Lecture 13: Kernel Methods Support Vector Machines Fall 2022

Kai-Wei Chang CS @ UCLA

kw+cm146@kwchang.net

The instructor gratefully acknowledges Dan Roth, Vivek Srikuar, Sriram Sankararaman, Fei Sha, Ameet Talwalkar, Eric Eaton, and Jessica Wu whose slides are heavily used, and the many others who made their course material freely available online.

The Perceptron Algorithm

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Given a training set \mathcal{D} = \{(x,y)\}_{i=1}^m
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- 1. Initialize $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{0}$
- 2. For (x,y) in \mathcal{D} :
- 3. if $y w^T \phi(x) \leq 0$
- 4. $w \leftarrow w + y \phi(x)$
- 5.
- 6. Return w

Prediction: $y^{\text{test}} \leftarrow \text{sgn}(w^{\mathsf{T}}\phi(x))$

Assume $y \in \{1, -1\}$

The Dual Perceptron Algorithm

Given a training set $\mathcal{D} = \{(x,y)\}_{i=1}^m$

Prediction: $y^{\text{test}} \leftarrow \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \boldsymbol{\phi}(x_{i})^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$

$$w = \sum_{j=1..m} \alpha_j \, y_j \phi(x_j)$$

Predicting with linear classifiers

- Prediction = $sgn(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x})$ and $\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$
- That is, we just showed that

$$\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} = \sum_i \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \mathbf{x}$$

- Prediction can be done by computing dot products between training examples and the new example x
- **This** is true if we map examples with $\phi(x)$

$$\mathbf{w}^T \phi(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_i \alpha_i y_i \phi(\mathbf{x}_i)^T \phi(\mathbf{x})$$

Example: polynomial kernel

Let us examine more closely the inner products $\phi(x_m)^T\phi(x_n)$ for a pair of data points x_m and x_n .

Polynomial-based nonlinear basis functions consider the following $\phi(x)$:

$$oldsymbol{\phi}: oldsymbol{x} = \left(egin{array}{c} x_1 \ x_2 \end{array}
ight)
ightarrow oldsymbol{\phi}(oldsymbol{x}) = \left(egin{array}{c} x_1^2 \ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \ x_2^2 \end{array}
ight)$$

This gives rise to an inner product in a special form,

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}_m)^{\mathrm{T}}\phi(\mathbf{x}_n) = x_{m1}^2 x_{n1}^2 + 2x_{m1} x_{m2} x_{n1} x_{n2} + x_{m2}^2 x_{n2}^2$$
$$= (x_{m1} x_{n1} + x_{m2} x_{n2})^2 = (\mathbf{x}_m^{\mathrm{T}} \mathbf{x}_n)^2$$

Namely, the inner product can be computed by a function $(\boldsymbol{x}_m^{\mathrm{T}}\boldsymbol{x}_n)^2$ defined in terms of the original features, without computing $\phi(\cdot)$.

In this example, $x \in R^2$, the benefit of using kernel is significant, but consider when $x \in R^{1000}$, $\phi(x) \in R^{500500}$

The Kernel Trick

Suppose we wish to compute

$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})^{\mathsf{T}} \phi(\mathbf{z})$$

Here ϕ maps **x** and **z** to a high dimensional space

The Kernel Trick: Save time/space by computing the value of $K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z})$ by performing operations in the original space (without a feature transformation!)

Kernel functions

- \Leftrightarrow For any x_m , x_n

$$k(\boldsymbol{x}_m, \boldsymbol{x}_n) = k(\boldsymbol{x}_n, \boldsymbol{x}_m) \text{ and } k(\boldsymbol{x}_m, \boldsymbol{x}_n) = \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_m)^{\mathrm{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\boldsymbol{x}_n)$$

for some function $\phi(\cdot)$

Example: $(x_m^T x_n)^2$ is a kernel, because it is the linear product of the following mapping

$$\phi: \boldsymbol{x} = \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1 \\ x_2 \end{array}\right) \to \phi(\boldsymbol{x}) = \left(\begin{array}{c} x_1^2 \\ \sqrt{2}x_1x_2 \\ x_2^2 \end{array}\right)$$

Exercise

❖ Let $x \in R^2$, show $(4 + 9x_i^T x_j)^2$ is a valid kernel.

Zoo of Kernel

Linear Kernel:
$$K(x, y) = x^T y$$

Polynomial Kernel:
$$K(x,y) = (x^{\mathsf{T}}y + c)^d$$

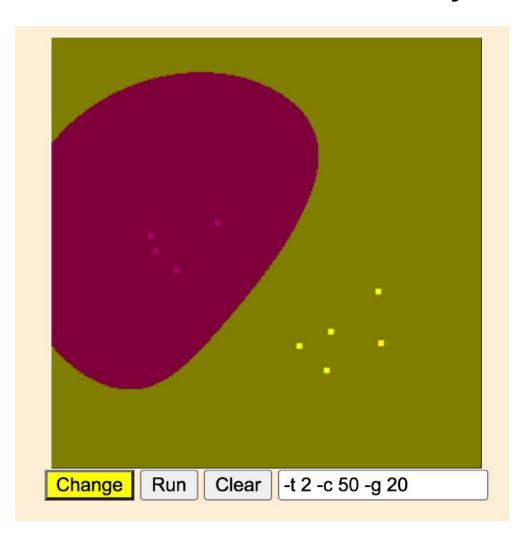
RBF Kernel:
$$K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}') = \exp\left(-\frac{\|\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}'\|^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

RBF Kernel maps data into an infinitedimension space

$$\begin{split} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}'\|^2\right) &= \exp(\frac{2}{2}\mathbf{x}^\top\mathbf{x}' - \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x}\|^2 - \frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x}'\|^2) \\ &= \exp(\mathbf{x}^\top\mathbf{x}') \exp(-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x}\|^2) \exp(-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x}'\|^2) \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \frac{(\mathbf{x}^\top\mathbf{x}')^j}{j!} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x}\|^2\right) \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x}'\|^2\right) \\ &= \sum_{j=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n_1+n_2+\dots+n_k=j} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x}\|^2\right) \frac{x_1^{n_1}\cdots x_k^{n_k}}{\sqrt{n_1!\cdots n_k!}} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x}'\|^2\right) \frac{x_1^{n_1}\cdots x_k^{n_k}}{\sqrt{n_1!\cdots n_k!}} \\ &= \langle \varphi(\mathbf{x}), \varphi(\mathbf{x}') \rangle \\ &\varphi(\mathbf{x}) = \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}\|\mathbf{x}\|^2\right) \left(a_{l_0}^{(0)}, a_1^{(1)}, \dots, a_{l_1}^{(1)}, \dots, a_{l_j}^{(j)}, \dots\right) \\ \text{where } l_j = \binom{k+j-1}{j}, \\ &a_l^{(j)} = \frac{x_1^{n_1}\cdots x_k^{n_k}}{\sqrt{n_1!\cdots n_k!}} \quad | \quad n_1+n_2+\dots+n_k=j \land 1 \le l \le l_j \end{split}$$

Demo - SVM (will be taught later)

https://www.csie.ntu.edu.tw/~cjlin/libsvm/



The Kernel Perceptron Algorithm

Given a training set
$$\mathcal{D} = \{(x,y)\}_{i=1}^m$$

- 1. Initialize $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^{2n}$
- 2. For (x,y) in \mathcal{D} :

$$\text{if } y \ \mathbf{w}^T \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y}^2 \end{bmatrix} \leq \mathbf{0}$$

$$w \leftarrow w + y \begin{bmatrix} x \\ x^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

6.

Return w

Prediction:
$$y^{\text{test}} \leftarrow \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^{\top} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{x} \\ \mathbf{y}^2 \end{bmatrix})$$

Assume *y* ∈ $\{1, -1\}$

The Kernel Perceptron Algorithm

Given a training set
$$\mathcal{D} = \{(x,y)\}_{i=1}^m$$

- 1. Initialize $w \leftarrow 0$
- 2. For (x,y) in \mathcal{D} :
- 3. if $y w^T \phi(x) \leq 0$
- 4. $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{w} + y \phi(\mathbf{x})$
- 5.
- 6. Return w

Prediction: $y^{\text{test}} \leftarrow \text{sgn}(w^{\mathsf{T}}\phi(x))$

$$w^{T} \phi(x) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \phi(x_{i})^{T} \phi(x) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} K(x_{i}, x)$$

Lecture 12: Kernel

Assume $y \in \{1, -1\}$

The Dual Perceptron Algorithm

Given a training set $\mathcal{D} = \{(x,y)\}_{i=1}^m$

Prediction: $y^{\text{test}} \leftarrow \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \boldsymbol{\phi}(x_{i})^{\mathsf{T}} \boldsymbol{\phi}(\mathbf{x})$

$$w = \sum_{j=1..m} \alpha_j \, y_j \phi(x_j)$$

The Kernel Perceptron Algorithm

Given a training set
$$\mathcal{D} = \{(x,y)\}_{i=1}^m$$

- 1. Initialize $\alpha \leftarrow \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^m$ $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{0}$
- 2. For (x_i, y_i) in \mathcal{D} :

3. if
$$y_i \sum_i \alpha_i y_i K(x_i, x_i) \leq \mathbf{0}$$

4.
$$\alpha_i \leftarrow \alpha_i + 1$$
 $w \leftarrow w + y \phi(x)$

- 5. Return w
- 6.

Prediction:
$$y^{\text{test}} \leftarrow \text{sg}n(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\phi(x)) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} K(x_{i}, x)$$

$$w^{T} \phi(x) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \phi(x_{i})^{T} \phi(x) = \sum_{i} \alpha_{i} y_{i} K(x_{i}, x)$$

 $y w^T \phi(x) \leq 0$

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Recap: The Perceptron Algorithm [Rosenblatt 1958]

Given a training set $\mathcal{D} = \{(x, y)\}$

- 1. Initialize $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- 2. For (x,y) in \mathcal{D} :
- 3. if $y(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}) \leq \mathbf{0}$
- 4. $w \leftarrow w + yx$
- 5.
- 6. Return w

Assume $y \in \{1, -1\}$

Prediction: $y^{\text{test}} \leftarrow \text{sg}n(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{\text{test}})$

Footnote: For some algorithms it is mathematically easier to represent False as -1, and at other times, as 0. For the Perceptron algorithm, treat -1 as false and +1 as true.

The Marginal Perceptron Algorithm

Given a training set $\mathcal{D} = \{(x, y)\}$

- 1. Initialize $w \leftarrow 0 \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- 2. For (x,y) in \mathcal{D} :
- 3. if $y(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}) \leq \gamma$
- 4. $w \leftarrow w + yx$
- 5.
- 6. Return w

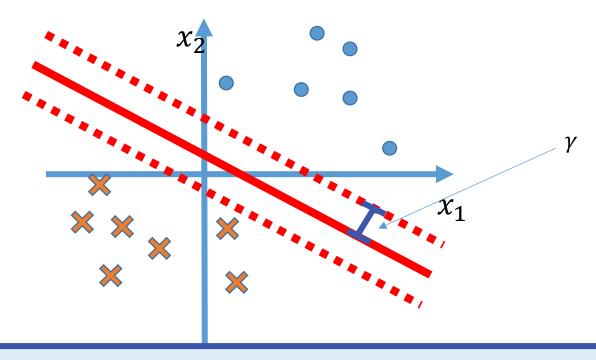
Assume $y \in \{1, -1\}$

 $\gamma \geq 0$ is a hyper-parameter

Prediction: $y^{\text{test}} \leftarrow \text{sgn}(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{\text{test}})$

Footnote: For some algorithms it is mathematically easier to represent False as -1, and at other times, as 0. For the Perceptron algorithm, treat -1 as false and +1 as true.

Marginal Perceptron



Is there a way to find out the best γ automatically?

This lecture: Support vector machines

Training by maximizing margin

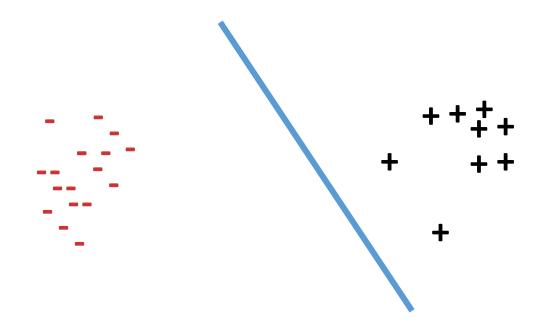
The SVM objective

Solving the SVM optimization problem

Support vectors, duals and kernels

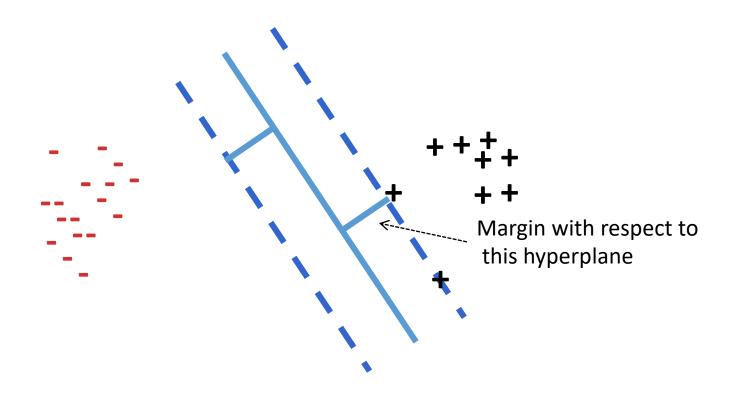
Recall: Margin

The margin of a hyperplane for a dataset is the distance between the hyperplane and the data point nearest to it.

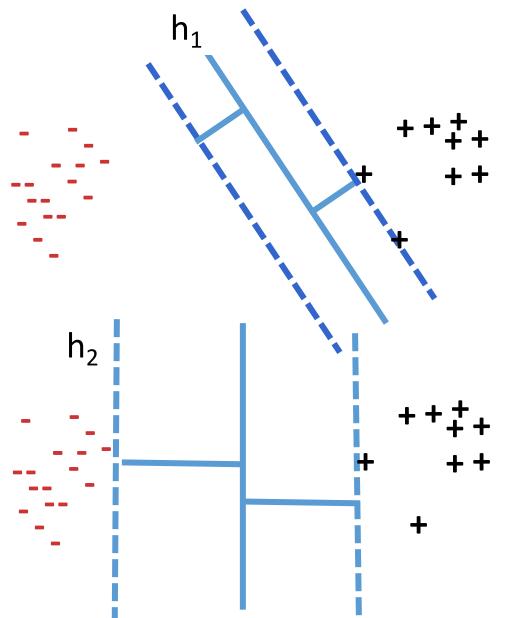


Recall: Margin

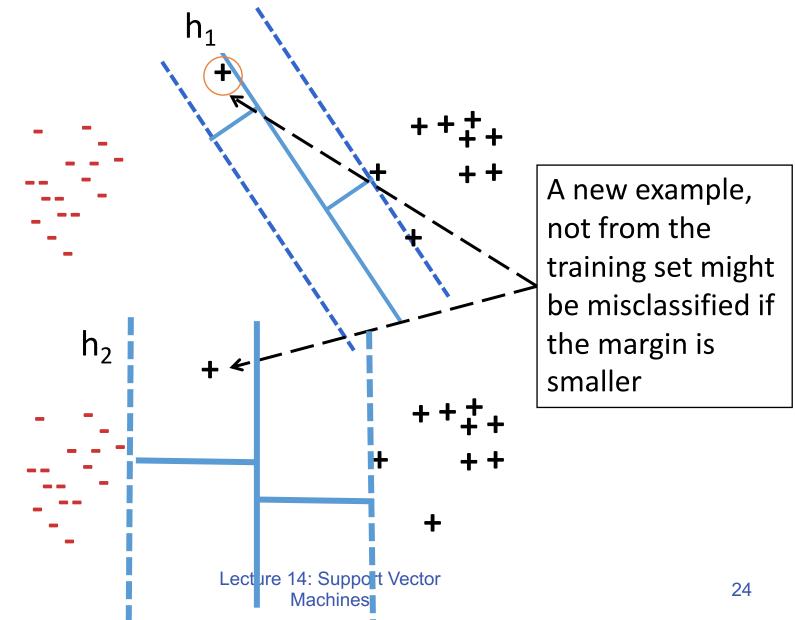
The margin of a hyperplane for a dataset is the distance between the hyperplane and the data point nearest to it.



Which line is a better choice? Why?



Which line is a better choice? Why?



Learning strategy

Find the linear separator that maximizes the margin

This lecture: Support vector machines

Training by maximizing margin

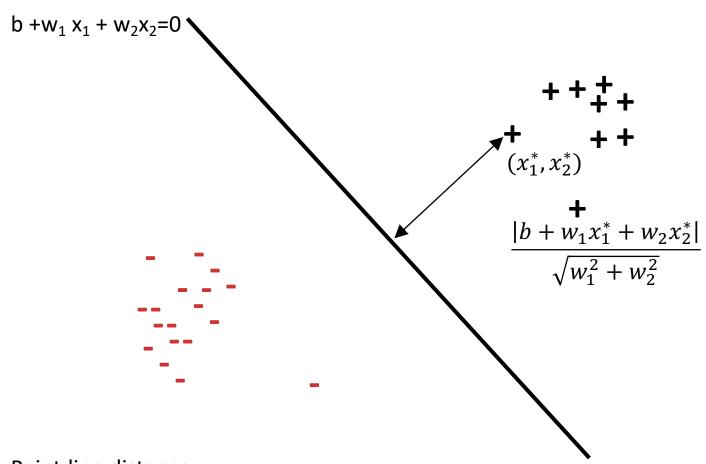
The SVM objective

Solving the SVM optimization problem

Support vectors, duals and kernels

Recall: The geometry of a linear classifier

Prediction = $sgn(b + w_1 x_1 + w_2 x_2)$



Point-line distance:

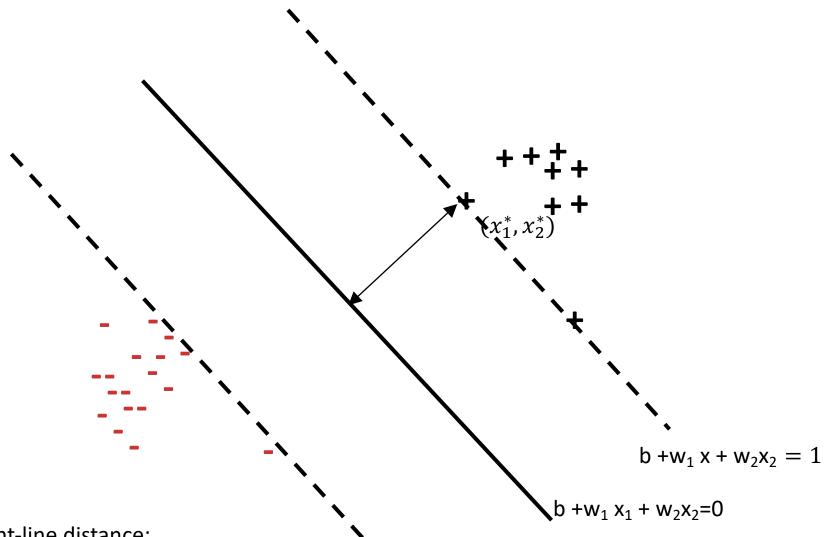
http://mathworld.wolfram.com/Point-LineDistance2-Dimensional.html

Machines

Margin

What is the distance between

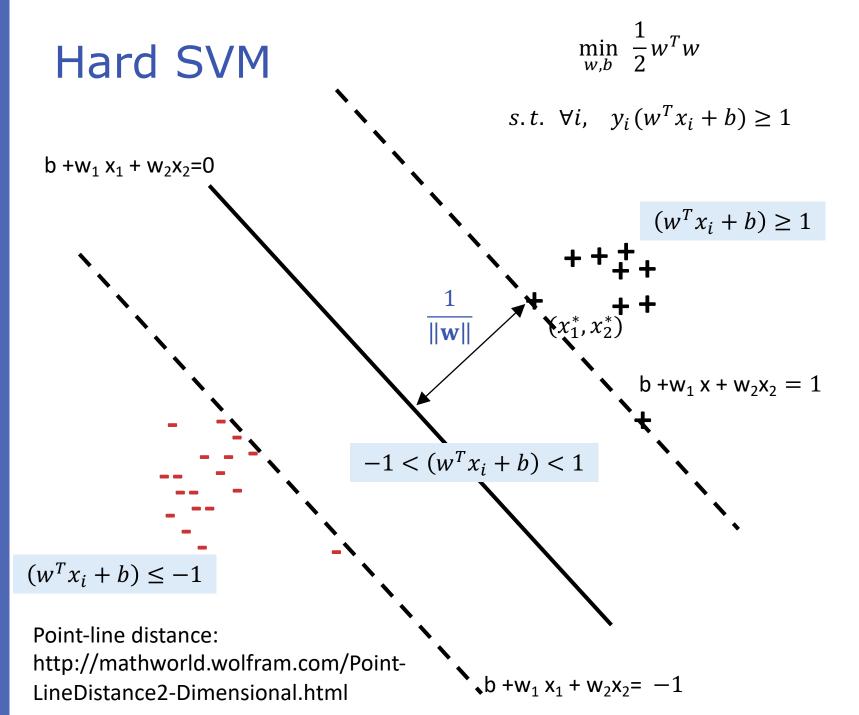
$$b + w_1 x + w_2 x_2 = 1$$
 and $b + w_1 x + w_2 x_2 = 0$



Point-line distance:

http://mathworld.wolfram.com/Point-LineDistance2-Dimensional.html

$$b + w_1 x + w_2 x_2 = -1$$



Max-margin classifiers

Learning problem:

This gives us
$$\max_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$

$$\min_{w,b} \frac{1}{2} w^T w$$

s.t.
$$\forall i$$
, $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1$

Max-margin classifiers

Learning problem:

$$\min_{w,b} \frac{1}{2} w^T w$$

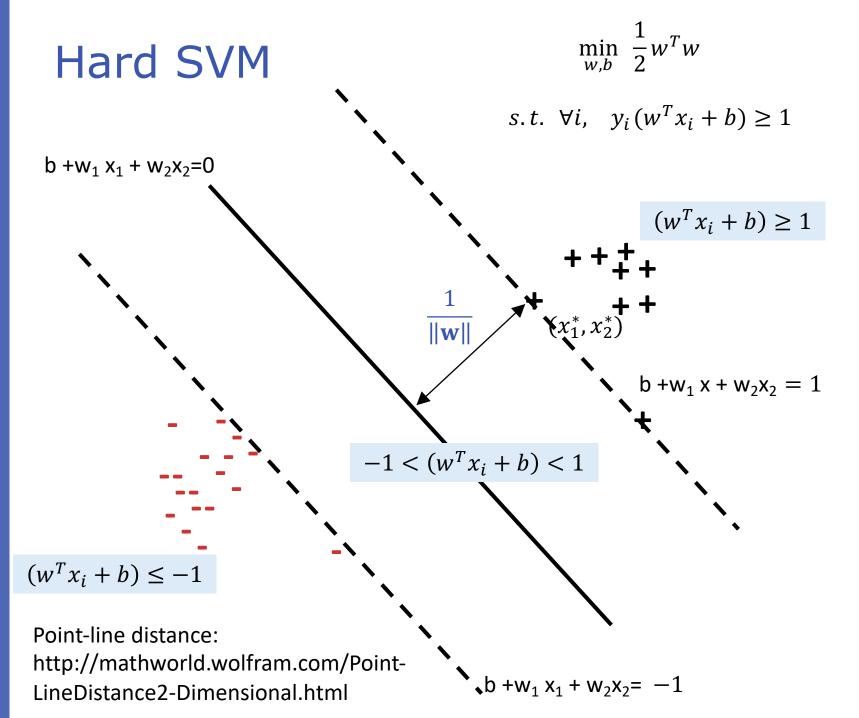
$$s.t. \ \forall i, \ y_i (w^T x_i + b) \ge 1$$

This gives us $\max_{\mathbf{w}} \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$

This condition is true for every example, specifically, for the example closest to the separator

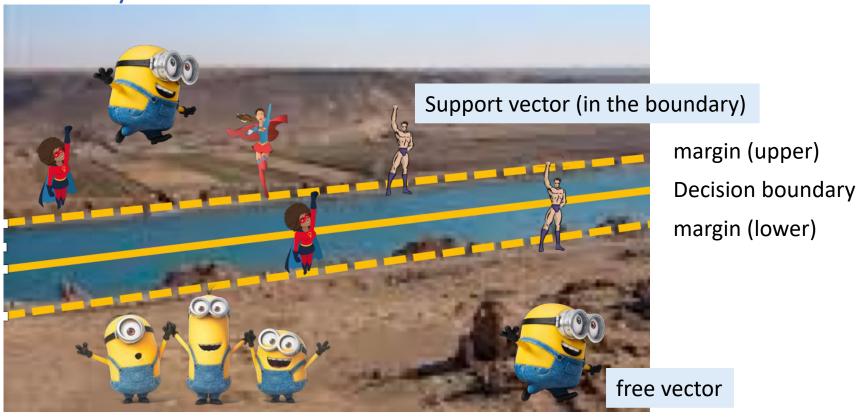
This is called the "hard" Support Vector Machine

We will look at how to solve this optimization problem later



Hard support vector machines?

No training error can be made. All support vectors are on the boundary



What if the data is not separable?

Hard SVM

$$\min_{w,b} \ \frac{1}{2} w^T w$$

s.t.
$$\forall i$$
, $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1$

Maximize margin

Every example has an functional margin of at least 1

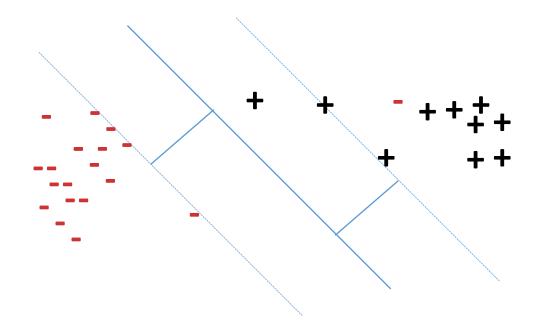
This is a constrained optimization problem

- If the data is not separable, there is no w that will classify the data
- Infeasible problem, no solution!

If you made an mistake in your midterm, got 0 point!

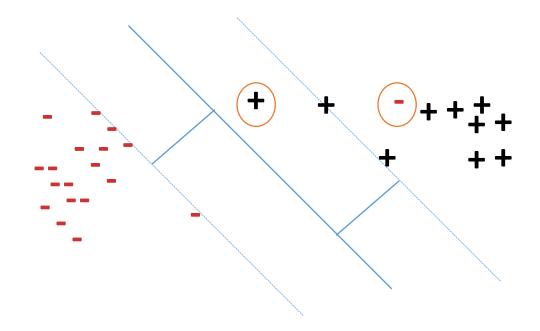
Dealing with non-separable data

Key idea: Allow some examples to "break into the margin" or "make mistake"



Dealing with non-separable data

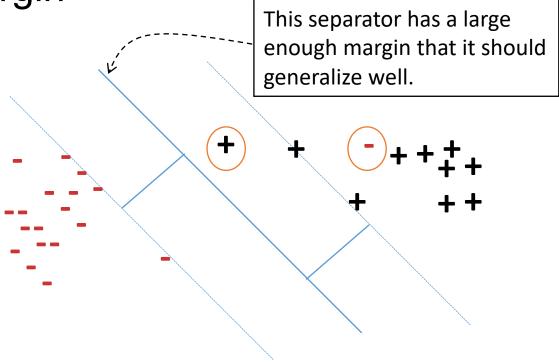
Key idea: Allow some examples to "break into the margin"



Dealing with non-separable data

Key idea: Allow some examples to "break into

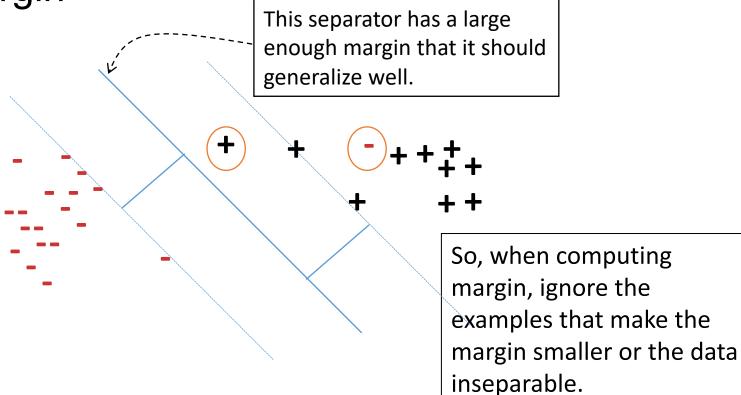
the margin"



Dealing with non-separable data

Key idea: Allow some examples to "break into





Hard SVM:

$$\min_{w,b} \ \frac{1}{2} w^T w$$

s.t.
$$\forall i$$
, $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1$

Maximize margin

Every example has an functional margin of at least 1

Hard SVM:

$$\min_{w,b} \ \frac{1}{2} w^T w$$

Maximize margin

$$s.t. \ \forall i, \ y_i(w^Tx_i+b) \geq 1$$

Every example has an functional margin of at least 1

- \clubsuit Introduce one slack variable ξ_i per example
 - And require $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1 \xi_i$ and $\xi_i \ge 0$

Hard SVM:

$$\min_{w,b} \ \frac{1}{2} w^T w$$

Maximize margin

$$s.t. \ \forall i, \ y_i(w^Tx_i+b) \geq 1$$

Every example has an functional margin of at least 1

- \diamond Introduce one slack variable ξ_i per example
 - And require $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1 \xi_i$ and $\xi_i \ge 0$

Intuition: The slack variable allows examples to "break" into the margin

If the slack value is zero, then the example is either on or outside the margin

Hard SVM:

$$\min_{w,b} \ \frac{1}{2} w^T w$$

Maximize margin

$$s.t. \ \forall i, \ y_i(w^Tx_i+b) \geq 1$$

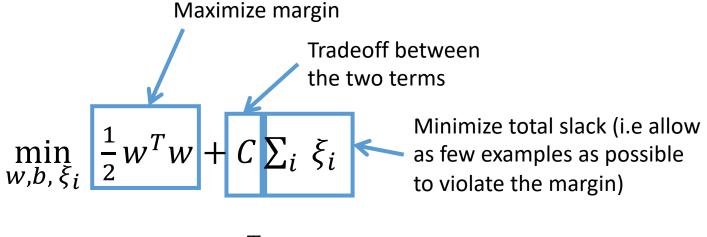
Every example has an functional margin of at least 1

New optimization problem for learning

$$\min_{w,b,\,\xi_i} \, \frac{1}{2} w^T w + C \sum_i \, \xi_i$$

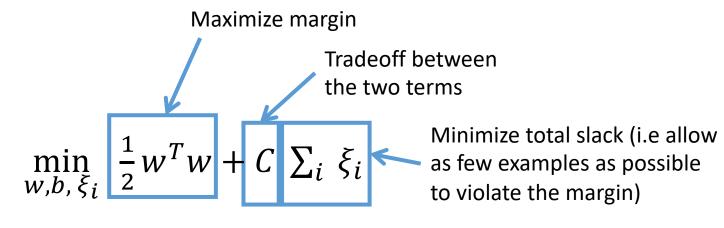
s.t.
$$\forall i$$
, $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i$
 $\xi_i \ge 0$

C is the hyper-parameter



s.t.
$$\forall i$$
, $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i$
 $\xi_i \ge 0$

Equivalently, we can eliminate the slack variables to rewrite this:



s.t.
$$\forall i$$
, $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i$
 $\xi_i \ge 0$

Equivalently, we can eliminate the slack variables to rewrite this:

$$\min_{w,b} \ \frac{1}{2} w^T w + C \sum_i \max(0, 1 - y_i (w^T x_i + b))$$

$$\min_{w,b,\,\xi_i} \, \frac{1}{2} w^T w + C \, \sum_i \, \xi_i$$

s.t.
$$\forall i$$
, $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i$
 $\xi_i \ge 0$

$$\xi_i \ge \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b))$$

$$\min_{w,b} \ \frac{1}{2} w^T w + C \sum_i \max(0, 1 - y_i (w^T x_i + b))$$

Maximizing margin and minimizing loss

$$\min_{w,b,} \frac{1}{2} w^T w + C \sum_{i} \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b))$$

Maximize margin

Penalty for the prediction

SVM objective function

$$\min_{w,b,} \ \frac{1}{2} w^T w + C \sum_{i} \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b))$$

Regularization term:

- Maximize the margin
- Imposes a preference over the hypothesis space and pushes for better generalization
- Can be replaced with other regularization terms which impose other preferences

Empirical Loss:

- Hinge loss
- Penalizes weight vectors that make mistakes
- Can be replaced with other loss functions which impose other preferences

SVM objective function

$$\min_{w,b,} \ \frac{1}{2} w^T w + C \sum_{i} \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b))$$

Regularization term:

- Maximize the margin
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Empirical Loss:

- Hinge loss
- Penalizes weight vectors that make mistakes
- Can be replaced with other loss functions which impose other preferences

A hyper-parameter that controls the tradeoff between a large margin and a small hinge-loss

General learning principle

Risk minimization

Define the notion of "loss" over the training data as a function of a hypothesis

Learning = find the hypothesis that has lowest loss on the training data

General learning principle

Regularized risk minimization

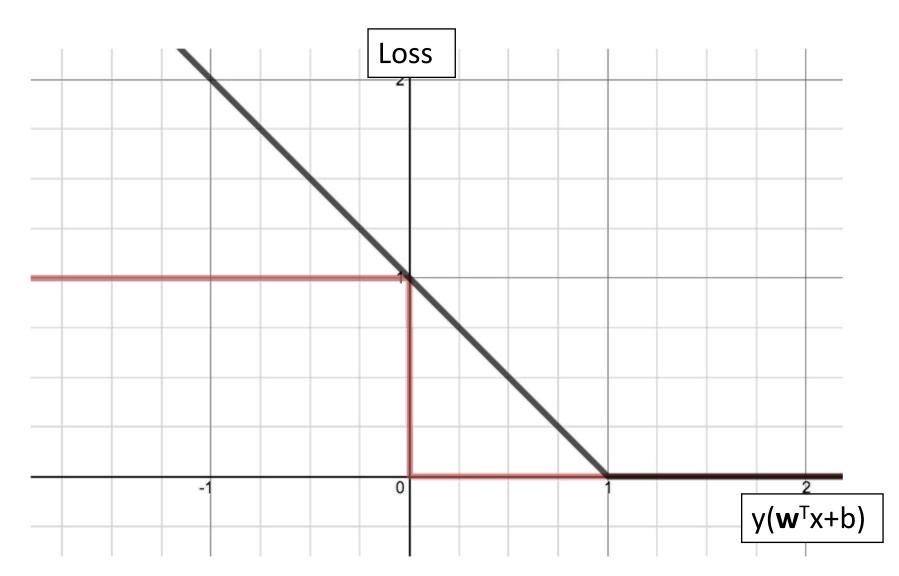
Define a regularization function that penalizes over-complex hypothesis.

Define the notion of "loss" over the training data as a function of a hypothesis

Capacity control gives better generalization

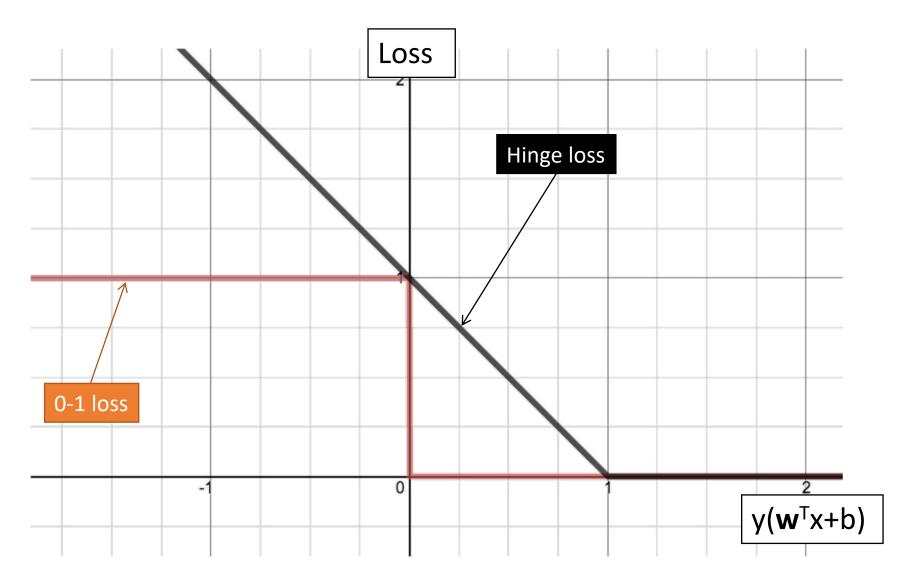
Learning =
find the hypothesis that has lowest
[Regularizer + loss on the training data]

$$L_{Hinge}(y, x, w) = \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b))$$



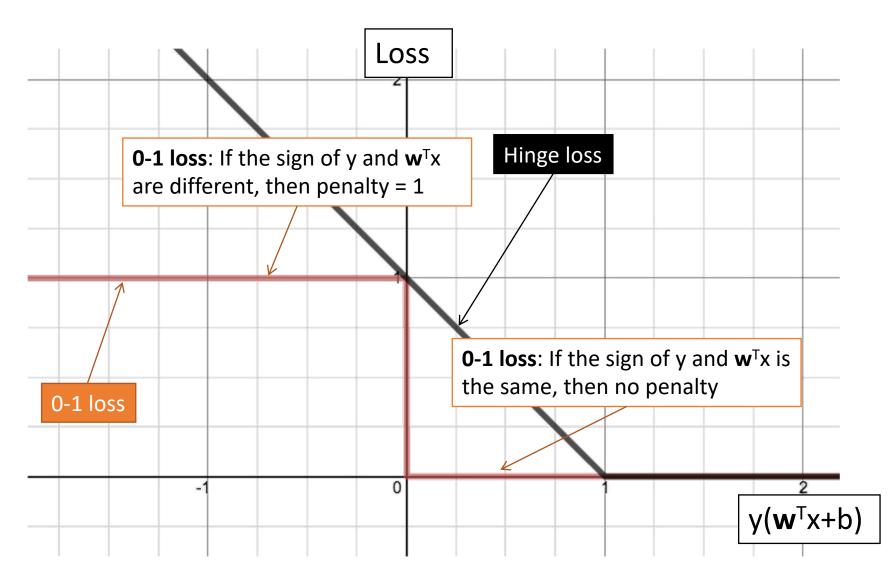
Lec 14: SVM / Emsemble

$$L_{Hinge}(y, x, w) = \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b))$$

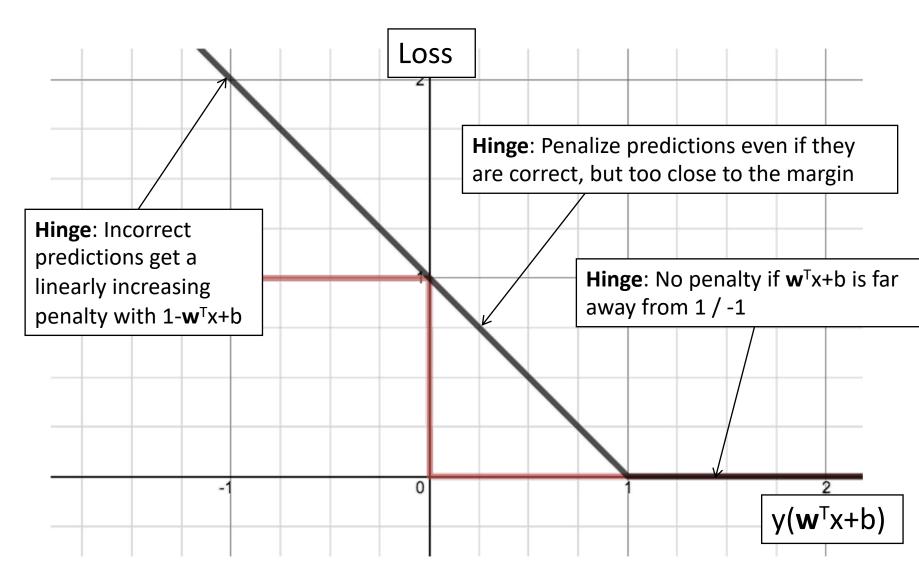


Lec 14: SVM / Emsemble

 $L_{Hinge}(y, x, w) = \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b))$



$$L_{Hinge}(y, x, w) = \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b))$$



Lec 14: SVM / Emsemble

This lecture: Support vector machines

Training by maximizing margin

The SVM objective

Solving the SVM optimization problem

Support vectors, duals and kernels

Solving the SVM optimization problem

$$\min_{w,b_i} \ \frac{1}{2} w^T w + C \sum_i \max(0, 1 - y_i (w^T x_i + b))$$

This function is convex in w

Outline: Training SVM by optimization

- 1. Stochastic gradient descent
- 2. Sub-derivatives of the hinge loss
- 3. Stochastic sub-gradient descent for SVM
- 4. Comparison to perceptron

Stochastic gradient Descent

Given a training set
$$\mathcal{D} = \{(x, y)\}$$

- 1. Initialize $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- 2. For epoch 1...T:
- 3. For (x,y) in \mathcal{D} :
- 5. Return w

$$\min \sum_{(x,y)\in D} f(x,y)$$

We will see more example later in this lecture

Hinge loss is not differentiable!

What is the derivative of the hinge loss with respect to w?

$$\frac{1}{2}w^Tw + C \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^Tx_i + b))$$

Detour: Sub-gradients

Generalization of gradients to non-differentiable functions

(Remember that every tangent lies below the function for

convex functions)

Informally, a sub-tangent at a point is any line lies below the function at the point.

A sub-gradient is the slope of that line

Advanced topic [not in exam] Sub-gradients

Formally, g is a subgradient to f at x if

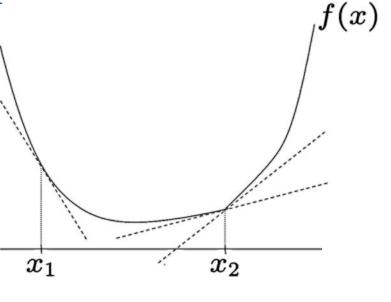
$$f(y) \ge f(x) + g^T(y - x)$$
 for all y

f is differentiable at x₁

Tangent at this point

$$f(x_1)+g_1^T(x-x_1)$$

g₁ is a gradient at x₁



Sub-gradients

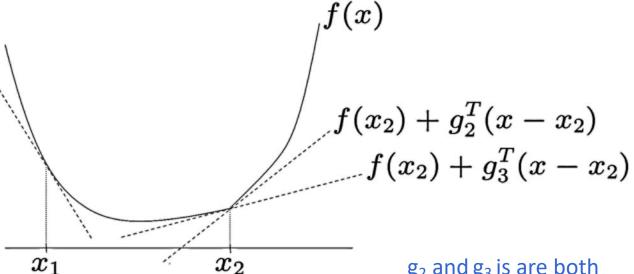
Formally, g is a subgradient to f at x if

$$f(y) \ge f(x) + g^T(y - x)$$
 for all y

f is differentiable at x₁ Tangent at this point

$$f(x_1) + g_1^T(x - x_1)$$

g₁ is a gradient at x₁



g₂ and g₃ is are both subgradients at x₂

Sub-gradient of the SVM objective

$$J^{t}(w) = \frac{1}{2}w^{T}w + C \max(0, 1 - y_{i}(w^{T}x_{i} + b))$$

General strategy: First solve the max and compute the gradient for each case

$$\nabla J^t = \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} & \text{if } \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b)) = 0 \\ \mathbf{w} - C y_i \mathbf{x}_i & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Outline: Training SVM by optimization

- 1. Stochastic gradient descent
- 2. Sub-derivatives of the hinge loss
- 3. Stochastic sub-gradient descent for SVM
- 4. Comparison to perceptron

Stochastic gradient Descent

Given a training set
$$\mathcal{D} = \{(x,y)\}$$

Initialize $w \leftarrow \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
For epoch $1 \dots T$:
For (x,y) in \mathcal{D} :
if $yw^Tx \geq 1$
 $w \leftarrow w - \eta w$
else
 $w \leftarrow w - \eta (w - Cyx)$

Return w

$$\nabla J^t = \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} & \text{if } \max(0, 1 - y_i(\mathbf{w}^T x_i + b)) = 0\\ \mathbf{w} - Cy_i \mathbf{x}_i & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Lec 14: SVM / Emsemble

Recap: The Perceptron Algorithm

Given a training set $\mathcal{D} = \{(x, y)\}$

- 1. Initialize $\mathbf{w} \leftarrow \mathbf{0} \in \mathbb{R}^n$
- 2. For (x,y) in \mathcal{D} :
- $3. if y(w^Tx+b) \leq 0$
- 4. $w \leftarrow w + yx$
- 5. $b \leftarrow b + y$
- 6. Return w

```
SVM:

If y(w^Tx + b) < 1

w \leftarrow w - \eta(w - Cyx)

else: w \leftarrow w - \eta w
```

Prediction: $y^{\text{test}} \leftarrow \text{sg}n(\mathbf{w}^{\mathsf{T}}\mathbf{x}^{\text{test}})$

Footnote: For some algorithms it is mathematically easier to represent False as -1, and at other times, as 0. For the Perceptron algorithm, treat -1 as false and +1 as true.

Perceptron vs. SVM

- Perceptron: Stochastic sub-gradient descent for a different loss
 - No regularization though

$$L_{Hinge}(y, x, w) = \max(0, -y_i(w^Tx_i + b))$$

- SVM optimizes the hinge loss
 - With regularization

$$L_{Hinge}(y, x, w) = \max(0, 1 - y_i(w^T x_i + b))$$

This lecture: Support vector machines

Training by maximizing margin

The SVM objective

Solving the SVM optimization problem

Support vectors, duals and kernels

Maximizing margin and minimizing loss

$$\min_{w,b_i} \ \frac{1}{2} w^T w + C \sum_i \max(0, 1 - y_i (w^T x_i + b))$$

Maximize margin

Penalty for the prediction

There are 3 cases

- Example is correctly classified and is <u>outside</u> the margin: penalty = 0
- ***** Example is incorrectly classified: penalty = $1 y_i(w^Tx_i + b)$
- **Example is correctly classified but within the margin:** $penalty = 1 y_i(w^Tx_i + b)$ $L_{Hinge}(y, x, w) = \max(0, 1 y_i(w^Tx_i + b))$

This is the hinge loss function

SVM: Primal and dual

The SVM objective

$$\min_{w,b,\,\xi_i} \, \frac{1}{2} w^T w + C \sum_i \, \xi_i$$

s.t.
$$\forall i$$
, $y_i(w^Tx_i + b) \ge 1 - \xi_i$
 $\xi_i \ge 0$

This is called the *primal form* of the objective

This can be converted to its *dual form*, which will let us prove a very useful property

Let **w** be the minimizer of the SVM problem for some dataset with m examples: $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}$

Then, for i = 1...m, there exist $\alpha_i \ge 0$ such that the optimum w can be written as

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^m \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$\max imize_{\alpha} \quad \sum_i \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i \mathbf{x}_j$$

$$\sum_i \alpha_i y_i = \mathbf{0}$$

$$C \geq \alpha_i \geq \mathbf{0}$$

Let **w** be the minimizer of the SVM problem for some dataset with m examples: $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}$

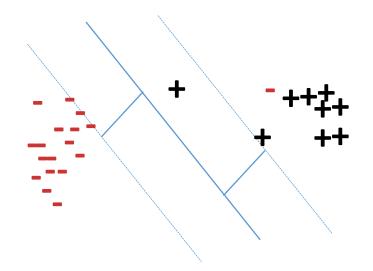
Then, for i = 1...m, there exist $\alpha_i \ge 0$ such that the optimum w can be written as

$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

$$y_i(w^Tx_i + b) > 1 \Rightarrow \alpha_i = 0$$

$$y_i(w^Tx_i+b) < 1 \Rightarrow \alpha_i = C$$

$$y_i(w^Tx_i + b) = 1 \Rightarrow 0 \le \alpha_i \le C$$



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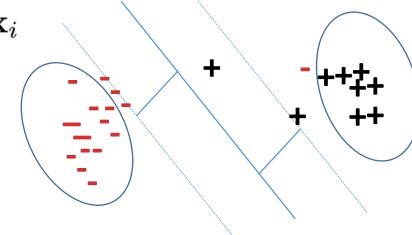
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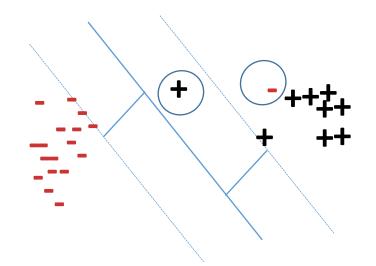
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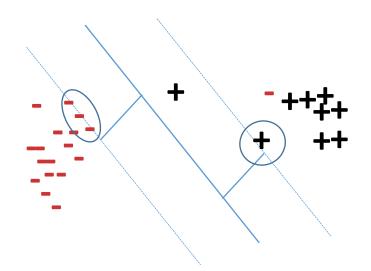
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Support vectors

The weight vector is completely defined by training examples whose α_i s are not zero

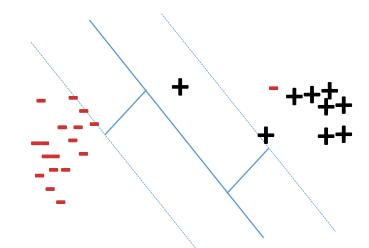
$$\mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

These examples are called the *support vectors*

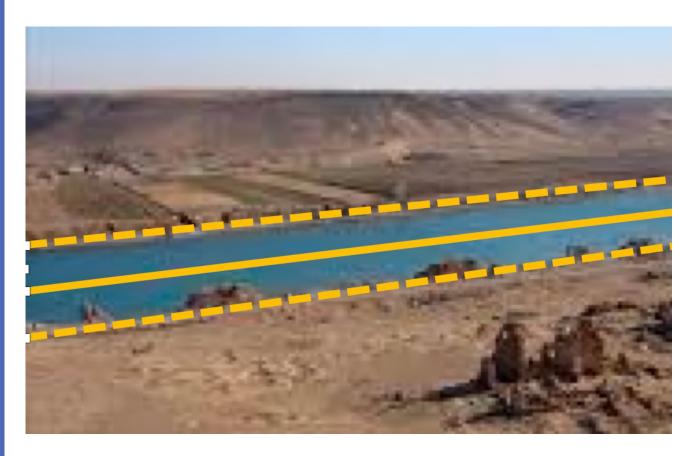
$$y_i(w^Tx_i + b) > 1 \Rightarrow \alpha_i = 0$$

$$y_i(w^Tx_i+b) < 1 \Rightarrow \alpha_i = C$$

$$y_i(w^Tx_i + b) = 1 \Rightarrow 0 \le \alpha_i \le C$$



Why it called support vector machines?

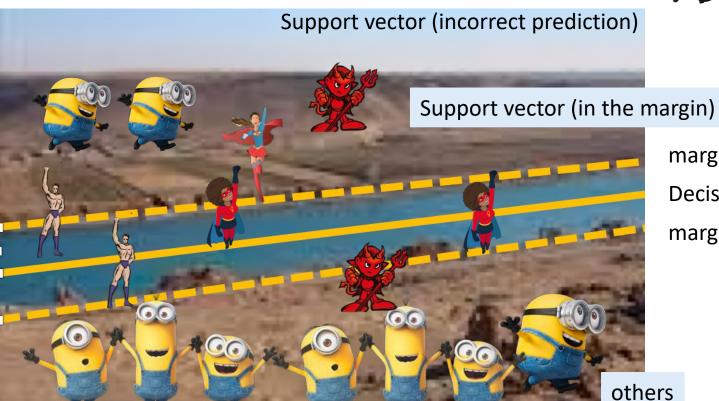


margin (upper)
Decision boundary
margin (lower)

Why it called support vector machines?



ohter vector (correct samples outside margin)



margin (upper)

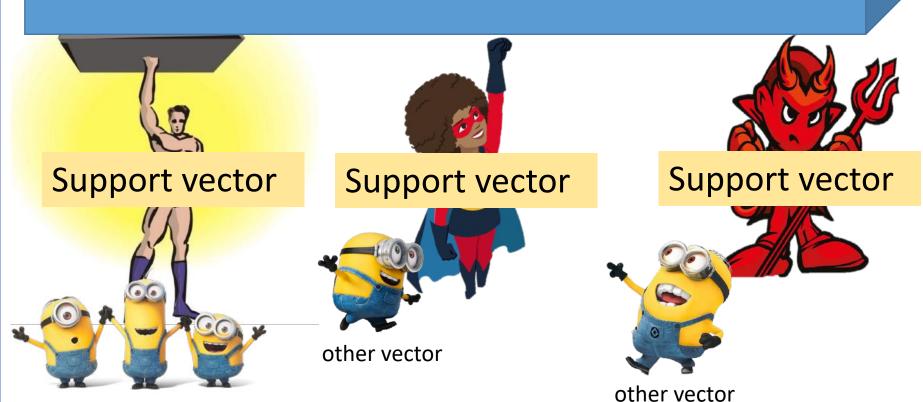
Decision boundary

margin (lower)





Decision Boundary



other vector

Lec 14: SVM / Emsemble