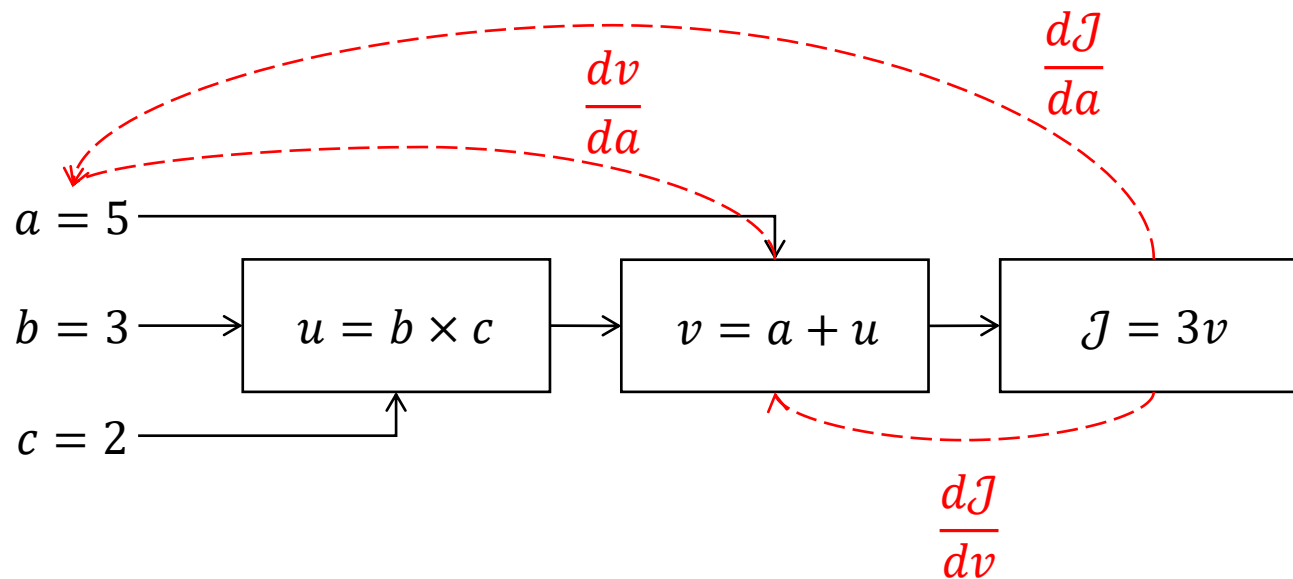
Therefore

$$\frac{dJ}{dv} = \frac{0.003}{0.001} = 3$$

# Computational Graph

Backward path

Given a function  $J(a, b, c) = 3(a + bc)$



- Finding  $\frac{dJ}{da}$

- $a = 5$   $\xrightarrow{\text{Nudge its value}}$   $a = 5.001$
- $v = 11$   $\xrightarrow{\text{Changed by } a}$   $v = 11.001$
- $J = 33$   $\xrightarrow{\text{Changed by } a, v}$   $J = 33.003$

Therefore

$$\frac{dJ}{da} = \frac{dJ}{dv} \cdot \frac{dv}{da} = \frac{0.003}{0.001} \cdot \frac{0.001}{0.001} = 3$$

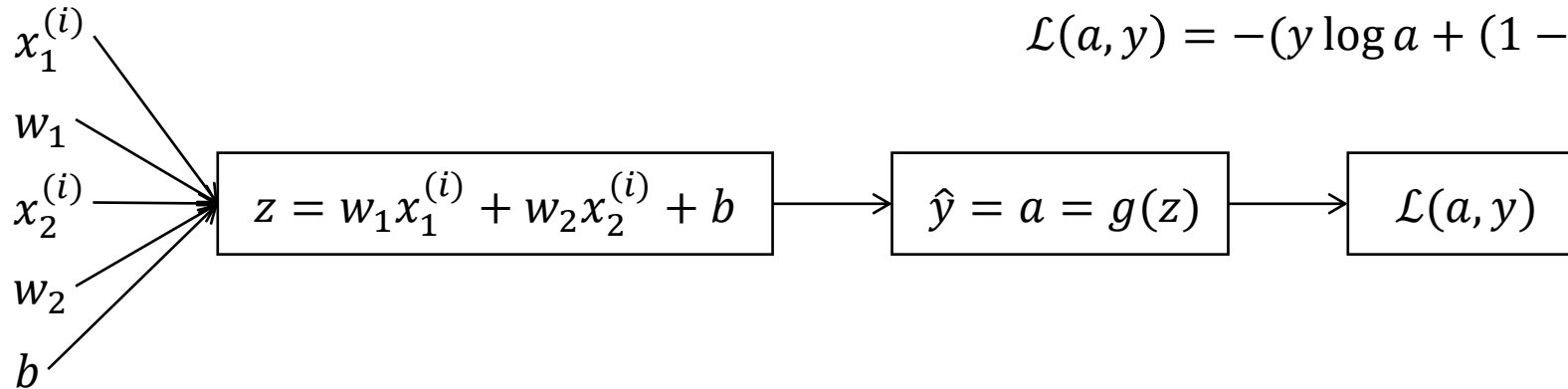
Chain rule



# Perceptron with Gradient Descent

*For a training sample*

Given  $\mathbf{w} = [w_1 \ w_2]$  and  $b$



- Recap

$$z = \mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b$$

$$\hat{y} = a = g(z)$$

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

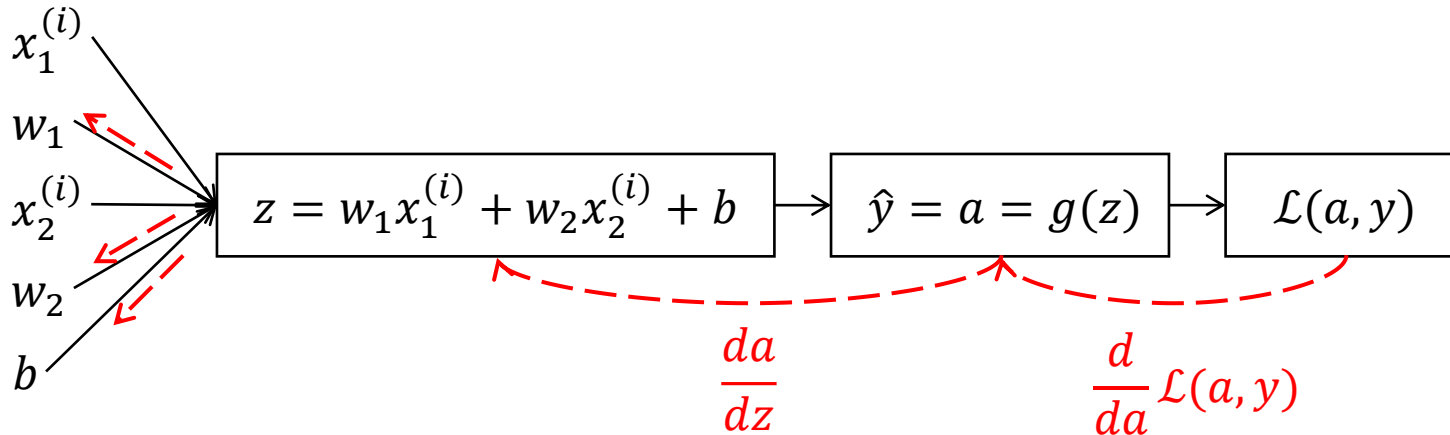
$$\mathcal{L}(a, y) = -(y \log a + (1 - y) \log(1 - a))$$

- Goal

- To adjust  $\mathbf{w} = [w_1 \ w_2]$  and  $b$  to minimize  $\mathcal{L}(a, y)$

# Perceptron with Gradient Descent

## Backward Propagation



$$\begin{aligned}\Delta z &= \frac{d}{dz} \mathcal{L}(a, y) \\ &= \frac{d}{da} \mathcal{L}(a, y) \cdot \frac{da}{dz}\end{aligned}$$

$$\text{since } \frac{d}{da} \mathcal{L}(a, y) = \frac{d}{da} [-y \log a - (1 - y) \log(1 - a)]$$

$$= -\frac{y}{a} + \frac{1 - y}{1 - a}$$

$$\text{and } \frac{da}{dz} = a(1 - a)$$

$$\begin{aligned}\therefore \Delta z &= \left( -\frac{y}{a} + \frac{1 - y}{1 - a} \right) \cdot a(1 - a) \\ &= a - y\end{aligned}$$

In other words,  $\Delta z$  is the difference between obtained output and desired output



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# Implementation

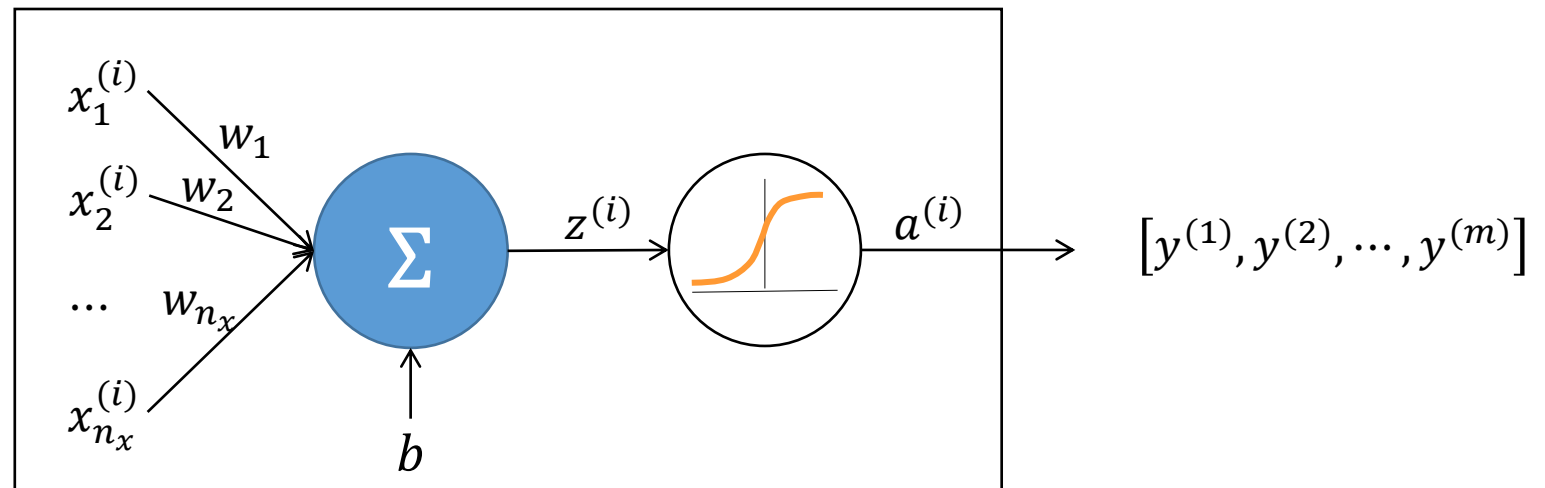
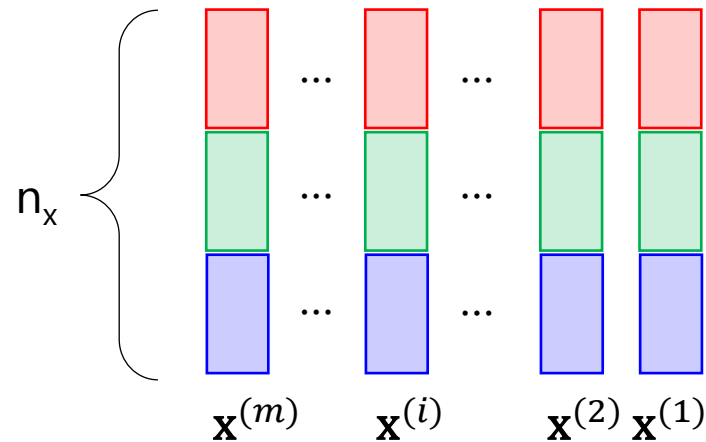
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# Vectorization

*Applying a perceptron to  $m$  samples*

Broadcasting property enable implementation without looping over training data

$$\mathbf{y} = g(\mathbf{z}) = g(\mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{X} + b)$$



# Naïve Implementation

Loop and Loop and Loop

This is NOT an efficient method

Note: Python programming does not have the  $\Delta$  character. For simplicity, let's change

$$\Delta w_1 \rightarrow dw_1$$

$$\Delta w_2 \rightarrow dw_2$$

$$\Delta b \rightarrow db$$

Initialize

$$\mathcal{J} = 0, dw_1 = 0, dw_2 = 0, db = 0$$

for epoch = 1 to max\_epoch:

for i = 1 to m:

compute  $z^{(i)}, a^{(i)}$

$$\mathcal{J} += -[y^{(i)} \log a^{(i)} + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - a^{(i)})]$$

compute  $dz^{(i)}$

update  $db$

for j = 1 to  $n_x$ :

update  $dw_j$

$$\mathcal{J} /= \frac{\mathcal{J}}{m}$$

# Implement with Vectorization

*The efficient method*

Initialize

$$J = 0, dw_1 = 0, dw_2 = 0, db = 0$$

for epoch = 1 to max\_epoch:

$$\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{X} + b$$

$$\mathbf{A} = g(\mathbf{Z})$$

$$J = -\frac{1}{m} \sum (\mathbf{y} \log \mathbf{A} - (1 - \mathbf{y}) \log(1 - \mathbf{A}))$$

$$\mathbf{dz} = \mathbf{A} - \mathbf{Y}$$

$$d\mathbf{w} = \frac{1}{m} \mathbf{X} \cdot \mathbf{dz}^T$$

$$db = \frac{1}{m} \cdot \text{np.sum}(\mathbf{dz})$$

$$\mathbf{w} -= \alpha \cdot d\mathbf{w}$$

$$b -= \alpha \cdot db$$

# Implement with Vectorization

*The efficient method*

Only loop over training iteration

for epoch = 1 to max\_epoch:

$$\mathbf{Z}_{1 \times m} = \underbrace{(\mathbf{w}_{1 \times n_x})^T}_{1 \times m} \cdot \mathbf{X}_{n_x \times m} + b$$

$$\mathbf{A}_{1 \times m} = g(\mathbf{Z}_{1 \times m})$$

$$\mathcal{J} = -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \underbrace{(\mathbf{y}_{1 \times m} \log \mathbf{A}_{1 \times m})}_{1 \times m} - \underbrace{(1 - \mathbf{y}_{1 \times m}) \log(1 - \mathbf{A}_{1 \times m})}_{1 \times m}$$

$$\mathbf{dz}_{1 \times m} = \mathbf{A}_{1 \times m} - \mathbf{y}_{1 \times m} \quad 1 \times 1$$

$$\mathbf{dw}_{1 \times n_x} = \frac{1}{m} \mathbf{X}_{n_x \times m} \cdot (\mathbf{dz}_{1 \times m})^T$$

$$db = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{dz}_{1 \times m}$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{1 \times n_x} -= \alpha \cdot \mathbf{dw}_{1 \times n_x}$$

$$b -= \alpha \cdot db$$



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# Neural Network

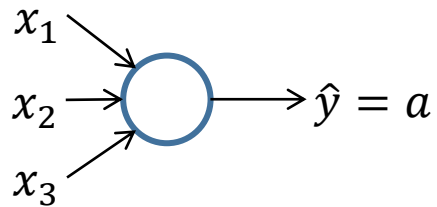


A collection of perceptrons

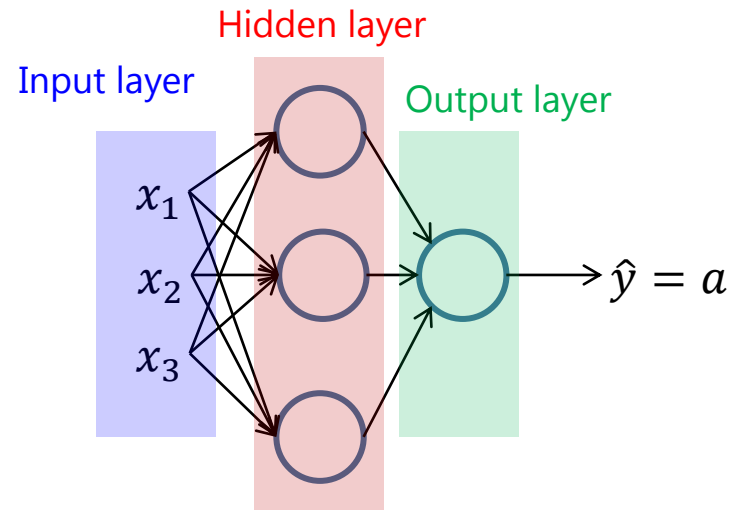


# Shallow Neural Network

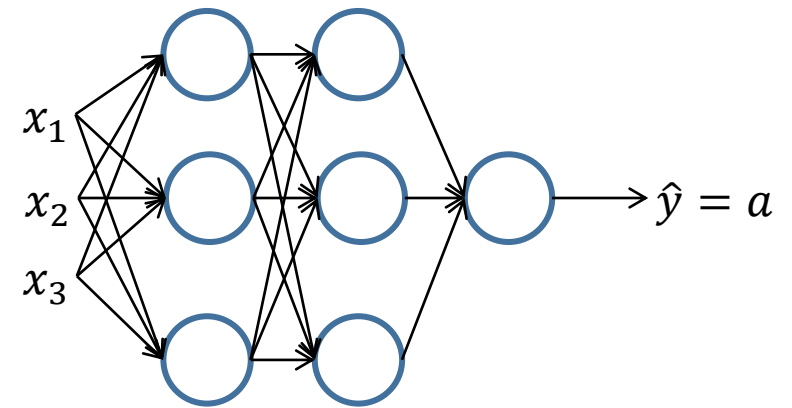
*None or a few hidden layers*



1-Layer Network  
(0 Hidden Layer)  
(perceptron or logistic regression)



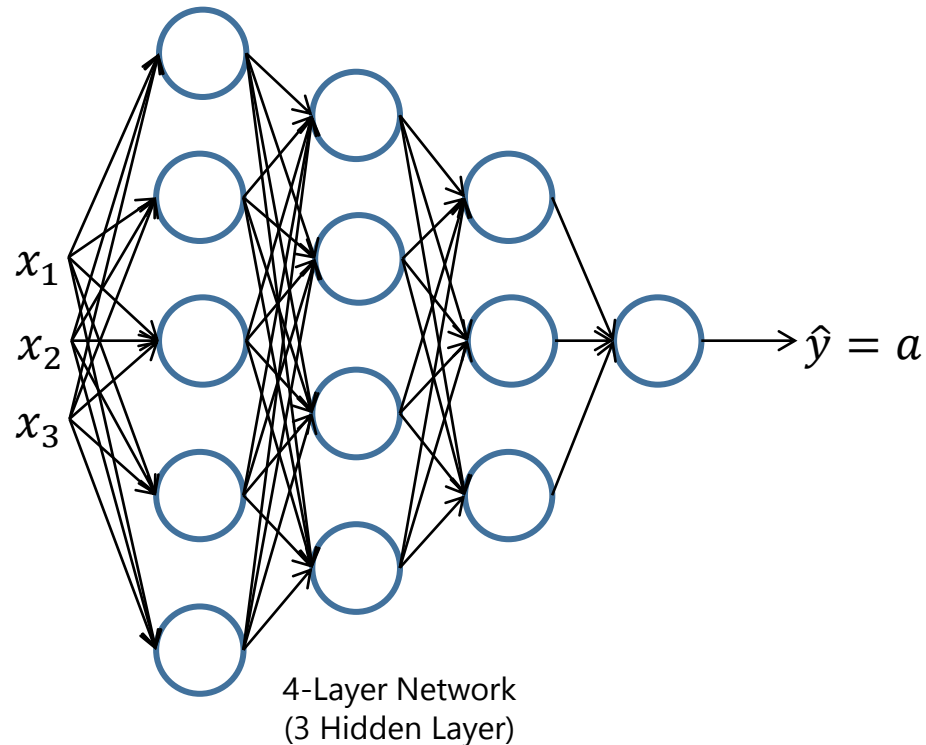
2-Layer Network  
(1 Hidden Layer)



3-Layer Network  
(2 Hidden Layer)

# Deep Neural Network

*More hidden layers*



- Notations

$L$  represents the number of layers (exclude the input layer)

$n^{[l]}$  represents the number of units in the  $l^{th}$  layer

Examples:

$$n^{[1]} = 5, \quad n^{[2]} = 4, \quad n^{[3]} = 3, \quad n^{[4]} = 1$$

$g^{[l]}(\cdot)$  represents the activation function in the  $l^{th}$  layer

$\mathbf{z}^{[l]}$  represents the linear combination in the  $l^{th}$  layer

$\mathbf{a}^{[l]}$  represents the activated values in the  $l^{th}$  layer

$\mathbf{W}^{[l]}$  represents the weights matrix in the  $l^{th}$  layer

$\mathbf{b}^{[l]}$  represents the bias in the  $l^{th}$  layer

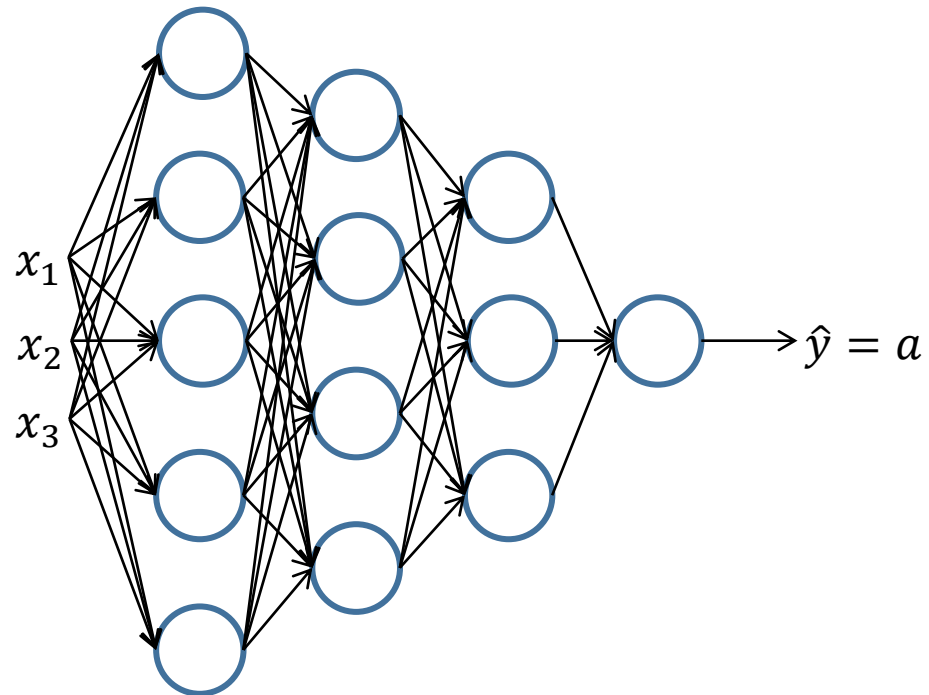
$\mathbb{W}$  represents the collection of weights matrix of all layers

$w_{i,j}$  represents the weights connecting between the  $i^{th}$  unit in the  $l^{th}$  layer to the  $j^{th}$  unit in the  $(l-1)^{th}$  layer

$\mathbb{b}$  represents the collection of bias vectors of all layers

# Deep Neural Network

Weights



- Weights  $\mathbb{W} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{W}^{[1]} \\ \mathbf{W}^{[2]} \\ \mathbf{W}^{[3]} \\ \mathbf{W}^{[4]} \end{bmatrix}$

$$\mathbf{W}^{[l]} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{w}_1^{[l]} \\ \dots \\ \mathbf{w}_{n^{[l]}}^{[l]} \end{bmatrix}_{n^{[l]}, n^{[l-1]}}$$

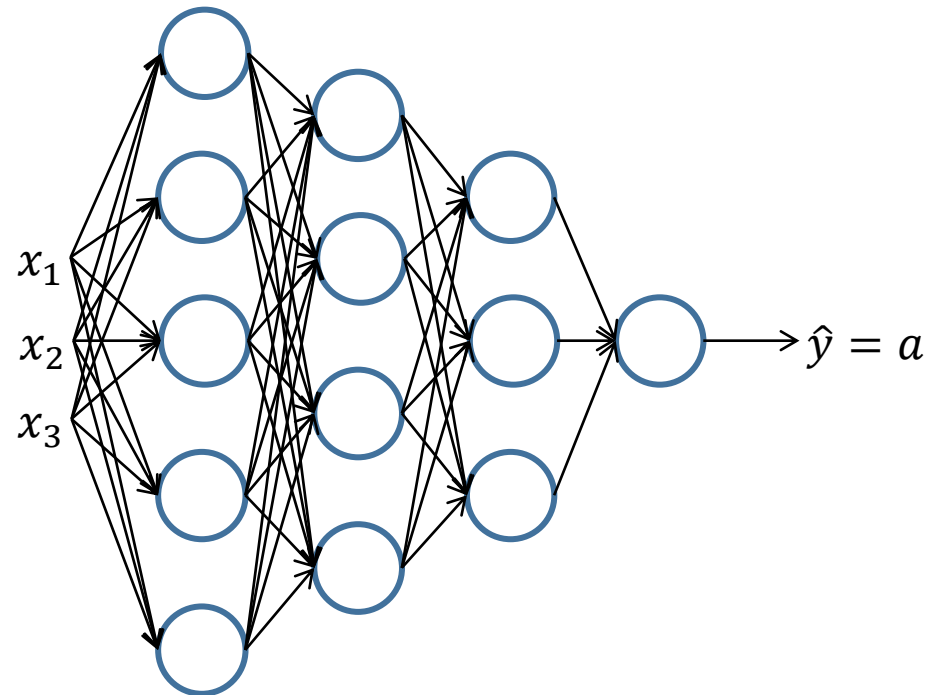
- Example

$$\mathbf{W}^{[3]} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{1,1} & \dots & w_{1,4} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ w_{3,1} & \dots & w_{3,4} \end{bmatrix}$$

Dimension of  $\mathbf{W}^{[l]}$  is  $(n^{[l]}, n^{[l-1]})$

# Deep Neural Network

## Biases



- Biases

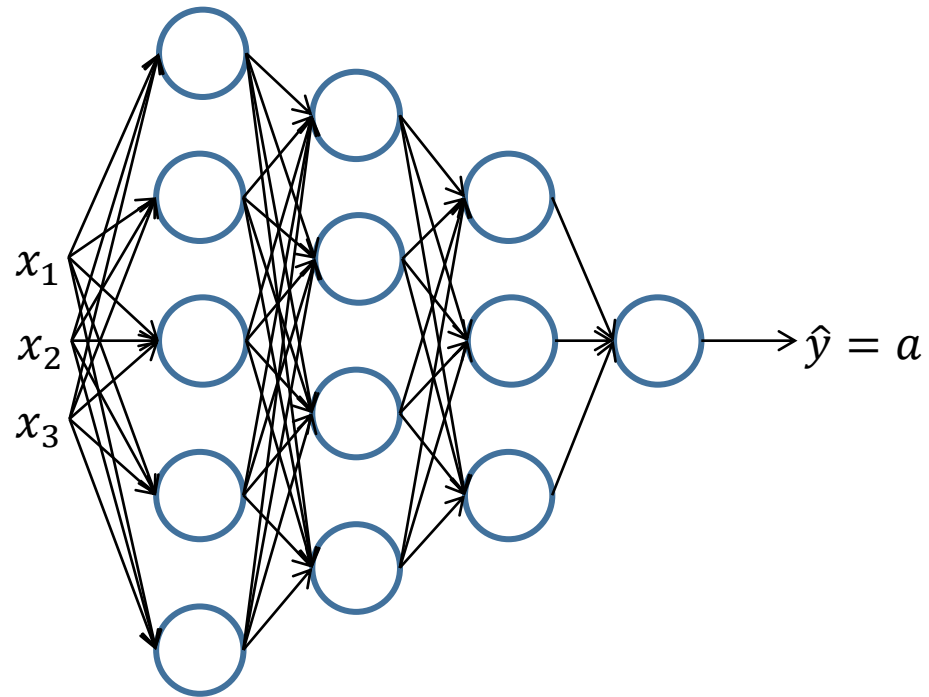
$$\mathbb{b} = [\mathbf{b}^{[1]} \quad \dots \quad \mathbf{b}^{[4]}] = \begin{bmatrix} b_1^{[1]} & \dots & b_1^{[4]} \\ \vdots & \dots & \vdots \\ b_5^{[1]} & \dots & b_3^{[4]} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\therefore \mathbf{b}^{[l]} = \begin{bmatrix} b_1^{[l]} \\ \vdots \\ b_{n^{[l]}}^{[l]} \end{bmatrix}$$

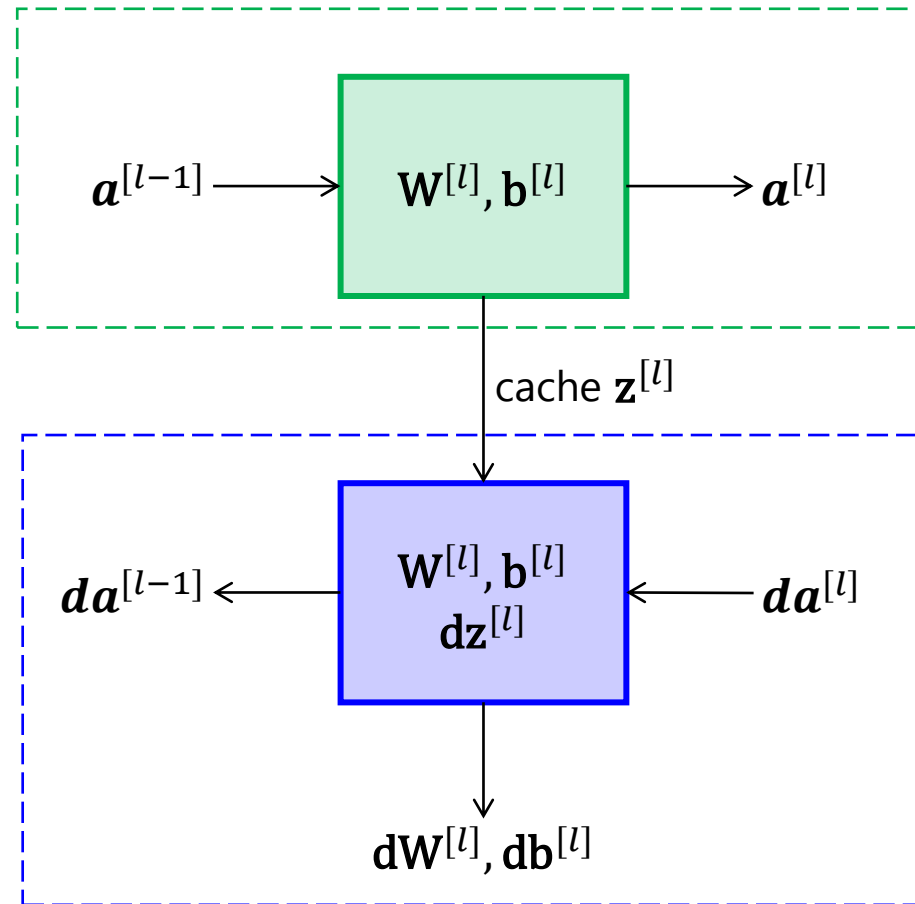
Dimension of  $\mathbf{b}^{[l]}$  is  $(n^{[l]}, 1)$

# Implementation with Vectorization

*The  $L$  layers neural network*

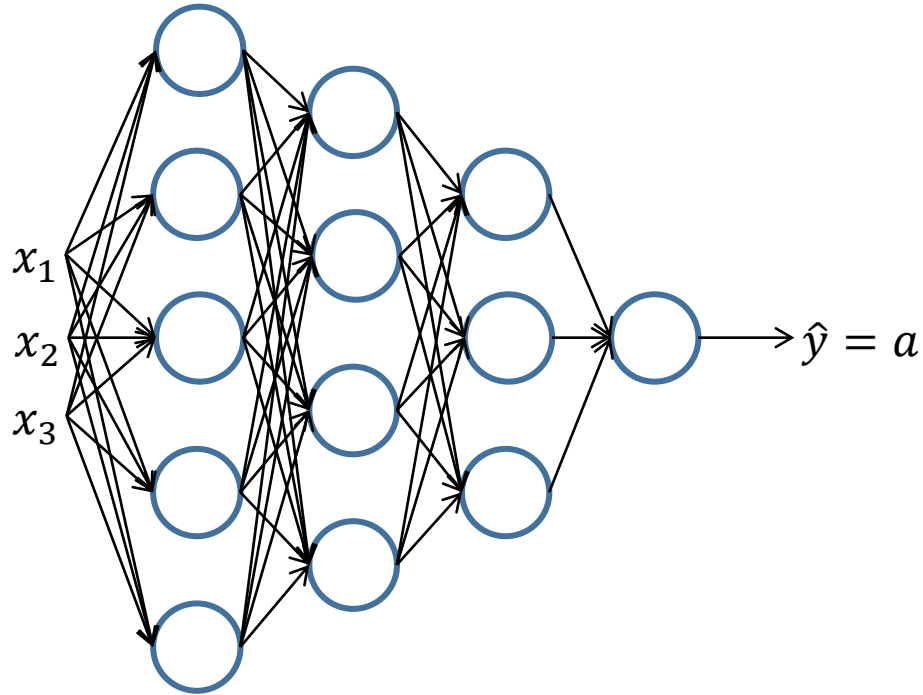


- At the layer  $l$ :  $\mathbf{W}^{[l]}, \mathbf{b}^{[l]}$



# Implementation with Vectorization

*The L layers neural network*



- At the layer  $l$ :  $\mathbf{W}^{[l]}, \mathbf{b}^{[l]}$

- Forward Propagation

$$\mathbf{z}^{[l]} = \mathbf{W}^{[l]} \cdot \mathbf{a}^{[l-1]} + \mathbf{b}^{[l]}$$

$$\mathbf{a}^{[l]} = g^{[l]}(\mathbf{z}^{[l]})$$

- Backward Propagation

$$d\mathbf{z}^{[l]} = d\mathbf{a}^{[l]} * g'^{[l]}(\mathbf{z}^{[l]})$$

$$d\mathbf{W}^{[l]} = \frac{1}{m} d\mathbf{z}^{[l]} \cdot \mathbf{a}^{[l-1]T}$$

$$d\mathbf{b}^{[l]} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m d\mathbf{z}^{[l]}$$

*$np.sum(d\mathbf{z}^{[l]}, axis = 1, keepdims = True)$*

$$d\mathbf{a}^{[l-1]} = \mathbf{W}^{[l]T} \cdot d\mathbf{z}^{[l]}$$



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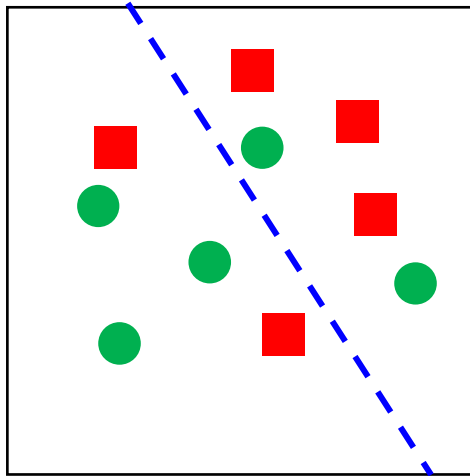
# Model Tuning

---

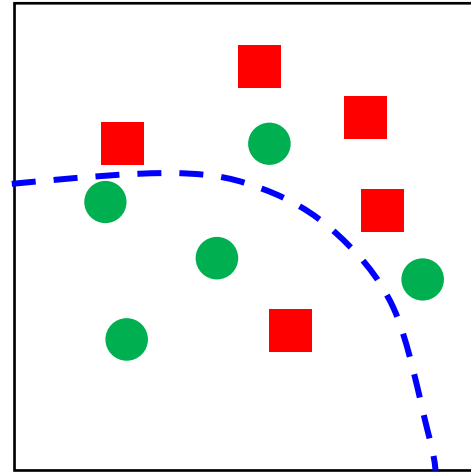
# Bias and Variance Problem

*Easy to learn but difficult to master*

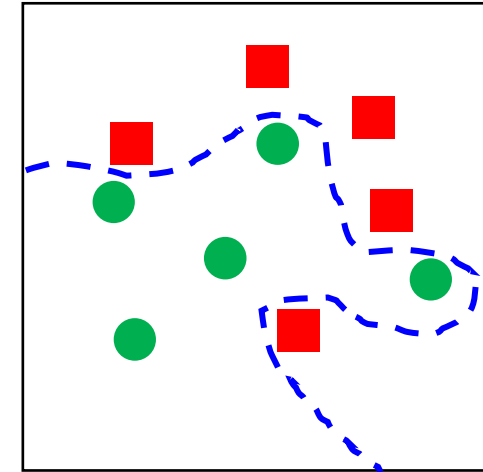
- Unable to visualize in high dimensional data



High Bias  
(Underfitting)



Just right



High Variance  
(Overfitting)





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# Regularization



L1 and L2

# L1 and L2 Regularization

Recall the cost function of perceptron

Goal:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \mathcal{J}(\mathbf{w}, b), \quad \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}, b \in \mathbb{R}$$

- L1 regularization (Lasso)

$$\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{w}, b) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathcal{L}(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \|\mathbf{w}\|_1$$

*Regularization term*

where  $\|\mathbf{w}\|_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{n_x} |w_j|$

$\lambda$  represents the regularization parameter

- L1 makes many weights become zeros
- Good for compacting the model
- L1 is not often used

# L1 and L2 Regularization

Recall the cost function of perceptron

Goal:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \mathcal{J}(\mathbf{w}, b), \quad \mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}, b \in \mathbb{R}$$

- L2 regularization (Ridge)

$$\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{w}, b) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathcal{L}(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2$$

*Regularization term*

where  $\|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 = \sum_{j=1}^{n_x} w_j^2 = \mathbf{w}^T \cdot \mathbf{w}$

$\lambda$  represents the regularization parameter

- L2 is much more often used compared to L1

# L2 Regularization

## L2 of Deep Neural Network

The cost function

$$\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{w}^{[1]}, \mathbf{b}^{[1]}, \dots, \mathbf{w}^{[L]}, \mathbf{b}^{[L]}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathcal{L}(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{l=1}^L \|\mathbf{w}^{[l]}\|_F^2$$

where

*Frobenious norm*  $\|\mathbf{w}\|_F^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{n^{[l-1]}} \sum_{j=1}^{n^{[l]}} (w_{ij}^{[l]})^2$

$$\mathbf{w}^{[l]}: (n^{[l]}, n^{[l-1]})$$

- Modifying back propagation

$$d\mathbf{w}^{[l]} = (\cdot) + \frac{\lambda}{m} \mathbf{w}^{[l]}$$

$$\mathbf{w}^{[l]} = \mathbf{w}^{[l]} - \alpha d\mathbf{w}^{[l]}$$

$$= \mathbf{w}^{[l]} - \alpha \left[ (\cdot) + \frac{\lambda}{m} \mathbf{w}^{[l]} \right]$$

$$= \mathbf{w}^{[l]} - \frac{\alpha\lambda}{m} \mathbf{w}^{[l]} - \alpha(\cdot)$$

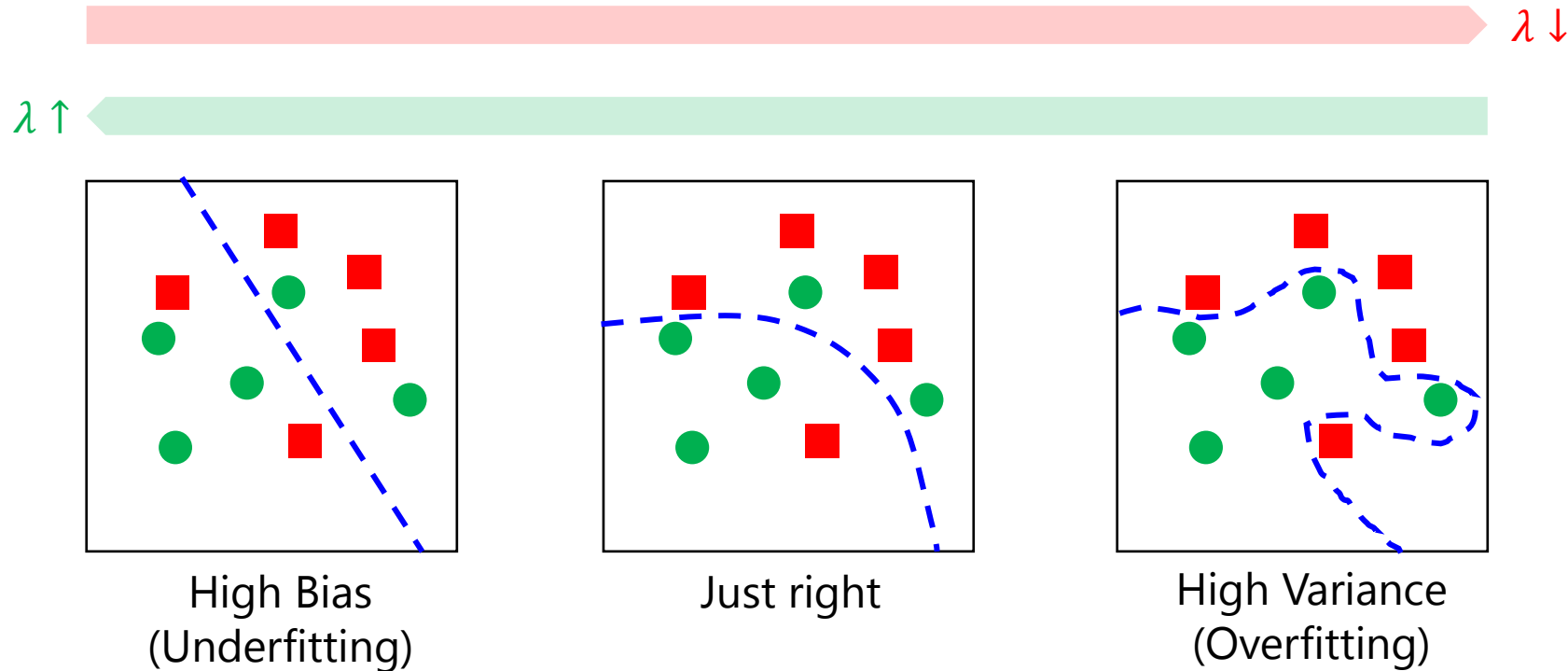
$$= \left(1 - \frac{\alpha\lambda}{m}\right) \mathbf{w}^{[l]} - \alpha(\cdot)$$

*Weight Decay*

where  $(\cdot)$  represents the term obtained from original back propagation

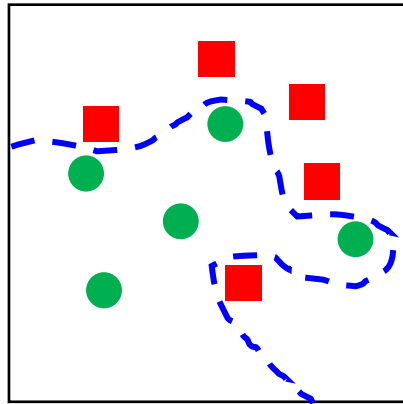
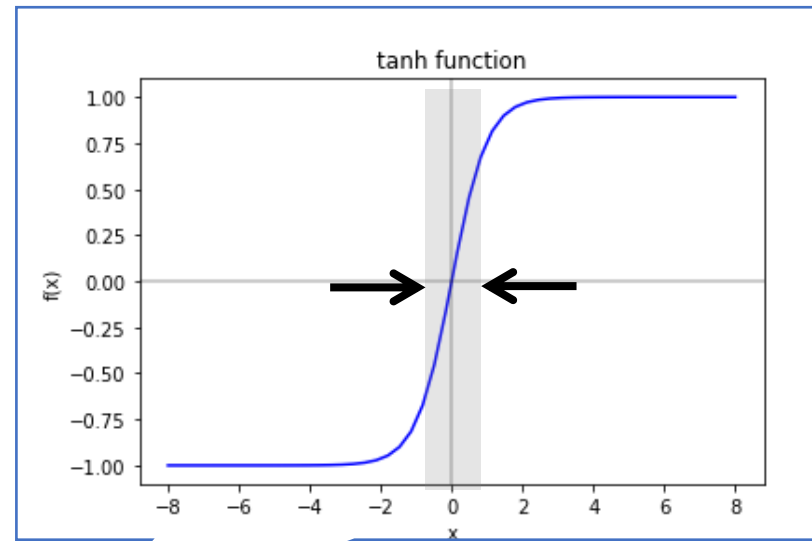
# L2 Regularization

*Why does L2 prevent overfitting?*



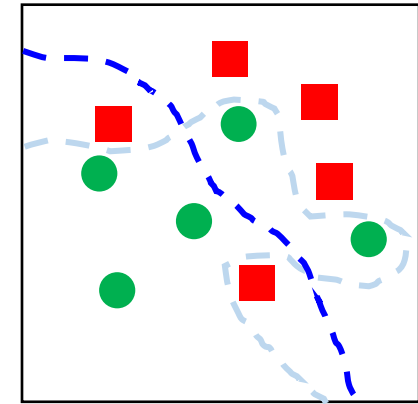
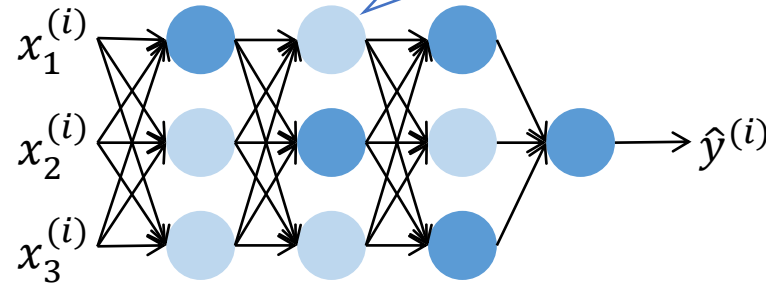
# L2 Regularization

*Why does L2 prevent overfitting?*



$\lambda \uparrow$   
 $\mathbf{w}^{[l]} \downarrow$   
 $\mathbf{z}^{[l]} \downarrow$

$$\because \mathbf{z}^{[l]} = \mathbf{w}^{[l]} \mathbf{a}^{[l-1]} + \mathbf{b}^{[l]}$$



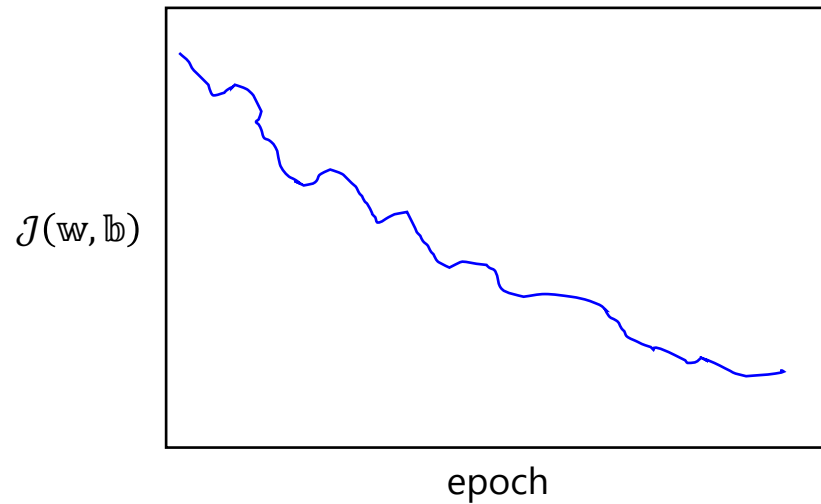
Decision boundary is stretched out

# L2 Regularization

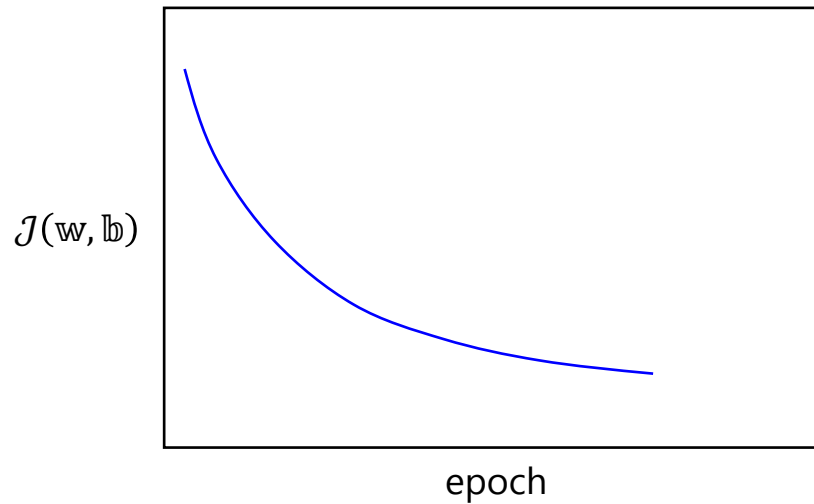
*Smoother cost function*

$$\mathcal{J}(\mathbf{w}^{[1]}, \mathbf{b}^{[1]}, \dots, \mathbf{w}^{[L]}, \mathbf{b}^{[L]}) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathcal{L}(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) + \frac{\lambda}{2m} \sum_{l=1}^L \|\mathbf{w}^{[l]}\|_F^2$$

Without regularization



With regularization





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# Regularization



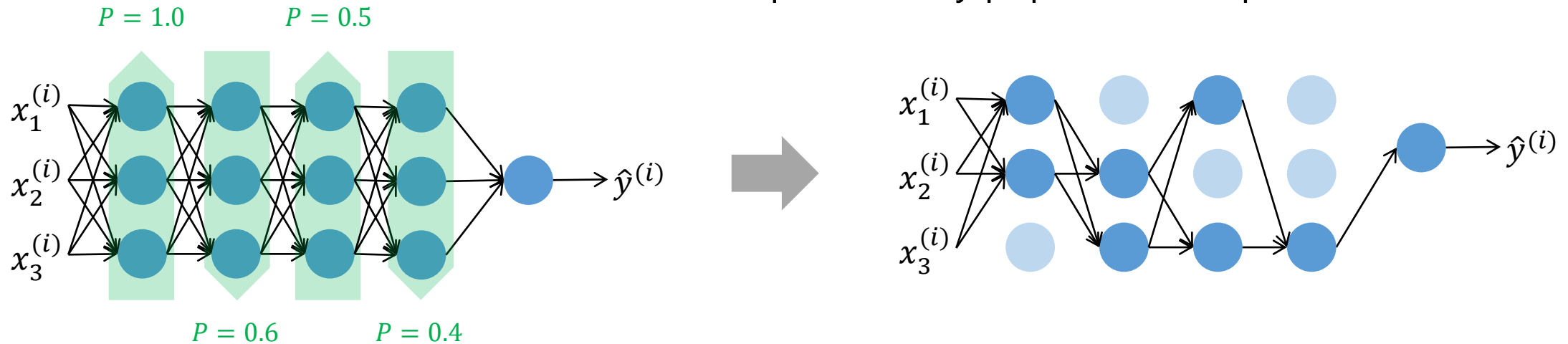
DropOut & DropConnect



# DropOut

## Ensemble Neural Network

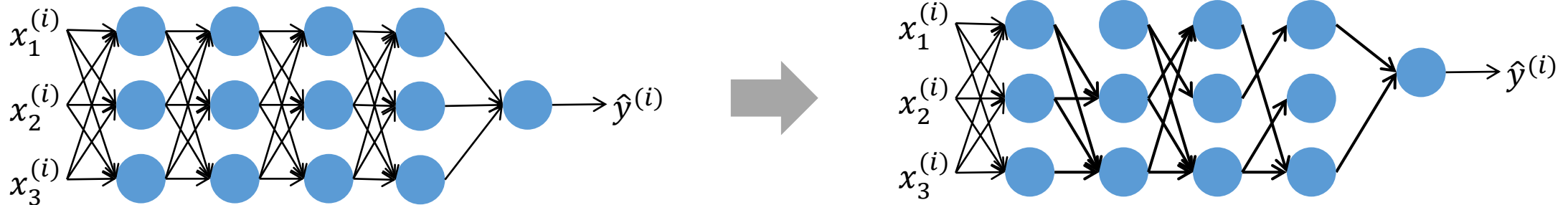
- Set the probability of enable hidden units in each hidden layer
- The edges connected to any disable hidden unit will be removed
- DropOut is applied ONLY training but NOT testing
- DropOut produces many possible combination of neuron network
- DropOut is very popular in computer vision



# DropConnect

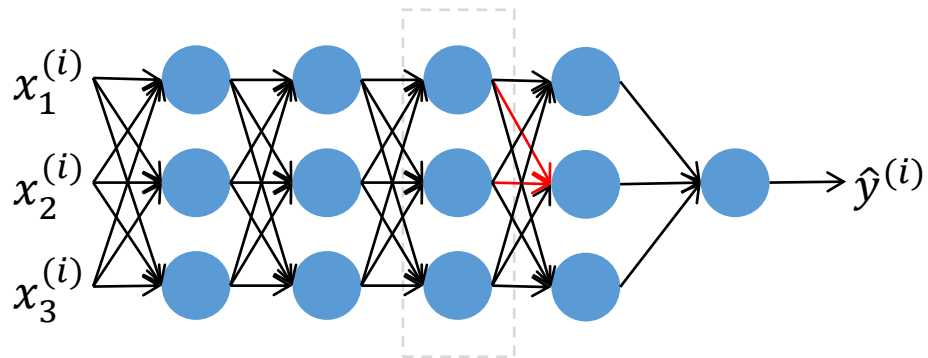
*Generalization of DropOut*

- Set the Boolean mask to randomly disable connections
- Rescale output on active connections
- DropConnect is applied ONLY for training but NOT testing
- DropConnect makes even more possible combination than dropout
- DropConnect is very popular in computer vision



# Implementation

*Illustration of DropConnect at the layer 3*



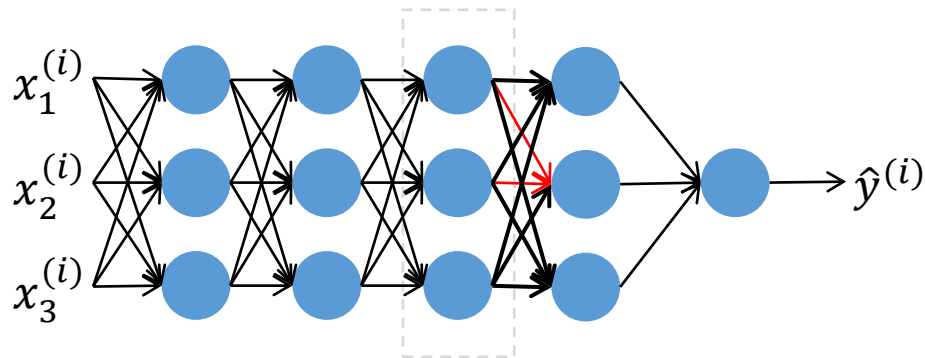
- Define theoretical variable to Python variable
  - P as keepprob
- Create a Boolean mask to randomly disable weights

```
keepprob = 0.8  
d3 = np.random.rand(a3.shape[0], a3.shape[1]) < keepprob
```

```
In [43]: d3  
Out[43]:  
array([[ True,  True,  True],  
       [False,  True,  True],  
       [ True, False,  True]])
```

# Implementation

*Illustration of DropConnect at the layer 3*



- Rescale the  $\mathbf{a}^{[3]}$

```
a3 /= keepprob
```

- Example: If  $\mathbf{a}^{[3]}$  is

```
array([[1., 2., 3.],  
       [4., 5., 6.],  
       [7., 8., 9.]])
```

- Rescale  $\mathbf{a}^{[3]}$  after drop connect will be

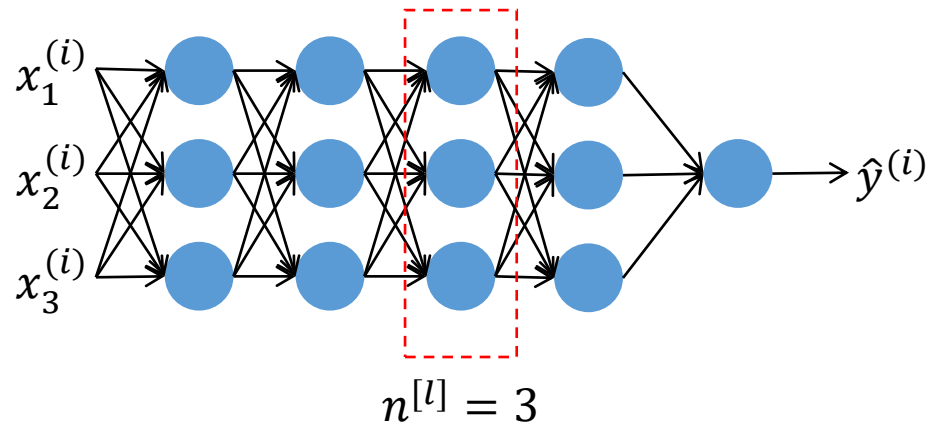
```
array([[ 1.25,  2.5 ,  3.75],  
       [ 0.   ,  6.25,  7.5 ],  
       [ 8.75,  0.   , 11.25]])
```

- In practice  $\mathbf{a}^{[3]}$  is obtained from

$$\mathbf{a}^{[3]} = g^{[3]}(\mathbf{z}^{[3]}) = g^{[3]}(\mathbf{W}^{[3]} \cdot \mathbf{a}^{[2]} + \mathbf{b}^{[3]})$$

# Recommended Settings

*Some idea to set your keepprob*

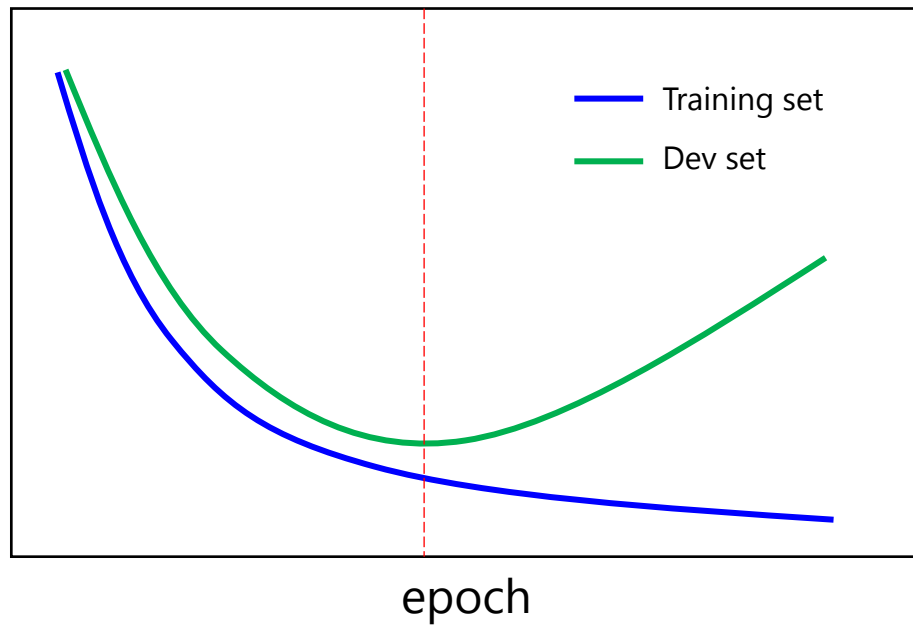


- The keepprob can be different value in different layer
- The lower  $n^{[l]}$  (number of hidden units in the layer  $l$ ) the higher keepprob
- Input layer has keepprob equal to 1

# Other Regularizations

Early stopping

$J(W, \mathbf{b})$



- Stop training based on the cost convergence



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# Gradient

---

# Normalized Input

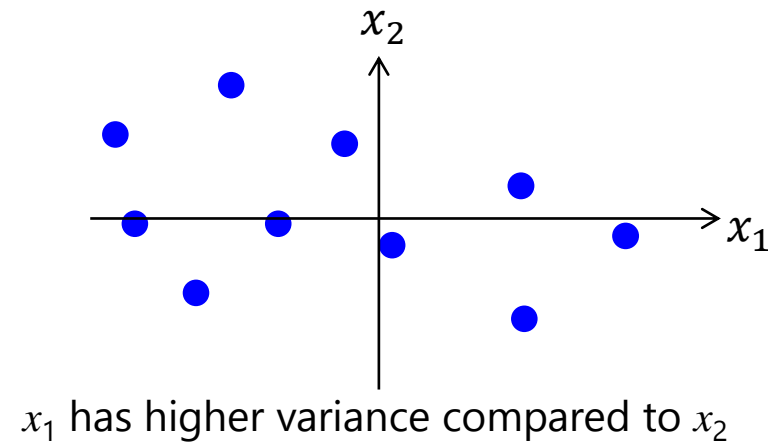
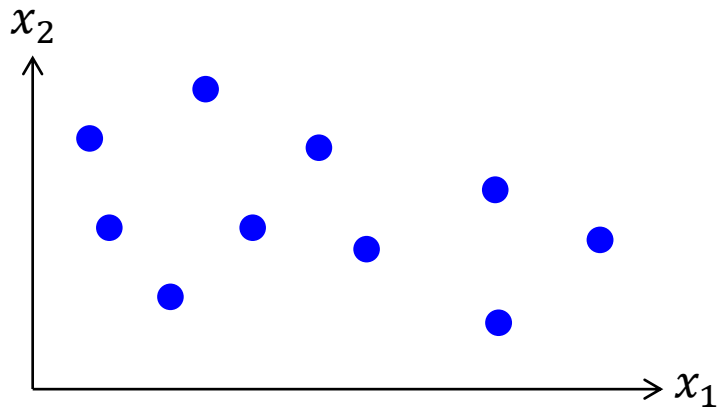
*Speed up your training*

- Subtract mean

$$\mu = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$$

$$\mathbf{X} := \mathbf{X} - \mu$$

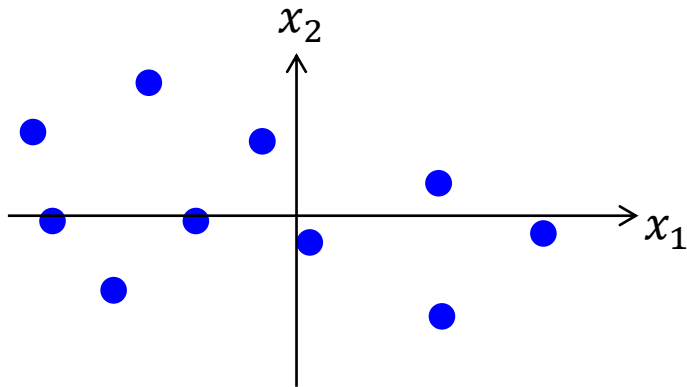
- Data will have zero mean





# Normalized Input

*Speed up your training*

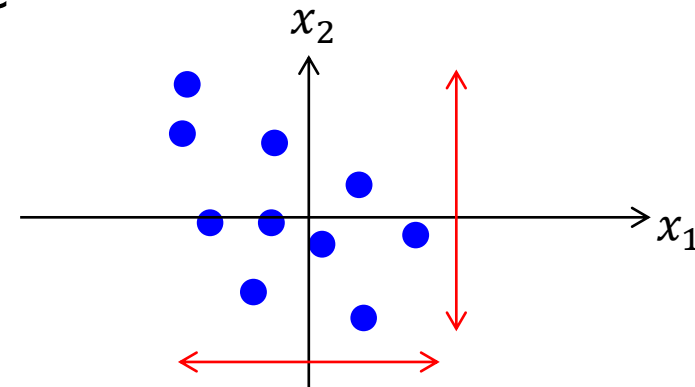


- Normalized variance

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m (\mathbf{x}^{(i)})^2$$

$$\mathbf{X} = \frac{\mathbf{X}}{\sigma^2}$$

- Data will have zero mean and normalized variance

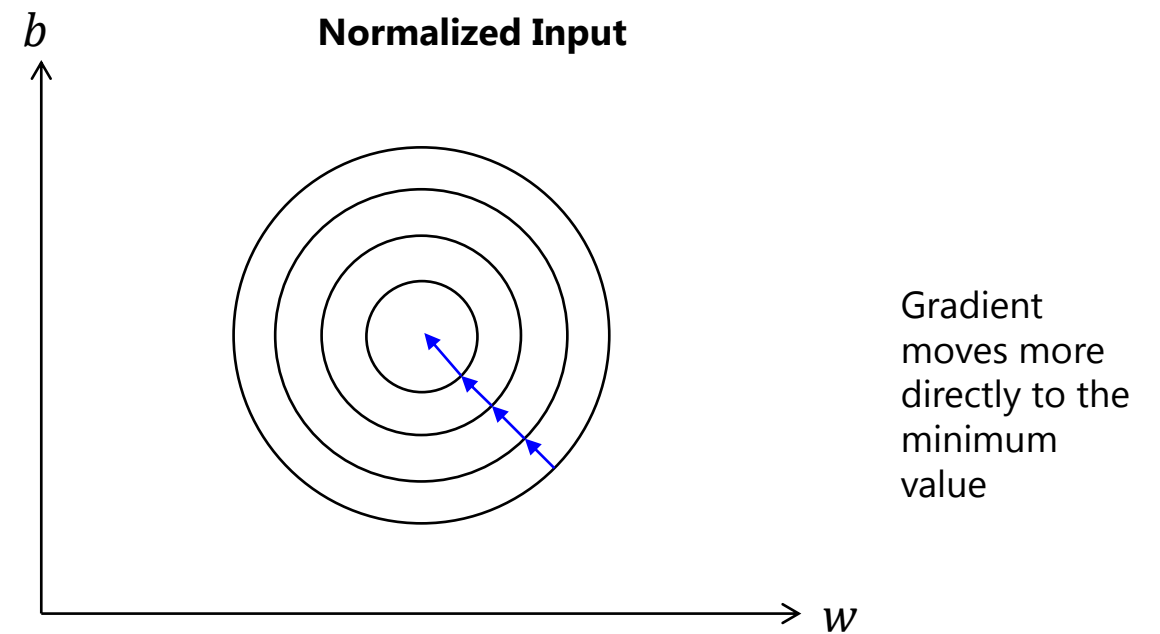
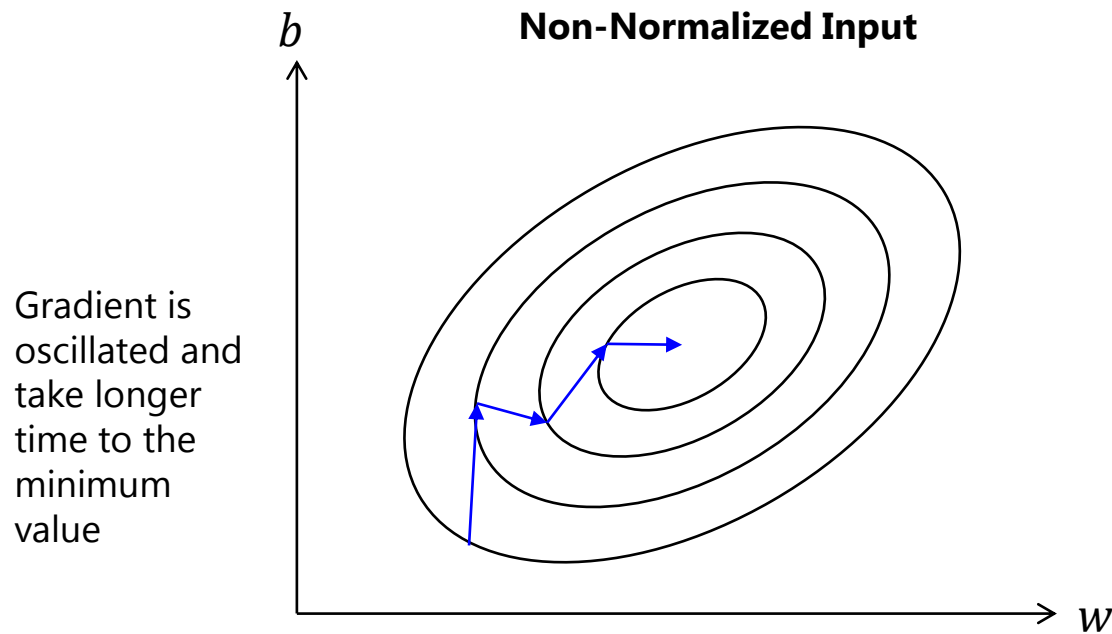


- $\mu$  and  $\sigma^2$  from training set will be used in test set

# Normalized Input

- Given a contour of the cost function

*Speed up your training*





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# Minibatch Gradient Descent

---

# Batch VS Mini-batch

*Dividing training data into minibatch*

Notations

$\mathbf{X}^{(t)}$  and  $\mathbf{y}^{(t)}$  for training samples of mini-batch  $t$

- Vectorization enables effective computation over  $m$  samples

$$\mathbf{X}_{n_x \times m} = [\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(m)}]$$

$$\mathbf{y}_{1 \times m} = [y^{(1)}, y^{(2)}, \dots, y^{(m)}]$$

- What if  $m$  is extremely large, e.g. 5,000,000
  - Use mini-batch

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{X}_{n_x \times m} &= [\underbrace{\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, \mathbf{x}^{(2)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(1000)}}_{\mathbf{X}^{(1)}} | \underbrace{\mathbf{x}^{(1001)}, \mathbf{x}^{(1002)}, \dots, \mathbf{x}^{(2000)}}_{\mathbf{X}^{(2)}} | \dots \dots | \dots \dots \underbrace{\mathbf{x}^{(5,000,000)}}_{\mathbf{X}^{(5000)}}] \\ \mathbf{y}_{1 \times m} &= [\underbrace{y^{(1)}, y^{(2)}, \dots, y^{(1000)}}_{\mathbf{y}^{(1)}} | \underbrace{y^{(1001)}, y^{(1002)}, \dots, y^{(2000)}}_{\mathbf{y}^{(2)}} | \dots \dots | \dots \dots \underbrace{y^{(5,000,000)}}_{\mathbf{y}^{(5000)}}] \end{aligned}$$

# Mini-Batch Implementation

*From the previous example*

```
while {  
  for t in range(0, 5000):
```

```
    # Forward propagation on  $X^{(t)}$ 
```

$$\mathbf{z}^{[1]} = \mathbf{w}^{[1]} \cdot \mathbf{X}^{(t)} + \mathbf{b}^{[1]}$$

$$\mathbf{a}^{[1]} = g(\mathbf{z}^{[1]})$$

$\vdots$

$$\mathbf{z}^{[L]} = \mathbf{w}^{[L]} \cdot \mathbf{a}^{[L-1]} + \mathbf{b}^{[L]}$$

$$\mathbf{a}^{[L]} = g(\mathbf{z}^{[L]})$$

*Use vectorization implementation*

$$\mathcal{J}^{(t)} = \frac{1}{1000} \sum_{i=1}^{1000} \mathcal{L}(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) + \frac{\lambda}{2 \times 1000} \sum_l \|\mathbf{w}^{[l]}\|_F^2$$

from  $\mathbf{X}^{(t)}, \mathbf{y}^{(t)}$

Backward propagation w.r.t.  $\mathcal{J}^{(t)}$  using  $\mathbf{X}^{(t)}$  and  $\mathbf{y}^{(t)}$

$$\mathbf{w}^{[l]} = \mathbf{w}^{[l]} - \alpha \mathbf{dw}^{[l]}$$

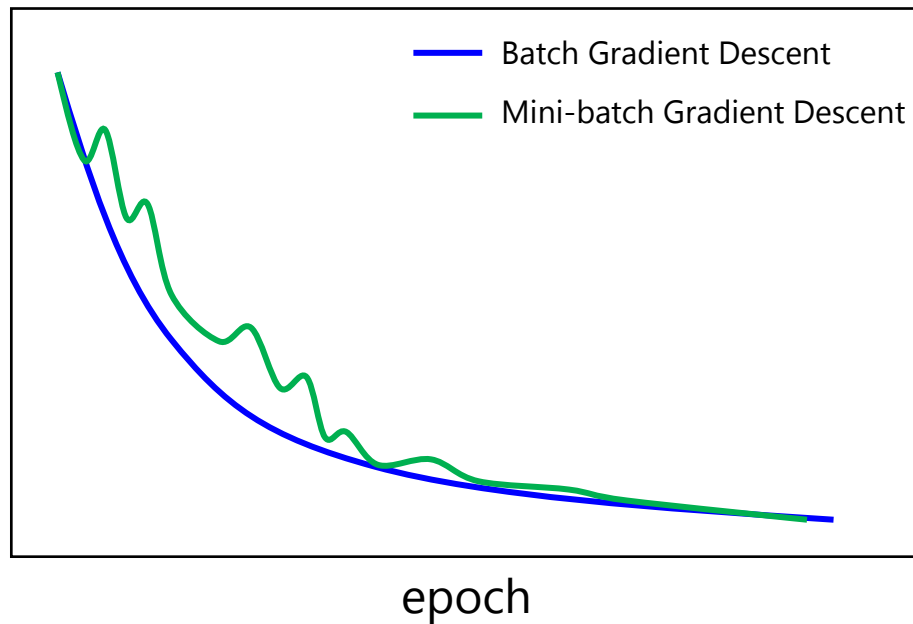
$$\mathbf{b}^{[l]} = \mathbf{b}^{[l]} - \alpha \mathbf{db}^{[l]}$$

```
} until converge
```

# Mini-batch gradient descent

*Cost function comparison*

$J(W, \mathbf{b})$

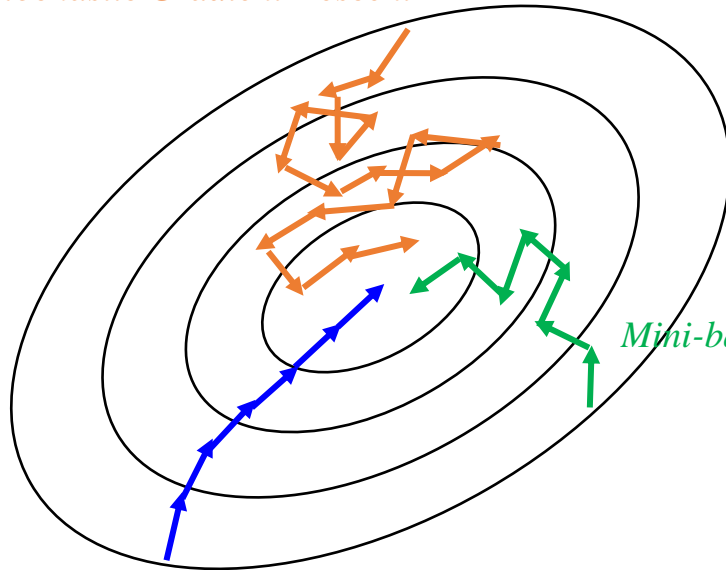


- The cost function of mini-batch gradient descent could be oscillated
  - $\mathbf{X}^{\{1\}}, \mathbf{y}^{\{1\}}$  might be an easy gradient
  - $\mathbf{X}^{\{2\}}, \mathbf{y}^{\{2\}}$  might be a harder gradient
  - Overall should be downward

# Choosing Mini-batch size

*The extreme cases*

*Stochastic Gradient Descent*



*Batch Gradient Descent*

- Mini-batch size =  $m$ 
  - Batch gradient descent

$$(\mathbf{X}^{\{1\}}, \mathbf{y}^{\{1\}}) = (\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{y})$$

- Mini-batch size = 1
  - Stochastic gradient descent

$$(\mathbf{X}^{\{1\}}, \mathbf{y}^{\{1\}}) = (\mathbf{x}^{(1)}, y^{(1)})$$

Characteristics	Batch	Mini-batch	SGD
Speed	Very Slow	Fast	Slow <i>Does not leverage vectorization</i>
Convergence to minimum	Guarantee	Not Guarantee	Not Guarantee

# Choosing Mini-batch size

---

## *Conclusion*

- Small Training Set ( $m \leq 2000$ )
  - Use Batch gradient descent
- Otherwise
  - Use Mini-batch
- Suggested mini-batch size
  - $2^k$  to perfectly fit in CPU/GPU memory, e.g. 64, 128, 256, 512, etc





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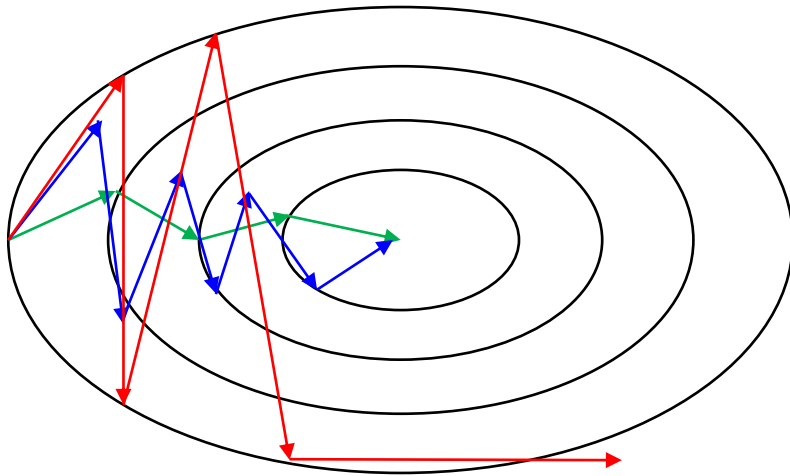
# Gradient Optimization

---

Momentum Gradient Descent, RMSprop, and ADAM

# Momentum Gradient Descent

*Idea*



- Gradient Descent
- Momentum Gradient Descent
- Overshoot (too much learning rate)

- Desired movement directions
  - Fast to the minimum point

From our example, movement on this direction (→) should be fast

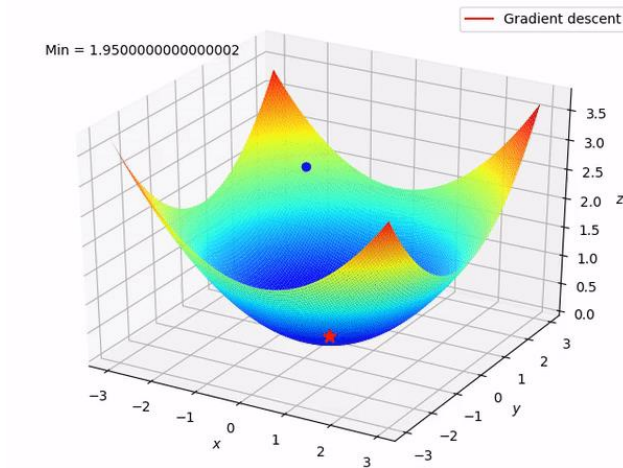
- Slow to others

From our example, movement on this direction (↕) should be slow

# Momentum Gradient Descent

## Velocity and Acceleration

Similar to a ball rolling in a bowl



- On iteration t:  
Compute  $\mathbf{dW}$ ,  $\mathbf{db}$  on a set of mini-batch

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{dW}} &= \beta \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{dW}} + (1 - \beta) \mathbf{dW} \\ \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{db}} &= \beta \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{db}} + (1 - \beta) \mathbf{db} \end{aligned}$$

Diagram illustrating the momentum update equations for  $\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{dW}}$  and  $\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{db}}$ . The equations show the current velocity (green box) being updated with a fraction  $\beta$  of the previous velocity and a fraction  $(1 - \beta)$  of the current acceleration (blue box). The diagram uses arrows to indicate the flow of information: a red arrow labeled 'friction' points from the previous velocity to the current velocity, a green arrow labeled 'velocity' points from the current velocity to the new velocity, and a blue arrow labeled 'acceleration' points from the current acceleration to the new velocity.

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W} - \alpha \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{dW}}$$

$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} - \alpha \mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{db}}$$

# Momentum Gradient Descent

## Implementation

Initialize  $\mathbf{v}_{dW} = 0, \mathbf{v}_{db} = 0$

Note: dimension of  $\mathbf{v}_{dW} = dW$   
dimension of  $\mathbf{v}_{db} = db$

Hyper-parameters are  $\alpha, \beta$

- On iteration  $t$ :  
Compute  $dW, db$  on a set of mini-batch

$$\mathbf{v}_{dW} = \beta \mathbf{v}_{dW} + (1 - \beta) dW$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{db} = \beta \mathbf{v}_{db} + (1 - \beta) db$$

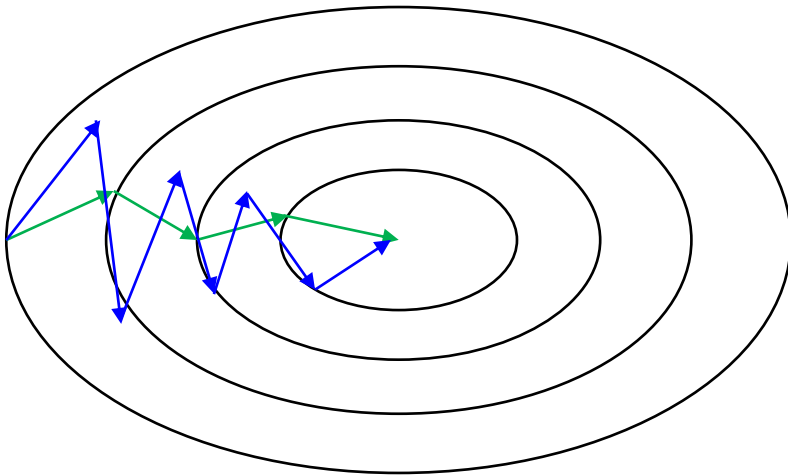
$$W = W - \alpha \mathbf{v}_{dW}$$

$$b = b - \alpha \mathbf{v}_{db}$$

- In practice,  $\beta = 0.9$
- Some literature omitted  $1 - \beta$

# RMSprop

*Speed up gradient descent*



→ Gradient Descent  
→ RMSprop

- On iteration  $t$ :  
Compute  $\mathbf{dW}$ ,  $\mathbf{db}$  on a set of mini-batch

$$s_{\mathbf{dW}} = \beta s_{\mathbf{dW}} + (1 - \beta) \mathbf{dW}^2$$

$$s_{\mathbf{db}} = \beta s_{\mathbf{db}} + (1 - \beta) \mathbf{db}^2$$

$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{W} - \frac{\alpha \mathbf{dW}}{\sqrt{s_{\mathbf{dW}} + \epsilon}}$$

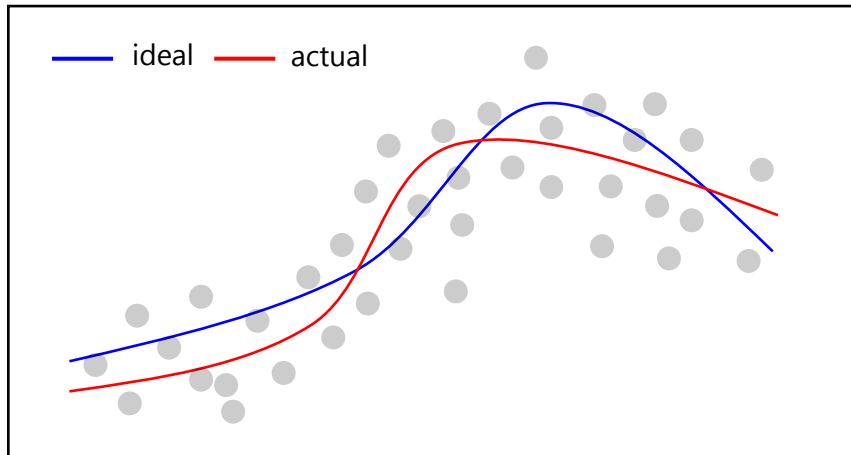
$$\mathbf{b} = \mathbf{b} - \frac{\alpha \mathbf{db}}{\sqrt{s_{\mathbf{db}} + \epsilon}}$$

*a small positive number for numerical stabilization  
(preventing divided by zero)*

- RMSprop enables to use the larger learning rate without overshoot movement

# Bias Correction

*Idea*



- Bias correction of data point  $t$  is defined as

$$v_t = \beta v_{t-1} + (1 - \beta) \theta_t$$

*data point t*  $\nearrow$

$$\text{set } \beta = 0.98, \quad v_0 = 0$$

$$v_1 = 0.98v_0 + 0.02\theta_1$$

$$v_2 = 0.98v_1 + 0.02\theta_2 = 0.0196\theta_1 + 0.02\theta_2$$

- Use  $\frac{v_t}{1 - \beta^t}$  to estimate the ideal data point  $t$
- Not accurate at the beginning of  $t$  but later will be much more accurate

# Adaptive Moment Estimation (Adam)

*Combining momentum and RMSprop*

Initialize  $\mathbf{v}_{dW} = 0, s_{dW} = 0, \mathbf{v}_{db} = 0, s_{db} = 0$

Note: Adam works well in wide range across deep learning applications

- On iteration  $t$ :

Compute  $\mathbf{dW}, \mathbf{db}$  on a set of mini-batch

$$\mathbf{v}_{dW} = \beta_1 \mathbf{v}_{dW} + (1 - \beta_1) \mathbf{dW}$$

$$\mathbf{v}_{db} = \beta_1 \mathbf{v}_{db} + (1 - \beta_1) \mathbf{db}$$

*momentum*

$$s_{dW} = \beta_2 s_{dW} + (1 - \beta_2) \mathbf{dW}^2$$

$$s_{db} = \beta_2 s_{db} + (1 - \beta_2) \mathbf{db}^2$$

*RMSprop*

$$\mathbf{v}_{dW}^{\text{correct}} = \frac{\mathbf{v}_{dW}}{1 - \beta_1^t}, \quad \mathbf{v}_{db}^{\text{correct}} = \frac{\mathbf{v}_{db}}{1 - \beta_1^t}$$

$$s_{dW}^{\text{correct}} = \frac{s_{dW}}{1 - \beta_2^t}, \quad s_{db}^{\text{correct}} = \frac{s_{db}}{1 - \beta_2^t}$$

*bias correction*

$$\mathbf{W}^{[l]} = \mathbf{W}^{[l]} - \alpha \frac{\mathbf{v}_{dW}^{\text{correct}}}{\sqrt{s_{dW}^{\text{correct}} + \epsilon}}$$

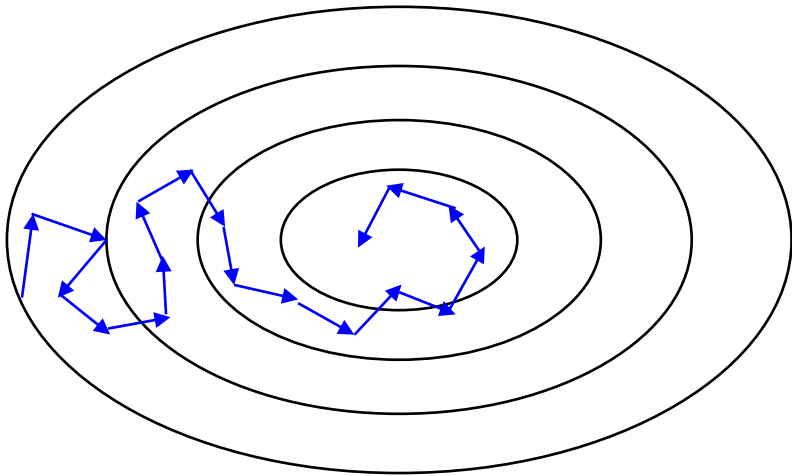
$$\mathbf{b}^{[l]} = \mathbf{b}^{[l]} - \alpha \frac{\mathbf{v}_{db}^{\text{correct}}}{\sqrt{s_{db}^{\text{correct}} + \epsilon}}$$

*updating*

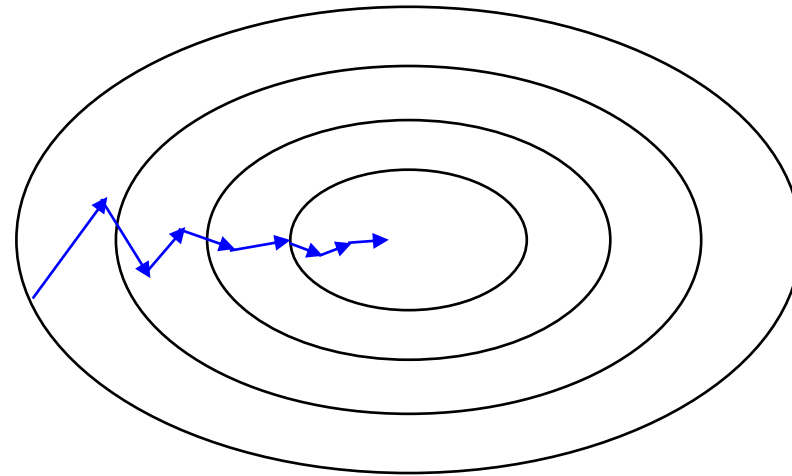
# Suggested Hyper-parameters

*Fixed learning rate VS Decayed Learning rate*

- $\alpha$ : Need to be tuned
- $\beta_1$ : 0.9
- $\beta_2$ : 0.999
- $\varepsilon$ :  $10^{-8}$



Fixed learning rate



Decayed Learning rate





**Mahidol University**

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Section for Clinical Epidemiology and Biostatistics

# Hyperparameter Tuning



Strategy to choose hyper-parameters

# Deep learning hyperparameters

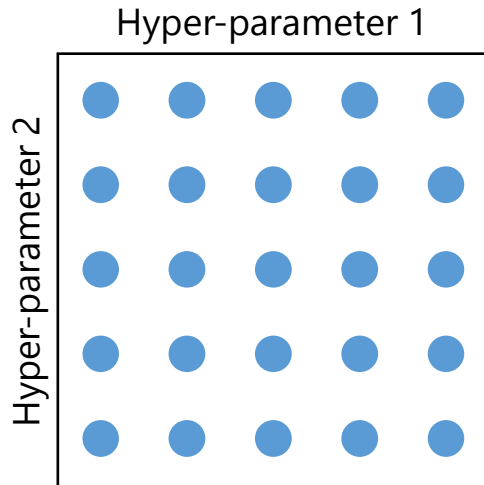
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*Ranked by importance*

- 1<sup>st</sup> priority
  - $\alpha$ : Learning rate
- 2<sup>nd</sup> priority
  - $\beta$ : Adam's parameters only ( $\beta_1, \beta_2, \epsilon$ ) (Use default values)
  - Mini-batch size
  - $n^{[l]}$ : Number of hidden units in the layer  $l$
- 3<sup>rd</sup> priority
  - $L$ : Number of layers
  - $\beta$ : Momentum and RMSprop

# Tuning Strategies

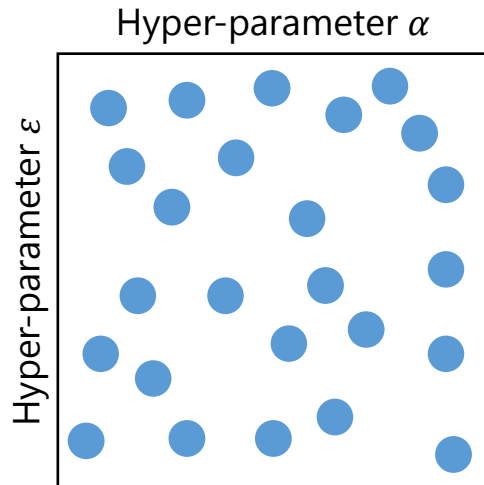
## Grid approach



- Grid approach is acceptable for traditional ML
- Limitations
  - Important of some hyperparameters might not be fully address
  - Ex. Grid allows trial on 5 values of  $\alpha$  and  $\varepsilon$  from 25 experiments

# Tuning Strategies

*For deep learning random grid is better*

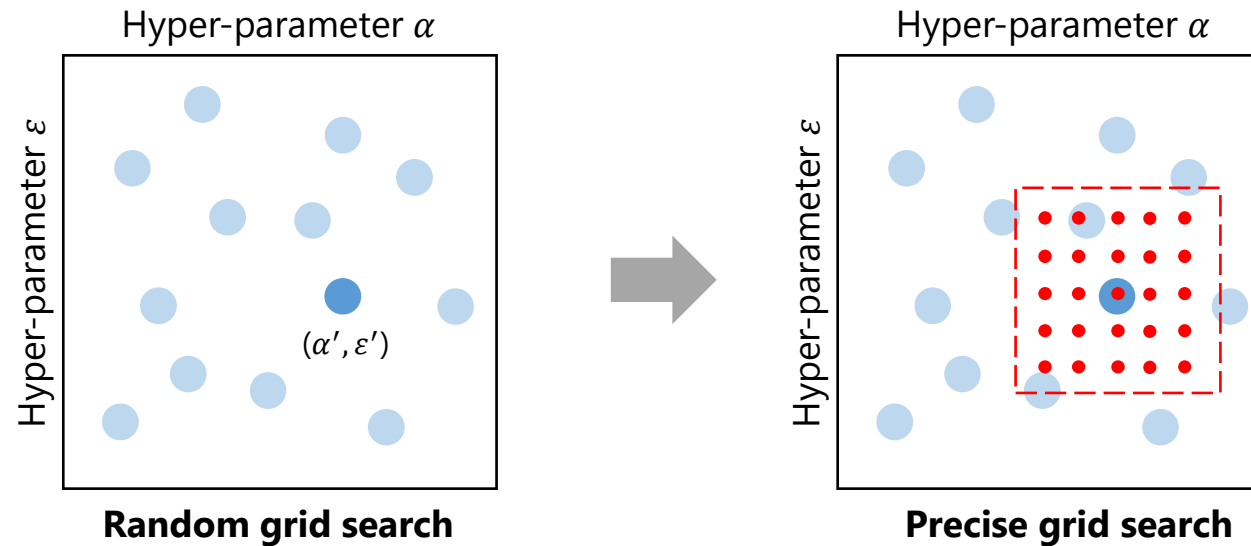


- Random grid allows trial on 25 values of  $\alpha$  from 25 experiments
- Random grid gives us more richly to explore sets of possible hyperparameters

# Tuning Strategies

- Start from randomly coarse
- Randomly fine later

*Coarse to fine*



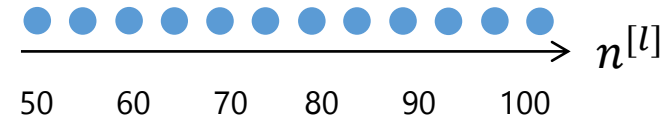
# Tuning Strategies

*Use the appropriate scale to pitch hyperparameters*

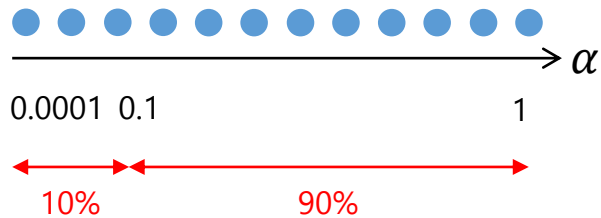
- Normal scale works for some hyperparameters

- $n^{[l]}$

- $L$



- Log-scale is good for learning rate



Spending 10% of resource to search between 0.0001 to 0.1 whereas 90% of resources to search between 0.1 to 1

