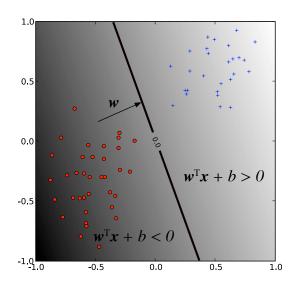
Linear models and the perceptron algorithm

Chapters 1, 3.1



Labeled data

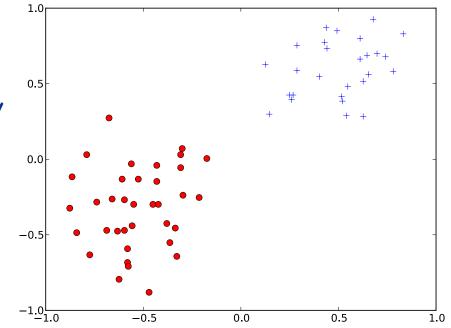
A labeled dataset:

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$$

Where $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are d-dimensional vectors

The labels:

are discrete for classification problems (e.g. +1, -1) for binary classification



2

Labeled data

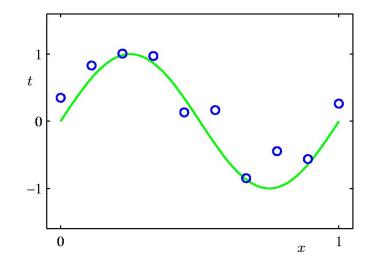
A labeled dataset:

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$$

Where $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are d-dimensional vectors

The labels:

are continuous values for a regression problem



Labeled data

A labeled dataset:

$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^N$$

Where $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ are d-dimensional vectors

We typically assume that that the examples are i.i.d. (independent and identically distributed), and come from an unknown probability distribution P(x, y).

Dot products

Definition: The Euclidean dot product between two vectors is the expression d

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{T} w_i x_i$$

The dot product is also referred to as inner product or scalar product.

It is sometimes denoted as $\ \mathbf{W} \cdot \mathbf{X}$

(hence the name dot product).

Dot products

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$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = \sum_{i=1}^{T} w_i x_i$$

The dot product is also referred to as inner product or scalar product.

Geometric interpretation. The dot product between two unit vectors¹ is the cosine of the angle between them.

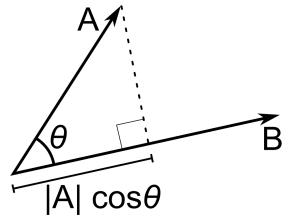
The dot product between a vector and a unit vector is the length of its projection in that direction. $\Delta \checkmark$

And in general:

$$\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} = ||\mathbf{w}|| \cdot ||\mathbf{x}|| \cos(\theta)$$

The norm of a vector:

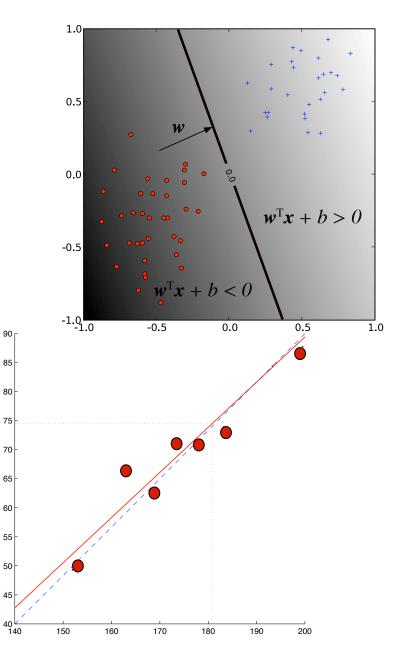
 $||\mathbf{x}||^2 = \mathbf{x}^\mathsf{T}\mathbf{x}$

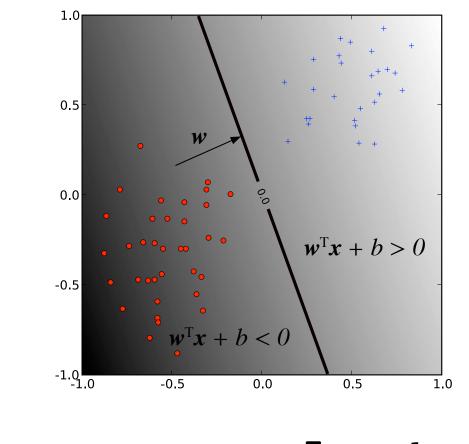


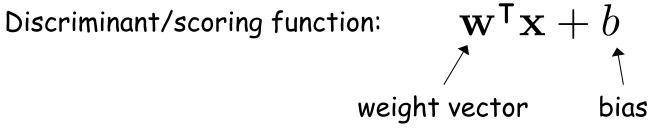
Linear models

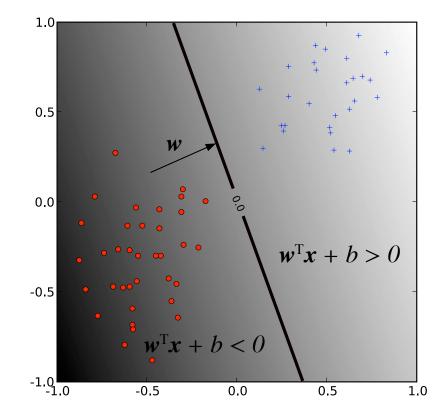
Linear models for classification (linear decision boundaries)

Linear models for regression (estimating a linear function)





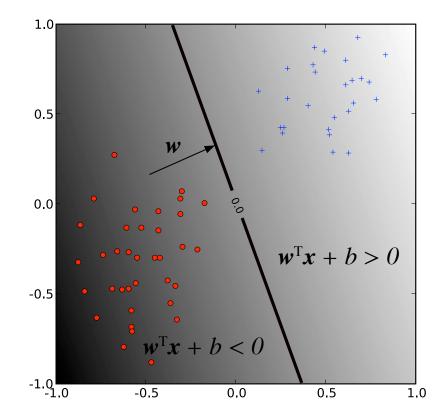




Decision boundary:

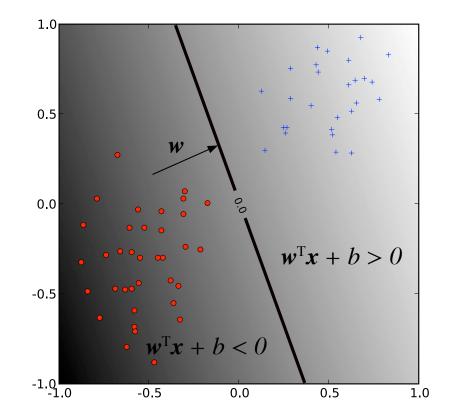
all x such that $\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b = 0$

For linear models the the decision boundary is a line in 2-d, a plane in 3-d and a hyperplane in higher dimensions



Using the discriminant to $\hat{y} = sign(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b)$ make a prediction:

the sign function equals 1 when its argument is positive and -1 otherwise



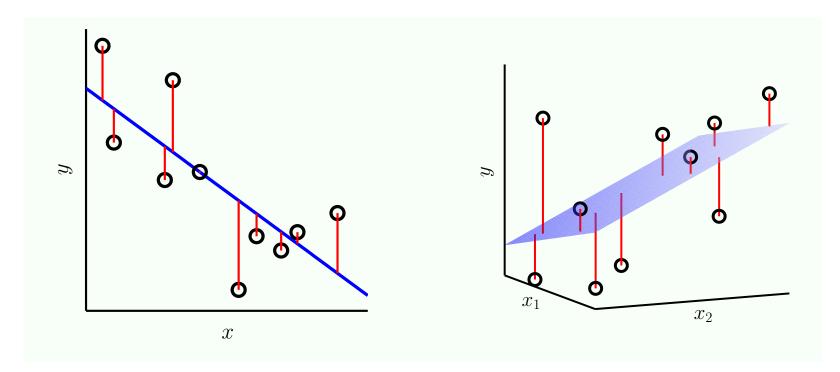
Decision boundary: all x such that $\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} + b = 0$

What can you say about the decision boundary when b = 0?

Linear models for regression

When using a linear model for regression the scoring function is the prediction:

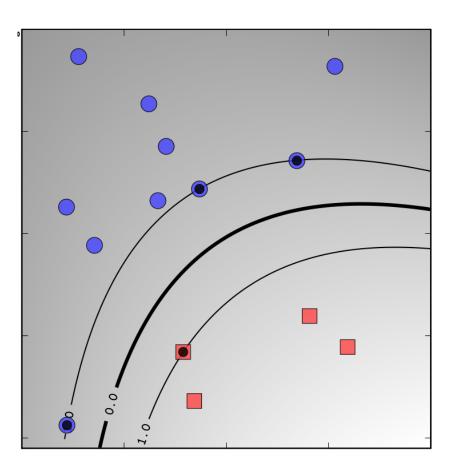
$$\hat{y} = \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x} + b$$



Why linear?

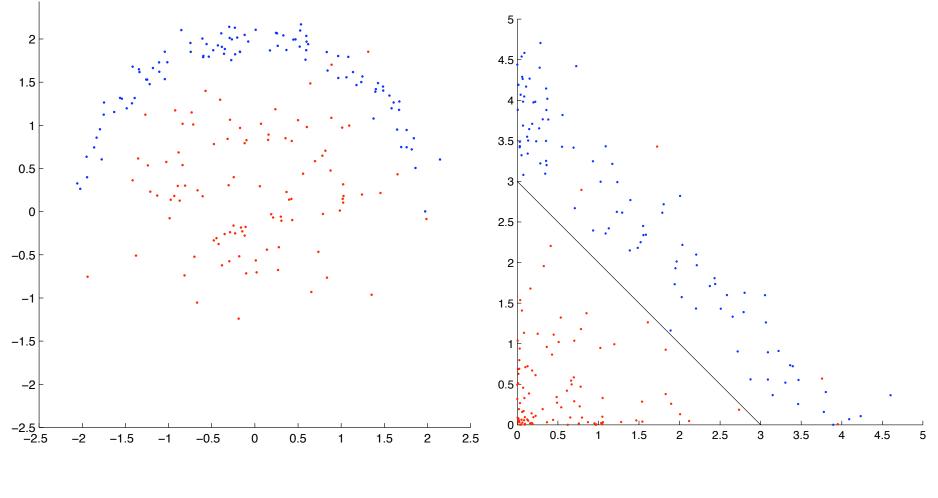
- It's a good baseline: always start simple
- Linear models are stable
- Linear models are less likely to overfit the training data because they have less parameters. Can sometimes underfit. Often all you need when the data is high dimensional.
- Lots of scalable algorithms

From linear to non-linear



There is a neat mathematical trick that will enable us to use linear classifiers to create non-linear decision boundaries!

From linear to non-linear



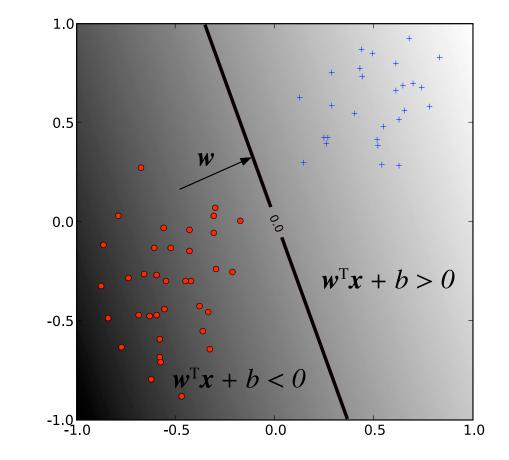
Original data: not linearly separable

Transformed data: $(x',y') = (x^2, y^2)$

Linearly separable data

Linearly separable data: there exists a linear decision boundary separating the classes.

Example:



The bias and homogeneous coordinates

Formulating a model that does not have a bias does not reduce the expressivity of the model because we can obtain a bias using the following trick:

Add another dimension x_0 to each input and set it to 1. Learn a weight vector of dimension d+1 in this extended space, and interpret w_0 as the bias term. With the notation

$$\mathbf{w} = (w_1, \dots, w_d) \quad \tilde{\mathbf{w}} = (w_0, w_1, \dots, w_d)$$
$$\tilde{\mathbf{x}} = (1, x_1, \dots, x_d)$$

We have that: $\tilde{\mathbf{w}}^\mathsf{T} \tilde{\mathbf{x}} = w_0 + \mathbf{w}^\mathsf{T} \mathbf{x}$

Finding a good hyperplane

We would like a classifier that fits the data, i.e. we would like to find a vector **w** that minimizes

$$E_{\text{in}} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}[h(\mathbf{x}_i) \neq f(\mathbf{x}_i)]$$
$$= \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}[\operatorname{sign}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_i) \neq y_i)]$$

This is a difficult problem because of the discrete nature of the indicator and sign function (known to be NP-hard).

The perceptron algorithm (Rosenblatt, 1957)

Idea: iterate over the training examples, and update the weight vector \mathbf{w} in a way that would make \mathbf{x}_i is more likely to be correctly classified.

Let's assume that x_i is misclassified, and is a positive example i.e. Note: we're learning a class

$$\mathbf{w}'\mathbf{x}_i < 0$$

Note: we're learning a classifier without a bias term

We would like to update w to w' such that

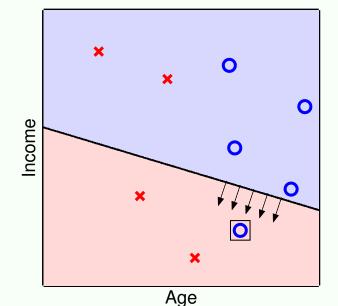
$$(\mathbf{w}')^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_i > \mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}_i$$

This can be achieved by choosing

$$\mathbf{w}' = \mathbf{w} + \eta \mathbf{x}_i$$

 $0 < \eta \leq 1$ is the learning rate

Rosenblatt, Frank (1957), The Perceptron--a perceiving and recognizing automaton. Report 85-460-1, Cornell Aeronautical Laboratory. Section 1.1 in the book



The perceptron algorithm

If x_i is a negative example, the update needs to be opposite. Overall, we can summarize the two cases as:

$$\mathbf{w}' = \mathbf{w} + \eta y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

```
Input: labeled data D in homogeneous coordinates
Output: weight vector w

w = 0
converged = false
while not converged :
    converged = true
    for i in 1,...,N :
        if x<sub>i</sub> is misclassified update w and set
            converged=false
return w
```

Demo

Show jupyter notebook on the perceptron

The perceptron algorithm

Since the algorithm is not guaranteed to converge if the data is not linearly separable you need to set a limit on the number of iterations:

```
Input: labeled data D in homogeneous coordinates
Output: weight vector w

w = 0
converged = false
while (not converged or number of iterations < T) :
    converged = true
    for i in 1,...,N :
        if x<sub>i</sub> is misclassified:
            update w and set converged=false
return w
```

The perceptron algorithm

The algorithm is guaranteed to converge if the data is linearly separable, and does not converge otherwise.

Issues with the algorithm:

- The algorithm chooses an arbitrary hyperplane that separates the two classes. It may not be the best one from the learning perspective.
- Does not converge if the data is not separable (can halt after a fixed number of iterations).

There are variants of the algorithm that address these issues (to some extent).

The pocket algorithm

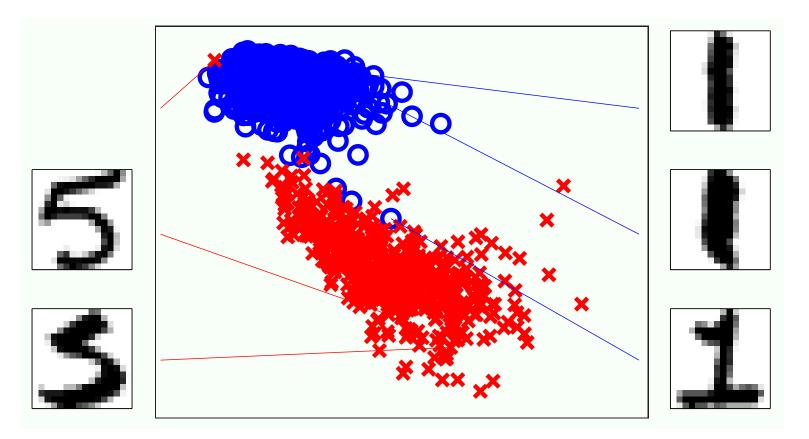
Input: labeled data D in homogeneous coordinates Output: a weight vector ${\bf w}$

```
w = 0, w<sub>pocket</sub> = 0
converged = false
while (not converged or number of iterations < T) :
    converged = true
    for i in 1,...,N :
        if x<sub>i</sub> is misclassified:
            update w and set converged=false
            if w leads to better E<sub>in</sub> than w<sub>pocket</sub> :
            w<sub>pocket</sub> = w
return w<sub>pocket</sub>
```

Gallant, S. I. (1990). Perceptron-based learning algorithms. IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks, vol. 1, no. 2, pp. 179–191.

image classification

Features: important properties of the input you think are relevant for classification



In this case we consider the level of symmetry (image - its flipped version) and overall intensity (fraction of pixels that are dark)

pocket algorithm vs perceptron

Comparison on image data: distinguishing between the digits "1" and "5" (see page 83 in the book):

