Course 395: Machine Learning - Lectures

Lecture 1-2: Concept Learning (M. Pantic)

Lecture 3-4: Decision Trees & CBC Intro (M. Pantic & S. Petridis)

Lecture 5-6: Evaluating Hypotheses (S. Petridis)

Lecture 7-8: Artificial Neural Networks I (S. Petridis)

Lecture 9-10: Artificial Neural Networks II (S. Petridis)

Lecture 11-12: Instance Based Learning (M. Pantic)

Lecture 13-14: Genetic Algorithms (M. Pantic)

Neural Networks

Reading:Machine Learning (Tom Mitchel) Chapter 4

•Pattern Classification (Duda, Hart, Stork) Chapter 6 (strongly to advised to read 6.1, 6.2, 6.3, 6.8)

Further Reading:

•Pattern Recognition and Machine Learning by C. Bishop, Springer, 2006 (chapter: 5)

•Neural Networks (Haykin)

•Neural Networks for Pattern Recognition (C. Bishop)

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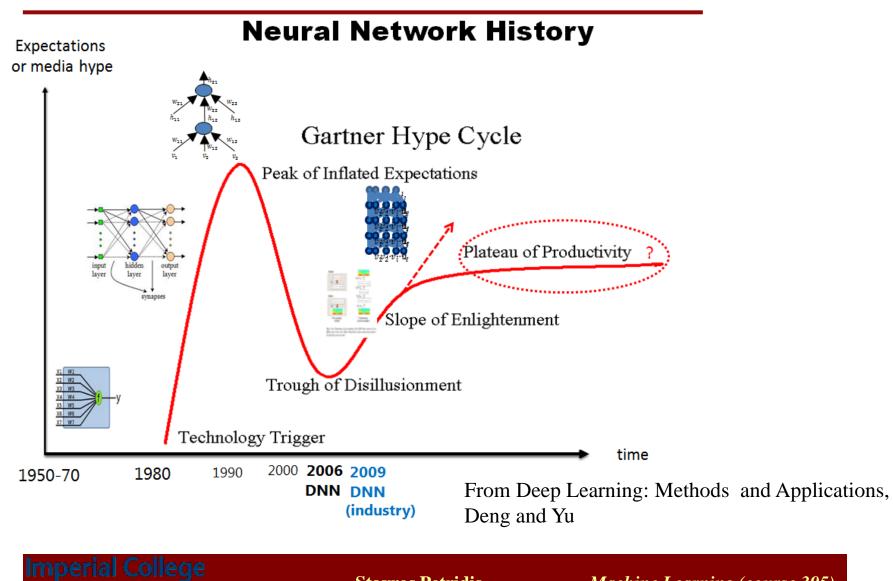
History

- 1st generation Networks: Perceptron 1957 1969
- Perceptron is useful only for examples that are linearly separable
- •2nd generation Networks: Feedforward Networks and other variants, beginning of 1980s to middle/end of 1990s
 - Difficult to train, many parameters, similar performance to SVMs

Machine Learning (course 395)

- 3rd generation Networks: Deep Networks 2006 ?
 - New approach to train networks with multiple layers
 - State of the art in object recognition / speech recognition

Hype Cycle

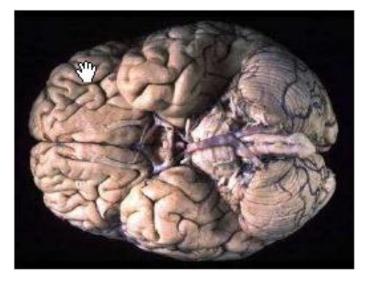


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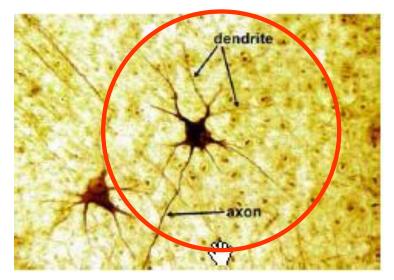
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What are Neural Networks?

The real thing!



10 billion neurons



Local computations on interconnected elements (neurons)

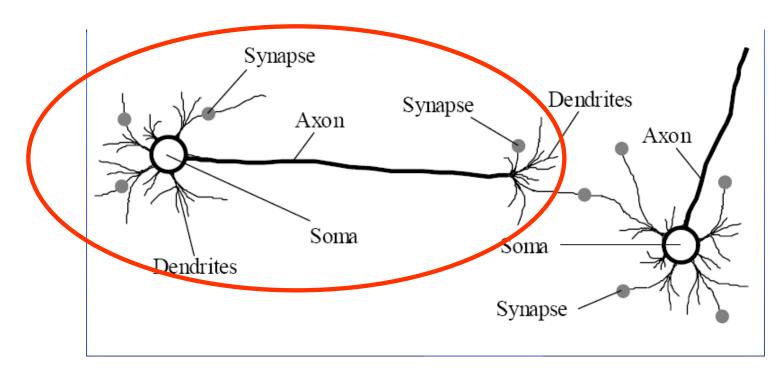
Parallel computation

- neuron switch time 0.001sec
- recognition tasks performed in 0.1 sec.

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Biological Neural Networks

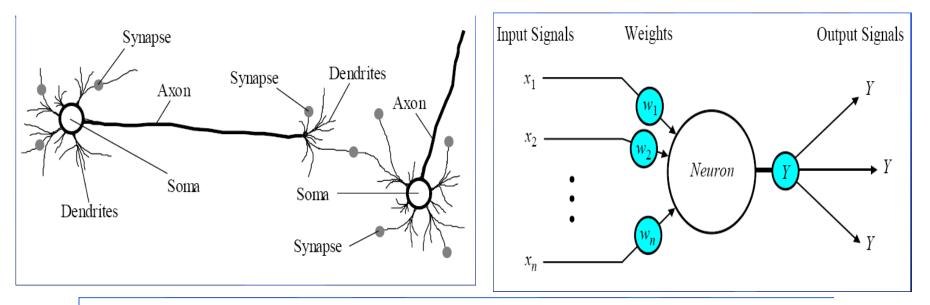


A network of interconnected biological neurons.

Connections per neuron $10^4 - 10^5$

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Biological vs Artificial Neural Networks



Blological Neural Network	Artificial Neural Network
Soma	Neuron
Dendrite	Input
Axon	Output
Synapse	Weight

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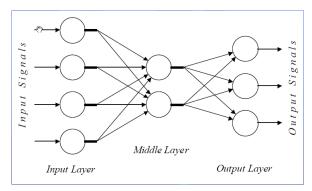
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Artificial Neural Networks: the dimensions

Architecture

How are the neurons connected

The Neuron



How information is processed in each unit. output = f(input)

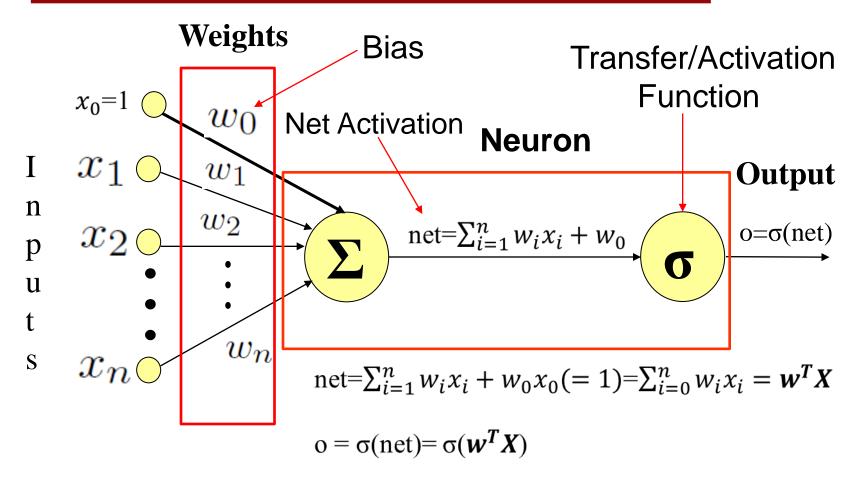
Learning algorithms

How a Neural Network modifies its **weights** in order to solve a particular **learning task** in a set of **training examples**

The goal is to have a Neural Network that **generalizes** well, that is, that it generates a 'correct' output on a set of **test/new examples/inputs**.



The Neuron

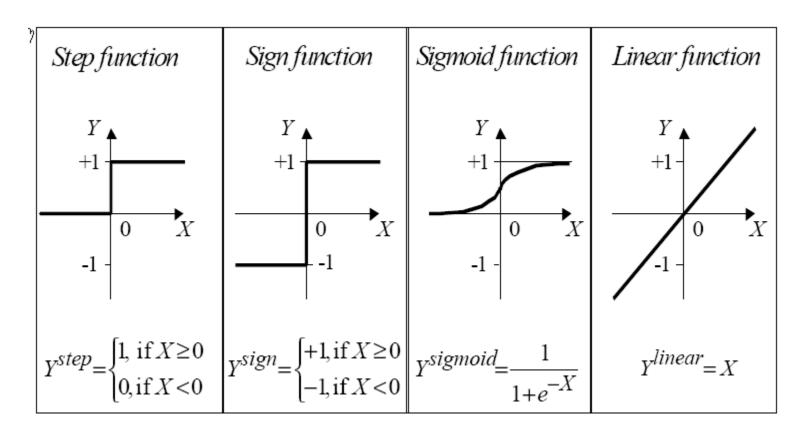


• Main building block of any neural network

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Activation functions

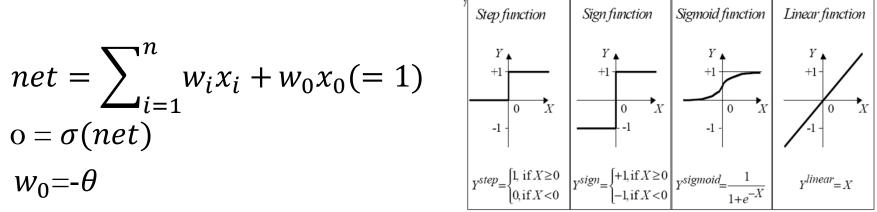


$$X = net = \sum_{i=1}^{n} w_i x_i + w_0, \quad Y = o = \sigma(net)$$

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Role of Bias



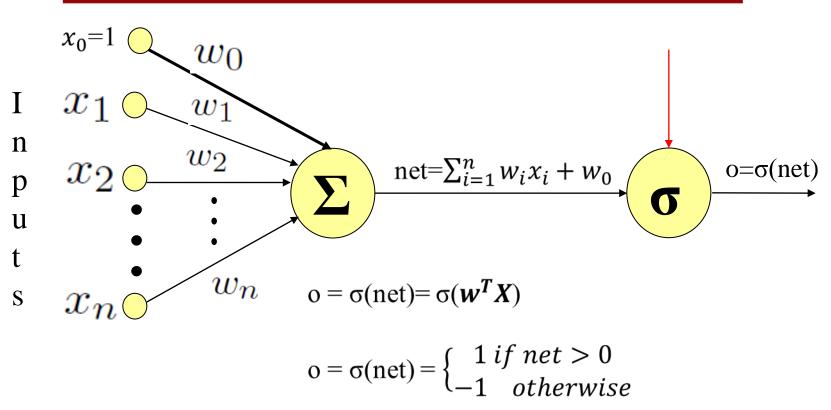
- The threshold where the neuron fires should be adjustable
- Instead of adjusting the threshold we add the bias term
- Defines how strong the neuron input should be before the neuron fires

$$o = \begin{cases} 1 \ if \ \sigma\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} x_{i}\right) \geq \theta \\ 0 \ if \ \sigma\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} x_{i}\right) < \theta \end{cases} \quad o = \begin{cases} 1 \ if \ \sigma\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} x_{i} - \theta\right) \geq 0 \\ 0 \ if \ \sigma\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} w_{i} x_{i} - \theta\right) < 0 \end{cases}$$

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Perceptron



• $\sigma = sign/step/function$

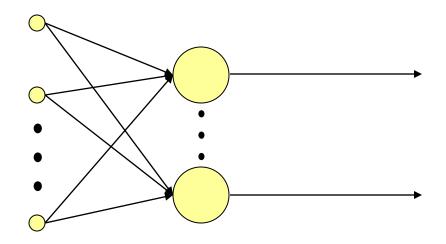
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 Perceptron = a neuron that its input is the dot product of W and X and uses a step function as a transfer function
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Perceptron: Architecture

• Generalization to single layer perceptrons with more neurons is easy because:

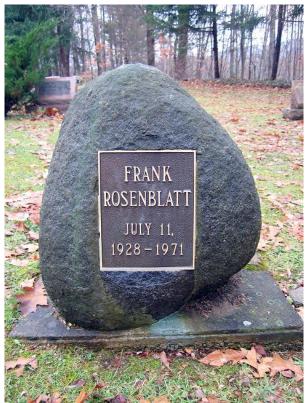


- The output units are mutually independent
- Each weight only affects one of the outputs

Perceptron

- Perceptron was invented by Rosenblatt
- *The Perceptron--a perceiving and recognizing automaton*, 1957

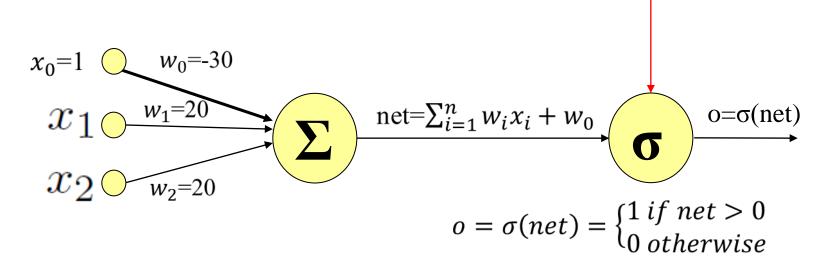




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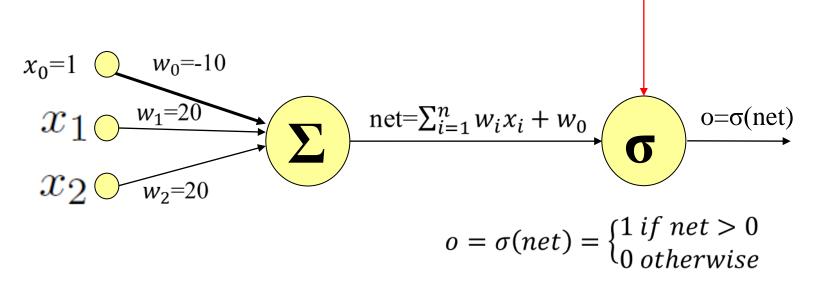
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Perceptron: Example 1 - AND



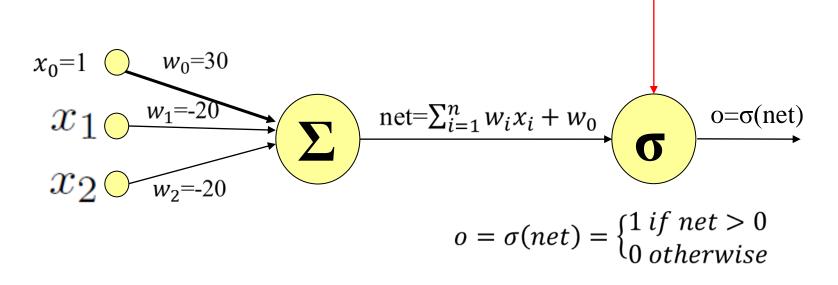
- $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1 \rightarrow \text{net} = 20 + 20 30 = 10 \rightarrow 0 = \sigma(10) = 1$
- $x1 = 0, x2 = 1 \rightarrow net = 0 + 20 30 = -10 \rightarrow 0 = \sigma(-10) = 0$
- $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0 \rightarrow \text{net} = 20 + 0 30 = -10 \rightarrow 0 = \sigma(-10) = 0$
- $x1 = 0, x2 = 0 \rightarrow net = 0 + 0 30 = -30 \rightarrow o = \sigma(-10) = 0$

Perceptron: Example 2 - OR



- $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1 \rightarrow \text{net} = 20 + 20 10 = 30 \rightarrow 0 = \sigma(30) = 1$
- $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1 \rightarrow \text{net} = 0 + 20 10 = 10 \rightarrow 0 = \sigma(10) = 1$
- $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0 \rightarrow \text{net} = 20 + 0 10 = 10 \rightarrow 0 = \sigma(10) = 1$
- $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0 \rightarrow \text{net} = 0 + 0 10 = -10 \rightarrow 0 = \sigma(-10) = 0$

Perceptron: Example 3 - NAND



• $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 1 \rightarrow \text{net} = -20 - 20 + 30 = -10 \rightarrow 0 = \sigma(-10) = 0$

- $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 1 \rightarrow \text{net} = 0.20 + 30 = 10 \rightarrow 0 = \sigma(10) = 1$
- $x_1 = 1, x_2 = 0 \rightarrow \text{net} = -20 + 0 + 30 = 10 \rightarrow 0 = \sigma(10) = 1$
- $x_1 = 0, x_2 = 0 \rightarrow \text{net} = 0 + 0 + 30 = 30 \rightarrow 0 = \sigma(30) = 1$

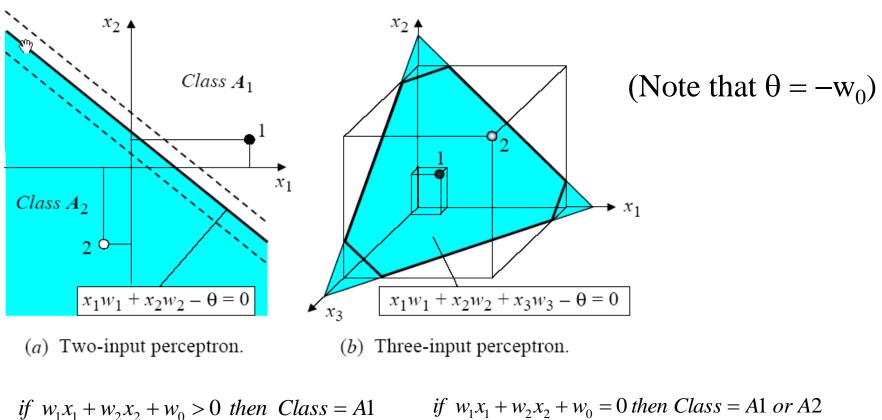
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Perceptron for classification

- Given training examples of classes C_1 , C_2 train the perceptron in such a way that it classifies correctly the training examples:
 - If the output of the perceptron is 1 then the input is assigned to class C_1 (i.e. if $\sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}) = 1$)
 - If the output is 0 then the input is assigned to class C_2

• Geometrically, we try to find a hyper-plane that separates the examples of the two classes. The hyper-plane is defined by the linear function

Perceptron: Geometric view



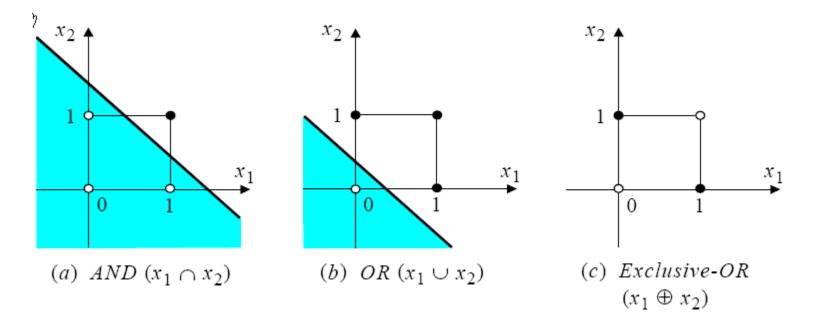
if $w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_0 < 0$ *then* Class = A2

if $w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_0 = 0$ then Class = A1 or A2depends on our definition

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Perceptron: The limitations of perceptron



- Perceptron can only classify examples that are linearly separable
- The XOR is not linearly separable.
- This was a terrible blow to the field

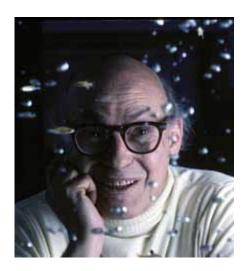
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Perceptron

- A famous book was published in 1969: **Perceptrons**
- Caused a significant decline in interest and funding of neural network research
 - Marvin Minsky



• Seymour Papert



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Perceptron XOR Solution

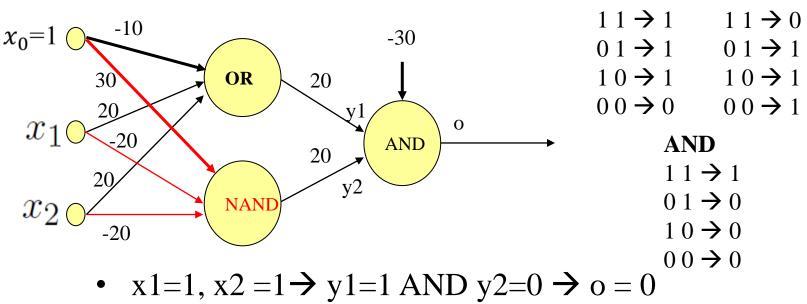
• XOR can be expressed in terms of AND, OR, NAND



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Perceptron XOR Solution

- XOR can be expressed in terms of AND, OR, NAND
- XOR = NAND (AND) OR



- $x_{1=1}, x_{2=0} \rightarrow y_{1=1} \text{ AND } y_{2=1} \rightarrow o = 1$
- $x1=0, x2=1 \rightarrow y1=1 \text{ AND } y2=1 \rightarrow o=1$
- $x1=0, x2=0 \rightarrow y1=0 \text{ AND } y2=1 \rightarrow o=0$

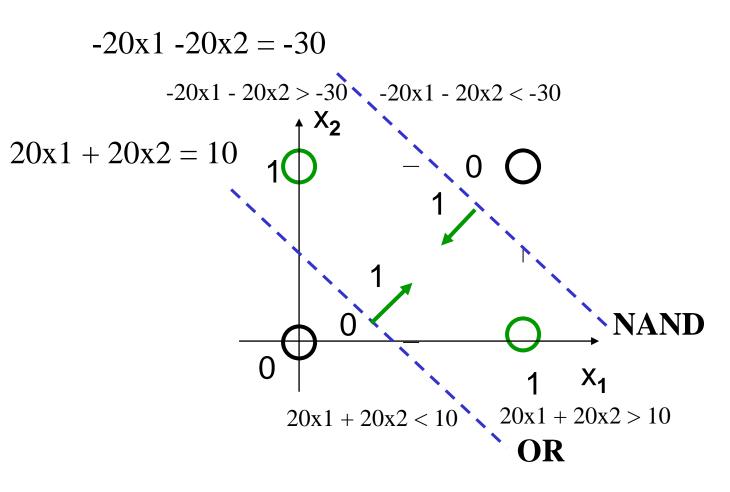
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NAND

OR

XOR

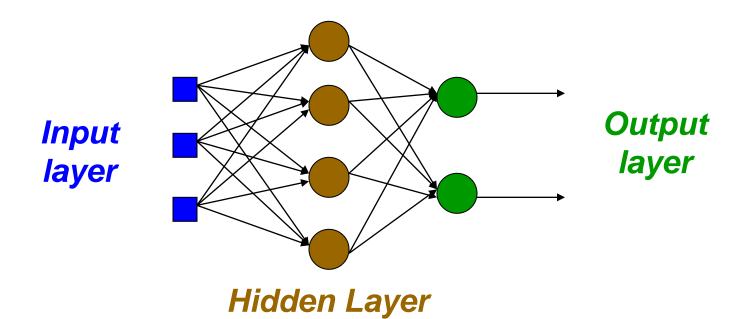




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Multilayer Feed Forward Neural Network

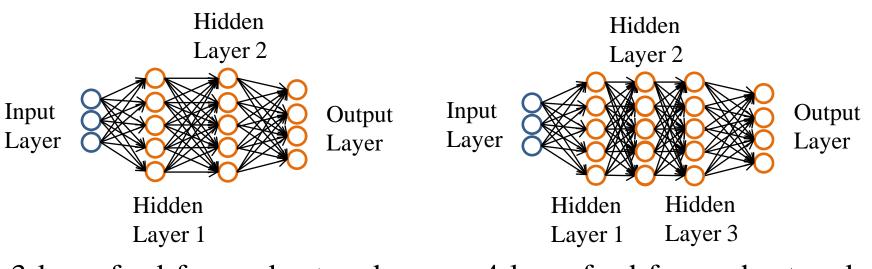
- We consider a more general network architecture: between the input and output layers there are hidden layers, as illustrated below.
- Hidden nodes do not directly receive inputs nor send outputs to the external environment.



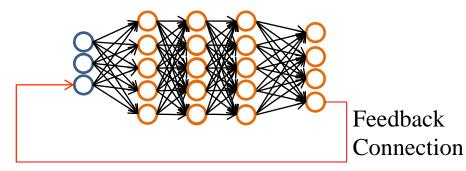
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NNs: Architecture



3-layer feed-forward network



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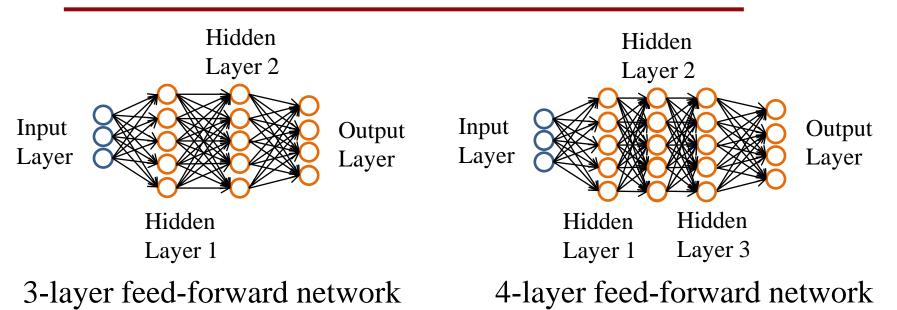
4-layer feed-forward network

• The input layer does not count as a layer

4-layer recurrent network – Difficult to train

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NNs: Architecture



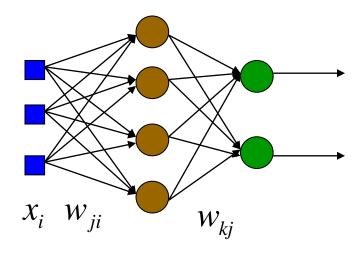
• Deep networks are simply networks with many layers.

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• They are trained in the same way as shallow networks but weight initialisation is done in a different way.

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Multilayer Feed Forward Neural Network



$$y_j = \sigma\left(\sum_{i=0}^n x_i w_{ji}\right)$$

$$o_{k} = \sigma \left(\sum_{j=1}^{nH} y_{j} w_{kj} \right)$$
$$o_{k} = \sigma \left(\sum_{j=1}^{nH} \sigma \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} x_{i} w_{ji} \right) w_{kj} \right)$$

- W_{ji} = weight associated with *i*th input to hidden unit *j*
- W_{kj} = weight associated with *j*th input to output unit *k*
- \mathcal{Y}_j = output of *j*th hidden unit
- O_k = output of *k*th output unit
- n = number of inputs
- nH = number of hidden neurons

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Example

• http://galaxy.agh.edu.pl/~vlsi/AI/backp_t_en/backprop.html



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Representational Power of Feedforward Neural Networks

- Boolean functions: Every boolean function can be represented exactly by some network with two layers
- Continuous functions: Every bounded continuous function can be approximated with arbitrarily small error by a network with 2 layers
- Arbitrary functions: Any function can be approximated to arbitrary accuracy by a network with 3 layers
- Catch: We do not know 1) what the appropriate number of hidden neurons is, 2) the proper weight values

$$O_k = \sigma\left(\sum_{j=1}^{nH} \sigma\left(\sum_{i=0}^n x_i w_{ji}\right) w_{kj}\right)$$

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Classification / Regression with NNs

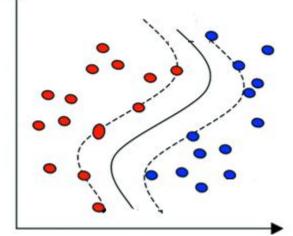
• You should think of neural networks as function approximators

$$o_k = \sigma \left(\sum_{j=1}^{nH} \sigma \left(\sum_{i=0}^n x_i w_{ji} \right) w_{kj} \right)$$

Classification

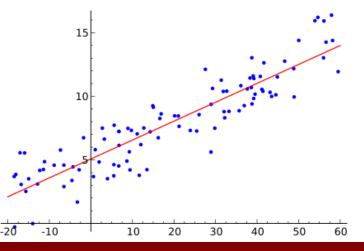
-Decision boundary approximation -Discrete output

-e.g., apple-VS-oranges classifier



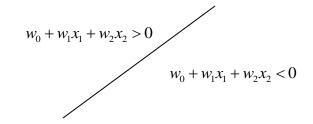
Regression

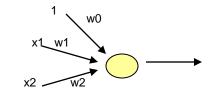
- Function approximation
- Continuous output
- e.g., house price estimation



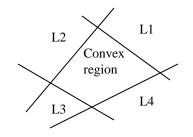
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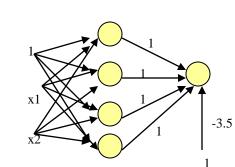
Decision boundaries



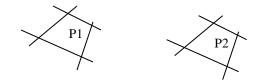


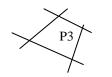




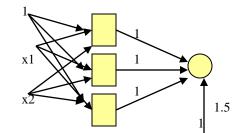


One-hidden layer network that realizes the convex region: each hidden node realizes one of the lines bounding the convex region





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two-hidden layer network that realizes the union of three convex regions: each box represents a one hidden layer network realizing one convex region

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Output Representation

• Binary Classification

Target Values (t): 0 (negative) and 1 (positive)

• Regression

Target values (t): continuous values [-inf, +inf]

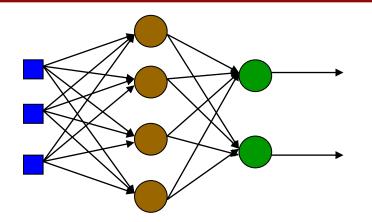
• Ideally $o \approx t$

$$o_k = \sigma \left(\sum_{j=1}^{nH} \sigma \left(\sum_{i=0}^n x_i w_{ji} \right) w_{kj} \right)$$



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Multiclass Classification



Target Values: vector (length=no. Classes)

Class1 Class2 Class3 Class4

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

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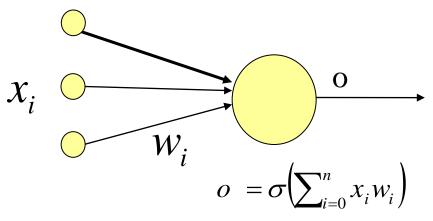
Training

- We have assumed so far that we know the weight values
- We are given a training set consisting of inputs and targets (**X**, **T**)
- Training: Tuning of the weights (w) so that for each input pattern (x) the output (o) of the network is close to the target values (t).

$$o \approx t$$

$$o = \sigma \left(\sum_{j=1}^{nH} \sigma \left(\sum_{i=0}^{n} x_i w_{ji} \right) w_{kj} \right)$$

Perceptron Training Rule



- Training Set: A set of input vectors $x_i, i = 1...n$ with the corresponding targets t_i
- η: learning rate, controls the change rate of the weights
- Begin with random weights
- Change the weights whenever an example is misclassified

 $w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i$ $\Delta w_i = \eta (t_i - o) x_i$

- This rule works if the examples are linearly seperable
 - for every input vector x(i) the output is the desired target o = t

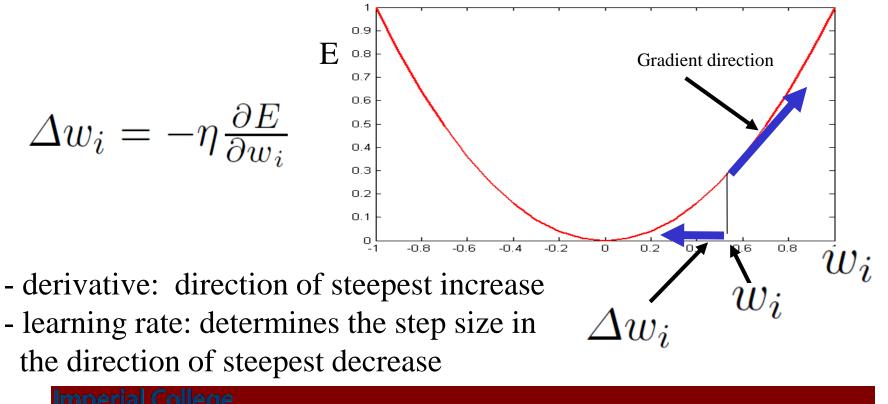
Training – Gradient Descent

- In most problems the training examples are NOT linearly separable. Therefore, we need a different approach to adjust the weights \rightarrow Gradient Descent
- Gradient Descent: A general, effective way for estimating parameters (e.g. w) that minimise error functions
- We need to define an error function E(w)
- Update the weights in each iteration in a direction that reduces the error the order in order to minimize E

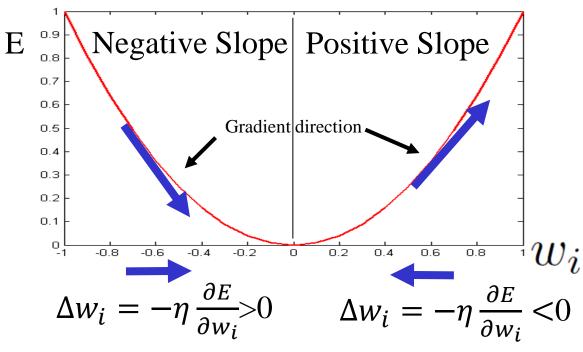
$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i$$
$$\Delta w_i = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i}$$

Gradient Descent

Gradient descent method: take a step in the direction that decreases the error E. This direction is the opposite of the derivative of E.



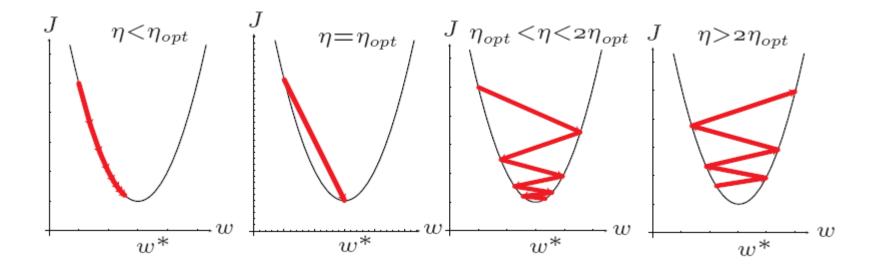
Gradient Descent – Learning Rate



- Derivative: direction of steepest increase
- Learning rate: determines the step size in the direction of steepest decrease. It usually takes small values, e.g. 0.01, 0.1
- If it takes large values then the weights change a lot -> network unstable

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Gradient Descent – Learning Rate



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Gradient Descent

• We define our error function as follows (D = number of training examples):

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d=1}^{D} (t_d - o_d)^2$$

- We assume linear activation transfer
- E depends on the weights because $o_d = \sum_{i=0}^n x_i^d w_i$
- We wish to find the weight values that minimise E, i.e. the desired target *t* is very close to the actual output *o*.

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Gradient Descent

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d=1}^{D} (t_d - o_d)^2 \qquad \Delta w_i = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i}$$

• The partial derivative can be computed as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \in D} (t_d - o_d)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \in D} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (t_d - o_d)^2 \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \in D} 2(t_d - o_d) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (t_d - o_d) \\ &= \sum_{d \in D} (t_d - o_d) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_i} (t_d - \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x_d}) \\ &\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i} &= \sum_{d \in D} (t_d - o_d) (-x_{id}) \end{aligned}$$

• Therefore Δw is $\Delta w_i = \eta \sum_{d=1}^{D} (t_d - o_d) x_{id}$

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Gradient Descent -Perceptron- Summary

- 1. Initialise weights randomly
- 2. Compute the output *o* for all the training examples
- 3. Compute the weight update for each weight

$$\Delta w_i = \eta \sum_{d=1}^{D} (t_d - o_d) x_{id}$$

4. Update the weights

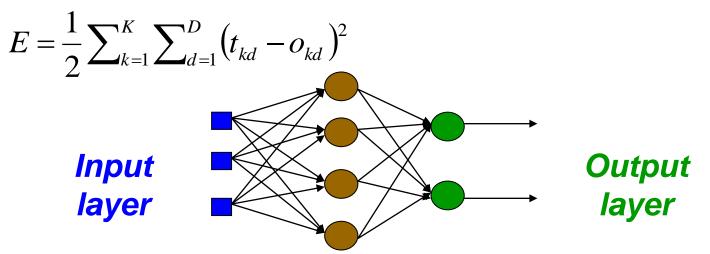
$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i$$

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- Repeat steps 2-4 until a termination condition is met
- The algorithm will converge to a weight vector with minimum error, given that the learning rate is sufficiently small

Learning: The backpropagation algorithm

• The Backprop algorithm searches for weight values that minimize the total squared error of the network (K outputs) over the set of D training examples (training set).



• Based on gradient descent algorithm $w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i \quad \Delta w_i = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i}$

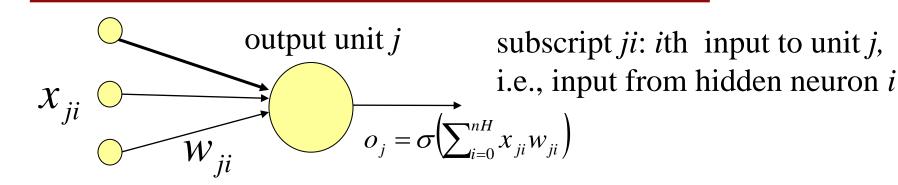
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Learning: The backpropagation algorithm

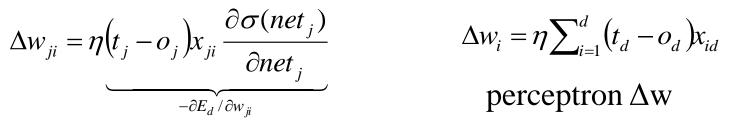
- Backpropagation consists of the repeated application of the following two passes:
 - Forward pass: in this step the network is activated on one example and the error of (each neuron of) the output layer is computed.
 - Backward pass: in this step the network error is used for updating the weights (credit assignment problem). This process is complex because hidden nodes are linked to the error not directly but by means of the nodes of the next layer. Therefore, starting at the output layer, the error is propagated backwards through the network, layer by layer.

Learning: Output Layer Weights



- Consider the error of one pattern d: $E_d = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{K} (t_k o_k)^2$
- Using exactly the same approach as in the perceptron

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• The only difference is the partial derivative of the sigmoid activation function (we assumed linear activation \rightarrow derivative =1)

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Learning: Hidden Layer Weights

• We define the error term for the output k: $\delta_k = (t_k - o_k) \frac{\partial \sigma(net_k)}{\partial net_k}$ •Reminder: $\Delta w_{kj} = \eta (t_k - o_k) x_{kj} \frac{\partial \sigma(net_k)}{\partial net_k}$ Note that $j \rightarrow k$, $i \rightarrow j$, *i.e.* j: hidden unit Input signals k: output unit x_1 $\blacktriangleright y_1$ x_2 $\blacktriangleright y_2$ • The error term for hidden W_{ii} W_{ii} $\rightarrow y_k$ x_i unit *j* is: $\sum_{putNeuonsConnecotdToj} \frac{\partial \sigma(net_j)}{\partial net_j}$ **→** *Y*_l $\delta_i =$ x_n Hidden Output Input k=outputNeuonsConnectdToj laver layer layer Error signals

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Learning: Hidden Layer Weights

- We define the error term for the output $k: \delta_k = (t_k o_k) \frac{\partial \sigma(net_k)}{\partial net_k}$
- Reminder: $\Delta w_{ki} = \eta (t_k o_k) x_{ki} \frac{\partial \sigma(net_k)}{\partial net_k} = \eta \delta_k x_{ki}$
- *x* is the input to output unit *k* from hidden unit *i*
- Similarly the update rule for weights in the input layer is $\Delta w_{ji} = \eta \delta_j x_{ji}$ $\delta_j = \sum_{k=outputNeuonsConnectdToj} \frac{\partial \sigma(net_j)}{\partial net_j}$
 - *x* is the input to hidden unit *j* from input unit *i*

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Example

• http://galaxy.agh.edu.pl/~vlsi/AI/backp_t_en/backprop.html



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Learning: Backpropagation Algorithm

• Finally for all training examples D

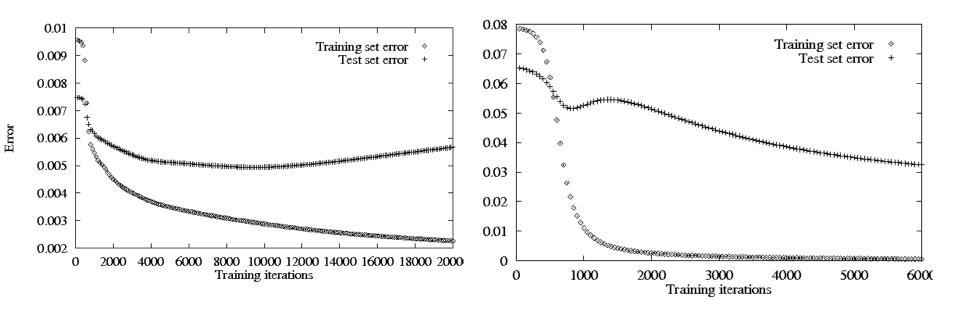
 $\Delta w_i^{\text{for all examples}} = \sum_{d=1}^D \Delta w_i$

- This is called batch training because the weights are updated after all training examples have been presented to the network (=epoch)
- Matlab function: traingd
- Incremental training: weights are updated after each training example is presented

Backpropagation Stopping Criteria

- When the gradient magnitude (or Δw_i) is small, i.e. $\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i} < \delta \text{ or } \Delta w_i < \delta$
- When the maximum number of epochs has been reached
- When the error on the validation set increases for *n* consecutive times (this implies that we monitor the error on the validation set). This is called early stopping.

Early stopping



- Stop when the error in the validation set increases (but not too soon!)
- Error might decrease in the training set but increase in the 'validation' set (overfitting!)
- It is also a way to avoid overfitting.

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Backpropagation Summary

- 1. Initialise weights randomly
- 2. For each input training example *x* compute the outputs (forward pass)
- 3. Compute the output neurons errors and then compute the update rule for output layer weights (backward pass)

 $\Delta w_{ki} = \eta \delta_k x_{ki}$

4. Compute hidden neurons errors and then compute the update rule for hidden layer weights (backward pass)

$$\Delta w_{ji} = \eta \delta_j x_{ji}$$

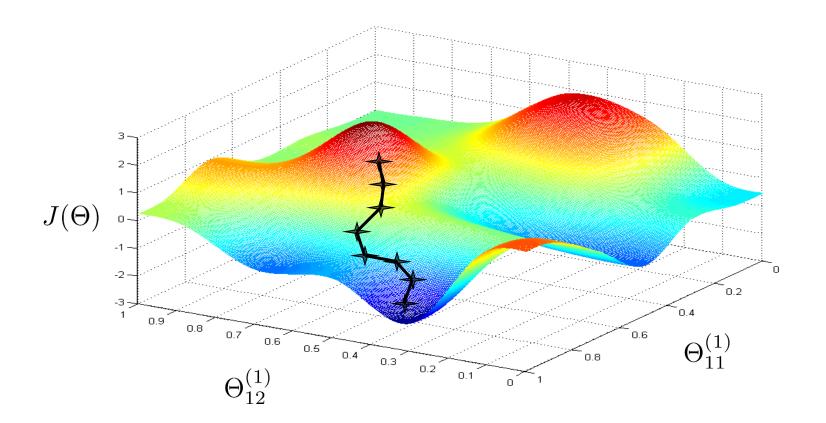
Backpropagation Summary

- 5. Compute the sum of all Δw , once all training examples have been presented to the network
- 6. Update weights $w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i$
- 7. Repeat steps 2-6 until the stopping criterion is met

Backpropagation: Convergence

- Converges to a local minimum of the error function
 - ... can be retrained a number of times
- Minimises the error over the training examples
 - ...will it generalise well over unknown examples?
- Training requires thousands of iterations (slow)
 - ... but once trained it can rapidly evaluate output

Backpropagation: Error Surface

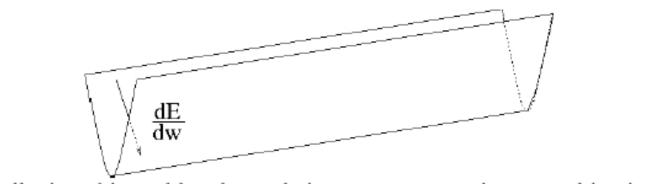


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Backpropagation with momentum

- Standard backpropagation $w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i \quad \Delta w_i = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i}$
- If the error surface is a long and narrow valley, gradient descent goes quickly down the valley walls, but very slowly along the valley floor.



From https://www.cs.toronto.edu/~hinton/csc2515/notes/lec6tutorial.pdf

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Backpropagation with momentum

- Standard backpropagation $w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i \quad \Delta w_i = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i}$
- Backpropagation with momentum

$$\Delta w_{i} = \mu \, \Delta w_{i-1} + (1-\mu) \left(-\eta \, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{i}} \right)$$

- μ = momentum constant, usually 0.9, 0.95
- It is like giving momentum to the weights
- We do not take into account only the local gradient but also recent trends in the error surface
- Matlab function: **traingdm**

Backpropagation with adaptive learning rate

• It is good that the learning rate is not fixed during training

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i \quad \Delta w_i = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i}$$

- Simple heuristic
 - 1. If error decreases, increase learning rate: $\eta = \eta * \eta_{inc}$
 - 2. If error increases, decrease learning rate and don't update the weights: $\eta = \eta * \eta_{dec}$
- Typical values for $\eta_{inc} = 1.05, 1.1$
- Typical values for $\eta_{dec} = 0.5, 0.7$
- Matlab function: traingda

Resilient Backpropagation

- The weight change depends on the learning rate and the value of the partial derivative. We have no control over the partial derivative.
- The effect of the learning rate can be disturbed by the unforeseeable behaviour of the derivative.
- Resilient backpropagation uses only the sign of the derivative!!
- For each weight w_i we define an individual update value Δ_i which depends only on the sign of the derivative and ignores its actual value

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Resilient Backpropagation

$$\Delta_{i}(t) = \begin{cases} \Delta^{inc} * \Delta_{i}(t-1) \ if \ \frac{\partial E^{t-1}}{\partial w_{i}} \ * \frac{\partial E^{t}}{\partial w_{i}} > 0 \\ \Delta^{dec} * \Delta_{i}(t-1) \ if \ \frac{\partial E^{t-1}}{\partial w_{i}} \ * \frac{\partial E^{t}}{\partial w_{i}} < 0 \end{cases} \int_{u_{i}}^{u_{i}(t-1)} \int_{u_{i}(t-1)}^{u_{i}(t-1)} \int_{u_{i}(t-1)}^{u_{i}(t-1)}$$

- Every time the partial derivative changes its sign, i.e., last update was too big, the update value is decreased.
- If the derivative retains its sign, the update value is increased in order to accelerate convergence.

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Resilient Backpropagation

- We also need to initialise the update values Δ_i
- We usually define an upper limit for Δ_i
- Typical values for $\Delta_{inc} = 1.2$
- Typical values for $\Delta_{dec} = 0.5$
- Matlab function: **trainrp**

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Parameters / Weights

- Parameters are what the user specifies, e.g. number of hidden neurons, learning rate, number of epochs etc
- They need to be optimised
- Weights are the weights of the network
- They are also parameters but they are optimised automatically via gradient descent

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Ways to avoid overfitting

- Early stopping (see slide 52)
- Regularisation
 - Penalise large weights, keep the weights small

$$E = \gamma \left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{d=1}^{D} (t_d - o_d)^2\right) + (1 - \gamma) \left(\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{noWeights} (w_i)^2\right)$$



Vanishing/Exploding gradient

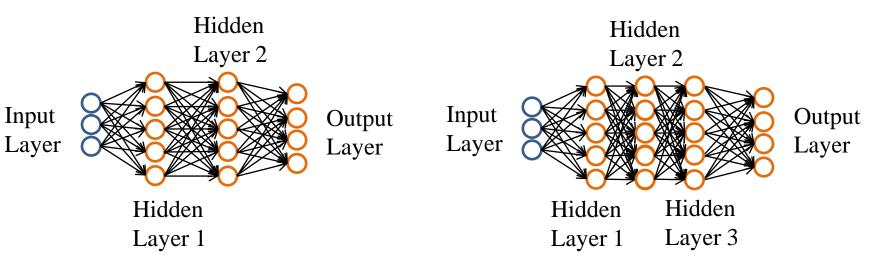
$$\Delta w_{ji} = \eta \delta_j x_{ji}$$
$$\delta_j = \sum_{k=outputNeuonsConnectdToj} \delta_k w_{kj} \frac{\partial \sigma(net_j)}{\partial net_j}$$

- As we backpropagate through many layers:
- 1. If the weights are small $\rightarrow \delta_i$ shrink exponentially
- 2. If the weights are big -> δ_i grow exponentially
- So either the network stops learning (case 1) or becomes unstable (case 2)
- That is why it is not possible to train deep networks with backpropagation

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Deep NNs



3-layer feed-forward network

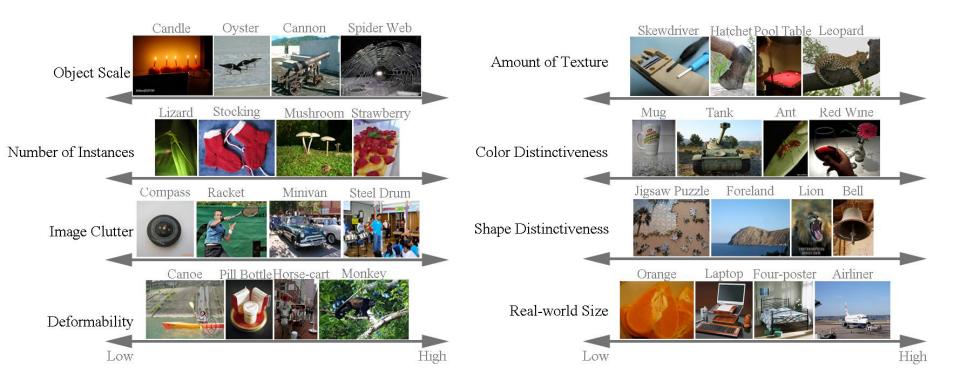
4-layer feed-forward network

- There is a pre-training phase where weights are initialised to a good starting point.
- Pre-training is performed per layer using Restricted Boltzman Machines
- Then backpropagation is used to fine-tune the weights starting from a good initialisation point.

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ImageNet Competition – Object Classification



- Classification of 1000+ objects
- State-of-the-art before 2012: ~26%
- New state-of-the-art in 2012 with deep networks: ~15%

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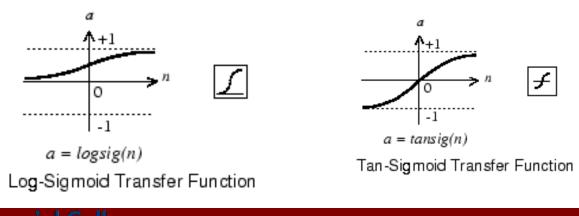
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Deep NNs Applications

- Deep Face by Facebook State of the art in Face verification
 - DeepFace: Closing the Gap to Human-Level Performance in Face Verification, Taigman, Ming, Ranzato, Wolf
- State-of-the-art performance in Speech Recognition
 Microsoft has done a lot of research on this topic

Practical Suggestions: Activation Functions

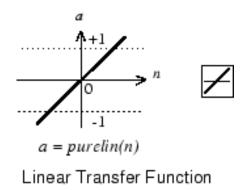
- Continuous, smooth (essential for backpropagation)
- Nonlinear
- Saturates, i.e. has a min and max value
- Monotonic (if not then additional local minima can be introduced)
- Sigmoids are good candidate (log-sig, tan-sig)



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Practical Suggestions: Activation Functions

• In case of regression then output layer should have linear activation functions





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- It is not desirable that some inputs are orders of magnitude larger than other inputs
- Map each input x(i) to [-1, +1] using this formula $y = 2 \frac{x - x_{min}}{x_{max} - x_{min}} - 1$
- Matlab function: *mapminmax*
 - Rows: features, columns: examples
 - Normalises each row

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• Standardize inputs to mean=0 and 1 std. dev.=1

 $y = \frac{x - x_{mean}}{x_{std}}$

- Matlab function: *mapstd*
- Scaling is needed if inputs take very different values. If e.g., they are in the range [-3, 3] then scaling is probably not needed

- The scaling values, x_{min} , x_{max} , x_{mean} , x_{std} are computed on the training set and then applied to the validation and test sets.
- It is not correct to scale each set separately.



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- Matlab automatically scales the inputs to [-1, 1] and removes the inputs/outputs that are constant.
- Think if you wish to scale the inputs, if not you should disable the automatic scaling
- Check http://www.mathworks.co.uk/help/nnet/ug/chooseneural-network-input-output-processing-functions.html

Practical Suggestions: Target Values

- Binary Classification
 - Target Values : -1/0 (negative) and 1 (positive)
 - 0 for log-sigmoid, -1 for tan-sigmoid
- Multiclass Classification
 - [0,0,1,0] or [-1, -1, 1, -1]
 - 0 for log-sigmoid, -1 for tan-sigmoid
- Regression

Target values: continuous values [-inf, +inf]

Practical Suggestions: Number of Hidden Layers

- Networks with many hidden layers are prone to overfitting and they are also harder to train
- For most problems one hidden layer should be enough
- 2 hidden layers can sometimes lead to improvement

Division of data

- Matlab automatically divides the dataset into training/validation/test sets.
- You should force matlab to use an empty test set (you have your own) and use the same validation set as yours.
- You can provide the indices of your validation set and your test set (=empty array)
- Check http://www.mathworks.co.uk/help/nnet/ug/divide-datafor-optimal-neural-network-training.html

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Matlab Examples

- Create feedforward network
 - net = feedforwardnet(hiddenSizes,trainFcn)
 - hiddenSizes = [10, 10, 10] 3 layer network with 10 hidden neurons in each layer
 - trainFcn = 'trainlm', 'traingdm', 'trainrp' etc
- Configure (set number of input/output neurons)
 - net = configure(net,x,t)
 - x: input data, noFeatures x noExamples
 - t: target data, noClasses x noEx

Matlab Examples

- Train network
 - [net,tr] = train(net,P,T)
 - P: input data
 - T: target data
- Simulate network
 - [Y,Pf,Af,E,perf] = sim(net,P)

Matlab Examples

- Batch training: Train
- Stochastic/Incremental Training: Adapt
- Use Train for the CBC

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