Neural Networks

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These notes are based on notes of Francis Bach.

1 Introduction

In this class we will introduce some basic elements about neural networks. For more information please look at the following references:

- http://www.deeplearningbook.org/
- https://www.di.ens.fr/~lelarge/dldiy/

In the past classes, the main focus has been on methods to learn from n observations (x_i, y_i) , i = 1, ..., n, with $x_i \in \mathcal{X}$ (input space) and $y_i \in \mathcal{Y}$ (output / label space).

A large class of methods relies on minimizing a regularized empirical risk with respect to a function $f: \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$, where the following cost function is minimized:

$$\frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^{n}\ell(y_i,f(x_i))+\Omega(f),$$

where $\ell: \mathcal{Y} \times \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$ is a loss function, and $\Omega(f)$ is a regularization term. Typical examples were:

- Regression: $\mathcal{Y} = \mathbb{R}$ and $\ell(y_i, f(x_i)) = \frac{1}{2}(y_i f(x_i))^2$.
- Classification: $\mathcal{Y} = \{-1,1\}$ and $\ell(y_i, f(x_i)) = \varphi(y_i f(x_i))$ where φ is convex, e.g., $\varphi(u) = \max\{1-u,0\}$ (hinge loss leading to the support vector machine) or $\varphi(u) = \log(1+e^{-u})$ (leading to logistic regression).

Note that the usual goal of binary classification is to consider the 0-1 loss, which we don't consider here.

The class of functions we have considered so far were:

• Affine functions: when $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$, we consider $f(x) = w^{\top}x + b$, with parameters $(w, b) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$.

Pros: simple to implement, convex optimization (gradient descent). Complexity proportional to O(nd).

Cons: only applies to vector spaces, only linear.

• Non-linear functions through kernel methods: requires (implicitly) a feature vector $\Phi(x) \in \mathcal{F}$ (feature space), known through a kernel $k(x, x') = \langle \Phi(x), \Phi(x') \rangle$.

Pros: non-linear predictions, simple to implement, convex optimization.

Cons: complexity is at least $O(n^2)$.

Prototypical model. The classes above can be described by the following model

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \alpha_i \sigma(x, w_i),$$

i.e. a linear combination of non-linear functions σ , parametrized by w_i . In the case of kernel methods M = n, σ is the kernel and $w_i = x_i$. The goal of this class is to explore another class of functions for non-linear predictions, namely neural networks.

2 A single neuron

2.1 A (tiny) bit of history / background

• Artificial neuron model (McCulloch and Pitts, 1942):

$$f(x) = \sigma(w^{\top}x + b),$$

with σ non-linear (typically non-decreasing) function. Loose connection with actual biological neurons.

- Perceptron (Rosenblatt, 1958): Learning by stochastic gradient descent update rule.
- Activation functions:

sigmoid
$$\sigma(u) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-u}}$$
,
step $\sigma(u) = 1_{u>0}$,

rectified linear unit (ReLU) $\sigma(u) = (u)_{+} = \max\{u, 0\}.$

2.2 Sigmoid activation + cross-entropy loss = logistic regression

• For least-squares, the loss for a single pair (x, y) is

$$\ell(y, f(x)) = \frac{1}{2}(y - f(x))^2 = \frac{1}{2}(y - \sigma(w^{\mathsf{T}}x + b))^2,$$

and is not convex in (w, b) (unless σ is linear).

• For classification, the loss for a single pair (x, y) is

$$\ell(y, f(x)) = \varphi(yf(x)) = \varphi(y\sigma(w^{\top}x + b)),$$

and is not convex in (w, b) (unless σ is linear).

- For the sigmoid function $f(x) = \sigma(w^{\top}x + b) \in (0,1)$ can be seen as a probability and thus it is natural to consider the model on $Y \in \{-1,1\}$, wher $p(Y=1|x) = \sigma(w^{\top}x + b)$, and thus $p(y|x) = \sigma(y(w^{\top}x + b))$.
 - If the cross-entropy loss is used (or equivalently maximum likelihood), that is, $-1_{y=1} \log p(Y = 1|x) 1_{y=-1} \log p(Y = -1|x)$, then the loss to minimize is exactly $-\log \sigma(y(w^{\top}x + b)) = \log(1 + \exp(-y(w^{\top}x + b)))$, which is exactly logistic regression.
- Consequences:
 - (a) neural network with no hidden layers are reduced to linear predictors,
 - (b) last layers of deeper network will be treated in practice in the same way (for classification: cross-entropy loss, for regression: no activation function).

2.3 Gradient and SGD

• The gradient of $\ell(y, f(x)) = L_y(f(x, w, b)) = L_y(\sigma(w^{\top}x + b))$ can be computed using the chain rule, with $f(x) = \sigma(w^{\top}x + b)$:

$$\frac{\partial [L_y \circ f]}{\partial w} = L'_y(f(x, w, b)) \frac{\partial f}{\partial w} = L'(f(x, w, b)) \sigma'(w^\top x + b) x$$

$$\frac{\partial [L_y \circ f]}{\partial b} = L'_y(f(x, w, b)) \frac{\partial f}{\partial b} = L'_y(f(x, w, b)) \sigma'(w^\top x + b)$$

• (optional) Safety check: for example, for logistic regression, with label $z = (1+y)/2 \in \{0,1\}$, when $L_y(u) = -z \log u - (1-z) \log(1-u)$, $L_y'(u) = -\frac{z}{u} + \frac{1-z}{1-u}$, and $\sigma(u) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-u}}$, $\sigma'(u) = \sigma(u)(1-\sigma(u))$, we get

$$\frac{\partial [L \circ f]}{\partial b} = \left[-\frac{z}{\sigma(w^\top x + b)} + \frac{1 - z}{1 - \sigma(w^\top x + b)} \right] \sigma(w^\top x + b) (1 - \sigma(w^\top x + b))$$
$$= -z(1 - \sigma) + (1 - z)\sigma.$$

But, we have directly $L(f(x)) = z \log(1 + e^{-w^{\top}x - b}) + (1 - z) \log(1 + e^{w^{\top}x + b})$, and we can take the derivative as $-z(1 - \sigma) + (1 - z)\sigma$, which is the same.

• Batch gradient: $J(w,b) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L_{y_i}(\sigma(w^{\top}x_i+b)) + \Omega(w,b)$:

$$\frac{\partial J}{\partial w} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L'_{y_i}(f(x, w, b)) \sigma'(w^{\top} x_i + b) x_i + \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial w}$$

Algorithm requiring access to the entire data set at each iteration:

$$w \leftarrow w - \gamma \frac{\partial J}{\partial w} = w - \frac{\gamma}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L'_{y_i}(f(x, w, b)) \sigma'(w^{\top} x_i + b) x_i - \gamma \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial w}$$
$$b \leftarrow b - \gamma \frac{\partial J}{\partial b} = b - \frac{\gamma}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} L'_{y_i}(f(x, w, b)) \sigma'(w^{\top} x_i + b) - \gamma \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial b}$$

• Stochastic gradient descent (with mini-batches), where I is a set of indices in $\{1, \ldots, n\}$:

$$w \leftarrow w - \gamma \frac{\partial J}{\partial w} = w - \frac{\gamma}{|I|} \sum_{i \in I} L'_{y_i}(f(x, w, b)) \sigma'(w^{\top} x_i + b) x_i - \gamma \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial w}$$
$$b \leftarrow b - \gamma \frac{\partial J}{\partial b} = b - \frac{\gamma}{|I|} \sum_{i \in I} L'_{y_i}(f(x, w, b)) \sigma'(w^{\top} x_i + b) - \gamma \frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial b}$$

- Convergence of SGD: (a) not convergent with constant step-size, (b) need decreasing step-size, (c) effect of averaging, (c) not a descent algorithm.
- No convergence to global optimum because of lack of convexity!

3 One-hidden layer

3.1 Definition

- Limitations of single neuron: (a) classical XOR problem, (b) only linear predictions.
- Parameterization: $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $h \in \mathbb{R}^m$, $y \in \mathbb{R}$:

$$h = \sigma[(W^h)^{\top} x + B^h]$$

$$y = \sigma[(w^o)^{\top} h + b^o],$$

with $W^h \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times m}$ and $B^h \in \mathbb{R}^m$, and $w^o \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $b^o \in \mathbb{R}$. We denote by $W_i^h \in \mathbb{R}^d$ the *i*-th input/hidden weight.

Computing the output y requires a forward pass.

3.2 Gradient through back-propagation

• We have for the hidden layer:

$$\frac{\partial h_i}{\partial W_i^h} = \sigma' \left[(W_i^h)^\top x + B_i^h \right] x$$

$$\frac{\partial h_i}{\partial B_i^h} = \sigma' \left[(W_i^h)^\top x + B_i^h \right]$$

• For the output layer (and the hidden-output parameters):

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial w^o} = \sigma' [(w^o)^\top h + b^o] h$$

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial b^o} = \sigma' [(w^o)^\top h + b^o]$$

• For the output layer (and the input-hidden parameters):

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial W_i^h} = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\partial y}{\partial h_j} \frac{\partial h_j}{\partial W_i^h} = \sigma' \left[(w^o)^\top h + b^o \right] (w_i^o) \frac{\partial h_i}{\partial W_i^h}$$

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial B_i^h} = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\partial y}{\partial h_j} \frac{\partial h_j}{\partial B_i^h} = \sigma' \left[(w^o)^\top h + b^o \right] (w_i^o) \frac{\partial h_i}{\partial B_i^h}$$

• Running-time complexity. Vectorized operations adapted to GPUs.

3.3 Approximation properties

- Solves the XOR problem
- Can approximate any continuous function given sufficiently many hidden neurons, from differentiable activation function. Simple graphical proof for rectified linear units in one dimension. Requires activation not to be a polynomial.
 - G. Cybenko. Approximation by superposition of a sigmoidal function. Mathematics of Control, Signal and Systems, 2:303-314, 1989.

K. Hornik. Some new results on neural network approximation. Neural Networks, 6:1060-1072, 1993.

3.4 Link with kernel methods

• When no activation is used at the output layer, we have:

$$h = \sigma[(W^h)^\top x + B^h]$$

$$y = (w^o)^\top h + b^o.$$

This corresponds to a linear classifier with feature vector $\Phi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}} \sigma[(W^h)^\top x + B^h]$, parameterized by W^h and B^h , with kernel

$$k(x, x') = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sigma[(W_i^h)^{\top} x + B_i^h] \sigma[(W_i^h)^{\top} x' + B_i^h].$$

Most important aspect: feature vector of finite dimension and learned from data.

• With random independent and identically distributed weights $W_i^h \in \mathbb{R}^m$ and $B_i^h \in \mathbb{R}$,

$$k(x, x') \to \mathbb{E} \left\{ \sigma \left[(W^h)^\top x + B^h \right] \sigma \left[(W^h)^\top x' + B^h \right] \right\}$$

Can be computed in closed form for simple distributions of weights (see, e.g., Cho, Y., & Saul, L. K. (2009). Kernel methods for deep learning. In Advances in neural information processing systems (pp. 342-350)) . Thus an infinite number of random input weights lead to a kernel method.

4 Multiple hidden layers

• Ignoring the constant terms, two hidden layers can be expressed as:

$$y = \sigma(W_1^{\top} \sigma(W_2^{\top} \sigma(W_3^{\top} x))) = f_1 \circ f_2 \circ f_3(x)$$

$$y = f_1(\theta_1, y_2)$$

$$y_2 = f_2(\theta_2, y_3)$$

$$y_3 = f_3(\theta_3, x)$$

• Gradient through back-propagation. We get:

$$\frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta_1} = \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial \theta_1}
\frac{\partial y}{\partial y_2} = \frac{\partial f_1}{\partial y_2}
\frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta_2} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial y_2} \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial \theta_2} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial y_2} \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial \theta_2}
\frac{\partial y}{\partial y_3} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial y_2} \frac{\partial y_2}{\partial y_3} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial y_2} \frac{\partial f_2}{\partial y_3}
\frac{\partial y}{\partial \theta_3} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial y_3} \frac{\partial y_3}{\partial \theta_3} = \frac{\partial y}{\partial y_3} \frac{\partial f_3}{\partial \theta_2}$$

- Approximation properties: Can approximate any function from differentiable activation function.
 - A. Lapedes and R. Farber. How neural nets work. In Anderson, editor, Neural Information Processing Systems, pages 442-456. New York, American Institute of Physics, 1987.
 - G. Cybenko. Continuous valued neural networks with two hidden layers are sufficient. Technical report, Dep. of Computer Science, Tufts University, Medford, MA, 1988.
- Link with kernel methods: same as before, but more complex.

5 Extensions

5.1 Convolutional neural networks

- \bullet Working on a 512 x 512 image requires weight sharing (for both numerical and statistical reasons).
- $h_i = \sum_{j=1}^d W_{ij}^h x_j$. W_{ij}^h depends only i-j
- Often used with subsampling or pooling
- Partial invariance to translation is a good prior.

5.2 Automatic differentiation

- Finite differences and the "complex trick" (https://blogs.mathworks.com/cleve/2013/10/14/complex-step-differentiation/)
- No need to code everything for deep models to obtain the exact gradient.
- See http://www.autodiff.org/

5.3 Applications

- Computer vision (CNN)
- Speech (CNN)
- $\bullet\,$ Natural language processings (recurrent neural networks)