

Statistical Machine Learning

https://cvml.ist.ac.at/courses/SML_W20

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Institute of Science and Technology

Fall Semester 2020/2021

Lecture 1

Goals:

- learn the principles of (mainly supervised) machine learning
- get an overview of some core techniques
- not: hands-on experience in solving real-world tasks using machine learning

Target Audience:

- anyone interested in machine learning as a research topic.
- not: anyone who wants to apply machine learning to their own problems

Prerequisites:

- mathematics: set notation, linear algebra, multi-dimensional calculus, probabilities
- programming skills: in a language that allows numeric computation, e.g. Python

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- mathematics: set notation, linear algebra, multi-dimensional calculus, probabilities
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Caveat:

- rumor is, the course is quite some work for its 3 ECTS

Evaluation criteria:

- 50% homework, 50% final project

Homework:

- every Monday there is a new homework sheet
- exercises are mainly theoretical/analytical, but also some practicals
- return your answers via email to the TAs *before the next Monday lecture*
- homeworks must be handed in individually
- group discussion about homeworks is permitted and encouraged
- cut-and-paste solutions are not permitted and will be sanctioned (1st offence: no points for sheet, 2nd offence: fail course)

Final Team Project:

- starting two weeks before the end of the course (approx. Nov 1)
- teams should have two participants
- you can use any method and software you want
- teams present their approaches during the "exam week" (Nov 13, Nov 15)

Overview (tentative)

Date		no.	Topic
Oct 05	Mon	1	A Hands-On Introduction
Oct 07	Wed	2	Bayesian Decision Theory, Generative Probabilistic Models
Oct 12	Mon	3	Discriminative Probabilistic Models
Oct 14	Wed	4	Maximum Margin Classifiers, Generalized Linear Models
Oct 19	Mon	5	Estimators; Overfitting/Underfitting, Regularization, Model Selection
Oct 21	Wed	6	Bias/Fairness, Domain Adaptation
Oct 26	Mon	-	no lecture (public holiday)
Oct 28	Wed	7	Learning Theory I
Nov 02	Mon	8	Learning Theory II
Nov 04	Wed	9	Deep Learning I
Nov 09	Mon	10	Deep Learning II
Nov 11	Wed	11	Unsupervised Learning
Nov 16	Mon	12	project presentations
Nov 18	Wed	13	buffer

Definition (Mitchell, 1997)

A computer program is said to *learn* from experience E with respect to some class of tasks T and performance measure P , if its performance at tasks in T , as measured by P , improves with experience E .

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Example: Backgammon

- T)ask: Play backgammon.
- E)xpérience: Games played against itself
- P)erformance Measure: Games won against human players.

Definition (Mitchell, 1997)

A computer program is said to *learn* from experience E with respect to some class of tasks T and performance measure P , if its performance at tasks in T , as measured by P , improves with experience E .

Example: Spam classification

- T)ask: determine if emails are Spam or non-Spam.
- E)xpérience: Incoming emails with human classification
- P)erformance Measure: percentage of correct decisions

Definition (Mitchell, 1997)

A computer program is said to *learn* from experience E with respect to some class of tasks T and performance measure P , if its performance at tasks in T , as measured by P , improves with experience E .

Example: Stock market predictions

- T)ask: predict the price of some shares
- E)xpérience: past prices
- P)erformance Measure: money you win or lose

Task:

- \mathcal{X} : input set, set of all possible inputs
- \mathcal{Y} : output set, set of all possible outputs
- $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$: prediction function,
 - ▶ e.g. $\mathcal{X} = \{\text{all possible emails}\}, \mathcal{Y} = \{\text{spam, ham}\}$
 f spam filter: for new email $x \in \mathcal{X}$: $f(x) = \text{spam}$ or $f(x) = \text{ham}$.

Performance:

- $\ell : \mathcal{Y} \times \mathcal{Y} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$: loss function
 - ▶ e.g. $\ell(y, y')$ is *cost* of predicting y' if y is correct.
 - ▶ $\ell(y, y')$ can be asymmetric: spam \rightarrow ham is annoying, but no big deal.
 - ▶ ham \rightarrow spam can cause serious problems.

Experience: task-dependent, many different scenarios

- **Supervised learning**: a labeled **training set** examples from \mathcal{X} with outputs provided by an expert, $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^1, y^1), \dots, (x^n, y^n)\} \subset \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$
 - ▶ A person goes through his/her n emails and marks each one whether it is spam or not.

Many other variants on how to formalize *experience* exist:

- **Unsupervised Learning:** $\mathcal{D} = \{x^1, \dots, x^n\}$, only observing, no input from an expert/teacher
- **Semi-supervised Learning:** $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^1, y^1), \dots, (x^n, y^n)\} \cup \{x^{n+1}, \dots, x^{n+l}\}$: only a subset of examples has labels
 - ▶ spam: quite common, nobody wants to label *every email* in their inbox
- **Reinforcement Learning:** $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^1, r^1), \dots, (x^n, r^n)\}$ with $r^i \in \mathbb{R}$: actions and feedback how good the action was
 - ▶ backgammon: nobody tells you the best move, but eventually you observe a win or loss
- **Active Learning:** $\mathcal{D} = \{x^1, \dots, x^n\}$, but the algorithms may *ask* for labels
 - ▶ spam: email program can ask the user, if its not too often
- **Zero-Shot Learning:** $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^1, y^1), \dots, (x^n, y^n)\} \subset \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$ but only a subset of all classes actually shows up in the training data.

In this course, we don't look at these (except a little bit at unsupervised learning).

Definition

- A *supervised learning system* (or *learner*), L , is a (computable) function from the set of (finite) training sets to the set of prediction functions:

$$L : \mathbb{P}^{<\infty}(\mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}) \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}^{\mathcal{X}}$$

$$\text{i.e. } L : \mathcal{D} \mapsto f$$

If presented with a training set $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathcal{X} \times \mathcal{Y}$, it provides a decision rule/function $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$.

Definition

Let L be a learning system.

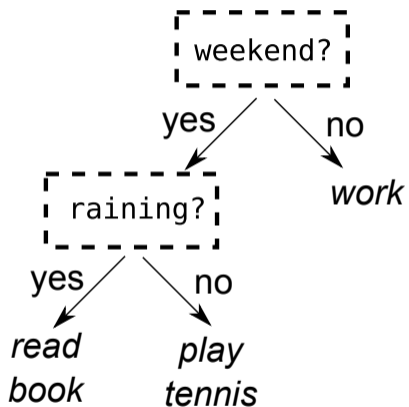
- The process of *computing* $f = L(\mathcal{D})$ is called *training (phase)*.
- Applying f to new data is called *prediction*, or *testing (phase)*.

We will look at examples of classical learning algorithms, to get a feeling what *problems* a learning system faces.

- Decision Trees
- Nearest Neighbor Classifiers
- Perceptron
- Boosting
- Artificial Neural Networks

Caveat: for each of these are there more advanced, often better, variants. Here, we look at the only as prototypes, not as guideline what to actually use in real life.

Task: decide what to do today



Classifier has a **tree structure**:

- each *interior node* makes a decision: it picks an attribute within x , branches for each possible value
- each *leaf* assigns an (output) label
- to classify a new example, we
 - ▶ put it into the root node,
 - ▶ follow the decisions until we reach a leaf.
 - ▶ use the leaf value as the prediction

Decisions trees ('expert systems') are popular especially for non-experts:

- **efficient**, **easy to use**, and **interpretable**.

How to automatically build a decision tree

Given: training set $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^1, y^1), \dots, (x^n, y^n)\}$.

Convention:

- each node contains a subset of examples,
- its label is the majority label of the examples in this node (any of the majority labels, if there's a tie)

Decision Tree – Training

initialize: put all examples in root node

mark root as *active*

repeat

pick active node with largest number of misclassified examples

mark the node as *inactive*

for each attributes, check error rate of splitting along this attribute

keep the split with smallest error, if any, and mark children as *active*

until no more active nodes.

Decision Tree – Classification

```
input decision tree, example  $x$   
  assign  $x$  to root node  
  while  $x$  not in leaf node do  
    move  $x$  to child according to the test in node  
  end while  
output label of the leaf that  $x$  is in
```


Decision Trees Example - Training

- We have a personalized dating agency, our only customer is *Zoe*.
- Task: For new customers registering, predict if *Zoe* should date them.
- Performance Measure: If *Zoe* is happy with the decision.
- Experience: We show *Zoe* a catalog of previous customers and she tells us whether she would have like to date them or not.
- Let $x \in \mathcal{X}$ be a collection of values or properties, $x = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$.

property	possible values
eye color	blue/brown/green
handsome	yes/no
height	short/tall
sex	male (M)/female (F)
soccer fan	yes/no

Preparation: you give Zoe a set of profiles to see whom she would like to date (none of these people really have to exist...)

Here's her answers, which we'll use as **training data**:

person	\mathcal{X}					\mathcal{Y}
	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?
Apu	blue	yes	tall	M	no	yes
Bernice	brown	yes	short	F	no	no
Carl	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes
Doris	green	yes	short	F	no	no
Edna	brown	no	short	F	yes	no
Prof. Frink	brown	yes	tall	M	yes	no
Gil	blue	no	tall	M	yes	no
Homer	green	yes	short	M	no	yes
Itchy	brown	no	short	M	yes	yes

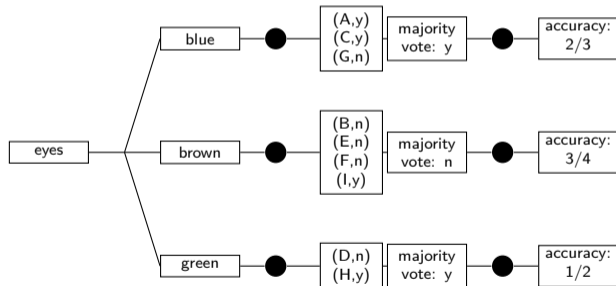
(this table is also on the exercise sheet)

Decision Trees Example - Training phase

Step 1: put all all training examples into the root node

$$\text{root} = \{ (A,y),(B,n),(C,y),(D,n),(E,n),(F,n),(G,n),(H,y),(I,y) \}$$

For each feature, check the classification accuracy of this single feature:

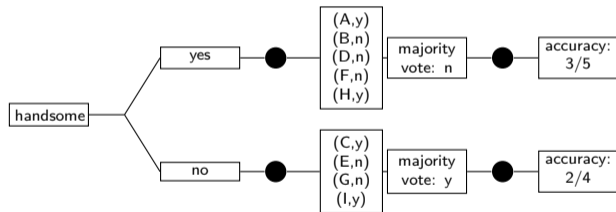


Total accuracy eyes: 6/9

Step 1: put all all training examples into the root node

$$root = \{ (A,y),(B,n),(C,y),(D,n),(E,n),(F,n),(G,n),(H,y),(I,y) \}$$

For each feature, check the classification accuracy of this single feature:



Total accuracy handsome: 5/9

Step 1: put all all training examples into the root node

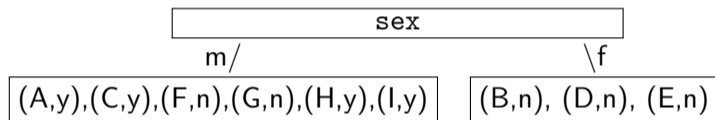
$$root = \{ (A,y),(B,n),(C,y),(D,n),(E,n),(F,n),(G,n),(H,y),(I,y) \}$$

For each feature, check the classification accuracy of this single feature:

feature	accuracies	→	total
eyes	blue: (2/3), brown: (3/4), green: (1/2)	→	total: (6/9)
handsome	yes: (3/5), no: (2/4)	→	total: (5/9)
height	tall: (2/4), short: (3/5)	→	total: (5/9)
sex	male: (4/6), female: (3/3)	→	total: (7/9)
soccer	yes: (3/4), no: (3/6)	→	total: (6/9)

Best feature: sex.

Step 1 result: first split is along sex feature



Right node: no mistakes, no more splits

Left node: run checks again for remaining data

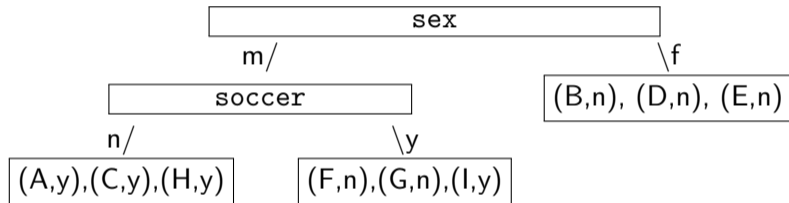
Step 2:

person	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?
Apu	blue	yes	tall	male	no	yes
Carl	blue	no	tall	male	no	yes
Frink	brown	yes	tall	male	yes	no
Gil	blue	no	tall	male	yes	no
Homer	green	yes	short	male	no	yes
Itchy	brown	no	short	male	yes	yes

feature	accuracies	→	total
eyes	blue: (2/3), brown: (1/2), green: (1/1)	→	total: (4/6)
handsome	yes: (2/3), no: (2/3)	→	total: (4/6)
height	tall: (2/4), short: (2/2)	→	total: (4/6)
sex	male: (4/6)	→	total: (4/6)
soccer	yes: (2/3), no: (3/3)	→	total: (5/6)

Best feature: soccer.

Step 2 result: second split is along soccer feature



Left node: no mistakes, no more splits

Right node: run checks again for remaining data

Step 3:

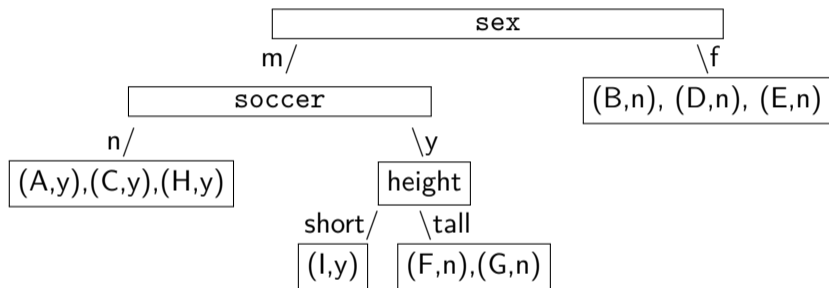
person	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?
Frink	brown	yes	tall	male	yes	no
Gil	blue	no	tall	male	yes	no
Itchy	brown	no	short	male	yes	yes

feature	accuracies	→	total
eyes	blue: (1/1), brown: (1/2), green: (0/0)	→	total: (2/3)
handsome	yes: (1/1), no: (1/2)	→	total: (2/3)
height	tall: (2/2), short: (1/1)	→	total: (3/3)
sex	male: (2/3)	→	total: (2/3)
soccer	yes: (2/3)	→	total: (2/3)

Best feature: height.

Decision Trees Example - Training phase

Step 3 result: third split is along height feature

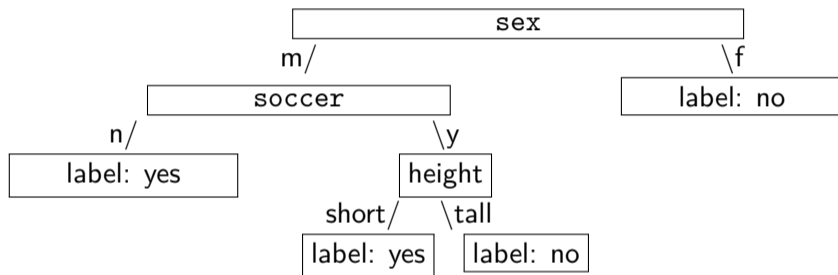


Left node: no mistakes, no more splits

Right node: no mistakes, no more splits

Decision Trees Example - Training phase

Step 3 result: third split is along height feature



Left node: no mistakes, no more splits

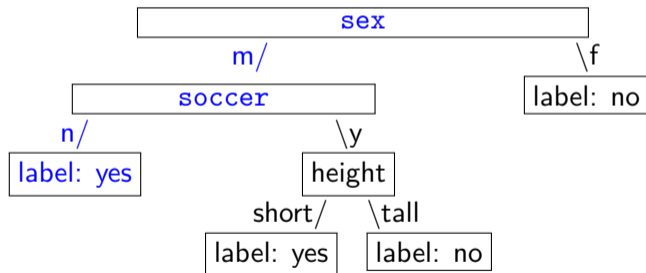
Right node: no mistakes, no more splits

→ Decision tree learning complete.

Decision Trees Example - How good is this classifier?

Training example 1: correct

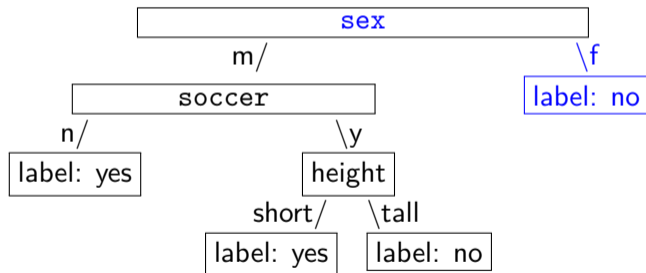
person	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?
Apu	blue	yes	tall	male	no	yes



Decision Trees Example - How good is this classifier?

Training example 2: correct

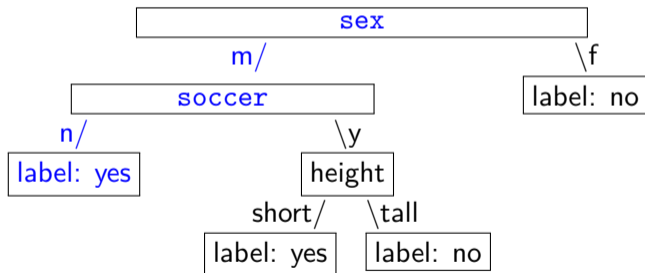
person	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?
Bernice	brown	yes	short	F	no	no



Decision Trees Example - How good is this classifier?

Training example 3: correct

person	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?
Carl	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes



- All training examples are classified correctly!

- All training examples are classified correctly!

Not overly surprising... that's how we constructed the tree.

Decision Trees Example - How good is this classifier?

What if we check on new data of the same kind?

person	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?	
Jimbo	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	
Krusty	green	yes	short	M	yes	no	
Lisa	blue	yes	tall	F	no	no	
Moe	brown	no	short	M	no	no	
Ned	brown	yes	short	M	no	yes	
Quimby	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	

Decision Trees Example - How good is this classifier?

What if we check on new data of the same kind?

person	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?	tree
Jimbo	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	yes
Krusty	green	yes	short	M	yes	no	yes
Lisa	blue	yes	tall	F	no	no	no
Moe	brown	no	short	M	no	no	yes
Ned	brown	yes	short	M	no	yes	yes
Quimby	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	yes

2 mistakes in 6, hm...

Observation

Zoe won't care if our tree classifier worked perfectly on the training data. What really matters is how it works on future data: **ability to generalize**

Observation

There is a relation between accuracy during training and accuracy at test time, but it isn't a simple one. **Perfect performance on the training set does not guarantee perfect performance on future data!**

Why did the tree make a mistake?

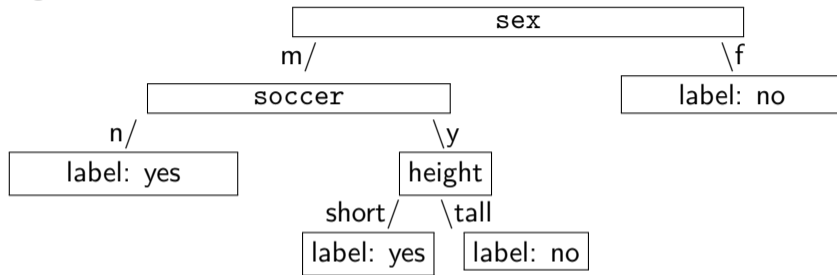
Maybe it took the training data too seriously?

Would Zoe really decide that male soccer fans are only datable, if they are *short*, but not if they are *tall*?

Let's see what happens in we simplify the tree?

Decision Trees Example - How good is this classifier?

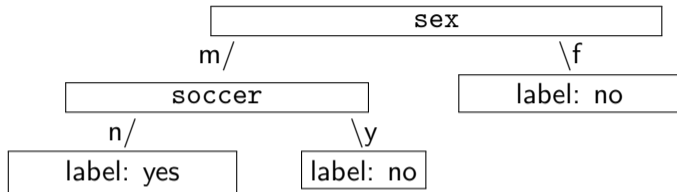
Original four-level tree: 2 mistakes in 6.



person	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?	tree
Jimbo	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	yes
Krusty	green	yes	short	M	yes	no	yes
Lisa	blue	yes	tall	F	no	no	no
Moe	brown	no	short	M	no	no	yes
Ned	brown	yes	short	M	no	yes	yes
Quimby	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	yes

Decision Trees Example - How good is this classifier?

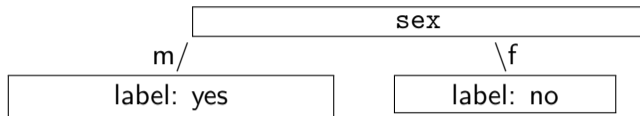
Tree with three levels: 1 mistake in 6.



person	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?	tree
Jimbo	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	yes
Krusty	green	yes	short	M	yes	no	no
Lisa	blue	yes	tall	F	no	no	no
Moe	brown	no	short	M	no	no	yes
Ned	brown	yes	short	M	no	yes	yes
Quimby	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	yes

Decision Trees Example - How good is this classifier?

Tree with two levels: 2 mistakes in 6.



person	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?	tree
Jimbo	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	yes
Krusty	green	yes	short	M	yes	no	yes
Lisa	blue	yes	tall	F	no	no	no
Moe	brown	no	short	M	no	no	yes
Ned	brown	yes	short	M	no	yes	yes
Quimby	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	yes

Decision Trees Example - How good is this classifier?

Tree with one level: 3 mistakes in 6.

label: no

person	eyes	handsome	height	sex	soccer	date?	tree
Jimbo	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	no
Krusty	green	yes	short	M	yes	no	no
Lisa	blue	yes	tall	F	no	no	no
Moe	brown	no	short	M	no	no	no
Ned	brown	yes	short	M	no	yes	no
Quimby	blue	no	tall	M	no	yes	no

Decision Trees Example - How good is this classifier?

Error analysis:

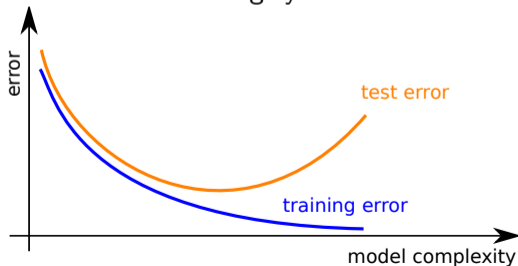
size	training error	test error
height 1	4/9	3/6
height 2	2/9	2/6
height 3	1/9	1/6
height 4 (full)	0/9	2/6

Decision Trees Example - How good is this classifier?

Error analysis:

size	training error	test error
height 1	4/9	3/6
height 2	2/9	2/6
height 3	1/9	1/6
height 4 (full)	0/9	2/6

Typical behaviour of classical machine learning systems:



Classifiers can have different **complexity**:

- **Complexity** has impact on both: training error and testing error.
- Training error: usually decreases with increasing complexity
- Test error: first decreases, then might go up again.

Test error behavior is so common that it has its own name:

- too simple models: high test error due to **underfitting**
 - ▶ the model cannot absorb the information from the training data
- too complex models: high test error due to **overfitting**
 - ▶ the model tries to reproduce idiosyncracies of the training data that future data will not have

Optimal classifier has a complexity somewhere inbetween, but:

- we cannot tell from either training error or test error alone if we underfit, overfit or neither
- seeing the complete *curve* will tell us!

- Categorical data can often be handled nicely by a tree.
- For continuous data, $\mathcal{X} = \mathbb{R}^d$, one typically uses splits by comparing any coordinate by a threshold: $\llbracket x_i \geq \theta \rrbracket$?
- Finding a split consists of checking all $i = 1, \dots, d$ and all (reasonable) thresholds, e.g. all x_i^1, \dots, x_i^n
- If d is large, and all dimension are roughly of equal importance (e.g. time series), this is tedious, and the resulting tree might not be good.

Caveat: single decision trees are rarely used for real-world systems these days. But related techniques are, in particular *random forests*.

Nearest Neighbor – Training

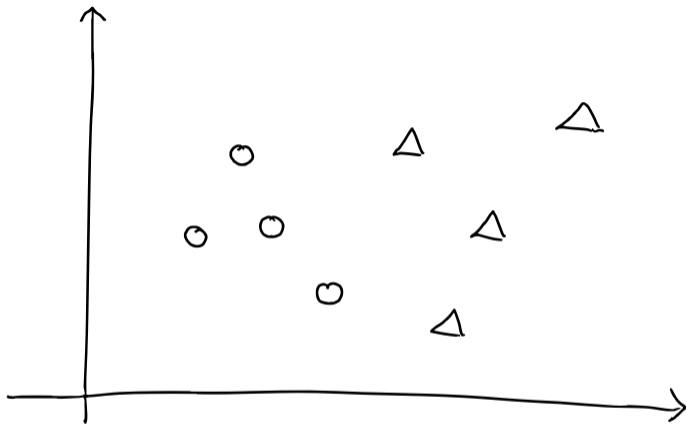
input dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^1, y^1), \dots, (x^n, y^n)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathcal{Y}$
store all examples $(x^1, y^1), \dots, (x^n, y^n)$.

Nearest Neighbor – Prediction

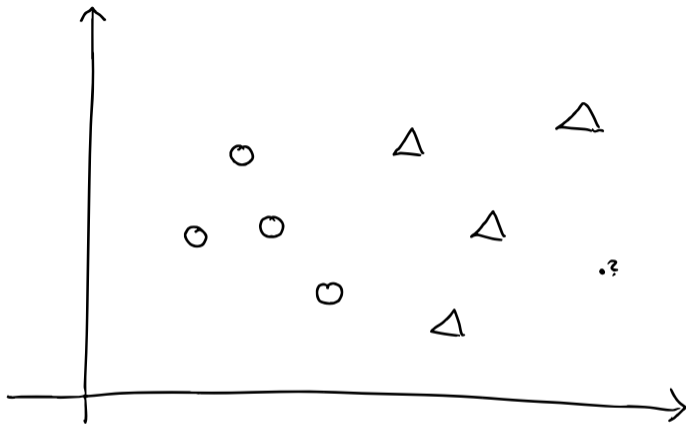
input new example $x \in \mathbb{R}^d$
for each training example (x^i, y^i)
compute $dist_i(x) = \|x - x^i\|$ (Euclidean distance)
output y^j for $j = \operatorname{argmin}_j dist_i(x)$

(if **argmin** is not unique, pick between possible examples)

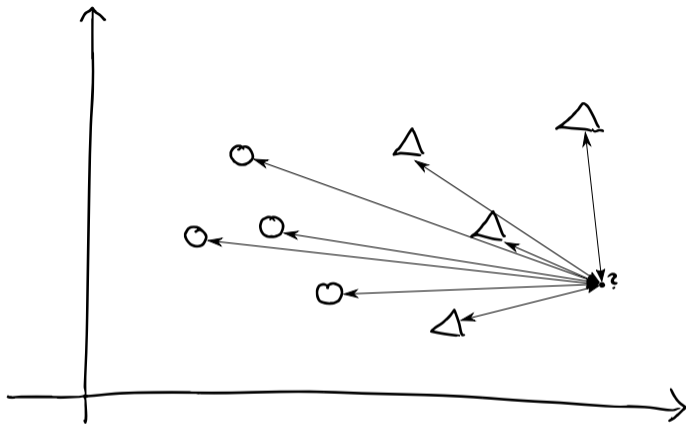
Nearest Neighbor – Illustration



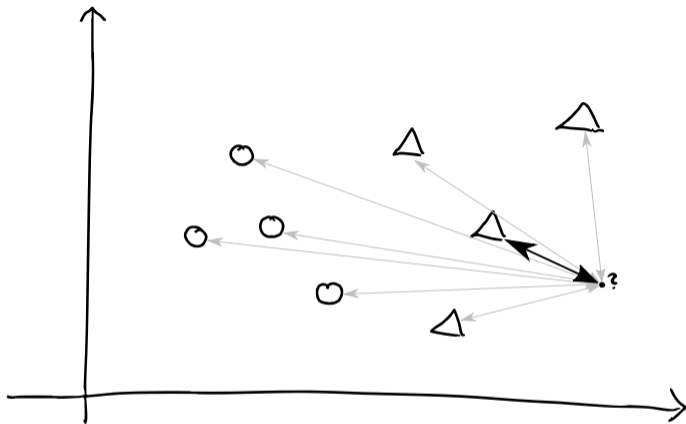
Nearest Neighbor – Illustration



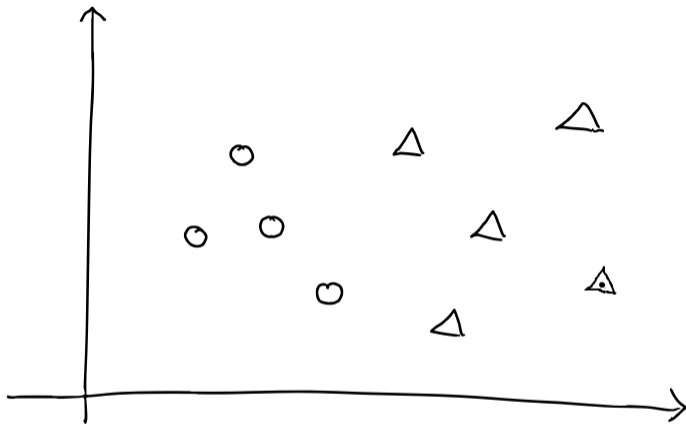
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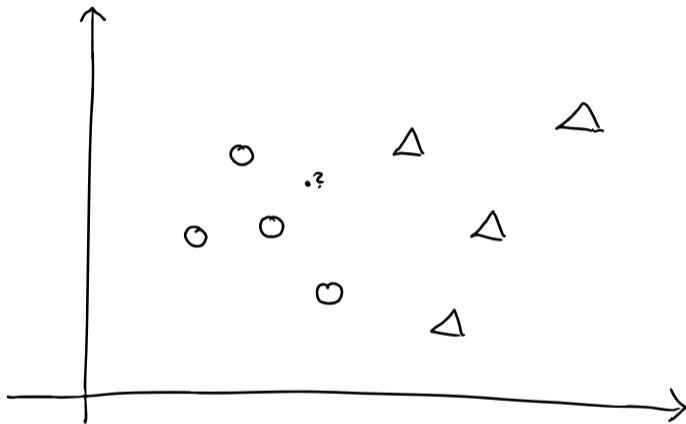
Nearest Neighbor – Illustration



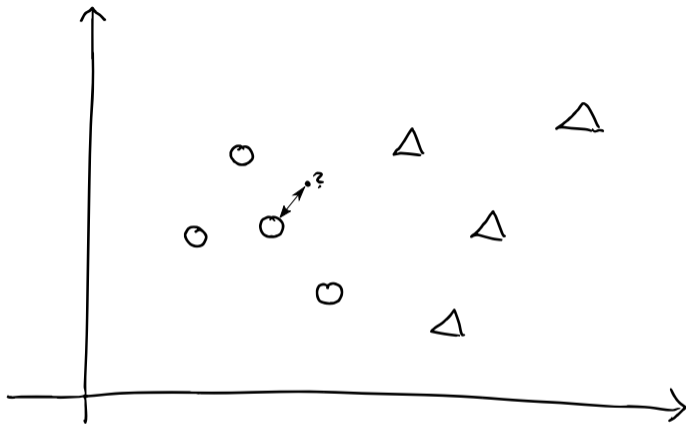
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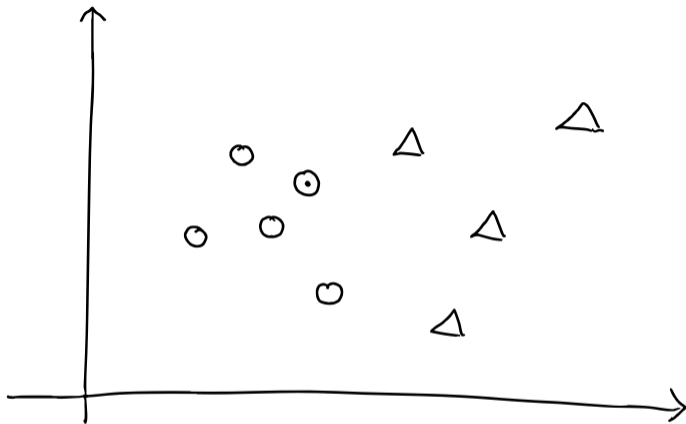
Nearest Neighbor – Illustration



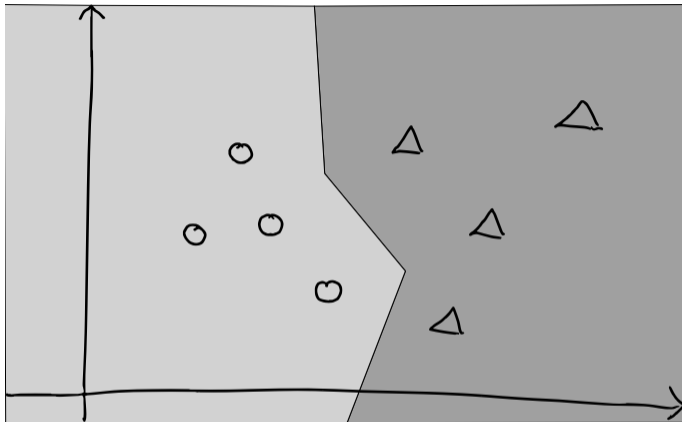
Nearest Neighbor – Illustration

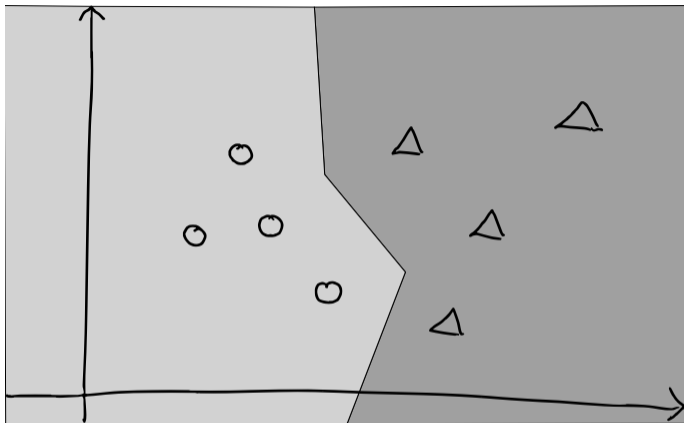


Nearest Neighbor – Illustration



Nearest Neighbor – Illustration





Definition (Decision Boundary)

Let $f : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \mathcal{Y}$ be a classifier with discrete $\mathcal{Y} = \{1, \dots, M\}$. The points where f is *discontinuous* are called *decision boundary*.

Nearest Neighbor

Nearest Neighbor prediction in the real world:

- very natural and intuitive
- we apply it without even considering it "learning" or "prediction"
- very popular in industry under a variety of names, e.g. 'case based reasoning',
Example: helpdesk **"Similar problems have similar solutions"**.

From a machine learning point of view:

- consider data as points in a (potentially high-dim.) vector space
- distance between two points tells us their *similarity*
- **Similar points tend to have the same label.**

We can also use NN for categorical labels: embed values into \mathbb{R}^d , e.g.

$$x_{Apu} = \left(\underbrace{1}_{\text{blue}}, \underbrace{0}_{\text{brown}}, \underbrace{0}_{\text{green}}, \underbrace{1}_{\text{handsome}}, \underbrace{0}_{\text{not handsome}}, \underbrace{1}_{\text{tall}}, \underbrace{0}_{\text{short}}, \underbrace{1}_{\text{male}}, \underbrace{0}_{\text{female}}, \underbrace{1}_{\text{soccer}}, \underbrace{0}_{\text{not soccer}} \right)$$

More general than nearest neighbor:

k -Nearest Neighbor – Training

input dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x^1, y^1), \dots, (x^n, y^n)\} \subset \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathcal{Y}$
store all examples $(x^1, y^1), \dots, (x^n, y^n)$.

k -Nearest Neighbor – Classification

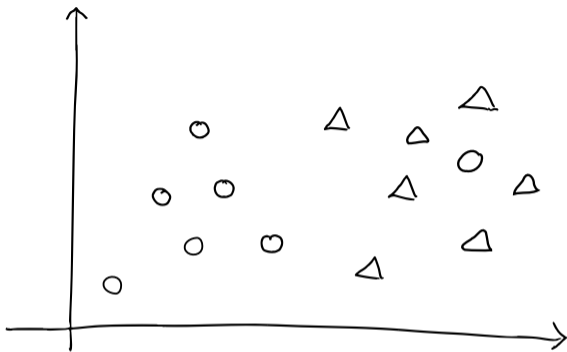
input new example x

for each training example (x^i, y^i) compute $d_i(x) = \|x - x^i\|$ (Euclidean distance)
sort d_i in increasing order

output majority vote among y^i 's within the k smallest d^i

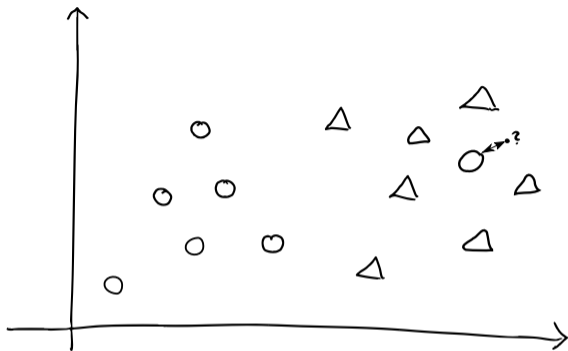
$k = 1$:

- original nearest neighbor rule
- any "outlier" influences the decision boundary



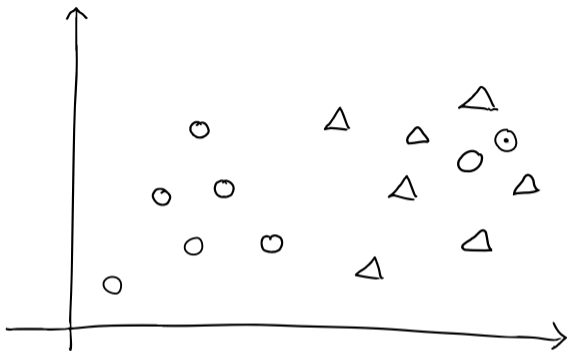
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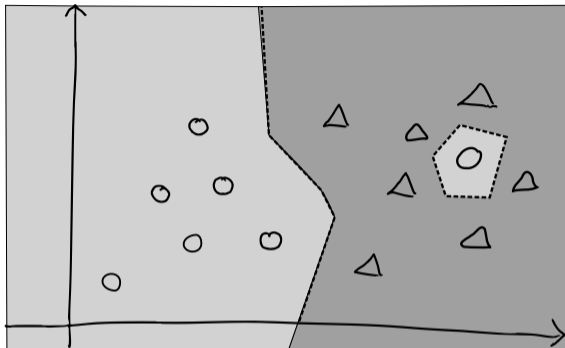
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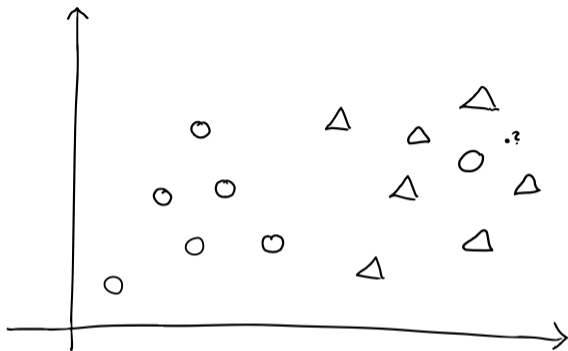
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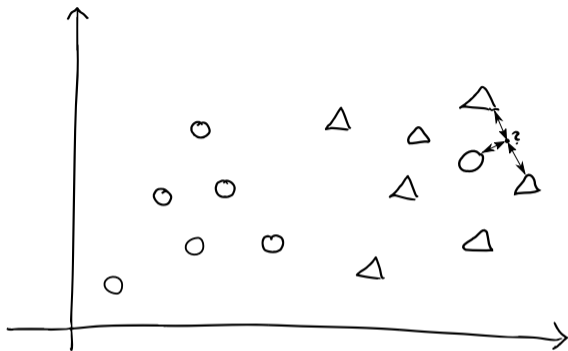
$k = 3$:

- isolated outliers are ignored
- decision boundary becomes smoother



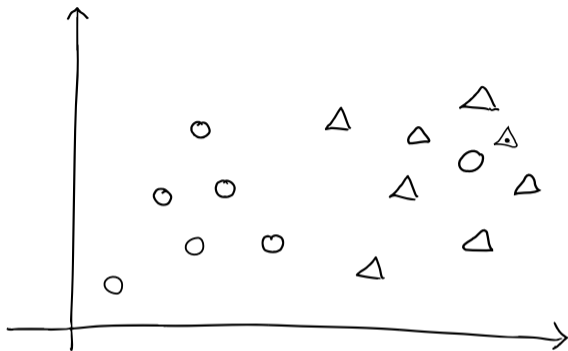
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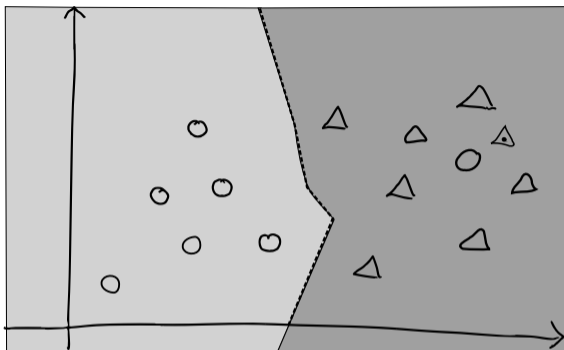
$k = 3$:

- isolated outliers are ignored
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$k = 3$:

- isolated outliers are ignored
- decision boundary becomes smoother



Observation: k controls the complexity of the model:

- $k = 1$, decisions based on a single (most similar) example at a time, this might have an unreliable label (overfitting).
- $k = n$, all new points are classified with the label (underfitting).
- as before: there's a sweet spot inbetween.

So far we've seen two classifiers:

- decision tree: picks a few important features to base decision on
- k -NN: all features contribute equally (to Euclidean distance)

Often, neither is optimal:

- we have many features, we want to make use of them.
- but some features are more useful or reliable than others.

Idea: learn how important each feature, x_j , is by a weight, w_j

Perceptron algorithm: inspired by (early) neuroscience:

- neurons form a weighted sum of their inputs $x = (x_1, \dots, x_d)$
- they output a spike if the result exceeds a threshold, θ

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } \sum_j w_j x_j \geq \theta \\ -1 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} = \text{sign} (\langle w, x \rangle - \theta).$$

Perceptron – Training (for $\theta = 0$)

```
input training set  $\mathcal{D} \subset \mathbb{R}^d \times \{-1, +1\}$   
initialize  $w = (0, \dots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}^d$ .  
repeat  
  for all  $(x, y) \in \mathcal{D}$ : do  
    compute  $a := \langle w, x \rangle$  ('activation')  
    if  $ya \leq 0$  then  
       $w \leftarrow w + yx$   
    end if  
  end for  
until  $w$  wasn't updated for a complete pass over  $\mathcal{D}$ 
```

Perceptron – Classification (for $\theta = 0$)

```
input new example  $x$   
output  $f(x) = \text{sign}\langle w, x \rangle$       by convention,  $\text{sign}(0) = -1$ 
```

Perceptron – Example

$$\mathcal{D}: (x^1, y^1) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, +1 \right), (x^2, y^2) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, +1 \right), (x^3, y^3) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}, -1 \right).$$

Round 1:

- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 1: \langle w, x^1 \rangle = 0$, $1 \cdot 0 = 0 \leq 0 \rightarrow$ update

$$w_{new} = w_{old} + 1 \cdot \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 2: \langle w, x^2 \rangle = 4$, $1 \cdot 4 = 4 \not\leq 0 \rightarrow$ no change

- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 3: \langle w, x^3 \rangle = 7$, $(-1) \cdot 7 = -7 \leq 0 \rightarrow$ update

$$w_{new} = w_{old} + (-1) \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\mathcal{D}: (x^1, y^1) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, +1 \right), (x^2, y^2) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, +1 \right), (x^3, y^3) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}, -1 \right).$$

Round 2:

- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 1: \langle w, x^1 \rangle = 3$, $1 \cdot 3 = 3 \not\leq 0 \rightarrow$ no change

- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 2 \\ -3 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 2: \langle w, x^2 \rangle = -1$, $1 \cdot (-1) = -1 \leq 0$

$$\rightarrow w_{new} = w_{old} + 1 \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$$

- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 3: \langle w, x^3 \rangle = -5$, $(-1) \cdot (-5) = 5 \not\leq 0$
 \rightarrow no change

Perceptron – Example

$$\mathcal{D}: (x^1, y^1) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, +1 \right), (x^2, y^2) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, +1 \right), (x^3, y^3) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}, -1 \right).$$

Round 3:

- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 1: \langle w, x^1 \rangle = 7, \quad 1 \cdot 7 = 7 \not\leq 0$
- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 2: \langle w, x^2 \rangle = 1, \quad 1 \cdot 1 = 1 \not\leq 0$
- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 3: \langle w, x^3 \rangle = -5, \quad (-5) \cdot (-1) = 5 \not\leq 0$

nothing changed for 1 complete round: converged

Perceptron – Example

$$\mathcal{D}: (x^1, y^1) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, +1 \right), (x^2, y^2) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, +1 \right), (x^3, y^3) = \left(\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 4 \end{pmatrix}, -1 \right).$$

Round 3:

- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 1: \langle w, x^1 \rangle = 7$, $1 \cdot 7 = 7 \not\leq 0$
- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 2: \langle w, x^2 \rangle = 1$, $1 \cdot 1 = 1 \not\leq 0$
- $w = \begin{pmatrix} 3 \\ -2 \end{pmatrix}$, $i = 3: \langle w, x^3 \rangle = -5$, $(-5) \cdot (-1) = 5 \not\leq 0$

nothing changed for 1 complete round: converged

Final classifier: $f(x) = \text{sign}(3 \cdot x_1 - 2 \cdot x_2)$

Limitation: always has a *linear* decision boundary, might not converge

Learning algorithms come in all kind of forms and flavors:

- tree structured, "expert systems"
- similarity-based, geometric
- linear thresholding function
- weighted combinations of simpler units (→ next lecture)
- iterated/stacked combinations of simpler units (→ next lecture)

Learning algorithms come in all kind of forms and flavors:

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Machine learning research

- studies their properties
- provides tools for choosing between different methods
- allows constructing new ones (with better properties)