Units in Neural Networks

This is in your brain



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Neural Network Unit

This is not in your brain



Neural unit

Take weighted sum of inputs, plus a bias

$$z = b + \sum_{i} w_{i} x_{i}$$
$$z = w \cdot x + b$$

$$y = a = f(z)$$

Non-Linear Activation Functions

We're already seen the sigmoid for logistic regression:



Final function the unit is computing

$$y = \sigma(w \cdot x + b) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-(w \cdot x + b))}$$



An example

Suppose a unit has:

W = [0.2, 0.3, 0.9]b = 0.5What happens with input x: x = [0.5, 0.6, 0.1] $y = \sigma(w \cdot x + b) =$ $\frac{1}{1+e^{-(w\cdot x+b)}} =$ =.70 $1 + e^{-(.5*.2+.6*.3+.1*.9+.5)}$ 0.87

Non-Linear Activation Functions besides sigmoid

Most Common: 10 $e^{z} - e^{-z}$ = max(z, 0) $y = \max(z, 0)$ -5 -10^{10}

-5

0

ReLU

Rectified Linear Unit

5

10

10

5

tanh

0

-5

1.0

0.5

0.0

-0.5

-1.0 10

y = tanh(z)

Units in Neural Networks

The XOR problem

The XOR problem

Minsky and Papert (1969)

Can neural units compute simple functions of input?

AND				OR			XOR		
x 1	x 2	У	x 1	x 2	у	x 1	x2	У	
0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
0	1	0	0	1	1	0	1	1	
1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	1	
1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	

Perceptrons

A very simple neural unit

- Binary output (0 or 1)
- No non-linear activation function

$$y = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } w \cdot x + b \leq 0 \\ 1, & \text{if } w \cdot x + b > 0 \end{cases}$$

Easy to build AND or OR with perceptrons $y = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{if } w \cdot x + b \leq 0 \\ 1, & \text{if } w \cdot x + b > 0 \end{cases}$





It is not possible to capture XOR with perceptrons.

Why? Perceptrons are linear classifiers

Perceptron equation given x_1 and x_2 , is the equation of a line

 $w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + b = 0$

(in standard linear format: $x_2 = (-w_1/w_2)x_1 + (-b/w_2)$)

This line acts as a **decision boundary**

- 0 if input is on one side of the line
- 1 if on the other side of the line

Decision boundaries



XOR is not a **linearly separable** function!

Solution to the XOR problem

XOR **can't** be calculated by a single perceptron XOR **can** be calculated by a layered network of units.





(With learning: hidden layers will learn to form useful representations)

The XOR problem

Feedforward Neural Networks

Feedforward Neural Networks

Can also be called **multi-layer perceptrons** (or **MLPs**) for historical reasons



Binary Logistic Regression as a 1-layer Network

(we don't count the input layer in counting layers!)





Sidenote on softmax: a generalization of sigmoid

For a vector *z* of dimensionality *k*, the softmax is:

softmax(z) =
$$\left[\frac{\exp(z_1)}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \exp(z_i)}, \frac{\exp(z_2)}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \exp(z_i)}, ..., \frac{\exp(z_k)}{\sum_{i=1}^{k} \exp(z_i)}\right]$$

softmax(z_i) = $\frac{\exp(z_i)}{\sum_{j=1}^{k} \exp(z_j)}$ $1 \le i \le k$
Example:
 $z = [0.6, 1.1, -1.5, 1.2, 3.2, -1.1]$
softmax(z) = $[0.055, 0.090, 0.006, 0.099, 0.74, 0.010]$









Multi-layer Notation



ReLU

Multi Layer Notation

$$z^{[1]} = W^{[1]}a^{[0]} + b^{[1]}$$

$$a^{[1]} = g^{[1]}(z^{[1]})$$

$$z^{[2]} = W^{[2]}a^{[1]} + b^{[2]}$$

$$a^{[2]} = g^{[2]}(z^{[2]})$$

$$\hat{y} = a^{[2]}$$



for *i* in 1..n $z^{[i]} = W^{[i]} a^{[i-1]} + b^{[i]}$ $a^{[i]} = g^{[i]}(z^{[i]})$ $\hat{y} = a^{[n]}$

Replacing the bias unit

Let's switch to a notation without the bias unit Just a notational change

- **1**. Add a dummy node $a_0 = 1$ to each layer
- 2. Its weight w_0 will be the bias
- 3. So input layer $a_{0}^{[0]}=1$, • And $a_{0}^{[1]}=1$, $a_{0}^{[2]}=1$,...

Replacing the bias unit

Instead of: We'll do this:

$$x = x_{l}, x_{2}, \dots, x_{n0}$$
$$h = \sigma(Wx + b)$$

$$h_j = \sigma \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n_0} W_{ji} x_i + b_j \right)$$

$$x = x_0, x_1, x_2, \dots, x_{n0}$$

$$h = \sigma(Wx)$$

$$\sigma\left(\sum_{i=0}^{n_0} W_{ji} x_i\right)$$

Replacing the bias unit

Instead of: We'll do this:





Feedforward Neural Networks

Applying feedforward networks to NLP tasks
Use cases for feedforward networks

Let's consider 2 (simplified) sample tasks:

- **1**. Text classification
- 2. Language modeling

State of the art systems use more powerful neural architectures, but simple models are useful to consider!

Classification: Sentiment Analysis

We could do exactly what we did with logistic regression

Input layer are binary features as before Output layer is 0 or 1



Sentiment Features

Var Definition count(positive lexicon) \in doc) x_1 count(negative lexicon) \in doc) x_2 $\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if "no"} \in \text{doc} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ *x*₃ $count(1st and 2nd pronouns \in doc)$ x_4 $\begin{cases} 1 & \text{if "!"} \in \text{doc} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$ x_5 log(word count of doc) x_6

Feedforward nets for simple classification



Just adding a hidden layer to logistic regression

- allows the network to use non-linear interactions between features
- which may (or may not) improve performance.

Even better: representation learning

The real power of deep learning comes from the ability to **learn** features from the data

Instead of using hand-built human-engineered features for classification

Use learned representations like embeddings!



Neural Net Classification with embeddings as input features!



Issue: texts come in different sizes

This assumes a fixed size length (3)! Kind of unrealistic.



Some simple solutions (more sophisticated solutions later)

- 1. Make the input the length of the longest review
 - If shorter then pad with zero embeddings
 - Truncate if you get longer reviews at test time
- 2. Create a single "sentence embedding" (the same dimensionality as a word) to represent all the words
 - Take the mean of all the word embeddings
 - Take the element-wise max of all the word embeddings
 - For each dimension, pick the max value from all words

Reminder: Multiclass Outputs

What if you have more than two output classes?

- Add more output units (one for each class)
- And use a "softmax layer"

softmax
$$(z_i) = \frac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_{j=1}^k e^{z_j}} \quad 1 \le i \le D$$

W



Neural Language Models (LMs)

Language Modeling: Calculating the probability of the next word in a sequence given some history.

- We've seen N-gram based LMs
- But neural network LMs far outperform n-gram language models

State-of-the-art neural LMs are based on more powerful neural network technology like Transformers

But **simple feedforward LMs** can do almost as well!

Simple feedforward Neural Language Models

Task: predict next word W_{t}

given prior words w_{t-1} , w_{t-2} , w_{t-3} , ... **Problem**: Now we're dealing with sequences of arbitrary length.

Solution: Sliding windows (of fixed length)

$$P(w_t|w_1^{t-1}) \approx P(w_t|w_{t-N+1}^{t-1})$$



Why Neural LMs work better than N-gram LMs

Training data:

We've seen: I have to make sure that the cat gets fed.

Never seen: dog gets fed

Test data:

I forgot to make sure that the dog gets _____

N-gram LM can't predict "fed"!

Neural LM can use similarity of "cat" and "dog" embeddings to generalize and predict "fed" after dog Simple Neural Networks and Neural Language Models

Applying feedforward networks to NLP tasks

Simple Neural Networks and Neural Language Models

Training Neural Nets: Overview

Intuition: training a 2-layer Network



Intuition: Training a 2-layer network

For every training tuple (x, y)

- Run *forward* computation to find our estimate \hat{y}
- Run *backward* computation to update weights:
 - For every output node
 - Compute loss L between true y and the estimated \hat{y}
 - For every weight *w* from hidden layer to the output layer
 - Update the weight
 - For every hidden node
 - Assess how much blame it deserves for the current answer
 - For every weight *w* from input layer to the hidden layer
 - Update the weight

Reminder: Loss Function for binary logistic regression

A measure for how far off the current answer is to the right answer

Cross entropy loss for logistic regression:

$$L_{CE}(\hat{y}, y) = -\log p(y|x) = -[y \log \hat{y} + (1-y) \log(1-\hat{y})]$$

$$= -[y \log \sigma(w \cdot x + b) + (1 - y) \log (1 - \sigma(w \cdot x + b))]$$

Reminder: gradient descent for weight updates

Use the derivative of the loss function with respect to weights $\frac{d}{dw}L(f(x;w),y)$

- To tell us how to adjust weights for each training item
 - Move them in the opposite direction of the gradient

$$w^{t+1} = w^t - h \frac{d}{dw} L(f(x; w), y)$$

For logistic regression

$$\frac{\partial L_{\rm CE}(\hat{y}, y)}{\partial w_j} = [\sigma(w \cdot x + b) - y] x_j$$

Where did that derivative come from?

Using the chain rule! f(x) = u(v(x)) $\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{du}{dv} \cdot \frac{dv}{dx}$ Intuition (see the text for details)

Derivative of the weighted sum

Derivative of the Activation

Derivative of the Loss

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial y} \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_i}$$



How can I find that gradient for every weight in the network?

These derivatives on the prior slide only give the updates for one weight layer: the last one!

What about deeper networks?

• Lots of layers, different activation functions?

Solution in the next lecture:

- Even more use of the chain rule!!
- Computation graphs and backward differentiation!

Simple Neural Networks and Neural Language Models

Training Neural Nets: Overview

Simple Neural Networks and Neural Language Models

Computation Graphs and Backward Differentiation

Why Computation Graphs

For training, we need the derivative of the loss with respect to each weight in every layer of the network

• But the loss is computed only at the very end of the network!

Solution: error backpropagation (Rumelhart, Hinton, Williams, 1986)

- Backprop is a special case of backward differentiation
- Which relies on **computation graphs**.

Computation Graphs

A computation graph represents the process of computing a mathematical expression

Example: L(a,b,c) = c(a+2b) d = 2*bComputations: e = a+dL = c*e





Backwards differentiation in computation graphs

The importance of the computation graph comes from the backward pass

This is used to compute the derivatives that we'll need for the weight update.

Example L(a,b,c) = c(a+2b)d = 2 * be = a + dL = c * e $\frac{\partial L}{\partial a}$, $\frac{\partial L}{\partial b}$, and $\frac{\partial L}{\partial c}$ We want: The derivative $\frac{\partial L}{\partial a}$, tells us how much a small change in *a* affects L.

The chain rule

Computing the derivative of a composite function:

$$f(x) = u(v(x))$$
 $\frac{df}{dx} = \frac{du}{dv} \cdot \frac{dv}{dx}$

$$f(x) = u(v(w(x))) \qquad \frac{df}{dx} = \frac{du}{dv} \cdot \frac{dv}{dw} \cdot \frac{dw}{dx}$$

Example L(a,b,c) = c(a+2b)

- d = 2 * b
- e = a + d
- L = c * e

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial c} = \epsilon$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial L} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial e} \frac{\partial e}{\partial a}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial e} \frac{\partial e}{\partial d} \frac{\partial e}{\partial b}$$

L
= (

∂L		$\partial L \partial e$
$\overline{\partial a}$	=	$\overline{\partial e} \ \overline{\partial a}$
∂L		$\partial L \ \partial e \ \partial d$
$\overline{\partial b}$	=	$\overline{\partial e} \ \overline{\partial d} \ \overline{\partial b}$

$$L = ce : \frac{\partial L}{\partial e} = c, \frac{\partial L}{\partial c} = e$$
$$= a + d : \frac{\partial e}{\partial a} = 1, \frac{\partial e}{\partial d} = 1$$
$$d = 2b : \frac{\partial d}{\partial b} = 2$$



Example



Backward differentiation on a two layer network



Backward differentiation on a two layer network

$$z^{[1]} = W^{[1]}\mathbf{x} + b^{[1]}$$

$$a^{[1]} = \text{ReLU}(z^{[1]})$$

$$z^{[2]} = W^{[2]}a^{[1]} + b^{[2]}$$

$$a^{[2]} = \sigma(z^{[2]})$$

$$\hat{y} = a^{[2]}$$

$$\frac{d\operatorname{ReLU}(z)}{dz} = \begin{cases} 0 & for \quad z < 0\\ 1 & for \quad z \ge 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{d\sigma(z)}{dz} = \sigma(z)(1 - \sigma(z))$$

Backward differentiation on a 2-layer network


Starting off the backward pass: $\frac{1}{\partial z}$ (I'll write *a* for $a^{[2]}$ and *z* for $z^{[2]}$)

$$L(\hat{y}, y) = -(y \log(\hat{y}) + (1 - y)\log(1 - \hat{y}))$$

$$z^{[1]} = W^{[1]}\mathbf{x} + b^{[1]}$$

$$a^{[1]} = \text{ReLU}(z^{[1]})$$

$$z^{[2]} = W^{[2]}a^{[1]} + b^{[2]}$$

$$a^{[2]} = \sigma(z^{[2]})$$

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = a^{[2]}$$

$$L(a, y) = -(y \log a + (1 - y)\log(1 - a))$$
$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial a} \frac{\partial a}{\partial z}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial a} = -\left(\left(y \frac{\partial \log(a)}{\partial a} \right) + (1 - y) \frac{\partial \log(1 - a)}{\partial a} \right)$$
$$= -\left(\left(\left(y \frac{1}{a} \right) + (1 - y) \frac{1}{1 - a} (-1) \right) = -\left(\frac{y}{a} + \frac{y - 1}{1 - a} \right) \right)$$

$$\frac{\partial a}{\partial z} = a(1-a)$$
 $\frac{\partial L}{\partial z} = -\left(\frac{y}{a} + \frac{y-1}{1-a}\right)a(1-a) = a-y$

Summary

For training, we need the derivative of the loss with respect to weights in early layers of the network

• But loss is computed only at the very end of the network!

Solution: **backward differentiation**

Given a computation graph and the derivatives of all the functions in it we can automatically compute the derivative of the loss with respect to these early weights. Simple Neural Networks and Neural Language Models

Computation Graphs and Backward Differentiation