

Deep Learning

Romain Tavenard (Université de Rennes)

A course @EDHEC

Administrative details

- 15 hours
- Instructor: Romain Tavenard
romain.tavenard@univ-rennes2.fr
- Webpage:
rtavenar.github.io/teaching/deep_edhec/
- Tool: Deepnote (create an account)
- Evaluation
 - Multiple Choice Questionnaire + Lab session

Contents

- Intro to deep learning
- Fully-connected models
- Images & ConvNets
- (Sequences, Generative models, ...)

Some slides are more important than others...

- Slides marked with this symbol:



Are considered basic knowledge required to pass the exams

An introduction to deep learning

Romain Tavenard (Université de Rennes)

What can deep learning do?

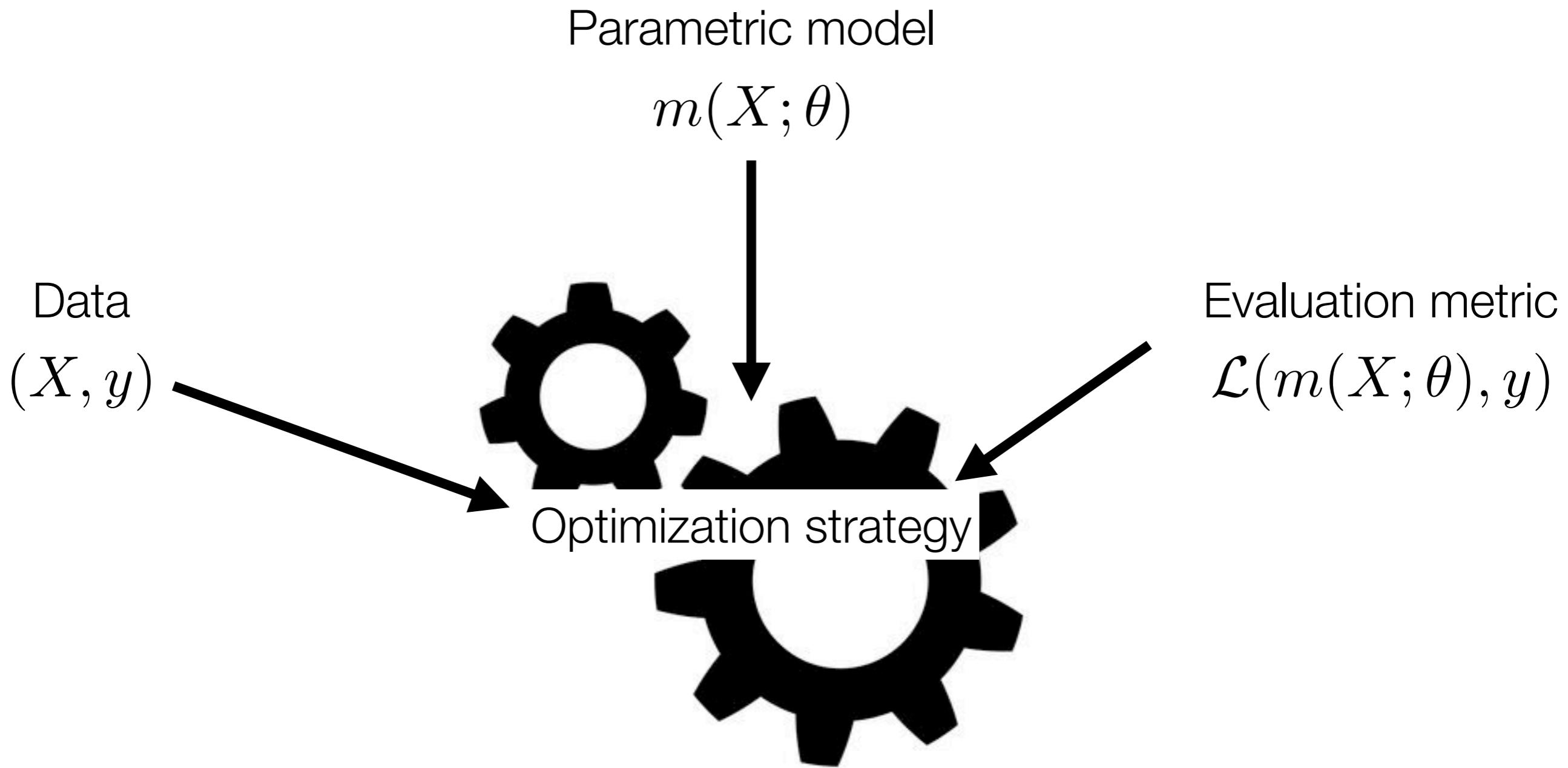
- Skin cancer image classification
130 000 images
Error rate : 28 % (human expert 34 %)



- ECG signal classification
500 000 ECG
Precision 92.6 %
(human expert 80.0 %)



Deep learning in a nutshell

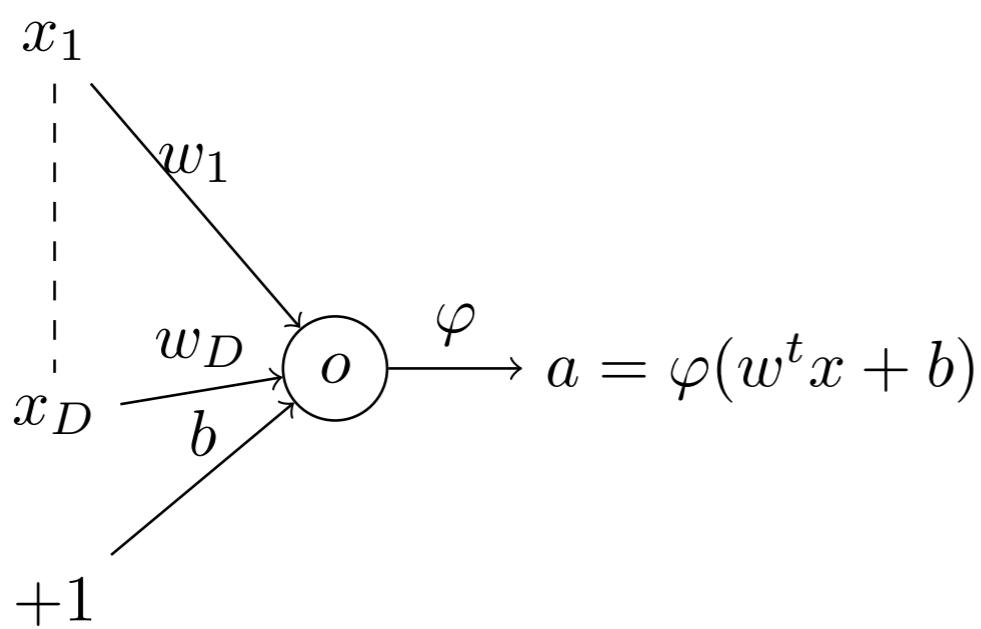
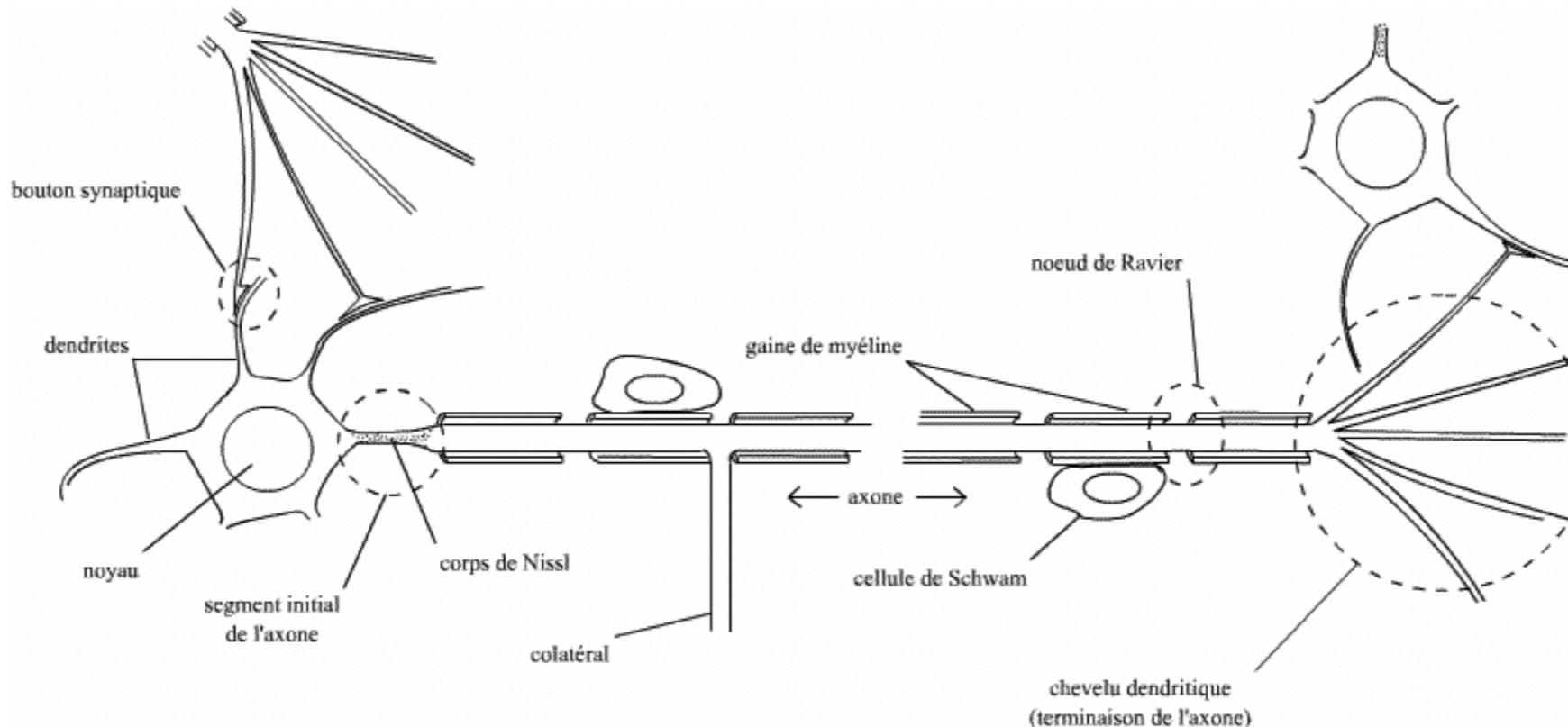


A first example: Linear / logistic regression

- Linear regression
 - **Data:** tabular data with features and targets
 - **Model:** predict output as linear combination of inputs
 - **Loss:** Mean Squared Error
- Logistic regression
 - **Data:** categorical targets
 - **Model:** linear + activation function
 - **Loss:** Cross-entropy (aka logistic loss)

Our first model: the Perceptron

Formal neuron by (McCulloch & Pitts, 1943)



φ activation function

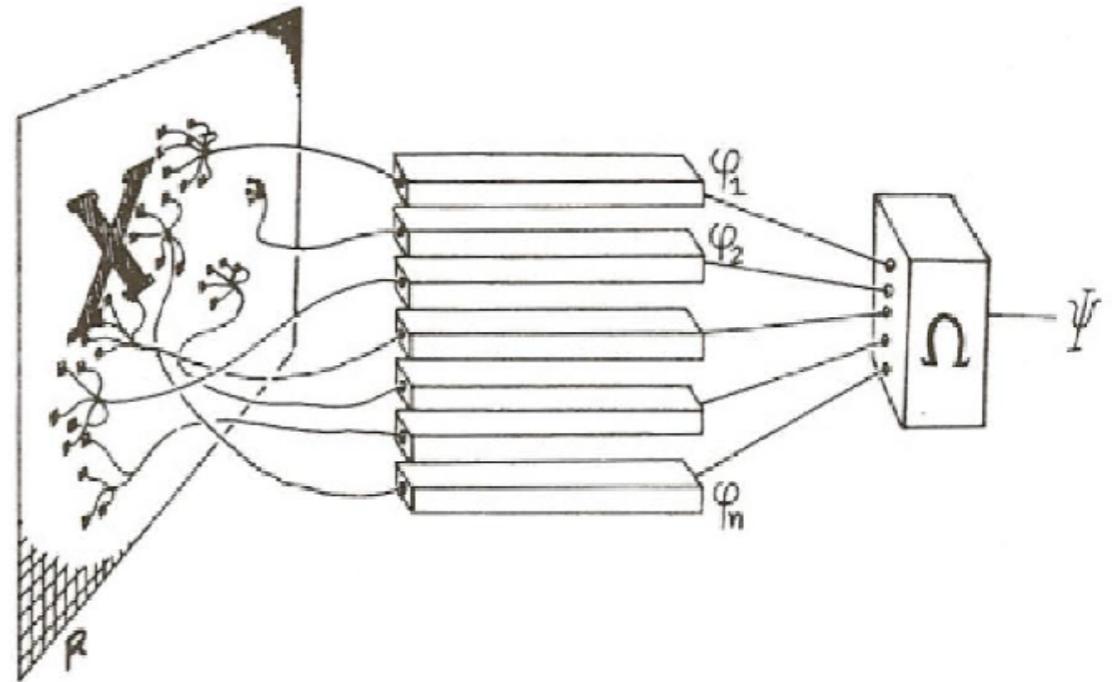
a neuron response

w, b weight, bias

Learning with the Perceptron

(Rosenblatt, 1957)

- Problem statement
 - Given pairs of input-output data x_i, y_i
 - Find w such that:
$$\forall i, \varphi(w^t x_i) \approx y_i$$



Source : (Minsky & Papert, 1969)

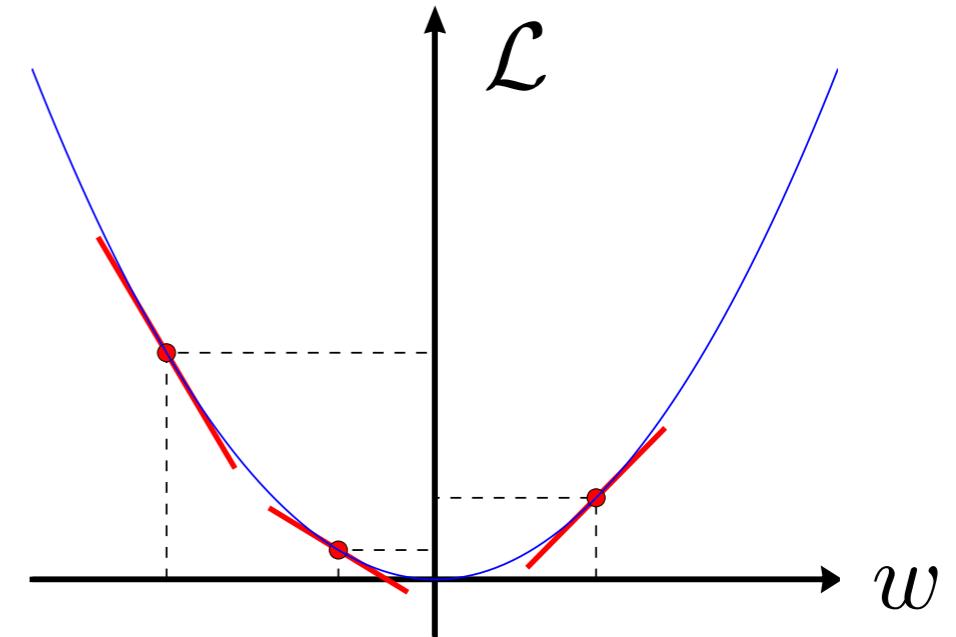
- To do so:
 - Gradient descent

General optimization strategy: Gradient descent



1. Pick a (differentiable) loss function to be minimized

$$\begin{aligned}\text{eg. } \mathcal{L}(w, \{x_i, y_i\}) &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathcal{L}_i(w, x_i, y_i) \\ &= \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (\varphi(w^t x_i) - y_i)^2\end{aligned}$$



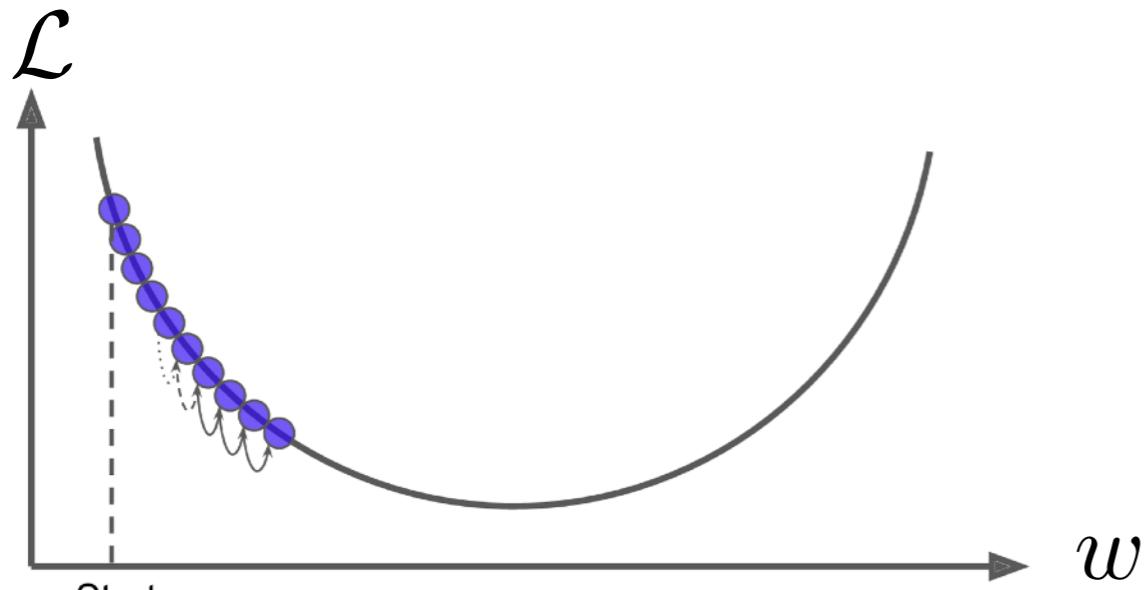
2. Use gradient descent

Algorithm 1: Gradient Descent

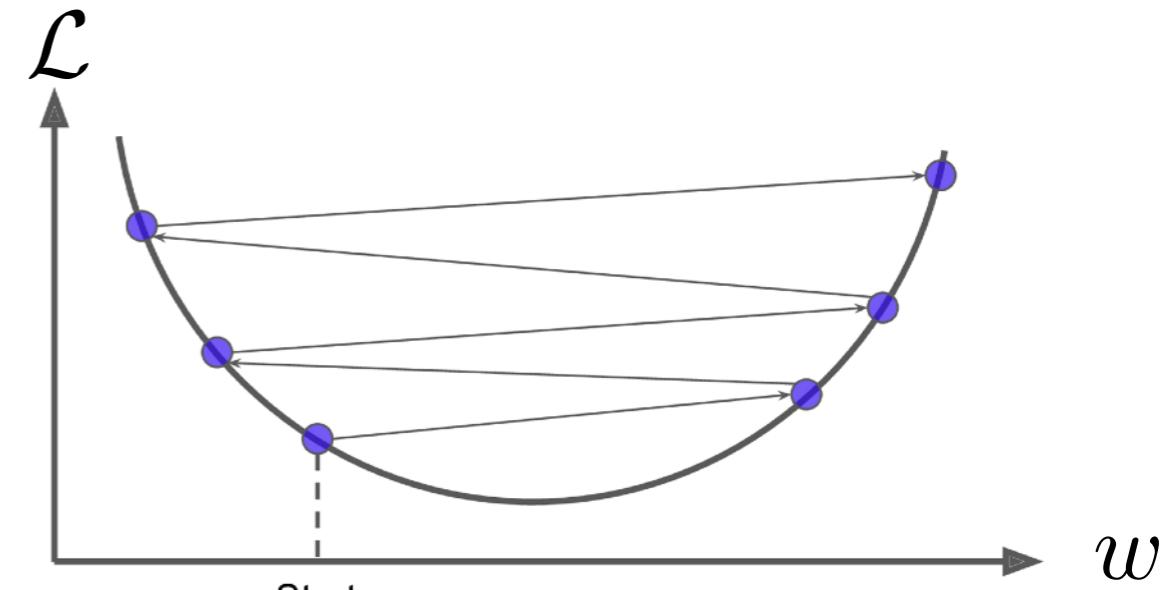
```
Data:  $\mathcal{D}$ : a dataset  
Initialize weights  
for  $e = 1..E$  do  
    // e is called an epoch  
    for  $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{D}$  do  
        | Compute prediction  $\hat{y}_i = h(x_i)$   
        | Compute gradient  $\nabla_w \mathcal{L}_i$   
    end  
    | Compute overall gradient  $\nabla_w \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \nabla_w \mathcal{L}_i$   
    | Update parameter  $w$  using  $\nabla_w \mathcal{L}$   
end
```

Optimization

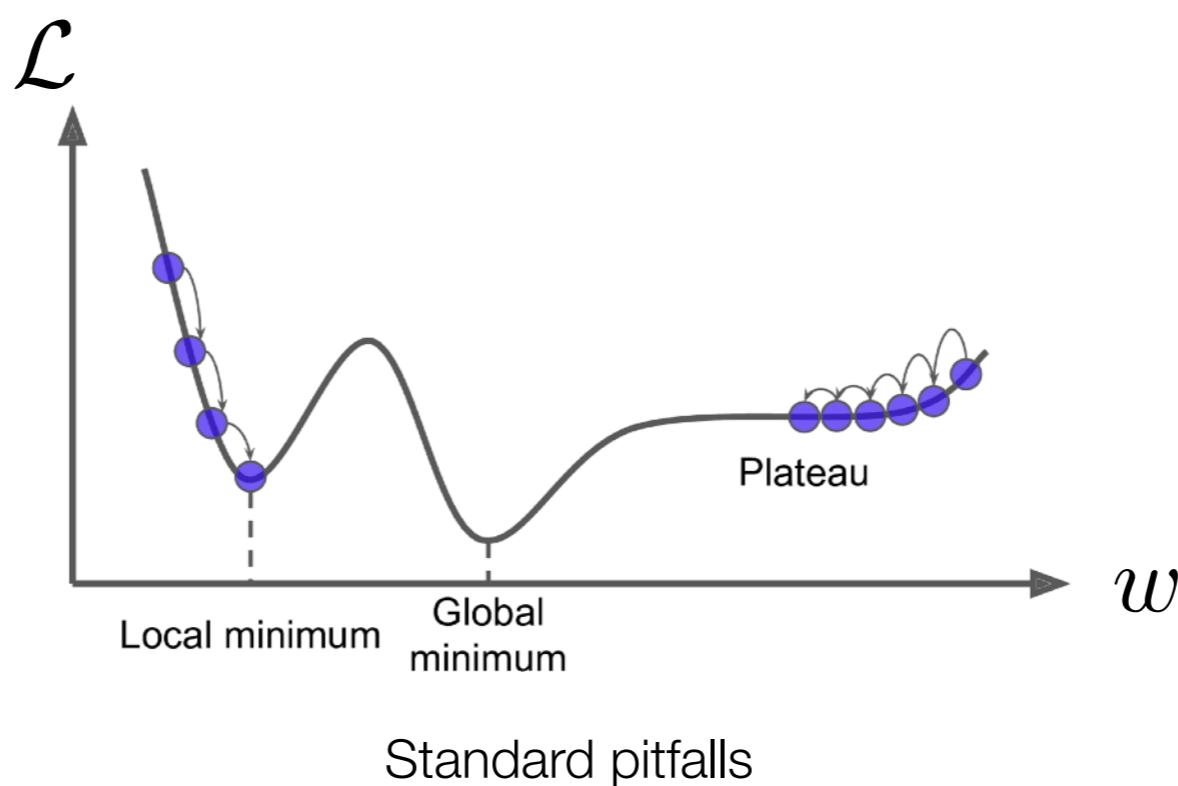
Gradient descent in Real Life



Learning rate is too small



Learning rate is too large



Source: "Hands-On Machine Learning with Scikit-Learn and TensorFlow", A. Géron

Optimization

Stochastic Gradient Descent



Algorithm 1: Gradient Descent

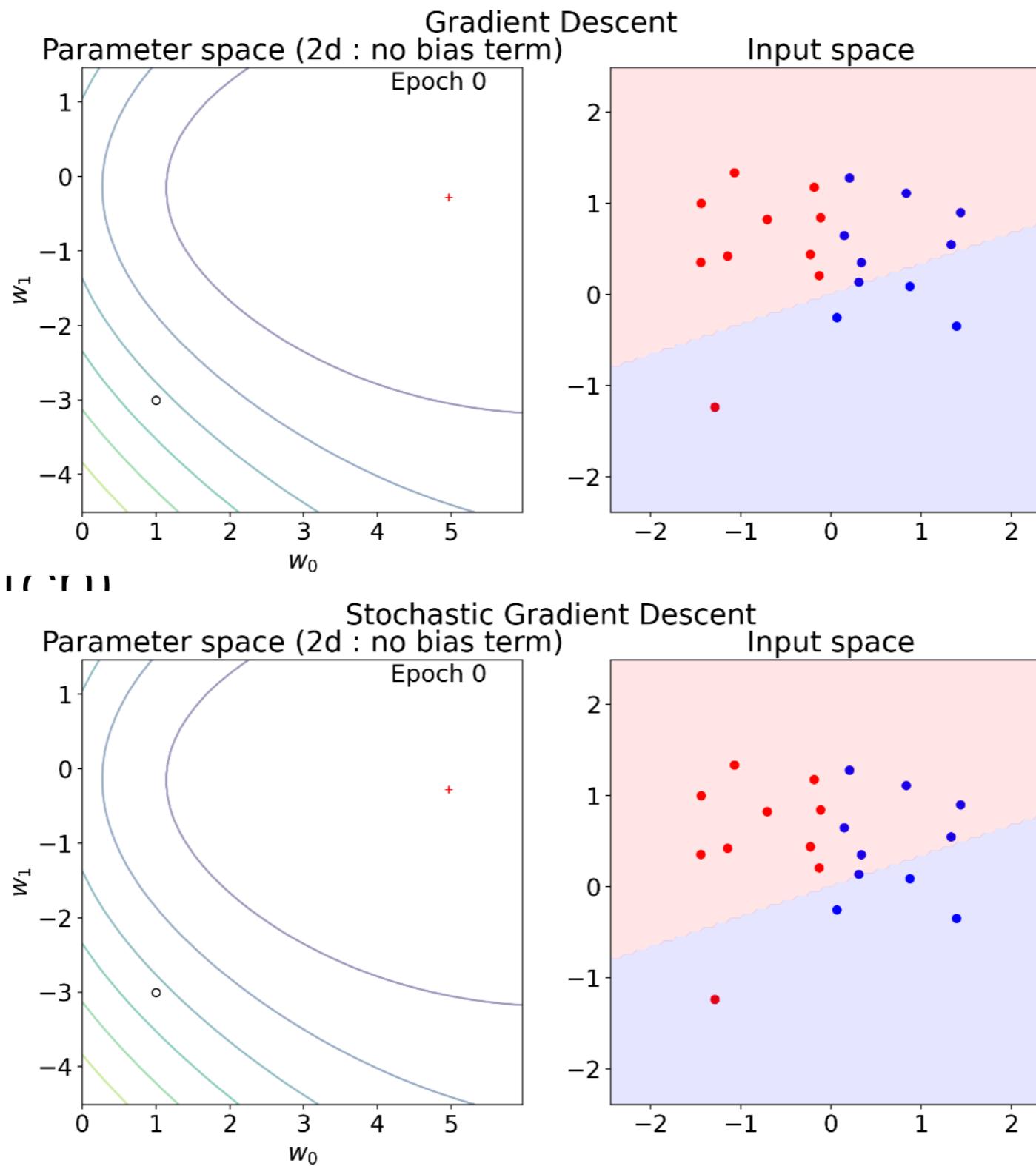
Data: \mathcal{D} : a dataset
Initialize weights
for $e = 1..E$ **do**
 // e is called an epoch
 for $(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{D}$ **do**
 Compute prediction $\hat{y}_i = h(x_i)$
 Compute gradient $\nabla_w \mathcal{L}_i$
 end
 Compute overall gradient $\nabla_w \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_i \nabla_w \mathcal{L}_i$
 Update parameter w using $\nabla_w \mathcal{L}$
end

Algorithm 2: Mini-Batch Stochastic Gradient Descent

Data: \mathcal{D} : a dataset
Initialize weights
for $e = 1..E$ **do**
 // e is called an epoch
 for $t = 1..n_b$ **do**
 // t is called an iteration
 for $i = 1..m$ **do**
 Draw (x_i, y_i) without replacement from t -th minibatch of \mathcal{D}
 Compute prediction $\hat{y}_i = h(x_i)$
 Compute gradient $\nabla_w \mathcal{L}_i$
 end
 Compute gradient for the t -th minibatch $\nabla_w \mathcal{L}_{(t)} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_i \nabla_w \mathcal{L}_i$
 Update parameter w using $\nabla_w \mathcal{L}_{(t)}$
 end
end

Optimization: Gradient Descent vs Stochastic Gradient Descent (1/2)

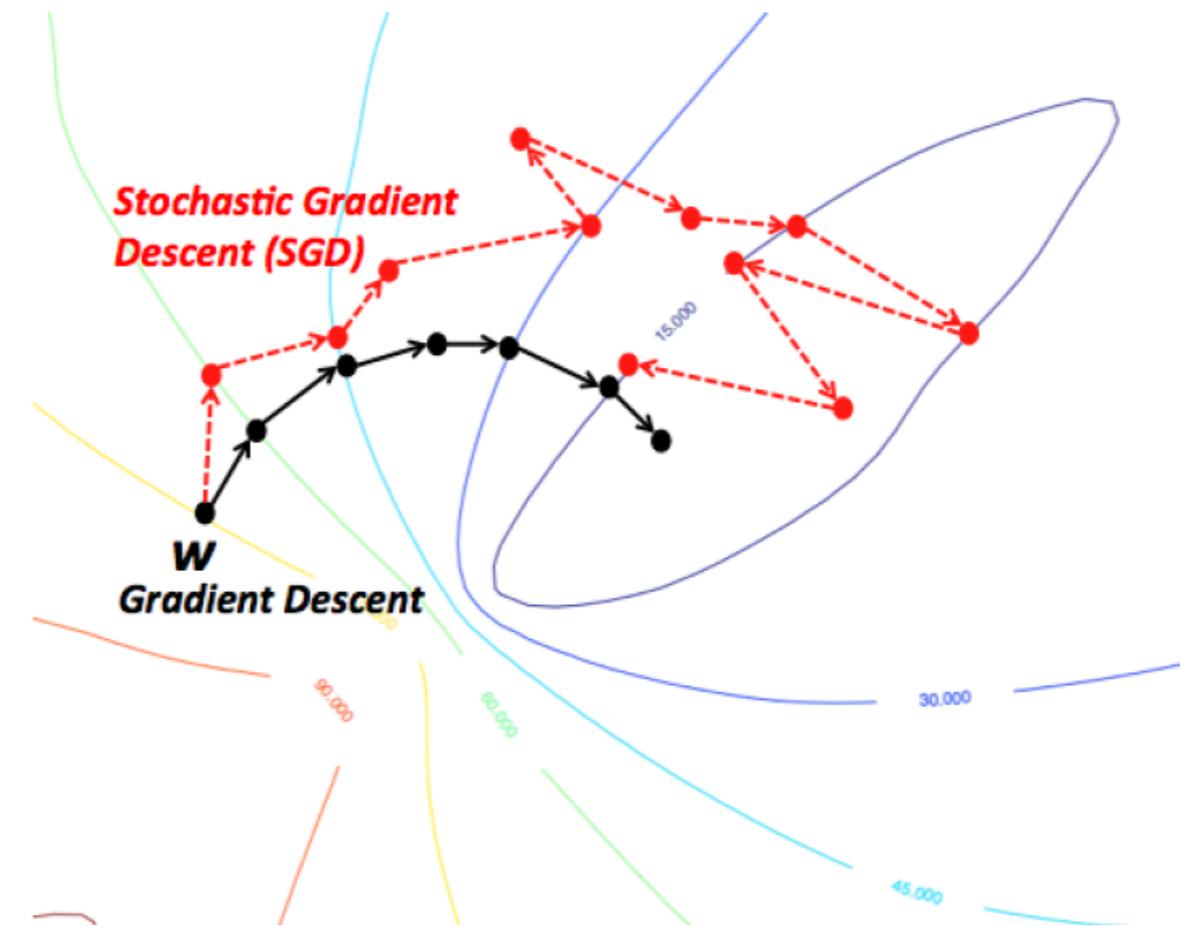
- Cons
 - Subject to local minima
- Pros
 - Faster (each mini batch update)
- Escapes non-convexity



Optimization: Gradient Descent vs Stochastic Gradient Descent (2/2)



- Cons
 - Subject to high variance
- Pros
 - Faster weight update (each sample, or each mini batch)
 - Escape local minima in non-convex settings



Source: wikidocs.net/3413

Optimization

SGD variants: a focus on Adam

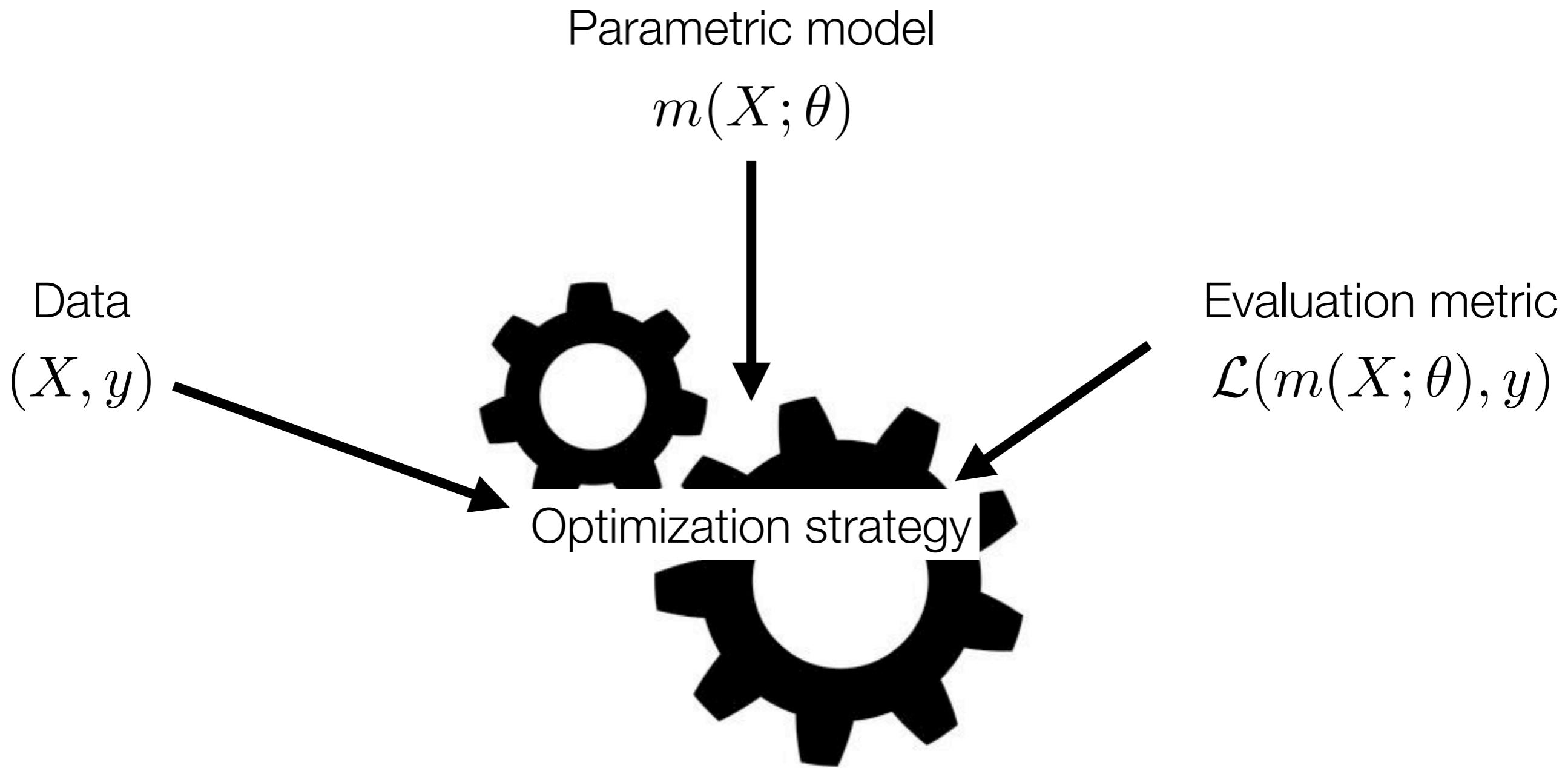
- Adam uses ideas from
 - Momentum [[link to distill](#)]
 - AdaGrad

$$\mathbf{m}^{(t+1)} \propto \beta_1 \mathbf{m}^{(t)} + (1 - \beta_1) \nabla_w \mathcal{L}$$

$$\mathbf{s}^{(t+1)} \propto \beta_2 \mathbf{s}^{(t)} + (1 - \beta_2) \nabla_w \mathcal{L} \otimes \nabla_w \mathcal{L}$$

$$\mathbf{w}^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^{(t)} - \rho \mathbf{m}^{(t+1)} \oslash \sqrt{\mathbf{s}^{(t+1)} + \epsilon}$$

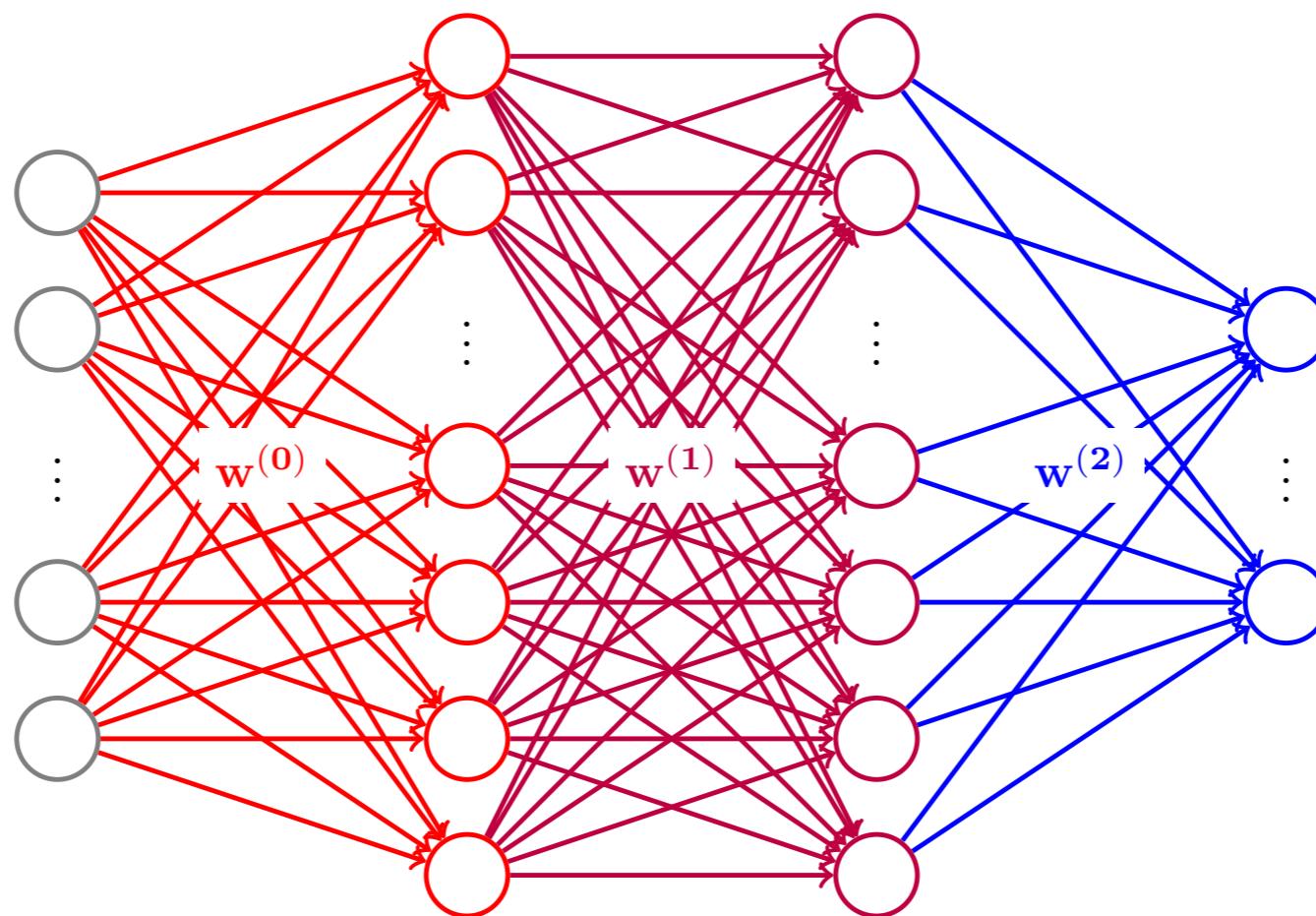
Deep learning in a nutshell



Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) model (Rumelhart, Hinton & Williams, 1985)

Definition

A Multilayer perceptron is an acyclic graph of neurons, where neurons are structured in successive layers, beginning by an input layer and finishing with an output layer.



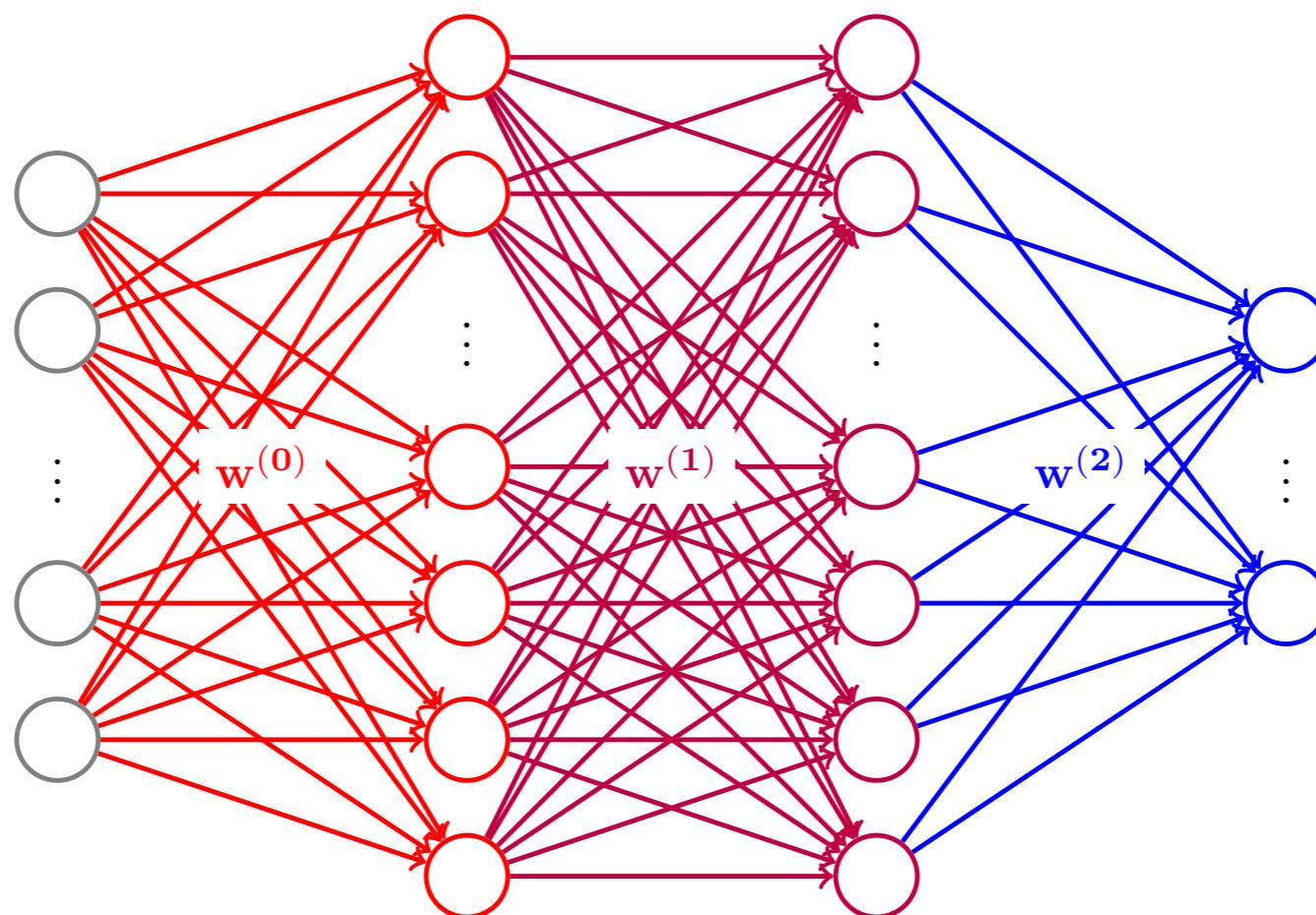
Universal approximation theorem (Cybenko, 1989)

- Under reasonable assumptions on the activation function to be used*
- For any continuous function on a compact g and any precision threshold ϵ
- There exists a 1-hidden-layer MLP with a finite number of neurons that can approximate g at level ϵ

*Non-constant, bounded, monotonically increasing, continuous
also holds for some unbounded functions like ReLU, cf. [Somoda & Murata, 2015]

Optimizing multi-layer perceptron parameters

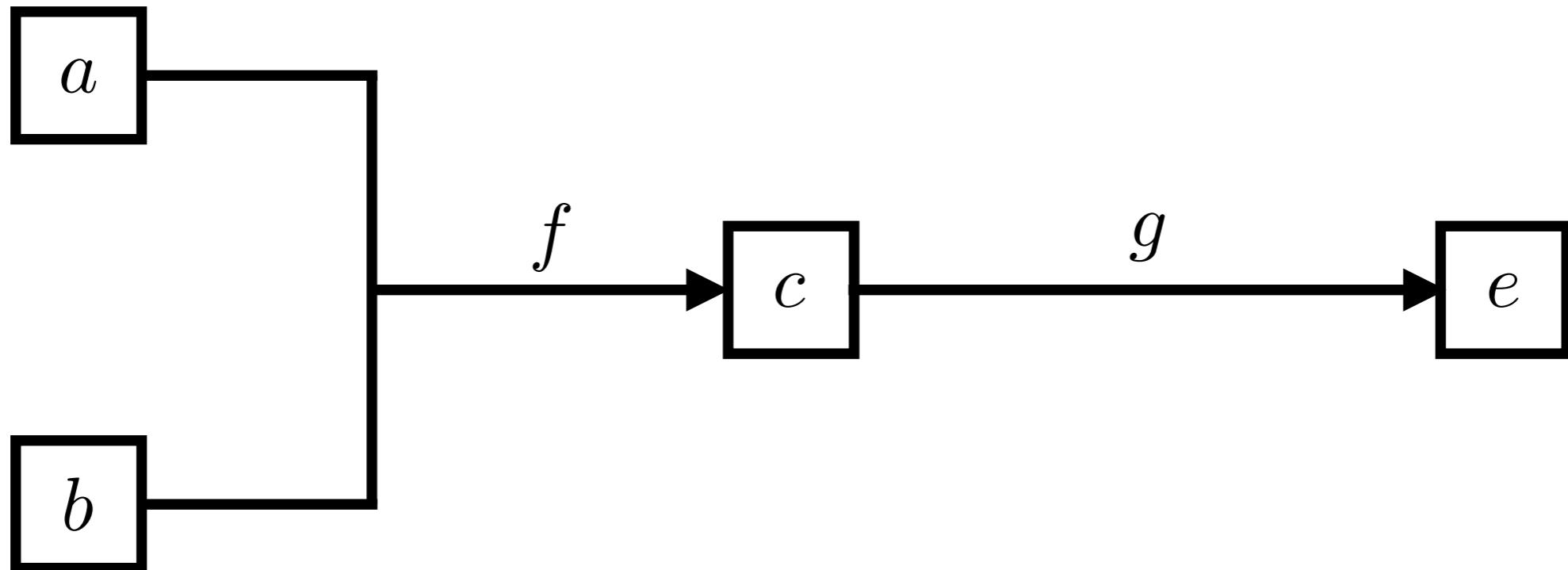
- Who wants to compute gradients by hand for such networks (and deeper ones)?



$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \varphi \left[\mathbf{w}^{(2)} \varphi \left(\mathbf{w}^{(1)} \varphi(\mathbf{w}^{(0)} \mathbf{x} + b^{(0)}) + b^{(1)} \right) + b^{(2)} \right]$$

Optimizing multi-layer perceptron parameters

Automatic differentiation to the rescue!

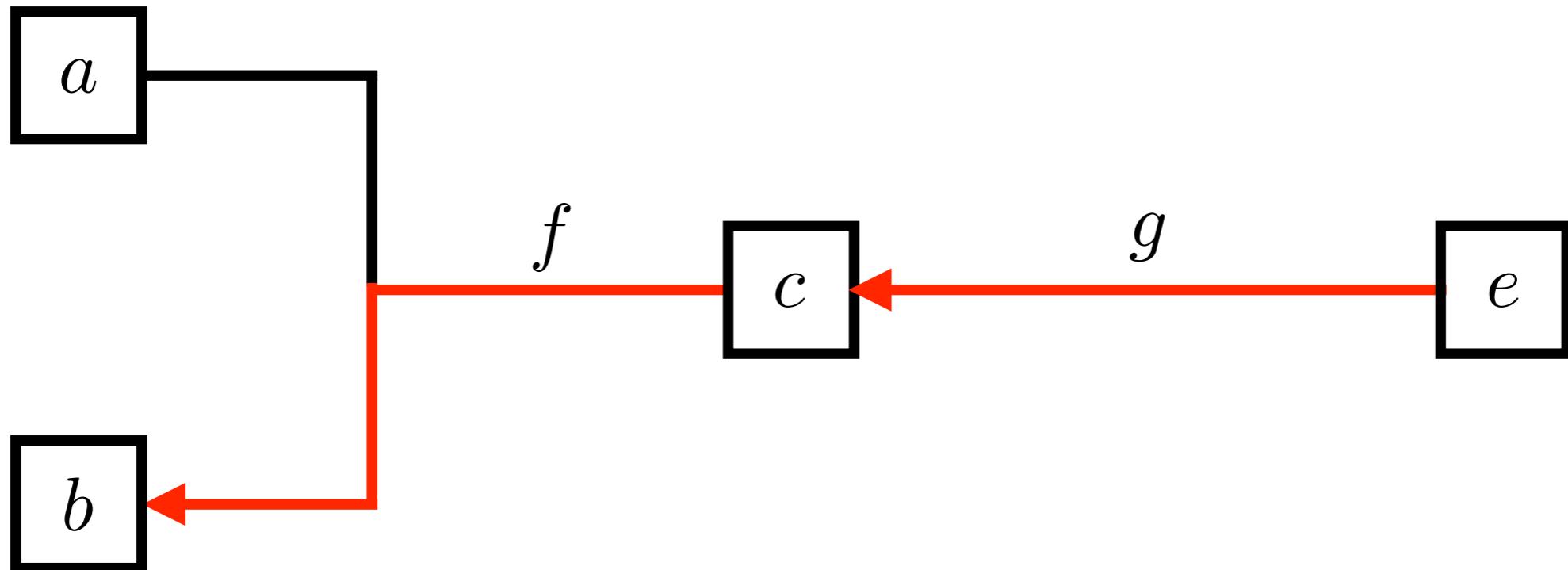


$$c = f(a, b)$$

$$e = g(c)$$

Optimizing multi-layer perceptron parameters

Automatic differentiation to the rescue!



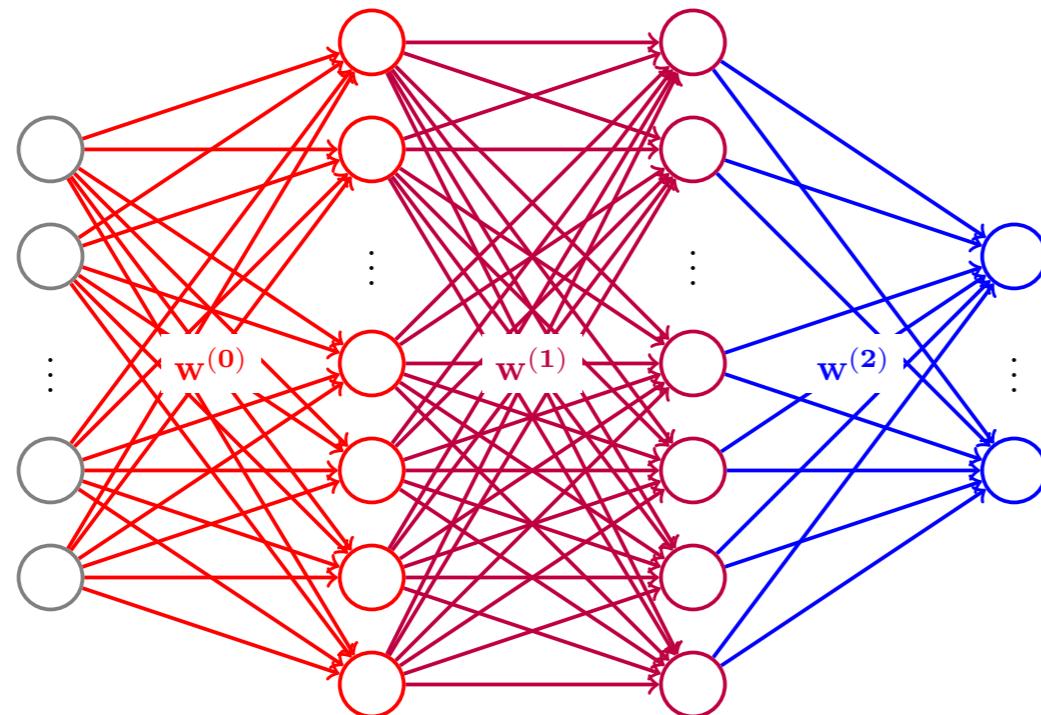
$$c = f(a, b)$$

$$e = g(c)$$

$$\frac{\partial e}{\partial b} = \underbrace{\left. \frac{\partial e}{\partial c} \right|_{c=c_0}}_{g'(c_0)} \cdot \left. \frac{\partial c}{\partial b} \right|_{b=b_0}$$

Optimization

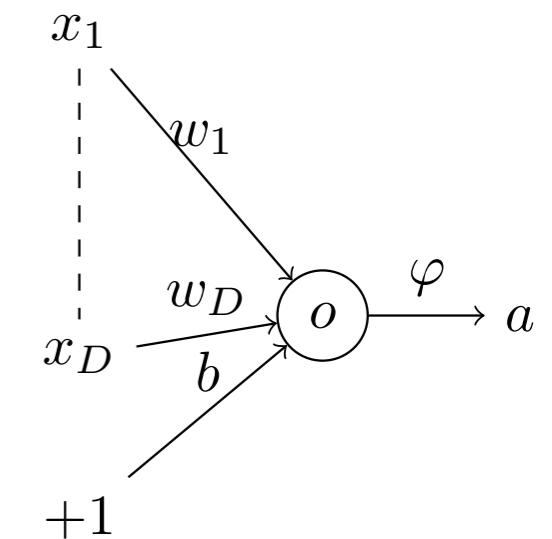
Neural networks and back-propagation



$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{(2)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a^{(3)}} \frac{\partial a^{(3)}}{\partial o^{(3)}} \frac{\partial o^{(3)}}{\partial w^{(2)}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{(1)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a^{(3)}} \frac{\partial a^{(3)}}{\partial o^{(3)}} \frac{\partial o^{(3)}}{\partial a^{(2)}} \frac{\partial a^{(2)}}{\partial o^{(2)}} \frac{\partial o^{(2)}}{\partial w^{(1)}}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{(0)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a^{(3)}} \frac{\partial a^{(3)}}{\partial o^{(3)}} \frac{\partial o^{(3)}}{\partial a^{(2)}} \frac{\partial a^{(2)}}{\partial o^{(2)}} \frac{\partial o^{(2)}}{\partial a^{(1)}} \frac{\partial a^{(1)}}{\partial o^{(1)}} \frac{\partial o^{(1)}}{\partial w^{(0)}}$$



$$\frac{\partial a^{(l)}}{\partial o^{(l)}} = \varphi'(o^{(l)})$$

$$\frac{\partial o^{(l)}}{\partial a^{(l-1)}} = w^{(l-1)}$$

Neural networks and back-propagation: Losses



$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{(0)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a^{(3)}} \frac{\partial a^{(3)}}{\partial o^{(3)}} \frac{\partial o^{(3)}}{\partial a^{(2)}} \frac{\partial a^{(2)}}{\partial o^{(2)}} \frac{\partial o^{(2)}}{\partial a^{(1)}} \frac{\partial a^{(1)}}{\partial o^{(1)}} \frac{\partial o^{(1)}}{\partial w^{(0)}}$$

- Requirement
 - \mathcal{L} should be differentiable wrt. to the net's output
- Standard losses
 - Mean Squared Error (MSE) for regression
$$\mathcal{L}(x_i, y_i; \theta) = (m(x_i; \theta) - y_i)^2$$
 - Cross-entropy for classification
$$\mathcal{L}(x_i, y_i; \theta) = -\log P_\theta(y = y_i | x_i)$$

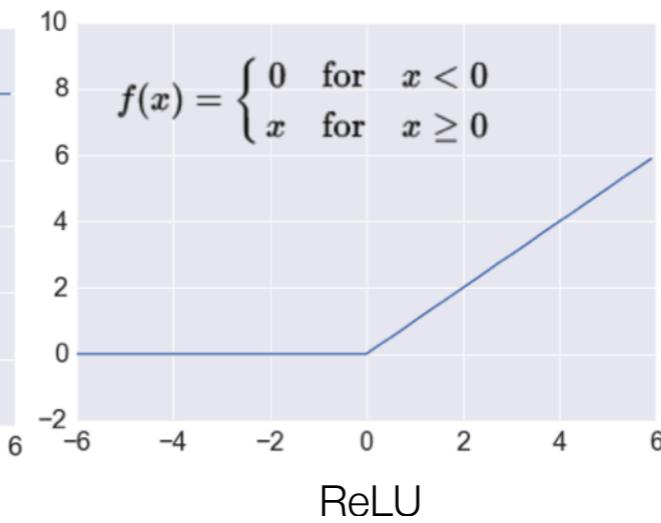
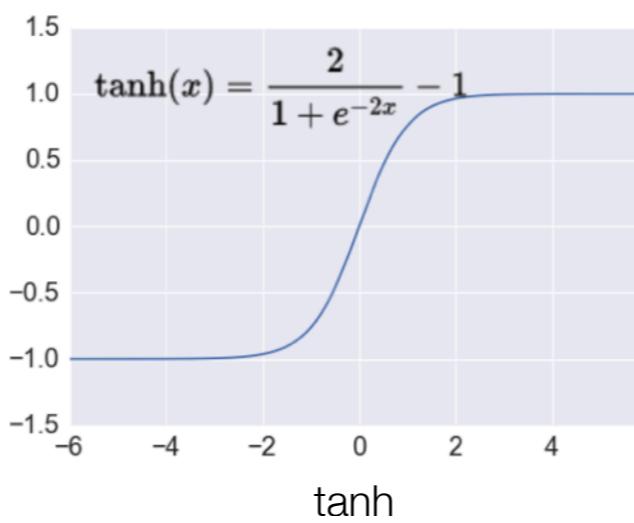
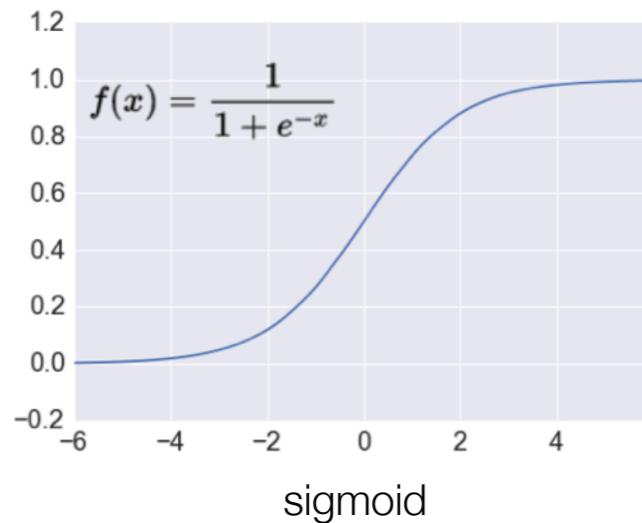
Neural networks and back-propagation: Activation functions



$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{(0)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a^{(3)}} \frac{\partial a^{(3)}}{\partial o^{(3)}} \frac{\partial o^{(3)}}{\partial a^{(2)}} \frac{\partial a^{(2)}}{\partial o^{(2)}} \frac{\partial o^{(2)}}{\partial a^{(1)}} \frac{\partial a^{(1)}}{\partial o^{(1)}} \frac{\partial o^{(1)}}{\partial w^{(0)}}$$

$$\frac{\partial a^{(l)}}{\partial o^{(l)}} = \varphi'(o^{(l)})$$

- Important features
 - φ should be differentiable almost everywhere
 - Non-linearities
 - Some linear regime
- Examples

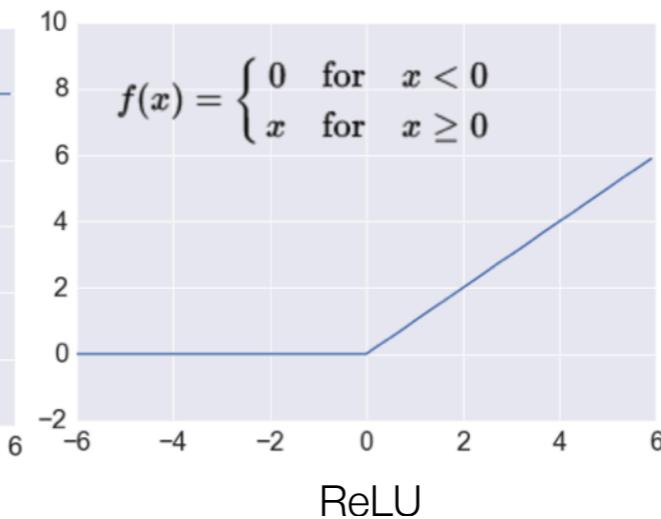
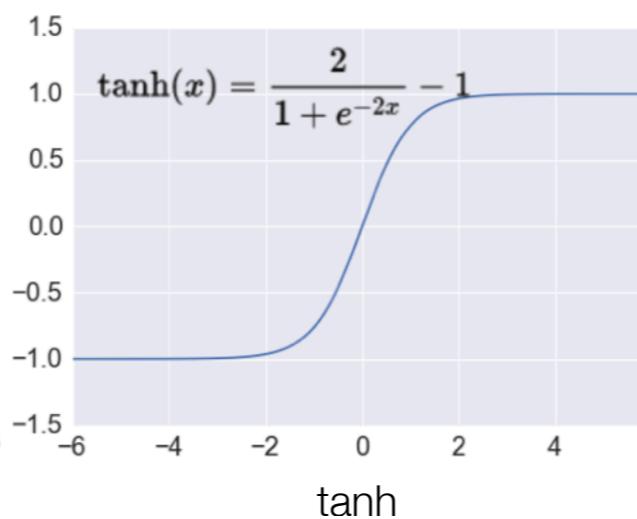
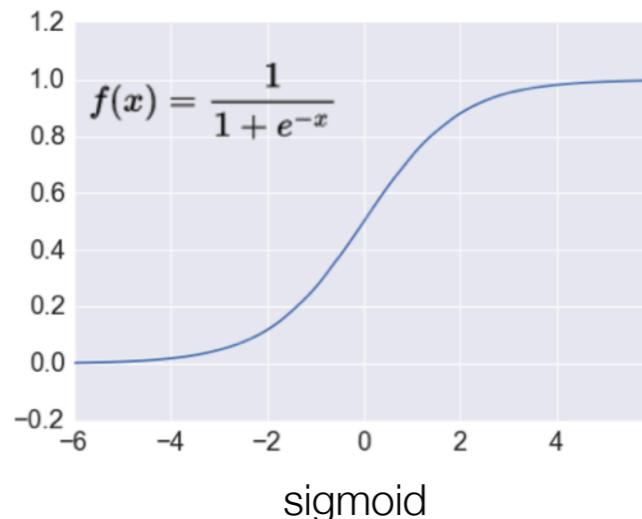


Neural networks and back-propagation: Activation functions: the reign of ReLU



$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w^{(0)}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial a^{(3)}} \frac{\partial a^{(3)}}{\partial o^{(3)}} \frac{\partial o^{(3)}}{\partial a^{(2)}} \frac{\partial a^{(2)}}{\partial o^{(2)}} \frac{\partial o^{(2)}}{\partial a^{(1)}} \frac{\partial a^{(1)}}{\partial o^{(1)}} \frac{\partial o^{(1)}}{\partial w^{(0)}}$$
$$\frac{\partial a^{(l)}}{\partial o^{(l)}} = \varphi'(o^{(l)})$$

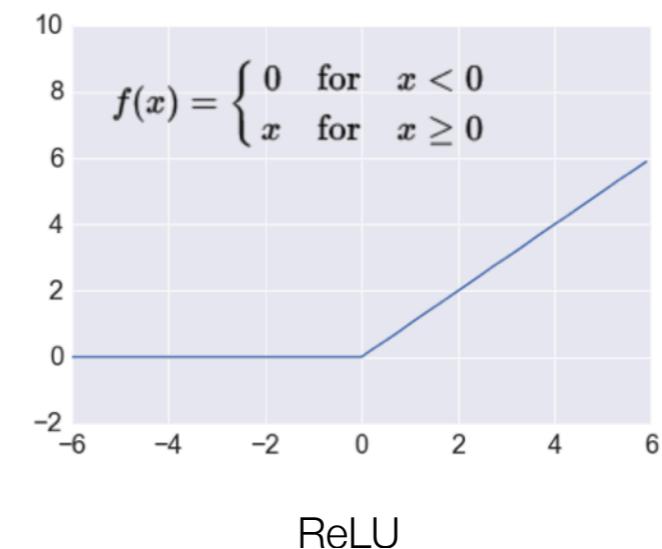
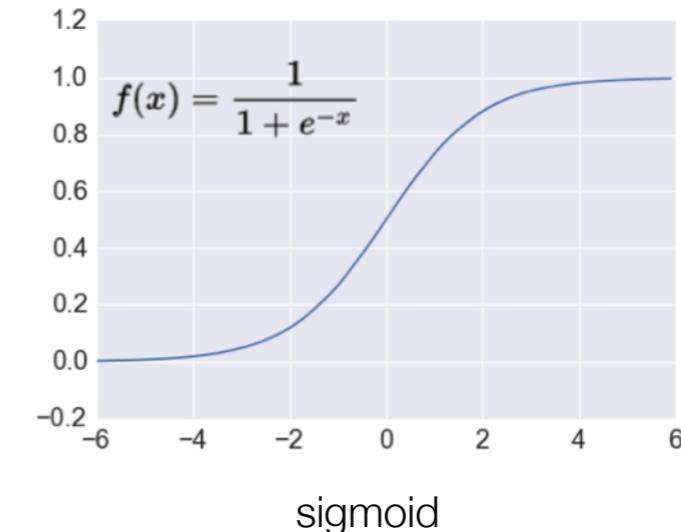
- ReLU has become the default choice over time
- 2 main reasons:
 - cheap to compute (both ReLU and its derivative)
 - vanishing gradients phenomenon (more on that later)



Neural networks and back-propagation: activation functions: the case of the output layer



- Output activation functions drive the possible output values:
 - identity ("linear" in keras): any real value
 - ReLU: any positive value
 - sigmoid: any value in $[0, 1]$
 - softmax:
 >0 and sums to 1
(across output neurons)



$$\text{soft-max}(x)_i = \frac{e^{x_i}}{\sum_j e^{x_j}}$$

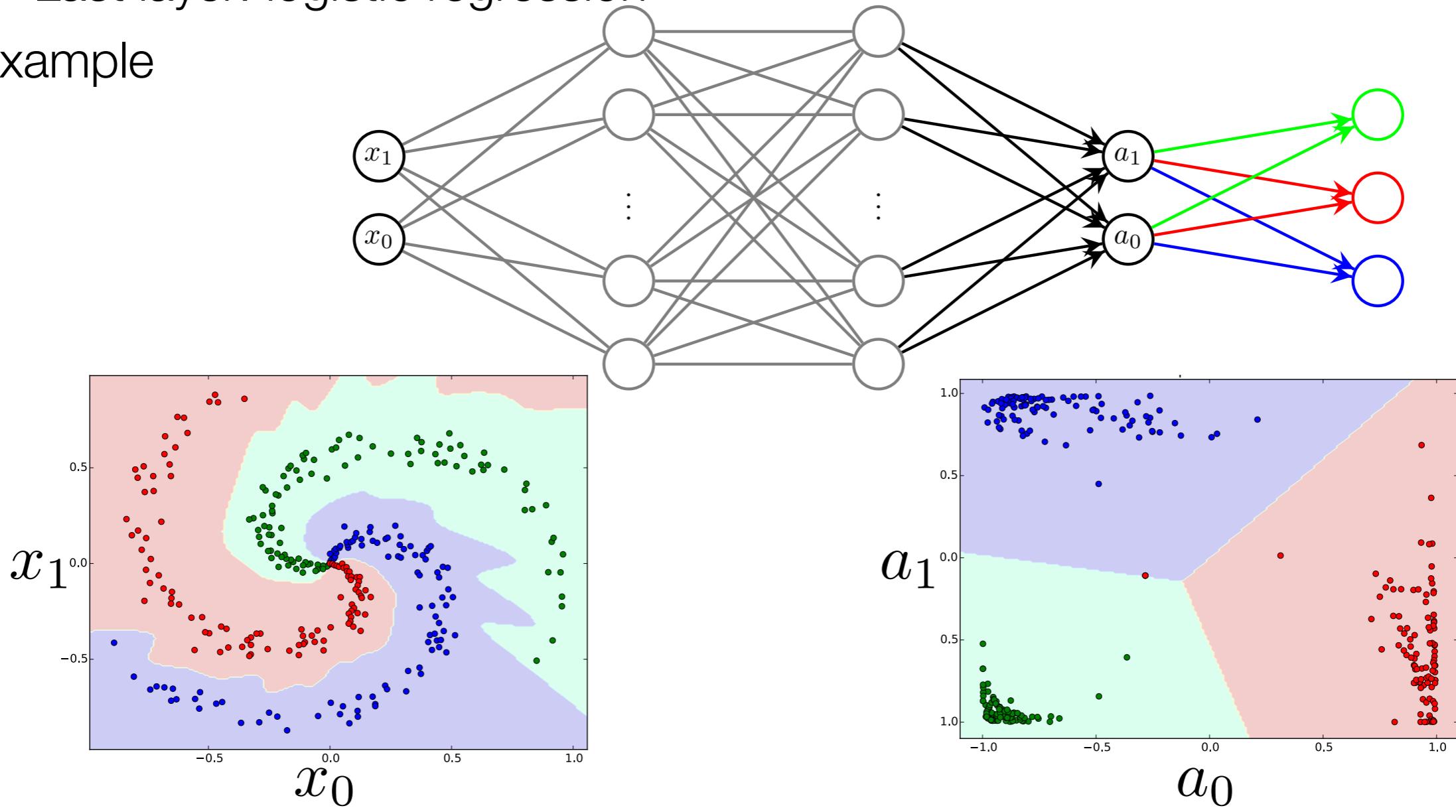
Neural networks and back-propagation: link with keras implementation



- In keras, these considerations have practical impact:
 - Model structure:
 - Input layer dimension is the number of features in the dataset
 - Output layer has as many units as columns in y
 - Output layer activation:
 - Binary classification: "sigmoid"
 - Multiclass classification: "softmax"
 - Loss function:
 - Binary classification: "binary_crossentropy"
 - Multiclass classification: "categorical_crossentropy"
 - Regression: "mse"

End-to-end learning

- Classification using MLP
 - Hidden layers: non-linear transformations
 - Last layer: logistic regression
- Example



Optimization

Over-parametrization in deep learning

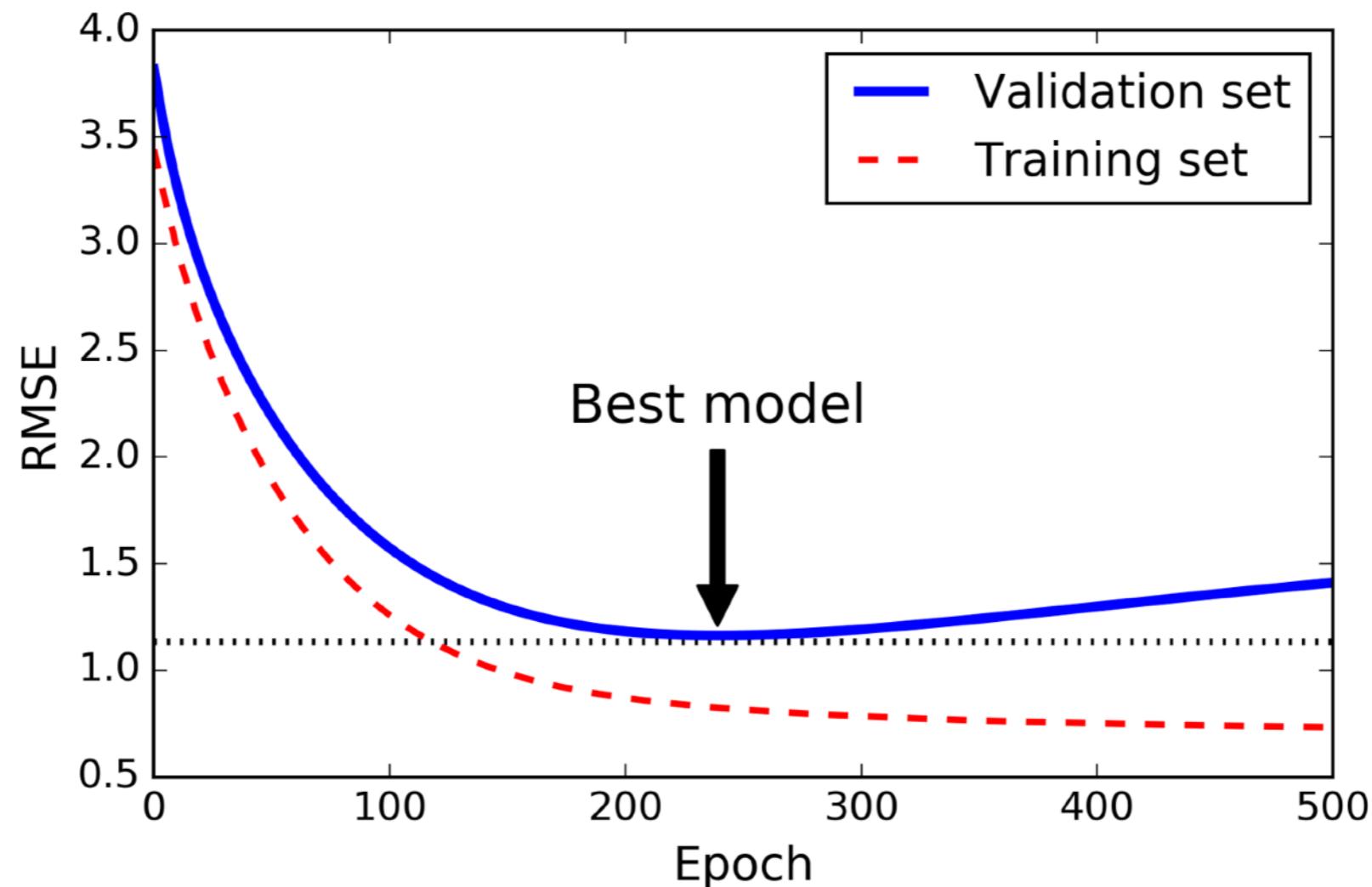
- Optimization (SGD) to minimize a loss function
 - Larger & deeper nets improve (training) performance
 - Risks over-fitting

$$\arg \min_{\theta} \sum_{(x_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{D}_t} \mathcal{L}(x_i, y_i; \theta) \neq \arg \min_{\theta} \mathbb{E}_{x, y \sim \mathcal{D}} \mathcal{L}(x, y; \theta)$$

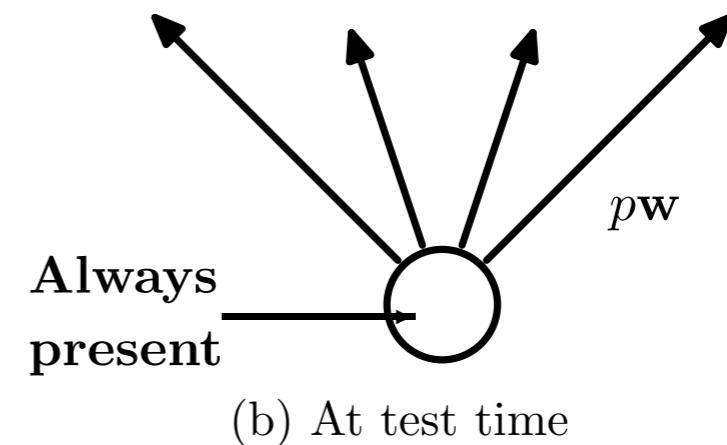
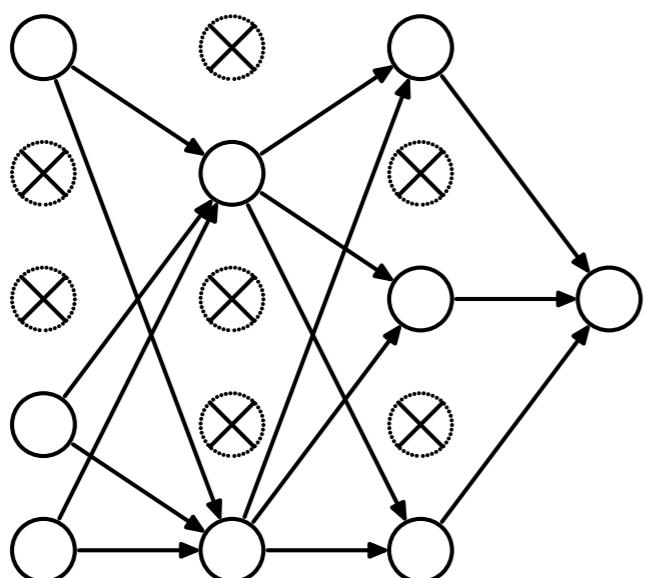
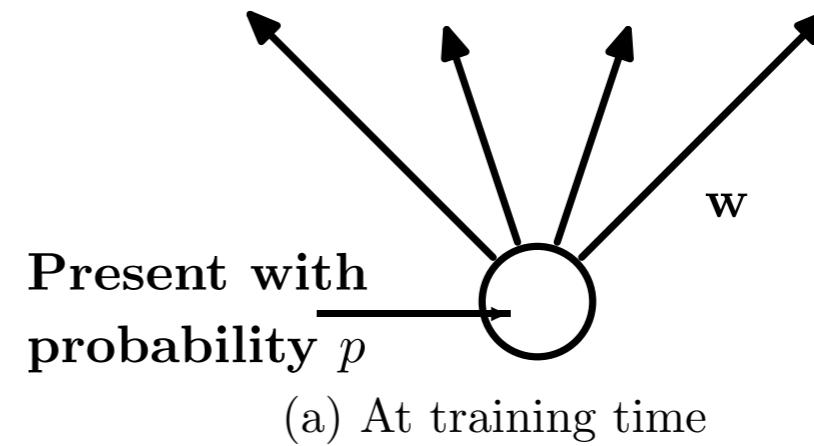
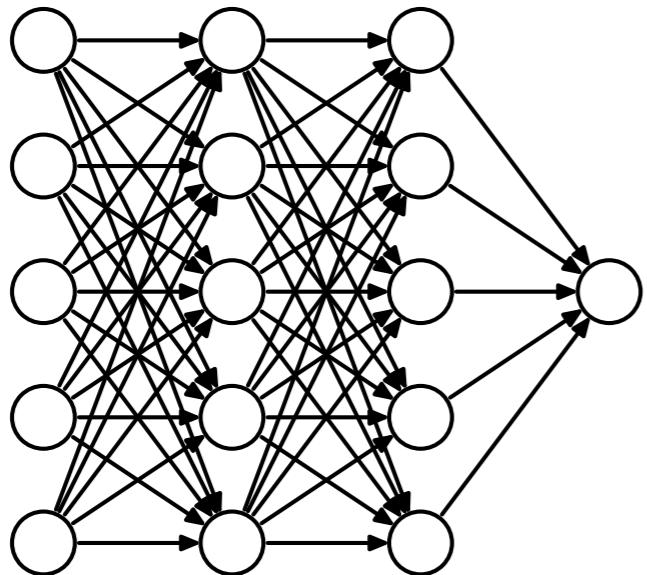
- Regularization tricks
 - L2 penalty on weights (cf. Ridge regression)
 - Early stopping (cf. Gradient boosting)
 - Dropout (relates to Random Forests)

Optimization

Regularization: Early Stopping



Optimization Regularization: Dropout



Images from [Srivastava et al., 2014]

Conclusion

- Early stage: 1943 - 1969
 - learning with stochastic gradient descent
- Back in the game: 1985 - 1995
 - NN are universal approximators
- A *de facto* standard in computer vision: 2009 - ?
 - deep nets can leverage on big data + high perf. computers