CSCI567 Machine Learning (Spring 2025)

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University of Southern California

Feb 07, 2025

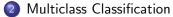
HW1 was due yesterday. Remember: only one late day allowed

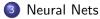
HW2 will be released next week.



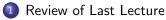


Review of Last Lecture





Outline



2 Multiclass Classification

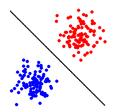


Linear classifiers

Linear models for **binary** classification:

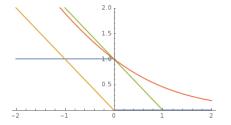
Step 1. Model is the set of separating hyperplanes

$$\mathcal{F} = \{f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \mathsf{sgn}(\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}) \mid \boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}}\}$$



Linear classifiers

Step 2. Pick the surrogate loss



- perceptron loss $\ell_{perceptron}(z) = \max\{0, -z\}$ (used in Perceptron)
- hinge loss $\ell_{hinge}(z) = \max\{0, 1-z\}$ (used in SVM and many others)
- logistic loss $\ell_{\text{logistic}}(z) = \log(1 + \exp(-z))$ (used in logistic regression)

Linear classifiers

Step 3. Find empirical risk minimizer (ERM):

$$\boldsymbol{w}^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}}} F(\boldsymbol{w}) = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}}} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell(y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n)$$

using

- GD: $w \leftarrow w \eta \nabla F(w)$
- SGD: $w \leftarrow w \eta \tilde{\nabla} F(w)$ $(\mathbb{E}[\tilde{\nabla} F(w)] = \nabla F(w))$
 - Newton: $\boldsymbol{w} \leftarrow \boldsymbol{w} \left(\nabla^2 F(\boldsymbol{w})\right)^{-1} \nabla F(\boldsymbol{w})$

Convergence guarantees of GD/SGD

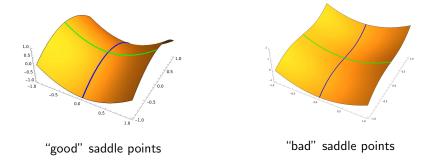
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- GD/SGD converges to a stationary point
- for convex objectives, this is all we need
- for nonconvex objectives, can get stuck at local minimizers or "bad" saddle points (random initialization escapes "good" saddle points)



Perceptron and logistic regression

Initialize w = 0 or randomly.

Repeat:

• pick a data point x_n uniformly at random (common trick for SGD)

Perceptron and logistic regression

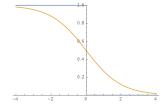
Initialize w = 0 or randomly.

Repeat:

- pick a data point x_n uniformly at random (common trick for SGD)
- update parameter:

$$oldsymbol{w} \leftarrow oldsymbol{w} + egin{cases} \mathbb{I}[y_noldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}oldsymbol{x}_n \leq 0]y_noldsymbol{x}_n \ \eta\sigma(-y_noldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}}oldsymbol{x}_n)y_noldsymbol{x}_n \end{cases}$$

(Perceptron) (logistic regression)



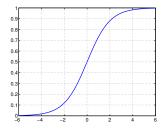
A Probabilistic view of logistic regression

Minimizing logistic loss = MLE for the sigmoid model

$$\boldsymbol{w}^* = \operatorname*{argmin}_{\boldsymbol{w}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \ell_{\mathsf{logistic}}(y_n \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{\boldsymbol{w}} \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mathbb{P}(y_n \mid \boldsymbol{x}_n; \boldsymbol{w})$$

where

$$\mathbb{P}(y \mid \boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w}) = \sigma(y \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-y \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}}}$$



Outline



2 Multiclass Classification

- Multinomial logistic regression
- Reduction to binary classification

3 Neural Nets

Classification

Recall the setup:

- input (feature vector): $oldsymbol{x} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}}$
- output (label): $y \in [\mathsf{C}] = \{1, 2, \cdots, \mathsf{C}\}$
- goal: learn a mapping $f : \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}} \to [\mathsf{C}]$

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Examples:

- recognizing digits (C = 10) or letters (C = 26 or 52)
- predicting weather: sunny, cloudy, rainy, etc
- predicting image category: ImageNet dataset (C $\approx 20K$)

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Nearest Neighbor Classifier naturally works for arbitrary C.

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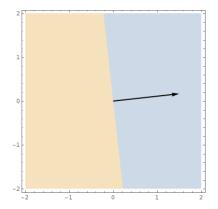
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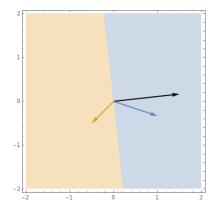
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for any w_1, w_2 s.t. $w = w_1 - w_2$ Think of $w_k^{\mathrm{T}} x$ as a score for class k.



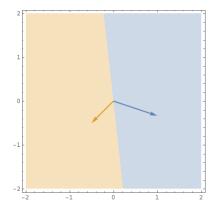
$$\boldsymbol{w} = (\frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{6})$$

- Blue class: $\{ \boldsymbol{x} : \boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x} \ge 0 \}$
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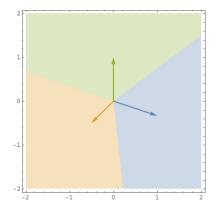
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$$\{\boldsymbol{x}: 2 = \operatorname{argmax}_k \boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}\}$$

- Green class:
 - $\{ \boldsymbol{x} : 3 = \operatorname{argmax}_k \boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x} \}$

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This lecture: focus on the more popular logistic loss

Multinomial logistic regression: a probabilistic view

Observe: for binary logistic regression, with $w = w_1 - w_2$:

$$\mathbb{P}(y=1 \mid \boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{w}) = \sigma(\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-\boldsymbol{w}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}}} = \frac{e^{\boldsymbol{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}}}{e^{\boldsymbol{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}} + e^{\boldsymbol{w}_{2}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}}} \propto e^{\boldsymbol{w}_{1}^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}}$$

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This is called the *softmax function*.

Applying MLE again

Maximize probability of seeing labels $y_1,\ldots,y_{\sf N}$ given ${m x}_1,\ldots,{m x}_{\sf N}$

$$P(\boldsymbol{W}) = \prod_{n=1}^{\mathsf{N}} \mathbb{P}(y_n \mid \boldsymbol{x}_n; \boldsymbol{W}) = \prod_{n=1}^{\mathsf{N}} \frac{e^{\boldsymbol{w}_{y_n}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n}}{\sum_{k \in [\mathsf{C}]} e^{\boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{x}_n}}$$

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By taking negative log, this is equivalent to minimizing

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When C = 2, this is the same as binary logistic loss.

Apply **SGD**: what is the gradient of

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SGD for multinomial logistic regression

Initialize W = 0 (or randomly). Repeat:

- **9** pick $n \in [N]$ uniformly at random
- 2 update the parameters

$$oldsymbol{W} \leftarrow oldsymbol{W} - \eta \left(egin{array}{cc} \mathbb{P}(y=1 \mid oldsymbol{x}_n;oldsymbol{W}) \ dots \ \mathbb{P}(y=y_n \mid oldsymbol{x}_n;oldsymbol{W}) - 1 \ dots \ \mathbb{P}(y=\mathsf{C} \mid oldsymbol{x}_n;oldsymbol{W}) \end{array}
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- **9** pick $n \in [N]$ uniformly at random
- 2 update the parameters

$$oldsymbol{W} \leftarrow oldsymbol{W} - \eta \left(egin{array}{cc} \mathbb{P}(y=1 \mid oldsymbol{x}_n;oldsymbol{W}) \ dots \ \mathbb{P}(y=y_n \mid oldsymbol{x}_n;oldsymbol{W}) - 1 \ dots \ \mathbb{P}(y=\mathsf{C} \mid oldsymbol{x}_n;oldsymbol{W}) \end{array}
ight) oldsymbol{x}_n^{\mathrm{T}}$$

Think about why the algorithm makes sense intuitively.

A note on prediction

Having learned W, we can either

• make a *deterministic* prediction $\operatorname{argmax}_{k \in [\mathsf{C}]} \boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}$

A note on prediction

Having learned W, we can either

- make a *deterministic* prediction $\operatorname{argmax}_{k \in [\mathsf{C}]} \boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}$
- make a *randomized* prediction according to $\mathbb{P}(k \mid \boldsymbol{x}; \boldsymbol{W}) \propto e^{\boldsymbol{w}_k^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{x}}$

Generalization of cross-entropy loss

Given a general model class:

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ f(\boldsymbol{x}) = \operatorname*{argmax}_{k \in [\mathsf{C}]} s_k(\boldsymbol{x}) \right\}$$

where s_k is the "scoring" function for class k.

Generalization of cross-entropy loss

Given a general model class:

$$\mathcal{F} = \left\{ f(oldsymbol{x}) = rgmax_{k \in [\mathsf{C}]} \ s_k(oldsymbol{x})
ight\}$$

where s_k is the "scoring" function for class k.

The cross-entropy loss of f for a training sample (x, y) is

$$-\ln\left(\frac{e^{s_y(\boldsymbol{x})}}{\sum_{k\in[\mathsf{C}]}e^{s_k(\boldsymbol{x})}}\right) = \ln\left(1 + \sum_{k\neq y}e^{s_k(\boldsymbol{x}) - s_y(\boldsymbol{x})}\right)$$

Reduce multiclass to binary

Is there an *even more general and simpler approach* to derive multiclass classification algorithms?

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Given a binary classification algorithm (*any one*, not just linear methods), can we turn it to a multiclass algorithm, *in a black-box manner*?

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Is there an *even more general and simpler approach* to derive multiclass classification algorithms?

Given a binary classification algorithm (*any one*, not just linear methods), can we turn it to a multiclass algorithm, *in a black-box manner*?

Yes, there are in fact many ways to do it.

- one-versus-all (one-versus-rest, one-against-all, etc.)
- one-versus-one (all-versus-all, etc.)
- Error-Correcting Output Codes (ECOC)
- tree-based reduction

(picture credit: link)

Idea: train C binary classifiers to learn "is class k or not?" for each k.

(picture credit: link)

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Training: for each class $k \in [C]$,

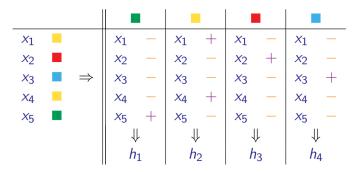
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```
One-versus-all (OvA)
```

Prediction: for a new example x

- ask each h_k : does this belong to class k? (i.e. $h_k(x)$)
- randomly pick among all k's s.t. $h_k(x) = +1$.

Issue: will (probably) make a mistake as long as one of h_k errs.

(picture credit: link)

Idea: train $\binom{C}{2}$ binary classifiers to learn "is class k or k'?".

(picture credit: link)

Idea: train $\binom{C}{2}$ binary classifiers to learn "is class k or k'?".

Training: for each pair (k, k'),

- ullet relabel examples with class k as +1 and examples with class k' as -1
- discard all other examples
- \bullet train a binary classifier $h_{(k,k^\prime)}$ using this new dataset

(picture credit: link)

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		📕 vs. 📕		📕 VS. 📕		📕 VS. 📕		📕 VS. 📕		📕 VS. 📕		📕 VS. 📕	
x_1		<i>x</i> ₁	—					<i>x</i> ₁	—			<i>x</i> ₁	—
<i>x</i> ₂				<i>x</i> ₂	—	<i>x</i> ₂	+					<i>x</i> ₂	+
<i>x</i> 3	\Rightarrow					<i>x</i> 3	—	<i>x</i> 3	+	<i>x</i> 3	—		
<i>x</i> 4		<i>x</i> 4	—					<i>x</i> 4	—			<i>x</i> 4	—
X_5		<i>x</i> 5	+	<i>x</i> 5	+					<i>x</i> 5	+		
		↓		↓		₩		\Downarrow		\Downarrow		↓	
		$h_{(1,2)}$		$h_{(1,3)}$		$h_{(3,4)}$		$h_{(4,2)}$		$h_{(1,4)}$		$h_{(3,2)}$	

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Prediction: for a new example x

- ask each classifier $h_{(k,k')}$ to vote for either class k or k'
- predict the class with the most votes (break tie in some way)

More robust than one-versus-all, but *slower* in prediction.

(picture credit: link)

Idea: based on a code $M \in \{-1, +1\}^{C \times L}$, train L binary classifiers to learn "is bit b on or off".



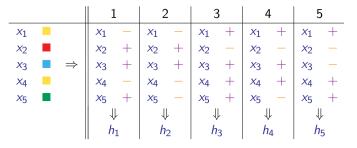
(picture credit: link)

Idea: based on a code $M \in \{-1, +1\}^{C \times L}$, train L binary classifiers to learn "is bit b on or off".

Training: for each bit $b \in [L]$

- relabel example x_n as $M_{y_n,b}$
- train a binary classifier h_b using this new dataset.





Prediction: for a new example x

• compute the predicted code $\boldsymbol{c} = (h_1(\boldsymbol{x}), \dots, h_{\mathsf{L}}(\boldsymbol{x}))^{\mathrm{T}}$

Prediction: for a new example x

- compute the predicted code $oldsymbol{c} = (h_1(oldsymbol{x}), \dots, h_{\mathsf{L}}(oldsymbol{x}))^{\mathrm{T}}$
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Prediction: for a new example $oldsymbol{x}$

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How to design the code M?

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 - if any two codes are d bits away, then prediction can tolerate about $d/2 \,$ errors

Error-correcting output codes (ECOC)

Prediction: for a new example \boldsymbol{x}

- compute the predicted code $oldsymbol{c} = (h_1(oldsymbol{x}), \dots, h_{\mathsf{L}}(oldsymbol{x}))^{\mathrm{T}}$
- predict the class with the most similar code: $k = \operatorname{argmax}_k(\boldsymbol{M}\boldsymbol{c})_k$

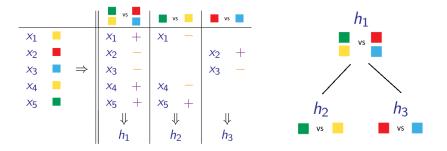
How to design the code M?

- the more *dissimilar* the codes, the more robust
 - if any two codes are d bits away, then prediction can tolerate about $d/2 \,$ errors
- random code is often a good choice

Idea: train \approx C binary classifiers to learn "belongs to which half?".

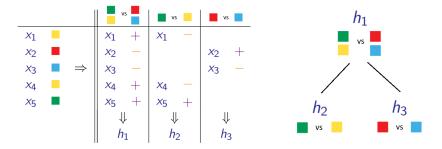
Idea: train \approx C binary classifiers to learn "belongs to which half?".

Training: see pictures



Idea: train \approx C binary classifiers to learn "belongs to which half?".

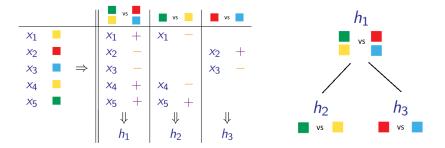
Training: see pictures



Prediction is also natural,

Idea: train \approx C binary classifiers to learn "belongs to which half?".

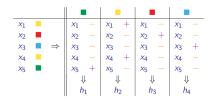
Training: see pictures



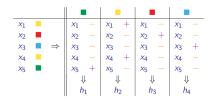
Prediction is also natural, *but is very fast!* (think ImageNet where $C \approx 20K$)

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark

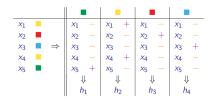
Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA			



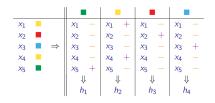
Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN		



Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	С	



Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	С	not robust



Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	С	not robust
OvO			

		🔳 v	s. 📒	🔳 v	s. 📕	🗖 🗖 🗸	'S. 📕	🗖 v	'S. 📒	🔳 v	s. 🔳	🗖 v	s. 📕
x_1		<i>x</i> 1						<i>x</i> 1				x_1	
<i>x</i> ₂				<i>x</i> ₂		x2	+					x2	+
<i>X</i> 3	\Rightarrow					<i>x</i> 3		<i>X</i> 3	+	<i>X</i> 3			
<i>x</i> 4		X4						X4				<i>x</i> 4	
x_5		<i>x</i> 5	+	<i>x</i> 5	+					<i>x</i> 5	+		
		1	Ų	1	ŀ		Ų.		Ų		Ų	1	ŀ
		$= h_{(}$	1,2)	$h_{(}$	1,3)	$= h_{(}$	3,4)	$h_{(}$	4,2)	$-h_0$	1,4)	$h_{(i)}$	3,2)

Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	С	not robust
OvO	(C-1)N		

		🔳 v	s. 📒	🔳 v	s. 📕	🗖 🗖 🗸	'S. 📕	🗖 v	'S. 📒	🔳 v	s. 🔳	🗖 v	s. 📕
x_1		<i>x</i> 1						<i>x</i> 1				x_1	
<i>x</i> ₂				<i>x</i> ₂		x2	+					x2	+
<i>X</i> 3	\Rightarrow					<i>x</i> 3		<i>X</i> 3	+	<i>X</i> 3			
<i>x</i> 4		X4						X4				<i>x</i> 4	
x_5		<i>x</i> 5	+	<i>x</i> 5	+					<i>x</i> 5	+		
		1	Ų	1	ŀ		Ų.	·	Ų		Ų	1	ŀ
		$= h_{(}$	1,2)	$h_{(}$	1,3)	$= h_{(}$	3,4)	$h_{(}$	4,2)	$-h_0$	1,4)	$h_{(i)}$	3,2)

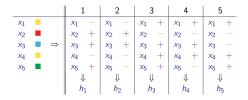
Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	С	not robust
OvO	(C-1)N	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	

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<i>x</i> ₁		<i>x</i> 1						<i>x</i> 1				x_1	
<i>x</i> ₂				<i>x</i> ₂		<i>x</i> ₂	+					<i>x</i> ₂	+
<i>x</i> 3	\Rightarrow					<i>x</i> 3		<i>x</i> 3	+	<i>x</i> 3			
<i>x</i> 4		X4						X4				<i>x</i> 4	
x_5		<i>x</i> 5	+	<i>x</i> 5	+					<i>x</i> 5	+		
		1	ĥ	1	ŀ		ļ	·	₽	1	Ų	1	ŀ
		$= h_{(}$	1,2)	$-h_{(}$	1,3)	$h_{(i)}$	3,4)	$h_{(}$	(4,2)	$-h_{(}$	1,4)	$h_{(i)}$	3,2)

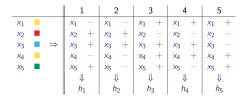
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OvO	(C-1)N	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error

		🔳 v	s. 📕	🔳 v	s. 📕	🗖 🗖 🗸	'S. 📕	🗖 v	'S. 📒	🔳 v	s. 🔳	🗖 v	s. 📕
x_1		<i>x</i> 1						<i>x</i> 1				x_1	
<i>x</i> ₂				<i>x</i> ₂		x2	+					x2	+
<i>X</i> 3	\Rightarrow					<i>x</i> 3		<i>X</i> 3	+	<i>X</i> 3			
<i>x</i> 4		X4						X4				<i>x</i> 4	
x_5		<i>x</i> 5	+	<i>x</i> 5	+					<i>x</i> 5	+		
		1	Ų.	1	ŀ		Ų.	·	₽	1	Ų	1	ŀ
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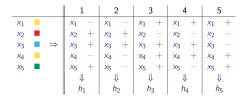
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OvO	(C-1)N	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error
ECOC			



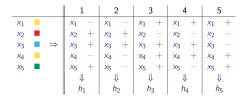
Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	С	not robust
OvO	(C-1)N	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error
ECOC	LN		



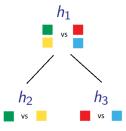
Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	С	not robust
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ECOC	LN	L	



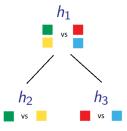
Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	С	not robust
OvO	(C-1)N	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error
ECOC	LN	L	need diversity when designing code



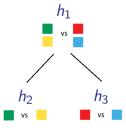
Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	С	not robust
OvO	(C-1)N	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error
ECOC	LN	L	need diversity when designing code
Tree			



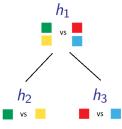
Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
OvA	CN	С	not robust
OvO	(C-1)N	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error
ECOC	LN	L	need diversity when designing code
Tree	$\mathcal{O}((\log_2 C)N)$		



Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
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Tree	$\mathcal{O}((\log_2 C)N)$	$\mathcal{O}(\log_2C)$	



Reduction	training time	prediction time	remark
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OvO	(C-1)N	$\mathcal{O}(C^2)$	can achieve very small training error
ECOC	LN	L	need diversity when designing code
Tree	$\mathcal{O}((\log_2 C)N)$	$\mathcal{O}(\log_2C)$	good for "extreme classification"



Outline

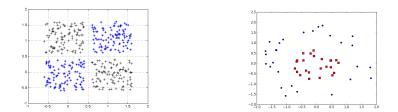
Review of Last Lecture

Multiclass Classification

3 Neural Nets

- Definition
- Backpropagation
- Preventing overfitting

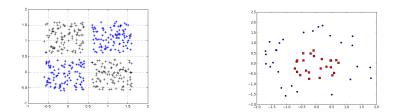
Linear models are not always adequate



We can use a nonlinear mapping as discussed:

$$oldsymbol{\phi}(oldsymbol{x}):oldsymbol{x}\in\mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}} ooldsymbol{z}\in\mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{M}}$$

Linear models are not always adequate

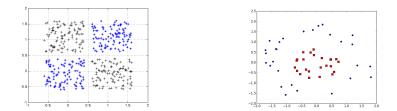


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But what kind of nonlinear mapping ϕ should be used? Can we actually learn this nonlinear mapping?

Linear models are not always adequate



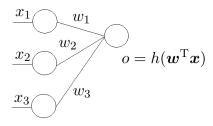
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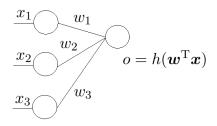
The most popular nonlinear models nowadays: neural nets

Linear model as a one-layer neural net



h(a) = a for linear model

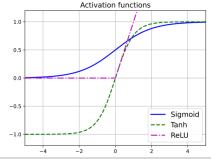
Linear model as a one-layer neural net



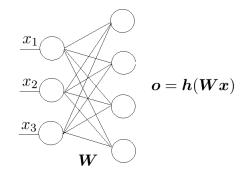
$$h(a) = a$$
 for linear model

To create non-linearity, can use

- Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU): $h(a) = \max\{0, a\}$
- sigmoid function: $h(a) = \frac{1}{1+e^{-a}}$
- TanH: $h(a) = \frac{e^a e^{-a}}{e^a + e^{-a}}$
- many more

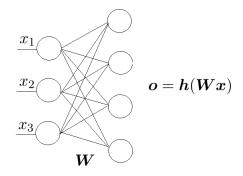


More output nodes



 $oldsymbol{W} \in \mathbb{R}^{4 imes 3}$, $oldsymbol{h}: \mathbb{R}^4 o \mathbb{R}^4$ so $oldsymbol{h}(oldsymbol{a}) = (h_1(a_1), h_2(a_2), h_3(a_3), h_4(a_4))$

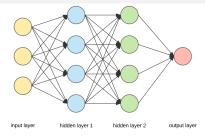
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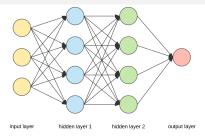
Can think of this as a nonlinear mapping: $\phi({m x})={m h}({m W}{m x})$

More layers



Becomes a network:

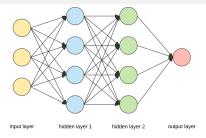
More layers



Becomes a network:

• each node is called a neuron

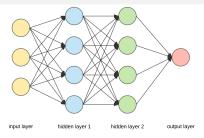
More layers



Becomes a network:

- each node is called a neuron
- h is called the activation function
 - can use h(a) = 1 for one neuron in each layer to *incorporate bias term*
 - output neuron can use h(a) = a

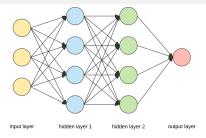
More layers



Becomes a network:

- each node is called a neuron
- h is called the activation function
 - can use h(a) = 1 for one neuron in each layer to *incorporate bias term*
 - output neuron can use h(a) = a
- #layers refers to #hidden_layers (plus 1 or 2 for input/output layers)

More layers



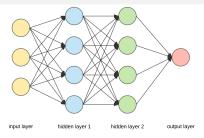
Becomes a network:

• each node is called a neuron



- can use h(a) = 1 for one neuron in each layer to *incorporate bias term*
- output neuron can use h(a) = a
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- #layers refers to #hidden_layers (plus 1 or 2 for input/output layers)
- deep neural nets can have many layers and millions of parameters
- this is a **feedforward, fully connected** neural net, there are many variants (convolutional nets, recurrent nets, transformers, etc.)

How powerful are neural nets?

Universal approximation theorem (Cybenko, 89; Hornik, 91):

A feedforward neural net with a single hidden layer can approximate any continuous functions.

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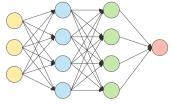
Designing network architecture is important and very complicated

• for feedforward network, need to decide number of hidden layers, number of neurons at each layer, activation functions, etc.

Math formulation

An L-layer neural net can be written as

$$\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}) = \boldsymbol{h}_{\mathsf{L}}\left(\boldsymbol{W}_{L}\boldsymbol{h}_{\mathsf{L}-1}\left(\boldsymbol{W}_{L-1}\cdots\boldsymbol{h}_{1}\left(\boldsymbol{W}_{1}\boldsymbol{x}
ight)
ight)$$

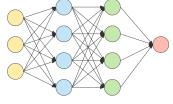


input layer hidden layer 1 hidden layer 2 output layer

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To ease notation, for a given input x, define recursively

$$oldsymbol{o}_0 = oldsymbol{x}, \qquad oldsymbol{a}_\ell = oldsymbol{W}_\ell oldsymbol{o}_{\ell-1}, \qquad oldsymbol{o}_\ell = oldsymbol{h}_\ell(oldsymbol{a}_\ell) \qquad \quad (\ell = 1, \dots, \mathsf{L})$$

where

- $m{W}_\ell \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}_\ell imes \mathsf{D}_{\ell-1}}$ is the weights between layer $\ell-1$ and ℓ
- $\bullet \ D_0 = D, D_1, \ldots, D_L$ are numbers of neurons at each layer
- $a_\ell \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}_\ell}$ is input to layer ℓ
- $o_\ell \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}_\ell}$ is output of layer ℓ
- $h_\ell : \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}_\ell} \to \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}_\ell}$ is activation functions at layer ℓ

Learning the model

No matter how complicated the model is, our goal is the same: minimize

$$F(\boldsymbol{W}_1,\ldots,\boldsymbol{W}_{\mathsf{L}}) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{\mathsf{N}} F_n(\boldsymbol{W}_1,\ldots,\boldsymbol{W}_{\mathsf{L}})$$

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where

$$F_n(\boldsymbol{W}_1, \dots, \boldsymbol{W}_{\mathsf{L}}) = \begin{cases} \|\boldsymbol{f}(\boldsymbol{x}_n) - \boldsymbol{y}_n\|_2^2 & \text{for regression} \\ \ln\left(1 + \sum_{k \neq y_n} e^{f(\boldsymbol{x}_n)_k - f(\boldsymbol{x}_n)_{y_n}}\right) & \text{for classification} \end{cases}$$

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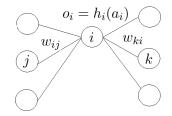
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the simplest example $f(g_1(w), g_2(w)) = g_1(w)g_2(w)$

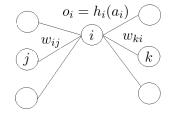
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Drop the subscript ℓ for layer for simplicity.



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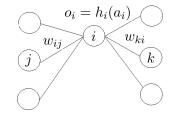
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$$\frac{\partial F_n}{\partial w_{ij}} = \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial a_i} \frac{\partial a_i}{\partial w_{ij}}$$

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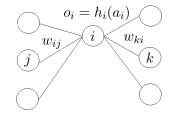
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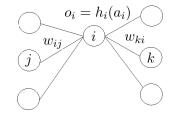
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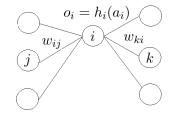
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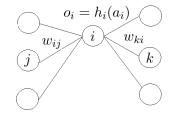
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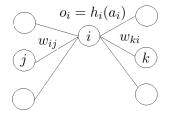
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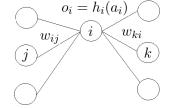
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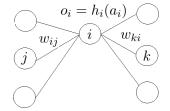


For the last layer, for square loss

$$\frac{\partial F_n}{\partial \mathbf{a}_{\mathsf{L},i}} = \frac{\partial (h_{\mathsf{L},i}(a_{\mathsf{L},i}) - y_{n,i})^2}{\partial a_{\mathsf{L},i}}$$

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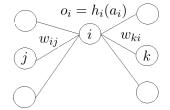


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Exercise: try to do it for cross-entropy loss yourself.

Using matrix notation greatly simplifies presentation and implementation:

$$\frac{\partial F_n}{\partial \boldsymbol{W}_{\ell}} = \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial \boldsymbol{a}_{\ell}} \boldsymbol{o}_{\ell-1}^{\mathrm{T}} \in \mathbb{R}^{\mathsf{D}_{\ell} \times \mathsf{D}_{\ell-1}}$$

$$\frac{\partial F_n}{\partial \boldsymbol{a}_{\ell}} = \begin{cases} \left(\boldsymbol{W}_{\ell+1}^{\mathrm{T}} \frac{\partial F_n}{\partial \boldsymbol{a}_{\ell+1}} \right) \circ \boldsymbol{h}_{\ell}'(\boldsymbol{a}_{\ell}) & \text{ if } \ell < \mathsf{L} \\ 2(\boldsymbol{h}_{\mathsf{L}}(\boldsymbol{a}_{\mathsf{L}}) - \boldsymbol{y}_n) \circ \boldsymbol{h}_{\mathsf{L}}'(\boldsymbol{a}_{\mathsf{L}}) & \text{ else} \end{cases}$$

where $v_1 \circ v_2 = (v_{11}v_{21}, \cdots, v_{1D}v_{2D})$ is the element-wise product (a.k.a. Hadamard product).

Verify yourself!

The **backpropagation** algorithm (**Backprop**)

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(Important: should W_{ℓ} be overwritten immediately in the last step?)

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Many important tricks on top on Backprop

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- momentum: make use of previous gradients (taking inspiration from physics)

SGD with momentum (a simple version)

```
Initialize oldsymbol{w}_0 and velocity oldsymbol{v}=oldsymbol{0}
```

For $t = 1, 2, \ldots$

- form a stochastic gradient $oldsymbol{g}_t$
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Updates for first few rounds:

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Adam (most popular) \approx SGD + adaptive learning rate + momentum

Overfitting

Overfitting is very likely since neural nets are too powerful.

Methods to overcome overfitting:

- data augmentation
- regularization
- dropout
- early stopping
- • •

Data augmentation

Data: the more the better. How do we get more data?

Data augmentation

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Exploit prior knowledge to add more training data

Affine Elastic Noise Distortion Deformation Random Horizontal Hue Shift flip Translation

Regularization

L2 regularization: minimize

$$F'(\boldsymbol{W}_1,\ldots,\boldsymbol{W}_{\mathsf{L}}) = F(\boldsymbol{W}_1,\ldots,\boldsymbol{W}_{\mathsf{L}}) + \lambda \sum_{\ell=1}^{\mathsf{L}} \|\boldsymbol{W}_{\ell}\|_2^2$$

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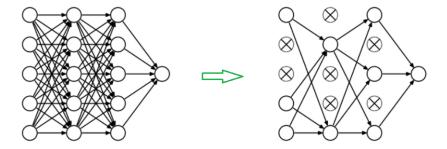
Simple change to the gradient:

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Introduce weight decaying effect

Dropout

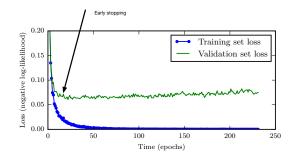
Independently delete each neuron with a fixed probability (say 0.5), during each iteration of Backprop (only for training, not for testing)



Very effective, makes training faster as well

Early stopping

Stop training when the performance on validation set stops improving



Preventing overfitting

Conclusions for neural nets

Deep neural networks

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- are still not well understood in theory