## Introduction to neural networks II

### **Objectives**

- Recall the feedforward of a neural network
- The binary classification problem
- How to build a neural network that can classify a binary labeled data?
- How can we build a neural network that can classify a multi-labeled data?
- Introduction of the sigmoid function
- Introduction of the softmax function
- Computational Graphs
- Backprop and automatic differentiation
- The approximation power of neural networks (universal approximation theorem)

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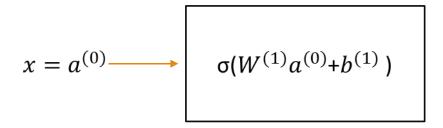
Lets recall the feedforward algorithm before first.

How do we compute a feedforward neural network on an input x?

Start with an input  $x = a^{(0)}$ . In the picture, this is represented by the first layer of nodes. We will call this layer 0.

$$x=a^{(0)}$$

We apply the weight  $W^{(1)}$  coming from the edges between layer 0 and layer 1 and add the biases and then apply the Activation function on the resulting vector coordinate-wise.



 $W^{(1)}$ : Edges between

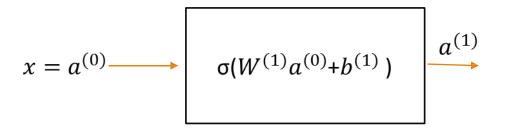
layer 0 and layer 1

 $a^{(0)}$ : input

 $b^{(1)}$ : biases applied to layer 1

 $\sigma$ : activation function

We will call the output of this computation  $a^{(1)}$ . This is now represented by the nodes in layer 1.



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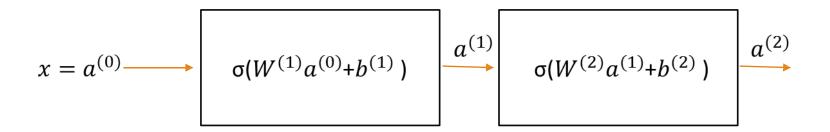
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Repeat.



 $W^{(2)}$ : Edges between

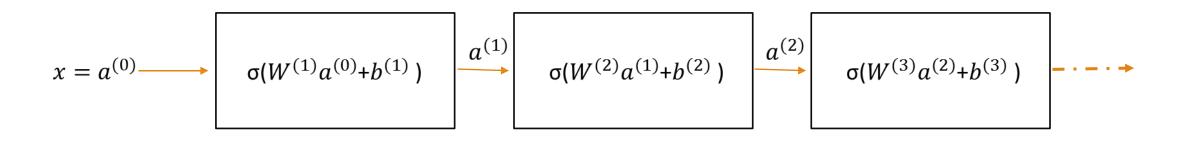
layer 1 and layer 2

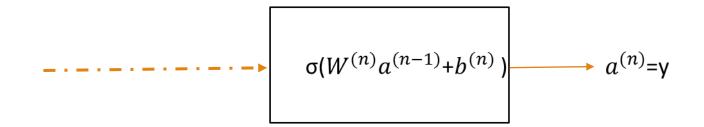
 $a^{(1)}$ : input from layer 1

 $b^{(2)}$ : biases applied to layer 2

 $\boldsymbol{\sigma}$  : activation function

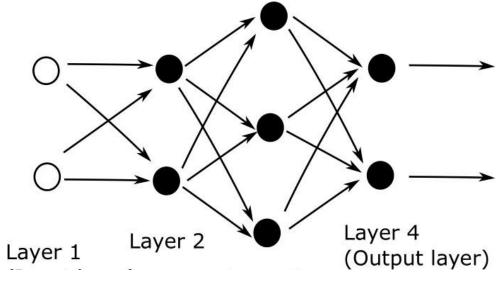
Until you finish the neural network and get the final output.





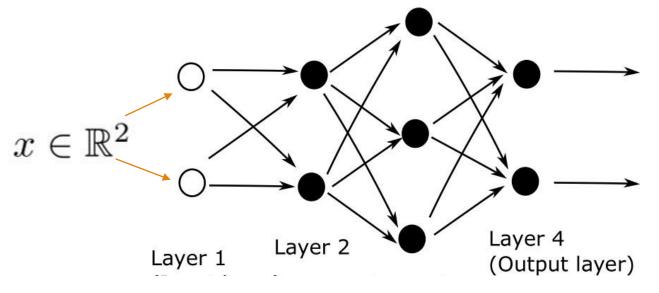
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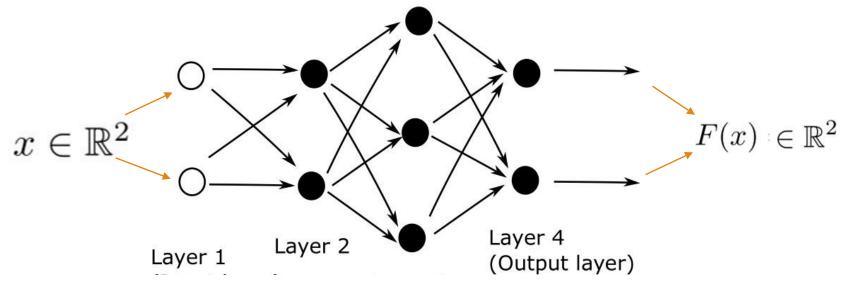
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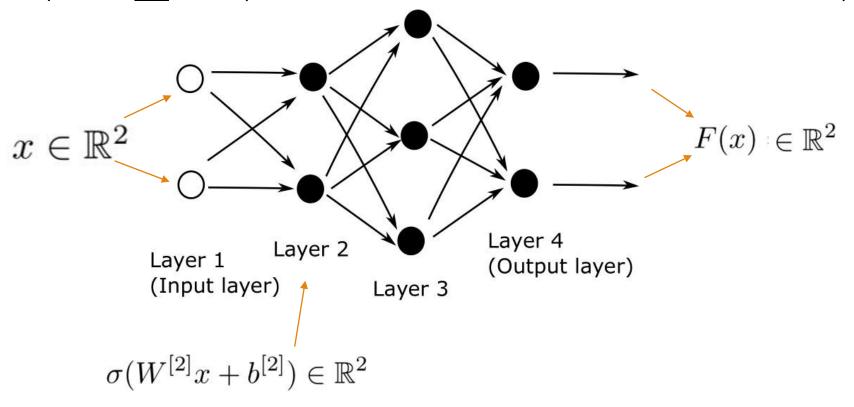
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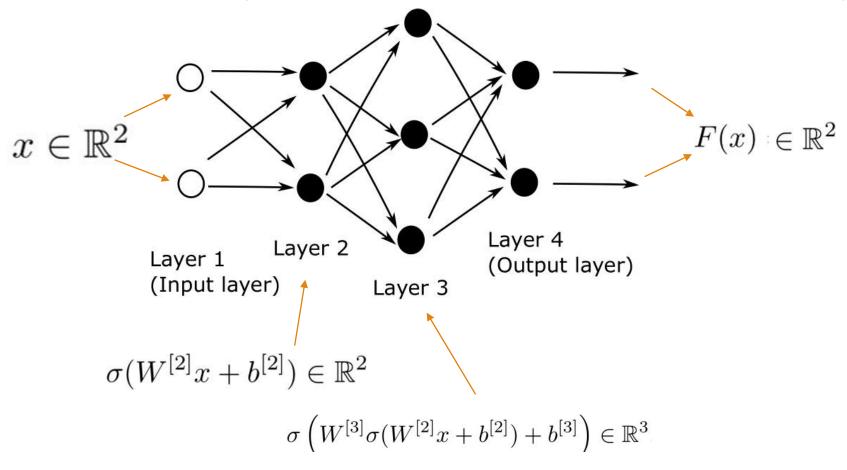
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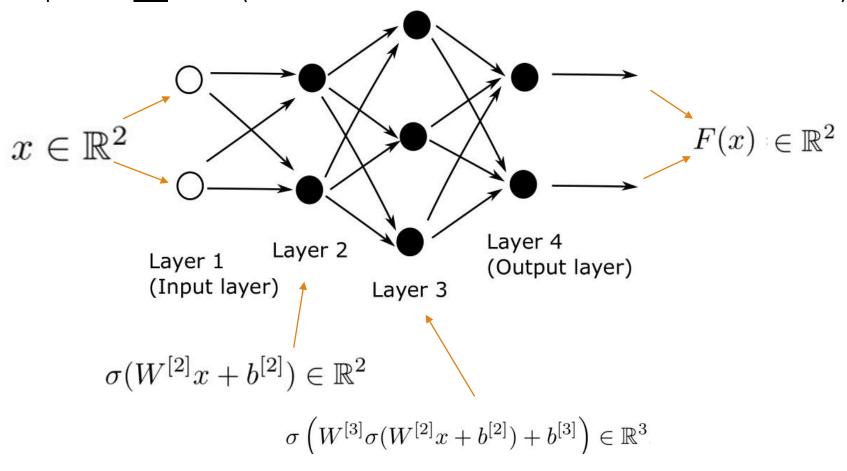
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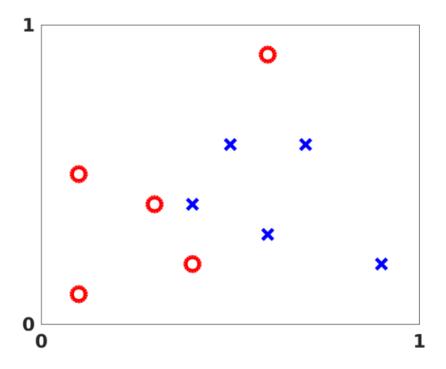
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paper.

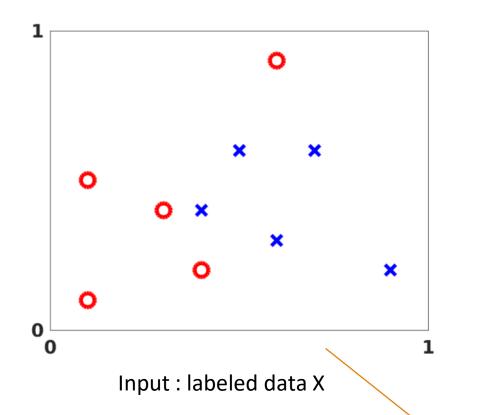


Final function representing the neural network

$$F(x) = \sigma \left( W^{[4]} \sigma \left( W^{[3]} \sigma (W^{[2]} x + b^{[2]}) + b^{[3]} \right) + b^{[4]} \right) \in \mathbb{R}^2.$$

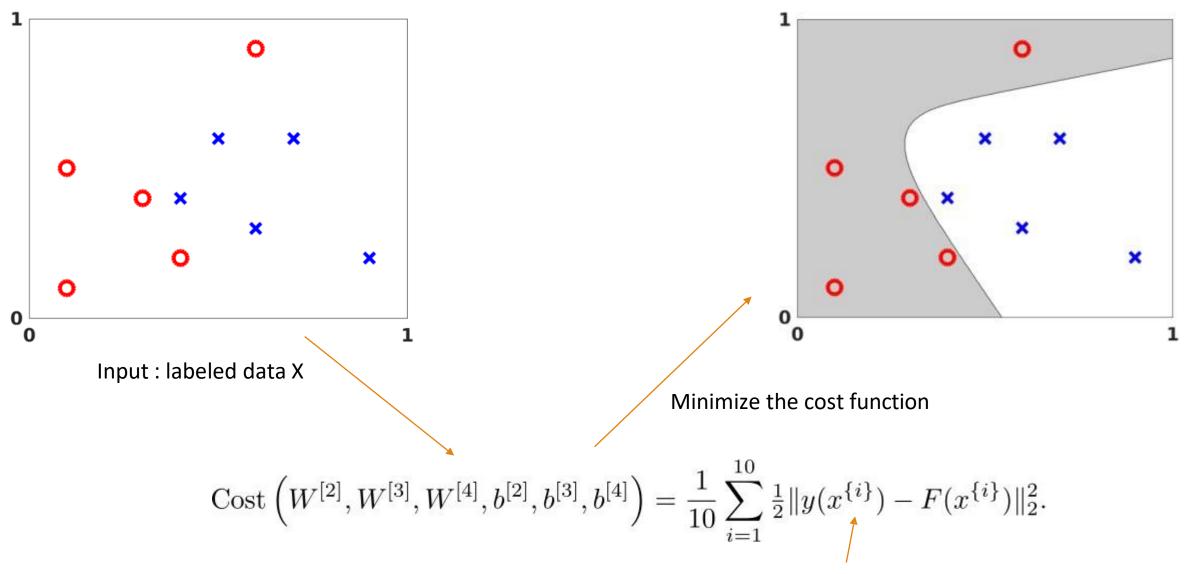


Input: labeled data X



$$\operatorname{Cost}\left(W^{[2]},W^{[3]},W^{[4]},b^{[2]},b^{[3]},b^{[4]}\right) = \frac{1}{10} \sum_{i=1}^{10} \frac{1}{2} \|y(x^{\{i\}}) - F(x^{\{i\}})\|_{2}^{2}.$$

the difference between the output given by the network and the actual label



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Now suppose that we have data set that consists of images of cats and dogs and we built a neural network that takes as input an image from this data set and gives out a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^1$  (a real number).

How exactly do we use this vector for our classification task? In general the output f(x) coming from the neural network Does not match the class  $\{\pm 1\}$  of the input point x (it could be any real number).





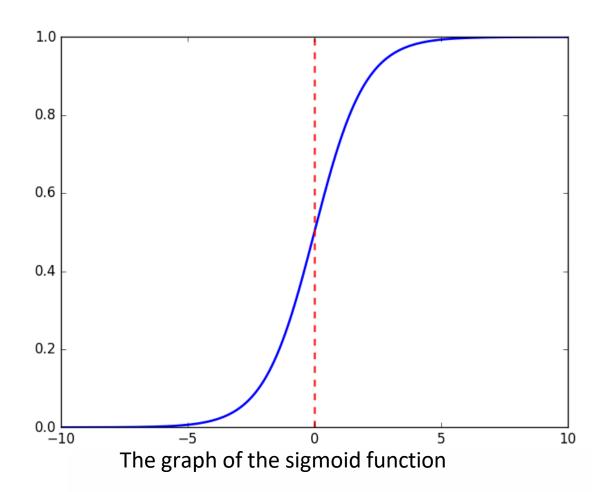
This function takes a tensor of size input\_size and returns a real number.

How can we constrain the output to be between -1 and +1?

```
import torch
import torch.nn as nn
class Net(nn.Module):
   def __init__(self, input_size, hidden_size):
        super(Net, self).__init__()
        self.fc1 = nn.Linear(input_size, hidden_size)
        self.fc2 = nn.Linear(hidden_size, 1)
   def forward(self, x):
        x = torch.relu(self.fc1(x))
       x = self.fc2(x)
       return x
```

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But what do we do in the multi-class classification?

In the case of multi-class classification, we use the softmax activation function. Suppose that we have k classes then the softmax activation function is define by :

$$\operatorname{softmax}(z)_i = \frac{\exp(z_i)}{\sum_{l=1}^k \exp(z_l)}$$

Here  $z_i$  represents the ith element of the input to softmax, which corresponds to class i.

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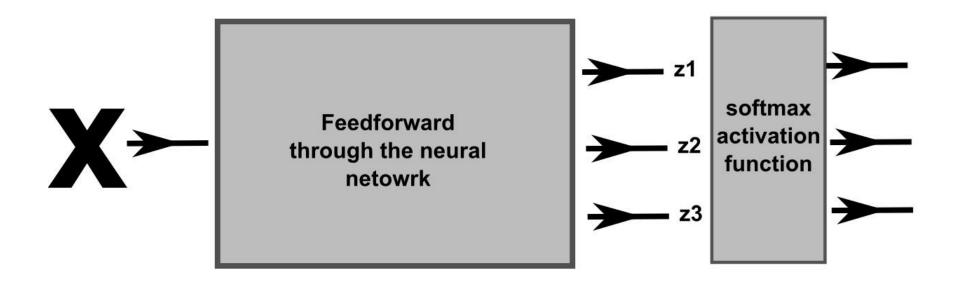
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## The softmax function in Python

The softmax function is a mathematical function used to convert a vector of real numbers into a probability distribution.

It takes an input vector and returns another vector of the same length, where each element is transformed to a value between 0 and 1, representing the probability of that element being selected. In simple terms, the softmax function normalizes the input vector and makes it easier to interpret as probabilities. Here's a Python example:

```
import numpy as np

def softmax(x):
    exp_values = np.exp(x)
    probabilities = exp_values / np.sum(exp_values)
    return probabilities

input_vector = np.array([2.0, 1.0, 0.5])
output_vector = softmax(input_vector)
print(output_vector)

[0.62842832 0.2312239  0.14034778]
```

### What is a computational graph?

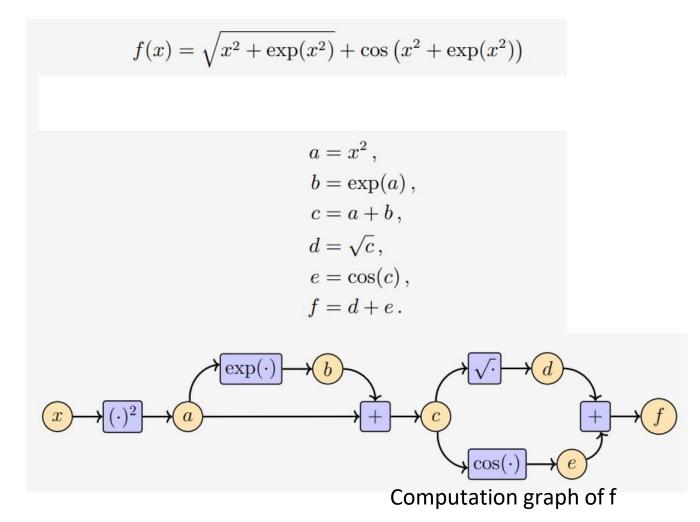


Image source

### What is a computational graph?

- A computational graph, also known as a computational or directed acyclic graph (DAG), is a directed graph that represents a computational process or a sequence of computations.
- It is a graph structure where nodes represent operations or computations, and directed edges represent dependencies between these operations.

 Note: yellow nodes in the graph here are placeholders and not really part of the computational graph. They get executed when we insert a certain input to the graph

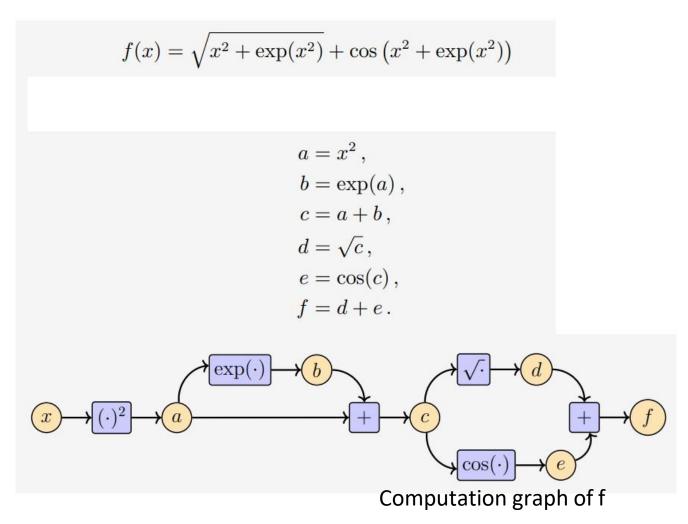
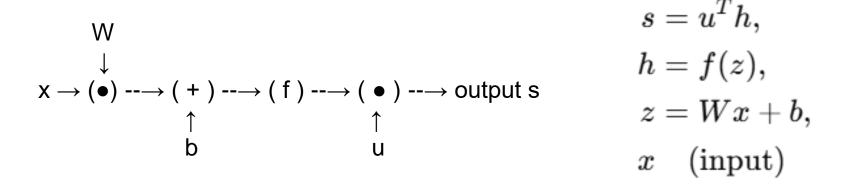


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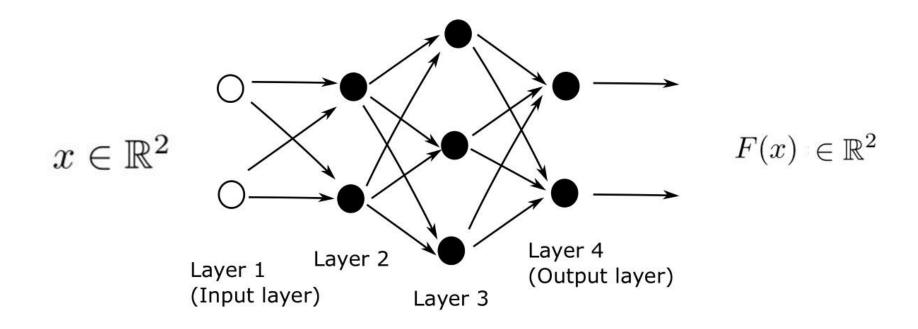
### Neural Networks are computational graphs



Neural networks can be considered as computational graphs.

Why this is a useful fact? Modern DL packages such as tensorflow and pytorch Use this fact to automatic differentiation

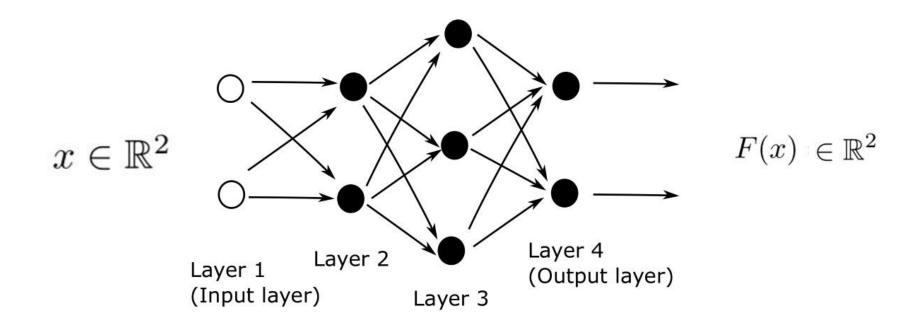
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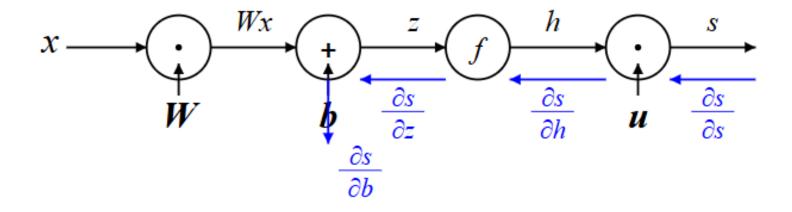
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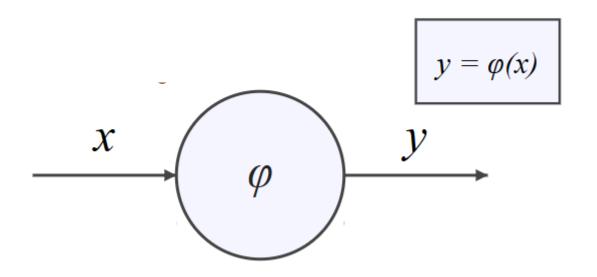


Key fact: feedforward computation of a NN is defined to be the computations that one executes on a computational graph that defines that network given an input and a topological order of the nodes of the computational graph of a NN

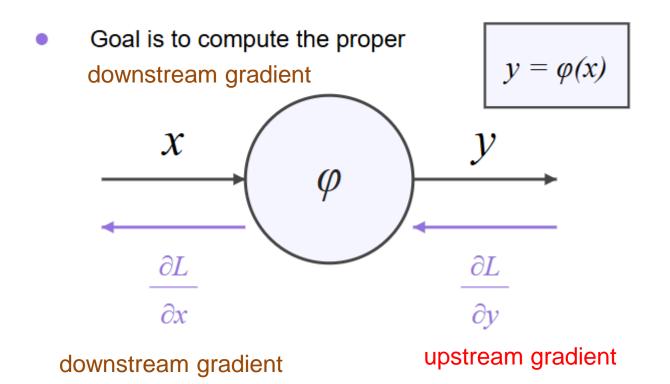
The idea is that we want to compute the gradient backwards in the computation graph



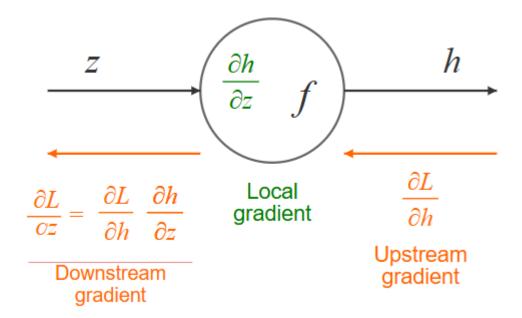
We have some input x, then using the computation graph we get an output y.



Node receives upstream gradient



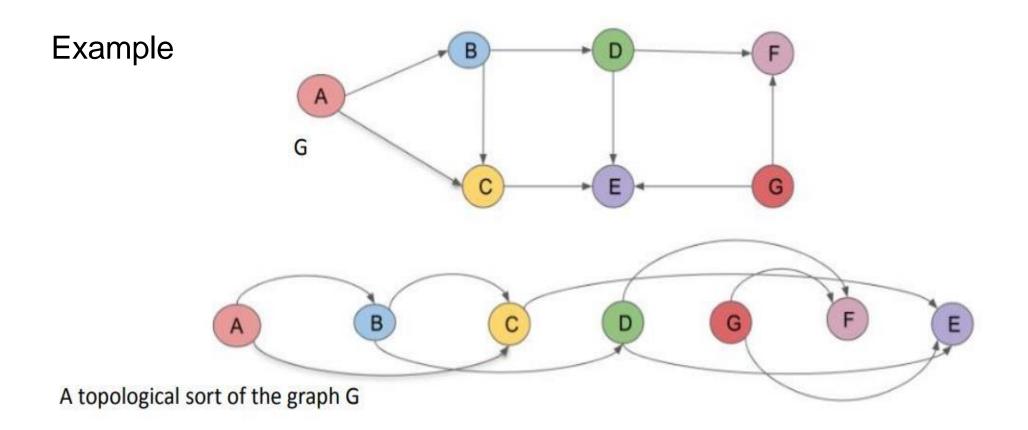
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### Recall topological sort

Recall that a topological soft of a DAG is a linear ordering of its vertices such that for every directed edge uv from vertex u to vertex v, u comes before v in the ordering.



$$f(x, y, z) = (x + y) \max(y, z)$$
  
  $x = 2, y = 1, z = 0$ 

#### Forward prop step

$$a = x + y$$

$$b = \max(y, z)$$

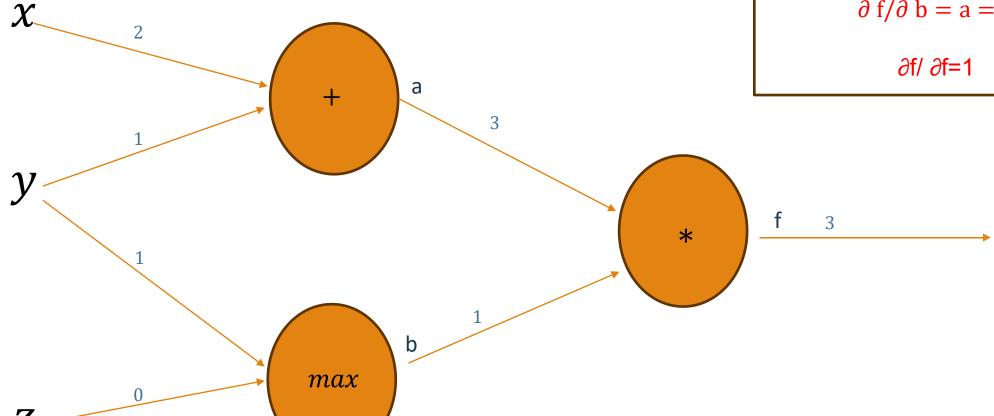
$$f = ab$$

#### Back prop step (local gradients)

$$\partial a/\partial x = 1$$
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$$\partial b/\partial y=\mathbf{1}(y>z), \partial b/\partial z=\mathbf{1}(z>y)=0$$

$$\partial f/\partial a = b = 3,$$
  
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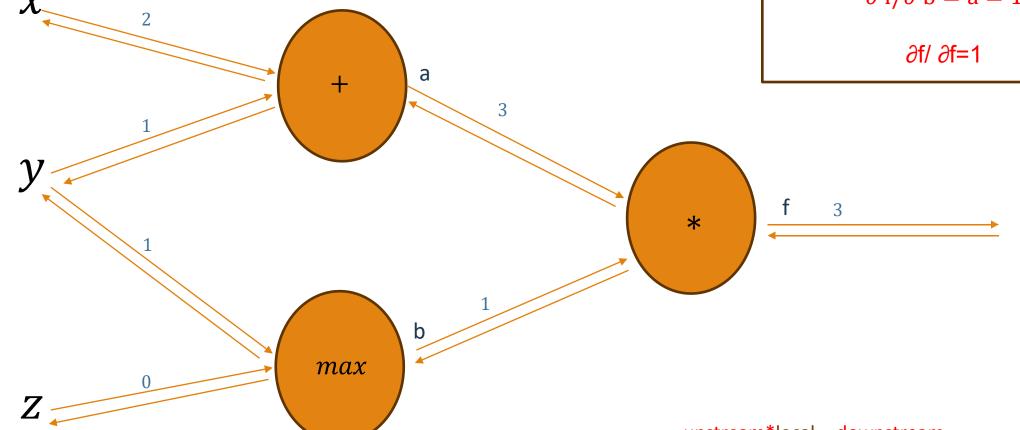
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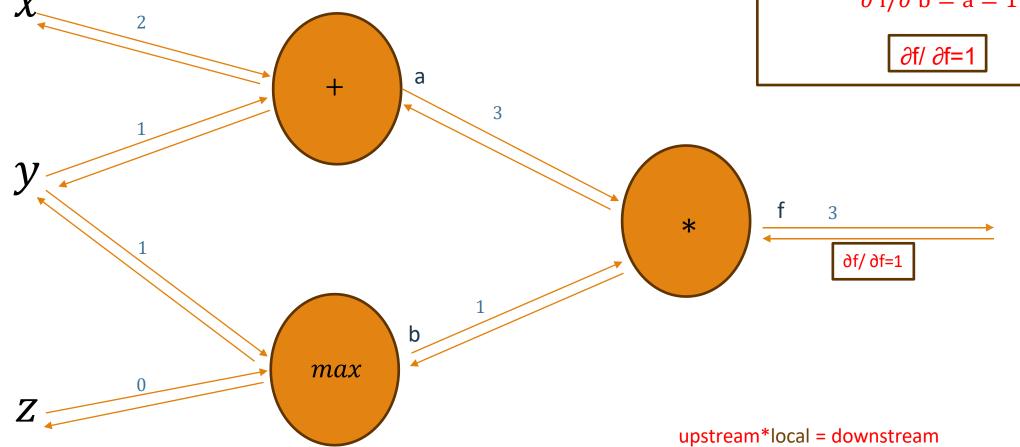
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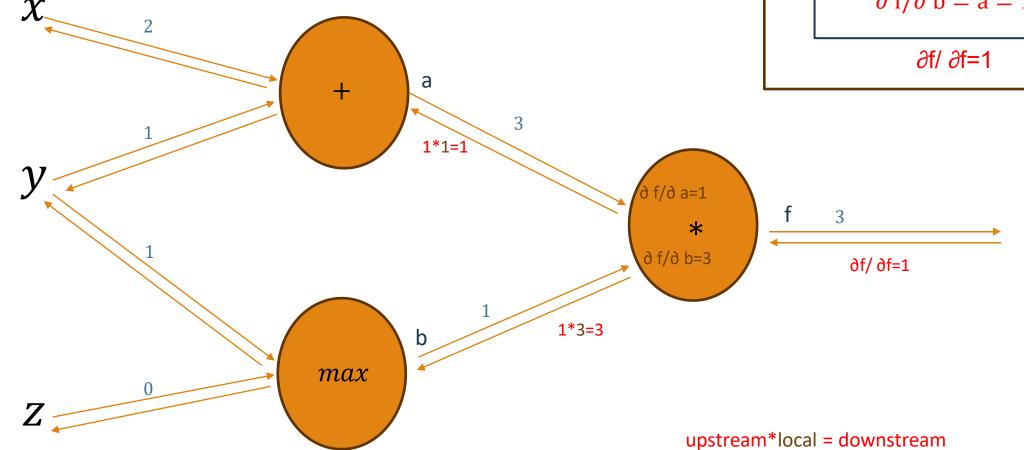
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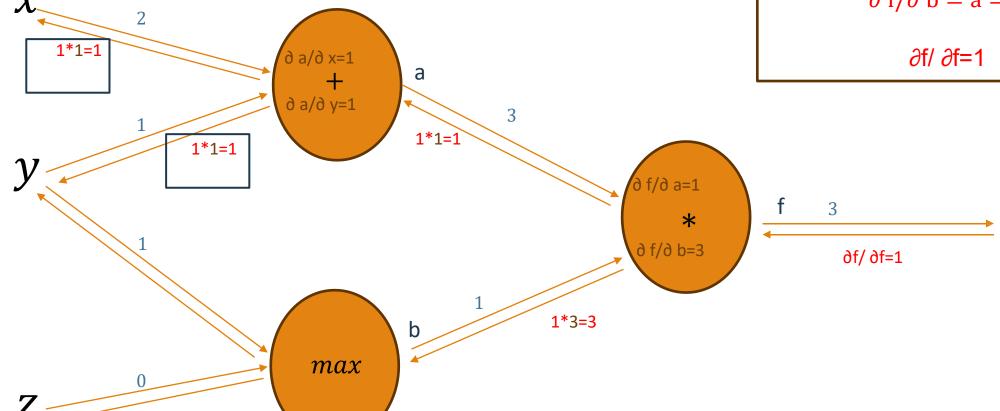
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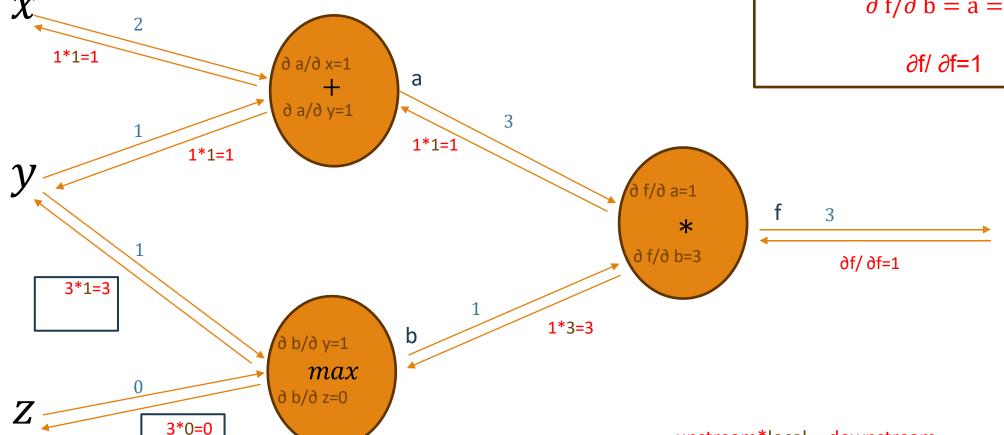
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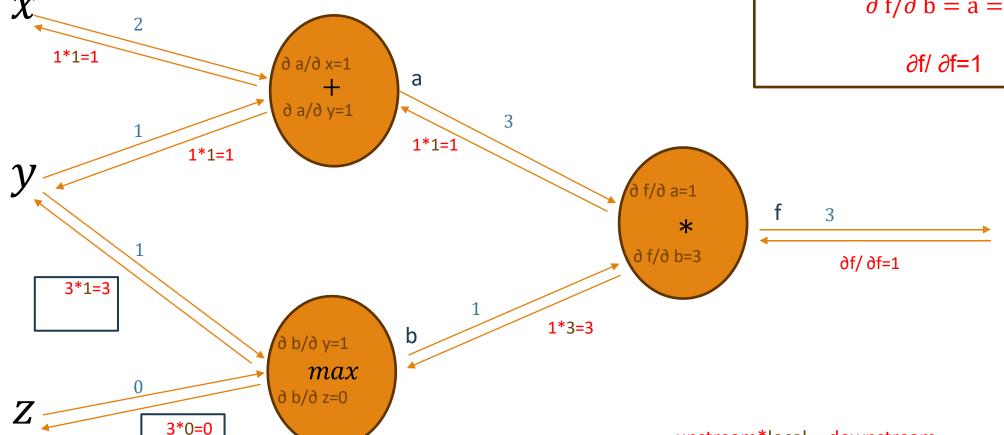
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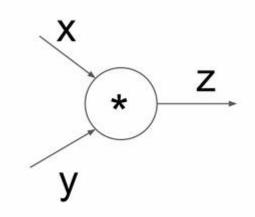
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- 1. + "distributes" the upstream gradient When backpropagating through addition operations, the same gradient is passed unchanged to all inputs.
- 2. max "routes" the upstream gradient For max operations (like in ReLU or max pooling), the gradient only flows to the input that was the maximum during the forward pass. It's completely blocked for all other inputs.
- 3. \* switches" the forward coefficients in the downstream gradient For multiplication, gradients follow a switching pattern: to get the gradient for x where z = x \* y, multiply the upstream gradient by y. For y's gradient, multiply by x.

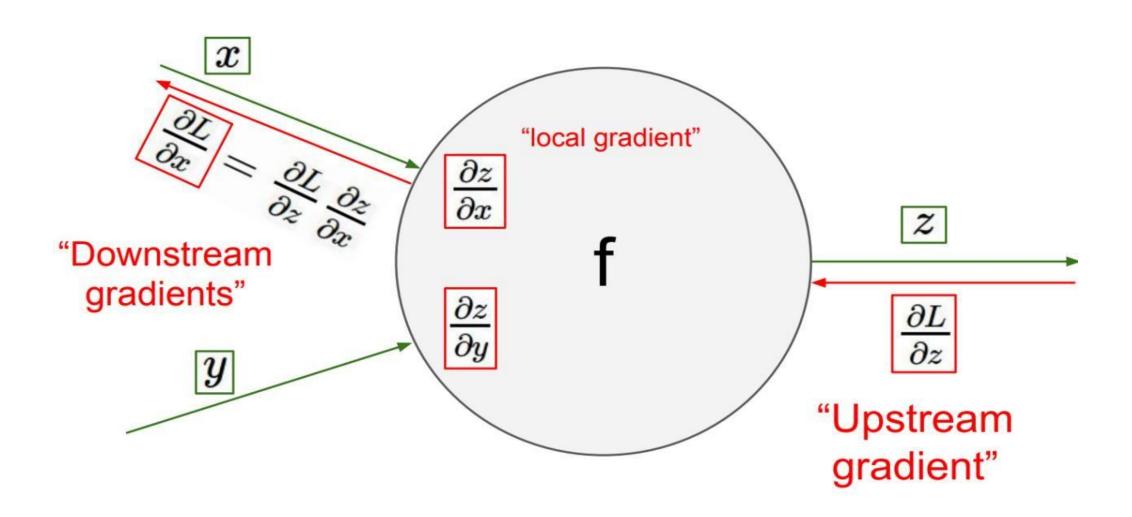


(x,y,z are scalars)

```
class MultiplyGate(object):
    def forward(x, y):
        z = x*y
        self.x = x # must keep these around!
        self.y = y
        return z

def backward(dz):
        dx = self.y * dz # [dz/dx * dL/dz]
        dy = self.x * dz # [dz/dy * dL/dz]
        return [dx, dy]
```

# Backprop in nutshell



### Backprop in nutshell

#### More general:

### Automatic Differentiation – Reverse Mode (aka. Backpropagation)

### **Forward Computation**

- Write an **algorithm** for evaluating the function y = f(x). The algorithm defines a directed acyclic graph, where each variable is a node (i.e. the "computation graph")
- 2. Visit each node in topological order.

For variable  $u_i$  with inputs  $v_1, \dots, v_N$ 

- a. Compute  $u_i = g_i(v_1, ..., v_N)$
- b. Store the result at the node

### **Backward Computation**

- **Initialize** all partial derivatives  $dy/du_i$  to 0 and dy/dy = 1.
- Visit each node in reverse topological order.

For variable  $u_i = g_i(v_1,..., v_N)$ a. We already know dy/du<sub>i</sub>

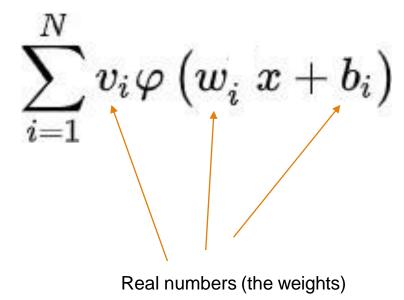
- b. Increment dy/dv<sub>j</sub> by (dy/du<sub>i</sub>)(du<sub>i</sub>/dv<sub>j</sub>) (Choice of algorithm ensures computing (du<sub>i</sub>/dv<sub>j</sub>) is easy)

**Return** partial derivatives dy/du; for all variables

The approximation power of neural networks

Let  $\varphi:\mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  be a constant, bounded, and continuous function.

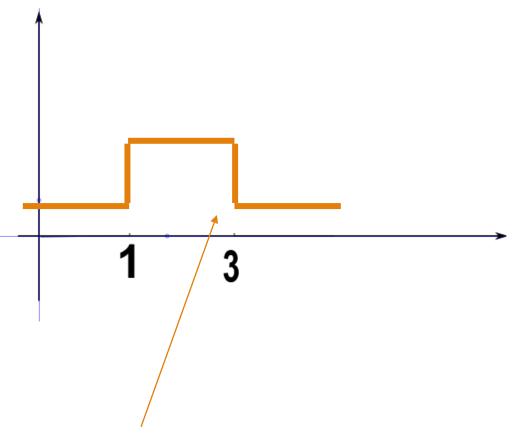
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$$\sum_{i=1}^{N}v_{i}arphi\left(w_{i}^{}x+b_{i}
ight)$$
Real numbers (the weights)

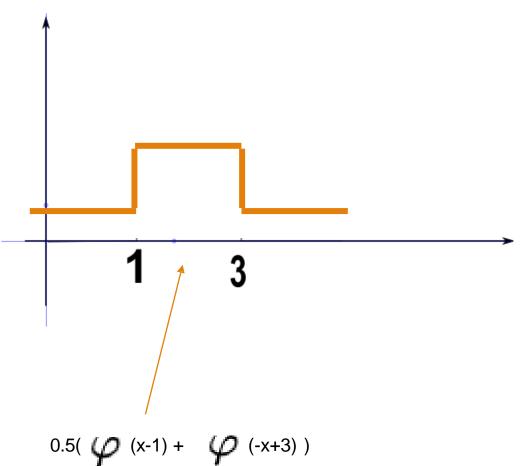


Let  $\varphi$ (x)=1 when x>=0 and zero otherwise and consider:  $\phi$  (x-1) +  $\phi$  (-x+3)

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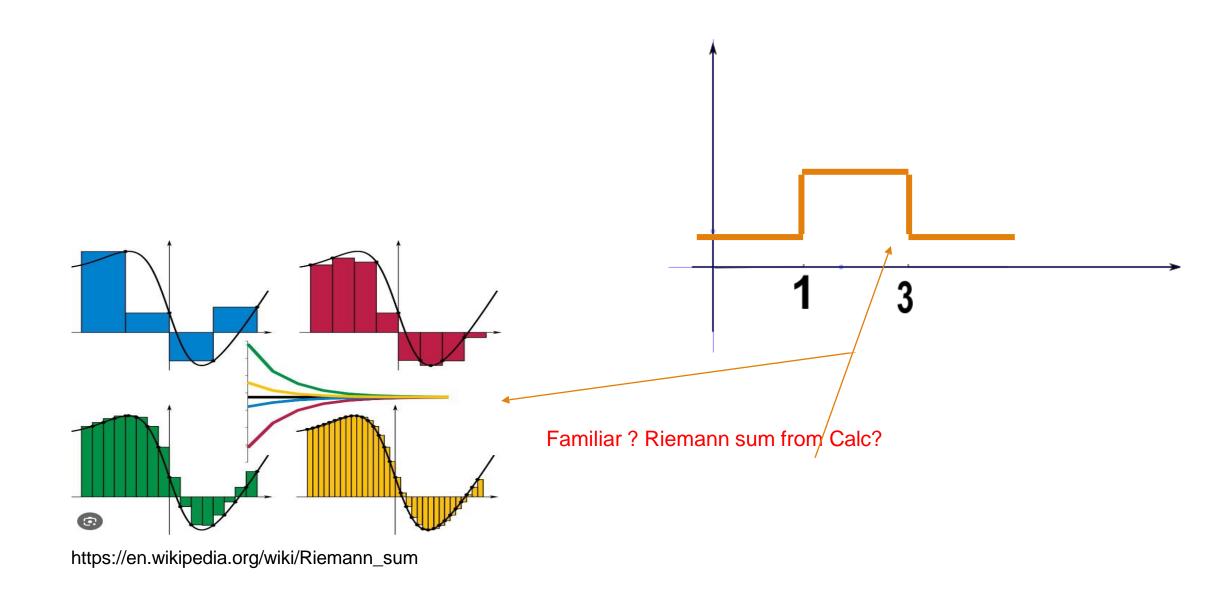
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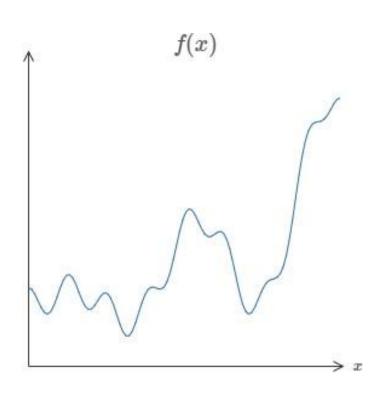


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Can you imagine building more complex functions if we have more Summations and maybe vary the weights? –what are the functions you can build?



Question: can you imagine building more complex functions if we have more summations and maybe vary the weights vi's, wi's, and bi's? what are the functions you can build?

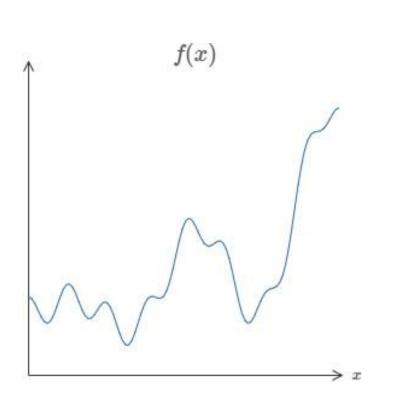


$$\sum_{i=1}^N v_i arphi \left(w_i^{} \; x + b_i
ight)$$

Given a function f as above, can we find vi's, wi's, and bi's such that the summation above is as close we like to f?

This is the essence of the universal approximation theorem: it can always be done.

Question: can you imagine building more complex functions if we have more summations and maybe vary the weights vi's, wi's, and bi's? what are the functions you can build?



$$\sum_{i=1}^N v_i arphi \left(w_i^{} \; x + b_i
ight)$$

Given a function f as above, can we find vi's, wi's, and bi's such that the summation above is as close we like to f?

It turns out that the answer is yes as long as we are willing to increase N (increase number of kernels). Lets see a few examples.

It turns out that this theorem generalizes to higher dimension the same way. More precisely, the following summations:

$$\sum_{i=1}^N v_i arphi \left( w_i^T x + b_i 
ight) ~~ egin{aligned} w_i \in \mathbb{R}^m \ v_i, b_i \in \mathbb{R} \end{aligned}$$

can approximate any continuous real valued function on  $[0,1]^m$ .

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Universal approximation theorem. Let  $arphi:\mathbb{R} o\mathbb{R}$  be a nonconstant, bounded, and continuous function (called the *activation function*). Let  $I_m$  denote the m-dimensional unit hypercube  $[0,1]^m$ . The space of real-valued continuous functions on  $I_m$  is denoted by  $C(I_m)$ . Then, given any  $\varepsilon>0$  and any function  $f\in C(I_m)$ , there exist an integer N, real constants  $v_i,b_i\in\mathbb{R}$  and real vectors  $w_i\in\mathbb{R}^m$  for  $i=1,\dots,N$ , such that we may define:

$$F(x) = \sum_{i=1}^N v_i arphi \left( w_i^T x + b_i 
ight)$$

as an approximate realization of the function f; that is,

$$|F(x) - f(x)| < \varepsilon$$