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Nankai-Baidu Joint Laboratory

Parallel and Distributed Software Technology Lab





参考资料: [Andrew Ng] CS229 Lecture notes 3





SVMs are among the best (and many believe are indeed the best) "off-the-shelf" supervised learning algorithms.





- > margins and the idea of separating data with a large "gap"
- > the optimal margin classifier, which will lead us into a digression on Lagrange duality
- > kernels, which give a way to apply SVMs efficiently in very high dimensional (such as infinitedimensional) feature spaces
- > SMO algorithm, which gives an efficient implementation of SVMs





- ➤ margins and the idea of separating data with a large "gap" 边缘, 余地, 页边空白
- > Consider logistic regression:

$$y = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } p(y = 1 | x, \theta) \ge 0.5, \text{ or } \theta^T x \ge 0 \\ 0 & \text{if } p(y = 1 | x, \theta) < 0.5, \text{ or } \theta^T x < 0 \end{cases}$$

 $\triangleright$  Consider a positive training example: y = 1

The larger  $\theta^T x$  is, the larger also is  $p(y = 1 | x, \theta)$ , and thus also the higher our degree of "confidence" that the label is 1.





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Thus, informally we can think of our prediction as being a very confident one that y = 1 if  $\theta^T x \gg 0$ 





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Similarly, we think of logistic regression as making a very confident prediction of y = 0, if  $\theta^T x \ll 0$ 



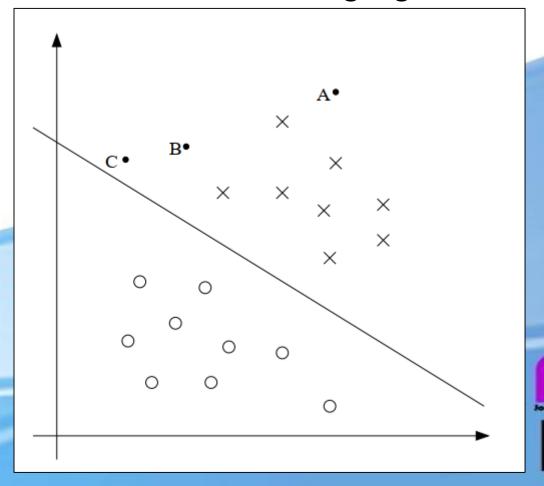


- ➤ margins and the idea of separating data with a large "gap" 边缘, 余地, 页边空白
- $\succ$  Thus, a very confident one that y=1 if  $\theta^T x \gg 0$
- $\triangleright$  Similarly, a very confident prediction of y=0, if  $\theta^T x \ll 0$
- Find  $\theta$  s.t.  $\theta^T x_i \gg 0$  whenever  $y_i = 1$ ,  $\theta^T x_i \ll 0$  whenever  $y_i = 0$ ,





- For a different type of intuition, consider the following figure:
- > 'x': positive training examples
- > 'o': negative training examples
- $\triangleright$  a decision boundary :  $\theta^T x = 0$
- > three points : A, B, C
- > quite confident that A : positive
- C positive negative?
- much confident about our prediction at A than at C.





- ➤ We see that if a point is far from the separating hyperplane, then we may be significantly more confident in our predictions.
- Again, informally we think it'd be nice if, given a training set, we manage to find a decision boundary that allows us to make all correct and confident predictions on the training examples.
- From now, we'll use  $y \in \{-1, +1\}$  to denote the class labels. Also, we will use parameters w, b, and write our classifier as

$$h_{w,b} = g(w^T x + b) = \begin{cases} +1, w^T x + b \ge 0, \\ -1, w^T x + b < 0. \end{cases}$$





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Figure Given a training example  $(x_i, y_i)$ , we define the functional margin of (w, b) with respect to the training example

$$\gamma_i = y_i \cdot (w^T x + b)$$

- if  $y_i = +1$ , for our prediction to be confident and correct, we need  $w^T x + b$  to be a large positive number.

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- if  $y_i = -1$ , then for the functional margin to be large, we need  $w^T x + b$  to be a large negative number.



$$h_{w,b} = g(w^T x + b) = \begin{cases} +1, w^T x + b \ge 0, \\ -1, w^T x + b < 0. \end{cases}$$

- Figure Given a training example  $(x_i, y_i)$ , we define the functional margin  $\gamma_i = y_i \cdot (w^T x + b)$
- For our prediction to be confident and correct, for the functional margin to be large
  - $\square$  if  $y_i = +1$ , need  $w^T x + b$  to be a large positive number.
  - $\Box$  if  $y_i = -1$ , need  $w^T x + b$  to be a large negative number.

Hence, a large functional margin represents a confident and a correct prediction.

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$$h_{w,b} = g(w^T x + b) = \begin{cases} +1, w^T x + b \ge 0, \\ -1, w^T x + b < 0. \end{cases}$$

- Figure Given a training example  $(x_i, y_i)$ , we define the functional margin  $\gamma_i = y_i \cdot (w^T x + b)$
- ➤ A large functional margin represents a confident and a correct prediction.

If we replace w with 2w and b with 2b, then since  $g(w^Tx + b) = g(2w^Tx + 2b)$ , this would not change  $h_{w,b}$  at all. (depends only on the sign, but not on the magnitude of  $w^Tx + b$ )  $\Box - \uparrow \Leftrightarrow \lambda \not = x_c$ 

Intuitively, it might therefore make sense to impose some sort of normalization condition such as that we have been some sort of normalization condition such as that we have been some sort of normalization condition such as that we have been some sort of normalization condition such as that we have some sort of normalization condition such as that we have some sort of normalization condition such as that we have some sort of normalization condition such as that we have some sort of normalization condition such as that we have some sort of normalization condition such as that we have some sort of normalization condition such as that we have some sort of normalization condition such as that we have some sort of normalization condition such as that we have some sort of normalization condition such as that we have some sort of normalization conditions are some sort of normalization conditions.



$$h_{w,b} = g(w^T x + b) = \begin{cases} +1, w^T x + b \ge 0, \\ -1, w^T x + b < 0. \end{cases}$$

Figure Given a training set  $S = \{(x_i, y_i); i = 1, ..., m\}$ , we define the functional margin of (w, b) with respect to the training set  $\hat{\gamma} = \min_{i=1}^{m} \gamma_i$   $(\gamma_i = y_i \cdot (w^T x + b))$ 



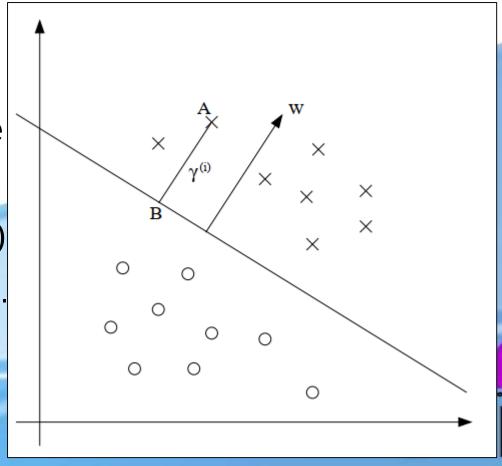


### geometric margins

- Consider the picture below:
- The decision boundary correspoding to (w, b)
- $\triangleright$  w is orthogonal to the hyperplane
- $\triangleright$  Consider the point at  $A(x_i, y_i = 1)$
- $\triangleright \gamma_i$  is given by the line segment AB.

$$> \gamma_i = \left(\frac{w}{\|w\|}\right)^T x_i + \frac{b}{\|w\|}$$

For a positive training example at A.





## geometric margins

- $\succ$  Consider the point at A( $x_i, y_i = 1$ )
- $> \gamma_i = \left(\frac{w}{\|w\|}\right)^T x_i + \frac{b}{\|w\|}$  For a positive training example at A.
- More generally, the geometric margin of (w, b) with respect to a training example  $(x_i, y_i)$  to be

$$\gamma_i = y_i \cdot \left( \left( \frac{w}{\|w\|} \right)^T x_i + \frac{b}{\|w\|} \right)$$

If ||w|| = 1, then the functional margin equals the geometric margin. the geometric margin is invariant to rescaling of the parameters of the parameters of the parameters of the parameters.



➤ Given a training set, it seems from our previous discussion that a natural desideratum is to try to find a decision boundary that maximizes the geometric margin, since this would reflect a very confident set of predictions on the training set and a good "fit" to the training data. Specifically, this will result in a classifier that separates the positive and the negative training examples with a "gap" (geometric margin).





- For now, we will assume that we are given a training set that is linearly separable.
- > How will we find the one that achieves the maximum geometric margin? the following optimization problem: I.e., we want to maximize γ, subject to each training example having functional margin at least  $\gamma$ . The ||w|| = 1 constraint moreover ensures that the functional margin equals to the geometric margin, so we are also guaranteed that all the geometric margins are at least \gamma.

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$$ightharpoonup \max_{\gamma,w,b} \gamma$$
 s.t  $y_i \cdot (w^T x + b) \cdot \frac{1}{\|w\|} \ge \gamma, i = 1, ..., m$ 





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$$\operatorname{set} y_i \cdot (w^T x + b) = 1$$

$$> \max_{\gamma,w,b} \gamma$$
 s.t  $\frac{1}{\|w\|} \ge \gamma, i = 1, ..., m$ 





- For now, we will assume that we are given a training set that is linearly separable.
- ➤ How will we find the one that achieves the maximum geometric margin?

The "||w|| = 1" constraint is a nasty (non-convex) one.

Recall: we can add an arbitrary scaling constraint on w and b without changing anything. Consider:

$$ightharpoonup \max_{w,b} \frac{1}{\|w\|}$$

s.t. 
$$y_i \cdot (w^T x_i + b) \ge 1, i = 1, ..., m$$





- For now, we will assume that we are given a training set that is linearly separable.
- ➤ How will we find the one that achieves the maximum geometric margin?

#### Consider:

> Lagrange duality





- For now, we will assume that we are given a training set that is linearly separable.
- ➤ How will we find the one that achieves the maximum geometric margin?
- Lagrange duality

$$w^T x + b = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i y_i \langle x_i, x \rangle + b$$





 $\triangleright$  attributes : the "original" input value x

 $\triangleright$  features :  $\emptyset(x)$   $\emptyset$  : the feature mapping

$$\emptyset(x) = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ x^2 \\ x^3 \end{bmatrix}$$

Rather than applying SVMs using the original input attributes x, we may instead want to learn using some features  $\emptyset(x)$ .

To do so, we simply need to go over our previous algorithm, and replace x everywhere in it with  $\phi(x)$ .

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- $\triangleright$  attributes : the "original" input value x
- $\triangleright$  features :  $\emptyset(x)$   $\emptyset$  : the feature mapping
- $\triangleright$  Since the algorithm can be written entirely in terms of the inner products  $\langle x, z \rangle$ , this means that we would replace all those inner products with  $\langle \emptyset(x), \emptyset(z) \rangle$ . Define the corresponding Kernel to be:

$$K(x,z) = \emptyset(x)^T \emptyset(z)$$

everywhere we previously had  $\langle x, z \rangle$  in our algorithm, we could simply replace it with K(x,z), and our algorithm would now be learning using the features  $\emptyset$ .





- $\succ$  we could easily compute K(x,z) by finding  $\emptyset(x)$  and  $\emptyset(z)$  and taking their inner product.
- Whatis more interesting is that often, K(x,z) may be very inexpensive to calculate, even though  $\emptyset(x)$  itself may be very expensive to calculate(perhaps because it is an extremely high dimensional vector).
- $\triangleright$  In such settings, an efficient way to calculate K(x,z),

we can get SVMs to learn in the high dimensional feature space given by  $\emptyset$ , but without ever having to explicitly find or represent vectors  $\emptyset(x)$ .





- Intuitively, we can think of K(x,z) as some measurement of how similar are  $\emptyset(x)$  and  $\emptyset(z)$ , or of how similar are x and z.
- if  $\emptyset(x)$  and  $\emptyset(z)$  are close together, then we might expect K(x,z) to be large. Conversely, if  $\emptyset(x)$  and  $\emptyset(z)$  are far apart, ... be small.
- ➤ Gaussian kernel:

$$K(x,z) = exp\left(-\frac{\|x-z\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

A reasonable measure of x and z's similarity, and is close to 1 when x and z are close, and near 0 when x and z are far apart.

Corresponds to an infinite dimensional feature mapping of Laboratory
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> some finite set of m points  $\{x_1, x_2, ..., x_m\}$ ,

Define the Kernel Matrix to be a square, m by m matrix K.  $K_{ij} = K(x_i, x_j)$ 

if K is a valid kernel (i.e., if it corresponds to some feature mapping  $\emptyset$ ), then the corresponding Kernel matrix K is symmetric positive semidefinite.

Theorem (Mercer). Necessary and Sufficient

Given a function K, apart from trying to find a feature mapping  $\emptyset$  that corresponds to it, this theorem therefore gives another way of testing if it is a valid kernel.



> Consider the digit recognition problem, in which given an image (16x16 pixels) of a handwritten digit (0-9)

Using the Gaussian kernel, SVMs are able to obtain extremely good performance on this problem.

This was particularly surprising since the input attributes x were just 256-dimensional vectors of the image pixel intensity values, and the system had no prior knowledge about vision, or even about which pixels are adjacent to which other ones.

> Keep in mind that the idea of kernels has significantly broader applicability than SVMs.: algorithm only inner products bwtween input attribute vectors Parallel and Distributed

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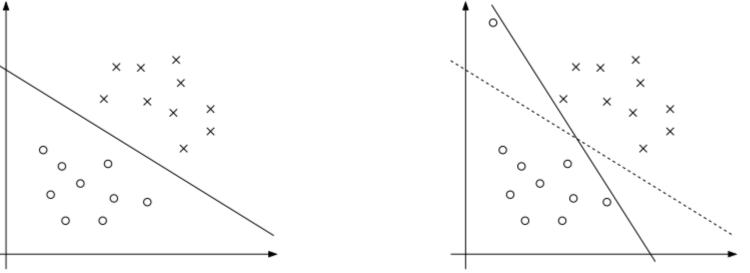


### Regularization and the non-separable case

➤ While mapping data to a high dimensional feature space via Ø does generally increase the likelihood that the data in separable, we can't guarantee that it always will be so.

Also, in some cases it is not clear that finding a separating hyperplane is exactly what we'd want to do, since that might be

susceptible to outliers.







### Regularization and the non-separable case

- > for non-linearly separable datasets + be less sensitive to outliers

s.t. 
$$y_i \cdot (w^T x_i + b) \ge 1, i = 1, ..., m$$

$$> \min_{w,b} \frac{1}{2} ||w||^2 + C \sum_{i=1}^m \xi_i$$

s.t. 
$$y_i \cdot (w^T x_i + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i, i = 1, ..., m$$
  
 $\xi_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., m$ 

Thus, examples are now permitted to have margin less than 1. if an example has functional margin  $1-\xi_i$ , we would pay a cost of they objective function being increased by  $C\xi_i$ .

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## The SMO algorithm

Coordinate Ascent

```
\begin{split} W(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{i-1}, \alpha_i, \alpha_{i+1}, \dots, \alpha_m) \\ \text{Loop until convergence:} \{ \\ \text{For } i = 1, \dots, m, \{ \\ \alpha_i \coloneqq \arg\max_{\widehat{\alpha}_i} W(\alpha_1, \dots, \alpha_{i-1}, \alpha_i, \alpha_{i+1}, \dots, \alpha_m) \,. \end{split}
```



### The SMO algorithm

> the SMO algorithm

#### Repeat till convergence {

- 1. Select some pair  $\alpha_i$  and  $\alpha_j$  to update next (using a heuristic that tries to pick the two that will allow us to make the biggest progress towards the global maximum).
- 2. Reoptimize  $W(\alpha)$  with respect to  $\alpha_i$  and  $\alpha_j$ , while holding all the other  $\alpha_k$ 's  $(k \neq i, j)$  fixed.

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