

CONTENTS



LOGISTIC REGRESSION OVERVIEW



NEURAL NETWORK OVERVIEW



ACTIVATION FUNCTIONS

LOGISTIC REGRESSION OVERVIEW

- models the probabilities for classification problems with two possible outcomes
- Extension -> Linear Regression model for classification problems
- Linear model does not output probabilities→ treats classes as numbers (0 and 1)
- Linear model -> no meaningful threshold at which you can distinguish one class from the other
- Logistic Regression uses→ logistic function (SIGMOID) → output of a linear equation between 0 and 1

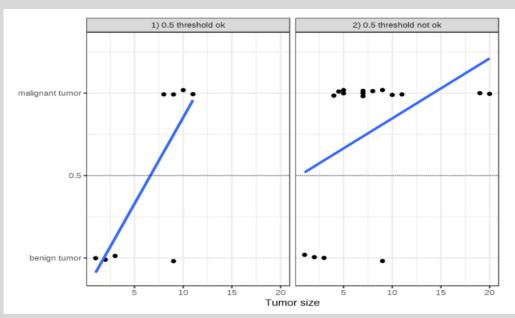


Figure a: Classification using Linear Regression

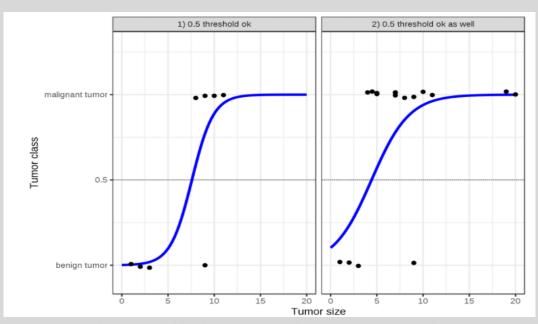
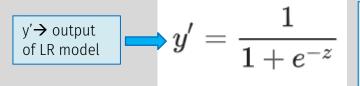


Figure b: Classification between malignant & benign depending on Tumor size based on threshold = 0.5 using Logistic Regression

SIGMOID/LOGISTIC FUNCTION

- ensure output that always falls between 0 and 1
- For example: predict if a dog will bark during the middle of the night using LR model



z/ logit → output of linear layer of model trained using Logistic Regression

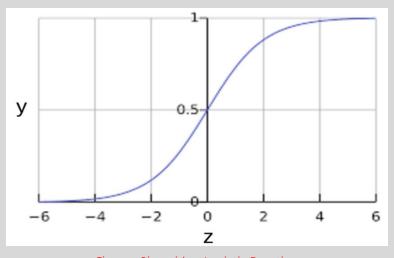
y' or sigmoid(z) yields→ probability between 0 and 1

$$z = b + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2 + \ldots + w_N x_N$$

b-bias

w-model's learned weights

x- feature values



 $y = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$

Sigmoid Function Equation

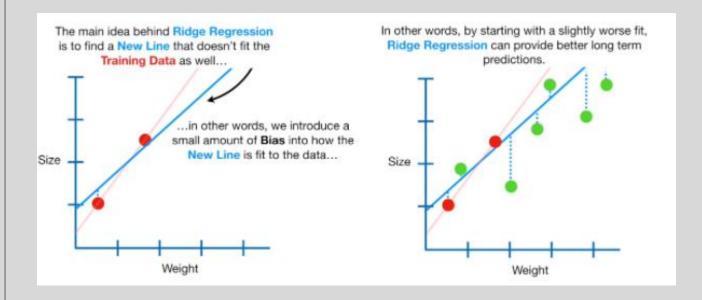
log-odds ratio

$$z = \log \left(\frac{y}{1-y} \right)$$

Inverse of sigmoid, z can be defined as log of probability of label 1 (dog barks) divided by probability of label 0 (dog doesn't bark)

LOGISTIC REGRESSION & REGULARIZATION

- ∘ Important for Logistic Regression → too many dimensions overfitting
- L2 regularization (L2 weight decay) → penalizes huge weights → Ridge regression
- L2 penalizes \rightarrow (weight)²
- Early stopping → limiting training steps or learning rate



$$\hat{p} = h_{\theta}(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma(\mathbf{x}^{\intercal}\theta)$$

Estimated probability for LR model

$$J(\theta) = \text{MSE}(\theta) + \alpha \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \theta_i^2$$

Ridge regression cost function with regularization term

σ→ Sigmoid function

 $\theta \rightarrow$ Bias term

x→ feature value

 $\alpha \rightarrow$ hyperparameter controls regularization

MSE→ Mean Squared Error

SOFTMAX REGRESSION/ MULTINOMIAL LOGISTIC REGRESSION

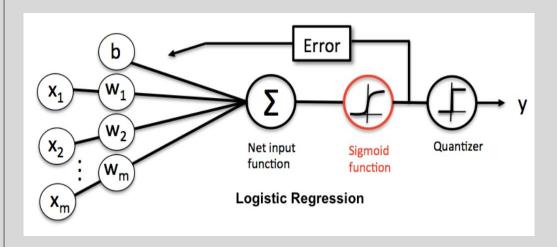
- Logistic Regression model can be generalized to support multiple classes directly
- when given an instance x, the Softmax Regression model first computes a score s_k(x) for each class k, then estimates the probability of each class by applying the softmax function (normalized exponential) to the scores
- estimate the probability p_k that the instance belongs to class k by running the scores through the softmax function
- function computes the exponential of every score, then normalizes them (dividing by the sum of all the exponentials)

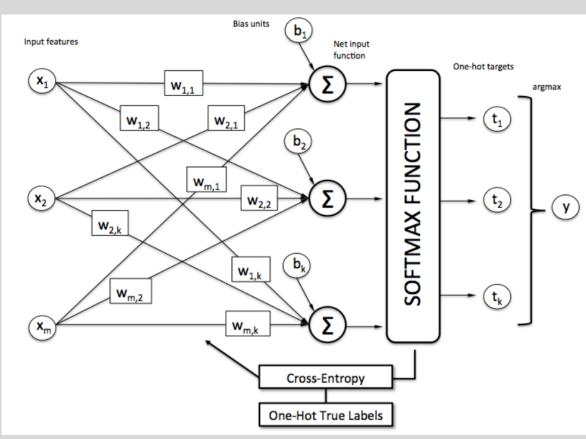
$$\hat{p}_k = \sigma(s(\mathbf{x}))_k = \frac{\exp(s_k(\mathbf{x}))}{\sum_{j=1}^K \exp(s_j(\mathbf{x}))}$$

In this equation:

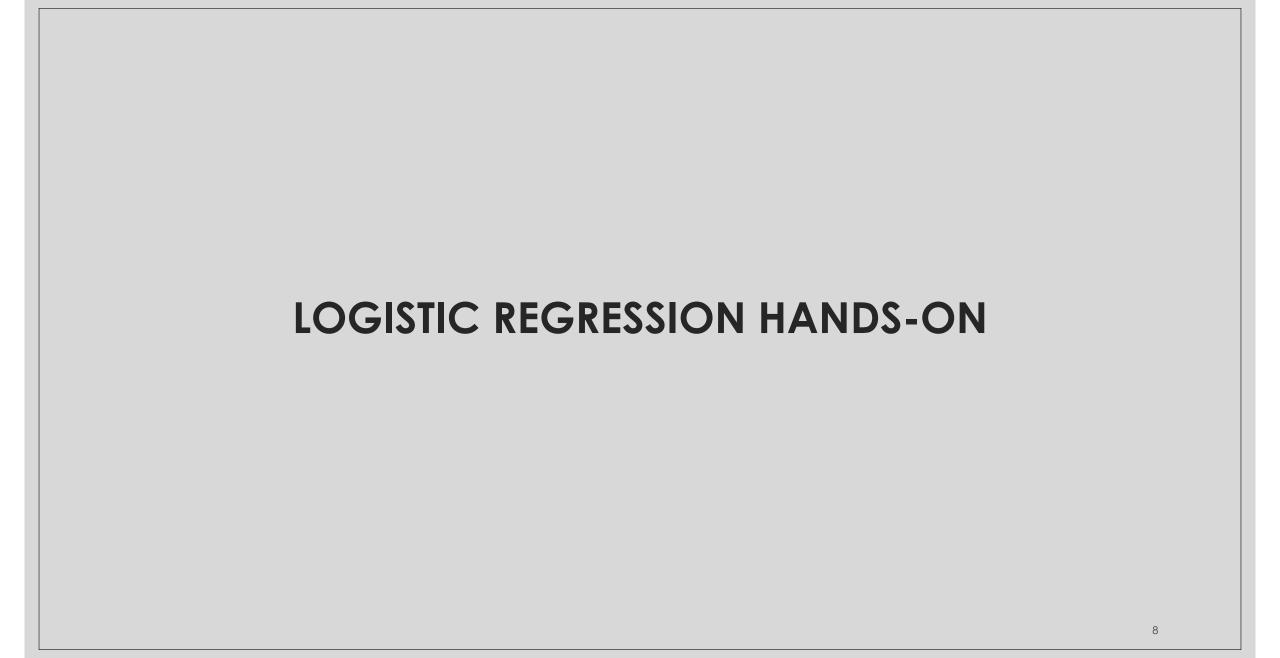
- K is the number of classes.
- s(x) is a vector containing the scores of each class for the instance x.
- σ(s(x))_k is the estimated probability that the instance x belongs to class k, given the scores of each class for that instance.

LOGISTIC REGRESSION VS. MULTINOMIAL LOGISTIC REGRESSION

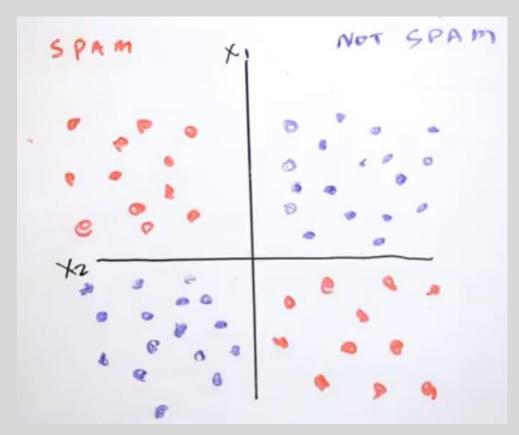




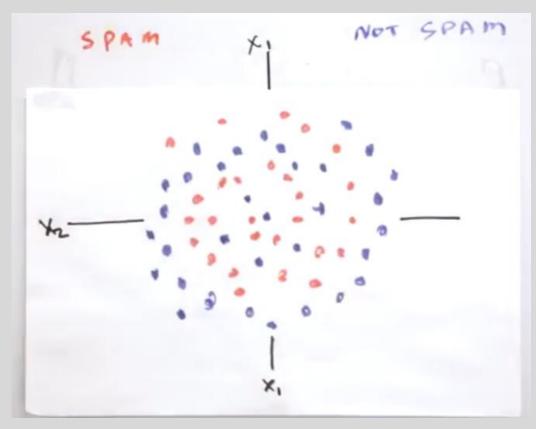
Multi-class Logistic Regression / SoftMax Regression



WHY DO WE NEED NEURAL NETWORKS?



Simple non-linear problem



Complex non-linear problem

SHALLOW NEURAL NETWORKS OVERVIEW

Perceptron is one of the simplest Artificial Neural Network (ANN) architectures, invented in 1957 by Frank Rosenblatt.

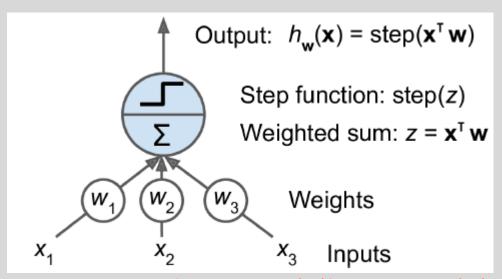


Figure a: Simple Perceptron/Threshold Logic Unit (TLU)/Linear Threshold Unit (LTU)

Weighted sum of inputs: $z = w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 + \cdots + w_nx_n = x^Tw$

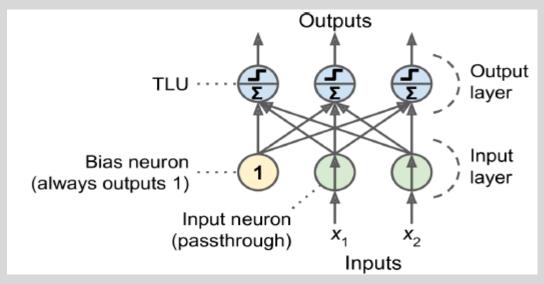


Figure b: Simple Perceptron with 2 input neurons, one bias neuron & 3 output neurons

$$h_{\mathbf{W},\,\mathbf{b}}(\mathbf{X}) = \phi(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{W} + \mathbf{b})$$

W→ Weight matrix

b→ Bias vector

X→ feature matrix

 $\phi \rightarrow$ activation function

PERCEPTRON LEARNING RULE (WEIGHT UPDATE)

- Inspired by the biological neuron
- Hebbian Learning
- Takes into account the error made by the network when it makes a prediction
- reinforces connections that help reduce the error
- Perceptron is fed one training instance at a time, and for each instance it makes its predictions
- every output neuron that produced a wrong prediction > update the weights

$$w_{i,j}^{\text{(next step)}} = w_{i,j} + \eta (y_j - \hat{y}_j) x_i$$

In this equation:

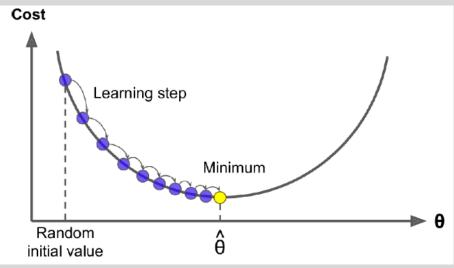
- $w_{i,j}$ is the connection weight between the i^{th} input neuron and the j^{th} output neuron.
- x_i is the i^{th} input value of the current training instance.
- \hat{y}_{j} is the output of the j^{th} output neuron for the current training instance.
- y_i is the target output of the j^{th} output neuron for the current training instance.
- η is the learning rate.

GRADIENT DESCENT

- generic optimization algorithm capable of finding optimal solutions to a wide range of problems
- Tweak parameters iteratively in order to minimize a cost function (loss or error of a MLP)
- measures the local gradient of the error function w.r.t the parameter vector θ, and it goes in the direction of descending gradient
- Once the gradient is zero, you have reached a minimum
- start by filling θ with random values → random initialization
- improve it gradually, taking one baby step at a time, each step attempting to decrease the cost function, until the algorithm converges to a minimum.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta_j} \text{MSE}(\boldsymbol{\theta}) = \frac{2}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \left(\boldsymbol{\theta}^\intercal \mathbf{x}^{(i)} - \boldsymbol{y}^{(i)} \right) \boldsymbol{x}_j^{(i)}$$

Partial derivative of cost function



EFFECT OF LEARNING RATE ON GRADIENT DESCENT

- important parameter in Gradient Descent is the size of the steps
- Step_size determined by learning rate (Ir) of the algorithm
- Ir stable: converge smoothly, avoid local minima
- Ir too small: many iterations, long time to converge
- Ir too high:
- less iterations, short time, overshoot
- jump across the valley and end up on the other side, possibly even higher up than you were before
- algorithm diverge, with larger and larger values→ fail to find a good solution

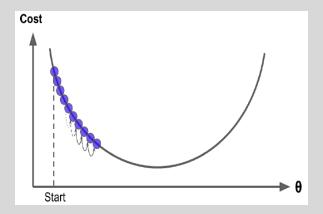


Figure a : Learning Rate too low

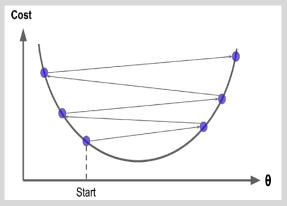


Figure b: Learning Rate too high

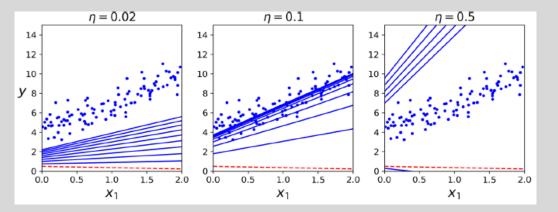


Figure c: Gradient Descent with various learning rates

TWO MAIN CHALLENGES OF GRADIENT DESCENT

- Problems: [1] Local minimum & [2] Plateau
- Random initialization of algorithm→ local minimum
- Small learning rate converges slowly → false local minimum
- If it starts on the right, then it will take a very long time to cross the plateau
- if you stop too early, you will never reach the **global minimum**
- Gradient descent→ ensure all features have a similar scale→ else longer time to converge

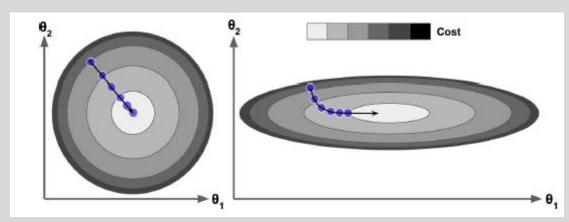


Figure b: Gradient Descent with (left) and without (right) feature scaling. Feature 1 has smaller values than feature 2.

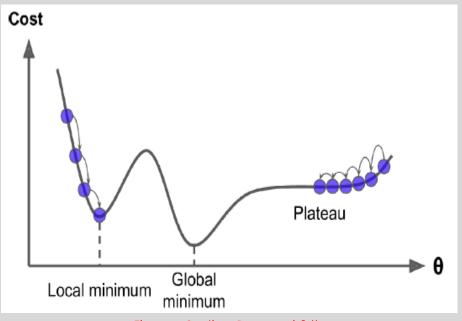
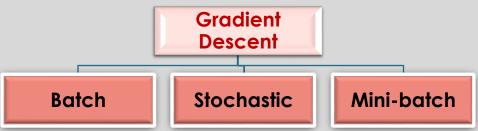


Figure a: Gradient Descent pitfalls

FLAVORS OF GRADIENT DESCENT



Batch/Full Gradient Descent:

uses the whole batch of training data at every step→ slow for large datasets

Stochastic Gradient Descent:

- picks a random instance in the training set at every step and computes the gradients based only on that single instance > faster for large datasets
- Random nature > the cost function will bounce up and down, decreasing only on average
- ∘ once it gets to the minimum, there it will continue to bounce around, never settling down → good but not optimal
- ensure to shuffle the instances during training such that they are not sorted by label

Mini-batch Gradient Descent:

- computes the gradients on small random sets of instances called mini-batches
- Performance boost, less erratic with larger mini-batches

MULTI-LAYER PERCEPTRON & BACKPROPAGATION

- In 1986, David Rumelhart, Geoffrey Hinton, and Ronald Williams published a paper→ backpropagation (Gradient Descent)
- Gradient descent→ efficient technique for computing the gradients automatically
- Forward and backward passes
- backpropagation algorithm > compute the gradient of the network's error with regard to every single model parameter
- how each connection weight and each bias term should be tweaked in order to reduce the error
- performs a regular Gradient Descent step
- process is repeated until the network converges to the solution

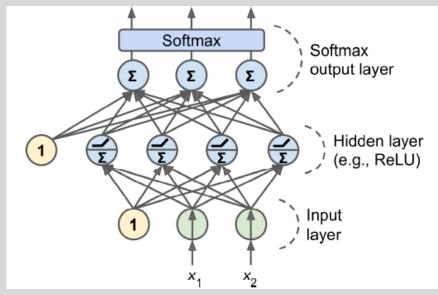


Figure: Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) with backpropagation & bias neurons

BACKPROPAGATION TRAINING ALGORITHM FOR MLP

Input layer:

- 1) One mini-batch at a time (e.g. 64 instances)
- 2) Go through full train set multiple times
- 3) Each pass is an **epoch**

Hidden layer(s):

- 1) Pass mini-batch to hidden layer
- 2) Output of all neurons passed to next layer until it reaches output layer

Output layer:

- 1) Make predictions for each mini-batch
- 2) Measure the error by comparing desired output and generated output
- 3) Compute how much error each output connection has contributed

Backpropagation:

1) Backpropagate the error gradient until input layer of the network

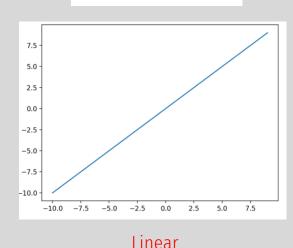
Gradient Descent:

- 1) Tweak all connection weights in network using the error gradients
- 2) Restart the training process

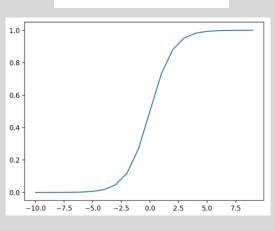
ACTIVATION/TRANSFER/SQUASHING FUNCTION

 defines how the weighted sum of the input is transformed into an output from a node or nodes in a layer of the network

$$f(x) = w^T x + b$$

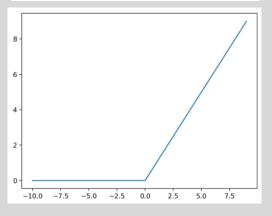


$$f(x) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \overline{(1 + exp^{-x})} \end{array} \right)$$



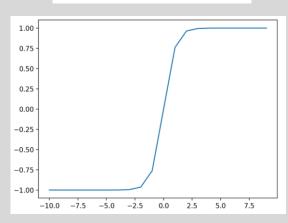
Sigmoid

$$f(x) = max(0, x) = \begin{cases} x_i, & \text{if } x_i \ge 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } x_i < 0 \end{cases}$$



Rectified Linear Unit(ReLU)

$$f(x) = \left(\frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}\right)$$



Hyperbolic Tangent (Tanh)

COMMON ACTIVATION FUNCTIONS

Linear

 $f(x) = w^T x + b$

- "identity" (multiplied by 1.0) or "no activation"
- does not change the weighted sum of the input in any way and instead returns the value directly

Sigmoid/ Logistic

- logistic function→ S-Shaped
- takes any real value as input and outputs values in the range 0 to 1
- Larger input→ positive→ close to 1 and vice versa

$$f(x) = \left(\begin{array}{c} 1 \\ \overline{(1 + exp^{-x})} \end{array} \right)$$

Softmax

- outputs a vector of values that sum to 1.0 that can be interpreted as probabilities of class membership
- "softer" version of argmax
- argmax function that outputs a 0 for all options and 1 for the chosen option.
- allows a probability-like output of a winner-take-all function

Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)

- Common for Hidden layers
- $Max(0,x) \rightarrow input value(x)$ is negative, then a value 0 is returned, otherwise, the value is returned

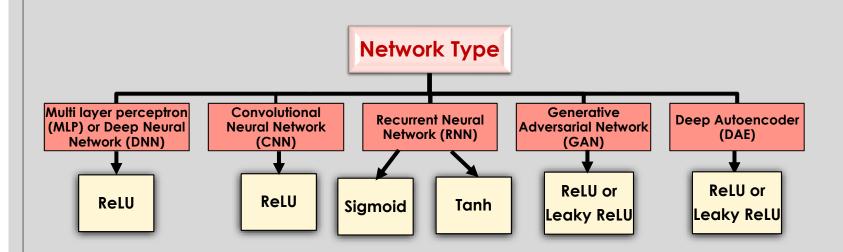
$$f(x) = max(0, x) = \begin{cases} x_i, & \text{if } x_i \ge 0 \\ 0, & \text{if } x_i < 0 \end{cases}$$

Hyperbolic Tangent (Tanh)

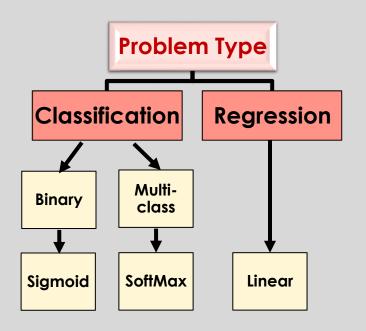
- S-shape, range between -1 to +1
- Larger input \rightarrow positive \rightarrow close to 1 and vice versa $f(x) = \left(\frac{e^x e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}\right)$

$$f(x) = \left(\frac{e^x - e^{-x}}{e^x + e^{-x}}\right)$$

HOW TO CHOOSE AN ACTIVATION FUNCTION



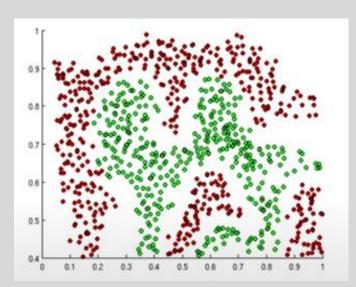
Choosing for a Hidden Layer



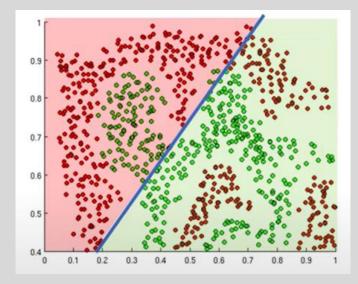
Choosing for an Output Layer

IMPORTANCE OF ACTIVATION FUNCTIONS

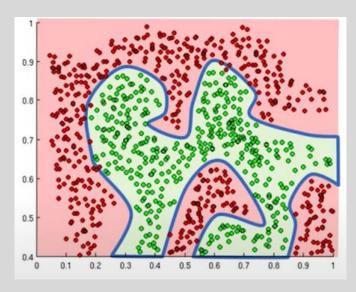
- Non-linear function
- perform complex computations in the hidden layers and then transfer the result to the output layer
- Introduce non-linearities into the network



Identify spam (red) and non-spam (green)

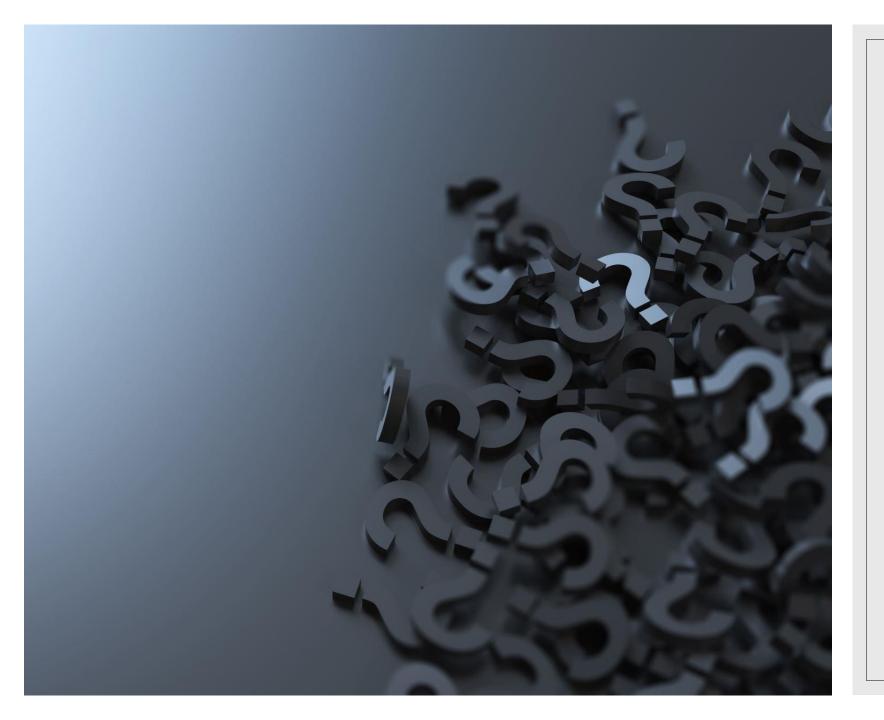


Linear activation functions produce linear decisions no matter the size of the network



Non-linearities allow us to approximate complex functions





THANKS!

Do you have any questions?