## Introduction to deep learning in R

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# Machine learning intro: image classification example

ML is all about learning predictive functions  $f(x) \approx y$ , where

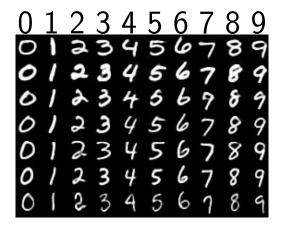
- ▶ Inputs/features x can be easily computed using traditional algorithms. For example, matrix of pixel intensities in an image.
- Outputs/labels y are what we want to predict, typically more difficult/costly to measure than inputs. For example, to get an image class label, you may have to ask a human.
- ▶ Input  $x = \text{image of digit, output } y \in \{0, 1, ..., 9\},$ - this is a classification problem with 10 classes.

$$f(0) = 0, f(1) = 1$$

► Traditional/unsupervised algorithm: I give you a pixel intensity matrix  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{28 \times 28}$ , you code a function f that returns one of the 10 possible digits. Q: how to do that?

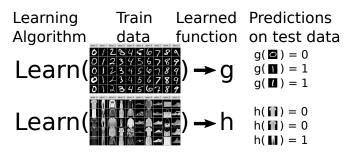
## Supervised machine learning algorithms

I give you a training data set with paired inputs/outputs, e.g.



Your job is to code an algorithm, LEARN, that infers a function f from the training data. (you don't code f)
Source: github.com/cazala/mnist

## Advantages of supervised machine learning



- ▶ Input  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{28 \times 28}$ , output  $y \in \{0, 1, ..., 9\}$  types the same!
- Can use same learning algorithm regardless of pattern.
- Pattern encoded in the labels (not the algorithm).
- Useful if there are many un-labeled data, but few labeled data (or getting labels is long/costly).
- ► State-of-the-art accuracy (if there is enough training data).

Sources: github.com/cazala/mnist, github.com/zalandoresearch/fashion-mnist



### Overview of tutorial

In this tutorial we will discuss two kinds of problems, which differ by the type of the output/label/y variable we want to predict.

- ▶ Regression, y is a real number.
- Classification, y is an integer representing a category.

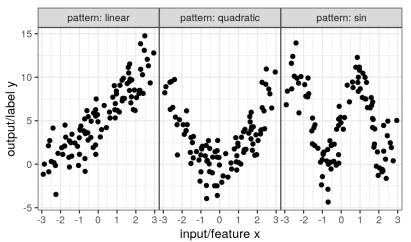
The rest of the tutorial will focus on three examples:

- 1. Regression with a single input, to demonstrate how to avoid overfitting.
- Classification of digit images, to demonstrate how to compare machine learning algorithms in terms of test/prediction accuracy.

# Goal of this section: demonstrate how to avoid overfitting

- ► The goal of supervised machine learning is to get accurate predictions on new/unseen/held-out test data.
- ▶ The data used during learning are called the train set.
- ▶ Any machine learning algorithm could overfit, if not used properly. Overfitting means better predictions on the train set than on a held-out validation/test set. (BAD)
- ➤ To learn a model which does NOT overfit (GOOD), you need to divide your train set into subtrain/validation sets (subtrain used as input to gradient descent algorithm, validation set used to control model complexity, for example by selecting the best number of iterations of gradient descent).
- ➤ Code for figures in this section: https://github.com/tdhock/2023-res-baz-az/blob/ main/figure-overfitting.R

# Three different data sets/patterns

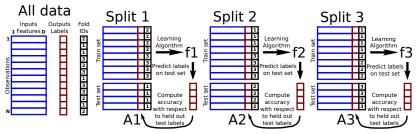


- ▶ We illustrate this using a single input/feature  $x \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- ▶ We use a regression problem with outputs  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- ▶ Goal is to learn a function  $f(x) \in \mathbb{R}$ .

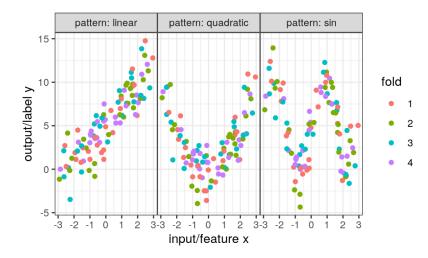


## K-fold cross-validation for splitting data

- One way to split is via K-fold cross-validation.
- ▶ Each row is assigned a fold ID number from 1 to K.
- ► For each for ID, those data are held out, and other data are kept.
- Popular relative to other splitting methods because of simplicity and fairness (each row is held out one time).



### Illustration of 4-fold cross-validation

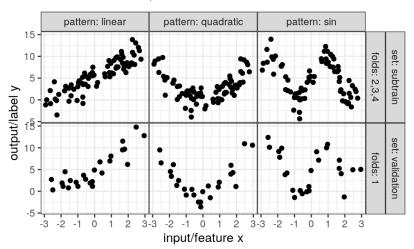


Randomly assign each observation a fold ID from 1 to 4.

## Neural network learning algorithm

- We will fit a neural network to these data.
- ► The neural network learns how to predict the outputs from the inputs.
- ► The learning algorithm is gradient descent, which iteratively minimizes the loss of the predictions with respect to the labels in the subtrain set.
- We also compute the loss on the validation set, so we can select the number of gradient descent iterations that gives the best predictions on new data (avoiding overfitting).

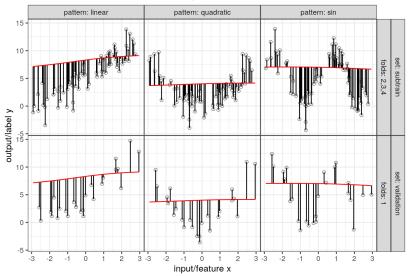
## Illustration of subtrain/validation split



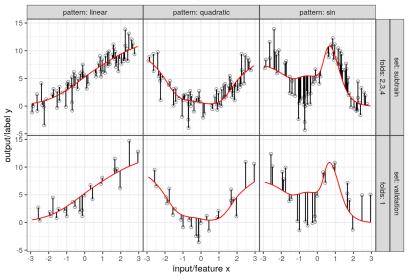
- ► For validation fold 1, all observations with that fold ID are considered the validation set.
- All other observations are considered the subtrain set.



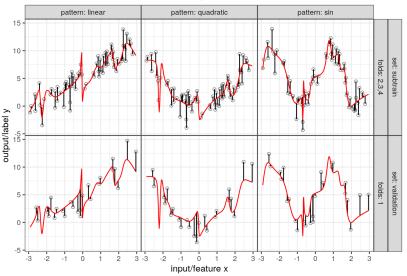
#### Neural network, 20 hidden units, 1 gradient descent iterations



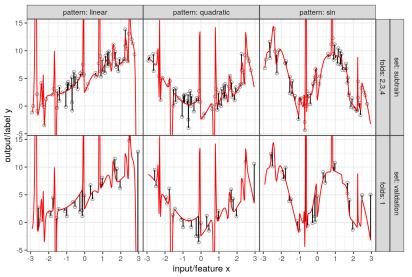
#### Neural network, 20 hidden units, 10 gradient descent iterations



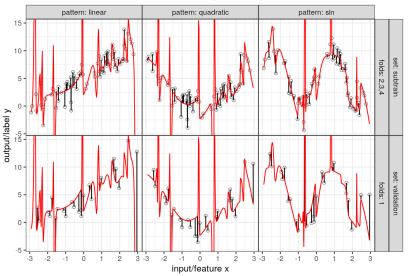
#### Neural network, 20 hidden units, 100 gradient descent iterations



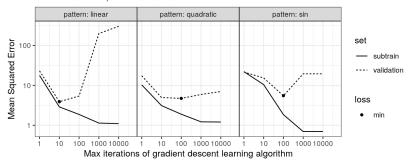
#### Neural network, 20 hidden units, 1000 gradient descent iterations



#### Neural network, 20 hidden units, 10000 gradient descent iterations



#### Neural network, 20 hidden units



Different number of iterations best for different data.

### Neural network prediction function

For an input feature vector  $\mathbf{x}$ , the prediction function for a neural network with L functions to learn:

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f_L[\cdots f_1[\mathbf{x}]]. \tag{1}$$

For each layer  $l \in \{1, ..., L\}$ , we have the following function for predicting the units/features in the next layer:

$$f_l(t) = A_l(\mathbf{W}_l^{\mathsf{T}}t), \tag{2}$$

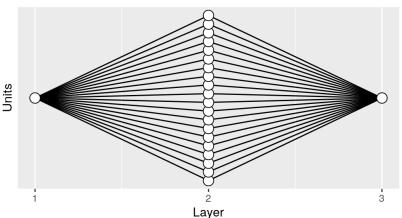
The hyper-parameters which must be fixed prior to learning:

- ▶ Number of layers or functions to learn *L*.
- $\triangleright$  Activation functions  $A_I$  (classically sigmoid, typically ReLU).
- Number of units per layer  $(u_0, u_1, \ldots, u_{L-1}, u_L)$ .  $u_0$  is the number of input features,  $u_L$  is the number of outputs, and  $u_1, \ldots, u_{L-1}$  are the numbers of hidden units in the intermediate layers (hyper-parameters, larger for more powerful learner).
- ▶ Sparsity pattern in the weight matrices  $\mathbf{W}_{l} \in \mathbb{R}^{u_{l} \times u_{l-1}}$ .

## Network for 1 input, 1 output, 1 hidden layer

Neural network diagrams show how each unit (node) is computed by applying the weights (edges) to the values of the units at the previous layer.

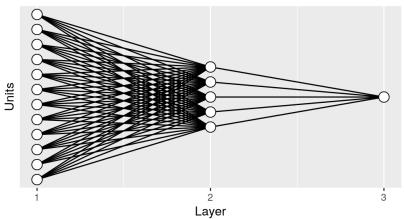
Number of units: 1,20,1



## Network for 12 inputs, 1 output, 1 hidden layer

Neural network diagrams show how each unit (node) is computed by applying the weights (edges) to the values of the units at the previous layer.

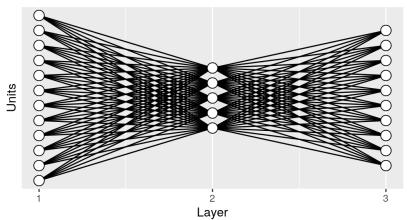
Number of units: 12,5,1



## Network for 12 inputs, 10 outputs, 1 hidden layer

Neural network diagrams show how each unit (node) is computed by applying the weights (edges) to the values of the units at the previous layer.

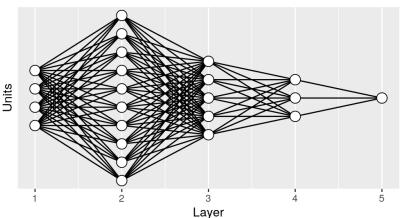
Number of units: 12,5,10



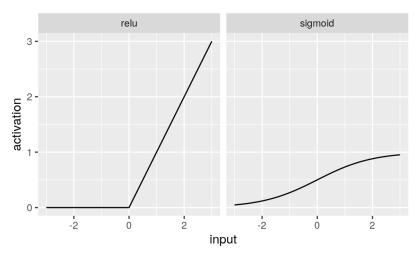
## Network for 4 inputs, 1 output, 3 hidden layers

Neural network diagrams show how each unit (node) is computed by applying the weights (edges) to the values of the units at the previous layer.

Number of units: 4,10,5,3,1



### Non-linear activation functions $A_I$



Each layer except the last should have a activation function  $A_I$  which is not linear (last layer activation should be identity/linear).

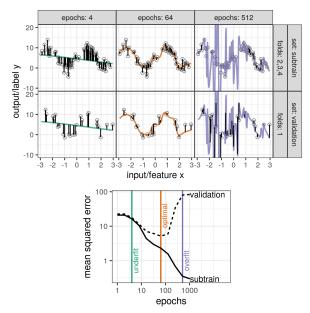
# **Gradient Descent Learning**

The neural network prediction function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = f_L[\cdots f_1[\mathbf{x}]]$  has  $I \in \{1, \dots, L\}$  component functions to learn:

$$f_l(t) = A_l(\mathbf{W}_l^{\mathsf{T}}t), \tag{3}$$

The weight matrices  $\mathbf{W}_I \in \mathbb{R}^{u_I \times u_{I-1}}$  are learned using gradient descent.

- ▶ A loss function  $\mathcal{L}[f(\mathbf{x}), y]$  computes how bad are predictions with respect to labels y (ex: mean squared error for regression, cross entropy loss for classification).
- ▶ In each iteration of gradient descent, the weights are updated in order to get better predictions on subtrain data.
- ► An **epoch** computes gradients on all subtrain data; there can be from 1 to *N*(subtrain size) iterations per epoch.



Citation: Hocking TD. Introduction to machine learning and neural networks in book Land Carbon Cycle Modeling: Matrix Approach, Data Assimilation, and Ecological Forecasting, edited by Luo Y, published by Taylor and Francis, 2022.

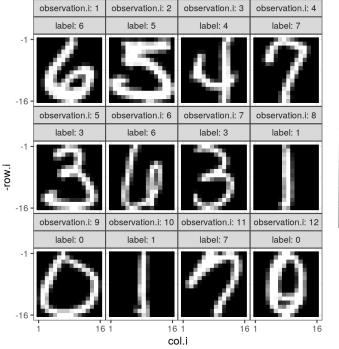
# Summary of how to avoid overfitting

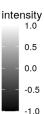
- ► Happens when subtrain error/loss decreases but validation error increases (as a function of some hyper-parameter)
- Here the hyper-parameter is the number of iterations of gradient descent, and overfitting starts after a certain number of iterations.
- To maximize prediction accuracy you need to choose a hyper-parameter with minimal validation error/loss.
- This optimal hyper-parameter will depend on the data set.
- ➤ To get optimal prediction accuracy in any machine learning analysis, you always need to do this, because you never know the best hyper-parameters in advance.

### Image classification

- A problem in computer vision, one of the most popular/successful application domains of machine learning.
- ▶ Input: image file  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{h \times w \times c}$  where h is the height in pixels, w is the width, c is the number of channels, e.g. RGB image c = 3 channels.
- In this tutorial we use images with h = w = 16 pixels and c = 1 channel (grayscale, smaller values are darker).
- Output: class/category y (from a finite set).
- ▶ In this tutorial there are ten image classes  $y \in \{0, 1, ..., 9\}$ , one for each digit.
- Want to learn f such that f(-1) = 0, f(-1) = 1, etc.
- Code for figures in this section: https://github.com/tdhock/2023-res-baz-az/blob/ main/figure-validation-loss.R







## Representation of digits in CSV

- Each image/observation is one row.
- First column is output/label/class to predict.
- Other 256 columns are inputs/features (pixel intensity values).

#### Data from

 $\verb|https://web.stanford.edu/~hastie/ElemStatLearn/datasets/zip.train.gz|$ 

```
1: 6 -1 -1 ... -1.000 -1.000 -1
2: 5 -1 -1 ... -0.671 -0.828 -1
3: 4 -1 -1 ... -1.000 -1.000 -1
4: 7 -1 -1 ... -1.000 -1.000 -1
5: 3 -1 -1 ... -0.883 -1.000 -1
6: 6 -1 -1 ... -1.000 -1.000 -1
```

Demo: reading CSV, plotting digits, https://github.com/tdhock/2023-res-baz-az/blob/main/ 2023-04-19-deep-learning.Rmd

## Converting R data to torch tensors

Use array function with all columns except first as data.

```
zip.dt <- data.table::fread("zip.train.gz")
zip.X.array <- array(
  data = unlist(zip.dt[,-1]),
  dim = c(nrow(zip.dt), 1, 16, 16))
zip.X.tensor <- torch::torch_tensor(zip.X.array)
zip.y.tensor <- torch::torch_tensor(
  zip.dt$V1+1L, torch::torch_long())</pre>
```

Need to specify dimensions of input/X array:

- Observations: same as the number of rows in the CSV table.
- ► Channels: 1 (greyscale image, would be 3 for RGB image).
- Pixels wide: 16.
- Pixels high: 16.

For output/y need to add 1 in R, and specify long int type.



### Linear model R code

```
n.features <- 16*16
n.classes <- 10
linear.model <- torch::nn_sequential(
  torch::nn_flatten(),
  torch::nn_linear(n.features, n.classes))
pred.tensor <- linear.model(zip.X.tensor)</pre>
```

- First layer must specify shape of inputs (here 16x16x1).
- nn\_flatten converts any shape to a single dimension of units (here, convert each image from 1x16x16-array to 256-vector).
- ▶ nn\_linear uses all units/features in the previous layer (256) to predict each unit in the next layer (10).
- ► There are ten possible classes for an output.

# Computing loss, gradient, parameter updates

```
loss.fun <- torch::nn_cross_entropy_loss()
loss.tensor <- loss.fun(pred.tensor, zip.y.tensor)
step.size <- 0.1#also known as learning rate.
optimizer <- torch::optim_sgd(
   linear.model$parameters, lr=step.size)
optimizer$zero_grad()
loss.tensor$backward()
optimizer$step()</pre>
```

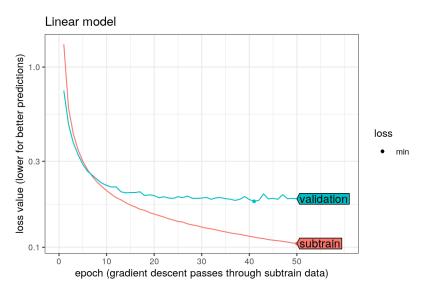
- loss.fun is the cross-entropy loss for multi-class classification, which is directly optimized/minimized in each iteration of the gradient descent learning algorithm.
- optimizer is the version of the gradient descent learning algorithm to use.
- backward method computes gradients.
- step method updates model parameters based on gradients.



### Gradient Descent learning algorithm

```
gradient_descent <-</pre>
  function(index.list, model, n_epochs, gradient.set){
  loss.dt.list <- list()</pre>
  for(epoch in seq(1, n_epochs)){
    take_steps(index.list[[gradient.set]], model)
    epoch.loss.dt <- loss_each_set(index.list, model)</pre>
    loss.dt.list[[paste(epoch)]] <-</pre>
      data.table(epoch, epoch.loss.dt)
  }
  rbindlist(loss.dt.list)
```

- take\_steps sub-routine updates model parameters.
- loss\_each\_set computes loss and error rate on gradient set and held-out set.



Demo: splitting data, gradient descent loop.

# Dense (fully connected) neural network R code

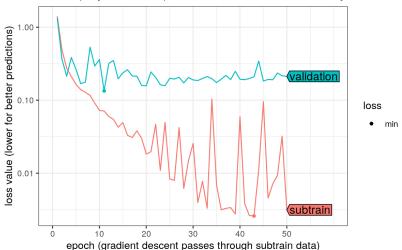
```
one.hidden.layer <- torch::nn_sequential(
  torch::nn_flatten(),
    torch::nn_linear(n.features, n.hidden.units),
    torch::nn_relu(),
    torch::nn_linear(n.hidden.units, n.classes))
two.hidden.layers <- torch::nn_sequential(</pre>
  torch::nn_flatten(),
    torch::nn_linear(n.features, n.hidden.1),
    torch::nn_relu(),
    torch::nn_linear(n.hidden.1, n.hidden.2),
    torch::nn_relu(),
    torch::nn_linear(n.hidden.2, n.classes))
```

### Use for loop to implement dense network

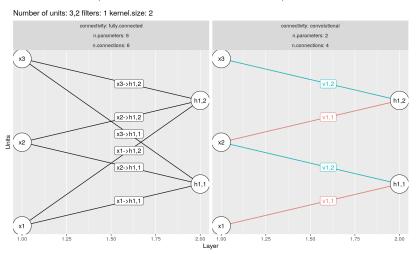
```
new_fully_connected_units <- function(units.per.layer){</pre>
  seq.args <- list(torch::nn_flatten())</pre>
  for(output.i in seq(2, length(units.per.layer))){
    input.i <- output.i-1
    seq.args[[length(seq.args)+1]] <- torch::nn_linear(</pre>
      units.per.layer[[input.i]],
      units.per.layer[[output.i]])
    if(output.i<length(units.per.layer)){</pre>
      seq.args[[length(seq.args)+1]] <- torch::nn_relu()</pre>
  }
  do.call(torch::nn_sequential, seq.args)
}
```

- input a vector of units per layer, for example c(256,1000,100,10).
- ▶ Begin with flatten.
- ► Linear followed by relu in each layer except last.

#### Dense (fully connected) neural network with 8 hidden layers

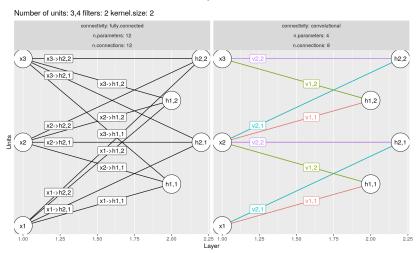


# Fully connected/dense vs convolutional/sparse network



torch::nn\_conv1d(in\_channels=1,
 out\_channels=1, kernel\_size=2)

### Convolutional with two filters/output channels



torch::nn\_conv1d(in\_channels=1,
 out\_channels=2, kernel\_size=2)

### Fully connected vs convolutional, two filters/channels

$$\begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{1,1} & w_{1,2} & w_{1,3} \\ w_{2,1} & w_{2,2} & w_{2,3} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ (fully connected)}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_1 & v_2 & 0 \\ 0 & v_1 & v_2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ (convolutional)}$$

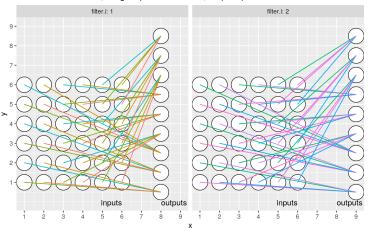
$$\begin{bmatrix} h_{1,1} \\ h_{1,2} \\ h_{2,1} \\ h_{2,2} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} v_{1,1} & v_{1,2} & 0 \\ 0 & v_{1,1} & v_{1,2} \\ v_{2,1} & v_{2,2} & 0 \\ 0 & v_{2,1} & v_{2,2} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{bmatrix} \text{ (conv, two filters)}$$

- Weight sharing: same weights used to compute different output units.
- Sparsity: zeros in weight matrix.



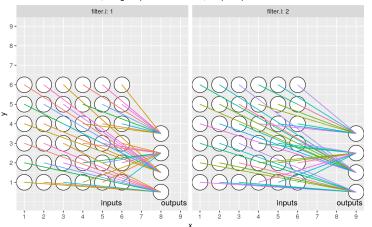
# 2D convolutional kernel for 6x6 pixel image, kernel size=2

6x6 pixel image input, convolutional kernel size = stride = 2, n.filters/channels = 2, weights per channel = 4, outputs per channel = 9



### 2D convolutional kernel for 6x6 pixel image, kernel size=3

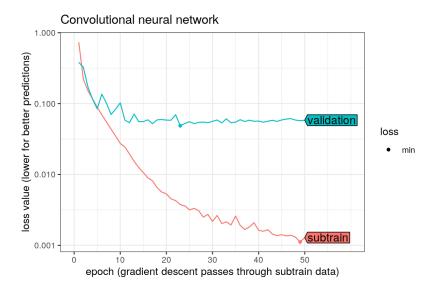
6x6 pixel image input, convolutional kernel size = stride = 3, n.filters/channels = 2, weights per channel = 9, outputs per channel = 4



# Sparse (convolutional) model R code

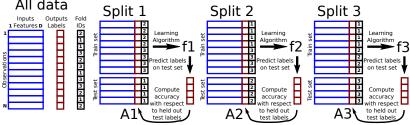
```
seq2flat <- torch::nn_sequential(
  torch::nn_conv2d(
    in_channels = 1, out_channels = 10, kernel_size = 4),
  torch::nn_relu(),
  torch::nn_flatten(),
  torch::nn_linear(conv.hidden.units, last.hidden.units),
  torch::nn_relu(),
  torch::nn_linear(last.hidden.units, n.classes))</pre>
```

- Two hidden layers: one convolutional, one linear.
- Sparse: few inputs are used to predict each unit in nn\_conv2d.
- Exploits structure of image data to make learning easier/faster.



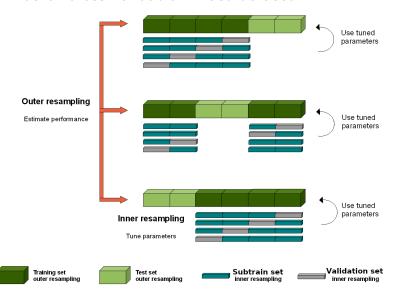
#### K-fold cross-validation for model evaluation

Is convolutional more accurate on unseen test data?



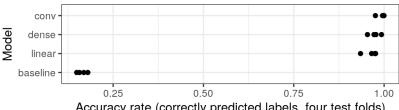
- ▶ Randomly assign a fold ID from 1 to K to each observation.
- ▶ Hold out the observations with the Split ID as test set.
- Use the other observations as the train set.
- ► Run learning algorithm on train set (including hyper-parmeter selection), outputs learned function (f1-f3).
- ► Finally compute and plot the prediction accuracy (A1-A3) with respect to the held-out test set.

#### Two kinds of cross-validation must be used



Source: https://mlr.mlr-org.com/articles/tutorial/
nested\_resampling.html

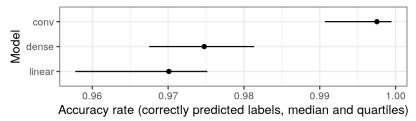
# Accuracy rates for each test fold



Accuracy rate (correctly predicted labels, four test folds)

- Always a good idea to compare with the trivial/featureless baseline model which always predicts the most frequent class in the train set. (ignoring all inputs/features)
- Here we see that the featureless baseline is much less accurate than the three learned models, which are clearly learning something non-trivial.
- Code for test accuracy figures: https://github.com/tdhock/2023-res-baz-az/blob/ main/figure-test-accuracy.R

### Zoom to learned models



- Dense neural network slightly more accurate than linear model, convolutional significantly more accurate than others.
- Conclusion: convolutional neural network should be preferred for most accurate predictions in these data.
- Maybe not the same conclusion in other data sets, with the same models. (always need to do cross-validation experiments to see which model is best in any given data set)
- Maybe other models/algorithms would be even more accurate in these data. (more/less layers, more/less units, completely different algorithm such as random forests, boosting, etc)



### Summary

#### We have studied

- ► Two kinds of machine learning problems, regression y=real number, classification y=integer category.
- Splitting a data set into train/test/subtrain/validation sets for learning hyper-parameters and evaluating prediction accuracy.
- Overfitting and how to avoid it using early stopping regularization (choosing the best number of iterations/epochs using a held-out validation set). Also, the validation set can and should be used to learn other hyper-parameters (number of hidden units/layers, learning rate/step size, batch size).
- ▶ How to use a held-out test set to compare prediction accuracy of learning algorithms with each other and to a featureless baseline.

### Quiz questions

- When using a design matrix to represent machine learning inputs, what does each row and column represent?
- When splitting data into train/test sets, what is the purpose of each set? When splitting a train set into subtrain/validation sets, what is the purpose of each set?
- ▶ In order to determine if any non-trivial predictive relationship between inputs and output has been learned, a comparison with a featureless baseline that ignores the inputs must be used. How do you compute the featureless baseline predictions?
- ► How can you tell if machine learning model predictions are underfitting or overfitting?
- Many learning algorithms require input of the number of iterations or epochs. How should this parameter be chosen?

# Thanks for participating!

- Contact: toby.hocking@nau.edu, toby.hocking@r-project.org
- Take my Deep Learning class if you want to know more about these topics,
  - https://github.com/tdhock/cs499-599-fall-2022
- ► The NAU SICCS Machine Learning Research lab is recruiting! http://ml.nau.edu/

