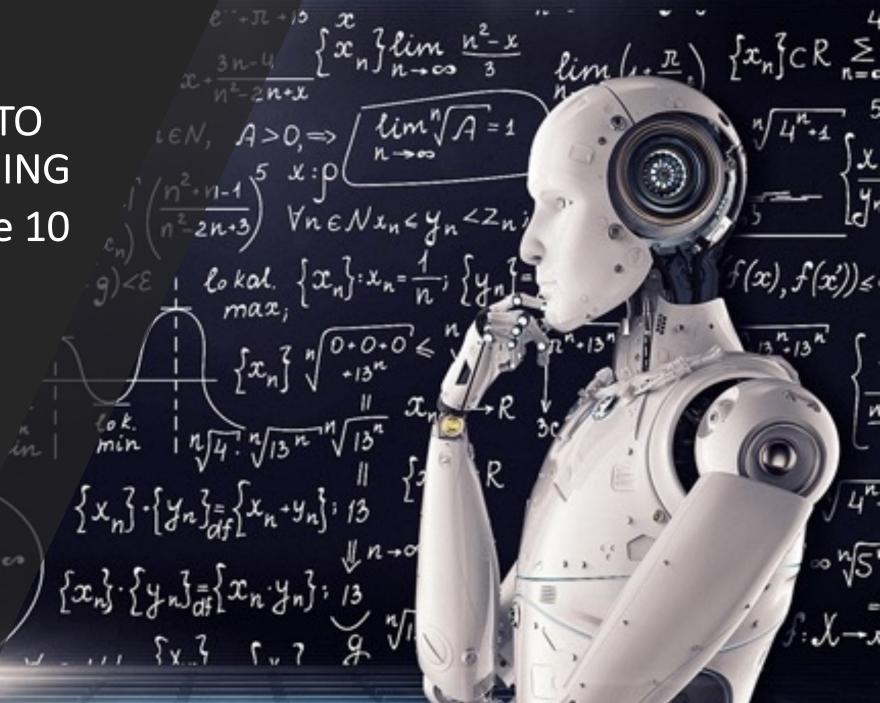
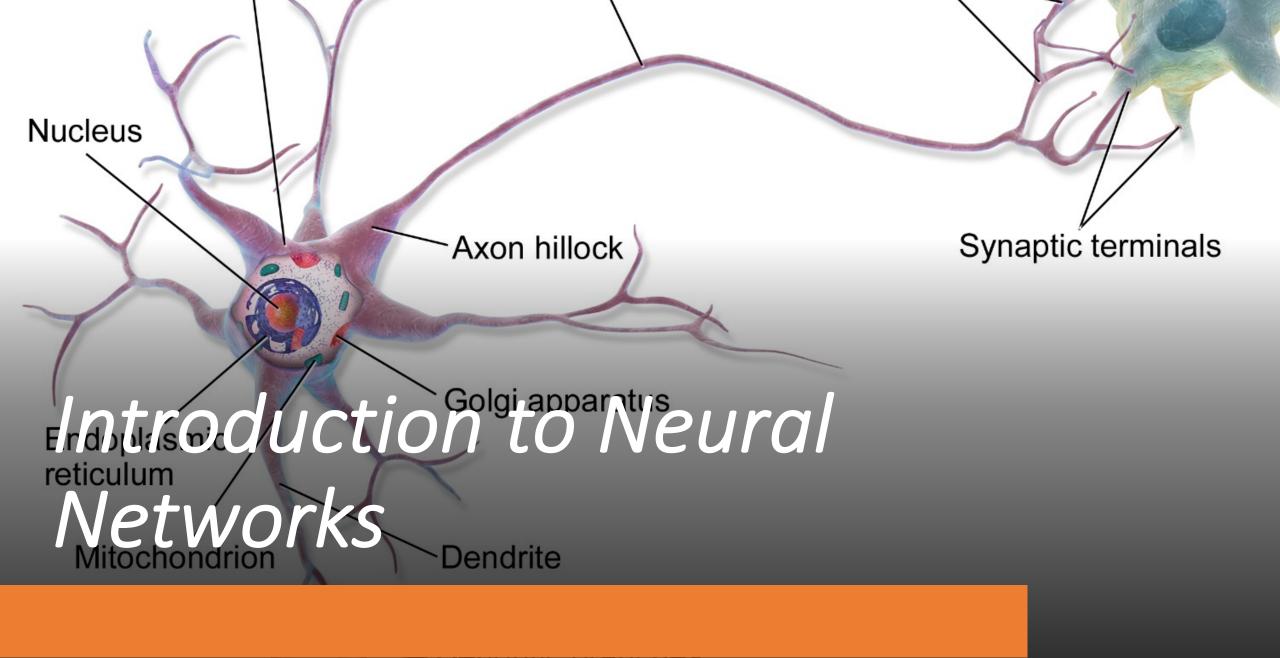


INTRODUCTION TO MACHINE LEARNING DATA 602 Lecture 10

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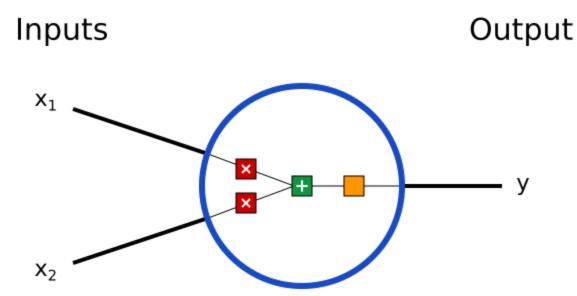
Introduction

- Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) are primarily used in supervised learning problems
 - Say we have a set of input information like images
 - We are training an algorithm to map the information to a desired output, such as a class or category
- When **neural networks or NN** are used in a **supervised learning context**, the images are fed to the network with a representation of the corresponding category labels being the desired output of the network
- ANN derives its name from the biological neural networks commonly found in the brain
- The neuron is the building block on which all neural networks are constructed, connecting a number of neurons
 in different configurations to form more powerful structures
- Each neuron in an ANN is composed of four individual parts:
 - An input value
 - A tunable weight (theta or Θ)
 - An activation function that operates on the input value, and
 - The resulting **output** value
- The activation function is specifically chosen depending upon the objective of the neural network being designed
- The main functions include hyperbolic tangent or tanh, linear, sigmoid, and ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit), among others



Building Block

- Neurons are the basic units of a neural network
 - A neuron takes inputs, processes information, and produces one output

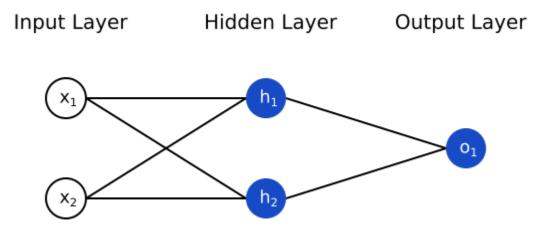


- First, each input is multiplied by a **weight**: $x_1 --> x_1 *w_1$ and $x_2 --> x_2 *w_2$
- Second, all the weighted inputs are added together with a bias b: $(x_1*w_1) + (x_2*w_2) + b$
- Third, the sum is passed through an activation function: $y = f(x_1 * w_1 + x_2 * w_2 + b)$
 - The activation function is used to turn an unbounded input into an output with a predictable form
 - A commonly used activation function is the sigmoid function



Building a Neural Network

• A neural network is a group of connected neurons as in the example below:



- This network has two inputs: a **hidden layer** with 2 **neurons** (h_1 and h_2) and an **output layer** with 1 neuron (o_1) The **inputs** for o_1 are the **outputs** from h_1 and h_2 , which makes it a **network**
- A hidden layer is any layer between the input (first) layer and output (last) layer
- There can be multiple hidden layers, hence the name Deep Learning



Activation Functions

- The sigmoid function only outputs numbers in the range (0,1)
- Generally, the activation function is used to compress outcomes from $(-\infty, +\infty)$ to (0,1)

Nane	Plot	Equation	Derivative
Identity	/	f(x) = x	f'(x) = 1
Binary step		$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$	$f'(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x \neq 0 \\ ? & \text{for } x = 0 \end{cases}$
Logistic (a.k.a Soft step)		$f(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$	f'(x) = f(x)(1 - f(x))
TarH		$f(x) = \tanh(x) = \frac{2}{1 + e^{-2x}} - 1$	$f'(x) = 1 - f(x)^2$
ArcTan		$f(x) = \tan^{-1}(x)$	$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x^2 + 1}$
Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)		$f(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \\ x & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$	$f'(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$
Parameteric Rectified Linear Unit (PReLU) ^[2]		$f(x) = \begin{cases} \alpha x & \text{for } x < 0 \\ x & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$	$f'(x) = \begin{cases} \alpha & \text{for } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$
Exponential Linear Unit (ELU) ^[3]		$f(x) = \begin{cases} \alpha(e^x - 1) & \text{for } x < 0 \\ x & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$	$f'(x) = \begin{cases} f(x) + \alpha & \text{for } x < 0 \\ 1 & \text{for } x \ge 0 \end{cases}$
SoftPlus		$f(x) = \log_e(1 + e^x)$	$f'(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$



Activation Functions

- The **ReLU** activation function is often used in hidden layers
 - It is faster and does not create too many flat surfaces for Gradient Descent to stop at local minimum
- Sometimes, some of the neurons die during training when using ReLU, especially when using a high value for the learning rate. Therefore, the gradient can become zero
 - In this case, it is better to use **LeakyReLU**. The leak depends on the 'a' hyperparameter as 0.01 so that a(z)= max(az, z)
- In **PReLU**, 'a' is learned during training: it can overfit with smaller datasets
 - **PReLU**-Net is **a type of convolutional neural network** that utilizes parameterized **ReLU**s for its activation function
 - It also uses a robust initialization scheme, also known as Kaiming Initialization, to account for non-linear activation functions
 - PReLU-Net is a type of convolutional neural network that utilizes parameterized ReLUs for its activation function



Activation Functions

- For output layers, the best choice is **softmax** if we have mutually exclusive classes
- The problem with vanishing and exploding gradients can be attributed to the choice of the wrong activation function
- The **ELU** outperforms every **ReLU** variant in every experiment: training was faster and NN provides better test set performance
 - There are no bumps in this function, and it runs smoothly all the way, which helps gradient descent
 - If z < 0, then **ELU** will take negative values and the unit can have an output average near zero. This mitigates the problem of vanishing gradients
 - With large z negative values, the value approached by the ELU function is defined by the hyperparameter 'a', which is normally set to 1
 - Although rates of convergence can be fast, the ELU function computes slower than ReLU because it uses an
 exponential function



Feedforward

- Let's assume all neurons have the same **weights** w = [0,1], the same bias b = 0, and the same sigmoid activation function
- Let h_1 , h_2 , o_1 denote the **outputs** of the neurons they represent
- If we pass in the input x = [2, 3], then the output of the NN can be computed as follows:

$$egin{aligned} h_1 &= h_2 = f(w \cdot x + b) \ &= f((0*2) + (1*3) + 0) \ &= f(3) \ &= 0.9526 \end{aligned}$$

$$egin{aligned} o_1 &= f(w \cdot [h_1, h_2] + b) \ &= f((0 * h_1) + (1 * h_2) + 0) \ &= f(0.9526) \ &= \boxed{0.7216} \end{aligned}$$



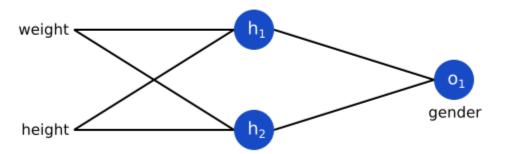
The Loss Function

• Let's use the following information:

Name	Weight (lb)	Height (in)	Gender
Alice	133	65	F
Bob	160	72	М
Charlie	152	70	М
Diana	120	60	F

• Let's train the network to predict someone's gender given their weight and height:

Input Layer Hidden Layer Output Layer





The Loss Function (cont.)

- We represent Male as '0' and Female as '1'
- We shift the data to make it easier to use, so that

Name	Weight (minus 135)	Height (minus 66)	Gender
Alice	-2	-1	1
Bob	25	6	0
Charlie	17	4	0
Diana	-15	-6	1

- Before we train the network, we first need to assess the goodness of fit
- The **loss** measures whether the network can do better
- We can use the mean squared error (MSE) loss as a measure of accuracy

$$ext{MSE} = rac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (y_{true} - y_{pred})^2$$

Better predictions = Lower loss



The Loss Function (cont.)

• Below is an example of how to compute the loss:

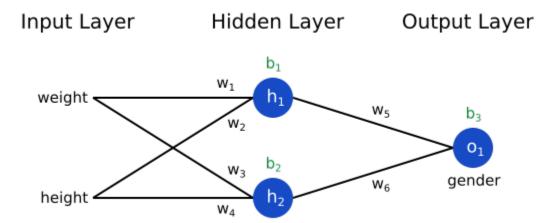
Name	y_{true}	y_{pred}	$(y_{true}-y_{pred})^2$
Alice	1	0	1
Bob	0	0	0
Charlie	0	0	0
Diana	1	0	1

$$ext{MSE} = rac{1}{4}(1+0+0+1) = \boxed{0.5}$$



Training the Neural Network

- The goal of the NN is to **minimize the loss** of the neural network
- We know we can change the network's **weights** and **biases** to influence its **predictions**, but how do we do so in a way that decreases loss?
- Another way to think about loss is as a function of weights and biases
- Let's label each weight and bias in our network:



- Then, the loss is a multivariable function such that $L(w_1, w_2, w_3, w_4, w_5, w_6, b_1, b_2, b_3)$
- Imagine we wanted to tweak w_1 . How would loss L change if we changed w_1 ?



Training the Neural Network (cont.)

• To start, let's rewrite the partial derivative in terms of $\partial y_pred/\partial w_1$ instead (using the chain rule):

$$rac{\partial L}{\partial w_1} = rac{\partial L}{\partial y_{pred}} * rac{\partial y_{pred}}{\partial w_1}$$

• We can calculate $\partial L/\partial y_pred$ because we computed L= $(1 - y_pred)^2$ above:

$$y_{pred} = o_1 = f(w_5h_1 + w_6h_2 + b_3)$$

• Let h_1 , h_2 , o_1 be the outputs of the neurons they represent. Then

$$rac{\partial L}{\partial y_{pred}} = rac{\partial (1-y_{pred})^2}{\partial y_{pred}} = \boxed{-2(1-y_{pred})}$$



Training the Neural Network (cont.)

• Since w_1 only affects h_1 (not h_2), we can write:

$$egin{aligned} rac{\partial y_{pred}}{\partial w_1} &= rac{\partial y_{pred}}{\partial h_1} * rac{\partial h_1}{\partial w_1} \ & \ rac{\partial y_{pred}}{\partial h_1} &= egin{bmatrix} w_5 * f'(w_5 h_1 + w_6 h_2 + b_3) \end{bmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

• We do the same thing for $\partial h_1/\partial w_1$:

$$h_1 = f(w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + b_1) \ rac{\partial h_1}{\partial w_1} = oxed{x_1 * f'(w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + b_1)}$$



Training the Neural Network (cont.)

• x_1 is the weight and x_2 is height. f'(x) represents the derivate of the sigmoid function. Let's derive it:

$$f(x) = rac{1}{1+e^{-x}}$$
 $f'(x) = rac{e^{-x}}{(1+e^{-x})^2} = f(x)*(1-f(x))$

• We break down $\partial L/\partial w_1$ into several parts so we can calculate:

$$rac{\partial L}{\partial w_1} = rac{\partial L}{\partial y_{pred}} * rac{\partial y_{pred}}{\partial h_1} * rac{\partial h_1}{\partial w_1}$$

 This method of calculating partial derivatives by working backwards is known as backpropagation, or "backprop"



Calculating the Partial Derivative

• Let's take the example of Alice:

Name	Weight (minus 135)	Height (minus 66)	Gender
Alice	-2	-1	1

- We initialize all the weights to 1 and all the biases to 0
- If we do a feedforward pass through the network, we get:

$$egin{aligned} h_1 &= f(w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + b_1) \ &= f(-2 + -1 + 0) \ &= 0.0474 \end{aligned}$$

$$egin{aligned} h_2 &= f(w_3x_1 + w_4x_2 + b_2) = 0.0474 \ &o_1 &= f(w_5h_1 + w_6h_2 + b_3) \ &= f(0.0474 + 0.0474 + 0) \ &= 0.524 \end{aligned}$$



Calculating the Partial Derivative

• The network outputs $y_pred = 0.524$, which does not strongly favor Male (0) or Female (1). Let's calculate

 $\partial L/\partial w_1$:

$$egin{aligned} rac{\partial y_{pred}}{\partial h_1} &= w_5 * f'(w_5 h_1 + w_6 h_2 + b_3) \ &= 1 * f'(0.0474 + 0.0474 + 0) \ &= f(0.0948) * (1 - f(0.0948)) \ &= 0.249 \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{\partial h_1}{\partial w_1} = x_1 * f'(w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + b_1)$$

$$= -2 * f'(-2 + -1 + 0)$$

$$= -2 * f(-3) * (1 - f(-3))$$

$$= -0.0904$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1} = -0.952 * 0.249 * -0.0904$$
$$= \boxed{0.0214}$$

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Gradient Descent

- It is an optimization algorithm used in training a model
- A gradient is a vector-valued function that represents the slope of the tangent of the graph of the function,
 pointing to the direction of the greatest rate of increase of the function
- It is a derivative that indicates the incline or the slope of the cost function
- The **Gradient Descent** finds the parameters that **minimize the cost function** (error in prediction)
- The **Gradient Descent** does this by moving through iterations toward a set of parameter values that minimize the function, taking steps in the opposite direction of the gradient
- Now, we have all the tools we need to train a neural network
- We use an optimization algorithm called **Stochastic Gradient Descent** (SGD) that tells us how to change our weights and biases to minimize loss. Here is the equation: $w_1 \leftarrow w_1 \eta \frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1}$
- η is a constant called the **learning rate** that controls how fast we train. We are subtracting $\eta \partial w_1/\partial L$ from w_1 :
 - If $\partial L/\partial w_1$ is positive, w_1 will decrease, which makes L decrease
 - If $\partial L/\partial w_1$ is negative, w_1 will increase, which makes L decrease
- If we do this for every weight and bias in the network, the loss will slowly decrease, and our network will improve
- **Convergence** is a situation when the loss function does not improve significantly, and we have found a point near to the minima



Types of Gradient Descent

- Batch Gradient Descent, aka 'Vanilla Gradient Descent', calculates the error for each
 observation in the dataset but performs an update only after all observations have been
 evaluated
- Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) performs a parameter update for each observation. So instead of looping over each observation, it just needs one to perform the parameter update. SGD is usually faster than batch gradient descent, but its frequent updates cause a higher variance in the error rate, that can sometimes jump around instead of decreasing
- Mini-Batch Gradient Descent is a combination of both gradient descent and stochastic gradient descent. Mini-batch gradient descent performs an update for a batch of observations. It is the algorithm of choice for neural networks, and the batch sizes are usually from 50 to 256



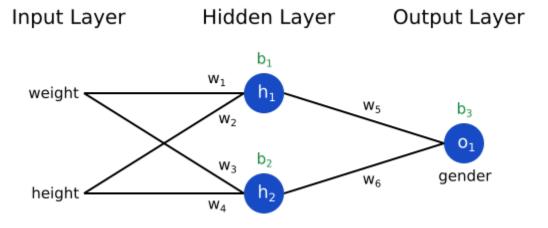
Training Process

- Choose one sample from our dataset. This is what makes
 it stochastic gradient descent we only operate on one sample
 at a time
- Calculate all the partial derivatives of loss with respect to weights or biases (e.g., $\partial L/\partial w_1$, $\partial L/\partial w_2$, etc).
- Use the update equation to update each weight and bias.
- Go back to step 1



Recap

Name	Weight (minus 135)	Height (minus 66)	Gender
Alice	-2	-1	1
Bob	25	6	0
Charlie	17	4	0
Diana	-15	-6	1



The Perceptron Model





The Perceptron

- The **Perceptron** invented by Frank Rosenblatt in 1957 is the basic ANN architecture
- It is based on an artificial neuron called a Linear Threshold Unit (LTU)
- LTUs compute weighted sums of all inputs. A step function is then applied to the resulting sum and the result is output as h(w) step $(z) = step(w^{T*}x)$
- The activation function applies a step rule (convert the numerical output into +1 or -1) to check if the output of the weighting function is greater than zero or not
- The Perceptron uses the **Heaviside** step function and is characterized as follows:

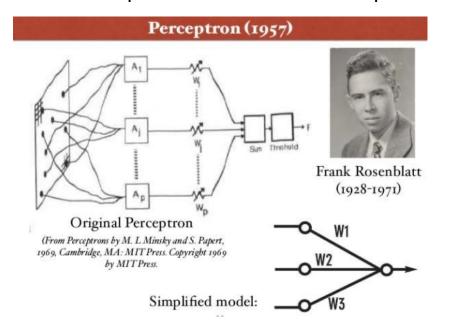
Heaviside (z) = 0 if
$$z < 0$$
 or 1 if $z \ge 0$
The sign of (z) is -1 if $z < 0$, 0 if $z = 0$, or +1 is $z > 0$

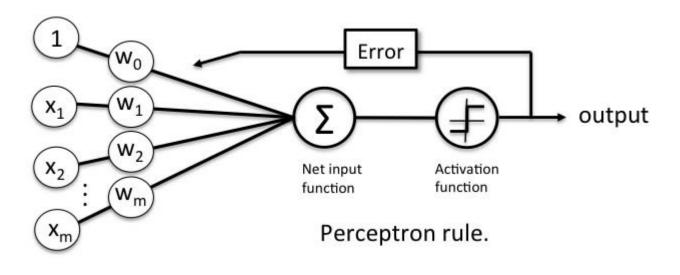
- The step function gets triggered above a certain value of the neuron output; else it outputs zero
- The sign function outputs +1 or -1 depending on whether neuron output is greater than zero or not
- The **sigmoid** is the S-curve and outputs a value between 0 and 1
- A Perceptron that has a pair of inputs and three outputs can simultaneously classify in no less than three binary classes, which makes it a multi-output classifier



The Perceptron

- There are two types of Perceptrons: Single layer and Multilayer
- Single layer Perceptrons can learn only linearly separable patterns
- Multilayer Perceptrons or feedforward neural networks with two or more layers have the greater processing power
- The Perceptron algorithm learns the weights for the input signals in order to draw a linear decision boundary
 - This enables the identification of the two linearly separable classes +1 and -1
- The **Perceptron** receives multiple input signals, and if the sum of the input signals exceeds a certain threshold, it either outputs a signal or does not return an output. In the context of **supervised learning** and **classification**, this can be used to predict the class of a sample







Summary

- Introduced **neurons**, the building blocks of neural networks
- Used the sigmoid activation function in our neurons
- Saw that neural networks are just connected neurons
- Created a dataset with weight and height as inputs (or features) and 'gender' as the output (or label)
- Learned about loss functions and the mean squared error (MSE) loss
- Realized that training a network is just minimizing its loss
- Used backpropagation to calculate partial derivatives
- Used Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD) to train our network
- We finished the lecture with the Perceptron model