Neural networks

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Feed forward neural networks

- Approximate some function y = f*(x) by learning parameters θ
 s.t. ỹ = f(x; θ)
- Feed forward neural networks can be seen as directed acyclic graphs

$$y = f(\mathbf{x}) = f^{(L)}(\cdots f^{(3)}(f^{(2)}(f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}))))$$

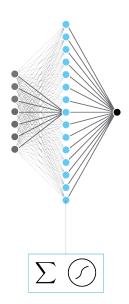
Training examples specify the output of the *last* layer
 Network needs to figure out the inputs/outputs for the *hidden* layers

Extending linear models

How can we extend linear models?

- Specify a very general ϕ s.t. the model becomes $y = \theta^T \phi(\mathbf{x})$
 - Problem with generalization
 - Difficult to encode *prior* information needed to solve AI-level tasks
- Engineer ϕ for the task at hand
 - Tedious
 - Difficult to transfer to new tasks
- Neural networks approaches
 - $y = f(\mathbf{x}; \theta, w) = \phi(\mathbf{x}; \theta)^T w$ i.e. use parameters θ to learn ϕ and use w to map $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ to the desired output y
 - The training problem is non-convex
 - \blacktriangleright Key advantage: a designer just need to specify the right family of functions and not the exact function ϕ

- Shallow and wide
- One hidden layer can represent any function
- Focus was on efficient ways to optimize (train)



We can represent networks comprising a single hidden layer as

$$y = f_o\left(\mathbf{W}_{oh}f_h\left(\mathbf{W}_{ih}\mathbf{x}\right)\right).$$

Here, $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the d-dimensional input, $\mathbf{W}_{ih} \in \mathbb{R}^{d_h \times d}$ is the input-to-hidden-layer weight matrix, d_h is the size of the hidden layer, $\mathbf{W}_{ho} \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times d_h}$ is the hidden-layer-to-output weight matrix, and f_h and f_o are activations functions for hidden layer and output, respectively.

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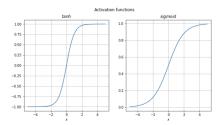
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Traditionally, possible choices for f_h are:

- hyperbolic tangent; and
- sigmoid.

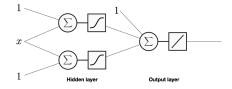
Activation functions (artificial neural networks)

- The activation functions for output:
 - Identity function for regression;
 - Sigmoid for binary classification; and
 - Softmax for multi-class classification.
- The activation functions for hidden layers:
 - tanh (allows for negative output values); and
 sigmoid.



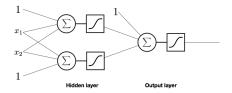
Example: a regression network

- Input: 1D, real numbers
- Ouput: 1D, real numbers
- Hidden layer size: 2
- Number of weights: 7
- Loss: MSE
- Probabilistic view of line fitting



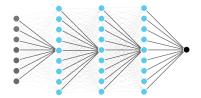
Example: a classification network

- Input: 2D, real numbers
- Output: 1D, class labels 0 or 1
- Hidden layer size: 2
- Number of weights: 9
- Loss: Cross-entropy
- Data likelihood under Bernoulli distribution



Current view - deep neural networks

- Multi-layer networks
 - These networks are deeper than these are wider
- Hierarchical representation
 - Reduces semantic gap
- Deep networks outperform humans on many tasks
- Access to data
- Advances in computer science, physics and engineering



Gradient-based learning in neural networks

- Non-linearities of neural networks render most cost functions non-convex
- Use iterative gradient based optimizers to drive cost function to lower values
- Gradient descent applied to non-convex cost functions has no guarantees is sensitive to initial conditions
 - Initialize weights to small random values
 - Initialize biases to zero or small positive values

Cost functions

- Most modern neural networks are trainined using *maximum likelihood* principle
- When parametric values defines a distribution p(y|x; θ) the negative log-likelihood is the cross-entropy between the training data and model predictions
- Advantage of using maximum likelihood: we get cost for free, which is - log p(y|x)
- Gradient of the cost function must be large (and predictable)

Another advantage of using negative log likelihood as a cost function

When hidden or output units saturate, their gradients become really small, creating difficulties for gradient based learning methods. Many output units contain and $\exp()$, for example softmax, an advantage of using negative log likelihood is also that it undoes the effects of $\exp()$ preventing saturation

Output units

The role of the output units is to provide some additional transformations from the features computed by the hidden layers to complete the task at hand:

$$y = f(\mathbf{h}),$$

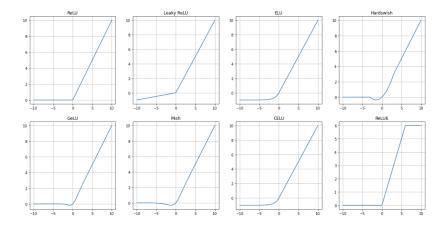
where $\mathbf{h} = f(\mathbf{x}; \theta)$ are the features computed by the hidden layer.

- Linear units
- Sigmoid units
- Softmax units

Hidden units

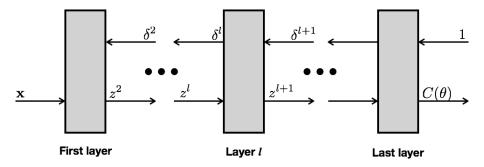
- ReLU
- Leaky ReLU
- Parametric ReLU
- Maxout
- Dropout
- Sine
- Logistic, sigmoid, hyperbolic tangent
 - Rarely used as hidden units these days, except for recurrent networks

Activation functions plots



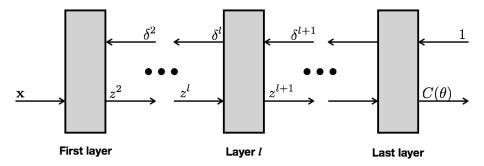
Layered architectures

As long as we have differentiable layers, i.e., we can compute $\frac{\partial z_k^{l+1}}{\partial z_i^l}$, we can use *backpropagation* to update the parameters θ to minimize the cost $C(\theta)$.



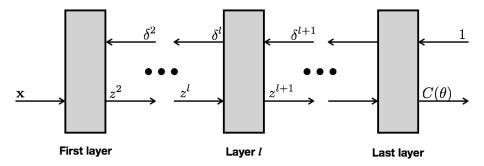
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- Repeat

Layered architecture: consequences

- Compositionality
- Reuse
- Ease of constructing your own layers

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A neural network can itself be treated as a layer within another neural network (recursion). This allows us to build new neural networks using exisitng (and sometimes pre-trained) models.

This is all good in theory, but what about practice GPUs

Support fast vectorized processing

Autodiff

- Techniques to evaluate the derivative of a computer program
- Autodiff example on Google Colab

Autodiff example

```
import torch
import numpy as np
def sigmoid(x):
    return 1. / (1. + torch.exp(-x))
def derivative of sigmoid(x):
    "Derivative of a sigmoid (analytical)"
    return sigmoid(x) * (1 - sigmoid(x))
# input
x = torch.linspace(-10,10,100, requires_grad=True)
# derivative of a sigmoid
dx = derivative_of_sigmoid(x)
# PvTorch program that implements sigmoid
z = sigmoid(x)
# using PvTorch autodiff to compute the derivative of the sigmoid
z = torch.sum(z) # because backward can only be called on scalers
z_.backward() # the backward pass
plt.figure(figsize=(8,8))
plt.title('Using PyTorch to compute the derivative of a sigmoid')
plt.plot(x.detach().numpy(), z.detach().numpy(), 'k', label='sigmoid')
plt.grid()
plt.plot(x.detach().numpy(), dx.detach().numpy(), 'b.', label='derivative computed analytically')
plt.plot(x.detach().numpy(), x.grad.detach().numpy(), 'r', label='derivative using autodiff')
plt.xlabel('x')
plt.legend():
```

Regularization for deep networks

Regularization: any modification to reduce generalization error but not the training errors:

- extra constraints and penalties
- prior knowledge

Deep learning is applied to extremely complex tasks. Consequently, regularization is not as simple as controlling the number of parameters

Regularization for deep networks

- Parameter norm penalties
- Data augmentation
 - Fake data
 - Successful in classification/object recognition tasks
- Noise injection
 - Applying random noise to the inputs
 - Applying random noise to hidden layers' inputs
 - Data augmentation at multiple levels of abstraction
 - Data augmentation almost always improves the performance of a neural network
 - Noise added to the weights
 - Recurrent neural networks
 - A practical stochastic implementation of Bayesian inference over weights
 - Noise can also bve added to target outputs

Summary

Different ways to interpret a neural network

- Compositions of non-linear functions
- Computational graphs
- Comprised of differentiable layers
 - Where possible compose new networks using existing networks

Summary

- Backpropagation: strategy for computing gradients for gradient-based learning
 - Use autodiff to automatixally compute gradients for each layer
 - Vast number of "deep learning" frameworks (e.g., TensorFlow, Theano, PyTorch, etc.); start with those first

Summary

- Controlling model complexity
- Deep learning
 - Loosely speaking, neural networks with several hidden layers
 - Convolutional layers: used for image processing
 - Fully connected layers: often used at the end for regression or classification

Readings

► Ch. 6-9 of Deep Learning by I. Goodfellow et al.

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