Single Neuron Learning: Linear and Logistic Regression Complete Mathematical Framework with Worked Examples

September 2, 2025

Contents

T	ıntı	roduction						
2	Sing	Single Neuron Architecture						
	2.1	General Structure						
	2.2	Example Setup						
3	Part I: Linear Regression							
	3.1	Model Definition						
	3.2	Loss Function						
	3.3	Gradient Computation						
		3.3.1 Loss Derivatives						
		3.3.2 Parameter Gradients						
	3.4	Worked Example: Linear Regression						
		3.4.1 Training Data						
		3.4.2 Forward Pass						
		3.4.3 Loss Calculation						
		3.4.4 Backward Pass						
		3.4.5 Parameter Updates						
1	Dan	Part II: Logistic Regression						
Ł	4.1	Model Definition						
	4.1	Sigmoid Function Properties						
	4.2	Loss Function						
	4.4	Gradient Computation						
	4.4	•						
		4.4.1 Loss Derivatives						
	4 5							
	4.5	Worked Example: Logistic Regression						
		4.5.1 Training Data						
		4.5.2 Forward Pass						
		4.5.3 Loss Calculation						
		4.5.4 Backward Pass						
		4.5.5 Parameter Updates						
5	Comparison: Linear vs Logistic Regression							
	5.1	Key Differences						
	5.2	Similarities						

6 Multi-Example Training								
	6.1	Batch Gradient Descent	8					
		6.1.1 Linear Regression	8					
		6.1.2 Logistic Regression	8					
	6.2	Extended Example: Multiple Training Points	8					
		6.2.1 Linear Regression Dataset	8					
			9					
		6.2.3 Batch Gradient Calculation	9					
		6.2.4 Parameter Updates	0					
7	Implementation Considerations 1							
	7.1^{-}	Learning Rate Selection	0					
	7.2	Convergence Criteria						
	7.3	Numerical Stability						
		7.3.1 Logistic Regression	0					
8	Sun	Summary and Key Takeaways 10						
	8.1	Mathematical Framework	0					
	8.2	Key Insights						
	8.3	Practical Applications						

1 Introduction

This document provides a comprehensive mathematical treatment of single neuron learning for two fundamental machine learning tasks:

- Linear Regression: Predicting continuous output values
- Logistic Regression: Predicting binary classification probabilities

Both models use the same basic neuron structure but differ in their activation functions, loss functions, and interpretation of outputs.

2 Single Neuron Architecture

2.1 General Structure

A single neuron with n inputs has:

• Inputs: $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$

• Weights: w_1, w_2, \ldots, w_n

• Bias: b

• Pre-activation: $z = \sum_{i=1}^n w_i x_i + b = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b$

• Output: y = f(z) where f is the activation function

Example Setup

For our worked examples, we'll use a neuron with 3 inputs:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \end{pmatrix} \tag{1}$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_2 \end{pmatrix} \tag{2}$$

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} w_1 \\ w_2 \\ w_3 \end{pmatrix} \tag{2}$$

Initial parameters:

$$\mathbf{w}_{\text{init}} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ -0.3 \\ 0.8 \end{pmatrix} \tag{3}$$

$$b_{\text{init}} = 0.2 \tag{4}$$

Part I: Linear Regression 3

Model Definition 3.1

In linear regression, we use a linear activation function (identity function):

$$z = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = \sum_{i=1}^3 w_i x_i + b \tag{5}$$

$$y = f(z) = z$$
 (linear activation) (6)

The output y directly represents the predicted continuous value.

3.2 Loss Function

We use Mean Squared Error (MSE) loss:

$$L = \frac{1}{2}(y-t)^2 = \frac{1}{2}(z-t)^2 \tag{7}$$

where t is the target (true) value.

3.3 Gradient Computation

3.3.1 Loss Derivatives

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial y} = \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left[\frac{1}{2} (y - t)^2 \right] = y - t \tag{8}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} = (y - t) \cdot 1 = y - t = z - t \tag{9}$$

3.3.2 Parameter Gradients

For weights:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_i} = (z - t) \cdot x_i \tag{10}$$

For bias:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial b} = (z - t) \cdot 1 = z - t \tag{11}$$

3.4 Worked Example: Linear Regression

3.4.1 Training Data

Let's use the following training example:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 2.0\\1.5\\-0.5 \end{pmatrix} \tag{12}$$

$$t = 3.2$$
 (target continuous value) (13)

3.4.2 Forward Pass

$$z = w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + w_3 x_3 + b (14)$$

$$= 0.5(2.0) + (-0.3)(1.5) + 0.8(-0.5) + 0.2$$
(15)

$$= 1.0 - 0.45 - 0.4 + 0.2 \tag{16}$$

$$=0.35\tag{17}$$

Since we use linear activation:

$$y = z = 0.35$$
 (18)

3.4.3 Loss Calculation

$$L = \frac{1}{2}(y-t)^2 = \frac{1}{2}(0.35 - 3.2)^2 \tag{19}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}(-2.85)^2 = \frac{1}{2}(8.1225) = 4.061 \tag{20}$$

3.4.4 Backward Pass

Error term:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial z} = z - t = 0.35 - 3.2 = -2.85 \tag{21}$$

Weight gradients:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1} = (-2.85) \times 2.0 = -5.70 \tag{22}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_2} = (-2.85) \times 1.5 = -4.275 \tag{23}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_3} = (-2.85) \times (-0.5) = 1.425$$
 (24)

Bias gradient:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = -2.85\tag{25}$$

3.4.5 Parameter Updates

Using learning rate $\alpha = 0.1$:

$$w_1^{\text{new}} = 0.5 - 0.1(-5.70) = 0.5 + 0.57 = 1.07 \tag{26}$$

$$w_2^{\text{new}} = -0.3 - 0.1(-4.275) = -0.3 + 0.4275 = 0.1275$$
(27)

$$w_3^{\text{new}} = 0.8 - 0.1(1.425) = 0.8 - 0.1425 = 0.6575$$
 (28)

$$b^{\text{new}} = 0.2 - 0.1(-2.85) = 0.2 + 0.285 = 0.485$$
(29)

4 Part II: Logistic Regression

4.1 Model Definition

In logistic regression, we use the sigmoid activation function:

$$z = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = \sum_{i=1}^3 w_i x_i + b \tag{30}$$

$$y = \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$
 (sigmoid activation) (31)

The output y represents the probability of the positive class (i.e., P(class = 1)).

4.2 Sigmoid Function Properties

$$\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \tag{32}$$

$$\sigma'(z) = \frac{d}{dz}\sigma(z) = \sigma(z)(1 - \sigma(z)) \tag{33}$$

Key properties:

- Range: (0,1) perfect for probabilities
- $\sigma(0) = 0.5$
- $\lim_{z\to\infty} \sigma(z) = 1$
- $\lim_{z\to-\infty} \sigma(z) = 0$

4.3 Loss Function

We use Binary Cross-Entropy (BCE) loss:

$$L = -[t\log(y) + (1-t)\log(1-y)] \tag{34}$$

where $t \in \{0, 1\}$ is the true binary label.

This can be rewritten as:

$$L = \begin{cases} -\log(y) & \text{if } t = 1\\ -\log(1 - y) & \text{if } t = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$(35)$$

4.4 Gradient Computation

4.4.1 Loss Derivatives

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial y} = -\frac{t}{y} + \frac{1-t}{1-y} = \frac{y-t}{y(1-y)} \tag{36}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial y} \cdot \frac{\partial y}{\partial z} \tag{37}$$

$$= \frac{y-t}{y(1-y)} \cdot y(1-y)$$
 (38)

$$= y - t \tag{39}$$

Note the elegant simplification: $\frac{\partial L}{\partial z} = y - t$

4.4.2 Parameter Gradients

For weights:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial w_i} = (y - t) \cdot x_i \tag{40}$$

For bias:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} \cdot \frac{\partial z}{\partial b} = (y - t) \cdot 1 = y - t \tag{41}$$

4.5 Worked Example: Logistic Regression

4.5.1 Training Data

Let's use the following training example:

$$\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} 1.2 \\ -0.8 \\ 0.6 \end{pmatrix} \tag{42}$$

$$t = 1$$
 (positive class) (43)

Starting with the same initial parameters:

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} 0.5 \\ -0.3 \\ 0.8 \end{pmatrix} \tag{44}$$

$$b = 0.2 \tag{45}$$

4.5.2 Forward Pass

$$z = w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + w_3 x_3 + b \tag{46}$$

$$= 0.5(1.2) + (-0.3)(-0.8) + 0.8(0.6) + 0.2$$

$$(47)$$

$$= 0.6 + 0.24 + 0.48 + 0.2 \tag{48}$$

$$=1.52\tag{49}$$

Sigmoid activation:

$$y = \sigma(1.52) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-1.52}} \tag{50}$$

$$=\frac{1}{1+0.219} = \frac{1}{1.219} = 0.820 \tag{51}$$

4.5.3 Loss Calculation

Since t = 1 (positive class):

$$L = -\log(y) = -\log(0.820) \tag{52}$$

$$= -(-0.198) = 0.198 \tag{53}$$

4.5.4 Backward Pass

Error term:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial z} = y - t = 0.820 - 1 = -0.180 \tag{54}$$

Weight gradients:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1} = (-0.180) \times 1.2 = -0.216 \tag{55}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_2} = (-0.180) \times (-0.8) = 0.144 \tag{56}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_3} = (-0.180) \times 0.6 = -0.108 \tag{57}$$

Bias gradient:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = -0.180\tag{58}$$

4.5.5 Parameter Updates

Using learning rate $\alpha = 0.1$:

$$w_1^{\text{new}} = 0.5 - 0.1(-0.216) = 0.5 + 0.0216 = 0.5216$$
 (59)

$$w_2^{\text{new}} = -0.3 - 0.1(0.144) = -0.3 - 0.0144 = -0.3144$$
 (60)

$$w_3^{\text{new}} = 0.8 - 0.1(-0.108) = 0.8 + 0.0108 = 0.8108$$
 (61)

$$b^{\text{new}} = 0.2 - 0.1(-0.180) = 0.2 + 0.018 = 0.218 \tag{62}$$

5 Comparison: Linear vs Logistic Regression

5.1 Key Differences

5.2 Similarities

Both models share:

Aspect	Linear Regression	Logistic Regression
Activation Function	f(z) = z (identity)	$f(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$ (sigmoid)
Output Range	$(-\infty, +\infty)$	(0,1)
Output Interpretation	Continuous value	Probability
Loss Function	MSE: $\frac{1}{2}(y-t)^2$	BCE: $-[t \log y + (1-t) \log(1-y)]$
$\frac{\partial L}{\partial z}$	z-t	y-t
Use Case	Regression	Binary Classification

Table 1: Comparison of Linear and Logistic Regression

- Same neuron architecture with weights and bias
- Same gradient descent update rules
- Linear combination of inputs: $z = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b$
- Similar parameter gradient forms: $(error) \times (input)$

6 Multi-Example Training

6.1 Batch Gradient Descent

For a dataset with m examples, we average the gradients:

6.1.1 Linear Regression

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} (z^{(j)} - t^{(j)}) x_i^{(j)}$$
(63)

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} (z^{(j)} - t^{(j)}) \tag{64}$$

6.1.2 Logistic Regression

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} (y^{(j)} - t^{(j)}) x_i^{(j)}$$
(65)

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m} (y^{(j)} - t^{(j)}) \tag{66}$$

6.2 Extended Example: Multiple Training Points

Let's train both models on multiple data points:

6.2.1 Linear Regression Dataset

Example 1:
$$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = (2.0, 1.5, -0.5)^T$$
, $t^{(1)} = 3.2$ (67)

Example 2:
$$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = (1.0, -1.0, 2.0)^T, \quad t^{(2)} = 1.8$$
 (68)

Example 3:
$$\mathbf{x}^{(3)} = (-0.5, 0.8, 1.2)^T, \quad t^{(3)} = 0.5$$
 (69)

6.2.2 Forward Pass for All Examples

Using initial parameters $\mathbf{w} = (0.5, -0.3, 0.8)^T$, b = 0.2:

Example 1:

$$z^{(1)} = 0.5(2.0) + (-0.3)(1.5) + 0.8(-0.5) + 0.2 = 0.35$$
(70)

$$y^{(1)} = z^{(1)} = 0.35 (71)$$

Example 2:

$$z^{(2)} = 0.5(1.0) + (-0.3)(-1.0) + 0.8(2.0) + 0.2 = 2.6$$
(72)

$$y^{(2)} = z^{(2)} = 2.6 (73)$$

Example 3:

$$z^{(3)} = 0.5(-0.5) + (-0.3)(0.8) + 0.8(1.2) + 0.2 = 0.915$$
(74)

$$y^{(3)} = z^{(3)} = 0.915 (75)$$

6.2.3 Batch Gradient Calculation

Error terms:

$$e^{(1)} = z^{(1)} - t^{(1)} = 0.35 - 3.2 = -2.85 (76)$$

$$e^{(2)} = z^{(2)} - t^{(2)} = 2.6 - 1.8 = 0.8$$
 (77)

$$e^{(3)} = z^{(3)} - t^{(3)} = 0.915 - 0.5 = 0.415$$
(78)

Weight gradients (averaged over 3 examples):

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_1} = \frac{1}{3} [(-2.85)(2.0) + (0.8)(1.0) + (0.415)(-0.5)] \tag{79}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}[-5.7 + 0.8 - 0.2075] = \frac{-5.1075}{3} = -1.702 \tag{80}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_2} = \frac{1}{3} [(-2.85)(1.5) + (0.8)(-1.0) + (0.415)(0.8)] \tag{81}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}[-4.275 - 0.8 + 0.332] = \frac{-4.743}{3} = -1.581$$
 (82)

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_3} = \frac{1}{3} [(-2.85)(-0.5) + (0.8)(2.0) + (0.415)(1.2)] \tag{83}$$

$$= \frac{1}{3}[1.425 + 1.6 + 0.498] = \frac{3.523}{3} = 1.174 \tag{84}$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \frac{1}{3} [(-2.85) + (0.8) + (0.415)] \tag{85}$$

$$=\frac{-1.635}{3} = -0.545\tag{86}$$

6.2.4 Parameter Updates

Using $\alpha = 0.1$:

$$w_1^{\text{new}} = 0.5 - 0.1(-1.702) = 0.5 + 0.1702 = 0.670$$
(87)

$$w_2^{\text{new}} = -0.3 - 0.1(-1.581) = -0.3 + 0.1581 = -0.142$$
(88)

$$w_3^{\text{new}} = 0.8 - 0.1(1.174) = 0.8 - 0.1174 = 0.683$$
 (89)

$$b^{\text{new}} = 0.2 - 0.1(-0.545) = 0.2 + 0.0545 = 0.255 \tag{90}$$

7 Implementation Considerations

7.1 Learning Rate Selection

- Too high: Oscillation, divergence, overshooting minimum
- Too low: Slow convergence, many iterations needed
- Typical values: 0.001 to 0.1
- Adaptive methods: Adam, RMSprop adjust learning rate automatically

7.2 Convergence Criteria

Stop training when:

- Loss change between iterations $< \epsilon$ (e.g., $\epsilon = 10^{-6}$)
- Maximum number of iterations reached
- Gradient magnitude $< \epsilon$

7.3 Numerical Stability

7.3.1 Logistic Regression

For very large |z|, direct computation of $\sigma(z)$ can cause:

- Overflow: When z is very positive
- Underflow: When z is very negative

Stable implementations use:

$$\log(\sigma(z)) = \begin{cases} -\log(1 + e^{-z}) & \text{if } z \ge 0\\ z - \log(1 + e^{z}) & \text{if } z < 0 \end{cases}$$
(91)

8 Summary and Key Takeaways

8.1 Mathematical Framework

Both linear and logistic regression follow the same fundamental pattern:

- 1. Forward pass: Compute $z = \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b$, then y = f(z)
- 2. Loss computation: Evaluate appropriate loss function
- 3. Backward pass: Compute $\frac{\partial L}{\partial z}$
- 4. Gradients: $\frac{\partial L}{\partial w_i} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z} \cdot x_i, \ \frac{\partial L}{\partial b} = \frac{\partial L}{\partial z}$
- 5. Updates: $\theta \leftarrow \theta \alpha \nabla_{\theta} L$

8.2 Key Insights

- The choice of activation function and loss function determines the model type
- Gradient computation follows the chain rule consistently
- Both models have closed-form gradient expressions
- The error term $\frac{\partial L}{\partial z}$ has elegant forms in both cases
- Parameter updates follow identical patterns regardless of model type

8.3 Practical Applications

- Linear regression: House prices, stock predictions, temperature forecasting
- Logistic regression: Email spam detection, medical diagnosis, marketing response

This mathematical foundation extends naturally to multi-layer networks where the same principles apply layer by layer through the backpropagation algorithm.