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- ► Throughout this lecture we assume that all features are numerical, i.e., feature vectors belong to ℝ<sup>n</sup>.
- Most non-numerical features can be conveniently transformed to numerical ones.
  - For example:
    - Colors { blue, red, yellow } can be represented by

```
\{(1,0,0),(0,1,0),(0,0,1)\}
```

(one-hot encoding)

- Words can be embedded into vector spaces by various means (word2vec etc.)
- A black-and-white picture of x × y pixels can be encoded as a vector of xy numbers that capture the shades of gray of the pixels.

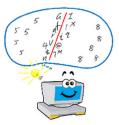
(Even though this is possibly not the best way of representing images.)

## **Basic Problems**

We consider two basic problems:

► (Binary) classification

**Our goal:** Classify inputs into two categories.



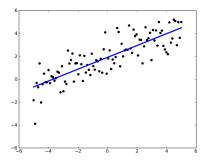
## **Basic Problems**

We consider two basic problems:

- (Binary) classification
  - **Our goal:** Classify inputs into two categories.



- Function approximation (regression)
  - **Our goal:** Find a (hypothesized) functional dependency in data.



# Binary classification in $\mathbb{R}^n$

Assume an *unknown* categorization function  $c : \mathbb{R}^n \to \{0, 1\}$ .

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• Given a set *D* of training examples of the form  $(\vec{x}, c(\vec{x}))$  where  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n$ ,

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Comments:

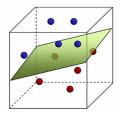
- In practice, we often do not strictly demand h(x̄) = c(x̄) for all training examples (x̄, c(x̄)) ∈ D (often it is impossible)
- ▶ We are more interested in good **generalization**, that is how well *h* classifies new instances that do not belong to *D*.

(Recall that we usually evaluate accuracy of the resulting hypothesized function h on a test set.)

# Hypothesis Spaces

We consider two kinds of hypothesis spaces:

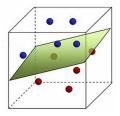
Linear (affine) classifiers (this lecture)



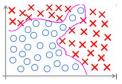
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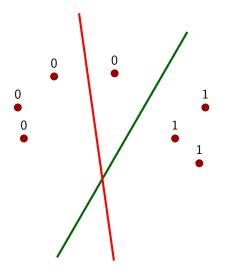
Linear (affine) classifiers (this lecture)



 Non-linear classifiers (kernel SVM, neural networks) (next lectures)

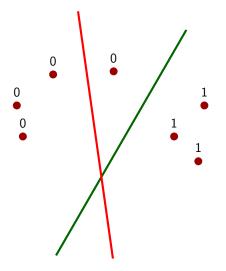


## Linear classifier - example



 classification in plane using a linear classifier

## Linear classifier - example



- classification in plane using a linear classifier
- if a point is incorrectly classified, the learning algorithm turns the line (hyperplane) to improve the classification.

## Length and Scalar Product of Vectors

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- Scalar product  $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y}$  of vectors  $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_m)$  and  $\vec{y} = (y_1, \dots, y_m)$  defined by

$$\vec{x} \cdot \vec{y} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} x_i y_i$$

- Recall that x̄ · ȳ = |x̄||ȳ| cos θ where θ is the angle between x̄ and ȳ. That is x̄ · ȳ is the length of the projection of ȳ on x̄ multiplied by |x̄|.
- Note that  $\vec{x} \cdot \vec{x} = |\vec{x}|^2$

## **Linear Classifier**

A *linear classifier*  $h[\vec{w}]$  is determined by a vector of *weights*  $\vec{w} = (w_0, w_1, \dots, w_n) \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  as follows:

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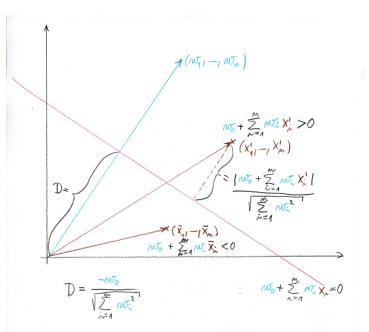
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More succinctly:

$$h(\vec{x}) = sgn\left(w_0 + \sum_{i=1}^n w_i \cdot x_i\right)$$
 where  $sgn(y) = \begin{cases} 1 & y \ge 0\\ 0 & y < 0 \end{cases}$ 

#### Linear Classifier – Geometry



#### Linear Classifier – Notation

Given  $\vec{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  we define an *augmented feature vector* 

 $\tilde{\mathsf{x}} = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n)$  where  $x_0 = 1$ 

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 $\widetilde{\mathsf{x}} = (x_0, x_1, \dots, x_n)$  where  $x_0 = 1$ 

This makes the notation for the linear classifier more succinct:

 $h[\vec{w}](\vec{x}) = sgn(\vec{w}\cdot \widetilde{x})$ 

Given a training set

$$D = \{ (\vec{x}_1, c(\vec{x}_1)), (\vec{x}_2, c(\vec{x}_2)), \dots, (\vec{x}_p, c(\vec{x}_p)) \}$$
  
Here  $\vec{x}_k = (x_{k1} \dots, x_{kn}) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $c(\vec{x}_k) \in \{0, 1\}$ .

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• A weight vector  $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  is consistent with D if  $h[\vec{w}](\vec{x}_k) = sgn(\vec{w} \cdot \tilde{x}_k) = c_k$  for all k = 1, ..., p

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*D* is **linearly separable** if there is a vector  $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  which is consistent with *D*.

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*D* is **linearly separable** if there is a vector  $\vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  which is consistent with *D*.

Our goal is to find a consistent w assuming that D is linearly separable.

#### Online learning algorithm:

Idea: Cyclically go through the training examples in D and adapt weights. Whenever an example is incorrectly classified, turn the hyperplane so that the example becomes closer to it's correct half-space.

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- $\vec{w}^{(0)}$  is randomly initialized close to  $\vec{0} = (0, ..., 0)$
- ▶ In (t + 1)-th step,  $\vec{w}^{(t+1)}$  is computed as follows:

$$ec{w}^{(t+1)} = ec{w}^{(t)} - \varepsilon \cdot \left(h[ec{w}^{(t)}](ec{x}_k) - c_k
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#### Věta (Rosenblatt)

If D is linearly separable, then there is  $t^*$  such that  $\vec{w}^{(t^*)}$  is consistent with D.

## Example

Training set:

$$D = \{((2, -1), 1), ((2, 1), 1), ((1, 3), 0)\}$$

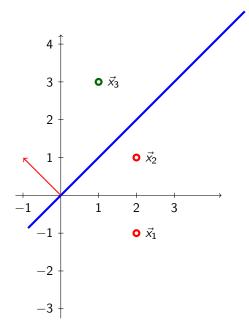
That is

 $\begin{array}{rcl} \vec{x_1} &=& (2,-1) & & & \\ \vec{x_2} &=& (2,1) & & & \\ \vec{x_3} &=& (1,3) & & & \\ \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{rcl} \tilde{x_1} &=& (1,2,-1) & & \\ \tilde{x_2} &=& (1,2,1) & & \\ \tilde{x_3} &=& (1,1,3) & & \\ \end{array}$ 

$$egin{array}{rcl} c_1 &=& 1 \ c_2 &=& 1 \ c_3 &=& 0 \end{array}$$

Assume that the initial vector  $\vec{w}^{(0)}$  is  $\vec{w}^{(0)} = (0, -1, 1)$ . Consider  $\varepsilon = 1$ .

# Example: Separating by $\vec{w}^{(0)}$



Denoting  $\vec{w}^{(0)} =$  $(w_0, w_1, w_2) = (0, -1, 1)$ the blue separating line is given by  $w_0 + w_1x_1 + w_2x_2 = 0$ .

The red vector normal to the blue line is  $(w_1, w_2)$ .

The points on the side of  $(w_1, w_2)$  are assigned 1 by the classifier, the others zero. (In this case  $\vec{x_3}$  is assigned one and  $\vec{x_1}, \vec{x_2}$  are assigned zero, all of this is inconsistent with  $c_1 = 1, c_2 = 1, c_3 = 0.$ )

# **Example:** $\vec{w}^{(1)}$

We have

$$\vec{w}^{(0)} \cdot \tilde{x}_1 = (0, -1, 1) \cdot (1, 2, -1) = 0 - 2 - 1 = -3$$

thus

$$sgn\left(ec{w}^{(0)}\cdot\widetilde{x}_{1}
ight)=0$$

and thus

$$sgn\left(\vec{w}^{(0)}\cdot\widetilde{x}_{1}\right)-c_{1}=0-1=-1$$

(I.e.,  $\vec{x_1}$  is not correctly classified, and  $\vec{w}^{(0)}$  is not consistent with D.) Hence,

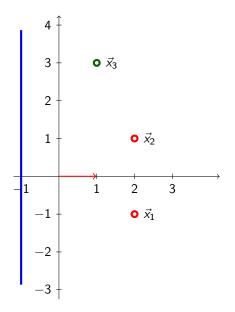
$$\vec{w}^{(1)} = \vec{w}^{(0)} - \left( sgn\left( \vec{w}^{(0)} \cdot \tilde{x}_1 \right) - c_1 \right) \cdot \tilde{x}_1$$

$$= \vec{w}^{(0)} + \tilde{x}_1$$

$$= (0, -1, 1) + (1, 2, -1)$$

$$= (1, 1, 0)$$

# Example



# Example: Separating by $\vec{w}^{(1)}$

We have

$$\vec{w}^{(1)} \cdot \tilde{x}_2 = (1, 1, 0) \cdot (1, 2, 1) = 1 + 2 = 3$$

thus

$$sgn\left(ec{w}^{(1)}\cdot\widetilde{\mathsf{x}}_{2}
ight)=1$$

and thus

$$sgn\left(ec{w}^{(1)}\cdot\widetilde{x}_{2}
ight)-c_{2}=1-1=0$$

(I.e.,  $\vec{x_2}$  is currently correctly classified by  $\vec{w}^{(1)}$ . However, as we will see,  $\vec{x_3}$  is not well classified.) Hence,

$$\vec{w}^{(2)} = \vec{w}^{(1)} = (1, 1, 0)$$

## **Example:** $\vec{w}^{(3)}$

We have

$$\vec{w}^{(2)} \cdot \tilde{x}_3 = (1, 1, 0) \cdot (1, 1, 3) = 1 + 1 = 2$$

thus

$$sgn\left(ec{w}^{(2)}\cdot\widetilde{x}_{3}
ight)=1$$

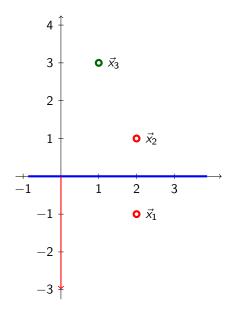
and thus

$$sgn\left(\vec{w}^{(2)}\cdot\widetilde{x}_3\right)-c_3=1-0=1$$

(This means that  $\vec{x}_3$  is not well classified, and  $\vec{w}^{(2)}$  is not consistent with D.) Hence,

$$\vec{w}^{(3)} = \vec{w}^{(2)} - \left(sgn\left(\vec{w}^{(2)} \cdot \tilde{x}_3\right) - c_3\right) \cdot \tilde{x}_3$$
  
=  $\vec{w}^{(2)} - \tilde{x}_3$   
=  $(1, 1, 0) - (1, 1, 3)$   
=  $(0, 0, -3)$ 

## Example: Separating by $\vec{w}^{(3)}$



## **Example:** $\vec{w}^{(4)}$

We have

$$\vec{w}^{(3)} \cdot \tilde{x}_1 = (0, 0, -3) \cdot (1, 2, -1) = 3$$

thus

$$sgn\left(ec{w}^{(3)}\cdot\widetilde{\mathsf{x}}_{1}
ight)=1$$

and thus

$$sgn\left(ec{w}^{(3)}\cdot\widetilde{x}_{1}
ight)-c_{1}=1-1=0$$

(I.e.,  $\vec{x_1}$  is currently correctly classified by  $\vec{w}^{(3)}.$  However, we shall see that  $\vec{x_2}$  is not.) Hence,

$$\vec{w}^{(4)} = \vec{w}^{(3)} = (0, 0, -3)$$

## **Example:** $\vec{w}^{(5)}$

We have

$$\vec{w}^{(4)} \cdot \tilde{x}_2 = (0, 0, -3) \cdot (1, 2, 1) = -3$$

thus

$$sgn\left( ec{w}^{\left( 4
ight) }\cdot\widetilde{x}_{2}
ight) =0$$

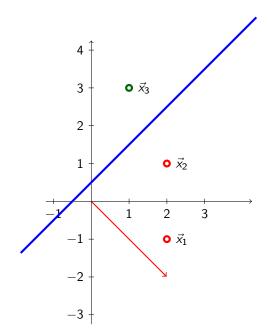
and thus

$$sgn\left(\vec{w}^{(4)}\cdot\widetilde{x}_{2}\right)-c_{2}=0-1=-1$$

(I.e.,  $\vec{x_2}$  is not correctly classified, and  $\vec{w}^{(4)}$  is not consistent with D.) Hence,

$$\vec{w}^{(5)} = \vec{w}^{(4)} - \left(sgn\left(\vec{w}^{(4)} \cdot \tilde{x}_2\right) - c_2\right) \cdot \tilde{x}_2$$
  
=  $\vec{w}^{(4)} + \tilde{x}_2$   
=  $(0, 0, -3) + (1, 2, 1)$   
=  $(1, 2, -2)$ 

# Example: Separating by $\vec{w}^{(5)}$



#### Example: The result

The vector  $\vec{w}^{(5)}$  is consistent with *D*:

$$sgn\left(\vec{w}^{(5)}\cdot\tilde{x}_{1}\right) = sgn\left((1,2,-2)\cdot(1,2,-1)\right) = sgn(7) = 1 = c_{1}$$

$$sgn\left(\vec{w}^{(5)} \cdot \tilde{x}_{2}\right) = sgn\left((1, 2, -2) \cdot (1, 2, 1)\right) = sgn(3) = 1 = c_{2}$$
$$sgn\left(\vec{w}^{(5)} \cdot \tilde{x}_{3}\right) = sgn\left((1, 2, -2) \cdot (1, 1, 3)\right) = sgn(-3) = 0 = c_{3}$$

Batch learning algorithm:

Compute a sequence of weight vectors  $\vec{w}^{(0)}, \vec{w}^{(1)}, \vec{w}^{(2)}, \dots$ 

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Here  $0 < \varepsilon \leq 1$  is a learning rate.

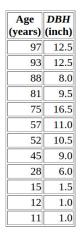
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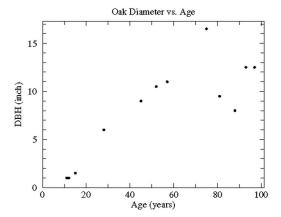
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#### Function Approximation – Oaks in Wisconsin

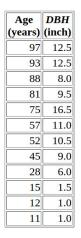
This example is from How to Lie with Statistics by Darrell Huff (1954)

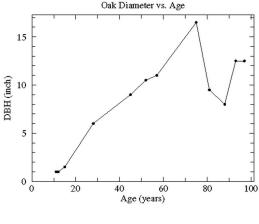




#### Function Approximation – Oaks in Wisconsin

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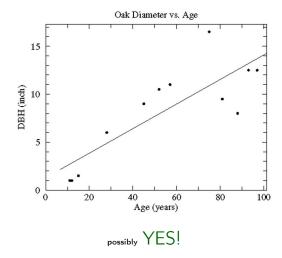




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Age DBH (years) (inch) 97 12.5 93 12.5 88 8.0 81 9.5 75 16.5 57 11.0 52 10.5 45 9.0 28 6.0 15 1.5 12 1.0 11 1.0



### **Function Approximation**

Assume an *unknown* function  $f : \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R}$ .

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In what follows we use the squared error defined by

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{(\vec{x}, f(\vec{x})) \in D} (h(\vec{x}) - f(\vec{x}))^2$$

Our goal is to minimize E.

The main reason is that this function has nice mathematical properties (as opposed e.g. to  $\sum_{(\vec{x}, f(\vec{x})) \in D} |h(\vec{x}) - f(\vec{x})|$ ).

### Linear Function Approximation

► Given a set *D* of training examples:

$$D = \{ (\vec{x}_1, f(\vec{x}_1)), (\vec{x}_2, f(\vec{x}_2)), \dots, (\vec{x}_p, f(\vec{x}_p)) \}$$

Here  $\vec{x}_k = (x_{k1} \dots, x_{kn}) \in \mathbb{R}^n$  and  $f_k(\vec{x}) \in \mathbb{R}$ .

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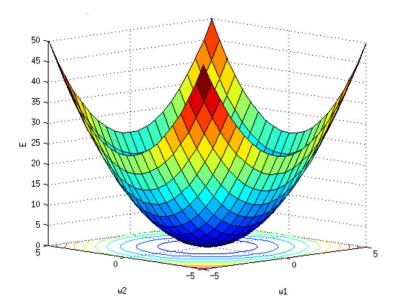
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Squared Error Function:

$$E(\vec{w}) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{p} (\vec{w} \cdot \tilde{x}_{k} - f_{k})^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=1}^{p} \left( \sum_{i=0}^{n} w_{i} x_{ki} - f_{k} \right)^{2}$$

### **Error function**



Consider the gradient of the error function:

$$\nabla E(\vec{w}) = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial w_0}(\vec{w}), \dots, \frac{\partial E}{\partial w_n}(\vec{w})\right) = \sum_{k=1}^p \left(\vec{w} \cdot \tilde{x}_k - f_k\right) \cdot \tilde{x}_k$$

What is the gradient  $\nabla E(\vec{w})$ ? It is a vector in  $\mathbb{R}^{n+1}$  which points in the direction of the steepest *ascent* of *E* (it's length corresponds to the steepness). Note that here the vectors  $\tilde{x}_k$  are *fixed* parameters of *E*!

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#### Fakt If $\nabla E(\vec{w}) = \vec{0} = (0, ..., 0)$ , then $\vec{w}$ is a global minimum of E.

This follows from the fact that E is a convex paraboloid that has a unique extreme which is a minimum.



Consider n = 1, which means that  $\vec{w} = (w_0, w_1)$  and we write x instead of  $\vec{x}$  since  $\vec{x} \in \mathbb{R}^n = \mathbb{R}^1 = \mathbb{R}$ .

Then the model is  $h[\vec{w}](x) = w_0 + w_1 \cdot x$ .

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The augmented feature vectors are: (1, 2), (1, 3), (1, 4).

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$$\frac{\delta E}{\delta w_1} = (w_0 + w_1 \cdot 2 - 1) \cdot 2 + (w_0 + w_1 \cdot 3 - 2) \cdot 3 + (w_0 + w_1 \cdot 4 - 5) \cdot 4$$

$$\nabla E(\vec{w}) = \left(\frac{\delta E}{\delta w_0}, \frac{\delta E}{\delta w_1}\right) = (w_0 + w_1 \cdot 2 - 1) \cdot (1, 2) + (w_0 + w_1 \cdot 3 - 2) \cdot (1, 3) + (w_0 + w_1 \cdot 4 - 5) \cdot (1, 4)$$

Gradient Descent:

• Weights  $\vec{w}^{(0)}$  are initialized randomly close to  $\vec{0}$ .

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Here  $k = (t \mod p) + 1$  and  $0 < \varepsilon \le 1$  is the learning rate.

Note that the algorithm is almost similar to the batch perceptron algorithm!

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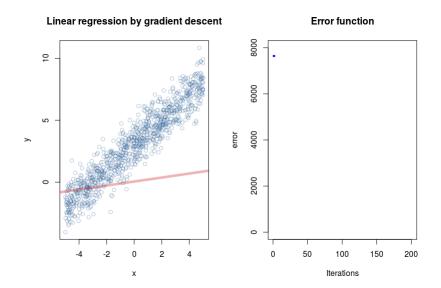
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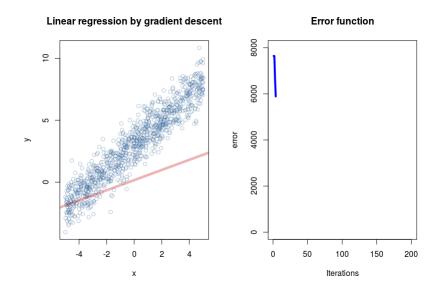
#### Tvrzení

For sufficiently small  $\varepsilon > 0$  the sequence  $\vec{w}^{(0)}, \vec{w}^{(1)}, \vec{w}^{(2)}, \ldots$  converges (component-wisely) to the global minimum of E.

#### Linear regression - animation

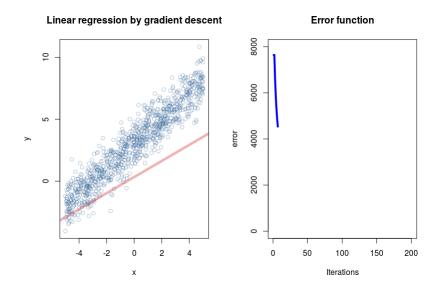


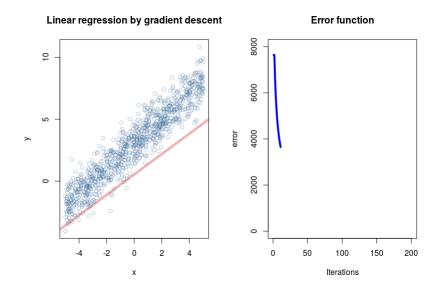
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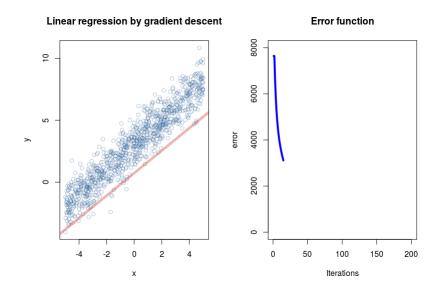


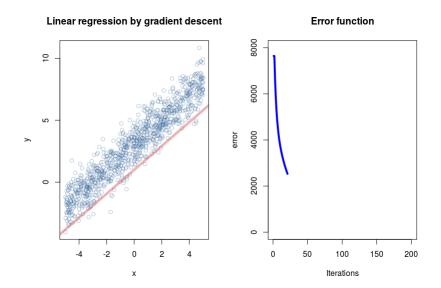
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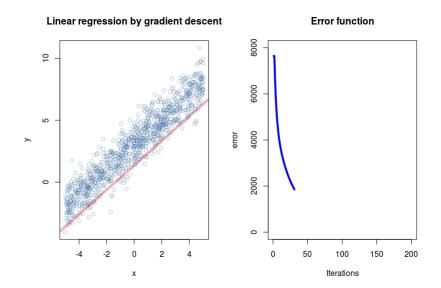
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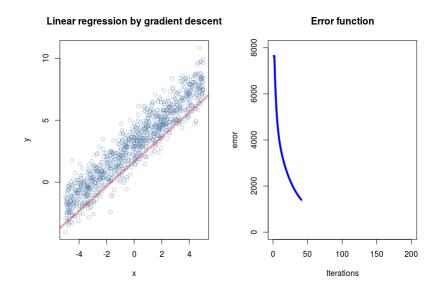


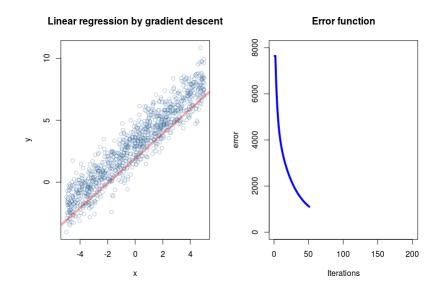


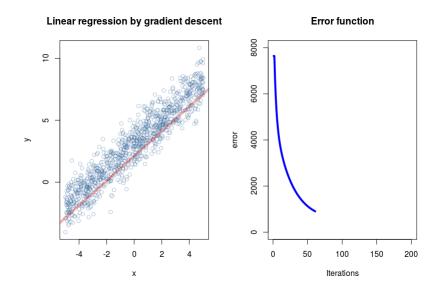


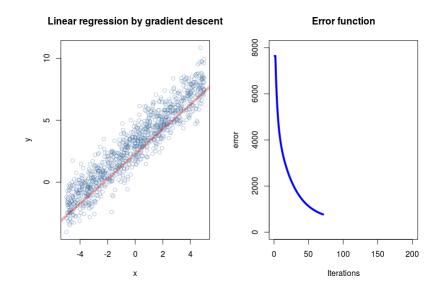


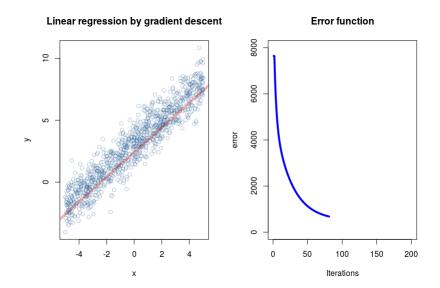


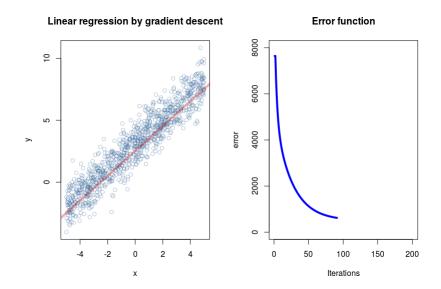


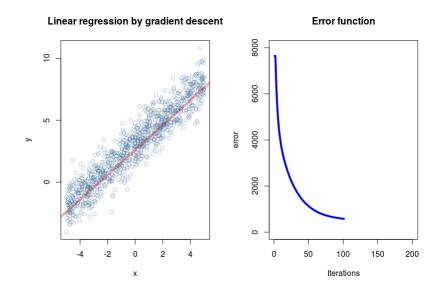


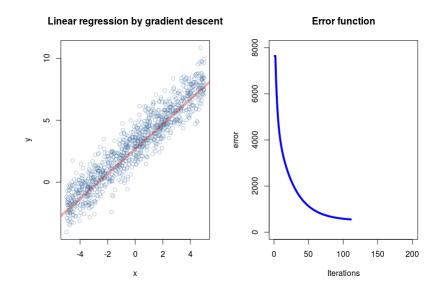


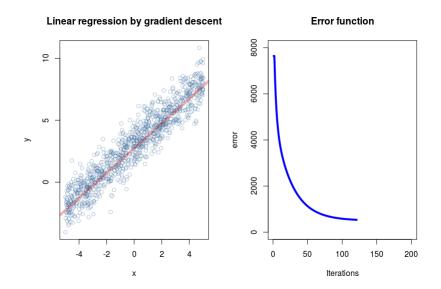


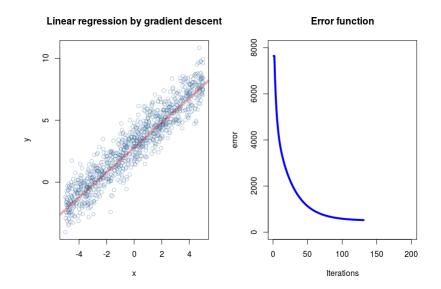


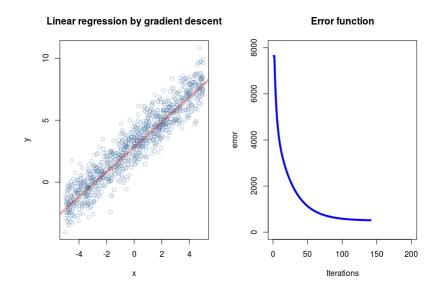


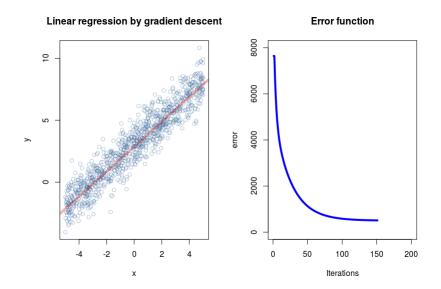


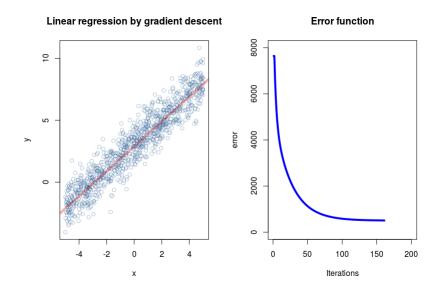


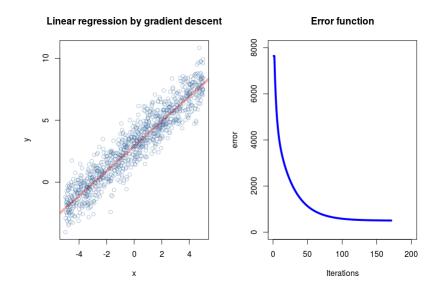


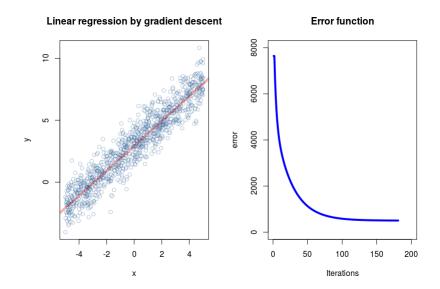


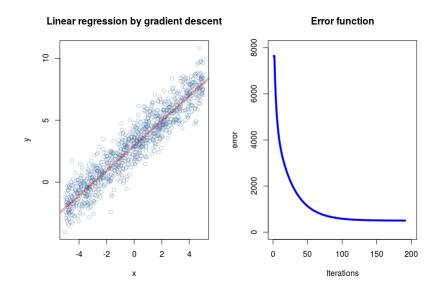


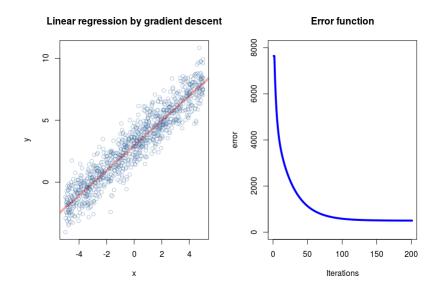












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Assume n = 1. Then the error function E is

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Minimize E w.r.t.  $w_0$  a  $w_1$ :

$$\frac{\delta E}{\delta w_0} = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad w_0 = \bar{f} - w_1 \bar{x} \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad \bar{f} = w_0 + w_1 \bar{x}$$

where  $\bar{x} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p} x_k$  a  $\bar{f} = \frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p} f_k$ 

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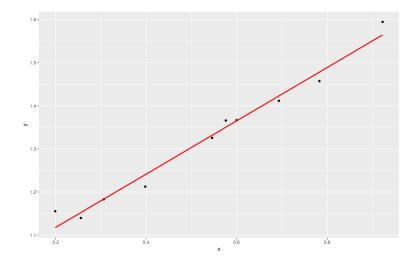
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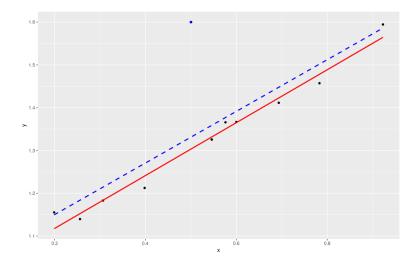
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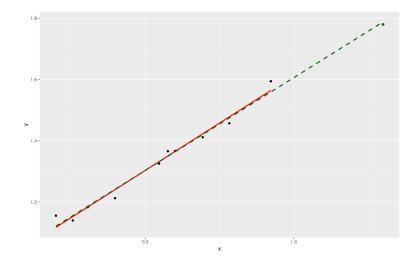
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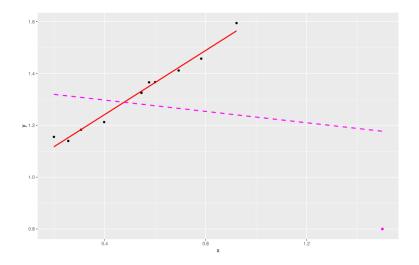
$$\frac{\delta E}{\delta w_1} = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow \quad w_1 = \frac{\frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p} (f_k - \bar{f})(x_k - \bar{x})}{\frac{1}{p} \sum_{k=1}^{p} (x_k - \bar{x})^2}$$

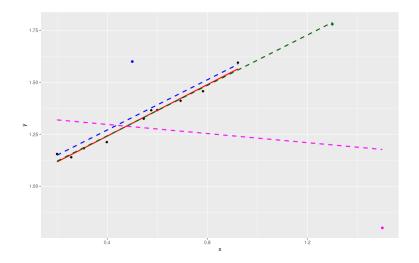
i.e.  $w_1 = cov(f, x) / var(x)$ 









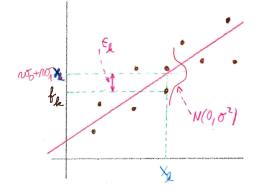


## Maximum Likelihood vs Least Squares (Dim 1)

Fix a training set  $D = \{(x_1, f_1), (x_2, f_2), \dots, (x_p, f_p)\}$ Assume that each  $f_k$  has been generated randomly by

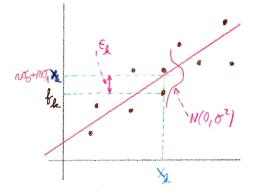
 $f_k = (\mathbf{w}_0 + \mathbf{w}_1 \cdot \mathbf{x}_k) + \epsilon_k$ 

where  $w_0, w_1$  are **unknown weights**, and  $\epsilon_k$  are independent, normally distributed noise values with mean 0 and some variance  $\sigma^2$ 



How "probable" is it to generate the correct  $f_1, \ldots, f_p$ ?

## Maximum Likelihood vs Least Squares (Dim 1)



How "probable" is it to generate the correct  $f_1, \ldots, f_p$  ?

The following conditions are equivalent:

- $\blacktriangleright$  w<sub>0</sub>, w<sub>1</sub> minimize the squared error E
- ▶  $w_0, w_1$  maximize the likelihood (i.e., the "probability") of generating the correct values  $f_1, \ldots, f_p$  using  $f_k = (w_0 + w_1 \cdot x_k) + \epsilon_k$

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- Linear models are less likely to overfit (low variance) the training data but sometimes tend to underfit (high bias).

- Linear models are parametric, i.e., they have a fixed form with a small number of parameters that need to be learned from data (as opposed, e.g., to decision trees where the structure is not fixed in advance).
- Linear models are stable, i.e., small variations in the training data have only limited impact on the learned model. (tree models typically vary more with the training data).
- Linear models are less likely to overfit (low variance) the training data but sometimes tend to underfit (high bias).
- Linear models are prone to outliers.