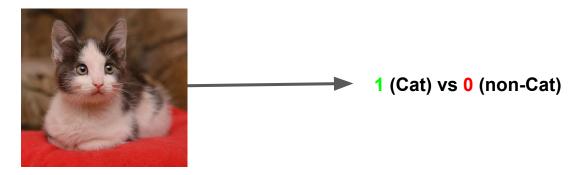
### **Neural Networks Basics**

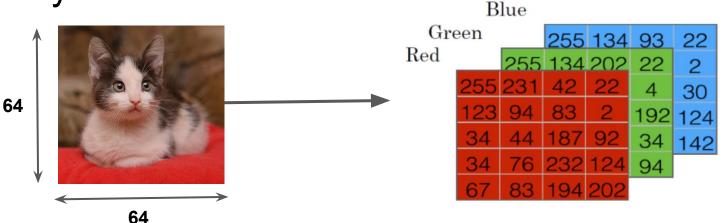
CSE 4237 - Soft Computing

Mir Tafseer Nayeem
Faculty Member, CSE AUST tafseer.nayeem@gmail.com

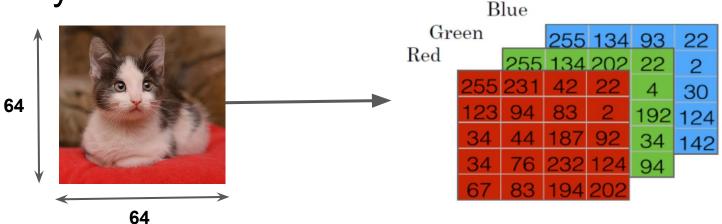


#### **Example:** Cat vs Non-Cat

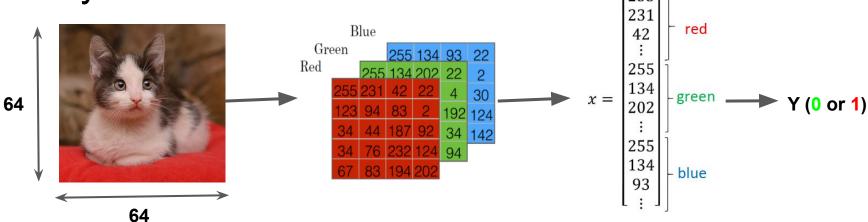
- The goal is to train a classifier with an input image represented by a feature vector x.
- To predict whether the corresponding label y is 1 or 0.
- In this case, whether this is a cat image (1) or a non-cat image (0).



- An image is stored in the computer in three separate matrices corresponding to the Red,
   Green, and Blue color channels of the image.
- The three matrices have the same size as the image, for example, the resolution of the cat image is 64 pixels X 64 pixels, the three matrices (RGB) are 64 X 64 each.



• The value in a cell represents the pixel intensity which will be used to create a feature vector of n dimension. In pattern recognition and machine learning, a feature vector represents an object, in this case, a cat or no cat.



To create a feature vector, x, the pixel intensity values will be "unroll" or "reshape" for each color. The dimension of the input feature vector x is  $n_x = 64 \times 64 \times 3 = 12 \times 288$ .

### Logistic Regression

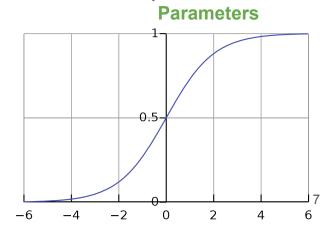
- Logistic regression is a learning algorithm used in a supervised learning problem when the output y are all either zero or one.
- The goal of logistic regression is to minimize the error between its predictions and training data.
- Given an image represented by a feature vector *x*, the algorithm will evaluate the probability of a cat being in that image.

Given x, 
$$\hat{y} = P(y = 1|x)$$
, where  $0 \le \hat{y} \le 1$ 

### Logistic Regression

The parameters used in Logistic regression are:

- The input features vector:  $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$ , where  $n_x$  is the number of features
- The training label:  $y \in 0,1$
- The weights:  $w \in \mathbb{R}^{n_x}$ , where  $n_x$  is the number of features
- The bias  $b \in \mathbb{R}$
- The output:  $\hat{y} = \sigma(w^T x + b)$
- Sigmoid function:  $s = \sigma(w^T x + b) = \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$



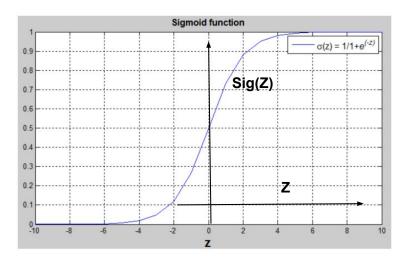
Content Credit: Andrew Ng

### Logistic Regression : Role of bias (b)

- The bias value allows the activation function to be shifted to the left or right, to better fit the data.
- Changes to the weights **alter the steepness of the sigmoid curve**, whilst the bias offsets it, shifting the entire curve so it fits better.
- Bias only influences the output values, it doesn't interact with the actual input data.
   That's why it is called bias.
- You can think of the bias as a measure of how easy it is to get a node to fire.
  - o **For a node with a large bias**, the output will tend to be intrinsically high, with small positive weights and inputs producing large positive outputs (near to 1).
  - Biases can be also negative, leading to sigmoid outputs near to 0.
  - If the bias is very small (or 0), the output will be decided by the values of weights and inputs alone.

### Logistic Regression

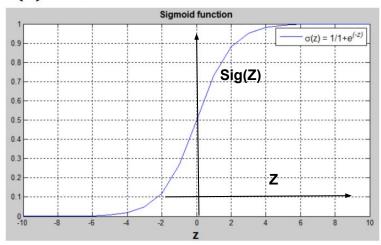
- (wTx + b) is a linear function like (ax + b), but since we are looking for a probability constraint between [0,1], the sigmoid function is used.
- The function is bounded between [0,1] as shown in the graph below.



## Logistic Regression

#### Some observations from the graph:

- If z is a large positive number, then  $\sigma(z) = 1$
- If z is small or large negative number, then  $\sigma(z) = 0$
- If z = 0, then  $\sigma(z) = 0.5$



### Logistic Regression: Cost Function

• To train the parameters w and b, we need to define a cost function.

$$\hat{y}^{(i)} = \sigma(w^T x^{(i)} + b), \text{ where } \sigma(z^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z^{(i)}}}$$

$$Given \{ (x^{(1)}, y^{(1)}), \cdots, (x^{(m)}, y^{(m)}) \}, \text{ we want } \hat{y}^{(i)} \approx y^{(i)}$$

 $x^{(i)}$  the i-th training example

#### **Loss (error) function:**

- Loss function measures the discrepancy between the prediction  $(\hat{y}(i))$  and the desired output (y(i)).
- In other words, the loss function computes the error for a single training example.

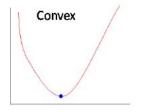
### Error / Loss Function

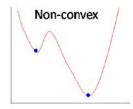
Squared Error Function: 
$$L(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{y}^{(i)} - y^{(i)})^2$$

- We can see an extra (1/2) in the right side of the equation. Does it matter?
- It is because when you take the derivative of the cost function, that is used in updating the parameters during gradient descent, that 2 in the power get cancelled with the (1/2) multiplier.
- These techniques are or somewhat similar are widely used in math in order "To make the derivations mathematically more convenient".

### Is squared error function a good choice?

- The squared error function (*commonly used function for linear regression*) is not very suitable for logistic regression.
  - o In case of logistic regression, the hypothesis / prediction is non-linear (sigmoid function), which makes the square error function to be non-convex.
  - On the other hand, logarithmic function is a convex function for which there is no local optima, so gradient descent works well.
- If you are doing binary classification, squared error function generally also penalize examples that are correctly classified but are still near the decision boundary, thus creating a "margin."
- Gradient descent waste a lot of time getting predictions very close to {0, 1}





### Logistic Regression: Cross Entropy Loss

$$L(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) = -(y^{(i)}\log(\hat{y}^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)})\log(1 - \hat{y}^{(i)}))$$

- If  $y^{(i)} = 1$ :  $L(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) = -\log(\hat{y}^{(i)})$  where  $\log(\hat{y}^{(i)})$  and  $\hat{y}^{(i)}$  should be close to 1
- If  $y^{(i)} = 0$ :  $L(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) = -\log(1 \hat{y}^{(i)})$  where  $\log(1 \hat{y}^{(i)})$  and  $\hat{y}^{(i)}$  should be close to 0

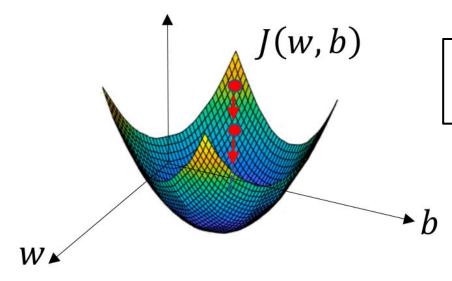
#### Cost function

• The cost function is the average of the loss function of the entire training set. We are going to find the parameters *w* and *b* that minimize the overall cost function.

$$J(w,b) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} L(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) = -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} [(y^{(i)} \log(\hat{y}^{(i)}) + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - \hat{y}^{(i)})]$$

Recap: 
$$\hat{y} = \sigma(w^T x + b)$$
,  $\sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$ 

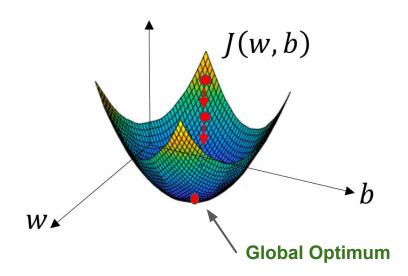
$$J(w, b) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} \mathcal{L}(\hat{y}^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) = -\frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} y^{(i)} \log \hat{y}^{(i)} + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - \hat{y}^{(i)})$$



We want to find parameters **W**, **b** that minimize **J(W**, **b)** 

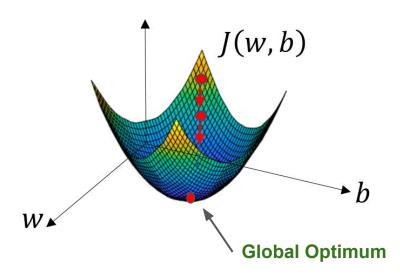
- Our cost function is convex.
- First we initialize w and b to 0,0 or initialize them to a random value in the convex function and then try to improve the values the reach minimum value.
- In Logistic regression people always use 0,0 instead of random.
- This function is convex, no matter where you initialize you should get to the global optimal point or roughly close the global optimal point.

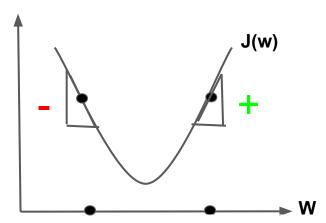
We want to parameters **W**, **b** that minimize **J(W**, **b)** 



- Gradient starts at the initial point and take a step in the steepest downhill direction after each iteration.
- It will try to reach to the global optimum or somewhere near to the global optimum.

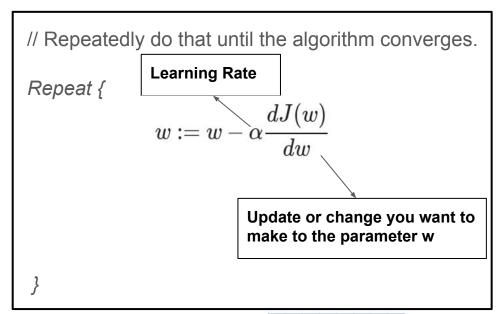
We want to parameters **W, b** that minimize **J(W, b)** 

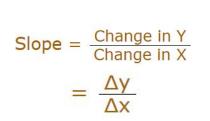


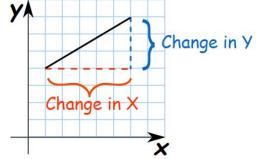


Ignore **b** for now to make it a one dimensional plot rather than a higher dimensional plot.

- $\alpha$  = **Learning Rate**: How bigger step we choose at each iteration of gradient descent.
- Definition of a derivative:
  - Slope of a function at a point.





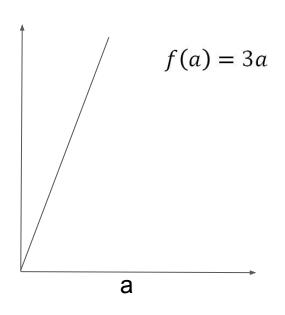


### Gradient Descent : Actual Update Rule

We want to parameters **W**, **b** that minimize **J(W**, **b)** 

J(w,b) 
$$w:=w-lpharac{\partial J(w,b)}{\partial w}$$
  $b:=b-lpharac{\partial J(w,b)}{\partial b}$ 

### **Derivatives: Intuition**



Slope (derivative) of f(a) at a = 2 is 3

• a = 5 f(a) = 15 a = 5.001 f(a) = 15.003 If we shift **a** by 0.001 then **f** (**a**) shift by 3 times 0.001.

Slope (derivative) of f(a) at a = 5 is also 3

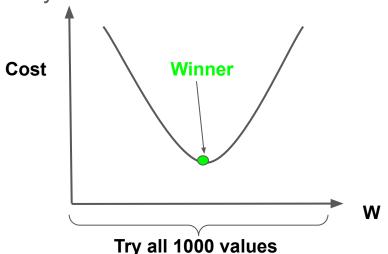
$$\frac{d f(a)}{da} = 3$$

What does 
$$\frac{d}{dx}x^2 = 2x$$
 mean?

The slope or "rate of change" at any point is **2x**.

### Do we actually need Gradient Descent?

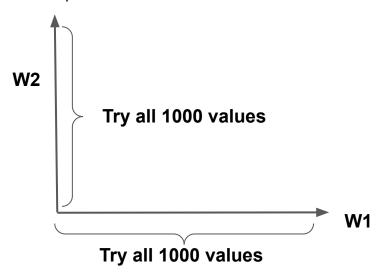
• Let's pretend that we only have 1 weight. To find the ideal value of our weight that will minimize our cost, we need to try a bunch of values for W, let's say we test 1000 values. That doesn't seem so bad, after all, my computer is pretty fast.



- It takes about 0.04 seconds to check 1000 different weight values for our neural network.
- Since we've computed the cost for a wide range values of W, we can just pick the one with the smallest cost.

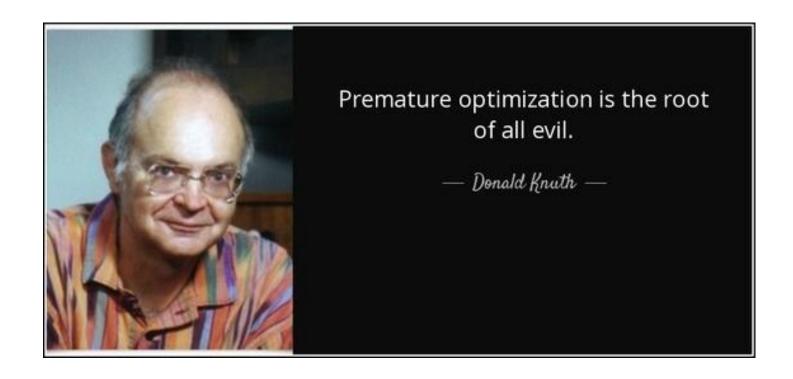
### Do we actually need Gradient Descent?

Let's next consider 2 weights for a moment.
 To maintain the same precision we now need to check 1000 times 1000, or one million values. This is a lot of work, even for a fast computer.



- After our 1 million evaluations we've found our solution, but it took an agonizing 40 seconds!
   Searching through three weights would take a billion evaluations, or 11 hours!
- Searching through all 9 weights we need for our simple network would take 1,268,391,679,350,583.5 years. (Over a quadrillion years). So for that reason, the "just try everything" or brute force optimization method is clearly not going to work.

### A Famous Quote



### Computation Graph

- Neural Networks are organized in terms of a forward pass or backward pass.
- Forward Pass / Propagation
  - Which we compute the output of the neural network
- Backward Pass / Propagation
  - Which we use to compute gradients / derivatives

#### Computation Graph

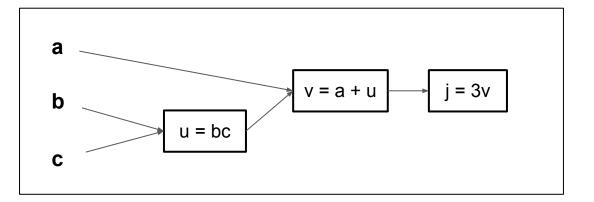
Explains why it is organized in this way.

### **Computation Graph**

$$J(a, b, c) = 3(a + bc)$$

#### 3 steps of computation:

- $1. \quad u = bc$
- 2. v = a + u
- 3. j = 3v



$$z = w^T x + b$$

$$\hat{y} = a = \sigma(z)$$

$$\mathcal{L}(a, y) = -(y \log(a) + (1 - y) \log(1 - a))$$

$$x_1$$

$$x_2$$

$$x_2$$

$$x_2$$

$$x_3$$

$$x_4$$

$$x_2$$

$$x_3$$

$$x_4$$

$$x_2$$

$$x_4$$

$$x_2$$

$$x_4$$

$$x_2$$

$$x_4$$

$$x_2$$

$$x_4$$

$$x_4$$

$$x_5$$

$$x_4$$

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$$x_5$$

$$x_4$$

$$x_5$$

$$x_4$$

$$x_5$$

$$x_6$$

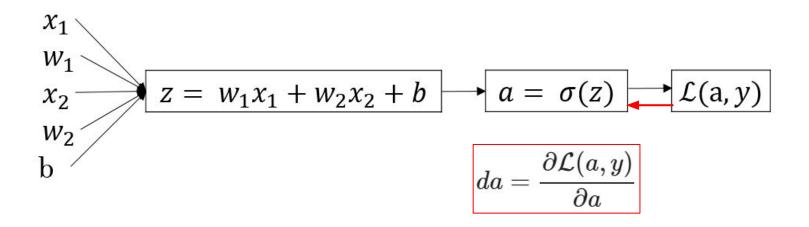
$$x_7$$

$$x_7$$

$$x_8$$

$$x_8$$

$$x_9$$



### Rules for derivatives of logarithmic expressions

$$\mathcal{L}(a, y) = -(y \log(a) + (1 - y) \log(1 - a))$$

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta x}$$
log(expression) =  $\frac{1}{\text{expression}} \cdot \frac{\delta}{\delta x}$ expression

Examples:

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta x}\log(x) = \frac{1}{x} \cdot \frac{\delta}{\delta x} x = \frac{1}{x} \cdot 1 = \frac{1}{x}$$

If you are unsure about your derivative check this <u>link</u> to generate the derivation steps.

$$\mathcal{L}(a, y) = -(y \log(a) + (1 - y) \log(1 - a))$$

#### Ignoring the (-) sign for now.

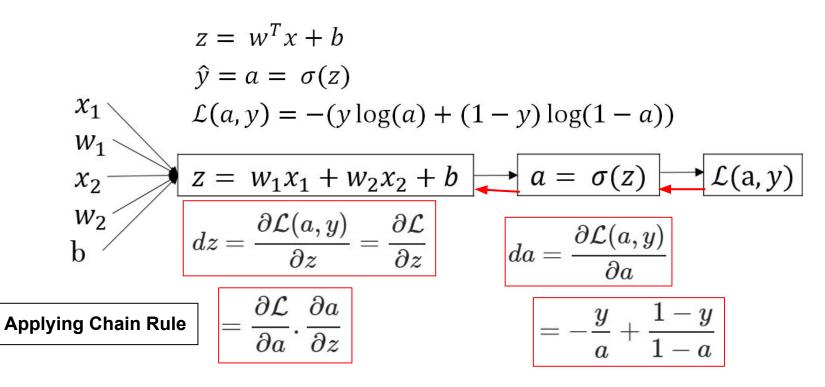
$$\frac{\frac{d}{da}[y\ln(a) + (1-y)\ln(1-a)]}{= y \cdot \frac{d}{da}[\ln(a)] + (1-y) \cdot \frac{d}{da}[\ln(1-a)]} 
= y \cdot \frac{1}{a} + (1-y) \cdot \frac{1}{1-a} \cdot \frac{d}{da}[1-a] 
= \frac{y}{a} + \frac{(1-y)(\frac{d}{da}[1] - \frac{d}{da}[a])}{1-a}$$

log (x) refers to e base log or the natural logarithm (ln(x)) in mathematical analysis, physics, chemistry, statistics, economics, and some engineering fields.

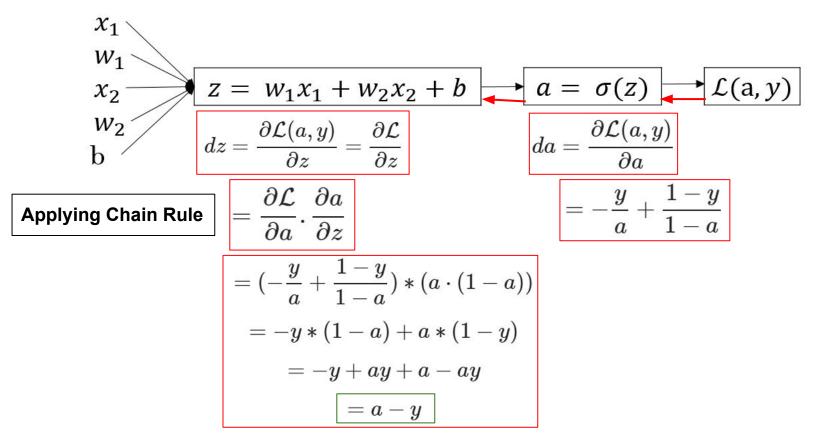
$$=rac{y}{a}+rac{(1-y)\left(rac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}a}[1]-rac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}a}[a]
ight)}{1-a}$$
 $=rac{y}{a}+rac{(1-y)\left(0-1
ight)}{1-a}$ 
 $=rac{y}{a}+rac{y-1}{1-a}$  Finally,  $y=1-y$ 

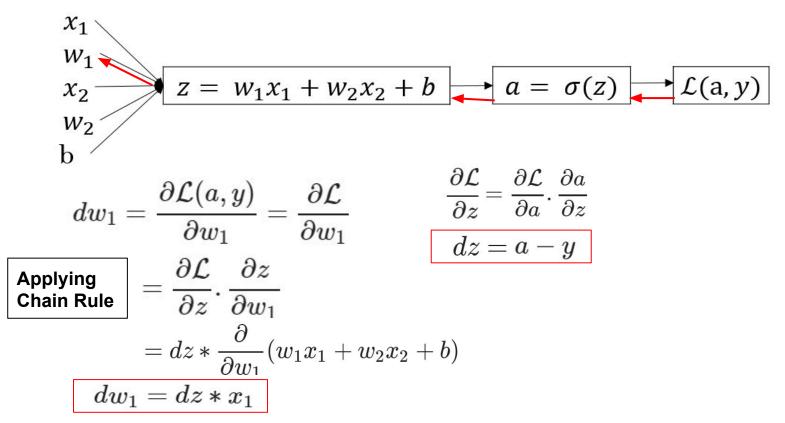
Finally, adding the (-) sign.

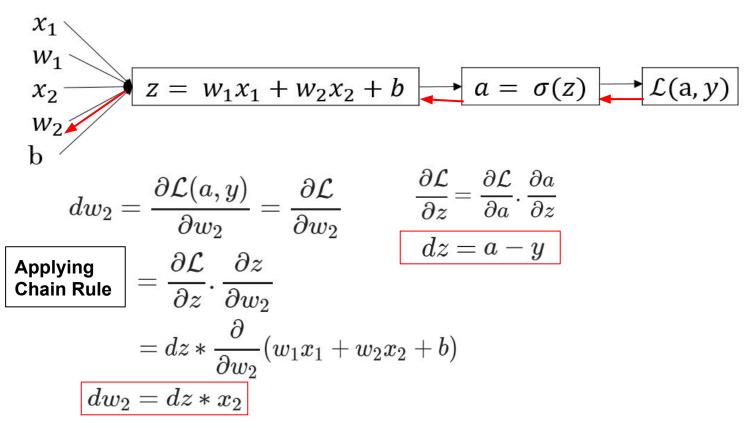
$$= -\frac{y}{a} + \frac{1-y}{1-a}$$

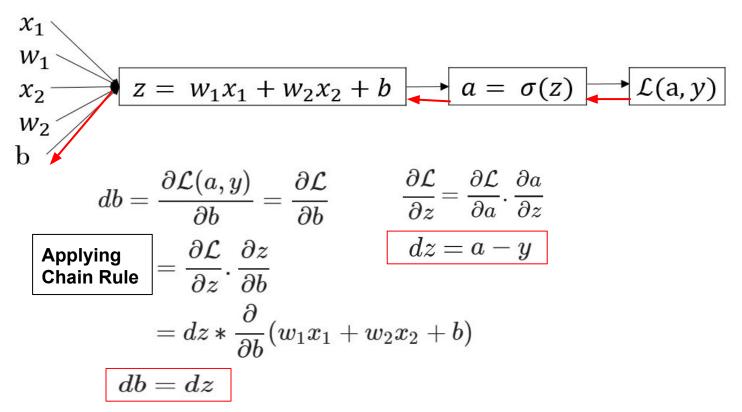


$$\frac{\partial a}{\partial z} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \sigma(z) \qquad \qquad a = \sigma(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \\
= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left[ \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \right] \qquad = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \cdot \frac{(1 + e^{-z}) - 1}{1 + e^{-z}} \\
= \frac{\partial}{\partial z} (1 + e^{-z})^{-1} \qquad = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \cdot \left( \frac{1 + e^{-z}}{1 + e^{-z}} - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \right) \\
= \frac{e^{-z}}{(1 + e^{-z})^2} \qquad = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \cdot \left( 1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \right) \\
= \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}} \cdot \frac{e^{-z}}{1 + e^{-z}} \qquad = \sigma(z) \cdot (1 - \sigma(z)) \\
= \sigma(z) \cdot (1 - a)$$









### Updating the Parameters: w1, w2 and b

This is one step of Gradient Descent on a single example.

$$w_1 := w_1 - \alpha * dw_1$$
 $w_2 := w_2 - \alpha * dw_2$ 
 $b := b - \alpha * db$ 

**Learning Rate** 

### **Basic Parameters**

x1	Feature
x2	Feature
w1	Weight of the first feature.
w2	Weight of the second feature.
b	Logistic Regression parameter (Bias).
m	Number of training examples
y(i)	Expected output of i

$$z^{(i)} = w^T x^{(i)} + b$$
  $\hat{y}^{(i)} = a^{(i)} = sigmoid(z^{(i)})$   $\mathcal{L}(a^{(i)}, y^{(i)}) = -y^{(i)} \log(a^{(i)}) - (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - a^{(i)})$   $J = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \mathcal{L}(a^{(i)}, y^{(i)})$ 

$$rac{\partial}{\partial w_1}J(w,b)=rac{1}{m}\sum_{i=1}^mrac{\partial}{\partial w_1}\mathcal{L}(a^{(i)},y^{(i)})$$

**<u>Derivatives:</u>** All it turned out as simple arithmetic operations

d(a)	- (y/a) + ((1-y) / (1-a))
d(z)	a - y
d(w1)	x1 * d(z)
d(w2)	x2 * d(z)
d(b)	d(z)

```
J = 0: dw1 = 0: dw2 = 0: db = 0:
w1 = 0; w2 = 0; b=0;
for i = 1 to m
      # Forward pass
      z(i) = w1*x1(i) + w2*x2(i) + b
      a(i) = sigmoid(z(i))
      J += (y(i)*log(a(i)) + (1-y(i))*log(1-a(i)))
      # Backward pass
      dz(i) = a(i) - y(i)
```

$$dz(i) = a(i) - y(i)$$

$$dw1 += dz(i) * x1(i)$$

$$dw2 += dz(i) * x2(i)$$

$$db += dz(i)$$

### w1 = w1 - alpha \* dw1 w2 = w2 - alpha \* dw2

# Gradient descent

b = b - *alpha* \* db

**w1**, **w2**, **b** are the accumulators and single instances for the all **m** training examples.

One iteration of gradient descent

- Previous slide is just one step of Gradient Descent, we need to repeat it multiple times in order to take multiple steps of gradient descent.
- There are **weaknesses** in the previous implementation. In order to implement we need to **write two for loops**.
- Having explicit for loops in your code make your code less efficient.
- Solution:- vectorization techniques
- To train with larger datasets we need to take the help from vectorization techniques without using for loops.

### LR Gradient descent on m examples (modified)

```
J = 0; dw1 = 0; dw2 = 0; db = 0;
                                                           dw = np.zeros((nx, 1))
w1 = 0: w2 = 0: b = 0:
for i = 1 to m
      # Forward pass
      z(i) = w1*x1(i) + w2*x2(i) + b
      a(i) = sigmoid(z(i))
      J += -(y(i)*log(a(i)) + (1-y(i))*log(1-a(i)))
      # Backward pass
      dz(i) = a(i) - y(i)
      dw1 += dz(i) * x1(i)
                                    n = 2
                                                    dw += x(i) * dz(i)
      dw2 += dz(i) * x2(i)
      db += dz(i)
```



#### # Gradient descent

w1 = w1 - alpha \* dw1 w2 = w2 - alpha \* dw2 b = b - alpha \* db

**w1**, **w2**, **b** are the accumulators and single instances for the all **m** training examples.

We have gone from 2 for loops to 1 for loop, we still have one for loop that loops over individual training examples.

## Vectorizing Logistic Regression (Forward)

$$z^{(1)} = w^T x^{(1)} + b$$
  $z^{(2)} = w^T x^{(2)} + b$   $z^{(3)} = w^T x^{(3)} + b$   $z^{(1)} = \sigma(z^{(1)})$   $z^{(2)} = \sigma(z^{(2)})$   $z^{(3)} = \sigma(z^{(3)})$   $z^{(3)} = \sigma(z^{(3)})$  1st training example 2nd training example 3rd training example

We need to do it m times if you have **m training examples**.

$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ x^{(1)} & x^{(2)} & \dots & x^{(m)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix} \text{ while } \mathbb{R}^{n_x \times m} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} & & & & & \vdots \\ & w^T & \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\ x^{(1)} & x^{(2)} & \dots & x^{(m)} \\ \vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \end{bmatrix}$$

$$[z^{(1)} z^{(2)} z^{(3)} \dots z^{(m)}] = w^T X + [b b \dots b] = [w^T x^{(1)} + b \quad w^T x^{(2)} + b \dots \quad w^T x^{(m)} + b]$$

(1 x m) dimension

45

## Vectorizing Logistic Regression (Forward)

$$[z^{(1)} \ z^{(2)} \ z^{(3)} \dots z^{(m)}] = w^T X + [\ b \ b \ \dots b] = [w^T \ x^{(1)} + b \quad w^T \ x^{(2)} + b \quad \dots \quad w^T \ x^{(m)} + b]$$
 Broadcasting 
$$Z = [z^{(1)} \ z^{(2)} \ z^{(3)} \dots z^{(m)}]$$
 
$$Z = np. \ dot(w.T,X) + b$$
 (1, 1) dimension 
$$A = [a^{(1)} \ a^{(2)} \ a^{(3)} \dots a^{(m)}] = \sigma \ (Z)$$

### **Gradient Computation**

$$egin{align} dz^{(1)} &= a^{(1)} - y^{(1)} & dz^{(2)} &= a^{(2)} - y^{(2)} & dz^{(3)} &= a^{(3)} - y^{(3)} \ dZ &= [dz^{(1)} dz^{(2)} \dots dz^{(m)}] \ \end{pmatrix}$$

$$A = [a^{(1)} a^{(2)} a^{(3)} \dots a^{(m)}] Y = [y^{(1)} y^{(2)} y^{(3)} \dots y^{(m)}]$$

$$dZ = A - Y = [(a^{(1)} - y^{(1)})(a^{(2)} - y^{(2)})(a^{(3)} - y^{(3)}) \dots (a^{(m)} - y^{(m)})]$$

### **Gradient Computation**

$$egin{aligned} dw &= 0 \ dw &+ = X^{(1)} dz^{(1)} \ dw &+ = X^{(2)} dz^{(2)} \end{aligned} \ dw &+ = X^{(m)} dz^{(m)} \ dw &/ = m \end{aligned}$$

$$db = 0 \ db + = dz^{(1)} \ db + = dz^{(2)} \ db + = dz^{(m)} \ db / = m$$

$$dw = 0$$
 $dw + = X^{(1)}dz^{(1)}$ 
 $dw + = X^{(2)}dz^{(2)}$ 
 $dw + = X^{(m)}dz^{(m)}$ 
 $dw / = m$ 
 $dw = 0$ 
 $dw + = X^{(m)}dz^{(m)}$ 
 $dw = \frac{1}{m}x \cdot dz^{(m)}$ 
 $dw = \frac{1}{m}x \cdot dz^{(m)}$ 

### Implementing Logistic Regression

$$J = 0, dw_1 = 0, dw_2 = 0, db = 0$$

$$for i = 1 to m:$$

$$Z^{(i)} = w^T x^{(i)} + b$$

$$a^{(i)} = \sigma(z^{(i)})$$

$$J += -[y^{(i)} \log a^{(i)} + (1 - y^{(i)}) \log(1 - a^{(i)})]$$

$$dz^{(i)} = a^{(i)} - y^{(i)}$$

$$dw_1 += x_1^{(i)} dz^{(i)}$$

$$dw_2 += x_2^{(i)} dz^{(i)}$$

$$db += dz^{(i)}$$

$$J = J/m, dw_1 = dw_1/m, dw_2 = dw_2/m$$

$$db = db/m$$

#### **Single Iteration of Gradient Descent**

$$Z = w^T X + b$$
  
 $Z = np. dot(w.T, X) + b$   
 $A = \sigma(Z)$ 

$$dZ = A - Y$$

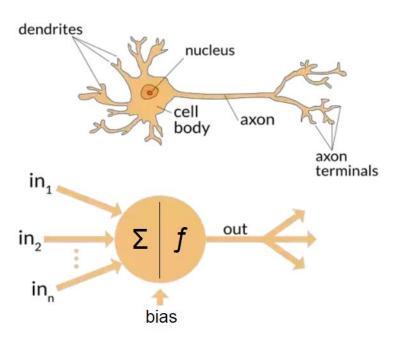
$$dw = rac{1}{m} X.\, dZ^T$$

$$db = rac{1}{m} np. \, sum(dZ)$$

$$w := w - \alpha * dw$$
$$h := h - \alpha * dh$$

Gradient Update

### What does this have to do with the brain?



# **END**