# **Deep Neural Networks**

ACMS 80770: Deep Learning with Graphs

Instructor: Navid Shervani-Tabar

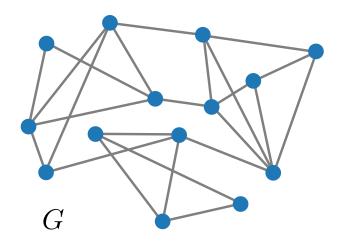
Department of Applied and Comp Math and Stats



- The node embedding methods discussed so far learn based on a shallow embedding.
- Shallow embedding methods have a few shortcomings:
  - They do not share parameters within nodes in the encoder.
  - This is computationally more expensive and statistically less efficient.

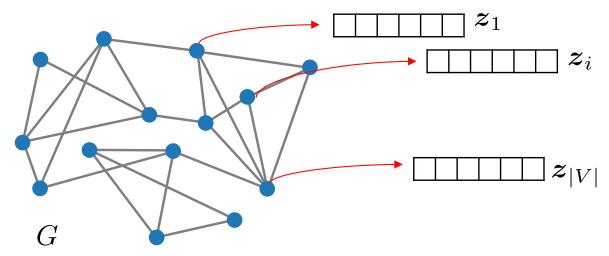


- The node embedding methods discussed so far learn based on a shallow embedding.
- Shallow embedding methods have a few shortcomings:
  - They do not share parameters within nodes in the encoder.
  - This is computationally more expensive and statistically less efficient.
  - They are transductive.



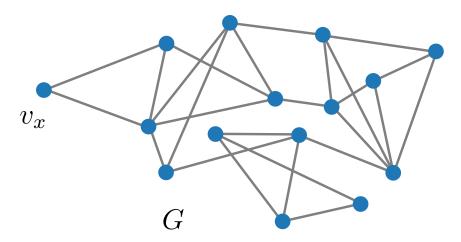


- The node embedding methods discussed so far learn based on a shallow embedding.
- Shallow embedding methods have a few shortcomings:
  - They do not share parameters within nodes in the encoder.
  - This is computationally more expensive and statistically less efficient.
  - They are transductive.



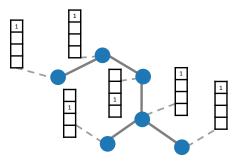


- The node embedding methods discussed so far learn based on a shallow embedding.
- Shallow embedding methods have a few shortcomings:
  - They do not share parameters within nodes in the encoder.
  - This is computationally more expensive and statistically less efficient.
  - They are transductive.





- The node embedding methods discussed so far learn based on a shallow embedding.
- Shallow embedding methods have a few shortcomings:
  - They do not share parameters within nodes in the encoder.
  - This is computationally more expensive and statistically less efficient.
  - They are transductive.
  - Can't learn embedding on nodes not seen during the training.
  - They don't leverage node attributes.





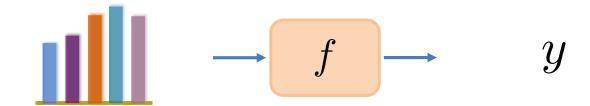
- The node embedding methods discussed so far learn based on a shallow embedding.
- Shallow embedding methods have a few shortcomings:
  - They do not share parameters within nodes in the encoder.
  - This is computationally more expensive and statistically less efficient.
  - They are transductive.
  - Can't learn embedding on nodes not seen during the training.
  - They don't leverage node attributes.
- More sophisticated encoders based on deep learning models alleviate these limitations



Solving supervised ML problems involves approximating a **mapping**  $f: x \to y$  between the inputs x and outputs y.

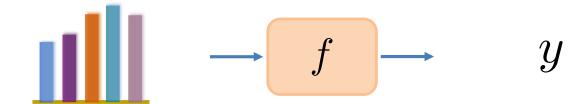


- Solving supervised ML problems involves approximating a **mapping**  $f: x \to y$  between the inputs x and outputs y.
- Regression

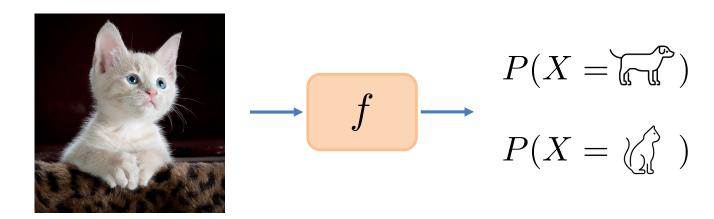




- Solving supervised ML problems involves approximating a **mapping**  $f: x \to y$  between the inputs x and outputs y.
- Regression



Classification





Linear models map data x to the output y using a function of the form

$$\mathbf{y} = f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + b$$

where  $\theta = \{W, b\}$ .

The linearity assumption in these models is restricting.



Linear models map data x to the output y using a function of the form

$$\mathbf{y} = f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + b$$

where  $\theta = \{W, b\}$ .

- The linearity assumption in these models is restricting.
- $\diamond$  One way to alleviate this is by instead mapping some feature transformation  $\phi(x)$  of input x

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}\phi(\mathbf{x}) + b$$

- The model is constructed of linear combination of fixed basis functions.
- $\diamond y$  is now an **expansion** in the basis function  $\phi$ .



- These models are easy to optimize as the model is linear in the parameter space.
- $\blacktriangleright$  Hand designing  $\phi$  poses limits on this approach and makes it less efficient.
- ➤ Also, when the **dimension** of the data increases, the applicability of these models gets limited.



- These models are easy to optimize as the model is linear in the parameter space.
- $\blacktriangleright$  Hand designing  $\phi$  poses limits on this approach and makes it less efficient.
- Also, when the dimension of the data increases, the applicability of these models gets limited.
- One remedy to this problem is using basis functions that are adapted to the data.
- $\diamond$  In other words, we extend the previous model and instead of defining  $\phi$ , **learn**  $\phi$ .



 $\diamond$  This can be done by **parameterizing**  $\phi$  as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}\phi_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_2}(\mathbf{x}) + b$$

where  $\theta_2$  is some parameter for basis function  $\phi$ .

**The learned parameters include**  $\theta_1 = \{W, b\}$  and  $\theta_2$ .



 $\diamond$  This can be done by **parameterizing**  $\phi$  as

$$\mathbf{y} = \mathbf{W}\phi_{\boldsymbol{\theta}_2}(\mathbf{x}) + b$$

where  $\theta_2$  is some parameter for basis function  $\phi$ .

- **The learned parameters include**  $\theta_1 = \{W, b\}$  and  $\theta_2$ .
- \* Neural networks are one such approach.
- \* A recursive application of this parameterized basis function

$$f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}) = f_L(f_{L-1}(\dots f_1(\mathbf{x})\dots))$$

can learn more **complex** functions.

This is the main idea behind deep neural networks.



A fully-connected neural network f is a non-linear function parametrized by W, that maps a set of input variables x to output variables y.

$$\mathbf{y} = f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})$$

and consists of a cascade of transformations

$$\mathbf{y}_{\ell} = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_{\ell-1,\ell}\mathbf{y}_{\ell-1} + b_{\ell-1})$$

with  $\theta = \{W_{\ell-1,\ell}, b_{\ell-1}\}$  for  $0 < \ell \le L$  and  $y_0 = x$ , and  $\sigma$  is non-linearity.



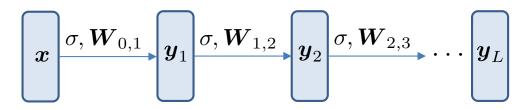
A fully-connected neural network f is a non-linear function parametrized by W, that maps a set of input variables x to output variables y.

$$\mathbf{y} = f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x})$$

and consists of a cascade of transformations

$$\mathbf{y}_{\ell} = \sigma(\mathbf{W}_{\ell-1,\ell}\mathbf{y}_{\ell-1} + b_{\ell-1})$$

with  $\theta = \{W_{\ell-1,\ell}, b_{\ell-1}\}$  for  $0 < \ell \le L$  and  $y_0 = x$ , and  $\sigma$  is non-linearity.

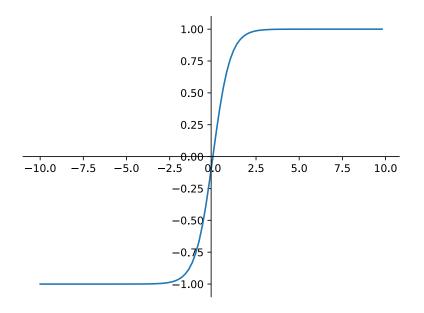


 $\diamond$  Each intermediate output  $y_{\ell}$  is called a hidden layer.



- There are a number of non-linear activation functions that are used.
- > Tanh

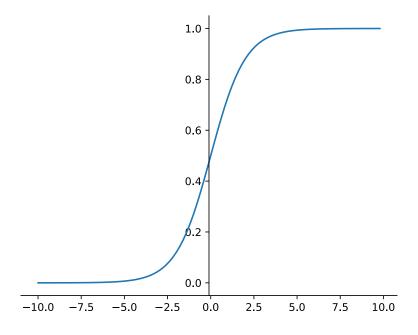
$$\sigma(x) = \frac{2}{1 + \exp(-2x)} - 1$$





- There are a number of non-linear activation functions that are used.
- Sigmoid

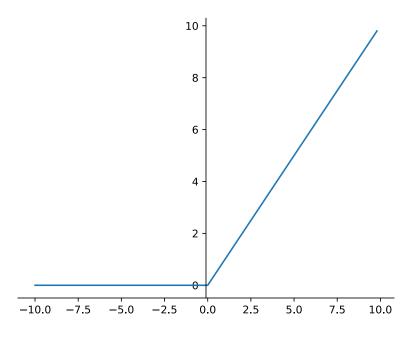
$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)}$$





- There are a number of non-linear activation functions that are used.
- > ReLU

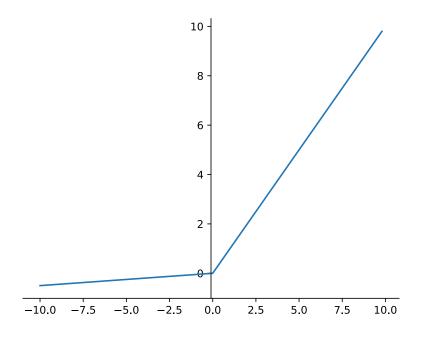
$$\sigma(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0\\ 0 & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$





- There are a number of non-linear activation functions that are used.
- LeakyReLU

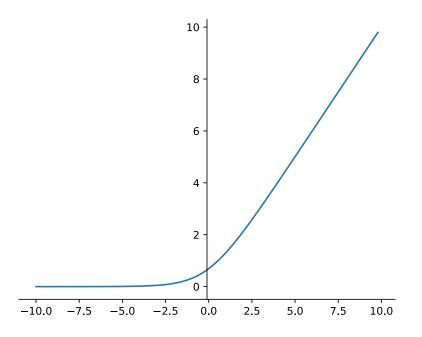
$$\sigma(x) = \begin{cases} x & \text{if } x \ge 0\\ \beta x & \text{if } x < 0 \end{cases}$$





- There are a number of non-linear activation functions that are used.
- SoftPlus

$$\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{\beta} \log(1 + \exp(\beta x))$$





- Constructing a model requires
  - > An architecture.
  - > An **objective** function.
  - > An **optimization** procedure.



- Constructing a model requires
  - > An architecture.
  - An objective function.
  - > An **optimization** procedure.
- ightharpoonup In a **data-driven** approach, an objective function based on the training data  $\mathcal{D}$  is optimized to yield the model parameters.
- This is referred to as training or model fitting.
- Assuming that training data is sampled from a **true** distribution  $p_{data}$ , we define the model  $p_{\theta}$  and find parameters that give high probability to the observed data.



In most occasions, the model represents a parametric conditional probability distribution,

$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{y}^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

 $\diamond$  Assuming data points are **independently** sampled from  $p_{data}$ , we rewrite likelihood as

$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathcal{D}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{y}^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

- This is assuming training data is Independent and identically distributed (iid).
- **Solution** Given training data  $\mathcal{D} = \{x^{(i)}, y^{(i)}\}_{i \leq N}$ , the objective is to **maximize** the probability of the **observed** data  $\mathcal{D}$ .



In other words

$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}} = \arg \max_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathcal{D})$$

where

$$p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathcal{D}) = \prod_{i=1}^{N} p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{y}^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

Alternatively, we use negative log-likelihood for numerical stability

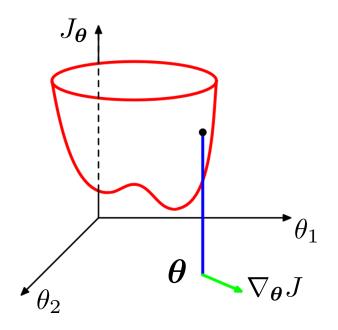
$$\hat{\boldsymbol{\theta}}_{\text{MLE}} = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} - \sum_{i=1}^{N} \log p_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \left( \mathbf{y}^{(i)} \mid \mathbf{x}^{(i)} \right)$$



- Optimizing a function  $J(\theta)$  refers to minimizing or maximizing  $J(\theta)$  by altering parameter  $\theta$ .
- A gradient-based optimization method uses gradient of the objective function to guide the parameter space.



- Optimizing a function  $J(\theta)$  refers to minimizing or maximizing  $J(\theta)$  by altering parameter  $\theta$ .
- A gradient-based optimization method uses gradient of the objective function to guide the parameter space.





- Optimizing a function  $J(\theta)$  refers to minimizing or maximizing  $J(\theta)$  by altering parameter  $\theta$ .
- A gradient-based optimization method uses gradient of the objective function to guide the parameter space.
- $\diamond$  The derivative of J(x) returns the slope of J at point x.
- $\diamond$  To **minimize** a function f, we move in the direction of the **negative** of the derivative.

$$\frac{dJ(x)}{dx}$$

For **multivariate** function f, we need to compute the **partial** derivative of f(x) with respect to variables  $x_i$ .



❖ For a multivariate function f(x):  $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  and variable  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we represent the vector of partial derivatives using **gradient** 

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} f(\boldsymbol{x}), \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} f(\boldsymbol{x}) \right]$$



### **Stochastic Gradient Decent**

For a multivariate function f(x):  $\mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$  and variable  $x \in \mathbb{R}^n$ , we represent the vector of partial derivatives using **gradient** 

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{x}} f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} f(\boldsymbol{x}), \dots, \frac{\partial}{\partial x_n} f(\boldsymbol{x}) \right]$$

In deep learning algorithms, the objective is usually to minimize a loss function computed based on the training data

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} l(f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}), y^{(i)})$$

However, computing this gradient for whole dataset D is computationally expensive.



### **Stochastic Gradient Decent**

- Most deep learning models instead rely on a method called stochastic gradient decent (SGD).
- This approach instead of computing the gradient for whole dataset, approximates the gradient using a mini-batch of data sampled uniformly from D

$$\mathcal{L} \approx \frac{1}{N'} \sum_{i=1}^{N'} l\left(f_{\theta}\left(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}\right)\right)$$

$$\nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L} \approx \frac{1}{N'} \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \sum_{i=1}^{N'} l(f_{\boldsymbol{\theta}}(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}))$$

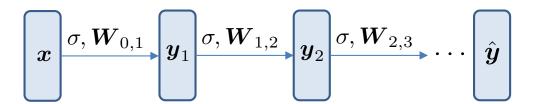
The parameters are then updated iteratively using

$$\boldsymbol{\theta}^{n+1} = \boldsymbol{\theta}^n - \eta \nabla_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} \mathcal{L}$$



# **Backprop**

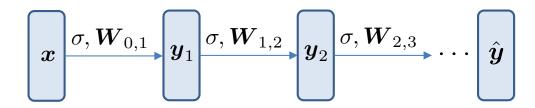
 $\diamond$  Given an input x to a function f, representing a feed forward network, information **propagate forward** to yield prediction  $\hat{y}$ .





# **Backprop**

 $\diamond$  Given an input x to a function f, representing a feed forward network, information **propagate forward** to yield prediction  $\hat{y}$ .

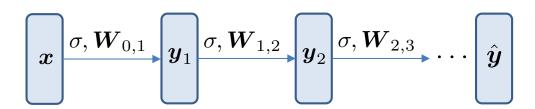


- $\diamond$  During the training, this prediction  $\hat{y}$  is plugged into the **objective** function to **evaluate** the model.
- To update the model parameter through a gradient-based scheme, we need to compute the gradient of objective with respect to each parameter.



# **Backprop**

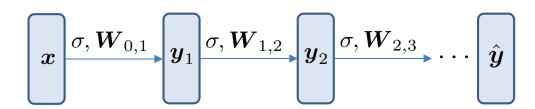
- To compute the **derivative** of **objective** function, we use an algorithm called error backpropagation, or in short **backprop**.
- In this algorithm, derivatives of the loss function are propagated backward through the network to compute the gradient of objective with respect to the weight parameters in the earlier layers.





# **Backprop**

- To compute the **derivative** of **objective** function, we use an algorithm called error backpropagation, or in short **backprop**.
- In this algorithm, derivatives of the loss function are propagated backward through the network to compute the gradient of objective with respect to the weight parameters in the earlier layers.



Backprop takes advantage of chain rule of calculus to efficiently compute derivatives of a function.



- ❖ In calculus, chain rule is used to compute derivative of a function f, which is composed of other functions and variables with known derivatives.
- Let

$$z = f(y)$$
 and  $y = g(x)$ 

where  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  are two functions.



- In calculus, chain rule is used to compute derivative of a function f, which is composed of other functions and variables with known derivatives.
- Let

$$z = f(y)$$
 and  $y = g(x)$ 

where  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  are two functions.

 $\diamond$  We can use chain rule to compute the derivative of z with respect to x.

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy}\frac{dy}{dx}$$



- In calculus, chain rule is used to compute derivative of a function f, which is composed of other functions and variables with known derivatives.
- Let

$$z = f(y)$$
 and  $y = g(x)$ 

where  $f: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $g: \mathbb{R} \to \mathbb{R}$  are two functions.

 $\diamond$  We can use chain rule to compute the derivative of z with respect to x.

$$\frac{dz}{dx} = \frac{dz}{dy}\frac{dy}{dx}$$

This can be extended to multivariate functions.



Let

$$z = f(y)$$
 and  $y = g(x)$ 

where  $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  are two multivariate functions.



Let

$$z = f(y)$$
 and  $y = g(x)$ 

where  $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  are two multivariate functions.

We can use chain rule to compute the derivatives

$$\frac{dz}{dx_i} = \sum_{j} \frac{dz}{dy_j} \frac{dy_j}{dx_i}$$



Let

$$z = f(y)$$
 and  $y = g(x)$ 

where  $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  are two multivariate functions.

We can use chain rule to compute the derivatives

$$\frac{dz}{dx_i} = \sum_{j} \frac{dz}{dy_j} \frac{dy_j}{dx_i}$$

In vector notation

$$abla_{oldsymbol{x}}z = \left(rac{\partial oldsymbol{y}}{\partial oldsymbol{x}}
ight)^T 
abla_{oldsymbol{y}}z$$



Let

$$z = f(y)$$
 and  $y = g(x)$ 

where  $f: \mathbb{R}^m \to \mathbb{R}$  and  $g: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}^m$  are two multivariate functions.

We can use chain rule to compute the derivatives

$$\frac{dz}{dx_i} = \sum_{j} \frac{dz}{dy_j} \frac{dy_j}{dx_i}$$

In vector notation

$$abla_{m{x}}z = \left(rac{\partial m{y}}{\partial m{x}}
ight)^T 
abla_{m{y}}z$$
Jacobian Gradient



- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.

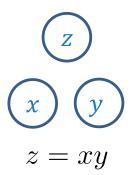


- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.

$$z = xy$$

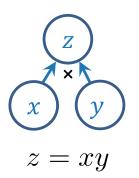


- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.



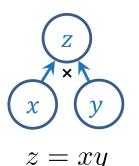


- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.





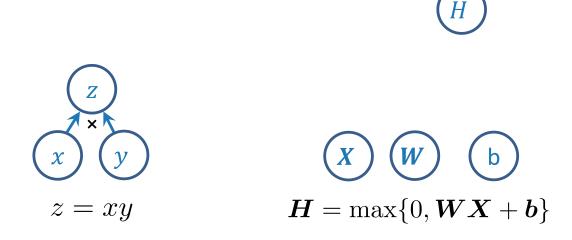
- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.



$$\boldsymbol{H} = \max\{0, \boldsymbol{W}\boldsymbol{X} + \boldsymbol{b}\}$$

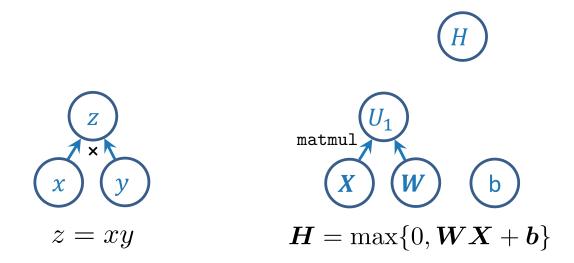


- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.



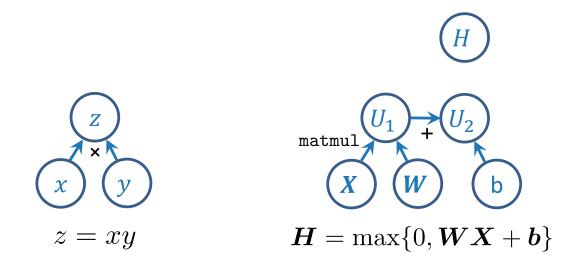


- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.



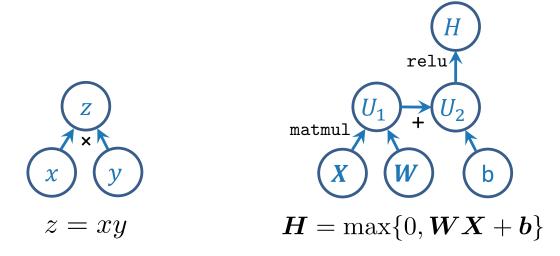


- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.



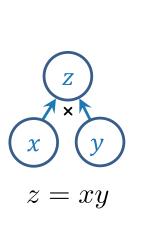


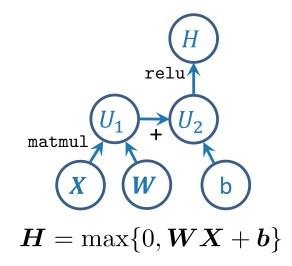
- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.





- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.

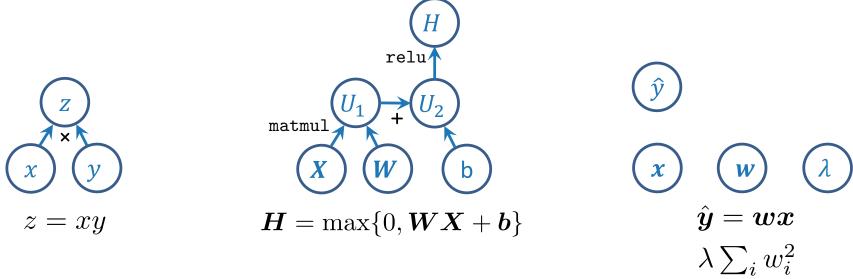




$$\hat{m{y}} = m{w}m{x}$$
 $\lambda \sum_i w_i^2$ 

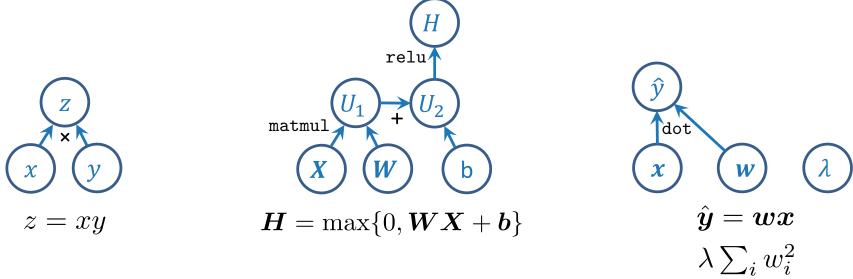


- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.



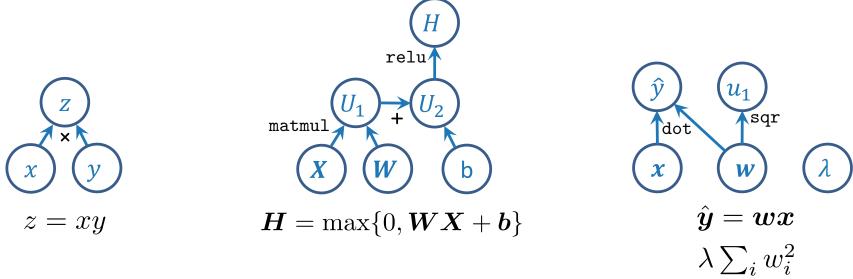


- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.



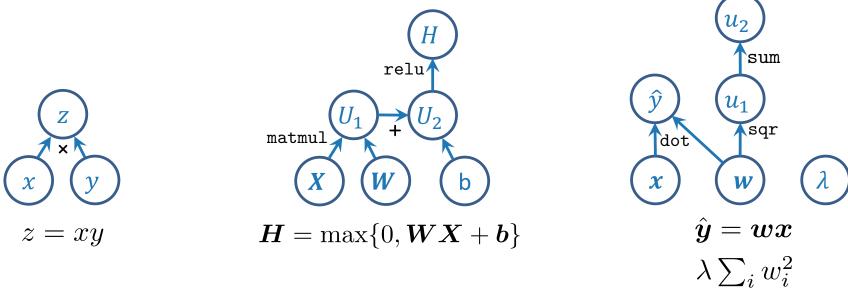


- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.



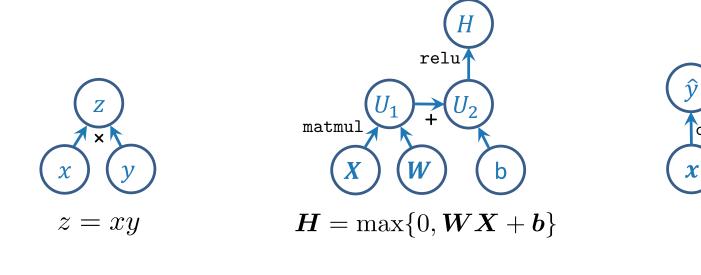


- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.





- Backprop can best be demonstrated using computational graph.
- We can use graphs to describe computations and operations
- An operation is a function that takes one or more variables as input and returns a single output.





sum

sqr

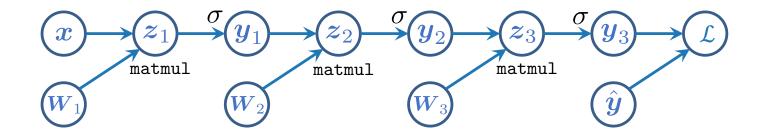
 $\hat{y} = wx$ 

 $\lambda \sum_i w_i^2$ 

Let's define a feedforward network using

$$\mathbf{y}_{\ell} = \sigma(\mathbf{z}_{\ell})$$
  $\mathbf{z}_{\ell} = \mathbf{w}_{\ell-1,\ell} \mathbf{y}_{\ell-1}$ 

We can represent the computational graph of the network as



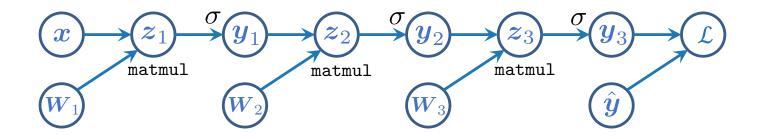
$$rac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}_2} =$$



Let's define a feedforward network using

$$\mathbf{y}_{\ell} = \sigma(\mathbf{z}_{\ell})$$
 $\mathbf{z}_{\ell} = \mathbf{w}_{\ell-1,\ell} \mathbf{y}_{\ell-1}$ 

We can represent the computational graph of the network as



$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{w}_2} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{y}_3} \frac{\partial \mathbf{y}_3}{\partial \mathbf{z}_3} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}_3}{\partial \mathbf{y}_2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}_2}{\partial \mathbf{z}_2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}_2}{\partial \mathbf{w}_2}$$



- To analyze data that resides on a **grid-like topology**, we use a group of networks named convolutional neural networks.
  - Audio, Images







- To analyze data that resides on a **grid-like topology**, we use a group of networks named convolutional neural networks.
  - Audio, Images



- Convolutional neural networks, include layers that instead of matrix multiplication, use convolution operations on input data.
- The filter used in convolution operations is small, which reduces the number of unknown parameters in the model.



- Using finite length vectors, one can represent convolution on 1D space.
- Let w be a weight vector on domain  $\{0, ..., L-1\}$  and x be a signal on the domain  $\{0, ..., N-1\}$ .
- $\diamond$  Then, the convolution between x and w is defined as

$$[\boldsymbol{w} \circledast \boldsymbol{x}]_i = \sum_{m=0}^{L-1} w_m x_{i+m}$$



- Using finite length vectors, one can represent convolution on 1D space.
- Let w be a weight vector on domain  $\{0, ..., L-1\}$  and x be a signal on the domain  $\{0, ..., N-1\}$ .
- $\diamond$  Then, the convolution between x and w is defined as

$$[\boldsymbol{w} \circledast \boldsymbol{x}]_i = \sum_{m=0}^{L-1} w_m x_{i+m}$$

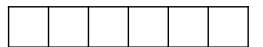












- Using finite length vectors, one can represent convolution on 1D space.
- Let w be a weight vector on domain  $\{0, ..., L-1\}$  and x be a signal on the domain  $\{0, ..., N-1\}$ .
- $\diamond$  Then, the convolution between x and w is defined as

$$[\boldsymbol{w} \circledast \boldsymbol{x}]_i = \sum_{m=0}^{L-1} w_m x_{i+m}$$

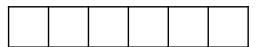














- Using finite length vectors, one can represent convolution on 1D space.
- Let w be a weight vector on domain  $\{0, ..., L-1\}$  and x be a signal on the domain  $\{0, ..., N-1\}$ .
- $\diamond$  Then, the convolution between x and w is defined as

$$[\boldsymbol{w} \circledast \boldsymbol{x}]_i = \sum_{m=0}^{L-1} w_m x_{i+m}$$













- Using finite length vectors, one can represent convolution on 1D space.
- Let w be a weight vector on domain  $\{0, ..., L-1\}$  and x be a signal on the domain  $\{0, ..., N-1\}$ .
- $\diamond$  Then, the convolution between x and w is defined as

$$[\boldsymbol{w} \circledast \boldsymbol{x}]_i = \sum_{m=0}^{L-1} w_m x_{i+m}$$













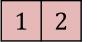
- Using finite length vectors, one can represent convolution on 1D space.
- Let w be a weight vector on domain  $\{0, ..., L-1\}$  and x be a signal on the domain  $\{0, ..., N-1\}$ .
- $\diamond$  Then, the convolution between x and w is defined as

$$[\boldsymbol{w} \circledast \boldsymbol{x}]_i = \sum_{m=0}^{L-1} w_m x_{i+m}$$















- Similar to the 1D case, convolutions can be applied on 2D signals.
- $\clubsuit$  Let W be a 2D filter with size  $M \times N$  and X be a signal on the 2D domain.
- Then, the

$$[\mathbf{W} \circledast \mathbf{X}]_{ij} = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W_{mn} X_{i+m,j+n}$$



- Similar to the 1D case, convolutions can be applied on 2D signals.
- Let W be a 2D filter with size  $M \times N$  and X be a signal on the 2D domain.
- Then, the

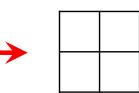
$$[\mathbf{W} \circledast \mathbf{X}]_{ij} = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W_{mn} X_{i+m,j+n}$$



0	1	2
3	4	5
6	7	8



0	1	
2	3	





- Similar to the 1D case, convolutions can be applied on 2D signals.
- Let W be a 2D filter with size  $M \times N$  and X be a signal on the 2D domain.
- Then, the

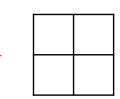
$$[\mathbf{W} \circledast \mathbf{X}]_{ij} = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W_{mn} X_{i+m,j+n}$$



0	1	2
3	4	5
6	7	8



0	1	
2	3	





- Similar to the 1D case, convolutions can be applied on 2D signals.
- $\clubsuit$  Let W be a 2D filter with size  $M \times N$  and X be a signal on the 2D domain.
- Then, the

$$[\mathbf{W} \circledast \mathbf{X}]_{ij} = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W_{mn} X_{i+m,j+n}$$



0	1	2				•	
0				0	1		1
3	4	5	(*)				
5	1			2	3		
6	7	Ω			3		
U	/	0					



- Similar to the 1D case, convolutions can be applied on 2D signals.
- $\clubsuit$  Let W be a 2D filter with size  $M \times N$  and X be a signal on the 2D domain.
- Then, the

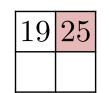
$$[\mathbf{W} \circledast \mathbf{X}]_{ij} = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W_{mn} X_{i+m,j+n}$$



0	1	2	
3	4	5	(>
6	7	8	



0	1	
2	3	





- Similar to the 1D case, convolutions can be applied on 2D signals.
- $\clubsuit$  Let W be a 2D filter with size  $M \times N$  and X be a signal on the 2D domain.
- Then, the

$$[\mathbf{W} \circledast \mathbf{X}]_{ij} = \sum_{m=0}^{M-1} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} W_{mn} X_{i+m,j+n}$$



$\bigcap$	1	2						
lacksquare	1			$\cap$	1		10	25
3	1.	5	$\bigcirc$	U	1		19	20
<u> </u>	<b>T</b>	Э		2	2		27	13
6	7	Q			3		<u> </u>	40
0	/	0				-		



- An output activation function determines the form of the model's output.
- An output activation takes features extracted by the hidden layers and transforms it to the desired output form.
- The choice of the cost function is closely related to the choice of the output layer.
- In the regression problems, the output layer only includes a linear transformation with no non-linearity.



- A 2 class classification problem requires predicting a binary variable.
- In the maximum likelihood approach, we define a **Bernoulli** distribution over variable y conditioned on x.
- We only need to define p(y = 1|x).



- A 2 class classification problem requires predicting a binary variable.
- In the maximum likelihood approach, we define a **Bernoulli** distribution over variable y conditioned on x.
- We only need to define p(y = 1|x).
- Consider using

$$\max\{0, \min\{1, w^T h + b\}\}\$$



- A 2 class classification problem requires predicting a binary variable.
- In the maximum likelihood approach, we define a **Bernoulli** distribution over variable y conditioned on x.
- We only need to define p(y = 1|x).
- Consider using

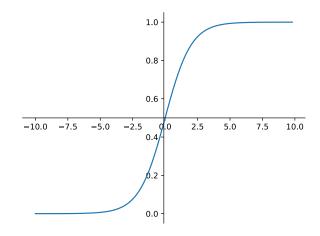
$$\max\{0, \min\{1, w^T h + b\}\}\$$

- ❖ While between 0 and 1, it does have zero gradients outside [0,1].
- This makes it impractical as use with gradient-based optimization methods.



- Another approach is to use sigmoid.
- A sigmoid function is defined as

$$sigmoid(x) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-x)}$$



Given the extracted features from the layer before last

$$\mathbf{z}_L = \mathbf{W}_{L-1,L} \mathbf{y}_{L-1}$$

as input, the sigmoid output unit is defined as

$$\mathbf{y}_L = \operatorname{sigmoid}(\mathbf{W}_{L-1,L}\mathbf{y}_{L-1})$$



- When computing the probability districtution on a discrete variable y with n possible values, we can use softmax function.
- A softmax function takes a vector of real values as input and returns a vector of probability values,

softmax(
$$\boldsymbol{x}$$
) := 
$$\left[\frac{\exp(x_1)}{\sum_{c=1}^{C} \exp(x_c)}, \dots, \frac{\exp(x_C)}{\sum_{c=1}^{C} \exp(x_c)}\right]$$

where softmax:  $\mathbb{R}^C \to [0, 1]^C$  with C total number of possible outcomes.

Given the extracted features from the layer before last

$$\mathbf{z}_L = \mathbf{W}_{L-1,L} \mathbf{y}_{L-1}$$

as input, the sigmoid output unit is defined as

$$\mathbf{y}_L = \operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{W}_{L-1,L}\mathbf{y}_{L-1})$$



### **Summary**

- Shallow embedding
- Neural Networks
- Training
- Optimization
- Stochastic Gradient Descent
- Backprop
- Chain rule of calculus
- Computational graph
- Convolutional networks
- Output unit

