# CS4442/9542b Artificial Intelligence II prof. Olga Veksler

Lecture 4
Machine Learning
Linear Classifier

#### Outline

- Optimization with gradient descent
- Linear Classifier
  - Two classes
  - Multiple classes
  - Perceptron Criterion Function
    - Batch perceptron rule
    - Single sample perceptron rule
  - Minimum Squared Error (MSE) rule
    - Pseudoinverse

#### Optimization

• How to minimize a function of a single variable  $J(x) = (x-5)^2$ 

From calculus, take derivative, set it to 0

$$\frac{d}{dx}J(x)=0$$

- Solve the resulting equation
  - maybe easy or hard to solve
- Example above is easy:

$$\frac{d}{dx}J(x)=2(x-5)=0 \Rightarrow x=5$$

#### Optimization

How to minimize a function of many variables

$$\mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}_1, ..., \mathbf{x}_d)$$

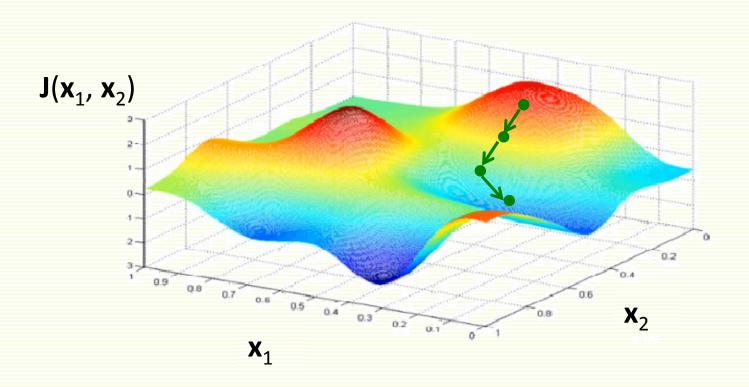
From calculus, take partial derivatives, set them to 0

#### gradient

$$\begin{bmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}_1} \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x}_d} \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) \end{bmatrix} = \nabla \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{0}$$

- Solve the resulting system of d equations
- It may not be possible to solve the system of equations above analytically

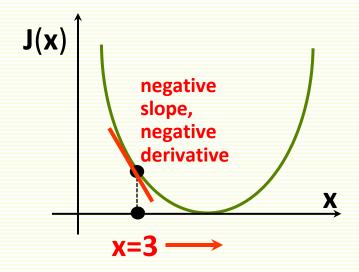
#### Optimization: Gradient Direction

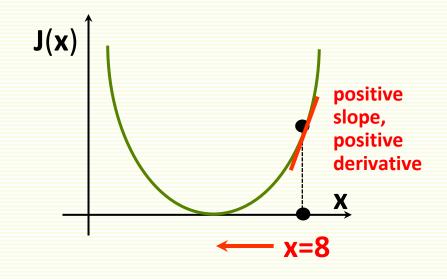


- Gradient  $\nabla J(x)$  points in the direction of steepest increase of function J(x)
- $-\nabla J(x)$  points in the direction of steepest decrease

#### Gradient Direction in 1D

- Gradient is just derivative in 1D
- Example:  $J(x) = (x-5)^2$  and derivative is  $\frac{d}{dx}J(x) = 2(x-5)$





- Let **x** = 3
- $\bullet \quad -\frac{d}{dx}J(3)=4$
- derivative says increase x

• Let **x** = 8

$$\bullet \quad -\frac{d}{dx}J(3) = -6$$

derivative says decrease x

#### **Gradient Direction in 2D**

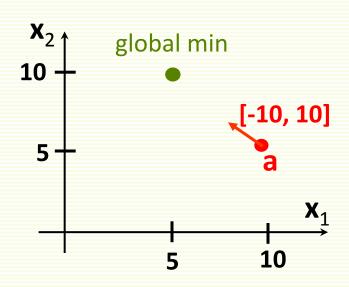
• 
$$J(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = (\mathbf{x}_1 - 5)^2 + (\mathbf{x}_2 - 10)^2$$

$$\bullet \qquad \frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x_1}} \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{2}(\mathbf{x_1} - \mathbf{5})$$

• 
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x_1}} \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{2}(\mathbf{x_1} - \mathbf{5})$$
• 
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \mathbf{x_2}} \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbf{2}(\mathbf{x_2} - \mathbf{10})$$

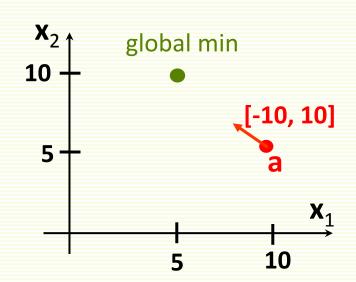
$$\bullet \quad -\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1} J(a) = -10$$

$$\bullet \quad -\frac{\partial}{\partial x_2} J(a) = 10$$



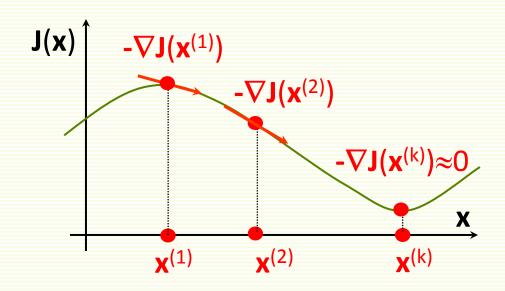
# Gradient Descent: Step Size

- $J(\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) = (\mathbf{x}_1 5)^2 + (\mathbf{x}_2 10)^2$
- Which step size to take?
- Controlled by parameter α
  - called learning rate
- From previous example:
  - a = [10 5]
  - $-\nabla J(a) = [-10 \ 10]$
- Let  $\alpha = 0.2$
- $\mathbf{a} \alpha \nabla \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{a}) = [10 \ 5] + 0.2 [-10 \ 10] = [8 \ 7]$
- J(10, 5) = 50; J(8,7) = 18



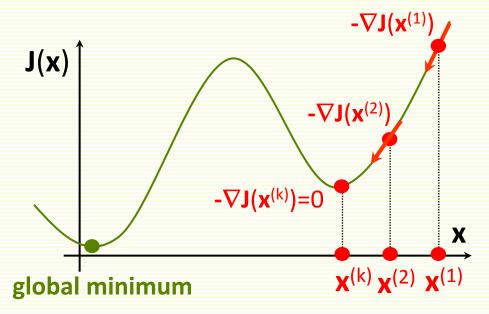
### Gradient Descent Algorithm

$$\mathbf{k} = 1$$
 $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \text{any initial guess}$ 
 $\text{choose } \alpha, \varepsilon$ 
 $\text{while } \alpha || \nabla \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) || > \varepsilon$ 
 $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \alpha \nabla \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ 
 $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k} + 1$ 



#### Gradient Descent: Local Minimum

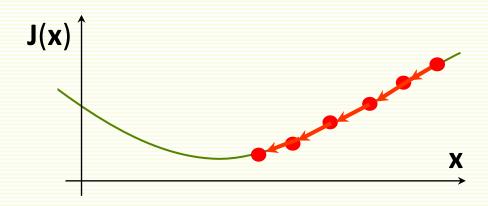
- Not guaranteed to find global minimum
  - gets stuck in local minimum



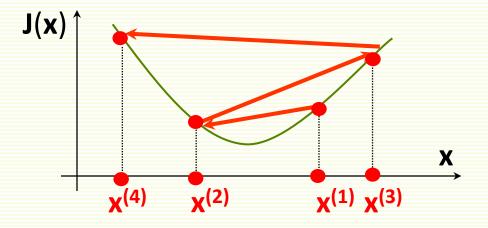
 Still gradient descent is very popular because it is simple and applicable to any differentiable function

# How to Set Learning Rate α?

 If α too small, too many iterations to converge



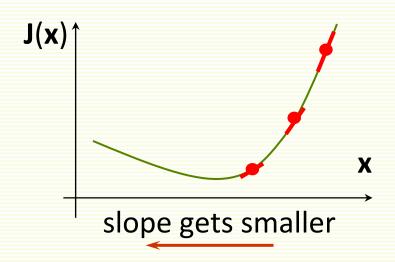
 If α too large, may overshoot the local minimum and possibly never even converge



 It helps to compute J(x) as a function of iteration number, to make sure we are properly minimizing it

# How to Set Learning Rate α?

- As we approach local minimum, often gradient gets smaller
- Step size may get smaller automatically, even if  $\alpha$  is fixed
- So it may be unnecessary to decrease α over time in order not to overshoot a local minimum



## Variable Learning Rate

• If desired, can change learning rate  $\alpha$  at each iteration

$$\mathbf{k} = 1$$
 $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \text{any initial guess}$ 
 $\text{choose } \alpha, \epsilon$ 
 $\text{while } \alpha || \nabla \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) || > \epsilon$ 
 $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \alpha \nabla \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ 
 $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k} + 1$ 

$$\mathbf{k} = 1$$
 $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \text{any initial guess}$ 
 $\text{choose } \epsilon$ 
 $\text{while } \alpha \| \nabla \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)}) \| > \epsilon$ 
 $\text{choose } \alpha^{(k)}$ 
 $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \alpha^{(k)} \nabla \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ 
 $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k} + 1$ 

# Variable Learning Rate

Usually don't keep track of all intermediate solutions

$$\mathbf{k} = 1$$
 $\mathbf{x}^{(1)} = \text{any initial guess}$ 
 $\text{choose } \alpha, \epsilon$ 
 $\text{while } \alpha \|\nabla \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})\| > \epsilon$ 
 $\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k)} - \alpha \nabla \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$ 
 $\mathbf{k} = \mathbf{k} + 1$ 

 $\mathbf{x} = \text{any initial guess}$   $\text{choose } \alpha, \varepsilon$   $\text{while } \alpha ||\nabla J(\mathbf{x})|| > \varepsilon$   $\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{x} - \alpha ||\nabla J(\mathbf{x})|| > \varepsilon$ 

#### Advanced Optimization Methods

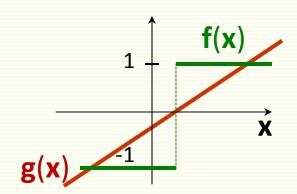
- There are more advanced gradient-based optimization methods
- Such as conjugate gradient
  - ullet automatically pick a good learning rate  $\alpha$
  - usually converge faster
  - however more complex to understand and implement
  - in Matlab, use **fminunc** for various advanced optimization methods

# Supervised Machine Learning (Recap)

- Chose a learning machine f(x,w)
  - w are tunable weights, x is the input example
  - f(x,w) should output the correct class of sample x
  - use labeled samples to tune weights w so that f(x,w) give the correct class (correct y) for example x
- How to choose a learning machine f(x,w)?
  - many choices possible
  - previous lecture: kNN classifier
  - this lecture: linear classifier

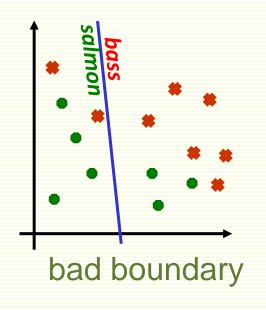
#### Linear Classifier: 2 Classes

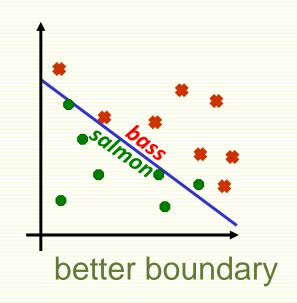
- First consider the two-class case
- We choose the following encoding:
  - y = 1 for the first class
  - y = -1 for the second class



- Linear classifier
  - linear function:  $-\infty \le \mathbf{w}_0 + \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{w}_1 + \dots + \mathbf{x}_d \mathbf{w}_d \le \infty$
  - we need f(x,w) to be either +1 or -1
  - let  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}_0 + \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{w}_1 + \dots + \mathbf{x}_d \mathbf{w}_d$
  - let f(x,w) = sign(g(x,w))
    - 1 if g(x,w) is positive
    - -1 if g(x,w) is negative
  - g(x,w) is called the discriminant function

## Linear Classifier: Decision Boundary



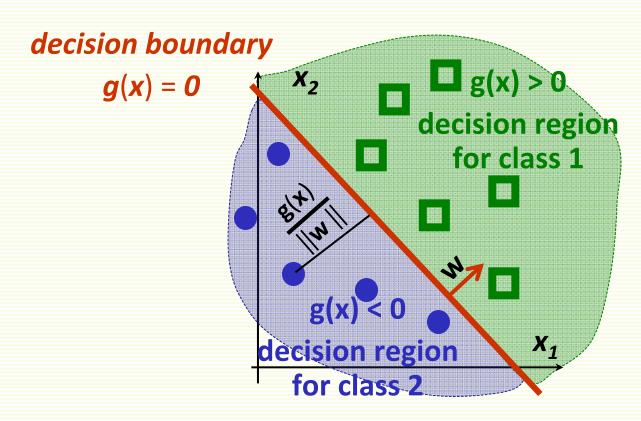


- $f(x,w) = sign(g(x,w)) = sign(w_0+x_1w_1+...+x_dw_d)$
- Decision boundary is linear
- Find the best linear boundary to separate two classes
- Search for best  $\mathbf{w} = [\mathbf{w}_0, \mathbf{w}_1, ..., \mathbf{w}_d]$  to minimize training error

#### More on Linear Discriminant Function (LDF)

- LDF:  $g(x,w) = w_0 + x_1 w_1 + ... + x_d w_d$
- Written using vector notation  $g(x) = w^t x + w_0$

weight vector bias or threshold



#### More on Linear Discriminant Function (LDF)

- Decision boundary:  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}) = \mathbf{w}_0 + \mathbf{x}_1 \mathbf{w}_1 + \dots + \mathbf{x}_d \mathbf{w}_d = 0$
- This is a hyperplane, by definition
  - a point in 1D
  - a line in 2D
  - a plane in 3D
  - a hyperplane in higher dimensions

## Multiple Classes

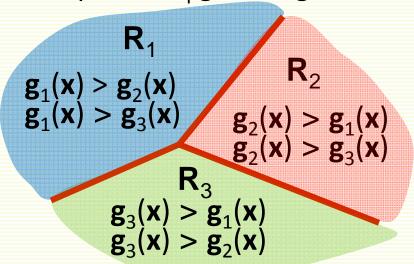
- We have m classes
- Define m linear discriminant functions

$$g_i(x) = w_i^t x + w_{i0}$$
 for  $i = 1, 2, ... m$ 

Assign x to class i if

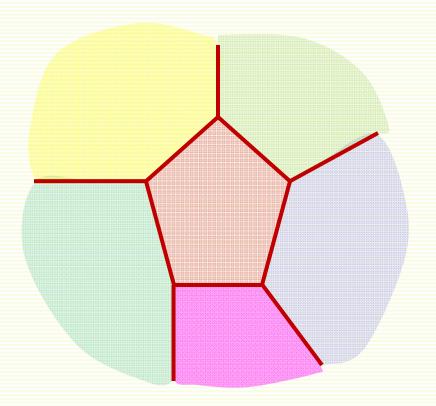
$$\mathbf{g}_{i}(\mathbf{x}) > \mathbf{g}_{i}(\mathbf{x})$$
 for all  $\mathbf{j} \neq \mathbf{i}$ 

- Let R<sub>i</sub> be the decision region for class i
  - That is all examples in R<sub>i</sub> get assigned class i



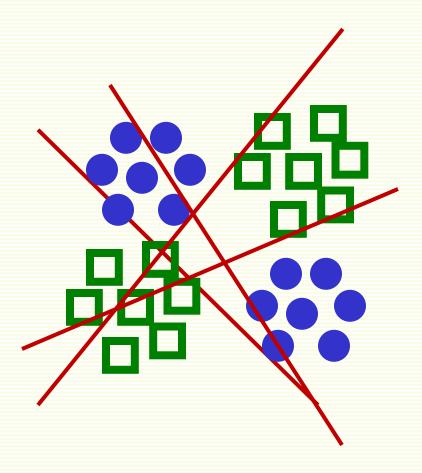
### Multiple Classes

- Can be shown that decision regions are convex
- In particular, they must be spatially contiguous



#### Failure Cases for Linear Classifier

- Thus applicability of linear classifiers is limited to mostly unimodal distributions, such as Gaussian
- Not unimodal data
- Need non-contiguous decision regions
- Linear classifier will fail



#### Fitting Parameters w

Linear discriminant function g(x) = w<sup>t</sup>x + w<sub>0</sub>

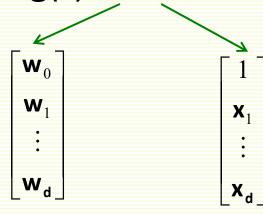
• Can rewrite it 
$$g(x) = w_0 w_0 = a^t z = g(z)$$

new weight
vector  $a$ 

new

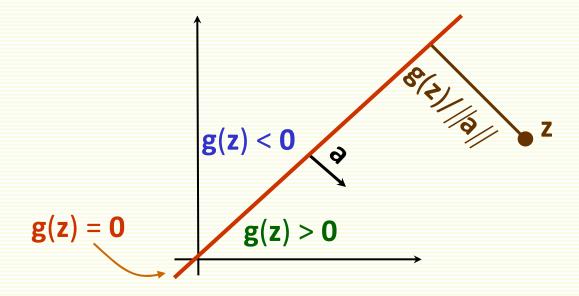
feature
vector  $z$ 

- z is called augmented feature vector
- new problem equivalent to the old g(z) = a<sup>t</sup>z



#### Augmented Feature Vector

- Feature augmenting is done to simplify notation
- From now on we assume that we have augmented feature vectors
  - given samples  $\mathbf{x}^1,...,\mathbf{x}^n$  convert them to augmented samples  $\mathbf{z}^1,...,\mathbf{z}^n$  by adding a new dimension of value 1
- $g(z) = a^t z$



## Training Error

- For the rest of the lecture, assume we have 2 classes
- Samples **z**<sup>1</sup>,..., **z**<sup>n</sup> some in class 1, some in class 2
- Use these samples to determine weights a in the discriminant function g(z) = a<sup>t</sup>z
- Want to minimize number of misclassified samples

• Recall that 
$$\begin{cases} \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}^i) > 0 \implies \text{class 1} \\ \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}^i) < 0 \implies \text{class 2} \end{cases}$$

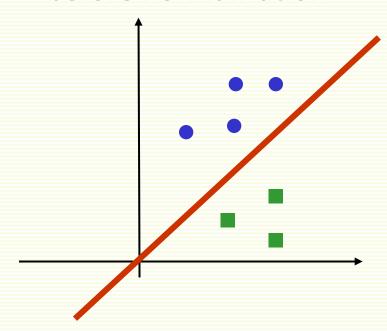
• Thus training error is 0 if  $\begin{cases} \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}^i) > 0 & \forall \mathbf{z}^i \text{ class 1} \\ \mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}^i) < 0 & \forall \mathbf{z}^i \text{ class 2} \end{cases}$ 

# Simplifying Notation Further

- Thus training error is 0 if  $\begin{cases} \mathbf{a^t z^i} > 0 & \forall \mathbf{z^i} \text{ class 1} \\ \mathbf{a^t z^i} < 0 & \forall \mathbf{z^i} \text{ class 2} \end{cases}$
- Equivalently, training error is 0 if  $\begin{cases} \mathbf{a^t z^i} > 0 \ \forall \mathbf{z^i} \text{ class 1} \\ \mathbf{a^t (-z^i)} > 0 \ \forall \mathbf{z^i} \text{ class 2} \end{cases}$
- Problem "normalization":
  - 1. replace all examples **z**<sup>i</sup> from class 2 by -**z**<sup>i</sup>
  - 2. seek weights **a** s.t.  $\mathbf{a}^t \mathbf{z}^i > 0$  for  $\forall \mathbf{z}^i$
- If exists, such a is called a separating or solution vector
- Original samples x<sup>1</sup>,... x<sup>n</sup> can also be linearly separated

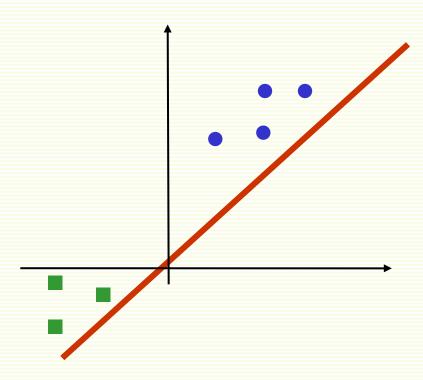
#### **Effect of Normalization**

#### before normalization



seek a hyperplane that separates samples from different categories

#### after normalization

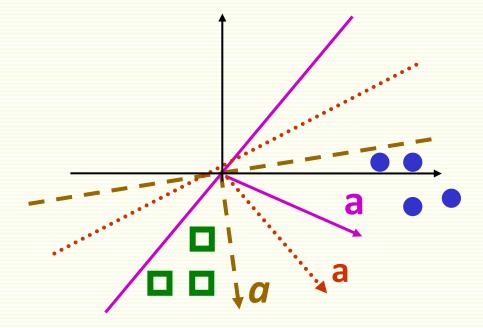


seek hyperplane that puts normalized samples on the same (positive) side

# Solution Region

• Find weight vector **a** s.t. for all samples **z**<sup>1</sup>,...,**z**<sup>n</sup>

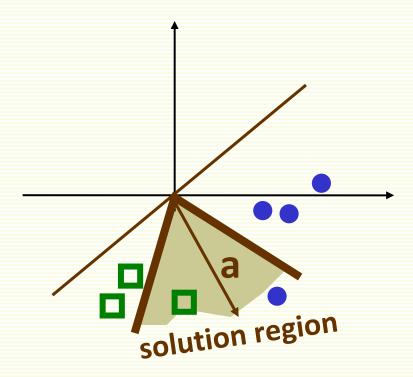
$$\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{t}}\mathbf{z}^{\mathsf{i}} = \sum_{\mathsf{k}=\mathsf{0}}^{\mathsf{d}} \mathbf{a}_{\mathsf{k}}^{\mathsf{z}_{\mathsf{d}}^{\mathsf{i}}} > \mathbf{0}$$



• If there is one such a, then there are infinitely many a

# Solution Region

• Solution region: the set of all possible solutions for a



#### Criterion Function: First Attempt

- Find weight vector **a** s.t.  $\forall z^1,..., z^n$ ,  $a^t z^i > 0$
- Design a criterion function J(a), which is minimum when a is a solution vector
- Let Z(a) be the set of examples misclassified by a

$$Z(a) = \{ z^i \mid a^t z^i < 0 \}$$

Natural choice: number of misclassified examples

$$J(a) = |Z(a)|$$

- Unfortunately, can't be minimized with gradient descent
  - piecewise constant, gradient zero or does not exist

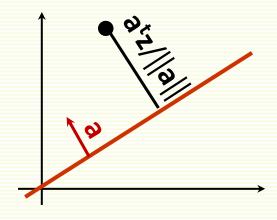


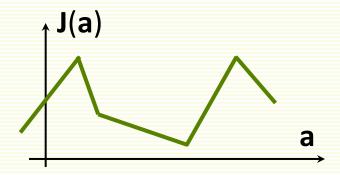
#### Perceptron Criterion Function

Better choice: Perceptron criterion function

$$\mathbf{J_p}(\mathbf{a}) = \sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbf{Z}(\mathbf{a})} (-\mathbf{a}^{\mathsf{t}}\mathbf{z})$$

- If z is misclassified, a<sup>t</sup>z < 0
- Thus  $J(a) \ge 0$
- J<sub>p</sub>(a) is proportional to the sum of distances of misclassified examples to decision boundary
- J<sub>p</sub>(a) is piecewise linear and suitable for gradient descent





# Optimizing with Gradient Descent

$$J_{p}(a) = \sum_{z \in Z(a)} (-a^{t}z)$$

- Gradient of  $J_p(a)$  is  $\nabla J_p(a) = \sum_{z \in Z(a)} (-z)$ 
  - cannot solve  $\nabla \mathbf{J}_{p}(\mathbf{a}) = 0$  analytically because of  $\mathbf{Z}(\mathbf{a})$
- Recall update rule for gradient descent

$$\mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{x}^{(k+1)} - \alpha \nabla \mathbf{J}(\mathbf{x}^{(k)})$$

Gradient decent update rule for J<sub>p</sub>(a) is:

$$\mathbf{a}^{(\mathbf{k}+1)} = \mathbf{a}^{(\mathbf{k})} + \alpha \sum_{\mathbf{z} \in \mathbf{Z}(\mathbf{a})} \mathbf{z}$$

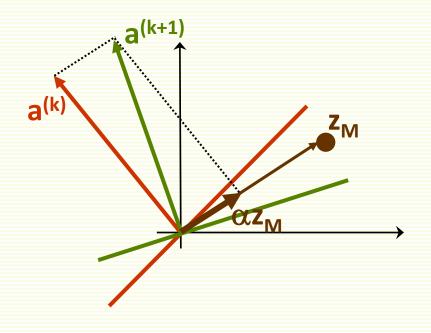
- called batch rule because it is based on all examples
- true gradient descent

## Perceptron Single Sample Rule

• Gradient decent single sample rule for  $J_p(a)$  is

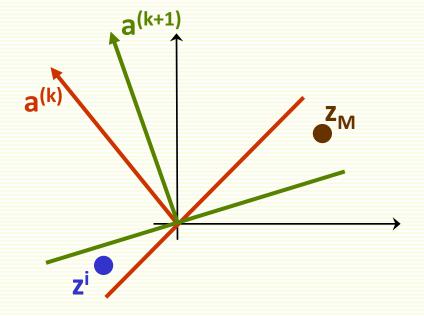
$$\mathbf{a}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{a}^{(k)} + \alpha \cdot \mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{M}}$$

- z<sub>M</sub> is one sample misclassified by a<sup>(k)</sup>
- must have a consistent way to visit samples
- Geometric Interpretation:
- $z_{M}$  misclassified by  $a^{(k)}$   $(a^{(k)})^{t} z_{M} \leq 0$
- z<sub>M</sub> is on the wrong side of decision boundary
- adding  $\alpha \cdot \mathbf{z_M}$  to a moves decision boundary in the right direction

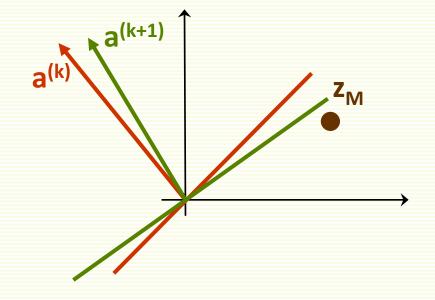


# Perceptron Single Sample Rule

if  $\alpha$  is too large, previously correctly classified sample  $\mathbf{z}^i$  is now misclassified



if  $\alpha$  is too small,  $\mathbf{z}_{\mathsf{M}}$  is still misclassified



#### Perceptron Single Sample Rule Example

	features				grade
name	good attendance?	tall?	sleeps in class?	chews gum?	
Jane	yes (1)	yes (1)	no (-1)	no (-1)	А
Steve	yes (1)	yes (1)	yes (1)	yes (1)	F
Mary	no (-1)	no (-1)	no (-1)	yes (1)	F
Peter	yes (1)	no (-1)	no (-1)	yes (1)	Α

class 1: students who get grade A

class 2: students who get grade F

#### Augment Feature Vector

	features			grade		
name	extra	good attendance?	tall?	sleeps in class?	chews gum?	
Jane	1	yes (1)	yes (1)	no (-1)	no (-1)	Α
Steve	1	yes (1)	yes (1)	yes (1)	yes (1)	F
Mary	1	no (-1)	no (-1)	no (-1)	yes (1)	F
Peter	1	yes (1)	no (-1)	no (-1)	yes (1)	Α

convert samples x<sup>1</sup>,..., x<sup>n</sup> to augmented samples z<sup>1</sup>,..., z<sup>n</sup>
 by adding a new dimension of value 1

#### "Normalization"

	features			grade		
name	extra	good attendance?	tall?	sleeps in class?	chews gum?	
Jane	1	yes (1)	yes (1)	no (-1)	no (-1)	Α
Steve	-1	yes (-1)	yes (-1)	yes (-1)	yes (-1)	F
Mary	-1	no (1)	no (1)	no (1)	yes (-1)	F
Peter	1	yes (1)	no (-1)	no (-1)	yes (1)	А

Replace all examples from class 2 by their negative

$$z^i \rightarrow - z^i$$

Seek weight vector a s.t. a<sup>t</sup>z<sup>i</sup> > 0 for all z<sup>i</sup>

	features			grade		
name	extra	good attendance?	tall?	sleeps in class?	chews gum?	
Jane	1	yes (1)	yes (1)	no (-1)	no (-1)	Α
Steve	-1	yes (-1)	yes (-1)	yes (-1)	yes (-1)	F
Mary	-1	no (1)	no (1)	no (1)	yes (-1)	F
Peter	1	yes (1)	no (-1)	no (-1)	yes (1)	А

- Gradient descent single sample rule:  $\mathbf{a}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{a}^{(k)} + \alpha \cdot \mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{M}}$
- Set fixed learning rate to  $\alpha = 1$ :  $\mathbf{a}^{(k+1)} = \mathbf{a}^{(k)} + \mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{M}}$
- Sample is misclassified if  $\mathbf{a}^t \mathbf{z}^i = \sum_{k=0}^4 \mathbf{a}_k \mathbf{z}_k^i < 0$

- initial weights  $a^{(1)} = [0.25, 0.25, 0.25, 0.25]$
- visit all samples sequentially

name	a <sup>t</sup> z	misclassified?
Jane	0.25*1+0.25*1+0.25*1+0.25*(-1)+0.25*(-1) >0	no
Steve	0.25*(-1)+0.25*(-1)+0.25*(-1)+0.25*(-1)+0.25*(-1)<0	yes

new weights

$$\mathbf{a}^{(2)} = \mathbf{a}^{(1)} + \mathbf{z}_{\mathbf{M}} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.25 & 0.25 & 0.25 & 0.25 \end{bmatrix} + \\ + \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ = \begin{bmatrix} -0.75 & -0.75 & -0.75 & -0.75 \end{bmatrix} - 0.75 \end{bmatrix} +$$

$$\mathbf{a}^{(2)} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.75 & -0.75 & -0.75 & -0.75 \end{bmatrix}$$

name	a <sup>t</sup> z	misclassified?
Mary	-0.75*(-1)-0.75*1 -0.75 *1 -0.75 *1 -0.75*(-1) <0	yes

new weights

$$\mathbf{a}^{(3)} = \mathbf{a}^{(2)} + \mathbf{z_M} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.75 & -0.75 & -0.75 & -0.75 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} -1.75 & 0.25 & 0.25 & 0.25 & -1.75 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$a^{(3)} = \begin{bmatrix} -1.75 & 0.25 & 0.25 & 0.25 & -1.75 \end{bmatrix}$$

name	a <sup>t</sup> z	misclassified?
Peter	-1.75 *1 +0.25* 1+0.25* (-1) +0.25 *(-1)-1.75*1 <0	yes

new weights

$$\mathbf{a}^{(4)} = \mathbf{a}^{(3)} + \mathbf{z}_{M} = \begin{bmatrix} -1.75 & 0.25 & 0.25 & 0.25 & -1.75 \end{bmatrix} +$$

$$+ \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} =$$

$$= \begin{bmatrix} -0.75 & 1.25 & -0.75 & -0.75 & -0.75 \end{bmatrix}$$

## Single Sample Rule: Convergence

$$\mathbf{a}^{(4)} = \begin{bmatrix} -0.75 & 1.25 & -0.75 & -0.75 \end{bmatrix}$$

name	a <sup>t</sup> z	misclassified?
Jane	-0.75 *1 +1.25*1 -0.75*1 -0.75 *(-1) -0.75 *(-1)+0	no
Steve	-0.75*(-1)+1.25*(-1) -0.75*(-1) -0.75*(-1)-0.75*(-1)>0	no
Mary	-0.75 *(-1)+1.25*1-0.75*1 -0.75 *1 -0.75*(-1) >0	no
Peter	-0.75 *1+ 1.25*1-0.75* (-1)-0.75* (-1) -0.75 *1 >0	no

Thus the discriminant function is

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{z}) = -0.75 \ \mathbf{z}_0 + 1.25 \mathbf{z}_1 - 0.75 \mathbf{z}_2 - 0.75 \mathbf{z}_3 - 0.75 \mathbf{z}_4$$

Converting back to the original features x

$$\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = 1.25\mathbf{x}_1 - 0.75\mathbf{x}_2 - 0.75\mathbf{x}_3 - 0.75\mathbf{x}_4 - 0.75$$

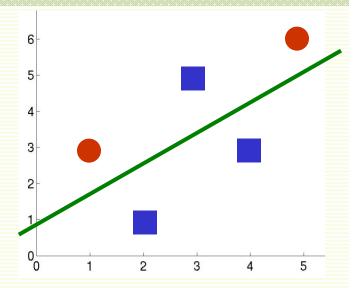
#### Final Classifier

- Trained LDF:  $\mathbf{g}(\mathbf{x}) = 1.25x_1 0.75x_2 0.75x_3 0.75x_4 0.75$
- Leads to classifier:

$$1.25x_1 - 0.75x_2 - 0.75x_3 - 0.75x_4 > 0.75 \Rightarrow \text{grade A}$$
good tall sleeps in class chews gum
attendance

- This is just *one* possible solution vector
- With  $\mathbf{a}^{(1)}=[0,0.5,0.5,0.5,0]$ , solution is [-1,1.5,-0.5,-1,-1] $1.5\mathbf{x}_1 - 0.5\mathbf{x}_2 - \mathbf{x}_3 - \mathbf{x}_4 > 1 \Rightarrow \text{grade } \mathbf{A}$ 
  - In this solution, being tall is the least important feature

- Suppose we have examples:
  - class 1: [2,1], [4,3], [3,5]
  - class 2: [1,3], [5,6]
  - not linearly separable
- Still would like to get approximate separation



- Good line choice is shown in green
- Let us run gradient descent
  - Add extra feature and "normalize"

$$\mathbf{z}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{z}^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{z}^{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{z}^{4} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{z}^{5} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -5 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$$

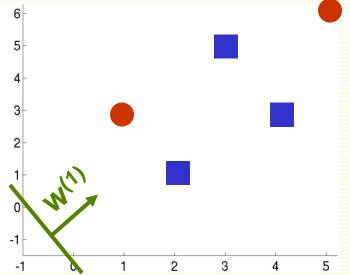
- single sample perceptron rule
- Initial weights **a**<sup>(1)</sup> = [1 1 1]
- This is line  $x_1 + x_2 + 1 = 0$
- Use fixed learning rate  $\alpha = 1$
- Rule is:  $a^{(k+1)} = a^{(k)} + z_M$

$$\mathbf{z}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 2 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{4} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{5} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -5 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$$

• 
$$\mathbf{a}^{t}\mathbf{z}^{1} = [1 \ 1 \ 1] \cdot [1 \ 2 \ 1]^{t} > 0$$

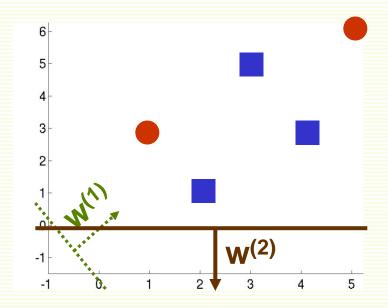
• 
$$\mathbf{a}^{t}\mathbf{z}^{2} = [1 \ 1 \ 1] \cdot [1 \ 4 \ 3]^{t} > 0$$

• 
$$\mathbf{a}^{t}\mathbf{z}^{3} = [1 \ 1 \ 1] \cdot [1 \ 3 \ 5]^{t} > 0$$



- $a^{(1)} = [1 \ 1 \ 1]$
- rule is:  $a^{(k+1)} = a^{(k)} + z_M$

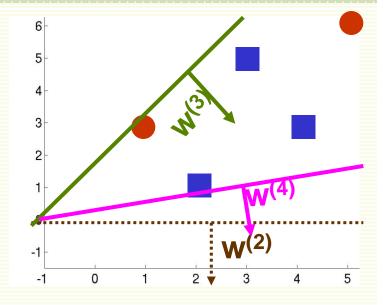
$$\mathbf{z}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{2} \\ \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{4} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{5} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -5 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$$



- $\mathbf{a}^{t}\mathbf{z}^{4} = [1 \ 1 \ 1] \cdot [-1 \ -1 \ -3]^{t} = -5 < 0$
- Update:  $\mathbf{a}^{(2)} = \mathbf{a}^{(1)} + \mathbf{z}_{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & -2 \end{bmatrix}$
- $\mathbf{a}^{t}\mathbf{z}^{5} = [0 \ 0 \ -2] \cdot [-1 \ -5 \ -6]^{t} = 12 > 0$
- $\mathbf{a}^{t}\mathbf{z}^{1} = [0 \ 0 \ -2] \cdot [1 \ 2 \ 1]^{t} < 0$
- Update:  $\mathbf{a}^{(3)} = \mathbf{a}^{(2)} + \mathbf{z}_{M} = [0 \ 0 \ -2] + [1 \ 2 \ 1] = [1 \ 2 \ -1]$

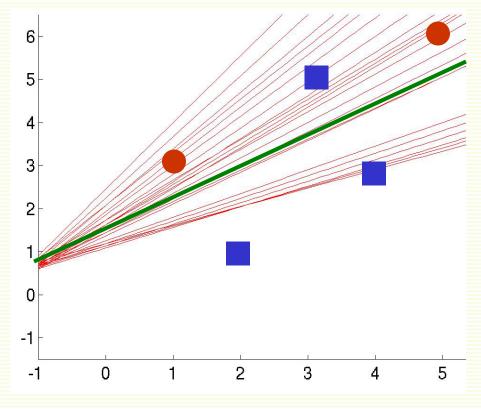
- $a^{(3)} = [1 \ 2 \ -1]$
- rule is:  $a^{(k+1)} = a^{(k)} + z_M$

$$\mathbf{z}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{1} \\ \mathbf{2} \\ \mathbf{1} \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \\ 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{3} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 3 \\ 5 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{4} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -1 \\ -3 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{5} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -5 \\ -6 \end{bmatrix}$$



- $\mathbf{a}^{t}\mathbf{z}^{2} = [1 \ 4 \ 3] \cdot [1 \ 2 \ -1]^{t} = 6 > 0$
- $\mathbf{a}^{t}\mathbf{z}^{3} = [1 \ 3 \ 5] \cdot [1 \ 2 \ -1]^{t} = 2 > 0$
- $\mathbf{a}^{t}\mathbf{z}^{4} = [-1 \ -1 \ -3] \cdot [1 \ 2 \ -1]^{t} = 0$
- Update:  $\mathbf{a}^{(4)} = \mathbf{a}^{(3)} + \mathbf{z}_{M} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 2 & -1 \end{bmatrix} + \begin{bmatrix} -1 & -1 & -3 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$

- We can continue this forever
  - there is no solution vector a satisfying for all a<sup>t</sup>z<sub>i</sub> > 0 for all i
- Need to stop at a good point
- Solutions at iterations900 through 915
- Some are good some are not
- How do we stop at a good solution?



## Convergence of Perceptron Rules

#### 1. Classes are linearly separable:

- with fixed learning rate, both single sample and batch rules converge to a correct solution a
- can be any a in the solution space
- 2. Classes are not linearly separable:
  - with fixed learning rate, both single sample and batch do not converge
  - can ensure convergence with appropriate variable learning rate
    - $\alpha \rightarrow 0$  as  $k \rightarrow \infty$
    - example, inverse linear:  $\alpha = c/k$ , where c is any constant
      - also converges in the linearly separable case
    - no guarantee that we stop at a good point, but there are good reasons to choose inverse linear learning rate
- Practical Issue: both single sample and batch algorithms converge faster if features are roughly on the same scale
  - see kNN lecture on feature normalization

### Batch vs. Single Sample Rules

#### Batch

- True gradient descent, full gradient computed
- Smoother gradient because all samples are used
- Takes longer to converge

#### Single Sample

- Only partial gradient is computed
- Noisier gradient, therefore may concentrates more than necessary on any isolated training examples (those could be noise)
- Converges faster
- Easier to analyze

### Minimum Squared Error Optimization

Idea: convert to easier and better understood problem

a<sup>t</sup>z<sup>i</sup> > 0 for all samples z<sup>i</sup>solve system of linear inequalities

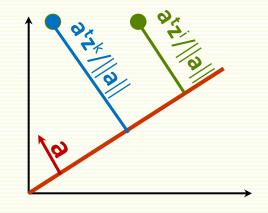
 $\mathbf{a}^{\mathbf{t}}\mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{i}} = \mathbf{b}_{\mathbf{i}}$  for all samples  $\mathbf{z}^{\mathbf{i}}$  solve system of linear equations

- MSE procedure
  - choose positive constants b<sub>1</sub>, b<sub>2</sub>,..., b<sub>n</sub>
  - try to find weight vector a s.t. a<sup>t</sup>z<sup>i</sup> = b<sub>i</sub> for all samples z<sup>i</sup>
  - if succeed, then **a** is a solution because **b**<sub>i</sub>'s are positive
  - consider all the samples (not just the misclassified ones)

#### MSE: Margins

- By setting a<sup>t</sup>z<sup>i</sup> = b<sub>i</sub>, we expect z<sup>i</sup> to be at a relative distance b<sub>i</sub> from the separating hyperplane
- Thus b<sub>1</sub>, b<sub>2</sub>,..., b<sub>n</sub> are expected relative distances of examples from the separating hyperplane
- Should make b<sub>i</sub> small if sample i is expected to be near separating hyperplane, and make b<sub>i</sub> larger otherwise
- In the absence of any such information, there are good reasons to set

$$\mathbf{b}_1 = \mathbf{b}_2 = \dots = \mathbf{b}_n = 1$$



#### **MSE: Matrix Notation**

• Solve system of **n** equations  $\begin{cases} \mathbf{a}^{t} \mathbf{z}^{1} = \mathbf{b}_{1} \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}^{t} \mathbf{z}^{n} = \mathbf{b}_{n} \end{cases}$ 

$$a^{t}z^{n}=b_{n}$$

• Using matrix notation:

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{z}_{0}^{1} & \mathbf{z}_{1}^{1} & \cdots & \mathbf{z}_{d}^{1} \\ \mathbf{z}_{0}^{2} & \mathbf{z}_{1}^{2} & \cdots & \mathbf{z}_{d}^{2} \\ \vdots & & \vdots & & \vdots \\ \mathbf{z}_{0}^{n} & \mathbf{z}_{1}^{n} & \cdots & \mathbf{z}_{d}^{n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{a}_{0} \\ \mathbf{a}_{1} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{a}_{d} \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{b}_{1} \\ \mathbf{b}_{2} \\ \vdots \\ \vdots \\ \mathbf{b}_{n} \end{bmatrix}$$

Solve a linear system Za = b

#### MSE: Exact Solution is Rare

- Solve a linear system Za = b
  - **Z** is an **n** by (**d** +**1**) matrix
- Exact solution can be found only if Z is nonsingular and square, in which case inverse Z<sup>-1</sup> exists
  - $a = Z^{-1}b$
  - (number of samples) = (number of features + 1)
- if happens, guaranteed to find separating hyperplane
  - but almost never happens in practice

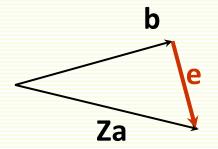
# MSE:Approximate Solution

- Typically Z is overdetermined
  - more rows (examples) than columns (features)

- No exact solution for Za = b in this case
- Find an approximate solution a, that is Za ≈ b
  - approximate solution a does not necessarily give a separating hyperplane in the separable case
  - but hyperplane corresponding to an approximate a may still be a good solution

#### **MSE Criterion Function**

 MSE approach: find a which minimizes the length of the error vector e = Za - b



Minimize the minimum squared error criterion function:

$$\mathbf{J}_{s}(\mathbf{a}) = \|\mathbf{Z}\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}\|^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{a}^{t} \mathbf{z}^{i} - \mathbf{b}_{i})^{2}$$

Can be optimized exactly

# MSE: Optimizing $J_S(a)$

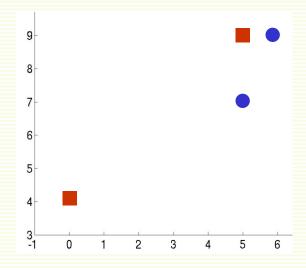
$$\mathbf{J}_{s}(\mathbf{a}) = \|\mathbf{Z}\mathbf{a} - \mathbf{b}\|^{2} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} (\mathbf{a}^{t}\mathbf{z}^{i} - \mathbf{b}_{i})^{2}$$

- Compute the gradient:  $\nabla J_s(a) = 2Z^t(Za-b)$
- Set it to zero: 2**Z**<sup>t</sup>(**Za-b**) = 0
- If Z<sup>t</sup>Z is non-singular, its inverse exists and can find a unique solution for a = (Z<sup>t</sup>Z)<sup>-1</sup> Z<sup>t</sup>b
- In Matlab
  - a = Z\b
  - or use pinv command (pseudo-inverse)
    - a = pinv(Z)\*b;

## MSE: Example

- Class 1: (6 9), (5 7)
- Class 2: (5 9), (0 4)
- Add extra feature and "normalize"

$$\mathbf{z}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{3} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -5 \\ -9 \end{bmatrix} \quad \mathbf{z}^{4} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

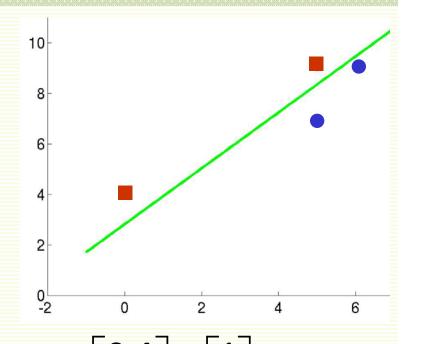


$$\bullet \quad \mathbf{Z} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 9 \\ 1 & 5 & 7 \\ -1 & -5 & -9 \\ -1 & 0 & -4 \end{bmatrix}$$

## MSE: Example

Use a=Z\b to solve in Matlab

$$a = \begin{bmatrix} 2.7 \\ 1.0 \\ -0.9 \end{bmatrix}$$

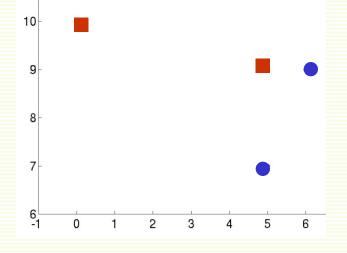


- Note **a** is an approximation since  $\mathbf{Za} = \begin{bmatrix} 1.3 \\ 0.6 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$ • Gives a separating hyperplane since  $\begin{bmatrix} 1.3 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$
- Gives a separating nypZa > 0

# MSE: Another Example

- Class 1: (6 9), (5 7)
- Class 2: (5 9), (0 10)
- One example is far compared to others from separating hyperplane

$$\mathbf{z}^{1} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 6 \\ 9 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{z}^{2} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 5 \\ 7 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{z}^{3} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ -5 \\ -9 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \mathbf{z}^{4} = \begin{bmatrix} -1 \\ 0 \\ -10 \end{bmatrix}$$



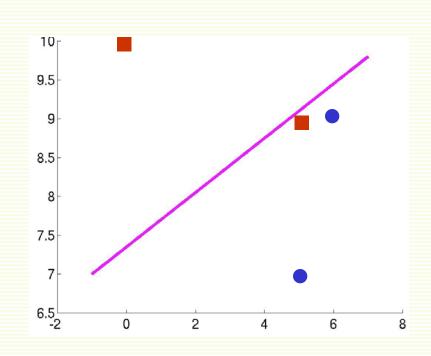
• 
$$\mathbf{Z} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 6 & 9 \\ 1 & 5 & 7 \\ -1 & -5 & -9 \\ -1 & 0 & -10 \end{bmatrix}$$

## MSE: Another Example Cont.

• Choose 
$$\mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Solve 
$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{Z} \setminus \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} 3.2 \\ 0.2 \\ -0.4 \end{bmatrix}$$

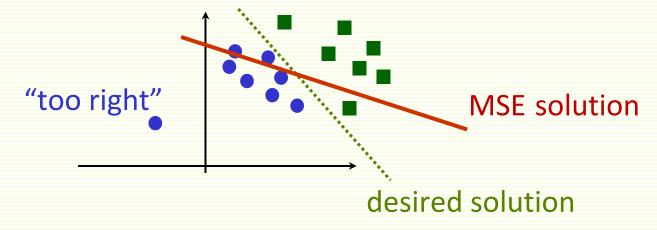
• 
$$\mathbf{Za} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 \\ 0.9 \\ -0.04 \\ 1.16 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$



• Does not give a separating hyperplane since  $\mathbf{a}^t \mathbf{z}^3 < \mathbf{0}$ 

#### MSE: Problems

- MSE wants all examples to be at the same distance from the separating hyperplane
- Examples that are "too right", i.e. too far from the boundary cause problems



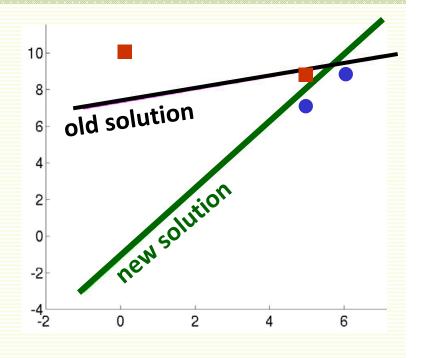
No problems with convergence though,
 both in separable and non-separable cases

# MSE: Another Example Cont.

- If we know that 4th point is far from separating hyperplane
  - in practice can look at points which are furthest from the decision boundary

$$\mathbf{Za} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.2 \\ 0.9 \\ -0.04 \\ 1.16 \end{bmatrix}$$

• Set **b**<sub>i</sub> larger for such points: **b** = • Solve  $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{Z} \setminus \mathbf{b} = \begin{bmatrix} -1.1 \\ 1.7 \\ -0.9 \end{bmatrix}$ 



• 
$$\mathbf{Za} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.9 \\ 1.0 \\ 0.8 \end{bmatrix} \neq \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} > 0$$
, therefore gives a separating hyperplane

#### More General Discriminant Functions

- Linear discriminant functions give simple decision boundary
  - try simpler models first
- Linear Discriminant functions are optimal for certain type of data
  - Gaussian distributions with equal covariance (don't worry if you don't know what a Gaussian is)
- May not be optimal for other data distributions, but they are very simple to use
- Discriminant functions can be more general than linear
  - For example, polynomial discriminant functions
  - Decision boundaries more complex than linear
  - Later will look more at non-linear discriminant functions

### Summary

- Linear classifier works well when examples are linearly separable, or almost separable
- Two Training Approaches:
  - Perceptron Rules
    - find a separating hyperplane in the linearly separable case
    - uses gradient descent for optimization
    - do not converge in the non-separable case
    - can force convergence by using a decreasing learning rate, but are not guaranteed a reasonable stopping point

#### MSE Rules

- converges in separable and not separable case
- can be optimized with pseudo-inverse
- but may not find separating hyperplane even if classes are linearly separable