



CSC4007 Advanced Machine Learning

Lesson 08: Neural Networks

by Vien Ngo
EEECS / ECIT / DSSC

Some slides adapted from Barry Devereux, Geoffrey Hinton, Andrew Ng, Kenrick Mock

Outline

- Neural network basics and representation
- Perceptron learning, multi-layer perceptron
- Neural network training: Backpropagation
- Modern neural network architecture (a.k.a Deep learning):
 - Convolutional neural network (CNN)
 - Recurrent neural network (RNN), long-short term memory network (LSTM)

Neural Network History

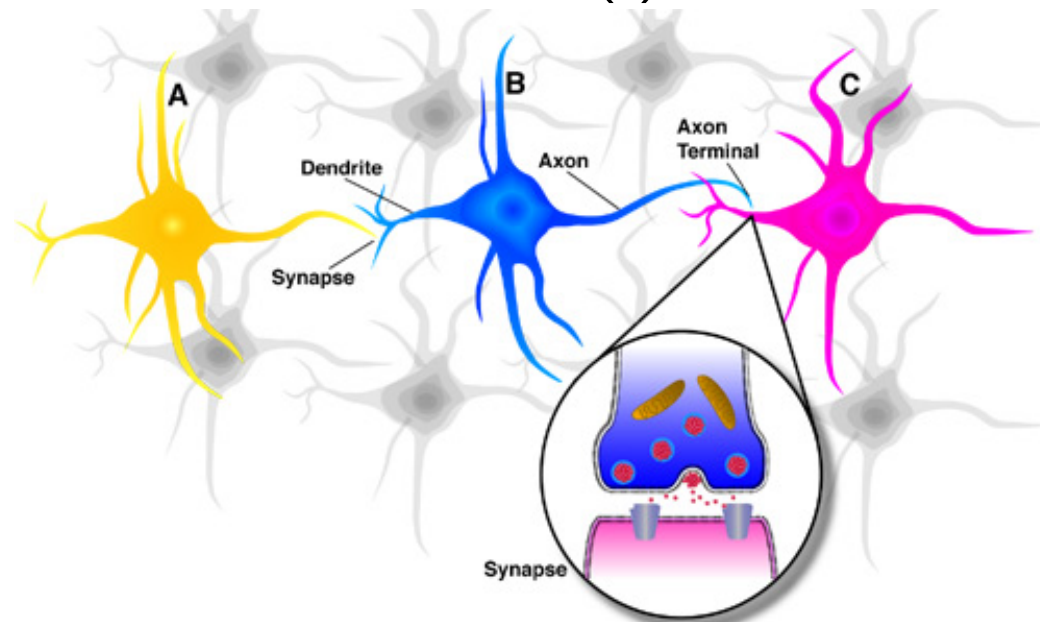
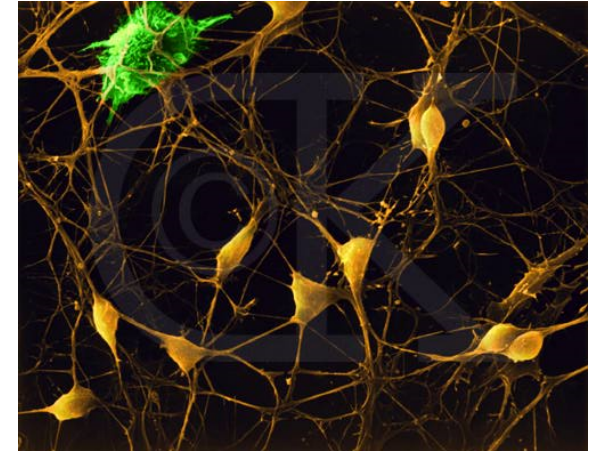
- History traces back to the 40's but became popular in the 80's with work by Hopfield, Rumelhart, Hinton, and McClelland
- Peaked in the 90's. Today:
 - Hundreds of variants
 - Less a model of the actual brain than a useful tool, but still some debate
- Numerous applications
 - Handwriting, face, speech recognition
 - Vehicles that drive themselves
 - Models of reading, sentence production, dreaming
- Recent major resurgence
 - NNs are computationally expensive, so only recently large scale neural networks became computationally feasible

Reasons to study neural computation

- To understand how the brain actually works.
 - It's very big and very complicated and made of stuff that dies when you poke it around. So we need to use computer simulations.
- To understand a style of parallel computation inspired by neurons and their adaptive connections.
 - Very different style from sequential computation.
 - should be good for things that brains are good at (e.g. vision)
 - should be bad for things that brains are bad at (e.g. 23 x 71)
- To solve practical problems by using novel learning algorithms inspired by the brain (this lesson)
 - Learning algorithms can be very useful even if they are not how the brain actually works.

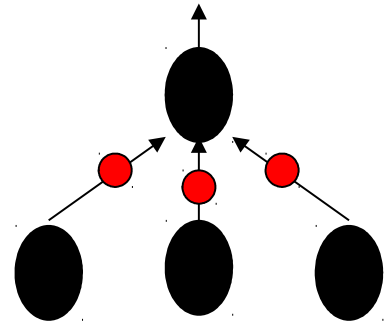
Neurons in the Brain

- Although heterogeneous, at a low level the brain is composed of neurons
 - A neuron receives input from other neurons (generally thousands) from its synapses (can be adapted ~ learning)
 - Inputs are approximately summed
 - When the input exceeds a threshold the neuron sends an electrical spike that travels from the body, down the axon, to the next neuron(s)



How the brain works on one slide!

- Each neuron receives inputs from other neurons
 - A few neurons also connect to receptors.
 - Cortical neurons use spikes to communicate.
- The effect of each input line on the neuron is controlled by a synaptic weight
 - The weights can be positive or negative.
- The synaptic weights **adapt** so that the whole network learns to perform useful computations
 - Recognizing objects, understanding language, making plans, controlling the body.
- You have about 10^{11} neurons each with about 10^4 weights.
 - A huge number of weights can affect the computation in a very short time. Much better bandwidth than a workstation.



Idealized Neurons

- To model things we have to idealize them (e.g. atoms)
 - Idealization removes complicated details that are not essential for understanding the main principles.
 - It allows us to apply mathematics and to make analogies to other, familiar systems.
 - Once we understand the basic principles, its easy to add complexity to make the model more faithful.
- It is often worth understanding models that are known to be wrong (but we must not forget that they are wrong!)
 - E.g. neurons that communicate real values rather than discrete spikes of activity.

Linear Neurons

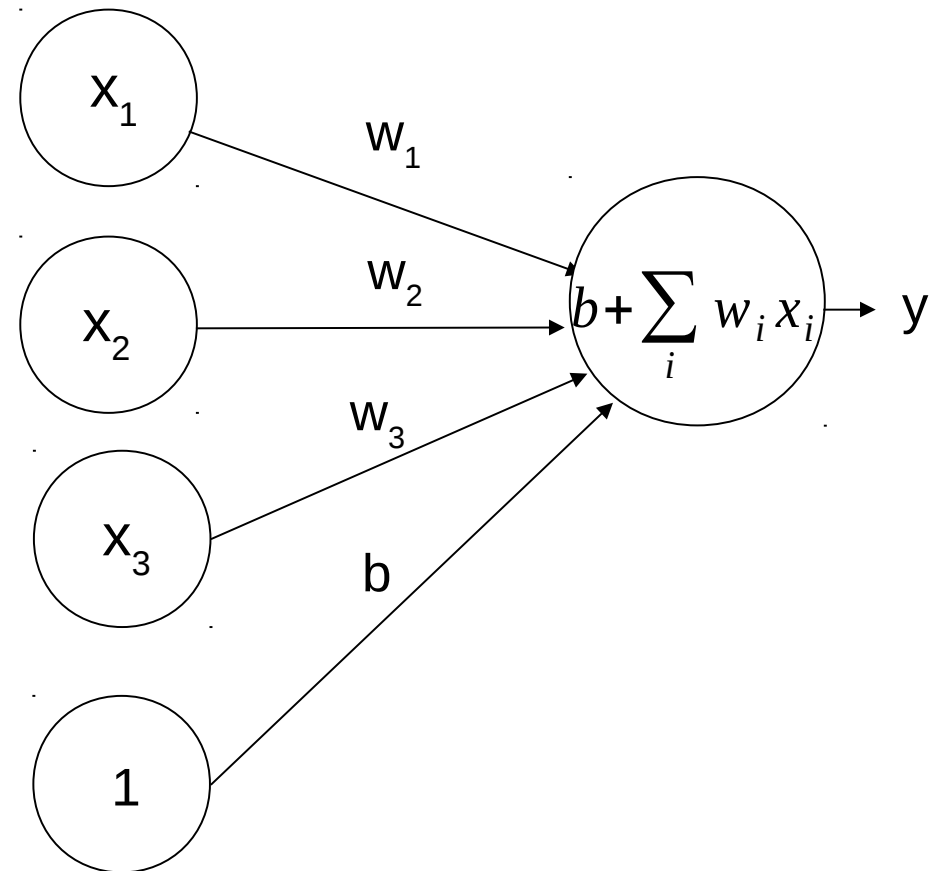
- These are simple but computationally limited
 - If we can make them learn we **may** get insight into more complicated neurons.

Diagram illustrating the mathematical formula for a linear neuron output:

$$y = b + \sum_i x_i w_i$$

Annotations:

- bias**: points to b
- i^{th} input dimension**: points to x_i
- output**: points to y
- index over input connections**: points to i
- weight on i^{th} dimension**: points to w_i



Binary threshold neurons

- There are two equivalent ways to write the equations for a binary threshold neuron:

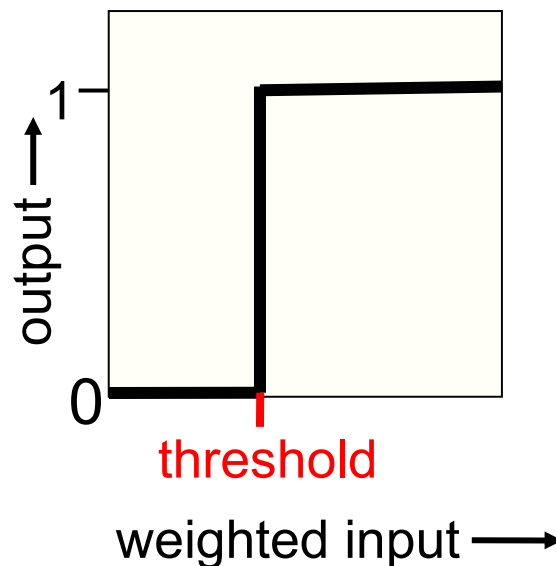
$$z = \sum_i x_i w_i$$

$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z > \theta \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\theta = -b$$

$$z = b + \sum_i x_i w_i$$

$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

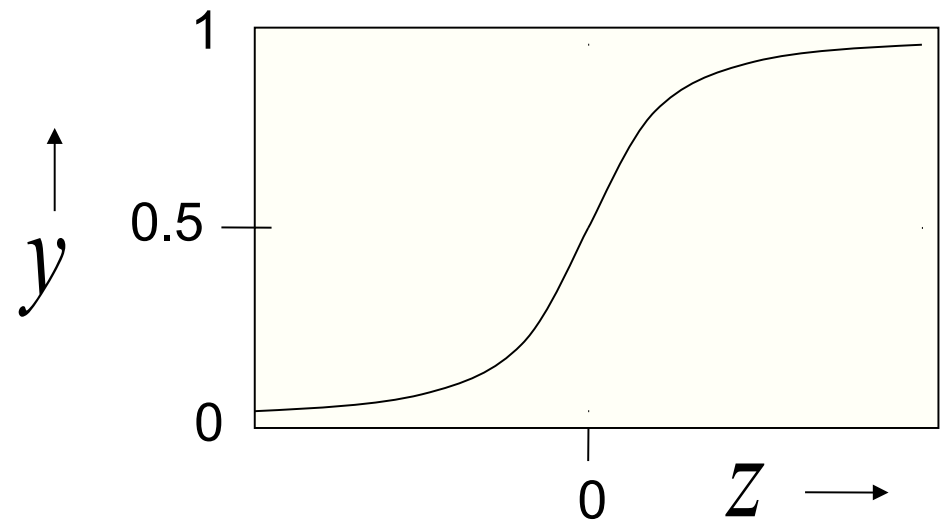


Sigmoid neurons

- These give a real-valued output that is a smooth and bounded function of their total input.
 - Typically they use the logistic function
 - They have nice derivatives which make learning easy (we will learn backpropagation).

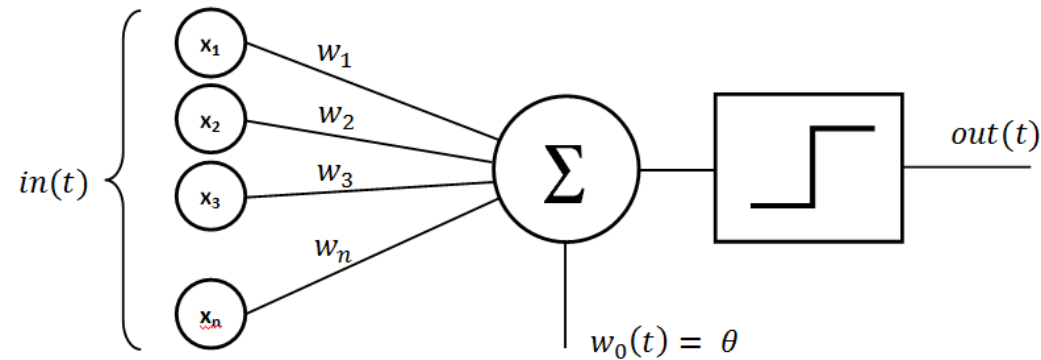
$$z = b + \sum_i x_i w_i$$

$$y = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

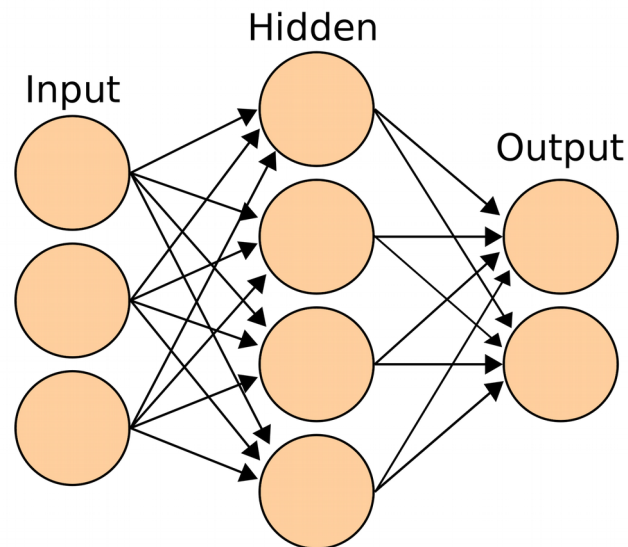


Simple Neural Networks

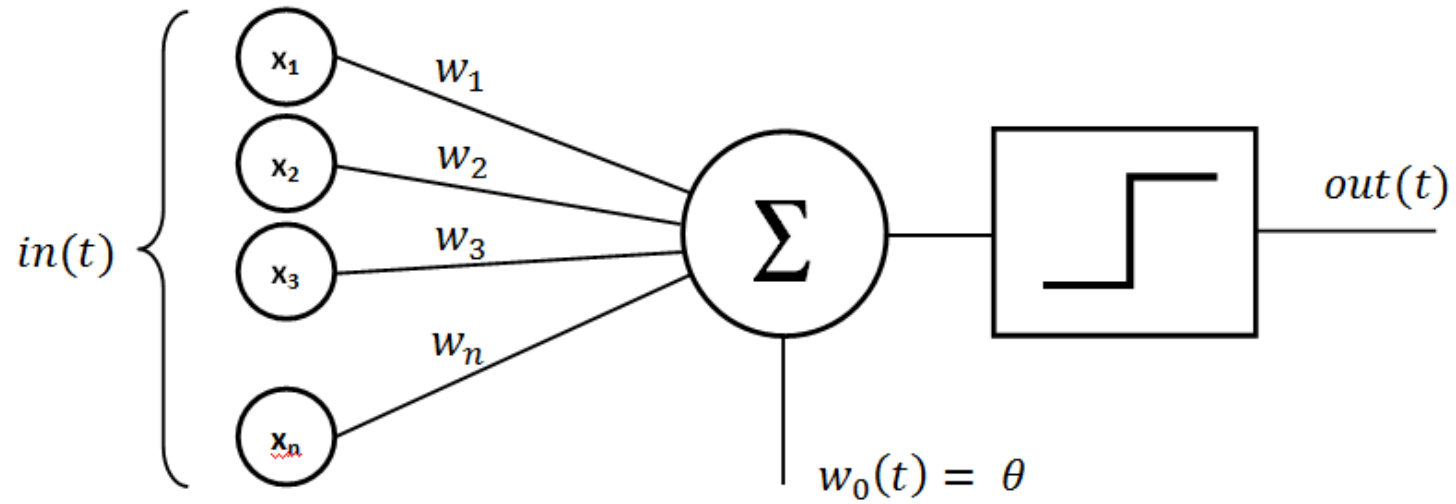
- Perceptron



- Multi-layer Perceptron

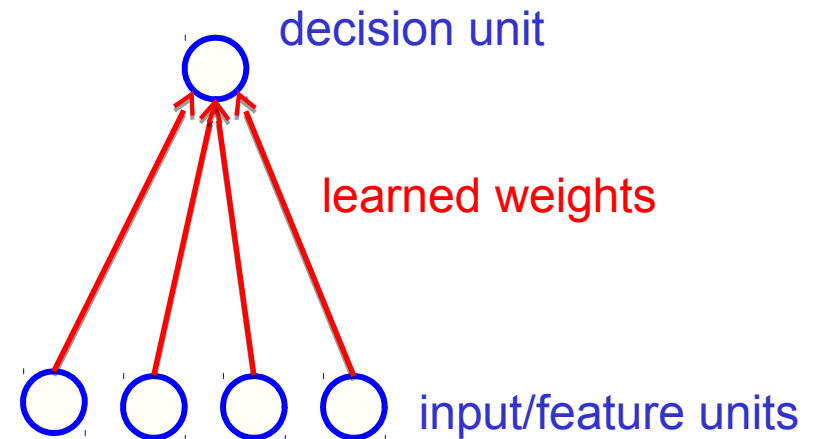


Perceptron



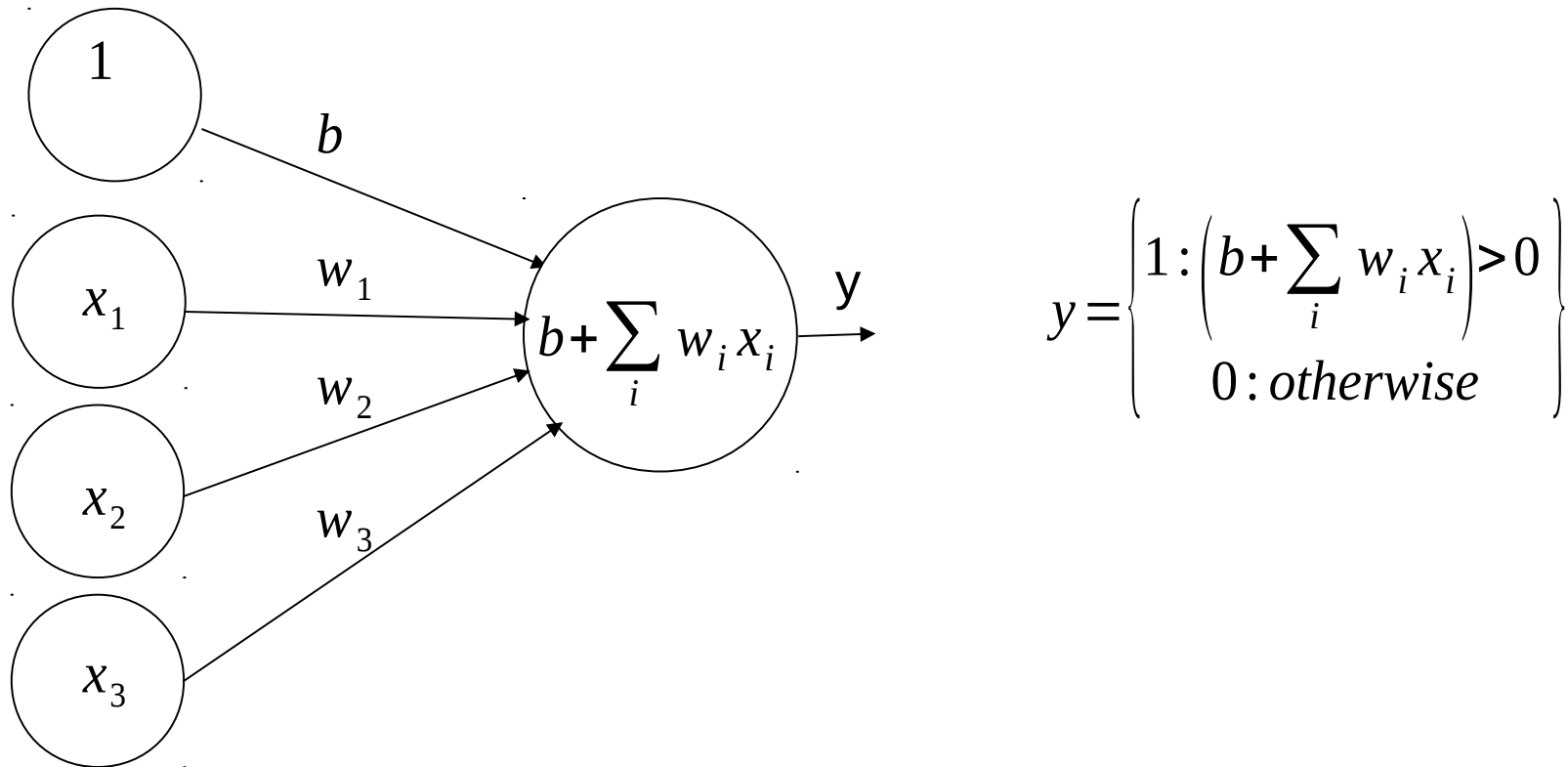
The standard Perceptron architecture

- **Learn** how to weight each of the input/feature variables to get a single scalar quantity.
- If this quantity is above some threshold, decide that the input vector is a positive example of the target class.
- The simplest neural network algorithm for supervised learning of **binary classification**



Perceptrons

- Essentially a linear discriminant composed of nodes, weights
- It is based on a linear neuron and a binary threshold neuron.



E.g.: Input $x = [x_1, x_2, x_3]$ is a 3-dimensional vector

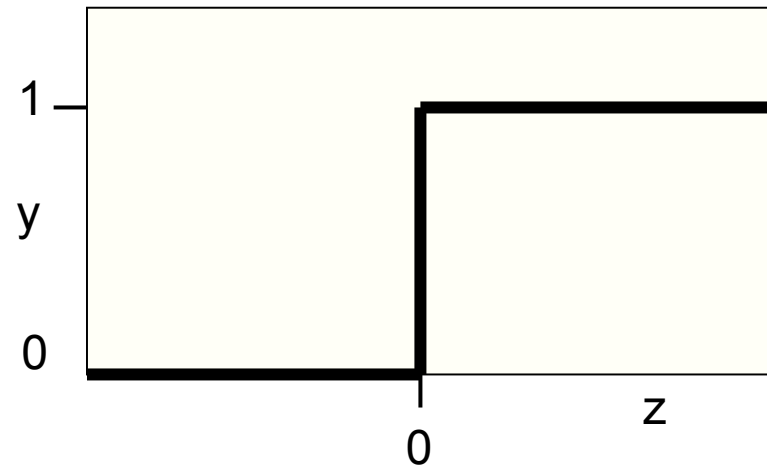
The weights are $w = [b, w_1, w_2, w_3]$ is a 4-dimensional vector

The bias is b

Perceptrons: Binary threshold neurons

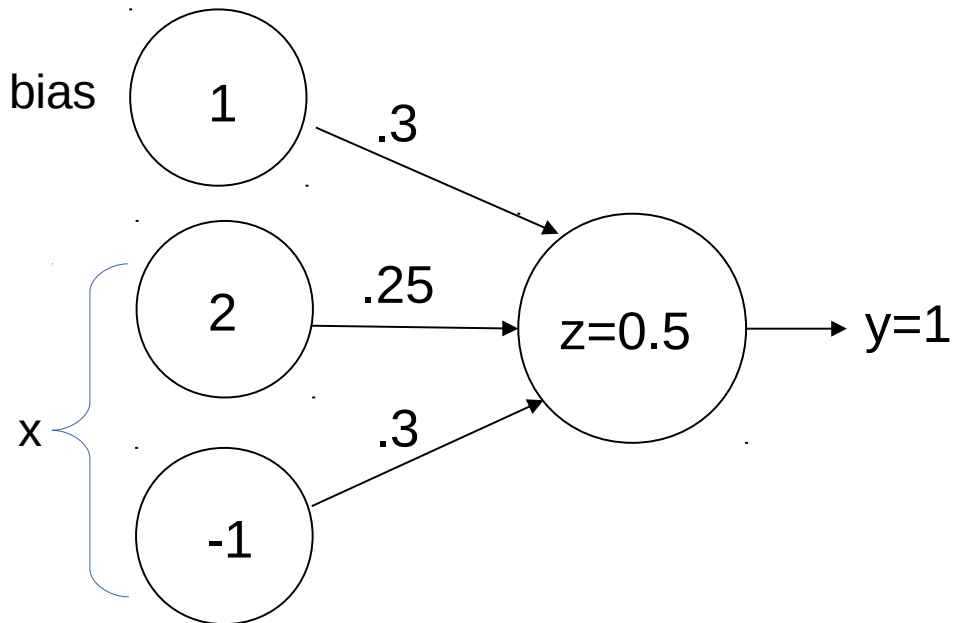
- McCulloch-Pitts (1943)
 - First compute a weighted sum of the inputs from other neurons (plus a bias).
 - Then output a 1 if the weighted sum exceeds zero.

$$z = b + \sum_i x_i w_i$$
$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } z > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



Perceptron: Example

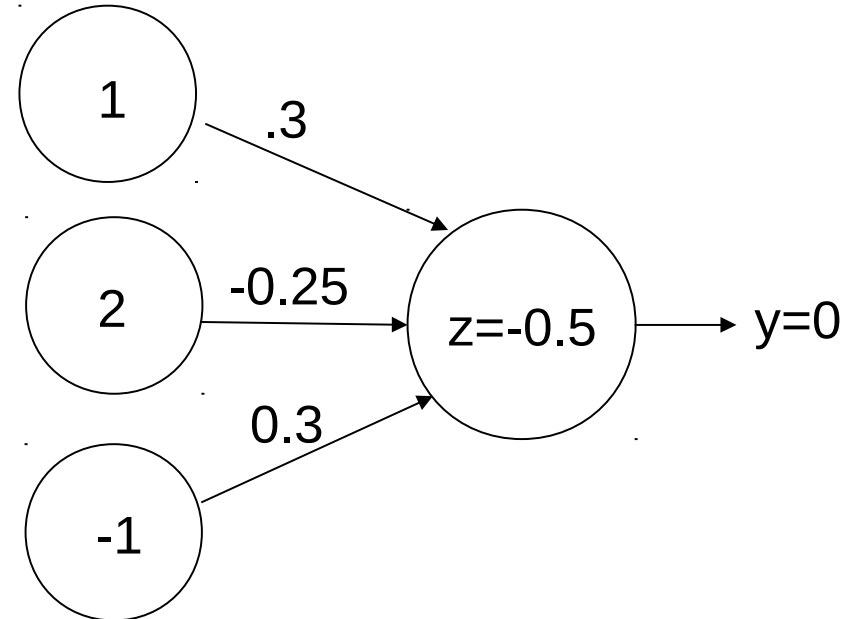
Input $x=[2,-1]$ weights $w=[0.3,0.25,0.3]$



$$z = 1(0.3) + 2(0.25) - 1(0.3) = 0.5$$

$$z > 0 \longrightarrow y = 1$$

weights $w=[0.3,-0.25,0.3]$



$$Z = 1(0.3) - 2(0.25) - 1(0.3) = -0.5$$

$$z < 0 \longrightarrow y = 0$$

The Perceptron: Learning

- Given a dataset with N labeled data $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$
- Learning consists of modifying the weights.

- We initialise weights to be random.
e.g. randomize $w = [b, w_1, w_2, w_3]$

Training

Loop:

- For each training item i :

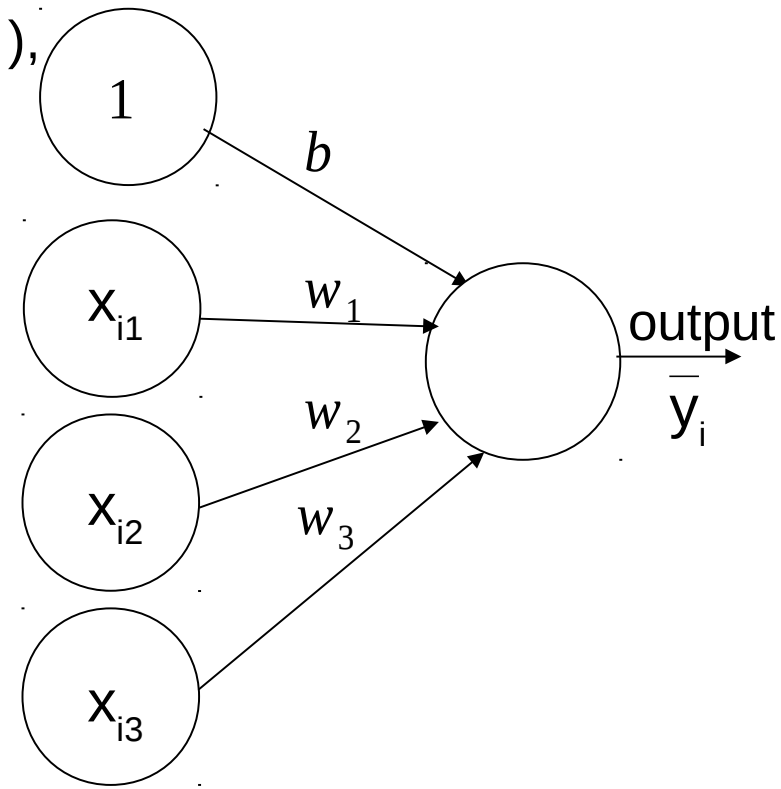
1. Present x_i as input to the perceptron
2. Compute the output \bar{y}_i (predicted)
3. Compute the **error** (mismatch between predicted and correct output):

$$e_i = y_i - \bar{y}_i$$

4. Adjust the weights according to the error:

$$w = w + \alpha e_i \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_i \end{bmatrix}$$

α is a learning rate (step-size)



$$\bar{y}_i = \begin{cases} 1 & : (b + w_1 x_{i1} + w_2 x_{i2} + w_3 x_{i3}) > 0 \\ 0 & : \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{bmatrix} + \alpha e_i \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_{i1} \\ x_{i2} \\ x_{i3} \end{bmatrix}$$

The Perceptron: Learning

- Given a dataset with N labeled data $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$
- Learning consists of modifying the weights.

- We initialise weights to be random.

$$w = [b, w_1, w_2, w_3]$$

- Training

- Loop:

- For each training item i :

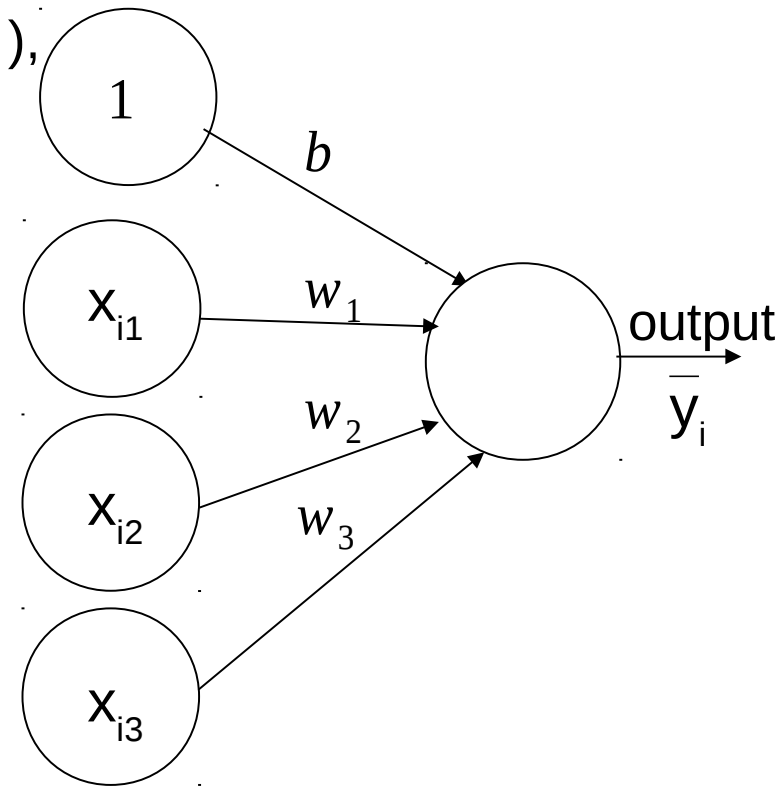
1. Present x_i as input to the perceptron
2. Compute the output \bar{y}_i (predicted)
3. Compute the **error** (mismatch between predicted and correct output):

$$e_i = y_i - \bar{y}_i$$

4. Adjust the weights according to the error:

$$w = w + \alpha e_i \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_i \end{bmatrix}$$

- Terminate when certain accuracy reached.



The Perceptron: Learning

- Given a dataset with N labeled data $(x_1, y_1), (x_2, y_2), \dots, (x_N, y_N)$
- Learning consists of modifying the weights.

- We initialise weights to be random.

$$w = [b, w_1, w_2, w_3]$$

- Training

- Loop:

- For each training item i :

1. Present x_i as input to the perceptron
2. Compute the output \bar{y}_i (predicted)
3. Compute the **error** (mismatch between predicted and correct output):

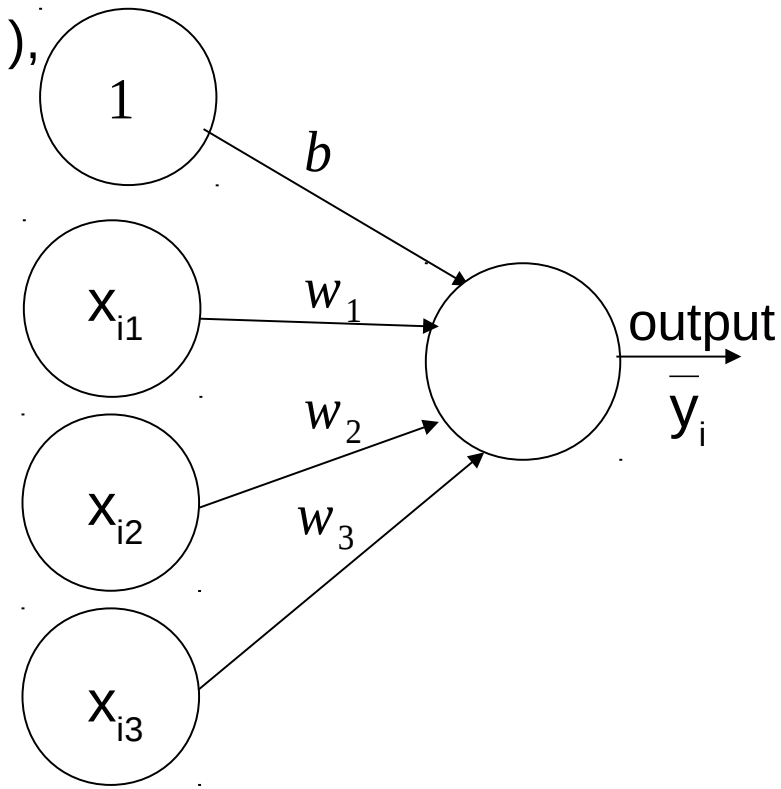
$$e_i = y_i - \bar{y}_i$$

4. Adjust the weights according to the error:

$$w = w + \alpha e_i \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ x_i \end{bmatrix}$$

One iteration: called an epoch

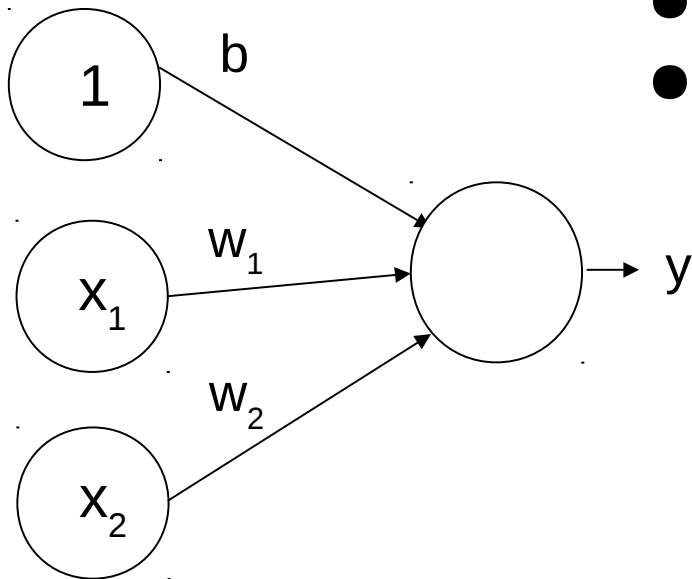
(when the training process has one complete pass through the training dataset)



Perceptron Example: AND function

- Two input nodes (with bias term): $x = [1, x_1, x_2]$
- No hidden layer
- One output node: y
- The weights of this network: $w = [b, w_1, w_2]$

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

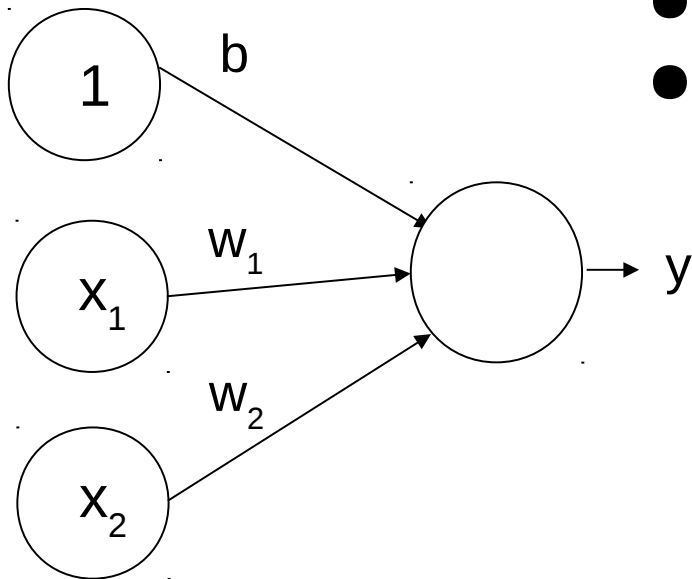


- Initialize: $w = [0.1, 0.2, -0.2]$, set $\alpha = 0.5$
- Loop:
 - For each training instance:
 - $x = [1, 0, 0]$,
 - Compute $1 + 0 \cdot 0.2 - 0 \cdot 0.2 = 1 > 0$, predict $\bar{y} = 1$.
 - The error is $e = y - \bar{y} = 0 - 1 = -1$
 - Update $w = w - 0.5 \cdot 1 \cdot [1, 0, 0] = [-0.4, 0.2, -0.2]$
 - $x = [1, 0, 1]$,
 - Compute $-0.4 + 0 \cdot 0.2 - 1 \cdot 0.2 = -0.6 < 0$, predict $\bar{y} = 0$
 - The error is $e = y - \bar{y} = 0 - 0 = 0$
 - Update $w = w + 0.5 \cdot 0 \cdot [1, 0, 1] = [-0.4, 0.2, -0.2]$

Perceptron Example: AND function

- Two input nodes (with bias term): $x = [1, x_1, x_2]$
- No hidden layer
- One output node: y
- The weights of this network: $w = [b, w_1, w_2]$

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

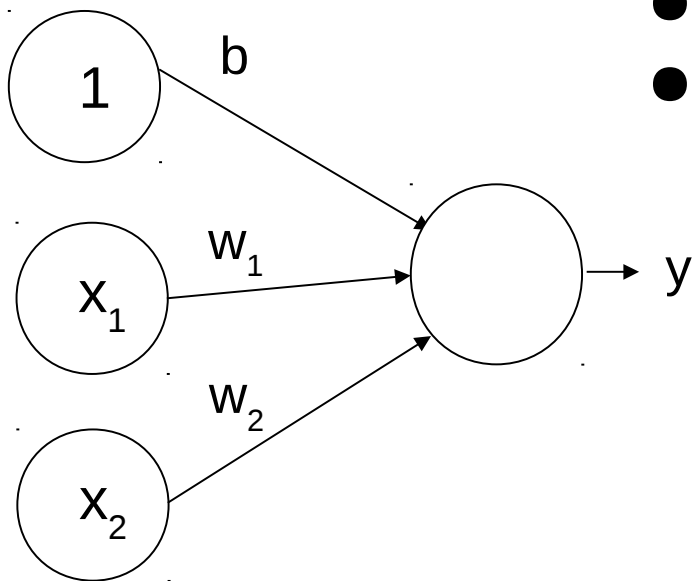


- Initialize: $w = [0.1, 0.2, -0.2]$, set $\alpha = 0.5$
- Loop:
 - For each training instance (cont'd):
 - $x = [1, 1, 0]$,
 - Compute $-0.4 + 1 * 0.2 - 0 * 0.2 = -0.2 < 0$, predict $\bar{y} = 0$
 - The error is $e = y - \bar{y} = 0 - 0 = 0$
 - Update $w = w + 0.5 * 0 * [1, 0, 0] = [-0.4, 0.2, -0.2]$
 - $x = [1, 1, 1]$,
 - Compute $-0.4 + 1 * 0.2 - 1 * 0.2 = -0.4 < 0$, predict $\bar{y} = 0$
 - The error is $e = y - \bar{y} = 1 - 0 = 1$
 - Update $w = w + 0.5 * 1 * [1, 1, 1] = [0.1, 0.7, 0.3]$

Perceptron Example: AND function

- Two input nodes (with bias term): $x = [1, x_1, x_2]$
- No hidden layer
- One output node: y
- The weights of this network: $w = [b, w_1, w_2]$

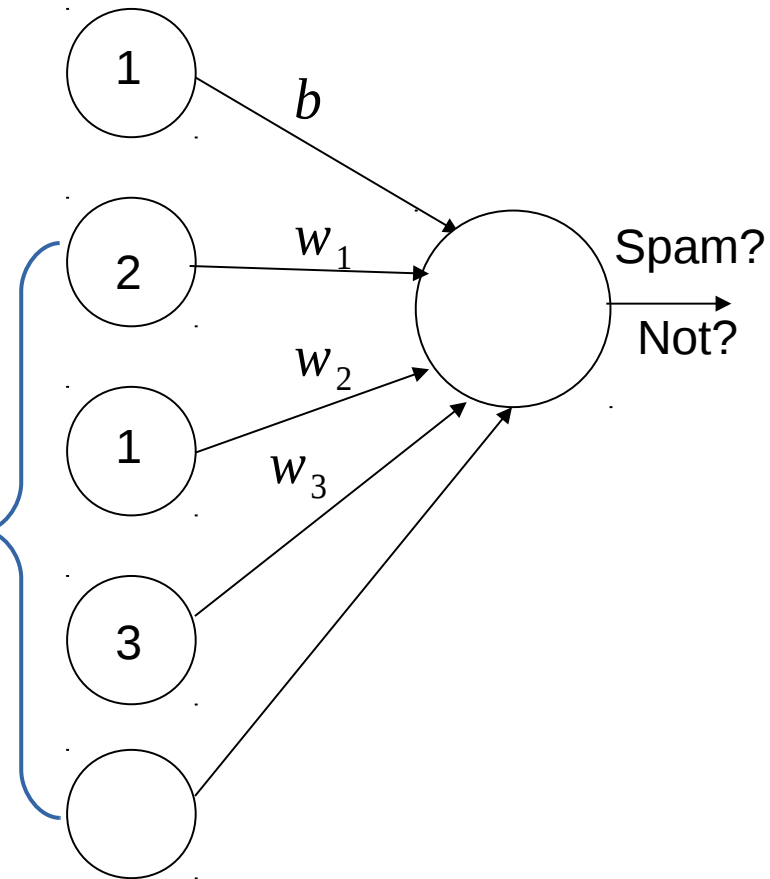
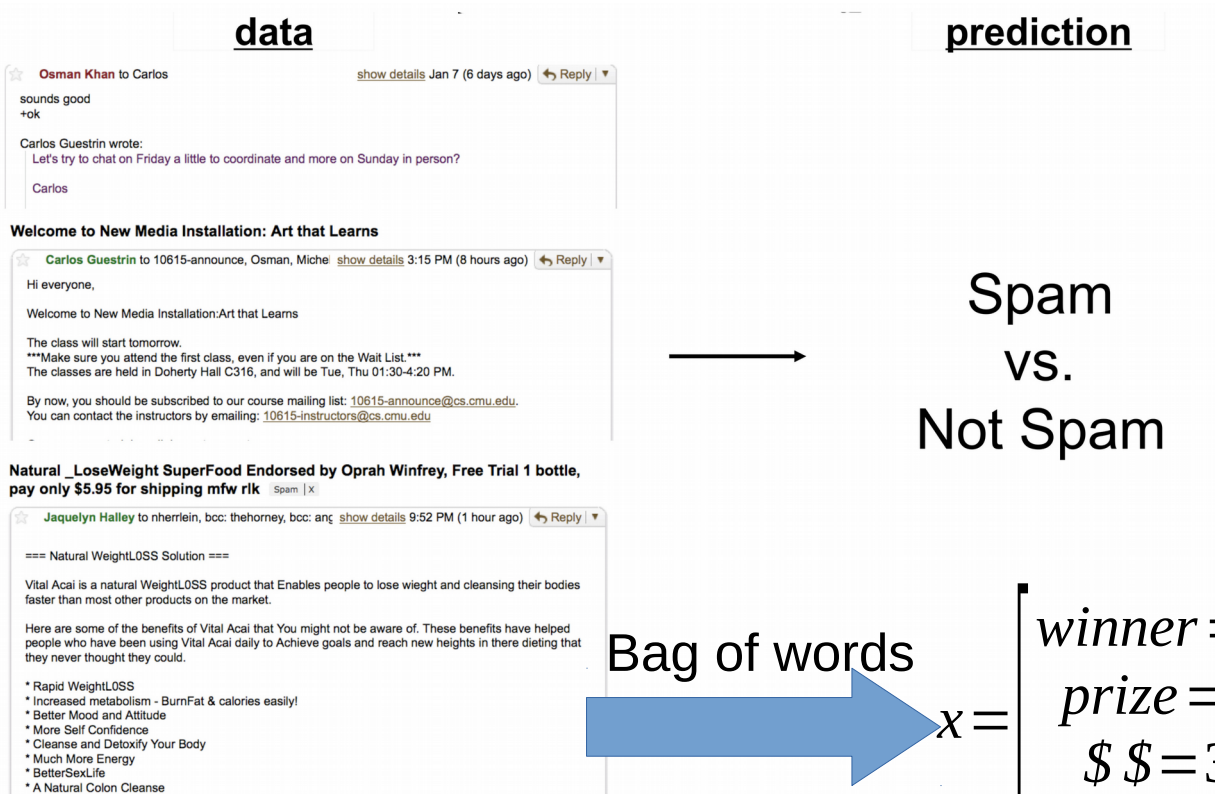
x_1	x_2	y
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1



- Initialize: $w = [0.1, 0.2, -0.2]$, set $\alpha = 0.5$
- Loop:
 - After the first epoch
 - $w = [0.1, 0.7, 0.3]$

Perceptron: Applications?

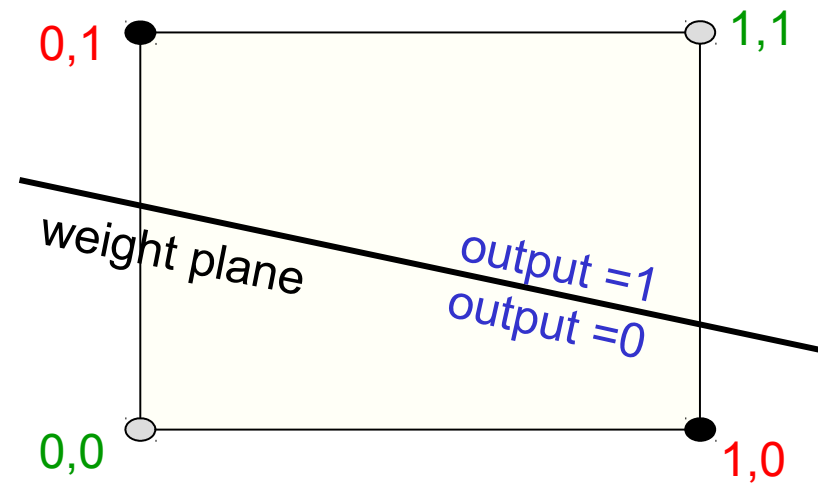
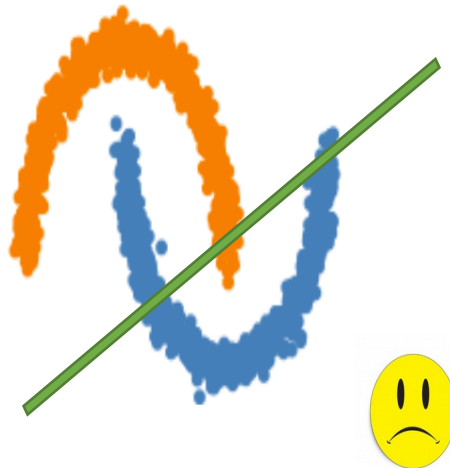
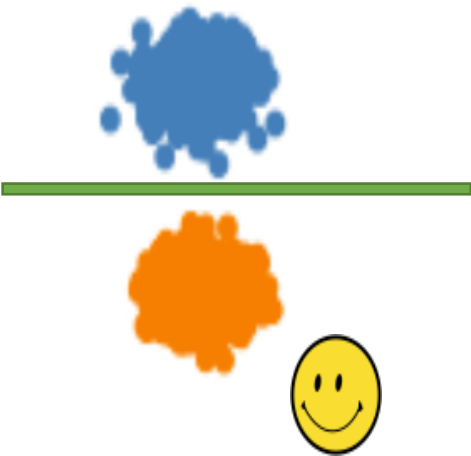
- Spam filtering: given an email \rightarrow **spam** or **not spam**



The Perceptron: Limitations

- Perceptrons are incredibly limited in their abilities.

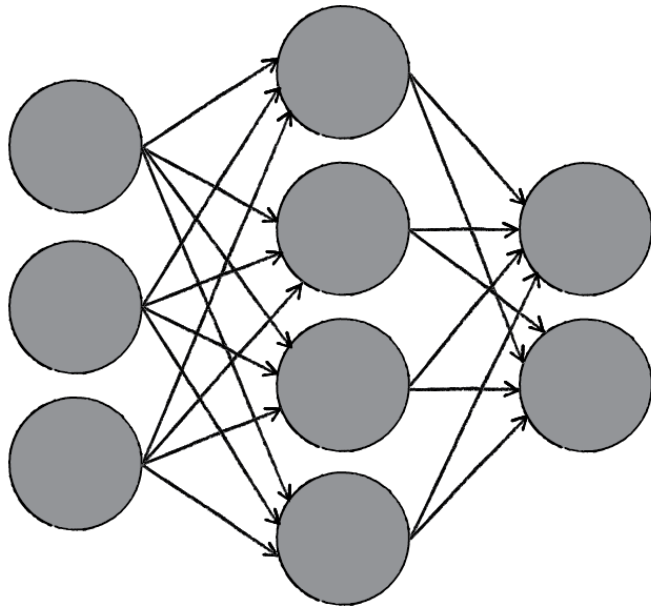
Can only solve linearly separable problems



The positive and negative cases cannot be separated by a plane

The Perceptron: Limitations

We can improve things with a ***multi-layered perceptron*** (learning with hidden units)



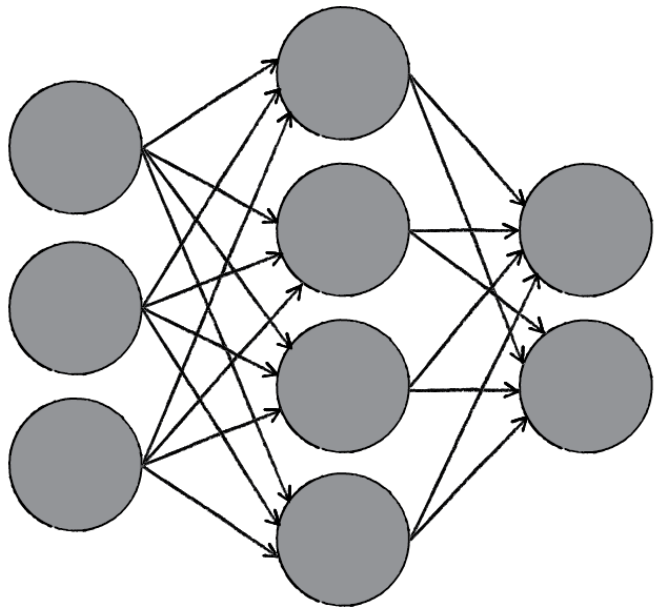
Input layer Hidden layer Output layer

A network of many neurons. Each node is one **Linear Neuron**

- **Input Layer (layer 1):** neurons that receive the inputs
- **Hidden layers (layers 2,3, ...):** connected to neither the inputs nor the outputs of the network directly
- **Output layer (last layer):** neurons from which we read the results.

Multi-layered perceptron

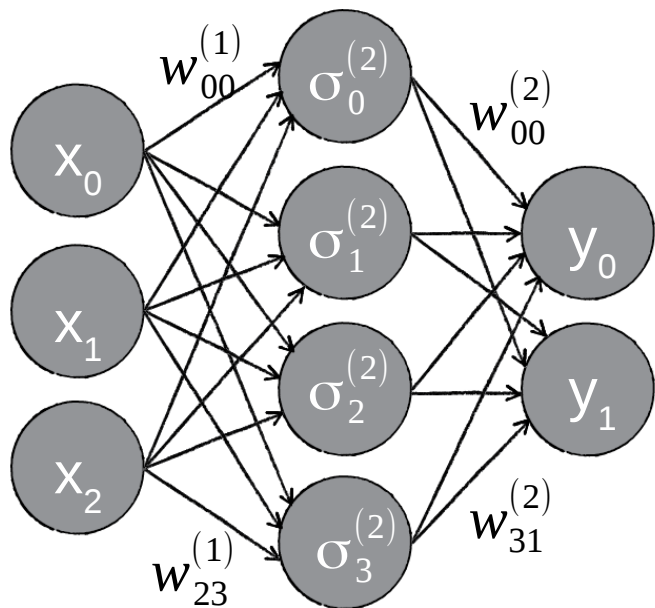
We can improve things with a *multi-layered perceptron*



Input layer Hidden layer Output layer

- However, training is now much more complicated.
- With the simple perceptron, we could easily evaluate how to change the weights according to the error.
- Now there are so many different connections, each in a different layer of the network.
- **How does one know how much each neuron or connection contributed to the overall error of the network?**

Multi-layered perceptron

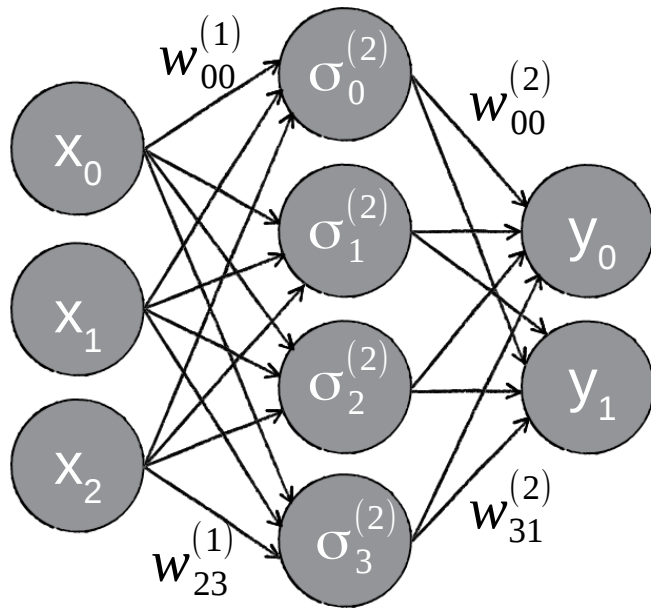


Input layer Hidden layer Output layer

- **Input variables:** $x = [x_0, x_1, x_2]$ (x_0 is often defined as bias term: $x_0 = 1$)
- **Parameter matrix** $w^{(j)}$ controlling the function mapping from layer j to layer $j+1$.
 - If layer j has m units, and $j+1$ has n units, then $w^{(j)}$ is $m \times n$ matrix
 - e.g. $w^{(1)}$ is 3×4 matrix, $w^{(2)}$ is 4×2 matrix
- **Activation function** $\sigma_i^{(j)}$ at node i of the layer j (By activation, we mean the value which is computed and output by that node).
 - It receives the input to the node i , and transforms it.
 - Input layer could also use activation
- **Output variables:** $y = [y_0, y_1]$ (with activations $\sigma_0^{(3)}, \sigma_1^{(3)}$)

Each node is a linear neuron with activations (e.g. binary threshold neuron, sigmoid neuron, etc.). Therefore the output after each node is the **activation function** applied to the **linear combination** of **its inputs**

Multi-layered perceptron



Input layer Hidden layer Output layer

- We calculate each of the layer-2 activations based on the input values.
- We then calculate the output (prediction) (i.e. two nodes in layer 3) using exactly the same logic, except in input is not x values, but the activation values from the preceding layer.
- The activation value on each hidden unit is equal to the activation function applied to the linear combination of its inputs
- **Every input/activation goes to every node in following layer**

Calculations of **four hidden nodes**:

$$\text{Hidden node 1: } g_0 = \sigma_0^{(2)}(x_0 w_{00}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{10}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{20}^{(1)})$$

$$\text{Hidden node 2: } g_1 = \sigma_1^{(2)}(x_0 w_{01}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{11}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{21}^{(1)})$$

$$\text{Hidden node 3: } g_2 = \sigma_2^{(2)}(x_0 w_{02}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{12}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{22}^{(1)})$$

$$\text{Hidden node 4: } g_3 = \sigma_3^{(2)}(x_0 w_{03}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{13}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{23}^{(1)})$$

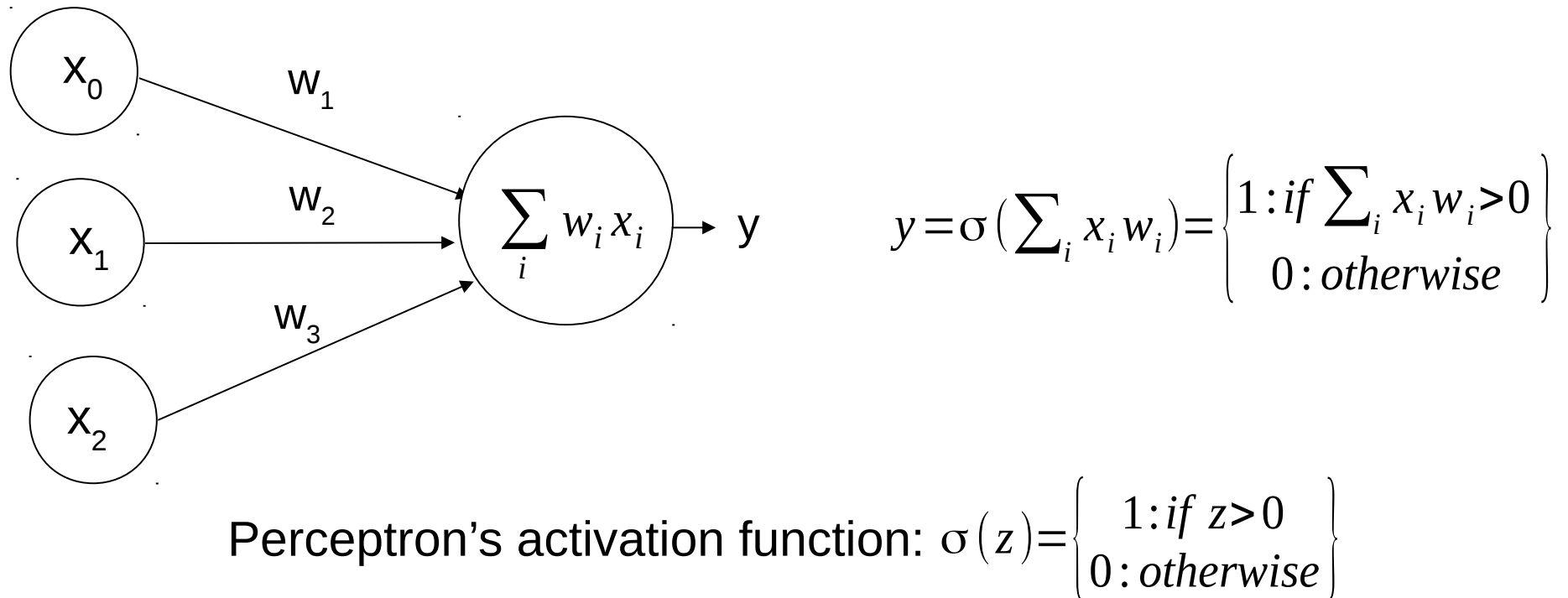
Calculations of **two output nodes**:

$$y_0 = \sigma_0^{(3)}(g_0 w_{00}^{(2)} + g_1 w_{10}^{(2)} + g_2 w_{20}^{(2)} + g_3 w_{30}^{(2)})$$

$$y_1 = \sigma_1^{(3)}(g_0 w_{01}^{(2)} + g_1 w_{11}^{(2)} + g_2 w_{21}^{(2)} + g_3 w_{31}^{(2)})$$

Multi-layered perceptron: Activations

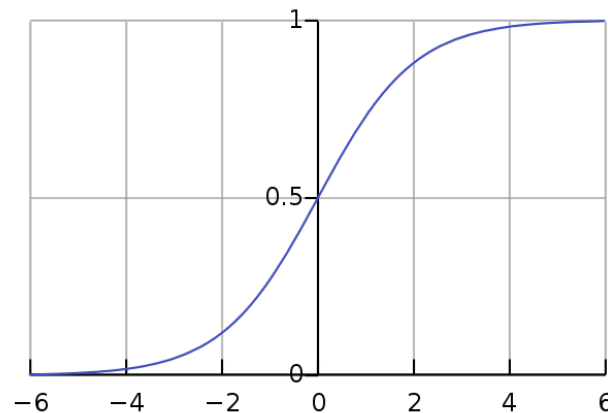
- **Activation function** $\sigma_i^{(j)}$ at node i of the layer j (By activation, we mean the value which is computed and output by that node).



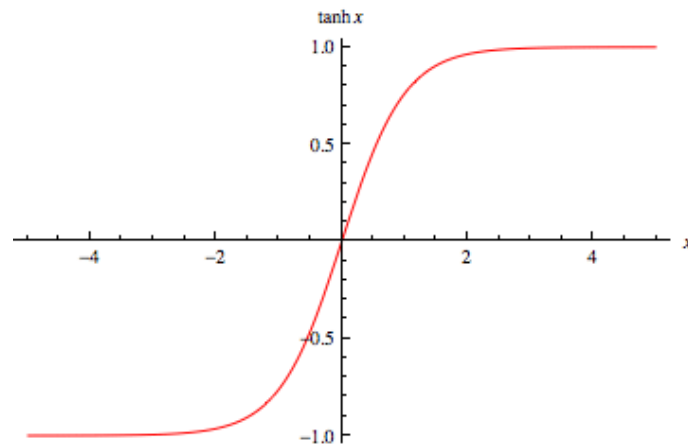
Multi-layered perceptron: Activations

- Two common activation functions used in multi-layered perceptron
 - ✓ sigmoid and tanh functions

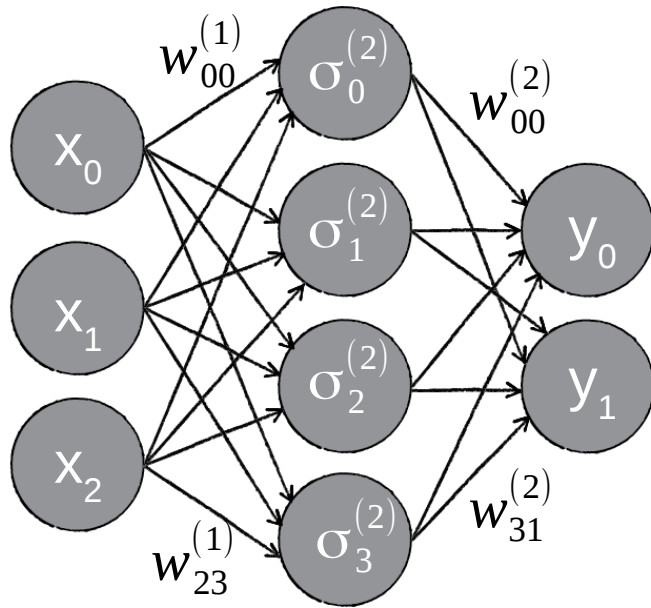
$$\sigma(x) = \text{sigmoid}(x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x}}$$



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



Multi-layered perceptron (MLP)



Input layer Hidden layer Output layer

Calculations of **four hidden nodes**:

$$g_0 = \sigma_0^{(2)}(x_0 w_{00}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{10}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{20}^{(1)})$$

$$g_1 = \sigma_1^{(2)}(x_0 w_{01}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{11}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{21}^{(1)})$$

$$g_2 = \sigma_2^{(2)}(x_0 w_{02}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{12}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{22}^{(1)})$$

$$g_3 = \sigma_3^{(2)}(x_0 w_{03}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{13}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{23}^{(1)})$$

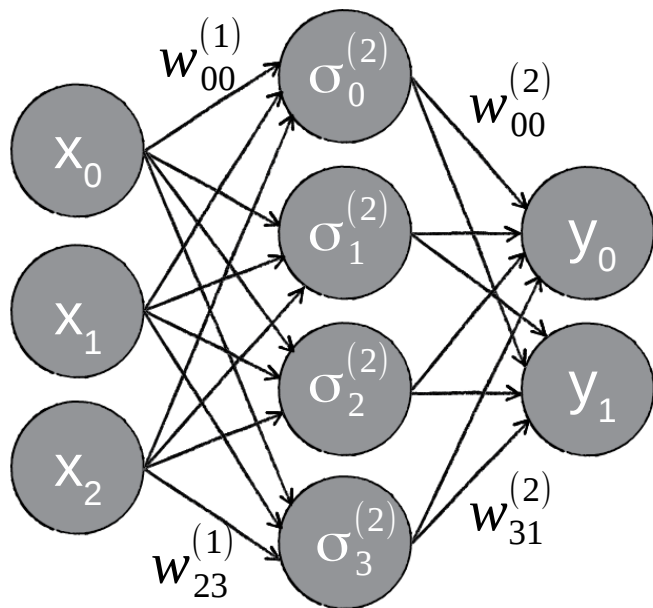
- If the activations at last layer are sigmoid functions, this **layer is just logistic regression**
 - The only difference is, instead of input a feature vector, the features are just values calculated by the hidden layer
- **NN is representation learning**: Instead of being constrained by the original input features, a neural network can learn its own features to feed into logistic regression.
 - So we feed the hidden layers our input values, and let them learn whatever gives the best final result to feed into the final output layer.

Calculations of **two output nodes**:

$$y_0 = \sigma_0^{(3)}(g_0 w_{00}^{(2)} + g_1 w_{10}^{(2)} + g_2 w_{20}^{(2)} + g_3 w_{30}^{(2)})$$

$$y_1 = \sigma_1^{(3)}(g_0 w_{01}^{(2)} + g_1 w_{11}^{(2)} + g_2 w_{21}^{(2)} + g_3 w_{31}^{(2)})$$

MLP: Vectorization



Input layer Hidden layer Output layer

- Note that: $w^{(i)}$ is the parameter matrix mapping from layer j to layer $j+1$
 - e.g.: $w_{ij}^{(1)}$ is the parameter from node i (layer 1) to node j (layer 2)
 - Denote $w_i^{(j)}$ is the i^{th} column of $w^{(j)}$
 - e.g.: $w_0^{(1)} = [w_{00}^{(1)}, w_{10}^{(1)}, w_{20}^{(1)}]$
- Assume all nodes in the same layer using the same activations function, e.g. $\sigma_i^{(2)} = \sigma^{(2)}$

Calculations of **four hidden nodes**:

$$g_0 = \sigma^{(2)}(x_0 w_{00}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{10}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{20}^{(1)})$$

$$g_1 = \sigma^{(2)}(x_0 w_{01}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{11}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{21}^{(1)})$$

$$g_2 = \sigma^{(2)}(x_0 w_{02}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{12}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{22}^{(1)})$$

$$g_3 = \sigma^{(2)}(x_0 w_{03}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{13}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{23}^{(1)})$$

vectorize



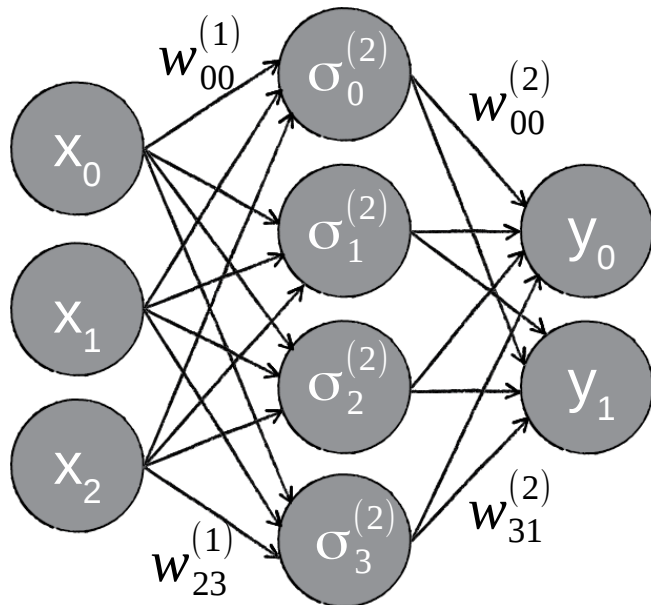
$$\text{input } x = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{denote } z = \begin{bmatrix} x^T w_0^{(1)} \\ x^T w_1^{(1)} \\ x^T w_2^{(1)} \\ x^T w_3^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = w^{(1)} x$$

$$\begin{aligned} g_0 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_0^{(1)}) \\ g_1 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_1^{(1)}) \\ g_2 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_2^{(1)}) \\ g_3 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_3^{(1)}) \end{aligned} \quad \Rightarrow \quad g = \begin{bmatrix} g_0 \\ g_1 \\ g_2 \\ g_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_0^{(1)}) \\ \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_1^{(1)}) \\ \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_2^{(1)}) \\ \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_3^{(1)}) \end{bmatrix}$$

MLP: Vectorization

Calculations of **four hidden nodes**:

$$\begin{aligned} g_0 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x_0 w_{00}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{10}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{20}^{(1)}) \\ g_1 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x_0 w_{01}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{11}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{21}^{(1)}) \\ g_2 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x_0 w_{02}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{12}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{22}^{(1)}) \\ g_3 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x_0 w_{03}^{(1)} + x_1 w_{13}^{(1)} + x_2 w_{23}^{(1)}) \end{aligned} \quad \text{vectorize}$$



Input layer Hidden layer Output layer

$$\begin{aligned} \text{input } x &= \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix} & \text{denote } z &= \begin{bmatrix} x^T w_0^{(1)} \\ x^T w_1^{(1)} \\ x^T w_2^{(1)} \\ x^T w_3^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = w^{(1)} x \\ \\ g_0 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_0^{(1)}) \\ g_1 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_1^{(1)}) \\ g_2 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_2^{(1)}) \\ g_3 &= \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_3^{(1)}) \end{aligned} \quad \Rightarrow \quad g = \begin{bmatrix} g_0 \\ g_1 \\ g_2 \\ g_3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_0^{(1)}) \\ \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_1^{(1)}) \\ \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_2^{(1)}) \\ \sigma^{(2)}(x^T w_3^{(1)}) \end{bmatrix}$$

$$g = \sigma^{(2)} \begin{bmatrix} x^T w_0^{(1)} \\ x^T w_1^{(1)} \\ x^T w_2^{(1)} \\ x^T w_3^{(1)} \end{bmatrix} = \sigma^{(2)}(z) = \sigma^{(2)}(w^{(1)} x)$$

MLP: Vectorization

- Note that: $w^{(i)}$ is the parameter matrix mapping from layer j to layer $j+1$
 - e.g.: $w^{(1)}_{ij}$ is the parameter from node i (layer 1) to node j (layer 2)

$$\text{input } x = \begin{bmatrix} x_0 \\ x_1 \\ x_2 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{values at hidden layer } g = \begin{bmatrix} g_0 \\ g_1 \\ g_2 \\ g_3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{output } y = \begin{bmatrix} y_0 \\ y_1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculations of **four hidden nodes** (x is the input and $w^{(1)}$ are weights to this layer):

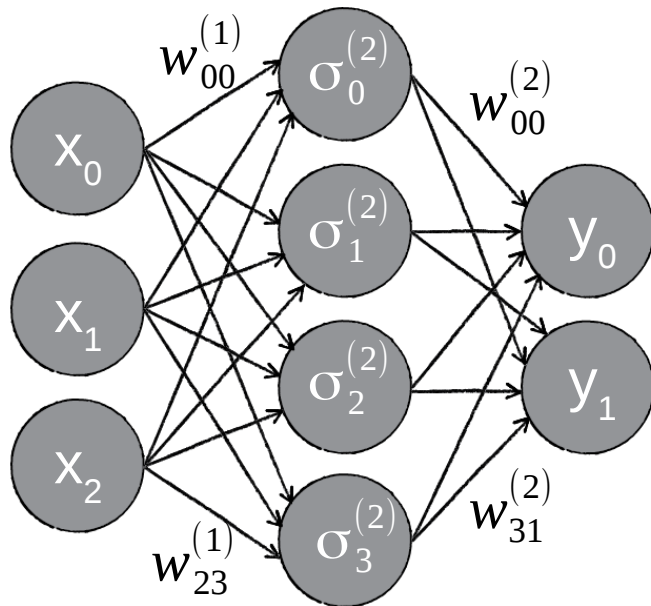
$$g = \sigma^{(2)}(w^{(1)} x)$$

Likewise, calculations of two **output nodes** (g is the input and $w^{(2)}$ are weights to this layer):

$$y = \sigma^{(3)}(w^{(2)} g)$$

A **full forward pass (also called forward propagation)**:

$$y = \sigma^{(3)}(w^{(2)} \sigma^{(2)}(w^{(1)} x))$$



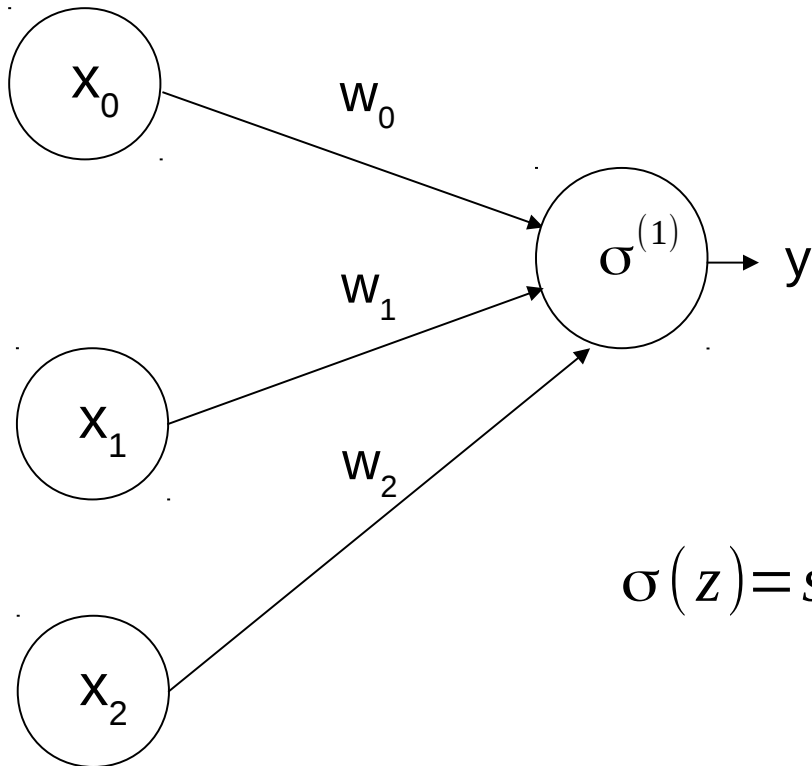
Input layer Hidden layer Output layer

- Start off with activations of input unit
- Forward propagate and calculate the activation of each layer sequentially
- This is a vectorized version of this implementation

MLP Example: AND function

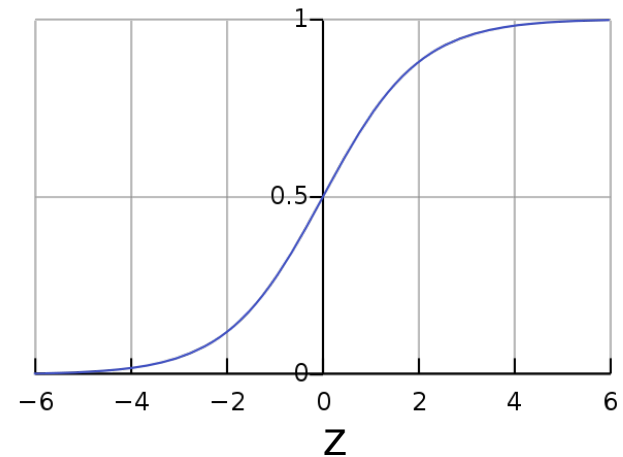
- A simple MLP network:
 - Two input nodes (with bias term at x_0): $x = [1, x_1, x_2]$
 - No hidden layer
 - One output node (**with sigmoid activations**): y
 - The weights of this network: $w^{(1)} = [w_0, w_1, w_2]$

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

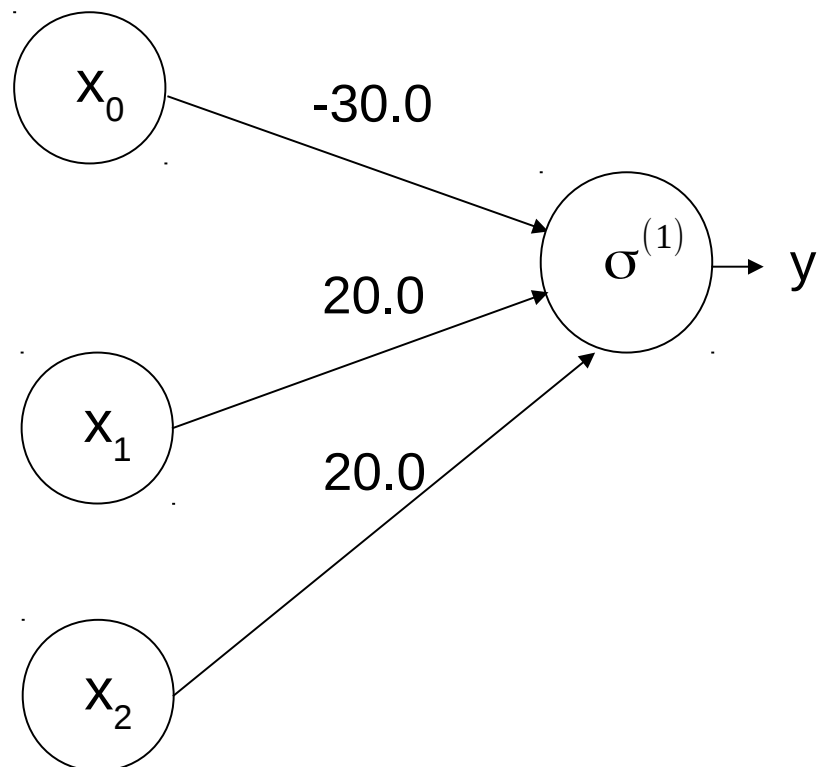


$$y = \sigma^{(1)}(w^{(1)}x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-w^{(1)}x}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-w_0 - w_1x_1 - w_2x_2}}$$

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



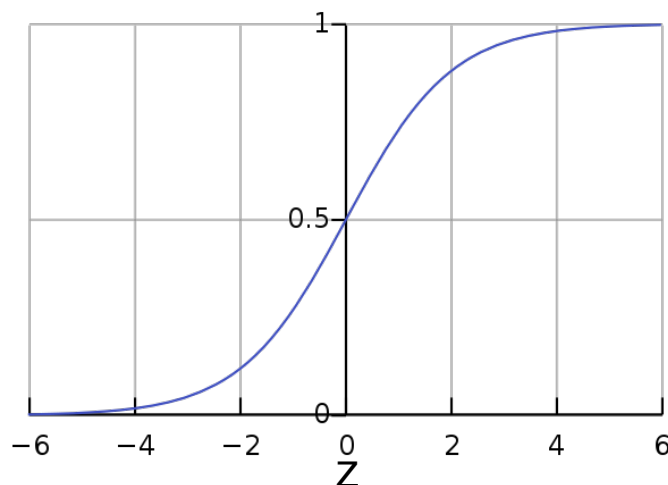
MLP Example: AND function



$$y = \sigma^{(1)}(w^{(1)}x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-w^{(1)}x}} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-w_0 - w_1x_1 - w_2x_2}}$$

x_1	x_2	y (ground-truth)	predicted
0	0	0	Sigmoid(-30) = 0
0	1	0	Sigmoid(-10) = 0
1	0	0	Sigmoid(-10) = 0
1	1	1	Sigmoid(10) = 1

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



$$\bar{y}_1 = \sigma^{(1)}(w^{(1)}[1, 0, 0]) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-30}}$$

$$\bar{y}_2 = \sigma^{(1)}(w^{(1)}[1, 0, 1]) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-10}}$$

$$\bar{y}_3 = \sigma^{(1)}(w^{(1)}[1, 1, 0]) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-10}}$$

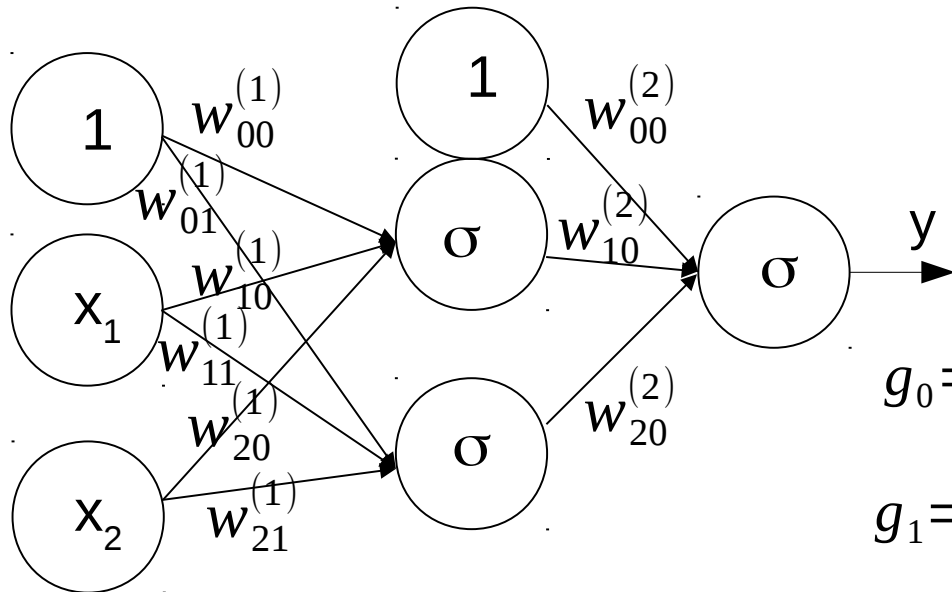
$$\bar{y}_4 = \sigma^{(1)}(w^{(1)}[1, 1, 1]) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{10}}$$

MLP Example: XOR function

- The data is non-linearly separable, so a MLP network:
 - Two input nodes (with bias term at x_0): $x = [1, x_1, x_2]$
 - One hidden layer with two nodes (**with sigmoid activations**)
 - One output node (**with sigmoid activation**): y
 - The weights of this network: $w^{(2)} = [w_{00}^{(2)}, w_{10}^{(2)}, w_{20}^{(2)}]$

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

$$w^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} w_{00}^{(1)} & w_{01}^{(1)} \\ w_{10}^{(1)} & w_{11}^{(1)} \\ w_{20}^{(1)} & w_{21}^{(1)} \end{bmatrix}$$



Hidden node 1:

$$g_0 = \text{sigmoid}(w_{00}^{(1)} + w_{10}^{(1)} x_1 + w_{20}^{(1)} x_2) = \text{sigmoid}(x^T w_0^{(1)})$$

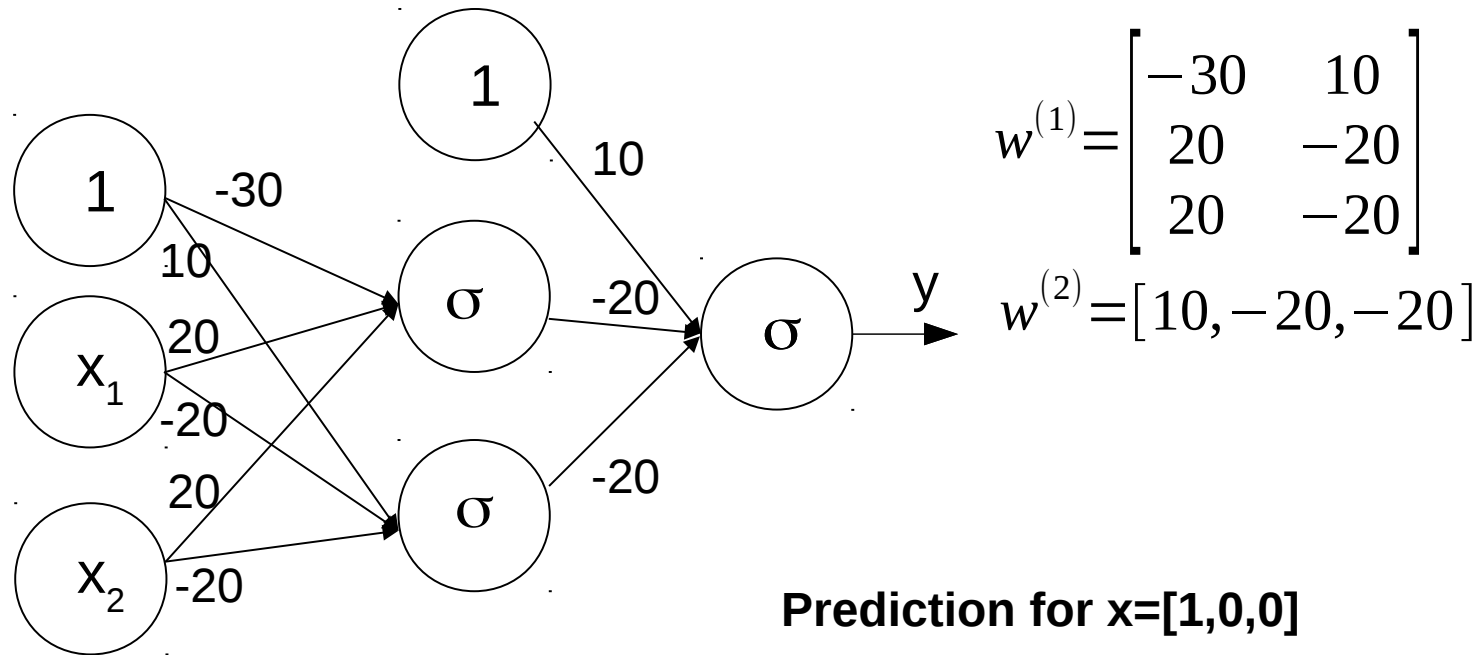
Hidden node 2:

$$g_1 = \text{sigmoid}(w_{01}^{(1)} + w_{11}^{(1)} x_1 + w_{21}^{(1)} x_2) = \text{sigmoid}(x^T w_1^{(1)})$$

Prediction:

$$y = \text{sigmoid}(w_{00}^{(2)} + w_{10}^{(2)} g_0 + w_{20}^{(2)} g_1) = \text{sigmoid}([1, g_0, g_1] w^{(2)})$$

MLP Example: XOR function



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

Prediction for $x=[1,0,0]$

Hidden node 1:

$$g_0 = \text{sigmoid} \left([1, 0, 0] \begin{bmatrix} -30 \\ 20 \\ 20 \end{bmatrix}^T \right) = \text{sigmoid}(-30) \approx 0$$

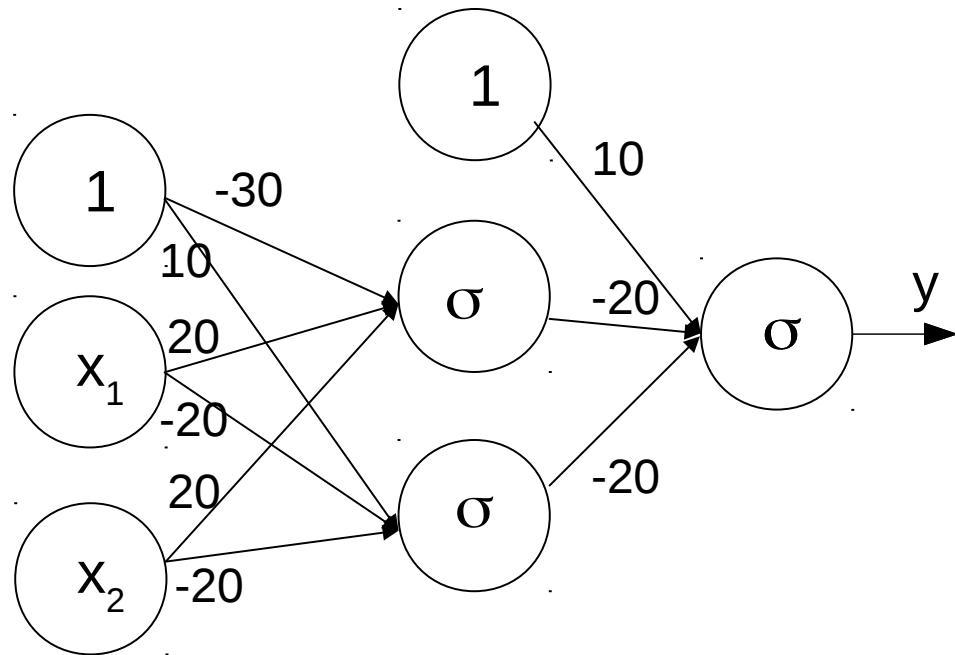
Hidden node 2:

$$g_1 = \text{sigmoid} \left([1, 0, 0] \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ -20 \\ -20 \end{bmatrix}^T \right) = \text{sigmoid}(10) \approx 1$$

Prediction:

$$y = \text{sigmoid} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ -20 \\ -20 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{sigmoid}(-10) \approx 0$$

MLP Example: XOR function



$$w^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} -30 & 10 \\ 20 & -20 \\ 20 & -20 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$w^{(2)} = [10, -20, -20]$$

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

Prediction for $x=[1,0,0]$

$$\bar{y} = \text{sigmoid} \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}^T \begin{bmatrix} 10 \\ -20 \\ -20 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \text{sigmoid}(-10) \approx 0$$

Prediction for $x=[1,0,1]$

$$\bar{y} = \text{sigmoid}(10) \approx 1$$

Prediction for $x=[1,1,0]$

$$\bar{y} = \text{sigmoid}(10) \approx 1$$

Prediction for $x=[1,1,1]$

$$\bar{y} = \text{sigmoid}(-10) \approx 0$$

MLP for Multi-class Classification: 1 sv. All

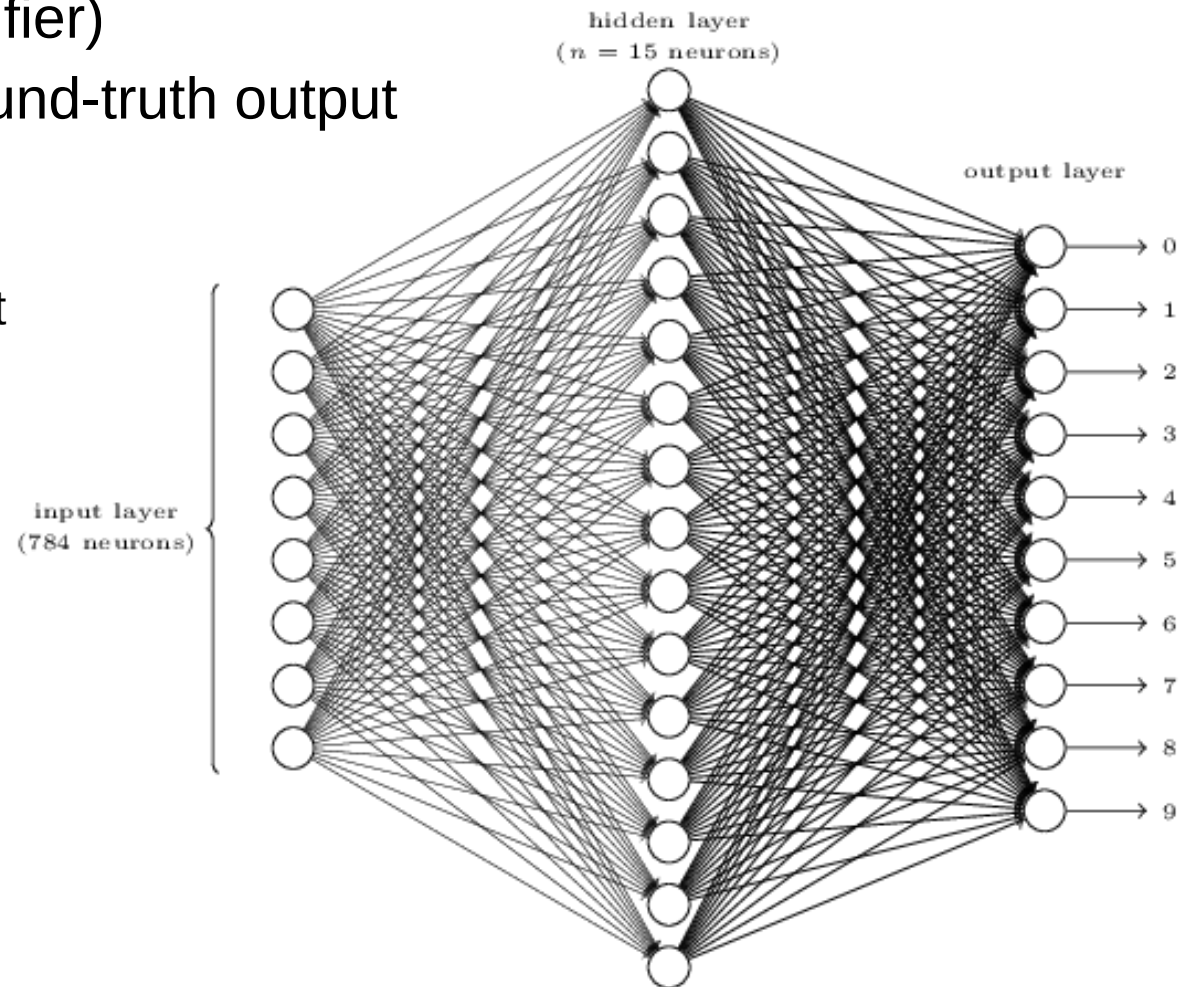
- Example: Hand-written digits dataset
 - Each image input is $28 \times 28 = 784$ dims
 - One or many hidden layers
 - Output layer: 10 neurons (i.e. each correspond to one logistic regression classifier)
 - Using one-hot vector for ground-truth output

digit **2** has output

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

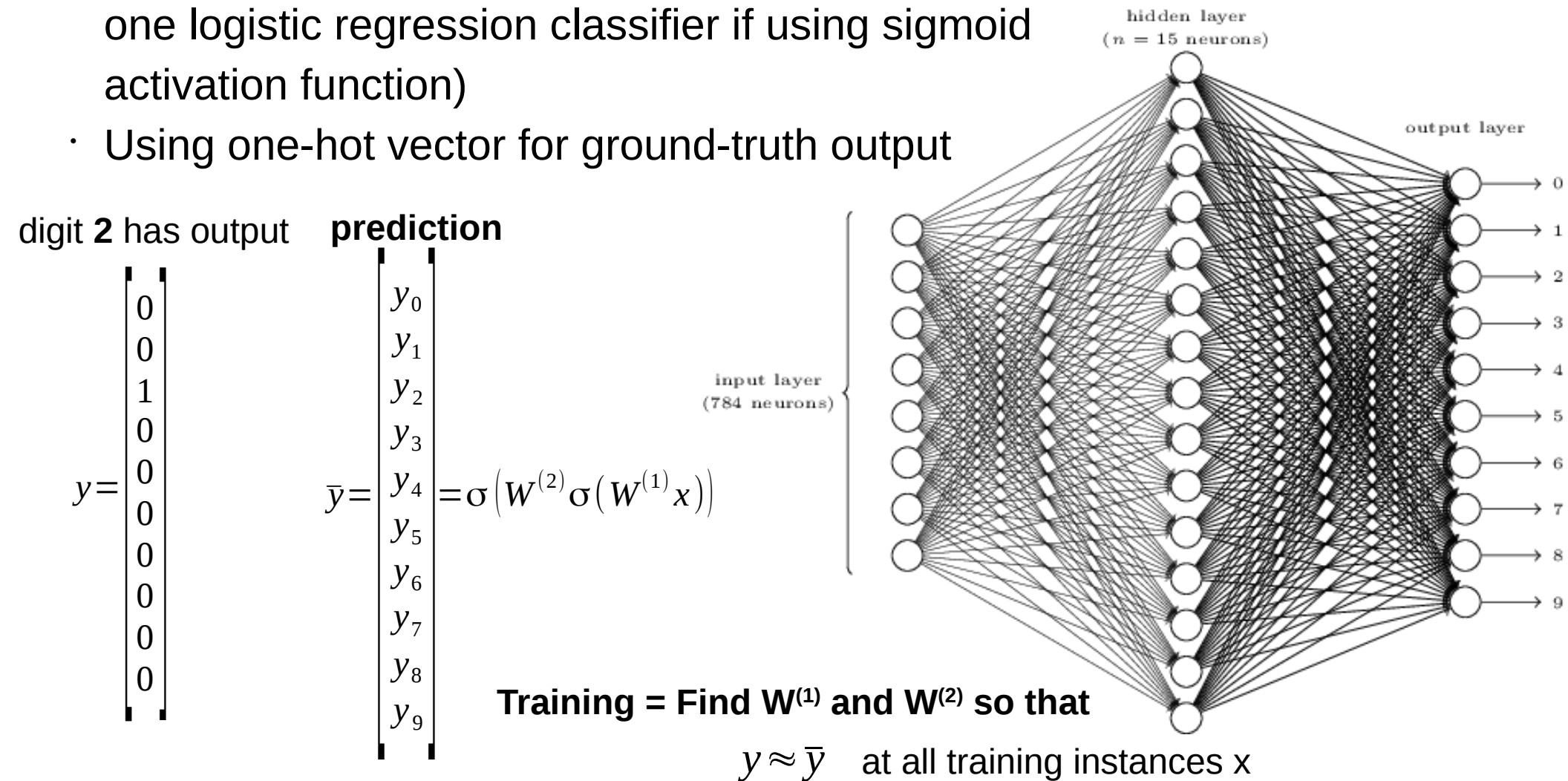
digit **8** has output

$$y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$



MLP for Multi-class Classification: 1 sv. All

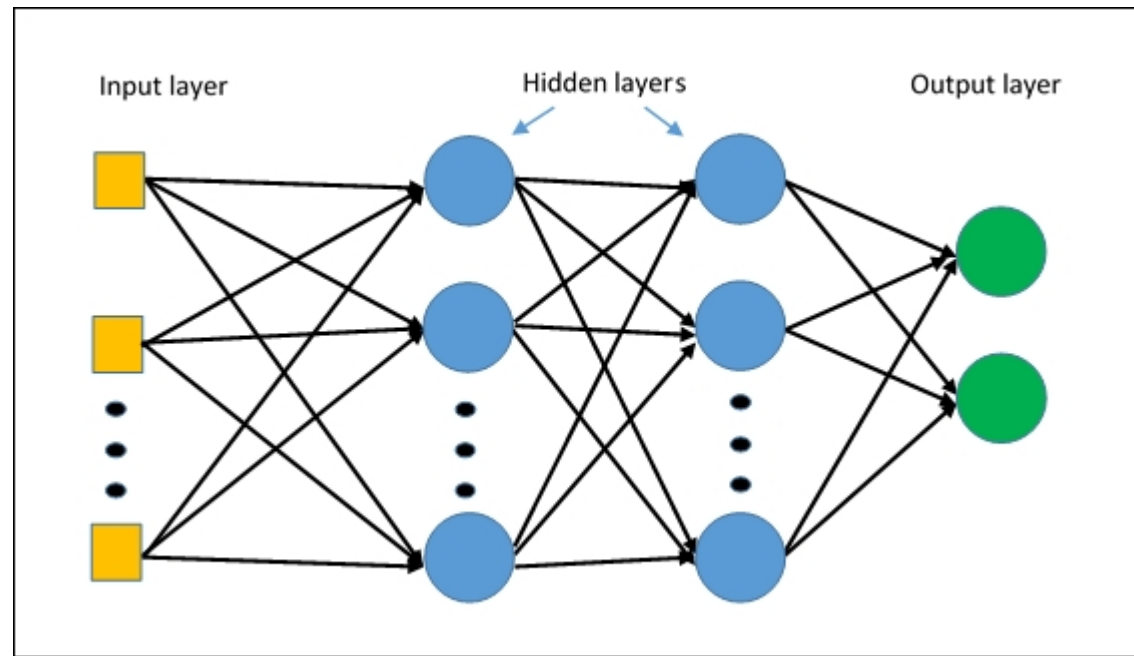
- Example: Hand-written digits dataset
 - Each image input is $28 \times 28 = 784$ dims
 - One or many hidden layers
 - Output layer: 10 neurons (i.e. each correspond to one logistic regression classifier if using sigmoid activation function)
 - Using one-hot vector for ground-truth output



MLP General Cases

- A multi-layer perceptron with K-1 hidden layers (deep neural network)
 - Activation function at layer j is $\sigma^{(j)}$
 - Matrix $W^{(j)}$ is the parameter matrix mapping from layer j to layer j+1
- Prediction is

$$y = \sigma^{(K)} \left(W^{(K-1)} \sigma^{(K-1)} \left(\dots \sigma^{(2)} \left(W^{(1)} x \right) \dots \right) \right)$$



Next lecture: Backpropagation method to train a neural network