

Perceptron

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Contents

1	How works?:	2
1.1	A real neuron:	2
1.2	The perceptron:	3
1.3	Perceptron parts:	3
2	Códing the perceptron:	4
2.1	The Perceptron Algorithm:	4
2.2	From the perceptron algorithm to code:	5
2.3	How to train a perceptron? and The perceptron learning algorithm:	5
2.3.1	The Mathematical definition behind linear separability:	6
2.4	From the learning algorithm to code:	6
2.5	The math behind the learning algorithm:	7
3	Classifying two types of images:	9
3.1	Perceptron module in fortran:	9
3.2	Test and training function:	10
4	Conclusion:	11
5	References:	12

1 How works?:

1.1 A real neuron:

A real neuron, also known as a nerve cell, is a specialized cell that transmits electrical and chemical signals in the nervous system.

At the most basic level, a neuron consists of a cell body, dendrites, and an axon. The cell body contains the nucleus and other organelles, and serves as the metabolic center of the neuron. Dendrites are thin, branching extensions that receive signals from other neurons or sensory cells. The axon is a long, thin projection that carries signals away from the cell body to other neurons or target cells. Neurons communicate with each other through synapses, which are specialized

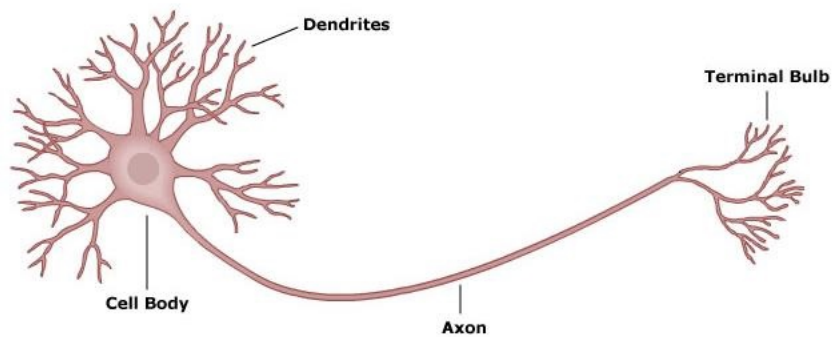


Figure 1: Cell Body with its axon

junctions between neurons. When an electrical signal, known as an action potential, reaches the end of an axon, it triggers the release of neurotransmitter molecules, which diffuse across the synapse and bind to receptors on the dendrites or cell body of the target neuron. This binding can cause the target neuron to generate its own action potential, which propagates down its axon to signal other neurons or target cells.

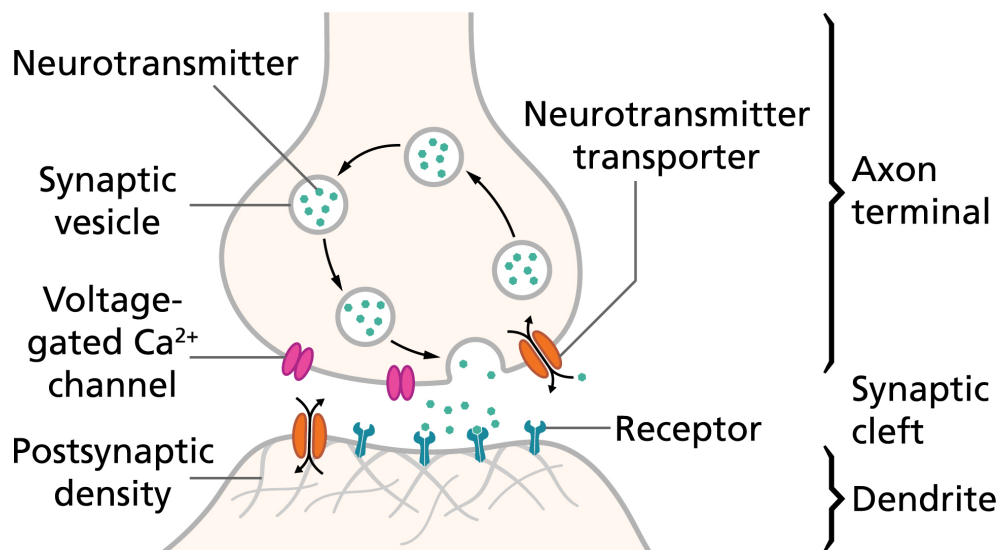


Figure 2: Synapse

Neurons talk to each other across synapses. When an action potential reaches the presynaptic terminal, it causes neurotransmitter to be released from the neuron into the synaptic cleft, a 20–40nm gap between the presynaptic axon terminal and the postsynaptic dendrite (often a spine). After travelling across the synaptic cleft, the transmitter will attach to neurotransmitter receptors on the postsynaptic side, and depending on the neurotransmitter released (which is dependent on the type of neuron releasing it), particular positive (e.g. Na⁺, K⁺, Ca⁺) or negative ions (e.g. Cl⁻) will travel through channels that span the membrane.

1.2 The perceptron:

The perceptron is a type of artificial neural network that is loosely modeled after the structure and function of real neurons in the brain. The basic idea behind the perceptron is to use a mathematical algorithm to simulate the behavior of a simplified neuron, which can then be used to perform simple classification tasks.

The perceptron consists of an input layer, a set of weights, a summing or activation function, and an output. The input layer consists of one or more nodes, each of which represents a feature of the input data. The weights are values that are assigned to each input node, which control the strength of the connection between that node and the output.

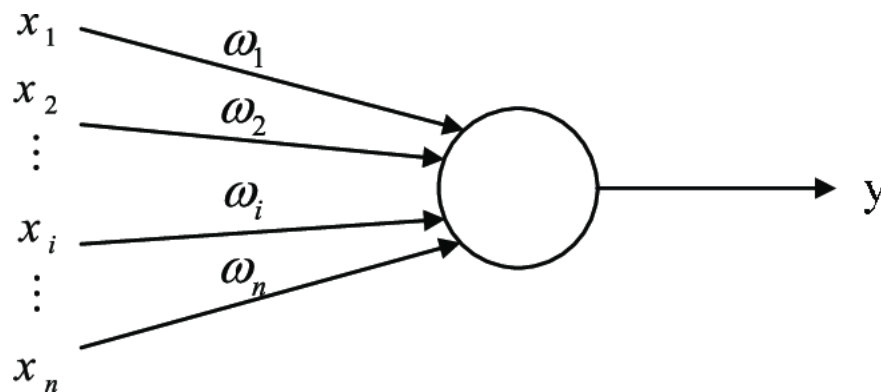


Figure 3: Perceptron

The summing or activation function takes the weighted inputs and adds them together to produce a single output value. This output value is then compared to a threshold value, which determines whether the perceptron will output a positive or negative value. If the output is positive, the perceptron classifies the input as belonging to one class; if it is negative, the input is classified as belonging to the other class.

1.3 Perceptron parts:

- **Input Nodes or Input Layer:**

This is the primary component of Perceptron which accepts the initial data into the system for further processing. Each input node contains a real numerical value.

- **Wight and Bias:**

Weight parameter represents the strength of the connection between units. This is another most important parameter of Perceptron components. Weight is directly proportional to

the strength of the associated input neuron in deciding the output. Further, Bias can be considered as the line of intercept in a linear equation.

- **Activation Function:**

These are the final and important components that help to determine whether the neuron will fire or not. Activation Function can be considered primarily as a step function.

Types of Activation functions:

- Sign function.
- Step function.
- Sigmoid function.

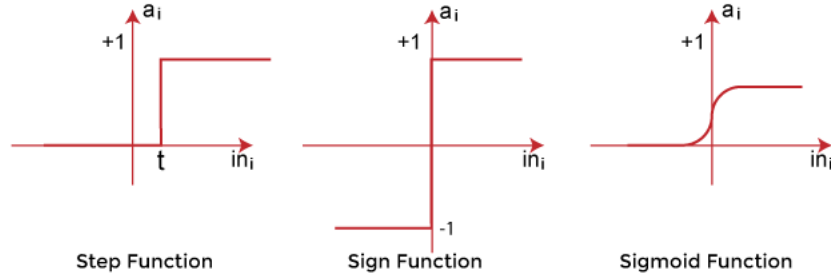


Figure 4: Types of activation functions

2 Códng the perceptron:

2.1 The Perceptron Algorithm:

Perceptron model works in two important steps as follows.

1. In the first step first, multiply all input values with corresponding weight values and then add them to determine the weighted sum. Mathematically, we can calculate the weighted sum as follows.

$$\sum_{i=0}^n (weight_i \cdot input_i) = \sum_{i=0}^n (w_i \cdot x_i) = w_0 \cdot x_0 + w_1 \cdot x_1 + \dots + w_n \cdot x_n$$

Add a special term called bias 'b' to this weighted sum to improve the model's performance.

$$\sum_{i=0}^n (w_i \cdot x_i) + b$$

2. In the second step, an activation function is applied with the above-mentioned weighted sum, which gives us output either in binary form or a continuous value as follows.

$$y = activation\left(\sum_{i=0}^n (w_i \cdot x_i) + b\right) = activation(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} + b)$$

At the end what we are doing here is a simple dot product.

2.2 From the perceptron algorithm to code:

Firstly declare the threshold variable or bias variable, this variable will be used as a threshold or bias for the activation function.

```
const threshold = 1.5
```

After that declare two arrays the weights and inputs, the weights array is always initialized with random values.

```
inputs = [1, 0, 1, 0, 1]
weights = [0.7, 0.6, 0.5, 0.3, 0.4]
```

The weighted sum of the input values and weights by initializing a variable called sum to zero, and then iterating over the input values and weights and adding the product of each input value and weight to sum.

```
sum = 0.0
for (i = 0, i < inputs.length, i++)
    sum += inputs[i] * weights[i]
```

And at the end just apply an activation function to the weighted sum by checking if sum is greater than the threshold value of 1.5. If sum is greater than 1.5, the activate variable is set to 1, otherwise, it is set to 0.

```
activate = (sum > threshold) ? 1 : 0
```

Overall, this code represents a simple example of how a perceptron might work by calculating a weighted sum of inputs and weights and applying a threshold activation function to produce a binary output.

2.3 How to train a perceptron? and The perceptron learning algorithm:

To train a perceptron, we need to adjust the weights of the input connections so that the perceptron produces the desired output for a given set of inputs. We can do this by using an iterative algorithm called the perceptron learning algorithm.

The key idea behind the perceptron learning algorithm is that we can use the error between the predicted and desired outputs to adjust the weights so that the perceptron becomes better at producing the desired output. Specifically, we adjust the weights in proportion to the error, with larger errors resulting in larger weight updates.

Note that the perceptron learning algorithm assumes that the problem is linearly separable, which means that there is a hyperplane that can separate the positive and negative examples in the input space. If the problem is not linearly separable, the perceptron may not be able to converge to a solution.

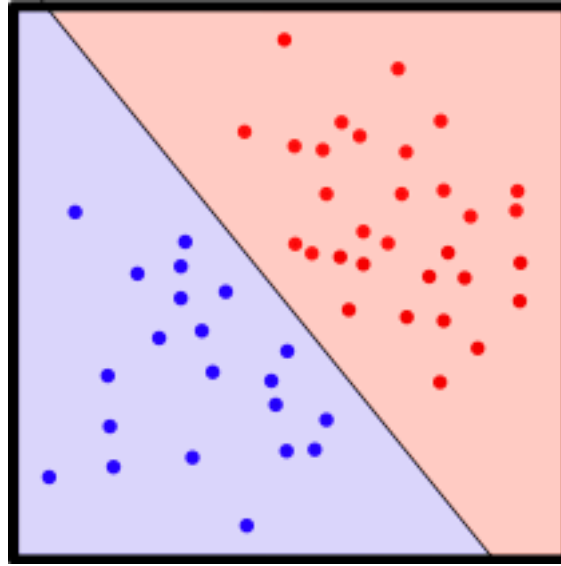


Figure 5: Linear separability

2.3.1 The Mathematical definition behind linear separability:

Let X_0 and X_1 be two sets of points in an n -dimensional Euclidean space. Then X_0 and X_1 are linearly separable, if there exist $n + 1$ real numbers w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n, k such that every point $x \in X_0$ satisfies $\sum_{i=1}^n (w_i \cdot x_i) > k$ and every point $x \in X_1$ satisfies $\sum_{i=0}^n (w_i \cdot x_i) < k$ where x_i is the i -th component of x .

2.4 From the learning algorithm to code:

You must create a training function with these characteristics using the previous data.

1. The training function guesses the outcome based on the activate function.
2. Every time the guess is wrong, the perceptron should adjust the weights.
3. After many guesses and adjustments, the weights will be correct.

Define the activation function which at the end it is a simple binary function.

```
int activation(x)
    return (x > 0) ? 1 : 0
```

Define the learning rate and a number of epochs, which is the amount of times that we are going train the perceptron and the learning rate represents how fast our perceptron is going to learn.

```
learning_rate = 0.1
num_epochs = 100
```

Train the perceptron by iterating with all the training data which in this case it is an bidimensional array and a simple threshold or bias.

```

for (i = 0, i < num_epochs, i++)
    for (j = 0, j < inputs.length, j++)
        sum = 0.0
        for (k = 0, k < weights.length, k++)
            sum += inputs[j][k] * weights[i]
        sum += b
        out = activation(sum)

```

And at the end we only need to adjust the weights and bias from the error, so the error is so simple it is a subtraction, then use the error and the learning rate to update the weights and bias.

```

error = label[j] - output
for (k = 0, k < weights.length, k++)
    weights[k] += learning_rate * error * inputs[j][k]
b += learning_rate * error

```

2.5 The math behind the learning algorithm:

Maybe now the main question is why we adjust the weights like that.

```
weights[k] += learning_rate * error * inputs[j][k]
```

And the bias or threshold.

```
b += learning_rate * error
```

To answer that we need to formulate a math function that represents our neuron which receives a vector as input.

$$f(\vec{x}) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } (\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} - b) > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

where \vec{x} is the input vector, \vec{w} the coefficients, at the end we are creating a plane.

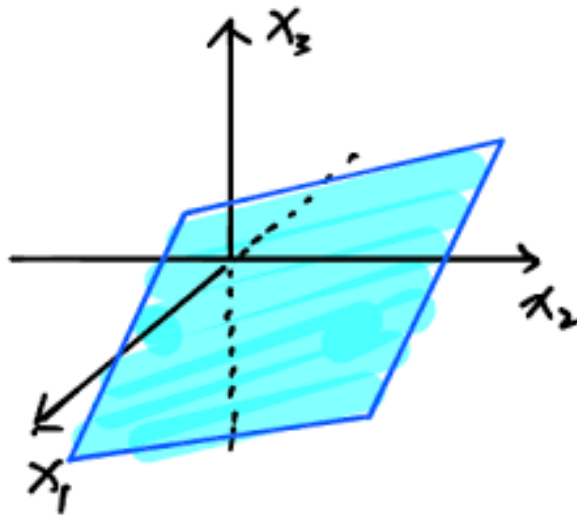
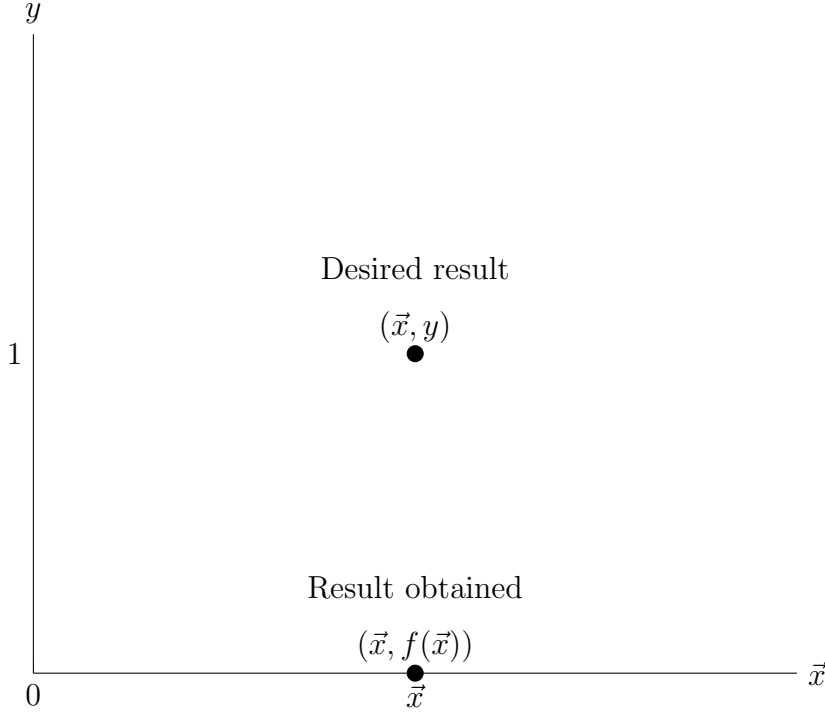


Figure 6: Plane

The range of this function $f(\vec{x})$ is $\{1, 0\}$ so imagine a graph like this, where we try some input but we won't get the desired output.



Then we can formulate an error function with the input \vec{v} , the desired result y and the result obtained $f(\vec{x})$.

$$E(\vec{x}) = y - f(\vec{x})$$

From this equation we can obtain the desired result.

$$E(\vec{x}) + f(\vec{x}) = y$$

Assume that $E(\vec{x}) = \vec{m} \cdot \vec{x} + b$ this is necessary to compute the next approximation of the weights.

$$\vec{m} \cdot \vec{x} + b + \vec{w}_i \cdot \vec{x} + b_i = y$$

$$(\vec{m} + \vec{w}_i) \cdot \vec{x} + (b + b_i) = y$$

So this is how works...

$$\vec{w}_{i+1} = \vec{w}_i + \vec{m}$$

$$b_{i+1} = b_i + b$$

To compute \vec{m} from $E(\vec{x})$.

$$\vec{m} = \frac{E(\vec{x}) - b}{\vec{x}} = (E(\vec{x}) - b) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{\vec{x}}\right)$$

Then from this we can infer the lines of code of how the weights and bias are adjusted, at the end

what we want is to approximate slowly step by step, for that reason we multiply the error with the small learning rate.

```
learning_rate = 0.1

error = label[j] - output
for (k = 0, k < weights.length, k++)
    weights[k] += learning_rate * error * inputs[j][k]
b += learning_rate * error
```

3 Classifying two types of images:

3.1 Perceptron module in fortran:

Firstly I made a simple perceptron module in fortran which contains the weights, a bias and with a simple step activation function.

```
#include <assertf.h>

module mod_perceptron
    use iso_fortran_env, only : real32, int32

    use assertf
    implicit none

    private
    public p_init, p_free, p_train, p_test, perceptron

    ! The type where we are going to contain the weights and bias
    type perceptron
        real(real32) :: b
        integer(int32) :: n      ! The amount of weights
        real(real32), pointer :: w(:) ! The weights
    end type perceptron
contains

    ! step: A simple activation function
    pure function step(output)
        real(real32), intent(in) :: output
        real(real32) :: step
        if (output > 0.0) then
            step = 1.0
        else
            step = 0.0
        end if
    end function step
```

```

! p_init: Receives a perceptron type and adds to it the weights
! and bias
subroutine p_init(per, w, b)
    real(real32), intent(in) :: w(:), b
    type(perceptron), intent(out) :: per

    per%n = size(w)          ! Fetch the size of the array of weights

    ! Allocate the array of weights
    allocate(per%w(per%n))
    per%w(:) = w(:)
    per%b = b
end subroutine p_init

! p_free: To free the perceptrons weights and set the size and bias
! to zero
subroutine p_free(per)
    type(perceptron), intent(in out) :: per

    deallocate(per%w)
    per%n = 0
    per%b = 0
end subroutine p_free
end module mod_perceptron

```

3.2 Test and training function:

Then the **test** and **training** functions.

```

! p_train: To train the perceptron with some data
subroutine p_train(per, inputs, outputs, lrate, nepochs)
    ! inout Because we are going to modify
    type(perceptron), intent(in out) :: per
    ! The inputs and outputs to be trained
    real(real32), intent(in) :: inputs(:, :) ! Bindimensional array
    real(real32), intent(in) :: outputs(:), lrate ! Learning rate
    integer(int32), intent(in) :: nepochs          ! Num of epochs

    ! The size and the iterators
    integer(int32) :: n, i, j, k
    real(real32) :: output, error, delta
    ! Catch the amount of inputs, sizeof(inputs[1])
    n = size(inputs, 1)

    do i = 1, nepochs          ! Start iterating
        do j = 1, n ! Concurrent iteration
            ! Computing the perceptron calculation

```

```

        output = per%b
        do concurrent(k = 1 : per%n)
            output = output + per%w(k) * inputs(j, k)
        end do

        ! The step function
        output = step(output)

        ! Compute the error
        error = outputs(j) - output
        delta = lrate * error

        ! Update the perceptron
        per%b = per%b + delta
        do concurrent(k = 1 : per%n)
            per%w(k) = per%w(k) + delta * inputs(j, k)
        end do
    end do
end subroutine p_train

! p_test: To test the perceptron with some inputs
subroutine p_test(per, inputs, results)
    type(perceptron), intent(in) :: per
    real(real32), intent(in) :: inputs(:, :)
    real(real32), intent(out) :: results(:)

    ! The size and outputs
    integer(int32) :: n, i, j

    ! Test the perceptron
    n = size(inputs, 1)
    do concurrent(i = 1 : n)
        results(i) = per%b
        do concurrent(j = 1 : per%n)
            results(i) = results(i) + per%w(j) * inputs(i, j)
        end do
        results(i) = step(results(i))
    end do
end subroutine p_test

```

3.3 Main program:

4 Conclusion:

Perceptrons are limited to linearly separable problems, which means that they can only learn to classify data that can be separated by a hyperplane. However, they have been used as building blocks for more complex neural network architectures that can handle more complex problems. Overall, perceptrons are a simple and powerful tool for building basic binary classifiers, and they have contributed significantly to the development of artificial intelligence and machine learning.

5 References:

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