### Lecture 4:

### Feed–Forward Neural Networks

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BIS4435

Biological neurons and the brain

A Model of A Single Neuron

Neurons as data-driven models

Neural Networks

Training algorithms

Applications

Benefits, limitations and applications

### HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

- 1943 McCulloch and Pitts proposed the first computational model of a neuron
- 1949 Hebb proposed the first learning rule
- 1958 Rosenblatt's work on perceptrons
- 1969 Minsky and Papert's paper exposed limitations of the theory
- 1970s Decade of dormancy for neural networks
- 1980–90s Neural network return (self–organisation, back–propagation algorithms, etc)



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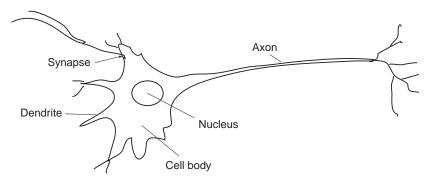
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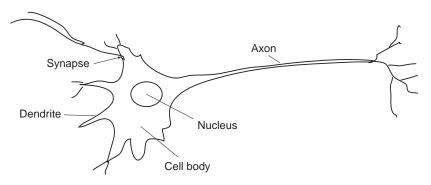
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- Some scientists compared the brain with a 'complex, nonlinear, parallel computer'.
- The largest modern neural networks achieve the complexity comparable to a nervous system of a fly.

# NEURONS



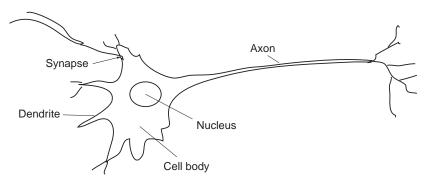
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- The information in transmitted in a form of electro-chemical signals (pulses).
- When a neuron sends the information we say that a neuron 'fires'.

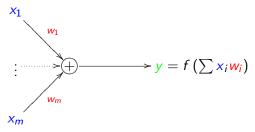
### EXCITATION AND INHIBITION

- The receptors of a neuron are called **synapses**, and they are located on many branches, called **dendrites**.
- There are many types of synapses, but roughly they can be divided into two classes:

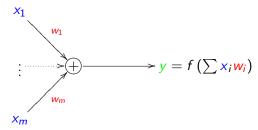
Excitatory a signal received at this synapse 'encourages' the neuron to fire Inhibitory a signal received at this synapse inhibits the neuron (as if asking to 'shut up')

- The neuron analyses all the signals received at its synapses. If most of them are 'encouraging', then the neuron gets 'excited' and fires its own message along a single wire, called **axon**.
- The axon may have branches to reach many other neurons.

McCulloch and Pitts (1943) proposed the 'integrate and fire' model:

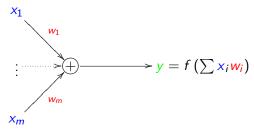


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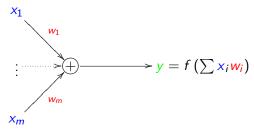
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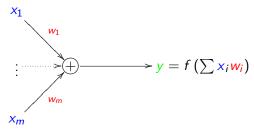
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- The input values are multiplied by their weights and summed

$$\mathbf{v} = \mathbf{w}_1 \mathbf{x}_1 + \mathbf{w}_2 \mathbf{x}_2 + \dots + \mathbf{w}_m \mathbf{x}_m = \sum_{i=1}^m \mathbf{w}_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

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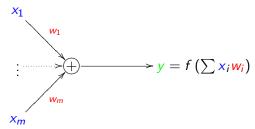


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• The output is some function y = f(v) of the weighted sum

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Example Let x = (0, 1, 1) and w = (1, -2, 4). Then  $v = 1 \cdot 0 - 2 \cdot 1 + 4 \cdot 1 = 2$ 

• The output of a neuron (y) is a function of the weighted sum

$$y = f(v)$$

- This function is often called the activation function.
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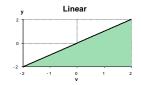
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Linear function:

$$f(v) = a + v = a + \sum w_i x_i$$

where parameter a is called **bias**. Noice that in this case, a neuron becomes a linear model with bias abeing the *intercept* and the weights,  $w_1, \ldots, w_m$ , being the *slopes*.



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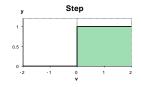
Heviside **step** function:

$$f(v) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } v \ge a \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Here *a* is called the **threshold** 

#### Example

If 
$$a = 0$$
 and  $v = 2 > 0$ , then  $f(2) = 1$ , the neuron fires



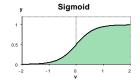
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Sigmoid function:

$$f(v) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-v}}$$



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- If we use only linear activation functions, then a neuron is just a linear model with weights corresponding to slopes (i.e. related to correlations)

$$f(x_1,\ldots,x_m) = \mathbf{a} + \mathbf{w}_1 x_1 + \cdots + \mathbf{w}_m x_m$$

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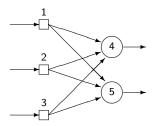
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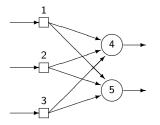
- Networks of many neurons can be seen as sets of multiple and competing models.
- Neural networks can be used to model non-linear relations in data.

A collection of neurons connected together in a network can be represented by a directed graph:

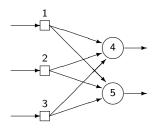


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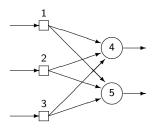


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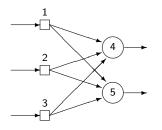
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- Nodes represent the neurons, and arrows represent the links between them.
- Each node has its number, and a link connecting two nodes will have a pair of numbers (e.g. (1,4) connecting nodes 1 and 4).
- Networks without cycles (feedback loops) are called a feed-forward networks (or perceptron).

## INPUT AND OUTPUT NODES

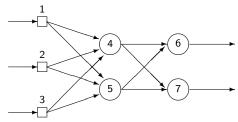


Input nodes of the network (nodes 1, 2 and 3) are associated with the input variables  $(x_1, \ldots, x_m)$ . They do not compute anything, but simply pass the values to the processing nodes.

Output nodes (4 and 5) are associated with the output variables  $(y_1, \dots, y_n)$ .

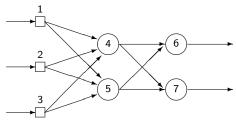
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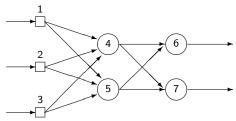
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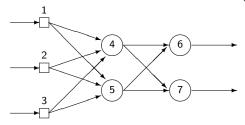
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- Neural networks can have several hidden layers.

#### NUMBERING THE WEIGHTS

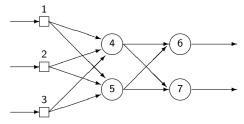
• Each *j*th node in a network has a set of weights *w*<sub>*ij*</sub>.



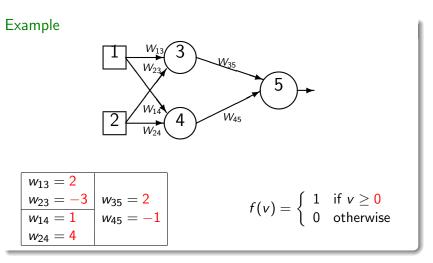
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- For example, node 4 has weights  $w_{14}$ ,  $w_{24}$  and  $w_{34}$ .
- A network is completely defined if we know its **topology** (its graph), the set of all weights  $w_{ij}$  and the activation functions, f, of all the nodes.



What is the network output, if the inputs are  $x_1 = 1$  and  $x_2 = 0$ ?

Calculate weighted sums in the first hidden layer:

$$v_3 = w_{13}x_1 + w_{23}x_2 = 2 \cdot 1 - 3 \cdot 0 = 2$$
  
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• The output is  $y_5 = f(1) = 1$ 

#### TRAINING NEURAL NETWORKS

• Let us invert the previous problem:

- Suppose that the inputs to the network are  $x_1 = 1$  and  $x_2 = 0$ , and f is a step function.
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- This problem is more difficult, because there are more unknowns (weights) than knowns (input and output). In general, there is an infinite number of solutions.
- The process of finding a set of weights such that for a given input the network produces the desired output is called training.

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- Supervised algorithms use a training set a set of pairs (x, y) of inputs with their corresponding desired outputs.
- We may think of a training set as a set of examples.
- An outline of a supervised learning algorithm:
  - Initially, set all the weights  $w_{ij}$  to some random values
  - Repeat
    - Feed the network with an input x from one of the examples in the training set
    - **②** Compute the network's output f(x)
    - S Change the weights  $w_{ij}$  of the nodes
  - Intil the error c(y, f(x)) is small

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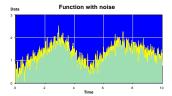
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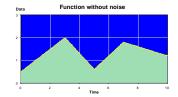
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- The knowledge in this case is said to be **distributed** across the network. Large number of nodes not only increases the storage 'capacity' of a network, but also ensures that the knowledge is robust.
- By changing the weights in the network we may store new information.

#### GENERALISATION

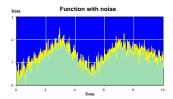
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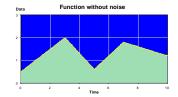




#### GENERALISATION

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- Generalisation is particularly useful for classification of noisy data, the 'what-if' analysis and prediction (e.g. time-series forecast)





## APPLICATION OF ANN

Include:

- Function approximation (modelling)
- Pattern classification (analysis of time-series, customer databases, etc).
- Object recognition (e.g. character recognition)
- Data compression
- Security (credit card fraud)

#### PATTERN CLASSIFICATION

 In some literature, the set of all input values is called the input pattern, and the set of output values the output pattern

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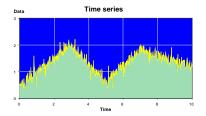
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- Thus, a neural network performs pattern **classification** or pattern **recognition** (i.e. classifies inputs into output categories).

#### TIME SERIES ANALYSIS

A time series is a recording of some variable (e.g. a share price, temperature) at different time moments:

$$\mathbf{x}(t_1), \mathbf{x}(t_2), \ldots, \mathbf{x}(t_m)$$



The aim of the analysis is to learn to predict the future values.

# TIME SERIES (CONT.)

• We may use a neural network to analyse time series:

Input: consider *m* values in the past  $x(t_1), x(t_2), \dots, x(t_m)$  as *m* input variables. Output: consider *n* future values  $y(t_{m+1}), y(t_{m+2}), \dots, y(t_{m+n})$  as *n* output

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• By training a neural network with *m* inputs and *n* outputs on the time series data, we can create such a model.

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- Always gives some answer even when the input information is not complete.
- Networks are easy to maintain.

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- Neural networks do not provide explanations. If there are many nodes, then there are too many weights that are difficult to interprete (unlike the slopes in linear models, which can be seen as correlations). In some tasks, explanations are crucial (e.g. air traffic control, medical diagnosis).