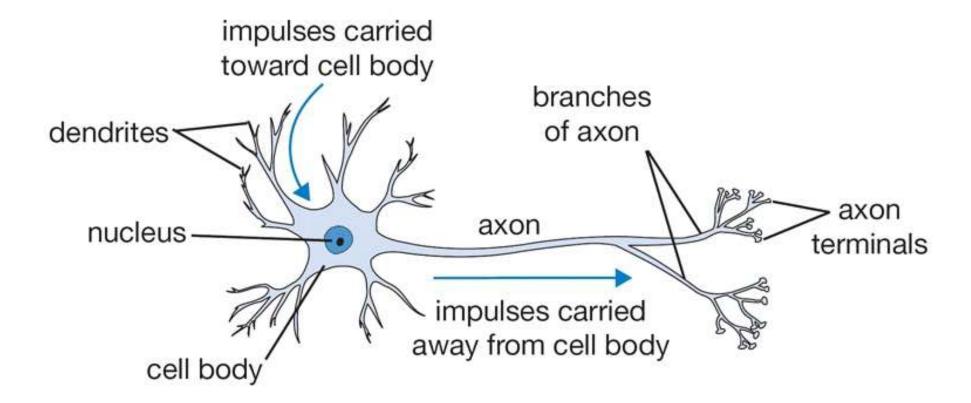
Agenda

- Biological and Artificial Neurons
- Neural Network
- Multi-Layer Perceptron (Fully-connected layers)
- Backpropagation

Biological and Artificial Neurons

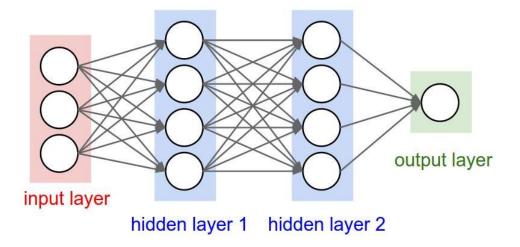
Neuron



An Artificial Neural Network (Multi-Layer Perceptron)

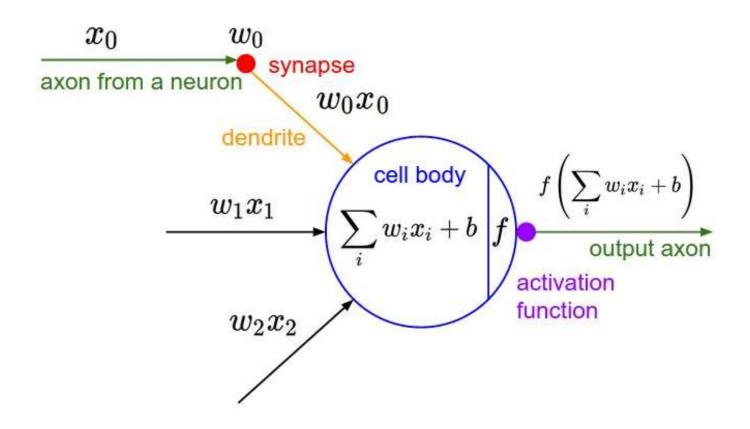
Idea:

- Use a simplified (mathematical) model of a neuron as building blocks
- Connect the neurons together in the following way:



- ► An **input layer**: feed in input features (e.g. like retinal cells in your eyes)
- ► A number of **hidden layers**: don't have specific meaning
- ► An **output layer**: interpret output like a "grandmother cell"

Modeling Individual Neurons



- \triangleright $x_1, x_2, ... = inputs to the neuron$
- \triangleright $w_1, w_2, ... =$ the neuron's **weights**
- \blacktriangleright b =the neuron's **bias**
- ightharpoonup f = an activation function
- ▶ $f(\sum_i x_i w_i + b)$ = the neuron's **activation** (output)

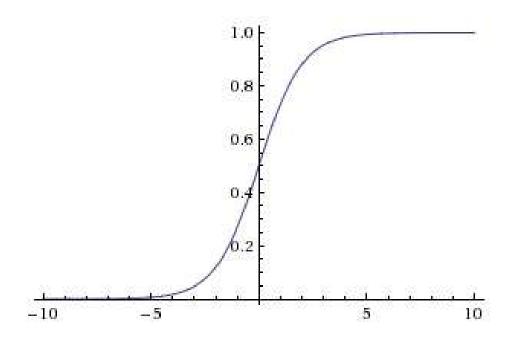
Activation Functions: common choices

Common Choices:

- Sigmoid activation
- ► Tanh activation
- ReLU activation

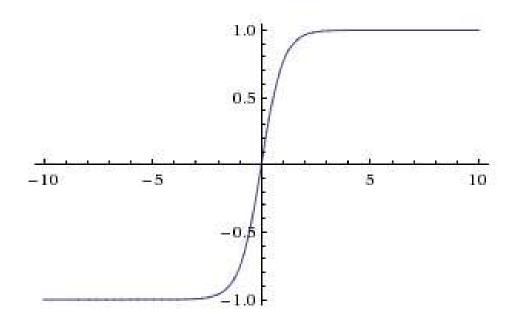
Rule of thumb: Start with ReLU activation. If necessary, try tanh.

Activation Function: Sigmoid



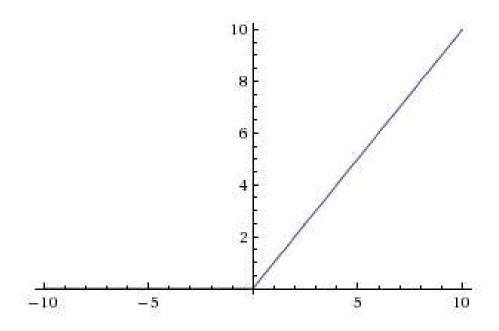
- somewhat problematic due to gradient signal
- all activations are positive

Activation Function: Tanh



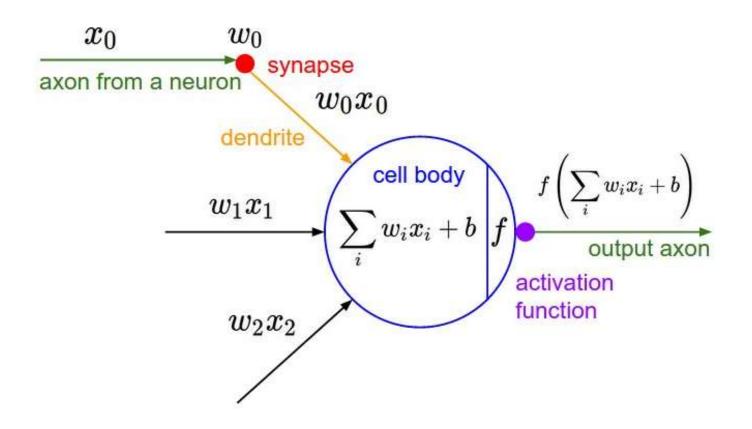
- scaled version of the sigmoid activation
- also somewhat problematic due to gradient signal
- activations can be positive or negative

Activation Function: ReLU



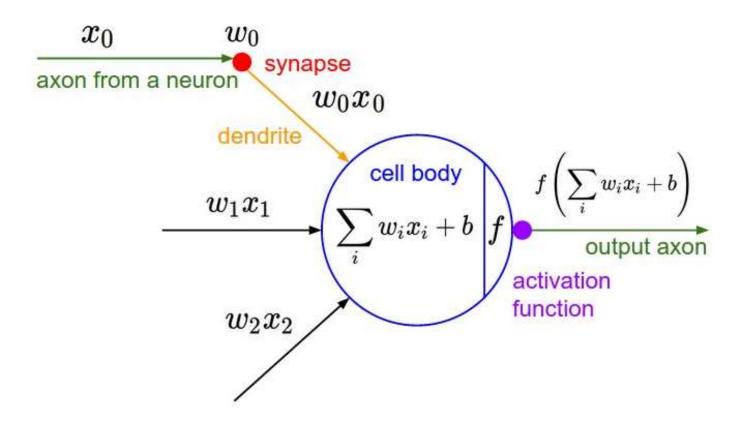
- most often used nowadays
- all activations are positive
- easy to compute gradients
- can be problematic if the bias is too large and negative, so the activations are always 0

Linear Regression as a Single Neuron



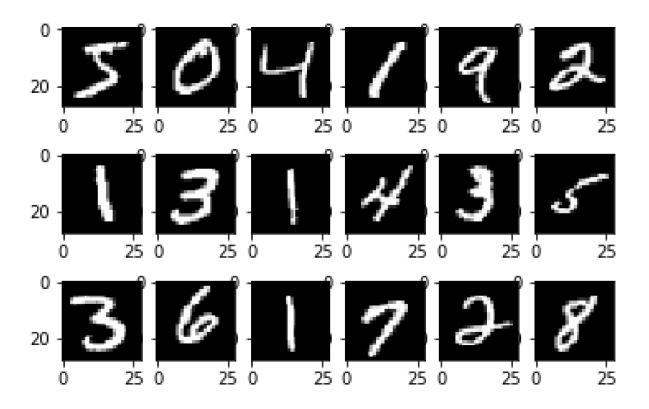
- \triangleright x_1, x_2, \dots : inputs
- \triangleright $w_1, w_2, ...$: components of the **weight vector w**
- ▶ b : the bias
- ► *f* : identity function
- $\mathbf{y} = \sum_i x_i w_i + b = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b$

Binary Classification (Logistic Regression) as a Single Neuron



- $x_1, x_2, ... : inputs$
- \triangleright $w_1, w_2, ...$: components of the **weight vector w**
- ▶ *b* : the **bias**
- $ightharpoonup f = \sigma$
- $y = \sigma(\sum_i x_i w_i + b) = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b)$

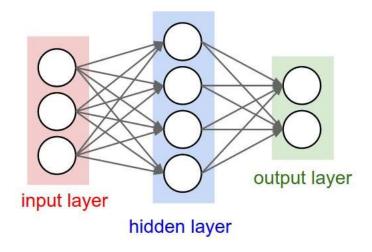
MNIST Digit Recognition



- ► Input: An 28x28 pixel image
 - **x** is a vector of length 784
- ► Target: The digit represented in the image
 - ▶ **t** is a one-hot vector of length 10
- Model (from tutorial 4)
 - $\mathbf{y} = \operatorname{softmax}(W\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b})$

Adding a Hidden Layer

Two layer neural network



- ▶ Input size: 784 (number of features)
- ► Hidden size: 50 (we choose this number)
- Output size: 10 (number of classes)

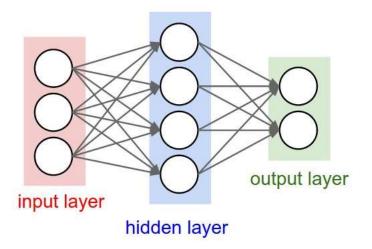
Side note about machine learning models

When discussing machine learning models, we usually

- first talk about how to make predictions assume the weights are trained
- then talk about how to traing the weights

Often the second step requires gradient descent or some other optimization method

Making Predictions: computing the hidden layer

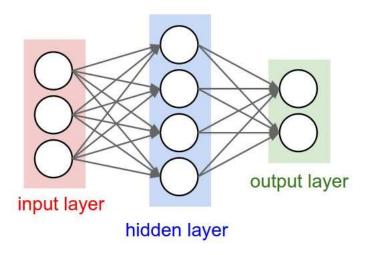


$$h_1 = f(\sum_{i=1}^{784} w_{1,i}^{(1)} x_i + b_1^{(1)})$$

$$h_2 = f(\sum_{i=1}^{784} w_{2,i}^{(1)} x_i + b_2^{(1)})$$

. . .

Making Predictions: computing the output (pre-activation)

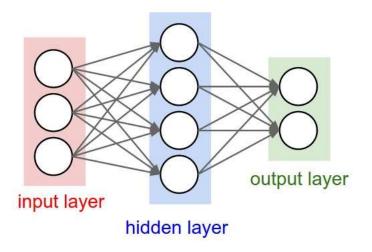


$$z_1 = \sum_{j=1}^{50} w_{1,j}^{(2)} h_j + b_1^{(2)}$$

$$z_2 = \sum_{j=1}^{50} w_{2,j}^{(2)} h_j + b_2^{(2)}$$

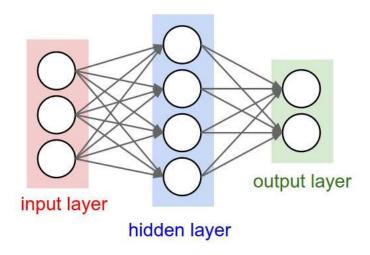
$$z_2 = \sum_{j=1}^{50} w_{2,j}^{(2)} h_j + b_2^{(2)}$$

Making Predictions: applying the output activation



$$\mathbf{z} = egin{bmatrix} z_1 \ z_2 \ \dots \ z_{10} \end{bmatrix}$$
 $\mathbf{y} = \operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{z})$

Making Predictions: Vectorized



$$\mathbf{h} = f(W^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)})$$
 $\mathbf{z} = f(W^{(2)}\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)})$
 $\mathbf{y} = \text{softmax}(\mathbf{z})$

Expressive Power: Linear Layers (No Activation Function)

- We've seen that there are some functions that linear classifiers can't represent. Are deep networks any better?
- Any sequence of linear layers (with no activation function) can be equivalently represented with a single linear layer.

$$\mathbf{y} = \underbrace{W^{(3)}W^{(2)}W^{(1)}}_{\mathbf{x}}\mathbf{x}$$

$$= W'\mathbf{x}$$

Deep linear networks are no more expressive than linear regression!

Expressive Power: MLP (nonlinear activation)

- Multilayer feed-forward neural nets with nonlinear activation functions are universal approximators: they can approximate any function arbitrarily well.
- ► This has been shown for various activation functions (thresholds, logistic, ReLU, etc.)
 - Even though ReLU is "almost" linear, it's nonlinear enough!

Universality for binary inputs and targets

- ► Hard threshold hidden units, linear output
- ► Strategy: 2^D hidden units, each of which responds to one particular input configuration
 - Only requires one hidden layer, though it needs to be extremely wide!

Limits of universality

- You may need to represent an exponentially large network.
- If you can learn any function, you'll just overfit.
- Really, we desire a compact representation!

Backpropagation

Training Neural Networks

- How do we find good weights for the neural network?
- We can continue to use the loss functions:
 - cross-entropy loss for classification
 - square loss for regression
- The neural network operations we used (weights, etc) are continuous

We can use gradient descent!

Gradient Descent Recap

- Start with a set of parameters (initialize to some value)
- ► Compute the gradient $\frac{\partial \mathcal{E}}{\partial w}$ for each parameter (also $\frac{\partial \mathcal{E}}{\partial b}$)
 - This computation can often vectorized
- Update the parameters towards the negative direction of the gradient

Gradient Descent for Neural Networks

- Conceptually, the exact same idea!
- However, we have more parameters than before
 - Higher dimensional
 - Harder to visualize
 - More "steps"

Since $\frac{\partial \mathcal{E}}{\partial w}$, is the average of $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w}$ across training examples, we'll focus on computing $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w}$

Univariate Chain Rule

Recall: if f(x) and x(t) are univariate functions, then

$$\frac{d}{dt}f(x(t)) = \frac{df}{dx}\frac{dx}{dt}$$

Univariate Chain Rule for Logistic Least Square

Recall: Univariate logistic least squares model

$$z = wx + b$$
$$y = \sigma(z)$$
$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}(y - t)^{2}$$

Let's compute the loss derivative

Univariate Chain Rule Computation (1)

How you would have done it in calculus class

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma(wx+b)-t)^2$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w} = \frac{\partial}{\partial w} \left[\frac{1}{2}(\sigma(wx+b)-t)^2 \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial w} (\sigma(wx+b)-t)^2$$

$$= (\sigma(wx+b)-t) \frac{\partial}{\partial w} (\sigma(wx+b)-t)$$

$$= (\sigma(wx+b)-t)\sigma'(wx+b) \frac{\partial}{\partial w} (wx+b)$$

$$= (\sigma(wx+b)-t)\sigma'(wx+b)x$$

Univariate Chain Rule Computation (2)

Similarly for $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b}$

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma(wx+b)-t)^{2}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial}{\partial b} \left[\frac{1}{2}(\sigma(wx+b)-t)^{2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial b} (\sigma(wx+b)-t)^{2}$$

$$= (\sigma(wx+b)-t) \frac{\partial}{\partial b} (\sigma(wx+b)-t)$$

$$= (\sigma(wx+b)-t) \sigma'(wx+b) \frac{\partial}{\partial b} (wx+b)$$

$$= (\sigma(wx+b)-t) \sigma'(wx+b)$$

Univariate Chain Rule Computation (2)

Similarly for $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b}$

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}(\sigma(wx+b)-t)^{2}$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial}{\partial b} \left[\frac{1}{2}(\sigma(wx+b)-t)^{2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial b} (\sigma(wx+b)-t)^{2}$$

$$= (\sigma(wx+b)-t) \frac{\partial}{\partial b} (\sigma(wx+b)-t)$$

$$= (\sigma(wx+b)-t) \sigma'(wx+b) \frac{\partial}{\partial b} (wx+b)$$

$$= (\sigma(wx+b)-t) \sigma'(wx+b)$$

Q: What are the disadvantages of this approach?

A More Structured Way to Compute the Derivatives

$$\frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dy} = y - t$$

$$z = wx + b$$

$$y = \sigma(z)$$

$$\frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dz} = \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dy}\sigma'(z)$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w} = \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dz} \times \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial z} = \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dz} \times \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial z} = \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dz} \times \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial z} = \frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dz}$$

Less repeated work; easier to write a program to efficiently compute derivatives

Computation Graph

We can diagram out the computations using a computation graph.

Compute Loss x x y b

Compute Derivatives

The *nodes* represent all the inputs and computed quantities

The *edges* represent which nodes are computed directly as a function of which other nodes.

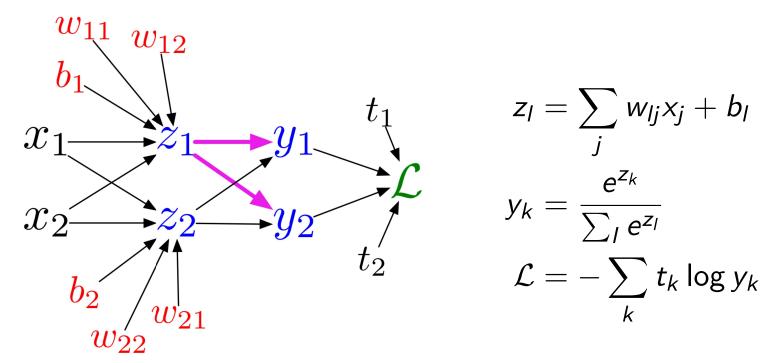
Chain Rule (Error Signal) Notation

- ▶ Use \overline{y} to denote the derivative $\frac{d\mathcal{L}}{dy}$
 - sometimes called the error signal
- ► This notation emphasizes that the error signals are just values our program is computing (rather than a mathematical operation).

$$z = wx + b$$
 $\overline{y} = y - t$
 $y = \sigma(z)$ $\overline{z} = \overline{y}\sigma'(z)$
 $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}(y - t)^2$ $\overline{w} = \overline{z}x$
 $\overline{b} = \overline{z}$

Multiclass Logistic Regression Computation Graph

In general, the computation graph fans out:

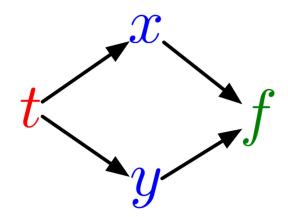


There are multiple paths for which a weight like w_{11} affects the loss L.

Multivariate Chain Rule

Suppose we have a function f(x, y) and functions x(t) and y(t). (All the variables here are scalar-valued.) Then

$$\frac{d}{dt}f(x(t),y(t)) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt}$$

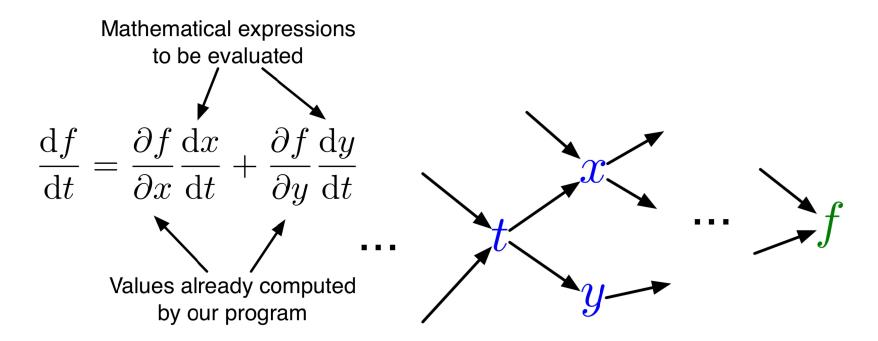


Multivariate Chain Rule Example

If
$$f(x,y) = y + e^{xy}$$
, $x(t) = \cos t$ and $y(t) = t^2$...

$$\frac{d}{dt}f(x(t),y(t)) = \frac{\partial f}{\partial x}\frac{dx}{dt} + \frac{\partial f}{\partial y}\frac{dy}{dt}$$
$$= (ye^{xy}) \cdot (-\sin t) + (1+xe^{xy}) \cdot 2t$$

Multivariate Chain Rule Notation



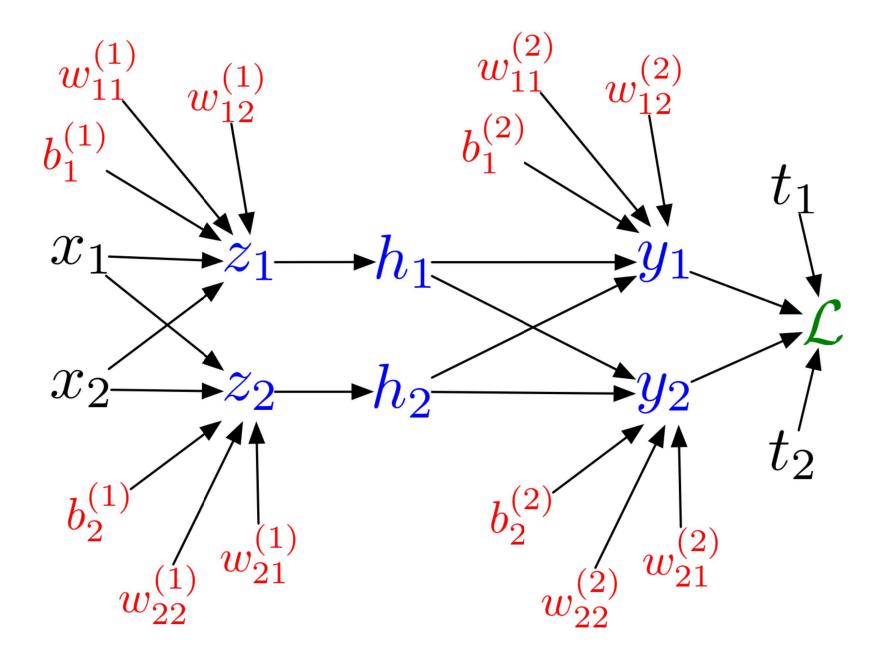
In our notation

$$\overline{t} = \overline{x} \frac{dx}{dt} + \overline{y} \frac{dy}{dt}$$

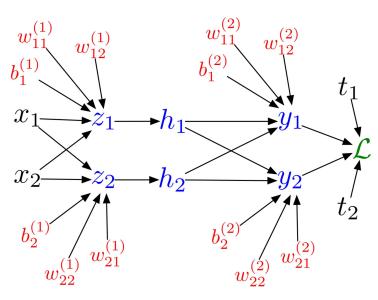
The Backpropagation Algorithm

- Backpropagation is an algorithm to compute gradients efficiency
 - Forward Pass: Compute predictions (and save intermediate values)
 - Backwards Pass: Compute gradients
- The idea behind backpropagation is very similar to dynamic programming
 - Use chain rule, and be careful about the order in which we compute the derivatives

Backpropagation Example



Backpropagation for a MLP



Forward pass:

$$z_i = \sum_{j} w_{ij}^{(1)} x_j + b_i^{(1)}$$
 $h_i = \sigma(z_i)$
 $y_k = \sum_{i} w_{ki}^{(2)} h_i + b_k^{(2)}$
 $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} (y_k - t_k)^2$

Backward pass:

$$\overline{\mathcal{L}} = 1$$

$$\overline{y_k} = \overline{\mathcal{L}}(y_k - t_k)$$

$$\overline{w_{ki}^{(2)}} = \overline{y_k}h_i$$

$$\overline{b_k^{(2)}} = \overline{y_k}$$

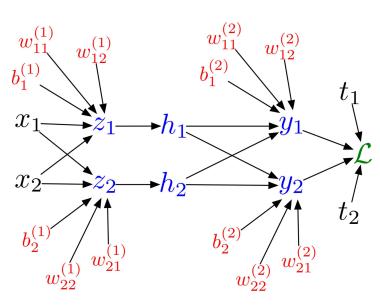
$$\overline{h_i} = \sum_k \overline{y_k}w_{ki}^{(2)}$$

$$\overline{z_i} = \overline{h_i}\sigma'(z_i)$$

$$\overline{w_{ij}^{(1)}} = \overline{z_i}x_j$$

$$\overline{b_i^{(1)}} = \overline{z_i}$$

Backpropagation for a MLP (Vectorized)



Forward pass:

$$\mathbf{z} = W^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)}$$
 $\mathbf{h} = \sigma(\mathbf{z})$
 $\mathbf{y} = W^{(2)}\mathbf{h} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}$
 $\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}||\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{t}||^2$

Backward pass:

$$egin{aligned} \overline{\mathcal{L}} &= 1 \ \overline{\mathbf{y}} &= \overline{\mathcal{L}}(\mathbf{y} - \mathbf{t}) \ \overline{\mathcal{W}^{(2)}} &= \overline{\mathbf{y}} \mathbf{h}^T \ \overline{\mathbf{b}^{(2)}} &= \overline{\mathbf{y}} \ \overline{\mathbf{h}} &= {\mathcal{W}^{(2)}}^T \overline{\mathbf{y}} \ \overline{\mathbf{z}} &= \overline{\mathbf{h}} \circ \sigma'(\mathbf{z}) \ \overline{\mathcal{W}^{(1)}} &= \overline{\mathbf{z}} \mathbf{x}^T \ \overline{\mathbf{b}^{(1)}} &= \overline{\mathbf{z}} \end{aligned}$$