# Introduction to Artificial Intelligence Introduction Single-Layer Perceptron 

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## Outline

(1) Introduction

- 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
(5) 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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## History

## At the beginning of Neural Networks (1943-1958)

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- Rosenblatt (1958) for proposing the perceptron as the first model for learning with a teacher (i.e., supervised learning).


## 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).

## In addition

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## Furthermore

The development of adaptive filtering owes much to the classic paper of Widrow and Hoff (1960) for pioneering the so-called least-mean-square (LMS) algorithm, also known as the delta rule.

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## Adapting Filtering Problem

## Consider a dynamical system



## Signal-Flow Graph of Adaptive Model

## We have the following equivalence



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## Description of the Behavior of the System

We have the data set

$$
\begin{equation*}
\mathcal{T}=\{(\boldsymbol{x}(i), d(i)) \mid i=1,2, \ldots, n, \ldots\} \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
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## Where

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{x}(i)=\left(x_{1}(i), x_{2}(i) \ldots, x_{m}(i)\right)^{T} \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

## The Stimulus $\boldsymbol{x}(i)$

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


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


## Problem

## Quite important

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

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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!!!

Thus, we have the following...

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



## Which steps do you need for the algorithm?

## First

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## Second

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

- Time is incorporated to the algorithm.

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## 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.

- Time is incorporated to the algorithm.


## 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

## We have the following equivalence



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

## Filtering processes

(1) 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.

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## Adaptive Process

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

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## 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.

## Thus

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
y(i)=v(i)=\sum_{i=1}^{m} w_{k}(i) x_{k}(i) \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
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In matrix form, we have - remember we only have a neuron, so we do not have neuron $k$

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Error

$$
\begin{equation*}
e(i)=d(i)-y(i) \tag{5}
\end{equation*}
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## Consider

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

We want to find an optimal solution $\boldsymbol{w}^{*}$ such that

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\begin{equation*}
J\left(\boldsymbol{w}^{*}\right) \leq J(\boldsymbol{w}), \forall \boldsymbol{w} \tag{6}
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## We want to

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

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## We want to

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

## For this

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla J(\boldsymbol{w})=0 \tag{7}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Where

## $\nabla$ is the gradient operator

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla=\left[\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{1}}, \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{2}}, \ldots, \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{m}}\right]^{T} \tag{8}
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Thus

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\begin{equation*}
\nabla J(\boldsymbol{w})=\left[\frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{1}}, \frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{2}}, \ldots, \frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{m}}\right]^{T} \tag{9}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Thus

## Starting with an initial guess denoted by $\boldsymbol{w}(0)$,

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

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

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1))<J(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) \tag{10}
\end{equation*}
$$

Where: $\boldsymbol{w}(n)$ is the old value and $\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)$ is the new value.

## The Three Main Methods for Unconstrained Optimization

## We will look at

(1) Steepest Descent.
(2) Newton's Method
(3) Gauss-Newton Method

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## Steepest Descent

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

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\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\boldsymbol{w}(n)-\eta \nabla J(\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{n}))
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In the method of steepest descent, we have a cost function $J(\boldsymbol{w})$ where

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

How, we prove that $J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1))<J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))$ ?
We use the first-order Taylor series expansion around $\boldsymbol{w}(n)$

$$
\begin{equation*}
J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)) \approx J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))+\nabla J^{T}(\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{n})) \Delta \boldsymbol{w}(n) \tag{11}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

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

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
L(w(n))=J^{\prime}(w(n))[w(n+1)-w(n)]+J(w(n)) \tag{12}
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## Example



## Thus, we have that in $\mathbb{R}$

## Remember Something quite Classic



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$$
\tan \theta=\frac{J(w(n+1))-J(w(n))}{w(n+1)-w(n)}
$$

$\tan \theta(w(n+1)-w(n))=J(w(n+1))-J(w(n))$

Thus, we have that in $\mathbb{R}$

## Remember Something quite Classic



## Thus, we have that

## Using the First Taylor expansion

$$
\begin{equation*}
J(w(n)) \approx J(w(n))+J^{\prime}(w(n))[w(n+1)-w(n)] \tag{13}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Now, for Many Variables

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{a}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}=b\right\} \tag{14}
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Given $x \in H$ and $x_{0} \in H$

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Thus, we have that

$$
H=\left\{\boldsymbol{x} \mid \boldsymbol{a}^{T}\left(\boldsymbol{x}-\boldsymbol{x}_{0}\right)=0\right\}
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## Definition (Differentiability)

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

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Assume that $J$ is defined in a disk $D$ containing $\boldsymbol{w}(n)$. We say that $J$ is differentiable at $\boldsymbol{w}(n)$ if:
(1) $\frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))}{\partial w_{i}}$ exist for all $i=1, \ldots, n$.
(2) $J$ is locally linear at $\boldsymbol{w}(n)$.

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

We know that we have the following operator

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla=\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial w_{1}}, \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{2}}, \ldots, \frac{\partial}{\partial w_{m}}\right) \tag{15}
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Thus, we have

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

Where: $\hat{w}_{i}^{T}=(1,0, \ldots, 0) \in \mathbb{R}$

## 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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\{\left(w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{m}\right) \in \mathbb{R}^{m} \mid J\left(w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{m}\right)=c\right\} \tag{16}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

## Where

## Any curve has the following parametrization

$$
\begin{aligned}
& r:[a, b] \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{m} \\
& \quad r(t)=\left(w_{1}(t), \ldots, w_{m}(t)\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

With $r(n+1)=\left(w_{1}(n+1), \ldots, w_{m}(n+1)\right)$

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With $r(n+1)=\left(w_{1}(n+1), \ldots, w_{m}(n+1)\right)$

We can write the parametrized version of it

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z(t)=J\left(w_{1}(t), w_{2}(t), \ldots, w_{m}(t)\right)=c \tag{17}
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Differentiating with respect to $t$ and using the chain rule for multiple variables

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d z(t)}{d t}=\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{w}(t))}{\partial w_{i}} \cdot \frac{d w_{i}(t)}{d t}=0 \tag{18}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Note

## First <br> Given $y=f(\boldsymbol{u})=\left(f_{1}(\boldsymbol{u}), \ldots, f_{l}(\boldsymbol{u})\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{u}=g(\boldsymbol{x})=\left(g_{1}(\boldsymbol{x}), \ldots, g_{m}(\boldsymbol{x})\right)$.

## Note

## First

Given $y=f(\boldsymbol{u})=\left(f_{1}(\boldsymbol{u}), \ldots, f_{l}(\boldsymbol{u})\right)$ and $\boldsymbol{u}=g(\boldsymbol{x})=\left(g_{1}(\boldsymbol{x}), \ldots, g_{m}(\boldsymbol{x})\right)$.

We have then that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial\left(f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{l}\right)}{\partial\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)}=\frac{\partial\left(f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{l}\right)}{\partial\left(g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{m}\right)} \cdot \frac{\partial\left(g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{m}\right)}{\partial\left(x_{1}, x_{2}, \ldots, x_{k}\right)} \tag{19}
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\end{equation*}
$$

Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{\partial\left(f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{l}\right)}{\partial x_{i}} & =\frac{\partial\left(f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{l}\right)}{\partial\left(g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{m}\right)} \cdot \frac{\partial\left(g_{1}, g_{2}, \ldots, g_{m}\right)}{\partial x_{i}} \\
& =\sum_{k=1}^{m} \frac{\partial\left(f_{1}, f_{2}, \ldots, f_{l}\right)}{\partial g_{k}} \frac{\partial g_{k}}{\partial x_{i}}
\end{aligned}
$$

## Thus

## Evaluating at $t=n$

$$
\sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))}{\partial w_{i}} \cdot \frac{d w_{i}(n)}{d t}=0
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\begin{equation*}
\nabla J(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) \cdot r^{\prime}(n)=0 \tag{20}
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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 $\boldsymbol{w}(n)$.

Now the tangent plane to the surface can be described generally

## Thus

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\begin{equation*}
L(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1))=J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))+\nabla J^{T}(\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{n}))[\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)-\boldsymbol{w}(n)] \tag{21}
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This looks like


## Proving the fact about the Steepest Descent

We want the following

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

So, we ask the following

$$
\Delta \boldsymbol{w}(n) \approx-\eta \nabla J(\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{n})) \text { with } \eta>0
$$

## Then

## We have that

$$
J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1))-J(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) \approx-\eta \nabla J^{T}(\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{n})) \nabla J(\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{n}))=-\eta\|\nabla J(\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{n}))\|^{2}
$$

## Then

## We have that

$$
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Thus

$$
J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1))-J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))<0
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$$

## Thus

$$
J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1))-J(\boldsymbol{w}(n))<0
$$

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 $J(\boldsymbol{w})$ around the current point $\boldsymbol{w}(n)$.

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$$
\begin{aligned}
\Delta J(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) & =J(\boldsymbol{w}(n+1))-J(\boldsymbol{w}(n)) \\
& \approx \nabla J^{T}(\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{n})) \Delta \boldsymbol{w}(n)+\frac{1}{2} \Delta \boldsymbol{w}^{T}(n) H(n) \Delta \boldsymbol{w}(n)
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\end{aligned}
$$

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

$$
H=\nabla^{2} J(\boldsymbol{w})=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
\frac{\partial^{2} J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{1}^{2}} & \frac{\partial^{2} J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{1} \partial w_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{1} \partial w_{m}} \\
\frac{\partial^{2} J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{2} \partial w_{1}} & \frac{\partial^{2} J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{2}^{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{2} \partial w_{m}} \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
\frac{\partial^{2} J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{m} \partial w_{1}} & \frac{\partial^{2} J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{m} \partial w_{2}} & \cdots & \frac{\partial^{2} J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial w_{m}^{2}}
\end{array}\right)
$$

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

Do you have any idea?
Look again

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

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\nabla J(\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{n}))+H(n) \Delta \boldsymbol{w}(n)=0 \tag{23}
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$$

## Thus

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

## The Final Method

Define the following

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

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

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## We have then an error

## Something Notable

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J(\boldsymbol{w})=\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} e^{2}(i)
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Thus using the first order Taylor expansion, we linearize

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e_{l}(i, \boldsymbol{w})=e(i)+\left[\frac{\partial e(i)}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}\right]^{T}[\boldsymbol{w}-\boldsymbol{w}(n)]
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$$

## In matrix form

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

## Where

The error vector is equal to

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{e}(n)=[e(1), e(2), \ldots, e(n)]^{T} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Where

The error vector is equal to

$$
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\boldsymbol{e}(n)=[e(1), e(2), \ldots, e(n)]^{T} \tag{24}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus, we get the famous Jacobian once we derive $\frac{\partial e(i)}{\partial w}$

$$
J(n)=\left(\begin{array}{cccc}
\frac{\partial e(1)}{\partial w_{1}} & \frac{\partial e(1)}{\partial w_{2}} & \ldots & \frac{\partial e(1)}{\partial w_{m}} \\
\frac{\partial e(2)}{\partial w_{1}} & \frac{\partial e(2)}{\partial w_{2}} & \ldots & \frac{\partial e(2)}{\partial w_{m}} \\
\vdots & \vdots & & \vdots \\
\frac{\partial e(n)}{\partial w_{1}} & \frac{\partial e(n)}{\partial w_{2}} & \ldots & \frac{\partial e(n)}{\partial w_{m}}
\end{array}\right)
$$

## Where

## We want the following

$$
\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\arg \min _{\boldsymbol{w}}\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left\|\boldsymbol{e}_{l}(n, \boldsymbol{w})\right\|^{2}\right\}
$$

## Where

## We want the following

$$
\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\underset{\boldsymbol{w}}{\arg \min }\left\{\frac{1}{2}\left\|\boldsymbol{e}_{l}(n, \boldsymbol{w})\right\|^{2}\right\}
$$

## Ideas

What if we expand out the equation?

## Expanded Version

## We get

$$
\begin{aligned}
\frac{1}{2}\left\|\boldsymbol{e}_{l}(n, \boldsymbol{w})\right\|^{2}= & \frac{1}{2}\|\boldsymbol{e}(n)\|^{2}+\boldsymbol{e}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{J}(n)(\boldsymbol{w}-\boldsymbol{w}(n))+\ldots \\
& \frac{1}{2}(\boldsymbol{w}-\boldsymbol{w}(n))^{T} \boldsymbol{J}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{J}(n)(\boldsymbol{w}-\boldsymbol{w}(n))
\end{aligned}
$$

Now, doing the Differential, we get

Differentiating the equation with respect to $w$

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

We get finally

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\boldsymbol{w}(n)-\left(J^{T}(n) J(n)\right)^{-1} \mathrm{~J}^{T}(n) e(n) \tag{25}
\end{equation*}
$$

## 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 $\boldsymbol{e}(n)$.


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- 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 $\boldsymbol{e}(n)$.


## However

The Gauss-Newton iteration to be computable, the matrix product $\mathrm{J}^{T}(n) \mathrm{J}(n)$ must be nonsingular!!!

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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 $J(\boldsymbol{w})$ used to design the filter consists of the sum of error squares.


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- First, the single neuron around which it is built is linear.
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Thus, expressing the error

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

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

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

- 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(n)=-\boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n)
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## Thus

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Correspondingly, the Jacobian of $e(n)$ is

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Correspondingly, the Jacobian of $e(n)$ is

$$
\mathrm{J}(n)=-\boldsymbol{X}(n)
$$

Let us to use the Gaussian-Newton

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

## Thus

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)[d(n)-\boldsymbol{X}(n) \boldsymbol{w}(n)]
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## Thus

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$$
\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)= & \boldsymbol{w}(n)+\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{X}(n)\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) d(n)-\ldots \\
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\end{aligned}
$$

Thus, we have

$$
\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{w}(\boldsymbol{n}+\mathbf{1}) & =\boldsymbol{w}(n)+\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{X}(n)\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) d(n)-\boldsymbol{w}(n) \\
& =\left(\boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{X}(n)\right)^{-1} \boldsymbol{X}^{T}(n) d(n)
\end{aligned}
$$

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## Again Our Error Cost function

We have

$$
J(\boldsymbol{w})=\frac{1}{2} e^{2}(n)
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where $e(n)$ is the error signal measured at time $n$.

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\frac{\partial J(\boldsymbol{w})}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}=e(n) \frac{\partial e(n)}{\partial \boldsymbol{w}}
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Again differentiating against the vector $\boldsymbol{w}$

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

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
e(n)=d(n)-\boldsymbol{x}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{w}(n) \tag{26}
\end{equation*}
$$

## We have

## Something Notable

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

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

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\widehat{\boldsymbol{w}}(n+1)=\widehat{\boldsymbol{w}}(n)+\eta \boldsymbol{x}(n) e(n) \tag{27}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Remarks

The feedback loop around the weight vector low-pass filter

- It behaves like a low-pass filter.


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## Low-Pass filter



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The average time constant of this filtering action is inversely proportional to the learning-rate parameter $\eta$.

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- More of the past data are remembered by the LMS algorithm.


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Assigning a small value to $\eta$, 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 $\boldsymbol{x}(n)$.
- The learning-rate parameter $\eta$.


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## Something Notable

However instead using $E[\widehat{\boldsymbol{w}}(n)]$ as $n \rightarrow \infty$, we use $E\left[e^{2}(n)\right] \rightarrow$ constant as $n \rightarrow \infty$

## To make this analysis practical

## We take the following assumptions

- The successive input vectors $\boldsymbol{x}(1), \boldsymbol{x}(2), .$. are statistically independent of each other.


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- At time step $n$, the input vector $\boldsymbol{x}(n)$ is statistically independent of all previous samples of the desired response, namely $d(1), d(2), \ldots, d(n-1)$.
- 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.
- The input vector $x(n)$ and desired response $d(n)$ are drawn from Gaussiandistributed populations.


## We get the following

The LMS is convergent in the mean square provided that $\eta$ satisfies

$$
\begin{equation*}
0<\eta<\frac{2}{\lambda_{\max }} \tag{28}
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Because $\lambda_{\max }$ is the largest eigenvalue of the correlation sample $\boldsymbol{R}_{x}$
This can be difficult in reality.... then we use the trace instead

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\begin{equation*}
0<\eta<\frac{2}{\operatorname{trace}\left[\boldsymbol{R}_{\boldsymbol{x}}\right]} \tag{29}
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\end{equation*}
$$

However, each diagonal element of $\boldsymbol{R}_{x}$ is equal the mean-squared value of the corresponding of the sensor input
We can re-state the previous condition as

$$
0<\eta<\frac{2}{\text { sum of the mean-square values of the sensor input }}
$$

## Virtues and Limitations of the LMS Algorithm

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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.
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## Primary Limitation

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


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## 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.


## More of this in...

## Simon Haykin

Simon Haykin - Adaptive Filter Theory (3rd Edition)

## Exercises

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<br>Correctly classify a series of samples (External applied stimuli) $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots, x_{m}$ into one of two classes, $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$.

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Correctly classify a series of samples (External applied stimuli) $x_{1}, x_{2}, x_{3}, \ldots, x_{m}$ into one of two classes, $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$.

## Output of each input

(1) Class $C_{1}$ output $\mathrm{y}+1$.
(2) Class $C_{2}$ output y -1 .

## History

## Frank Rosenblatt

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

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## Frank Rosenblatt

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

Some problems with it

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


## Outline

Introduction

- History
(2) Adapting Filtering Problem
- Definition
- Description of the Behavior of the System

3. Unconstrained Optimization

- Introduction
- Method of Steepest Descent
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- Least-Mean-Square (LMS) Algorithm
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- Perceptron: Local Field of a Neuron
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## Perceptron: Local Field of a Neuron

## Signal-Flow



## Perceptron: Local Field of a Neuron

## Signal-Flow



## Induced local field of a neuron

$$
\begin{equation*}
v=\sum_{i=1}^{m} w_{i} x_{i}+b \tag{31}
\end{equation*}
$$

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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:

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\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i=1}^{m} w_{i} x_{i}+b=0 \tag{32}
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## Example with two signals



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## Deriving the Algorithm

First, you put signals together

$$
\begin{equation*}
x(n)=\left[1, x_{1}(n), x_{2}(n), \ldots, x_{m}(n)\right]^{T} \tag{33}
\end{equation*}
$$

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## Weights

$$
\begin{equation*}
v(n)=\sum_{i=0}^{m} w_{i}(n) x_{i}(n)=\boldsymbol{w}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{x}(n) \tag{34}
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Note IMPORTANT - Perceptron works only if $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ are linearly separable


## Rule for Linear Separable Classes

There must exist a vector $\boldsymbol{w}$
(1) $\boldsymbol{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}>0$ for every input vector $\boldsymbol{x}$ belonging to class $C_{1}$.

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What is the derivative of $\frac{d v(n)}{d w}$ ?

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{d v(n)}{d \boldsymbol{w}}=\boldsymbol{x}(n) \tag{35}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Finally

## No correction is necessary

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

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## Correction is necessary

(1) $\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\boldsymbol{w}(n)-\eta(n) \boldsymbol{x}(n)$ if $\boldsymbol{w}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{x}(n)>0$ and $\boldsymbol{x}(n)$ belongs to class $C_{2}$.

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(2) $\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\boldsymbol{w}(n)+\eta(n) \boldsymbol{x}(n)$ if and $\boldsymbol{w}^{T}(n) \boldsymbol{x}(n) \leq 0$ and $\boldsymbol{x}(n)$ belongs to class $C_{1}$.

Where $\eta(n)$ is a learning parameter adjusting the learning rate.

A little bit on the Geometry

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



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## Under Linear Separability - Convergence happens!!!

## If we assume

Linear Separabilty for the classes $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$.

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## Rosenblatt - 1962

- Let the subsets of training vectors $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ be linearly separable.
- Let the inputs presented to the perceptron originate from these two subsets.


## Under Linear Separability - Convergence happens!!!

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## Rosenblatt - 1962

- Let the subsets of training vectors $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ be linearly separable.
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- Let the subsets of training vectors $C_{1}$ and $C_{2}$ be linearly separable.
- Let the inputs presented to the perceptron originate from these two subsets.
- The perceptron converges after some $n_{0}$ iterations, in the sense that is a solution vector for

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}\left(n_{0}\right)=\boldsymbol{w}\left(n_{0}+1\right)=\boldsymbol{w}\left(n_{0}+2\right)=\ldots \tag{36}
\end{equation*}
$$

is a solution vector for $n_{0} \leq n_{\text {max }}$

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## Proof I - First a Lower Bound for $\|\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)\|^{2}$

## Initialization

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\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}(0)=0 \tag{37}
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## PERCEPTRON INCORRECTLY CLASSIFY THE VECTORS

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Apply the correction formula

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\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\boldsymbol{w}(n)+\boldsymbol{x}(n) \tag{39}
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## Proof II

## Apply the correction iteratively

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\boldsymbol{x}(1)+\boldsymbol{x}(2)+\ldots+\boldsymbol{x}(n) \tag{40}
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$$

## Proof II

## Apply the correction iteratively

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\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\boldsymbol{x}(1)+\boldsymbol{x}(2)+\ldots+\boldsymbol{x}(n) \tag{40}
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We know that there is a solution $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ (Linear Separability)

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\begin{equation*}
\alpha=\min _{\boldsymbol{x}(n) \in C_{1}} \boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}(n) \tag{41}
\end{equation*}
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Then, we have

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\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}_{\mathbf{0}}^{\boldsymbol{T}} \boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\boldsymbol{w}_{\mathbf{0}}^{\boldsymbol{T}} \boldsymbol{x}(1)+\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}(2)+\ldots+\boldsymbol{w}_{\mathbf{0}}^{\boldsymbol{T}} \boldsymbol{x}(n) \tag{42}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Proof III

## Apply the correction iteratively

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\boldsymbol{x}(1)+\boldsymbol{x}(2)+\ldots+\boldsymbol{x}(n) \tag{43}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Proof III

## Apply the correction iteratively

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\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)=\boldsymbol{x}(1)+\boldsymbol{x}(2)+\ldots+\boldsymbol{x}(n) \tag{43}
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\end{equation*}
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## Proof IV

Thus we use the $\alpha$

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\boldsymbol{w}_{\mathbf{0}}^{\boldsymbol{T}} \boldsymbol{w}(n+1) \geq n \alpha
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\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}_{\mathbf{0}}^{\boldsymbol{T}} \boldsymbol{w}(n+1) \geq n \alpha \tag{46}
\end{equation*}
$$

Thus using the Cauchy-Schwartz Inequality

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left\|\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T}\right\|^{2}\|\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)\|^{2} \geq\left[\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{\boldsymbol{T}} \boldsymbol{w}(n+1)\right]^{2} \tag{47}
\end{equation*}
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$\|\cdot\|$ is the Euclidean distance.

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\end{equation*}
$$

$\|\cdot\|$ is the Euclidean distance.

## Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
\left\|\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T}\right\|^{2}\|\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)\|^{2} & \geq n^{2} \alpha^{2} \\
\|\boldsymbol{w}(n+1)\|^{2} & \geq \frac{n^{2} \alpha^{2}}{\left\|\boldsymbol{w}_{0}^{T}\right\|^{2}}
\end{aligned}
$$

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

## Now rewrite equation 39

$$
\begin{equation*}
\boldsymbol{w}(k+1)=\boldsymbol{w}(k)+\boldsymbol{x}(k) \tag{48}
\end{equation*}
$$

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

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

Squaring the Euclidean norm of both sides

$$
\begin{equation*}
\|\boldsymbol{w}(k+1)\|^{2}=\|\boldsymbol{w}(k)\|^{2}+\|\boldsymbol{x}(k)\|^{2}+2 \boldsymbol{w}^{T}(k) \boldsymbol{x}(k) \tag{49}
\end{equation*}
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\end{equation*}
$$

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

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

## Proof VI

## Use the telescopic sum

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

## Proof VI

## Use the telescopic sum

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

## Assume

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\begin{aligned}
\boldsymbol{w}(0) & =\mathbf{0} \\
\boldsymbol{x}(0) & =\mathbf{0}
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Use the telescopic sum

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\begin{equation*}
\sum_{k=0}^{n}\left[\|\boldsymbol{w}(k+1)\|^{2}-\|\boldsymbol{w}(k)\|^{2}\right] \leq \sum_{k=0}^{n}\|\boldsymbol{x}(k)\|^{2} \tag{50}
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## Thus

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

## Proof VII

Then, we can define a positive number

$$
\begin{equation*}
\beta=\max _{\boldsymbol{x}(k) \in C_{1}}\|\boldsymbol{x}(k)\|^{2} \tag{51}
\end{equation*}
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$$
\|\boldsymbol{w}(k+1)\|^{2} \leq \sum_{k=1}^{n} \quad\|x(k)\|^{2} \leq n \beta
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## Thus

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

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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{n_{\max }^{2} \alpha^{2}}{\left\|\boldsymbol{w}_{0}\right\|^{2}}=n_{\max } \beta \tag{52}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Proof VIII

## Solving

$$
\begin{equation*}
n_{\max }=\frac{\beta\left\|\boldsymbol{w}_{0}\right\|^{2}}{\alpha^{2}} \tag{53}
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## Thus

For $\eta(n)=1$ for all $\mathrm{n}, \boldsymbol{w}(0)=\mathbf{0}$ and a solution vector $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ :

- The rule for adaptying the synaptic weights of the perceptron must terminate after at most $n_{\max }$ steps.


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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 $\boldsymbol{w}_{0}$ 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!!!

## 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

$$
\begin{equation*}
\Delta \boldsymbol{w}(n)=\eta\left(\left(d_{j}-y_{j}(n)\right)\right) \boldsymbol{x}(n) \tag{54}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Outline

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(2) Adapting Filtering Problem
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- Introduction
- Least-Mean-Square (LMS) Algorithm
- Convergence of the LMS
(5) Perceptron
- Objective
- Perceptron: Local Field of a Neuron
- Perceptron: One Neuron Structure
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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!!!

## Gradient Descent Algorithm

## Gradient Descent Algorithm

## Algorithm - Off-line/Batch Learning

(1) Set $n=0$.
(2) Set $d_{j}=\left\{\begin{array}{ll}+1 & \text { if } \boldsymbol{x}_{j}(n) \in \text { Class } 1 \\ -1 & \text { if } \boldsymbol{x}_{j}(n) \in \text { Class } 2\end{array}\right.$ for all $j=1,2, \ldots, m$.
(3) Initialize the weights, $\boldsymbol{w}^{T}=\left(w_{1}(n), w_{2}(n), \ldots, w_{n}(n)\right)$.

- Weights may be initialized to 0 or to a small random value.
(9) Initialize Dummy outputs so you can enter loop $\boldsymbol{y}^{\boldsymbol{t}}=\left\langle y_{1}(n) ., y_{2}(n), \ldots, y_{m}(n)\right\rangle$
(5) Initialize Stopping error $\epsilon>0$.
(6) Initialize learning error $\eta$.
(1) While $\frac{1}{m} \sum_{j=1}^{m}\left\|d_{j}-y_{j}(n)\right\|>\epsilon$
- For each sample $\left(x_{j}, d_{j}\right)$ for $j=1, \ldots, m$ :
$\star$ Calculate output $y_{j}=\varphi\left(\boldsymbol{w}^{T}(n) \cdot \boldsymbol{x}_{j}\right)$
$\star$ Update weights $w_{i}(n+1)=w_{i}(n)+\eta\left(d_{j}-y_{j}(n)\right) x_{i j}$.
- $n=n+1$


## Nevertheless

We have the following problem

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\epsilon>0 \tag{55}
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## Thus...

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

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## However, if we limit our features!!!

The Winnow Algorithm!!!
It converges even with no-linear separability.

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## Feature Vector

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

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## Weight Vector $\boldsymbol{w}$

(1) $\boldsymbol{w}^{t}=\left(w_{1}, w_{2}, \ldots, w_{p}\right)$ for all $w_{i} \in \mathbb{R}$
(2) For all $i, w_{i} \geq 0$.

## Classification Scheme

We use a specific $\theta$
(1) $\boldsymbol{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{x} \geq \theta \Rightarrow$ positive classification Class 1 if $\boldsymbol{x} \in$ Class 1
(2) $\boldsymbol{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}<\theta \Rightarrow$ negative classification Class 2 if $\boldsymbol{x} \in$ Class 2

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## Rule

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

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## Rule

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

## Rule 1

- When misclassifying a positive training example $\boldsymbol{x} \in$ Class 1 i.e.

$$
\boldsymbol{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{x}<\theta
$$

$$
\begin{equation*}
\forall x_{i}=1: w_{i} \leftarrow \alpha w_{i} \tag{56}
\end{equation*}
$$

## Classification Scheme

## Rule 2

- When misclassifying a negative training example $\boldsymbol{x} \in$ Class 2 i.e. $\boldsymbol{w}^{T} \boldsymbol{x} \geq \theta$

$$
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\forall x_{i}=1: w_{i} \leftarrow \frac{w_{i}}{\alpha} \tag{57}
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## Rule 3

- If samples are correctly classified do nothing!!!


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## Property

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


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## Drawback

- Sensitive to the learning rate $\alpha$.


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## The Pocket Algorithm

## A variant of the Perceptron Algorithm

It was suggested by Geman et al. in

- "Perceptron based learning algorithms," IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks,Vol. 1(2), pp. 179-191, 1990.
- It converges to an optimal solution even if the linear separability is not fulfilled.


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(3) Return $\boldsymbol{w}_{s}$.

