

Lecture 7 Deep Neural Networks

Shiwei Lan¹

¹School of Mathematical and Statistical Sciences
Arizona State University

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Deep Neural
Networks

S.Lan

Motivation

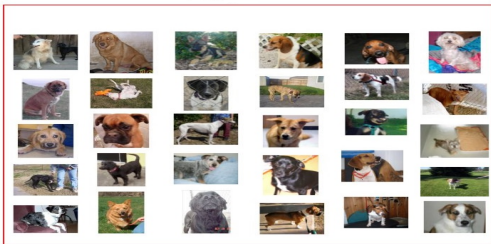
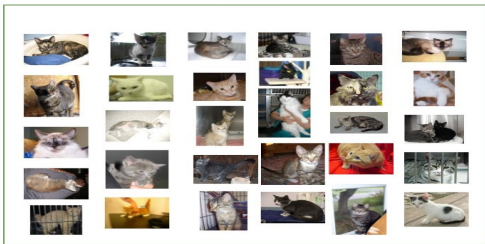
Feedforward
neural network

Deep Neural
Networks

1 Motivation

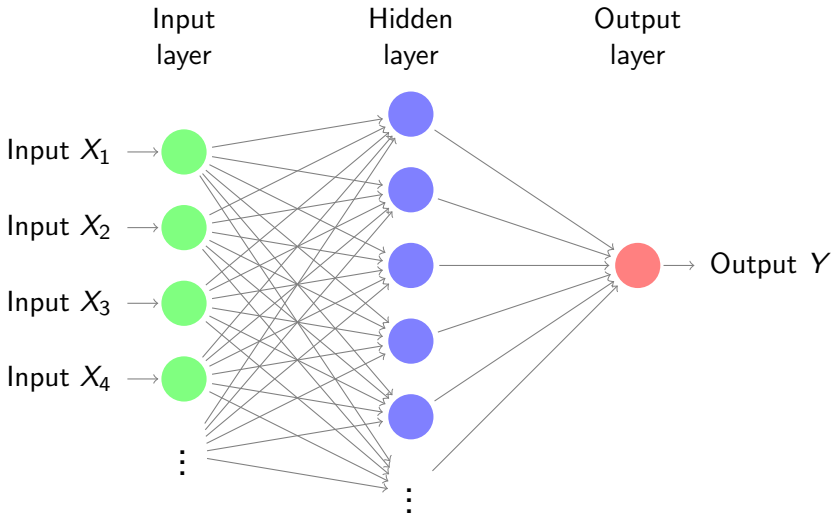
2 Feedforward neural network

3 Deep Neural Networks



Samples of cats and dogs images from Kaggle: [Link](#)

- Neural Networks were first developed as models for the human brain, where we have many units (**neurons**) that simultaneously process signals to give a joint decision.
- The neurons fire when the total signal passed to that unit exceeds a certain threshold.
- The collective signal from all neurons tells you whether its a dog or a cat.



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① Motivation

② Feedforward neural network

③ Deep Neural Networks

- Given a training set $\{x_i, y_i\}_{i=1}^n$,
 - For regression: $y_i \in \mathbb{R}^K$ is a K dimensional continuous outcome
 - For classification: $y_i \in \{1, 2, \dots, K\}$
- The goal is still to model the relationship

$$E(Y|X) = f(X)$$

- Instead of modeling the probabilities directly using X , we build M hidden neurons as a hidden layer between X and Y :

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= (1, Z_1, Z_2, \dots, Z_M) \\ &= (1, \sigma(X^\top \alpha_1), \sigma(X^\top \alpha_2), \dots, \sigma(X^\top \alpha_M)) \end{aligned}$$

- $\sigma(\cdot)$ is an **activation function**. Some examples?
- We model Y using the hidden layer variables Z through some **link function** $g(\cdot)$

$$X \xrightarrow{\sigma(\cdot)} Z \xrightarrow{g(\cdot)} Y$$

- In **classification problems** (K class), we can use logit link g_k to model the probability of $Y = k$, for $k = 1, \dots, K$:

$$g_k(Z) = \frac{\exp(Z^T \beta_k)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \exp(Z^T \beta_l)}$$

- In **regression problems** (could be multidimensional), we can simply use a linear function to model the k th entry of Y :

$$g_k(Z) = Z^T \beta_k$$

- The multidimensional function $\mathbf{f}(x)$ can be represented as a convoluted way of mapping $x \in \mathbb{R}^p$ to $y \in \mathbb{R}^K$

$$\mathbf{f}(x) = \mathbf{g} \circ \sigma(x)$$

- The notations \mathbf{g} and σ here are multidimensional.
- The parameters involved are: $\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_M$, and β_1, \dots, β_K .

- The **activation function** $\sigma(\cdot)$ takes a linear combination of the input variables, and output a scalar through nonlinear transformation. Examples:

- sigmoid:

$$\sigma(v) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-v}} = \frac{e^v}{e^v + 1}$$

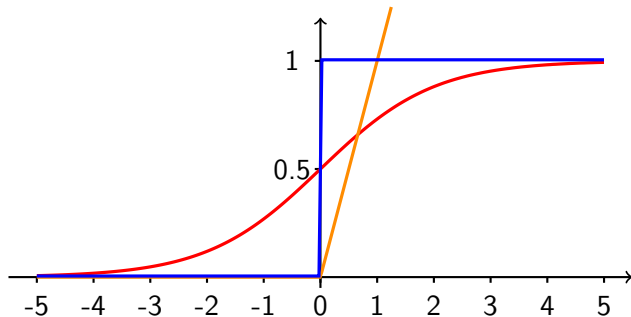
- hyperbolic tangent (tanh):

$$\sigma(v) = \frac{e^v - e^{-v}}{e^v + e^{-v}}$$

- rectified linear unit (ReLU):

$$\sigma(v) = \max(0, v), \quad \text{soft approx.} \quad \ln(1 + e^v)$$

- And many others: exponential linear unit, arctangent, etc.



Sigmoid: $(1 + e^{-v})^{-1}$

ReLU: $\max(0, v)$,

Step function: $I(v > 0)$

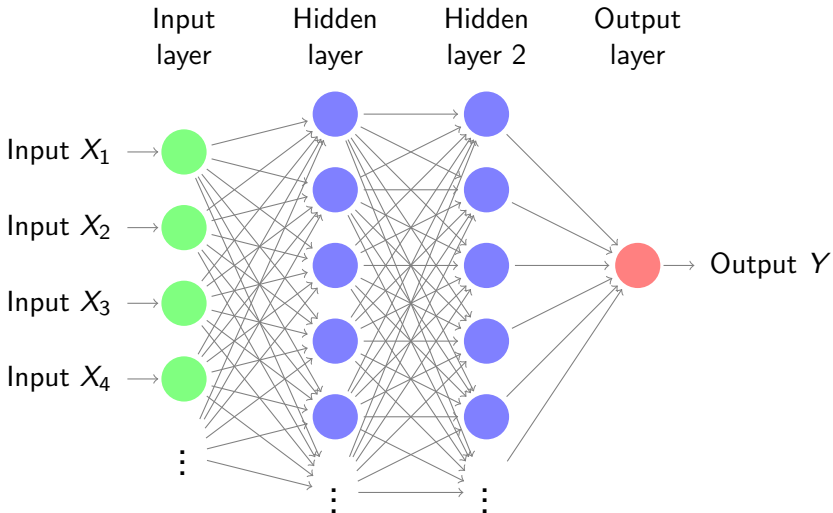
- Originally, a **step function** $I(v > 0)$ was considered as the activation function (to mimic the biological interpretation). Hence for each neuron, signal is triggered only when $x^T \alpha$ is above a certain threshold
- It was later recognized that the step function is **not smooth** enough for optimization, hence was replaced by a smoother threshold function, the sigmoid function
- “Feedforward” as signals can only pass to the next layer. There is no “cycle” in the model

Universal Approximation Theorem (Cybenko, 1989; Hornik 1991)

Any continuous function $f(x)$ on the space $[0, 1]^p$ can be approximated (for any $\varepsilon > 0$) by a finite set of neurons with a bounded monotone-increasing activation function $\sigma(\cdot)$:

$$|f(x) - \sum_k w_k \sigma(\beta_k^T x + b_k)| < \varepsilon$$

for some w_k , β_k , and b_k . Hence, the functions defined by the neurons is dense.



- Try this a really cool website: <http://playground.tensorflow.org/>
- Implementation in [Python](#):
 - packages: [sklearn.neural_network](#), ([TensorFlow](#), [PyTorch](#))
 - [MLPClassifier](#) implements a multi-layer perceptron (MLP) algorithm for classification.
 - [MLPRegressor](#) implements a multi-layer perceptron (MLP) for regression.
 - MLP trains using [Stochastic Gradient Descent](#) , [Adam](#) , or [L-BFGS](#) .
 - Important parameters:
 - number of neurons: [hidden_layer_sizes](#)
 - activation functions: [activation](#)
 - size of minibatches: [batch_size](#)
 - solver for back-propagation: [solver](#)
 - learning step sizes: [learning_rate](#), [learning_rate_init](#)
 - regularization: [alpha](#)

- The parameters (weights) α 's and β 's need to be optimized.
- For a single hidden layer NN, we have

$$\{\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_M\} : \quad M(p+1) \text{ weights}$$
$$\{\beta_1, \dots, \beta_K\} : \quad K(M+1) \text{ weights}$$

- where p is the number of non-intercept X features; M is the number of hidden neurons in a single layer; and K is the number of categories for classification.
- $K = 1$ if its a univariate regression problem.

- Neural Networks training is based on error minimization using a **Gradient Descent** algorithm, known as error **back-propagation**.
- For K classification, we minimize Deviance:

$$-\sum_{i=1}^n \sum_k^K \mathbf{1}\{y_i = k\} \log f_k(x_i)$$

- For univariate regression, we minimize RSS (since g is linear):

$$\sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - f(x_i))^2 = \sum_{i=1}^n (y_i - \beta_0 - \beta_1 \sigma(x^T \alpha_1) - \cdots \sigma(x^T \alpha_M))^2$$

- The objective function can be written as

$$R(\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^n R_i(\theta)$$

where R_i represents the deviance or residual sum of squares for the i th data point, and θ represents an aggregated vector of all weights

- Initiate weights $\theta^{(0)}$
- We then calculate the derivative wrt each of the weights evaluated at the current iteration value $\theta^{(t)}$:

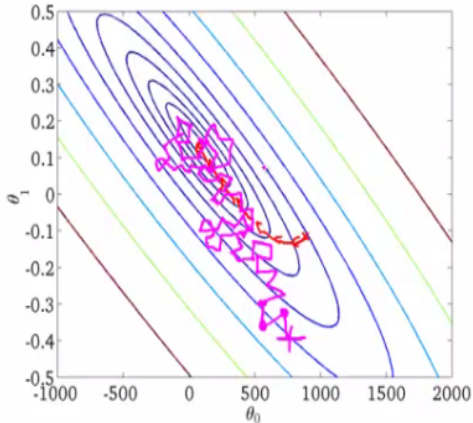
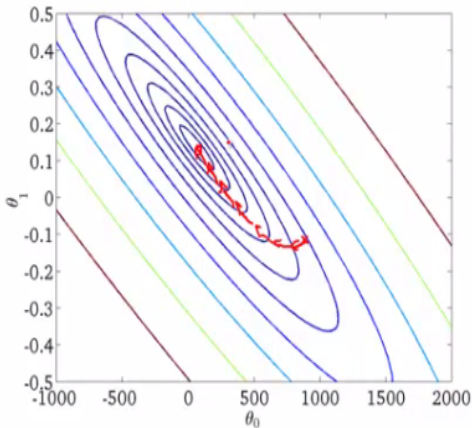
$$\sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial R_i}{\partial \beta_{km}} \bigg|_{\theta=\theta^{(t)}} \quad \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial R_i}{\partial \alpha_{mj}} \bigg|_{\theta=\theta^{(t)}}$$

- **Stochastic GD**: the summation can be taken over a **random subset** of the n samples

Gradient Descent

vs.

Stochastic Gradient Descent



- The derivatives for $K = 1$ regression case is essentially

$$\frac{\partial R_i}{\beta_m} = -2(y_i - f(x_i))z_{mi}$$

$$\frac{\partial R_i}{\alpha_{ml}} = -2(y_i - f(x_i))\beta_m \sigma'(\alpha_m^T x_i) x_{il}$$

- Some redundant calculations can be saved in the above equations. The property is called **back-propagation**.
- We then do the update, at the t -th iteration

$$\beta_m^{(t+1)} = \beta_m^{(t)} - \gamma \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial R_i}{\beta_m^{(t)}}$$

$$\alpha_{ml}^{(t+1)} = \alpha_{ml}^{(t)} - \gamma \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{\partial R_i}{\alpha_{ml}^{(t)}}$$

where γ is a step size for gradient descent.

- The derivatives can be calculated by Chain Rules
- The algorithm can be implemented by a forward-backward sweep over the network
- In the **forward** pass, compute the hidden variables and the output $\hat{f}(x_i)$ based on the current weights $\theta^{(t)}$
- In the **backward** pass, compute the derivatives, and update $\theta^{(t)} \rightarrow \theta^{(t+1)}$

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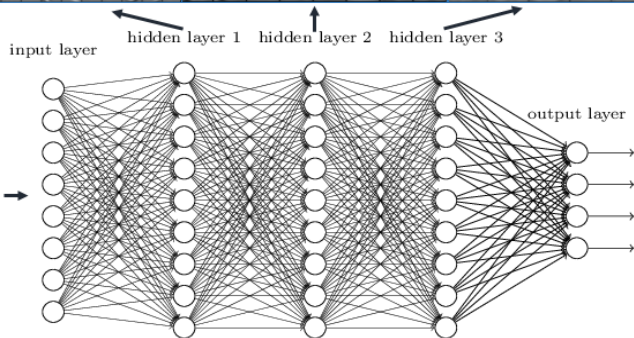
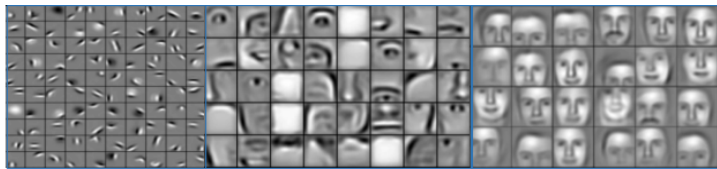
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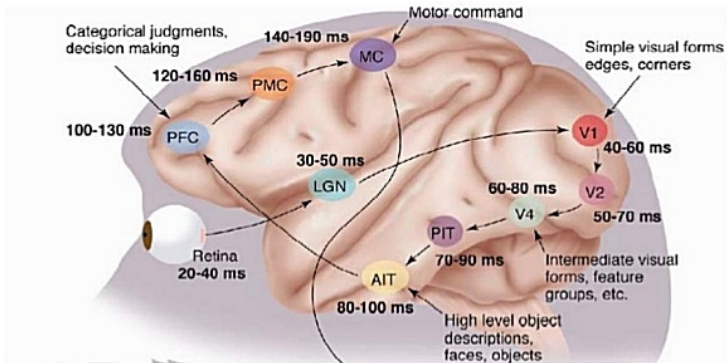
- Deep Neural Networks are one type of deep learning models.
- Deep neural Networks are just ... Neural Networks with more than one hidden layer.
- But neural networks have been around for more than 70 years... why it gets popular just in recent years?
 - computational issues
 - a better way to generate/construct features
 - ...

Deep neural
networks learn
hierarchical feature
representations



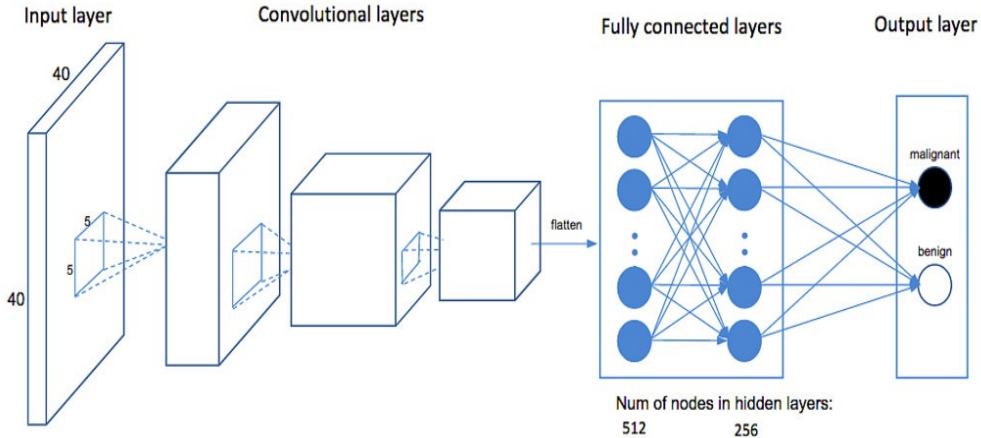
- One example is the **Convolutional Neural Networks**, which attempts to generate better features
- Instead of using all input features to create the linear combination, a “convolutional layer” builds neurons that each takes a subset (a local region) of the input features.
- This is motivated by the fact that biologically, the neurons only take signals from neighboring neurons.

Deep Neural Networks: Feature Hierarchy



Hierarchical information processing in the brain

(Source: Simon Thorpe)



See this hand digit writing recognition [example](#), and this interesting application by [Tesla](#).