



Neural Networks

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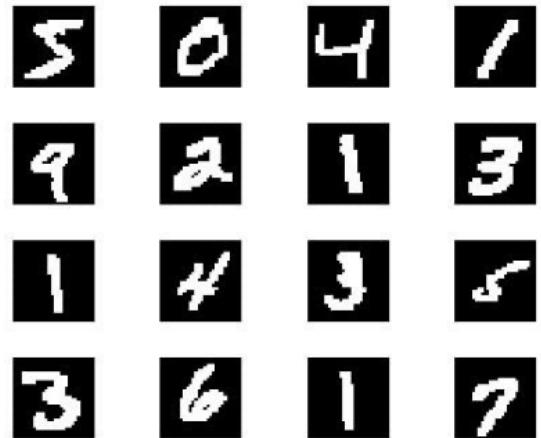
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Thanks to Nick Rouzzi for sharing these slides

Handwritten Digit Recognition



- Given a collection of handwritten digits and their corresponding labels, we'd like to be able to correctly classify handwritten digits
 - A simple algorithmic technique can solve this problem with 95% accuracy
 - State-of-the-art methods can achieve near 99% accuracy (you've probably seen these in action if you've deposited a check recently)



Digits from the MNIST data set

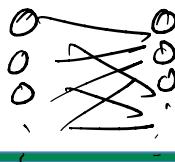
Neural Networks



- The basis of neural networks was developed in the 1940s -1960s
 - The idea was to build mathematical models that might “compute” in the same way that neurons in the brain do
 - As a result, neural networks are biologically inspired, though many of the algorithms developed for them are not biologically plausible
 - Perform surprisingly well for the handwritten digit recognition task (and many others)

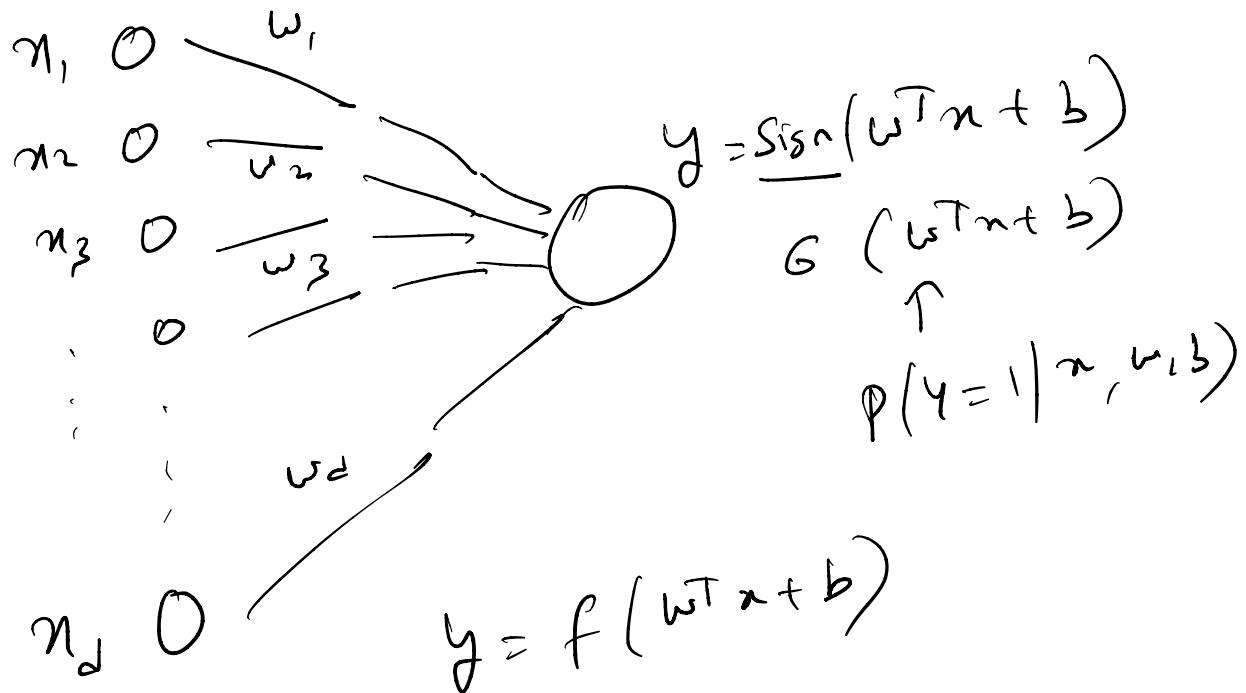
↑
Learning Algos

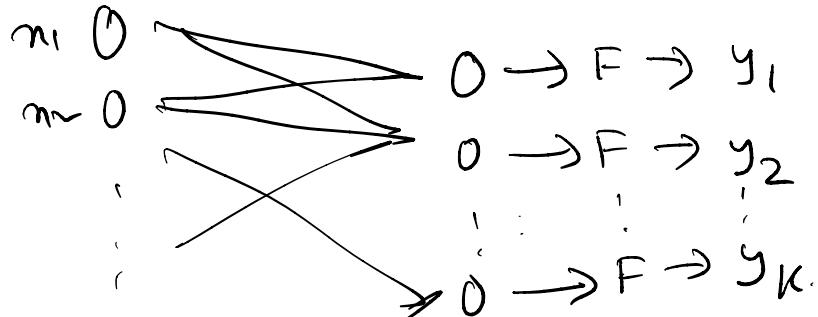
Neural Networks



- Neural networks consist of a collection of artificial neurons
- There are different types of neuron models that are commonly studied
 - The perceptron (one of the first studied)
 - The sigmoid neuron (one of the most common, but many more)
 - Rectified linear units $\leftarrow \max(n, 0)$
- A neural network is a directed graph consisting of a collection of neurons (the nodes), directed edges (each with an associated weight), and a collection of fixed binary inputs

Perceptrons / Logistic Regression





$$y_i = F(\underline{w}_i^T \underline{x} + b_i)$$

\downarrow

Non-Linearity

$$\begin{matrix} y \\ \uparrow \\ K \times 1 \end{matrix} = F\left(\begin{matrix} \underline{w}^T \\ \uparrow \\ d \times 1 \end{matrix} \underline{x} + b\right)$$

\downarrow

Sigmoid

Sigmoid

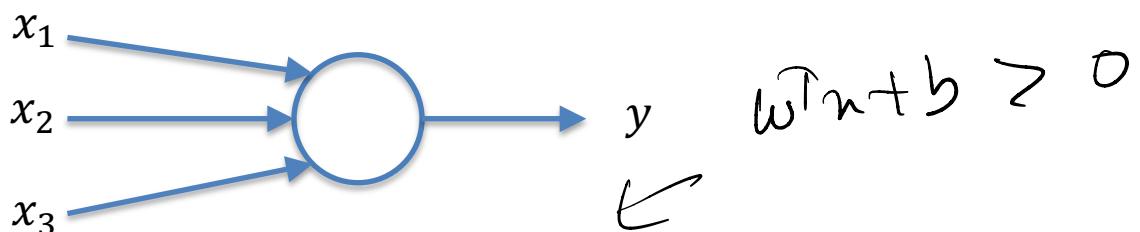
Sigmoid

The Perceptron

- A perceptron is an artificial neuron that takes a collection of binary inputs and produces a binary output

$\uparrow \text{not necessary}$

 - The output of the perceptron is determined by summing up the weighted inputs and thresholding the result: if the weighted sum is larger than the threshold, the output is one (and zero otherwise)

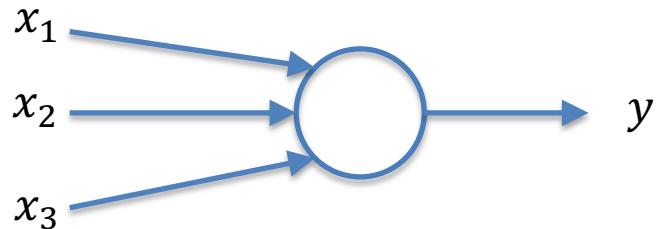


$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_3x_3 > \text{threshold} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

\uparrow
 $\downarrow (w^T x + b > 0)$

Perceptrons

- Perceptrons are usually expressed in terms of a collection of input weights and a bias b (which is the negative threshold)



$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_3x_3 + b > 0 \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- A single node perceptron is just a linear classifier
- This is actually where the “perceptron algorithm” comes from

Perceptron for NOT



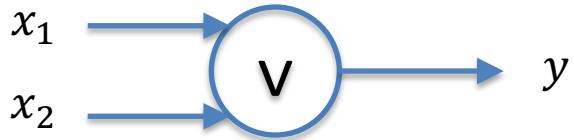
- Choose $w = -1$, threshold = -0.5
- $y = \begin{cases} 1 & -x > -0.5 \\ 0 & -x \leq -0.5 \end{cases}$

Not Function = Linearly Sep.

Perceptron for OR



Perceptron for OR

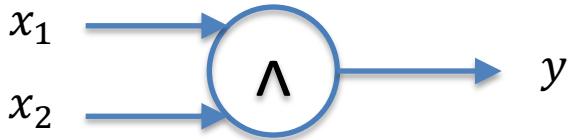


- Choose $w_1 = w_2 = 1$, threshold = 0
- $y = \underbrace{\begin{cases} 1 & x_1 + x_2 > 0 \\ 0 & x_1 + x_2 \leq 0 \end{cases}}$

Perceptron for AND



Perceptron for AND



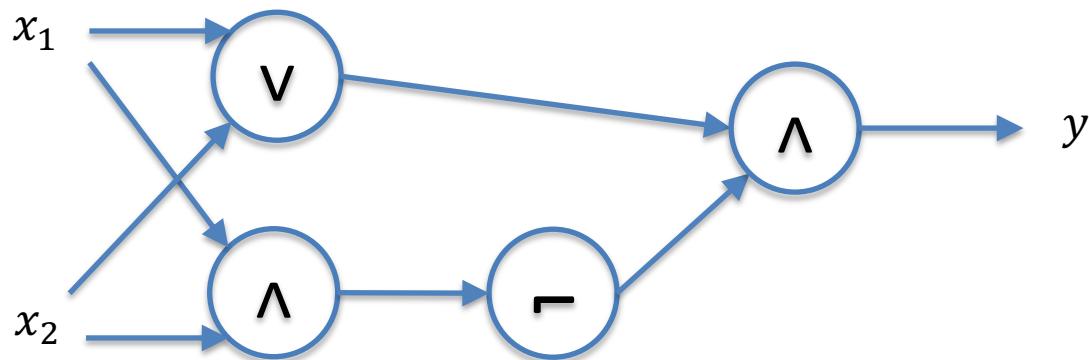
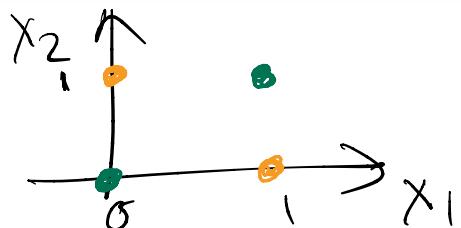
- Choose $w_1 = w_2 = 1$, threshold = 1.5
- $y = \begin{cases} 1 & x_1 + x_2 > 1.5 \\ 0 & x_1 + x_2 \leq 1.5 \end{cases}$

Perceptron for XOR



Perceptron for XOR

- Need more than one perceptron!

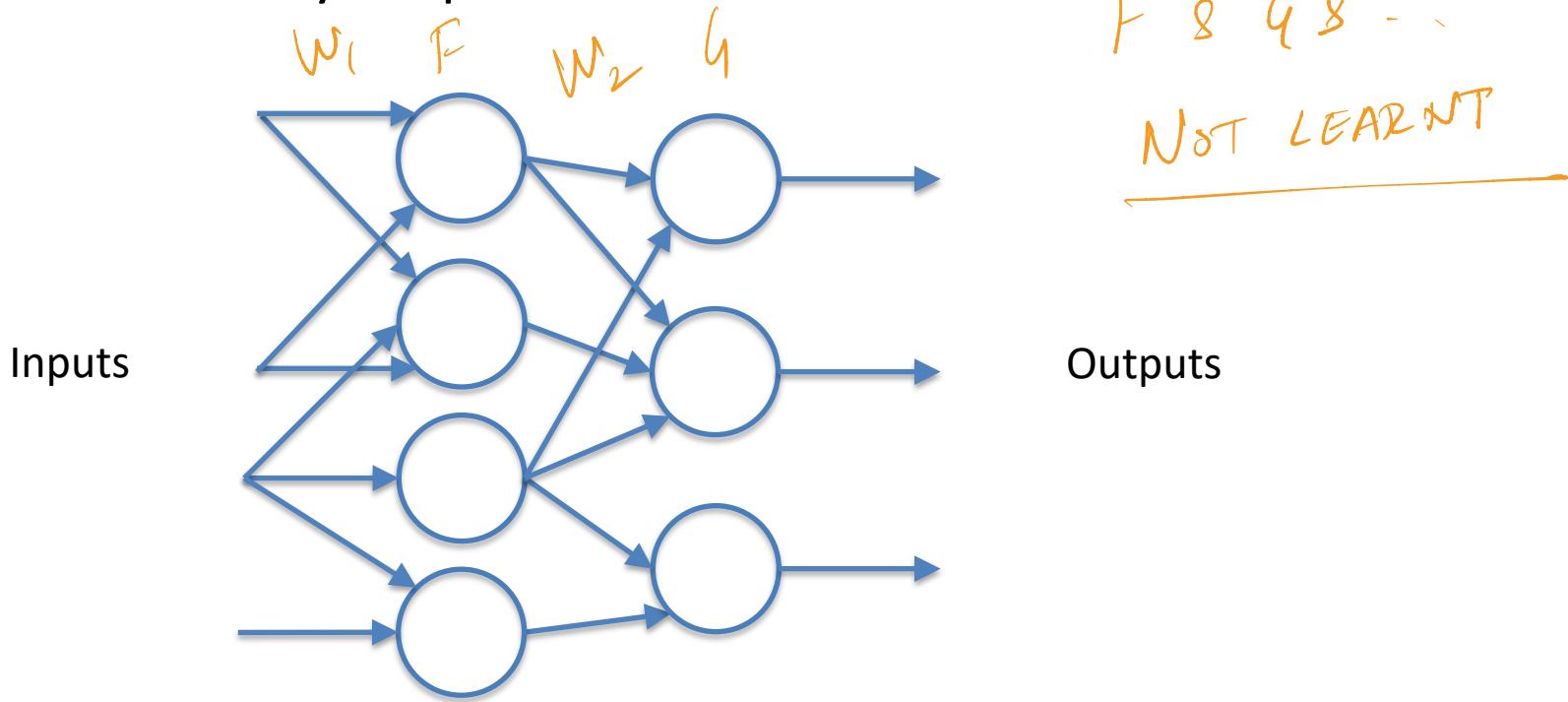


- Weights for incoming edges are chosen as before
- Networks of perceptrons can encode any circuit!

Neural Networks



- Gluing a bunch of perceptrons together gives us a neural network
- In general, neural nets have a collection of binary inputs and a collection of binary outputs



Beyond Perceptrons

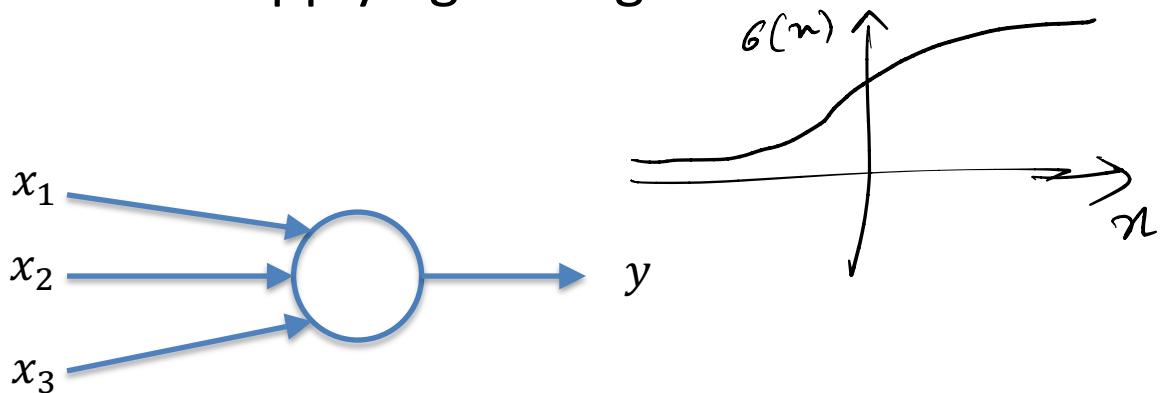


- Given a collection of input-output pairs, we'd like to learn the weights of the neural network so that we can correctly predict the output of an unseen input
- We could try learning via gradient descent (e.g., by minimizing the Hamming loss)
 - This approach doesn't work so well: small changes in the weights can cause dramatic changes in the output
 - This is a consequence of the discontinuity of sharp thresholding (same problem we saw with perceptron alg.)

The Sigmoid Neuron



- A sigmoid neuron is an artificial neuron that takes a collection of real inputs and produces an output in the interval $[0,1]$
 - The output is determined by summing up the weighted inputs plus the bias and applying the sigmoid function to the result



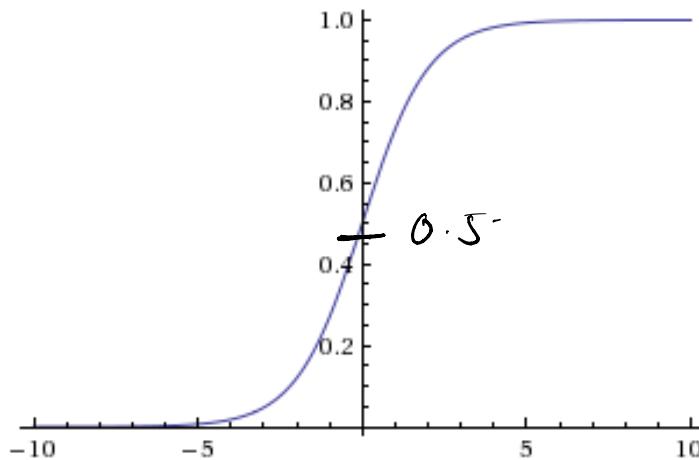
$$y = \underbrace{\sigma(w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + w_3x_3 + b)}$$

where σ is the sigmoid function

The Sigmoid Function

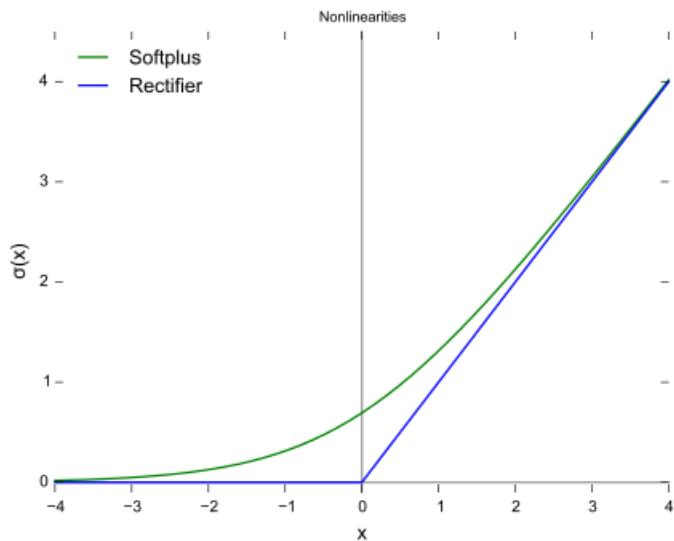
- The sigmoid function is a continuous function that approximates a step function

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



Rectified Linear Units

- The sigmoid neuron approximates a step function as a smooth function
- The relu is given by $\max(0, x)$ which can be approximated as a smooth continuous function $\ln(1 + e^x)$



Softmax

- The softmax function maps a vector of real numbers to a vector of probabilities as

$$\text{softmax}(z)_j = \frac{e^{z_j}}{\sum_k e^{z_k}}$$

- If there is a dominant value in z , then it will become one under the softmax
- Often used as the final layer of a neural network

Multilayer Neural Networks

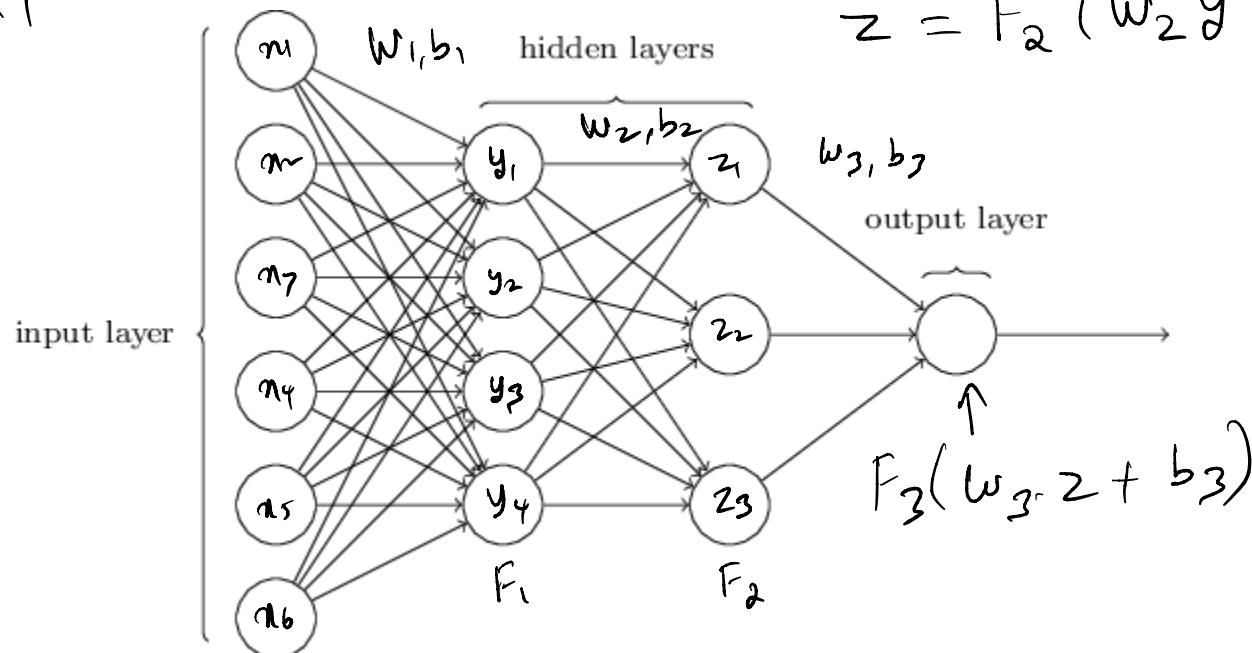
$\pi \in 6 \times 1$ vector

$W \in 4 \times 6$ Matrix

$y \in 4 \times 1$

$$y = F_1(W_1 \cdot \pi + b_1)$$

$$z = F_2(W_2 y + b_2)$$

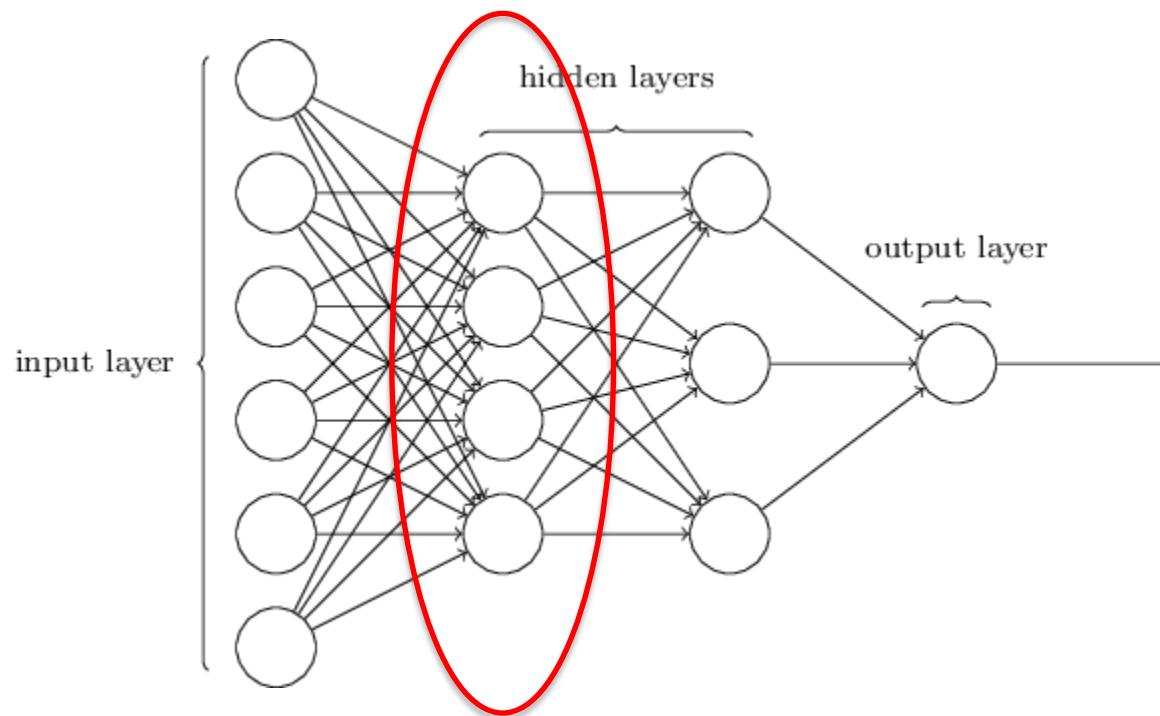


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Multilayer Neural Networks

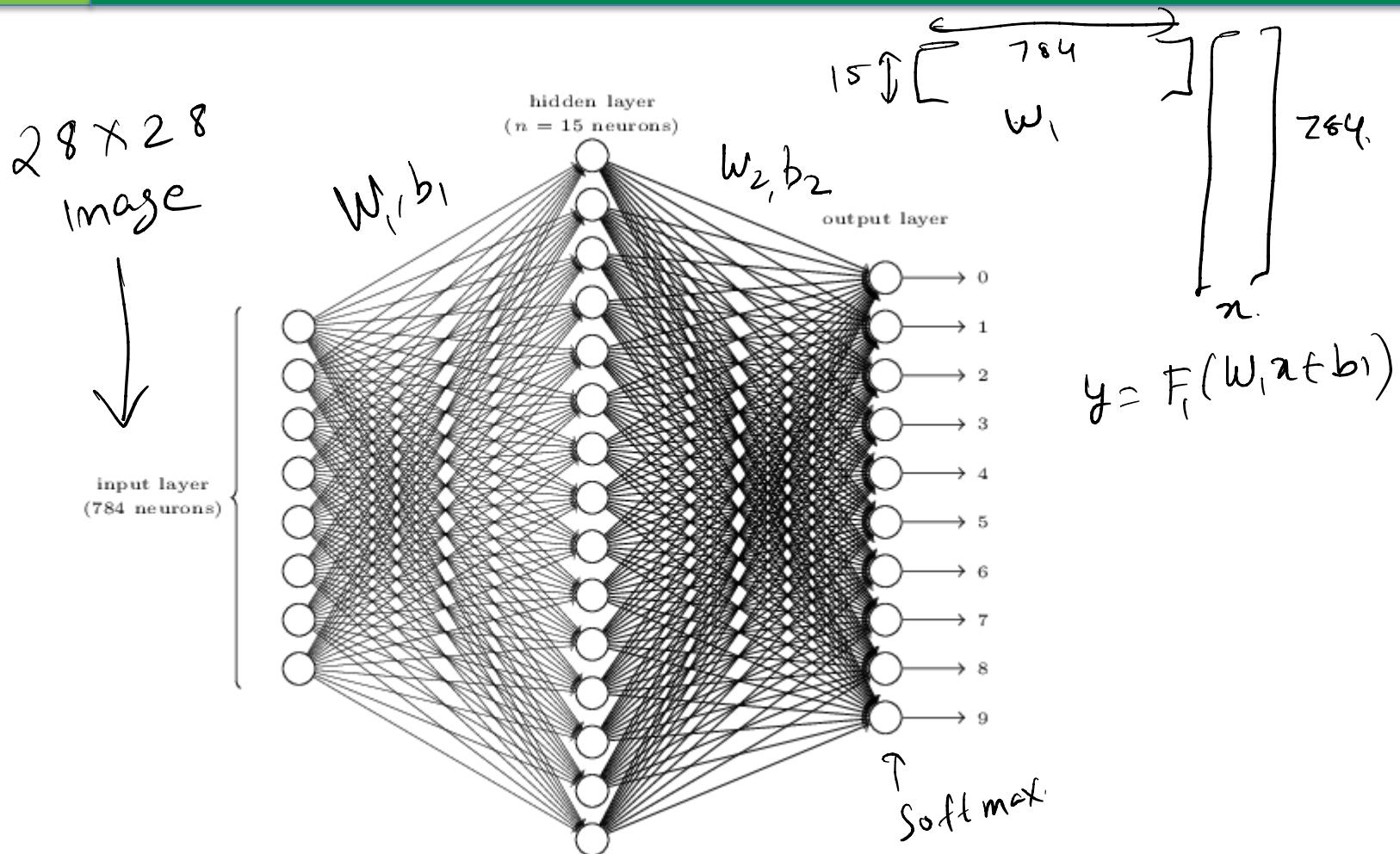


NO intralayer connections



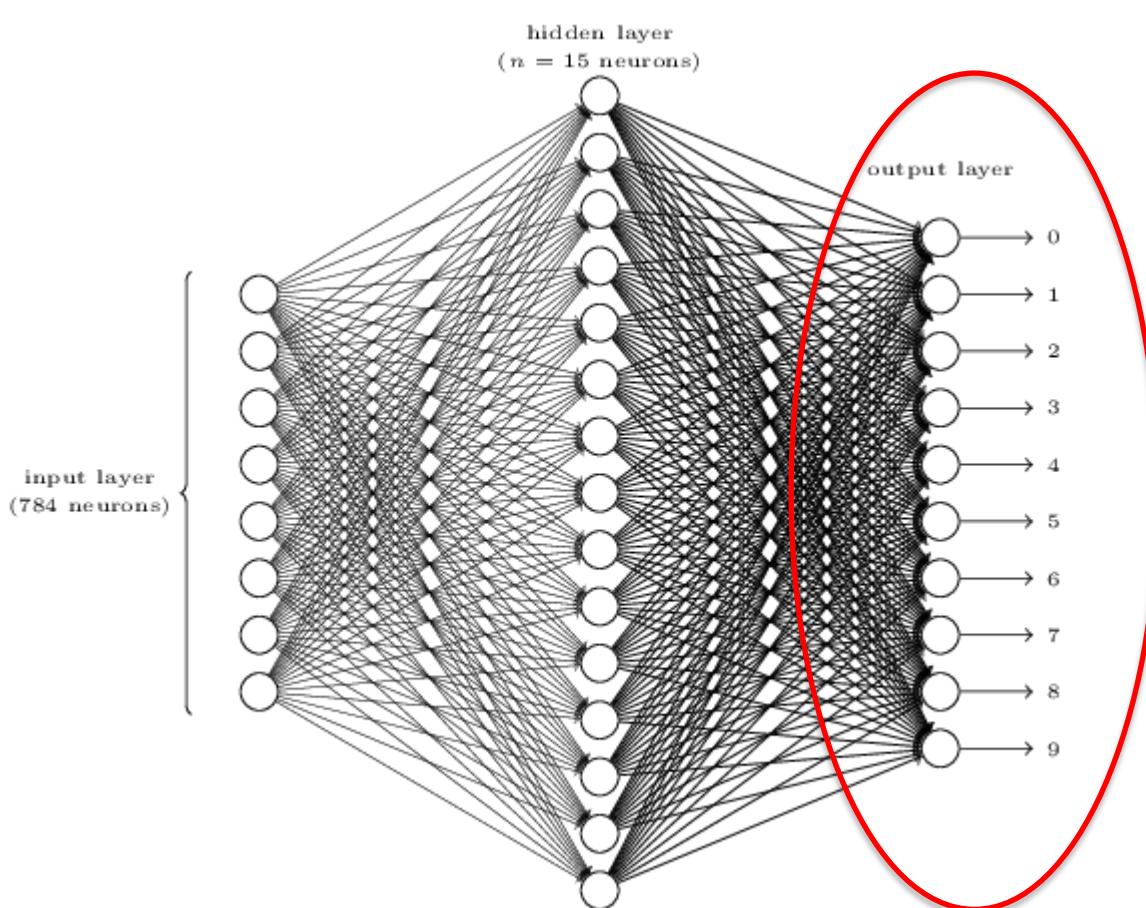
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Neural Network for Digit Classification



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Neural Network for Digit Classification



10 classes

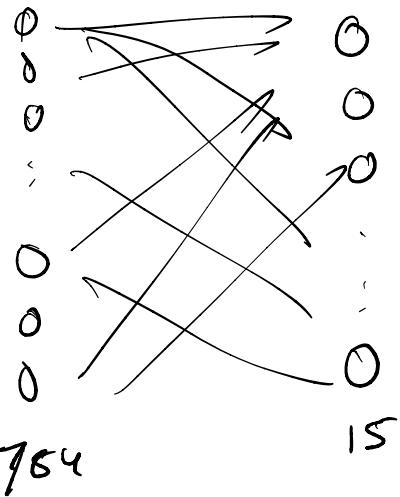
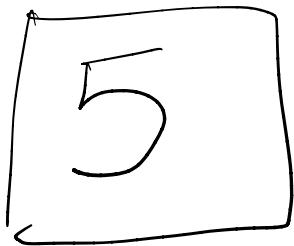
for 10

Digits

0 → 9.

Why 10
instead of 4?

from Neural Networks and Deep Learning by Michael Nielson



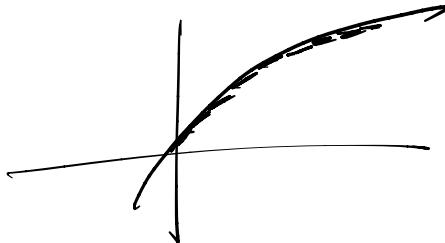
$w_i \in \mathbb{R}^{784}$

$$w = \begin{bmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ \vdots \\ w_{15} \end{bmatrix}$$

Expressiveness of NNs

 ϵ $O\left(\frac{1}{\epsilon}\right)$

- Boolean functions
 - Every Boolean function can be represented by a network with a single hidden layer consisting of possibly exponentially many hidden units
- Continuous functions
 - Every bounded continuous function can be approximated up to arbitrarily small error by a network with one hidden layer
 - Any function can be approximated to arbitrary accuracy with two hidden layers



Expressiveness of NNs

- **Theorem [Zhang et al. 2016]:** There exists a two-layer neural network with ReLU activations and $2n + d$ weights that can represent any function on a sample of size n in d dimensions
 - This should mean that it is very easy to overfit with neural networks
*↑
Fit very well*
 - Generalization performance of networks is difficult to assess theoretically
*↑
Resistant to overfitting*

Training Neural Networks



- To do the learning, we first need to define a loss function to minimize

$$C(w, b) = \frac{1}{2M} \sum_m \|y^m - a(x^m, w, b)\|^2$$

- The training data consists of input output pairs $(x^1, y^1), \dots, (x^M, y^M)$
- $a(x^m, w, b)$ is the output of the neural network for the m^{th} sample
- w and b are the weights and biases

Gradient of the Loss

- The derivative of the loss function is calculated as follows

$$\frac{\partial C(w, b)}{\partial w_k} = \frac{1}{M} \sum_m [y^m - a(x^m, w, b)] \frac{\partial a(x^m, w, b)}{\partial w_k}$$

- To compute the derivative of a , use the chain rule and the derivative of the sigmoid function

$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$
$$\frac{d\sigma(z)}{dz} = \underbrace{\sigma(z) \cdot (1 - \sigma(z))}_{\text{derivative of sigmoid}}$$

- This gets complicated quickly with lots of layers of neurons

Stochastic Gradient Descent

- To make the training more practical, stochastic gradient descent is used instead of standard gradient descent
- Recall, the idea of stochastic gradient descent is to approximate the gradient of a sum by sampling a few indices and averaging

$$\nabla_x \sum_{i=1}^n f_i(x) \approx \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^K \nabla_x f_{i^k}(x)$$

here, for example, each i^k is sampled uniformly at random from $\{1, \dots, n\}$

Computing the Gradient

- We'll compute the gradient for a single sample

$$C(w, b) = \frac{1}{2} \|y - a(x, w, b)\|^2$$

- Some definitions:
 - L is the number of layers
 - $\underline{a_j^l}$ is the output of the j^{th} neuron on the l^{th} layer
 - z_j^l is the weighted input of the j^{th} neuron on the l^{th} layer

$$\underline{a_j^l} = \sigma(z_j^l)$$

$$z_j^l = \sum_k w_{jk}^l a_k^{l-1} + b_j^l$$

- δ_j^l is defined to be $\frac{\partial C}{\partial z_j^l}$

Computing the Gradient

For the output layer, we have the following partial derivative

Last Layer

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial C}{\partial z_j^L} &= -(y_j - a_j^L) \frac{\partial a_j^L}{\partial z_j^L} \\
 &= -(y_j - a_j^L) \frac{\partial \sigma(z_j^L)}{\partial z_j^L} \\
 &= -(y_j - a_j^L) \sigma(z_j^L) (1 - \sigma(z_j^L)) \\
 &= \underline{\delta_j^L}
 \end{aligned}$$

C = Loss Function

Square loss

L = # Layers

$$a_j^L = \sigma(z_j^L)$$

- For simplicity, we will denote the vector of all such partials for each node in the l^{th} layer as δ^l

Computing the Gradient

For the $L - 1$ layer, we have the following partial derivative

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial z_k^{L-1}} = \sum_j (a_j^L - y_j) \frac{\partial a_j^L}{\partial z_k^{L-1}}$$

$$= \sum_j (a_j^L - y_j) \left(\frac{\partial \sigma(z_j^L)}{\partial z_k^{L-1}} \right)$$

$$= \sum_j (a_j^L - y_j) \sigma(z_j^L) (1 - \sigma(z_j^L)) \frac{\partial z_j^L}{\partial z_k^{L-1}}$$

$$= \sum_j (a_j^L - y_j) \sigma(z_j^L) (1 - \sigma(z_j^L)) \frac{\partial \sum_{k'} w_{jk'}^L a_{k'}^{L-1} + b_j^L}{\partial z_k^{L-1}}$$

$$= \sum_j (a_j^L - y_j) \sigma(z_j^L) (1 - \sigma(z_j^L)) \sigma(z_k^{L-1}) (1 - \sigma(z_k^{L-1})) w_{jk}^L$$

$$= ((\delta^L)^T w_{*k}^L) (1 - \sigma(z_k^{L-1})) \sigma(z_k^{L-1})$$

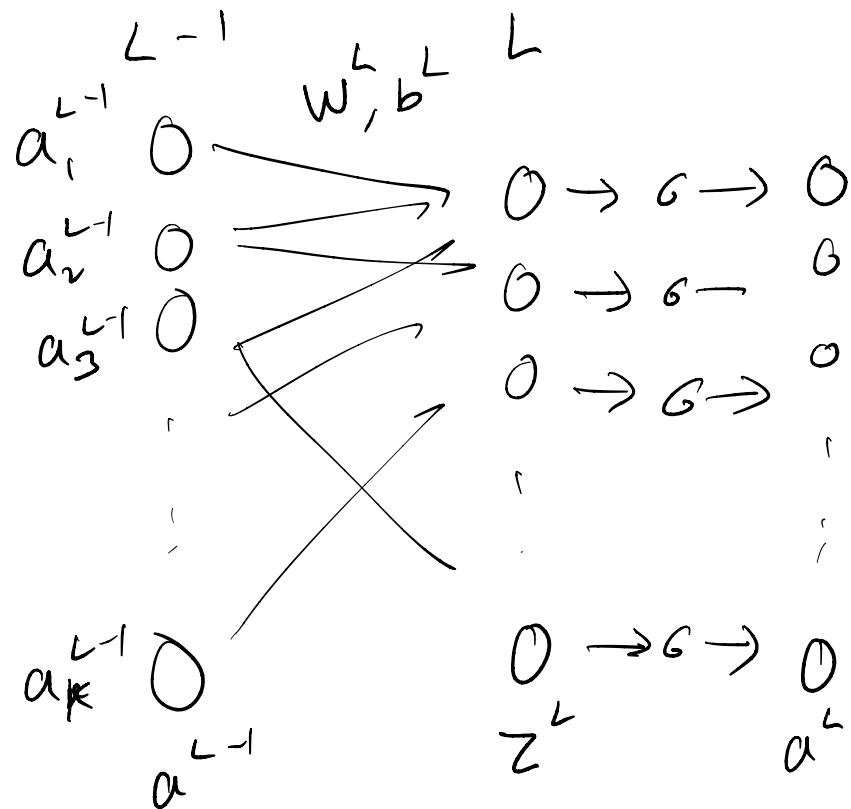
$$C(\omega, b) = \|y - a(x, \omega, b)\|^2$$

$$= \sum_j (y_j - a_j^L(x, \omega, b))^2$$

$$a_j^L = G(z_j^L)$$

$$a_{k'}^{L-1} = \sigma(z_{k'}^{L-1})$$

$$\frac{\partial (w_{jk}^L a_{k'}^{L-1} + b_j^L)}{\partial z_k^{L-1}}$$



Computing the Gradient

- We can think of w^l as a matrix
- This allows us to write

$$\delta^{L-1} = \left((\delta^L)^T w^L \right)^T \circ (1 - \sigma(z^{L-1})) \circ \sigma(z^{L-1})$$

where $\sigma(z^{L-1})$ is the vector whose k^{th} component is $\sigma(z_k^{L-1})$

- Applying the same strategy, for $\overbrace{\delta^l = \left((\delta^{l+1})^T w^{l+1} \right)^T \circ (1 - \sigma(z^l)) \circ \sigma(z^l)}$

$$\delta^l = \left((\delta^{l+1})^T w^{l+1} \right)^T \circ (1 - \sigma(z^l)) \circ \sigma(z^l)$$

$$\delta^L \rightarrow \delta^{L-1} \rightarrow \delta^{L-2} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow \delta^1$$

Computing the Gradient

- Now, for the partial derivatives that we care about

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial b_j^l} = \frac{\partial C}{\partial z_j^l} \cdot \frac{\partial z_j^l}{\partial b_j^l} = \delta_j^l$$

$$\frac{\partial C}{\partial w_{jk}^l} = \frac{\partial C}{\partial z_j^l} \cdot \frac{\partial z_j^l}{\partial w_{jk}^l} = \delta_j^l a_k^{l-1}$$

- We can compute these derivatives one layer at a time!

Backpropagation

- Compute the inputs/outputs for each layer by starting at the input layer and applying the sigmoid functions
- Compute δ^L for the output layer

$$\delta_j^L = -(y_j - a_j^L) \sigma(z_j^L) (1 - \sigma(z_j^L))$$

- Starting from $l = L - 1$ and working backwards, compute

$$\delta^l = \left((\delta^{l+1})^T w^{l+1} \right)^T \circ \sigma(z^l) \circ (1 - \sigma(z^l))$$

- Perform gradient descent

$$b_j^l = b_j^l - \gamma \cdot \delta_j^l$$

$$w_{jk}^l = w_{jk}^l - \gamma \cdot \delta_j^l a_k^{l-1}$$

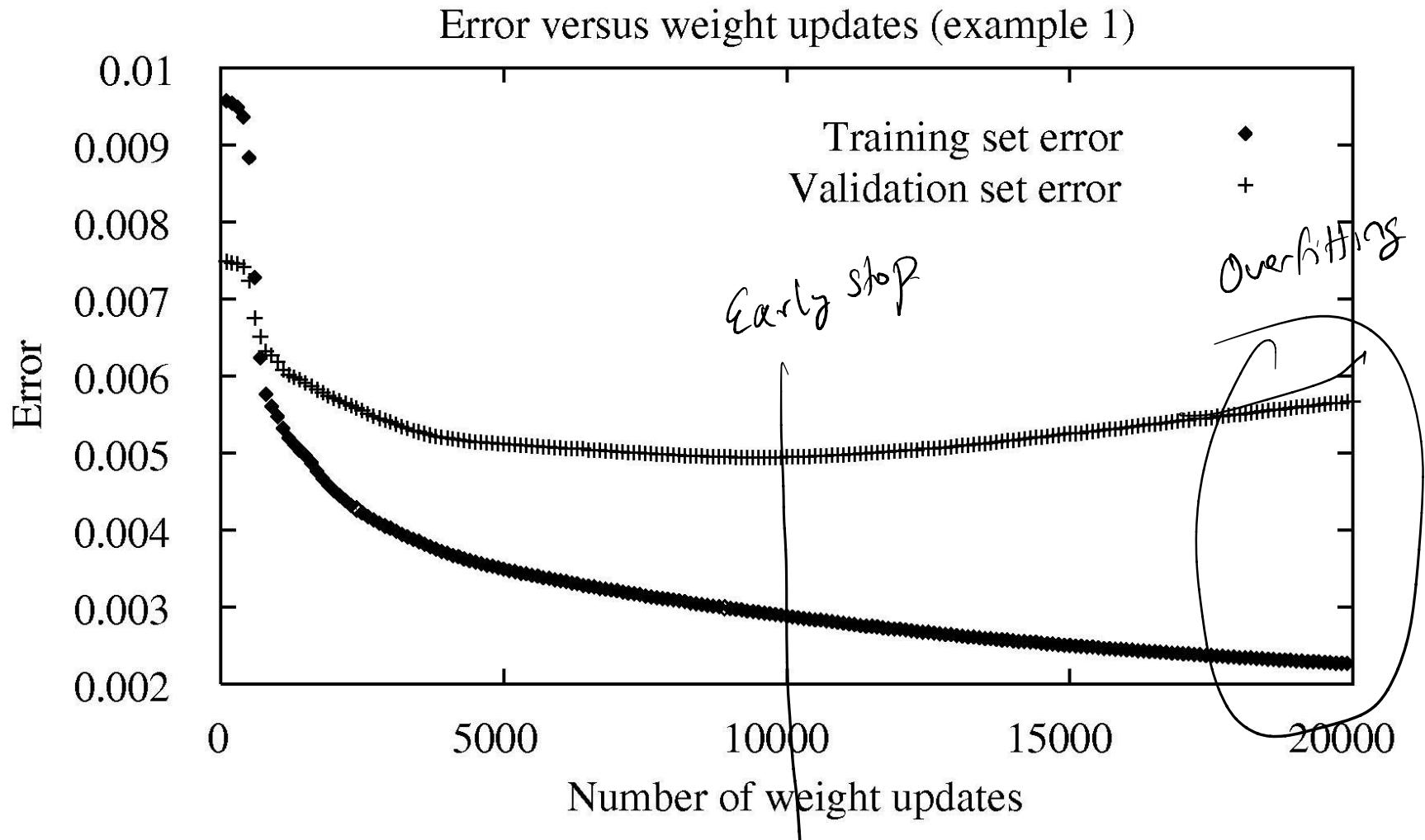
Backpropagation

- Backpropagation converges to a local minimum (loss is not convex in the weights and biases)
 - Like EM, can just run it several times with different initializations
 - Training can take a very long time (even with stochastic gradient descent)
 - Prediction after learning is fast
 - Sometimes include a momentum term α in the gradient update

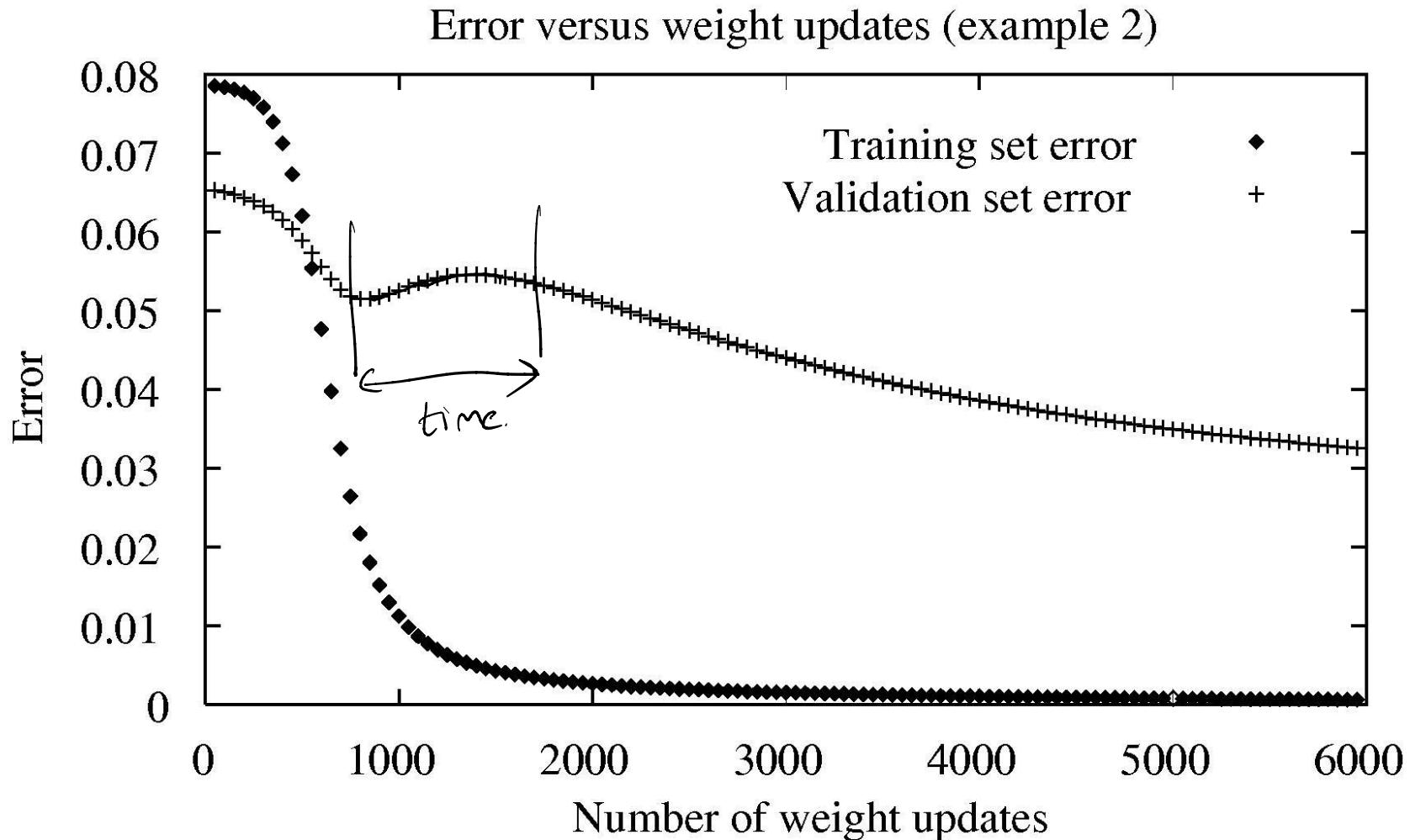
↑
GPU

$$w(t) = w(t-1) - \gamma \cdot \nabla_w C(t-1) + \alpha(-\gamma \cdot \nabla_w C(t-2))$$

Overfitting



Overfitting



Neural Networks in Practice



- Many ways to improve weight learning in NNs
 - Use a regularizer! (better generalization?)
 - Try other loss functions, e.g., the cross entropy
$$-y \log a(x, w, b) - (1 - y) \log(1 - a(x, w, b))$$
 - Initialize the weights of the network more cleverly
 - Random initializations are likely to be far from optimal
- The learning procedure can have numerical difficulties if there are a large number of layers

Regularized Loss

- Penalize learning large weights

$$C'(w, b) = \frac{1}{2M} \sum_m \|y^m - a(x^m, w, b)\|^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2} \|w\|_2^2$$

- Can still use the backpropagation algorithm in this setting
- ℓ_1 regularization can also be useful
- Regularization can help with convergence, λ should be chosen with a validation set

Dropout

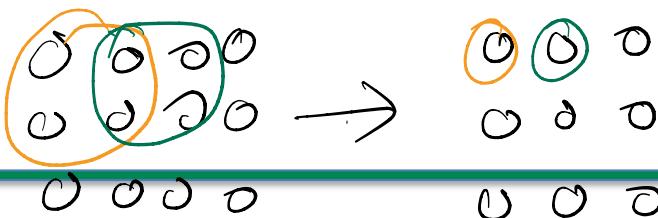


- A heuristic bagging-style approach applied to neural networks to counteract overfitting
 - Randomly remove a certain percentage of the neurons from the network and then train only on the remaining neurons
 - The networks are recombined using an approximate averaging technique (keeping around too many networks and doing proper bagging can be costly in practice)

Other Techniques

- Early stopping
 - Stop the learning early in the hopes that this prevents overfitting
- Parameter tying
 - Assume some of the weights in the model are the same to reduce the dimensionality of the learning problem
 - Also a way to learn “simpler” models
 - Can lead to significant compression in neural networks (i.e., >90%)

Other Ideas



- Convolutional neural networks
 - Instead of the output of every neuron at layer l being used as an input to every neuron at layer $l + 1$, the edges between layers are chosen more locally
 - Many tied weights and biases (i.e., convolution nets apply the same process to many different local chunks of neurons)
 - Often combined with pooling layers (i.e., layers that, say, half the number of neurons by replacing small regions of neurons with their maximum output)
 - Used extensively for image classification tasks