

Neural Networks: Design

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Machine Learning

Outline

① The Basics

- Example: Learning the XOR

② Training

- Back Propagation

③ Neuron Design

- Cost Function & Output Neurons
- Hidden Neurons

④ Architecture Design

- Architecture Tuning

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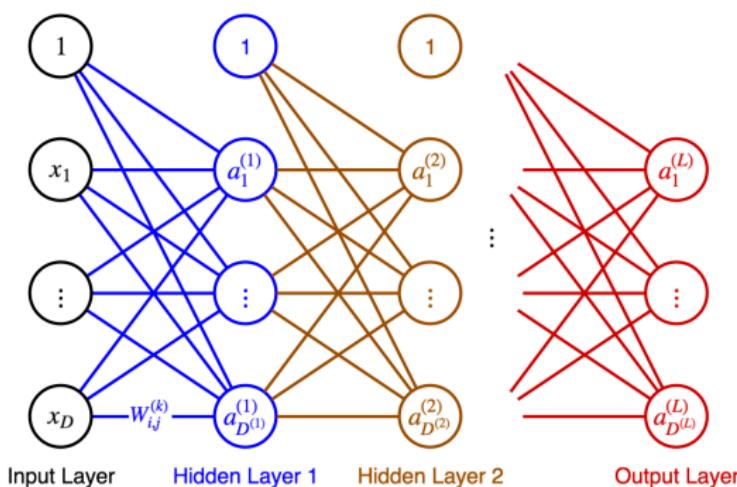
- Architecture Tuning

Model: a Composite Function I

- A *feedforward neural networks*, or *multilayer perceptron*, defines a function composition

$$\hat{y} = \mathbf{f}^{(L)}(\dots \mathbf{f}^{(2)}(\mathbf{f}^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}; \theta^{(1)}); \theta^{(2)}); \theta^{(L)})$$

that approximates the target function f^*



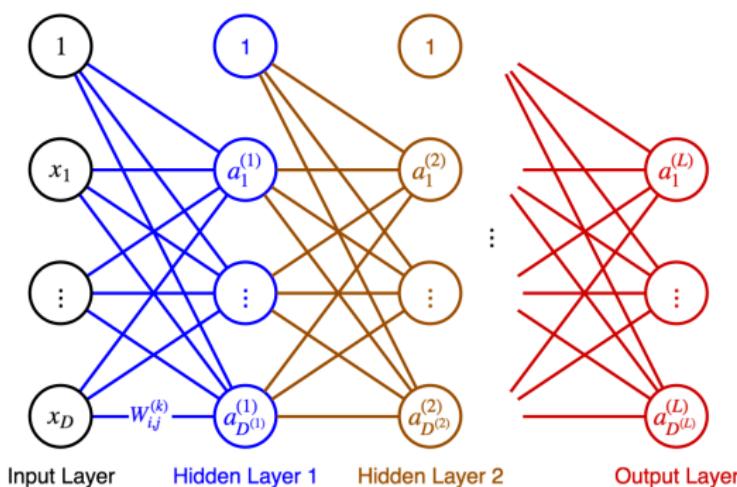
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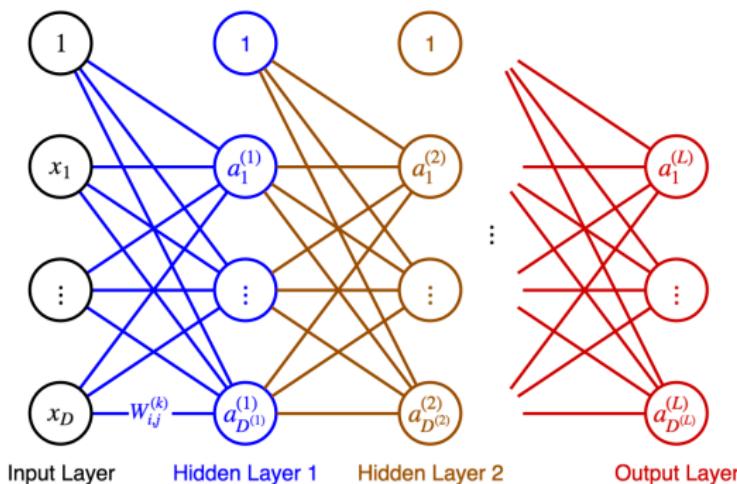
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- “Feedforward” because information flows from input to output

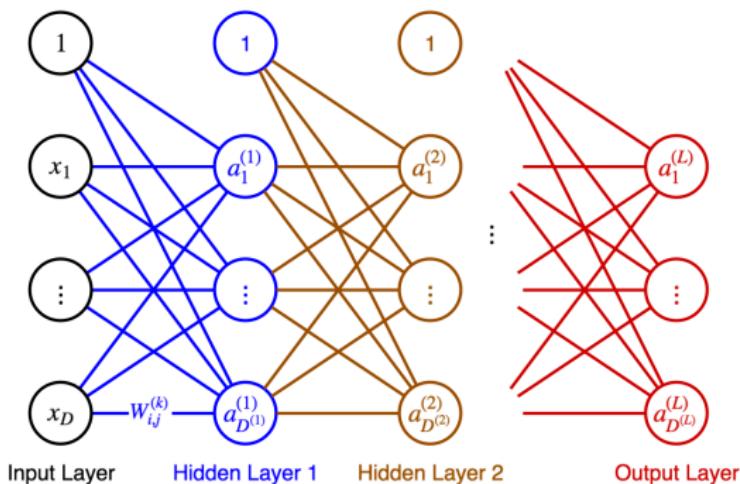


Model: a Composite Function II

- At each layer k , the function $f^{(k)}(\cdot; \mathbf{W}^{(k)}, \mathbf{b}^{(k)})$ is **nonlinear** and outputs value $\mathbf{a}^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{D^{(k)}}$, where

$$\mathbf{a}^{(k)} = \text{act}^{(k)}(\mathbf{W}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{a}^{(k-1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(k)})$$

- $\text{act}^{(i)}(\cdot) : \mathbb{R} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ is an **activation function** applied elementwisely

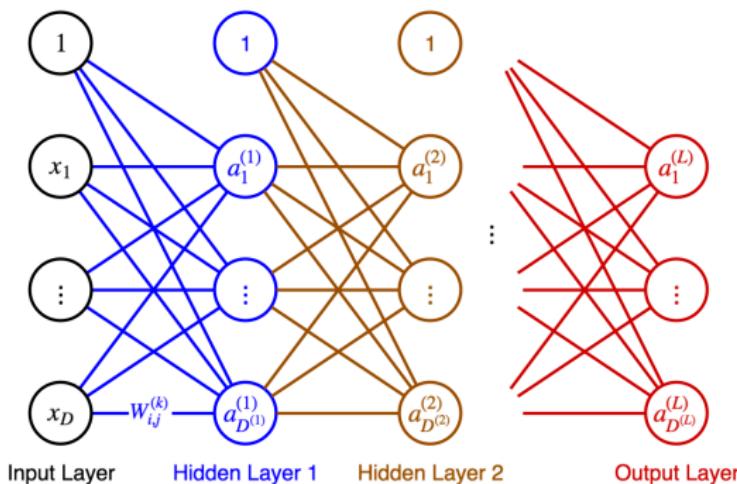


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- Shorthand: $\mathbf{a}^{(k)} = \text{act}^{(k)}(\mathbf{W}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{a}^{(k-1)})$
- $\mathbf{a}^{(k-1)} \in \mathbb{R}^{D^{(k-1)}+1}$, $a_0^{(k-1)} = 1$, and $\mathbf{W}^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{(D^{(k-1)}+1) \times D^{(k)}}$

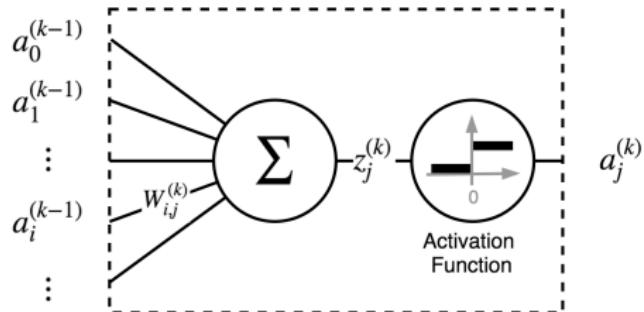


Neurons I

- Each $f_j^{(k)} = \text{act}^{(k)}(\mathbf{W}_{:,j}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{a}^{(k-1)}) = \text{act}^{(k)}(z_j^{(k)})$ is a **unit** (or **neuron**)

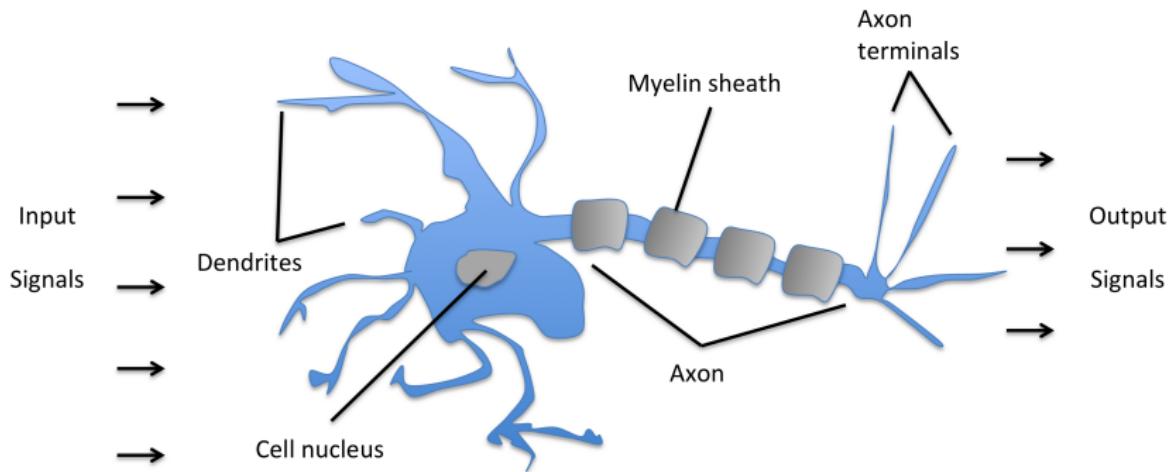
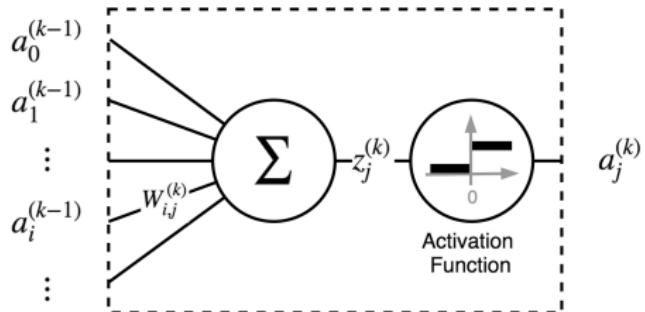
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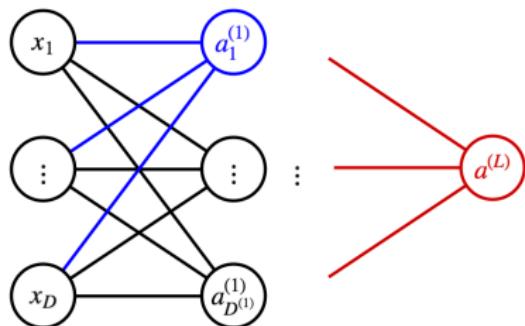
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- Loosely guided by neuroscience



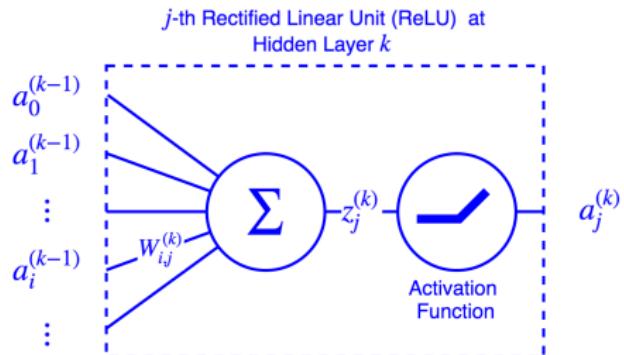
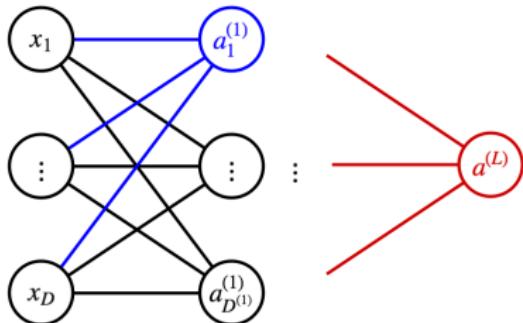
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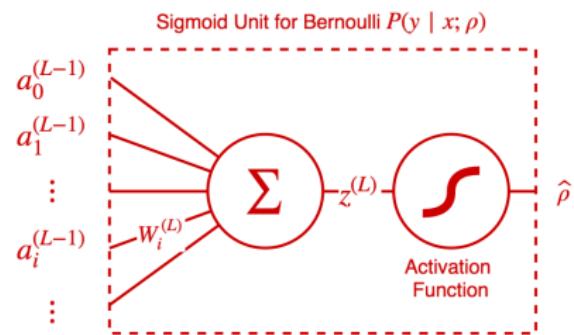
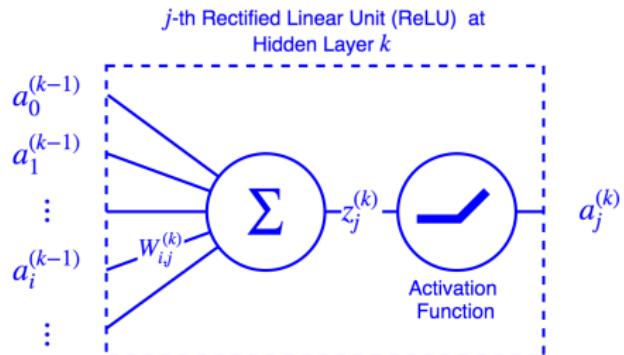
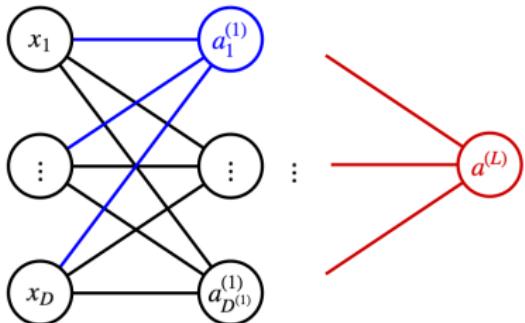
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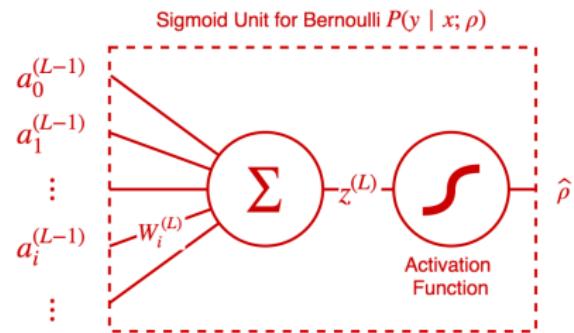
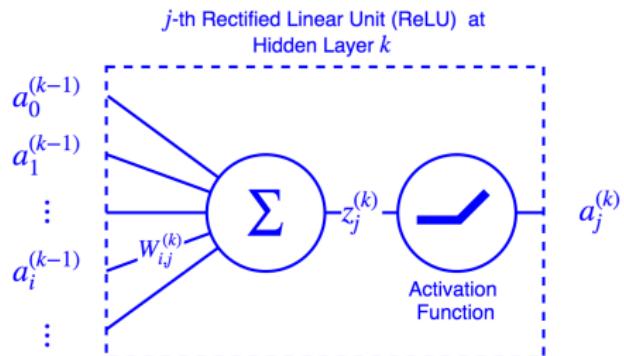
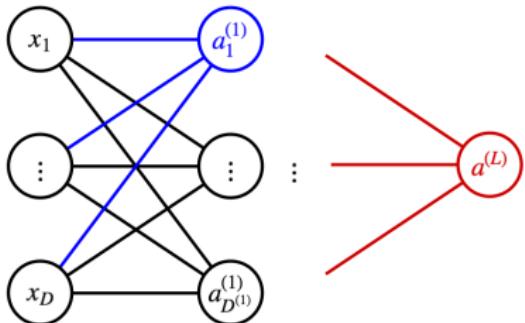
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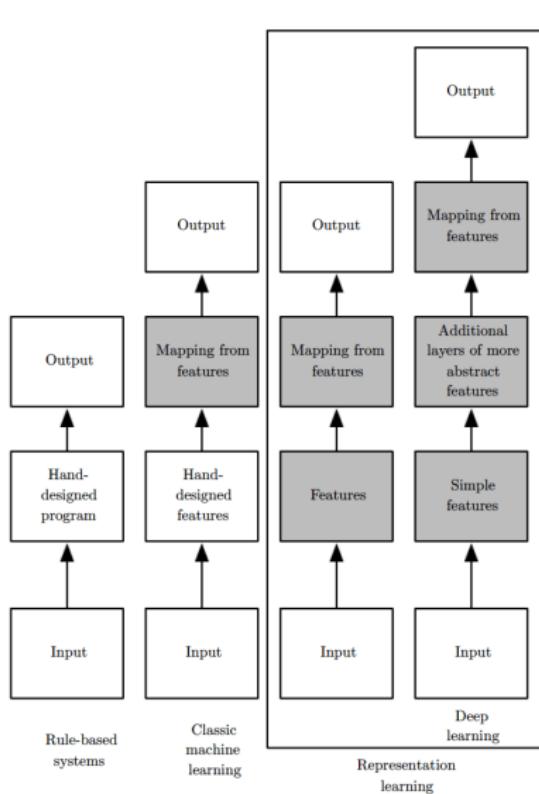
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 - A logistic regressor with input $a^{(L-1)}$

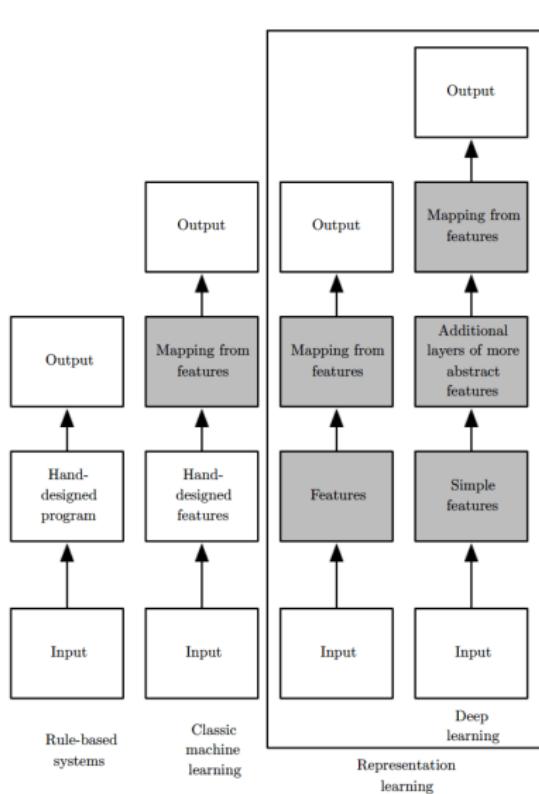


Representation Learning



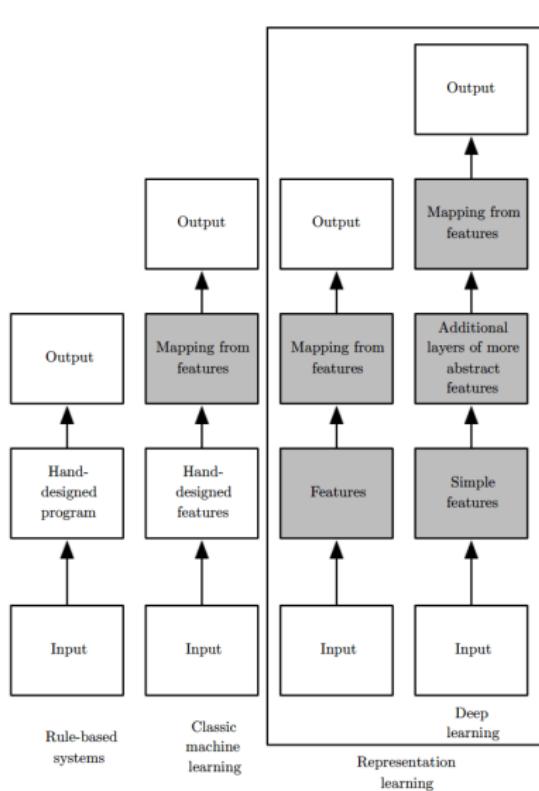
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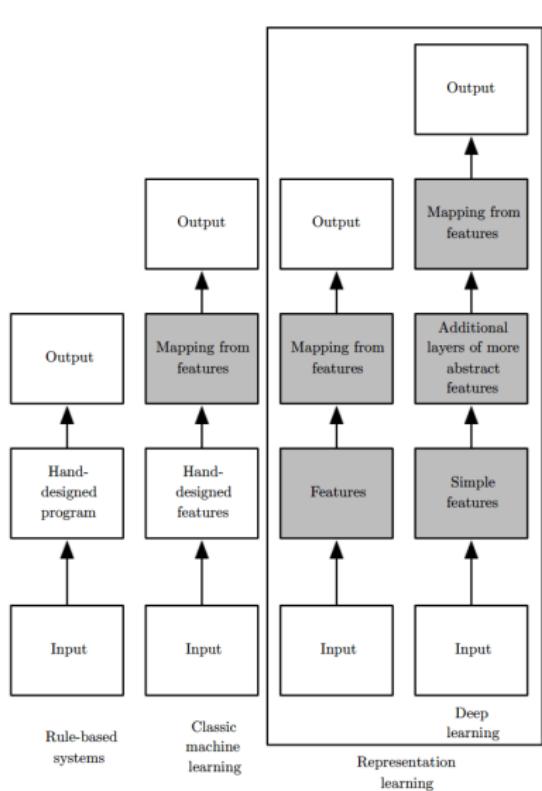
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- $\text{act}^{(L)}(\cdot)$ just “normalizes” $\mathbf{z}^{(L)}$ to give $\hat{\rho} \in (0, 1)$

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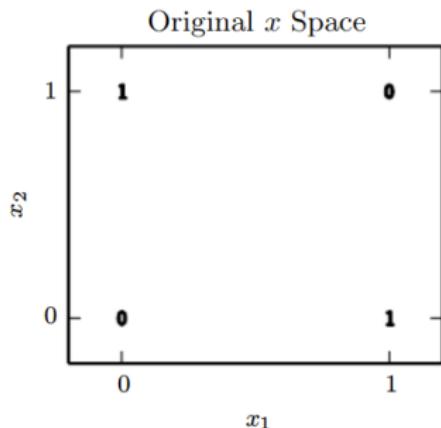
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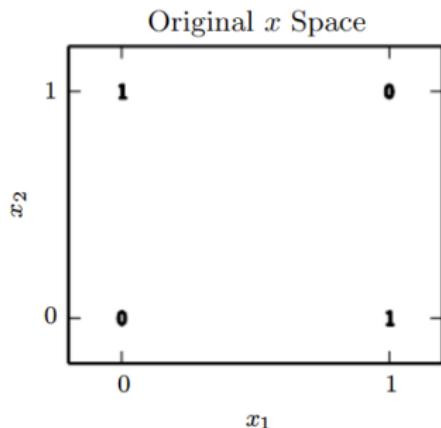
Learning the XOR I

- Why ReLUs learn nonlinear (and better) representation?



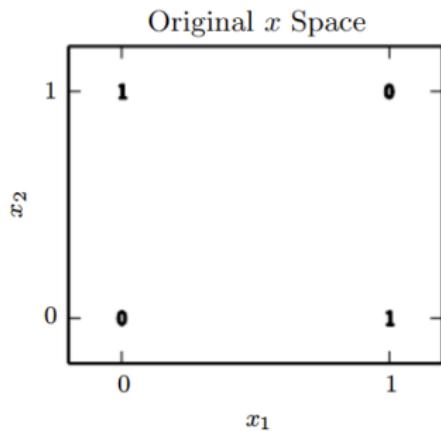
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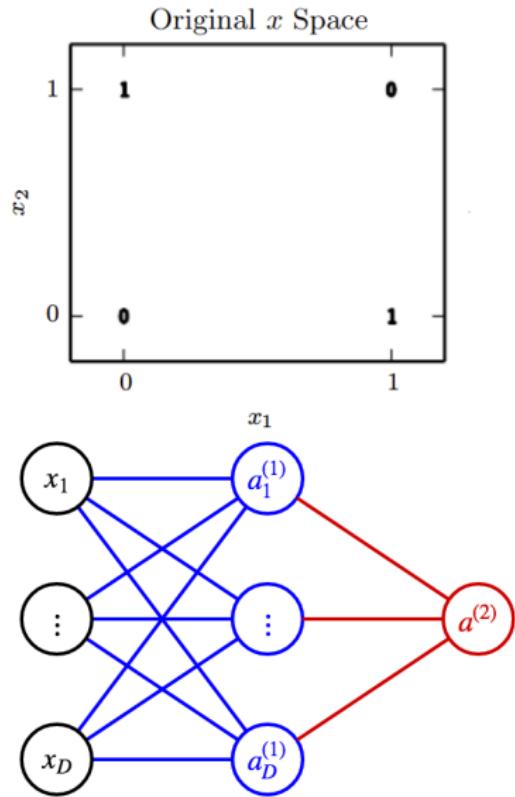
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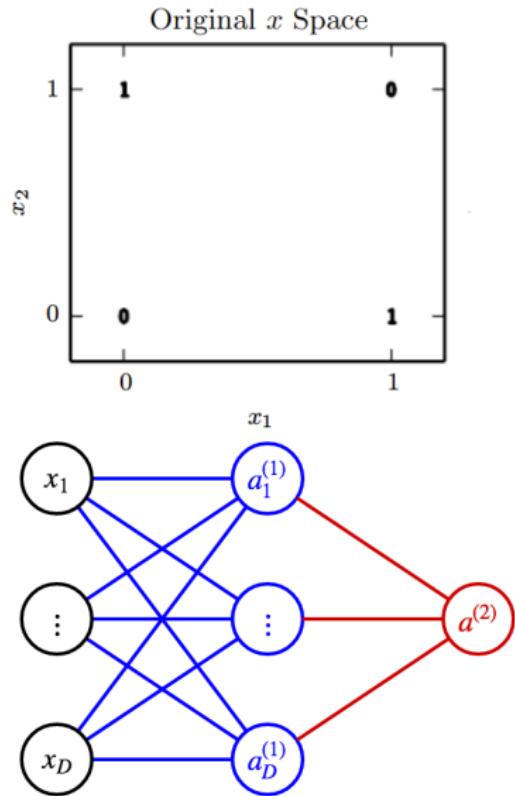
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- Consider an NN with 1 hidden layer:
 - $a^{(1)} = \max(0, W^{(1)\top} x)$
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 - Prediction: $1(\hat{p}; \hat{p} > 0.5)$

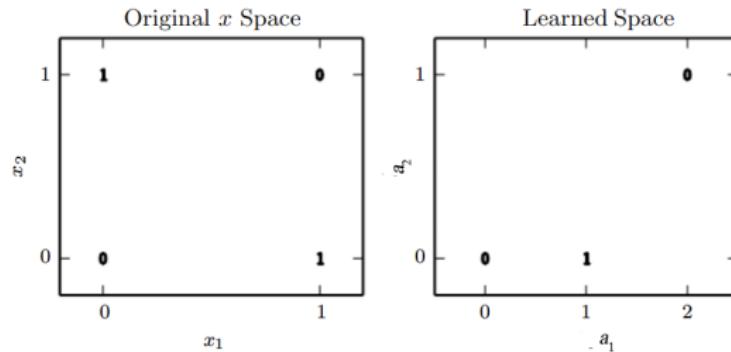


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- Learns XOR by “merging” data points first

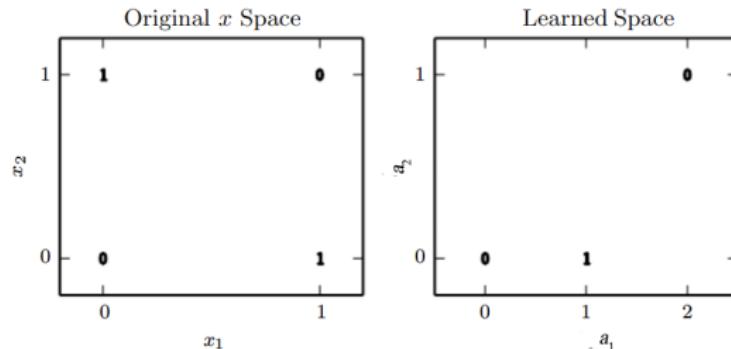


Learning the XOR II



- $X = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times (1+D)}$, $\mathbf{W}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$, $\mathbf{w}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$
- $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} = 1(\sigma([1 \ max(0, \mathbf{X}\mathbf{W}^{(1)})] \mathbf{w}^{(2)}) > 0.5)$

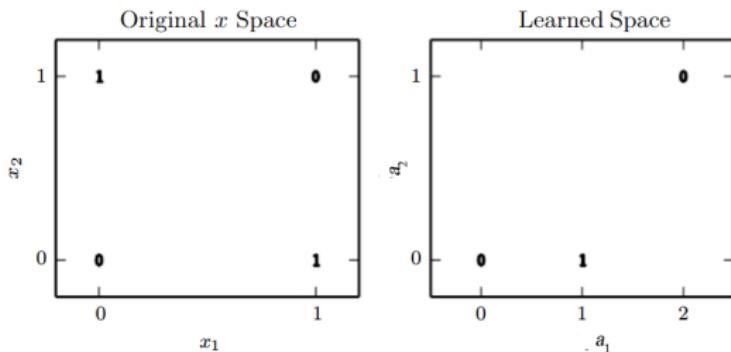
Latent Representation $A^{(1)}$



$$\bullet XW^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \\ 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

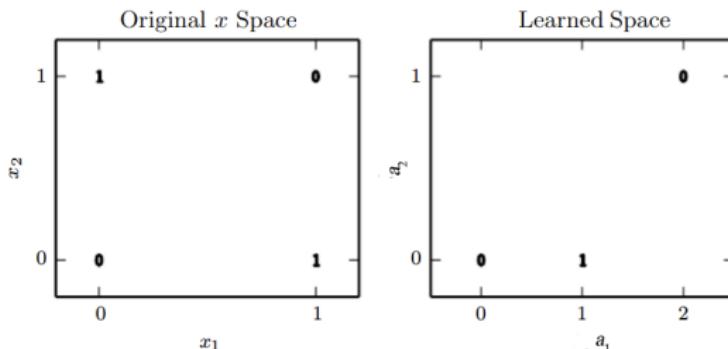
$$\bullet A^{(1)} = [1 \quad \max(0, XW^{(1)})] = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Output Distribution $a^{(2)}$



- $\mathbf{a}^{(2)} = \sigma(\mathbf{A}^{(1)}\mathbf{w}^{(2)}) = \sigma \left(\begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 2 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix} \right) = \sigma \left(\begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} \right)$
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- $\hat{\mathbf{y}} = 1(\mathbf{a}^{(2)} > 0.5) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$
- But how to train $\mathbf{W}^{(1)}$ and $\mathbf{w}^{(2)}$ from examples?

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- The minimizer $\hat{\Theta}$ is an unbiased estimator of “true” Θ^*
 - Good for large N

Example: Binary Classification

- $\Pr(y = 1 | \mathbf{x}) \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\rho)$, where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^D$ and $y \in \{0, 1\}$
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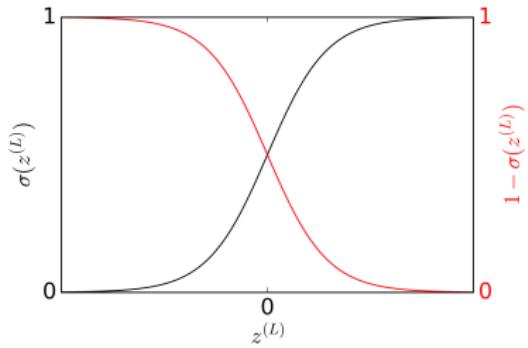
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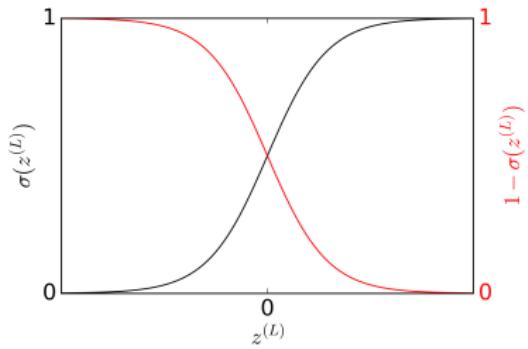
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- $\zeta(\cdot)$ is the softplus function

Optimization Algorithm

- Most NNs use **SGD** to solve the problem $\arg \min_{\Theta} \sum_i C^{(i)}(\Theta)$

(Mini-Batched) Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD)

Initialize $\Theta^{(0)}$ randomly;

Repeat until convergence {

 Randomly partition the training set \mathbb{X} into **minibatches** of size M ;

$\Theta^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \Theta^{(t)} - \eta \nabla_{\Theta} \sum_{i=1}^M C^{(i)}(\Theta^{(t)})$;

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- How to compute $\nabla_{\Theta} \sum_i C^{(i)}(\Theta^{(t)})$ efficiently?
 - There could be a huge number of $W_{i,j}^{(k)}$'s in Θ

Outline

① The Basics

- Example: Learning the XOR

② Training

- Back Propagation

③ Neuron Design

- Cost Function & Output Neurons
- Hidden Neurons

④ Architecture Design

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Back Propagation

$$\Theta^{(t+1)} \leftarrow \Theta^{(t)} - \eta \nabla_{\Theta} \sum_{n=1}^M C^{(n)}(\Theta^{(t)})$$

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 - Assuming the partial derivatives share some common evaluation steps
- By the chain rule, we have

$$\frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}} = \frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial z_j^{(k)}} \cdot \frac{\partial z_j^{(k)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}}$$

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- We can get the second terms of all $\frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}}$'s starting from the **most shallow** layer

Backward Pass I

- Conversely, we can get the first terms of $\frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}} = \frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial z_j^{(k)}} \cdot \frac{\partial z_j^{(k)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}}$ starting from the **deepest** layer

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- Conversely, we can get the first terms of $\frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}} = \frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial z_j^{(k)}} \cdot \frac{\partial z_j^{(k)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}}$ starting from the **deepest** layer
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 - Depending on the definition of functions $\text{act}^{(L)}$ and $C^{(n)}$

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- When $k = L$, the evaluation varies from task to task
 - Depending on the definition of functions $\text{act}^{(L)}$ and $C^{(n)}$
- E.g., in binary classification, we have:

$$\delta^{(L)} = \frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial z^{(L)}} = \frac{\partial \zeta((1 - 2y^{(n)})z^{(L)})}{\partial z^{(L)}} = \sigma((1 - 2y^{(n)})z^{(L)}) \cdot (1 - 2y^{(n)})$$

Backward Pass II

- When $k < L$, we have

$$\delta_j^{(k)} = \frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial z_j^{(k)}} = \frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial a_j^{(k)}} \cdot \frac{\partial a_j^{(k)}}{\partial z_j^{(k)}} = \frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial a_j^{(k)}} \cdot \text{act}'(z_j^{(k)})$$

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Theorem (Chain Rule)

Let $\mathbf{g} : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^d$ and $f : \mathbb{R}^d \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$, then f

$$(f \circ \mathbf{g})'(x) = f'(\mathbf{g}(x)) \mathbf{g}'(x) = \nabla f(\mathbf{g}(x))^\top \begin{bmatrix} g_1'(x) \\ \vdots \\ g_d'(x) \end{bmatrix}.$$

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Backward Pass III

$$\delta_j^{(k)} = \left(\sum_s \delta_s^{(k+1)} \cdot W_{j,s}^{(k+1)} \right) \text{act}'(z_j^{(k)})$$

- We can evaluate all $\delta_j^{(k)}$'s starting from the deepest layer

Backward Pass III

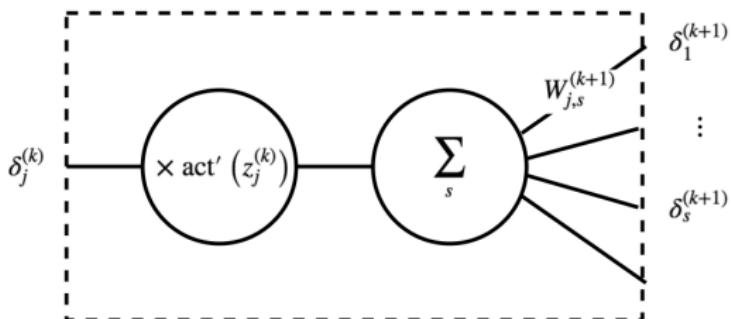
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Backprop Algorithm (Minibatch Size $M = 1$)

Input: $(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, \mathbf{y}^{(n)})$ and $\Theta^{(t)}$

Forward pass:

$$\mathbf{a}^{(0)} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} 1 & \mathbf{x}^{(n)} \end{bmatrix}^\top;$$

for $k \leftarrow 1$ to L **do**

$$\begin{aligned} | \quad \mathbf{z}^{(k)} &\leftarrow \mathbf{W}^{(k)\top} \mathbf{a}^{(k-1)} ; \\ | \quad \mathbf{a}^{(k)} &\leftarrow \text{act}(\mathbf{z}^{(k)}) ; \end{aligned}$$

end

Backward pass:

Compute error signal $\delta^{(L)}$ (e.g., $(1 - 2y^{(n)})\sigma((1 - 2y^{(n)})z^{(L)})$ in binary classification)

for $k \leftarrow L - 1$ to 1 **do**

$$| \quad \delta^{(k)} \leftarrow \text{act}'(\mathbf{z}^{(k)}) \odot (\mathbf{W}^{(k+1)} \delta^{(k+1)}) ;$$

end

Return $\frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial \mathbf{W}^{(k)}} = \mathbf{a}^{(k-1)} \otimes \delta^{(k)}$ for all k

Backprop Algorithm (Minibatch Size $M > 1$)

Input: $\{(\mathbf{x}^{(n)}, \mathbf{y}^{(n)})\}_{n=1}^M$ and $\Theta^{(t)}$

Forward pass:

$$\mathbf{A}^{(0)} \leftarrow \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}^{(0,1)} & \dots & \mathbf{a}^{(0,M)} \end{bmatrix}^\top;$$

for $k \leftarrow 1$ to L **do**

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{Z}^{(k)} &\leftarrow \mathbf{A}^{(k-1)} \mathbf{W}^{(k)} ; \\ \mathbf{A}^{(k)} &\leftarrow \text{act}(\mathbf{Z}^{(k)}) ; \end{aligned}$$

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Backward pass:

Compute error signals

$$\Delta^{(L)} = \begin{bmatrix} \delta^{(L,0)} & \dots & \delta^{(L,M)} \end{bmatrix}^\top$$

for $k \leftarrow L-1$ to 1 **do**

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- Speed up with GPUs?

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- Gradient-based optimization:
 - During SGD, the gradient

$$\frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}} = \frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial z_j^{(k)}} \cdot \frac{\partial z_j^{(k)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}} = \delta_j^{(k)} \frac{\partial z_j^{(k)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}}$$

should be sufficiently large before we get a satisfactory NN

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Negative Log Likelihood and Cross Entropy

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- Provides a consistent way to define output units

Sigmoid Units for Bernoulli Output Distributions

- In binary classification, we assume $P(y = 1 | \mathbf{x}) \sim \text{Bernoulli}(\rho)$
 - $y \in \{0, 1\}$ and $\rho \in (0, 1)$

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 - Close to 0 only when $y^{(n)} = 1$ and $z^{(L)}$ is large positive;

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 - Close to 0 only when $y^{(n)} = 1$ and $z^{(L)}$ is large positive; or $y^{(n)} = 0$ and $z^{(L)}$ is small negative
- The loss $c^{(n)}$ saturates (becomes flat) only when $\hat{\rho}$ is “correct”

Softmax Units for Categorical Output Distributions I

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- In practice, the two versions make little difference

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- Linear units do not saturate, so they pose little difficulty for gradient based optimization

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- Why not, for example, use Sigmoid as hidden units?

Vanishing Gradient Problem

- In backward pass of Backprop:

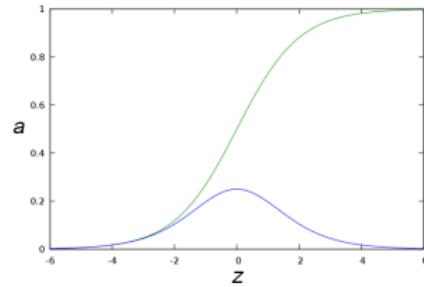
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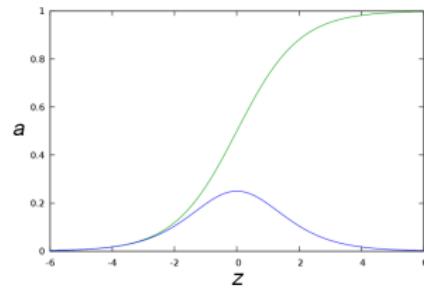


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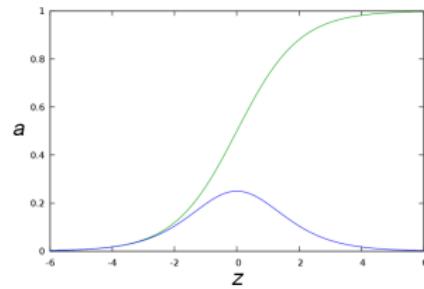


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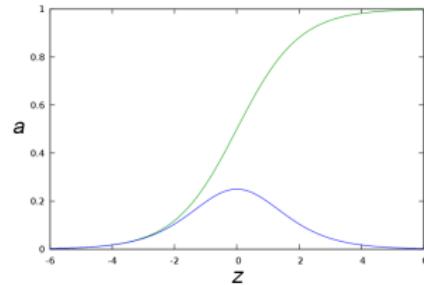


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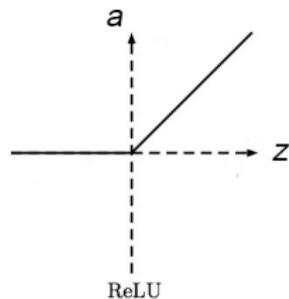
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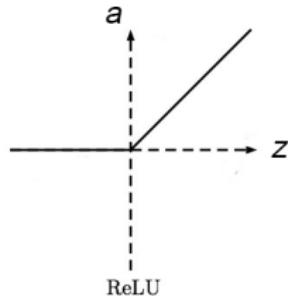


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$$\text{act}'(z^{(k)}) = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{if } z^{(k)} > 0 \\ 0, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

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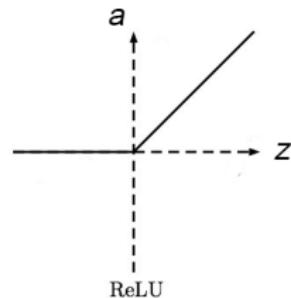


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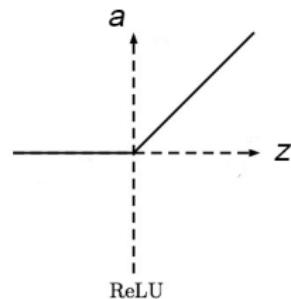
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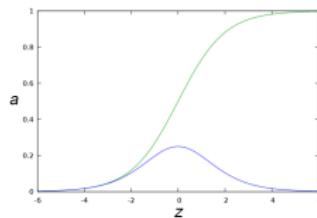
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- In practice, we usually assign 1 or 0 randomly
 - Floating points are not precise anyway

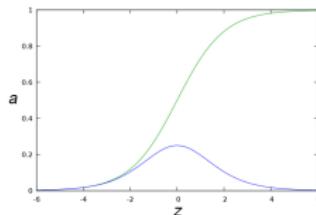
ReLU II

- Why piecewise linear?
 - To avoid vanishing gradient, we can modify $\sigma(\cdot)$ to make it steeper at middle such that $\sigma'(\cdot) > 1$



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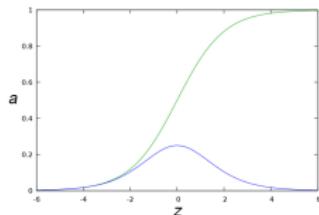
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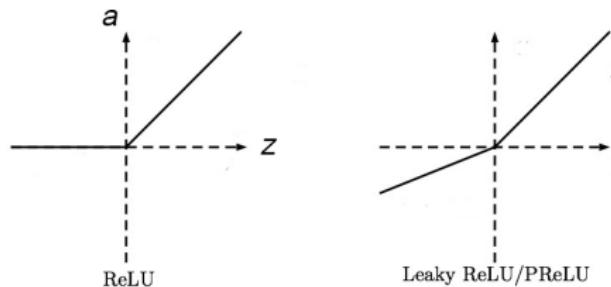


- The second derivative $\text{ReLU}''(\cdot)$ is 0 everywhere
 - Eliminates the second-order effects and makes the gradient-based optimization more useful (than, e.g., Newton methods)
- Problem: for neurons with $\delta_j^{(k)} = 0$, their weights $W_{:,j}^{(k)}$ will **not** be updated

$$\frac{\partial c^{(n)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}} = \delta^{(k)} \frac{\partial z_j^{(k)}}{\partial W_{i,j}^{(k)}}$$

- Improvement?

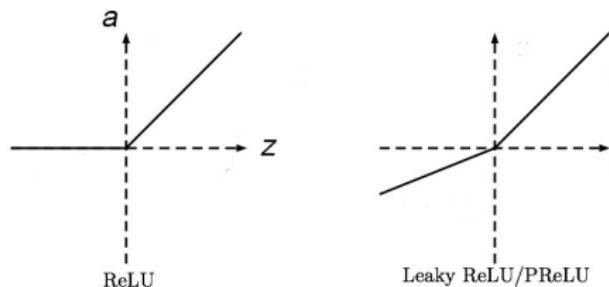
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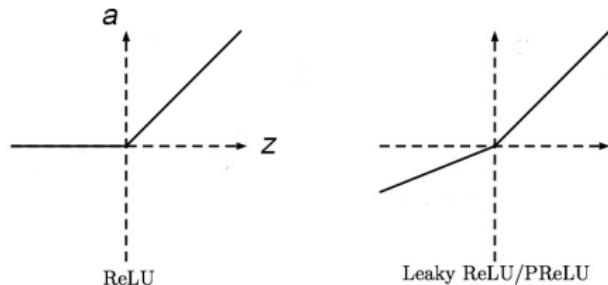


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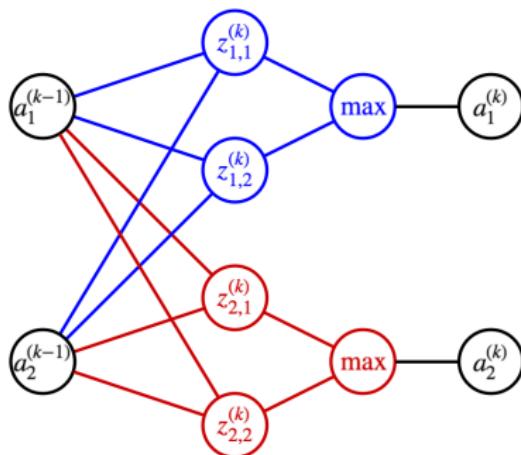
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 - Usually a small value
 - Or domain-specific
- Example: **absolute value rectification** $\alpha = -1$
 - Used for object recognition from images
 - Seek features that are invariant under a polarity reversal of the input illumination
- **Parametric ReLU (PReLU):** α learned automatically by gradient descent

Maxout Units I

- **Maxout units** generalize ReLU variants further:

$$\text{act}(\mathbf{z}^{(k)})_j = \max_s z_{j,s}$$

- $\mathbf{a}^{(k-1)}$ is linearly mapped to multiple groups of $z_j^{(k)}$'s

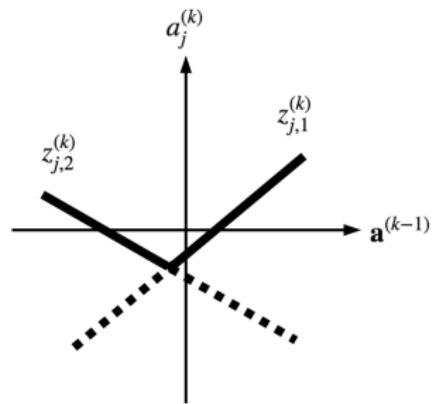
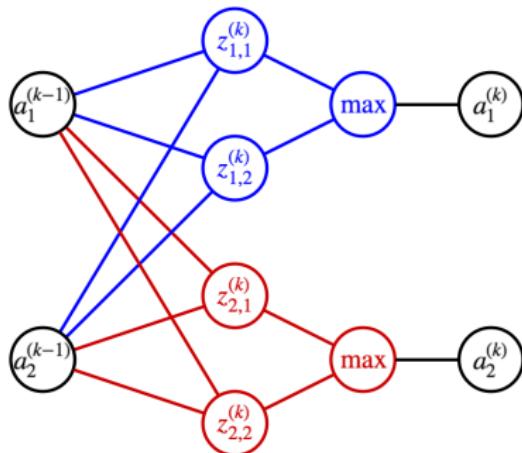


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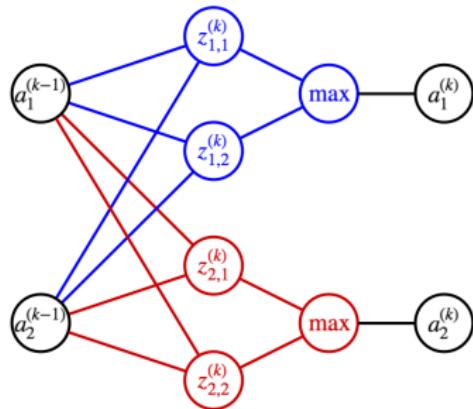
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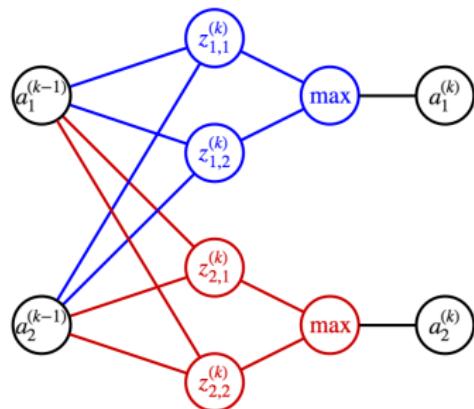
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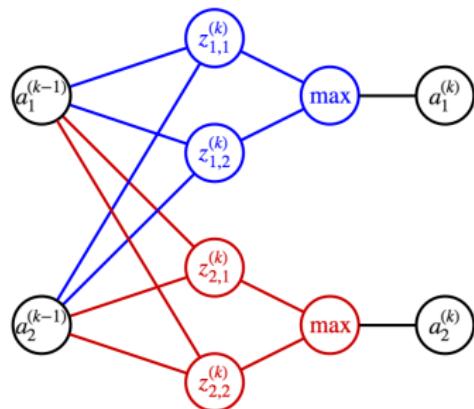


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- Offers some “redundancy” that helps to resist the **catastrophic forgetting** phenomenon [2]
 - An NN may forget how to perform tasks that they were trained on in the past

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- Typically requires more training data
- Otherwise, regularization is needed

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A feedforward network with at least one hidden layer can approximate any continuous function (on a closed and bounded subset of \mathbb{R}^D) or any function mapping from a finite dimensional discrete space to another.

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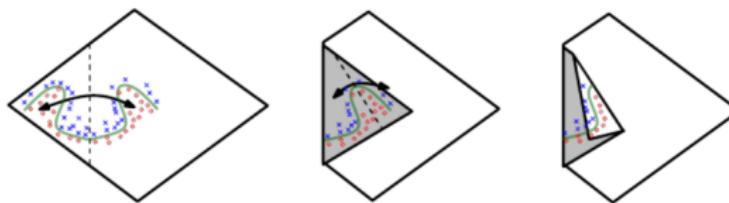
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- Why going deep?

Exponential Gain in Number of Hidden Units

- Functions representable with a deep rectifier NN require an exponential number of hidden units in a shallow NN [6]

Exponential Gain in Number of Hidden Units

- Functions representable with a deep rectifier NN require an exponential number of hidden units in a shallow NN [6]
- Example: an NN with absolute value rectification units



- Each hidden unit specifies where to fold the input space in order to create mirror responses (on both sides of the absolute value)
- By composing these folding operations, we obtain an exponentially large number of piecewise linear regions which can capture all kinds of regular (e.g., repeating) patterns

Deep ReLU Networks

- Activation-constant regions vs. output values [3]

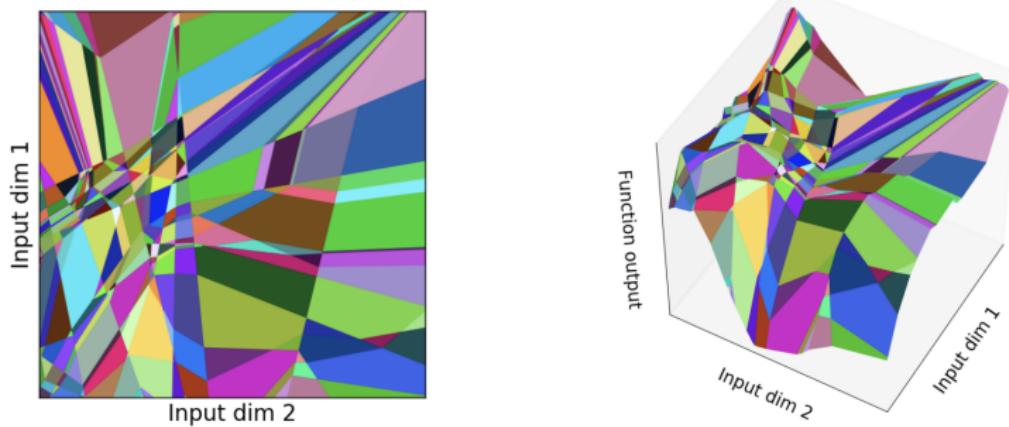


Figure 2: Function defined by a ReLU network of depth 5 and width 8 at initialization. Left: Partition of the input space into regions, on each of which the activation pattern of neurons is constant. Right: The function computed by the network, which is linear on each activation region.

Architecture as Prior Knowledge

- Choosing a deep model also encodes a very general belief that the function we want to learn should involve composition of several simpler functions

Architecture as Prior Knowledge

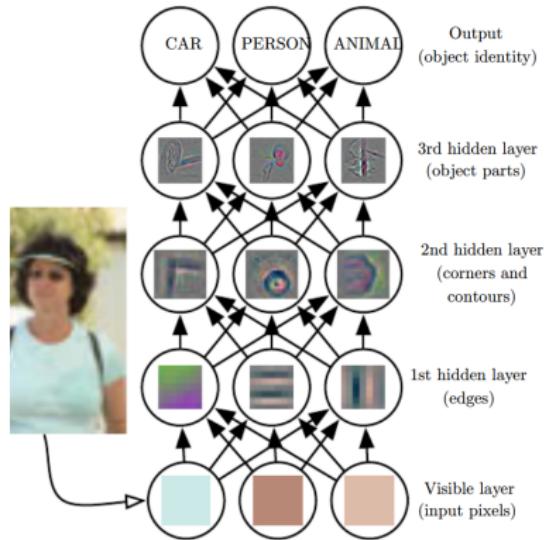
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Architecture as Prior Knowledge

- Choosing a deep model also encodes a very general belief that the function we want to learn should involve composition of several simpler functions
 - If valid, deep NNs give **better generalizability**
- When is the assumption valid? E.g., image recognition, natural language processing, etc.



Outline

① The Basics

- Example: Learning the XOR

② Training

- Back Propagation

③ Neuron Design

- Cost Function & Output Neurons
- Hidden Neurons

④ Architecture Design

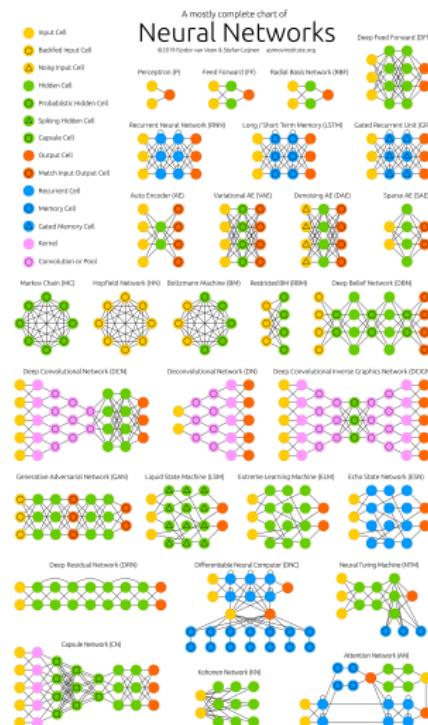
- Architecture Tuning

Hyperparameters

- Width & depth
 - Can be determined via cross validation

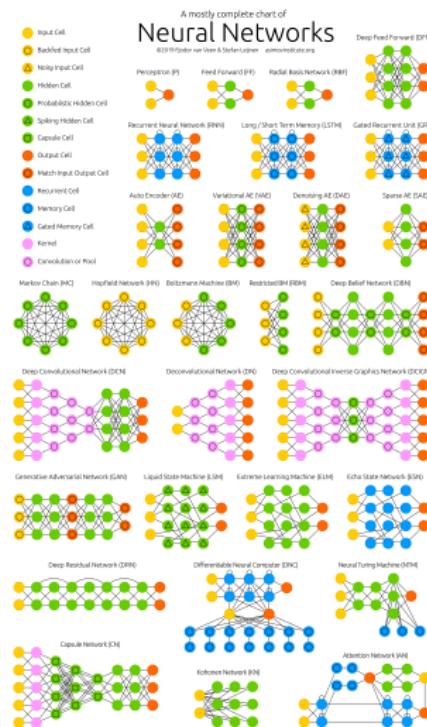
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- Width & depth
 - Can be determined via cross validation
- Types of neurons & their wiring
 - Usually model a domain-specific prior
 - Validated via ablation study
- Auto ML
 - The process of automating the above



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