A survey of some Machine Learning models

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April 1, 2025

Outline

Support Vector Machines

Neural Networks

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:

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

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Single Layer

Fix a dimension d and a function $\sigma:\mathbb{R}\to\mathbb{R}$ (feel free to think of this as the logistic function, for now). For any $\omega=(\mathbf{w},b)\in\mathbb{R}^{d+1}$, set $f_{\omega}(\mathbf{x})=\sigma(\mathbf{w}\cdot\mathbf{x}+b)$.

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Given some collection $\omega_1 = (\mathbf{w}_1, b_1), \omega_2 = (\mathbf{w}_2, b_2), \dots, \omega_m = (\mathbf{w}_m, b_m),$ define $F : \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}^m$ by setting

$$F(\mathbf{x}) = (f_{\omega_1}(\mathbf{x}), f_{\omega_2}(\mathbf{x}), \dots, f_{\omega_m}(\mathbf{x})).$$

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If we use W to denote the $m \times d$ matrix with \mathbf{w}_i as row i, and $\mathbf{b} = (b_1, \dots, b_m)$, then we can write $F(\mathbf{x}) = \sigma(W\mathbf{x} + \mathbf{b})$ (if we allow σ to be applied to a vector by applying the function to each component of the vector).

W: called the "weight matrix" for the layer map; **b** is called the "bias vector."

Composing layers

A neural network is the result of composing some number of layer maps. That is, let m_0, m_1, \ldots, m_L be positive integers and say that F_1, F_2, \ldots, F_L are each layer maps (as in the previous slide), with $F_i : \mathbb{R}^{m_{i-1}} \to \mathbb{R}^{m_i}$.

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The fully connected neural network, with activation function σ , associated to this collection of weight matrices and bias vectors is the parameterized function

$$f(\mathbf{x}) = F_L \circ F_{L-1} \circ \ldots \circ F_2 \circ F_1(\mathbf{x}).$$

The parameters for the function are $(W_1, \mathbf{b}_1, W_2, \mathbf{b}_2, \dots, W_L, \mathbf{b}_L)$ (flattened out as a vector).

Example with Logistic model

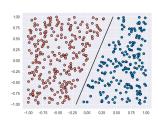
Given ± 1 -labeled sample data $\mathcal{S}=\{(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i)\}_{i=1}^n$, we found an expression for each partial derivative of $\mathcal{L}_{\mathcal{S}}$. In fact, if we call $\mathbf{w}_{d+1}=\mathbf{b}$ and $\mathbf{x}_{i,d+1}=1$ for every $1\leq i\leq n$, then

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

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

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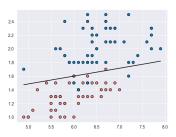
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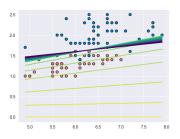
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For visualization, I first show just the first and fourth coordinates, and the results for logistic model in 2D.

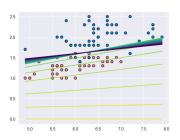


Pictured below are selected lines found during the batch gradient descent.



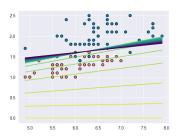
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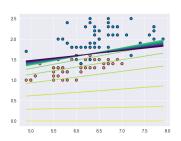
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The model on the points in \mathbb{R}^4 took less updates (just under 3000). It had 97% accuracy on the data.



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