Artificial Neural Networks

Inteligencia Artificial en los Sistemas de Control Autónomo Máster en Ciencia y Tecnología desde el Espacio

Departamento de Automática





Objectives

- 1. Describe biological neurons and networks
- 2. Describe artifical neurons
- 3. Introduce the MLP
- 4. Understand the role of trainning in ANNs

5. Understand MLP hyperparameters

Bibliography

• Géron, Aurélien. Hands-On Machine Learning with Scikit-Learn, Keras & TensorFlow. 2nd Edition. O'Reilly. 2019

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Introduction

History

- 1888 Ramón y Cajal. Discovery of biological neurons
- 1943 McCulloch & Pitts. First neural network designers
- 1949 Hebb. First learning rule
- 1958 Rosenblatt. Perceptron
- 1969 Minsky & Papert. Perceptron limitation Death of ANN
- 1986 Rumelhart et al. Re-emergence of ANN: Backpropagation
- 2012 CNNs popularity AlexNet Rise of Deep Learning
- 2014 Goodfellow et al. Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs)
- 2021 OpenAI. Dall-e 2
- 2022 Large Language Models (ChatGPT, GPT-3, new Bing)
- 2023 Multimodal Large Language Models (GPT-4)
- 20XX ... AGI?





Introduction

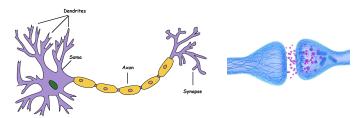
Biological neurons (I)

A neuron has a cell body (soma) ...

- ... a branching input structure (dendrite) and
- ... a branching output structure (axon)
- ... an axon termination named synapses

An action potential (or signal) may propagate from dentrites to synapses

- The synapses release a chemical named neurotransmitter
- Given enough neurotransmitters, a new neuron can fire





Introduction

Biological neurons (II)

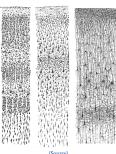
A neuron only fires if its input signal exceeds a threshold

- Good connections allowing a large signal
- Slight connections allowing a weak signal
- Synapses may be either excitatory or inhibitory

Synapses vary in strength

• Biological learning involves setting that strength

Biological neurons often are organized in layers



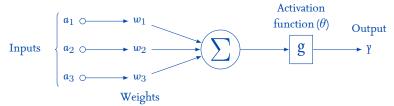




Artificial neurons 0000000000000

Definition (I)

TLU: Threshold logic unit



- a_i Input
- wi Weight of input j
 - Threshold
 - g Activation function

Neuron model (TLU)

$$\gamma = g\left(\sum_i w_i a_i\right)$$

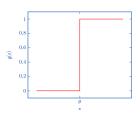


Definition (II)

The idealized activation function is a step function

$$g(x) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \sum_{i=1}^N w_i x_i > \theta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The step function is rarely used in practice





Definition (III)

A single neuron can be used for linear binary classification

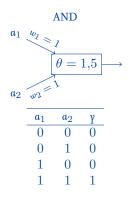
- Computes linear combination of inputs
- If the output exceeds the threshold, it assigns a positive class
- ... othershise it assigns a negative class

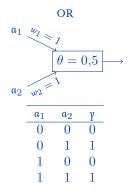
Comparable to logistic regression or SVM



Logical gates with a neuron

Artificial neurons 000000000

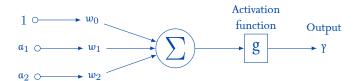




NOT

(A neuron in Excel)

Definition of neuron (alternative version)



- a_i Input
- wi Weight of input j
- w₀ Bias
 - g Activation function

Neuron model

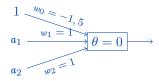
$$\gamma = g\left(\sum_i w_i a_i\right)$$



Example of biased neuron

Artificial neurons

AND logical gate with a biased input



\mathfrak{a}_0	\mathfrak{a}_1	\mathfrak{a}_2	Output	
I	O	O	О	
I	O	I	О	
I	I	O	О	
I	I	I	I	

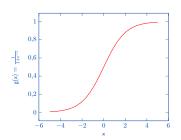
Artificial neurons

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Activation functions: Sigmoid function

Also known as the logistic function

- Biological motivation
- S-shaped, continuous and everywhere differentiable
- Asymptotically approach saturation points
- Derivative fast computation
- Range $\in [0,1]$



Sigmoid function

$$g(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$

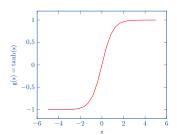
$$g'(x) = g(x)(1 - g(x))$$



Artificial neurons 00000000000000

Activation functions: Tanh function

- Asymptotically approach saturation points
- Range $\in [-1, 1]$
- Bigger derivative than sigmoid (faster training)



Tanh function

$$g(x)=\tanh(x)=\frac{2}{1+e^{-2x}}-1$$

$$g'(x)=1-g(x)^2$$



Activation functions: Softmax function

- Generalization of the logistic function
- Usually used in the output layer in classification problems
- Asymptotically approach saturation points

Softmax function

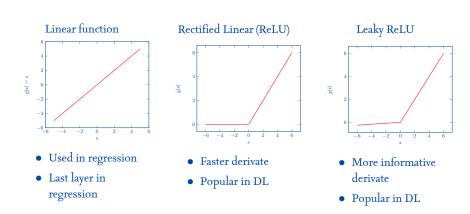
$$g(\boldsymbol{z})_j = \frac{e^{z_j^2}}{\sum_{k=1}^K e^{z_k}} \operatorname{for} j = 1, ..., K$$

with z a K-dimensional vector



Other activation functions

Artificial neurons 0000000000000



The lack of non-linear activation function makes a network a simple linear regression



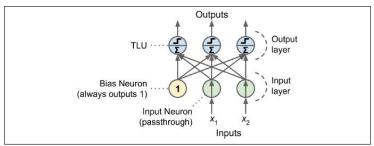
The Perceptron

The Perceptron is a very simple ANN architecture

- Disclaimer: different defintions of Perceptron
- Proposed by Rosenblatt in 1957

Perceptron: Layer of TLUs connected to all the inputs

- Input layer contains special passthrough neurons
- Multilabel classification

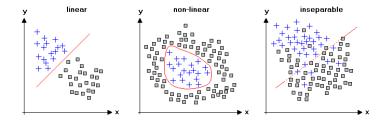


(Source)



Artificial neurons

Learning limits (I)

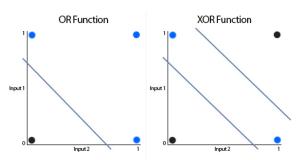


Problem: A single perceptron only can solve linearly separable problems



Learning limits (II)

XOR cannot be implemented with a perceptron



Solution: Stack several perceptrons



Definition (I)

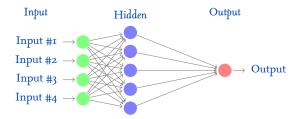
Neurons are arranged in layers of TLU neurons

Input Which consists of our data

Output Which are the net outcome

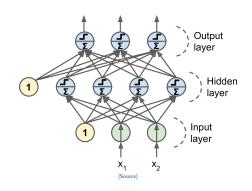
Hidden (Optional) No direct interaction

Multilayer Perceptron, or simply MLP





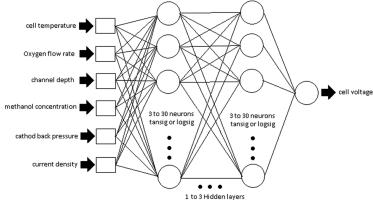
Definition (II)





MLP for regression (I)

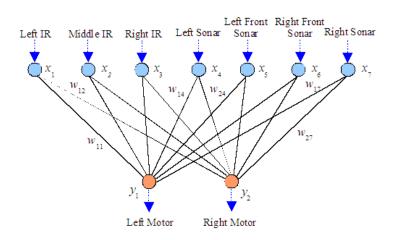
One output neuron for each output dimension





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MLP for regression (II)





MLP for regression (III)

You usually do not want to limit the output

- Output layer with linear activation
- ReLu allowed for strictly positive output

Loss function as in any regression

- Mean Squared Error (MSE) by default
- Mean Absolute Error (MAE) is less sensitive to outlayers

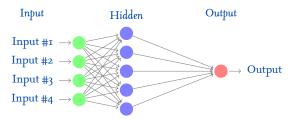
In ANN, a loss function is an error function used to train a network



MLP for classification (I)

Binary classification

- One output neuron
- Sigmoid activation
- The output can be interpreted as a positive class probability

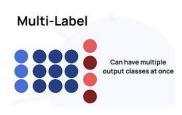


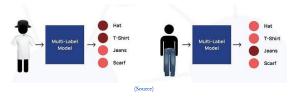


MLP for classification (II)

Multilabel classification

- One output neuron per label
- Labels are not mutually exclusive
- Sigmoid activation



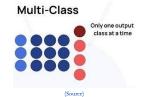


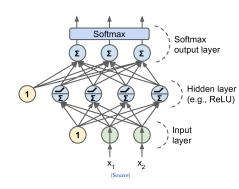


MLP for classification (III)

Multi-class classification

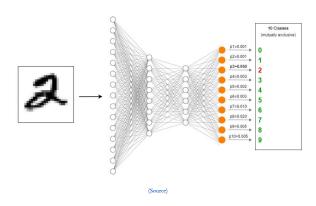
- Mutually exclusive label ⇒
 Probabilities are not independent
- One output neuron per label
- Softmax activation





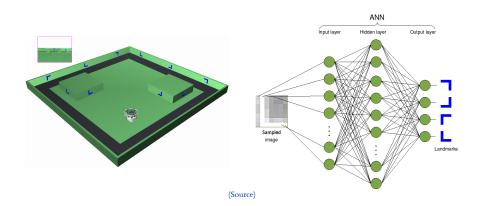


MLP for classification (IV): Example 1



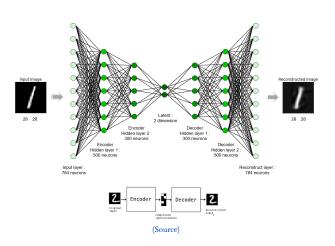


MLP for classification (IV): Example 2





Autoencoders





(Online demo)



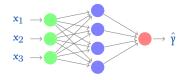
Demo

Gradient Descent

Motivation (I)

In supervised learning we have the desired outputs

... so we can compare the desired output with the observed one



\mathbf{x}_1	x_2	\mathbf{x}_3	Ŷ	Υ
1,1	2,5	4,5	0,2	-0,1
0,9	2,4	1,2	0,5	0,4
1,0	2,0	9,9	0,4	1,2

Toss function: Measure of the error

- Any error measure can be used, there are many available
- Usually mean squared error (MSE)

$$MSE = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i} (\gamma_i - \hat{\gamma}_i)^2 \Rightarrow MSE = f(\vec{\theta})$$

where $\vec{\theta}$ is our network (its weights and biases)



Motivation (II)

Problem: Determine $\vec{\theta}$ that minimize $f(\vec{\theta})$

- This is a classical optimization problem
- Any optimization algorithm can be used
- ... in AI, optimization means search

In DL, our network may have millions of parameters

- We do know anatically $f(\vec{\theta})$
- Optimization based on gradients: Gradient Descent

Gradient Descent is a general optimization algorithm

- Not limited to train neural networks
- Widely used, for instance, to fit lineal models



Gradient Descent

Overview



Gradient Descent (I)

Calculate the gradient of the loss function with respect weights

- Adjust weights along gradient direction
- Gradient provides the direction
- η is the learning rate

Gradient descent

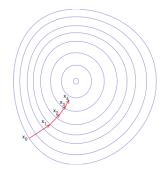
1:
$$\vec{\theta} \leftarrow \text{random}()$$

2: **while** Not converged **do**

$$_3$$
: for all $heta_{ ext{i}} \in ec{ heta}$ do

$$\theta_{i+1} \leftarrow \theta_i - \eta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_i} f(\vec{\theta})$$

- end for
- 6: end while

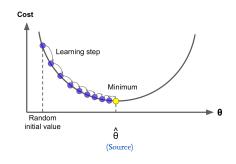




Gradient Descent (II)

Alternative notation:

$$\vec{\theta}_{\rm next \, step} = \vec{\theta} - \eta \nabla_{\theta} {\rm f}(\vec{\theta})$$

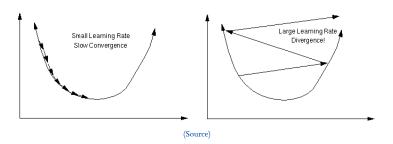




Learning rate

The learning rate is a an important hyperparameter

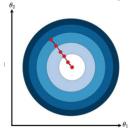
- Small learning rate ⇒ Slow convergence
- Large learning rate ⇒ Jump across the valley

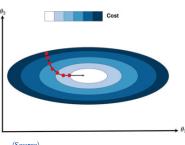




Gradient Descent problems (I)

GD is sensitive to features scaling





(Source)

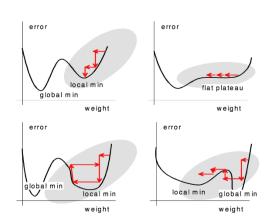
Gradient Descent problems (II)

Potential problems

- Local minima
- Flat plateau
- Oscillation
- Missing good minima

GD uses the whole dataset

- It is slow ...
- ... inviable in practice





Stochastic Gradient Descent (I)

SDG approximates the gradient sampling the dataset

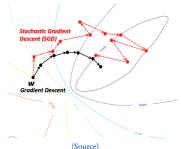
On-line One sample (Stochastic Gradient Descent, SGD)

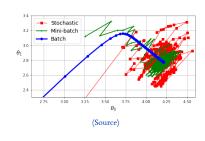
Mini-batch Several samples (named minibatches)

Batch All the samples (Gradient Descent)

Computations are faster ...

• ... but gradient computations looses accuracy







Stochastic Gradient Descent (II)

In practice we use mini-batch SGD

• GPUs reduce dramatically computation time





The batch size is one of the most important hiperparameters

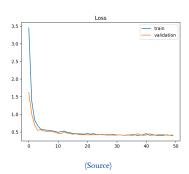
- Best performance with large batch sizes
- Erratic gratients (or event randomness) actually can help to scape from local minima

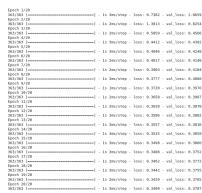


Stochastic Gradient Descent (III)

Each iteration is named epoch

- Usually, an epoch involves the algorithm to visit the whole training set
- We really want to visualize the learning curve



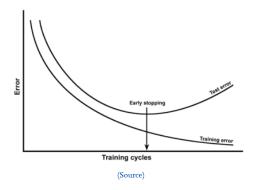




Early stopping

Early stopping: Stop training when the network begins to overfit

• Compare the loss in train and test to detect overfitting





Backpropagation

Efficient algorithm to compute gradients

- Proposed in 1986
- First practical ANN training algorithm
- It uses the chain rule to propagate errors
- Automatic computation of gradients
- It creates a computation graph (TensorFlow takes its name from this)

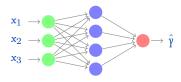
Implicit in ANN/DL packages

- You will find it as SGD
- ANN/DL packages name the optimization algorithm as 'optimizers'



Backpropagation

- I. Feed-forward step. Feed input, one mini-batch at a time. Compute output and error
- 2. Feed-backward step. Compute individual contribution to error (gradients) using the chain rule
- 3. Adjust weights. Perform a Gradient Descent step using the computed gradients





Momentum optimization

SGD does not take care about past gradients

$$\vec{\theta} \leftarrow \vec{\theta} - \eta \nabla_{\theta} J(\vec{\theta})$$

Usually, a momentum vector is introduced as

$$\vec{\mathbf{m}} \leftarrow \beta \vec{\mathbf{m}} - \eta \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathbf{J}(\vec{\boldsymbol{\theta}})$$

$$\vec{\theta} \leftarrow \vec{\theta} + \vec{m}$$

where ...

- η is the learning rate
- β is the momentum strength
 - If $\beta = 0$ then gradient descent
 - $\beta = 0.9$ uses to be a good default

(On-line demo)



Other optimization algorithms (II)

Learning reate / momentum adaptative methods

- Nesterov Accelerated Gradient Modified momentum
- AdaGrad Adaptative Gradient Algorithm
- RMSProp Root Mean Square Propagation
- Adam Adaptive Moment Estimation
 - Adaptative learning rate
 - Default choice in real-word problems



Second order optimization algorithms

Other second derivative-based optimization algorithms

- Newton's method
- Quasi-Newton's method
- Levenberg-Marquardt method
- Conjugate Gradient

They are never used in DL

