Data Analysis and Machine Learning 4 (DAML) Week 10: Deep Neural Networks

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Recap

• We looked at Gaussian processes for regression



We saw how changing the kernel affected the GP prior and posterior





Linear regression

•
$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(\mathbf{x}) + b \text{ s.t. } y^{(n)} \approx f(\mathbf{x})$$



• Given training data $\{(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, y^{(n)})\}_{n=1}^N$ ($\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$, $y \in \mathbb{R}$) we can learn a model: $(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}) \forall n$

• We want ϕ to map the data to a space where we can fit a hyperplane to it





(Binary) linear classifiers

- Given training data $\{(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, y^{(n)})\}_{n=1}^{N} (\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{D}, y \in \{0, 1\})$ we can learn a model:
 - $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(\mathbf{x}) + b$ s.t. the hyperplane $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$ separates the classes
- We want ϕ to map the data to a space where classes can be separated by a hyperplane





Multi-dimensional output

 What if we want to perform multi-class classification or regress to a multidimensional output $f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$?

 $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(\mathbf{x}) + b$ with $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathbb{Z}}$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$

becomes

 $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{W}\phi(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}$ with with $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{Z \times K}$ and $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$

We will assume this is the default output from now on as it is more general



Feature learning

- Trying to design ϕ for a new problem can be tedious or impossible!
- What if we could learn ϕ directly from our training data?
- This is what deep learning entails. It's feature learning!
- We represent ϕ as a parameterised function $\phi_{\pmb{\theta}_f}(\mathbf{x})$ and learn $\pmb{\theta}_f$ jointly with W and \mathbf{b}

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{W}\phi(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}$$

minimise L W,b

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{W}\phi_{\theta_f}(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}$$

minimise L
 $\theta_f, \mathbf{W}, \mathbf{b}$



Deep neural networks (DNNs)

- These are non-linear models (traditionally) consisting of \mathscr{L} functional layers $(1)(\mathbf{X})$

$$f(\mathbf{X}) = f^{(\mathscr{L})} \circ f^{(\mathscr{L}-1)} \circ \dots \circ f^{(2)} \circ f^{(2)}$$

• The first $\mathscr{L} - 1$ layers form a **learnable** feature map $\phi(\mathbf{x})$. These are known as hidden layers

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}) = f^{(\mathscr{L}-1)} \dots f^{(2)} f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})$$

• The last layer is (often) a linear transformation of the features

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f^{(\mathscr{L})}(\phi(\mathbf{x})) = \mathbf{W}^{(\mathscr{L})}\phi(\mathbf{x}) + \mathbf{b}^{(\mathscr{L})}$$
$$\mathbf{x} \to f^{(1)} \to f^{(2)} \longrightarrow f^{(\mathscr{L}-1)} \xrightarrow{\phi(\mathbf{x})} f^{(\mathscr{L})}$$



The multilayer perceptron (MLP)

• A

A DNN takes the form

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = f^{(\mathscr{L})} \circ f^{(\mathscr{L}-1)} \circ \dots \circ f^{(2)} \circ f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})$$

$$\mathbf{x} \longrightarrow f^{(1)} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{h}^{(1)}} f^{(2)} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{h}^{(2)}} \underbrace{\mathbf{h}^{(2)}}_{f^{(2-1)}} \underbrace{\mathbf{h}^{(\mathscr{L}-1)}}_{\phi(\mathbf{x})} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{h}^{(\mathscr{L}-1)}}_{\phi(\mathbf{x})} \xrightarrow{\mathbf{h}^{(\mathscr{L}-1)}}_{\phi$$

- An MLP is a network where each hidden layer output $\mathbf{h}^{(l)} \in \mathbb{R}^{H_l}$ is $\mathbf{h}^{(l)} = f^{(l)}(\mathbf{h}^{(l-1)}) = g(\mathbf{W}^{(l)}\mathbf{h}^{(l-1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(l-1)})$
 - The layer input is the output of the previous layer $\mathbf{h}^{(l-1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{H_{l-1}}$
 - This undergoes a linear transformation
 - It then passes through a **non-linear activation function** g $\mathbf{a}^{(l)} = \mathbf{W}^{(l)}\mathbf{h}^{(l-1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(l)}$ is known as the pre-activation

g is called an activation function and layer outputs $\mathbf{h}^{(l)}$ are called activations

^{*l*)}) for
$$l = 1, 2, ..., \mathcal{L} - 1$$









Activation functions

- single linear transformation
- vector is individually transformed



These make our function non-linear. Without them an MLP collapses into a

• They are element-wise functions which means each element of the input





Two layer MLP

- For a 2 layer MLP with $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ and $f(\mathbf{x}) \in \mathbb{R}^K$ we have: $\mathbf{h}^{(1)} = g(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$ $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$
- We can write the whole MLP as $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{W}^{(2)}g(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)}) + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$

The form of g and the dimensionality (or width) of the hidden layer are design decisions

2 layer MLP (with pre-specified weights) for XOR

- We are going to walk through a 2 layer MLP solving a classification problem where the classes aren't linearly separable
- We will use a ReLU activation and a hidden layer with a width of 2





Layer 1: Compute the pre-activation $\mathbf{a}^{(1)} = \mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)}$ where $\mathbf{W}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$ and $\mathbf{b}_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix}$





Layer 1: Apply the non-linearity



h = g(**a**). This is ReLU so $\begin{bmatrix} h_1^{(1)} \\ h_2^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \max(0, a_1^{(1)}) \\ \max(0, a_2^{(1)}) \end{bmatrix}$





Layer 2: Just a linear classifier $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$. Let's just draw $f(\mathbf{x}) = 0$

This gives us a non-linear decision boundary in the original space



Here, we have $\mathbf{W}_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 \end{bmatrix}^{\mathsf{T}}$ (a vector)and $\mathbf{b}_2 = -0.5$ (a scalar) because its binary classification but I'm using the more general matrix/ vector notation anyway





3 layer MLP

•
$$\mathbf{h}^{(1)} = g(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$$

•
$$\mathbf{h}^{(2)} = g(\mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)})$$

1.5

1.0

0.5

× 0.0 ×

-0.5

-1.0

-1.5 + -1.5

-1.0

-0.5

0.0

 x_1

 $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$





class 0

class 1

 \bigcirc

1.0

1.5

0.5







The form of g and the width of the hidden layers are design decisions!

Credit to Oisin Mac Aodha for this example



3 layer MLP

•
$$\mathbf{h}^{(1)} = g(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$$

•
$$\mathbf{h}^{(2)} = g(\mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)})$$



1.5

1.0-

0.5 -

- 0.0 ×

-0.5

-1.0-

-1.5 -1.5

-1.0

-0.5

0.0

 x_1

 $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2$



class 1

1.0

1.5

0.5







 $\mathbf{W}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2.7 & 9.6\\ 13.6 & 11.7 \end{bmatrix}$ $\mathbf{b}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} -7.4\\ 8.0 \end{bmatrix}$

$$\mathbf{W}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} -7.9 & 11.0 \\ 7.9 & -9.9 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{b}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.8 \\ 3.2 \end{bmatrix}$$





Another 3 layer MLP

•
$$\mathbf{h}^{(1)} = g(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$$

• $\mathbf{h}^{(2)} = g(\mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)})$



• $f(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{W}^{(3)}\mathbf{h}^{(2)} + \mathbf{b}^{(3)}$



We are increasing the width of the 1st hidden layer significantly here







 $\mathbf{h}^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{100}$



Alternate view of a (2 layer) MLP

- $\mathbf{h}^{(1)} = g(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$ Sometimes you see MLPs drawn as graphs
- $\mathbf{h}^{(2)} = \mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$ Here, the elements of $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^2, \mathbf{h}^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^3, \mathbf{h}^{(2)} \in \mathbb{R}^2$ are represented by nodes
- $\begin{array}{c} & \text{h}_{1}^{(1)} \\ x_{1} \\ x_{2} \\ x_{2} \\ y_{2} \\ y_{3} \\ y_{4}^{(1)} \\ y_{2} \\ y_{3} \\ y_{4}^{(1)} \\ y_{1}^{(2)} \\ y_{1}^{(1)} \\ y_{1}^{(2)} \\ y_{1$





MLP: Layer 1

$$\mathbf{h}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} h_1^{(1)} \\ h_2^{(1)} \\ h_3^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = g(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)}) = g(\begin{bmatrix} w_{1,1}^{(1)} & w_{1,2}^{(1)} \\ w_{2,1}^{(1)} & w_{2,2}^{(1)} \\ w_{3,1}^{(1)} & w_{3,2}^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_1^{(1)} \\ b_2^{(1)} \\ b_3^{(1)} \end{bmatrix})$$



Consider one of the neurons of $\mathbf{h}^{(1)}$

It receives a weighted sum of the input neurons, to which a bias is added

This *pre-activation* goes into an activation function g

If we are using ReLU activations $g(z) = \max(0,z)$ then the pre-activation must be positive to pass through

If this happens we say that the neuron has been **activated**



MLP: Layer 2

$$\mathbf{h}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} h_1^{(2)} \\ h_2^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} = \mathbf{W}^{(2)} \mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{1,1}^{(2)} & w_{1,2}^{(2)} & w_{1,3}^{(2)} \\ w_{2,1}^{(2)} & w_{2,2}^{(2)} & w_{2,3}^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} h_1^{(1)} \\ h_2^{(1)} \\ h_3^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} b_1^{(2)} \\ b_2^{(2)} \end{bmatrix} \quad \bullet \quad \mathbf{The}^{(1)} \mathbf{h}^{(1)} \mathbf$$



ere is no activation function for the last er in this example

• It's just a matrix multiplied by a vector plus another vector

The previous layer was the same + a nonlinearity



https://www.reddit.com/r/machinelearningmemes/comments/hst89w/always_has_been/ 20



Why MLPs?

- We've gone from learning your own features to a bunch of linear transformations + activation functions
- There is a practical reason: apart from the activation function it's all just matrix multiplies which computers are very good at
- There is also theory in the form of a universal approximation theorem
- This basically tells us an MLP with at least 2 layers (and appropriate g) can represent a wide range of functions when they have the right weights

See https://www.deeplearningbook.org/contents/mlp.html 6.4.1 and https://cognitivemedium.com/magic_paper/assets/Hornik.pdf



Too good to be true?

Step 1: Use a 2 layer MLP to solve intelligence

Step 2: Use that to solve everything else

- The universal approximation theorem tells us an appropriate 2 layer MLP exists for lots of functions
- It doesn't tell us how wide the hidden layer should be or what weights to use!
- To make things worse, losses involving DNNs are generally non-convex :(
- (But this isn't actually that bad :)



https://arxiv.org/pdf/1712.09913.pdf



Going deeper

Empirically, deeper networks (those to a certain point



- Now is good time to mention that deep learning is very empirical
- There are rules of thumb for e.g. the number of layers, layer widths
- However, often you need to try stuff out (or use existing models)

Empirically, deeper networks (those with more layers) tend to work better up



Learning the parameters of a 2 layer MLP

- For $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ we can push a dataset $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ through a 2 layer MLP using $\mathbf{H}^{(1)} = g(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{W}^{(1)\top} + \mathbf{1}\,\mathbf{b}^{(1)\top})$ $\mathbf{1} \in \mathbb{R}^N$ is a vector of ones $\mathbf{H}^{(2)} = \mathbf{H}^{(1)}\mathbf{W}^{(2)\top} + \mathbf{1} \mathbf{b}^{(2)\top}$
- The learning process is very similar to that of linear models
- We pick an appropriate loss function L e.g. log loss for classification
- We then find the parameters that minimise the loss
- i.e. we solve minimise L where $\theta =$

$$\{\mathbf{W}^{(1)}, \mathbf{b}^{(1)}, \mathbf{W}^{(2)}, \mathbf{b}^{(2)}\}$$



The chain rule

- We can solve minimise L for $\theta = \{\mathbf{W}^{(1)}, \mathbf{b}^{(1)}, \mathbf{W}^{(2)}, \mathbf{b}^{(2)}\}$ using GD θ
- This involves computing gradients
- We can obtain expressions for these using the chain rule



$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} L = \left\{ \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(1)}} \right)^{\mathsf{T}}, \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{b}^{(1)}} \right)^{\mathsf{T}}, \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(2)}} \right)^{\mathsf{T}}, \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{b}^{(2)}} \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \right\}$$

$\partial L \partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)}$	∂L	$\partial L \partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)}$
$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \partial \mathbf{W}^{(2)}$	$\partial \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \partial \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$
$\partial L \partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \partial \mathbf{H}^{(1)}$	∂L	$\partial L \partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \partial \mathbf{F}$
$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \partial \mathbf{H}^{(1)} \partial \mathbf{W}^{(1)}$	$\partial \mathbf{b}^{(1)}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \partial \mathbf{H}^{(1)} \partial \mathbf{h}$

Warning! There be Jacobians. We aren't going to delve into what these terms actually look like on this course.





Automatic differentiation

- Computers can perform automatic differentiation (/auto-diff/autograd/magic)
- We don't need to work out closed form expressions for any derivatives!

imgflip.com

∂L	$\partial L \partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)}$	
$\partial \mathbf{W}^{(2)}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \partial \mathbf{W}^{(2)}$	
∂L	$\partial L \partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \partial \mathbf{H}^{(1)}$	7
$\partial \mathbf{W}^{(1)}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \partial \mathbf{H}^{(1)} \partial \mathbf{W}^{(1)}$)
∂L	$\partial L \partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)}$	0
$\partial \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \partial \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$	
∂L	$\partial L \partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \ \partial \mathbf{H}^{(1)}$	<u>Gand</u>
$\partial \mathbf{b}^{(1)}$ =	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(2)} \partial \mathbf{H}^{(1)} \partial \mathbf{b}^{(1)}$	





Learning the parameters of an ${\mathscr L}$ layer MLP

- For a dataset matrix \mathbf{X} our \mathscr{L} layer MLP is given by: $\mathbf{H}^{(l)} = g^{(l)}(\mathbf{H}^{(l-1)}\mathbf{W}^{(l)\top} + \mathbf{1} \mathbf{b}^{(l)\top}) \text{ for } l = 1, 2, ..., \mathscr{L}$
- $\mathbf{H}^{(0)} = \mathbf{X}$ and $g^{(l)}$ is a non-linear activation function e.g. ReLU for all layers but the last, which is typically the identity function
- The loss function takes in $\mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}$ (and some labels/targets) and we want to solve minimise L where $\boldsymbol{\theta} = {\{\mathbf{W}^{(l)}, \mathbf{b}^{(l)}\}}_{l=1}^{\mathscr{L}}$

$$\begin{array}{c} \boldsymbol{\theta} \\ \mathbf{X} \longrightarrow f^{(1)} & \stackrel{\mathbf{H}^{(1)}}{\longrightarrow} & f^{(2)} & \stackrel{\mathbf{H}^{(2)}}{\longrightarrow} & \stackrel{\mathbf{H}^{(2$$





More chain rule!



- To use GD we need to compute V_{θ}
- We start with the last layer and can use the chain rule to write $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{W}(\mathscr{L})} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{H}(\mathscr{L})} \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}(\mathscr{L})}{\partial \mathbf{W}(\mathscr{L})}$
- now, knowing we can obtain the **b** gradients in the same way



See Murphy p435 if you're curious about the transposes. **Otherwise, don't worry about them :)**

$$\mathbf{p}L = \left\{ \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(l)}} \right)^{\mathsf{T}}, \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{b}^{(l)}} \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \right\}_{l=1}^{\mathscr{L}}$$

∂L	∂L	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}$
$\partial \mathbf{b}^{(\mathscr{L})}$ –	$\partial \mathbf{H}(\mathscr{L})$	$\partial \mathbf{b}^{(\mathscr{L})}$

These expression are very similar so I'll just consider the W gradients for



What c	do y	ou n	otice	?
∂L	∂L	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}$		
$\partial \mathbf{W}(\mathscr{L})$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}$	$\partial \mathbf{W}(\mathscr{L})$		
∂L	∂L	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L}-1)}$	
$\partial \mathbf{W}(\mathcal{L}-1)$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathcal{L}-1)}$	$\partial \mathbf{W}(\mathcal{L}-1)$)
∂L	∂L	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L}-1)}$	∂H
$\partial \mathbf{W}(\mathcal{L}-2)$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathcal{L}-1)}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathcal{L}-2)}$	∂W
∂L	∂L	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L}-1)}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(n)}$
$\partial \mathbf{W}(\mathcal{L}-3)$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathcal{L}-1)}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L}-2)}$	∂H
∂L	∂L	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L}-1)}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(0)}$
$\partial \mathbf{W}(\mathscr{L}-4)$	$\partial \mathbf{H}(\mathscr{L})$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L}-1)}$	$\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L}-2)}$	∂H

- $[(\mathscr{L}-3) \partial \mathbf{W}(\mathscr{L}-3)]$ $(\mathscr{L}^{-2}) \partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L}^{-3})} \partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L}^{-4})}$ $[(\mathcal{L}-3) \partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathcal{L}-4)} \partial \mathbf{W}^{(\mathcal{L}-4)}]$
- $[(\mathscr{L}-2) \partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L}-3)}]$
- $J(\mathcal{L}-2)$
- $(\mathcal{L}-2)$



The same terms keep cropping up



the same terms

. We can iteratively compute $G^{(l-1)} = G^{(l)} \frac{\partial H^{(l)}}{\partial H^{(l-1)}}$ so we don't have to repeatedly calculate the same terms



The backpropagation algorithm

- Goal: Obtain gradients $\nabla_{\theta} L = \left\{ \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{W}(l)} \right)^{\mathsf{T}}, \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{h}(l)} \right)^{\mathsf{T}} \right\}_{l=1}^{\mathscr{L}}$
- Compute $\mathbf{G}^{(\mathscr{L})} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{H}^{(\mathscr{L})}}$
- For l in \mathscr{L} . $\mathscr{L} 1$2.1:

1. Compute $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(l)}} = \mathbf{G}^{(l)} \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}^{(l)}}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(l)}}$ and $\frac{\partial L}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(l)}} = \mathbf{G}^{(l)} \frac{\partial \mathbf{H}^{(l)}}{\partial \mathbf{h}^{(l)}}$ 2. Compute $\mathbf{G}^{(l-1)} = \mathbf{G}^{(l)}$ $\partial \mathbf{H}^{(l-1)}$

See Murphy Section 13.3 for a more detailed and rigorous description!





SGD for neural network training

of this SGD is typically used for DNN training. The procedure is:

- Initialise DNN weights at random e.g. from a normal distribution
- For e in range(E):
 - Split dataset into equal sized mini-b
 - For b in range(B):

1. Compute $\nabla_{\theta} L(\theta, \mathbf{X}^{(b)}, \mathbf{y}^{(b)})$ using backpropagation

2. Update $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \alpha \nabla_{\theta} L(\theta, \mathbf{X}^{(b)}, \mathbf{y}^{(b)})$

Storing lots of activations for a whole dataset $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times D}$ can be expensive. Because

batches
$$\{\mathbf{X}^{(b)}, \mathbf{y}^{(b)}\}_{b=1}^{B}$$
 at random

Each outer loop across the whole dataset is known as an epoch





Other optimisers are available

- e.g. the Adam optimiser (pictured right)
- Almost all take the gradients from backprop and do something with them
- You don't need to know about any optimisers other than GD and SGD for this course





DNNs can overfit

- DNNs can represent lots of functions. They are high capacity models
- They are very susceptible to overfitting!
- Remember, we care about a model's ability to generalise to unseen data
- Regularisation is very important in DNNs!





Early stopping

- Fitting to the test set is not allowed
- We can however look at the validation set throughout training as a proxy
- The model starts to overfit once validation loss stops decreasing with train loss
- We can stop training at this point

This looks very similar to the last figure!

Over training models tend to underfit and then overfit to the training data







Weight decay

- Models that overfit tend to have large weights
- To mitigate this, we multiply all the weights by $1-\lambda$ whenever we perform an update step in e.g. SGD
- λ is the amount of weight decay as is usually very small e.g. 10^{-4}
- This is basically equivalent to having L2 regularisation in the loss function



Why deep learning of all things?

- A benchmark in computer vision is classification performance on ImageNet
- It is a 1000-way classification task with 1 million training images
- For the 2012 ImageNet challenge:
 - The 2nd place model used handcrafted features and got 26.2% top 5-error
 - The 1st place model used a deep neural network and got 15.3% top 5error (& 36.7% top 1-error)



https://arxiv.org/pdf/1409.0575.pdf



AlexNet (2012)

- constraints (that no longer exist :))
- 5 convolutional layers, 3 max pools (interspersed), and 3 linear layers



• The winning entry. It's split into two streams for 2 GPUs because of memory



ImageNet top-1 accuracies



The transformer architecture (2017)



https://arxiv.org/abs/1706.03762



Vision transformers



https://arxiv.org/pdf/2010.11929v2.pdf





https://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/thumb/0/04/ChatGPT_logo.svg/1200px-ChatGPT_logo.svg.png



Why not use deep learning for everything?

- With enough data, DNNs beat other ML approaches for learning on images, text, and audio data
- DNNs are often surpassed by decision tree-based models on tabular data
- DNN are near-impossible to interpret, so when this is required a linear model is preferable
- DNNs need lots of data to train from scratch which we may not have!
- DNNs are very expensive to train
- We can however use their features for related tasks



Summary

- We have considered learning our features instead of using a pre-existing map
- We have seen how the structure of a DNN facilitates feature learning
- We have looked at the MLP architecture and worked through some examples
- We have found out how to train an MLP using backpropagation + SGD
- We looked at different ways to regularise DNNs



The end (of the lectures)

- You have visualised and analysed data
- You have considered the ethical implications of deploying ML in society
- You have learnt about linear models for classification and regression
- You have learnt about non-parametric and non-linear models
- You have written code to use these models



