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Chapter 1: Introduction

Date: 03/05/2020

Lecturer: Bin Yang

By: Nicolas Hornek

- p.4 expert talks are not relevant for the exam

- **scalar:** x, A, α
- column **vector:** $\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} = [x_i] \in \mathbb{R}^N$ with element $x_i = [\underline{x}]_i$
- **matrix:** $A = [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i \leq M, 1 \leq j \leq N} = [a_{ij}] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$ with element $a_{ij} = [A]_{ij}$
- 3D, 4D **tensor:** $A = [a_{ijk}], A = [a_{ijkl}]$
- **transpose** of vector and matrix: $\underline{x}^T = [x_1, \dots, x_N], A^T = [a_{ji}]_{ij}$
- **determinant** of a square matrix A : $|A|$
- **inverse** of a square matrix A : A^{-1}
- **trace** of a square matrix A : $\text{tr}(A) = \sum_i a_{ii}$

Abbildung 1.1: Mathematical notations

- Element notation (element of vector): $[x_i = \underline{a} + \underline{b}]_i$

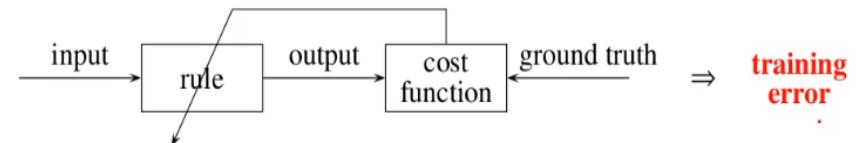
1.1. What is machine learning

- Signal processing is not a subset of ML or the other way around, they are identical in the task
- Basic difference is in how to design the processing rule
- Regression means to calculate (SP,ML) a continuous-valued output in the real numbers from a signal, can be one-dimensional
- Classification means to calculate (SP,ML) a discrete-valued output from the natural numbers
- p. 1-5 filter in the middle is the view of a pixel and its 8 neighbours

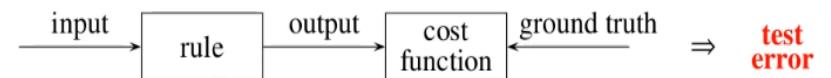
Three steps of machine learning (1)



- a) **Training** using **training data** from the training set D_{train}



- b) **Test or evaluation** using **test data** from the test set D_{test}



- c) Deployment on new data

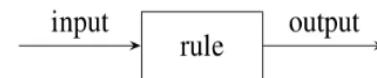


Abbildung 1.2: Three steps of machine learning

- over-fitting just memorizes the training set so test set is needed
- test error rate is similar to training error rate → no over-fitting
- Test set and training set need to be disjoint concatenated
- TODO: Summary supervised learning and unsupervised learning

1.2. What is deep learning?

- feature extraction: a feature is a clustered subset of information for recognition
- fish example: fish length, color etc.
- Needs human experience, can't be calculated
- DNN solves the problem without feature extraction

1.2.1. What is a neural network (NN)

- Cascaded pipeline of layers

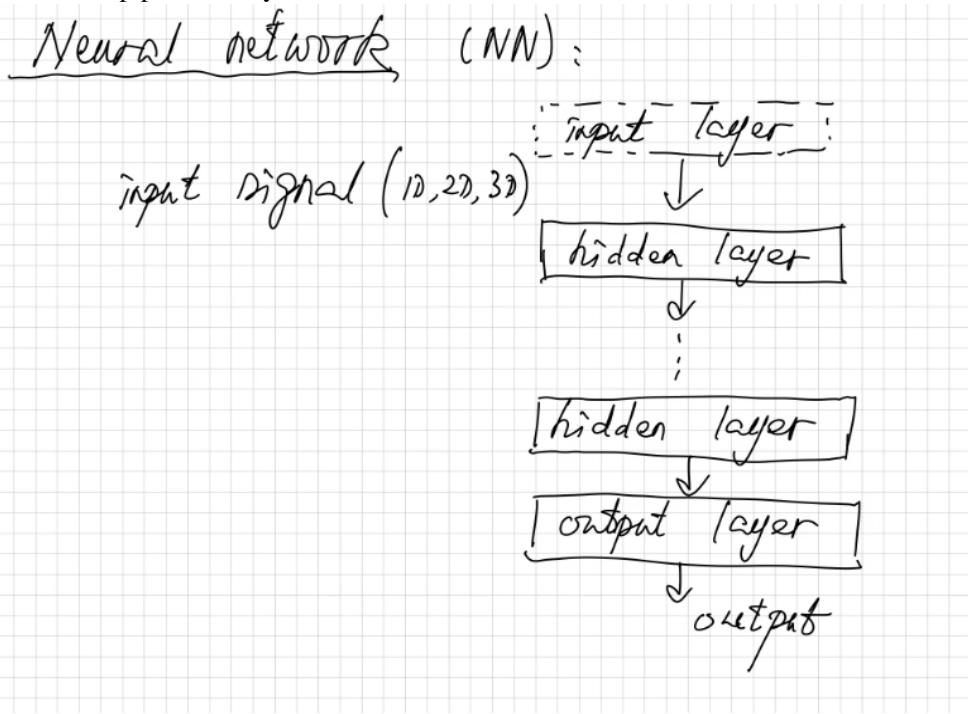


Abbildung 1.3: Neural Network

1.3. Examples for Deep Learning

- Semantic image segmentation is pixelwise classification

Chapter 2: Tools for Deep Learning

Date: 02/05/2020

Lecturer: Bin Yang

By: Nicolas Hornek

2.1. Software

2.2. Hardware

2.3. Datasets

- Overview for Training Datasets up to ImageNet they are for teaching

3.1. Linear Algebra

- TODO get Math nicely into the Context book

3.1 Linear algebra

3-4

Vector norms

Given a vector $\underline{x} = [x_i] \in \mathbb{R}^M$. There are different definitions for the vector norm:

- **2-norm or l_2 -norm or Euclidean norm:** $\|\underline{x}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^M x_i^2} = \sqrt{\underline{x}^T \underline{x}}$
- **1-norm or l_1 -norm:** $\|\underline{x}\|_1 = \sum_{i=1}^M |x_i|$
- **0-norm or l_0 -norm:** $\|\underline{x}\|_0 = \text{number of non-zero elements in } \underline{x}$

Comments:

- $\|\underline{x}\|_2^2$ represents the energy of \underline{x} .
- $\|\underline{x}\|_0$ measures the sparsity of \underline{x} .
- Different vector norms have different unit-norm contour lines $\{\underline{x} \mid \|\underline{x}\|_p = 1\}$.

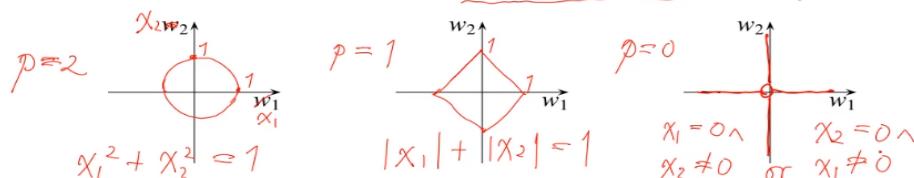


Abbildung 3.1: Vector Normes

3.2. Random variable and probability distribution

3.2.1. One random vector

- **scalar:** x, A, a

- **column vector:** $\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} = [x_i] \in \mathbb{R}^N$ with element $x_i = [\underline{x}]_i$

- **matrix:** $A = [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i \leq M, 1 \leq j \leq N} = [a_{ij}] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$ with element $a_{ij} = [A]_{ij}$

- **3D, 4D tensor:** $A = [a_{ijk}], A = [a_{ijkl}]$

- **transpose** of vector and matrix: $\underline{x}^T = [x_1, \dots, x_N], A^T = [a_{ji}]_{ij}$

- **determinant** of a square matrix A : $|A|$

- **inverse** of a square matrix A : A^{-1}

- **trace** of a square matrix A : $\text{tr}(A) = \sum_i a_{ii}$

Abbildung 3.2: One random vector

PDF for a discrete-valued RV:

$$p(\underline{x}) = \sum_i p_i \delta(\underline{x} - \underline{x}_i)$$

cumulative distribution function CCDF

$$F(\underline{x}) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(z) dz, \quad p(\underline{x}) = \frac{\partial^d F(\underline{x})}{\partial x_1 \dots \partial x_d}$$

- **scalar**: x, A, α

- column **vector**: $\underline{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix} = [x_i] \in \mathbb{R}^N$ with element $x_i = [\underline{x}]_i$

- **matrix**: $A = [a_{ij}]_{1 \leq i \leq M, 1 \leq j \leq N} = [a_{ij}] \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N}$ with element $a_{ij} = [A]_{ij}$

- 3D, 4D **tensor**: $A = [a_{ijk}], A = [a_{ijkl}]$

- **transpose** of vector and matrix: $\underline{x}^T = [x_1, \dots, x_N], A^T = [a_{ji}]_{ij}$

- **determinant** of a square matrix A : $|A|$

- **inverse** of a square matrix A : A^{-1}

- **trace** of a square matrix A : $\text{tr}(A) = \sum_i a_{ii}$

Abbildung 3.3: Moments of a vector

special case $d = 1$: $\underline{X} \rightarrow X \in \mathbb{R}$

$\mu \rightarrow \mu \in \mathbb{R}$

$\underline{C} \rightarrow \text{variance of } X = \text{Var}(X) = \delta^2 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \dots = E(X^2) - \mu^2$

$\delta = \sqrt{\text{Var}(X)}$: standard deviation

For any function $g(\underline{X})$ of \underline{X} : $E[g(\underline{x})] = \int g(x) \cdot p(\underline{x}) d\underline{x} = (\text{d.v.}) \sum_i g(\underline{x}_i) \cdot P(\underline{x}_i)$

Multivariate normal (Gaussian) distribution

PDF

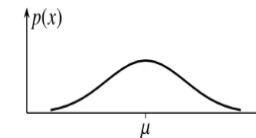
$$\underline{X} \in \mathbb{R}^d \sim N(\underline{\mu}, \mathbf{C}) \quad \square \cdot \square \cdot \square$$

$$p(\underline{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{d/2} |\mathbf{C}|^{1/2}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\underline{x}-\underline{\mu})^T \mathbf{C}^{-1} (\underline{x}-\underline{\mu})}$$

$$\ln(p(\underline{x})) = -\frac{d}{2} \ln(2\pi) - \frac{1}{2} \ln(|\mathbf{C}|) - \frac{1}{2} (\underline{x} - \underline{\mu})^T \mathbf{C}^{-1} (\underline{x} - \underline{\mu})$$

$N(\underline{0}, \mathbf{I})$ is called the **standard normal distribution**.

1D-Visualization



$$\mathbf{I} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

identity matrix

Moments

$$E(\underline{X}) = \underline{\mu}, \quad \text{Cov}(\underline{X}) = \mathbf{C}$$

Abbildung 3.4: Multivariate normal (Gaussian) distribution

one-hot coding : Only one bit is 1 e.g. 0100 one cold coding is the inverse Coding for class label, random vector y of length c so the identity matrix with dimension c is used for class labels

Reformulation of the PMF (categorical distribution) by one-hot coding of the classes

$\underline{x} = [x_i] \in \{\underline{e}_1, \underline{e}_2, \dots, \underline{e}_c\}$, i.e. all $x_i = 0$ except for one single element equal to 1

$$\text{PMF: } P(\underline{X} = \underline{x}) = P(\underline{x}) = \begin{cases} P_i \text{ if } \underline{x} = \underline{e}_i \text{ or } x_1 = 1 \\ \dots \\ P_c \text{ if } \underline{x} = \underline{e}_c \text{ or } x_c = 1 \end{cases} = p_1^{x_1} \cdot p_2^{x_2} \cdot \dots \cdot p_c^{x_c} = \prod_{i=1}^c p_i^{x_i}$$

$$\ln(P(\underline{x})) = \sum_{i=1}^c x_i \cdot \ln(p_i) = [x_1, \dots, x_c] \cdot \begin{bmatrix} \ln(P_1) \\ \dots \\ \ln(P_c) \end{bmatrix} = \underline{x}^T \cdot \ln(\underline{P})$$

In function applied element wise

3.2.2. Multiple random vectors

• 3-16 Table for distributions

• product rule for probability $p(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = p(\underline{x}) \cdot p(\underline{y})$

• Bayes rule $p(\underline{y}|\underline{x}) = p(\underline{y}|\underline{x}) \cdot \frac{p(\underline{x})}{p(\underline{y})}$

• Independent and identically distributed

\underline{x} and \underline{y} are independent if:

$$p(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = p(\underline{x}) \cdot p(\underline{y}) \leftrightarrow p(\underline{x}|\underline{y}) \text{ or } p(\underline{x}|\underline{y}) = p(\underline{y})$$

$\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_N$ are independent and identically distributed (i.i.d)

$$P(\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_N) = \prod_{i=1}^N p_i(\underline{x}_i), \underline{X}_i \sim p_i(\underline{x}_i)$$

$$p_i(\underline{x}_i) = p(\underline{x}_i) \rightarrow p(\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_N) = \prod_{i=1}^N p(\underline{x}_i)$$

3.2.3. Kernel based density estimation

PDF: $p(\underline{x})$ of $\underline{X} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ unknown, only i.i.d samples $\underline{x}(n), 1 \leq n \leq N$

kernel-based estimate $\hat{p}(\underline{x})$ of $p(\underline{x})$ from $\underline{x}(n)$

kernel function $k(\underline{x})$, like a PDF

$$1. k(\underline{x}) \geq 0 \forall \underline{x}$$

$$2. \int k(\underline{x}) d\underline{x} = 1$$

$$\hat{p}(\underline{x}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N k(\underline{x} - \underline{x}(n))$$

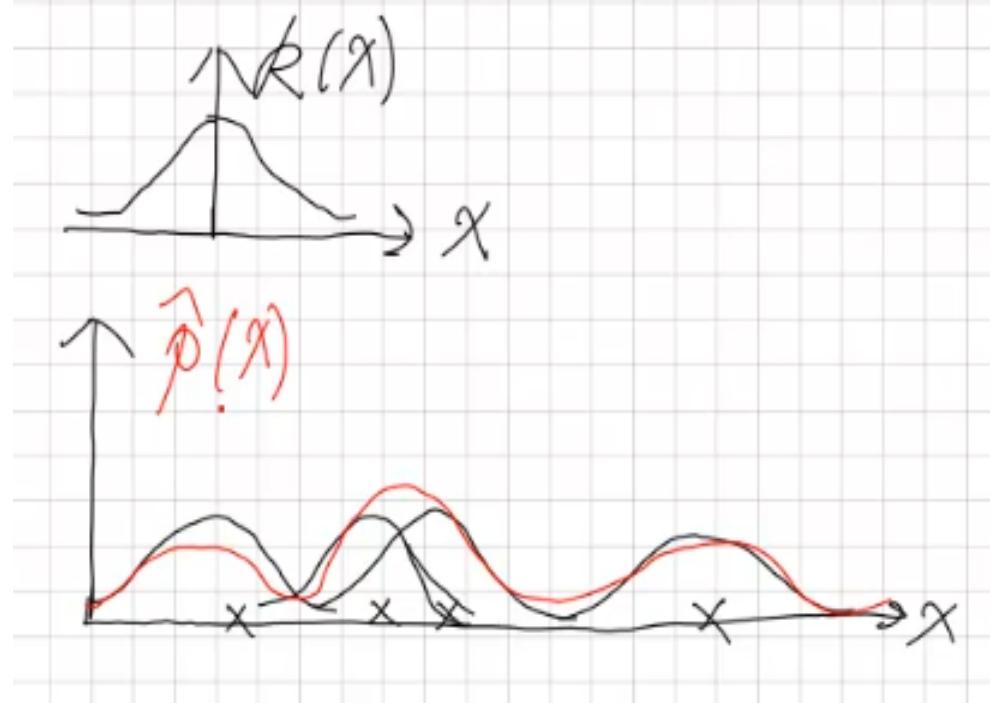


Abbildung 3.5: Kernel function

Smooth Gaussian Kernel:

$$N(0, \underline{I}) : k(\underline{x}) = \frac{1}{2\pi^{\frac{d}{2}}} \cdot e^{-\frac{1}{2}\|\underline{x}\|^2}$$

Dirac Kernel

$$k(\underline{x}) = \delta(\underline{x}) : \text{Dirac function}$$

$$\delta(\underline{x}) = \begin{cases} \infty, \underline{x} = 0 \\ 0, \underline{x} \neq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\int \delta(\underline{x}) d\underline{x} = 1$$

$$\text{sampling property} : \int \delta(\underline{x} - \underline{x}_0) f(\underline{x}) d\underline{x} = f(\underline{x}_0)$$

empirical distribution

$$\hat{p}(\underline{x}) \cdot \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \delta(\underline{x} - \underline{x}(n))$$

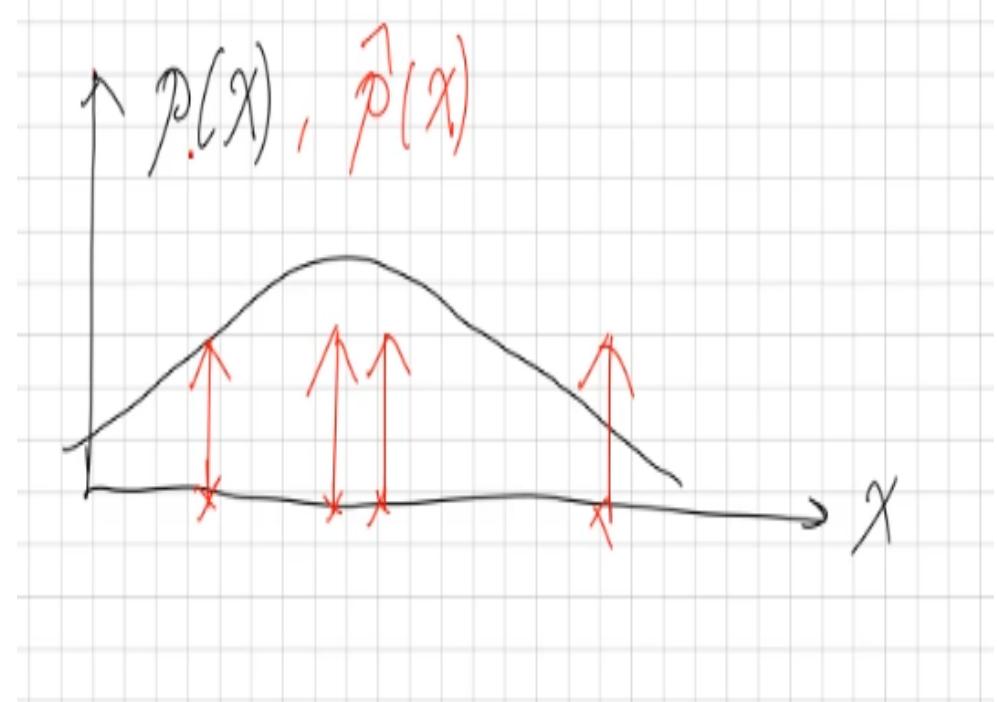


Abbildung 3.6: Estimated PDF function

3.3. Kullback-Leibler divergence and cross entropy

Dissimilarity measure between 2 distributions:

Case A: continuous-valued random variables: PDF

$\underline{X} \sim p(\underline{x})$: true statistical distribution of \underline{X}

$q(\underline{x})$: approximation for $p(\underline{x})$, e.g. by DNN

KL divergence (KLD) between p and q:

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = \int p(\underline{x}) \cdot \ln\left(\frac{p(\underline{x})}{q(\underline{x})}\right) d\underline{x}$$

$$= E_{\underline{X} \sim p} [\ln(\frac{p(\underline{X})}{q(\underline{X})})]$$

expectation over $p(\underline{x})$

DKL is real valued scalar positive or negative or 0

Case B: discrete-valued random vector: PMF

$\underline{X} \in \{\underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_c\} \sim$: true PMF of $\underline{X} \sim Q(\underline{x})$: approximation for $P(x)$

$$D_{KL}(P||Q) = \sum_{i=1}^c P(\underline{x}_i) \cdot \ln(\frac{P(\underline{x}_i)}{Q(\underline{x}_i)}) = E_{\underline{X} \sim P} [\ln(\frac{P(\underline{x})}{Q(\underline{x})})]$$

Properties of the KL divergence: P1) Nonnegative $D_{KL}(P||Q) \geq 0 \forall p, q$

P2) Equality $D_{KL}(P||Q) = 0$ iff(if and only if) $p(\underline{x}) = q(\underline{x})$

proof for "sufficient": $\ln(\frac{p(\underline{x})}{q(\underline{x})}) = 0 \forall \underline{x}$

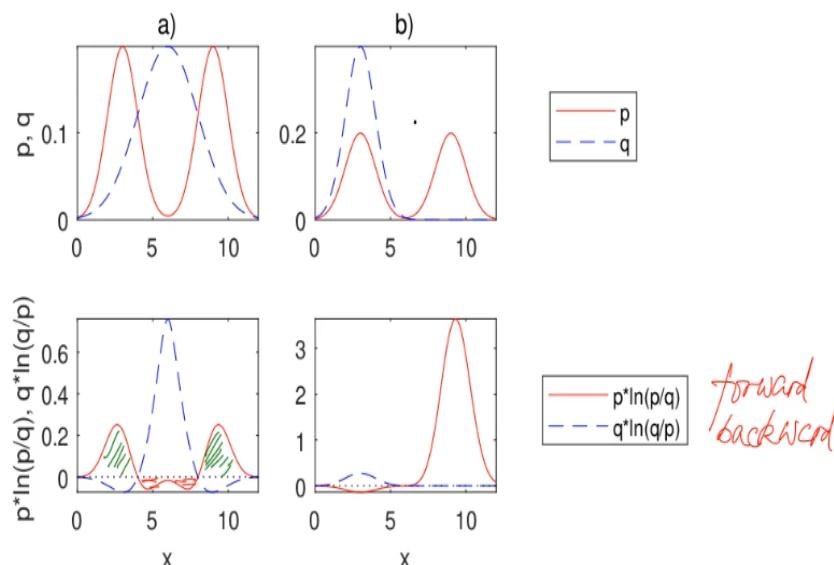
P1 and P2: $D_{KL}(p||1)$ is a suitable metric for approximation p by q

P3 Asymmetry

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = E_{\underline{X} \sim p} = \ln(\frac{p(\underline{x})}{q(\underline{x})}) \neq D_{KL}(q||p) = E_{\underline{X} \sim q} = \ln(\frac{q(\underline{x})}{p(\underline{x})})$$

forward KLD backward KLD

D_{KL} is not a true distance measure with $D(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = D(\underline{y}, \underline{x})$



- When minimizing $D_{KL}(p||q)$, a) is better than b) because $q(x)$ is broad.
- When minimizing $D_{KL}(q||p)$, b) is better than a) because $q(x)$ is narrow.

Abbildung 3.7: Forward vs. Backward KL divergence

3.3.1. E3.5 KLD between normal and Laplace distribution

$$p(x) = \sim N(0, \sigma^2), p(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \cdot e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

$$q(x) \sim \text{Laplace}: (0, b) q(x) = \frac{1}{2b} e^{-\frac{|x|}{b}}$$

Task: choose b to best approximate p by q.

$$\frac{p(x)}{q(x)} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{b}{\sigma} \cdot \exp(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{|x|}{b})$$

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = E_{\underline{X} \sim p} = \ln(\frac{p(\underline{x})}{q(\underline{x})}) = \ln(\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{b}{\sigma}) + E_{\underline{X} \sim p}((-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2} + \frac{|x|}{b}))$$

$$E_{\underline{X} \sim p} = \sigma^2$$

$$E_{\underline{X} \sim p}(|x|) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x| \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}) dx = 2 \int_0^{\infty} |x| \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma} \exp(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}) dx = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \sigma$$

$$\text{Let } \alpha = \frac{\sigma}{b}, D_{KL}(p||q) = \dots = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \cdot \alpha - \ln(\alpha) + \ln(\sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{dD_{KL}(p||q)}{d\alpha} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} - \frac{1}{\alpha} = 0 \rightarrow \alpha = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}}, \text{i.e. } b \approx 0,86$$

$$D_{KL,min}(p||q) = D_{KL}(p||q)|\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} = \dots = \frac{1}{2} - \ln(\frac{\pi}{2}) \approx 0,048$$

• Probable exam question calculate this for 2 distributions

P4) Additive :

$\underline{X} = (\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_2), \underline{x}_1$ and \underline{x}_2 are independent, i.e.

$$p(\underline{x}) = p_1(\underline{x}_1) \cdot p_2(\underline{x}_2), q(\underline{x}) = q_1(\underline{x}_1) \cdot q_2(\underline{x}_2)$$

$$\text{Then: } D_{KL}(p||q) = D_{KL}(p_1||q_1) + D_{KL}(p_2||q_2)$$

P5) Relation to cross entropy :

Definiton of entropy 3-24 probability always greater than 0 but smaller than 1

$$D_{KL}(p||q) = \int p \ln(\frac{p}{q}) dx = \int p \ln(p) dx - \int p \ln(q) dx = -H(p) + H(p, q) \text{ or}$$

cross entropy: $H(p, q) = D_{KL}(p||q) + H(p) \geq H(p) \geq 0$

For a given (fixed) $p(\underline{x})$: $H(p)$ fixed

Hence: $\min D_{KL}(p||q) \leftrightarrow \min H(p, q)$

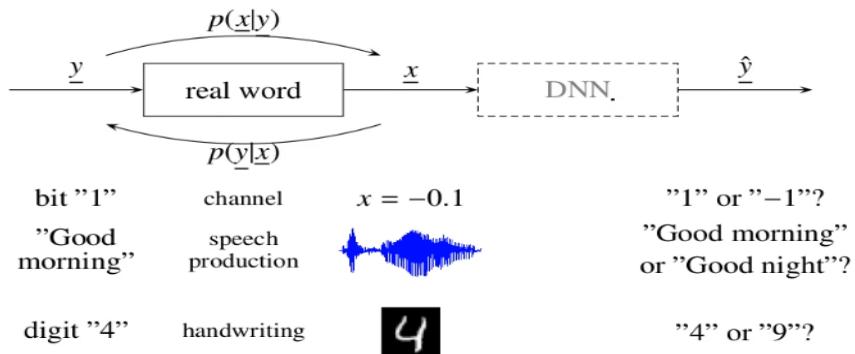
Not the case for backward KLD $D_{KL}(q||p)$!

Minimizing is not the same anymore because then it is $H(q)$ and that's what we are trying to optimize

3.4. Probabilistic framework for machine learning

valid for both SP and ML

valid for both regression problem and classification problem



- Abbildung 3.8: Probabilistic framework of supervised learning
- Both y and x are modeled as random variables. They are described by the joint **data generating distribution**
- $p(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) = p(\underline{x}|\underline{y})p(\underline{y}) = p(\underline{y}|\underline{x})p(\underline{x})$.

$p(\underline{y})$	prior PDF of \underline{y} or prior , available before any measurement of \underline{x}
$p(\underline{x} \underline{y})$	likelihood . It describes the real word, the generation of \underline{x} from \underline{y} . It is a kind of channel-sensor model, e.g. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> bit: communication channel + receiver speech: speech production system + microphone digit: handwriting + camera
$p(\underline{x})$	prior PDF of \underline{x} , also called evidence
$p(\underline{y} \underline{x})$	posterior PDF of \underline{y} after a measurement \underline{x} or posterior

Abbildung 3.9: The data generating distribution

Bayes Rule:

Bayes rule:

$$p(\underline{y}|\underline{x}) = p(\underline{x}|\underline{y}) \cdot \frac{p(\underline{y})}{p(\underline{x})}$$

Posterior Likelihood

i.e. $p(\underline{y}|\underline{x})$ contains both $p(\underline{x}|\underline{y})$ and $p(\underline{y})$

Training in ML: calculate/model $p(\underline{y}|\underline{x}) \forall \underline{x}, \underline{y}$ from D_{train}

Inference .. : Draw conclusion about \underline{y} for a given \underline{x} based on $p(\underline{y}|\underline{x})$

Abbildung 3.10: Bayes Rule in DL

a) Maximum a posterior (MAP) inference:

$$\max_{\underline{y}} p(\underline{y}|\underline{x}) = p(\underline{x}|\underline{y}) \frac{p(\underline{y})}{p(\underline{x})}$$

b) Minimum Bayesian risk (MBR) inference:

$$\min_{\hat{\underline{y}}} E_{\underline{X}, \underline{Y}}[l(\underline{Y}, \hat{\underline{Y}}(\underline{X}))] = \int l(\underline{y}, \hat{\underline{y}}(\underline{x})) p(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) d\underline{x} d\underline{y}$$

see course DPR and SASP for more details.

Abbildung 3.11: Bayes decision theorem

- Supervised learning:
- * $p(\underline{x}|y)$, $p(y)$ unknown $\rightarrow p(y|\underline{x})$ unknown
 - * approximate $p(y|\underline{x})$ by a parametric posterior model $q(y|\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})$, given by a DNN with parameter vector $\underline{\theta}$
- $\underline{x} \rightarrow \boxed{\text{DNN}, \underline{\theta}} \rightarrow q(y|\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})$
- ↳ function $q(\cdot)$ known \leftarrow DNN architecture
 - ↳ $\underline{\theta}$ unknown \leftarrow "coefficient"
 - * learning $\underline{\theta}$ from D_{train}

Abbildung 3.12: Supervised learning

Learning Criterion:

Learning criterion:

$$\min_{\underline{\theta}} D_{\text{KL}}(p(\underline{x}, y) || q(\underline{x}, y; \underline{\theta})) \quad \xleftarrow[p(\underline{x}, y) \text{ fixed}]{} \quad \xrightarrow{q(\underline{x}, y; \underline{\theta})}$$

$$\min_{\underline{\theta}} H(p(\underline{x}, y), q(\underline{x}, y; \underline{\theta}))$$

Since $q(\underline{x}, y; \underline{\theta}) = q(y|\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}) \cdot q(\underline{x})$,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{CE } H(p(\underline{x}, y), q(\underline{x}, y; \underline{\theta})) &= - \int p(\underline{x}, y) \ln q(\underline{x}, y; \underline{\theta}) d\underline{x} dy \\ &= - \int p(\underline{x}, y) \cdot \underbrace{\ln q(y|\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})}_{\text{independent of } \underline{\theta}, \text{ const}} d\underline{x} dy \end{aligned}$$

Abbildung 3.13: Calc part1

$$= \int p(\underline{x}, y) \cdot \underbrace{[-\ln q(y|\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})]}_{\text{average loss, Bayesian risk, see DPR}} d\underline{x} dy + \text{const.}$$

3.2.3: sampling property of $\delta(\cdot)$:

$$\min_{\underline{\theta}} H(p, q) = \cancel{\text{const}} + \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \left[-\ln q(y(n)|\underline{x}(n); \underline{\theta}) \right]$$

Loss $L(\underline{x}(n), y(n); \underline{\theta})$

cost function $L(\underline{\theta})$

Abbildung 3.14: Calc part2

3.4.1. Role of a NN

1. approximate true posterior $p(y|\underline{x})$ by $q(y|\underline{x}; \Theta)$
2. learn $\underline{\Theta}$ from D_{train}

Chapter 4: Dense Neural Networks

Date: 05/05/2020

Lecturer: Bin Yang

By: Nicolas Hornek

A general model for $q(y|\underline{x}; \Theta)$

*) can learn any linear or nonlinear mapping

*) suitable for both regression and classification problems

artificial NN: mimic biological NN (brain)

4.1. Fully connected neural networks - Neuron

4.1. Neuron



$\underline{x} = [x_1, \dots, x_d]^T \in \mathbb{R}^d$: input or 2D image or 3D tensor

$\underline{w} = [w_1, \dots, w_d]^T \in \mathbb{R}^d$: weight

$b \in \mathbb{R}$: bias, offset

$a = \underline{w}^T \underline{x} + b = \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_i + b \in \mathbb{R}$: activation,

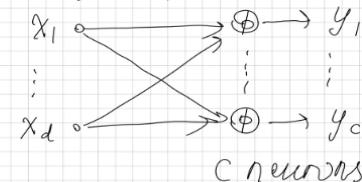
$\phi(\cdot) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$: activation function an affine function of x

$y = \phi(a) = \phi(\underline{w}^T \underline{x} + b)$: output

Abbildung 4.1: Neuron

4.2. Chapter 4.2 Layer of Neurons

4.2 Layer of neurons



c neurons

$\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$: input

$\underline{W} = [\underline{w}_{ij}] \in \mathbb{R}^{c \times d}$: weight

$\underline{b} = [b_i] \in \mathbb{R}^c$: bias

$\underline{a} = \underline{W} \cdot \underline{x} + \underline{b} \in \mathbb{R}^c$: activation

$\underline{y} = [y_i] = \phi(\underline{a}) \in \mathbb{R}^c$: output

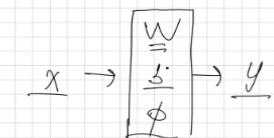


Abbildung 4.2: Layer of Neurons

2 meanings of $\phi(\cdot)$:

*) $\phi(\underline{a}) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ for one neuron

*) $\phi(\underline{a}) : \mathbb{R}^c \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^c$, $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{R}^c$, layer

▷ elementwise: $\phi(\underline{a}) = \begin{bmatrix} \phi(a_1) \\ \vdots \\ \phi(a_c) \end{bmatrix}$

▷ or not

$\phi(\underline{a}) = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1(\underline{a}) \\ \vdots \\ \phi_c(\underline{a}) \end{bmatrix}$

see ch. 4.4

Abbildung 4.3: Meanings of phi

Comments :

- no interconnections between neurons in the same layer
- dense layer, fully connected layer: • each input x_j connected to each neuron i
- $\rightarrow c \cdot d$ weights and w_{ij} an c biases b_i , $1 \leq i \leq c, 1 \leq j \leq d$,
- $\rightarrow c \cdot (d + 1)$ parameters

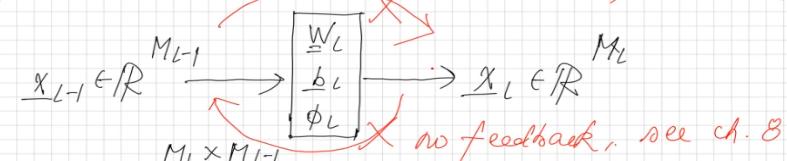
4.3. Feedforward neural network

A cascade of dense layers

Layer $1 \leq l \leq L$:

M_l - number of the input neurons

Layer $1 \leq l \leq L$:



$$W_l \in \mathbb{R}^{M_l \times M_{l-1}}$$

$$b_l \in \mathbb{R}^{M_l}$$

$$a_l = W_l x_{l-1} + b_l \in \mathbb{R}^{M_l}$$

$$x_l = \phi_l(a_l) \in \mathbb{R}^{M_l}$$

$M_l(M_{l-1} + 1)$ parameters.

Abbildung 4.4: Feedforward multilayer neural network

Network:

$$\underline{x}_L = f(\underline{x}_0; \underline{\theta}) : \mathbb{R}^{M_0} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{M_L}$$

* parameter vector

$$\underline{\theta} = \begin{bmatrix} \text{Vec}(W_1) \\ b_1 \\ \vdots \\ \text{Vec}(W_L) \\ b_L \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N_p}$$

learned from Train

$$\text{Number of parameters: } N_p = \sum_{l=1}^L M_l(M_{l-1} + 1)$$

$$\dots, \text{multiplications: } N_x = \sum_{l=1}^L M_l M_{l-1}$$

* $L, \{M_1, \dots, M_L\}$ hyperparameters chosen by you

* $\{\phi_1, \dots, \phi_L\}$ hyperparameters chosen by you

Abbildung 4.5: Network Parameters

4.4. Activation function

Mild requirements on $\phi()$:

- nonlinear in general \rightarrow fundamental
- smooth, differentiable \rightarrow for training
- simple calculation \rightarrow low complexity
- Slides 4-6; 4-7 activation function types

4.4.1. Sigmoid activation function

$$\phi(a) = \sigma(a) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}}$$

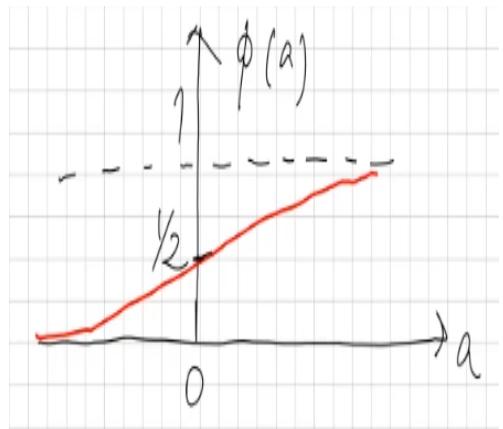


Abbildung 4.6: Sigmoid function

- $0 < \phi < 1$ = prob.
- symmetry: $\phi(-a) = 1 - \phi(a)$
- derivative: $\frac{d\phi(a)}{da} = \dots = \frac{e^{-a}}{(1 + e^{-a})^2} = \phi(a) \cdot \phi(-a) = \phi(a)(1 - \phi(a)), \in (0, 1)$
easy calculative
- widely used in conventional NN (shallow)

4.4.2. hyperbolic tangent activation function

$$\phi(a) = \tanh(a) = \frac{e^a - e^{-a}}{e^a + e^{-a}}$$

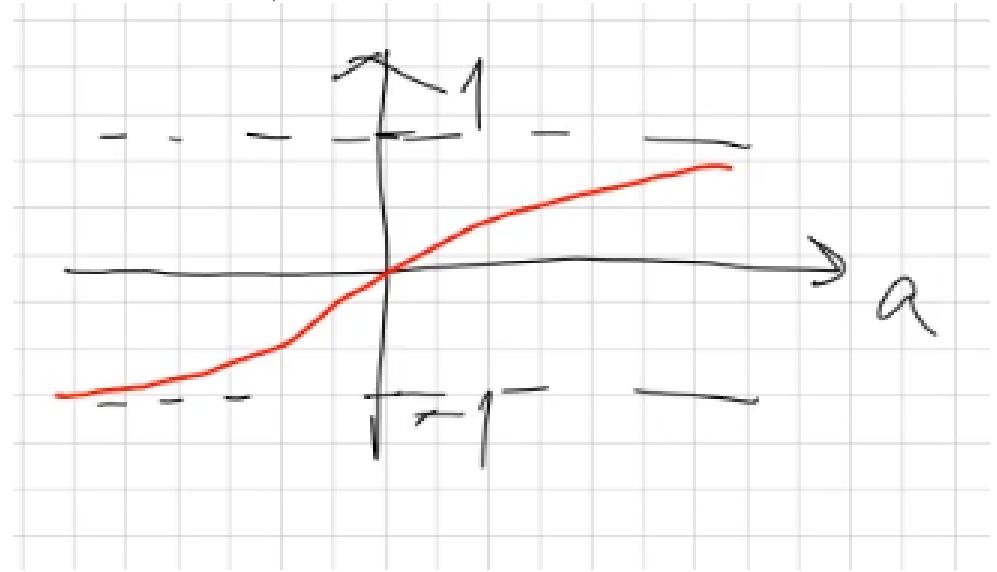


Abbildung 4.7: HyperbolicTangentActivation
like sigmoid but another output range

4.4.3. rectifier linear unit(ReLU)

$$\phi(a) = \text{ReLU}(a) = \max(a, 0) = \begin{cases} a & a \geq 0 \\ 0 & a < 0 \end{cases}$$

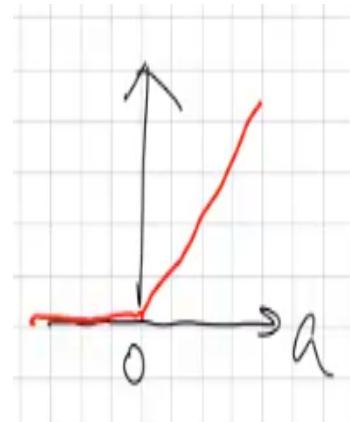


Abbildung 4.8: ReLu Activation Function

- diode

- simple calculation

- $\frac{d\phi}{da} = \begin{cases} 1 & a > 0 \\ 0 & a < 0 \end{cases} = u(a), u(0) = 0$ typically used

- most popular in DNN

- Details on 4-7

4.4.4. Softmax activation function(classification problem)

$$\phi(\underline{a} : \underline{a} = [a_i] \in \mathbb{R}^c \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^c)$$

$$\phi(\underline{a}) = \text{softmax}(\underline{a}) = \begin{bmatrix} \phi_1(\underline{a}) \\ \vdots \\ \phi_c(\underline{a}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\phi(\underline{a}) = \frac{e^{a_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^c e^{a_j}}, \in (0, 1), \sum_{i=1}^c \phi_i(\underline{a}) = 1$$

- maps $\underline{a} \in \mathbb{R}^c$ to a categorical PMF with c classes

- a_i large $\rightarrow \phi_i(\underline{a})$ close to 1

- a_i small $\rightarrow \phi_i(\underline{a})$ close to 0

- used in the output layer for classification problems

4.4.5. Special case c=2, binary classification problem

$$\phi_1(\underline{a}) = \frac{e^{a_1}}{e^{a_1} + e^{a_2}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(a_1 - a_2)}} = \sigma(a_1 - a_2)$$

$$\phi_2(\underline{a}) = \frac{e^{a_2}}{e^{a_1} + e^{a_2}} = 1 - \phi_1(\underline{a}) = \sigma(a_2 - a_1)$$

i.e. softmax

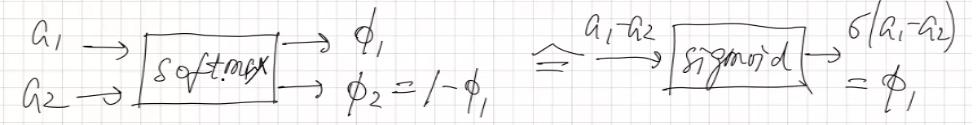


Abbildung 4.9: Outputlayer Softmax

one sigmoid output is sufficient for binary classification instead of 2 output softmax!

Derivative of softmax:

$$\frac{\partial \phi_i(\underline{a})}{\partial a_j} = \dots = \begin{cases} \phi_i(\underline{a}) \cdot (1 - \phi_i(\underline{a})) & i = j \\ -\phi_i(\underline{a}) \cdot \phi_j(\underline{a}) & i \neq j \end{cases} \quad \text{•4-9 for details on usage}$$

4.5. Universal approximation

4.5 Universal approximation

Universal approximation theorem \triangleq existence of a solution

The **universal approximation theorem** states that a feedforward neural network with a linear output layer ($\phi_L(\underline{a}) = \underline{a}$) and

- at least one hidden layer with
- a nonlinear activation function

can approximate any continuous (nonlinear) function $y(\underline{x}_0)$ (on compact input sets) to arbitrary accuracy.

Comments:

- arbitrary accuracy: with an increasing number of hidden neurons.
- valid for a wide range of nonlinear activation functions, but excluding polynomials.
- minimum requirement for universal approximation: $\mathbf{W}_2 \phi_1(\mathbf{W}_1 \underline{x}_0 + \underline{b}_1) + \underline{b}_2$.

For learning \mathbf{W}_l and \underline{b}_l from D_{train} :

- deep networks are better than shallow ones,
- some activation functions are better than others.

\triangleq how to find a good solution,

4.5.1. E4.3 Regression with 1 hidden layer

True function: $f_0(x)$

Given: $x(n)$ and noisy function $y(n) = f(x(n)) + z(n)$, $1 \leq n \leq N$, $z(n)$ is the noise
NN:

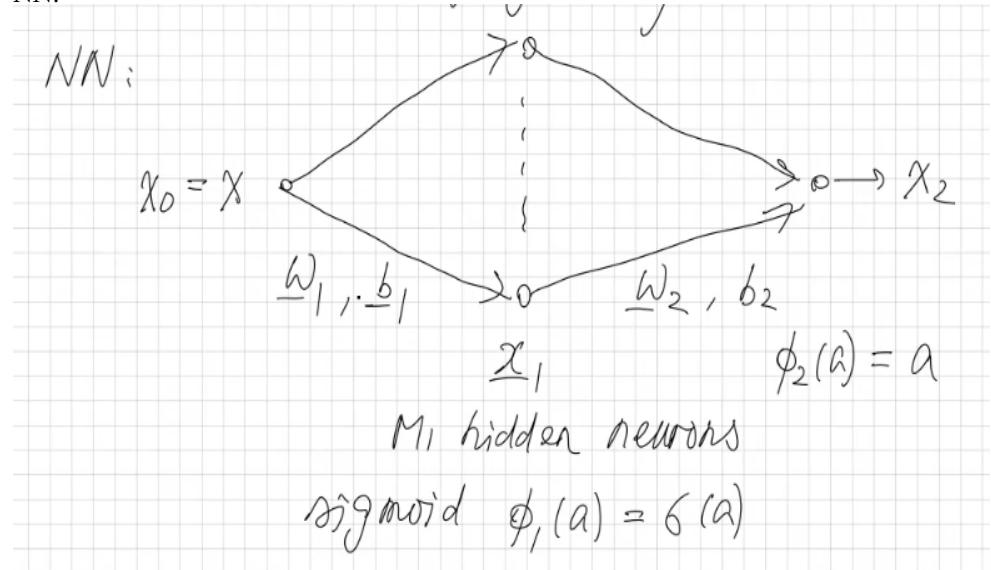


Abbildung 4.10: Example 4.3 Architecture

$$\text{i.e. } x_2 = f(x, \underline{\theta}) = \underline{w}_2^T \sigma(\underline{w}_1 x + \underline{b}_1), \text{ column times row times scalar} \\ = \sum_{i=1}^{N_1} w_{2,i} \cdot \underbrace{\sigma(w_{1,i}x + b_{1,i})}_{M_1 \text{ nonlinear basis functions of } x} + b_2$$

$\sigma(w_i x + b_i) \sigma(w_i(x + \frac{b_i}{w_i}))$

new center at $\frac{-b_i}{w_i}$ and new slope value w_i

Picture is for black 1 w_i red another w_i green another example w_i

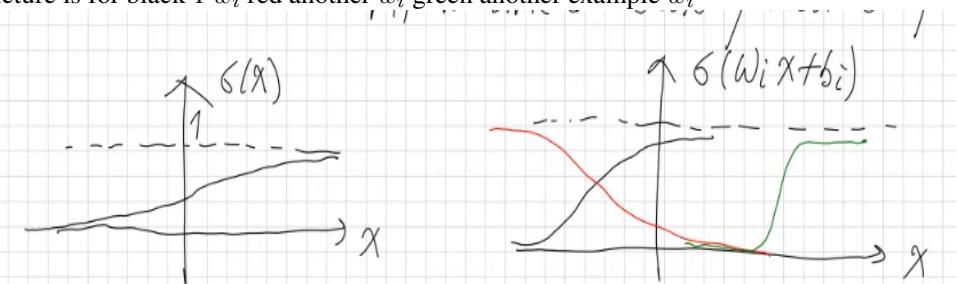


Abbildung 4.11: Sketch for sigmoid

4.6. Loss and cost function

Review chapter 3.4

Ch. 3.4:

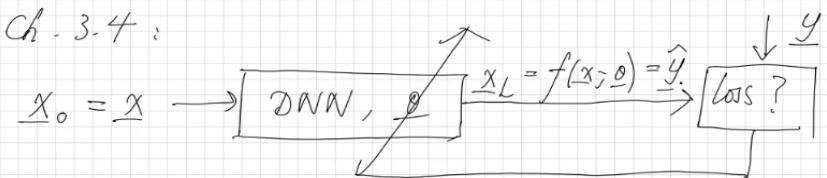


Abbildung 4.12: Probabilistic Framework supervised learning

$$\min_{\underline{\theta}} L(\underline{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} = \sum_{n=1}^N l(\underline{x}(n), y(n), \underline{\theta}) \text{ cost function for } d_{train}$$

$$l(\underline{x}, \underline{y}, \underline{\theta}) = -\ln(q(\underline{y}|\underline{x}, \underline{\theta})) \text{ loss for one pair } (\underline{x}, \underline{y})$$

$$q() \leftrightarrow \text{DNN} ???$$

4.6.1. Regression Problem

$\underline{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$: random input

$\underline{y} \in \mathbb{R}^c$ desired random output

Assumption: DNN estimates the mean of \underline{y} , i.e.

$\underline{y} = f(\underline{x}, \underline{\theta}) + \underline{z}$, \underline{z} : noise

f is calculated by DNN

case A: : $\underline{z} \sim N(\underline{0}, \sigma^2 \underline{I})$, white Gaussian noise

$\underline{y} \sim N(f(\underline{x}, \underline{\theta}), \sigma^2 \underline{I})$

$$q(\underline{y}|\underline{x}, \underline{\theta}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{c/2}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \|\underline{y} - f(\underline{x}, \underline{\theta})\|^2\right)$$

$$l(\underline{x}, \underline{y}, \underline{\theta}) = -\ln(q(\underline{y}|\underline{x}, \underline{\theta})) = \text{const.} + \frac{1}{\sigma^2} \|\underline{y} - f(\underline{x}, \underline{\theta})\|^2$$

$$L(\underline{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \|\underline{y}(n) - f(\underline{x}, \underline{\theta})\|^2$$

$\rightarrow l_2$ -loss, mean square error (MSE) loss, least squares (LS) method

$\min L(\underline{\theta})$ is a parameter estimation problem

case B:

$\underline{z} \sim N(\underline{0}, \underline{C})$, colored Gaussian noise

$$L(\underline{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N [\underline{y} - (f(\underline{x}(n), \underline{\theta}))^T \cdot \underline{C}^{-1} \cdot [\underline{y} - (f(\underline{x}), \underline{\theta})]] , \text{ weighted MSE loss}$$

Rarely used in real life applications:

- how to know \underline{C}

- \underline{C}^{-1} expensive for large \underline{C}

\underline{x} in \mathbb{R}^d : input

$$\underline{y} \in \{\underline{e}_1, \underline{e}_2, \dots, \underline{e}_c\}$$

: class label for \underline{x} in one-hot coding

Let $p_i = P(\underline{y} = \underline{e}_i | \underline{x})$: true posterior probability

ch: 3.2 : $P(\underline{y}|\underline{x}) = \prod_{i=1}^c p_i^{y_i}$ true PMF

But p_i unknown

DNN: • output $f(\underline{y}, \underline{\theta}) = [f_i(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})] \in \mathbb{R}^c$ an estimate for $[p_i]$

• i. e. $P(\underline{y}|\underline{x})$ approximated $Q(\underline{y}|\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}) = \prod_{i=1}^c f_i(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})^{y_i}$

in order to ensure :

$$\bullet 0 < f_i(\underline{y}; \underline{\theta}) < 1$$

$$\bullet \sum_{i=1}^c f_i(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}) = 1,$$

softmax is used in the output layer :

$$\underline{x}_L = f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}) = \phi_L(\underline{a}_L) = \text{softmax}(\underline{a}_L), \text{ see ch.4.4}$$

$$\rightarrow \text{Loss } l(\underline{x}, \underline{y}; \underline{\theta}) = -\ln(Q(\underline{y}|\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})) = \sum_{i=1}^c y_i \ln(f_i(\underline{y}; \underline{\theta})) = -\underline{y}^T \ln(f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})) \geq 0$$

categorical cross entropy(CE) loss

Special case : Binary classification , $c = 2$

ch.4.4: softmax, $c = 2 \Leftarrow \text{sigmoid}$

i.e. one output neuron with sigmoid activation function $f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}) = \sigma(a_L)$ is sufficient

Let $y_1 = y, y_2 = 1 - y; f_1 = f; f_2 = 1 - f$

$$\rightarrow l(\underline{x}, \underline{y}; \underline{\theta}) = -y \ln(f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}) + (1 - y)) \cdot \ln(1 - f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})) , \text{ binary CE loss}$$

True probabilistic way toward cost functions

The probabilistic way toward the cost functions

- $p(\underline{x}, \underline{y})$: true but unknown data generating distribution, application specific
- $D_{\text{train}} = \{\underline{x}(n), \underline{y}(n), 1 \leq n \leq N\}$: training set, i.i.d. samples of $p(\underline{x}, \underline{y})$
- $p(\underline{y}|\underline{x})$: true posterior describing the desired inference $\underline{x} \rightarrow \underline{y}$
- $q(\underline{y}|\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})$: a parametric model (DNN) to approximate $p(\underline{y}|\underline{x})$

$$\text{min. forward KL divergence } D_{\text{KL}}(p(\underline{x}, \underline{y}) \| q(\underline{x}, \underline{y}; \underline{\theta}))$$

↓ ch. 3.3: p fixed

$$\text{min. cross entropy } H(p, q) = -\mathbb{E}_{\underline{X}, \underline{Y} \sim p(\underline{X}, \underline{Y})} \ln(q(\underline{Y}|\underline{X}; \underline{\theta}))$$

↓ ch. 3.4: use empirical distribution $\hat{p}(\underline{x}, \underline{y})$

$$\text{min. cross entropy } H(\hat{p}, q) = -\mathbb{E}_{\underline{X}, \underline{Y} \sim \hat{p}(\underline{X}, \underline{Y})} \ln(q(\underline{Y}|\underline{X}; \underline{\theta}))$$

↓ ignore constant term

$$\text{min. cost function } L(\underline{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N [-\ln(q(\underline{y}(n)|\underline{x}(n); \underline{\theta}))]$$

↓ ch. 4.6: $q(\underline{y}|\underline{x}; \underline{\theta})$ for regression and classification?

l_2 -loss or l_1 -loss or categorical loss

4.6.3. Semantic segmentation

pixelwise classification

categorical cross entropy loss:

$$l(\underline{X}, \underline{Y}; \underline{\theta}) = \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N [-y_{mn} \cdot \ln(\hat{y}_{mn}(\underline{X}, \underline{\theta}))] \text{ sum over all pixels}$$

Problem: imbalanced classes

e.g (c=2) background and foreground with 90 % background and 10 % foreground pixels
, 90 % loss function for the foreground

→ $l(\cdot)$ cares more about the major class and less about the minor class but the minor class(foreground) is object of interest. → reduced segmentation accuracy for the minor class

Solutions:

- Weighted categorical CE loss
- region-based loss **Jaccard index only used for result evaluation not suitable as loss function for training**
- minimize loss, not max J or D for those indexes
- $|A| \in \mathbb{N}$, not differential with respect to $\underline{\theta}$
- \underline{y}_{mn} contains 0 or 1 as desired, but \hat{y} contains real numbers $\in (0, 1) \in \text{softmax}$

→ adapted definition of J and D are necessary

4.6 Lost and cost function

4-21

Soft Jaccard and Dice loss

Let again $\mathbf{Y} = [\underline{y}_{mn}]_{mn}$ and $\hat{\mathbf{Y}} = [\hat{\underline{y}}_{mn}]_{mn}$. $\underline{y}_{mn} \in \{e_1, \dots, e_c\}$ is the one-hot coding and $\hat{\underline{y}}_{mn} \in \mathbb{R}^c$ is the c -class softmax output for the pixel (m, n) . The **soft Jaccard loss** to be minimized in training for image segmentation is

$$\begin{aligned}\underline{\alpha} &= \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N \underline{y}_{mn} \odot \hat{\underline{y}}_{mn} = [\alpha_i] \in \mathbb{R}^c, \\ \underline{\beta} &= \sum_{m=1}^M \sum_{n=1}^N (\underline{y}_{mn} + \hat{\underline{y}}_{mn}) = [\beta_i] \in \mathbb{R}^c, \\ J_i &= \frac{\alpha_i + \epsilon}{\beta_i - \alpha_i + \epsilon}, \\ l(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}; \underline{\theta}) &= 1 - \frac{1}{c} \sum_{i=1}^c J_i\end{aligned}$$

\odot is the elementwise multiplication. α_i and β_i represent arithmetic calculations of $|A_i \cap B_i|$ and $|A_i| + |B_i|$ for class i , respectively. J_i is the soft Jaccard index for class i where $\epsilon > 0$ is a suitable number to avoid 0/0 if $\alpha_i = \beta_i = 0$. $l(\mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Y}; \underline{\theta})$ is the soft Jaccard loss differentiable w.r.t. $\underline{\theta}$. The **soft Dice loss** is defined in a similar way.

For 3D segmentation, $\underline{\alpha}$ and $\underline{\beta}$ are calculated by three-dimensional sums over all pixels.

Abbildung 4.13: Soft Jaccard / Dice loss

Very good for strongly imbalanced classes

4.7. Training

- training set $D_{train} = \{\underline{x}, \underline{y}, 1 \leq n \leq N\}$

- cost function $L(\underline{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N l(\underline{x}(n), \underline{y}; \underline{\theta})$

- task: $\min L(\underline{\theta})$

- optimizer: optimization algorithm to solve the minimization task $L(\underline{\theta})$

No closed-form solution! Numerical minimization necessary, see AM (last part)

in DL: gradient decent approach and variants(like hiking)

need only 1. order derivative of $L(\underline{\theta})$

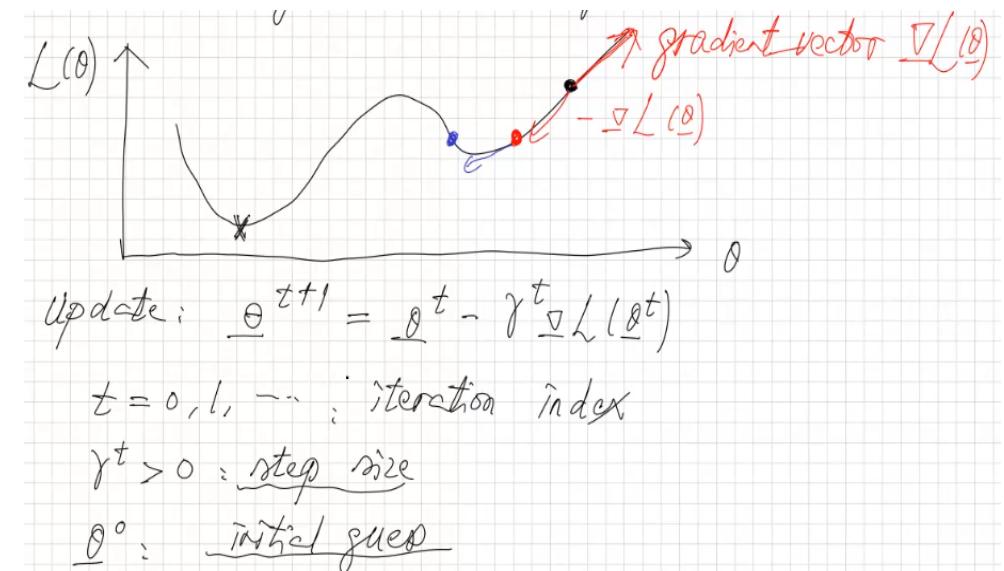


Abbildung 4.14: Gradient descent calculation of the gradient vector $\underline{\nabla} L(\underline{\theta})$ is non trivial

4.7.1. Chainrule of derivative (back propagation)

$$\frac{f(g(\underline{\theta}))}{d\underline{\theta}} = \frac{df}{dg} \cdot \frac{dg}{d\underline{\theta}}$$

$$\text{Layerindex L: } \frac{\partial L_{cost}(\underline{\theta})}{\partial w_{L,ij}} = \frac{\partial L_{cost}}{\partial \underline{x}_L} \cdot \frac{\partial \underline{x}_K}{\partial \underline{a}_L} \cdot \frac{\partial \underline{a}_L}{\partial w_{L,ij}} = \underbrace{\underline{J}_L(\underline{x}_L) \cdot \underline{J}_{\underline{x}_L}(\underline{a}_L)}_{\underline{J}_L(\underline{a}_L)} \cdot \underline{J}_{\underline{a}_L}(w_{L,ij}),$$

Jacobi matrices see ch. 3.1

$$\text{Notation: } \underline{J}_y(x) = \frac{\partial y}{\partial x}$$

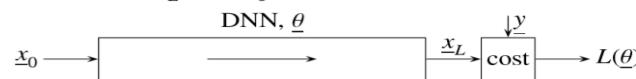
Layer $L-1$:

$$\frac{\partial L(\underline{\theta})}{\partial w_{L-1,ij}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \underline{a}_L} \cdot \frac{\partial \underline{a}_L}{\partial \underline{a}_{L-1}} \cdot \frac{\partial \underline{a}_{L-1}}{\partial w_{L-1,ij}} = \underbrace{\underline{J}_L(\underline{a}_L) \cdot \underline{J}_{\underline{a}_L}(\underline{a}_{L-1})}_{\underline{J}_L(\underline{a}_{L-1})} \cdot \underline{J}_{\underline{a}_{L-1}}(w_{L-1,ij})$$

$$\text{Layer 1: } \frac{\partial L(\underline{\theta})}{\partial w_{1,ij}} = \underline{J}_L(\underline{a}_L) \cdot \underline{J}_{\underline{a}_L}(\underline{a}_{L-1}) \cdot \dots \cdot \underline{J}_{\underline{a}_2}(\underline{a}_1) \cdot \underline{J}_{\underline{a}_1}(w_{1,ij})$$

Forward pass vs. backward pass in DNN

Forward pass to calculate \underline{x}_L from \underline{x}_0 :



Backward pass or **backpropagation** of so called **error vectors** $\underline{\delta}_l^T := \mathbf{J}_L(\underline{a}_l) = \frac{\partial L(\underline{\theta})}{\partial \underline{a}_l} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times M_l}$:



For $l = L - 1, \dots, 1$

$$\underline{\delta}_l^T = \underline{\delta}_{l+1}^T \cdot \mathbf{J}_{a_{l+1}}(\underline{x}_l) \mathbf{J}_{x_l}(\underline{a}_l) = \boxed{\quad} . \boxed{\quad}$$

$$\frac{\partial L(\underline{\theta})}{\partial w_{l,ij}} = \underline{\delta}_l^T \cdot \mathbf{J}_{a_l}(w_{l,ij}) = \boxed{\quad} . \boxed{\quad}$$

$$\frac{\partial L(\underline{\theta})}{\partial b_{l,i}} = \underline{\delta}_l^T \cdot \mathbf{J}_{a_l}(b_{l,i}) = \boxed{\quad} . \boxed{\quad}$$

Abbildung 4.15: Forward pass vs. backward pass

Calculations for backpropagation on Slide 4-24 to 4-27

more about optimizer in ch.5

more about model in ch. 6-8

Batch gradient descent

calculate $\underline{\nabla}L(\underline{\theta}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N \underline{\nabla}l(\underline{x}(n), \underline{y}(n); \underline{\theta})$

for the whole training set D_{train}

Difficult for too large N!

e.g. MNIST: 60.000 training samples

ILSVRC: 1.2M training samples

→ not enough ram to keep D_{train} in memory

Solution: stochastic gradient descent (SGD), i.e. calculate $\underline{\nabla}L$ and update $\underline{\theta}$ for each minibatch, a block of B samples from d_{train} :

$$\underline{\theta}^{t+1} = \underline{\theta}^t - \underline{\nabla}L((t); \underline{\theta})|_{\underline{\theta}=\underline{\theta}_t}$$

$$L(t; \underline{\theta}) = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{n=t' B+1}^{(t'+1) \cdot B} l(\underline{x}(n), \underline{y}; \underline{\theta})$$

$B \in \mathbb{N}$: minibatch size, small enough to fit in RAM

$N/B \text{ in } \mathbb{N}$: number of minibatches in d_{train}

$t = 0, 1, \dots$: iteration index

$$t' = \text{mod}(t, \frac{N}{B}) \in \{0, 1, \dots, \frac{N}{B} - 1\} : \text{minibatch index}$$

$\underline{\nabla}L(t; \underline{\theta})$ more noisy than $\underline{\nabla}L(\underline{\theta})$

→ stochastic gradient descents

Evaluation during training:

$\hat{\underline{\theta}}_k$ after k-th epoch: $k = 1, 2, \dots$

Technical performance metrics:

- training loss: $L(\hat{\underline{\theta}}_k)$ calculated form training set D_{train}
- test loss: $L(\hat{\underline{\theta}}_k)$ calculated form test set D_{test}
- and objective performance metrics for classification
- **training error rate** : Error rate of $DNN(\hat{\underline{\theta}}_k)$ for D_{train}
- **test error rate** : Error rate of $DNN(\hat{\underline{\theta}}_k)$ for D_{test}
- or: • training/test accuracy = 1- training/test error rate

4.8. 4.8 Implementation of DNN's in Python

• $60000/128)468,795 \approx 469$ mini-batches (slide 4-33)

• see python script KerasDemo

Chapter 5: Advanced optimization techniques

Date: 15/05/2020

Lecturer: Bin Yang

By: Nicolas Hornek

5.1. Difficulties in optimization

2 Questions: •universal approximation: Existence of a NN for each task

Will you find it?

•Why was the conventional NN not successful?

5.1 Difficulties in optimization

5-3

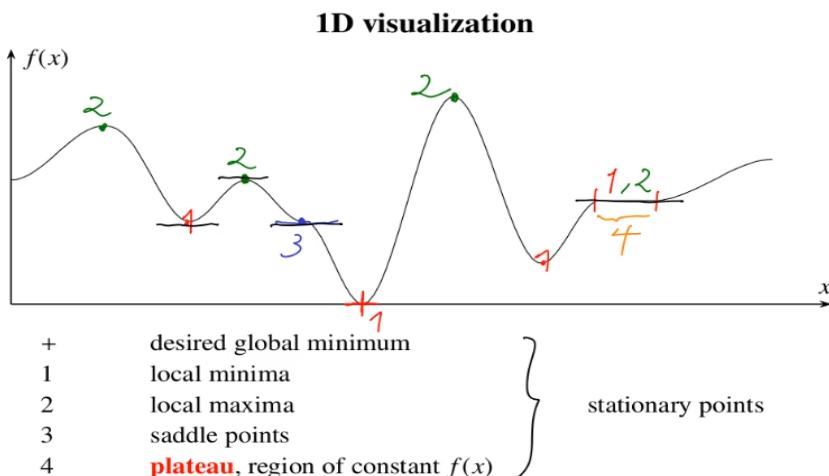
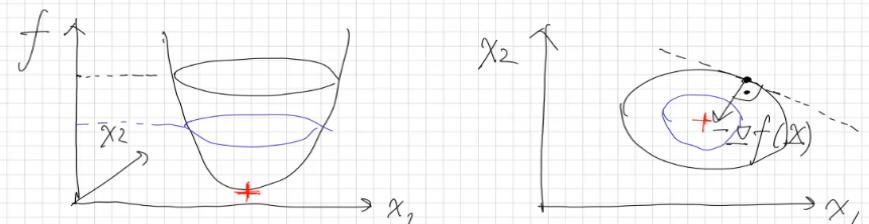


Abbildung 5.1: 1D Visualization Gradient Descent

2D visualization: $f(\underline{x}) = f(x_1, x_2)$



$$\begin{aligned} &\text{contour lines of } f(\underline{x}) \\ &= \{\underline{x} \mid f(\underline{x}) = \text{const}\} \end{aligned}$$

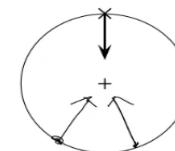
Abbildung 5.2: 2D Contour lines

5.1 Difficulties in optimization

5-7

D2) Ill conditioning

well conditioned (circular) contour lines
equal curvatures
 $-\nabla L(t; \theta)$ points to local minimum
fast convergence



ill conditioned (narrow) contour lines
strongly different curvatures
 $-\nabla L(t; \theta)$ mostly points to wrong directions
slow convergence (oscillation)

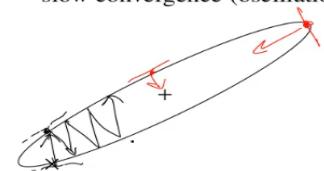
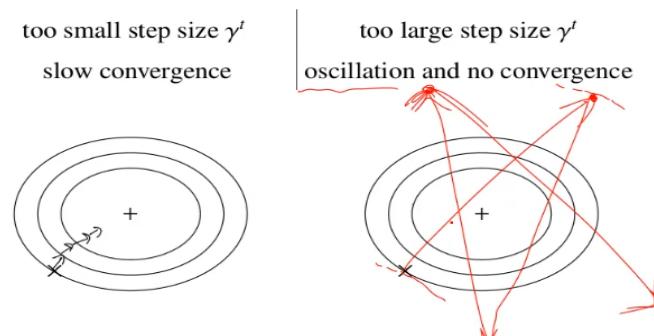


Abbildung 5.3: Ill conditioning

D3) Saddlepoint and plateau $\nabla L = \underline{0}$ no update of \underline{x}^t because correction term is 0
in practice: $\nabla L \approx \underline{0} \rightarrow$ very slow convergence

D4) Sensitive to the choice of the step size

- The optimum step size γ^t depends on the cost function $L(t; \underline{\theta})$ and the current position $\underline{\theta}^t$ and is unknown in advance.

Abbildung 5.4: Sensitive Choice for step size

Vanishing Gradient:

Backpropagation of the error vector

$$\Theta = \frac{\partial L(\underline{\theta})}{\partial \underline{a}_L} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times M_L} \text{ in 4.7:}$$

$$\underline{\delta}_1^T = \underline{\delta}_L^T \cdot \underline{j}_{\underline{a}_L}(a_{L-1}), \dots, \underline{j}_{\underline{a}_2}(a_1), L \text{ Layers}$$

$$\underline{j}_{\underline{a}_{L+1}}(a_L) = \underline{j}_{\underline{a}_{L+1}}(x_l) \cdot \underline{j}_{\underline{x}_L}(a_L) = \underline{W}_{l+1} \cdot \text{diag}(\phi'_L(a_L))$$

if $\|\underline{j}_{\underline{a}_{L+1}}(a_L)\| < 1$, $\forall l$ matrix norm, then $\|\underline{\delta}_L\| \rightarrow 0$

vanishing gradient \rightarrow no update of $\underline{\theta}^T$ stop learning. With the multiplication of a lot of terms smaller than 1 the gradient turns to a very small number close to zero

- if $\|\underline{j}_{\underline{a}_{L+1}}(a_l)\| > 1, \forall l$, then $\|\underline{\delta}_l\| \rightarrow \infty$

exploding gradient \rightarrow divergence

no problem for shallow NN's because only small number of layers

bo problem for deep NN's because of large number of layers

- vanishing gradient less serious for the last layers ($l \uparrow$)

- more serious for first layers ($l \downarrow$)

5.1.1. E5.1: sigmoid vs. ReLU

a) sigmoid or tanh:

$$\phi(a) = \sigma(a) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}} \in (0, 1)$$

if $|a| \gg 1 : \phi'(a) \approx 0$ due to saturation (shape of function)

\rightarrow sigmoid bad for DNN die to vanishing gradient

b) ReLU

$$\phi(a) = \max(0, a)$$

$$\phi'(a) = \begin{cases} 1 & a > 0 \\ 0 & a \leq 0 \end{cases} = u(a)$$

\rightarrow ReLu less serious for vanishing gradient

5.2. Momentum method

an improvement of SGD

- change from $\underline{\theta}^t$ to $\underline{\theta}^{t+1} : \Delta \underline{\theta}^t = \beta \cdot \Delta \underline{\theta}^{t-1} - \underbrace{\gamma^t \nabla L(t; \underline{\theta})}_{\text{gradient part}} |_{\underline{\theta}=\underline{\theta}^t}$

- update: $\underline{\theta}^{t+1} = \underline{\theta}^t + \Delta \underline{\theta}^t$

$0 \leq \beta \leq 1$: **momentum factor**

$\beta = 0$: SGD

$\beta > 0$: recursive smoothing of $\Delta \underline{\theta}^t$

Effect of the momentum:

- reduce noise in stochastic gradient (D1)

- reduce oscillation and accelerate the convergence of the gradient method for ill conditioned contour lines(D2)

5.2.1. Nesterov Momentum

a variant of momentum method

$$\Delta \underline{\theta}^t = \beta \Delta \underline{\theta}^{t-1} + \underbrace{(-\gamma^t \nabla L(t; \underline{\theta}) |_{\underline{\theta}=\underline{\theta}^t + \beta \Delta \underline{\theta}^t})}_{\text{lookahead gradient at the predicted position } \underline{\theta}^{t-1} + \beta \Delta \underline{\theta}}$$

5.3. 5.3 Learning rate schedule

How to choose the step size /learning rate γ^t ?

Many possible schedules

S1 constant learning rate:

$$\gamma^t = \gamma = \text{const.}, \forall t$$

But difficulty D4:

- γ too small: slow convergence

- γ too large: no convergence / oscillation around local minimum
→ Need a trade-off between
- fast convergence at the beginning: $\gamma \uparrow$ (large step size)
- less oscillation afterwards : $\gamma \downarrow$ reduce stepsize with growing number of iterations: **learning rate decay**

Weakness:

- manual choice of γ_0, t_0, c
- same schedule for all parameters in θ
- Adaptive schedules:** • different schedules for different parameters in θ
- γ^t calculated dynamically depending on θ^t

Slide 5-16 Adam very popular

- faster convergence

5.4.2. Batch normalization

- Input normalization: done once for the data set
- Hidden layers: data distribution changes
- over layers
- over time during training those to points are called internal covariate shift
→ slower convergence
- Batch normalization(BN):** : like input normalization
- for any hidden layer
- for each mini batch of length B

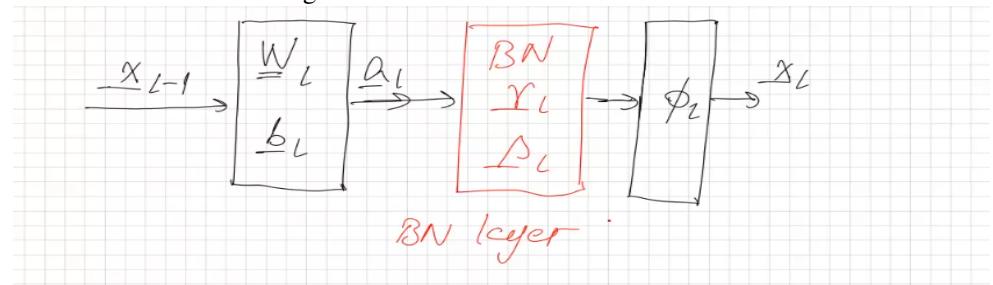


Abbildung 5.5: Sketch for mini batch normalization

5.4. Input and batch normalization

5.4.1. E5.3 A Perceptron

a) large offset : $\underline{x}(n) = \underbrace{\underline{x}_0}_{\text{offset}} + \tilde{\underline{x}}(n), \|\underline{x}_0\| >> \|\tilde{\underline{x}}(n)\|, \forall n$

→ $\underline{R} \approx \underline{x}_0 \underline{x}_0^T$, rank one

$$\text{b) strongly different variances: e.g. } \underline{x}(n) = \begin{bmatrix} \text{large} \\ \text{small} \\ \vdots \\ \text{small} \end{bmatrix} \sim \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = \underline{e}_1, \forall n$$

→ $\underline{R} \sim \underline{e}, \underline{e}^T$, rank one

AM: \underline{R} has approximately rank one

→ \underline{R} has one large eigenvalue λ_1 with eigenvector $\underline{v}_1 = \underline{x}_0$ or $\underline{v}_1 \sim \underline{e}_1$ and d-1 small

eigenvalues

→ very narrow contour lines

→ slow convergence (D2)

Need input normalization, e.g.: zero-mean unit-variance normalization

For each $x_i(n) = [x_0(n)]_i, 1 \leq n \leq N$

$$x_i(n) \leftarrow \frac{x_i(n) - \mu_i}{\sigma_i} \text{ with estimated mean } \mu_i = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^N x_i(n)$$

variance $\sigma_i^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_{n=1}^N (x_i(n) - \mu_i)^2$ (N-1 because unbiased mean wanted) • normalization
for the whole training set D

• equally for all channels x_i

Advantage:

• no ill conditioning (D2)

Batch normalization (1)

The **batch normalization (BN)** of the activation $\underline{a}_l(n)$ at layer l for one minibatch $1 \leq n \leq B$ is defined as

$$[\underline{a}_l(n)]_i \leftarrow \gamma_{l,i} \frac{[\underline{a}_l(n)]_i - \mu_{l,i}}{\sqrt{\sigma_{l,i}^2 + \epsilon}} + \beta_{l,i}, \quad 1 \leq n \leq B, 1 \leq i \leq M_l.$$

It consists of two steps for each element $[\underline{a}_l(n)]_i$ of $\underline{a}_l(n)$:

- A zero-mean unit-variance normalization like input normalization.

$$\mu_{l,i} = \frac{1}{B} \sum_{n=1}^B [\underline{a}_l(n)]_i \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_{l,i}^2 = \frac{1}{B-1} \sum_{n=1}^B ([\underline{a}_l(n)]_i - \mu_{l,i})^2$$

are the sample mean and variance of $[\underline{a}_l(n)]_i$ of this minibatch. ϵ is a small positive number (e.g. 10^{-5}) to avoid division-by-zero. In contrast to the complete data set, $\sigma_{l,i}^2 \approx 0$ is likely for a short minibatch.

- Scale-and-offset $\gamma_{l,i} \square + \beta_{l,i}$ with two learnable parameters $\gamma_{l,i}$ and $\beta_{l,i}$ per neuron

Abbildung 5.6: Summary BN

Batch normalization (2)

Why the second step $\gamma_{l,i} \square + \beta_{l,i}$?

- Allow a flexible data dynamic range for each neuron and does not change the expressiveness of the network.
 - If $\gamma_l = \sigma_l$ and $\beta_l = \mu_l$, batch normalization simplifies to the special case of no batch normalization. Normally, $\gamma_l \neq \sigma_l$ and $\beta_l \neq \mu_l$.
 - b_l is redundant due to β_l and can be omitted, i.e. $\underline{a}_l(n) = \mathbf{W}_l \underline{x}_{l-1}(n)$.
 - γ_l and β_l are learned from data like \mathbf{W}_l . Hence each neuron adjusts the individually optimum dynamic range of $[\underline{a}_l(n)]_i$ for the next nonlinear activation function $\phi_l(\cdot)$.
- Decouple the layers.
 - Batch normalization makes the dynamic range of one layer (partially) independent of the previous layers. This decouples the joint training of different layers to individual layers. It simplifies the learning, in particular for deep networks.
 - Batch normalization makes the surface of the cost function smoother.

Abbildung 5.7: Summary BN 2

5.5. Parameter initialization

SGD does a local search: The solution depends on the initial value θ^0

$\Theta^0 = ??$ **2 Random initialization of \underline{W}_L** , e.g. •normal or Gaussian distribution $N()$

$[\underline{W}_L]_{ij} \sim \text{i.i.d (independent identically distributed)} \sigma \cdot N(0, 1) = N(0, \sigma^2)$

•uniform distribution $U(\cdot)$

$[\underline{W}_L]_{ij} \sim \text{i.i.d } \sigma U(-1, 1) = U(\sigma, \sigma), \sigma = \text{const}, \forall l, i, j$

→ not optimal

3) He initialization

as 2), but $\delta_l \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{M_{l-1}}} \rightarrow$ constant activation flow after initialization

layer $l : \underline{a}_l = \underline{W}_l \cdot \underline{x}_{l-1} + b_l \stackrel{b=0}{=} \underline{W}_l \cdot \underline{x}_{l-1}$ or

$\underline{a} = \underline{W} \cdot \underline{x}$,

$\underline{a} = [a_i] \in \mathbb{R}^{M_l}$

$\underline{W} = [w_{ij}] \in \mathbb{R}^{M_l \times M_{l-1}}$

$\underline{x} = [x_i] \in \mathbb{R}^{M_{l-1}}$

→ $a_i = \sum_{j=1}^{M_{l-1}} w_{ij} \cdot x_j$

Assumptions:

• x_i i.i.d zero mean, variance σ_x^2

• w_{ij} i.i.d zero mean, variance σ_w^2

• x_i and w_{ij} independent

→ $E(a_i) = \sum_j E(w_{ij}) \cdot E(x_j) = 0$

$Var(a_i) = E(a_i^2) = E(\sum_j w_{ij} \cdot x_j)^2 = E(\sum_j \sum_k w_{ij} w_{ik} x_j x_k) = \sum_j \sum_k E(w_{ij} w_{ik} \cdot x_j x_k) = \sum_{j=1}^{M_{l-1}} \sigma_x^2 \sigma_w^2 = M_{l-1} \cdot \sigma_w^2 \cdot \sigma_x^2$

constant activation flow ≡ smooth information flow in the forward pass

$Var(a_i) = \text{const.}, \forall i, l$

→ $\sigma_{w,l} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{M_{l-1}}}, M_{l-1} : \text{fan-in}$

4) Glorot initialization

const. gradient flow in backward pass

$\|\frac{\partial L}{\partial \underline{a}_l}\| = \text{const}, \forall l \rightarrow \sigma_{w,l} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{M_l}}, M_l : \text{fan-out}$

compromise: $\sigma_{w,l} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{M_{l-1} + M_l}}$

5.6. Improved (network)-model

A) Better activation functions $\phi(\cdot)$, e.g.

- ReLU instead of sigmoid

- leaky ReLU instead of ReLU

B) skip connections, shortcuts , residual network (ResNet)

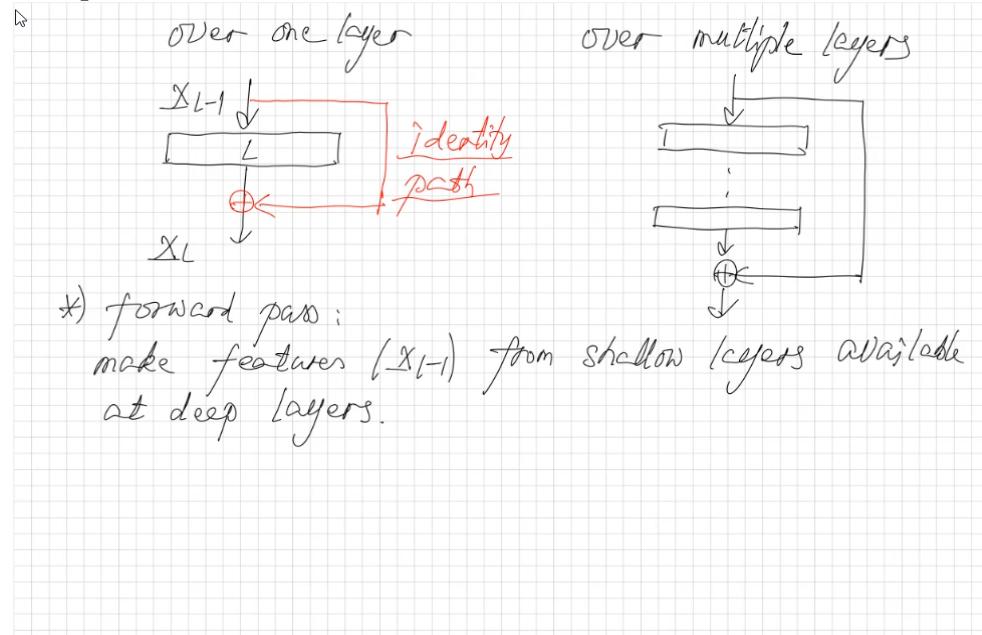


Abbildung 5.8: Layerskip / shortcuts

• backward pass < no vanishing gradient over identity path.

$$x_l = \phi_l(\underline{W}x_{l-1} + b_l) + x_{l-1}$$

$$\frac{\partial x_l}{\partial x_{l-1}} = \frac{\partial \phi_l(\dots)}{\partial x_{l-1}} + I$$

c) Many other architecture improvements see ch.10

Chapter 6: Overfitting and regularization

Date: 25/05/2020

Lecturer: Bin Yang

By: Nicolas Hornek

6.1. Model capacity and overfitting / underfitting

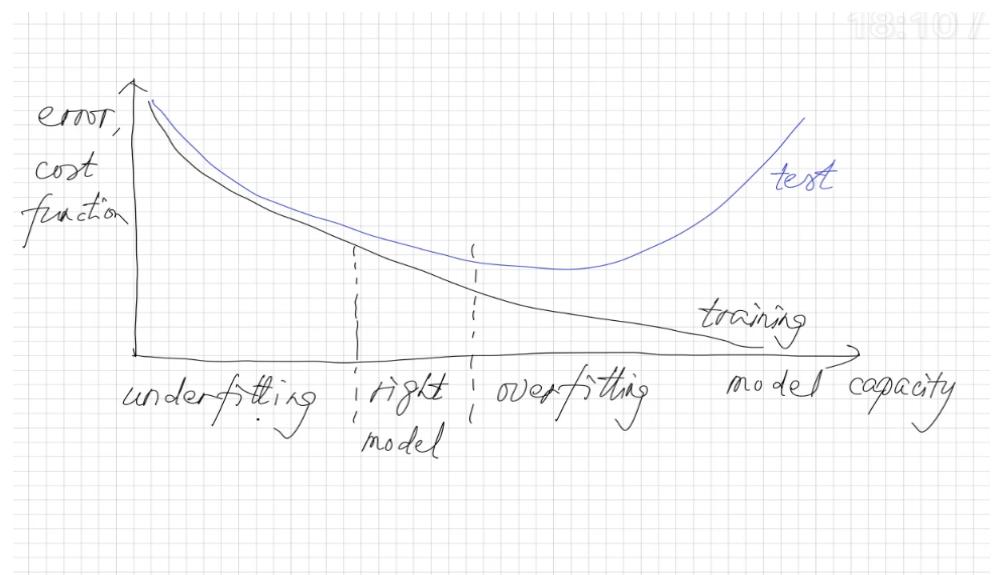


Abbildung 6.1: Model fitting curve

6.2. Weight norm penalty

change on cost function:

- old cost function: $L(\theta)$

- New regularized cost function: $L_r(\theta) = L(\theta) + \sum_{l=1}^L \lambda_i P(\underline{W}_L)$

$\lambda \geq 0$: regularized parameters

$P(\underline{W}_L) \geq 0$: penalty terms, penalize θ with large $P(\underline{W}_L)$

→ A compromise between $\min_{\theta} L(\theta)$ and the $\min_{\theta} \lambda P(\underline{W}_L)$

λ_L determine the relative contributions of $L(\theta), P(\underline{W}_L)$.

$\lambda_L = 0, \forall L$: no regularization

common choice of $P(\underline{W}_L)$:

a) l2-regularization: we use $l_2 - norm$ of $vec(\underline{W}_L)$

$$P(\underline{W}_L) = \|vec(\underline{W}_L)\|_2^2 = \sum_i \sum_j W_{L,ij}^2 \rightarrow \text{prefer } \underline{\theta} \text{ with small weight energy}$$

\rightarrow better generalization, see E6.1

Bias vector b_l : no amplification effect of $x_{l-1} \rightarrow$ no need for regularization

Mathematical analysis:

$$L_r(\underline{\theta}) = L(\underline{\theta}) + \lambda \|\underline{\theta}\|^2 \text{ for simplicity}$$

$$\nabla L_r(\underline{\theta}) = \nabla L(\underline{\theta}) + 2 \cdot \lambda \underline{\theta}$$

$$\underline{\theta}^{t+1} = \underline{\theta}^t - \gamma^t \nabla L_r(\underline{\theta}^t)$$

$$\underbrace{(1 - 2\lambda\gamma^t)}_{0 < \text{factor} < 1} \underline{\theta}^t - \gamma^t \nabla L(\underline{\theta}^t)$$

l2-regularization leads to **weight decay**

b) l1-regularization: use l1-norm of $vec(\underline{W}_L)$

$$P(\underline{W}_L) = \|vec(\underline{W}_L)\|_1 = \sum_i \sum_j |W_{L,ij}|$$

\rightarrow prefer sparse \underline{W}_L with many zero elements

6.3. Early stopping

change on optimizer:

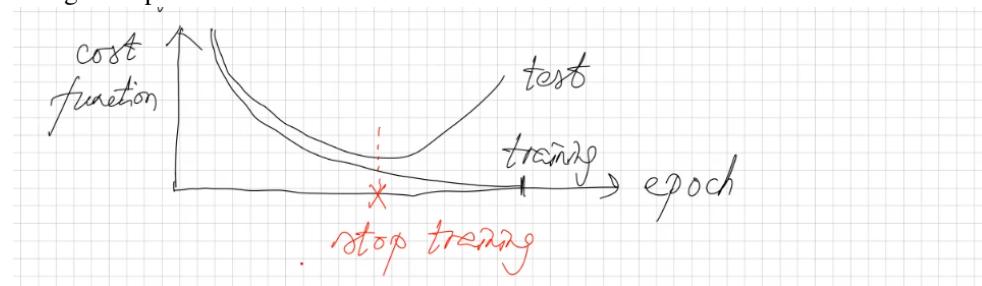


Abbildung 6.2: Early stopping

6.4. Data augmentation

change on dataset, training with ∞ many training data \rightarrow no over fitting, in practice, training set is limited in size

data augmentation: Generation of artificial realistic training samples:

6.5. Ensemble learning

change dataset / model / cost function / optimizer

6.5 Ensemble learning

6-8

Ensemble learning

Ensemble learning is a model averaging method to reduce the test error by combining an ensemble of models:

- train different (independent) models for the same task
- combine these models to reduce the test error

– regression: average of the model outputs

– classification: voting of the model outputs, e.g. 3× cat and 1× dog

It is unlikely that all models will make the same errors on the test set. Hence the averaged model is more robust.

The different models can be trained by using

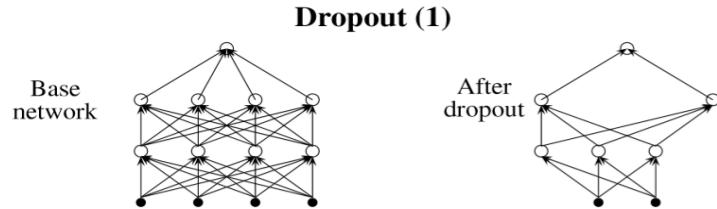
- different subsets of the training set or
- different model architectures or
- different cost functions or
- different optimizers or
- combinations of them.

Abbildung 6.3: Ensemble learning explained

6.6. Dropout

change on model

An implicit ensemble method

**Training**

- For each minibatch, **dropout** randomly removes some neurons in layer l of a base network with a probability d_l , the **dropout rate**.
- This results for each minibatch in a random subnetwork for solving the same task.²

Inference

- No dropout.
- All outgoing weights of neurons in layer l are weighted by $1 - d_l$ to correct the large fan-in to the neurons (number of inputs) of the next layer.

Abbildung 6.4: Dropout explained

6.7 Hyperparameter optimization**Hyperparameters**

What are they?

- In contrast to the model parameters θ (weights and biases) to be learned from training data, **hyperparameters** η are configuration parameters of a machine learning algorithm which are not adapted during training.
- η is chosen before learning and remains fixed. It controls, together with θ , the behavior of the model $f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}, \eta)$, see next slide. Hence, they need an optimization.

Why are they not adapted?

- Hyperparameters are often discrete valued (e.g. number of layers/neurons, type of activation function). Gradient descent is not suitable for this kind of integer optimization.
- The training error is a monoton function of some hyperparameters, in particular those controlling the model capacity. An optimization of these hyperparameters would always maximize the model capacity (e.g. more layers, more neurons) resulting in overfitting. The training set alone is not suitable for hyperparameter optimization.

Abbildung 6.5: Hyperparameters explained

Solution for b): Use validation data set D

up to now separating dataset in 2 for training and test, but now split in three parts training set D_{train} (large), test set D_{test} (small) and validation set D_{val} (small, same size as test)

Training set, validation set and test set

Training set D_{train} : It is used for training the model, i.e. learning the model parameters $\underline{\theta}$ (weights and biases) for a fixed hyperparameter vector $\underline{\eta}$.

Validation set D_{val} : It is never used in training. It is reserved for optimizing the hyperparameter parameters $\underline{\eta}$.

Test set D_{test} : It is never used in training and hyperparameter optimization. It is used to calculate the test error of the trained ($\underline{\theta}$) and tuned ($\underline{\eta}$) model $f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}, \underline{\eta})$ to exam its generalization capability. The motivations of using the test set are

- to avoid overfitting of $\underline{\theta}$ to the training set and
- to avoid overfitting of $\underline{\eta}$ to the validation set.

E6.4: Early stopping

Early stopping from ch. 6.3 is a hyperparameter optimization to determine the optimum value of the hyperparameter, the number of epochs. This is only possible by using a validation set because the training error often decreases continuously as the number of epochs increases.

Abbildung 6.6: Summary of data sets

Training: $\underline{\theta}$ and hyperparameter and $\underline{\eta}$

for $\underline{\eta} = \dots$ learn $\underline{\theta}$ of $f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}; \underline{\eta})$ frpm D_{train}

calculate validation error ($\underline{\eta}$) on D_{val}

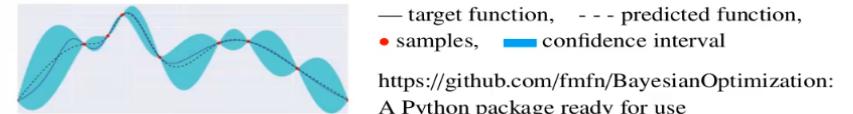
min validation error ($\underline{\eta}$)

calculate test error of $f(\underline{x}; \underline{\theta}; \underline{\eta})$ on D_{test}

Hyperparameter optimization approaches

- **Grid search** A blind exhaustive search on a grid in the hyperparameter space, e.g. $M_1 \in \{100, 150, 200\}$, $\phi_l \in \{\text{sigmoid, ReLU}\}, \dots$
 - + simple,
 -) time-consuming, especially for many hyperparameters and a fine grid

- **Bayesian optimization** Treat hyperparameter tuning as an optimization problem
 - probabilistic model for the posterior of the cost function based on Bayes rule (and Gaussian distribution)
 - samples of hyperparameters and cost function: iteratively refine the model
 - posterior: which regions of the hyperparameter space are worth exploring
 - choose next hyperparameter value based on posterior



<https://github.com/fmfn/BayesianOptimization>:
A Python package ready for use

Abbildung 6.7: Approaches to optimize hyperparameters

Chapter 7: Convolutional neural networks (CNN)

Date: 10/06/2020

Lecturer: Bin Yang

By: Nicolas Hornek

ch. 4: dense networks

- consisting of dense layers only

- but rarely used. CNN widely used.

Why?

- Drawbacks on slide 7-1

Solution: CNN, consisting of many convolutional layers, based on convolution operation

- good for local feature learning

- more efficient, i.e. low complexity

7.1. Convolutional layer

supports various datatypes:

input data type:	$\underline{\underline{X}}_{l-1}, \underline{\underline{A}}_l; \underline{\underline{X}}_l$	\underline{W}_l
1D signal waveform	2D matrix	3D tensor
2D image	3D tensor	4D tensor
3D data cube (ct image)	4D tensor	5D tensor

One dimension more: multiple input/output signals/images/feature maps/channels

e.g. RGB: 3 times 2D images \rightarrow 3D tensor

2D convolutional layer l:

Dimension refers to input data shape

$$\underline{\underline{X}}_{l-1} \xrightarrow[\phi_l]{\underline{W}_l} b_l \rightarrow \underline{\underline{X}}_l$$

- input tensor $\underline{\underline{X}}_{l-1}$, $M_{l-1} \times N_{l-1} \times D_{l-1}$

D_{l-1} (channel depth) 2D feature maps of size $M_{l-1} \times N_{l-1}$

- output tensor $\underline{\underline{X}}_l$, $M_l \times N_l \times D_l$, $\underline{\underline{X}}_l = \phi_l(\underline{\underline{A}}_l)$ D_l 2D feature maps of size $M_l \times N_l$

- Kernel tensor: \underline{W}_l , $K_l \times K_l \times D_{l-1} \times D_l$

K_l : kernel width: D_l 3D impulsive responses/filters/kernels of the size $K_l \times K_l \times D_{l-1}$

- bias vector: b_l , $D_l \times 1$

one bias for one output channel

- activation tensor: $\underline{\underline{A}}_l$, $M_l \times N_l \times D_l$

$$[\underline{\underline{A}}_l]_{mno} = \sum_{i=1}^{K_l} \sum_{j=1}^{K_l} \sum_{d=1}^{D_{l-1}} [\underline{W}_l]_{ijdo} \cdot [\underline{\underline{X}}_{l-1}]_{m+i-1, n+j-1, d} + [b_l]_o$$

index (mno, i=1, j=1, ij, m+i-1, n+j-1) spatial correlation, called convolution in CNN

index (d=1, d) sum of all input feature maps

index (o,o,o): one of D_l output channel

$$1 \leq m \leq M_l = M_{l-1} - K_l + 1$$

$$1 \leq n \leq N_l = N_{l-1} K_l + 1$$

$$1 \leq o \leq D_l$$

output size reduced by $K_l - 1$ in each dimension

- $\phi_l(\cdot)$: activation function elementwise

7.1 Convolutional layer

7-5

2D convolutional layer l

- The input $\underline{\underline{X}}_{l-1}$ contains D_{l-1} 2D feature maps (or channels) of size $M_{l-1} \times N_{l-1}$.
- The layer contains D_l kernels to calculate D_l 2D feature maps of size $M_l \times N_l$.
- Each kernel contains D_{l-1} 2D filters of size $K_l \times K_l$, each performing a **sliding window** convolution or correlation.

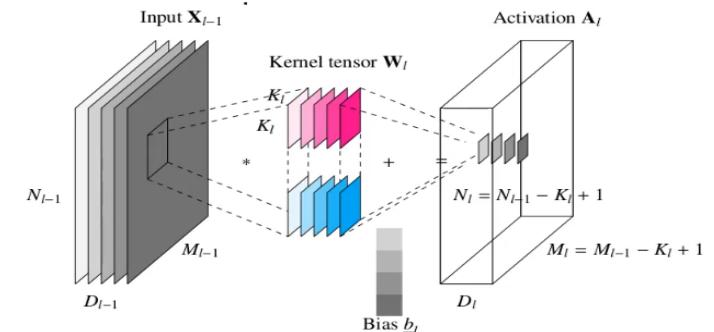


Abbildung 7.1: Visualization of CNN layer

7.1.1. Properties of convolutional layer

Typical kernel size $K_l \times K_l$: $3 \times 3, 5 \times 5, \dots, m$ but also 1×1

typical number of input channels D_{l-1} : $1 \sim 10 \sim 100$

Number of parameters:

$$N_{p,l} = \underbrace{K_l^2 D_{l-1} D_l}_{\underline{W}_l} + \underbrace{D_l}_{b_l} \approx K_l^2 D_{l-1} D_l \text{ quite small, independent on input size } M_{l-1} \times N_{l-1}$$

Number of multiplications:

$$N_{x,l} = \underbrace{M_l \cdot N_l \cdot D_l}_{\text{elem in } \underline{\underline{A}}_l} \cdot K_l K_l D_{l-1} \approx M_l N_l N_{p,l} \text{ quite large, depends on input size.}$$

- p1) sparse connection:

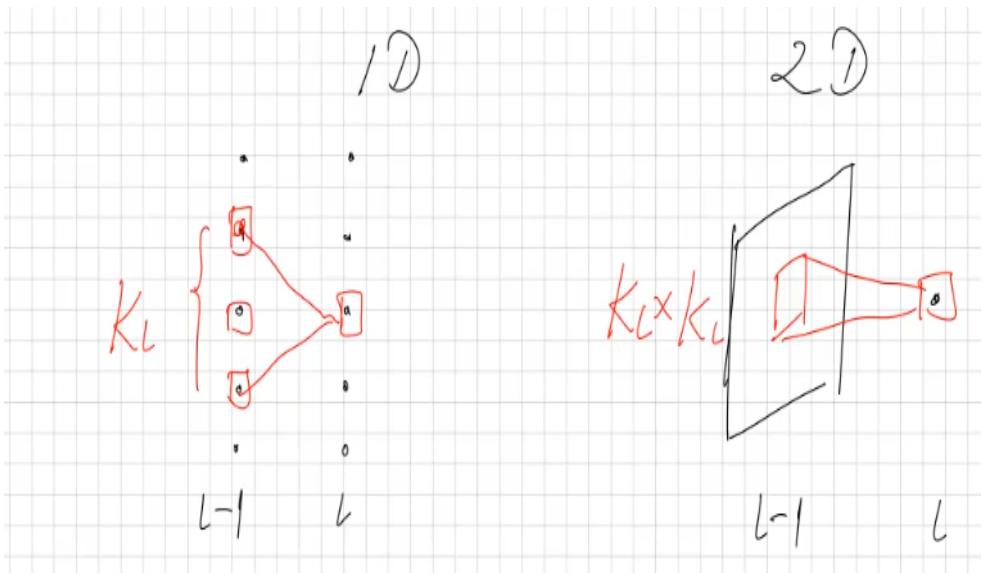


Abbildung 7.2: Illustration sparse connection

small receptive field: K_l or $K_l \times K_l \equiv$ focus on local input patterns

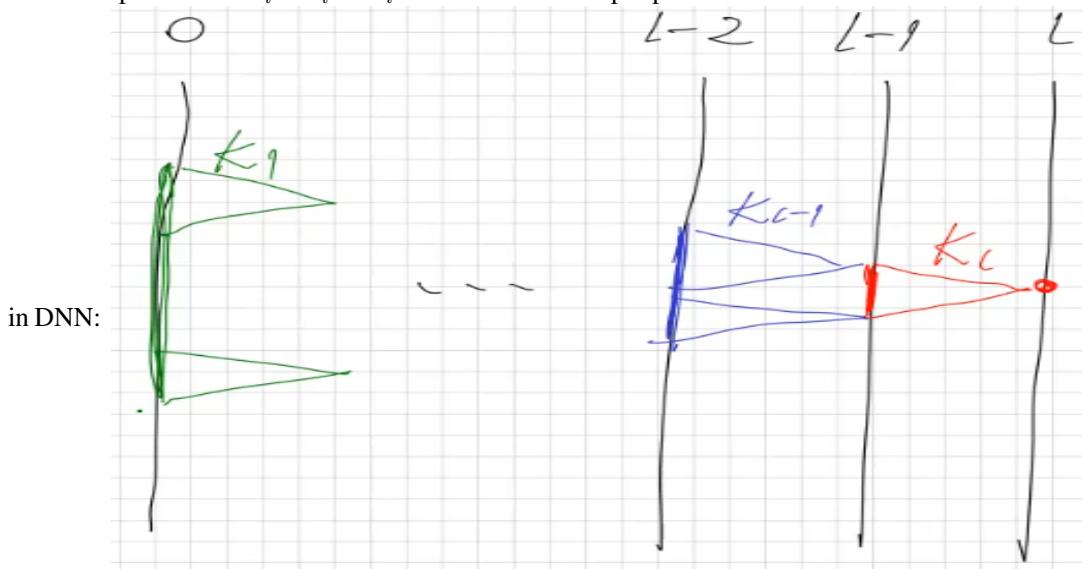


Abbildung 7.3: Illustration receptive field

a neuron in layer 1 has the receptive field width : $K_l + \dots + K_l - (l - 1)$ for the input layer

i.e. a neuron in a deep layer ($l \uparrow$) can still be indirectly connected to all input neurons

p2) parameter sharing: the same kernel for all output neurons

• p1) + p2) give the following advantages

- reduced computational complexity reduced memory complexity

- reduced model capacity and reduced overfitting

- p3) translation - equivariant \equiv shift-invariant

translation /shift of $\underline{X}_{l-1} \rightarrow$ same translation/shift of \underline{X}_l

- p4) one channel/feature-map contains only one feature, e.g. only horizontal edges
→ need multiple channels/feature maps ($D_l > 1$)

- p5) $M_l = M_{l-1} - K_l + 1$: images become smaller.

7.2. Modified convolutions

to:

- reduce complexity

- increase the receptive field

- ...

Minor modifications

- Padding slide 7-9

- Stride slide 7-10 • Dilated convolution slide 7-11

outputsize:

Standard $M_l = M_{l-1} - K_l + 1$

including all modifications:

$P \geq 0$: padding , 0

$s \geq 1$: stride, 1

$D \geq 1$: dilation , 1

$$\left\lceil \frac{\bar{M}_{l-1} + 2P - (K_l - 1)D - 1}{S} \right\rceil + 1$$

Major modifications on \underline{W}_l • Standard convolution using padding:

$M \times N \times D_{l-1} K \times K \times D_{l-1} \times D_l M \text{ times } N \times D_l$

3D joint spatial-channel processing $\sum_i \sum_j \sum_d$

→ high complexity $N_{x,1} = MNK^2 D_{l-1} D_l$ To reduce the complexity:

- 1×1 convolution, i.e. $K=1$ Slide 7-12

- additional higher nonlinearity due to additional $\phi(\cdot)$

Idea: replace 1 layer of standard convolution by 2 layers of simpler convolutions

- $M \times N \times D_{l-1} \xrightarrow{1 \times 1 \times D_{l-1} \times \bar{D}_{l-1}} M \times N \times \bar{D}_{l-1}, \bar{D}_{l-1} < D_{l-1}$

- $M \times N \times \bar{D}_{l-1} \xrightarrow{K \times K \times \bar{D}_{l-1} \times D_l} M \times N \times D_l N_{x,2} = MN - 1^2 \cdot D_{l-1} + \bar{D}_{l-1} + MN \cdot K^2 \cdot \bar{D}_{l-1} D_l$

$$\rightarrow \frac{N_{x,2}}{N_{x,1}} = \frac{D_{l-1}}{K^2 D_l} + \frac{\bar{D}_{l-1}}{D_{l-1}} \approx \frac{\bar{D}_{l-1}}{D_{l-1}} < 1$$

- **depth-wise separable convolution:**

separable spatial (2D) and channel (1D) processing

$$\bullet M \times N \times D_{l-1} \xrightarrow{K \times K \times 1 \times D_{l-1}} M \times N \times D_{l-1}$$

depth wise (2D) convolution for each channel

$$\bullet M \times N \times D_{l-1} \xrightarrow{1 \times 1 \times D_{l-1} \times D_L} M \times N \times D_l \text{ point wise (1D) convolution} = 1 \times 1 \text{ convolution}$$

$$N_{x,3} = MNK^2 \cdot 1 \cdot D_{l-1} + MN \cdot 1^2 \cdot D_{l-1} D_l$$

$$\frac{N_{x,3}}{N_{x,1}} = \frac{1}{D_l} \frac{1}{K_l^2} \approx \frac{1}{K_l^2} \text{ for } D_l \gg K_l^2$$

• Comparison Slide 7-13

7.3. Pooling and unpooling layer

2D pooling layer with stride $s \in \mathbb{N}$

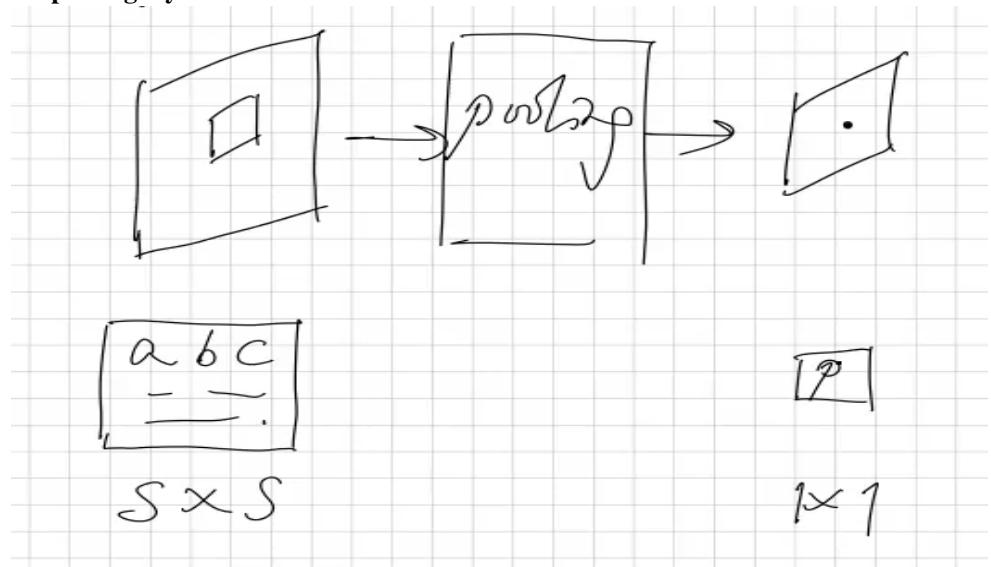


Abbildung 7.4: pooling layer visualization

- max pooling: $p = \max()$ of a,b,c,...
- mean pooling $p = \text{mean}()$ of a,b,c,...
- l2-norm pooling: $p = l_2 - \text{norm}$ of a,b,c,...

widely used; 2x2 max pooling with s=2

Nonlinear operation

Effects explained on slide 7-15

2D unpooling layer e.g. 2x2

Corresponds to upsampling:

$$a \rightarrow \begin{bmatrix} a & a \\ a & a \end{bmatrix}$$

upsampling to restore the original image after size pooling

7.4. Deconvolutional layer

deconvolutional layer \neq deconvolution, bad name

other names= fractionally strided convolution or transposed convolution or learnable upsample

Goals:

- replaces unpooling layer

- increase image resolution without changing the object shape in the image

deconvolutional layer

- zero insertion

- convolution (smoothing) with learnable kernel

in deep learning
 $\underline{X}_{l-1}, \underline{X}_l$
 \underline{W}_l
 feature maps
 kernel

$\sum_i \sum_j w_{ij} x_{m+i,n+j}$
 $x(n - n_0) \rightarrow y(n - n_0)$
 $x(n - n_0) \rightarrow y(n)$
 convolution
 translation-equivariant
 translation-invariant

padding
 stride
 dilated convolution
 reverse convolution
 deconvolutional layer

in signal processing
 input/output signal
 impulse response

correlation
 shift-invariant

zero initialization
 downsampling of output
 polyphase downsampling of input
 deconvolution
 learnable upsampling

7.5. Flatten layer

$\underline{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{M \times N \times D}$ flatten returns long single column $\text{vec}(\underline{X}) \in \mathbb{R}^{MND}$
 as an interface between convolutional layers and dense layers

conv. layer(feature learning) \rightarrow \rightarrow dense layer \rightarrow output layer

Important stuff to dimensions

Dear Student,

for understanding how batch operations work you have to think about how the data is typically stored in tensors for processing. Contrary to the notation that is often used in the literature, the input examples x are typically stored as row vectors in a matrix X . This means that if you have 10 input examples each being a vector of length 784, they will be stored in a matrix X of size 10×784 .

If you want to implement a dense layer with 100 neurons, you then have to apply an affine mapping followed by the activation function $a()$. For the implementation this means that you input the matrix X with size 10×784 into the layer and as an output you want a matrix Y with size 10×100 . The output of the layer is then calculated as $Y = a(XW + B)$. In order for this operation to be defined the shapes of the matrices have to match. Here is the same operation with the shapes of the operands in brackets:

$Y[10 \times 100] = a(X[10 \times 784]W[784 \times 100] + B[10 \times 100])$ As you can see the shapes match and the overall function is defined. This might be confusing to you, since we are using row instead of column vectors but this allows for the batch dimension to be the first dimension and as far as I know all major DL frameworks like Tensorflow and Pytorch implement layers that expect the first dimension to be the batch dimension.

Hint: In Numpy and Tensorflow broadcasting is available

(<https://numpy.org/doc/stable/user/basics.broadcasting.html?highlight=broadcasting>), so if you add the bias you don't have to use a matrix B of size 10×100 . You can just add a vector of size 100.

So to summarize: You just have to work with row vectors and not with column vectors. I hope this is helpful for you.

With best regards, Felix Wiewel