# CSC 311: Introduction to Machine Learning

Lecture 5 - Linear Models III, Neural Nets I

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University of Toronto, Fall 2024

#### Outline

## Softmax Regression

- 2 Tracking Model Performance
- Limits of Linear Classification
  - Introducing Neural Networks



Expressivity of a Neural Network

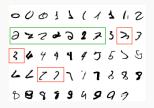
Softmax Regression

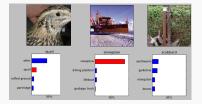


- 2 Tracking Model Performance
- 3 Limits of Linear Classification
- Introducing Neural Networks

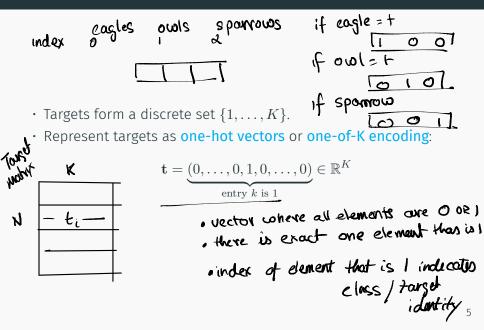


#### Task is to predict a discrete(> 2)-valued target.





#### Targets in Multi-class Classification



#### Linear Function of Inputs

Vectorized form:

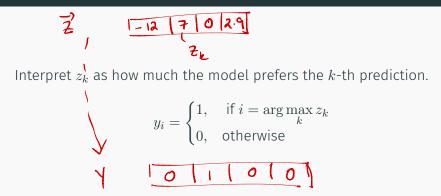
$$\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}$$
 or  
 $\mathbf{z} = \mathbf{W}\mathbf{x}$  with dummy  $x_0 = 1$ 

Non-vectorized form:

**Porometors**  

$$z_{k} = \sum_{j=1}^{D} w_{kj}x_{j} + b_{k} \text{ for } k = 1, 2, ..., K$$
**W**:  $K \times D$  matrix.  
**x**:  $D \times 1$  vector.  
**b**:  $K \times 1$  vector.  
**c**:  $K \times 1$  vector.

#### Generating a Prediction



How does the K = 2 case relate to the binary linear classifiers?

### Softmax Regression

- · Soften the predictions for optimization.
- A natural activation function is the softmax function, a generalization of the logistic function:  $7 = 0^{-12} + e^{+e}$

-12 7

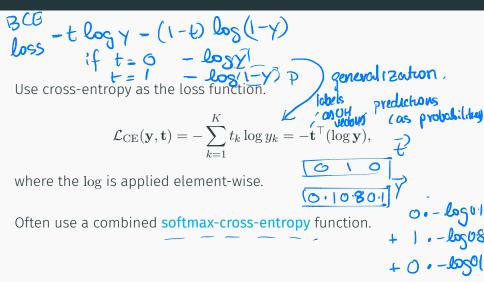
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- $z_{1} + z_{2} + z_{3} + z_{4}$   $y_{k} = \operatorname{softmax}(z_{1}, \dots, z_{K})_{k} = \frac{e^{z_{k}}}{\sum_{k'} e^{z_{k'}}}$ 
  - Inputs  $z_k$  are called the logits.
  - Interpret outputs as probabilities.
  - If  $z_k$  is much larger than the others, then softmax $(\mathbf{z})_k \approx 1$  and it behaves like argmax.

What does the K = 2 case look like?

Consider the case where Ymc ez/ezitezz e 1 mc Decusion Rule: mox ( (P) Nultidos ( . . other max W2X+b2 WIXIDI -)B (A) @Mapping from 1 linear CZI output ·Zz ) Binour Classification Ymc  $\omega_1^T x + b_1 - \omega_2^T x - b_2$ (3)  $\chi + (b_1 - b_2)$  $(\omega, -\omega_2)$ 66 Wo Need ew6 x+66 WTX+b 0 ro L-> binary classification outer.

#### Cross-Entropy as Loss Function



Softmax Regression:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{z} &= \mathbf{W} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y} &= \operatorname{softmax}(\mathbf{z}) \\ \mathcal{L}_{CE} &= -\mathbf{t}^\top (\log \mathbf{y}) \end{split}$$

Gradient Descent Updates:

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{CE}}{\partial \mathbf{w}_k} = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}_{CE}}{\partial z_k} \cdot \frac{\partial z_k}{\partial \mathbf{w}_k} = (y_k - t_k) \cdot \mathbf{x}$$
$$\mathbf{w}_k \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_k - \alpha \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N (y_k^{(i)} - t_k^{(i)}) \mathbf{x}^{(i)}$$

# Tracking Model Performance



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# **Progress During Learning**

- Track progress during learning by plotting training curves.
- Chose the training criterion (e.g. squared error, cross-entropy) partly to be easy to optimize.
- May wish to track other **metrics** to measure performance (even if we can't directly optimize them).

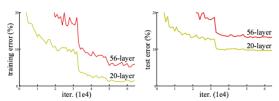


Figure 1. Training error (left) and test error (right) on CIFAR-10 with 20-layer and 56-layer "plain" networks. The deeper network has higher training error, and thus test error. Similar phenomena on ImageNet is presented in Fig. 4.

# Tracking Accuracy for Binary Classification

We can track accuracy, or fraction correctly classified.

- Equivalent to the average 0–1 loss, the error rate, or fraction incorrectly classified.
- Useful metric to track even if we couldn't optimize it.

Another way to break down the accuracy:

$$Acc = \frac{TP + TN}{P + N} = \frac{TP + TN}{(TP + FN) + (TN + FP)}$$

- *P*: num positive; *N*: num negative;
- TP: true positives; TN: true negatives
- *FP*: false positive or a type I error
- FN: false negative or a type II error

true labels

C

a: TN b: FN d: TP C: FP

Suppose you are screening patients for a particular disease. It's known that 1% of patients have that disease.

• What is the simplest model that can achieve 99% accuracy?

Useful metrics even under class imbalance!

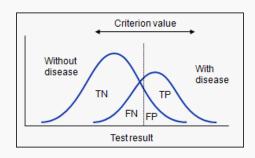
Sensitivity 
$$= \frac{TP}{TP+FN}$$
 [True positive rate]

Specificity 
$$= \frac{TN}{TN+FP}$$
 [True negative rate]

What happens if our problem is not linearly separable? How do we pick a threshold for  $y = \sigma(x)$ ?

# **Designing Diagnostic Tests**

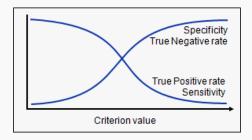
- A binary model to predict whether someone has a disease.
- What happens to sensitivity and specificity as you slide the threshold from left to right?



YE [0, ] YE [0, ] Z: crit val

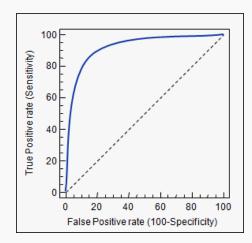
> ify≥Z →1 else →0

As we increase the criterion value (i.e. move from left to right), how do the sensitivity and specificity change?



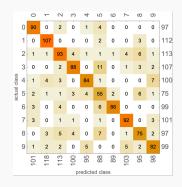
### Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) Curve

Area under the ROC curve (AUC) can quantify if a binary classifier achieves a good tradeoff between sensitivity and specificity.

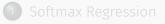


# Confusion Matrix for Multi-Class classification

- Visualizes how frequently certain classes are confused.
- +  $K \times K$  matrix; rows are true labels, columns are predicted labels, entries are frequencies
- What does the confusion matrix for a perfect classifier look like?



# Limits of Linear Classification



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Some datasets are not linearly separable, e.g. XOR.



Visually obvious, but how can we prove this formally?

# Proof That XOR is Not Linearly Separable

Proof by Contradiction:



- Half-spaces are convex. That is, if two points lie in a half-space, the line segment connecting them also lie in the same half-space.
- Suppose that the problem is feasible.
- If the positive examples are in the positive half-space, then the green line segment must be as well.
- Similarly, the red line segment must lie in the negative half-space.
- But, the intersection can't lie in both half-spaces. Contradiction!



Sometimes, we can overcome this limitation using **feature maps**, e.g., for **XOR**.

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{pmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_1 x_2 \end{pmatrix} \qquad \begin{array}{c|ccccc} \hline x_1 & x_2 & \psi_1(\mathbf{x}) & \psi_2(\mathbf{x}) & \psi_3(\mathbf{x}) & t \\ \hline 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 \end{array}$$

- This is linearly separable. (Try it!)
- Designing feature maps can be hard. Can we learn them?

# Introducing Neural Networks



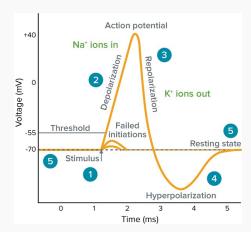
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Expressivity of a Neural Network

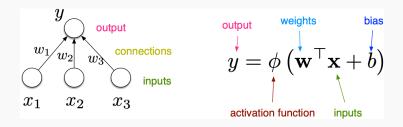
# Neurons in the Brain

Neurons receive input signals and accumulate voltage. After some threshold, they will fire spiking responses.



[Pic credit: www.moleculardevices.com]

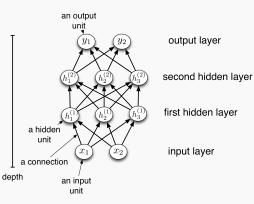
For neural nets, we use a much simpler model for neuron, or **unit**:



- Similar to logistic regression:  $y = \sigma(\mathbf{w}^{\top}\mathbf{x} + b)$
- By throwing together lots of these simple neuron-like processing units, we can do some powerful computations!

#### A Feed-Forward Neural Network

- A directed acyclic graph (DAG)
- Units are grouped into layers



#### **Multilayer Perceptrons**

- A multi-layer network consists of fully connected layers.
- In a fully connected layer, all input units are connected to all output units.
- Each hidden layer i connects  $N_{i-1}$  input units to  $N_i$  output units. Weight matrix is  $N_i \times N_{i-1}$ .
- The outputs are a function of the input units:

 $w_{11}$ 

$$\mathbf{y} = f(\mathbf{x}) = \phi\left(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}\right)$$

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12×1

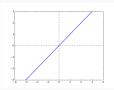
 $w_{43}$ 

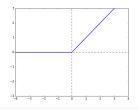
 $\phi$  is applied component-wise.

Represent Pach laxer's

Computation

#### Some Activation Functions







Identity

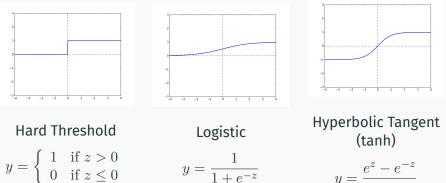
y = z

Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU)

 $y = \max(0, z)$ 

Soft ReLU $y = \log 1 + e^z$ 

#### **More Activation Functions**



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

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

#### **Computation in Each Layer**

#### Each layer computes a function.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{h}^{(1)} &= f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{W}^{(1)}\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b}^{(1)}) \\ \mathbf{h}^{(2)} &= f^{(2)}(\mathbf{h}^{(1)}) = \phi(\mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{h}^{(1)} + \mathbf{b}^{(2)}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\mathbf{y} = f^{(L)}(\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)})$$

$$\mathbf{y} = f^{(L)}(\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)})$$

If task is regression: choose  

$$\mathbf{y} = f^{(L)}(\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)}) = (\mathbf{w}^{(L)})^{\top}\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} + b^{(L)}$$

If task is binary classification: choose  $\mathbf{v} = f^{(L)}(\mathbf{h}^{(L-1)}) = \sigma((\mathbf{w}^{(L)})^{\top} \mathbf{h}^{(L-1)} + b^{(L)})$ 

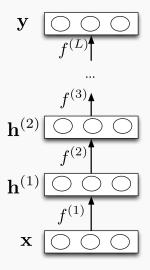
$$\mathbf{h}^{(2)} \underbrace{f^{(3)}}_{f^{(2)}} \mathbf{h}^{(1)} \underbrace{f^{(2)}}_{f^{(1)}} \mathbf{h}^{(1)} \mathbf{h}^{(1)}$$

у |

The network computes a composition of functions.

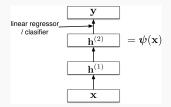
$$\mathbf{y} = f^{(L)} \circ \cdots \circ f^{(1)}(\mathbf{x}).$$

Modularity: We can implement each layer's computations as a black box.

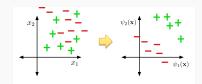


### Feature Learning

#### Neural nets can be viewed as a way of learning features:



The goal:



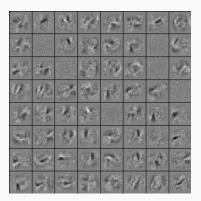
### Feature Learning

- Suppose we're trying to classify images of handwritten digits.
- Each image is represented as a vector of  $28 \times 28 = 784$  pixel values.
- Each hidden unit in the first layer acts as a **feature detector**.
- We can visualize **w** by reshaping it into an image. Below is an example that responds to a diagonal stroke.



### Features for Classifying Handwritten Digits

Features learned by the first hidden layer of a handwritten digit classifier:

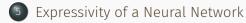


Unlike hard-coded feature maps (e.g., in polynomial regression), features learned by neural networks adapt to patterns in the data.

### Expressivity of a Neural Network

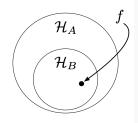


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### Expressivity

- $\cdot$  A hypothesis space  ${\cal H}$  is the set of functions that can be represented by some model.
- Consider two models A and B with hypothesis spaces  $\mathcal{H}_A, \mathcal{H}_B$ .
- If  $\mathcal{H}_B \subseteq \mathcal{H}_A$ , then *A* is more **expressive** than *B*. *A* can **represent** any function *f* in  $\mathcal{H}_B$ .



• Some functions (XOR) can't be represented by linear classifiers. Are deep networks more expressive?

# 3 layer neural net w/

## identity actualion

- Consider a linear layer: the activation function was the identity.
   The layer just computes an affine transformation of the input.
- Any sequence of linear layers is equivalent to a single linear layer.

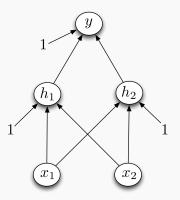
$$\mathbf{y} = \underbrace{\mathbf{W}^{(3)}\mathbf{W}^{(2)}\mathbf{W}^{(1)}}_{\triangleq \mathbf{W}'} \mathbf{x} \quad \text{function}$$

• Deep linear networks can only represent linear functions — no more expressive than linear regression.

- Multi-layer feed-forward neural networks with non-linear activation functions
- Universal Function Approximators: They can approximate any function arbitrarily well, i.e., for any  $f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{T}$  there is a sequence  $f_i \in \mathcal{H}$  with  $f_i \to f$ .
- True for various activation functions (e.g. thresholds, logistic, ReLU, etc.)

### Designing a Network to Classify XOR

Assume a hard threshold activation function.

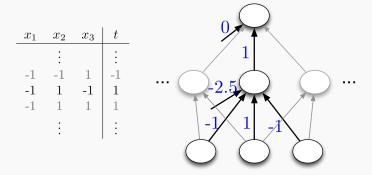


### Designing a Network to Classify XOR

activation h = II [cond]  $h_1$  computes  $x_1 \vee x_2$ -0.5570  $\mathbb{I}[x_1 + x_2 - 0.5 > 0]$  $h_2$  computes  $x_1 \wedge x_2$  $h_2$  $h_1$  $\mathbb{I}[x_1 + x_2 - 1.5 > 0]$ -0.5y computes  $h_1 \wedge (\neg h_2) = x_1 \oplus x_2$ 1  $\mathbb{I}[h_1 - h_2 - 0.5 > 0]$  $x_1$  $x_2$  $\equiv \mathbb{I}[h_1 + (1 - h_2) - 1.5 > 0]$  $h_1 = 1.0 + (.1 - 0.5 = 0.5)$ 20=)h1=1  $h_2 = 0.1 + 1.1 - 1.5 =$ 

### Universality for Binary Inputs and Targets

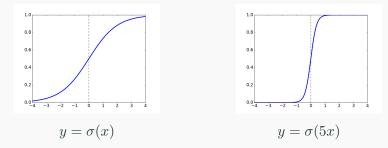
- Hard threshold hidden units, linear output
- Strategy:  $2^D$  hidden units, each of which responds to one particular input configuration



• Only requires one hidden layer, though it is extremely wide.

### Expressivity of the Logistic Activation Function

- What about the logistic activation function?
- Approximate a hard threshold by scaling up w and b.

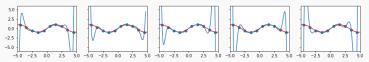


• Logistic units are differentiable, so we can learn weights with gradient descent.

### What is Expressivity Good For?

- May need a very large network to represent a function.
- Non-trivial to learn the weights that represent a function.
- If you can learn any function, over-fitting is potentially a serious concern!

For the polynomial feature mappings, expressivity increases with the degree M, eventually allowing multiple perfect fits to the training data. This motivated  $L^2$  regularization.



• Do neural networks over-fit and how can we regularize them?

### Regularization and Over-fitting for Neural Networks

- The topic of over-fitting (when & how it happens, how to regularize, etc.) for neural networks is not well-understood, even by researchers!
  - In principle, you can always apply  $L^2$  regularization.
  - ▶ You will learn more in CSC413.
- A common approach is **early stopping**, or stopping training early, because over-fitting typically increases as training progresses.



 $\cdot$  Don't add an explicit  $\mathcal{R}(oldsymbol{ heta})$  term to our cost.

- Multi-class classification
- Selecting good metrics to track performance in models
- From linear to non-linear models