A survey of some Machine Learning models

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April 1, 2025

Outline

Support Vector Machines

Setup

Similar to a logistic model, a **support vector machine** is a model for binary classification, using a hyperplane, of the form $\{\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d \mid \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b = 0\}$, as decision boundary.

However, the optimization goal is different.

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However, the optimization goal is different.

Given sample data $S = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, the goal is to minimize the value of $\frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{w}|^2$, the vector norm¹, subject to the condition that for all $1 \le i \le n$,

$$y_i(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b) \ge 1$$
 is satisfied.²

To work with a data set that is not linearly separable, one introduces so-called "slack variables" $\xi_i \geq 0$, $i=1,\ldots,n$ into the inequalities. They change to $y_i(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1 - \xi_i$.

The reason for wanting to minimize $\frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{w}|^2$?

- Supposing no \mathbf{x}_i passes through hyperplane with parameters \mathbf{w} , b, we can scale both the normal vector and b so that $\min_i |\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b| = 1$.
- ► The distance from any $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ to the hyperplane is $\frac{|\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{i} + b|}{|\mathbf{w}|}$. So, if $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathcal{S}$ is such that $|\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b| = 1$, then its distance to decision boundary is $\rho = \frac{1}{|\mathbf{w}|}$.
- Want to maximize distance to decision boundary, so want to minimize |w|.

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Constrained minimization and SVM

We can understand minimizing $\frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{w}|^2$ subject to $y_i(\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x}_i+b)\geq 1$ with a Lagrangian. (Method of Lagrange multipliers; see Section 7.2 in the Mathematics for Machine Learning book.)

For $\underline{\pmb{\alpha}}=(\pmb{\alpha}_1,\ldots,\pmb{\alpha}_n)$, with $\pmb{\alpha}_i\in\mathbb{R}$, Lagrangian is

$$L(\mathbf{w}, b, \underline{\alpha}) = \frac{1}{2} |\mathbf{w}|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \left(y_i (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b) - 1 \right).$$

It is minimized when

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}} L = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i};$$

$$\nabla_{b} L = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} = 0;$$

$$\alpha_{i} (y_{i} (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{i} + b) - 1) = 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \alpha_{i} = 0 \quad \text{OR} \quad y_{i} (\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{i} + b) = 1.$$

Support vectors are those \mathbf{x}_i for which $\alpha_i \neq 0$, and so $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b = \pm 1$.

Lagrangian Duality

Something interesting happens when we convert the previous Lagrangian optimization problem into its "Lagrangian dual problem." This means that we take the minimum solution for \mathbf{w} , put it into $L(\mathbf{w},b,\underline{\alpha})$ and want multipliers $\alpha_i \geq 0$ that maximize the value of this. That is, maximize

$$\frac{1}{2}\left|\sum_{i=1}^{n}\alpha_{i}y_{i}\mathbf{x}_{i}\right|^{2}-\sum_{i=1}^{n}\alpha_{i}\left(y_{i}\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n}\alpha_{j}y_{j}\mathbf{x}_{j}\right)\cdot\mathbf{x}_{i}+y_{i}b-1\right).$$

Rearranged, you can rewrite it:

$$\max_{\underline{\alpha}} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j$$

subject to $\alpha_i \geq 0$ and $\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0$.

This optimization problem only depends on knowing $\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j$ for each (i,j), and this leads to what are called **kernel methods** that are very computationally efficient and allow one to use SVM models that have non-linear decision boundaries.

SVMs via Gradient Descent

An alternative for optimizing an SVM classifier is to do so with a loss function. The loss function has a fair amount of similarity to the log-loss function we used in logistic regression; however, the per-example losses use a piecewise linear function.

When $y_i=1$ then, writing $\mathbf{z}_i=\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x}_i+\mathbf{b}$, the per-example loss is $\mathbf{C}\max(1-\mathbf{z}_i,0)$ for some constant \mathbf{C} . Call this $\mathrm{Ccost}_1(\mathbf{z}_i)$. When $y_i=-1$ (and so $\tilde{y}_i=0$) then the per-example loss is $\mathrm{Ccost}_0(\mathbf{z}_i)=\mathbf{C}\max(1+\mathbf{z}_i,0)$. However, we also include the norm of \mathbf{w} in the loss:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}(\mathbf{w},b) = \frac{1}{2}|\mathbf{w}|^2 + \frac{1}{n}\sum_{i=1}^n C\left(\tilde{y}_i \mathrm{cost}_1(\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x}_i + b) + (1-\tilde{y}_i)\mathrm{cost}_0(\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x}_i + b)\right).$$

Similarity to Perceptron algorithm updates

Consider the **per-example loss**: given one $(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i) \in \mathcal{S}$, have the term $-\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_i \log(f_{\omega}(\mathbf{x}_i)) - (1 - \tilde{\mathbf{y}}_i) \log(1 - f_{\omega}(\mathbf{x}))$. Its partial w.r.t. \mathbf{w}_j is

$$-\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_{i}\mathbf{x}_{i,j}*(1-f_{\omega}(\mathbf{x}_{i}))+(1-\tilde{\mathbf{y}}_{i})\mathbf{x}_{i,j}f_{\omega}(\mathbf{x}_{i}).$$

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If $\tilde{y}_i=1$, but $f_{\omega}(\mathbf{x}_i)$ is close to o, then this is almost $-x_{i,j}=-y_ix_{i,j}$. Were we to do an update with $\eta=1$ then we would have $w_j^{(t)}\approx w_j^{(t-1)}+y_ix_{i,j}$. (The Perceptron update in the j^{th} coordinate.)

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If $\tilde{y}_i=1$, but $f_{\omega}(\mathbf{x}_i)$ is close to o, then this is $almost - x_{i,j} = -y_i x_{i,j}$. Were we to do an update with $\eta=1$ then we would have $w_j^{(t)} \approx w_j^{(t-1)} + y_i x_{i,j}$. (The Perceptron update in the j^{th} coordinate.) Likewise, if $\tilde{y}_i=0$, but $f_{\omega}(\mathbf{x}_i)$ is close to 1, then the partial is approximately $x_{i,j}$; so, using $\eta=1$, we would get $w_j^{(t)} \approx w_j^{(t-1)} - x_{i,j} = w_j^{(t-1)} + y_i x_{i,j}$. (Like the Perceptron algorithm update again.)

Example with Logistic model

Given ± 1 -labeled sample data $\mathcal{S}=\{(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, we found an expression for each partial derivative of $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}$. In fact, if we call $\mathbf{w}_{d+1}=\mathbf{b}$ and $\mathbf{x}_{i,d+1}=1$ for every $1\leq i\leq n$, then

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial w_j} \mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n -\tilde{y}_i x_{i,j} (1 - f_{\omega}(\mathbf{x}_i)) + (1 - \tilde{y}_i) x_{i,j} f_{\omega}(\mathbf{x}_i)$$

for every $1 \le j \le d + 1$.

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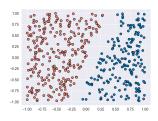
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Example: consider simulated sample data below, drawn uniformly from a subset of $[-1, 1]^2$, consisting of points at least a fixed distance from

$$H=\{(x_1,x_2)\in\mathbb{R}^2\mid 2x_1-\frac{2}{3}x_2-\frac{1}{5}=0\}$$
. Positively labeled points are in blue.



Example with Logistic model

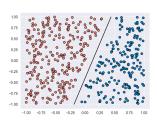
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Example (cont'd): Batch gradient descent, with learning rate 0.5, stopping with threshhold 0.0005, gives (approximately) parameters for:

$$\hat{H} = \{ (\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2) \in \mathbb{R}^2 \mid 2.01\mathbf{x}_1 - 0.63\mathbf{x}_2 - 0.26 = 0 \}.$$



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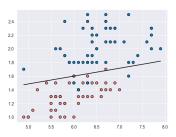
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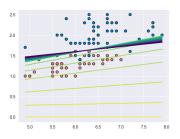
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For visualization, I first show just the first and fourth coordinates, and the results for logistic model in 2D.

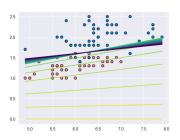


Pictured below are selected lines found during the batch gradient descent.



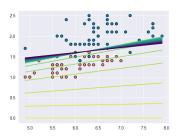
³Recall, the model labels the point with +1 when $f_{\omega}(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0.5$.

Pictured below are selected lines found during the batch gradient descent. As before, yellow-to-purple is progression through the procedure. Consecutive lines that are shown have 200 updates between them; ≈ 4000 updates in total.



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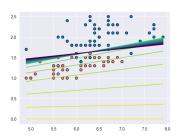
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The model on the points in \mathbb{R}^4 took less updates (just under 3000). It had 97% accuracy on the data.



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