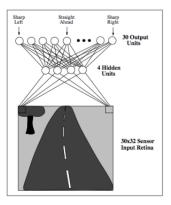
Multilayer Perceptrons

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ALVINN Driving at 70 MPH (1993)

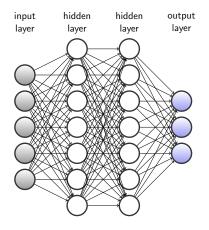




Pomerleau, Knowledge-based training of artificial neural networks for autonomous robot driving, 1993

- ALVINN (Autonomous Land Vehicle In Neural Networks) is an early autonomous driving system.
- It learns a neural network (specifically, a multilayer perceptron with a single hidden layer) to map a camera image to a steering decision.

Multilayer Perceptron (MLP)

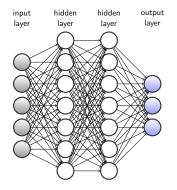


Structure of an MLP

- The perceptron and the Adaline are the simplest kinds of MLPs.
- An MLP is also known as a multilayer feedforward neural network
 - in a feedforward neural network, the connections do not form cycles (note that each connection points from the input neuron to the output neuron).
 - in a multilayer network, the neurons are grouped into different layers
- The depth or the number of layers is the number of all layers with tunable parameters (i.e. all layers except the input layer).
- An MLP can be seen as a series of complex transformations.

Naming the layers and neurons

- The input layer is also called the first/bottom layer, and neurons in it are called input neurons/units.
- The output layer is also called the last/top layer, and neurons in it are called output neurons/units.
- Layers between the input and the output layers are called hidden layers, and neurons in them are called hidden neurons/units.
- A neural with more than one hidden layer is called a deep neural network.



- This is a 3 layer MLP, or a 2 hidden layer MLP.
- There are 5 input units, 7 hidden units for each of the two hidden layers, and 3 output units.

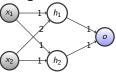
Activation function

- Each neuron applies a function to transform the weighted input sum to an output.
- This function is called the transfer function or the activation function.
- The sigmoid activation function $\sigma(\cdot)$ is defined by $\sigma(u) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-u}}$.
 - for a vector $\mathbf{u} = (u_1, \dots, u_d)$, we shall use $\sigma(\mathbf{u})$ to denote $(\sigma(u_1), \dots, \sigma(u_d))$, that is, we apply the sigmoid function to each component of \mathbf{u} .
- Another commonly used activation function is the rectifier

 (u)₊ = max(0, u). A linear unit using the rectifier activation is
 called a ReLU (rectified linear unit).

An MLP Example

 Consider the following MLP, with sigmoid hidden units and identity output activation, and weights shown on the edges.



• Then the output o is obtained using the following computation

$$\begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \end{pmatrix} = \sigma \left(W_1 \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \right), \quad o = W_2 \begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \end{pmatrix},$$

where
$$W_1 = \begin{pmatrix} w_{1,11} & w_{1,12} \\ w_{1,21} & w_{1,22} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 \\ 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
, and $W_2 = \begin{pmatrix} w_{2,1} & w_{2,2} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$.

• The function computed by the network can be written as

$$o = W_2 \sigma \left(W_1 \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{pmatrix} \right) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x_1 - 2x_2}} + \frac{1}{1 + e^{-x_1 - x_2}}.$$

• When $x_1 = 1$, $x_2 = 1$, we have

$$\begin{pmatrix} h_1 \\ h_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sigma(3) \\ \sigma(2) \end{pmatrix}, \quad o = h_1 + h_2 = \sigma(3) + \sigma(2) \approx 1.83$$

- Assume that the observed output for the input (1, 1) is y = 2, and we want to minimize the squared error $L = (o y)^2$.
- For gradient-based learning, we want to compute the gradient of *L* wrt the network weights *W*₁ and *W*₂.
- For $\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{2,1}}$, using the chain rule

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{2,1}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial o} \frac{\partial o}{\partial w_{2,1}} = 2(o-y)h_1.$$

- Derivatives like $\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{1,11}}$ are much more complex.
- We see that even for this small MLP, it is tedious to compute the gradient of the error function.

Backpropagation

- The backpropagation algorithm provides an efficient way to compute the gradient of the error function of a feedforward neural net, which is essential in gradient-based learning.
- The algorithm performs a forward pass and a backward pass through the neural net
 - the forward pass propagates information from the input neurons to the output neurons to compute the outputs of all neurons
 - the backward pass propagates information from the output neurons to the input neurons to compute derivatives

- We illustrate the backpropagation algorithm on an MLP $f(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})$
 - all hidden units are sigmoid units
 - there is one output neuron with identity activation function
 - the loss is the squared error (strictly speaking, 1/2 squared error)

$$L = \sum_{i} \frac{1}{2} (f(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}) - y_i)^2.$$

Notations

- P(j): the set of parents of unit *j*.
- o_i : the output of unit *i*. For an input neuron, o_i denotes its input.
- w_{ij} : weight on the connection from unit *i* to unit *j*.

Forward propagation

For each neuron j,

 $o_j \leftarrow \begin{cases} \sigma(\sum_{i \in P(j)} w_{ij}o_i), & \text{if } j \text{ is not the output neuron.} \\ \sum_{i \in P(j)} w_{ij}o_i, & \text{if } j \text{ is the output neuron.} \end{cases}$

when all input o_i 's have been computed.

- we don't need to keep the neurons waiting for their inputs to be ready.
- instead, we compute the outputs one layer at a time from the input layer to the output layer (as illustrated in the small numerical example).

The backpropagation algorithm

- We need to compute the derivative g_{ij} of the error function wrt to each weight w_{ij}
- We only need to figure out how to do this for one example (\mathbf{x}, y)
 - if there are multiple examples, the gradient is the sum of the individual gradients computed on these examples

- 1: Compute all *o_i*'s.
- 2: For the output unit k,

$$\delta_k \leftarrow (o_k - y).$$

3: For each hidden unit *i*,

$$\delta_i \leftarrow o_i(1-o_i) \sum_{j \in C(i)} w_{ij} \delta_j$$

when all input δ_j 's have been computed.

4: For each connection (i, j),

 $g_{ij} \leftarrow \delta_j o_i.$

Derivation (optional)

- Notations
 - L(o_k, y) = ½(o_k − y)² is the loss function (neuron k is output).
 s_j = ∑_{i∈P(j)} w_{ij}o_i is the weighted input sum for neuron j.
 δ_i = ∂L/∂s_i.
- For the output unit k,

$$\delta_k = \frac{\partial L}{\partial s_k} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial o_k} \frac{\partial o_k}{\partial s_k} = (o_k - y).$$

This is because $o_k = s_k$ (identity activation).

• Using the chain rule, we have

$$\delta_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial s_i} = \sum_{j \in C(i)} \frac{\partial L}{\partial s_j} \frac{\partial s_j}{\partial o_i} \frac{\partial o_i}{\partial s_i} = \sum_{j \in C(i)} \delta_j w_{ij} o_i (1 - o_i).$$

This is because $o_i = \sigma(s_i)$ and $\sigma'(s_i) = o_i(1 - o_i)$.

• In addition, we have

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial s_j} \frac{\partial s_j}{\partial w_{ij}} = \delta_j o_i.$$

Finishing off the small MLP example

- We label the nodes as follows
- We first compute the o_i 's, then δ_i 's, and finally g_{ij} .

i	Oi	δ _i	(<i>i</i> , <i>j</i>)	<i>B</i> ij
1	1	-	(1,3)	$o_1\delta_3$
2	1	-	(2,3)	$o_2\delta_3$
3	σ (3)	$\delta_5 w_{35} o_3 (1 - o_3)$	(1, 4)	$o_1 \delta_4$
4	$\sigma(2)$	$\delta_5 w_{45} o_4 (1 - o_4)$	(2,4)	$o_2\delta_4$
5	$\sigma(3) + \sigma(2)$	$o_{5} - 1$	(3,5)	$o_3 \delta_5$
			(4,5)	$o_4 \delta_5$

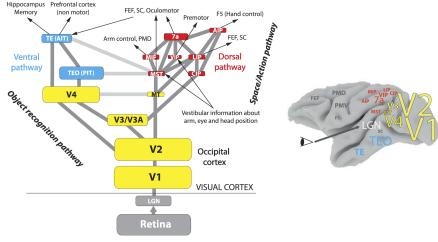
Extensions

- We can extend the backpropagation algorithm to handle different loss functions, activation functions and multiple output units.
- By choosing different loss functions and using multiple output neurons, we can train an MLP for classification and density estimation.

Why Deep Architectures?

- It is known that any function can be approximated arbitrarily well by a single hidden layer MLP (universal approximation theorems).
- Why do we still need to care about deep neural networks?

Inspiration from Nature



The primate visual cortex is hierarchical

Kruger, Janssen, Kalkan, Lappe, Leonardis, Piater, Rodriguez-Sanchez, and Wiskott, Deep hierarchies in the primate visual cortex: What can we learn for computer vision?, 2013

Deeper Can Be More Compact

Representational power of neural nets

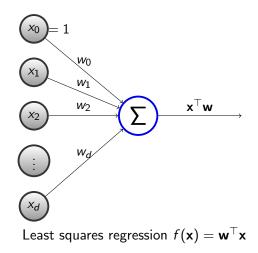
- Every boolean function can be represented by network with single hidden layer but might require exponential (in number of inputs) hidden units.
- Every bounded continuous function can be approximated with arbitrarily small error, by network with one hidden layer.
- Any function can be approximated to arbitrary accuracy by a network with two hidden layers.

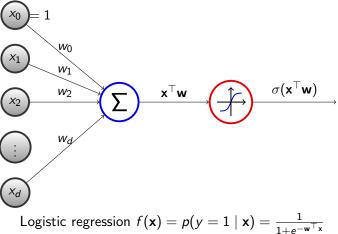
Deeper can be more compact

- When a function can be compactly represented by a deep network, it may need a very large shallow network to represent it.
- E.g. There are functions computable with a depth k network consisting of a polynomially many perceptron units that require exponentially many perceptron units when using a depth k 1 network.

Features: Engineering to Learning

Traditional models as neural nets

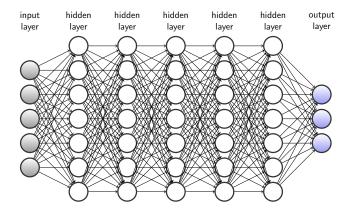




Traditional learning: handcrafted features + classifier learning

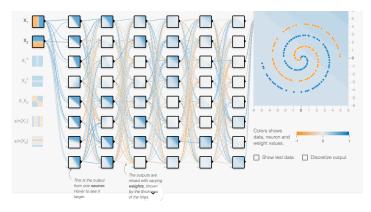
- Many other traditional learning algorithms can be seen as neural networks.
- They build classifiers using *handcrafted* features.

Deep learning: feature learning + classifer learning

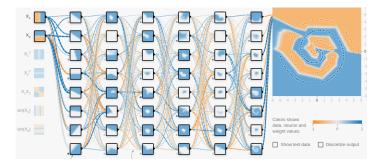


- Deep learning uses deep architectures to additionally learn features.
- Deeper layers build abstract representations of previous layers.
 e.g. pixels → edges → noses, eyes, ears → face

A Demo



- We want to distinguish points on two spirals.
- Each unit can be visualized by drawing a heat map for its output.
- Try different # of hidden layers: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6.



- This trained 6-layer MLP is able to learn fairly complex decision boundaries.
- While neurons in shallow layers represent simple features (e.g. straight lines), neurons in deeper layers pick up useful high-level features (e.g. parts of the spirals).

Your Turn

Which of the following statement is correct? (Multiple choice)

- (a) In a multilayer perceptrons, neurons are organized into several layers with connections between adjacent layers only.
- (b) Backpropagation allows efficient computation of the gradient of the loss function of an MLP wrt the network parameters in a recursive manner.
- (c) Deep neural nets can possibly learn complex features.

What You Need to Know...

- Multilayer perceptrons (aka multilayer feedforward networks)
 - Specifying an MLP: structure and activation function
 - Forward propagation (compute output for a given input)
 - Backpropagation for gradient computation
- Motivations for deep networks
 - Inspiration from nature
 - Deeper can be more compact
 - Replacing feature engineering by feature learning