

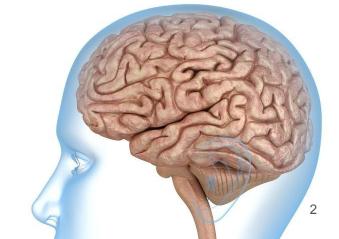
The Components of Neural Networks

Neuron, Perceptron, and Multilayer Perceptron

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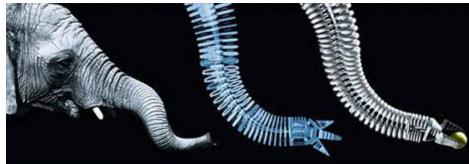


0. Inspiration from the human brain







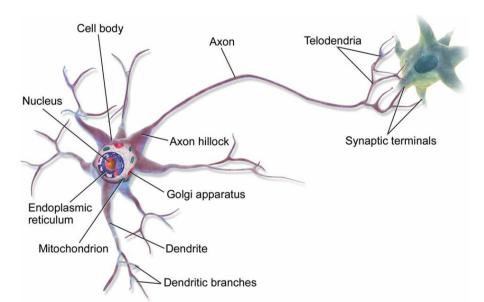


Nature has inspired many inventions!

Biological Neurons



- Perhaps the brain is the nature's ultimate inspiration for invention?
- It starts with an unusual looking cells found in animal cerebral cortex (brain)
- Neuron receives short electrical impulses from other neurons via synapses.
- When receives a sufficient number of signals, fires its own signals







- Individual neurons seems simple
- They are organized in a vast network of billions in consecutive layers
- Each neuron connected to thousands of other neurons.

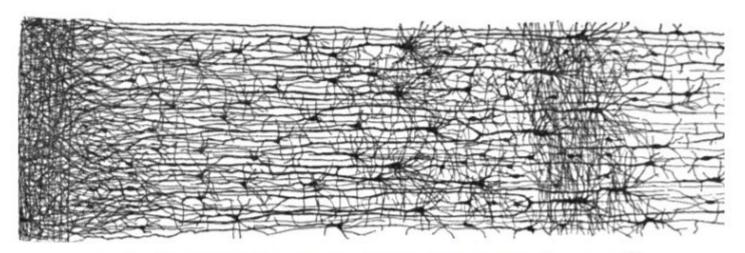


Figure 10-2. Multiple layers in a biological neural network (human cortex)⁵



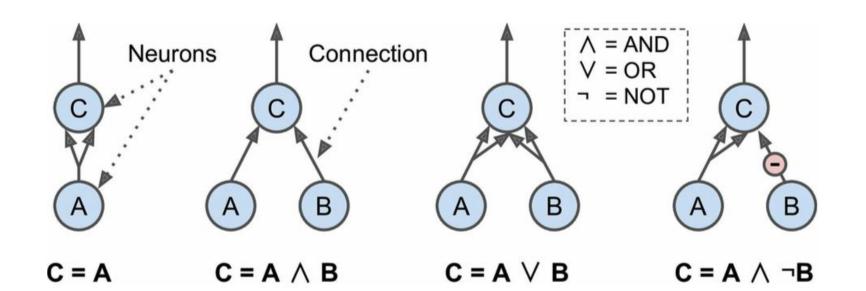
1. Neurons and Perceptrons



Logical Computations with Neurons



- Artificial Neuron: has one or more binary (on/off) inputs and one binary output
- A neural network of a few neurons can perform various logical computations
- Assuming a neuron can be activated when both of its input are active







- LTU is based on an artificial neuron
- Insteads of binary inputs and output, LTU has numeric ones, and each input connection is associated with a weight.
- Essentially, LTU computes a weighted sum of its inputs:

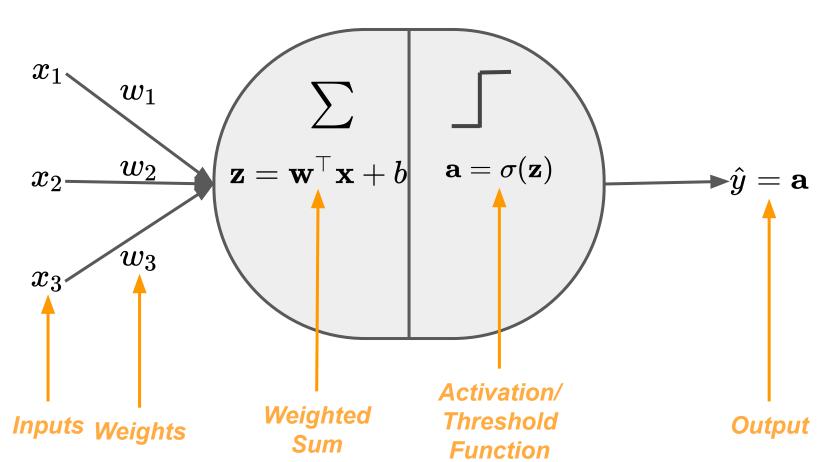
$$z=w_1x_1+w_2x_2+\ldots+w_nx_n=\mathbf{w}^{ op}\mathbf{x}$$

LTU then applied a step function to return an output:

heaviside
$$(z) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } z < 0 \\ 1 & \text{if } z \ge 0 \end{cases}$$
 $\operatorname{sgn}(z) = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } z < 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } z = 0 \\ +1 & \text{if } z > 0 \end{cases}$

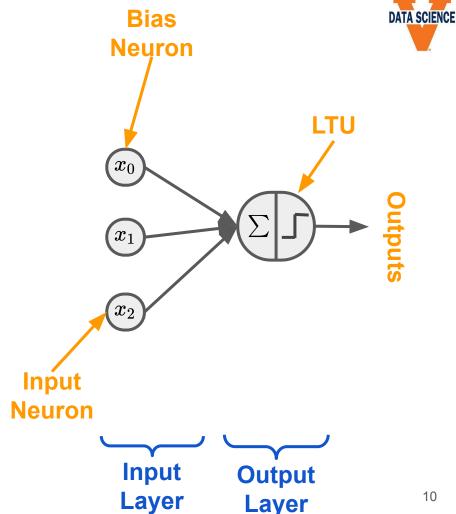
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Graphical representation of a LTU



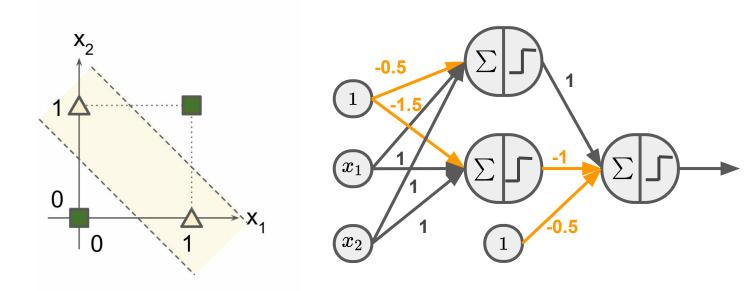
The Perceptron

- One of the simplest neural network architecture (invented in 1957 by Frank Rosenblatt)
- Composed of a layer with LTU, and each neuron connected to all the inputs → input neuron
- An extra bias feature is generally added $(x_0 = 1) \rightarrow bias neuron$



Linear Systems and XOR Classification Problem

INPUT		OUTPUT
Α	В	A XOR B
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

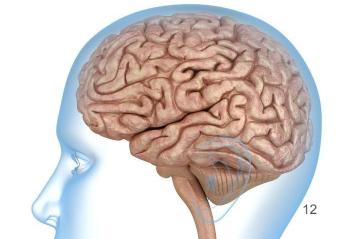


XOR is not linearly separable, cannot be solved with a single layer of LTU

→ stacking multiple layers of Perceptrons can overcome this limitation



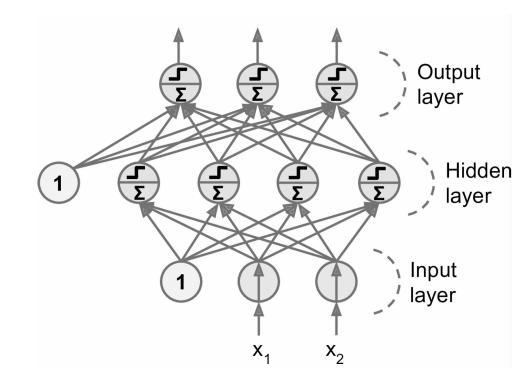
2. Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)



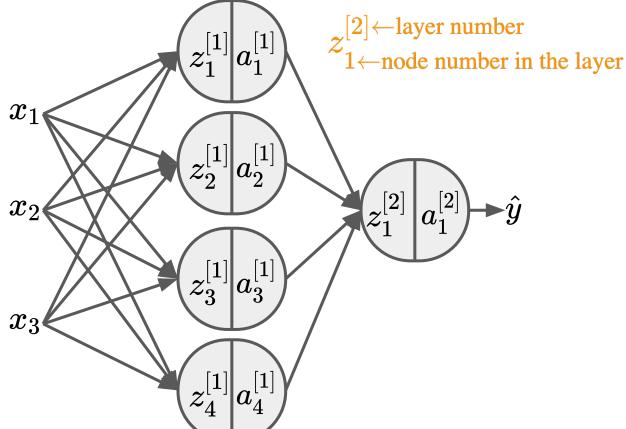




- Composed of:
 - 1 (passthrough) input layer
 - 1 or more layers of LTUs (called hidden layers)
 - 1 final layer of LTU (output layer).
- When an MLP has 2+ hidden layers, it is called Deep Neural Network (DNN)



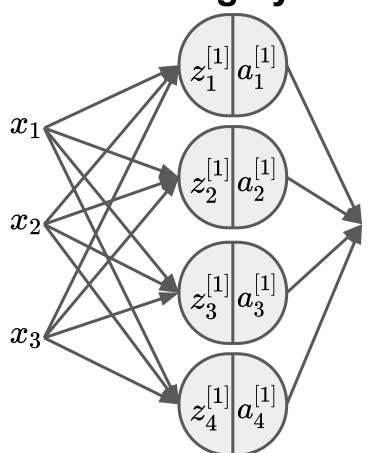
Representation of a MLP



 $egin{aligned} a_1^{_{[1]}} &= \sigmaig(z_1^{_{[1]}}ig) \ z_2^{_{[1]}} &= \mathbf{w}_2^{_{[1]} op}\mathbf{x} \ a_2^{_{[1]}} &= \sigmaig(z_2^{_{[1]}}ig) \ z_3^{_{[1]}} &= \mathbf{w}_3^{_{[1]} op}\mathbf{x} \ a_3^{_{[1]}} &= \sigmaig(z_3^{_{[1]}}ig) \end{aligned}$

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Vectorizing by stacking them vertically



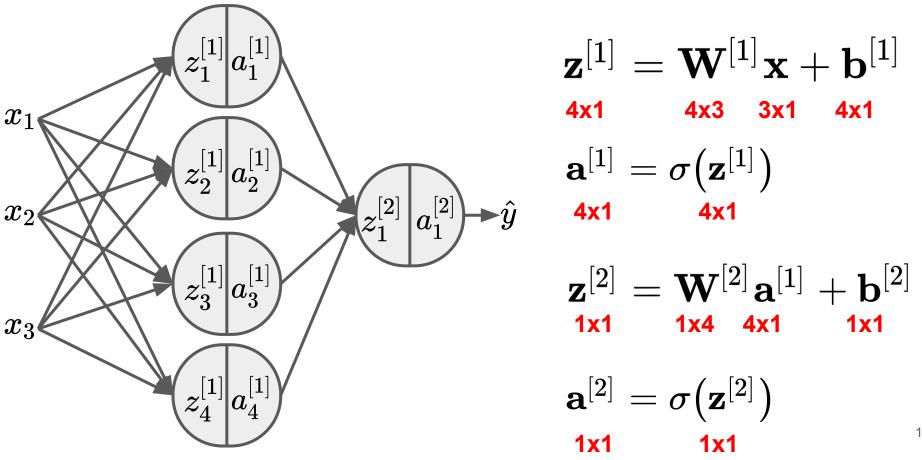
$$egin{aligned} z_1^{[1]} &= \mathbf{w}_1^{[1] op} \mathbf{x} + b_1^{[1]} \ z_2^{[1]} &= \mathbf{w}_2^{[1] op} \mathbf{x} + b_2^{[1]} \ z_3^{[1]} &= \mathbf{w}_3^{[1] op} \mathbf{x} + b_3^{[1]} \ z_4^{[1]} &= \mathbf{w}_4^{[1] op} \mathbf{x} + b_4^{[1]} \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{W}^{[1]}$$
 $\mathbf{b}^{[1]}$ $\mathbf{a}^{[1]}$ $\sigma(\mathbf{z}^{[1]})$

$$\mathbf{z}^{[1]} = \mathbf{W}^{[1]}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{[1]} \quad \mathbf{a}^{[1]} = \sigmaig(\mathbf{z}^{[1]}ig)$$



Dimensionality of vectorized components







$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{x} & \longrightarrow \mathbf{a}^{[2]} = \hat{y} \ \mathbf{x}^{(1)} & \longrightarrow \mathbf{a}^{[2](1)} = \hat{y}^{(1)} \ \mathbf{x}^{(2)} & \longrightarrow \mathbf{a}^{2} = \hat{y}^{(2)} \ dots & dots \ \mathbf{x}^{(m)} & \stackrel{dots}{\longrightarrow} \mathbf{a}^{[2](m)} = \hat{y}^{(m)} \end{aligned}$$

$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{for} \ i &= 1 \ \mathbf{to} \ m \ \mathbf{z}^{[1](i)} &= \mathbf{W}^{[1]} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + \mathbf{b}^{[1]} \ \mathbf{a}^{[1](i)} &= \sigma(\mathbf{z}^{[1](i)}) \ \mathbf{z}^{[2](i)} &= \mathbf{W}^{[2]} \mathbf{a}^{[1](i)} + \mathbf{b}^{[2]} \ \mathbf{a}^{[2](i)} &= \sigma(\mathbf{z}^{[2](i)}) \end{aligned}$$

Vectorizing for multiple examples

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x}^{(1)} \, \mathbf{x}^{(2)} \cdots \mathbf{x}^{(m)} \\ & & \end{bmatrix} \, \mathbf{Z}^{[1]} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}^{1} \, \mathbf{z}^{[1](2)} \cdots \mathbf{z}^{[1](m)} \\ & & \mathbf{n}^{[1]} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{m} \end{bmatrix} \, \mathbf{A}^{[1]} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}^{1} \, \mathbf{a}^{[1](2)} \cdots \mathbf{a}^{[1](m)} \\ & & \mathbf{n}^{[1]} \mathbf{x} \mathbf{m} \end{bmatrix}$$

$$egin{aligned} &\mathbf{for} \ m{i} = \mathbf{1} \ \mathbf{to} \ m{m} \ &\mathbf{z}^{[1](i)} = \mathbf{W}^{[1]} \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + \mathbf{b}^{[1]} \ &\mathbf{a}^{[1](i)} = \sigma(\mathbf{z}^{[1](i)}) \ &\mathbf{z}^{[2](i)} = \mathbf{W}^{[2]} \mathbf{a}^{[1](i)} + \mathbf{b}^{[2]} \ &\mathbf{a}^{[2](i)} = \sigma(\mathbf{z}^{[2](i)}) \end{aligned}$$

$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{A}^{[1]} &= \sigma(\mathbf{Z}^{[1]}) \ \mathbf{Z}^{[2]} &= \mathbf{W}^{[2]} \mathbf{A}^{[1]} + \mathbf{B}^{[2]} \ \mathbf{A}^{[2]} &= \sigma(\mathbf{Z}^{[2]}) \end{aligned}$$

 $\mathbf{Z}^{[1]} = \mathbf{W}^{[1]}\mathbf{X} + \mathbf{B}^{[1]}$

Tips on Dimensions of Neural Net Components



Note: **B**^[1] consists of m replications

of vector $\mathbf{b}^{[l]}$ of dimension $n^{[1]}x1$

$${f z} = {f z}^{(1)} {f z}^{(2)} \cdots {f z}^{(m)} egin{array}{c} {f z}^{[1](2)} {f z}^{[1](2)} \cdots {f z}^{[1](m)} {f A}^{[1]} = {f a}^{1} {f a}^{[1](2)} \cdots {f a}^{[1](m)} {f a}^{[1]} = {f a}^{1} {f a}^{[1](2)} \cdots {f a}^{[1](m)}$$

$$egin{aligned} \mathbf{W}^{[l]} &= (n^{[l]} imes n^{[l-1]}) \ \mathbf{Z}^{[l]} &= (n^{[l]} imes m) \end{aligned} egin{aligned} lackbreak &= n^{[1]} imes number of nodes in layer 1 \ lackbreak &= m imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} imes number of examples in a training batch \ lackbreak &= n^{[l]} i$$

 $\mathbf{B}^{[l]} = (n^{[l]} imes m)$



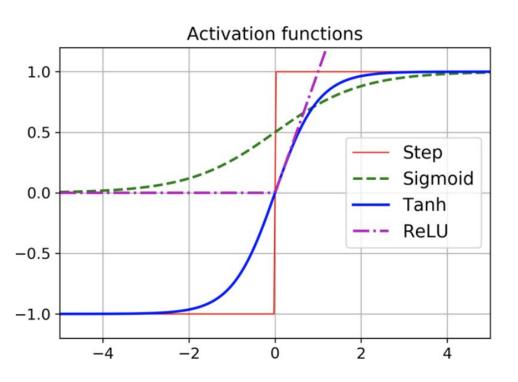
3. Activation Functions







There are a number of activation functions available:



Step:
$$a = 1 \text{ if } z > 0,$$

 $0 \text{ if } z < 0$

Sigmoid:
$$a = \frac{1}{1+e^{-z}}$$

Tanh:
$$a = \tanh(z) = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{e^z + e^{-z}}$$

ReLU:
$$a = \max(0, z)$$



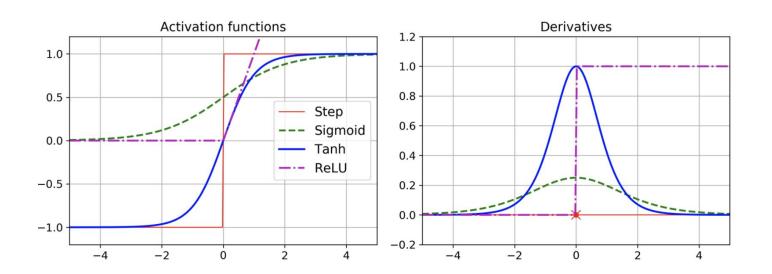
Why activation functions are necessary

- Without activation function, each layer would consist of linear operations (a dot product and an addition), so the layer can only learn linear transformations of the input data.
- Adding a deep stack of linear layers would still implement a linear operation
 ⇒ we need non-linearity to gain access to a much richer representation of the input data
- An activation function computes a non-linear transformation.
- Most neural networks describe the features using an affine (linear) transformation controlled by the learned parameters, followed by a fixed (non-linear) activation function.





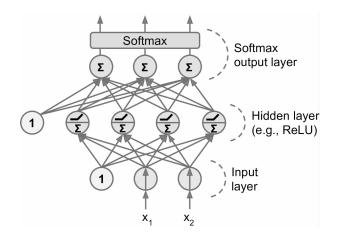
- Step Function has zero derivative → does not work with Gradient Descent
- Use Sigmoid function (and other below) with well-defined non-zero derivative
 → allow Gradient Descent to make progress
- ReLU makes the derivatives **large** and **consistent** whenever it is active (> 0)



Softmax Function



- Any time you wish to represent a probability distribution over a discrete variable with n possible values, you may use the softmax function
- Softmax is most used as outputs, which is sum to 1, of a classifier of n classes
- Softmax exponentiates and normalizes the inputs to obtain desired outputs
- Softmax can be seen as a generalization of the sigmoid (for binary variable)
- Softmax provides a "softened" version of the argmax (returns a one-hot vector)

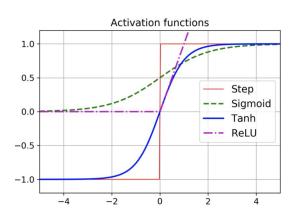


$$ext{softmax}(\mathbf{z})_i = rac{\exp(z_i)}{\sum_i \exp(z_i)} ext{where } z_i = \log P(y=i|\mathbf{x})$$

$$egin{aligned} \log \operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{z})_i &= z_i - \log \sum_j \exp(z_j) \ &pprox z_i - \max_j z_j \end{aligned}$$

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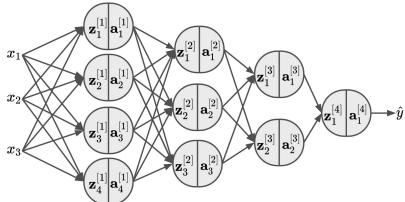
Tips on Activation Functions



- Step function does not work with Gradient-based Learning
- ReLU is faster to compute and easy to optimize as its behavior is closer to linear
- Sigmoid and Hyperbolic Tangent (tanh) function saturate at 1
- Training with tanh is easier than sigmoid as it's similar to the identity function near 0
- For classification tasks, Softmax function is a good choice
- For regression tasks, no need for activation function



Summary: Network Architecture Design



- In general, most neural network architectures arrange in a chain structure,
 with each layer being a function of the layer that preceded it.
- The main consideration is choosing the depth of the network and the width of each layer
- Deeper networks often use fewer units per layer, far few parameters, but they also tend to be harder to optimize
- The ideal network architecture for a task must be found via *experimentation* guided by monitoring the *validation error*.



Bonus Content





"Cells that fire together, wire together" - Hebb's rule

$$w_{i,j}^{\text{(next step)}} = w_{i,j} + \eta(\hat{y}_j - y_j)x_i$$

- $w_{i,j}$ is the connection weight between i^{th} input neuron and j^{th} output neuron
- x_i is the ith input value of the current training sample
- y^ is the output of the jth neuron
- y_j is the target output of j^{th} output neuron
- n is the learning rate

What does this learning algorithm remind you of?





Perceptron makes predictions based on a hard threshold (not class probability)

Also, it only works if the training samples are linearly separate.

```
import numpy as np
from sklearn.datasets import load iris
from sklearn.linear model import Perceptron
iris = load iris()
X = iris.data[:, (2, 3)] # petal length, petal width
y = (iris.target == 0).astype(np.int)
per clf = Perceptron(random state=42)
per clf.fit(X, y)
y pred = per clf.predict([[2, 0.5]])
```