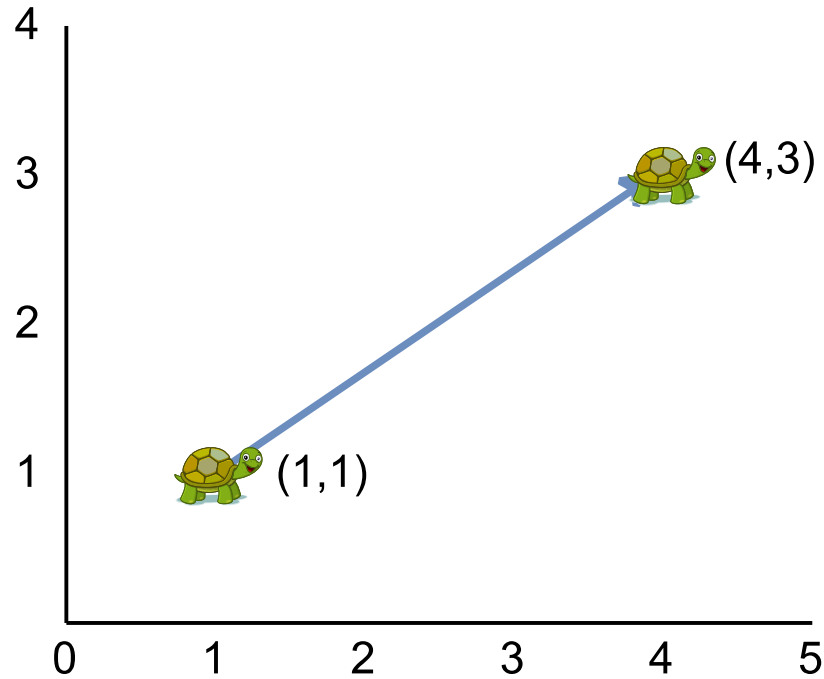




Vectors and logistic regression

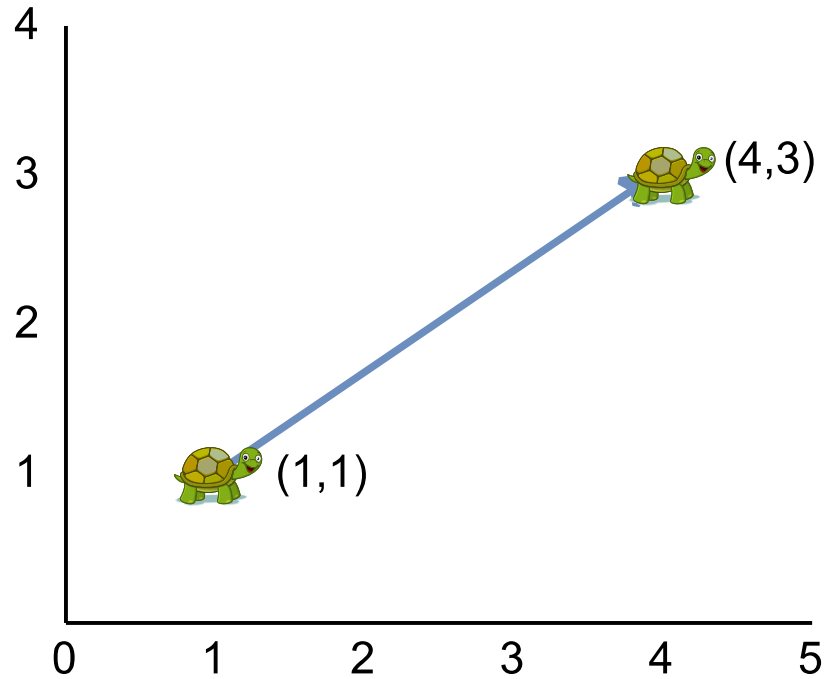
Daniël de Kok

What is a vector?

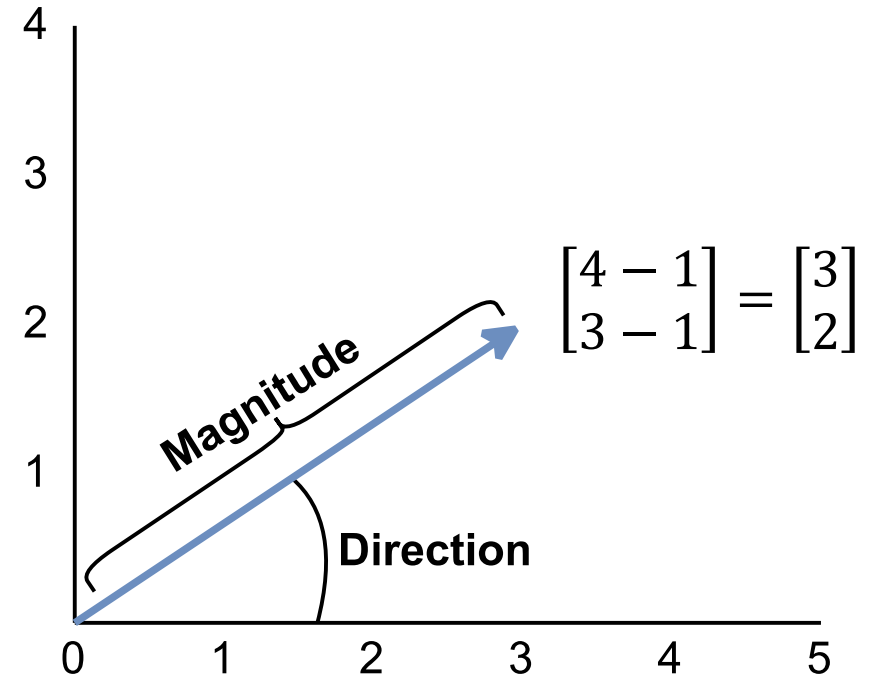


Goal: describe the *length* and the direction of the movement of the turtle irrespective of its absolute positions.

What is a vector?



Goal: describe the *length* and the direction of the movement of the turtle irrespective of its absolute positions.



This lecture

- Elementary operators
- How do we find the length of a vector?
- How do we find the angle between two vectors?
- Logistic regression

Elementary operators

Notation

- Scalars are named using lowercase letters:

$$a, b, c$$

- Vectors are named using lowercase letters in boldface:

$$\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{w}$$

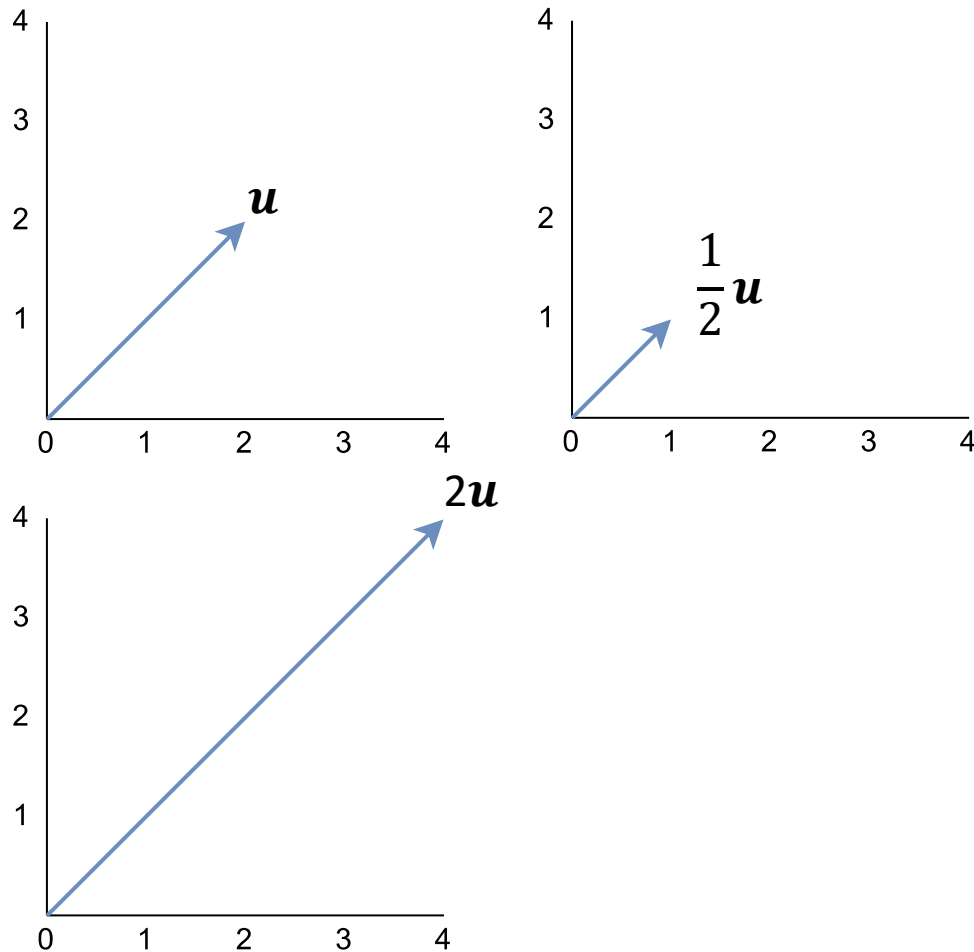
- Vectors are indexed using subscript:

$$u_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 3 \\ 2 \end{bmatrix}_1 = 3$$

- We denote a vector \mathbf{v} in a d -dimensional vector space of real numbers as:

$$\mathbf{v} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$

Vector scaling

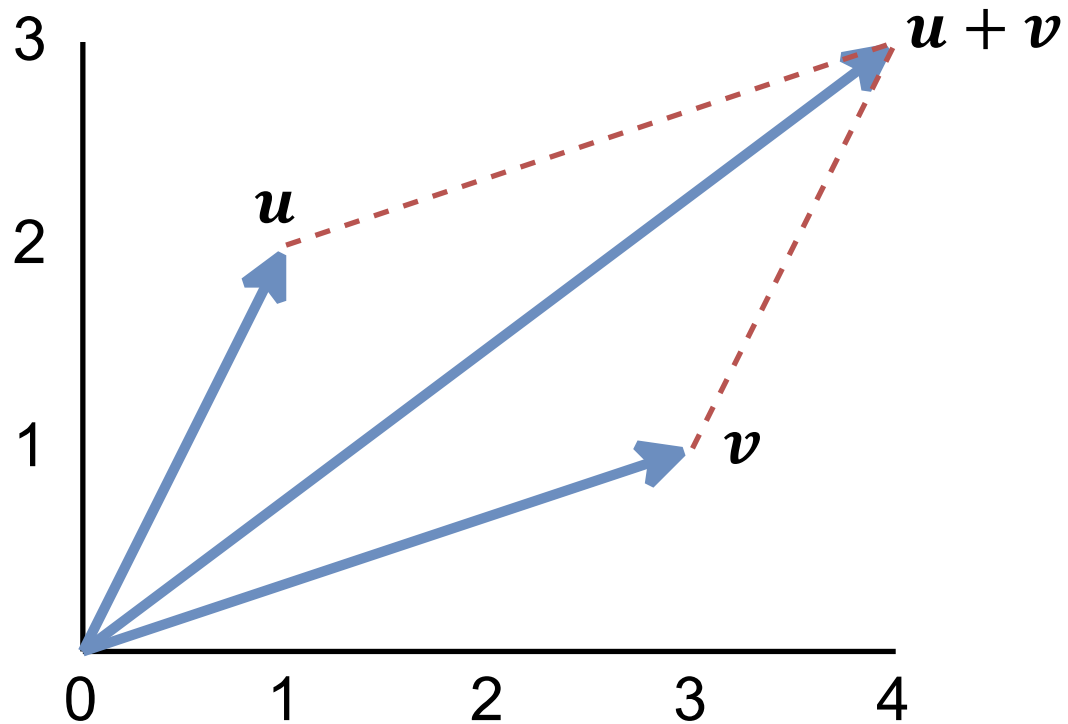


Scaling: each vector u can be scaled with a scalar a ,

$$au = \begin{bmatrix} au_1 \\ \vdots \\ au_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Scaling changes the *length* of the vector, never the *direction*, except when $a = 0$.

Vector addition



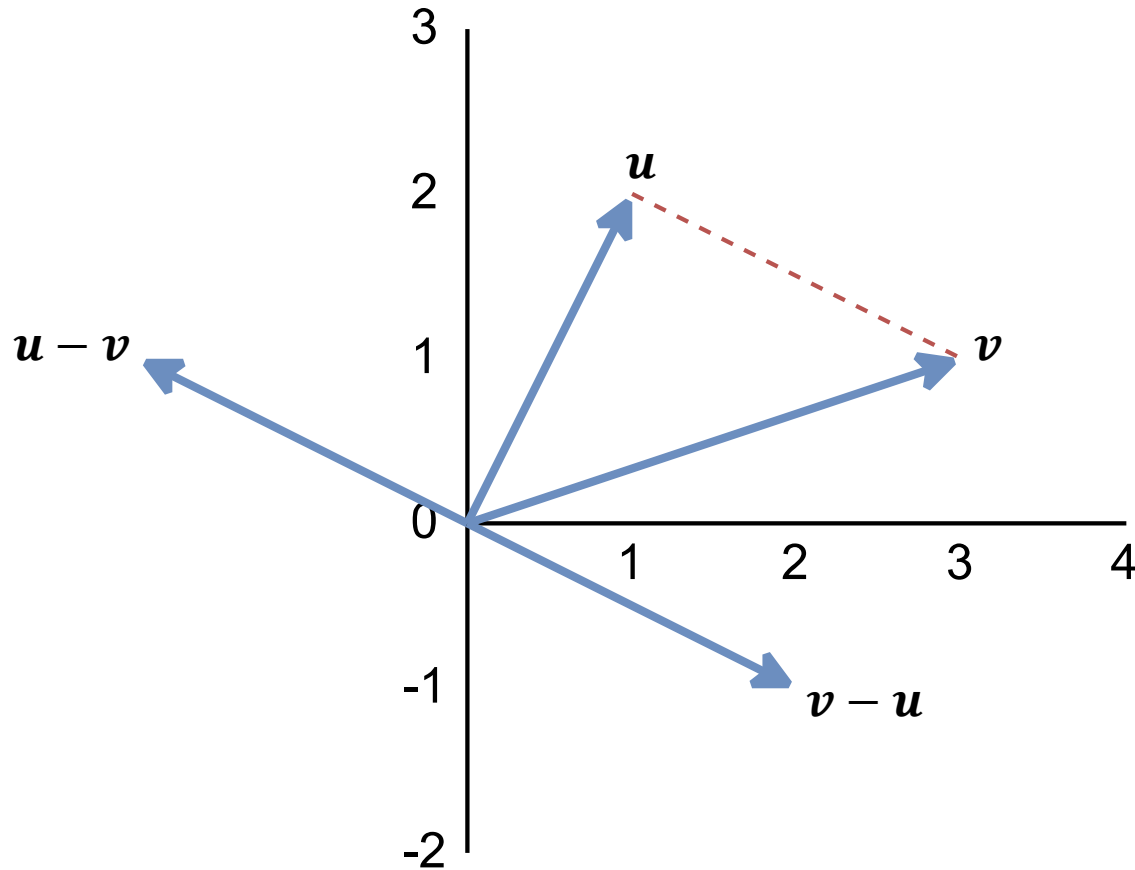
Vector addition: two vectors u, v can be added,

$$u + v = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 + v_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n + v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Properties:

- Commutative: $u + v = v + u$
- Associative: $(u + v) + w = u + (v + w)$

Vector subtraction



Vector subtraction: two vectors \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{v} can be subtracted,

$$\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} u_1 - v_1 \\ \vdots \\ u_n - v_n \end{bmatrix}$$

Property: $\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} + (-\mathbf{v})$

In-class assignment

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculate:

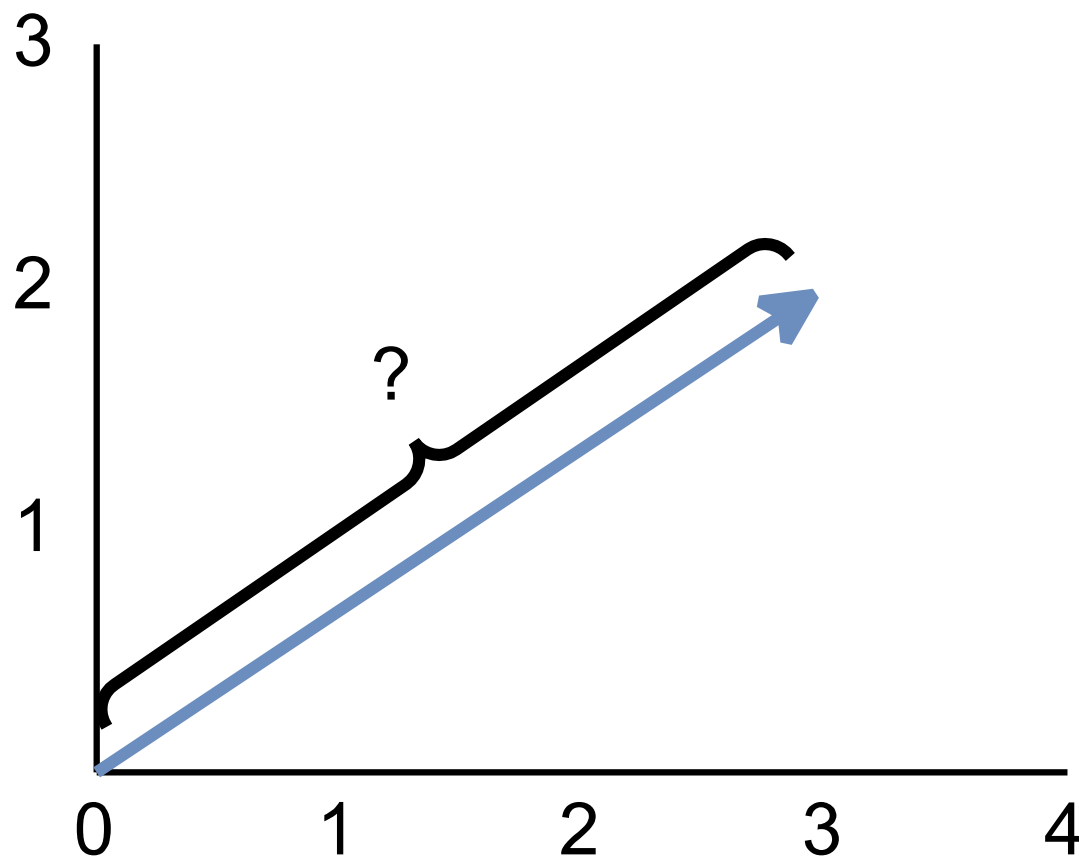
- $2\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}$
- $\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v})$

$$2\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \cdot 0.5 \\ 2 \cdot 1 \\ 2 \cdot -2 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1.5 \\ -5 \end{bmatrix}$$

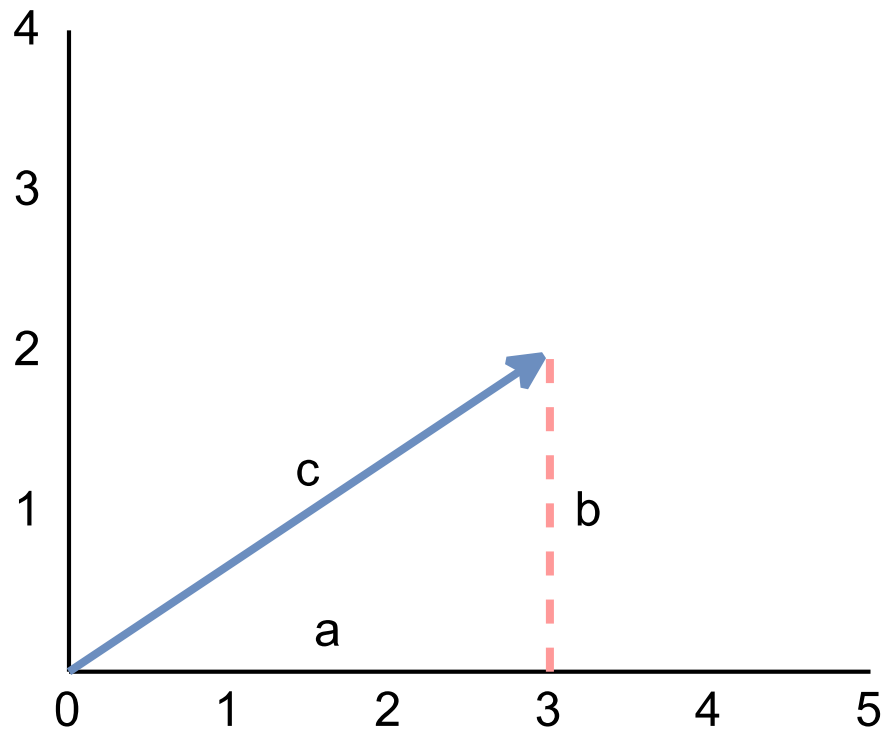
$$\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}) = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 + -1 \\ 1 + 0.5 \\ -2 + 1 \end{bmatrix} = \frac{1}{2} \begin{bmatrix} -0.5 \\ 1.5 \\ -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.25 \\ 0.75 \\ -0.5 \end{bmatrix}$$

How do we find the length of a vector?

How do we find the length of a vector?



Euclidean length



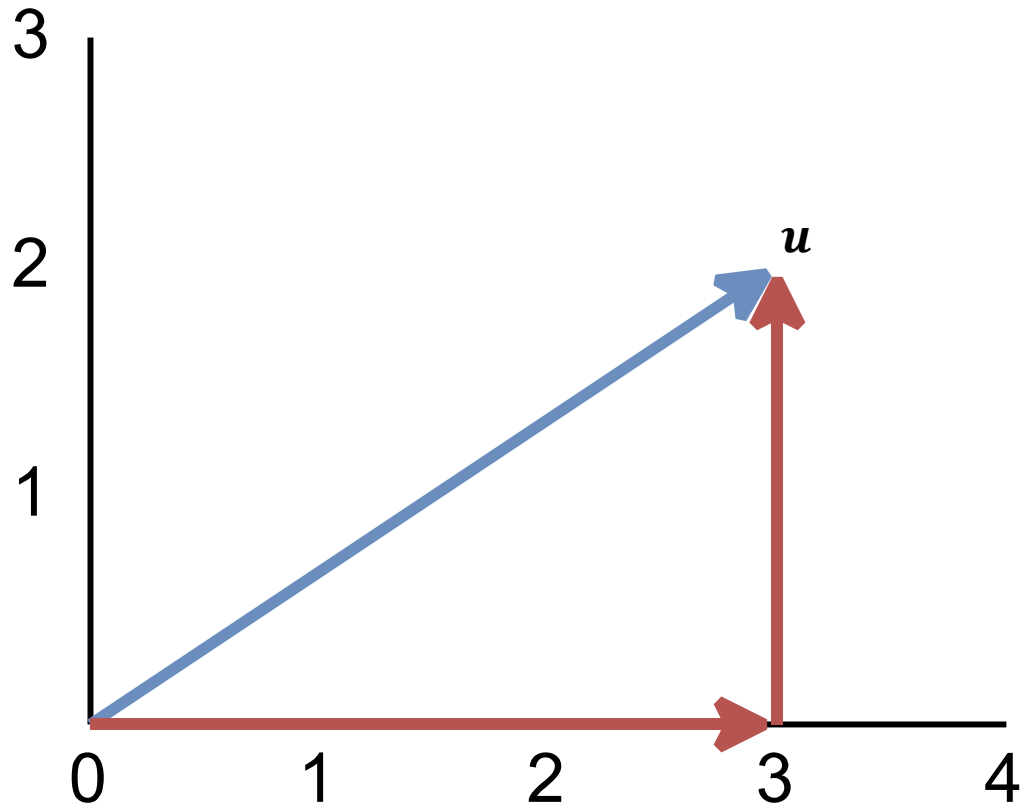
Use the Pythagorean theorem to calculate the vector length:

$$c = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2} = \sqrt{3^2 + 2^2} \approx 3.61$$

Generalization across d dimension for a vector \mathbf{u} :

$$\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d u_i^2}$$

Manhattan length



Manhattan length: length by
`traveling' along each axis.

$$\sum_{i=1}^d |u_i| = 3 + 2 = 5$$

p -norms

The p -norm is a generalization over all such lengths:

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^d |u_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}}$$

Norm	Common names
$\ \mathbf{u}\ _1$	ℓ_1 -norm, Manhattan length
$\ \mathbf{u}\ _2$	ℓ_2 -norm, vector length, Euclidean norm
$\ \mathbf{u}\ _\infty$	Infinity norm, maximum norm

p -norm properties

The p -norm has the following properties:

1. Triangle inequality:

$$\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|_p \leq \|\mathbf{u}\|_p + \|\mathbf{v}\|_p$$

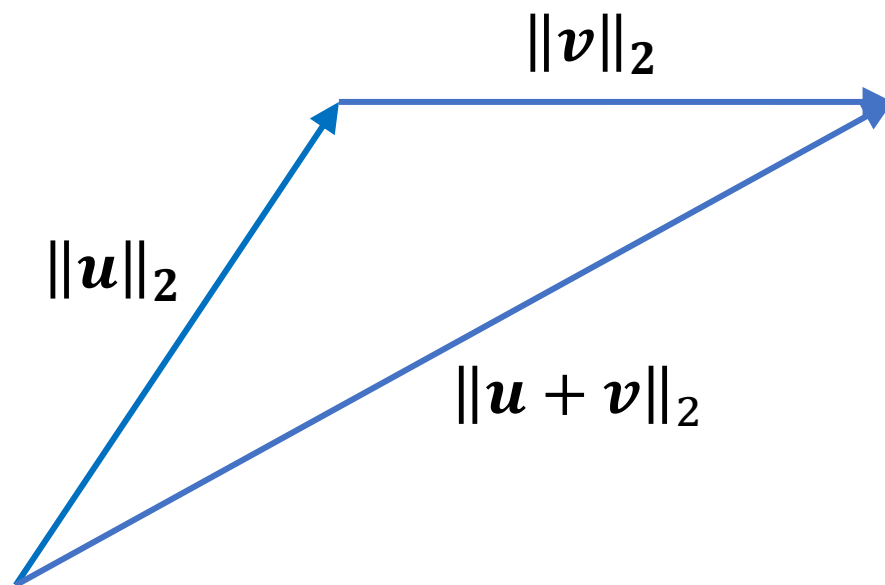
2. Absolutely scalable:

$$\|a\mathbf{u}\|_p = |a| \|\mathbf{u}\|_p$$

3. For all vectors except $\mathbf{0}^d$:

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_p > \mathbf{0}$$

Triangle inequality



$$\|\mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v}\|_2 \leq \|\mathbf{u}\|_2 + \|\mathbf{v}\|_2$$

In-class assignment

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_p = \left(\sum_{i=1}^d |u_i|^p \right)^{\frac{1}{p}} \quad \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Calculate:

- $\|\mathbf{v}\|_1$
- $\|\mathbf{v}\|_2$

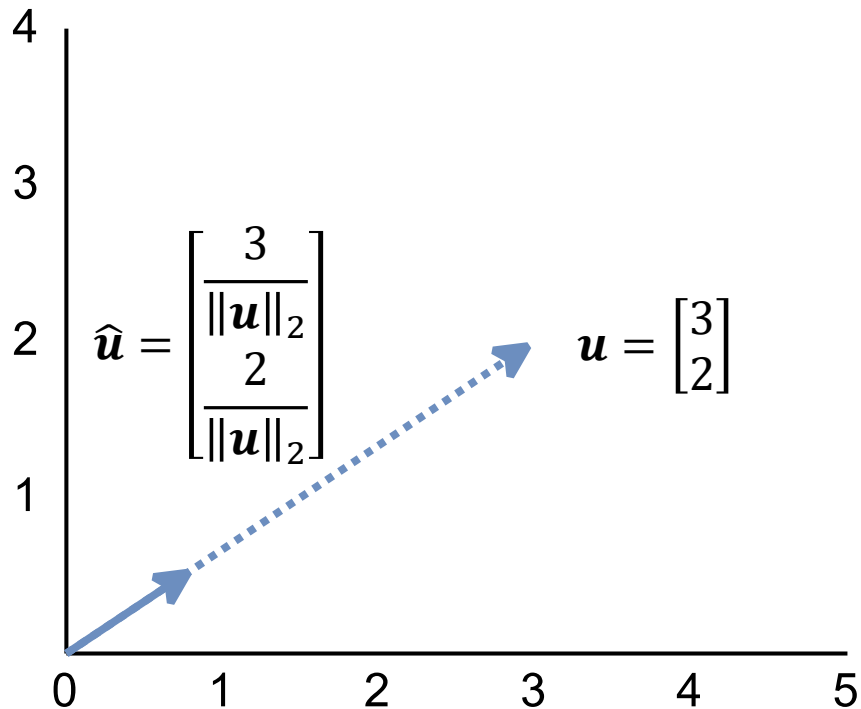
$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_1 = |-1| + |0.5| + |1| = 1 + 0.5 + 1 = 2.5$$

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = \sqrt{-1^2 + 0.5^2 + 1^2} = \sqrt{1 + 0.25 + 1} = \sqrt{2.25} = 1.5$$

Unit vectors

Definition

\mathbf{u} is a unit vector iff $\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 = 1$

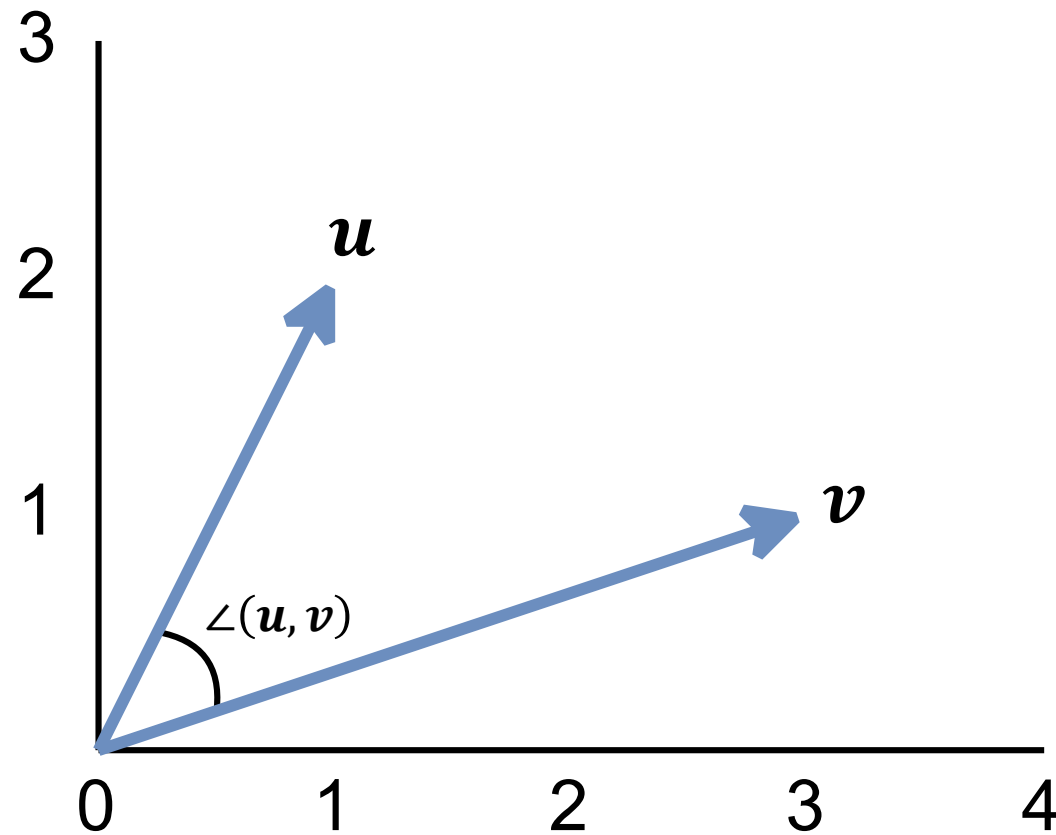


Any vector \mathbf{u} , except 0^d , can be scaled to a unit vector $\hat{\mathbf{u}}$:

$$\hat{\mathbf{u}} = \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|_2}$$

How do we find the angle
between two vectors?

How do we find the angle between two vectors?



Dot product

Definition: dot product

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \sum_{i=1}^d u_i v_i$$

Example

$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 0 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ -1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = (2 \cdot 2) + (0 \cdot -1) + (3 \cdot 1)$$
$$= 7$$

Note: the *dot product* is also known as the *inner product*.

Dot product properties

- The dot product is commutative:

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{u}$$

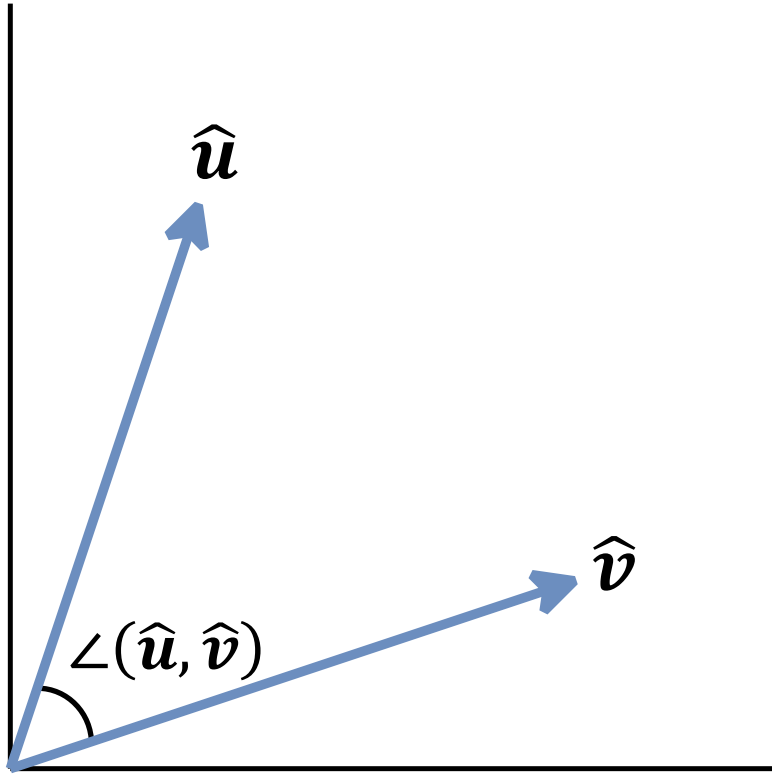
- The dot product is distributive over vector addition:

$$\mathbf{u} \cdot (\mathbf{v} + \mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} + \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{w}$$

- Scalar multiplication:

$$(a\mathbf{u}) \cdot (b\mathbf{v}) = ab(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v})$$

Cosine similarity of unit vectors



Definition

$$\cos(\angle(\hat{u}, \hat{v})) = \hat{u} \cdot \hat{v} = \sum_{i=1}^d \hat{u}_i \cdot \hat{v}_i$$

Cosine similarity of non-unit vectors

A vector \mathbf{u} can be normalized to a unit vector with the same direction:
 $\frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|_2}$. Consequently:

$$\begin{aligned}\cos(\angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})) &= \frac{\mathbf{u}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|_2} \cdot \frac{\mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{v}\|_2} \\ &= \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 \|\mathbf{v}\|_2}\end{aligned}$$

In-class assignment

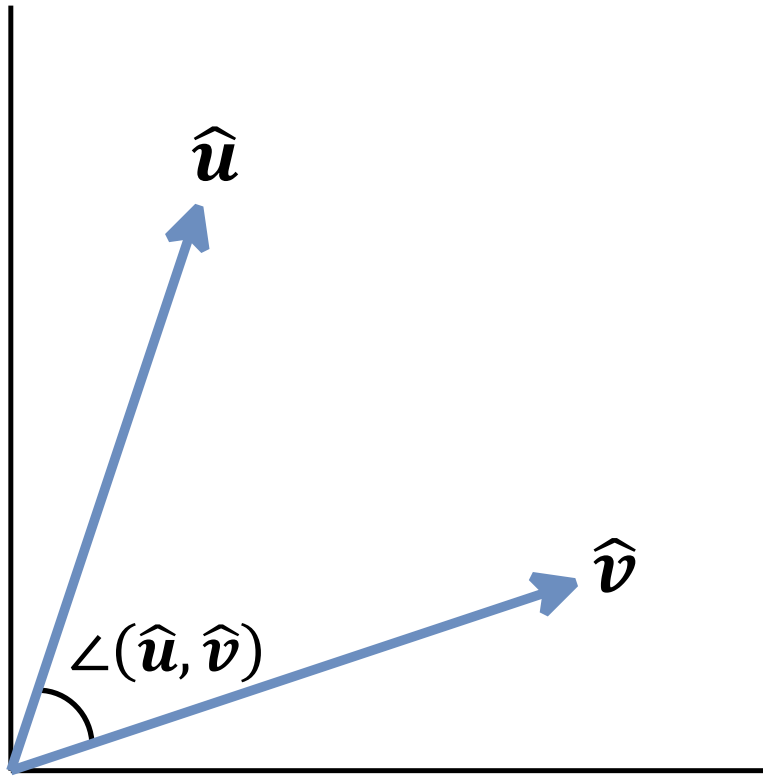
$$\cos(\angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})) = \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 \|\mathbf{v}\|_2} \quad \mathbf{u} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.5 \\ 1 \\ -2 \end{bmatrix}, \mathbf{v} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0.5 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \text{Calculate } \cos(\angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}))$$

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 = \sqrt{0.5^2 + 1^2 + (-2)^2} = \sqrt{0.25 + 1 + 4} = \sqrt{5.25}$$

$$\|\mathbf{v}\|_2 = 1.5$$

$$\begin{aligned} \cos(\angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})) &= \frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 \|\mathbf{v}\|_2} \\ &= \frac{0.5 \cdot (-1) + 1 \cdot 0.5 + (-2) \cdot 1}{1.5 \cdot \sqrt{5.25}} \\ &= \frac{-2}{1.5 \cdot \sqrt{5.25}} \\ &\approx -0.58 \end{aligned}$$

Why does $\frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 \|\mathbf{v}\|_2}$ compute $\cos(\angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}))$?



Prerequisites

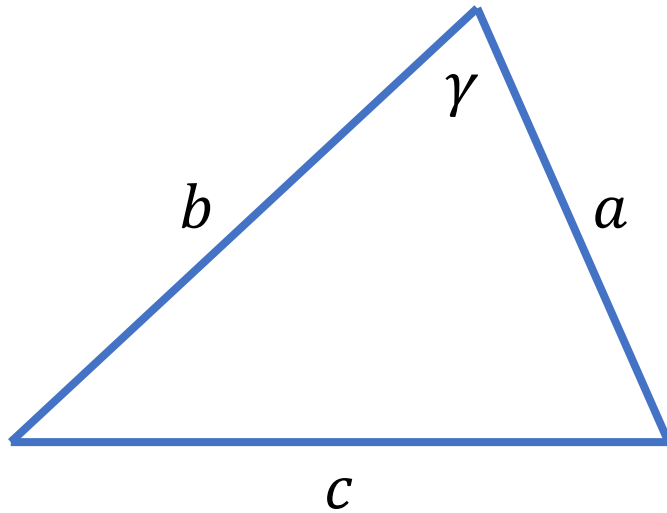
- The ℓ_2 norm can be defined in terms of the dot product:

$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_2 = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^d u_i^2} = \sqrt{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}}$$

- Also observe that:

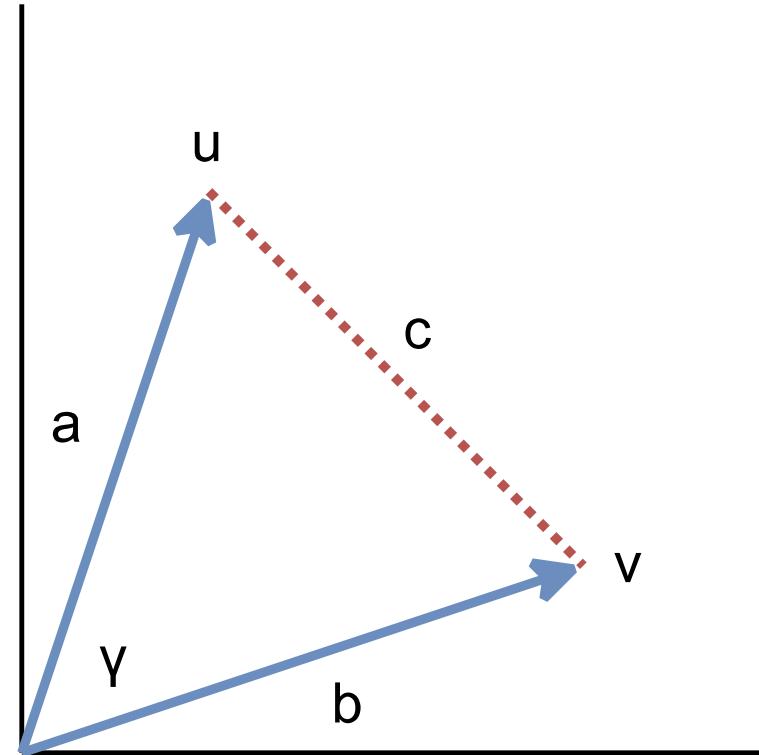
$$\|\mathbf{u}\|_2^2 = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}$$

Law of cosines



Law of cosines:

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \gamma$$



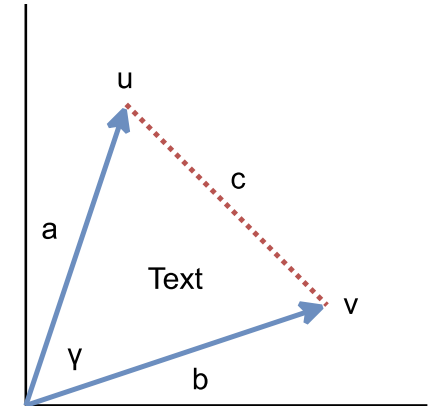
Law of cosines (applied):

$$a = \|\mathbf{u}\|_2$$

$$b = \|\mathbf{v}\|_2$$

$$c = \|\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\|_2$$

Solve for $\cos(\angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}))$



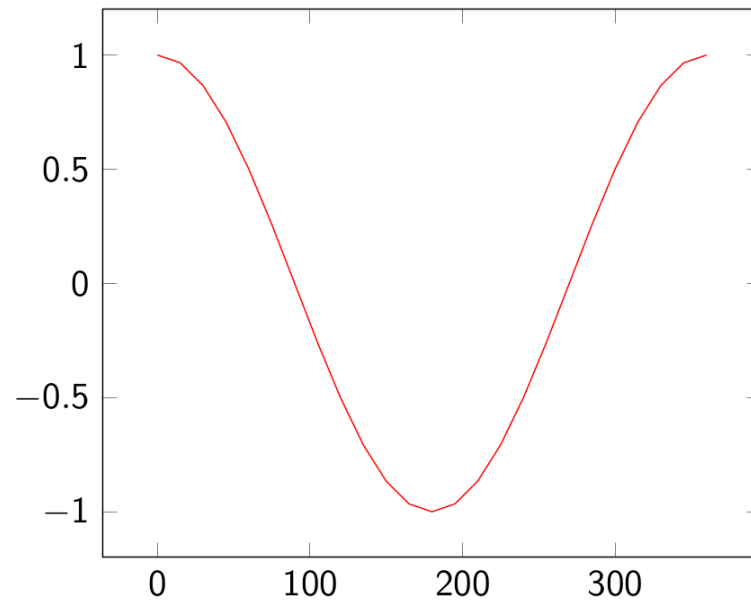
	Step
$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \gamma$	
$\ \mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}\ _2^2 = \ \mathbf{u}\ _2^2 + \ \mathbf{v}\ _2^2 - 2\ \mathbf{u}\ _2\ \mathbf{v}\ _2 \cos(\angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}))$	
$(\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) \cdot (\mathbf{u} - \mathbf{v}) = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} - 2\ \mathbf{u}\ _2\ \mathbf{v}\ _2 \cos(\angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}))$	$\ \mathbf{u}\ _2^2 = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u}$
$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} - 2(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} = \mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{u} + \mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{v} - 2\ \mathbf{u}\ _2\ \mathbf{v}\ _2 \cos(\angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}))$	Distributivity over vector addition
$-2(\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}) = -2\ \mathbf{u}\ _2\ \mathbf{v}\ _2 \cos(\angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}))$	Eliminate duplicates on both sides
$\frac{\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v}}{\ \mathbf{u}\ _2\ \mathbf{v}\ _2} = \cos(\angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}))$	Divide both sides by $-2\ \mathbf{u}\ _2\ \mathbf{v}\ _2$



Textbook definition of cosine similarity

Interpretation of cosine similarity

Cosine similarity	Angle (degrees)	Description
$\cos \angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = 1$	0	Same direction
$\cos \angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = 0$	90	Orthogonal
$\cos \angle(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v}) = -1$	180	Opposite



Dot product of unnormalized vectors

Question: how should we interpret the dot product of *unnormalized* vectors?

Dot product	Angle (degrees)
$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} > 0$	< 90
$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$	90
$\mathbf{u} \cdot \mathbf{v} < 0$	> 90

As we will see, the dot product is a very useful similarity function.

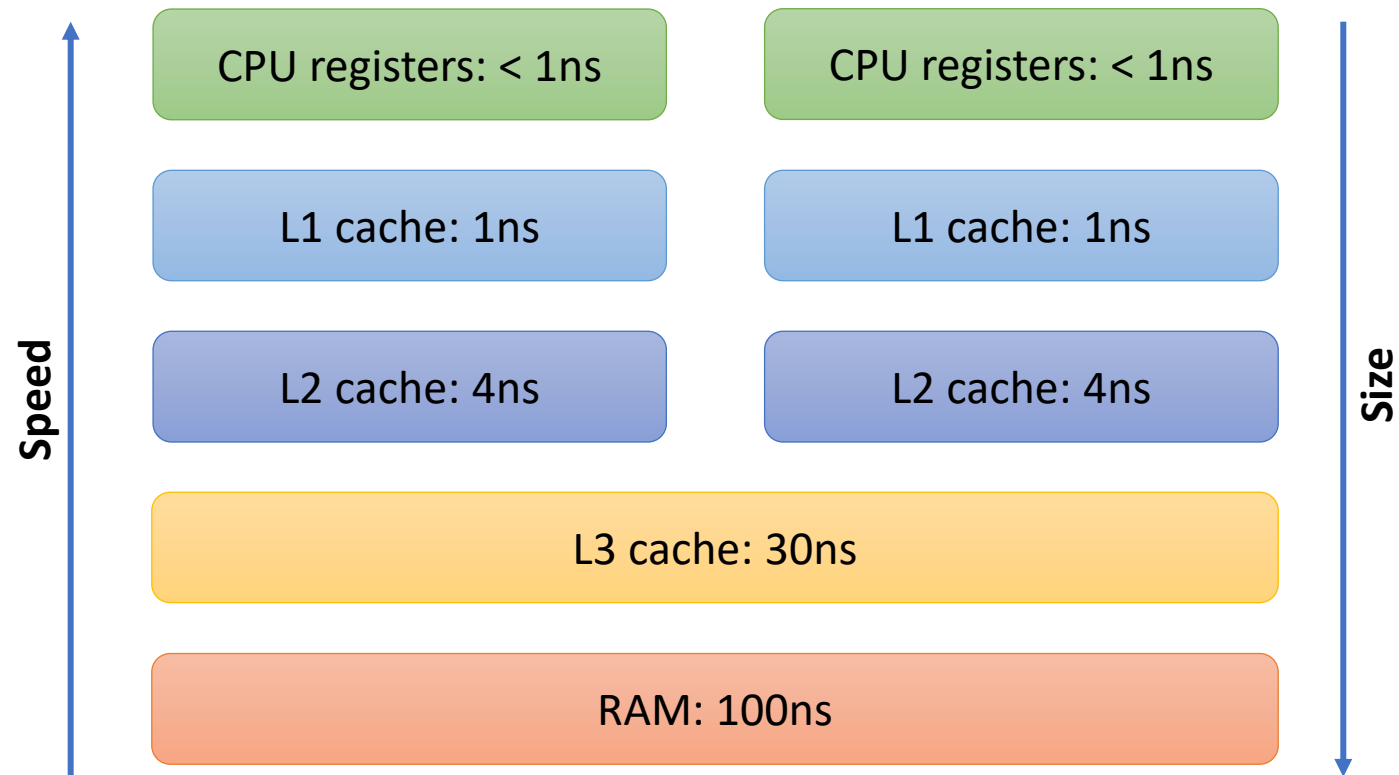
How is the dot product computed in hardware?

Naïve Python implementation:

```
def dot(u, v):  
    return sum([ui * vi for (ui, vi) in zip(u, v)])
```

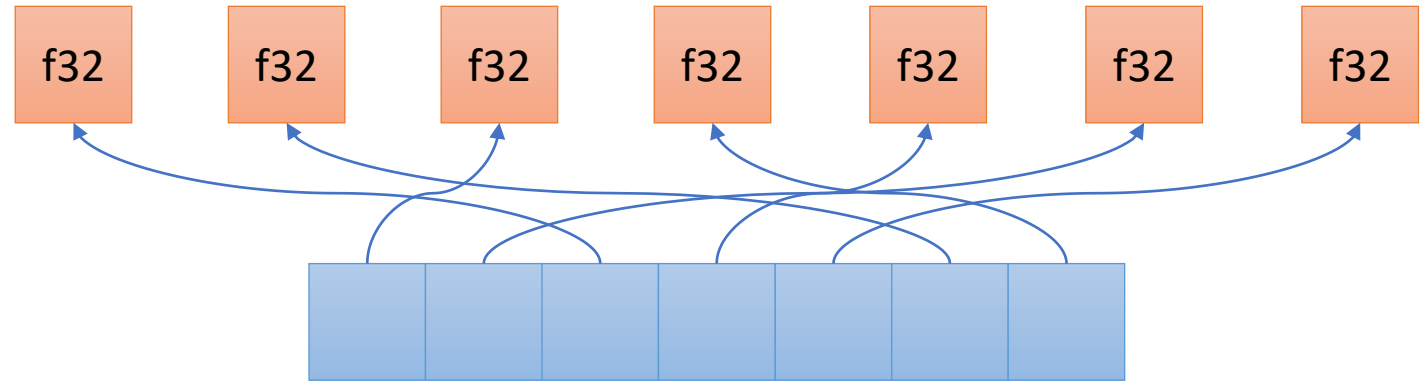
This is excessively slow!

Memory hierarchy

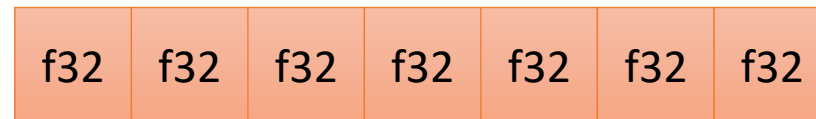


Contiguous vs non contiguous memory

Java `List<Float>`, Python lists:



Java `float[]`, numpy/PyTorch array:



Example timings

What	Time (ns)	Floats per clock cycle	Speedup compared to <i>boxed (shuffled)</i>
Unboxed	342,079	0.33	11.57
Unboxed (shuffled)	341,971	0.33	11.58
Boxed	1,133,880	0.10	3.49
Boxed (shuffled)	3,958,834	0.03	1.00

- Running times of computing the dot product of two vectors:
 - 500,000 components
 - single-precision floating point numbers
 - Rust + LLVM
 - AMD Ryzen 3700X
- Shuffling makes memory non-contiguous in boxed arrays

Single Instruction, Multiple Data

Regular CPU multiplication:

$$\begin{array}{|c|} \hline 0.5 \\ \hline \end{array} \times \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 2.0 \\ \hline \end{array} = \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 1.0 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

SIMD multiplication:

$$\begin{array}{|c|} \hline 0.5 \\ \hline 1.0 \\ \hline -1.0 \\ \hline -1.0 \\ \hline \end{array} \times \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 2.0 \\ \hline 1.0 \\ \hline 1.5 \\ \hline -2.0 \\ \hline \end{array} = \begin{array}{|c|} \hline 1.0 \\ \hline 1.0 \\ \hline -1.5 \\ \hline 2 \\ \hline \end{array}$$

Example

```
let mut sums = _mm_setzero_ps();

while u.len() >= 4 {
    let ux4 = _mm_loadu_ps(&u[0] as *const f32);
    let vx4 = _mm_loadu_ps(&v[0] as *const f32);

    sums = _mm_add_ps(_mm_mul_ps(ux4, vx4), sums);

    u = &u[4..];
    v = &v[4..];
}

sse_add(sums) + dot_unvectorized(u, v)
```

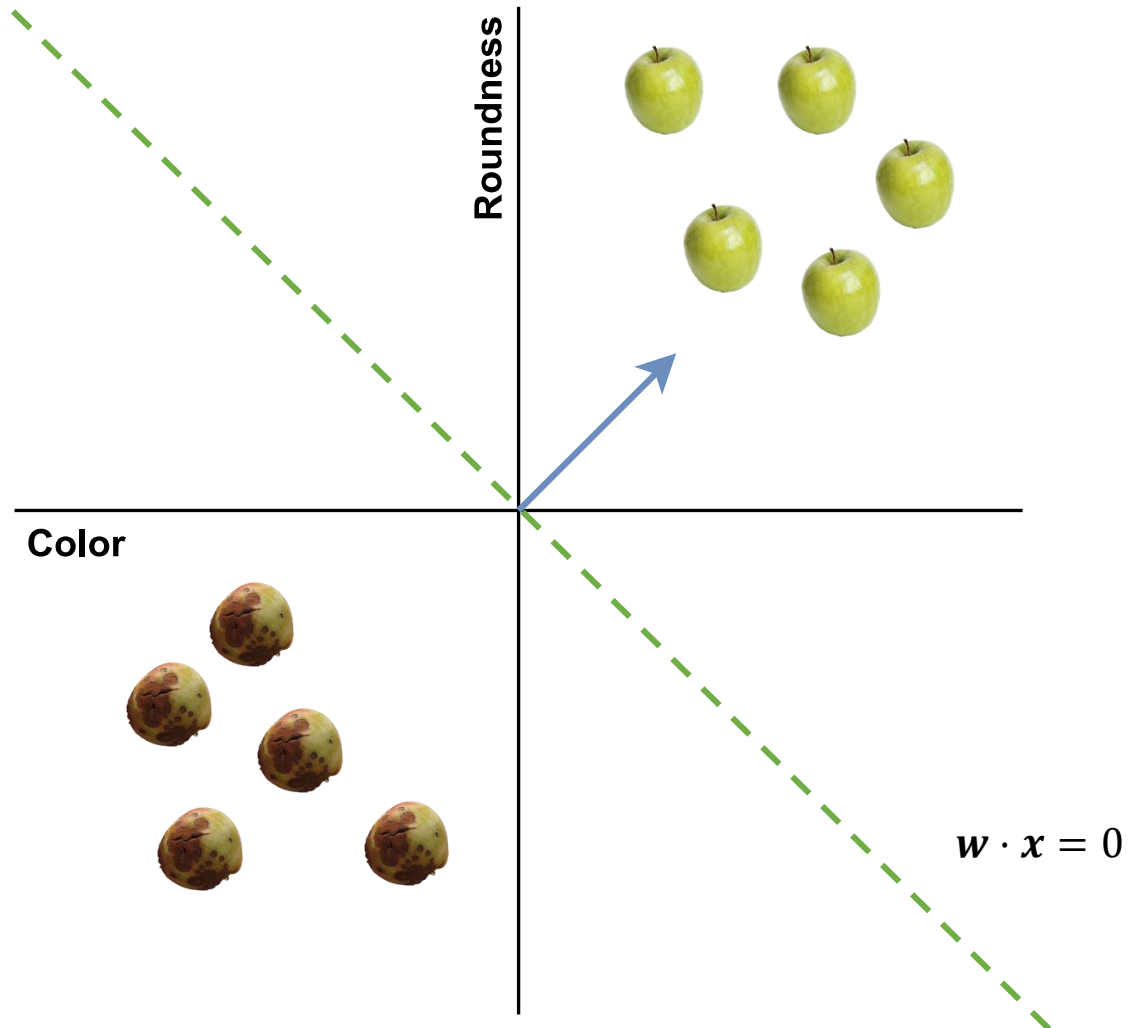
Dot product with SIMD

What	Time (ns)	Float pairs per clock cycle	Speedup compared to <i>scalar</i>
Scalar	339	0.34	1.00
SSE	81	1.44	4.19
AVX	38	3.06	8.92
AVX + FMA	34	3.42	9.97

- Running times of computing the dot product of two vectors:
 - 512 vector components
 - single-precision floating point numbers
 - Rust + LLVM
 - AMD Ryzen 3700X
- AVX + FMA DP is 10x faster than scalar DP for 512-component vectors

Logistic regression

Linear binary classifier



Goal: separate two classes. **Here:** good apples and bad apples.

Input: instances as vectors. **Here:** $\begin{bmatrix} \text{color} \\ \text{roundness} \end{bmatrix}$

Classifier: vector w pointing towards positive instances. **Here:** good apples

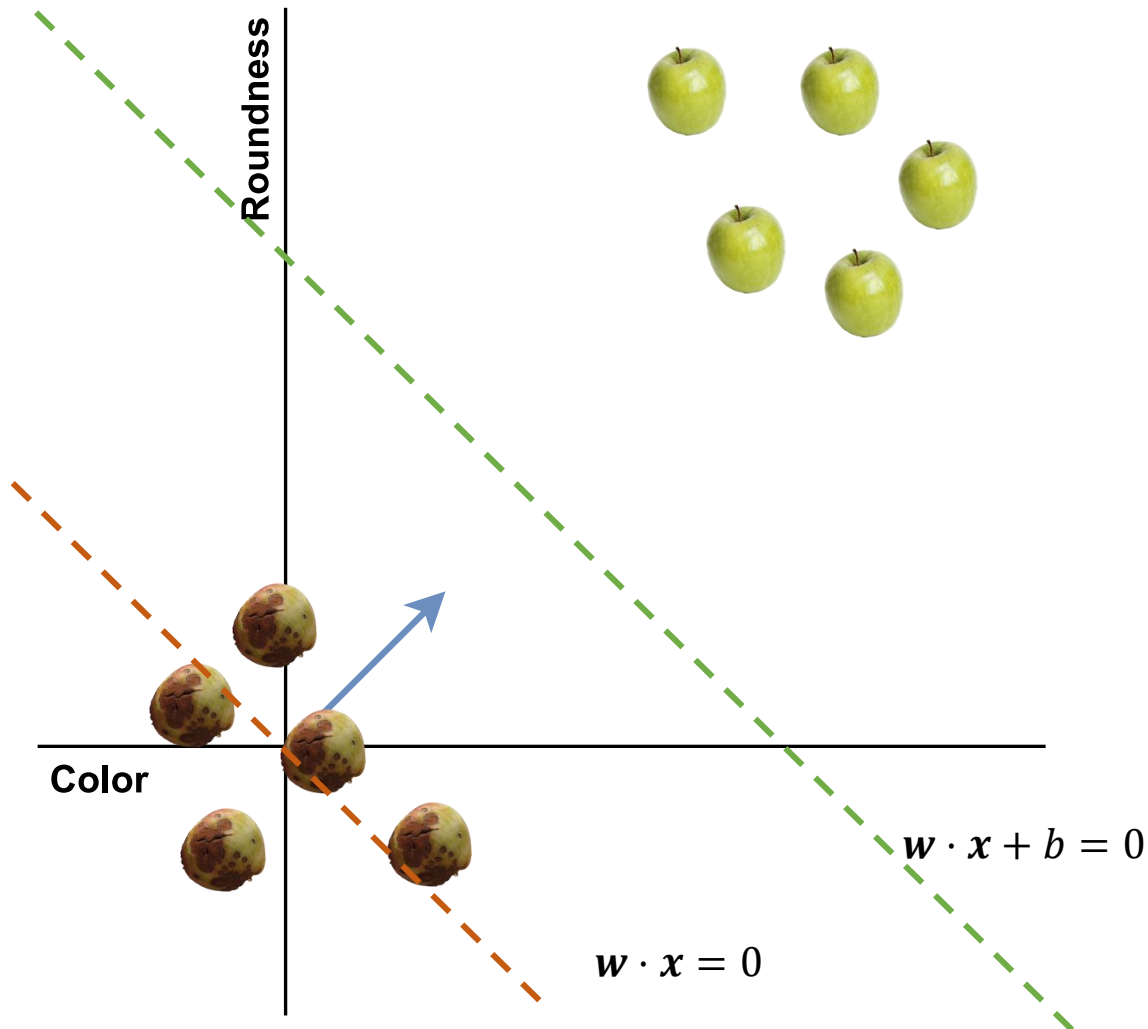
How: given an apple represented as $x^{(i)}$,

$$y(x^{(i)}) = \begin{cases} 1, & w \cdot x^{(i)} \geq 0 \\ 0, & w \cdot x^{(i)} < 0 \end{cases}$$

Decision boundary: $w \cdot x = 0$

Alternatively: $y(x^{(i)}) = \text{sign}(w \cdot x^{(i)})$

Linear binary classifier (bias)



Problem: in many classification scenarios a good decision boundary does not cross the origin.

Observe: the larger the dot product (negative or positive), the further an instance is removed from the boundary.

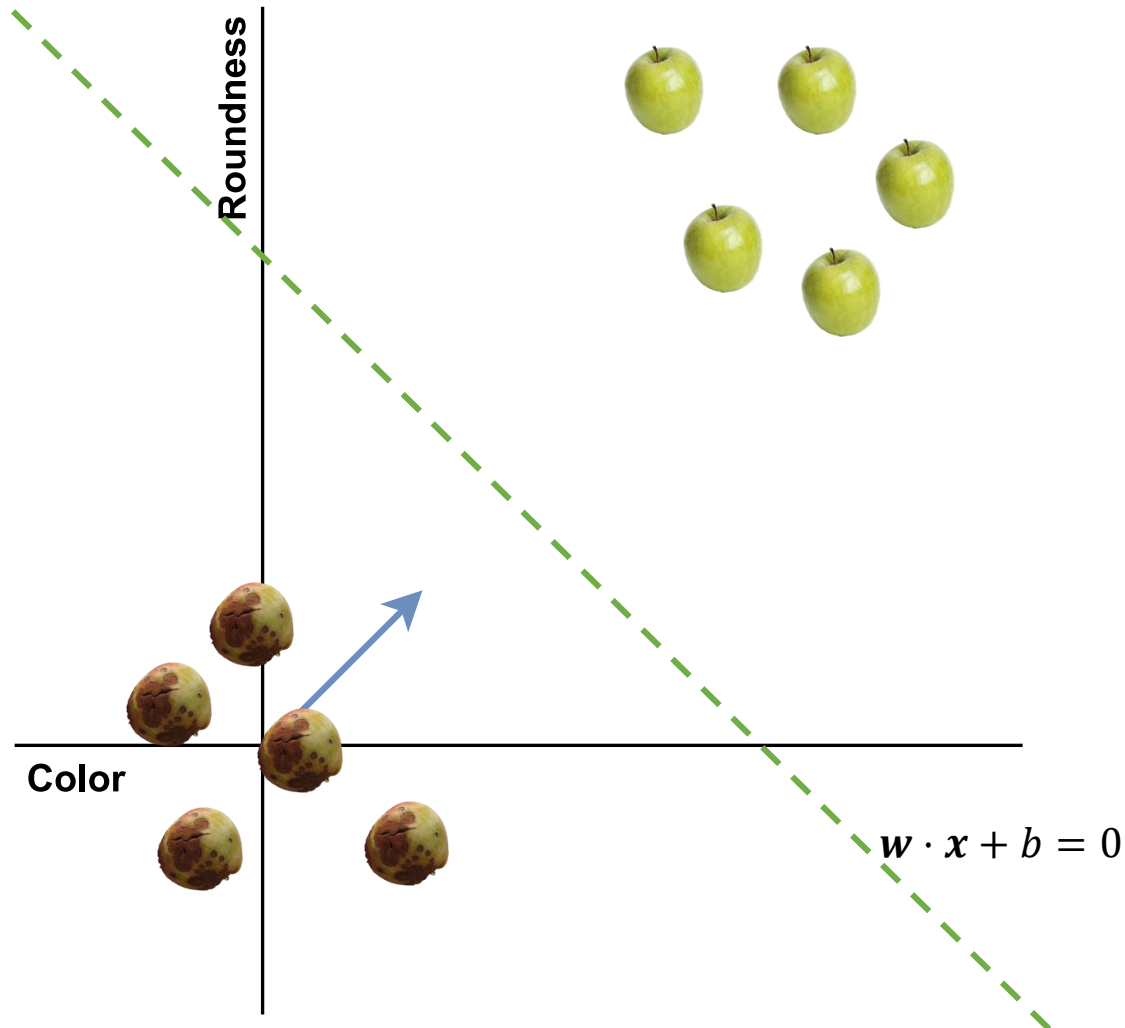
Solution: add a bias term:

- Negative bias: move the boundary towards the positive class.
- Positive bias: move the boundary towards the negative class.

Decision boundary: $w \cdot x + b = 0$

Classifier: $y(x^{(i)}) = \text{sign}(w \cdot x^{(i)} + b)$

Linear binary classifier (bias)



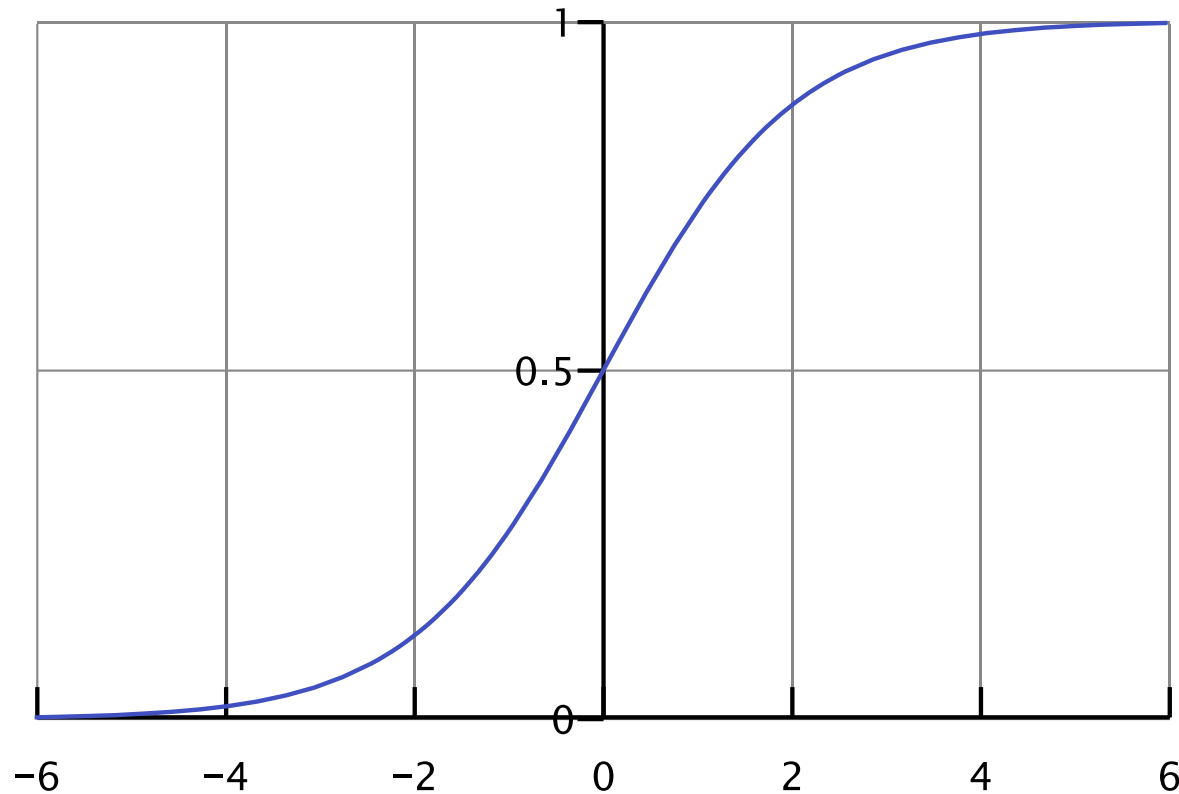
Problem: $y(\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b)$ only predicts a class, unclear how much confidence should be put into the prediction.

Idea: modify the model such that we can get a probability estimation $p(1|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$ from the model.

Desiderata: modify the model such that we can get a probability estimation $p(1|\mathbf{x})$ from the model:

- $p(1|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = 0.5$ when $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b = 0$
- $p(1|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) > 0.5$ when $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b > 0$
- $p(1|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) < 0.5$ when $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b < 0$

Logistic function



Definition: logistic function

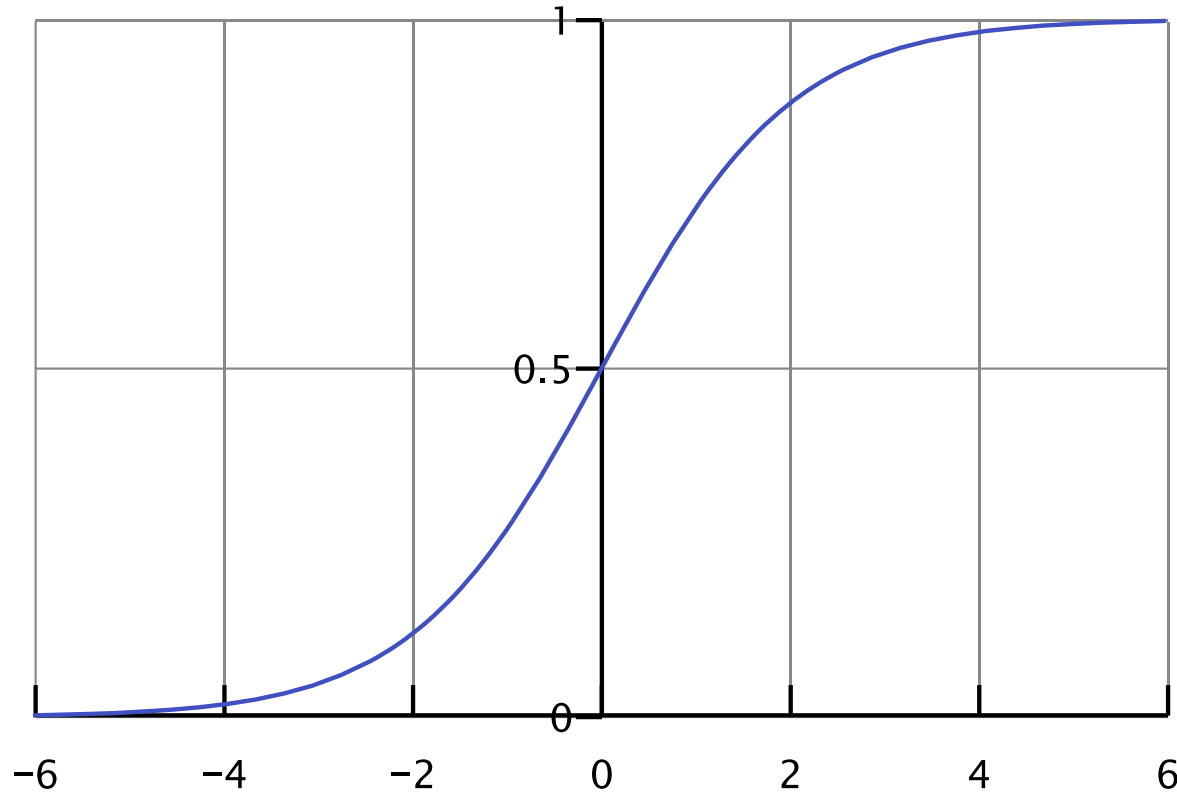
$$\sigma(a) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}}$$

$\sigma(a)$ is a **squashing function**: clips extreme values in $(0,1)$.

Note: lies between two horizontal asymptotes, never reaches 0 or 1.

Fulfills the stated desiderata.

Logistic regression classifier



Definition: logistic regression

$$p(1|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}}$$
$$a = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b$$
$$p(0|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = 1 - p(1|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

Example

Definition: logistic regression

$$p(1|\mathbf{x}^i) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}}$$
$$a = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b$$

Example model

$$\mathbf{w} = \begin{bmatrix} -4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$$
$$b = 0$$

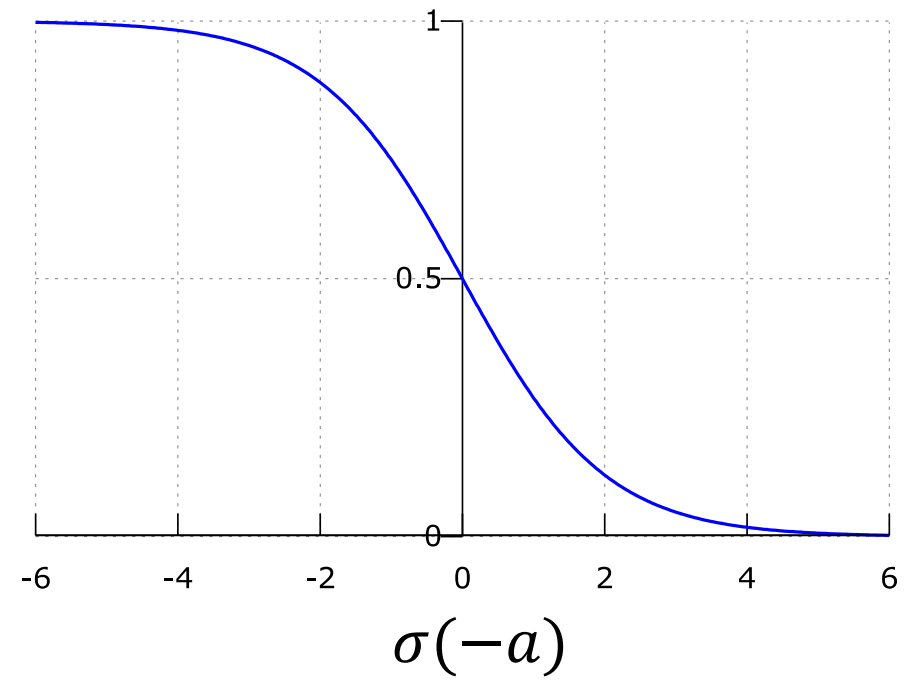
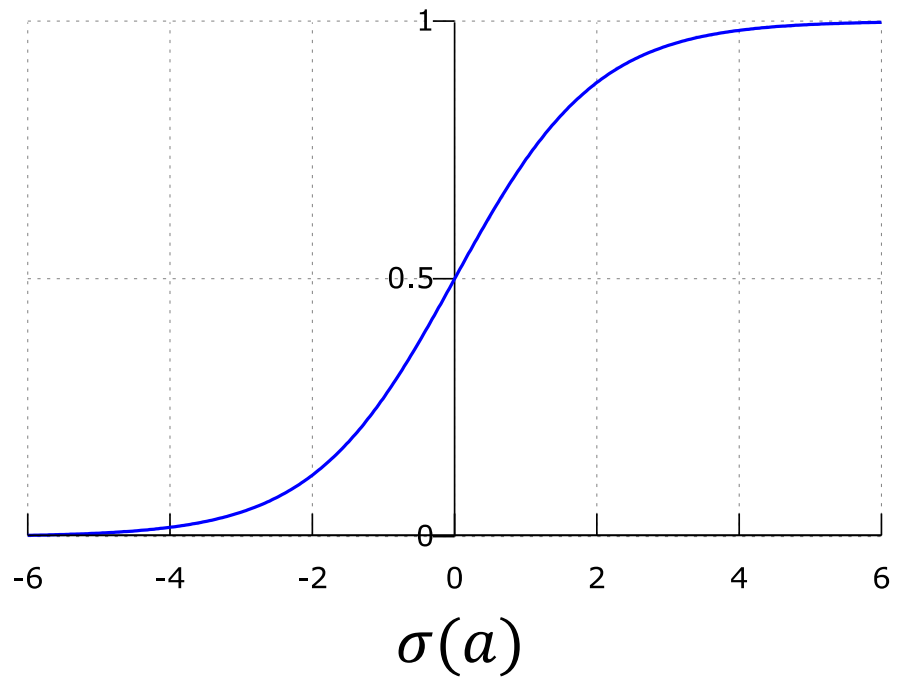
Instance	Prediction
$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}$	$a = -4 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 3 = 5$ $p(1 \mathbf{x}^{(1)}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-5}} \approx 0.9933$
$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$	$a = -4 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 1 = -1$ $p(1 \mathbf{x}^{(2)}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(-1)}} \approx 0.2689$
$\mathbf{x}^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$	$a = -4 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 1 = -5$ $p(1 \mathbf{x}^{(3)}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(-5)}} \approx 0.0067$

Reformulation $p(0|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$

	Step
$p(0 \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = 1 - \sigma(a), a = \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b$	
$p(0 \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}}$	Expand
$p(0 \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \frac{1 + e^{-a}}{1 + e^{-a}} - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}}$	Rewrite 1
$p(0 \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \frac{e^{-a}}{1 + e^{-a}}$	Subtract
$p(0 \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{e^{-a}} + 1}$	Divide numerator and denominator by e^{-a}
$p(0 \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^a} = \sigma(-a)$	Apply $x^{-n} = \frac{1}{x^n}$

Note that we are just flipping the sign.

$\sigma(a)$ and $\sigma(-a)$



Why is logistic regression a linear classifier?

$$p(1|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b)}}$$

	Step
$\frac{1}{1 + e^{-(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b)}} = \frac{1}{2}$	Decision boundary: $p(y \mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = \frac{1}{2}$
$1 + e^{-(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b)} = 2$	Simplify
$e^{-(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b)} = 1$	Subtract 1 from both sides
$-(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b) = 0$	Apply <i>log</i> to both sides
$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b = 0$	Multiply both sides by -1

Linear decision boundary

Model likelihood

If the possible classes are $Y = \{0,1\}$, we need to optimize the model parameters such that:

- $p(1|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = 1$ and $p(0|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = 0$ iff $y^{(i)} = 1$
- $p(1|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = 0$ and $p(0|\mathbf{x}^{(i)}) = 1$ iff $y^{(i)} = 0$

This is done by maximizing the likelihood:

$$L = \prod_{i=1}^n p(y^{(i)}|\mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

Example

Instance	Prediction
$\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix}, y^{(1)} = 1$	$a = -4 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 3 = 5$ $p(y^{(1)} \mathbf{x}^{(1)}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-5}} \approx 0.9933$
$\mathbf{x}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, y^{(2)} = 1$	$a = -4 \cdot 1 + 3 \cdot 1 = -1$ $p(y^{(2)} \mathbf{x}^{(2)}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(-1)}} \approx 0.2689$
$\mathbf{x}^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}, y^{(3)} = 0$	$a = -4 \cdot 2 + 3 \cdot 1 = -5$ $p(y^{(3)} \mathbf{x}^{(3)}) = 1 - \frac{1}{1 + e^{-(-5)}} \approx 0.9933$

$$L = 0.9933 \cdot 0.2689 \cdot 0.9933 = 0.2653$$

Negative log-likelihood

First, remember that most algorithms focus on minimization:

$$NL = - \prod_{i=1}^n p(y^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

Multiplying a lot of small numbers can lead to underflow:

$$NLL = - \log \prod_{i=1}^n p(y^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

$\log(ab) = \log(a) + \log(b)$:

$$NLL = \sum_{i=1}^n -\log p(y^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

Derivative of the objective function

- Let's break this up in two steps:
 - Find the derivative of the logistic function.
 - Find the derivative of the full objective function.

Relevant derivative rules

Function	Derivative	Comment
$f(x) = c$	$f'(x) = 0$	
$f(x) = ag(x)$	$f'(x) = ag'(x)$	
$f(x) = x^n$	$f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$	Therefore: $f(x) = x, f'(x) = 1$
$f(x) = e^x$	$f'(x) = e^x$	
$f(x) = \log x$	$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$	
$h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$	$h'(x) = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}$	Quotient rule
$h(x) = f(g(x))$	$h'(x) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$	Chain rule

Example

	What
$f(x) = \frac{\log(x)}{x^3}$	
$f'(x) = \frac{[\log(x)]' x^3 - \log(x) [x^3]'}{(x^3)^2}$	Quotient rule: $\left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right]' = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}$
$f'(x) = \frac{\frac{1}{x} x^3 - \log(x) 3x^2}{x^6}$	$[\log(x)]' = \frac{1}{x}, [x^n]' = nx^{n-1}$
$f'(x) = \frac{x^2 - \log(x) 3x^2}{x^6}$	
$f'(x) = \frac{1 - 3\log(x)}{x^4}$	Divide numerator and denominator by x^2 .

Exercise: find the derivative

Function	Derivative	Comment
$f(x) = c$	$f'(x) = 0$	
$f(x) = ag(x)$	$f'(x) = ag'(x)$	
$f(x) = x^n$	$f'(x) = nx^{n-1}$	Therefore: $f(x) = x, f'(x) = 1$
$f(x) = e^x$	$f'(x) = e^x$	
$f(x) = \log x$	$f'(x) = \frac{1}{x}$	
$h(x) = \frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$	$h'(x) = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}$	Quotient rule
$h(x) = f(g(x))$	$h'(x) = f'(g(x))g'(x)$	Chain rule

Given $f(x) = \log(e^x + x^2)$, find $f'(x)$

Example: find the derivative

	What
$f(x) = \log(e^x + x^2)$	
$f'(x) = [\log(e^x + x^2)]'$	
$f'(x) = \log'(e^x + x^2)[e^x + x^2]'$	Chain rule: $(f(g(x)))' = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$
$f'(x) = \frac{1}{e^x + x^2} (e^x + 2x)$	
$f'(x) = \frac{e^x + 2x}{e^x + x^2}$	

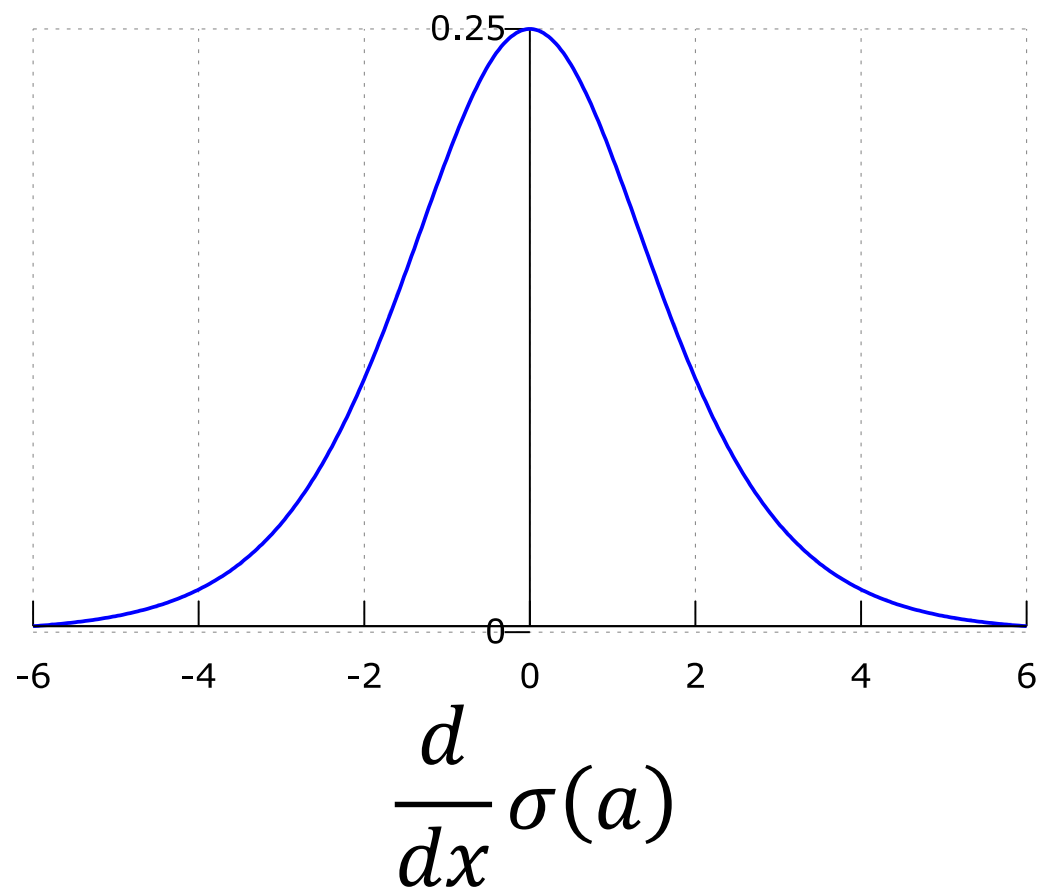
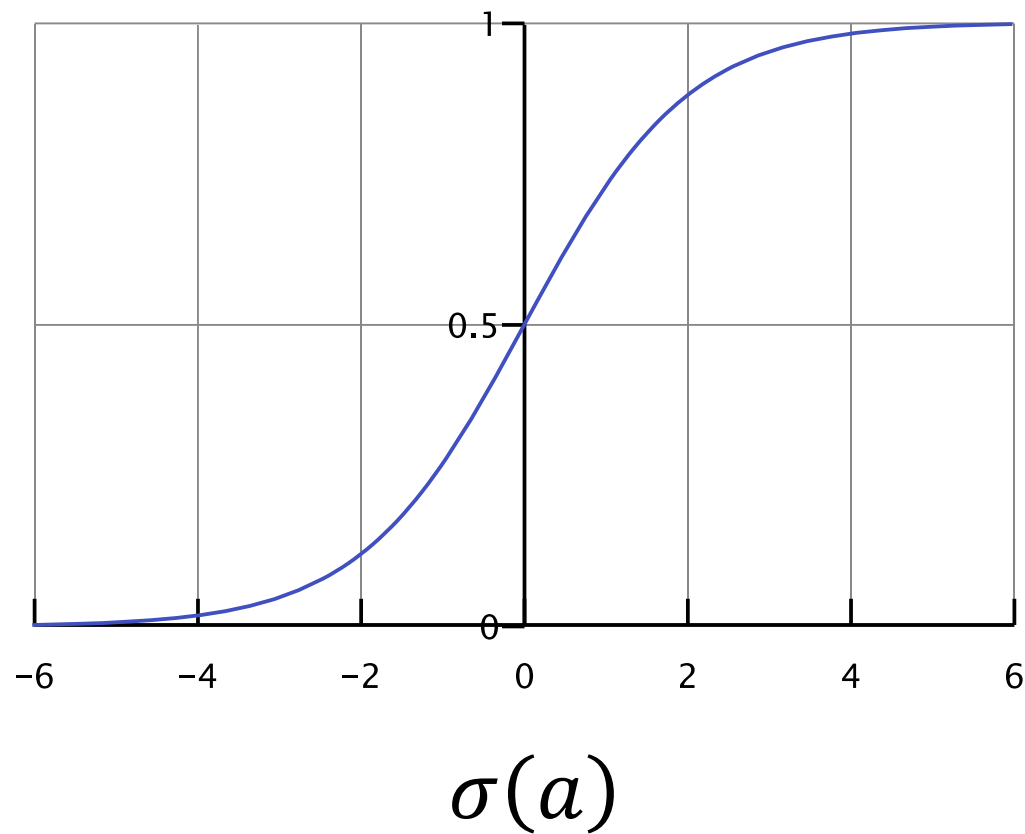
Derivative of $\sigma(a)$

	Step
$\sigma(a) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}} = \frac{e^a}{1 + e^a}$	Multiply the numerator and denominator by e^a .
$\sigma'(a) = \left[\frac{e^a}{1 + e^a} \right]'$	
$\sigma'(a) = \frac{[e^a]'(1 + e^a) - e^a[1 + e^a]'}{(1 + e^a)^2}$	Quotient rule: $\left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right]' = \frac{f'(x)g(x) - f(x)g'(x)}{(g(x))^2}$
$\sigma'(a) = \frac{e^a(1 + e^a) - e^a e^a}{(1 + e^a)^2}$	Apply $[e^x]' = e^x$
$\sigma'(a) = \frac{e^a + e^a e^a - e^a e^a}{(1 + e^a)^2}$	Distributive property
$\sigma'(a) = \frac{e^a}{(1 + e^a)^2}$	Subtract

Derivative of $\sigma(a)$, continued

	Step
$\sigma'(a) = \frac{e^a}{(1 + e^a)^2}$	Continue from the previous step
$\sigma'(a) = \frac{e^a}{1 + e^a} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + e^a}$	
$\sigma'(a) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-a}} \cdot \frac{1}{1 + e^a}$	Divide the numerator and denominator of the first term by e^a
$\sigma'(a) = \sigma(a) \cdot (1 - \sigma(a))$	

$\sigma(a)$ gradient



Derivative of NLL

Find the derivative of the objective function:

$$NLL = \sum_{i=1}^n -\log p(y^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$

First we will simplify our problem at bit:

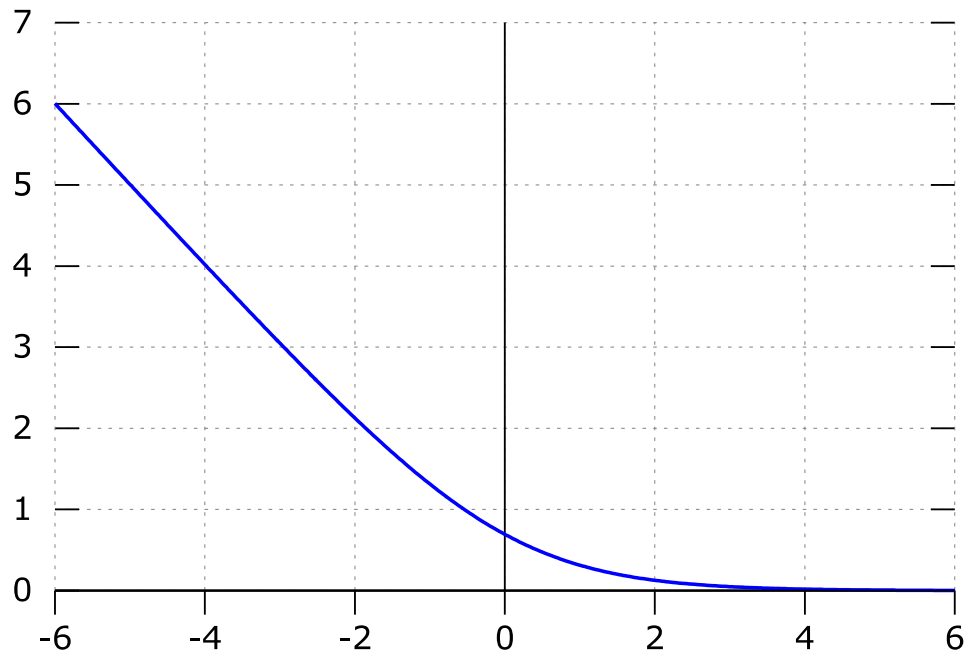
- Find the derivative of $-\log p(y^i = 1 | x^{(i)})$
- Pretend that a is a scalar.

We will then later remove these simplifications.

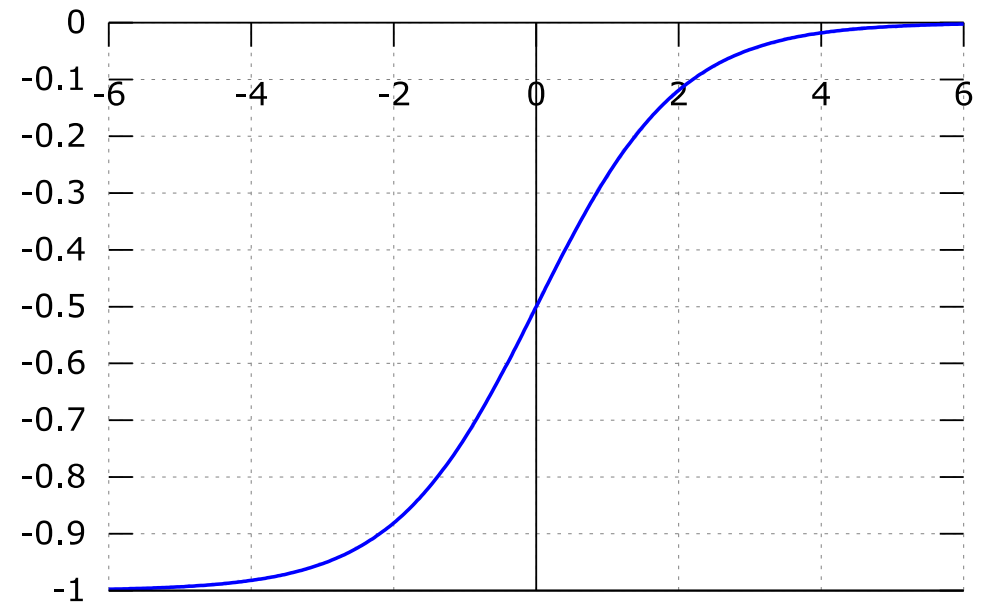
Derivative of $-\log p(1|x^{(i)})$

$-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1 x^{(i)}) = -\log(\sigma(a))$	
$[-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1 x^{(i)})]' = -[\log(\sigma(a))]'$	
$[-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1 x^{(i)})]' = (\log' \circ \sigma)(a)[\sigma(a)]'$	Chain rule: $(f(g(x)))' = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$
$[-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1 x^{(i)})]' = -\frac{1}{\sigma(a)} \sigma(a) \cdot (1 - \sigma(a))$	Derivative of log: $[\log(x)]' = \frac{1}{x}$
$[-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1 x^{(i)})]' = -(1 - \sigma(a))$	

Objective function and derivative



$$-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1 | \mathbf{x}^{(i)})$$



$$\frac{d}{da} (-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1 | \mathbf{x}^{(i)}))$$

Partial derivative

We have found the derivative:

$$[-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1 | \mathbf{x}^{(i)})]' = -(1 - \sigma(a))$$

However, we want the derivative with respect to a particular weight w_i . This is the so-called **partial derivative**.

Next steps:

- Find the partial derivative the dot product with respect to w_i .
- Combine with the objective derivative that we have found.

Partial derivative (dot product)

Remember: $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} = w_1x_1 + \cdots w_jx_j + \cdots w_nx_n$

$$[\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}]_{x_j} = x_j$$

Partial derivative $-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1|x^{(i)})$

$[-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1 x^{(i)})]_{w_j} = -[\log \sigma(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b)]_{w_i}$	
$[-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1 x^{(i)})]_{w_j} = -(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b))x_j^{(i)}$	Chain rule: $(f(g(x)))' = f'(g(x)) \cdot g'(x)$

Partial derivative for both classes

$$[-\log p(y^{(i)} = 1 | \mathbf{x}^{(i)})]_{w_j} = -(1 - \sigma(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b))x_j^{(i)}$$

$$[-\log p(y^{(i)} = 0 | \mathbf{x}^{(i)})]_{w_j} = -(-\sigma(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b))x_j^{(i)}$$

Combine:

$$\begin{aligned} [-\log p(y^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}^{(i)})]_{w_j} &= -(y^{(i)} - \sigma(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b))x_j^{(i)} \\ &= (\sigma(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}^{(i)} + b) - y^{(i)})x_j^{(i)} \end{aligned}$$

Question: what is $[-\log p(y^{(i)} | \mathbf{x}^{(i)})]_b$?

The end