## Neural Nets

Rob McCulloch

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## 1. The Neural Net Model for Numeric Y

We will look at two examples of fitting neural nets: the zagat data and the tabloid data.
zagat has numeric y and tabloid has binary y .
zagat is simple enough that it is a good place to get acquainted with the basic ideas.

Tabloid is more realistic.
the x's must be numeric !!!

Since we will be regularizing we will have to standardize (as usual).

Here is the zagat data:


Let's rescale so that each $x$ is in $(0,1)$.

```
>x = zag$food
> xst = (x-min(x))/(max(x)-min(x))
> summary(xst)
```

Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max. 0.00000 .30770 .46150 .43120 .53851 .0000
$>\operatorname{plot}(x, x s t)$


Subtract off the min and divide by max-min.

The other obvious way to standardize is to subtract off the mean and divide by the standard deviation.

## Standardize each of the tree zag x's:

```
minv = rep(0,3)
maxv = rep(0,3)
zagsc = zag
for(i in 1:3) {
minv[i] = min(zag[[i]])
maxv[i] = max(zag[[i]])
zagsc[[i]] = (zag[[i]]-minv[i])/(maxv[i]-minv[i])
}
```

First, I will just use the one $x$, food, to keep things simple.

First you have to load the neural net library, nnet:
$>$ library(nnet)

Here is the command:
> znn = nnet(price~food,zagsc,size=3,decay=.1,linout=T)

As usual, a data structure is returned containing (in some possibly obscure way!!) the results.

The first two arguments are familiar.
linout=T is appropriate for a numeric y .
size and decay, are the two key parameters for controlling the flexibility of the neural net fit.

After we understand the basic structure of the model we will discuss these.

These will be the parameters that control the complexity of the model like $k$ in KNN and $\lambda$ in the LASSO.

Let's have a look at the fits.
Just as with trees and regression, we use the predict command:

```
> fznn = predict(znn,zagsc) zagsc: data frame with
> plot(zagsc$food,zagsc$price)
scaled x's.
```

> $00=$ order(zagsc\$food)
> lines(zagsc\$food[oo],fznn[oo],col="red",lwd=2)
> abline(Im(price~food,zagsc)\$coef)

The red is the nn fit and the straight line is linear regression.


## What is the structure of the model?

```
> summary(znn)
a 1-3-1 network with 10 weights
options were - linear output units decay=0.1
b->h1 i1->h1
4.35-0.24
b->h2 i1->h2
-7.42 21.41
What does this mean ?
b->h3 i1->h3
-9.93 13.28
b->o h1->o h2->o h3->0
12.33 12.09 10.70 22.74
```

First note:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Let, } F(z)=\frac{e^{z}}{1+e^{z}} \\
& >z=(-100: 100) / 25 \\
& >\mathrm{fz}=\exp (z) /(1+\exp (z)) \\
& >\operatorname{plot}(z, f z)
\end{aligned}
$$

This F is often called the logistic function.


$$
\text { Let, } \quad F(z)=\frac{\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{z}}}{1+\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{z}}}
$$



$$
y=12.33+12.09 F\left(z_{1}\right)+10.70 F\left(z_{2}\right)+22.74 F\left(z_{3}\right)
$$

1. Form several different linear functions of the $x$ 's.
2. Apply the logistic function to each.
3. Take a linear combination of the results of 2.

The z's are called the hidden layer.
Each of the z's (linear function) is called a unit.

In the call to nnet the parameter "size" is the number of units in the hidden layer.


```
```

> znn = nnet(price~food,zagsc,size=5,decay=.1,linout=T)

```
```

> znn = nnet(price~food,zagsc,size=5,decay=.1,linout=T)
> summary(znn)
> summary(znn)
a 1-5-1 network with 16 weights

```
a 1-5-1 network with 16 weights
```

```
options were - linear output units decay=0.1
```

options were - linear output units decay=0.1
b->h1 i1->h1
b->h1 i1->h1
2.70 0.40
2.70 0.40
b->h2 i1->h2
b->h2 i1->h2
-9.69 13.02
-9.69 13.02
b->h3 i1->h3
b->h3 i1->h3
0.71 -5.99
0.71 -5.99
b->h4 i1->h4
b->h4 i1->h4
-6.63 19.76
-6.63 19.76
b->h5 i1->h5
b->h5 i1->h5
2.70 0.39
2.70 0.39
b->o h1->o h2->o h3->o h4->o h5->0
b->o h1->o h2->o h3->o h4->o h5->0
7.41 7.00 23.30 7.62 13.56 6.99

```
7.41 7.00 23.30 7.62 13.56 6.99
```


## All three x 's

```
> znn = nnet(price~.,zagsc,size=5,decay=.1,linout=T)
> fznn = predict(znn,zagsc)
>
> zlm = Im(price~.,zagsc)
> fzlm = predict(zlm,zagsc)
>
> temp = data.frame(y=zagsc$price,fnn=fznn,flm=fzlm)
> pairs(temp)
>
> print(cor(temp$y,temp$fnn))
[1] 0.867858
> print(cor(temp$y,temp$flm))
[1] 0.829138
> print(cor(temp$fnn,temp$flm))
[1] 0.9705388
```



Using $R^{2}$, nnet fit is a little better in sample, but quite similar to the linear regression fit.


## The General Model

## A k-m-1 network.


k x's m hidden units.

Why on earth, would this work ?

If you find this a bit hard to grasp, you are not alone.
A basic knock on neural nets is that it is hard to interpret the model !!

Another way to draw the model has a node and a connect for each $x$ and the intercept.

A 2-2-1 net:


In neural-net world the intercepts are called the biases and the coefficients are called the weights.

## 2. Size and Decay

The size of the neural net is the number of units in the hidden layer.

Clearly, the more units the richer the model.

The more we are able to fit the data.

The more we are able to overfit the data.

The decay parameter is the L 2 regularlization parameter.
Fit minimizes:

$$
\text { error }+ \text { decay } * \sum \text { coefficient }^{2}
$$

where, for example,

$$
\text { error }=\sum\left(y_{i}-\hat{y}_{i}\right)^{2}
$$

Whether a coefficient is large or small depends on the units of the x's.

This is the fundamental reason we rescale the x's.
Only if the x's are on the same scale does the decay parameter work properly.

People have found that in practice the decay parameter is useful for walking the fit/overfit line.

## Let's do a little experiment with size and decay to see how they affect the fit with price on food (so we can see what happens).

## Four different fits with size $=3$ and 50, decay $=.5$ and .00001 .

```
znn1 = nnet(price~food,zagsc,size=3,decay=.5,linout=T)
znn2 = nnet(price~food,zagsc,size=3,decay=.00001,linout=T)
znn3 = nnet(price~food,zagsc,size=50,decay=.5,linout=T)
znn4 = nnet(price~food,zagsc,size=50,decay=.00001,linout=T)
temp = data.frame(price = zagsc$price, food = zagsc$food)
znnf1 = predict(znn1,temp)
znnf2 = predict(znn2,temp)
znnf3 = predict(znn3,temp)
znnf4 = predict(znn4,temp)
```


## For each model fit we'll plot y vs x and then the fits on top:

```
> par(mfrow=c(2,2))
> plot(zagsc$food,zagsc$price)
> lines(zagsc$food[oo],znnf1[oo],Iwd=2)
> title("size=3, decay=.5")
> plot(zagsc$food,zagsc$price)
> lines(zagsc$food[oo],znnf2[oo],Iwd=2)
> title("size=3, decay=.00001")
> plot(zagsc$food,zagsc$price)
> lines(zagsc$food[oo],znnf3[oo],Iwd=2)
> title("size = 50, decay = .5")
> plot(zagsc$food,zagsc$price)
> lines(zagsc$food[oo],znnf4[oo],Iwd=2)
> title("size = 50, decay = .00001")
```

size $=3$, decay $=.5$

size $=50$, decay $=.5$

size=3, decay=. 00001

size $=50$, decay $=.00001$


With high decay adding more units does not seem to hurt !!

We also see that even with 50 hidden units, a large decay parameter can restrain the fit.

In practice, this has lead to the following strategy for fitting neural nets.

1. Fix a large number of hidden units.
2. Use the three set approach or cross validation to choose the decay parameter.

Of course, you could use cv or three sets to choose both size and decay.
"Generally speaking it is better to have too many hidden units than too few. With too few hidden units, the model might not have enough flexibility to capture the nonlinearities in the data; with too many hidden units, the extra weights can be shrunk toward zero if appropriate regularization (decay) is used. Typically the number of hidden units is somewhere in the range of 5 to 100, with the number increasing with the number of of inputs and the number of training cases. It is most common to put down a reasonably large number of units and train them with regularization. Some researchers have used cross-validation to estimate the optimal number, but this seems unnecessary if cross-validation is used to estimate the regularization parameter. Choice of the number of hidden layers is guided by background knowledge and experimentation."
"The Elements of Statistical Learning,
Data Mining, Inference, and Prediction"

## 3. Iterative Fitting and Random Starting Values

There are some very things about fitting neural nets to data that don't come up in a lot of our other models.

Except for some linear algebra, we know how do least squares: $\hat{\beta}=\left(X^{\prime} X\right)^{-1} X^{\prime} y$.

Computing the logit MLE is an iterative optimization, but, for moderately size problems, it converges pretty fast.

Numerically fitting neural nets is trickier.

What does our single layer model with $m$ units, a numeric $y$ and just one $\times$ look like?

$$
\hat{y}=f(x, b)=b_{0}+\sum_{j=1}^{m} b_{j} F\left(b_{0}^{j}+b_{1}^{j} x\right)
$$

cg. $m=2$

$$
\begin{aligned}
f(x, b) & =b_{0}+b_{1} F\left(b_{0}^{\prime}+b_{1}^{\prime}, x\right)+b_{2} F\left(b_{0}^{2}+b_{1}^{2} x\right) \\
b & =\left(b_{0}, b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{0}^{\prime}, b_{1}^{\prime}, b_{0}^{2}, b_{1}^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

More generally,

$$
\hat{y}=f(x, b)=b_{0}+\sum_{j=1}^{m} b_{j} F\left(b_{0}^{j}+\left(b^{j}\right)^{\prime} x\right)
$$

$b=\left(b_{0}, b_{1}, \ldots, b_{m}, b_{0}^{1}, b_{0}^{2}, \ldots b_{0}^{m}, b^{1}, b^{2}, \ldots, b^{m}\right)$.
So,
to fit we solve

$$
\min _{b} \sum_{i=1}^{n}\left(y_{i}-f\left(x_{i}, b\right)\right)^{2}+d\|b\|^{2}
$$

where $d$ is the decay and we are summing over observations in our training data.

Given the size and the decay, it is no joke to fit a neural net.
It is an iterative optimization.

The nnet package uses the BFGS option of the the R optim command (BroydenFletcherGoldfarbShanno algorithm).

BFGS is a version of Newton's methods (more later?).

We say the iterative fitting has converged if there is little difference between subsequent fits.

Sometimes it can iterate a long time and not converge !!

| Up to now, | > znn3 = nnet(price $\sim$ food,zagsc, size=50,decay=. 5 , linout=T) |
| :---: | :---: |
| I have cut | \# weights: 151 |
| out the output | initial value 149902.637210 |
| about "iter". | iter 10 value 9483.187518 |
|  | iter 20 value 9233.424055 |
|  | iter 30 value 9065.532626 |
| The algorithm | iter 40 value 8987.139367 |
| iterated | iter 50 value 8960.219511 |
| 100 times | iter 60 value 8933.476681 |
| and then quit. | iter 70 value 8922.799791 |
|  | iter 80 value 8919.391429 |
| It had not | iter 90 value 8915.018123 |
| "converged yet" | iter 100 value 8911.423203 |
| in the sense | final value 8911.423203 |
|  | stopped after 100 iterations |
| that the fit was |  |
| still changing |  |
| after 100 iterations. |  |

## You can control the maximum number of iterations.

> znn3 = nnet(price $\sim$ food,zagsc, size=50, decay=.5, linout=T,maxit=20)
\# weights: 151
initial value 143500.875215
iter 10 value 9043.417735
iter 20 value 8940.665729
final value 8940.665729
stopped after 20 iterations

You can also control the convergence criterion but let's not get into that.


## Starting Values

Where do you start the iterations ?
$R$ (and lots of other software) starts at randomly chosen coefficient values.

The default is that each coefficient is drawn
from the uniform distribution of [-.7,.7].
This only makes sense if we standardize the x's.

So,
You can fit a neural net.
Do it again, and get a different answer !!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!

Unless, you set the seed that is !
$>$ set.seed(23)
$>$ temp $=$ nnet(price - food,zagsc,size $=2$, decay $=.001$ )
\# weights: 7
initial value 136686.571683
iter 10 value 133022.696234
iter 20 value 133014.160947 final value 133014.130896 converged

First fit is exactly the same.
> summary(temp)
a 1-2-1 network with 7 weights options were - decay=0.001
b->h1 i1->h1
$0.93 \quad 0.55$
b->h2 i1->h2
$1.60-0.40$
b->0 h1->0 h2->0
$>$ set.seed(23)
$>$ temp $=$ nnet(price-food,zagsc,size=2,decay=.001)
$>$ temp $=$ nnet(price $\sim$ food,zagsc,size $=2$, decay $=.001$ )
\# weights: 7
initial value 136030.030297
iter 10 value 133022.799207
iter 20 value 133014.161079 final value 133014.127113
converged
\# weights: 7
initial value 136686.571683
iter 10 value 133022.696234
iter 20 value 133014.160947
final value 133014.130896
converged
> summary(temp)
> summary(temp)
a 1-2-1 network with 7 weights options were - decay=0.001
b->h1 i1->h1
$-0.21 \quad-0.10$
b->h2 i1->h2
$1.64 \quad 1.45$
b->0 h1->0 h2->0
8.495 .042 .40
a 1-2-1 network with 7 weights
options were - decay=0.001
b->h1 i1->h1
-0.93 0.55
b->h2 i1->h2
$1.60-0.40$
b->0 h1->0 h2->0
9.214 .523 .68

The optimization problem in neural nets is very difficult.

There are many local minimima and there is no way to know if you are at a good one.

The solutions you iterate to can be radically different!!

This makes using neural nets quite tricky in practice.

## 4. How Does it Work?

How could this possibly work???!!!

Let's fit a few simple examples and see how the pieces add up to the overall fit.

What does our single layer model with a numeric $y$ and just one $x$ look like?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \hat{y}=f(x, b)=b_{0}+\sum_{j=1}^{m} b_{j} F\left(b_{0}^{j}+b_{1}^{j} x\right) \\
& \text { c.g. } \quad m=2 \\
& f(x, b)=b_{0}+b_{1} F\left(b_{0}^{1}+b_{1}^{\prime} x\right)+b_{2} F\left(b_{0}^{2}+b_{1}^{2} x\right) \\
& b=\left(b_{0}, b_{1}, b_{2}, b_{0}^{1}, b_{1}^{1}, b_{0}^{2}, b_{1}^{2}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

So,
we are just adding up functions of the form

$$
g(x)=b F\left(b_{0}+b_{1} x\right)
$$




$y=b F(b 0+b 1 x)$


Let's calculate the pieces
$\mathrm{x}=$ zagsc\$food
$y=$ zagsc\$price
z1 $=4.35-0.24$ *x
$z 2=-7.42+21.41^{*} x$
$z 3=-9.93+13.28 * x$
$\mathrm{f} 1=12.09^{*} \exp (z 1) /(1+\exp (z 1))$
$\mathrm{f} 2=10.7^{*} \exp (\mathrm{z2}) /(1+\exp (z 2))$
$\mathrm{f} 3=22.74 * \exp (z 3) /(1+\exp (z 3))$
$\operatorname{plot}(x, y-12.33)$
lines( $x[00], f 1$ [oo],col=2)
lines(x[00],f2[oo],col=3)
lines(x[00],f3[00],col=4)
lines(x[oo],(f1+f2+f3)[oo],col=5)
for a simple example and see how they can add up to a decent fit.
cyan:fit
red:first component blue:second green:third

Wow,
scary and cool!


## How would you fit a bump?

```
set.seed(23)
x = runif(1000)
x = sort(x)
y= exp(-80*(x-.5)*(x-.5)) +.05*rnorm(1000)
plot(x,y)
df = data.frame(y=y,x=x)
```



nnsim $=$ nnet( $y \sim x, d f$, size=3,decay=1/2^12,linout=T,maxit=1000)
thefit $=\operatorname{predict}(\mathrm{nnsim}, \mathrm{df})$
plot( $x, y$ )
lines(x,thefit)

## Plot with nn fits. Pretty good.



Here is the fitted model:

```
> summary(nnsim)
a 1-3-1 network with 10 weights
options were - linear output units decay=0.0002441406
    b->h1 i1->h1
        5.26 -13.74
    b->h2 i1->h2
    -6.58 13.98
    b->h3 i1->h3
    -9.67 17.87
    b->o h1->o h2->o h3->o
    -2.20 2.21 7.61 -5.40
```

Add up the pieces:

```
F = function(x) {return(exp(x)/(1+exp(x)))}
z1 = 5.26 - 13.74*x
z2 = -6.58 + 13.98*x
z3 = -9.67 + 17.87
f1 = 2.21*F(z1)
f2 = 7.61*F(z2)
f3 = -5.40*F(z3)
```

```
rx=range(x)
ry = range(c(f1,f2,f3,y))
plot(rx,ry,type="n",xlab="x",ylab="fit",cex.axis=2,cex.lab=2)
points(x,y)
lines(x,f1,col=1,lwd=2)
lines(x,f2,col=2,lwd=2)
lines(x,f3,col=3,lwd=2)
lines(x,f1+f2+f3,col=4,lwd=4)
```



Awesome !!!

With more than one x it is a little harder to see how this works.

For each $z$, we get "ridge functions".

$$
F(x 1+x 2)
$$




## Elements of Statistical Learning page 394:

$$
\begin{aligned}
Z_{m} & =\sigma\left(\alpha_{0 m}+\alpha_{m}^{T} X\right), m=1,2, \ldots, M \\
T_{k} & =\beta_{0 k}+\beta_{k}^{T} Z, k=1,2, \ldots, K \\
\hat{y}_{k}(X) \equiv f_{k}(X) & =g_{k}(T), k=1,2, \ldots, K
\end{aligned}
$$

e.g. $K=1, g(T)=T$ for the single linear output case.

Finally, we note that the name "neural networks" derives from the fact that they were first developed as models for the human brain. Each unit represents a neuron, and the connections represent synapses. In early models, the neurons fired when the total signal passed to that unit exceeded a certain threshold. In the model above, this corresponds to the use of a step function for $\sigma(Z)$ and $g_{m}(T)$. Later the neural network was recognized as a useful tool for nonlinear statistical modeling, and for this purpose the step function is not smooth enough for optimization. Hence the step function was replaced by a smoother threshold function, the sigmoid.

## 5. Neural Nets for Binary Y

We have to adapt our model for the case of binary y .
What does it mean to predict a binary $y$ ?

As usual, we want $P(Y=1 \mid x)$.

## The General Model

## A k-m-1 network. ( x is numeric and k dimensional)



Everything is the same, except, at the end we apply the logistic function. This gives us a number between 0 and 1 , which will be our probability.

## Beer Data

## Data is from an mba class. <br> Ask each student for nbeer(\#beers can drink) weight, height, age, gender.

```
> beer = read.table("nbeer.txt",header=T)
> beer$gender = as.factor(beer$gender)
```



As a simple (and somewhat silly) example, we ask: given the \# of beers what is the prob of a female?

First, rescale the numeric $x$ and then,
to fit the nnet,
no linout=T
$>$ beer\$nbeer $=($ beer\$nbeer-min(beer\$nbeer))/(max(beer\$nbeer)-min(beer\$nbeer))
$>$ nnbeer $=$ nnet(gender $\sim$ nbeer,beer,size=5,decay=.01,maxit=1000)

```
with numeric y.
> summary(nnbeer)
a 1-5-1 network with }16\mathrm{ weights
options were - entropy fitting decay=0.01
b->h1 i1->h1
-3.24 7.26
b->h2 i1->h2
0.01-0.06
b->h3 i1->h3
0.01 -0.06
b->h4 i1->h4
0.01 -0.06
b->h5 i1->h5
0.01 -0.06
b->o h1->o h2->o h3->o h4->o h5->o
0.19-6.71 0.13 0.13 0.13 0.13
```

The basic structure of the model is the same as

Now let's think about fitting/predicting:

```
> pbeer = predict(nnbeer,beer) The predict command has its usual
> length(pbeer)
[1] }5
> is.array(pbeer)
[1] TRUE
> dim(pbeer)
[1]50 1
> mode(pbeer)
[1] "numeric"
```

The predict command returns a $50 \times 1$ array.
In general, it would be $\mathrm{n} \times 1$, where n is the sample size.

Since the fits are are $n$ by 1 array we can just index the row or index the row and the first column.
> pbeer[1:5]

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| :---: | ---: | ---: | ---: | ---: |
| 0.00982357 | 0.00982357 | 0.29811830 | 0.29811830 | 0.14363053 |
| $>$ pbeer $[1: 5,1]$ |  |  |  |  |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 0.00982357 | 0.00982357 | 0.29811830 | 0.29811830 | 0.14363053 |

## The fit is the prob of the second level, which in this case is "being female".



## Since, we have only one $x$, we can plot the fits.

plot(beer\$nbeer,as.numeric(beer\$gender)-1,xlab="nbeer",ylab="p female")
oo = order(beer\$nbeer)
lines(beer\$nbeer[oo],pbeer[oo],col=2. $\mathbf{I w n}=2 \boldsymbol{1}$

Red line is the neural net fit.

For each
x (\# of beers)
gives
$\operatorname{Pr}($ female $\mid x)$.


Do it again, but change size and decay:
$>$ nnbeer $=$ nnet(gender $\sim$ nbeer,beer,size=10, decay=.001,maxit=1000)

Does not make sense in that we do not expect that first part where P(female|nbeer) increases.


## Tabloid Data

```
> tab = read.table("tabdat9n20.txt",header=T) read the data in, set purchase to
> tab$purchase = as.factor(tab$purchase) be a factor
>
> tab = tab[,1:3]
> tab$nTab = tab$nTab/81
> tab$moCbook = tab$moCbook/50
    Let's just use 2 = nTab and
    3 = moCbook.
    As always, we have to rescale them.
```

| purchase | nTab | moCbook |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 0:19509 | Min. : 0.00000 | Min. 00.02365 |
| 1: 491 | 1st Qu.:0.00000 | 1st Qu.:1.00000 |
|  | Median :0.00000 | Median :1.00000 |
|  | Mean :0.02263 | Mean :0.95201 |
|  | 3rd Qu.:0.02469 | 3rd Qu.:1.00000 |
|  | Max. : 1.00000 | Max. $: 1.00000$ |

Let's do this one more seriously and look at out of sample performance.

We use sets1 and 2 to fit the model, including choice of decay.

We use set three to assess out of sample performance.

```
nob = nrow(tab)
n1 = floor(.5*nob)
n2 = floor(.25*nob)
n3 = nob - n1 - n2 The usual three set stuff
set.seed(19)
perm = sample(1:nob,nob)
set1 = tab[perm[1:n1],]
set2 = tab[perm[(n1+1):(n1+n2)],]
set3 = tab[perm[(n1+n2+1):nob],]
```


## Let's try a quick fit and see if we get anything.

```
set.seed(99)
tempnn = nnet(purchase~.,set1,size=20,decay=.1,maxit=10000)
nnout = predict(tempnn,set2)[,1]
boxplot(nnout~set2$purchase)
```


looks promising !!!

```
##let's try a bunch of decay valuse
#This takes a while !!
#Im fitting length(decv)*nstart neural nets
#each with 10,000 observations.
if(file.exists("lossl.RData")) {
    cat("******reading in loosl from file lossl.RData\n")
    load("lossl.RData")
} else {
    cat("******running loop to compute lossl\n")
    decv = c(.5,.1,.01,.005,.0025,.001)
    nstart = 10
    lossl = list()
    set.seed(99)
    for(i in 1:length(decv)) {
        temploss<-rep(0,nstart)
        for(j in 1:nstart){
            cat("on dev: ",i," and start: ",j,"\n")
            tempnn = nnet(purchase~.,set1,size=20,decay=decv[i],maxit=10000)
            nnout = predict(tempnn,set2)[,1]
            temploss[j] = loss(set2$purchase,nnout,wht=.0001)
        }
        lossl[[i]] = temploss
    }
    save(lossl,decv,nstart,file="lossl.RData")
}
names(lossl) = as.character(decv)
boxplot(lossl, cex.lab=2, cex.axis=2)


Ok, let's use decay \(=.01\) and refit on sets 1 and 2 combined, and then predict on set 3.
```

set12 = rbind(set1,set2)
nns12 = nnet(purchase~.,set12,size=20,decay =.01,maxit=10000)
nnfit12 = predict(nns12,set12)[,1]
nnfit3 = predict(nns12,set3)[,1]

```

Now let's plot the lift, in and out of sample.
```

par(mfrow=c(1,1))
sy12 = liftf(set12$purchase,nnfit12,dopl=FALSE)
ii12 = (1:length(sy12))/length(sy12)
sy3 = liftf(set3$purchase,nnfit3,dopl=FALSE)
ii3 = (1:length(sy3))/length(sy3)
plot(c(0,1),c(0,1),type="n",xlab="% used",ylab="% found",
cex.axis=1.5,cex.lab=1.5)
lines(ii12,sy12,col="red",lty=2,lwd=2)
lines(ii3,sy3,col="blue",lty=3,lwd=2)
abline(0,1,lty=3)
legend("topleft",legend=c("in sample","out of sample"),
col=c("red","blue"), lwd=c (2,2),lty=c (2,3))

```


It's fun when it works !!

\section*{6. How Does it Work Again, XOR}

Let's look again at how a neural net works by playing around with the famous XOR example.

This is example is famous because it is a simple example where linear classification:
\[
y=1 \text { if } a+b_{1} x_{1}+b_{2} x_{2}>0
\]
cannot work.

Basically, y is 1 if the \(\operatorname{sign}\left(x_{1}\right) \neq \operatorname{sign}\left(x_{2}\right)\) but I added noise so a few points cross the boundaries.

Here is a plot of the (simulated) data.


Here is the decision boundary \((\hat{y}=1\) if \(\hat{p}>.5)\) for a linear logit fit.
logit fit to xor data


Here is a plot of \(\hat{p}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\) from the logit fit.


Really all the \(\hat{p}\) are close to \(.5!!\)
```

> print(summary(lgfit))

```

Call:
glm(formula \(=\) y ~ ., family \(=\) binomial, data \(=\) dfd)

Deviance Residuals:
\begin{tabular}{rrrrr} 
Min & \(1 Q\) & Median & 3Q & Max \\
-1.25921 & -1.17512 & 0.02788 & 1.17894 & 1.23320
\end{tabular}

Coefficients:
Estimate Std. Error z value \(\operatorname{Pr}(>|z|)\)
\begin{tabular}{lllll} 
(Intercept) 0.01013 & 0.20113 & 0.050 & 0.960
\end{tabular}
\begin{tabular}{lllll}
\(x 1\) & 0.10058 & 0.17129 & 0.587 & 0.557
\end{tabular}
\(\begin{array}{lllll}\mathrm{x} 2 & 0.03688 & 0.18028 & 0.205 & 0.838\end{array}\)
(Dispersion parameter for binomial family taken to be 1)
Null deviance: 138.63 on 99 degrees of freedom
Residual deviance: 138.27 on 97 degrees of freedom AIC: 144.27

Number of Fisher Scoring iterations: 3
```

> summary(phatl)
Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max.
0.4217 0.4676 0.4964 0.4964 0.5253

```

\section*{Let's try a nn fit.}
```

\#uses random starting values for iterative optimization
set.seed(99) \#misses
xnn = nnet(y~., dfd,size=2,decay=.1)
phat1 = predict(xnn,gd)[,1]
set.seed(14) \#works
xnn = nnet(y~}.,dfd,size=2,decay=.1
phat = predict(xnn,gd)[,1]
\#plot fits, far out!!
plot(phat1,phat)

```

\section*{Far out.}


Here is the \(n n\) decision boundary (from the one that worked).
neural network -- 1 hidden layer with 2 neurons


\section*{Here is a plot of \(\hat{p}\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\) from the \(n n\) fit.}


Obvious !!!!????
(see plot3d in xor.R).
```

> summary(xnn)
a 2-2-1 network with 9 weights
options were - entropy fitting decay=0.1
b->h1 i1->h1 i2->h1
3.35 2.38 -2.66
b->h2 i1->h2 i2->h2
-2.73 2.28 -2.90
b->o h1->o h2->o
2.54 -5.84 6.30
Basically uses $x_{1}-x_{2}$ !!!!.

```

\section*{A plot of xnn:}
```

