# Lecture 11. Neural Network Fundamentals

COMP90051 Statistical Machine Learning

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#### Limitations of linear models

Some problems are linearly separable, but many are not

In/out value 1
In/out value 0

NOT

AND

OR

XOR

Possible solution: composition  $x_1 \text{ XOR } x_2 = (x_1 \text{ OR } x_2) \text{ AND not}(x_1 \text{ AND } x_2)$ 

We are going to compose perceptrons ...

#### Perceptron is sort of a building block for ANN

- ANNs are not restricted to binary classification
- Nodes in ANN can have various activation functions

$$f(s) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } s \ge 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } s < 0 \end{cases}$$

$$f(s) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } s \ge 0 \\ -1, & \text{if } s < 0 \end{cases}$$

Logistic function

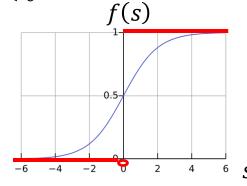
$$f(s) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-s}}$$

tanh function

$$f(s) = \frac{e^{s} - e^{-s}}{e^{s} + e^{-s}}$$

Rectified linear unit

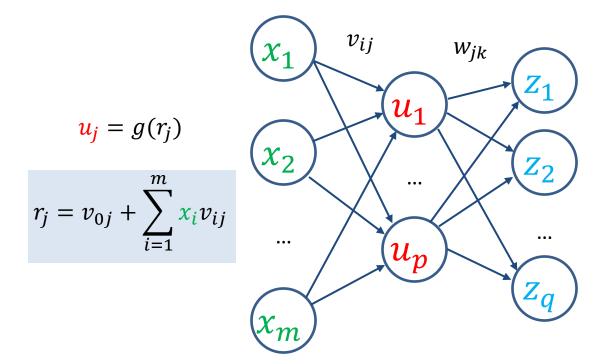
$$f(s) = \max\{0, s\}$$



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...many others, many variations...

#### ANN as function composition



$$\mathbf{z}_k = h(\mathbf{s}_k)$$

$$s_k = w_{0k} + \sum_{j=1}^p u_j w_{jk}$$

note that  $z_k$  is a function composition (a function applied to the result of another function, etc.)

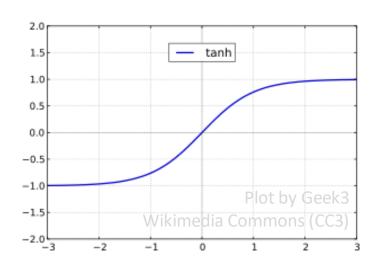
here g, h are activation functions. These can be either same (e.g., both sigmoid) or different

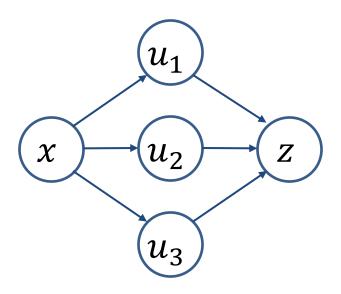
you can add bias node  $x_0 = 1$  to simplify equations:  $r_j = \sum_{i=0}^m x_i v_{ij}$ 

similarly you can add bias node  $u_0 = 1$  to simplify equations:  $s_k = \sum_{j=0}^p u_j w_{jk}$ 

### The power of ANN as a non-linear model

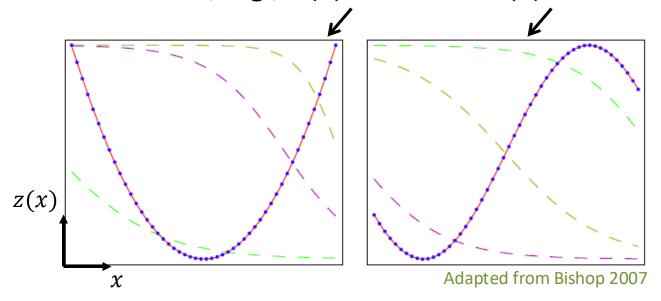
- ANNs are capable of approximating plethora non-linear functions, e.g.,  $z(x) = x^2$  and  $z(x) = \sin x$
- For example, consider the following network. In this example, hidden unit activation functions are tanh





### The power of ANN as a non-linear model

• ANNs are capable of approximating various non-linear functions, e.g.,  $z(x) = x^2$  and  $z(x) = \sin x$ 



Blue points are the function values evaluated at different x. Red lines are the predictions from the ANN.

Dashed lines are outputs of the hidden units

• Universal approximation theorem (Cybenko 1989): An ANN with a hidden layer with a finite number of units, and mild assumptions on the activation function, can approximate continuous functions on  $\mathbb{R}^n$  arbitrarily well

#### Representational capacity

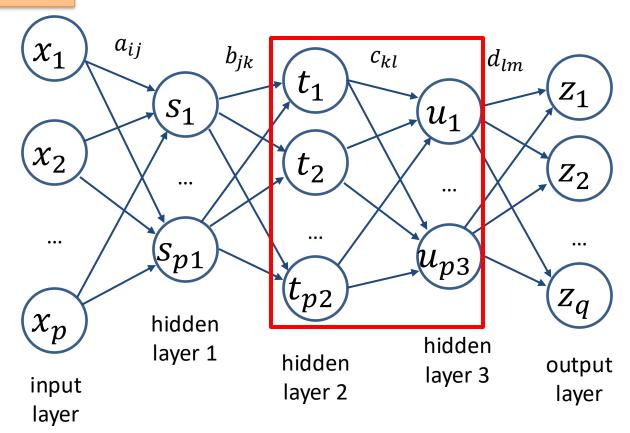
- ANNs with a single hidden layer are universal approximators
- For example, such ANNs can represent any Boolean function

$$OR(x_1, x_2)$$
  $u = g(x_1 + x_2 - 0.5)$ 
 $AND(x_1, x_2)$   $u = g(x_1 + x_2 - 1.5)$ 
 $NOT(x_1)$   $u = g(-x_1)$ 
 $g(r) = 1 \text{ if } r \ge 0 \text{ and } g(r) = 0 \text{ otherwise}$ 

- Any Boolean function over m variables can be implemented using a hidden layer with up to  $2^m$  elements
- More efficient to stack several hidden layers

"Depth" refers to number of hidden layers

## Deep networks



$$s = \tanh(A'x)$$
  $t = \tanh(B's)$   $u = \tanh(C't)$   $z = \tanh(D'u)$ 

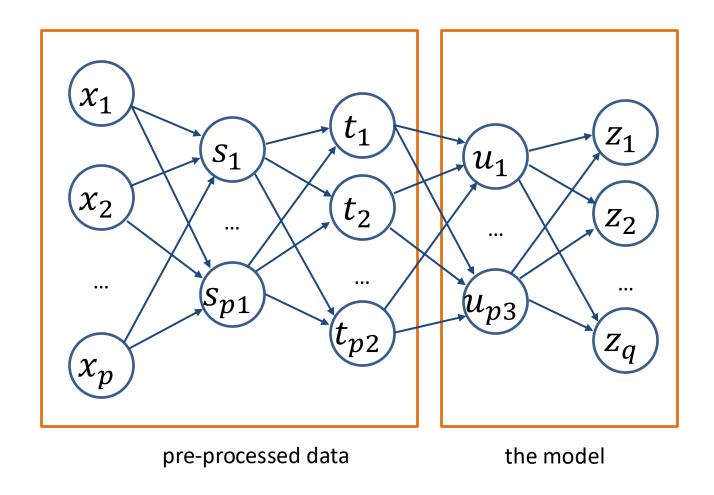
## Deep ANNs as representation learning

- Consecutive layers form representations of the input of increasing complexity
- An ANN can have a simple linear output layer, but using complex non-linear representation

$$z = \tanh \left( D' \left( \tanh \left( C' \left( \tanh \left( B' \left( \tanh \left( A' x \right) \right) \right) \right) \right) \right) \right)$$

- Equivalently, a hidden layer can be thought of as the transformed feature space, e.g.,  $u=\varphi(x)$  compare to basis expansion / kernel learning
- Parameters of such a transformation are learned from data

# ANN layers as data transformation



## Depth vs width

- A single arbitrarily wide layer in theory gives a universal approximator
- However (empirically) depth yields more accurate models
   Biological inspiration from the eye:
  - first detect small edges and color patches;
  - compose these into smaller shapes;
  - building to more complex detectors, of e.g. textures, faces, etc.
- Seek to mimic layered complexity in a network
- However vanishing gradient problem affects learning with very deep models
- Training error decreases but then increases and converges, vanishing gradient and large learning rate

## Recap: Stochastic gradient descent training

Choose initial guess  $\boldsymbol{\theta}^{(0)}$ , k=0

Here  $oldsymbol{ heta}$  is a set of all weights form all layers

For i from 1 to T (epochs)

For j from 1 to N (training examples)

Consider example  $\{x_j, y_j\}$ 

Update:  $\theta^{(k+1)} = \theta^{(k)} - \eta \nabla L(\theta^{(k)}); k \leftarrow k+1$ 

For regression we might use

$$L = \frac{1}{2} \left( z_j - y_j \right)^2$$

Need to compute partial derivatives  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial v_{ij}}$  and  $\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{ij}}$ 

#### Backpropagation: start with the chain rule

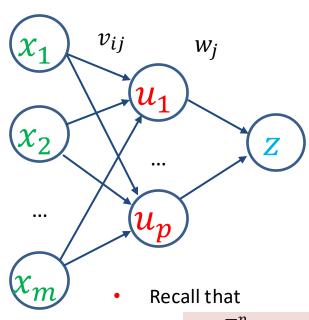
• Recall that the output z of an ANN is a function composition, and hence L(z) is also a composition

\* 
$$L = 0.5(z - y)^2 = 0.5(h(s) - y)^2 = 0.5(s - y)^2$$

\* = 
$$0.5 \left( \sum_{j=0}^{p} u_j w_j - y \right)^2 = 0.5 \left( \sum_{j=0}^{p} g(r_j) w_j - y \right)^2 = \cdots$$

 Backpropagation makes use of this fact by applying the chain rule for derivatives

• 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial v_{ij}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial s} \frac{\partial s}{\partial u_j} \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial r_j} \frac{\partial r_j}{\partial v_{ij}}$$

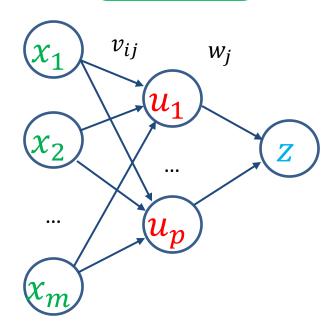


$$* r_j = \sum_{i=0}^m x_i v_{ij}$$

#### Backpropagation: intermediate step

Apply the chain rule

• 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial v_{ij}} = \left[ \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial s} \frac{\partial s}{\partial u_j} \frac{\partial u_j}{\partial r_j} \frac{\partial r_j}{\partial v_{ij}} \right]$$



Now define

$$\delta \equiv \frac{\partial L}{\partial s} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial s}$$

$$\varepsilon_{j} \equiv \frac{\partial L}{\partial r_{j}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial s} \frac{\partial s}{\partial u_{j}} \frac{\partial u_{j}}{\partial r_{j}}$$

• Here  $L = 0.5(z - y)^2$ and z = sThus  $\delta = (z - y)$ 

• Here  $s = \sum_{j=0}^{p} u_j w_j$  and  $u_j = g(r_j)$  Thus  $\varepsilon_j = \delta w_j g'(r_j)$ 

#### Backpropagation equations

#### We have

$$* \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_j} = \delta \frac{\partial s}{\partial w_j}$$

$$* \frac{\partial L}{\partial v_{ij}} = \varepsilon_j \frac{\partial r_j}{\partial v_{ij}}$$

#### ... where

\* 
$$\delta = \frac{\partial L}{\partial s} = (z - y)$$

\* 
$$\varepsilon_{j} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial r_{j}} = \delta w_{j} g'(r_{j})$$

#### Recall that

$$* s = \sum_{j=0}^{p} \mathbf{u}_{j} w_{j}$$

$$* r_j = \sum_{i=0}^m x_i v_{ij}$$

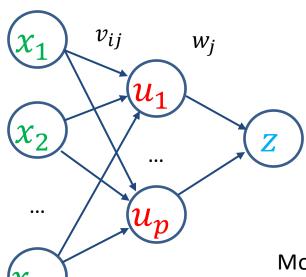
• So 
$$\frac{\partial s}{\partial w_j} = u_j$$
 and  $\frac{\partial r_j}{\partial v_{ij}} = x_i$ 

#### We have

\* 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i} = \delta u_j = (z - y)u_j$$

\* 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial v_{ij}} = \varepsilon_j x_i = \delta w_j g'(r_j) x_i$$

Modern DNN libraries have active derivatives precomputed; autodiff computes derivatives efficiently

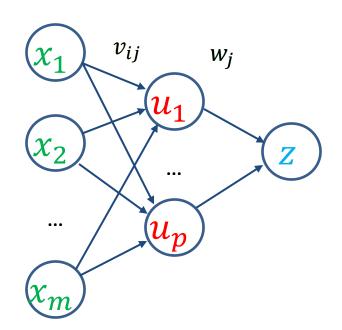


#### Forward propagation

• Use current estimates of  $v_{ij}$  and  $w_j$ 



• Calculate  $r_j$ ,  $u_j$ , s and z



Backpropagation equations

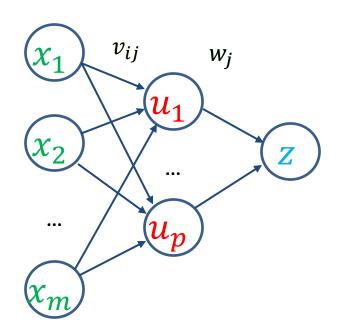
$$* \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_j} = \delta u_j = (z - y)u_j$$

\* 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial v_{ij}} = \varepsilon_j x_i = \delta w_j g'(r_j) x_i$$

#### Backward propagation of errors

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial v_{ij}} = \varepsilon_j x_i \qquad \boxed{\varepsilon_j = \delta w_j g'(r_j)} \qquad \boxed{\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i}} = \delta u_j \qquad \boxed{\delta = (z - y)}$$

Notice how intermediate values get reused.



Backpropagation equations

\* 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_j} = \delta u_j = (z - y)u_j$$

\* 
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial v_{ij}} = \varepsilon_j x_i = \delta w_j g'(r_j) x_i$$