Topics:

- Gradient Descent
- Neural Networks

CS 4644-DL / 7643-A ZSOLT KIRA

Assignment 1 out!

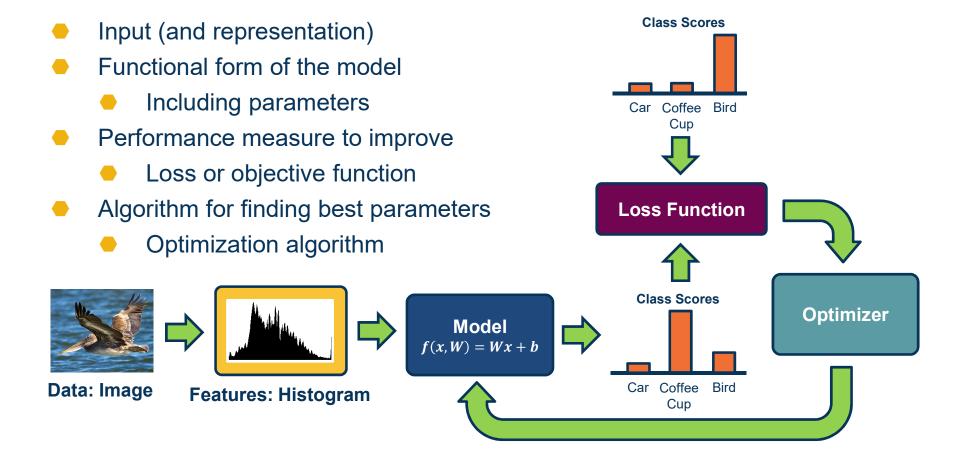
- Due date extended to Feb 5th (7th with grace period)
- Start now, start now!
- Start now, start now!
- Start now, start now!

Piazza

Be active!!!

Office hours

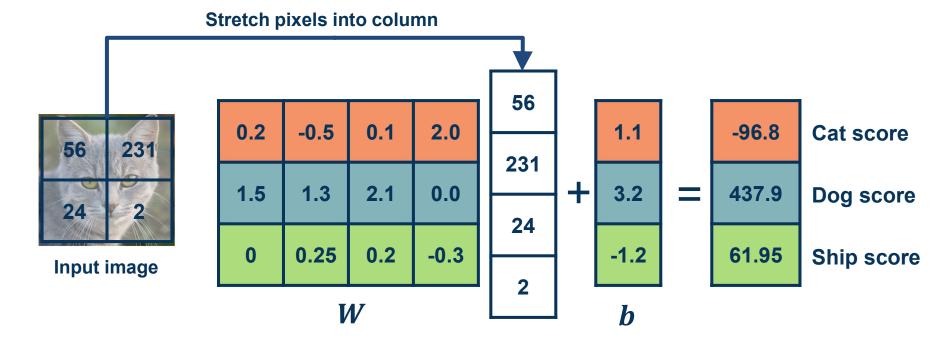
- Lots of special topics (e.g. PSO, Assignment 1, research paper discussion, etc.)
- Note: Course starting to get math heavy!



Components of a Parametric Model

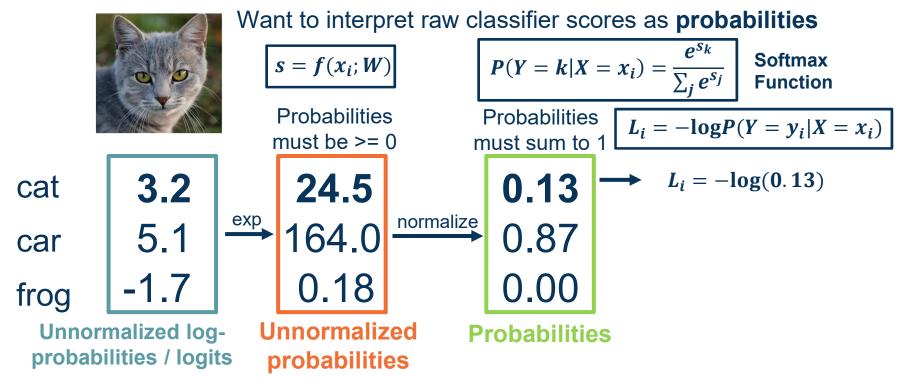


Example with an image with 4 pixels, and 3 classes (cat/dog/ship)





Softmax Classifier (Multinomial Logistic Regression)





Often, we add a regularization term to the loss function

L1 Regularization

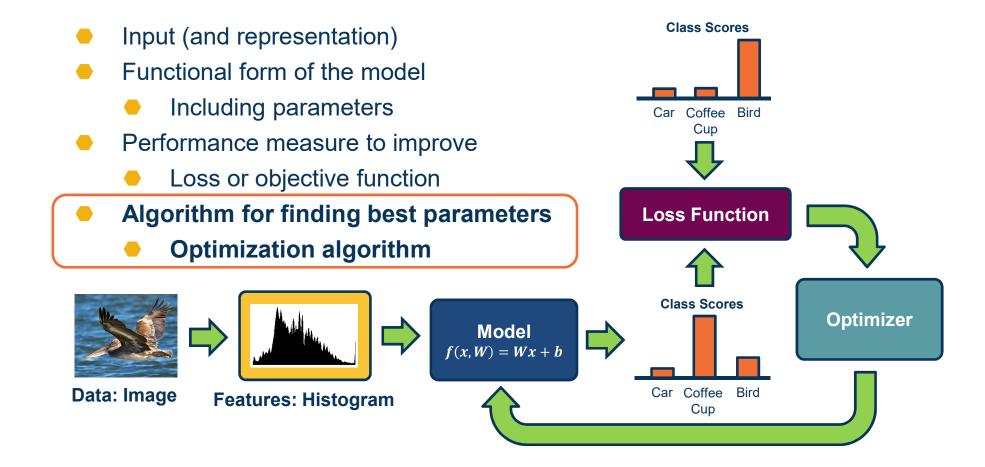
$$L_i = |y - Wx_i|^2 + |W|$$

Example regularizations:

L1/L2 on weights (encourage small values)

Gradient Descent





Components of a Parametric Model



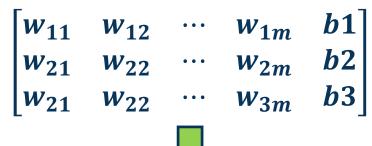
Given a model and loss function, finding the best set of weights is a **search problem**

 Find the best combination of weights that minimizes our loss function

Several classes of methods:

- Random search
- Genetic algorithms (population-based search)
- Gradient-based optimization

In deep learning, **gradient-based methods are dominant** although not the only approach possible





Loss

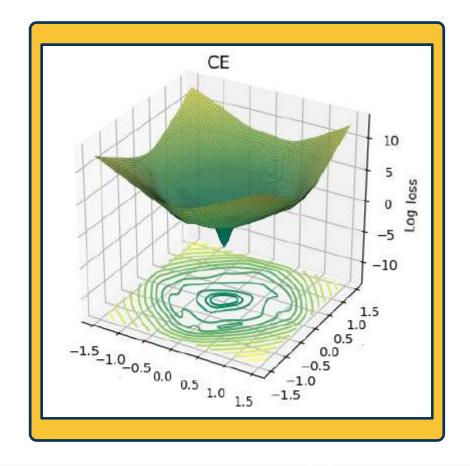
Optimization



As weights change, the loss changes as well

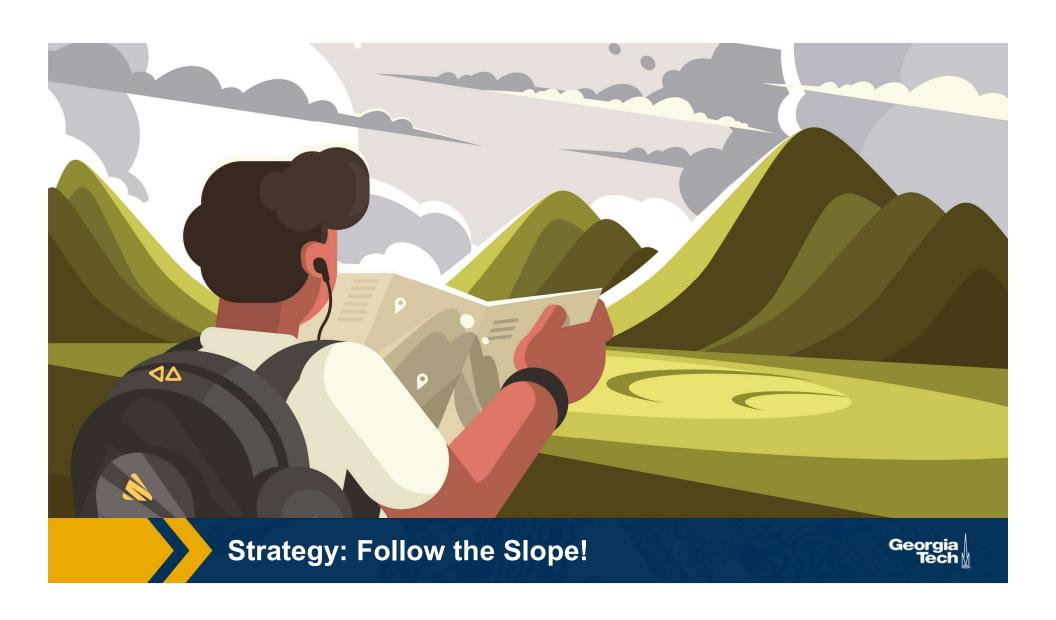
 This is often somewhatsmooth locally, so small changes in weights produce small changes in the loss

We can therefore think about iterative algorithms that take current values of weights and modify them a bit



Loss Surfaces

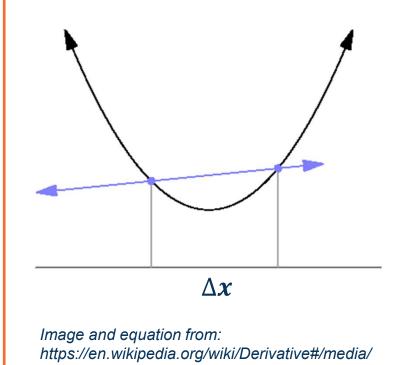




We can find the steepest descent direction by computing the derivative (gradient):

$$f'(a) = \lim_{h \to 0} \frac{f(a+h) - f(a)}{h}$$

- Steepest descent direction is the **negative** gradient
- **Intuitively:** Measures how the function changes as the argument a changes by a small step size
 - As step size goes to zero
- In Machine Learning: Want to know how the loss function changes as weights are varied
 - Can consider each parameter separately by taking partial derivative of loss function with respect to that parameter



File:Tangent animation.gif

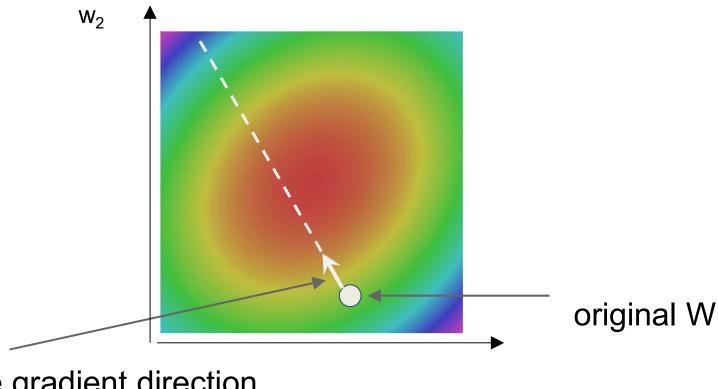
Derivatives



This idea can be turned into an algorithm (gradient descent)

- Choose a model: f(x, W) = Wx
- Choose loss function: $L_i = |y Wx_i|^2$
- Calculate partial derivative for each parameter: $\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}$
- Update the parameters: $w_i = w_i \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}$
- Add learning rate to prevent too big of a step: $w_i = w_i \alpha \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}$
- Repeat (from Step 3)

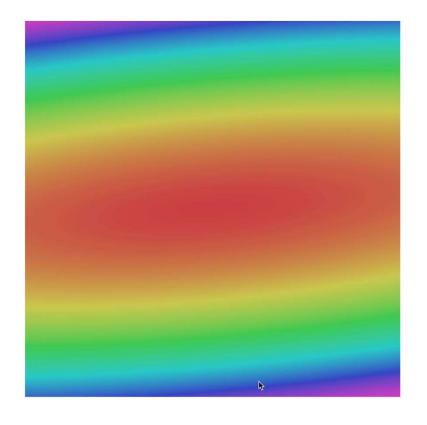
http://demonstrations.wolfram.com/VisualizingTheGradientVector/

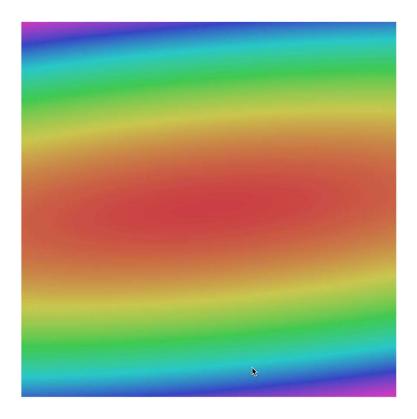


negative gradient direction

 W_1







Often, we only compute the gradients across a small subset of data

Full Batch Gradient Descent
$$L = \frac{1}{N} \sum L(f(x_i, W), y_i)$$

- Mini-Batch Gradient Descent $L = \frac{1}{M} \sum L(f(x_i, W), y_i)$
 - Where M is a subset of data
- We iterate over mini-batches:
 - Get mini-batch, compute loss, compute derivatives, and take a set

Gradient descent is guaranteed to converge under some conditions

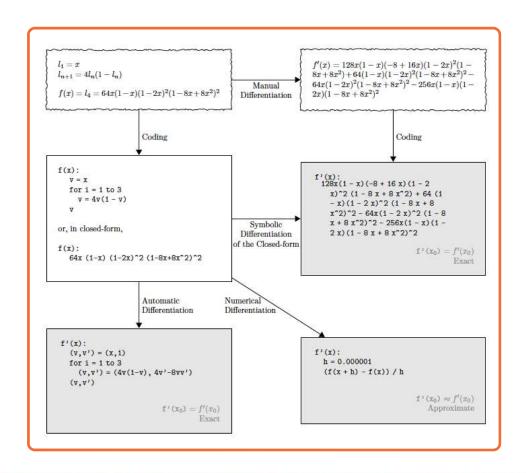
- For example, learning rate has to be appropriately reduced throughout training
- It will converge to a local minima
 - Small changes in weights would not decrease the loss
- It turns out that some of the local minima that it finds in practice (if trained well) are still pretty good!



We know how to compute the model output and loss function

Several ways to compute $\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}$

- Manual differentiation
- Symbolic differentiation
- Numerical differentiation
- Automatic differentiation



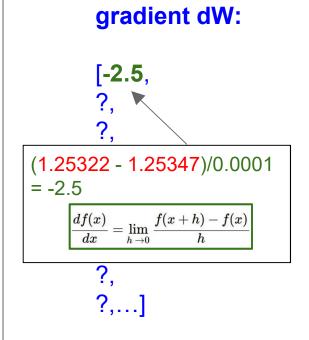
Computing Gradients



current W: gradient dW: [0.34, [?, -1.11, ?, 0.78, ?, 0.12, ?, 0.55, ?, 2.81, ?, -3.1, ?, -1.5, ?, 0.33,...] ?,...]

current W: W + h (first dim): gradient dW: [0.34 + 0.0001,[0.34, -1.11, -1.11, 0.78, 0.78, 0.12, 0.12, 0.55, 0.55, 2.81, 2.81, -3.1, -1.5, -1.5, 0.33,...] 0.33,...] loss 1.25322 loss 1.25347

W + h (first dim): current W: [0.34 + 0.0001,[0.34, -1.11, -1.11, 0.78, 0.78, 0.12, 0.12, 0.55, 0.55, 2.81, 2.81, -3.1, -3.1, -1.5, -1.5, 0.33,...] 0.33,...] loss 1.25347 loss 1.25322

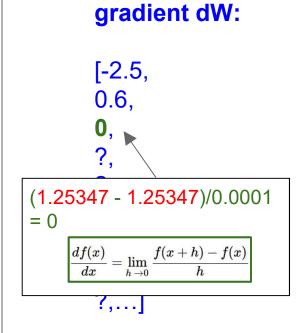


W + h (second dim): current W: gradient dW: [0.34, [0.34, [-2.5, -1.11, -1.11 + **0.0001**, 0.78, 0.78, 0.12, 0.12, 0.55, 0.55, 2.81, 2.81, -3.1, -1.5, 0.33,...] 0.33,...] loss 1.25347 loss 1.25353

W + h (second dim): current W: gradient dW: [0.34, [0.34, [-2.5, -1.11 + **0.0001**, -1.11, 0.78, 0.78, 0.12, 0.12, 0.55, 0.55, (1.25353 - 1.25347)/0.0001 2.81, 2.81, = 0.6-3.1, -3.1, $\dfrac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{h o 0} \dfrac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$ -1.5, -1.5, 0.33,...] 0.33,...] ?,...] loss 1.25347 | loss 1.25353

W + h (third dim): current W: gradient dW: [0.34, [0.34, [-2.5, -1.11, -1.11, 0.6, 0.78, 0.78 + 0.0001, 0.12, 0.12, 0.55, 0.55, 2.81, 2.81, -3.1, -1.5, -1.5, 0.33,...] 0.33,...] loss 1.25347 loss 1.25347

W + h (third dim): current W: [0.34, [0.34, -1.11, -1.11, 0.78, 0.78 + 0.0001, 0.12, 0.12, 0.55, 0.55, 2.81, 2.81, -3.1, -1.5, -1.5, 0.33,...] 0.33,...] loss 1.25347 loss 1.25347



Numerical vs Analytic Gradients

$$rac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{h o 0} rac{f(x+h) - f(x)}{h}$$

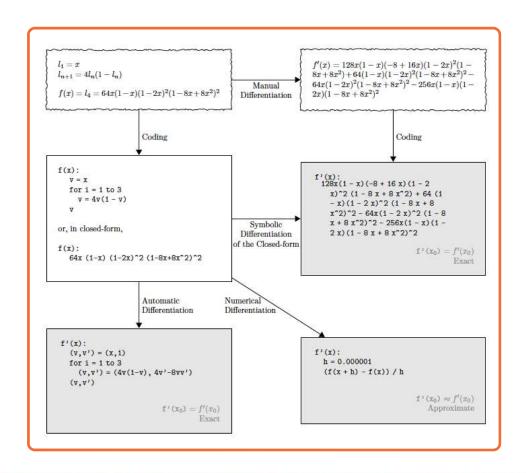
Numerical gradient: slow:(, approximate:(, easy to write:)
Analytic gradient: fast:), exact:), error-prone:(

In practice: Derive analytic gradient, check your implementation with numerical gradient.
This is called a **gradient check**.

We know how to compute the model output and loss function

Several ways to compute $\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}$

- Manual differentiation
- Symbolic differentiation
- Numerical differentiation
- Automatic differentiation



Computing Gradients



For some functions, we can analytically derive the partial derivative

Example:

Derivation of Update Rule

Function Loss
$$f(w, x_i) = w^T x_i \qquad (y_i - w^T x_i)^2$$

(Assume w and x_i are column vectors, so same as $w \cdot x_i$)

Update Rule

$$w_j \leftarrow w_j + 2\alpha \sum_{k=1}^N \delta_k x_{kj}$$

For some functions, we can analytically derive the partial derivative

Example:

Function

Loss

$$f(w, x_i) = w^T x_i \qquad (y_i - w^T x_i)^2$$

(Assume w and x_i are column vectors, so same as $w \cdot x_i$)

Dataset: N examples (indexed by k)

Update Rule

$$w_j \leftarrow w_j + 2\alpha \sum_{k=1}^N \delta_k x_{kj}$$

Derivation of Update Rule

$$L = \sum_{k=1}^{N} (y_k - w^T x_k)^2$$

Gradient descent tells us we should update w as follows to minimize *L*:

$$w_j \leftarrow w_j - \eta \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_j}$$

So what's
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}$$
?

$$\mathsf{L} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} (y_k - w^T x_k)^2 \qquad \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_j} = \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} (y_k - w^T x_k)^2$$
Gradient descent tells us we should update \boldsymbol{w} as follows to minimize L :
$$= \sum_{k=1}^{N} 2 (y_k - w^T x_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} (y_k - w^T x_k)$$

$$= -2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \delta_k \frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} w^T x_k$$

$$= -2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \delta_k \frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} \sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i x_{ki}$$

$$= -2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \delta_k \frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} \sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i x_{ki}$$

$$= -2 \sum_{k=1}^{N} \delta_k x_{kj}$$

If we add a non-linearity (sigmoid), derivation is more complex

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

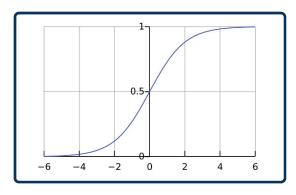
First, one can derive that: $\sigma'(x) = \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$

$$f(x) = \sigma\left(\sum_{k} w_{k} x_{k}\right)$$

$$L = \sum_{i} \left(y_i - \sigma \left(\sum_{k} w_k x_{ik} \right) \right)^2$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_j} &= \sum_{i} 2 \left(y_i - \sigma \left(\sum_{k} w_k x_{ik} \right) \right) \left(-\frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} \sigma \left(\sum_{k} w_k x_{ik} \right) \right) \\ &= \sum_{i} -2 \left(y_i - \sigma \left(\sum_{k} w_k x_{ik} \right) \right) \sigma' \left(\sum_{k} w_k x_{ik} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} \sum_{k} w_k x_{ik} \\ &= \sum_{i} -2 \delta_i \sigma(\mathbf{d}_i) (1 - \sigma(\mathbf{d}_i)) x_{ij} \end{aligned}$$

where
$$\delta_i = y_i - f(x_i)$$
 $d_i = \sum w_k x_{ik}$



The sigmoid perception update rule:

$$w_j \leftarrow w_j + 2\eta \sum_{k=1}^N \delta_i \sigma_i (1-\sigma_i) x_{ij}$$
 where $\sigma_i = \sigma \Biggl(\sum_{j=1}^m w_j x_{ij}\Biggr)$ $\delta_i = y_i - \sigma_i$

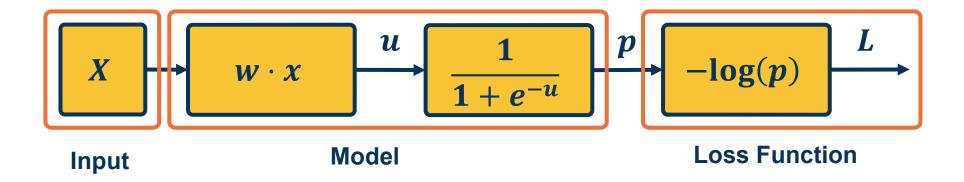
Neural Network View of a Linear Classifier



A linear classifier can be broken down into:

- Input
- A function of the input
- A loss function

It's all just one function that can be **decomposed** into building blocks

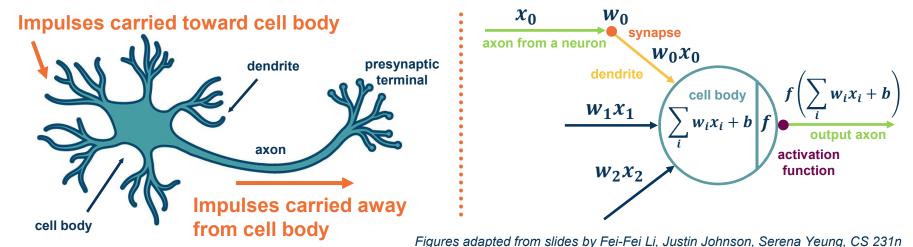


What Does a Linear Classifier Consist of?



A simple **neural network** has similar structure as our linear classifier:

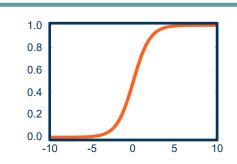
- A neuron takes input (firings) from other neurons (-> input to linear classifier)
- The inputs are summed in a weighted manner (-> weighted sum)
 - Learning is through a modification of the weights
- If it receives enough input, it "fires" (threshold or if weighted sum plus bias is high enough)



Origins of the Term Neural Network

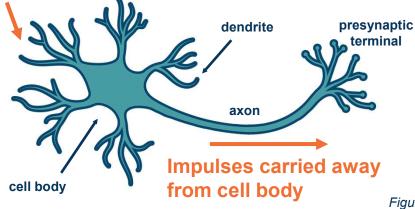


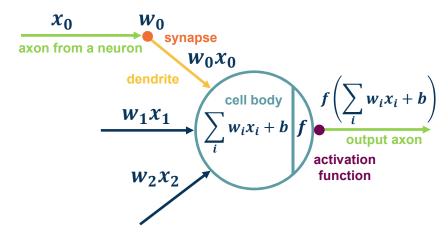
As we did before, the output of a neuron can be modulated by a non-linear function (e.g. sigmoid)



Sigmoid Activation Function $\frac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$







Figures adapted from slides by Fei-Fei Li, Justin Johnson, Serena Yeung, CS 231n

Adding Non-Linearities



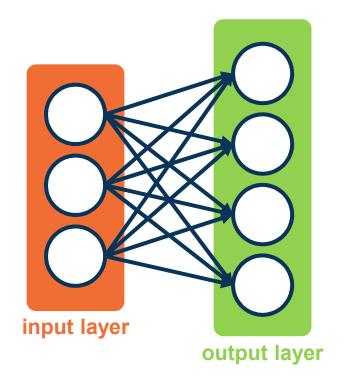
We can have **multiple** neurons connected to the same input

Corresponds to a multi-class classifier

 Each output node outputs the score for a class

$$f(x,W) = \sigma(Wx + b) \begin{bmatrix} w_{11} & w_{12} & \cdots & w_{1m} & b1 \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & \cdots & w_{2m} & b2 \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & \cdots & w_{3m} & b3 \end{bmatrix}$$

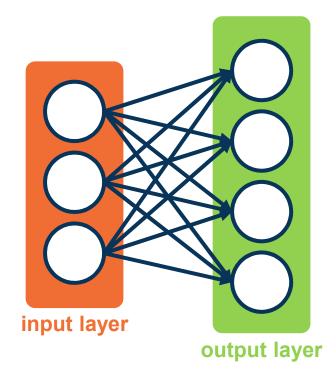
- Often called fully connected layers
 - Also called a linear projection layer
 Figure 2







- Each input/output is a neuron (node)
- A linear classifier (+ optional nonlinearity) is called a fully connected layer
- Connections are represented as edges
- Output of a particular neuron is referred to as activation
- This will be expanded as we view computation in a neural network as a graph
 Figure adap





We can **stack** multiple layers together

Input to second layer is output of first layer

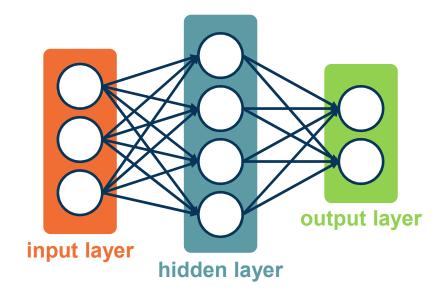
Called a **2-layered neural network** (input is not counted)

Because the middle layer is neither input or output, and we don't know what their values represent, we call them **hidden** layers

 We will see that they end up learning effective features

This **increases** the representational power of the function!

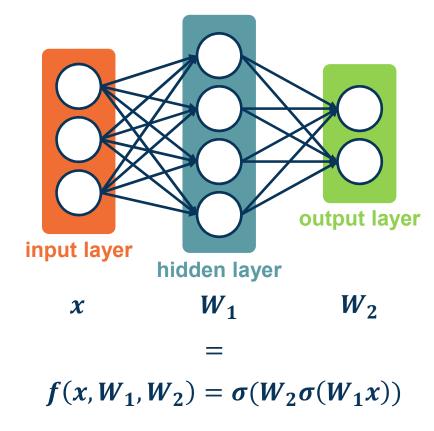
Two layered networks can represent any continuous function





The same two-layered neural network corresponds to adding another weight matrix

 We will prefer the linear algebra view, but use some terminology from neural networks (& biology)



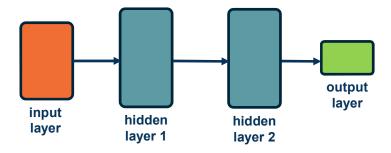


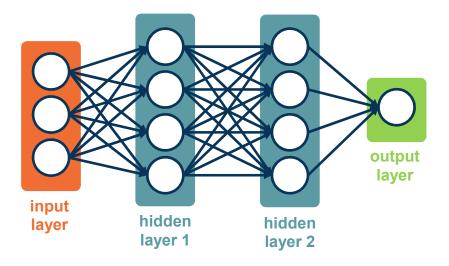
Large (deep) networks can be built by adding more and more layers

Three-layered neural networks can represent **any function**

 The number of nodes could grow unreasonably (exponential or worse) with respect to the complexity of the function

We will show them without edges:







Computation Graphs



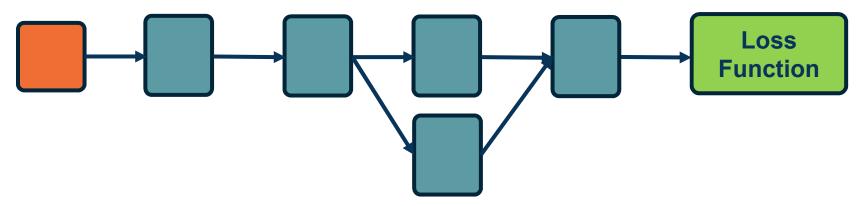
Functions can be made **arbitrarily complex** (subject to memory and computational limits), e.g.:

$$f(x, W) = \sigma(W_5 \sigma(W_4 \sigma(W_3 \sigma(W_2 \sigma(W_1 x))))$$

We can use any type of differentiable function (layer) we want!

At the end, add the loss function

Composition can have **some structure**



Georgia Control Contro

- Components of parametric classifiers:
 - Input/Output: Image/Label
 - Model (function): Linear Classifier + Softmax
 - Loss function: Cross-Entropy
 - Optimizer: Gradient Descent
- Ways to compute gradients
 - Numerical
 - Analytical
- Key idea: Can we do this across an arbitrary composition of functions (computation graph)?

