## CPSC 340: Machine Learning and Data Mining

Deep Learning Fall 2016

# Admin

- Assignment 5:
  - Due Friday.
- Assignment 6:
  - Due next Friday.
- Final:
  - December 12 (8:30am HEBB 100)
  - Covers Assignments 1-6.
  - Final from last year and list of topics will be posted.
  - Closed-book, cheat sheet: 4-pages each double-sided.



#### Autoencoders

- Autoencoders are an unsupervised deep learning model:
  - Use the inputs as the output of the neural network.



- Middle layer could be latent features in non-linear latent-factor model.

• Can do outlier detection, data compression, visualization, etc.

http://inspirehep.net/record/1252540/plots



#### **Denoising Autoencoder**

• **Denosing autoencoders** add noise to the input:



- Learns a model that can remove the noise.

## **Deep Learning Practicalities**

- This lecture focus on deep learning practical issues:
  - Backpropagation to compute gradients.
  - Stochastic gradient training.
  - Regularization to avoid overfitting.
- Next lecture:
  - Special 'W' restrictions to further avoid overfitting.

#### Last Time: Backpropagation with 1 Hidden Layer

• Squared loss our objective function with 1 layer and 1 example:

$$f(w, W) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{c=1}^{k} w_c h(W_c x_i) - y_i \right)^2$$

• Gradient with respect to element of vector 'w'.

$$\frac{2}{2} \left[ f(u, W) \right] = \left( \sum_{c=1}^{k} w_c h(W_c x_i) - y_i \right) h(W_c x_i) = r_i h(W_c x_i)$$

• Gradient with respect to element of matrix 'W'.

$$2W_{cj}\left[f(u,W)\right] = \left(\sum_{c=1}^{k} w_c h(W_c x_i) - y_i\right) w_c h'(W_c x_i) x_{ij} = r_i v_c x_{ij}$$

• Only r<sub>i</sub> changes if you aren't using squared error.

#### Last Time: Backpropagation with 1 Hidden Layer

• Squared loss our objective function with 1 layer and 1 example:

$$f(w, W) = \frac{1}{2} \left( \sum_{c=1}^{k} w_{c} h(W_{c} x_{i}) - y_{i} \right)^{2}$$

• Gradient with respect to elements of vector 'w' and 'W':

$$\frac{2}{2W_{c}}\left[f(u,W)\right] = r_{i}h(W_{c}x_{i}) \quad \frac{2}{2W_{cj}}\left[f(u,W)\right] = r_{i}V_{c}X_{ij} \qquad \text{with } r_{i} = \sum_{c=i}W_{c}h(W_{c}x_{i}) - y_{c}X_{ij}$$
and  $V_{c} = W_{c}h'(W_{c}x_{i})$ 

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- Backpropagation algorithm:
  - Forward propagation computes  $z_i = h(W_c x_i)$  then  $w^T z_i$ .
  - Backpropagation step 1: use  $r_i$  to get gradient of 'w'.
  - Backpropagation step 2: use  $r_i$  and  $v_c$  to get gradient of 'W'.

## Backpropagation with 2 Hidden Layer

- General objective function with 2 layers and 1 example:  $f(w, W'', W'') = f_i(w^T h(W'') h(W'')x_i))$
- Gradient with respect to element of matrix  $W^{(2)'}$ :  $\int_{W_{c_j}}^{Q} \left[ f(w_j W^{(i)}_{j} W^{(j)}_{j}) = f_{i_j} \left( w^{\tau} h(W^{(i)}_{j} h(W^{(i)}_{j} x_i)) \right) w_c h'(W_c^{(i)} h(W^{(i)}_{j} x_i)) + \left( W_j^{(i)} x_i \right) g_{z_j}^{(i)} = r v_c z_j^{(i)}$
- Gradient with respect to element of matrix 'W<sup>(1)</sup>':

$$2W_{c_{j}}^{(i)} \left[ f(w_{j}W^{(i)}) W^{(i)} \right] = f_{i}^{(i)} \left[ w_{i}^{(i)} h(W^{(i)} x_{i}) \right] \sum_{c'=1}^{k} \left[ w_{c'} h'(W_{c'}^{(i)} h(W^{(i)} x_{i})) W_{c'c}^{(i)} h'(W_{c}^{(i)} x_{i}) x_{ij} \right] = r \left( \sqrt{u_{c}} x_{i} \right)$$

#### Last Time: Backpropagation with 3 Hidden Layers

• General objective function with 3 layers and 1 example:

$$f(w,W^{(3)},W^{(2)},W^{(\prime)}) = f_i(w^{7}h(W^{(3)}h(W^{(\prime)}h(W^{(\prime)}x_i))))$$

• Gradients have the form:

$$\begin{array}{ll}
\frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{c}} = r z_{c}^{(3)} & 2f \\
\frac{\partial w_{c}}{\partial w_{c}} = r z_{c}^{(2)} & 2f \\
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\frac{\partial f}{\partial w_{c,i}}$$

- Backpropagation algorithm:  $\bullet$ 
  - Forward propagation computes 'r' and  $z^{(m)}$  for all 'm'.
  - Backpropagation step 1: use 'r' to get gradient of 'w'.
  - Backpropagation step 2: use  $a_c$  to get gradient of W<sup>(3)</sup>.
  - Backpropagation step 3: use  $b_c$  to get gradient of  $W^{(2)}$ .
  - Backpropagation step 4: use  $d_c$  to get gradient of  $W^{(1)}$ .

#### Last Time: Backpropagation with 3 Hidden Layers

- Backpropagation algorithm:
  - Forward propagation computes 'r' and  $z^{(m)}$  for all 'm'.
  - Backpropagation step 1: use r to get gradient of 'w'.
  - Backpropagation step 2: use  $a_c$  to get gradient of W<sup>(3)</sup>.
  - Backpropagation step 3: use  $b_c$  to get gradient of  $W^{(2)}$ .
  - Backpropagation step 4: use  $d_c$  to get gradient of  $W^{(1)}$ .
- Cost of backpropagation:
  - Forward pass dominated by multiplications by  $W^{(1)}$ ,  $W^{(2)}$ ,  $W^{(3)}$ , and 'w'.
    - If have 'm' layers and all  $z_i$  have 'k' elements, cost would be O(dk + mk<sup>2</sup>).
  - Backward pass has same cost.
- For multi-class or multi-label classification, replace 'w' by matrix.
  - Softmax loss is called "cross entropy" in neural network papers.

## Last Time: ImageNet Challenge

- ImageNet challenge:
  - Use millions of images to recognize 1000 objects.
- ImageNet organizer visited UBC summer 2015.
- "Besides huge dataset/model/cluster, what is the most important?"
  - 1. Image transformations (translation, rotation, scaling, lighting, etc.).
  - 2. Optimization.
- Why would optimization be so important?
  - Neural network objectives are highly non-convex (and worse with depth).
  - Optimization has huge influence on quality of model.

## Stochastic Gradient Training

- Standard training method is stochastic gradient (SG):
  - Choose a random example 'i'.
  - Use backpropagation to get gradient with respect to all parameters.
  - Take a small step in the negative gradient direction.
- Challenging to make SG work:
  - Often doesn't work as a "black box" learning algorithm.
  - But people have developed a lot of tricks/modifications to make it work.
- Highly non-convex, so are the problem local mimina?
  - Some empirical/theoretical evidence that local minima are not the problem.
  - If the network is "deep" and "wide" enough, we think all local minima are good.
  - But it can be hard to get SG to even find a local minimum.

### Parameter Initialization

- Parameter initialization is crucial:
  - Can't initialize weights in same layer to same value, or they will stay same.
    Can't initialize weights too large, it will take too long to learn.
- A traditional random initialization:
  - Initialize bias variables to 0.
  - Sample from standard normal, divided by 10<sup>5</sup> (0.00001\*randn).
  - Performing multiple initializations does not seem to be important.
- Popular approach from 10 years ago:
  - Initialize with deep unsupervised model (like autoencoders).

## Parameter Initialization

- Parameter initialization is crucial:
  - Can't initialize weights in same layer to same value, or they will stay same.
    Can't initialize weights too large, it will take too long to learn.
- Also common to standardize data:
  - Subtract mean, divide by standard deviation, "whiten", standardize y<sub>i</sub>.
- More recent initializations try to standardize initial z<sub>i</sub>:
  - Use different initialization in each layer.
  - Try to make variance of  $z_i$  the same across layers.
  - Use samples from standard normal distribution, divide by sqrt(2\*nInputs).
  - Use samples from uniform distribution on [-b,b], where b =

$$= \frac{\sqrt{6}}{\sqrt{k^{(m)} + k^{(m-1)}}}$$

#### Setting the Step-Size

- Stochastic gradient is very sensitive to the step size in deep models.
- Common approach: manual "babysitting" of the step-size.
  - Run SG for a while with a fixed step-size.
  - Occasionally measure error and plot progress:



- If error is not decreasing, decrease step-size.

### Setting the Step-Size

- Stochastic gradient is very sensitive to the step size in deep models.
- More automatic method is **Bottou trick**:
  - 1. Grab a small set of training examples (maybe 5% of total).
  - 2. Do a binary search for a step size that works well on them.
  - 3. Use this step size for a long time (or slowly decrease it from there).
- Several recent methods using a step size for each variable:

– AdaGrad, RMSprop, Adam.

### Setting the Step-Size

- Stochastic gradient is very sensitive to the step size in deep models.
- Bias step-size multiplier: use bigger step-size for the bias variables.
- Momentum:
  - Add term that moves in previous direction:

$$W^{t+1} = W^t - \alpha^t \nabla f_i(w^t) + \beta^t(w^t - w^{t-1})$$

- Batch size (number of random examples) also influences results.
- Another recent trick is **batch normalization**:
  - Try to "standardize" the hidden units within the random samples as we go.

skeep going in the

## Vanishing Gradient Problem

- Consider the sigmoid function:
  Away from the origin, the gradient is nearly zero.
  - Away nom the origin, the gradient is hearly zero.
- The problem gets worse when you take the sigmoid of a sigmoid:



• In deep networks, many gradients can be nearly zero everywhere.

## Rectified Linear Units (ReLU)

terp (-Wrx)

• Replace sigmoid with hinge-like loss (ReLU):  $\bigwedge M_{\alpha x} \frac{\delta O}{N_{c} x_{i} \delta}$ 

- The gradient is zero or x<sub>i</sub>, depending on the sign.
  - Fixes vanishing gradient problem.
  - Gives sparser of activations.
  - Not really simulating binary signal, but could be simulating rate coding.

## Deep Learning and the Fundamental Trade-Off

- Neural networks are subject to the fundamental trade-off:
  - As we increase the depth, training error decreases.
  - As we increase the depth, training error no longer approximates test error.
- We want deep networks to model highly non-linear data.
  - But increasing the depth leads to overfitting.
- How could GoogLeNet use 22 layers?
  - Many forms of regularization and keeping model complexity under control.

### Standard Regularization

• We typically add our usual L2-regularizers:

$$f(w_{1}W^{(3)},W^{(2)},W^{(1)}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (w^{i}h(W^{(3)}h(W^{(2)}h(W^{(1)}x_{i}))) - y_{i})^{2} + \frac{1}{2} ||w||^{2} + \frac{1}{2} ||w^{(3)}||_{F}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} ||w^{(2)}||_{F}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} ||w^{(2)}||_{F}$$

- L2-regularization is called "weight decay" in neural network papers.
   Could also use L1-regularization.
- "Hyper-parameter" optimization:
  - Try to optimize validation error in terms of  $\lambda_1$ ,  $\lambda_2$ ,  $\lambda_3$ ,  $\lambda_4$ .
- Unlike linear models, typically use multiple types of regularization.

# Early Stopping

- Second common type of regularization is "early stopping":
  - Monitor the validation error as we run stochastic gradient.
  - Stop the algorithm if validation error starts increasing.



### Dropout

- **Dropout** is a more recent form of regularization:
  - On each iteration, randomly set some x<sub>i</sub> and z<sub>i</sub> to zero (often use 50%).



(a) Standard Neural Net (b) After applying dropout. — Encourages distributed representation rather than using specific z<sub>i</sub>.

## **Convolutional Neural Networks**

- Typically use multiple types of regularization:
  - L2-regularization.
  - Early stopping.
  - Dropout.
- Often, still not enough to get deep models working.
- Deep computer vision models are all convolutional neural nets:
  - The W<sup>(m)</sup> are very sparse and have repeated parameters ("tied weights").
  - Drastically reduces number of parameters (speeds up training).

## Summary

- Autoencoders are unsupervised neural net latent-factor models.
- Parameter initialization is crucial to neural net performance.
- Optimization and step size are crucial to neural net performance.
- **Regularization** is crucial to neural net performance:
  - L2-regularization, early stopping, dropout.
- Next time:
  - Convolutions, convolutional neural networks, and rating selfies.