



"国际学生学术能力提升工程"系列讲座

# 经济村事土地村家

SILK ROAD DOCTOR FORUM (2022–12)

丝绸之路学院 2022年10月24日



# Fundamentals of Deep Learning and the Enhancing Factors

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#### **Outlines**



- ✓ The definition and differences of Deep Learning and Machine Learning.
- **✓** Understanding the Data.
- **✓** Cleaning Data.
- ✓ Scaling.
- **✓ Deep Learning Concepts**
- ✓ Choosing or Creating the Deep Learning Models.



#### The definition of Artificial Intelligence (AI)



Artificial Intelligence

**Machine** Learning

Deep Learning Artificial Intelligence (AI) is a science devoted to making machines think and act like humans.

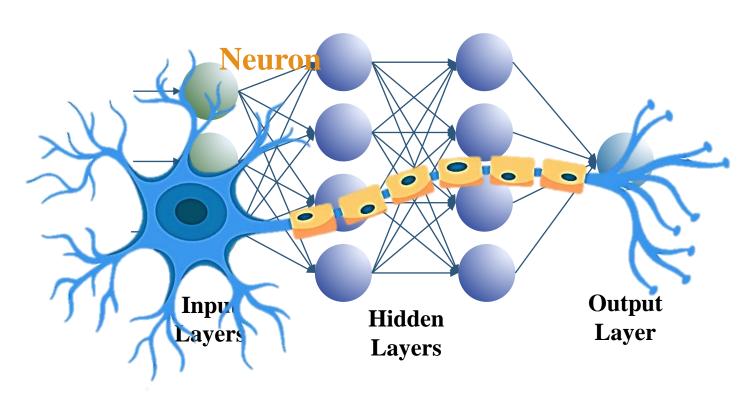
Focusing on a specific goal: setting computers up to be able to perform tasks without the need for explicit programming.

Designed to continually analyze data with a logical structure like how a human would draw conclusions.

#### **Deep Learning Methods**



Deep learning models introduce an extremely sophisticated approach to machine learning and are set to tackle these challenges because they've been specifically modeled after the human brain. Complex, multi-layered "deep neural networks" are built to allow data to be passed between nodes (like neurons) in highly connected ways. The result is a non-linear transformation of the data that is increasingly abstract.



#### Key Differences Between Machine Learning And Deep Learning





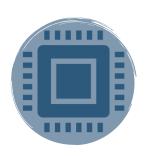
Human
Intervention
ML more than DL



Resources
DL more than ML



Approach
DL employs neural networks and ML uses traditional algorithms



**Hardware**DL more than ML



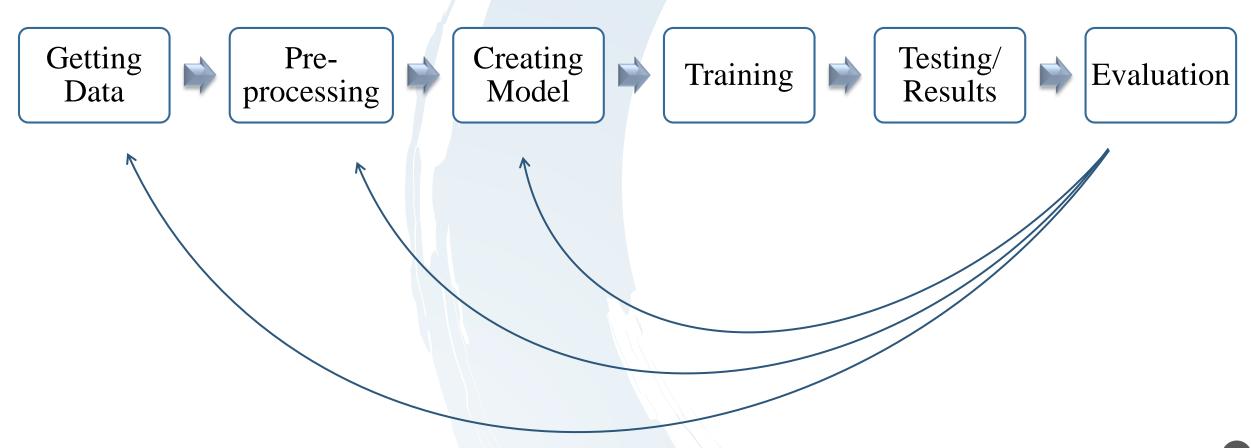
**Time**DL more than ML



Applications
DL is more
complex and less
used than ML

#### The Work Stages in the AI Field







"

It has been stated that up to 80% of data analysis is spent on the process of cleaning and preparing data. However, being a prerequisite to the rest of the data analysis workflow (visualization, modeling, reporting), it's essential that you become fluent and efficient in data wrangling techniques.

Page v, Data Wrangling with R, 2016.

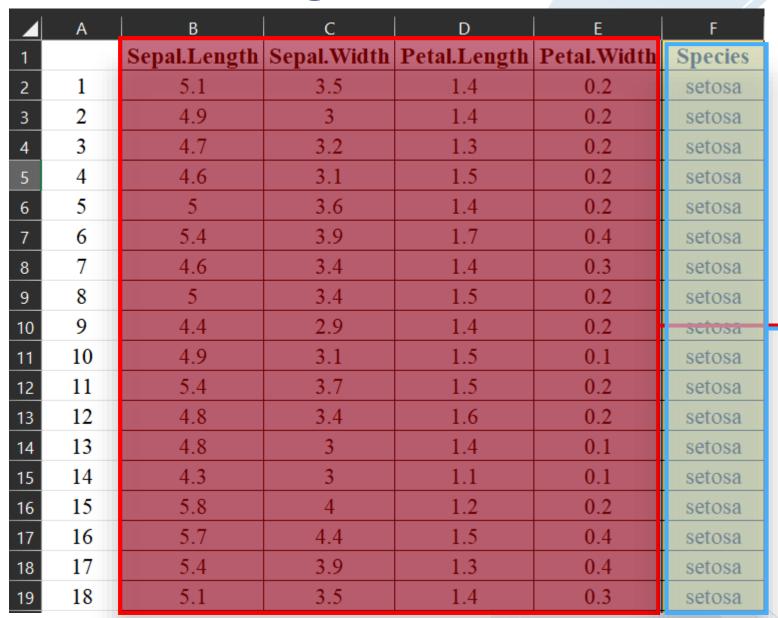




- **Row.** A single example from the domain is often called an *instance*, *example*, *case*, or *sample* in machine learning.
- Column. A single property recorded for each example is often called a *variable*, *predictor*, *attribute*, or *feature* in machine learning.
- Input Variables: Columns in the dataset provided to a model in order to make a prediction.
- Output Variable: Column in the dataset to be predicted by a model.

	Α	В	С	D	E	F
1		Sepal.Length	Sepal.Width	Petal.Length	Petal.Width	Species
2	1	5.1	3.5	1.4	0.2	setosa
3	2	4.9	3	1.4	0.2	setosa
4	3	4.7	3.2	1.3	0.2	setosa
5	4	4.6	3.1	1.5	0.2	setosa
6	5	5	3.6	1.4	0.2	setosa
7	6	5.4	3.9	1.7	0.4	setosa
8	7	4.6	3.4	1.4	0.3	setosa
9	8	5	3.4	1.5	0.2	setosa
10	9	4.4	2.9	1.4	0.2	setosa
11	10	4.9	3.1	1.5	0.1	setosa
12	11	5.4	3.7	1.5	0.2	setosa
13	12	4.8	3.4	1.6	0.2	setosa
14	13	4.8	3	1.4	0.1	setosa
15	14	4.3	3	1.1	0.1	setosa
16	15	5.8	4	1.2	0.2	setosa
17	16	5.7	4.4	1.5	0.4	setosa
18	17	5.4	3.9	1.3	0.4	setosa
19	18	5.1	3.5	1.4	0.3	setosa







Features /x

Labels /y

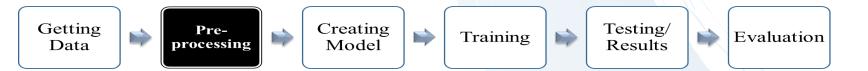
iris.csv



#### Mostly the collected data need:

- 1. Cleaning,
- 2. Enhance the data range,
- 3. Dimensionality reduction methods, or
- 4. Padding

	Α	В	С	D	E	F
1		Sepal.Length	Sepal.Width	Petal.Length	Petal.Width	Species
2	1	5.1	3.5	1.4	0.2	setosa
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19	18	5.1	3.5	1.4	0.3	setosa



																S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S S			
	Α	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	ı	J	K	L	М	Z	AA	AB			
8	1	1	5E+05	?	60	?	3	?	?	NaN	?	4	2#	0	0	2			
9	2	1	5E+05	?	80	36	3	4	3	1	4	4	4	0	0	2			
10	2	9	5E+06	38.3	90	?	1	?	1	1	5	3	1	0	0	1			
11	1	1	5E+05	38.1	66	12	3	3	5	1	3	3	1	0	0	1			
12	2	1	5E+05	39.1	72a	52	2	?	2	1	2	1	2	0	0	2			
13	1	1	5E+05	37.2	42	12	2	1	1	1	3	3	3	0	0	2			
14	2	9	5E+06	38	92	28	1	1	2	1	1		2	0	0	1			
15	1	1	5E+05	38.2	76	28	3	1	1	1	3	4	1	0	0	2			
16	1	1	5E+05	37.6	96	48	3	1	4	1	5	3	3	0	0	2			
17	1	9	5E+06	?	128	36	3	3	4	2	4	4	3	0	0	1			
18	2	1	5E+05	37.5	48	24	?	?	?	?	?	?	?	0	0	2			
19	1	1	5E+06	37.6	64	21	1	1	2	1	2	3	1	0	0	1			
20	2	1	5E+05	39.4	110	35	4	3	6	?	?	3	3	0	0	2			
21	1	1	5E+05	39.9	72	60	1	1	5	2	5	4	4	0	0	2			



Existing Outlier, Skewed, and Noise values may happen because of many reasons, such as:

- Measurement or input errors.
- Because of image resolution, or weather situation
- Data corruption.
- Outlier observation





**Spatial resolution** describes the quality of an image and how detailed objects are in an image. If the grid cells are smaller, this means the spatial resolution has more detail with more pixels.



High Spatial Resolution



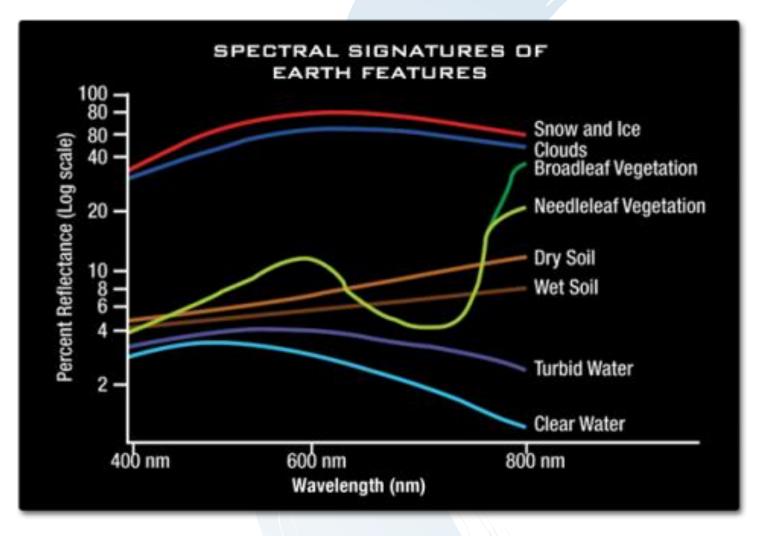
Medium Spatial Resolution



Low Spatial Resolution

























Evaluation



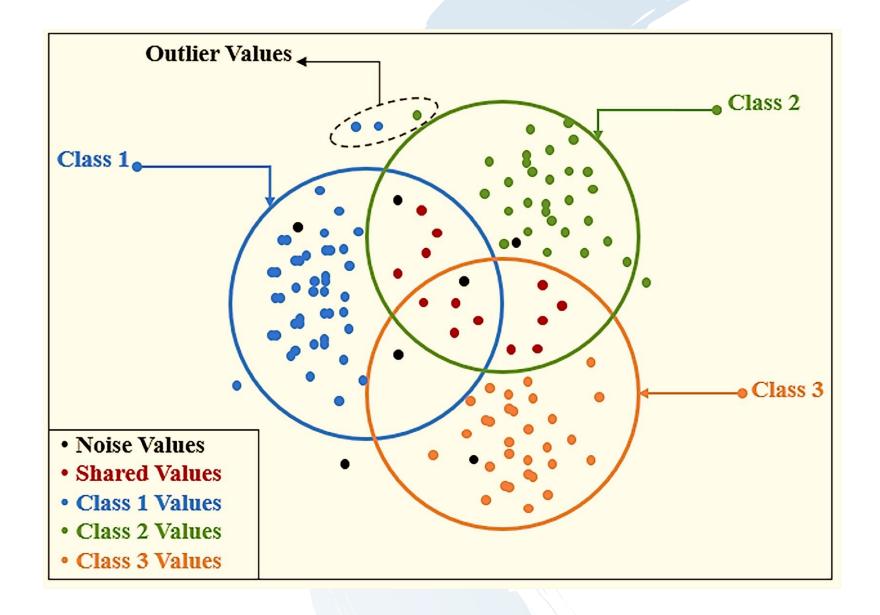


Dataset	Sensor	Band Numbers	Spatial Dimensions	Spatial Resolution	Classes Number	
Dioni	Hyperion sensor (EO-1, USGS)	176	250 × 1376m	30m	12	



The Dioni Dataset (HIS)





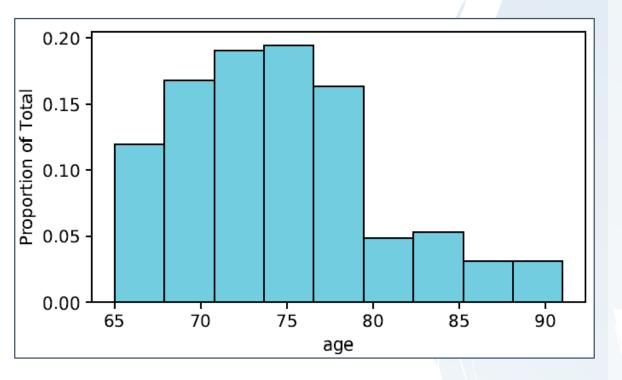
#### **HSI**





# Histogram

#### What Is a Histogram?





#### **Key Takeaways**

- A histogram is a bar graph-like representation of data that buckets <u>a range</u> of classes into columns along the horizontal x-axis.
- The vertical **y-axis** represents the number count or percentage of occurrences in the data for each column (frequencies).

#### When to Use Histogram?

The histogram graph is used under certain conditions. They are:

- The data should be numerical.
- A histogram is used to check the shape of the data distribution.
- Used to check whether the process changes from one period to another.

#### The Box and Whisker Pot



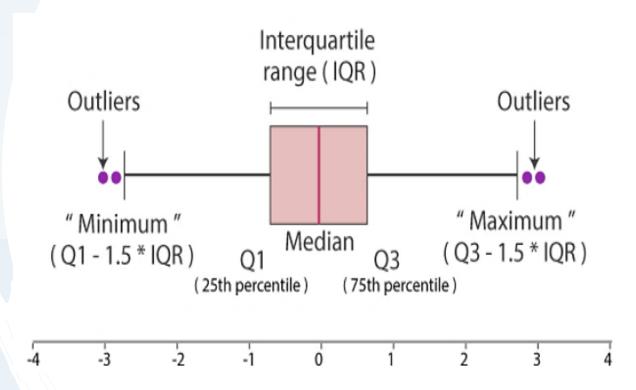
- A boxplot can be viewed as a graphical representation of the <u>five-number summary</u> of the data consisting of the minimum, maximum, and the first, second, and third quartiles.
- The box and whisker plot displays how the data is <u>spread out</u>.
- It does not display the distribution as accurately as a stem and leaf plot or histogram does. But it is principally used to show whether a distribution is *skewed* or not and if there are potential unusual observations present in the data set, which are also called *outliers*.
- Boxplots are also very useful when <u>huge numbers of data</u> collections are involved or compared.

#### The Box and Whisker Pot

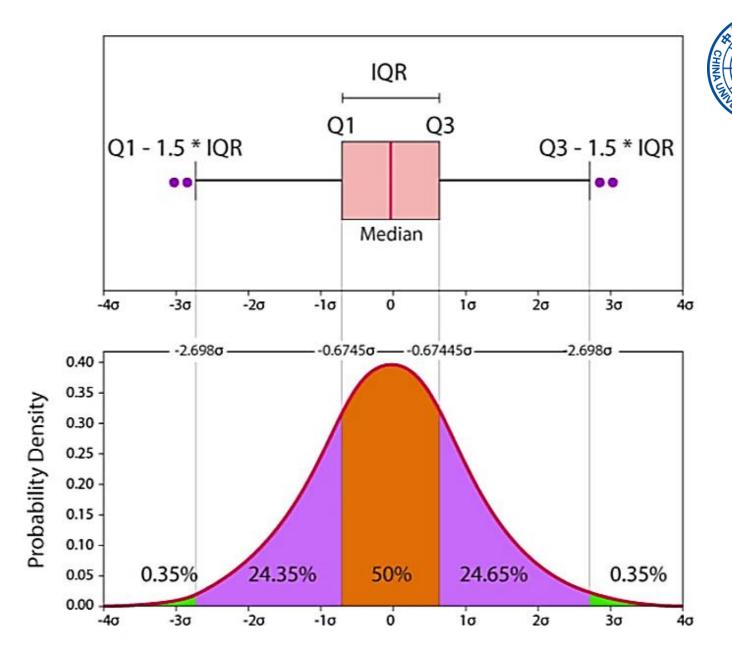


#### Elements of a Box and Whisker Plot

- **1. Minimum value** ( $Q_0$  or 0th percentile)
- 2. First quartile ( $Q_1$  or 25th percentile)
- 3. Median ( $Q_2$  or 50th percentile)
- **4. Third quartile** ( $Q_3$  or 75th percentile)
- 5. Maximum value ( $Q_4$  or 100th percentile)



# The Box and Whisker Pot

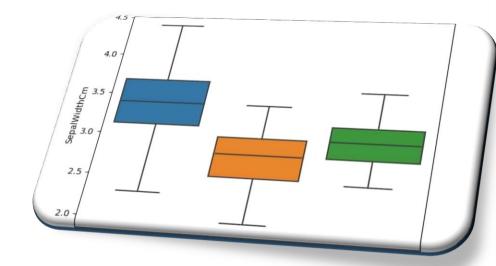


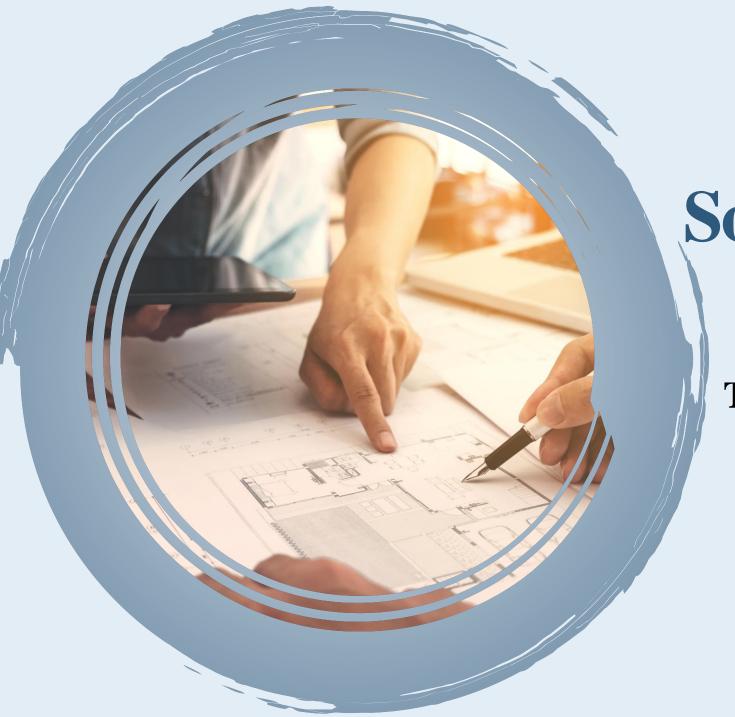


#### When to Use the Box Pot?



- To check the shape of the data distribution.
- It is useful when having a huge dataset.
- To show whether a distribution is skewed or have outliers.







## Solve Some of Data Challenges

The scaling and the distribution

## What do you see





	А	В	С	D	Е	F	G	Н	1	J	K	L	М	N	0	Р	Q	R	S
1 1	.643288845	2	0	0	1	0	0	4	335000000	20	100	0	3	294	0.75	8.96E-09	73.5	8.78E-07	0
2 1	.643288845	2	5050	38306	6	0	0	4	336000000	20	100	0	58662	3871692	14665.5	0.00017	967923	0.0115229	0
3 1	.643288845	2	5050	38306	1	0	8	4	357000000	20	100	0	3	294	0.75	8.40E-09	73.5	8.24E-07	0
4	.643288845	2	38306	5050	6	0	8	4	357000000	20	100	0	2E+05	1.1E+10	52105.75	0.00058	2.77E+09	31.038566	0
5 1	.643288845	3	0	0	1	0	0	4	327000000	20	100	0	3	294	0.75	9.17E-09	73.5	8.99E-07	0
6 1	.643288845	3	5050	38306	6	0	0	4	308000000	20	100	0	58662	3871692	14665.5	0.00019	967923	0.0125704	0
7 1	.643288845	3	5050	38306	1	0	8	4	360000000	20	100	0	3	294	0.75	8.33E-09	73.5	8.17E-07	0
8 1	.643288845	3	38306	5050	6	0	8	4	362000000	20	100	0	2E+05	1.1E+10	52105.5	0.00058	2.77E+09	30.609857	0
9 1	.643288845	1	0	0	1	0	0	4	341000000	20	100	0	3	294	0.75	8.80E-09	73.5	8.62E-07	0
10	.643288845	1	5050	38306	6	0	0	4	342000000	20	100	0	58663	3871790	14665.75	0.00017	967947.5	0.011321	0
11 1	.643288845	1	5050	38306	1	0	8	4	345000000	20	100	0	3	294	0.75	8.70E-09	73.5	8.52E-07	0
12	.643288845	1	38306	5050	6	0	8	4	351000000	20	100	0	2E+05	1.1E+10	52105.5	0.00059	2.77E+09	31.56914	0
13	.643288850	3	0	0	1	0	0	9	329000000	20	100	0	8	784	0.888889	2.43E-08	87.11111	2.38E-06	0
14	.643288850	3	5050	38306	6	0	0	9	310000000	20	100	0	1E+05	9189972	15471.33	0.00045	1021108	0.0296451	0
15 1	.643288850	3	5050	38306	1	0	8	9	362000000	20	100	0	8	784	0.888889	2.21E-08	87.11111	2.17E-06	0
16	.643288850	3	38306	5050	6	0	8	9	364000000	20	100	0	5E+05	2.6E+10	54738.11	0.00135	2.91E+09	71.899819	0
17	.643288850	2	0	0	1	0	0	9	337000000	20	100	0	8	784	0.888889	2.37E-08	87.11111	2.33E-06	0
18	.643288850	2	5050	38306	6	0	0	9	338000000	20	100	0	1E+05	9189972	15471.33	0.00041	1021108	0.0271893	0
,	<u> </u>	~ _	5050	20206	4	^		_	35000000	20	400			704	0.00000	2 225 00	074444	2 405 06	

### **Data Scaling Methods**



- It is common to scale data before feeding it into a machine learning model. This is because data often consists of many different input variables or features (columns), and each may have a different range of values or units of measure, such as **feet**, **miles**, **kilograms**, **dollars**, etc.
- If input variables have very large values relative to the other input variables, these large values can dominate or skew some machine learning algorithms.
- The result is that the algorithms pay most of their attention to the large values and ignore the variables with smaller values.

Complex the process Reduce the accuracy Increasing the time

## Scaling Features to a Range



- An alternative standardization is scaling features to lie between a given minimum and maximum value, often between zero and one, or so that the maximum absolute value of each feature is scaled to unit size. Like:
- MinMaxScaler:

$$y = \frac{x - min(x)}{max(x) - min(x)}$$

- > sklearn.preprocessing.MinMaxScaler()
- StandardScaler:

$$y = \frac{x - mean(x)}{std(x)}$$

sklearn.preprocessing.StandardScaler()

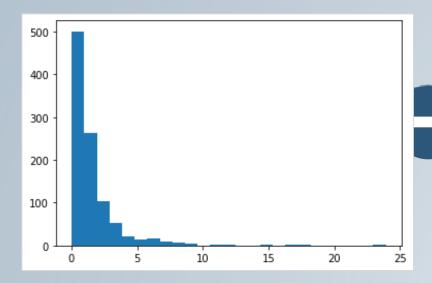
#### **Data Standardization**

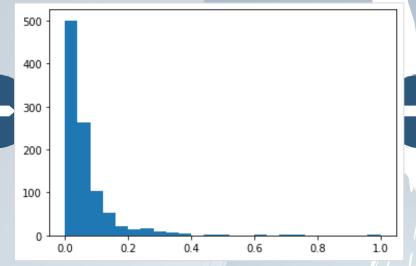


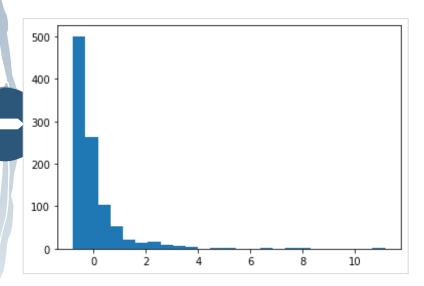
**Input Data** 

MinMaxScaler

**StandardScaler** 







What do you see, and what the results



#### **Data Standardization**



What kind of problems can we solve using data standardization or scaling methods?



#### **Abnormal Distribution**

- Machine learning algorithms like Linear Regression and Gaussian Naive Bayes assume the numerical variables have a Gaussian probability distribution.
- Your data may not have a Gaussian distribution.
- Instead, they may have a Gaussian-like distribution (e.g., nearly Gaussian but with outliers or a skew) or
- a totally different distribution (e.g., exponential).



#### **Abnormal Distribution**

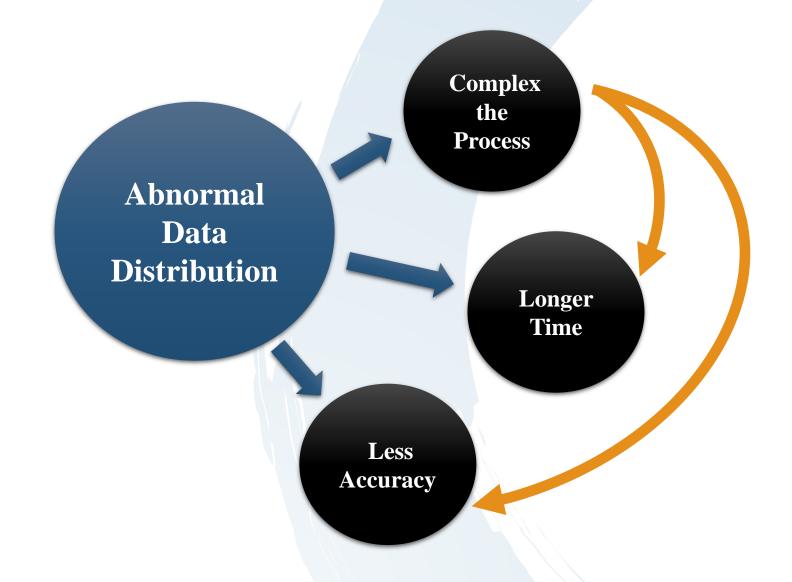
What do you think, which kind of difficulties you can face if your data has abnormal distribution?





#### **Abnormal Distribution**





#### Gaussian/Uniform/Normal Distribution



- Some input variables may have a highly skewed distribution, such as an exponential distribution where the most common observations are bunched together. Some input variables may have <u>outliers that cause the distribution to be highly spread.</u>
- 1. The quantile function ranks or smooths out the relationship between observations and can be mapped onto other distributions, such as the *uniform* or *normal* distribution.
  - This quantile transform is available in the scikit-learn Python machine learning library via the *QuantileTransformer* class.
  - The class has an "output\_distribution" argument that can be set to "*uniform*" or "*normal*" and defaults to "*uniform*".

#### Gaussian/Uniform/Normal Distribution

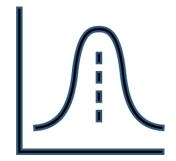


- Make Data More Gaussian (normal distribution)
  - ✓ The Gaussian is a common distribution with the familiar <u>bell</u> shape.
  - ✓ These transforms are most effective when the data distribution is nearly-Gaussian, to begin with, and is affected by skew or outliers.



#### 2. Power Transforms

A power transform will make the probability distribution of a variable more Gaussian. This is often described as removing a skew in the distribution. There are two popular approaches (method) for such automatic power transforms:

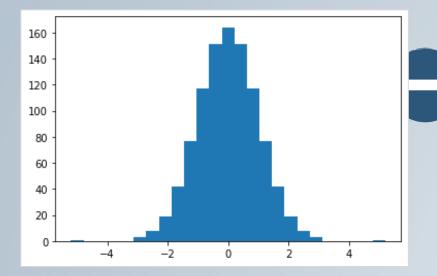


- 1. Box-Cox Transform
- 2. Yeo-Johnson Transform

#### Gaussian/Uniform Distribution

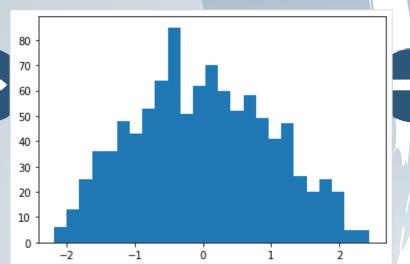
QuantileTransformer

→'normal'



PowerTransformer

→'yeo-johnson'



Input Data

300

100

500

100

5

10

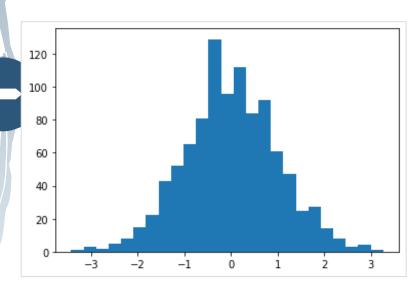
15

20

25

PowerTransformer

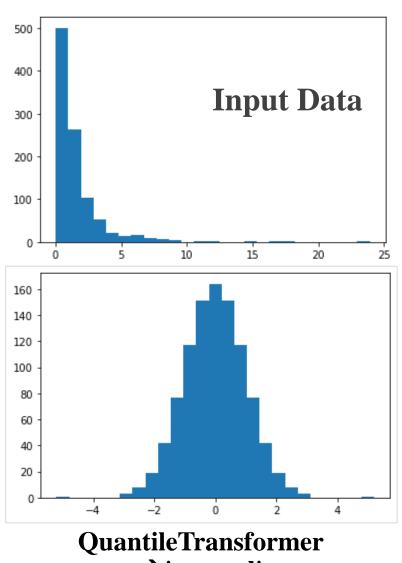
→'box-cox'



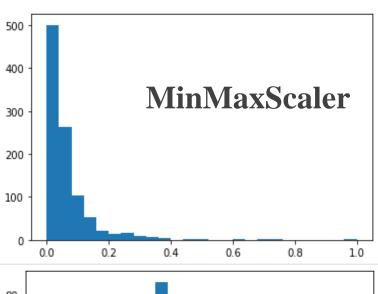
What do you see

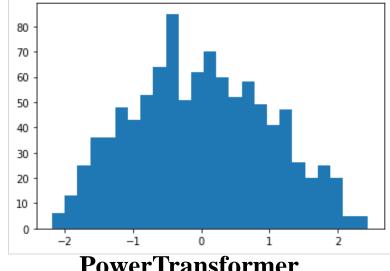


#### **Data Distribution**

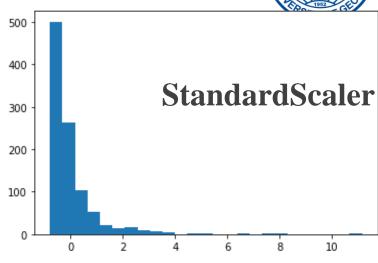


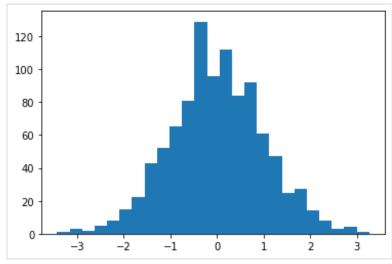
→'normal'











**PowerTransformer** →'box-cox'





# Dimensionality Reduction Methods

The enhancing and reducing

# **Dimensionality Reduction**



- The number of input variables or features for a dataset is referred to as its dimensionality.
- Dimensionality reduction refers to techniques that reduce the number of input variables in a dataset.
- More input features often make a predictive modeling task more challenging to model, more generally referred to as the curse of dimensionality.
  - ✓ Difficult visualization,
  - ✓ Complex method,
  - ✓ Longer time,

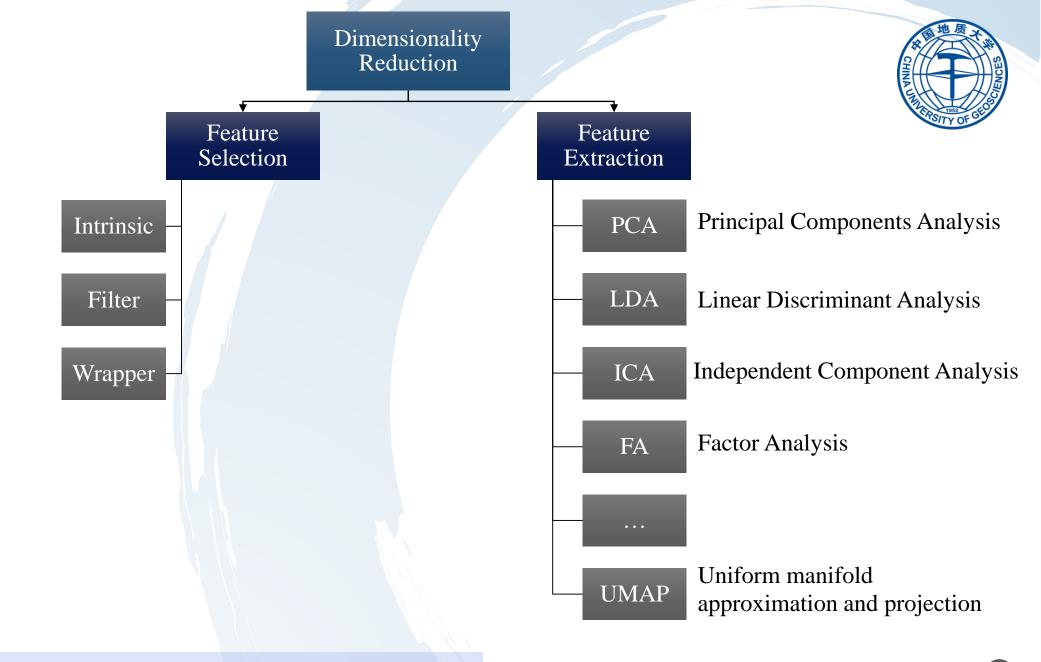
- ✓ Large numbers of input features can cause poor performance for AI algorithms.,
- ✓ Overfitting
- ✓ More resources

# **Dimensionality Reduction**



- Dimensionality reduction can be used for
  - ✓ noise reduction,
  - ✓ data visualization,
  - ✓ cluster analysis,

- ✓ as an intermediate step to facilitate other analyses,
- ✓ speed up the process, and
- ✓ resource reduction



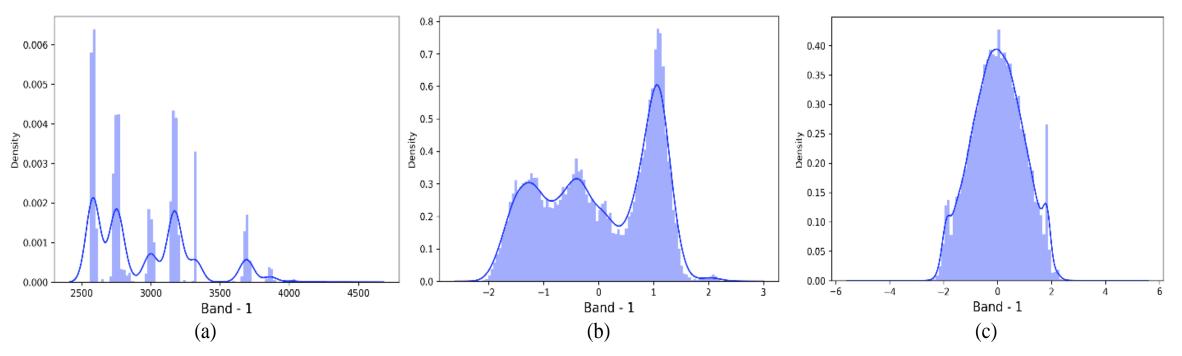
# **Dimensionality Reduction**



- Compression and Reinforced Variation (CRV)
- Improving Distribution Analysis (IDA)
- Enhancing Transformation Reduction (ETR)
- https://github.com/DalalAL-Alimi





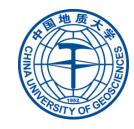


(a) is the original data, (b) is the change of data distribution after using principal components analysis (PCA), and (c) is the data distribution after using quantile transformation principal components analysis (QPCA).



	Main	PCA	QPCA			
Count	21025	21025	21025	5000	3	6
Mean	2957.36	6.5E-16	-0.0011	4500	2	4
Std	354.919	1	0.95359	3500 3000 ×	1	2
Min	2560	-2.2061	-5.1993	2500	0 ×	0 ×
25%	2602	-0.887	-0.6739	2000 1500	-1	-2
50%	2780	0.0208	0.0031	1000	-2	-4
75%	3179	0.97266	0.67668	500	-3	-6
Max	4536	2.58808	5.19934	(a)	(b)	(c)

(a) is the distribution of the original data, (b) is for the data after using PCA, and (c) is the shape of the data after using QPCA.



#	PCA-SVM	QPCA- SVM	PCA- CNN1d	QPCA- CNN1d	PCA- VGG-16	QPCA- VGG-16	PCA- Hybrid CNN	QPCA- Hybrid CNN	PCA- MLHM	QPCA- MLHM
KA (%)	80	73.91	80.39	78.33	83.77	94.68	98.96	99.25	99.39	99.41
OA (%)	82.50	77.16	82.84	81.03	85.87	95.34	99.09	99.34	99.47	99.47
AA (%)	80.28	70.63	79.48	78.24	66.58	81.89	98.17	98.71	99.01	99.36
Training Time (s)	0.41	0.67	21.87	36.04	53.44	50.95	65.60	60.40	41.67	25.47
Test Time (s)	2.40	2.45	0.25	0.27	2.20	2.24	1.93	1.83	4.53	3.64



# Considerations for Training the DL Model

**Methods and Parameters** 



- During the training time, we use many concepts and techniques to improve output and the accuracy of results.
- Some of these methods or techniques:

#### 1. Weight Initialization

- Using deep or many layers of Neural Networks (NN) cause exploding or vanishing gradients thus affect badly in backwards operation rather than improve the accuracy by adding more layers.
- Due to this reason, weight initialization is used to prevent the outputs of activation layer from exploding or vanishing during the track of a forward pass through a deep neural network,
- also using weight initialization speeds up the learning process and to keep the variance of the activations are the same in all network layers.



- Some methods of the weights initializing:
  - ✓ random\_normal\_initializer
  - ✓ random\_uniform
  - ✓ variance\_scaling\_initializer
  - ✓ zeros\_initializer
  - ✓ keras.layers.BatchNormalization

#### 2. Batch Normalization

- Batch Normalization (BN) is widely used to improve performance of models. Due to using deeper NN, two main problems appear:
- 1. Exploding Gradient.
- 2. Vanishing Gradient.

- The main aim behind BN is to limit the covariate shift by normalizing each layer's activations.
- It, hopefully, helps each layer to learn with more stable input distribution, thus improving the network's training. Batch normalization firstly works to calculate the mean and variance inputs of layers.
- Then, to improve a neural network's stability, the output of a previous activation layer is normalized by subtracting the batch mean and <u>dividing it by</u> the standard deviation.
- The advantages of BN as the following:
  - 1. Faster and higher learning rate. → to get the target accuracy
  - 2. Reducing the Covariate Shift.
  - 3. Reducing the overfitting (Reducing the need for dropout).
  - 4. Avoiding Vanishing Gradient.



#### 3. Cost Function

- Binary for two classes
- with more than two classes, we need to use cross-entropy loss and Softmax classifiers functions.

# **Optimization Techniques**



• Many optimization techniques are used to improve the learning ability of neural networks to solve many complex issues. For example, in machine learning, there are two types of parameters that can be used in any mode to optimize it.

#### 1. Model parameters

• they are machine learning algorithms and a part of the learned model. Their values are not constant and depend on input and hyperparameters values. This means their values are updated and changed many times during the training time until getting the best weight or accuracy. Weight (w) and bias (b) are examples of model parameters.

# **Optimization Techniques**



#### 2. Hyperparameters

- These are parameters with constant values that must be tuned and edited by trial and error in order to obtain the model with optimal performance.
- Also, the potential values of these parameters are not changed or affected throughout the training.
- The intention of hyperparameters is to modify the weight and the bias and additionally to enhance the performance and the velocity of the training.
- The examples of hyperparameters include:
  - $\checkmark$  Learning rate ( $\alpha$ )

- **✓ Number of hidden units**
- **✓** Iteration number (epoch)
- **✓** Momentum
- **✓** Number of hidden layers
- **✓** Minibatch size
- ✓ Regularization parameter  $(\lambda)$





# Activation Function

The Differences and Work

#### What is Activation Function?

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 It is a function used to modify (control) and get the output of the node. It is also known as Transfer Function.

Neuron **Dendrites** (information coming from other neurons) Flow of information Synapses (information output to other neurons)

Artificial neuron

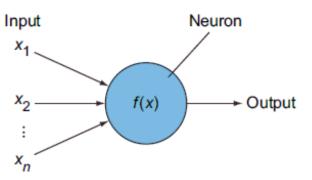


Figure 1.3 The similarities between biological neurons and artificial systems

Biological neuron

Name	Plot	Equation	Derivative			
Identity		f(x) = x	f'(x) = 1			
Binary step		$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$	$f'(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x \neq 0 \\ ? & \text{for } x = 0 \end{cases}$			
Logistic (a.k.a Soft step)		$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$	f'(x) = f(x)(1 - f(x))			
TanH		$f(x) = \tanh(x) = \frac{2}{1 + e^{-2x}} - 1$	$f'(x) = 1 - f(x)^2$			
ArcTan		$f(x) = \tan^{-1}(x)$	$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$			
Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)		$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \\ x & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$	$f'(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$			
Parameteric Rectified Linear Unit (PReLU) <sup>[2]</sup>		$f(x) = \begin{cases} \alpha x & \text{for } x < 0 \\ x & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$	$f'(x) = \begin{cases} \alpha & \text{for } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$			
Exponential Linear Unit (ELU) <sup>[3]</sup>		$f(x) = \begin{cases} \alpha(e^x - 1) & \text{for } x < 0 \\ x & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$	$f'(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) + \alpha & \text{for } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$			
SoftPlus		$f(x) = \log_e(1 + e^x)$	$f'(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$			







# Relu VS ELU

Its Differences and When It is Used

# ReLu VS ELU Activation Functions (AF)

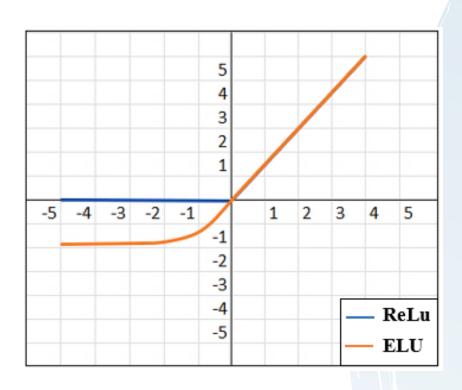


 ReLu is an activation function used in many kind of NN.



## ReLu VS ELU Activation Functions (AF)

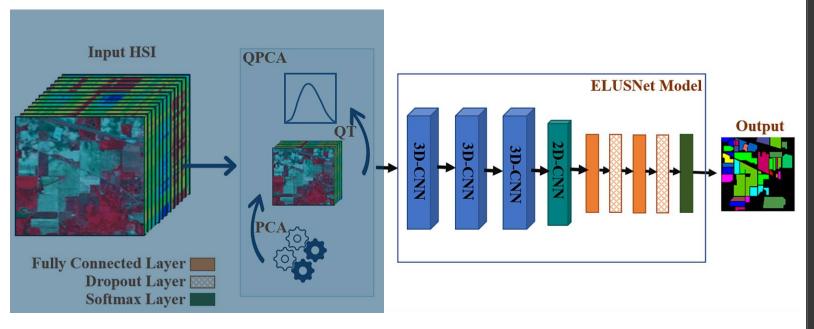


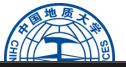


$$relu(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & if \ x \leq 0 \\ x & if \ x > 0 \end{cases} = max(0, x)$$

$$elu(x) = \begin{cases} exp(x) - 1 & if \ x \le 1 \\ x & if \ x > 1 \end{cases}$$

#### ReLu VS ELU AF



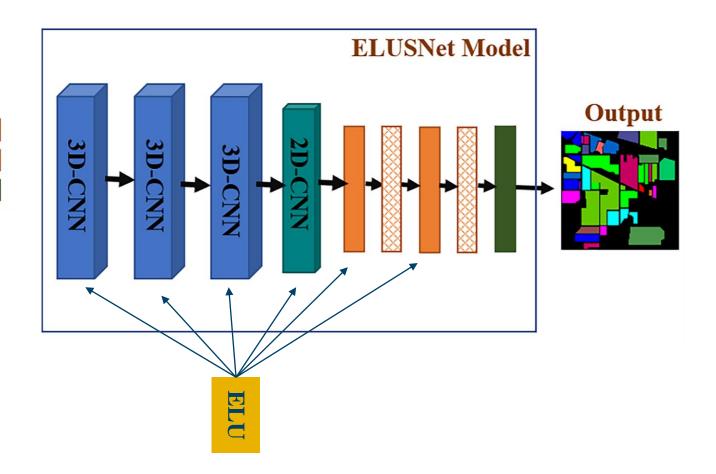


```
1 X_c, y = createImageCubes(ddd, y, windowSize=3)
     3 X_c.shape, y.shape
_→ margin = 1
    zeroPadded_X = [[[ 0.]
          0.]
          0.]
          0.]
          0.]]
     [[ 0.]
      [4142.]
      [4266.]
      [4266.]
          0.]]
        0.]
      [4258.]
      [4018.]
      [4262.]
         0.]]
     [[ 0.]
      [4134.]
      [4014.]
      [4142.]
      [ 0.]]
          0.]
          0.]
          0.]
          0.]
    zeroPadded X shape = (5, 5, 1)
    ((9, 3, 3, 1), (9,))
```

### ReLu VS ELU AF

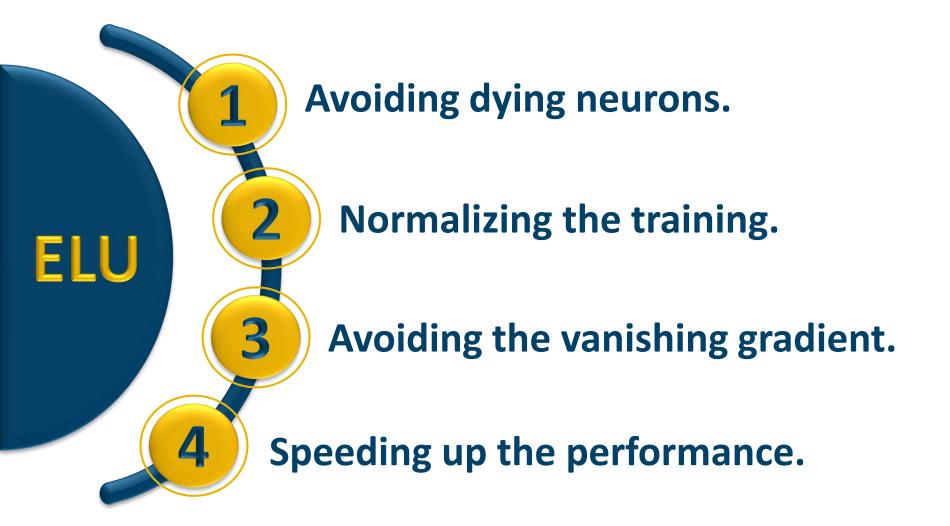


Fully Connected Layer Dropout Layer Softmax Layer



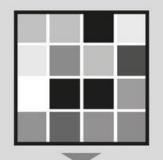
## ReLu VS ELU Activation Functions (AF)



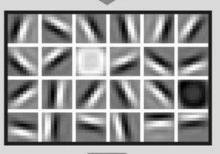


#### **FACIAL RECOGNITION**

Deep-learning neural networks use layers of increasingly complex rules to categorize complicated shapes such as faces.



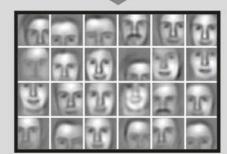
Layer 1: The computer identifies pixels of light and dark.



Layer 2: The computer learns to identify edges and simple shapes.

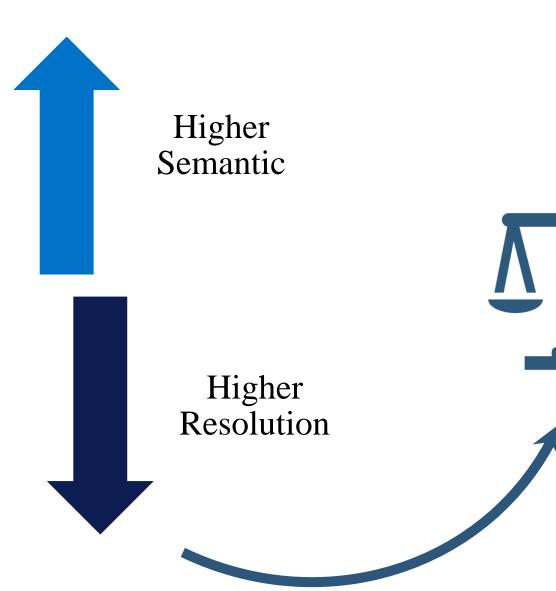


Layer 3: The computer learns to identify more complex shapes and objects.



Layer 4: The computer learns which shapes and objects can be used to define a human face.









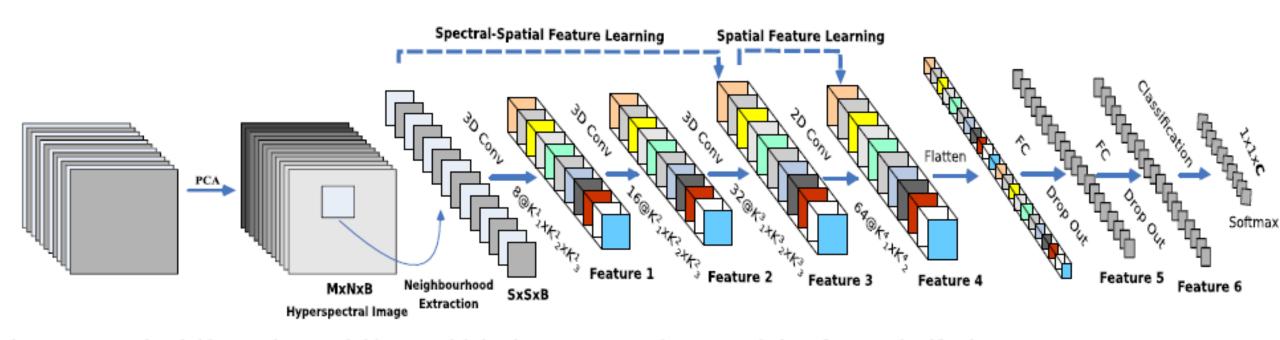
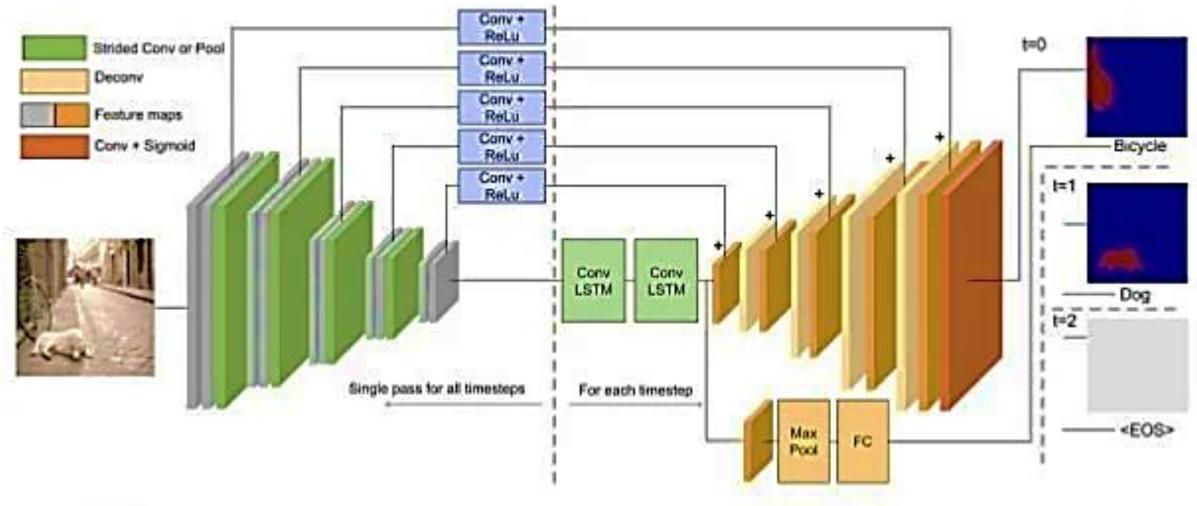


Fig. 1. Proposed HybridSpectralNet (HybridSN) model that integrates 3-D and 2-D convolutions for HSI classification.

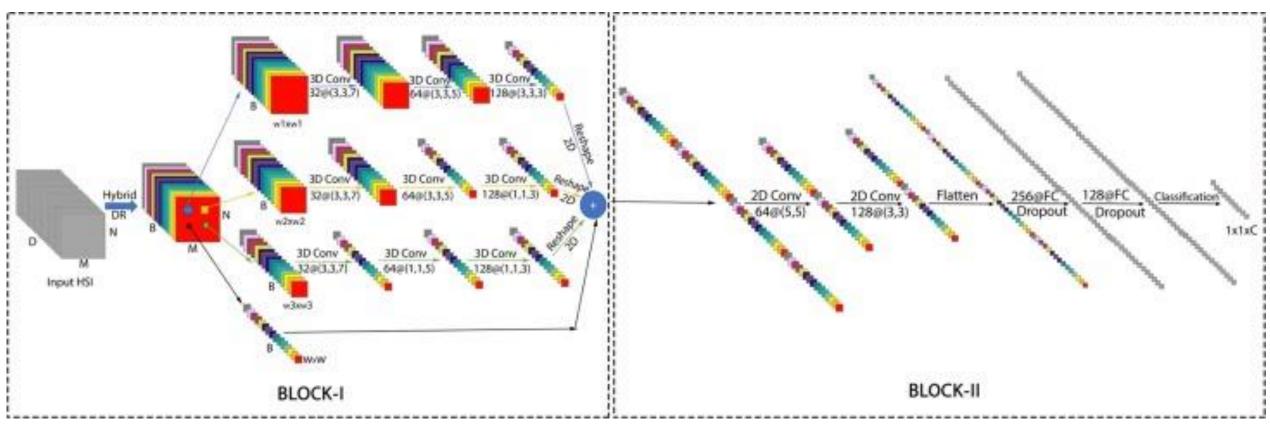
# Skip connections

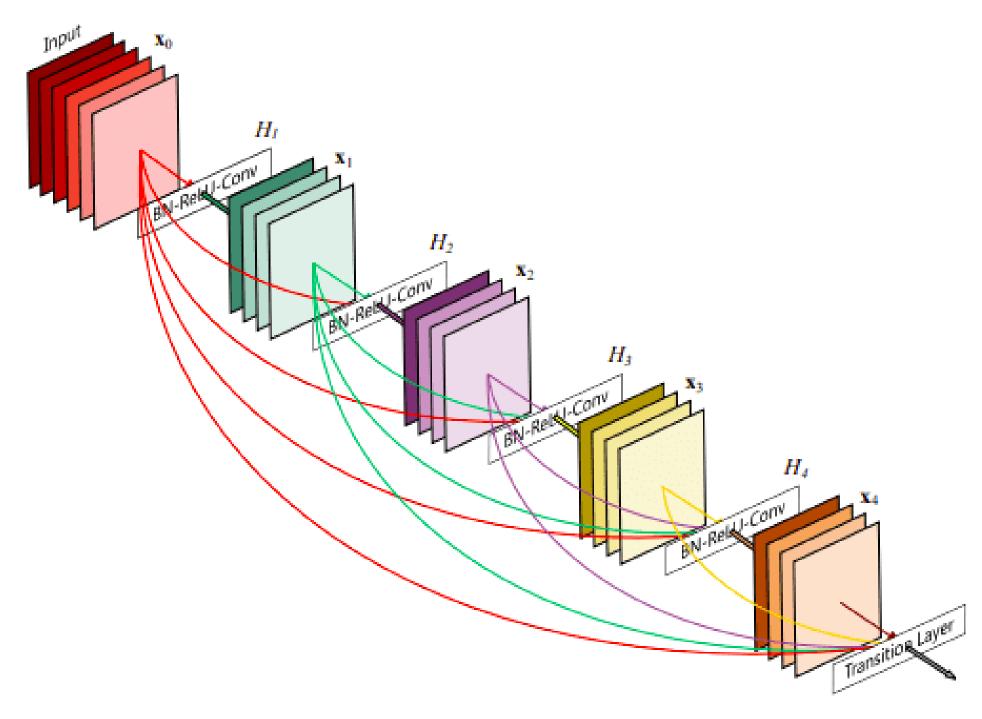


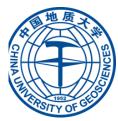


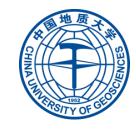












#	PCA-SVM	QPCA- SVM	PCA- CNN1d	QPCA- CNN1d	PCA- VGG-16	QPCA- VGG-16	PCA- Hybrid CNN	QPCA- Hybrid CNN	PCA- MLHM	QPCA- MLHM
KA (%)	80	73.91	80.39	78.33	83.77	94.68	98.96	99.25	99.39	99.41
OA (%)	82.50	77.16	82.84	81.03	85.87	95.34	99.09	99.34	99.47	99.47
AA (%)	80.28	70.63	79.48	78.24	66.58	81.89	98.17	98.71	99.01	99.36
Training Time (s)	0.41	0.67	21.87	36.04	53.44	50.95	65.60	60.40	41.67	25.47
Test Time (s)	2.40	2.45	0.25	0.27	2.20	2.24	1.93	1.83	4.53	3.64

#### Recognizing images

Animals, humans, and insects all have eyes as sensing devices. But not all eyes have the same structure, output image quality, and resolution. They are tailored to the specific needs of the creature. Bees, for instance, and many other insects, have compound eyes that consist of multiple lenses (as many as 30,000 lenses in a single compound eye). Compound eyes have low resolution, which makes them not so good at recognizing objects at a far distance. But they are very sensitive to motion, which is essential for survival while flying at high speed. Bees don't need high-resolution pictures. Their vision systems are built to allow them to pick up the smallest movements while flying fast.



Time or accuracy



Compound eyes

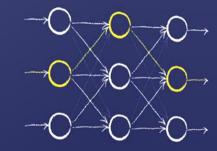


How bees see a flower

Compound eyes are low resolution but sensitive to motion.

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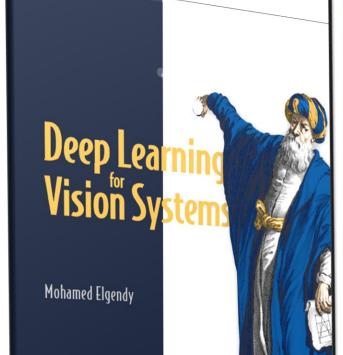
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