CS 6316 Machine Learning

Neural Networks

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Overview

- 1. From Logistic Regression to Neural Networks
- 2. Expressive Power of Neural Networks
- 3. Learning Neural Networks
- 4. Computation Graph

From Logistic Regression to Neu-

ral Networks

Logistic Regression

▶ An unified form for $y \in \{-1, +1\}$

$$p(Y = +1 \mid x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\langle w, x \rangle)} \tag{1}$$

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▶ The sigmoid function $\sigma(a)$ with $a \in \mathbb{R}$

$$\sigma(a) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-a)} \tag{2}$$

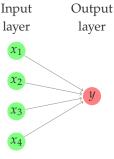


Graphical Representation

A specific example of LR

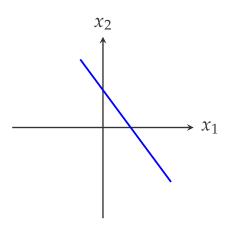
$$p(Y = 1 \mid x) = \sigma(\sum_{j=1}^{4} w_j x_{\cdot,j})$$
 (3)

► The graphical representation of this LR model is



Capacity of a LR

Logistic regression gives a linear decision boundary



From LR to Neural Networks

Build upon logistic regression, a simple neural network can be constructed as

$$z_k = \sigma(\sum_{j=1}^d w_{k,j}^{(1)} x_{\cdot,j}) \quad k \in [K]$$
 (4)

$$P(y = 1 \mid x) = \sigma(\sum_{k=1}^{K} w_k^{(o)} z_k)$$
 (5)

- ▶ $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$: d-dimensional input
- ▶ $y \in \{-1, +1\}$ (binary classification problem)

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- ▶ $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$: d-dimensional input
- ▶ $y \in \{-1, +1\}$ (binary classification problem)
- $\{w_{k,i}^{(1)}\}$ and $\{w_k^{(o)}\}$ are two sets of the parameters, and
- ► *K* is the number of hidden units, each of them has the same form as a LR.

Mathematical Formulation

Element-wise formulation

$$z_k = \sigma(\sum_{j=1}^d w_{k,j}^{(1)} x_{,j}) \quad k \in [K]$$
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$$P(y = +1 \mid x) = \sigma(\sum_{k=1}^{K} w_k^{(o)} z_k)$$
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Matrix-vector formulation

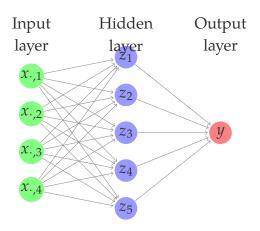
$$z = \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}x) \tag{8}$$

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$$P(y = +1 \mid x) = \sigma((\mathbf{w}^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}}z)$$
(8)

where $\mathbf{W}^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{K \times d}$ and $\mathbf{w}^{(o)} \in \mathbb{R}^{K}$

Graphical Representation

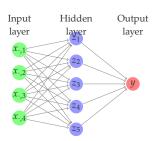


- ▶ Depth: 2 (two-layer neural network)
- ▶ Width: 5 (the maximal number of units in each layer)

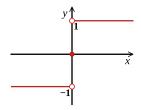
Hypothesis Space

The hypothesis space of neural networks is usually defined by the architecture of the network, which includes

- the nodes in the network,
- the connections in the network, and
- the activation function (e.g., σ)

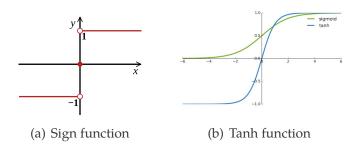


Other Activation Functions

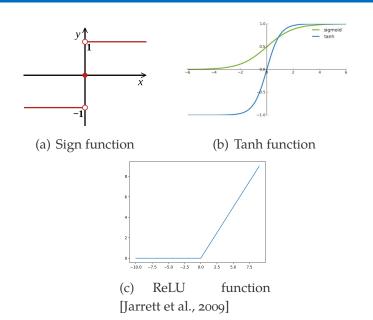


(a) Sign function

Other Activation Functions

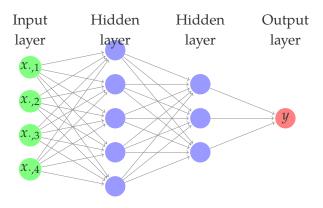


Other Activation Functions



Another Network/Hypothesis Space

Simply increasing the number of layers or increase the number of hidden units, we can create another hypothesis space



Expressive Power of Neural Net-

works

Two-layer NNs with Sign Function

Consider a neural network defined by the following functions

$$z_k = \operatorname{sign}(\sum_{j=1}^d w_{k,j}^{(1)} x_{\cdot,j}) \quad k \in [K]$$
 (10)

$$h(x) = \operatorname{sign}(\sum_{k=1}^{K} w_k^{(o)} z_k)$$
 (11)

where sign(a) is the sign function.

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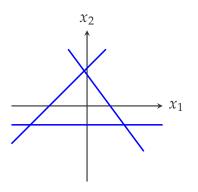
where sign(a) is the sign function.

h(x) can be rewritten as

$$h(x) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{k=1}^{K} w_k^{(o)} \cdot \operatorname{sign}(\sum_{j=1}^{d} w_{k,i}^{(1)} x_{\cdot,j})\right)$$
(12)

Decision Boundary

h(x) is defined by a combination of K linear predictors



Similar conclusion applies to other activation functions.

[Shalev-Shwartz and Ben-David, 2014, Page 274]

Universal Approximation Theorem

Restrict the inputs $x_{\cdot,j} \in \{-1,+1\} \forall j \in [d]$ as binary

Universal Approximation Theorem

For every d, there exists a two-layer neural network (Equations 10 – 11), such that this hypothesis space contains all functions from $\{-1, +1\}^d$ to $\{-1, +1\}$

[Shalev-Shwartz and Ben-David, 2014, Section 20.3]

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- ► The minimal size of network that satisfies the theorem is exponential in *d*
- \triangleright Similar results hold for σ as the activation function

[Shalev-Shwartz and Ben-David, 2014, Section 20.3]

Learning Neural Networks

Neural Network Predictions

Consider a binary classification problem with $\mathcal{Y} = \{-1, +1\},\$

 A two-layer neural network gives the following prediction as

$$P(Y = +1 \mid x) = \sigma\left((\boldsymbol{w}^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}}\sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}x)\right)$$
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► Assume the ground-truth label is *y*, let's introduce an empirical distribution

$$q(Y = y' \mid x) = \delta(y', y) = \begin{cases} 1 & y' = y \\ 0 & y' \neq y \end{cases}$$
 (14)

Cross Entropy

Given one data point, The loss function of a neural network is usually defined as the cross entropy of the prediction distribution p and the empirical distribution p

$$H(q,p) = -q(Y = +1 \mid x) \log p(Y = +1 \mid x)$$
$$-q(Y = -1 \mid x) \log p(Y = -1 \mid x)$$
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Since q is defined with a Delta function, Depending on y, we have

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It is equivalent to the negative log-likelihood (NLL) function used in learning LR.

ERM

► Given a set of training example $S = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^m$, the loss function is defined as

$$L(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = -\sum_{i=1}^{m} \log p(y_i \mid \boldsymbol{x}_i)$$
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where θ indicates all the parameters in a network.

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- ► For example, $\theta = \{w^{(o)}, \mathbf{W}^{(1)}\}$, for the previously defined two-layer neural network
- Just like learning a LR, we can use gradient-based learning algorithm

Gradient-based Learning

A simple scratch of gradient-based learning¹

1. Compute the gradient of θ , $\frac{\partial L(\theta)}{\partial \theta}$

¹More detail will be discussed in the next lecture

Gradient-based Learning

A simple scratch of gradient-based learning¹

- 1. Compute the gradient of θ , $\frac{\partial L(\theta)}{\partial \theta}$
- 2. Update the parameter with the gradient

$$\theta^{(\text{new})} \leftarrow \theta^{(\text{old})} - \eta \cdot \frac{\partial L(\theta)}{\partial \theta} \Big|_{\theta = \theta^{(\text{old})}}$$
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where η is the learning rate

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3. Go back step 1 until it converges

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Gradient Computation

Consider the two-layer neural network with one training example (x, y), to further simplify the computation, we assume y = +1

$$\log p(y \mid x) = \log \sigma \left((\boldsymbol{w}^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}} \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} x) \right) \tag{19}$$

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The gradient with respect to $w^{(o)}$ is

$$\frac{\partial L(\boldsymbol{\theta})}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}^{(o)}} = -\frac{\partial \log \sigma(\cdot)}{\partial \sigma(\cdot)} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma((\boldsymbol{w}^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}} \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} \boldsymbol{x}))}{\partial (\boldsymbol{w}^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}} \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} \boldsymbol{x})} \cdot \frac{\partial (\boldsymbol{w}^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}} \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} \boldsymbol{x})}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}^{(o)}}$$
(20)

21

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$$= -\left\{1 - \sigma((\boldsymbol{w}^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}} \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} \boldsymbol{x}))\right\} \cdot \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} \boldsymbol{x}) \tag{20}$$

which is in the similar form as the LR updating equation.

Gradient Computation (II)

The gradient with respect to $W^{(1)}$ is

$$\frac{\partial L(\theta)}{\partial w^{(o)}} = -\frac{\partial \log \sigma(\cdot)}{\partial \sigma(\cdot)} \cdot \frac{\partial \sigma((w^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}} \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} x))}{\partial (w^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}} \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} x)} \\
\cdot \frac{\partial (w^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}} \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} x)}{\partial \sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)} x)} \cdot \frac{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(1)} x}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(1)}} \tag{21}$$

Gradient Computation (II)

The gradient with respect to $W^{(1)}$ is

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- Both of them are the applications of the chain rule in calculus plus some derivatives of basic functions
- ▶ In the literature of neural networks, it is called the back-propagation algorithm [Rumelhart et al., 1986]

Computation Graph

Forward Operations

Consider the example of a two-layer neural network

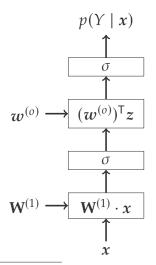
$$P(Y = +1 \mid \mathbf{x}) = \sigma\left((\mathbf{w}^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}}\sigma(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x})\right)$$
(22)

A neural network is a composition of some basic functions and operations. For example

- $ightharpoonup \sigma(\cdot)$
- ightharpoonup matrix transpose $(w^{(o)})^{\mathsf{T}}$
- ightharpoonup matrix-vector multiplication $\mathbf{W}^{(1)}x$

Forward Graph

The computation graph of the two-layer neural network²



Backward Operations

Similarly, the gradient of neural network parameters are computed with a series of backward operations associated with the derivative of some basic function. For example

$$\frac{\partial \sigma(x)}{\partial x} = \sigma(x)(1 - \sigma(x))$$

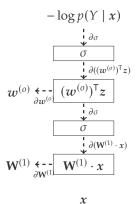
$$\frac{\partial a^{\mathsf{T}}x}{\partial x} = a$$

$$\frac{\partial \log(x)}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{x}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathsf{W}x}{\partial x} = \begin{bmatrix} x^{\mathsf{T}} \\ \vdots \\ x^{\mathsf{T}} \end{bmatrix}$$

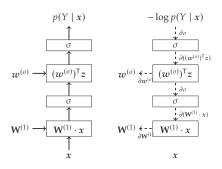
Backward Graph

With the chain rule, gradient of the loss function with respect to any parameter can be computed backward step-by-step along the path



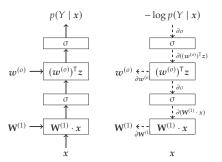
Computation Graph

Perform the forward/backward step with a graph of basic operations (e.g., PyTorch, Tensorflow)



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Perform the forward/backward step with a graph of basic operations (e.g., PyTorch, Tensorflow)



- ► Modular implementation: implement each module with its forward/backward operations together
- Automatic differentiation: automatically run with the backward step

What is Deep Learning?

Definition

Deep Learning is building a system by assembling parameterized modules into a (possibly dynamic) computation graph, and training it to perform a task by optimizing the parameters using a gradient-based method.

[LeCun, 2020, AAAI 2020 Keynote]

Reference



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