Linear Predictors

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9 Linear Predictors

This chapter is focused on learning linear predictors using the ERM approach; however, in later chapters we will see alternative paradigms for learning these hypothesis classes.

The class of affine fuctions:

$$L_d = \{ h_{\vec{w},b} = \langle \vec{w}, \vec{x} \rangle + b : \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R} \}.$$

Rewrite into homogeneous linear function. Let $\vec{w}' = (b, w_1, \dots, w_d) \in$ $\mathbb{R}^{d+1}, \vec{x}' = (1, x_1, \dots, x_d) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+1}$. Therefore,

$$h_{\vec{w},b}(\vec{x}) = \langle \vec{w}, \vec{x} \rangle + b = \langle \vec{w}', \vec{x}' \rangle.$$

9.1**HALFSPACES**

The class of Halfspaces is:

$$HS_d = sign \circ L_d = \{\vec{x} \mapsto sign(h_{\vec{w},b}(\vec{x}) : h_{\vec{w},b} \in L_d\}.$$

The $VCdim(HS_d) = d+1$, and the sample size is $\Omega\left(\frac{d+\log(1/\delta)}{\epsilon}\right)$.

In the cotext of halfspaces, the realizable case is often referred to as the "separable" case.

Implementing the ERM rule in the nonseparable case is known to be computationally hard. (Ben-David and Simon, 2001).

The most popular approach of learning nonseparable data is use surrogate loss fucntions (ch12), namely, to learn a halfspace that does not necessarily minimize the empirical risk with the 0-1 loss, but rather with respect to a different loss function.

9.1.1 Linear Programming for the Class of Halfspaces

Linear programs:

$$\max_{\vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \langle \vec{u}, \vec{w} \rangle, \quad s.t. \ \vec{Aw} \ge \vec{v}.$$

Change the ERM problem for halfspaces in the realizable case can be expressed as a LP:

$$\max_{\vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d} \langle \vec{u}, \vec{w} \rangle, \quad s.t. \quad \vec{u} = \vec{0}, \quad A\vec{w} \ge \vec{v}, \{A_{i,j}\} = y_i x_{i,j}, \quad \vec{v} = (1, \dots, 1) \in \mathcal{R}^m$$

$$(9.1)$$

9.1.2 Perception for Halfspaces

$$y_i \langle \vec{w}^{(t+1)}, x_i \rangle = y_i \langle \vec{w}^{(t)} + y_i \vec{x_i}, \vec{x_i} \rangle = y_i \langle \vec{w}^{(t)}, \vec{x_i} \rangle + ||\vec{x_i}||^2.$$

Because $\|\vec{x}_i\| \ge 0$, so the Perception guides the solution to be "more correct" on i'th example. "More correct" doesn't mean make i'th example exactly correct.

Algorithm 1 Batch Perception

```
Require: A training set (\vec{x_1}, y_1), \dots, (\vec{x_m}, y_m)

Ensure: \vec{w}^{(1)} = (0, \dots, 0)

for t=1,2,\dots do

if (\exists i \text{ s.t. } y_i \langle \vec{w}^{(1)}, \vec{x_i} \rangle \leq 0) then

\vec{w}^{(t+1)} = \vec{w}^{(t)} + y_i \vec{x_i}

else

return \vec{w}^{(t)}

end if

end for
```

Theorem 9.1. Assume that $(\vec{x_1}, y_1), \ldots, (\vec{x_m}, y_m)$ is saperable, let $B = \min\{\|\vec{w}\| : \forall i \in [m], y_i \langle \vec{w}, \vec{x_i} \rangle \geq 1\}$, and let $R = \max_i \|\vec{x_i}\|$. Then, the Perception algorithm stops after at most $(RB)^2$ iterations.

Proof. let $\vec{w}^* = \arg\min_{\vec{w}} \{ \|\vec{w}\| : \forall i \in [m], y_i \langle \vec{w}, \vec{x_i} \rangle \geq 1 \}$. Our mean goal is to proof:

$$\frac{\sqrt{T}}{RB} \le \frac{\langle \vec{w}^*, \vec{w}^{(T+1)} \rangle}{\|\vec{w}^*\| \|\vec{w}^{(T+1)}\|} \le 1 \tag{9.2}$$

$$\vec{w}^{(1)} = (0, \dots, 0) \Rightarrow \langle \vec{w}^*, \vec{w}^{(1)} \rangle = 0.$$

$$\langle \vec{w}^*, \vec{w}^{(t+1)} \rangle - \langle \vec{w}^*, \vec{w}^{(t)} \rangle = \langle \vec{w}^*, y_i \vec{x_i} \rangle \ge 1 \Rightarrow \langle \vec{w}^*, \vec{w}^{(T+1)} \rangle \ge T \tag{9.3}$$

$$\|\vec{w}^{(t+1)}\|^2 = \|\vec{w}^{(t)} + y_i \vec{x_i}\|^2 \le \|\vec{w}^{(t)}\|^2 + R^2 \tag{9.4}$$

$$\|\vec{w}^{(T+1)}\|^2 \le TR^2 \tag{9.5}$$

9.1.3 The VC Dimension of Halfspaces

Theorem 9.2. The VC dimension of the class of homogenous halfspaces in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} is d+1.

Proof. First, consider the set of vectors $\vec{e_1}, \ldots, \vec{e_{d+1}} \in \mathbb{R}_{d+1}$, then, $\forall \{y_1, \ldots, y_{d+1}\}$, set $\vec{w} = (y_1, \ldots, y_{d+1})$, we get $\forall i, \langle \vec{w}, \vec{e_i} \rangle = y_i$. So $VCdim(HS_d) \geq d+1$. Second, suppose that $\exists X = (\vec{x_1}, \ldots, \vec{x_{d+2}})$ are shattered by HS_d . We can get none zero vector $\vec{a} = (a_1, \ldots, a_{d+2})$ s.t. $a^TX = \vec{0}$. Let $I = \{i : a_i > 0\}$ and $J = \{j : a_j < 0\}$, then $\sum_{i \in I} a_i \vec{x_i} = -\sum_{j \in J} a_j \vec{x_j}$. Because X is shattered by HS_d , so $\exists \vec{w}$ such that $\forall i \in I, \langle \vec{w}, \vec{x_i} \rangle > 0$ and $\forall j \in J, \langle \vec{w}, \vec{x_j} \rangle < 0$. It follows that

$$0 < \sum_{i \in I} a_i \langle \vec{x_i}, \vec{w} \rangle = -\sum_{j \in J} a_j \langle \vec{x_j}, \vec{w} \rangle < 0.$$

which leads to a contradiction.

Theorem 9.3. The VC dimension of the class of nonhomogeneous halfspaces in \mathbb{R}^d is d+1.

Proof. First, the set of vectors $\vec{0}, \vec{e_1}, \dots, \vec{e_d}$ is shattered by the class of nonhomogeneous halfspaces.

Second, if $\exists \vec{x_1}, \dots, \vec{x_{d+2}}$ are shattered by the class of nonhomogeneous halfspaces, it will contradict former theorem.

9.2 LINEAR REGRESSION

The hypothesis class of linear regression predictors is simply the set of linear function

$$\mathcal{H}_{reg} = L_d = \{ \vec{x} \mapsto \langle \vec{w}, \vec{x} \rangle + b : \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d, b \in \mathbb{R} \}.$$

Squared-loss function

$$l_{sq}(h,(\vec{x},y)) = (h(\vec{x}) - y)^2.$$

Mean Squared Error

$$L_S(h) = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^{m} (h(\vec{x_i}) - y_i)^2.$$

 $Absolute\ value\ loss\ function$

$$l(h, (\vec{x}, y) = |h(\vec{x}) - y|.$$

Note that since linear regression is not a binary prediciton task, we cannot analyse its sample complexity using the VC-dimension. One possible analysis of the sample complexity of linear regression is by relying on the "discretization trick" (namely, use 64 bits floating point representation to represent \vec{w} , b.) But we also need that the loss function will be bounded.

The rigorous means to analyze the sample complexity of regression problems is coming later.

9.2.1 Least Squares

Let $\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^T$ and $\vec{b} = \mathbf{X}\vec{y}$.

If A is invertible then the solution to the ERM algorithm is

$$\vec{w} = \mathbf{A}^{-1}\vec{b}.$$

Otherwise,

$$\hat{\vec{w}} = \mathbf{A}^+ \vec{b}.$$

9.2.2 Linear Regression for Polynomial Regression Tasks

$$p(x) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + \dots + a_n x^n.$$

$$\mathcal{H}_{poly}^n = \{x \mapsto p(x)\}.$$

Let $\Psi(x) = (1, x, x^2, \dots, x^n)$

$$p(x) = \langle \vec{a}, \Psi(x) \rangle.$$

9.3 LOGISTIC REGRESSION

 $logistic\ function:$

$$\Phi_{sig}(z) = \frac{1}{1 + exp(-z)} \tag{9.6}$$

Sigmoid hypothesis class

$$\mathcal{H}_{sig} = \phi_{sig} \circ L_d = \{ \vec{x} \mapsto \phi_{sig}(\langle \vec{w}, \vec{x} \rangle) : \vec{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d \}.$$

Sigmoid loss function:

$$l_{sig}(h_{\vec{w}},(\vec{x},y)) = \log(1 + exp(-y\langle \vec{w}, \vec{x}\rangle)).$$

The ERM problem associated with logistic regression is

$$\underset{\vec{w} \in \mathcal{R}^d}{\arg\min} \frac{1}{m} \sum_{i=1}^m \log(1 + exp(-y_i \langle \vec{w}, \vec{x_i} \rangle))$$
(9.7)

which is identical to the problem of finding a Maximum Likelihood Estimator.