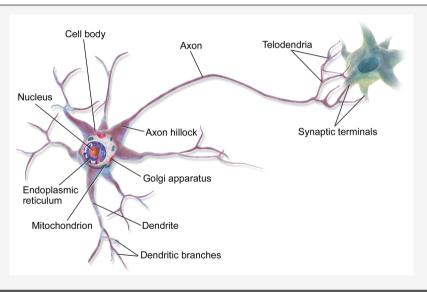
# Supervised learning

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#### Not about



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#### Section 1

Background

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# Supervised learning

We are given a training set of N examples input-output pairs

$$(x_1,y_1),(x_2,y_2),\ldots,(x_N,y_N)$$

where each pair was generated by an unknown function f:

$$y = f(x)$$

**Objective:** discover a function h, the **hypothesis** that approximates the true function f.

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# Running example

Let say that I want to sell my apartment in the center of Toulouse.

My apartment<sup>1</sup> has:

- 165  $m^2$
- 4 rooms
- on the 6th floor

Question: what is the market price for such an apartment?

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>completly fictional. I am just an associate professor

#### Dataset

I look at several apartments on sell in the neighborhood and come up with the following dataset:2

	X	Y	
$m^2$	Num Rooms	Floor	Price (€)
24	1	4	102 000
46	3	2	140 000
50	3	6	353 600
211	5	3	892 000
74	3	1	198 000

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Source: leboncoin.fr

# Vocabulary

Each example i has 3 **features**  $(m^2, \#rooms, floor)$ 

$$x_i = [x_{i,1}, x_{i_2}, x_{i,3}]$$

and associated ground truth  $y_i$ .

The unknown function f associates each example with its ground truth:

$$f(x_i) = y_i$$

For instance: f([24,1,4]) = 102k $\in$ 

I want to know the market price for my apartment: f([165, 4, 6]) = ??

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# Hypothesis space

I want to **learn** a function h that closely approximates f.

i.e. 
$$h(x) \approx f(x), \forall x$$
 (more complex in practice)

Among the set of all possible functions  $\mathcal{H}$ , I want to choose the one that has the least different behavior from f:

$$h^* = \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \ \operatorname{diff}(h, f)$$

 $\mathcal{H}$ , the set of all possible functions, is called the **hypothesis space**.

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### What's a suitable hypothesis space?

The set of possible python functions:

```
def h(sqm, nroom, floor):
price = 4000 * sqm + 10000 * nrooms
if floor == 1:
    price -= 30000
return price
```

The set of linear functions:

```
h(sqm, nrooms, floor) = 4000 * sqm + 10000 * nrooms + 10000 * floor
```

... or the set of possible decision trees.

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## What's a suitable hypothesis space?

#### Each hypothesis space has its own characteristics:

- **bias:** tendency to underfit the data.
  - linear function strongly limit the possible hypotheses which could result in a failure to fit the data
- **variance**: tendency to overfit the data
  - python is turing complete and could be made to produce exactly the ground truth for each example

#### Rule of thumb

- simple model:
  - high-bias, low variance / poor-fit but generalizes well
- complex model:
  - low-bias, high variance / great fit but generalizes poorly
- (Deep) neural network: complex model that (sometimes) generalizes well

# What's a good hypothesis in $\mathcal{H}$ ?

Given a prediction

$$\hat{y} = h(x)$$

The **loss function** measures how bad it is to have the prediction  $\hat{y}$  instead of the true value y for the example x.

$$L(x, y, \hat{y})$$

It is often stated independently of x:  $L(y, \hat{y})$ 

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#### Some common loss functions

Absolute-value loss	$L_1(y, \hat{y}) =  y - \hat{y} $
Squared-error loss	$L_2(y, \hat{y}) = (y - \hat{y})^2$
0/1 loss	$L_{0/1}(y,\hat{y})=0$ if $y=\hat{y}$ , else $1$

Note that for any (well-formed) loss function:

$$L(y,y) = 0$$

i.e., nothing is lost if the prediction is perfect.

### Evaluating a hypothesis: the perfect measure

An agent should choose the hypothesis that minimizes the expected loss over all input-output pairs it **will** see.

Let  $\mathcal E$  be the set of all possible examples and P(X,Y) be a probability distribution over examples.

We can define the **generalization loss** for a hypothesis h and a loss function L:

$$GenLoss_L(h) = \sum_{(x,y)\in\mathcal{E}} L(y,h(x)) \times P(x,y)$$

The best hypothesis is the one with the minimum expected generalization loss:

$$h^* = \arg\min_{h \in \mathcal{H}} GenLoss_l(h)$$

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### Evaluating a hypothesis: the empirical measure

Problem: P(X,Y) is usually unknown. Instead we only have a set of examples E.

The **empirical loss** is an estimate of the generalization loss on a set of examples E:

$$EmpLoss_{L,E}(h) = \sum_{(x,y)\in E} L(y,h(x)) \times \frac{1}{|E|}$$

The estimated best hypothesis  $\hat{h}^*$  is the one with the minimum empirical loss:

$$\hat{h}^* = \underset{h \in \mathcal{H}}{\arg\min} \, EmpLoss_{L,E}(h)$$

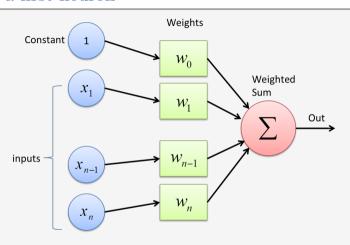
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#### Section 2

The perceptron (regression)

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#### Where we see a first neuron



$$h_w(x) = w_0 + w_1 \times x_1 + w_2 \times x_2 + \dots + w_n \times x_n$$

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The elements of the  $\mathbf{w}$  vector are called the weights of the perceptron.

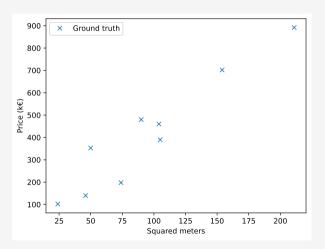
Given an input vector x, the output of the perceptron is a linear combination of its input.

$$h_w(x) = w_0 + w_1 \times x_1 + w_2 \times x_2 + \dots + w_n \times x_n$$

The set of functions representable by a perceptron is the set of linear functions. That's our hypothesis space  $\mathcal{H}_{perc}$ .

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Х	Υ	
$m^2$	Price (€)	
24	102 000	
46	140 000	
50	353 600	
211	892 000	
74	198 000	



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# Perceptron for predicting the price

We have a single feature ( $x_1$ : squared meters), thus a function representable by a perceptron would have the form:

$$h_w(sqm) = w_0 + w_1 \times x_1$$

where we can interpret:

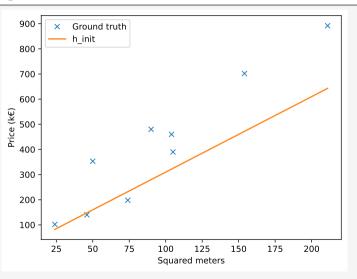
- $w_0$  as the base price
- lacksquare  $w_1$  as the price per squared meters

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# Perceptron for predicting the price

Making an educated guess we could set:

$$w_0 = 10000 \ ( )$$
  
 $w_1 = 3000 \ ( )/m^2 )$ 



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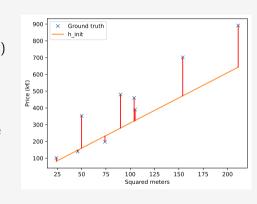
#### Perceptron: prediction error

For an example (x,y) and predictor  $h_w$ 

prediction error 
$$=|y-h_w(x)|$$
 (length of red segments)  $L_2$  loss:  $L_2(y,\hat{y})=(y-h_w(x))^2$  (squared error)

This leads to the empirical loss (for  $L_2$ ) over the entire dataset E:

$$EmpLoss_{L_2,E}(h_w) = \sum_{(x,y)\in E} \frac{(y - h_w(x))^2}{|E|}$$



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I want the hypothesis  $\hat{h}^*$ , with the minimum empirical loss:

$$\hat{h}^* = \underset{h_w \in \mathcal{H}_{perc}}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} EmpLoss_{L_2, E}(h_w)$$

For the perceptron, this means finding the best weights  $\hat{w}^*$  in the weight space.

$$\hat{w}^* = \underset{w}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \, EmpLoss_{L_2,E}(h_w)$$

Posing  $Loss(w) = EmpLoss_{L_2,E}(h_w)$ , we obtain:

$$\hat{w}^* = \operatorname*{arg\,min}_{w} Loss(w)$$

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## Gradient: direction of steepest ascent

In any point w of the function, the gradient defines the direction of steepest ascent:

$$\vec{\nabla}g(w)$$

It can be computed from the partial derivatives:

$$\vec{\nabla}g(w) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{\delta}{\delta w_0} g(w) \\ \frac{\delta}{\delta w_1} g(w) \\ \vdots \\ \frac{\delta}{\delta w_m} g(w) \end{bmatrix}$$

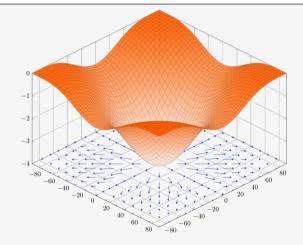


Figure: Gradient of  $f(x, y) = -(\cos^2(x) + \cos^2(y))^2$ 

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#### Gradient descent

From a point w, compute a new candidate w' by following the direction of steepest descent (opposite of the gradient).

$$w' = w - \alpha \times \vec{\nabla}g(w)$$

The distance traveled is parameterized by the step size  $\alpha$ .

Since the function is decreasing in this direction, there is a good chance that

$$g(w') < g(w)$$

CM5: Perceptron 24 / 47 Applying this repeatedly, we get the gradient descent algorithm:<sup>3</sup>

 $w \leftarrow$  any value in the parameter space while not converged do  $w \leftarrow w - \alpha \times \nabla Loss(w)$ end while

Typical convergence criteria: stop when the update did not provide an improvement for the last k iterations (e.g. k=5).

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<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Recal that Loss(w) is shortcut for  $EmpLoss_{L,E}(h_w)$ 

## Computing the gradient ( $L_2$ loss, single example)

Partial derivative of the  $L_2$  loss for a single example (x, y):

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta w_i} Loss(w) = \frac{\delta}{\delta w_i} (y - h_w(x))^2$$
$$= 2(y - h_w(x)) \times \frac{\delta}{\delta w_i} (y - h_w(x))$$

Applied to our system with a single feature  $(x_1)$  we obtain:

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta w_0} Loss(w) = -2(y - h_w(x))$$
$$\frac{\delta}{\delta w_1} Loss(w) = -2(y - h_w(x)) \times x_1$$

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#### Update rules

Updating the weights based on a single example:<sup>4</sup>

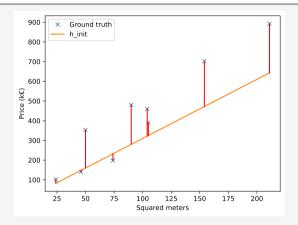
$$w_0 \leftarrow w_0 + \alpha \times (y - h_w(x))$$
  
$$w_1 \leftarrow w_1 + \alpha \times (y - h_w(x)) \times x_1$$

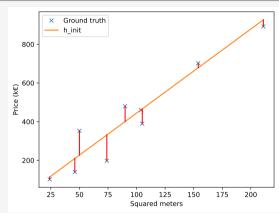
Updating the weights based on the entire training set E:

$$w_0 \leftarrow w_0 + \alpha \times \sum_{(x,y) \in E} (y - h_w(x))$$
$$w_1 \leftarrow w_1 + \alpha \times \sum_{(x,y) \in E} (y - h_w(x)) \times x_1$$

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 $<sup>^4</sup>$ Note that the -2 factor from the previous equation is included in  $\alpha$  term.





$$w = [10, 000, 3, 000]$$

$$^{5}$$
With  $alpha = 10^{-5}$ 

$$w' = [10010.53, 4343.82]$$

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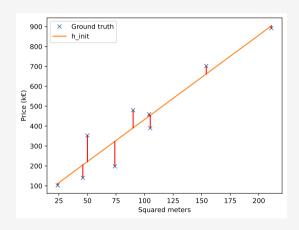
# Result of the gradient descent

Repeating the gradient descent step, we eventually converge to our best solution.

$$\hat{w}^* = [9947.29, 4235.02]$$

I should sell my apartment for:

$$9947.29 + 4235.02 \times 165 = 708725 \in$$



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## Gradient descent (applied to a perceptron with $L_2$ loss)

```
w \leftarrow any value in the parameter space while not converged do w_0 \leftarrow w_0 + \alpha \times \sum_{(x,y) \in E} (y - h_w(x)) for i \in 1 \dots n do w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \times \sum_{(x,y) \in E} (y - h_w(x)) \times x_i end for end while
```

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# Representation trick

In the previous slides, we always had to deal with the  $w_0$  weight specially because it has no corresponding feature.

We can define an artificial feature  $x_0$  that always has the value 1. And reformulate  $h_m$ :

$$h_w(x) = \sum_{i \in [0,m]} w_i \times x_i$$
 
$$h_w(x) = w \cdot x \quad \text{(dot product)}$$

and the update rule (for  $L_2$  loss):

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \times \sum_{(x,y) \in E} (y - h_w(x)) \times x_i$$

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#### Section 3

A perceptron for classification

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## A classification problem

I now want to buy a new apartment to replace the one I just sold. To be reactive I built an automated system that sends me any new announce of an apartment for sale.

- Problem: there are dozens of announces every day and I don't have time to look at them all.
- Solution: build an AI system that will predict whether I will be interested in a particular apartment based on a few of its features. If it predicts that I am not interested, it will discard the announce.

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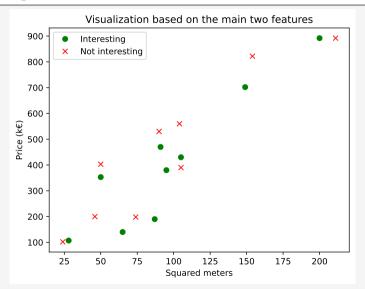
#### A classification problem: dataset

So far, I collect the following information stating whether an announce that I previously saw was interesting.

	Y			
$m^2$	Num Rooms	Floor	Price (€)	Interesting
24	1	4	102 000	true
46	3	2	140 000	false
50	3	6	353 600	false
211	5	3	892 000	true
74	3	1	198 000	true

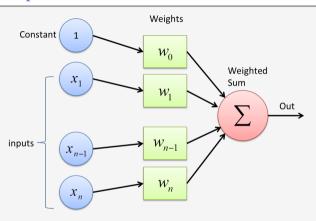
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# A classification problem: dataset visualization



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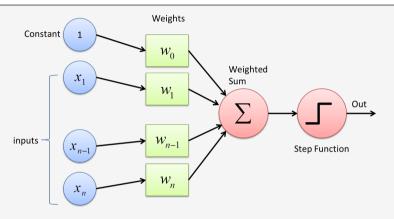
### Our previous perceptron



$$h_w(x) = w_0 + w_1 \times x_1 + w_2 \times x_2 + \dots + w_n \times x_n$$
  
$$h_w(x) = w \cdot x$$

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#### Perceptron for classification

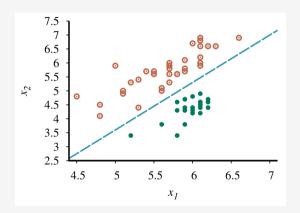


$$h_w(x) = Step(w \cdot x)$$
 where  $Step(z) = 1$  if  $z \geq 0$  and  $0$  otherwise

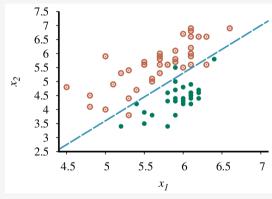
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#### The perceptron as a linear classifier

The perceptron defines a **decision boundary** that separates two classes.



Linearly separable Perfectly classifiable by a perceptron



**Not** linearly separable **Not** perfectly classifiable by a perceptron

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# The step function

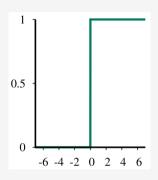
$$h_w(x) = Step(w \cdot x)$$
 where  $Step(z) = 1$  if  $z \ge 0$  and  $0$  otherwise

We now have a function that we could train in order to output:

- 1 if the example is in the class (interesting)
- 0 otherwise (not interesting)

Problem: the function is:

- non-differentiable in 0
- the gradient is 0 everywhere else



Step(z)

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# The perceptron learning rule

Nevertheless, an rule was proposed the **perceptron update rule** (here for a single example (x, y)):

$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha \times (y - h_w(x)) \times x_i$$

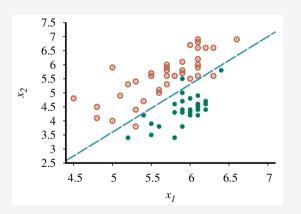
which is identical to the update rule for linear regression (for  $L_2$ ).

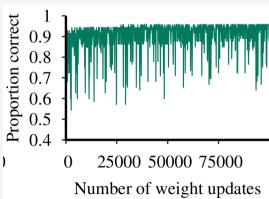
The rule is show to converge to a solution when the data is linearly separable.

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#### The perceptron learning rule (under non separable data)

However the perceptron learning rule is unstable when the data is not linearly separable:





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## Replacing the step function

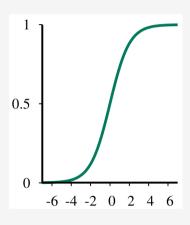
Turns out we can replace the step function with one with nicer properties.

$$Logistic(z) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-z}}$$

and redefine our hypothesis function:

$$h_w(x) = Logistic(w \cdot x) = \frac{1}{1 + e^{-w \cdot x}}$$

Often called the logistic regression.



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#### Back on track

This allows us to reuse gradient descent for training:

$$w \leftarrow w - \alpha \times \vec{\nabla} Loss(w)$$

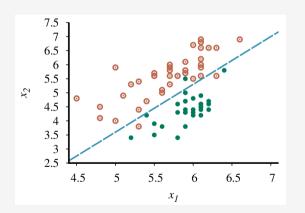
For an  $L_2$  loss we obtain the update rule:

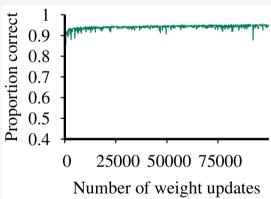
$$w_i \leftarrow w_i + \alpha(y - h_w(x)) \times h_w(x) \times (1 - h_w(x)) \times x_i$$

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#### Training the logistic regression (under non separable data)

The logistic regression tends to converge more quickly an reliable in the presence of noisy and non-separable data.





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#### Section 4

Synthesis

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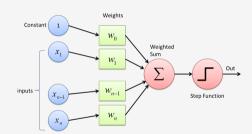
# Synthesis

We saw to classes of perceptrons:

- linear regressor
- linear classifier

Both can be trained with gradient descent in attempt to minimize the loss.

In the next course, the perceptron will be a neural unit in a neural network.



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- I am selling my apartment and I really want it to be sold quickly even if its means loosing some money in the process. Propose a loss function that would help a learning system come up with a reasonable price for selling.
- 2 What's the update formula of a regression perceptron using the  $L_1$  loss?
- 3 You have N examples in your dataset, each with M features. Give an estimate of the computational cost of a single update step. Does it scale to large-scale datasets (e.g.  $N=10^5, M=10^4$ )
- 4 For the linear regression (regression perceptron), are we guaranteed to find the optimal weights with gradient descent?

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