

# Introduction to Neural Networks in Python

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#### **Overview**

Neural networks

Classification with neural networks

# Neural networks

# The wonders of the human visual system



Figure: Most humans effortlessly recognize the digits 5 0 4 1 9 2 1 3.

# **Biological motivation**

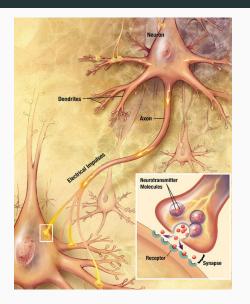


Image source: en.wikipedia.org

# Introduction to Neural Networks in Python -- Neural networks

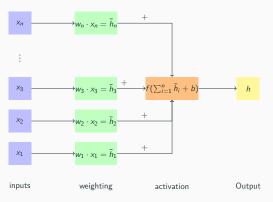
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└─Biological motivation

- A Human brain contains approximately 86 billion neurons.
- 10<sup>14</sup> to 10<sup>15</sup> synapses connect these neurons.
- Neurons recieve inputs from dentrites.
- and can produce outputs signals along its axon.
- Axons are connect neurons, modelled by weighting inputs wx.
- Neuron inputs can be inhibitive (negative weight) or
- excitory (positive weight).
- If enough inputs exite a neuron it fires.
- The activation function aims to mimic this behaviour.
- Even though neural networks started out as biologically motivated,
- engineering efforts have since diverged from biology.

# The perceptron

Can computers recognize digits? Mimic biological neurons,



Formally a single perceptron is defined as

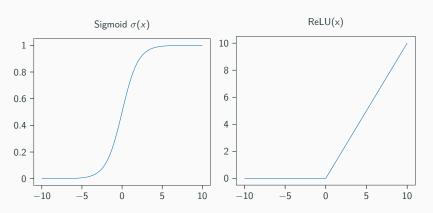
$$f(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b) = h \tag{1}$$

with  $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $h, b \in \mathbb{R}$ .

4

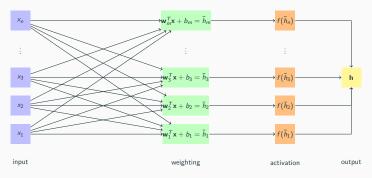
#### The activation function f

Two popular choices for the activation function f.



# Arrays of perceptrons

Let's extend the definition to cover an array of perceptrons:



Every input is connected to every neuron. In matrix language, this turns into

$$\bar{\mathbf{h}} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}, \qquad \qquad \mathbf{h} = f(\bar{\mathbf{h}}).$$
 (2)

With  $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , and  $\mathbf{h}, \bar{\mathbf{h}} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ .

#### The loss function

To choose weights for the network, we require a quality measure. We already saw the mean squared error cost function,

$$C_{\text{mse}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{n} (\mathbf{y}_k - \mathbf{h}_k)^2 = \frac{1}{2} (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{h})^T (\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{h})$$
 (3)

This function measures the squared distance from each desired output.  $\mathbf{y}$  denotes the desired labels, and  $\mathbf{h}$  represents network output.

# The gradient of the mse-cost-function

Both the mean squared error loss function and our dense layer are differentiable.

$$\frac{\partial C_{\text{mse}}}{\partial \mathbf{h}} = \mathbf{h} - \mathbf{y} = \triangle_{\text{mse}} \tag{4}$$

The  $\triangle$  symbol will re-appear. It always indicates incoming gradient information from above. If the labels are a vector of shape  $\mathbb{R}^m$ ,  $\triangle$  and the network output  $\mathbf{h}$  must share this dimension.

# The gradient of a dense layer

The chain rule tells us the gradients for the dense layer [Nie15]

$$\delta \mathbf{W} = [f'(\bar{\mathbf{h}}) \odot \triangle] \mathbf{x}^T, \qquad \delta \mathbf{b} = f'(\bar{\mathbf{h}}) \odot \triangle, \qquad (5)$$

$$\delta \mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}^{\mathsf{T}}[f'(\bar{\mathbf{h}}) \odot \triangle], \tag{6}$$

where  $\odot$  is the element-wise product.  $\delta$  denotes the cost function gradient for the value following it [Gre+16].

Modern libraries will take care of these computations for you! You can choose to verify these equations yourself by completing the optional deep learning project.

9

☐ The gradient of a dense layer

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The chain rule tells us the gradients for the dense layer [Nie15]

The gradient of a dense layer

On the board, derive: Recall the chain rule  $(g(h(x)))' = g'(h(x)) \cdot h'(x)$ . For the activation function, we have,

$$\bar{\mathbf{h}} = f(\bar{\mathbf{h}}) \tag{7}$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta \bar{\mathbf{h}} = f'(\bar{\mathbf{h}}) \odot \triangle \tag{8}$$

For the weight matrix,

$$\bar{\mathbf{h}} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$$
 (9)

$$\Rightarrow \delta \mathbf{W} = \delta \bar{\mathbf{h}} \mathbf{x}^T = [f'(\bar{\mathbf{h}}) \odot \triangle]^T \mathbf{x}$$
 (10)

For the bias.

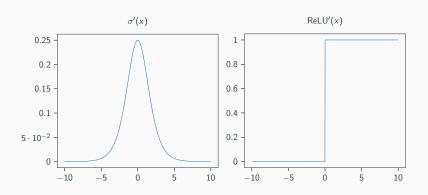
$$\bar{\mathbf{h}} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b} \tag{11}$$

$$\Rightarrow \delta \mathbf{b} = 1 \odot \delta \bar{\mathbf{h}} = [f'(\bar{\mathbf{h}}) \odot \triangle]$$
 (12)

#### **Derivatives of our activation functions**

$$\sigma'(x) = \sigma \cdot (1 - \sigma(x)) \tag{13}$$

$$ReLU' = H(x) \tag{14}$$



# **Perceptrons for functions**

The network components described this far already allow function learning. Given a noisy input signal  $x \in \mathbb{R}^m$  and a ground through output  $y \in \mathbb{R}^m$ , define,

$$\mathbf{h} = \sigma(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}) \tag{15}$$

$$\mathbf{y}_{\mathsf{net}} = \mathbf{W}_{y} \mathbf{h} \tag{16}$$

With  $\mathbf{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{m,n}$ ,  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $\mathbf{b} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ . m and n denote the number of neurons and the input signal length. For signal denoising, input and output have the same length. Therefore  $\mathbf{W}_y \in \mathbb{R}^{n,m}$ .

# Denoising a cosine

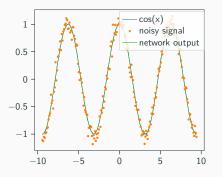
Training works by iteratively descending along the gradients. For  ${\bf W}$  the weights at the next time step  $\tau$  are given by,

$$\mathbf{W}_{\tau+1} = \mathbf{W}_{\tau} + \epsilon \cdot \delta \mathbf{W}_{\tau}. \tag{17}$$

The step size is given by  $\epsilon$ . At  $\tau=0$  matrix entries are random.  $\mathcal{U}[-0.1,0.1]$  is a reasonable choice here. The process is the same for all other network components.

# Denoising a cosine

Optimization for 500 steps leads to the output below:



**Figure:** The cosine function is shown in blue. A noisy network input in orange, and a denoised network output in green.

#### Summary

- Artificial neural networks are biologically motivated.
- Gradients make it possible to optimize arrays of neurons.
- A single array of layer of neurons can solve tasks like denoising a sine.

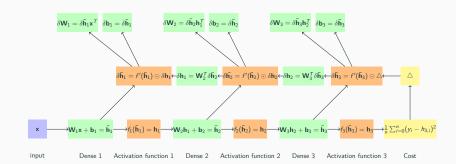
Classification with neural networks

#### Deep multi-layer networks

Stack dense layers and activations to create deep networks.



# **Backpropagation**



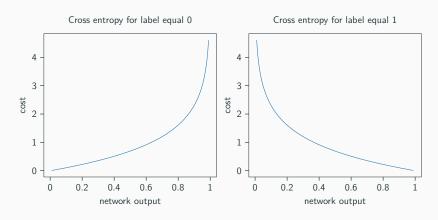
# The cross-entropy loss

The cross entropy loss function is defined as [Nie15; Bis06]

$$C_{ce}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{o}) = -\sum_{k}^{n_o} [(\mathbf{y}_k \ln \mathbf{o}_k) + (\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{y}_k) \ln(\mathbf{1} - \mathbf{o}_k)]. \tag{18}$$

# Understanding how cross entropy works

To understand cross entropy lets consider the boundary cases y=0 and y=1.



#### **Gradients and cross-entropy**

If a sigmoidal activation function produced  ${\bf o}$  the gradients can be computed using [Nie15; Bis06]

$$\frac{\partial C_{ce}}{\partial \mathbf{h}} = \sigma(\mathbf{o}) - \mathbf{y} = \triangle_{ce}$$
 (19)

Following [Nie15], substitute  $\sigma(\mathbf{o})$  into eq 18.



Gradients and cross-entropy

#### The MNIST-Dataset



Figure: The MNIST-dataset contains 70k images of handwritten digits.

# Validation and Test data splits

- To ensure the correct operation of the systems we devise, it is paramount to hold back part of the data for validation and testing.
- Before starting to train, split off validation and test data.
- The 70k MNIST samples could, for example, be partitioned into 59k training images. 1k validation images and 10k test images.

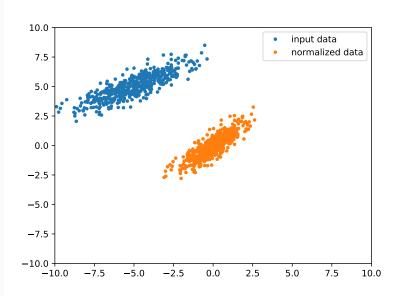
# Input-preprocessing

Standard initializations and learning algorithms assume an approximately standard normal distribution of the network inputs. Consequently we must rescale the data using,

$$\mathbf{X}_{n} = \frac{\mathbf{X} - \mu}{\sigma} \tag{20}$$

With  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$  the training set mean and standard deviation. And the data matrix  $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^{b,n}$  with a row for each data point. b denotes the number of data points and n the data dimension.

#### The effect of normalization



# Whitening the inputs

Instead of deviding by the standard deviation, rescale the centered data with the singular values of the covariance matrix.

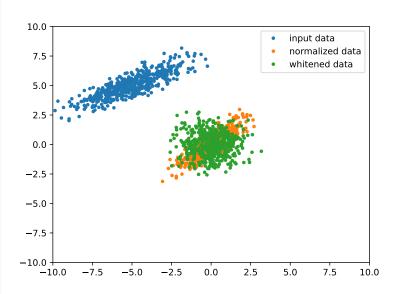
$$\mathbf{C} = \frac{1}{n} (\mathbf{X} - \mu)^{T} (\mathbf{X} - \mu)$$
 (21)

With n as the total number of data points. Whitening now uses the singular values of  ${\bf C}$  to rescale the data,

$$\mathbf{X}_{w} = \frac{(\mathbf{X} - \mu)}{\sqrt{\sigma} + \epsilon} \tag{22}$$

With  $\epsilon$  i.e. equal to  $1e^{-8}$  for numerical stability.

# The effect of Whitening



#### Label-encoding

It has proven useful to have individual output neurons produce probabilities for each class. Given integer labels  $1,2,3,4,\dots \in \mathbb{Z}$ . One-hot encoded label vectors have a one at the labels positions and zeros elsewhere. I.e.

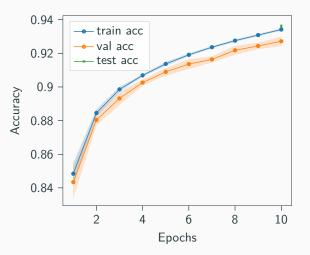
$$\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \dots$$

$$(23)$$

for the integer label sequence above.

#### **MNIST-Classification**

Training a three-layer dense network on mnist for five runs leads to:



#### Conclusion

- Preprocessing followed by forward-passes, backward-passes, and testing form the classic training pipeling.
- Using the pipeline, artificial neural networks enable computers to make sense of images.
- The optimization result depends on the initialization.
- The initialization depends on the pseudo-randomness-seed.
- Seed-values must be recorded.

#### Literature i

#### References

- [Bis06] Christopher M Bishop. *Pattern recognition and machine learning*. springer, 2006.
- [Gre+16] Klaus Greff, Rupesh K Srivastava, Jan Koutnik,
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#### Literature ii

[Nie15] Michael A Nielsen. Neural networks and deep learning. Vol. 25. Determination press San Francisco, CA, USA, 2015.