

# Introduction to (shallow) Neural Networks

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## Neural Networks: from biology to engineering

- **Understanding and modelling of brain**



- **Imitation to reproduce high-level functions**



- **Mathematical tool for engineers**

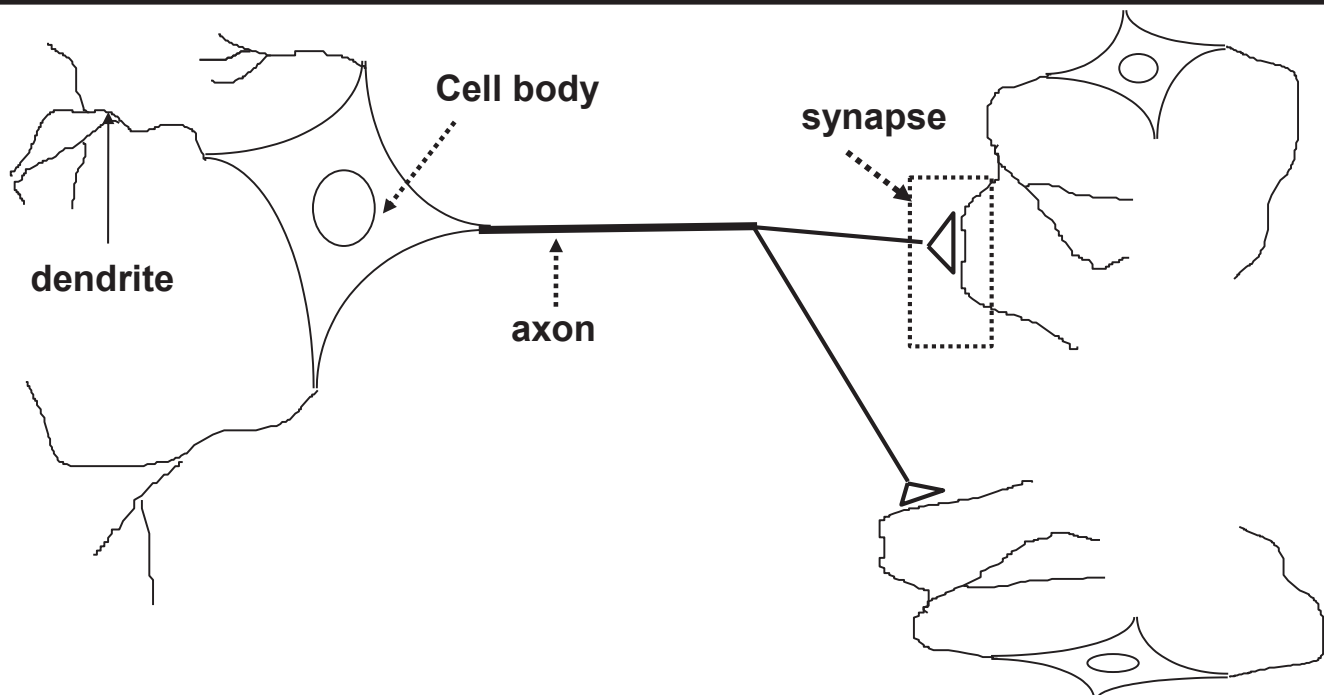
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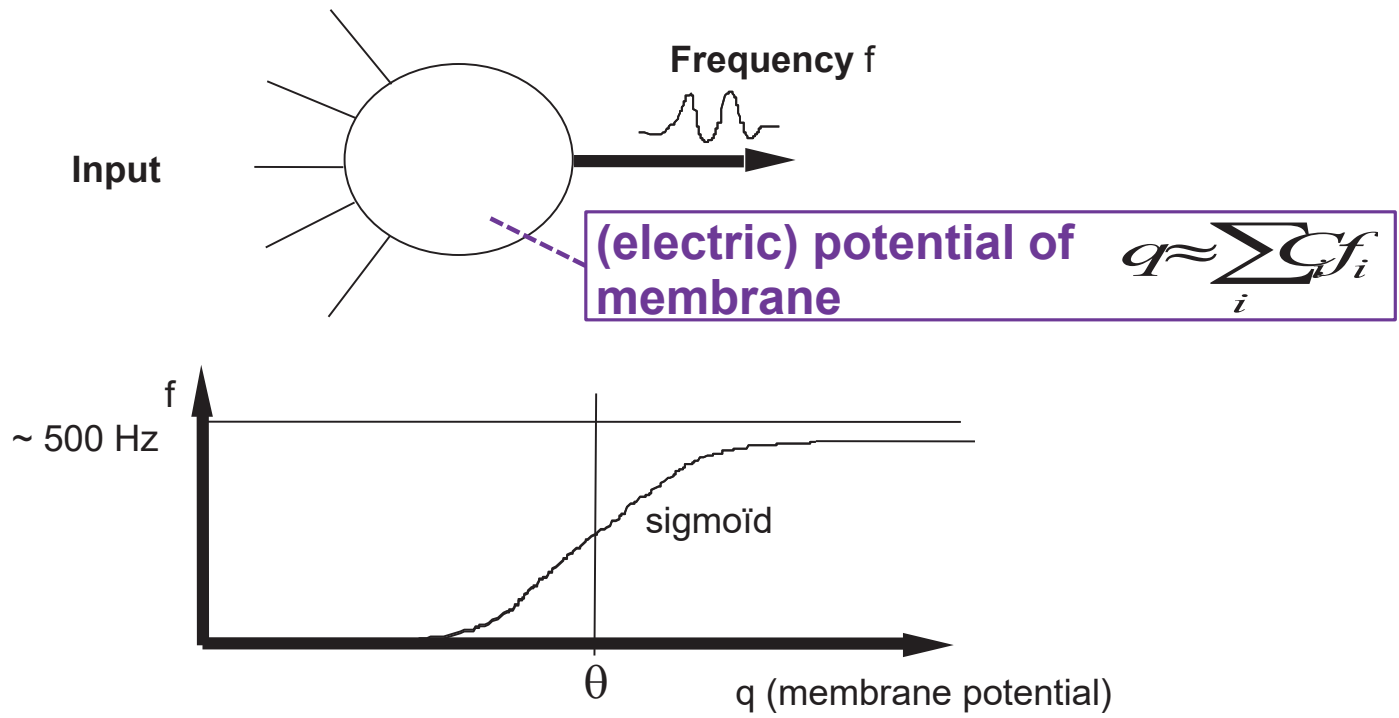
## Modelling any input-output function by “learning” from examples:

- Pattern recognition
- Voice recognition
- Classification, diagnosis
- Identification
- Forecasting
- Control, regulation

## Biological neurons

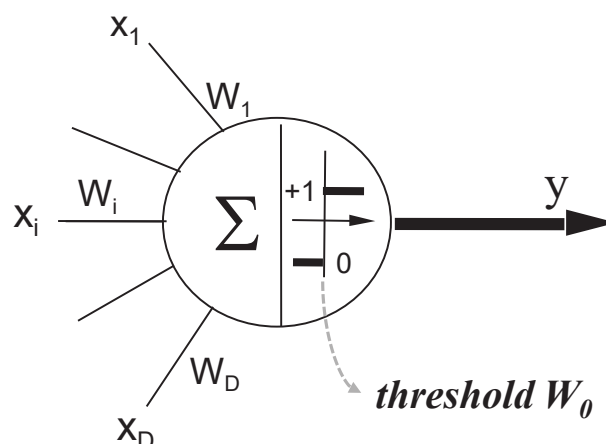


- Electric signal: dendrites → cell body → axon → synapses

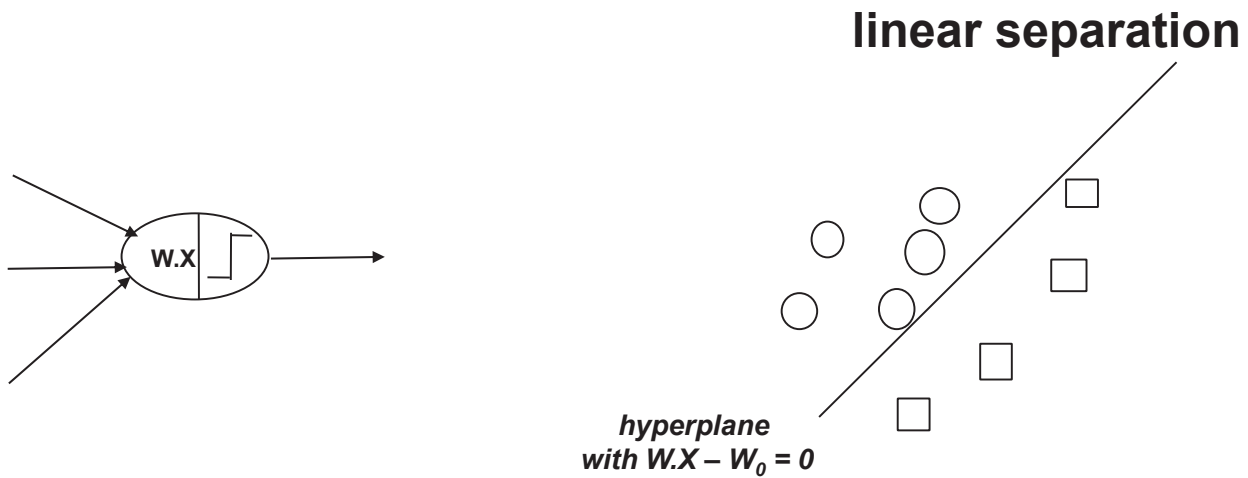


→ Neuron output = periodic signal with frequency  $f \approx \text{sigmoid}(q) = \text{sigmoid}(\sum_i C_i f_i)$

- Mc Culloch & Pitts (1943)
  - Simple model of neuron
  - goal: model the brain



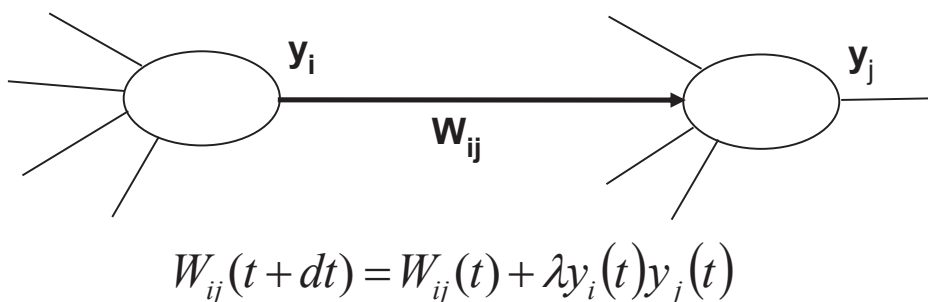
# Linear separation by a single neuron



## Theoretical model for learning

- Hebb rule (1949)

**"Cells that fire together wire together", ie synaptic weight increases between neurons that activate simultaneously**



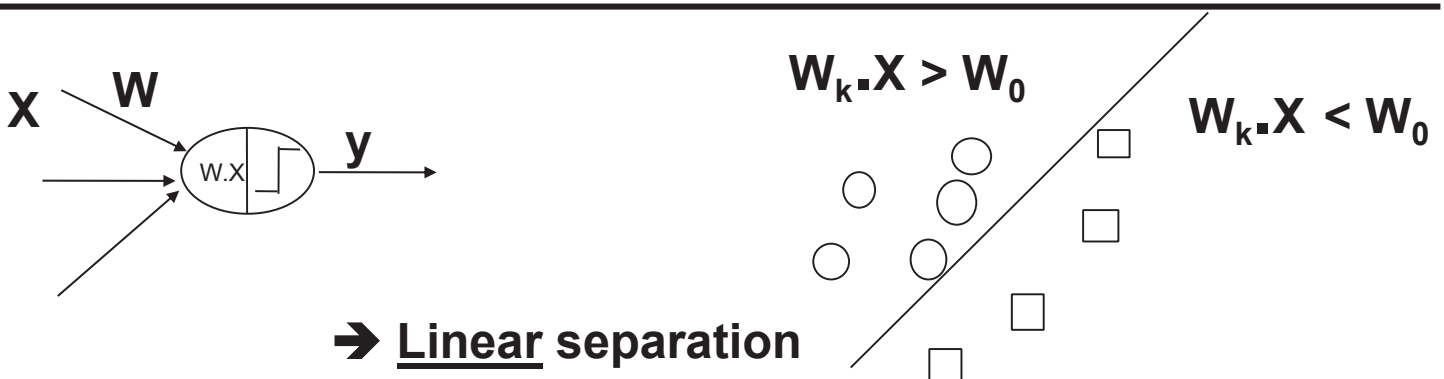
- PERCEPTRON (Rosenblatt, 1957)
- ADALINE (Widrow, 1962)

Formal neuron of Mac Culloch & Pitts  
+  
Hebb rule for learning



Possible to “learn” Boolean functions  
by training from examples

## Training of Perceptron



Training algorithm:

$$W_{k+1} = W_k + vX \quad \text{if } X \text{ incorrectly classified (v: target value)}$$

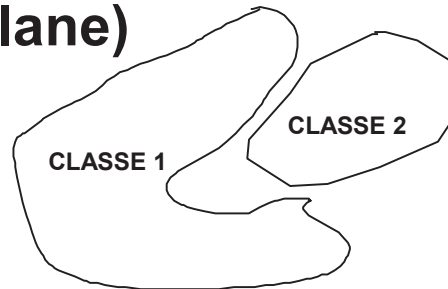
$$W_{k+1} = W_k \quad \text{if } X \text{ correctly classified}$$

- Convergence if linearly-separable problem
- ?? if NOT linearly-separable

# Limits of first models, necessity of “hidden” neurons

- **PERCEPTRONS**, book by Minsky & Papert (1969)  
Detailed study on Perceptrons and their intrinsic limits:
  - can NOT learn some types of Boolean functions (even simple one like XOR)
  - can do ONLY LINEAR separations

But many classes cannot be linearly-separated  
(by a single hyper-plane)



- Necessity of several layers in the Neural Network
- Requires new training algorithm

## 1<sup>st</sup> revival of Neural Nets

USE OF DERIVABLE NEURONS

+

APPLY GRADIENT DESCENT METHOD



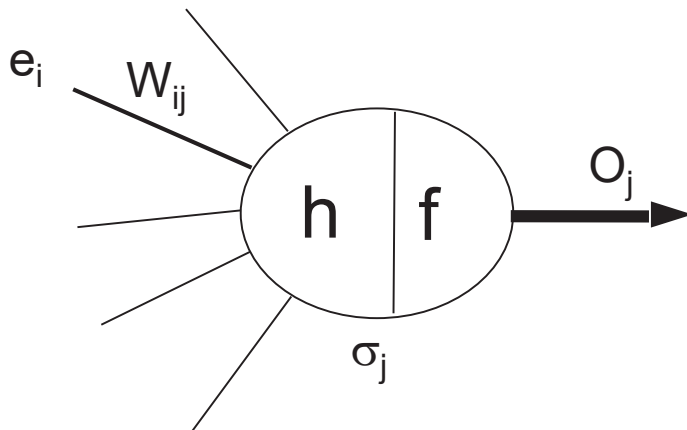
- **GRADIENT BACK-PROPAGATION** (Rumelhart 1986, Le Cun 85)  
(en français : *Rétro-propagation du gradient*)
- Overcome Credit Assignment Problem by training Neural Networks with HIDDEN layers
- Empirical solutions for MANY real-world applications
- Some strong theoretical results:  
Multi-Layer Perceptrons are UNIVERSAL  
(and parsimonious) approximators
- around years 2000's: still used, but much less popular than SVMs and boosting

- Since ~2006, rising interest for, and excellent results with “deep” neural networks, consisting in MANY layers:
  - Unsupervised “intelligent” initialization of weights
  - Standard gradient descent, and/or fine-tuning from initial values of weights
  - Hidden layers → learnt hierarchy of features
- In particular, since ~2013 dramatic progresses in visual recognition (and voice recognition), with deep Convolutional Neural Networks

### **DEFINITIONS OF FORMAL NEURONS**

In general: a processing “unit” applying a simple operation to its inputs, and which can be “connected” to others to build a networks able to realize any input-output function

“Usual” definition: a “unit” computing a weighted sum of its inputs, and then applying some non-linearity (sigmoid, ReLU, Gaussian, ...)



$e_i$ : inputs of neuron  
 $\sigma_j$ : potential of neuron  
 $O_j$ : output of neuron

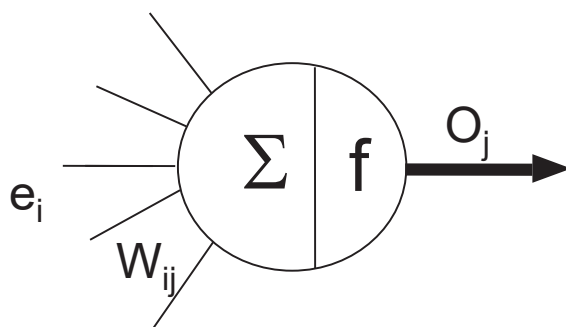
$W_{ij}$ : (synaptic) weights  
 $h$ : input function (computation of potential =  $\Sigma$ , dist, kernel, ...)   
 $f$ : activation (or transfer) function

$$\sigma_j = h(e_i, \{W_{ij}, i=0 \text{ à } k_j\})$$

$$O_j = f(\sigma_j)$$

The combination of particular  $h$  and  $f$  functions defines the *type* of formal neuron

### PRINCIPLE



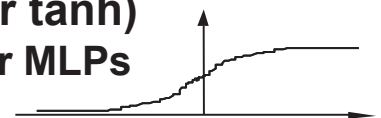
$$O_j = f\left(W_{0j} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_j} W_{ij}e_i\right)$$

$W_{0j}$  = "bias"

### ACTIVATION FUNCTIONS

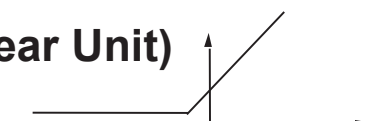
- Threshold (Heaviside or sign)  
→ binary neurons

- Sigmoid (logistic or tanh)  
→ most common for MLPs



- Identity → linear neurons

- ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit)



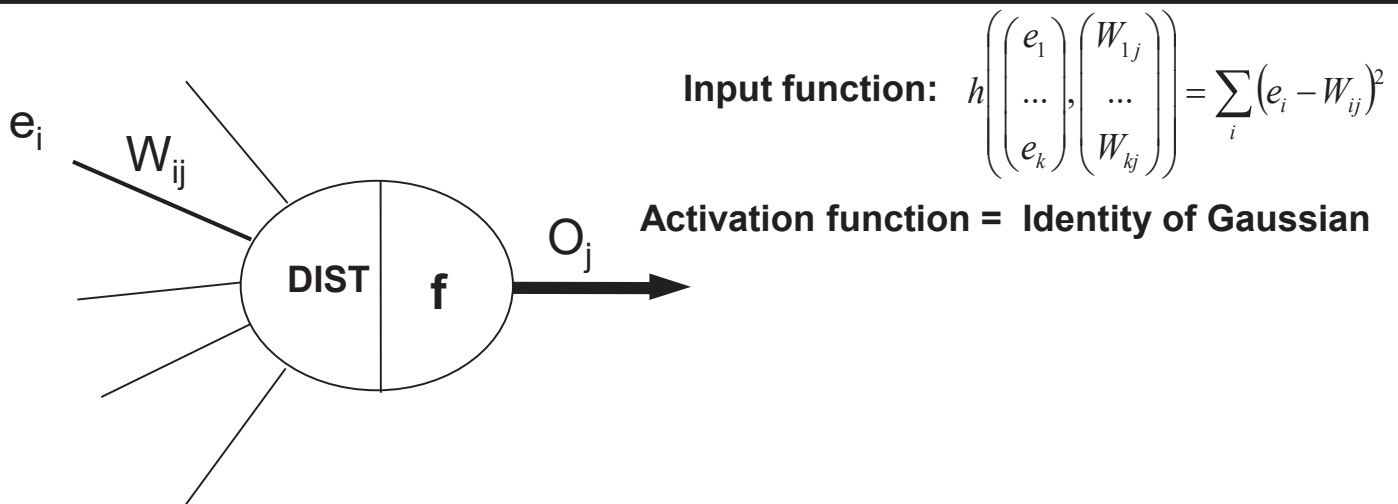
- Saturation



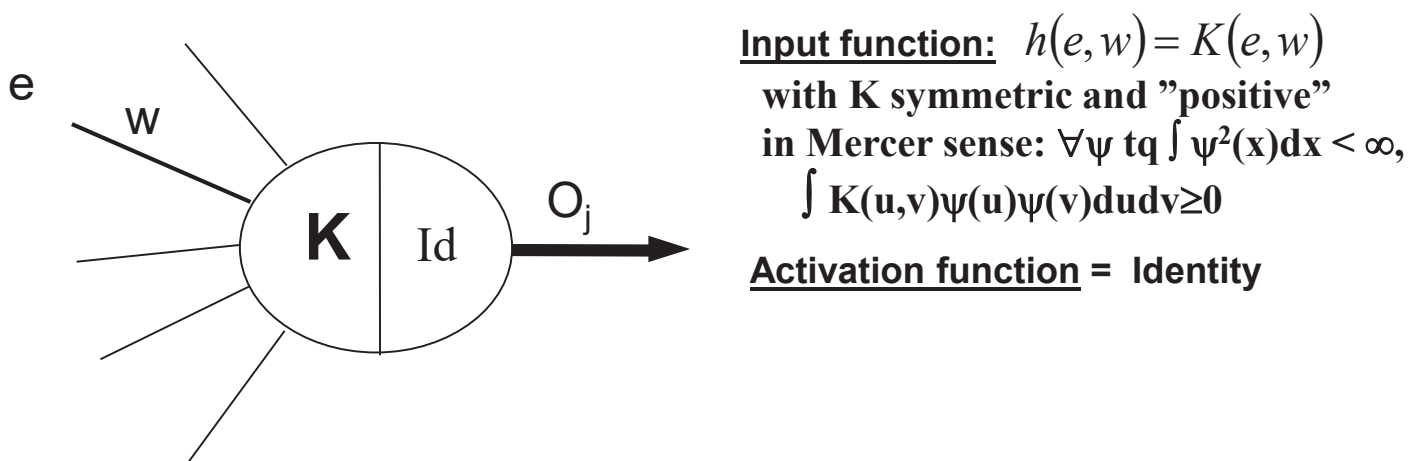
- Gaussian







The potential of these neurons is the Euclidian **DISTANCE** between input vector  $(e_i)_i$  and weight vector  $(W_{ij})_i$



**Examples of possible kernels:**

- Polynomial:  $K(u, v) = [u \cdot v + 1]^p$
- Radial Basis Function:  $K(u, v) = \exp(-||u - v||^2 / 2\sigma^2)$   
→ equivalent to distance-neuron+gaussian-activation
- Sigmoid:  $K(u, v) = \tanh(u \cdot v + \theta)$   
→ equivalent to summing-neurons+sigmoid-activation

## TWO FAMILIES OF NETWORKS

- **FEED-FORWARD NETWORKS**

(en français, “réseaux non bouclés”):

**NO feedback connection,**

**The output depends only on current input (NO memory)**

- **FEEDBACK OR RECURRENT NETWORKS**

(en français, “réseaux bouclés”):

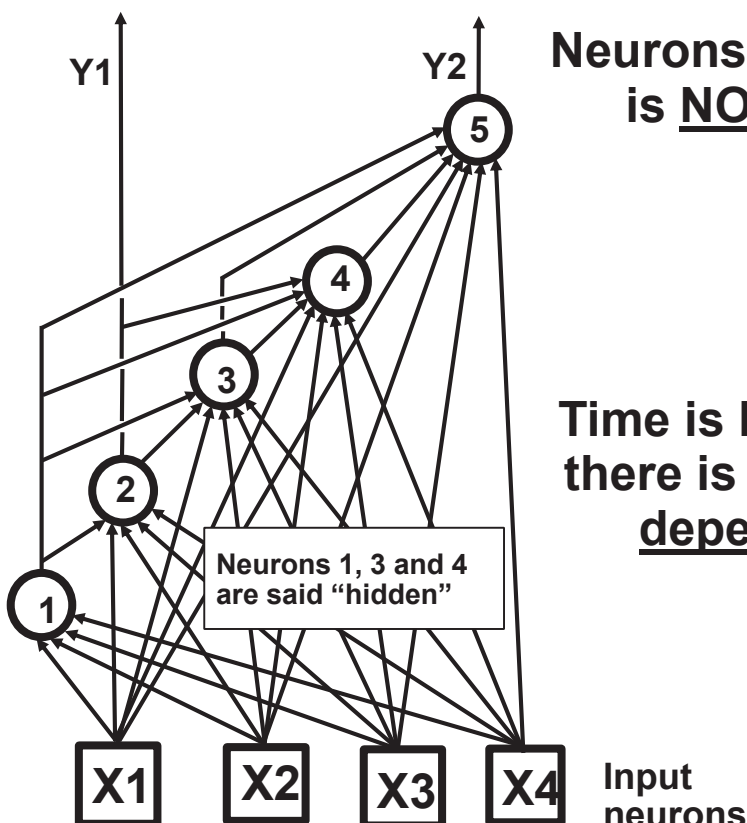
**Some internal feedback/backwards connection**

→ **output depends on current input**

**AND ON ALL PREVIOUS INPUTS (some memory inside!)**

## Feed-forward networks

(en français : réseau “NON-bouclé”)

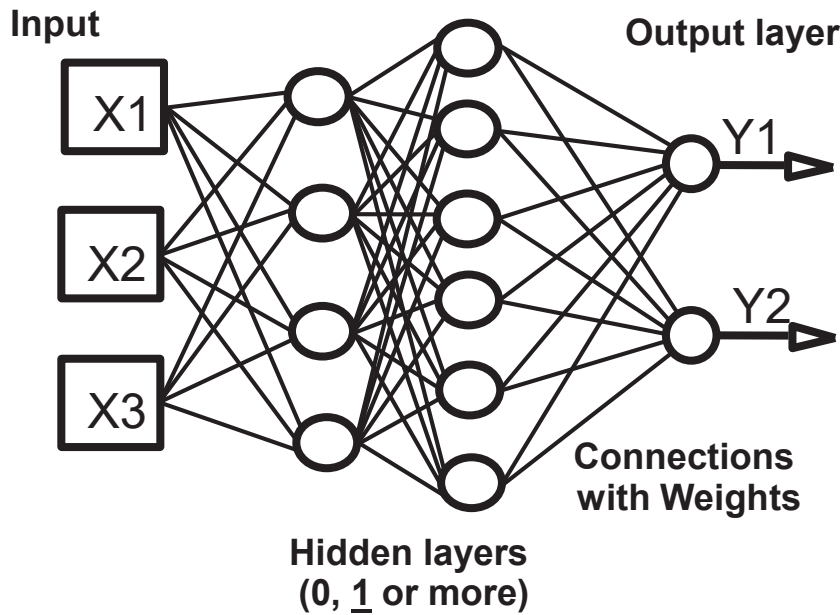


Neurons can be ordered so that there is NO “backwards” connection



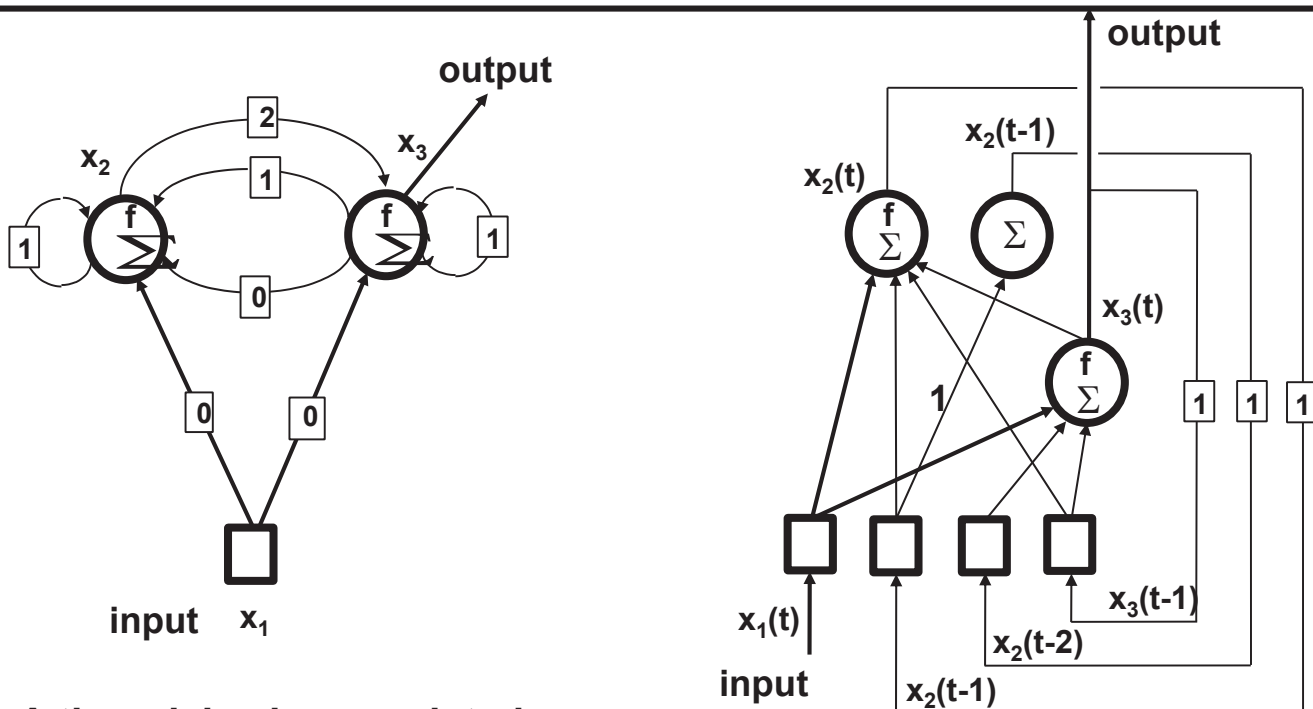
Time is **NOT** a functional variable, i.e. there is **NO MEMORY**, and the output depends only on current input

# Feed-forward Multi-layer Neural Networks



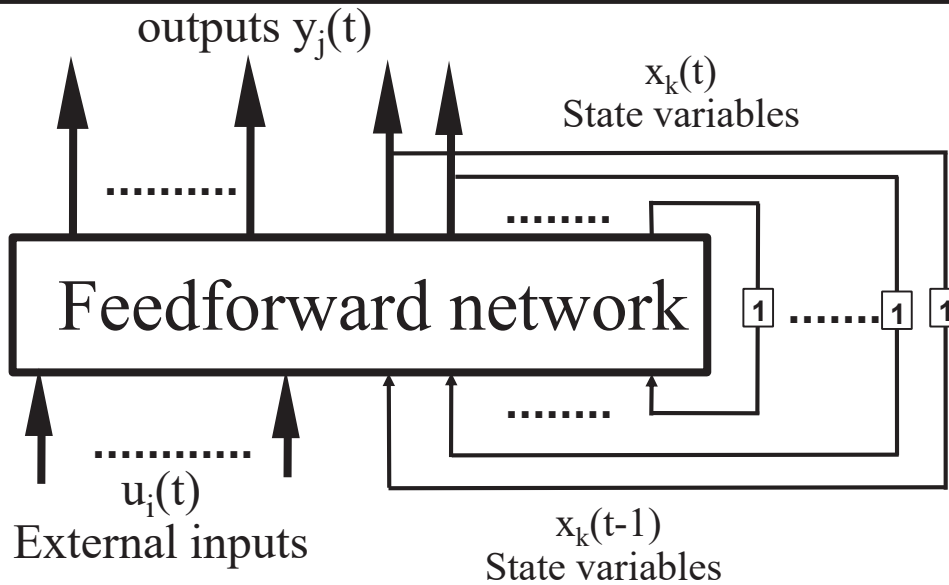
For “Multi-Layer Perceptron” (MLP),  
neurons type generally “summing with sigmoid activation”  
[terme français pour MLP : “Réseau Neuronal à couches”]

# Recurrent Neural Networks

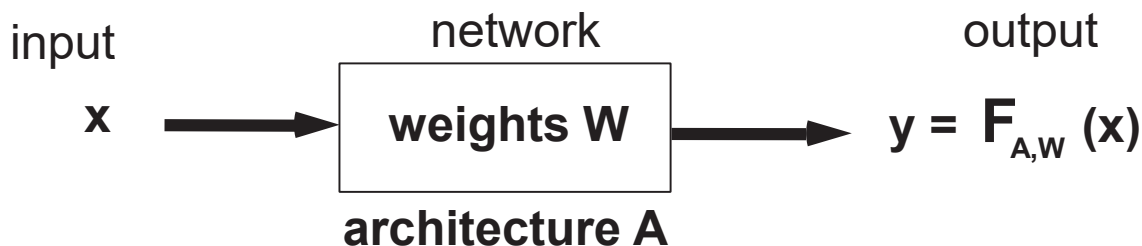


A time-delay is associated  
to each connection

Equivalent form



The output at time  $t$  depend not only on external inputs  $U(t)$ , but also (via internal “state variables”) on the whole sequence of previous inputs (and on initialization of state variables)



### • Two modes:

- **training:** based on examples of (input,output) couples, the network modifies
  - Its parameters  $W$  (synaptic weights of connections)
  - And also potentially its architecture  $A$  (by creating/eliminating neurons or connections)
- **recognition:** computation of output associated to a given input (architecture and weights remaining frozen)

# Training principle for Neural Networks

- Supervised training = adaptation of synaptic weights of the network so that its output is close to target value for each example
- Given  $n$  examples  $(X_p; D_p)$ , and the network outputs  $Y_p = NN(X_p)$ , the average quadratic error is

$$E(W) = \sum_p (Y_p - D_p)^2$$

Training  $\sim$  finding  $W^* = \text{ArgMin}(E)$ , ie minimize the cost function  $E(W)$

- Generally this is done by using gradient descent (total, partial or stochastic):

~~$$W(t) \leftarrow W(t-1) + \mu(t)(W(t) - W(t-1))\right]$$~~

## Usual training algo for Multi Layer Perceptrons (MLP)

- Training by Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD), using *back-propagation*:
  - Input 1 (or a few) random training sample(s)
  - Propagate
  - Calculate error (loss)
  - Back-propagate through all layers from end to input, to compute gradient and update weights

**Smart method for efficient computing of gradient (w.r.t. weights) of a Neural Network cost function, based on chain rule for derivation.**

Cost function is  $Q(t) = \sum_m \text{loss}(Y_m, D_m)$ , where  $m$  runs over training set examples

Usually,  $\text{loss}(Y_m, D_m) = ||Y_m - D_m||^2$  [quadratic error]

Total gradient:

$$W(t+1) = W(t) - \lambda(t) \text{grad}_W(Q(t)) + \mu(t)(W(t) - W(t-1))$$

Stochastic gradient:

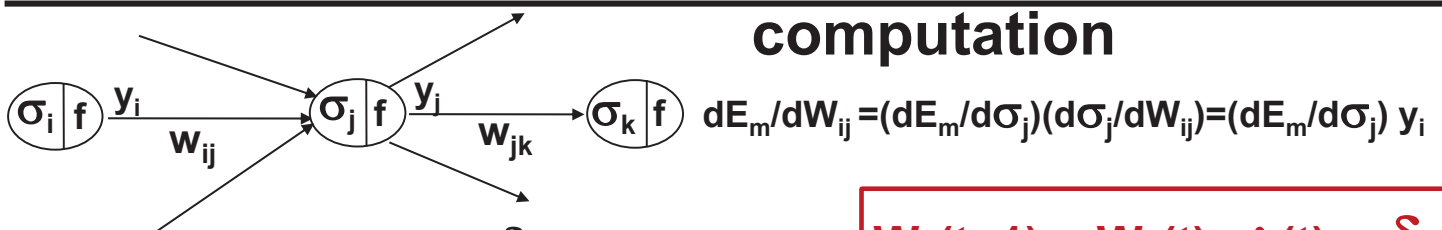
$$W(t+1) = W(t) - \lambda(t) \text{grad}_W(Q_m(t)) + \mu(t)(W(t) - W(t-1))$$

where  $Q_m = \text{loss}(Y_m, D_m)$ , is error computed on only ONE example randomly drawn from training set at every iteration and

$\lambda(t) = \text{learning rate}$  (fixed, decreasing or adaptive),  $\mu(t) = \text{momentum}$

**Now, how to compute  $dQ_m/dW_{ij}$ ?**

## Backprop through fully-connected layers: use of chain rule derivative computation



Let  $\delta_j = (dE_m/d\sigma_j)$ . Then

$$W_{ij}(t+1) = W_{ij}(t) - \lambda(t) y_i \delta_j$$

(and  $W_{0j}(t+1) = W_{0j}(t) - \lambda(t)\delta_j$ )

If neuron  $j$  is output,  $\delta_j = (dE_m/d\sigma_j) = (dE_m/dy_j)(dy_j/d\sigma_j)$  with  $E_m = ||Y_m - D_m||^2$

$$\text{so } \delta_j = 2(y_j - D_j)f'(\sigma_j) \text{ if neuron } j \text{ is an output}$$

Otherwise,  $\delta_j = (dE_m/d\sigma_j) = \sum_k (dE_m/d\sigma_k)(d\sigma_k/d\sigma_j) = \sum_k \delta_k (d\sigma_k/d\sigma_j) = \sum_k \delta_k W_{jk}(dy_j/d\sigma_j)$

$$\text{so } \delta_j = (\sum_k W_{jk} \delta_k) f'(\sigma_j) \text{ if neuron } j \text{ is "hidden"}$$

**→ all the  $\delta_j$  can be computed successively from last layer to upstream layers by “error backpropagation” from output**

## Cybenko 1989

- For any continuous function  $F$  defined and bounded on a bounded set, and for any  $\varepsilon$ , there exists a layered Neural Network with **ONLY ONE HIDDEN LAYER** (of *sigmoid* neurons) which approximates  $F$  with error  $< \varepsilon$

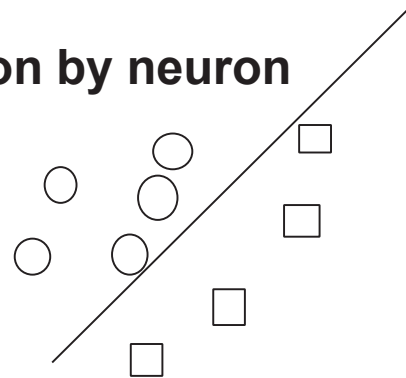
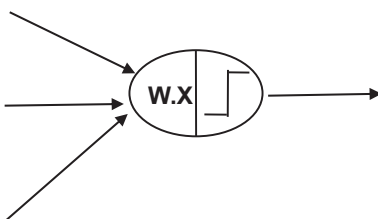
...But the theorem does not provide any clue about how to find this one\_hidden-layer NN, nor about its size!  
And the size of hidden layer might be huge...

## Sussman 92

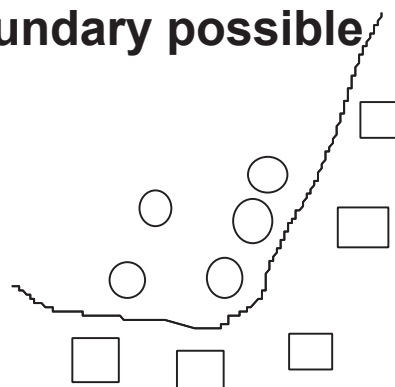
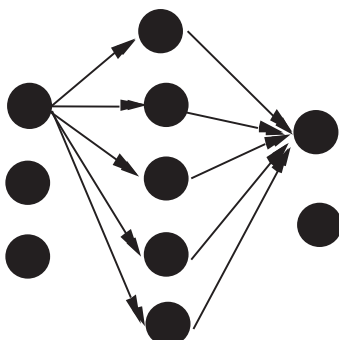
- The set of MLPs with ONE hidden layer of sigmoid neurons is a family of **PARCIMONIOUS** approximators: for equal number of parameters, more functions can be correctly approximated than with polynoms

# Multi-layer (MLP) v.s. single-layer (perceptron)

Single-layer  $\rightarrow$  one linear separation by neuron



Multi-layer: any shape of boundary possible





## ADVANTAGES

- Universal and parsimonious approximators (& classifiers)
- Fast to compute
- Robustness to data noise
- Rather easy to train and program

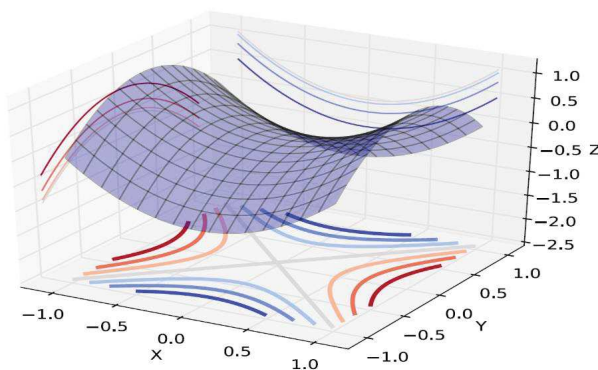
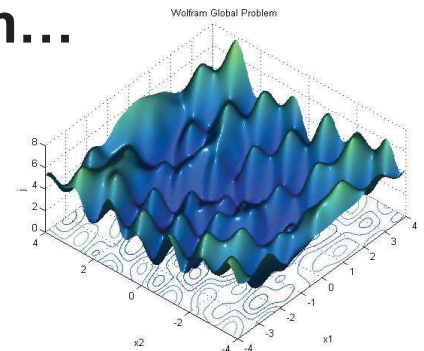
## DRAWBACKS

- **Choice of ARCHITECTURE (# of neurons in hidden layer) is CRITICAL, and empiric!**
- Many other critical hyper-parameters (learning rate, # of iterations, initialization of weights, etc...)
- **Many local minima in cost function**
- Blackbox: difficult to interpret the model

## Why gradient descent works *despite non-convexity?*

- Local minima dominate in low-Dim...

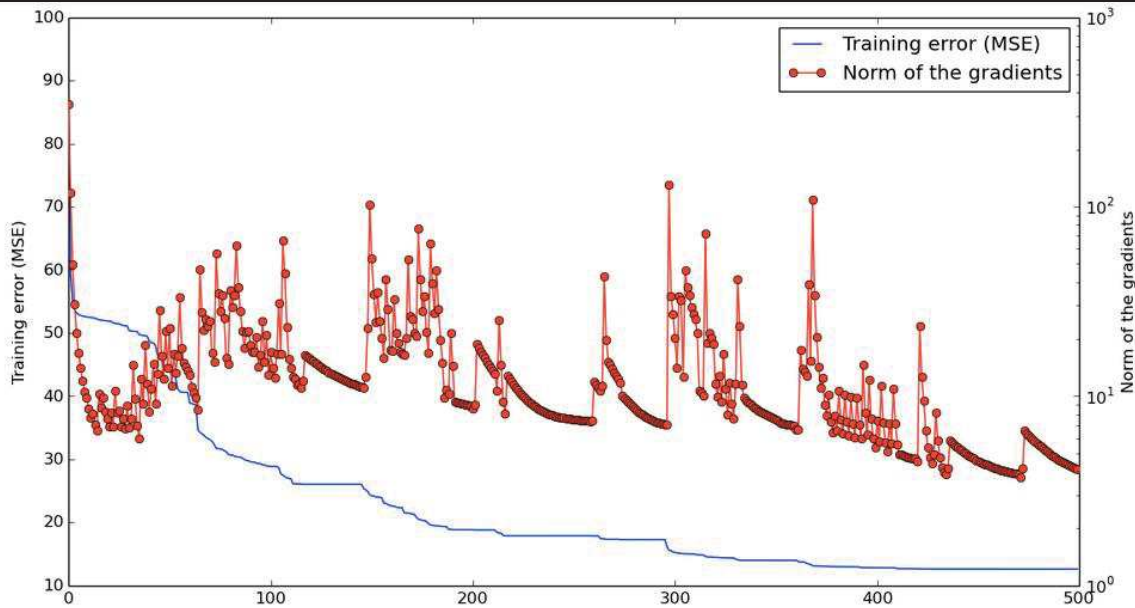
- ...but recent work has shown saddle points dominate in high-Dim



- Furthermore, most local minima are close to the global minimum



# Saddle points in training curves



- **Oscillating between two behaviors:**
  - Slowly approaching a saddle point
  - Escaping it

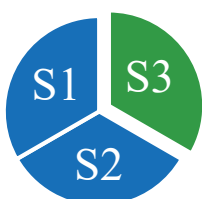
## METHODOLOGY FOR SUPERVISED TRAINING OF MULTI-LAYER NEURAL NETWORKS

- Space of possible input values usually infinite, and training set is only a FINITE subset
- Zero error on all training examples  $\neq$  good results on whole space of possible inputs (cf generalization error  $\neq$  empirical error...)  
↓
- Need to collect enough and representative examples
- Essential to keep aside a subset of examples that shall be used only as TEST SET for estimating final generalization (when training finished)
- Need also to use some “validation set” independant from training set, in order to tune all hyper-parameters (layer sizes, number of iterations, etc...)

## Optimize hyper-parameters by "VALIDATION"

To **avoid over-fitting** and **maximize generalization**, absolutely essential to use some VALIDATION estimation, for optimizing training hyper-parameters (and stopping criterion):

- either use a *separate validation dataset* (random split of data into Training-set + Validation-set)
- or use CROSS-VALIDATION:
  - Repeat k times: train on  $(k-1)/k$  proportion of data + estimate error on remaining  $1/k$  portion
  - Average the k error estimations



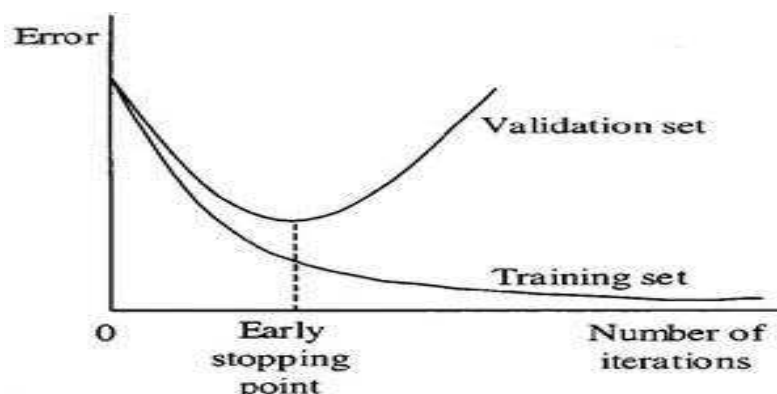
### 3-fold cross-validation:

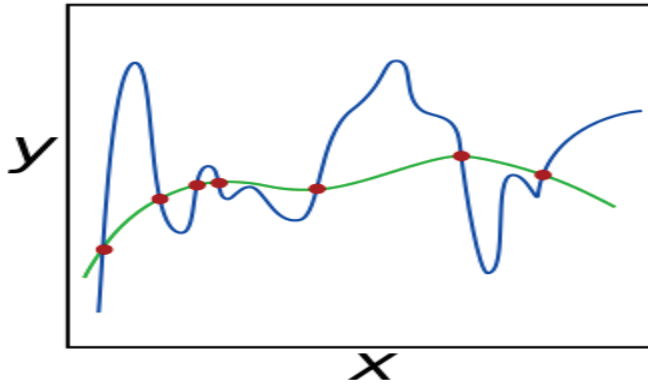
- Train on  $S1 \cup S2$  then estimate errS3 error on S3
- Train on  $S1 \cup S3$  then estimate errS2 error on S2
- Train on  $S2 \cup S3$  then estimate errS1 error on S1
- Average validation error:  $(errS1 + errS2 + errS3)/3$

- Importance of input normalization  
(zero mean, unit variance)
- Importance of weights initialization  
random but SMALL and prop. to  $1/\sqrt{\text{nbInputs}}$
- Decreasing (or adaptive) learning rate
- Importance of training set size  
If a Neural Net has a LARGE number of free parameters,  
→ train it with a sufficiently large training-set!
- Avoid overfitting by Early Stopping of training iterations
- Avoid overfitting by use of L1 or L2 regularization

## Avoid overfitting by EARLY STOPPING

- For Neural Networks, a first method to avoid overfitting is to STOP LEARNING iterations as soon as the *validation\_error* stops decreasing
- Generally, not a good idea to decide the number of iterations beforehand. Better to **ALWAYS USE EARLY STOPPING**





Trying to fit too many free parameters with not enough information can lead to overfitting

**Regularization** = penalizing too complex models  
Often done by adding a special term to cost function

For neural network, the regularization term is just norm L2 or L1 of vector of all weights:

$$K = \sum_m (\text{loss}(Y_m, D_m)) + \beta \sum_{ij} |W_{ij}|^p \quad \text{with } p=2 \text{ (L2) or } p=1 \text{ (L1)}$$

→ name **“Weight decay”**

- **Number and sizes of hidden layers!!**
- **Activation functions**
- **Learning rate (& momentum) [optimizer]**
- **Number of gradient iterations!! (& early\_stopping)**
- **Regularization factor**
- **Weight initialization**

- Use 'adam' optimizer
- Test/compare ***WIDELY VARIED*** HIDDEN LAYER SIZES  
(typically 30;100;300;1000;30-30;100-100)
- Test/compare ***SEVERAL INITIAL*** LEARNING RATES  
(typically 0.1;0.03;0.01;0.003;0.001)
- Make sure **ENOUGH ITERATIONS** for convergence  
(typically >200 epochs), but **EARLY STOPPING** on validation\_error to avoid overfitting  
(→ check by plotting learning curves!!)

## Some (old) references on (shallow, i.e. non deep) Neural Networks

- *Réseaux de neurones : méthodologie et applications*, G. Dreyfus et al., Eyrolles, 2002.
- *Réseaux de neurones formels pour la modélisation, la commande, et la classification*, L. Personnaz et I. Rivals, CNRS éditions, collection Sciences et Techniques de l'Ingénieur, 2003.
- *Réseaux de neurones : de la physique à la psychologie*, J.-P. Nadal, Armand Colin, 1993.