Chapter 24

The Preceptron Algorithm

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24.1 The Preceptron algorithm

Assume, that we are given examples, say a database of cars, and you would like to determine which cars are sport cars, and which are regular cars. Each car record, can be interpreted as a point in high dimensions. For example, a sport car with 4 doors, manufactured in 1997, by Quaky (with manufacturer ID 6) will be represented by the point (4, 1997, 6), marked as a sport car. A tractor made by General Mess (manufacturer ID 3) in 1998, would be stored as (0, 1997, 3) and would be labeled as not a sport car.

Naturally, in a real database there might be hundreds of attributes in each record, for engine size, to weight, price, maximum speed, cruising speed, etc, etc, etc.

We would like to automate this classification process, so that tagging the records whether they correspond to race cars be done automatically without a specialist being involved. We would like to have a learning algorithm, such that given several classified examples, develop its own conjecture about what is the rule of the classification, and we can use it for classifying the data.

What are we learning?

 $f: \mathbb{R}^d \to \{-1, 1\}$

Problem: *f* might have infinite complexity. **Solution:** ????

Limit ourself to a set of functions that can be easily described.

For example, consider a set of red and blue points,

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Given the red and blue points, how to compute ℓ ?

This is a linear function:

 $f(\vec{x}) = \vec{a} \cdot \vec{x} + b$

Classification is sign(f(x)). If sign(f(x)) is negative, it outside the class, if it is positive it is inside.

A set of examples is a set of pairs $S = \{(x_1, y_1), \dots, (x_n, y_n)\}$ where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$.

A linear classifier h is a pair (w, b) where $w \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $b \in \mathbb{R}$. The classification of $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is $sign(x \cdot w + b)$. For a labeled example (x, y), h classifies (x, y) correctly if $sign(x \cdot w + b) = y$.

Assume that the underlying space has linear classifier (problematic assumption), and you are given "enough" examples (i.e., n). How to compute this linear classifier?

Of course, use linear programming, we are looking for (w, b) s.t. for a sample (x_i, y_i) we have $sign(x_i \cdot w + b) = y_i$ which is

$$x_i \cdot w + b \ge 0$$

if $y_i = 1$ and

$$\overrightarrow{x_i} \cdot \overrightarrow{w} + b \le 0$$

if $y_i = -1$.

Thus, we get a set of linear constraints, one for each sample, and we need to solve this linear program.

Problem: Linear programming is noise sensitive.

Namely, if we have points misclassified, we would not find a solution, because no solution satisfying all of the constraints, exist.

> Algorithm **Preceptron**(*S* : a set of *l* examples) $w_0 \leftarrow 0, k \leftarrow 0$ $R = \max_{(x,y)\in S} ||x||$. repeat **for** $(x, y) \in S$ **do** if $sign(\langle w_k, x \rangle) \neq y$ then $w_{k+1} \leftarrow w_k + y \ast \overrightarrow{x}$ $k \leftarrow k + 1$ until no mistakes are made in the classification return w_k and k

Why does this work? Assume that we made a mistake on a sample (x, y) and y = 1. Then, $u = w_k \cdot x < 0$, and

$$\langle w_{k+1}, x \rangle = \langle w_k, x \rangle + y \langle x, x \rangle > u.$$

Namely, we are "walking" in the right direction.

Theorem 24.1.1 Let *S* be a training set, and let $R = \max_{(x,y)\in S} ||x||$. Suppose that there exists a vector w_{opt} such that $||w_{opt}|| = 1$ and

$$y\langle w_{opt}, x \rangle \ge \gamma \qquad \forall (x, y) \in S.$$

Then, the number of mistakes made by the online **Preceptron** algorithm on S is at most

$$\left(\frac{R}{\gamma}\right)^2$$
.

Proof: Intuitively, the **Preceptron** algorithm weight vector converges to w_{opt} , To see that, let us define the distance between w_{opt} and the weight vector in the *k*-th update:

$$\alpha_k = \left\| w_k - \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt} \right\|^2.$$

We next quantify the change between α_k and α_{k+1} (the example being misclassified is (x, y)):

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{k+1} &= \left\| w_{k+1} - \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt} \right\|^2 \\ &= \left\| w_k + yx - \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt} \right\|^2 \\ &= \left\| \left(w_k - \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt} \right) + yx \right\|^2 \\ &= \left\| \left(w_k - \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt} \right) + yx , \left(w_k - \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt} \right) + yx \right\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Expanding this we get:

$$\alpha_{k+1} = \left\langle \left(w_k - \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt} \right), \left(w_k - \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt} \right) \right\rangle \\ + 2y \left\langle \left(w_k - \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt} \right), x \right\rangle \\ + \langle x, x \rangle \\ = \alpha_k + 2y \left\langle \left(w_k - \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt} \right), x \right\rangle + \left\| x \right\|^2.$$

Since $||x|| \le R$, we have

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_{k+1} &\leq \alpha_k + R^2 + 2y \langle w_k, x \rangle - 2y \left\langle \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt}, x \right\rangle \\ &\leq \alpha_k + R^2 + -2 \frac{R^2}{\gamma} y \left\langle w_{opt}, x \right\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

Next, since $y \langle w_{opt}, x \rangle \ge \gamma$ for $\forall (x, y) \in S$, we have that

$$\alpha_{k+1} \leq \alpha_k + R^2 - 2\frac{R^2}{\gamma}\gamma$$

$$\leq \alpha_k + R^2 - 2R^2$$

$$\leq \alpha_k - R^2.$$

We have: $\alpha_{k+1} \leq \alpha_k - R^2$, and

$$\alpha_0 = \left\| 0 - \frac{R^2}{\gamma} w_{opt} \right\|^2 = \frac{R^4}{\gamma^2} \left\| w_{opt} \right\|^2 = \frac{R^4}{\gamma^2} .$$

Finally, observe that $\alpha_i \ge 0$ for all *i*. Thus, what is the maximum number of classification errors the algorithm can make?

$$\left(\frac{R^2}{\gamma^2}\right).$$

It is important to observe that any linear program can be written as the problem of seperating red points from blue points. As such, the **Preceptron** algorithm can be used to solve sovle linear programs...

24.2 Learning A Circle

Given a set of red points, and blue points in the plane, we want to learn a circle that contains all the red points, and does not contain the blue points.



How to compute the circle σ ?

It turns out we need a simple but very clever trick. For every point $(x, y) \in P$ map it to the point $(x, y, x^2 + y^2)$. Let $z(P) = \{(x, y, x^2 + y^2) \mid (x, y) \in P\}$ be the resulting point set.

Theorem 24.2.1 Two sets of points R and B are separable by a circle in two dimensions, if and only if z(R) and z(B) are separable by a plane in three dimensions.

Proof: Let $\sigma \equiv (x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 = r^2$ be the circle containing all the points of *R* and having all the points of *B* outside. Clearly, $(x - a)^2 + (y - b)^2 \le r^2$ for all the points of *R*. Equivalently

$$-2ax - 2by + (x^2 + y^2) \le r^2 - a^2 - b^2.$$

Setting $z = x^2 + y^2$ we get that

$$h \equiv -2ax - 2by + z - r^2 + a^2 + b^2 \le 0.$$

Namely, $p \in \sigma$ if and only if $h(z(p)) \leq 0$. We just proved that if the point set is separable by a circle, then the lifted point set z(R) and z(B) are separable by a plane.

As for the other direction, assume that z(R) and z(B) are separable in 3d and let

$$h \equiv ax + by + cz + d = 0$$

be the separating plane, such that all the point of z(R) evaluate to a negative number by *h*. Namely, for $(x, y, x^2 + y^2) \in z(R)$ we have $ax + by + c(x^2 + y^2) + d \le 0$

and similarly, for $(x, y, x^2 + y^2) \in B$ we have $ax + by + c(x^2 + y^2) + d \ge 0$.

Let $U(h) = \{(x, y) \mid h((x, y, x^2 + y^2)) \le 0\}$. Clearly, if U(h) is a circle, then this implies that $R \subset U(h)$ and $B \cap U(h) = \emptyset$, as required.

So, U(h) are all the points in the plane, such that

$$ax + by + c\left(x^2 + y^2\right) \le -d$$

Equivalently

$$\left(x^2 + \frac{a}{c}x\right) + \left(y^2 + \frac{b}{c}y\right) \le -\frac{d}{c}$$
$$\left(x + \frac{a}{2c}\right)^2 + \left(y + \frac{b}{2c}\right)^2 \le \frac{a^2 + b^2}{4c^2} - \frac{d}{c}$$

but this defines the interior of a circle in the plane, as claimed.

This example show that linear separability is a powerful technique that can be used to learn complicated concepts that are considerably more complicated than just hyperplane separation. This lifting technique showed above is calledlinearizion the kernel technique or linearizion.

24.3 A Little Bit On VC Dimension

As we mentioned, inherent to the learning algorithms, is the concept of how complex is the function we are trying to learn. VC-dimension is one of the most natural ways of capturing this notion. (VC = Vapnik, Chervonenkis, 1971).

A matter of expersivity. What is harder to learn:

1. A rectangle in the plane.

2. A halfplane.

3. A convex polygon with k sides.

Let $X = \{p_1, p_2, ..., p_m\}$ be a set of *m* points in the plane, and let *R* be the set of all halfplanes. A half-plane *r* defines a binary vector

$$r(X) = (b_1, \ldots, b_m)$$

where $b_i = 1$ if and only if p_i is inside *r*. Let

$$U(X, R) = \{r(X) \mid r \in R\}.$$

A set X of m elements is shattered by R if

$$|U(X,R)| = 2^m.$$

What does this mean?

The VC-dimension of a set of ranges R is the size of the largest set that it can shatter.

24.3.1 Examples

What is the VC dimensions of circles in the plane?

Namely, X is set of n points in the plane, and R is a set of all circles.

 $X = \{p, q, r, s\}$

What subsets of *X* can we generate by circle?



{}, {r}, {p}, {q}, {s}, {p, s}, {p, q}, {p, r}, {r, q}{q, s} and {r, p, q}, {p, r, s}{p, s, q}, {s, q, r} and {r, p, q, s} We got only 15 sets. There is one set which is not there. Which one? The VC dimension of circles in the plane is 3.

Lemma 24.3.1 (Sauer Lemma) If *R* has *VC* dimension *d* then $|U(X, R)| = O(m^d)$, where *m* is the size of *X*.