

Outline

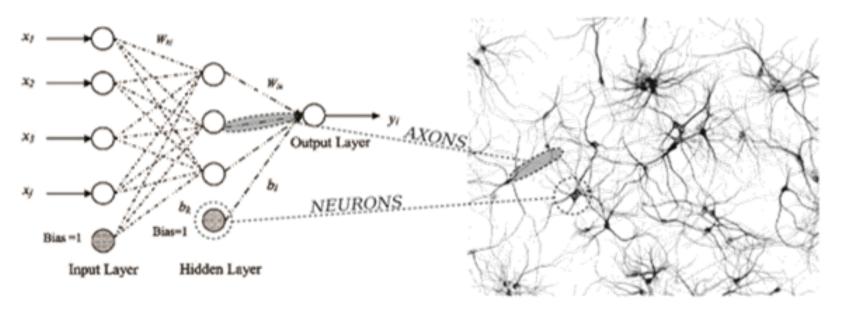
- Artificial neural networks
- Perceptron
- Multi-layer perceptron

What is a neural network?

- The biological neural network (NN) is a reasoning model based on the human brain.
 - There are approximately 86 billion neurons. Estimates of connections vary for an adult, ranging from 100 to 500 trillion.
- It is a system that is highly complex, nonlinear and parallel information-processing.
- Learning through experience is an essential characteristic.
 - Plasticity: connections leading to the "right answer" are enhanced, while those to the "wrong answer" are weakened.

Biological neural network

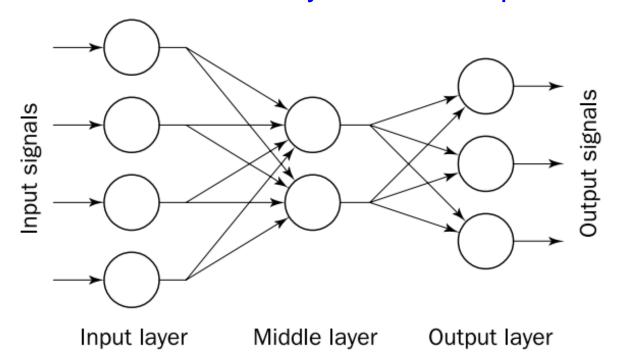
 There are attempts to emulate biological neural network in the computer, resulting artificial neural networks (ANNs).



- Just resemble the learning mechanisms, not the architecture
 - Megatron-Turing's NLG: 530 billion parameters, GPT-3: 175 billion

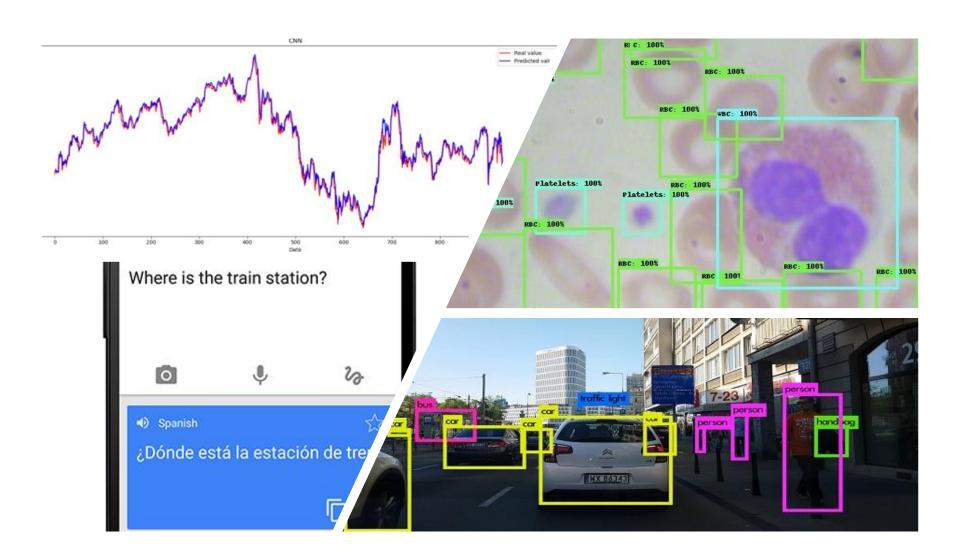
ANN: Network architecture

- An ANN has many neurons, arranging in a hierarchy of layers.
- Each neuron is an elementary information-processing unit.



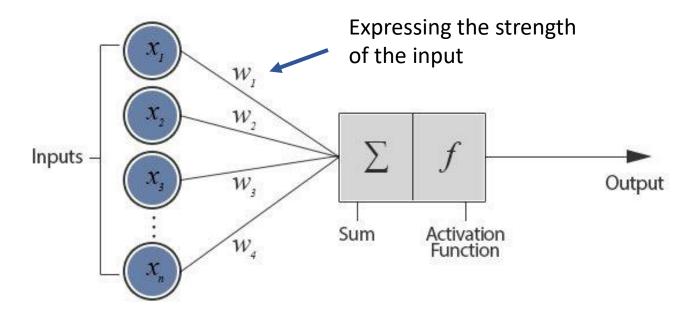
ANN improve performance via experience and generalization.

ANN: Applications

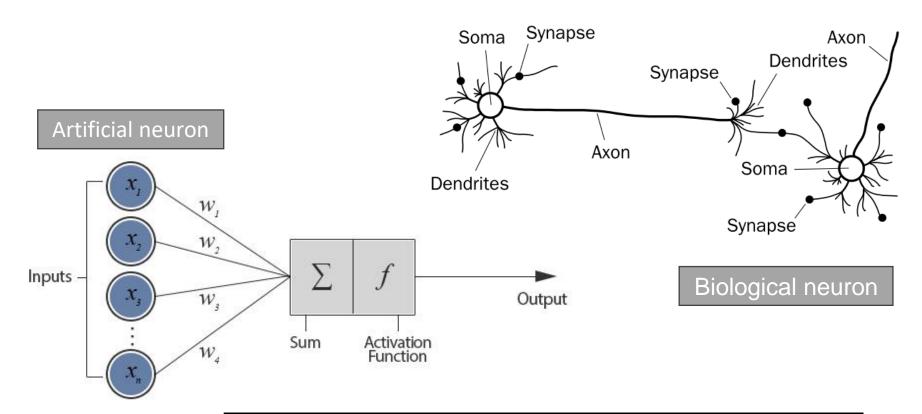


ANN: Neurons and Signals

 Each neuron receives several input signals through its connections and produces at most a single output signal.



 The set of weights is the long-term memory in an ANN → the learning process iteratively adjusts the weights.



Biological neuron	Artificial neuron
Soma	Neuron
Dendrite	Input
Axon	Output
Synapse	Weight

A mostly complete chart of

Neural Networks

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Deep Feed Forward (DFF)

Backfed Input Cell

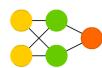
Input Cell



- Hidden Cell
- Probablistic Hidden Cell
- Spiking Hidden Cell
- Capsule Cell
- Output Cell
- Match Input Output Cell
- Recurrent Cell
- Memory Cell
- Gated Memory Cell
- Kernel
- Convolution or Pool



Feed Forward (FF)

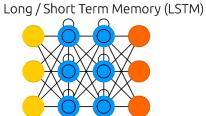


Radial Basis Network (RBF)

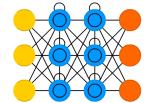


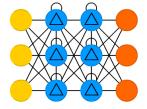


Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU)

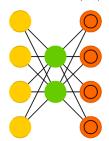


Recurrent Neural Network (RNN)

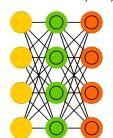




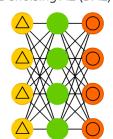
Auto Encoder (AE)



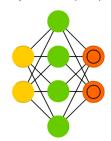
Variational AE (VAE)



Denoising AE (DAE)

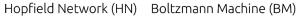


Sparse AE (SAE)

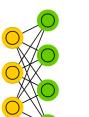


Markov Chain (MC)

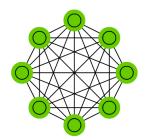


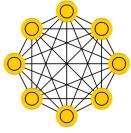


Restricted BM (RBM)

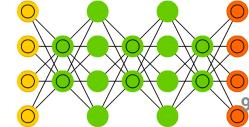


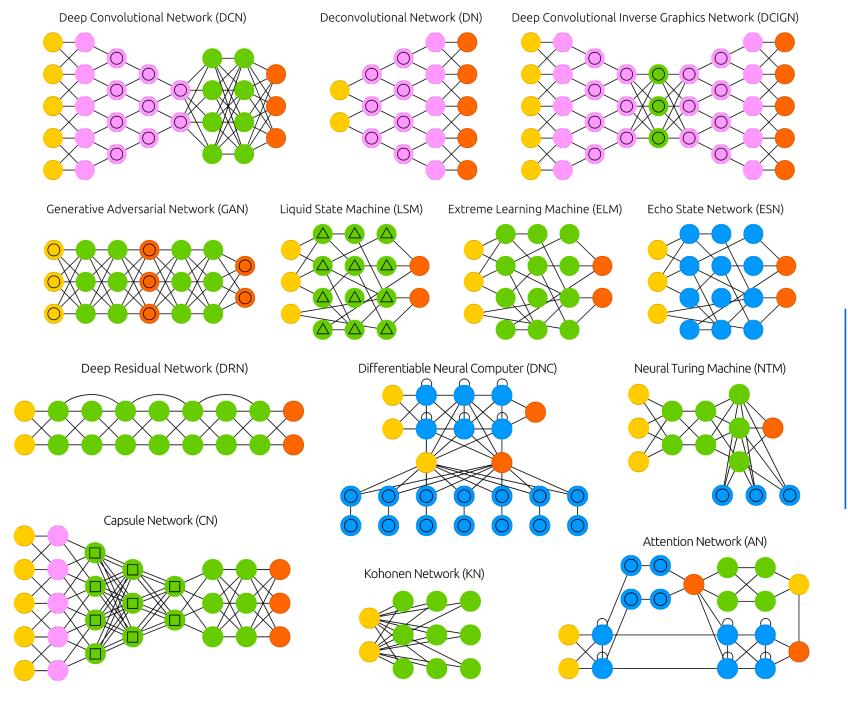
Deep Belief Network (DBN)











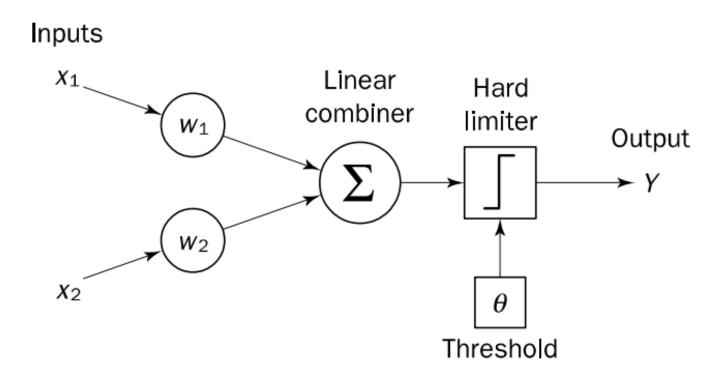
How to build an ANN?

- The network architecture must be decided first.
 - How many neurons are to be used?
 - How the neurons are to be connected to form a network?
- Then determine which learning algorithm to use,
 - Supervised / semi-supervised / unsupervised / reinforcement learning
- And finally train the neural network
 - How to initialize the weights of the network?
 - How to update them from a set of training examples.

Perceptron

Perceptron (Frank Rosenblatt, 1958)

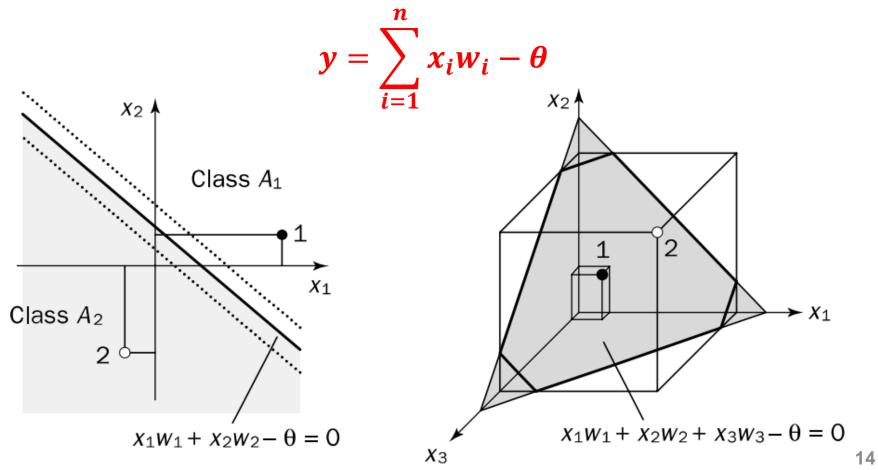
 A perceptron has a single neuron with adjustable synaptic weights and a hard limiter.



A single-layer two-input perceptron

How does a perceptron work?

 Divide the n-dimensional space into two decision regions by a hyperplane defined by the linearly separable function



Perceptron learning rule

- Step 1 Initialization: Initial weights $w_1, w_2, ..., w_n$ and threshold θ are randomly assigned to small numbers (usually in [-0.5, 0.5], but not restricted to).
- Step 2 Activation: At iteration p, apply the p^{th} example, which has inputs $x_1(p), x_2(p), ..., x_n(p)$ and desired output $Y_d(p)$, and calculate the actual output

$$Y(p) = \sigma\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i(p)w_i(p) + (-1)\theta\right) \qquad \sigma(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } x \ge 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$

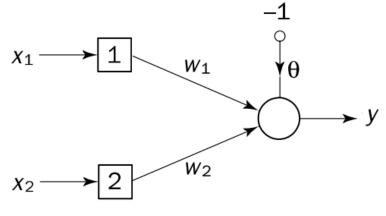
where n is the number of perceptron inputs and step is the activation function

- Step 3 Weight training
 - Update the weights w_i : $w_i(p+1) = w_i(p) \Delta w_i(p)$ where $\Delta w_i(p)$ is the weight correction at iteration p
 - The delta rule determines how to adjust the weights: $\Delta w_i(p) = \eta \times x_i(p) \times e(p)$ where η is the learning rate $(0 < \eta < 1)$ and $e(p) = Y(p) Y_d(p)$
- Step 4 Iteration: Increase iteration p by one, go back to Step 2 and repeat the process until convergence.

Perceptron for the logical AND/OR

A single-layer perceptron can learn the AND/OR operations.

Inputs		uts	Desired output	Initial weights		Actual output	Error	Final weights	
Epoch	x ₁	x ₂	Y_d	<i>W</i> ₁	W ₂	Ÿ	e	W 1	w ₂
1	0	0	0	0.3	-0.1	0	0	0.3	-0.1
	0	1	0	0.3	-0.1	0	0	0.3	-0.1
	1	0	0	0.3	-0.1	1	1	0.2	-0.1
	1	1	1	0.2	-0.1	0	-1	0.3	0.0
2	0	0	0	0.3	0.0	0	0	0.3	0.0
	0	1	O	0.3	0.0	0	0	0.3	0.0
	1	0	0	0.3	0.0	1	1	0.2	0.0
	1	1	1	0.2	0.0	1	0	0.2	0.0
3	0	0	0	0.2	0.0	0	0	0.2	0.0
	0	1	0	0.2	0.0	0	0	0.2	0.0
	1	0	0	0.2	0.0	1	1	0.1	0.0
	1	1	1	0.1	0.0	0	-1	0.2	0.1
4	0	0	0	0.2	0.1	0	0	0.2	0.1
	0	1	0	0.2	0.1	0	0	0.2	0.1
	1	0	0	0.2	0.1	1	1	0.1	0.1
	1	1	1	0.1	0.1	1	0	0.1	0.1
5	0	0	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.1
	0	1	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.1
	1	0	0	0.1	0.1	0	0	0.1	0.1

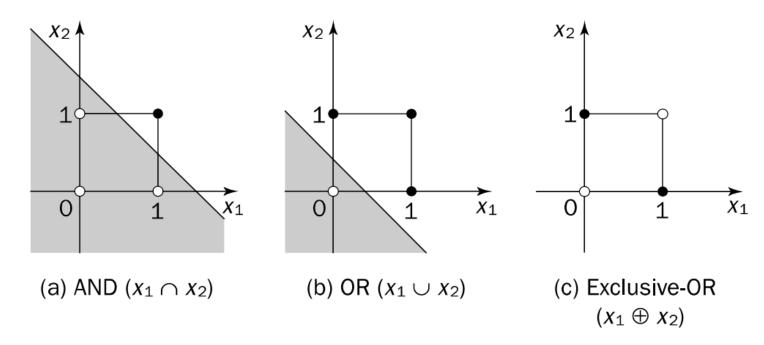


The learning of logical AND converged after several iterations

Threshold θ = 0.2, learning rate η = 0.1

Perceptron for the logical XOR

It cannot be trained to perform the Exclusive-OR.

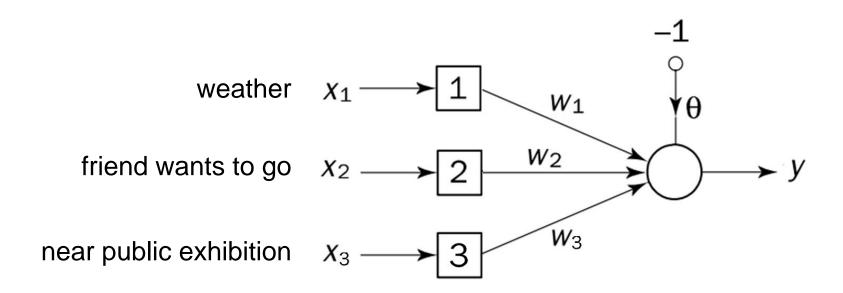


- Generally, perceptron can classify only linearly separable patterns regardless of the activation function used.
 - Research works: Shynk, 1990 and Shynk and Bershad, 1992.

Perceptron: An example

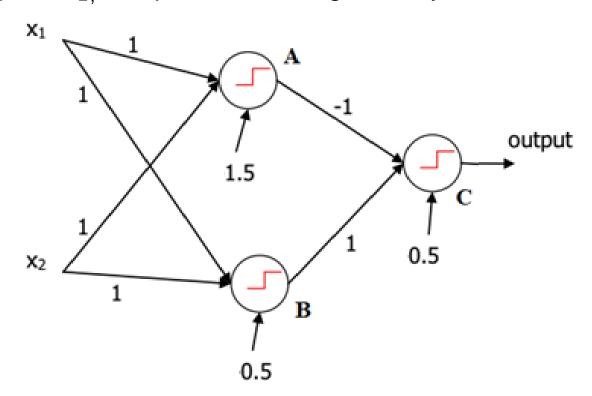
Suppose there is a high-tech exhibition in the city, and you are thinking about whether to go there. Your decision relies on the below factors:

- Is the weather good?
- Does your friend want to accompany you?
- Is the exhibition near public transit? (You don't own a car).



Quiz 03: Perceptron

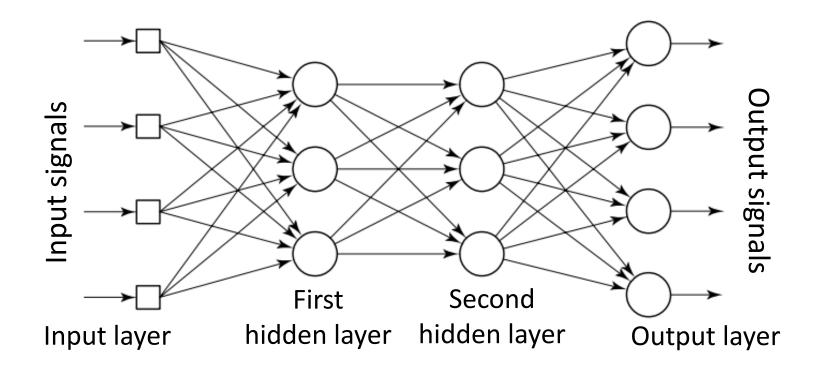
• Consider the following neural network which receives binary input values, x_1 and x_2 and produces a single binary value.



• For every combination (x_1, x_2) , what are the output values at neurons, A, B and C?

Multi-layer perceptron

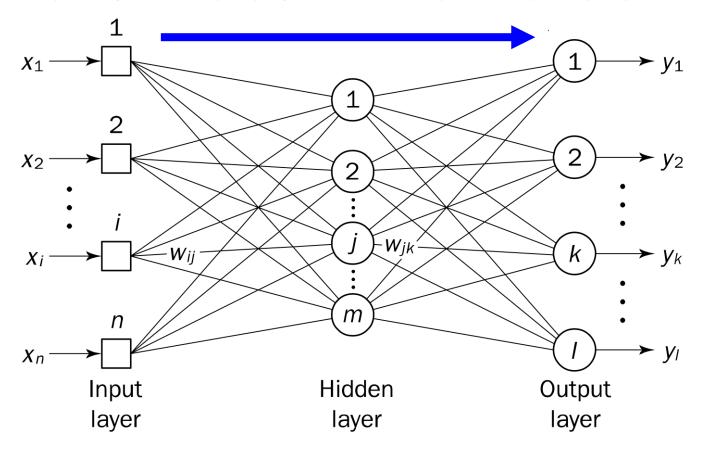
Multi-layer perceptron (MLP)



- A fully connected feedforward network with at least three layers.
- Idea: Map certain input(s) to a specified target value by using a cascade of nonlinear transformations.

Learning algorithm: Back-propagation

The input signals are propagated forwardly on a layer-by-layer basis.

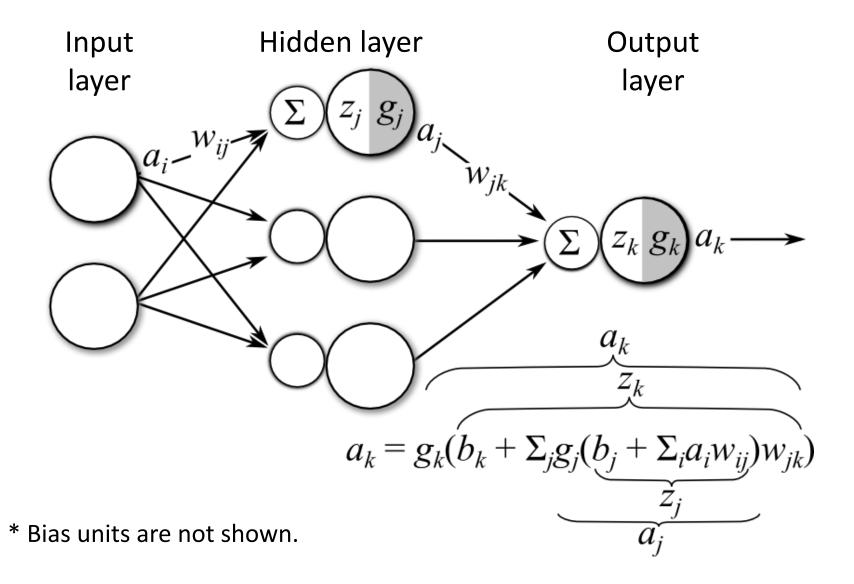


from the output layer to the input layer.

Back-propagation algorithm

- Consider a MLP with one hidden layer.
- Note the following notations
 - a_i : the output value of node i in the input layer
 - z_i : the input value to node j in the layer h
 - g_i : the activation function for node j in the layer h (applied to z_i)
 - $a_i = g_i(z_i)$: the output value of node j in the layer h
 - b_i: the bias/offset for unit j in the layer h
 - w_{ij} : weights connecting node i in layer (h-1) to node j in layer h
 - t_k: target value for node k in the output layer

Back-propagation algorithm



BP algorithm: The error function

- Training a neural network entails finding parameters $\theta = \{\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{b}\}$ that minimize the errors.
- The error function is usually the sum of the squared errors between the target values t_k and the network outputs a_k .

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{l} (a_k - t_k)^2$$

- l is the dimensionality of the target for a single observation.
- This parameter optimization problem can be solved using gradient descent, computing $\frac{\partial E}{\partial \theta}$ for all θ .

BP algorithm: Output layer params

 Calculating the gradient of the error function with respect to those parameters is straightforward with the chain rule.

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{jk}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k} (a_k - t_k)^2$$
$$= (a_k - t_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{jk}} (a_k - t_k)$$

• Then,
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{jk}} = (a_k - t_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{jk}} a_k \qquad \text{since } \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{jk}} t_k = 0$$

$$= (a_k - t_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{jk}} g_k(z_k) \qquad \text{since } a_k = g(z_k)$$

$$= (a_k - t_k) g_k'(z_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{ik}} z_k$$

BP algorithm: Output layer params

- Recall that $z_k = b_k + \sum_j g_j(z_j) w_{jk}$, and hence, $\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{jk}} z_k = g_j(z_j) = a_j$.
- Then,

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{jk}} = \frac{(a_k - t_k)g'_k(z_k)a_j}{\sqrt{2}}$$

the difference between the network output a_k and the target value t_k the derivative of the activation function at z_k

the output of node *j* from the hidden layer feeding into the output layer

The common activation function is the sigmoid function

$$g(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

whose derivative is

$$g'(z) = g(z)(1 - g(z))$$

BP algorithm: Output layer params

- Let $\delta_k = (a_k t_k)g_k'(z_k)$ be the error signal after being back-propagated through the output activation function g_k .
- The delta form of the error function gradient for the output layer weights is

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ik}} = \delta_k a_j$$

The gradient descent update rule for the output layer weights is

$$w_{jk} \leftarrow w_{jk} - \eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{jk}}$$
 η is the learning rate
 $\leftarrow w_{jk} - \eta \delta_k a_j$
 $\leftarrow w_{jk} - \eta (a_k - t_k) g_k(z_k) (1 - g_k(z_k)) a_j$

• Apply similar update rules for the remaining parameters w_{jk} .

BP algorithms: Output layer biases

• The gradient for the biases is simply the back-propagated error signal δ_k .

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial b_k} = (a_k - t_k)g_k'(z_k)(1) = \delta_k$$

- Each bias is updated as b_k ← b_k − η δ_k
- Note that $\frac{\partial}{\partial b_k} z_k = \frac{\partial}{\partial b_k} [b_k + \sum_j g_j(z_j)] = 1$
 - The biases are weights on activations that are always equal to one, regardless of the feed-forward signal.
 - Thus, the bias gradients aren't affected by the feed-forward signal, only by the error.

The process starts just the same as for the output layer.

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k} (a_k - t_k)^2$$
$$= \sum_{k} (a_k - t_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{ij}} a_k$$

Apply the chain rule again, we obtain:

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} = \sum_{k} (a_k - t_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{ij}} g_k(z_k) \quad \text{since } a_k = g_k(z_k)$$

$$= \sum_{k} (a_k - t_k) g'_k(z_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{ij}} z_k$$

• The term z_k can be expanded as follows.

$$z_k = b_k + \sum_j a_j w_{jk} = b_k + \sum_j g_j(z_j) w_{jk} \qquad \text{since } a_j = g_j(z_j)$$

$$= b_k + \sum_j g_j \left(b_j + \sum_i a_i w_{ij} \right) w_{jk} \qquad \text{since } z_j = b_j + \sum_i a_i w_{ij}$$

• Again, use the chain rule to calculate $\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{ij}} z_k$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{ij}} z_k = \frac{\partial z_k}{\partial a_j} \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial a_j} \left(b_k + \sum_j a_j w_{jk} \right) \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial w_{ij}} = w_{jk} \frac{\partial a_j}{\partial w_{ij}} = w_{jk} \frac{\partial g_j(z_j)}{\partial w_{ij}}$$

$$= w_{jk} g_j'(z_j) \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial w_{ij}} = w_{jk} g_j'(z_j) \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{ij}} \left(b_j + \sum_j a_i w_{ij} \right)$$

$$= w_{jk} g_j'(z_j) a_i$$

• Thus,
$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} = \sum_k (a_k - t_k) g_k'(z_k) w_{jk} \ g_j'(z_j) a_i$$
 the output activation signal from the layer below a_i the derivative of the activation function at z_i

- Let $\delta_j = g_j'(z_j) \sum_k \delta_k w_{jk}$ denote the resulting error signal back to layer j.
- The error function gradient for the hidden layer weights is

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}} = \delta_j a_i$$

To calculate the weight gradients at any layer l, we calculate the backpropagated error signal δ_l that reaches that layer from the "afterward" layers, and weight it by the feed-forward signal at l-1 feeding into that layer.

The gradient descent update rule for the hidden layer weights is

$$w_{ij} \leftarrow w_{ij} - \eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ij}}$$

$$\leftarrow w_{ij} - \eta \delta_j a_i \quad \leftarrow w_{ij} - \eta g'_j(z_j) \left(\sum_k \delta_k w_{jk} \right) a_i$$

$$\leftarrow w_{ij} - \eta \left(\sum_k (a_k - t_k) g_k(z_k) (1 - g_k(z_k)) w_{jk} \right) g_j(z_j) \left(1 - g_j(z_j) \right) a_i$$

• Apply similar update rules for the remaining parameters w_{ij} .

BP algorithms: Hidden layer biases

• Calculating the error gradients with respect to the hidden layer biases b_j follows a very similar procedure to that for the hidden layer weights.

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial b_j} = \sum_{k} (a_k - t_k) \frac{\partial}{\partial b_j} g_k(z_k) = \sum_{k} (a_k - t_k) g'_k(z_k) \frac{\partial z_k}{\partial b_j}$$

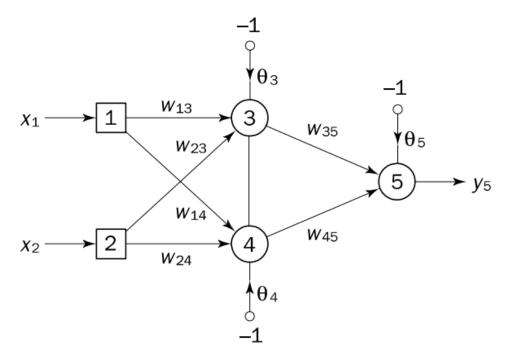
- Apply chain rule to solve $\frac{\partial z_k}{\partial b_j} = w_{jk} g_j'(z_j)(1)$
- The gradient for the biases is the back-propagated error signal δ_i .

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial b_j} = \sum_{k} (a_k - t_k) g_k'(z_k) w_{jk} g_j'(z_j) = g_j'(z_j) \left(\sum_{k} \delta_k w_{jk} \right) = \delta_j$$

• Each bias is updated as $b_i \leftarrow b_i - \eta \delta_i$

Back-propagation network for XOR

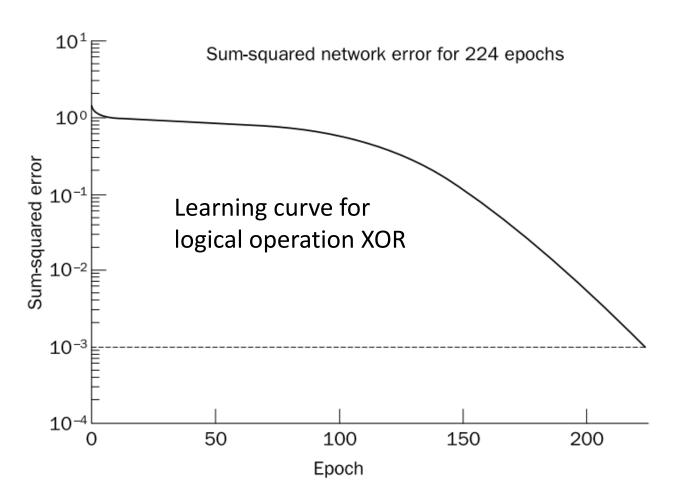
 The logical XOR problem took 224 epochs or 896 iterations for network training.



Inputs		Desired output	Actual output	Error	Sum of squared
<i>X</i> ₁	<i>X</i> ₂	Уd	<i>y</i> 5	е	errors
1	1	0	0.0155	-0.0155	0.0010
0	1	1	0.9849	0.0151	
1	0	1	0.9849	0.0151	
0	0	0	0.0175	-0.0175	

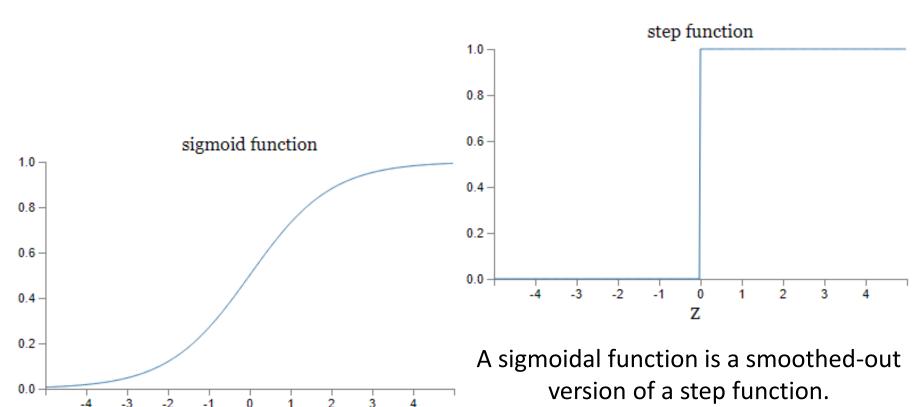
Sum of the squared errors (SSE)

 When the SSE in an entire pass through all training sets is sufficiently small, a network is deemed to have converged.



Sigmoid neuron vs. Perceptron

 Sigmoid neuron better reflects the fact that small changes in weights and bias cause only a small change in output.



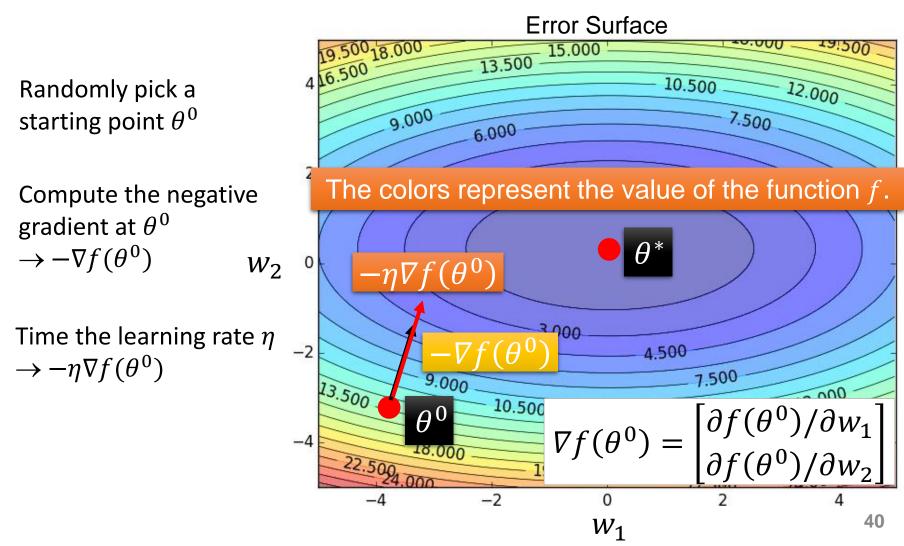
About back-propagation learning

- Are randomly initialized weights and thresholds leading to different solutions?
 - Starting with different initial conditions will obtain different weights and threshold values. The problem will always be solved within different numbers of iterations.
- Back-propagation learning cannot be viewed as emulation of brain-like learning.
 - Biological neurons do not work backward to adjust the strengths of their interconnections, synapses.
- The training is slow due to extensive calculations.
 - Improvements: Caudill, 1991; Jacobs, 1988; Stubbs, 1990

Gradient descent

Gradient descent: Idea

• Consider two parameters, w_1 and w_2 , in a network.



Gradient descent: Idea

• Consider two parameters, w_1 and w_2 , in a network.

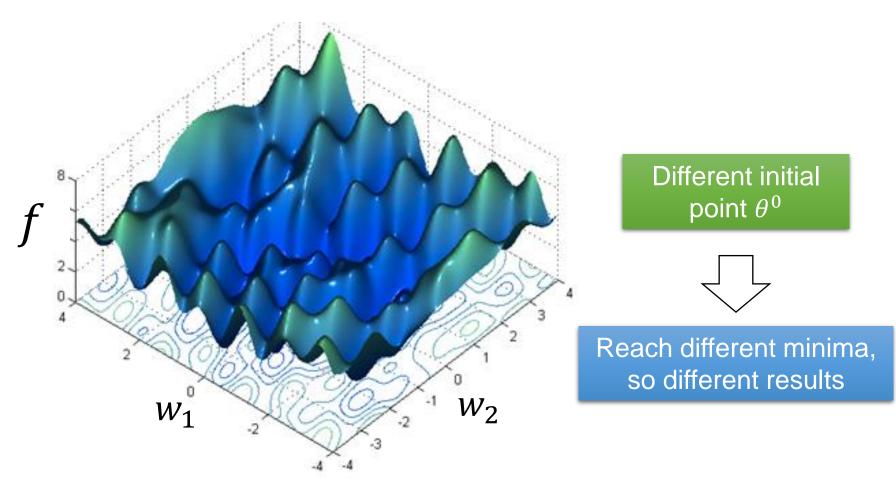
Error Surface Eventually, we would reach a minima Randomly pick a 12.000 starting point $heta^0$ 9.000 7.500 6.000 1.500 Compute the negative θ^2 gradient at θ^0 $\rightarrow -\nabla f(\theta^0)$ W_2 3.000 Time the learning rate η 4.500 $\rightarrow -\eta \nabla f(\theta^0)$ 7.500 9.000 -13.500 12.000 10.500 θ^0 15.000 -4 16.500 19.500 0

 W_1

41

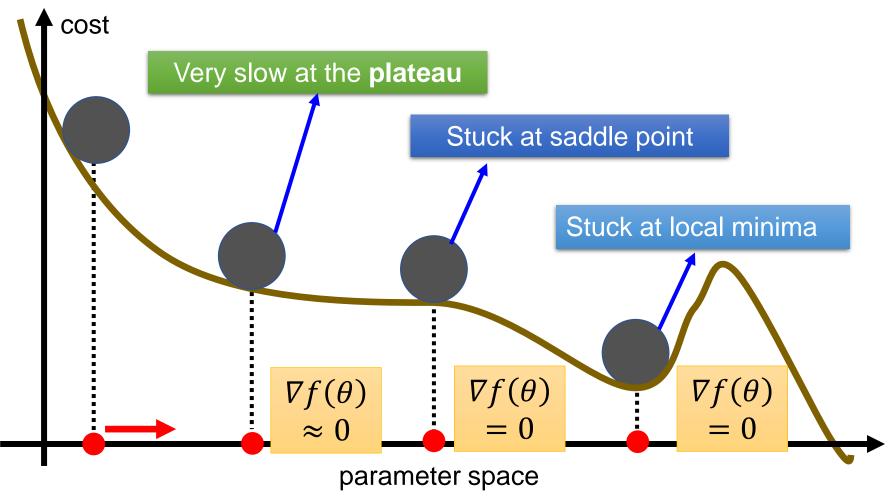
Gradient descent: Optimality

Gradient descent never guarantees global minima.



Gradient descent: Optimality

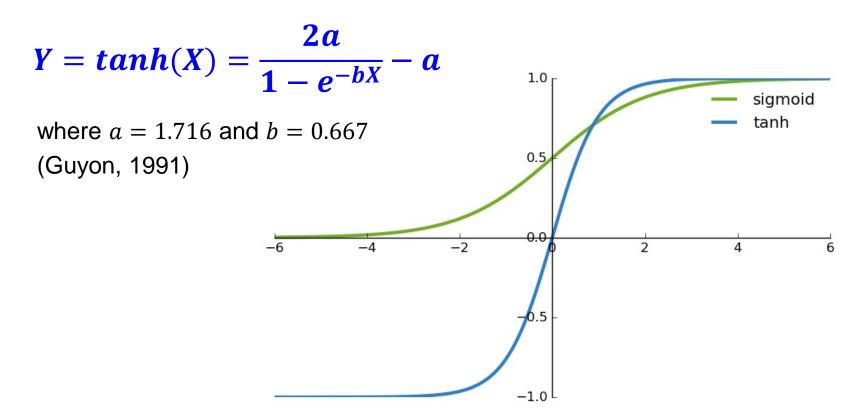
It also has issues at plateau and saddle point.



Accelarating the MLP learning

1. Use tanh instead of sigmoid

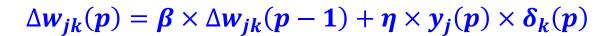
We use a hyperbolic tangent to model the sigmoidal function.



Why is tanh better than sigmoid in MLP?

2. Generalized delta rule

 The delta rule further includes a momentum term (Rumelhart et al., 1986)



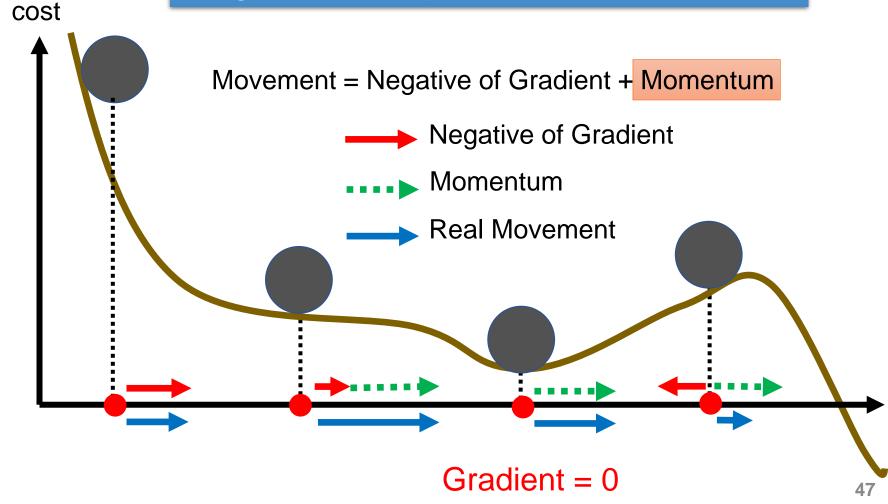
- Δw_{jk} is the weight correction term that adjusts the parameter w_{jk}
- $\beta = 0.95$ is the momentum constant $(0 \le \beta \le 1)$



How about put momentum of physical world in gradient descent?

2. Generalized delta rule

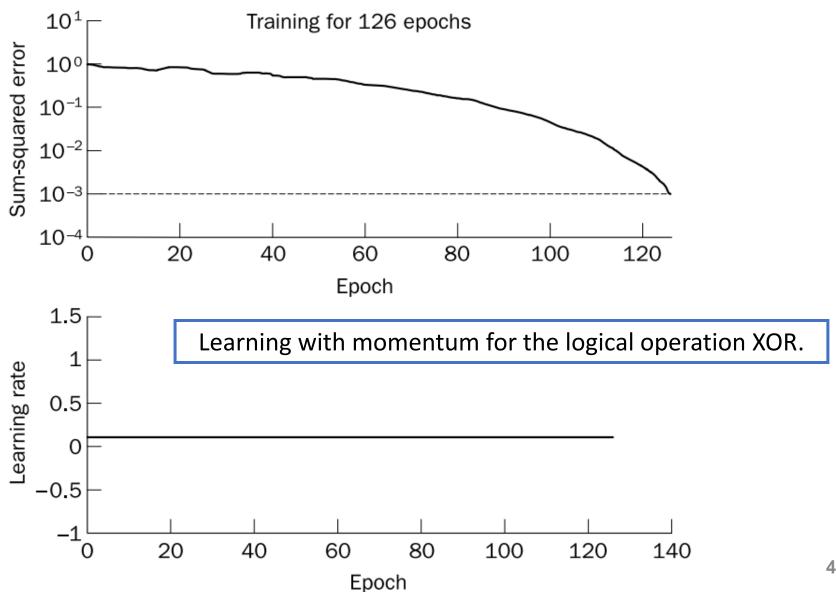
Still not guarantee reaching global minima, but give some hope



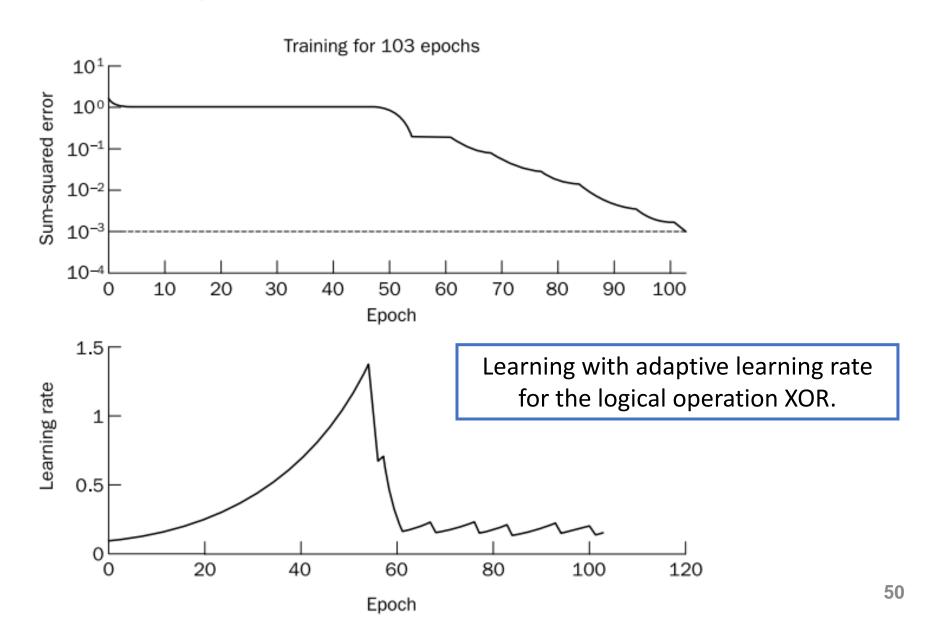
3. Adaptive learning rate

- Adjust the learning rate parameter η during training
 - Small $\eta \to \text{small}$ weight changes through iterations $\to \text{smooth}$ learning curve
 - Large η → speed up the training process with larger weight changes
 → possible instability and oscillatory
- Heuristic-like approaches for adjusting η
 - The algebraic sign of the SSE change remains for several consequent epochs → increase η.
 - The algebraic sign of the SSE change alternates for several consequent epochs → decrease η.
- One of the most effective acceleration means

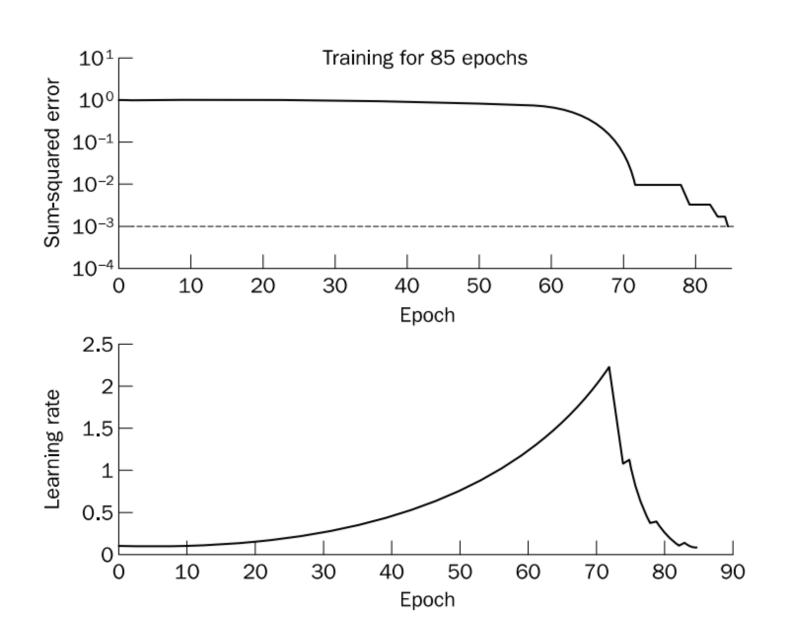
Learning with momentum only



Learning with adaptive η only

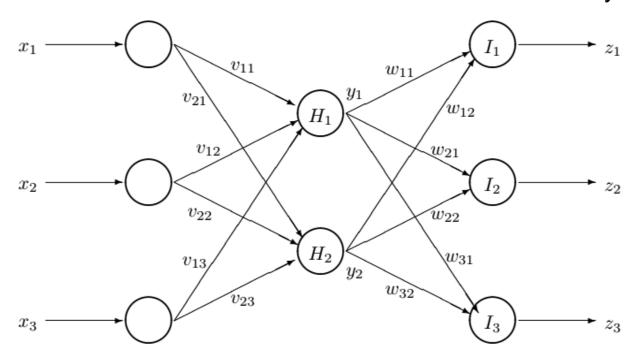


Learning with adaptive η and momentum



Quiz 01: Multi-layer perceptron

Consider the below feedforward network with one hidden layer of units.



• If the network is tested with an input vector x = [1.0, 2.0, 3.0] then what are the activation H_1 of the first hidden neuron and the activation I_3 of the third output neuron?

Quiz 02: Forward the input signals

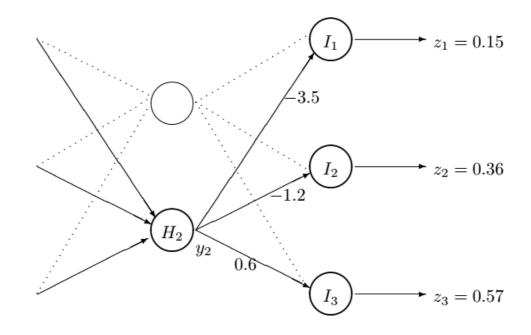
- The input vector to the network is $x = [x_1, x_2, x_3]^T$
- The vector of hidden layer outputs is $y = [y_1, y_2]^T$
- The vector of actual outputs is $z = [z_1, z_2, z_3]^T$
- The vector of desired outputs is $t = [t_1, t_2, t_3]^T$
- The network has the following weight vectors

$$v_1 = \begin{bmatrix} -2.0 \\ 2.0 \\ -2.0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad v_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 \\ 1.0 \\ -1.0 \end{bmatrix} \qquad w_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1.0 \\ -3.5 \end{bmatrix} \qquad w_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ -1.2 \end{bmatrix} \qquad w_3 = \begin{bmatrix} 0.3 \\ 0.6 \end{bmatrix}$$

Assume that all units use sigmoid activation function and zero biases.

Quiz 03: Backpropagation error signals

- The figure shows part of the network described in the previous slide.
- Use the same weights, activation functions and bias values as described.



- A new input pattern is presented to the network and training proceeds as follows. The actual outputs are given by $z = [0.15, 0.36, 0.57]^T$ and the corresponding target outputs are given by $t = [1.0, 1.0, 1.0]^T$.
- The weights w_{12} , w_{22} and w_{32} are also shown.
- What is the error for each of the output units?

Acknowledgements

- Some parts of the slide are adapted from
 - Derivation: Error Backpropagation & Gradient Descent for Neural Networks (github.io link)
 - Negnevitsky, Michael. Artificial intelligence: A guide to intelligent systems. Pearson, 2005. Chapter 6.



... the end.