CS 480/680 Winter 2024:

Lecture Notes

1 Classic Machine Learning											2
1.1 Introduction											. 2
1.2 Perceptron											. 4
1.3 Linear Regression											. 6
1.4 Logistic Regression											. 8
1.5 Hard-Margin Support Vector Machi	nes										. 9
Lecture notes taken, unless otherwise specific offering of CS 480/680, taught by Hongyang	,	· ·	ring section	on 0	02 (of t	he	W	⁷ int	ier	2024
Lectures		Lecture 3	Jan 16								6
		Lecture 4	Jan 18								6
Lecture 1 Jan 9	2	Lecture 5	Jan 23								6
Lecture 2 Ian 11	2	Lecture 6	Ian 25								Q

Chapter 1

Classic Machine Learning

1.1 Introduction

There have been three historical AI booms:

Lecture 1
Jan 9

- 1. 1950s–1970s: search-based algorithms (e.g., chess), failed when they realized AI is actually a hard problem
- $2.\ 1980 \text{s--} 1990 \text{s: expert systems}$
- 3. 2012 present: deep learning

Machine learning is the subset of AI where a program can learn from experience.

Major learning paradigms of machine learning:

- Supervised learning: teacher/human labels answers (e.g., classification, ranking, etc.)
- Unsupervised learning: without labels (e.g., clustering, representation, generation, etc.)
- Reinforcement learning: rewards given for actions (e.g., gaming, pricing, etc.)
- Others: semi-supervised, active learning, etc.

Active focuses in machine learning research:

- Representation: improving the encoding of data into a space
- Generalization: improving the use of the model on new distributions
- Interpretation: understanding how deep learning actually works
- Complexity: improving time/space requirements
- Efficiency: reducing the amount of samples required
- Privacy: respecting legal/ethical concerns of data sourcing
- Robustness: gracefully failing under errors or malicious attack
- Applications

A machine learning algorithm has three phases: training, prediction, and evaluation.

Lecture 2 Jan 11

Definition 1.1.1 (dataset)

A <u>dataset</u> consists of a list of <u>features</u> $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n, \mathbf{x}'_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}'_m \in \mathbb{R}^d$ which are *d*-dimensional vectors and a label vector $\mathbf{y}^{\top} \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

Each <u>training sample</u> \mathbf{x}_i is associated with a <u>label</u> y_i . A <u>test sample</u> \mathbf{x}_i' may or may not be labelled.

Example 1.1.2 (email filtering). Suppose we have a list D of d English words.

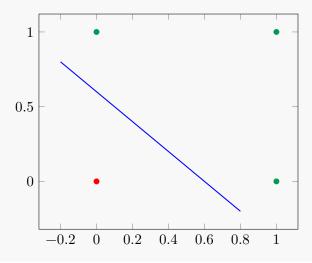
Define the training set $X = [\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_n] \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times n}$ and $\mathbf{y} = [y_1, \dots, y_n] \in \{\pm 1\}^n$ such that $\mathbf{x}_{ij} = 1$ if the word $j \in D$ appears in email i (this is the <u>bag-of-words representation</u>):

	\mathbf{x}_1	\mathbf{x}_2	\mathbf{x}_3	\mathbf{x}_4	\mathbf{x}_5	\mathbf{x}_6	\mathbf{x}'
and	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
viagra	1	0	1	0	0	0	1
the	0	1	1	0	1	1	0
of	1	1	0	1	0	1	0
nigeria	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
\overline{y}	+	_	+	_	+	_	?

Then, given a new email \mathbf{x}_1' , we must determine if it is spam or not.

Example 1.1.3 (OR dataset). We want to train the OR function:

This can be represented graphically by finding a line dividing the points:



1.2 Perceptron

Definition 1.2.1

The <u>inner product</u> of vectors $\langle \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{b} \rangle$ is the sum of the element-wise product $\sum_{j} a_{j} b_{j}$.

A <u>linear function</u> is a function $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^d$ such that for all $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{R}$, $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $f(\alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{z}) = \alpha f(\mathbf{x}) + \beta f(\mathbf{z})$.

Theorem 1.2.2 (linear duality)

A function is linear if and only if there exists $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ such that $f(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$.

Proof. (\Rightarrow) Suppose f is linear. Let $\mathbf{w} := [f(\mathbf{e}_1), \dots, f(\mathbf{e}_d)]$ where \mathbf{e}_i are coordinate vectors. Then:

$$\begin{split} f(\mathbf{x}) &= f(x_1\mathbf{e}_1 + \dots + x_d\mathbf{e}_d) \\ &= x_1f(\mathbf{e}_1) + \dots + x_df(\mathbf{e}_d) \\ &= \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle \end{split}$$

by linearity of f.

 (\Leftarrow) Suppose there exists **w** such that $f(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$. Then:

$$f(\alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{z}) = \langle \alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w}, \alpha \mathbf{x} + \beta \mathbf{z}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$$
$$= \alpha \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + \beta \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$$
$$= \alpha f(\mathbf{x}) + \beta f(\mathbf{z})$$

since inner products are linear in the first argument.

Definition 1.2.3 (affine function)

A function $f(\mathbf{x})$ where there exist $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ and $\underline{\text{bias}}\ b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $f(\mathbf{x}) = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b$.

Definition 1.2.4 (sign function)

$$\operatorname{sgn}(t) = \begin{cases} +1 & t > 0 \\ -1 & t \le 0 \end{cases}$$

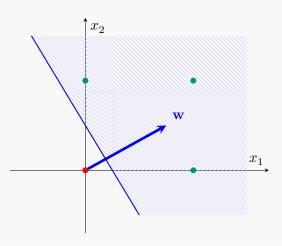
It does not matter what sgn(0) is defined as.

Definition 1.2.5 (linear classifier)

$$\hat{y} = \operatorname{sgn}(\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b)$$

The parameters \mathbf{w} and b will uniquely determine the linear classifier.

Example 1.2.6 (geometric interpretation). We can interpret $\hat{y} > 0$ as a halfspace (see CO 250). Then, we can draw something like:



Proposition 1.2.7

The vector \mathbf{w} is orthogonal to the decision boundary H.

Proof. Let $\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}' \in H$ be vectors on the boundary $H = \{x : \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + b = 0\}$. Then, we must show $\mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x} = \overrightarrow{\mathbf{x}}\overrightarrow{\mathbf{x}'} \perp \mathbf{w}$.

We can calculate
$$\langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}' - \mathbf{x} \rangle = \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x} \rangle - \langle \mathbf{w}, \mathbf{x}' \rangle = -b - (-b) = 0.$$

Originally, the inventor of the perceptron thought it could do anything. He was (obviously) wrong.

Algorithm 1 Training Perceptron

Require: Dataset $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in \mathbb{R}^d \times \{\pm 1\}$, initialization $\mathbf{w}_0 \in \mathbb{R}^d$, $b_0 \in \mathbb{R}$.

Ensure: w and b for linear classifier $sgn(\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b)$

$$\begin{aligned} & \textbf{for} \ t = 1, 2, \dots \ \textbf{do} \\ & \text{receive index} \ I_t \in \{1, \dots, n\} \\ & \textbf{if} \ y_{I_t} \big(\big\langle \mathbf{x}_{I_t}, \mathbf{w} \big\rangle + b \big) \leq 0 \ \textbf{then} \\ & \big| \ \mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + y_{I_t} \mathbf{x}_{I_t} \\ & b \leftarrow b + y_{I_t} \end{aligned}$$

In a perceptron, we train by adjusting \mathbf{w} and b whenever a training data feature is classified "wrong" (i.e., $\mathsf{score}_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}) := y\hat{y} < 0 \iff \mathsf{the \ signs \ disagree}$).

The perceptron solves the feasibility problem

Find
$$\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$$
, $b \in \mathbb{R}$ such that $\forall i, y_i(\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b) > 0$

by iterating one-by-one. It will converge "faster" (with fewer t-iterations) if the data is "easy".

Consider what happens when there is a "wrong" classification. Let $w_{k+1} = w_k + yx$ and $b_{k+1} = b_k + y$.

Then, the updated score is:

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{score}_{\mathbf{w}_{k+1},b_{k+1}}(\mathbf{x}) &= y \cdot (\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}_{k+1} \rangle + b_{k+1}) \\ &= y \cdot (\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}_k + y \mathbf{x} \rangle + b_k + y) \\ &= y \cdot (\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}_k \rangle + b_k) + \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x} \rangle + 1 \\ &= y \cdot (\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w}_k \rangle + b_k) + \underbrace{\|\mathbf{x}\|_2^2 + 1}_{\text{always positive}} \end{split}$$

which is always an increase over the previous "wrong" score.

TODO: ...remaining slides

Lecture 3 Jan 16

1.3 Linear Regression

Problem 1.3.1 (regression)

Given training data $(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i) \in \mathbb{R}^{d+t}$, find $f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathcal{Y}$ such that $f(\mathbf{x}_i) \approx \mathbf{y}_i$.

Lecture 4 Jan 18

The problem is that for finite training data, there are an infinite number of functions that exactly hit each point.

Theorem 1.3.2 (exact interpolation is always possible)

For any finite training data $(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathsf{y}_i) : i = 1, \dots, n$ such that $\mathbf{x}_i \neq \mathbf{x}_j$ for all $i \neq j$, there exist infinitely many functions $f : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^t$ such that for all $i, f(\mathbf{x}_i) = \mathsf{y}_i$.

TODO: ...up to slide 14 (geometry of linear regression)

Lecture 5 Jan 23

Theorem 1.3.3 (Fermat's necessary condition for optimality)

If w is a minimizer/maximizer of a differentiable function f over an open set, then f'(w) = 0.

We can use this property to solve linear regression.

Recall the loss is $\text{Loss}(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X} - \mathsf{Y}\|_F^2$. Then, the derivative $\nabla_{\mathbf{W}} \text{Loss}(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{2}{n} (\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X} - \mathsf{Y})\mathbf{X}^{\top}$.

We can derive the normal equation:

$$\begin{split} \frac{2}{n}(\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y})\mathbf{X}^\top &= 0 \\ \mathbf{W}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top - \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{X}^\top &= 0 \\ \hline \mathbf{W}\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top &= \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{X}^\top \\ \mathbf{W} &= \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{X}^\top (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top)^{-1} \end{split}$$

Once we find **W**, we can predict on unseen data \mathbf{X}_{test} with $\hat{\mathbf{Y}}_{test} = \mathbf{W} \mathbf{X}_{test}$.

Then,

Suppose
$$\mathbf{X} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \epsilon \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 and $\mathbf{y} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$.

Then, solving the linear least squares regression we get $\mathbf{w} = \mathsf{y} \mathbf{X}^\top (\mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^\top)^{-1} = \begin{bmatrix} -2/\epsilon & 1 \end{bmatrix}$. This is chaotic!

Why does this happen? As $\epsilon \to 0$, two columns in **X** become almost linearly dependent with incongruent corresponding y-values. This leads to a contradiction and an unstable **w**.

To solve this, we add a $\lambda \|\mathbf{W}\|_F^2$ term.

Definition 1.3.4 (ridge regression)

Take the linear regression and add a regularization term:

$$\min_{\mathbf{W}} \frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}\|_F^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{W}\|_F^2$$

This gives a new normal equation:

$$Loss(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}\|_F^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{W}\|_F^2$$
$$\nabla_{\mathbf{W}} Loss(\mathbf{W}) = \frac{2}{n} (\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}) \mathbf{X}^\top + 2\lambda \mathbf{W}$$
$$0 = \frac{2}{n} (\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}) \mathbf{X}^\top + 2\lambda \mathbf{W}$$
$$\mathbf{W}(\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top + n\lambda I) = \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{X}^\top$$
$$\mathbf{W} = \mathbf{Y}\mathbf{X}^\top (\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top + n\lambda I)^{-1}$$

Proposition 1.3.5

 $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^{\top} + n\lambda I$ is far from rank-deficient for large λ .

Proof. Recall from linear algebra that we can always take the singular value decomposition of any matrix $M = U \Sigma V^{\top}$ where U and V are orthogonal and Σ is non-negative diagonal where the rank is the number of non-zero entries in Σ .

Consider the SVD of X:

$$\begin{split} \mathbf{X} &= U \Sigma V^{\top} \\ \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^{\top} &= U \Sigma V^{\top} V \Sigma^{\top} U^{\top} = U \Sigma^{2} U^{\top} \\ \mathbf{X} \mathbf{X}^{\top} &+ n \lambda I = U \Sigma^{2} U^{\top} + U (n \lambda I) U^{\top} \\ &= U (\Sigma^{2} + n \lambda I) U^{\top} \end{split}$$

The matrix $\Sigma^2 + n\lambda I$ is a diagonal matrix with strictly positive elements for sufficiently large λ . Therefore, $\mathbf{X}\mathbf{X}^\top + n\lambda I$ has full rank and thus no singular values.

Remark 1.3.6. Performing a ridge regularization is identical to augmenting the data.

Notice that

$$\frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{W}\mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}\|_F^2 + \lambda \|\mathbf{W}\|_F^2 = \frac{1}{n} \|\mathbf{W} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{X} & \sqrt{n\lambda}I \end{bmatrix} - \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{Y} & \mathbf{0} \end{bmatrix} \|_F^2$$

so if we augment **X** with $\sqrt{n\lambda}I$ and **Y** with **0**, i.e., p data points $\mathbf{x}_{j} = \sqrt{n\lambda}\mathbf{e}_{j}$ and $\mathbf{y}_{j} = 0$.

1.4 Logistic Regression

Return to the linear classification problem.

Recall that we took
$$\hat{y} = \operatorname{sgn}(\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathsf{w} \rangle)$$
 where $\mathbf{x} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ and $\mathsf{w} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathsf{w} \\ b \end{pmatrix}$ in \mathbb{R}^{d+1} .

How confident are we in our prediction \hat{y} ? We can use the <u>margin</u> (or <u>logit</u>) $|\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle|$ ("how far away is the point from the decision boundary?").

The margin is unnormalized with respect to the data, so we cannot really interpret it until we somehow cram it into [0,1].

We can try directly learning hte confidence.

Let $\mathcal{Y} = \{0, 1\}$. Consider confidence $p(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) := \Pr[\mathsf{Y} = 1 \mid \mathsf{X} = \mathbf{x}]$. Given independent $(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathsf{y}_i)$:

$$\begin{split} &\Pr[\mathsf{Y}_1 = \mathsf{y}_1, \dots, \mathsf{Y}_n = \mathsf{y}_n \mid \mathsf{X}_1 = \mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathsf{X}_n = \mathbf{x}_n] \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n \Pr[\mathsf{Y}_i = \mathsf{y}_i \mid \mathsf{X}_i = \mathbf{x}_i] \\ &= \prod_{i=1}^n [p(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathsf{w})]^{\mathsf{y}_i} [1 - p(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathsf{w})]^{1 - \mathsf{y}_i} \end{split}$$

and we can get our maximum likelihood estimation

Definition 1.4.1 (maximum likelihood estimation)

$$\max_{\mathbf{w}} \prod_{i=1}^n [p(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w})]^{\mathbf{y}_i} [1 - p(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w})]^{1 - \mathbf{y}_i}$$

or equivalently the minimum minus log-likelihood

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[-\mathbf{y}_i \log p(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w}) - (1-\mathbf{y}_i) \log (1-p(\mathbf{x}_i; \mathbf{w})) \right]$$

Now, how do we define the probability p based on w?

We will assume that the log of the odds ratio $\log \frac{\text{probability of event}}{\text{probability of no event}} = \log \frac{p(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})}{1 - p(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})} = \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle$ is linear.

This leads us to the sigmoid transformation.

Definition 1.4.2 (sigmoid transformation)

$$p(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle)}$$

If we return now to the MLE we defined earlier, we get

$$\begin{split} & \min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[-\mathbf{y}_{i} \log p(\mathbf{x}_{i}; \mathbf{w}) - (1 - \mathbf{y}_{i}) \log(1 - p(\mathbf{x}_{i}; \mathbf{w})) \right] \\ & = \min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[-\mathbf{y}_{i} \log \frac{1}{1 + \exp(-\left\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \right\rangle)} - (1 - \mathbf{y}_{i}) \frac{\exp\{-\left\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \right\rangle\}}{1 + \exp(-\left\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \right\rangle)} \right] \\ & = \min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left[\mathbf{y}_{i} \log(1 + \exp(-\left\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \right\rangle)) + (1 - \mathbf{y}_{i}) \log(1 + \exp(-\left\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \right\rangle)) + (1 - \mathbf{y}_{i}) \left\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \right\rangle \right] \\ & = \min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log[1 + \exp(-\left\langle \mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{w} \right\rangle)] + (1 - \mathbf{y}_{i}) (\left\langle \mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{w} \right\rangle) \end{split}$$

If we redefine $y_i' = \frac{y_i+1}{2}$, i.e., $y' \in \{\pm 1\}$, then we get the <u>logistic loss</u>

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \log[1 + \exp(-\mathbf{y}_{i}' \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle)]$$

There is no closed form solution for this problem, so we use the gradient descent algorithm (covered in lecture 8).

Suppose we have found an optimal w. Then, we can set $\hat{y} = 1 \iff p(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w}) = \Pr[\mathsf{Y} = 1 \mid \mathsf{X} = \mathbf{x}] > \frac{1}{2}$. The value of $p(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{w})$ is our confidence.

Remember: All this is under the assumption that the log of the odds ratio is linear. Everything is meaningless if it is not.

Extending to the multiclass case Suppose we instead have $y \in \{1, ..., c\}$ and we need to learn w_i for each class. The sigmoid function becomes the <u>softmax</u> function

$$\Pr[\mathsf{Y} = k \mid \mathsf{X} = \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{W} = [\mathsf{w}_1, \dots, \mathsf{w}_c]] = \frac{\exp{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathsf{w}_k \rangle}}{\sum_{l=1}^c \exp{\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathsf{w}_l \rangle}}$$

This maps the real-valued vector \mathbf{x} to a probability vector. Notice that the softmax values for each class are all non-negative and sum to 1.

To train, we use the MLE again

To predict, pick the index of the highest softmax value

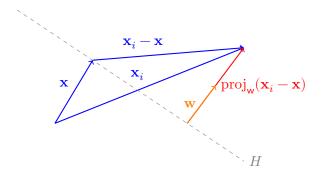
$$\hat{\mathsf{y}} = \argmax_k \Pr[\mathsf{Y} = k \mid \mathsf{X} = \mathbf{x}; \mathbf{W} = [\mathsf{w}_1, \dots, \mathsf{w}_c]]$$

1.5 Hard-Margin Support Vector Machines

Recall that the perceptron is a feasibility program, i.e., a linear program with $\mathbf{c}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{0}$. It has infinite solutions.

Naturally, some are much better than others. To take advantage of better algorithms, we can instead maximize the separation.

Let H be a the hyperplane defined by $\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b = 0$. The separation (distance) between a point \mathbf{x}_i and H is the length of the projection of $\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}$ onto the normal vector \mathbf{w} .



Simplfiying, we can express this as

$$\begin{split} \frac{\left\langle \mathbf{x}_{i}-\mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}\right\rangle }{\left\|\mathbf{w}\right\|_{2}} &= \frac{\left\langle \mathbf{x}_{i},\mathbf{w}\right\rangle -\left\langle \mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}\right\rangle }{\left\|\mathbf{w}\right\|_{2}} \\ &= \frac{\left\langle \mathbf{x}_{i},\mathbf{w}\right\rangle +b}{\left\|\mathbf{w}\right\|_{2}} \\ &= \frac{\mathbf{y}_{i}\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{i}}{\left\|\mathbf{w}\right\|_{2}} \end{split} \qquad (\mathbf{x}\in H\Leftrightarrow \left\langle \mathbf{x},\mathbf{w}\right\rangle +b=0) \end{split}$$

We now have something to maximize.

Definition 1.5.1 (margin)

Given a hyperplane $H := \{\mathbf{x} : \langle \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b = 0\}$ separating the data, the <u>margin</u> is the smallest distance between a data point \mathbf{x}_i and H.

That is, $\min_i \frac{y_i \hat{y}_i}{\|\mathbf{w}\|_2}$.

The goal is the maximize the margin across all possible hyperplanes:

$$\max_{\mathsf{w},b} \min_i \frac{\mathsf{y}_i \hat{y}_i}{\|\mathsf{w}\|_2} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \forall i, \mathsf{y}_i \hat{y}_i > 0 \quad \text{where} \quad \hat{y}_i := \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathsf{w} \rangle + b$$

We claim that we can arbitrarily scale the numerator. Let c>0. Then, (w,b) has the same loss as $(c\mathsf{w},cb)$ because $\frac{\langle \mathbf{x}_i,c\mathsf{w}\rangle+cb}{\|c\mathsf{w}\|_2}=\frac{c\langle \mathbf{x}_i,\mathsf{w}\rangle+cb}{c\|\mathsf{w}\|_2}=\frac{\langle \mathbf{x}_i,\mathsf{w}\rangle+b}{\|\mathsf{w}\|_2}$.

Therefore, we can equivalently write

$$\max_{\mathsf{w},b} \frac{1}{\|\mathsf{w}\|_2} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \min_i \mathsf{y}_i \hat{y}_i = 1 \quad \text{where} \quad \hat{y}_i := \langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathsf{w} \rangle + b$$

or even better:

$$\min_{\mathbf{w},b} \left\| \mathbf{w} \right\|_2^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \forall i, \mathbf{y}_i(\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b) \geq 1$$

Finally, consider the points that are closest to the boundary.

Definition 1.5.2

For the separating hyperplane $H=\{\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathsf{w} \rangle + b = 0\}$, the two <u>supporting hyperplanes</u> are the parallel hyperplanes $H_+:=\{\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathsf{w} \rangle + b = 1\}$ and $H_-:=\{\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathsf{w} \rangle + b = -1\}$ which represent the margin boundaries.

A <u>support vector</u> is a data point $\mathbf{x}_i \in H_+ \cup H_-$.

The support vectors are rare, but decisive because they reach the boundary of the constraint.

Explanation from the dual perspective Recall the SVM quadratic program

$$\min_{\mathbf{w}_b} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \forall i, \mathbf{y}_i (\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b) \geq 1$$

Introduce Lagrangian multipliers (dual variables) $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}^n$.

$$\begin{split} & \min_{\mathbf{w},b} \max_{\mathbf{\alpha} > \mathbf{0}} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 - \sum_i \alpha_i [\mathbf{y}_i(\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b) - 1] \\ &= \min_{\mathbf{w},b} \begin{cases} +\infty & \exists i, \mathbf{y}_i(\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b) < 1 (\text{set } \alpha_i \text{ as } +\infty) \\ \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 & \forall i, \mathbf{y}_i(\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b) \geq 1 (\text{set all } \alpha_i \text{ as } 0) \end{cases} \\ &= \min_{\mathbf{w}_b} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2, \quad s.t. \forall i, \mathbf{y}_i(\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b) \geq 1 \end{split}$$

Therefore, we only need to study the minimax problem. Assuming that the problem is convex (which it is, outside the scope of the course), we can express this as

$$\max_{\alpha>\mathbf{0}} \overbrace{\min_{\mathbf{w},b} \frac{1}{2} \|\mathbf{w}\|_2^2 - \sum_i \alpha_i [\mathbf{y}_i(\langle \mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{w} \rangle + b) - 1]}^{\mathrm{Loss}(\alpha)}$$

and take the derivative of the interior with respect to w and b:

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial \operatorname{Loss}(\mathbf{w},b,\alpha)}{\partial \mathbf{w}} &= \mathbf{w} - \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i = 0 \\ \mathbf{w}^* &= \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \frac{\partial \operatorname{Loss}(\mathbf{w},b,\alpha)}{\partial b} &= -\sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i = 0 \\ \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i &= 0 \end{split}$$

Substitute back into $Loss(\alpha)$:

$$\begin{split} & \operatorname{Loss}(\alpha) := \min_{\mathsf{w},b} \frac{1}{2} \| \mathsf{w} \|_2^2 - \sum_i \alpha[\mathsf{y}_i(\langle \mathbf{x}, \mathsf{w} \rangle + b) - 1] \\ & = \min_{\mathsf{w},b} \frac{1}{2} \| \mathsf{w} \|_2^2 - \left\langle \sum_i \alpha_i \mathsf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i, \mathsf{w} \right\rangle - b \sum_i \alpha_i \mathsf{y}_i + \sum_i \alpha_i \\ & = \frac{1}{2} \left\| \sum_i \alpha_i \mathsf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i \right\|_2^2 - \left\langle \sum_i \alpha_i \mathsf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i, \sum_i \alpha_i \mathsf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i \right\rangle + \sum_i \alpha_i \\ & = -\frac{1}{2} \left\| \sum_i \alpha_i \mathsf{y}_i \mathbf{x}_i \right\|_2^2 + \sum_i \alpha_i \end{split} \tag{s.t. } \sum_i \alpha_i \mathsf{y}_i = 0)$$

Therefore, we can write the dual problem as

$$\min_{\alpha \geq 0} - \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i} \sum_{j} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} \mathbf{y}_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \left\langle \mathbf{x}_{i}, \mathbf{x}_{j} \right\rangle \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{y}_{i} = 0$$

We prefer this dual problem because it admits a very easy way to use a non-linear mapping $\mathbf{x} \stackrel{\phi}{\to} \phi(\mathbf{x})$ to transform non-linearly separable data \mathbf{x} into linearly separable $\phi(\mathbf{x})$. After applying the unknown non-linear mapping, we get

$$\min_{\boldsymbol{\alpha} \geq 0} - \sum_i \alpha_i + \frac{1}{2} \sum_i \sum_j \alpha_i \alpha_j \mathbf{y}_i \mathbf{y}_j \boxed{\left\langle \phi(\mathbf{x}_i), \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \right\rangle} \quad \text{s.t.} \quad \sum_i \alpha_i \mathbf{y}_i = 0$$

which we can find without explicitly applying ϕ by using the "kernel trick" from lecture 7, writing the inner product directly as a non-linear function.