

DSAI5207 Modern Deep Learning

Multilayer Perceptrons (MLP)

Xingyi Yang

Department of Data Science and Artificial Intelligence

Hong Kong Polytechnic University

Agenda for Today





► Limitations of Linear Models

► Multilayer Perceptrons (MLPs)

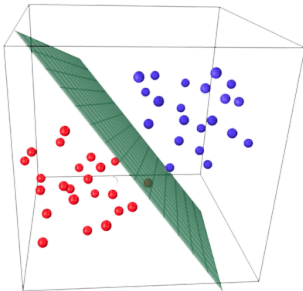
► MLPs in the Modern Era





- Recall the simple linear classifier (Perceptron):

$$y = f(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b)$$



- It defines a linear decision boundary (hyperplane) in the input space.
- Question:** Is a single linear unit enough for all problems?

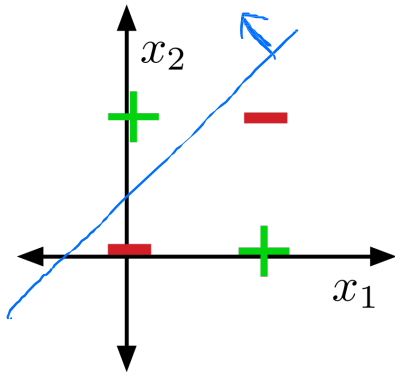
Example I: The XOR Problem



Consider the **XOR** logic function:

x_1	x_2	y
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

Can we separate the classes 0 and 1 with a single straight line?



No! XOR is not linearly separable.

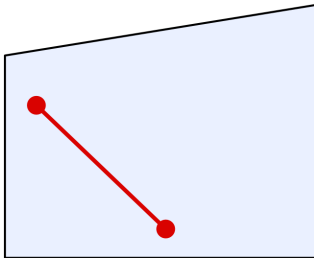
The XOR Problem are not Linear Separable



Convex Sets

A set S is convex if any line segment connecting points in S lies entirely within S .

$$\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2 \in S \implies \lambda \mathbf{x}_1 + (1 - \lambda) \mathbf{x}_2 \in S, \quad \forall \lambda \in [0, 1]$$

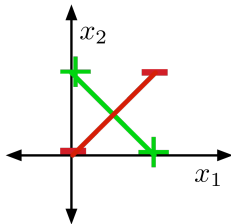


The XOR Problem are not Linear Separable



Let's prove that XOR is not linearly separable

- Linear classifiers divide space into two **half-spaces**, which are convex sets.



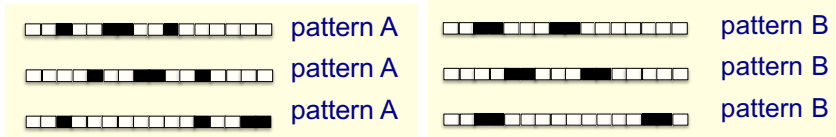
- If positive examples $(0, 1)$ and $(1, 0)$ are in the positive half-space, the line connecting them must be too.
- If negative examples $(0, 0)$ and $(1, 1)$ are in the negative half-space, their connecting line must be too.
- These two lines **intersect**. intersection can't lie in both half-spaces. **Contradiction!!!!**

Example II: Translation Invariance



Binary 16D vectors (white = 0, black = 1).

Goal: Distinguish patterns A and B under any cyclic translation.



Key Insight:

Linear classifier $y = \sum w_i x_i$ uses fixed per-pixel weights

⇒ Shifting the image x activates different weights w . → output changes

⇒ To be invariant (y stays same), all weights w_i must be equal

⇒ If all weights are equal, the model **only counts the number of black pixels**

⇒ Patterns A and B (same 1 count) are indistinguishable.

Conclusion: Linear classifiers **cannot be translation invariant!**

Overcoming Limits: Feature Maps



- We can solve **XOR** by mapping input to a higher-dimensional space $\psi(\mathbf{x})$.

Overcoming Limits: Feature Maps



- We can solve **XOR** by mapping input to a higher-dimensional space $\psi(\mathbf{x})$.
- Example: $\psi(\mathbf{x}) = [x_1, x_2, x_1x_2]^T$.

Overcoming Limits: Feature Maps



- We can solve **XOR** by mapping input to a higher-dimensional space $\psi(\mathbf{x})$.
- Example: $\psi(\mathbf{x}) = [x_1, x_2, x_1x_2]^T$.

Overcoming Limits: Feature Maps



- We can solve **XOR** by mapping input to a higher-dimensional space $\psi(\mathbf{x})$.
- Example: $\psi(\mathbf{x}) = [x_1, x_2, x_1x_2]^T$.

Input		Feature Space			Tgt
x_1	x_2	x_1	x_2	ψ_3	t
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	0

Insight: In 3D, the **Red** points are *above* the separator, while **Blue** points are *below* it.

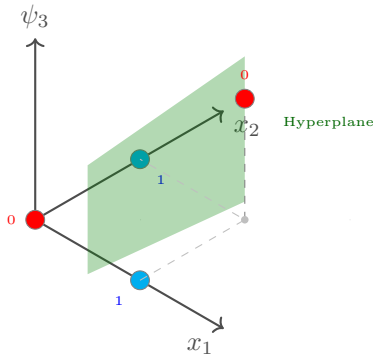
Overcoming Limits: Feature Maps



- We can solve **XOR** by mapping input to a higher-dimensional space $\psi(\mathbf{x})$.
- Example: $\psi(\mathbf{x}) = [x_1, x_2, x_1x_2]^T$.

Input		Feature Space			Tgt
x_1	x_2	x_1	x_2	ψ_3	t
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	0

Insight: In 3D, the **Red** points are *above* the separator, while **Blue** points are *below* it.



Overcoming Limits: Feature Maps

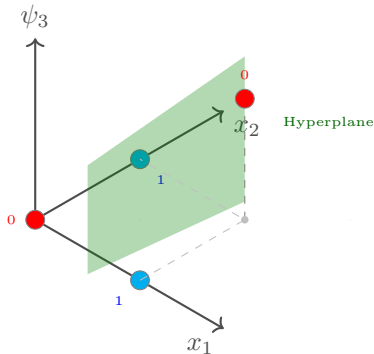


- We can solve **XOR** by mapping input to a higher-dimensional space $\psi(\mathbf{x})$.
- Example: $\psi(\mathbf{x}) = [x_1, x_2, x_1x_2]^T$.

Input		Feature Space			Tgt
x_1	x_2	x_1	x_2	ψ_3	t
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	0

Insight: In 3D, the **Red** points are *above* the separator, while **Blue** points are *below* it.

- In this new space, the problem is linearly separable.



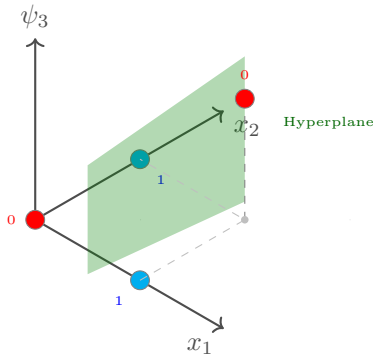
Overcoming Limits: Feature Maps



- We can solve **XOR** by mapping input to a higher-dimensional space $\psi(\mathbf{x})$.
- Example: $\psi(\mathbf{x}) = [x_1, x_2, x_1x_2]^T$.

Input		Feature Space			Tgt
x_1	x_2	x_1	x_2	ψ_3	t
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	0

Insight: In 3D, the **Red** points are *above* the separator, while **Blue** points are *below* it.



- In this new space, the problem is linearly separable.
- **Problem:** Hand-engineering features $\psi(\mathbf{x})$ is difficult and domain-specific (e.g., for pixels in images).

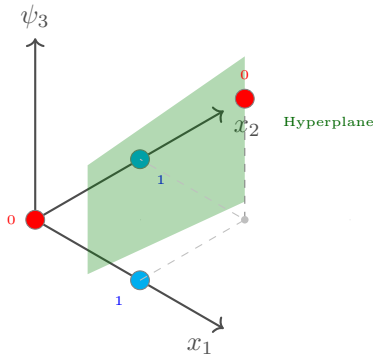
Overcoming Limits: Feature Maps



- We can solve **XOR** by mapping input to a higher-dimensional space $\psi(\mathbf{x})$.
- Example: $\psi(\mathbf{x}) = [x_1, x_2, x_1x_2]^T$.

Input		Feature Space			Tgt
x_1	x_2	x_1	x_2	ψ_3	t
0	0	0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0	0	1
1	1	1	1	1	0

Insight: In 3D, the **Red** points are *above* the separator, while **Blue** points are *below* it.



- In this new space, the problem is linearly separable.
- **Problem:** Hand-engineering features $\psi(\mathbf{x})$ is difficult and domain-specific (e.g., for pixels in images).
- **Solution:** Learn the non-linear mapping ψ automatically! → **Multiple Layer of Neural Networks.**



► Limitations of Linear Models

► **Multilayer Perceptrons (MLPs)**

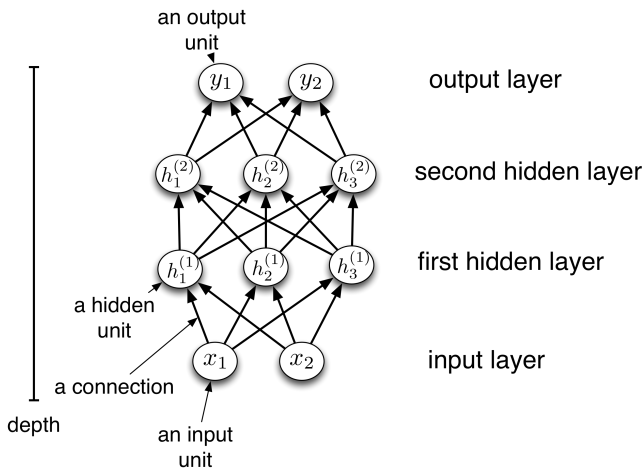
► MLPs in the Modern Era



Multilayer Perceptrons (MLPs)



- An MLP is a **Directed Acyclic Graph (DAG)** of units, organized in layers.
- Also known as a **Feed-Forward Network**.
- **Architecture:**
 1. **Input Layer:** Raw data \mathbf{x}
 2. **Hidden Layers:** Learn intermediate representations $\mathbf{h}^{(l)}$
 3. **Output Layer:** Predictions \mathbf{y}





- In the simplest case, all input units are connected to all output units. We call this a **fully connected layer**.

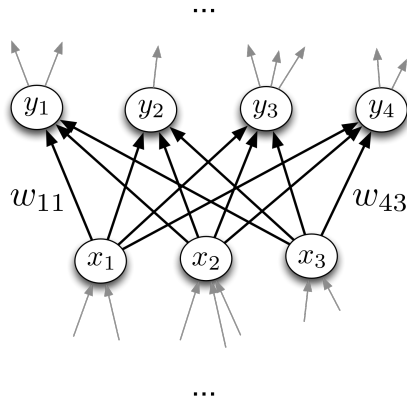
Layer l Computation

For every layer $l = 1 \dots L$:

$$\mathbf{z}^{(l)} = \mathbf{W}^{(l)} \mathbf{h}^{(l-1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(l)} \quad (\text{Linear})$$

$$\mathbf{h}^{(l)} = \phi(\mathbf{z}^{(l)}) \quad (\text{Non-linear})$$

- $\mathbf{W}^{(l)}$: Weight matrix (learnable parameters).
- $\mathbf{b}^{(l)}$: Bias vector.
- ϕ : Activation function (applied element-wise).





- What if we stack linear layers without ϕ ?

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}_2(\mathbf{W}_1\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{W}_2\mathbf{W}_1)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}'\mathbf{x}$$



- What if we stack linear layers without ϕ ?

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}_2(\mathbf{W}_1\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{W}_2\mathbf{W}_1)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}'\mathbf{x}$$

Crucial Insight

The composition of linear functions is just another linear function.

-



- What if we stack linear layers without ϕ ?

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}_2(\mathbf{W}_1\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{W}_2\mathbf{W}_1)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}'\mathbf{x}$$

Crucial Insight

The composition of linear functions is just another linear function.

-
- Deep linear networks have no more expressive power than a single linear layer!



- What if we stack linear layers without ϕ ?

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}_2(\mathbf{W}_1\mathbf{x}) = (\mathbf{W}_2\mathbf{W}_1)\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{W}'\mathbf{x}$$

Crucial Insight

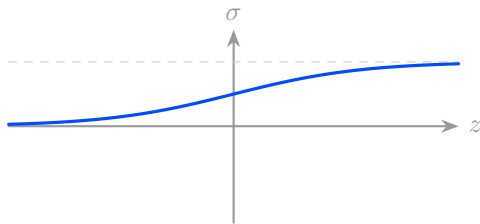
The composition of linear functions is just another linear function.

-
- Deep linear networks have no more expressive power than a single linear layer!
- **Activation functions** break linearity, allowing us to approximate curved boundaries and complex manifolds.

Common Activation Functions (1)



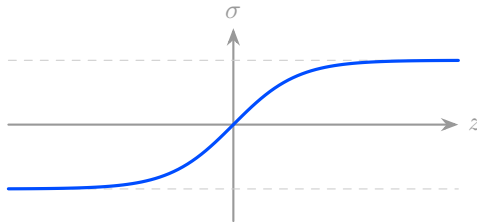
Sigmoid



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

- + Interpretation: Probability
- Vanishing gradients
- Output not zero-centered

Tanh



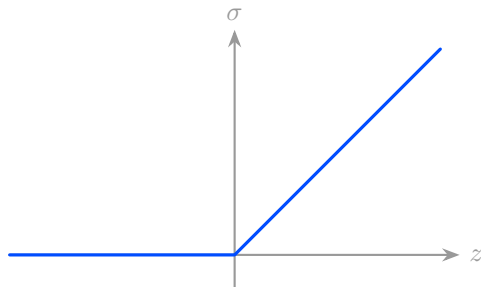
$$\sigma(z) = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}}$$

- + Zero-centered output
- + Stronger gradients than Sigmoid
- Still saturates (vanishing grad)

Common Activation Functions (2)



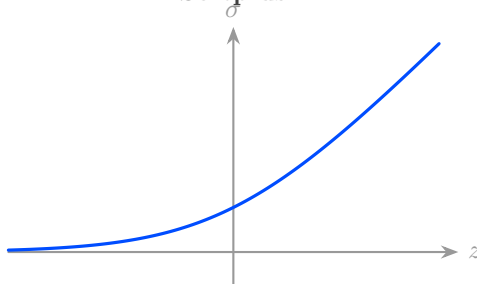
ReLU



$$\sigma(z) = \max(0, z)$$

- + Efficient; Sparse activations
- + No vanishing grad ($z > 0$)
- “Dead” neurons ($z < 0$)

Softplus



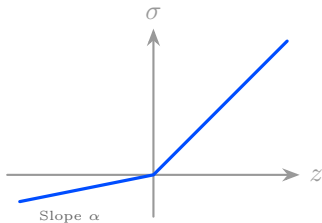
$$\sigma(z) = \ln(1 + e^z)$$

- + Smooth approx. of ReLU
- + Differentiable everywhere
- Computationally slower

Modern Activation Functions (3)



Leaky ReLU



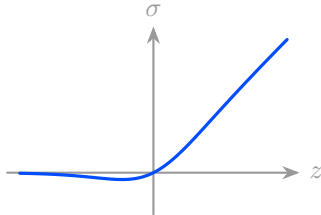
$$\sigma(z) = \max(\alpha z, z)$$

+ Fixes “Dead ReLU”

Note: α is small

Use: GANs, Deep MLPs

GELU



$$\sigma(z) \approx z\Phi(z)$$

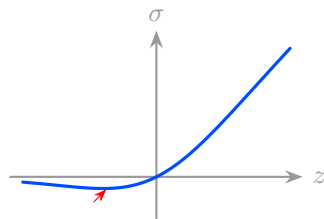
Note: $\Phi(z)$ is CDF of Normal

Core: GPT, BERT, ViT

+ Probabilistic

+ Optimization aid

Swish / SiLU



$$\sigma(z) = z \cdot \sigma_s(z)$$

Note: $\sigma_s(z)$ is Sigmoid

Core: EfficientNet, YOLO

+ Non-monotonic dip

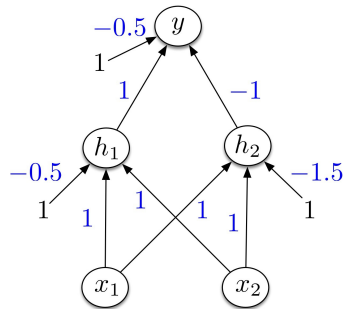
+ Self-gating

Solving XOR with an MLP



We can design a network that computes XOR *exactly* using hard threshold function:

$$\sigma(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } z \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



Logic Circuits

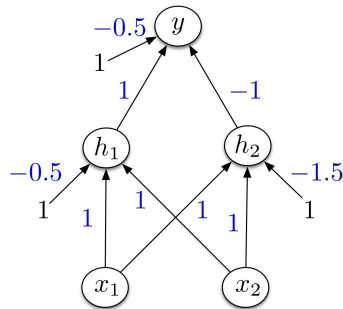
- h_1 acts as **AND** $= x_1 \wedge x_2$: $\sigma(x_1 + x_2 - 1.5)$

Solving XOR with an MLP



We can design a network that computes XOR *exactly* using hard threshold function:

$$\sigma(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } z \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



Logic Circuits

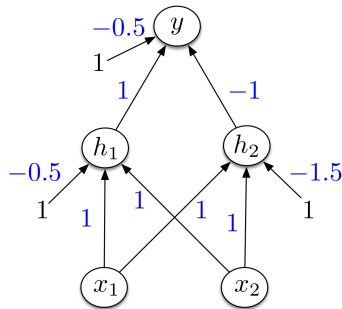
- h_1 acts as **AND** $= x_1 \wedge x_2$: $\sigma(x_1 + x_2 - 1.5)$
- h_2 acts as **OR** $= x_1 \vee x_2$: $\sigma(x_1 + x_2 - 0.5)$

Solving XOR with an MLP



We can design a network that computes XOR *exactly* using hard threshold function:

$$\sigma(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } z \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



Logic Circuits

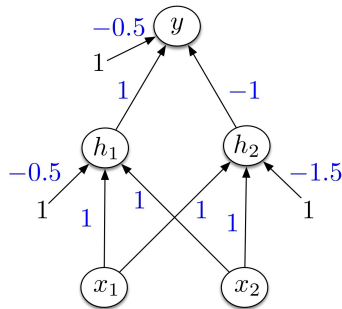
- h_1 acts as **AND** $= x_1 \wedge x_2$: $\sigma(x_1 + x_2 - 1.5)$
- h_2 acts as **OR** $= x_1 \vee x_2$: $\sigma(x_1 + x_2 - 0.5)$
- y acts as **XOR** $= (x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge \neg(x_1 \wedge x_2)$:
 $\sigma(h_2 - h_1 - 0.5)$

Solving XOR with an MLP



We can design a network that computes XOR *exactly* using hard threshold function:

$$\sigma(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } z \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



Logic Circuits

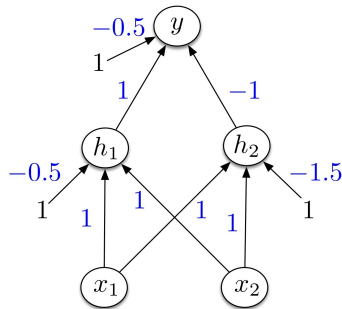
- h_1 acts as **AND** $= x_1 \wedge x_2$: $\sigma(x_1 + x_2 - 1.5)$
- h_2 acts as **OR** $= x_1 \vee x_2$: $\sigma(x_1 + x_2 - 0.5)$
- y acts as **XOR** $= (x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge \neg(x_1 \wedge x_2)$:
 $\sigma(h_2 - h_1 - 0.5)$

Solving XOR with an MLP



We can design a network that computes XOR *exactly* using hard threshold function:

$$\sigma(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } z \geq 0 \end{cases}$$



Logic Circuits

- h_1 acts as **AND** $= x_1 \wedge x_2$: $\sigma(x_1 + x_2 - 1.5)$
- h_2 acts as **OR** $= x_1 \vee x_2$: $\sigma(x_1 + x_2 - 0.5)$
- y acts as **XOR** $= (x_1 \vee x_2) \wedge \neg(x_1 \wedge x_2)$:
 $\sigma(h_2 - h_1 - 0.5)$

Trace for input (1, 1):

$$h_1 = \sigma(1 + 1 - 1.5) = \sigma(0.5) = 1$$

$$h_2 = \sigma(1 + 1 - 0.5) = \sigma(1.5) = 1$$

$$y = \sigma(1 - 1 - 0.5) = \sigma(-0.5) = 0$$



Each layer computes a function, so the network computes a composition of functions:

$$\mathbf{h}^{(1)} = f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})$$

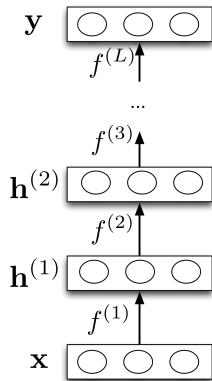
$$\mathbf{h}^{(2)} = f^{(2)}(\mathbf{h}^{(1)})$$

$$\vdots$$

$$\mathbf{y} = f^{(L)}(\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)})$$

Or more generally: $\mathbf{y} = f^{(L)} \circ f^{(L-1)} \circ \dots \circ f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x})$

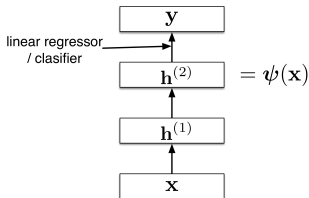
- Each layer transforms the input into a new, more abstract representation.
- The final layer produces the output based on these learned features.



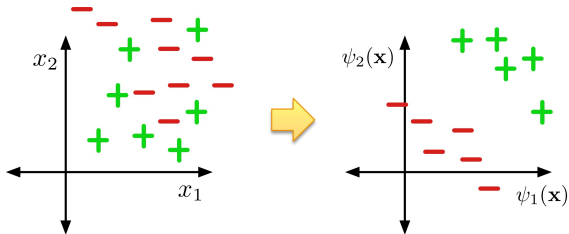
MLP as Feature Learning



- Neural nets can be viewed as a way of learning features:



- The goal:

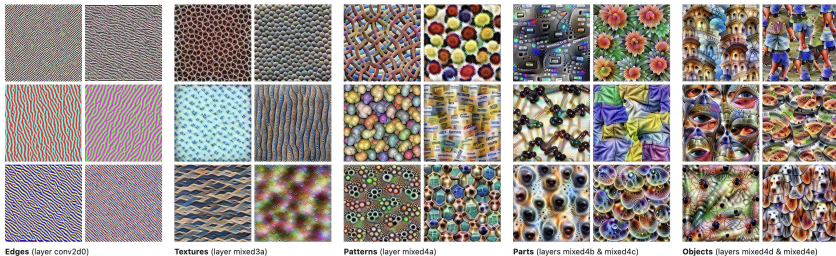


MLP as Feature Learning: Image Classification



Idea: When multiple layers are stacked, the network learns hierarchical features:

- **Lower layers:** Detect simple patterns such as edges.
- **Middle layers:** Combine edges into parts.
- **Higher layers:** Assemble parts into objects.



Example: GoogLeNet trained on ImageNet reveals how features evolve from edges to complex objects using *DeepDream*.



The choice of output function ϕ_{out} and Loss function \mathcal{L} depends on the task:

Task	Target t	Output Unit	Loss Function
Regression	$t \in \mathbb{R}$	Linear (Identity)	Squared Error
Binary Class.	$t \in \{0, 1\}$	Sigmoid $\sigma(z)$	Binary Cross-Entropy
Multi-class	$t \in \{1 \dots K\}$	Softmax	Cross-Entropy



Universal Approximation Theorem

A feed-forward neural network with a single hidden layer containing a finite number of neurons can approximate any continuous function on compact subsets of \mathbb{R}^n to arbitrary accuracy.



Universal Approximation Theorem

A feed-forward neural network with a single hidden layer containing a finite number of neurons can approximate any continuous function on compact subsets of \mathbb{R}^n to arbitrary accuracy.

- **Implication:** Neural networks are universal function approximators.
- **Caveat:** The theorem says a network *exists*, but doesn't say how to find it (optimization) or how large it needs to be (efficiency).
- Various activation sufficient for approximation.
- We often prefer **deep** (more layers) networks over wide ones for better generalization and parameter efficiency.



► Limitations of Linear Models

► Multilayer Perceptrons (MLPs)

► MLPs in the Modern Era





Myth

“Deep Learning replaced MLPs with ConvNets and Transformers.”



Myth

“Deep Learning replaced MLPs with ConvNets and Transformers.”

- **Reality: MLPs never left.** They just changed their name.
- In modern architectures (Transformers, NeRFs), MLPs typically constitute **2/3 of the total parameters**.
- In **NeRF**, the entire scene is an MLP.

Self-Attention

MLP / FFN
(Feed Forward)

Layer Norm

← In LLMs (GPT, Llama), this block runs on *every token* and consumes the majority of compute!

Role 1: The “Channel Mixer” (Transformers)



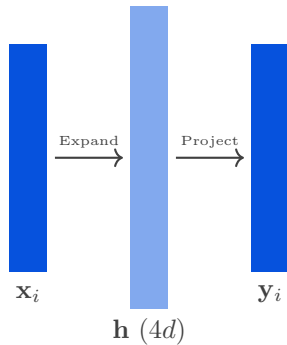
In Transformers (e.g., ChatGPT), we distinguish two types of operations:

1. Token Mixing (Attention)

- Mixes information *between* different words in the sequence.
- “Looking at other words”

2. Channel Mixing (MLP)

- Mixes information *within* a single word embedding.
- Processing the features extracted by attention.
- Applied **position-wise** (independently to every token).



$$\text{FFN}(x) = \phi(x\mathbf{W}_1 + \mathbf{b}_1)\mathbf{W}_2 + \mathbf{b}_2$$



The Hypothesis (Geva et al., 2021)

Transformer MLPs function as **associative memories**, storing factual knowledge in their weights.

The Mechanism:

1. Pattern Detection (The Key)

- The input \mathbf{x} acts as a **query**.
- It scans the rows of \mathbf{W}_1 to find a matching pattern (e.g., “Capital” + “France”).
- *Math:* $k = \sigma(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{W}_1^T)$

Role 2: Knowledge Storage (Key-Value Memories)



The Hypothesis (Geva et al., 2021)

Transformer MLPs function as **associative memories**, storing factual knowledge in their weights.

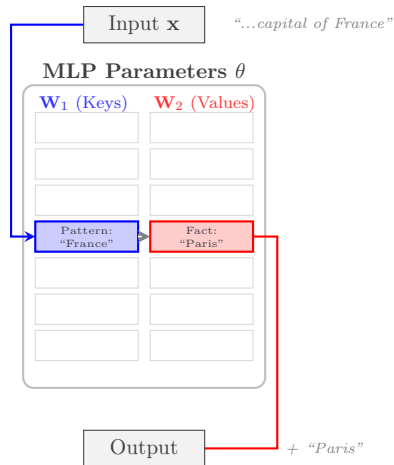
The Mechanism:

1. Pattern Detection (The Key)

- The input \mathbf{x} acts as a **query**.
- It scans the rows of \mathbf{W}_1 to find a matching pattern (e.g., “Capital” + “France”).
- *Math:* $k = \sigma(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{W}_1^T)$

2. Fact Retrieval (The Value)

- The active neuron “unlocks” the corresponding row in \mathbf{W}_2 .
- The network retrieves the stored vector (e.g., “Paris”).
- *Math:* $\mathbf{y} = k \cdot \mathbf{W}_2$



Role 3: Implicit Neural Representations (INRs)

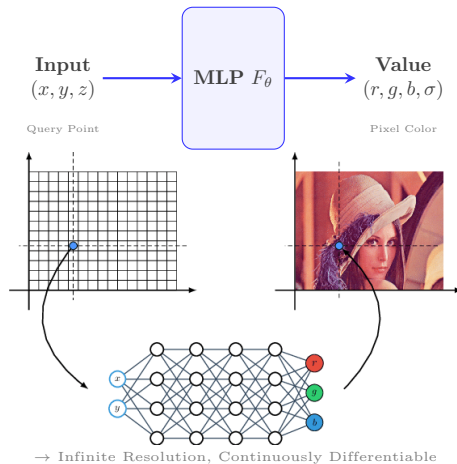


Concept: Functions as Data

MLPs are not just for *processing* data; they can **be** the data.

Coordinate-based MLPs:

- Instead of storing data in a discrete grid (pixels, voxels), we represent it as a continuous function F_θ .



Role 3: Implicit Neural Representations (INRs)



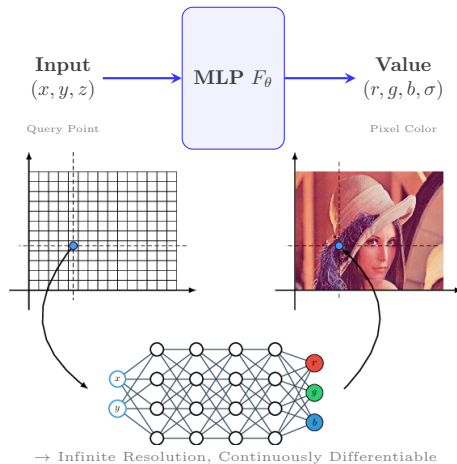
Concept: Functions as Data

MLPs are not just for *processing* data; they can be the data.

Coordinate-based MLPs:

- Instead of storing data in a discrete grid (pixels, voxels), we represent it as a continuous function F_θ .
- F_θ as a **coordinate-wise look-up table**, mapping a position \mathbf{x} to a value:

$$F_\theta(\mathbf{x}) \approx \text{Signal}(\mathbf{x})$$



Role 3: Implicit Neural Representations (INRs)



Concept: Functions as Data

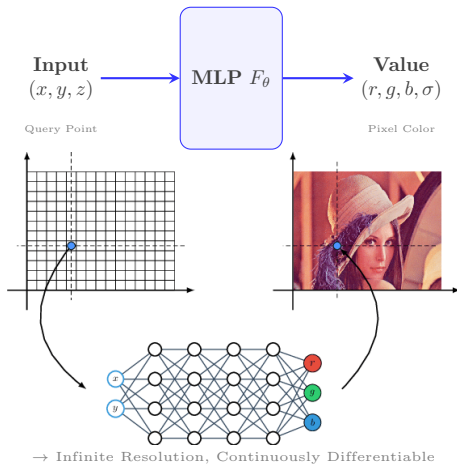
MLPs are not just for *processing* data; they can be the data.

Coordinate-based MLPs:

- Instead of storing data in a discrete grid (pixels, voxels), we represent it as a continuous function F_θ .
- F_θ as a **coordinate-wise look-up table**, mapping a position \mathbf{x} to a value:

$$F_\theta(\mathbf{x}) \approx \text{Signal}(\mathbf{x})$$

- The network weights θ act as the **compression storage**.



Role 3: Implicit Neural Representations (INRs)



Concept: Functions as Data

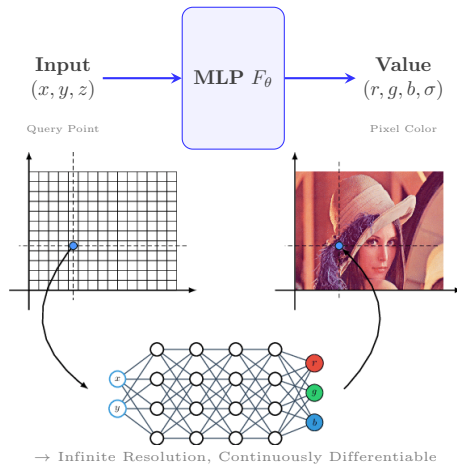
MLPs are not just for *processing* data; they can be the data.

Coordinate-based MLPs:

- Instead of storing data in a discrete grid (pixels, voxels), we represent it as a continuous function F_θ .
- F_θ as a **coordinate-wise look-up table**, mapping a position \mathbf{x} to a value:

$$F_\theta(\mathbf{x}) \approx \text{Signal}(\mathbf{x})$$

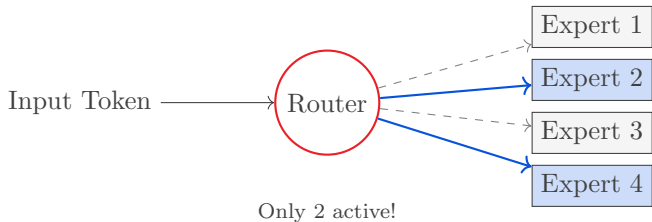
- The network weights θ act as the **compression storage**.
- **Example:** neural radiance fields (NeRFs) for 3D rendering.



Role 4: Mixture of Experts (MoE)



- As models grow, dense MLPs become too expensive to compute.
- **Solution: Mixture of Experts (MoE).**
- Replace one giant MLP with N smaller “expert” MLPs.
- A **Router** network selects only the top- k (e.g., 2) experts for each token.



Impact: Massive capacity (params) with low inference cost (FLOPs). Used in **Mixtral**, **GPT-4**.



1. **Linear Models** are limited (XOR problem, no compositionality).
2. **MLPs** introduce non-linearity via activation functions (σ), allowing universal approximation.
3. **Deep Learning** leverages depth to learn hierarchical features efficiently.
4. **Modern Usage:** MLPs are the workhorse of Transformers (Channel Mixing) and NeRFs.



The Big Question

The Universal Approximation Theorem guarantees that there exists a set of weights \mathbf{W}^* that approximates our function $f(x)$.

But how do we find \mathbf{W}^* ?



The Big Question

The Universal Approximation Theorem guarantees that there exists a set of weights \mathbf{W}^* that approximates our function $f(x)$.

But how do we find \mathbf{W}^* ?

We treat this as an **Optimization Problem**:

1. Define a **Loss Function** $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{t})$ that measures “badness”.
2. Minimize this loss w.r.t parameters $\theta = \{\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{b}\}$.
3. Use **Gradient Descent**: $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}$.



The Big Question

The Universal Approximation Theorem guarantees that there exists a set of weights \mathbf{W}^* that approximates our function $f(x)$.

But how do we find \mathbf{W}^* ?

We treat this as an **Optimization Problem**:

1. Define a **Loss Function** $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{t})$ that measures “badness”.
2. Minimize this loss w.r.t parameters $\theta = \{\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{b}\}$.
3. Use **Gradient Descent**: $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta \nabla_{\theta} \mathcal{L}$.

To do this, we will invent **Backpropagation** for neural nets.



See how to do backprop in next part!