ECE521 Lecture 7/8 Logistic Regression



Outline

- Logistic regression (Continue)
- A single neuron
- Learning neural networks
- Multi-class classification

Logistic regression

 The output of a logistic regression model is a sigmoid function of a weighted sum of its inputs:

$$\hat{y}^{(m)} = \sigma(z^{(m)}) = \sigma(W^T \mathbf{x}^{(m)} + b)$$

- Recall the sigmoid function and its nice derivatives:
 - The sigmoid output is bounded between 0 and 1

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



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Logistic regression

We may choose to train logistic regression model using a squared L2 loss function:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m} \|\hat{y}^{(m)} - t^{(m)}\|_{2}^{2} \qquad \qquad \hat{y}^{(m)} = \sigma(z^{(m)}) = \sigma(W^{T} \mathbf{x}^{(m)} + b)$$

The gradient of the loss function w.r.t. W or b can be obtained easily using chain-rule of calculus:

own

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mbox{Gradient} & \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W} = \sum_{m} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \hat{y}^{(m)}} \frac{\partial \hat{y}^{(m)}}{\partial z^{(m)}} \frac{\partial z^{(m)}}{\partial W} & \mbox{Gradient w.r.t.} \\ \mbox{veight} & \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W} = \sum_{m} (\hat{y}^{(m)} - t^{(m)}) \hat{y}^{(m)} (1 - \hat{y}^{(m)}) \mathbf{x}^{(m)} & \mbox{(your own exercise)} \end{array}$$

Logistic regression

- Using a squared L2 loss function to train logistic regression models has a major flaw:
 - If the model parameters are poorly initialized and the model is making nearly binary predictions at the first iteration of a gradient descent algorithm, then learning will happen really slowly using squared L2 loss because of the vanishing gradient from the sigmoid function.
 - One way to see this is to have a model

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{m} \|\hat{y}^{(m)} - t^{(m)}\|_2^2$$

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W} = \sum_{m} (\hat{y}^{(m)} - t^{(m)}) \hat{y}^{(m)} (1 - \hat{y}^{(m)}) \mathbf{x}^{(m)}$$

Cross-entropy loss function

• Cross-entropy is a better loss function.

$$\mathcal{L} = \sum_{m} -t^{(m)} \log \sigma(z^{(m)}) - (1 - t^{(m)}) \log(1 - \sigma(z^{(m)}))$$

• Take the gradient w.r.t. W. The gradient under the cross-entropy loss is the same as the gradient for the linear regression model!

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W} &= \sum_{m} (\hat{y}^{(m)} - t^{(m)}) \mathbf{x}^{(m)} & \text{where, } \hat{y}^{(m)} = \sigma(z^{(m)}) \\ &= \sigma(W^T \mathbf{x}^{(m)} + b) \end{aligned}$$

Learning logistic regression

• What is happening during learning?

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W} = \sum_{m} (\hat{y}^{(m)} - t^{(m)}) \mathbf{x}^{(m)}$$

The gradient is the correlation between the error and the inputs

- In what circumstances is the gradient zero? i.e. the model stops learning any new information. Either:
 - All the individual gradients are zero (perfectly separable case), or
 - The gradients from different training examples cancel out (most likely scenario)

Learning logistic regression

- The gradient reflects the correlation between the mistakes and the input features.
 - After learning, the values of the individual weights indicate the importance of its input to the final prediction
 - $\circ~$ If an input feature Xn is positively correlated with the target label, its weight will be a large positive value \hat{y}

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- Convert a text string into reasonable input-feature vectors:
 - The bag-of-words representation:
 - Count the frequency of a word appearing from a preset vocabulary

[good, fantastic, ..., terrible, disappointed, awesome,...]

[2, 0, ..., 0, 1, 5, ...]

- Consider a positive word that correlates to the positive review of a movie:
 - Assume the prediction starts at random 50% random guessing.
 - The weight of the positive word should increase during learning
 [good, fantastic, ..., terrible, disappointed, awesome,...]

- Consider a random word that appears frequently and appears in both positive and negative review:
 - Its weight will likely to be around zero.
 - The gradient is not very informative and the error will cancel out between the positive class and negative class.

â

 x_3

- Consider a random word that appears rarely and only appears in the positive review:
 - The model will likely not perform well because it is overly confident about a rare instance.

â

 x_3

• MAP should fix this problem

Intuitive geometry of logistic regression

- Decision boundary of logistic regression
 - The weight vector is perpendicular to the decision boundary



Concept in the course so far

• Problem formulations:

 i.i.d., different distance functions, squared L2 loss, cross-entropy loss, MLE, MAP, weight-decay regularizer

• Learning algorithms:

• gradient descent, stochastic gradient descent, momentum

• Models:

• linear regression, logistic regression, k-NN (no learning required)

• Some theoretical results

 Provide some additional intuition: how to pick the optimal regressor, optimal decision rules (how to set the threshold/decision boundary), expected loss

Outline

- Logistic regression
- Learning objectives:
 - Logistic/sigmoid function and its derivatives
 - Cross-entropy loss function and its derivatives
 - Probabilistic interpretation (assignment 2)

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- Neural networks are flexible computation models that consist of many smaller computational modules called neurons or hidden units:
 - Neural networks are like continuous real-valued electrical circuits.
 - It is very modular and some special modules are designed for reusability and abstraction.
 - All continuous functions are neural networks.
 - All the learnt knowledge of a neural network is stored in its weight connections; it is also called "connectionism"
 (a name popular before the AI Winter)



- One very useful abstraction is the concept of a "layer":
 - A hidden layer is a group of hidden units that have connections one layer above and one layer below.
 - There is no inter-layer connection among the hidden units within a layer.
 - This abstraction is computationally efficient because all the hidden units within a layer can be computed in parallel.



- Deep learning typically refers to a neural network with more than three hidden layers.
 - Deep neural networks can mathematically represent any continuous function given enough layers, but they also require additional tricks to learn useful representations for any tasks.
 - They work really well in supervised learning given enough data.
 - A deep neural network is like a complex system in biology: we understand a lot about what the simple module does, but it quickly becomes really hard to understand what the system does, i.e. a "black box".



An artificial neuron

- An artificial neuron is a simple computation unit that receives inputs from other simple computation units:
 - The effect of each input on the final output of the neuron is controlled by a weight
 - The weights can be positive or negative values for encoding respectively positive or negative contributions from the inputs

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An artificial neuron

- An artificial neuron is a simple computation unit that receives inputs from other simple computation units:
 - The effect of each input on the final output of the neuron Ο is controlled by a weight
 - The weights can be positive or negative values for Ο encoding +ve or -ve contributions from the inputs
 - A weighted sum of the inputs was first proposed Ο by McCulloch-Pitts (1943)

$$\operatorname{sgn}(z) = \begin{cases} 1 & z \ge 0\\ 0 & z < 0 \end{cases} \qquad \qquad \hat{y} = \operatorname{sgn}(\sum_{n} w_n x_n + b) \end{cases}$$

$$\frac{\partial sgn}{\partial z} = 0, \forall z \neq 0$$



w

 x_1

Some simple neurons: sigmoid neurons

- Instead of using a hard step function, a soft, smooth and differentiable step function is desirable if we are going to use the gradient descent algorithm to learn our model:
 - Sigmoid neurons can be thought of as soft thresholding units.
 - Logistic regression models are simply neural networks with a single logistic neuron.

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

 $\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial z} = \sigma(z)(1 - \sigma(z))$

$$\hat{y} = \sigma(\sum_{n} w_n x_n + b)$$

$$\hat{y}$$

 \hat{y}
 \hat{y}

 x_3

 w_{i}

Some simple neurons: linear neurons

- A Linear neuron directly outputs the weighted sum of the inputs:
 - Linear regression is the simplest neural network with a single linear neuron.
 - It has a constant partial derivative which is great for gradient descent.
 - However, stacking layers of linear neurons does not increase the representational power of a model. Nonlinearity is important for building richer and more flexible models.

+b

$$f(z) = z \qquad \qquad \hat{y} = \sum_{n} w_n x_n$$
$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial z} = 1$$



Some simple neurons: rectified linear units (ReLU)

- Linear neurons can easily be modified to exhibit nonlinear behaviors:
 - The non-positive value are forced to be zero.
 - The ReLU neurons still have a very nice constant gradient if the weighted sum of the inputs is positive.
 - It is mathematically non-differentiable at zero, but we ignore that and use gradient descent anyways. It will work brilliantly well. (numerically, we will never get exactly zero summed inputs anyways.)

$$\operatorname{ReLU}(z) = \max(0, z) \qquad \hat{y} = \operatorname{ReLU}(\sum_{n} w_n x_n + b)$$
$$\frac{\partial \operatorname{ReLU}}{\partial z} = \begin{cases} 1 & z > 0 \\ 0 & z < 0 \end{cases}$$



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- There are two ways to solve a problem:
 - 1. Hire the most ingenious software engineers to hard-code a program.
 - 2. Gather a huge dataset and learn the program from the data.
 - Deep neural networks avoid time-consuming feature engineering by hand, and as the datasets grow larger they can discover better and better features with no human intervention.
 - Neural networks can also be understood as a form of *adaptive basis function model* where the model learns layers of basis functions. The activation function used for a neuron is similar to the nonlinear basis functions.



Notations for neural networks

- The model now consists of many artificial neurons wired together into a large network. For clarity, we will use the following notation for our algorithms:
 - The output of a neuron or the hidden activation is denoted as *h*
 - Scalar weight connections are indexed by the two neurons it connects
 - The input to the network is denoted *x*
 - \circ The output of the network is denoted as \hat{y}
 - The element-wise hidden activation function or the activation function or nonlinearity, denoted as $\phi(\cdot)$, is the nonlinear transformation for the weighted sum of the inputs of a neuron, e.g. sigmoid, ReLU...
 - The weighted sum of a neuron's inputs is denoted as z

 h_i

 $|\phi(z_j)|$

 $|w_{nj}|$

 w_{kj}

 $w_{{m m}'}$

 h_m

Forward propagation

• Forward propagation computes all the hidden activations h and the output of the neural network $\,\hat{y}\,$

$$\circ \quad h_j = \phi(z_j) = \phi(\sum_n w_{nj}h_n + b_j)$$

- This requires computing all the hidden activations that are the inputs to the current hidden units.
- The forward propagation can be written as a recursive algorithm:

```
def forwardprop(output_node):
 weighted_sum = 0.
 for input_node in output_node.inputs:
     activation = forwardprop(input_node)
     weighted_sum += activation * weights[input_node, output_node]
 return activationFunc(weighted_sum)
```

• The naive recursive algorithm is bad because there are a lot of redundant computations. We would like to cache the appropriate intermediate values and reuse them.



 $|\phi(z_i)|$

 $|w_{nj}|$

 w_{kj}

 w_m

Back-propagation

 Back-propagation (Rumelhart, Hinton and Williams, 1986) is a dynamic programming method to reuse previous computations when computing the gradient of some variable using the chain rule from calculus.

$$h_{j} = \phi(z_{j}) = \phi(\sum_{n} w_{nj}h_{n} + b_{j})$$

• In its simplest form:
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{nj}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial h_j} \frac{\partial h_j}{\partial z_j} \frac{\partial z_j}{\partial w_{nj}}$$

- $\frac{\partial \tilde{\partial}}{\partial h_j}$ can be further expanded until the output of the neural network.
- The key observation here is that the gradient of a connection is a product between the input and the partial derivative of the weighted sum of that neuron.

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial w_{nj}} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial z_j} h_n$$





Back-propagation

- What do we need to compute the gradients of the weights?
 - First, we need to do a forward pass and cache all the intermediate hidden activations.
 - Differentiate the loss function w.r.t. the output network as the initial step for back-propagation
 - The intermediate hidden activations are needed for the partial derivative of the weighted sums

 $\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{z}_1} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \hat{\mathbf{y}}} \frac{\partial \hat{\mathbf{y}}}{\partial \mathbf{z}_2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{z}_2}{\partial \mathbf{z}_1}$ Back-propagation (left to right)

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial W_1} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}}{\partial \mathbf{z}_1} \mathbf{h}_1^T$$

Weight matrix gradient is an outer product



TensorFlow, back-propagation and auto-diff

- TensorFlow at its core is a forward/back-propagation execution engine:
 - The computation graphs are neural networks
 - The automatic differentiation executes back-propagation for the variables (weights) in the computation graph. It can be automated if the partial derivatives of each math operator are pre-defined.
 - session.run() or eval() runs the forward/back-propagation algorithm and caches the needed intermediate computation results for later.
 - The TensorFlow framework also computes the independent computations in parallel asynchronously.



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