# $MACHINE \ LEARNING {}_{\tt by \ ambed kar@IISc}$

- ▶ Probabilistic view of linear regression
- ▶ Logistic regression
- Hyperplane based classifiers and perceptron

#### Probabilistic View of Linear Regression

Logistic Regression

Hyperplane based classifiers and Perceptron

# Probabilistic View of Linear Regression

# Maximum Likelihood Estimation

- Let  $X = x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N$ , where  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$  be some data that is generated from  $x_n \sim P(x|\theta)$ 
  - ▶ **Recall**: In the statistical approach to machine learning, we assume that there is an underlying probability distribution from which the data is sampled.
  - $\blacktriangleright$  Hence  $\theta$  denotes the parameters of the distribution.
  - For example  $x_n \sim \mathcal{N}(x|\mu, \sigma)$ . That is  $\theta = (\mu, \sigma)$ .
- Assumption: The data in X is generated i.i.d. (independent and identically distributed). This is very important assumption and we see this very often.
- Aim: Learn  $\theta$  given the data  $X = x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N$ .

- We say two random variables X, Y are identical that means that their probability distributions are the same
  - ► If two Gaussian random variables are same only if their means and variance (covariance matrices) are same.
- We say two random variables X, Y are independent if

$$P(X,Y) = P(X)P(Y)$$

• Given  $X = x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N$ , and  $x_n \sim P(x|\theta)$ 

- ▶ Learn P so that likelihood of  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_N$  are sampled from P is maximum.
- $\blacktriangleright$  Equivalently learn or estimate  $\theta$  so that likelihood of

$$x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N$$
 are sampled from P is maximum.

▶ By the iid assumption

$$P(X|\theta) = P(x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N|\theta)$$
$$= \prod_{n=1}^{N} P(x_n|\theta)$$
$$\stackrel{P(x|\theta)}{}$$



How do we estimate  $\theta$  given the data X.

#### $\Downarrow$

Find value of  $\theta$  that makes observed data most probable.

#### $\Downarrow$

Find  $\theta$  that maximizes likelihood function

$$\mathcal{L} = \log P(X|\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log P(x_n|\theta)$$



#### Example:

Suppose  $X_n$  is a binary random variable. Suppose it follows Bernoulli distribution

i.e.  $P(x|\theta) = \theta^x (1-\theta)^{1-x}$ 

$$\mathcal{L}(\theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log P(x_n | \theta) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n \log \theta + (1 - x_n) \log(1 - \theta)$$
$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(\theta)}{\partial \theta} = \frac{1}{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n + \frac{1}{1 - \theta} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (1 - x_n)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n + \frac{1}{1 - \theta} (N - \sum_{n=1}^{N} x_n)$$

$$\implies \theta_{MLE}^* = \frac{\sum_{n=1}^N x_n}{N}$$

[In a coin tossing experiment, it is just a fraction of heads]

#### Maximum a Posteriori Estimate

- We will have a prior on parameter  $\theta$  i.e.  $P(\theta)$ Yes  $\theta$  is no more a mere number, it is a Random Variable.
  - $\blacktriangleright$  One can have knowledge on  $\theta$
  - ▶ It acts as a regularizer (We will see later)
- ► Bayes Rule:

$$P(\theta|X) = \frac{P(X|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(X)}$$

 $P(\theta|X)$ : Posterior  $P(X|\theta)$ : Likelihood  $P(\theta)$ : Prior P(X): Evidence

#### Maximum a Posteriori Estimate (contd...)

Bayes Rule:

$$P(\theta|X) = \frac{P(X|\theta)P(\theta)}{P(X)}$$



# Maximum a Posteriori Estimate (contd...)

#### MAP Estimate

$$\begin{aligned} \theta_{MAP}^* &= \arg\max_{\theta} P(\theta|x) \\ &= \arg\max_{\theta} \log P(x|\theta) + \log P(\theta) \\ &= \arg\max_{\theta} \sum_{n=1}^N \log P(x_n|\theta) + \log P(\theta) \end{aligned}$$

<u>Note</u>: When  $P(\theta)$  is a uniform distribution, it reduces to MLE.

# Linear Regression : Probabilistic Setting

 Each response is generated by a linear model + Gaussian noise

$$Y = W^T X + E$$

- ► That is, given N training samples  $\{(x_n, y_n)_{n=1}^N\}$  i.i.d.  $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^d$  and  $y_n \in \mathbb{R}$ 
  - $\epsilon_n \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2)$
  - $y_n \sim \mathcal{N}(w^T x_n, \sigma^2)$

$$\implies P(Y|X,W) = \mathcal{N}(y|w^T x, \sigma^2)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(y-w^T x)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

# Linear Regression : ML Estimation

### Log Likelihood

$$\log \mathcal{L}(w) = \log P(\mathcal{D}|w) = \log P(y|X, W)$$
$$= \log \prod_{n=1}^{N} P(y_n|x_n, w)$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log P(y_n|x_n, w)$$
$$= \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ -\frac{1}{2} \log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{(y_n - w^T x_n)^2}{2\sigma^2} \right]$$

Linear Regression : ML Estimation (contd...)

$$W_{MLE}^{*} = \arg\max_{w} -\frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_{n} - w^{T}x_{n})^{2}$$
$$= \arg\min_{w} \frac{1}{2\sigma^{2}} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_{n} - w^{T}x_{n})^{2}$$

i.e. ML Estimation in the case of Gaussian environment  $\equiv$  Least square objective for regression

# Linear Regression : MAP Estimate

- ► Here we introduce prior on the parameter w.
  ⇒ This will lead to regularization of model.
  - Remember we treat parameters as Random Variables in MAP.

$$\blacktriangleright P(w) = \mathcal{N}(w|\underbrace{0}_{\text{MeanVariance}}, \underbrace{\lambda^{-1}I}_{\text{MeanVariance}})$$

▶ We have multivariate Gaussian

$$\mathcal{N}(x:\mu,\Sigma) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^D |\Sigma|}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(x-\mu)^T \Sigma^{-1}(X-\mu)\right)$$
$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{\frac{D}{2}}(\frac{1}{\lambda})^{\frac{D}{2}}}} \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda}{2} w^T w\right)$$

Linear Regression : MAP Estimate (contd...)

▶ log posterior probability

►

$$\log(w|\mathcal{D}) = \log \frac{P(\mathcal{D}|w)P(w)}{P(\mathcal{D})}$$
$$= \log P(w) + \log P(w|\mathcal{D}) - \log P(\mathcal{D})$$

$$W_{MAP}^* = \underset{w}{\arg \max} \log P(w|\mathcal{D})$$
  
= 
$$\underset{w}{\arg \max} \{ \log P(w) + \log P(\mathcal{D}|w) + \log P(\mathcal{D}) \}$$
  
= 
$$\underset{w}{\arg \max} \{ \log P(w) + \log P(\mathcal{D}|w) \}$$

Linear Regression : MAP Estimate (contd...)

$$W_{MAP}^* = \arg\max_{w} \log P(w|\mathcal{D})$$
  
=  $\arg\max_{w} \left[-\frac{D}{2}\log 2\pi - \frac{\lambda}{2}w^Tw + \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left(-\frac{1}{2}\log(2\pi\sigma^2) - \frac{(x_n - w^Tx_n)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)\right]$   
=  $\arg\max_{w} \frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - w^Tx_n)^2 + \frac{\lambda}{2}w^Tw$ 

MAP estimate in the case of Gaussian environment  $\equiv$  Least square objective with  $L_2$  regularization.

#### MLE vs MAP



MAP estimate shrinks the estimate of w towards the prior.

Logistic Regression

- ▶ Two class classification
- Instead of the exact labels estimate the probabilities of the labels.

▶ i.e predict

$$P(y_n = 1 | x_n, w) = \mu_n$$
$$P(y_n = 0 | x_n, w) = 1 - \mu_n$$

#### The Logistic Regression Model

$$\mu_n = f(x_n) = \sigma(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)} = \frac{\exp(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)}{1 + \exp(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)}$$

- Here  $\sigma$  is the sigmoid or logistic function.
- ▶ The model first computes a real-values score.

$$w^{\mathsf{T}}x = \sum_{i=1}^d w_i x_i$$

and **non-linearly** squashes it between (0, 1) to turn this into a probability.



#### The Decision Boundary

If 
$$w^{\mathsf{T}}x > 0 \implies P(y_n = 1|x_n, w) > P(y_n = 0|x_n, w)$$
  
 $w^{\mathsf{T}}x < 0 \implies P(y_n = 1|x_n, w) < P(y_n = 0|x_n, w)$ 



Logistic Regression: Decision Boundary

# Loss Function Optimization

► Squared Loss

$$\ell(y_n, f(x_n) = (y_n - f(x_n))^2$$
$$= (y_n - \sigma(w^{\mathsf{T}}x_n))^2$$

- ▶ This is non-convex and not easy to optimize.
- Cross Entropy loss

$$\ell(y_n, f(x_n)) = \begin{cases} -\log(\mu_n) & \text{when } y_n = 1 \\ -\log(1 - \mu_n) & \text{when } y_n = 0 \end{cases}$$
$$= \begin{cases} -P(y_n = 1 | x_n, w_n) & \text{when } y_n = 1 \\ -P(y_n = 0 | x_n, w_n) & \text{when } y_n = 0 \end{cases}$$

#### **Cross Entropy loss**

$$l(y_n, f(x_n)) = -y_n \log(\mu_n) - (1 - y_n) \log(1 - \mu_n) = -y_n \log(\sigma(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)) - (1 - y_n) \log(1 - \sigma(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n))$$

▶ Cross Entropy Loss over entire data.

$$L(w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} l(y_n, f(x_n))$$
  
=  $\sum_{n=1}^{N} [-y_n \log(\mu_n) - (1 - y_n) \log(1 - \mu_n)]$   
=  $-\sum_{n=1}^{N} [y_n w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n - \log(1 + \exp(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n))]$ 

• By adding  $L_2$  regularizer.

$$L(w) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} [y_n w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n - \log(1 + \exp(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)) + \lambda ||w||^2$$

#### Logistic Regression: MLE formulation

- AIM Learn w from the data that can predict the probability of  $x_n$  belong to 0 or 1.
- ▶ Log Likelihood: Given  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_1, y_1), \ldots, (x_N, y_N)\}$

$$\log L(w) = \log P(\mathcal{D}|w)$$
$$= \log P(Y|X, w)$$
$$= \log \prod_{n=1}^{N} P(y_n|x_n, w)$$
$$= \log \prod_{n=1}^{N} \mu_n^{y_n} (1 - \mu_n)^{1 - y_n}$$

 $\blacktriangleright \because Y$  is a Bernoulli random variable

$$P(y_n = 1 | x_n, w) = \mu_n$$
  

$$P(y_n = 0 | x_n, w) = 1 - \mu_n$$
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# Logistic Regression: MLE formulation(contd...)

$$P(Y|X,w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} [y_n \log \mu_n + (1-y_n) \log(1-\mu_n)]$$
  
We have  $\mu_n = \frac{\exp(w^{\intercal} x_n)}{1+\exp(w^{\intercal} x_n)}$ 
$$\implies L(w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} [y_n w^{\intercal} x_n - \log(1+\exp(w^{\intercal} x_n))]$$

Which is same as the cross entropy loss minimization.

#### Logistic Regression: MAP estimate

▶ MAP  $\rightarrow$  We assume a prior distribution on the weight vector w. That is

$$P(w) = N(w|0), \lambda^{-1}I)$$
$$= \frac{1}{(2\pi)^{\frac{D}{2}}} \exp\left(-\frac{\lambda}{2}w^{\mathsf{T}}w\right)$$

▶ Note: Multivariate Gaussian is defined as

$$P(w) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^{D}|\Sigma|}} \exp\left[-\frac{1}{2}(X-\mu)^{\mathsf{T}}\Sigma^{-1}(X-\mu)\right]$$

▶ Then MAP estimate is

$$W^*_{MAP} = \operatorname*{arg\,max}_{w} \log P(W|\mathcal{D})$$

#### Logistic Regression: MAP estimate (cont...)

 $\blacktriangleright$  We have

$$W_{MAP}^* = \arg\max_{w} \log P(W|\theta)$$
  
=  $\arg\max_{w} \log P(\mathcal{D}|w) + \log P(w)$   
=  $\arg\max_{w} \left[ -\frac{D}{2} \log 2\pi - \frac{\lambda}{2} w^{\mathsf{T}} w - \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log(1 + \exp(-y_n w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)) \right]$   
=  $\arg\max_{w} \sum_{n=1}^{N} \log \left[ 1 + \exp(-y_n w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n) \right] + \frac{\lambda}{2} w^{\mathsf{T}} w$ 

Which is same as the minimizing regularized cross entropy loss.

# Logistic Regression: Some Comments

 Objective function of Logistic Regression is same as SVMs except for the loss function.

 $\begin{array}{cc} \mbox{Logistic Regression} \rightarrow \mbox{log loss} \\ \mbox{SVM} & \rightarrow \mbox{hinge loss} \end{array}$ 

▶ Logistic regression can be extended to multiclass case: just use softmax function.

$$P(Y = k | w, x) = \frac{\exp(w_k^{\mathsf{T}} x)}{\sum_k \exp(w_k^{\mathsf{T}} x)} \quad k = 1, 2, \dots, K \text{ classes}$$

# Optimization is the Key

- Almost all problems in machine learning leads to optimization problems
- ▶ The following two factors decides the fate of any method:
  - ▶ What kind of optimization problem that we are led to
  - ▶ What are all optimization methods that are available to us
- There are several methods that are available for optimization, among these gradient descent methods are most popular

# Gradient Descent methods are Used in ....

- ▶ Linear Regression
- ▶ Logistic Regression
  - It is just classification, but instead of labels it gives us class probability
- ▶ Support Vector Machines
- Neural Networks
  - ► The backbone of neural networks is Back-propagation algorithm

# Example of an objective

- Most often, we do not even have functional form of the objective.
  - ► Given x, we can only compute f(x)
  - Sometime this may involve a simulating a system
  - Computing each f(x) can be time consuming



▶ This becomes even more difficult as x is a D-dimensional vector and D is very large

#### **Multivariate Functions**



(c)  $f(x,y) = \cos^2(x) + y^2$ 



#### **Partial Derivatives**



(a) Surface given by  $f(x, y) = 9 - \frac{x}{2} - \frac{y}{2}$ 





(c)  $f(x, 1) = 8 - \frac{x}{2}$  denotes a curve, and f'(x) = -2x denotes derivative (or slope) of that curve

# Partial Derivatives (contd...)



# Idea of Gradient Descent Algorithm

- Start at some random point (of course final results will depend on this)
- ► Take steps based on the gradient vector of the current position till convergence
  - Gradient vector give us direction and rate of fastest increase any any point
  - ► Any point x if the gradient is nonzero, then the direction of gradient is the direction in which the function most quickly from x
  - ► The magnitude of gradient is the rate of increase in that direction

# Idea of Gradient Descent Algorithm<sup>1</sup>



<sup>1</sup>Credits for all the images in this sections goes to Michailidis and Maiden

#### **Gradient Descent**

► **AIM**: To minimize the function

$$L(w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ y_n w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n - \log(1 + \exp(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)) \right]$$

- We do this by calculating the derivative of L w.r.t w.
- ▶ Note: Since log function is concave in *w*, this has a unique minimum.

# **Gradient Descent**

► **AIM**: To minimize the function

$$L(w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ y_n w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n - \log(1 + \exp(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)) \right]$$

► Gradient:

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w} = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left[ y_n x_n - \frac{\exp(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)}{1 + \exp(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)} x_n \right]$$
$$= -\sum_{n=1}^{N} (y_n - \mu_n) x_n = X^{-1} (\mu - y)$$
where  $\mu = \begin{bmatrix} \mu_1 \\ \vdots \\ \mu_N \end{bmatrix}$   $Y = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 \\ \vdots \\ y_N \end{bmatrix}$  and  $X = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ \vdots \\ x_N \end{bmatrix}_{N \times D}$ 

# Gradient Descent (contd...)

- ▶ Since there is no closed form solution, we take a recourse to iterative methods like gradient descent.
- ► Gradient Descent:
  - 1 Initialize  $w^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^D$  randomly.
  - **2** Iterate until the convergence.

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} - \eta \underbrace{\sum_{n=1}^{N} \left( \mu_n^{(t)} - y_n \right) x_n}_{\text{Gradient at}}$$

$$\blacktriangleright \ \mu_n^{(t)} = \sigma(w^{(t)^{\mathsf{T}}} x_n)$$

•  $\eta$  is the learning rate.

# Gradient Descent (contd...)

▶ We have the following update

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} - \eta \sum_{\substack{n=1\\\text{Gradient at previous value}}}^{N} (\mu_n^{(t)} - y_n) x_n$$

- ► Note: Calculating gradient in each iteration requires all the data. When N is large this may not be feasible.
- ► Stochastic Gradient Descent: Use mini-batches to compute the gradient.

# Gradient Descent: Some Remarks

# Note on Learning Rate:

- ▶ Sometimes choosing the learning rate is difficult
  - Larger learning rate  $\rightarrow$  Too much fluctuation.
  - Smaller learning rate  $\rightarrow$  Slow convergence

To deal with this problem:

- Choose optimal step size at each iteration  $\eta_t$  using line search.
- ▶ Add momentum to the update.

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} - \eta_{(t)}g^{(t)} + \alpha_t \left(w^{(t)} - w^{(t-1)}\right)$$

► Use second order methods like Newton method to exploit the curvature of the loss function. (But we need to compute Hessian matrix.)

#### Multiclass Logistic or Softmax Regression

▶ Logistic regression can be extend for the multiclass case.

• Let 
$$y_n \in \{0, 1, \dots, k-1\}$$

► Define

$$P(y_n = k | x_n, W) = \frac{\exp(w_k^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)}{\sum_{l=1}^{K} \exp(w_k^{\mathsf{T}} x_{n_l})}$$
$$= \mu_{n_k}$$

- \*  $\mu_{n_K}$ : Probability that  $n^{th}$  sample belongs to  $k^{th}$  class and  $\sum_{l=1}^{k} \mu_{n_l} = 1$
- ► Softmax: Class k with largest  $w_k^{\mathsf{T}} x_n$  dominates the probability.

#### Multiclass Logistic or Softmax Regression

• 
$$P(y_n = k | x_n, W) = \frac{\exp(w_k^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)}{\sum_{l=1}^K \exp(w_k^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)}$$

$$\blacktriangleright W = [w_1 w_2 \dots w_k]_{D \times K}$$

• We can think of  $y_n$  are drawn from multimodal distribution

$$P(y|X,W) = \prod_{n=1}^{N} \prod_{l=1}^{K} \mu_{n_l}^{y_{n_l}}$$
: Likelihood function

• where  $y_{n_l} = 1$  if true class of example *n* is *l* and  $y_{n_l} = 0$  for all other *l*.

# Hyperplane based classifiers and Perceptron

# Linear as Optimization

Supervised Learning Problem

- Given data  $\{(x_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^N$  find  $f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$  that best approximates the relation between X and Y.
- Determine f such a way that loss l(y, f(x)) is minimum.
- ▶ f and l are specific to the problem and the method that we choose.

# Linear Regression

- Data:  $\{(x_n, y_n)\}_{n=1}^N$ 
  - $x_n \in \mathbb{R}^D$  is a *D* dimensional input
  - $y_n \in \mathbb{R}$  is the output

Aim is to find a **hyperplane** that fits **best** these points.

▶ Here hyperplane is a model of choice i.e.,

$$f(x) = \sum_{j=1}^{D} x_j w_j + b = w^{\mathsf{T}} x + b$$

- Here  $w_1, \ldots, w_d$  and b are model parameters
- ▶ Best is determined by some loss function

$$Loss(w) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} [y_n - f(x_n)]^2$$

► Aim : Determine the model parameters that minimize the loss.

# Logistic Regression

Problem Set-Up

- ▶ Two class classification
- ► Instead of the exact labels estimate the probabilities of the labels i.e.

Predict 
$$P(y_n = 1 | x_n, w) = \mu_n$$
  
 $P(y_n = 0 | x_n, w) = 1 - \mu_n$ 

• Here  $(x_n, y_n)$  is the input output pair.

# Logistic Regression(Contd...)

Problem

Find a function f such that,

$$\mu = f(x_n)$$

Model

$$\mu_n = f(x_n) = \sigma(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)}$$
$$= \frac{\exp(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)}{1 + \exp(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n)}$$

# Logistic Regression(Contd...)

#### Sigmoid Function



▶ The model first computes a real valued score  $w^{\intercal}x = \sum_{i=1}^{D} w_i x_i$  and then nonlinearly "squashes" it between (0,1) to turn into a probability.

# Logistic Regression(contd...)

**Loss Function:** Here we use cross entropy loss instead of squared loss.

Cross entropy loss is defined as:

$$L(y_n, f(x_n)) = \begin{cases} -\log(\mu_n) & \text{when} & y_n = 1\\ -\log(1 - \mu_n) & \text{when} & y_n = 0 \end{cases}$$
$$= -y_n \log(\mu_n) - (1 - y_n) \log(1 - \mu_n)$$
$$= -y_n \log(\sigma(w^{\mathsf{T}}x_n)) - (1 - y_n) \log(1 - \sigma(w^{\mathsf{T}}x_n))$$

And now empirical risk is

$$L(w) = -\sum_{n=1}^{N} [y_n w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n - \log(1 + \exp(w^{\mathsf{T}} x_n))]$$

# Logistic Regression(contd...)

By taking the derivative w.r.t  $\boldsymbol{w}$ 

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial w} = \sum_{n=1}^{N} (\mu_n - y_n) x_n$$

- ► Here the Gradient Descent Algorithm is Initialize  $w^{(1)} \in \mathbb{R}^D$  randomly
  - 2 Iterate until the convergence



• Note: Here  $\mu^{(t)} = \sigma(w^{(t)^{\intercal}} x_n)$ 

Let us take a look at the update equation again



What do we notice here?

**Problem:** Calculating gradient in each iteration requires all the data. When N is large this may not be feasible.

#### **Stochastic Gradient Descent**

► Strategy: Approximate gradient using randomly chosen data point  $(x_n, y_n)$ 

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} - \eta_t (\mu_n^{(t)} - y_n) x_n$$

► Also: Replace predicted label probability  $\mu_n^{(t)}$  by predicted binary label  $\hat{y}_n^{(t)}$ , where

$$\hat{y}_n^{(t)} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } \mu_n^{(t)} \ge 0.5 \text{ or } w^{(t)^{\mathsf{T}}} x_n \ge 0\\ 0 & \text{if } \mu_n^{(t)} < 0.5 \text{ or } w^{(t)^{\mathsf{T}}} x_n < 0 \end{cases}$$

Stochastic Gradient Descent (contd...)

► **Hence**: Update rule becomes

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} - \eta_t (\hat{y}_n^{(t)} - y_n) x_n$$

- ▶ This is mistake driven update rule
- ▶  $w^{(t)}$  gets updated only when there is a misclassification i.e.  $\hat{y}_n^{(t)} \neq y_n$

#### Stochastic Gradient Descent (contd...)

We will do one more simple change:

▶ Change: the class labels to {-1,+1}

$$\implies \hat{y}_n^{(t)} - y_n = \begin{cases} -2y_n & \text{if } \hat{y}_n^{(t)} \neq y_n^{(t)} \\ 0 & \text{if } \hat{y}_n^{(t)} = y_n^{(t)} \end{cases}$$

▶ **Hence**: Whenever there is a misclassification.

$$w^{(t+1)} = w^{(t)} - 2\eta_{(t)}y_n x_n$$

► ⇒ This is a perceptron learning algorithm which is a hyperplane based learning algorithm.

# Hyperplanes

- Separates a d-dimensional space into two half spaces(positive and negative)
- Equation of the hyperplane is

$$w^{\intercal}x = 0$$

► By adding bias  $b \in \mathbb{R}$   $w^{\intercal}x + b = 0$  b > 0 moving the hyperplane parallely along wb < 0 opposite direction

### Hyperplane based classification



# Hyperplane based classification



# The Perceptron Algorithm (Rosenblatt, 1958)

▶ Aim is to learn a linear hyperplane to separate two classes.

▶ Mistake drives online learning algorithm

 Guaranteed to find a separating hyperplane if data is linearly separable.

#### Perceptron Algorithm

► Given training data  $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_1, y_1), ..., (x_n, y_n)\}$ 

• Initialize 
$$w_{old} = [0, ..., 0], \ b_{old} = 0$$

- ▶ Repeat until convergence.
  - For a random  $(x_n, y_n) \in \mathcal{D}$

► If 
$$y_n(w^{\intercal}x_n + b) \le 0$$
  
[Or sign $(w^{\intercal}x + b) \ne y_n$  i.e mistake mode]

• 
$$w_{new} = w_{old} + y_n x_n$$

$$\bullet \ b_{new} = b_{old} + y_n$$

"Roughly" : If the data is linearly separable perceptron algorithm converges.

# What if the data is not linearly separable?

**Yes!** In practice, most often the data is not linearly separable. Then

- ▶ Make linearly separable using kernel methods.
- ▶ (Or) Use multilayer perceptron.

What are all these?

- ► The first leads to Support Vector Machines, that rules machine learning for decades
- ▶ The second one leads to Deep Learning!

- Maximum Likelihood Estimates
- ▶ Bayes again! MAP
- ▶ Probabilistic view of Linear and Logistic Regression
- ▶ Hyperplanes and Perceptrons
- ▶ The two very big paradigms in ML