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## INF3490 - Biologically inspired computing

Lecture 5th October 2015

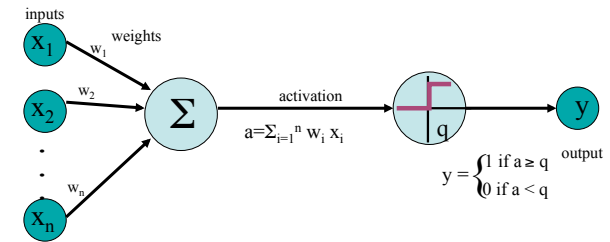
Multi-Layer Neural Network

Jim Tørresen



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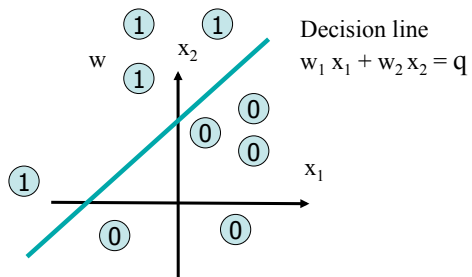
## A Quick Overview (Perceptron)



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## A Quick Overview (Decision Surface)



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## A Quick Overview

- Linear Models are easy to understand.
- However, they are very simple.
  - They can only identify flat decision boundaries (straight lines, planes, hyperplanes, ...).
- **Majority of interesting data are not linearly separable. Then?**

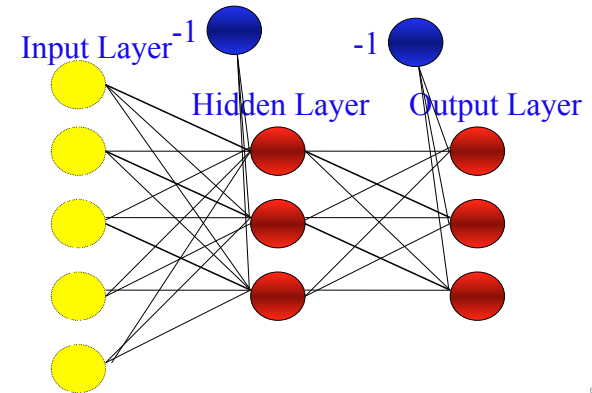
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## A Quick Overview

- **Learning** in the neural networks (NN) happens in the weights.
- **Weights** are associated with connections.
- Thus, it is sensible to add more connections to perform more complex computations.
- Two ways for non-lin. separation (not exclusive):
  - **Recurrent Network**: connect the output neurons to the inputs with feedback connections.
  - **Multi-layer perceptron network**: add neurons between the input nodes and the outputs.

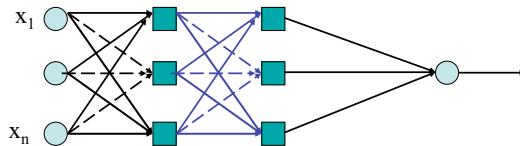
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## Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP)



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## 1st Question?

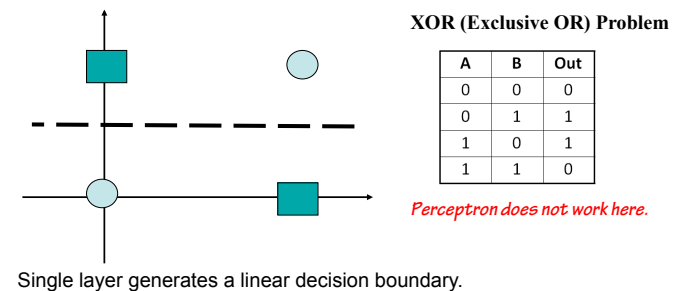


### What do the extra layers gain you?

Start with looking at what a single layer can't do.

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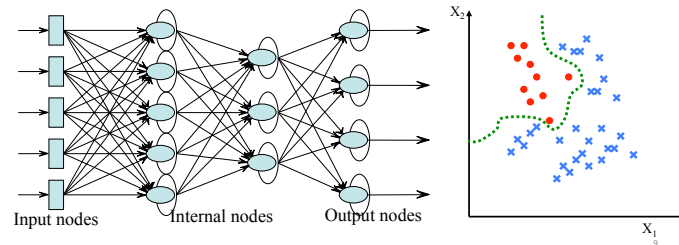
## XOR Problem



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## MLP Decision Boundary – Nonlinear Problems, Solved!

In contrast to perceptrons, multilayer networks can learn not only multiple decision boundaries, but the boundaries may also be nonlinear.



## Multilayer Network Structure

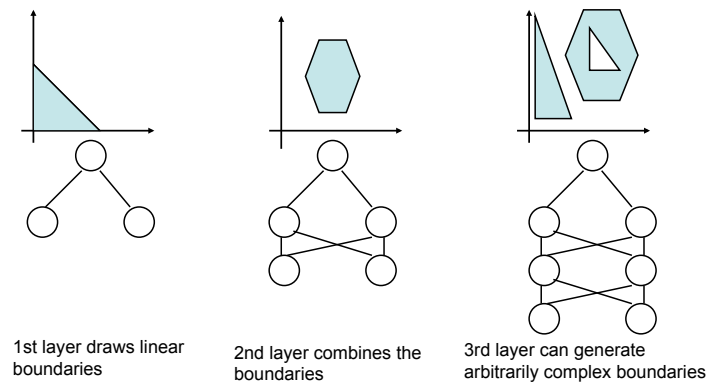
- A neural network with one or **more** layers of **nodes** between the input and the output nodes is called **multilayer network**.
- The multilayer *network structure*, or *architecture*, or *topology*, consists of **an input layer, one or more hidden layers**, and **one output layer**.
- The input nodes pass values to the first hidden layer, its nodes to the second and so until producing outputs.
  - A network with a layer of input units, a layer of hidden units and a layer of output units is a **two-layer network**.
  - A network with two layers of hidden units is a **three-layer network**, and so on.

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## Properties of the Multi-Layer Network

- Layer  $n-1$  is fully connected to layer  $n$ .
- No connections within a single layer.
- No direct connections between input and output layers.
- Fully connected; all nodes in one layer connect to all nodes in the next layer.
- Number of output units need not equal number of input units.
- Number of hidden units per layer can be more or less than input or output units.

## What Do Each of The Layers Do?



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### MultiLayer Perceptron: Decision Boundaries

The diagram shows a single neuron with two input lines and one output line. Below it are three square boxes illustrating linear decision boundaries: a diagonal red dashed line separating four circles (two white, two grey), a curved red dashed line separating a grey crescent shape from a white area, and a vertical red dashed line separating a white area from a grey area.

Straight lines (surfaces), linear separable, half plane bounded by hyperplane.

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### Multi Layer Perceptron: Decision Boundaries

The diagram shows a two-layer perceptron with two input nodes, two hidden nodes, and one output node. Below it are three square boxes illustrating convex decision boundaries: a red dashed line forming a closed loop around four circles, a red dashed line forming a closed loop around a grey crescent shape, and a red dashed line forming a closed loop around a white area.

Convex areas (open or closed).

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### MultiLayer Perceptron: Decision Boundaries

The diagram shows a two-layer perceptron with two input nodes, two hidden nodes, and one output node. Below it are three square boxes illustrating complex decision boundaries: a red dashed line forming a complex shape around four circles, a red dashed line forming a complex shape around a grey crescent shape, and a red dashed line forming a complex shape around a white area.

Combinations of convex areas.

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### Solution for XOR : Add a Hidden Layer !!

Minsky & Papert (1969) offered solution to XOR problem by combining perceptron unit responses using a second layer of units.

The diagram shows a two-layer perceptron with two input nodes, two hidden nodes (labeled 1 and 2), and one output node (labeled 3). Below it are three square boxes illustrating the XOR problem: a 2D plot with two classes of points (black dots and blue squares) that are not linearly separable, a 2D plot with two classes of points (black dots and blue squares) that are linearly separable, and a 2D plot with two classes of points (black dots and blue squares) that are linearly separable.

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### XOR Again

A	B	C <sub>in</sub>	C <sub>out</sub>	D <sub>in</sub>	D <sub>out</sub>	E <sub>in</sub>
0	0	-0.5	0	-1	0	-0.5
0	1	0.5	1	0	0	0.5
1	0	0.5	1	0	0	0.5
1	1	1.5	1	1	1	-0.5

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### How to Train MLP?

- How we can train the network, so that
  - The weights are adapted to generate correct (target answer)?
- In Perceptron, errors are computed at the output.
- In MLP,
  - Don't know which weights are wrong:
  - Don't know the correct activations for the neurons in the hidden layers.

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### Then...

**The problem is: How to learn Multi Layer Perceptrons??**

**Solution:** Backpropagation Algorithm (Rumelhart and colleagues, 1986)

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### Backpropagation

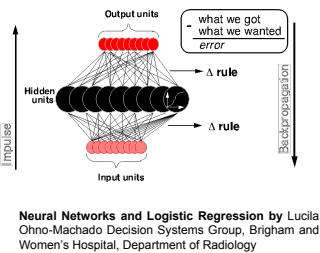
*Rumelhart, Hinton and Williams (1986) (though actually invented earlier in a PhD thesis relating to economics)*

Forward step: Propagate activation from input to output layer

Backward step: propagate errors from output to hidden layer

## Backpropagation of Error

- During the backward pass the weights are adjusted in accordance with the **error correction rule**.
- The error is the **actual** output is subtracted from the **desired** output.
- The weights are adjusted to minimize this error.

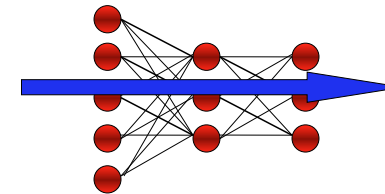


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## Training MLPs

### Forward Pass

1. Put the input values in the input layer.
2. Calculate the activations of the hidden nodes.
3. Calculate the activations of the output nodes.

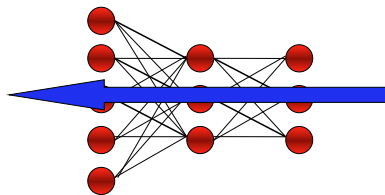


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## Training MLPs

### Backward Pass

1. Calculate the output errors
2. Update last layer of weights.
3. Propagate error backward, update hidden weights.
4. Until first layer is reached.



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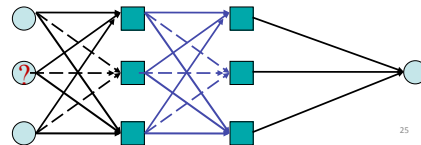
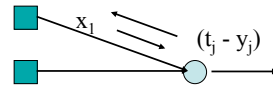
## Back Propagation Algorithm

- The backpropagation training algorithm uses the **gradient descent** technique to **minimize the mean square difference** between the desired and actual outputs.
- The network is trained initially selecting **small random weights** and then presenting all training data incrementally.
- **Weights** are **adjusted** after every trial until weights **converge** and the error is reduced to an acceptable value.

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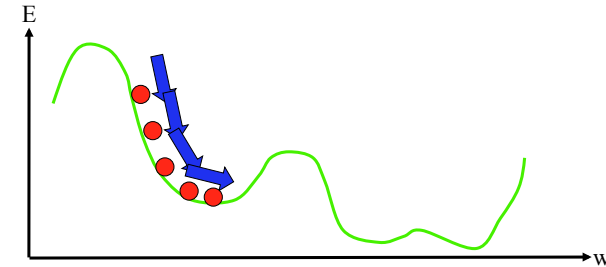
## Gradient Descent Learning

- Target: Minimize the error.
- Harder than Perceptron:
  - Many weights
  - Which ones are wrong; input-hidden or hidden-output?
- Use **gradient descent learning**
- Compute gradient => differentiate sum-of squares error function.



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## Gradient Descent



$$\Delta w_{ik} = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_{ik}} \leftarrow \text{The weight is the only factor relevant to the error.}$$

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## Error Function

- Single scalar function for entire network.
- Parameterized by weights (objects of interest).
- Multiple errors of different signs should not cancel out.
- **Sum-of-squares error:**

$$E(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_k (t_k - y_k)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \sum_k \left( t_k - \sum_i w_{ik} x_i \right)^2$$

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## Error Terms

- Need to differentiate the **activation function**
- **Chain rule of differentiation.**
- Gives us the following *error terms* (deltas)

$$\delta_k = (y_k - t_k) y_k (1 - y_k)$$

- For the hidden nodes

$$\delta_j = a_j (1 - a_j) \sum_k w_{jk} \delta_k$$

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## Update Rules

- This gives us the necessary update rules
  - For the weights connected to the outputs:

$$w_{jk} \leftarrow w_{jk} - \eta \delta_k a_j^{\text{hidden}}$$

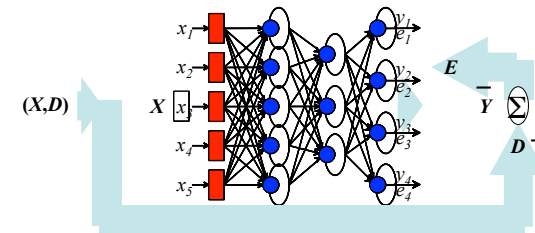
- For the weights on the hidden nodes:

$$v_{ij} \leftarrow v_{ij} - \eta \delta_j x_i$$

- The learning rate  $\eta$  depends on the application. Values between 0.1 and 0.9 have been used in many applications.

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## BackPropagation Algorithm



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## Summary of Backpropagation

- Introduce inputs.
- Feed values forward through network.
- Compute sum-of-squares error at outputs.
- Compute the delta terms at the output by differentiation.
- Use this to update the weights connecting the last hidden layer to the outputs.
- Once these are correct, propagate deltas back to the neurons of the hidden layers.
- Compute the delta terms for these neurons.
- Use them to update the next set of weights.
- Repeat until the inputs are reached.

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## Algorithm (sequential)

- Apply an input vector and calculate all activations,  $a$  and  $u$
- Evaluate deltas for all output units:
 
$$\Delta_i = (d_i - y_i) g'(a_i)$$
- Propagate deltas backwards to hidden layer deltas:

$$\delta_i = g'(u_i) \sum_k \Delta_k w_{ki}$$

- Update weights:

$$v_{ij} \leftarrow v_{ij} + \eta \delta_i x_j$$

$$w_{ij} \leftarrow w_{ij} + \eta \Delta_i z_j$$



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### Example: Backpropagation

Once weight changes are computed for all units, weights are updated at the same time (bias included as weights here). An example:

Use identity activation function (ie  $g(a) = a$ ) for simplicity of example

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### Example: Backpropagation

All biases set to 1. Will not draw them for clarity.  
Learning rate  $h = 0.1$

Have input  $[0 \ 1]$  with target  $[1 \ 0]$ .

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### Example: Backpropagation

Forward pass. Calculate 1<sup>st</sup> layer activations:

$$u_1 = -1x_0 + 0x_1 + 1 = 1$$

$$u_2 = 0x_0 + 1x_1 + 1 = 2$$

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### Example: Backpropagation

Calculate first layer outputs by passing activations thru activation functions

$$z_1 = g(u_1) = 1$$

$$z_2 = g(u_2) = 2$$

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### Example: Backpropagation

Calculate 2<sup>nd</sup> layer outputs (weighted sum through activation functions):

$y_1 = a_1 = 1x_1 + 0x_2 + 1 = 2$   
 $y_2 = a_2 = -1x_1 + 1x_2 + 1 = 2$

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### Example: Backpropagation

Backward pass:

$$\Delta_i = (d_i - y_i)g'(a_i)$$

Target=[1, 0] so  $d_1 = 1$  and  $d_2 = 0$ . So:  
 $\Delta_1 = (d_1 - y_1) = 1 - 2 = -1$   
 $\Delta_2 = (d_2 - y_2) = 0 - 2 = -2$

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### Example: Backpropagation

Calculate weight changes for 1<sup>st</sup> layer (cf perceptron learning):

$$w_{ij} \leftarrow w_{ij} + \eta \Delta_i z_j$$

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### Example: Backpropagation

Weight changes will be:

$$w_{ij} \leftarrow w_{ij} + \eta \Delta_i z_j$$

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### Example: Backpropagation

Calculate hidden layer deltas:

$$\delta_i = g'(u_i) \sum_k \Delta_k w_{ki}$$

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### Example: Backpropagation

D's propagate back:

$$\delta_i = g'(u_i) \sum_k \Delta_k w_{ki}$$

$$\delta_1 = -1 + 2 = 1$$

$$\delta_2 = 0 - 2 = -2$$

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### Example: Backpropagation

And are multiplied by inputs

$$v_{ij} \leftarrow v_{ij} + \eta \delta_i x_j$$

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### Example: Backpropagation

Finally change weights:

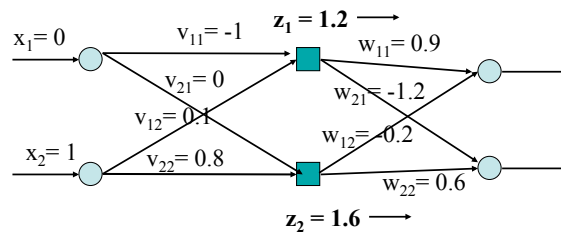
$$v_{ij} \leftarrow v_{ij} + \eta \delta_i x_j$$

Note that the weights multiplied by the zero input are unchanged as they do not contribute to the error  
We have also changed biases (not shown)

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## Example: Backpropagation

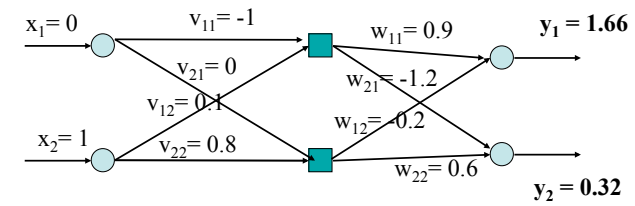
Now go forward again (would normally use a new input vector):



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## Example: Backpropagation

Now go forward again (would normally use a new input vector):



Outputs now closer to target value  $[1, 0]$

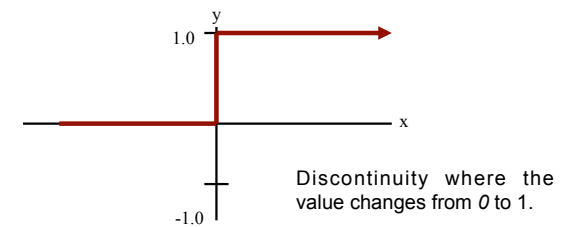
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## Activation Function

- We need to compute the derivative of activation function  $g$
- What do we want in an activation function?
  - Differentiable
  - Nonlinear (more powerful)
  - Bounded range (for numerical stability)

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## Hard Limit Function



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### A Quick Overview (Activation Functions)

The figure displays four graphs of activation functions on a coordinate system with input 'a' on the x-axis and output 'y' on the y-axis:

- threshold:** A step function that is zero for negative 'a' and one for positive 'a'.
- linear:** A straight line passing through the origin with a positive slope.
- piece-wise linear:** A function that is zero for negative 'a', increases linearly for positive 'a' up to a certain point, and then remains constant.
- sigmoid:** An S-shaped curve that transitions smoothly from zero to one.

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### Sigmoidal (Logistic) Function-Common in MLP

$$g(a_i) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-ka_i)} = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-ka_i}}$$

The graph shows the sigmoidal function  $g(a_i)$  plotted against the input signal. The x-axis ranges from -10 to 10, and the y-axis ranges from -0.5 to 1.5. The curve is labeled 'input signal' and 'saturated' at both the low and high ends.

- Where  $k$  is a positive constant.
- The sigmoidal function gives a value in range of 0 to 1.
- Alternatively can use  $\tanh(ka)$  which is same shape but in range  $-1$  to  $1$ .

Note: when net = 0,  $g = 0.5$

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### Learning Capacity

The figure shows two 3D surface plots illustrating the concept of learning capacity:

- Output of one sigmoid:** A smooth, single-peaked surface.
- Addition of two sigmoids:** A surface with two distinct peaks, demonstrating increased complexity.

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### Learning Capacity

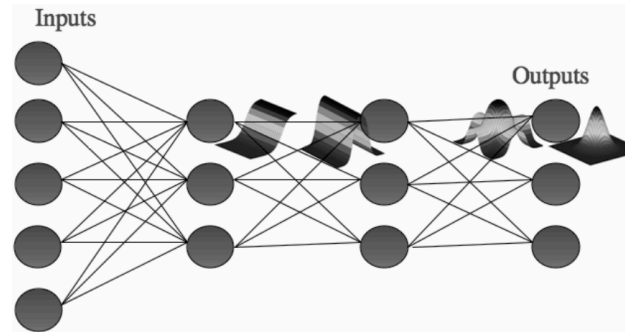
The figure shows two 3D surface plots illustrating the concept of learning capacity:

- Addition of two ridges:** A surface with two distinct peaks, demonstrating increased complexity.
- Unique maximum:** A single, sharp peak, demonstrating a localized response.

Addition of more ridges and transformation with another sigmoid  
Localised response

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## Learning Capacity



Any function can be approximated as the summation of many responses

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## Selecting Initial Weight Values

- The MLP algorithm suggest that weights are initialized to **small random numbers** ( $< \pm 1$ ), both positive and negative
- Choice of initial weight values is important as this decides starting position in weight space. That is, how far away from global minimum
- Aim is to select weight values which produce midrange function signals (not in only saturated signal, see sigmoid function)
- Select weight values randomly from uniform probability distribution
- Normalise weight values so number of weighted connections per unit produces midrange function signal

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## Network Training

- Training set shown repeatedly until stopping criteria are met.
- Usual to randomize order of training patterns presented for each epoch in order to avoid correlation between consecutive training pairs being learnt (order effects).
- **When should the weights be updated?**
  - After all inputs seen (**batch**)
    - More accurate estimate of gradient
    - Converges to local minimum faster (Jim doesn't agree!)
  - After each input is seen (**sequential**)
    - Simpler to program and most commonly used
    - May escape from local minima (change order or presentation)
- Both ways, **need many epochs** - passes through the whole dataset

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## Network Topology

- How many layers?
- How many neurons per layer?
- No good answers
  - At most 3 weight layers, usually 2
  - Test several different networks
- Possible types of adaptive algorithms (not default in MLP):
  - start from a large network and successively remove some neurons and links until network performance degrades.
  - begin with a small network and introduce new neurons until performance is satisfactory.

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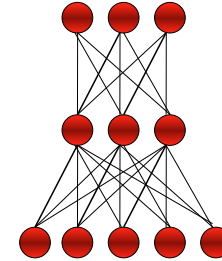
## Input Normalization

- Stops the weights from getting unnecessarily large.
- Treat each data dimension independently.
- Each input variable should be processed so that the mean value is close to zero or at least very small when compared to the standard deviation.

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## Amount of Training

- How much training data is needed?
- How many epochs are needed?
- Data:
  - Count the weights
  - Rule of thumb: use 10 times more data than the number of weights



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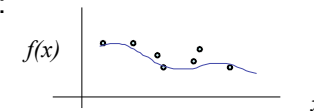
## Generalisation

- Aim of neural network learning:
  - **Generalise from training examples to all possible inputs.**
- The objective of learning is to achieve good **generalization** to new cases; otherwise we would just use a look-up table.
- Under-training is **bad**.
- Over-training is also **bad**.

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## Generalization

- Generalization can be viewed as a mathematical **interpolation** or **regression** over a set of training points:



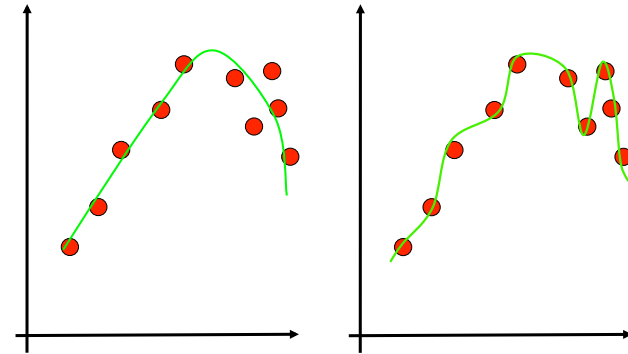
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## Overfitting

- Overfitting occurs when a model begins to learn the **bias** of the training data rather than learning to generalize.
- Overfitting generally occurs when a model is excessively complex in relation to the amount of data available.
- A model which overfits the training data will generally have poor predictive performance, as it can exaggerate minor fluctuations in the data.

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## Overfitting



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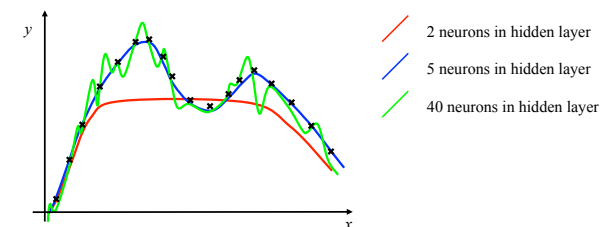
## Overfitting

- The training data contains information about the regularities in the mapping from input to output.
- Training data also contains **bias**:
  - There is **sampling bias**. There will be accidental regularities due to the finite size of the training set.
  - The target values may also be unreliable or noisy.
- When we fit the model, it cannot tell which regularities are relevant and which are caused by sampling error.
  - So it fits both kinds of regularity.
  - If the model is very flexible it can model the sampling error really well. ***This is not what we want.***

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## The Problem of Overfitting

- Approximation of the function  $y = f(x)$  :



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## The Solution: Cross-Validation

To maximize generalization and avoid overfitting, split data into three sets:

- **Training set:** Train the model.
- **Validation set:** Judge the model's generalization ability during training.
- **Test set:** Judge the model's generalization ability after training.

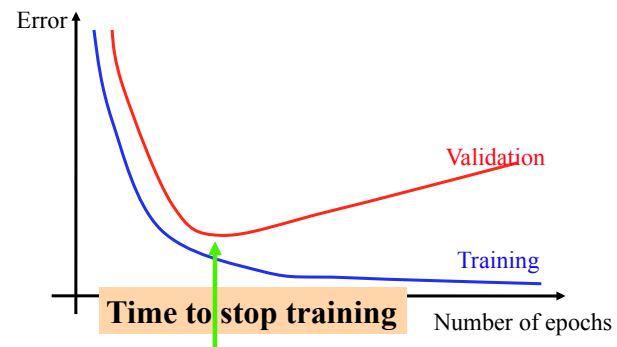
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## Validation set

- Data unseen by training algorithm – not used for backpropagation.
- Network is not trained on this data, so we can use it to measure generalization ability.
- Goal is to maximize generalization ability, so we should minimize the error on this data set.

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## Early Stopping



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## Testing set

- Data unseen during training and validation.
- Has no influence on when to stop training.
- With early stopping, we've maximized the ability to generalize **to the validation set**;
- To judge the final result, we should measure its ability to generalize to completely unseen data.

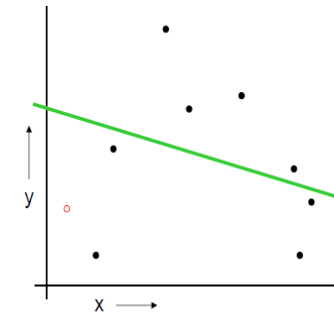
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## k-Fold Cross Validation

- Cross-validation leaves less training data.
- Generalization ability is still only measured on a small set (which will be biased).
- Solution: repeat over many different splits.
  - Divide all data into  $k$  sets (or folds).
  - For  $i = 1 \dots k$ :
    - Train on data[i], validate on data[i+1], test on rest.
  - Average the results.

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## Leave-one-out Cross Validation



For  $k=1$  to  $R$

1. Let  $(x_k, y_k)$  be the  $k^{\text{th}}$  record
2. Temporarily remove  $(x_k, y_k)$  from the dataset
3. Train on the remaining  $R-1$  datapoints
4. Note your error  $(x_k, y_k)$

When you've done all points, report the mean error.

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## Some questions

- What is overfitting?
- How do we avoid overfitting?
- What do you do if you have limited data and would like to do validation?

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