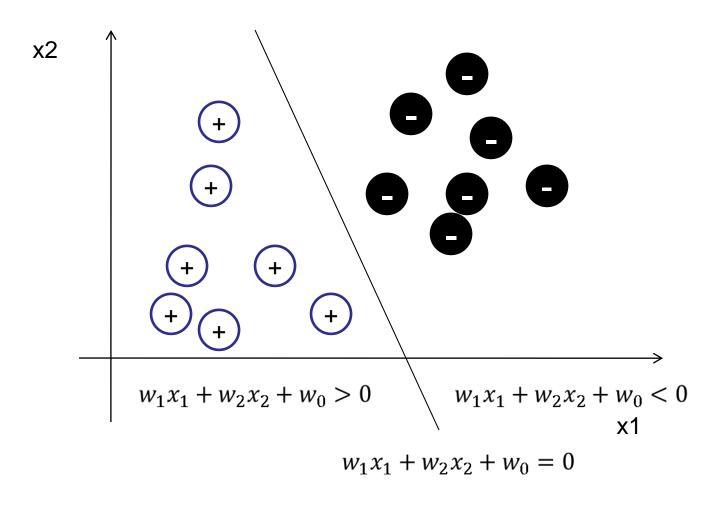
# Linear classification models: Perceptron

#### **Basic concepts:**

The Perceptron algorithm
Perceptron loss/ hinge loss
Subgradient descent
Convergence proof of Perceptron
Concept of Margin
Voted and average Perceptrons

## Linear Classifier



- We have discussed Logistic Regression
- LR learns  $p(y|\mathbf{x})$ :

$$P(y = 1|\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x})}$$

which yields a linear decision boundary  $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = 0$ 

- We will now look at a different paradigm for learning a linear decision boundary directly
  - Without a probabilistic model
  - Based on a loss function

## Binary classification: General Setup

- Given a set of training examples  $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), \dots, (\mathbf{x}_n, y_n)$ , where each  $\mathbf{x}_i \in R^d$ ,  $y_i \in \{-1,1\}$
- Learn a linear function

$$g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) = w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \dots + w_d x_d$$

Given an example  $\mathbf{x} = [x_1, ..., x_d]^T$ :

- predict  $y(\mathbf{x}) = 1$  if  $g(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}) \ge 0$
- predict  $y(\mathbf{x}) = -1$  otherwise
- Compactly the classifier can be represented as:
  - $y(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}(w_0 + w_1 x_1 + \dots + w_d x_d) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x})$ where  $\mathbf{w} = [w_0, w_1, \dots, w_d]^T$ , and  $\mathbf{x} = [1, x_1, \dots, x_d]^T$
- Goal: find a good w that minimizes some loss function  $J(\mathbf{w})$

### Loss function

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=1}^{n} L(g(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}_m), y_m)$$

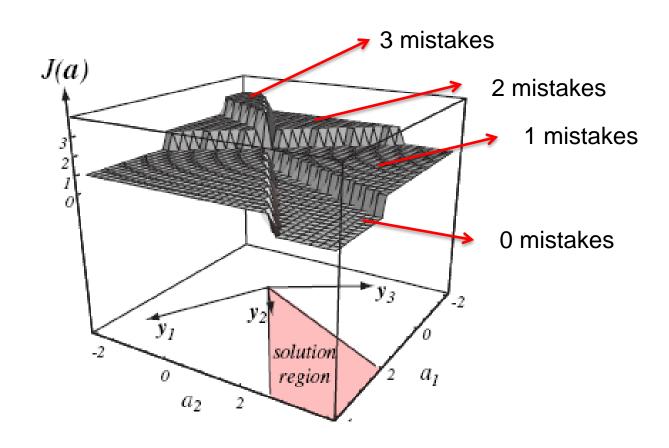
Where  $L(g(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}), y)$  is the loss of  $g(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x})$  given its true label is y

0/1-loss:

$$L_{0/1}(g(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}), y) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } g(w, x) \text{ predicts wrong} \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

This loss is conceptually aligned with our goal of maximizing accuracy, and minimizing error.

### 0/1 Loss counts the # of mistakes



#### Issue:

- Non convex in general can be NP-hard to optimize
- Non-smooth does not produce useful gradient since the surface of  $J_{0/1}$  is **piece-wise flat**

## **Perceptron Loss**

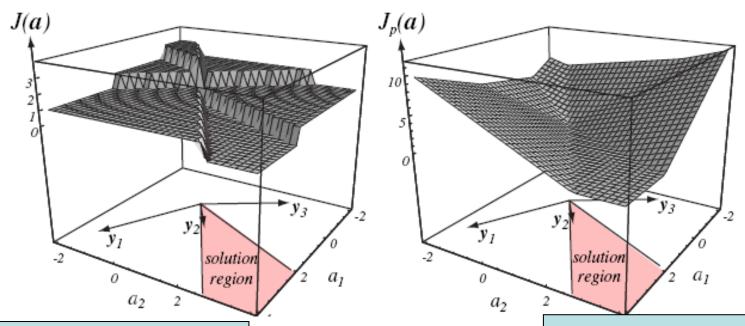
$$L_p(g(\mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}), y) = \max(0, -y\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x})$$

- If prediction is correct,  $-y\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} < 0$ ,  $L_p = \max(0, -y\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}) = 0$
- If prediction is incorrect,  $-y\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} > 0$ ,  $L_p = \max(0, -y\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}) = -y\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x} > 0$
- Loss is a linear function of the weights

## **Perceptron Loss**

$$J_p(w) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=1}^n \max(0, -y_m \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_m)$$

- $J_p$  is still non-smooth but piecewise linear
- Imagine if we drop a ball on this surface, it will with subgradient has a nice gradient leading to the solution region



0/1 loss: piecewise

constant

Perceptron criterion: piecewise linear

#### **Stochastic Gradient Descent**

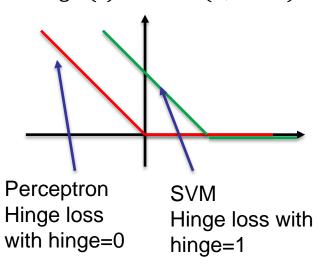
• The objective function consists of a sum over data points--- **Stochastic Gradient Descent** updates the parameter after observing each example hinge(t) = max(0, h - t)

$$J(\mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{m=1}^{n} \max(0, -y_m \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_m)$$

$$J_m(\mathbf{w}) = \max(0, -y_m \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_m)$$

Subgradient:

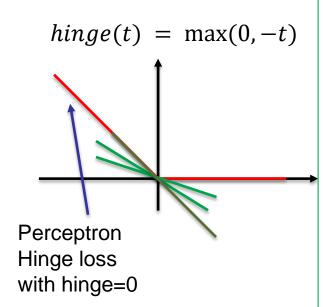
$$\nabla J_m = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y_m \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_m > 0 \\ -y_m \mathbf{x}_m & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



#### **Perceptron Update Rule**

After observing  $(\mathbf{x}_m, y_m)$ , if it is a mistake  $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + y_m \mathbf{x}_m$ 

## Subgradient (subderivative)



Generalization of gradient to non-differentiable functions:

- Gradient of a function f can be viewed as defining a tangent line that touches f and lies below f
- Subgraident can be viewed as the set of lines that touches f and lies below f
  - At a differentiable point of the function it will be unique and the same as gradient
  - At non-smooth point, this will be a real set just pick one to work with
- Subgradient descent behaves similarly to gradient descent in terms of convergence

#### **Stochastic Gradient Descent**

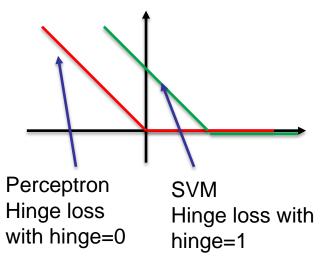
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$$J_m(\mathbf{w}) = \max(0, -y_m \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_m)$$

hinge(t) is not smooth, we compute its subgradient

$$\nabla J_m = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } y_m \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_m > 0 \\ -y_m \mathbf{x}_m & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



#### **Perceptron Update Rule**

After observing  $(\mathbf{x}_m, y_m)$ , if it is a mistake  $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + y_m \mathbf{x}_m$ 

# The Perceptron Algorithm (online) (Stochastic gradient descent)

Let 
$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow (0,0,0,...,0)$$
  
Repeat until convergence  
for every training example  $m = 1,...,n$ :  
 $u_m \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_m$   
if  $y_m \cdot u_m \leq 0$   $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + y_m \mathbf{x}_m$ 

#### **Online**

 Look at one example at a time, update the model as soon as we make an error – as opposed to batch algorithms that update parameters after seeing the entire training set.

#### **Error-driven**

We only update parameters/model if we make an error

# Effect of the perceptron update

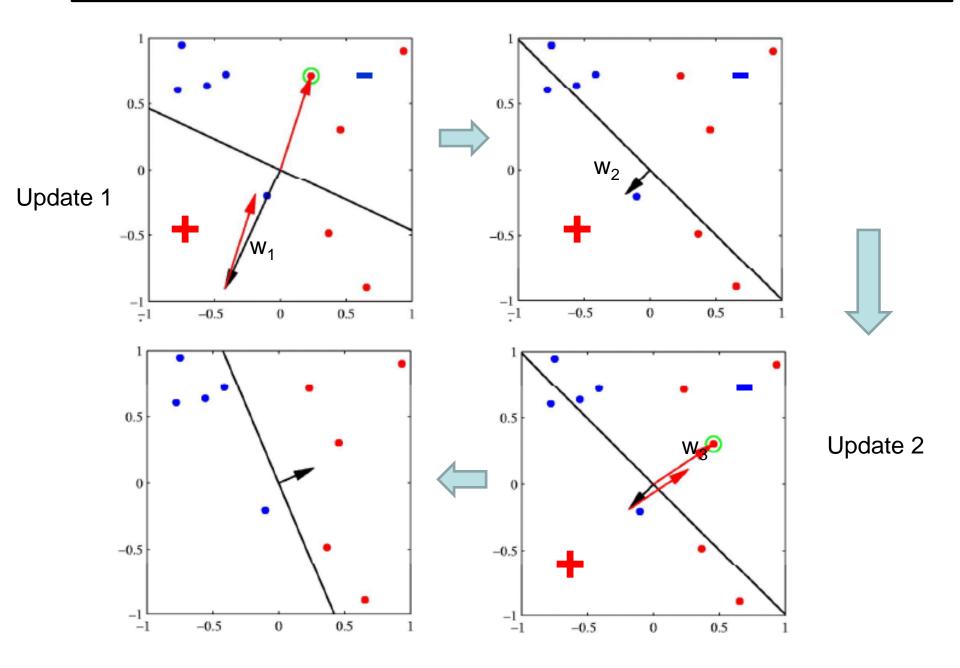
- Our current weight is  $w_t$  and it makes a mistaken on  $(x_i, y_i)$ , i.e.,  $y_i w_t^T x_i \le 0$
- Perform update

$$w_{t+1} = w_t + y_i x_i$$

• What can we say about  $w_{t+1}$ 's performance on  $(x_i, y_i)$ ?

See concept warehouse

When an error is made, moves the weight in a direction that corrects the error



## **Convergence Theorem**

(Block, 1962, Novikoff, 1962)

Given training example sequence  $(\mathbf{x}_1, y_1), (\mathbf{x}_2, y_2), ... (\mathbf{x}_N, y_N)$ . If  $\forall i, |\mathbf{x}_i| \leq D$ , and  $\exists \mathbf{u}, |\mathbf{u}| = 1$  and  $y_i \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}_i \geq \gamma > 0$  for all i, then the number of mistakes that the perceptron algorithm makes is at most  $(D/\gamma)^2$ .

Note that | · | denotes the Euclidean norm of a vector.

### **Proof**

Let **u** be a unit vector that achieves  $\gamma$  margin, i.e.,  $|\mathbf{u}| = 1$  and  $\forall i, y_i \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}_i \ge \gamma$ Let  $\mathbf{x}_k$  be the kth mistake, we have  $\mathbf{w}(k) = \mathbf{w}(k-1) + y_k \mathbf{x}_k$ 

**Main idea**: we want to show that the direction of  $\mathbf{w}_k$  converges to  $\mathbf{u}$ ,

- i.e.,  $\frac{\mathbf{u}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{w}_{k}}{|\mathbf{u}||\mathbf{w}_{k}|}$  converges to 1. To show this, we work out two parts:
- 1.  $\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{w}_k$  grows bigger as k increases
- 2.  $|\mathbf{w}_k|$  does not grow as fast

#### Part 1:

$$\mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{w}_k = \mathbf{u}^T (\mathbf{w}_{k-1} + y_k \mathbf{x}_k) = \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{w}_{k-1} + y_k \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{x}_k \ge \mathbf{u}^T \mathbf{w}_{k-1} + \gamma \ge k\gamma$$

#### Part 2:

$$\mathbf{w}_{k}^{T}\mathbf{w}_{k} = (\mathbf{w}_{k-1} + y_{k}\mathbf{x}_{k})^{T}(\mathbf{w}_{k-1} + y_{k}\mathbf{x}_{k})$$

$$= \mathbf{w}_{k-1}^{T}\mathbf{w}_{k-1} + 2y_{k}\mathbf{w}_{k-1}^{T}\mathbf{x}_{k} + \mathbf{x}_{k}^{T}\mathbf{x}_{k} \le \mathbf{w}_{k-1}^{T}\mathbf{w}_{k-1} + D^{2} \le kD^{2}$$

**Putting it together**:  $\frac{\mathbf{u}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{w}_{k}}{|\mathbf{u}||\mathbf{w}_{k}|} \geq \frac{k\gamma}{\sqrt{k}D}$ , but this cannot exceed 1. so we mus

have 
$$\frac{k\gamma}{\sqrt{k}D} \le 1 \Rightarrow$$
  $k \le \left(\frac{D}{\gamma}\right)^2$ 

# Margin

- $\gamma$  is referred to as the **margin** 
  - Min distance from data points to the decision boundary
  - Bigger margin -> easier classification problems
- This concept will be utilized later by support vector machines

# Implications of the convergence theorem

See concept warehouse

# Practical considerations for online perceptron

- The order of training examples matters!
  - Random is better
- Given large amounts of training data, early stopping can be used to avoid overfitting
- Simple modification can significantly improve performance
  - Voted perceptron and average perceptron

# **Voted Perceptron**

 Keep intermediate hypotheses and have them vote [Freund and Schapire 1998]

Let 
$$\mathbf{w} \leftarrow (0,0,0,...,0)$$
 $c_0 = 0, n = 0$ 
Repeat for T times

for each training example  $i$ :
$$u_i \leftarrow \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$\text{if } y_i u_i \leq 0$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{n+1} \leftarrow \mathbf{w}_n + y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$n = n+1$$

$$c_n = 0$$
else  $c_n = c_n + 1$ 

The output will be a collection of linear separators  $\mathbf{w}_0 \mathbf{w}_1, ..., \mathbf{w}_M$  along with their survival time  $c_0, c_1, ..., c_M$ 

The c's can be viewed as measures of the reliability of the  $\mathbf{w}$ 's

For classification, take a weighted vote among all separators:

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \operatorname{sign}\{\sum_{n=0}^{N} c_n \operatorname{sign}(\mathbf{w}_n^T \mathbf{x})\}$$

# **Average Perceptron**

- Voted perceptron requires storing all intermittent weights
  - Large memory consumption
  - Slow prediction time
- Average perceptron

$$\hat{\mathbf{y}} = \operatorname{sign}\{(\sum_{n=0}^{N} c_n \mathbf{w}_n^T) \mathbf{x}\}\$$

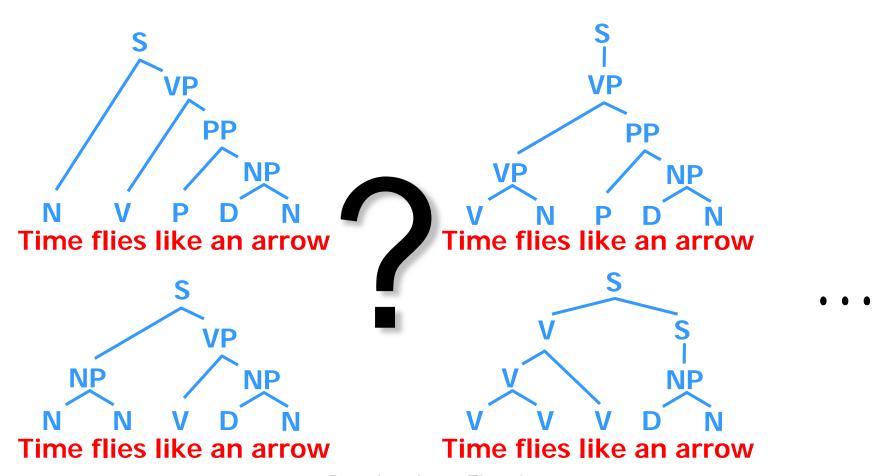
- Take the weighted average of all the intermittent weights
- Can be implemented by maintaining an running average, no need to store all weights
- Fast prediction time

### **Final Discussion on Perceptron**

- Learns  $\hat{y} = f(\mathbf{x})$  directly a **discriminative** method
- Performs stochastic (sub-)gradient descent to optimize the perceptron loss (also called hinge loss with hinge=0, will see more hinge loss later in SVM)
- Guaranteed to converge in finite steps if the data is linearly separable
  - # of updates is inversely proportional to the margin of the optimal decision boundary
  - Guarantees convergence but not necessarily to the maximum margin separator – again we will address this later in SVM
- Voted and average perceptrons provide significant performance improvement in practice

# Beyond the Basic Perceptron

# Structured Prediction with Perceptrons



# A general problem

- Given some input x
  - An email, a sentence ...
- Consider a set of candidate outputs y
  - Classifications for x (small number: often just 2)
  - Taggings of x
  - Parses of x
  - Translations of x

**—** ...

```
(exponentially many)
(exponentially many)
(exponentially many)
```

Structured prediction

Want to find the "best" y, given x

# Scoring by Linear Models

- Given some input x
- Consider a set of candidate outputs y
- Define a scoring function score(x,y)

Linear function: A sum of feature weights (you pick the features!)

Weight of feature k (learned or set by hand)

$$score(x,y) = \sum_{k} \theta_k f_k(x,y)$$

Ranges over all features, k e.g., k=5 (numbered features) or k="see Det Noun" (named features) Whether (x,y) has feature k(0 or 1)Or how many times it fires  $(\ge 0)$ Or how strongly it fires (real #)

Choose y that maximizes score(x,y)

# Scoring by Linear Models

- Given some input x
- Consider a set of candidate outputs y
- Define a scoring function score(x,y)

Linear function: A sum of feature weights (you pick the features!)

(learned or set by hand)

$$score(x,y) = \vec{\theta} \cdot \vec{f}(x,y)$$

This linear decision rule is sometimes called a "perceptron." It's a "structured perceptron" if it does structured prediction (number of y candidates is unbounded, e.g., grows with |x|).

Choose y that maximizes score(x,y)

### Perceptron Training Algorithm

- initialize  $\theta$  (usually to the zero vector)
- repeat:
  - Pick a training example (x,y)
  - Model predicts y\* that maximizes score(x,y\*)
  - Update weights by a step of size  $\varepsilon > 0$ :

```
\theta = \theta + \epsilon \cdot (f(x,y) - f(x,y^*))
```

```
If model prediction was wrong (y \neq y^*), then we must have
   score(x,y) \le score(x,y^*) instead of > as we want.
Equivalently, \theta \cdot f(x,y) \leq \theta \cdot f(x,y^*)
Equivalently, \Theta \cdot (f(x,y) - f(x,y^*)) \le 0 but we want it positive.
Our update increases it (by \varepsilon \cdot || f(x,y) - f(x,y^*) ||^2 \ge 0)
```

## Perceptron for Structured Prediction

- What we see here is the same as the regular perceptron
- Similar convergence guarantee
- The challenge is the inference part
  - Finding the y that maximizes the score for given x
  - Cannot resort to brute-force enumeration
  - Much research goes into
    - How to devise proper features and efficient algorithms for inference
    - How to perform approximate inference
    - How to learn when inference is approximate