

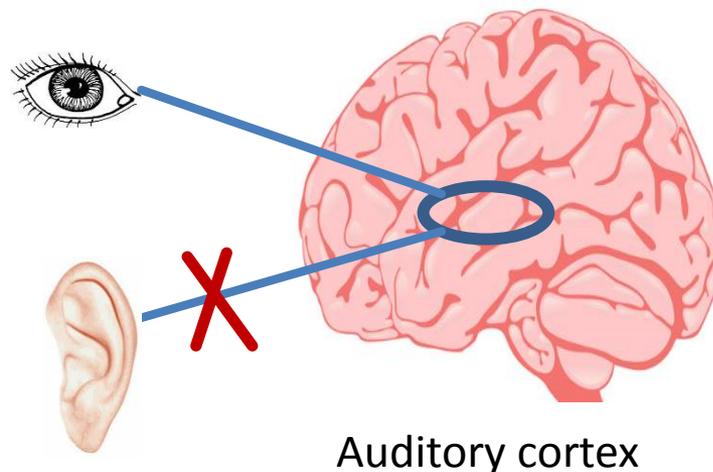
ARTIFICIAL NEURAL NETWORKS

Outline

- Motivation from neuroscience
- Sparse coding
- Perceptron
- Logistic Regression
- Deep belief networks
- Backpropagation Algorithm
- Scalable inference with Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs)

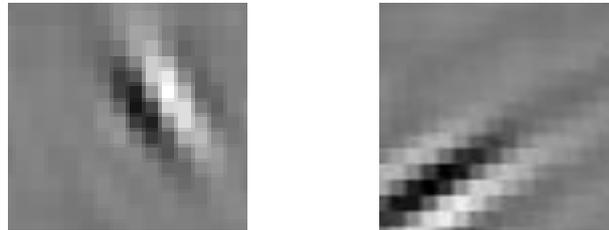
Motivation from neurophysiology

- Goal: Design a learning algorithm that emulates the brain
 - Brain consists of $\sim 10^{11}$ interconnected neurons, each connected to $\sim 10^4$ other neurons
 - Neuron switching time $\sim 10^{-3}$ seconds (relatively slow compared to number of operations a computer can do per second)
- Hypothesis: In biological learning systems, there is only one generic learning algorithm
 - The same brain tissue can be adapted to perform various tasks



Motivation: Sparse coding for visual processing (Olshausen & Field 1996)

- The visual cortex processes stimuli from the environment by encoding them most efficiently, e.g. by removing redundancies and representing only the “strongest” stimuli



Generic patterns occurring in natural images

- Only relatively “few” neurons are involved in this process
- Each neuron handles certain reoccurring patterns

Sparse coding: Formalization as linear model

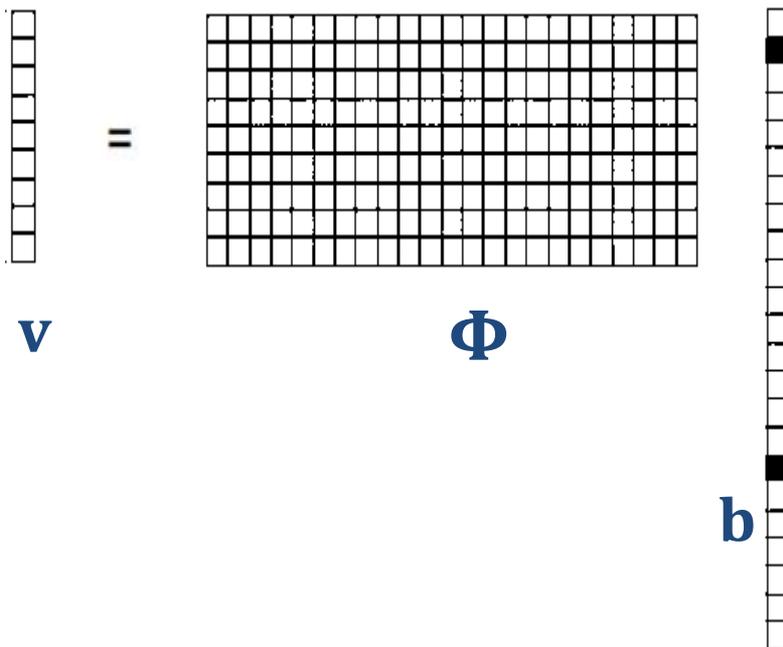
Target vector
to be approximated

$$\mathbf{v} = \sum_i b_i \boldsymbol{\phi}_i$$

Basis function / vector
(from a dictionary
of basis functions)

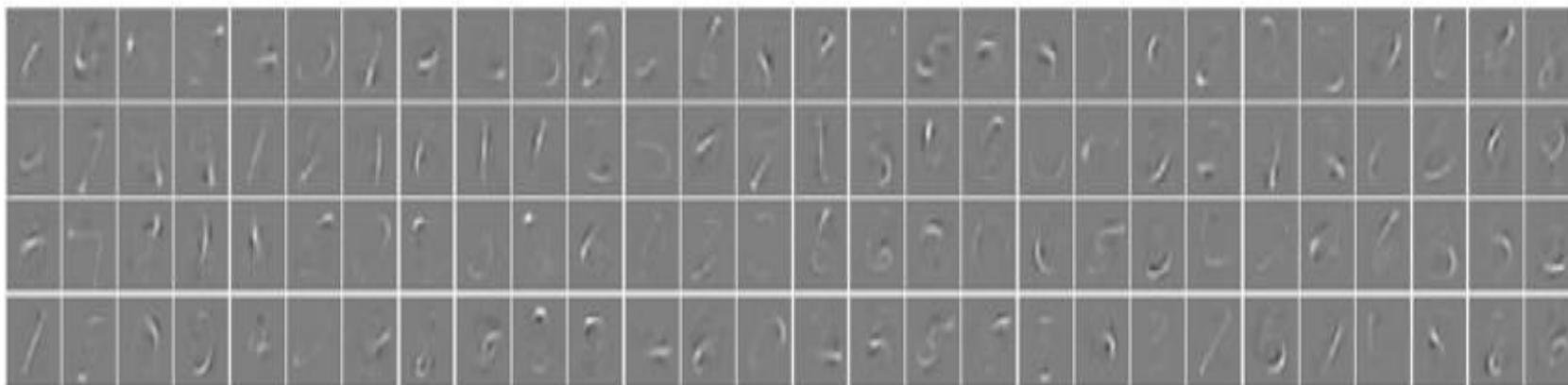
In terms of matrix operations:

weight



Sparse coding: Example 1

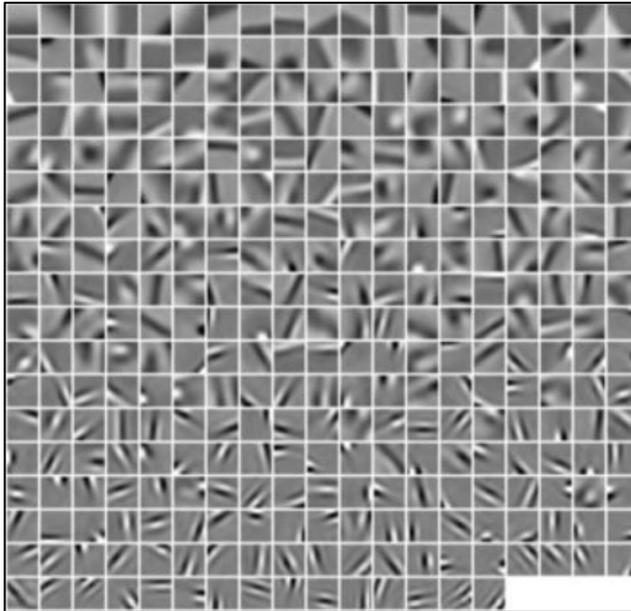
- Combination of dictionary entries to sparsely represent a hand-written number



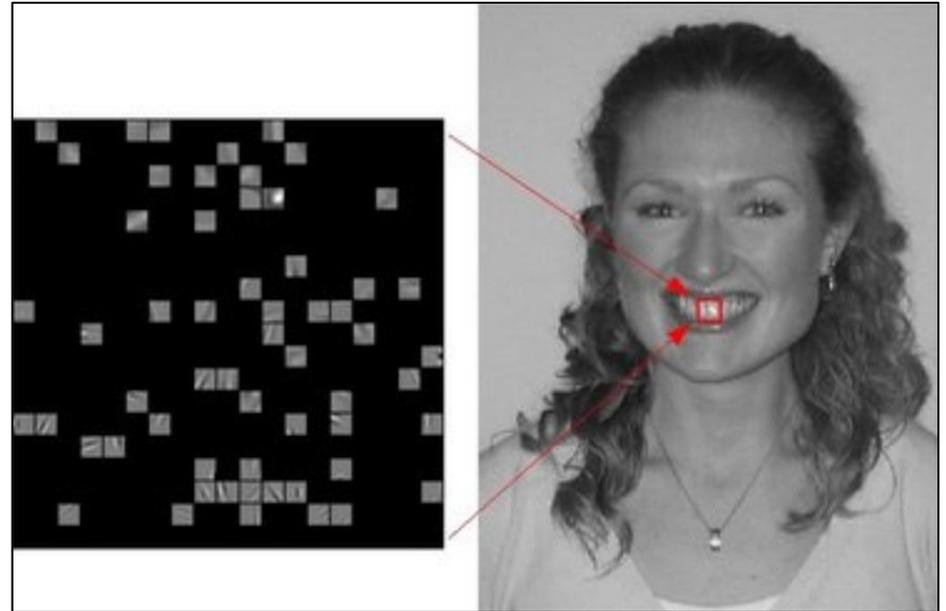
$$\boxed{7} = 1 \boxed{9} + 1 \boxed{7} + 1 \boxed{2} + 1 \boxed{4} + 1 \boxed{0} + 1 \boxed{1} + 1 \boxed{7} + 0.8 \boxed{1} + 0.8 \boxed{7}$$

Source: <http://wiki.ldv.ei.tum.de/Sparse%20Coding>

Sparse coding: Example 2



Dictionary derived from natural images



Reconstruction by using dictionary entries

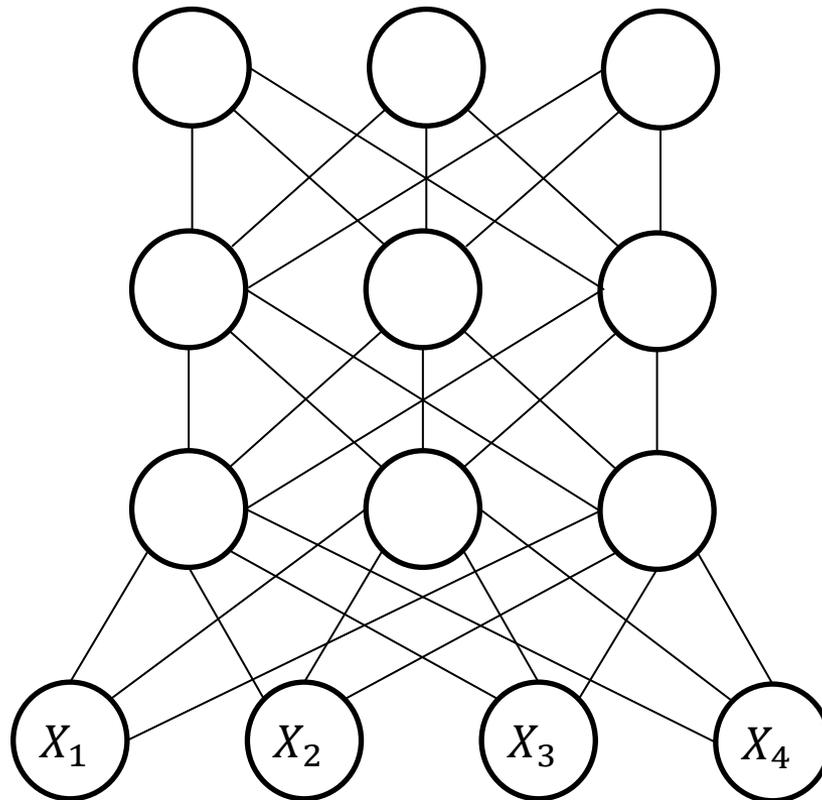
Source: <http://wiki.ldv.ei.tum.de/Sparse%20Coding>

Recap of sparse coding

- Generic features (i.e., dictionary entries) are combined to yield parts of the image
- The reconstructed parts (i.e. super features) can be combined to yield an even larger part of the image
- Seems like a hierarchical model ...
- Is there a general formalization of this?

Deep Belief ANNs: Learning Feature Structures

➤ Multi-layer Artificial Neural Network (= Deep Belief Networks)



Model layer 3: Higher level concepts

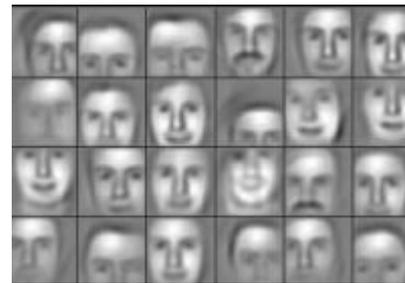
Model layer 2: Higher level concepts

Model layer 1: Higher level concepts

Input features

Example: Face Recognition (H. Lee et al., ICML'09)

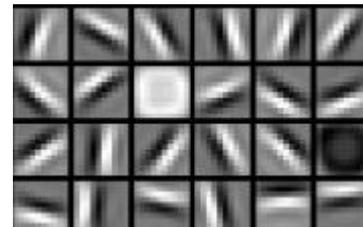
- Hierarchical sparse coding through deep belief networks
- Basic features are combined to more general features
- The final layer represents a model of a real-world object



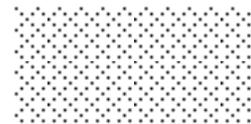
Face models



Models for facial parts



Edges



Pixels

For details see:

<http://dl.acm.org/citation.cfm?id=1553453>

Example: Categorization of Images (Le et al., ICML'12)

- ImageNet dataset: 20,000 Categories, 16,000,000 images
- Task: Automated assignment of images to corresponding categories
 - Probability of correct assignment through random guess: 0,005%
 - State-of-the-art ML techniques: 9.5%
 - Unsupervised learning of features from raw pixels: **19.2%** (see: <http://icml.cc/discuss/2012/73.html>)

Numbers in brackets: (the number of synsets in the subtree).

ImageNet 2011 Fall Release (21841)

- animal, animate being, beast, brute, creature, fauna
- plant, flora, plant life (3775)
 - myrmecophyte (0)
 - perennial (1)
 - escape (0)
 - hygrophyte (0)
 - neophyte (0)
 - embryo (0)
 - monocarp, monocarpic plant, monocarpic seed-bearing fruit (0)
 - sporophyte (0)
 - gametophyte (0)
 - houseplant (10)
 - garden plant (1)
 - vascular plant, tracheophyte (3775)
 - psilophyton (0)
 - creeper (0)
 - woody plant, ligneous plant (3775)
 - geophyte (0)

Treemap Visualization | Images of the Synset | Downloads

ImageNet 2011 Fall Release > Plant, flora, plant life > Vascular plant, tracheophyte

Woody

Spermatophyte

Vine

Cormous

Halophyte

Mesophyte

Deciduous

Succulent

Weed

Creepers

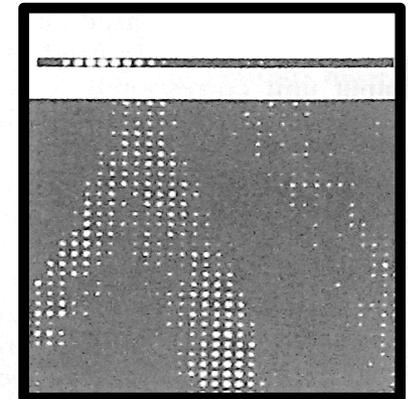
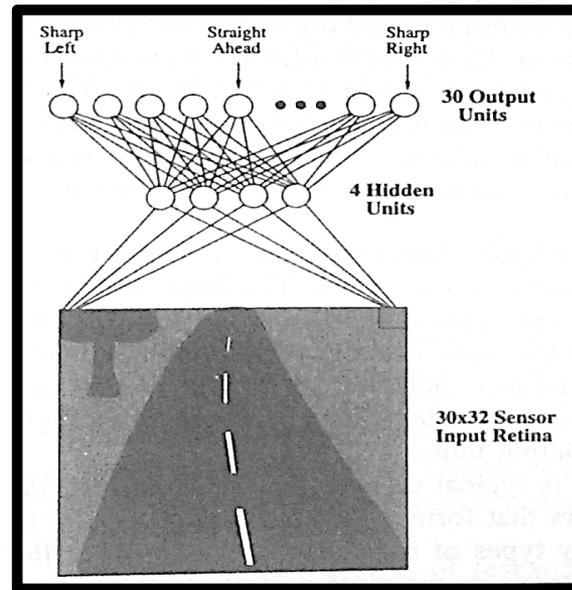
Source: <http://www.image-net.org/explore>

Common characteristics of problems to solve with ANNs

- Input instances can be represented as attribute-value pairs
 - E.g.: (pixel position, pixel value), (term id, frequency), (patient, age)...
 - Input attributes can be correlated or independent
 - Input values can be any real values
- Target function can be discrete- or real-valued or a vector of discrete or real-valued attributes
- Training examples may contain errors; ANNs are quite robust with respect to noise
- Long training times should be acceptable
 - Training time depends on number of weights in the network, the number of training examples, and the initial setting of the parameters
- Understanding the learned target function is not critical (or important)
 - Target function is general a non-linear mapping of the input data onto the output space

ALVINN: ANN system for autonomous driving

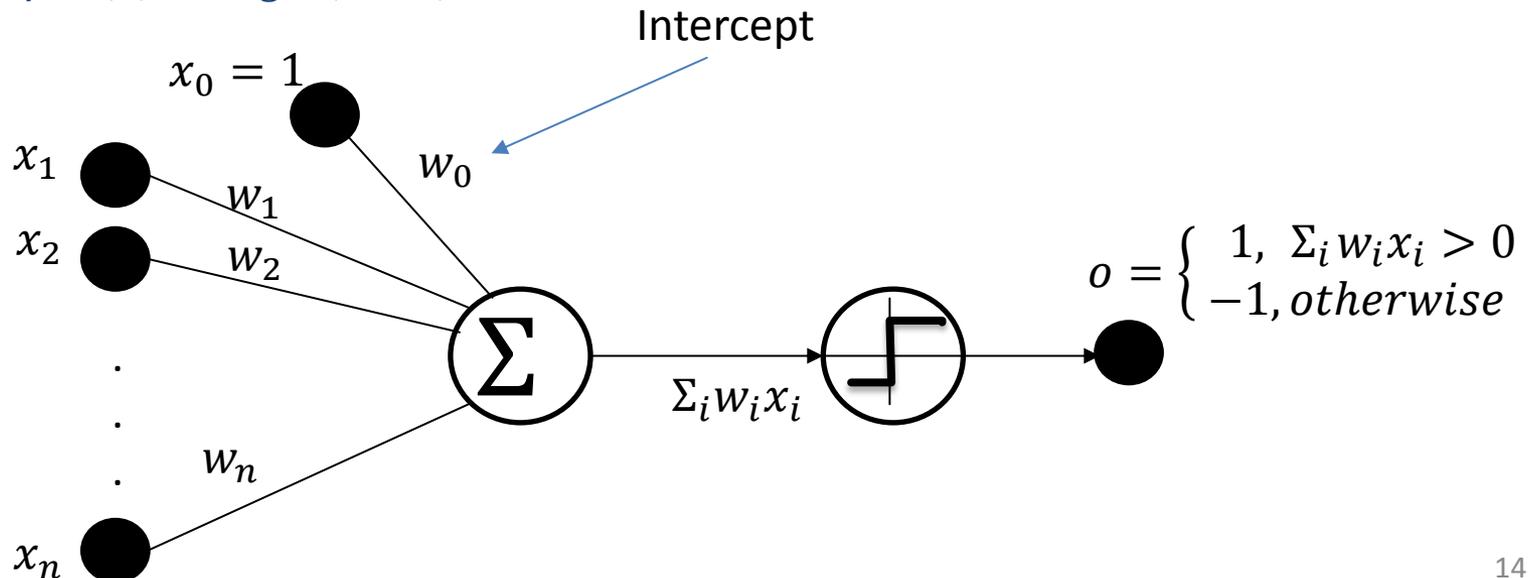
- 960 inputs connected to 4 hidden units, which in turn are connected to 30 output units
- Matrix on the left depicts weight values for one hidden unit (the brighter the cells the higher the values)
- Values from this hidden unit to the 30 output units are depicted on top of the matrix
- ALVINN uses Backpropagation to adjust the weights and enables autonomous driving at speeds up to 112 km/h



Source: Machine Learning by T. Mitchell

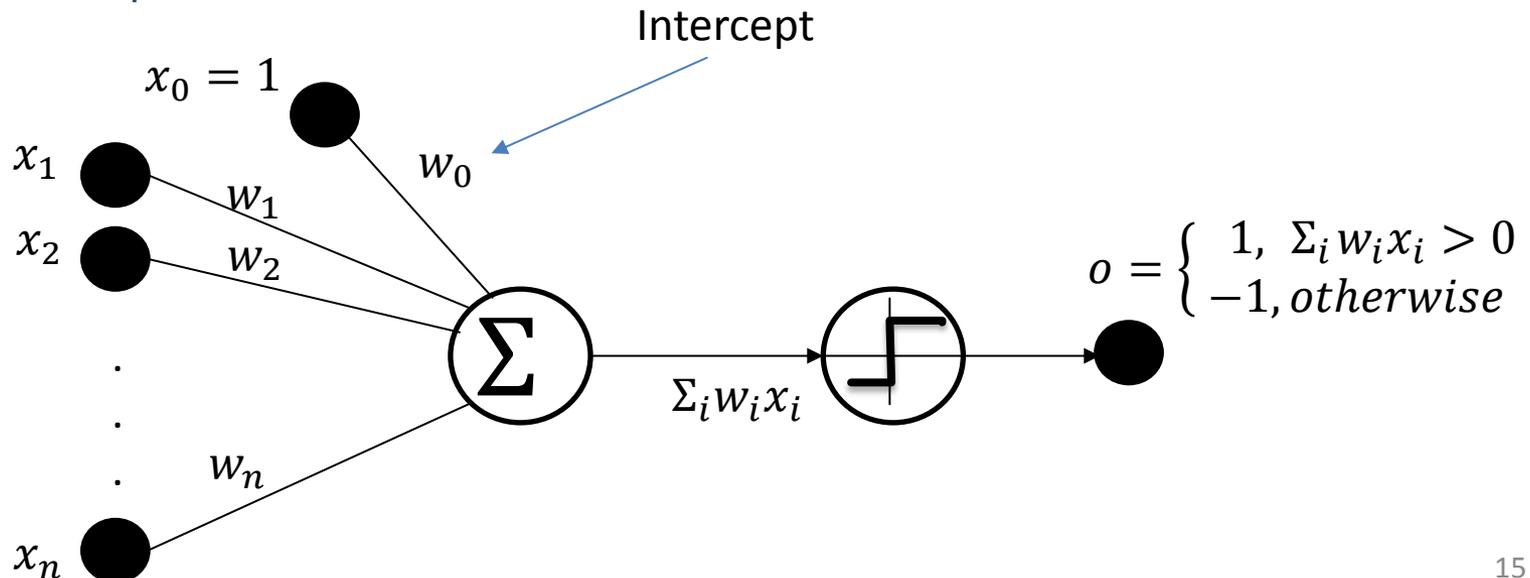
Simplest ANN: The perceptron

- Input is a vector of features $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ of real values, e.g., a persons age, weight, height, blood pressure, heart rate, gender ...
- Predict risk for heart attack
- Model:
$$o(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} 1, & w_0 + w_1x_1 + \dots + w_nx_n > 0 \\ -1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
- Or simply: $o(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x})$



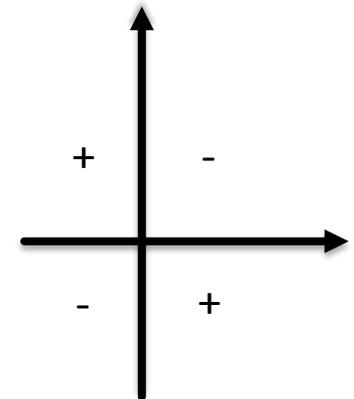
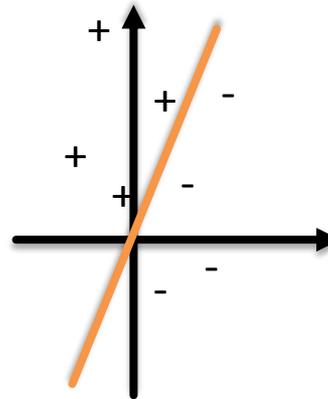
Simplest ANN: The perceptron

- Model:
$$o(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \begin{cases} 1, & w_0 + w_1x_1 + \dots + w_nx_n > 0 \\ -1, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$
- Or simply: $o(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x})$
- Boolean AND, OR, NAND, and NOR can be represented
- How?
- Why is this important?



Limitations of perceptrons

- XOR function cannot be represented
- Can not separate training data that is not linearly separable
- Note that a two-layer perceptron can represent any Boolean function



The perceptron training algorithm

Start with random weights w_1, \dots, w_n

Until the perceptron classifies all training examples correctly

For each training example $(\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n), l(\mathbf{x}))$

For each w_i

Compute $\Delta w_i = \eta(l(\mathbf{x}) - o(\mathbf{x}))x_i, \quad w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i$

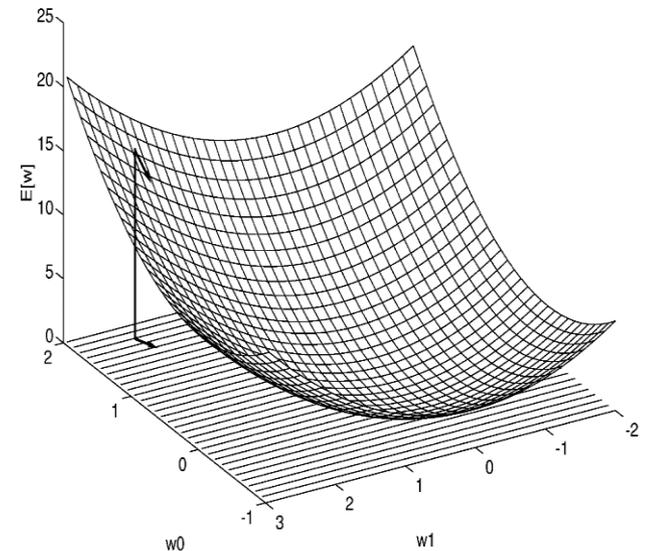
Learning rate, e.g., 0.1

True value of \mathbf{x}

What if training data is not separable?

The Gradient Descent Rule (1)

- Lets suppose we aim to minimize
- $$E_r(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \text{TrainSet}} (l(\mathbf{x}) - o(\mathbf{x}))^2$$
- If we knew the gradient of E_r , $\nabla E_r(\mathbf{w}) = \left[\frac{\partial E_r}{\partial w_1}, \dots, \frac{\partial E_r}{\partial w_n} \right]$ we would have an algorithm to minimize it
- The negated gradient indicates the direction of the steepest descent
- We would only need to iteratively re-compute the gradient and follow it



Source: Machine Learning
by T. Mitchell

The Gradient Descent Rule (2)

- The partial derivative of E for a w_i is

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial E_r}{\partial w_i} &= \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \text{TrainSet}} 2(l(\mathbf{x}) - o(\mathbf{x})) \frac{\partial E_r}{\partial w_i} (l(\mathbf{x}) - \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}) \\ &= \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \text{TrainSet}} (l(\mathbf{x}) - o(\mathbf{x}))(-x_i)\end{aligned}$$

- Set $\Delta w_i = -\eta \left(\sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \text{TrainSet}} (l(\mathbf{x}) - o(\mathbf{x}))(-x_i) \right)$
- Then by following the gradient we get $w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i$

Gradient Descent Algorithm

Start with random weights w_1, \dots, w_n

Until the error is smaller than some threshold

Initialize each Δw_i to zero

For each training example $(\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n), l(\mathbf{x}))$

For each w_i

Compute $\Delta w_i = \Delta w_i + \eta(l(\mathbf{x}) - o(\mathbf{x}))x_i$,

For each w_i

$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i$

Stochastic Gradient Descent Algorithm

Start with random weights w_1, \dots, w_n

Until the error is smaller than some threshold

~~Initialize each Δw_i to zero~~

For each training example $(\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n), l(\mathbf{x}))$

For each w_i

Compute ~~$\Delta w_i = \Delta w_i + \eta(l(\mathbf{x}) - o(\mathbf{x}))x_i$~~

$$w_i = w_i + \eta(l(\mathbf{x}) - o(\mathbf{x}))x_i$$

~~For each w_i~~

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

Delta Rule
or Least-Mean-Square Rule

Remarks to Stochastic Gradient Descent

- It is an approximation to Gradient Descent

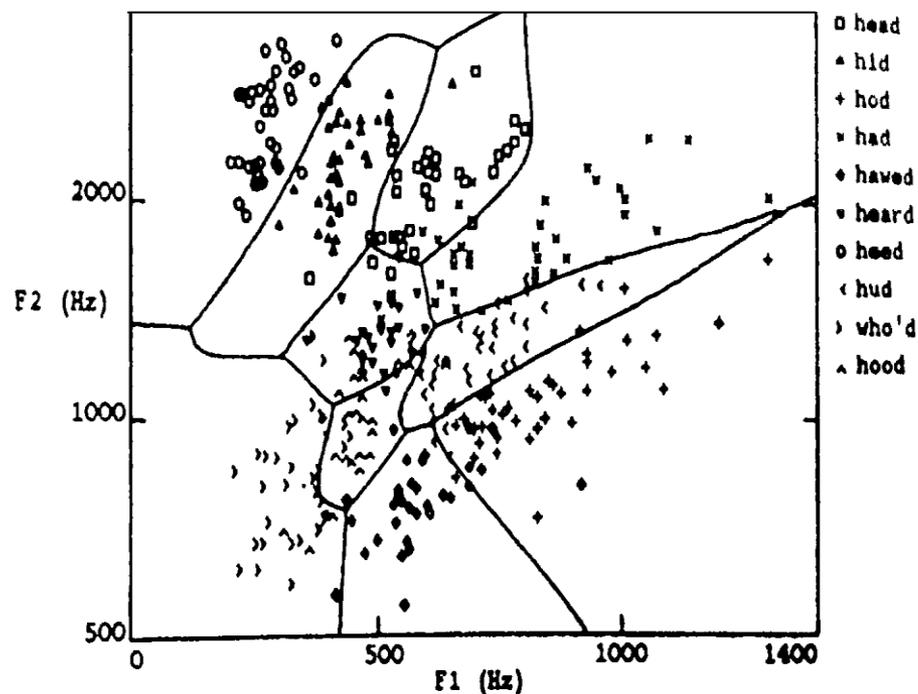
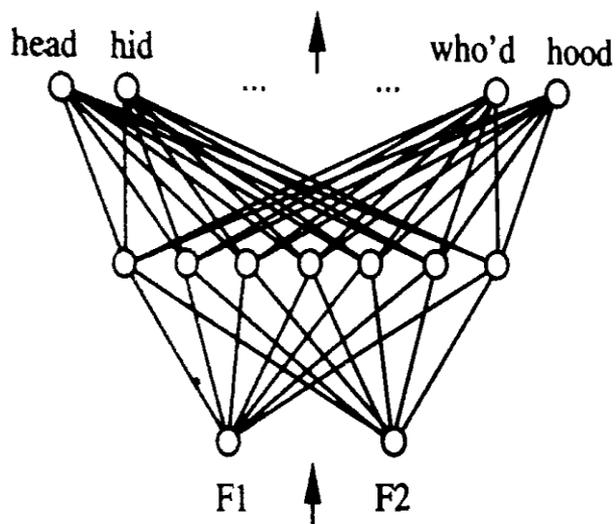
- The actual error function we aimed to minimize is

$$\text{Er}(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\mathbf{x} \in \text{TrainSet}} (l(\mathbf{x}) - o(\mathbf{x}))^2$$

- Can be applied whenever the solution space is continuously parameterized and the error function can be differentiated
- Should be applied whenever there are many possible solutions and the training data is too large (because gradient descent is not guaranteed to reach the global minimum)
- By making η sufficiently small, true gradient descent can be approximated arbitrarily closely

Multi-Layer Networks: Example

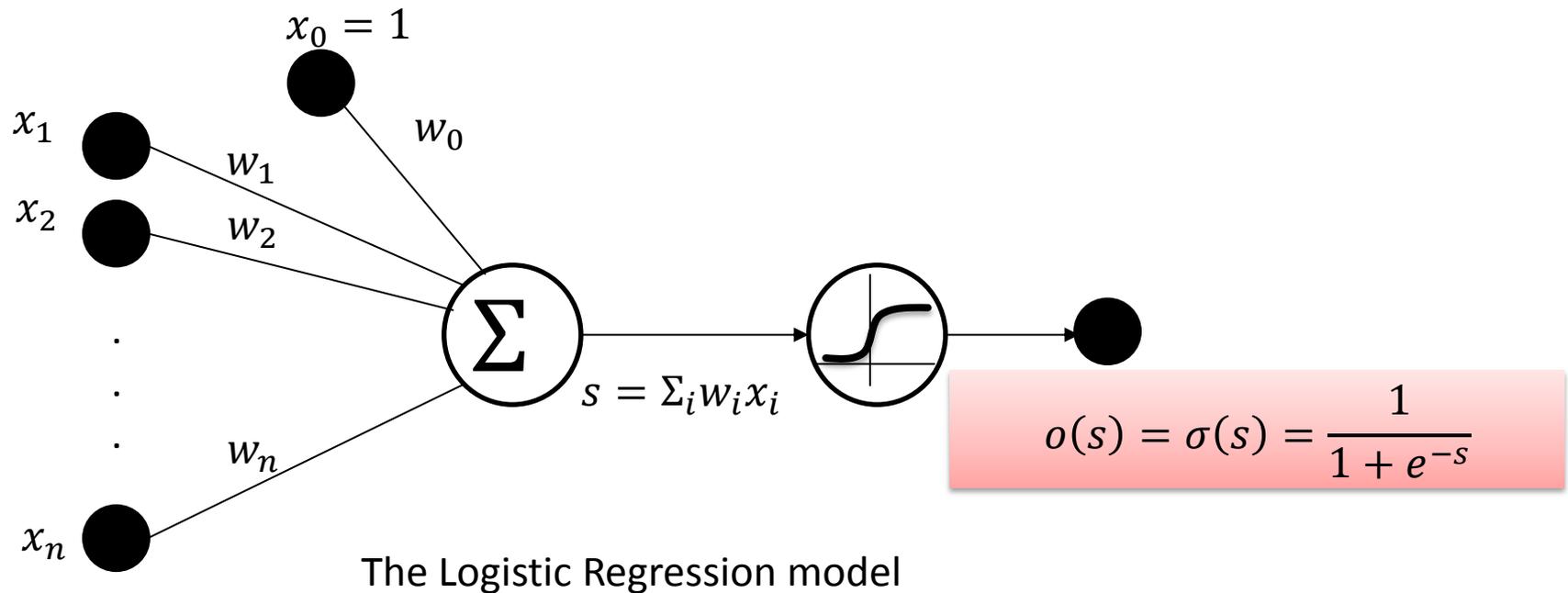
- Recognize one of ten vowel sounds of the form “h_d”
- From spectral analysis we can get the first and the second principal component F1 and F2



Source: “Machine Learning” by T. Mitchell

The sigmoid unit: A differentiable threshold unit

- The cascaded combination of multiple linear threshold units can only produce (piece-wise) linear functions
- As in the previous example, we are interested in representing highly non-linear functions



Properties of the Logistic unit

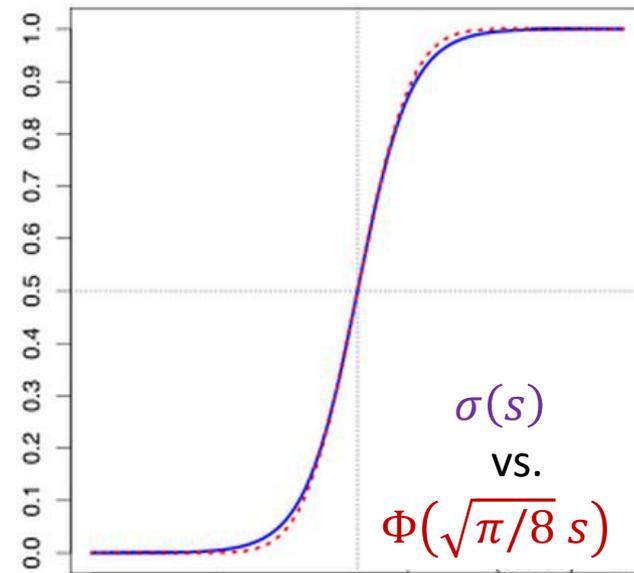
- Can be interpreted as probability
- Easy to differentiate (i.e., gradients can be easily computed)

$$\sigma(s) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-s}}, \quad \frac{\partial \sigma(s)}{\partial s} = \sigma(s)(1 - \sigma(s))$$

- Can be replaced by other similar so-called **sigmoid** functions e.g.,

- $\sigma_k(s) = \frac{i}{1+e^{-ks}}$

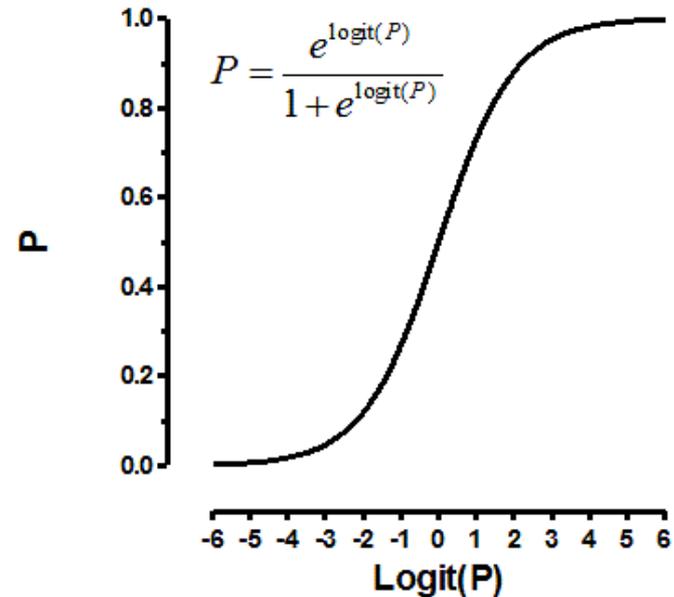
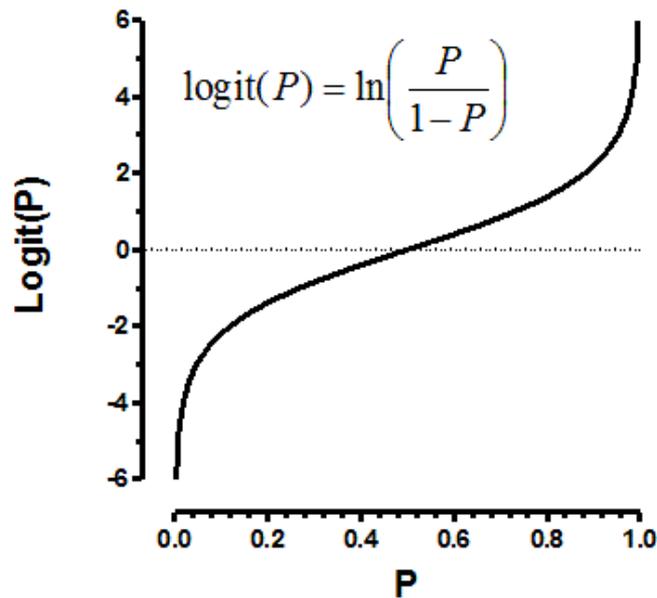
- $\Phi(s) = \int_{-\infty}^s \mathcal{N}(t; 0,1) dt$



Logistic Regression: a probabilistic perspective

- Example task: How likely is a stroke for patient $\mathbf{x}_i = (x_{i1}, \dots, x_{ik})$, e.g., with features age=57y, height=178cm, weight=95kg, gender=m, ...?
- For large number n_i of people with same feature values as \mathbf{x}_i report fraction of stroke cases
- But we are interested in general importance of the various features
- Formally:
 - $Y_i \sim \text{Bin}(n_i, p_i)$, i.e., binomially distributed variable (#strokes in n_i observations)
 - Then $p_i = E(Y_i/n_i | \mathbf{x}_i)$
 - Check **log odds** by using $\text{logit}(p_i) = \log\left(\frac{p_i}{1-p_i}\right) \rightarrow \infty, p_i \rightarrow 1$ ($\rightarrow -\infty, p_i \rightarrow 0$)
 - Set $w_0 + \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i = \text{logit}(p_i) = \log\left(\frac{p_i}{1-p_i}\right)$ (i.e., linear combination of feature values)
 - If we are interested in p_i , we need to compute $\text{logit}^{-1}(\text{logit}(p_i)) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-\text{logit}(p_i)}}$

Logit vs. logistic function



➤ Properties of logistic regression

- The smaller the training set, the worse the estimation of log odds
- Few observations per *explanatory variable* x_i may be enough to enable reliable predictions
- In case of sparse data, discretization of the feature domains can be considered
- Goodness-of-fit can be used to validate the model
- Decision threshold can be adjusted later through calibration

Logistic calibration

➤ For linearly separated data and weight vector \mathbf{w}

- Compute class mean scores μ^+ and μ^- and the standard deviation s with respect to the score $(w_0 + \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i) / \|\mathbf{w}\|$

- For each \mathbf{x}_i , compute: $\alpha_i = \underbrace{\frac{(\mu^+ - \mu^-)}{s}}_{\text{# standard deviations between the score mean of the positive and the negative class}} \left(\underbrace{\frac{(w_0 + \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i) / \|\mathbf{w}\|}{s}}_{\text{Distance (in terms of standard deviations) between actual score and the score mean}} - \frac{(\mu^+ - \mu^-)}{2s} \right)$

standard deviations between the score mean of the positive and the negative class

Distance (in terms of standard deviations) between actual score and the score mean

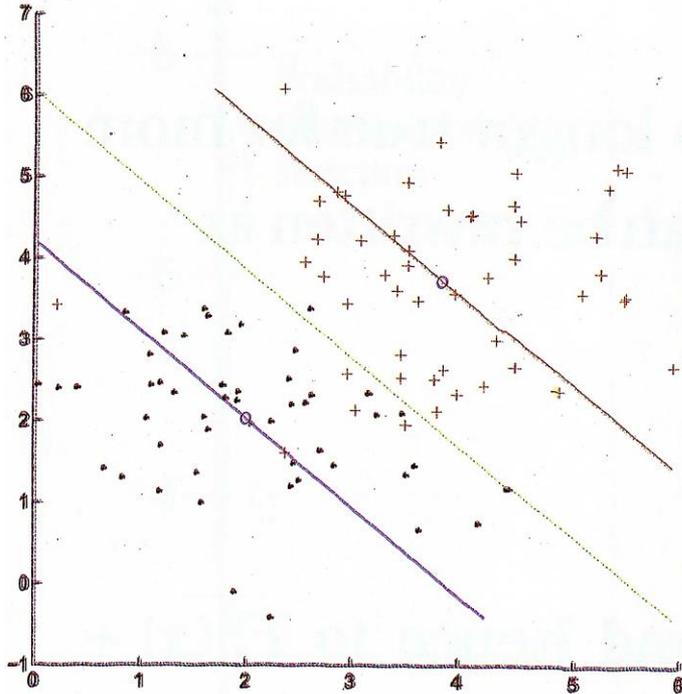
- Compute $P(+|\mathbf{x}_i) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-\alpha_i}}$

➤ Very effective calibration method that can also be used for feature calibration (i.e., for continuous features)

➤ Underlying assumptions

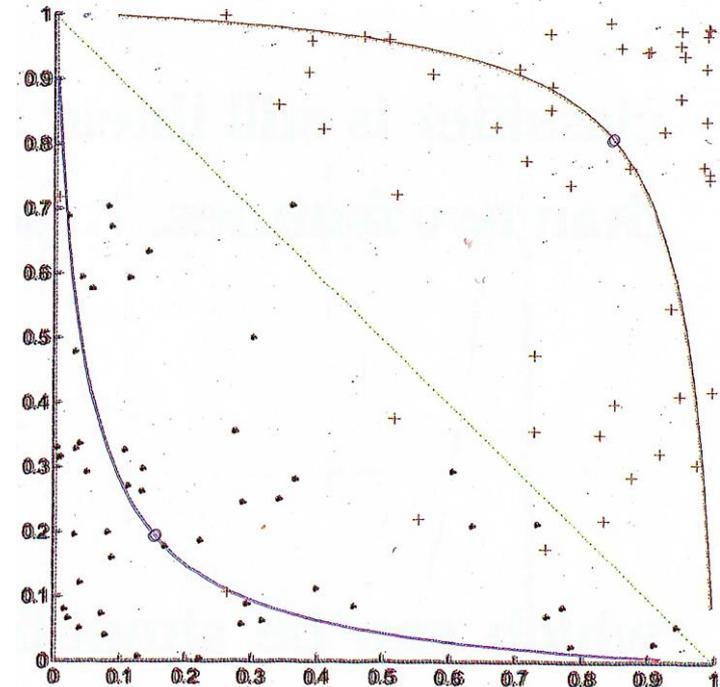
- Data is approximately normally distributed in each class
- Similar variance in both classes

Visualization of logistic calibration



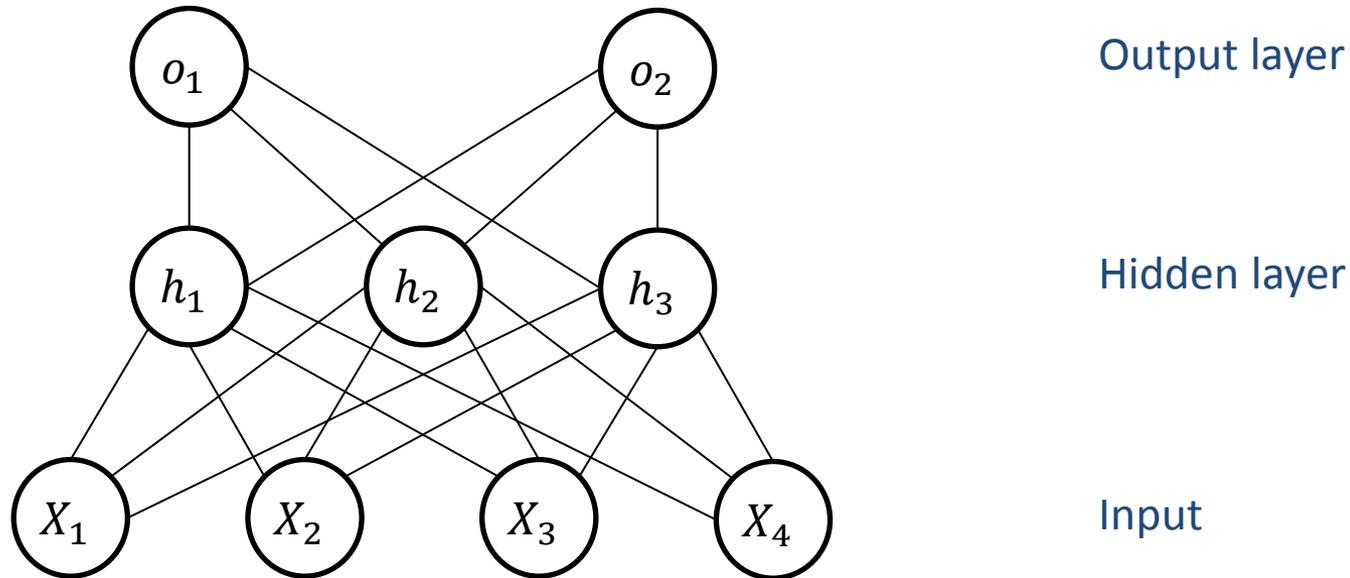
Linearly separated classes with specific weight vector \mathbf{w}

Source: Machine Learning by P. Flach



Logistic calibration of data based on weight vector \mathbf{w} corresponds to non-linear transformation that pushes data away from decision boundary

Feed-forward ANNs



- There are no cycles in terms of information processing (i.e., the output of a node is always forwarded to the nodes in the layer above)
- Here we will consider the logistic function as differentiable threshold unit

Backpropagation Algorithm for multilayer ANNs

Initialize all network weights to random values from $[-0.05, 0.05]$

Until error is smaller than some threshold

For each training pair $(\mathbf{x}_i, l(\mathbf{x}_i))$

Forward the instance through the network
and compute output o_k for each k

For each output o_k

$$\delta_k \leftarrow o_k(1 - o_k)(l_k(\mathbf{x}_i) - o_k)$$

For each hidden unit h

$$\delta_h \leftarrow o_h(1 - o_h) \sum_{k \in \text{out}(h)} w_{kh} \delta_k$$

Update each network weight w_{ji}

$$w_{ji} \leftarrow w_{ji} + \eta \delta_j x_{ji},$$

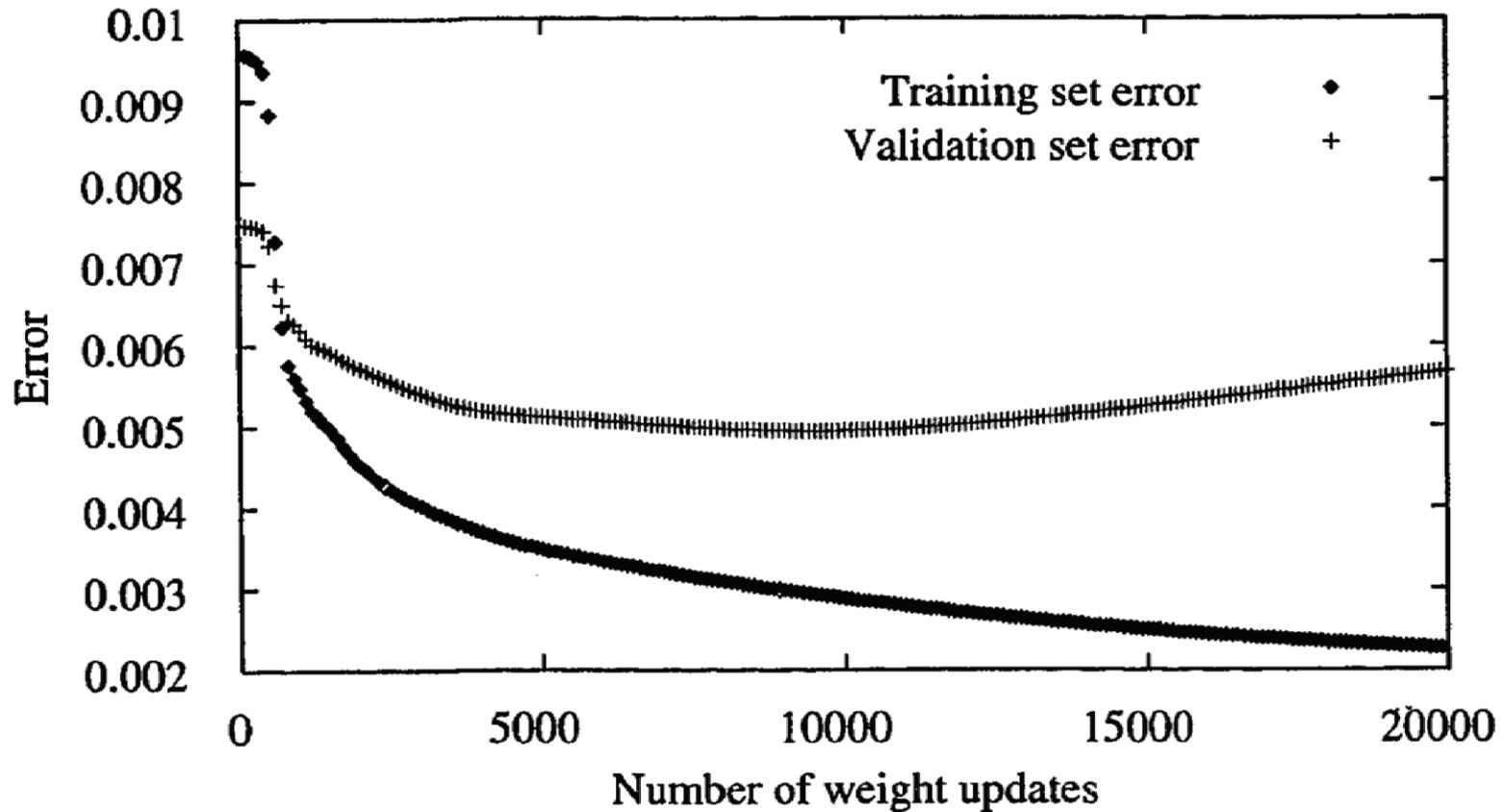
where x_{ji} is the input from unit i to j

Expressiveness of ANNs

➤ Theorem

- Every Boolean function can be represented by a two-layer ANN
- Every bounded continuous function can be approximated with arbitrary small error by a network with two layers
- Any arbitrary function can be approximated to arbitrary accuracy by a network with three layers

Overfitting with ANNs



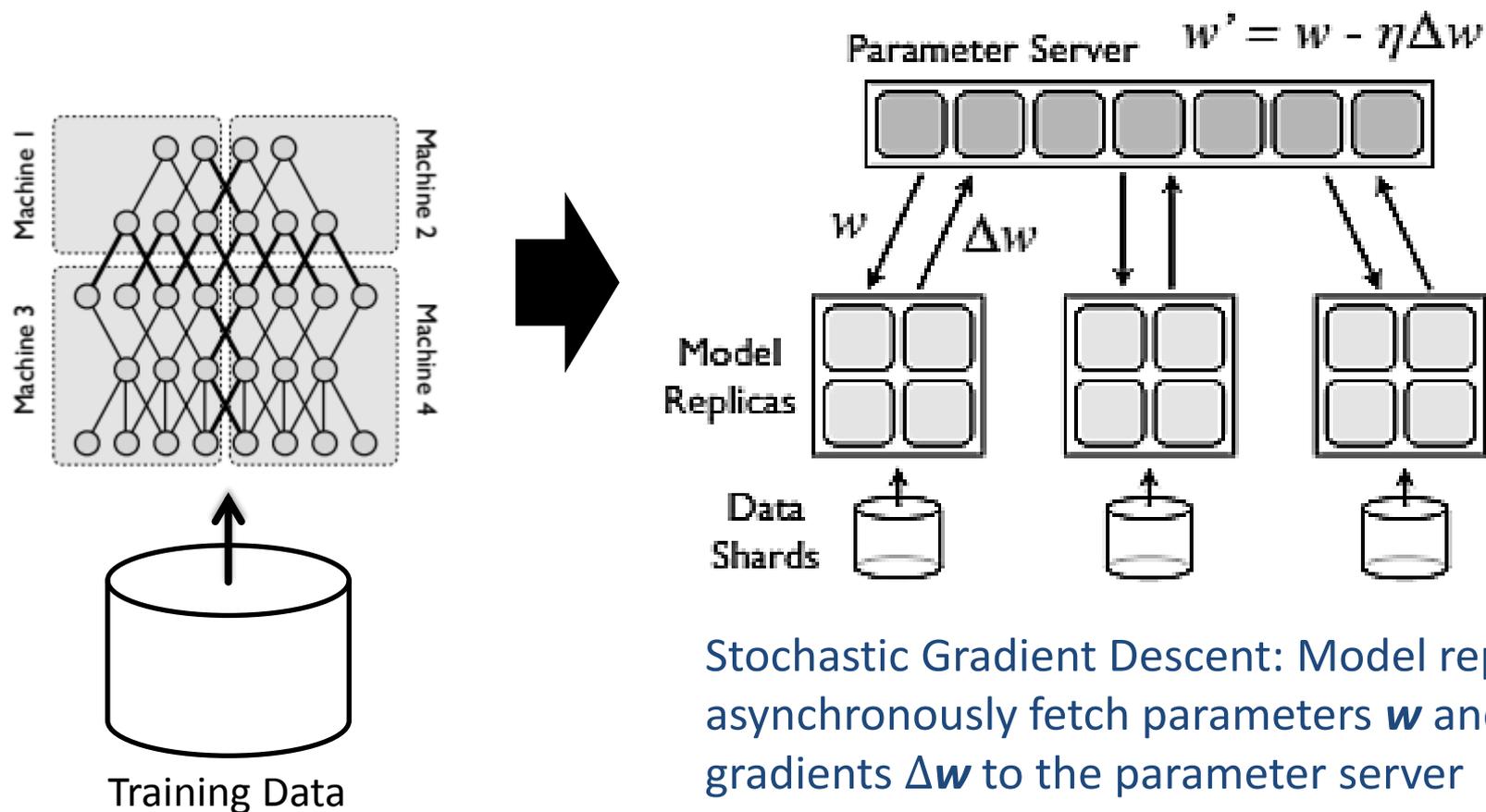
Source: Machine Learning by T. M. Mitchell

Common issues of ANNs

- Overfitting can be mitigated with more variability in the examples of the training data
- Training data that covers many different examples is invaluable for deep ANNs (e.g., see recent projects like Google Brain Project)
- To learn structure from basic features or accurate classification functions, millions of parameters have to be learned
- Training can be extremely slow (if not parallelized)
- If parallelized all machines need to know the current weights

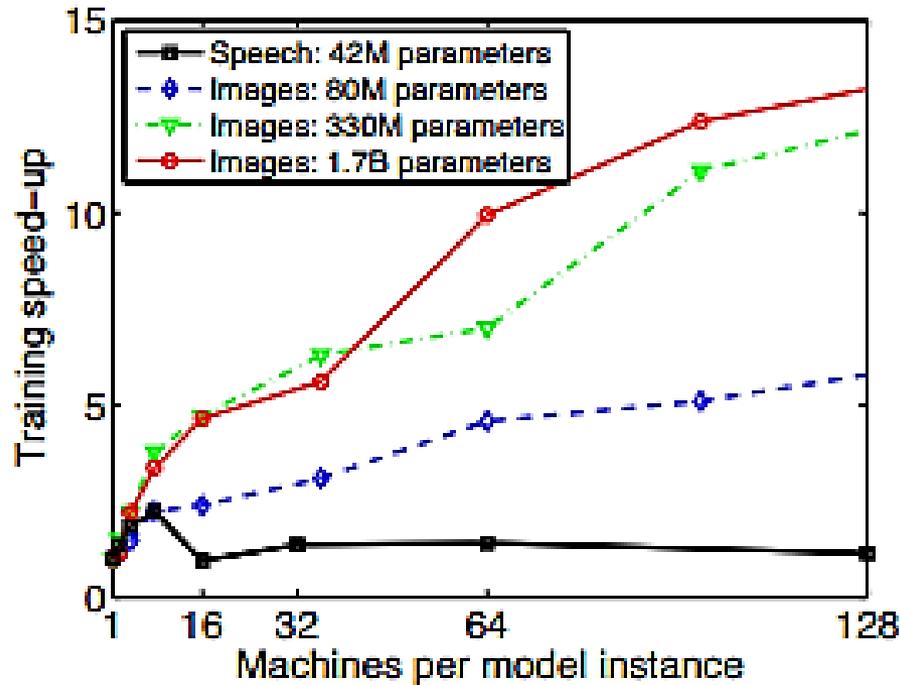
Large-scale deep learning (J. Dean et al., 2012)

- Networks with up to 1.7B parameters
- Distributed over hundreds of machines and thousands of cores

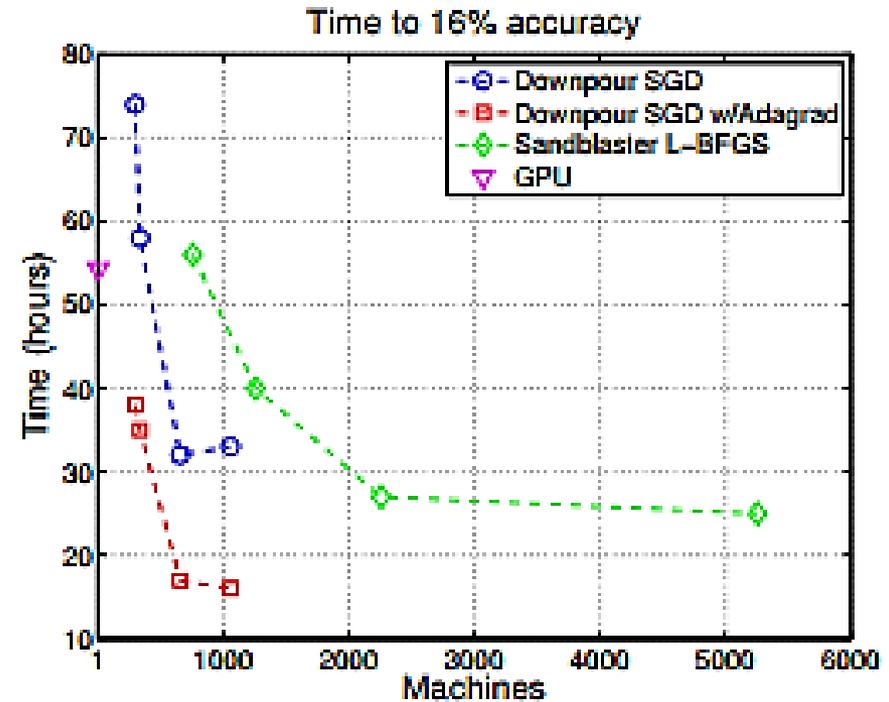


Source of figures: J. Dean et al. NIPS 2012

Large-scale deep learning (J. Dean et al., 2012)



Models with more parameters benefit more from additional machines



Time to reach a fixed accuracy (16%) for different optimization strategies as a function of number of machines

Source: J. Dean et al. NIPS 2012

Other types of ANNs

- **Recurrent ANNs**
 - E.g., for applications to time series data
 - Output at time t is used as input of time $t + 1$
- **Dynamic ANNs**
 - E.g., start with network that has no (or only few) hidden units and add units as needed (in order to minimize some error)
 - E.g., remove or add interconnections between units
- **Bayesian Networks and Markov Random Fields**
 - Directly model logical dependencies between variables
 - Model interrelations between variables
- **Self-Organizing Maps**
 - Learn structure in the data
 - Non-linear mapping of data to lower-dimensional space by preserving original neighborhood topology