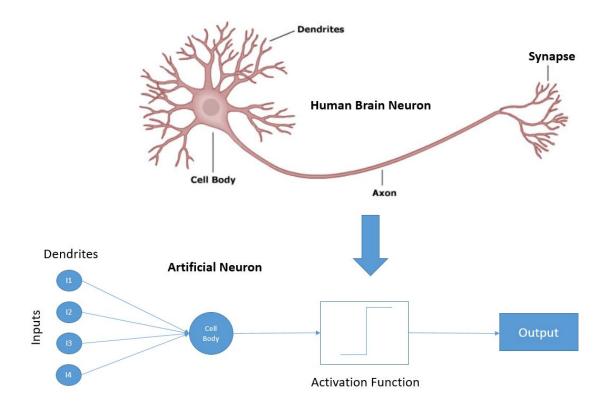
The "Deep" in Deep Leaning

→ The model of a neuron

The human brain has input connections from other neurons (synapses) that receive stimuli in the form of electric charges, and then has a nucleus that depends on how the input stimulates the neuron that can trigger the neuron's activation.

At the end of the neuron, the output signal is propagated to other neurons through dendrites, thus forming a network of neurons.



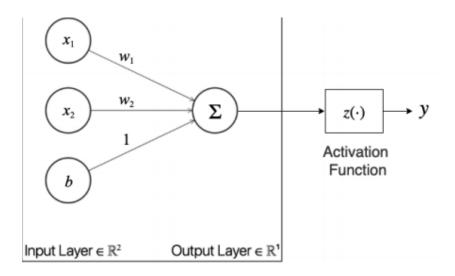
The analogy of the human neuron is depicted in the below Figure,

where the input is represented with the vector x,

the activation of the neuron is given by some function z(.),

and the output is y.

The **parameters** of the **neuron are w and b**:



The trainable parameters of a neuron are w and b, and they are unknown.

Thus, we can use training data **D** to determine these parameters using some learning strategy.

From the picture,

x1 multiplies w1

, then x2 multiplies w2

, and b is multiplied by 1;

all these products

are added, which can be simplified as follows:

$$x_1w_1 + x_2w_2 + b = \mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} + b$$

The activation function operates as a way to ensure the output is within the desired output range.

Let's say that we want a simple linear activation, then the function z(.) is nonexisting or can be bypassed, as follows:

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

This is **usually the case when we want to solve a regression problem** and the output data can have a range from

However, we may want to train the neuron to determine whether a vector x belongs to one of two classes, say -1 and +1.

Then we would be better suited using a **function called a sign activation**:

$$z(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} + b) = sign(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} + b)$$

Where the sign(.) function is denoted as follows:

$$sign(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} + b) = egin{cases} +1 & if \ \mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} + b \geq 0 \ -1 & otherwise \end{cases}$$

There are many other activation functions, but we will introduce those later on.

For now, we will briefly show one of the simplest learning algorithms, the perceptron learning algorithm (PLA).

▼ The perceptron learning algorithm

The PLA begins from the assumption that you want to classify data, X, into two different groups, the positive group (+) and the negative group (-).

It will find some w and b by training to predict the corresponding correct labels y.

The PLA uses the sign(.) function as the activation. Here are the steps that the PLA follows:

- 1. Initialize w to zeros, and iteration counter t = 0
- 2. While there are any incorrectly classified examples:

```
Pick an **incorrectly classified example**, call it x*, whose true label is y*

Update w as follows: wt+1 = wt+ y*x*

Increase iteration counter t++ and repeat
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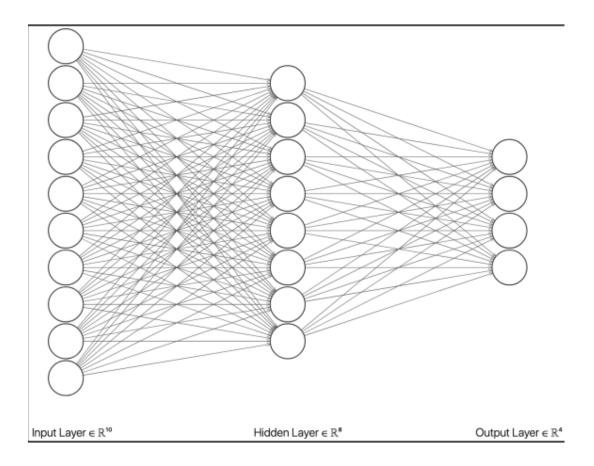
Notice that, for the PLA to work as we want, we have to make an adjustment.

Shallow networks

A neural network consists of multiple networks connected in different layers.

In contrast, a perceptron has only one neuron and its architecture consists of an input layer and an output layer.

In neural networks, there are additional layers between the input and output layer.



Neural networks can solve more difficult problems than without a network, for example, with a single neural unit such as the perceptron.

This must feel intuitive and must be easy to conceive. A neural network can solve problems including and beyond those that are linearly separable.

For linearly separable problems, we can use both the perceptron model and a neural network.

However, **for more complex and non-linearly separable problems**, the perceptron cannot offer a high-quality solution, while a neural network does.

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However, for more complex and non-linearly separable problems, the perceptron cannot offer a high-quality solution, while a neural network does.

Non-separable data is such that there is no line that can separate groups of data (or classes) into two groups.

Non-linear models, or solutions, are those that naturally and commonly occur when the best solution to a classification problem is not a line.

For example, it can be some curve described by some polynomial of any degree greater than one.

▼ The input-to-hidden layer

In a neural network, the input vector x is connected to a number of neurons through weights w for each neuron, which can be now thought of as a number of weight vectors forming a matrix W.

The matrix W has as many columns as neurons as the layer has, and as many rows as the number of features (or dimensions) x has.

Thus, the output of the hidden layer can be thought of as the following vector:

$$\mathbf{h} = z(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} + b)$$

Where b is a vector of biases, whose elements correspond to one neural unit, and the size of h is proportional to the number of hidden units.

The hidden-to-hidden layer

In a neural network, we could have more than one single hidden layer, In such case, the matrix W can be expressed as a three dimensional matrix that will have as many elements in the third dimension and as many hidden layers as the network has.

In the case of the i-th layer, we will refer to that matrix as Wi for convenience.

Therefore, we can refer to the output of the i-th hidden layer as follows:

$$\mathbf{h}_i = z(\mathbf{W}_i^T \mathbf{h}_{i-1} + \mathbf{b}_i)$$

The hidden-to-output layer

The overall output of the network is the output at the last layer

$$\mathbf{h}_k = z(\mathbf{W}_k^T \mathbf{h}_{k-1} + \mathbf{b}_k)$$

Here, the last activation function is usually different from the hidden layer activations.

The activation function in the last layer (output) traditionally depends on the type of problem we are trying to solve.