

# Introduction to Data Analysis and Machine Learning in Physics:

## 5. Neural networks

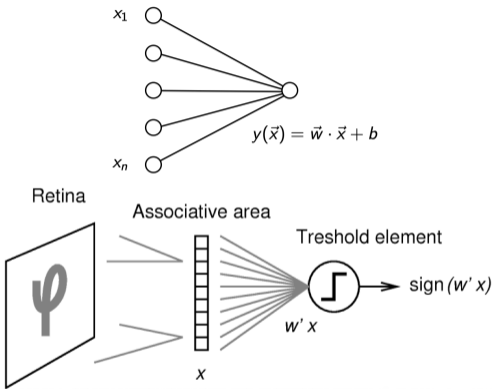
Martino Borsato, Jörg Marks, Klaus Reyers

Studierendentage, 6-9 April 2021

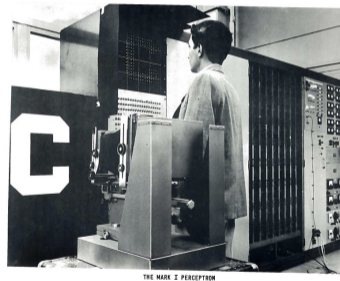
## Exercises

- ▶ Exercise 1: Learn XOR with a MLP
  - ▶ `05_neural_networks_ex_1_xor.ipynb`
- ▶ Exercise 2: Visualising decision boundaries of classifiers
  - ▶ `05_neural_networks_ex_2_decision_boundaries.ipynb`
- ▶ Exercise 3: Boston house prices (MLP regression)
  - ▶ `05_neural_networks_ex_3_boston_house_prices.ipynb`
- ▶ Exercise 4: Training a digit-classification neural network on the MNIST dataset using Keras
  - ▶ `05_neural_networks_ex_4_mnist_keras_train.ipynb`
- ▶ Exercise 5: Higgs data set

# Perceptron (1)



$$h(\vec{x}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} + b > 0, \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Mark 1 Perceptron. Frank Rosenblatt (1961)

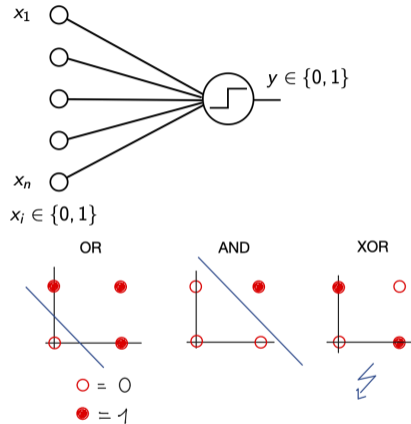
The perceptron was designed for image recognition. It was first implemented in hardware (400 photocells, weights = potentiometer settings).

## Perceptron (2)

- ▶ McCulloch–Pitts (MCP) neuron (1943)
  - ▶ First mathematical model of a biological neuron
  - ▶ Boolean input
  - ▶ Equal weights for all inputs
  - ▶ Threshold hardcoded
- ▶ Improvements by Rosenblatt
  - ▶ Different weights for inputs
  - ▶ Algorithm to update weights and threshold given labeled training data

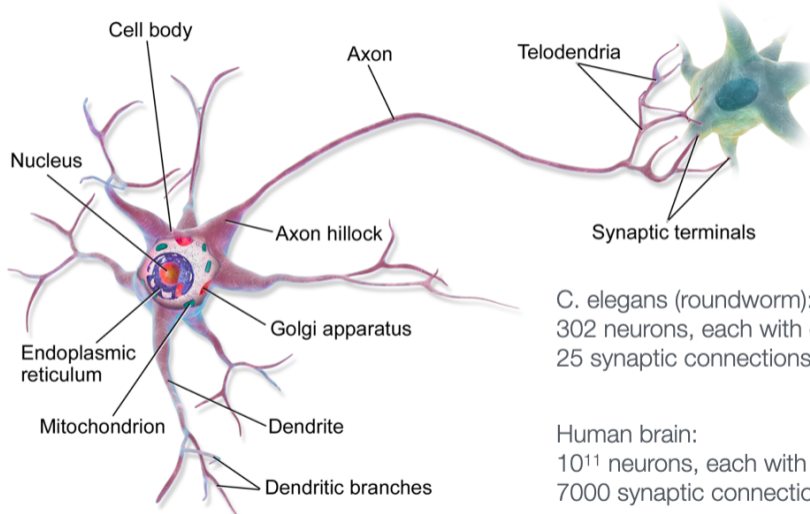
Shortcoming of the perceptron:  
it cannot learn the XOR function

Minsky, Papert, 1969



XOR: not linearly separable

# The biological inspiration: the neuron



*C. elegans* (roundworm):  
302 neurons, each with on average  
25 synaptic connections

Human brain:  
 $10^{11}$  neurons, each with on average  
7000 synaptic connections

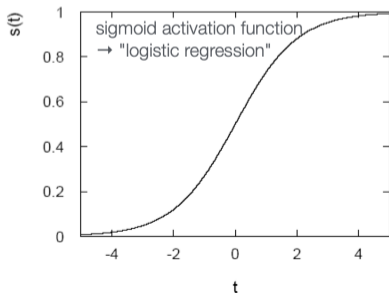
## Non-linear transfer / activation function

Discriminant:

$$y(\vec{x}) = h \left( w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i \right)$$

Examples for function  $h$ :

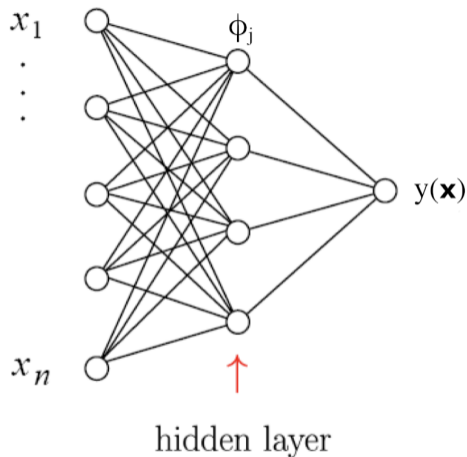
$$\frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}} \text{ ("sigmoid" or "logistic" function), } \tanh x$$



Non-linear activation function needed in neural networks when feature space is not linearly separable.

Neural net with linear activation functions is just a perceptron

## Feedforward neural network with one hidden layer



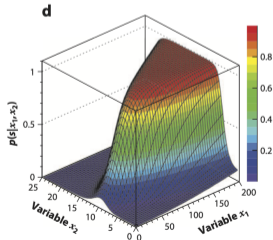
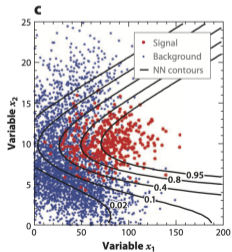
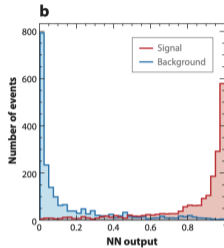
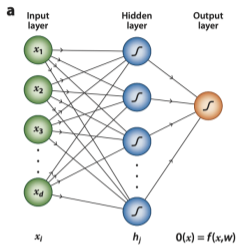
$$\phi_i(\vec{x}) = h \left( w_{i0}^{(1)} + \sum_{j=1}^n w_{ij}^{(1)} x_j \right)$$

$$y(\vec{x}) = h \left( w_{10}^{(2)} + \sum_{j=1}^m w_{1j}^{(2)} \phi_j(\vec{x}) \right)$$

superscripts indicates layer number, i.e.,  $w_{ij}^{(1)}$  refers to the input weights of neuron  $i$  in the hidden layer (= layer 1).

Straightforward to generalize to multiple hidden layers

# Neural network output and decision boundaries




P. Bhat, Multivariate Analysis Methods in Particle Physics, [inspire-hep.net/record/879273](https://inspire-hep.net/record/879273)



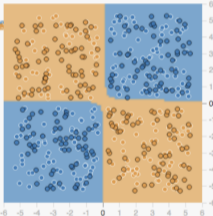
# Fun with neural nets in the browser

Epoch 000,251    Learning rate 0.03    Activation Tanh    Regularization None    Regularization rate 0    Problem type Classification

**DATA**  
Which dataset do you want to use?  
  
Ratio of training to test data: 50%  
Noise: 0  
Batch size: 1  
**REGENERATE**

**FEATURES**  
Which properties do you want to feed in?  
 $X^1$   
 $X^2$   
 $X^{12}$   
 $X^{22}$   
 $X^1X^2$   
 $\sin(X^1)$   
 $\sin(X^2)$

**1 HIDDEN LAYER**  
+ -  
6 neurons

**OUTPUT**  
Test loss 0.000  
Training loss 0.000  
  
Colors shows data, neuron and weight values.  
 Show test data     Discretize output

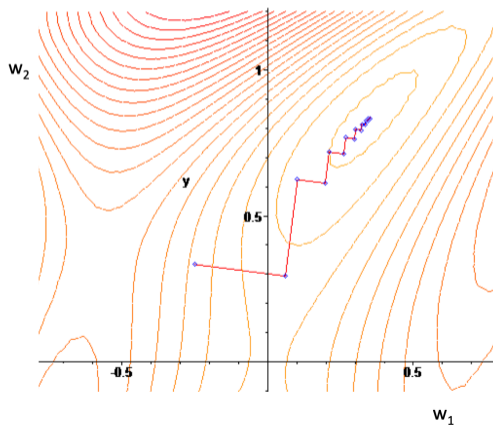
*This is the output from one neuron. Hover to see it larger.*

## Backpropagation (1)

Start with an initial guess  $\vec{w}_0$  for the weights and then update weights after each training event:

$$\vec{w}^{(\tau+1)} = \vec{w}^{(\tau)} - \eta \nabla E_a(\vec{w}^{(\tau)}), \quad \eta = \text{learning rate}$$

Gradient descent:



## Backpropagation (2)

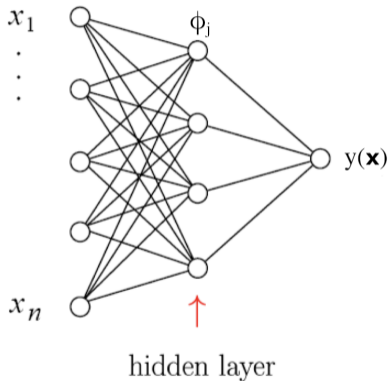
Let's write network output as follows:

$$y(\vec{x}) = h(u(\vec{x})); \quad u(\vec{x}) = \sum_{j=0}^m w_{1j}^{(2)} \phi_j(\vec{x})$$

$$\phi_j(\vec{x}) = h\left(\sum_{k=0}^n w_{jk}^{(1)} x_k\right) \equiv h(v_j(\vec{x}))$$

For  $E_a = \frac{1}{2}(y_a - t_a)^2$  one obtains for the weights from hidden layer to output:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial E_a}{\partial w_{1j}^{(2)}} &= (y_a - t_a) h'(u(\vec{x}_a)) \frac{\partial u}{\partial w_{1j}^{(2)}} \\ &= (y_a - t_a) h'(u(\vec{x}_a)) \phi_j(\vec{x}_a) \end{aligned}$$



Further application of the chain rule gives weights from input to hidden layer.

## Backpropagation (3)

### Backpropagation summary

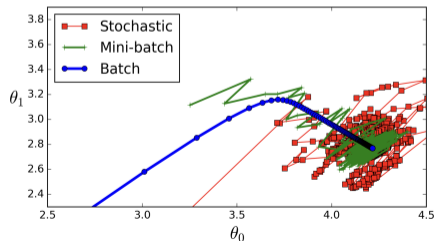
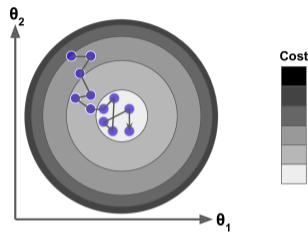
- ▶ Make prediction for a given training instance (forward pass)
- ▶ Calculate error (value of loss function)
- ▶ Go backwards and determine the contribution of each weight (reverse pass)
- ▶ Adjust the weights to reduce the error

### Practical considerations:

- ▶ Nowadays, people will implements neural networks with frameworks like Keras or TensorFlow
- ▶ No need to implement backpropagation yourself
- ▶ TensorFlow efficiently calculates gradient function based on a kind of symbolic differentiation

## More on gradient descent

- ▶ Stochastic gradient descent
  - ▶ just uses one training event at a time
  - ▶ fast, but quite irregular approach to the minimum
  - ▶ can help escape local minima
  - ▶ one can decrease learning rate to settle at the minimum (“simulated annealing”)
- ▶ Batch gradient descent
  - ▶ use entire training sample to calculate gradient of loss function
  - ▶ computationally expensive
- ▶ Mini-batch gradient descent
  - ▶ calculate gradient for a random sub-sample of the training set

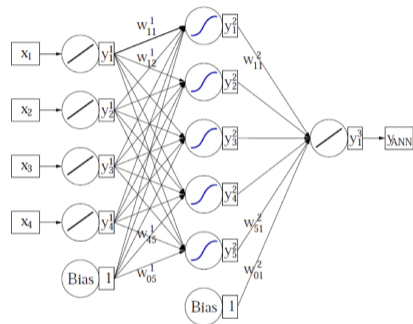


# Universal approximation theorem

“A feed-forward network with a single hidden layer containing a finite number of neurons (i.e., a multilayer perceptron), can approximate continuous functions on compact subsets of  $\mathbb{R}^n$ .”

One of the first versions of the theorem was proved by George Cybenko in 1989 for sigmoid activation functions

The theorem does not touch upon the algorithmic learnability of those parameters



# Deep neural networks

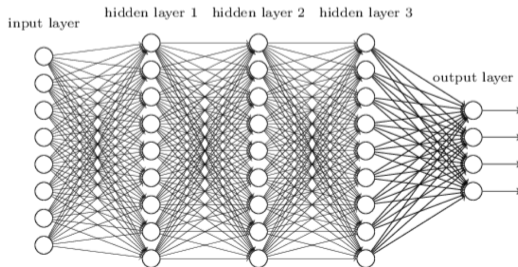
Deep networks: many hidden layers with large number of neurons

## ► Challenges

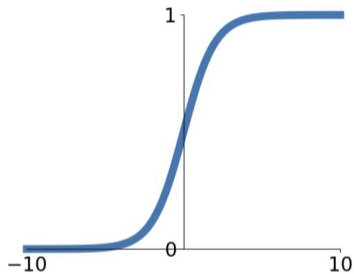
- Hard to train (“vanishing gradient problem”)
- Training slow
- Risk of overtraining

## ► Big progress in recent years

- Interest in NN waned before ca. 2006
- Milestone: paper by G. Hinton (2006): “learning for deep belief nets”
- Image recognition, AlphaGo, ...
- Soon: self-driving cars, ...



## Drawbacks of the sigmoid activation function



**Sigmoid**

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

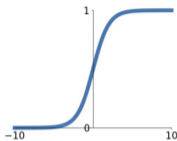
- ▶ Saturated neurons “kill” the gradients
- ▶ Sigmoid outputs are not zero-centered
- ▶  $\exp()$  is a bit compute expensive



# Activation functions

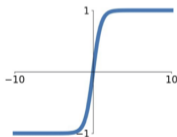
## Sigmoid

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



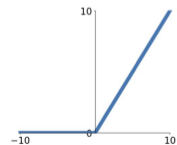
## tanh

$$\tanh(x)$$



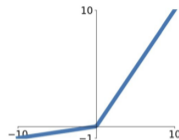
## ReLU

$$\max(0, x)$$



## Leaky ReLU

$$\max(0.1x, x)$$

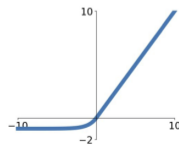


## Maxout

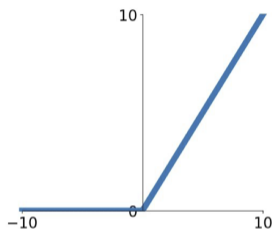
$$\max(w_1^T x + b_1, w_2^T x + b_2)$$

## ELU

$$\begin{cases} x & x \geq 0 \\ \alpha(e^x - 1) & x < 0 \end{cases}$$



# ReLU



## ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit)

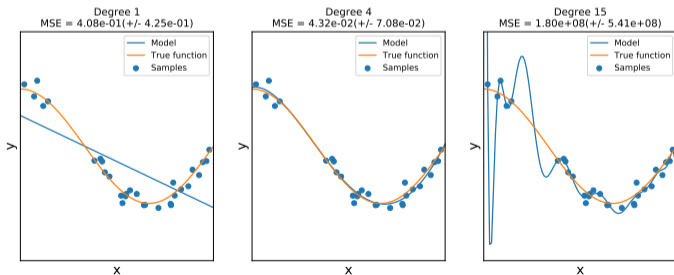
$$f(x) = \max(0, x)$$

- ▶ Does not saturate (in +region)
- ▶ Very computationally efficient
- ▶ Converges much faster than sigmoid tanh in practice
- ▶ Actually more biologically plausible than sigmoid
- ▶ But: gradient vanishes for  $x < 0$

# Bias-variance tradeoff

Goal: generalization of training data

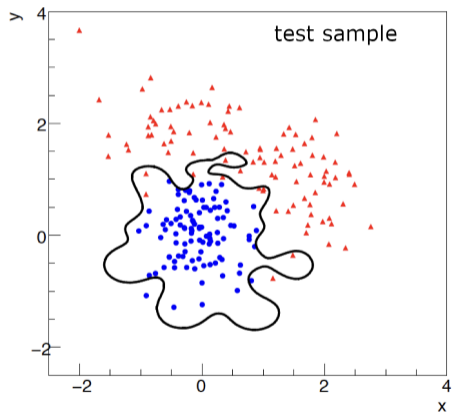
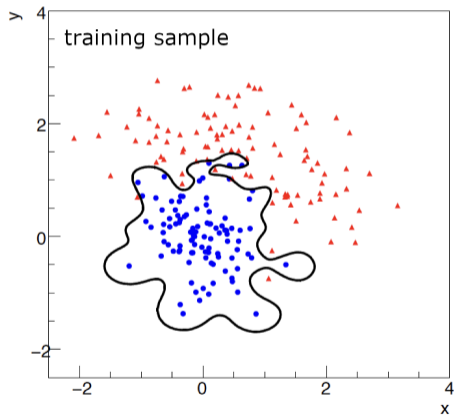
- ▶ Simple models (few parameters): danger of bias
  - ▶ Classifiers with a small number of degrees of freedom are less prone to statistical fluctuations: different training samples would result in similar classification boundaries ("small variance")
- ▶ Complex models (many parameters): danger of overfitting
  - ▶ large variance of decision boundaries for different training samples



## Example of overtraining

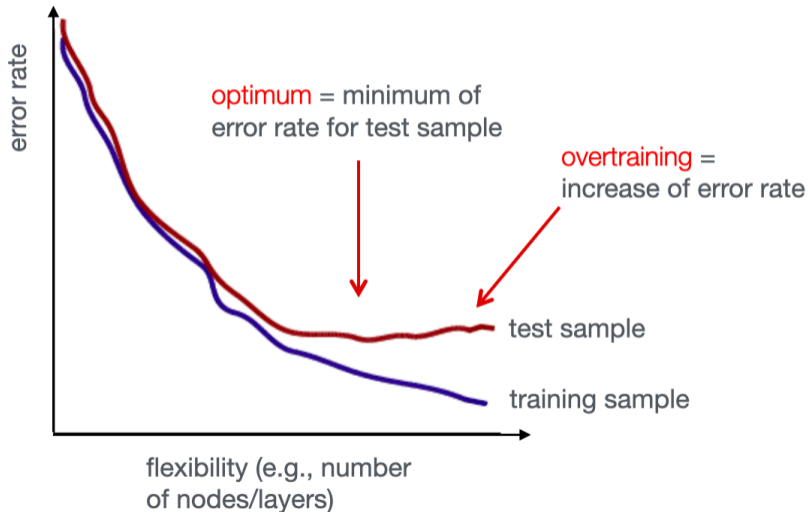
Too many neurons/layers make a neural network too flexible

→ overtraining



## Monitoring overtraining

Monitor fraction of misclassified events (or loss function:)



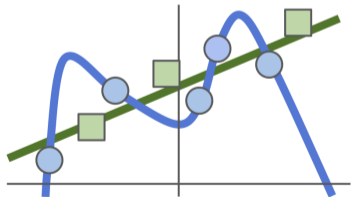
# Regularization: Avoid overfitting

<http://cs231n.stanford.edu/slides>

$$L(W) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L_i(f(x_i, W), y_i)}_{\text{Data loss}} + \underbrace{\lambda R(W)}_{\text{Regularization}}$$

**Data loss:** Model predictions should match training data

**Regularization:** Model should be “simple”, so it works on test data



**Occam's Razor:**

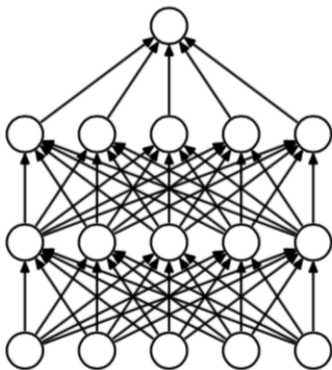
*“Among competing hypotheses, the simplest is the best”*

William of Ockham, 1285 - 1347

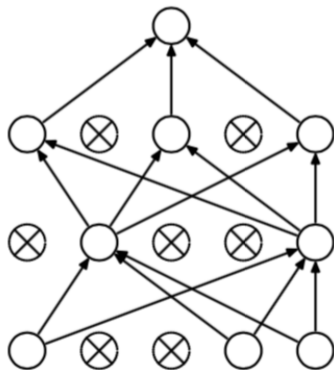
$L_1$  regularization:  $R(W) = \sum_k |W_k|$ ,  $L_2$  regularization:  $R(W) = \sum_k W_k^2$

## Another approach to prevent overfitting: Dropout

- ▶ Randomly remove nodes during training
- ▶ Avoid co-adaptation of nodes



(a) Standard Neural Net



(b) After applying dropout.

# Pros and cons of multi-layer perceptrons

## Pros

- ▶ Capability to learn non-linear models

## Cons

- ▶ Loss function can have several local minima
- ▶ Hyperparameters need to be tuned
  - ▶ number of layers, neurons per layer, and training iterations
- ▶ Sensitive to feature scaling
  - ▶ preprocessing needed (e.g., scaling of all feature to range  $[0,1]$ )



## Example 1: Boston house prices (MLP regression) (1)

- ▶ Objective: predict house prices in Boston suburbs in the mid-1970s
- ▶ Boston house data set: 506 instances, 13 features
  - CRIM per capita crime rate by town
  - ZN proportion of residential land zoned for lots over 25,000 sq.ft.
  - INDUS proportion of non-retail business acres per town
  - CHAS Charles River dummy variable (= 1 if tract bounds river; 0 otherwise)
  - NOX nitric oxides concentration (parts per 10 million)
  - RM average number of rooms per dwelling
  - AGE proportion of owner-occupied units built prior to 1940
  - DIS weighted distances to five Boston employment centres
  - RAD index of accessibility to radial highways
  - TAX full-value property-tax rate per \$10,000
  - PTRATIO pupil-teacher ratio by town
  - B  $1000(B_k - 0.63)^2$  where  $B_k$  is the proportion of blacks by town
  - LSTAT % lower status of the population
  - MEDV Median value of owner-occupied homes in \$1000's

## Example 1: Boston house prices (MLP regression) (2)

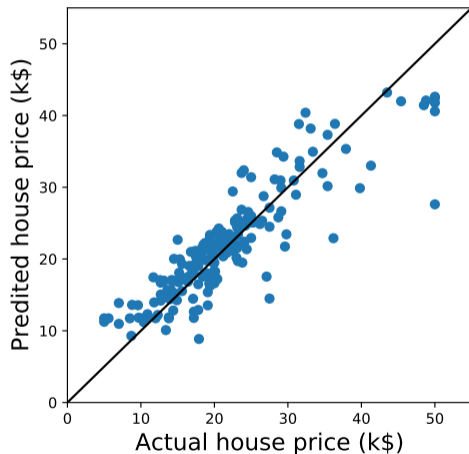
```
boston = datasets.load_boston()
X = boston.data
y = boston.target

from sklearn.neural_network import MLPRegressor
mlp = MLPRegressor(hidden_layer_sizes=(100),
                    activation='logistic', random_state=1, max_iter=5000)
mlp.fit(X_train, y_train)

y_pred_mlp = mlp.predict(X_test)

rms = np.sqrt(mean_squared_error(y_test, y_pred_mlp))
print(f"root mean square error {rms:.2f}")
```

## Example 1: Boston house prices (MLP regression) (3)



## Exercise 1: XOR

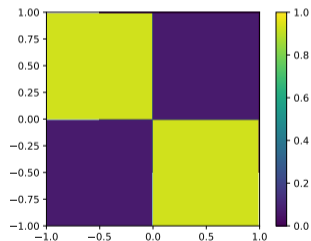
05\_neural\_networks\_ex\_1\_xor.ipynb

- a) Define a multi-layer perceptron classifier that learns the XOR problem.

```
from sklearn.neural_network import MLPClassifier
```

```
X = [[0, 0], [0, 1], [1, 0], [1, 1]]  
y = [0, 1, 1, 0]
```

- b) Define a multi-layer perceptron regressor that fits the depicted 2d data (see notebook).
- c) Plot the mean square error vs. the number of training epochs for b).



## Exercise 2: Visualising decision boundaries of classifiers

05\_neural\_networks\_ex\_2\_decision\_boundaries.ipynb

Visualize the decision boundaries of a scikit-learn decision tree, a scikit-learn multi-layer perceptron, and XGBoost for different toy data sets.

## Exercise 3: Boston house prices (hyperparameter optimization)

05\_neural\_networks\_ex\_3\_boston\_house\_prices.ipynb

- a) Can you find better hyperparameters (number of hidden layers, neurons per layer, loss function, ...)? Try this first by hand.
- b) Now use `sklearn.model_selection.GridSearchCV` to find optimal parameters.

# TensorFlow

- ▶ Powerful open source library with a focus on deep neural networks
- ▶ Performs computations of data flow graphs
- ▶ Takes care of computing gradients of the defined functions (*automatic differentiation*)
- ▶ Computations in parallel on multiple CPUs or GPUs
- ▶ Developed by the Google Brain team
- ▶ Initial release in 2015
- ▶ <https://www.tensorflow.org/>



# Keras

- ▶ Open-source library providing high-level building blocks for developing deep-learning models
- ▶ Uses TensorFlow as *backend engine* for low-level tensor manipulation (version 2.4)
- ▶ Part of TensorFlow core API since TensorFlow 1.4 release
- ▶ Over 375,000 individual users as of early-2020
- ▶ Primary author: François Chollet (Google engineer)
- ▶ <https://keras.io/>





## Example 2: Boston house prices with Keras

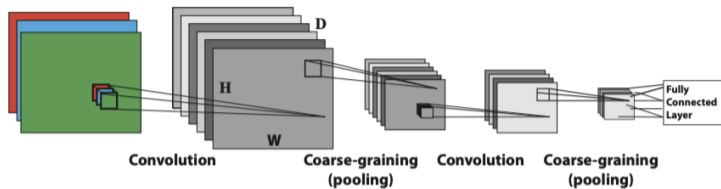
```
from keras import models
from keras import layers

model = models.Sequential()
model.add(layers.Dense(64, activation='relu',
                      input_shape=(train_data.shape[1],)))
model.add(layers.Dense(64, activation='relu'))
model.add(layers.Dense(1))
model.compile(optimizer='rmsprop', loss='mse', metrics=['mae'])

model.fit(partial_train_data, partial_train_targets,
          epochs=num_epochs, batch_size=1, verbose=0)

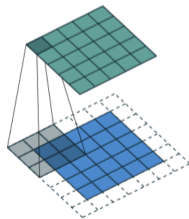
# Evaluate the model on the validation data
val_mse, val_mae = model.evaluate(val_data, val_targets, verbose=0)
```

# Convolutional neural networks (CNNs)



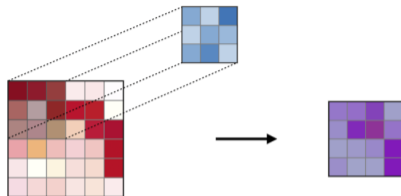
- ▶ CNNs emerged from the study of the visual cortex
- ▶ Behind many deep learning successes (e.g. in image recognition)
- ▶ Partially connected layers
  - ▶ Fully connected layers impractical for large images (too many neurons, overfitting)
- ▶ Key component: Convolutional layers
  - ▶ Set of learnable filters
  - ▶ Low-level features at the first layers; high-level features at the end

Sliding  $3 \times 3$  filter

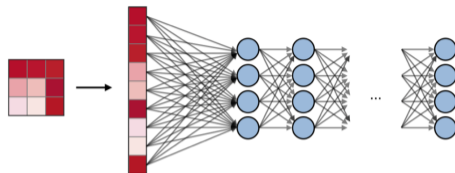


# Different types of layers in a CNN

## 1. Convolutional layers



## 3. Fully connected layers



## 2. Pooling layers

	Max pooling	Average pooling
<b>Purpose</b>	Each pooling operation selects the maximum value of the current view	Each pooling operation averages the values of the current view
<b>Illustration</b>		
<b>Comments</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Preserves detected features</li><li>- Most commonly used</li></ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"><li>- Downsamples feature map</li><li>- Used in LeNet</li></ul>

Afshine Amidi, Shervine Amidi

Convolutional Neural Networks cheatsheet

## MNIST classification with a CNN in Keras

```
from keras.models import Sequential
from keras.layers import Dense, Flatten, MaxPooling2D, Conv2D, Input, Dropout

# conv layer with 8 3x3 filters

model = Sequential(
    [
        Input(shape=input_shape),
        Conv2D(8, kernel_size=(3, 3), activation="relu"),
        MaxPooling2D(pool_size=(2, 2)),
        Flatten(),
        Dense(16, activation="relu"),
        Dense(num_classes, activation="softmax"),
    ]
)

model.summary()
```

## Defining the CNN in Keras (2)

Model: "sequential\_1"

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
conv2d_1 (Conv2D)	(None, 26, 26, 8)	80
max_pooling2d_1 (MaxPooling2D)	(None, 13, 13, 8)	0
flatten_1 (Flatten)	(None, 1352)	0
dense_2 (Dense)	(None, 16)	21648
dense_3 (Dense)	(None, 10)	170

Total params: 21,898

Trainable params: 21,898

Non-trainable params: 0

## Model definition

Using Keras, you have to compile a model, which means adding the loss function, the optimizer algorithm and validation metrics to your training setup.

```
model.compile(loss="categorical_crossentropy",  
              optimizer="adam",  
              metrics=["accuracy"])
```

# Model training

```
from keras.callbacks import ModelCheckpoint, EarlyStopping

checkpoint = ModelCheckpoint(
    filepath="mnist_keras_model.h5",
    save_best_only=True,
    verbose=1)
early_stopping = EarlyStopping(patience=2)

history = model.fit(x_train, y_train, # Training data
    batch_size=200, # Batch size
    epochs=50, # Maximum number of training epochs
    validation_split=0.5, # Use 50% of the train dataset for validation
    callbacks=[checkpoint, early_stopping]) # Register callbacks
```

## Exercise 4: Training a digit-classification neural network on the MNIST dataset using Keras

05\_neural\_networks\_ex\_4\_mnist\_keras\_train.ipynb

- a) Plot training and validation loss as well as training and validation accuracy as a function of the number of epochs
- b) Determine the accuracy of the fully trained model.
- c) Create a second notebook that reads the trained model (`mnist_keras_model.h5`). Read `your_own_digit.png` and classify it. Create your own  $28 \times 28$  pixel digits with a program like gimp and check how the model performs.



## Exercise 5: Higgs data set (1)

Application of deep neural networks for separation of signal and background in an exotic Higgs scenario

In this exercise we want to explore various techniques to optimize the event selection in the search for supersymmetric Higgs bosons at the LHC. In supersymmetry the Higgs sector constitutes of five Higgs bosons in contrast to the single Higgs in the standard model. Here we deal with a heavy Higgs boson which decays into two W-bosons and a standard Higgs boson ( $H^0 \rightarrow W^+ W^- h$ ) which decay further into leptons ( $W^\pm \rightarrow l^\pm \nu$ ) and b-quarks ( $h \rightarrow b\bar{b}$ ) respectively.

This exercise is based on a Nature paper (Pierre Baldi, Peter Sadowski, Daniel Whiteson) which contains much more information like general background information, details about the selection variables and links to large sets of simulated events. You might also use the paper as inspiration for the solution of this exercise.

## Exercise 5: Higgs data set (2)

The two dataset consists of 10k and 100k events respectively. For each event 29 variables are stored:

```
0: classification (1 = signal, 0 = background)
1 - 21 : low level quantities (var1 - var21)
22 -28 : high level quantities (var22 - var28)
```

You can read the data as follows:

```
#filename = "https://www.physi.uni-heidelberg.de/~reygers/lectures/2021/ml/data/HIGGS_10k.csv"
filename = "https://www.physi.uni-heidelberg.de/~reygers/lectures/2021/ml/data/HIGGS_100k.csv"

df = pd.read_csv(filename, engine='python')
```

- Use a classifier of your choice to separate signal and background events. Determine the accuracy score.
- Compare the results when using i) the low level quantities and ii) the high level quantities

## Practical advice – Which algorithm to choose?

From Kaggle competitions:

Structured data: “High level” features that have meaning:

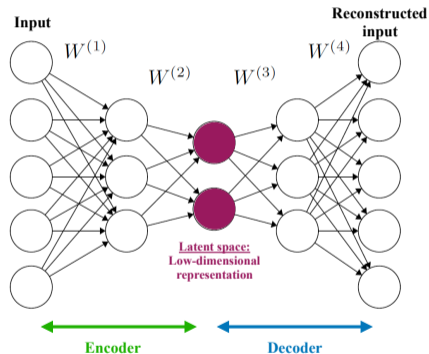
- ▶ feature engineering + decision trees
- ▶ Random forests
- ▶ XGBoost

Unstructured data: “Low level” features, no individual meaning:

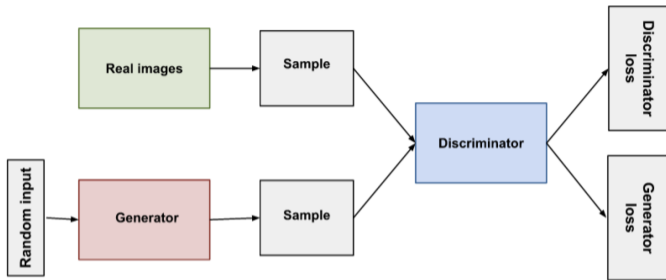
- ▶ deep neural networks
- ▶ e.g. image classification: convolutional NN

# Outlook: Autoencoders

- ▶ Unsupervised method based on neural networks to learn a representation of the input data
- ▶ Autoencoders learn to copy the input to the output layer
  - ▶ low dimensional coding of the input in the central layer
- ▶ The decoder generates data based on the coding (*generative model*)
- ▶ Applications
  - ▶ Dimensionality reduction
  - ▶ Denoising of data
  - ▶ Machine translation



# Outlook: Generative adversarial network (GANs)



[https://developers.google.com/machine-learning/gan/gan\\_structure](https://developers.google.com/machine-learning/gan/gan_structure)

- ▶ Discriminator's classification provides a signal that the generator uses to update its weights
- ▶ Application in particle physics: fast detector simulation
- ▶ Full GEANT simulation usually very CPU intensive

## The future

“Das Interessante an unserer Intelligenz ist, dass wir Go spielen können und dann vom Tisch aufstehen und Essen machen können, was eine Maschine nicht kann.”

Bernhard Schölkopf, Max-Planck-Institut für intelligente Systeme (Interview FAZ)

“My view is throw it all away and start again”

Geoffrey Hinton (DNN pioneer) on deep neural networks and backpropagation (Interview, 2017)