Need for Deep Networks

Perceptron

• Can only model linear functions

Kernel Machines

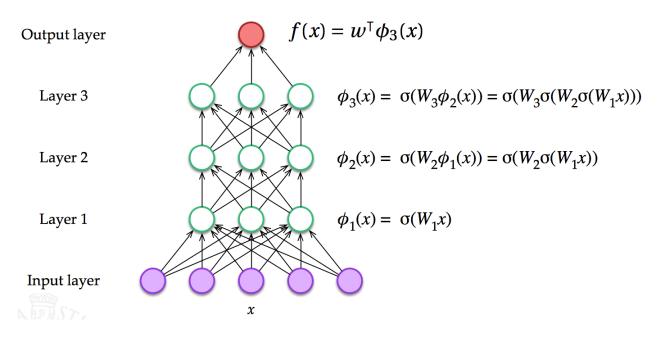
- · Non-linearity provided by kernels
- Need to *design* appropriate kernels (possibly selecting from a set, i.e. kernel learning)
- Solution is linear combination of kernels

Need for Deep Networks

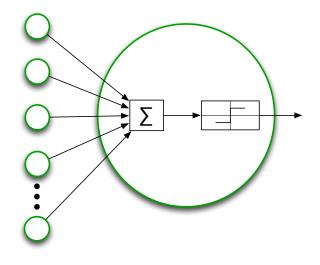
Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)

- · Network of interconnected neurons
- layered architecture: neurons from one layer send outputs to the following layer
- Input layer at the bottom (input features)
- One or more hidden layers in the middle (learned features)
- Output layer on top (predictions)

Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)

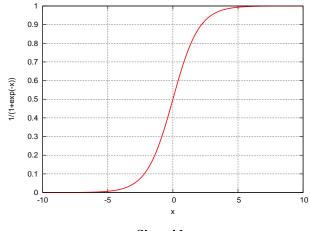


Activation Function



Perceptron: threshold activation $f(x) = sign(\boldsymbol{w}^T\boldsymbol{x})$

- Derivative is zero everywhere apart from zero (where it's not differentiable)
- Impossible to run gradient-based optimization



Activation Function

$$f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \sigma(\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x})}$$

- Smooth version of threshold
- approximately linear around zero
- saturates for large and small values

Representational power of MLP

Representable functions

boolean functions any boolean function can be represented by some network with two layers of units

- **continuous functions** every bounded continuous function can be approximated with arbitrary small error by a network with two layers of units (sigmoid hidden activation, linear output activation)
- **arbitrary functions** any function can be approximated to arbitrary accuracy by a network with three layers of units (sigmoid hidden activation, linear output activation)

Shallow vs deep architectures: Boolean functions

Conjunctive normal form (CNF)

- One neuron for each clause (OR gate), with negative weights for negated literals
- One neuron at the top (AND gate)

PB: number of gates

- Some functions require an exponential number of gates!! (e.g. parity function)
- Can be expressed with linear number of gates with a *deep network* (e.g. combination of XOR gates)

Training MLP Stochastic gradient descent

• Training error for example (x, y) (e.g. regression):

$$E(W) = \frac{1}{2}(y - f(x))^2$$

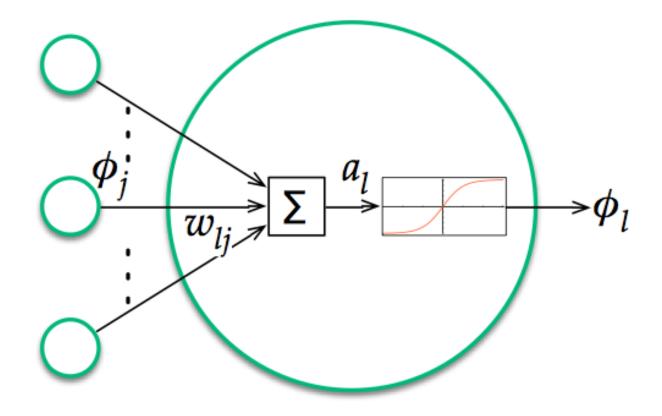
• Gradient update (η learning rate)

$$w_{lj} = w_{lj} - \eta \frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial w_{lj}}$$

Backpropagation

Use chain rule for derivation:

$$\frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial w_{lj}} = \underbrace{\frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial a_l}}_{\delta_l} \frac{\partial a_l}{\partial w_{lj}} = \delta_l \phi_j$$



Training MLP

Output units

- Delta is easy to compute on output units.
- E.g. for regression with sigmoid outputs:

$$\delta_o = \frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial a_o} = \frac{\partial \frac{1}{2}(y - f(x))^2}{\partial a_o}$$
$$= \frac{\partial \frac{1}{2}(y - \sigma(a_o))^2}{\partial a_o} = -(y - \sigma(a_o))\frac{\partial \sigma(a_o)}{\partial a_o}$$
$$= -(y - \sigma(a_o))\sigma(a_o)(1 - \sigma(a_o))$$

Training MLP

Derivative of sigmoid

$$\frac{\partial \sigma(x)}{\partial x} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)}$$

$$= -(1 + \exp(-x))^{-2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (1 + \exp(-x))$$

$$= -(1 + \exp(-x))^{-2} - \exp(-2x) \frac{\partial \exp(x)}{\partial x}$$

$$= (1 + \exp(-x))^{-2} \exp(-2x) \exp(x)$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)} \frac{\exp(-x)}{1 + \exp(-x)}$$

$$= \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)} (1 - \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)})$$

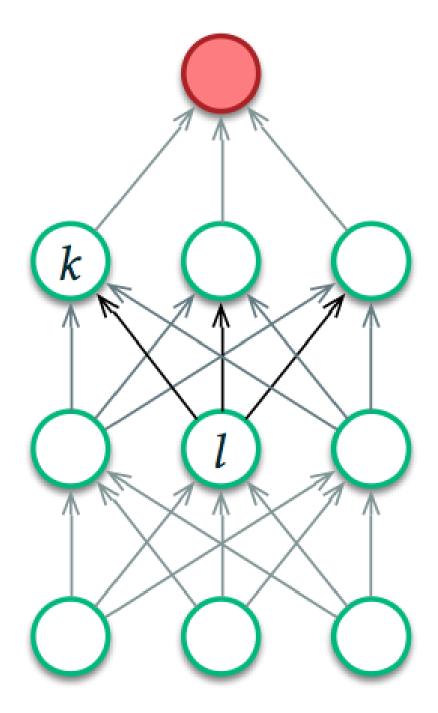
$$= \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$$

Training MLP

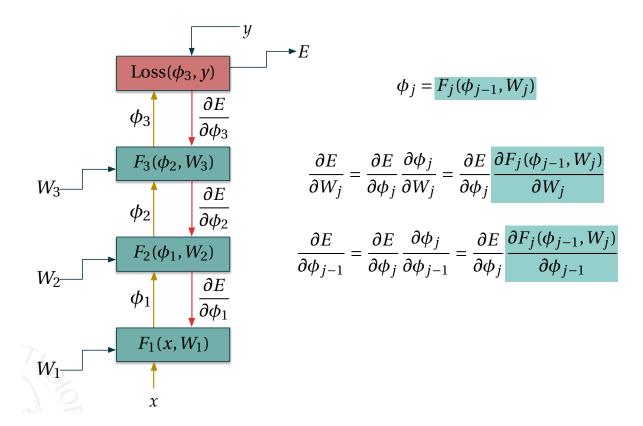
Hidden units

Consider contribution to error through all outer connections (again sigmoid activation):

$$\begin{split} \delta_l &= \frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial a_l} = \sum_{k \in \mathrm{ch}[l]} \frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial a_k} \frac{\partial a_k}{\partial a_l} \\ &= \sum_{k \in \mathrm{ch}[l]} \delta_k \frac{\partial a_k}{\partial \phi_l} \frac{\partial \phi_l}{\partial a_l} \\ &= \sum_{k \in \mathrm{ch}[l]} \delta_k w_{kl} \frac{\partial \sigma(a_l)}{\partial a_l} \\ &= \sum_{k \in \mathrm{ch}[l]} \delta_k w_{kl} \sigma(a_l) (1 - \sigma(a_l)) \end{split}$$



Deep architectures: modular structure



Remarks on backpropagation

Local minima

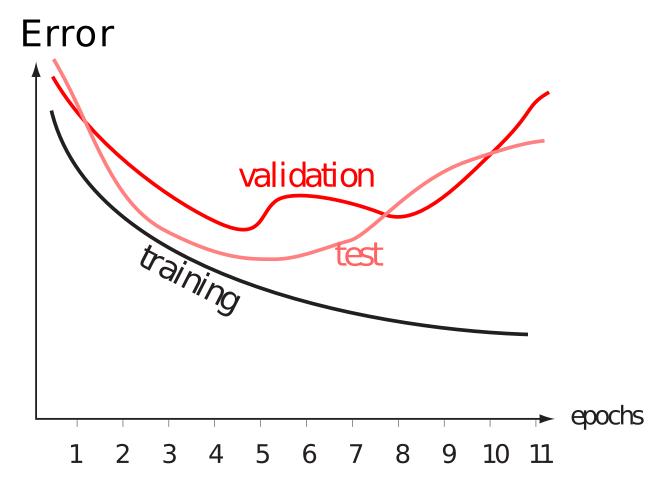
- The error surface of a multilayer neural network can contain several minima
- Backpropagation is only guaranteed to converge to a local minimum
- Heuristic attempts to address the problem:
 - use stochastic instead of true gradient descent
 - train multiple networks with different random weights and average or choose best
 - many more..

Note

- Training kernel machines requires solving *quadratic* optimization problems \rightarrow global optimum guaranteed
- Deep networks are more expressive in principle, but harder to train

Stopping criterion and generalization Stopping criterion

- How can we choose the training termination condition?
- Overtraining the network increases possibility of overfitting training data
- Network is initialized with small random weights \Rightarrow very simple decision surface
- · Overfitting occurs at later iterations, when increasingly complex surfaces are being generated
- Use a separate validation set to estimate performance of the network and choose when to stop training



Training deep architectures

PB: Vanishing gradient

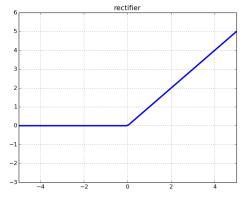
- Error gradient is backpropagated through layers
- At each step gradient is multiplied by derivative of sigmoid: very small for saturated units
- Gradient vanishes in lower layers
- Difficulty of training deep networks!!

Tricks of the trade

Few simple suggestions

- Do not initialize weights to zero, but to small random values around zero
- Standardize inputs $(x' = (x \mu_x)/\sigma_x)$ to avoid saturating hidden units
- Randomly shuffle training examples before each training epoch

Tricks of the trade: activation functions



Rectifier

$$f(x) = max(0, \boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x})$$

- Linearity is nice for learning
- Saturation (as in sigmoid) is bad for learning (gradient vanishes \rightarrow no weight update)
- Neuron employing rectifier activation called rectified linear unit (ReLU)

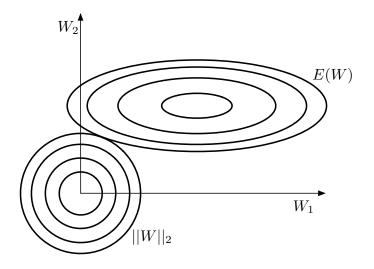
Tricks of the trade: loss functions

Cross entropy

$$E(W) = -\sum_{(\boldsymbol{x}, y) \in \mathcal{D}} y \log f(x) + (1 - y) \log(1 - f(x))$$

- · Minimize cross entropy of network output wrt targets
- Useful for binary classification tasks
- Model target function as probability that output is one (use sigmoid for output layer)
- · Corresponds to maximum likelihood learning
- Log removes saturation effect of sigmoid (helps optimization)
- Can be generalized to multiclass classification (use softmax for output layer)

Tricks of the trade: regularization

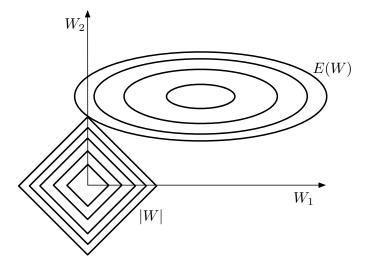


2-norm regularization

$$J(W) = E(W) + \lambda ||W||_2$$

- Penalizes weights by Euclidean norm
- Weights with less influence on error get smaller values

Tricks of the trade: regularization



1-norm regularization

$$J(W) = E(W) + \lambda |W|$$

- · Penalizes weights by sum of absolute values
- Encourages less relevant weights to be exactly zero (sparsity inducing norm)

Tricks of the trade: initialization

Suggestions

- Randomly initialize weights (for breaking symmetries between neurons)
- Carefully set initialization range (to preserve forward and backward variance)

$$W_{ij} \sim U(-\frac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{n+m}}, \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{n+m}})$$

n and m number of inputs and outputs

• Sparse initialization: enforce a fraction of weights to be non-zero (encourages diversity between neurons)

Tricks of the trade: gradient descent

Batch vs Stochastic

- Batch gradient descent updates parameters after seeing all examples \rightarrow too slow for large datasets
- Fully stochastic gradient descent updates parameters after seeing each example \rightarrow objective too different from true one
- *Minibatch* gradient descent: update parameters after seeing a minibach of *m* examples (*m* depends on many factors, e.g. size of GPU memory)

Tricks of the trade: gradient descent

Momentum

$$v_{ji} = \alpha v_{ji} - \eta \frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial w_{lj}}$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{ji} = w_{ji} + v_{ji}$$

- $0 \le \alpha < 1$ is called **momentum**
- Tends to keep updating weights in the same direction
- Think of a ball rolling on an error surface
- Possible effects:
 - roll through small local minima without stopping
 - traverse flat surfaces instead of stopping there
 - increase step size of search in regions of constant gradient

Tricks of the trade: adaptive gradient

Decreasing learning rate

$$\eta_t = \begin{cases} (1 - \frac{t}{\tau})\eta_0 + \frac{t}{\tau}\eta_\tau & \text{if } t < \tau\\ \eta_\tau & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Larger learning rate at the beginning for faster convergence towards attraction basin
- · Smaller learning rate at the end to avoid oscillation close to the minimum

Tricks of the trade: adaptive gradient

Adagrad

$$r_{ji} = r_{ji} + \left(\frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial w_{lj}}\right)^2$$
$$\mathbf{w}_{ji} = w_{ji} - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{r_{ji}}}\frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial w_{lj}}$$

- Reduce learning rate in steep directions
- Increase learning rate in gentler directions

Problem

- Square gradient accumulated over all iterations
- For non-convex problems, learning rate reduction can be excessive/premature

Tricks of the trade: adaptive gradient RMSProp

$$r_{ji} = \rho r_{ji} + (1 - \rho) \left(\frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial w_{lj}}\right)^2$$
$$\mathbf{w}_{ji} = w_{ji} - \frac{\eta}{\sqrt{r_{ji}}} \frac{\partial E(W)}{\partial w_{lj}}$$

- Exponentially decaying accumulation of squared gradient $(0 < \rho < 1)$
- Avoids premature reduction of Adagrad
- · Adagrad-like behaviour when reaching convex bowl

Tricks of the trade: batch normalization

Covariate shift problem

- Covariate shift problem is when the input distribution to your model changes over time (and the model does not adapt to the change)
- In (very) deep networks, *internal* covariate shift takes place among layers when they get updated by backpropagation

Tricks of the trade: batch normalization

Solution (sketch)

• Normalize each node activation (input to activation function) by its batch statistics

$$\hat{x}_i = \frac{x_i - \mu_B}{\sigma_B}$$

where:

- x is the activation of an arbitrary node in an arbitrary layer
- $\mathcal{B} = \{x_1, \dots, x_m\}$, is a batch of values for that activation
- μ_B, σ_B^2 are batch mean and variance
- Scale and shift each activation with adjustable parameters (γ and β become part of the network parameters)

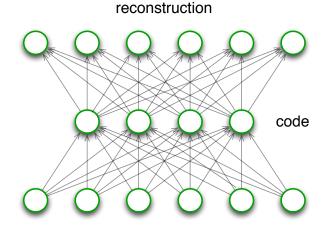
$$y_i = \gamma \hat{x}_i + \beta$$

Tricks of the trade: batch normalization

Advantages

- · More robustness to parameter initialization
- · Allows for faster learning rates without divergence
- Keeps activations in non-saturated region even for saturating activation functions
- Regularizes the model

Tricks of the trade: layerwise pre-training

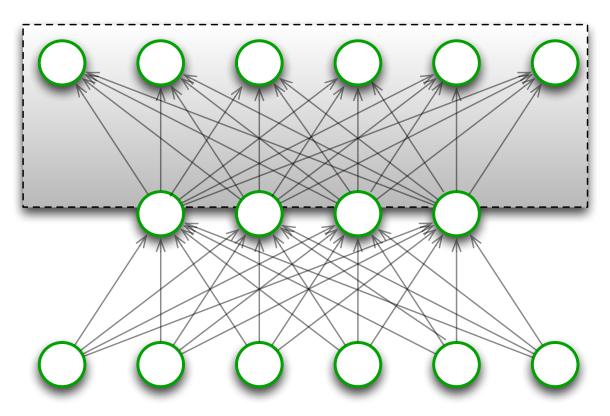


input

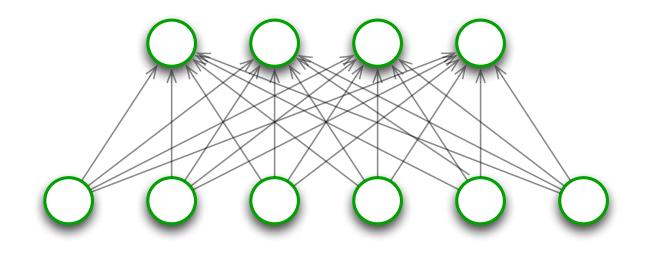
Autoencoder

- train shallow network to reproduce input in the output
- learns to map inputs into a sensible hidden representation (representation learning)
- can be done with unlabelled examples (*unsupervised learning*)

Tricks of the trade: layerwise pre-training



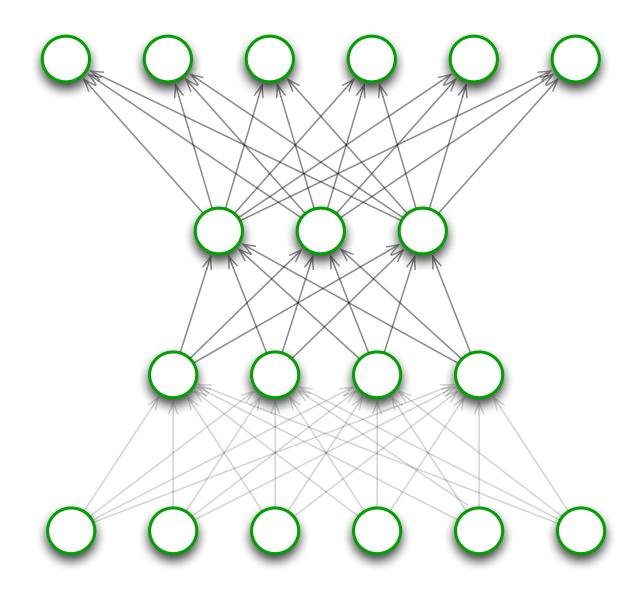
input



input

 \Rightarrow

reconstruction



input

 \Rightarrow

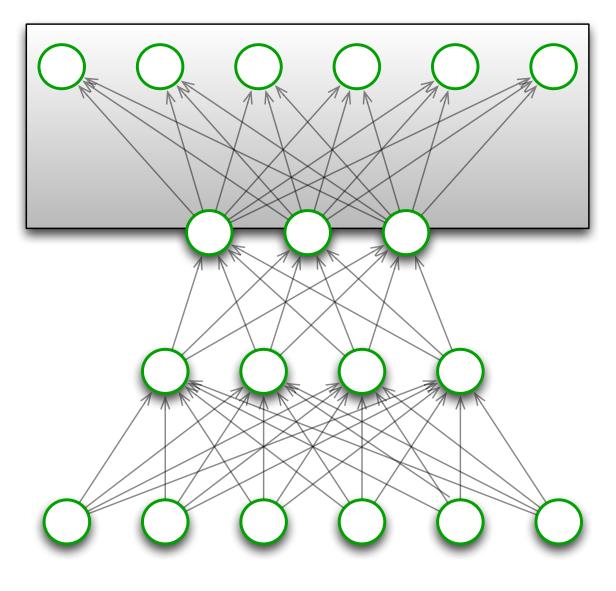
Stacked autoencoder

- repeat:
 - 1. discard output layer
 - 2. freeze hidden layer weights
 - 3. add another hidden + output layer

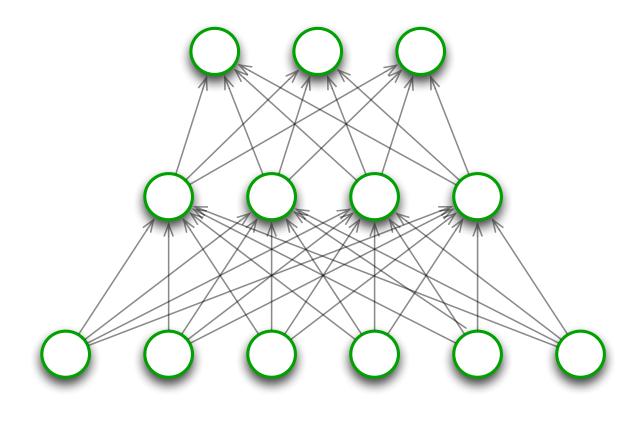
4. train network to reproduce input

Tricks of the trade: layerwise pre-training

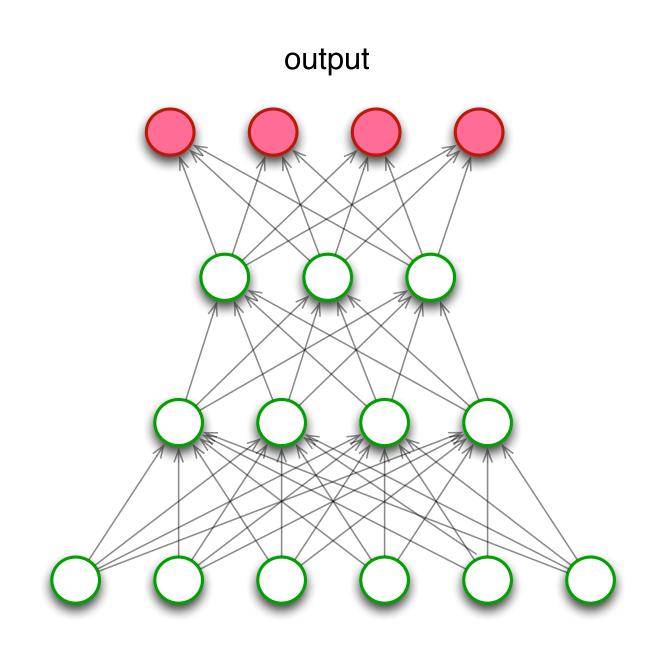
reconstruction



input



input



input

 \Rightarrow

global refinement

- discard autoencoder output layer
- add appropriate output layer for supervised task (e.g. one-hot encoding for multiclass classification)
- learn output layer weights + refine all internal weights by backpropagation algorithm

Tricks of the trade: layerwise pre-training

Modern pre-training

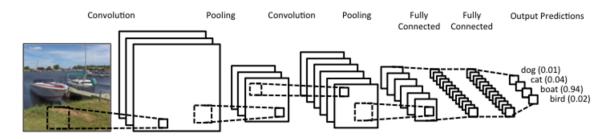
- Supervised pre-training: layerwise training with actual labels
- Transfer learning: train network on similar task, discard last layers and retrain on target task
- · Multi-level supervision: auxhiliary output nodes at intermediate layers to speed up learning

Popular deep architectures

Many different architectures

- convolutional networks for exploiting local correlations (e.g. for images)
- recurrent and recursive networks for collective predictions (e.g. sequential labelling)
- deep Boltzmann machines as probabilistic generative models (can also generate new instances of a certain class)
- generative adversarial networks to generate new instances as a game between discriminator and generator

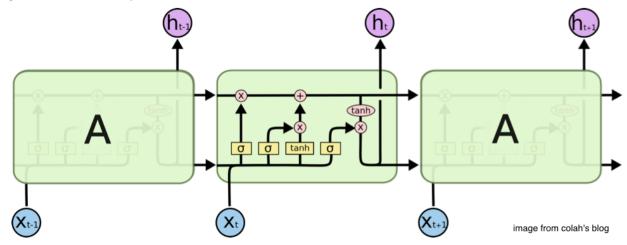
Convolutional networks (CNN)



Location invariance + compositionality

- convolution filters extracting local features
- pooling to provide invariance to local variations
- hierarchy of filters to compose complex features from simpler ones (e.g. pixels to edges to shapes)
- fully connected layers for final classification

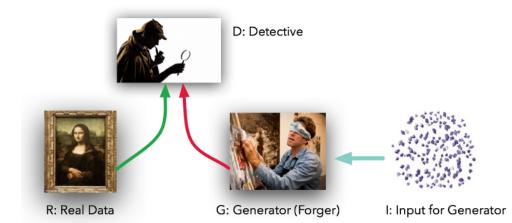
Long Short-Term Memory Networks (LSMT)



Recurrent computation with selective memory

- Cell state propagated along chain
- Forget gate selectively forgets parts of the cell state
- Input gate selectively chooses parts of the candidate for cell update
- Output gate selectively chooses parts of the cell state for output

Generative Adversarial Networks (GAN)



Generative learning as an adversarial game

- A generator network learns to generate items (e.g. images) from random noise
- A discriminator network learns to distinguish between real items and generated ones
- The two networks are jointly learned (adversarial game)
- No human supervision needed !!

References

Libraries

- TensorFlow (https://www.tensorflow.org/)
- Keras (https://keras.io/)
- PyTorch (http://pytorch.org/)
- Caffe (http://caffe.berkeleyvision.org/)

Literature

- Yoshua Bengio, Learning Deep Architectures for AI, Foundations & Trends in Machine Learning, 2009.
- Ian Goodfellow, Yoshua Bengio and Aaron Courville, *Deep Learning*, Book in preparation for MIT Press, 2016 (http://www.deeplearningbook.org/)
- Christopher Olah, Understanding LSTM Networks (http://colah.github.io/posts/2015-08-Understanding-L