Neural Networks

- Threshold units
- Gradient descent
- Multilayer networks
- Backpropagation
- Hidden layer representations
- Example: Face Recognition
- Advanced topics
- And, more.


Understanding the Brain

- Levels of analysis (Marr, 1982)
  1. Computational theory
  2. Representation and algorithm
  3. Hardware implementation
- Reverse engineering: From hardware to theory
- Parallel processing: SIMD vs MIMD
  Neural net: SIMD with modifiable local memory
  Learning: Update by training/experience

Biological Neurons and Networks

- Neuron switching time $\sim .001$ second (1 ms)
- Number of neurons $\sim 10^{10}$
- Connections per neuron $\sim 10^{4-5}$
- Scene recognition time $\sim .1$ second (100 ms)
- 100 processing steps doesn’t seem like enough
  $\Rightarrow$ much parallel computation
Artificial Neural Networks

- Many neuron-like threshold switching units (real-valued)
- Many weighted interconnections among units
- Highly parallel, distributed process
- Emphasis on tuning weights automatically: New learning algorithms, new optimization techniques, new learning principles.

Biologically Motivated (or Accurate) Neural Networks

- Spiking neurons
- Complex morphological models
- Detailed dynamical models
- Connectivity either based on or trained to mimic biology
- Focus on modeling network/neural/subneural processes
- Focus on natural principles of neural computation
- Different forms of learning: spike-timing-dependent plasticity, covariance learning, short-term and long-term plasticity, etc.

When to Consider Neural Networks

- Input is high-dimensional discrete or real-valued (e.g. raw sensor input)
- Output is discrete or real valued
- Output is a vector of values
- Possibly noisy data
- Long training time (may need occasional, extensive retraining)
- Form of target function is unknown
- Fast evaluation of learned target function
- Human readability of result is unimportant

Example Applications (more later)

Examples:
- Speech synthesis
- Handwritten character recognition (from yann.lecun.com).
- Financial prediction, Transaction fraud detection (Big issue lately)
- Driving a car on the highway
Perceptrons

\[ o(x_1, \ldots, x_n) = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \cdots + w_n x_n > 0 \\
-1 & \text{otherwise.}
\end{cases} \]

Sometimes we'll use simpler vector notation:

\[ o(\vec{x}) = \begin{cases} 
1 & \text{if } \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} > 0 \\
-1 & \text{otherwise.}
\end{cases} \]

Hypothesis Space of Perceptrons

- The tunable parameters are the weights \( w_0, w_1, \ldots, w_n \), so the space \( H \) of candidate hypotheses is the set of all possible combination of real-valued weight vectors:

\[ H = \{ \vec{w} | \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{(n+1)} \} \]

Boolean Logic Gates with Perceptron Units

- Perceptrons can represent basic boolean functions.
- Thus, a network of perceptron units can compute any Boolean function.

What about XOR or EQUIV?

What Perceptrons Can Represent

- Output of the perceptron:

\[ W_0 \times I_0 + W_1 \times I_1 - t > 0, \text{ then output is } 1 \]
\[ W_0 \times I_0 + W_1 \times I_1 - t \leq 0, \text{ then output is } -1 \]

The hypothesis space is a collection of separating lines.
Geometric Interpretation

- Rearranging
  \[ W_0 \times I_0 + W_1 \times I_1 - t > 0, \] then output is 1,

we get (if \( W_1 > 0 \))

\[ I_1 > \frac{-W_0}{W_1} \times I_0 + \frac{t}{W_1}, \]

where points above the line, the output is 1, and -1 for those below the line.

Compare with

\[ y = -\frac{W_0}{W_1} \times x + \frac{t}{W_1}. \]

The Role of the Bias

- Without the bias \( t = 0 \), learning is limited to adjustment of the slope of the separating line passing through the origin.

- Three example lines with different weights are shown.

Limitation of Perceptrons

- Only functions where the -1 points and 1 points are clearly separable can be represented by perceptrons.

- The geometric interpretation is generalizable to functions of \( n \) arguments, i.e. perceptron with \( n \) inputs plus one threshold (or bias) unit.

Generalizing to \( n \)-Dimensions

- \( \vec{n} = (a, b, c), \vec{x} = (x, y, z), \vec{x}_0 = (x_0, y_0, z_0) \).

- Equation of a plane: \( \vec{n} \cdot (\vec{x} - \vec{x}_0) = 0 \)

- In short, \( ax + by + cz + d = 0 \), where \( a, b, c \) can serve as the weight, and \( d = -\vec{n} \cdot \vec{x}_0 \propto \vec{n} \cdot \vec{n} \) as the bias.

- For \( n \)-D input space, the decision boundary becomes a \((n-1)\)-D hyperplane (1-D less than the input space).
Linear Separability

- For functions that take integer or real values as arguments and output either -1 or 1.
- Left: linearly separable (i.e., can draw a straight line between the classes).
- Right: not linearly separable (i.e., perceptrons cannot represent such a function).

XOR in Detail

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>#</th>
<th>$I_0$</th>
<th>$I_1$</th>
<th>XOR</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$W_0 \times I_0 + W_1 \times I_1 - t > 0$, then output is 1:
1. $-t \leq 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad t \geq 0$
2. $W_1 - t > 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad W_1 > t$
3. $W_0 - t > 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad W_0 > t$
4. $W_0 + W_1 - t \leq 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad W_0 + W_1 \leq t$

$2t < W_0 + W_1 < t$ (from 2, 3, and 4), but $t \geq 0$ (from 1), a contradiction.

Learning: Perceptron Rule

- The weights do not have to be calculated manually.
- We can train the network with (input,output) pair according to the following weight update rule:

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \eta(t - o)x_i$$

where $\eta$ is the learning rate parameter.
- Proven to converge if input set is linearly separable and $\eta$ is small.

Perceptrons cannot represent XOR!
- Minsky and Papert (1969)
Learning in Perceptrons (Cont’d)

\[ w_i \leftarrow w_i + \eta (t - o)x_i \]

- When \( t = o \), weight stays.
- When \( t = 1 \) and \( o = -1 \), change in weight is:
  \[ \eta (1 - (-1))x_i > 0 \]
  if \( x_i \) are all positive. Thus \( \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} \) will increase, thus eventually, output \( o \) will turn to 1.
- When \( t = -1 \) and \( o = 1 \), change in weight is:
  \[ \eta (-1 - 1)x_i < 0 \]
  if \( x_i \) are all positive. Thus \( \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} \) will decrease, thus eventually, output \( o \) will turn to -1.

Another Learning Rule: Delta Rule

- The perceptron rule cannot deal with noisy data.
- The delta rule will find an approximate solution even when input set is not linearly separable.
- Use linear unit without the step function: \( o(\vec{x}) = \vec{w} \cdot \vec{x} \).
- Want to reduce the error by adjusting \( \vec{w} \):
  \[ E(\vec{w}) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \in D} (t_d - o_d)^2 \]

Gradient Descent

- Want to minimize by adjusting \( \vec{w} \):
  \[ E(\vec{w}) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \in D} (t_d - o_d)^2 \]
- Note: the error surface is defined by the training data \( D \). A different data set will give a different surface.
- \( E(w_0, w_1) \) is the error function above, and we want to change \( (w_0, w_1) \) to position under a low \( E \).
Gradient Descent (Cont’d)

Gradient

\[ \nabla E[\vec{w}] \equiv \left[ \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_0}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_1}, \ldots, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_n} \right] \]

Training rule:

\[ \Delta \vec{w} = -\eta \nabla E[\vec{w}] \]

i.e.,

\[ \Delta w_i = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i} \]

Gradient Descent (Example)

\[ \begin{array}{c}
0.02 \\
0 \\
-0.02 \\
0  5  10  15  20  25  30  35  40  45  50 \\
5 \\
10 \\
15 \\
20 \\
25 \\
30 \\
35 \\
40 \\
45 \\
50 \\
-0.04 \\
-0.03 \\
-0.02 \\
-0.01 \\
0 \\
0.01 \\
0.02 \\
0.03 \\
0.04 \\
\end{array} \]

- Gradient points in the maximum increasing direction.
- Gradient is perpendicular to the level curve (uphill direction).
- \( E(w_0, w_1) \) is the error function above, so \( \nabla E = (\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_0}, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_1}) \), a vector on a 2D plane.

Gradient Descent: Summary

Gradient-Descent \((\text{training examples}, \eta)\)

Each training example is a pair of the form \( \langle \vec{x}, t \rangle \), where \( \vec{x} \) is the vector of input values, and \( t \) is the target output value. \( \eta \) is the learning rate (e.g., .05).

- Initialize each \( w_i \) to some small random value
- Until the termination condition is met, Do
  - Initialize each \( \Delta w_i \) to zero.
  - For each \( \langle \vec{x}, t \rangle \) in \( \text{training examples} \), Do
    * Input the instance \( \vec{x} \) to the unit and compute the output \( o \)
    * For each linear unit weight \( w_i \), Do
      \[ \Delta w_i \leftarrow \Delta w_i + \eta(t - o)x_i \]
    - For each linear unit weight \( w_i \), Do
      \[ w_i \leftarrow w_i + \Delta w_i \]
Gradient Descent Properties

Gradient descent is effective in searching through a large or infinite $H$:

- $H$ contains continuously parameterized hypotheses, and
- the error can be differentiated wrt the parameters.

Limitations:

- convergence can be slow, and
- finds local minima (global minimum not guaranteed).

Stochastic Approximation to Grad. Desc.

Avoiding local minima: Incremental gradient descent, or stochastic gradient descent.

- Instead of weight update based on all input in $D$, immediately update weights after each input example:

  $$\Delta w_i = \eta (t - o)x_i,$$

  instead of

  $$\Delta w_i = \eta \sum_{d \in D} (t_d - o_d)x_i,$$

- Can be seen as minimizing error function

  $$E_d(\vec{w}) = \frac{1}{2} (t_d - o_d)^2.$$

Standard and Stochastic Grad. Desc.: Differences

- In the standard version, error is defined over entire $D$.
- In the standard version, more computation is needed per weight update, but $\eta$ can be larger.
- Stochastic version can sometimes avoid local minima.

Summary

Perceptron training rule guaranteed to succeed if

- Training examples are linearly separable
- Sufficiently small learning rate $\eta$

Linear unit training rule using gradient descent

- Asymptotic convergence to hypothesis with minimum squared error
- Given sufficiently small learning rate $\eta$
- Even when training data contains noise
- Even when training data not separable by $H$
Exercise: Implementing the Perceptron

- It is fairly easy to implement a perceptron.
- You can implement it in any programming language: C/C++, etc.
- Look for examples on the web, and JAVA applet demos.

Multilayer Networks

- Differentiable threshold unit: sigmoid

\[ \sigma(y) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-y)} . \]

Interesting property: \[
\frac{d\sigma(y)}{dy} = \sigma(y)(1 - \sigma(y)) .
\]

- Output:

\[ o = \sigma(\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}) \]

- Other functions:

\[ \tanh(y) = \frac{\exp(-2y) - 1}{\exp(-2y) + 1} \]

Multilayer Networks and Backpropagation

- Nonlinear decision surfaces.

- Another example: XOR
Error Gradient for a Sigmoid Unit

From the previous page:

\[ \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i} = - \sum_d (t_d - o_d) \frac{\partial o_d}{\partial \text{net}_d} \frac{\partial \text{net}_d}{\partial w_i} \]

But we know:

\[ \frac{\partial o_d}{\partial \text{net}_d} = \frac{\partial \sigma(\text{net}_d)}{\partial \text{net}_d} = o_d(1 - o_d) \]

\[ \frac{\partial \text{net}_d}{\partial w_i} = \frac{\partial (\vec{w} \cdot \vec{x}_d)}{\partial w_i} = x_{i,d} \]

So:

\[ \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i} = - \sum_{d \in D} (t_d - o_d) o_d(1 - o_d)x_{i,d} \]

The δ Term

- For output unit:
  \[ \delta_k \leftarrow o_k(1 - o_k) \frac{(t_k - o_k)}{\sigma'(\text{net}_k)} \]

- For hidden unit:
  \[ \delta_h \leftarrow o_h(1 - o_h) \sum_{k \in \text{outputs}} w_{kh} \delta_k \]

- In sum, δ is the derivative times the error.

- Derivation to be presented later.

Backpropagation Algorithm

Initialize all weights to small random numbers.

Until satisfied, Do

- For each training example, Do
  1. Input the training example to the network and compute the network outputs
  2. For each output unit \( k \)
     \[ \delta_k \leftarrow o_k(1 - o_k)(t_k - o_k) \]
  3. For each hidden unit \( h \)
     \[ \delta_h \leftarrow o_h(1 - o_h) \sum_{k \in \text{outputs}} w_{kh} \delta_k \]
  4. Update each network weight \( w_{i,j} \)
     \[ w_{ji} \leftarrow w_{ji} + \Delta w_{ji} \]
     where \[ \Delta w_{ji} = \eta \delta_j x_i. \]

Note: \( w_{ji} \) is the weight from \( i \) to \( j \) (i.e., \( w_j \leftarrow i \)).

Derivation of \( \Delta w \)

- Want to update weight as:
  \[ \Delta w_{ji} = -\eta \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial w_{ji}}, \]

  where error is defined as:
  \[ E_d(\vec{w}) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \in \text{outputs}} (t_k - o_k)^2 \]

- Given \( \text{net}_j = \sum_j w_{ji}x_i \),
  \[ \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial \text{net}_j} \frac{\partial \text{net}_j}{\partial w_{ji}} \]

  Different formula for output and hidden.
Derivation of $\Delta w$: Output Unit Weights

From the previous page,
\[ \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} \frac{\partial net_j}{\partial w_{ji}} \]

• First, calculate $\frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j}$:
\[ \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial o_j} \frac{\partial o_j}{\partial net_j} \]
\[ \begin{align*}
\frac{\partial E_d}{\partial o_j} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial o_j} \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k \in \text{outputs}} (t_k - o_k)^2 \\
&= \frac{\partial}{\partial o_j} \frac{1}{2} (t_j - o_j)^2 \\
&= \frac{1}{2} (t_j - o_j) \frac{\partial (t_j - o_j)}{\partial o_j} \\
&= -(t_j - o_j)
\end{align*} \]

Derivation of $\Delta w$: Output Unit Weights

From the previous page:
\[ \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial o_j} \frac{\partial o_j}{\partial net_j} = -(t_j - o_j) o_j (1 - o_j) \]

Putting everything together,
\[ \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial o_j} \frac{\partial o_j}{\partial net_j} = -(t_j - o_j) o_j (1 - o_j) \]

Derivation of $\Delta w$: Output Unit Weights

Start with
\[ \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} \frac{\partial net_j}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} x_i \]

Since $\frac{\partial net_j}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{ji}} \sum_k w_{jk} x_k = x_i$,
\[ \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} \frac{\partial net_j}{\partial w_{ji}} = -(t_j - o_j) o_j (1 - o_j) x_i \]

Derivation of $\Delta w$: Hidden Unit Weights

Start with
\[ \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} \frac{\partial net_j}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} x_i \]

Since $\frac{\partial net_j}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{ji}} \sum_k w_{jk} x_k = x_i$,
\[ \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial net_j} \frac{\partial net_j}{\partial w_{ji}} = -(t_j - o_j) o_j (1 - o_j) x_i \]

\[ \delta_j = \text{error} \times \sigma'(\text{net}) \]

\[ \delta_j = \text{error} \times \sigma'(\text{net}) \]
Derivation of $\Delta w$: Hidden Unit Weights

Finally, given
\[
\frac{\partial E_d}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial \text{net}_j} \frac{\partial \text{net}_j}{\partial w_{ji}} = \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial \text{net}_j} x_i,
\]
and
\[
\frac{\partial E_d}{\partial \text{net}_j} = \sum_{k \in \text{Downstream}(j)} -\delta_k w_{kj} o_j (1 - o_j),
\]

\[
\Delta w_{ji} = -\eta \frac{\partial E_d}{\partial w_{ji}} = \eta [o_j (1 - o_j)] \sum_{k \in \text{Downstream}(j)} \frac{\delta_k w_{kj}}{\sigma'(\text{net})} x_i
\]

Extension to Different Network Topologies

- Arbitrary number of layers: for neurons in layer $m$:
  \[
  \delta_r = o_r (1 - o_r) \sum_{s \in \text{layer } m+1} w_{sr} \delta_s.
  \]
- Arbitrary acyclic graph:
  \[
  \delta_r = o_r (1 - o_r) \sum_{s \in \text{Downstream}(r)} w_{sr} \delta_s.
  \]

Backpropagation: Properties

- Gradient descent over entire network weight vector.
- Easily generalized to arbitrary directed graphs.
- Will find a local, not necessarily global error minimum:
  - In practice, often works well (can run multiple times with different initial weights).
- Often include weight momentum $\alpha$
  \[
  \Delta w_{i,j}(n) = \eta \delta_j x_{i,j} + \alpha \Delta w_{i,j}(n-1).
  \]
- Minimizes error over training examples:
  - Will it generalize well to subsequent examples?
- Training can take thousands of iterations $\rightarrow$ slow!
- Using the network after training is very fast.

Representational Power of Feedforward Networks

- Boolean functions: every boolean function representable with two layers (hidden unit size can grow exponentially in the worst case: one hidden unit per input example, and “OR” them).
- Continuous functions: Every bounded continuous function can be approximated with an arbitrarily small error (output units are linear).
- Arbitrary functions: with three layers (output units are linear).
**H-Space Search and Inductive Bias**

- **H-space** = \( n \)-D weight space (when there are \( n \) weights).
- The space is **continuous**, unlike decision tree or general-to-specific concept learning algorithms.
- Inductive bias:
  - Smooth interpolation between data points.

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### Learned Hidden Layer Representations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Input</th>
<th>Hidden Values</th>
<th>Output</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10000000</td>
<td>.89 .04 .08</td>
<td>10000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>01000000</td>
<td>.01 .11 .88</td>
<td>01000000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00100000</td>
<td>.01 .97 .27</td>
<td>00100000</td>
</tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>00001000</td>
<td>.03 .05 .02</td>
<td>00001000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00000100</td>
<td>.22 .99 .99</td>
<td>00000100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00000010</td>
<td>.80 .01 .98</td>
<td>00000010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>00000001</td>
<td>.60 .94 .01</td>
<td>00000001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Learned encoding is similar to standard 3-bit binary code.
- Automatic discovery of **useful hidden layer representations** is a key feature of ANN.
- Note: The hidden layer representation is **compressed**.
Overfitting

- Error in two different robot perception tasks.
- Training set and validation set error.
- Early stopping ensures good performance on unobserved samples, but must be careful.
- Weight decay, use of validation sets, use of k-fold cross-validation, etc. to overcome the problem.

**Alternative Error Functions**

Penalize large weights:

\[
E(\vec{w}) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \in D} \sum_{k \in \text{outputs}} (t_{kd} - o_{kd})^2 + \gamma \sum_{i,j} w_{ji}^2
\]

Train on target slopes as well as values (when the slope is available):

\[
E(\vec{w}) \equiv \frac{1}{2} \sum_{d \in D} \sum_{k \in \text{outputs}} \left( (t_{kd} - o_{kd})^2 + \mu \sum_{j \in \text{inputs}} \left( \frac{\partial t_{kd}}{\partial x_j} - \frac{\partial o_{kd}}{\partial x_j} \right)^2 \right)
\]

Tie together weights:

- e.g., in phoneme recognition network, or
- handwritten character recognition (weight sharing).

**Recurrent Networks**

- Sequence recognition.
- Store tree structure (next slide).
- Can be trained with plain backpropagation.
- Generalization may not be perfect.

**Recurrent Networks (Cont’d)**

- Autoassociation (input = output)
- Represent a stack using the hidden layer representation.
- Accuracy depends on numerical precision.
Learning Time

- **Applications:**
  - Sequence recognition: Speech recognition
  - Sequence reproduction: Time-series prediction
  - Sequence association

- **Network architectures**
  - Time-delay networks (Waibel et al., 1989)
  - Recurrent networks (Rumelhart et al., 1986)

---

**Time-Delay Neural Networks**

![Diagram of Time-Delay Neural Networks]

- $y_j$
- $V_{jh}$
- $z_h$
- $z_0 = +1$
- $w_{hj}$
- $x_0 = +1$
- $x^t$
- $x^{t-1}$
- $x^{t-2}$
- Delay

---

**Recurrent Networks**

- ![Diagram of Recurrent Networks](a)
- ![Diagram of Recurrent Networks](b)
- ![Diagram of Recurrent Networks](c)

---

**Unfolding in Time**

- $y$
- $V$
- $h^3$
- $R$
- $h^2$
- $R$
- $h^1$
- $R$
- $h^0$

- $x^3$
- $x^2$
- $x^1$
- $x^0$
- ![Diagram of Unfolding in Time](a)
- ![Diagram of Unfolding in Time](b)
Some Applications: NETtalk

- Learn to pronounce English text.
- Demo
- Data available in UCI ML repository

Backpropagation Exercise

- **URL**: http://www.cs.tamu.edu/faculty/choe/src/backprop-1.6.tar.gz
- Untar and read the README file:
  ```bash
gzip -dc backprop-1.6.tar.gz | tar xvf -
```
- Run `make` to build (on departmental unix machines).
- Run `./bp conf/xor.conf` etc.

Backpropagation: Example Results

- **Error**
- **10,000 Epochs**
- **Backprop**
- **OR**
- **AND**
- **XOR**

- Epoch: one full cycle of training through all training input patterns.
- OR was easiest, AND the next, and XOR was the most difficult to learn.
- Network had 2 input, 2 hidden and 1 output unit. Learning rate was 0.001.
Backpropagation: Example Results (cont'd)

Backprop

Backprop: Things to Try

- How does increasing the number of hidden layer units affect the (1) time and the (2) number of epochs of training?
- How does increasing or decreasing the learning rate affect the rate of convergence?
- How does changing the slope of the sigmoid affect the rate of convergence?
- Different problem domains: handwriting recognition, etc.

Output to (0,0), (0,1), (1,0), and (1,1) form each row.

Structured MLP

(Le Cun et al, 1989)

Weight Sharing
Tuning the Network Size

- Destructive
- Weight decay:
- Constructive
- Growing networks

\[ \Delta w_i = -\eta \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_i} - \lambda w_i \]

\[ E' = E + \frac{\lambda}{2} \sum_i w_i^2 \]

Consider weights \( w_i \) as random vars, prior \( p(w_i) \)

Weight decay, ridge regression, regularization

cost = data-misfit + \( \lambda \) complexity

More about Bayesian methods in chapter 14

Summary

- ANN learning provides general method for learning real-valued functions over continuous or discrete-valued attributed.
- ANNs are robust to noise.
- \( H \) is the space of all functions parameterized by the weights.
- \( H \) space search is through gradient descent: convergence to local minima.
- Backpropagation gives novel hidden layer representations.
- Overfitting is an issue.
- More advanced algorithms exist.

\[ p(w | X) = \frac{p(X | w)p(w)}{p(X)} \]

\[ \hat{w}_{MAP} = \arg \max_w \log p(w | X) \]

\[ \log p(w | X) = \log p(X | w) + \log p(w) + C \]

\[ p(w) = \prod_i p(w_i) \text{ where } p(w_i) = c \cdot \exp \left[ - \frac{w_i^2}{2(1/2\lambda)} \right] \]

\[ E' = E + \lambda \| w \|^2 \]