

Chapter 14 Support Vector Machines

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- Linear separability and hyperplanes
- The perceptron learning algorithm
- Hard-margin SVM
- Soft-margin SVM
- Kernelized SVM
- Multi-class classification with SVM
- Object detection using SVM+HoG

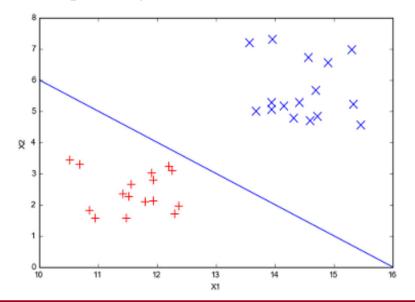


Linear separability

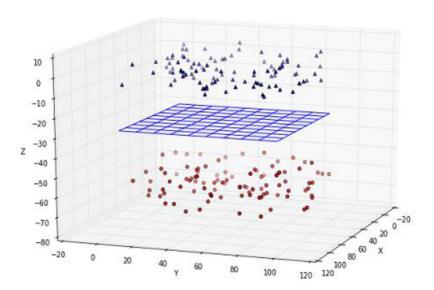
In one dimension, you can find a point separating the data



In two dimensions, you can find a **line** separating the data



In three dimensions, you can find a **plane** separating the data



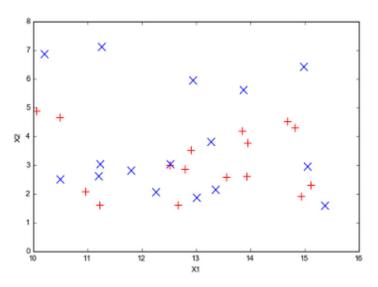


Linear separability

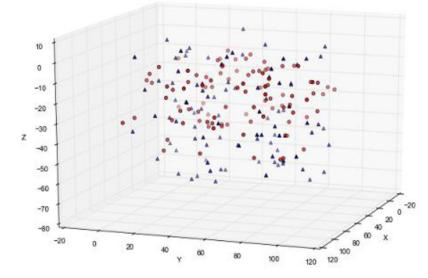
When data is non-linearly separable, we cannot find a separating point, line, or plane.



Non-linearly separable data in 1D



Non-linearly separable data in 2D



Non-linearly separable data in 3D



Linear separability

If data is linearly separable,

for 1D case, we use a **point (0D)** to separate the data

for 2D case, we use a **line (1D)** to separate the data

for 3D case, we use a **plane (2D)** to separate the data

What do we use to separate the data when there are more than three dimensions?



Hyperplane!



Hyperplane

Definition 1: Hyperplane

In geometry, a hyperplane is a subspace of one dimension less than its ambient space

In d-D Euclidean space, a hyperplane is the set of points satisfying,

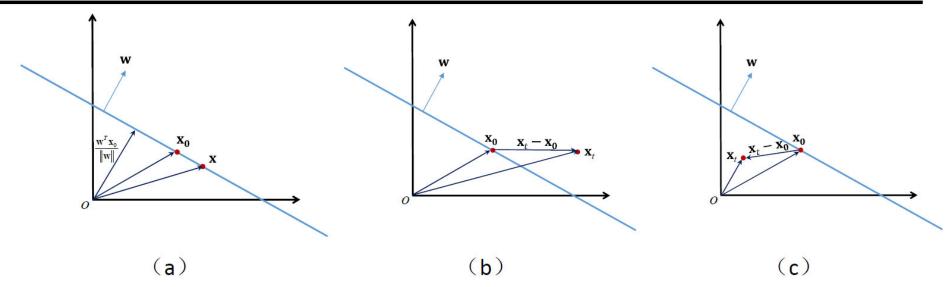
$$\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b = 0$$

where $\mathbf{x} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the point locating on that hyperplane, $\mathbf{w} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the hyperplane's normal vector, and b is a constant

If not so straightforward, make an analogy with the cases of the line in 2D space and the plane in the 3D Euclidean space



Hyperplane



(a)超平面方程的几何解释: $\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}+b=0$ 定义了一个超平面,其法向量为 \mathbf{w} ,若该平面过一已知点 \mathbf{x}_0 ,则 $b=-\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_0$;以 \mathbf{w} 为正向,从原点出发到超平面的有向距离为 $\frac{-b}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$;(b)位于超平面正侧(\mathbf{w} 指向的一侧)的点 \mathbf{x}_t 满足 $\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_t+b>0$;(c)位于超平面负侧的点 \mathbf{x}_t 满足 $\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_t+b<0$ 。



Classifying data with a hyperplane

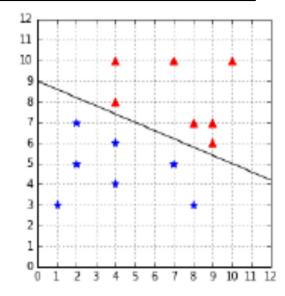
Given a set of data points $\{x_i\}$ shown as the right figure and a hyperplane defined by $\mathbf{w} = (0.4, 1.0)^T$ and b = -9

Suppose the classification model is $h_{\mathbf{w},b}$:

$$h_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}) = \begin{cases} +1, & \text{if } \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b \ge 0 \\ -1, & \text{if } \mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b < 0 \end{cases}$$
 (a linear classifier) which is equivalent to:
$$h_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)$$

$$h_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b)$$

We can associate each \mathbf{x}_i with a label +1 or -1



Eg.,
$$x=(8,7)$$

 $\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x} + b = 0.4 * 8 + 1.0 * 7 - 9 = 1.2 > 0$, which is positive, so $h_{\mathbf{w},b}(\mathbf{x}) = +1$ It means **x** is above the hyperplane.

It uses the position of x with respect to the hyperplane to predict x's label



Classifying data with a hyperplane

The main questions is, given a set of linearly separable data, how to find such a hyperplane that separates the data points?

Next, we will at first introduce a simple algorithm to perform this task, i.e., perceptron



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- The goal of the perceptron algorithm is to find a hyperplane that can separate a linearly separable data set; once the hyperplane is found, it is used to perform binary classification; thus, it is a linear binary classifier (by extension, such an architecture can also perform multiclass classification)
- It was invented by Frank Rosenblatt in 1957^[1]





弗兰克·罗森布拉特(Frank Rosenblatt, 1928年7月11日-1971年7月11日)是美国心理学家,在人工智能领域享有盛誉。1971年,43岁生日那天,他在切萨皮克湾(Chesapeake Bay) 驾驶一艘名为Clearwater的单桅帆船时溺水身亡。由于他最早提出了感知器学习算法,而感知器模型现在被认为是神经网络的基础构件,因此也有文献认为他是"深度学习之父"; (b)为了纪念Frank Rosenblatt,IEEE(电气电子工程师学会)从2004年开始设立了IEEE Frank Rosenblatt Award奖,用以表彰对生物和语言驱动的计算范式和系统做出杰出贡献的学者。

[1] Rosenblatt, Frank (1957). "The Perceptron—a perceiving and recognizing automaton". Report 85-460-1. Cornell Aeronautical Laboratory.



The problem the perceptron algorithm wants to solve is,

Given a linearly separable training dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) : | \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{+1, -1\}\}_{i=1}^n$, determine the hyperplane (\mathbf{w}, b) , $\forall (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{D}$, $h_{\mathbf{w}, b}(\mathbf{x}_i) = \text{sign}(\mathbf{w} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b) = y_i$

Denote
$$\hat{\mathbf{x}}_i = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{x}_i \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$
 and $\hat{\mathbf{w}} = \begin{pmatrix} \mathbf{w} \\ b \end{pmatrix}$, then $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b = \hat{\mathbf{w}}^T \hat{\mathbf{x}}_i$

The hyperplane can then be represented by $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$



感知器算法

输入:

训练集
$$\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) : | \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{+1, -1\}\}_{i=1}^n$$

输出:

超平面参数ŵ

随机初始化ŵ

misclassified_examples :=
$$\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{D} : | h_{\hat{\mathbf{w}}}(\mathbf{x}_i) \neq y_i \}$$

while misclassified_examples 非空

从 misclassified_examples 中随机选取一个样本(xm, ym)

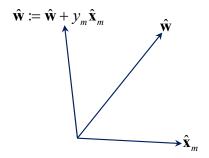
//注意: ym 是这个错分样本的真实类标

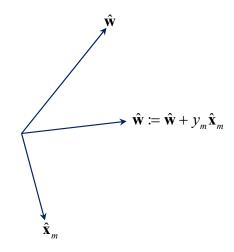
$$\hat{\mathbf{w}} := \hat{\mathbf{w}} + \hat{\mathbf{x}}_m y_m$$

misclassified_examples := $\{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{D} : | h_{\hat{\mathbf{x}}}(\mathbf{x}_i) \neq y_i \}$

end

返回最终得到的ŵ



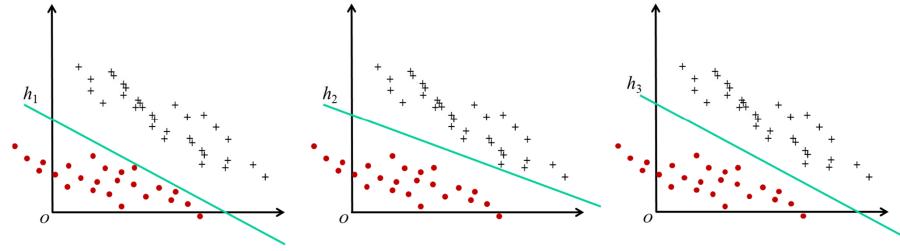


The updating rules for $\hat{\mathbf{w}}$



- The potential drawbacks of the perceptron learning algorithm
 - Since the hyperplane is randomly initialized and the misclassified example is randomly selected when updating the parameters, after running this algorithm several times, you may get several different separating hyperplanes
 - All of these different separating hyperplanes can correctly classify the training data, however, they are not equally good!

Example:



Which hyperplane is the best?



Given a linearly separable dataset, can we get the unique optimal separating hyperplane?







弗拉基米尔·瓦普尼克(Vladimir N. Vapnik, 1936年 12月6日-),统计学家,因提出了支持向量机、VC 理论等而著名。他出生于前苏联。1958年,他在撒 马尔罕 (现属乌兹别克斯坦) 的乌兹别克国立大学 完成了硕士学业。1964年,他于莫斯科控制科学学 院获得博士学位。毕业后,他一直在该校工作直到 1990年,在此期间,他成为了该校计算机科学与研 究系的系主任。1990年底,弗拉基米尔·瓦普尼克 移居美国,加入了位于新泽西州霍姆德尔的At&T 贝尔实验室的自适应系统研究部门。1995年,他被 伦敦大学聘为计算机与统计科学专业的教授。现在 ,他工作于新泽西州普林斯顿的NEC实验室。他同 时是哥伦比亚大学的特聘教授。2006年,他成为美 国国家工程院院士。



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Redefine the separating hyperplane

For a linearly separable training dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) : | \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{+1, -1\}\}_{i=1}^n$, we have already know what is the separating hyperplane. If $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 0$ is the separating hyperplane, it must satisfy,

$$\forall (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{D}, y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) > 0$$

It needs to be noted that, the absolute magnitude of $y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b)$ is not important for classification, since,

$$(\mathbf{w},b)$$

$$\forall \rho > 0, \left(\frac{\mathbf{w}}{\rho}, \frac{b}{\rho}\right)$$
 represent the same hyperplane



Redefine the separating hyperplane

For a separating hyperplane (\mathbf{w},b) of \mathcal{D} , we re-parameterize it as

$$(\mathbf{w}/\rho,b/\rho)$$

where $\rho = \min_{i=1,...,n} y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b)$. Then, for the separating hyperplane $(\mathbf{w}/\rho, b/\rho)$, we have,

$$\min_{i=1,\dots,n} y_i \left(\left(\frac{\mathbf{w}}{\rho} \right)^T \mathbf{x}_i + \frac{b}{\rho} \right) = \frac{1}{\rho} \min_{i=1,\dots,n} y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) = \frac{\rho}{\rho} = 1$$

That is, for any separating hyperplane of \mathcal{D} , it can be parameterized as (\mathbf{w}, b) satisfying,

$$\forall (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) \in \mathcal{D}, y_i(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) \geq 1$$

Definition 2: Separating hyperplane. For a training dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) : | \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{+1, -1\}\}_{i=1}^n$ a hyperplane h is a separating hyperplane, if and only if it can be represented by (\mathbf{w}, b) satisfying, $\min_{i=1,\dots,n} y_i (\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b) = 1$



Geometric margin

The **geometric margin** of a data point (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) with respect to the hyperplane (\mathbf{w}, b) can tell us its distance to the hyperplane and can also **indicate whether it is correctly** classified

The Euclidean distance from \mathbf{x}_i to the hyperplane,

$$d_i = \left| \frac{\mathbf{w}}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} \cdot (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_0) \right| = \frac{\left| \mathbf{w} \cdot (\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_0) \right|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{\left| \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_0 \right|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{\left| \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right|}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$

Based on d_i , we can derive the formula of the geometric margin of (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)

$$\gamma_i = \frac{y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right)}{\| \mathbf{w} \|}$$

Do you notice the difference between the Euclidean distance and the geometric margin (from the data point to the hyperplane)?

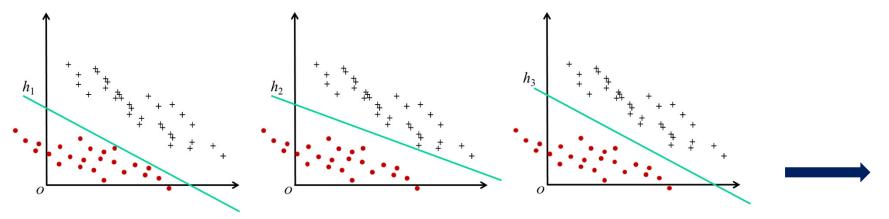


Geometric margin

Based on the geometric margins of the points, we can define the geometric margin of a hyperplane

Definition 3: Geometric margin of a hyperplane. For a training dataset \mathcal{D} , the geometric margin of a hyperplane $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x} + b = 0$ is,

$$\gamma = \min_{i=1,2,..,n} \gamma_i = \min_{i=1,2,..,n} \frac{y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b\right)}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} = \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} \min_{i=1,2,..,n} y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b\right)$$



Why do we think h_3 is the best? It has the largest geometric margin!



For a linearly separable dataset \mathcal{D} , its optimal separating hyperplane (\mathbf{w}^* , b^*) is the one having the largest geometric margin, i.e.,

$$\mathbf{w}^*, b^* = \underset{\mathbf{w}, b}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \ \gamma = \underset{\mathbf{w}, b}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \left(\frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|} \min_{i=1,2,...,n} y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) \right) = \underset{\mathbf{w}, b}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \frac{1}{\|\mathbf{w}\|}$$
subject to $\min_{i=1,2,...n} y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) = 1$

where the constraint indicates that the desired hyperplane at first should be a separating hyperplane

The above problem can be reformulated as,

$$\mathbf{w}^*, b^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$

subject to $y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) \ge 1, i = 1, ..., n$



Definition 4: Hard-margin SVM. Suppose that the training dataset \mathcal{D} is linearly separable. The classification approach identifying the optimal separating hyperplane by solving the following problem is called the **hard-margin SVM**,

$$\mathbf{w}^*, b^* = \underset{\mathbf{w}, b}{\operatorname{arg \, min}} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$
subject to $y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) \ge 1, i = 1, ..., n$

$$(\mathbf{Eq. 1})$$

"Hard-margin" means that for every training sample, we require that its geometric margin should be $\geq 1/\|\mathbf{w}\|$

When we get the optimal separating hyperplane (\mathbf{w}^* , b^*), if the sample (\mathbf{x}_k , y_k) satisfies,

$$y_k \left(\mathbf{w}^{*T} \mathbf{x}_k + b^* \right) = 1$$

it is the **supporting vector** for the hyperplane (\mathbf{w}^*, b^*)



Proposition 1: The problem for solving the hard-margin SVM (Eq. 1) is a convex quadratic program problem.

$$\mathbf{w}^*, b^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$
subject to $y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) \ge 1, i = 1, ..., n$
(Eq. 1)

Denote by
$$\mathbf{u} = \begin{pmatrix} b \\ \mathbf{w} \end{pmatrix}$$
. Then, $\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} = \mathbf{u}^T \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{0}_{1 \times d} \\ \mathbf{0}_{d \times 1} & I_{d \times d} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}$, $-y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) + 1 = \left(-y_i & -y_i \mathbf{x}_i^T \right) \mathbf{u} + 1$

Eq. 1 can be reformulated as,

$$\mathbf{u}^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{u}} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{u}^T \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \mathbf{0}_{1 \times d} \\ \mathbf{0}_{d \times 1} I_{d \times d} \end{bmatrix} \mathbf{u}$$
subject to $(-y_i - y_i \mathbf{x}_i^T) \mathbf{u} + 1 \le 0, i = 1, ..., n$
(Eq. 2)

According to Def. 13 in Lecture 9, Eq. 2 is a convex quadratic program problem



Since the problem of hard-margin SVM is a convex quadratic program problem, it can be solved by using standard packages for solving convex quadratic program problems

Example:

The 'quadprog' routine in matlab

```
x = quadprog(H,f)
  x = quadprog(H, f, A, b)
  x = quadprog(H, f, A, b, Aeq, beq)
  x = quadprog(H, f, A, b, Aeq, beq, lb, ub)
  x = quadprog(H,f,A,b,Aeq,beq,lb,ub,x0)
  x = quadprog(H, f, A, b, Aeq, beq, lb, ub, x0, options)
  x = quadprog(problem)
  [x,fval] = quadprog( )
  [x,fval,exitflag,output] = quadprog( )
  [x,fval,exitflag,output,lambda] = quadprog(
  [wsout, fval, exitflag, output, lambda] = quadprog(H, f, A, b, Aeq, beq, lb, ub, ws)
说明
具有线性约束的二次目标函数的求解器。
quadprog 求由下式指定的问题的最小值
    \min_{x} \frac{1}{2} x^{T} H x + f^{T} x \text{ such that } \begin{cases} Aeq \cdot x = beq, \\ b \leq x \leq ub \end{cases}
H、A和Aeq是矩阵, f、b、beq、lb、ub和x是向量。
```

By exploring the special characteristics of SVM, more efficient algorithms, based on duality, have been designed



The primal problem,

$$\mathbf{w}^*, b^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$
subject to $-y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) + 1 \le 0, i = 1, ..., n$
(Eq. 1)

Its Lagrangian (Def. 14 of Lecture 9) is,

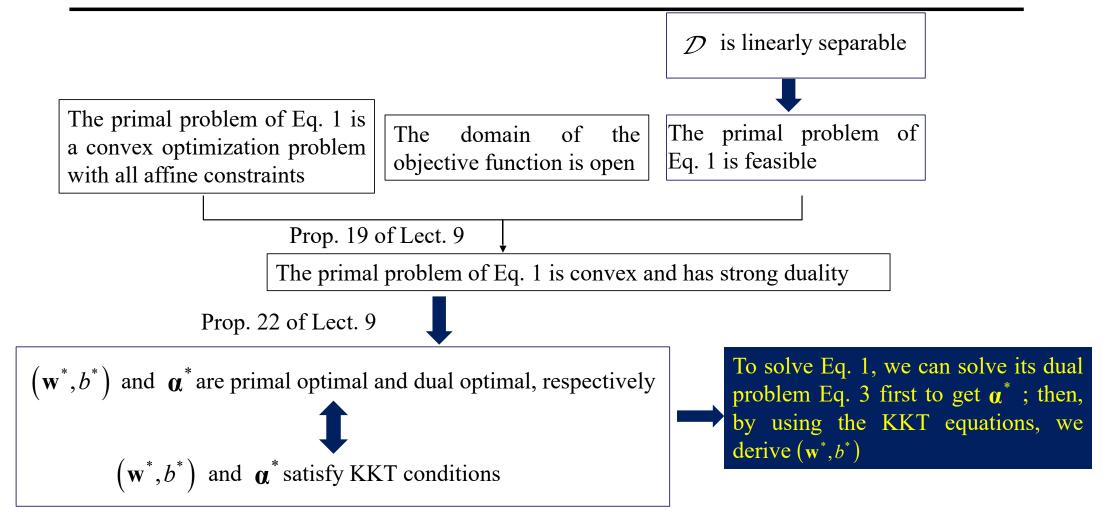
$$l(\mathbf{w},b,\alpha) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w} + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \left(-y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b\right) + 1\right) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b\right) + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i$$

where
$$\alpha = (\alpha_1, \alpha_2, ..., \alpha_n)^T$$

The dual problem (Def. 16 of Lecture 9) of Eq. 1 is,

$$\alpha^* = \arg \max_{\alpha} \left\{ \min_{\mathbf{w}, b} l(\mathbf{w}, b, \alpha) \right\}$$
subject to $\alpha \ge 0$







First, solve the dual problem, Eq. 3, to get the dual optimal solution α^*

(1) Compute $\min_{\mathbf{w},b} l(\mathbf{w},b,\alpha)$

$$l(\mathbf{w},b;\boldsymbol{\alpha}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i (\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i$$
 (about (\mathbf{w},b) , it is a convex function)

Get its stationary point by solving,

$$\begin{cases} \frac{\partial l}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{0} \\ \frac{\partial l}{\partial b} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} = \mathbf{0} \\ -\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} \\ \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} = 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \min_{\mathbf{w},b} l\left(\mathbf{w},b,\alpha\right) &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}\right) \cdot \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j}\right) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \left(\left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j}\right) \cdot \mathbf{x}_{i} + b\right) + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}\right) \cdot \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j}\right) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} \cdot \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j}\right) - b \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \alpha_{j} y_{i} \mathbf{y}_{j} \mathbf{x}_{i} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{j} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i}\right) \cdot \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j}\right) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} \cdot \left(\sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_{j} y_{j} \mathbf{x}_{j}\right) - b \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} y_{i} + \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i} \mathbf{x}_{i} + \sum_{i=$$



First, solve the dual problem, Eq. 3, to get the dual optimal solution α

(2) Solve
$$\alpha^* = \arg\max_{\alpha} \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right\},$$
subject to $\alpha \ge \mathbf{0}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

Denote by
$$X = \begin{bmatrix} -y_1 \mathbf{x}_1^T - \\ -y_2 \mathbf{x}_2^T - \\ \vdots \\ -y_n \mathbf{x}_n^T - \end{bmatrix}$$
, $Q = XX^T = \begin{bmatrix} y_1 y_1 \mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{x}_1 & y_1 y_2 \mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{x}_2 & \cdots & y_n y_n \mathbf{x}_1^T \mathbf{x}_n \\ y_2 y_1 \mathbf{x}_2^T \mathbf{x}_1 & y_2 y_2 \mathbf{x}_2^T \mathbf{x}_2 & \cdots & y_n y_n \mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{x}_n \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ y_n y_1 \mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{x}_1 & y_n y_2 \mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{x}_2 & \cdots & y_n y_n \mathbf{x}_n^T \mathbf{x}_n \end{bmatrix}$ subject to $\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}^T \\ -\mathbf{y}^T \\ -I_{n \times n} \end{bmatrix} \alpha \le \mathbf{0}_{(n+2) \times 1}$ (positive semi-definite)

$$\alpha^* = \arg\min_{\alpha} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right\},$$
subject to $-\alpha \le \mathbf{0}$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0$$
(Eq. 4)

$$\alpha^* = \arg\min_{\alpha} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \alpha^T Q \alpha - \mathbf{1}_{n \times 1}^T \alpha \right\},$$
subject to
$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{y}^T \\ -\mathbf{y}^T \\ -I_{n \times n} \end{bmatrix} \alpha \le \mathbf{0}_{(n+2) \times 1}$$
(Eq. 5)

It is also a convex quadratic program problem!

For solving the specific optimization problem of Eq. 4, algorithms more efficient than standard packages for solving the general convex quadratic program problems exist, such as the sequential minimal optimization, SMO



Second, with α^* , based on KKT conditions, derive the primal optimal solution (\mathbf{w}^* , b^*)

Proposition 2: Suppose that $\alpha^* = (\alpha_1^*, \alpha_2^*, ..., \alpha_n^*)$ is the optimal solution for Eq. 3. There exists an j, making $\alpha_{i}^{*} > 0$, and (\mathbf{w}^{*}, b^{*}) can be computed as,

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \mathbf{x}_i \qquad (\mathbf{Eq. 6}) \qquad b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i (\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j) \qquad (\mathbf{Eq. 7})$$

根据第 9 讲 Prop. 22 可知,在已知对偶问题的最优解为 α^* 的情况下,如果能找到原问 a^* 由式 a^* 由式 a^* a^* a^* a^* 。

题的可行点 (\mathbf{w}^*,b^*) ,使得 (\mathbf{w}^*,b^*) 和 α^* 满足 KKT 条件,那么 (\mathbf{w}^*,b^*) 必为原问题的最优解。

根据 KKT 条件,列出方程组:

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{w}^*} l(\mathbf{w}, b, \boldsymbol{\alpha}^*) = \mathbf{0}$$
 (t1)

$$\nabla_{b=b^*} l(\mathbf{w}, b, \boldsymbol{\alpha}^*) = 0$$

$$\alpha_{i}^{*} \left(-y_{i} \left(\mathbf{w}^{*} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{i} + b^{*} \right) + 1 \right) = 0, i = 1, ..., n$$

$$-y_{i} \left(\mathbf{w}^{*} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{i} + b^{*} \right) + 1 \le 0, i = 1, ..., n$$
(t2)

$$\alpha_i^* \geq 0, i = 1, ..., n$$

至少存在一个下标j, $\alpha_{i}^{*}>0$ 。可以用反证法: 如果不存在这样的下标j, 则 $\alpha^{*}=0$,则

有 $\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0}$ 。但 $\mathbf{w}^* = \mathbf{0}$ 显然不是原问题 Eq. 1 的最优解,产生矛盾,因此必有某

个下标j,使得 $\alpha_j^* > 0$ 。对于这样的下标j,由式 t2 可知,

$$-y_j(\mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x}_j + b^*) + 1 = 0$$

将 $\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \mathbf{x}_i$ 带入上式并注意到 $y_j^2 = 1$,我们便有 $b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i (\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j)$ 。



Second, with α^* , based on KKT conditions, derive the primal optimal solution (\mathbf{w}^* , b^*)

Proposition 2: Suppose that $\alpha^* = (\alpha_1^*, \alpha_2^*, ..., \alpha_n^*)$ is the optimal solution for Eq. 3. There exists an j, making $\alpha_j^* > 0$, and (\mathbf{w}^*, b^*) can be computed as,

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$
 (Eq. 6) $b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i (\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j)$ (Eq. 7)

With the optimal separating hyperplane (\mathbf{w}^* , b^*), the classification decision function can be,

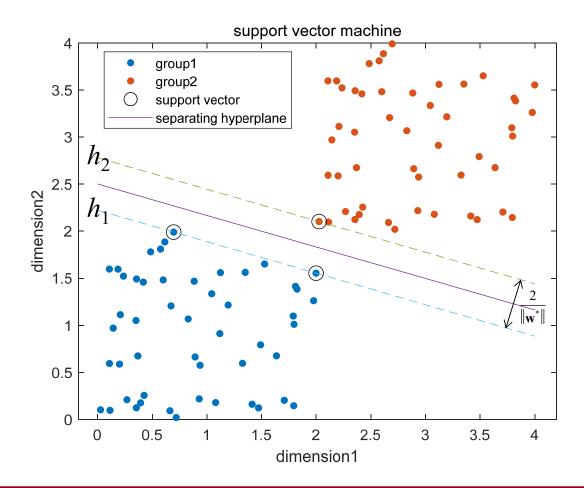
$$h_{\mathbf{w}^*,b^*}(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i) + b^*\right)$$

Actually, only a few elements in α^* are greater than 0. If $\alpha_i^* > 0$, the associated feature vector of the training sample (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) is a support vector to the hyperplane (\mathbf{w}^*, b^*) since $y_i(\mathbf{w}^{*T}\mathbf{x}_i + b^*) = 1$ holds



Hard-margin SVM

Example:





Outline

- Linear separability and hyperplanes
- The perceptron learning algorithm
- Hard-margin SVM
- Soft-margin SVM
- Kernelized SVM
- Multi-class classification with SVM
- Object detection using SVM+HoG



From hard-margin SVM to soft-margin SVM

- When the training dataset is linearly separable, the hard-margin SVM can work perfect
- However, when the training dataset is not linearly separable, the hard-margin SVM does not work since the separating hyperplane does not exist, i.e., the following optimization problem is not feasible,

$$\mathbf{w}^*, b^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$
subject to $y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) \ge 1, i = 1, ..., n$
(Eq. 1)

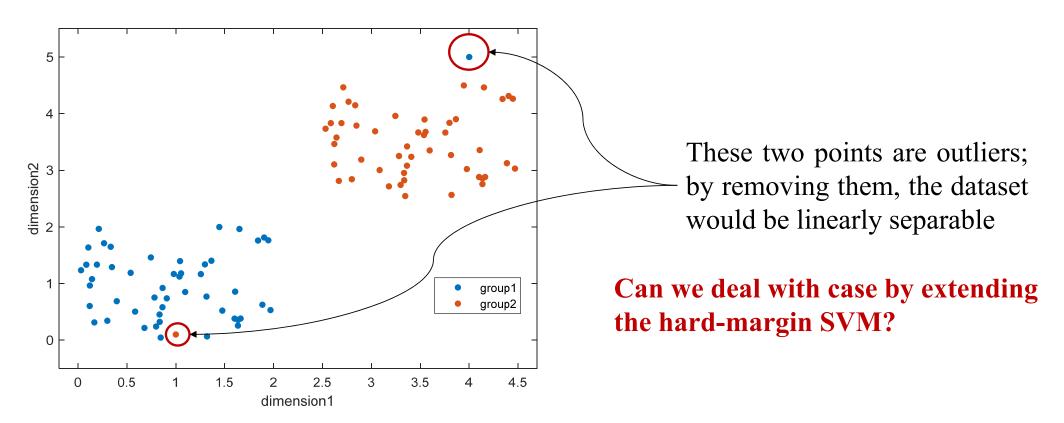
How to deal with the dataset that is not linearly separable?

Let's first consider a relatively simple case



From hard-margin SVM to soft-margin SVM

The training dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) : | \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{+1, -1\}\}_{i=1}^n$ is not linearly separable; however, after removing the outliers, the remaining points are linearly separable





From hard-margin SVM to soft-margin SVM

The training dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) : | \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{+1, -1\}\}_{i=1}^n$ is not linearly separable; however, after removing the outliers, the remaining points are linearly separable

$$\mathbf{w}^*, b^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w}$$
subject to $y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) \ge 1, i = 1, ..., n$
(Eq. 1)

Relax it to,

subject to
$$y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) \ge 1 - \xi_i, i = 1,...,n,$$

$$\xi_i \ge 0, i = 1,...,n,$$

For every hyperplane (w, b), for each training sample $(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i), \exists \xi_i \ge 0$, making

$$y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) \ge 1 - \xi_i$$

satisfied. Of course, smaller $\{\xi_i\}$ are preferred, i.e., large $\{\xi_i\}$ need to be penalized

→ These motivations suggest the following modified SVM model

Soft-margin SVM

Definition 5: Soft-margin SVM. Suppose that the training dataset \mathcal{D} is **nearly linearly separable**. The classification approach identifying the optimal separating hyperplane by solving the following problem is called the **soft-margin SVM**,

$$\mathbf{w}^*, b^* = \underset{\mathbf{w}, b, \xi}{\operatorname{arg \, min}} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$
subject to $y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) \ge 1 - \xi_i, i = 1, ..., n$

$$\xi_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., n$$
(Eq. 8)

- By letting C = 0, $\xi_i = 0$, i = 1,...,n, the soft-margin SVM model degenerates to the hard-margin one; the soft-margin SVM of course can deal with the case when the training dataset is linearly separable; thus, the soft-margin SVM "includes" the hard-margin SVM, i.e., the hard-margin SVM is a special case of the soft-margin one
- The soft-margin SVM is a linear model since its decision boundary is a hyperplane; so, it is also called **linear SVM**; it can deal with case when the training dataset is nearly linear separable



Proposition 3: The problem for solving the soft-margin SVM (Eq. 8) is a convex quadratic program problem

For proof, refer to the textbook

Similar as the case of the hard-margin SVM, we can solve the soft-margin SVM using the duality theory



The primal problem,

$$\mathbf{w}^*, b^* = \arg\min_{\mathbf{w}, b} \frac{1}{2} \mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{w} + C \sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i$$
subject to $y_i \left(\mathbf{w}^T \mathbf{x}_i + b \right) \ge 1 - \xi_i, i = 1,...,n$

$$\xi_i \ge 0, i = 1,...,n$$
(Eq. 8)

Its Lagrangian (Def. 14 of Lecture 9) is,

$$l((\mathbf{w},b,\boldsymbol{\xi}),\boldsymbol{\alpha},\boldsymbol{\mu}) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w} + C\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \left(-y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) - \xi_i + 1\right) + \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i \left(-\xi_i\right)$$

The dual problem (Def. 14 of Lecture 9) of Eq. 8 is,

$$\alpha^*, \mu^* = \arg \max_{\alpha, \mu} \left\{ \min_{(\mathbf{w}, b, \xi)} l((\mathbf{w}, b, \xi), \alpha, \mu) \right\}$$
subject to $\alpha \ge 0$

$$\mu \ge 0$$
(Eq. 9)



To solve Eq. 8, we can solve its dual problem Eq. 9 first to get (α^*, μ^*) ; then, by using the KKT equations, we derive $(\mathbf{w}^*, b^*, \xi^*)$



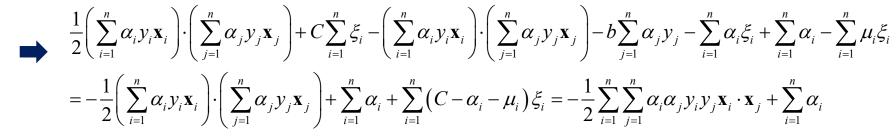
First, solve the dual problem, Eq. 9, to get the dual optimal solution (α^*, μ^*)

(1) Compute $\min_{(\mathbf{w},b,\xi)} l((\mathbf{w},b,\xi),\alpha,\mu)$

$$l((\mathbf{w},b,\xi),\alpha,\mu) = \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{w} + C\sum_{i=1}^n \xi_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \left(-y_i(\mathbf{w}^T\mathbf{x}_i + b) - \xi_i + 1\right) + \sum_{i=1}^n \mu_i \left(-\xi_i\right) \text{ (about } (\mathbf{w},b,\xi) \text{ , it is a convex function)}$$

Get its stationary point by solving, $\begin{cases} \frac{\partial l_1}{\partial \mathbf{w}} = \mathbf{0} & \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0} \\ -\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i \mathbf{x}_i \\ \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0 \end{cases} \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \mathbf{w} = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i =$

$$\min_{(\mathbf{w},b,\xi)} l((\mathbf{w},b,\xi),\alpha,\mu) =$$





First, solve the dual problem, Eq. 9, to get the dual optimal solution (α^*, μ^*)

(2) Solve

$$\alpha^*, \mu^* = \underset{\alpha, \mu}{\operatorname{arg\,max}} \left\{ -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j + \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right\}$$
subject to $\alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., n$

$$\mu_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., n$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

$$C - \alpha_i - \mu_i = 0, i = 1, ..., n$$

$$C = \underset{i=1}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right\}$$
subject to $C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., n$

$$\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

$$C - \alpha_i - \mu_i = 0, i = 1, ..., n$$

$$C = \underset{i=1}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right\}$$

Make a comparison between Eq. 10 and Eq. 4, they are quite similar; Eq. 10 can also be efficiently solved by SMO

Second, with (α^*, μ^*) , based on KKT conditions, derive the primal optimal solution $(\mathbf{w}^*, b^*, \xi^*)$

Proposition 4: Suppose that $\alpha^* = (\alpha_1^*, \alpha_2^*, ..., \alpha_n^*)$ is the optimal solution for Eq. 9. If there exists an j, making $0 < \alpha_j^* < C$, then, (\mathbf{w}^*, b^*) can be computed as,

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \mathbf{x}_i \qquad \text{(Eq. 11)} \qquad b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i (\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j) \qquad \text{(Eq. 12)}$$

根据第9章 Prop.22 可知,在已知对偶问题的最优解为 (α^*, μ^*) 的情况下,如果能找到

原问题的可行点 $(\mathbf{w}^*,b^*,\mathbf{\xi}^*)$,使得 $(\mathbf{w}^*,b^*,\mathbf{\xi}^*)$ 和 $(\boldsymbol{\alpha}^*,\boldsymbol{\mu}^*)$ 满足 KKT 条件,那么 $(\mathbf{w}^*,b^*,\mathbf{\xi}^*)$ 必为

原问题的最优解。根据 KKT 条件,列出方程组:

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{w}=\mathbf{w}^*} l\left((\mathbf{w}, b, \boldsymbol{\xi}), \boldsymbol{\alpha}^*, \boldsymbol{\mu}^*\right) = \mathbf{w}^* - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \mathbf{x}_i = \mathbf{0}$$
(t1)

$$\nabla_{b=b^*}l((\mathbf{w},b,\boldsymbol{\xi}),\boldsymbol{\alpha}^*,\boldsymbol{\mu}^*) = -\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i = 0$$

$$\nabla_{\varepsilon_{-}\varepsilon_{-}^{*}}l((\mathbf{w},b,\boldsymbol{\xi}),\boldsymbol{\alpha}^{*},\boldsymbol{\mu}^{*}) = C - \alpha_{i}^{*} - \mu_{i}^{*} = 0$$
(t2)

$$\alpha_{i}^{*}\left(-y_{i}\left(\mathbf{w}^{*}\cdot\mathbf{x}_{i}+b^{*}\right)+1-\xi_{i}^{*}\right)=0, i=1,...,n$$
(t3)

$$\mu_i^* \xi_i^* = 0, i = 1, ..., n$$
 (t4)

$$-y_{i}(\mathbf{w}^{*} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{i} + b^{*}) + 1 - \xi_{i} \leq 0, i = 1,...,n$$

$$-\xi_{i}^{*} \leq 0, i = 1,...,n$$

$$\alpha_{i}^{*} \geq 0, i = 1,...,n$$

$$\mu_{i}^{*} \geq 0, i = 1,...,n$$

由式 t1 可知, $\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \mathbf{X}_i$ 。若存在下标 j 使得 $0 < \alpha_j^* < C$,由式 t2 可知 $\mu_j^* > 0$,又由

式 t4 可知 $\xi_i^* = 0$; 此时由式 t3 可知, $-y_i(\mathbf{w}^* \cdot \mathbf{x}_i + b^*) + 1 - \xi_i^* = 0$, 则有,

$$b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \left(\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j \right)$$



Second, with (α^*, μ^*) , based on KKT conditions, derive the primal optimal solution $(\mathbf{w}^*, b^*, \xi^*)$

Proposition 4: Suppose that $\alpha^* = (\alpha_1^*, \alpha_2^*, ..., \alpha_n^*)$ is the optimal solution for Eq. 9. If there exists an j, making $0 < \alpha_j^* < C$, then, (\mathbf{w}^*, b^*) can be computed as,

$$\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \mathbf{x}_i \qquad (Eq. 11) \qquad b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i (\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j) \qquad (Eq. 12)$$

With the optimal separating hyperplane (\mathbf{w}^* , b^*), the classification decision function can be,

$$h_{\mathbf{w}^*,b^*}(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i) + b^*\right)$$

Soft-margin SVM

线性支持向量机学习算法

输入:

训练集
$$\mathcal{T} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) : | \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{+1, -1\}\}_{i=1}^n$$

输出:

分类决策函数

(1) 选取惩罚参数 C>0,构造并求解凸二次规划问题:

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}^* = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \left(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j \right) - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right\}$$

subject to $C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., n$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

求得的最优解为 $\boldsymbol{\alpha}^* = (\alpha_1^*, \alpha_2^*, ..., \alpha_n^*)^T$ 。

(2) 计算
$$\mathbf{w}^* = \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \mathbf{x}_i$$

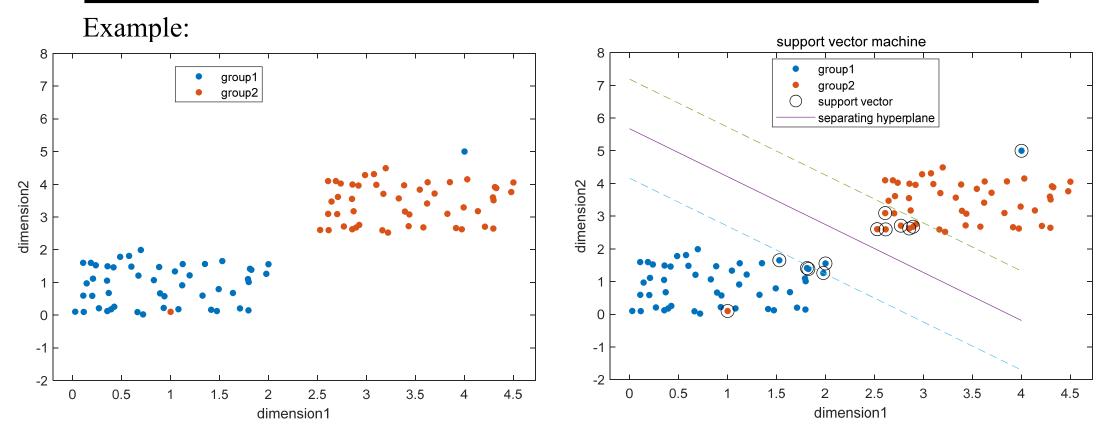
(3) 从 α^* 中选择一个分量 α_j^* 符合条件 $0 < \alpha_j^* < C$, 计算

$$b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \left(\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j \right)$$

(4) 构造決策函数:
$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}^{*} y_{i}(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}_{i}) + b^{*}\right)$$



Soft-margin SVM



The training sample (\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) corresponding to $\alpha_i^* > 0$ is the support vector and it must satisfy $y_i(\mathbf{w}^{*T}\mathbf{x}_i + b^*) = 1 - \xi_i$



Outline

- Linear separability and hyperplanes
- The perceptron learning algorithm
- Hard-margin SVM
- Soft-margin SVM
- Kernelized SVM
- Multi-class classification with SVM
- Object detection using SVM+HoG



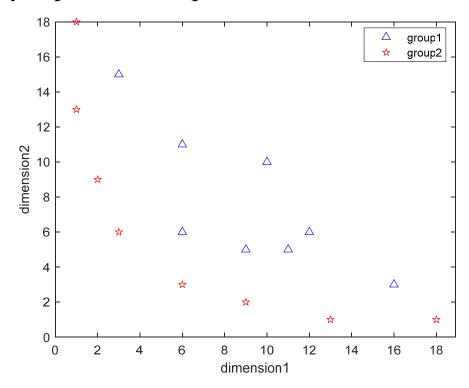
• When the dataset is linearly separable or nearly linearly separable, linear SVM (soft-margin SVM) can work well

• However, when the dataset is not nearly linearly separable, the performance of linear

SVM will be poor

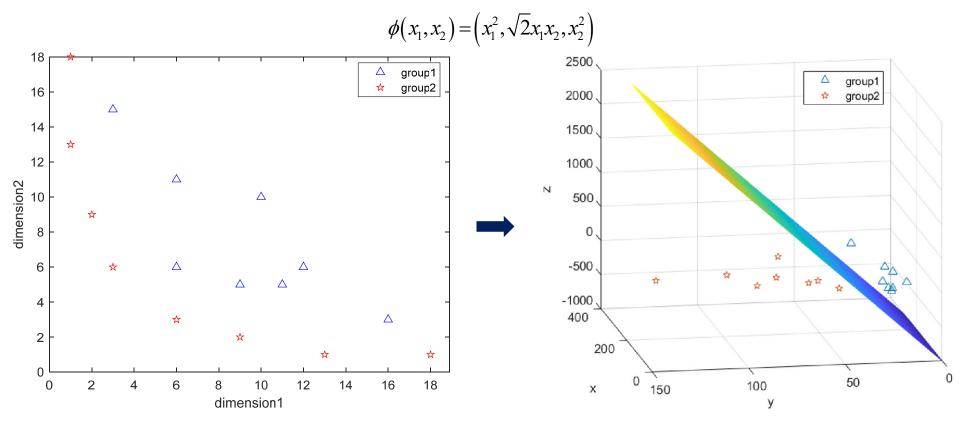
Consider a dataset of 2D points as the right figure. You cannot find a proper "separating line" that can separate the two classes of data

However, a dataset being not linearly separable in its **original space** does not necessary mean that it is not linearly separable when being mapped to another **high-dimensional space**!





For example, using the following mapping $\phi: \mathbb{R}^2 \to \mathbb{R}^3$,



The mapped data in the high-dimensional space is now linearly separable!



From this example, we can formulate a general idea to solve non-linear classification problems with SVM:

Training stage

Given a training dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) : | \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{+1, -1\}\}_{i=1}^n$ which is not linearly separable

Determine a mapping function ϕ

For each \mathbf{x}_i , map it as $\phi(\mathbf{x}_i)$ into a high-dimensional feature space \mathcal{H}

In \mathcal{H} , train a linear SVM model \mathcal{M} using $\{\phi(\mathbf{x}_i), y_i\}_{i=1}^n$ as the training data

Testing stage

Given a test sample t, which is expressed in the original low-dimensional space

Map **t** into \mathcal{H} as $\phi(\mathbf{t})$

Classify $\phi(\mathbf{t})$ using \mathcal{M}

How to determine ϕ for a given dataset does not have a fixed correct answer, and it may depend on experience!



When data is not

linearly separable,

by using ϕ

mapping data into ${\cal H}$

Linear SVM:

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}^* = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right\}$$

subject to $C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., n$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

The classification decision function,

$$h_{\mathbf{w}^*,b^*}(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i(\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{x}_i) + b^*\right)$$

where

$$b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \left(\mathbf{x}_i \cdot \mathbf{x}_j \right)$$

Linear SVM in high-dimensional space \mathcal{H} :

$$\alpha^* = \arg\min_{\alpha} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right\}$$

subject to $C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1,...,n$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

The classification decision function,

$$\underline{h_{\mathbf{w}^*,b^*}(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i^* y_i \phi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) + b^*\right)}$$

where

$$b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \left(\phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \right)$$

- ① Using ϕ , mapping data points to \mathcal{H}
- 2 Computing the dot product between two mapped points

Is there a function that can implicitly return the dot product of two points in the high-dimensional space?

That is the kernel function!

Kernel function

Definition 6: Kernel function. Suppose that χ is the original low-dimensional feature space and \mathcal{H} is the high-dimensional feature space. If there exists a mapping,

$$\phi(\mathbf{x}): \chi \to \mathcal{H}$$

 $\forall \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{z} \in \chi$, the function $K(\cdot, \cdot) : \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ satisfies that,

$$K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{z}) = \phi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \phi(\mathbf{z})$$

Then, the function $K(\cdot,\cdot)$ is called the **kernel function**

With the kernel function, we do not need to explicitly define the mapping function and the high-dimensional space!



Kernel function

• It needs to be noted that for a given kernel function K, the associated high-dimensional space \mathcal{H} and the mapping function ϕ are not unique

Example.

Suppose the original feature space is \mathbb{R}^2 . The kernel function is

$$K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{z}) = (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{z})^2 = x_1^2 z_1^2 + 2x_1 x_2 z_1 z_2 + x_2^2 z_2^2$$

$$\mathcal{H}$$
 can be \mathbb{R}^3 and ϕ can be $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1^2, \sqrt{2}x_1x_2, x_2^2)$

$$\mathcal{H}$$
 can be \mathbb{R}^3 and ϕ can be $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (x_1^2 - x_2^2, 2x_1x_2, x_1^2 + x_2^2)$

$$\mathcal{H}$$
 can be \mathbb{R}^4 and ϕ can be $\phi(\mathbf{x}) = (x_1^2, x_1 x_2, x_1 x_2, x_2^2)$



Kernel function

• Commonly used kernel functions in the field of SVM

Polynomial kernel function:

$$K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{z}) = (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{z} + 1)^p$$

Gaussian kernel function (radial basis function, RBF):

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



Kernelized SVM

Linear SVM in high-dimensional space \mathcal{H} :

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}^* = \arg\min_{\boldsymbol{\alpha}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right\}$$

subject to $C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1,...,n$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

The classification decision function,

$$h_{\mathbf{w}^*,b^*}(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \phi(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) + b^*\right)$$

where

$$b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i \left(\phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \cdot \phi(\mathbf{x}_j) \right)$$

with the kernel function K



Kernelized SVM:

$$\alpha^* = \underset{\alpha}{\operatorname{arg\,min}} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n} \sum_{j=1}^{n} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) - \sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i \right\}$$

subject to $C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1,...,n$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

The classification decision function,

$$h_{\mathbf{w}^*,b^*}(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i K(\mathbf{x},\mathbf{x}_i) + b^*\right)$$

where

$$b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

When the mapping function $\phi: \chi \to \mathcal{H}$ implicitly represented by the kernel function $K(\cdot, \cdot): \mathbb{R}^d \times \mathbb{R}^d \to \mathbb{R}$ is nonlinear, the kernelized SVM is a nonlinear model and is called **nonlinear SVM**

Nonlinear SVM

非线性支持向量机学习算法

输入:

训练集
$$\mathcal{T} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i) : | \mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d, y_i \in \{+1, -1\}\}_{i=1}^n$$

输出:

分类决策函数

(1) 选取合适的核函数 K 和适当的参数 C,构造并求解优化问题:

$$\boldsymbol{\alpha}^* = \arg\min_{\alpha} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{j=1}^n \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j) - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i \right\}$$

subject to
$$C \ge \alpha_i \ge 0, i = 1, ..., n$$

$$\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_i y_i = 0$$

求得的最优解为 $\mathbf{\alpha}^* = (\alpha_1^*, \alpha_2^*, ..., \alpha_n^*)^T$ 。

(2) 从 α^* 中选择一个分量 $0 < \alpha_i^* < C$, 计算

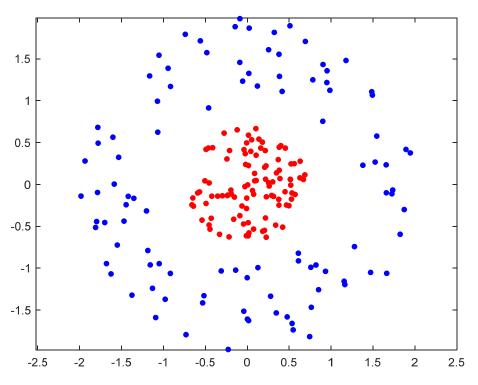
$$b^* = y_j - \sum_{i=1}^n \alpha_i^* y_i K(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{x}_j)$$

(3) 构造决策函数:
$$h(\mathbf{x}) = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} \alpha_{i}^{*} y_{i} K(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{x}_{i}) + b^{*}\right)$$

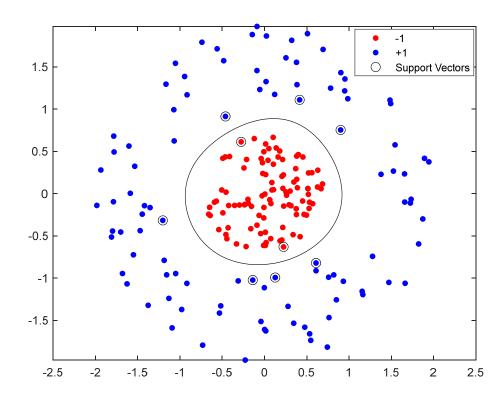


Nonlinear SVM

Example:



A nonlinear classification problem



The curve is the decision boundary obtained by using nonlinear SVM



Outline

- Linear separability and hyperplanes
- The perceptron learning algorithm
- Hard-margin SVM
- Soft-margin SVM
- Kernelized SVM
- Multi-class classification with SVM
- Object detection using SVM+HoG



From binary classification to multi-class classification

- The previously mentioned SVM models are all designed for binary classification
- With proper extensions, binary classification models (not limited to SVM) can be adapted to solve the multi-class classification problems
- Two commonly used strategies to extend a binary classification model to a multi-class classification model, the **one-versus-all** approach and the **one-versus-one** approach



One-versus-all

Suppose that we are solving a *K*-class classification task

Training stage

We need to train K binary classifiers $h_1, h_2, ..., h_K$

When training h_k (represented by the hyperplane (\mathbf{w}_k, b_k)), taking training samples belonging to kth-class as the positive training samples, and all the other ones as negative training samples

Testing stage

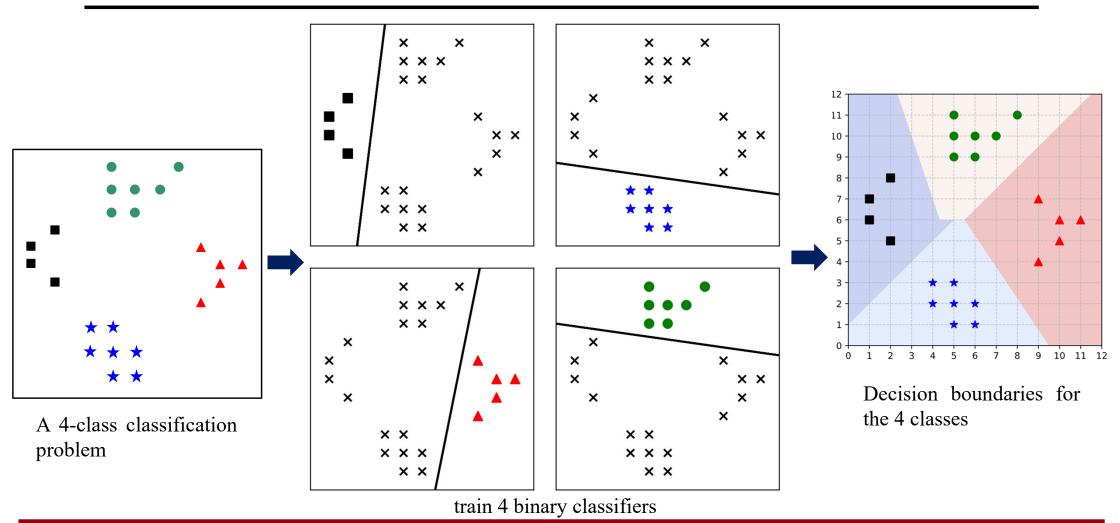
Given a test sample t

Compute t's classification response with respect to all the K classifiers $\left\{\mathbf{w}_{i}^{T}\mathbf{t}+b_{i}\right\}_{i=1}^{K}$

$$\mathbf{t}$$
's label = $\underset{j}{\operatorname{arg max}} \mathbf{w}_{j}^{T} \mathbf{t} + b_{j}$



One-versus-all: A toy example





One-versus-one

Suppose that we are solving a *K*-class classification task

Training stage

For each pair of two classes, i and j, $i \neq j$, train a binary classifier h_{ij}

Altogether, we can have K(K-1)/2 binary classifiers $\{h_{ij}\}_{i,j=1,\dots,K,i\neq j}$

Testing stage

Given a test sample t

Classify **t** using all the K(K-1)/2 binary classifiers $\{h_{ij}\}_{i,j=1,\dots,K,i\neq j}$ and we can get K(K-1)/2 results,

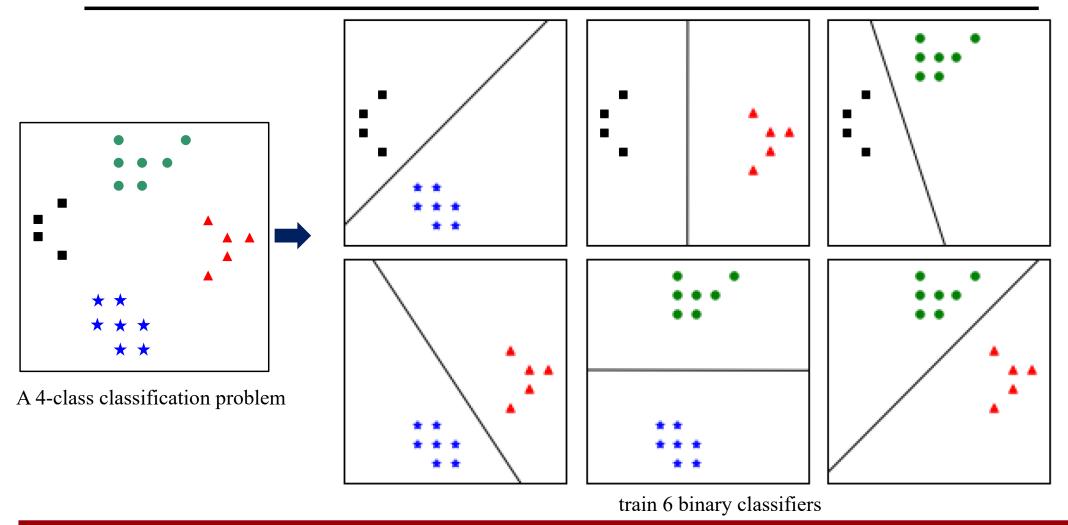
$$C = \{r_1, r_2, ..., r_{K(K-1)/2}\}, r_i \in \{1, 2, ..., K\}$$

Using the "voting" strategy to get the final label of t,

t's label = The element with the most occurrences in C



One-versus-one: A toy example





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Object detection using SVM + HoG

- Here's a brief overview of the basic process for object detection using SVM and HoG features:
 - Data Preparation: Collect and label a dataset with positive (containing the target object)
 and negative (background) samples
 - HoG Feature Extraction: Compute HoG (Histogram of Oriented Gradients) features for each image in the dataset; HoG captures gradient information, which is effective for object detection
 - Training the SVM: Use the extracted HoG features to train a Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier; The SVM learns to distinguish between positive and negative samples
 - Sliding Window Detection: Apply a sliding window approach to new images; Extract HoG features from each window and use the trained SVM to classify whether the window contains the target object
 - Non-Maximum Suppression (NMS): To eliminate redundant detections, apply NMS,
 which keeps the most confident detection and suppresses overlapping ones



Object detection using SVM + HoG

- Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HoG) is a feature descriptor widely used in computer vision for object detection and recognition tasks. It captures the distribution of gradient orientations in an image.
 - Gradient Computation: The first step is to compute the gradients of the image, typically using filters like Sobel or Prewitt
 - Cell Division: The image is divided into small spatial regions called cells (e.g., 8x8 pixels)
 - Orientation Binning: Within each cell, gradient orientations are quantized into a fixed number of bins (e.g., 9 bins covering 0° to 180°). The gradient magnitudes are accumulated into these bins to form a histogram, representing the dominant edge directions in the cell.
 - Block Normalization: Cells are grouped into larger regions called blocks (e.g., 2x2 cells).
 To improve robustness to lighting variations, the histograms within a block are normalized using methods like L2-Norm or L1-Norm
 - Feature Vector Formation: The normalized histograms from all blocks are concatenated into a single feature vector, which represents the HoG descriptor for the image or region



Object detection using SVM + HoG



SVM + HoG pedestrian detection result using OpenCV's implementation



