Introduction to Artificial Intelligence Introduction Single-Layer Perceptron

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Adapting Filtering Problem

- Definition
- Description of the Behavior of the System
- 3 Unconstrained Optimization
 - Introduction
 - Method of Steepest Descent
 - Newton's Method
 - Gauss-Newton Method
- 4 Linear Least-Squares Filter
 - Introduction
 - Least-Mean-Square (LMS) Algorithm
 - Convergence of the LMS

Perceptron

- Objective
- Perceptron: Local Field of a Neuron
- Perceptron: One Neuron Structure
- Deriving the Algorithm
- Under Linear Separability Convergence happens!!!
- Proof
- Algorithm Using Error-Correcting
- Final Perceptron Algorithm (One Version)
- Other Algorithms for the Perceptron





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At the beginning of Neural Networks (1943 - 1958)

- McCulloch and Pitts (1943) for introducing the idea of neural networks as computing machines.
- Resemblatt (1958) for proposing the perceptron as the first model for learning with a teacher (i.e., supervised learning).



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In this chapter, we are interested in the perceptron

The perceptron is the simplest form of a neural network used for the classifica tion of patterns said to be linearly separable (i.e., patterns that lie on opposite sides of a hyperplane).



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In addition

Something Notable

- The single neuron also forms the basis of an adaptive filter.
- A functional block that is basic to the ever-expanding subject of signal processing.





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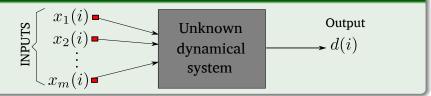
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Adapting Filtering Problem

Consider a dynamical system

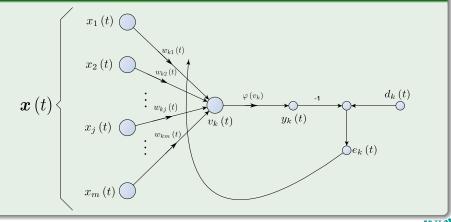




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Signal-Flow Graph of Adaptive Model







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Description of the Behavior of the System

We have the data set

$$\mathcal{T} = \{ (\boldsymbol{x}(i), d(i)) | i = 1, 2, ..., n, ... \}$$
(1)

Where

$\boldsymbol{x}(i) = (x_1(i), x_2(i) ..., x_m(i))^T$ (2)

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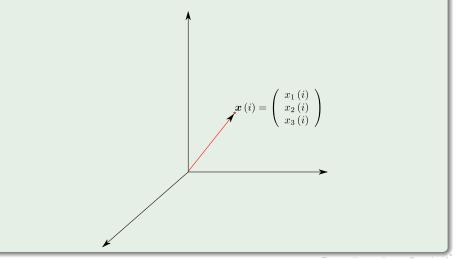
$$\boldsymbol{x}(i) = (x_1(i), x_2(i), ..., x_m(i))^T$$
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The Stimulus $\boldsymbol{x}\left(i\right)$

The stimulus $\boldsymbol{x}(i)$ can arise from

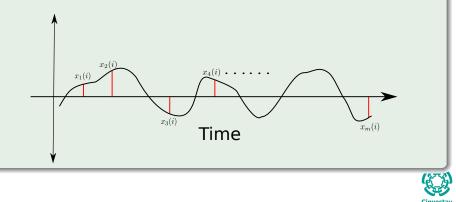
The m elements of $\boldsymbol{x}(i)$ originate at different points in space (spatial)



The Stimulus $\boldsymbol{x}\left(i\right)$

The stimulus $\boldsymbol{x}(i)$ can arise from

The *m* elements of x(i) represent the set of present and (m-1) past values of some excitation that are uniformly spaced in time (temporal).



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Problem

Quite important

How do we design a multiple input-single output model of the unknown dynamical system?

It is more

We want to build this around a single neuron!!!



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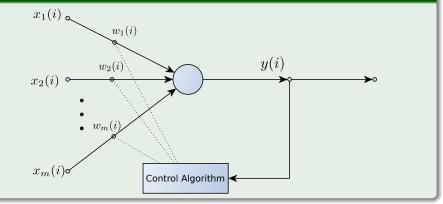
We want to build this around a single neuron!!!



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Thus, we have the following...

We need an algorithm to control the weight adjustment of the neuron





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Which steps do you need for the algorithm?

First

The algorithms starts from an arbitrary setting of the neuron's synaptic weight.

Second

Adjustments, with respect to changes on the environment, are made on a continuous basis.



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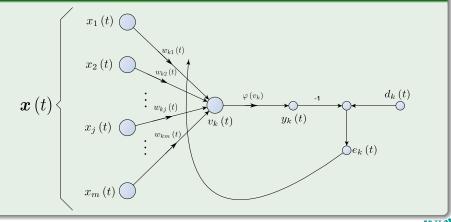
Third

Computation of adjustments to synaptic weights are completed inside a time interval that is one sampling period long.



Signal-Flow Graph of Adaptive Model







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Thus, This Neural Model \approx Adaptive Filter with two continous processes

Filtering processes

- An output, denoted by y(i), that is produced in response to the m elements of the stimulus vector $\boldsymbol{x}(i)$.
- ② An error signal, e(i), that is obtained by comparing the output y(i) to the corresponding desired output d(i) produced by the unknown system.

Adaptive Process

It involves the automatic adjustment of the synaptic weights of the neuron in accordance with the error signal e(i)

Remark

The combination of these two processes working together constitutes a **feedback loop** acting around the neuron.

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Thus

The output y(i) is exactly the same as the induced local field v(i)

$$y(i) = v(i) = \sum_{i=1}^{m} w_k(i) x_k(i)$$
 (3)

In matrix form, we have - remember we only have a neuron, so we do not have neuron \boldsymbol{k}

$$y\left(i\right) = \boldsymbol{x}^{T}\left(i\right)\boldsymbol{w}\left(i\right) \tag{4}$$

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Error

$e\left(i\right) = d\left(i\right) - y\left(i\right)$



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(5)

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Consider

A continous differentiable function $J(\boldsymbol{w})$

We want to find an optimal solution w^st such that

$$J\left(\boldsymbol{w}^{*}\right) \leq J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\right), \; \forall \boldsymbol{w}$$

We want to

Minimize the cost function $J(oldsymbol{w})$ with respect to the weight vector $oldsymbol{w}.$

For this

$$abla J(oldsymbol{w}) = 0$$



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(6)

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Minimize the cost function J(w) with respect to the weight vector w.



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We want to

Minimize the cost function J(w) with respect to the weight vector w.

For this

$$\nabla J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\right)=0$$

(7)

(6)



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Where

$\boldsymbol{\nabla}$ is the gradient operator

$$\nabla = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial w_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial w_2}, ..., \frac{\partial}{\partial w_m}\right]^T$$
(8)





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$$\nabla = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial w_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial w_2}, ..., \frac{\partial}{\partial w_m}\right]^T$$
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Thus

$$\nabla J(\boldsymbol{w}) = \left[\frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_1}, \frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_2}, ..., \frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_m}\right]^T$$
(9)





Starting with an initial guess denoted by $oldsymbol{w}(0)$,

Then, generate a sequence of weight vectors $\boldsymbol{w}\left(1\right), \boldsymbol{w}\left(2\right), ...$

Such that you can reduce $J\left(oldsymbol{w} ight)$ at each iteration

$$J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n+1\right)\right) < J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right)\right)$$

(10)

Where: $oldsymbol{w}\left(n
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Then, generate a sequence of weight vectors $\boldsymbol{w}\left(1\right), \boldsymbol{w}\left(2\right), ...$

Such that you can reduce $J(\boldsymbol{w})$ at each iteration

$$J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n+1\right)\right) < J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right)\right) \tag{10}$$

Where: w(n) is the old value and w(n+1) is the new value.



The Three Main Methods for Unconstrained Optimization

We will look at

- Steepest Descent.
- Newton's Method
- Gauss-Newton Method



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Steepest Descent

In the method of steepest descent, we have a cost function $J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\right)$ where

$$\boldsymbol{w}(n+1) = \boldsymbol{w}(n) - \eta \nabla J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))$$

How, we prove that $J\left(oldsymbol{w}\left(n+1 ight) ight) < J\left(oldsymbol{w}\left(n ight) ight)$

We use the first-order Taylor series expansion around $oldsymbol{w}\left(n
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 $J\left(oldsymbol{w}\left(n+1
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ight)pprox J\left(oldsymbol{w}\left(n
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abla J^{T}\left(oldsymbol{w}\left(n
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Remark: This is quite true when the step size is quite small!!! In addition, $\Delta \boldsymbol{w}\left(n
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How, we prove that $J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)) < J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))$?

We use the first-order Taylor series expansion around $oldsymbol{w}\left(n
ight)$

$$J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)) \approx J(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) + \nabla J^{T}(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) \Delta \boldsymbol{w}(n)$$
(11)

Remark: This is quite true when the step size is quite small!!! In addition, $\Delta w(n) = w(n+1) - w(n)$



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Why? Look at the case in ${\mathbb R}$

The equation of the tangent line to the curve y = J(w(n))

$$L(w(n)) = J'(w(n))[w(n+1) - w(n)] + J(w(n))$$
(12)

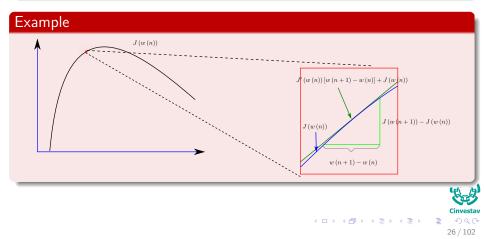
Example



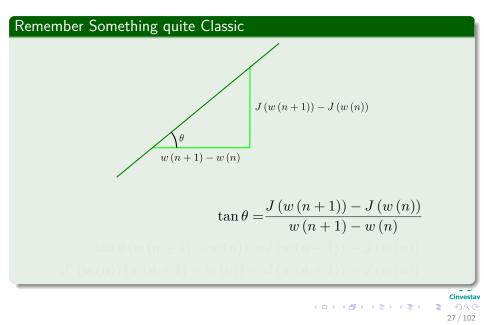
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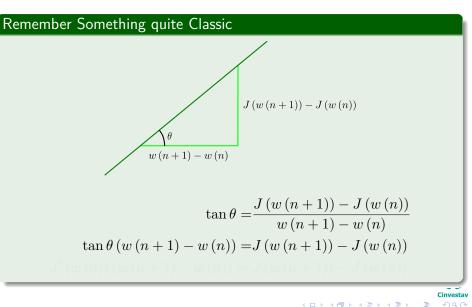
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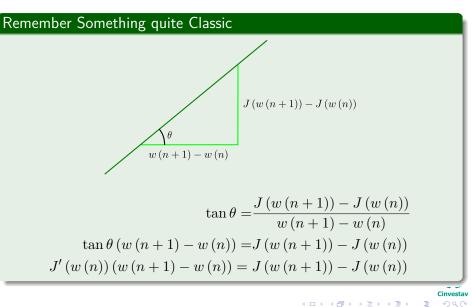


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Thus, we have that

Using the First Taylor expansion

$$J(w(n)) \approx J(w(n)) + J'(w(n))[w(n+1) - w(n)]$$
(13)

Now, for Many Variables

An hyperplane in \mathbb{R}^n is a set of the form

$$H = \left\{ \boldsymbol{x} | \boldsymbol{a}^T \boldsymbol{x} = b \right\}$$
(14)

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Given $oldsymbol{x}\in H$ and $oldsymbol{x}_0\in H$.

$$b = \boldsymbol{a}^T \boldsymbol{x} = \boldsymbol{a}^T \boldsymbol{x}_0$$

Thus, we have that

$$H = \left\{ oldsymbol{x} | oldsymbol{a}^T \left(oldsymbol{x} - oldsymbol{x}_0
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Thus, we have the following definition

Definition (Differentiability)

Assume that J is defined in a disk D containing $\bm{w}\,(n).$ We say that J is differentiable at $\bm{w}\,(n)$ if:

 $\frac{\partial J(w(n))}{\partial w_i}$ exist for all i=1,...,n.

) J is locally linear at $oldsymbol{w}\left(n
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Thus, given $J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right)\right)$

We know that we have the following operator

$$\nabla = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial w_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial w_2}, ..., \frac{\partial}{\partial w_m}\right)$$
(15)

I hus, we have



Where: $\hat{m}_{1}^{2} = (0, 0, ..., 0) \in \mathbb{R}^{2}$



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Thus, given $J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))$

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Thus, we have

$$\nabla J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right)\right) = \left(\frac{\partial J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right)\right)}{\partial w_{1}}, \frac{\partial J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right)\right)}{\partial w_{2}}, ..., \frac{\partial J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right)\right)}{\partial w_{m}}\right)$$
$$= \sum_{i=1}^{m} \hat{w}_{i} \frac{\partial J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right)\right)}{\partial w_{i}}$$

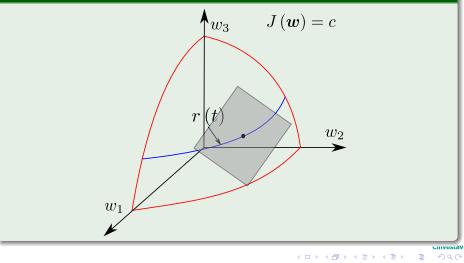
Where: $\hat{w}_i^T = (1, 0, ..., 0) \in \mathbb{R}$



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Now

Given a curve function r(t) that lies on the level set $J(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) = c$ (When is in \mathbb{R}^3)



Level Set

Definition

$$\{(w_1, w_2, ..., w_m) \in \mathbb{R}^m | J(w_1, w_2, ..., w_m) = c\}$$
(16)

 $\label{eq:Remark: In a normal Calculus course we will use x and f instead of w and J.}$



Any curve has the following parametrization

$$r:[a,b] \to \mathbb{R}^{m}$$
$$r(t) = (w_{1}(t),...,w_{m}(t))$$

With $r(n + 1) = (w_1 (n + 1), ..., w_m (n + 1))$

We can write the parametrized version of i

 $z(t) = J(w_1(t), w_2(t), ..., w_m(t)) = c$ (17)

Differentiating with respect to *l* and using the chain rule for multiple variables

$$\frac{dz(t)}{dt} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(t\right)\right)}{\partial w_{i}} \cdot \frac{dw_{i}(t)}{dt} = 0$$
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With $r(n+1) = (w_1(n+1), ..., w_m(n+1))$

We can write the parametrized version of it

$$z(t) = J(w_1(t), w_2(t), ..., w_m(t)) = c$$
(17)

Differentiating with respect to \boldsymbol{t} and using the chain rule for multiple variables

$$\frac{dz(t)}{dt} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(t\right)\right)}{\partial w_{i}} \cdot \frac{dw_{i}(t)}{dt} = 0$$
(18)

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Note

First

Given
$$y = f(\boldsymbol{u}) = (f_1(\boldsymbol{u}), ..., f_l(\boldsymbol{u}))$$
 and $\boldsymbol{u} = g(\boldsymbol{x}) = (g_1(\boldsymbol{x}), ..., g_m(\boldsymbol{x})).$

We have then that

 $\frac{\partial\left(f_{1},f_{2},...,f_{l}\right)}{\partial\left(x_{1},x_{2},...,x_{k}\right)} = \frac{\partial\left(f_{1},f_{2},...,f_{l}\right)}{\partial\left(g_{1},g_{2},...,g_{m}\right)} \cdot \frac{\partial\left(g_{1},g_{2},...,g_{m}\right)}{\partial\left(x_{1},x_{2},...,x_{k}\right)}$

Thus

 $\frac{\partial (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_l)}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_l)}{\partial (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m)} \cdot \frac{\partial (g_1, g_2, \dots, g_m)}{\partial x_i}$ $= \sum_{k=1}^m \frac{\partial (f_1, f_2, \dots, f_l)}{\partial g_k} \frac{\partial g_k}{\partial x_i}$

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Evaluating at t = n

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right)\right)}{\partial w_{i}} \cdot \frac{dw_{i}(n)}{dt} = 0$$

We have that

$abla J\left(oldsymbol{w}\left(n ight) ight) \cdot r'\left(n ight) =0$

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This proves that for every level set the gradient is perpendicular to the tangent to any curve that lies on the level set

In particular to the point $oldsymbol{w}\left(n
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Now the tangent plane to the surface can be described generally

Thus

$$L(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)) = J(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) + \nabla J^{T}(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) [\boldsymbol{w}(n+1) - \boldsymbol{w}(n)]$$
 (21)

This looks like

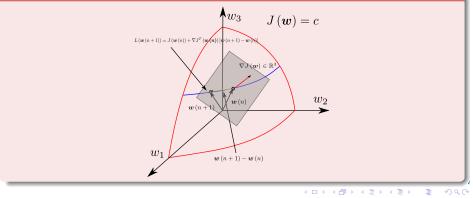


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Proving the fact about the Steepest Descent

We want the following

$$J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n+1\right)\right) < J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right)\right)$$

Using the first-order Taylor approximation

 $J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)) - J(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) \approx \nabla J^{T}(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) \Delta \boldsymbol{w}(n)$

So, we ask the following

 $\Delta oldsymbol{w}\left(n
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$J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n+1 ight) ight) - J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(n ight) ight) < 0$

Or

 $J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)) < J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))$





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Newton's Method

Here

The basic idea of Newton's method is to minimize the quadratic approximation of the cost function J(w) around the current point w(n).

Using a second-order Taylor series expansion of the cost function around the point $m{w}\left(n ight)$

 $\Delta J \left(\boldsymbol{w} \left(n \right) \right) = J \left(\boldsymbol{w} \left(n + 1 \right) \right) - J \left(\boldsymbol{w} \left(n \right) \right)$ $\approx \nabla J^{T} \left(\boldsymbol{w} \left(n \right) \right) \Delta \boldsymbol{w} \left(n \right) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta \boldsymbol{w}^{T} \left(n \right) H \left(n \right) \Delta \boldsymbol{w} \left(n \right)$

Where given that $oldsymbol{w}\left(n ight)$ is a vector with dimension m

$$oldsymbol{v}) = egin{pmatrix} rac{\partial^2 J(oldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_1^2} & rac{\partial^2 J(oldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_1 \partial w_2} & \cdots & rac{\partial^2 J(oldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_1 \partial w_m} \ rac{\partial^2 J(oldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_2 \partial w_1} & rac{\partial^2 J(oldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_2^2} & \cdots & rac{\partial^2 J(oldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_2 \partial w_m} \ dots & dots &$$

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$$\boldsymbol{w}) = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial^2 J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_1^2} & \frac{\partial^2 J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_1 \partial w_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_1 \partial w_m} \\ \frac{\partial^2 J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_2 \partial w_1} & \frac{\partial^2 J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_2^2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_2 \partial w_m} \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \frac{\partial^2 J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_m \partial w_1} & \frac{\partial^2 J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_m \partial w_2} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^2 J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_m^2} \end{pmatrix}$$

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Now, we want to minimize $J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1))$

Do you have any idea?

Look again

$$J(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) + \nabla J^{T}(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) \Delta \boldsymbol{w}(n) + \frac{1}{2} \Delta \boldsymbol{w}^{T}(n) H(n) \Delta \boldsymbol{w}(n)$$
 (22)

Derive with respect to $\Delta oldsymbol{w}$ ($oldsymbol{n}$

$$abla J(\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{n})) + H(n) \Delta \boldsymbol{w}(n) = 0$$

Thus

 $\Delta \boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right) = -H^{-1}\left(n\right)\nabla J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\left(\boldsymbol{n}\right)\right)$



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The Final Method

Define the following

$$J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)) - J(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) = -H^{-1}(n) \nabla J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))$$

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We have then an error

Something Notable

$$J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\right) = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n}e^{2}\left(i\right)$$

Thus using the first order Taylor expansion, we linearize

$$e_{l}\left(i,w
ight)=e\left(i
ight)+\left[rac{\partial e\left(i
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matrix form

 $\boldsymbol{e}_{l}\left(n,\boldsymbol{w}
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In matrix form

$$\boldsymbol{e}_{l}(n, \boldsymbol{w}) = \boldsymbol{e}(n) + \mathsf{J}(n) [\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}(n)]$$



The error vector is equal to

$$e(n) = [e(1), e(2), ..., e(n)]^T$$

Thus, we get the famous Jacobian once we derive i



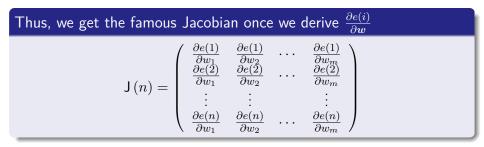


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Ideas

What if we expand out the equation?



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Ideas

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Expanded Version

We get

$$\frac{1}{2} \|\boldsymbol{e}_{l}(n,\boldsymbol{w})\|^{2} = \frac{1}{2} \|\boldsymbol{e}(n)\|^{2} + \boldsymbol{e}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{J}(n) (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}(n)) + \dots$$
$$\frac{1}{2} (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}(n))^{T} \boldsymbol{J}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{J}(n) (\boldsymbol{w} - \boldsymbol{w}(n))$$



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Now, doing the Differential, we get

Differentiating the equation with respect to $oldsymbol{w}$

$$\mathsf{J}^{T}\left(n\right)\boldsymbol{e}\left(n\right)+\mathsf{J}^{T}\left(n\right)\mathsf{J}\left(n\right)\left[\boldsymbol{w}-\boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right)\right]=0$$

We get finally

 $w(n+1) = w(n) - (J^{T}(n)J(n))^{-1}J^{T}(n)e(n)$ (25)



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Remarks

We have that

- The Newton's method that requires knowledge of the Hessian matrix of the cost function.
- The Gauss-Newton method only requires the Jacobian matrix of the error vector $\boldsymbol{e}\left(n\right)$.

However

The Gauss-Newton iteration to be computable, the matrix product $\mathsf{J}^T\left(n
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Introduction

A linear least-squares filter has two distinctive characteristics

- First, the single neuron around which it is built is linear.
- The cost function $J\left(\boldsymbol{w} \right)$ used to design the filter consists of the sum of error squares.

hus, expressing the error

$$e(n) = d(n) - (\boldsymbol{x}(1), ..., \boldsymbol{x}(n))^T \boldsymbol{w}(n)$$

Short Version - error is linear in the weight vector $oldsymbol{w}\left(n ight)$

$$e(n) = d(n) - \boldsymbol{X}(n) \boldsymbol{w}(n)$$

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- Where d(n) is a $n \times 1$ desired response vector.
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Short Version - error is linear in the weight vector $\boldsymbol{w}(n)$

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- Where d(n) is a $n \times 1$ desired response vector.
- Where $\boldsymbol{X}(n)$ is the $n \times m$ data matrix.

Now, differentiate e(n) with respect to $\boldsymbol{w}(n)$

Thus

$$\nabla e\left(n\right) = -\boldsymbol{X}^{T}\left(n\right)$$

Correspondingly, the Jacobian of e(n) i

$$\mathsf{J}\left(n\right)=-\boldsymbol{X}\left(n\right)$$

Let us to use the Gaussian-Newton

 $w(n+1) = w(n) - \left(\mathsf{J}^{T}(n) \mathsf{J}(n)\right)^{-1} \mathsf{J}^{T}(n) e(n)$



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We have the following

$$\boldsymbol{w}(n+1) = \boldsymbol{w}(n) - \left(-\boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) \cdot -\boldsymbol{X}(n)\right)^{-1} \cdot -\boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) \left[d(n) - \boldsymbol{X}(n) \boldsymbol{w}(n)\right]$$

We have then

$\boldsymbol{w}(n+1) = \boldsymbol{w}(n) + \left(\boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{X}(n)\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) d(n) - \dots \\ \left(\boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{X}(n)\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{X}(n) \boldsymbol{w}(n)$

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Again Our Error Cost function

We have

$$J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\right) = \frac{1}{2}e^{2}\left(n\right)$$

where e(n) is the error signal measured at time n.

Again differentiating against the vector $m{w}$

$$\frac{\partial J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\right)}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}} = e\left(n\right)\frac{\partial e\left(n\right)}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}$$

LMS algorithm operates with a linear neuron so we may express theeror signal as

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(26)

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Something Notable

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$$\frac{\partial J\left(\boldsymbol{w}\right)}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}} = -\boldsymbol{x}\left(n\right)e\left(n\right)$$

Using this as an estimate for the gradient vector, we have for the gradient descent

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(27)

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Remarks

The feedback loop around the weight vector low-pass filter

- It behaves like a low-pass filter.
- It passes the low frequency component of the error signal and attenuating its high frequency component.



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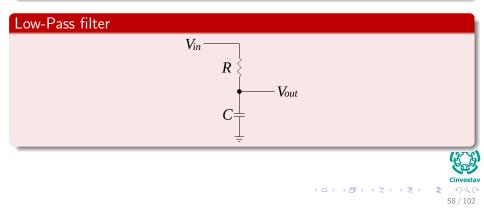
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Assigning a small value to η , the adaptive process progresses slowly.

Thus

- More of the past data are remembered by the LMS algorithm.
- Thus, LMS is a more accurate filter.



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Convergence of the LMS

This convergence depends on the following points

- The statistical characteristics of the input vector $\boldsymbol{x}\left(n
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- The learning-rate parameter η .

Something Notable

However instead using $E\left[\widehat{w}\left(n
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We take the following assumptions

- The successive input vectors $\boldsymbol{x}(1), \boldsymbol{x}(2), ...$ are statistically independent of each other.
- At time step n, the input vector x(n) is statistically independent of all previous samples of the desired response, namely d(1), d(2), ..., d(n-1).
- At time step n, the desired response d(n) is dependent on x(n), but statistically independent of all previous values of the desired response.
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The LMS is convergent in the mean square provided that η satisfies

$$0 < \eta < \frac{2}{\lambda_{\max}}$$

Because $\lambda_{ ext{max}}$ is the largest eigenvalue of the correlation sample $oldsymbol{R}_{oldsymbol{x}}$

This can be difficult in reality.... then we use the trace instead

$$0 < \eta < rac{2}{\mathsf{trace}\left[oldsymbol{R_x}
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However, each diagonal element of R_{\star} is equal the mean-squared value of the corresponding of the sensor input

We can re-state the previous condition as

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sum of the mean-square values of the sensor input

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 (30)

(29)

Virtues

- An important virtue of the LMS algorithm is its simplicity.
- The model is independent and robust to the error (small disturbances = small estimation error).

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Not only that, the LMS algorithm is optimal in accordance with the minimax criterion

If you do not know what you are up against, plan for the worst and optimize.

Primary Limitation

 The slow rate of convergence and sensitivity to variations in the eigenstructure of the input.

 The LMS algorithms requires about 10 times the dimensionality of the input space for convergence.

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More of this in...

Simon Haykin

Simon Haykin - Adaptive Filter Theory (3rd Edition)





We have from NN by Haykin

3.1, 3.2, 3.3, 3.4, 3.5, 3.7 and 3.8



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Objective

Goal

Correctly classify a series of samples (External applied stimuli) $x_1, x_2, x_3, ..., x_m$ into one of two classes, C_1 and C_2 .

Output of each input

• Class C_1 output y +1. • Class C_2 output y -1.



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History

Frank Rosenblatt

The perceptron algorithm was invented in 1957 at the Cornell Aeronautical Laboratory by Frank Rosenblatt.

Something Notable

Frank Rosenblatt was a Psychologist!!! Working at a militar R&D!!!

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He helped to develop the Mark I Perceptron - a new machine based in the connectivity of neural networks!!!

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 The most important is the impossibility to use the perceptron with a single neuron to solve the XOR problem

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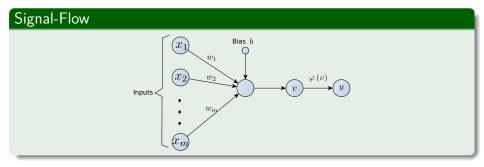
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Perceptron: Local Field of a Neuron



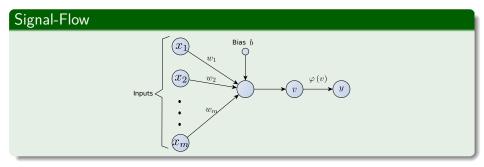
Induced local field of a neuron





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Perceptron: Local Field of a Neuron



Induced local field of a neuron

$$v = \sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i x_i + b$$

(31)



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Perceptron: One Neuron Structure

Based in the previous induced local field

In the simplest form of the perceptron there are two decision regions separated by an **hyperplane**:

$$\sum_{i=1}^{m} w_i x_i + b = 0$$

Example with two signals



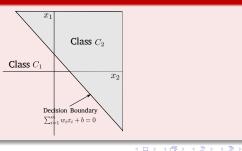
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Deriving the Algorithm

First, you put signals together

$$x(n) = [1, x_1(n), x_2(n), ..., x_m(n)]^T$$
(33)

Weights

$$v(n) = \sum_{i=0}^{m} w_i(n) x_i(n) = \boldsymbol{w}^T(n) \boldsymbol{x}(n)$$
(3)

Note IMPORTANT - Perceptron works only if C_1 and C_2 are linearly separable



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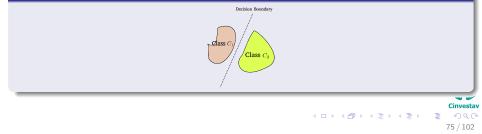
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Rule for Linear Separable Classes

There must exist a vector w

• $w^T x > 0$ for every input vector x belonging to class C_1 .

 $oldsymbol{w}^{_{1}}oldsymbol{x} \leq 0$ for every input vector $oldsymbol{x}$ belonging to class C_{2}



Rule for Linear Separable Classes

There must exist a vector w

- $\boldsymbol{w}^T \boldsymbol{x} > 0$ for every input vector \boldsymbol{x} belonging to class C_1 .
- **2** $w^T x \leq 0$ for every input vector x belonging to class C_2 .





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What is the derivative of $\frac{dv(n)}{dw}$? $\frac{dv(n)}{dw} = \boldsymbol{x}(n)$ (35)



No correction is necessary

• w(n+1) = w(n) if $w^T x(n) > 0$ and x(n) belongs to class C_1 .

 $igodoldsymbol{w}$ $oldsymbol{w}(n+1)=oldsymbol{w}(n)$ if and $oldsymbol{w}^Toldsymbol{x}(n)\leq 0$ and $oldsymbol{x}(n)>0$ belongs to class



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- w(n+1) = w(n) if and $w^2 x(n) \le 0$ and x(n) > 0 belongs to class C_2 .

Correction is necessar

- $\boldsymbol{w}(n+1) = \boldsymbol{w}(n) \eta(n) \boldsymbol{x}(n)$ if $\boldsymbol{w}^T(n) \boldsymbol{x}(n) > 0$ and $\boldsymbol{x}(n)$ belongs to class C_2 .
- $w(n+1) = w(n) + \eta(n) x(n)$ if and $w^T(n) x(n) \le 0$ and x(n)belongs to class C_1 .
- Where $\eta\left(n
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Correction is necessary

• $\boldsymbol{w}(n+1) = \boldsymbol{w}(n) - \eta(n) \boldsymbol{x}(n)$ if $\boldsymbol{w}^T(n) \boldsymbol{x}(n) > 0$ and $\boldsymbol{x}(n)$ belongs to class C_2 .

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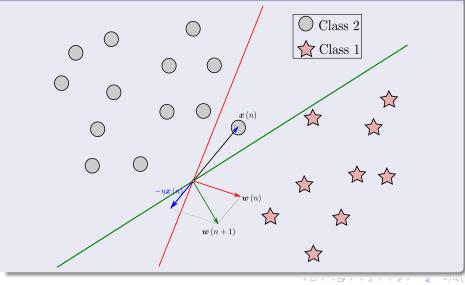
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A little bit on the Geometry

For Example, $\boldsymbol{w}(n+1) = \boldsymbol{w}(n) - \eta(n) \boldsymbol{x}(n)$



Outline

- Introductio
 - History
- 2 Adapting Filtering Problem
 - Definition
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- 3 Unconstrained Optimization
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Perceptron

- Objective
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If we assume

Linear Separability for the classes C_1 and C_2 .

Rosenblatt - 1962

• Let the subsets of training vectors C_1 and C_2 be linearly separable



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The perceptron converges after some n_0 iterations, in the sense that is a solution vector for

 $w(n_0) = w(n_0 + 1) = w(n_0 + 2) = ...$

is a solution vector for $n_0 \leq n_{max}$



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$$\boldsymbol{w}\left(0\right)=0$$

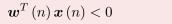


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Now assume for time $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$



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(37)

(38)

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(38)

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Proof II

Apply the correction iteratively

$$w(n+1) = x(1) + x(2) + ... + x(n)$$
 (40)

We know that there is a solution $w_0({\sf Linear Separability})$

$$\alpha = \min_{x(n)\in C_1} w_0^T x(n) \tag{41}$$

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Then, we have

 $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T}\boldsymbol{w}\left(n+1\right) = \boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T}\boldsymbol{x}\left(1\right) + \boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T}\boldsymbol{x}\left(2\right) + \ldots + \boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T}\boldsymbol{x}\left(n\right)$



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Proof IV

Thus we use the α

$$\boldsymbol{w_0^T w}\left(n+1\right) \ge n\alpha$$

Thus using the Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality

$$\left\|\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T}\right\|^{2}\|\boldsymbol{w}\left(n+1\right)\|^{2} \geq \left[\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T}\boldsymbol{w}\left(n+1\right)\right]$$

is the Euclidean distance.

Thus

$$egin{aligned} \left\| m{w}_{0}^{T}
ight\|^{2} \left\| m{w} \left(n+1
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$$\left\| \boldsymbol{w}_0^T \right\|^2 \left\| \boldsymbol{w} \left(n+1 \right) \right\|^2 \geq n^2 \alpha^2 \\ \left\| \boldsymbol{w} \left(n+1 \right) \right\|^2 \geq \frac{n^2 \alpha^2}{\left\| \boldsymbol{w}_0^T \right\|^2}$$

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Proof V - Now a Upper Bound for $\|\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)\|^2$

Now rewrite equation 39

$$\boldsymbol{w}\left(k+1\right) = \boldsymbol{w}\left(k\right) + \boldsymbol{x}\left(k\right)$$

for k = 1, 2, ..., n and $\boldsymbol{x}(k) \in C_1$

Squaring the Euclidean norm of both sides

 $\|\boldsymbol{w}(k+1)\|^{2} = \|\boldsymbol{w}(k)\|^{2} + \|\boldsymbol{x}(k)\|^{2} + 2\boldsymbol{w}^{T}(k)\boldsymbol{x}(k)$ (49)

Now taking that $oldsymbol{w}^{T}\left(k ight)oldsymbol{x}\left(k ight)<0$

$\begin{aligned} \| \boldsymbol{w} (k+1) \|^2 &\leq \| \boldsymbol{w} (k) \|^2 + \| \boldsymbol{x} (k) \|^2 \\ \| \boldsymbol{w} (k+1) \|^2 - \| \boldsymbol{w} (k) \|^2 &\leq \| \| \boldsymbol{x} (k) \|^2 \end{aligned}$

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Proof VI

Use the telescopic sum

$$\sum_{k=0}^{n} \left[\|\boldsymbol{w}(k+1)\|^{2} - \|\boldsymbol{w}(k)\|^{2} \right] \leq \sum_{k=0}^{n} \|\boldsymbol{x}(k)\|^{2}$$
(50)

Assume

$\begin{array}{rcl} \boldsymbol{w}\left(0\right) &=& \boldsymbol{0} \\ \boldsymbol{x}\left(0\right) &=& \boldsymbol{0} \end{array}$

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$$\|\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)\|^2 \le \sum_{k=1}^n \|\boldsymbol{x}(k)\|^2$$



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Proof VII

Then, we can define a positive number

$$\beta = \max_{\boldsymbol{x}(k) \in C_1} \|\boldsymbol{x}(k)\|^2$$
(51)

Thus

$\|\boldsymbol{w}(k+1)\|^2 \le \sum_{k=1}^n \|\boldsymbol{x}(k)\|^2 \le n\beta$

Thus, we satisfies the equations only when exists a n_{max} (Using Our Sondwich)

$$\frac{n_{max}^2 \alpha^2}{\left\|\boldsymbol{w}_0\right\|^2} = n_{max} \beta$$

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Sandwich

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(52)

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Proof VIII

Solving

$$n_{max} = \frac{\beta \left\| \boldsymbol{w}_0 \right\|^2}{\alpha^2}$$

Thus

For $\eta\left(n
ight)=1$ for all n, $oldsymbol{w}\left(0
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 The rule for adaptying the synaptic weights of the perceptron must terminate after at most n_{max} steps.

In addition

Because w_0 the solution is not unique.



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Algorithm Using Error-Correcting

Now, if we use the $\frac{1}{2}e_k(n)^2$

We can actually simplify the rules and the final algorithm!!!

Thus, we have the following Delta Value

 $\Delta \boldsymbol{w}\left(n\right) = \eta\left(\left(d_{j} - y_{j}\left(n\right)\right)\right) \boldsymbol{x}\left(n\right)$



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We could use the previous Rule

In order to generate an algorithm

However, you need classes that are linearly separable!!!

Therefore, we can use a more generals Gradient Descent Rule

To obtain an algorithm to the best separation hyperplane!!!



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Gradient Descent Algorithm

Algorithm - Off-line/Batch Learning

O Set n = 0.

- $\textbf{O} \quad \mathsf{Set} \ d_j = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{ if } x_j \ (n) \in \mathsf{Class} \ 1 \\ -1 & \text{ if } x_j \ (n) \in \mathsf{Class} \ 2 \end{cases} \text{ for all } j = 1, 2, ..., m.$
- \bigcirc Initialize the weights, $oldsymbol{w}^{T}=\left(w_{1}\left(n
 ight),w_{2}\left(n
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 ight).$
 - Weights may be initialized to 0 or to a small random value.
- Initialize Dummy outputs so you can enter loop y^t = (y₁ (n) ., y₂ (n) , ..., y_m (n))
 Initialize Stopping error ε > 0.
- Initialize learning error η .
- While $rac{1}{m}\sum_{j=1}^{m}\|d_j-y_j\left(n
 ight)\|>\epsilon$
 - For each sample (x_j, d_j) for j = 1, ..., m:
 - * Calculate output $y_{j}=arphi\left(oldsymbol{w}^{T}\left(n
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 - * Update weights $w_i (n + 1) = w_i (n) + \eta (d_j y_j (n)) x_{ij}$.

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$$\textbf{O} \quad \mathsf{Set} \ d_j = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{ if } x_j \left(n \right) \in \mathsf{Class 1} \\ -1 & \text{ if } x_j \left(n \right) \in \mathsf{Class 2} \end{cases} \text{ for all } j = 1, 2, ..., m.$$

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$$\blacktriangleright \quad n=n+1$$

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Nevertheless

We have the following problem

 $\epsilon > 0$

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Thus..

Convergence to the best linear separation is a tweaking business!!!



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Outline

- Introductio
 - History
- 2 Adapting Filtering Problem
 - Definition
 - Description of the Behavior of the System
- 3 Unconstrained Optimization
 - Introduction
 - Method of Steepest Descent
 - Newton's Method
 - Gauss-Newton Method
- 4 Linear Least-Squares Filter
 - Introduction
 - Least-Mean-Square (LMS) Algorithm
 - Convergence of the LMS

Perceptron

- Objective
- Perceptron: Local Field of a Neuron
- Perceptron: One Neuron Structure
- Deriving the Algorithm
- Under Linear Separability Convergence happens!!!
- Proof
- Algorithm Using Error-Correcting
- Final Perceptron Algorithm (One Version)
- Other Algorithms for the Perceptron



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However, if we limit our features!!!

The Winnow Algorithm!!!

It converges even with no-linear separability.

Feature Vector

A Boolean-valued features $X=\{0,1\}^d$

Weight Vector $oldsymbol{w}$

• $w^t = (w_1, w_2, ..., w_p)$ for all $w_i \in \mathbb{R}$ • For all $i, w_i \ge 0$.



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($w^T x \ge \theta \Rightarrow$ positive classification Class 1 if $x \in$ Class 1

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Rule

We use two possible Rules for training!!! With a learning rate of lpha>1.

Rule 1

• When misclassifying a positive training example $m{x} \in \mathsf{Class}\ 1$ i.e. $m{w}^T m{x} < heta$

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If samples are correctly classified do nothing!!!



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Properties of Winnow

Property

• If there are many irrelevant variables Winnow is better than the Perceptron.

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A variant of the Perceptron Algorithm

It was suggested by Geman et al. in

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 It converges to an optimal solution even if the linear separability is not fulfilled.



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It consists of the following steps

- $\textcircled{0} \quad \mbox{Initialize the weight vector } \boldsymbol{w}\left(0\right) \mbox{ in a random way.}$
- Define a storage pocket vector w_s and a history counter h_s to zero for the same pocket vector.
- At the *ith* iteration step compute the update *w* (*n* + 1) using the Perceptron rule.
- Use the update weight to find the number h of samples correctly classified.
- ullet If at any moment $h>h_s$ replace $oldsymbol{w}_s$ with $oldsymbol{w}\left(n+1
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