

Introduction to Machine Learning

Session 4

About me



Prakhar Ganesh (he/him)

PhD candidate in Computer Science
at McGill University / Mila

Research in Responsible AI:
Fairness and Privacy in AI; Model Multiplicity

- Introduction to ML (session 4)
- Natural Language Processing (x2)
- Data Privacy

Before we start ...

Ask questions anytime!

Contact Prakhar: prakhar.ganesh@mila.quebec

Before we start ...

Bootcamp Week 2 Pulse Check - How's everyone doing?

Before we start ...

Bootcamp Week 2 Pulse Check - How's everyone doing?

Any questions from the last 3 “intro to ML” sessions you want to clarify before moving on?

Before we start ...

Bootcamp Week 2 Pulse Check - How's everyone doing?

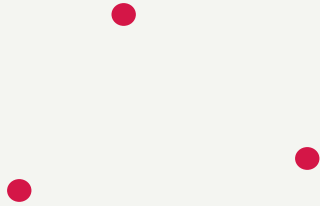
Any questions from the last 3 “intro to ML” sessions you want to clarify before moving on?

We'll also do a recap on the go!

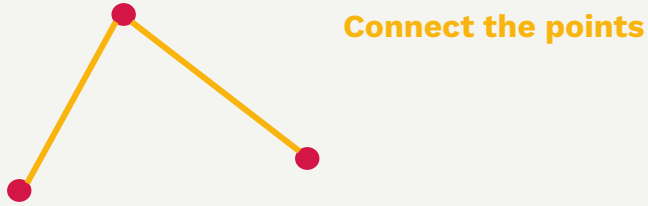
Goals today...

- Understand the importance of iterative learning.
- Derivatives
- Gradient Descent
- Why nonlinear models?
- Bringing it all together: We'll follow the training of a neural network from start to end!

Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



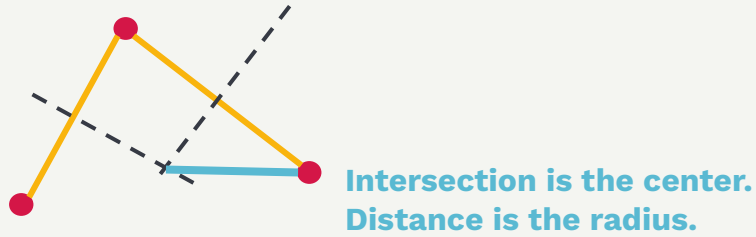
Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



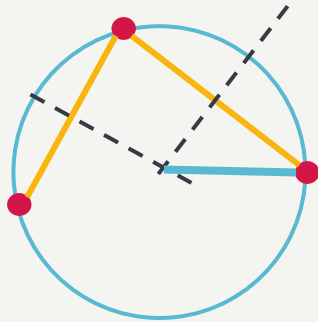
Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



Example: Draw a circle through 3 points

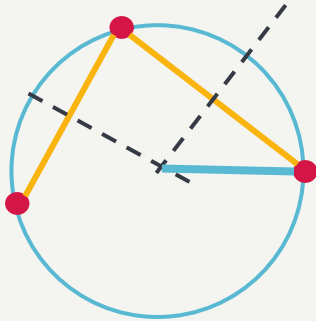


Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



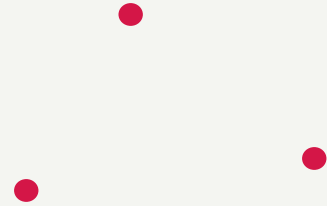
We got the circle.
Perfect!

Example: Draw a circle through 3 points

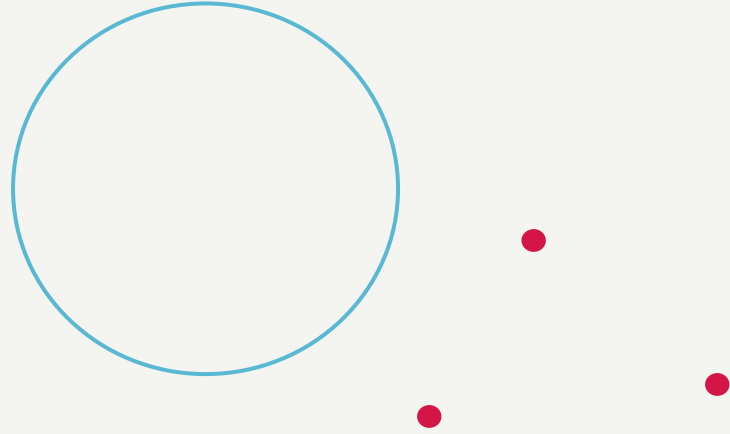


Closed-form solution

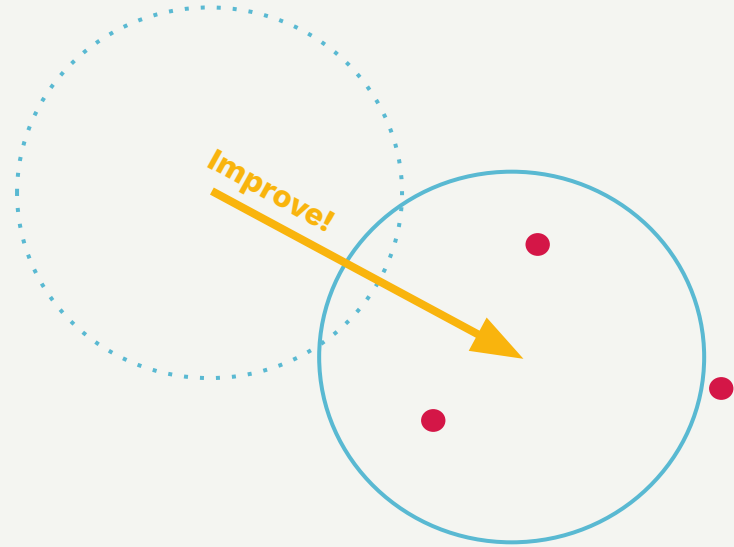
Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



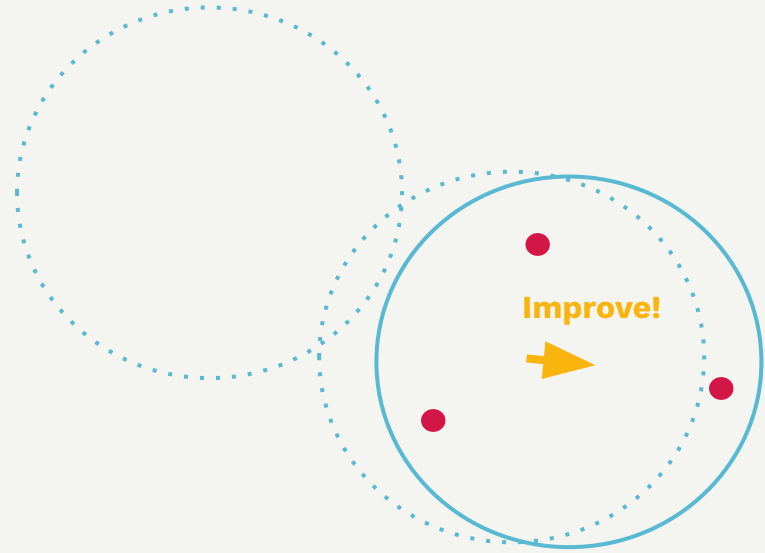
Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



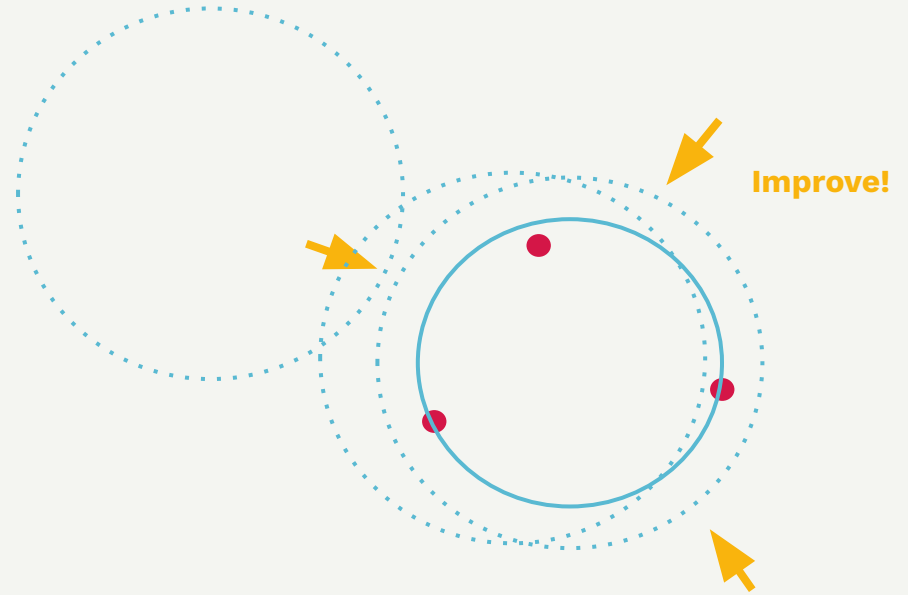
Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



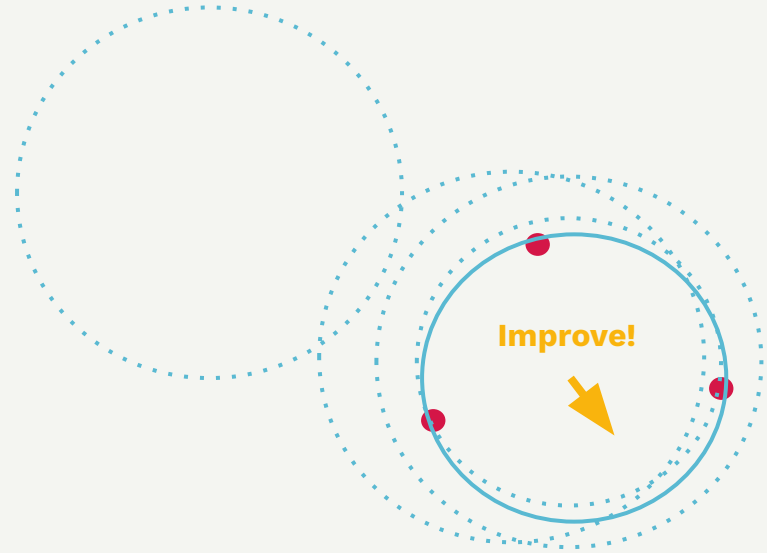
Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



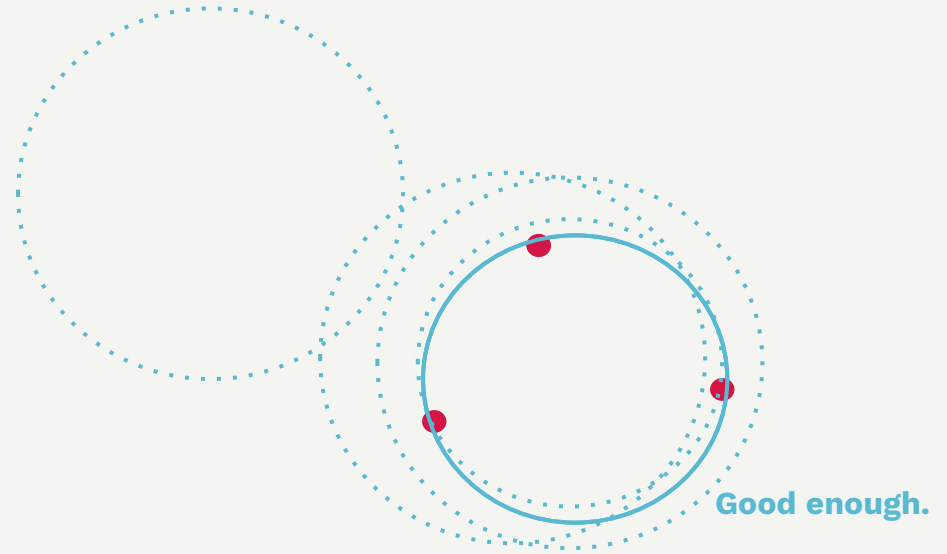
Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



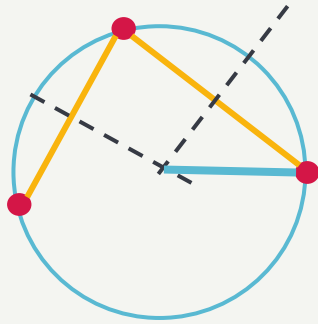
Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



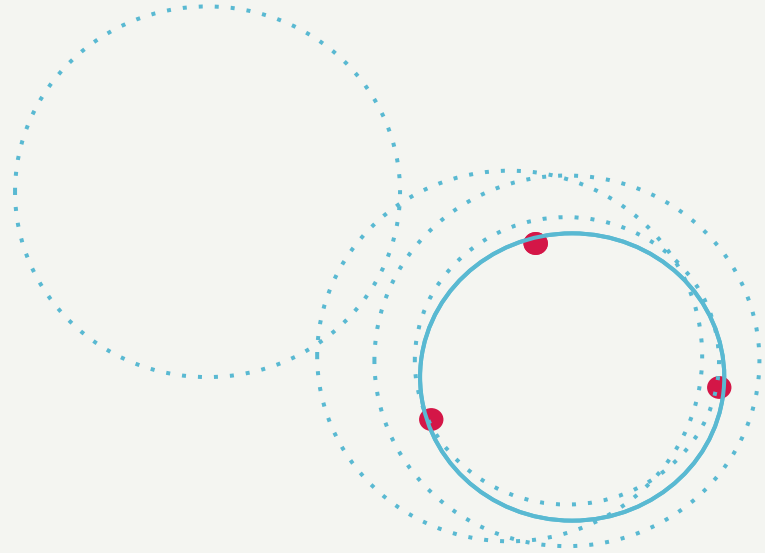
Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



Example: Draw a circle through 3 points

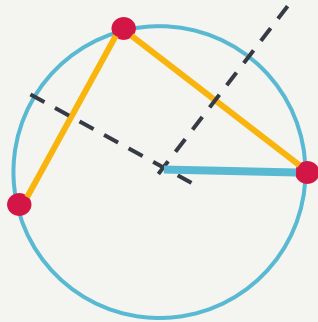


Closed-form solution



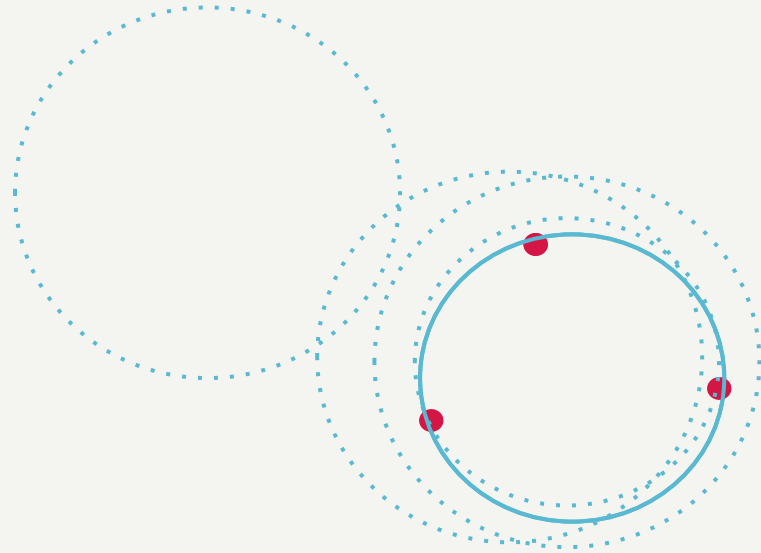
Iterative learning

Example: Draw a circle through 3 points



Closed-form solution

- Gives you the exact solution.
- Can be quick (only once a method has been defined!)
- Can be too complex to solve!



Iterative learning

- Can only give you a good enough solution.
- Can be time consuming.
- (Almost) always works!

Example: Linear Regression

Recall Linear Regression

→ regression problem

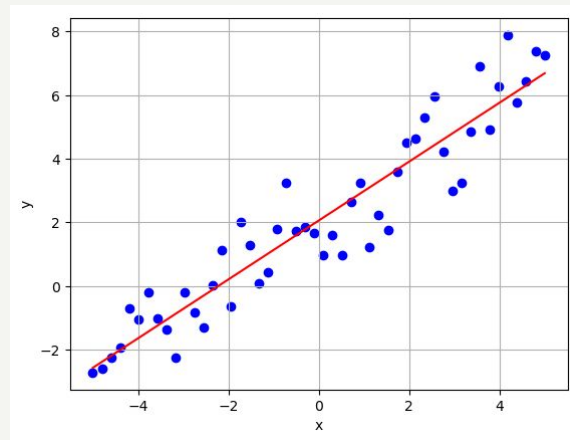
→ input: feature vector $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$

→ target: scalar $y \in \mathbb{R}$

Linear regression implies that its output is a linear function of the input.

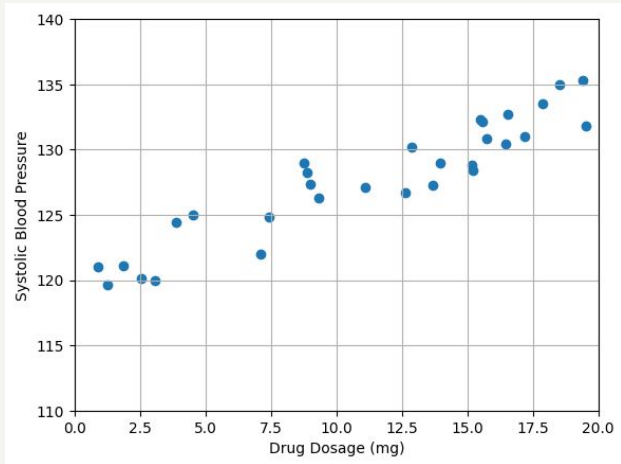
$$\hat{y} = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \dots + w_nx_n = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b$$

$\mathbf{w} = (w_1, w_2, \dots, w_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is a vector of **parameters**.
and b is also a parameter.



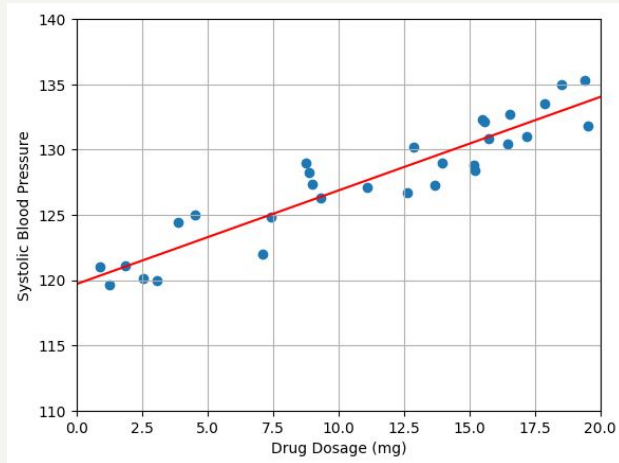
Example: Linear Regression

$$\text{Blood pressure} = w * \text{Dosage} + b$$



Example: Linear Regression

Blood pressure = $w \cdot \text{Dosage} + b$



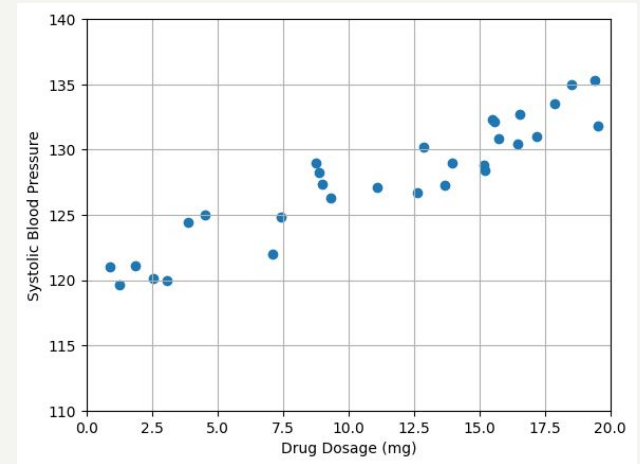
Closed-form solution

$$w = \frac{n \sum (x_i y_i) - \sum x_i \sum y_i}{n \sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2}$$

$$b = \frac{\sum y_i - w \sum x_i}{n}$$

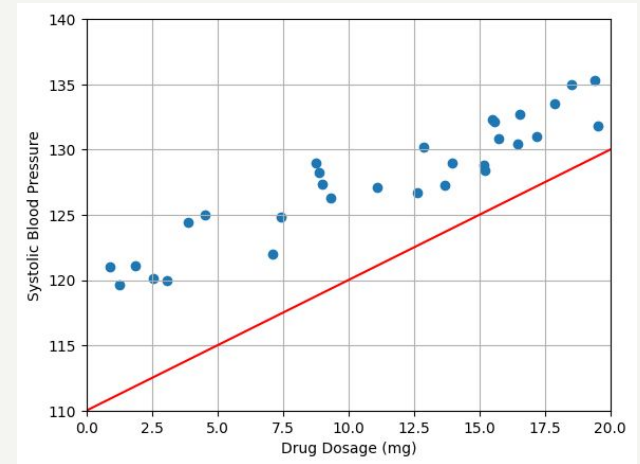
Example: Linear Regression

$$\text{Blood pressure} = w * \text{Dosage} + b$$



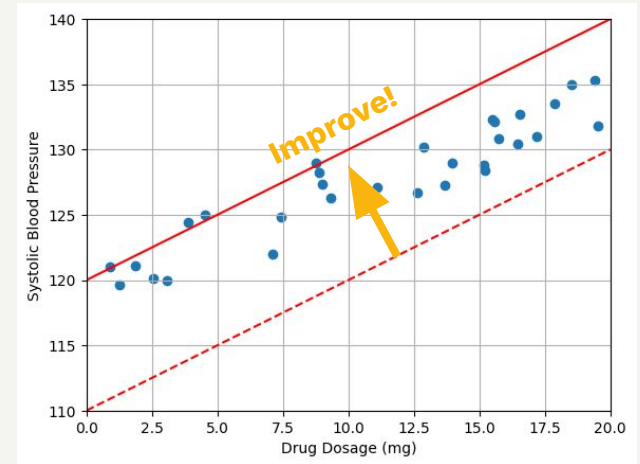
Example: Linear Regression

$$\text{Blood pressure} = w \cdot \text{Dosage} + b$$



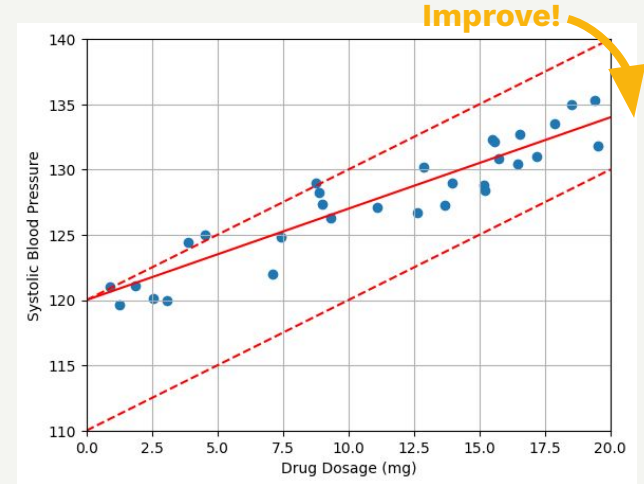
Example: Linear Regression

$$\text{Blood pressure} = w \cdot \text{Dosage} + b$$



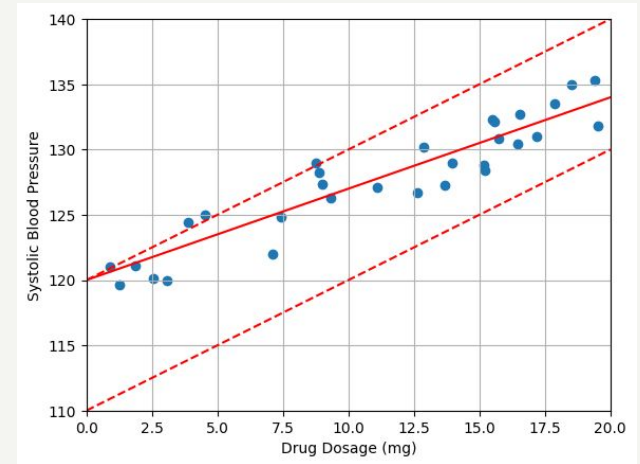
Example: Linear Regression

$$\text{Blood pressure} = w * \text{Dosage} + b$$



Example: Linear Regression

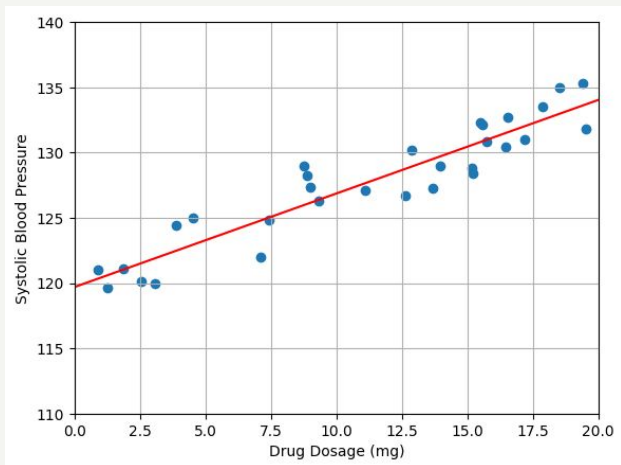
$$\text{Blood pressure} = w * \text{Dosage} + b$$



Good enough.

Example: Linear Regression

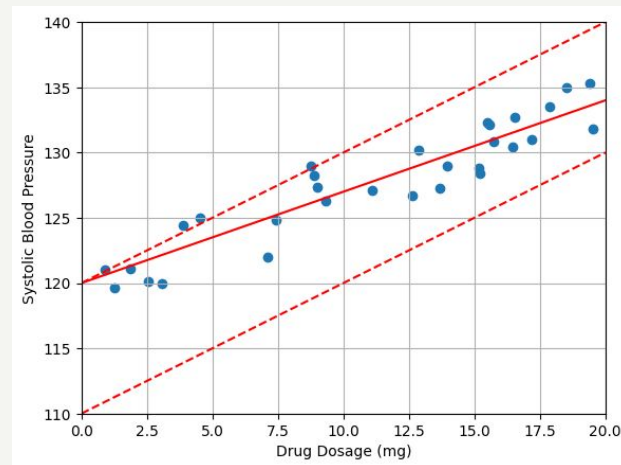
Blood pressure = $w \cdot \text{Dosage} + b$



Closed-form solution

$$w = \frac{n \sum (x_i y_i) - \sum x_i \sum y_i}{n \sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2}$$

$$b = \frac{\sum y_i - w \sum x_i}{n}$$

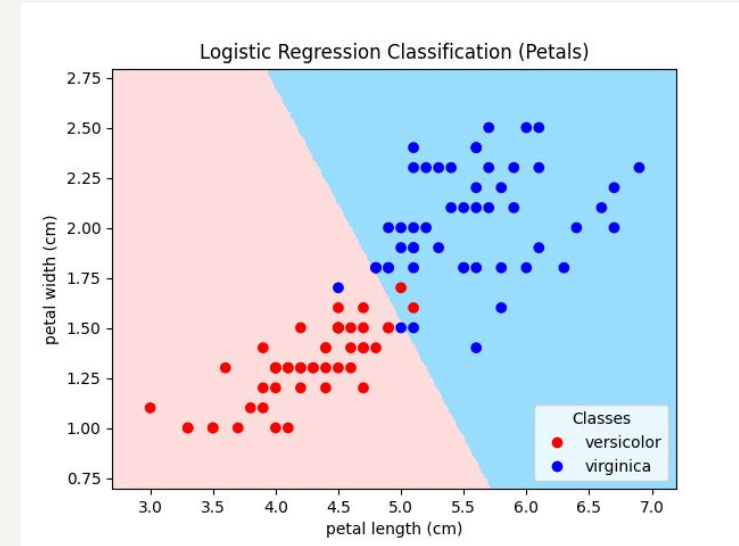
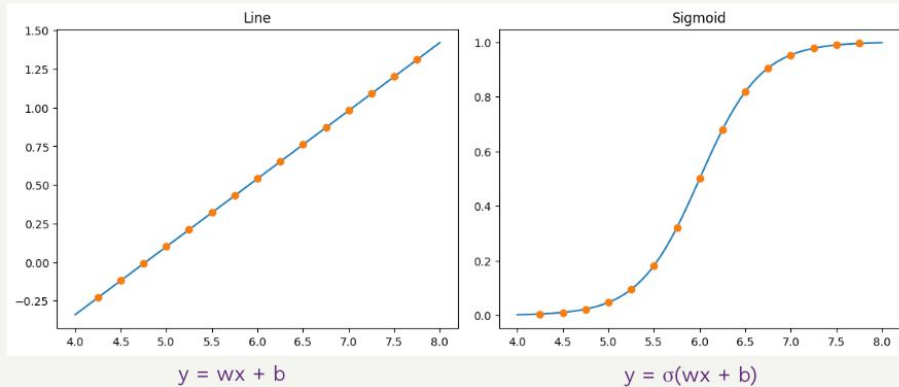


Iterative learning

Example: Logistic Regression

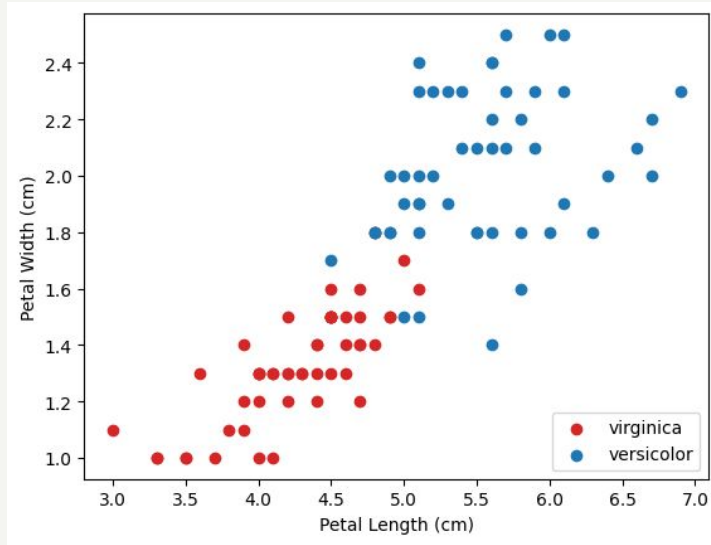
Recall Logistic Regression

$$y = wx + b \qquad y = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(wx+b)}}$$



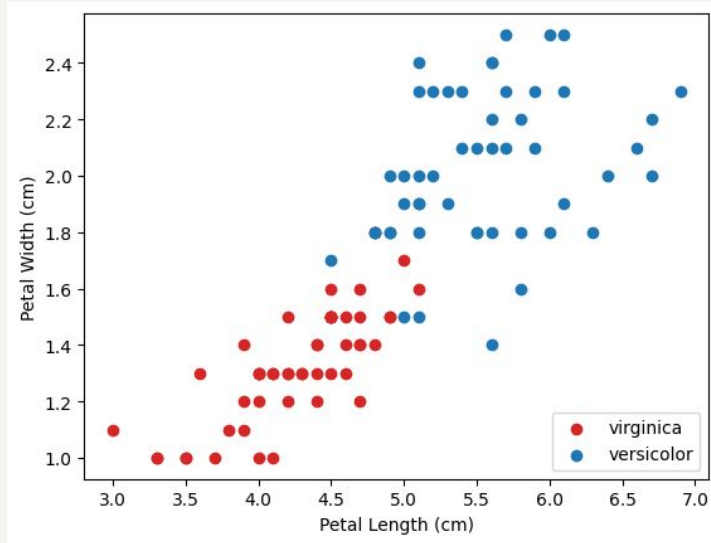
Example: Logistic Regression

Classify iris flowers



Example: Logistic Regression

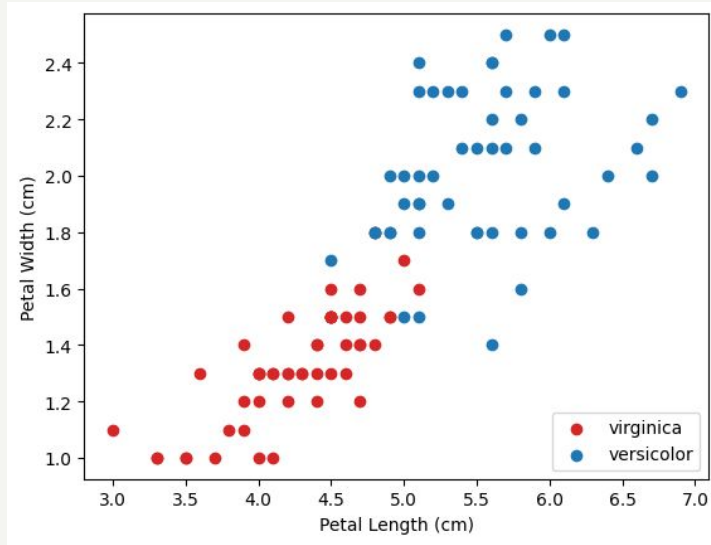
Classify iris flowers



Closed-form solution

Example: Logistic Regression

Classify iris flowers

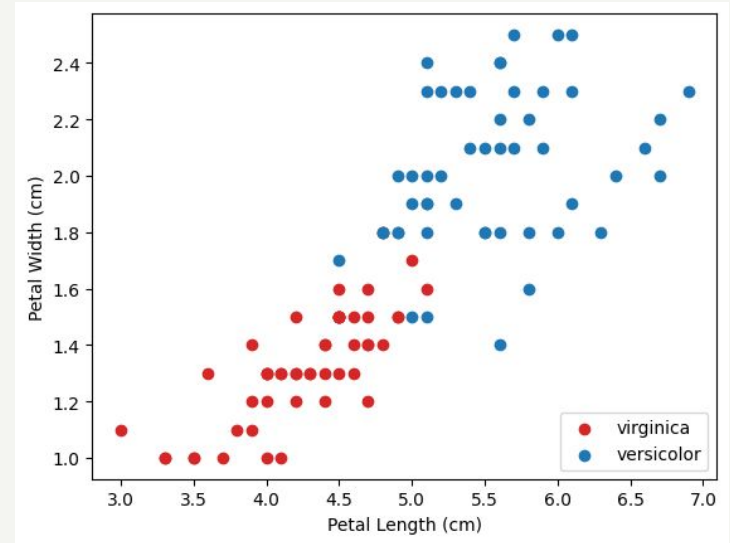


~~Closed form solution~~

Doesn't exist!

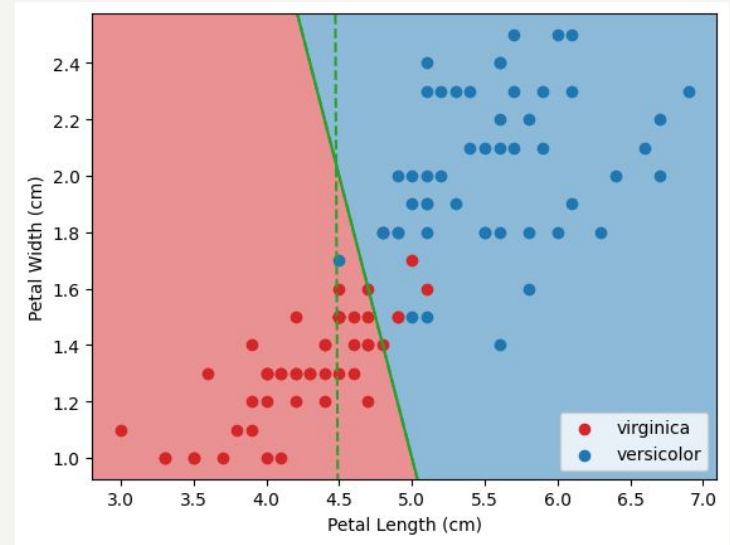
Example: Logistic Regression

Classify iris flowers



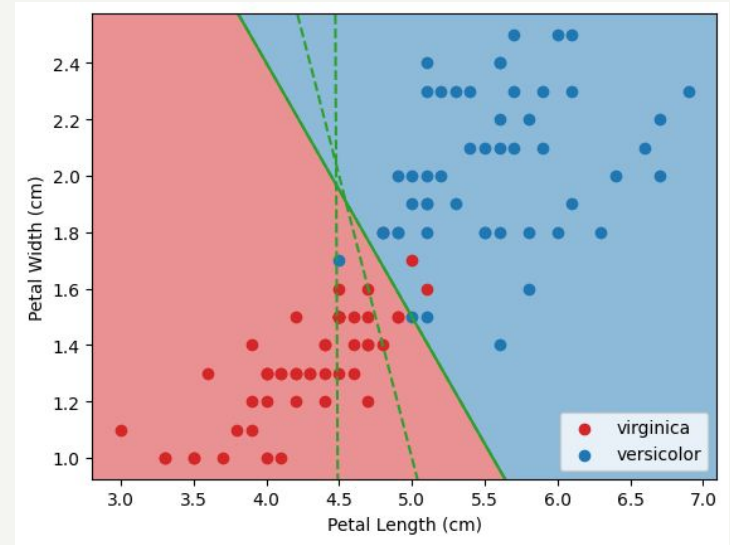
Example: Logistic Regression

Classify iris flowers



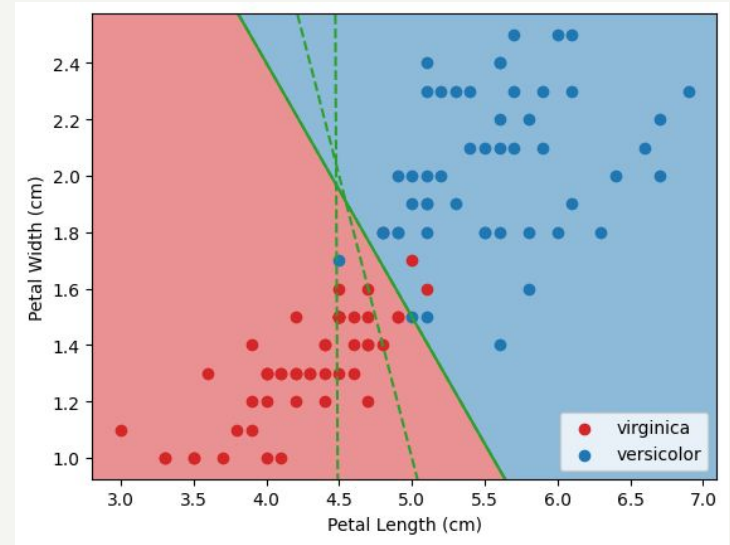
Example: Logistic Regression

Classify iris flowers



Example: Logistic Regression

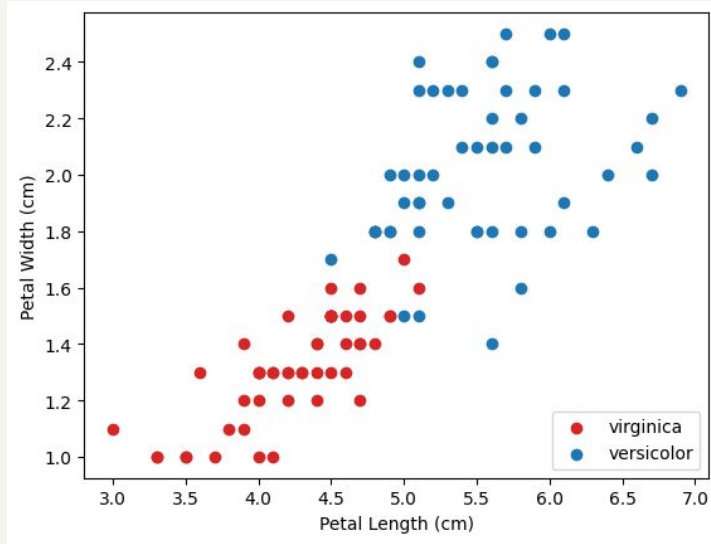
Classify iris flowers



Good enough.

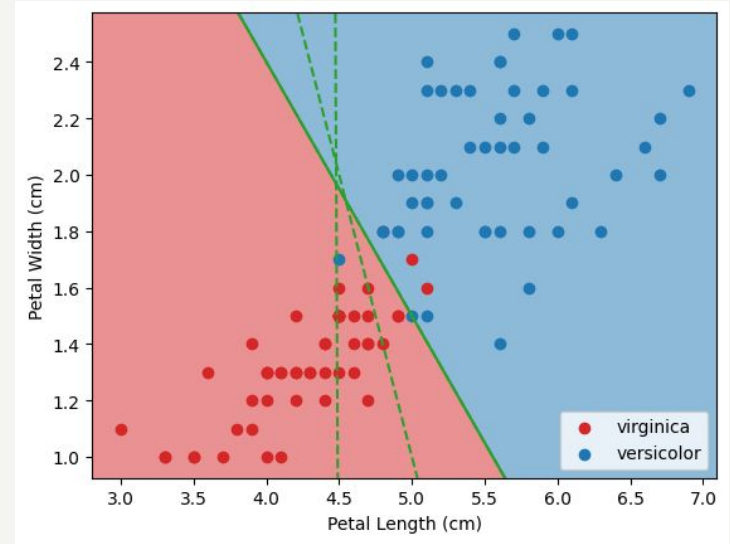
Example: Logistic Regression

Classify iris flowers



~~Closed form solution~~

Doesn't exist!



Iterative learning

Closed-form vs Iterative Learning

Closed-form Solution

- Can provide an exact answer without approximations.
- Once derived, the solution can be computed very quickly, often in constant time.
- **Deriving a closed-form solution can be complex and is not always possible for every problem.**

Iterative Learning

- Only provides good enough answers.
- Each iteration can be expensive, and the total time depends on the number of iterations.
- **Highly flexible and can be applied to a wide range of problems, including those without closed-form solutions.**

Closed-form vs Iterative Learning

Closed-form Solution

- Can provide an exact answer without approximations.
- Once derived, the solution can be computed very quickly, often in constant time.
- **Deriving a closed-form solution can be complex and is not always possible for every problem.**

Iterative Learning

- Only provides good enough answers.
- Each iteration can be expensive, and the total time depends on the number of iterations.
- **Highly flexible and can be applied to a wide range of problems, including those without closed-form solutions.**

*Moving towards a more
'general' form of learning!*

But how do we ‘quantify’ getting better?

Recall Loss Functions

→ During training, we want to measure the discrepancy between the target variables y and the outcome of the hypotheses $h(x)$.

→ **Loss function:** $L(y, h(x))$

A loss function quantifies how poorly $h(x)$ approximates y

→ smaller values of $L(y, h(x))$ are better

→ generally, $L(y, y)=0$ and $L(y, h(x)) > 0$ for all (x,y)

But how do we ‘quantify’ getting better?

Recall Empirical Risk Minimization

The **empirical risk** is the average loss over all observed data points in the dataset.

$$R_N(h) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(y^i, \hat{y}^i) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N L(y^i, h(x^i, \theta))$$

If the empirical risk is small, we say that **the predictor fits the data well** (according to the loss L).

Note: we used θ because that is how you will see the empirical risk written in most textbooks, but it corresponds to our **w**!

But how do we ‘quantify’ getting better?

- Loss functions/Empirical Risk are a measure of how ‘good’ is our solution (Lower is better!)
- To get ‘better’ is to reduce loss.
- How to reduce loss? How to minimize the empirical risk?

Derivatives

How familiar is everyone with derivatives?

Derivatives

Derivative of a function $f(\mathbf{x})$ with respect to \mathbf{x} is - How much would $f(\mathbf{x})$ change (rate of change) if we changed \mathbf{x} by $\Delta\mathbf{x}$ (which is really small)?

Derivatives

Derivative of a function **f(x)** with respect to **x** is - How much would **f(x)** change (rate of change) if we changed **x** by Δx (which is really small)?

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$

Derivatives

Derivative of a function **f(x)** with respect to **x** is - How much would **f(x)** change (rate of change) if we changed **x** by Δx (which is really small)?

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$

Consider **f(x) = x²**

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x + \Delta x)^2 - x^2}{\Delta x}$$

Derivatives

Derivative of a function **f(x)** with respect to **x** is - How much would **f(x)** change (rate of change) if we changed **x** by Δx (which is really small)?

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$

Consider **f(x) = x²**

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x + \Delta x)^2 - x^2}{\Delta x}$$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + (\Delta x)^2 + 2x(\Delta x) - x^2}{\Delta x}$$

Derivatives

Derivative of a function **f(x)** with respect to **x** is - How much would **f(x)** change (rate of change) if we changed **x** by Δx (which is really small)?

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$

Consider **f(x) = x²**

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x + \Delta x)^2 - x^2}{\Delta x}$$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + (\Delta x)^2 + 2x(\Delta x) - x^2}{\Delta x}$$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\Delta x)^2 + 2x(\Delta x)}{\Delta x}$$

Derivatives

Derivative of a function **f(x)** with respect to **x** is - How much would **f(x)** change (rate of change) if we changed **x** by Δx (which is really small)?

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$

Consider **f(x) = x²**

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x + \Delta x)^2 - x^2}{\Delta x}$$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + (\Delta x)^2 + 2x(\Delta x) - x^2}{\Delta x}$$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\Delta x)^2 + 2x(\Delta x)}{\Delta x}$$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \Delta x + 2x$$

Derivatives

Derivative of a function $\mathbf{f(x)}$ with respect to \mathbf{x} is - How much would $\mathbf{f(x)}$ change (rate of change) if we changed \mathbf{x} by $\Delta\mathbf{x}$ (which is really small)?

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(x + \Delta x) - f(x)}{\Delta x}$$

Consider $\mathbf{f(x) = x^2}$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(x + \Delta x)^2 - x^2}{\Delta x}$$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{x^2 + (\Delta x)^2 + 2x(\Delta x) - x^2}{\Delta x}$$

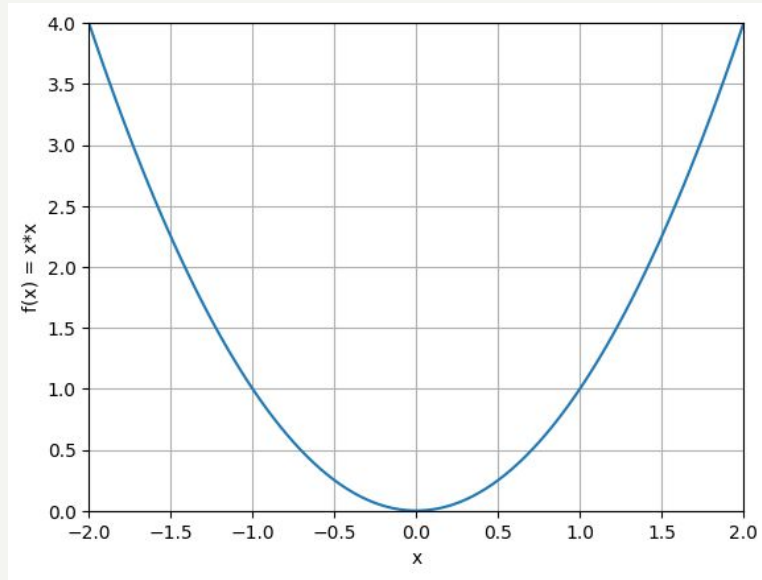
$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{(\Delta x)^2 + 2x(\Delta x)}{\Delta x}$$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = \lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \Delta x + 2x$$

$$\frac{df(x)}{dx} = 2x$$

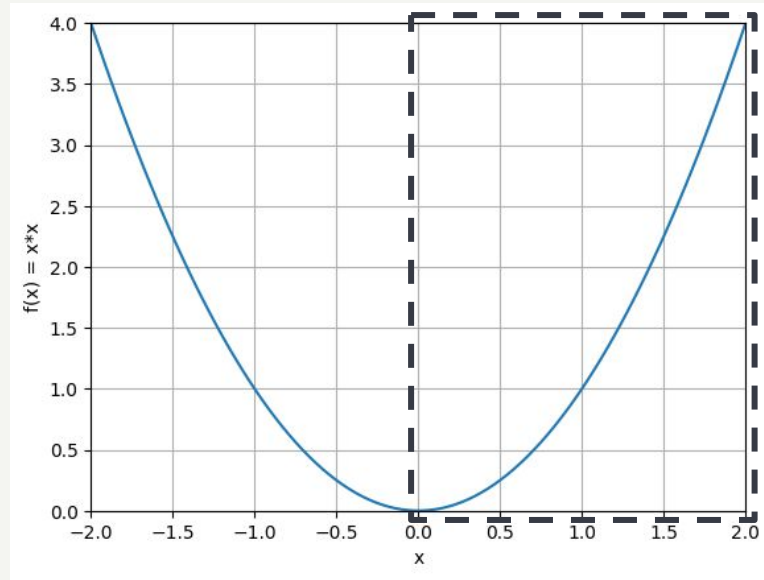
Derivatives

Consider $f(x) = x^2$



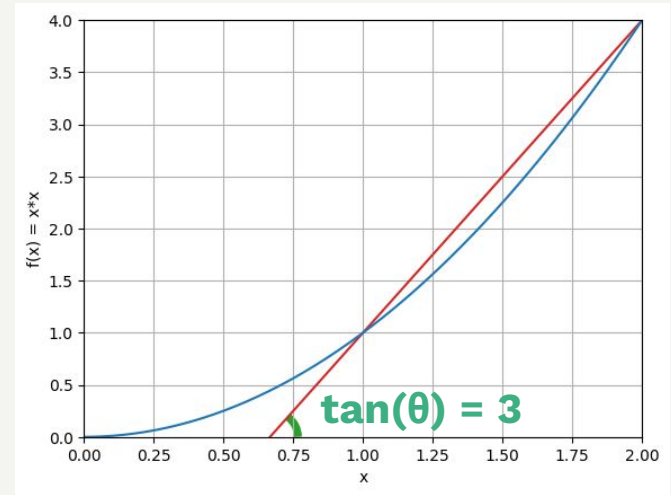
Derivatives

Consider $f(x) = x^2$



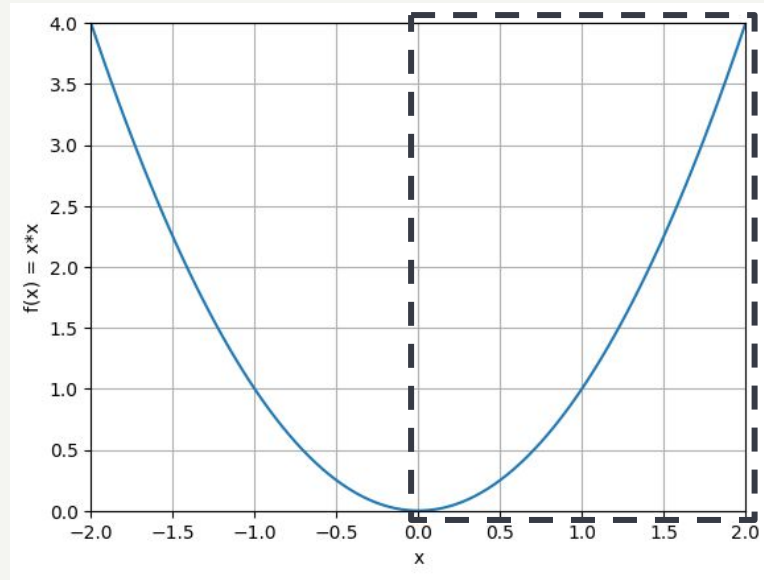
$x = 1$ and $\Delta x = 1$

$$\frac{f(1+1) - f(1)}{1} = 3$$



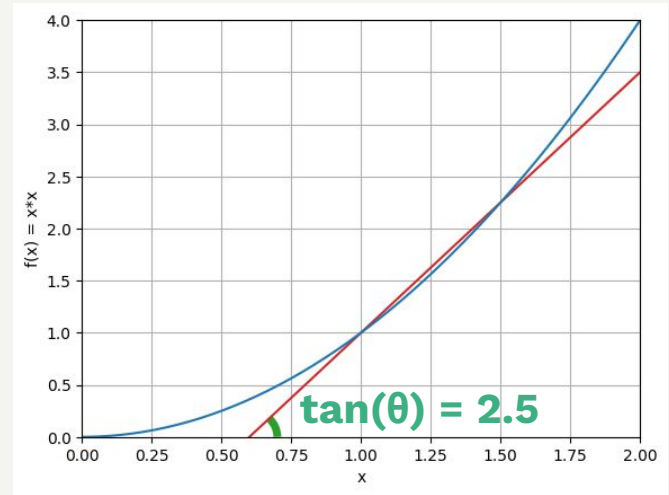
Derivatives

Consider $f(x) = x^2$



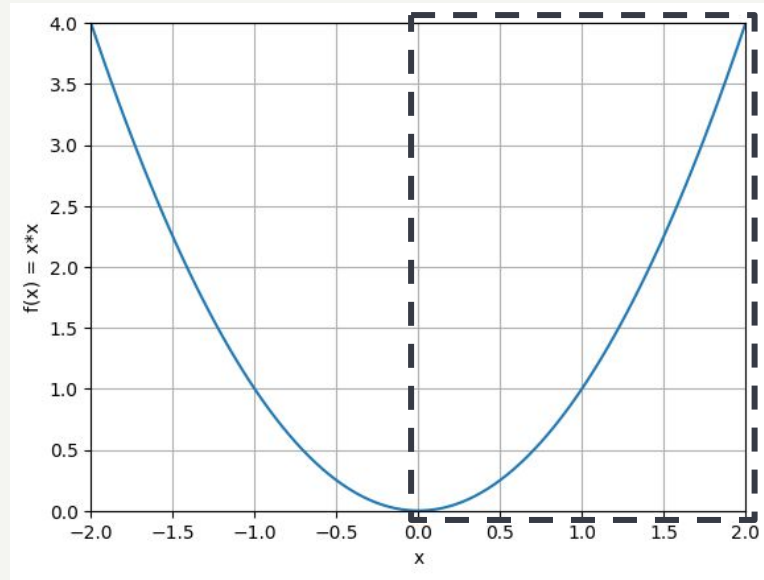
$x = 1$ and $\Delta x = 0.5$

$$\frac{f(1 + 0.5) - f(1)}{0.5} = 2.5$$



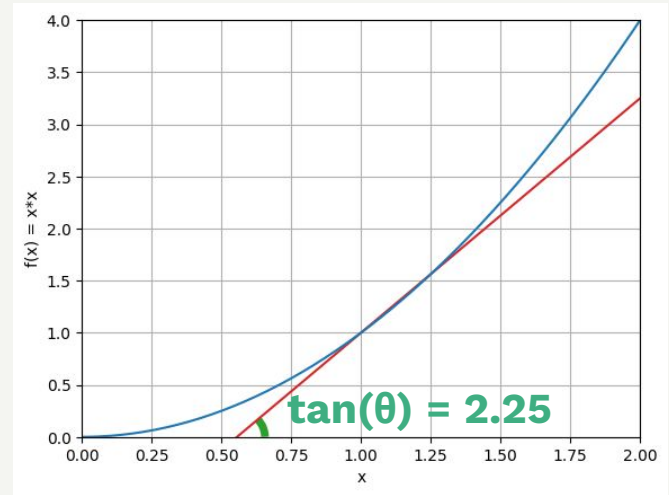
Derivatives

Consider $f(x) = x^2$



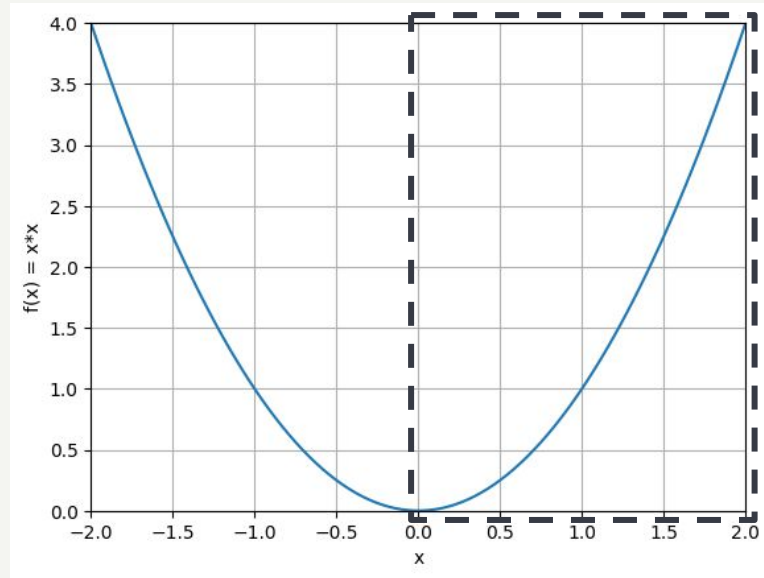
$x = 1$ and $\Delta x = 0.25$

$$\frac{f(1 + 0.25) - f(1)}{0.25} = 2.25$$



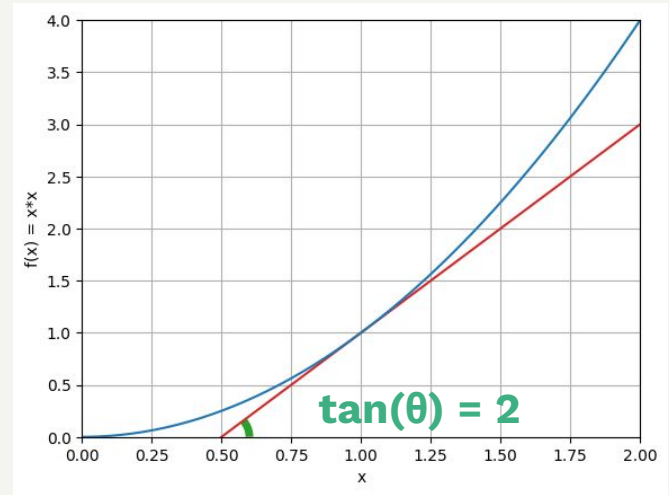
Derivatives

Consider $f(x) = x^2$



$x = 1$ and $\Delta x \rightarrow 0$

$$\lim_{\Delta x \rightarrow 0} \frac{f(1 + \Delta x) - f(1)}{\Delta x} = 2$$



Derivatives

- Derivative of a function at a point is the **rate of change** of a function at that point.
- Derivative of a function at a point is the **slope of the tangent line** at that point.
- Also written as **$f'(x)$**

Break

Derivatives

- Derivative of a function at a point is the **rate of change** of a function at that point.
- Derivative of a function at a point is the **slope of the tangent line** at that point.
- Also written as **$f'(x)$**

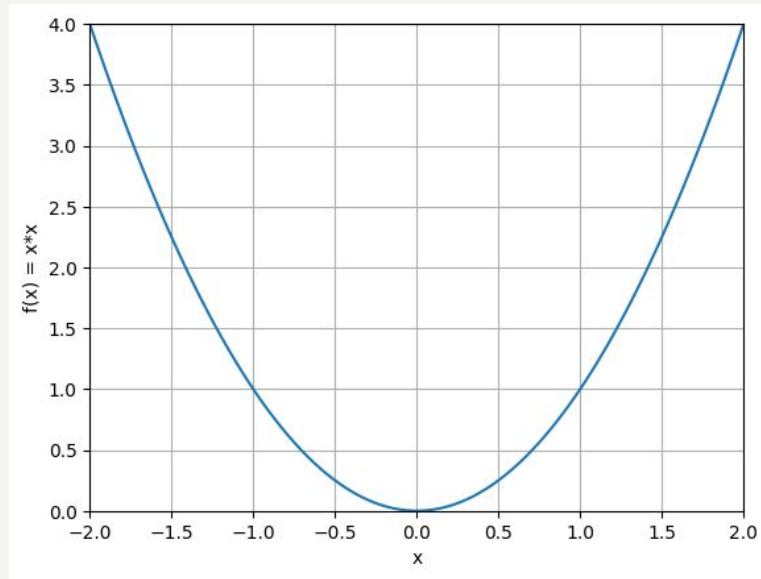
Derivatives

- Derivative of a function at a point is the **rate of change** of a function at that point.
- Derivative of a function at a point is the **slope of the tangent line** at that point.
- Also written as **$f'(x)$**

But why do we care about derivatives?

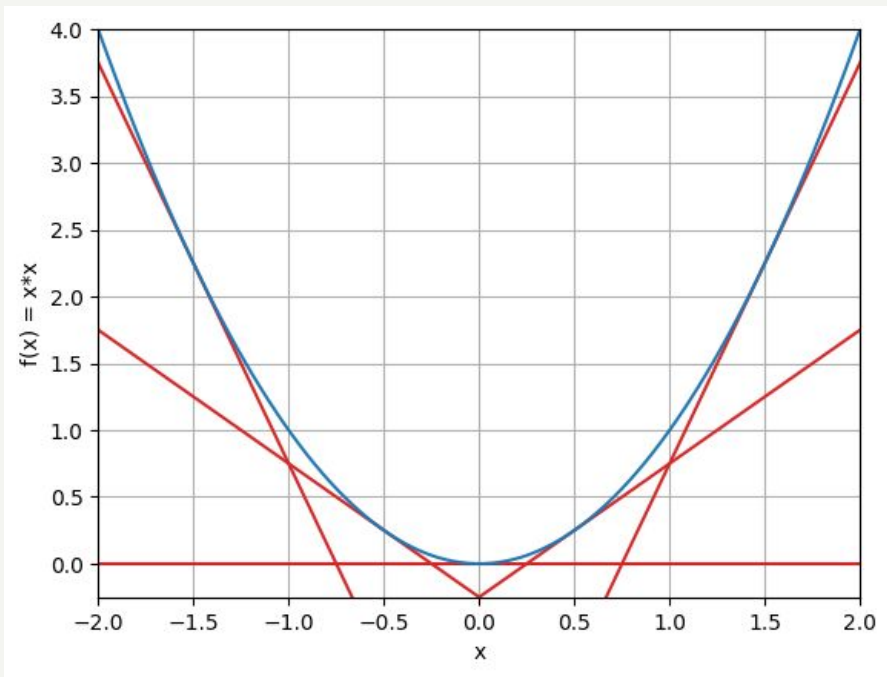
Special Case: Closed-form Solutions

Let's go back to $f(x) = x^2$



Special Case: Closed-form Solutions

Anything special about the derivative at the minimum?

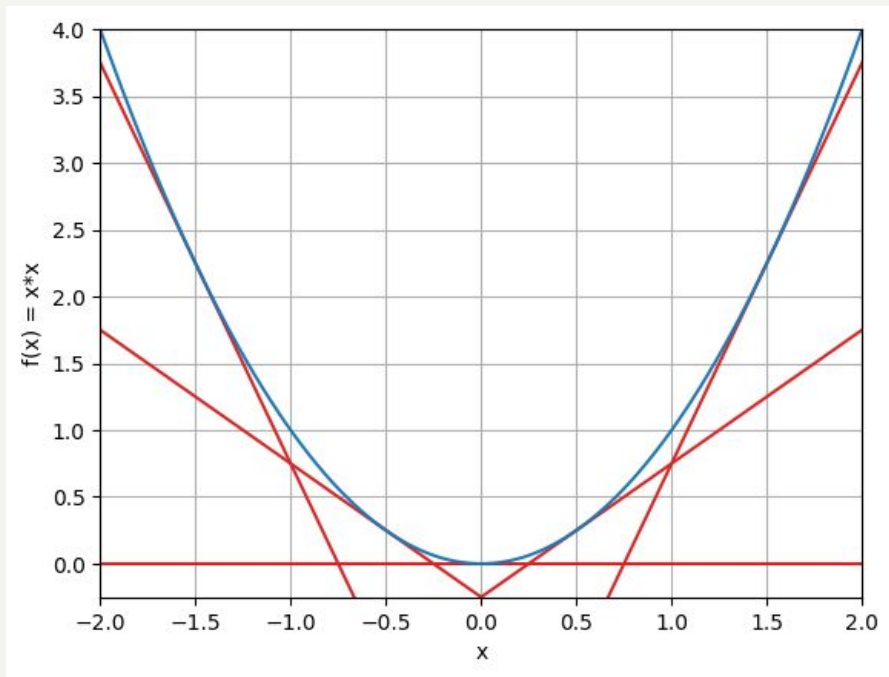


Special Case: Closed-form Solutions

Anything special about the derivative at the minimum?

It's a horizontal line!

That means, derivative is zero!

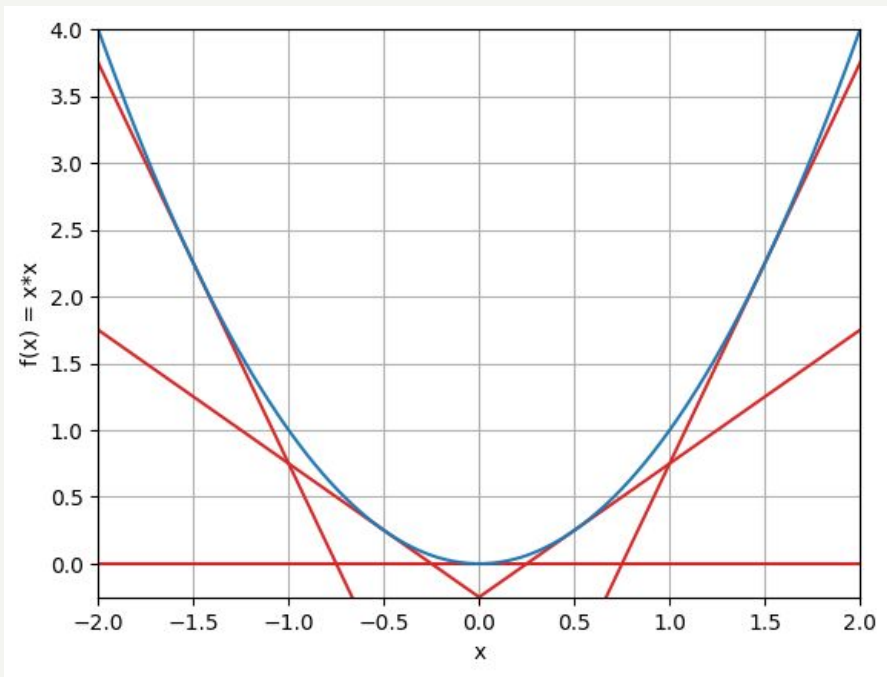


Special Case: Closed-form Solutions

Anything special about the derivative at the minimum?

It's a horizontal line!

That means, derivative is zero!



$$f(x) = x^2$$

We know $f'(x) = 2x$

$$\begin{aligned} f'(x) &= 0 \\ \rightarrow 2x &= 0 \\ \rightarrow x &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Special Case: Closed-form Solutions

- $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ is the point where the rate of change is 0, i.e., the function doesn't change.
This will happen at the minimum value of a function! (although it can also happen at other places)

Special Case: Closed-form Solutions

- $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ is the point where the rate of change is 0, i.e., the function doesn't change.
This will happen at the minimum value of a function! (although it can also happen at other places)
- That's how we got the values for linear regression.

$$w = \frac{n \sum (x_i y_i) - \sum x_i \sum y_i}{n \sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2} \quad b = \frac{\sum y_i - w \sum x_i}{n}$$

Special Case: Closed-form Solutions

- $\mathbf{f}'(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$ is the point where the rate of change is 0, i.e., the function doesn't change.
This will happen at the minimum value of a function! (although it can also happen at other places)

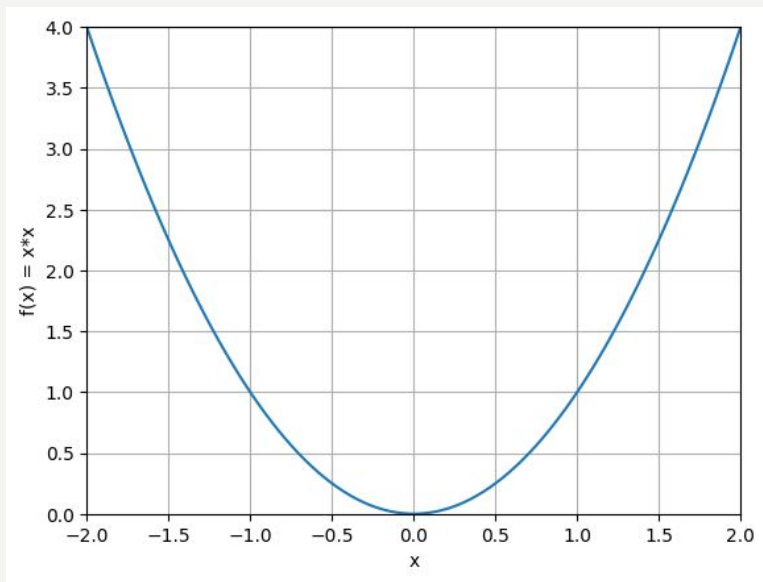
- That's how we got the values for linear regression.

$$w = \frac{n \sum (x_i y_i) - \sum x_i \sum y_i}{n \sum x_i^2 - (\sum x_i)^2} \quad b = \frac{\sum y_i - w \sum x_i}{n}$$

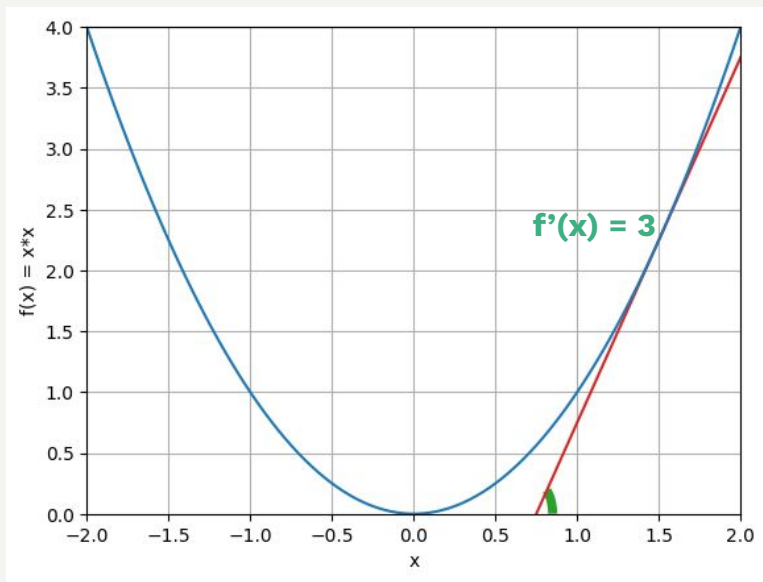
- But this is useful only if we can solve it! (We couldn't solve it for logistic regression)

Gradient Descent

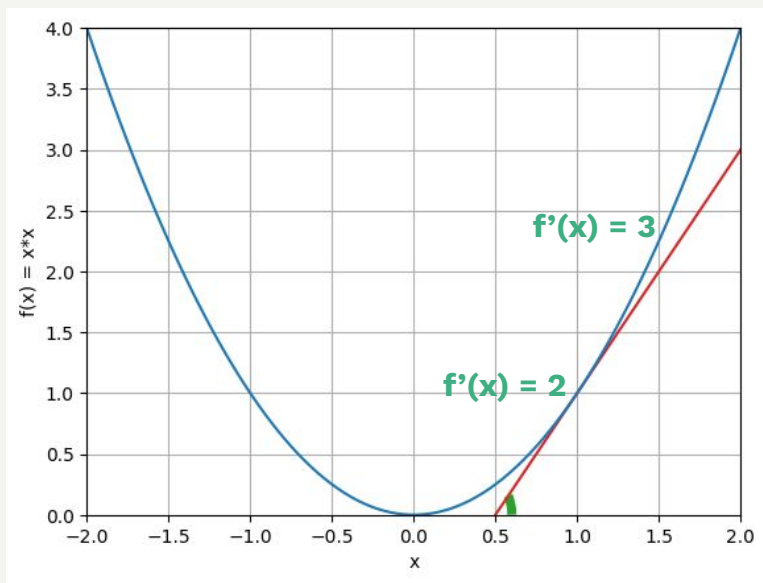
Let's go back to $f(x) = x^2$



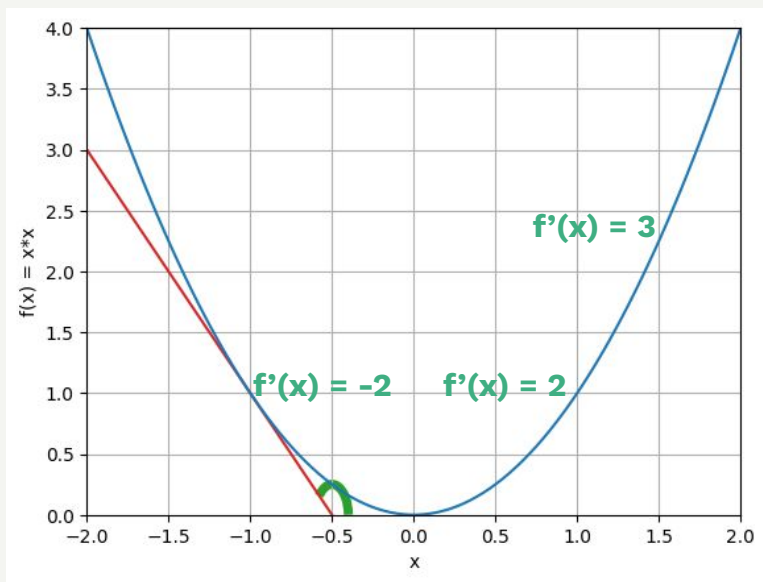
Gradient Descent



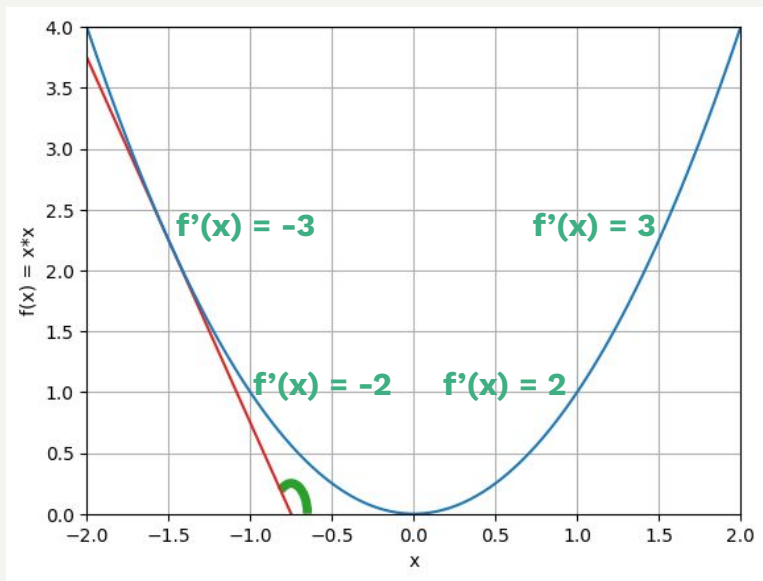
Gradient Descent



Gradient Descent

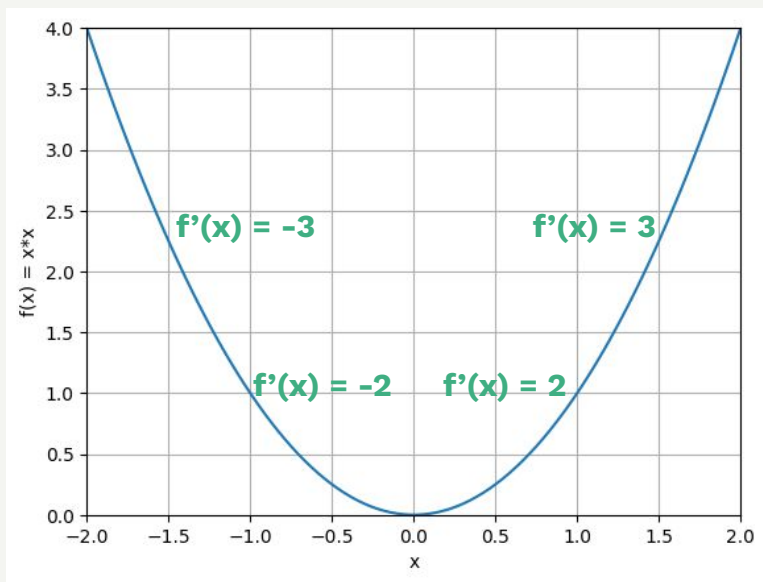


Gradient Descent



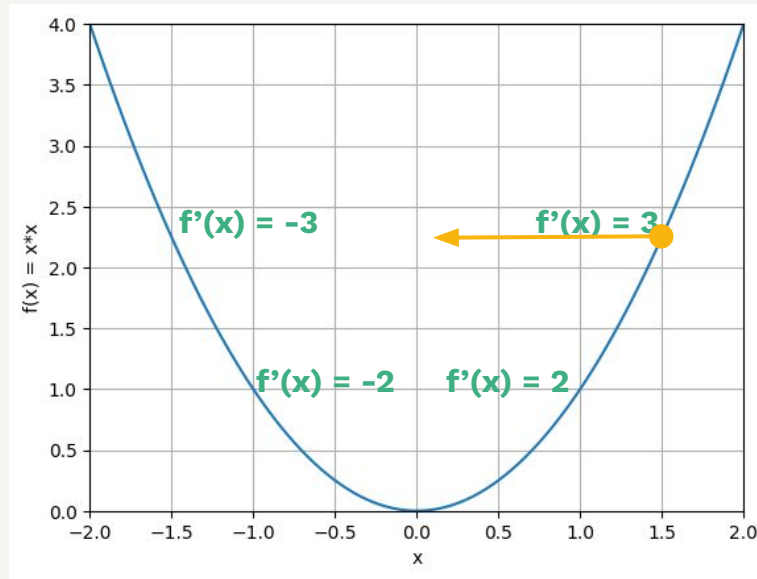
Gradient Descent

How can we 'minimize' $f(\mathbf{x})$?



Gradient Descent

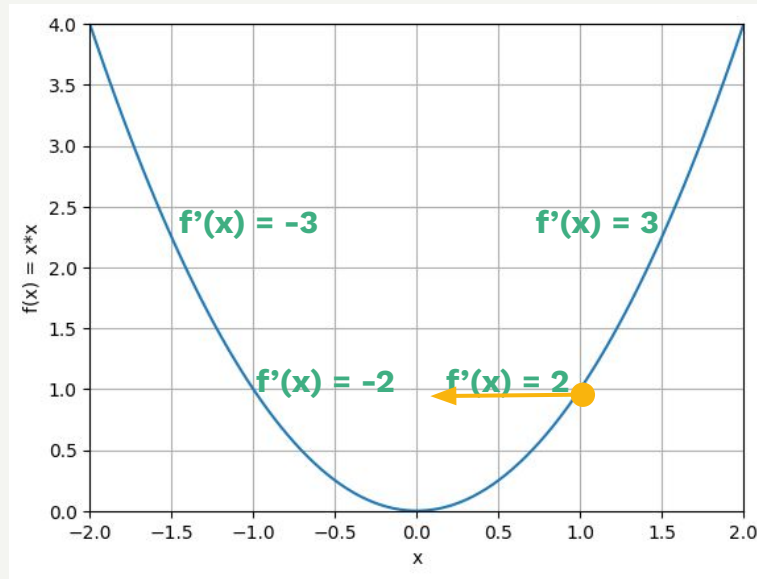
How can we 'minimize' $f(\mathbf{x})$?



Move in the negative direction; Move a lot

Gradient Descent

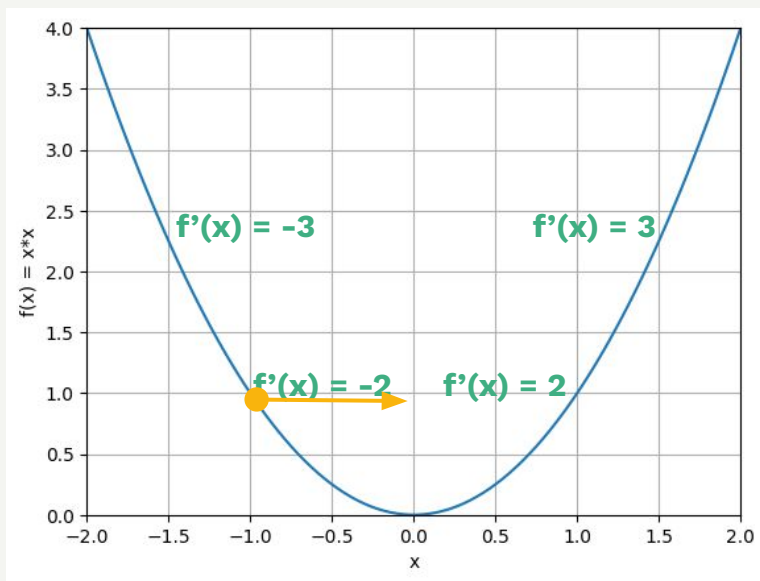
How can we 'minimize' $f(\mathbf{x})$?



Move in the negative direction; Move a little

Gradient Descent

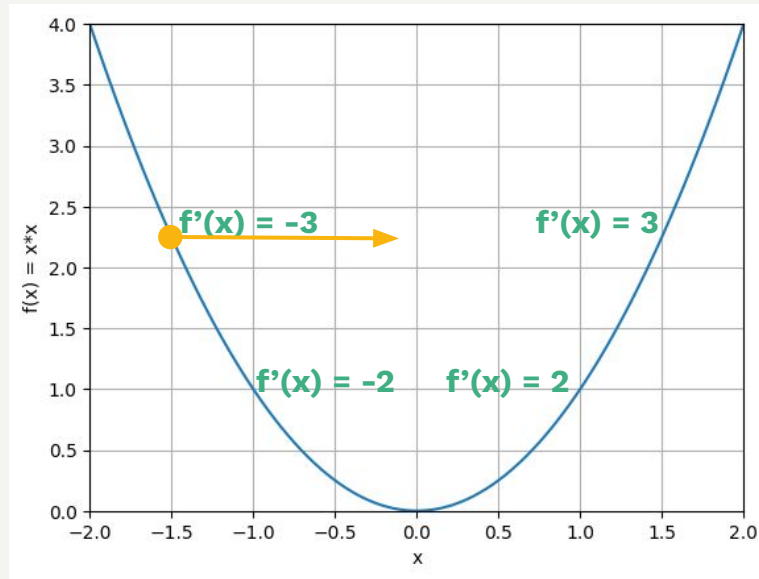
How can we 'minimize' $f(\mathbf{x})$?



Move in the positive direction; Move a little

Gradient Descent

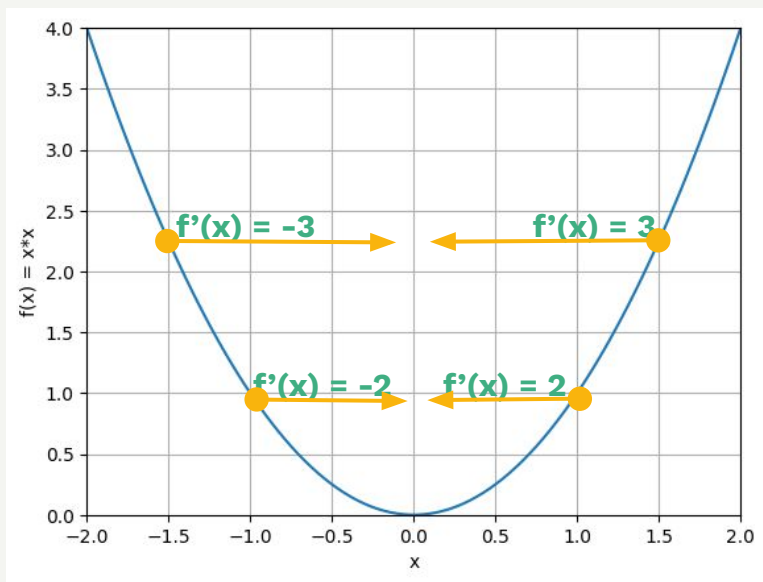
How can we 'minimize' $f(\mathbf{x})$?



Move in the positive direction; Move a lot

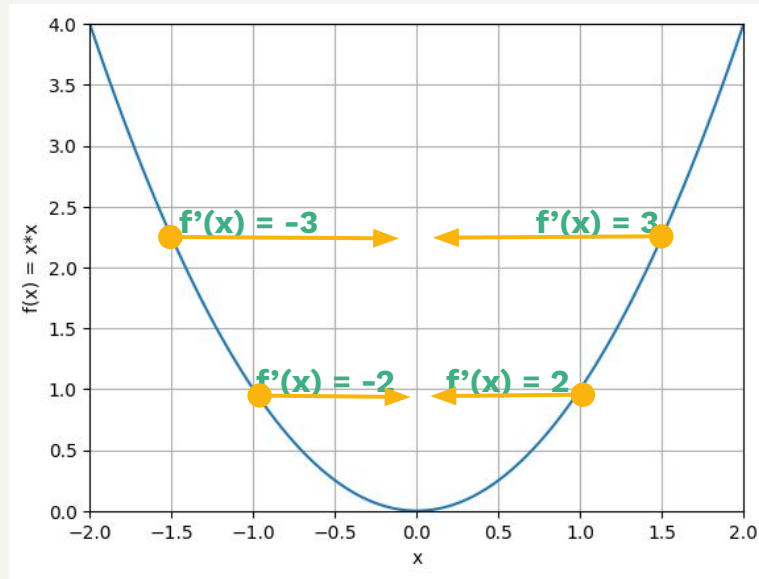
Gradient Descent

How can we 'minimize' $f(\mathbf{x})$?



Gradient Descent

How can we 'minimize' $f(x)$?



**Move in the direction
OPPOSITE of the derivative**

**Move the amount
proportional to the derivative**

Gradient Descent

$$\theta_i^{new} = \theta_i - \eta \frac{\partial L(.)}{\partial \theta_i}$$

Gradient Descent

Rate of change of loss
w.r.t. the parameter

$$\theta_i^{new} = \theta_i - \eta \frac{\partial L(.)}{\partial \theta_i}$$

Gradient Descent

$$\theta_i^{new} = \theta_i - \eta \frac{\partial L(.)}{\partial \theta_i}$$

Rate of change of loss
w.r.t. the parameter

Learning Rate

The diagram shows the gradient descent update rule: $\theta_i^{new} = \theta_i - \eta \frac{\partial L(.)}{\partial \theta_i}$. The entire equation is enclosed in a light gray rectangular box. A red arrow points from the text 'Rate of change of loss w.r.t. the parameter' to the fraction $\frac{\partial L(.)}{\partial \theta_i}$. Another red arrow points from the text 'Learning Rate' to the Greek letter η .

Gradient Descent

$$\theta_i^{new} = \theta_i - \eta \frac{\partial L(.)}{\partial \theta_i}$$

Current value of the parameter

Rate of change of loss w.r.t. the parameter

Learning Rate

The diagram shows the gradient descent update rule: $\theta_i^{new} = \theta_i - \eta \frac{\partial L(.)}{\partial \theta_i}$. Three red arrows point to specific parts of the equation: one points to θ_i with the label 'Current value of the parameter', another points to η with the label 'Learning Rate', and a third points to the fraction $\frac{\partial L(.)}{\partial \theta_i}$ with the label 'Rate of change of loss w.r.t. the parameter'. The equation itself is set against a light gray background.

Gradient Descent

$$\theta_i^{new} = \theta_i - \eta \frac{\partial L(.)}{\partial \theta_i}$$

Improved value of the parameter

Current value of the parameter

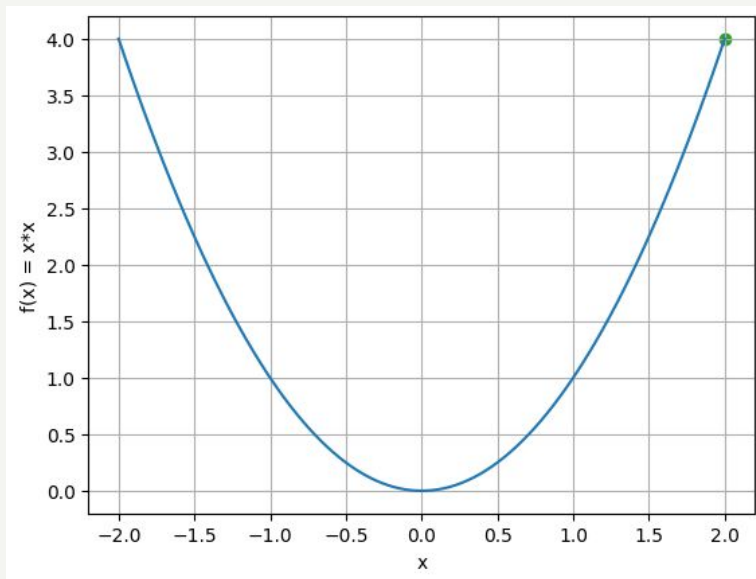
Learning Rate

Rate of change of loss w.r.t. the parameter

The diagram shows the gradient descent update equation: $\theta_i^{new} = \theta_i - \eta \frac{\partial L(.)}{\partial \theta_i}$. The equation is centered on a light gray rectangular background. Four red arrows point from text labels to specific parts of the equation: one points from 'Improved value of the parameter' to θ_i^{new} , another from 'Current value of the parameter' to θ_i , a third from 'Learning Rate' to η , and a fourth from 'Rate of change of loss w.r.t. the parameter' to the fraction $\frac{\partial L(.)}{\partial \theta_i}$.

Gradient Descent

Learning rate = 0.2



$$x^{\text{new}} = x - 0.2 * f'(x)$$

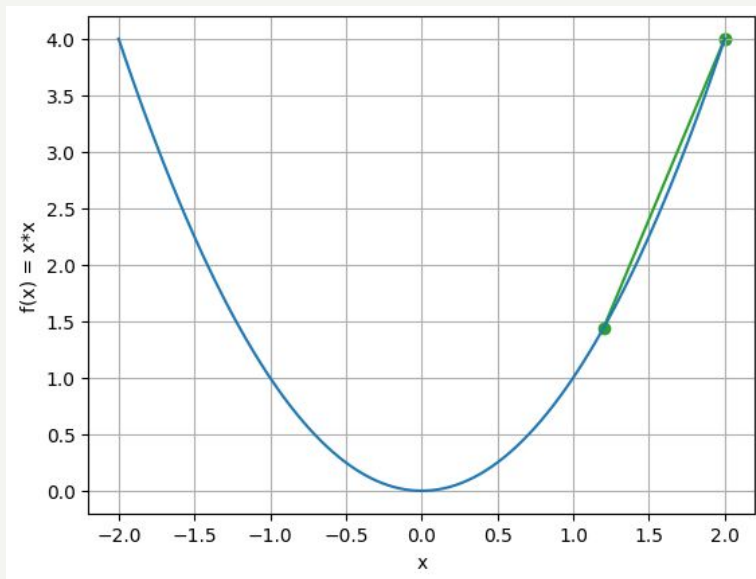
$$f'(2) = 4$$

$$x^{\text{new}} = 2 - 0.2 * 4$$

$$x^{\text{new}} = 1.2$$

Gradient Descent

Learning rate = 0.2



$$x^{\text{new}} = x - 0.2 * f'(x)$$

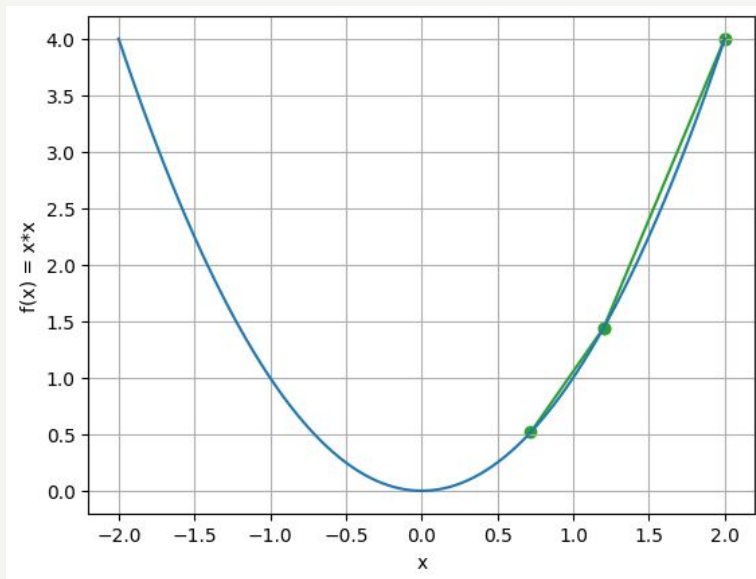
$$f'(1.2) = 2.4$$

$$x^{\text{new}} = 1.2 - 0.2 * 2.4$$

$$x^{\text{new}} = 0.72$$

Gradient Descent

Learning rate = 0.2



$$x^{\text{new}} = x - 0.2 * f'(x)$$

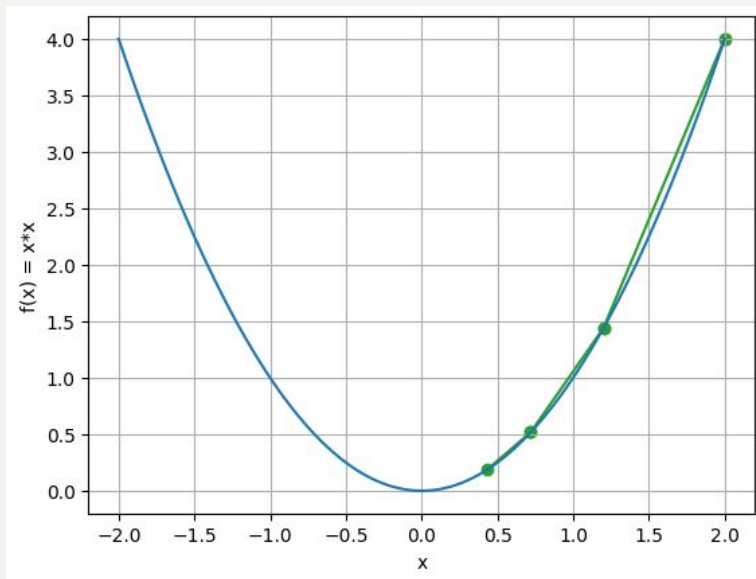
$$f'(0.72) = 1.44$$

$$x^{\text{new}} = 0.72 - 0.2 * 1.44$$

$$x^{\text{new}} = 0.432$$

Gradient Descent

Learning rate = 0.2



$$x^{\text{new}} = x - 0.2 * f'(x)$$

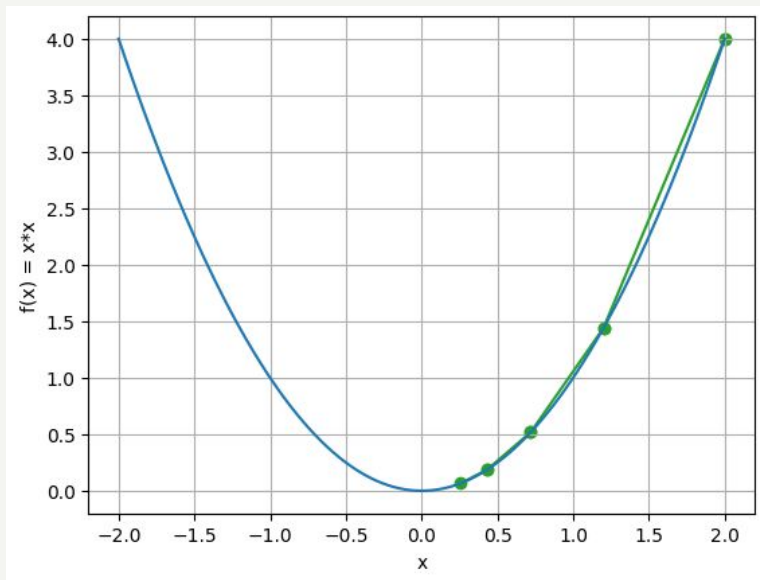
$$f'(0.432) = 0.864$$

$$x^{\text{new}} = 0.432 - 0.2 * 0.864$$

$$x^{\text{new}} = 0.2592$$

Gradient Descent

Learning rate = 0.2

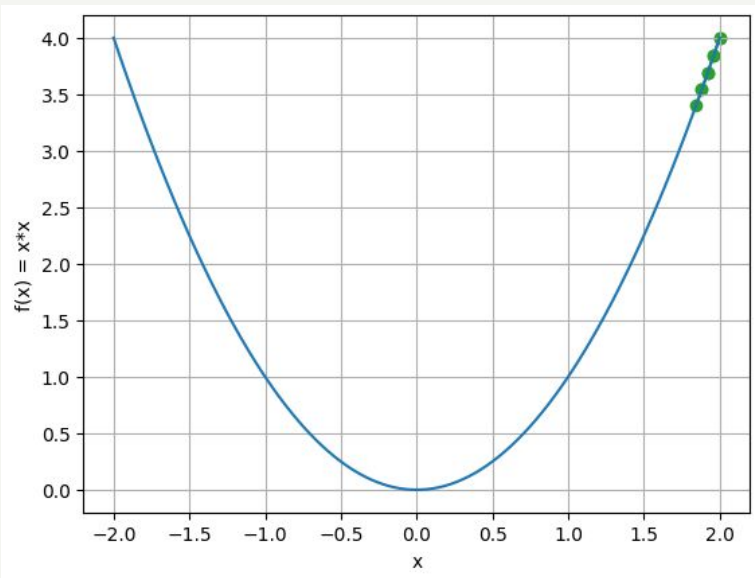


Problems with Gradient Descent

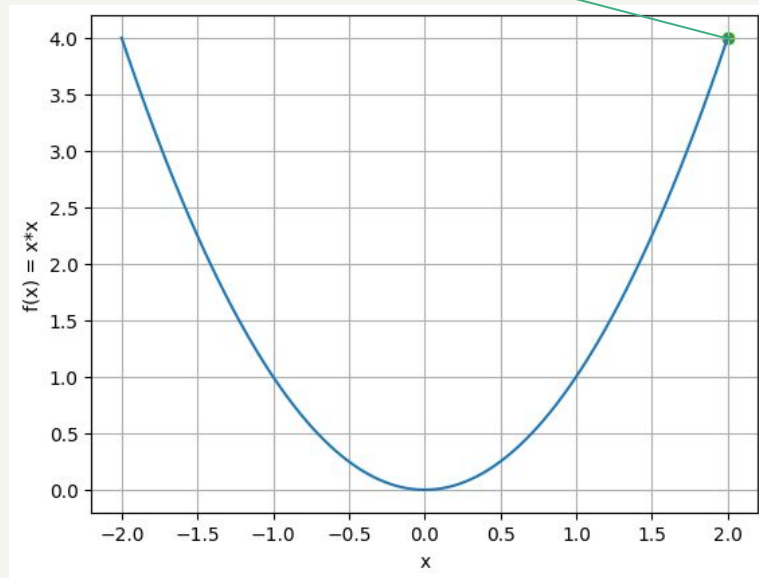
- Sensitivity to the learning rate
- Doesn't work with non-differentiable functions
- Can get stuck in local minima

Sensitivity to Learning Rate

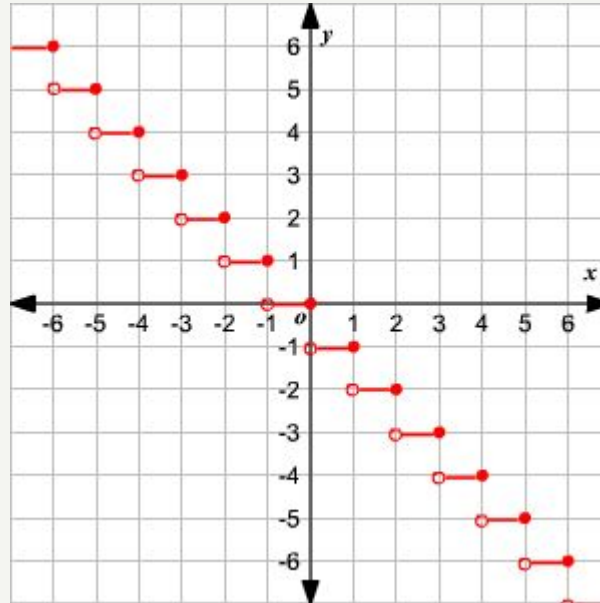
Learning rate = 0.01



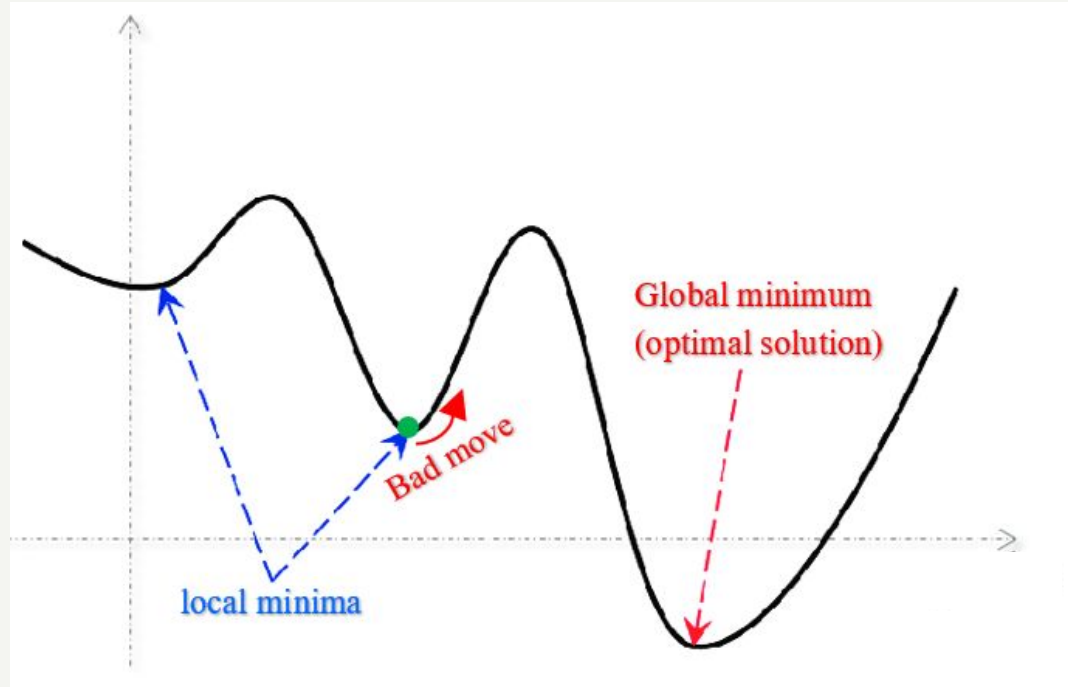
Learning rate > 1



Needs differentiable functions



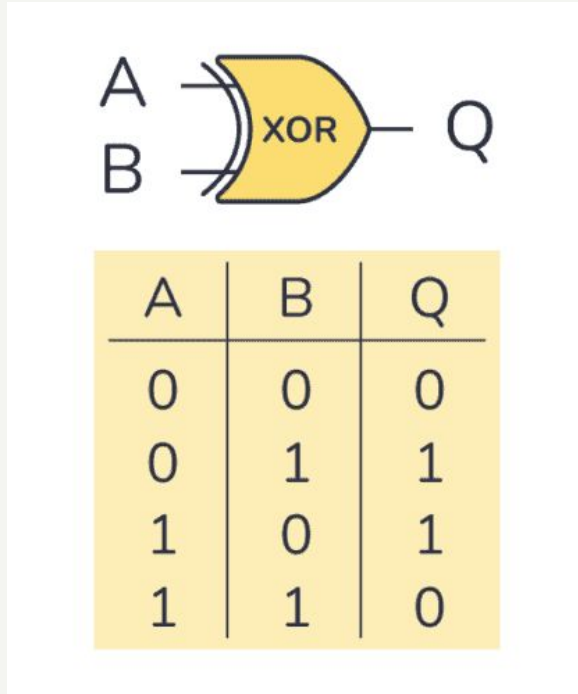
Can get stuck in local minima



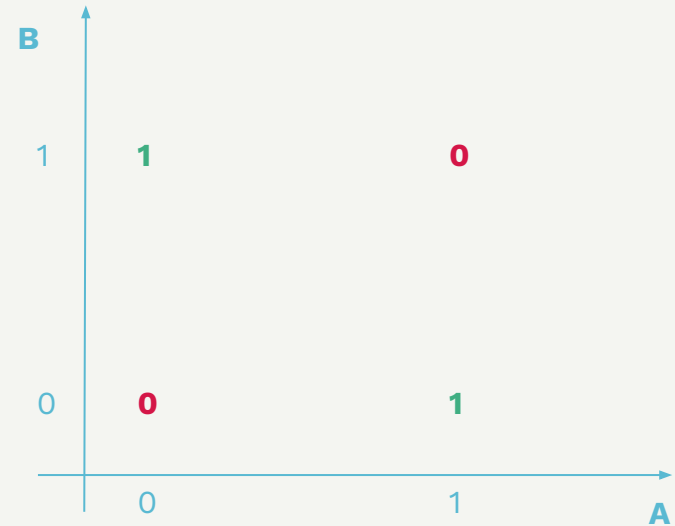
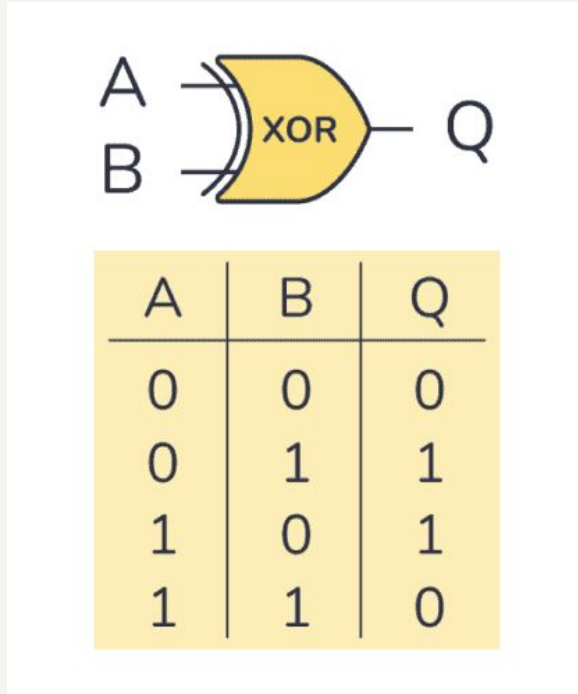
Why nonlinear learning?

- We saw iterative learning (gradient descent) is needed when we want to learn nonlinear functions.
- But why do we need nonlinear functions? Is linear not enough?

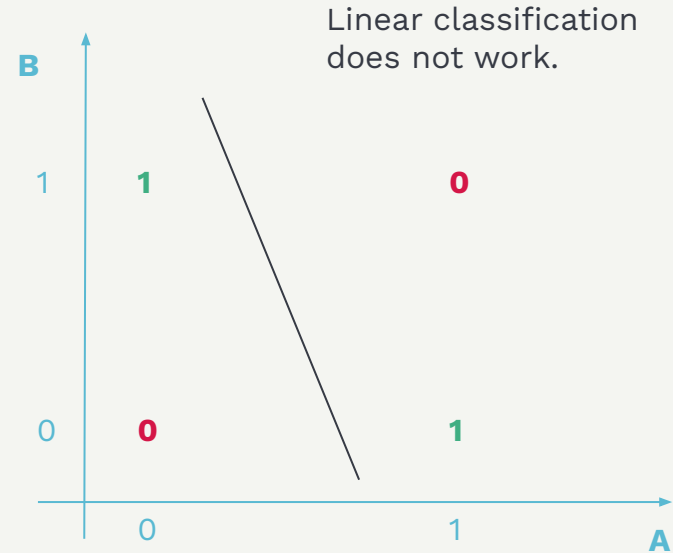
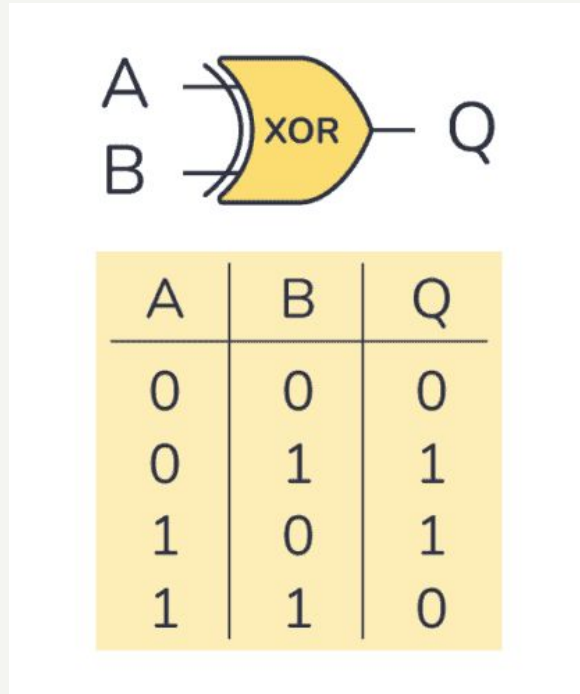
Example: XOR Problem



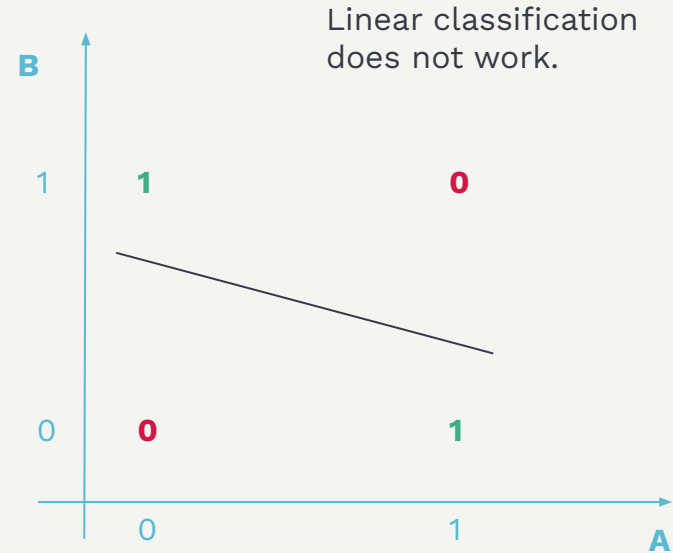
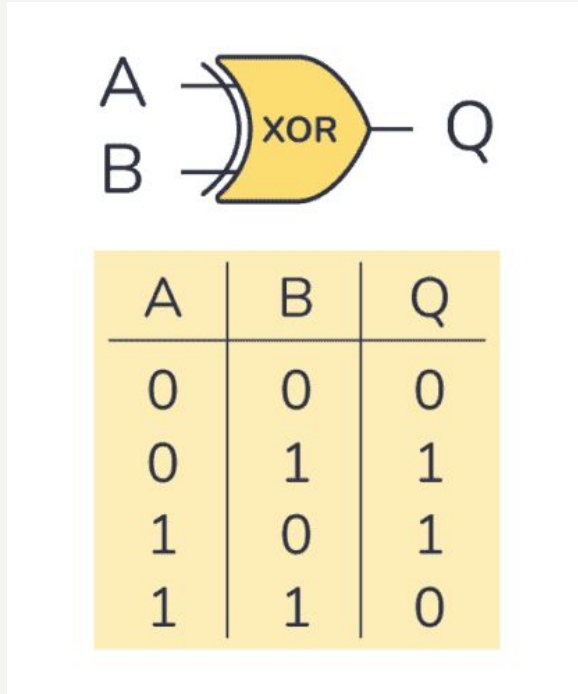
Example: XOR Problem



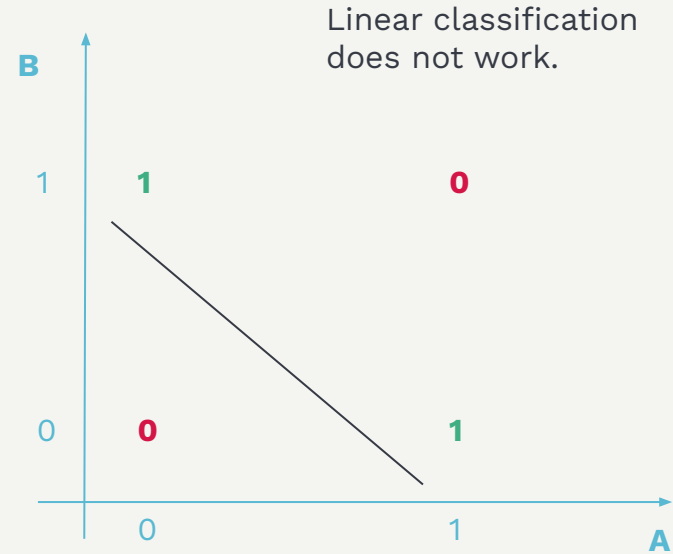
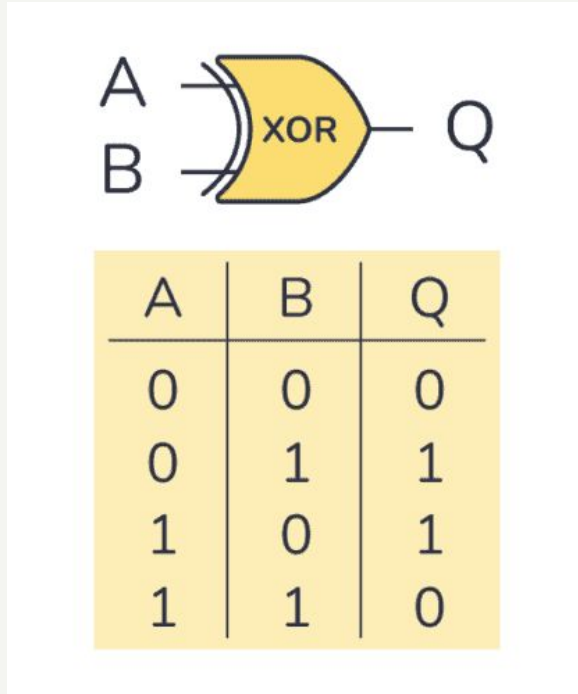
Example: XOR Problem



Example: XOR Problem



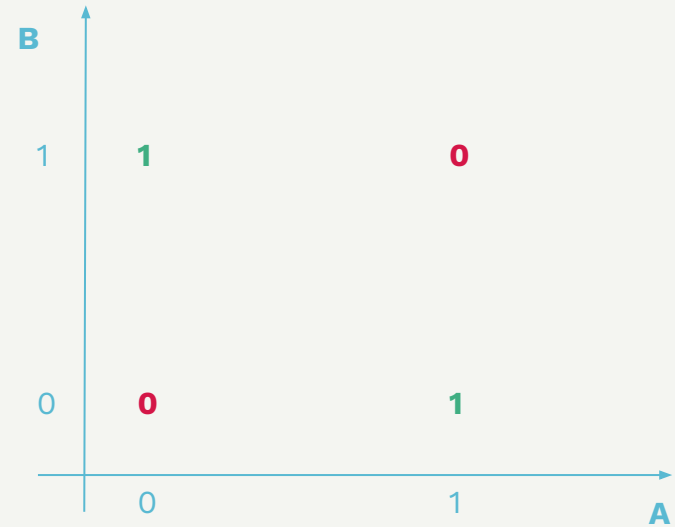
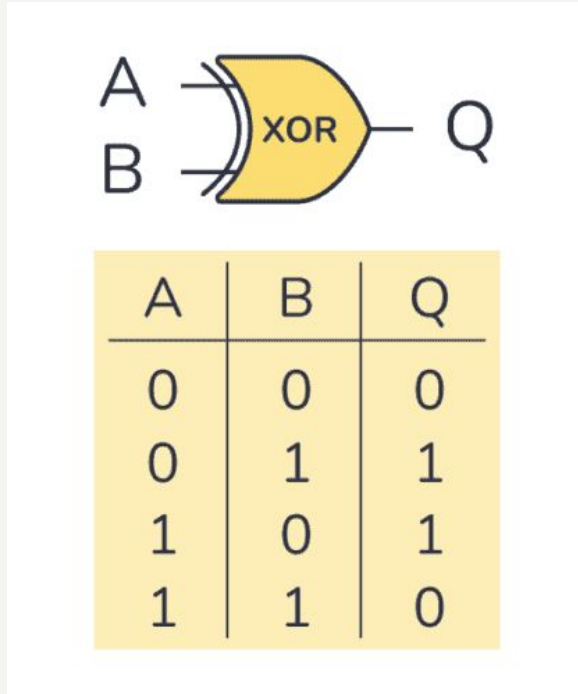
Example: XOR Problem



How to do nonlinear learning?

→ Can we combine linear boundaries to perform nonlinear learning?

Example: XOR Problem



Example: XOR Problem



A	B	Q
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0

New variables

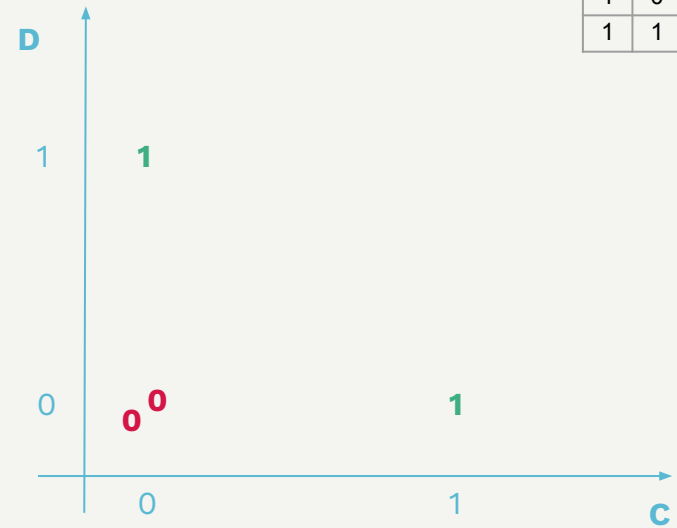
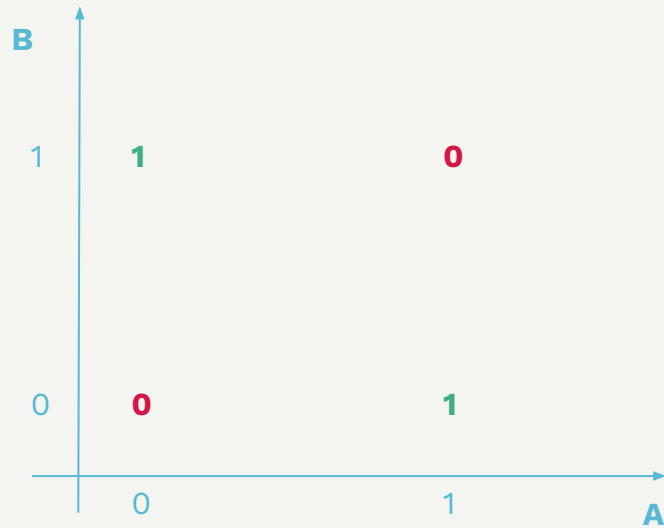
$$C = A \text{ AND } (\text{NOT } B)$$

$$D = (\text{NOT } A) \text{ AND } B$$

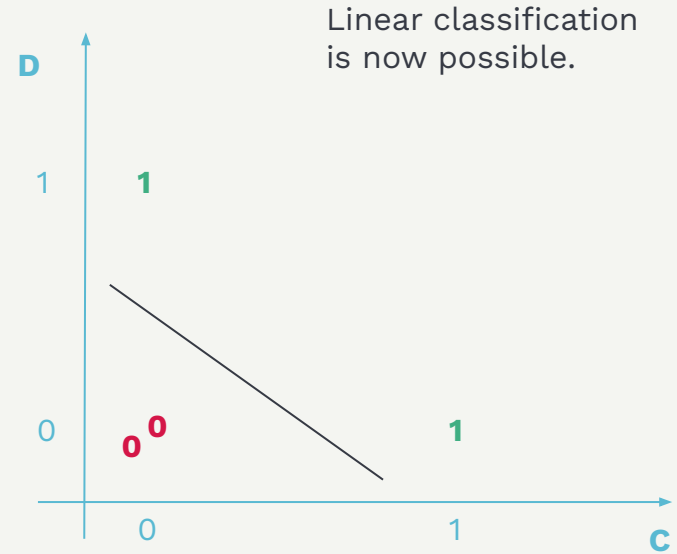
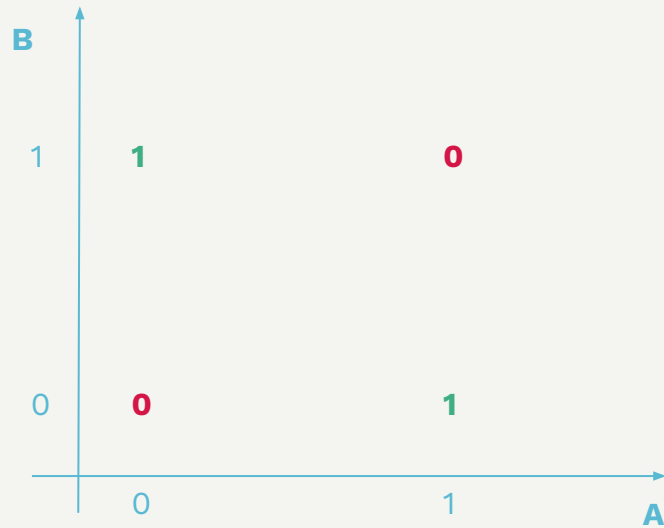
A	B	C	D
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0

Example: XOR Problem

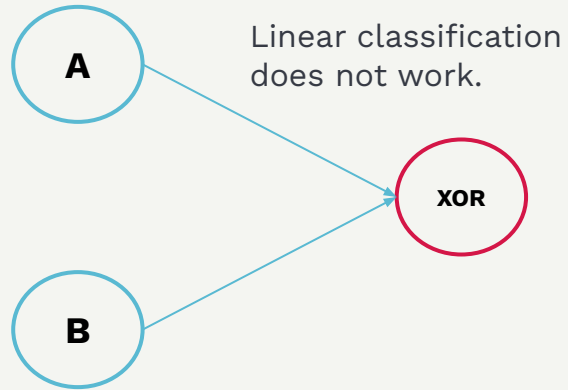
A	B	C	D
0	0	0	0
0	1	0	1
1	0	1	0
1	1	0	0



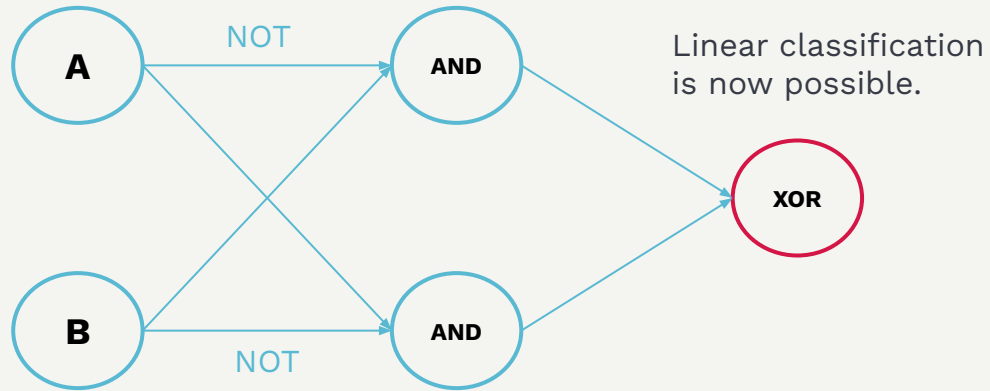
Example: XOR Problem



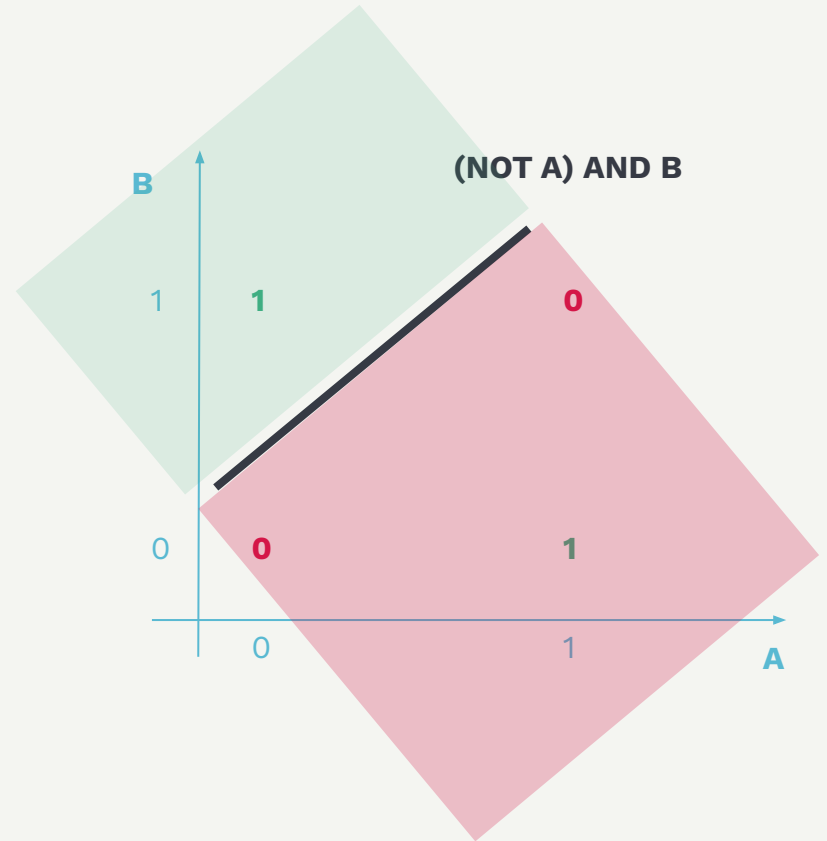
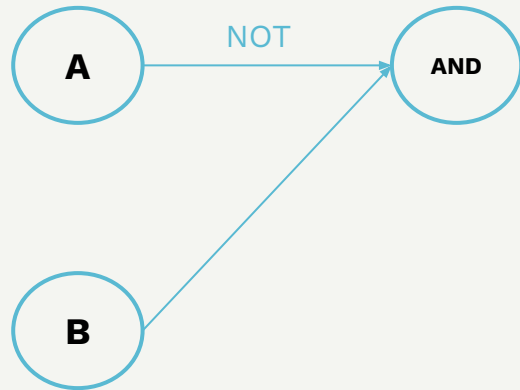
Example: XOR Problem



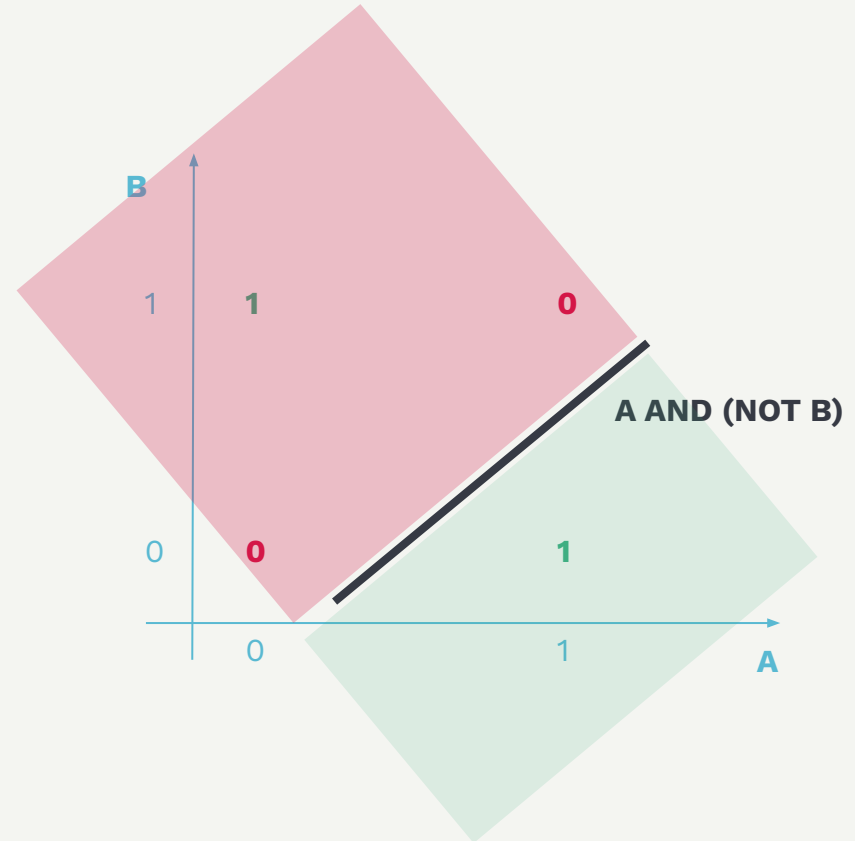
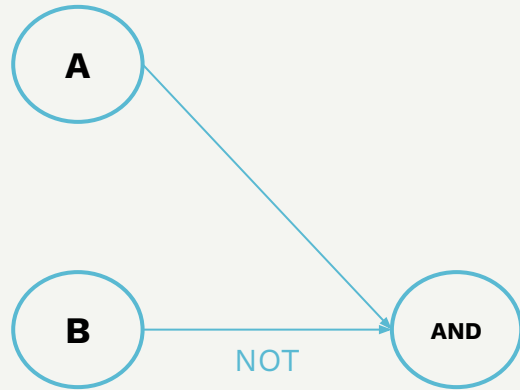
Example: XOR Problem



Example: XOR Problem

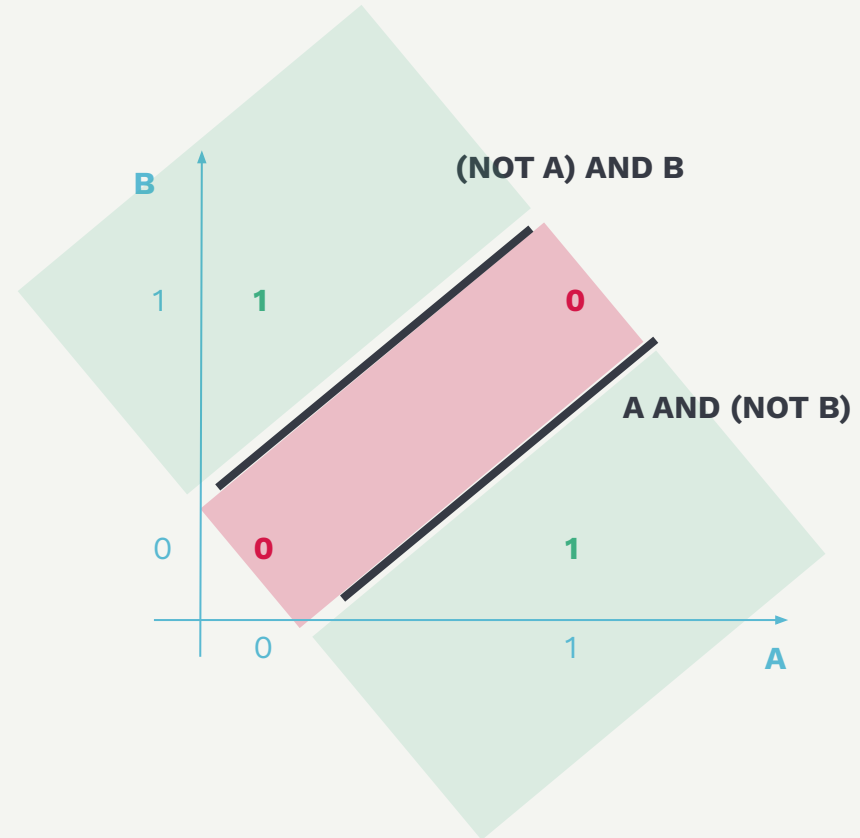


Example: XOR Problem



Example: XOR Problem

We combined two linear boundaries to form a more complicated boundary!!



How to do nonlinear learning?

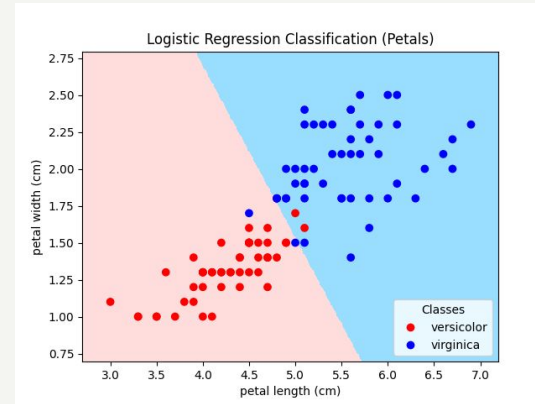
→ Can we combine linear boundaries to perform nonlinear learning? **YES!**

How to do nonlinear learning?

→ Can we combine linear boundaries to perform nonlinear learning? **YES!**

Recall Logistic regression

$$y = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(wx+b)}}$$



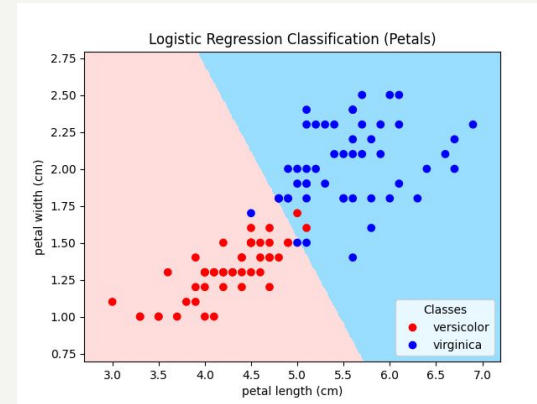
How to do nonlinear learning?

→ Can we combine linear boundaries to perform nonlinear learning? **YES!**

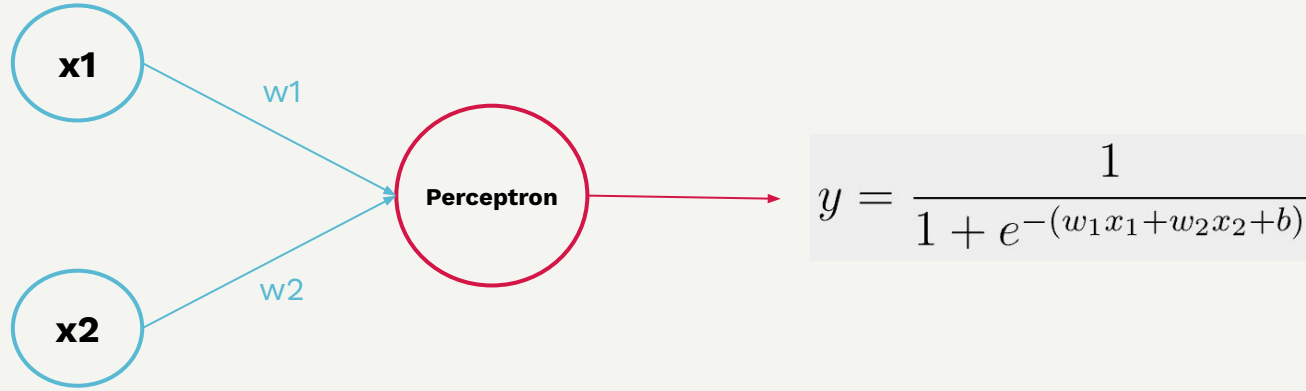
Recall Logistic regression

$$y = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(wx+b)}}$$

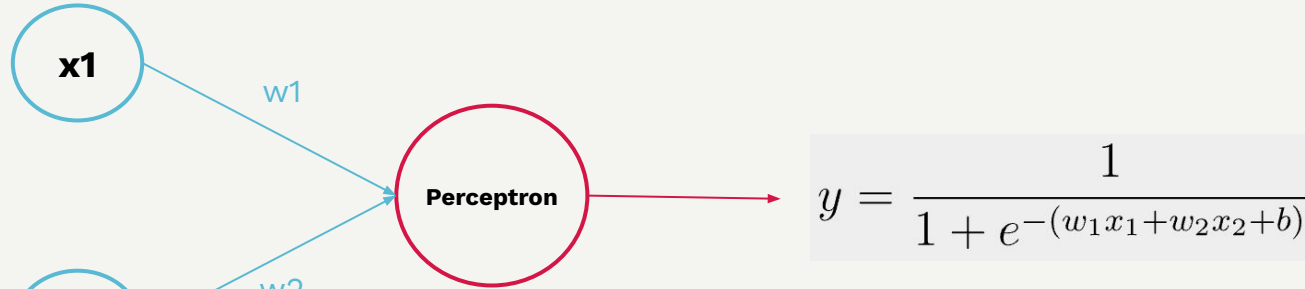
↑
We'll call this a
'perceptron'



Perceptron

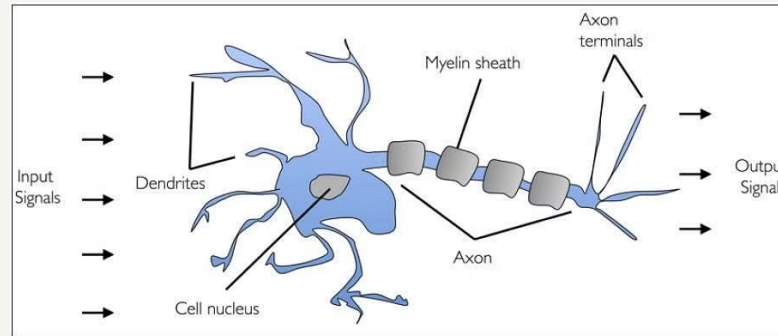
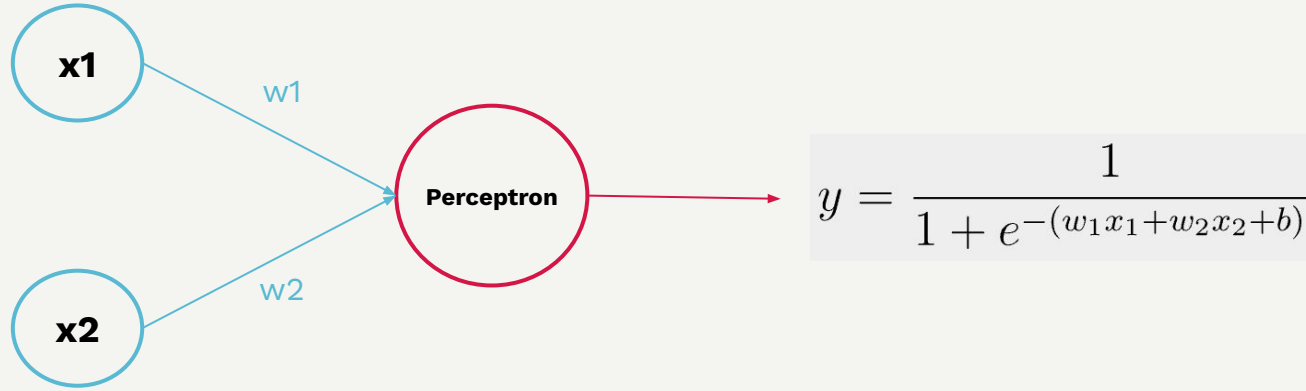


Perceptron

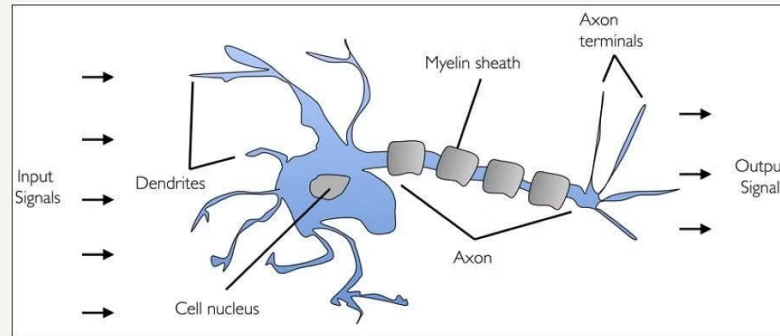
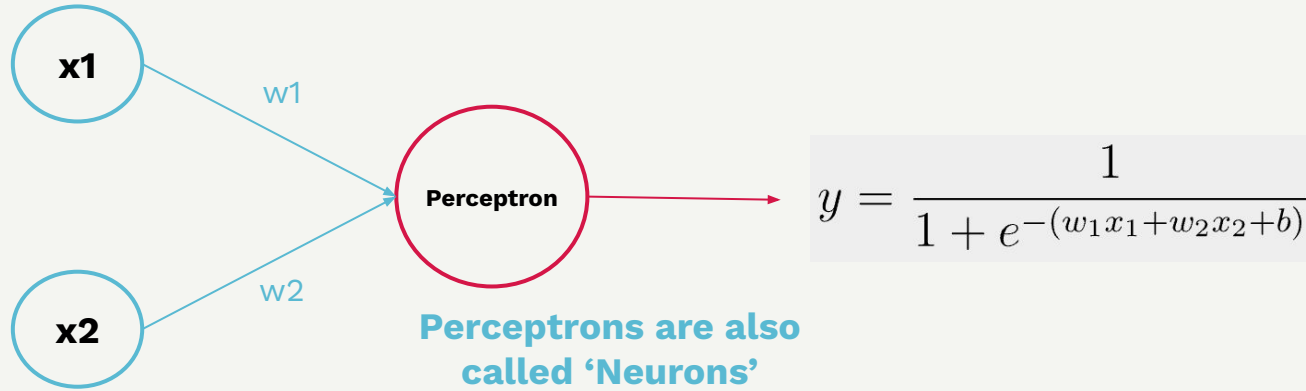


Note: Perceptrons are defined for various 'activation functions'. We are using $\sigma(x)$ for our example (hence, logistic regression).

Perceptron



Perceptron

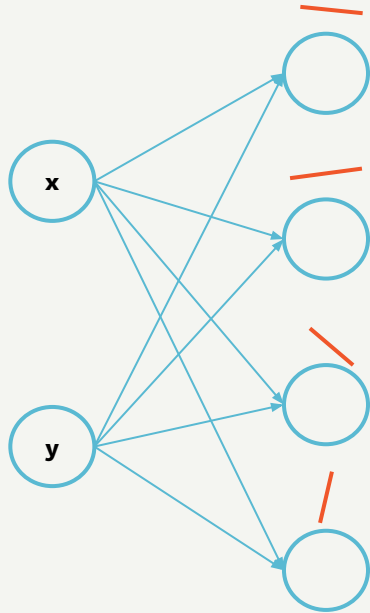


Multi-layer Perceptron

Each **perceptron** can only create a linear boundary.
But together, they can do so much more!!

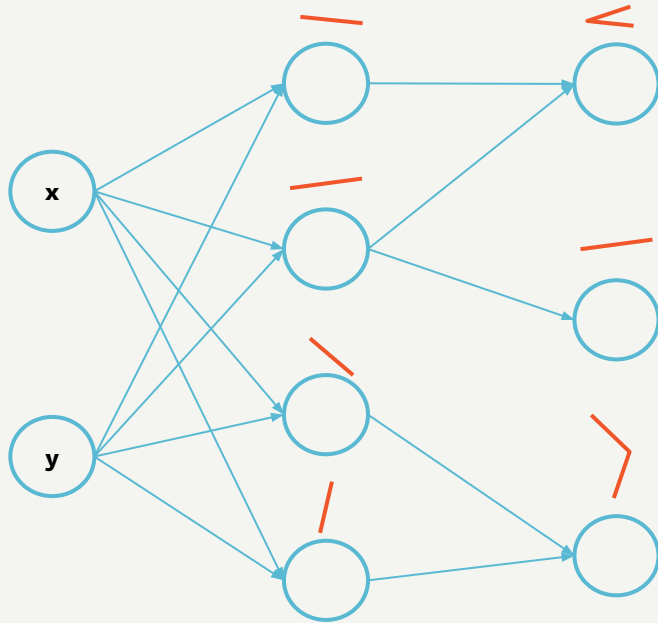
Multi-layer Perceptron

Each **perceptron** can only create a linear boundary.
But together, they can do so much more!!



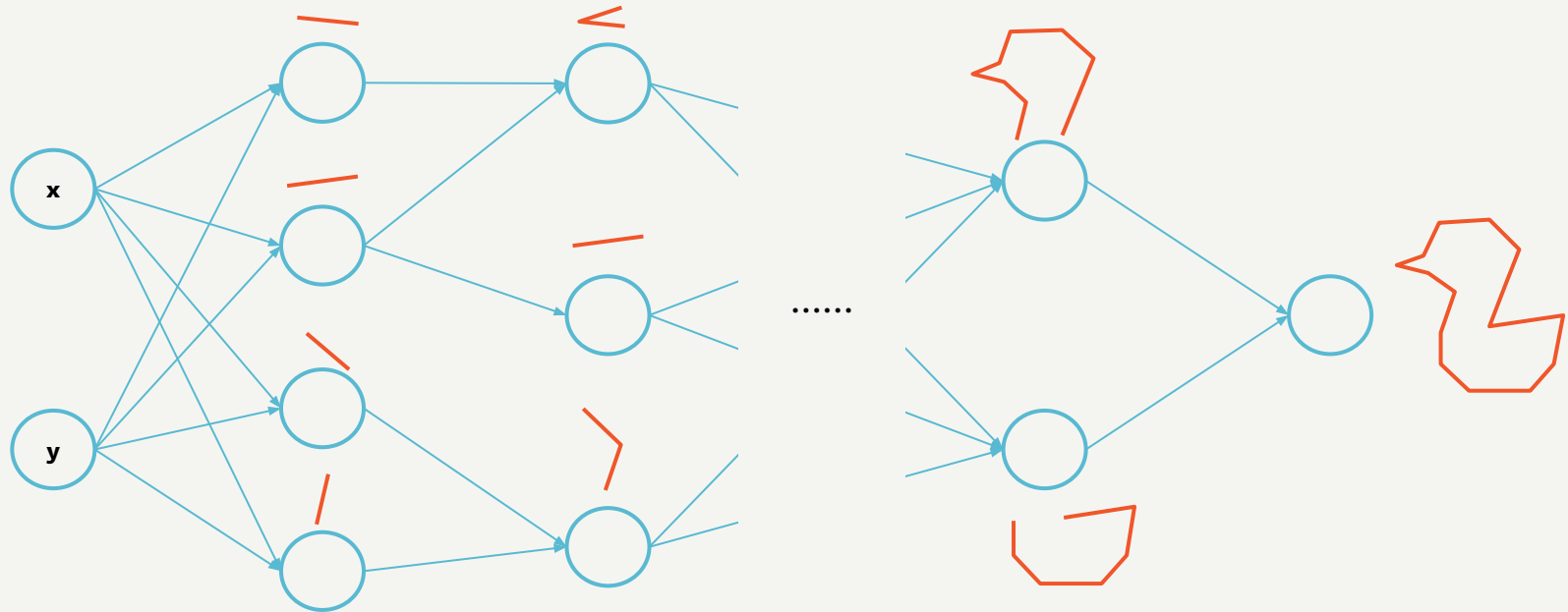
Multi-layer Perceptron

Each **perceptron** can only create a linear boundary. But together, they can do so much more!!



Multi-layer Perceptron

Each **perceptron** can only create a linear boundary. But together, they can do so much more!!



Multi-layer Perceptron

Each **perceptron** can only create a linear boundary.
But together, they can do so much more!!

Multi-layer perceptrons (of infinite width) are universal approximators!!

Break

Training our own MLP

[Move to Colab](#)