# Neural network architecture and learning

Toby Dylan Hocking toby.hocking@nau.edu toby.hocking@r-project.org

February 17, 2022

#### Fully connected multi-layer Neural Networks

Computing gradients and learning weights

Automatic differentiation

# Supervised learning setup

- ▶ Have an input  $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$  a vector of d real numbers.
- And an output y (real number: regression, integer ID: classification, spam filtering, images of digits/clothing, etc).
- Want to learn a prediction function  $f(\mathbf{x}) = y$  that will work on a new input.
- ▶ In a neural network (or multi-layer perceptron) with L-1 hidden layers, the function f is defined using composition of L functions,  $f(x) = f^{(L)}[\cdots f^{(1)}[x]] \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- Linear model is special case with L = 1 function, 0 hidden layers.
- ▶ "Deep" learning means  $L \ge 3$  functions, at least 2 hidden layers.

### Each function is matrix multiplication and activation

- ▶ Prediction function  $f(x) = f^{(L)}[\cdots f^{(1)}[x]] \in \mathbb{R}$ .
- ▶ Each function  $I \in \{1, \ldots, L\}$  is a matrix multiplication followed by an activation function:  $f^{(I)}[z] = \sigma^{(I)}[W^{(I)}z]$  where  $W^{(I)} \in \mathbb{R}^{u^{(I)} \times u^{(I-1)}}$  is a weight matrix to learn, and  $z \in \mathbb{R}^{u^{(I-1)}}$  is the input vector to that layer.
- If the loss function is defined in terms of a real-valued predicted score (typical, like we did in linear models), then the last activation function is fixed to the identity  $\sigma^{(L)}[z] = z$ .
- The other activation functions must be non-linear, e.g. logistic/sigmoid  $\sigma(z)=1/(1+\exp(-z))$  or rectified linear units (ReLU)

$$\sigma(z) = \begin{cases} z & \text{if } z > 0, \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$

#### Non-linear activation functions

$$\sigma(z) = \begin{cases} z & \text{if } z > 0, \\ 0 & \text{else.} \end{cases}$$
  $\sigma(z) = 1/(1 + \exp(-z))$ 



#### Network size

For binary classification with inputs  $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ , the overall neural network architecture is  $(u^{(0)} = d, u^{(1)}, \dots, u^{(L-1)}, u^{(L)} = 1)$ , where  $u^{(1)}, \dots, u^{(L-1)} \in \mathbb{Z}_+$  are positive integers (hyper-parameters that control the number of units in each hidden layer, and the size of the parameter matrices  $W^{(I)}$ ).

- "Units" is a synonym for "features" and "variables."
- First and last layer are "visible" others are "hidden."
- First layer size  $u^{(0)}$  is fixed to input size.
- Last layer size  $u^{(L)}$  is fixed to output size.
- Number of layers and hidden layer sizes  $u^{(1)}, \ldots, u^{(L-1)}$  must be chosen (by you).
- No hidden layers/units means L = 1, linear model.
- ▶ "Deep" learning means  $L \ge 3$  functions, at least 2 hidden layers.



# Network diagram for linear model with 10 inputs/features

Neural network diagrams show how each unit (node) is computed by applying the weights (edges) to the values of the units at the previous layer.

Number of units: 10,1



# Network diagram for single hidden layer with 2 units

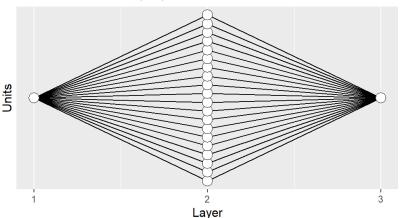
Neural network diagrams show how each unit (node) is computed by applying the weights (edges) to the values of the units at the previous layer.

Number of units: 1,2,1



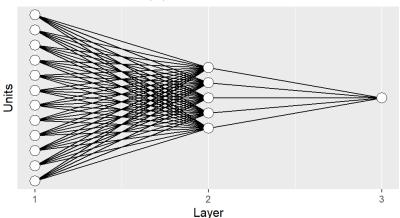
Neural network diagrams show how each unit (node) is computed by applying the weights (edges) to the values of the units at the previous layer.

Number of units: 1,20,1



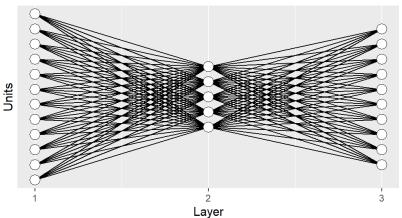
Neural network diagrams show how each unit (node) is computed by applying the weights (edges) to the values of the units at the previous layer.

Number of units: 12,5,1



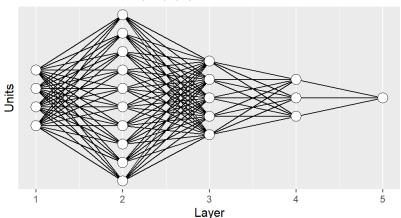
Neural network diagrams show how each unit (node) is computed by applying the weights (edges) to the values of the units at the previous layer.

Number of units: 12,5,10



Neural network diagrams show how each unit (node) is computed by applying the weights (edges) to the values of the units at the previous layer.

Number of units: 4,10,5,3,1



### Units in each layer

We can write the units at each layer as  $h^{(0)}, h^{(1)}, \dots, h^{(L-1)}, h^{(L)}$  where

- ▶  $h^{(0)} = x \in \mathbb{R}^d$  is an input feature vector,
- ▶ and  $h^{(L)} \in \mathbb{R}$  is the predicted output.

For each layer  $I \in \{1, ..., L\}$  we have:

$$h^{(l)} = f^{(l)} \left[ h^{(l-1)} \right] = \sigma^{(l)} \left[ W^{(l)} h^{(l-1)} \right].$$

Total number of parameters to learn is  $\sum_{l=1}^{L} u^{(l)} u^{(l-1)}$ . Quiz: how many parameters in a neural network for d=10 inputs/features with one hidden layer with u=100 units? (one output unit, ten output units)

Fully connected multi-layer Neural Networks

Computing gradients and learning weights

Automatic differentiation

### Gradient descent learning

Basic idea of gradient descent learning algorithm is to iteratively update weights  $\mathbf{W} = [W^{(1)}, \dots, W^{(L)}]$  to improve predictions on the subtrain set.

- Need to define a loss function  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W})$  which is differentiable, and takes small values for good predictions.
- Typically for regression we use the mean squared error, and for binary classification we use the mean logistic loss (sometimes called cross entropy).
- ▶ The mean loss  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W})$  is averaged over all N observations or batches i:

$$\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$$

▶ The mean full gradient  $\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W})$  is a function which tells us the local direction where the loss is most increasing:

$$\nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$$



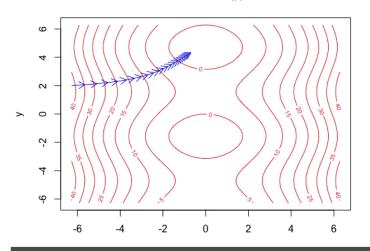
## Loss functions





### Gradient descent animations

https://yihui.org/animation/example/grad-desc/ $z = x^2 + 3\sin(y)$ 



0:02 / 0:04

# Basic full gradient descent algorithm

- ▶ Initialize weights **W**<sub>0</sub> at some random values near zero (more complicated initializations possible).
- Since we want to decrease the loss, we take a step  $\alpha > 0$  in the opposite direction of the mean full gradient,

$$\mathbf{W}_t = \mathbf{W}_{t-1} - \alpha \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}_{t-1})$$

► This is the **full** gradient method (same as we did for linear models): batch size = n = subtrain set size, so 1 step per epoch/iteration.

### Stochastic gradient descent algorithm

- Initialize weights W at some random values near zero (more complicated initializations possible).
- ▶ for each epoch t from 1 to max epochs:
- ▶ for each batch *i* from 1 to *n*:
- Let  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$  be the loss with respect to the single observation in batch i.

$$\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} - \alpha \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$$

► This is the **stochastic** gradient method: batch size = 1, so there are *n* steps per epoch.



# Batch (stochastic) gradient descent algorithm

- Input: batch size b.
- ▶ Initialize weights W at some random values near zero (more complicated initializations possible).
- ▶ for each epoch *t* from 1 to max epochs:
- ▶ for each batch i from 1 to  $\lceil n/b \rceil$ :
- Let  $\mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$  be the mean loss with respect to the b observations in batch i.

$$\mathbf{W} \leftarrow \mathbf{W} - \alpha \nabla \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{W}, \mathbf{X}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)$$

▶ This is the **(mini)batch** stochastic gradient method: batch size = b, so there are  $\lceil n/b \rceil$  steps per epoch.



### Forward propagation

- Forward propagation is the computation of hidden units  $h^{(1)}, \ldots, h^{(L)}$  given the inputs x and current parameters  $W^{(1)}, \ldots, W^{(L)}$ .
- Start from input, apply weights and activation in each layer until predicted output is computed.
- In the code this should be a for loop from first to last layer.

### Back propagation

Back propagation is the computation of gradients given current parameters and hidden units.

- Start from loss function, compute gradient, send it to last layer, use chain rule, send gradient to previous layer, finally end up at first layer.
- Result is gradients with respect to all weights in all layers.
- Deep learning libraries like torch/keras do this using automatic differentiation based on your definition of the forward method and the loss function.
- This week in class we will code the gradient computation from scratch to see how it works.
- ► In the code this should be a for loop from last layer to first layer.

# Computation graph



For each layer  $I \in \{1, \dots, L\}$  we have:

$$\begin{array}{rcl} \boldsymbol{a}^{(I)} & = & \boldsymbol{W}^{(I)} \boldsymbol{h}^{(I-1)}, \\ \boldsymbol{h}^{(I)} & = & \boldsymbol{\sigma}^{(I)} \left[ \boldsymbol{a}^{(I)} \right]. \end{array}$$

There are essentially four rules for computing gradients during backpropagation (0-3).

### Backprop rules

The rules 0–3 for backprop (from loss backwards):

Rule 0 computes  $\nabla_{h^{(L)}}J$ , which depends on the choice of the loss function  $\ell$ .

Rule 1 computes  $\nabla_{W^{(l)}}J$  using  $\nabla_{a^{(l)}}J$ , for any  $l \in \{1, \dots, L\}$ 

$$\nabla_{W^{(l)}} J = \left(h^{(l-1)}\right)^T \left(\nabla_{\mathsf{a}^{(l)}} J\right) \tag{1}$$

Rule 2 computes  $\nabla_{a^{(l)}}J$  using  $\nabla_{h^{(l)}}J$ , for any  $l \in \{1, \dots, L\}$ .

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{a}^{(l)}} J = (\nabla_{\mathbf{h}^{(l)}} J) \odot (\nabla_{\mathbf{a}^{(l)}} \mathbf{h}^{(l)})$$
 (2)

Rule 3 computes  $\nabla_{h^{(l)}}J$  using  $\nabla_{a^{(l+1)}}J$ , for any  $l \in \{1, \dots, L-1\}$ .

$$\nabla_{h^{(l)}}J = (\nabla_{a^{(l+1)}}J)(W^{(l+1)})^{T}$$
 (3)



### Implementation details

- ► Previous slides explained computations for a single observation, here we explain for a batch.
- Each  $h^{(I)}$ ,  $a^{(I)}$  and their gradients can be stored as a matrix (nrow=batch size,  $ncol=u^{(I)}$ =number units in this layer).
- ► Each  $W^{(l)}$  and its gradient is a  $u^{(l-1)} \times u^{(l)}$  matrix.
- Matrix multiply features by weights to get next layer,  $a^{(l)} = h^{(l-1)}W^{(l)}$ .

# Computation exercises (gradient descent learning)

Now assume we have used backpropagation to compute gradients with respect to four observations i:

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{v}} \mathcal{L}(\mathbf{v}, \mathbf{X}_{i}, \mathbf{y}_{i}) = \begin{cases} [-1, 1] & i = 1 \\ [-2, 2] & i = 2 \\ [-3, 2] & i = 3 \\ [-1, 2] & i = 4 \end{cases}$$

Starting at current weights  $\mathbf{v} = [-2, 1]$  and using gradient descent with step size  $\alpha = 0.5$ , ( $\mathcal{L}$  is total loss, show your work!)

- 1. For the full gradient method, there is one step. What is the new weight vector **v** after that step?
- 2. For a batch size of 2, there are two steps. Assume batch 1 is observations i = 1, 2 and batch 2 is observations i = 3, 4. What is the new weight vector **v** after the batch 1 step? After the batch 2 step?
- 3. For the stochastic gradient method, there are four steps i=1,2,3,4. What is **v** after each of those steps?



Fully connected multi-layer Neural Networks

Computing gradients and learning weights

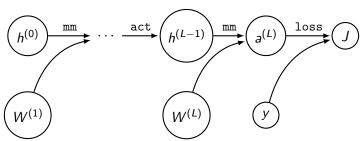
Automatic differentiation

# Why automatic differentiation?

- Also called "auto-grad," short for automatic gradient.
- People who design new neural network architectures and loss functions (fit method of learner class) do not necessarily have the expertise to compute the gradients.
- Automatic differentiation allows "separation of concerns."
- People who know how to compute gradients can implement classes which encapsulate forward/backward computations for individual operations (matrix multiplication, log, exp, etc).
- Other people can use these classes to implement their neural network, without having to know about the details of the forward/backward computations (and no worries about coding buggy/incorrect gradients).

### Computation graph for multi-layer perceptron

- ► Each node in the computation graph is a tensor (0d=scalar, 1d=vector, 2d=matrix, etc).
- ► Each edge in the computation graph is an operation (with methods for forward/back-prop).
- Only three operations needed: matrix multiply (mm), non-linear activation (act), and computing loss given labels y and predicted scores a<sup>(L)</sup>.

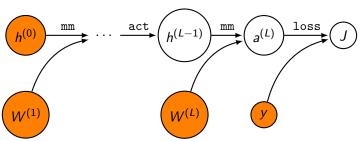


### Nodes in the computation graph

- ► Each node in the computation graph can be represented by an instance of a python class.
- value attribute is a numpy array, result of forward propagation, computed during instantiation.
- grad attribute is a numpy array of same size, gradient of loss with respect to this node, result of back-propagation.
- Main idea is to link these instances together to form a computation graph and value (forward pass), then recursively compute grad (backward pass).

### Initial nodes in the computation graph

- Initial node in the computation graph can be represented by an instance of InitialNode class.
- value attribute is a numpy array, stored on instantiation.
- Main uses are wrapping training data and neural network weights: InitialNode(weight\_mat), InitialNode(feature\_mat), InitialNode(label\_vec).

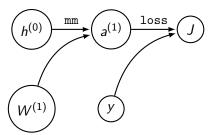


## Derived nodes in the computation graph

- Operation class represents a node in the computation graph which is computed using other nodes.
- On instantiation, stores input nodes and does forward propagation.
- Method backward() computes gradient and recursively calls backward() on input nodes.
- Deperation is virtual so we only instantiate sub-classes: mm(features, weights), relu(a\_mat), logistic\_loss(a\_mat, label\_vec).
- ➤ Sub-classes should define forward and gradient methods which implement details of forward/back-prop, results are stored as value/grad attributes.

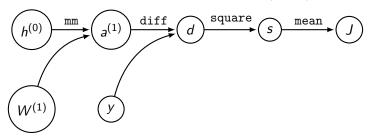
# Simple computation graph for linear model

- Only two operations needed: matrix multiply (mm) and computing loss given predicted scores (loss).
- To implement the loss operation/class, you need to know how to compute the gradient of the loss (maybe difficult for complex loss functions).



# Detailed computation graph for linear model

- Example: square loss  $\ell(a^{(1)}, y) = (a^{(1)} y)^2 = d^2$ ,
- ▶ Mean squared error:  $J = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \ell(a_i^{(1)}, y_i)/n = \sum_{i=1}^{n} s_i/n$ .
- ► More operations needed: matrix multiply (mm), subtraction (diff), square, mean.
- Each operation has a simple gradient (demo).



### Possible exam questions

Given a computation graph, and values for initial nodes, compute value in each derived node by hand (forward propagation), then compute grad (back-prop).